

1 **Impact of Siberian observations on the optimization of**
2 **surface CO₂ flux**

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21

22 **Abstract**

23 To investigate the effect of additional CO₂ observations in the Siberia region on the Asian and
24 global surface CO₂ flux analyses, two experiments using different observation datasets were
25 performed for 2000-2009. One experiment was conducted using a data set that includes
26 additional observations of Siberian tower measurements (Japan-Russia Siberian Tall Tower
27 Inland Observation Network: JR-STATION), and the other experiment was conducted using a
28 data set without the above additional observations. The results show that the global balance of

1 the sources and sinks of surface CO₂ fluxes was maintained for both experiments with and
2 without the additional observations. While the magnitude of the optimized surface CO₂ flux
3 uptake and flux uncertainty in Siberia decreased from -1.17 ± 0.93 Pg C yr⁻¹ to -0.77 ± 0.70 Pg
4 C yr⁻¹, the magnitude of the optimized surface CO₂ flux uptake in the other regions (e.g.,
5 Europe) of the Northern Hemisphere (NH) land increased for the experiment with the
6 additional observations, which affect the longitudinal distribution of the total NH sinks. This
7 change was mostly caused by changes in the magnitudes of surface CO₂ flux in June and July.
8 The observation impact measured by uncertainty reduction and self-sensitivity tests shows
9 that additional observations provide useful information on the estimated surface CO₂ flux.
10 The average uncertainty reduction of the Conifer Forest of EB is 29.1% and the average self-
11 sensitivities at the JR-STATION sites are approximately 60% larger than those at the towers
12 in North America. It is expected that the Siberian observations play an important role in
13 estimating surface CO₂ flux in the NH land (e.g., Siberia and Europe) in the future.

14

15 **1 Introduction**

16 The terrestrial ecosystem in the Northern Hemisphere (NH) plays an important role in the
17 global carbon balance (Hayes et al., 2011; Le Quéré et al., 2015). Especially, Siberia is
18 considered to be the one of the largest CO₂ uptake regions and reservoirs due to its forest area
19 (Schulze et al., 1999; Houghton et al., 2007; Tarnocai et al., 2009; Kurganova et al., 2010;
20 Schepaschenko et al., 2011) and its dynamics and interactions with the climate have global
21 significance (Quegan et al., 2011). Therefore, it is important to accurately estimate the surface
22 CO₂ fluxes in this region. For instance, Dolman et al. (2012) estimated terrestrial carbon
23 budget of Russia, Ukraine, Belarus, and Kazakhstan using inventory-based, eddy covariance,
24 and inversion methods and showed that the carbon budgets produced by three methods agree
25 within their uncertainty bounds.

26 To estimate the surface CO₂ flux, atmospheric CO₂ inversion studies are conducted using
27 atmospheric transport models and atmospheric CO₂ observations (Gurney et al., 2002; Peylin
28 et al., 2013). However, prior emission, measurement error of observation, observation
29 operator including model transport, and representative error affect the uncertainty of
30 atmospheric inversion results (Engelen et al., 2002; Berchet et al., 2015a). Along these factors,
31 large uncertainties remain in the estimated surface CO₂ fluxes due to the sparseness of current

1 surface CO₂ measurements assimilated by inverse models (Peters et al., 2010; Bruhwiler et al.,
2 2011). Peylin et al. (2013) performed an intercomparison study of estimated surface CO₂
3 fluxes from 11 different inversion systems. The results showed that the estimated surface CO₂
4 flux uptake in the NH, where the atmospheric CO₂ network is dense, is similar across the
5 inversion systems; meanwhile, the established flux is noticeably different across the inversion
6 systems for the tropics and the Southern Hemisphere (SH), where the atmospheric CO₂
7 network is sparse.

8 Regionally, however, the longitudinal breakdown of all the NH sinks appears to be much
9 more variable than the total flux itself. Therefore, additional observations in a sparse CO₂
10 observation network region are necessary to reduce uncertainty in estimating the surface CO₂
11 flux. Maksyutov et al. (2003) showed that additional observations in the Asia region show the
12 largest effect and reduce the uncertainty in the estimated regional CO₂ fluxes for Siberia
13 during 1992-1996 by time-independent synthesis inversion. Chevallier et al. (2010) also
14 argued that an extension of the observation network toward Eastern Europe and Siberia is
15 necessary to reduce uncertainty in estimated fluxes by inversion methods. Despite the
16 necessity of additional observations in this region, only a few atmospheric CO₂ inversion
17 studies have been conducted using observations in this region due to the deficiency of
18 observations (Quegan et al., 2011).

19 Meanwhile, Reuter et al. (2014) and Feng et al. (2016) reported that the European terrestrial
20 CO₂ uptake inferred by the satellite-retrieved dry-air column-average mole fraction of CO₂
21 (XCO₂) is larger than that inferred by a bottom-up inventory approach or inverse modeling
22 systems using surface-based CO₂ atmospheric concentrations. Though a broad spatial
23 coverage of XCO₂ from satellite radiance observations provides useful information for
24 inversion systems in quantifying surface CO₂ fluxes at various scales which is not provided
25 by ground-based measurements, the current XCO₂ has low accuracy and regional biases of a
26 few tenths of a ppm (parts per million), which may hamper the accuracy of estimated surface
27 CO₂ fluxes (Miller et al., 2007; Chevallier et al., 2007). Therefore, in situ observations
28 determined by surface measurements are necessary to more accurately estimate the surface
29 CO₂ flux in the inverse models.

30 To supply additional observations over Siberia to inverse modeling studies, several efforts to
31 observe the atmospheric CO₂ concentrations in Siberia have been conducted. For example, the
32 Max Planck Institute (MPI) operates a tower (since April 2009), preceded by aircraft

1 measurements (from 1998 to 2005 with 12 to 21 day intervals) at Zotino (ZOTTO; 60.75°N,
2 89.38°E) (Lloyd et al., 2002; Winderlich et al. 2010). In addition, the Airborne Extensive
3 Regional Observations in Siberia (YAK-AEROSIB) aircraft campaign in 2006 (Paris et al.,
4 2008) and Trans-Siberian Observation Into the Chemistry of the Atmosphere (TROICA)
5 project (Turnbull et al., 2009) have measured CO₂ and other chemical species. However,
6 except Zotino that has multi-year measurements, these data collected during specific seasons
7 or over only a few years do not provide the long-term CO₂ concentration data necessary to be
8 used as a constraint in the inverse modeling system.

9 The Center for Global Environmental Research (CGER) of the National Institute for
10 Environmental Studies (NIES) of Japan with the cooperation of the Russian Academy of
11 Science (RAS) constructed a tower network called the Japan-Russia Siberian Tall Tower
12 Inland Observation Network (JR-STATION) in 2002 to measure the continuous CO₂ and CH₄
13 concentrations (eight towers in central Siberia and one tower in eastern Siberia) (Sasakawa et
14 al., 2010, 2013). The vertical profile of CO₂ concentrations from the planetary boundary layer
15 (PBL) to the lower free troposphere is also measured by aircraft at one site of the JR-
16 STATION sites (Sasakawa et al., 2010, 2013). Saeki et al. (2013) estimated the monthly
17 surface CO₂ flux for 68 subcontinental regions by using the fixed-lag Kalman smoother and
18 NIES-TM transport model with JR-STATION data. They reported that the inclusion of
19 additional Siberian observation data has an impact on the inversion results showing larger
20 interannual variability over northeastern Europe as well as Siberia, and reduces the
21 uncertainty of surface CO₂ uptake. Meanwhile, Berchet et al. (2015b) estimated regional CH₄
22 fluxes over Siberia in 2010 by using JR-STATION data.

23 CarbonTracker, developed by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration Earth
24 System Research Laboratory (NOAA ESRL) (Peters et al., 2007), is an atmospheric CO₂
25 inverse modeling system that estimates optimized weekly surface CO₂ flux on a 1°×1°
26 horizontal resolution by using the Ensemble Kalman Filter (EnKF) (Evensen 1994). Since the
27 original CarbonTracker release (Peters et al 2007), a series of improvements have been made
28 with subsequent releases. These include increasing the number of sites from which CO₂ data
29 are assimilated, increasing the resolution of atmospheric transport, improving the simulation
30 of atmospheric convection in TM5 (Krol et al., 2005) which is the transport model used in
31 CarbonTracker, and the use of multiple first-guess flux models to estimate sensitivity to priors.
32 These improvements are documented at <http://carbontracker.noaa.gov>. Several studies have

1 focused on Asia using CarbonTracker (Kim et al., 2012, 2014a, b; Zhang et al., 2014a, b).
2 Schneising et al. (2011) showed that SCanning Imaging Absorption spectroMeter for
3 Atmospheric CHartography (SCIAMACHY) retrieval data indicate a stronger North
4 American boreal forest uptake and weaker Russian boreal forest uptake compared to
5 CarbonTracker within their uncertainties. On the other hand, Zhang et al. (2014b) estimated
6 surface CO₂ fluxes in Asia by assimilating CONTRAIL (Machida et al., 2008) aircraft CO₂
7 measurements into the CarbonTracker framework. The CONTRAIL measurements include
8 ascending/descending vertical profiles and cruise data below tropopause. The results show
9 that surface CO₂ uptake over the Eurasian Boreal (EB) region slightly increases from -0.96 Pg
10 C yr⁻¹ to -1.02 Pg C yr⁻¹ for the period 2006-2010 when aircraft CO₂ measurements were
11 assimilated. However, the surface measurements data over the EB region are still not used in
12 the study by Zhang et al. (2014b). Using an influence matrix calculation, Kim et al. (2014b)
13 showed that comprehensive coverage of additional observations in an observation sparse
14 region, e.g., Siberia, is necessary to estimate the surface CO₂ flux in these areas as accurately
15 as that obtained for North America in the CarbonTracker framework.

16 In this study, the impact of additional Siberian observations on the optimized surface CO₂
17 flux over the globe and Asian region within CarbonTracker (The version of CarbonTracker
18 used in this study is based on the CarbonTracker 2010 release.) is investigated by comparing
19 the results of estimated surface CO₂ fluxes from two experiments with and without Siberian
20 observations. Section 2 presents the methodology including a priori flux data, atmospheric
21 CO₂ observations, and experimental framework. Section 3 presents the results, and Section 4
22 provides a summary and conclusions.

23

24 **2 Methodology**

25 **2.1 Inversion method**

26 CarbonTracker is an inverse modeling system developed by Peters et al. (2007). Optimized
27 surface CO₂ fluxes with a 1°×1° horizontal resolution are calculated as follows:

$$28 \quad F(x, y, t) = \lambda_r \cdot F_{bio}(x, y, t) + \lambda_r \cdot F_{ocn}(x, y, t) + F_{ff}(x, y, t) + F_{fire}(x, y, t), \quad (1)$$

29 where $F_{bio}(x, y, t)$, $F_{ocn}(x, y, t)$, $F_{ff}(x, y, t)$, and $F_{fire}(x, y, t)$ are a priori emissions from the
30 biosphere, the ocean, fossil fuel, and fires. λ_r is the scaling factor to be optimized in the data

1 assimilation process, corresponding to 156 regions around the globe (126 land and 30 ocean
2 regions). In the land, the ecoregions are defined as the combination of 11 land region of
3 Transcom regions (Gurney et al., 2002) with 19 land-surface characterization based on Olson
4 et al. (1992). Inappropriate combinations of TransCom regions and Olson types are excluded.
5 In the ocean, 30 ocean regions are defined following Jacobson et al. (2007). The scaling factor
6 spans 5 weeks with 1 week resolution. Several previous studies for CarbonTracker (e.g.,
7 Peters et al., 2007; 2010, Kim et al., 2012, 2014a, b; Zhang et al., 2014a, b; van der Laan-
8 Luijkx et al., 2015) showed that 5 weeks of lag and 1-week time resolution are appropriate for
9 optimizing the surface CO₂ fluxes. In each assimilation cycle (i.e., analysis step), the entire
10 scaling factor for 5 weeks is updated by 1 week observations measured in the most recent
11 week by a time stepping approach. The smoother window moves forward by 1 week at each
12 assimilation cycle. After 5 assimilation cycles, the first part of the scaling factor analyzed by
13 5 weeks observations is regarded as the optimized scaling factor. More detailed information
14 of the assimilation process can be found in Kim et al. (2014b).

15 The ensemble Kalman filter (EnKF) data assimilation method used in CarbonTracker is the
16 ensemble square root filter (EnSRF) suggested by Whitaker and Hamill (2002). The analysis
17 equation for data assimilation is expressed as

$$18 \quad \mathbf{x}^a = \mathbf{K}\mathbf{y}^o + (\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{K}\mathbf{H})\mathbf{x}^b, \quad (2)$$

19 where \mathbf{x}^a is the n-dimensional analysis (posterior) state vector ; \mathbf{y}^o is the p-dimensional
20 observation vector (atmospheric CO₂ observations); \mathbf{K} is the $n \times p$ dimensional Kalman gain;
21 \mathbf{I}_n is the identity matrix; \mathbf{H} is the linearized observation operator, which transforms the
22 information in the model space to the information in the observation space; and \mathbf{x}^b is the
23 background state vector. In CarbonTracker, the state vector corresponds to the scaling factor.
24 The Kalman gain \mathbf{K} is defined as

$$25 \quad \mathbf{K} = (\mathbf{P}^b \mathbf{H}^T) (\mathbf{H} \mathbf{P}^b \mathbf{H}^T + \mathbf{R})^{-1}, \quad (3)$$

26 where \mathbf{P}^b is the background error covariance; \mathbf{R} is the observation error covariance or model
27 data mismatch, which is predefined at each observation site. $\mathbf{P}^b \mathbf{H}^T$ and $\mathbf{H} \mathbf{P}^b \mathbf{H}^T$ in Eq. (3) can
28 be calculated as

$$29 \quad \mathbf{P}^b \mathbf{H}^T \approx \frac{1}{m-1} (\mathbf{x}'_1, \mathbf{x}'_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}'_m) \cdot (\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}'_1, \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}'_2, \dots, \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}'_m)^T, \quad (4)$$

$$\mathbf{HPH}^T \approx \frac{1}{m-1} (\mathbf{HX}'_1, \mathbf{HX}'_2, \dots, \mathbf{HX}'_m) \cdot (\mathbf{HX}'_1, \mathbf{HX}'_2, \dots, \mathbf{HX}'_m)^T, \quad (5)$$

where m is the number of ensembles and $'$ denotes the perturbation of ensemble mean.

The sampling error caused by the limited ensemble size may degrade the analysis accuracy. To reduce the impact of sampling error in the EnKF, the covariance localization method is used (Houtekamer and Mitchell, 2001). The localization is not applied to Marine Boundary Layer (MBL) sites, e.g., observation sites in Antarctica, because the MBL sites are considered as including information on large footprints of flux signals (Peters et al., 2007). The physical distance between the scaling factors cannot be defined. Therefore, localization is performed based on the linear correlation coefficient between the ensemble of the scaling factor and the ensemble of the model CO₂ concentration (Peters et al., 2007). A statistical significance test is performed on the linear correlation coefficient with a cut-off at a 95% significance in a student's T-test. Then the components of Kalman gain with an insignificant statistical value are set to zero.

After one analysis step is completed, the new mean scaling factor that serves as the background scaling factor for next analysis cycle is predicted as

$$\lambda_t^b = \frac{(\lambda_{t-2}^a + \lambda_{t-1}^a + 1)}{3}, \quad (6)$$

where λ_t^b is a prior mean scaling factor of the current analysis cycle, λ_{t-2}^a and λ_{t-1}^a are posterior mean scaling factors of previous cycles. Eq. (6) propagates information from one step to the next step (Peters et al., 2007).

The detailed algorithm of inversion method used in this study can be found in Peters et al. (2007) and Kim et al. (2014a).

2.2 A priori flux data

Four types of a priori and imposed CO₂ fluxes used in this study are as follows: (1) First guess biosphere flux from the Carnegie–Ames–Stanford Approach Global Fire Emissions Database (CASA GFED) version 3.1 (van der Werf et al., 2010). The 3 hour interval Net Ecosystem Exchange (NEE) is calculated from monthly mean Net Primary Production (NPP) and

1 ecosystem respiration (RE) by using a simple temperature Q_{10}^1 relationship and a linear
2 scaling of photosynthesis with solar radiation (Olsen and Randerson, 2004); (2) the prior
3 ocean flux from air-sea partial pressure differences based on Jacobson et al. (2007). Short-
4 term flux variability is derived from the atmospheric model wind speeds via the gas transfer
5 coefficient; (3) biomass burning emissions obtained from GFED v3.1 (van der Werf et al.,
6 2010); (4) the prescribed fossil fuel emission from the Carbon Dioxide Information and
7 Analysis Center (CDIAC, Boden et al., 2010) and the Emission Database for Global
8 Atmospheric Research (EDGAR, European Commission, 2009) databases. The annual global
9 total fossil fuel emissions are based on CDIAC. Fluxes at $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ resolution are spatially
10 distributed according to the EDGAR inventories.

11 **2.3 Atmospheric CO₂ observations**

12 Atmospheric CO₂ mole fraction observations measured at surface observation sites are used in
13 this study. Figure 1 shows the observation network and Table 1 presents observation site
14 information for the Asian and European regions. Three sets of atmospheric CO₂ observations
15 data are assimilated: (1) surface CO₂ observations distributed by the NOAA ESRL
16 (observation sites operated by NOAA, Environment Canada (EC), the Australian
17 Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organization (CSIRO), the National
18 Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR), and Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory
19 (LBNL)) (observation data is available at [http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/obspack/
20 data.php](http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/obspack/data.php); Masarie et al., 2014); (2) World Data Centre for Greenhouse Gases (WDCGG,
21 <http://ds.data.jma.go.jp/wdcgg/>); (3) JR-STATION observation data over Siberia operated by
22 CGER/NIES (Sasakawa et al., 2010, 2013). The JR-STATION sites consist of nine towers
23 (eight towers in west Siberia and one tower in east Siberia). Atmospheric air was sampled at
24 four levels on the BRZ tower and at two levels on the other eight towers. At the BRZ
25 (Berezorechka) site in west Siberia, both tower and aircraft measurements are sampled. The
26 light aircraft at BRZ site measures the vertical profiles of CO₂ from the PBL to the lower free
27 troposphere and these vertical profiles are used as independent observations for verification.

¹ It is calculated as $Q_{10}(t) = 1.5^{((T_{2m} - T_0)/10.0)}$, where t is time, T_{2m} is temperature (K) at 2 m, and T_0 is 273.15 K.

1 Sampled CO₂ data were calibrated against the NIES 09 CO₂ scale which is lower than the
2 WMO-X2007 CO₂ scale by 0.07 ppm at around 360 ppm and consistent in the range between
3 380 and 400 ppm (Machida et al., 2011). Detailed description of JR-STATION sites can be
4 found in Sasakawa et al. (2010, 2013). Daytime averaged CO₂ concentrations (1200-1600
5 LST, representing the time when active vertical mixing occurred in the PBL) for each day
6 from the time series at the highest level of tower measurements are used in the data
7 assimilation.

8 In CarbonTracker, model data mismatch (MDM, \mathbf{R} in Eq. (7)) is assigned by site categories.
9 The location of each observation site is represented in Fig. 1. The assigned MDM requires
10 innovation χ^2 statistics in Eq. (7) become close to one at each observation site (Peters et al.
11 2007).

$$12 \quad \chi^2 = \frac{(\mathbf{y}^o - \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}^b)^2}{\mathbf{H}\mathbf{P}^b\mathbf{H}^T + \mathbf{R}}, \quad (7)$$

13 where $\mathbf{y}^o - \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}^b$ represent the innovation. The site categories and MDM values are assigned the
14 same value as in previous studies (Peters et al., 2007; Kim et al. 2014b; Zhang et al., 2014b):
15 marine boundary layer (0.75 ppm), continental sites (2.5 ppm), mixed land/ocean and
16 mountain sites (1.5 ppm), continuous sites (3.0 ppm), and difficult sites (7.5 ppm) that are
17 located near polluted areas with high anthropogenic CO₂ emissions. Continuous site category
18 is generally used for observations measured continuously. For the JR-STATION sites that
19 have continuous tower measurements, the MDM is set to 3 ppm, which is the same as tower
20 measurements in North America.

21 **2.4 Experimental framework**

22 Two experiments with different set of observations are conducted in this study: one
23 experiment, the CNTL experiment, is conducted by using set of observations without
24 observations in the Siberia region (black color observation sites represented in Fig. 1); the
25 other experiment, the JR experiment, is conducted using all available observations including
26 the Siberia data (all observation sites represented in Fig. 1). The TM5 model runs at global
27 3°×2° horizontal resolution and a nesting domain centered in Asia with 1°×1° horizontal
28 resolution. The nesting domain is shown in Fig. 1. Meteorological variables for running the
29 TM5 transport model are from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts
30 (ECMWF) forecast model output. The experimental period is from 1 January 2000 to 31

1 December 2009. The observation data commonly used for the CNTL and JR experiments
2 exist from 2000, but the additional Siberia data for the JR experiment exist from 2002. The
3 number of ensembles is 150, and the scaling factor includes 5 weeks of lag, as in previous
4 studies (Peters et al., 2007, 2010; Peylin et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2012, 2014a b; Zhang et al.,
5 2014a, b).

6

7 **3 Results**

8 **3.1 Characteristics of carbon fluxes**

9 In this section, optimized surface CO₂ fluxes inferred from the two experiments are examined.
10 The optimized surface CO₂ flux in 2000 and 2001 is excluded from this analysis because
11 2000 is considered a spin-up year similar to previous studies using CarbonTracker, and JR-
12 STATION data are used since 2002. Only the biosphere and ocean fluxes are presented here
13 because fires (biomass burning) and fossil fuel emissions are not optimized in CarbonTracker.

14 Figure 2 presents the spatial distribution of the averaged prior and optimized biosphere and
15 ocean fluxes of the two experiments and the difference between the CNTL and JR
16 experiments from 2002 to 2009. The optimized biosphere flux uptakes of the CNTL and JR
17 experiments are globally 1.60 ~ 1.61 Pg C yr⁻¹ greater than the prior flux uptakes (Figs. 2a, c,
18 d, Table 2). The difference in fluxes between the prior and JR experiment is large in EB (Figs.
19 2a, d) although smaller than that between the prior and CNTL experiment (Figs. 2a, c). The
20 differences in fluxes between the CNTL and JR experiments are large in EB (Siberia) where
21 the new additional observations are assimilated (Fig. 2b). The magnitude of surface CO₂
22 uptakes decreases in that region by assimilating JR-STATION observation data. On the
23 contrary, the average surface CO₂ uptakes in other regions, such as North America, Europe,
24 the western North Pacific Ocean, and the Atlantic Ocean, increase by assimilating JR-
25 STATION observation data.

26 The difference in the optimized CO₂ flux between the two experiments is analyzed. Table 2
27 presents prior and optimized fluxes with their uncertainties for global total, global land, global
28 ocean, NH total, Tropics total, Southern Hemisphere total, and TransCom regions in the NH.
29 Flux uncertainties are calculated from the ensembles of prior and optimized surface fluxes
30 assuming Gaussian errors, following previous method used in Peters et al. (2007, 2010). The
31 global total biogenic and oceanic optimized CO₂ fluxes are similar for the CNTL experiment

1 (-5.54±1.85 Pg C yr⁻¹) and JR experiment (-5.55±1.72 Pg C yr⁻¹), compared with the global
2 prior flux of -3.94±2.24 Pg C yr⁻¹. The global land sink in the CNTL experiment is larger by
3 0.07 Pg C yr⁻¹ than that of the JR experiment, and the global ocean sink in the CNTL
4 experiment is smaller by 0.08 Pg C yr⁻¹ than that of the JR experiment. The additional
5 observations do not introduce any discrepancy between the two experiments with respect to
6 the global total sink, and they indicate only a small difference in the land-ocean CO₂ flux
7 partitioning. The estimated CO₂ flux uncertainty in the land region from the JR experiment is
8 smaller than that of the CNTL experiment because new observations provide additional
9 constraints on the optimized CO₂ flux. For specific regions in the NH, a large difference of
10 optimized surface CO₂ flux between the CNTL and JR experiments is observed in the EB.
11 The largest increment between a priori and CNTL is shown in EB where the least in situ
12 observations are available as shown in Fig. 1. The other regions where more local
13 observations are available show smaller increments. The surface CO₂ uptake in the EB of the
14 CNTL experiment is -1.17±0.93 Pg C yr⁻¹ and that of the JR experiment is -0.77±0.70 Pg C
15 yr⁻¹, respectively. As expected, the uncertainty of the optimized surface CO₂ uptake in the EB
16 in the JR experiment is reduced by assimilating additional observations. In contrast, the
17 surface CO₂ uptake increases in other regions of the NH where no additional observations are
18 assimilated.

19 Figure 3 presents the spatial distribution of the optimized biosphere fluxes difference between
20 the CNTL and JR experiments from 2002 to 2009. The difference of optimized surface CO₂
21 flux is calculated as in Fig. 2b. The largest difference of optimized surface CO₂ fluxes
22 between the two experiments occurs in the Conifer Forest ecoregion of Siberia. Compared to
23 the CNTL experiment, the uptake of optimized surface CO₂ flux in Siberia is reduced in JR
24 for all years except 2003. In 2003, extreme drought condition occurred in the whole northern
25 mid-latitudes (Knorr et al., 2007) and Europe (Ciais et al., 2005), which resulted in increased
26 NEE, i.e., reduced uptake of CO₂, in EB in the CNTL experiment. The uptake of optimized
27 surface CO₂ fluxes in Siberia in 2003 is reduced in the CNTL experiment due to the remote
28 effect of drought in Europe. Compared to the CNTL experiment, the uptake of optimized
29 surface CO₂ fluxes in Siberia in 2003 is not reduced that much in the JR experiment due to the
30 assimilation of the JR-STATION data in Siberia. Despite the number of JR-STATION data
31 used in the optimization in 2003 being relatively smaller than that in the later experiment
32 period, new observations in the JR experiment provide information on the uptake of
33 optimized surface CO₂ fluxes in 2003 in Siberia (Fig. 3b).

1 Optimized surface CO₂ fluxes averaged from 2002 to 2009 for each ecoregion in the NH are
2 shown in Table 3. In Siberia (EB), optimized surface CO₂ uptake from the JR experiment is
3 smaller (larger) than that of the CNTL experiment in the Conifer Forest and Northern Taiga
4 (in other ecoregions). In the Eurasian Temperate (ET), Europe, North American Boreal
5 (NAB), and North American Temperate (NAT) regions, the optimized surface CO₂ uptakes
6 from the JR experiment are larger than those of the CNTL experiment in most ecoregions.

7 Figure 4 shows the time series of annual and average prior and optimized surface CO₂ fluxes
8 over global total, global land, and global ocean. For global total, the magnitude of optimized
9 fluxes is much greater than that of prior fluxes due to the greater uptake of optimized fluxes
10 than that of prior fluxes over global land (Figs. 4a and b). In contrast, the magnitude of
11 optimized fluxes over global ocean is slightly weaker than that of prior fluxes (Fig. 4c). As
12 shown in Table 2, the differences between annual and average optimized surface CO₂ fluxes
13 over the globe are small and the average is almost the same for the two experiments (Fig. 4a)
14 with a similar trend of -0.33 Pg C yr⁻² and -0.35 Pg C yr⁻² in the CNTL and JR experiment
15 respectively, and the differences in global land and ocean are also small (Figs. 4b, c) with a
16 similar trend of -0.22 Pg C yr⁻² in global land for both the CNTL and JR experiments and -
17 0.11 Pg C yr⁻² and -0.13 Pg C yr⁻² in global ocean for the CNTL and JR experiments,
18 respectively. The optimized surface CO₂ fluxes from each experiment show similar
19 interannual variability, which implies that the additional Siberian observations do not affect
20 the interannual variability of global surface CO₂ uptake.

21 Figure 5 is the same as Fig. 4 but covers land regions in the NH. Although the optimized
22 surface CO₂ fluxes over global total are similar, those over each TransCom region are
23 different in each experiment. The optimized fluxes over each region show greater annual
24 uptake relative to the prior fluxes in both experiment. As expected, the difference between the
25 two experiments is largest in the EB (Fig. 5a) where the new additional observations are
26 assimilated. The JR experiment exhibits a weaker surface CO₂ uptake in the EB than does the
27 CNTL experiment except for 2003 as shown in Fig. 3b, whereas the JR experiment exhibits a
28 greater surface CO₂ uptake in the other regions, especially over Europe in 2008 and 2009,
29 than the CNTL experiment (Figs. 5b, c, d, and e). It is driven by the increase of CO₂ uptake in
30 Eastern Europe (Figs. 3g and h). Because most of JR-STATION sites are located in the
31 western part of Siberia (Fig. 1), the optimized surface CO₂ fluxes over Eastern Europe could
32 be affected by JR-STATION observations. The trend of EB in the CNTL experiment is -0.06

1 Pg C yr⁻², whereas that in the JR experiment is 0.02 Pg C yr⁻² due to the reduced uptake of
2 CO₂ in the JR experiment since 2005 (Fig 5a). As a result, the trends of the surface CO₂
3 uptake of EB and Europe in the two experiments show opposite signs. In contrast, the surface
4 CO₂ uptake trends of other land regions in NH are similar between the two experiments.

5 Figure 6 shows monthly prior and optimized surface CO₂ fluxes averaged from 2002 to 2009
6 with their uncertainties from both experiments. In general, optimized fluxes in both
7 experiments show greater uptake in boreal summer and weaker uptake in other seasons
8 compared to the prior fluxes, which results in greater annual CO₂ uptake of optimized fluxes
9 than prior fluxes as shown in Fig. 5. The largest difference in surface CO₂ flux between the
10 two experiments occurs in June and July, which represent the active season of the terrestrial
11 ecosystem with a large surface CO₂ flux uncertainty. The JR experiment exhibits a weaker
12 surface CO₂ summer uptake in the EB (Fig. 6a) and slightly greater uptake in the other
13 regions (Figs. 6b, c, d, and e). These additional JR-STATION data provides information on
14 the surface CO₂ uptake by vegetation activities in the NH summer.

15 **3.2 Comparison with observations**

16 Table 4 presents the average bias of the model CO₂ concentrations calculated by the
17 background and optimized fluxes of the two experiments at each observation site located in
18 Asia and Europe from 2002 to 2009. The bias is calculated by subtracting the observed CO₂
19 concentrations from the model CO₂ concentrations. Biases of the JR experiment are smaller
20 than those of the CNTL experiment at the JR-STATION sites, which indicates that the
21 optimized surface CO₂ flux of the JR experiment is more consistent with the observed CO₂
22 concentrations than that in the CNTL experiment. The negative bias at five JR-STATION
23 sites (DEM, IGR, KRZ, NOY, and YAK shown in Fig. 1 and Table 1) located in the forest
24 area of the EB is reduced compared with those of the CNTL experiment, which indicates that
25 the optimized surface CO₂ uptake of the CNTL experiment is overestimated with respect to
26 CO₂ concentration observations in Siberia. Otherwise, the reduced surface CO₂ uptake of the
27 JR experiment exhibits more consistent model CO₂ concentrations in this region. In addition
28 to the average bias for the entire period, the time series of monthly averaged bias of the model
29 CO₂ concentrations from the observed CO₂ concentrations at JR-STATION sites shows that
30 the JR experiment consistently shows smaller biases compared to the CNTL experiment (not
31 shown), which implies that the model representation of CO₂ at JR-STATION sites is more
32 accurate in the JR experiment than in the CNTL experiment. Model CO₂ concentrations

1 calculated by background surface CO₂ fluxes in the JR experiment are also more consistent
2 with the observations, implying that background scaling factors of the JR experiment are
3 more accurate than those of the CNTL experiment. The background surface CO₂ fluxes are
4 calculated by multiplying the background scaling factor with prior biosphere and ocean fluxes
5 as in Eq. (1). In addition, the average innovation χ^2 -statistics at the JR-STATION sites are
6 generally close to 1, implying that the defined MDM is an appropriate value. Therefore, by
7 assimilating JR-STATION observation data, the JR experiments exhibits better results than
8 the CNTL experiment at observation sites in EB.

9 However, at observation sites in ET and Europe, the difference in biases of the two
10 experiments is relatively small and not significant enough to determine which experiment
11 exhibits better results. This is due to the small difference of optimized surface CO₂ fluxes
12 between the two experiments in the ET region. The observation sites in Europe are located far
13 from Eastern Europe and Siberia as shown in Fig. 1 so that they are not sensitive to the
14 change of surface CO₂ uptake in those regions. In addition, the MDM at four sites (BAL, BSC,
15 HUN, and OBN) in Europe is assigned as 7.5 ppm, the largest value in CarbonTracker, due to
16 poor representation of the transport model at these sites (Peters et al., 2010).

17 In addition, model CO₂ concentrations calculated by optimized fluxes of the two experiments
18 are compared with independent, not assimilated, vertical profiles of CO₂ concentration
19 measurements by aircraft at the BRZ site in Siberia. Aircraft measurements were conducted in
20 the afternoon on good weather days. The frequency of flight was usually two to four times per
21 month (Sasakawa et al., 2013). Table 5 presents the average bias, root-mean-square difference
22 (RMSD), mean absolute error (MAE), and Pearson's correlation coefficient of the model CO₂
23 concentrations calculated by optimized fluxes of the two experiments based on the
24 observations at BRZ site as the reference. The statistics are calculated at each vertical bin at
25 500 meter intervals by using aircraft measurements observed between 1200 – 1600 LST.
26 Overall, the biases of the two experiments are less than 0.80 ppm showing good consistency
27 between model and observed CO₂ concentrations. Near the surface, the result of the JR
28 experiment is better than that of CNTL experiment in terms of bias. The bias of the JR
29 experiment is smaller than those of the CNTL experiment at the level under 500 m, whereas
30 the biases of the CNTL experiment are smaller than those of the JR experiment at the levels
31 above 500 m. More CO₂ concentrations are generated over the BRZ site because of the
32 reduced uptake of surface CO₂ fluxes over Siberia in the JR experiment. The standard

1 deviations of the CNTL experiment are greater than those of the JR experiment, which
2 implies that the biases of the CNTL experiment fluctuate about its average more than those of
3 the JR experiment. In contrast, the RMSD and MAE of the JR experiment are smaller than
4 those of the CNTL experiment, and the correlation coefficient of the JR experiment is greater
5 than that of the CNTL experiments. Therefore, overall the statistics show that the model CO₂
6 concentrations of the JR experiment are relatively more consistent with independent CO₂
7 concentration observations compared to those of the CNTL experiment over Siberia.

8 **3.3 Uncertainty reduction and observation impact**

9 The effects of additional observations on the optimized surface CO₂ flux and associated
10 uncertainties are investigated. Figure 7 shows the average uncertain reduction from 2002 to
11 2009, average in summer (June, July, and August) and average in winter (December, January,
12 February) uncertainty reductions from 2002 to 2009. The uncertainty reduction based on the
13 uncertainty of CNTL as the reference is calculated as

$$14 \quad UR = \frac{\sigma_{CNTL} - \sigma_{JR}}{\sigma_{CNTL}} \times 100(\%), \quad (8)$$

15 where σ_{CNTL} and σ_{JR} are one-sigma standard deviations of the optimized scaling factor for the
16 CNTL experiment and JR experiment, respectively. The maximum uncertainty reduction is
17 the greatest value in any week in the period 2002 to 2009 in each ecoregion. As expected, the
18 average uncertainty reduction is apparent in the Conifer Forest of EB in which JR stations are
19 mainly located, which has the additional observations (Fig. 7a). The uncertainty reduction in
20 Asia and Europe, especially in the forests of Siberia and Eastern Europe, is greater than for
21 other regions. The spatial pattern of the maximum uncertainty reduction is similar to that of
22 the average values from 2002 to 2009 (not shown). The uncertainty reduction of EB in
23 summer is higher than that in winter (Figs. 7b, c) due to a higher uncertainty associated with
24 larger net fluxes in summer compared to winter (Fig. 6a). For example, the average value of
25 the Conifer Forest of EB is 29.1%, the maximum value is 78.6%, the average value in
26 summer is 36.3% and the average value in winter is 29.7%, respectively. The uncertainty
27 reduction of the CNTL and JR experiments based on the prior uncertainty as the reference
28 (σ_{prior} used instead of σ_{CNTL} in Eq. (8); σ_{CNTL} or σ_{JR} used instead of σ_{JR} in Eq. (8)) shows
29 similar values in the NH except in the Siberia region (not shown). In addition, the difference
30 between average uncertainty reduction of the CNTL and JR experiments based on the prior

1 uncertainty as the reference (not shown) is very similar to the average of the uncertainty
2 reduction in Eq. (8) shown in Fig.7a. Therefore, the uncertainties of the optimized surface
3 CO₂ fluxes are reduced by the additional observations.

4 To investigate the impact of individual observations on the optimized surface CO₂ fluxes, the
5 self-sensitivities are calculated by the method demonstrated by Kim et al. (2014b). The self-
6 sensitivity is the diagonal element of the influence matrix which measures the impact of
7 individual observations in the observation space on the optimized surface CO₂ flux. A large
8 self-sensitivity value implies that the information extracted from observations is large. Figure
9 8 shows the self-sensitivities of the two experiments averaged from 2002 to 2009. The
10 average self-sensitivities at the JR-STATION sites are approximately 60% larger than those at
11 the towers in North America, i.e., continuous site category observations in Fig. 1. The global
12 average self-sensitivities are 4.83% (CNTL experiment) and 5.08% (JR experiment), and the
13 cumulative impacts for the 5 weeks assimilation window are 18.79% (CNTL experiment) and
14 19.33% (JR experiment). The average self-sensitivities of additional observations are higher
15 than those of other sites, providing more information for estimating surface CO₂ fluxes. In
16 particular, the YAK site located in east Siberia provides greater impacts than other JR-
17 STATION sites located in 60 ~ 90°E.

18 The RMSDs between the optimized surface CO₂ fluxes and the background fluxes at each
19 assimilation step in summer are calculated (Fig. 9). The RMSD of the analyzed surface CO₂
20 fluxes constrained by one week of observations from the background fluxes in the JR
21 experiment is greater than that in CNTL experiment (Figs. 9a, b), implying that surface CO₂
22 fluxes in Siberia are analyzed by JR-STATION data in Siberia directly at the first assimilation
23 step. This is consistent with the high value of self-sensitivities at JR-STATION sites as shown
24 in Fig. 8b. Because JR-STATION data are abundant and have large self-sensitivities, these
25 observations provide significant information on the estimated surface CO₂ fluxes over Siberia
26 in the first cycle. Kim et al. (2014b) showed that the RMSD in Asia increases after 5 weeks
27 of optimization, which implies that it takes more than 1 week to affect the surface CO₂ fluxes
28 in Siberia by the transport of the CO₂ concentrations observed in remote regions. However, by
29 assimilating the CO₂ concentrations observed at the JR-STATION sites in Siberia, the
30 observation impact on the optimized surface CO₂ fluxes in Siberia increases after 1 week of
31 optimization (Fig. 9b). In contrast, the RMSD in the Siberia region increases after 5 weeks of
32 optimization in the CNTL experiment compared to that in the JR experiment (Figs. 9c, d),

1 which corresponds to the reduced uptake of optimized surface CO₂ fluxes in JR experiment as
2 shown in Fig. 2b.

3 **3.4 Comparison with other results**

4 A comparison of the optimized surface CO₂ flux in this study with other previous studies is
5 presented in Table 6. In the EB, the land sink from the JR experiment (-0.77 ± 0.70 Pg C yr⁻¹)
6 is smaller than those reported by Zhang et al. (2014b) (-1.02 ± 0.91 Pg C yr⁻¹), Maki et al.
7 (2010) (-1.46 ± 0.41 Pg C yr⁻¹), and the CT2013B (CarbonTracker released on 9 February
8 2015; documented online at <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/carbontracker/CT2013B/>)
9 results (-1.00 ± 3.75 Pg C yr⁻¹), but higher than those reported by Saeki et al. (2013) ($-$
10 0.35 ± 0.61 Pg C yr⁻¹; including biomass burning 0.11 Pg C yr⁻¹), and similar with those
11 reported by Dolman et al. (2012) (-0.613 Pg C yr⁻¹).

12 Because CT2013B and Zhang et al. (2014b) use an inversion framework similar to that in this
13 study, the reduced land sink is caused by assimilating additional observations. The difference
14 in the land sink between the JR experiment and Saeki et al. (2013) is caused by a different
15 inversion system framework (i.e., prior flux information, atmospheric transport model,
16 observation data set, and inversion method) between two studies. Despite the different
17 inversion system framework used in each study, the two studies using the JR-STATION data
18 exhibit similar results in relative terms, reduced uptake of CO₂ fluxes and uncertainties over
19 Siberia. Nevertheless, the land sink from the JR experiment is somewhat different from other
20 inversion results, as its value falls within the flux uncertainty range. Although the land sink in
21 Dolman et al. (2012) is the average land sink obtained from three methods (inventory-based,
22 eddy covariance, and inversion methods) and estimated not only for Siberia but for Russian
23 territory including Ukraine, Belarus, and Kazakhstan, the land sinks of the JR experiment and
24 Dolman et al. (2012) shows similar values. Overall, the optimized surface CO₂ fluxes in EB
25 of the JR experiment are comparable to those studies mentioned above.

26 In Europe, though the long-term average land sink from the JR experiment (-0.37 ± 0.64 Pg C
27 yr⁻¹) is higher in magnitude than that of CTE2014 (-0.07 ± 0.49 Pg C yr⁻¹), the average land
28 sink from 2008-2009 of the JR experiment (-0.75 ± 0.63 Pg C yr⁻¹) is much higher in
29 magnitude than that of CTE2014 (-0.11 ± 0.38 Pg C yr⁻¹). The land sinks of the JR experiment
30 in 2008 and 2009 are -0.73 ± 0.41 and -0.76 ± 0.38 Pg C yr⁻¹, respectively, whereas much lower
31 uptakes (-0.21 ± 0.49 , -0.38 ± 0.44 Pg C yr⁻¹) are obtained for the CNTL experiment. According

1 to Reuter et al. (2014), despite the different experiment period, the land sink of Europe in
2 2010 ($-1.02 \pm 0.30 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$) estimated by using satellite observations is much higher than
3 previous inversion studies (e.g., Peylin et al. 2013) using only surface observations.

4

5 **4 Summary and conclusions**

6 In this study, to investigate the effect of the Siberian observations, which were not used in the
7 previous studies using CarbonTracker, on the optimization of surface CO₂ fluxes, two
8 experiments, named CNTL and JR, with different sets of observations from 2000 to 2009
9 were conducted and optimized surface CO₂ fluxes from 2002 to 2009 were analyzed.

10 The global balances of the sources and sinks of surface CO₂ fluxes were maintained with a
11 similar trend for both experiments, while the distribution of the optimized surface CO₂ fluxes
12 changed. The magnitude of the optimized biosphere surface CO₂ uptake and its uncertainty in
13 EB (Siberia) was decreased from $-1.17 \pm 0.93 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$ to $-0.77 \pm 0.70 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$, whereas it was
14 increased in other regions of the NH (Eurasian Temperate, Europe, North American Boreal,
15 and North American Temperate). The land sink of Europe for 2008 and 2009 of the JR
16 experiment increased significantly from $-0.30 \pm 0.68 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$ to $-0.75 \pm 0.63 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$, which
17 is consistent with the other inversion results (Reuter et al., 2014) inferred by satellite
18 observations. Additional observations are used to correct the surface CO₂ uptake in June and
19 July, the active vegetation uptake season, in terms of monthly average optimized surface CO₂
20 fluxes. As a result, the additional observations do not exhibit a change in the magnitude of the
21 global surface CO₂ flux balance because they provide detailed information about the Siberian
22 land sink instead of the global land sink magnitude, when they are used in our inversion
23 modeling system (i.e., CarbonTracker).

24 The model CO₂ concentrations using the background and optimized surface CO₂ fluxes in the
25 JR experiment are more consistent with the CO₂ observations used in the optimization than
26 those in the CNTL experiment, showing lower biases in the EB region. In contrast, the
27 differences of biases of the two experiments in ET and Europe are smaller than those in EB.
28 In comparison with vertical profiles of CO₂ concentration observations which are not used in
29 the optimization, the model CO₂ concentrations in the JR experiment show smaller RMSD
30 and MAE values, and a higher correlation coefficient than those in CNTL experiment.

1 The new observations provide information on the optimized surface CO₂ fluxes. The
2 observation impact of the Siberian observation data is investigated by means of uncertainty
3 reduction and self-sensitivity calculated by an influence matrix. Additional observations
4 reduce the uncertainty of the optimized surface CO₂ fluxes in Asia and Europe, mainly in the
5 EB region (Siberia), where the new observations are used in the assimilation. The average
6 self-sensitivities of the JR-STATION sites are approximately 60% larger than those for other
7 continuous measurements (e.g., tower measurements in North America). The global average
8 self-sensitivity and cumulative impact of the JR experiment are higher than those of the
9 CNTL experiment, which implies that the impact of JR-STATION data on optimized surface
10 CO₂ fluxes is higher than that of other observations used in both the CNTL and JR
11 experiments. The RMSD of the analyzed surface CO₂ fluxes constrained by one week of
12 observations from the background fluxes also suggests that new Siberian observations provide
13 information on the optimized surface CO₂ fluxes.

14 This study shows that the JR-STATION data affect the longitudinal distribution of the total
15 NH sinks, especially in the EB and Europe, when it is used by atmospheric CO₂ inversion
16 modeling. In the future, it is expected that Siberian observations will be used as an important
17 constraint for estimating surface CO₂ fluxes over the NH with various CO₂ observations (e.g.,
18 satellite and aircraft measurements) simultaneously.

19 **Acknowledgements**

20 The authors appreciate Dr. William Lahoz, Dr. Abhishek Chatterjee, and other reviewers for
21 their valuable comments. This study was funded by the Korea Meteorological Administration
22 Research and Development Program under the Grant KMIPA 2015-2021. The JR-STATION
23 is supported by the Global Environment Research Account for National Institutes of the
24 Ministry of the Environment, Japan and the Russian Foundation for Basic Research (Grant No.
25 14-05-00590). The authors also acknowledge atmospheric CO₂ measurements data providers
26 and cooperating agencies at China Meteorological Administration, Commonwealth Scientific
27 and Industrial Research Organization, Environment Canada, Finnish Meteorological Institute,
28 Hungarian Meteorological Service, Japan Meteorological Agency, Lawrence Berkeley
29 National Laboratory, National Institute of Environmental Research, Norwegian
30 Meteorological Institute, Max Planck Institute for Biogeochemistry, Morski Instytut Rybacki,
31 National Center for Atmospheric Research, National Oceanic and Atmospheric
32 Administration Earth System Research Laboratory, and Romanian Marine Research Institute.

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12

1 Table 1. Information on observation sites located in the Asia and Europe region. MDM
 2 represents the model-data mismatch which is the observation error.

Site	Location	Latitude	Longitude	Height (Sampling height) (m)	Laboratory (Cooperating agency)	MDM (ppm)
AZV	Azovo, Russia	54.71°N	73.03°E	110(50)	NIES	3
BRZ	Berezorechka, Russia	56.15°N	84.33°E	168(80)	NIES	3
DEM	Demyanskoe, Russia	59.79°N	70.87°E	63(63)	NIES	3
IGR	Igrim, Russia	63.19°N	64.41°E	9(47)	NIES	3
KRS	Karasevoe, Russia	58.25°N	82.42°E	76(67)	NIES	3
NOY	Noyabrsk, Russia	63.43°N	75.78°E	108(43)	NIES	3
SVV	Savvushka, Russia	51.33°N	82.13°E	495(52)	NIES	3
VGN	Vaganovo, Russia	54.50°N	62.32°E	192(85)	NIES	3
YAK	Yakutsk, Russia	62.09°N	129.36°E	264(77)	NIES	3
WLG	Mt. Waliguan, China	36.29°N	100.9°E	3810	CMA/ESRL	1.5
BKT	Bukit Kototabang, Indonesia	0.20°S	100.32°E	864	ESRL	7.5
WIS	Sede Boker, Israel,	31.13°N	34.88°E	400	ESRL	2.5
KZD	Sary Taukum, Kazakhstan	44.45°N	77.57°E	412	ESRL	2.5
KZM	Plateau Assy, Kazakhstan	43.25°N	77.88°E	2519	ESRL	2.5
TAP	Tae-ahn Peninsula, South Korea	36.73°N	126.13°E	20	ESRL	5
UUM	Ulaan Uul, Mongolia	44.45°N	111.10°E	914	ESRL	2.5
CRI	Cape Rama, India	15.08°N	73.83°E	60	CSIRO	3
LLN	Lulin, Taiwan	23.47°N	120.87°E	2862	ESRL	7.5
SDZ	Shangdianzi, China	40.39°N	117.07°E	287	CMA/ESRL	3
MNM	Minamitorishima, Japan	24.29°N	153.98°E	8	JMA	3
RYO	Ryori, Japan	39.03°N	141.82°E	260	JMA	3
YON	Yonagunijima, Japan	24.47°N	123.02°E	30	JMA	3
GSN	Gosan, South Korea	33.15°N	126.12°E	72	NIER	3
BAL	Baltic Sea, Poland	55.35°N	17.22°E	3	ESRL (MIR*)	7.5
BSC	Black Sea, Constanta, Romania	44.17°N	28.68°E	3	ESRL (RMRI*)	7.5
HUN	Hegyhatsal, Hungary	46.95°N	16.65°E	248	ESRL (HMS*)	7.5
OBN	Obninsk, Russia	55.11°N	36.60°E	183	ESRL	7.5
OXK	Ochsenkopf, Germany	50.03°N	11.80°E	1022	ESRL (MPI-BGC*)	2,5
PAL	Pallas-Sammaltunturi, GaW Station, Finland	67.97°N	24.12°E	560	ESRL (FMI*)	2.5
STM	Ocean Station M, Norway	66.00°N	2.00°E	0	ESRL (MET Norway*)	1.5

3 *Cooperating agencies of observation sites in Europe: Morski Instytut Rybacki (MIR), Romanian Marine
 4 Research Institute (RMRI), Hungarian Meteorological Service (HMS), Max Planck Institute for
 5 Biogeochemistry (MPI-BGC), Finnish Meteorological Institute (FMI), Norwegian Meteorological Institute
 6 (MET Norway).

1 Table 2. A prior and optimized surface CO₂ fluxes and their one-sigma uncertainties (Pg C
 2 yr⁻¹ Region⁻¹) of global total, land, ocean, and other regions averaged spatially from 2002 to
 3 2009. The CNTL experiment is conducted by using set of observations without
 4 observations in the Siberia region, whereas the JR experiment is conducted using all
 5 available observations including the Siberia data.

Region	A priori	CNTL	JR.
Eurasian Boreal	-0.07±1.10	-1.17±0.93	-0.77±0.70
Eurasian Temperate	-0.05±0.49	-0.31±0.41	-0.36±0.40
Europe	-0.01±-0.76	-0.20±0.67	-0.37±0.64
North American Boreal	-0.04±0.61	-0.30±0.38	-0.36±0.38
North American Temperate	-0.02±0.66	-0.55±0.41	-0.59±0.41
Northern Hemisphere total	-1.42±1.85	-3.21±1.49	-3.21±1.34
Tropical total	0.06±0.80	0.12±0.74	0.11±0.74
Southern Hemisphere total	-2.57±0.97	-2.46±0.81	-2.45±0.81
Global total	-3.94±2.24	-5.54±1.85	-5.55±1.72
Global land	-1.33±1.90	-3.59±1.57	-3.52±1.43
Global ocean	-2.61±1.19	-1.95±0.97	-2.03±0.96

1 Table 3. The optimized surface CO₂ fluxes (Pg C yr⁻¹ Region⁻¹) of ecosystem types at Eurasian Boreal, Eurasian Temperate, Europe, North
 2 American Boreal, and North American Temperate region averaged over 2002 - 2009. The CNTL experiment is conducted by using set of
 3 observations without observations in the Siberia region, whereas the JR experiment is conducted using all available observations including
 4 the Siberia data.

Ecosystem type	Eurasian Boreal		Eurasian Temperate		Europe		North American Boreal		North American Temperate	
	CNTL	JR	CNTL	JR	CNTL	JR	CNTL	JR	CNTL	JR
Conifer Forest	-0.815	-0.337	-0.005	-0.005	-0.067	-0.069	-0.107	-0.121	-0.054	-0.069
Broadleaf Forest	-0.006	-0.013	-0.004	-0.005	-0.005	-0.005	0.000	0.000	-0.002	-0.002
Mixed Forest	-0.049	-0.090	-0.029	-0.034	-0.025	-0.063	-0.053	-0.054	-0.019	-0.021
Grass/Shrub	-0.035	-0.056	-0.247	-0.285	-0.016	-0.032	0.000	-0.001	-0.077	-0.081
Tropical Forest	0.000	0.000	-0.001	-0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Scrub/Woods	0.000	0.000	-0.002	-0.002	-0.001	-0.001	0.000	0.000	-0.013	-0.013
Semitundra	-0.145	-0.188	-0.007	-0.009	-0.008	-0.009	-0.057	-0.086	-0.010	-0.011
Fields/Woods/Savanna	-0.012	-0.021	-0.005	-0.005	0.003	-0.009	-0.004	-0.004	-0.149	-0.153
Northern Taiga	-0.094	-0.029	0.000	0.000	-0.006	-0.007	-0.066	-0.077	0.000	0.000
Forest/Field	-0.003	-0.008	0.006	0.006	-0.086	-0.105	-0.001	-0.001	-0.012	-0.016
Wetland	-0.002	-0.014	0.000	-0.000	-0.001	-0.002	-0.003	-0.006	-0.002	-0.003
Shrub/Tree/Suc	0.000	0.000	-0.001	-0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Crops	-0.002	-0.008	-0.019	-0.022	-0.007	-0.075	0.000	0.000	-0.216	-0.227
Wooded tundra	-0.003	-0.005	0.000	0.000	0.003	0.003	-0.003	-0.002	0.000	0.000
Water	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.001	-0.001	-0.001	-0.001

1 Table 4. Average differences between model CO₂ concentrations (ppm) simulated using the
2 background and the observed CO₂ concentration (ppm) (fourth and sixth columns), model
3 CO₂ concentrations (ppm) simulated using the optimized surface CO₂ flux and the observed
4 CO₂ concentration (ppm) (fifth and seventh columns), and average innovation χ^2 from 2002 to
5 2009 at observation sites located in Asia and Europe (eighth column). The CNTL experiment
6 is conducted by using set of observations without observations in the Siberia region, whereas
7 the JR experiment is conducted using all available observations including the Siberia data.

Region	Site	MDM [ppm]	CNTL		JR		Innovation χ^2
			Bias (background)	Bias (optimized)	Bias (background)	Bias (optimized)	
Eurasian	AZV	3	1.68	1.04	0.77	0.19	0.85
Boreal	BRZ	3	1.41	0.68	0.67	0.39	1.17
	DEM	3	0.15	-0.84	0.32	0.11	0.84
	IGR	3	-1.58	-2.71	-0.52	-1.26	1.15
	KRS	3	0.57	-0.22	0.27	0.12	1.22
	NOY	3	-0.02	-1.06	0.16	0.00	0.86
	SVV	3	1.25	0.71	0.63	0.09	0.96
	VGN	3	2.55	2.11	1.50	0.84	1.18
	YAK	3	0.23	-2.18	0.87	0.03	1.36
Eurasian	WLG	1.5	0.17	0.19	0.15	0.16	1.09
Temperate	BKT	7.5	4.12	4.06	4.13	4.05	0.57
	WIS	2.5	0.27	0.12	0.22	0.07	0.72
	KZD	2.5	1.79	0.98	1.42	1.14	1.26
	KZM	2.5	1.17	0.96	1.13	0.93	1.26
	TAP	5	0.50	0.55	0.58	0.71	0.58
	UUM	2.5	0.24	-0.07	0.20	0.12	1.05
	CRI	3	-1.95	-1.57	-1.94	-1.56	0.66
	LLN	7.5	4.42	3.09	4.42	3.09	0.47
	SDZ	3	-3.02	-5.26	-3.09	-5.28	2.08
	MNM	3	0.56	0.52	0.59	0.56	0.17
	RYO	3	1.26	1.16	1.32	1.32	1.07
	YON	3	1.10	0.98	1.14	1.07	0.56
	GSN	3	-1.92	-1.71	-1.92	-1.70	1.83
Europe	BAL	7.5	-1.23	-1.32	-1.31	-1.45	0.37
	BSC	7.5	-4.12	-4.97	-4.12	-5.13	1.01
	HUN	7.5	0.93	0.53	0.86	0.36	0.46
	OBN	7.5	0.70	-0.71	0.59	-0.89	0.44
	OXK	2.5	0.50	0.02	0.43	-0.09	1.52
	PAL	2.5	0.47	0.07	0.58	0.16	0.76
	STM	1.5	0.54	0.42	0.55	0.42	0.76

8

1 Table 5. Bias, root mean square difference, mean absolute error, and Pearson's Correlation
 2 Coefficient of the model CO₂ concentration of CNTL and JR experiments in comparison with
 3 the vertical profile of CO₂ concentrations at BRZ site.

Altitude (km)	Bias (ppm)		Root-Mean-Square Difference (ppm)		Mean Absolute Error (ppm)		Pearson's Correlation Coefficient	
	CNTL	JR	CNTL	JR	CNTL	JR	CNTL	JR
~ 0.5	-0.38±4.73	-0.05±4.39	4.06	3.75	3.42	3.07	0.94	0.95
0.5 ~ 1.0	0.23±4.05	0.42±3.75	3.58	3.33	2.94	2.72	0.94	0.95
1.0 ~ 1.5	0.19±3.80	0.31±3.53	3.35	3.11	2.70	2.49	0.94	0.95
1.5 ~ 2.0	0.22±3.38	0.33±3.19	2.94	2.79	2.33	2.19	0.93	0.94
2.0 ~ 2.5	0.02±3.19	0.08±3.07	2.64	2.54	2.19	2.11	0.93	0.94
2.5 ~ 3.0	0.79±2.84	0.80±2.53	1.44	1.30	2.21	1.99	0.92	0.94
3.0 ~	0.61±3.15	0.61±2.91	1.49	1.38	2.42	2.26	0.89	0.91

4

5

1 Table 6. Optimized surface CO₂ fluxes (Pg C yr⁻¹) from this study and other inversion studies.

Citation	Area	Estimate surface CO ₂ flux	Period	Remarks
This study	Eurasian Boreal	-0.77±0.70	2002-2009	JR experiment
Saeki et al. (2013)	Eurasian Boreal	-0.35±0.61	2000-2009	Including biomass burning (0.11Pg C yr ⁻¹), Using JR-STATION observations
Zhang et al. (2014b)	Eurasian Boreal	-1.02±0.91	2006-2010	Using CONTRAL observations
Maki et al. (2010)	Eurasian Boreal	-1.46±0.41	2001-2007	
Dolman et al. (2012)	Russia ^a	-0.613		Average of inventory-based, eddy covariance, and inversion methods
CT2013B ^b	Eurasian Boreal	-1.00±3.75	2002-2009	
This study	Europe	-0.38±0.64	2002-2009	JR experiment
Reuter et al. (2014)	Europe	-0.75±0.63	2008-2009	
		-1.02±0.30	2010	Using satellite data
CTE2014 ^c	Europe	-0.07±0.49	2002-2009	
		-0.11±0.38	2008-2009	

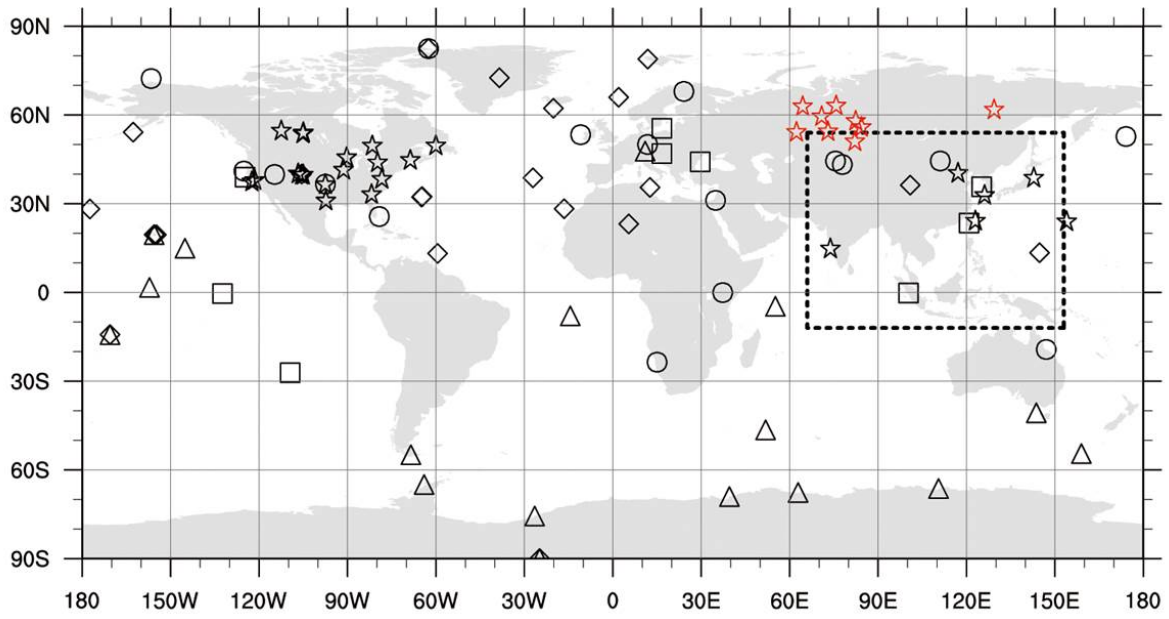
2 ^aIncluding Ukraine, Belarus and Kazakhstan (total area is 17.1×10^{12} m²)

3 ^bThe results of CT2013B (<http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/carbontracker/CT2013B/>) were
4 derived from (<ftp://aftp.cmdl.noaa.gov/products/carbontracker/co2/fluxes/>).

5 ^cThe results of CTE2014 (CarbonTracker Europe, Peters et al., 2010) were derived from
6 (<ftp://ftp.wur.nl/carbontracker/data/fluxes/>).

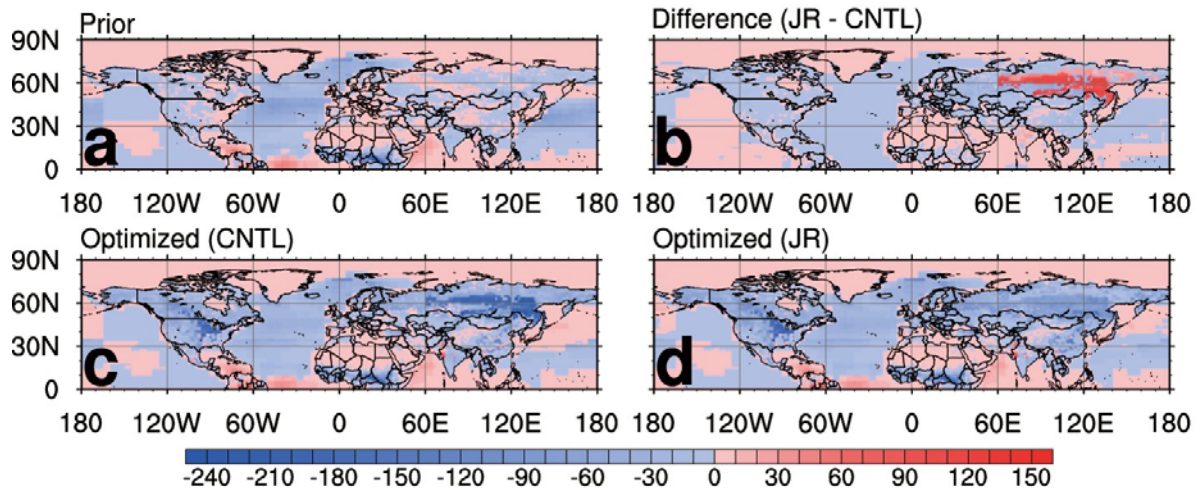
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Figure 1. Observation networks of CO₂ concentrations around the globe and the nested domain of the TM5 transport model over Asia (dashed box). Each observation site is assigned to different categories (Δ : MBL; \circ : Continental; \diamond : Mixed land/ocean and mountain; \star : Continuous; \square : Difficult). JR-STATION observation sites are represented in red color.



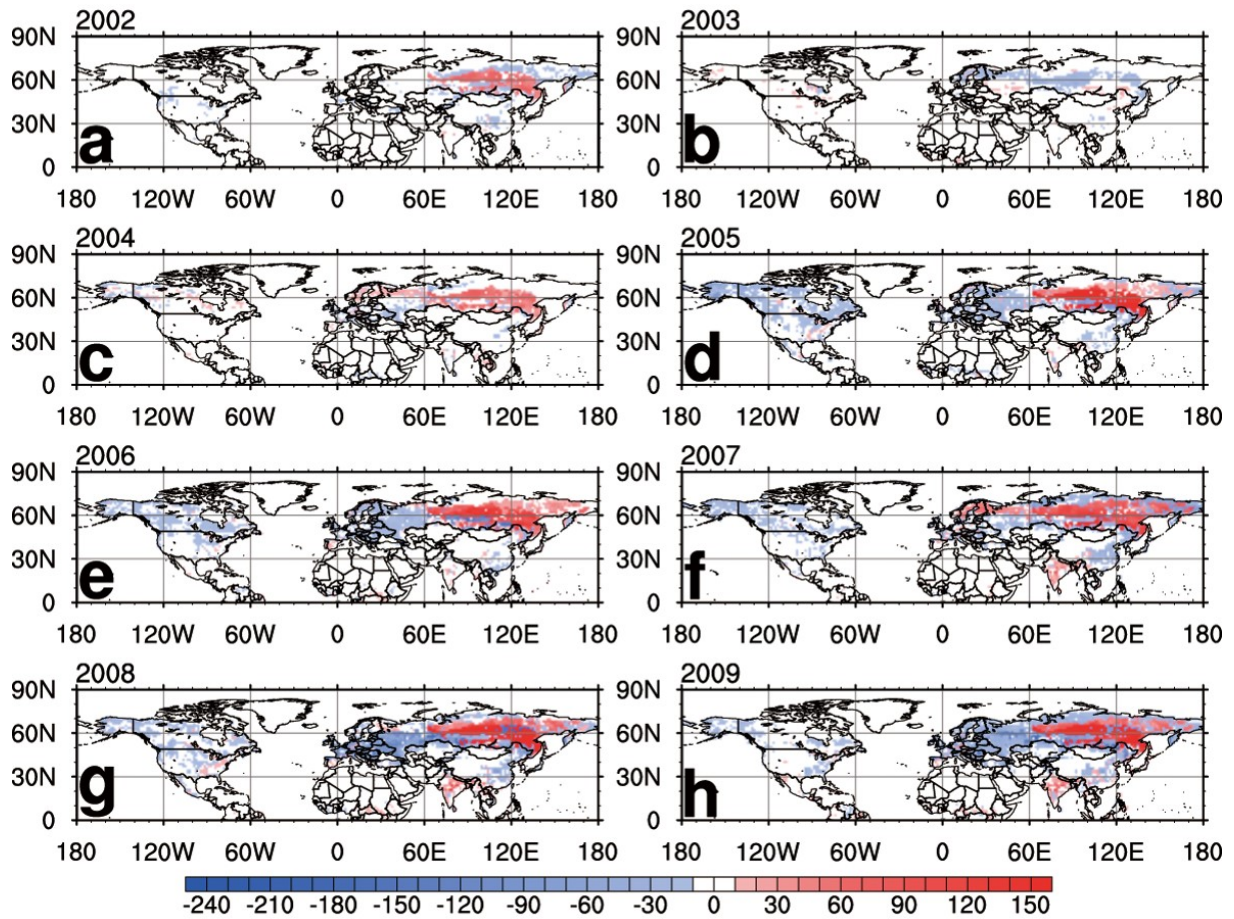
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3 Figure 2. Average biosphere and ocean fluxes (gC m⁻² yr⁻¹) from 2002 to 2009 of (a) the prior
 4 flux, (b) the difference between the optimized fluxes in the JR and CNTL experiments, (c) the
 5 optimized flux in the CNTL experiment, and (d) the optimized flux in the JR experiment.
 6 Blue colors (negative) denote net CO₂ flux uptake while red colors (positive) denote net CO₂
 7 release to the atmosphere. The difference is calculated by subtracting surface CO₂ flux of
 8 CNTL experiment from that of JR experiment.

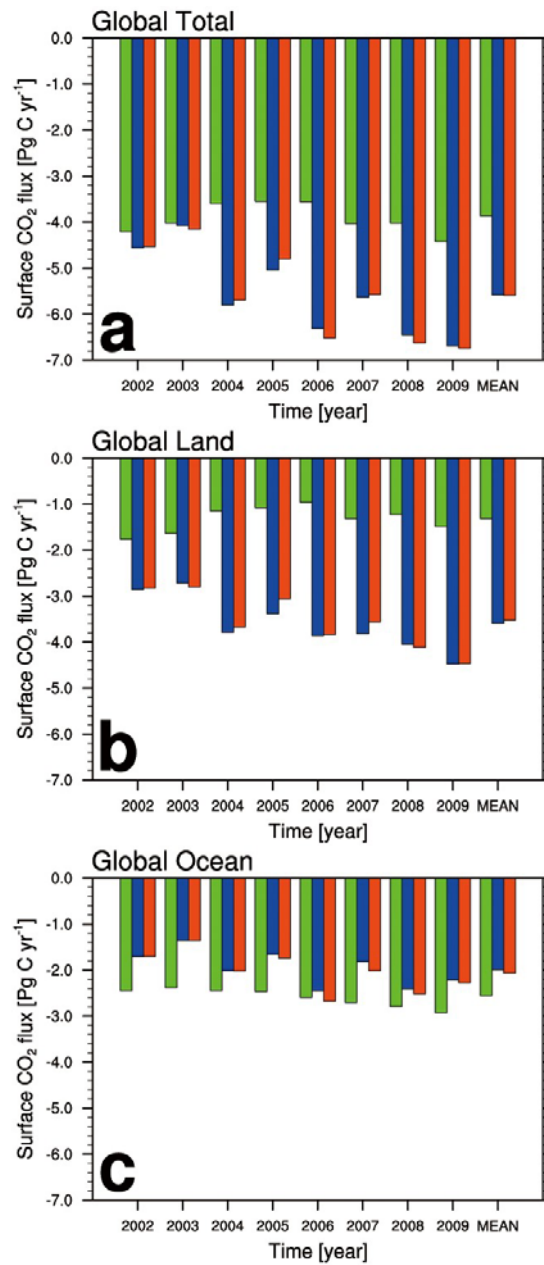
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Figure 3. The difference between the optimized biosphere fluxes from the JR and CNTL experiment ($\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) of (a) 2002, (b) 2003, (c) 2004, (d) 2005, (e) 2006, (f) 2007, (g) 2008, and (h) 2009. Blue colors (negative) denote net CO₂ flux uptake while red colors (positive) denote net CO₂ release to the atmosphere. The difference is calculated by subtracting surface CO₂ flux of CNTL experiment from that of JR experiment.

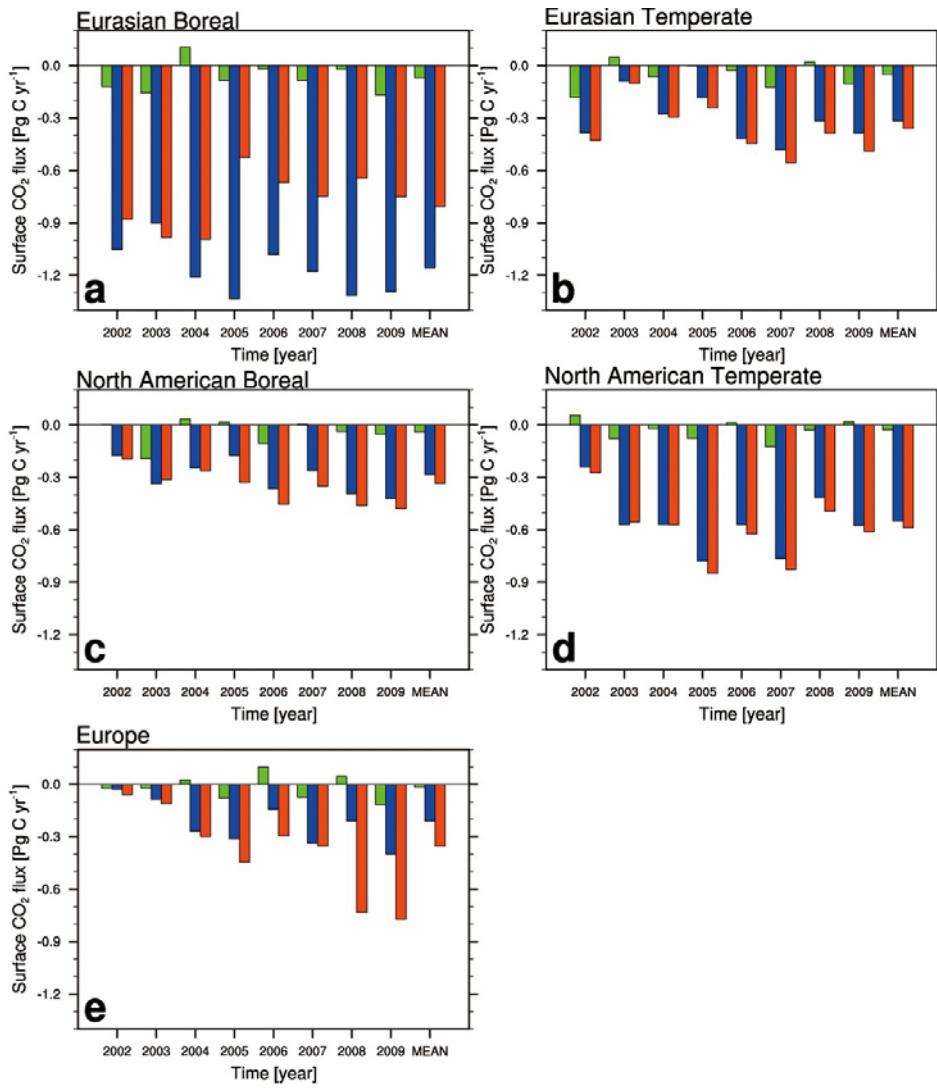


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2 Figure 4. Annual and average biosphere and ocean fluxes (Pg C yr⁻¹) from the prior (green
 3 bar), CNTL (blue) and JR (red) experiment aggregated over the (a) whole globe, (b)
 4 land, and (c) ocean.

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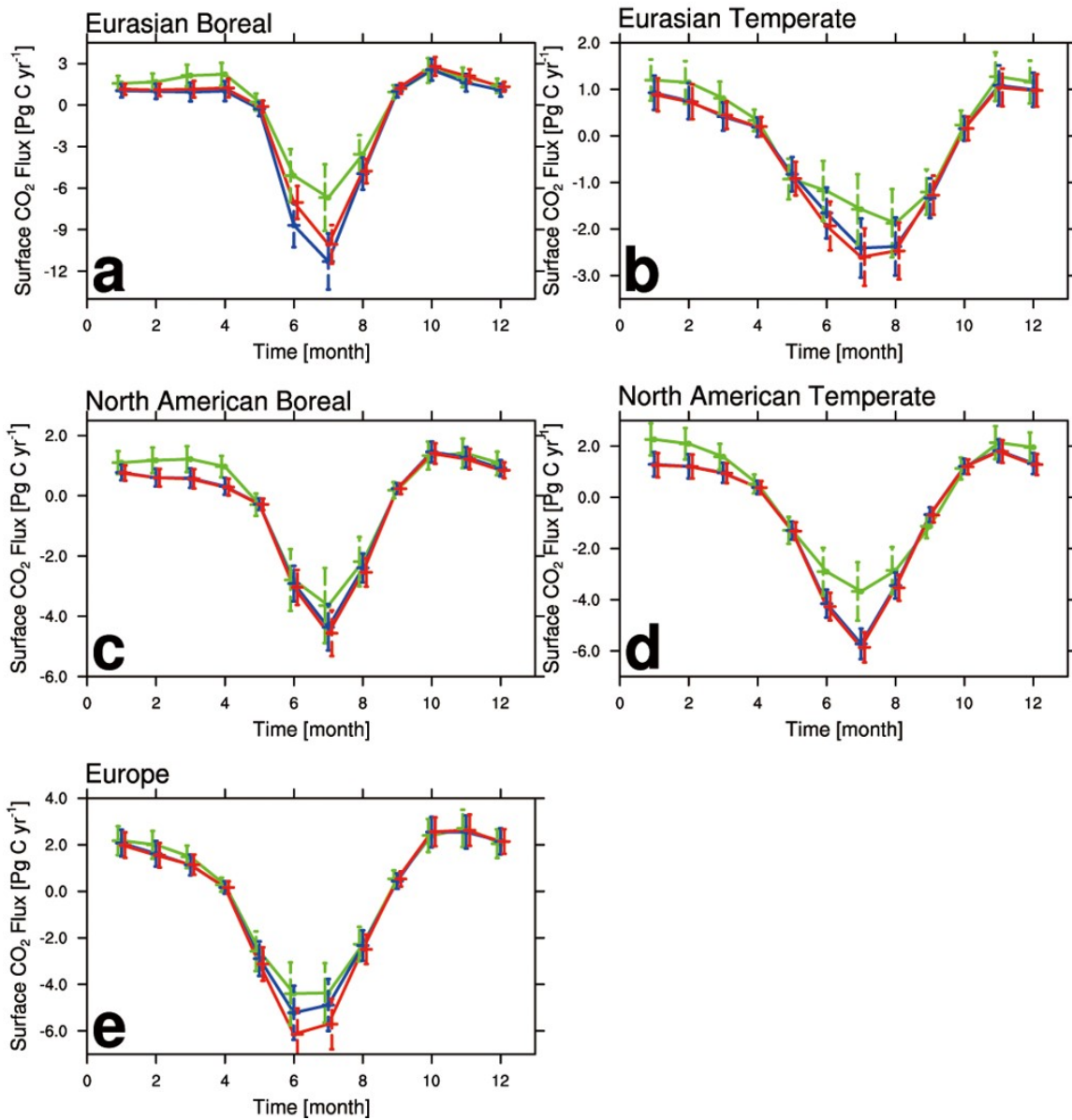


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2 Figure 5. Annual and average biosphere fluxes (Pg C yr⁻¹) from the prior (green bar), CNTL
 3 (blue bar) and JR (red bar) experiment aggregated over the (a) Eurasian Boreal, (b) Eurasian
 4 Temperate, (c) North American Boreal, (d) North American Temperate, and (e) Europe.

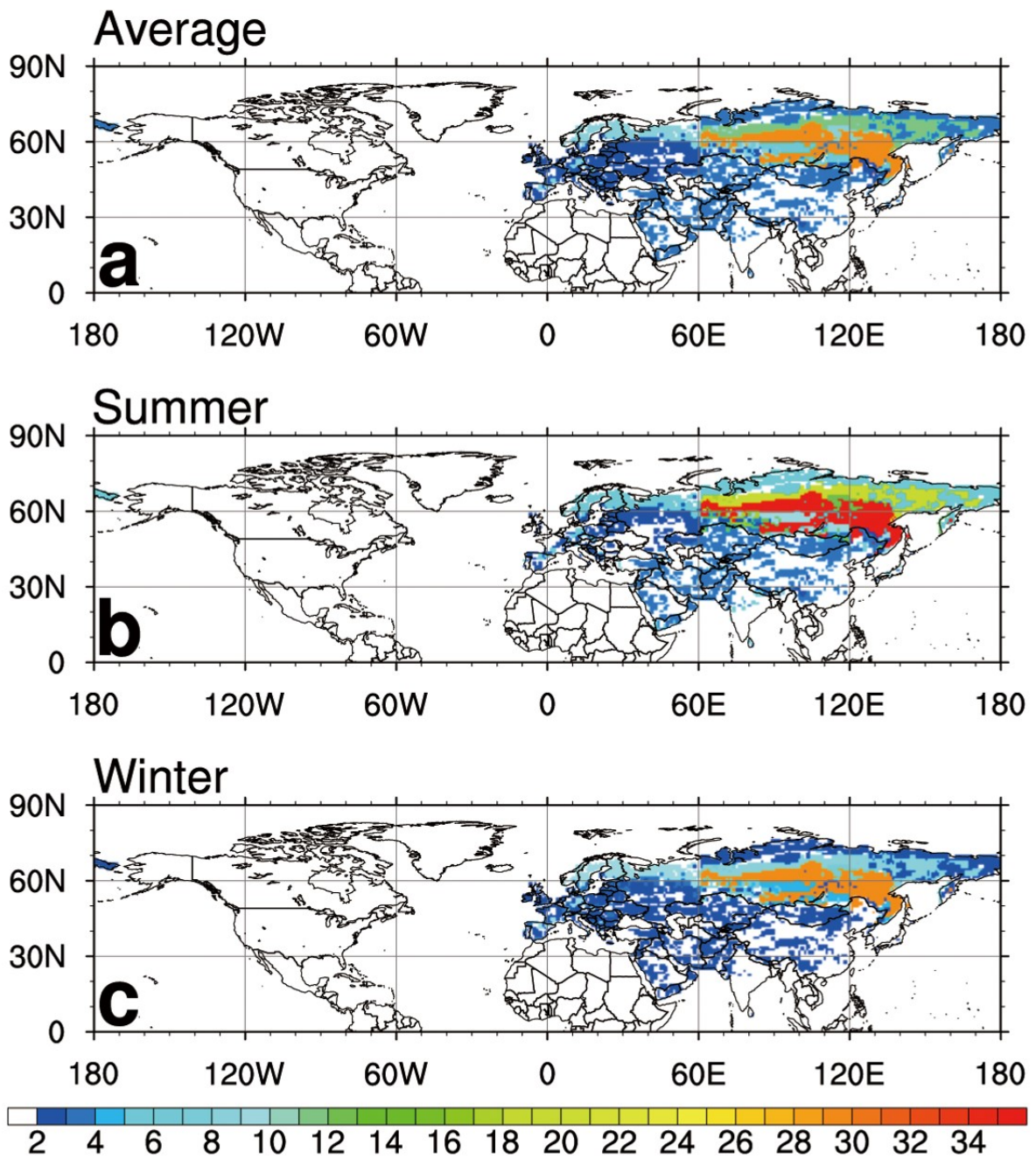
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Figure 6. The monthly prior (green) and optimized biosphere fluxes averaged from 2002 to 2009 of CNTL (blue) and JR (red) experiment with their uncertainties over the (a) Eurasian Boreal, (b) Eurasian Temperate, (c) North American Boreal, (d) North American Temperate, and (e) Europe.



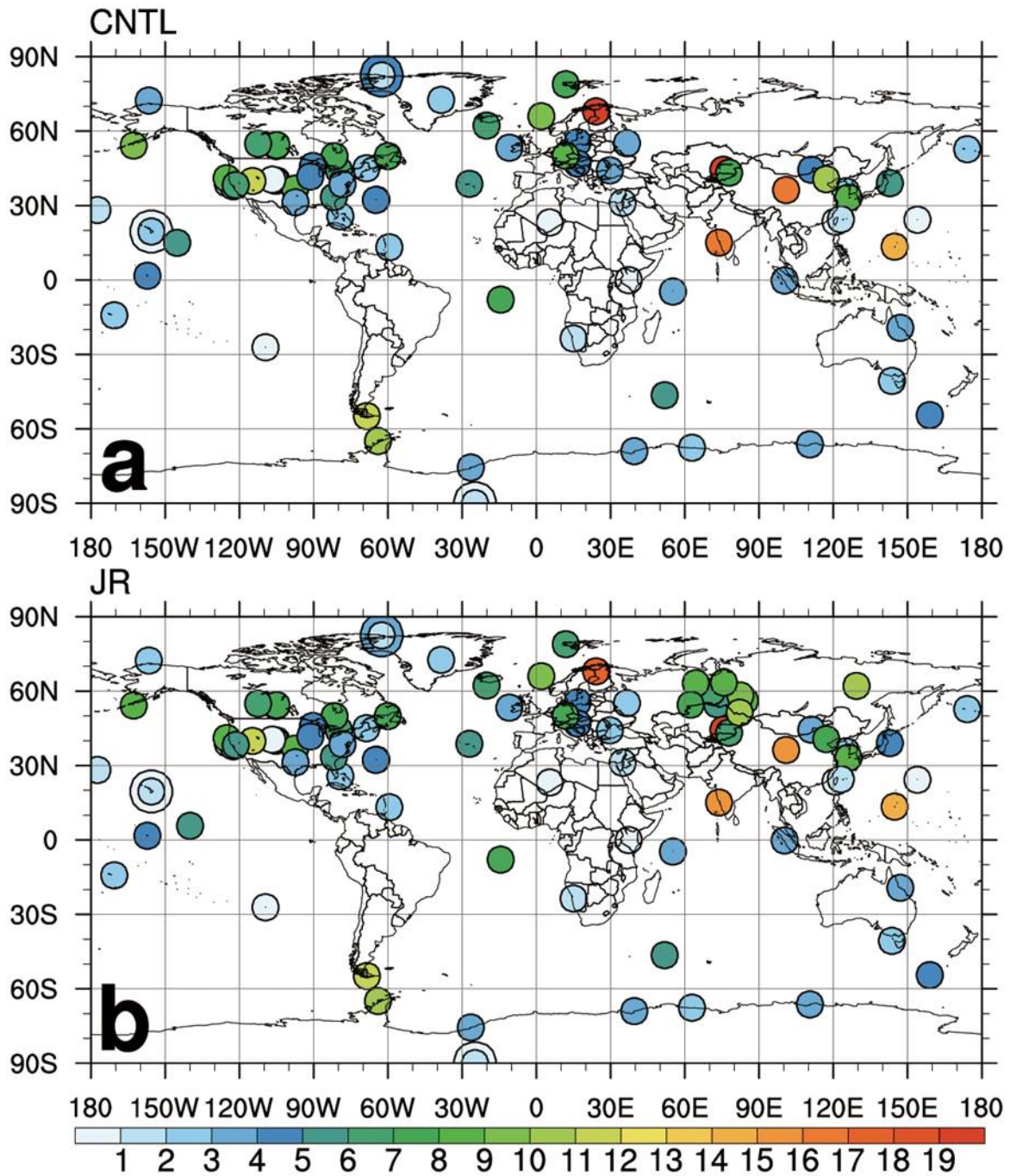
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3 Figure 7. (a) Average uncertainty reduction (%) from 2002 to 2009, average uncertainty
 4 reduction (%) in (b) summer, and (c) winter for the estimated uncertainty of the JR
 5 experiment relative to that of the CNTL experiment. Red (blue) denotes relatively high (low)
 6 values of uncertainty reduction.

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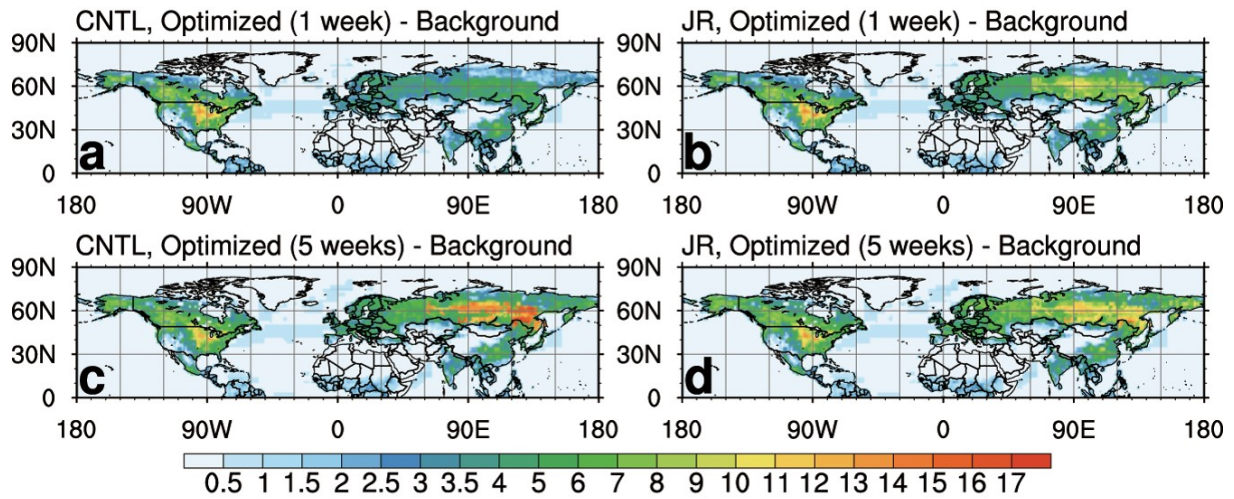


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3 Figure 8. Self-sensitivity at each observation site averaged from 2002 to 2009 of (a) CNTL
 4 experiment and (b) JR experiment. The overlapping observation sites at the same locations or
 5 at close locations are distinguished by different sizes of circles. Red (blue) denotes relatively
 6 high (low) values of self-sensitivity.

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3 Figure 9. RMSD averaged from 2002 to 2009 between the background flux and posterior flux
 4 optimized in Northern Hemisphere summer by 1 week of observations of (a) CNTL and (b)
 5 JR experiment; and by 5 weeks of observations of (c) CNTL and (d) JR experiment. The units
 6 are $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ week}^{-1}$. Red (blue) denotes relatively high (low) value of RMSD.