**Number distribution differences among multiple satellite-based XCO2 datasets and their impact on monthly CO2 flux estimation**

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**Key points**

* Impact of distribution differences among five GOSAT CO2 data on flux estimation was assessed
* Distribution differences can cause flux spreads as large as half the flux annual amplitude
* Impact on global annual flux was found to be rather small

**Abstract**

We assessed to what extent differences in the number distribution of satellite-based CO2 data can impact the estimation of surface CO2 fluxes on monthly and regional scales. Study motivation comes from the fact that CO2 data number yields by existing five algorithms for retrieving CO2 data from GOSAT spectral soundings differ largely from one another over some parts of the globe. For this assessment, we used a single inversion system and five synthetic CO2 datasets whose geolocations are identical to those of the actual datasets. The synthetic data were used to eliminate confusion coming from possible differences in concentration and bias adjustment among the five actual datasets. We found flux spreads as large as 2.0 gC m-2 day-1 in a month in some regions, and some spreads were found to exceed half the flux annual amplitude. The impact of these large spreads on the annual global flux was rather small.

**Keywords**: GOSAT, column-averaged CO2 concentration, surface CO2 flux estimation

1. **Introduction**

Atmospheric inversion is a technique that systematically searches for spatiotemporal distributions of trace gas fluxes that yield modeled atmospheric concentrations close to observations. This technique, also known as Bayesian optimization, has been commonly used for the inference of surface CO2 flux distributions. As the flux inference relies heavily upon observational constraints, several sensitivity studies were conducted in the past [e.g. Law et al., 2001; Maksyutov et al., 2003; Yuen et al., 2005; Gurney et al., 2008; Bruhwiler et al., 2011; Saeki et al., 2013]. These studies showed that the CO2 flux estimation is highly sensitive to changes in the spatial distribution of surface CO2 observation sites. Bruhwiler et al. [2011], in particular, demonstrated that additional constraints introduced to the flux estimation can significantly reduce the uncertainties of fluxes especially for under-sampled regions, but they can also cause sudden changes in the fluxes that sometimes exceed the amplitudes of flux inter-annual variability. Changes in observational constraints both in time and space can be problematic when trends of the estimated fluxes are studied.

Now, with the advent of the Japanese Greenhouse gases Observing SATellite (GOSAT) in 2009 and more recently NASA’s Orbiting Carbon Observatory-2 in 2014, the satellite retrievals of column-averaged CO2 concentration (XCO2), which can complement the surface-based measurements, are available for constraining surface CO2 fluxes. These satellite-based XCO2 retrievals are, however, quite different from the surface-based measurements in precision, frequency, and spatial distribution. In the case of GOSAT retrievals, their precision is reported to be ~2 ppm [Oshchepkov et al., 2013a], which is about one-order-of-magnitude larger than that of typical surface measurements [e.g. Tans and Thoning, 2008]. About one hundred thousand GOSAT XCO2 retrievals over land are available in a year, but unlike the surface measurements at fixed locations, success in XCO2 retrieving is highly dependent on local cloudiness and aerosol loading and thus repeat retrievals at the same location on subsequent satellite orbits are not guaranteed. Further, for obtaining better results, existing five algorithms for retrieving GOSAT XCO2 differ in a number of aspects including input spectral data pre-screening, cloud and aerosol modeling, radiative transfer modeling, and post-retrieval screening, all of which impact the XCO2 number yield. The XCO2 number yields by the five algorithms were found to differ by tens of thousands in a year [Takagi et al., 2014]. Variations in XCO2 number distribution are equivalent to introducing or withdrawing observational constraints in flux inference, as in the study by Bruhwiler et al. [2011].

We thus assessed to what extent the XCO2 number distribution variations, owing to the XCO2 retrieval algorithm differences, can impact CO2 flux estimation. We did so by inter-comparing regional fluxes estimated from five different synthetic XCO2 datasets whose geographical distribution patterns are identical to those of the five actual GOSAT XCO2 datasets. A single inversion system was used for this estimation. The use of synthetic XCO2 data eliminates confusion coming from possible differences in concentration and bias adjustment among the five actual XCO2 datasets; this way only the contribution of the number distribution differences to the flux estimation can be evaluated.

**2. Method**

The five XCO2 retrieval algorithms considered here were developed independently by the National Institute for Environmental Studies (NIES), Japan (NIES [Yoshida et al., 2013] and PPDF-S [Oshchepkov et al., 2013b] algorithms), the NASA Atmospheric CO2 Observation from Space (ACOS) team [O’Dell et al., 2012] (ACOS algorithm), the Netherlands Institute for Space Research / Karlsruhe Institute for Technology [Butz et al., 2011] (RemoTeC algorithm), Germany, and the University of Leicester (UoL), UK [Boesch et al., 2011] (UoL-FP algorithm). Descriptions of these five algorithms can be found in an inter-comparison study by Oshchepkov et al. [2013a]. Key differences among these algorithms are summarized in Table 1 of a previous GOSAT flux inter-comparison report by Takagi et al. [2014] (T14). The versions of the retrieval datasets used here are as follows: NIES v02.11, PPDF-S v02.11, ACOS B3.4, RemoTeC v2.11, and UoL-FP v4. For creating the synthetic XCO2 datasets, information on XCO2 geolocation and column averaging kernel was taken from each of the five datasets and used to sample XCO2 in a forward concentration simulation in five different ways. The forward simulation was performed with version 08.1i of the NIES atmospheric tracer transport model (NIES-TM) [Belikov et al., 2013] (resolution: 2.5°×2.5° horizontal and 32 vertical) driven by the Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA)’s JCDAS (JMA Climate Data Assimilation System) meteorological analysis data [Onogi et al., 2007]. We used a surface-data-optimized CO2 flux dataset by Chevalier et al. [2010] (ver.13.1; available at http://apps.ecmwf.int/datasets/data/macc-ghg-inversions/) as “truth” in this forward simulation.

The flux inference by the five synthetic XCO2 datasets was performed with an inverse modeling system used in T14 and described in detail by Maksyutov et al. [2013]. The system consists of NIES-TM and a fixed-lag Kalman Smoother optimization scheme [Bruhwiler et al., 2005] that estimates monthly fluxes of 64 global regions on sub-continental and ocean-basin scales (42 terrestrial and 22 oceanic) [Patra et al., 2005]. The a priori flux data used here consist of the following four components: anthropogenic emissions by ODIAC (Open source Data Inventory of Anthropogenic CO2 emission) high-resolution dataset [Oda and Maksyutov,

2011] combined with the Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center’s monthly 1° × 1° resolution dataset [Andres et al., 2011]; monthly biomass burning emissions by GFED (Global Fire Emissions Database) version 3.1 inventory [van der Werf et al. 2010]; daily net ecosystem exchange (NEE) predicted by VISIT (Vegetation Integrative SImulator for Trace gases) terrestrial biosphere process model [Ito 2010; Saito et al. 2011]; monthly ocean-atmosphere CO2 fluxes generated with an ocean pCO2 data assimilation system [Valsala and Maksyutov 2010].

Only the land synthetic XCO2 values (oceanic data not included in UoL-FP v4 dataset) over a period between June 2009 and March 2011 were used for this flux inference. Surface-based CO2 observations were not involved here. A model-observation mismatch uncertainty of 3 ppm (above-mentioned XCO2 precision of 2 ppm + forward modeling error of ~1 ppm [Belikov et al., 2013]) was assigned to all individual synthetic XCO2 values. Unlike T14, the individual XCO2 retrievals were not aggregated nor monthly-averaged in the inversion so that the full extent of the impact of the spatial distribution variations can be evaluated. Along with the synthetic XCO2 inversion, we also performed inversion with the actual XCO2 retrievals (biases were corrected by individual data providers) for a comparison purpose. In this analysis, we focused on flux estimates for 12 months in 2010 out of the 25-months calculation period.

**3. Results**

Presented in Figure 1 is the spread of the five regional fluxes estimated from the five synthetic XCO2 datasets. Values shown here are the standard deviations (SD) of five regional fluxes in gC m-2 day-1 over the one-year analyzed period. One characteristic found in this time series is that many of SDs of temperate and boreal regions in the Northern Hemisphere (NH) peak out between May and September of the analyzed year and gradually diminish toward December, implying XCO2 distribution variations change with time. On one hand, SDs of Amazonia (Regions 9-12; region IDs are found in upper left panel of Figure 1) and tropical Asia (33) remain large throughout the year. Those of southwestern North America (5), southern tips of South America and Africa (13, 21, and 22), and southwestern Australia (35) stay very small (<0.15 gC m-2 day-1) over the analyzed period, suggesting small XCO2 distribution variations. We take a close look at the flux time series and XCO2 spatial distributions of three selected regions that are representative of the above-mentioned characteristics: Regions 6 (NH temperate), 9 (large SD year-round), and 13 (small SD year-round).

Panel A of Figure 2 shows the one-year time series of five estimated fluxes for Region 6, the southeastern quadrant of the contiguous US. The fluxes shown are net but without anthropogenic emissions. The a posteriori uncertainties of the estimated fluxes are shown with the error bars. The five fluxes are in good agreement from January through April (SD in January = 0.1 gC m-2 day-1), but after that period the spread among them becomes large toward June and July (SD in June = 0.7 gC m-2 day-1) and diminishes toward the end of the year. Panel A of Figure 3 displays the spatial distributions of the five XCO2 retrievals over this region (circles in red) and the surroundings (in pink). Distributions for January and June 2010 are contrasted here. The total number of XCO2 retrievals found over the region in each month is also indicated in the figure. We note here that the circles are drawn over the others thus some may not be visible in the figure. The January distributions shown here resemble those of spring, fall, and winter seasons; the number of XCO2 retrievals found over this region (2.23 million km2) in a month during these seasons is similar among the five XCO2 datasets (January population range: 183 – 273 per region). Although some fine differences exist, XCO2 retrievals by the five algorithms are distributed nearly similarly over the region. During the summer months (June to August), however, the XCO2 populations drop significantly and become quite different from one to another (June population range: 15 – 122 per region). The population difference causes variations in the spatial coverage, as shown in the lower part of Panel A (June 2010). The overall population drop can be attributed to increased local cloudiness and/or aerosol loading, and the population differences among the five datasets suggest differences in the current XCO2 retrieval approaches. A separate, detailed investigation is needed to understand which processes and approaches in the five retrieval algorithms contribute most to these population differences.

The largest difference in population and spatial distribution can be seen between NIES and UoL-FP datasets, and the difference resulted in the largest flux spread of 1.6 gC m-2 day-1 in June 2010 (between NIES and UoL-FP estimates), which is 40 times larger than that in January (0.04 gC m-2 day-1). The June spread is also 56% of the mean peak-to-peak amplitude of the five one-year flux time series (2.8 gC m-2 day-1). The XCO2 population difference is reflected in the magnitude of the a posteriori flux uncertainty: NIES = 0.8 gC m-2 day-1 (smaller population and less constrained); UoL-FP = 0.4 gC m-2 day-1 (larger population thus better constrained). In terms of a priori flux uncertainty reduction (pUR), which denotes the degree of how well a monthly regional flux is constrained by observations (given as pUR in % = 100 × (1 – a posteriori uncertainty / a priori uncertainty)), the UoL-FP retrievals attain a 74% reduction while the NIES retrievals only achieve 42% (a 32% difference).

The time series of the five flux estimates for Region 9, the southwestern part of Amazonia, are shown in Panel B of Figure 2. The time series indicate much larger spreads among the five estimates than those of Region 6 almost throughout the year. These larger spreads are attributable to considerably scant XCO2 retrievals over the region (2.59 million km2, similar to Region 6) and those scattered around the region. The XCO2 spatial distributions for March 2010 are shown in Panel B of Figure 3 (population range: 0 – 6 per region), which are representative of those in early and late 2010 (some XCO2 retrievals exist between May and August). The fluxes of these months are not well constrained by XCO2 retrievals within the region thus influenced by those found in the neighboring regions that are variable in spatial pattern (see distributions of pink circles in the figure). The largest flux spread (between PPDF-S and RemoTeC estimates) in March was found to be 2.0 gC m-2 day-1, which is the largest among all the monthly regional cases in 2010 (also indicated in Figure 1 with dark red; SD = 0.8 gC m-2 day-1). The average pUR for this month is 37%, which is close to that of the Region 6 NIES case in June 2010.

Regions associated with very small flux SDs year-round (5, 13, 21, 22, and 35) are mostly semi-arid; owing to the frequent occurrence of clear sky, XCO2 retrievals by the five algorithms are constantly available throughout the year over these regions. Population differences among the five XCO2 datasets are found to be small throughout the year, and that is reflected in small SDs for these regions (Figure 1). Panel C of Figure 3 shows the five XCO2 distributions over Region 21, the southern tip of Africa (2.21 million km2), for June 2010. The five XCO2 populations and the spatial distributions over this region and the surroundings are similar to one another throughout the year, and the five fluxes estimated for this region are found to agree well year round (Panel C of Figure 2). The range of flux spread over the one-year is 0.07 – 0.35 gC m-2 day-1 (annual mean SD = 0.04 gC m-2 day-1).

SD of Region 20, the eastern half of the Sahara Desert, is found to be the smallest in 2010 (0.0 gC m-2 day-1; Figure 1), but this case may be considered as an exception because of its near-zero regional NEE predicted throughout the year and a very small a priori uncertainty assigned that leave nearly no room for being optimized by XCO2 retrievals.

The impact that these XCO2 spatial distribution variations have on the regional and global fluxes on an annual time scale was also checked. The five global annual flux estimates, obtained by aggregating the individual 64 monthly regional estimates over the one-year period, differ as much as 0.2 GtC yr-1 (SD = 0.1 GtC yr-1), or 4% of the mean of the five net annual global flux values (5.0 GtC yr-1). The fluxes of the three focused regions (Regions 6, 9 and 21) on an annual scale were found to differ as much as 0.2, 0.6, and 0.1 GtC region-1 yr-1, respectively. The largest annual-scale difference was 0.8 GtC region-1 yr-1 (Region 30), which is 16% of the net annual global flux. Other regions with particularly large flux differences (>0.3 GtC region-1 yr-1) include Regions 15, 26, 32, 33, and 34. These large regional spreads, however, do not surface as much in the global annual estimates (SD = 0.1 GtC yr-1) after the aggregation of the 64 regional values.

Comparing the five fluxes estimated from the synthetic XCO2 retrievals with those estimated from the actual XCO2 retrievals may indicate the extent that the XCO2 spatial distribution variations account for the spreads among the actual flux estimates, in which contributions from both the spatial distribution variations and possible concentration/bias differences are reflected. We calculated SDs of five fluxes estimated from the five actual XCO2 datasets, and the values are shown in Figure S1 in the supplementary information. SDs of the actual flux estimates (SDact) are overall larger than SDs of the synthetic flux estimates (SDsyn), although a few SDact are found to be smaller than the corresponding SDsyn (e.g. Region 21 in January 2010: SDact = 0.1 and SDsyn = 0.2), suggesting that the concentration contributions may have worked to bring the flux estimates closer to one another. On average, the ratio of SDact to SDsyn turned out to be 1:0.38 (cases with SDact < SDsyn were excluded). The exact contribution of concentration and/or bias differences among the five XCO2 datasets to SDact is not yet known, but our finding here implies that a large contribution to spreads found in the actual flux estimates comes from concentration/bias differences among the five XCO2 datasets, although the contribution from XCO2 distribution variations is not trivial.

**4. Discussion and concluding remarks**

A few things may be worth noting on what we found out in this assessment. First, XCO2 population differences found among the five XCO2 datasets have potentials to cause significant differences in fluxes estimated on monthly and regional scales. As demonstrated in the case of Region 6 (SE part of US) in June 2010, a XCO2 population difference of this extent can lead to flux spreads greater than a half of the amplitude of the flux seasonal cycle, which can sum up to 0.6 GtC difference in a year (12% of the global annual flux). This is clearly disadvantageous to studying both short- and long-term CO2 flux trends. XCO2 population differences during the growing season of plants over temperate and boreal regions, for instance, can confuse the inference of NEE for those regions. Again, in the case of Region 6 in June, the a priori flux (NEE + biomass burning emission) was prescribed at -1.4 gC m-2 day-1, and the NIES and UoL a posteriori flux estimates were -0.3 and -1.9 gC m-2 day-1, respectively; the NIES XCO2 retrievals adjust the a priori flux toward the source side by 1.1 gC m-2 day-1, whereas the UoL retrievals force it toward the sink side by 0.5 gC m-2 day-1. Notice here that the departure from the a priori value in the NIES case (1.1 gC m-2 day-1) is nearly equivalent to the absolute value of the prescribed a priori flux itself. In the long run, such population differences can also complicate the process of distinguishing anomalies in flux time series. In view of diminishing current differences in XCO2 number yield, further XCO2 retrieval algorithm inter-comparison studies are desired, particularly on differences in the approaches of pre-filtering input spectral data and post-screening low quality XCO2 retrievals.

Second, it is necessary to evaluate the impact of XCO2 distribution variations on the flux estimation on smaller spatial and temporal scales than what we adopted in this study (~3000 km mesh and monthly), as the population and spatial distribution differences among the datasets can become more pronounced on smaller spatiotemporal scales. As shown in Panel A of Figure 3, despite the population similarities found among the five XCO2 datasets over Region 6 in January 2010, their distributions are not identical to one another; fine differences exist in a mesh size of several degrees (e.g. distribution differences near the NW corner of Region 6). Additional synthetic inversion studies on smaller scales are desired. Also needed for characterizing satellite-based inversion is an inter-comparison of current flux inversion systems to understand how differences among those systems can impact flux estimates, using a common input XCO2 retrieval dataset.

Third, as implied in the case of Region 9 (SW Amazonia), there is a clear need to improve the current XCO2 spatial coverage based on GOSAT spectral measurement. Shown in Figure 4 are the one-year population distributions of the five XCO2 datasets on a 2.5-degree mesh used for the inference of the 2010 fluxes. Although the GOSAT XCO2 retrievals fill out many blanks in the existing networks of ground-based monitoring stations (Figure 4 top panel), the populations are mostly concentrated over the mid-latitudinal regions in the both hemispheres, such as the US, temperate Eurasia, Australia, and southern parts of South America and Africa. The populations over Amazonia, tropical Africa, southeastern and tropical Asia, and NH boreal and arctic regions, on the other hand, are one to two orders-of-magnitude smaller than those of the mid-latitudinal bands (only a few to several tens per grid cell per year; light green to blue color in the log scale). The reasons behind this include the fact that the NH boreal regions see most XCO2 retrievals only between May and August, and over the rest of the year these regions become undersampled due to low local solar zenith angles. Also, retrieving XCO2 over tropical Asia, tropical Africa, and Amazonia is heavily hindered by frequent cloud coverage around local noon when GOSAT measurement is made. To better cover these regions and seasons that are currently undersampled by GOSAT, some future missions are being considered that utilize observing platforms placed in a quasi-geostationary orbit to observe the Arctic and NH boreal regions [Nassar et al., 2014] and in several geostationary orbits to scan specific parts of the globe [Polonsky et al., 2014; Butz et al., 2015]. These platforms may allow for more contiguous and frequent spectral sounding. Combining the outcomes of measurement by platforms such as these may yield spatiotemporally more seamless CO2 distributions favorable for inferring fluxes globally.

Until such future space-based CO2 data have become available and the impact of differences among the existing XCO2 retrieval algorithms and flux inversion systems on the estimates of surface CO2 fluxes have been well characterized and understood, it may be sound to take into account the above-mentioned potential uncertainties in translating the results of GOSAT-based flux estimates.

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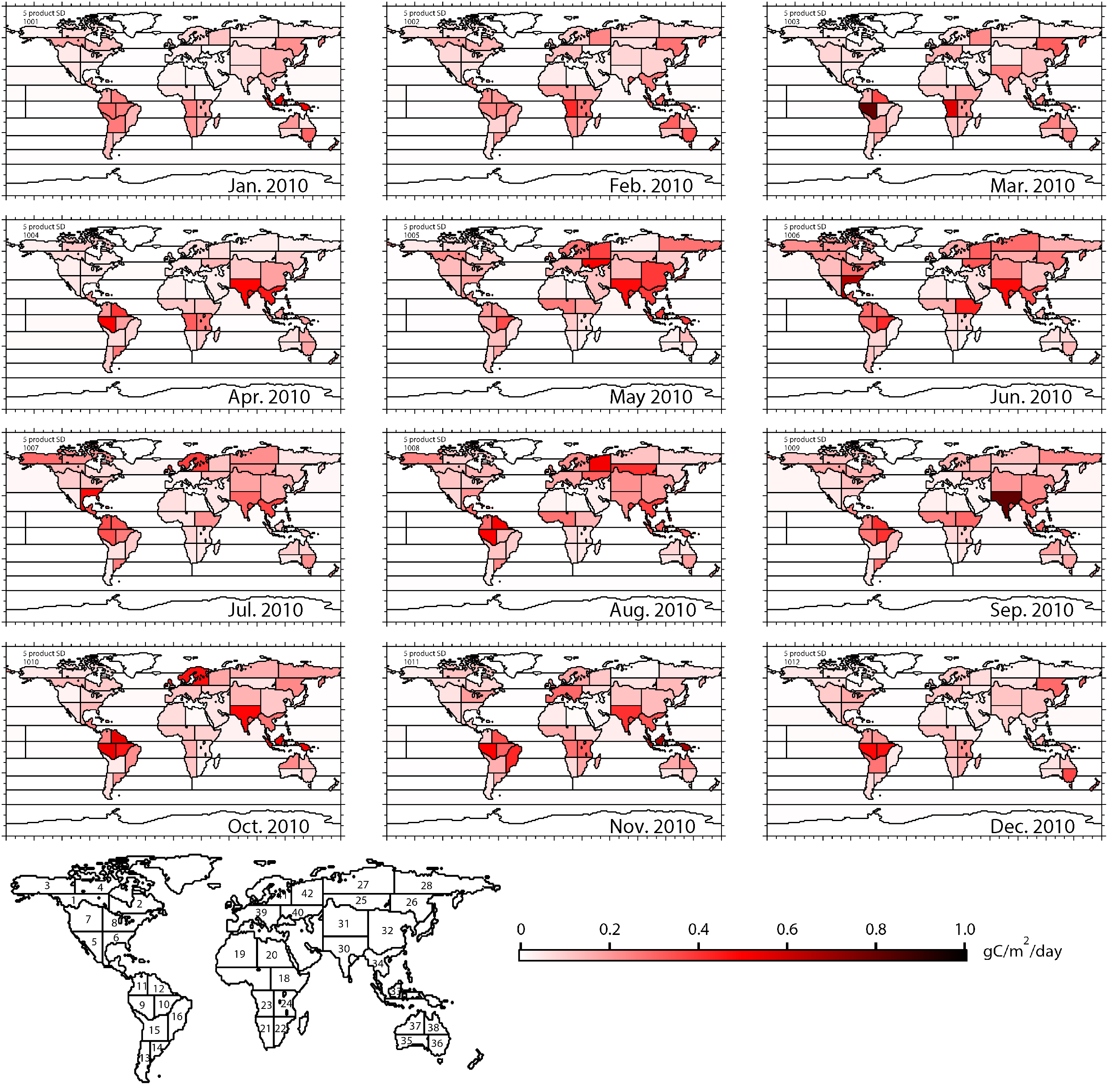
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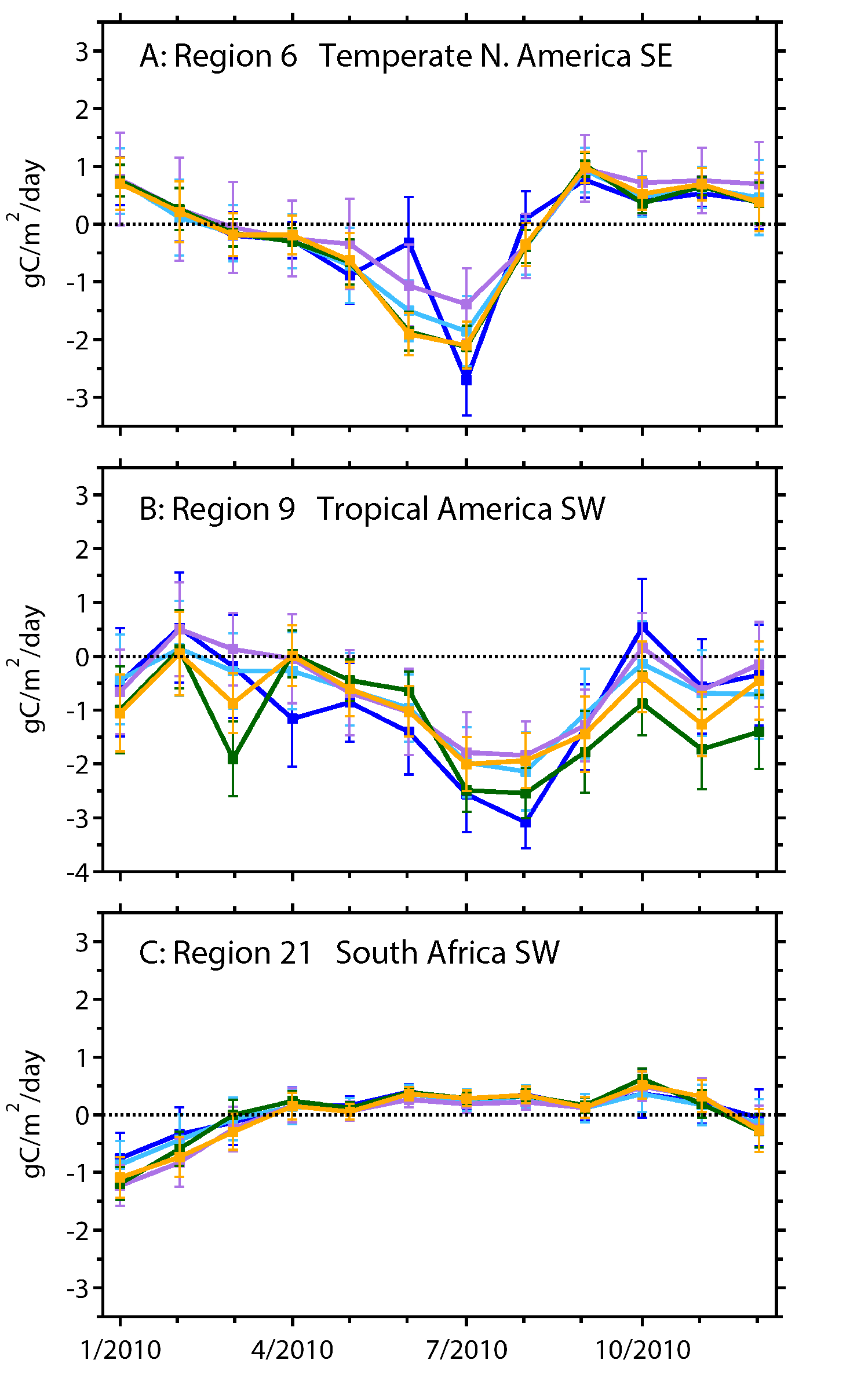
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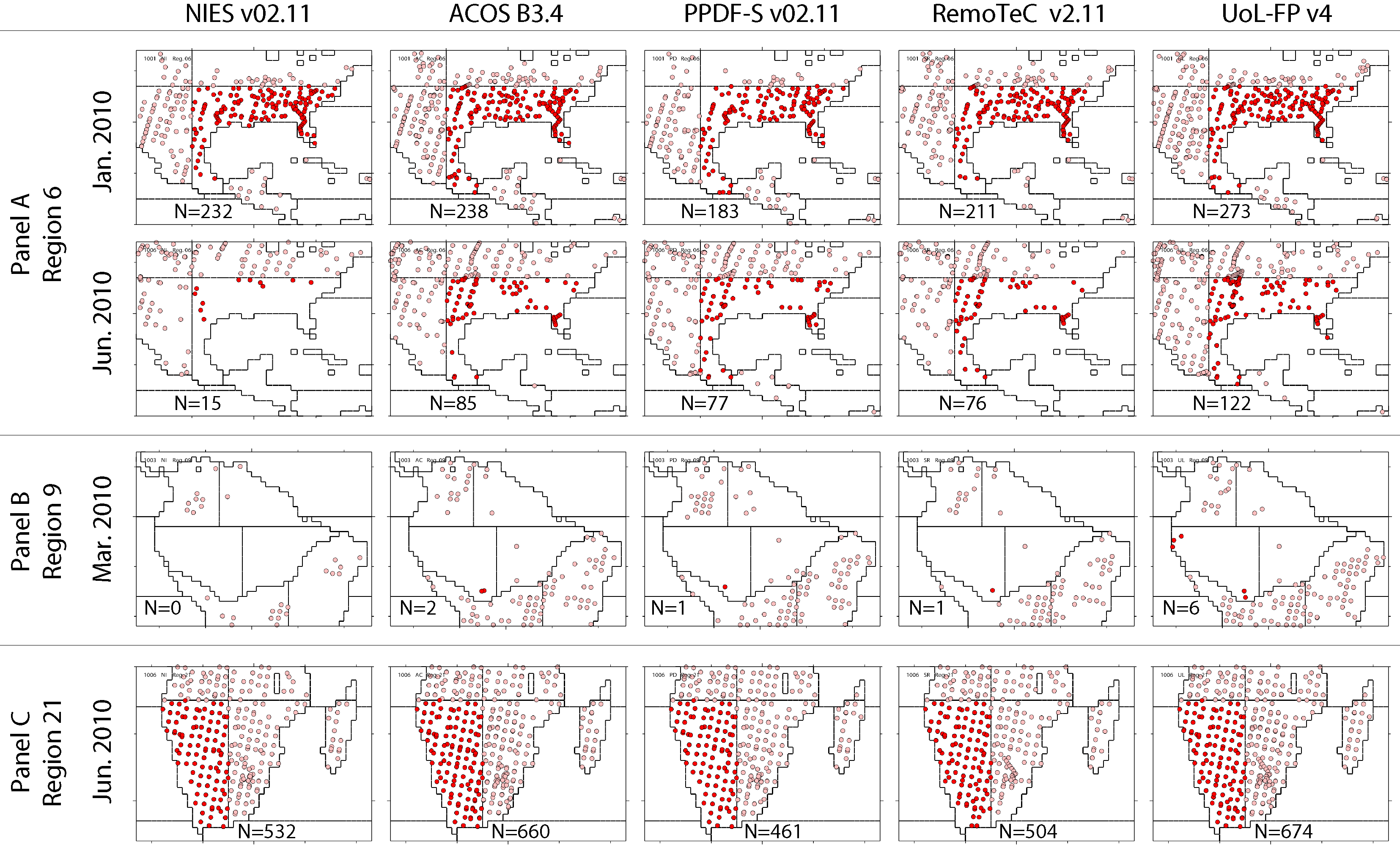
**Figures**



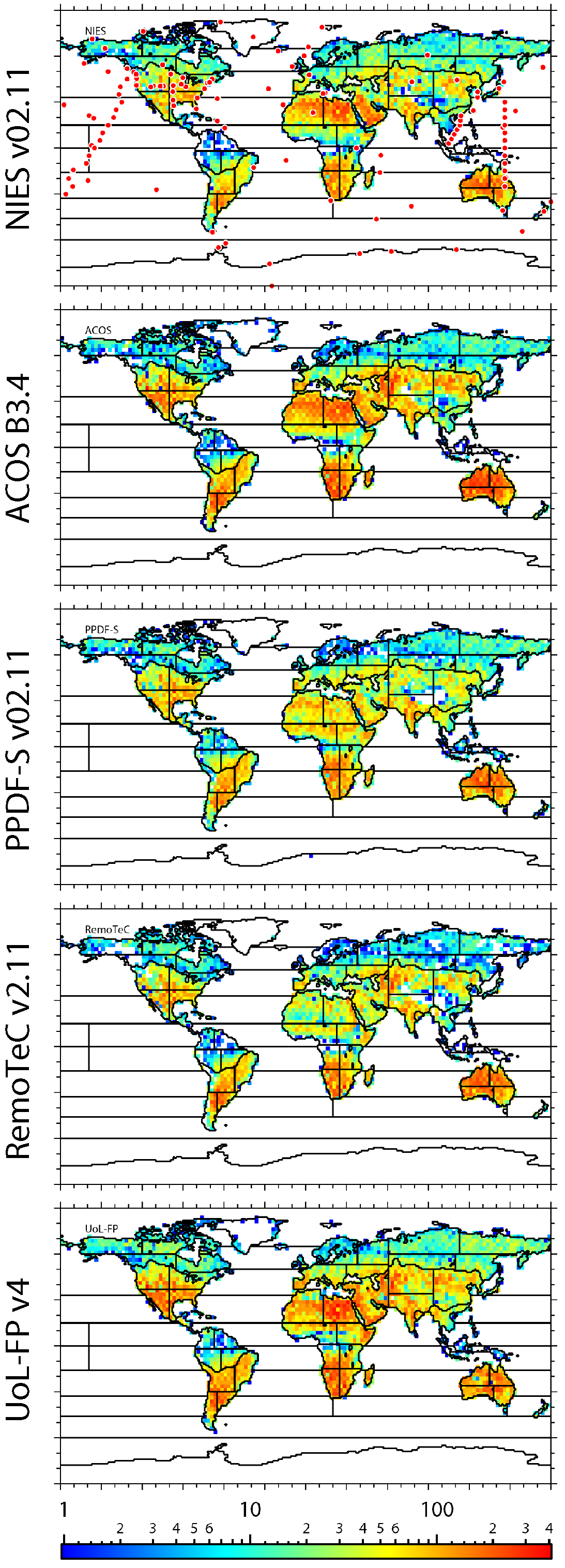
**Figure 1.** Standard deviation of five monthly regional fluxes estimated from the five synthetic XCO2 datasets. IDs of terrestrial regions are indicated at the bottom.



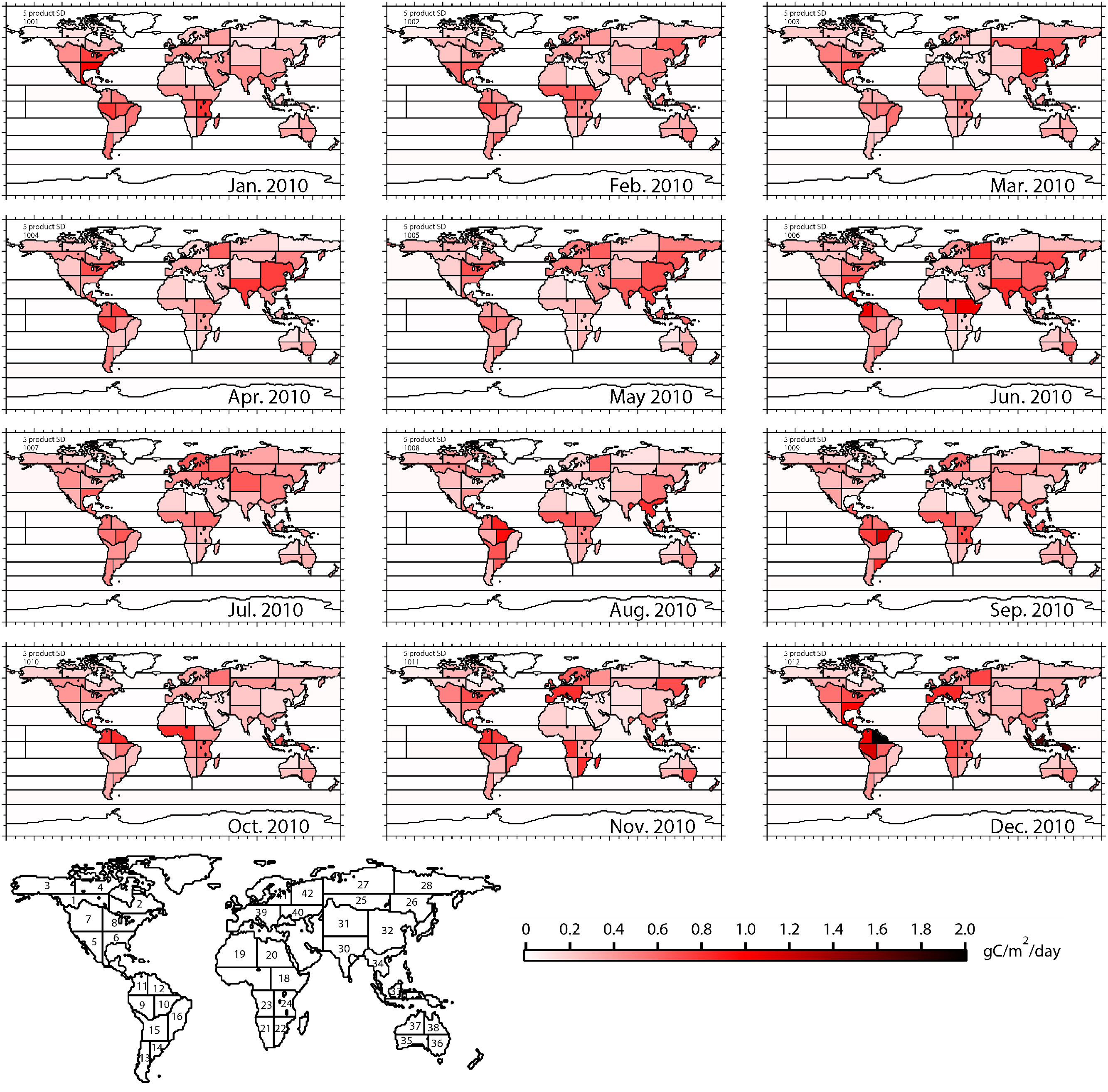
**Figure 2.** Time series of five estimated fluxes for Region 6 (top), 9 (middle), and 21 (bottom) over the year 2010. Values shown are net without the anthropogenic emissions. Blue: NIES v02.11; Light blue: ACOS B3.4; Purple: PPDF-S v02.11; Green: RemoTeC v2.11; Yellow: UoL-FP v4. Error bars indicate the a posteriori flux uncertainties.

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**Figure 3.** Spatial distributions of the five XCO2 retrievals over Regions 6 (top; southeastern quadrant of contiguous US), 9 (middle; southwestern part of Amazonia), and 21 (bottom; southern tip of Africa). Circles indicate the locations of XCO2 retrievals over the regions of focus (in red) and the surrounding areas (in pink). The circles may be overlaid onto one another. The total number of XCO2 retrievals over the region (N) is shown in each panel.

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**Figure 4.** One-year population distributions of the five XCO2 datasets on a 2.5-degree mesh used for the inference of the 2010 fluxes. Red circles in the top panel indicate the location of surface-based CO2 monitoring stations (220 as used in Takagi et al. [2014]).



**Figure S1.** Standard deviation of five monthly regional fluxes estimated from the five actual XCO2 datasets. Note that the scale range shown here is wider than that in Figure 1 (range: 0 – 1 gC m-2 day-1).