Atmospheric variations in summertime column integrated CO2 on synoptic and seasonal time scale over the U.S.

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Abstract

Past studies have demonstrated that synoptic weather events play an important role in the spatial and temporal variations of atmospheric carbon dioxide (within and above the boundary layer. In this study, we investigate the spatial variability of column average CO2 dry air mole fraction (XCO2) due to the impact of synoptic-scale transport using retrievals from the Orbiting Carbon Observatory-2 for 66 summer cold frontal cases over the conterminous U.S. and Mexico above 20°N from 2015 to 2019. The results show that cold fronts in summer are in general agreement with data from the Atmospheric Chemistry and Transport (ACT-America) field campaign observations, which are significantly different compared to non-frontal spatial distributions in summer, though with reduced magnitude due to their nature as a column average as opposed to an in situ measurements in the boundary layer and free troposphere.

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6								
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8	Key Points:							
9	• XCO ₂ frontal differences over the US are positive in summer.							
10 11	• Significance test show XCO ₂ frontal differences are greater than when there is no front.							

13 Abstract

14 Past studies have demonstrated that synoptic weather events play an important role in the 15 spatial and temporal variations of atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO_2) within and above the 16 boundary layer. In this study, we investigate the spatial variability of column average CO2 dry 17 air mole fraction (XCO_2) due to the impact of synoptic scale transport using retrievals from the 18 Orbiting Carbon Observatory-2 for 66 summer cold frontal cases over the conterminous U.S. and Mexico above 20°N from 2015 to 2019. The results show that these 66 XCO₂ differences across 19 20 cold fronts in summer are in general agreement with data from the Atmospheric Chemistry and 21 Transport (ACT-America) field campaign observations, which are significantly different 22 compared to non-frontal XCO₂ spatial distributions in summer, though with reduced magnitude 23 due to their nature as a column average as opposed to an *in situ* measurements in the boundary 24 layer and free troposphere.

25

26 **1** Introduction

27 The 30-year period from 1983 to 2012 has been reported to be the warmest period in the 28 past 800 years [*Pachauri et al.*, 2014]. Also, sea level rise explained by about 75% by glacier 29 mass loss and ocean thermal expansion, and CO2 concentrations increased at the fastest observed 30 decadal rate of change for 2002-2011 by IPCC Fifth Assessment Report [Pachauri et al., 2014]. 31 The increase of the amount of greenhouse gases (GHGs) and unbalanced carbon cycle drive 32 global climate warming (Reference et al.?). Observations of CO₂ dry air mole fraction are critical 33 for constraining estimates of surface fluxes at global and regional scales. CO2 is measured in situ 34 in the atmospheric boundary layer by the Global Greenhouse Gas Reference Network [Gurney et 35 al., 2002; 2003; Law et al., 2006; Masarie et al., 2014; Masarie et al., 2001], which is 36 coordinated by the Global Monitoring Division (GMD) in the Earth System Research Laboratory 37 (ESRL) at the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA). Light aircraft 38 samples are returned on an approximately biweekly cadence at many of these sites as well. The 39 Total Carbon Column Observing Network (TCCON, https://tccon-wiki.caltech.edu/Sites) 40 retrieves XCO₂ with a similar density of observations globally. Field campaigns such as the 41 HIAPER Pole to Pole Observations (HIPPO, *Wofsy* [2011]) study, the Atmospheric Tomography 42 (ATom) experiments (https://daac.ornl.gov/ATOM/campaign/), and the O2/N2 Ratio and CO2 43 Airborne Southern Ocean (ORCAS) Study [Stephens et al., 2017] have targeted larger scale 44 variations in CO₂ with *in situ* measurements of CO₂ mole fractions as well as other tracers. 45 Currently, the Atmospheric Chemistry and Transport (ACT)-America experiment targets 46 synoptic scale variations in CO_2 with both *in situ* measurements and CO_2 lidar observations in 47 North America (Bell et al., 2020; Campbell et al., 2020). Remote sensing retrievals from 48 satellites such as the Orbiting Carbon Observatory-2 (OCO-2) provide global coverage using 49 reflected sunlight to infer XCO₂. Regardless of the source, the overall goal of data collection is to 50 better understand the carbon cycle with a "top-down" constraint of surface fluxes of CO₂. 51 Atmospheric CO₂ variability is directly affected by the combined impact of surface fluxes 52 and atmospheric transport [*Enting*, 2002]. Thus, inferring surface fluxes from observations 53 requires an understanding of the fingerprint of transport effects on the data in question (Schuh et 54 al, 2018). In this paper, we examine the signature of frontal boundaries on XCO_2 spatial

55 distribution at warm and cold sectors in OCO-2 retrievals and evaluate their structure against

56 previous studies using surface data as well as current observations made during the ACT-

57 America field campaign.

58 2 Background

59 Fronts are often initiated by large-scale horizontal deformation field — the tendency of air 60 parcels to change shape, and result in sharp temperature contrasts and precipitation [Wallace and 61 *Hobbs*, 2006]. *Hurwitz et al.* [2004] demonstrated that abrupt changes in CO₂ mixing ratio happened in the presence of inclement weather and low pressure systems as detected through 62 63 observations of water vapor mixing ratio, temperature, wind speed and wind direction data 64 measured by flux tower. The authors found synoptic-scale transport like the summer cold front in 65 northern Wisconsin caused rapid change of CO₂ mixing ratio relative to what would be expected from biological processes. Similarly, many studies [Bianchi et al., 2009; Boutin et al., 2008; 66 67 Keppel-Aleks et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2012; Mahadevan and Archer, 2000; Parazoo et al., 2008; Pal et el., 2020] indicated that spatial CO₂ or XCO₂ variations are strongly related with synoptic-68 69 scale weather events, which are related to wind speed, wind direction, and potential temperature 70 variations. 71 CO₂ frontal changes were observed by in-situ data in <u>Parazoo et al. [2008]</u>, in which in-situ data were analyzed over synoptic time scales to observe the whole frontal passage in time. In the 72 73 case of cold fronts, CO₂ changes as seen from in-situ continuous sites were found to have higher 74 prefrontal CO₂ than postfrontal CO₂ at some sites like SGP (Southern Great Plains of North 75 America, characterized by agriculture), WKT (Great Plains of North America in a region of 76 strong moisture gradient, characterized by cattle grazing) and SBI (Sable Island, Island off the 77 coast of Nova Scotia) in summer. Parazoo et al. [2008] used these observations together with 78 models to decompose the components of the boundary layer CO₂ budget in the midlatitudes and 79 found that the horizontal advection component is responsible for 60-70% of CO₂ daily variations 80 on average in boundary layer, and thus dominates the variability seen in frontal gradients of CO₂. 81 *Keppel-Aleks et al.* [2012] found that the temporal variations in TCCON retrievals of XCO₂ 82 at Park Falls, Wisconsin are primarily driven by non-local effects, i.e. transport of CO₂ from

83 upstream, which is again a combination of regional scale fluxes and atmospheric motions. They 84 also found that large-scale gradients of XCO_2 are highly correlated with synoptic-scale variations 85 in free tropospheric potential temperature (θ).

86 Surface measurements like TCCON are made from fixed locations in space, and thus may 87 miss signals from atmospheric CO₂ gradients such as fronts. Within the ACT-America

88 (<u>https://act-america.larc.nasa.gov</u>) project, seven airborne campaigns across three regions in the

eastern United States were conducted to study the transport and fluxes of atmospheric carbon
dioxide and methane [*Pal et al.*, 2020] in which the seasonal variations of CO₂ concentration

90 allocate and methane [<u>*Pat et al.*, 2020]</u> in which the seasonal variations of CO₂ concentration91 across frontal gradients (CO₂ concentration at warm sector minus that at cold sector) and fair

92 weather conditions are apparent in the planetary boundary layer (PBL) in the mid-Atlantic, mid-

93 west U.S., and south U.S. to Gulf of Mexico regions in summer 2016. <u>Pal et al. [2020]</u> illustrated

94 that PBL CO₂ mixing ratio averaged in warm sectors was on average 15 ppm greater than in cold 95 sectors in their 7 cases in summer.

In order to complement previous studies with TCCON, which observe gradients with
 respect to time, we examine OCO-2 XCO₂ differences in space across cold fronts as the satellite
 passes over the frontal boundary. CO₂ frontal differences observed by ACT-America flights are a

reference against which to assess OCO-2 observations, with the caveat that magnitudes of spatial

- 100 gradients are not directly comparable given the different scales that the observations represent,
- 101 i.e. the column average versus carbon dioxide concentration in or near the boundary layer, which
- 102 is more responsive to convection and surface fluxes [*Keeling et al.*, 1976; *McClure et al.*, 2016;
- 103 *<u>Thoning et al., 1989</u>*].
- 104 There are two major questions in this work:
- 105 1. How does OCO-2 XCO₂ vary near frontal boundaries?
- Are these variations across fronts distinct from climatological north-south gradients,
 when no front is present?
- 108 These two questions are aimed at the scales of atmospheric motion on which OCO-2 data varies,
- 109 which is a necessary piece of knowledge for properly quantifying the representativeness of
- 110 models assimilating OCO-2 retrievals. In a simulation study, <u>Corbin and Denning [2006]</u> found
- 111 that coarse models did a poor job of representing the expected variability of OCO-2 data,
- resulting in large errors that would lead to biased flux estimates. The recommendation was that
- 113 models with a spatial resolution of 1° by 1° in latitude and longitude are necessary to keep the
- 114 representativeness errors less than 0.5ppm. We examine scales that are of this order.

115 **3 Data and Methods**

116 **3.1 OCO-2 Retrievals of XCO₂**

Launched in 2014 the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), OCO-2
flies in a sun-synchronous, near-polar orbit over a 16-day (233-revolution) repeat cycle and
crosses the equator at about 1:30 PM Mean Local Time (MLT)

- 120 (<u>https://oco.jpl.nasa.gov/mission/quickfacts/</u>). The OCO-2 spacecraft carries a single instrument
- 121 that incorporates 3 high-resolution spectrometers collecting reflected sunlight, one in the
- 122 molecular oxygen (O₂) A band, centered near 765 nm, and other two in the spectral bands near
- 123 1610 and 2060 nm. Collecting 24 spectra per second, OCO-2 yields about a million raw
- 124 observations each day over the sunlit hemisphere. After screening is applied to filter out cloudy
- and overly polluted scenes, radiance measurements are used to infer XCO_2 with a "full-physics"
- retrieval algorithm [<u>*O'Dell et al.*, 2018</u>]. Clouds and optically thick aerosols preclude
- 127 observations of the full atmospheric column in many regions, especially where there are weather 128 phenomena like fronts, storms and snow. Retrievals of XCO_2 also fail when the solar zenith angle
- is too high, or when there are is low surface albedo such as in the case of snow and ice, which
- 130 causes low Signal to Noise Ratio (SNR) (O'Dell et al. 2018). The fraction of soundings passing
- 131 in the tropics is larger than at higher latitudes relative to sub-solar latitudes (>23°N in June
- and >23°S in December) and the passing rates are higher at bright than dark surfaces [O'Dell et
- 133 <u>*al.*, 2018</u>], due to smaller solar zenith angles in tropics. The standard quality filter is applied to
- all converged retrievals to screen out scenes that are expected to be of poor quality due to these
- 135 issues (O'Dell et al. 2018). Bad quality data are removed when analyzing XCO_2 differences
- across cold fronts in our study. With this approach, over 100,000 cloud-free full-column good
 quality XCO₂ observations are collected globally by OCO-2 each day.
- 138 In this study, we use XCO_2 from OCO-2 Version 9r Level 2 (L2) Lite product from 2015 139 to 2019, an example is given in Fig.1 on Aug 5th, 2016, in which we overlay various OCO-2
- 140 XCO_2 onto Aqua-MODIS RGB images from Worldview. Color in the OCO-2 track represents
- 141 XCO_2 values. Version 9, released in October 2018, was the latest version of OCO-2 data before
- 142 July 2020 when Version 10 was released, and had the lowest biases and highest throughput of
- 143 any version so far [*Kiel et al.*, 2019]. Version 9 includes updated radiometric calibration for the

144 L1b product, updated spectroscopic parameters, the addition of a stratospheric aerosol type, and

a more realistic treatment of surface reflectance, which were included in Version 8. Additionally,

146 corrections have been made for differences in pointing between the 3 bands (Kiel et al, 2019) as

well as a fix related to processing algorithm inputs. For large scale measurements, a previously
 reported positive bias with respect to models over southern hemisphere mid-latitude oceans is

148 reported positive bias with respect to models over southern hemisphere ind-faitude oceans is 149 greatly reduced, though regionally coherent biases still remain at a significant level (~1 ppmv)

150 [O'Dell et al., 2018].

151

152 **3.2 Detection of frontal boundary**

153 3-hourly weather maps of surface analysis, mostly at 18UTC or 21UTC from Weather 154 Prediction Center (WPC) in NOAA are used to locate days in which cold fronts were present 155 somewhere in the Conterminous United States (CONUS) and Mexico between 20°N and 55°N. 156 Only fronts with both warm and cold sectors all included in this domain are counted (i.e., cases 157 in which part of warm or cold sectors locate over ocean or land out of the given domain are not included). Only summer cold fronts are considered because we find a sufficient number of OCO-158 159 2 observed cold front cases in summer between 2015 and 2019 for statistical analyses, while the 160 other seasons have too few for this purpose. Further, since the growing season takes place in 161 summer, we anticipate the behavior we observe will be related to general strong CO₂ uptake and 162 net ecosystem exchange (NEE). Pal et al. [2020] has extensively analyzed the summertime

163 frontal signatures as seen from ACT-America, and so this analysis can be compared more 164 directly to published results.

Figure 2 shows an example of a cold front in Nebraska and Kansas at 18 UTC on August 5th, 2016 from NOAA surface analysis. Due to the fact that OCO-2 overpass times ranging from 15 UTC over the western Atlantic Ocean to 21 UTC over west coast of the U.S. each day, we

168 choose the weather analysis at 18 UTC or 21 UTC, depending which is closest to the frontal
169 overpass time. For visual analysis, we use the "OCO-2 MODIS Vistool"

170 (<u>https://github.com/hcronk/oco2_modis_vistool</u>) developed by Heather Cronk from Colorado

171 State University, which co-locates MODIS Aqua RGB images from Worldview using the NASA

172 GIBS API with OCO-2 data fields. The tool has been used for case study analysis in support of

173 OCO-2 cloud and aerosol screening validation (Taylor et al, 2016), as well as studies of local

174 features in XCO_2 data (Bell et al, 2020). We employ the Vistool to visually identify and align the

NOAA surface analysis with MODIS and OCO-2 imagery, enabling a visual determination of
 frontal crossing by the OCO-2 track.

177 Frontal zones, usually marked by sharp horizontal gradients in wind and temperature, are often observed with a cloud band and precipitation. Moisture varies sharply near the frontal 178 179 boundary as seen from the strong gradients in dew point and equivalent temperature. The strong 180 temperature gradient and moisture gradient across the front account for clouds over the frontal 181 zone. XCO₂ retrievals either fail to converge or are screened in the presence of cumulus cloud 182 related to the cold-frontal rainband at the leading edge [Hobbs, 1978] and thus XCO_2 at the frontal 183 boundary is not available, implying that near frontal XCO₂ dynamics are hidden under clouds and 184 not visible from space [Corbin and Denning, 2006]. We identify the band-like cloudy areas from 185 the MODIS satellite image near the frontal boundary located in the surface analysis to be frontal 186 zones, and the OCO-2 track north of the cloudy area.

187 Due to the filtering of OCO-2 XCO_2 data in cloudy areas, we define the first soundings 188 nearest the cold and warm sector boundaries and then define the lengths of both warm and cold 189 sectors using the soundings within 3 degrees of latitude of these soundings for the purpose of 190 calculating XCO2 differences across the frontal boundary. We performed a sensitivity study and 191 determined that the length of the warm and cold sectors affects the absolute value of the differences, 192 but not their significance (Figure 6).

193 A 3-sounding running mean is used to "smooth" the soundings in order to reduce the 194 effects of outliers. We define the ΔXCO_2 frontal contrast as the difference between the warm sector 195 mean XCO_2 the cold sector mean XCO_2 , after this smoothing is applied. We apply the above 196 method in the cases in summer (June, July, and August) for days in 2015 to 2019 during which 197 there were a cold front and an instantaneous satellite track from OCO-2 over the CONUS and north 198 Mexico (land between 20°N~55°N latitude, 50°W~140°W longitude).

199

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200 **3.3 Significance Test**

201 We utilize a statistical method to explore the significance of the frontal contrasts over and 202 above the day to day local variability of XCO₂ as well as the scatter of the OCO-2 data itself. 203 There are stationary patterns in atmospheric CO₂ that arise from a climatological north-south 204 gradient in surface fluxes as well as atmospheric flow patterns. As can be seen in Figure 5(a), 205 which shows the monthly mean XCO₂ aggregated to 1° latitude and longitude boxes, there is a 206 general depletion in northern XCO₂ relative to southern XCO₂. Solar-induced chlorophyll 207 fluorescence (SIF) from OCO-2 and enhanced vegetation index (EVI) derived from MODIS 208 suggest that photosynthesis of corn belt is stronger than less productive regions at lower 209 latitudes, but at the same longitude in US, which could be a cause of this north-south gradient. 210 Since this gradient could be mistaken for a frontal gradient if the timing and location is 211 fortuitous, we construct a climatology of OCO-2 tracks passing through the study region on non-212 frontal days and determine the significance of the frontal differences over and above 213 climatological differences in XCO₂. The method we use to construct the climatology is: 214 1. Randomly select an OCO-2 CONUS overpass when there is not a front if the length 215 of that overpass is longer than [length of gap + 3 degrees of latitude (length of warm

217 differences with those lengths in the same manner as for the frontal days;
218 2. Repeat the random selection and computing for 1000 times in summer from 2015 to 2019.

sector) + 3 degrees of latitude (length of cold sector)], and compute the XCO₂

The sample statistics of the climatology are used to determine whether XCO_2 contrasts across fronts are statistically different than non-frontal spatial contrasts in XCO_2 . This analysis utilizes OCO-2 data, and so tests whether OCO-2 retrievals exhibit different synoptic scale variation on frontal days versus non-frontal days.

4 Results

225 **4.1 XCO₂ differences across cold fronts and significance tests**

226 Sample overpasses are displayed in Figure 4 for a cold front on Aug 5^{th,} 2016, where 227 individual OCO-2 XCO_2 values are plotted versus latitude. The gap in the middle of the plot is 228 the location of the cloud-covered region near the frontal boundary, which causes soundings to be 229 screened out by prescreeners or filtered. This is reflected in the gradient of 2m dewpoint taken 230 from MERRA-2. The warm sector has elevated mean XCO_2 (402.33 ppm) relative to the cold sector mean (397.9 ppm), and their difference (4.426 ppm) is greater than the variability in each
 sector.

We found 66 summer cases from 2015 to 2019 in which a cold front was observed by OCO-234 2. In these five years, there are 12 frontal cases in 2015, 20 in 2016, 12 in 2017, 13 in 2018 and 235 11 in 2019. The contrast value is displayed in Figure 6 for all 66 cases. The error bar is defined 236 to be the mean of the cold and warm side XCO_2 sample standard deviations. Figure 6 shows a 237 general pattern of strong positive summertime frontal contrasts, with 39 of 66 cases having a 238 frontal contrast of more than 1.026 ppm (the sum of the mean of climatology and its standard 239 error).

Statistics for the different seasons are given Table 1. The average XCO_2 frontal contrasts for all five summers +0.981 ppmv (2015), +2.742 ppmv (2016), +1.125 ppmv (2017), +1.402 ppmv (2018), +1.861 ppmv (2019), and +1.762 ppmv for all summer cases. In spite of strong positive contrasts between warm and cold sectors on the majority of days, there are also individual days with negative changes across cold fronts such as Aug 28th, 2015 over Oklahoma and Jun 15th, 2017 over Iowa.

246 In addition to convergence of air in the vicinity of frontal boundaries, surface fluxes 247 contribute to the size of the contrast. In the wintertime, much of the biosphere is inert, and hence 248 CO₂ flux from plants is largely driven by spatially homogeneous respiration signals [*Raich and* 249 Schlesinger, 1992; Reichstein et al., 2005], while in the summer, CO₂ is depleted over productive 250 regions in the boundary layer and, to a lesser extent, the total column. For example, growing 251 regions such as the corn belt in the mid-western U.S. tend to have lower XCO₂ in the growing 252 season than less productive regions such as shrublands and savannahs in south and central U.S., 253 especially in north Mexico, New Mexico and south Colorado, as is depicted in Figure 5 for the 254 gridded average of all OCO-2 soundings taken in summer of 2016. It is important to distinguish 255 between these climatological differences in XCO₂ and frontally-induced differences in XCO₂.

As detailed in Section 3, we randomly selected 1000 non-frontal orbits in summer between 256 257 2015 and 2019 and calculate the assumed "frontal" differences in the same manner as for each of 258 the true frontal boundary crossings. The climatological XCO_2 contrast is due to stationary 259 atmospheric gradients in XCO_2 , which are likely the result of flux differences between northern 260 growing regions and southern grasslands [*Baker et al.*, 2010], coupled with upper level 261 atmospheric flow features. Large-scale waves in higher latitudes do not tend to move southward 262 because of the global wind patterns or the atmospheric circulation, resulting in weak meridional 263 mixing of atmospheric CO₂ [Wang et al., 2007]. As shown in Table 1, the mean of 1000 non-264 frontal XCO_2 differences is 1.074 and the standard error is 0.061. Our goal is to determine 265 whether frontal contrast crossings are distinct from this climatological contrast obtained for fair 266 weather cases.

267 Examining Table 1, we can compare the individual frontal crossings of OCO-2 with the 268 climatology, which by construction contains the stationary seasonal differences discussed in the 269 last paragraph. We find a number of individual days in each summer with differences that lie 270 outside the 1σ confidence interval around the mean: 7 out of 12 in 2015, 17 out of 20 in 2016, 10 271 out of 11 in 2017, 8 out of 12 in 2018 and 8 out of 11 in 2019. Based on mean and standard 272 deviation of both 66 XCO₂ frontal difference and 1000 assumed front cases, Student's T-test 273 (with values shown in Figure 6) suggests that in the mean, frontal differences in OCO-2 XCO₂ 274 are distinct from non-frontal north-to-south differences with the definition of 3° of latitude. 275 Sensitivity test results in Figure 7 reveals that, with shorter frontal sector definition, summer 276 XCO₂ frontal differences in 2015-2019 remain significantly different from the climatology. T

277 scores from two-tailed Student's T-test and their corresponding p values in Figure 7 suggest that

278 we can reject the null hypothesis (i.e., summer XCO_2 frontal differences are equal to non-frontal

differences) at a 95% confidence level. P values of T scores for 3°, 2.5°, 2°, 1.5° latitude

definitions are always less 0.05, indicating that our definition of cold and warm sector is not akey determinant of this finding.

282 In comparison with CO₂ frontal contrast in ACT-America campaign in *Davis et al.* [2018], 283 we find similar patterns to Pal et al (2020): positive differences in summer, even though results 284 from ACT-America campaign are measuring in situ CO2 concentration instead of XCO₂. This 285 agreement is in spite of the fact that ACT America is sampling directly at the frontal boundary, 286 rather than at larger scales like OCO-2. This seems to indicate that the larger scale forcing is driving the sign of the gradient across the frontal boundary, as opposed to surface processes near 287 288 the frontal boundary that are affected by changes in radiation due to cloud cover or small scale 289 atmospheric features.

290

4.2 The relationship between the strength of cold fronts and XCO₂ differences

292 Surface fronts are coincident with cyclones at upper levels, probably evolving from 293 baroclinic waves, which tend to be strongest over the ocean, but can develop over land [Wallace 294 and Hobbs, 2006]. The strength of the upper-level cyclone is associated with the scale and 295 strength of surface fronts, which is also relative to surface temperature gradient, pressure 296 gradient, wind speed and direction. Considering wind speed, temperature and specific humidity, 297 *Parazoo et al.* [2008] illustrated that frontal CO₂ is related to deformational compression and 298 strong advection along the front, which is also sensitive to locations and seasons. In order to 299 explore the relationship between the strength of cold fronts and the magnitude of XCO₂ frontal 300 difference, we examined the correlation between the XCO₂ frontal difference and temperature difference on each side of the front, with surface temperature under OCO-2 track. The resulting 301 small squared correlation coefficient ($R^2 = 0.0053$) suggests that there is little evidence that 302 XCO₂ frontal difference is related to frontal strength if temperature discontinuity considered only. 303 However, this conclusion may be limited by cloudy area as seen from OCO-2. The gap distance 304 also has weak correlation with XCO₂ frontal difference ($R^2 = 0.0441$), which is due to limited 305 306 samples as well.

307 **5 Discussion**

308 OCO-2 data reveal that XCO₂ frontal crossings exhibit a consistent pattern: the mean XCO₂ 309 on the warm side is generally greater than the cold side. These synoptic scale patterns in XCO_2 310 are distinct in magnitude from days when there are no fronts: summer differences are greater 311 than the climatology would suggest from stationary atmospheric flow patterns. The climatology 312 does suggest that the larger scale fluxes play an important role, as their mean difference across 313 the assumed frontal gap is greater than 0. This means that the fronts themselves are enhancing these differences due to surface fluxes and climatological atmospheric transport. 314 315 Similarly to *Corbin and Denning* [2006], our results suggest that atmospheric chemistry 316 transport models (ACTMs) attempting to reproduce OCO-2 data should resolve the synoptic 317 spatiotemporal CO₂ gradients between airmasses at a minimum to avoid misrepresenting the data 318 variations incorrectly. This is critical information, as some current global scale off-line ACTMs 319 resolve transport only at the scales of several hundreds of kilometers (e.g. most of the models in

the OCO-2 Model Intercomparison Project described by *Crowell et al.* [2019]). The impact of

321 this representation error on surface flux estimates is difficult to assess without further study of 322 the models themselves, and is outside the scope of this observational study.

323 The results of our study would benefit from a larger set of cases, which would increase

324 confidence. The number of cases are limited by the sparse coverage of OCO-2 and the need for

325 serendipitous timing of overpasses with fronts. Future missions such as the Geostationary

326 Carbon Observatory (GeoCarb, *Moore III et al.* [2018]) will provide many opportunities to study

327 the interaction between synoptic scale atmospheric motions and fluxes due to their much wider 328 swath and daily revisits.

329 Future work is to distinguish between the roles of flux and transport for those seasonal

330 variations of frontal differences. This analysis will require a well-calibrated atmospheric

- 331 chemical transport model that resolves atmospheric motions at sufficiently high spatial resolution
- to reproduce the observed features in both the airborne measurements and the satellite data,
- 333 which is currently in development. That work is the subject of a publication that is currently in 334 preparation.

335 6 Conclusions

The preceding analyses demonstrated that across frontal boundaries $OCO-2 XCO_2$ retrievals observe differences that are distinct from the climatological XCO_2 north-south gradient present

over the CONUS and north Mexico. OCO-2 XCO_2 differences across cold fronts were shown to

exhibit similar qualitative behavior to that seen in previous literature, such as *Parazoo et al.*

340 [2008]. The differences we found are naturally of a smaller magnitude than those found in the

341 atmospheric boundary layer due to dilution of the lower tropospheric signal in the total column.

342 These findings are also in agreement with aircraft observations made as part of the ACT-

343 America campaign, which seems to imply that frontal dynamics drive non-local differences in

344 CO₂, and hence models must be able to resolve these atmospheric features to properly make use

of these data. Coarse models may misinterpret these transport-induced signals as local flux-

induced, and thus lead to a biased flux estimate. These considerations are important for proper

use of current and future spaceborne sensors like OCO-3, GOSAT, GOSAT-2, and GeoCarb

348 [*Moore III et al.*, 2018], which will observe broader regions with a mapping-like approach at 349 different times of day and thus, when used in conjunction with one another will lead to stronger

inference on surface fluxes (and thus potentially a stronger bias in ill-equipped models).

351

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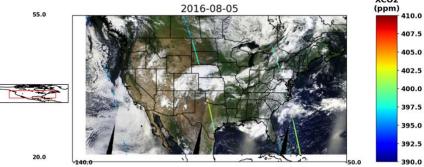


Figure 1 An example for OCO-2 tracks on August 5th, 2016. The satellite flies from east to west, south to north. The colors of the soundings vary with XCO_2 .

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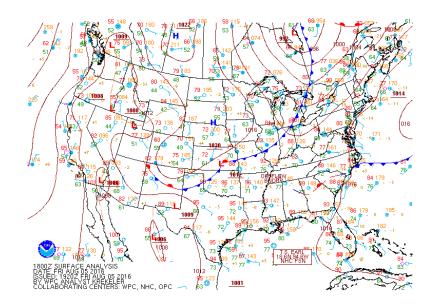


Figure 2 An example for WPC surface analysis on August 5th, 2016, 18 UTC. This surface analysis is used to compare with

- OCO-2 tracks in Figure 3 to locate the cold front.
- 485 486 487 (https://www.wpc.ncep.noaa.gov/archives/web_pages/sfc/sfc_archive_maps.php?arcdate=08/05/2016&selmap=2016080518&m aptype=namussfc)

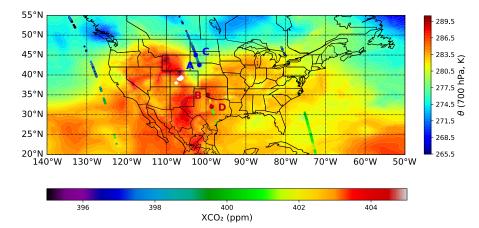
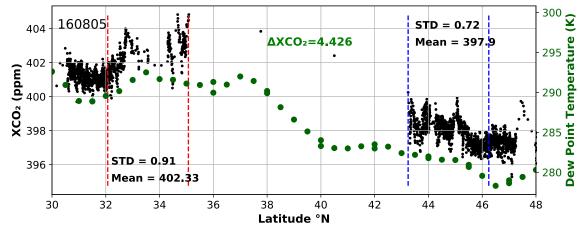


Figure 3 An example for OCO-2 tracks overlaid on the MERRA-2 potential temperature at 700 hPa on August 5th, 2016. The segment of track from A to C is used to calculate the cold sector

506 mean XCO₂, while the segment from B to D is used to calculate the warm sector mean XCO₂.

507 Distances between A and C, between B and D are both 3 degrees of latitude.

- .



Latitude $^{\circ}N$ **Figure 4** XCO₂ frontal gradient on August 5th, 2016. The left-hand section between red dashed lines is the warm sector in a cold front, black dots in this section are the satellite soundings in warm sector after a 3-sounding boxcar smoother is applied. Similarly, the cold sector is the

527 region between the blue dashed lines on the right-hand side. The blank second section between

528 the two sectors is missing data because of clouds. Green dots are dew point temperature at 2m

by above ground level. The gradients marked in the figures are the XCO_2 in warm sector minus that

- 530 in cold sector.
- 531
- 532
- 533

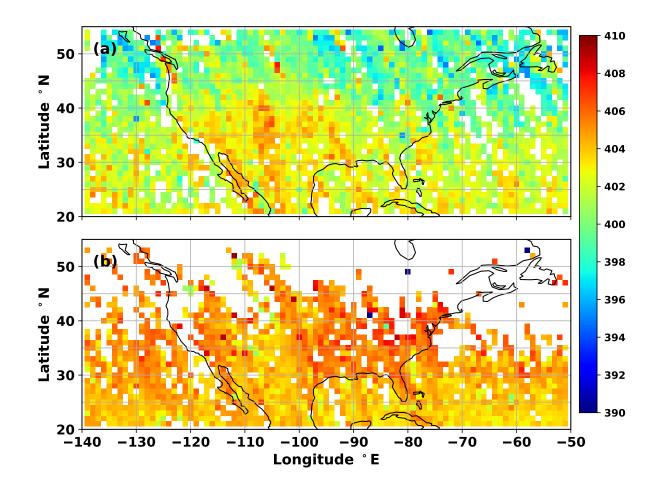


Figure 5 Seasonal mean of OCO-2 XCO₂ (in 1° Latitude × 1° Longitude) over the CONUS
in 2016-2017 (a) in summer (JJA in 2016), (b) in winter (December in 2016, January and February
in 2017).

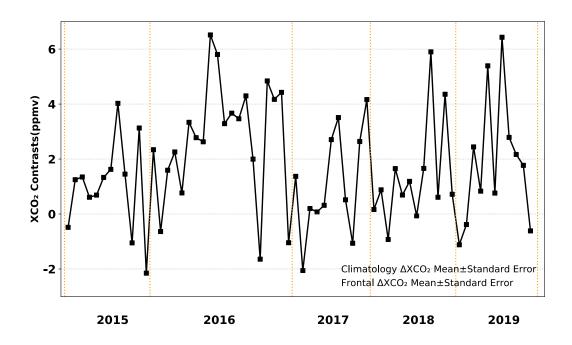


Figure 6 2015-2019 summer X_{CO_2} frontal differences (black dots) grouped by year.

- 542 Gray shade is climatological summer X_{CO_2} differences mean ±standard error and red shade is for
- X_{CO_2} frontal differences mean ±standard error.

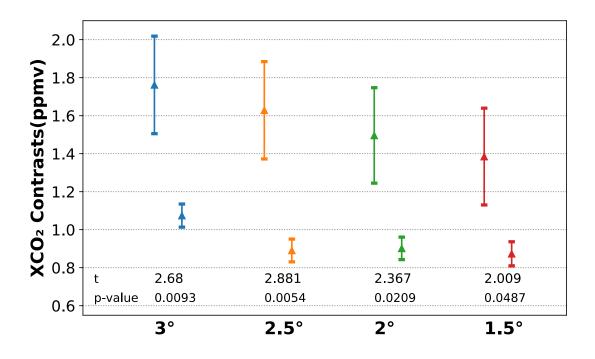


Figure 7 Error bar with mean and standard error of X_{CO_2} frontal differences and its assumed 548 non-frontal differences. Left blue error bar is XCO₂ frontal differences defined 3° latitudes of 549 both warm and cold sector, and right blue one is the error bar of 1000 assumed XCO₂ frontal 550 differences; Orange, green, red left (right) error bars are similar to the blue left (right) one buf for 551 2.5° , 2° , 1.5° of latitudes.

		Non-frontal Cases					
Year	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	All	All
Counts	12	20	11	12	11	66	1000
Mean (ppmv)	0.981	2.742	1.125	1.402	1.861	1.762	1.074
Standard Error (ppmv)	0.465	0.470	0.558	0.528	0.686	0.257	0.061
25% Quantile (ppmv)	0.337	1.897	0.138	0.498	0.189	0.366	-0.128
Median (ppmv)	1.290	3.033	0.517	0.799	1.772	1.523	0.840
75% Quantile (ppmv)	1.496	4.203	2.672	1.653	2.615	3.248	2.209
Min (ppmv)	-2.151	-1.642	-2.056	-0.926	-1.119	-2.151	-6.281
Max (ppmv)	4.025	6.516	4.164	5.900	6.431	6.516	10.642

Table 1 - Counts, mean and standard error, 25% quantile, median, 75% quantile, minimum andmaximum of XCO_2 frontal contrasts for 2015-2019.

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