

Characterizing OCO-2 XCO₂ Variability for the Conterminous United States and
Adjacent Ocean

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We use a geostatistical framework to analyze new, high resolution, column-averaged CO₂ (XCO₂) measurements from NASA's Orbiting Carbon Observatory 2 (OCO-2) and provide a characterization of seasonal and sub-seasonal variability within XCO₂ over the conterminous United States and adjacent ocean basins. Of particular interest are the differences between land and ocean XCO₂ distributions, which are significant in CO₂ at the surface. Surface measurement networks have shown that surface CO₂ fluxes are greater and more variable over land. We investigate whether this contrast is reflected in XCO₂, for which large-scale transport generally obscures local fluxes. We show land and ocean seasonal XCO₂ variability is most divergent for the west coast and fairly smoothed across the east coast. Our results are mostly consistent with modeled XCO₂, showing a mean increasing north-south meridional pattern and high seasonal variability over areas affected by boreal carbon fluxes. The western United States has strikingly lower seasonal amplitudes than the adjacent Pacific Ocean and eastern United States. Higher latitudes in the domain tend to have greater seasonal amplitudes, and the highest seasonal amplitudes are over the Canadian Shield. Our results suggest synoptic-scale XCO₂ variance is driven primarily by advection across the mean meridional gradient, consistent with findings from the ground-based Total Carbon Column Observing Network (Keppel-Aleks et al., 2011). Synoptic-scale XCO₂ variance is greater (almost doubled for the west coast) over land than ocean, and greatest over the northwest and northeast. The impact of instrument and algorithm noise as well as small spatial-scale geophysical signals are evaluated by averaging adjacent retrievals

along-orbit and found to impart ~25% of the variability in XCO_2 data analyzed. There are certain incongruencies between our results and modeled or observed XCO_2 that prompt further investigation into the OCO-2 data as well as model representations of atmospheric transport and surface fluxes. Future work will focus on attributing the observed variability to real geophysical signals or residual bias in OCO-2 soundings. This analysis provides insight on real carbon cycle and atmosphere-driven XCO_2 variations and may be used to improve modeling and satellite retrieval techniques.

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Table of Contents

IV

<u>Section</u>	<u>Page</u>
1. Introduction	1
2. Literature Review	3
2.1 The North American and Coastal Ocean Carbon Budget	3
2.2 Seasonality in North American Carbon Fluxes	5
2.3 The Orbiting Carbon Observatory 2 (OCO-2)	6
2.4 XCO ₂ Relationship with Surface CO ₂ Fluxes	7
2.5 Geographic Characteristics of Mean XCO ₂ Distribution	8
2.6 Temporal Scales of XCO ₂ Variability	9
3. Research Questions	11
4. Methods	12
5. Results and Discussion	16
5.1 Linearly Detrended XCO ₂ Spatial Means	16
5.2 XCO ₂ Seasonal Cycle Amplitudes	19
5.3 Synoptic XCO ₂ Anomaly Variability	22
5.4 Seasonality of XCO ₂ Synoptic Anomaly Variability...	28
5.5 Synoptic XCO ₂ Anomaly Skewness...	33
5.6 Summary of XCO ₂ Statistical Parameters	34
5.7 Glint Mode Only Analysis...	39
5.8 Impact of Small-Scale Spatial Correlation	42
6. Summary	42
7. Conclusions and Future Directions	45
8. References	48

1. Introduction

Constraining surface CO₂ fluxes is a primary and ongoing pursuit in carbon cycle science, and a critical aspect of Earth system modeling, carbon monitoring, and mitigation activities. Atmospheric inversion studies that aim to accurately and robustly quantify surface CO₂ fluxes require descriptions of transport, mixing, and atmospheric CO₂ variations (Baker et al., 2006). While CO₂ variability is more well-documented near the surface than in the total air column, the introduction of satellite CO₂ observations is rapidly expanding column data and our understanding of its variations (Eldering et al., 2017). Total column-averaged CO₂ measurements are less sensitive to boundary layer vertical mixing and exchange with the free troposphere than surface CO₂ data and thus provide a novel constraint in surface CO₂ flux estimation (Keppel-Aleks et al., 2011).

Differences between CO₂ in continental and marine air have been observed and quantified by surface measurement networks. CO₂ in remote marine air has a well-mixed, hemisphere-mean signature while continental CO₂ is generally more variable due to the influence of regional human and terrestrial biospheric emissions (Geels et al., 2004). The impact of this land-ocean contrast in CO₂ behavior throughout the total atmospheric column is currently underexamined, as global coverage of total column CO₂ has only been made recently available with satellite data. Describing the continental CO₂ influence over the ocean is necessary to further constrain and interpret CO₂ fluxes. A recent study found transported urban CO₂ emissions had a significant impact on nearshore air-sea gas exchange over Monterey Bay, CA (Northcott et al, 2019), uncovering a mechanism that is not adequately accounted for in coastal carbon flux estimation. There is good agreement between different estimates of global and long-term mean ocean fluxes, but

temporal and spatial variability in CO_2 , especially above coastal oceans, remains a major source of disagreement (Sitch et al., 2015).

New, high resolution satellite data can improve the understanding of atmospheric CO_2 variations. NASA's Orbiting Carbon Observatory 2 (OCO-2) provides global measurements of dry air mole fractions of total-column-averaged CO_2 in parts per million (XCO_2) (Eldering et al., 2017). Because carbon fluxes are so spatially and temporally heterogeneous, they need to be characterized at regional and sub-annual scales to monitor the effectiveness of different carbon sinks over time. XCO_2 data fills a gap in the spatially-sparse but temporally-dense land and ocean surface network measurements currently employed to resolve the carbon budget. Using OCO-2 XCO_2 , we investigate spatiotemporal patterns in atmospheric CO_2 variability with a focus on land-ocean boundaries to better understand the transition between continental air mass XCO_2 and background maritime air mass XCO_2 . We provide a characterization of spatial means, seasonal and sub-seasonal variability in XCO_2 across the conterminous U.S. and adjacent oceans, along with a comparison of land and ocean XCO_2 distributions along the east and west coastlines. We discuss how further work can attribute the observed variability to real signals either from surface fluxes or atmospheric transport and residual bias in OCO-2 soundings. We validate our results using XCO_2 from the Total Carbon Column Observing Network (TCCON), a ground-based network of Fourier transform spectrometers which have been used to investigate variability in column CO_2 (Keppel-Aleks et al., 2012).
Attributing variability in XCO_2 can improve earth system modeling

and satellite measurement techniques as well as identify measurement biases over land and ocean (Baker et al., 2010).

2. Literature Review

2.1 The North American and Coastal Ocean Carbon Budget

Synthesis estimates show that North America is a net source of CO₂, contributing approximately ~1,008 teragrams of carbon (Tg C) to the atmosphere annually (Hayes et al., 2018). North American annual fossil fuel emissions are relatively well constrained to ~1,774 Tg C annually (Marcotullio et al., 2018). North American natural land and ocean sinks are estimated to offset its fossil emissions by ~43% with medium confidence (Hayes et al., 2018). Flux estimates of natural carbon sinks and sources have significant and variable uncertainty due to measurement gaps and disagreement among model representations of atmospheric transport and ecosystem carbon dynamics. Using inventory based, bottom-up approaches, the average annual uptake from 2004-2014 by the continental North American carbon sink and its coastal oceans was estimated as ~606 Tg C and ~160 Tg C, respectively (Hayes et al., 2018). Coastal oceans are affected by direct air-sea gas exchange as well as transport of dissolved organic and inorganic carbon from inland waters (Fennel et al., 2019). Limited observations and complex small-scale variability create significant uncertainty in coastal ocean carbon flux estimates. To predict the strength of these sinks into the future and assess

economic/ecologic risks such as coastal acidification, temporal and spatial variations in CO₂ flux must be further constrained (Fennel et al., 2019).

While the Atlantic coastal ocean acts a net carbon sink, it has a large-scale meridional gradient in air-sea CO₂ flux, with more carbon uptake in the northern latitudes (Fennel et al., 2019). To the North of Cape Hatteras, there is a prominent seasonal cycle in CO₂ flux. Cool temperatures increase CO₂ solubility and spur uptake in the winter. CO₂ uptake through photosynthesis continues through spring, while summer and fall are periods of outgassing due to warming and respiration. To the South of Cape Hatteras, biological CO₂ uptake is reduced and there is less seasonality in CO₂ flux. In this region, there are sporadic drawdown events due to input from high-nutrient Gulf Stream water and riverine inputs (Fennel et al., 2019).

The Pacific coastal ocean is acted upon by westerly winds, which cause equatorward currents and upwelling of carbon rich water (Fennel et al., 2019). Though this causes significant CO₂ outgassing in the region, the Pacific coast is still a weak to moderate net carbon sink. Similar to the Atlantic, there is stronger CO₂ flux seasonality in northern latitudes of the Pacific. The region has large spatial and temporal variability in carbon flux due to variable wind forcing, freshwater influence, rough bathymetry, and primary production. ENSO conditions drive interannually alternating periods of either dominant CO₂ efflux from upwelling and outgassing or CO₂ influx from relaxation and biological drawdown (Fennel et al., 2019). The dynamics of the coastal ocean off California is heavily controlled by wind-driven coastal upwelling, which Garcia-Reyes

and Largier (2012) divided into three seasons: April-June upwelling, July-September relaxation, and a December-February storm season.

2.2 Seasonality in North American Carbon Fluxes

For our study domain and the entire Northern Hemisphere, the seasonal CO₂ cycle is primarily driven by the biosphere. It can be characterized by a seasonal maximum CO₂ release (net respiration) and CO₂ uptake (net photosynthesis) controlled by plant growing seasons (Olsen and Randerson, 2003). XCO₂ seasonal minimum and maximum values are lagged by several months from peak CO₂ drawdown and release at the surface. The areas in our study domain with the highest gross primary productivity are along the western seaboard, the southeast, the northeast, and north of the Great Lakes (Zhang et al., 2017). Boreal forest carbon fluxes have especially large seasonal amplitudes due to the short length of the boreal growing season. Seasonality induced by the short boreal forest growing season and seasonal northern latitude human emissions result in high surface and column CO₂ seasonality in northern latitudes (Sweeney et al., 2015). Modeled global column CO₂ amplitudes were greatest over eastern Eurasia and eastern boreal North America. Compared to Europe, mean seasonality in human emissions is weak for the United States because a secondary summer peak due to air conditioning counteracts the wintertime heating peak, and wintertime heating demands are weakening with interannual temperature rise (Sweeney et al., 2015). Anthropogenic emissions are greatest along the densely populated northeastern coast and greater in general over the eastern half of North America (Marcotullio, 2018).

2.3 The Orbiting Carbon Observatory 2 (OCO-2)

NASA's Orbiting Carbon Observatory 2 provides global coverage of XCO_2 with a ground track that repeats every 16 days and eight footprints across track (Eldering et al., 2017). XCO_2 is the average concentration of CO_2 in a column of dry air extending from the Earth's surface to the top of the atmosphere. OCO-2 retrieves XCO_2 from NIR spectra (1.61 and 2.06 μm) of passive solar radiation reflected/scattered back from the surface (land, ice or water) and offers a fine spatial resolution ($\sim 1.29 \times 2.25$ km) and precision (0.5 ppm) (Chatterjee et al., 2017). The ratios of column-averaged CO_2 and O_2 number densities are taken along the optical path between the Sun, surface footprint, and instrument, and multiplied by the concentration of column-averaged oxygen to estimate XCO_2 . OCO-2 provides retrievals from both nadir pointing mode and glint pointing mode, the latter increasing signal and reducing retrieval uncertainties over the ocean (Baker et al., 2010). The Level 2 V9 data product we use provides geolocated XCO_2 from cloud-free scenes along with retrievals of surface pressure, albedo, aerosol content, water vapor, and temperature profiles. Because retrieval is sometimes inhibited by clouds, thick aerosols, and topography inhomogeneities, the data products contain error measures for quality filtering.

These new XCO_2 measurements can improve carbon flux estimates produced by atmospheric inverse models, which have difficulties representing atmospheric vertical mixing. They improve upon the existing in situ measurement network by providing global coverage and upon CO_2 observations from the GOSAT satellite, which uses measurements of atmosphere CO_2 thermal NIR emissions, by providing more frequent

soundings, lower retrieval errors, and a smaller field of vision. OCO-2 enables top-down carbon flux estimation at finer regional scales than could previously be achieved. OCO-2 data is validated using XCO₂ from the Total Carbon Column Observing Network (TCCON), which has 23 operational instruments worldwide and three within our North American study domain. TCCON XCO₂ is collected with upward looking, ground-based spectrometers that measure trace gas absorption in the solar spectrum. The primary science mission of OCO-2 is to characterize and monitor the geographic distribution of CO₂ sinks and sources over time, as they control the atmospheric CO₂ concentration and therefore regulate our climate.

2.4 XCO₂ Relationship with Surface CO₂ Fluxes

Ongoing efforts aim to constrain the impact of surface fluxes and different atmospheric transport mechanisms on XCO₂ patterns. XCO₂ measurements have a large footprint, as the area of surface flux influencing the column increases with altitude, giving XCO₂ its unique ability to capture large-scale carbon gradients and provide information about continental-scale sinks and sources (Baker et al., 2010; Olsen and Randerson, 2003). It can also be used to infer regional surface fluxes when paired with top-down atmospheric inversion methods (Keppel-Aleks et al., 2011; Baker et al., 2006). While the signal of large-scale variability is larger than the signal of regional fluxes in XCO₂, they can be drawn out if the biospheric CO₂ mean state is accurately described (Keppel-Aleks et al., 2011).

Total column-averaged CO₂ measurements are affected by different gradients and modes of variability than CO₂ at the surface. A study by Olsen and Randerson (2003) investigated differences in surface and column CO₂ using an atmospheric transport model simulation. Because column CO₂ includes a larger fraction of the atmosphere than surface layer CO₂, variability driven by surface fluxes creates a bigger change in concentration at the surface. In general, column CO₂ was less variable spatially and temporally than surface CO₂ and diurnal variability contributed less to overall variability in the column than from processes that take place over multiple days. High frequency variability driven by diurnal surface fluxes decreased with altitude in the modeled column. Seasonal variability in column CO₂ is more similar to surface CO₂, though there are phase delays in the timing of maximum and minimum seasonal peaks in the column, likely due to the time required for vertical mixing. Compared to surface CO₂ in the Northern Hemisphere, column-averaged CO₂ is greater in the summer and fall and lower in the winter and spring. The seasonal cycle of surface CO₂ had a much higher amplitude over land than ocean, whereas land and ocean seasonality in the column were more similar. The spatial north-south gradient in surface CO₂ during the growing season was also more pronounced over land than ocean compared to column CO₂. They speculated that the lower contrast between land and ocean XCO₂ was likely due to more wind dispersal in the free troposphere than in the boundary layer (Olsen and Randerson, 2003).

2.5 Geographic Characteristics of Mean XCO₂ Distribution

The geographic variation in XCO₂ means reflects a combination of surface carbon fluxes and large-scale atmospheric transport including mean meridional circulation,

stationary eddies, and transient eddies (Crisp et al., 2011; Parazoo et al., 2011). XCO_2 has primarily meridional patterns that vary over the seasonal cycle, with larger variations in the north-south direction than the east-west direction. Due to its latitudinal structure, global patterns are commonly assessed using zonal means (Crisp et al., 2011). During the winter and spring, biospheric and anthropogenic CO_2 emissions decrease from north to south, creating a decreasing north-south gradient in XCO_2 (Keppel-Aleks et al., 2011). During the growing season, transition from net respiration to net photosynthetic uptake reverses the winter/spring gradient and creates a relatively stronger increasing north-south gradient in XCO_2 (Keppel-Aleks et al., 2011). Zonal mean estimates of XCO_2 from GOSAT and OCO-2 show that XCO_2 decreases with latitude from 30 N to 50 N from June to August, primarily reflecting the strong growing season gradient after averaging over a full annual cycle (Liang et al., 2017).

2.6 Temporal Scales of XCO_2 Variability

As discussed in the previous sections, the biosphere creates a prominent seasonal cycle in both XCO_2 and surface CO_2 , though XCO_2 is more affected by transported seasonal variability in addition to local surface flux seasonality. Keppel-Aleks et al. (2011) analyzed TCCON data to study the imprint of surface fluxes and horizontal atmospheric transport on XCO_2 variability. They found XCO_2 was more sensitive to the advection of large gradients by synoptic-scale weather than local surface fluxes and local vertical mixing. Synoptic-scale XCO_2 variations, primarily driven by transient eddy

advection across the north-south meridional gradient, contributed up to half the seasonal XCO₂ cycle in mid-latitude TCCON observations. Robust spatiotemporal descriptions of the mean meridional gradients in CO₂ are therefore necessary for CO₂ flux attribution, with significant impacts on estimates of the net annual North American sink (Keppel-Aleks et al., 2011). Synoptic-scale variations occur on time scales of 1-2 weeks and spatial scales of ~1000 km. Large-scale transient eddies are primarily driven by baroclinic instability and the net effect of their transport can be evaluated by monthly averaging (Parazoo et al., 2011). Over multiple synoptic cycles, Parazoo et al., (2011) found net poleward transient eddy transport, with poleward transport of CO₂ greater than fossil CO₂ emissions in mid-latitudes. This effect causes reduced seasonality in mid-latitudes and amplify seasonality at high latitudes (Parazoo et al., 2011).

Torres et al. (2019) continued resolving the variance budget of XCO₂ using TCCON and OCO-2 data. Variability from synoptic-scale transport was twice as large in magnitude as the variability induced by local diurnal fluxes in OCO-2 XCO₂ (Torres et al., 2019). Mesoscale variability, induced by advection from small-scale weather features, was about half the size of the diurnal variability during the growing season, but greater than diurnal variability in the winter. Synoptic variability in TCCON and OCO-2 XCO₂ were strongly correlated to the magnitude and seasonal cycle of the large-scale north-south gradient, while mesoscale variability only exhibited a moderate correlation. Advection of variations by mean wind and variability produced by transient eddies acting on the mean gradient are the drivers of explained synoptic OCO-2 XCO₂ variability (~0.5 ppm). Unexplained variability caused by errors and spatially-coherent retrieval bias is on

the same order (0.3 to 0.8 ppm), overprinting real variability and affecting the independence of along-track observations. Compared to land XCO₂, this variability is about half the size in ocean XCO₂, which is less complicated by topography and albedo retrieval problems (Torres et al., 2019).

3. Research Questions

Based on the importance of understanding spatiotemporal variations in XCO₂ described above, my research is focused on the following science questions:

- From the open ocean, across the coast, into the continental interior, how do properties of atmospheric XCO₂ (central tendency, seasonal and synoptic variability, synoptic anomaly seasonality) vary in space and time?
- How do these patterns compare over different latitudes of the east and west continental U.S. coasts and between land and ocean XCO₂ populations?
- Assuming that a continental signal can be identified, how far does it extend over the coastal ocean and into the open ocean before transitioning to a well-mixed marine air signal? Does this boundary region differ from east to west coast in its extent?
- How do our results differ when using retrievals from combined nadir and glint pointing modes versus glint mode only?
- To what degree is the analysis impacted by small-scale spatial correlation in OCO-2 XCO₂ discussed in Torres et al (2019)?

4. Methods

We analyze XCO₂ patterns using combined glint and nadir mode NASA Orbiting Carbon Observatory- 2 (OCO-2) column-averaged dry air mole fraction CO₂ (XCO₂) data retrieved from 9/6/2014 to 6/1/2019. We use the V9r OCO-2 Level 2 data product of bias-corrected XCO₂ retrieved using the Atmospheric CO₂ Observations from Space (ACOS) algorithm (O'Dell et al., 2018). August 2017 is omitted due to on-orbit calibration of the satellite.

The first analysis will be conducted on 20 latitude bands of cross-coast XCO₂ observations from 30 N – 50 N and -145 W to - 50 W, across the conterminous United States and adjacent ocean basins (Figures 1a, 2a, 3a, & 4a). The study domain is evaluated zonally due to the dominant west to east wind direction and dominant mean structure of XCO₂ (Tables 1-4). Longitudinal patterns are also assessed by dividing each latitude band into bins of 5 degrees longitude. Averaging XCO₂ parameters according to this grid ensures adequate data coverage for a full seasonal cycle, given gaps in data coverage due to OCO-2's sparse 16-day repeat cycle and to cloud cover. A seasonal data coverage bias remains in some northern latitude bins and its impact is discussed in Section 4.

A second analysis will focus on comparing onshore to offshore XCO₂ distributions by aligning bins with the east and west coastlines (Figures 1b-c, 2b-c, 3b-c, and 4b-c). The midpoint of the coastline for a given latitude band is identified, dividing four offshore bins from four onshore bins (each bin spanning 1 degree latitude x 5

degrees longitude), allowing for the comparison of bins far enough inland and far enough offshore to see a transitions in XCO₂ behavior relating to land-ocean transport patterns, fluxes, or retrieval biases.

The procedure for each analysis is described below:

1. Filter out poor quality XCO₂ soundings by excluding all soundings flagged with a “1” for poor data quality in the quality flag variable in V9 Lite files. This quality filter identifies thresholds for different variables that correlate with significant XCO₂ bias or scatter. Combined glint and nadir XCO₂ observations used in the “original” analysis are denoted as X. Glint mode only XCO₂ observations used in the following “glint only” analysis are denoted as X_{glint} .
2. Detrend data using a linear regression on an XCO₂ time series encompassing the full study domain. This strong and direct trend (R = 0.8) describes a long-term linear increase in XCO₂, reflecting the long-term increase in anthropogenic CO₂ emissions. For the computed trend, the intercept uncertainty is 0.3 years, the slope uncertainty is $1.5 * 10^{-4}$ ppm/ year, and the covariance is $-4.7 * 10^{-5}$ ppm/year.

Eq. 1

$$\hat{X} \text{ (ppm)} = (\text{time in decimal years} * 2.6) - 50$$

3. Compute long-term temporally detrended anomalies, X' , by removing values predicted by the long-term linear trend in XCO₂ all observations.

Eq. 2

$$X' = X - \hat{X}$$

4. For each bin, compute its mean over all years of long-term temporally detrended data, \bar{X} . This is done to remove the spatial mean pattern in the data for a better direct comparison of seasonal and synoptic variability between bins. Compute long-scale temporally and spatially detrended anomalies, X'' .

Eq. 3

$$X'' = X' - \bar{X}$$

5. For each bin, compute the monthly means and standard deviations of large-scale temporally and spatially detrended anomalies. Using the monthly averages of the anomalies, construct the mean seasonal cycle of each bin. Compute each bin's seasonal amplitude, A , by subtracting the minimum monthly average value from the maximum monthly average value of the mean seasonal cycle.

Eq. 4

$$\vec{X} = \text{monthly averages of } X''$$

$$A = \vec{X} \text{ max} - \vec{X} \text{ min}$$

6. Calculate monthly deseasonalized anomalies, X^* , by subtracting the monthly average values for the corresponding month of large-scale temporally and spatially detrended anomalies. After removing the mean seasonal cycle, the data primarily reflects

synoptic variability. Compute the average X^* standard deviation, variance, skewness, kurtosis, and the month of peak X^* variance for each bin.

Eq. 5

$$X^* = X'' - \vec{X}$$

We then repeat the analysis using only glint mode data, ${}_{glint}X$, compare variance ratios between the glint mode analysis and original combined mode analysis, X , and record the degree to which the variance changes between the two. This is done to evaluate whether the original analysis results are robust or if they are sensitive to viewing mode.

We investigate small-scale spatial correlation identified by Torres et al. (2019) by averaging combined glint and nadir retrievals into 0.1 degree latitude bins along the orbit track. This averaging scale is consistent with scale of spatial correlation in XCO_2 found in Torres et al., (2019). We repeat the analysis using the orbit-averaged data, ${}_{orbit}X$ and compare the ratio of variance from the orbit-averaged analysis to the original analysis for each bin. This is done to evaluate whether the variance observed in our original analyses are robust to the impact of instrument and algorithm noise as well as small spatial-scale geophysical signals.

5. Results and Discussion

5.1 Linearly Detrended XCO₂ Spatial Means

The geographic variation observed in atmospheric XCO₂ reflects a combination of surface carbon fluxes and large-scale atmospheric circulation, and the relative influence of these mechanisms vary across the study domain. A spatial map of detrended XCO₂ spatial means across the full study domain is computed using Equation 2 and displayed in Figure 1a. Figures 1b and 1c are computed in the same manner using spatial bins that are aligned with the land-ocean boundary along the west and east U.S. coastlines to highlight differences between land and ocean XCO₂ distributions. Southern bins are defined as bins between 30 N and 40 N. For the west coast, northern bins are defined as bins between 40 N and 50 N. Because Figures 1b and 1c are meant to illustrate land-ocean differences, northern bins for the east coast are defined between 40 N and 45 N, as bins cannot be adequately aligned with coastline above 45 N.

Figure 1 shows large scale geographic variation in XCO₂ annual means with latitude. Annual mean XCO₂ decreases from 30 N to 50 N, consistent with findings in Liang et al., (2017). The average mean XCO₂ for northern (40-50 N) and southern (30-40 N) is -0.8 ppm and -0.1 ppm respectively. The average mean XCO₂ for the Pacific Ocean is slightly more positive than that of the continent and Atlantic Ocean. The net XCO₂ mean is slightly negative, in contrast with the surface CO₂ budget, in which fossil fuel emissions cause North America to be a net source of CO₂ to the atmosphere (Hayes et al., 2018). This indicates that mean XCO₂ patterns primarily reflect mean east-west

atmospheric transport as opposed to local surface carbon fluxes. A seasonal sampling bias occurs in ocean bins and some near-coast land bins above ~ 43 N, where there are few observations in January and December. This bias causes an incomplete picture of the seasonal cycle and a lack of representation of the greater wintertime emissions in certain northern bins. This could exaggerate the north-south gradient we observe in spatial XCO_2 means.

For both Figures 1b and 1c, there is not a clear contrast between adjacent land and ocean bin means, highlighting the importance of horizontal atmospheric winds smoothing east-west variations. For both the west and east coasts (Figures 1b and 1c), spatial means are more positive in the southern bins than northern bins, though the north-south difference is greater for the east coast. The north-south difference is greater for land bins than ocean bins over the west coast (1.06 ppm vs. 0.60 ppm). The north-south difference is more similar for land and ocean bins over the east coast (1.16 ppm vs 0.97 ppm). Surface carbon fluxes also have a greater north-south difference over land due to growing season carbon uptake by the terrestrial biosphere, though unlike what we see in XCO_2 , this difference is more prevalent over the eastern United States at the surface due to the region's higher primary productivity. For the west coast, the average spatial mean of all land bins is more negative than the average of ocean bins (-0.37 ppm vs -0.05 ppm). In contrast, the average spatial mean of all ocean bins is more negative than the average of land bins (-0.36 ppm vs. 0.17 ppm) for the east coast. More negative ocean means over the Atlantic could indicate that airmasses off the east coast have integrated the full

continental terrestrial drawdown, accentuated by the sampling bias by overweighting the summertime data.

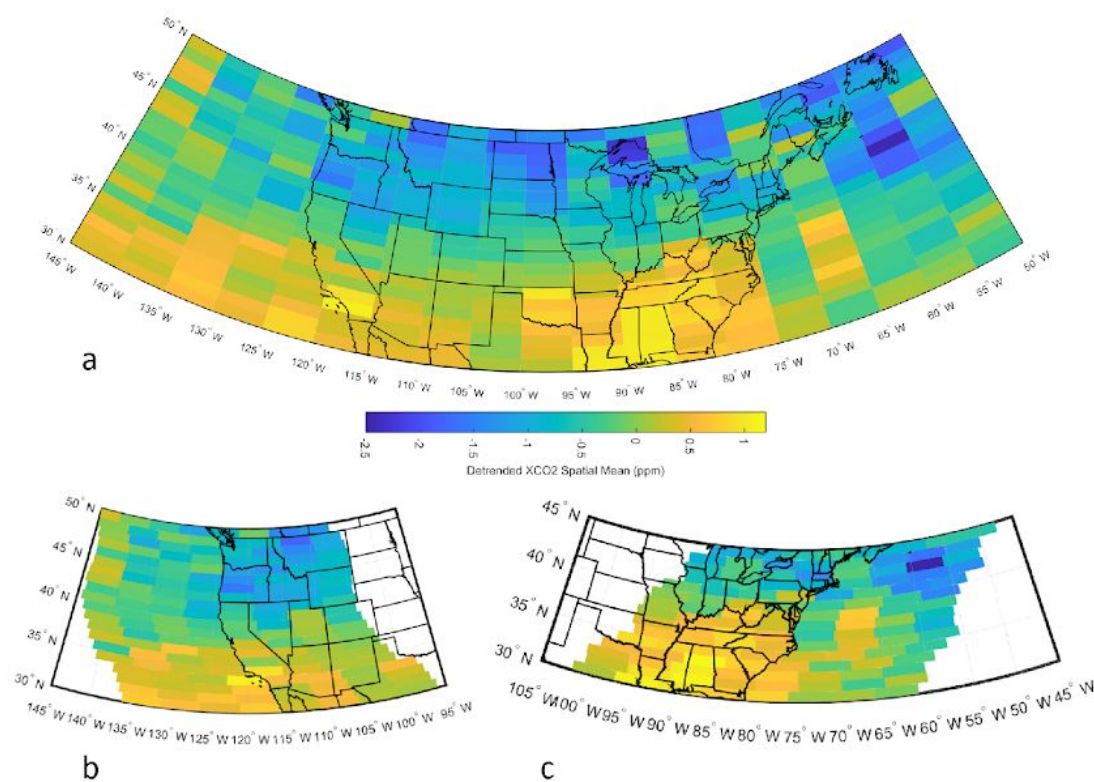


Figure 1. Figure 1a is a spatial map of the time-mean detrended XCO₂ for 1x5 degree latitude-longitude grid cells. Figure 1b is a spatial map of the time-mean detrended XCO₂ for grid cells that are aligned with the western United States coastline into 4 ocean bins and 4 land bins for each latitudinal band. Figure 1c is a spatial map of the time-mean detrended XCO₂ for grid cells that are aligned with the eastern United States coastline into 4 ocean bins and 4 land bins for each latitudinal band.

5.2 XCO₂ Seasonal Cycle Amplitudes

The seasonal variability observed in XCO₂ could reflect seasonality in local carbon fluxes or transported variability from regions upstream in the mean atmospheric transport path. From our findings in the spatial patterns of XCO₂ means, we would expect transported variability to be an important component in XCO₂ seasonal variability. If seasonality in local carbon fluxes are contributing to the seasonal amplitudes we observe in XCO₂, XCO₂ amplitudes would be increased over regions with the most biosphere productivity, where surface CO₂ uptake and release rates would be higher in the summer and winter, respectively.

A spatial map of XCO₂ seasonal amplitudes across the full study domain is computed using Equations 3 and 4 and displayed in Figure 2a. Figures 2b and 2c are computed in the same manner using spatial bins that are aligned along the west and east U.S. coastlines. Northern bins for Figure 2b are defined between 40 N and 50 N, and defined between 40 N and 45 N for Figure 2c. Southern bins are defined between 30 N and 40 N for Figures 2b and 2c. Seasonal amplitudes are highest over the continental northeast and adjacent Atlantic Ocean, and lowest over the western half of the continent. Bins between 125 W and 100 W (western half of continent) have an average amplitude of 6.3 ppm, which is almost 2 ppm lower than the average for the rest of the domain (8.2 ppm).

The continental patterns are consistent with the seasonality in underlying surface CO₂ fluxes, which are more seasonal for the more vegetated eastern United States.

Seasonal amplitudes are greater to the north of Cape Hatteras in the Atlantic Ocean, consistent with descriptions of air-sea flux in Fennel et al., (2019). However, greater seasonal amplitudes over the northern Pacific Ocean compared to the adjacent forested continent suggests XCO_2 amplitudes are not totally driven by local fluxes. The spatial pattern in amplitudes is similar to results found in a study by Sweeney et al. (2015), in which column CO_2 climatologies are compared to dominant wind transport patterns. The study found a continuous, mostly meridional band of elevated seasonal column CO_2 amplitudes. Upon reaching the west coast, it diverts in a northeast direction away from the U.S. northwest and toward British Columbia. The greater Pacific Ocean XCO_2 amplitudes shown in Figure 2 may, therefore, be a result of seasonal variations upwind being transported from Eurasia. The band dips slightly lower in latitude over eastern North America, where we see the greatest XCO_2 amplitudes. The signal of this highly seasonal boreal air seems to track over the Atlantic Ocean. Atlantic Ocean primary productivity is highly seasonal to the north of Cape Hatteras (Fennel et al., 2019), so this could also be contributing to the high seasonal XCO_2 amplitudes we observe there. Low seasonality air from southern latitudes are shown to blow upward toward the continental southwest, where Figure 2b shows the lowest XCO_2 amplitudes.

Over the oceans, seasonal amplitudes gradually decrease from north to south while seasonal amplitudes over land vary more with longitude. The west coast exhibits significant differences between land and ocean populations. Figure 2b shows a clear contrast across the land-ocean boundary in the northern latitudes. West coast ocean bins have a greater average seasonal amplitude than land bins (8.1 ppm vs. 6.3 ppm) and the

difference between northern and southern bins is more pronounced for ocean bins than land bins. For the east coast, land and ocean bins have more similar average amplitudes (7.9 ppm vs. 7.8 ppm) and more similar north-south difference. Land and ocean similarities for the east signify that the east coast more closely reflects North American seasonal carbon cycling while the west coast seasonal XCO₂ cycle is likely more influenced by transported variability from other continents.

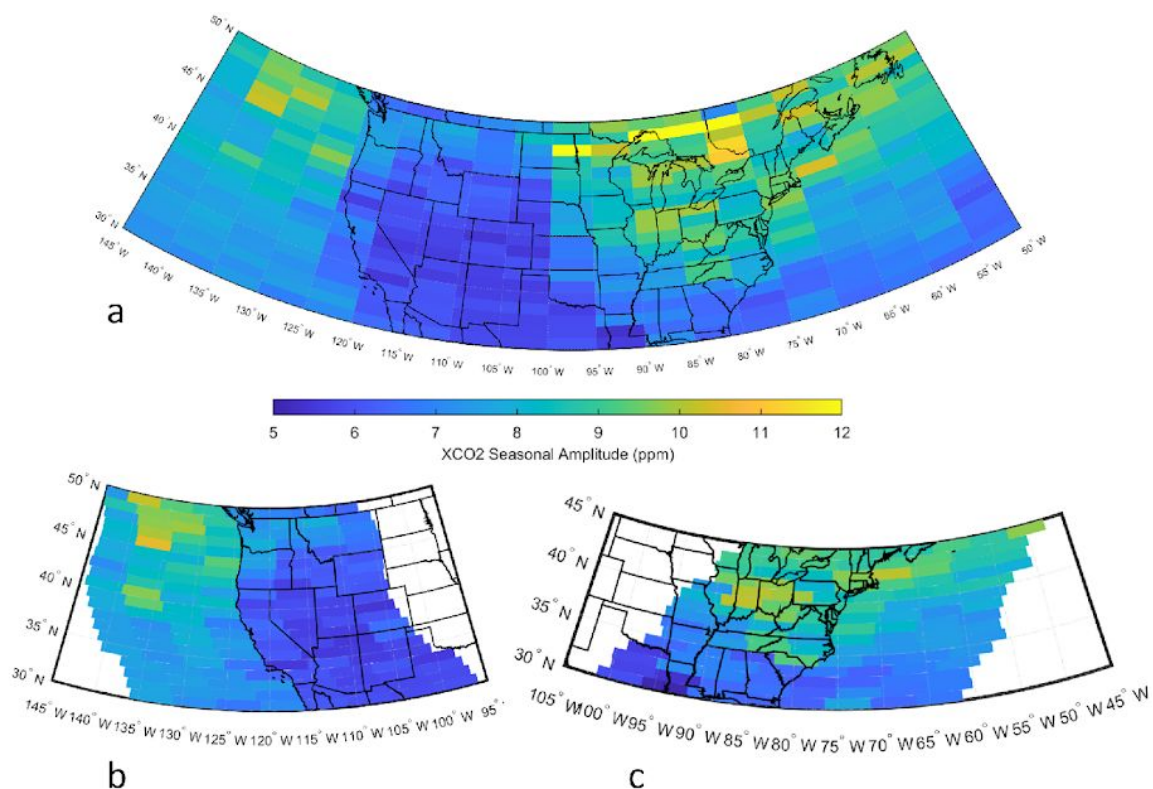


Figure 2. Figure 2a is a spatial map of XCO₂ seasonal amplitudes for 1x5 degree latitude-longitude grid cells. Figure 2b is a spatial map of XCO₂ seasonal amplitudes for grid cells that are aligned with the western United States coastline into 4 ocean bins and 4 land bins for each latitudinal band. Figure 2c is a spatial map of the XCO₂ seasonal amplitudes for grid cells that are aligned with the eastern United States coastline into 4 ocean bins and 4 land bins for each latitudinal band.

5.3 Synoptic XCO₂ Anomaly Variability

As indicated in the previous sections, variations in spatial XCO₂ means and seasonal amplitudes are shaped by large-scale flux and transport patterns. Smaller scale

advection and stirring of these large-scale spatial gradients, namely the north-south growing season gradient, are the primary driver of temporal synoptic-scale variability in XCO₂ (Keppel-Aleks et al., 2011). After linear detrending, spatial detrending, and seasonal detrending, variability in the resulting XCO₂ anomalies primarily reflect variability on the atmosphere mesoscale (on the order of 10s to ~100 km and hours to days) and synoptic-scale (on the order of 100s to ~1000 km and days to a couple of weeks). Though our current methods aggregate mesoscale/synoptic and subseasonal/interannual variability, later efforts will focus on partitioning the two, and for simplicity here the seasonally detrended anomalies are referred to as synoptic anomalies.

A spatial map of synoptic-scale XCO₂ anomaly variability across the full study domain is computed using Equation 5 and shown in Figure 3a. Figures 3b and 3c are computed in the same manner using spatial bins that are aligned along the west and east U.S. coastlines to highlight differences between land and ocean XCO₂ populations. Northern bins for Figure 3b are defined between 40 N and 50 N, and defined between 40 N and 45 N for Figure 3c. Southern bins are defined between 30 N and 40 N for Figures 3b and 3c. Synoptic variability is greatest above the continental northwest and northeast (2-3 ppm²) and greater for land bins than ocean bins, similar to the findings in Torres et al (2019). Variability over the ocean basins is more spatially coherent, while the spatial patterns in variability over land vary more with latitude and longitude.

Distinct meridional and land-ocean patterns are present in synoptic XCO₂ variability. For bins following the west coast (Figure 3b), there is a clear contrast in

synoptic XCO₂ anomaly variance for adjacent land and ocean bins, resembling the contrast we observe in seasonal amplitudes. There is a cluster of high variance bins above the Rocky Mountains in Idaho and western Montana, containing the highest variance bin for the entire domain. Variance is also higher over northern Colorado and above Los Angeles than surrounding bins. Overall, northern bins have a higher average variance (1.8 ppm²) than the average variance of southern bins (1.2 ppm²). For the west coast, average variance of all land bins is almost double the average variance of ocean bins (1.9 ppm² vs. 1.0 ppm²) and land bins have a greater north-south difference.

For bins following the east coast (Figure 3c), synoptic XCO₂ variability is greatest over upstate New York, Vermont, New Hampshire, and Maine. Compared to the west coast, there is a less clear contrast in variability for adjacent land and ocean bins. The average variance of all land bins is slightly higher than that of ocean bins (1.6 ppm² vs. 1.1 ppm²) and the north-south difference is similar for land and ocean bins. Compared to the northwest coast, there seems to be more east-west smoothing of XCO₂ across the east coast, as observed in the seasonal amplitudes. There is a continental signal to the synoptic variance that tracks out over the northern Atlantic.

The patterns seen in Figure 3 could have several possible explanations, the first being patterns of atmospheric transport. Advection of variations by mean winds and variability produced by transient eddies acting on the mean spatial XCO₂ gradient create synoptic variance in XCO₂ (Keppel-Aleks et al., 2011). With this in mind, we would expect XCO₂ variance to be greatest in the summer in areas that experience the most atmospheric mixing of northern air with low mean XCO₂ and southern winds with high

mean XCO_2 . When the north-south gradient reverses after the growing season, we would also expect advection to produce synoptic XCO_2 variability in regions where southern air with low mean XCO_2 mixes with northern air with high mean XCO_2 , though this gradient is weaker. The relative strength of the two gradients differs by region due to spatial emissions patterns and large-scale transport. Mean synoptic weather development in North America is greatest over coastal British Columbia and Arizona and most prevalent during the cool season, though synoptic weather peaks in April for most of the inland continent (Lareau and Horel, 2011). Synoptic XCO_2 variability is low over Arizona because synoptic weather needs to be acting on a spatial gradient, and the winter gradient is weak compared to the summer gradient, as shown in Figure 1. In section 5, we discuss seasonality in synoptic XCO_2 variability and the relative impact of seasonal XCO_2 gradients.

Spatiotemporal variations in ecosystem and anthropogenic surface fluxes, though generally obscured by large-scale XCO_2 variations, can induce synoptic variability in XCO_2 (Keppel-Aleks et al., 2011). During the growing season, local diurnal fluxes were found to contribute up to 1-2 ppm of within-day XCO_2 variability at midlatitude TCCON sites (Torres et al., 2019). It is possible that areas with high synoptic XCO_2 variability could be a result of surface ecosystem fluxes responding to synoptic weather driven temperature and precipitation changes. In future analysis, we can use band pass filtering to further parse temporal scales of variability and isolate the local flux signal, which unlike weather events, is tied to a diurnal cycle (Torres et al., 2019). The high variance

bin over Los Angeles could be tied to the advection of dense local anthropogenic fluxes in the boundary layer, trapped to the west of the Sierra Nevada range.

We see similarities and differences in the observed synoptic XCO_2 variability and synoptic XCO_2 variability simulated by GEOS-5, a supercomputer model of atmospheric CO_2 levels. The model shows CO_2 stirring by large-scale weather patterns over a year (Jing et al., 2018), with the highest concentrations over major emissions sources, namely eastern North America, Europe, and Asia. Regions that exhibit the most synoptic variability in the simulation are similar to those observed in the synoptic XCO_2 anomalies, with the exception of elevated synoptic XCO_2 variance over the Pacific Northwest. In the simulation, less large-scale eddies act on this region relative to the ocean and the eastern United States over the course of a year.

High synoptic OCO-2 XCO_2 variability over the western United States appears to have a spatial correlation with topography, with greater variability over mountain ranges such as the Sierra Nevada-Cascades and the Rockies compared to the plateaus/basins down their eastern slope, such as the Nevada Basin, eastern Colorado, and eastern Montana. Mountain-related meteorology could induce more mixing in these regions, compounded by variability in biospheric fluxes with elevation. This could be why variability is not heightened over lower elevation ranges like the Appalachians that do not generally reach the treeline. Additionally, there is a potential topography-related bias in OCO-2 retrievals due to errors in the prior surface pressure (Kiel et al., 2019). Offsets in the geolocation of the pointing of the spectrometer cause significant errors in assumed surface pressure above rough topography (Kiel et al., 2019). Over Lauder, New Zealand,

the variance induced by this error was 0.55 ppm^2 in v9 OCO-2 XCO₂ data (Kiel et al., 2019). In the synoptic XCO₂ anomalies shown in Figures 3a and 3b, changes in variance that could correspond to topographic differences between bins are at or above 1 ppm^2 , which suggests the topographic effect may not entirely reflect an instrument bias.

In addition to the advection of large XCO₂ gradients, the effects of topography, and local flux variability, it is also possible that patterns of synoptic variability are caused by retrieval issues. Identifying and correcting the biases produced by aerosols, cloud cover, and albedo is an ongoing pursuit of the OCO team. The synoptic XCO₂ anomaly variances presented in Figures 3a-c are heightened over the northwest and northeast, which are prone to cloudiness. Massie et al., (2017) estimated variance produced by cloud bias between 1.4 and 6.8 ppm^2 . The higher variance XCO₂ is likely not related to cloud bias because variance is generally highest in the summer for those regions, whereas we would expect peak cloudiness in the winter (Stubenrauch et al., 2010). We discuss this and other seasonal differences in synoptic XCO₂ variability in the section below.

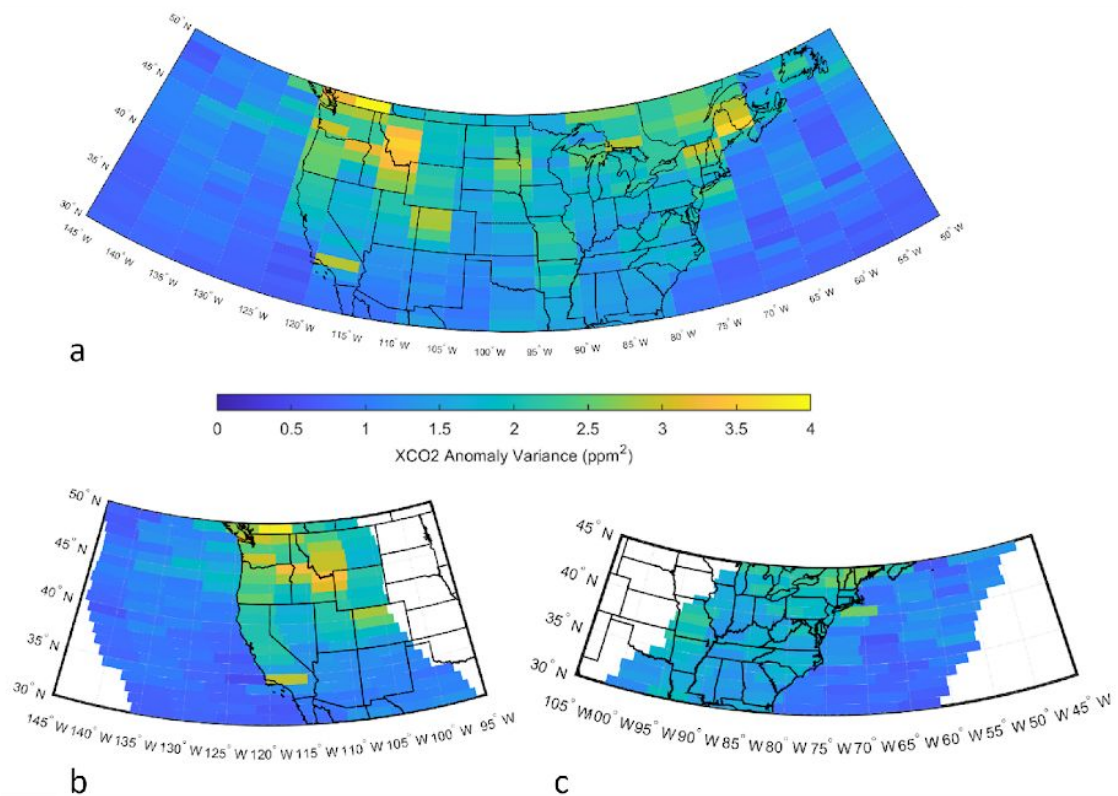


Figure 3. Figure 3a is a spatial map of synoptic XCO₂ anomaly variance for 1x5 degree latitude-longitude grid cells. Figure 3b is a spatial map of synoptic XCO₂ anomaly variance for grid cells that are aligned with the western United States coastline into 4 ocean bins and 4 land bins for each latitudinal band. Figure 3c is a spatial map of synoptic XCO₂ anomaly variance for grid cells that are aligned with the eastern United States coastline into 4 ocean bins and 4 land bins for each latitudinal band.

5.4 Seasonality of XCO₂ Synoptic Anomaly Variability

Seasonal patterns in synoptic XCO₂ variability provide information about what processes are driving the spatial patterns in synoptic XCO₂ variability. Figure 4a is a

spatial map showing the months of peak synoptic XCO₂ variability across the full study domain. Figures 4b and 4c are computed in the same manner using spatial bins that are aligned along the west and east U.S. coastlines to highlight differences between land and ocean XCO₂ populations. Northern bins for the west coast (Figure 4b) are defined between 40 N and 50 N, and defined between 40 N and 45 N for the east coast (Figure 4c). Southern bins are defined between 30 N and 40 N for both coasts.

Figure 4 shows that most bins peak in July, consistent with findings in Keppel-Aleks et al., (2011) that synoptic XCO₂ variability is primarily driven by advection across the meridional growing season gradient. This signifies that advection-induced variations are a larger contributor to observed synoptic XCO₂ variability than retrieval covariates, especially over the midcontinent, where almost all bins peak in the summertime. Bins that exhibit the highest synoptic XCO₂ variability (the northwest and northeast shown in Figure 3) usually have peak variance in the summer months. The exception is a high variance bin over southern California, which peaks in October. Bins farther south and farther north from the middle of the mean gradient (shown in Figure 1 to be ~40 N) more often have peak variability outside of the growing season. This indicates that the mixing of XCO₂-elevated and XCO₂-depleted air during the growing season is not the primary driver of synoptic variability in those regions.

Most bins from 30 – 45 N and east of 125 W (the west coast) reach peak variability in June, July, and August. The spatial distribution of bins that peak in the summertime could indicate when there is the most advection of the summertime gradient and provide insight toward the phasing of biospheric fluxes. From 45-50 N, bins most

commonly peak in June. Chen and Yang (2020) observed an earlier start of the growing season above 43.5 N, and a delayed start of the growing season below in MODIS observations over the period 2001-2014. This could be related to the earlier XCO₂ synoptic anomaly peaks we see in the northern bins. In Figure 4b showing the west coast, a larger fraction of bins peak earlier in the growing season (June) compared to the western land bins. For the east coast (Figure 4c), bins that peak in June are mainly above 40 N. Synoptic XCO₂ variance peaking in June could be indicative of northern latitude boreal fluxes, which we can infer from Sections 2 and 3 have a larger signal over the Pacific Ocean, the northeast, and the northern Atlantic. Bins that peak in August are more evenly dispersed across the study domain, exhibiting no apparent relationship with surface type or latitude.

While most bins peak during the growing season, some spatially coherent bins peak in the winter (December and January). Though weaker than the summertime gradient, advection across the reverse wintertime gradient could be responsible for high synoptic XCO₂ variability in these bins. We observe cold season bins primarily over the northern Midwest, the northeast, and California. Peak cold season variability could reflect a relatively stronger wintertime gradient, more weather mixing, or higher variability in winter emissions, either local or transported, for these bins. For California and adjacent ocean bins (Figure 4b), which peaks primarily in Nov-Dec-Jan, high wintertime anthropogenic emissions from densely populated regions of California are mixing more with mean low latitude, CO₂-depleted winds flowing east. This contrasts with high wintertime emissions sources in the northeast, where mean winds flowing east from high

latitudes are already CO₂-enriched so there is only a weak concentration gradient. This is likely why areas like New York City and the DC area do not reach peak synoptic variability in the wintertime.

Synoptic XCO₂ variance is greatest during winter months for ocean bins along the California coast (Figure 4b), which could be due to wintertime gradient mixing described above or to regional variability in air-sea CO₂ fluxes. From December to February, strong and variable winds act on the central and northern California coast, causing intense mixing, sporadic upwelling events and variable sea surface temperatures (Garcia-Reyes and Largier, 2012). These are stormy months for the adjacent continent as well; Washington to California experiences the most intense synoptic weather from November to February. We see in Figure 4b coastal bins above California that reach peak variance in the wintertime. Inland areas experience the most intense synoptic weather in the early Spring, though no inland bins reach peak synoptic XCO₂ variance then.

For the lower latitude Atlantic Ocean, in bins below 40 N, there are a few bins that reach peak variance in November. XCO₂ over this region of the Atlantic is impacted relatively more by the trade winds, which bring easterly, CO₂-depleted, low latitude air during the winter months. The amount of mixing across this early winter gradient, therefore, is on par with the amount of mixing across the summertime gradient for the lower-latitude Atlantic. For the lower latitude Pacific Ocean below 40 N, relative to the Atlantic, there are fewer bins that peak in November and more bins that peak in October. The wintertime gradient is likely less strong in the Pacific because wintertime emissions from Mexico and North America can get entrained in the trade winds and increase Pacific

Ocean wintertime XCO_2 . This is reflected in Figure 1, where the lower latitude Pacific Ocean has a more positive spatial mean than the lower latitude Atlantic Ocean.

Bins that peak in May are less common, but occur over the Pacific Ocean, lower Atlantic Ocean, and one bin over Pennsylvania. Freshwater discharge into the Atlantic is greatest in May (Dai and Trenberth, 2002), which could induce variability in air-sea fluxes and therefore variability in XCO_2 . There are also some bins that peak in April over the Pacific Ocean. Perhaps the mean decreasing north-south gradient is stronger during the spring in those areas, or perhaps there is more April weather and therefore more mixing. This explanation is also possible for bins that peak in March, which mostly occur over the continental north and northern Atlantic.

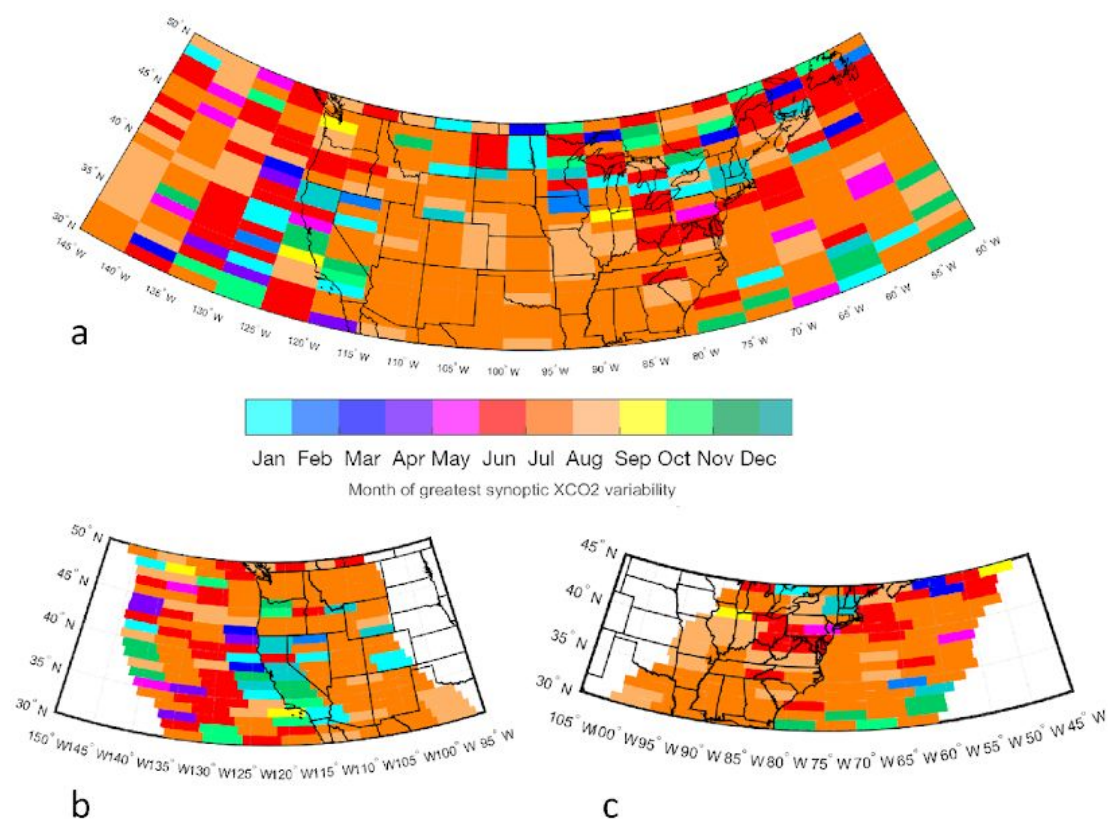


Figure 4. Figure 4a is a spatial map showing the months of peak synoptic XCO₂ variability for grid cells that are divided across the western United States coastline into 4 ocean bins and 4 land bins for each latitudinal band. Figure 4b is a spatial map showing the months of peak synoptic XCO₂ variability for grid cells that are divided across the eastern United States coastline into 4 ocean bins and 4 land bins for each latitudinal band.

5.5 Synoptic XCO₂ Anomaly Skewness

Overall, synoptic XCO₂ anomalies are distributed normally around their mean, with a full domain average skewness of -0.1 ppm, which is small in magnitude relative to

the full domain average synoptic XCO_2 variance of 1.5 ppm^2 . The average skewness of land bins is 0.0 ppm for the east coast and 0.1 ppm for the west coast. Ocean bins are slightly negatively skewed, with an average skewness of -0.4 ppm for the west coast and -0.3 ppm for the east coast. The most positive skewness of any bin is 1.9 ppm and the most negative skewness is -1.2 ppm. Both bins are over the northern Atlantic Ocean, indicating that region may be more heavily influenced by outliers.

5.6 Summary of XCO_2 Statistical Parameters

The following tables summarize land-ocean, east-west, and north-south features of different XCO_2 parameters. There are separate tables for the full study domain, east coast, and west coast analyses.

Table 1. Statistical parameters for bins across the full study domain, averaged spatially into groups and across 1-degree latitude bands. The general Pacific Ocean region is represented by averaging XCO₂ from 145 – 125 W, the western half of the U.S. is represented by averaging from 125 – 100 W, and the combined eastern half of the U.S. and Atlantic Ocean are represented by averaging from 100-50 W. Northern bins are represented by averaging 40 – 50 N and southern bins by averaging 30 – 40 N.

Bin Group Averages	Detrended XCO ₂ Spatial Mean (ppm)	XCO ₂ Seasonal Amplitude (ppm)	XCO ₂ Synoptic Anomaly Variance (ppm ²)	XCO ₂ Synoptic Anomaly Skewness (ppm)	Month of Greatest Synoptic Variability
All bins	-0.3	7.8	1.5	-0.1	7
145 - 125 W	-0.1	8.1	1.1	-0.4	6
125 - 100 W	-0.3	6.3	1.8	0.1	7
100 - 50 W	-0.4	8.4	1.6	-0.2	7
30 - 40 N	-0.2	7.9	1.2	-0.3	7
40 - 50 N	-0.8	8.6	1.8	-0.1	7
49 – 50 N	-1.0	8.5	2.0	-0.2	6
48 – 49 N	-1.0	10.9	1.9	-0.2	6
47 – 48 N	-0.9	9.2	2.0	-0.1	6
46 – 47 N	-0.9	8.7	2.1	-0.2	6
45 – 46 N	-0.7	8.5	2.1	-0.2	7
44 – 45 N	-0.7	8.1	2.0	-0.1	7
43 – 44 N	-0.8	8.1	1.7	0.0	7
42 – 43 N	-0.7	8.0	1.6	-0.1	7
41 – 42 N	-0.7	7.9	1.5	0.0	7
40 – 41 N	-0.5	7.8	1.6	-0.1	7
39 – 40 N	-0.3	7.7	1.5	-0.2	7
38 – 39 N	0.0	7.5	1.5	-0.1	7
37 – 38 N	0.0	7.2	1.3	-0.2	7
36 – 37 N	0.2	7.2	1.3	-0.2	7
35 – 36 N	0.2	7.1	1.2	-0.2	7
34 – 35 N	0.3	6.8	1.2	-0.1	7
33 – 34 N	0.4	6.7	1.1	-0.2	7
32 – 33 N	0.3	6.7	1.0	-0.2	7
31 – 32 N	0.4	6.6	1.0	-0.2	7
30 – 31 N	0.4	6.6	1.0	-0.2	7

Table 2. Statistical parameters for *land* bins aligned with the west coast of the United States, averaged across 1-degree latitude bands.

Latitude Band (bottom bound)	Detrended XCO ₂ Spatial Mean (ppm)	XCO ₂ Seasonal Amplitude (ppm)	XCO ₂ Synoptic Anomaly Variance (ppm ²)	XCO ₂ Synoptic Anomaly Skewness (ppm)	Month of Greatest Synoptic Variability
49 – 50 N	-0.9	6.9	2.7	-0.1	6
48 – 49 N	-1.1	7.4	2.6	-0.1	7
47 – 48 N	-1.1	7.3	2.4	0.1	7
46 – 47 N	-0.9	7.2	2.5	0.1	7
45 – 46 N	-1.0	6.7	2.7	0.0	7
44 – 45 N	-1.0	6.5	2.7	-0.1	6
43 – 44 N	-1.1	6.5	2.4	0.0	7
42 – 43 N	-0.9	6.1	2.2	0.0	7
41 – 42 N	-0.7	6.1	2.0	0.1	12
40 – 41 N	-0.4	5.9	2.2	0.0	7
39 – 40 N	-0.3	5.8	2.1	0.0	7
38 – 39 N	-0.1	6.0	1.9	-0.1	7
37 – 38 N	0.0	6.0	1.6	0.1	7
36 – 37 N	0.2	6.0	1.5	0.1	7
35 – 36 N	0.1	5.8	1.3	0.2	7
34 – 35 N	0.4	5.7	1.6	0.3	7
33 – 34 N	0.4	5.9	1.2	0.2	7
32 – 33 N	0.3	5.9	1.1	0.3	8
31 – 32 N	0.3	5.9	1.1	0.1	7
30 – 31 N	0.3	6.0	1.2	0.1	7
Average Land	-0.4	6.3	1.9	0.1	7

Table 3. Statistical parameters for *ocean* bins aligned with the west coast of the United States, averaged across 1-degree latitude bands.

Latitude Band (bottom bound)	Detrended XCO ₂ Spatial Mean (ppm)	XCO ₂ Seasonal Amplitude (ppm)	XCO ₂ Synoptic Anomaly Variance (ppm ²)	XCO ₂ Synoptic Anomaly Skewness (ppm)	Month of Greatest Synoptic Variability
49 – 50 N	-0.3	8.9	1.1	-0.3	7
48 – 49 N	-0.2	9.2	1.0	-0.4	1
47 – 48 N	-0.5	8.9	1.3	-0.5	8
46 – 47 N	-0.3	9.0	1.1	-0.3	6
45 – 46 N	-0.3	8.9	1.4	-0.5	7
44 – 45 N	-0.4	8.4	1.5	-0.4	8
43 – 44 N	-0.4	8.4	1.2	-0.4	8
42 – 43 N	-0.2	8.1	1.1	-0.3	7
41 – 42 N	-0.4	8.0	1.0	-0.3	1
40 – 41 N	-0.4	8.5	1.0	-0.6	6
39 – 40 N	-0.2	8.3	0.9	-0.6	1
38 – 39 N	-0.1	7.8	1.0	-0.4	3
37 – 38 N	-0.1	7.5	0.9	-0.4	6
36 – 37 N	0.3	7.6	0.9	-0.4	6
35 – 36 N	0.2	7.5	0.9	-0.2	1
34 – 35 N	0.4	7.3	0.9	-0.2	6
33 – 34 N	0.5	7.2	1.0	-0.3	6
32 – 33 N	0.4	7.4	0.8	-0.3	4
31 – 32 N	0.6	7.3	0.8	-0.2	6
30 – 31 N	0.6	7.2	0.7	-0.4	7
Average Ocean	-0.1	8.1	1.0	-0.4	5

Table 4. Statistical parameters for bins aligned with the east coast of the United States, averaged across 1-degree latitude bands. Land bins are shaded in gray.

Latitude Band (bottom bound)	Detrended XCO ₂ Spatial Mean (ppm)	XCO ₂ Seasonal Amplitude (ppm)	XCO ₂ Synoptic Anomaly Variance (ppm ²)	XCO ₂ Synoptic Anomaly Skewness (ppm)	Month of Greatest Synoptic Variability
44 – 45 N	-0.7	9.1	2.3	0.1	6
43 – 44 N	-0.8	9.0	2.1	0.0	7
42 – 43 N	-0.7	8.8	1.9	0.0	7
41 – 42 N	-0.6	9.2	1.8	0.2	6
40 – 41 N	-0.2	8.9	1.8	-0.1	8
39 – 40 N	0.0	9.1	1.7	0.1	6
38 – 39 N	0.2	8.6	1.9	0.1	6
37 – 38 N	0.3	7.8	1.6	0.1	8
36 – 37 N	0.6	7.7	1.8	-0.1	8
35 – 36 N	0.7	8.0	1.7	-0.1	7
34 – 35 N	0.7	7.2	1.7	-0.1	7
33 – 34 N	0.8	6.5	1.5	-0.1	7
32 – 33 N	0.7	6.6	1.4	-0.2	7
31 – 32 N	0.7	6.1	1.5	-0.2	7
30 – 31 N	0.8	6.0	1.6	0.1	7
Average Land	0.2	7.9	1.7	0.0	7
44 – 45 N	-0.6	9.1	1.4	0.0	3
43 – 44 N	-1.1	9.0	1.1	0.2	6
42 – 43 N	-1.1	9.2	1.1	0.0	6
41 – 42 N	-1.2	8.4	1.1	-0.1	7
40 – 41 N	-1.0	8.6	1.5	0.2	6
39 – 40 N	-0.6	8.1	1.3	-0.7	7
38 – 39 N	0.0	7.9	1.1	-0.4	7
37 – 38 N	-0.1	8.0	1.1	-0.4	7
36 – 37 N	-0.3	7.7	1.1	-0.7	7
35 – 36 N	-0.1	7.5	1.0	-0.7	7
34 – 35 N	0.1	7.2	0.9	-0.5	7
33 – 34 N	0.1	6.8	0.9	-0.3	7
32 – 33 N	0.2	6.5	0.9	-0.5	7
31 – 32 N	0.2	6.7	0.9	-0.4	7
30 – 31 N	0.2	6.8	0.8	-0.4	7
Average Ocean	-0.4	7.8	1.1	-0.3	7

5.7 Glint Mode Only Analysis

We compared the analysis using combined glint and nadir pointing mode observations to an analysis only using glint mode observations to examine how pointing mode impacted our results. We found differences between the analyses to be mostly insignificant, with the exception of a 0.9 ppm difference in seasonal amplitudes for the 45-46 N latitude band. Additionally, above 48 N, synoptic anomaly variances tended to be ~20% lower when only using glint mode observations. Glint mode observations are more susceptible to cloud encounters due to their longer paths through the atmosphere, which are generally more prevalent the higher latitudes of our study domain.

Table 5. Differences in statistical parameters following the west coast of the United States (glint parameter - glint+nadir parameter). Positive values indicate using glint mode observations only increases the parameter relative to using both glint and nadir mode observations.

Latitude Band (bottom bound)	Detrended XCO ₂ Spatial Mean (ppm)	XCO ₂ Seasonal Amplitude (ppm)	XCO ₂ Synoptic Anomaly Variance (ppm ²)	XCO ₂ Synoptic Anomaly Skewness (ppm)
49 – 50 N	0.1	0.1	-0.4	0.2
48 – 49 N	0.2	-0.2	-0.3	0.1
47 – 48 N	0.3	0.1	-0.4	0.0
46 – 47 N	0.0	0.0	-0.2	-0.2
45 – 46 N	0.1	0.9	-0.1	0.0
44 – 45 N	0.2	0.1	-0.2	0.0
43 – 44 N	0.0	0.2	-0.1	-0.1
42 – 43 N	0.0	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1
41 – 42 N	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0
40 – 41 N	0.1	-0.1	-0.2	-0.1
39 – 40 N	0.2	-0.1	0.0	0.2
38 – 39 N	0.0	0.0	-0.1	0.2
37 – 38 N	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1
36 – 37 N	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
35 – 36 N	0.2	0.0	0.0	-0.1
34 – 35 N	0.0	0.0	-0.3	-0.1
33 – 34 N	0.2	0.0	0.0	-0.1
32 – 33 N	0.2	-0.1	0.0	-0.2
31 – 32 N	0.1	-0.2	0.0	-0.1
30 – 31 N	0.1	0.1	0.0	-0.1
Average West	0.1	0.0	-0.1	0.0

Table 6. Differences in statistical parameters following the east coast of the United States (glint parameter - glint+nadir parameter). Positive values indicate using glint mode observations only increases the parameter relative to using both glint and nadir mode observations.

Latitude Band (bottom bound)	Detrended XCO ₂ Spatial Mean (ppm)	XCO ₂ Seasonal Amplitude (ppm)	XCO ₂ Synoptic Anomaly Variance (ppm ²)	XCO ₂ Synoptic Anomaly Skewness (ppm)
44 – 45 N	0.1	-0.1	-0.2	-0.1
43 – 44 N	0.0	0.3	-0.2	-0.2
42 – 43 N	-0.1	0.0	-0.1	0.0
41 – 42 N	0.1	0.0	-0.1	0.0
40 – 41 N	0.1	0.0	-0.1	0.1
39 – 40 N	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
38 – 39 N	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
37 – 38 N	0.0	0.2	0.0	-0.1
36 – 37 N	0.0	0.0	-0.1	-0.1
35 – 36 N	0.1	0.0	0.0	-0.1
34 – 35 N	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0
33 – 34 N	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0
32 – 33 N	0.0	0.0	0.0	-0.1
31 – 32 N	0.0	0.1	0.0	-0.1
30 – 31 N	0.0	0.0	0.0	-0.1
Average East	0.0	0.0	-0.1	-0.1

5.8 Impact of Small-Scale Spatial Correlation

By averaging along the orbit track and repeating the analysis, we estimate the amount of variance imparted by instrument/algorithm noise or small-scale spatial geophysical signals to contribute about a quarter of overall synoptic XCO₂ variance. The orbit averaging technique increases the fraction of independent XCO₂ observations and thus reflects actual variance more robustly. Spatially correlated variance contributes more to the overall variance budget over land than ocean by about 1%. The spatially correlated

component of variance does not affect the large-scale trends observed in the analysis. As mentioned in Section 4.3, in further research we will use a band pass filtering technique to better constrain this component of variability within the synoptic XCO₂ anomalies.

6. Summary

Geographic patterns in the mean spatial distribution and temporal variations in atmospheric XCO₂ reflect a combination of surface carbon fluxes and large-scale atmospheric circulation. The relative influence of these mechanisms vary across the study domain and for the different features of XCO₂. The decreasing pattern in detrended OCO-2 XCO₂ means from 30 N to 50 N is consistent with findings from GOSAT, TCCON, and modeled XCO₂ (Liang et al., 2017; Jing et al., 2018). Therefore, the spatial distribution of XCO₂ when averaged over full seasonal cycles reflect mean east-west atmospheric transport of the growing seasonal meridional gradient more directly than local surface carbon fluxes. The horizontal atmospheric winds smoothing east-west variations is exemplified in the lack of a contrast between adjacent land and ocean bin means. Integration of the full North American terrestrial drawdown for air off the east coast could be the driver of more negative ocean XCO₂ means over the Atlantic than the Pacific.

Seasonal variability in XCO₂ reflects seasonality in local carbon fluxes as well as transported variability from regions atmospherically upstream. The dominant continental pattern in seasonal amplitudes is low over the western U.S. and greater over the eastern

U.S., consistent with seasonality in underlying surface CO₂ fluxes, which have a greater seasonality in the more vegetated eastern United States. However, other patterns observed in the seasonal amplitudes are not consistent with the seasonality expected from underlying biospheric surface fluxes, illustrating where XCO₂ seasonal variability is heavily influenced by transported variability as opposed to local fluxes. This feature emerges when we observe greater seasonal amplitudes over the northern Pacific Ocean compared to the adjacent forested Pacific northwest and greater amplitudes observed over less productive Canadian Shield compared to more productive southeastern states such as Mississippi. A continuous, mostly meridional band of highly seasonal variable air induced by aggregated boreal surface fluxes around the globe was found by Sweeney et al., (2015). This highly seasonal boreal air seems to be contributing to the greater seasonal XCO₂ amplitudes over the northern Pacific Ocean, the northeastern continent, and the northern Atlantic Ocean. Adjacent land and ocean similarities in seasonal amplitudes are observed over the east, signifying the Atlantic Ocean more closely reflects North American seasonal carbon cycling while the Pacific seasonal XCO₂ cycle is more influenced by transported variability from other continents.

For most bins, synoptic XCO₂ variance is greatest in the summer, reinforcing findings from Keppel-Aleks et al., (2011) that synoptic-scale XCO₂ variations are primarily driven by advection across the meridional growing season spatial gradient. Bins with the greatest synoptic XCO₂ variance are located above the continental northwest and northeast (2-3 ppm²) and have peak variance in the summer. While most bins in the domain have greatest synoptic XCO₂ variance during July, most bins from 45-50 N peak

in June, potentially reflecting an earlier start of the boreal growing season, observed in Chen and Yang (2020).

Land bins have higher synoptic variances on average than ocean bins, possibly resulting from spatial variability in local fluxes as well as the stronger spatial gradient we observe over land in Figure 1. There could also be a land-ocean retrieval bias, which we plan to investigate in future work using retrieval covariates. For bins aligned along the western coastline, there is a clear contrast in synoptic XCO_2 anomaly variance for adjacent land and ocean bins, resembling the contrast we observe in seasonal amplitudes. Compared to the northwest coast, there seems to be more east-west smoothing of XCO_2 across the east coast, and the continental signal tracks out over the Atlantic Ocean as observed in the seasonal amplitudes.

There is a surprising amount of synoptic XCO_2 variance over the northwest, given the XCO_2 transport simulated by Jing et al., (2018) which shows less large scale eddies acting on the region. These high variance bins have a spatial correlation with topography, suggesting that retrieval bias, mountain meteorology, or biological flux variability owing to the treeline can drive significant variations in synoptic-scale XCO_2 . The possible topography effect on synoptic XCO_2 variance is not observed over the lower elevation Appalachian range.

Though weaker than the summertime gradient, advection across the reverse wintertime gradient can also induce synoptic XCO_2 variance. Peak cold season variability, primarily observed over the northern Midwest, the northeast, California and

its adjacent coastal ocean could reflect a relatively stronger wintertime gradient, storm-induced air-sea flux variability, more weather mixing, or higher variability in winter emissions, either local or transported, for these bins. For the lower latitude Atlantic Ocean (below 40 N), some bins have peak synoptic variance in November, suggesting a strong influence of the trade winds, which bring easterly, CO₂-depleted air from lower latitudes during the winter. The high variance bin over Los Angeles peaks in October, and could be tied to the mixing of dense local wintertime anthropogenic fluxes with CO₂-depleted air flowing east from lower latitudes. This mixing could be exacerbated by the Sierra Nevada range trapping emissions in western California. There are dense wintertime emissions sources in the northeast, but mean winds flowing east from high latitudes are already CO₂-enriched, creating only a weak concentration gradient. This is likely why areas like New York City and the DC area do not reach peak synoptic variability in the wintertime.

7. Conclusions and Future Directions

Mean east-west transport of strong growing season CO₂ drawdown outweighs the strong wintertime emissions in northern latitudes, creating the net negative, increasing north-south mean detrended XCO₂ gradient over the study domain. We observe east-west smoothing of land and ocean XCO₂ distributions for both coasts in detrended XCO₂ means. For seasonal and synoptic scale variability, this smoothing is not present across the northwestern coast. The pattern of high XCO₂ seasonal amplitudes reflect the meridional transport path of northern latitude boreal fluxes, which seem to have a larger signal over the Pacific Ocean, get deflected off the northwestern coast, and dip back

down over the northeast and adjacent northern Atlantic. The continental signal for seasonal amplitudes and synoptic variance tracks out over the northern Atlantic Ocean. Seasonality in the northern Atlantic Ocean's air-sea fluxes could induce variability as well, but they are not large enough to entirely produce the amplitudes we observe. The dominant patterns in synoptic XCO₂ variance are driven by advection across the meridional growing season gradient, but advection across the weaker reverse wintertime gradient affects could be more important for some southern regions. Variability in air-sea flux for the California coastal ocean during the stormy winter season could also be a large contributor to the region's synoptic variance. Over the Pacific Northwest, topography may induce synoptic-scale XCO₂ variations. Patterns in variability for land and ocean XCO₂ are very uniform across the northeastern coast while heavily contrasted across the northwestern coast.

Our results show that there is a spatially and temporally variable influence of local fluxes (biosphere, air-sea, human-mediated), XCO₂ transported from boreal regions (either North American or from other continents), and advection across large-scale spatial gradients (growing season or wintertime) in XCO₂. In further work, we aim to diagnose and quantify the mechanisms of XCO₂ variability uncovered in this study. We can use HYSPLIT-2, an atmospheric back trajectory model to determine the origin of XCO₂ anomalies of interest. This can help explain the high synoptic XCO₂ variance we observe in different regions and help us identify any potential measurement biases (such as a topography or land-ocean related bias). It will also help us identify the relative contribution of North American seasonal variability versus variability transported from

another continent for different regions in the study domain. Our investigation into the different drivers of XCO_2 variability at seasonal and sub-seasonal scales provides new and relevant insight into the carbon cycle. These insights may be useful in efforts that leverage atmospheric CO_2 observations for flux inference.

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