

1 **The HTAP_v3 emission mosaic: merging regional and global monthly emissions (2000-**
2 **2018) to support air quality modelling and policies**

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35 **Abstract.** This study, performed under the umbrella of the Task Force on Hemispheric
36 Transport of Air Pollution (TF-HTAP), responds to the need of the global and regional
37 atmospheric modelling community of having a mosaic emission inventory of air pollutants that
38 conforms to specific requirements: global coverage, long time series, spatially distributed

1 emissions with high time resolution, and a high sectoral resolution. The mosaic approach of
2 integrating official regional emission inventories based on locally reported data, with a global
3 inventory based on a globally consistent methodology, allows modellers to perform simulations
4 of a high scientific quality while also ensuring that the results remain relevant to policymakers.

5 HTAP_v3, an ad-hoc global mosaic of anthropogenic inventories, has been developed by
6 integrating official inventories over specific areas (North America, Europe, Asia including
7 Japan and Korea) with the independent Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research
8 (EDGAR) inventory for the remaining world regions. The results are spatially and temporally
9 distributed emissions of SO₂, NO_x, CO, NMVOC, NH₃, PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, Black Carbon (BC), and
10 Organic Carbon (OC), with a spatial resolution of 0.1 x 0.1 degree and time intervals of months
11 and years covering the period 2000-2018 (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7516361>,
12 https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/dataset_htap_v3). The emissions are further disaggregated to 16
13 anthropogenic emitting sectors. This paper describes the methodology applied to develop such
14 an emission mosaic, reports on source allocation, differences among existing inventories, and
15 best practices for the mosaic compilation. One of the key strengths of the HTAP_v3 emission
16 mosaic is its temporal coverage, enabling the analysis of emission trends over the past two
17 decades. The development of a global emission mosaic over such long time series represents a
18 unique product for global air quality modelling and for better-informed policy making,
19 reflecting the community effort expended by the TF-HTAP to disentangle the complexity of
20 transboundary transport of air pollution.

21 **1 Introduction**

22 Common international efforts have procured an agreement to reduce global air pollutant
23 emissions. For this purpose, the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE)
24 Convention on Long Range Transboundary Air Pollution (CLRTAP) and the Task Force on
25 Hemispheric Transport of Air Pollution (TF-HTAP) have been instrumental in developing the
26 understanding of intercontinental transport of air pollution and thus contributing to the
27 reduction of key pollutants in Europe and North America.

28 The success of CLRTAP is based on meeting strict reduction targets for pollutant releases.
29 Therefore, evaluating the resulting implications of these reductions requires an ongoing
30 improvement of global emission inventories in terms of emission updating and of
31 methodological refinements. These aspects are instrumental to gain understanding of
32 transboundary air pollution processes and drivers and to measure the effectiveness of emissions
33 reduction and air quality mitigation policies. New guidance is available to achieve further
34 emission reductions across all emitting sectors. For example, the 2019 establishment of the
35 Task Force for International Cooperation on Air Pollution, which is intended to promote
36 international collaboration for preventing and reducing air pollution and improving air quality
37 globally (UNECE, 2021). As part of the ongoing effort by CLRTAP to reduce emissions and
38 to set out more effective and accountable mitigation measures, the 2005 Gothenburg Protocol
39 (UNECE, 2012) has been revised, including the review of the obligations in relation to
40 emission reductions and mitigation measures (e.g., black carbon and ammonia) and the review
41 of the progress towards achieving the environmental and health objectives of the Protocol.

42
43 The Task Force on Hemispheric Transport of Air Pollution (TF-HTAP) of the Convention has
44 a mandate to promote the scientific understanding of the intercontinental transport of air
45 pollution to and from the UNECE area (<https://unece.org/geographical-scope>), to quantify its
46 impacts on human health, vegetation and climate, and to identify emission mitigation options
47 that will shape future global policies.

1 This paper describes and discusses a consistent global emission inventory of air pollutants
2 emitted by anthropogenic activities. This important database has been developed to assess the
3 contribution of anthropogenic air pollution emission sources within and outside the UNECE-
4 area through atmospheric modelling. This inventory has been compiled based on officially
5 reported emissions, and an independent global inventory where officially reported emissions
6 are not used. This harmonised emissions “mosaic” dataset, hereafter referred to as the
7 HTAP_v3, contains annual and monthly:

- 8 - emission time series (from 2000 to 2018) of SO₂, NO_x (expressed as NO₂ mass unit),
9 CO, NMVOC, NH₃, PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, BC, OC by emitting sector and country, and
- 10 - spatially distributed emissions on a global grid with spatial spacing of 0.1x0.1 degree.

11 The creation of a global emission mosaic requires the harmonisation of several data sources,
12 detailed analysis of contributing sectors for the different input inventories, development of data
13 quality control procedures, and a robust and consistent gap-filling methodology when lacking
14 information. The development of HTAP_v3 builds upon the previous experience of the
15 HTAPv1 (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2012) and HTAPv2.2 (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2015)
16 global inventories. HTAP_v3, as requested by the TF-HTAP modelling community, provides
17 a more refined sectoral disaggregation compared to the previous HTAP emission mosaics. It
18 also includes tools (https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/htap_tool/) that allow the extraction of
19 emission data over selected domains (detailed later in section 4).

20 This paper describes the development the HTAP_v3 database as a global anthropogenic air
21 pollutant emissions inventory mosaic for the period 2000-2018. The HTAP_v3 mosaic has
22 been composed by integrating official, spatially distributed emissions data from CAMS-REG-
23 v5.1 (Kuenen et al., 2022), US EPA (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2021b, a),
24 Environment and Climate Change Canada (ECCC) (NPRI, 2017), REAS, CAPSS-KU, and
25 JAPAN (<https://www.env.go.jp/air/osen/pm/info.html>) (Kurokawa and Ohara, 2020; Chatani
26 et al., 2018; Chatani et al., 2020) inventories. As the information gathered from the official
27 reporting covers only part of the globe, HTAP_v3 has been completed using emissions from
28 the Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR) version 6.1
29 (https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/dataset_ap61).

30 One of the key strengths of the HTAP_v3 emission mosaic is the temporal coverage of the
31 emissions, spanning the 2000-2018 period, enabling the analysis of emission trends over the
32 past two decades. The development of a global emission mosaic over such long time series
33 represents a unique product for air quality modelling and for better-informed policy making,
34 reflecting the effort of the TF-HTAP community to improve understanding of the
35 transboundary transport of air pollution. The year 2000 was chosen as the start year since it
36 often represents the year from which complete datasets of annual air pollutant emissions can
37 be generated. It also represents a turning point for several emerging economies (e.g., China)
38 and the strengthening of mitigation measures in historically developed regions (e.g., EU, USA,
39 etc.).

40 The two previous HTAP emission mosaics had limited temporal coverage. HTAPv1 covered
41 the period 2000-20005 with annual resolution (https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/dataset_htap_v1,
42 (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2012)), while HTAPv2.2 covered two recent years (2008 and 2010),
43 but with monthly resolution (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2015)
44 (https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/dataset_htap_v2). However, the needs of the TF-HTAP
45 modelling community are continuously evolving to both foster forward-looking air quality
46 science and produce more fit-for-purpose analyses in support of efficient policy making.
47 HTAP_v3 therefore not only covers the time period of the previous HTAP phases, but also

1 extends it forward by almost a decade, to provide the most up-to-date picture of global air
2 pollutant emission trends. Another distinguishing feature of the HTAPv3 mosaic is a
3 considerably higher sectoral resolution than previous iterations of the HTAP mosaic
4 inventories (section 2.2), enabling more policy-relevant use of the inventory.

5 The methodology and data sources for the HTAP_v3 emission mosaic are described in section
6 2. The long-time coverage of two decades, allows comprehensive trend analysis (see section
7 3), the HTAP_v3 data format and data-set access are presented in section 4 and conclusions
8 are provided in section 5.

10 **2 HTAP_v3 emission mosaic overview: data sources, coverage, and methodology**

11 **2.1 Data input**

12 The HTAP_v3 mosaic is a database of monthly- and sector-specific global air pollutant
13 emission gridmaps developed by integrating spatially explicit regional information from recent
14 officially-reported national or regional emission inventories. Data from six main regional
15 inventories were integrated into HTAP_v3, which covered only North America, Europe, and a
16 portion of Asia (including Japan, China, India, and South Korea) (Fig.1). The geographical
17 domain covered by each of these inventories is depicted in Fig. 1, while further details on each
18 contributing inventory are presented in section 2.3. The emissions for all other countries,
19 international shipping and aviation (international and domestic) have been retrieved from the
20 Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGARv6.1,
21 https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/dataset_ap61) as represented by the grey areas in Fig.1.
22 Depending on the pollutant, more than half of global emissions are provided by region-specific
23 inventories, while the remaining contribution is derived from the EDGAR global inventory as
24 reported in the bar graph of Fig.1, where the share of each individual inventory to global
25 emissions is represented. For all pollutants, the Asian domain is contributing most to global
26 emissions, hence the importance of having accurate emission inventories for this region.

27 Recent literature studies (Puliafito et al., 2021; Huneus et al., 2020; Álamos et al., 2022; Keita
28 et al., 2021; MEIC, 2022) document additional regional/local inventories which may contribute
29 to future updates of HTAP_v3, in particular extending the mosaic compilation to regions in the
30 Southern Hemisphere. Considering relative hemispheric emission levels as well as the
31 atmospheric dynamics happening in the Northern Hemisphere and regulating the
32 transboundary transport of air pollution, the current HTAP_v3 mosaic should still satisfy the
33 needs of the atmospheric modelling community, although improvements using latest available
34 inventories for Africa and South America may also be considered for future updates.

35 Table 1 provides an overview of all data providers, in terms of geographical and temporal
36 coverage, data format, and sectoral and pollutant data availability. Table 2 defines the
37 HTAP_v3 sectors and corresponding IPCC codes. Table 3 further details the sector-pollutant
38 data availability for each inventory and the gap-filling approach required for some sectors and
39 pollutants.

40 **2.2 Pollutant, spatial, temporal and sectoral coverage**

41 The HTAP_v3 emission mosaic helps to address the transboundary role of air pollutants by
42 providing a key input for atmospheric modellers and supporting the evaluation of
43 environmental impact analyses for poor air quality. For this reason, HTAP_v3 provides global
44 0.1 x 0.1 degree emission gridmaps for all air pollutants and specifically for acidifying and

1 eutrophying gases (such as SO₂, NH₃, NO_x), ozone precursors (NMVOC, CO, NO_x), and
2 primary particulate matter (PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, BC, OC).

3 Emissions from each officially-reported inventory were submitted to HTAP on 0.1 x 0.1 degree
4 regional gridmaps. Spatial allocation was performed to these gridmaps for each sector by each
5 inventory group using the best available set of subsector spatial surrogate fields used by each
6 group (e.g., <https://www.emascenter.org/sa-tools>). EDGARv6.1 global gridmaps are also on a
7 0.1 x 0.1 degree grid.

8 Compared to the two previous HTAP emission mosaics, HTAP_v3 input emission gridmaps
9 were provided with monthly time distributions to better reflect the regional seasonality of sector
10 specific emissions (e.g., household, power generation, and agricultural activities). Information
11 on emission peaks over certain months of the year is also a useful information for the
12 development of territorial policies to mitigate localised emission sources in space and time
13 (e.g., emissions from residential heating over winter months, agricultural residue burning, etc.).

14 The HTAP_v3 mosaic provides emissions for gaseous and particulate matter air pollutants
15 arising from all anthropogenic emitting sectors except for wildfires and savannah burning,
16 which represent major sources of particulate matter and CO emissions. Wildfires and savannah
17 burning are not included in the current mosaic since community efforts are ongoing to tackle
18 these sources specifically. Modellers can find these additional sources on several publicly
19 available global wildfire emission datasets compiled based on the best available scientific
20 knowledge, such as the Global Fire Emission Database (GFED,
21 <https://www.globalfiredata.org/>) or the Global Wildfire Information System (GWIS,
22 <https://gwis.jrc.ec.europa.eu/>). When using satellite retrieved emissions from fires, they should
23 be treated with caution to avoid double counting the emissions released by e.g. agricultural
24 crop residue burning activities.

25 HTAP_v3 provides emissions at higher sectoral disaggregation than previous HTAP
26 experiments¹ to better understand drivers of emission trends and the effectiveness of sector-
27 specific policy implementation. Emissions from 16 sectors are provided by the HTAP_v3
28 mosaic, namely: International Shipping; Domestic Shipping; Domestic Aviation; International
29 Aviation; Energy; Industry; Fugitives; Solvent Use; Road Transport; Brake and Tyre Wear;
30 Other Ground Transport; Residential; Waste; Agricultural Waste Burning; Livestock; and
31 Agricultural Crops. Further details on the sector definitions as well as their correspondence
32 with the IPCC codes (IPCC, 1996, 2006) are provided in Table 2. The selection of the number
33 of sectors was constrained by the sectoral disaggregation of the input inventories (see Table
34 S1). Table 3 provides the complete overview of the emission data provided by each inventory
35 group indicating the pollutants covered for each sector and eventual gap-filling information
36 included using the EDGARv6.1 data. Table 4 reports a summary of the main features of the 3
37 HTAP emission mosaics, showing the advancements achieved with this work. The high sector
38 disaggregation available within the HTAP_v3 mosaic gives needed flexibility to modellers to
39 include or exclude emission sub-sectors in their simulations, in particular when integrating the
40 anthropogenic emissions provided by HTAP_v3 with other components (e.g. natural
41 emissions, forest fires, etc.). However, we recommend particular caution when using a natural

¹HTAPv1 covered 10 broad emission sectors (Aircraft, Ships, Energy, Industry Processes, Ground Transport, Residential, Solvents, Agriculture, Agriculture Waste Burning, and Waste), while even broader sectoral emissions were provided in HTAPv2.2 (Air, Ships, Energy, Industry, Transport, Residential (including waste), and Agriculture (only for NH₃)).

1 emissions model such as MEGAN (Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature,
2 <https://www2.acom.ucar.edu/modeling/model-emissions-gases-and-aerosols-nature-megan>),
3 which includes the estimation of NMVOC emissions from crops and soil NO_x emissions
4 (including agricultural soils) that are also provided by the HTAP_v3 mosaic.

5

6 **2.3 Inventory overviews**

7 In the following sub-sections, details are provided on each officially-reported inventory used
8 to construct the HTAP_v3 emission mosaic.

9 **2.3.1 CAMS-REG-v5.1 inventory**

10 The CAMS-REG-v5.1 emission inventory was developed to support air pollutant and
11 greenhouse gas modelling activities at the European scale. The inventory builds largely on the
12 official reported data to the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) for
13 greenhouse gases (for CO₂ and CH₄), and the Convention on Long-Range Transboundary Air
14 Pollution (CLRTAP) for air pollutants. For the latter, data are collected for NO_x, SO₂, CO,
15 NMVOC, NH₃, PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5}, including all major air pollutants. For each of these pollutants,
16 the emission data are collected at the sector level at which these are reported for the time series
17 2000-2018 for each year and country. The CAMS-REG inventory covers UNECE-Europe,
18 extending eastward until 60°E, therefore including the European part of Russia. For some non-
19 EU countries, the reported data are found to be partially available or not available at all. In
20 other cases, the quality of the reported data is found to be insufficient, i.e. with important data
21 gaps or following different formats or methods. In this case, emission data from the IIASA
22 GAINS model instead (IIASA, 2018) are used. This model is the main tool used to underpin
23 pan-European and EU level air quality policies such as the UNECE Convention on Long Range
24 Transboundary Air Pollution (UNECE, 2012) and the EU National Emission reduction
25 Commitments Directive (European Commission, 2016).

26 After collecting all the emission data from reporting and GAINS, the source sectors are
27 harmonised, distinguishing around 250 different subsectors. For each detailed sector, a
28 speciation is applied to the PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ emissions, distinguishing elemental carbon
29 (representing BC in the HTAP_v3 inventory), organic carbon and other non-carbonaceous
30 emissions for both the coarse (2.5-10 μm) and fine (<2.5 μm) mode.

31 A consistent spatial resolution is applied across the entire domain, where a specific proxy is
32 selected for each subsector to spatially distribute emissions, including for instance the use of
33 point source emissions, e.g., from the European Pollutant Release and Transfer Register (E-
34 PRTR), complemented with additional data from the reporting of EU Large Combustion Plants
35 (European Commission, 2001) and the Platts/WEPP commercial database for power plants
36 (Platts, 2017). Road transport emissions are spatially disaggregated using information from
37 OSM (Open Street Map, 2017), combined with information on traffic intensity in specific road
38 segments from OTM (OpenTransportMap, 2017). Agricultural livestock emissions are
39 spatially distributed using global gridded livestock numbers (FAO, 2010). Furthermore,
40 CORINE land cover (Copernicus Land Monitoring Service, 2016) and population density are
41 other key spatial distribution proxies.

42 After having spatially distributed the data, the ~ 250 different source categories are aggregated
43 to fit with the HTAP_v3 sector classification (Table S1). CAMS-REG-v5.1 is an update of an
44 earlier version, CAMS-REG-v4.2 and based on the 2020 submissions to cover the years 2000-
45 2018. A detailed description of the CAMS-REG-v4.2 inventory is provided in Kuenen et al.
46 (2022).

1 The data are provided as gridded annual totals at a resolution of 0.05°x0.1° (lat-lon). Along
2 with the grids, additional information is available including height profiles as well as temporal
3 profiles to break down the annual emissions into hourly data (monthly profiles, day-of-the-
4 week profiles and hourly profiles for each day). Furthermore, the CAMS-REG inventory
5 provides dedicated speciation profiles for NMVOC per year, country and sector.

6 **2.3.2 US EPA inventory**

7 Emissions estimates for the United States were based primarily on estimates produced for the
8 EPA's Air QUALity Time Series Project (EQUATES), which generated a consistent set of
9 modelled emissions, meteorology, air quality, and pollutant deposition for the United States
10 spanning the years 2002 through 2017 (<https://www.epa.gov/cmaq/equates>). For each sector, a
11 consistent methodology was used to estimate emissions for each year in the 16-year period, in
12 contrast to the evolving methodologies applied in the triennial U.S. National Emissions
13 Inventories (NEIs) produced over that span. The HTAPv3 time series was extended back one
14 year to 2001 and forward one year to 2018 using country, sector, and pollutant specific trends
15 from EDGARv6.1.

16

17 Emissions estimates were calculated for more than 8000 Source Classification Codes grouped
18 into 101 sectors and then aggregated to the 16 HTAP_v3 emission sectors. The 2017 NEI (U.S.
19 Environmental Protection Agency, 2021b) served as the base year for the time series. For each
20 sector, emissions estimates were generated for previous years using one of four methods: 1)
21 applying new methods to create consistent emissions for all years, 2) scaling the 2017 NEI
22 estimates using annual sector-specific activity data and technology information at the county
23 level, 3) using annual emissions calculated consistently in previous NEIs and interpolating to
24 fill missing years, and 4) assuming emissions were constant at 2017 levels. The assumption of
25 constant emissions was applied to a very limited number of sources. Foley et al. (2023)
26 provides a detailed explanation of the assumptions used for each sector.

27 Emissions from electric generating units were estimated for individual facilities, combining
28 available hourly emissions data for units with continuous emissions monitors (CEMs) and
29 applying regional fuel-specific profiles to units without CEMS. On-road transport and non-
30 road mobile emissions were estimated using emission factors from the MOVES v3 model (U.S.
31 Environmental Protection Agency, 2021a). A complete MOVES simulation was completed
32 only for the NEI years with national adjustment factors applied for years plus or minus one
33 from the NEI year. For California, emission factors for all on-road sources for all years were
34 based on the California Air Resources Board Emission Factor Model (EMFAC)
35 (<https://ww2.arb.ca.gov/our-work/programs/mobile-source-emissions-inventory/>). New non-
36 road emissions estimates for Texas were provided by the Texas Commission on Environmental
37 Quality. Emissions from oil and gas exploration and production were calculated using point
38 source specific data and the EPA Oil and Gas Tool (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency,
39 2021b), incorporating year-specific spatial, temporal, and speciation profiles. Residential wood
40 combustion estimates were developed with an updated methodology incorporated into the 2017
41 NEI and scaled backward to previous years using a national activity as a scaling factor. Solvent
42 emissions were estimated using the Volatile Chemical Product (VCPy) framework of Seltzer
43 et al. (2021). Emissions from livestock waste were calculated with revised annual animal
44 counts to address missing data and methodological changes over the period. Emissions for

1 agricultural burning were developed using a new suite of activity data with the same
2 methodology and input data sets from 2002 onwards. County-level estimates were only
3 available for 2002 because activity data based on satellite information was not yet available.
4 Emissions for forest wildfires, prescribed burns, grass and rangeland fires were also calculated
5 in EQUATES but not included in the HTAP_v3 data. For EQUATES, fugitive dust emissions
6 (e.g., unpaved road dust, coal pile dust, dust from agricultural tilling) were reduced to account
7 for precipitation and snow cover by grid cell. For use in HTAP_v3, however, no
8 meteorological adjustments (which decrease annual PM₁₀ emissions by about 75% on average)
9 were applied to fugitive dust emissions. Wind-blown fugitive dust emissions are not included
10 in the estimates for other regions in the HTAP_v3 mosaic

11 Non-point source emissions were allocated spatially based on a suite of activity surrogates (e.g.
12 population, total road miles, housing, etc.), many of which are sector specific. The spatial
13 allocation factors were calculated for the 0.1 degree grid used by EDGARv6.1 with no
14 intermediate re-gridding. The spatial allocation factors for all sectors were held constant for
15 the entire time series except for oil and gas sectors which were year-specific. Depending on
16 the sector, either 2017-based or 2014-based surrogates were developed for the same sectors as
17 in the EQUATES.

18 Emissions from the US EPA inventory were provided from 2002-2017 (Table 1). Emissions
19 for the year 2018 were estimated applying country, sector and pollutant specific trends from
20 EDGAR, as well as for years 2000 and 2001 to complete the entire time series. Table S1
21 provides an overview about the US EPA inventory sector mapping to the HTAP_v3 sectors.

22 **2.3.3 Environment and Climate Change Canada (ECCC) inventory**

23 The Canadian emissions inventory data were obtained from 2018-released edition of Canada's
24 Air Pollutant Emissions Inventory (APEI) originally compiled by the Pollutant Inventories and
25 Reporting Division (PIRD) of Environment and Climate Change Canada (ECCC) (APEI,
26 2018). This inventory contains a comprehensive and detailed estimate of annual emissions of
27 seven criteria air pollutants (SO₂, NO_x, CO, NMVOC, NH₃, PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}) at the national and
28 provincial/territorial level for each year for the period from 1990 to 2016. The APEI inventory
29 was developed based on a bottom-up approach for facility-level data reported to the National
30 Pollutant Release Inventory (NPRI) (NPRI, 2017), as well as an in-house top-down emission
31 estimates based on source-specific activity data and emissions factors. In general,
32 methodologies used to estimate Canadian emissions are consistent with those developed by the
33 U.S. EPA (EPA, 2009) or those recommended in the European emission inventory guidebook
34 (EMEP/EEA, 2013). These methods are often further adjusted by PIRD to reflect the Canadian
35 climate, fuels, technologies and practices.

36 To prepare emissions in the desired HTAP classification, the APEI sector emissions were first
37 mapped to the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) Nomenclature for
38 Reporting (NFR) categories, which involved dividing the sector emissions into their
39 combustion and process components. The NFR categories were then mapped to the HTAP 16
40 sector categories provided in the sector disaggregation scheme guide. Table S1 provides an
41 overview of ECCC sector mapping to the HTAP_v3 sectors.

42 The HTAP-grouped APEI inventory emissions files were further processed by the Air Quality
43 Policy-Issue Response (REQA) Section of ECCC to prepare the air-quality-modelling version
44 of inventory files in the standard format (i.e., FF10 format) supported by the U.S EPA
45 emissions processing framework. To process emissions into gridded, speciated and total
46 monthly values, a widely-used emissions processing system called the Sparse Matrix Operator

1 Kernel Emissions (SMOKE) model, version 4.7 (UNC, 2019) was used. As part of the
2 preparation for SMOKE processing, a gridded latitude-longitude North American domain at
3 0.1 x 0.1 degree resolution was defined with 920 columns and 450 rows covering an area of -
4 142W to -50W and 40N to 85N. The point-source emissions in the APEI include latitude and
5 longitude information so those sources were accurately situated in the appropriate grid cell in
6 the Canadian HTAP gridded domain. However, to allocate provincial-level non-point source
7 emissions into this domain, a set of gridded spatial surrogate fields was generated for each
8 province from statistical proxies, such as population, road network, dwellings, crop
9 distributions, etc. Over 80 different surrogate ratio files were created using the 2011 Canadian
10 census data obtained from Statistics Canada website ([https://www12.statcan.gc.ca/census-
11 recensement/2011/index-eng.cfm](https://www12.statcan.gc.ca/census-recensement/2011/index-eng.cfm)) and other datasets, such as the Canadian National Road
12 Network (<https://open.canada.ca/data/en/dataset/3d282116-e556-400c-9306-ca1a3cada77f>).

13 To map the original APEI inventory species to the HTAP's desired list of species, PM
14 speciation profiles from the SPECIATE version 4.5 database (EPA, 2016) were used to
15 calculate source-type-specific EC and OC emissions. As a final step in SMOKE processing,
16 the monthly emissions values were estimated using a set of sector-specific temporal profiles
17 developed and recommended by the U.S. EPA (Sassi, 2021). For the point sources the NPRI
18 annually reported monthly emissions proportions were applied. Emissions for the years 2017
19 and 2018 were calculated by applying sector- and pollutant-specific trends from EDGAR.

20 **2.3.4 REASv3.2.1 inventory**

21 The Regional Emission inventory in ASia (REAS) series have been developed for providing
22 historical trends of emissions in the Asian region including East, Southeast, and South Asia.
23 REASv3.2.1, the version used in HTAP_v3, runs from 1950 to 2015. REASv3.2.1 includes
24 emissions of SO₂, NO_x, CO, NMVOCs, NH₃, CO₂, PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, BC, and OC from major
25 anthropogenic sources: fuel combustion in power plant, industry, transport, and domestic
26 sectors; industrial processes; agricultural activities; evaporation; and others.

27 Emissions from stationary fuel combustion and non-combustion sources are traditionally
28 calculated using activity data and emission factors, including the effects of control
29 technologies. For fuel consumption, the amount of energy consumption for each fuel type and
30 sector was obtained from the International Energy Agency World Energy Balances for most
31 countries and province-level tables in the China Energy Statistical Yearbook were used for
32 China. Other activity data such as the amount of emissions produced from industrial processes
33 were obtained from related international and national statistics. For emission factors, those
34 without effects of abatement measures were set and then, effects of control measures were
35 considered based on temporal variations of their introduction rates. Default emission factors
36 and settings of country- and region-specific emission factors and removal efficiencies were
37 obtained from scientific literature studies as described in Kurokawa and Ohara (2020) and
38 references therein.

39 Emissions from road transport were calculated using vehicle numbers, annual distance
40 travelled, and emission factors for each vehicle type. The number of registered vehicles were
41 obtained from national statistics in each country and the World Road Statistics. For emission
42 factors, year-to-year variation were considered by following procedures: (1) Emission factors
43 of each vehicle type in a base year were estimated; (2) Trends of the emission factors for each
44 vehicle type were estimated considering the timing of road vehicle regulations in each country
45 and the ratios of vehicle production years; (3) Emission factors of each vehicle type during the
46 target period were calculated using those of base years and the corresponding trends.

1 In REASv3.2.1, only large power plants were treated as point sources. For emissions from
2 cement, iron, and steel plants, grid allocation factors were developed based on positions,
3 production capacities, and start and retire years for large plants. Gridded emission data of
4 EDGARv4.3.2 were used for grid allocation factors for the road transport sector. Rural, urban,
5 and total population data were used to allocation emissions from the residential sector. For
6 other sources, total population were used for proxy data.

7 For temporal distribution, if data for monthly generated power and production amounts of
8 industrial products were available, monthly emissions were estimated by allocating annual
9 emissions to each month using the monthly data as proxy. For the residential sector, monthly
10 variation of emissions was estimated using surface temperature in each grid cell. If there is no
11 appropriate proxy data, annual emissions were distributed to each month based on number of
12 dates in each month.

13 Monthly gridded emission data sets at $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$ resolution for major sectors and emission
14 table data for major sectors and fuel types in each country and region during 1950-2015 are
15 available in text format from a data download site of REAS (<https://www.nies.go.jp/REAS/>).
16 Table S1 provides an overview about the REASv3.2.1 sector mapping to the HTAP_v3 sectors.

17 More details of the methodology of REASv3.2.1 are available in Kurokawa and Ohara (2020)
18 and its supplement. (Note that REASv3.2.1 is the version after error corrections of REASv3.2
19 of Kurokawa and Ohara (2020)). Details of the error corrections are described in the data
20 download site of REAS.) Table S1 provides an overview about the REASv3.2.1 sector mapping
21 to the HTAP_v3 sectors.

22 The MEIC inventory (<http://meicmodel.org>, 2021) is not currently included in the HTAP_v3
23 mosaic. Since the REAS inventory only includes emissions until 2015, the REAS-based
24 HTAP_v3 mosaic is only complete until this year. Emissions beyond 2015 were extrapolated
25 using trends derived from a combination of MEIC and EDGAR. To extend the Chinese
26 emission estimates to most recent years, MEIC data were used to adjust sector and pollutant
27 specific trend for China for the years 2016 and 2017 (refer to Table S2 for the mapping sectors
28 of MEIC and HTAP_v3). Then, the 2018 data were calculated based on the 2015-2017 trend.
29 For all the other countries belonging to the REAS domain, the emissions were extended beyond
30 2015 applying the sector-, country-, and pollutant-specific trends from EDGAR.

31 **2.3.5 CAPSS-KU inventory**

32 In the Republic of Korea, the National Air Emission Inventory and Research Center (NAIR)
33 estimates annual emissions of the air pollutants CO, NO_x, SO_x, TSP, PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, BC, VOCs,
34 and NH₃ via the Clean Air Policy Support System (CAPSS). The CAPSS inventory is divided
35 into four source-sector levels (high, medium, low and detailed) based on the European
36 Environment Agency's (EEA) CORE Inventory of AIR emissions (EMEP/CORINAIR). For
37 activity data, various national- and regional-level statistical data collected from 150 domestic
38 institutions are used. For large point sources, emissions are estimated directly using real-time
39 stack measurements. For small point, area and mobile sources, indirect calculation methods
40 using activity data, emission factors, and control efficiency are used.

41 Even though CAPSS (Clean Air Policy Support System) has been estimating annual emissions
42 since 1999, some inconsistencies exist in the time series because of the data and methodological
43 changes over the period. For example, emissions of PM_{2.5} were initiated from the year 2011
44 and not from 1999. Therefore, in the CAPSS emission inventory, PM_{2.5} emissions were
45 calculated from 2011, and post-2011 the PM₁₀ to PM_{2.5} emission ratio was used to calculate the
46 emissions from 2000 to 2010. These limitations make it difficult to compare and analyse

1 emissions inter-annually. To overcome these limitations, re-analysis of the annual emissions
2 of pollutants was conducted using upgrades of the CAPSS inventory, such as missing source
3 addition and emission factor updates.

4 The biomass combustion and fugitive dust sector emissions from 2000 to 2014 were estimated
5 and added in the inventory, which are newly calculated emission sources from 2015. As for the
6 on-road mobile sector, new emission factors using 2016 driving conditions were applied from
7 the year 2000 to 2015. Since the emissions from the combustion of imported anthracite coal
8 were calculated only from 2007, the coal use statistics of imported anthracite from 2000 to
9 2006 were collected to estimate emissions for those years.

10 After all the adjustments, a historically re-constructed emissions inventory using the latest
11 emission estimation method and data was developed. Table S1 provides an overview about the
12 CAPSS sector mapping to the HTAP_v3 sectors.

13 **2.3.6 JAPAN inventory (PM2.5EI and J-STREAM)**

14 The Japanese emission inventory contributing to the HTAP_v3 mosaic is jointly developed by
15 the Ministry of the Environment, Japan (MOEJ) for emissions arising from mobile sources and
16 by the National Institute of Environmental Studies (NIES) for estimating emissions from fixed
17 sources.

18 The mobile source emissions data for the HTAP_5.1, 5.2, and 5.4 sectors are based on the air
19 pollutant emission inventory named “PM2.5 Emission Inventory (PM2.5EI),
20 <https://www.env.go.jp/air/osen/pm/info.html>). PM2.5EI has been developed for the years 2012
21 and 2015, while for 2018 is currently under development. Almost all anthropogenic sources
22 are covered, but emissions from vehicles are estimated in particular detail based on JATOP
23 (Shibata, 2021). The emission factor of automobiles is constructed by MOEJ as a function of
24 the average vehicle speed over several kilometres in a driving cycle that simulates driving on
25 a real road. Emission factors are organized by 7 types of vehicles, 2 fuel types, 5 air pollutants,
26 and regulation years, and have been implemented since 1997 as a project of MOEJ. By using
27 these emission factors and giving the average vehicle speed on the road to be estimated, it is
28 possible to estimate the air pollutant emissions per kilometre per vehicle. The hourly average
29 vehicle speed of trunk roads, which account for 70% of Japan's traffic volume, is obtained at
30 intervals of several kilometres nationwide every five years, so the latest data for the target year
31 is used. For narrow roads, the average vehicle speed by prefecture measured by probe
32 information is applied. It is 20 km/h in Tokyo, but slightly faster in other prefectures. Starting
33 emission is defined as the difference between the exhaust amount in the completely cold state
34 and the warm state in the same driving cycle and is estimated by the times the engine started
35 in a day. Chassis dynamometer tests are performed in a well-prepared environment, so for more
36 realistic emissions estimates, temperature correction factor, humidity correction factor,
37 deterioration factor, DPF regeneration factor, and soak time correction factor are used. In
38 addition to running and starting emissions, evaporative emissions from gasoline vehicles and
39 non-exhaust particles such as road dust (including brake wear particles) and tire wear particles
40 are combined to provide a vehicle emissions database with a spatial resolution of approximately
41 1 km × 1 km (30° latitude, 45° longitude), and a temporal resolution of an hour by month,
42 including weekdays and holidays.

1 Further improvements of Japanese road transport emissions may be available in future updates
2 of the HTAP_v3 mosaic.

3 Emissions from stationary sources in Japan are derived from the emission inventory developed
4 in the Japan's Study for Reference Air Quality Modelling (J-STREAM) model intercomparison
5 project (Chatani et al., 2018; Chatani et al., 2020). In this emission inventory, emissions from
6 stationary combustion sources are estimated by multiplying emission factors and activities
7 including energy consumption, which is available in the comprehensive energy statistics. Large
8 stationary sources specified by the air pollution control law need to report emissions to the
9 government every three years. The emission factors and their annual variations were derived
10 from the emissions reported by over 100,000 sources (Chatani et al., 2020). For fugitive VOC
11 emissions, MOEJ maintains a special emission inventory to check progress on regulations and
12 voluntary actions targeting 30% reduction of fugitive VOC emissions starting from 2000. VOC
13 emissions estimated in this emission inventory are used. Emissions from agricultural sources
14 are consistent with the emissions estimated in the national greenhouse gas emission inventory
15 (Center for Global Environmental Research et al., 2022). Emissions of all the stationary sources
16 are divided into prefecture, city, and grid (approximately 1 x 1 km) levels based on spatial
17 proxies specific to each source. Emissions for the year 2018 were estimated applying sector-
18 and pollutant-specific trends from EDGAR. Table S1 provides an overview about the Japanese
19 inventory sector mapping to the HTAP_v3 sectors.

20 **2.4 Gap-filling methodology with EDGARv6.1**

21 EDGAR is a globally consistent emission inventory of air pollutant and greenhouse gases
22 developed and maintained by the Joint Research Centre of the European Commission
23 (<https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/>). The EDGAR methodology used to compute GHG and air
24 pollutant emissions has been described in detail in several publications (Janssens-Maenhout et
25 al., 2019; Crippa et al., 2018) and summarised here after. In EDGAR, air pollutant emissions
26 are computed making use of international statistics as activity data (e.g., International Energy
27 Balance data, Food and Agriculture Organisation statistics, US Commodity statistics, etc.),
28 region- and/or country-specific emission factors by pollutant/sector and technology and
29 abatement measures, following Eq. 1:

$$30 \quad EM_{i(C,t,x)} = \sum_{j,k} AD_{i(C,t)} * TECH_{i,j(C,t)} * EOP_{i,j,k(C,t)} * EF_{i(C,t,x)} * (1 - RED)_{i,j,k(C,t,x)}$$

31 (Eq. 1)

32 where EM are the emissions from a given sector i in a country C accumulated during a year t
33 for a chemical compound x , AD the country-specific activity data quantifying the human
34 activity for sector i , TECH the mix of j technologies (varying between 0 and 1), EOP the mix
35 of k (end-of-pipe) abatement measures (varying between 0 and 1) installed with a share k for
36 each technology j , and EF the uncontrolled emission factor for each sector i and technology j
37 with relative reduction (RED) by abatement measure k . Emission factors are typically derived
38 from the EMEP/EEA Guidebooks (EMEP/EEA, 2013, 2019, 2016), the AP-42(EPA, 2009)
39 inventory and scientific literature.

40 Annual country and sector specific air pollutant emissions are then disaggregated into monthly
41 values (Crippa et al., 2020) and subsequently spatially distributed making use of detailed proxy
42 data (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2019; Crippa et al., 2021).

1 As the most comprehensive and globally consistent emission database, the latest update of the
2 EDGAR air pollutant emissions inventory, EDGARv6.1
3 (https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/dataset_ap61), is used in the HTAP_v3 mosaic to complete
4 missing information from the officially reported inventories, as reported in Table 3.
5 EDGARv6.1 includes important updates to estimate air pollutant emissions such as the
6 improvement of road transport emission estimates for many world regions, the inclusion of
7 agricultural NMVOC emissions, revised monthly emission profiles (Crippa et al., 2020) and
8 updated spatial proxies to distribute national emissions by sector over the globe (Crippa et al.,
9 2021). EDGARv6.1 also includes new international shipping proxies and their monthly
10 distribution based on the STEAM model (Jalkanen et al., 2012; Johansson et al., 2017). In the
11 Supplementary Material (section S2), the assessment of EDGAR emission data is reported in
12 comparison with global and regional inventories.

13 **3 Results**

14 **3.1 Annual time series analysis: trends and regional and sectoral contributions**

15 Having a consistent set of global annual emission inventories for a two-decade period allows
16 the investigation of global emissions trends for the inventory pollutants and regional and
17 sectoral contributions. Figure 2 presents annual time series (2000-2018) of the global
18 emissions of the nine air pollutants included in the HTAP_v3 mosaic separated into the actual
19 contributions of 12 regions. Figure 3 shows the corresponding relative contributions of (a) 16
20 sectors and (b) 12 regions to the 2018 global emissions of these same pollutants. We can then
21 discuss each pollutant in turn. In the following paragraphs we shortly present global and
22 regional air pollutant emissions and their trends over the 2000-2018 period as provided by the
23 HTAP_v3 data. Emissions are not presented with a confidence level since no comprehensive
24 bottom-up uncertainty analysis has been performed in the context of the mosaic compilation,
25 however see discussion in section 3.5.

26

27 Global SO₂ emissions declined from 99.4 to 72.9 Mt over the past two decades. This decreasing
28 pattern is found for several world regions with the fastest decline in Eastern Asia, where after
29 the year 2005 SO₂ emissions began to decrease steadily. This is consistent with the use of
30 cleaner fuels with lower sulphur content and the implementation of desulphurisation techniques
31 in power plants and industrial facilities in China in accordance with the 11th Five-Year Plan
32 (FYP, 2006–2010 (Planning Commission, 2008)) and the 12th Five-Year Plan (FYP, 2011–
33 2015 (Hu, 2016)) (Sun et al., 2018). Similarly, industrialised regions, such as North America
34 and Europe, are characterised by a continuous decreasing trend in SO₂ emission, which had
35 started well before the year 2000 due to the implementation of environmental and air quality
36 legislation (EEA, 2022). Increasing SO₂ emissions, on the other hand, are found for Southern
37 Asia (+112% compared to 2000), South-East Asia and developing Pacific (+62%), and Africa
38 (+40%). These increases mostly arise from the energy, industry, and (partly) residential
39 sectors, and reflect the need for emerging and developing economies to mitigate these
40 emissions. Emissions estimated using satellite retrievals and model inversions confirm the
41 trends provided by the HTAP_v3 mosaic (Liu et al., 2018). SO₂ is mostly emitted by power
42 generation and industrial activities, which in 2018 represent 42% and 26%, respectively, of the
43 global total. Despite measures in some specific sea areas to mitigate sulphur emissions, globally
44 they have been rising steadily with increasing activity. International shipping represents 13.8%
45 of global SO₂ emissions in 2018, and it is 41% higher compared to the 2000 levels (Fig. 3).

1 Global NO_x emissions increased from 110.4 Mt in 2000 to 117.4 Mt in 2018 as a result of the
2 increase in energy- and industry-related activities for most of the world regions (in particular
3 over the Asian domain). The strongest decreases are found for North America (-63%), Europe
4 (-42%), Asia-Pacific Developed (-32%) and to a lower extent for Eurasia (-6%). Comparable
5 spatio-temporal patterns are found by satellite OMI data and ground based measurements of
6 NO₂ concentrations (Jamali et al., 2020). NO_x is mainly produced at high combustion
7 temperatures (e.g., power and industrial activities, 38% of the global total), but also by
8 transportation (27% of the global total) and international shipping (14% of the global total).

9 CO is mostly emitted by incomplete combustion processes from residential combustion,
10 transportation and the burning of agricultural residues. Globally, CO emissions showed little
11 change over the past two decades (502.7 Mt in 2000 vs. 499.8 in 2018), but different regional
12 trends are present. Historically industrialised regions have reduced their emissions over the
13 years (-42% in Europe and -62% in North America), while CO emissions increased in Africa
14 by 45% and in Southern Asia by 49%. Road transport CO emissions halved over the past two
15 decades (-55%), while the emissions from all other sectors increased. These results are
16 consistent with MOPITT satellite retrievals, which mostly show the same trends over the
17 different regional domains over the past decades (Yin et al., 2015).

18 NM VOC emissions increased from 115.2 Mt in 2000 to 146 Mt in 2018. These emissions are
19 mostly associated with the use of solvents (25% of the 2018 global total), fugitive emissions
20 (23%), road transportation (including both combustion and evaporative emissions, 15%) and
21 small-scale combustion activities (19%). The most prominent increases in the emissions at the
22 global level are found for the solvents sector (+81%). In 2018, NM VOC emissions from
23 solvents were 3.7 and 3.5 times higher than in 2000 in China and India, respectively, while a
24 rather stable trend is found for US and Europe.

25 Global NH₃ emissions increased from 47.4 Mt in 2000 to 58.9 Mt in 2018 due to enhanced
26 emissions from agricultural activities. In particular, NH₃ emissions strongly increased in Africa
27 (+60.5%), South-East Asia and developing Pacific (48.3%), Southern Asia (+38.7%), and Latin
28 America and Caribbean (+41.1%).

29 Particulate matter emissions showed little change over the past two decades at the global level,
30 whereas regional emission increases are found for Africa (e.g., +47.0% for PM₁₀), Latin
31 America and Caribbean (+39.1%), Middle East (48.3%), and Southern Asia (+56%), mostly
32 associated with increases in agricultural waste burning and the livestock, energy, and waste
33 sectors. By contrast, Eastern Asia (-39.5%), Europe (-24.3%), and Asia-Pacific Developed (-
34 36.8%) significantly decreased their PM₁₀ emissions over the past two decades due to the
35 continuous implementation of reduction and abatement measures for the energy, industry, road
36 transport and residential sectors (Crippa et al., 2016). As shown in Fig. 3, the relative
37 contribution of North America to global PM₁₀ is quite high compared to other substances due
38 to fugitive dust emissions (e.g., unpaved road dust, coal pile dust, dust from agricultural tilling)
39 which have not been adjusted for meteorological conditions (e.g., rain, snow) and near-source
40 settling and mitigation (e.g., tree wind breaks) because these removal mechanisms are better
41 addressed by the chemical transport models. Additional uncertainty may be therefore
42 introduced for these emissions, depending on the modelling assumptions of each official
43 inventory. Similarly, particulate matter speciation into its carbonaceous components is often
44 challenging and subjected to higher level of uncertainty, for instance because different
45 definitions are used for PM in inventories, including condensable emissions or not (Denier van
46 der Gon et al., 2015). Attempts to improve the accuracy of such emissions (e.g. BC and OC
47 emissions over the European domain) are ongoing.

1 Figure 3a shows more than 50% difference at the global level between PM_{2.5} emissions and the
2 sum of its carbonaceous components (BC and OC), which however varies depending on the
3 region and sector. The largest difference between PM_{2.5} and the sum of BC and OC is generally
4 found for the energy and industrial sectors, where due to the high temperatures BC and OC are
5 largely burned. Within this sector, the non carbonaceous fraction of PM_{2.5} represents around
6 75% in Europe, 78% in the USA and up to more than 95% over Asian countries (e.g. China
7 and India). This PM fraction is represented by other minerals, ash (mostly when burning coal)
8 and sulphate. Road transport is also a sector showing large differences between PM_{2.5} and the
9 sum of BC and OC, with around 40% difference for Europe, around 90% difference for USA
10 and lower values for India and China (around 15%). This component may be associated with
11 other minerals. For the residential sector, this difference is generally lower and around 25%
12 (for Europe and Asian countries), while around 37% in the USA and is possibly associated
13 with other minerals and ash due to coal combustion. Shipping is also a sector where a large
14 component of PM_{2.5} (around 70%) is not associated with carbonaceous fractions but to
15 sulphate. In particular, regions within the Sulphur Emission Control Area (SECA) show lower
16 contributions from sulphates (e.g. Europe and USA) with an overall contribution of 5-10%.
17 Another source of uncertainty which may contribute to enhancing the difference between PM_{2.5}
18 and the sum of BC and OC is associated on how different inventories consider condensable
19 particulate matter.

20 **3.2 Emission maps**

21 Spatially distributed emission data describe where emissions take place, as input for local,
22 regional and global air quality modelling. As noted in section 2.2, nationally aggregated air
23 pollutant emissions are spatially distributed over the corresponding national territory using
24 spatial proxy data which are believed to provide a relatively good representation of where
25 emissions takes place. Depending on the emitting sector, air pollutants can be associated with
26 the spatial distributions of point sources (e.g., in the case of power plant or industrial activities),
27 road networks (e.g., for transportation related emissions), settlement areas (e.g., for small-scale
28 combustion emissions), crop and livestock distribution maps, ship tracks etc. Using reliable
29 and up-to-date spatial information to distribute national emissions is therefore relevant,
30 although challenging. Multiple assumptions are often made by inventory compilers when
31 developing their inventories, which may result in differences when analysing spatially
32 distributed emissions provided by different inventory compilers over the same geographical
33 domain.

34 One key goal of the HTAP_v3 mosaic is to collate in one inventory the most accurate spatially-
35 distributed emissions for all air pollutants at the global level, based on the best available local
36 information. Point sources related with emissions from power plant and industrial facilities
37 represent one the most critical spatial information to be retrieved, and their misallocation can
38 significantly affect the characterisation of local air quality. This challenge is also present in the
39 HTAP_v3 mosaic. For example, the REASv3.2.1 inventory is still using limited information
40 to distribute emissions from these two sectors especially for industrial plants. Depending on
41 the region, point source information could be limited compared to datasets used in inventories
42 of North America and Europe. To overcome this issue, the participation of national emission
43 inventory developers not only from China, but also India and other Asian countries is
44 recommended. The impact can be seen in Fig. 4, which shows the global map of SO₂ emissions
45 in 2018 based on the HTAP_v3 mosaic compilation, where information about the magnitude
46 and the type of emission sources for the different regions can be retrieved. The energy and
47 industry sectors contribute a large fraction of SO₂ emissions (Fig. 3a), but the spatial
48 distribution of these emissions is qualitatively different in North America and Europe than in

1 Asia (i.e., more “spotty”, less smooth and widely distributed). Ship tracks cover the entire
2 geographical marine domain, consistent with emissions from the STEAM model (Jalkanen et
3 al., 2012; Johansson et al., 2017) included in the EDGARv6.1 database, although showing
4 marked emissions over the Mediterranean Sea, Asian domain, Middle East and North
5 American coasts. Furthermore, emissions from power plant and industrial activities, as well as
6 small-scale combustion are prominent over the Asian domain, Eastern Europe, and some
7 African regions.

8 Sector-specific case studies are presented in the maps of Figs. 5-8. Figure 5 shows the
9 comparison of annual NO_x emissions for the year 2000 and 2018. The road transport sector is
10 a key source of NO_x emissions (cf. Fig. 3a), and this contribution is reflected in the visible
11 presence of road networks in the maps. Decreasing emissions are found for industrialised
12 regions (USA, Europe, Japan) thanks to the introduction of increasingly restrictive legislation
13 on vehicle emissions since the 1990s, whereas a steep increase is found for emerging
14 economies and in particular India, China, and the Asian domain. Figure 6 shows the different
15 spatial allocation of PM₁₀ emissions from the residential sector during the month of January
16 2018, with higher emission intensities evident in the Northern Hemisphere (cold season) and
17 the lower values in the Southern Hemisphere (warm season). Figures 7 and 8 show the spatio-
18 temporal allocation of agriculture-related emissions, and specifically, PM₁₀ emissions from
19 agricultural waste burning and NH₃ emissions from agricultural soil activities.

20 **3.3 Monthly temporal distribution**

21 **3.3.1 Monthly variability by region**

22 The magnitude of air pollutant emissions varies by month because of the seasonality of
23 different anthropogenic activities and their geographical location (e.g., Northern vs. Southern
24 Hemisphere regions). Figures 9 and 10 (and S3.1, S3.2 and S3.3) show the monthly distribution
25 of regional emissions for those pollutants and sectors for which higher variability is expected.
26 The year 2015 was chosen since it is the last year for which all of the official data providers
27 have data. Figure 9 shows monthly NH₃ emissions by region from three agricultural activities
28 (agricultural waste burning, livestock, and crops). These sectors display the largest variability
29 by month, reflecting the seasonal cycle and the region-specific agricultural practices, such as
30 fertilisation, crop residue burning, manure and pasture management, animal population
31 changes, etc. In Figure 10, NO_x emissions from residential activities show a particular monthly
32 distribution, with the highest emissions occurring during the cold months shifted for the
33 Northern and Southern Hemispheres. By contrast, regions in the equatorial zone do not show
34 a marked monthly profile even for residential activities. The energy sector also follows
35 monthly-seasonal cycles related to the demand for power generation, which is also correlated
36 with ambient temperature and local day length. Transport-related emissions do not show a large
37 variation by month, whereas daily and weekly cycles for transport-related emissions, which are
38 typically more relevant, are beyond the temporal resolution of this work.

39 Although a spatio-temporal variability of the HTAP_v3 emissions is found in these figures, a
40 more in-depth analysis reveals that with the exception of few regions and sectors (e.g., Canada,
41 USA and regions gap-filled with EDGAR), no inter-annual variability of the monthly profiles
42 is present, meaning that the majority of official inventories assume the same monthly
43 distribution of the emissions for the past two decades (refer to Figs. S3.4-S3.9). This is different
44 from the approach used for example by EDGAR (Crippa et al., 2020), ECCC for Canada, and
45 U.S. EPA for the USA, where year-dependent monthly profiles are used for specific sectors, in
46 particular for residential, power generation, and agricultural activities. Further analysis has
47 shown that for the European domain regional rather than country-specific monthly profiles are

1 applied. Therefore, for Europe new state-of-the-art profiles have been made available under
2 the CAMS programme by Guevara et al. (2021).

3

4 **3.3.2 Spatially-distributed monthly emissions**

5 An important added value of HTAP_v3 comes from the availability of monthly gridmaps that
6 reflect the seasonality of the emissions for different world regions. Access to spatially
7 distributed monthly emissions is essential to design effective mitigation actions, providing
8 information on hot spots of emissions and critical periods of the year when emissions are
9 highest.

10 Figure 11 shows mid-season PM_{2.5} monthly emissions arising from the residential sector in
11 2018. The global map shows higher emissions in the Northern Hemisphere during January,
12 while the opposite pattern is found for the Southern Hemisphere in July. Agriculture is an
13 important activity characterised by strong seasonal patterns, as shown in Figs. 12 and 13. Figure
14 12 shows PM₁₀ monthly emission maps from agricultural residue burning in 2018 from
15 HTAP_v3, highlighting higher emissions over certain months of the year related with specific
16 burning practices of agricultural residues for different world regions. For example, during the
17 month of April, intense burning of crop residues is found in Africa (Nigeria, Ethiopia, Sudan,
18 South Africa, etc.), South America (Brazil, Argentina, Colombia, etc.), Northern India, and
19 South-Eastern Asia (e.g., Vietnam, Thailand, Indonesia, Philippines, etc.). Figure 13 represents
20 the yearly variability of NH₃ emissions from agricultural soils activities, mostly related with
21 fertilisation. During the month of March and April, intense agricultural soils activities are found
22 over Europe and North America compared to other months, while during the month of October
23 the highest emissions are for this sector are found in China, India, several countries of the Asian
24 domain, but also in USA, Australia, and Latin America. These results are consistent with
25 satellite based observations performed using Cross-track Infrared Sounder (Shephard et al.,
26 2020).

27 **3.4 Vertical distribution of the emissions**

28 **3.4.1 Aircraft emissions**

29 In EDGAR6.1 the emissions are provided at three effective altitude levels (landing/take-off,
30 ascent/descent, and cruising). The spatial proxy for the aviation sector is derived from
31 International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO, 2015) which specifies a typical flight pattern
32 with landing/take-off cycle within few km of the airport, followed by climb-out/descending
33 phase during the first 100 km and the last 100km of a flight and finally the remaining part from
34 101 km until the last 101 km as the cruise phase. Routes and airport locations are taken from
35 the Airline Route Mapper of ICAO (2015). In HTAP_v3, aircraft emissions are provided as
36 domestic and international, but with no information about altitude ranges. We recommend
37 modellers to use the corresponding EDGARv6.1 data
38 (https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/dataset_ap61) including the vertical distribution of the
39 emissions.

40

41 **3.4.2 Speciation of NMVOC emissions**

42 For emission data to be useful for modellers, total NMVOC emissions must be decomposed
43 into emissions of individual NMVOC species. As the chemical mechanisms used by models
44 can differ with respect to the NMVOC species they include, it is not practical to provide an
45 NMVOC speciation which is usable by all models. Instead, a speciation is provided here for

1 the set of 25 NMVOCs defined by Huang et al. (2017) and the corresponding data are made
2 available on the HTAP_v3 website. The absolute values of 25-category speciated NMVOC
3 emissions were obtained for all countries for the 28 EDGAR sectors from here:
4 https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/dataset_ap432_VOC_spec. The absolute NMVOC emissions of
5 each species from each sector in this dataset were remapped to the HTAP_v3 sectors following
6 the mapping from Table 2, then converted to a speciation by dividing by the total emissions of
7 each individual species for the four world regions defined by Huang et al. (2017): Asia; Europe;
8 North America; and Other. The resulting NMVOC speciation is provided in the supplementary
9 material to this paper for the 25 NMVOC species, 4 world regions, and 15 emitting NMVOC
10 sectors² following the HTAP_v3 sector classification (including 13 sectors defined over the 4
11 world regions, and the two international sectors: international shipping and international
12 aviation). The list of countries comprising each region is also provided in the supplement.

13 **3.5 Emission Uncertainties**

14 **3.5.1 Overview on uncertainties**

15 Unlike greenhouse gas inventories, uncertainty is not routinely estimated for air pollutant
16 emissions by country inventory systems. In part this is due to the different and often disparate
17 processes used to generate air pollution data at the country level (Smith et al., 2022), making
18 it more difficult to conduct uncertainty analysis. While combinations of observational and
19 modelling techniques can be used to evaluate air pollutant emissions, these are inherently site
20 specific and can be difficult to generalize.

21 The potential level of uncertainty in any emission estimate depends on how much emission
22 factors vary for a particular activity. We note that the emission species with the lowest
23 uncertainty is carbon dioxide from fossil fuel combustion. This is because CO₂ emission factors
24 are closely tied to fuel energy content, which is a quantity that is tracked and reported by both
25 government and commercial reporting systems. Similar considerations apply to SO₂ emissions,
26 where emissions can be reliably estimated if the sulphur content of fuels and the operational
27 characteristics of emission control devices are known. A key aspect here is that uncertainty in
28 fuel sulphur content is largely uncorrelated across regions, which means that global uncertainty
29 is relatively low, while regional uncertainty often much higher (Smith et al., 2011). On the
30 opposite end of the spectrum, the emission rates for particulate matter depend sensitively on
31 combustion conditions and the operation of any emission control devices and can vary over
32 several orders of magnitude. While this is not an indication of the uncertainty in inventory
33 estimates, this indicates the difficulty of constructing quantitative uncertainty estimates. The
34 type of emission process also influences uncertainty, with fugitive emissions and emissions
35 associated with biological processes generally having higher uncertainty levels.

36 We note also that uncertainty in the overall magnitude of emissions does not necessarily imply
37 a similar level of uncertainty in relative emission trends. Even with uncertainties, the
38 widespread use of emission control devices has resulted in reductions in air pollutant emissions
39 in North America and Europe (Liu et al., 2018; Jamali et al., 2020), as verified by observational
40 and modelling studies.

41 The emissions in the HTAP_v3 mosaic emissions originate from a variety of sources which
42 has some implications for relative uncertainty. Emissions for some regions, such as North

² No speciation profile is provided for the ‘tyre and brake wear sector’ not being a source of NMVOC emissions.

1 America and Europe, were generated by country inventory systems which have been developed
2 and refined over the last several decades. It is reasonable to assume these emissions are robust,
3 however even in these regions detailed studies have indicated that actual emissions in some
4 cases appear to be lower than inventory values (Anderson et al., 2014; Hassler et al., 2016;
5 Travis et al., 2016). Where EDGAR emission estimates were used in the mosaic uncertainties
6 are likely be higher overall given that inventory information developed in those countries was
7 not available for these regions (Solazzo et al., 2021).

8 Some information on the robustness of the HTAP_v3 mosaic can be gained by comparing
9 different inventory estimates, which is shown in supplement section S2. In many cases, the
10 agreement between estimates (for example in North America and Europe) simply indicates
11 common data sources and assumptions, although this does indicate that the different inventory
12 groups did conclude that these values were plausible. The larger differences in other regions,
13 however, does point to larger uncertainty there.

14 **3.5.2 Qualitative assessment of the uncertainty of a global emission mosaic**

15 Assessing the uncertainty of a global emission mosaic is challenging since it consists of several
16 bottom-up inventories and by definition it prevents a consistent global uncertainty calculation.
17 Each emission inventory feeding the HTAP_v3 mosaic is characterized by its own uncertainty
18 which is documented, where available, by the corresponding literature describing each dataset
19 (see Table 2 and section 2.3). However, the mosaic compilation process may also introduce
20 additional uncertainties compared to the input datasets. In order to limit these additional
21 uncertainties, we made the following considerations:

22 -for each emission inventory both the national totals and gridded data by sector were gathered.
23 This process allows the mosaic compilers not to introduce additional uncertainty compared to
24 the original input regional datasets. While additional uncertainties may arise from the
25 extraction of the national totals from spatially distributed data (e.g. country border issues which
26 were one limitation of previous editions of the HTAP mosaics), this is not the case in the current
27 dataset. Therefore, when regional trends are described by region and pollutant (see section 3),
28 no additional source of uncertainty has to be considered from the mosaic compilation approach.

29 -the sector definition and mapping has been developed following the IPCC categories and when
30 no data was available for a certain combination of sector and pollutant a gapfilling procedure
31 is applied using the EDGAR database. Therefore, the datasets are comparable in terms of
32 sectoral coverage, which reduces uncertainties in this aspect.

33 - since each inventory provided monthly resolution emission gridmaps and time series there is
34 no additional uncertainty introduced by temporal disaggregation as part of the construction of
35 the HTAP_v3 mosaic.

36 In this work we also provide a qualitative indication of the emission variability by HTAP sector
37 and pollutant at the global level. Table S6 summarises the variability of global HTAP_v3
38 emissions by sector for the boundary years of this mosaic (2000 and 2018) compared to the
39 global EDGARv6.1 data. EDGAR emissions are considered as the reference global emission
40 inventory against which comparing the HTAP_v3 estimates although these two global products
41 are not fully independent. The variability of the global emissions is calculated as the relative
42 difference of the estimates of the two inventories, i.e. $(\text{EDGARv6.1} - \text{HTAP}_v3) / \text{HTAP}_v3$.
43 Emission variabilities are also classified as low (L, $L < 15\%$), low medium (LM,

1 15%<LM<50%), upper medium (UM, 50%<UM<100%), high (H, H>100%), based on the
2 EMEP/EEA Guidebook (2019) information. The largest variability is found domestic shipping
3 emissions (CO and NMVOC), energy (OC, BC), agricultural crops (PM), road transport (PM,
4 NMVOC) and industry (NH₃, NMVOC). In absence of a full uncertainty assessment the
5 variability can be used as proxy of structural uncertainty, keeping in mind that variability could
6 be biased towards overconfidence, thus underestimating the uncertainty. Furthermore, the
7 uncertainty of the spatial proxies has not been assessed and maybe subject of future activity
8 updates.

9

10 **4 Data availability**

11 The HTAP_v3 emission mosaic data can be freely accessed and cited using
12 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7516361>. All data can be also accessed through the EDGAR
13 website at the following link: https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/dataset_htap_v3.

14 Data are made available in the following formats:

- 15 • Monthly gridmaps of emissions (in Mg/month) at 0.1x0.1 degree resolution: there is one
16 .NetCDF file per year and substance that includes the emissions for each sector for the
17 12 months.
- 18 • Monthly gridmaps of emission fluxes (in kg/m²/s) at 0.1x0.1 degree resolution: there is
19 one .NetCDF file per year and substance that includes the emission fluxes for each
20 sector the emission fluxes for the 12 months.
- 21 • Annual gridmaps of emissions (in Mg/year at 0.1x0.1 degree resolution: there is one
22 .NetCDF file per year and substance that includes the emissions for each sector.
- 23 • Annual gridmaps of emission fluxes (in kg/m²/s) at 0.1x0.1 degree resolution: there is
24 one .NetCDF file per year and substance that includes the emission fluxes for each
25 sector.

26 The full set of HTAP_v3 data is quite large, requiring substantial network bandwidth and time
27 for download, and substantial storage space. To make it easier for users to query and use the
28 data, additional products are available. For global modellers who may not require such high
29 spatial resolution, gridmaps at 0.5x0.5 degree resolution are made available following the
30 abovementioned specifications of the higher spatial resolution data. Furthermore, to allow
31 regional modellers to download only the data for the regions they need, the JRC EDGAR group
32 has also developed an interface to allow the users of the HTAP_v3 mosaic to extract emission
33 data over arbitrarily specified geographical domains. The HTAP tool is accessible after creation
34 of an ECAS account (<https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/cas/login>) and it is available at:
35 https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/htap_tool/.

36

37 **5 Conclusions**

38 The global air pollution mosaic inventory HTAP_v3 presented and discussed in this paper is a
39 state-of-the-art database for addressing the present status and the recent evolution of a set of
40 policy-relevant air pollutants. The inventory is made by the harmonization and blending of six
41 regional inventories, gapfilled using the most recent release of EDGAR (EDGARv6.1). By
42 directly incorporating the best available local information, including the spatial distribution of
43 emissions, the HTAP_v3 mosaic inventory can be used for policy-relevant studies at both

1 regional and global levels. As such, the HTAP_v3 mosaic inventory provides a complement to
2 globally consistent emission inventories such as EDGAR. The global and regional trends of air
3 pollutant emissions in the HTAP_v3 mosaic are comparable with other commonly available
4 global emission datasets.

5 By providing consistent times series for almost two decades, HTAP_v3 allows an evaluation
6 of the impact and success of the pollution control measures deployed across various regions of
7 the world since 2000. Similarly, its finer sectoral resolution is suitable for understanding how
8 and where technological changes have resulted in emissions reductions, suggesting possible
9 pathways for strengthening appropriate policy actions.

10 All these features make HTAP_v3 a database of interest for policy makers active in the air
11 quality regulatory efforts. HTAP_v3 provides a picture of a world where most pollutant
12 emissions are following a steady or decreasing path. However, several areas of the world show
13 an increasing emission trend, with wide portions of the world remaining subjected to
14 unsatisfactory levels of ambient air quality.

15 When using the HTAP_v3 emission mosaic, users should consider the following limitations,
16 for example when combining the HTAP_v3 data with other emission input needed to run
17 atmospheric models:

18 - agricultural waste burning emissions should be treated with caution to avoid double-counting
19 when combined with existing biomass burning emission inventories;

20 - NMVOC and NO_x emissions from agricultural soils should be treated with caution to avoid
21 double-counting when combining the HTAP_v3 data with a natural emissions model such as
22 MEGAN (Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature);

23 - the speciation of NO_x emissions into its components (NO, NO₂, HONO) is not provided by
24 the global HTAP_v3 mosaic and it is beyond the scope of the current work since the regional
25 inventories report total NO_x with no speciation. Standard practice in global models is to emit
26 all anthropogenic NO_x as NO, while we expect that regional modelling groups will have access
27 to appropriate best practices for their particular regions. In particular for road transport, the
28 partitioning of NO_x emissions between NO, NO₂, and HONO is highly region-dependent and
29 it is based on the fleet composition (e.g., number of diesel vehicles relative to gasoline vehicles)
30 and technology level (e.g., the level of exhaust after treatment).

31 Thanks to the continuous improvement of local and regional emission inventories, recent
32 literature shows new datasets that report regional information over areas of the world not
33 covered by local inventories in the current HTAP_v3 mosaic (e.g. Argentina (Puliafito et al.
34 2021), Africa (Keita et al., 2021) and the MEIC inventory
35 (http://meicmodel.org.cn/?page_id=1772&lang=en)). Future updates to this mosaic may also
36 integrate reliable and up to data information over South America or Africa as time and
37 resources permit.

38 Similar to its predecessor (e.g. HTAP_v2.2 mosaic inventory), we expect that this new
39 HTAP_v3 mosaic inventory will be used as a basis for global assessments of long-range,
40 transboundary transport of air pollution under the Task Force on Hemispheric Transport of Air
41 Pollution, while also providing a convenient and useful information for regional modellers
42 seeking the best available regional emissions with a consistent gap-filling methodology.

1

2 **Author contributions.**

3 MC and DG developed the mosaic gathering input from all data providers. The co-chairs of the
4 TF-HTAP (TK, TB, RW and JaKa) fostered the dialogue with international institutions
5 contributing to this work with their data. PM, RM, JR, JZ, DN, MS, MDM, RW provided data
6 for Canada, JuKu, SC, TM provided data for Japan, JeKu provided data for Europe, J-HW, JK
7 provided data for Korea, TK, GP provided data for USA, JiKi provided data for Asia. The JRC
8 EDGAR group (MC, ES, DG, EP, MM, FM, ES, MB, FP) lead the drafting of the publication
9 with input from colleagues contributing to the HTAP_v3 mosaic. SJS and HS performed
10 detailed data comparison among available emission inventories. TA calculated and provided
11 the NMVOC speciation fractions for all the sectors for the four regions.

12

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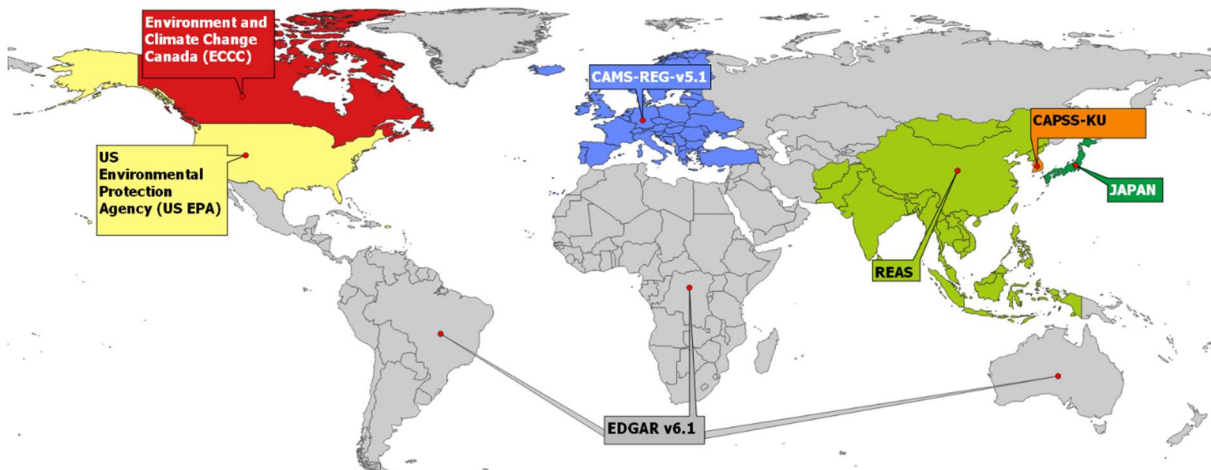
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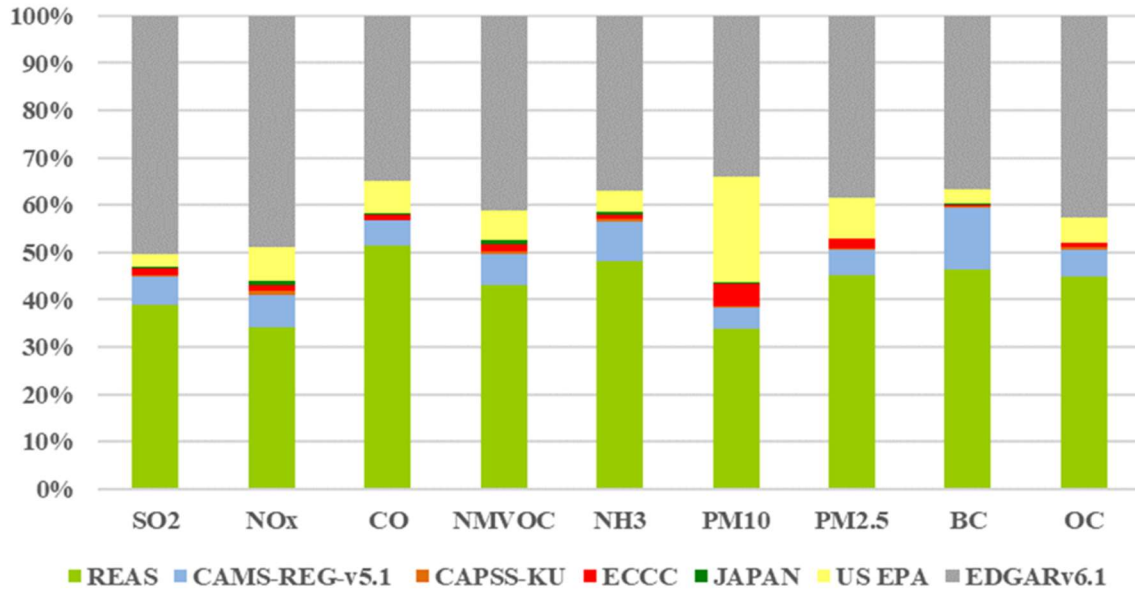
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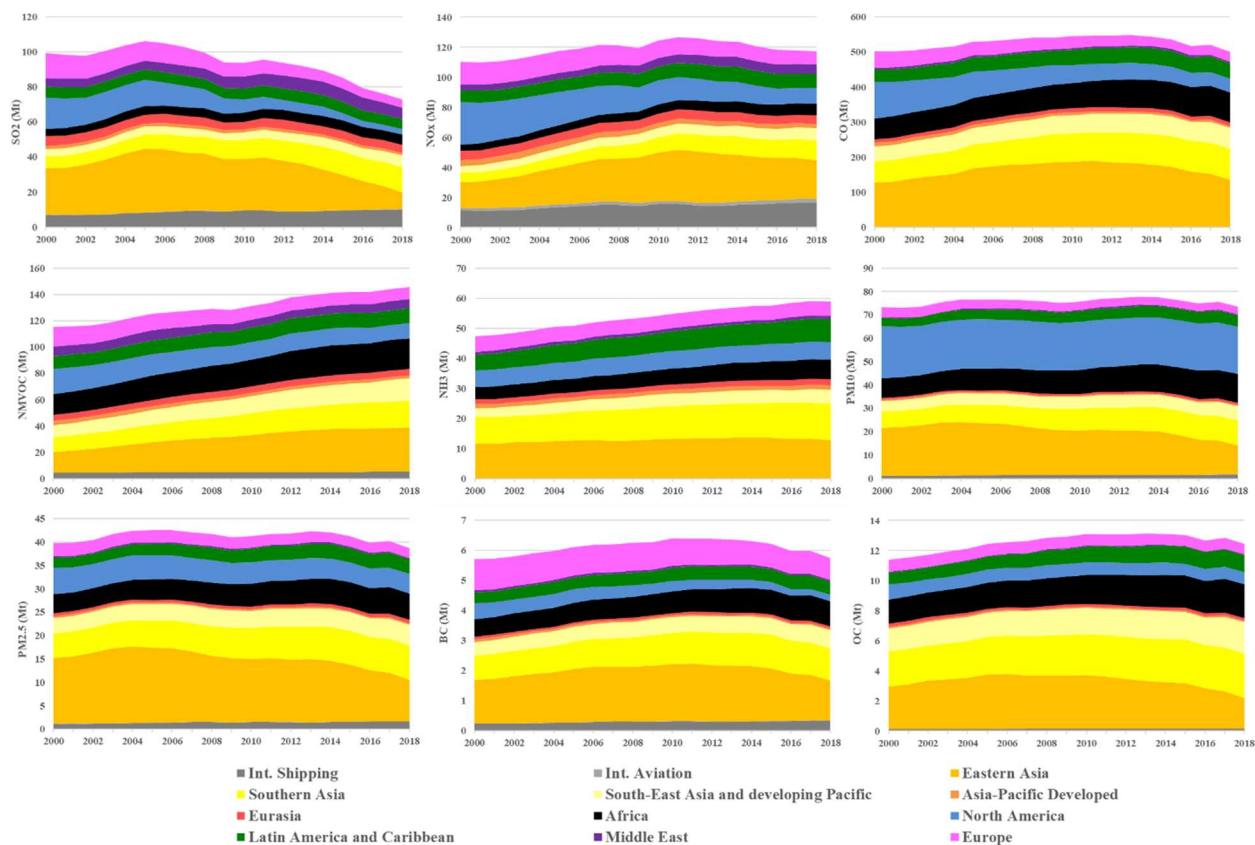


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2 **Figure 1 – Overview of the HTAP_v3 mosaic data providers. Data from officially**
 3 **reported emission gridmaps were collected from the US Environmental Protection**
 4 **Agency, Environment and Climate Change Canada, CAMS-REG-v5.1 for Europe,**
 5 **REASv3.2.1 for most of the Asian domain, CAPSS-KU for Korea and JAPAN (PM2.5EI**
 6 **and J-STREAM) for Japan. The share of the total emissions covered by each data**
 7 **provider is reported in the bar chart at the bottom.**

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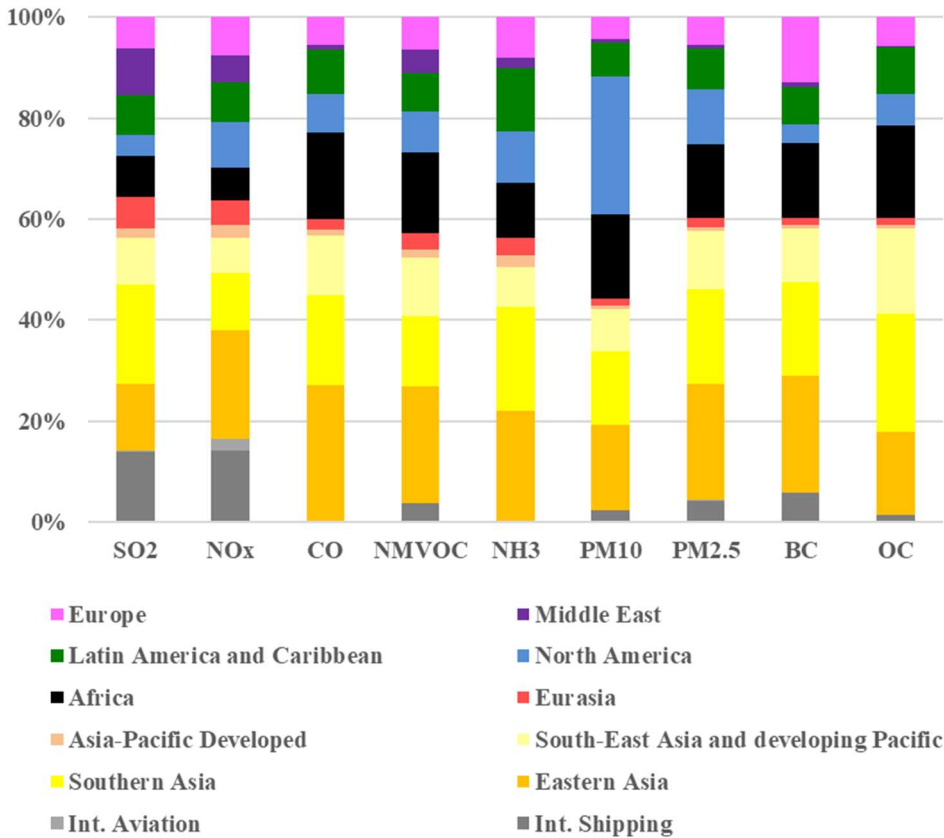
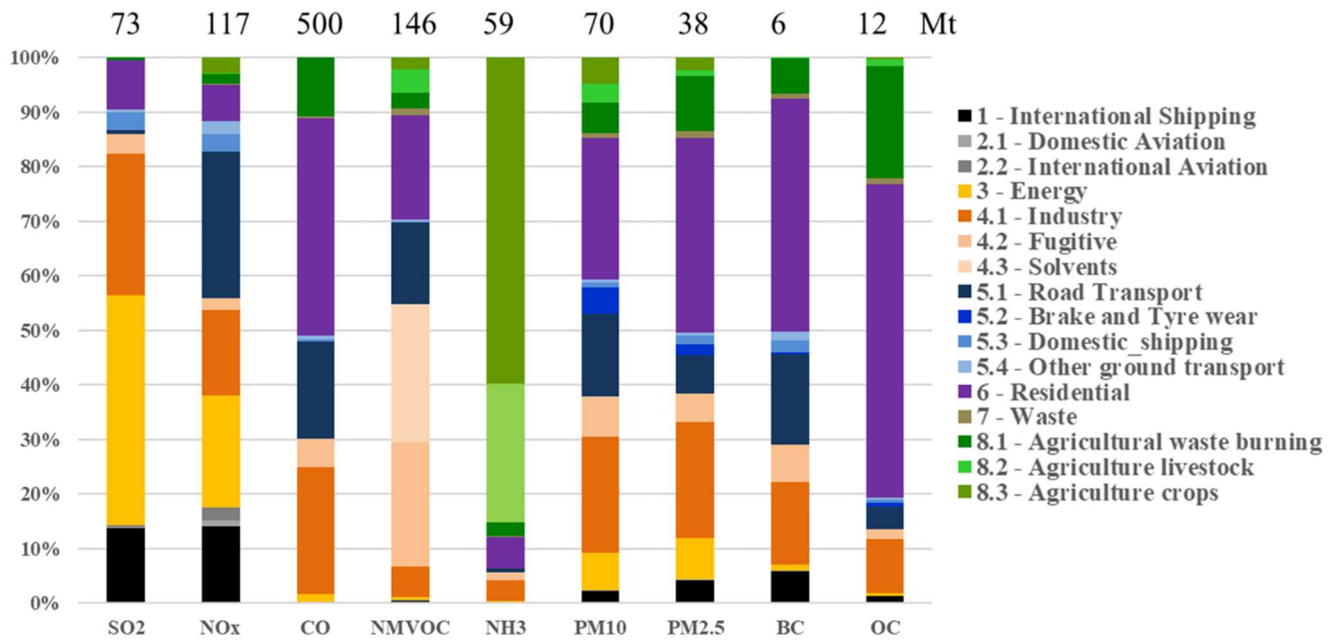
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2 **Figure 2 – Time series of gaseous and particulate matter pollutants from HTAP_v3 by**
 3 **aggregated regions. Regional grouping follows the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate**
 4 **Change Sixth Assessment Report (IPCC AR6) definitions. Table S3 provides information**
 5 **on the regional belonging of each country to the IPCC AR6 regions.**

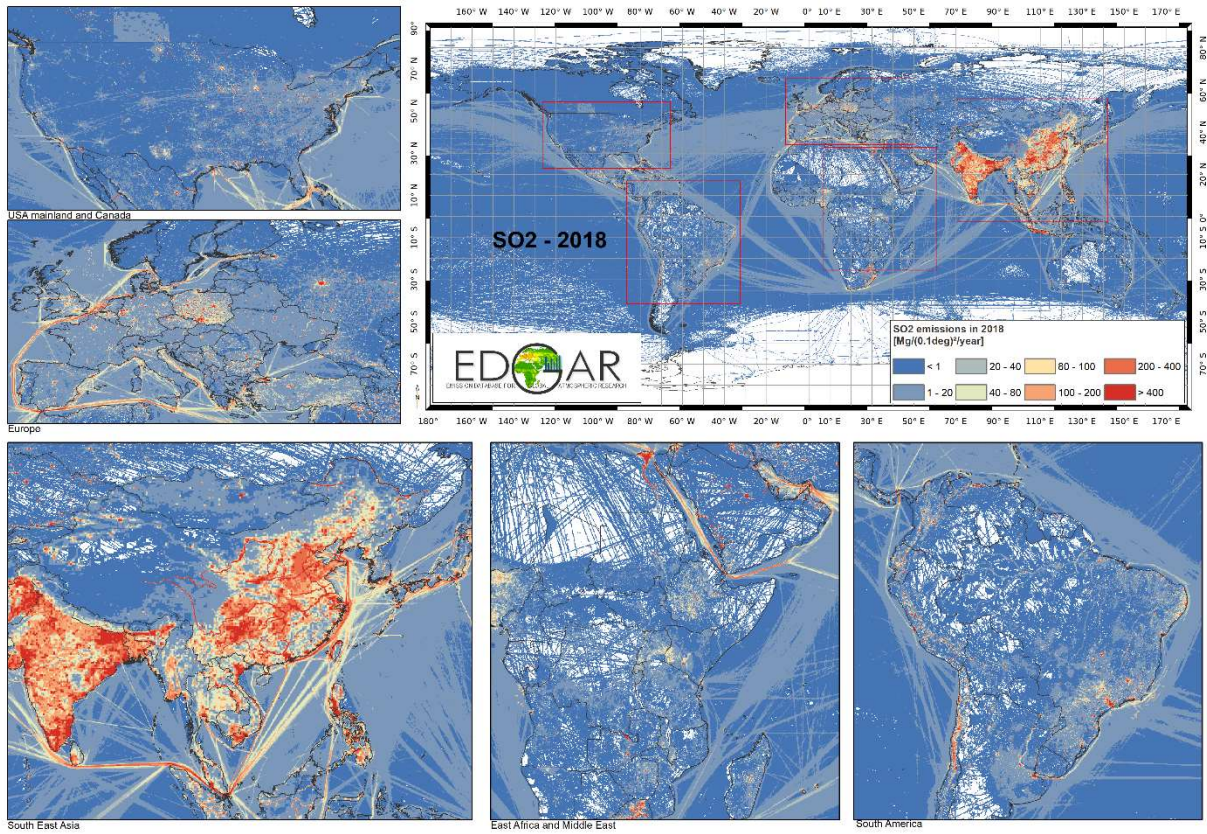
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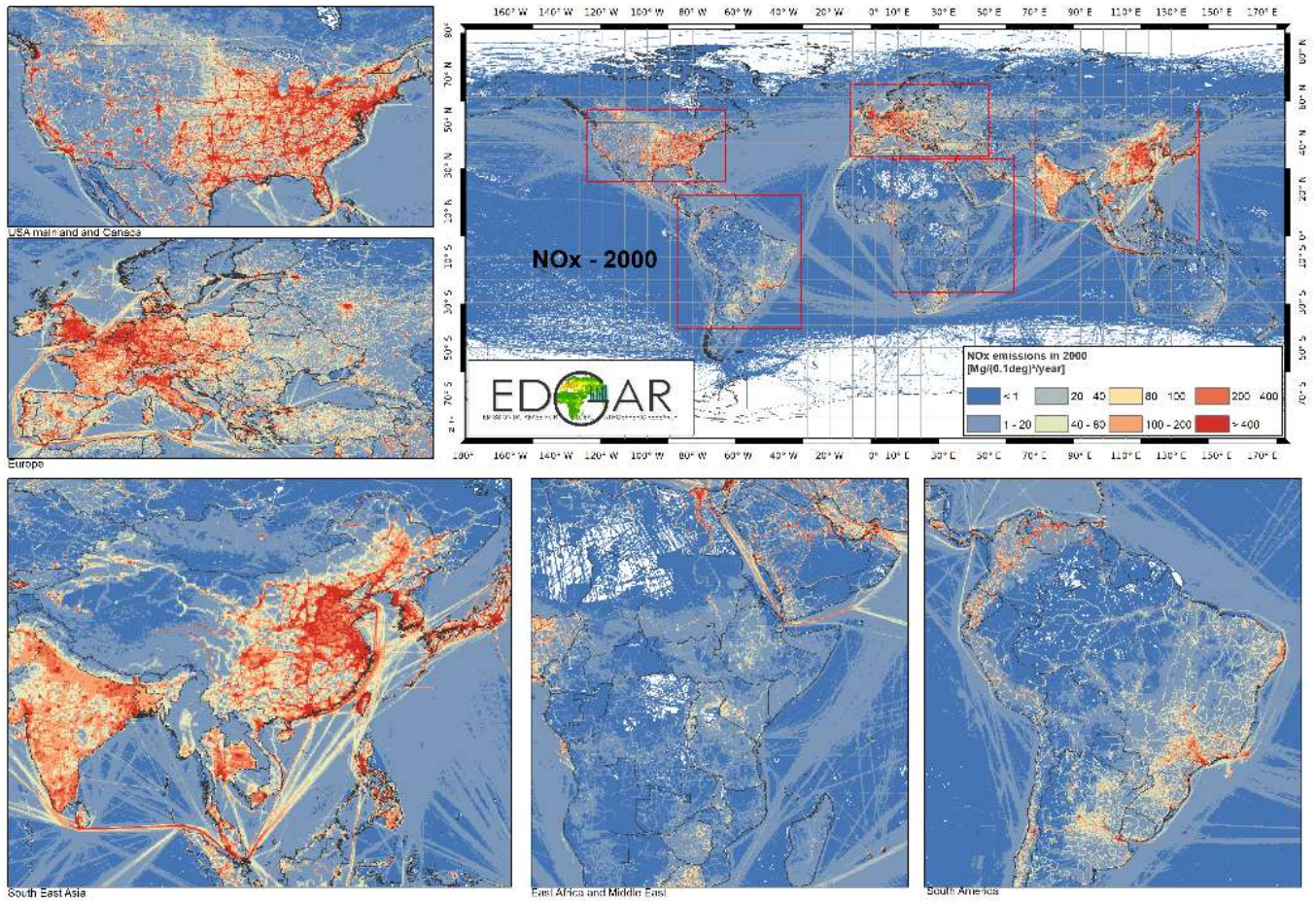


3 **Figure 3 - Sectoral (panel a) and regional (panel b) breakdown of air pollutant emissions**
 4 **from HTAP_v3 for the year 2018. At the top of each bar in panel a, total emissions for**
 5 **each pollutant are reported (in Mt).**

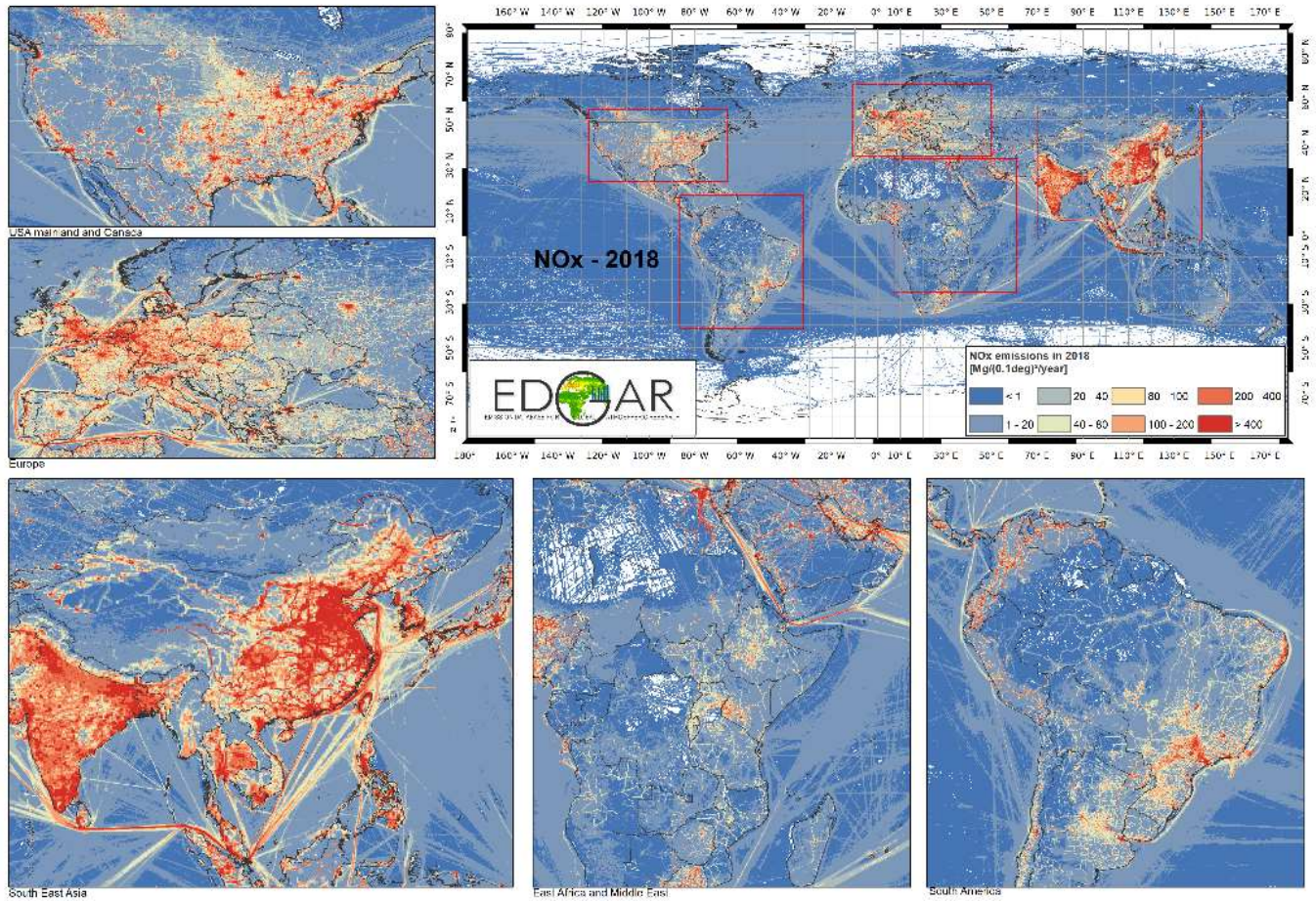


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Figure 4 – HTAP_v3 mosaic: SO₂ emission gridmaps for the year 2018.



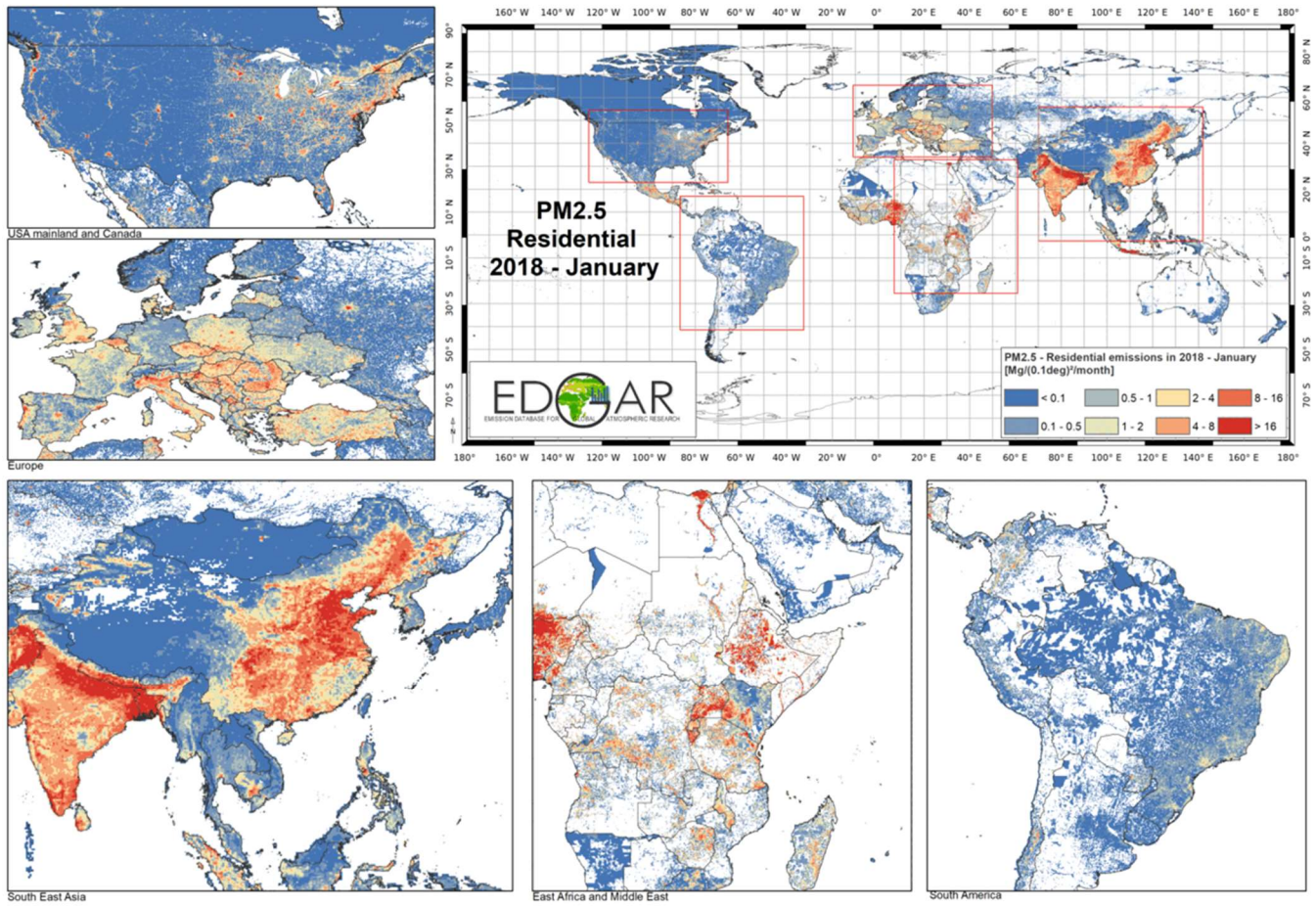
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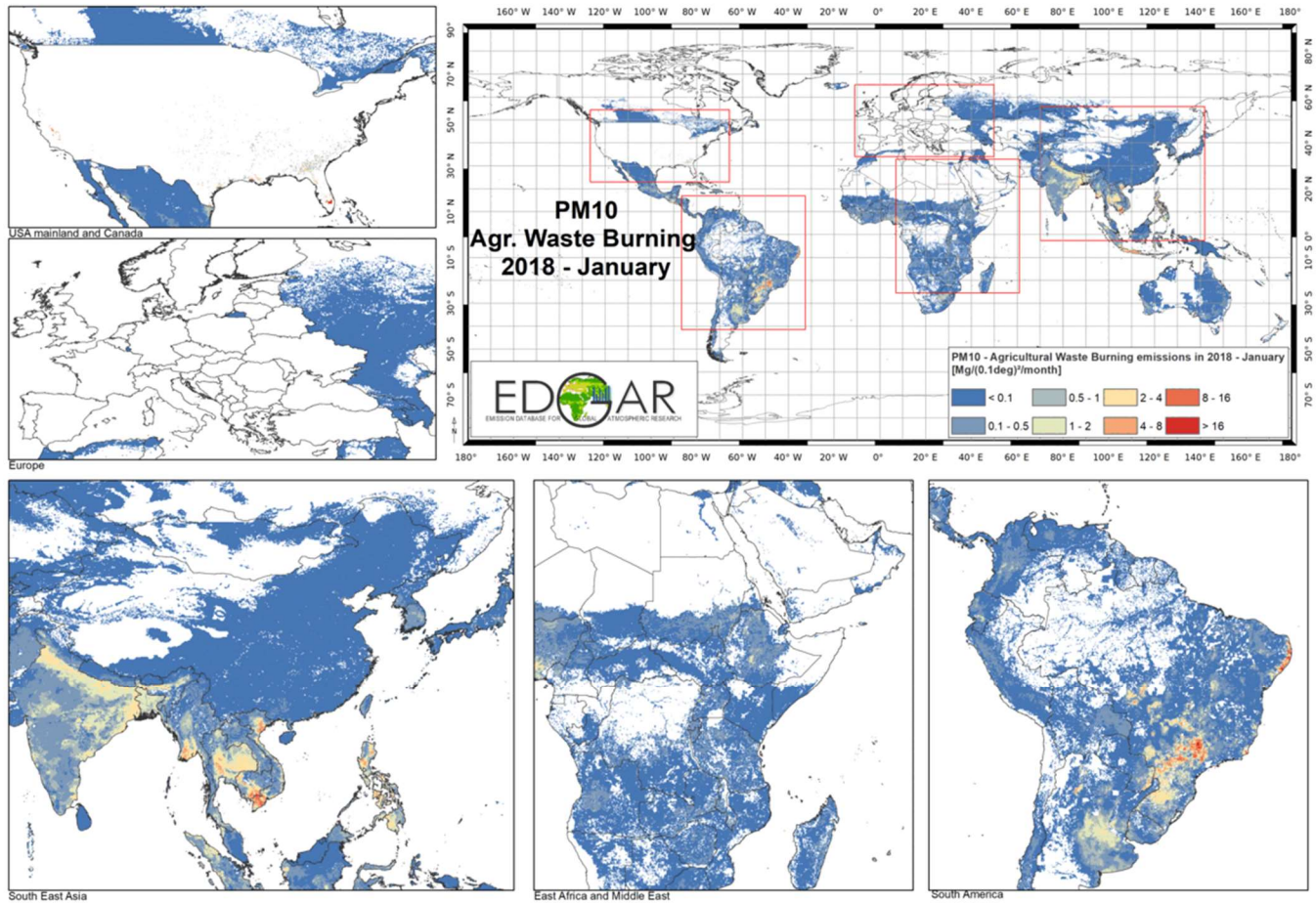
2 **Figure 5 – HTAP_v3 mosaic: NO_x emission gridmaps in 2000 (top panel) and 2018**
 3 **(bottom panel).**

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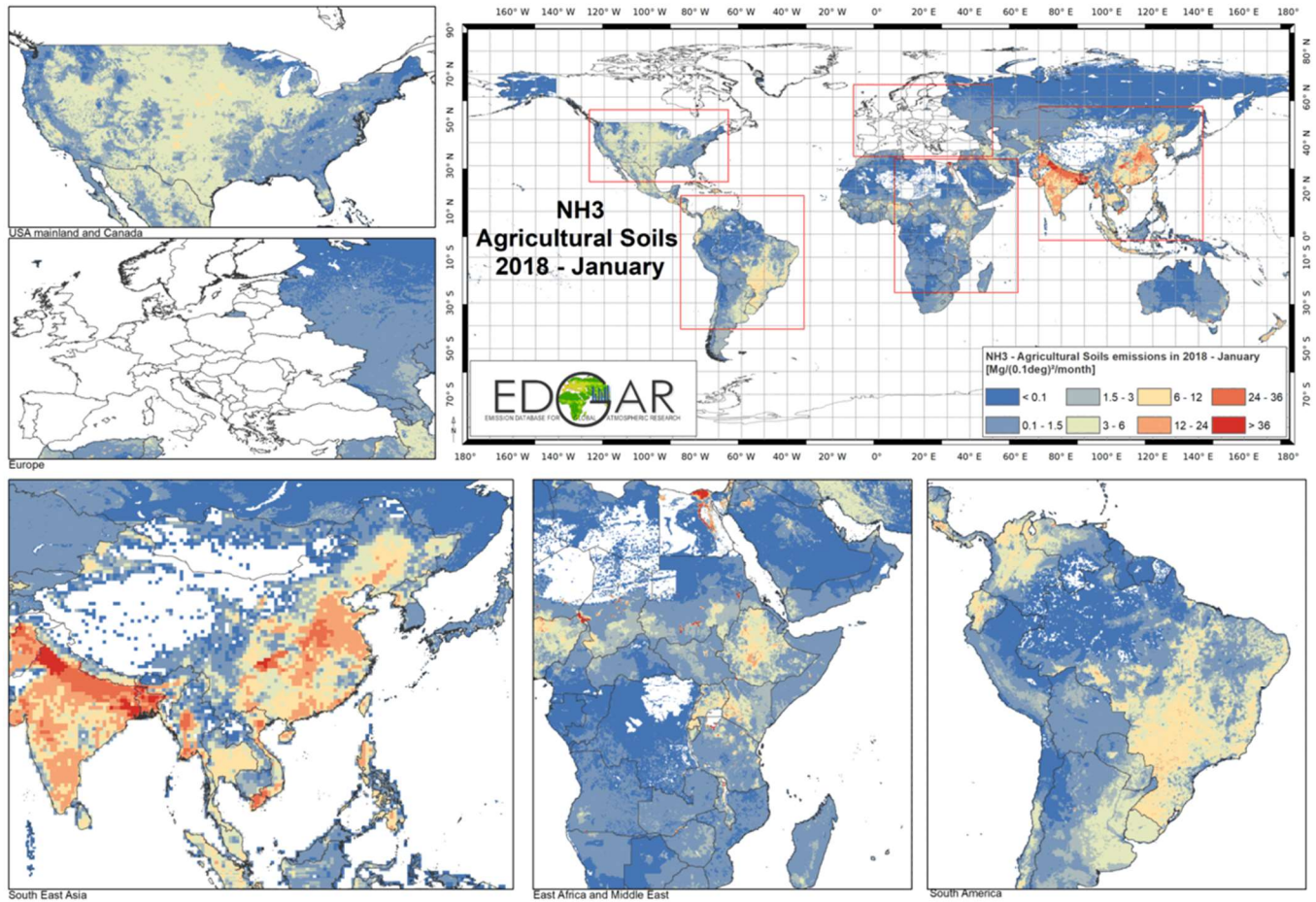
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3 **Figure 6 – HTAP_v3 mosaic: PM_{2.5} emissions from residential activities in January 2018.**



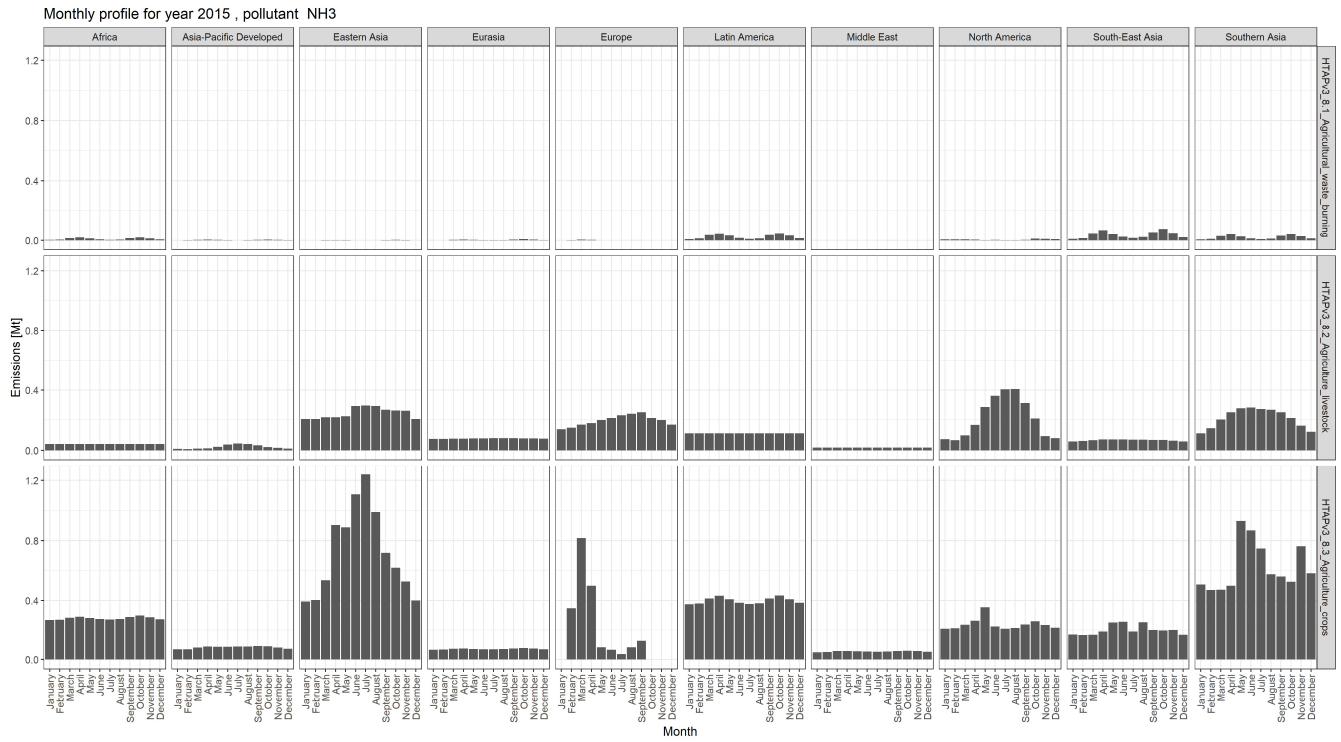
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2 **Figure 7 – HTAP_v3 mosaic: PM₁₀ emissions from agricultural waste burning in January**
 3 **2018.**



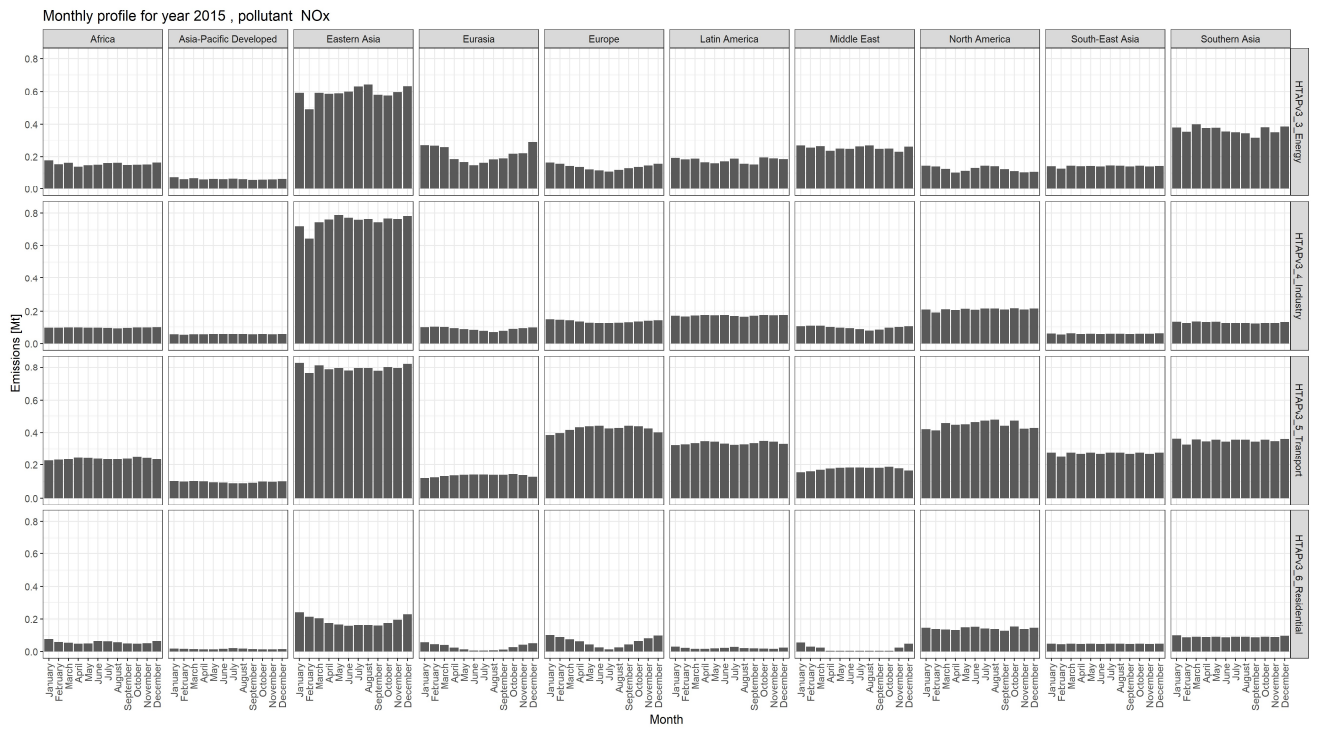
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Figure 8 – HTAP_v3 mosaic: NH₃ emissions from agricultural soils activities in January 2018.



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2 **Figure 9 – Monthly variability of NH₃ emissions for agriculture related activities for the**
 3 **different world regions in 2015.**

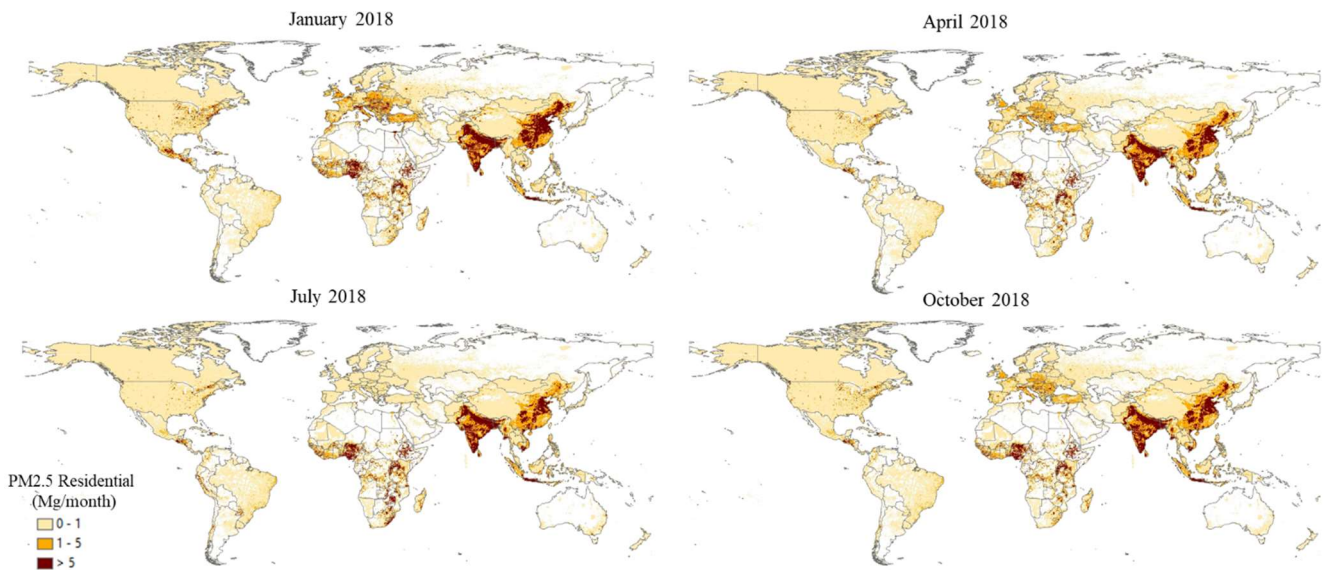


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5 **Figure 10 – Monthly variability of NO_x emissions for relevant emission sectors for the**
 6 **different world regions in 2015.**

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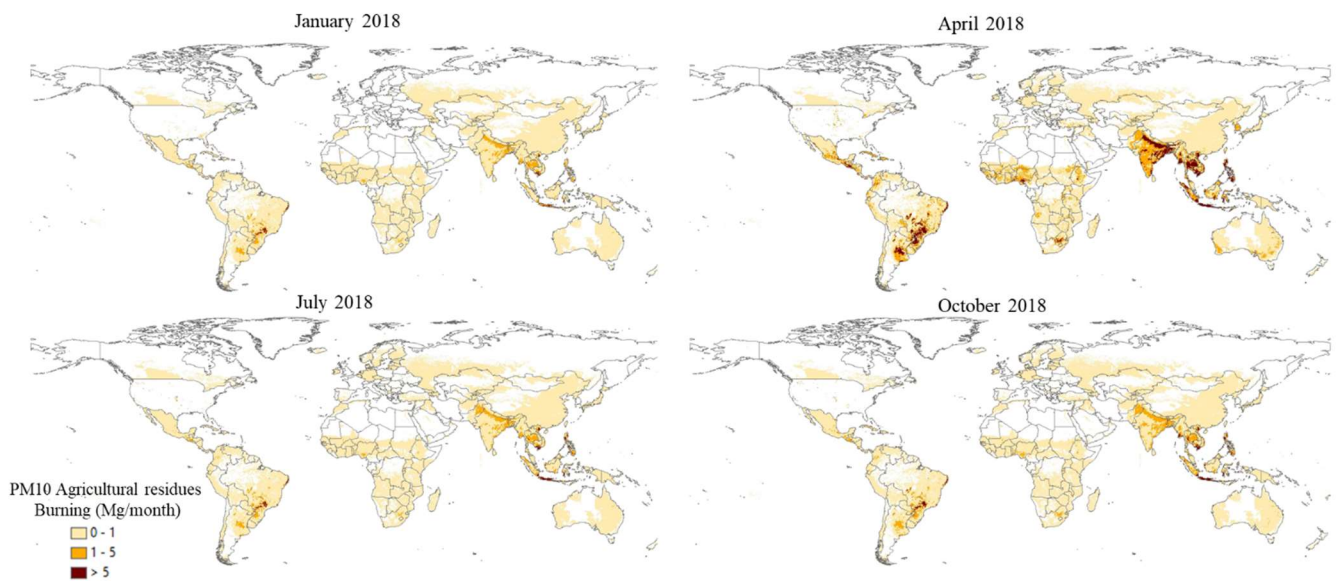
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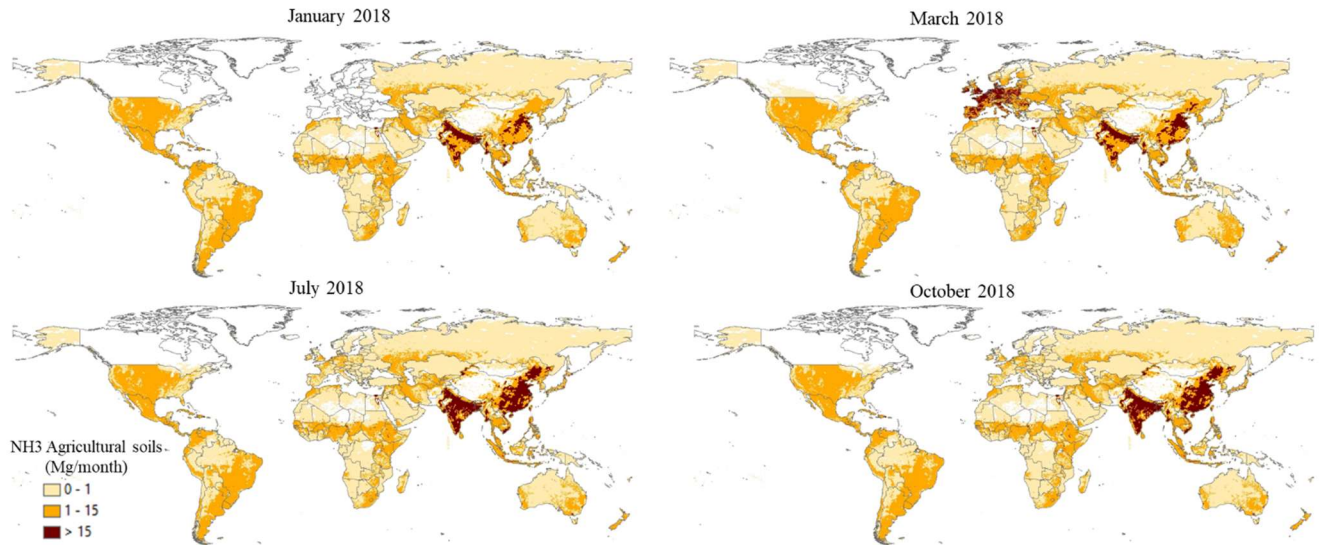
3 **Figure 11 – PM_{2.5} monthly emission maps from the residential sector in 2018 from**
4 **HTAP_v3.**

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7 **Figure 12 – PM₁₀ monthly emission maps from agricultural residues burning in 2018 from**
8 **HTAP_v3.**

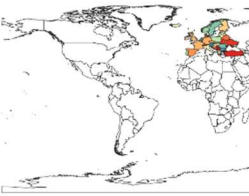
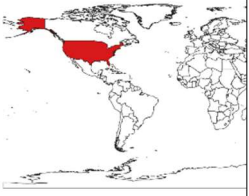

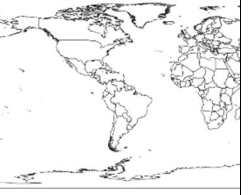


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Figure 13 – NH₃ monthly emission maps from agricultural soils in 2018 from HTAP_v3.



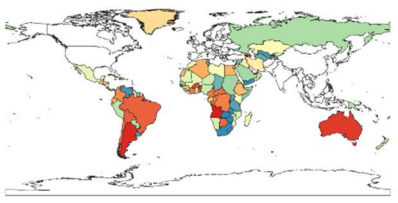
Table 1 – Overview of data input to the HTAP_v3 emission mosaic.

Data source	CAMS-REG-v5.1	US EPA	ECCE	REASv3.2.1
Type of data source	Country inventories as emission time series by sector and country and emission gridmaps as .csv files.	Country inventory	Country inventory as emission time series by sector and country and emission gridmaps as .NetCDF files.	Country inventories as emission gridmaps as text files.
Sectors coverage	All sectors, excluding international shipping and aviation (international and domestic).	All sectors, excluding international shipping and aviation (international and domestic).	All sectors, excluding agricultural waste burning, international shipping and aviation (international and domestic).	All sectors, excluding brake and tyre wear, domestic shipping, waste, agricultural waste burning, international shipping and aviation (international and domestic).

Temporal coverage	2000-2018	2002-2017	2000-2016	2000-2015+trends from MEIC over China for 2016, 2017, 2018
Temporal resolution	Annual emission gridmaps + monthly profiles	Monthly emission gridmaps	Monthly emission gridmaps	Monthly emission gridmaps
Spatial resolution	0.1°x0.1°	0.1°x0.1°	0.1°x0.1°	0.1°x0.1° (The original spatial resolution of REASv3.2.1 is 0.25°x0.25°. Assuming that emissions are equally distributed in the 0.25° cell, REASv3.2.1 data were converted to 0.1° cell and provided to HTAP v3)
Substances	SO ₂ , NO _x , CO, NMVOC, NH ₃ , PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} , BC, OC	SO ₂ , NO _x , CO, NMVOC, NH ₃ , PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} , BC, OC	SO ₂ , NO _x , CO, NMVOC, NH ₃ , PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} , BC, OC	SO ₂ , NO _x , CO, NMVOC, NH ₃ , PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} , BC, OC
Geocoverage				
References				http://meicmodel.org

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Data source	CAPSS-KU	JAPAN (PM2.5EI and J-STREAM)	EDGARv6.1
Type of data source	Country inventory as emission time series by sector and country and emission gridmaps as .NetCDF files.	Country inventory as emission time series by sector and country and emission gridmaps as .NetCDF files.	Country inventory as emission time series by sector and country and emission gridmaps as .NetCDF files.
Sectors coverage	All sectors, excluding international shipping and aviation (international and domestic).	All sectors, excluding international shipping, domestic shipping and aviation	All sectors, including international shipping and aviation (international and domestic)

		(international and domestic).	
Temporal coverage	2000-2018	2000-2017	2000-2018
Temporal resolution	Annual emission gridmaps + monthly profiles	Monthly emission gridmaps	Monthly emission gridmaps
Spatial resolution	0.1°x0.1°	0.1°x0.1°	0.1°x0.1°
Substances	SO ₂ , NO _x , CO, NMVOC, NH ₃ , PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} , BC, OC	SO ₂ , NO _x , CO, NMVOC, NH ₃ , PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} , BC, OC	SO ₂ , NO _x , CO, NMVOC, NH ₃ , PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} , BC, OC
Geocoverage			
References			https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/dataset_ap61

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1 Table 2 – Definition of HTAP_v3 sectors and correspondence to IPCC codes.

HTAP_v3 main sectors	HTAP_v3 detailed sectors	Sector description	IPCC 1996 codes	IPCC 2006 codes
HTAP_1 : International Shipping	HTAP_1: International Shipping	International water-borne navigation.	1C2	1.A.3.d.i
HTAP_2 : Aviation	HTAP_2.1: Domestic Aviation	Civil Aviation.	1A3aii	1.A.3.a.ii
	HTAP_2.2: International Aviation	International Aviation.	1A3ai	1.A.3.a.i
HTAP_3 : Energy	HTAP_3: Energy	Power generation.	1A1a	1.A.1.a
HTAP_4 : Industry	HTAP_4.1: Industry	Industrial non-power large-scale combustion emissions and emissions of industrial processes. It includes: manufacturing, mining, metal, cement, chemical and fossil fuel fires.	1A2 + 2 + 5B	1A2 + 2 (excluding 2.D.3 + 2.E + 2.F + 2.G) + 7A
	HTAP_4.2: Fugitive	It includes oil and gas exploration and production and transmission, including evaporative emissions (mainly NMVOC).	1B + 1A1b + 1A1ci + 1A1cii + 1A5biii	1.B + 1.A.1.b + 1.A.1.c.i + 1.A.1.c.i.i + 1.A.5.b.i.i.i
	HTAP_4.3: Solvents	Solvents and product use.	3	2D3 + 2E + 2F + 2G
HTAP_5 : Ground Transport	HTAP_5.1: Road Transport	Road Transport, combustion and evaporative emissions only.	1A3b (excluding resuspension)	1.A.3.b (excluding resuspension)
	HTAP_5.2: Brake and Tyre wear	Re-suspended dust from pavements or tyre and brake wear from road transport.	1A3b (resuspension only)	1.A.3.b (resuspension only)
	HTAP_5.3: Domestic shipping	Domestic shipping: inland waterways + domestic shipping.	1A3d2	1.A.3.d.ii
	HTAP_5.4: Other ground transport	Ground transport by pipelines and other ground transport of mobile machinery.	1A3c + 1A3e	1.A.3.c + 1.A.3.e.ii
HTAP_6 : Residential	HTAP_6: Residential	Small-scale combustion, including heating, cooling, lighting, cooking and auxiliary engines, to equip residential,	1A4 + 1A5	1.A.4 + 1.A.5

		commercial buildings, service institutes, and agricultural facilities and fisheries.		
HTAP_7 : Waste	HTAP_7: Waste	Solid waste disposal and wastewater treatment.	6	4
HTAP_8 : Agriculture	HTAP_8.1: Agricultural waste burning	Agricultural waste burning (excluding Savannah burning).	4F	3.C.1.b
	HTAP_8.2: Agriculture livestock	Livestock emissions, including manure management.	4B	3.A.2
	HTAP_8.3: Agriculture crops	Emissions from crops, fertilisers, and all agricultural soils activities.	4C + 4D	3.C.2 + 3.C.3 + 3.C.4 + 3.C.7

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4 **Table 3 – Overview of pollutant and sector provided by each inventory in HTAP_v3. Cells**
5 **with N/A indicate that the emissions for those sectors were not provided and/or used in**
6 **HTAP_v3 for a specific inventory, while gapfilled with the corresponding information**
7 **from EDGARv6.1. The other cells represent the data availability for each sector and**
8 **inventory. The color codes used for the pollutants refer to the data source: black color**
9 **represents pollutant emissions provided by a specific inventory, red color indicates**
10 **emissions gapfilled using EDGARv6.1 and violet color indicates combinations of sectors-**
11 **pollutants available for specific regional inventories but not in EDGAR, which typically**
12 **represent minor sources of emissions included in officially reported inventories. These**
13 **minor sources are included in the HTAP_v3 mosaic.**

Data provider	REA Sv3.2 .1	CAP SS-KU	JAPAN	ECCE	US EPA	CAMS-REG-v5.1	EDGAR v6.1
HTAP_1: International Shipping	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	All substances
HTAP_2.1: Domestic Aviation	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	All substances
HTAP_2.2: International Aviation	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	All substances
HTAP_3: Energy	All substances	All substances	BC, OC, NO _x , NH ₃ , CO, PM _{2.5} ,	All substances	All substances	All substances	All substances

			PM10, NMVOC, SO2				
HTAP_4.1: Industry	All substances	All substances	BC, OC, NOx, NH3, CO, PM2.5, PM10, NMVOC, SO2	All substances	All substances	All substances	All substances
HTAP_4.2: Fugitive	All substances	BC, OC, NOx, NH3, CO, PM2.5, PM10, NMVOC, SO2	BC, OC, NOx, NH3, CO, PM2.5, PM10, NMVOC, SO2	All substances	All substances	All substances	All substances
HTAP_4.3: Solvents	NMVOC, NH3, PM10, PM2.5	NMVOC, NH3, PM10, PM2.5	NMVOC, NH3, PM10, PM2.5	NMVOC, NH3, PM10, PM2.5	CO, NOx, OC, NMVOC, NH3, PM10, PM2.5, SO2	NOx, NH3, CO, PM2.5, PM10, NMVOC, SO2	All substances
HTAP_5.1: Road Transport	All substances	All substances	All substances	All substances	All substances	All substances	All substances
HTAP_5.2: Brake and Tyre wear	N/A	BC, OC, NOx, NH3, CO, PM2.5, PM10, NMVOC, SO2	BC,OC, PM2.5,P M10	BC,OC, PM2.5,P M10	BC,OC, PM2.5,P M10, NMVOC	BC,OC, PM2.5,P M10	BC,OC, PM2.5,P M10
HTAP_5.3: Domestic shipping	N/A	All substances	N/A	All substances	All substances	BC, OC, NOx, NH3, CO,	All substances

						PM2.5, PM10, NMVOC, SO2	
HTAP_5.4: Other ground transport	All subst ances	All subst ances	BC, OC, NOx, NH3, CO, PM2.5, PM10, NMVOC, SO2	All substanc es	All substanc es	All substanc es	All substanc es
HTAP_6: Residential	All subst ances	All subst ances	BC, OC, NOx, NH3, CO, PM2.5, PM10, NMVOC, SO2	All substanc es	All substanc es	All substanc es	All substanc es
HTAP_7: Waste	N/A	All subst ances	All substanc es	All substanc es	All substanc es	All substanc es	All substanc es
HTAP_8.1: Agricultural waste burning	N/A	All subst ances	All substanc es	N/A	All substanc es	All substanc es	All substanc es
HTAP_8.2: Agriculture livestock	NH3, NMVOC, NOx, PM10 , PM2.5	NH3, NMVOC, NOx, PM10 , PM2.5, BC, OC	NH3, NMVOC, NOx, PM10, PM2.5	NH3, NMVOC, NOx, PM10, PM2.5, BC, OC	NH3, NMVOC, NOx, PM10, PM2.5, BC, OC	NH3, NMVOC, NOx, PM10, PM2.5, OC	NH3, NMVOC, NOx, PM10, PM2.5
HTAP_8.3: Agriculture_crops	NH3, NOx, PM10 , PM2.5	NH3, NOx, PM10 , PM2.5, BC, OC	NH3, NOx, PM10, PM2.5	NH3, NOx, PM10, PM2.5, BC, NMVOC, C, OC	NH3, NOx, PM10, PM2.5, BC, OC, CO, NMVOC, SO2	NH3, NOx, PM10, PM2.5, SO2, CO, OC, NMVOC	NH3, NOx, PM10, PM2.5

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4 Table 4 – Main features of the different HTAP mosaics.

	HTAP_v1	HTAP_v2.2	HTAP_v3
Time coverage	2000-2005	2008 and 2010	2000-2018
Time resolution	yearly	yearly and monthly	yearly and monthly
Substances	CH ₄ , NMVOC, CO, SO ₂ , NO _x , NH ₃ , PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} , BC, OC	SO ₂ , NO _x , CO, NMVOC, NH ₃ (only for agriculture), PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} , BC, OC	SO ₂ , NO _x , CO, NMVOC, NH ₃ , PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} , BC, OC
Sectors	Aircraft, Ships, Energy, Industry Processes, Ground Transport, Residential, Solvents, Agriculture, Agriculture Waste Burning, and Waste	Air, Ships, Energy, Industry, Transport, Residential (including waste), and Agriculture (only for NH ₃)	International Shipping, Domestic Shipping, Domestic Aviation, International Aviation, Energy, Industry, Fugitives, Solvent Use, Road Transport, Brake and Tyre Wear, Other Ground Transport, Residential, Waste, Agricultural Waste Burning, Livestock, and Agricultural Crops
Geographical coverage	Globe	Globe	Globe
Spatial resolution	0.1°x0.1°	0.1°x0.1°	0.1°x0.1°
Input datasets	UNFCCC, REAS, GAINS, EMEP, EPA, EDGARv4.1	US EPA, Environment Canada, MICS, TNO/EMEP Europe (MACC II), MICS Asia III+, REAS2.1, EDGARv4.3	CAMS-REG-v5.1, REASv3.2.1, US EPA, ECCC, CAPSS-KU, JAPAN (PM2.5EI and J-STREAM), EDGARv6.1
Reference	Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2012	Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2015	This work