

A robust estimate of continental-scale terrestrial carbon sinks using GOSAT XCO₂ retrievals

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Abstract

Satellite XCO₂ retrievals could improve the estimates of surface carbon fluxes, but it remains unknown on what scales these estimates are robust. Here, we use the time-dependent Bayesian synthesis top-down method and prior net ecosystem exchanges (NEEs) from 12 terrestrial biosphere models (TBMs) to infer the monthly carbon fluxes of 51 land regions with constraints by GOSAT XCO₂ retrievals. We find that the uncertainty (standard deviation of 12 TBMs) reduction rates (URR) decrease significantly at decreasing spatial scales. On the continental-scale, the mean URR is about 60%, and the annual and seasonal cycle estimates of NEE are rather robust. The evaluation shows that the posterior CO₂ concentrations are significantly improved at the continental scale. Our study suggests that the GOSAT XCO₂ can only promise a robust continental-scale NEE estimate, and improving the XCO₂ accuracy is an effective way to achieve robust estimates on smaller scales under current spatial coverage.

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A robust estimate of continental-scale terrestrial carbon sinks using GOSAT XCO₂ retrievals

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Key Points:

- Terrestrial carbon sinks estimated based on GOSAT XCO₂ and 12 net ecosystem exchanges using atmospheric inversion method.
- The uncertainty reduction rates decrease significantly at decreasing spatial scales.
- The GOSAT XCO₂ can only promise a robust continental-scale net ecosystem exchange estimate.

37 Abstract

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39 unknown on what scales these estimates are robust. Here, we use the time-dependent Bayesian
40 synthesis top-down method and prior net ecosystem exchanges (NEEs) from 12 terrestrial
41 biosphere models (TBMs) to infer the monthly carbon fluxes of 51 land regions with constraints
42 by GOSAT XCO₂ retrievals. We find that the uncertainty (standard deviation of 12 TBMs)
43 reduction rates (URR) decrease significantly at decreasing spatial scales. On the continental-
44 scale, the mean URR is about 60%, and the annual and seasonal cycle estimates of NEE are
45 rather robust. The evaluation shows that the posterior CO₂ concentrations are significantly
46 improved at the continental scale. Our study suggests that the GOSAT XCO₂ can only promise a
47 robust continental-scale NEE estimate, and improving the XCO₂ accuracy is an effective way to
48 achieve robust estimates on smaller scales under current spatial coverage.

49 Plain Language Summary

50 Satellite-based CO₂ measurement can improve the estimates of surface carbon fluxes due to its
51 relatively well global coverage, but it remains unknown on what spatial scales that the satellite
52 observation could provide a robust estimate. Here, net ecosystem exchanges (NEEs) from 12
53 terrestrial biosphere models (TBMs) of 51 land regions for the period of 2011-2014 are
54 constrained using GOSAT XCO₂ retrievals, and the uncertainty (standard deviation of 12 TBMs)
55 reduction rates (URR) at different spatial scales are analyzed. We find that 1) from the whole
56 globe to the mean of 51 regions, the URR decreases from 85% to 19%. 2) On the continental-
57 scale, the mean URR is about 60%, and the annual NEEs in Asia, N. America, Europe, S.
58 America, Africa, and Australia are estimated to be -2.15 ± 0.23 , -0.96 ± 0.07 , -0.60 ± 0.20 , $-$
59 0.55 ± 0.25 , -0.49 ± 0.14 , and -0.06 ± 0.1 PgC yr⁻¹, respectively. Our study suggests that the GOSAT
60 XCO₂ can only promise a robust continental-scale NEE estimate, and improving the XCO₂
61 accuracy is an effective way to achieve robust estimates on smaller scales under current satellite
62 observing capacity.

63 1 Introduction

64 Terrestrial ecosystems and oceans absorb about half of anthropogenic carbon
65 emissions (Friedlingstein et al., 2020), slowing down the increase of CO₂ in the atmosphere and
66 thus mitigates climate change. Accurate estimation of terrestrial carbon sinks and sources is an
67 indispensable step to understand the status and the potential of their roles in regulating climate
68 change. As a major way of constraining terrestrial carbon flux estimates with observations over
69 large scales, top-down atmospheric inversion infers carbon fluxes from atmospheric CO₂ mole
70 fraction observations and a priori flux, which can effectively reduce the uncertainty of carbon
71 flux estimates (Thompson et al., 2016). At the global or hemisphere scale, the carbon flux
72 estimates from various atmospheric CO₂ inversions are in a relatively good agreement, but at
73 continental or regional scales, the agreement is greatly weakened due to errors in either
74 inversion methods or observational data (Baker et al., 2006; Deng & Chen, 2011).

75 In situ CO₂ observations have been widely used in past atmospheric CO₂ inversions
76 (Baker et al., 2006; Deng & Chen, 2011; Gurney et al., 2002; Jiang et al., 2013; Monteil et al.,
77 2020; Peylin et al., 2013). Due to the uneven distribution of global surface CO₂ observations,
78 relatively consistent results can be obtained in places where observations are densely distributed,
79 e.g., Europe and North America (N. America). However, inversion results have high uncertainty

80 in areas with sparse distributions of observations(Maksyutov et al., 2013). The uneven
 81 distribution of observations leads to greatly differences in the capability of inversions to
 82 constrain the land carbon cycle in different regions(Gurney et al., 2002). Satellite-based CO₂
 83 measurements provide global coverage with high spatial resolutions(Baker et al., 2010). Many
 84 studies have estimated regional carbon sources and sinks using column averaged dry air mole
 85 fractions of CO₂ (XCO₂) from GOSAT and OCO-2 satellites(Baker et al., 2010; Basu et al.,
 86 2013; Chevallier et al., 2014; Crowell et al., 2019; Deng et al., 2014; Jiang et al., 2021; Wang et
 87 al., 2022; Wang et al., 2019), boosting the possibility of better constraining the carbon cycle at
 88 finer spatial scale(Byrne et al., 2019). Byrne et al. (2019) explored the spatial scales of
 89 interannual variability of NEE constrained using GOSAT XCO₂, giving correlations between
 90 interannual variability at different scales and multiple "proxies", but the spatial scales at which
 91 the inversion results are robust remain unclear.

92 Here, we assimilate GOSAT XCO₂ observations using the time-dependent Bayesian
 93 synthesis method ("Method") to optimize terrestrial ecosystem carbon exchange (NEE) of 51
 94 land regions (Figure S1a) from multiple TBMs. The inversion is from May 2009 to 2014, the
 95 first 20 month-period is treated as the spin-up stage, and the inversion results from 2011 to 2014
 96 were analysed in this study. NEEs simulated from 12 TBMs were used as prior fluxes within the
 97 same atmospheric inversion framework and constrained with the same observations to explore on
 98 what scales the GOSAT XCO₂ retrievals can provide robust NEE estimates.

99 2 Methods

100 2.1 Inversion method

101 We use the time-dependent Bayesian synthesis method(Rayner et al., 1999), and the
 102 GOSAT XCO₂ retrievals, to estimate global surface CO₂ net fluxes. The key of this method is to
 103 minimize the following cost function(Rayner et al., 1999):

$$104 \quad J = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{M}\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{c})^T \mathbf{R}^{-1}(\mathbf{M}\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{c}) + \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{s}_p)^T \mathbf{Q}^{-1}(\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{s}_p) \quad (1)$$

105 where \mathbf{M} is the transport operator; \mathbf{c} is the observations; \mathbf{s} is the vector of carbon flux combined
 106 with initial well-mixed atmospheric CO₂ concentration; \mathbf{s}_p is a priori estimation of \mathbf{s} ; and \mathbf{R} and
 107 \mathbf{Q} are the uncertainties of \mathbf{c} and \mathbf{s}_p , respectively. By minimizing this cost function, the posterior
 108 fluxes \mathbf{s}_{post} and their uncertainties \mathbf{Q}_{post} could be obtained as:

$$109 \quad \mathbf{s}_{post} = (\mathbf{M}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{M} + \mathbf{Q}^{-1})^{-1} (\mathbf{M}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{c} + \mathbf{Q}^{-1} \mathbf{s}_p) \quad (2)$$

$$110 \quad \mathbf{Q}_{post} = (\mathbf{Q}^{-1} + \mathbf{M}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{M})^{-1} \quad (3)$$

111 The global surface is separated into 69 regions, including 51 regions for land, and 18
 112 regions for ocean (Figure S1a). The partition scheme of land was adopted from Wang et al.
 113 (2021). The bias-corrected GOSAT ACOS V7.3 XCO₂ for the years 2009-2014 is adopted as
 114 observations(Crisp et al., 2012; O'Dell et al., 2012; Wunch et al., 2011), and has been re-gridded
 115 to 1°× 1° by Jiang et al. (2021) with the best quality approach(Wang et al., 2019).

116 Four types of a priori carbon fluxes were used in the inversion, namely terrestrial
 117 ecosystem carbon flux (NEE), ocean (OCEAN) carbon exchange, fossil fuel and cement
 118 production (FFC) carbon emissions, and biomass burning (FIRE) carbon emissions. The

119 OCEAN flux, FFC and FIRE emissions were adopted from the product of NOAA's
 120 CarbonTracker, version 2017 (CT2017). In many offshore areas, the OCEAN fluxes are missing,
 121 we filled them with the fluxes of 2009 simulated by the global ocean circulation and
 122 biogeochemistry model (OPA-PISCES-T)(Buitenhuis et al., 2006; Jiang et al., 2013). The prior
 123 NEE fluxes were obtained from 12 TBMs, including BEPS(Chen et al., 1999; Ju et al., 2006),
 124 CASA(Potter et al., 1993), and 10 models from TRENDYv9(Friedlingstein et al., 2020) (i.e.,
 125 CABLE-POP(Haverd et al., 2018), DLEM(Tian et al., 2015), ISAM(Meiyappan et al., 2015),
 126 LPX-Bern(Lienert & Joos, 2018), OCN(Zaehle & Friend, 2010), ORCHIDEE(Lurton et al.,
 127 2020), ORCHIDEEv3(Vuichard et al., 2019), SDGVM(Walker et al., 2017), VISIT(Kato et al.,
 128 2013), YIBs(Yue & Unger, 2015)). BEPS is a satellite-based TBM, which was driven by the LAI
 129 and clumping index products from MODIS. In this study, the BEPS simulations were adopted
 130 from Jiang et al. (2021). The CASA simulations were also derived from CT2017. There are 10
 131 TBMs in TRENDYv9 S3 simulations, we selected the simulations with spatial resolution greater
 132 than $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$.

133 The transport operator \mathbf{M} is simulated using the Model for Ozone And Related chemical
 134 Tracers, version 4 (MOZART-4)(Emmons et al., 2010). The MOZART-4 model was run at a
 135 spatial resolution of approximately $2.8^\circ \times 2.8^\circ$ (128×64 grids), and 28 vertical layers. It was
 136 driven by the ERA-Interim reanalysis data obtained from the European Centre for Medium-
 137 Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF)(Dee et al., 2011). Using MOZART-4, we calculated the
 138 contributions of each month and each region to the XCO_2 at each grid and time. Following Jiang
 139 et al. (2013), for each month and each region, the model is continuously run for three years, with
 140 1 Pg carbon emitted in the first month and no emission in the months thereafter. the spatial
 141 distribution of emissions within each land region was assigned according to the multi-year
 142 averaged net primary production (NPP), for the ocean region, no distribution was considered.
 143 The background CO_2 concentration was set to 390 ppm, which is the averaged concentration of
 144 April and May 2009 observed at the global background station of Mauna Loa (Ed Dlugokencky
 145 and Pieter Tans, NOAA/GML (gml.noaa.gov/ccgg/trends/)). The simulated XCO_2 contribution
 146 per month t and per region i were calculated based on a satellite averaging kernel according to
 147 the following equation(Connor et al., 2008):

$$148 \quad XCO_2^{m,t,i} = \sum_j h_j k_j (A(x_{t,i}) - y_{a,j}) \quad (4)$$

149 where j represents the GOSAT XCO_2 retrieval layer, x is the simulated CO_2 profile, $A(x)$ is the
 150 mapping matrix, and $h_j k_j, y_{a,j}$ are the pressure weighting function, satellite kernel function, and
 151 a priori CO_2 profile provided by the GOSAT product, respectively. The OCEAN flux, FFC and
 152 FIRE emissions were assumed to be prescribed, and thus the CO_2 concentrations from the
 153 contributions of these three types of fluxes also simulated using the MOZART-4 model were
 154 pre-subtracted in the inversion system. Hence, the matrix c in eq. (1) can be further expressed as

$$155 \quad c = c_{obs} - XCO_2^a - \sum_j h_j k_j (A(x_{t,i,FFC} + x_{t,i,FIRE}) - y_{a,j}) \quad (5)$$

156 where c_{obs} is the GOSAT XCO_2 , XCO_2^a is the prior XCO_2 provided along the XCO_2 product. In
 157 order to save computational costs and reduce the size of the transport matrix \mathbf{M} , the observations
 158 and the variables corresponding to the observations were rescaled to a resolution of $15^\circ \times 15^\circ$ per
 159 month in this paper.

160 For the uncertainties of prior fluxes, we assumed a global land uncertainty of 2.0 PgC yr⁻¹,
161 which was distributed to different regions based on a multi-year average annual NPP from the
162 CASA model(Potter et al., 1993). Considering that NPP is very small in winter and large in
163 summer, assigning uncertainty exactly according to the monthly variation in NPP would result in
164 little uncertainty in winter, so we adopted the scheme of averaging NPP with and without
165 monthly variation and using this result to assign uncertainty. In addition, we fixed the lowest
166 monthly uncertainty of each region to 0.1 PgC. The annual uncertainty of global land is within
167 the range of previous studies(Baker et al., 2006; Basu et al., 2013; Deng & Chen, 2011;
168 Houweling et al., 2004; Rodenbeck et al., 2003). We neglected the temporal and spatial
169 correlation of the prior flux uncertainties. The observation error is 1.9 times of the retrieval error
170 provided by the GOSAT product, which is the same as Jiang et al. (2021). The observations were
171 also averaged over a 15°×15° grid for each month, and the minimum observation error was set to
172 1 ppm. For the inversion results, May 2009-December 2010 is taken as the spin-up phase, and
173 only the inversion results from 2011-2014 are analyzed and discussed.

174 We performed two sensitivity experiments using different a priori flux uncertainty and
175 observation error settings To investigate the impact of prior uncertainty settings on the inversion
176 results, we conducted a sensitive experiment in which the prior uncertainty of each land region
177 was set to be the standard deviation of the 12 prior NEEs (Philip et al., 2019), and the rest of the
178 settings were kept consistent with Base Case, referred to as Case Q. To explore the effect of
179 observation error on the estimation results, we set up a sensitivity experiment, ignoring the
180 difference in observation errors, by setting the observation error uniformly at 0.5 ppm, which
181 may be the accuracy goal for future satellite observations(Sierk et al., 2021), and then scaling
182 them up by a factor of 1.9, keeping the rest of the settings consistent with Base Case, called Case
183 R.

184 2.2 Evaluation data and method

185 In this study, surface CO₂ observations from the CO₂ GLOBALVIEWplus v7.0 ObsPack
186 dataset(Cox et al., 2021) are used for independent evaluations. We selected 168 sets of discrete
187 (flask), and quasi-continuous (in-situ) measurements at surface and tower with observation start
188 date earlier than 2011, and stop date later than 2014. Of these, there are 34, 37, 75, 4, 9 and 9 sets
189 of records available for Asia, Europe, North America, S. America, Africa, and Oceania,
190 respectively. In addition, in Asia, the ObsPack observations are mainly distributed in the middle
191 and high latitudes. Therefore, we further chose the observations from the Comprehensive
192 Observation Network for Trace gases by Airliner (CONTRAIL) project(Machida et al.,
193 (Reference date: 2021/10/29), 2018; Machida et al., 2008; Matsueda et al., 2008; Matsueda et al.,
194 2015) to evaluate the posterior CO₂ over Southeast Asia. The CONTRAIL project measures CO₂
195 concentrations on two passenger aircrafts along their flight paths. Vertical profiles of CO₂
196 concentrations near airports were observed during the taking off and landing. We selected
197 observations between 2000 m to 6000 m heights, since the CO₂ concentrations below 2000m
198 could be highly influenced by airport pollution, and above 6000 m CO₂ are fully mixed. At the
199 heights of 2000m to 6000m, every 500 m was divided into one layer, and in each layer, the
200 observations were averaged and compared with the simulations.

201 Two forward simulations from May 2009 to Dec 2014 using the MOZART-4 model and
202 the prior and posterior fluxes of the 12 TBMs were conducted to create prior and posterior CO₂
203 concentrations, respectively. The initial field at 00:00 UTC May 01, 2009 is obtained from the

204 reanalysis concentration of Carbon Tracker CT2019B (CT2019B)(Jacobson et al., 2020). The
205 mean deviation (BIAS) and root mean square error (RMSE) were used as reference indicators for
206 the evaluation results. The monthly mean BIAS and RMSE at each continent were calculated.

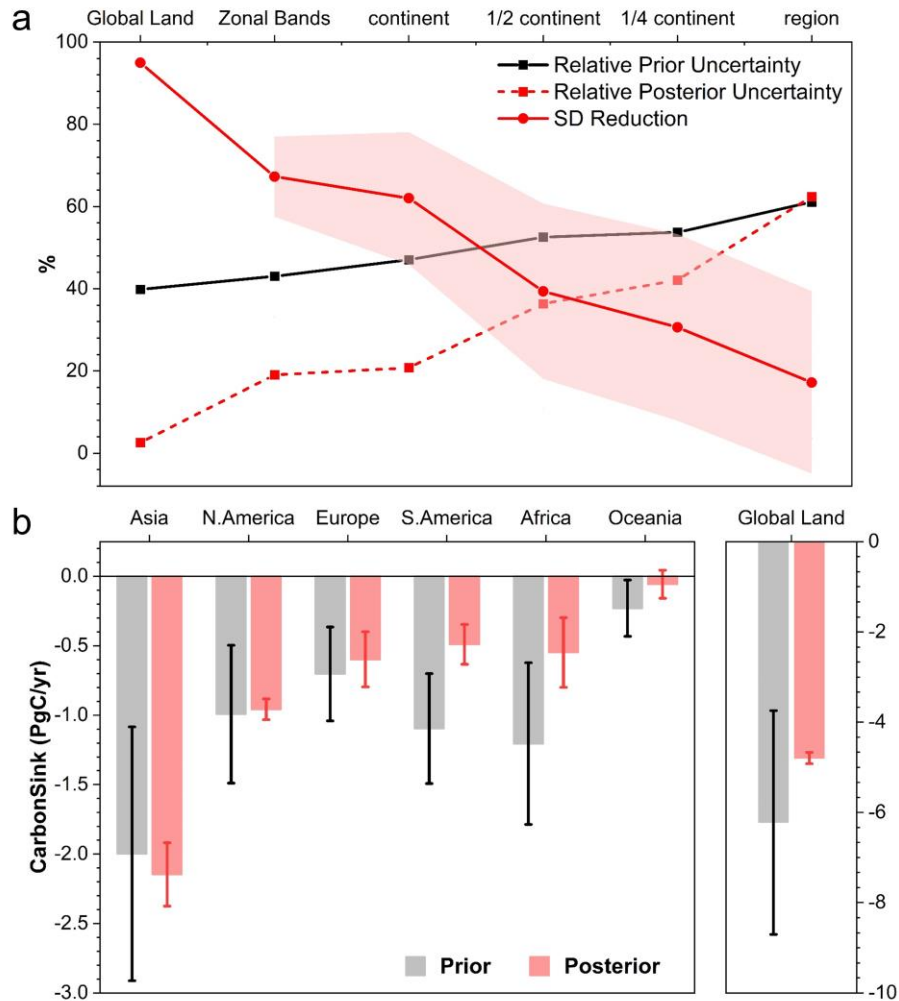
207 **3 Results**

208 3.1 Uncertainty reductions on different spatial scales

209 Generally, there are big differences in the NEE simulated using different TBMs(Monteil
210 et al., 2020). In this study, 12 TBMs (see Methods) were used as prior fluxes. The NEE of these
211 12 TBMs also has large differences. On the global scale, the mean annual NEEs from 2011 to
212 2014 are in the range of -2.66 (CASA model) to -9.97 (LPX-Bern model) PgC yr⁻¹ (Figure S2).
213 We treat the standard deviation of the 12 TBMs' NEE as the 1- σ uncertainty, and the mean of the
214 12 TBMs as the best estimate of NEE for one region. To explore the spatial scales at which
215 GOSAT XCO₂ retrievals can provide robust NEE estimates, we analyse the relative prior
216 uncertainty and uncertainty reduction rate (URR) after constraints at the global scale, the
217 hemispheric scale (northern mid to high latitudes, tropical latitudes, southern middle latitudes),
218 the continental scale, the half of continental scale (1/2 continent), the quarter of continental scale
219 (1/4 continent), and small regions. The definition of the hemispheric scale and the latter three
220 scales is given in Figure S1b-d.

221 Figure 1 shows the relative uncertainties of the prior and posterior NEEs and their URRs
222 after constraint using GOSAT XCO₂ on different spatial scales. Clearly, the relative prior
223 uncertainty increases with decreasing spatial scale. On the global scale, the relative prior
224 uncertainty is about 40%; on the continent, 1/2 continent, and 1/4 continent scales, the mean
225 relative prior uncertainties are 47%, 53%, and 54%, respectively. On small regions (51 regions
226 for global land, same thereafter), the mean relative prior uncertainty reaches 61%, with a range
227 from 29% to 345%, and the Figure S3 presents relative a priori uncertainty views for small
228 regions. The continent-scale relative prior uncertainty ranges from 36% to 88%, with 46%, 50%,
229 48%, 36%, 48% and 88% for Asia, North America, Europe, South America, Africa and Australia
230 respectively.

231 After being constrained by the GOSAT XCO₂ retrievals, the uncertainty of the posterior
232 NEE is substantially reduced. We find that the URR is significantly related to the spatial scale.
233 The larger the spatial scale, the larger the URR, and vice versa. From the whole globe to the
234 mean of 51 regions, the URR decreases from 85% to 19%. On the continental scale, the mean
235 URR is 60%. N. America has the largest URR, with a value of 85%, followed by Asia (75%), S.
236 America (64%) and Australia (50%), and Europe has the smallest URR, with a value of only
237 41%. On small regions, posterior uncertainty decreased in most regions (0 to 55%), except for 6
238 regions (located in northern Asia, eastern North America, Amazonia, and Southeast Asia) where
239 posterior uncertainty increased to some extent (3% to 48%), which may be related to the settings
240 of prior uncertainty and observation errors (Figure S4). Moreover, the relative posterior
241 uncertainty is lower than the prior on global to 1/4 continental scales, while in small regions, the
242 relative posterior uncertainty is comparable to the prior. This suggests that the GOSAT XCO₂
243 retrievals can constrain the terrestrial's NEE well at the continental scale, but has limited ability
244 to constrain carbon fluxes at subcontinental or smaller scales, implying that the inversion results
245 on sub-continental scales are highly related to the adopted prior NEE.



246

247 **Figure 1.** Uncertainty at different scales and terrestrial carbon sink on the continental scale. (a)
 248 Relative uncertainties of the prior and posterior fluxes and uncertainty reduction rates after
 249 constrained using GOSAT XCO₂ in different spatial scales, and (b) annual prior and posterior
 250 NEEs on the global and continental scales. The uncertainty is depicted as the standard deviation
 251 of the simulated NEEs by the 12 TBMs.

252 3.2 Annual and seasonal cycles of NEE on the continental scale

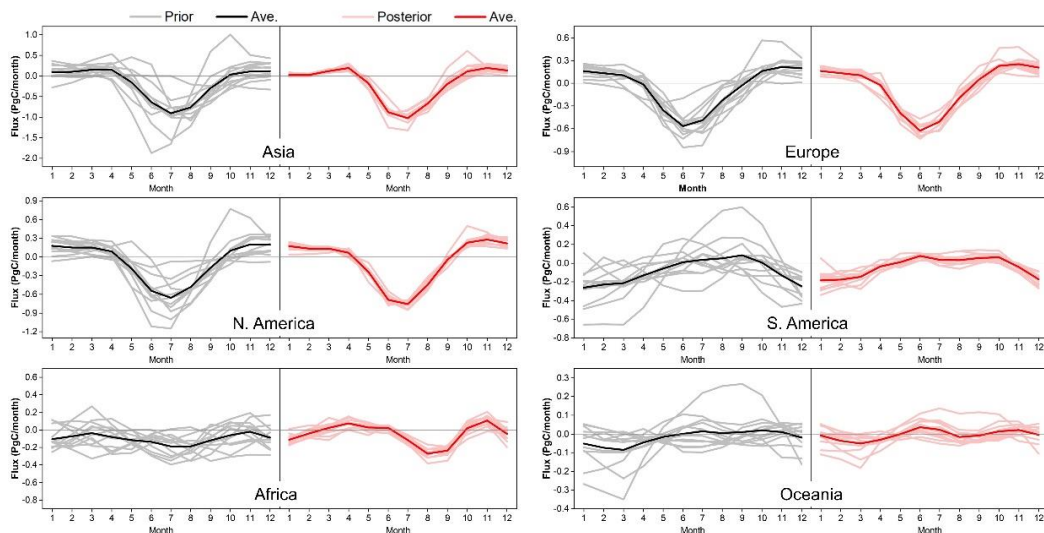
253 As mentioned above, on the continental scale, the posterior fluxes converge significantly.
 254 For prior fluxes, in Asia, N. America, Europe, S. America, Africa, and Australia, their averaged
 255 NEEs during the study period are in the range of -0.25 to -3.27, -0.13 to -1.76, -0.24 to -1.26, -
 256 0.29 to -1.62, -0.31 to -2.14, and -0.01 to -0.69 PgC yr⁻¹, with mean of -2.00±0.91, -0.99±0.50, -
 257 0.70±0.34, -1.10±0.40, -1.20±0.58, and -0.23±0.21 PgC yr⁻¹, respectively. After constraining
 258 using XCO₂ retrievals, we obtain the mean NEEs of -2.15±0.23, -0.96±0.07, -0.60±0.20, -
 259 0.55±0.25, -0.49±0.14, and -0.06±0.1 PgC yr⁻¹, respectively.

260 We further explore whether the seasonal cycles of continental-scale NEE also converged
 261 significantly. As shown in Figure 2, for the prior fluxes, the monthly NEEs of different TBMs
 262 varies largely in all continents. In Asia, Europe, and N. America, although all models show

263 strong land carbon sinks in warm seasons (May to September), and clear land carbon sources
264 during the cold seasons, however, the seasonal magnitudes vary significantly across models,
265 which are in the range of 0.39 to 2.88 PgC mo⁻¹, 0.29 to 1.41 PgC mo⁻¹, and 0.17 to 1.92 PgC
266 mo⁻¹, respectively, with corresponding mean seasonal magnitudes of 1.34±0.62, 0.81±0.26,
267 0.96±0.44 PgC mo⁻¹. Moreover, in Africa, S. America, and Australia, the different TBMs show
268 very inconsistent seasonal cycles. For example, in Australia, some models show carbon sinks
269 from April to October, some models show the opposite, and there are individual models that
270 show carbon sinks throughout the year. The mean seasonal magnitudes of Africa, S. America,
271 and Australia are 0.38±0.13, 0.51±0.29, and 0.19±0.16 PgC mo⁻¹, respectively.

272 For the posterior fluxes, the seasonal cycles of different TBMs are in a narrow spread.
273 Compared to the prior magnitudes, the posterior magnitudes have increased in Asia, N. America,
274 Europe, and Africa, with Africa in particular more than doubling, while in S. America and
275 Australia, they have decreased. The mean seasonal magnitudes of Asia, N. America, Europe,
276 Africa, S. America, and Australia are 1.30±0.21, 1.06±0.12, 0.90±0.13, 0.39±0.08, 0.32±0.08,
277 and 0.13±0.07 PgC mo⁻¹, respectively. Uncertainties of their magnitudes are reduced by a range
278 from 34 to 73%. In addition to more unified amplitudes, basically all TBMs also present a
279 consistent phase in their seasonal cycle. Particularly, in the prior NEEs, there are individual
280 models whose results deviate significantly from others. For example, in Asia, North America,
281 and Europe, one model shows abnormally high sources in autumn, and in S. America and
282 Australia, there is a model showing abnormally high sources in June-October. After constraint by
283 GOSAT observations, these anomalies of individual patterns disappear.

284 When comparing the multi-model mean prior and posterior seasonal cycles, in Asia,
285 Europe, and North America, the posterior seasonal cycle is consistent with the prior results, but
286 the carbon sink is stronger in summer and the carbon source is stronger in autumn. In Africa,
287 South America, and Australia, the posterior and prior seasonal cycles are quite different. In
288 Africa, the prior NEEs show carbon sinks throughout the year, with the strongest carbon sinks in
289 July-August and the weakest sinks in February and November; while the posterior NEE shows
290 that there are significant carbon sources from March to June and from October to November, and
291 significant carbon sinks in December-January and July-September, with the strongest sink in
292 August. In South America, the prior NEEs show a unimodal distribution, with the strongest sink
293 and source in January and September, respectively; but the posterior results show that the carbon
294 sink increases significantly in every month except August-September, and the months with
295 stronger sources appear in June and September. In Australia, the prior NEEs show carbon sinks
296 from December to May, with the strongest in March, and carbon sources from June to
297 November, with the strongest in October; while the posterior NEE shows a significant increase
298 in carbon sources from November to June, and an obvious decrease from August to October,
299 displaying a double-peak and double-valley pattern.



300

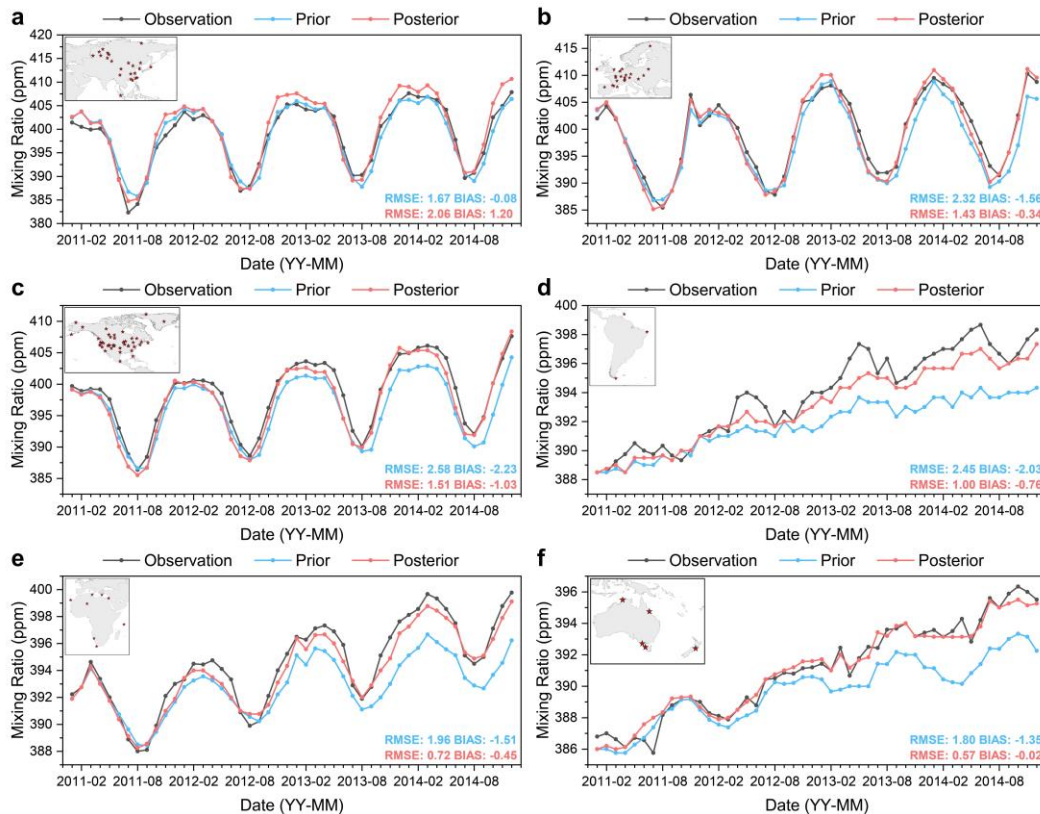
301 **Figure 2** Averaged prior and posterior seasonal cycle of NEE in different continents during
 302 2011-2014. The lighter lines correspond to the NEEs of different TBMs, and the darker lines
 303 represent the multiple models mean.

304 3.3 Evaluation for the inversion results

305 We evaluated the inversion results using independent surface CO₂ observations over the
 306 globe. Figure 3 shows the continental averaged monthly mean observed CO₂ concentrations and
 307 the 12 TBMs averaged prior and posterior CO₂ concentrations. Compared to the prior CO₂
 308 concentrations, except for Asia, the posterior concentrations are much closer to the observed
 309 values over all continents. The root mean square error (RMSE) between the observations and
 310 simulations in Europe, N. America, S. America, Africa, and Australia decrease from a priori of
 311 2.32, 2.58, 2.45, 1.96, and 1.80 ppm to a posteriori of 1.43, 1.51, 1.00, 0.72, and 0.57 ppm,
 312 respectively, with reduction rates of RMSE in the range of 40% ~ 68%. For the individual
 313 models (Figure S5), the mean bias (BIAS) and RMSE of the posterior CO₂ are also lower than
 314 those of the prior CO₂ for almost all models and in all the continents. Generally, the prior CO₂ of
 315 the LPX-Bern, ORCHIDEE, ORCHIDEEv3, SDGVM, and VISIT models have larger RMSE
 316 than the other models in all continents. After being constrained with XCO₂ data, the posterior
 317 CO₂ RMSE of these 5 models are similar with those of the others. In Asia, for the prior CO₂
 318 concentrations, there are about half of the models with negative biases, and the rest with positive
 319 biases, with values in the range of -4.29 ~ 5.27 ppm, which results in a very small BIAS in the
 320 mean prior CO₂ of -0.08 ppm, while for the posterior CO₂, almost all models have small positive
 321 biases, with values in the range of -0.72 ~ 2.35 ppm and average bias of 1.20 ppm. In Southeast
 322 Asia, compared with the aircraft observations, the prior CO₂ have large negative bias (about -3
 323 ppm), while the posterior CO₂ have a much smaller bias, with a value about -1 ppm (Figure S6).
 324 This indicates that the inversion results in Asia of all TBMs are also improved.

325 It can be found that the posterior CO₂ in Asia agrees well with the observation in
 326 summer, but in winter, the posterior concentration is higher than the observation, indicating that
 327 the carbon source in Asia was overestimated in winter. Although the posterior concentrations in
 328 N. America and Europe match the observations better overall, similar characteristics to Asia
 329 were observed, i.e., the differences between the posterior concentrations and the observations are

330 greater in winter than in summer, suggesting it might be caused by poor observations in winter
 331 (Figure S7).



332

333 **Figure 3** Time series of modeled and observed monthly mean CO₂ concentrations for **a**, Asia, **b**,
 334 Africa, **c**, N. America, **d**, S. America, **e**, Europe, and **f**, Oceania. The embedded map in the upper
 335 left corner shows the location of the stations used in each continent.

336 4 Discussion and conclusion

337 With NEEs from 12 different TBMs, our work produces a robust estimate at the
 338 continental scale using GOSAT XCO₂, with very consistent annual mean carbon fluxes and
 339 seasonal cycles. The assessment of the results by independent observations shows that the
 340 posteriori concentrations are closer to the observations. Compared to previous estimates, the
 341 estimated net biosphere exchanges (NBE, =NEE+FIRE) in N. America, Europe, S. America,
 342 Africa, and Australia are close to or between the estimates of GCAS2021 (Jiang et al., 2022) and
 343 CMS-Flux NBE 2020 (Liu et al., 2021) during the same period (Figure S8), which were inferred
 344 from the same satellite retrievals as this study; while in Asia, the land sink of this study is
 345 significantly stronger than both. Compared to the NBEs constrained using surface air-sample
 346 measurements (i.e., CT2019B, Jacobson et al., 2020; Jena CarboScope s10oc_v2020, Rodenbeck
 347 et al., 2018; CAMS v18r2, Chevallier et al., 2010) (Figure S8), in Asia, N. America, and Europe,
 348 our results are in the range of these three estimates, while in S. America, we show a stonger
 349 land sink, and in Afirca and Australia, we show a stonger source. For the Asia's NEE, it is also
 350 comparable to the estimate of Zhang et al. (2014), who used Asia's ground and aircraft
 351 observations as many as possible, and less than the estimate based on eddy covariance
 352 measurements (Ichii et al., 2017). Compared to the state-of-the-art bottom up estimate for the

353 period of 2000-2009 (Ciais et al., 2021) , this study shows a stronger sink in N. America,
354 EuroAsia, and S. America, but a weaker one in Africa and Australia. On globe land, the NEE is
355 reduced from a priori of $-6.22 \pm 2.48 \text{ PgC yr}^{-1}$ to a posteriori of $-4.79 \pm 0.12 \text{ PgC yr}^{-1}$. Combined
356 with the prescribed fluxes of ocean ($-2.45 \text{ PgC yr}^{-1}$), fire (1.93 PgC yr^{-1}), and fossil fuel and
357 cement (9.68 PgC yr^{-1}), the posterior global net flux to the atmosphere is 4.37 PgC yr^{-1} , which is
358 very close to the observed mean atmospheric CO_2 growth rate of 4.51 PgC yr^{-1} (Friedlingstein et
359 al., 2020).

360 The setting of prior uncertainties and observation errors can affect the estimates of NEE.
361 When using the standard deviations of the 12 TBMs as the prior uncertainties in each region
362 (Case Q, as described in 'Method'), the URRs in most regions of high and low latitudes are lower
363 than those of the Base case. The reason is that with this scheme, the given uncertainty for each
364 prior flux at high latitude regions is greater, that is, for each prior flux, the degree of adjustment
365 freedom has increased, but the observation constraint is insufficient in this area, thus the
366 convergence of the 12 NEEs has become poorer; on the contrary, the prior uncertainty in the
367 tropics has become smaller, and there are relatively more observations, as a result, the range that
368 each prior flux can be adjusted is reduced, and the convergence of the 12 NEEs is also reduced
369 (Figure S4 and Figure S9). Besides, we also find a significant increase of URR in the tropical
370 regions of Amazon and Indochina, indicating that a suitable prior uncertainty setting is very
371 important. On the continental scale, the URRs decrease on all continents except Europe, while
372 the estimated NEE in all continents do not change much compared with the Base case (Figure
373 S10). When using a uniform and much smaller observation error (Case R, as described in
374 'Method'), the URRs have increased in most regions, especially at high latitudes (Figure S4).
375 Overall, the different prior uncertainty and observation error settings do not change the situation
376 that URR decreases significantly as the spatial scale decreases, but with the different prior
377 uncertainty setting, the decrease is more rapid, while with small observation error, the decline
378 rate is reduced. In Case R, the URR of 1/4 continent could reach more than 40%, and that of the
379 51 regions mean reaches about 25% (Figure S11). We conclude that currently, the GOSAT
380 XCO_2 can only give a robust estimate of the carbon flux on the continental scale, and under the
381 current satellite observing capacity, improving the XCO_2 accuracy can effectively reduce the
382 spatial scale of robust carbon flux estimates.

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396 **Data Availability Statement**

397 The ACOS 7.3 Level 2 Lite data set of GOSAT XCO₂ column concentrations is publicly
398 available at https://oco2.gesdisc.eosdis.nasa.gov/opendap/ACOS_L2_Lite_FP.7.3/contents.html.
399 The TRENDY TBMs data are available at <https://sites.exeter.ac.uk/trendy>. The CarbonTracker
400 CT2017 fluxes used as prior information in the model simulations can be accessed from the
401 website <https://gml.noaa.gov/aftp/products/carbontracker/co2/CT2017>. The ObsPack data can be
402 downloaded from <https://gml.noaa.gov/ccgg/obspack/data.php>. The CONTRAIL data can be
403 obtained from the ObsPack dataset. The monthly carbon fluxes for the 51 terrestrial regions
404 estimated in this study are available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7090590>.

405 **Conflict of Interest**

406 The authors declare no conflicts of interest relevant to this study.

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449 [_v7.0_2021-08-18](http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/obspack/data.php?id=obspack_CO2_1_GLOBALVIEWplus_v7.0_2021-08-18)

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A robust continental estimate of carbon sinks using GOSAT XCO₂ retrievals

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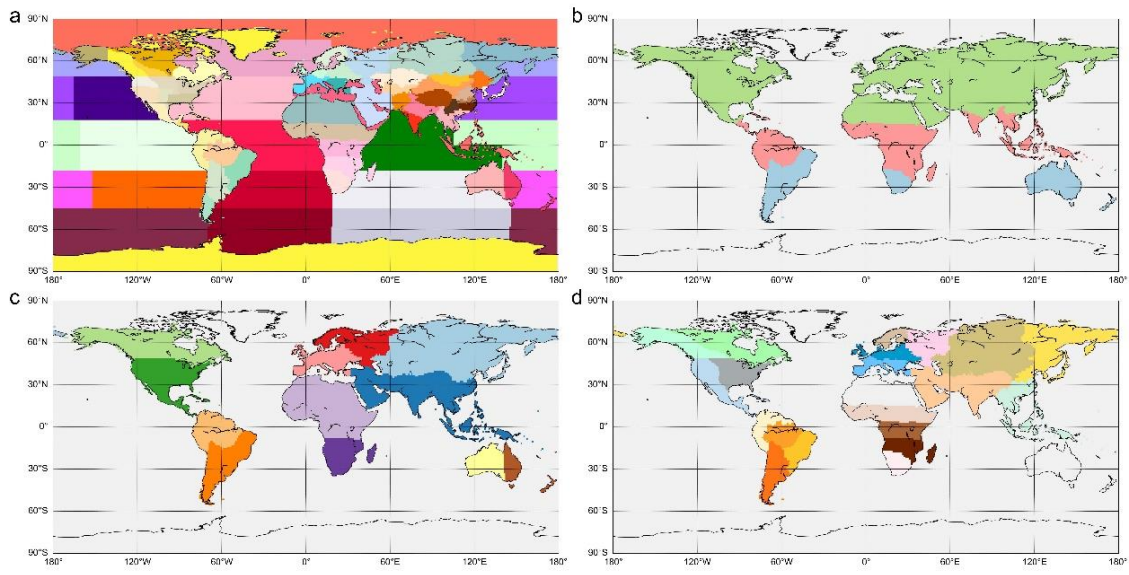


Figure S1. Zoning map at different scales. **(a)** The global land and ocean are divided into 51 and 18 regions, respectively. **(b)** Three global latitudinal zones. **(c)** 1/2 continental scale zoning map. **(d)** 1/4 continental scale zoning map.

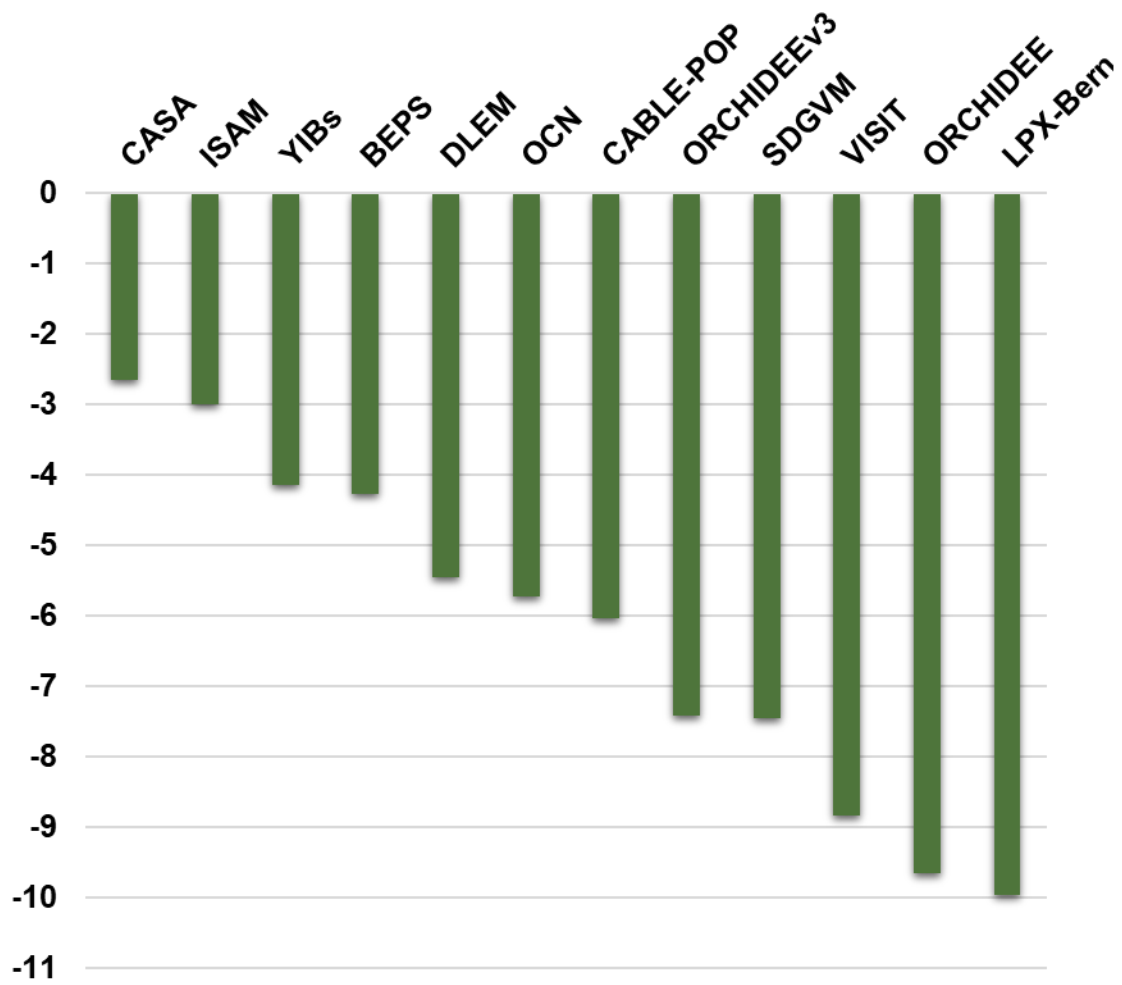


Figure S2. The global land NEE of the terrestrial biosphere models (TBMs) used in this paper.

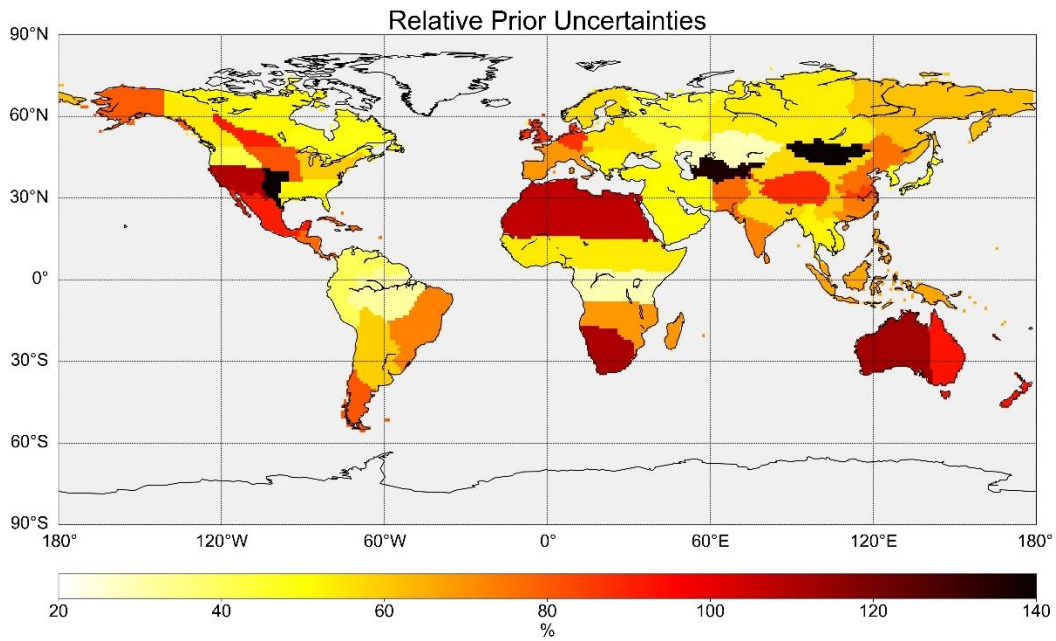


Figure S3. Distribution of relative prior uncertainty of the 51 terrestrial regions. Relative prior uncertainty is equal to the standard deviation of 12 TBMs NEE divided by the mean of 12 TBMs NEE.

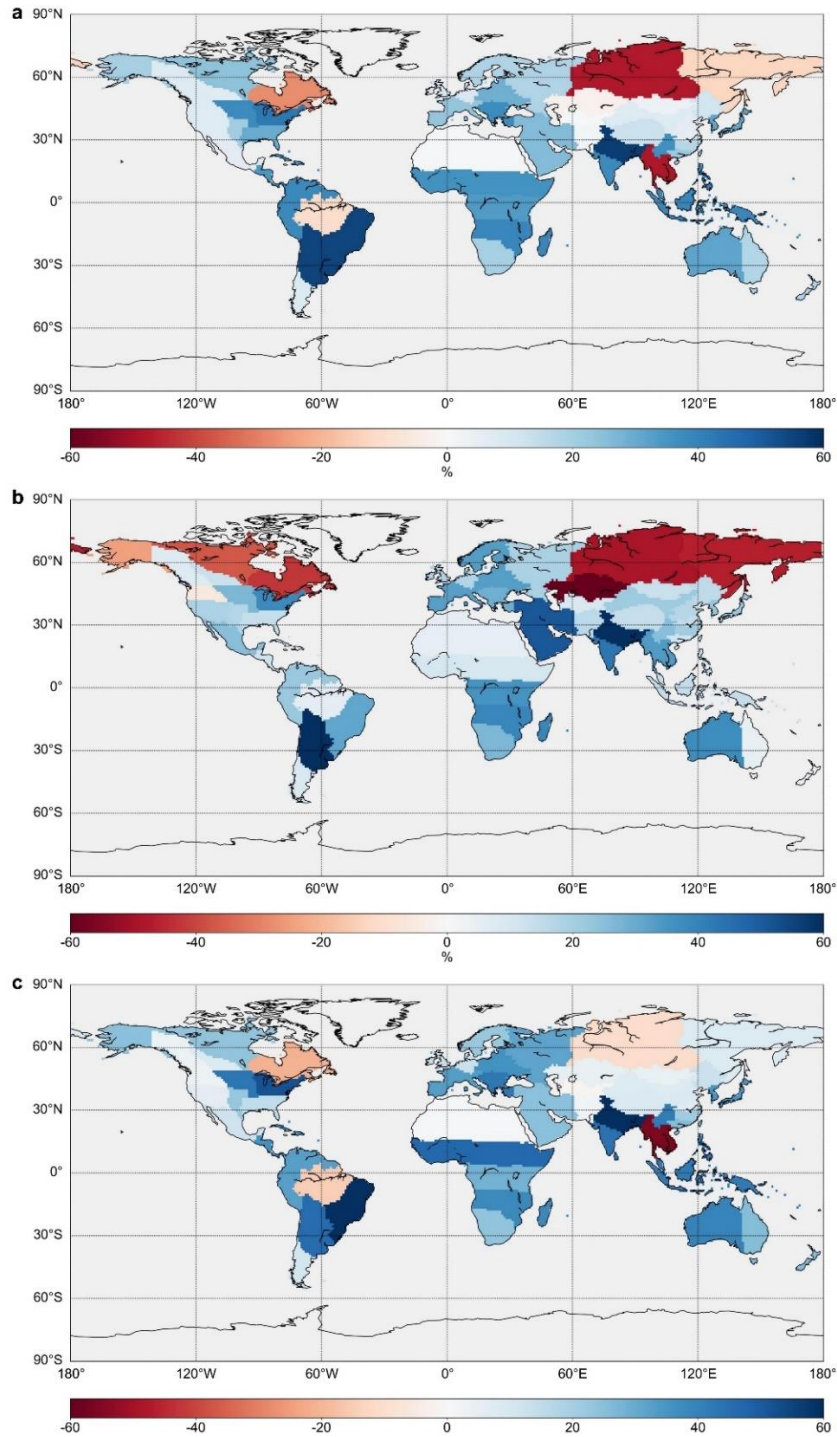


Figure S4. Distribution of relative uncertainty reduction ratios ($[\text{prior uncertainty} - \text{posterior uncertainty}] / \text{prior uncertainty}$). **(a)** Base Case, **(b)** Case Q, based on Base Case, but its prior flux uncertainties were set using the standard deviation of the 12 prior NEEs, and **(c)** Case R, based on Base Case, but the distribution of observation error was ignored.

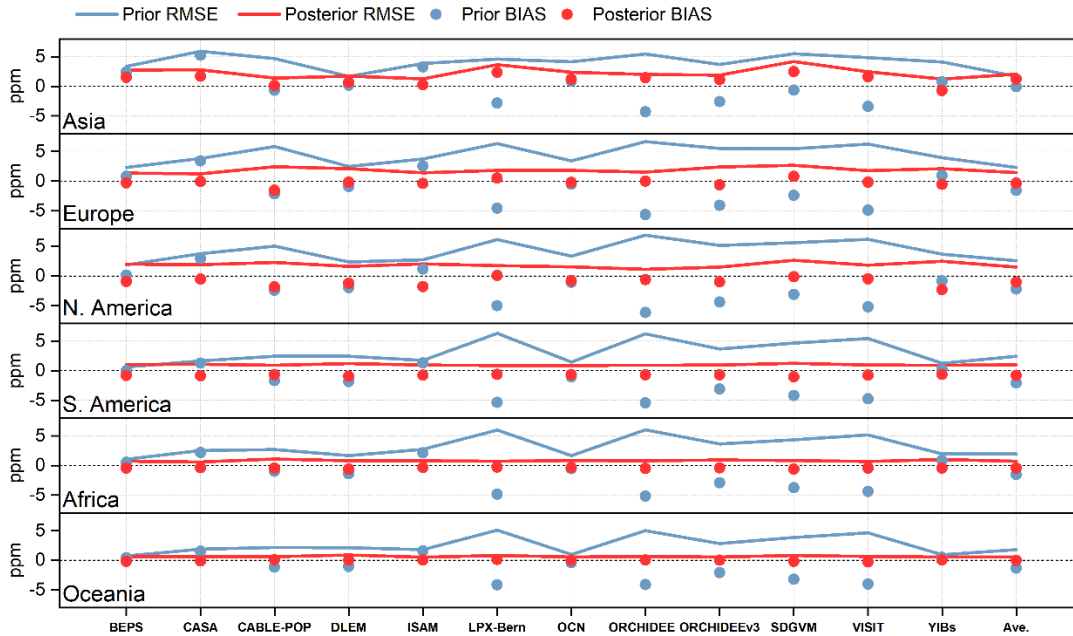


Figure S5. Comparison of simulated and observed concentrations for multiple models. The horizontal coordinates show individual model and multi-model averages.

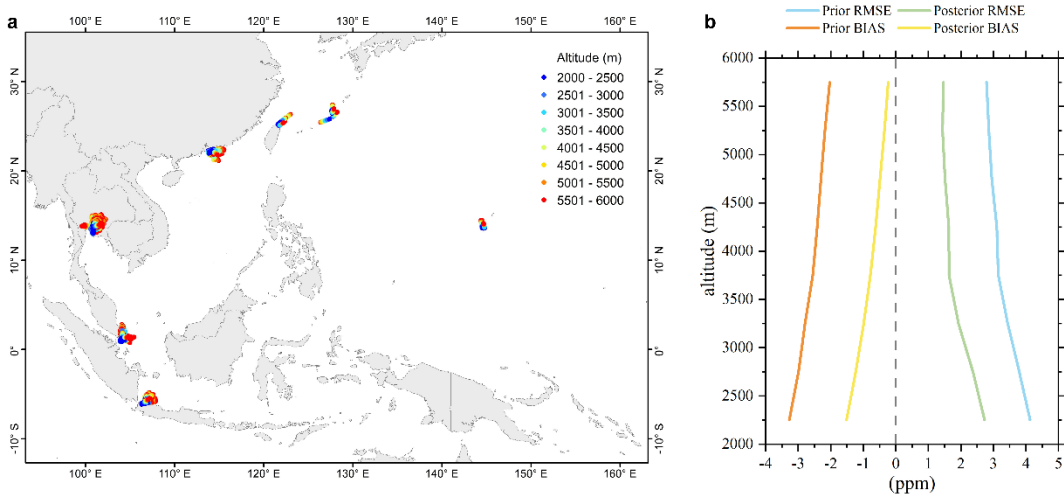


Figure S6. Comparison of tropical Asia simulated concentrations with CONTRAIL observations. The left panel a shows the distribution of COTRAIL observations, and the right panel b shows the evaluation results.

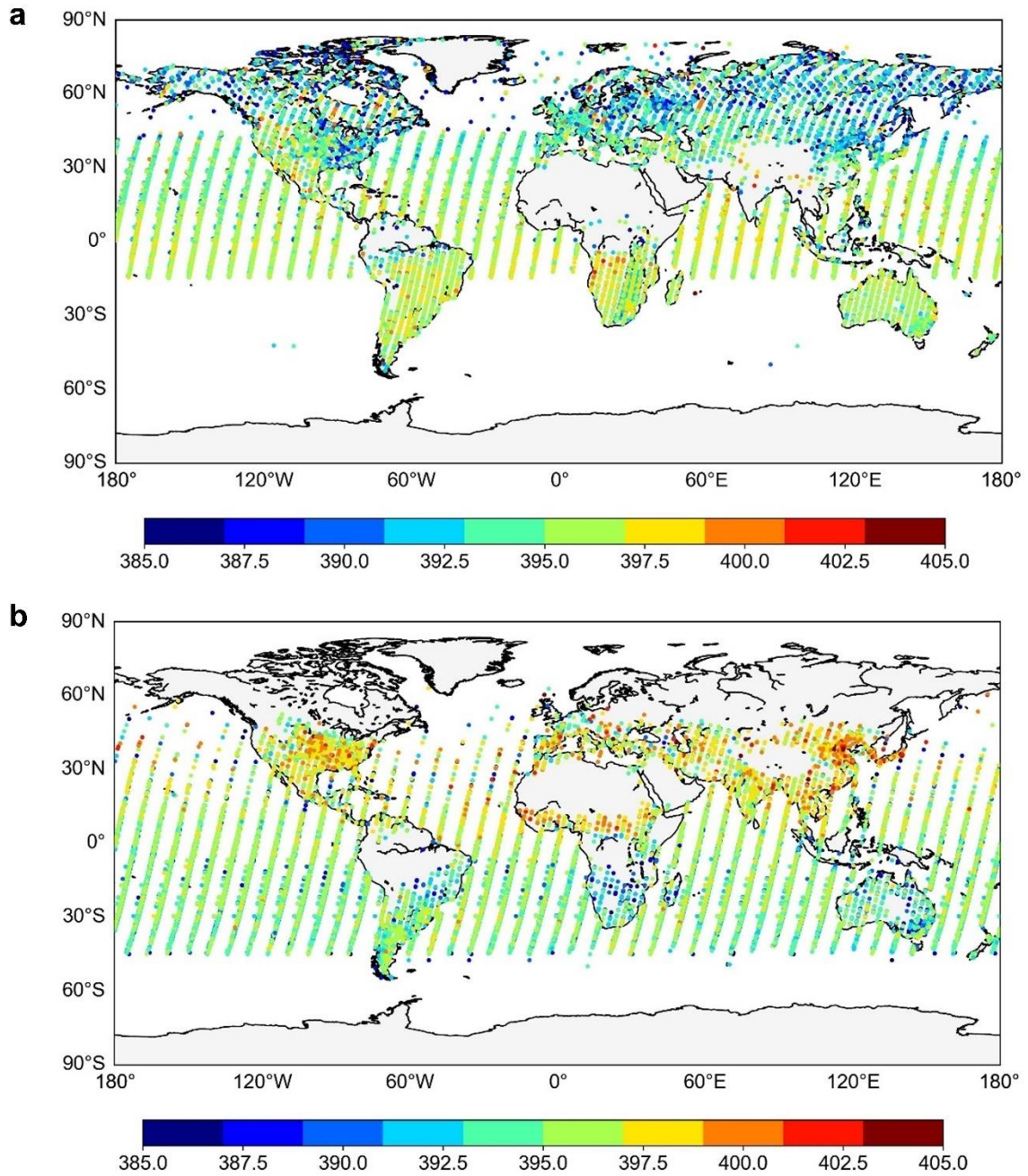


Figure S7. Seasonal distribution of GOSAT XCO₂ observations between 2011-2014. a for MAM and b for DJF.

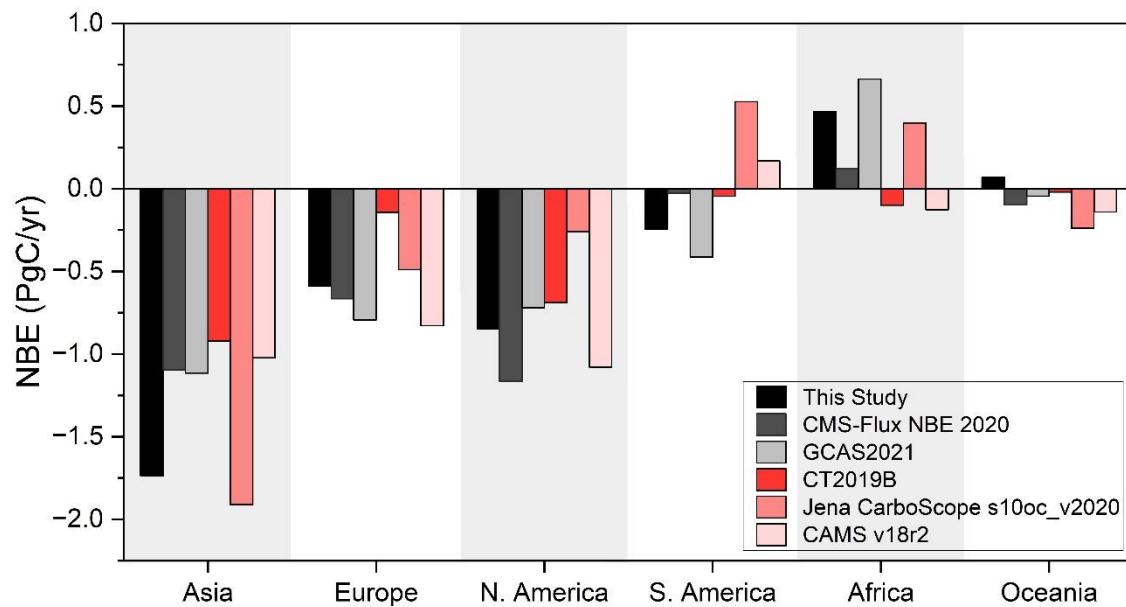


Figure S8. Net biosphere exchanges (NBE) derived on the continental scale from 2011 to 2014. Each atmospheric inversion is represented by bars showing the NBE averaged between 2011 and 2014 in each continent.

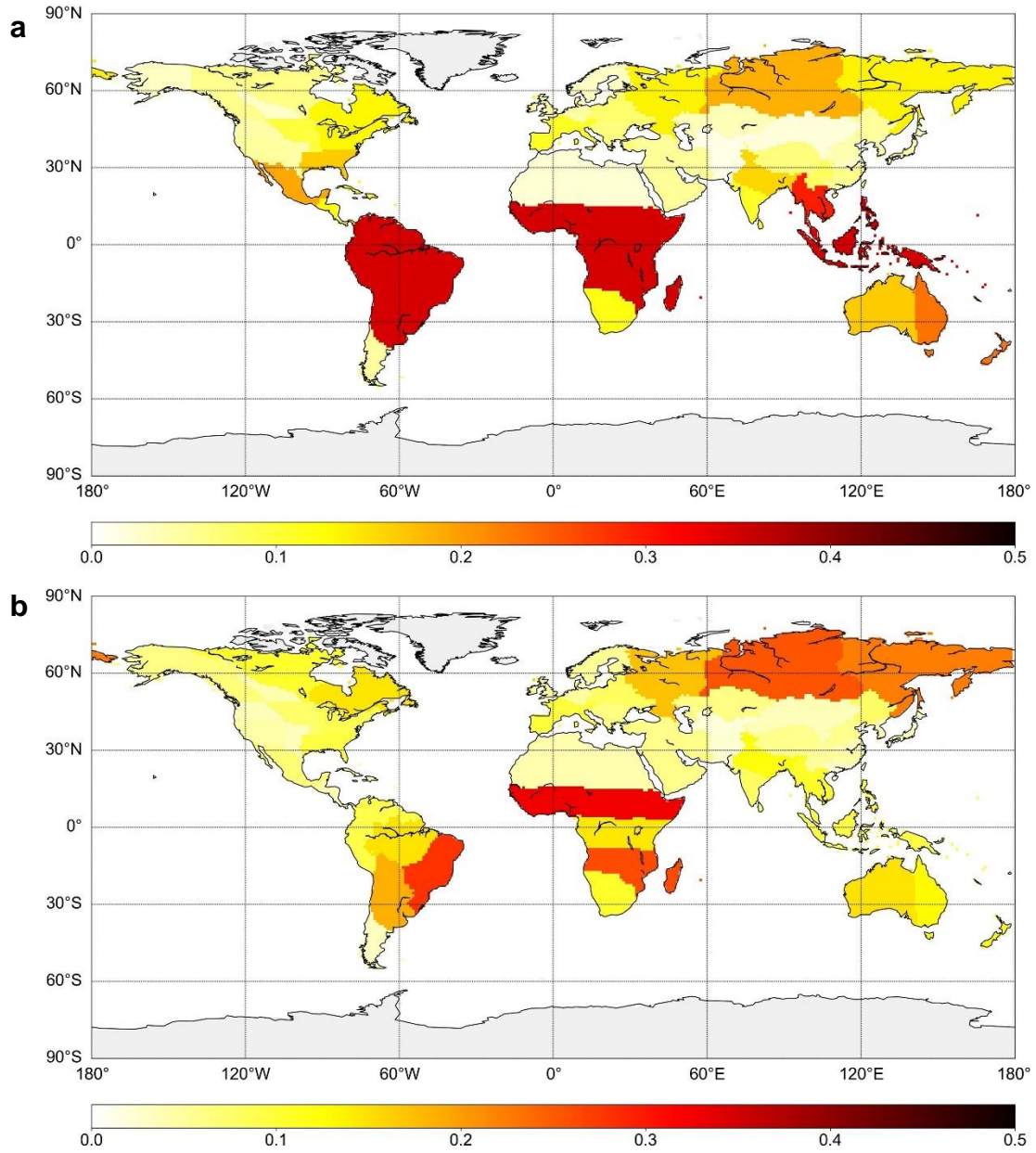


Figure S9. The setting of prior flux uncertainty used in the inversions with each NEE model (PgC yr⁻¹). a and b correspond to Base Case and Case Q, respectively.

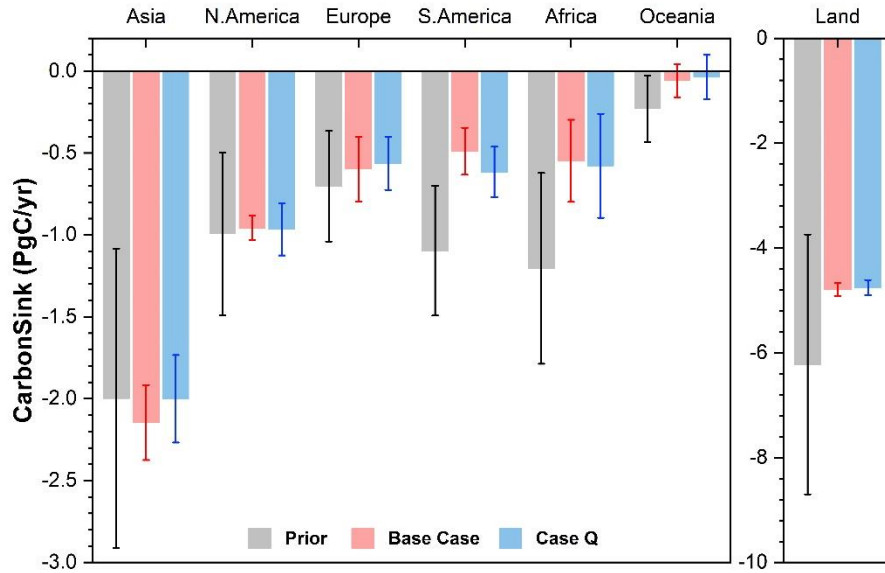


Figure S10. Annual prior and posterior NEEs on the global and continental scale (uncertainty is described using the standard deviation of the 12 TBMs).

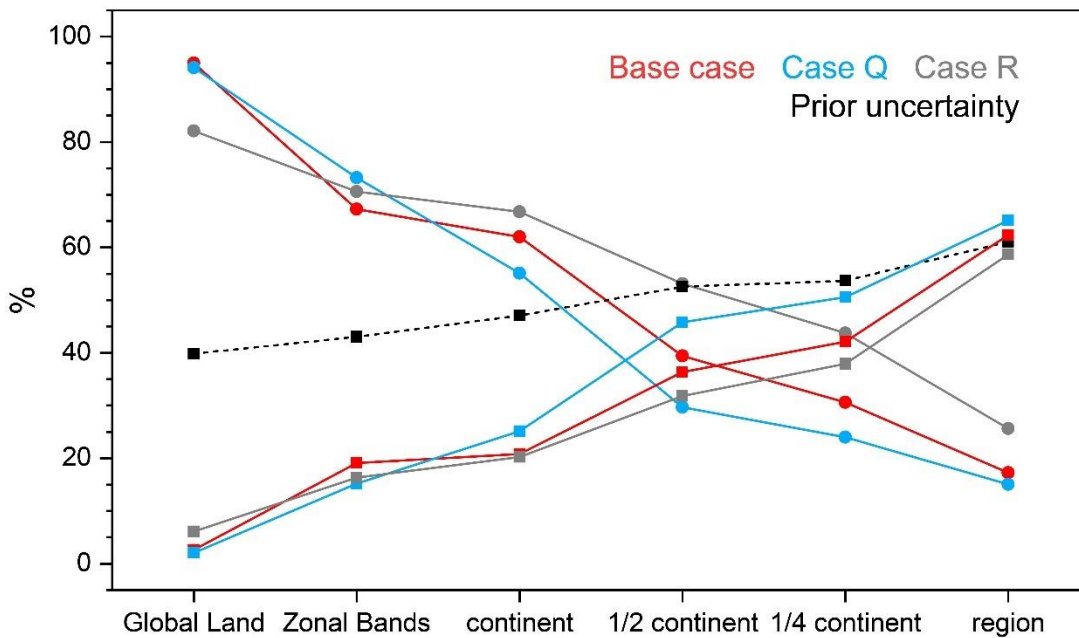


Figure S11. The variation of the uncertainty reduction ratio and relative uncertainty with different scales. The solid line marked with a circle is the posterior uncertainty reduction ratio curve. The solid line marked with a square is the relative posterior uncertainty curve. The dashed line marked with a square is the relative prior uncertainty curve.

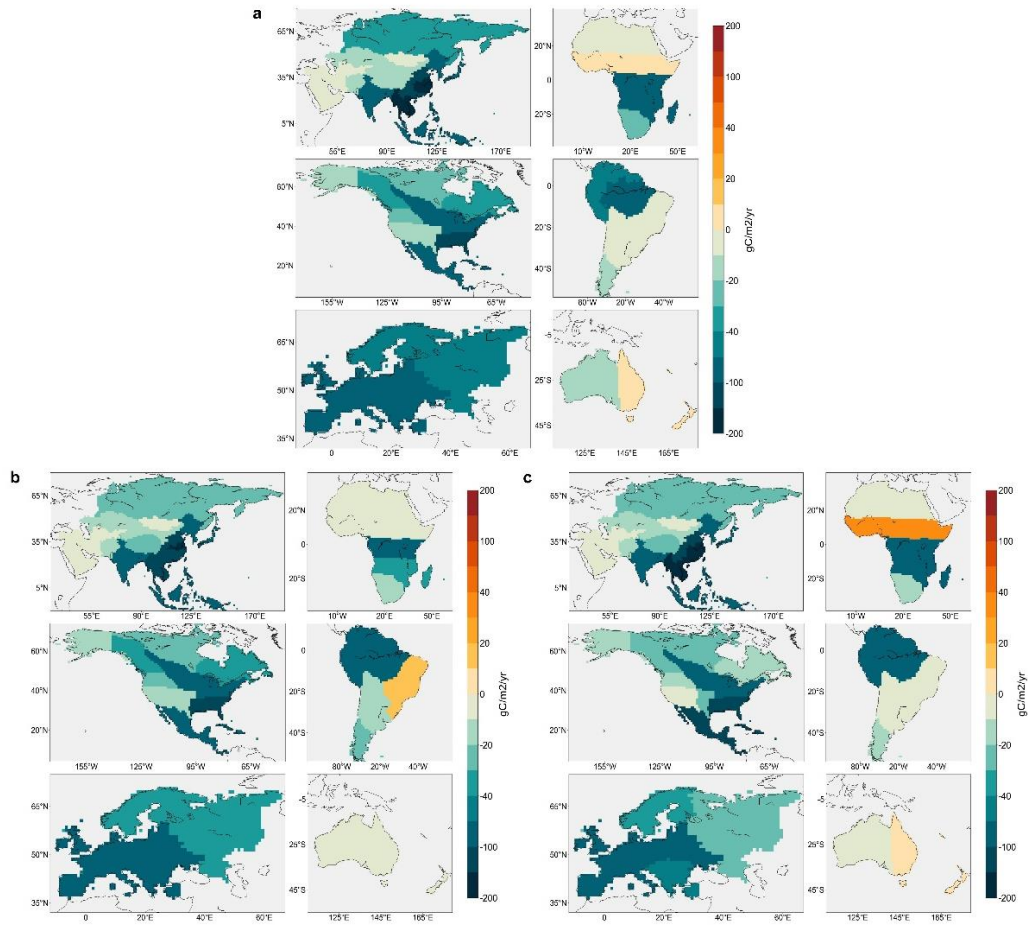


Figure S12. The distributions of the 12-model mean posterior NEE from 2011-2014. a is Base Case, b is Case Q, and c is Case R.