

9 **Abstract**

10 The extending archive of the Greenhouse Gases Observing SATellite (GOSAT) measurements
11 (now covering about six years) allows increasingly robust statistics to be computed, that
12 document the performance of the corresponding retrievals of the column-average dry air-mole
13 fraction of CO₂ (XCO₂). Here, we demonstrate that atmospheric inversions cannot be
14 rigorously optimal when assimilating current XCO₂ retrievals, even with averaging kernels, in
15 particular because retrievals and inversions use different assumption about prior uncertainty.
16 We look for some practical evidence of this sub-optimality from the view point of atmospheric
17 inversion by comparing a model simulation constrained by surface air-sample measurements
18 with one of the GOSAT retrieval products (NASA's ACOS). The retrieval-minus-model
19 differences result from various error sources, both in the retrievals and in the simulation: we
20 discuss the plausibility of the origin of the major patterns. We find systematic retrieval errors
21 over the dark surfaces of high-latitude lands and over African savannahs. More importantly,
22 we also find a systematic over-fit of the GOSAT radiances by the retrievals over land for the
23 high-gain detector mode, which is the usual observation mode. The over-fit is partially
24 compensated by the retrieval bias-correction. These issues are likely common to other retrieval
25 products and may explain some of the surprising and inconsistent CO₂ atmospheric inversion
26 results obtained with the existing GOSAT retrieval products. We suggest that reducing the
27 observation weight in the retrieval schemes (for instance so that retrieval increments to the
28 retrieval prior values are halved for the studied retrieval product) would significantly improve
29 the retrieval quality and reduce the need for (or at least reduce the complexity of) ad-hoc
30 retrieval bias correction.

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32

33 **1. Introduction**

34 CO₂ surface fluxes at the Earth's surface can be inferred from accurate surface measurements
35 of CO₂ concentrations, but the sparseness of the current global network still leaves the flux
36 horizontal and temporal gradients, and even their latitudinal distribution, very uncertain (Peylin et
37 al. 2013). This limitation has provided a major incentive to develop the monitoring of CO₂
38 concentrations from space. First retrievals were obtained from existing instruments measuring
39 either the thermal infrared radiation emitted by the atmosphere (Chédin et al. 2003) or the
40 reflected sunlight in the near-infrared (NIR)/ shortwave infrared (SWIR) spectral regions
41 (Buchwitz et al. 2005). The latter technique allows retrieving the column-average dry air-mole
42 fraction of CO₂ (XCO₂) while the former is not sensitive to CO₂ in the lower atmosphere, near
43 the CO₂ sources and sinks. Since active (lidar) measurement techniques for XCO₂ from space are
44 still in development (e.g., Ingmann et al. 2009), NIR/SWIR measurements currently offer the best
45 prospect to provide “retrievals of CO₂ of sufficient quality to estimate regional sources and sinks”,
46 as phrased by objective A.8.1 of the Global Climate Observing System programme (GCOS,
47 2010), in the short term. However, they are hampered by uncertain knowledge about scatterers in
48 the atmosphere at the corresponding wavelengths (aerosols and cirrus clouds) with an effect that
49 varies with surface albedo, which is itself uncertain (e.g., Aben et al. 2007). Such interference in
50 the XCO₂ signal seen in the NIR/SWIR measurements is of concern because even sub-ppm
51 systematic errors (corresponding to less than 0.25% of the signal) can severely flaw the inversion
52 of CO₂ surface fluxes (Chevallier et al. 2007, Miller et al. 2007). This risk motivated dedicated
53 developments of the retrieval algorithms in order to de-convolve the spectral signatures of the
54 involved compounds as much as possible (e.g., Reuter et al. 2010, Guerlet et al. 2013b).

55 The Japanese GOSAT, launched in January 2009, and the USA second Orbiting Carbon
56 Observatory (OCO-2), launched in July 2014, observe the NIR/SWIR radiation with
57 unprecedented spectral resolution in order to specifically address this remote sensing challenge.
58 The GOSAT archive already covers six years and can provide good insight into the adequacy of
59 NIR/SWIR retrievals for CO₂ source-sink inversion. In terms of random errors, raw GOSAT
60 retrievals now reach single shot precision better than 2 ppm (one sigma) in fair measurement
61 conditions (e.g., Nguyen et al. 2014). This performance is better than what pre-launch studies
62 suggested: for instance Maksuytov et al. (2008) expected 2.5-10 ppm single shot precision only.
63 Systematic errors are difficult to quantify or else they would be removed. They are likely state-
64 dependent with absolute values varying in time and space about the ppm before any bias
65 correction (Nguyen et al. 2014). They also depend on the retrieval algorithm (e.g., Oshchepkov et
66 al. 2013). As expected, the remaining uncertainty has profound impact on CO₂ source-sink
67 inversions (Basu et al. 2013, Chevallier et al. 2014), but XCO₂ retrievals have already served as
68 a basis to study the carbon budgets of some regions (Guerlet et al. 2013a, Basu et al. 2014, Reuter
69 et al. 2014). For instance, 25 scientists analysed several XCO₂ retrievals over continental Europe
70 and concluded that the current understanding of the European carbon sink brought by bottom-up
71 inventories had to be revisited (Reuter et al. 2014).

72 This paper aims at contributing to the debate about the relevance of current GOSAT retrievals
73 for atmospheric inversions. Our starting point is a critical review of the basic principles behind
74 the current processing chains that go in successive steps from GOSAT measured radiance spectra
75 to surface flux estimates (Section 3). We then focus on the GOSAT retrievals provided by
76 NASA's Atmospheric CO₂ Observations from Space project (ACOS, build 3.4, described in
77 Section 2) for the period between June 2009 and May 2013. They are of particular interest
78 because they have been processed in a way that prefigures the official OCO-2 retrievals in terms

79 of spectral bands and available simultaneous observations (O'Dell et al. 2012). In Section 4, we
80 analyse the residuals between the ACOS-GOSAT retrievals and the simulated CO₂ concentration
81 fields of the Monitoring Atmospheric Chemistry and Climate atmospheric inversion product
82 (MAACC, version 13r1, also described in Section 2) that assimilated surface air sample
83 measurements from various networks. Concluding discussion follows in Section 5.

84

85 **2. Retrievals and model simulation**

86

87 **2.1. ACOS-GOSAT retrievals**

88

89 GOSAT is a joint venture by the Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA), the National
90 Institute for Environmental Studies (NIES) and the Ministry of the Environment (MOE) in Japan.
91 This spacecraft is operated in a sun-synchronous polar orbit that crosses the Equator at about
92 13:00 local time during daytime and that repeats every 3 days. As described by O'Dell et al.
93 (2012) and Osterman et al. (2013), the ACOS algorithm retrieves XCO₂ from a selection of
94 GOSAT measurements of reflected sunlight made in the same spectral bands than OCO-2. Over
95 land, such measurements are made by pointing the instrument to the Earth on both sides of the
96 satellite track. Given the low reflectivity of water surfaces, ocean measurements are only possible
97 when the instrument is pointed to the sun-glint spot, which is only done within 40° from the
98 Equator in the summer hemisphere. GOSAT also carries a cloud and aerosol imager that can help
99 filtering difficult scenes out, but unlike other GOSAT retrieval algorithms, ACOS does not use it
100 since OCO-2 does not contain a similar instrument.

101 Following Boesch et al. (2006) and Connor et al. (2008), the ACOS algorithm relies on
102 optimal estimation (i.e. Bayesian methods) to retrieve the vertical profile of the CO₂ dry air mole

103 fraction together with variables interfering in the measurements: the surface pressure and the
104 surface albedo, some variables describing temperature, water vapour, clouds and aerosols in the
105 atmosphere, and channel offsets for the instrument. The retrieved XCO₂ is simply obtained by
106 integrating the retrieved CO₂ profile. In this Bayesian formulation of the retrieval, prior
107 information about CO₂ is given an artificially small weight in order to maximize the observation
108 contribution to the result: for instance, the standard deviation of the uncertainty assigned to the
109 prior XCO₂ is larger than 10 ppm (O'Dell et al., 2012), i.e. larger than typical variations of XCO₂
110 at the continental scale (e.g., Keppel-Aleks et al. 2011). We will discuss the impact of this choice
111 later and for simplicity, we will call XCO₂^b and XCO₂^a the prior (*background*) and the retrieved
112 (*analysed*) XCO₂, respectively. XCO₂^a can be compared with model simulations, as will be done
113 here, or with other measurements via the associated CO₂ averaging kernel profiles and prior
114 profiles (e.g., Connor et al., 1994). For nadir viewing, XCO₂^a is representative of a volume that
115 has a circular footprint at the Earth's surface of diameter about 10 km.

116 Previous comparisons between XCO₂^a and model simulations or reference ground-based
117 XCO₂ measurements from Total Carbon Column Observing Network (TCCON) highlighted
118 some systematic dependency of the error of XCO₂^a as a function of a series of internal variables
119 of the algorithm (Wunch et al. 2011b). This feature reveals some limitations of the algorithm but
120 also allows correcting them empirically, for instance before they are assimilated in atmospheric
121 inversion systems (Crisp et al. 2012). We will call XCO₂^{a,c} the bias-corrected retrievals.

122

123 **2.2. MACC CO₂ inversion**

124

125 Since year 2011, the MACC pre-operational service (www.copernicus-atmosphere.eu) has
126 been delivering a CO₂ inversion product with biannual updates. Release 13r1 primarily describes

127 the CO₂ surface fluxes over more than three decades, from 1979 to 2013, at resolution 3.75° ×
128 1.9° (longitude-latitude) and 3-hourly, based on 131 CO₂ dry air mole fraction station records
129 (See Fig. S1) from three large databases:

- 130 • the NOAA Earth System Research Laboratory archive (NOAA CCGG,
131 <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/index.html>),
- 132 • the World Data Centre for Greenhouse Gases archive (WDCGG,
133 <http://ds.data.jma.go.jp/gmd/wdcgg/>),
- 134 • the Réseau Atmosphérique de Mesure des Composés à Effet de Serre database (RAMCES,
135 <http://www.lsce.ipsl.fr/>).

136 The three databases include both in situ measurements made by automated quasi-continuous
137 analysers and irregular air samples collected in flasks and later analyzed in central facilities. The
138 detailed list of sites is provided in Tables S1 and S2.

139 The MACC Bayesian inversion method is formulated in a variational way in order to estimate
140 the CO₂ surface fluxes at the above-described relatively high resolution over the globe
141 (Chevallier et al. 2005, 2010). For v13r1, the system used a single 35-year inversion window,
142 therefore enforcing physical and statistical consistency in the inverted fluxes. Fluxes and mole
143 fractions are linked in the system by the global atmospheric transport model of the Laboratoire de
144 Météorologie Dynamique (LMDZ, Hourdin et al. 2006) with 39 layers in the vertical and with the
145 same horizontal resolution than the inverted fluxes. LMDZ is nudged to ECMWF-analysed winds
146 for flux inversion.

147 The MACC inversion product also contains the 4D CO₂ field that is associated to the inverted
148 surface fluxes through the LMDZ transport model. Simulating the GOSAT retrievals from this
149 field is nearly straight-forward. The only difficulty lies in the interpolation from the LMDZ 39-
150 level vertical grid to the 20-level vertical grid of the retrievals, before the retrieval averaging

151 kernels are applied. Indeed, the model orography at resolution $3.75^\circ \times 1.9^\circ$ significantly differs
152 from the high-resolution orography seen by the retrievals. For the interpolation, we assume that
153 CO₂ concentrations vary linearly with the pressure in the vertical. When the model surface
154 pressure is smaller than the retrieved surface pressure, the profile is artificially extended at
155 constant value below the model surface. In the opposite case, model levels below the sounding
156 surface are ignored. We compensate this artificial change of mass in the profile by systematically
157 adjusting the interpolated profile so that its pressure-weighted mean equals that of the profile
158 before the interpolation.

159

160 **3. Theoretical aspects**

161

162 Like the other retrieval and inversion systems (see, e.g., Oshchepkov et al., 2013, and Peylin et
163 al., 2013), ACOS-GOSAT and MACC both follow the Bayesian paradigm in its Gaussian linear
164 form (e.g., Rodgers, 2000) in order to estimate the most likely state, in a statistical sense, of the
165 CO₂ profile and of the CO₂ surface fluxes, respectively. In mathematical terms, given \mathbf{x} the vector
166 that gathers the variables to be inferred (either a 1D CO₂ profile or 2D+1D CO₂ surface fluxes),
167 given \mathbf{x}^b an a priori value of \mathbf{x} (coming from a climatology or from a model), and given \mathbf{y} the
168 vector that gathers all relevant observations (either radiances or retrievals), the most likely state
169 of \mathbf{x} is written:

$$170 \quad \mathbf{x}^a = \mathbf{x}^b + \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H} \mathbf{x}^b) \quad (1)$$

171 \mathbf{H} is a linearized observation operator that links variables \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} (i.e. essentially a radiative
172 transfer model or a transport model). \mathbf{K} is the following “Kalman gain” matrix:

$$173 \quad \mathbf{K} = \mathbf{B} \mathbf{H}^T (\mathbf{H} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{H}^T + \mathbf{R})^{-1} \quad (2)$$

174 \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{R} are the error covariance matrices of \mathbf{x}^b and \mathbf{y} , respectively.

175 The error covariance matrix of \mathbf{x}^a is obtained by:

$$176 \quad \mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{KH}) \mathbf{B} \quad (3)$$

177 with \mathbf{I} the identity matrix with appropriate dimension.

178 For simplicity, Eq. (1) does not make other variables that are simultaneously inferred appear,
179 like clouds, aerosols or surface variables for the retrievals, or the 3D state of CO₂ at the start of
180 the assimilation window for the inversion.

181 The current processing chains that go from radiances to surface fluxes are two-step processes
182 (let aside some attempts to introduce an additional intermediate step in the form of a short-
183 window analysis of the 3D concentrations; Engelen et al. 2009). We now distinguish the retrieval
184 process and the inversion process by putting tildes on all symbols related to the former and
185 hats on all symbols related to the latter. In a first step, the CO₂ profiles and their uncertainty
186 $\{\tilde{\mathbf{x}}^a, \tilde{\mathbf{A}}\}$ are retrieved for each sounding $\{\tilde{\mathbf{y}}, \tilde{\mathbf{R}}\}$ separately. The resulting ensemble forms the
187 observations to be simultaneously assimilated $\{\hat{\mathbf{y}}, \hat{\mathbf{R}}\}$ for the second step. The presence of prior
188 information \mathbf{x}^b in both steps complicates the transition between the two. Following Connor et al.
189 (1994) and the current practice, we can technically eliminate the influence of \mathbf{x}^b (but not of its
190 uncertainty) by the following adaptation of Eq. (1) in the second step: we assimilate $\hat{\mathbf{y}}' = \tilde{\mathbf{x}}^a -$
191 $(\mathbf{I} - \tilde{\mathbf{K}}\tilde{\mathbf{H}})\tilde{\mathbf{x}}^b = \tilde{\mathbf{K}}\tilde{\mathbf{y}}$ rather than $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ and change the observation operator from $\hat{\mathbf{H}}$ to $\hat{\mathbf{H}}' = \tilde{\mathbf{K}}\tilde{\mathbf{H}}\hat{\mathbf{H}}$.
192 $\tilde{\mathbf{K}}\tilde{\mathbf{H}}$ is called the retrieval *averaging kernel*. The retrieval error variances should consistently be
193 reduced (e.g., Connor et al., 2008, paragraph 37) and is then called $\hat{\mathbf{R}}'$ hereafter.

194 For simplicity, and without loss of generality in our linear framework, let us consider the
195 assimilation of a single sounding $\{\tilde{\mathbf{y}}, \tilde{\mathbf{R}}\}$ using its averaging kernel. By definition, given the
196 changes made to $\hat{\mathbf{H}}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{R}}$, the gain matrix changes as well and we call $\hat{\mathbf{K}}'$ the new one. By

197 applying Eq. (1) in this configuration, the analysed surface fluxes can be directly expressed in a
 198 concise form:

$$199 \quad \hat{\mathbf{x}}^a = \hat{\mathbf{x}}^b + \hat{\mathbf{K}}' \check{\mathbf{K}} (\check{\mathbf{y}} - \check{\mathbf{H}} \hat{\mathbf{H}} \hat{\mathbf{x}}^b) \quad (4)$$

200 This equation has the desired shape of Eq. (1), i.e. the sum of the prior value and of a linear
 201 function of model-minus-measurement misfits. By construction, it does not depend on the
 202 retrieval prior $\check{\mathbf{x}}^b$. However, to follow the optimal estimation framework, we still need to be able
 203 to develop the product of the gain matrices consistently with Eq. (2), i.e. like (neglecting errors in
 204 the observation operators):

$$205 \quad \mathbf{K} = \hat{\mathbf{B}} \hat{\mathbf{H}}^T \check{\mathbf{H}}^T (\check{\mathbf{H}} \hat{\mathbf{H}} \hat{\mathbf{B}} \hat{\mathbf{H}}^T \check{\mathbf{H}}^T + \check{\mathbf{R}})^{-1} \quad (5)$$

206 In practice, we see that:

$$207 \quad \hat{\mathbf{K}}' \check{\mathbf{K}} = \hat{\mathbf{B}} \hat{\mathbf{H}}'^T (\hat{\mathbf{H}}' \hat{\mathbf{B}} \hat{\mathbf{H}}'^T + \hat{\mathbf{R}}')^{-1} \check{\mathbf{B}} \check{\mathbf{H}}^T (\check{\mathbf{H}} \check{\mathbf{B}} \check{\mathbf{H}}^T + \check{\mathbf{R}})^{-1} \quad (6)$$

208 In the usual case when $\check{\mathbf{H}} \neq \mathbf{I}$, Eqs. (5-6) can be made consistent in general provided

$$209 \quad \check{\mathbf{H}} \check{\mathbf{B}} \check{\mathbf{H}}^T = \check{\mathbf{H}} \hat{\mathbf{H}} \hat{\mathbf{B}} \hat{\mathbf{H}}^T \check{\mathbf{H}}^T \quad (7)$$

210 and (by developing $\hat{\mathbf{H}}'$ and using Eq. (7))

$$211 \quad \check{\mathbf{H}}^T \check{\mathbf{K}}^T (\check{\mathbf{K}} \check{\mathbf{H}} \check{\mathbf{B}} \check{\mathbf{H}}^T \check{\mathbf{K}}^T + \hat{\mathbf{R}}')^{-1} \check{\mathbf{B}} = \mathbf{I} \quad (8)$$

212 Equation (7) simply expresses consistency between the prior error statistics within the
 213 information content of the retrievals: the uncertainty of the retrieval prior and of the flux prior
 214 should be the same in radiance space. This condition is not achieved by current satellite retrieval
 215 algorithms, at least because they artificially maximize the measurement contribution in the
 216 retrievals through the use of very large prior error variances (see Section 2.1 or Butz et al. 2009,
 217 Reuter et al. 2010). However, if enough intermediate variables were saved by the retrieval
 218 schemes, it would be possible to reconstruct the retrievals with appropriate prior error variances
 219 and correlations.

220 Equation (8) can be satisfied in general if the retrieval averaging kernel $\tilde{\mathbf{K}}\tilde{\mathbf{H}}$ is close to unity..
221 In practice, the retrieval averaging kernel for profiles is far from unity because current radiance
222 measurements do not provide any vertical resolution for CO₂. The situation is better if the state
223 vector $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ is the integrated column (in that case $\tilde{\mathbf{H}}$ includes an operator to distribute the column in
224 the vertical).

225 As a consequence of deviations from Eqs (7-8), the effective gain matrix $\hat{\mathbf{K}}'\tilde{\mathbf{K}}$ significantly
226 differs from the optimal one for GOSAT, resulting in a wrong balance between prior flux
227 information and measured radiances. Overall, $\tilde{\mathbf{K}}$ pulls too much towards the measured radiances
228 and $\hat{\mathbf{K}}'$ pulls too much towards the prior. This suboptimality very likely flaws the 4D information
229 flow from the radiance measurements to the surface flux estimates. In particular, the sub-
230 optimality of $\tilde{\mathbf{K}}$ affects the retrieval averaging kernel, that may not peak at the right height.

231 Migliorini (2012) proposed a sophisticated alternative to the averaging kernel assimilation of
232 Connor et al. (1994), where the retrievals are assimilated after a linear transformation of both the
233 retrievals and the observation operator. The transformation is heavier to implement than the
234 above approach because it involves the retrieval signal-to-noise matrix $\tilde{\mathbf{R}}^{-1/2}\tilde{\mathbf{H}}\tilde{\mathbf{B}}^{1/2}$. It avoids
235 the requirement of Eq. (8), but still requires consistent prior error statistics (Eq. (7)).

236 The situation complicates even further if we account for the facts that inversion systems
237 assimilate bias-corrected retrievals (thereby implicitly re-introducing $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}^b$ that had been neutralised
238 by the use of averaging kernels, in the equations), that $\tilde{\mathbf{H}}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{H}}$ are imperfect operators, the
239 uncertainty of which should be reported in $\tilde{\mathbf{R}}$, following Eq. (5), and that $\tilde{\mathbf{H}}$ is usually non-linear.
240 The need to report all observation operator uncertainties in $\tilde{\mathbf{R}}$ means that retrieval configuration
241 should in principle be tailored to the retrieval end-application, i.e. to the precision of the
242 observation operator that is used in this end-application. For flux inversion, the transport model

243 uncertainty in XCO₂ space is about 0.5 ppm (1 σ , Houweling et al. 2010). When optimizing
244 parameters of a flux model rather than for the flux themselves (in Carbon Cycle Data
245 Assimilation Systems, Rayner et al. 2005), the uncertainty of the flux model equations has also to
246 be reported in $\check{\mathbf{R}}$: when projected in the space of XCO₂, they are comparable to transport model
247 uncertainties (Kuppel et al. 2013).

248

249 **4. Practical aspects**

250

251 Given the particular concerns raised about the optimality of XCO₂ retrievals and of their
252 averaging kernels in the previous section, we now focus on one specific retrieval product, ACOS-
253 GOSAT, in order to look for some practical evidence of this sub-optimality.

254

255 **4.1. Mean differences**

256

257 Fig. 1 shows the mean bias-corrected retrievals XCO₂^{a,c} and the mean corresponding posterior
258 XCO₂ field of the MACC inversion over the June 2009 – May 2013 period per 3.75° × 1.9° grid
259 cell. All retrievals are used, provided they are found good by the ACOS standard quality control.
260 The data density (Fig. 2b) follows the frequency of favourable retrieval conditions: more sunlight
261 in the Tropics, less cloud over desert areas or over subsidence ocean regions. The long-term mean
262 of the retrieval-minus-model differences (Fig. 2a) is usually about 1 ppm. Interestingly, it appears
263 to be organized spatially. Over land, large positive values (> 0.5 ppm, ACOS-GOSAT being
264 larger) are seen over boreal forests, over most of South America, over grassland/cropland regions
265 in Central Africa and over the West coast of the USA. Negative values occur over most of the
266 other lands, with smaller values (up to ~ -1 ppm) mostly over South and East Asia. Over the

267 oceans, values are mostly positive north of 30°N and south of 10°S, and negative in between.
268 Both errors in ACOS-GOSAT and errors in the model simulations contribute to these differences,
269 which complicates the interpretation of Fig. 2a. For instance, the zonal structure of the
270 differences over the oceans could well be caused by the model, either because of too few surface
271 air-sample sites in the Tropics or because the LMDZ transport model would not represent the
272 inter-hemispheric exchange well enough (Patra et al. 2011). Alternatively, misrepresented clouds
273 around the convergence zones could also induce them in the retrievals. Some of the patterns of
274 Fig. 2a are similar to the surface cover, like the gradient between the Sahel and the African
275 savannahs, or the one between the equatorial Atlantic and the African savannahs, while we
276 expect the true XCO₂ fields to be first driven by large-scale horizontal advection (Keppel-Aleks
277 et al. 2011). The main local spatial gradients in the mean differences are also seen on monthly
278 means despite less data density (Fig. 3). They mostly reflect the retrieval gradients (Fig. 1a),
279 because the model XCO₂ simulation is spatially smoother (Fig. 1b), even though it uses the
280 retrieval averaging kernels (that change from scene to scene as a function, among other factors, of
281 surface conditions) and even though it is sampled like the retrievals (i.e. with a spatially
282 heterogeneous data density, also varying as a function, among other things, of surface conditions).

283 The jump of the long-term mean difference from the African savannahs to Sahel or equatorial
284 Atlantic (while there is no jump between subtropical Atlantic and Western Sahara for instance)
285 mostly corresponds to data from March (Fig. 3a), at the end of the savannah burning season (e.g.
286 van der Werf et al. 2010). The model shows elevated values (Fig. 1b), but much less than the
287 retrievals (Fig. 1a). If the model was underestimating the intensity of the fire, we would expect
288 the mean difference to take the shape of a plume, i.e. to spread downstream the source region, but
289 this is not the case. This suggests that the retrievals are affected by systematic errors over this
290 region.

291 The positive differences of Fig. 2a in Eurasia notably follow the boreal forests, while negative
292 values are found over the neighbouring regions of sparse tundra vegetation north of Siberia, or
293 those of grassland/cropland south of them. The same remark applies to North America. The link
294 with boreal forests is less obvious when looking at one isolated year because of the relatively
295 small number of retrievals in these regions (not shown). The misfit pattern in Siberia and in North
296 America contains many values larger than 1 ppm corresponding to relatively large retrieved
297 XCO₂ (Fig. 1a). These large values are all the more surprising that retrievals in these high
298 latitudes are obtained during the growing season and that boreal forests in Eurasia are identified
299 as large carbon sinks by bottom-up inventories (Pan et al. 2011, Dolman et al. 2012). By
300 comparison, we can look at agricultural regions, where the model could miss gradients during
301 crop growth, both because the MACC inversion prior fluxes do not explicitly represent
302 agricultural practices and because the location of the assimilated surface air-sample
303 measurements only provides rough information about crop fluxes: the differences are marginal (-
304 0.1 ppm on average, whether we compute the mean at the global scale or only for latitudes above
305 40°N) for retrievals located in crop regions, as identified by the high-resolution land cover map of
306 ESA's Land Cover Climate Change Initiative project (<http://www.esa-landcover-cci.org/>). In the
307 Corn Belt, the intensively agricultural region in the Midwest of the USA, differences are negative,
308 but they are much smaller in absolute value (the differences are larger than -0.4 ppm) than over
309 the boreal forests, and the Corn Belt boundaries do not sharply appear, in particular on its eastern
310 side. The Corn Belt does not particularly appear in monthly means either (e.g., Fig. 3b). These
311 elements suggest that the long-term mean differences over boreal forests come from a retrieval
312 artifact rather than from the MACC inversion product.

313 From a radiative transfer point of view, boreal forests are largely covered with needle-leaved
314 trees with low albedo in the strong CO₂ spectral band of GOSAT near 2.1 μm (Fig. 4): these low

315 values hamper the XCO₂ retrieval. O'Dell et al. (2012) already showed that large positive biases
316 can occur for needle-leaved evergreen forests, with the retrieval exchanging surface albedo for
317 very thin cloud or aerosol. Extreme cases are filtered out by the ACOS-GOSAT quality control,
318 but Fig. 2a suggests that the remaining retrievals over boreal forests, including the region in
319 Siberia East of 100°E which is dominated by deciduous needle-leaved trees with slightly larger
320 albedos, are still biased. In temperate regions, south of 50°N, the differences for needle-leaf cover
321 (mainly in Southeast USA and Southeast China) have the opposite sign, but they do not show up
322 distinctly in the difference map like the boreal forests. Tropical forests in South America and in
323 Africa also have low albedo and correspond to negative differences. They are more identifiable in
324 Fig. 2a, but could be explained by an insufficient carbon sink in the model as well as by a
325 retrieval artifact.

326

327 **4.2. Link to the retrieval increment**

328

329 We now look at the XCO₂ misfit statistics over land and for the high-gain mode as a function
330 of the size of the retrieval increment to its prior information ($XCO_2^a - XCO_2^b$) in Fig. 5. We look
331 at the misfits of the model to XCO_2^a , to $XCO_2^{a,c}$ and to XCO_2^b , in order to visualize the added
332 value brought by the retrieval process and by the bias correction, successively, on top of the prior
333 estimate. This prior estimate about atmospheric CO₂ has been provided to the retrieval scheme by
334 a data-driven empirical model (Wunch et al. 2011a). In Fig. 5, each bin along the abscissa
335 encompasses a large diversity of times during the four years and a large diversity of locations
336 over the globe, over which the model simulation should be overall more accurate (smaller root
337 mean square error) than XCO_2^b , XCO_2^a and even $XCO_2^{a,c}$ (Chevallier and O'Dell 2013). Further,
338 we expect the model error to be uncorrelated with the error of XCO_2^b , XCO_2^a and $XCO_2^{a,c}$ so that

339 a smaller standard deviation of the misfits (e.g., using XCO_2^a rather than XCO_2^b) can be
340 interpreted in terms of better precision of the corresponding retrieval quantity.

341 The mean difference significantly varies with the increment size: starting at 0.7 ppm for the
342 smallest increments it reaches about 2 ppm and -1 ppm, for XCO_2^b and XCO_2^a respectively. As
343 expected, the mean difference is systematically better with XCO_2^a than with XCO_2^b . The bias
344 correction ($XCO_2^{a,c}$) further reduces the mean difference to a small extent.

345 The standard deviation for XCO_2^b is 1.1 ppm for small increments and smoothly increases to 2
346 ppm for retrieval increments of size 6 ppm. This trend demonstrates some skill of the retrieval
347 algorithm to characterize the error of XCO_2^b from the GOSAT radiances and to generate a
348 sizeable increment accordingly. By comparison, the model variability for a given increment size
349 over the four years ranges between 3 and 4 ppm (1σ), the prior variability is about 3 ppm and the
350 retrieval variability ranges between 3 and 7 ppm. The standard deviation that uses XCO_2^a is 1.1
351 ppm for small increments. It smoothly increases to 4 ppm for retrieval increments of size 6 ppm:
352 it is systematically larger than the standard deviation that uses XCO_2^b (despite a smaller mean
353 difference). The standard deviation that uses $XCO_2^{a,c}$ is also 1.1 ppm for small increments and is
354 also systematically larger than the standard deviation that uses XCO_2^b , but it performs better than
355 XCO_2^a . The worse standard deviation of the misfit of XCO_2^a and $XCO_2^{a,c}$ to the model compared
356 to XCO_2^b cannot be explained by a common lack of variability in the model and in XCO_2^b (that
357 would correlate the model error with the that of XCO_2^b), because (i) at the large scale, thinning
358 the retrievals (for instance by keeping only one retrieval every nine model grid boxes for a given
359 day) only marginally changes the figure (not shown), and (ii) at the sub-grid scale, the variability
360 of XCO_2 is usually well below the ppm (Alkhaled et al. 2008, Corbin et al. 2008), i.e. one order
361 of magnitude smaller than the prior-to-retrieval degradation. Some, but not all, of the degradation
362 is purely random and disappears after enough averaging (see Fig. 6 of Kulawik et al. 2015).

363 The fact that the standard deviation smoothly increases with increment size suggests that the
364 increment size is systematically overestimated. Fig. 6 presents a simple test where we halve the
365 retrieval increments, without any bias correction: we call $XCO_2^{a,r} = XCO_2^b + (XCO_2^a - XCO_2^b)/2$
366 the result. The reduction is seen to cancel most of the dependency of the statistics of the
367 observation-minus-model misfits to the increment size: the standard deviation and the mean are
368 then stable around 1.1 ppm and -0.3 ppm, respectively for increments up to 4 ppm without any
369 bias correction. The standard deviation is systematically better than for XCO_2^b , which shows
370 added value brought by the radiance measurements, in contrast to the previous results. This result
371 also empirically confirms that the initial increments are in the right direction but are too large.

372 For the medium-gain retrievals (Fig. 7) and for the ocean glint retrievals (Fig. 8), the standard
373 deviation of the misfits using $XCO_2^{a,c}$ is not significantly larger than that using XCO_2^b .

374

375 **5. Discussion and conclusions**

376

377 Small uncertainties in aerosols, cirrus cloud or surface albedo are known to heavily affect the
378 quality of the XCO_2 satellite retrievals and to propagate into biases in the fluxes inverted from
379 them, even when the parasite signal in XCO_2 is sub-ppm. This weakness lead the science team of
380 NASA's OCO, a satellite that failed at launch in February 2009, to conclude that the space-based
381 NIR/SWIR measurements of XCO_2 could not be used alone for CO_2 source-sink inversions and
382 that they had to be combined with observations from a reasonable number of surface stations
383 (Miller et al. 2007). However, so much improvement has been obtained in these issues by various
384 institutes during the last few years, that it is sometimes thought that the space-borne XCO_2
385 retrievals have reached sufficient quality for source-sink inversion. The present paper discusses

386 where we stand in this respect both from general theoretical considerations and from one of the
387 most advanced GOSAT retrieval products.

388 From the theory, we have shown that a two-step approach to infer the surface fluxes from the
389 GOSAT measured radiances, with CO₂ retrievals as an intermediate product, cannot be optimal.
390 This suboptimality corrupts the 4D information flow from the radiance measurements to the
391 surface flux estimates. It is amplified by the current retrieval strategy where prior errors are much
392 larger (by an order of magnitude in terms of variances) than the performance of prior CO₂
393 simulations used in atmospheric inversions. Indeed, the use of averaging kernels makes
394 atmospheric inversion insensitive to the choice of a particular retrieval prior CO₂ profile (Connor
395 et al. 1994) if retrievals are assimilated without any bias correction, but it does not make the
396 retrieval prior error statistics disappear from the inverse modelling equations. The current
397 strategy likely generates retrieval averaging kernels that are inappropriate for atmospheric
398 inversions in their default configurations, with a wrong vertical distribution and an excessive
399 weight towards the measured radiances. Paradoxically, empirical bias correction of the retrievals
400 (e.g., Wunch et al., 2011b) also contributes to the degradation of the 4D information flow,
401 because it carries the imprint of the retrieval prior and of the retrieval prior error statistics. Direct
402 assimilation of the measured radiances would solve the inconsistency, but would increase the
403 computational burden of atmospheric inversions by several orders of magnitude. Alternatively,
404 we could adapt the inversion systems to the current retrieval configuration by using minimal prior
405 information about the surface fluxes, typically a flat prior flux field, but the result would still
406 over-fit the measured radiances due to the absence of other (compensating) information.

407 We have compared the ACOS-GOSAT retrievals with a transport model simulation
408 constrained by surface air-sample measurements in order to find some evidence of retrieval sub-
409 optimality. Flaws in this transport model and in these inverted surface fluxes necessarily flaw the

410 simulation in many places over the globe and at various times of the year. We therefore carefully
411 selected some of the relatively large discontinuities in the XCO₂ fields that the simulation
412 unlikely generated. We found some evidence of retrieval systematic errors over the dark surfaces
413 of the high-latitude lands and over African savannahs. We note that the mean differences over the
414 African savannahs during the burning season could be explained by retrieval averaging kernels
415 not peaking low enough in the atmosphere further to the assignment of inappropriate prior error
416 correlations. Biomass burning aerosols that would not be well identified by the retrieval scheme
417 could also play a role. We also found some evidence that the high-gain retrievals over land
418 systematically over-fit the measured radiances, as a consequence of the prior uncertainty
419 overestimation and of an underestimation of the observation uncertainty (as seen by the
420 underlying radiative transfer model). This over-fit is partially compensated by the bias correction.
421 An empirical test indicates that halving the retrieval increments without any posterior bias
422 correction actually cancels the dependency of the statistics of the observation-minus-model
423 misfits to the increment size and makes the standard deviation systematically better than for the
424 retrieval prior XCO₂^b, which shows added value brought by the radiance measurements, in
425 contrast to the previous results. We argue here that the optimal-estimation retrieval process and,
426 consequently, its posterior bias correction need retuning.

427 Given the diversity of existing satellite retrieval algorithms, our conclusions cannot be easily
428 extrapolated to other GOSAT retrieval products and even less to XCO₂ retrievals from other
429 instruments, but we note that such mistuning like the one highlighted here is common practice,
430 both because the errors of the retrieval forward model are difficult to characterize and because
431 satellite retrievals are usually explicitly designed to maximize the observation contribution, at the
432 risk of over-fitting radiance and forward model noise. A primary consequence of this mistuning is
433 the usual underestimation of retrieval errors: for instance, O'Dell et al. (2012) recommended

434 inflating this error by a twofold factor for ACOS-GOSAT b2.8. More importantly, our results
435 show that the mistuning generates excessive (unphysical) space-time variations of the retrievals
436 up to ~1%. This noise level would not matter for short-lived species, but for CO₂ it is enough to
437 significantly degrade the assimilation of the retrievals for flux inversion and may explain some of
438 the inconsistency seen between GOSAT-based top-down results and bottom-up results for CO₂
439 (Chevallier et al. 2014, Reuter et al. 2014). Therefore, with the current mistuning, we reiterate
440 previous recommendations to take GOSAT-based CO₂ inversion results particularly cautiously.
441 But we also suggest that this situation may dramatically improve by simply retuning the retrieval
442 schemes. Ultimately, internal statistical consistency of the retrievals and of the inversion schemes
443 is needed to establish the credibility of their end product.

444

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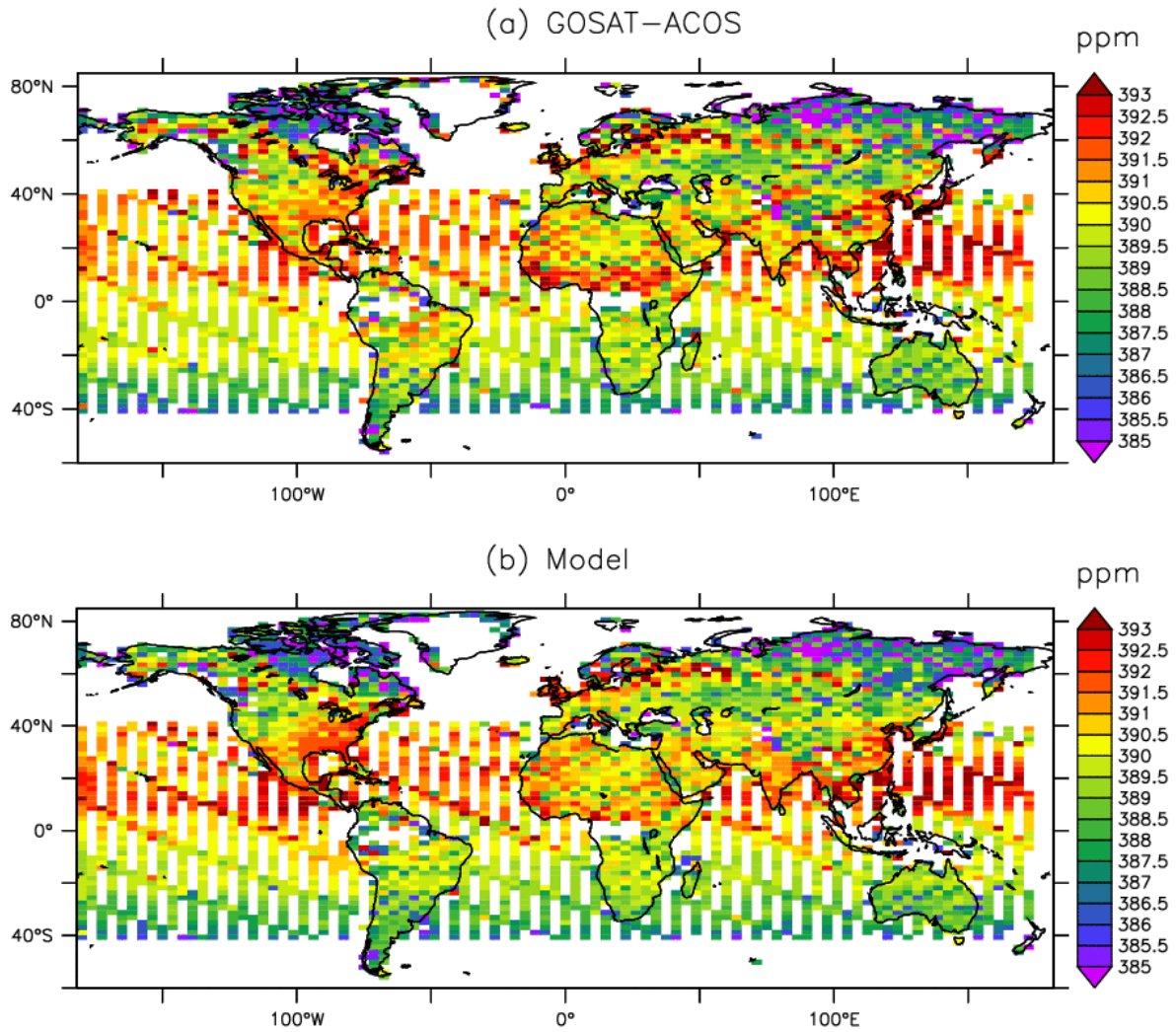
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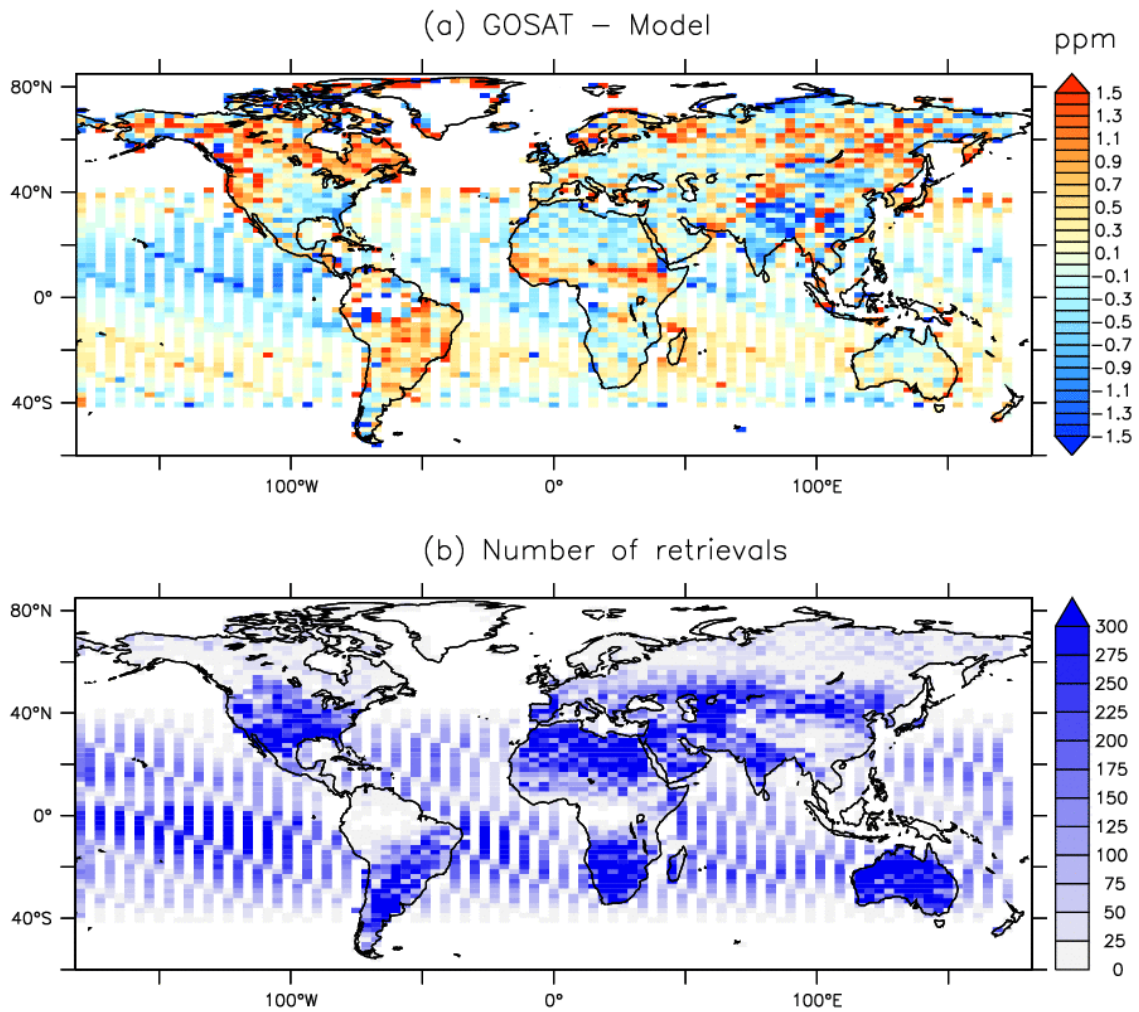
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660 **Fig. 1. (a) Mean ACOS-GOSAT bias-corrected retrievals in the model grid over 4 years**
 661 **(June 2009-May 2013). (b) Corresponding mean CO₂ 4D field associated to the MACC CO₂**
 662 **inversion (computed using the averaging kernels and the prior profiles of the retrievals).**

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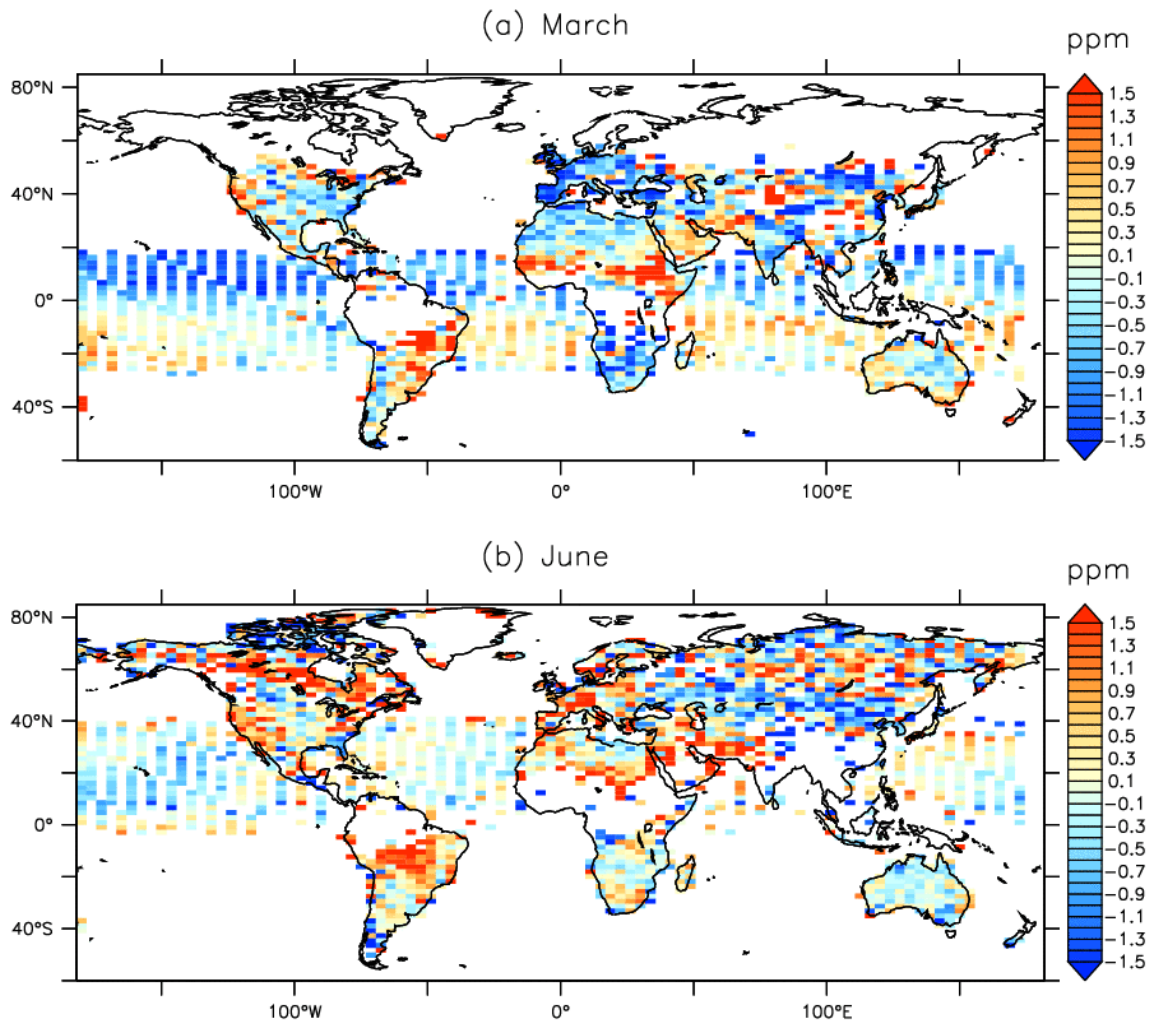
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666 **Fig. 2. (a) Mean difference between the maps of Fig. 1 (retrievals minus model). (b)**

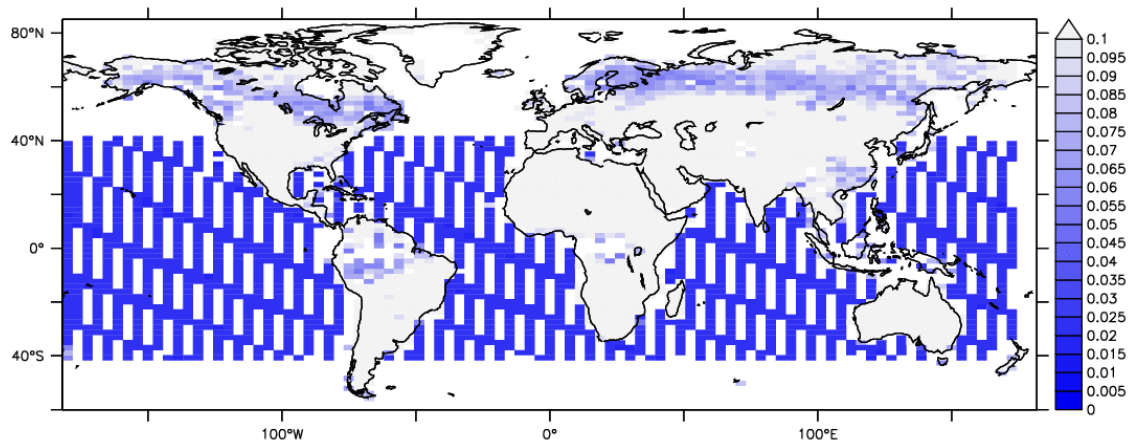
667 **Corresponding number of retrievals.**

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669
670 **Fig. 3. Same as Fig. 2(a) (retrievals minus model), but focussing on the months of March**
671 **and June.**
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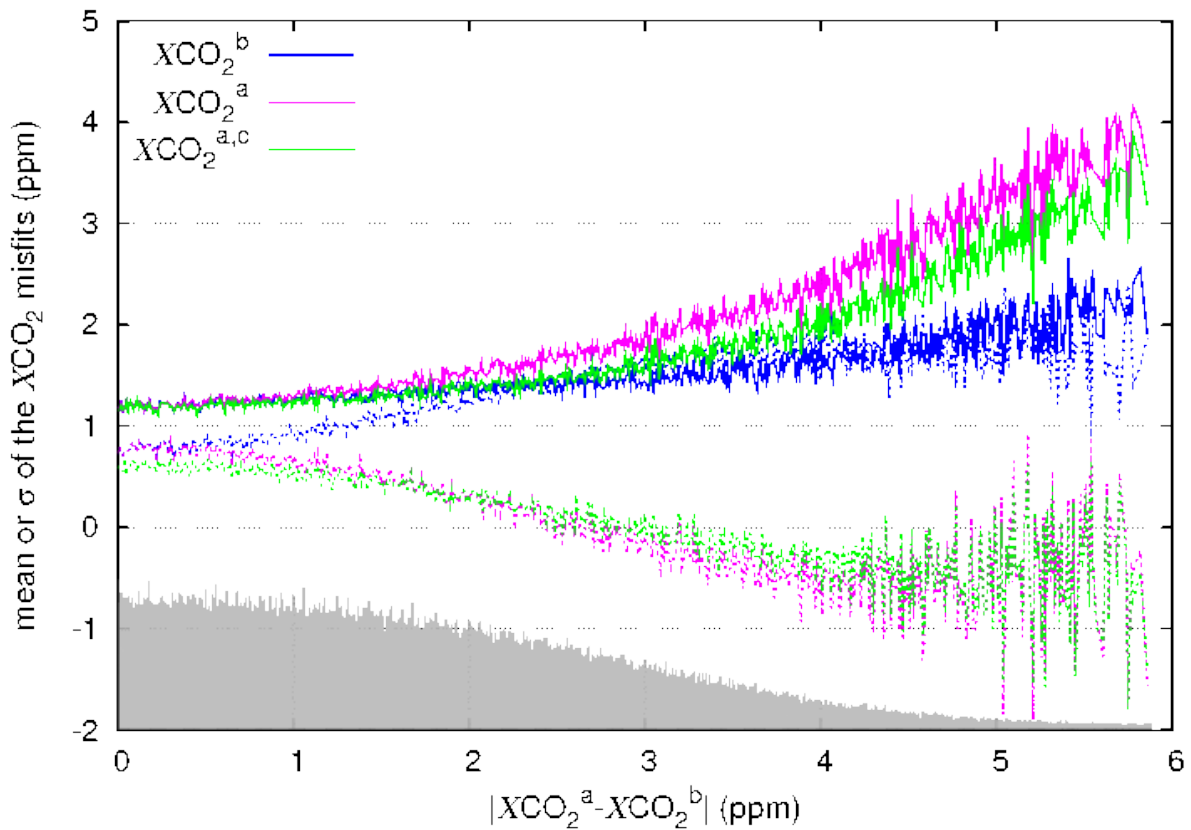
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675 **Fig. 4. Mean surface albedo retrieved in the strong CO₂ band by ACOS-GOSAT in the**
676 **model grid over 4 years (June 2009-May 2013). The blue scale focuses on the values less**
677 **than 0.1.**

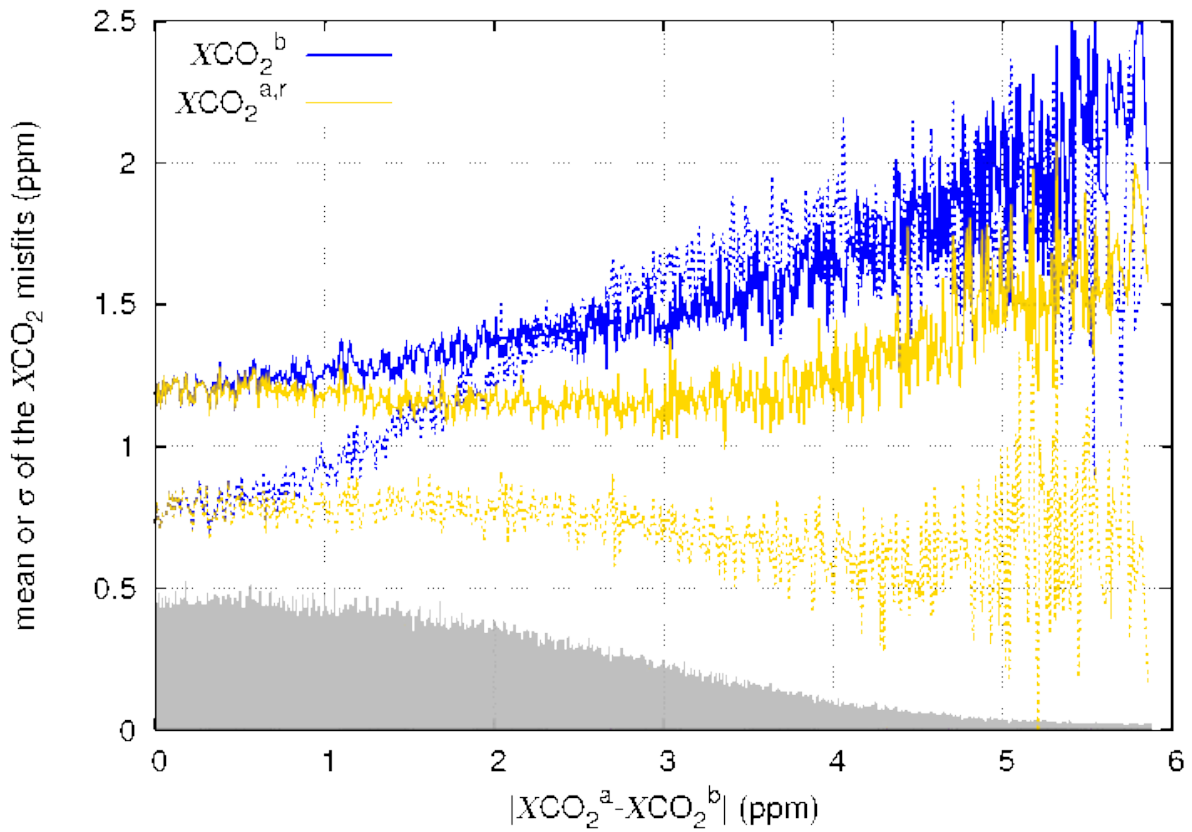
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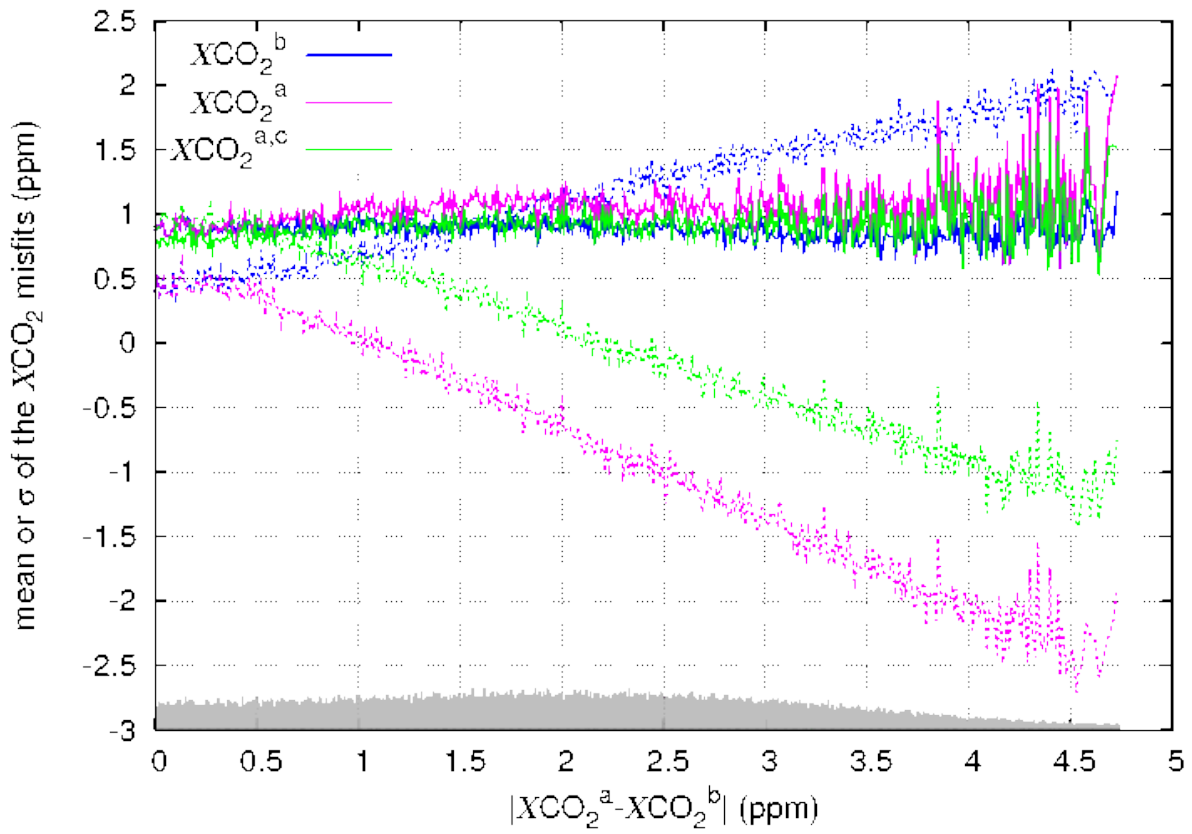
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681 **Fig. 5. Mean and standard deviation of the retrieval-minus-model misfits between June**
 682 **2009 and May 2013 for the high-gain mode retrievals over land as a function of the retrieval**
 683 **increment size. The statistics are also shown for the prior-minus-model misfit. The model**
 684 **values are raw pressure-weighted columns and do not account for the averaging kernels in**
 685 **order not to correlate the two axes (in practice, using the averaging kernels actually does**
 686 **not significantly affect the standard deviations shown). The grey shade shows the**
 687 **distribution of the retrieval density (axis not shown).**

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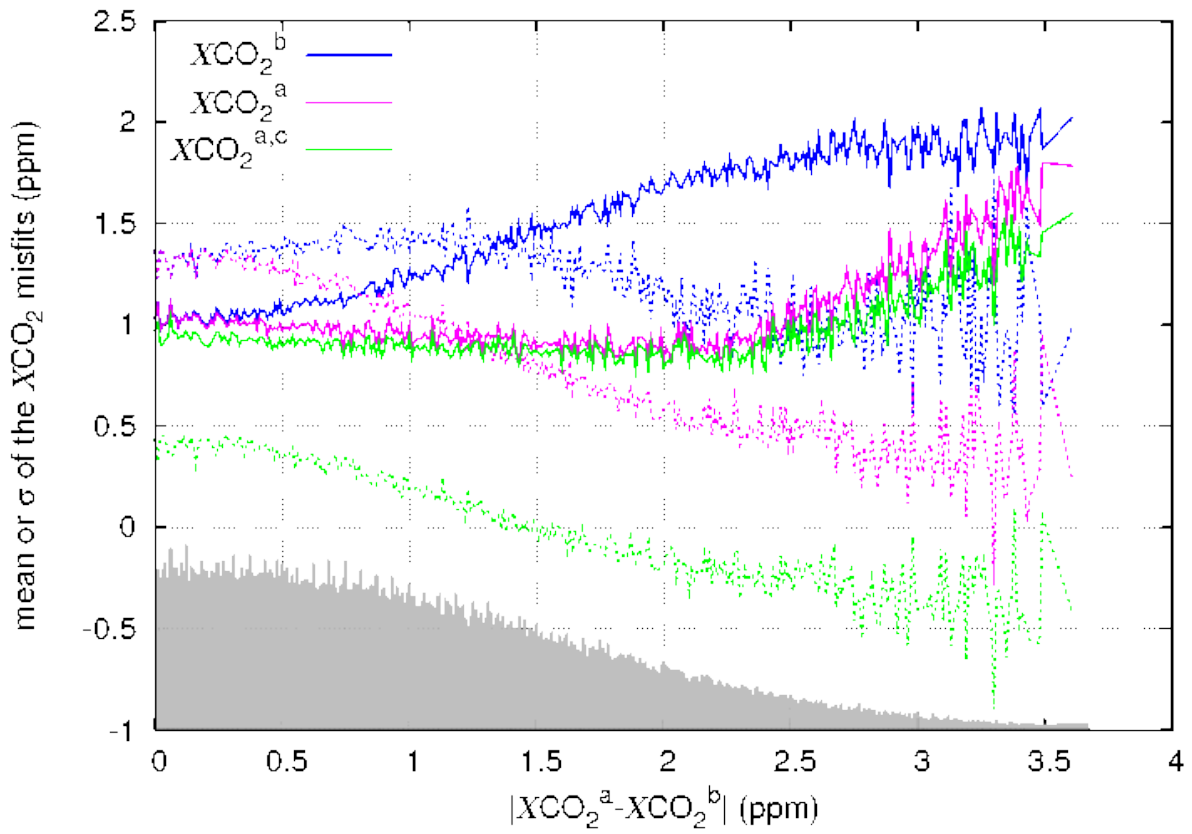


689
 690 **Fig. 6. Same as Fig. 5 (high-gain mode over the lands) but we reduce the retrieval increment**
 691 **size by 50% without any bias correction (we call $XCO_2^{a,r}$ the result). The abscissa shows the**
 692 **unperturbed increment.**
 693
 694



695

696 **Fig. 7. Same as Fig. 5 for the medium-gain mode.**



697

698 **Fig. 8. Same as Fig. 5 for the glint mode over the ocean.**

699