

1 **Carbon balance, atmospheric CO₂ variability and meridional CO₂ flux**
2 **distribution using forward and inverse models**

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33

34 **Abstract.**

35

36 Ways to evaluate the quality of inverse model estimated fluxes of carbon dioxide (CO₂) are being
37 developed in this work. A chemistry-transport model and two sets of inverse model-estimated surface
38 fluxes are used for simulating CO₂ in the atmosphere for the period 1984-2006. The results are
39 compared with an observations-based data product and flask observations at surface sites and aircraft
40 profiles. The cumulative growth rates are reproduced within 0.3 ppm at several sites with data coverage
41 over the full analysis period, and the cumulative increase of the atmospheric burden of CO₂ is estimated
42 to be 82.2 PgC. The airborne fraction of CO₂ was lower by about 9% in the 1990s compared to an
43 average value of 59% for the 1980s and 2000s. The spatial gradients between sites are well represented
44 by the model, commonly within 1.0 ppm at the remote sites, indicating the realistic representation of
45 surface flux gradients. The forward simulation is able to capture the CO₂ seasonal cycle and growth rate
46 variability at most of the 139 sites considered here with at least 6 years of data coverage over the 1996-
47 2005 period. However, further detailed comparison of model and observed CO₂ latitudinal gradient
48 suggests that mean carbon uptake, derived by inversion of CO₂ data using multiple forward models, is
49 overestimated in the northern hemisphere with respect to the southern hemisphere by 0.46 PgC yr⁻¹. A
50 combination of forward transport and flux inversion model results suggests net carbon fluxes of -2.0, 1.6
51 and -2.4 PgC yr⁻¹ (excluding fossil fuel consumption) across the earth's surface in the 90-15°N, 15°N-
52 15°S, and 15-90°S latitude bands, respectively, during 2000-2002. These flux gradients remained fairly
53 constant across the span our analysis of 1984-2006.

54

54 **1. Introduction**

55

56 The contribution of atmospheric CO₂ to global warming is the highest among all anthropogenically-
57 produced gases, and direct measurements have been started in the late 1950s [Keeling et al., 1989 and
58 references therein]. However, it is still challenging to account for the budget of CO₂ in the earth system.

59 The partitioning of land and oceanic sinks still have large uncertainty [since Tans et al., 1990; Keeling
60 1996a], the amount of emission due to fossil fuel burning that remains in the atmosphere, the so called
61 airborne fraction (AF) or residual flux as defined here, can be debated [Canadell et al., 2007; Khatiwala
62 et al., 2009], and bias exists in the simulated atmospheric-CO₂ latitudinal gradient [Denning et al.,
63 1995]. Thus the estimation of CO₂ fluxes (sink: negative flux; source: positive flux into the atmosphere)
64 at regional/continental/global scales has been of interest for understanding the carbon cycling in the
65 earth system and to develop effective policies for mitigating CO₂ increase in the atmosphere.

66 Atmospheric observations and forward transport model simulations have been shown to be useful for
67 deriving surface fluxes at regional scales and for multiple years by inverse modeling techniques [e.g.,
68 Rayner et al., 1999]. However, large uncertainty in the flux estimates is prevalent due to the forward
69 transport model error. This situation led to the TransCom-3 CO₂ flux inversion project involving
70 multiple forward model simulations, which concluded that the flux estimation uncertainty within the
71 inverse model (due to sparse data coverage) is greater than the flux uncertainty due to forward model
72 transport error [e.g., Gurney et al., 2004]. Major challenges remain relatively unexplored regarding how
73 to validate the mean/net fluxes as estimated by various inverse/assimilation/process models.

74

75 Studies show that the CO₂ seasonal cycle and growth rates at Mauna Loa Observatory (MLO) respond to
76 interannual, decadal or inter-decadal climate variability [Keeling et al., 1996; Patra et al., 2005;
77 Buermann et al., 2007], and the increase in concentration difference between MLO and South Pole
78 Observatory (SPO) is due to greater fossil emission increase in the Northern Hemisphere (NH) than in

79 the Southern Hemisphere (SH). Since the exponential decay time of source signal difference between the
80 two hemispheres is about 1.3 ± 0.1 years, referred to as inter-hemispheric exchange time [Geller et al.,
81 1997], a positive SH to NH gradient in CO₂ concentration is produced because the NH is net source of
82 CO₂ to the atmosphere [Keeling et al., 1989; Conway et al., 1994]. Because of non-negligible impact of
83 diurnal, synoptic or interannual transport on CO₂ variability [Law et al., 2008; Patra et al., 2008; Higuchi
84 et al., 2002], inter-annually varying transport should be used for multi-year flux inversion studies.
85 However, the CO₂ source/sink inversion using multiple forward models and interannually varying winds
86 has not been done systematically covering several decades due to limitation in computational resources.
87 On the other hand, it is suggested that derivation of flux interannual variability is not strongly dependent
88 on forward model selection under the same inverse model setup [Baker et al., 2006]. Therefore, we will
89 introduce interannual variability of CO₂ flux derived using one forward transport model on top of an
90 average flux seasonal cycle obtained using multiple forward models.

91

92 One of our aims here is to construct CO₂ surface fluxes with realistic latitudinal gradient and interannual
93 variability for simulating spatial gradients and temporal variability in atmospheric CO₂ over several
94 decades. An atmospheric general circulation model-based chemistry-transport model (ACTM) has been
95 employed to analyze the CO₂ concentration gradients across latitude, longitude and altitude in relation to
96 surface fluxes and atmospheric transport. Additionally, forward transport model simulations with
97 realistic surface fluxes can be used to create 3-dimensional data products of atmospheric constituents
98 similar to existing meteorological reanalysis. Recently, Carbon Tracker has provided such a field for
99 CO₂, but limited to the 2000s probably due to the high computational demands of their modeling system
100 [Peters et al., 2007], and this study extends the period back to the early 1980s (similar to Chavallier et
101 al., 2011). Moreover, the model-observation mismatches are utilized here to obtain critical information
102 on accuracy of the latitudinal distribution of surface flux, and later used as a measure to define quality of
103 an inverse model estimated flux when the ACTM forward transport is employed. Important to note here

L04 that the model-observation mismatch statistics obtained in this study are using forward simulation of
L05 inverse model predicted fluxes. In the TransCom experiment [Gurney et al., 2004], the northern
L06 terrestrial CO₂ uptake varied widely (in the range of 0.0 to 4.0 Pg-C yr⁻¹) depending on the forward
L07 transport model, even though the mismatch statistics between a priori and predicted data corresponding
L08 to different transport models were fairly similar (mostly within ±1.0 ppm). Thus we believe simulating
L09 inversion fluxes by a forward transport model with relatively unbiased transport properties and then
L10 comparing with observed CO₂ concentrations will lead to better insight about the accuracy of inversion
L11 fluxes than those obtained from the a posteriori data.

L14 2. Methods

L16 The Center for Climate System Research/National Institute for Environmental Studies/Frontier Research
L17 Center for Global Change (CCSR/NIES/FRCGC) atmospheric general circulation model [Numaguti et
L18 al., 1997], nudged towards the horizontal winds and temperature from the National Center for
L19 Environmental Prediction/Department of Energy Reanalysis 2, has been adopted for chemistry-transport
L20 simulations of long-lived gases in the atmosphere for the period 1979-present [e.g., Patra et al., 2009]. It
L21 has been shown that the sulphur hexafluoride (SF₆; an inert chemical tracer) interhemispheric gradients
L22 and estimated interhemispheric mass exchange time of 1.2 years obtained by ACTM are in agreement
L23 with those from observations [Patra et al., 2009], and have also been validated using a larger number of
L24 sites in a multi-model framework [Law et al., 2008]. The performance of ACTM for simulating the CO₂
L25 diurnal cycle and synoptic variability has been evaluated to be satisfactory under the TransCom
L26 continuous experiment [Law et al., 2008; Patra et al., 2008]. Thus ACTM has been selected for forward
L27 transport simulation of all inversion fluxes and one case of flux inversion.

l29 The monthly mean seasonal fluxes (cyclostationary), averaged across the 12 TransCom-3 models, for
l30 the 11 land and 11 ocean (22 in total) regions are obtained using inversion [Gurney et al., 2004]. This
l31 inversion is conducted using the GLOBALVIEW-CO₂ at 87 sites with less than 30% missing data in the
l32 smoothed time series over the period of 2000-2002 [GLOBALVIEW-CO₂, 2009], as opposed to 75 sites
l33 for the 1992-1996 period in TransCom-3. The time period of 2000-2002 is selected [as in Patra et al.,
l34 2006], which did not experience any of the extreme climate anomalies, such as the Mount Pinatubo
l35 volcanic eruption in 1991, the El Nino even in 1997/1998 or the boreal forest fires in 1996, 1998, 2003.
l36 This flux is referred to as INV22_CYC [Please refer to the Supplementary Materials, Fig. S1]. The CO₂
l37 signals from the fossil fuel emissions distribution representing the year 1995 [Brenkert, 1998; scaled to a
l38 global total of 6.6 PgC yr⁻¹], terrestrial flux from the CASA (Carnegie Ames Stanford Approach)
l39 biogeochemical model [Randerson et al., 1997] and the sea-to-air oceanic fluxes for climatological mean
l40 conditions normalized to 1995 [Takahashi et al., 2002] are presubtracted as described in TransCom
l41 inversion intercomparison protocol [Gurney et al., 2000].
l42

l43 Next we solve for interannually varying fluxes across 1979-2007 for 42 land and 22 ocean regions using
l44 only the NIES/FRCGC chemistry-transport model (CTM), which is driven by interannually varying
l45 winds [Patra et al., 2005; Maksyutov et al., 2008 and references therein]. The fossil fuel presubtraction
l46 for this inversion is based on the interannually varying distribution and strength of emissions prepared at
l47 the Oak Ridge National Laboratory (ORNL) [Andres et al., 2010], while the terrestrial and oceanic
l48 presubtractions are identical to INV22_CYC. The INV22_IAV64 fluxes are estimated using CO₂ data at
l49 26 sites (Table S1) and 80 sites (Fig. S1) for the period 1979-1991 and 1992-2007, respectively.

l50 Different networks are selected to avoid long gaps in observation record for the respective inversion
l51 periods. The average seasonal cycles are computed for each of the 64 inverse model regions over the
l52 period of our analysis 1984-2006 (first few years and last one year of inversion are discarded). These
l53 averages are subtracted off of the originally estimated monthly fluxes to calculate CO₂ flux anomalies.

l54 These anomalies have been added back on to the 2000-2002 seasonal cycle from the previous inversion
l55 (i.e., INV22_CYC) for preparing interannually varying flux (referred to as INV22_IAV64). Thus the
l56 ACTM forward simulation using INV22_IAV64 flux will produce similar latitudinal CO₂ concentration
l57 gradients as that due to INV22_CYC, but the interannual CO₂ variations are expected to be better
l58 reproduced.

l59
l60 A third set of fluxes, designated "INV64_CYC", is also used (see Section 3.4). These fluxes were
l61 generated by an inversion similar to that which gave the INV22_CYC fluxes, but performed only with
l62 the ACTM forward transport (rather than all 12 TransCom3 models), and solving for 64 instead of 22
l63 regions. The presubtracted signal for fossil fuel emission is prepared differently as 0.2 x EDGAR4 + 0.8
l64 x ORNL (both scaled to CDIAC global totals), while the terrestrial and oceanic presubtraction fluxes are
l65 identical to the other two inversions. The use of EDGAR4 or ORNL fossil fuel emission separately do
l66 not produce significantly different latitudinal gradient in zonal aggregated inversion fluxes, although
l67 differences are visible at the subcontinental scale regions (cf. Fig. S1). A summary of how the surface
l68 CO₂ fluxes were generated is given in Table 1.

l69
l70 The first two sets of fluxes described above were run through the ACTM transport model in separate
l71 forward simulations, using annual-mean fossil fuel emission distribution at 1° x 1° horizontal resolution
l72 for the period of 1980-2005 are taken from EDGAR4 (Emission Database for Global Atmospheric
l73 Research, version 4.0; <http://www.jrc.europa.eu>, 2009). Before adding to the inversion based land and
l74 ocean carbon fluxes, the EDGAR4 emissions are scaled to comply with global totals available at the
l75 Carbon Dioxide Information and Analysis Center (CDIAC) [Boden et al., 2009]. This yields a global
l76 total of 6.7 PgC yr⁻¹ for the year 2000 – a magnitude similar to that is used in INV22_CYC. The
l77 EDGAR4 emission distribution for 2005 is repeated for the later years. The first five years (1979-1983)
l78 of ACTM simulations are considered as model spin-up and the time series for the period 1984-2006 are

L79 analyzed. All the fluxes used for forward and inverse modeling does not include diurnal cycles, and thus
L80 the simulated daytime CO₂ concentration over the continental regions will be biased towards a higher
L81 value during the periods of high ecosystem activity.

L82
L83 The simulated CO₂ spatial and temporal variations are compared at a variety of measurement sites, such
L84 as the continental, coastal, remote and aircraft profiles (Table S1). The three letter GLOBALVIEW-CO₂
L85 site codes are used in the text. The 3-hourly average model output is sampled for site-specific 1300 to
L86 1500 local time, and then monthly mean values are calculated for the daily-interval model and weekly-
L87 interval GLOBALVIEW-CO₂ time series. A sensitivity analysis is conducted using the NOAA Earth
L88 System Research Laboratory (ESRL) event-based observations at 29 long-term monitoring sites. Model
L89 output is sampled at the time and day of flask air sampling (unflagged data only). For calculating
L90 seasonal cycles and growth rates, a digital filtering technique (Nakazawa et al., 1997) is applied to each
L91 time series. The digital filtering technique separates the long-term trend by passing the time series
L92 through a low-pass filter with cutoff period of 36 months, and 3 harmonics are fitted to the residual
L93 (original –long term trend) time series to obtain the seasonal cycle. The time derivative of the long-term
L94 trend is defined as growth rate. The model results are evaluated using Pearson's moment correlation
L95 coefficient, r , with respect to the observational data, and normalized standard deviation (NSD; defined as
L96 the ratio of 1σ values from model and observations).

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Airborne Fraction and CO₂ time series comparison

Figure 1a shows the global total CO₂ emissions due to fossil fuel and landuse/landuse change (LULUC), and residual fluxes that essentially remain in the atmosphere. The residual fluxes are calculated by summing the INV22_CYC or INV22_IAV64 fluxes with the assumed fossil fuel emissions. The inversion results include terrestrial, oceanic and LULUC fluxes. The cumulative residual flux of 82.9 PgC over 1984-2006 for INV22_IAV64 compares well with what is estimated from the aggregated increase in CO₂ concentration at MLO (82.2 PgC). Cumulative fossil fuel emission over the same period was 149.4 PgC. If the airborne fraction is estimated as the ratio of atmospheric increase to the fossil fuel emissions, the decadal average values range from 48 to 61% (Table 2). The airborne fractions for INV22_IAV64 flux and calculated from the MLO growth rate are found to be ~59% in 1984-1989 and 2000-2006, but lower in the period of 1990-1999 (~51%). The lower airborne fraction is most likely caused by the enhanced terrestrial ecosystem uptake as an effect of volcanic aerosols following the Mt. Pinatubo eruption in June 1991 [Gu et al., 2002; Lucht et al., 2002; Patra et al. 2005]. The INV22_IAV64 case is thus consistent with the inter-decadal variability in airborne fraction derived from the measurements, and suggests no apparent trends in the past 23 years. The interannual variability of the residual flux for the INV22_IAV64 case and the atmospheric increase derived from the MLO growth rate are in good agreement ($r=0.91$ for the period 1984-2006). The cumulative residual flux of 81.3 PgC over 1984-2006 for INV22_CYC case is also close to observation based result, due to the fact the average atmospheric growth rate for 2000-2002 is very close to what can be calculated for 1984-2006.

Figures 1b,c show the time series of observed and simulated atmospheric CO₂ at MLO and SPO, and concentration difference between these two sites representing the changes in the interhemispheric gradient. The increase in CO₂ concentration is reproduced by both the inversion fluxes, even though CO₂ fluxes across the land/ocean-atmosphere are assumed constant for the whole simulation period for the

INV22_CYC case, due to the increase in fossil fuel emissions. Also because the fossil fuel CO₂ net emission and emission increase are greater in the NH (4.7 PgC in 1984 to 7.3 PgC in 2006) than the SH (0.56 PgC in 1984 to 0.96 PgC in 2006), the interhemispheric gradient has increased steadily by about 1.0 ppm during the period 1984-2006. However, the ACTM simulation systematically underestimates the CO₂ concentration difference between MLO and SPO by about 0.5 ppm, except for the period 1991-1993, following the Mt. Pinatubo eruption. This suggests the modeled (INV22_CYC case) terrestrial and oceanic sink of 1.91 PgC yr⁻¹ in the NH is stronger or the modeled sink of 0.88 PgC yr⁻¹ in the SH is weaker than what are required for simulating the CO₂ interhemispheric gradients accurately. As mentioned earlier, the ACTM does not have any apparent bias in simulating the interhemispheric gradient in SF₆ (within 10% of the observed gradients) and in estimation of the interhemispheric exchange time [Patra et al., 2009]. If these results are taken literally, the NH-SH sink contrast of 1.03 PgC yr⁻¹ should be reduced by about 0.5 PgC yr⁻¹ for successful reproduction of the CO₂ concentration difference between MLO and SPO, assuming the validity of the fossil fuel emission distribution and 1.0 ppm CO₂ corresponds to 1.06 PgC in each hemisphere (1.06 factor is half of that is assumed for CO₂ emission to concentration conversion for an 1 ppm global growth rate; Fig. 1 caption). The forward simulations of inverse model derived fluxes appear promising to evaluate the quality of surface fluxes and flux change with time. Further detailed discussion will be made using the inverse model estimated fluxes for ACTM forward transport later in section 3.4.

243

244 **3.2. Spatial gradients in CO₂ concentration**

245 To elucidate the utility of forward simulation for testing the validity of surface fluxes, concentration
246 differences between a variety of sites are explored (Fig. 2). The concentration differences between sites
247 are mainly caused by gradients in surface fluxes and changes in meteorology with season, such as the
248 monsoon. Generally, the ACTM simulates the features present in the GLOBALVIEW-CO₂ fairly well.
249 The change in CO₂ concentration differences between MLO/IZO and HAT (Fig. 2e,f) with time is

250 mainly caused by the increase in fossil fuel emission, which has apparently accelerated since the early
251 2000s over continental Asia [e.g., Gregg et al., 2008; Tohjima et al., 2010]. Because HAT site is located
252 in the Chinese emission outflow region during the boreal winter-spring seasons, the CO₂ concentrations
253 are higher than MLO (central Pacific Ocean), and thus HAT–MLO values increase for the period 2000-
254 2005. During the boreal summer when winds at HAT are mainly from the Pacific Ocean, under the
255 influence of the East Asian monsoon trade winds, no change in concentration difference is observed. On
256 the contrary, HAT–IZO (Atlantic Ocean) values increased in all seasons, suggesting an overall
257 enhancement of CO₂ concentration in the Asia-Pacific region compared to the North Atlantic region.
258 Note that the lower increase rate for HAT–IZO and HAT–MLO concentration differences in the case of
259 INV22_IAV64 compared to the INV22_CYC or GLOBALVIEW-CO₂ for the period 2000-2006 is
260 caused mainly by the increasing sinks estimated by the 64-region inversion over the East Asia region
261 (apparently wrongly).

262

263 There is often large interannual variability in the differences between sites. For example, the SMO–SPO
264 difference (Fig 2c) seems to be lowest in 1998 and the simulation using INV22_CYC flux successfully
265 reproduces this feature, while the INV22_IAV64 exhibited greater difference. This suggests the
266 emission from the NH tropics is overestimated in INV22_IAV64 flux during the 1997/1998 El Nino.
267 The annual cycle in WPO–GMI difference (Fig 2g) remained small during 1999-2000 and ACTM
268 simulations using both fluxes produce similar features indicating the predominant role of transport.
269 Examination of seasonal cycles at individual sites (not shown here) using GLOBALVIEW-CO₂ time
270 series reveals decreasing and increasing tendency of the seasonal amplitude at GMI and WPO,
271 respectively, from 1997 to 2000. The largest WPO–GMI difference occurred in 1994 due to deep
272 seasonal cycle minimum in October at GMI (which the ACTM failed to simulate) and shallow minimum
273 at WPO. The misfits occur more frequently during the winter/spring for the post-2001 time period as
274 compared to summer/autumn for the pre-1997 period.

275

276 The simulation of vertical gradients measured using aircraft has been of interest recently [Stephens et al.,
277 2007]. Figure 2h-j show differences between mid-troposphere and surface CO₂ concentrations at three
278 aircraft profiling sites. The model-observation agreement is generally satisfactory within a few ppm for
279 all months, but the summer time CO₂ uptake given by the model seems to be weaker than what is
280 actually occurring at the surface at the time of measurements (seen as the underestimation of observed
281 differences by the model). This summer-time bias may arise from not including the diurnal cycle in the
282 terrestrial CO₂ flux (because the photosynthetic uptake is strong during the day when the measurements
283 are conducted) or else site representation error in ACTM due to coarse horizontal resolution. It can also
284 be argued that models with thick a boundary layer (due to vigorous vertical mixing) in the summer
285 require unrealistically high uptake for reproducing the measured vertical gradient or vice versa.
286 However, the excellent agreement between the model and measurements of SF₆ at a variety of sites rules
287 out any such transport bias in ACTM [Patra et al., 2009].

288

289 **3.3. Comparison of CO₂ seasonal cycles and growth rates**

290 The advantage of using INV22_IAV64 over INV22_CYC is for simulating the growth rates of CO₂,
291 which are influenced by decadal scale climate variability, especially in tropical regions [e.g., Rayner et
292 al., 1999; Patra et al., 2005]. The growth rate is the time derivative of the concentration time series with
293 all frequencies shorter than 36 months filtered out, as described in Section 2. Figure 3 shows a Taylor
294 [2001] diagram of correlation coefficient (indicating match in phase of variability) and normalized
295 standard deviation (match in the amplitude of variability), both for seasonal cycle and growth rates as
296 estimated by using the digital filtering technique. The seasonal cycles are well simulated by ACTM at
297 most sites, with average correlation coefficient of 0.90 and normalized standard deviation of 1.0 with
298 respect to GLOBALVIEW-CO₂. We find 3 sites with lowest correlation coefficients to be POCS10,
299 POCS15 and CGO, and 3 sites with highest normalized standard deviations to be BHD, POCS30 and

AMS. These 6 sites with poor model-observation match in seasonal cycle are located in the SH, and the comparisons reveal a too strong seasonal cycle in surface fluxes caused greater seasonal cycle amplitudes in model time series. The interannual variability in growth rate is also captured successfully using INV22_IAV64 flux. Average correlation coefficient and normalized standard deviation are calculated to be 0.73 and 1.09, respectively, over all 139 sites studied here (those are 0.82 and 1.17 for the 103 surface stations, and 0.48 and 0.88 for 36 aircraft profiles, respectively). Low correlation coefficients for the aircraft profile sites are obtained due to large number of missing data in the time series covering a relatively short measurement periods of 4-7 years, because a 36-month filter is applied for calculating the growth rates (ref. Fig. 2h-j).

The model growth rate variabilities are too large by 20% or more (normalized standard deviation > 1.2) compared to GLOBALVIEW-CO₂ growth rate variabilities at 50 sites, which may at first instance indicate that the interannual variability in CO₂ flux is overestimated at regional scales by the 64-region inverse model using NIES/FRCGC forward transport model. Note that both the model residual flux (Fig. 1) and observed growth rate variability are well simulated at MLO (correlation coefficient=0.97, normalized standard deviation=1.07), representing the global average case. Another reason for the overestimation of model growth rate variability relative to that of GLOBALVIEW-CO₂, as seen by the normalized standard deviations, could arise from smoothing of flask data in GLOBALVIEW-CO₂ processing (Masarie and Tans, 1995), while the ACTM simulated concentrations contains the synoptic variability due to transport. Here we hypothesize that if the ACTM results were screened for background condition, as in GLOBALVIEW-CO₂, this comparison would have yielded closer agreement.

For testing this hypothesis, we also compared to the flask data from NOAA ESRL, which were used in producing GLOBALVIEW-CO₂ time series. The main advantage of using flask data is that the model results can be sampled following the time stamp of air sampling, which is a more realistic scenario

325 considering that synoptic scale transport leads to large concentration variations [Patra et al., 2008].
326 Figure 4 shows the normalized standard deviations generally move closer to the vertical line marked at
327 NSD=1.0 when the ESRL flask data (squares) are used in the analysis compared to those using
328 GLOBALVIEW-CO₂ (circles). Two of the most prominent exceptions are observed for TAP and WLG.
329 The smoothing and interpolation are preferred at WLG due to data gaps or uneven seasonal sampling;
330 e.g., there appears to be more samples in the summer of 2001 and 2002 compared to 2000 and 2003. The
331 TAP site is located in a complex region of CO₂ flux distribution (about 100 km south-west of Seoul
332 city), which cannot be represented well by the coarse-horizontal grid of ACTM (~2.8°x2.8°). Under such
333 circumstances of high site representation error in transport model, GLOBALVIEW-CO₂ is preferred by
334 the ACTM over the actual flask observations.

335

336 **3.4. Comparison of TransCom mean flux (INV22_CYC) and 64-region inversion flux using ACTM** 337 **transport (INV64_CYC)**

338 The underestimation of the MLO-SPO CO₂ concentration difference by the ACTM forward simulation
339 using TransCom models derived mean surface flux (Fig. 1c) suggested a bias in the north-south CO₂
340 sink distribution, i.e., an enhanced NH carbon sink with respect to the SH. It has been noted earlier
341 [Patra et al., 2006] that individual forward transport models need to be improved in order to effectively
342 use atmospheric CO₂ data in source/sink inversions, and estimate CO₂ fluxes with minimal bias. In a
343 suite of forward models, if more models were biased towards slower (faster) vertical transport, the multi-
344 model mean flux would have a bias towards more (less) uptake in the northern mid- and high latitudes,
345 where most number of continental measurement sites are located [Denning et al., 1995; Gurney et al.,
346 2004]. Since ACTM transport is able to simulate inert tracers at annual to synoptic time scales fairly
347 well [Patra et al., 2009], we now used ACTM simulated basis functions for 64-region inversion to derive
348 a CO₂ flux seasonal cycle using GLOBALVIEW-CO₂ for the period of 2000-2002 (INV64_CYC case).

349

350 Figure 5 and Table 3 show comparison of latitudinal distribution of INV22_CYC and INV64_CYC
351 (both without the fossil fuel component). As suggested earlier in section 3.1, based on model and
352 GLOBALVIEW-CO₂ comparison of the MLO–SPO concentration difference, the ACTM derived NH-
353 SH flux (INV64_CYC) gradient is indeed weaker by 0.46 PgC yr⁻¹ compared to the INV22_CYC
354 (Table 3). Maximum contrasts between these two fluxes are seen for the latitude bands of 45-90°N (flux
355 difference 0.63 PgC yr⁻¹) and 15-45°S (flux difference 0.56 PgC yr⁻¹). This bias in INV22_CYC flux is
356 reflected in the ALT (82°N, 63°W)–SMO (14°S, 171°W) concentration difference as the model
357 underestimates GLOBALVIEW-CO₂ values by about 1.0 ppm for most years between 1984-2006 (ref.
358 Fig. S5b), which is greater than what is observed for the MLO–SPO difference. Comparisons of latitude-
359 month distribution of CO₂ fluxes suggest a weaker source and stronger sink in the NH tropics (Equator-
360 15°N) during Feb-May and Aug-Oct months, respectively, by INV64_CYC compared to INV22_CYC
361 (Fig. 5c). Generally a lower land/ocean to atmosphere emission is suggested by INV64_CYC for much
362 of the SH tropics and mid-latitudes during Jan-Mar months. Since the present in situ measurement
363 network is not capable of capturing the CO₂ flux distribution longitudinally at a great confidence, we
364 have restricted our discussion to the latitudinal flux distribution only.

365

366

367 4. Conclusions

368

369 We have performed three time-dependent inverse model simulations for (1) cyclostationary fluxes using
370 multiple forward transport models of TransCom-3 (INV22_CYC), (2) interannually varying fluxes using
371 the NIES/FRCGC transport model driven by interannually varying winds (this and case 1 are combined
372 to prepare INV22_IAV64), and (3) cyclostationary fluxes using ACTM (INV64_CYC). Firstly, we
373 confirmed that the variability in the observed airborne fraction of CO₂ is reproduced at inter-decadal
374 time scales using inverse model estimated surface fluxes (INV22_IAV64 case), and there are no

375 apparent trends in airborne fractions over the past three decades. Forward transport simulations using
376 ACTM are used to verify the accuracy of surface fluxes in comparison with an observation-based data
377 product of atmospheric CO₂ at various space and time scales. The transport model (ACTM) has been
378 demonstrated elsewhere [Patra et al., 2009] to model SF₆ distributions accurately. The seasonal cycles,
379 latitude/longitude/altitude gradients, and growth rates are generally well simulated by the forward
380 transport model (i.e., ACTM) and inter-annually varying surface fluxes. The forward simulation is able
381 to reproduce (correlation coefficient > 0.6) the observed seasonal cycles at 134 of the 139 sites with at
382 least 6 years of data coverage over the 1996-2005 period. At 126 of these 139 sites, the observed growth
383 rate variability is simulated statistically significantly (correlation coefficient 0.3; data points > 72), but
384 the amplitude of the variability is somewhat overestimated. Overestimation in seasonal cycle amplitudes
385 in the southern hemispheric sites and overestimation of growth rates variability at some 30% of the sites,
386 as well as underestimation of inter-hemispheric gradient by the ACTM simulation, suggest that further
387 work is required for better constraining the net surface fluxes by inverse modeling. A sensitivity analysis
388 of growth rate variability using the NOAA ESRL flask data in comparison with ACTM simulation of
389 INV22_IAV64 flux showed better agreement than when the GLOBALVIEW-CO₂ data product is used.

390
391 The comparison of ACTM forward simulation results to GLOBALVIEW-CO₂ and ESRL observations
392 suggests the GLOBALVIEW-CO₂ product is suitable for flux inversion but is likely to exhibit weaker
393 interannual CO₂ growth rate variability with respect to what can be derived based on in situ observation
394 and transport model simulations driven by interannually varying meteorology. This is because the time
395 scale of atmospheric CO₂ variability is shorter than the surface flux change, particularly at the remote
396 sites. The overall validity of the forward model results is encouraging, and suggests that 3-D datasets of
397 atmospheric CO₂ (and other greenhouse gases) would be useful for climate model analysis if available
398 over a few decades and for meteorological analysis/reanalysis if produced near-real time.

399

l00 The other significant application of the forward simulation of inversion model fluxes is to validate the
l01 net fluxes and flux distribution in latitude and longitude. The horizontal/latitudinal CO₂ concentration
l02 differences between MLO–SPO, ALT–SMO and several other tropical sites suggested a bias in mean
l03 fluxes derived using multiple forward transport models under the TransCom project (estimates 22-region
l04 flux). This bias in latitudinal gradient of net CO₂ flux amount is apparently reduced when a relatively
l05 well-validated forward transport model for interhemispheric exchange of SF₆ (ACTM) is used in the 64-
l06 region inverse model. The CO₂ sink gradient between the NH and SH latitudes decreased by about 0.46
l07 PgC yr⁻¹ in the case of ACTM inversion compared to the TransCom models inversion. We estimated
l08 CO₂ fluxes of -0.97, -1.04, 1.64, -2.29 and -0.13 PgC yr⁻¹ in the latitude bands 90-45°N, 45-15°N, 15N-
l09 15°S 15-45°S and 45-90°S, respectively, using ACTM forward transport. Comparing the 90-15°N and
l10 15-90°S region aggregated fluxes (-2.01 and -2.42 PgC yr⁻¹, respectively, for INV64_CYC, and -2.94
l11 and -1.77 PgC yr⁻¹, respectively, for INV22_CYC), a more dramatic shift of about 1.58 PgC yr⁻¹ of
l12 uptake from the extratropical north to the south is recommended by the INV64_CYC inversion,
l13 compared to those estimated by the INV22_CYC case.

l14

l15

l16 **Acknowledgments.** The ACTM simulated full set of 3-D distribution and the model time series at sites
l17 for the period 1984-2006 can be obtained by contacting the author. This work is partly supported by
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l19 associate editor for providing us excellent guidance to improve the clarity of the manuscript.

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- 534

534 **Table 1:** Summary of inversion fluxes and corresponding forward transport models as used in this study
 535 (see text for details). Note that all forward transport simulations are made using ACTM only for
 536 comparison with atmospheric CO₂ time series ESRL measurements or GLOBALVIEW-CO₂ data
 537 product, while different forward transport models are employed for flux inversions. When the
 538 INV64_CYC fluxes are used in forward simulations, it is referred to as ‘recursive’ method (ref. section
 539 3.5).

Inverse flux code	CO ₂ data	Forward transport model	Further information
INV22_CYC	2000-2002; 87 sites	12 models from TransCom (Level 3) using one year of meteorology (cyclostationary)	22 region inversion for monthly- mean fluxes as in TransCom but for different period and data network
INV22_IAV64	1979-2006; 26 sites or 80 sites	NIES/FRCGC CTM with interannually varying (IAV) meteorology	Monthly-mean flux anomalies for 1979-2006 from 64-region inversion added to INV22_CYC
INV64_CYC	2000-2002; 92 sites	ACTM; forward transport validated using SF ₆	Same as INV22_CYC, but for 64- region inversion

540

541

542 **Table 2:** Airborne fractions (AFs) and atmospheric burden (AB; within parenthesis) for different
 543 decades as estimated from two inversion fluxes (fossil added) and MLO growth rate (ref. Fig. 1 caption).

Time Period	AF (in %) or AB (PgC yr ⁻¹)			FOS emission (PgC yr ⁻¹)
	INV22_CYC	INV22_IAV64	MLO_GR	
1984-1989	48 (2.71)	59 (3.34)	61 (3.47)	5.7
1990-1999	53 (3.38)	52 (3.29)	50 (3.18)	6.35
2000-2006	60 (4.45)	58 (4.29)	57 (4.23)	7.39
1984-2006	54	56	55	

544

545 **Table 3:** Comparison of non-fossil CO₂ fluxes for the time period of 2000-2002 as estimated by the
 546 INV22_CYC and INV64_CYC inversion cases, aggregated over broad latitude bands. Note that the
 547 22/64-region inversion fluxes are distributed to 1°×1° grid of the earth's surface and then the aggregated
 548 fluxes for different latitude band are calculated.

549

Hemisphere	TransCom	ACTM	Latitude band	TransCom	ACTM
Northern	-1.91	-1.68	90°N-45°N	-1.608	-0.974
			45°N-15°N	-1.335	-1.040
			15°S-15°N	1.913	1.637
Southern	-0.88	-1.11	15°S-45°S	-1.726	-2.286
			45°S-90°S	-0.046	-0.135

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552

Figure Captions

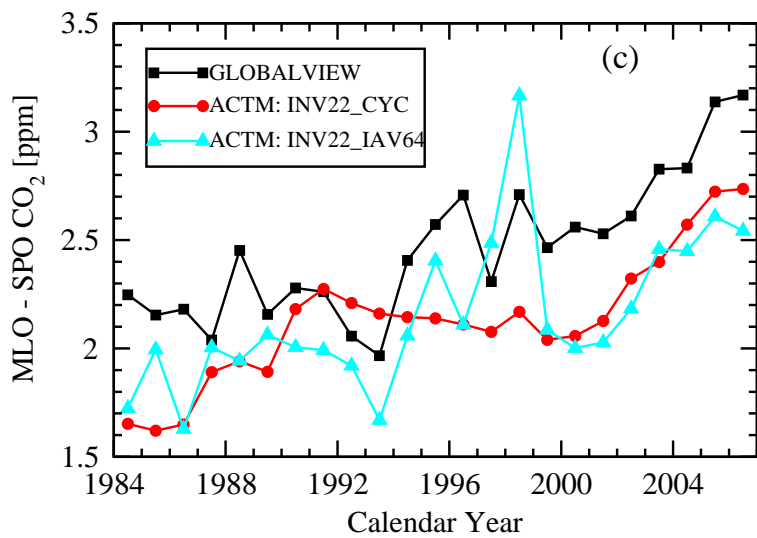
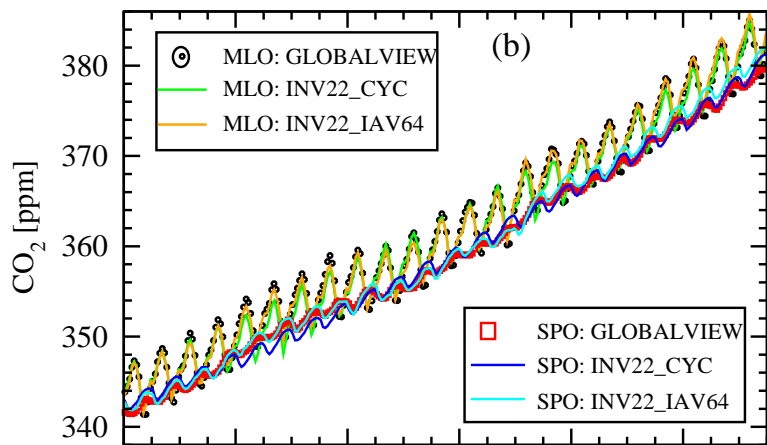
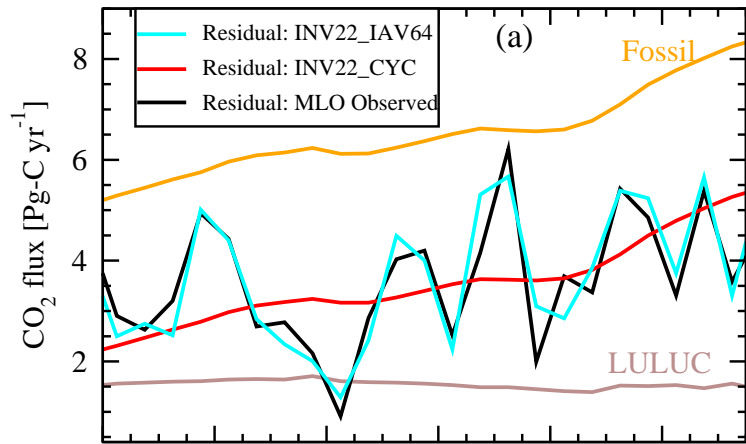
Figure 1: (a) Time series of MLO CO₂ growth rate (source: NOAA ESRL; www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/trends/#mlo_growth; converted to residual flux by assuming 1.0 ppm = 2.12 PgC; 1Pg = 10¹⁵g) and other flux variabilities for the period of 1983-2006. Emission due to landuse/landuse change (LULUC) is taken from Houghton [2003]. ACTM simulated CO₂ concentrations time series for MLO and SPO are shown in panel (b). Differences in concentrations between MLO and SPO as simulated by ACTM corresponding to two inversion fluxes are shown in comparisons with GLOBALVIEW-CO₂ (panel c).

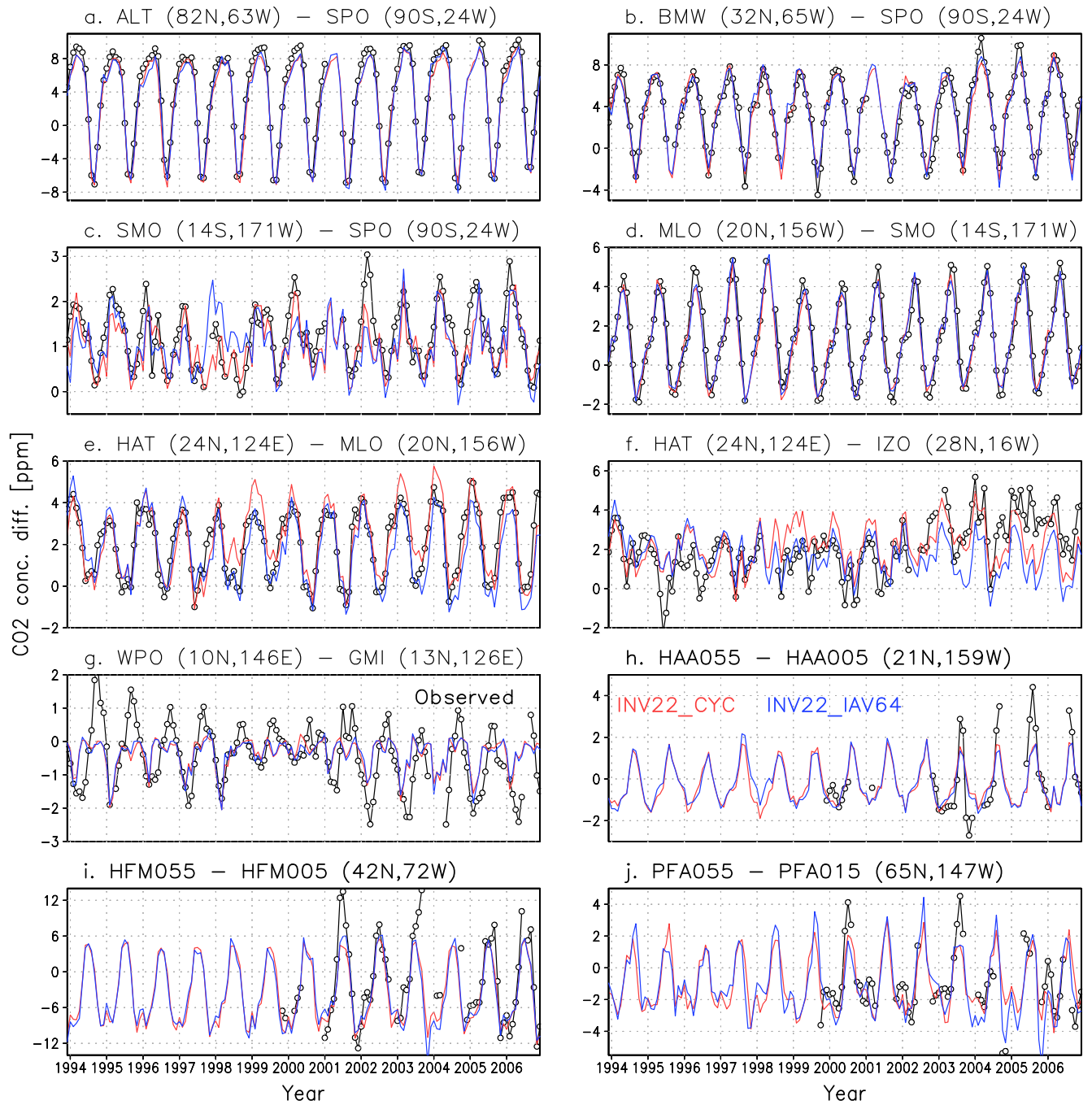
Figure 2: Meridional (a,b,c,d), zonal (e,f) and vertical (g, h, i, j) gradients in monthly-mean atmospheric CO₂ concentrations between selected observation sites for the period 1994-2006. The GLOVALVIEW-CO₂ abbreviated site names and location are given in the title of each panel. The sites used in panels a-f are located on the earth's surface, WPO at aircraft cruising altitude of ~10 km and GMI at surface (f), and the rest (h-j) used data from 500 m (**005; where ** is site name; 1500 m for PFA) and 5500 m (**055) from aircraft profile measurements. Note the y-axis range differs for each panels.

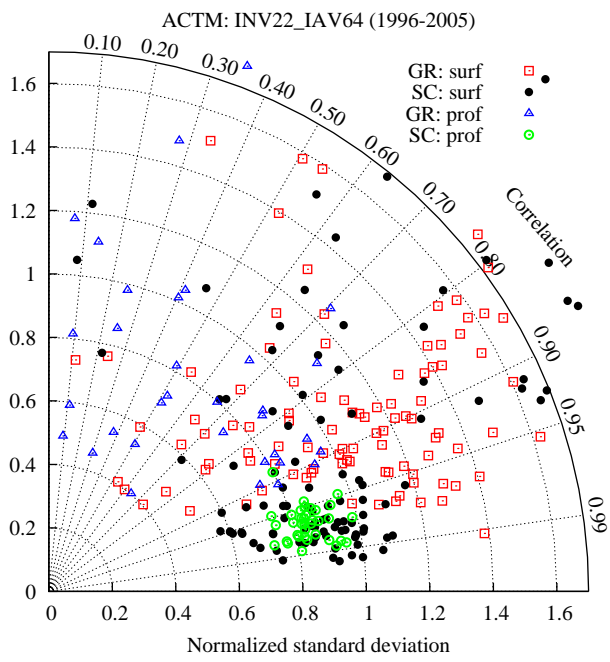
Figure 3: Taylor [2001] diagram showing the model performance for simulating seasonal cycle (SC) and growth rate (GR) of CO₂ at 103 surface stations (surf) and 36 profiles (prof) time series corresponding to the INV22_IAV64 flux (see text). For perfect model-observation match, symbol will fall on 1 of the horizontal axis. Note here that while most of the surface sites were used in inversion, the profiles were not, and thus should be treated as independent data for flux validation.

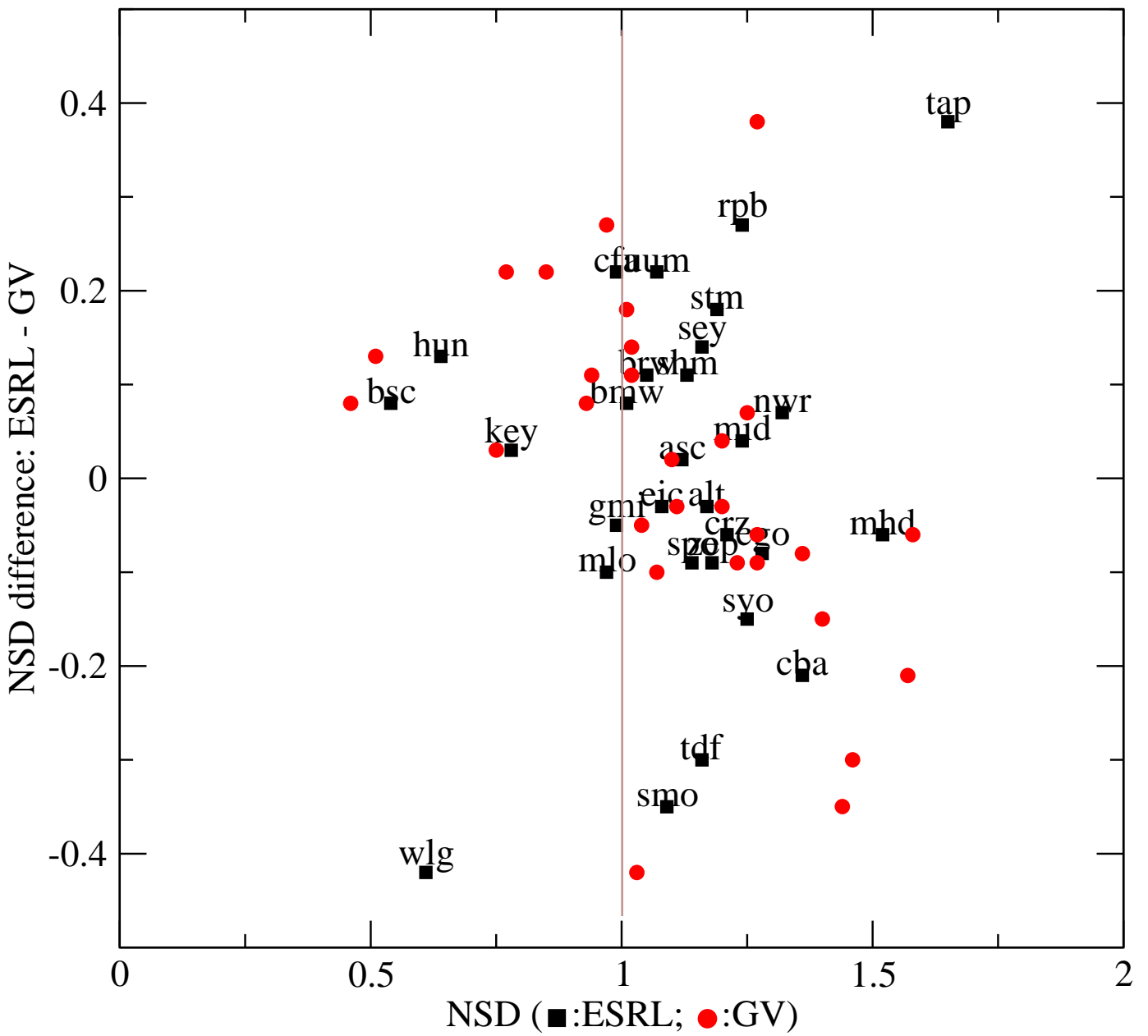
Figure 4: Comparison normalized standard deviations of growth rate as estimated using the GLOBALVIEW-CO₂ data product and NOAA ESRL flask observations at 29 sites (three letter site codes are given only with square symbols).

Figure 5: Comparison of non-fossil fluxes as estimated by 22-region inversion using the TransCom models' transport (12 model mean) and 64-region inversion using ACTM transport for the period 2000-2002. All regional fluxes estimated by inversion are first distributed at 1x1 degree resolution following the basis function maps and added to the terrestrial and oceanic presubtracted fluxes. The values plotted here are after zonal aggregation of those for each of the latitudes (units: million of g-C degree-latitude⁻¹ s⁻¹).

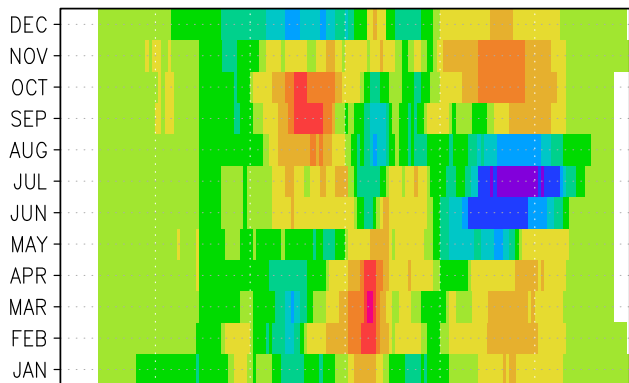




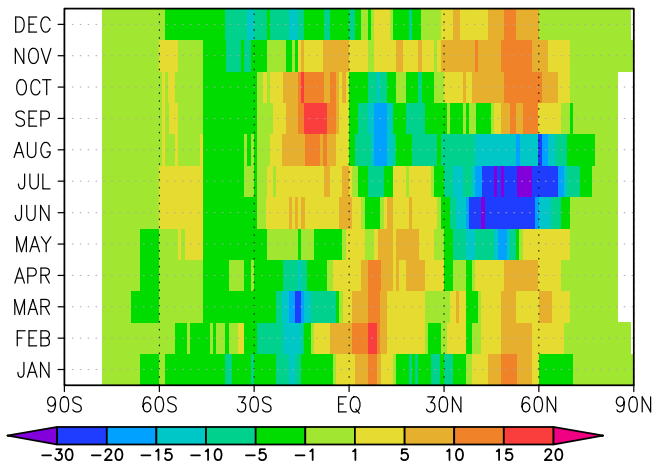




(a) TransCom mean: Lon. Aggr. CO₂ flux



(b) ACTM transport: (Mg-C/Lat./s)



(c) TransCom - ACTM diff.

