

# **Improvement of atmospheric ammonia emissions combined with satellite observations**

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## **Abstract**

The increasing of atmospheric nitrogen deposition has been becoming significant due to amount of nitrogen emissions caused by human activities in regional and global areas. At present, China has become another high nitrogen deposition region besides North America and Europe. However, a major challenge in developing effective nitrogen emission control measures is necessity of accurate assess of atmospheric nitrogen emissions in these regions. In response to this scientific problem, this project uses the mainland of China as a study area to address the lack of accuracy of atmospheric nitrogen emission inventories (EIs) and construct inventory inversion models to improve the accuracy of bottom-up emission inventories using time-series remote sensing data. Firstly, the ground-based NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations were used to assess the applicability of the long-series IASI NH<sub>3</sub> column over the whole country. The results showed that the spatial and temporal variations of IASI NH<sub>3</sub> column concentrations are consistent with those of the ground-observed NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in the study area. The NH<sub>3</sub> EI was improved using atmospheric chemical transport models and satellite observation data based on the inverse modeling (IM) approach. The near-ground observation data were used to validate the accuracy of improved NH<sub>3</sub> EI. In this study, for improvement of NH<sub>3</sub> EI, corrections of acidic gas emissions as well as those of monthly profile of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions were conducted because concentration of gaseous NH<sub>3</sub> in the atmosphere is affected not only by its emissions, but also by concentrations of acidic gases. In order to accurately assess the uncertainties in bottom-up NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in China, this study first corrects for the acidic gas (SO<sub>2</sub>) emissions before adjusting the NH<sub>3</sub> emission inventory using IM combined with the near-ground SO<sub>2</sub> observations. The simulated SO<sub>2</sub> results using the improved SO<sub>2</sub> emissions are in good spatial and temporal agreement with observations. After that, the monthly NH<sub>3</sub> emission profile was improved based on satellite observations, and the validation results based on near-ground NH<sub>3</sub> observation data showed that the reliability of the improved NH<sub>3</sub> emission inventory in terms of spatial distribution and temporal trends. Analysis of improved NH<sub>3</sub> emissions shows that NH<sub>3</sub> emissions are mainly concentrated in densely populated areas such as the North China Plain, Yangtze River Delta, Pearl River Delta, and Chengdu-Chongqing region, with emissions greater than 300 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>; in terms of recent trends, China's NH<sub>3</sub> emissions have basically stabilized at around 10 million tons/year from 2013 to 2016. The results of this study provide a scientific and effective reference basis and technical methods for improving regional research on

atmospheric nitrogen emissions and the outcomes of this project will strengthen the utilization of satellite data on regional atmospheric nitrogen cycle.

Keywords: Ground-based observations, Spaceborne remote sensing, IASI NH<sub>3</sub> columns, emission inventories, inverse modeling

## 1. Introduction

In recent decades the nitrogen gas emissions significantly increased in the atmosphere mainly due to the burning of fossil fuels, the production and use of nitrogen fertilizer, plenty of livestock breeding and other human activities. The emissions, transport, chemical conversion and the subsidence process of the reactive nitrogen has migrated and redistributed in the regional and global scale. It has become a research hotspot in the field of nitrogen cycle (Galloway et al., 2008, Lu and Tian 2007, Liu et al., 2013, Zhao et al., 2015). With the intensification of human activities, the annual global nitrogen gas emissions into the atmosphere have increased from 9.9 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> in 1860 to 74 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2010 (Fowler et al., 2013; Galloway et al., 2002), among which the total global ammonia emissions were as high as 59.3 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2020 (Sutton et al., 2013). China's total NH<sub>3</sub> emissions increased from 4.9 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> in 1980 (Kang et al., 2016) to 17.2 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2010 (Gu et al., 2013), nearly three times higher than the combined annual emissions of the European Union and the United States (6.3 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>) (Gu et al., 2013). Numerous studies have shown that the annual global deposition of reactive nitrogen into various ecosystems is as high as 43.5×10<sup>6</sup> t (Galloway and Cowling 2002, Holland et al., 1999). High nitrogen deposition not only interferes with or changes the cycling process of the regional ecosystem (Magill et al., 2000, Mo et al., 2004), but also damages the balance of the natural environment system, resulting in a series of ecological environment deterioration from the regional to the global scale (Liang et al., 2014, Liu et al., 2006). In order to relieve environmental pressure and solve the problem of high nitrogen deposition caused by human activities, accurate estimation of nitrogen gases emissions is the prerequisite and necessary basis for effective nitrogen emission reduction control measures.

There is a larger uncertainty for Chinese air pollutants emission inventories in regional and national scale, due to the incomplete coverage and complex composition of pollution sources, the rapid updating of pollution control techniques and unavailability data. The atmospheric pollutant column concentration data based on satellite remote sensing monitoring has the characteristics of wide space coverage, strong time continuity and convenient data acquisition, so as to provide a real-time and reliable reference for the improvement and update of emission inventory. Exploratory studies have been carried out to improve the accuracy of emission inventory by using satellite data (Streets et al., 2013). A number of researchers used NO<sub>2</sub> data from satellite observations to retrieve NO<sub>x</sub> emission inventories in the world (Martin et al., 2006), Europe (Zyrichidou et al., 2014) and Asia (Kurokawa et al., 2009; Zhao and Wang 2009) and achieved good results. In China, Zhang et al. (2007) calculated the NO<sub>x</sub> emission trend from 1995 to 2004 and evaluated them using NO<sub>2</sub> observed by satellite. Lin et al. (2012) used NO<sub>2</sub> data from satellite observations to invert NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from human activities, lightning and soil in eastern China in 2006. The preliminary results show that the top-down source emission inventory inversion model based on satellite observation data can well reduce the

uncertainty in the inventory and improve the accuracy and reliability of the simulation results of atmospheric nitrogen deposition. This study uses satellite remote sensing data and inversion model to improve the accuracy of  $\text{NH}_3$  emission inventory in order to provide data support for regional atmospheric nitrogen emission management.

## 2. Data and Methodology

### 2.1 The procedures for improvement of emissions

The schematic diagram of this study as shown in Figure 1-1. As discussion above, the concentration of gaseous  $\text{NH}_3$  in the atmosphere is affected not only by its emissions, but also by concentrations of acidic gases. Therefore, there were two steps for improving  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions. Firstly,  $\text{SO}_2$  emission was adjusted based on the near-ground observations using inverse model. Then spatial pattern and monthly profile of  $\text{NH}_3$  were adjusted based on satellite data. The collected near-ground  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations was used to validate the simulated concentrations based on the improved emission inventory ( $E''$ ).

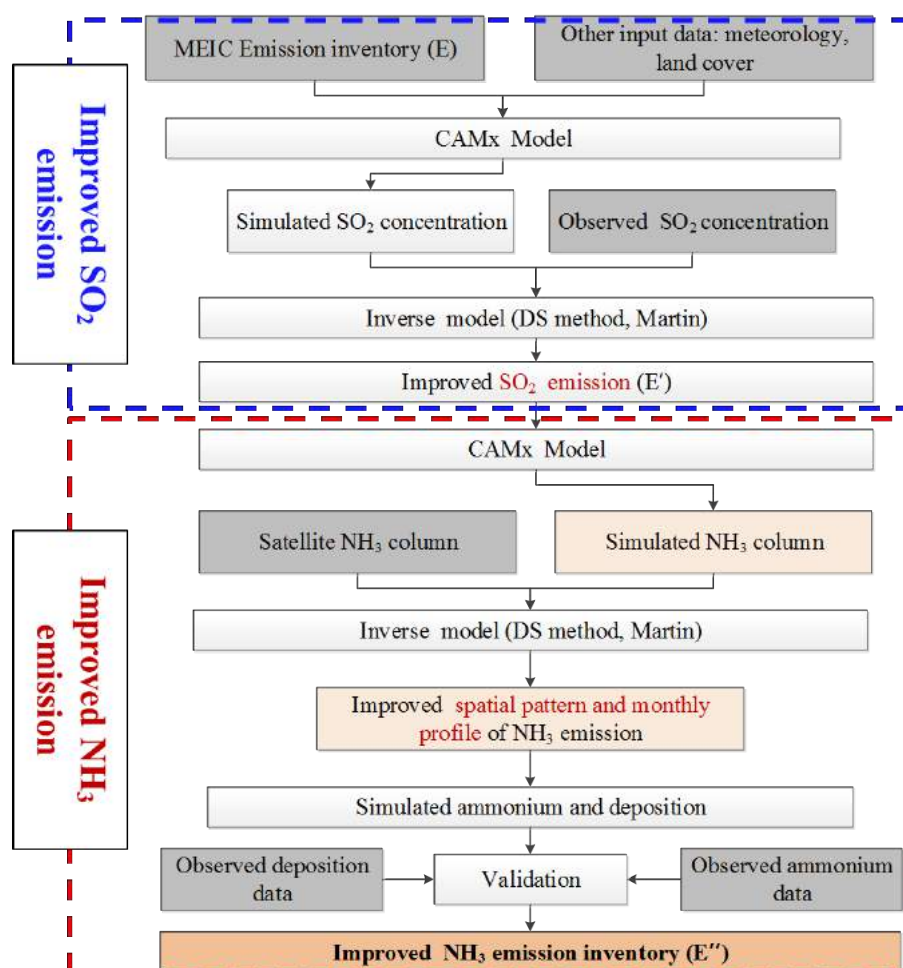


Figure 1-1. Schematic diagram of this study.

### 2.2 Study area

In this study, inversion of nitrogen emissions and deposition were carried out in mainland China. Considering that the monitoring of major air pollutants in China began to be routinely

monitored in 2013, in order to better verify the simulation results of the model with ground monitoring data, the simulation period of this study was selected from January 2013 to December 2016, for a total of 48 months (4 years). China's land use types and population distribution in 2010 are shown in Figure 2-1. The altitude of China has been descending from west to east. The mountainous area of China accounts for 2/3 of the total area of the country and has advantages in the development of forestry, stock farming, tourism and mining. The plain area only accounts for 1/3 of the total area of China. The Northeast Plain, the North China Plain and the Middle-Lower Yangtze plains are the three great plains in China. They are all distributed in the east of China. From the perspective of population distribution, China's population is concentrated in the east of the "Heihe-Tengchong" line proposed by Hu Huanyong (She W, 1998), presenting a multi-center of spatial and agminated pattern. The population density is generally above 500 people /km<sup>2</sup>, among which the Yangtze River Delta, Pearl River Delta, Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei and Chengdu-Chongqing regions are highly densely populated areas over than 1000 people /km<sup>2</sup>.

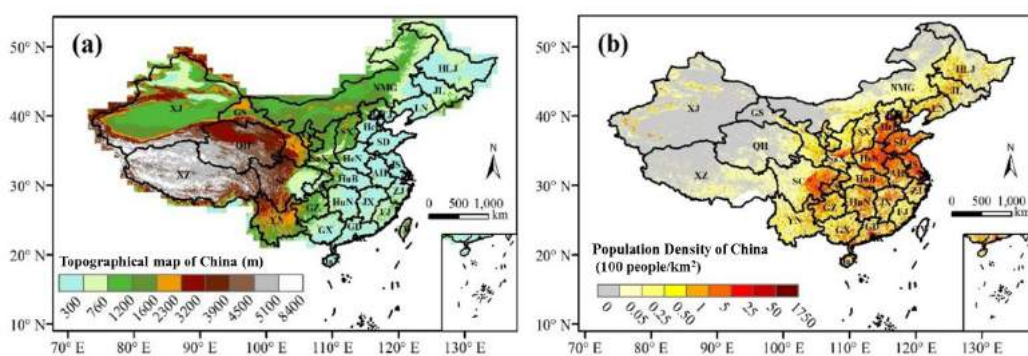


Figure 2-1. Topographic of China (a) and population distribution of 2010 (b).

### 2.3 Emission inventory

The initial NH<sub>3</sub> emission inventory from 2008 to 2016 is derived from the MEIC inventory produced by Tsinghua University. MEIC is built based on INTEX -B data set and updated based on the Technical guidelines for the compilation of emission inventories of air pollutant sources released by Ministry of ecology and environment of China (MEE) (MEE, 2015), with involving energy, industrial, residential, agriculture, road and off-road vehicles, biomass combustion sources, etc. The air pollutants of MEIC include SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, CO, NMVOC, PM<sub>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, BC, OC, NH<sub>3</sub>, etc (Liu et al., 2015). MEIC is considered to be the first air pollutants emission inventory in China based on a consistent methodology and widely used in national air quality improvement management (Liu et al., 2015; Cheng et al., 2017; Zheng et al, 2017). NH<sub>3</sub> emission inventory is developed by Peking University and constantly updated to improve the spatio-temporal resolution, which has been verified through a number of studies (Huang et al., 2012; Kang et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017). MEIC is updated every two years and provides gridded emission data with a spatial resolution of 0.25°×0.25°.

The simulation period of this study is from 2013 to 2016, and the region is in mainland China. The original data of source emission inventory is based on 2012-2016 MEIC emission inventory, and emissions in 2008 of REAS 2.1 (Kurokawa et al., 2013) was used as foreign source inventory data. The input emission inventory file for CAMx model was integrated into model grid after time profile, species allocation and grid processing. The main sources include

industry, traffic, residential sources, agriculture, power plant sources, etc. Figure 2-2 shows the distribution of annual emissions per unit area of  $\text{NH}_3$  (unit:  $\text{kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ). It can be seen that  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions are concentrated in densely populated areas such as the North China Plain, Yangtze River Delta, Pearl River Delta and Sichuan Basin, and emit more than  $40 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ .

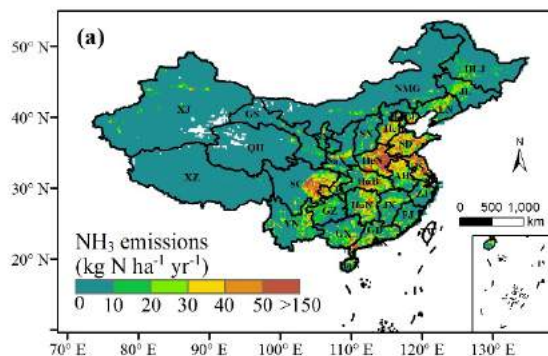


Figure 2-2. Spatial distribution of  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions based on MEIC inventory of China in 2014.

## 2.4 Tropospheric $\text{NH}_3$ column observed by satellite

The  $\text{NH}_3$  satellite observations used in this study were obtained from a new generation of ultra-high spectral Atmospheric detector — Infrared Atmospheric Detector Interferometer (IASI), which is one of the key instrument aboard MeTOP-A launched in October 2006. MeTOP-A passes from north to south over the equator at 09:30 per day and measures the infrared radiation emitted by the earth's surface and atmosphere (Clarisse et al., 2009). The detection wavelength range of the IASI is 362 nm-1550 nm, the spectral resolution is 8-70nm, and the spatial resolution in nadir is 12 km and increases to 39 km and 20 km for edges (Van Damme et al., 2015). The temporal resolution is twice a day, and the transit time is usually 09:30 and 21:30 in local time. IASI- $\text{NH}_3$  product is based on the calculation of hyperspectral range index, which is converted into  $\text{NH}_3$  column through neural network algorithm and the detailed method can be seen in Whitburn et al. (2016). Some studies have found that the thermal contrast is higher in the morning of a day, and the satellite is more sensitive to  $\text{NH}_3$  at the morning transit (Van Damme et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2017a, b). In this study, we will further verify the applicability of tropospheric IASI- $\text{NH}_3$  columns in China. The satellite-based  $\text{NH}_3$  column concentration data product is the daily mean value of L2 data obtained from the Website IASI (<https://iasi.aeris-data.fr/NH3/>), with a spatial resolution of  $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ . The data period used in this paper is 1 January 2008 to December 31, 2016. Only the observation results with a cloud coverage of less than 25% and an absolute error of less than  $5 \times 10^{15} \text{ mole cm}^{-2}$  were selected. In data processing, the daily average of observation points in each grid cell is used to calculate the monthly arithmetic average. Similarly, we calculate the annual mean by averaging the daily mean of the observation points in the grid cell throughout the year.

## 2.5 Near-ground verification data set

The data from Chinese Nationwide Nitrogen Deposition Monitoring Network (NNDMN) (provided by Agricultural University of China) were used to assess the applicability of IASI satellite  $\text{NH}_3$  column on different land covers in China. NNDMN monitoring is in line with international standards, and monitoring sites are as far away from local direct emission sources

as possible to improve regional representation. According to their geographical location and proximity to major emission sources, they can be divided into three categories: urban stations, rural stations and background stations. A detailed description of all sites, including the surrounding environment and nearby emission sources, can be found in Xu et al. (2015, 2018). In this study, the monthly mean of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration over different land covers of 25 stations from 2010 to 2015 was used (Table 2-1), and its spatial distribution is shown in Figure 2-3.

Table 2-1. Station information of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration observation.

Land cover types	Sites	Lon	Lat	Period
Urban regions	CAU	116.28°E	40.02°N	Apr.2010-Dec.2015
	ZZ	113.63°E	34.75°N	May.2010-Dec.2015
	DL	121.58°E	38.92°N	Sep.2010-Dec.2015
	NJ	118.85°E	31.84°N	Jan.2011-Dec.2011, Jan.2015-Dec.2015
	BY	113.27°E	23.16°N	May.2010-Dec.2015
	WJ	103.84°E	30.55°N	Oct.2010-Dec.2015
Rural regions	SZ	116.20°E	40.11°N	Apr.2010-Dec.2015
	QZ	114.94°E	36.78°N	Apr.2010-Dec.2015
	YQ	112.89°E	38.05°N	Apr.2010-Dec.2015
	YL	108.01°E	34.31°N	Apr.2010-Dec.2015
	YC	116.63°E	36.94°N	Sep.2012-Dec.2015
	GZL	124.83°E	43.53°N	Jul.2010-Dec.2015
	LS	124.17°E	43.36°N	Jul.2010-Dec.2015
	WX	115.79°E	30.01°N	Aug.2011-Dec.2015
	TJ	111.97°E	28.61°N	Oct.2010-Dec.2015
	ZZ	110.33°E	21.26°N	Aug.2010-Dec.2015
	FZ	119.36°E	26.17°N	Apr.2010-Dec.2015
	FH	121.53°E	29.61°N	Aug.2010-Dec.2015
	ZY	104.63°E	30.13°N	Jul.2010-Dec.2015
Background	YT	105.47°E	31.28°N	May.2011-Dec.2013
	JJ	106.18°E	29.06°N	Jan.2013-Dec.2015
	HN	113.41°E	28.52°N	Sep.2010-Dec.2015
	XS	113.31°E	28.61°N	Sep.2010-Dec.2015
	LSD	120.18°E	35.77°N	Feb.2011-Dec.2015
	CD	120.75°E	37.93°N	Sep.2010-Dec.2015

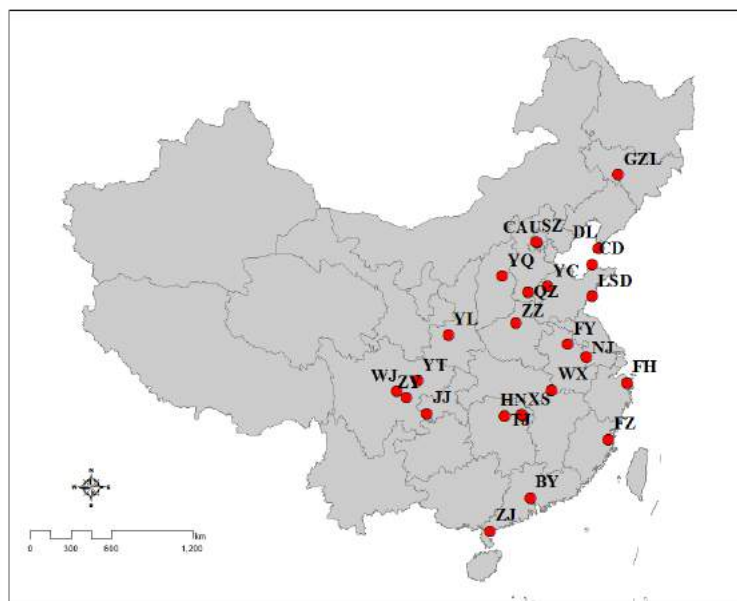


Figure 2-3. Spatial distribution of NNDMN network stations.

## 2.6 Description of Chemical Transport Model

We employed the WRF-CAMx model for simulating the effects of  $\text{NH}_3$  emission improvement. CAMx is the third generation of three-dimensional model for air quality developed by ENVIRON company in the United States. It can simulate the emission, transport, chemical reaction and removal of pollutants in the troposphere, and apply to the comprehensive simulation study of photochemical smog and fine particulate air pollution at multiple scales. The meteorological data is provided by the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model. In this study, the areas of simulation covered the whole China, Northeast Asia and parts of Southeast Asia with a horizontal grid resolution is  $36 \text{ km} \times 36 \text{ km}$ . The model is setup with 20 terrain-following hydrostatic vertical pressure ( $\sigma$ ) coordinates.

## 2.7 Method of inversion model

Inversion model algorithm includes linear and nonlinear. Nonlinear algorithm including Kalman filter and the four-dimensional variational assimilation, the advantage of these two methods are to consider the chemical conversion process and the sensitivity analysis for different emission source contribution rate. Therefore, these two methods involve more variables and large amount of calculation and are generally used in a short time, small scale regional emissions improvement. The linear algorithm mainly refers to the method used by Martin et al. (2003, 2008) in the inversion of  $\text{NO}_2$  emission inventory. Based on the principle of substance conservation, the inversion of pollutant emissions involves fewer parameters and requires less calculation. In this paper, a linear algorithm was selected to correct and improve of MEIC  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions. The equation is shown as following:

$$E' = E_b \times \frac{\Omega_s}{\Omega_m} \quad \dots\dots\dots(2.1)$$

Thus,  $E'$  is the improved  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions,  $\Omega_s$  is the IASI  $\text{NH}_3$  columns,  $\Omega_m$  is the simulated  $\text{NH}_3$  columns,  $E_b$  is the initial emissions.

The method is developed based on a global model with a coarse resolution grid and assumes that the pollutants concentration in the air for each model grid is not affected by the

emissions from the surrounding grid. However, in the regional model with relatively fine resolution grid, this assumption may not be true. When the lifetime of pollutants in the atmosphere is longer than the horizontal transmission time, there will be spatial dispersion error (Martin et al., 2003; Boersma et al., 2008; Lamsal et al., 2010; Turner et al., 2012).

### **3. Verification of IASI NH<sub>3</sub>**

Although the product of IASI NH<sub>3</sub> have been compared with the near-ground NH<sub>3</sub> concentration by some researchers in different spatial and temporal scale, considering that NH<sub>3</sub> column observed by satellite is the key data source of inverse model in this study, this part further evaluates the applicability and reliability of the newest IASI NH<sub>3</sub> products in a long time and nationwide scale using relatively accurate ground observation NH<sub>3</sub> concentration.

#### **3.1 NH<sub>3</sub> satellite product selection**

Now there are two products of IASI NH<sub>3</sub> with different algorithm: one is the NH<sub>3</sub> column retrieved in real time, labeled as IASI\_NH<sub>3</sub>\_v1; the other is retrieved in real time, which can be further corrected based on reanalysis of temperature and relative temperature profile to obtain a more accurate NH<sub>3</sub> column product, labeled as IASI\_NH<sub>3</sub>\_R. The spatial distribution of this two products are shown in Figure 3-1. They are basically the same, but the value of IASI\_NH<sub>3</sub>\_R column is higher than IASI\_NH<sub>3</sub>\_v1 in east of China.



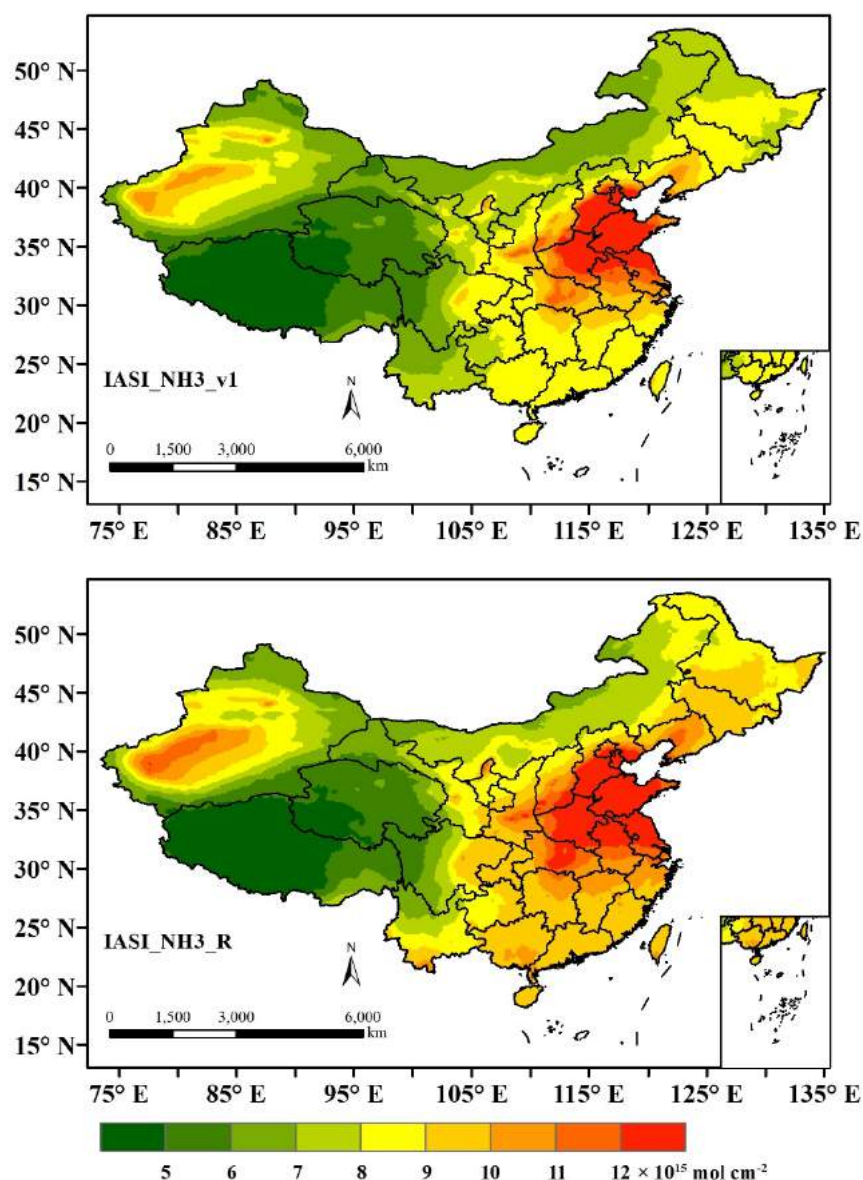


Figure 3-1. Comparison between IASI-NH<sub>3</sub>-v1 (top) and IASI\_NH<sub>3</sub>\_R (down) NH<sub>3</sub> products in China.

The correlation between IASI\_NH<sub>3</sub>\_R and IASI\_NH<sub>3</sub>\_v1 products is shown in Figure 3-2. The overall correlation between them is good, with a correlation coefficient of 0.93. From the distribution of values, IASI\_NH<sub>3</sub>\_R product was significantly higher than IASI\_NH<sub>3</sub>\_v1 when it was over  $12 \times 10^{15}$  mole cm<sup>-2</sup>, and lower than IASI\_NH<sub>3</sub>\_v1 product while less than  $12 \times 10^{15}$  mole cm<sup>-2</sup>. It can be seen that IASI\_NH<sub>3</sub>\_R product has a wide range of concentration values, which can better reflect the spatio-temporal heterogeneity of atmospheric NH<sub>3</sub>.

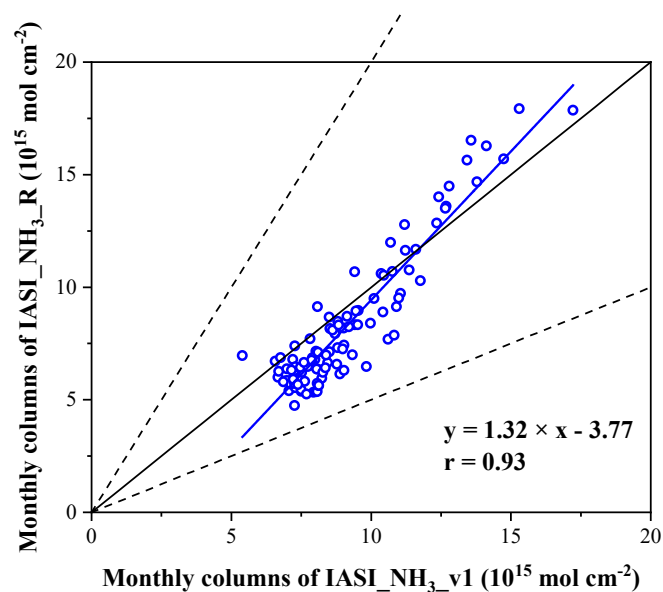


Figure 3-2. Scatter plot of monthly  $\text{NH}_3$  columns between IASI- $\text{NH}_3$ -v1 and IASI- $\text{NH}_3$ \_R in China.

### 3.2 Validation of IASI $\text{NH}_3$

As above result, IASI- $\text{NH}_3$ \_R was selected in this study to analyze the distribution characteristics of  $\text{NH}_3$  in the atmosphere in China. In order to assess the accuracy of IASI- $\text{NH}_3$ \_R products, the monthly mean IASI  $\text{NH}_3$  columns were compared by the near-ground monthly mean  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations on 25 NNDMN sites in eastern China.

Figure 3-3 shows the comparison of the annual mean value (Figure 3-3 a) and growth rate (Figure 3-3 b) between IASI  $\text{NH}_3$  column and NNDMN  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration. Figure 3-3 c, d show the corresponding scatter distribution, linear regression fitting and correlation coefficient. From 2010 to 2015, the annual average  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration and its growth rate (Figure 3-3 a, b) in satellite and near-ground observations show similar spatial patterns, and the higher values appears in North China. There was a significant positive correlation between IASI  $\text{NH}_3$  column and NNDMN  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration ( $r=0.71$ ,  $p<0.001$ , Figure 3-3 c). These results indicate that the accuracy of IASI  $\text{NH}_3$  reanalysis product is consistent with that of IASI  $\text{NH}_3$  product in near real-time (Van Damme et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2018), but the former is more suitable for evaluating interannual changes and trends (Van Damme et al., 2017). In addition, the annual growth rate between satellite and ground observations was significantly positive ( $r=0.81$ ,  $p<0.001$ , Figure 3-3 d). The above results indicate that IASI  $\text{NH}_3$  can better reflect the spatial pattern and annual variation trend of atmospheric  $\text{NH}_3$  in China.

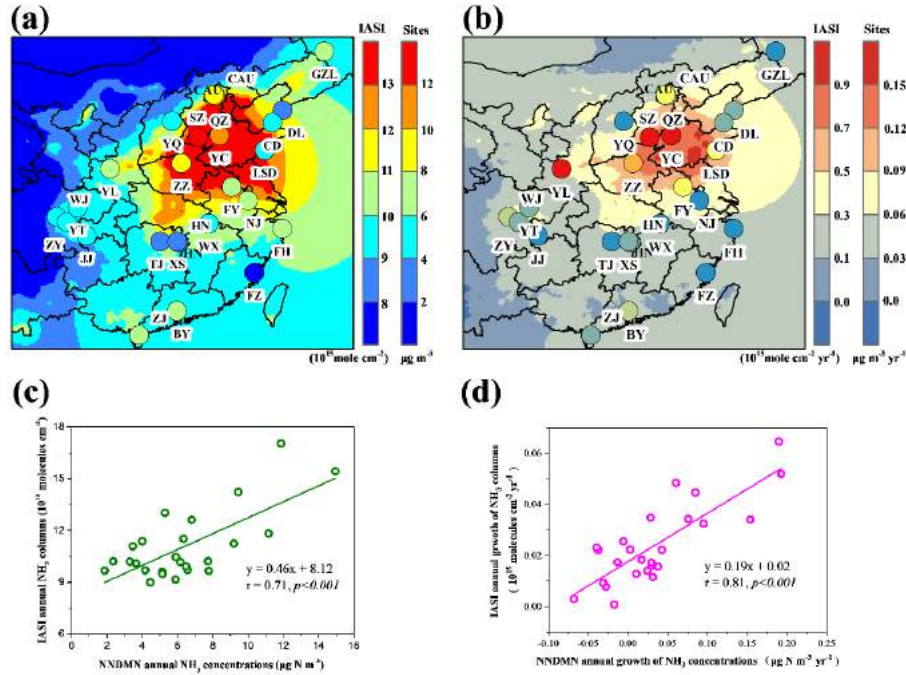


Figure 3-3. Spatial variation of atmospheric  $\text{NH}_3$  in eastern China: (a) annual means of NNDMN  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations vs. IASI\_ $\text{NH}_3$ \_R columns; (b) annual growth rates of NNDMN  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations vs. reanalyzed IASI\_ $\text{NH}_3$ \_R columns; (c) relationship between annual means of NNDMN\_ $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations vs. IASI\_ $\text{NH}_3$ \_R columns; (d) relationship between annual growth rates of NNDMN\_ $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations vs. IASI\_ $\text{NH}_3$ \_R columns.

## 4. Results and discussions

### 4.1 Comparison of tropospheric $\text{NH}_3$ column based on initial EI with satellite observations

The temporal comparison between simulated troposphere  $\text{NH}_3$  columns based on MEIC in China during 2013-2016 and IASI  $\text{NH}_3$  observations columns is shown in Figure 4-1. Simulated  $\text{NH}_3$  columns are obviously lower than IASI  $\text{NH}_3$  columns. the monthly differences between them ranged from  $-18 \sim -2 \times 10^{15} \text{ mole cm}^{-2}$  and have significant seasonal trend with higher in summer and lower in winter.

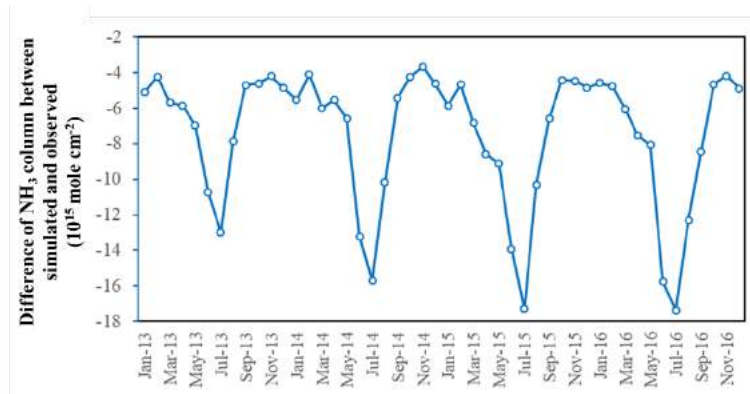


Figure 4-1. Difference of monthly  $\text{NH}_3$  column between MEIC simulation and IASI observation.

The spatial comparison between simulated tropospheric  $\text{NH}_3$  columns based on MEIC in China during 2013-2016 and IASI  $\text{NH}_3$  observations columns is shown in Figure 4-2. Simulated tropospheric  $\text{NH}_3$  column over China are lower than IASI  $\text{NH}_3$  observations, spatially in Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei and its surrounding region (BTHs), Yangtze River Delta (YRD), Fenhe-Weihe Basin (FWB), Northeast China (NEC), South China (SC) and Xinjiang oasis agriculture area (XJO). According to the physical and chemical processes of  $\text{NH}_3$  in the atmosphere, there are two possible reasons for the underestimation of simulated  $\text{NH}_3$  column. One is that the underestimation of  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions, and the other is that the overestimation of acidic gases emission in the atmosphere which leads to the underestimation of  $\text{NH}_3$  column concentration.

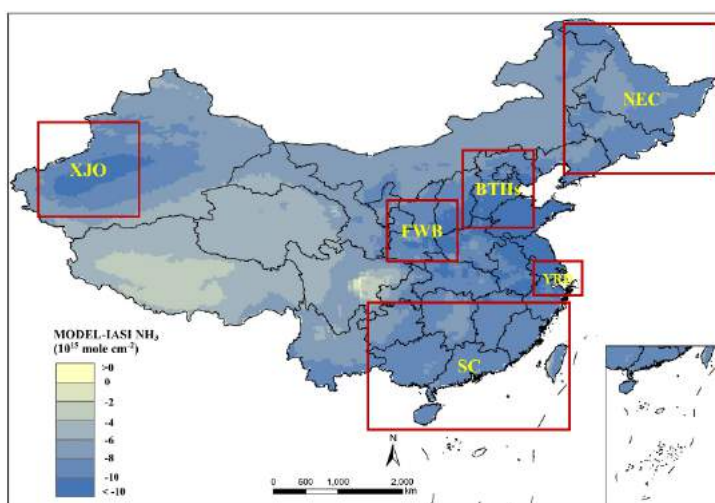


Figure 4-2. Differences of  $\text{NH}_3$  column between MEIC simulation and IASI observation.

#### 4.2 Improvement of $\text{NH}_3$ emissions

As discussed in section 4.1.1, there is great uncertainty in the quantitative analysis of  $\text{NH}_3$  column between simulated results based on MEIC and IASI observation. The results of several  $\text{NH}_3$  emission inventories (Huang et al., 2012; Kang et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2017a, 2017b, 2019) show that amount of China's  $\text{NH}_3$  emission is about 10 million tons/year. While the total emission of  $\text{NH}_3$  in MEIC is consistent with the other research results, it is possible that the low simulated  $\text{NH}_3$  column may be caused by the overestimated emission of acid gas (such as  $\text{SO}_2$ ). Therefore, the method of improving  $\text{NH}_3$  emission is mainly divided into two steps: firstly, the  $\text{SO}_2$  emissions as a key acid gas in the air was adjusted based on near-ground observation; then, spatial and monthly profile of  $\text{NH}_3$  emission will be improved based on the variation of monthly IASI  $\text{NH}_3$  columns.

According to the process of atmospheric chemistry,  $\text{NH}_3$  is the key alkaline gas in the atmosphere, and its emissions mainly come from agriculture such as fertilizer and livestock (Xu et al., 2016). In the atmosphere,  $\text{NH}_3$  can neutralize with  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  and  $\text{HNO}_3$  to produce ammonium sulfate and ammonium nitrate (Lanniello et al., 2010). These aerosols are the main components of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  with accounting for 20%-60% of the  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentrations (Shen et al., 2014; Tao et al., 2012). So, the concentration of gaseous  $\text{NH}_3$  in the atmosphere is affected not only by emissions, but also by the amount of acid gases in the atmosphere. In order to accurately assess  $\text{NH}_3$  emission changes in China by inversion method described in Sect. 2.7,

acidic gases and their precursors ( $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{SO}_2$ ) were first corrected in this study.

Based on the linear correction method of Martin et al. (2003, 2006),  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{SO}_2$  emissions were corrected using the data from the Environmental Air quality monitoring Network of China Monitoring Station. The distribution of air quality monitoring stations is shown in Figure 4-3. The time resolution is the monthly average, and the time is from 2013 to 2016.

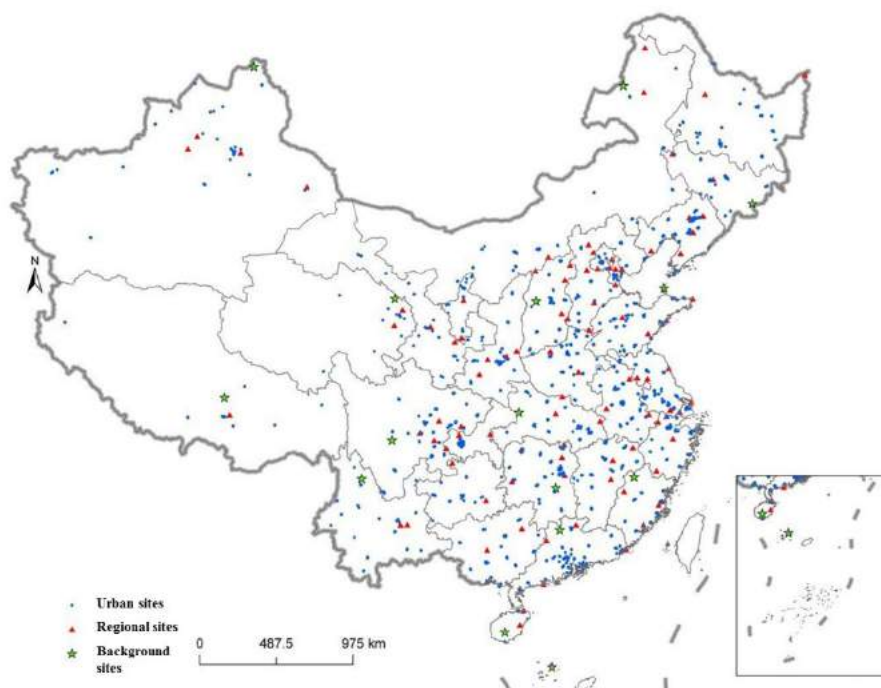


Figure 4-3. Spatial distribution of stations for air quality sites in China.

#### 4.2.1 Validation the $\text{NO}_x$ emissions

Based on the MEIC inventory,  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations were simulated from 2013 to 2016. The comparison between the simulated and observed monthly average  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations was shown in Figure 4-4 in typical cities (Beijing, Tangshan, Tianjin, and Shijiazhuang). The results indicate that the simulated  $\text{NO}_2$  based on MEIC are basically consistent with the trend of the observed values, and both show obvious seasonal variation characteristics, with low summer and high winter. In terms of annual changes, both the observed and simulated  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations decreased year by year from 2013 to 2016, with a significant decreasing trend. The uncertainty of simulated  $\text{NO}_2$  concentration in the four cities ranged from 8% to 45%.



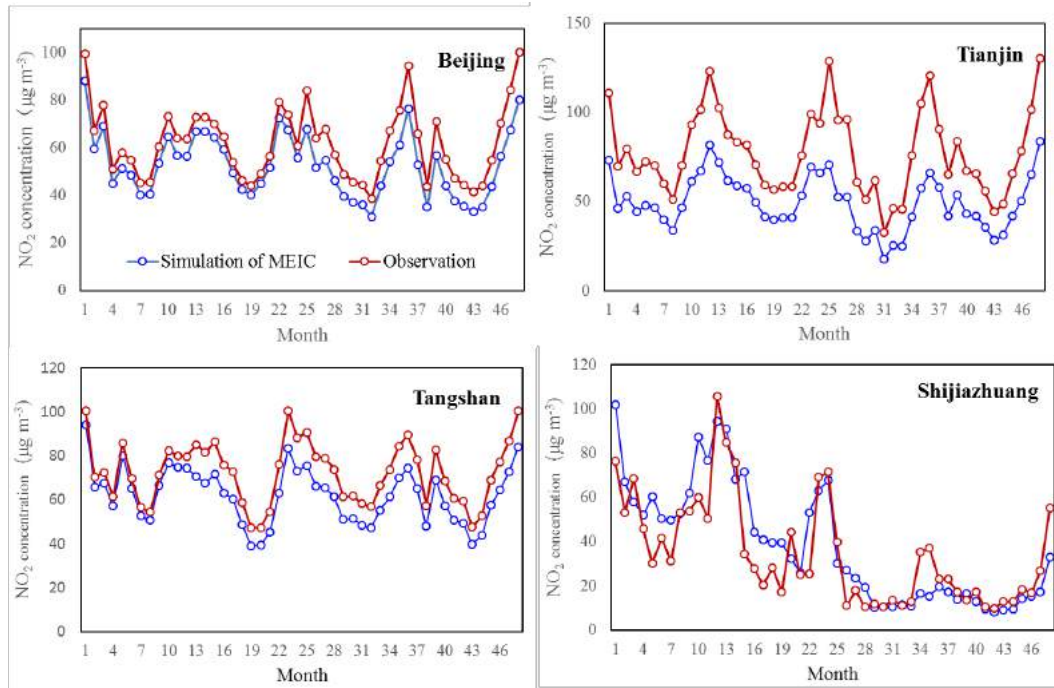


Figure 4-4. The comparison between the simulated and observed monthly average  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations in typical cities.

The scatter validation result of the simulated  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations based on MEIC is shown in Figure 4-5. The simulated  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations are underestimated (43%) compared to the measured values, and the underestimation is mainly found in the values of less than  $40 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ . In general, the simulated values are in good agreement with the observed values ( $R^2=0.55$ ).

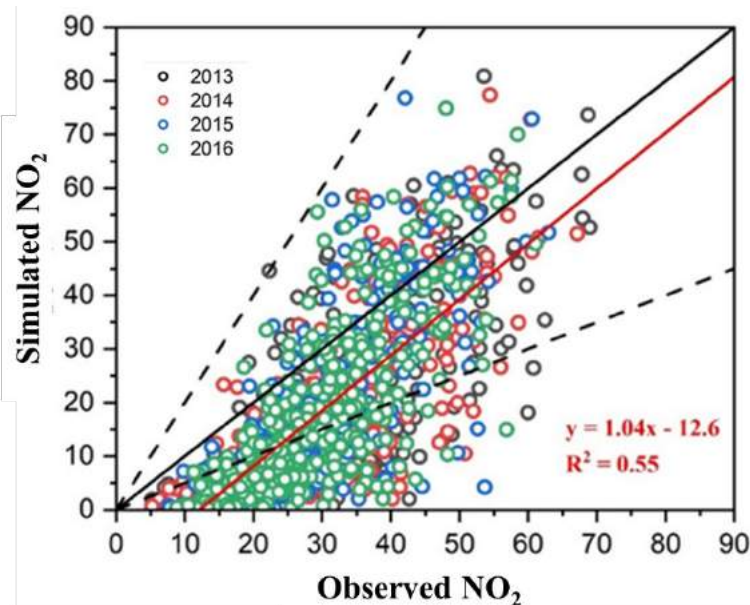


Figure 4-5. The scatter validation result of the simulated  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations based on MEIC from 2013 to 2016.

#### 4.2.2 Improvement of $\text{SO}_2$ emissions

##### a. Correction coefficient matrix of $\text{SO}_2$

Due to the obvious spatial heterogeneity of ground monitoring sites (Figure 4-6), there are densely in eastern of China and rare in western of China. For reducing the error caused by the uneven distribution of site data, the mean of city was calculated, and then compared with the initial simulation results in order to obtain the correction coefficient matrix for spatial variability from 2013 to 2016. The results are shown in Figure 4-4. From The result shows that, except for a few cities, the SO<sub>2</sub> emission correction coefficient for most cities in China is less than 1, indicating the overestimation of the SO<sub>2</sub> emissions. The SO<sub>2</sub> correction coefficient of northeast China, Gansu Province and cities in southern China exceeds 4, indicating that the SO<sub>2</sub> emissions in these cities are underestimated.

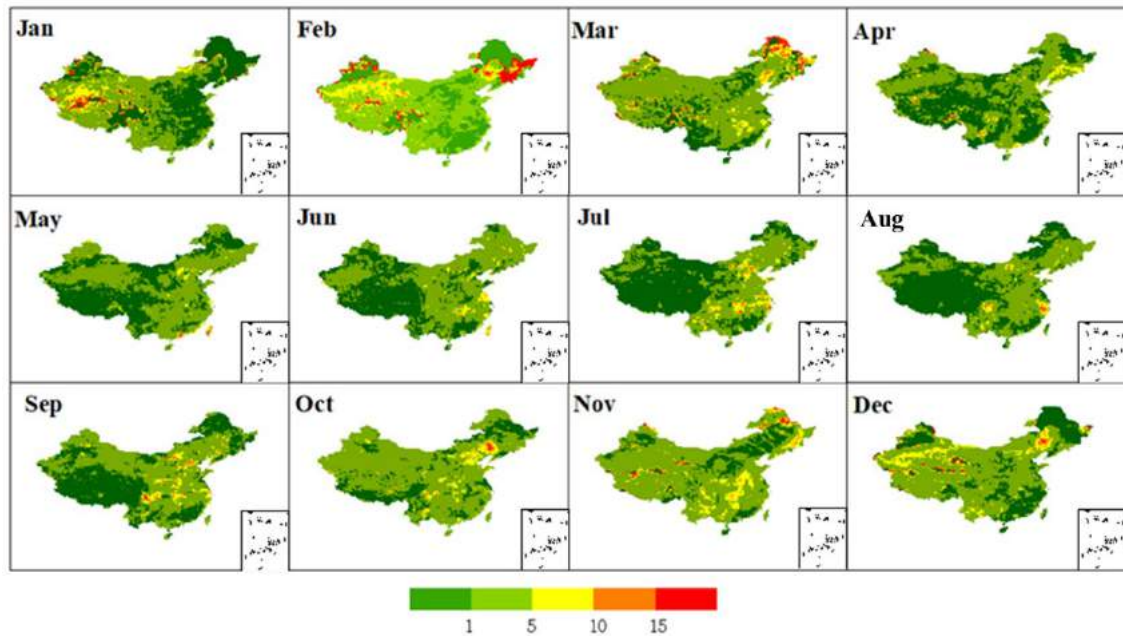


Figure 4-6. Monthly correction coefficient matrix of SO<sub>2</sub> based on initial simulation and observation.

#### b. Validation of the result

Based on the above space correction factors, the 2013–2016 emissions inventories were corrected and developed using the Inverse model. Figure4-7 shows the observed SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in Chinese cities and the spatial distribution of the annual averages of simulated SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations before and after the inventories were corrected. According to the figures, the North China Plain, the Fenhe-Weihe River Plain, Northeast China, Xinjiang and Inner Mongolia are among the regions which mainly posted high observed concentrations of SO<sub>2</sub>; the concentrations decreased year by year from 2013 to 2016 with a notable downward trend. It can be seen from the pre-correction EI simulations that the spatial distribution of high SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations throughout China was similar to the observations, yet the concentrations were higher than the observations and did not change greatly year by year. The simulated spatial distribution of SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the post-correction EIs was roughly consistent with the observations, and the concentrations declined obviously year by year; but the SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in Qinghai were overestimated to a degree, possibly owing to the comparatively smaller amount of observation data. On the whole, the post-correction SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations featured good temporal-spatial coherence with the observations.

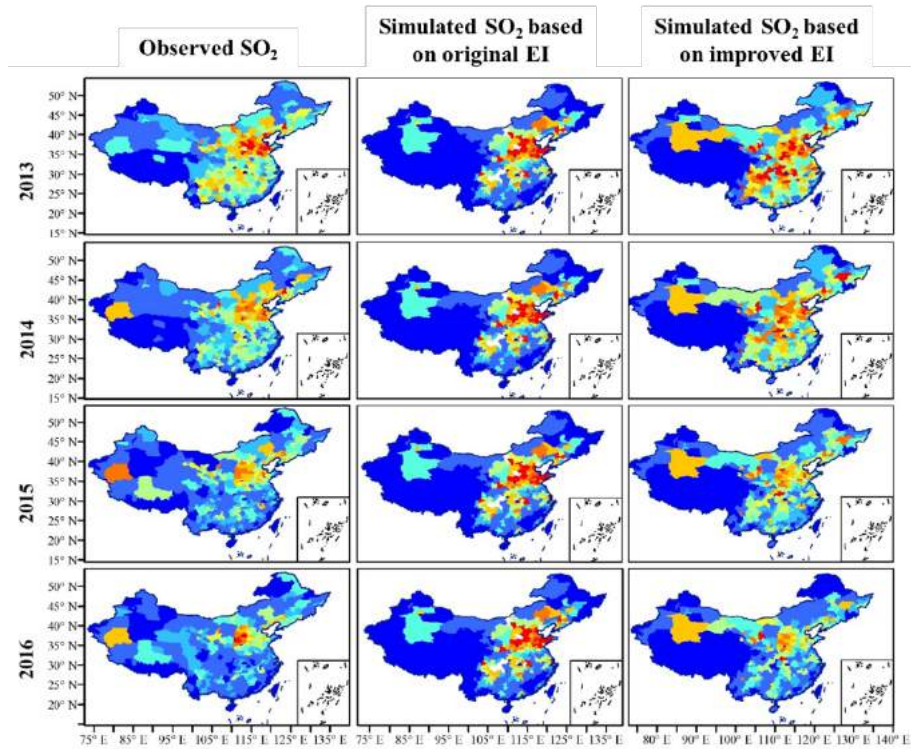


Figure 4-7. Spatial distribution of SO<sub>2</sub> measured concentration and simulated concentration before and after inventory correction in China from 2013 to 2016.

It is found from a comparison between the simulated and the observed monthly average concentrations of SO<sub>2</sub> in typical cities such as Beijing, Tangshan, Tianjin and Shijiazhuang during 2013–2016 (Figure 4-8) that modified simulated results were roughly consistent with corresponding observations and both showed significant seasonal variations (low in summer and high in winter). In terms of annual changes, both the observed and the simulated concentrations of SO<sub>2</sub> were on a striking decline from 2013 through to 2016. With respect to absolute concentrations, the simulated SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the four cities were overestimated by 6%–44%.



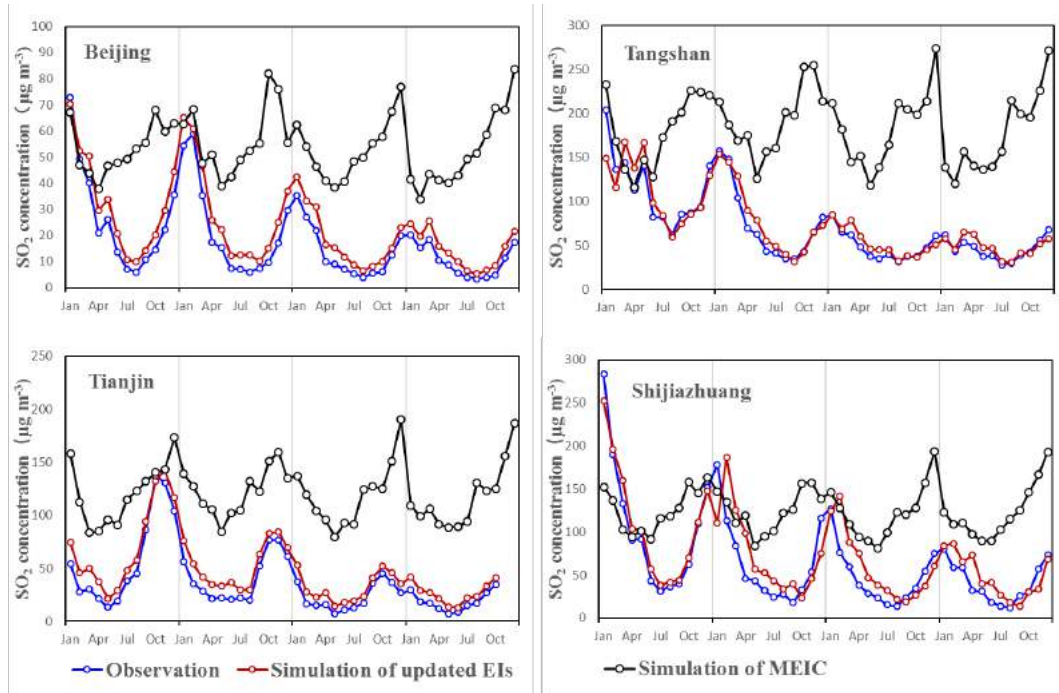


Figure 4-8. Comparison of simulation and observation of monthly average concentration by original and improved  $\text{SO}_2$  inventory in typical cities in during 2013-2016.

The  $\text{SO}_2$  EIs after correction were made much more precise, judging from the scatter plot of simulations vs observations (Figure 4-9). The annual average concentrations of  $\text{SO}_2$  simulated in the original EIs were notably overestimated, while the simulated and observed concentrations had a low correlation to each other. The annual average concentrations of  $\text{SO}_2$  simulated in the corrected EIs were of the same order of magnitude as the observations, and the correlation coefficient between the two reached 0.6, marking an obvious improvement and the simulations roughly in line with the observations.

Therefore, both spatial distribution and time variation justify the consistency between the post-correction  $\text{SO}_2$  emissions and the actual results. On this basis, the  $\text{NH}_3$  emission can be improved as the next step.

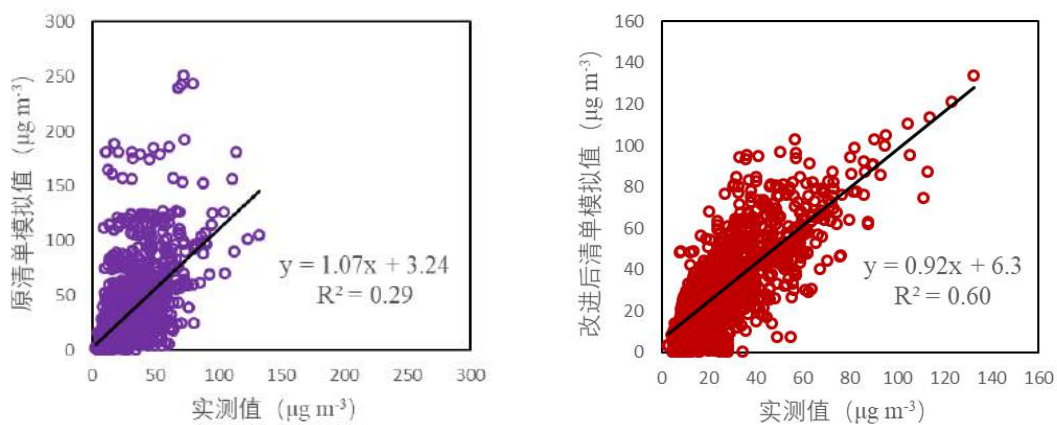


Figure 4-9. Verification of  $\text{SO}_2$  simulated concentration between original inventory (left) and corrected inventory (right).

#### 4.2.3 Correction of the monthly profiles of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions

Based on the relationship between monthly and annual concentrations observed by the satellites, a correction factors matrix for the 2013–2016 NH<sub>3</sub> emissions inventories reflecting the monthly changes was constructed. See Figure 4-10 for the results of 2014. Figure 4-8 shows the monthly profiles of NH<sub>3</sub> columns in China, which have obvious temporal and spatial variations. In summer months (June–August) it have the maximum percentage of NH<sub>3</sub> columns throughout a year, i.e. more than 10 percent in most parts of China and even over 20 percent in North China and Northeast China. However, NH<sub>3</sub> columns in each of all the other months contributed less than 10 percent to the annual total. Where, NH<sub>3</sub> columns in North China in autumn and winter made up for less than five percent in the annual total.

As discussed above, the concentration of atmospheric NH<sub>3</sub> is affected not only by NH<sub>3</sub> emissions but also by the concentration of acid gases. Considering the work above, SO<sub>2</sub> emission has been improved and the NO<sub>x</sub> emission is reasonable. In this step, the main reason for the uncertainty of simulated NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations is the NH<sub>3</sub> emissions. In this step, we assume that the different in observed data is the same as the difference in emissions. So the monthly value of NH<sub>3</sub> emission in MEIC was reassignment according to the correction factors matrix based on observed data.

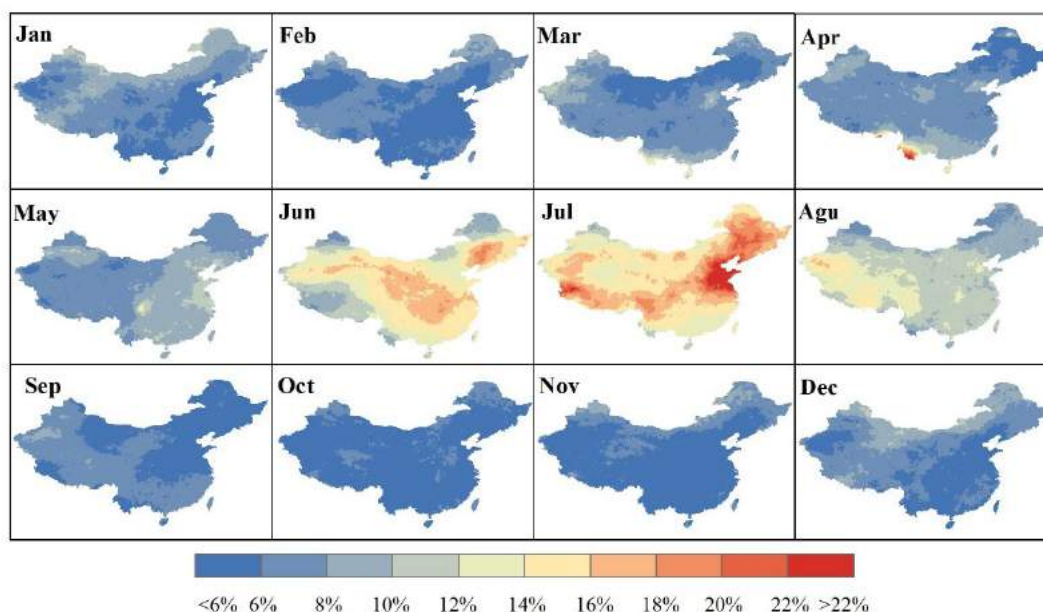


Figure 4-10. Monthly correction coefficient matrix of NH<sub>3</sub> emission inventory based on initial simulation and observation in 2014.

#### 4.2.4 Validation of the NH<sub>3</sub> simulations

See Figure 4-11 for the validation results of model-simulated monthly NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations during 2013-2015 and Figure 4-12 for the validation parameters. After the EIs were corrected, the simulated NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations of most stations fell within the range of deviations, but those of a few stations were significantly overestimated or underestimated. For example, the simulated concentrations of QZ and WW stations were significantly underestimated, even beyond the range of deviations, while the simulations of LSD, CD and DL stations were overestimated to varying degrees.

Compared with the simulations of the original emissions inventories (Figure 4-11), in spite of the differences in the simulated and observed results in a few areas at certain time intervals, the overall results were satisfying. Most stations reported the average relative deviation of simulations at a range of -37 percent to 57 percent and the average relative error at a range of 46 percent to 73 percent. Only a very few stations were outside the two ranges.

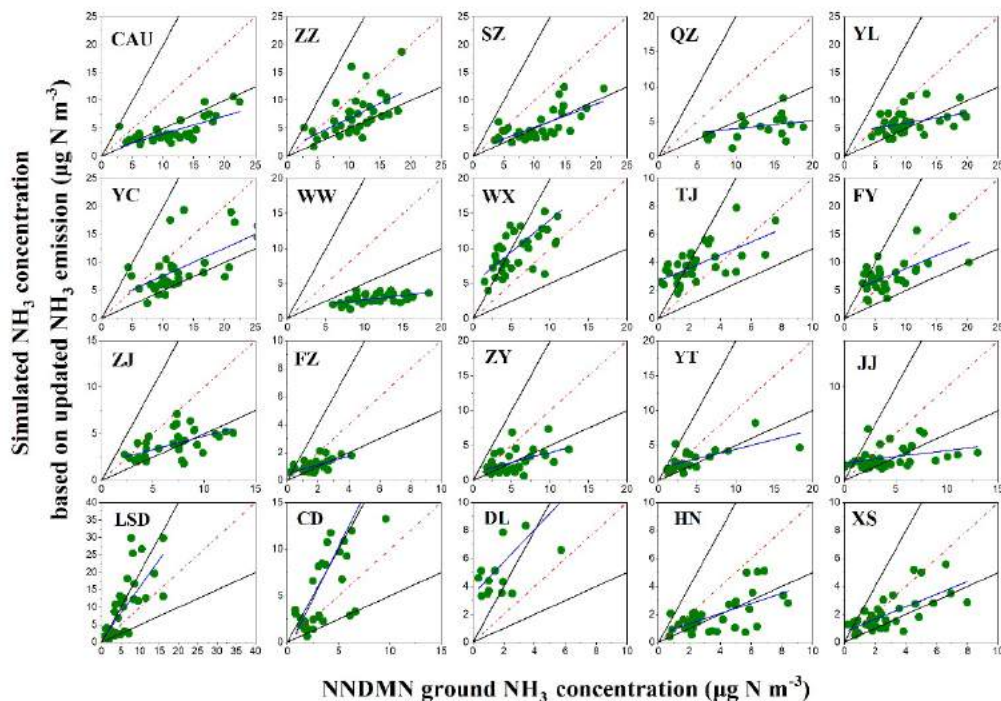


Figure 4-11. Comparison of simulated  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration by corrected emission inventory with NNDMN station observed concentration.

Table 4-1. Parameter table of simulation concentration verification.

	Numbers	Intercept	Slope	r	p Value
CAU	35	0.81	0.32	0.72	<0.01
ZZ	36	1.48	0.53	0.58	<0.01
SZ	35	1.08	0.41	0.69	<0.01
QZ	35	2.81	0.12	0.34	<0.01
YL	35	4.13	0.19	0.39	<0.01
YC	35	2.62	0.50	0.61	<0.01
WW	35	1.48	0.12	0.53	<0.01
WX	36	4.97	0.91	0.61	<0.01
TJ	36	2.67	0.47	0.64	<0.01
FY	35	4.32	0.46	0.63	<0.01
ZJ	36	1.88	0.29	0.58	<0.01
FZ	36	0.51	0.31	0.63	<0.01
ZY	36	1.11	0.29	0.49	<0.01
YT	24	1.73	0.27	0.67	<0.01
JJ	35	1.87	0.14	0.36	<0.01
LSD	36	0.65	1.53	0.72	<0.01

CD	36	-0.88	2.23	0.71	<0.01
DL	15	3.42	1.16	0.64	<0.01
HN	36	0.61	0.36	0.63	<0.01
XS	36	0.75	0.45	0.68	<0.01

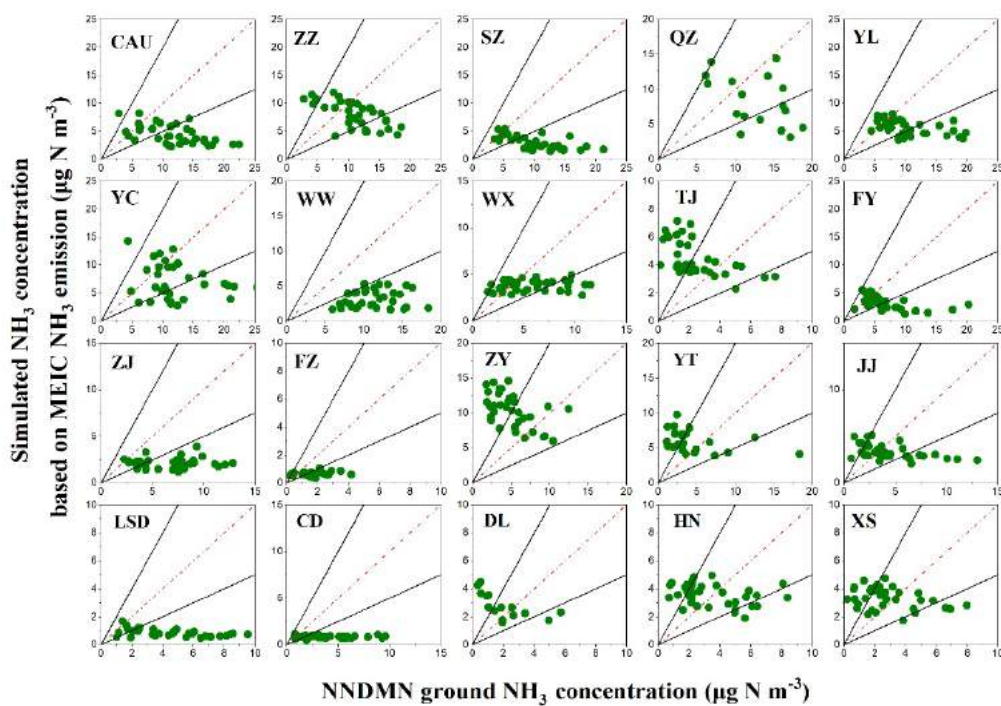


Figure 4-12. Comparison of simulated  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration by original emission inventory with NNDMN station observed concentration.

### 4.3 Emission characteristics of $\text{NH}_3$ gases in China during 2013–2016

#### 4.3.1 Comparison between original and corrected emissions inventories

When this study was conducted, emission data of MEIC were available only every two years. Therefore, emissions in 2014 and 2016 were compared in this study.

The inversion method of this study update  $\text{NH}_3$  emission in monthly basis. See Figure 4-13 for the spatial changes in total monthly emissions before and after the correction. From the perspective of monthly variation, pre-correction  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions did not show significant seasonal variation, with the exception of a minor increase in the North China Plain region during May–August only; but the post-correction  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions varied significantly month by month, notably high in spring and summer and low in autumn and winter. Specifically, total  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions in the eastern China regions including Northeast China (No.①), North China (No.②), the Fenhe-Weihe River Plain area (No.③), the Yangtze River Delta (No.④), the middle areas of the Yangtze River (No.⑤), Chengdu and Chongqing (No.⑥) and the Pearl River Delta (No.⑦) in June and July were significantly higher (above  $7.5 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$ ) than the figures in the other months. The results showed that the monthly variation characteristics of  $\text{NH}_3$  emission inventory were more obvious after correction, which was consistent with the actual emission factors (such as agricultural fertilization, soil ammonia release caused by temperature rise, etc.).



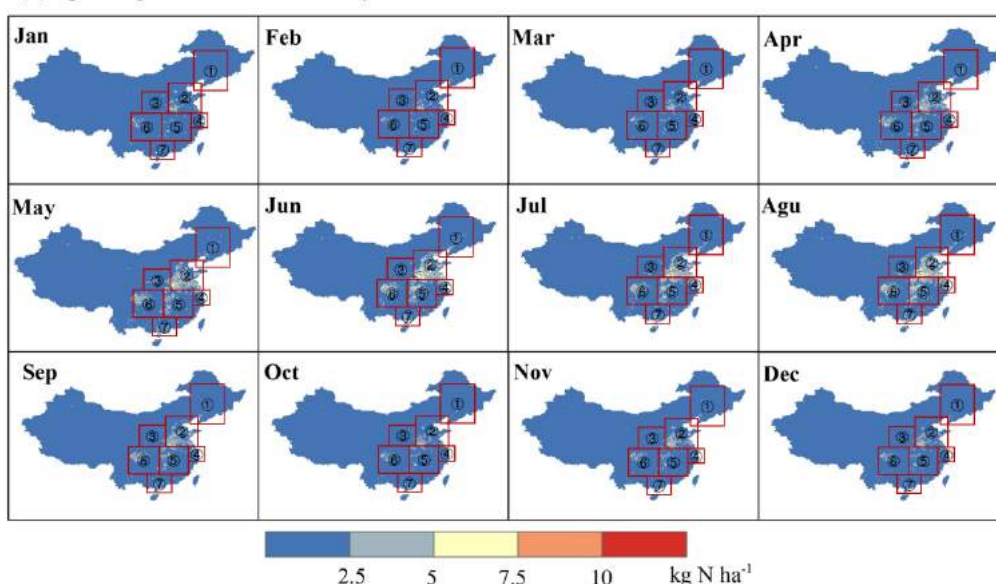
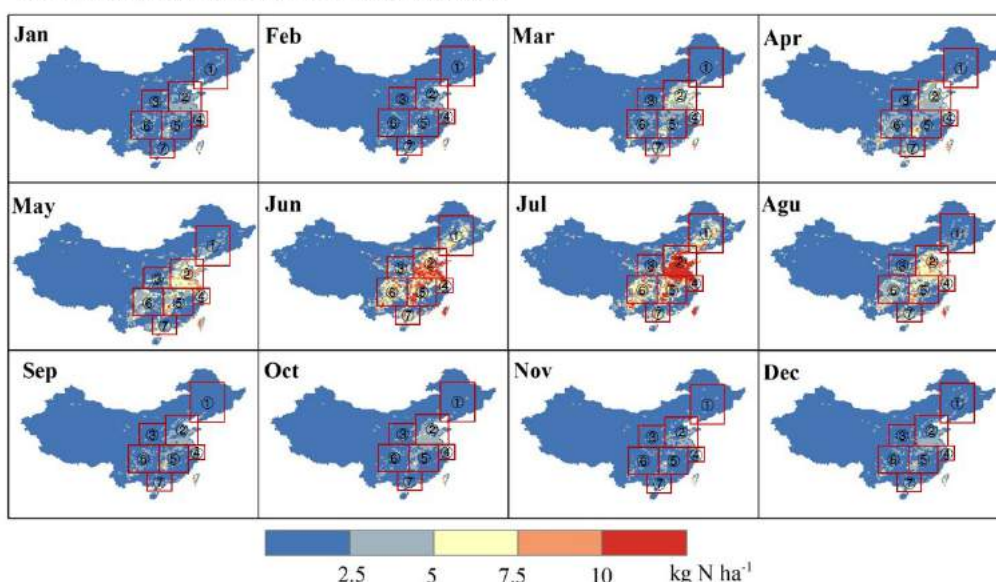
(a) Spatial pattern of MEIC NH<sub>3</sub> emissions

 (b) Spatial pattern of adjusted NH<sub>3</sub> emissions

 Figure 4-13. Comparison spatial distribution of original and corrected NH<sub>3</sub> emission inventory averaged in 2014 and 2016.

Figure 4-14 clearly indicates that the monthly variation of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in the MEIC is much smaller than those in the corrected EIs which shows significant seasonal variation, i.e. high in summer and low in winter; NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in summer in the corrected EIs were approximately 2.5 times of those in the original EIs. The analysis of observations shows notable seasonal variations in the concentrations of NH<sub>3</sub> in the air, hitting highs in summer and falling to lows in autumn and winter. The seasonal variation of NH<sub>3</sub> concentration is consistent with that of the improved NH<sub>3</sub> emissions although the seasonality of NH<sub>3</sub> concentration is determined not only by emissions, but also combined effects of emissions, meteorological conditions and chemical transformations in the air.

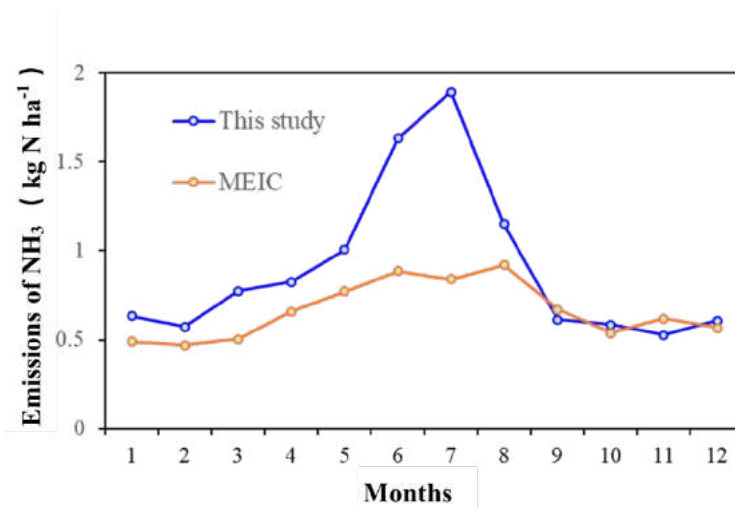


Figure 4-14. Comparison of monthly variation of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions between the MEIC inventor and the corrected one in this study.

#### 4.3.2 Characteristics of temporal changes in NH<sub>3</sub> gas emissions in China during 2013–2016

This section analyzes the temporal-spatial changes in the emissions of nitrogen-containing gases in China during 2013–2016 based on the corrected NH<sub>3</sub> emissions inventories. The corrected NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in China showed almost stable trend from 2013 (about 9.6 million tons) to 2016 (about 10.2 million tons) (Figure 4-15). Compared to the emission amount of MEIC, the corrected emissions were decreased by 580 thousand tons in 2014 but were increased by 100 thousand tons or so in 2016 by inversion method of this study. Generally speaking, emissions corrected by inversion model are basically in line with those in the bottom-up emission inventory MEIC.

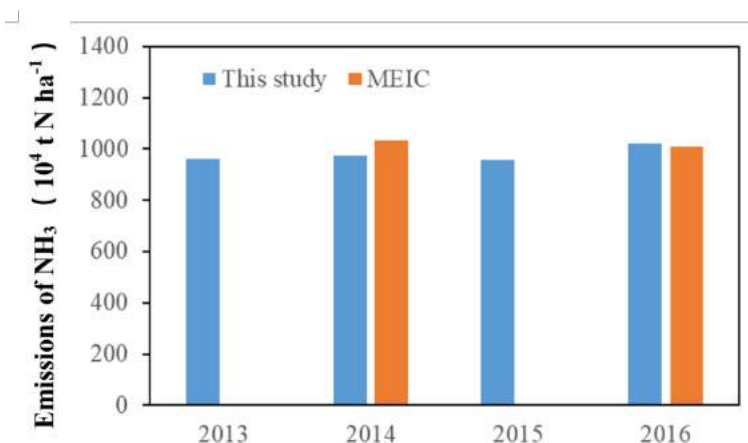


Figure 4-15. Annual characteristics of NH<sub>3</sub> emission in China from 2013 to 2016.

Regarding monthly variations (Figure 4-16), monthly NH<sub>3</sub> emissions from 2013 to 2014 were characterized by significant seasonal variations, with highs taking place in summer (up to 1-1.5 million tons) and lows appearing in autumn and winter (basically at 0.5 million tons), and general features of the seasonality were almost the same. The updated emissions inventories showed more significant changes in monthly variation than the MEIC, with the high emission figures in spring and summer (6-56 percent larger) and the low emission figures in autumn and

winter (1-40 percent lower). According to the features of monthly variations, the amounts of  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions in China is stable. The reason may be that there are no efficient control measures to reduce  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions in China.

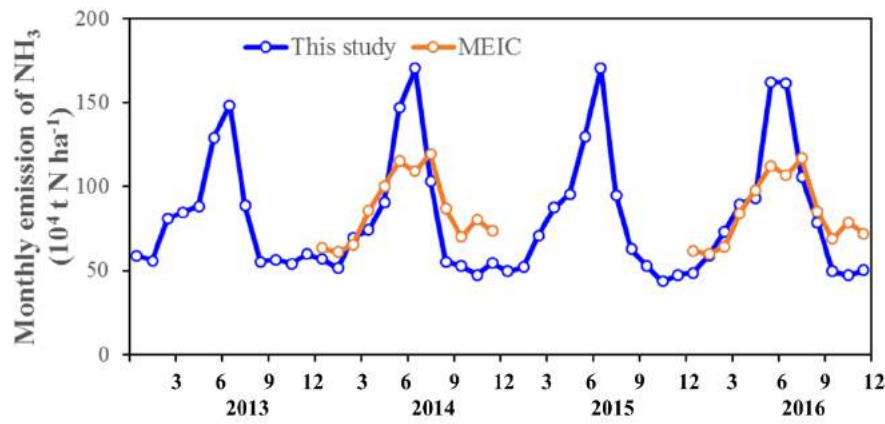


Figure 4-16. Monthly characteristics of  $\text{NH}_3$  emission in China from 2013 to 2016.

#### 4.3.2 Characteristics of spatial changes in $\text{NH}_3$ gas emissions in China during 2013–2016

From the perspective of spatial changes in China's  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions during 2013–2016 (Figure 4-17), the country's  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions in these years were roughly consistent by spatial distribution. The high emissions, which exceeded  $50 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , occurred in the North China Plain, the Yangtze River Delta, the Pearl River Delta, Chengdu and Chongqing regions with the densely populated and farmlands. The following is the northeastern and northwestern city clusters with value of  $10\text{--}30 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ . And the lowest  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions (less than  $10 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) appeared in the central and western regions in China with sparsely populated.

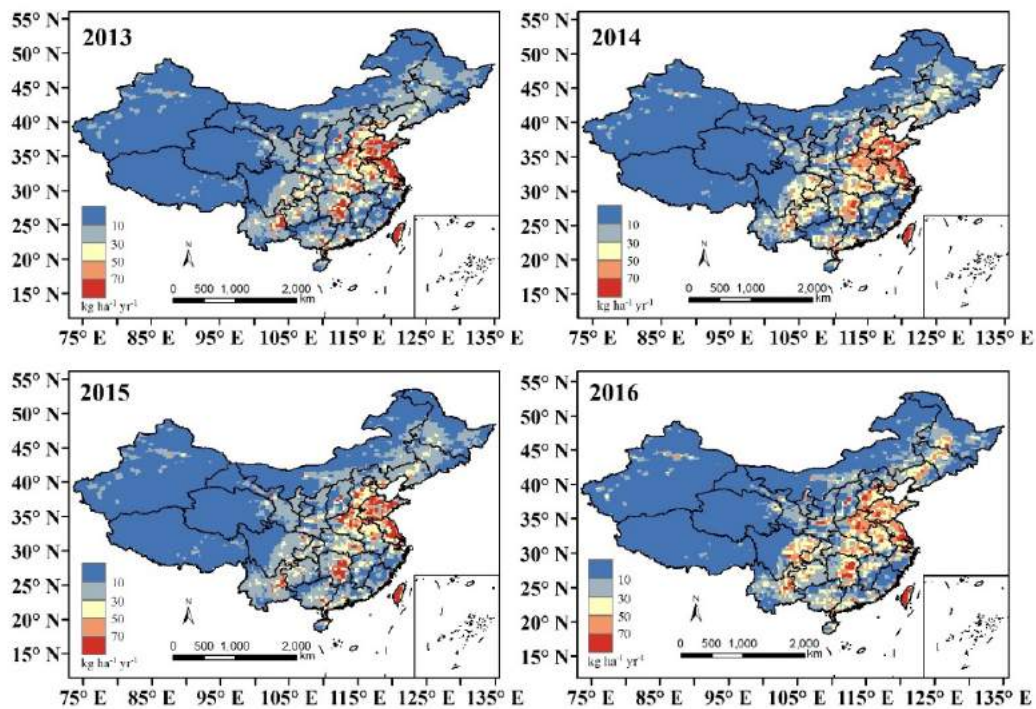


Figure 4-17. Spatial characteristics of  $\text{NH}_3$  emission in China from 2013 to 2016.

## 5. Conclusions

Focusing on the Chinese mainland, the paper firstly assesses the reliability of observed temporal-spatial distribution of  $\text{NH}_3$  column concentrations nationwide and the relevant trends using satellites over long time series. Then the national emission inventories of  $\text{NH}_3$  were improved with the inverse model on the basis of the satellite observations. The paper draws the following conclusions mainly:

First, the reliability of the trend of temporal and spatial changes in  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations observed by satellites is examined through the  $\text{NH}_3$  mass concentrations observed on the ground. According to the results, the  $\text{NH}_3$  column concentrations observed by satellites feature good temporal-spatial coherence with the ground-based observations of mass concentration, and thus, are considered to reflect the temporal-spatial change characteristics of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations in the air in China over long time series. In China,  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations in the air are characterized by significant temporal-spatial changes. In terms of spatial distribution, high  $\text{NH}_3$  column concentrations in the troposphere are mainly distributed in the most developed regions such as the North China Plain region, the Yangtze River Delta, the Pearl River Delta, Chengdu and Chongqing. It can be seen that intense human activity significantly increases  $\text{NH}_3$  emission in the atmosphere. In terms of the annual variation, the concentrations of Tropospheric  $\text{NH}_3$  column in China showed a notable increasing trend. From the perspective of seasonal changes,  $\text{NH}_3$  column concentrations have the highest value in summer and the lowest in autumn or winter.

In this study, the  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions inventories were improved using atmospheric chemical transport model, satellite observations, and inverse modeling methodology. Then, the updated EI accuracy is validated by the observations at ground stations. Gaseous  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations in the air are influenced not only by its emissions but also by the content of acid gases in the air. There are two steps to improve the  $\text{NH}_3$  emission inventory in this study. Firstly,  $\text{SO}_2$  emission was correction before correcting the  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions inventory. The bottom-up  $\text{SO}_2$  emission inventories were updated by inverse modeling approach using the ground-based observation data. The simulated  $\text{SO}_2$  concentrations using the corrected  $\text{SO}_2$  emissions were consistent with the temporal and spatial variations of the ground-based monitoring data and thus, it is considered that  $\text{SO}_2$  emissions were well corrected for the inverse modeling of  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions. Then, monthly  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions were improved using inverse modeling based on satellite observation. The simulated results of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations using the updated emissions were validated using the monthly averages of data observed at NNDMN Station, and the result shows the corrected emissions inventories were improved in terms of spatial distribution and time variation characteristics. In terms of spatial distribution, according to the corrected emissions,  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions were mainly seen in densely-populated areas such as the North China Plain, the Yangtze River Delta, the Pearl River Delta, Chengdu and Chongqing, with the emissions per unit area exceeding  $300 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ . As for annual changes, China showed almost stable trend in  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions from 2013 to 2016, and nationwide  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions came in at about 10 million tons in each of these years.

The research, which attempted to improve the emissions inventories of atmospheric  $\text{NH}_3$  based on the satellite data and with the method of Martin et al. (2003, 2008), still has lots of limitations. This method assumes a linear relationship in the simulation grid ( $36 \text{ km} \times 36 \text{ km}$ ) when dealing with the relationship between emissions and concentrations. It does not take into



consideration the non-linear relationship between emissions and concentrations in the surrounding grids, nor the observation data and model errors. In fact, the influence of transportation between grids cannot be ignored. In addition, there are large uncertainties in satellite observations and systematic errors in the models. Furthermore, similar to influences of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> emissions on NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations, emissions of NH<sub>3</sub> also affects concentrations of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub>. These complex system of the chemical transformation in the atmosphere were not considered in the methodology of this study. Recently, the advancement of data assimilation technology has come with the introduction of Kalman filtering and four-dimensional assimilation technology into improving the air pollutant emissions inventories. These two methods give sufficient consideration to the influence of atmospheric transportation and incorporate observation and simulation errors to correct pollutant emissions data. Further efforts should be made to improve air pollutant emissions rapidly and in real time with better technologies and methods and in overall consideration of transportation and errors.

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