



Algorithm update of the GOSAT/TANSO-FTS thermal infrared CO₂ product (version 1) and validation of the UTLS CO₂ data using CONTRAIL measurements

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Abstract. The Thermal and Near Infrared Sensor for Carbon Observation (TANSO)–Fourier Transform Spectrometer (FTS) on board the Greenhouse Gases Observing Satellite (GOSAT) has been observing carbon dioxide (CO₂) concentrations in several atmospheric layers in the thermal infrared (TIR) band since its launch. This study compared TANSO-FTS TIR version 1 (V1) CO₂ data and CO₂ data obtained in the Comprehensive Observation Network for TRace gases by AirLiner (CONTRAIL) project in the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere (UTLS), where the TIR band of TANSO-FTS is most sensitive to CO₂ concentrations, to validate the quality of the TIR V1 UTLS CO₂ data from 287 to 162 hPa. We first evaluated the impact of considering TIR CO₂ averaging kernel functions on CO₂ concentrations using CO₂ profile data obtained by the CONTRAIL Continuous CO₂ Measuring Equipment (CME), and found that the impact at around the CME level flight altitudes (~ 11 km) was on average less than 0.5 ppm at low latitudes and less than 1 ppm at middle and high latitudes. From a comparison made during flights between Tokyo and Sydney, the averages of the TIR upper-atmospheric CO₂ data were within 0.1 % of the averages of the CONTRAIL CME CO₂ data with and without TIR CO₂ averaging kernels for all seasons in the Southern Hemisphere. The results of comparisons for all of the eight airline routes showed that the agreements of TIR and CME CO₂ data were worse in spring and summer than in fall

and winter in the Northern Hemisphere in the upper troposphere. While the differences between TIR and CME CO₂ data were on average within 1 ppm in fall and winter, TIR CO₂ data had a negative bias up to 2.4 ppm against CME CO₂ data with TIR CO₂ averaging kernels at the northern low and middle latitudes in spring and summer. The negative bias at the northern middle latitudes resulted in the maximum of TIR CO₂ concentrations being lower than that of CME CO₂ concentrations, which led to an underestimate of the amplitude of CO₂ seasonal variation.

1 Introduction

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) in the atmosphere is a well-known strong greenhouse gas (IPCC, 2013, and references therein), with concentrations that have been observed both in situ and by satellite sensors. Its long-term observation began in Mauna Loa, Hawaii, and the South Pole in the late 1950s (Keeling et al., 1976a, b, 1996). Since then, comprehensive CO₂ observations in the atmosphere have been conducted worldwide in several observatories and tall towers (Bakwin et al., 1998), by aircraft flask sampling (e.g., Crevoisier et al., 2010), and via the AirCore sampling system (Karion et al., 2010) in the framework of research by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA). Atmo-

spheric CO₂ concentrations have gradually increased at a globally averaged annual rate of 1.7 ± 0.5 ppm from 1998 to 2011, although its growth rate has relatively large interannual variation (IPCC, 2013). Upper-atmospheric CO₂ observations have been made in many areas by several projects using commercial airliners, such as the Comprehensive Observation Network for TRace gases by AirLiner (CONTRAIL) project (Machida et al., 2008) and the Civil Aircraft for the Regular Investigation of the atmosphere Based on an Instrument Container (CARIBIC) project (Brenninkmeijer et al., 2007). Continuous long-term measurements of CO₂ made by several airplanes of Japan Airlines (JAL) in the CONTRAIL project have revealed details of its seasonal variation and interhemispheric transport in the upper atmosphere (Sawa et al., 2012) and interannual and long-term trends of its latitudinal gradients (Matsueda et al., 2015).

Atmospheric CO₂ observations by satellite sensors are categorized into two types: those utilizing CO₂ absorption bands in the shortwave infrared (SWIR) regions at around 1.6 and 2.0 μm , and those in the thermal infrared (TIR) regions at around 4.6, 10, and 15 μm . The Scanning Imaging Absorption Spectrometer for Atmospheric Cartography (SCIAMACHY) on the Environmental Satellite (ENVISAT) first observed CO₂ column-averaged dry-air mole fractions (XCO₂) from spectra at 1.57 μm (Buchwitz et al., 2005; Barkley et al., 2006). The Thermal and Near Infrared Sensor for Carbon Observation (TANSO)–Fourier Transform Spectrometer (FTS) on board the Greenhouse Gases Observing Satellite (GOSAT), which was launched in 2009 (Yokota et al., 2009), has observed XCO₂ with high precision by utilizing the 1.6 and/or 2.0 μm CO₂ absorption bands (Yoshida et al., 2011, 2013; O'Dell et al., 2012; Butz et al., 2011; Cogan et al., 2012). The Orbiting Carbon Observatory 2 (OCO-2) was successfully launched in 2014 and started regular observations of XCO₂ with high spatial resolution. Satellite CO₂ observations at TIR absorption bands have a longer history beginning with the High-Resolution Infrared Sounder (HIRS) (Chédin et al., 2002, 2003, 2005). The Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS) has achieved more accurate observations of middle- and upper-tropospheric CO₂ concentrations (Crevoisier et al., 2004; Chahine et al., 2005; Maddy et al., 2008; Strow and Hannon, 2008). The Tropospheric Emission Spectrometer (TES) has observed CO₂ concentrations in several vertical layers with high accuracy by taking advantage of its high wavelength resolution (Kulawik et al., 2010, 2013). The Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI) has observed upper-atmospheric CO₂ amounts from its TIR spectra (Crevoisier et al., 2009). TANSO-FTS also has a TIR band in addition to its three SWIR bands, and it obtains vertical information of CO₂ concentrations in addition to XCO₂ in the same field of view (Saitoh et al., 2009).

Rayner and O'Brien (2001) and Pak and Prather (2001) showed the utility of global CO₂ data obtained by satellite sensors for estimating its source and sink strength, and

many studies of CO₂ inversion have been conducted using a huge amount of satellite data since the 2000s. Chevallier et al. (2005) first used satellite CO₂ data, observed with the Operational Vertical Sounder (TOVS), to estimate CO₂ surface fluxes. They reported that a regional bias in satellite CO₂ data hampers the outcomes. Nassar et al. (2011) demonstrated that the wide spatial coverage of satellite CO₂ data is beneficial to CO₂ surface flux inversion through the combined use of TES and surface flask CO₂ data, particularly in regions where surface measurements are sparse. In addition to CO₂ surface inversion results using TIR observations, global XCO₂ data observed with the SWIR bands of TANSO-FTS have been actively used for estimating CO₂ source and sink strength (Maksyutov et al., 2013; Saeki et al., 2013a; Chevallier et al., 2014; Basu et al., 2013, 2014; Takagi et al., 2014). One of the important things to consider when incorporating satellite data in CO₂ inversion is the accuracy of the data, as suggested by Basu et al. (2013). Uncertainties in satellite CO₂ data should be assessed seasonally and regionally to determine the seasonal and regional characteristics of the satellite CO₂ bias.

The importance of upper-atmospheric CO₂ data in the inversion analysis of CO₂ surface fluxes was discussed in Niwa et al. (2012). They used CONTRAIL CO₂ data in conjunction with surface CO₂ data to estimate surface flux, and they demonstrated that adding middle- and upper-tropospheric data observed by the aircraft could greatly reduce the posteriori flux errors, particularly in tropical Asian regions. Middle- and upper-tropospheric and lower-stratospheric CO₂ concentrations and column amounts of CO₂ can be simultaneously observed in the same field of view with TANSO-FTS on board GOSAT. Provided that the quality of upper-atmospheric CO₂ data simultaneously obtained with TANSO-FTS is proven to be comparable to that of TANSO-FTS XCO₂ data (Yoshida et al., 2013; Inoue et al., 2013), the combined use of upper-atmospheric CO₂ and XCO₂ data observed with TANSO-FTS could be a useful tool for estimating CO₂ surface flux.

GOSAT, which is the first satellite to be dedicated to greenhouse gas monitoring, was launched on 23 January 2009. As described above, TANSO-FTS on board GOSAT has been observing CO₂ concentrations in several vertical layers in the TIR band. In this study, we focused on CO₂ concentrations in the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere (UTLS), where the TIR band of TANSO-FTS is most sensitive. We validated these data by comparison with upper-atmospheric CO₂ data obtained in a wide spatial coverage in the CONTRAIL project. Sections 2 and 3 explain the GOSAT and CONTRAIL measurements, respectively. Section 4 details the retrieval algorithm used in the latest version 1 (V1) CO₂ level 2 (L2) product of the TIR band of TANSO-FTS. Section 5 describes the methods of comparing TANSO-FTS TIR V1 L2 and CONTRAIL CO₂ data. Sections 6 and 7 show and discuss the results of the comparisons between TIR and CONTRAIL CO₂ data. Section 8 summarizes this study.

2 GOSAT observations

GOSAT is a joint satellite project of the National Institute for Environmental Studies (NIES), Ministry of the Environment (MOE), and Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA) for the purpose of making global observations of greenhouse gases such as CO₂ and CH₄ (Hamazaki et al., 2005; Yokota et al., 2009). It was launched on 23 January 2009, from the Tanegashima Space Center, and has continued its observations for more than 6 years. GOSAT is equipped with TANSO-FTS for greenhouse gas monitoring and the TANSO-Cloud and Aerosol Imager (CAI) to detect clouds and aerosols in the TANSO-FTS field of view (Kuze et al., 2009). TANSO-FTS consists of three bands in the SWIR region and one band in the TIR region. Column amounts of greenhouse gases are observed in the SWIR bands, and vertical information of gas concentrations are obtained in the TIR band (Yoshida et al., 2011, 2013; Saitoh et al., 2009, 2012; Ohyama et al., 2012, 2013).

Kuze et al. (2012) provided a detailed description of the methods used for the processing and calibration of level 1B (L1B) spectral data from TANSO-FTS. They explained the algorithm for the version 150.151 (V150.151) L1B spectral data. The TIR V1 L2 CO₂ product we focused on in this study was created from a later version, V161.160, of L1B spectral data. The following modifications were made to the algorithm from V150.151 to V161.160: improving the TIR radiometric calibration through the improvement of calibration parameters, turning off the sampling interval non-uniformity correction, modifying the spike noise criteria of the quality flag, and reevaluating the misalignment between the GOSAT satellite and TANSO-FTS sensor. Kataoka et al. (2014) reported that the biases of TANSO-FTS TIR V130.130 L1B radiance spectra based on comparisons with the Scanning High-resolution Interferometer Sounder (SHIS) spectra for warm scenes were 0.5 K at 800–900 and 700–750 cm⁻¹, 0.1 K at 980–1080 cm⁻¹, and more than 2 K at 650–700 cm⁻¹. Although the magnitude of the spectral bias evaluated on the basis of V130.130 L1B data would change in V161.160 L1B data, the issue of L1B spectral bias still remains. The spectral bias inherent in TIR L1B spectra would be mainly because of uncertainty of polarization correction. Another possible cause was discussed in Imasu et al. (2010). When retrieving CO₂ concentrations from the TIR band of TANSO-FTS, the spectral bias that is predominant in CO₂ absorption bands should be considered (Ohyama et al., 2013).

3 CONTRAIL Continuous Measurement Equipment (CME) observations

We used CO₂ data obtained in the CONTRAIL project to validate the quality of TANSO-FTS TIR V1 L2 CO₂ data. CONTRAIL is a project to observe atmospheric trace gases such as CO₂ and CH₄ using instruments installed on com-

mercial aircraft operated by JAL. Observations of trace gases in this project began in 2005. Two types of measurement instruments, the Automatic Air Sampling Equipment (ASE) and the Continuous CO₂ Measuring Equipment (CME), have been installed on several JAL aircraft to measure trace gases over a wide area (Machida et al., 2008).

This study used CO₂ data obtained with CME on several airline routes from Narita Airport, Japan. CO₂ observations with CME use a LI-COR LI-840 instrument that utilizes a nondispersive infrared absorption (NDIR) method (Machida et al., 2008). In the observations, two different standard gases, with CO₂ concentration of 340 and 390 ppm based on NIES09 scale, are regularly introduced into the NDIR for calibration. The accuracy of CME CO₂ measurements is 0.2 ppm. See Machida et al. (2008, 2011) and Matsueda et al. (2008) for details of the CME CO₂ observations and their accuracy and precision.

4 Retrieval algorithm of TANSO-FTS TIR V1 CO₂ data

4.1 Basic retrieval settings

Saitoh et al. (2009) provided an algorithm for retrieving CO₂ concentrations from the TIR band of TANSO-FTS. The first version, V00.01, of the L2 CO₂ product of the TIR band of TANSO-FTS was basically processed by the algorithm described in Saitoh et al. (2009). The V1 L2 CO₂ product that we focused on in this study also adopted a nonlinear maximum a posteriori (MAP) method with linear mapping, as was the case for the V00.01 product. We utilized the following expressions in TIR CO₂ retrieval:

$$\hat{z}_{i+1} = \mathbf{W}^* \mathbf{x}_a + \mathbf{G} [\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{F}(\hat{x}_i) + \mathbf{K}_i \mathbf{W} (\mathbf{W}^* \hat{x}_i - \mathbf{W}^* \mathbf{x}_a)]$$

$$\mathbf{G} = [\mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{K}_i^T \mathbf{S}_\varepsilon^{-1} \mathbf{K}_i \mathbf{W} + (\mathbf{W}^* \mathbf{S}_a \mathbf{W}^{*T})^{-1}]^{-1} \mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{K}_i^T \mathbf{S}_\varepsilon^{-1}, \quad (1)$$

where \mathbf{x}_a is an a priori vector, \mathbf{S}_a is a covariance matrix of the a priori vector, \mathbf{S}_ε is a covariance matrix of measurement noise, \mathbf{K}_i is a CO₂ Jacobian matrix calculated using the i th retrieval vector \hat{x}_i on full grids, $\mathbf{F}(\hat{x}_i)$ is a forward spectrum vector based on \hat{x}_i , \mathbf{y} is a measurement spectrum vector, and \hat{z}_{i+1} is the $i + 1$ th retrieval vector defined on retrieval grids. \mathbf{W} is a matrix that interpolates from retrieval grids onto full grids. \mathbf{W}^* is the generalized inverse matrix of \mathbf{W} .

The full grids are vertical layer grids for radiative transfer calculation, and the retrieval grids are defined as a subset of the full grids. In the V1 L2 CO₂ retrieval algorithm, linear mapping between retrieval grids and full grids was also applied, but the number of full grid levels was 78 instead of 110 in the V00.01 algorithm. The determination of retrieval grids in the V1 algorithm basically followed the method of the V00.01 algorithm. It was based on the areas of a CO₂ averaging kernel matrix in the tropics, but the retrieval grid levels were fixed for all of the retrieval processing, as presented in Table 1. Averaging kernel matrix \mathbf{A} is defined (Rodgers,

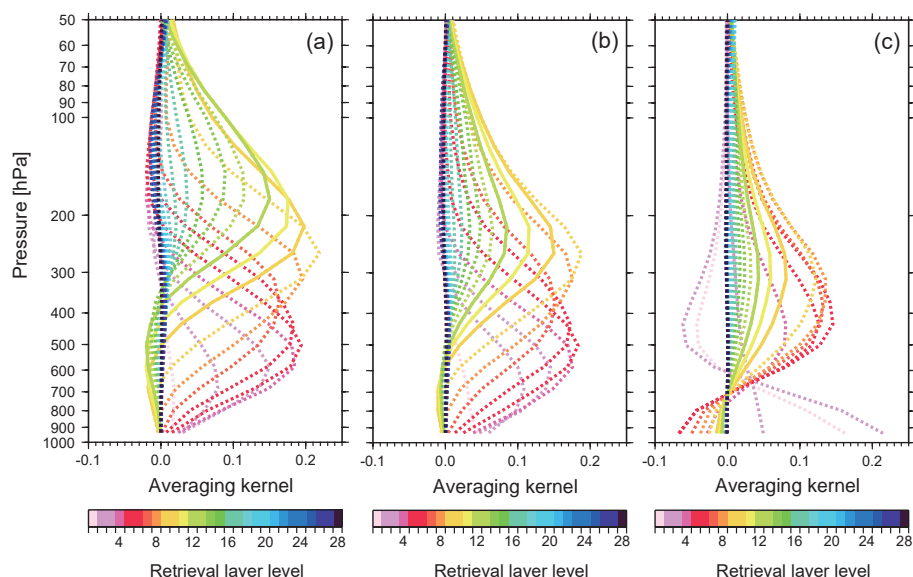


Figure 1. Averaging kernel functions of GOSAT/TANSO-FTS TIR V1 CO₂ retrieval in the 28 retrieval grid layers shown in Table 1: (a) low latitudes in summer, (b) middle latitudes in spring, and (c) high latitudes in winter. Solid orange, yellow, and green lines indicate averaging kernel functions of each of the three layer levels: 9, 10, and 11, respectively.

vectors of surface emissivity in each of the five wavelength regions. The elements of the Jacobian vectors of surface parameters that were defined for each of the five wavelength regions were set to be zero in the other wavelength regions. The values S_{sT_1} , S_{sT_2} , S_{sT_3} , S_{sT_4} , and S_{sT_5} and S_{sE_1} , S_{sE_2} , S_{sE_3} , S_{sE_4} , and S_{sE_5} are a priori variances of surface temperature and surface emissivity in each of the five wavelength regions, respectively. Simultaneous retrieval of the surface parameters in the V1 algorithm was conducted just for the purpose of correcting the TIR V161.160 L1B spectral bias; it had no physical meaning. We estimated the surface parameters separately in each of the five wavelength regions to consider differences in the amount of spectral bias in each wavelength region. The matrices S_a for CO₂, temperature, water vapor, and ozone were diagonal matrices with vertically fixed diagonal elements with a standard deviation of 2.5 %, 3 K, 20 %, and 30 %, respectively. Here, a priori and initial values for ozone were obtained from the climatological data for each latitude bin for each month given by MacPeters et al. (2007). We assumed rather large values as a priori variances of the surface parameters (a standard deviation of 10 K for surface temperature), which could allow more flexibility in the L1B spectral bias correction by the surface parameters. The a priori and initial values for surface emissivity were calculated by linear regression analysis using the Advanced Space-borne Thermal Emission Reflection Radiometer (ASTER) Spectral Library (Baldrige et al., 2009) using land-cover classification, vegetation, and wind speed information. The a priori and initial values for surface temperature were estimated using radiance data in several channels around 900 cm⁻¹ of the TIR V161.160 L1B spectra.

In the TIR V1 L2 algorithm, we estimated surface temperature and surface emissivity to correct the spectral bias inherent in the TANSO-FTS TIR L1B spectra (Kataoka et al., 2014). The existence of a relatively large spectral bias around the CO₂ 15 μm absorption band in TANSO-FTS TIR L1B spectra (Kataoka et al., 2014) resulted in a decrease in the number of normally retrieved CO₂ profiles. This is probably because the TIR L1B spectral bias in the CO₂ 15 μm absorption band was sometimes too large for the L2 retrieval calculation to converge in a limited iteration. The correction of the TIR L1B spectral bias through the simultaneous retrieval of the surface parameters did not affect retrieved CO₂ concentrations in the UTLS regions, which was the focus of this study, but it altered the number of normally retrieved CO₂ profiles. The correction of the TIR L1B spectral bias through the simultaneous retrieval of surface temperature increased the number of normally retrieved CO₂ profiles. This implies that a wavelength-independent component of the spectral bias in CO₂ absorption bands could be reduced by adjusting the value of surface temperature at the bands. In contrast, the spectral bias correction through the simultaneous retrieval of surface emissivity did not increase the number of normally retrieved CO₂ profiles. If the TIR L1B spectral bias has a wavelength dependence, surface emissivity could be effective for correcting such a wavelength-dependent bias. A more effective method of L1B spectral bias correction based on surface emissivity should be considered in the next version of the TIR L2 CO₂ retrieval algorithm if a future version of the TIR L1B spectral data still has a bias.

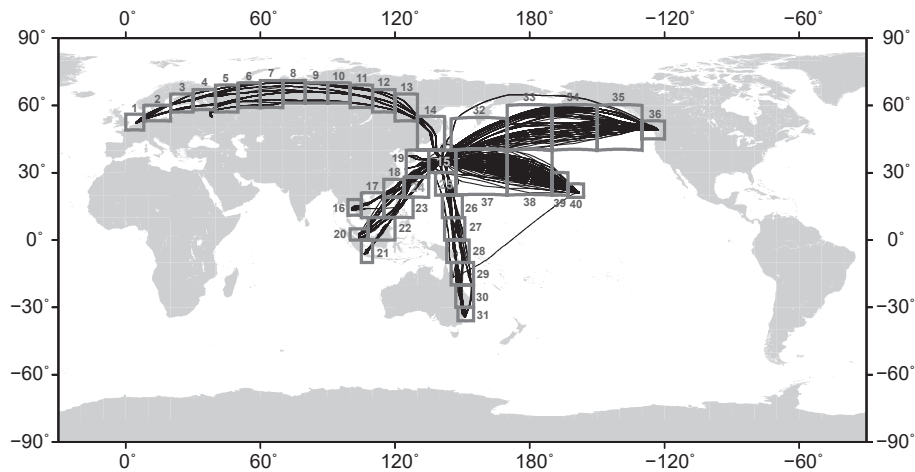


Figure 2. Flight tracks of all of the CONTRAIL CME observations in 2010 used in this study. The number next to each box area indicates its area number.

5 Comparison methods

5.1 Area comparisons

Here, we used the level flight CO₂ data of CONTRAIL CME observations in 2010 to validate the quality of UTLS CO₂ data from the TANSO-FTS TIR V1 L2 CO₂ product. The level flight data obtained from the following eight airline routes of the CONTRAIL CME observations were used in this study: Tokyo–Amsterdam (NRT–AMS) and Tokyo–Moscow (NRT–DME), Tokyo–Vancouver (NRT–VYR), Tokyo–Honolulu (NRT–HNL), Tokyo–Bangkok (NRT–BKK), Tokyo–Singapore (NRT–SIN) and Tokyo–Jakarta (NRT–CGK), and Tokyo–Sydney (NRT–SYD). We merged the level flight data of Tokyo–Amsterdam and Tokyo–Moscow into “Tokyo–Europe”, and the data of Tokyo–Singapore and Tokyo–Jakarta into “Tokyo–East Asia”. Figure 2 shows the flight tracks of all of the CONTRAIL CME observations in 2010 used in this study. As shown in the figure, we divided the CONTRAIL CME level flight data into 40 areas following Niwa et al. (2012), and compared them with TANSO-FTS TIR CO₂ data in each area in each season. The amount of level flight data varied depending on the area and season. The largest amount of data was obtained in area 15 over Narita Airport, where 4694–9306 data points were obtained. A relatively small amount of level flight data, 79–222 data points, was obtained in area 1 over Amsterdam. In all 40 areas, we collected sufficient level flight data to undertake comparison analysis based on the average values, except for seasons and regions with no flights.

5.2 Comparisons of CME profiles with and without averaging kernels

In comparisons of TIR V1 L2 CO₂ data with the CONTRAIL CME level flight data, it is difficult to smooth the CME data by applying TIR CO₂ averaging kernels, because CO₂ concentrations below and above the CME flight levels were not observed. Here, we evaluated the impact of considering averaging kernel functions on CO₂ concentrations using the CME profile data. We regarded the CME data obtained during the ascent and descent flights over the nine airports as part of CO₂ vertical profiles, and investigated differences between TIR and CME CO₂ data with and without applying averaging kernel functions in the altitude regions around the CME level flight observations. We assumed the CME ascending/descending CO₂ concentration at the uppermost altitude level to be constant up to the tropopause height, following the method proposed by Araki et al. (2010). We used stratospheric CO₂ data taken from the Nonhydrostatic Icosahedral Atmospheric Model (NICAM)–Transport Model (TM) (Niwa et al., 2011, 2012) to create whole CO₂ vertical profiles over the airports. The NICAM-TM CO₂ data used here introduced CONTRAIL CO₂ data to the inverse model in addition to surface CO₂ data, and therefore could simulate upper-atmospheric CO₂ concentrations well (Niwa et al., 2012). We determined the stratospheric CO₂ profile by assuming the CO₂ concentration gradients, calculated on the basis of the NICAM-TM CO₂ data above the tropopause height.

To compare these CME CO₂ profiles with TIR CO₂ data, we calculated a weighted average of all the CME CO₂ data included in each of the 28 retrieval grid layers with respect to altitude, and defined the CO₂ data in the 28 layers as “CONTRAIL (raw)” data. Then, we selected TIR CO₂ data that coincided with each of the CONTRAIL (raw) profiles. The criteria for the coincident pairs were a 300 km distance

from Narita airport, and a 3-day difference of each other observation. We applied TIR CO₂ averaging kernel functions to the corresponding CONTRAIL (raw) profile, as follows (Rodgers and Connor, 2003):

$$\mathbf{x}_{\text{CONTRAIL (AK)}} = \mathbf{x}_{\text{a priori}} + \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x}_{\text{CONTRAIL (raw)}} - \mathbf{x}_{\text{a priori}}). \quad (5)$$

Here, $\mathbf{x}_{\text{CONTRAIL (raw)}}$ and $\mathbf{x}_{\text{a priori}}$ are CONTRAIL (raw) and a priori CO₂ profiles. We defined the CONTRAIL (raw) data with TIR CO₂ averaging kernel functions as “CONTRAIL (AK)” data.

5.3 Level flight comparisons

In this study, we made comparisons between TIR and CONTRAIL CME level flight CO₂ data in two ways. The first was a direct comparison with original CME CO₂ data, i.e., CONTRAIL (raw) data. The second was a comparison with CONTRAIL (AK) data in the altitude regions around the CME level flight observations that were based on “assumed CO₂ profiles” created at each of the measurement locations of all the CME level flight data. In the first comparison with CONTRAIL (raw) data, the CME level flight data in each of the 40 areas were averaged for each season (MAM, JJA, SON, and JF/DJF). The average altitude of all of the CME level flight data used here was 11.245 km. The airline routes of Tokyo–Europe, Tokyo–Vancouver, and Tokyo–Honolulu contained both tropospheric and stratospheric data in the areas along their routes; therefore, we calculated the average and standard deviation values separately. Here, we differentiated between the tropospheric and stratospheric level flight data on the basis of temperature lapse rates from the JMA GPV data that were interpolated to the CONTRAIL CME measurement locations. The average altitudes of the tropospheric and stratospheric level flight data from the airline route between Tokyo and Europe were 10.84 and 11.18 km, respectively.

In the comparison with CONTRAIL (raw) data, we selected TANSO-FTS TIR V1 L2 CO₂ data that were in the altitude range within ± 1 km of the average altitude of the CME level flight data for each area for each season, and we calculated their averages and standard deviations. Similarly, we calculated the averages and standard deviations of the corresponding a priori CO₂ data for each area for each season. For the airline routes of Tokyo–Europe, Tokyo–Vancouver, and Tokyo–Honolulu, the averages and standard deviations of TIR V1 CO₂ data and the corresponding a priori CO₂ data were calculated separately for the tropospheric and stratospheric data. In this calculation, we first selected TIR V1 CO₂ data that were collected in a range within ± 1 km of the average altitudes of the CONTRAIL tropospheric and stratospheric CO₂ data for each area. Then, we classified each of the selected TIR CO₂ data points into tropospheric and stratospheric data on the basis of the temperature lapse rates from the JMA GPV data that were interpolated to the TANSO-FTS measurement locations, and we calculated the

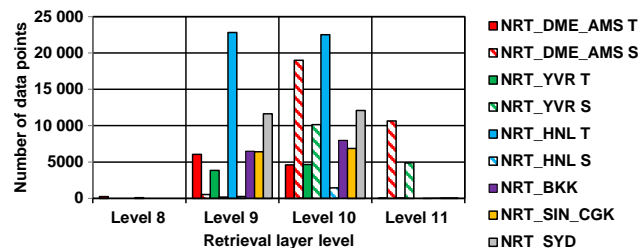


Figure 3. The number of GOSAT/TANSO-FTS TIR CO₂ data points compared to the CONTRAIL CME level flight data for each retrieval grid layer level for each flight. The numbers of TIR CO₂ data points in the troposphere (“T”) and stratosphere (“S”) are shown separately for the Tokyo–Europe (NRT_DME_AMS), Tokyo–Vancouver (NRT_YVR), and Tokyo–Honolulu (NRT_HNL) flight routes.

seasonal averages and standard deviations for the reselected tropospheric and stratospheric TIR CO₂ data. This procedure was required for two reasons: (1) tropopause height at each TANSO-FTS measurement location should differ on a daily basis, and (2) because TIR CO₂ data were selected within the range of 2 km, some tropospheric TIR CO₂ data were selected on the basis of the CONTRAIL stratospheric level flight data, and vice versa. Figure 3 shows the number of TANSO-FTS TIR CO₂ data points that were finally selected in each retrieval layer for each of the airline routes. The TIR CO₂ data used in the comparative analysis were mainly from layers 9 and 10 (from 287 to 196 hPa) for the tropospheric comparison and from layers 10 and 11 (from 237 to 162 hPa) for the stratospheric comparison.

In the second comparison, we assumed a CO₂ vertical profile on the basis of CONTRAIL (raw) data at each of the CONTRAIL CME level flight locations and applied TIR CO₂ averaging kernel functions to the assumed profiles. For this purpose, realistic CO₂ vertical profiles were required along the eight airline routes. In this study, we created a CO₂ profile at each CME level flight measurement location from CarbonTracker CT2013B monthly-mean CO₂ data (Peters et al., 2007). The CarbonTracker CT2013B CO₂ data are available to the public, and therefore readers can refer to the data set that we used as a CO₂ climatological data set. The method for creating a CO₂ vertical profile from the CONTRAIL (raw) and CarbonTracker CT2013B data is as follows. We first averaged all of the CarbonTracker CT2013B monthly-mean data included in each of the 40 areas to create area-averaged CarbonTracker CT2013B profiles. Then, we shifted the area-averaged CarbonTracker CT2013B profile so that its concentration fit to each of the CONTRAIL (raw) data at CME level flight altitude. Finally, we applied area-averaged TIR CO₂ averaging kernel functions to each of the shifted area-averaged CO₂ profiles and created profiles of CONTRAIL (AK) at all the CME level flight measurement locations.

We compared the CONTRAIL (AK) data with TIR CO₂ data at the altitude regions around the CME level flight observations for each area in each season. We extracted CONTRAIL (AK) data that corresponded to the TIR retrieval layers where TIR CO₂ data were compared to CONTRAIL (raw) data, and we averaged them for each area for each season. For the airline routes of Tokyo–Europe, Tokyo–Vancouver, and Tokyo–Honolulu, we separately averaged CONTRAIL (AK) data created from tropospheric and stratospheric CONTRAIL (raw) data and defined the averages as tropospheric and stratospheric CONTRAIL (AK) data, respectively. As shown in Fig. 3, the CONTRAIL (AK) data used for the comparison during flights between Tokyo and Sydney consisted of CO₂ concentrations in layers 9 and 10 of the CONTRAIL (AK) profiles. For the flights between Tokyo and Europe, the CONTRAIL (AK) data used for the tropospheric and stratospheric comparisons were based on CO₂ concentrations in layers 9 and 10 and in layers 10 and 11 of CONTRAIL (AK) profiles, respectively.

6 Comparison results

6.1 Impacts of averaging kernels on CME profiles

Figure 4 shows comparisons of the differences between TANSO-FTS TIR and CONTRAIL (raw) CO₂ data, and the differences between TIR and CONTRAIL (AK) CO₂ data at low (BKK), middle (NRT and SYD), and high (DME) latitudes in layers 9, 10, and 11. At low latitudes, the differences between CONTRAIL (raw) and CONTRAIL (AK) were mostly less than 0.5 ppm in all seasons. This is because the tropopause heights there were much higher than the altitude levels of CONTRAIL CME level flight measurements, and CO₂ concentrations did not change much in the altitude regions where we compared TIR and CONTRAIL CME data. The same was true for other airports at low latitudes. While the differences between CONTRAIL (raw) and CONTRAIL (AK) were larger at middle and high latitudes than at low latitudes, they were in most cases less than 1 ppm in all seasons. In conclusion, the impact of applying the TIR CO₂ averaging kernels on CONTRAIL CME CO₂ data at around the CME level flight altitudes (~11 km) was on average less than 0.5 ppm at low latitudes and less than 1 ppm at middle and high latitudes.

6.2 Comparisons during level flight

The airline route between Tokyo and Sydney covered a wide latitude range from the northern middle latitudes (35° N) to southern middle latitudes (34° S). Figure 5 shows comparisons among CONTRAIL (raw), CONTRAIL (AK), TANSO-FTS TIR, and a priori CO₂ data during flights between Tokyo and Sydney in northern hemispheric spring. In this case, we averaged CO₂ data mainly from layers 9 and 10 of the TIR retrieval layer levels. The 1 σ values of the av-

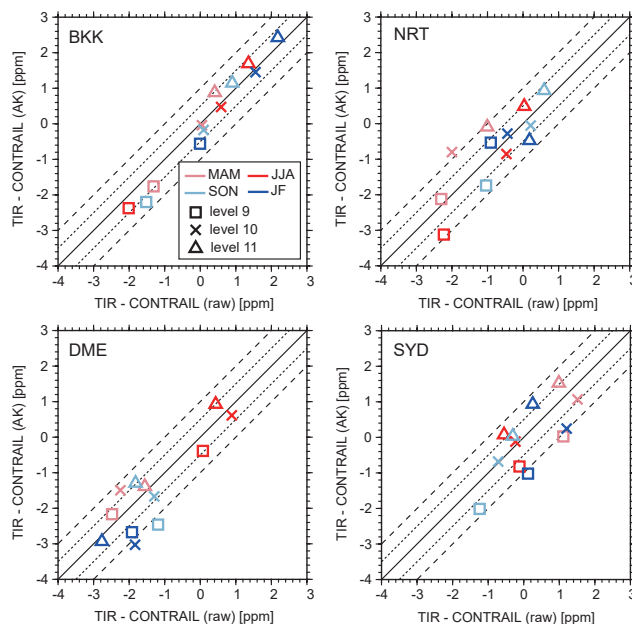


Figure 4. Scatterplots of GOSAT/TANSO-FTS TIR and CONTRAIL (raw) CO₂ differences and GOSAT/TANSO-FTS TIR and CONTRAIL (AK) CO₂ differences in layers 9, 10, and 11 for each season.

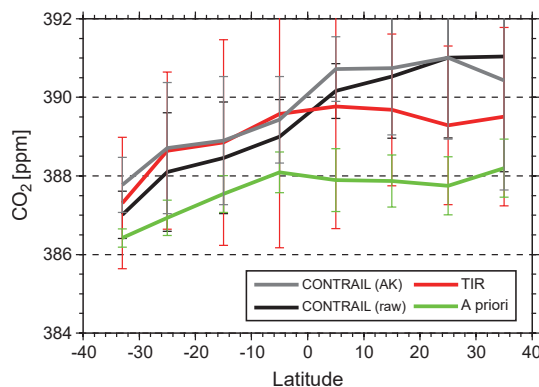


Figure 5. Comparisons among CONTRAIL (raw), CONTRAIL (AK), GOSAT/TANSO-FTS TIR, and a priori (NIES TM 05) CO₂ data during flights between Tokyo and Sydney (NRT_SYD) in northern hemispheric spring (MAM), shown by black, gray, red, and green lines, respectively. The means and their 1 σ standard deviations were calculated in each area during the flight for all four data sets.

erages show the variability of CO₂ concentrations in these UTLS layers. The average of the TIR CO₂ data agreed better with the averages of the CONTRAIL (raw) and (AK) CO₂ data than the a priori CO₂ data at all latitudes. The differences between CONTRAIL (raw) and CONTRAIL (AK) were approximately 0.5 ppm, which is consistent with the result shown in Fig. 4, despite the fact that CONTRAIL (AK) data here were evaluated on the basis of CarbonTracker

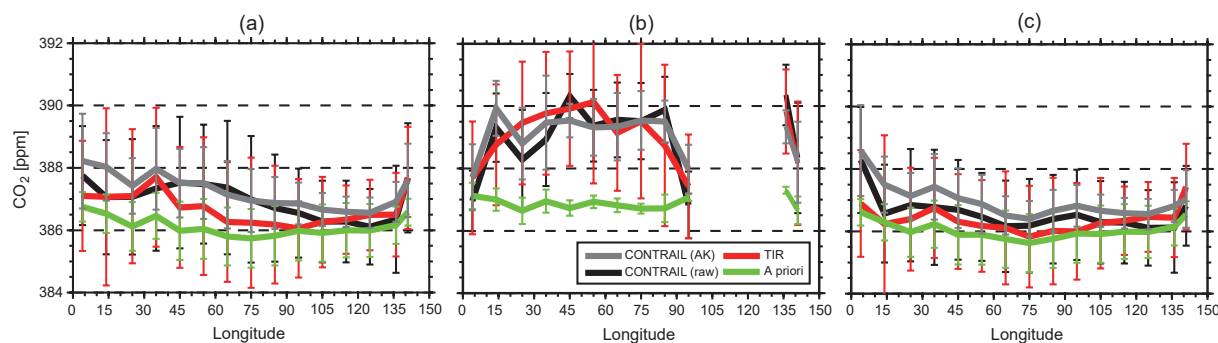


Figure 6. Same as Fig. 5 but for flights between Tokyo and Europe (NRT_DME_AMS) in winter (JF). (a) All of the data, (b) only data in the troposphere, and (c) only data in the stratosphere. See the text for the classification of tropospheric and stratospheric data.

monthly-mean data. In the Southern Hemisphere, the average of the TIR CO₂ data was within 0.1 % of the averages of the CONTRAIL (raw) and CONTRAIL (AK) CO₂ data. In the Northern Hemisphere, the average of the TIR CO₂ data agreed with the averages of the CONTRAIL (raw) and CONTRAIL (AK) CO₂ data to within 0.5 %, although the agreement was slightly worse there than in the Southern Hemisphere.

Along the airline route between Tokyo and Europe, both tropospheric and stratospheric CO₂ data were obtained in the CONTRAIL CME observations. Therefore, we were able to validate the quality of TANSO-FTS TIR CO₂ data for this route both in the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere using the UTLS CME CO₂ data. Here, we averaged CO₂ data mainly from layers 9 and 10 for the upper-tropospheric comparison and from layers 10 and 11 for the lower-stratospheric comparison. As shown in Fig. 6, the differences between CONTRAIL (raw) and CONTRAIL (AK) were again approximately 0.5 ppm when CONTRAIL CME data were divided into the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere, which is consistent with the result shown in Fig. 4. Figure 6b and c shows that the differences between the upper-tropospheric and lower-stratospheric CO₂ concentrations of CONTRAIL CME data were approximately 2–3 ppm in winter (maximum of 4.24 ppm in area 14). The upper-tropospheric and lower-stratospheric CO₂ concentrations from TANSO-FTS TIR V1 data also clearly differed, while the upper-tropospheric and lower-stratospheric CO₂ concentrations from a priori data were similar. The upper-tropospheric TIR CO₂ concentrations were in a good agreement within 1 ppm with the corresponding CONTRAIL (raw) and CONTRAIL (AK) data (Fig. 6b). In the lower stratosphere in winter (Fig. 6c), the averages of the CONTRAIL (raw), CONTRAIL (AK), TANSO-FTS TIR, and a priori CO₂ data were all within 0.5–1 ppm of each other.

Figure 7 shows the results of all of the comparisons among CONTRAIL (raw), CONTRAIL (AK), TANSO-FTS TIR, and a priori CO₂ data in the upper troposphere (left) and lower stratosphere (right) for each season. We divided the

data for all four data sets in each of the 40 areas into six latitude bands: 40–20° S (areas 30 and 31), 20–0° S (areas 21, 28, and 29), 0–20° N (areas 16, 17, 20, 22, 23, 26, and 27), 20–40° N (areas 15, 18, 19, 24, 25, and 37–40), 40–60° N (areas 1, 2, 14, and 32–36), and 60–70° N (areas 3–13). As for the lower stratosphere, we showed the results at northern latitudes of 40° N where an adequate amount of data was obtained. Overall, the black and gray lines (TIR average minus CONTRAIL (raw) average, and TIR average minus CONTRAIL (AK) average) were closer to zero than the green lines (a priori average minus CONTRAIL (raw) average), which means that TIR CO₂ data agreed better with CONTRAIL CME CO₂ data than a priori CO₂ data.

The left panels of Fig. 7 show that the agreements between TIR and CONTRAIL (raw) and CONTRAIL (AK) CO₂ average data were worse in spring and summer than in fall and winter in the Northern Hemisphere in the upper troposphere. The differences between TIR and CONTRAIL (raw) and CONTRAIL (AK) CO₂ data were on average within 1 ppm in fall and winter in the northern troposphere. At 0–40° N in summer, in contrast, the TIR and a priori CO₂ average data were 2.3 ppm lower than the CONTRAIL (AK) CO₂ average data. At 20–40° N in spring, the differences between TIR and CONTRAIL (AK) CO₂ average data were 2.4 ppm, although the TIR CO₂ data had a better agreement with CONTRAIL CME CO₂ data than a priori CO₂ data. On the other hand, the averages of the TIR CO₂ data were within 0–0.7 ppm of the averages of the CONTRAIL (AK) CO₂ data in the Southern Hemisphere in all seasons, as in the comparison in northern hemispheric spring shown in Fig. 5.

In the lower stratosphere, the agreements between the average TANSO-FTS TIR and CONTRAIL CME CO₂ data did not have a smaller seasonality than in the upper troposphere. The averages of TIR and CONTRAIL (raw) and CONTRAIL (AK) CO₂ data agreed with each other within 0.5 % in all seasons.

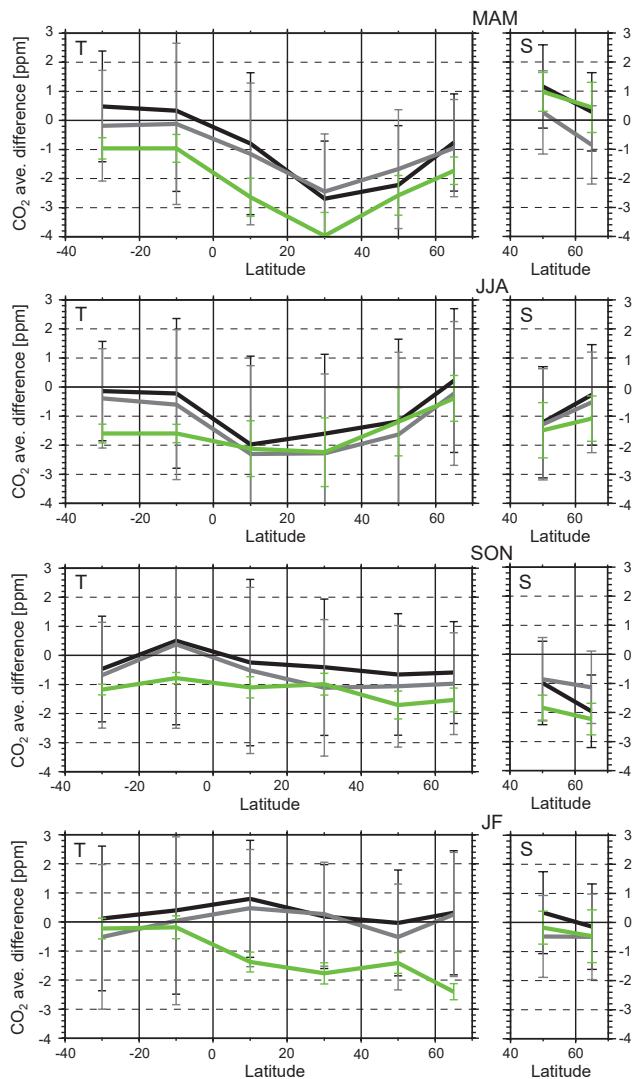


Figure 7. Differences between GOSAT/TANSO-FTS TIR and CONTRAIL (raw) averaged CO₂ data (TIR average minus CONTRAIL (raw) average), TIR and CONTRAIL (AK) averaged CO₂ data (TIR average minus CONTRAIL (AK) average), and a priori (NIES TM 05) and CONTRAIL (raw) averaged CO₂ data (a priori average minus CONTRAIL (raw) average) for each season for each latitude band (40–20° S, 20–0° S, 0–20° N, 20–40° N, 40–60° N, 60–70° N), shown by black, gray, and green lines, respectively. Left and right panels show the differences in the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere, respectively. The 1σ standard deviations of the latitudinal averages of TANSO-FTS TIR CO₂ data are shown by vertical bars.

7 Discussion

As shown in Fig. 7, TANSO-FTS TIR V1 L2 CO₂ data had a negative bias of 2.3–2.4 ppm against CONTRAIL CME CO₂ data at the northern low and middle latitudes in spring and summer. Uncertainties in surface parameters and temperature profiles could affect CO₂ retrieval in thermal infrared spec-

tral regions. As described above, retrieving surface parameters simultaneously instead of using initial surface parameters did not affect CO₂ concentrations in the UTLS regions in the TIR V1 CO₂ retrieval. We compared simultaneously retrieved temperature profiles with a priori JMA GPV temperature profiles in the UTLS region and did not find any difference between the two which could explain the largest TIR CO₂ negative bias at the northern low and middle latitudes in spring and summer. In the UTLS regions, temperature variability is relatively large, and therefore comprehensive validation analysis of both the a priori and retrieved temperature profiles should be required using reliable and independent temperature data such as radiosonde data.

Uncertainty in a priori data could result in uncertainty in retrieved CO₂ data. Here, we arbitrarily decreased the a priori concentration by 1 % in a test TIR CO₂ retrieval and then compared the retrieved CO₂ concentrations with those retrieved using the original a priori data. At the northern low and middle latitudes in spring and summer where the DF values of TIR V1 CO₂ data were around 1.8 and more, a 1 % negative bias in a priori data could yield up to a 0.7 % negative bias in retrieved CO₂ concentrations in the altitude regions where we did comparisons between TIR and CONTRAIL CME data, although the magnitude of the bias varied depending on retrievals. As shown by the green lines in Figure 7, a priori CO₂ concentrations were underestimated by 2–4 ppm at the northern low and middle latitudes in spring and summer. The test TIR CO₂ retrieval demonstrated that the negative bias of a priori CO₂ data against CONTRAIL CME data is a possible cause of the TIR CO₂ negative bias in the UTLS regions at the northern low and middle latitudes in spring and summer.

In general, the information content of CO₂ observations made by TIR sensors is higher at middle and high latitudes in spring and summer than in fall and winter because of the thermal contrast in the atmosphere, with less seasonal dependence at low latitudes. Therefore, in spring and summer, retrieved CO₂ data contain more measurement information and are less constrained by a priori data at all latitudes. However, as shown in Fig. 7, the retrieved TIR CO₂ data at the northern low and middle latitudes did not sufficiently reduce the negative bias of the a priori CO₂ data in the UTLS regions in spring and summer. This implies the existence of factors that worsened CO₂ retrieval results other than the a priori data, especially in spring and summer. Another possible factor that worsened CO₂ retrieval results is the uncertainty in the calibration of TIR V161.160 L1B spectra. As reported in Kataoka et al. (2014), TANSO-FTS TIR V130.130 L1B radiance spectra had a wavelength-dependent bias ranging from 0.1 to 2 K. Although the characteristics of the spectral bias in V161.160 L1B data used in TIR V1 L2 CO₂ retrievals are still under investigation, we assumed the same degree of bias in V161.160 L1B spectra and evaluated the effect of the L1B spectral bias on the TIR CO₂ retrieval using the following

equation:

$$d_{\text{CO}_2} = \mathbf{G}_{\text{CO}_2} d_{\text{spec}}. \quad (6)$$

Here, \mathbf{G}_{CO_2} is a gain matrix for CO₂ retrieval, d_{spec} is a spectral bias vector based on the evaluation by Kataoka et al. (2014), and d_{CO_2} is a vector of bias errors in retrieved CO₂ concentrations attributable to the spectral bias. The result showed that a wavelength-dependent bias comparable to V130.130 L1B spectra could yield up to 0.3 and 0.5 % uncertainties in retrieved CO₂ concentration in the UTLS regions at the northern middle latitude in spring and at the northern low latitude in summer, respectively. Uncertainty in the radiometric calibration of TANSO-FTS L1B spectra causes the spectral bias inherent in TIR L1B spectra. The temperatures of the internal blackbody on board the TANSO-FTS instrument partly reflect the environmental thermal conditions inside the instrument. The temperatures of FTS mechanics and aft optics on the optical bench of the TANSO-FTS instrument are precisely controlled at 23 °C. The difference in temperature between the environment inside the instrument and the optical bench could cause the uncertainty in the radiometric calibration of TANSO-FTS L1B spectra. Thus, the temperatures of the internal blackbody on board the TANSO-FTS instrument could be a parameter used to evaluate the TANSO-FTS TIR L1B spectral bias.

Figure 8 shows the averages of the partial degree of freedom of TANSO-FTS TIR V1 L2 CO₂ data for each of the areas along the airline routes between Tokyo and Europe in the upper troposphere (a) and the lower stratosphere (b) for each season. The partial DF is defined as the diagonal element of the averaging kernels corresponding to TIR CO₂ data that were compared to CONTRAIL CME level flight data, which is equal to the 9th, 10th, or 11th diagonal element of matrix **A**. As shown in Fig. 8, the average values of the partial DF of TIR lower-stratospheric CO₂ data were clearly lower than those of TIR upper-tropospheric CO₂ data for all of the flights between Tokyo and Europe. TIR upper-tropospheric CO₂ data were from layers 9 and 10, and TIR lower-stratospheric CO₂ data were from layers 10 and 11, as shown in Fig. 3, which led to a clear difference in partial DF values between the TIR upper-tropospheric and lower-stratospheric CO₂ data. The partial DF values of TIR upper-tropospheric CO₂ data were 0.13–0.20 in all of the areas for all seasons. In contrast, the partial DF values of TIR lower-stratospheric CO₂ data in spring, fall, and winter were ~0.05 in almost all of the areas, although they were as high as 0.1–0.14 in summer. From the results shown in Figs. 6c and 8, we conclude that TIR CO₂ retrieval results in the lower stratosphere in winter were constrained to the relatively good a priori CO₂ data due to the low information content and consequently had a good agreement with CONTRAIL CME CO₂ data. The comparisons in the areas during the airline route between Tokyo and Europe were included in the comparison results of 60–70° N in the right panels of Fig. 7. In this

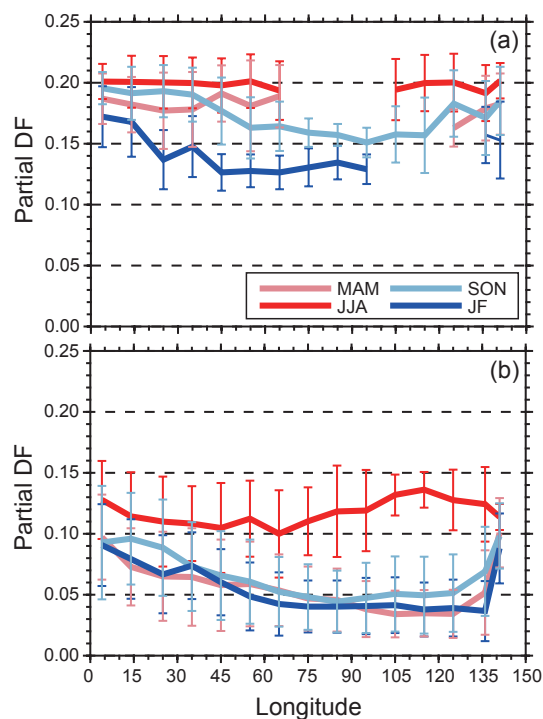


Figure 8. Partial degree of freedom (DF) for GOSAT/TANSO-FTS TIR CO₂ data in the upper troposphere (a) and the lower stratosphere (b) for each area of the flight between Tokyo and Europe (NRT_DME_AMS). The means and their 1 σ standard deviations of the partial DF data were calculated in spring (MAM), summer (JJA), fall (SON), and winter (JF), as shown by the pink, red, light blue, and blue lines, respectively.

region, the average differences between a priori and CONTRAIL (raw) data were 1–2 ppm in summer and fall, while they were less than 0.5 ppm in spring and winter. In summer, TIR CO₂ retrievals had a relatively high information content compared to the other seasons, which led to an agreement between TIR and CONTRAIL (raw) and CONTRAIL (AK) CO₂ data of within 0.5 ppm. In fall, TIR CO₂ retrieval results in the lower stratosphere were more constrained to the a priori CO₂ data and therefore had a negative bias of approximately 1–2 ppm against CONTRAIL (raw) and CONTRAIL (AK) CO₂ data. In conclusion, the quality of TIR V1 CO₂ data in the lower stratosphere depends largely on the information content compared to the upper troposphere. In the case of high-latitude measurements, TIR V1 lower-stratospheric CO₂ data are only valid in summer.

We investigated the differences between TIR and CONTRAIL CO₂ comparison results in layers 9–11 with and without applying averaging kernel functions over the nine airports where CO₂ vertical profiles were observed during ascent and descent. At the northern middle latitudes in spring (NRT in Fig. 4), CONTRAIL (AK) was on average 0.2 and 1.2 ppm lower than CONTRAIL (raw) in layers 9 and 10. In contrast, the tendency was the opposite at the southern mid-

Table 2. Bias values of GOSAT/TANSO-FTS TIR V1 CO₂ data against CONTRAIL (AK) CO₂ data for each season and each latitude region in the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere in units of parts per million (ppm). Significant bias values larger than ± 2 ppm are indicated by boldface.

UT	LS	MAM		JJA		SON		JF	
60–70° N		–1.0	–0.8	–0.2	–0.5	–1.0	–1.1	0.3	–0.5
40–60° N		–1.7	0.3	–1.6	–1.3	–1.1	–0.9	–0.5	–0.5
20–40° N		–2.4		–2.3		–1.1		0.3	
0–20° N		–1.2		–2.3		–0.5		0.5	
20–0° S		–0.1		–0.6		0.4		0.0	
40–20° S		–0.2		–0.4		–0.7		–0.5	

dle latitudes in spring (SYD in Fig. 4); CONTRAIL (AK) was on average 1.1 and 0.4 ppm higher than CONTRAIL (raw) in layers 9 and 10. This means that CO₂ concentrations in layers 9 and 10 were more affected by stratospheric air with relatively low CO₂ concentrations at the northern middle latitude in spring, when considering averaging kernels. This is consistent with the result of Sawa et al. (2012) showing that the difference between upper-tropospheric and lower-stratospheric CO₂ concentrations was larger in the Northern Hemisphere in spring.

Using CONTRAIL CME level flight observations that covered wide spatial areas allowed us to discuss the longitudinal differences in the characteristics of TIR UTLS CO₂ data. In the comparison results of the airline routes of Tokyo–Europe (Fig. 6) and Tokyo–Vancouver (not shown here), the magnitudes of the differences between TIR and CONTRAIL (raw) and (AK) CO₂ data did not have a clear longitudinal dependence. Table 2 summarizes the latitudinal dependence of the magnitudes of the differences between TIR and CONTRAIL (AK) CO₂ data. In the upper troposphere within 0–60° N, negative biases in TIR CO₂ data against CONTRAIL CME CO₂ data ranged from 1.2 to 2.4 ppm in spring and summer when applying averaging kernels to the assumed CME CO₂ profiles created based on Carbon-Tracker CT2013B monthly-mean profiles. It is the negative biases at the northern low and middle latitudes that we should in particular be concerned about when using TIR V1 L2 CO₂ data in any scientific analysis. In the upper troposphere at the northern middle latitudes, CO₂ concentrations reach the maximum from spring through early summer. The negative biases in TIR CO₂ data resulted in the maximum TIR CO₂ concentrations being lower than that of the CONTRAIL CME CO₂ concentrations, which led to an underestimate of the amplitude of the CO₂ seasonal variation when using TIR CO₂ data without taking their negative biases into account.

8 Summary

In this study, we conducted a comprehensive validation of the UTLS CO₂ concentrations from the GOSAT/TANSO-FTS TIR V1 L2 CO₂ product. The TIR V1 L2 CO₂ algorithm used both the CO₂ 10 and 15 μ m absorption bands

(690–750, 790–795, 930–990, and 1040–1090 cm^{–1}) and simultaneously retrieved vertical profiles of CO₂, water vapor, ozone, and temperature in these wavelength regions. Because the TANSO-FTS TIR V161.160 L1B radiance data used in the TIR V1 L2 CO₂ retrieval had a spectral bias, we simultaneously derived surface temperature and surface emissivity in the same wavelength regions as a corrective parameter, other than temperature and gas profiles, to correct the spectral bias. The simultaneous retrieval of surface temperature greatly increased the number of normally retrieved CO₂ profiles.

To validate the quality of TIR V1 upper-atmospheric CO₂ data, we compared them with the level flight CO₂ data of CONTRAIL CME observations along the following airline routes in 2010: Tokyo–Europe (Amsterdam and Moscow), Tokyo–Vancouver, Tokyo–Honolulu, Tokyo–Bangkok, Tokyo–East Asia (Singapore and Jakarta), and Tokyo–Sydney. For the CONTRAIL data obtained during the northern high-latitude flights, we made comparisons among CONTRAIL, TIR, and a priori CO₂ data separately in the upper troposphere and in the lower stratosphere. The TIR upper-tropospheric and lower-stratospheric CO₂ data that were compared were mainly from layers 9 and 10 (287–196 hPa) and from layers 10 and 11 (237–162 hPa), respectively. In this study, we evaluated the impact of considering TIR CO₂ averaging kernel functions on CO₂ concentrations using the CME profile data over the nine airports; the impact at around the CME level flight altitudes (~ 11 km) was on average less than 0.5 ppm at low latitudes and less than 1 ppm at middle and high latitudes.

In the Southern Hemisphere, the averages of TANSO-FTS TIR V1 upper-atmospheric CO₂ data were within 0.1 % of the averages of CONTRAIL CO₂ data with and without TIR CO₂ averaging kernels for all seasons, from the limited comparisons made during flights between Tokyo and Sydney, while TIR CO₂ data had a better agreement with CONTRAIL CO₂ data than a priori CO₂ data, with the agreement being on average within 0.5 % in the Northern Hemisphere. The northern high-latitude comparisons suggest that the quality of TIR lower-stratospheric CO₂ data depends largely on the information content. At high latitudes, TIR

lower-stratospheric CO₂ data are only valid in summer, when their information content is highest. Overall, the agreements of TIR and CONTRAIL CME CO₂ data were worse in spring and summer than in fall and winter in the Northern Hemisphere in the upper troposphere. TIR CO₂ data had a negative bias up to 2.4 ppm against CONTRAIL CO₂ data with TIR CO₂ averaging kernels at the northern low and middle latitudes in spring and summer. This is partly because of the larger negative bias in the a priori CO₂ data. The spectral bias inherent to TANSO-FTS TIR L1B radiance data could cause a negative bias in retrieved CO₂ concentrations, particularly in summer. TIR sensors can make more observations than SWIR sensors. When using the TIR UTLS CO₂ data, the seasonally and regionally dependent negative biases of the TIR V1 L2 CO₂ data presented here should be taken into account.

Data availability

GOSAT/TANSO-FTS TIR and a priori CO₂ data and TIR CO₂ averaging kernel data are provided at <http://www.gosat.nies.go.jp/en/>. Contact the CONTRAIL project (<http://www.cger.nies.go.jp/contrail/index.html>) to access the CONTRAIL CME CO₂ data. CarbonTracker CT2013B and updated results are provided at <http://carbontracker.noaa.gov>.

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