The Atmospheric Carbon and Transport (ACT) - America Mission

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Abstract

The Atmospheric Carbon and Transport (ACT) – America NASA Earth Venture Suborbital Mission set out to improve regional atmospheric greenhouse gas (GHG) inversions by exploring the intersection of the strong GHG fluxes and vigorous atmospheric transport that occurs within the midlatitudes. Two research aircraft instrumented with remote and in situ sensors to measure GHG mole fractions, associated trace gases, and atmospheric state variables collected 1140.7 flight hours of research data, distributed across 305 individual aircraft sorties, coordinated within 121 research flight days, and spanning five, six-week seasonal flight campaigns in the central and eastern United States. Flights sampled 31 synoptic sequences, including fair weather and frontal conditions, at altitudes ranging from the atmospheric boundary layer to the upper free troposphere. The observations were complemented with global and regional GHG flux and transport model ensembles. We found that midlatitude weather systems contain large spatial gradients in GHG mole fractions, in patterns that were consistent as a function of season and altitude. We attribute these patterns to a combination of regional terrestrial fluxes and inflow from the continental boundaries. These observations, when segregated according to altitude and air mass, provide a variety of quantitative insights into the realism of regional CO2 and CH4 fluxes and atmospheric GHG transport realizations. The ACT-America data set and ensemble modeling methods provide benchmarks for the development of atmospheric inversion systems. As global and regional atmospheric systems will produce increasingly accurate and precise sub-continental GHG flux estimates.

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ABSTRACT

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41	Suborbital Mission set out to improve regional atmospheric greenhouse gas (GHG)
42	inversions by exploring the intersection of the strong GHG fluxes and vigorous atmospheric
43	transport that occurs within the midlatitudes. Two research aircraft instrumented with remote
44	and in situ sensors to measure GHG mole fractions, associated trace gases, and atmospheric
45	state variables collected 1140.7 flight hours of research data, distributed across 305 individual
46	aircraft sorties, coordinated within 121 research flight days, and spanning five, six-week
47	seasonal flight campaigns in the central and eastern United States. Flights sampled 31
48	synoptic sequences, including fair weather and frontal conditions, at altitudes ranging from
49	the atmospheric boundary layer to the upper free troposphere. The observations were
50	complemented with global and regional GHG flux and transport model ensembles. We found
51	that midlatitude weather systems contain large spatial gradients in GHG mole fractions, in
52	patterns that were consistent as a function of season and altitude. We attribute these patterns
53	to a combination of regional terrestrial fluxes and inflow from the continental boundaries.
54	These observations, when segregated according to altitude and air mass, provide a variety of
55	quantitative insights into the realism of regional CO_2 and CH_4 fluxes and atmospheric GHG
56	transport realizations. The ACT-America data set and ensemble modeling methods provide
57	benchmarks for the development of atmospheric inversion systems. As global and regional
58	atmospheric inversions incorporate ACT-America's findings and methods, we anticipate
59	these systems will produce increasingly accurate and precise sub-continental GHG flux
60	estimates.

61 CAPSULE (BAMS ONLY)

62 Midlatitude weather systems contain large gradients in greenhouse gases (GHG),

63 reflecting regional fluxes and continental inflow. ACT-America carbon weather observations

64 provide a synoptic-scale benchmark for GHG flux and transport models.

Introduction 65

66 Unknowns in the Earth's carbon cycle. Understanding the terrestrial carbon cycle is 67 essential for diagnosing current and predicting future climate change (Marquis and Tans, 68 2008; Gregory et al., 2009; Michalak et al., 2011). Our current understanding of the earth's 69 carbon cycle is limited. We know global anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO_2) emissions with 70 good accuracy, and that the Earth's terrestrial biosphere has been a strong net sink of 71 atmospheric (CO₂) for more than three decades (Ciais et al., 2013) slowing the accumulation 72 of CO₂ caused by fossil fuel burning. The causes of these biogenic CO₂ sinks (Huntzinger et 73 al, 2017), their location (Peylin et al. 2013; Crowell et al., 2019), and their likely evolution in 74 the future (Friedlingstein et al., 2014), remain deeply uncertain, contributing considerable 75 uncertainty to climate projections (Stocker et al., 2013; Friedlingstein et al., 2014, Holden et 76 al., 2018). Terrestrial biosphere models of ecosystem-atmosphere CO₂ exchange diverge 77 substantially in their regional simulations of gross primary productivity (GPP) and ecosystem 78 respiration (RE), and show large differences in net ecosystem-atmosphere exchange of CO₂ 79 (NEE) at seasonal and annual time scales (Huntzinger et al., 2012; Fisher et al, 2014; 80 Schwalm et al., 2015).

81 Methane (CH₄) is accumulating in the atmosphere (Montzka *et al.*, 2011, Dlugokencky *et* 82 al., 2011) and is the second largest contributor to contemporary anthropogenic climate 83 change (Myhre et al., 2013). Fluctuations in the global rate of increase of atmospheric CH_4 84 (Nisbet et al., 2014) remain unexplained (Turner et al, 2019). Anthropogenic CH₄ emissions from inventories have been shown to have large biases (e.g. Miller et al., 2013; Alvarez et al., 85 4

2018), but these biases are not clearly related to the fluctuations (Bruhwiler et al., 2017; Lan et al., 2019). Estimates of wetland CH_4 emissions diverge by nearly a factor of two on a global scale (Saunois et al., 2016) and by more than a factor of four in North America (Bloom et al., 2017).

90 How can atmospheric inversions help? Atmospheric inversions have the potential to 91 provide ongoing, accurate and precise diagnoses of CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes. Atmospheric 92 inversions (e.g., Baker et al., 2006a, 2010; Peters et al., 2007; Lauvaux et al, 2012; Peylin et 93 al., 2013; Crowell et al, 2019) combine a first guess of fluxes (e.g., a model of ecosystem 94 respiration and photosynthesis), referred to as a prior flux estimate, with winds and vertical 95 mixing from an atmospheric transport reanalysis. The prior fluxes are propagated through the 96 atmospheric transport fields to predict space-time distributions of atmospheric CO₂ and CH₄ 97 (hereafter collectively referred to as C) concentrations (hereafter we will use the more precise 98 term of mole fraction). The simulated C mole fractions are then compared to observations, 99 such as those collected by the Global Greenhouse Gas Reference Network (GGGRN, 100 Conway et al., 1994; Dlugokencky et al., 2005; Andrews et al., 2014; Sweeney et al., 2015) 101 or satellite platforms (Yokota et al., 2009; Kuze et al, 2016; Crisp et al, 2017; Hu et al, 2018; 102 Eldering et al, 2019). The C flux estimates are then adjusted to minimize the difference 103 between the observed and modeled atmospheric C mole fractions.

Challenges facing atmospheric inversions. Atmospheric inversions provide invaluable
insights into global to zonal, decadal-scale sources and sinks of C (e.g., Tans *et al.*, 1990;
Ciais *et al.*, 1995; Battle et al., 2000; Bousquet *et al.*, 2006). Atmospheric inversions still
struggle, however, to inform regional-scale C fluxes (Peylin et al., 2013; Crowell et al.,
2019). Our limited understanding of the Earth's carbon cycle stems arguably from our
limited ability to diagnose routinely earth-atmosphere fluxes at regional scales. Regional

scales are critically important because they are the scales over which changes in the
environment (e.g. climate, nutrients, insects, fire) and human activity (e.g. energy systems,
land use and land cover) drive changes in terrestrial C fluxes.

113 A growing observational network. Globally-comparable, spatially and temporally 114 extensive and dense atmospheric C measurements are essential for inferring earth-atmosphere 115 fluxes of C using atmospheric inversions. Relevant spatial and temporal differences in 116 atmospheric C are small, setting stringent demands on measurement calibration (WMO, 117 2018). Despite these challenges, the global observational network for atmospheric C is 118 growing, bringing the potential for greater atmospheric constraint on regional C fluxes. The most dramatic recent increases in observations have come from satellite remote 119 120 sensing, including the Greenhouse gases Observing Satellite (GOSAT, Yokota et al., 2009; 121 Kuze et al, 2016), the Orbiting Carbon Observatory-2 and -3 (OCO-2, -3; Crisp et al, 2017; 122 Eldering et al, 2019), the TROPOspheric Monitoring Instrument (TROPOMI; Hu et al., 123 2018), and the Cross-Track Infrared Sounder (CrIS; Nalli et al., 2020). GeoCarb, planned for 124 launch in 2022, will measure CO₂, CH₄ and CO over the Americas from geostationary orbit 125 (Moore et al., 2018; Polonsky et al., 2014). Evaluation of space-based measurements remains 126 a significant challenge. Considerable progress has been made on this topic (O'Dell et al., 127 2018), but evaluation has been largely limited to single-point observations (Wunch et al., 128 2011; 2017). Long-term, in situ measurement networks have also expanded in recent decades, 129 including tower-based (Andrews et al., 2014; Miles et al., 2012; Hazan et al, 2016) and 130 airborne (Sweeney et al., 2015; Machida et al., 2008) monitoring. 131 Atmospheric inversion systems have been adapted to include the expanded remote and in 132 situ observation networks, with some success at determining regional C fluxes (e.g. Hu et al.,

133 2019; Liu et al., 2017; Schuh et al., 2013). Nevertheless, large uncertainties remain in North

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134	American total (CH ₄ and biogen	ic CO ₂ fluxes	(Bruhwiler et al.	, 2017; USGCRP,	2018;
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135 Crowell et al., 2019). Why, given the relatively high density of observations available in

136 North America, do large uncertainties in C fluxes persist?

Prior fluxes. Two factors beyond atmospheric observations limit the accuracy of
atmospheric inversions. One is uncertainty in prior flux estimates. Atmospheric inversions
are complex optimizations that can be strongly influenced, especially when atmospheric C
data are limited, by their "first guess" or prior fluxes. Large biases and poorly quantified
uncertainties in these prior fluxes will hinder atmospheric inverse C flux estimates.

142 The importance of atmospheric transport. Uncertainty in atmospheric transport is a second major source of uncertainty in inverse flux estimates (Baker et al., 2006b; Stephens et 143 144 al., 2007; Gerbig et al., 2008; Chevallier et al., 2010; Lauvaux and Davis, 2014; Díaz-Isaac et 145 al, 2018; Schuh et al., 2019). Atmospheric transport uncertainty in inverse estimates of net biogenic CO₂ fluxes for temperate North America is 0.3-0.5 PgC yr⁻¹ (Gurney *et al.*, 2002; 146 147 Baker et al., 2006b; Schuh et al., 2019), nearly equal to the estimated magnitude of the net 148 annual flux. What are the causes of this uncertainty, and what can be done to reduce it? 149 Improved representation of mid-latitude weather systems in atmospheric inversions is 150 highly likely to improve the resulting inverse C flux estimates. Mid-latitude weather systems 151 are both important drivers of the global redistribution of atmospheric C (Parazoo et al., 2008; 152 2011; 2012; Chan et al, 2008; Barnes et al., 2016; Schuh et al., 2019), and major drivers of 153 regional atmospheric C patterns that carry regional C flux information (Hurwitz et al., 2004; 154 Barkley et al., 2019a; Pal et al., 2020a; Hu et al., 2021). Mid-latitude cyclones create north-155 south exchange of C in the cyclonic circulation, large-scale vertical lifting at frontal 156 boundaries, and vertical mixing via convective instability (Parazoo et al., 2008; 2011; 157 Samaddar et al., 2021).

158 Improving the resolution of the atmospheric models used in inverse modeling systems 159 may reduce transport errors. Agusti-Panadera et al., (2019) used a global weather forecasting 160 system to show that increasing the resolution of an atmospheric transport simulation reduces 161 model-data errors in atmospheric CO₂. Regional studies with high-density in situ atmospheric 162 observation networks and regional, mesoscale atmospheric models (Lauvaux et al., 2012; 163 Schuh et al., 2013) have inferred regional biogenic CO₂ fluxes to an uncertainty level capable 164 of evaluating agricultural inventories (Ogle et al., 2015). Hu et al., (2019) showed success in 165 deriving temporal variations in North American biogenic CO₂ fluxes using a continental-scale 166 mesoscale modeling system. Regional inversion systems are still relatively rare. The 167 resolution of global inversions is increasing, and the native atmospheric transport reanalyses 168 used in these systems may already be sufficiently resolved to simulate C transport by 169 synoptic weather systems with good fidelity. 170 Data are needed to evaluate and improve the representation of weather systems in 171 atmospheric inversions. Current long-term observational systems, in situ and remote, do not 172 have sufficient spatial resolution and coverage to describe the spatial structures of C within 173 midlatitude weather systems, and thus have limited ability to evaluate atmospheric 174 simulations of C transport by weather systems.

Value of an airborne mission. ACT-America is an airborne mission working toward the development of a new generation of high-resolution, weather-resolving, ensemble-based atmospheric C inversion systems. This mission complements long-term, global-scale observations such as those made by the NOAA Global Greenhouse Gas Reference Network and the growing constellation of C satellites, and airborne campaigns such as the Atmospheric Tomography Mission (AToM, Prather et al., 2018) focused on the remote atmosphere. ACT-America flights fill the observational gap left among continuous-in-time

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but spatially-sparse, tower-based C measurements (Andrews et al., 2014), spatially-extensive,
but spatially- and temporally-sparse long-term aircraft profiling (Sweeney et al., 2015), and
globally-extensive but temporally-sparse (compared to synoptic weather) provided by lowearth-orbit satellite systems (Kuze et al, 2016; Crisp et al, 2017). Here we present ACTAmerica's mission design, and an interpretation of the results emerging from the project.

187 Mission Goals and Objectives

188 The ACT-America mission's overarching goal is to enable atmospheric inversions to 189 quantify the contemporary carbon cycle with the accuracy and precision needed 1) to 190 evaluate and improve terrestrial carbon cycle models, and 2) to monitor carbon fluxes in 191 support of climate-change mitigation efforts. This overarching goal is being pursued via three 192 specific objectives: 1) quantification and reduction of uncertainty in simulations of 193 atmospheric C transport, 2) quantification and reduction in uncertainty in prior C flux 194 estimates, and 3) evaluation of the ability of the OCO-2 instrument to capture regional-scale, 195 tropospheric gradients in column CO₂ (XCO₂). Since the atmospheric and ecosystem 196 processes we are studying are found throughout the Earth's midlatitudes, and the satellite 197 observations we are evaluating are global in scope, our results should improve our ability to 198 diagnose the Earth's carbon cycle on a global scale, and over the decades encompassed by the 199 long-term C observing network. The intersecting elements of the mission are illustrated in 200 Figure 1.

201 Instruments and Platforms

202 Airborne platforms.

203 Two aircraft, a NASA Langley Research Center Beechcraft B-200 King Air, and a NASA
204 Wallops Flight Facility Lockheed C-130 Hercules, carried a common suite of in situ,

205	continuous sensors measuring meteorological variables (wind speed, wind direction, and
206	atmospheric temperature, water vapor and pressure), aircraft position, atmospheric C mole
207	fractions (Baier et al., 2020), and atmospheric C tracers including carbon monoxide (CO),
208	ozone (O_3), ethane (C_2H_6 , Weibring et al., 2020; Kostinek et al., 2019) and approximately 50
209	long-lived trace gases including ${}^{14}\text{CO}_2$ and carbonyl sulfide (OCS) using flask whole-air
210	samplers (Baier et al., 2020). The C-130 carried additional instrumentation, including an in
211	situ nitrous oxide (N_2O) analyzer (Kostinek et al., 2019), a downward-pointing backscatter
212	lidar able to detect clouds and clear-air atmospheric structure including atmospheric
213	boundary layer (ABL) depth (McGill et al., 2004; Pal et al, 2020b), and a downward-pointing
214	integrated path differential absorption (IPDA) lidar to measure either column CO_2 (XCO ₂ ,
215	first four flight campaigns, Campbell et al., 2020) or column CH ₄ (XCH ₄ , aerosol/cloud, and
216	ABL depth, final flight campaign). More details on the instruments, performance metrics,
217	calibration procedures and data archives are found in Wei et al., (2021).
218	Towers.

219 Communications towers were instrumented with Picarro cavity ring-down spectrometers 220 to measure C at approximately 100m above ground (Miles et al., 2018). Eleven towers were 221 selected to fill in gaps in the NOAA GGGRN. These towers operated throughout the years 222 (2016-2019) of the ACT-America airborne campaigns.

223 Satellites.

Fourteen ACT-America flights were coordinated with the passage of OCO-2 such that the aircraft were co-located temporally and spatially within the instrument's measurement swath (Bell et al., 2020). The final ACT-America flight campaign overlapped with operations of the European Space Agency's TROPOMI instrument, which retrieves XCH₄ globally on a daily basis.

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229 Ensemble Modeling System

230 Ensemble modeling is an essential element of ACT-America's methodology (Figure 1). A 231 transport ensemble consisting of a mesoscale atmospheric transport model with multiple 232 physical parameterizations (Díaz-Isaac et al., 2019), initial conditions (Chen et al., 2019; 233 Feng et al., 2019a,b) and resolutions (Samaddar et al., 2021) is embedded within a suite of 234 global atmospheric C reanalyses (Butler et al., 2020; Feng et al., 2019a,b), and can include an 235 ensemble of ecosystem and anthropogenic C flux estimates (Zhou et al., 2020; Feng et al., 236 2019a,b). This multi-component ensemble system enables model sensitivity to any of the 237 individual components to be explored independently (e.g. Feng et al., 2019a; 2019b; Chen et 238 al., 2019). This enables ACT-America to address a primary challenge in the study of 239 atmospheric C: the disaggregation of model-data errors caused by surface fluxes vs. 240 atmospheric transport.

241 The model ensemble provides a realistic assessment of uncertainty only if the range of 242 variation in the components represents our uncertainty in those components. Thus, another 243 critical feature of the ensemble modeling effort is the attempt to calibrate the ensemble vs. 244 both meteorological measurements (Diaz et al., 2019; Feng et al., 2019a,b) and atmospheric 245 C flux and mole fraction observations (Zhou et al., 2020; Feng et al., 2019a,b). We use the 246 term calibration in the sense of carefully determining the range of the ensemble for the 247 purpose of quantifying uncertainty. Minimizing bias is also critical to the quality of the 248 ensemble (Diaz et al., 2019). Continued evaluation and improvement of the model ensembles 249 using ACT-America observations, and applications of the ensembles to improve inversions, 250 is a central focus of ongoing investigation.

In addition to the ensemble, we have created a "baseline simulation" of total atmospheric CO_2 and CH_4 continental enhancements spanning the entire flight campaign (Feng et al.,

253 2020). The C mole fractions are broken down according to their source (e.g. boundaries,

fossil, biogenic; Feng et al., 2019b; Barkley et al., 2019a). This baseline simulation has been

combined with the HYSPLIT (Stein et al., 2015) and FLEXPART (Pisso et al., 2019)

256 Lagrangian dispersion models to create influence functions for both flask samples (Baier et

al., 2020) and continuous aircraft observations (Cui et al., 2021).

258 Flight patterns and campaigns

259 Flight regions.

260 We chose ACT-America flight regions to encompass a range of weather and C fluxes. 261 The Midwest region (flight base Lincoln, Nebraska) enabled the sampling of midlatitude 262 cyclones early in their life cycles, and agricultural C fluxes. The South-Central region (flight 263 base Shreveport, Louisiana) featured coastal convection, strong atmospheric influence from 264 the Gulf of Mexico, substantial anthropogenic C fluxes, and forested and agricultural 265 ecosystems with substantially different seasonality than the other study regions. The 266 MidAtlantic region (flight bases NASA Wallops Flight Facility in Chincoteague, Virginia, 267 and NASA Langley Research Center in Hampton, Virginia) spanned the Appalachian 268 temperate forests, large anthropogenic C fluxes, and late-stage weather systems that carried 269 the accumulated signatures of C fluxes from across the continent. These central and eastern 270 U.S. ecosystems are highly productive and encompass a large fraction of US ecosystem and 271 anthropogenic C fluxes and flux uncertainty (Alvarez et al., 2018; Feng et al., 2019b; 272 USGCRP, 2018).

273 Flight patterns.

ACT-America conducted three types of flights: OCO-2 underflights, fair weather flights and frontal flights. The fair and frontal flights were arranged to construct synoptic sequences

(Figure 2), with flight planning guided by a vigorous daily flight forecasting effort. Both
aircraft were deployed for the majority of ACT-America flights. All flights were conducted
during late morning through mid-afternoon hours in order to minimize vertical gradients in C
within the ABL.

280 OCO-2 UNDER-FLIGHTS

For OCO-2 under flights, the two aircraft flew out and back along a single track

approximately 500 km in length that was within the sampling swath of the satellite (Figure 3).

283 Since OCO-2 measurement retrievals are limited in the presence of cloud fields, clear

284 conditions were targeted. This observation strategy, designed to test the ability of OCO-2 to

285 retrieve regional-scale spatial variability in tropospheric XCO₂, represents a unique

286 contribution (Bell et al., 2020) to the OCO-2 XCO₂ evaluation literature.

287 SYNOPTIC SEQUENCES

We designed the majority of ACT-America flights to sample the GHG and meteorological properties of midlatitude weather systems. This included multi-level flights across frontal boundaries, and within pre- and post-frontal fair-weather air masses. A sample multi-day flight sequence from the summer of 2016 is illustrated in Figure 4.

Pre-frontal conditions in the US Midwest were sampled on 9 and 10 August (Figure 4a). The fair-weather patterns flown on these two days were designed so that the ABL portion of the 9 August flight was approximately one day's advection upwind of the ABL air sampled on 10 August to enable regional C flux estimates. Flow in the pre-frontal conditions came primarily from the south, but with some northerly air mass history since the flights were close to the high-pressure center (Figure 4f). These two-day sequences were flown primarily in the summer of 2016, and close to the center of fair-weather high-pressure systems whose light

winds allowed this quasi-Lagrangian flight plan to be executed. ABL C mole fractions in fair
weather were often strikingly heterogeneous (Figure 4a,c), reflecting both spatially
heterogeneous fluxes and the variable air mass history found within a high pressure center
(Figure 4f).

303 A front moved through the region on 12 August, 2016 and was sampled at four altitudes 304 along a flight track approximately perpendicular to the front (Figure 4e). Large differences in 305 both CO₂ and CH₄ were found across the front in both the ABL and the free troposphere (FT), 306 with larger differences in the ABL (Figure 4d): this was typical of the fronts sampled during 307 this campaign (Pal et al., 2020a). The influence functions (Figure 4g) show the convergence 308 at the front of air masses influenced by C fluxes from the upper MidWest and the South. 309 Persistent cross-frontal C differences were found in all seasons, but were the largest in the 310 summer. This flight also shows an elevated band of CO₂ in the ABL at about -94° to -95° 311 longitude, just ahead of the cold front (Figure 4b, d), a feature common to all frontal crossing 312 flights (Pal et al., 2020a). The large and persistent cross-frontal C mole fraction differences 313 (Pal et al., 2020a) are highly sensitive to regional C fluxes (Hu et al., 2021; Samaddar et al., 314 2021), and emphasize both the importance of fronts in the meridional transport of C (Schuh et 315 al., 2019) and their value in determining regional C fluxes (Hu et al., 2021; Barkley et al., 316 2019a).

Post-frontal, fair weather flights on 13 and 14 August (Figure 4c) sampled the strong shift
to northwesterly winds sensitive to fluxes from the upper MidWest (Figure 4h). ABL C mole
fractions remained highly variable (Figure 4c), despite the homogeneous air mass history.

320 The slightly elevated ABL CO_2 in the warm sector and strongly depleted CO_2 in the cold

321 sector (Figure 4a-c) suggest a weak CO₂ source in southern ecosystems and a strong

322 MidWestern ecosystem sink then (Pal et al., 2020a). The free tropospheric cross-frontal mole

fraction differences reflect large-scale seasonal, latitudinal gradients (Pal et al., 2020a). This sequence also illustrates the strong organization of C mole fractions as a function of air mass history associated with the passage of weather systems. Averaging soundings seasonally or regionally without attention to the synoptic state will erase this valuable information about upwind fluxes. Model-data comparisons sampled according to air mass history show more ability to distinguish among simulations of C fluxes and transport than comparisons that average all data (Gerken et al., 2021; Gaudet et al., 2021).

330 GULF INFLOW FLIGHTS

331 In all seasons, the Gulf of Mexico provided distinct, homogeneous C upwind boundary 332 conditions for our flights. This continental boundary exhibited itself most strongly in the pre-333 frontal and warm sector data in the South and MidWest regions. Those air masses had 334 considerably less variability than the air coming from the northwest across a large expanse of 335 the North American continent (Gerken et al., 2021). We took advantage of this simple 336 boundary condition by deploying a number of flights downwind of the Gulf when high 337 pressure systems to the east led to a steady onshore flow (Figure 2). The change in C mole 338 fractions downwind of the Gulf provides another upwind-downwind constraint on regional 339 fluxes in the far southern portion of our study domain.

340 FAIR WEATHER TRANSECTS.

341 In order to better capture a large swath of upwind fluxes, and because in the dormant 342 seasons ABL wind speeds were often too high to make a two-day Lagrangian sequence 343 feasible, we changed our flight strategy for fair weather conditions to single flight days with a 344 long, cross-wind transect and a second upwind transect to measure the changes in C mole 345 fractions caused by more local fluxes.

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346 LIDAR OVERPASSES

Nearly every C-130 flight included one to four lidar overpasses of a spiral ascent or descent. Some of these spirals included lidar overpasses at multiple altitudes. These 166 overpasses (a subset after screening for non-ideal conditions) enabled empirical tests and correction for biases in the lidar XCO_2 (Campbell et al., 2020) and XCH_4 observations.

351 Flight campaign climatology.

352 Flight campaigns sampled the large seasonality in both weather and ecosystem C fluxes 353 characteristic of the midlatitudes. Flight campaigns (Figure 2) were long enough to capture 354 seasonally-typical flux and weather conditions in each of our three flight regions. Flights 355 were conducted for two weeks in each region, sampling roughly two synoptic sequences per 356 region, and targeted typical rather than extreme conditions. Two summer flight campaigns 357 were conducted both to increase sampling when biogenic CO₂ fluxes are at their peak, and, 358 for the Southern and MidWestern regions, to capture earlier and later summer conditions. 359 Summer 2016 sampled mid- to late-summer conditions. Climatological conditions were 360 fairly typical in two of our three flight regions. One significant exception was the flooding 361 that occurred in the South, with the most extreme flooding taking place in southern Louisiana 362 (Brown et al., 2020). Our final flight campaign, summer 2019, was conducted in early- to 363 mid-summer conditions and was intended to sample earlier season biogenic CO₂ fluxes a full 364 two months earlier than our summer 2016 campaign in the South, and one month earlier in 365 the MidWest. This plan was complicated by extreme flooding in the late spring of 2019 in 366 the central United States (Yin et al., 2020). The flooding delayed planting of crops in the 367 MidWest by more than two weeks, and the landscape in early July appeared to be roughly a 368 month behind in crop development. The South was not as broadly impacted in terms of

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vegetation phenology, though river valleys were flooded all across the region. The
MidAtlantic region was sampled at the same time of year in both campaigns. Summer 2019

in the MidAtlantic included a period of extreme heat (17-22 July).

372 Other seasonal campaigns also included climatological anomalies worthy of mention. The 373 MidWestern portion of the winter 2017 flight campaign encountered anomalously warm 374 conditions from 13-18 February, approximately the first week of flights. The regional 375 surface remained snow-covered and the warm air and snow-covered surface resulted in very 376 shallow boundary layers until a strong storm system on 20 February, the center-point of one 377 of the synoptic sequences sampled by ACT (Figure 2), brought a return to more typical 378 regional weather conditions. The MidAtlantic winter campaign (27 February - 10 March) 379 coincided with an early spring. Snowmelt had already occurred over most of the region. 380 Exposed soils and lack of any significant transpiration from vegetation led to high sensible 381 heat fluxes and some very deep ABLs (1-10 March), as is typical of the period between 382 snowmelt and green-up in this region.

The fall 2017 campaign was climatologically typical across all regions. The Southern region retained some leaf cover and photosynthetic activity, while the other regions were mostly senescent. Atmospheric boundary layers were well-defined, and we encountered a number of relatively clear, dry frontal passages. One notable weather event was the passage through our study region of Hurricane Nate on 8-10 October. We did not deploy research flights to study the hurricane, choosing to sample the more common midlatitude cyclones, but MidAtlantic region flights did take place before and after the hurricane passage.

The spring 2018 campaign followed an unusually snowy winter and late greening in the
MidWest. Flights over the MidWest included some snow-covered terrain, and no appreciable
photosynthetic activity. Flights in Southern and MidAtlantic regions spanned the boundary

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393 of the vegetation greening. The greening was quite evident in the atmospheric data, with 394 readily observed changes in ABL CO₂ that were correlated with the boundary of vegetation 395 greenness (Figure 5). The other notable weather condition for the campaign was the presence 396 of two stationary fronts, one that extended from the Gulf to the upper MidWest and persisted over this region from 30 April through 3 May. We sampled the stationary front 3 times from 397 398 our MidWestern flight base (Figure 2). The other stationary front was west to east in 399 orientation, and persisted over the MidAtlantic region from 11-18 May. Five flights sampled 400 this front. These multi-day case studies are ripe for case studies, including strong biological 401 flux contrasts and active atmospheric mixing.

402 Analyses

403 *Carbon weather observational metrics.*

404 Denning et al., (1995), Stephens et al., (2007), Pickett-Heaps et al., (2011) and Thompson et al., (2016) have all illustrated the value of evaluating atmospheric inversion systems using 405 406 vertical C profiles. Inspired by this past work, and following the working hypothesis that 407 accurate understanding of C mole fractions within mid-latitude weather systems is essential 408 for accurate atmospheric inversions, we have developed new metrics focusing on the 409 synoptic-scale performance of atmospheric C simulation and inversion systems. 410 Pal et al., (2020a) demonstrated a set of metrics that quantify cross-frontal C mole 411 fraction differences as a function of tropospheric layer (ABL, lower FT, upper FT), and 412 vertical differences in C mole fractions between these layers within the cold (postfrontal) and 413 warm (prefrontal) air masses. Pal et al., (2020a) show that these metrics are highly consistent 414 within a season across the entire central and eastern U.S. Gerken et al., (2021) expanded this 415 approach to include probability distributions and spatial variograms of model-data differences

416 in CO_2 mole fractions within these atmospheric sectors. Gerken et al., (2021) illustrate that, 417 when averaged across season, region altitude and air mass, model-data comparisons of CO_2 418 may show relatively little bias, but that when data are disaggregated by altitude and air mass, 419 systematic biases appear.

420 We have included diagnostic flags in the ACT-America in situ observations to enable 421 analyses that are oriented with respect to these synoptic metrics (Davis et al., 2018). All in 422 situ aircraft data were complemented with three flags which identify whether or not the 423 observations are within the ABL, the air mass position of the data point (warm / prefrontal, 424 cold / postfrontal or ambiguous), and the aircraft maneuver (level leg, takeoff, landing, spiral 425 ascent/descent, en route ascent/descent). Flags exist for every ACT-America in situ data 426 point and these are integrated into the flight data stored at the Oak Ridge DAAC (Wei et al., 427 2021; Davis et al., 2018) and as an additional download accompanying NOAA's ObsPack 428 product (Schuldt et al., 2020).

429 *OCO-2 tropospheric XCO₂ variability*

430 Multiple OCO-2 under flights were evaluated by Bell et al. (2020). Spatial gradients in 431 tropospheric XCO₂ across the few- to several-hundred-kilometer flight paths differed by 0.1 432 ppm per 100 km or less among three XCO₂ estimates. These results suggest that regional 433 structures in OCO-2 XCO₂ can be used to inform regional-scale flux inversions, and are 434 motivating both direct observational analysis of synoptic scale variations in XCO₂ (Wang et 435 al., 2021), and new descriptions of OCO-2 XCO₂ uncertainty structure in atmospheric 436 inversions (Baker et al., 2021). Higher resolution inversion systems may be needed to take 437 full advantage of this information.

438 Seasonal, regional flux evaluation

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439 ACT-America flight data are being used to evaluate C fluxes in two ways. First, multiple C flux estimates, including ACT-America's CASA-based CO₂ flux ensemble (Zhou et al., 440 441 2020), have been propagated forward in our baseline WRF simulation. These simulated 442 atmospheric C mole fractions can be compared to ACT-America airborne data to identify the 443 most plausible ensemble members (e.g. Feng et al., 2021). Case studies exploring realizations 444 of the Vegetation Photosynthesis and Respiration Model (VPRM) have also been performed 445 (Hu et al., 2021). Flux estimates can also be adjusted to maximize the fit to the ACT-America observations (e.g. Barkley et al., 2019a, b). Second, back-trajectory Lagrangian influence 446 447 functions (Cui et al., 2021) created with the WRF baseline simulation can be convolved with 448 flux estimates to estimate atmospheric C at the locations of aircraft observations. These 449 model-data differences can be used to evaluate regional, seasonal flux estimates, including 450 terrestrial biosphere models (Parazoo et al., 2021) and posterior fluxes from atmospheric 451 inversions (Cui et al., 2021). The influence functions enable any flux estimates to be 452 evaluated without requiring them to be coupled to a new atmospheric transport simulation.

453 Boundary conditions

These C flux evaluations require treatment of C transport from outside the region of
interest. Atmospheric C mole fractions within our study domain can be expressed, following
Feng et al. (2019b), as

457
$$C_{tot} = C_b + \sum_i C_i, \qquad (1)$$

where C_{tot} is the total atmospheric mole fraction, C_b is the mole fraction transported from outside of the study region, and C_i are the mole fraction contributions from sources or sinks, *i*, within the study region. ACT-America has developed two independent approaches to determining C_b so that aircraft or tower observations can be used to study continental fluxes.

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462 First, we have merged boundary conditions from global C inversion systems into our 463 continental-scale WRF simulation domain (Butler et al., 2020). We have included multiple 464 versions of global boundary conditions to account for uncertainty in these background 465 conditions (Feng et al., 2019b). Background conditions account for most of the C in the 466 atmosphere of North America, but comparison of global inversion systems shows that the 467 uncertainty in these boundary conditions is modest, typically of order 1 ppm for CO₂, 468 compared to continental fluxes that account for several to tens of ppm of CO₂ for continental 469 fluxes (Feng et al., 2019a,b; Chen et al., 2019). A second approach is to assume that inflow 470 from outside of the continent is homogeneous in the vertical, and that deep vertical mixing 471 over the continent is limited so that upper free tropospheric mole fraction measurements are 472 approximately equal to continental background conditions (Parazoo et al., 2021). NOAA 473 aircraft profiling on the Pacific and Gulf coasts (Sweeney et al., 2015), ACT-America 474 profiles over the Gulf (e.g. Campbell et al., 2020) and model-data comparisons in the upper 475 free troposphere (Gerken et al., 2021) suggest that this is a reasonable approximation. 476 Comparison of these approaches and more extensive quantification of this source of 477 uncertainty is worthwhile.

A third background scenario emerges in the attempt to isolate regional to local, not continental-scale, fluxes. In this case, free tropospheric mole fractions are not a suitable background condition (Turnbull et al., 2015). Instead ABL mole fractions outside of the influence of the region of interest are matched with simulations of both background mole fractions and fluxes from outside the region of interest to isolate mole fraction enhancements from the region of interest (Barkley et al., 2017). This approach is difficult to apply to biogenic CO₂ fluxes, since they are so broadly distributed, but this method works well for

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485	studying emissions from discrete source regions such as cities or anthropogenic CH_4
486	emissions (Barkley et al., 2019a; 2021) and agricultural N_2O emissions (Eckl et al., 2021).
487	Quantifying regional, seasonal fluxes also benefits from the ability to segregate
488	component fluxes. We can do this with both numerical and observational approaches. Our
489	WRF simulations include C mole fractions for each source or sink sector, making it possible
490	to segregate, for example, atmospheric CO_2 mole fractions originating from continental fossil
491	fuel vs. biogenic CO ₂ fluxes (Feng et al., 2019a,b; Hu et al, 2021; Samaddar et al., 2021), and
492	atmospheric CH ₄ mole fractions originating from continental or regional oil and gas vs. coal
493	vs. agricultural emissions (Barkley et al., 2019a, b). If the uncertainty in one particular source
494	is known with more confidence, simulated sector mole fractions, C_i , can be subtracted from
495	the observed total mole fraction, C_{tot} , to isolate the sector mole fraction of interest. Calibrated
496	ensembles (Feng et al., 2019b) can be used to address uncertainty in the sectoral fluxes.
497	As a complement to these numerical methods, we measured CO and ${}^{14}\text{CO}_2$ to isolate
498	fossil fuel CO_2 mole fractions (Baier et al., 2020), OCS to segregate photosynthetic vs.
499	respiratory biogenic CO ₂ fluxes (Parazoo et al., 2021), and ethane (C ₂ H ₆) to segregate
500	thermogenic from biogenic CH ₄ sources (Barkley et al., 2019a, b; 2021). Figure 7 shows an

501 example of such an analysis applied to estimating regional CH₄ emissions from the southern
502 United States.

ACT's lidar-based column C measurements have a unique capability to constrain regional C fluxes that has yet to be demonstrated. These observations, combined with backscatter lidar ABL depth measurements, can be used to infer regional GHG fluxes without concerns about the ability of in situ aircraft data to properly capture the vertical distribution of GHGs within the ABL.

508 Evaluation of atmospheric inversions

509 Disaggregating the influence of flux and transport on a given atmospheric C mole fraction 510 measurement has been a challenge for atmospheric inversions for decades. ACT-America's 511 observation of the structures of C mole fractions within weather systems provides a strong 512 basis for untangling the interdependency of midlatitude weather and fluxes.

513 Multiple avenues of inversion system evaluation are being explored. Evaluation of 514 atmospheric transport variables, atmospheric C mole fractions (Gaudet et al., 2021), and 515 posterior fluxes (Cui et al., 2021) from the global-scale OCO-2 Model Intercomparison 516 Project (OCO2 MIP, Crowell et al., 2019) is underway in an attempt to identify the inversion 517 systems that are most consistent with ACT-America's carbon weather metrics. The same 518 metrics will be used to evaluate continental atmospheric inversions, such as CarbonTracker-519 Lagrange (Hu et al., 2019), once these become available. Model studies that control for 520 sources of variability among inversions are also underway in an attempt to identify the causes 521 of model-data discrepancies. Studies of this sort include studies of the impact of model 522 resolution (Samaddar et al., 2021) and atmospheric transport model (Gerken et al., 2021), 523 both using common fluxes to isolate the impact of transport on CO₂ mole fractions. More 524 controlled model experiments confronted with ACT-America observations are needed to 525 close our understanding of midlatitude C weather and the impact of the simulation of C 526 weather on C flux inversions.

527 The ensemble modeling initiated by ACT-America (Chen et al., 2019; Feng et al., 528 2019a,b; 2021) illustrates another path to improving atmospheric inversions. Figure 7 shows 529 the variability in ABL CO_2 mole fractions produced by elements of a calibrated C model 530 ensemble (Feng et al., 2019b). Ensembles like these, if calibrated and verified with intensive 531 regional observations like ACT-America flights, can identify those regions and times where

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flux uncertainty is large and other sources of uncertainty are small, and direct atmosphericinversion systems to use those data preferentially to solve for regional C fluxes.

534 Improvement of atmospheric C inversions.

535 In addition to evaluating existing atmospheric inversion systems using the aircraft data as 536 independent observations, we have begun to translate our results into improvements in 537 regional and global atmospheric inversions. Avenues for improvement of the inversion 538 systems include modifying the assumptions about local to regional-scale errors and error 539 correlations in OCO-2 observations (Baker et al., 2021), minimizing biases and adjusting 540 uncertainties in prior fluxes used in inversions based on evaluation of these flux models (e.g. 541 Barkley et al., 2019a, 2021; Feng et al., 2021), and improving atmospheric transport field and 542 transport uncertainty assessments (Gerken et al., 2021; Feng et al., 2019a; Lauvaux et al., 543 2019). These advances have yet to be tested in established inversion systems. ACT-America 544 has also begun to develop new inversion systems that can incorporate prior flux (Wesloh et 545 al., 2020) and atmospheric transport (Lauvaux et al., 2019) ensemble information.

546 Conclusions

ACT-America's observational record provides unparalleled insight into the C fluxes and mole fractions of midlatitude weather systems - the carbon weather of the midlatitudes. We have confirmed that midlatitude weather systems are clearly responsible for a large component of the spatial and temporal variability in atmospheric C mole fractions over the continents, and have shown the strong connection between this weather-scale variability and terrestrial C fluxes. Modeling and analysis systems that can properly resolve these weather systems and interpret these carbon weather signals will provide superior regional and

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continental C flux estimates. Analyses that neglect the role of weather systems in C transport
run the risk of masking compensating errors that will bias their results.

556 More work is needed to untangle the mixed influences of C flux and transport 557 uncertainties at sub-continental scales in current atmospheric inversion systems. ACT-558 America investigations have pioneered new approaches in ensemble C simulations which, 559 combined with ACT-America's airborne database, are beginning to isolate and quantify the 560 impact of flux versus transport errors. These methods, as they are adopted in atmospheric 561 inversions, should continue to improve the accuracy and precision of regional inverse flux 562 estimates.

We have demonstrated that column remote sensing technologies, both space- and airborne, have the precision and stability needed to document regional-scale atmospheric C gradients. These findings show promise for continued use of both passive and active remote sensing in the study of C mole fractions and fluxes.

567 An unparalleled airborne methane and ethane dataset enabled us to make strong progress 568 in evaluating anthropogenic emissions of CH_4 from the central and eastern US. We have 569 begun to use the airborne data set to evaluate and improve seasonal and regional terrestrial 570 biosphere model CO_2 flux estimates. Much more can be done in this area.

Independent, routine, atmospheric evaluation of models and inventories of C fluxes at spatial domains of geopolitical and ecological relevance remains an important need for climate science and climate change mitigation. This is rapidly becoming feasible for fossil fuel CO_2 emissions and some anthropogenic CH_4 emissions. This is more challenging for broadly distributed fluxes such as agricultural and wetland CH_4 emissions, and biogenic CO_2 fluxes. ACT-America investigations have provided an observation and methodological framework that will enable this advance.

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612	
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FIGURES



998 Figure 1. ACT-America measurements complement long-term in situ and remote sensing 999 GHG observations by providing the first detailed measurements of the GHG structure of 31 1000 synoptic weather systems that passed through the central and eastern United States, a region 1001 of strong, seasonally-varying GHG fluxes and vigorous mixing by mid-latitude cyclones. The 1002 GHG and meteorological observations are complemented with ensembles of atmospheric and 1003 ecosystem models, and measurements of trace gases, that aid in disaggregating GHG sources. 1004 Improved GHG flux estimates are pursued by minimizing biases and random errors, and 1005 quantifying the remaining uncertainty in atmospheric transport simulations, GHG flux 1006 models, and OCO-2 XCO₂ observations. These improved components can be incorporated 1007 into atmospheric inversion systems. ACT-America observations are also used as independent 1008 data to evaluate existing atmospheric inversion systems. The joint observations of greenhouse 1009 gases, associated trace gases and atmospheric transport variables help to detangle the difficult 1010 issue of combined atmospheric transport and C flux biases that are present in all atmospheric 45

- 1011 inversion studies. The central image overlays all ACT-America flight tracks. Images show
- 1012 the NASA C-130 and B-200 aircraft, an instrumented communications tower, and a rendering
- 1013 of the OCO-2 satellite platform.



1015 Figure 2. Pictorial representation of the sequence of ACT-America research flights. Some

- 1016 hybrid flights only have their primary purpose indicated. MA and MW refer to the
- 1017 MidAtlantic and MidWest regions, respectively, the number refers to the synoptic sequence
- 1018 within a season and region, and T refers to a transit flight. Details about the flight tracks,
- 1019 scientific objectives, weather conditions and quick data visualizations are available in the
- 1020 ACT-America campaign catalogue (Pal and Davis, 2020;
- 1021 https://actamerica.ornl.gov/campaigns.html).



1023 Figure 3: OCO-2 under flight from 27 October, 2017. (a) The aircraft flew at multiple 1024 altitudes to measure (b) in situ CO₂ along the OCO-2 sampling swath. The C-130 flew at its 1025 maximum altitude on one pass to measure partial column XCO₂ (Campbell et al, 2020) with 1026 the Multifunctional Fiber Laser Lidar (MFLL). The flight was coordinated so that, (c) at the midpoint in time of the flight pattern, the C-130 was at maximum altitude directly overflying 1027 1028 the B-200, which was performing an in situ spiral from 300 m AGL up to the altitude of the 1029 C-130 overpass, when the OCO-2 satellite overflew both aircraft. (d) The Cloud Physics 1030 Lidar (CPL) mapped out backscatter (color scale) and a wavelet algorithm was used to 1031 retrieve ABL depth (solid black line) along the flight track.





Figure 4. Illustration of a MidWest synoptic sequence from the Summer, 2016 flight campaign. (a-c) Flight tracks for 9 - 14 August, 2016 showing in situ CO_2 measured along the tracks (only ABL CO_2 is shown on 12 August when multiple tracks were stacked in the vertical). Fair weather portions include ABL (east-west legs) and lower free tropospheric (diagonal and north-south) flight legs arrayed in quasi-Lagrangian 2-day sequences. (d) Latitude vs. altitude CO_2 mole fractions during the frontal crossing on 12 August. The approximate surface frontal position is marked with the dotted black line. (e) The surface

- 1040 weather map for 18 UTC on 12 August (courtesy of the NOAA Weather Prediction Center,
- 1041 http://www.wpc.ncep.noaa.gov) shows synoptic conditions with the flight track position
- 1042 overlaid. (f-h) The associated upwind influence functions for the ABL portions of each flight.



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Figure 5. (Left) Observed vs simulated ABL CO₂ for the flight of 11 May, 2018. Simulated

1045 CO_2 mole fractions and wind barbs are plotted at 500 m AGL at 18Z; flight altitude was

1046 roughly 300 m AGL and took place between 16-19Z. The simulation is from the ACT-

- 1047 America WRF baseline run, with CarbonTracker surface fluxes and lateral boundary
- 1048 conditions (Feng et al, 2020). (Right) Observed ABL CO₂ mole fraction and normalized
- 1049 difference vegetation index (NDVI) during the day of the flight (Vermote, 2019). The teal
- 1050 line marks the approximate location of a stationary front that was present at that time.



1051

Figure 6. Example of a dual-tracer optimization used to solve for methane emissions on 18 1052 1053 October, 2017. (top-left) Observed vs. simulated ABL ethane mole fraction enhancements 1054 relative to a background based on oil and gas sources from the EPA 2012 Gridded Methane 1055 Inventory (Massaakers et al, 2016) and an assumed average ethane:methane gas composition 1056 of 0.10 (a reasonable overall estimate for US oil and gas production). (bottom-left) Observed 1057 vs. simulated ABL ethane enhancements achieved by multiplying oil and gas emissions by a 1058 factor of 2.5. (top-right) Observed vs. simulated ABL methane enhancements based on the 1059 same inventory. (bottom-right) Observed vs. simulated ABL methane enhancements achieved 1060 by multiplying oil and gas emissions by a factor of 2.5. In all panels, simulated mole 1061 fractions (Feng et al, 2020) are from 500 m AGL at 19 UT. Aircraft observations are from 1062 approximately 300 m AGL and were collected between 17-21 UT. A surface cold front 1063 parallels the northwest portion of the region of enhanced methane and ethane. The enhanced 1064 mole fractions are in the warm sector flowing to the north and east. The ethane observations 1065 enable source disaggregation (animal agriculture vs. oil and gas production) using the 1066 ethane/methane emissions ratios. Methods follow Barkley et al. (2019a).



1068 Figure 7. Root mean square deviation in ABL CO₂ mole fractions (500 m AGL) across 1069 components of the multi-component ensemble simulation system described by Feng et al. 1070 (2021) at 19 UT on 13 August, 2016, one of the fair weather flight days shown in Figure 4, 1071 including: (a) RMSD across the CASA biological flux ensemble members, (b) RMSD across 1072 the atmospheric transport ensemble members, and (c) RMSD across the continental boundary 1073 condition ensemble members. In each case, all other components of the ensemble are held 1074 constant. The black lines show the aircraft flight patterns on this day. Feng et al. (2019b) 1075 demonstrated the calibration of this multi-component ensemble, but with a different

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- 1076 biological CO_2 flux ensemble. The CASA ensemble may underestimate the true flux
- 1077 uncertainty (Feng et al., 2021).