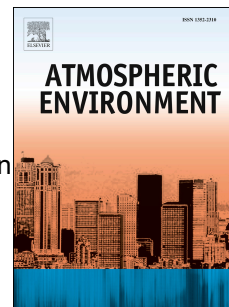


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Susana López-Aparicio, Marc Guevara, Philippe Thunis, Kees Cuvelier, Leonor Tarrasón



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# 1 Assessment of discrepancies between bottom-up and regional emission 2 inventories in Norwegian urban areas

3 Susana López-Aparicio<sup>a,\*</sup>, Marc Guevara<sup>b</sup>, Philippe Thunis<sup>c</sup>, Kees Cuvelier<sup>d</sup>, Leonor Tarrasón<sup>a</sup>

4 <sup>a</sup> NILU - Norwegian Institute for Air Research, Kjeller, Norway

5 <sup>b</sup> Barcelona Supercomputing Center - Centro Nacional de Supercomputación, Earth Sciences  
6 Department, Barcelona, Spain

7 <sup>c</sup> European Commission, Institute for Environment and sustainability, Ispra, Italy

8 <sup>d</sup> Ex-European Commission, Institute for Environment and sustainability, Ispra, Italy

9

10 \*Corresponding author: [sla@nilu.no](mailto:sla@nilu.no)

11 NILU – Norwegian Institute for Air Research, Instituttveien 18, 2007 Kjeller, Norway

12

## 13 Abstract

14 This study shows the capabilities of a benchmarking system to identify inconsistencies in emission  
15 inventories, and to evaluate the reason behind discrepancies as a mean to improve both bottom-up and  
16 downscaled emission inventories. Fine scale bottom-up emission inventories for seven urban areas in  
17 Norway are compared with three regional emission inventories, EC4MACS, TNO\_MACC-II and  
18 TNO\_MACC-III, downscaled to the same areas. The comparison shows discrepancies in nitrogen  
19 oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>) and particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub>) when evaluating both total and sectorial  
20 emissions. The three regional emission inventories underestimate NO<sub>x</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub> traffic emissions by  
21 approximately 20-80% and 50-90%, respectively. The main reasons for the underestimation of PM<sub>10</sub>  
22 emissions from traffic in the regional inventories are related to non-exhaust emissions due to  
23 resuspension, which are included in the bottom-up emission inventories but are missing in the official  
24 national emissions, and therefore in the downscaled regional inventories. The benchmarking indicates  
25 that the most probable reason behind the underestimation of NO<sub>x</sub> traffic emissions by the regional  
26 inventories is the activity data. The fine scale NO<sub>x</sub> traffic emissions from bottom-up inventories are  
27 based on the actual traffic volume at the road link and are much higher than the NO<sub>x</sub> emissions  
28 downscaled from national estimates based on fuel sales and based on population for the urban areas.  
29 We have identified important discrepancies in PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions from wood burning for residential  
30 heating among all the inventories. These discrepancies are associated with the assumptions made for  
31 the allocation of emissions. In the EC4MACs inventory, such assumptions imply high  
32 underestimation of PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions from the residential combustion sector in urban areas, which  
33 ranges from 40 and 90% compared with the bottom-up inventories. The study shows that in three of  
34 the seven Norwegian cities there is need for further improvement of the emission inventories.

## 35 Keywords

36 Emission inventories; benchmarking system; urban scale; downscaled emissions; bottom-up  
37 emissions

## 38 1. Introduction

39 Air pollution in Europe is a political and social concern since mid-twentieth century. In December  
40 2013, the European Commission adopted a Clean Air Policy Package that consists of an updated  
41 programme with i) new air quality objectives up to 2030, ii) a proposal for revised National Emission  
42 Ceiling Directive, and iii) a proposal for a new directive to reduce emissions from medium-sized  
43 installations. Air pollution in urban areas is becoming a priority. Among the reasons are that around  
44 70% of the global population is estimated to live in urban areas by 2050 (UN, 2014), urban air  
45 pollution is linked to 1 million premature death in developed countries (UN, 2016), and cities  
46 contribute to 70% of global greenhouse gas emissions (UN, 2011). Consequently, a priority focus  
47 exists on developing solutions for the environmental sustainability of urban areas.

48 Air quality plans are nowadays being developed in urban and regional areas where air quality does not  
49 comply with the limit values established by Air Quality Directives (2008/50/EC). Air quality models  
50 are essential tools to support policy formulation by evaluating the possible impact of local and  
51 regional emission abatement options on air quality and human health (Thunis et al., 2016a).  
52 Therefore, there is a need for better understanding the air quality model uncertainties and ensure they  
53 are fit-for-purposes. The uncertainties mostly relay on the input data, such as meteorology, boundary  
54 conditions and, emissions, the latter been pointed out as the most uncertain among them (Russel &  
55 Dennis, 2000; Viaene et al. 2013).

56 Emission inventories are developed at local, regional and national scales, with methods that very  
57 much depend on the purpose, emission source intensity and input data availability. The EMEP/EEA  
58 emission inventory guidebook (EMEP/EEA, 2013) supports the official reporting obligations under  
59 the Convention on Long-range Transboundary Air Pollution (LRTAP) and the National Emission  
60 Ceilings Directive (NEC 2001/81/EC). The guidebook states that emissions can be estimated at  
61 different levels, which are expressed as three tiers of increasing complexity. Accordingly, tier 1 is  
62 based on statistical activity rate and default emissions factors; tier 2 uses more specific information,  
63 e.g. specific emission factors per type of process or technology; and tier 3 involves greater level of  
64 disaggregation of activity data and emissions factors than tier 2. The selection of the tier will depend  
65 on data availability and the importance of the source. Apart from direct measurements of specific  
66 emissions, which usually are scarce and only available for large point sources, emission inventories at  
67 regional and local scale are built based on two types of methods, namely “top-down” and “bottom-  
68 up”. In both cases, emissions are estimated as the product of an activity (A) and the corresponding  
69 emission factor (EF). The most significant difference is the spatial aggregation of activity data. In  
70 “top-down” methods, activity data is collected at regional or national level and then distributed on  
71 space or gridded based on different types of ancillary data (e.g. population density, land cover data).  
72 Whilst in “bottom-up” methods, the activity data is collected at a finer spatial scale (e.g. point source,  
73 road links, households) and thereafter aggregated at the required spatial resolution.

74 The spatial resolution of emission inventories is crucial for air pollution dispersion applications and  
75 related studies such as population exposure, health and ecosystem impact assessments or the  
76 evaluation of programmes for emission reductions in urban areas. For instance, Denby et al. (2011)  
77 identified systematic errors when the assessments at European level are based on the typical chemical  
78 transport model resolution of about 50 km. Regional emission inventories are available at a relatively  
79 coarse resolution for urban scale exposure and assessment purposes. For instance, the EMEP emission  
80 grid is approximately 50 x 50 km (available at <http://www.ceip.at/>) and the new EMEP grid will be  
81 available at 0.1° x 0.1° longitude – latitude resolution. Other regional emission inventories are built  
82 based on downscaling the EMEP national emission inventory, usually with the help of source-specific  
83 spatial distribution proxies. Examples of downscaled emission inventories are TNO\_MACC (Kuenen  
84 et al., 2014) or EC4MACs (Bessagnet et al., 2016), available at approximately 7 km x 7 km, or the  
85 Danish emission inventory available at 1 km x 1 km resolution (e.g. Pjeldrup and Gyldenkerne,  
86 2011). The development of bottom-up emission inventories is demanding and requires significant  
87 amount of input data and resources. Therefore, there is an increasing use of downscaled emission  
88 inventories as input data for air quality modelling activities at urban scale. The comparison or  
89 benchmarking of bottom-up and downscaled emission inventories may contribute to the better  
90 understanding of urban emissions, the identification of inconsistencies and the improvement of  
91 emission inventories at urban scale.

92 Our study is part of the development of a Norwegian Air Quality Urban Planning Tool, and it is  
93 performed in the framework of FAIRMODE; the Forum for Air Quality Modelling created for  
94 exchanging experience and results from modelling in the context of the Air Quality Directive (AQD).  
95 The FAIRMODE network intends to support model users at administrative levels in their policy-  
96 related model applications by establishing tools, databases and methods to enhance harmonization and

97 promote good modelling practices among Member States. Our study is carried out in the working  
98 group on emissions focussing on the understanding and improvement of urban emissions inventories.  
99 In addition, an Emission Benchmarking Tool ( $\Delta$ Emis tool) was developed (Thunis et al. 2016b;  
100 Guevara et al., 2016), and is employed in this study to facilitate the comparison between emission  
101 inventories.

102 The aim of our study is to contribute to the understanding and improvement of urban emissions  
103 through the evaluation of inconsistencies between bottom-up emission inventories developed for air  
104 quality assessment at the urban scale and regional downscaled emission inventories. Previous studies  
105 have already pointed out discrepancies between bottom-up and top-down emission inventories (e.g.  
106 Denier van der Gon et al., 2011; Timmermans et al., 2013). The novelty of our study lies on the  
107 usefulness of the benchmarking tool that allows emission experts at administrative level evaluate the  
108 accuracy of emission data at urban scale. Our study shows with a practical example how the  
109 comparison of emission inventories compiled through different approaches increases the  
110 understanding of emission processes and the accuracy of the emission data. The use of the  
111 FAIRMODE  $\Delta$ Emis tool is demonstrated to be a powerful tool to identify the inconsistencies and to  
112 further evaluate the reasons behind them in order to ultimately improve both bottom-up and  
113 downscaled emission inventories. The outcome from our study is essential for the improvement of  
114 emission inventories and therefore their subsequent applications such as in urban and regional air  
115 quality forecasting systems (e.g. Marécal et al., 2015) or other applications.

## 116 **2. Emission inventories**

### 117 **2.1. Urban bottom-up emission inventories**

118 We have selected seven urban areas that are currently part of the development of a Norwegian Air  
119 Quality Urban Planning tool and of the Improved City Air forecasting system in Norway (Ødegaard et  
120 al., 2013). The selected geographical domains represent different areas in Norway. Oslo domain  
121 consists of an area of about 38 km x 27 km including parts of ten municipalities and representing the  
122 most populated of the seven selected areas. Bergen (16 km x 27 km), Trondheim (14 km x 16 km),  
123 and Stavanger (14 km x 25 km) are the most populated urban areas in Norway after Oslo. Drammen  
124 domain covers an area of about 23 km x 22 km and includes a small town that has experienced a fast  
125 shift from being an industrial town to an awarded city for its environmental and urban development.  
126 Nedre Glomma is a metropolitan region (29 km x 22 km) located at the southeast of Norway and  
127 centred between two towns Fredrikstad and Sarpsborg. Grenland is a district in the south (16 km x 23  
128 km) that encompasses the biggest industrial park of Norway and the central location of the  
129 petrochemical industry.

130 Emissions from different sectors have been compiled for all seven Norwegian urban areas following  
131 primarily bottom-up approaches, except in the case of Drammen where area sources are estimated  
132 according to a downscaling approach that combines EMEP emissions with land cover data (CORINE  
133 land cover 2006). The main sectors are traffic, both on-road and non-road, residential combustion,  
134 industrial combustion and shipping. Based on regular validation processes by comparing air  
135 dispersion modelled results with observations, and on the share of traffic emissions in the urban areas,  
136 the inventories are commonly used as representative for the years 2012 or 2013. An overview of the  
137 timeliness of the data used for the different cities and sectors is given in Table 1.

138 For all seven locations, on-road traffic is regularly updated according to the reference year of the  
139 emission inventory. Emissions are calculated based on the line emission model included in the  
140 AirQUIS system (Slørdal et al. 2008). The emission model takes into account: i) “static traffic data”  
141 which refers to the physical characteristics of the road network (e.g. road type, width, length,  
142 gradient); ii) “dynamic traffic data” that refers to the amount of traffic (e.g. average daily traffic,  
143 ADT); and iii) “road vehicle distribution”. The type of vehicle includes two levels of detail, i) the

144 vehicle class (e.g. light duty vehicle-LDV, heavy-duty vehicle-HDV, buses), and ii) the technology  
145 class (e.g. Euro class). For each road link and type of road, the different variables are provided and  
146 emissions ( $g*s/m$ ) are estimated based on the daily traffic (ADT), the percentage of emission  
147 calculated for each vehicle class within a vehicle category and a basic emission factor from the  
148 Handbook Emission Factors for Road Transport (HBEFA, 2010). The basic emission factors are  
149 corrected based on the ageing of the vehicle, as a function of the mileage, and factors that relate to the  
150 road gradient and speed dependency. The Norwegian Road Administration provides most of the input  
151 data such as average daily traffic, the speed (i.e. speed limit of the road segment), and the vehicle  
152 distribution (LDV vs HDV). Other data such as the vehicle technology class is obtained from regional  
153 statistics (OFV, 2013). Non-exhaust emissions of  $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$  due to re-suspension are calculated  
154 for six of the geographical domains based on the percentage of studded tyres, heavy-duty traffic,  
155 traffic speed, number of vehicles and road wetness. In Oslo however, it is calculated based on the  
156 NORTRIP model (Denby et al., 2013a, 2013b).

157 Emissions from area or point sources are relatively outdated and some of the sources such as  
158 residential heating and non-road mobile combustion are over a decade old (Table 1). Emissions from  
159 area sources were estimated by Statistics Norway and following the same methodology that it is  
160 currently used for reporting the official national emissions (Statistics Norway, 2014). Emissions from  
161 wood burning for residential heating used in our study are based on bottom-up estimates at fine  
162 resolution (e.g. district level; Finstad et al., 2004a, 2004b), and not such estimates are available for  
163 updated years. Emissions from wood burning were determined by the product of the amount of wood  
164 consumed per type of technology (i.e. open fireplace, wood stove produced before 1998 and wood  
165 stove produced after 1998) based on surveys and the corresponding emission factors, established  
166 based on measurements for Norwegian conditions (SINTEF, 2013). An attempt to update wood  
167 burning emissions for official national estimates downscaled to the urban areas has existed, and  
168 thereafter tested with air dispersion models. The results showed a large overestimation of PM  
169 pollution levels when comparing with observations. Denier van der Gon et al. (2015) obtained similar  
170 outcomes, highlighting the need for updating and harmonizing official estimates for wood burning  
171 emissions. For this reason, bottom-up wood burning emissions relatively outdated are still used to  
172 represent current situation in urban areas.

173 Emissions from large point sources are officially reported to the Norwegian Environment Agency and  
174 they are linked to the corresponding geographical position. In the case of industrial emissions that  
175 cannot be linked to a stack or large point source, they are distributed spatially based on surrogate data  
176 at the municipality level, e.g. employment figures in the industrial sector (Norwegian Environment  
177 Agency, 2016). Emissions from non-road mobile sources include emissions from construction  
178 machinery, tractors, households and gardening. Emissions were estimated by Statistics Norway based  
179 on the number of registered machinery or equipment in each municipality, and the corresponding fuel  
180 sales. In the case of machinery from the industrial and construction sectors, emissions were estimated  
181 based on the diesel consumption according to the statistics from the industrial sector. Emissions from  
182 shipping in Bergen, Stavanger and Trondheim are from Statistics Norway and were calculated based  
183 on the sale of marine fuels for both national and international sea transport and using average  
184 emission factors. For Oslo, the shipping emission inventory was developed following a tier 3  
185 approach based on the activity data provided by the Port of Oslo, and specific emission factors for the  
186 different types of vessels (López-Aparicio et al., 2014; 2016).

187 In this study we focus on the five largest contributing sectors in Norwegian urban areas in terms of  
188 emission total; on-road traffic, wood burning for residential heating, industry, shipping and non-road  
189 mobile combustion sources. To facilitate the comparison with downscaled emission inventories, we  
190 have classified and aggregated the bottom-up emissions into SNAP sectors (Selected Nomenclature  
191 for Air Pollutants; CEIP, 2016) as indicated in Table 1. Small subsectors that are not included in the  
192 discussion are i) non-wood residential heating, ii) commercial heating, iii) airport and iv) railways.



193 Emissions from these subsectors are only available, when applicable, for Oslo, Bergen, Stavanger and  
 194 Trondheim. Even though the contribution from these subsectors to total urban emissions is below 5%  
 195 for both NO<sub>x</sub> and particulate matter (PM), we have included them in the corresponding SNAP sector,  
 196 i.e. SNAP2 for non-wood residential heating and stationary commercial heating, and SNAP8 for  
 197 emissions from airport and railways. We aim at the best possible completeness of the SNAP sectors in  
 198 the urban areas.

199 *Table 1: Overview of the reference years of the main emission sectors in the emission inventories.*

Urban areas	On-road Traffic	Residential Heating	Shipping	Off-road mobile combustion	Industry
Bergen	2012	2003	1995/1998	1995/1998	1995/1998
Drammen	2012	2012	n.a.	2012	2012
Grenland	2012	1998	n.a.	n.a.	1991
Nedre Glomma	2012	2012	n.a.	n.a.	2012
Oslo	2013	2002	2013	1995	2013
Stavanger	2012	1998	1995/1998	1995/1998	1995/1998
Trondheim	2012	2005	2005	2005	2005
SNAP sectors	SNAP7	SNAP 2	SNAP 8	SNAP 8	SNAP 3-4

200

## 201 2.2. Downscaled emission inventories

202 We selected EC4MACS (2007), TNO\_MACC-II (2009), and the newly improved version  
 203 TNO\_MACC-III (2011) as downscaled regional inventories at European level. For detailed  
 204 information about these inventories, we refer to Kuenen et al., (2014) and Bessagnet et al., (2016).  
 205 These inventories are widely used in European Air Quality applications and have supported air quality  
 206 inter-comparison exercises (e.g. AQMEII project, Forkela et al., 2015). Emissions in the regional  
 207 inventories are distributed in macro-sectors: 1) energy industries; 2) non-industrial combustion; 3)  
 208 industrial combustion; 4) production processes; 7) road transport; and 8) non-road mobile combustion  
 209 sources, as the relevant sectors for our study, and classified according to the SNAP nomenclature  
 210 (CEIP, 2016). In TNO\_MACC-II and TNO\_MACC-III, sectors SNAP3 and SNAP4 are merged. The  
 211 three regional emission inventories are developed based on officially reported emissions to the  
 212 Convention for Long-Range Transboundary Air Pollution (CLRTAP;  
 213 <http://www.unece.org/env/lrtap/welcome.html>), and completed with emissions at the country level  
 214 from GAINS model (Amann et al., 2011) or EDGAR (JRC, 2011). In TNO\_MACC-II and  
 215 TNO\_MACC-III, officially reported emissions (CEIP and EEA) were the primary data source for EU  
 216 Member States and EFTA countries, and GAINS for former Soviet Union countries and some Balkan  
 217 countries. For Norway, TNO\_MACC emission inventories are based on officially reported data for all  
 218 compounds (i.e. CH<sub>4</sub>, CO, NH<sub>3</sub>, NMVOC, NO<sub>x</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>). The emission data is then  
 219 spatially disaggregated to a finer spatial resolution following different downscaling techniques. The  
 220 gridding of emissions in the three regional emissions inventories is downscaled according to different  
 221 assumptions, using the proxies summarized in Table 2.

222 Emissions from point sources in TNO\_MACC-II and III and their geographical locations are taken  
 223 from The European Pollutant Release and Transfer Register (E-PRTR database) and combined with  
 224 TNO's own point source database. In the case of Norway, emissions from point sources are from the  
 225 E-PRTR. In EC4MACs inventory, emissions from point sources are taken for the previous European  
 226 Pollutant Emission Register (EPER) and combined with artificial land use data.

227 Emissions associated to non-industrial combustion plants (SNAP2) are mainly allocated according to  
 228 total population density. The SNAP2 sector consists of i) commercial / institutional stationary  
 229 combustion; ii) residential combustion; iii) stationary combustion associated with agriculture, forestry  
 230 or fishing; and iv) other stationary. In Norway, around 98% of emissions in SNAP2 sector are from

231 residential combustion, most of it from biomass (i.e. wood burning). TNO\_MACC-II and  
 232 TNO\_MACC-III use internal approaches based on population and wood availability. In EC4MACs,  
 233 emissions from biomass burning are allocated with coefficients defined based on population density  
 234 by Terrenoire et al. (2015). These coefficients were defined at a French bottom-up study that  
 235 established that PM emissions per inhabitant sharply decrease when the population density increase.

236 *Table 2: Overview of the proxies employed for gridding emissions by sector in the three regional emission inventories.*  
 237 *TNO\_MACC (2007; Denier van der Gon, et al, 2010)*

	TNO-MACC_II	TNO-MACC_III	EC4MACS
Ref	Kuenen et al., 2014	(pers. commun.)	Bessagnet et al., 2016; Denier van der Gon (2010)
Year	2003 - 2009	2000 - 2011	2009
SNAP1	E-PRTR, TNO PS database	Improved based on bottom up data and Industrial land cover	EPER and Artificial Landuse
SNAP2	Total population and Wood use map	TNO internal estimates (Population and wood availability)	Dissagregated based on population (Terrenoire et al., 2015)
SNAP3	E-PRTR, TNO PS database	Improved based on bottom up data and Industrial land cover	TNO_MACC (2007); E-PRTR and TNO PS database
SNAP4	E-PRTR, TNO PS database	Improved based on bottom up data and Industrial land cover	Artificial Landuse
SNAP5	E-PRTR, TNO PS database or Urban Population		Artificial Landuse
SNAP6	Total population		Artificial Landuse
SNAP7	TRANSTOOLS network and Total population		TNO_MACC (2007); Road Network and Partly population
SNAP8	TNO PS database, Rail map, Shipping map, Arable land, Total population	Shipping; methodology improved, estimated differently per sea	TNO_MACC (2007); Rail map, Inland and coastal waterways, Arable land, Population
SNAP9	E-PRTR, Rural population or Total population		TNO_MACC (2007); E-PRTR and Population
SNAP10	Livestock map, Arable land, Total population		TNO_MACC (2007); Livestock map, Arable land, Total population

238

239 The emissions in the merged SNAP3 (Combustion in manufacturing industry) and SNAP4  
 240 (Production processes) sectors in the TNO\_MACC emission inventories are distributed based on the  
 241 information from the E-PRTR database, the TNO internal point source database and population. The  
 242 TNO\_MACC-III introduces an improvement in the distribution of industrial diffusive emissions (i.e.  
 243 industrial emissions that cannot be linked to an E-PRTR facility), and they are allocated based on  
 244 industrial land use data from the CORINE classification instead (*personal communication*). This  
 245 improvement regarding TNO\_MACC-II was introduced to avoid an over-allocation of industrial  
 246 emissions in urban areas. In EC4MACs, EMEP emissions were re-gridded into a finer model domain  
 247 based on the TNO-MACC spatial distribution for SNAP3 and on artificial land use area for SNAP4.  
 248 TNO\_MACC emission inventories distribute emissions in SNAP5 and 6 based on total or urban  
 249 population, whereas EC4MACs does it by using artificial land use data at 1 km resolution. Regarding  
 250 SNAP sectors 7, 8, 9 and 10, EC4MACS based the distribution of emissions on TNO\_MACC spatial  
 251 distribution. Thus, on-road transports (SNAP7) is distributed based on the TRANSTOOL network  
 252 (JRC, 2005) for interurban traffic emissions and population density for urban traffic emissions, and  
 253 the remaining sectors (SNAP8, SNAP9 and SNAP10) based on population or the corresponding land  
 254 cover maps (Table 2).

### 255 3. Benchmarking tool: methodology for comparison of emission inventories

256 For the comparison of bottom-up and downscaled emission inventories, we used the  $\Delta$ -Emis tool  
 257 (Thunis et al., 2016b; Guevara et al., 2016).  $\Delta$ -Emis is an IDL-based tool designed to screen and  
 258 benchmark emission inventories, and especially to support the comparison of bottom-up and top-

259 down emission estimates at city, regional, and country scale. The tool was originally designed as a  
260 flagging system to identify inconsistencies in emission inventories, and evaluate the reasons for these  
261 inconsistencies in order to improve the emission inventories. The benchmarking was mainly carried  
262 out based on the direct comparison of a bottom-up inventory (BUP) to the downscaled emission  
263 inventory (TOD) in the macro-sectors and pollutants pairs for the seven model domains (i.e. Bar-Plot  
264 in the  $\Delta$ -Emis tool). The evaluation is supported by the used of the “diamond” diagram (Thunis et al.,  
265 2016b), also available in the  $\Delta$ -Emis tool, aiming at getting additional insights in possible  
266 explanations for discrepancies between emissions over the selected areas. The diamond diagram is  
267 designed to identify discrepancies in the inventories and allows an informed evaluation of whether  
268 differences between inventories can be mostly related to differences in the use of emission factors or  
269 in the choice of activity data. For more details about the theory behind the diamond diagram and its  
270 interpretation, we refer to Thunis et al. (2016b).

## 271 4. Results and Discussion

272 A preliminary comparison of urban  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions estimated according to bottom-up methods and  
273 emissions, for the same areas, according to the 3 downscaled regional emission inventories shows a  
274 lack of consistency among all the urban areas. However,  $\text{PM}_{10}$  and  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  emissions in TNO\_MACC-  
275 II are generally higher than in the BUP. Other studies has reported similar differences when  
276 comparing total downscaled emissions with bottom-up estimates (Kuenen et al. 2010; Maes et al.  
277 2009). In other to shed light on the causes of discrepancies, an evaluation at the sector or subsector  
278 level is needed, as total values could also be affected by compensation of errors, i.e. overestimations  
279 and underestimations in different sectors. This section presents an evaluation of emissions for on-road  
280 transport (SNAP7), residential combustion sector - wood burning (SNAP2), non-road mobile sources  
281 and machinery (SNAP8) and industry (SNAP3 and SNAP4).

### 282 4.2. On-road transport sector

283 The benchmarking shows similar BUP/TOD ratio for SNAP7 (on road transport) in each area when  
284 comparing with the three TODs (Figure 1). As previously described,  $\text{TOD}_{\text{EC4MACs}}$  is based on  
285 TNO\_MACC (Table 2) and thus explains this similarity. For the seven areas,  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{PM}_{10}$   
286 emissions in the BUPs are higher than in the three TODs.

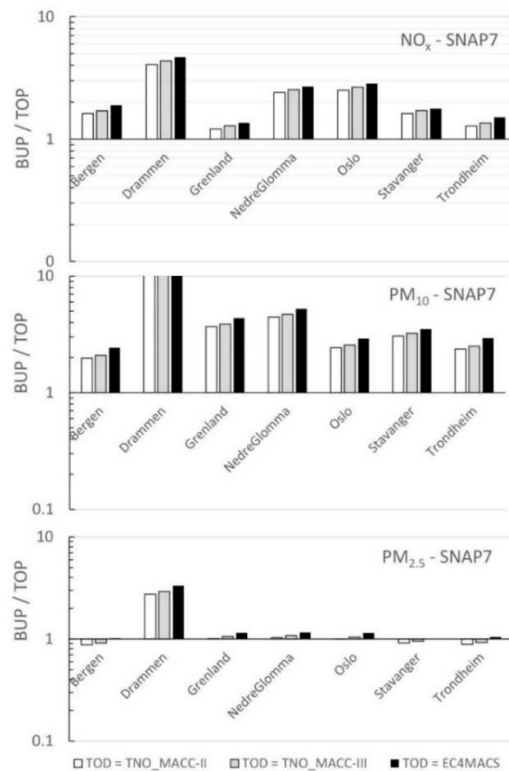
287 The  $\text{BUP}_{\text{PM}_{10}}$  to  $\text{TOP}_{\text{PM}_{10}}$  ratios are above a factor 2. The reason of this discrepancy is on non-exhaust  
288 PM emissions due to re-suspension that is accounted for in the BUPs, whereas officially reported  
289 emissions to the CLRTAP from Norway only include automobile tyre wear, brake wear and road  
290 abrasion as non-exhaust emissions in SNAP7. The importance of including re-suspension as a  
291 subsector in the official reporting of emissions is highlighted in our study, as we underestimate  
292 national emissions of PM. For instance, in Oslo emissions from re-suspension account for about 34%  
293 of total road transport  $\text{PM}_{10}$  emissions. Moreover, cities exposed to icing and de-icing conditions, and  
294 the use of studded tyres, experience recurrent exceedances of PM limit values (Amato et al., 2014 and  
295 references therein). The evaluation of measures targeting at resuspension are therefore needed, and  
296 consequently re-suspension needs to be accounted for in emission inventories.

297  $\text{BUP}_{\text{NO}_x}/\text{TOD}_{\text{NO}_x}$  ratios are a factor above 2 for Drammen, Nedre Glomma and Oslo. For  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$   
298 however,  $\text{BUP}_{\text{PM}_{2.5}}$  and  $\text{TOD}_{\text{PM}_{2.5}}$  seem to show similar emission values except for Drammen where  
299 BUP is much higher than TOD. The reason behind the different results obtained for Drammen is not  
300 clear and additional effort need to be put in the evaluation of this emission inventory. A higher share  
301 of diesel vehicles in BUP than in TODs could explain the higher  $\text{BUP}_{\text{NO}_x}$  than  $\text{TOD}_{\text{NO}_x}$ , and similar  
302  $\text{BUP}_{\text{PM}_{2.5}}$  and  $\text{TOD}_{\text{PM}_{2.5}}$ .  $\text{NO}_x$  traffic emissions in Oslo are very much due to diesel vehicles, as 92% of  
303 total  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions are associated with heavy duty vehicles, buses and diesel light duty vehicles (i.e.  
304 passenger cars and other light duty vehicles), and barely 8% is associated with gasoline passenger  
305 cars. In TNO\_MACC-II and TNO\_MACC-III,  $\text{NO}_x$  traffic emissions in Oslo domain associated with



306 diesel vehicles are around 86% and 90%, respectively. The share diesel versus gasoline seems to be  
 307 similar among the inventories. The reason behind discrepancies in  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions may be then in the  
 308 activity data, as emission factors in BUP and in the Norwegian national emissions (Statistic Norway,  
 309 2014), and therefore in the TOD, are from HBEFA. In Norway, national emission are estimated  
 310 following a Tier 3 according to EMEP/EEA (2013) guidebook and based on fuel sold, number of  
 311 vehicles per category, and driving patterns (Statistics Norway, 2014; Norwegian Environment  
 312 Agency, 2016), whereas the emissions in BUPs are based, among other variables, on the amount of  
 313 traffic per road link expressed as average daily traffic (ADT).

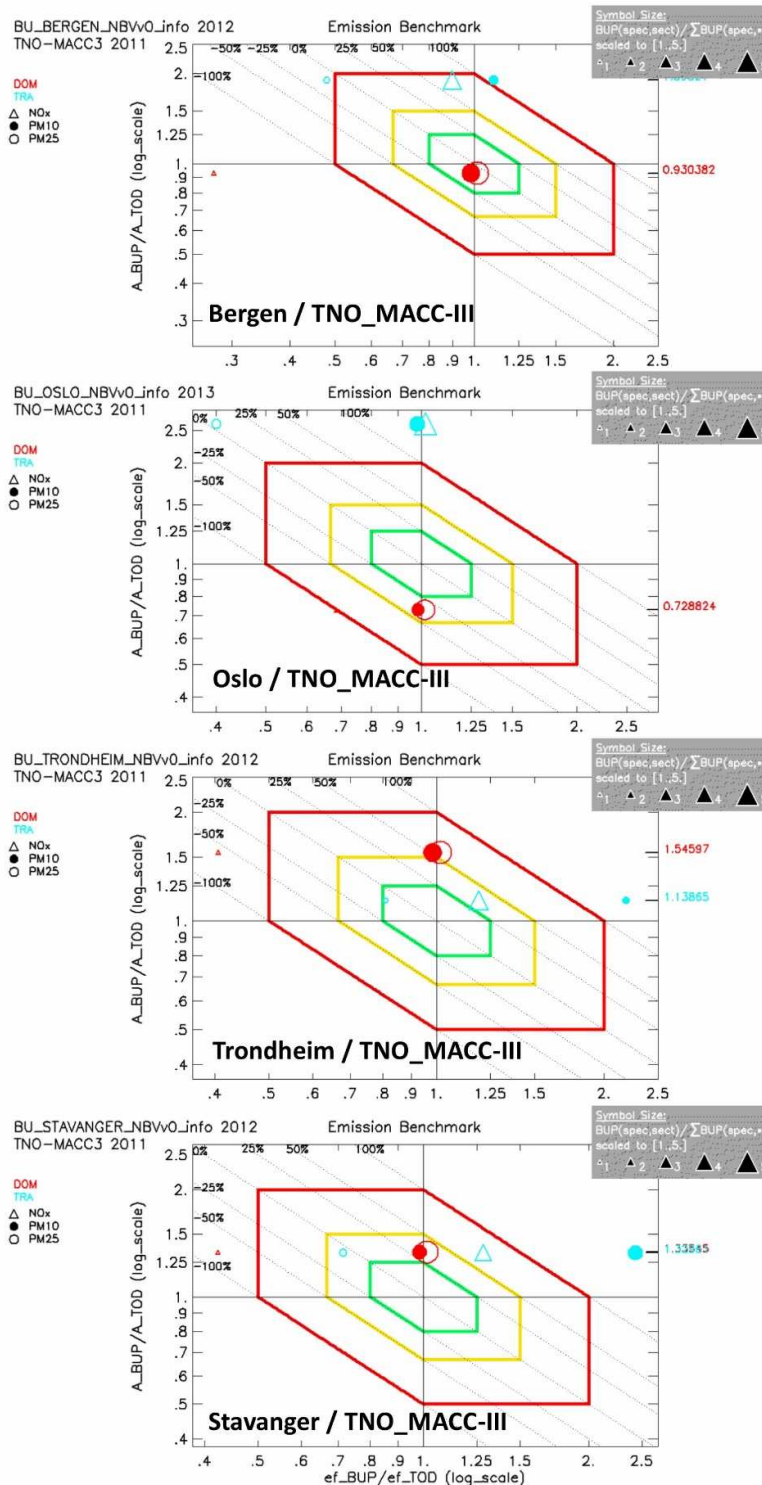
314 Traffic emissions for the four most populated urban areas are plotted on diamond diagrams (Figure 2)  
 315 in order to shed light on possible reasons of inconsistencies between BUPs and TODs. The  
 316 comparison is carried out with TNO\_MACC-III as it closest represents the year of the BUPs. The X  
 317 axis of the diamond diagram represents the emission factor ratio ( $\text{ef\_BUP}/\text{ef\_TOD}$ ) while the Y axis  
 318 represents the activity data ratio ( $\text{A\_BUP}/\text{A\_TOD}$ ). As a result, the distance from the X and Y origin  
 319 provide information on the deviations made in terms of emission factor and activity, respectively  
 320 (Thunis et al., 2016).



321

322 *Figure 1: Ratios of emissions of  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{PM}_{10}$  and  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  from bottom-up inventories (BUP) to downscaled emissions for the*  
 323 *SNAP7 (Road Transport).*

324 The disposition of the symbols representing  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{PM}_{10}$  and  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  emissions from traffic (TRA in  
 325 Figure 2) indicates that there may be inconsistencies in term of the emission factors as they are spread  
 326 on the horizontal axis (Thunis et al., 2016b). The  $\text{ef\_BUP}_{\text{PM}_{10}}/\text{ef\_TOD}_{\text{PM}_{10}}$  for the four model domains  
 327 are calculated to be  $\geq 1$ , and higher than  $\text{ef\_BUP}_{\text{PM}_{2.5}}/\text{ef\_TOD}_{\text{PM}_{2.5}}$ . These values indicate  
 328 overestimations of  $\text{EF}_{\text{PM}_{10}}$  in the BUPs. This supports previous observation regarding the existence of  
 329 resuspension when we estimate emissions of  $\text{PM}_{10}$  in the BUPs.



330

331

Figure 2: Diamond diagrams for Bergen, Oslo, Stavanger and Trondheim benchmarked against TNO\_MACC-III.

332

Traffic emissions are plotted on the area that indicates higher activity in the BUP than in the TOD<sub>TNO\_MACC-III</sub>, especially for Bergen and Oslo (Figure 2). The lack of detailed information about the location of emissions, and the method used to disaggregate traffic emissions entail discrepancies on activity for urban areas as shown by the diamond diagram. As previously stated, TNO\_MACC uses

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334

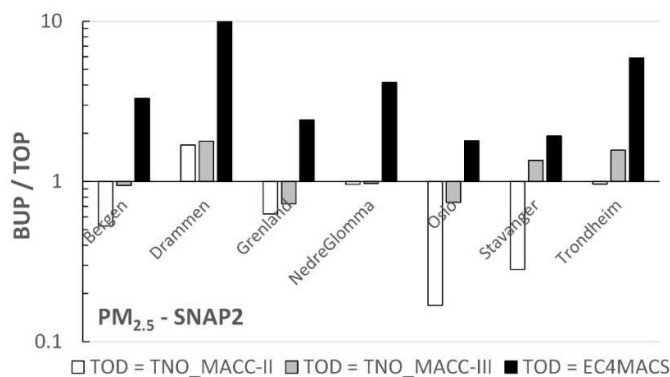
335

336 the TRANSTOOL road network and population data to allocate interurban and urban traffic  
 337 emissions, respectively. This is because TRANSTOOL focuses on interurban transport and only  
 338 considers motorways and main roads. The percentage of total traffic emissions that TNO\_MACC  
 339 assigns to urban traffic based on population is underestimated. The highest differences would be  
 340 observed for the areas with highest urban road network density, as it is the case of Oslo and Bergen  
 341 (Figure 2). This source of uncertainty has been previously stated in Ferreira et al. (2013). Similarly  
 342 Maes et al. (2009) established that the downscaling approach poorly reproduced the spatial surrogates  
 343 for on-road transport. BUPs inventories are more likely capturing the spatial variations within the  
 344 urban area, since the road network used to estimate the emissions at the road link level is more  
 345 detailed, includes more updated traffic variables (e.g. ADT) and contains secondary and local roads  
 346 along with the motorways and main roads.

#### 347 4.3. Residential combustion sector \_ wood burning

348 Emissions from non-industrial combustion plants (SNAP2) in Norway are mainly associated with the  
 349 residential sector and due to wood burning, as it is the second most important heating source after  
 350 electricity (<http://www.iea.org/>). The comparison of  $BUP_{PM_{2.5}}$  with the three TOPs for the residential  
 351 combustion sector shows several discrepancies (Figure 3). Emissions from area sources in Drammen  
 352 are downscaled according to an approach based on EMEP emissions and land cover data for  
 353 residential heating, emissions are calculated to be higher than in EC4MACs, TNO\_MACC-II and  
 354 TNO\_MACC-III.

355 The comparison with TNO\_MACC-II shows that  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions in the BUPs are lower, whereas the  
 356 comparison with TNO\_MACC-III shows that BUP and  $TOD_{TNO\_MACC-III}$  are similar or  $BUP_{PM_{2.5}}$  is  
 357 slightly higher (i.e. Stavanger and Trondheim; Figure 3). These differences reflect the modifications  
 358 introduced in TNO\_MACC-III with respect to TNO\_MACC-II, which show that emissions from  
 359 wood burning in urban areas have been reduced with the implementation of a new approach.



360

361 *Figure 3: Ratios of  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions in BUP to  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions in TOD for the SNAP2, Non-industrial combustion (top left).*

362 The comparison of BUPs with EC4MACs shows opposite results, as  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions in the BUPs are  
 363 calculated to be much higher than emissions resulting from the downscaling, and the ratio of BUP to  
 364  $TOP_{EC4MACs}$  reaches factors between 2 and 7. EC4MACs assumes that emissions from wood burning  
 365 sharply decreases with population density and therefore these emissions are allocated in sparsely  
 366 populated areas. This assumption is based on a bottom-up study carried out in France and thereafter it  
 367 was extrapolated to the whole Europe (Terrenoire et al., 2015; Bessagnet et al., 2016). This  
 368 assumption is valid for some European countries such as France, where the main heating sources in  
 369 urban areas are electricity and natural gas, while wood burning is mostly used as heating in rural  
 370 areas. However, this assumption is not valid for Norway, where wood burning is generally used as  
 371 heating source also in urban areas. Domestic wood burning has been reported to be an important

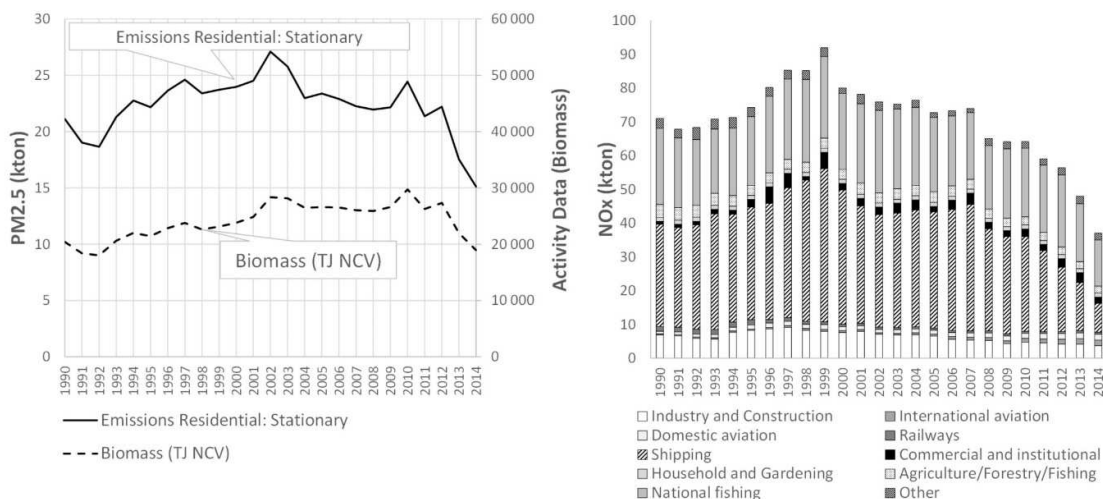
372 anthropogenic source of PM emissions in Nordic cities, and contributor to PM pollution levels. For  
373 instance, in Oslo (Norway), Lycksele (Sweden), Gävle (Sweden) and Helsinki (Finland), local  
374 domestic wood burning emissions have been estimated by source apportionment and measurements to  
375 contribute by 30-50%, 40-80%, 5-30% and 14%, respectively, to urban background concentration  
376 levels in winter (see review in Denby et al., 2009). For these reasons, it is fair to conclude that  
377 EC4MACs underestimates PM emissions from wood burning for residential combustion in urban  
378 areas in Scandinavia and Finland.

379 The diamond plot shows that  $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions from wood burning based on BUPs and  
380  $TOD_{TNO\_MACC-III}$  are consistent in Bergen (Figure 2). The benchmarking performed for Stavanger and  
381 Trondheim indicates that activities may be higher in the BUP emission inventories, whereas for Oslo  
382 is slightly lower. As indicated at the beginning of this paper, emissions from wood burning are a  
383 decade old in the BUPs and the years are not consistent among the urban areas. Results for Stavanger,  
384 Oslo and Trondheim refer to 1998, 2002 and 2005, respectively (Table 1), whereas TNO\_MACC-III  
385 emissions are based on 2011 activity data. Wood burning activity depends on the climatic conditions,  
386 thereby long and cold winters will result in higher wood consumption over the consumption during  
387 shorter and milder winters. In addition, the uncertainties in wood burning emission estimates are high,  
388 for instance in Oslo it has been reported to be around 50% (Denby et al., 2009). Wood burning is  
389 therefore one of the sectors that needs a special attention, and regular updates to best represent the  
390 reference year are required. Figure 4 shows time series for biomass consumption and  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions  
391 from residential heating in Norway from 1998 to 2014. Differences are observed from year to year on  
392 annual emission values, and they may be explained by different meteorological winter conditions.  
393 Norway has significant climate variations as it covers a span of 13 degrees of latitude, thus annual  
394 national average temperature or wood consumption would very much smooth the local variations.  
395 Variations from year to year may be higher at local scale such as in urban areas. Based on our  
396 knowledge of emissions from the residential heating in Norwegian urban areas and on the outcomes  
397 from the benchmarking, emissions in TNO\_MACC-III may represent better local scale in the selected  
398 Norwegian urban domains than TNO\_MACC-II and EC4MACs.

#### 399 4.4. Non-road mobile sources and machinery

400 In Norway, non-road mobile sources and machinery (SNAP8) contribute to around 20% of the total  
401 national  $NO_x$  emissions. Figure 4 shows the time series for  $NO_x$  emissions from SNAP8 and the  
402 corresponding subsectors, and a decrease is observed from 1999 to 2014, specially significant from  
403 2008. The biggest contributing subsectors is shipping, followed by national fishing and non-road  
404 mobile sources associated with industry and construction. The two latest subsectors have not  
405 experienced a significant change with time, whereas shipping exhibits a pronounced decrease.

406 The BUPs for the seven norwegian cities are not consistent regarding the completeness of emissions  
407 representing SNAP8 neither the year of reference. For instance, both Grenland and Nedre Glomma  
408 lack emissions from non-road mobile sources such as machinery in the construction and industrial  
409 sectors, and shipping is missing in Drammen, Grenland and Nedre Glomma. The incompleteness in  
410 the BUPs would explain the marked differences observed in total emissions with TODs (Table 3). The  
411 benchmarking exercise shows that emissions from non-road mobile sources based on BUP are lower  
412 than those reported by the TODs for both  $NO_x$  and  $PM_{10}$  (Figure 5, left panel). The  $BUP_{NOX}/TOP_{NOX}$   
413 ratios are between 0.3 and 0.5 for most of the urban areas, and in Trondheim the ratio  $BUP_{NOX}$  to  
414  $TOP_{NOX}$  reaches around 0.1.  $BUP_{PM10}/TOD_{PM10}$  ratios show higher inconsistencies reaching values  
415 around 0.2 or even below 0.1 in the case of Trondheim and  $TOD_{TNO\_MACCS}$ . An hypothesis to explain  
416 these differences lie on the bottom-up emission inventories, as they are more than a decade old when  
417 even complete, i.e. in Bergen, Oslo, Stavanger and Thronheim (Table 1). However, emissions from  
418 non-road mobile combustion sources have significantly decreased along time (Figure 4). Hereby, the  
419 comparison between BUP and more updated TODs would result on the opposite result,  $BUP > TOD$ .



420

421 *Figure 4: PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions from residential sector in Norway from 1990 to 2014 and the corresponding activity data (left)*  
 422 *and NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from non-road mobile sources and machinery (SNAP8) and corresponding subsectors (right).*

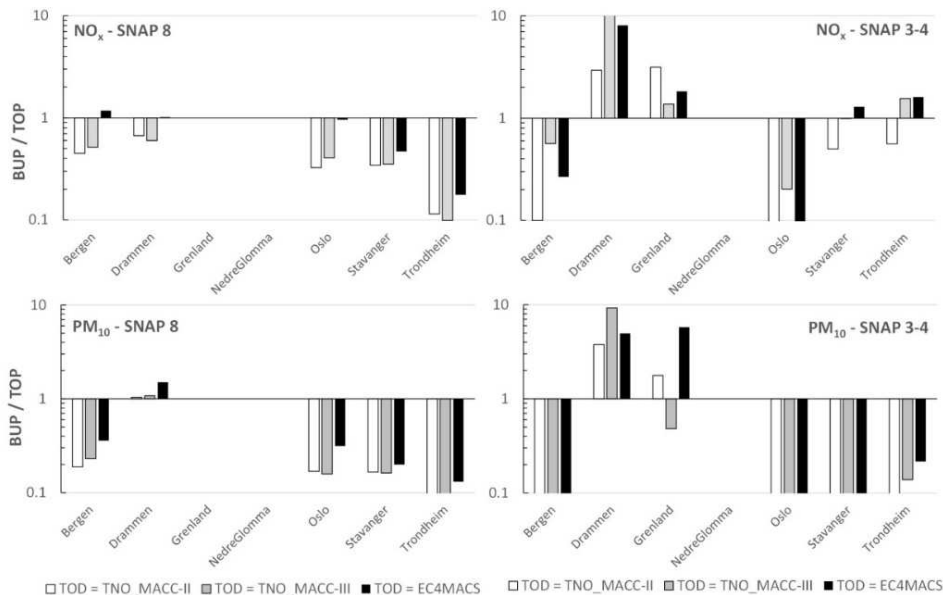
423 The most probable cause would be the proxis used for allocating and gridding emissions in the TODs  
 424 as part of the downscaling processes. For instance, mobile machinery associated with the  
 425 manufacturing industry and other mobile sources are allocated based on total population. This results  
 426 in an over-allocation of emissions in urban areas. In Norway, non-mobile sources associated with  
 427 construction and industries is the third biggest contributing subsector to SNAP8 (Figure 4), therefore  
 428 an over-allocation may result in significant differences as those observed in our results. At the  
 429 beginning of this chapter we indicated that total emissions of PM in TODs are reported to be higher  
 430 than total PM emissions in BUPs. Higher PM emissions from SNAP8 will contribute to the total  
 431 overestimation of emissions in urban areas.

#### 432 4.5. Diverse industry

433 Emissions from the industrial sector are low in all the analysed urban areas except for Grenland,  
 434 which holds an industrial complex with several large point sources. In Bergen and Oslo, NO<sub>x</sub>  
 435 emissions from the industrial sectors are much lower in the BUP than in TNO\_MACC-II and  
 436 EC4MACs (Figure 5). Emissions from SNAP3 and SNAP4 sectors that cannot be linked to a specific  
 437 E-PRTR facility (i.e. diffuse emissions) are merged in TNO\_MACC-II and gridded based on total  
 438 population. This approach results in an over-allocation of industrial emissions in urban areas, which  
 439 has already been pointed out in previous studies (Guevara et al., 2014). The improved TNO\_MACC-  
 440 III addressed this issue, and diffusive industrial emissions are distributed based on the industrial  
 441 classification from the CORINE land cover map (Table 2). Consequently,  $BUP_{NO_x}/TOD_{NO_x}$  (TNO\_MACC-  
 442 III) ratio approaches 1 for most of the urban areas. In EC4MACs, emissions from SNAP3 and SNAP4  
 443 are distributed according to TNO\_MACC and artificial land-use, respectively. This approach seems to  
 444 show consistent results, and similar to those reported by TNO\_MACC-III for some of the domains. In  
 445 Oslo domain, the ratio  $BUP_{NO_x}$  to  $TOD_{NO_x}$  is very low. To our knowledge, there are no important  
 446 industrial sources in Oslo geographical domain, and the contribution from those existing is almost  
 447 negligible to NO<sub>2</sub> pollution levels. There may still be an over-allocation of industrial emissions in  
 448 populated areas. Dios et al., (2012) pointed out about the inaccuracy of the E-PRTR information, i.e.  
 449 total amount of emissions released and geographical location, but the evaluation of the E-PRTR for  
 450 Oslo does not seem to show inaccurate results. However, CORINE land cover dataset for Oslo shows  
 451 large areas classified as industrial land uses. These areas are mainly commercial and storage facilities  
 452 located in the urban area and clearly distinguishable from residential areas. Therefore, the use of



453 CORINE land cover to allocate diffuse emissions is the reason for an over-allocation of industrial  
 454 emissions in urban areas.



455

456 *Figure 5: Ratios of  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{PM}_{10}$  emissions in BUPs to emissions in TODs for the SNAP8, Non-road transport (left) and*  
 457 *SNAP3+4, industry (right).*

458 It is also important to highlight that CORINE land cover data is from 2006, and therefore it may not  
 459 register some of the urban transitions from industrial to more environmentally friendly urban areas.  
 460 This may be the case of Drammen, where BUP emissions as area sources are calculated based on  
 461 downscaling approaches using CORINE land cover as ancillary data. The results show that Drammen  
 462 is a very industrial urban area, which does not correspond with the current situation.  
 463  $\text{BUP}_{\text{PM}_{10}}/\text{TOD}_{\text{PM}_{10}}$  shows very low values and below 0.1 for most of the urban domains. The BUP  
 464 considers  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  emissions equal to  $\text{PM}_{10}$ , and therefore emissions of the PM coarse fraction are set to  
 465 zero. The  $\text{BUP}_{\text{PM}_{2.5}}/\text{TOD}_{\text{PM}_{2.5}}$  ratios are similar to those obtained for  $\text{PM}_{10}$ , or slightly closer to 1 (no  
 466 shown in figure). Assuming that emissions of the PM coarse fraction is zero involves that we  
 467 underestimate  $\text{PM}_{10}$  emissions from the industrial sector in the BUP. Industry is a minor contributor to  
 468 emissions and to air pollution levels, thus we do not expect that it will affect the total emissions or the  
 469 subsequent evaluation.

470 The distribution of emissions from industry and on-road transport is very much based on a tier 1  
 471 according to EMEP/EEA (2013) guidebook, as it uses population or land cover as proxies to allocate  
 472 emissions. The results obtained in our study indicate that tier 1 involve high uncertainties and in most  
 473 of the cases an over allocation of emissions in highly populated areas.

## 474 5. Conclusions

475 This paper presents the comparison between seven bottom-up emission inventories for seven urban  
 476 areas in Norway and three downscaled regional emission inventories (EC4MACS, TNO\_MACC-II  
 477 and TNO\_MACC-III). The comparison focuses on  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{PM}_{10}$  and  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  emissions and on on-road  
 478 transport, residential combustion, non-road transport and industry sectors. Our study shows the benefit  
 479 of comparing emission inventories developed according to different approaches in order to improve  
 480 emissions in urban areas.

481 Total emissions of  $\text{NO}_x$  and PM from downscaled emission inventories are in general not similar to  
482 bottom-up emission inventories defined for the same urban areas. Discrepancies in the on-road  
483 transport sector are prevalent among the selected areas, and downscaled emission inventories usually  
484 underestimate both  $\text{PM}_{10}$  and  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions. Non-exhaust emissions due to resuspension is probably  
485 the main reason of discrepancies for  $\text{PM}_{10}$ , which is included in the Norwegian bottom-up emission  
486 inventories, but it is not in the regional estimates for the country. Re-suspension is an important  
487 source that needs to be taken into account as part of the design of programmes to reduce population  
488 exposure to PM levels above limit values. This is especially relevant in urban areas exposed to icing  
489 and de-icing conditions, and with the use of vehicles with studded tyres. National official emissions  
490 reported to UNECE by Norway does not include this subsector, but automobile tyre wear, brake wear  
491 and road abrasion. This is one of the limitations of the use of downscaled official emission inventories  
492 for air quality modelling at urban or regional scale.

493  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions from on-road transport are estimated to be much higher by means of bottom-up  
494 methods than from downscaling are. National emissions from on-road transport are estimated  
495 following a tier 3 approach based on fuel sales, vehicle fleet composition and driving patterns. The  
496 disaggregation of emissions from on-road transport in urban areas in regional emission inventories is  
497 performed based on population. This proxy entails lower activity and therefore an underestimation of  
498 traffic emissions in the urban area. This phenomenon occurs especially in urban areas characterized  
499 by high urban road network density. The bottom-up approaches are more likely capturing the spatial  
500 variations within the urban area, as several variables are defined as unique values at the road link  
501 level. Therefore, on-road traffic emissions from the seven bottom-up emission inventories are likely  
502 more accurate than traffic emissions from downscaled regional emission inventories. A way forward  
503 in the developing and improving of regional and global emission inventories would be the nesting of  
504 bottom-up inventories for urban areas, along with the improvement of the current European road  
505 network information.

506 The benchmarking shows significant discrepancies on the estimates of wood burning emissions  
507 according to bottom-up and downscaled approaches. The proxies selected for the spatial allocation of  
508 emissions are the main reason behind the discrepancies. In EC4MACS, an approach developed from a  
509 study in France was then extrapolated to the whole Europe. This assumption is not valid for countries  
510 as Norway, as it results in a significant underestimation of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  emissions from wood burning in  
511 urban areas. This can be the case for other European countries in northern latitudes where wood  
512 burning is very much used as heating source in urban areas. Wood burning for residential heating  
513 depends on local conditions, economy or even cultural factors. Our study shows the importance of  
514 local knowledge on the selection of assumptions and proxies for the spatial allocation of emissions.  
515 Thus, it is important to investigate the possibility of including knowledge and studies at local level in  
516 the development of European regional emission inventories. In addition, wood burning activity  
517 depends on the climatic conditions; therefore, we identify the need for regular updates of the wood  
518 burning sector in the seven bottom-up emission inventories to best represent the reference year.

519 Other sectors such as diffusive industrial emissions and non-road mobile combustion sources shows  
520 important discrepancies. One of the reasons is the incompleteness of some of the bottom-up emission  
521 inventories, especially for two urban areas (i.e. Nedre Glomma and Grenland). Another reason for  
522 discrepancies is the use of population or land cover as ancillary data. The use of population results in  
523 an overestimation of emissions in populated areas such as cities. Land cover has shown to be an  
524 improvement in the case of diffusive industrial emissions. However, the relatively outdated land cover  
525 data does not reflect the fast urban development experienced in some urban areas from industrial  
526 cities to more environmentally friendly populated areas. This can be the case of one of the bottom-up  
527 emission inventories, i.e. Drammen, which area sources are developed according to downscaling  
528 processes using land cover data. There is a need for new sources and ways of acquiring ancillary data  
529 that represent current conditions in urban areas experiencing fast urban planning and developments.

530 The benchmarking carried out here has strengthened our trust on the urban emission inventories for  
 531 Oslo, Bergen, Stavanger and Trondheim. For the three other Norwegian cities, this study shows the  
 532 need for further improvement of the urban emission inventories: in Grenland and Nedre Glomma  
 533 there are missing sources from the off-road sector, while the inconsistencies identified in Drammen  
 534 make recommendable a revision of the inventory methodology used to compile the urban scale  
 535 inventory. The study also shows how the data from the regional emission inventories cannot be  
 536 readily used in Norway, as there are important missing sources in particular from resuspension, road  
 537 traffic and biomass burning in the downscaled emissions if intended for use in urban areas.

538 The discrepancies found between downscaled and bottom-up emission inventories may have  
 539 significant implications for their subsequent use in for instance exposure assessments or the  
 540 evaluation of policy measures. Hence, the assimilation of bottom-up emission estimates and its local  
 541 ancillary data by downscaled regional emission inventories may improve the quality of the regional  
 542 inventories, and their subsequent applications.

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 547 Planning Tool.

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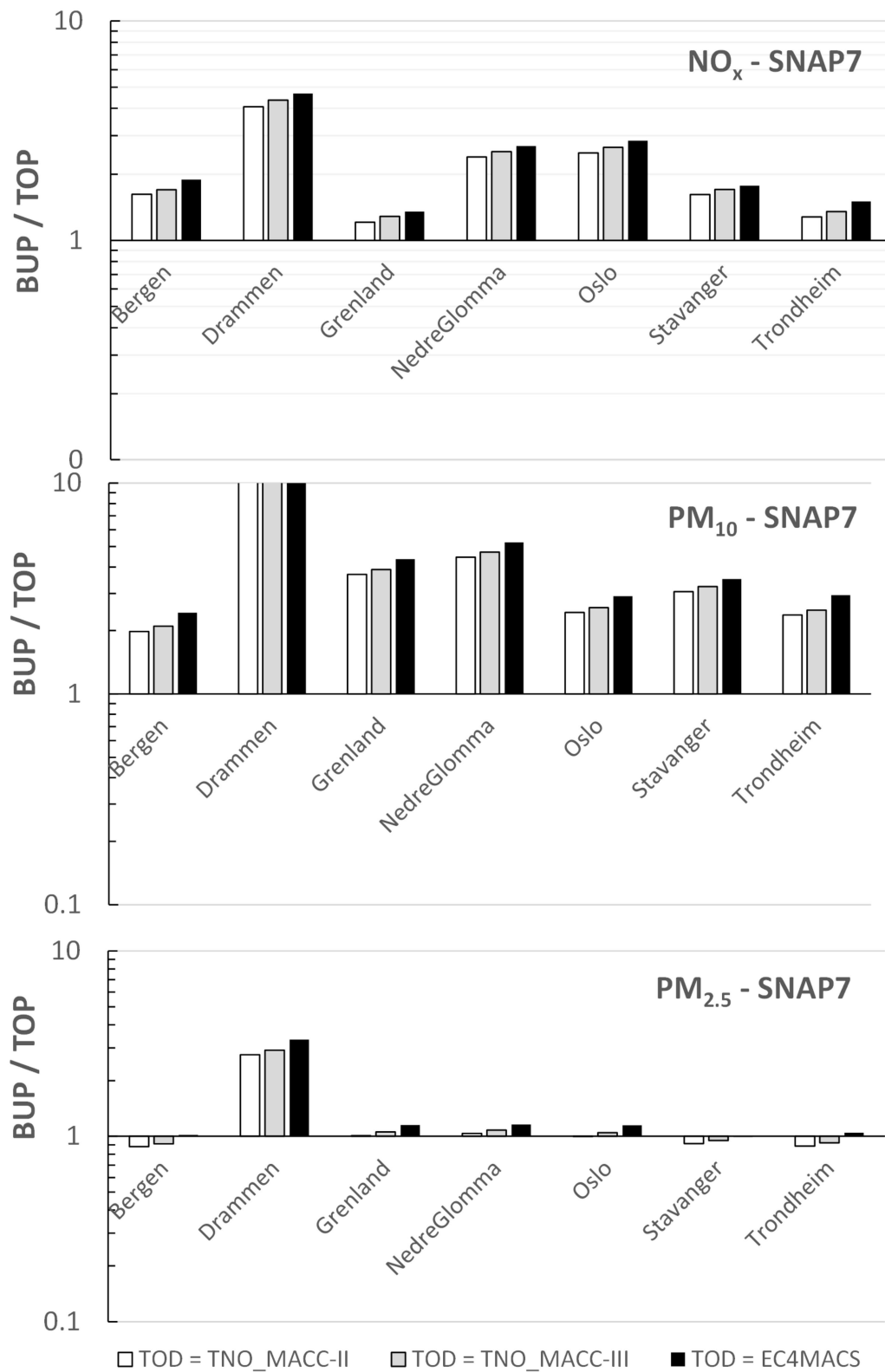
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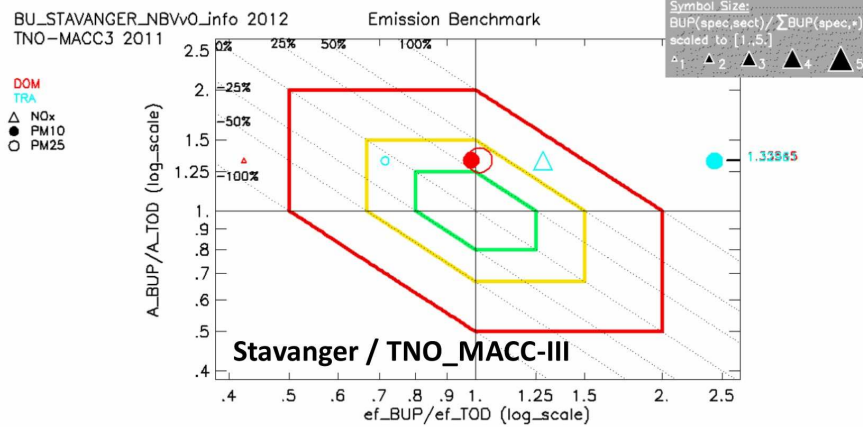
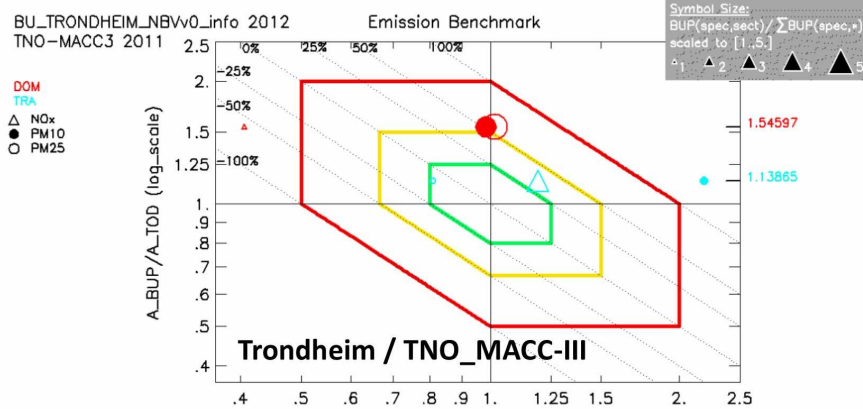
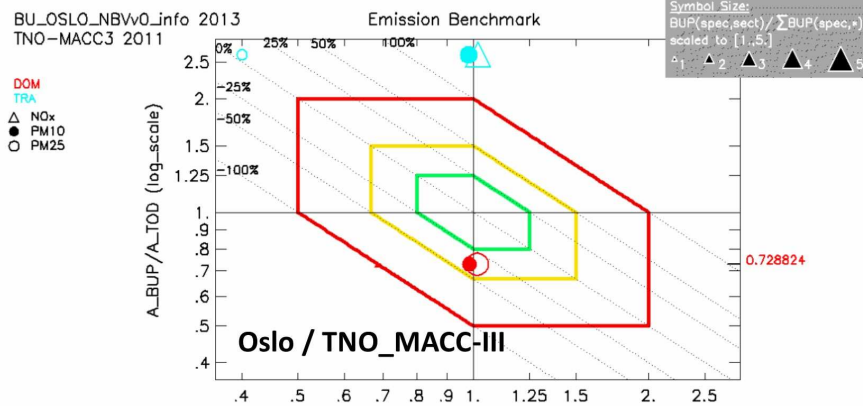
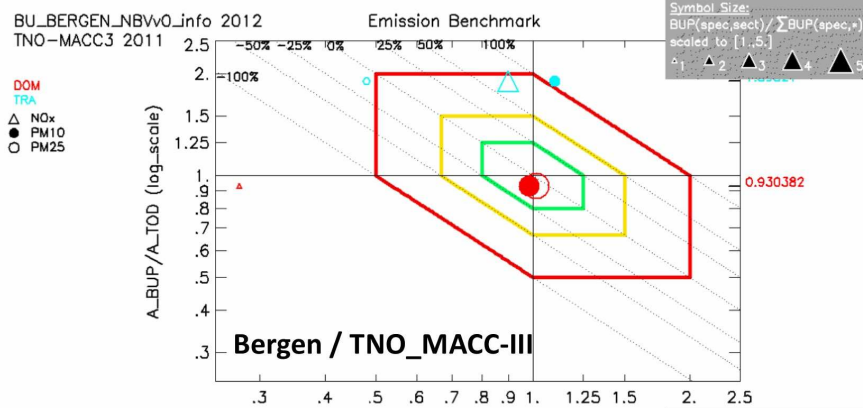


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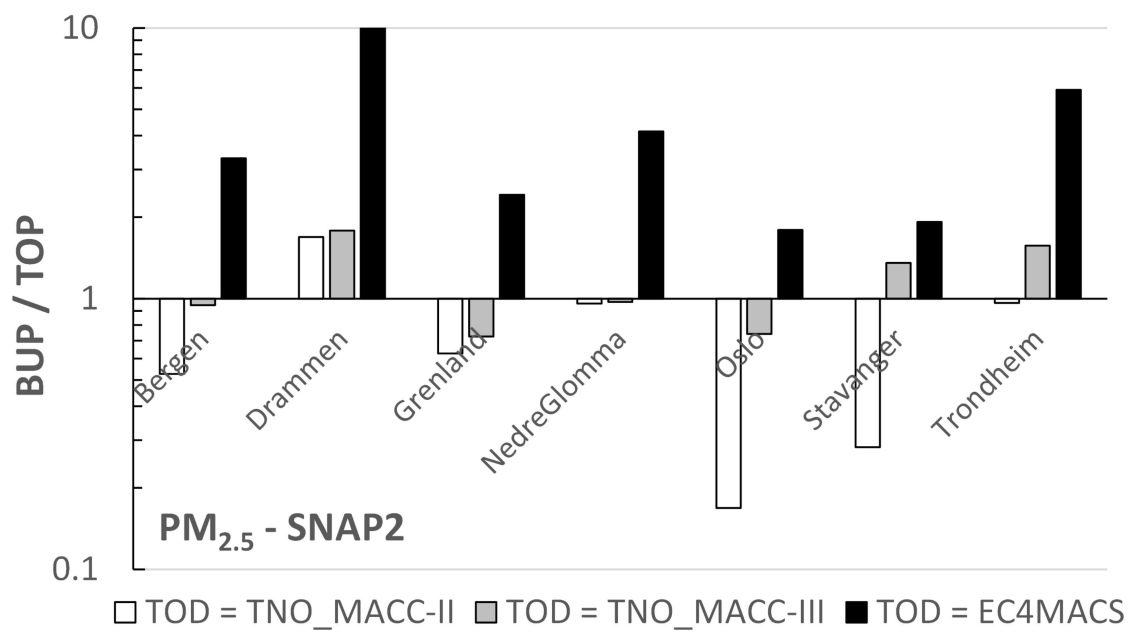
Urban areas	On-road Traffic	Residential Heating	Shipping	Off-road mobile combustion	Industry
Bergen	2012	2003	1995/1998	1995/1998	1995/1998
Drammen	2012	2012	n.a.	2012	2012
Grenland	2012	1998	n.a.	n.a.	1991
Nedre Glomma	2012	2012	n.a.	n.a.	2012
Oslo	2013	2002	2013	1995	2013
Stavanger	2012	1998	1995/1998	1995/1998	1995/1998
Trondheim	2012	2005	2005	2005	2005
SNAP sectors	SNAP7	SNAP 2	SNAP 8	SNAP 8	SNAP 3-4

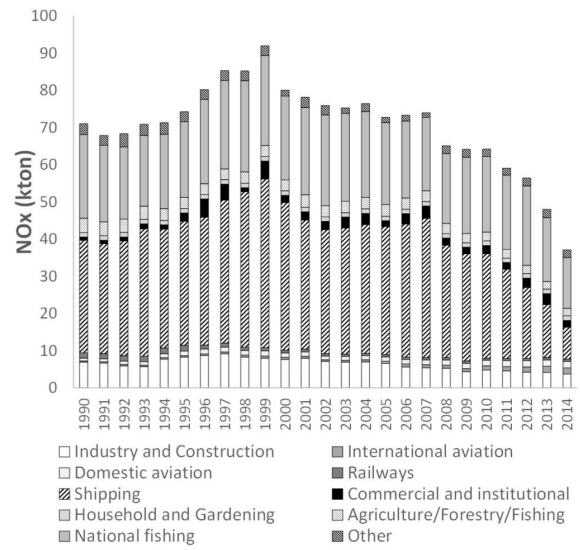
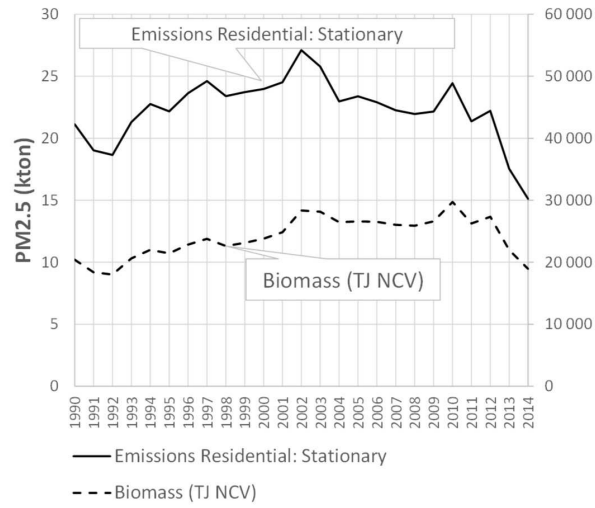
	<b>TNO-MACC_II</b>	<b>TNO-MACC_III</b>	<b>EC4MACS</b>
Ref	Kuenen et al., 2014	(pers. commun.)	Bessagnet et al., 2016; Denier van der Gon (2010)
Year	2003 - 2009	2000 - 2011	2009
SNAP1	E-PRTR, TNO PS database	Improved based on bottom up data and Industrial land cover	EPER and Artificial Landuse
SNAP2	Total population and Wood use map	TNO internal estimates (Population and wood availability)	Dissagregated based on population (Terrenoise et al., 2015)
SNAP3	E-PRTR, TNO PS database	Improved based on bottom up data and Industrial land cover	TNO_MACC (2007); E-PRTR and TNO PS database
SNAP4	E-PRTR, TNO PS database	Improved based on bottom up data and Industrial land cover	Artificial Landuse
SNAP5	E-PRTR, TNO PS database or Urban Population		Artificial Landuse
SNAP6	Total population		Artificial Landuse
SNAP7	TRANSTOOLS network and Total population		TNO_MACC (2007); Road Network and Partly population
SNAP8	TNO PS database, Rail map, Shipping map, Arable land, Total population	Shipping; methodology improved, estimated differently per sea	TNO_MACC (2007); Rail map, Inland and coastal waterways, Arable land, Population
SNAP9	E-PRTR, Rural population or Total population		TNO_MACC (2007); E-PRTR and Population
SNAP10	Livestock map, Arable land, Total population		TNO_MACC (2007); Livestock map, Arable land, Total population



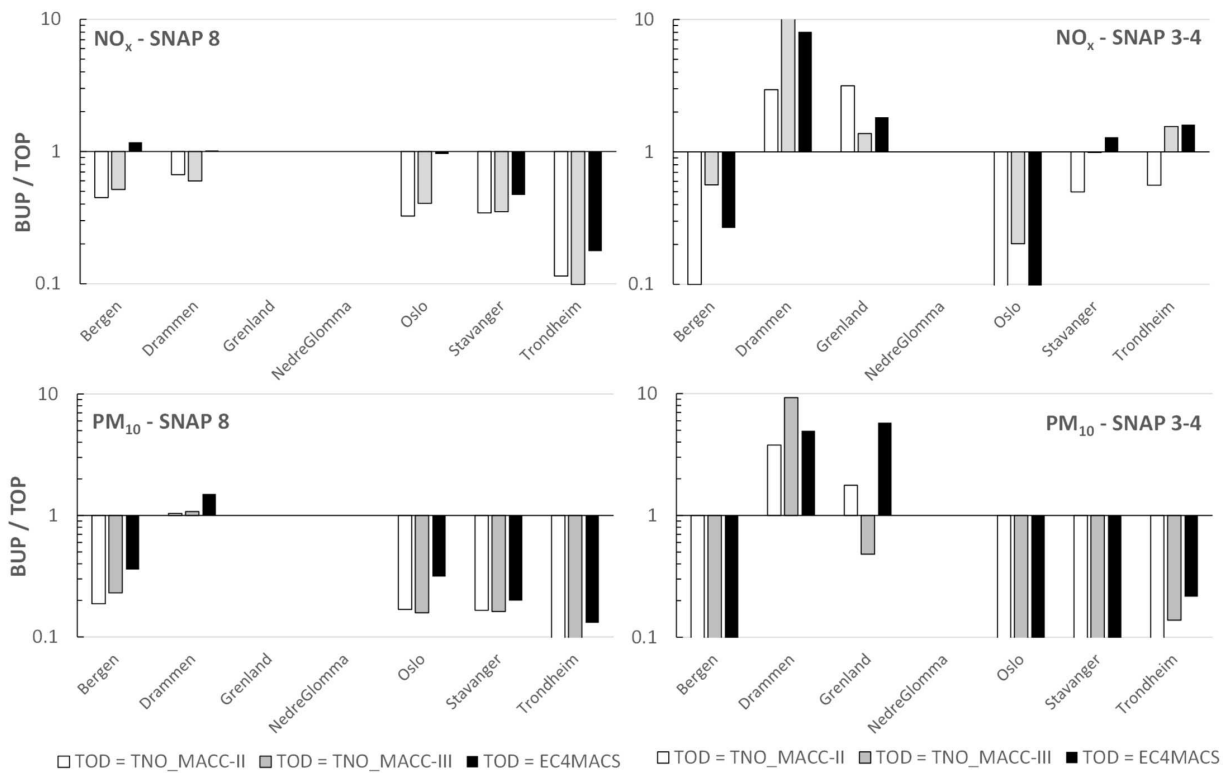








ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT



**Highlights**

- The capability of a benchmarking system to improve emission inventories is shown.
- The regional emission inventories cannot be readily used in urban areas in Norway.
- Regional emission inventories underestimate NO<sub>x</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub> urban traffic emissions.