



I Impact of Siberian observations on the optimization of

- 2 surface CO₂ flux
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20 Abstract

21 To investigate the effect of additional CO₂ observations in the Siberia region on the Asian and 22 global surface CO₂ flux analyses, two experiments using different observation dataset were 23 performed. One experiment was conducted using a data set that includes additional 24 observations of Siberian tower measurements (Japan-Russia Siberian Tall Tower Inland 25 Observation Network: JR-STATION), and the other experiment was conducted using a data set without the above additional observations. The results show that the global balance of the 26 sources and sinks of surface CO₂ fluxes was maintained for both experiments with and 27 28 without the additional observations. While the magnitude of the optimized surface CO₂ flux





1 uptake in Siberia decreased, the magnitude of the optimized surface CO_2 flux uptake in the 2 other regions (e.g., Europe) of the Northern Hemisphere (NH) increased for the experiment 3 with the additional observations. This change was mostly caused by changes in the 4 magnitudes of surface CO_2 flux in June and July. The observation impact measured by 5 uncertainty reduction and self-sensitivity tests shows that additional observations provide 6 useful information on the estimated surface CO_2 flux. It is expected that the Siberian 7 observations play an important role in estimating surface CO_2 flux in the NH in the future.

8

9 1 Introduction

The terrestrial ecosystem in the Northern Hemisphere (NH) plays an important role in the global carbon balance (Hayes et al., 2011; Le Quéré et al., 2015). Especially, Siberia is considered to be the one of the largest CO₂ uptake regions and reservoirs due to its forest area (Schuleze et al., 1999; Houghton et al., 2007; Tarnocai et al., 2009; Kurganova et al., 2010; Schepaschenko et al., 2011); and its dynamics and interactions with the climate have global significance (Quegan et al., 2011). Therefore, it is important to accurately estimate the surface CO₂ fluxes in this region.

17 To estimate the surface CO₂ flux, atmospheric CO₂ inversion studies are conducted using 18 atmospheric transport models and atmospheric CO₂ observations (Gurney et al., 2002; Peylin 19 et al., 2013). However, large uncertainties remain in the estimated surface CO₂ fluxes due to the sparseness of current surface CO2 measurements assimilated by inverse models (Peters et 20 21 al., 2010; Bruhwiler et al., 2011). Peylin et al. (2013) performed an intercomparison study of 22 estimated surface CO₂ fluxes from 11 different inversion systems. The results showed that the 23 estimated surface CO₂ flux uptake in the NH, where the atmospheric CO₂ network is dense, is 24 similar across the inversion systems; meanwhile, the established flux is noticeably different 25 across the inversion systems for the tropics and SH, where the atmospheric CO₂ network is 26 sparse.

Regionally, however, the longitudinal breakdown of all the NH sinks appears to be much more variable than the total flux itself. Therefore, additional observations in a sparse CO₂ observation network region are necessary to reduce uncertainty in estimating the surface CO₂ flux. Maksyutov et al. (2003) showed that additional observations in the Asia region show the largest effect and reduce the uncertainty in the estimated regional CO₂ fluxes for Siberia during 1992-1996 by time-independent synthesis inversion. Chevallier et al. (2010) also





argued that an extension of the observation network toward Eastern Europe and Siberia is necessary to reduce uncertainty in estimated fluxes by inversion methods. Despite the necessity of additional observations in this region, only a few atmospheric CO₂ inversion studies have been conducted using observations in this region due to the deficiency of observations (Quegan et al., 2011).

6 Meanwhile, Reuter et al. (2014) and Feng et al. (2015) reported that the European terrestrial 7 CO2 uptake inferred by the satellite-retrieved dry-air column-average model fraction of CO2 8 (XCO₂) is larger than that inferred by a bottom-up inventory approach or inverse modeling 9 systems using surface-based in situ CO₂ atmospheric concentrations. Though a broad spatial 10 coverage of XCO₂ from satellite radiance observations provides useful information for 11 inversion systems, the current XCO₂ has low accuracy and regional biases of a few tenths of a 12 ppm, which may hamper the accuracy of estimated surface CO₂ fluxes (Miller et al., 2007; 13 Chevallier et al., 2007). Therefore, in situ observations determined by surface measurements 14 in remote regions are necessary to more accurately estimate the surface CO₂ flux in the 15 inverse models.

16 To supply additional observations over Siberia to inverse modeling studies, several efforts to 17 observe the atmospheric CO₂ concentrations in Siberia have been conducted. For example, the 18 Max Plank Institute (MPI) operates a tower (since April 2009), accompanied by aircraft 19 measurements (from 1998 to 2005 with 12 to 21 day intervals) at Zotino (ZOTTO; 60.75°N, 20 89.38°E) (Lloyd et al., 2002; Winderlich et al. 2010). In addition, the Airborne Extensive 21 Regional Observations in Siberia (YAK-AEROBO) aircraft campaign in 2006 (Paris et al., 22 2008) and Trans-Siberian Observation Into the Chemistry of the Atmosphere (TROICA) 23 project (Turnbull et al., 2009) have measured CO₂ and other chemical species. However these 24 data collected during specific seasons or over only a few years do not provide the long-term 25 CO₂ concentration data necessary to be used as a constraint in the inverse modeling system.

The Center for Global Environmental Research (CGER) of the National Institute for Environmental Studies (NIES) of Japan with the cooperation of the Russian Academy of Science (RAS) constructed a tower network called the Japan-Russia Siberian Tall Tower Inland Observation Network (JR-STATION) in 2002 to measure the continuous CO₂ and CH₄ concentrations (eight towers in central Siberia and one tower in eastern Siberia) and measure the vertical profile of CO₂ from the planetary boundary layer (PBL) to the lower free troposphere by aircraft at one site (Sasakawa et al., 2010; 2013). Saeki et al. (2013) estimated





the monthly surface CO₂ flux for 68 subcontinental regions by using the fixed-lag Kalman smoother and NIES-TM transport model with JR-STATION data. They reported that the inclusion of additional Siberian observation data has an impact on the inversion results showing larger interannual variability over northeastern Europe as well as Siberia, and reduces the uncertainty of surface CO₂ uptake.

6 CarbonTracker, developed by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration Earth 7 System Research Laboratory (NOAA ESRL) (Peters et al., 2007), is an atmospheric CO2 inverse modeling system that estimates optimized weekly surface CO₂ flux on a 1°×1° 8 9 horizontal resolution by using the Ensemble Kalman Filter (EnKF). Since the original 10 CarbonTracker release (Peters et al 2007), a series of improvements have been made with 11 subsequent releases. These include increasing the sites from which CO₂ data are assimilated, 12 increasing the resolution of atmospheric transport, improving the simulation of atmospheric 13 convection in TM5, and the use of multiple first-guess flux models to estimate dependence on 14 priors. These improvements are documented at http://carbontracker.noaa.gov. Several studies 15 have focused on Asia using CarbonTracker (Kim et al., 2012; 2014a; 2014b, Zhang et al., 16 2014a, 2014b). Schneising et al. (2011) showed that SCanning Imaging Absorption 17 spectroMeter for Atmospheric CHartographY (SCIAMACHY) retrieval data indicate a 18 stronger North American boreal forest uptake and weaker Russian boreal forest uptake 19 compared to CarbonTracker within their uncertainties. On the other hand, Zhang et al. 20 (2014b) estimated surface CO₂ fluxes in Asia by assimilating CONTRAIL (Machida et al., 21 2008) aircraft CO₂ measurements into the CarbonTracker framework. The results show that 22 surface CO₂ uptake over the Eurasian Boreal (EB) region slightly increases. However, the 23 surface measurements data over the EB region are still not used in the study by Zhang et al. 24 (2014b). Kim et al. (2014b) showed that comprehensive coverage of additional observations 25 in an observation sparse region, e.g., Siberia, is necessary to estimate the surface CO₂ flux in 26 these areas as accurately as that obtained for North America in the CarbonTracker framework 27 using an influence matrix calculation.

In this study, the impact of additional Siberian observations on the optimized surface CO₂ flux over the globe and Asian region within CarbonTracker (The version of CarbonTracker used in this study is based on the CarbonTracker 2010 release) are investigated by comparing the results of estimated surface CO₂ fluxes from two experiments with and without Siberian observations. Section 2 presents the methodology including a priori flux data, atmospheric





- 1 CO₂ observations, and experimental framework. Section 3 presents the results, and Section 4
- 2 provides a summary and conclusions.
- 3
- 4 2 Methodology

5 2.1 Inversion method

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

8
$$F(x, y, t) = \lambda_r \cdot F_{bio}(x, y, t) + \lambda_r \cdot F_{ocn}(x, y, t) + F_{ff}(x, y, t) + F_{fire}(x, y, t),$$
(1)

9 where $F_{bio}(x, y, t)$, $F_{ocn}(x, y, t)$, $F_{ff}(x, y, t)$, and $F_{fire}(x, y, t)$ are the emissions from the 10 biosphere, the ocean, fossil fuel, and fires. $\lambda_{\rm r}$ is the scaling factor to be optimized in the data 11 assimilation process, corresponding to 156 ecoregions around the globe (126 land and 30 12 ocean regions). In the land, the ecoregions are defined as following the Transcom regions 13 (Gurney et al., 2002) with ecosystem classification defined Olson et al. (1992). In the ocean, 14 30 ocean regions are defined following Jacobson et al. (2007). The scaling factor spans 5 15 weeks with 1 week resolution. In each assimilation cycle, the entire scaling factor is updated 16 by 1 week observations by a time stepping approach. The assimilation window moves 17 forward by 1 week at each assimilation cycle. After 5 assimilation cycles, the first part of the 18 scaling factor analyzed by 5 weeks observations is regarded as the optimized scaling factor.

19 The EnKF data assimilation method used in CarbonTracker is the ensemble square root filter 20 (EnSRF) suggested by Whitaker and Hamill (2002). The analysis equation for data 21 assimilation is expressed as

22
$$\mathbf{x}^{a} = \mathbf{K}\mathbf{y}^{o} + (\mathbf{I}_{n} - \mathbf{K}\mathbf{H})\mathbf{x}_{b},$$
 (2)

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





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

where \mathbf{P}^{b} is the background error covariance; \mathbf{R} is the observation error covariance or model 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 be calculated as

5
$$\mathbf{P}\mathbf{H}^{\mathrm{T}} \approx \frac{1}{m-1} \left(\mathbf{x}_{1}^{\prime}, \mathbf{x}_{2}^{\prime}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{m}^{\prime} \right) \cdot \left(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}_{1}^{\prime}, \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}_{2}^{\prime}, \dots, \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}_{m}^{\prime} \right)^{\mathrm{T}},$$
 (4)

6
$$\mathbf{HPH}^{\mathrm{T}} \approx \frac{1}{m-1} (\mathbf{Hx}_{1}^{\prime}, \mathbf{Hx}_{2}^{\prime}, ..., \mathbf{Hx}_{m}^{\prime}) \cdot (\mathbf{Hx}_{1}^{\prime}, \mathbf{Hx}_{2}^{\prime}, ..., \mathbf{Hx}_{m}^{\prime})^{\mathrm{T}},$$
 (5)

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

8 To reduce the sampling error and filter divergence due to the underestimation of background 9 error covariance in the EnKF, the covariance localization method is used (Houtekamer and 10 Mitchell, 2001). The localization is not applied to Marine Boundary Layer (MBL) sites (e.g. 11 observation sites in Antarctica), because the MBL sites are considered as including 12 information on large footprints of flux signals (Peters et al., 2007). The physical distance 13 between the scaling factors cannot be defined. Therefore, localization is performed based on 14 the linear correlation coefficient between the ensemble of the scaling factor and the ensemble 15 of the model CO₂ concentration (Peters et al., 2007). The Kalman gain with an insignificant 16 statistical value is set to zero after a statistical significance test, 95% significance level in a 17 student's T-test, is performed on the correlations.

18 2.2 A priori flux data

Four types of a priori and imposed CO_2 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 Ecosytem Exchange (NEE) is calculated from monthly mean Net Primary Production (NPP) and ecosystem respiration (RE) by using a simple temperature Q_{10}^{-1} relationship and a linear

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 scaling of photosynthesis with solar radiation (Olsen and Randerson, 2004); (2) the prior 2 ocean flux from air-sea partial pressure differences based on Jacobson et al. (2007). Short-3 term flux variability is derived from the atmospheric model wind speeds via the gas transfer 4 coefficient; (3) biomass burning emissions obtained from GFED v3.1 (van der Werf et al., 5 2010); (4) the prescribed fossil fuel emission from the Carbon Dioxide Information and 6 Analysis Center (CDIAC) and the Emission Database for Global Atmospheric Research 7 (EDGAR) databases

8 2.3 Atmospheric CO₂ observations

9 Atmospheric CO₂ mole fraction observations measured at surface observation sites are used in 10 this study. Figure 1 shows the observation network and Table 1 presents observation site 11 information for the Asian and European regions. Three sets of atmospheric CO₂ observations 12 data are assimilated: (1) surface CO₂ observations distributed by the NOAA ESRL (observation sites operated by NOAA, Environment Canada (EC), the Australian 13 14 Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organization (CSIRO), the National 15 Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR), and Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory 16 (LBNL)); (2)World Data Centre for Greenhouse Gases (WDCGG, 17 http://ds.data.jma.go.jp/wdcgg/); (3) JR-STATION observation data over Siberia operated by 18 CGER/NIES (Sasakawa et al., 2010; 2013). The JR-STATION sites consist of nine towers 19 (eight towers in west Siberia and one tower in east Siberia). At the BRZ (Berezorechka) site, 20 in West Siberia, a light aircraft measures the vertical profiles of CO₂ from the PBL to the 21 lower free troposphere (LFT). Atmospheric air was sampled at four levels on the BRZ tower 22 and at two levels on the other eight towers. Sampled CO₂ data were calibrated against the 23 NIES 09 CO₂ scale which are lower than the WMO-X2007 CO₂ scale by 0.07 ppm at around 24 360 ppm and consistent in the range between 380 and 400 ppm (Machida et al., 2011). 25 Detailed description of JR-STATION sites can be found in Sasakawa et al. (2010; 2013). 26 Daytime averaged CO₂ concentrations (1200-1600 LST, representing the time when active 27 vertical mixing occurred in the PBL) for each day from the time series at the highest level of 28 tower measurements are used in the data assimilation.

In CarbonTracker, model data mismatch (MDM) is determined by requiring innovation χ^2 statistics in Eq. (6) become one at each observation site (Peters et al. 2007).





1
$$\chi^2 = \frac{(\mathbf{y}^\circ - \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}^\circ)^2}{\mathbf{H}\mathbf{P}^\circ \mathbf{H}^\mathrm{T} + \mathbf{R}},$$
 (6)

The site categories and model-data mismatch values are assigned the same value as in previous studies (Peters et al., 2007; Kim et al. 2014b; Zhang et al., 2014b). For the JR-STATION sites, the model-data mismatch is set to 3 ppm, which is the same as for tower measurements in North America. The location of each observation site is represented in Fig. 1.

6 **2.4 Experimental framework**

7 Two experiments with different set of observations are conducted in this study: one 8 experiment, the CNTL experiment, is conducted by using set of observations without 9 observations in the Siberia region (black color observation sites represented in Fig. 1); the 10 other experiment, the JR experiment, is conducted by using all available observations 11 including the Siberia data (all observation sites represented in Fig. 1). The TM5 model (Krol et al., 2005) which calculates four-dimensional CO₂ concentration field runs at global 3°×2° 12 13 horizontal resolution and a nesting domain centered in Asia with $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ horizontal resolution. 14 The nesting domain is shown in Fig. 1. Meteorological variables for running the TM5 15 transport model are from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) forecast model output. The experimental period is from 1 January 2000 to 31 16 December 2009. The observation data commonly used for CNTL and JR experiments exists 17 18 from 2000, but the additional Siberia data for the JR experiment exist from 2002. The number 19 of ensembles is 150, and the scaling factor includes 5 weeks of lag, as in previous studies 20 (Peters et al., 2007; Peters et al., 2010; Peylin et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2012, 2014a, 2014b; 21 Zhang et al., 2014a, 2014b).

22

23 3 Results

24 3.1 Characteristics of carbon fluxes

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





1 Figure 2 presents the spatial distribution of the averaged prior and optimized biosphere and 2 ocean fluxes of the two experiments and the difference between the CNTL and JR experiments from 2002 to 2009. The optimized biosphere flux uptakes of the CNTL and JR 3 experiments are greater than the prior flux uptakes (Figs. 2a, c, d). The differences in fluxes 4 between the CNTL and JR experiments are distinctive in EB (Siberia) where the new 5 6 additional observations are assimilated (Fig. 2b). The magnitude of surface CO₂ uptakes 7 decreases in that region by assimilating JR-STATION observation data. On the contrary, the 8 average surface CO₂ uptakes in other regions, such as North America, Europe, the western 9 North Pacific Ocean, and the Atlantic Ocean, increase by assimilating JR-STATION 10 observation data.

11 The difference in the optimized CO_2 flux between the two experiments is analyzed. Table 2 12 presents prior and optimized fluxes with their uncertainties for global total, global land, global 13 ocean, and TransCom regions in the NH. Flux uncertainty is calculated as one-sigma standard 14 deviation of the fluxes estimated, assuming Gaussian errors. The global total optimized CO₂ fluxes are similar for each experiment at -5.69±1.84 Pg C yr⁻¹ (CNTL experiment) and -15 5.60±1.72 Pg C yr⁻¹ (JR experiment), compared with the global prior flux of -3.94±2.23 Pg C 16 yr^{-1} . The global land sink in the CNTL experiment is larger by 0.07 Pg C yr^{-1} than that of the 17 18 JR experiment, and the global ocean sink in the CNTL experiment is smaller by 0.08 Pg C yr 19 ¹ than that of the JR experiment. The additional observations do not make any discrepancy 20 between two the experiments with respect to the global total sink, and they indicate only a 21 small difference in the land-ocean CO₂ flux partitioning. The estimated CO₂ flux uncertainty 22 in the land region from the JR experiment is smaller than that of the CNTL experiment 23 because new observations provide additional constraints on the optimized CO₂ flux. For specific regions in the NH, a large difference of optimized surface CO2 flux is observed in the 24 EB. The surface CO₂ uptakes in the EB of the CNTL experiment is -1.17 ± 0.93 Pg C yr⁻¹ and 25 26 that of the JR experiment is -0.78±0.70 Pg C yr⁻¹, respectively. The uncertainty of the 27 optimized surface CO₂ uptake in the EB from the JR experiment is reduced by assimilating 28 additional observations. On the other hand, the surface CO₂ uptake increases in other regions 29 of the NH.

Figure 3 presents the spatial distribution of the optimized biosphere fluxes difference between
 the CNTL and JR experiments from 2002 to 2009. The difference of optimized surface CO₂
 flux is calculated as in Fig. 2b. The largest difference of optimized surface CO₂ fluxes





between the two experiments occurs in Siberia. The uptake of optimized surface CO₂ flux in this region is reduced all years except 2003. In 2003, extreme drought occurred in the northern mid-latitudes (Knorr et al., 2007) and Europe (Ciais et al., 2005), which resulted in increased NEE (i.e. reduced uptake of CO₂). Despite the number of observations used in the optimization in 2003 being relatively smaller than that in the later experiment period, new observations in the JR experiment provide information on the reduced uptake of optimized surface CO₂ fluxes in 2003 in Siberia.

8 Optimized surface CO₂ fluxes averaged from 2002 to 2009 for each ecoregion in the NH are 9 shown in Table 3. In the EB, optimized surface CO₂ uptake from the JR experiment is smaller 10 (larger) than that of the CNTL experiment in the Conifer Forest and Northern Taiga (in other 11 ecoregions). In the ET, Europe, North American Boreal (NAB), and North American 12 Temperate (NAT) regions, the optimized surface CO₂ uptakes from the JR experiment are 13 larger than those of the CNTL experiment in most ecoregions.

Figure 4 shows the histogram of annual and average optimized surface CO₂ fluxes over global total, global land, and global ocean. As shown in Table 2, the differences between annual and average optimized surface CO₂ fluxes over the globe are small and the average is almost the same for the two experiments (Fig. 4a), and the differences in global land and ocean are also small (Figs. 4b, c). The optimized surface CO₂ fluxes from each experiment show similar interannual variability, which implies that the additional Siberian observations do not affect the interannual variability of global surface CO₂ uptakes.

Figure 5 is the same as Fig. 4 but covers land regions in the NH. Although the optimized surface CO_2 fluxes over global total are similar, those over each TransCom region are different in each experiment. The difference between the two experiments is largest in the EB as expected (Fig. 5a). The JR experiment exhibits a weaker surface CO_2 uptake in the EB than does the CNTL experiment except for 2003 as shown in Fig. 3b, whereas the JR experiment exhibits a greater surface CO_2 uptake in the other regions, especially over Europe in 2008 and 2009, than the CNTL experiment (Figs. 5b, c, d, and e).

Figure 6 shows monthly optimized surface CO₂ fluxes averaged from 2002 to 2009 with their uncertainties from both experiments. The largest difference in surface CO₂ flux between the two experiments occurs in June and July, which represent the active season of the terrestrial ecosystem with a large surface CO₂ flux uncertainty. The JR experiment exhibits a weaker surface CO₂ summer uptake in the EB (Fig. 6a) and slightly greater uptake in the other





1 regions (Figs. 6b, c, d, and e). Additional Siberian data provides information on the surface

2 CO₂ uptake by vegetation activity in the NH summer.

3 3.2 Comparison with observations

4 Table 4 presents the average bias of the model CO₂ concentrations calculated by the 5 background and optimized fluxes of the two experiments at each observation site located in 6 Asia and Europe from 2002 to 2009. The bias is calculated by subtracting the observed CO₂ 7 concentrations from the model CO₂ concentrations. Biases of the JR experiment are smaller 8 than those of the CNTL experiment at the JR-STATION sites, which indicates that the 9 optimized surface CO₂ flux of the JR experiment is more consistent with the observed CO₂ 10 concentrations than that in the CNTL experiment. The negative bias at five JR-STATION 11 sites (DEM, IGR, KRZ, NOY, and YAK) located in the forest area of the EB is reduced 12 compared with those of the CNTL experiment, which indicates that the optimized surface 13 CO_2 uptake of the CNTL experiment is overestimated with respect to CO_2 concentration 14 observations in Siberia. Otherwise, the reduced surface CO₂ uptake of the JR experiment 15 exhibits more consistent model CO₂ concentrations in this region. Model CO₂ concentrations 16 calculated by background surface CO₂ fluxes from the JR experiment are also more consistent 17 with the observations, implying that background scaling factors of the JR experiment are 18 more accurate than those of the CNTL experiment. In addition, the average innovation χ^2 -19 statistics at the JR-STATION sites are generally close to 1, implying that the defined MDM is 20 an appropriate value. Therefore, by assimilating JR-STATION observation data, the JR 21 experiments exhibits better results than the CNTL experiment at observation sites in EB.

22 However, at observation sites in ET and Europe, the difference in biases of the two 23 experiments is relatively small and not significant enough to determine which experiment 24 exhibits better results. This is due to the small difference of optimized surface CO₂ fluxes 25 between the two experiments in the ET region. The observation sites in Europe are located far 26 from Eastern Europe and Siberia as shown in Fig. 1 so that they are not sensitive to the 27 change of surface CO2 uptake in those regions. In addition, the MDM at four sites (BAL, BSC, 28 HUN, and OBN) in Europe is assigned as 7.5 ppm, the largest value in CarbonTracker, due to 29 poor representation of the transport model at these sites.





1 3.3 Effect of additional observations

The effects of additional observations on the optimized surface CO₂ flux are investigated.
Figure 7 shows the average, maximum, average in summer (June, July, and August) and
average in winter (December, January, February) uncertainty reductions from 2002 to 2009.
The uncertainty reduction is calculated as follows:

$$6 \qquad \text{UR} = \frac{\sigma_{CNTL} - \sigma_{JR}}{\sigma_{CNTL}} \times 100(\%), \tag{7}$$

7 where $\sigma_{\rm CNTL}$ and $\sigma_{\rm JR}$ are one-sigma standard deviations of the optimized scaling factor for 8 CNTL experiment and JR experiment, respectively, assuming Gaussian errors. The maximum 9 uncertainty reduction is the greatest value in any week in the period 2002 to 2009 in each 10 ecoregion. As expected, the average uncertainty reduction is readily apparent in the Confer 11 Forest of EB, which has additional observations (Fig. 7a). The uncertainty reduction of Asia 12 and Europe, especially in the forest of Siberia and Eastern Europe, is greater than for other 13 regions. The spatial pattern of the maximum uncertainty reduction is similar to that of the 14 average values, but the magnitude of the maximum uncertainty reduction is higher than the 15 average value, which implies that additional observations sometimes have a great impact on 16 the optimization of surface CO₂ flux (Fig. 7b). The uncertainty reduction of EB in summer is 17 higher than that in winter (Figs. 7c, d). For example, the average value of the Conifer Forest 18 of EB is 29.1%, the maximum value is 78.6%, the average value in summer is 36.3% and the 19 average value in winter is 29.7%, respectively. The result shows that the uncertainties of the 20 optimized surface CO₂ fluxes are reduced by the additional observations.

21 To investigate the impact of individual observations, the self-sensitivities are calculated by 22 the method demonstrated by Kim et al. (2014b). The self-sensitivity is the diagonal element of 23 the influence matrix which measures the impact of individual observations in the observation 24 space on the optimized surface CO₂ flux. Figure 8 shows the self-sensitivities of the two 25 experiments averaged from 2002 to 2009. The average self-sensitivities at the JR-STATION 26 sites are as large as those at the tower measurements in North America, i.e., Continuous site category observations in Fig. 1. The global average self-sensitivities are 4.83% (CNTL 27 28 experiment) and 5.08% (JR experiment), and the cumulative impacts for the 5 weeks 29 assimilation window are 18.79% (CNTL experiment) and 19.33% (JR experiment). The 30 average self-sensitivities of additional observations are higher than those of other sites, 31 providing much information for estimating surface CO₂ fluxes.





1 To assess the observation impact on the optimized surface CO₂ fluxes, the root mean square 2 differences (RMSDs) between the optimized surface CO₂ fluxes and the background fluxes at 3 each assimilation step in summer are calculated (Fig. 9). The RMSD of the analyzed surface CO₂ fluxes constrained by one week of observations from the background fluxes in JR 4 5 experiment is greater than that in CNTL experiment (Figs. 9a, b). The RMSD values in 6 Siberia are as high as those in North America, implying that surface CO₂ fluxes in Siberia are 7 analyzed by direct observations at the first cycle. This is consistent with the high value of 8 self-sensitivities at JR-STATION sites as shown in Fig. 8b. Kim et al. (2014b) showed that 9 the RMSD in Asia increases after 5 weeks of optimization, which implies that it takes 5 10 weeks to affect the surface CO₂ fluxes in Siberia by the transport of the CO₂ concentrations 11 observed in remote regions. However, by assimilating the CO₂ concentrations observed at the 12 JR-STATION sites in Siberia, the observation impact on the optimized surface CO₂ fluxes in 13 Siberia increases after 1 week of optimization (Fig. 9b).

On the other hands, the RMSD in the Siberia region increases after 5 weeks of optimization in the CNTL experiment compared to that in the JR experiment (Figs. 9c, d), which corresponds to the reduced uptake of optimized surface CO₂ fluxes in JR experiment as shown in Fig. 2b.

17 **3.4 Comparison with other results**

18 A comparison of the optimized surface CO_2 flux in this study with other inversion studies is 19 presented in Table 5. In the EB, the land sink from the JR experiment (-0.78±0.70 Pg C yr⁻¹) is smaller than those reported by Zhang et al. (2014b) (-1.02 Pg C yr⁻¹), Maki et al. (2010) (-20 1.46 ± 0.41 Pg C yr⁻¹), and the CT2013B results (-1.09\pm4.03 Pg C yr⁻¹), but higher than those 21 reported by Saeki et al. (2013) (-0.35±0.41 Pg C yr⁻¹; including biomass burning 0.11 Pg C yr⁻¹ 22 ¹). Because CT2013B and Zhang et al. (2014b) use the same inversion framework as this 23 24 study, the reduced land sink is caused by assimilating additional observations. The difference 25 in land sink between the JR experiment and Saeki et al. (2013) is caused by a different 26 inversion system framework.

27 In Europe, though the long-term average land sink from the JR experiment (-0.35±0.65 Pg C

28 yr⁻¹) is similar to that of CTE2014 (-0.33±0.80 Pg C yr⁻¹), the average land sink from 2008-

- 29 2009 of the JR experiment (-0.75±0.63 Pg C yr⁻¹) is much higher than that of CTE2014 (-
- 30 0.11±0.38 Pg C yr⁻¹). According to Reuter et al. (2014), despite the different experiment
- 31 period, the land sink of Europe in 2010 (-1.02±0.30 Pg C yr⁻¹) estimated by using satellite





observations is much higher than previous inversion studies (e.g., Peylin et al. 2013) using only surface observations. The land sinks of the JR experiment in 2008 and 2009 are -0.67 and -0.75 Pg C yr⁻¹, respectively, whereas much lower uptakes (-0.21, -0.39 Pg C yr⁻¹) are obtained for the CNTL experiment. Overall, the optimized surface CO₂ fluxes of JR experiment are comparable to those of other previous studies.

6

7 4 Summary and conclusions

8 In this study, to investigate the effect of the Siberian observations, which are not used in the 9 previous studies using CarbonTracker, on the optimization of surface CO_2 fluxes, two 10 experiments, named CNTL and JR, with different sets of observations from 2000 to 2009 11 were conducted and optimized surface CO_2 fluxes from 2002 to 2009 were analyzed.

12 The global balances of the sources and sinks of surface CO₂ fluxes were maintained for both experiments, while the distribution of the optimized surface CO₂ fluxes changed. The 13 14 magnitude of the optimized biosphere surface CO₂ uptake in EB (Siberia) was decreased, 15 whereas it was increased in other regions of the NH (Eurasian Temperate, Europe, North 16 American Boreal, and North American Temperate). The land sink of Europe increased 17 significantly for 2008 and 2009, which is consistent with the other inversion results inferred 18 by satellite observations. Additional observations are used to correct the surface CO₂ uptake 19 in June and July, the active vegetation uptake season, in terms of monthly average optimized 20 surface CO₂ fluxes. As a result, the additional observations do not exhibit a change in the 21 magnitude of the global surface CO₂ flux balance because they provide detailed information 22 about the Siberian land sink instead of the global land sink magnitude, when they are used in 23 the well-constructed inversion modeling system.

The model CO₂ concentration using the background and optimized surface CO₂ fluxes in the JR experiment are more consistent with the CO₂ observations than those in the CNTL experiment, showing lower biases in the EB region. On the other hand, the differences of biases in ET and Europe between the two experiments are not distinguishable.

The new observations provide useful information on the optimized surface CO₂ fluxes. The observation impact of the Siberian observation data is investigated by means of uncertainty reduction and self-sensitivity calculated by an influence matrix. Additional observations reduce the uncertainty of the optimized surface CO₂ fluxes in Asia and Europe, mainly in the





1 EB (Siberia), where the new observations are used in the assimilation. The average self-2 sensitivities of the JR-STATION sites are as large as other continuous measurements (e.g., 3 tower measurements in North America). The global average self-sensitivity and cumulative impact of the JR experiment are higher than that of the CNTL experiment, which implies that 4 5 the individual observation impact of JR-STATION data on optimized surface CO₂ fluxes is 6 higher than the average values. The RMSD of the analyzed surface CO₂ fluxes constrained by 7 one week of observations from the background fluxes also suggests that new Siberian 8 observations provide a larger amount of information on the optimized surface CO₂ fluxes.

9 This study reaffirms that the JR-STATION data affect the longitudinal distribution of the total 10 NH sinks, especially in the EB and Europe, when it is used by atmospheric CO₂ inversion 11 modeling. In the future, it is expected that Siberian observations will be used as an important 12 constraint for estimating surface CO₂ fluxes over the NH with various CO₂ observations (e.g. 13 satellite and aircraft measurements) simultaneously.

14

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

Site	Location	Latitude	Longitude	Height	Laboratory	MDM
				(m)		(ppm)
AZV	Azovo, Russia	54.71°N	73.03°E	110	NIES	3
BRZ	Berezorechka, Russia	56.15°N	84.33°E	168	NIES	3
DEM	Demyanskoe, Russia	59.79°N	70.87°E	63	NIES	3
IGR	Igrim, Russia	63.19°N	64.41°E	9	NIES	3
KRS	Karasevoe, Russia	58.25°N	82.42°E	76	NIES	3
NOY	Noyabrsk, Russia	63.43°N	75.78°E	108	NIES	3
SVV	Savvushka, Russia	51.33°N	82.13°E	495	NIES	3
VGN	Vaganovo, Russia	54.50°N	62.32°E	192	NIES	3
YAK	Yakutsk, Russia	62.09°N	129.36°E	264	NIES	3
WLG	Mt. Waliguan, China	36.29°N	100.9°E	3810	CMA/ESRL	1.5
BKT	Bukit Kototabang, Indonesia	0.20°S	100.312°E	864	ESRL	7.5
WIS	Sede Boker, Israelr,	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	7.5
BSC	Black Sea, Constanta, Romania	44.17°N	28.68°E	3	ESRL	7.5
HUN	Hegyhatsal, Hungary	46.95°N	16.65°E	248	ESRL	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	2,5
PAL	Pallas-Sammaltunturi, GaW Station, Finland	67.97°N	24.12°E	560	ESRL	2.5
STM	Ocean Station M, Norway	66.00°N	2.00°E	0	ESRL	1.5





1 Table 2. A prior and optimized surface CO₂ fluxes and their one-sigma uncertainties (Pg C yr⁻

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	-0.32 ± 0.41	-0.37 ± 0.40
Europe	-0.02 ± -0.76	-0.22±0.67	-0.38 ± 0.64
North American Boreal	-0.04 ± 0.61	-0.30±0.38	-0.36 ± 0.38
North American Temperate	-0.03 ± 0.66	-0.56 ± 0.41	-0.60 ± 0.41
Global total	-3.94 ± 2.23	-5.59 ± 1.84	-5.60 ± 1.72
Global land	-1.36 ± 1.90	-3.64±1.57	-3.57±1.43
Global ocean	-2.58 ± 1.18	-1.95 ± 0.97	-2.03 ± 0.96

2 ¹ Region⁻¹) of global total, land, and ocean averaged spatially from 2002 to 2009.



2 1



American Boreal, and N	orth Americ	can Temper	ate region av	veraged over	2002 - 2009					
Ecosystem type	Eurasia	1 Boreal	Eurasian	Temperate	Eur	ope	North A Boi	merican 'eal	North A Temp	merican erate
	CNTL	JR	CNTL	JR	CNTL	JR	CNTL	JR	CNTL	JR
Conifer Forest	-0.816	-0.338	-0.005	-0.005	-0.068	-0.071	-0.107	-0.121	-0.055	-0.070
Broadleaf Forest	-0.006	-0.014	-0.004	-0.005	-0.005	-0.005	0.000	0.000	-0.002	-0.002
Mixed Forest	-0.050	-0.090	-0.030	-0.035	-0.026	-0.063	-0.053	-0.054	-0.020	-0.021
Grass/Shrub	-0.035	-0.056	-0.248	-0.287	-0.017	-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	-0.146	-0.189	-0.008	-0.010	-0.008	-0.009	-0.057	-0.087	-0.010	-0.011
Fields/Woods/Savanna	-0.013	-0.022	-0.005	-0.006	0.003	-0.010	-0.004	-0.004	-0.149	-0.154
Northern Taiga	-0.094	-0.030	0.000	0.000	-0.006	-0.007	-0.066	-0.078	0.000	0.000
Forest/Field	-0.003	-0.008	0.006	0.005	-0.087	-0.106	-0.001	-0.001	-0.013	-0.017
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	-0.011	-0.078	0.000	0.000	-0.216	-0.227
Wooded tundra	-0.003	-0.005	0.000	0.000	0.003	0.003	-0.003	-0.003	0.000	0.000
Water	0.000	0.000	-0.000	-0.000	-0.001	-0.001	-0.001	-0.001	-0.001	-0.001

Table 3. The optimized surface CO₂ fluxes (Pg C yr⁻¹ Region⁻¹) of ecosystem types at Eurasian Boreal, Eurasian Temperate, Europe, North





- 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).

		MDM	CN	ГL		JR	
Region	Site		Bias	Bias	Bias	Bias	Innovation
		[ppm]	(background)	(optimized)	(background)	(optimized)	χ2
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





1 Table 5. Optimized surface CO₂ fluxes (Pg C yr⁻¹) from this study and other inversion studies.

CO2 IIux	
This study Eurasian -0.77±0.70 2002-2009 JI Boreal	R experiment
Saeki et al. (2013) Eurasian -0.35±0.61 2000-2009 Usin	luding biomass g (0.11Pg C yr-1), ng JR-STATION observations
Zhang et al. (2014b) Eurasian -1.02±0.91 2006-2010 Usi Boreal -1.02±0.91 2006-2010	ng CONTRAL
Maki et al. (2010) Eurasian -1.46±0.41 2001-2007 Boreal	
CT2013B Eurasian -1.09±4.03 2001-2012 Boreal	
This study Europe $\begin{array}{c} -0.38 \pm 0.64 & 2002 - 2009 \\ -0.75 \pm 0.63 & 2008 - 2009 \end{array}$ JI	R experiment
Reuter et al. (2014) Europe -1.02±0.30 2010 Usin	ng satellite data
CTE2014 Europe -0.33±0.80 -0.11±0.38 2001-2013 2008-2009	







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 (△ : MBL; ○: Continental; ◇: Mixed land/ocean and mountain; ☆:
Continuous; □: Difficult). JR-STATION observation sites are represented in red color.







2

Figure 2. Average biosphere and ocean fluxes (gC m⁻² yr⁻¹) from 2002 to 2009 of (a) the prior flux, (b) the difference between the optimized fluxes in the JR and CNTL experiments, (c) the optimized flux in the CNTL experiment, and (d) the optimized flux in the JR experiment. 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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Figure 3. The difference between the optimized biosphere fluxes from the JR and CNTL experiment (g C m⁻² 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.

8







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







3 Figure 5. Annual and average biosphere and ocean fluxes (Pg C yr⁻¹) from the CNTL (blue 4 bar) and JR (red bar) experiment aggregated over the (a) Eurasian Boreal, (b) Eurasia 5 Temperate, (c) North American Boreal, (d) North American Temperate, and (e) Europe. 6







2

3 Figure 6. The monthly optimized biosphere fluxes averaged from 2002 to 2009 of CNTL 4 (blue) and JR (red) experiment with their uncertainties over the (a) Eurasian Boreal, (b) 5 Eurasian Temperate, (c) North American Boreal, (d) North American Temperate, and (e) 6 Europe.







2

Figure 7. (a) Average uncertainty reduction (%) from 2002 to 2009, and (b) maximum uncertainty reduction (%) in any week from 2002 to 2009, average uncertainty reduction (%) in (c) summer, and (d) winter for the estimated uncertainty of the JR experiment relative to that of the CNTL experiment. Red (blue) denotes relatively high (low) value of uncertainty reduction.

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







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