



1 Title: **Evaluation And Attribution Of OCO-2 XCO₂ Uncertainties**

2

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10

11 **Abstract**

12 Evaluating and attributing uncertainties in total column atmospheric CO₂
13 measurements (*XCO₂*) from the OCO-2 instrument is critical for testing hypotheses
14 related to the underlying processes controlling *XCO₂* and for developing quality flags
15 needed to choose those measurements that are usable for carbon cycle science.
16 Here we test the reported uncertainties of Version 7 OCO-2 *XCO₂* measurements by
17 examining variations of the *XCO₂* measurements and their calculated uncertainties
18 within small regions (~100 km x 10.5 km) in which CO₂ variability is expected to be
19 small relative to variations imparted by noise or interferences. Over 39,000 of
20 these “small neighborhoods” comprised of approximately 190 observations per
21 neighborhood are used for this analysis. We find that a typical ocean measurement
22 should have a precision and accuracy of 0.35 and 0.24 ppm respectively for
23 calculated precisions larger than ~0.25 ppm. These values are approximately
24 consistent with the calculated errors of 0.33 and 0.14 ppm for the noise and
25 interference error (assuming that the accuracy is bounded by the calculated
26 interference error). The actual precision for ocean data becomes worse as the
27 signal-to-noise increases or the calculated precision decreases below 0.25 ppm for
28 reasons that not well understood. A typical land measurement (both nadir and
29 glint) is found to have a precision and accuracy of approximately 0.75 ppm and 0.65
30 ppm respectively as compared to the calculated precision and accuracy of



1 approximately 0.36 ppm and 0.2 ppm. However, this precision includes the effects of
2 synoptic variability in the total column that could be as high as 0.5 ppm during the
3 summer drawdown period. The accuracy is likely related to interferences such as
4 aerosols or surface albedo and is a lower bound as it is evaluated by comparing
5 gradients in OCO-2 estimates of XCO_2 to expected gradients across the region and
6 not by direct comparison to well-calibrated XCO_2 measurements from the ground
7 network.

8

9 **1.0 Introduction**

10

11 Variations of total column CO_2 (XCO_2) resulting from photosynthesis and
12 respiration in tropical forests (e.g. Parazoo et al. 2013), urban emissions (e.g. Kort et
13 al., 2012) or tropical fires (e.g. Bloom et al., 2016) range from 2 – 5 ppm.
14 Consequently, in order to use space-based measurements of XCO_2 to infer fluxes or
15 properties of the processes controlling these variations, uncertainties in XCO_2
16 should ideally be much much smaller than this variability (Miller *et al.* 2007). The
17 Orbiting Carbon Observatory-2 (OCO-2) was launched in July 2014, to measure the
18 atmospheric column averaged carbon dioxide (CO_2) dry air mole fraction, XCO_2 with
19 the precision, accuracy, and coverage needed to quantify variations on regional
20 scales at monthly intervals. These measurements are being used to investigate the
21 underlying carbon cycle processes controlling atmospheric CO_2 . The radiative
22 transfer and XCO_2 estimation (or retrieval) algorithms (Boesch et al. 2006; 2011;
23 Connor et al. 2008; O'Dell et al., 2012) were developed and tested using observed
24 radiances from the Japanese TANSO GOSAT instrument (Kuze et al. 2009; Yoshida et
25 al. 2011), which measured similar spectral regions as the OCO-2 mission. These
26 algorithms also allowed extensive evaluation of quality flags and metrics needed to
27 reject estimated XCO_2 values which were clearly spurious, likely because of poorly
28 estimate values for aerosols, clouds, surface albedo or surface pressure (Crisp et al.,
29 2012; Mandrake et al., 2013). In this paper we evaluate the calculated uncertainties
30 due to noise and interferences in the OCO-2 data product (Version 7).



1 Our approach follows the methodology described in Boxe et al. [2010] and Kuai
2 *et al.* [2013] in which variations of the observed trace gas over a small “area” are
3 compared to the calculated errors. Figure 1 shows the distribution of latitudinal
4 gradients in XCO_2 over the ocean and over North America based on the “high
5 resolution” Carbon Tracker model (e.g. Peters *et al.*, 2007) with ~ 100 km spatial
6 resolution. This distribution is calculated by differencing XCO_2 from adjacent model
7 grid points, as a function of latitude, using all modeled XCO_2 values in July 2015. We
8 find that the root-mean-square (RMS) value of these gradients is approximately 0.3
9 ppm/100 km during the summer and ~ 0.1 ppm/100 km during November. Keppel-
10 Aleks [2011, 2012] also found North American summertime gradients in XCO_2
11 between 0.1 ppm/100 km to 0.3 ppm/100 km using ground based total column data
12 and measured wind speeds. In addition, these studies found synoptic variability
13 could change XCO_2 values by up to 0.5 ppm over the study time period in a random
14 manner (Figure 5 in Keppel-Aleks [2011]). In contrast, Figures 1a and 1b show that
15 typical variations in the gradients over the ocean should be less than that of land,
16 between ~ 0.1 ppm/100 km to 0.2 ppm/100 km. While in situ measurements [e.g.
17 Wofsy *et al.*, 2011] and model data do show variations in XCO_2 that are sometimes
18 larger than 0.2 ppm/100 km we would expect that these variations do not represent
19 typical XCO_2 gradients, especially since the total column of CO_2 integrates the effects
20 of many sources and sinks from hundreds to thousands of kilometers away from the
21 observation [e.g. Keppel-Aleks *et al.*, 2011]. Because the expected variability in
22 XCO_2 from models, ground-based data, and in situ measurements are comparable or
23 less than the calculated OCO-2 uncertainties, we can compare the observed
24 variability of XCO_2 from OCO-2 data within a small region, covering an orbit track
25 that spans 100 km in latitude, to evaluate the magnitude and character of their
26 corresponding calculated uncertainties.

27

28 **2.00 Overview of OCO-2 data**

29



1 The OCO-2 instrument measures radiances in the molecular oxygen (O₂) A-band
2 (0.765 microns), the “weak” CO₂ band at 1.61 microns and the “strong” CO₂ band at
3 2.06 microns. The OCO-2 instrument is an imaging spectrometer that collects with 8
4 samples, or “spatial footprints” across a narrow (0.8-degree) swath track observes
5 near the “glint spot” where sunlight is specularly reflected by the surface.
6 Observations are taken in three different modes, (1) “Nadir”, where the space-craft
7 points the instrument’s aperture at the ground directly downward along the orbit
8 track, (2) “Glint,” where the space craft points instrument’s aperture near the “glint
9 spot” where sunlight is specularly reflected by the surface, near the specular
10 reflection point for sunlight, and (3) Target, where the space-craft points the
11 instrument aperture at a stationary surface target, such as a validation site or city.
12 Nadir observations usually return useful measurements only over land. Glint
13 observations return useful data over both land and ocean. Here, we discriminate
14 land-glint and ocean glint observations because they have different error statistics.
15 We do not evaluate Target data in this analysis due to spurious statistics that are
16 observed with the Target data.

17 As discussed in Boesch et al. [2006]; Connor *et al.* [2008] and O’Dell *et al.* [2012
18 and references therein] total column estimates of XCO₂, are derived from OCO-2
19 observed radiances using a Bayesian optimal estimation approach that depends on
20 CO₂, all the geophysical parameters or interferences that affect the radiances in
21 these bands, and *a priori* statistics of the atmosphere and these interferences.

22 We use version 7 of the OCO-2 data, the first OCO-2 product distributed for
23 general users. These data, like those described for GOSAT data in Wunch *et al.*
24 [2011], are bias corrected based on comparisons between OCO-2 and total column
25 measurements from the ground-based Total Carbon Column Observing Network
26 (TCCON). Data quality is evaluated using a variety of metrics that depend on the
27 estimated cloud, aerosol, and surface properties, convergence and known statistics
28 of the retrieved CO₂ values (e.g. Mandrake *et al.*, 2013). Data quality flags are given
29 as “warn levels” with values ranging from 0 (best) to 20 (worst). Data with lower
30 warn levels are more likely to represent the statistics of the observed CO₂ whereas



1 data with higher warn levels likely or are too strongly affected by interfering effects.
2 The warn levels are primarily evaluated empirically; for these reasons we
3 conservatively use only data with warn levels of 10 or smaller to ensure that the
4 corresponding errors are likely well characterized:

5 [http://disc.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/OCO-2/documentation/oco-2-
v7/OCO2_XCO2_Lite_Files_and_Bias_Correction_0915_sm.pdf](http://disc.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/OCO-2/documentation/oco-2-
6 v7/OCO2_XCO2_Lite_Files_and_Bias_Correction_0915_sm.pdf).

7

8

9 **3.0 Evaluation of Uncertainties**

10

11 *3.1 Overview of Error Analysis and Methodology*

12

13 We evaluate the uncertainties of the XCO_2 observations by examining the
14 variations of x_{CO_2} within small neighborhoods of approximately 10.5 km by 100 km
15 in size. After warn level filtering, this “small neighborhood” test set is composed of
16 approximately 1.5 million Land-Nadir soundings, 1.0 million Land-Glint soundings,
17 and 5.0 million Ocean-Glint soundings. Each neighborhood contains at least 50
18 soundings, with roughly 190 soundings per neighborhood on average, and
19 approximately 39,000 small neighborhoods in total across the three modes.
20 stretching from approximately 30S to 30N. The strict filtering used in this analysis
21 (Warn Levels ≤ 10), and the need for at least 50 measurements per bin limits this
22 analysis to latitudes between 30S to 30N, primarily over drier, sub-tropical regions
23 over land but no obvious preferential distribution over the ocean (not shown).

23

24 As discussed in [O’Dell et al., 2012], a CO_2 profile is simultaneously estimated
25 with all other geophysical parameters that affect the observed radiance such as
26 aerosols, albedo, and surface pressure. The “column-averaged dry air mole fraction”
27 of CO_2 or XCO_2 is then calculated by applying the column operator [e.g. Connor et al.,
28 2008; Worden et al., 2015] to the estimated CO_2 profile. As discussed in Rodgers
29 [2000], Worden *et al.* [2004], Connor [2008], and Bowman *et al.* [2006], when this
non-linear retrieval converges to a solution, the estimated XCO_2 can be written as:

30



1
$$\hat{X} = X_a + \mathbf{h}^T \mathbf{A}_{xx} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_a) + \mathbf{h}^T \mathbf{A}_{xy} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}_a) + \mathbf{h}^T \mathbf{G} \mathbf{n} + \mathbf{h}^T \mathbf{G} \sum_i \mathbf{K}_i \delta_i \quad (1)$$

2

3 where \hat{X} is the estimated total column for CO₂, X_a is the *a priori* value used to help
 4 regularize the retrieval, the vector \mathbf{x} is the “true” CO₂ profile in units of volume
 5 mixing ratio (VMR), discretized onto the forward model atmospheric pressure grid
 6 used to calculate the transfer of radiation needed to model the observed radiance.
 7 The \mathbf{x}_a is the *a priori* for the CO₂ profile. The vector “ \mathbf{y} ” contains all the other
 8 parameters that are simultaneously estimated with \mathbf{x} such as aerosol properties,
 9 surface albedo, surface pressure. The vector “ \mathbf{n} ” is the actual noise in the radiance.
 10 The quantities \mathbf{x} , \mathbf{y} , and \mathbf{n} are not known exactly, only their statistical properties can
 11 be estimated. The vector “ \mathbf{h} ” is the column operator which maps a profile on the
 12 pressure grid defined by “ \mathbf{x} ” into a dry air total column. The averaging kernel matrix
 13 \mathbf{A} describes the sensitivity of the estimate to each retrieved parameter [Rodgers,
 14 2000]. In equation 1 the averaging kernel matrix is composed of two parts, \mathbf{A}_{xx} and
 15 \mathbf{A}_{xy} , described by:

16

17
$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{xx} & \mathbf{A}_{xy} \\ \mathbf{A}_{yx} & \mathbf{A}_{yy} \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

18

19 For example \mathbf{A}_{xx} describes the sensitivity (or $\frac{\partial \hat{x}}{\partial x}$) of the estimated CO₂ on each level,
 20 \mathbf{x} , to its true value, whereas \mathbf{A}_{xy} describes the sensitivity of the estimated CO₂ on
 21 each level, \mathbf{x} , to all other simultaneously estimated parameters, e.g., aerosols, etc.
 22 The matrix, “ \mathbf{G} ,” is the gain matrix, , which is the derivative of the estimated CO₂ on
 23 each level, \mathbf{x} , to the observed radiance, “ \mathbf{L} ” (or $\mathbf{G} = \frac{\partial \hat{x}}{\partial L}$). The matrix, “ \mathbf{K} ,” is the
 24 Jacobian, or sensitivity of the observed radiance to a parameter (e.g. $\mathbf{K} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial x}$). The last
 25 term, δ , describes the error in all parameters that are not estimated for this
 26 retrieval, but are assumed constant, such as absorption coefficients or instrument
 27 functions (e.g. Connor et al., 2008). The mean CO₂ column is written as:

28



$$\begin{aligned} 1 \quad \hat{X}_{mean} &= X_a + \mathbf{h}^T \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \mathbf{A}_j (\mathbf{x}_j - \mathbf{x}_a) + \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{h}^T \sum_{j=1}^N \mathbf{A}_{xy}^j (\mathbf{y}_j - \mathbf{y}_a) + \\ 2 \quad &\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \mathbf{h}^T \mathbf{G}_j (\mathbf{n}_j + \sum_{i,j} \mathbf{K}_{i,j} \delta_{i,j}) \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

3

4 where N is the number of observations within the small area and for simplicity we
5 assume the column operator \mathbf{h} is constant across the domain.

6

7 For the next three sections, we test the following hypotheses regarding the observed
8 distributions within the collection of “small neighborhoods” and their calculated
9 uncertainties:

10

11 H1: Uncertainties within a small area are primarily due to random noise

12 H2: Uncertainties are correlated

13 H3: Uncertainties within a small area are described by a slowly varying bias
14 (consistent with the expected effects of interference error).

15

16 We look at the variability with respect to the neighborhood mean in two ways: (1)
17 for small neighborhoods; the predicted errors for a neighborhood are averaged
18 from the observations that comprise that neighborhood, making the statistics
19 technically a sum of Gaussians, and (2) the variability with respect to the
20 neighborhood mean, sorted by predicted error and aggregated over many
21 neighborhoods; the statistics in this case should be Gaussian, however the locality of
22 the analysis is somewhat reduced.

23

24 *3.2 H1: Error due to noise*

25

26 To evaluate whether measurement noise in the radiances is the primary
27 factor driving variability within a small area we assume that the terms $\mathbf{A}_{xy}(\mathbf{y}_j - \mathbf{y}_a)$
28 and systematic errors $\mathbf{K}_{i,j} \delta_{i,j}$ do not vary. Based upon these approximations, the
29 difference between an observation and its mean is given by:



1

$$2 \quad \hat{X}_{obs} - \hat{X}_{mean} = \delta_{obs} = \delta_{XCO_2} + \mathbf{G}_{obs} \mathbf{n}_{obs} - \frac{1}{N} \sum_j^N \mathbf{G}_j \mathbf{n}_j \quad (4)$$

3

4 where $\delta_{XCO_2} = \mathbf{h}^T \mathbf{A}(x_{obs} - x_{mean})$ and is the difference between the individual
 5 “true” XCO_2 and the mean of the “true” XCO_2 values within the neighborhood.

6 Assuming the measurement noise is spatially uncorrelated, the variance within the
 7 small neighborhood is [e.g. Bowman *et al.*, 2006] is:

9

$$8 \quad \mathbf{Var} \left[\left| \hat{X}_{obs} - \hat{X}_{mean} \right| \right] = \sigma_{obs}^2 = \sigma_{XCO_2}^2 + \sigma_{noise}^2 + \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{j=1}^N \sigma_j^2 - \frac{2}{N} \sigma_k^2 \quad (5)$$

10

11 where $\sigma_{noise} = \mathbf{G}_k \mathbf{S}_k \mathbf{G}_k^T$ is the measurement uncertainty due to noise. The σ_{XCO_2} is
 12 the variability of the true XCO_2 within the small neighborhood. The \mathbf{S}_k is the
 13 spectral instrumental noise covariance and is calculated during calibration of the
 14 instrument. The individual σ_{noise} values are provided for each measurement in the
 15 OCO-2 product files. For large N, Equation 5 is approximately equal to:

$$16 \quad \sigma_{XCO_2}^2 + \sigma_{noise}^2$$

17 We next evaluate these uncertainties using two approaches. In the first
 18 approach we gather all observations that have approximately the same calculated
 19 measurements uncertainty, σ_{noise} , (to within 0.01 ppm) as provided in the OCO-2
 20 product files and compare to the actual variability of these observations. The steps
 21 for this comparison are:

22

- 23 1) Calculate the δ_{obs} or difference between an observation and its mean
 24 within a small neighborhood as shown in Equation 4.
- 25 2) Collect all of the δ_{obs} values from all neighborhoods used in this analysis
 26 whose corresponding σ_{noise} values (measurement uncertainty) are the
 27 same to within 0.01 ppm and bin them as a function of σ_{noise} . There are
 28 typically about 1000 observations per σ_{noise} bin.



1 3) Compare the standard deviation of the collection of δ_{obs} values within
2 each bin to the expected standard deviation due to noise or, σ_{noise} . Based
3 on Equation 5 we should expect to get a linear, one-to-one relationship if
4 the dominant parameter affecting the variability within a small
5 neighborhood is noise.

6

7 The results of these comparisons for land-nadir, land-glint, and ocean-glint
8 observations are shown in the upper left panels of Figures 2, 3, and 4 respectively.
9 These results show the calculated measurement error has skill, i.e. there is a linear
10 relationship between calculated and actual error. However, over land the observed
11 random variability is approximately 0.4 ppm larger than the variability expected
12 from noise. Synoptic variations in XCO_2 could potentially explain much of this extra
13 0.4 ppm however other sources of variability could be due to the strong non-
14 linearities in the retrieval [e.g. Kulawik *et al.*, 2008] or local variability between the
15 true and *a priori* in the interferences, or non-retrieved parameters. Over the ocean
16 there appears to be an even stronger one-to-one relationship between the
17 calculated uncertainty and the actual uncertainty except for calculated uncertainties
18 less than approximately 0.25 ppm which show a strong inverse relationship. We
19 find that these observations (not shown) tend to occur in the tropics in cloudy
20 regions and that the observations tend to have very high signal-to-noise ratios.

21 We next test whether the calculated measurement noise is a useful value for
22 predicting the expected distribution of observations within a neighborhood.

23 Because each δ_{obs} is drawn from a distribution with a different variance, we treat
24 the sample of each set of observations, $[\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_N]$, as being drawn from an
25 uncorrelated distribution with individual variances σ_{obs}^2 . Accordingly, the variance
26 of this sample should be the average of the individual variances σ_{obs}^2 :

27

$$28 \quad \text{Var}[\widehat{X}_{obs} - \widehat{X}_{mean}] = |[\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_N]| = \frac{1}{N} \sum_j^N \sigma_j^2 \quad (6)$$

29



1 The top right panel of Figure 1 shows a comparison of the observed variance of the
2 XCO_2 distributions (using the left side of Equation 6) within each neighborhood
3 (black circles) versus the expected variance in XCO_2 using the right side of Equation
4 6. Each black symbol represents a single neighborhood. In contrast to the top left
5 panel of Figure 1, this result suggests that the measurement error has no skill in
6 predicting the observed variance of XCO_2 within a neighborhood.

7 We next test whether the observed variance, versus that due to measurement
8 noise or sampling, explains the upper right panel of Figures 2, 3, and 4. To perform
9 this test, we perform the following steps:

10

- 11 1) Within each neighborhood, replace the calculated measurement error with
12 the “actual” measurement error as shown by the solid red line in the upper
13 left panel of Figures 2, 3, and 4, for each observation.
- 14 2) Create a simulated distribution of observations based on this new
15 uncertainty.
- 16 3) Randomly sample (or take) one of these observations → label this the
17 “modeled” observation.
- 18 4) Repeat steps 1-3 for all observations in the neighborhood.
- 19 5) Calculate the variance of this “modeled” set of observations for each
20 neighborhood.

21

22 The red dots in Figures 2b, 3b, and 4b show the modeled distributions using the
23 steps discussed above. The modeled distribution is more consistent with the mean
24 of the observed distribution relative to the one-to-one line. However, it is clear from
25 this simulation that errors due to random noise and sampling do not explain the
26 observed variance for each neighborhood although the distribution of variances for
27 the ocean show much better agreement relative to the land distributions.

28

29 *3.3 H2: Uncertainties are correlated*

30



1 We next test whether observed correlations in the data could explain the
2 distributions of the data within a neighborhood. Figures 5 shows the joint
3 distribution of the XCO₂ anomaly and a 0.3 second lagged anomaly in a
4 neighborhood. If the data were uncorrelated then the joint distribution should be
5 circular; the asymmetric distribution therefore implies that the errors, as
6 empirically described by the differences, are correlated. Figures 6a and 6b show
7 that autocorrelation is observed both in time for measurements made on the order
8 of 1 second of each other, and with respect to the spatially adjacent “footprints,” the
9 8 simultaneous measurements made by the OCO-2 instrument at each time. The
10 range of correlations for the different observation types, land nadir, land glint, and
11 ocean glint are 0.45, 0.43, and 0.28 as a function of footprint and 0.31, 0.34, and 0.24
12 as a function of time.

13 In order to test whether these observed correlations could explain the
14 distributions shown in Figures 2, 3, and 4, we conservatively use a correlation
15 coefficient of 0.7 for all observations (an extreme case). We then use the following
16 procedure, building on the steps described in the previous section.

- 17 1) Within each neighborhood replace the calculated measurement error with
18 the “actual” measurement error as shown in the upper left panels of Figures
19 2, 3, and 4 for an observation
- 20 2) Starting with the first observation (in time) within a neighborhood for
21 Footprint #1, sample a value for the observation from the distribution of
22 “actual” measurement errors. Label this the “modeled” observation.
- 23 3) For all subsequent observations in time for Footprint #1, sample each
24 “modeled” observation from a distribution that is correlated with the
25 modeled observation at the previous time step and has a variance
26 corresponding to the “actual” measurement error.
- 27 4) For observations in Footprints #2-8, sampling each modeled observation
28 from a distribution correlated with the modeled observation at the same
29 time step in the previous (adjacent) footprint, again with a variance
30 corresponding to the “actual” error.



1 5) Calculate variance of this “modeled” set of observations, for each
2 neighborhood.

3

4 As can be seen in the lower left panels of Figures 2, 3, and 4, adding correlations to
5 the data makes the comparison worse because the modeled distributions become
6 much narrower relative to the modeled distributions in the upper right panels of
7 these figures. Our conservative choice of a 0.7 correlation between observations at
8 adjacent times and footprints illustrates this effect clearly. We therefore conclude
9 that while correlations are empirically observed in the data, they cannot completely
10 explain the observed distributions within the small neighborhoods.

11

12 *3.4 H3: Uncertainties within a small area are characterized as a slowly varying bias.*

13

14 We next examine whether “non-random” uncertainties could explain the
15 observed distributions in the upper right panels of Figures 2,3, and 4. For example,
16 as shown in Equation (1), the jointly retrieved parameters ($\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}_a$) might remain
17 constant across a neighborhood but the Averaging kernel associated with this term,
18 which is given by $\mathbf{A}_{xy} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{L}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{L}}{\partial \mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{GK}_y$, can vary across a neighborhood as the pointing
19 angle varies. The effect of non-retrieved parameters such as instrument effects or
20 spectroscopy on the estimate can vary for the same reason.

21

22 Figure 7 shows the variation of XCO₂ across one of the ocean neighborhoods
23 for all 8 OCO-2 footprints (denoted by “FP”). The right panel shows the observed
24 distribution in black relative to the mean XCO₂ of the neighborhood. For reference,
25 the red dashed line in the right panel indicates the expected distribution if only
26 random noise explained the variability. The slope shown in Figure 7 represents an
27 extreme case but demonstrates that observations can pass the set of quality flags
28 but still show this unlikely behavior over the ocean. Figure 8 shows the distribution
29 of all slopes across all land-nadir neighborhoods used in this study and different fits
 (Gaussian, Lorentz, Laplace) to the distribution. The Laplace distribution provides



1 the best overall fit so we use its functional form as a simple, convenient description
2 of the shape of the sharply peaked slope distribution. More complex models such as
3 Gaussian mixtures might also describe the shape of this distribution of slopes as
4 drawn from several distinct “populations” of neighborhoods, but we leave such an
5 analysis to future work. The RMS of the distribution is approximately 1.28, which is
6 much larger than expected variations in XCO₂ (e.g. Figure 1 and Keppel-Aleks *et al.*
7 [2012]).

8 For land-nadir, land-glint, and ocean-glint data the variance of the slopes is given
9 by 1.28 ppm/100 km, 1.12 ppm / 100 km, and 0.48 / 100km respectively. To test
10 whether these slowly varying changes explains the distribution of XCO₂ within small
11 neighborhoods we follow the same steps described in Section 3.2 and 3.3 but now
12 add another:

13

- 14 1) Within each neighborhood replace the calculated measurement error with
15 the “actual” measurement error as shown in the upper left panels of Figures
16 2, 3, and 4 for an observation
- 17 2) Starting with the first observation (in time) within a neighborhood for
18 Footprint #1, sample a value for the observation from the distribution of
19 “actual” measurement errors. Label this the “modeled” observation.
- 20 3) For all subsequent observations in time for Footprint #1, sample each
21 “modeled” observation from a distribution that is correlated with the
22 modeled observation at the previous time step and has a variance
23 corresponding to the “actual” measurement error.
- 24 4) For observations in Footprints #2-8, sampling each modeled observation
25 from a distribution correlated with the modeled observation at the same
26 time step in the previous (adjacent) footprint, again with a variance
27 corresponding to the “actual” error.
- 28 5) Adjust each modeled observation with a linear function where the slope of
29 the linear function is randomly chosen from the fitted Laplace distribution to
30 the slopes (e.g., the Laplace function shown in Figure 8)



1 6) Calculate variance of this “modeled” set of observations, for each
2 neighborhood.

3
4 Figures 2, 3, and 4 (lower right panels) show the best overall agreement
5 between modeled distributions of XCO₂ relative to the mean and the expected
6 distributions based on observations, demonstrating that a slowly varying bias is
7 needed to best explain the observed distributions within a grid of approximately
8 100 km x 10 km.

9 The expected “true” variability across a typical 100 km neighborhood is ~0.1 to
10 ~0.3 ppm (e.g. Figure 1). Each typical observation has a random error related to
11 noise and a systematic error that is in principal bounded by the calculated
12 interference error (e.g. Boxe *et al.*, 2010) and is approximately 0.2 ppm. The 100 km
13 x 10.5 sizes for the small neighborhoods used for this analysis is a fortuitous size
14 because the expected latitudinal variability is approximately the same or smaller as
15 the mean interference error (Figure 1). Within a typical grid box an OCO-2 observed
16 measurement over land is within 1.28 / 2, or ~0.65 ppm of the mean XCO₂ value.
17 For these reasons, and we expect that a typical observation over land has at least a
18 systematic error of at least 0.65 ppm, about 2 to 3 times larger than the calculated
19 interference error.

20 In contrast, the observed distributions of slopes and (mean slope of 0.48 ppm /
21 100 km or mean error of 0.24 ppm) for the ocean data is only 70% larger than the
22 mean calculated interference error of 0.14 ppm. Because the distribution of ocean
23 data within “bins” (Figure 4, upper left panel) is also well described by the
24 calculated random error, we conclude that the ocean glint data is reasonably well
25 characterized by its calculated uncertainties for this size of a grid box, except for
26 calculated noise (or precision) uncertainties that are less than ~0.25 ppm.

27 We find no relationship between the distribution of slopes for a neighborhood
28 and the corresponding mean of the calculated interference error suggesting that the
29 calculated interference error does not explain the observed slope within a
30 neighborhood, in contrast to the measurement error. However, there is a



1 correlation between the slope and the estimated magnitude of interferences, such as
2 aerosol optical depth, surface albedo, and surface pressure. For example, the
3 correlation between the slopes of land-glint data with the mean uncertainty in the
4 interferences is 0.06 whereas the correlation between the observed slopes in XCO₂
5 and similarly calculated observed slopes in aerosol optical depth is 0.37. This
6 correlation suggests that the observed slow variations in XCO₂ across a
7 neighborhood could be related to how interferences affect the XCO₂ estimate as
8 OCO-2 takes observations across a neighborhood.

9

10 4.0 Summary

11

12 The analysis described in this paper uses the observed XCO₂ variability across
13 small neighborhoods, in comparison to expected variations, to evaluate the
14 precision and accuracy of the XCO₂ data. We find that the precision and accuracy of a
15 typical ocean measurement is approximately 0.35 and 0.2 ppm respectively,
16 consistent with the calculated errors (assuming that the accuracy is bounded by the
17 calculated interference error and does not include smoothing error). The precision
18 and accuracy of a typical land measurement (both nadir and glint) is approximately
19 0.75 ppm and 0.65 ppm. These values can be compared to the calculated
20 measurement and interference errors of approximately 0.36 ppm and 0.2 ppm.
21 Much of the difference between the observed precision and calculated measurement
22 error could be due to natural synoptic variability in XCO₂ but is also likely due to
23 non-linearities in the retrieval or random components of interference error. The
24 accuracy is estimated from observed gradients in XCO₂ of approximately 1.28 ppm /
25 100 km across the small neighborhoods used in this analysis. Natural variability can
26 likely explain at most about 0.1 to 0.3 ppm of this of 1.28 ppm. The accuracy is
27 estimated as being at least half the value of this slope or ~0.65 ppm.

28 This 0.65 ppm estimate for the accuracy of the land data could be a lower bound
29 because it is based on observed gradients across a region and not direct
30 comparisons against TCCON, although the OCO-2 data are bias corrected using



1 TCCON data (Wunch *et al.* 2011). We find a relationship between these gradients
2 and interferences such as aerosol optical depth and surface albedo suggesting that
3 these interferences are the cause of the gradients.

4 The analysis discussed in this paper can be applied to future versions of the
5 OCO-2 data in which more accurate calculations of the interferences are included or
6 additional data quality flags are used to remove spurious individual observations or
7 sets of observations. For example, another set of data quality flags could be
8 developed to remove observations that vary too much over a region. In addition,
9 Connor *et al.* (2016, submitted) finds that other instrumental and spectroscopic
10 uncertainties need to be included in the error analysis and that these additional
11 components will likely have a random and systematic component, thus possibly
12 explaining the discrepancy between calculated and actual uncertainties discussed
13 here. A future study in which the calculated uncertainties discussed in Connor *et al.*
14 (submitted) repeats the steps shown in this paper could be of great value for
15 explaining the observed variations across the small neighborhoods used in our
16 analysis.

17

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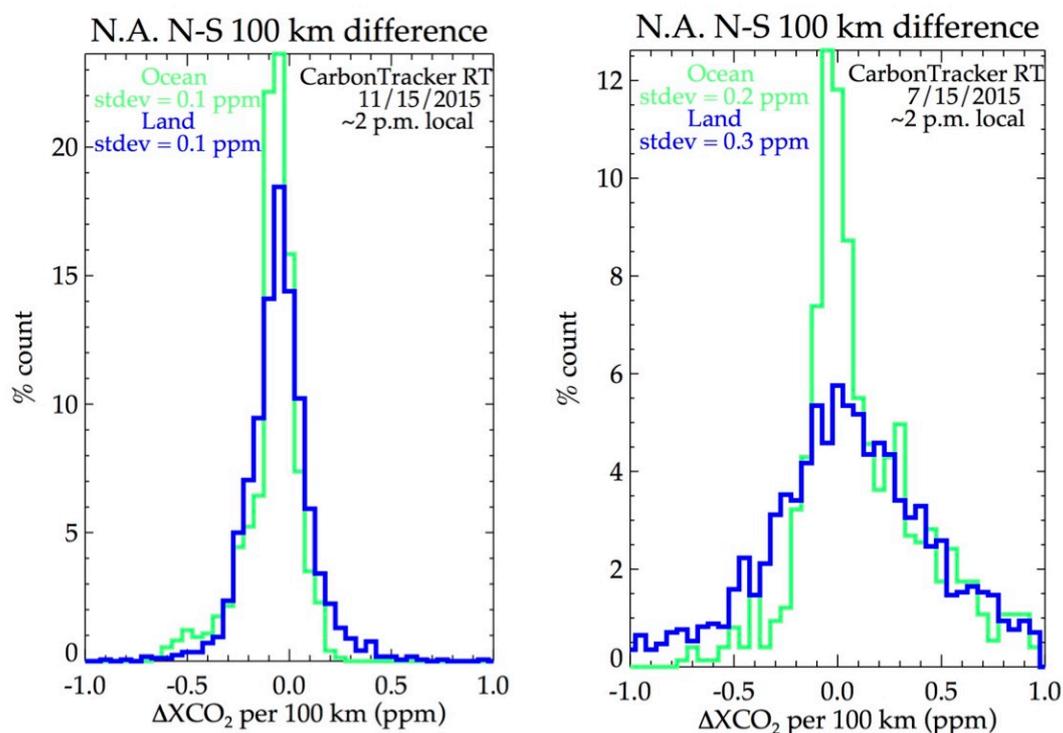
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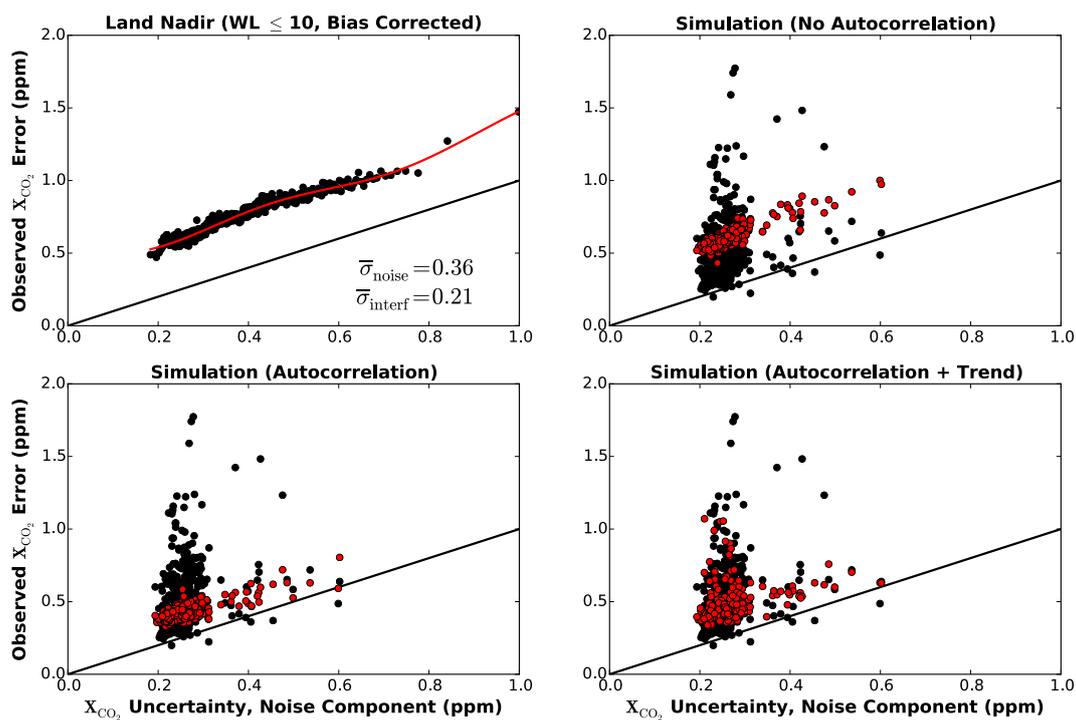


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Figure 1: Distribution of latitudinal XCO_2 gradients as calculated by the high resolution, “Real Time”, Carbon Tracker model for November 2015 (left panel) and July 2015 (right panel) over North America and the nearby oceans. The latitude grid is 1 degree or ~ 110 km. The gradients are re-scaled to 100 km for comparison to the XCO_2 gradients discussed in this paper.

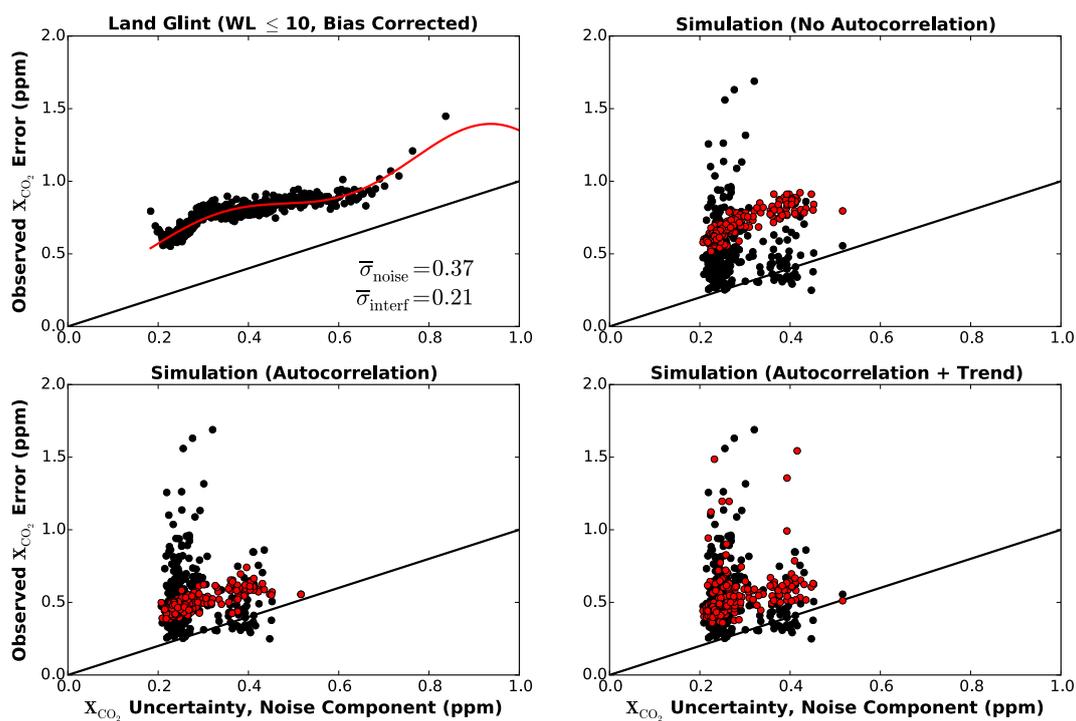


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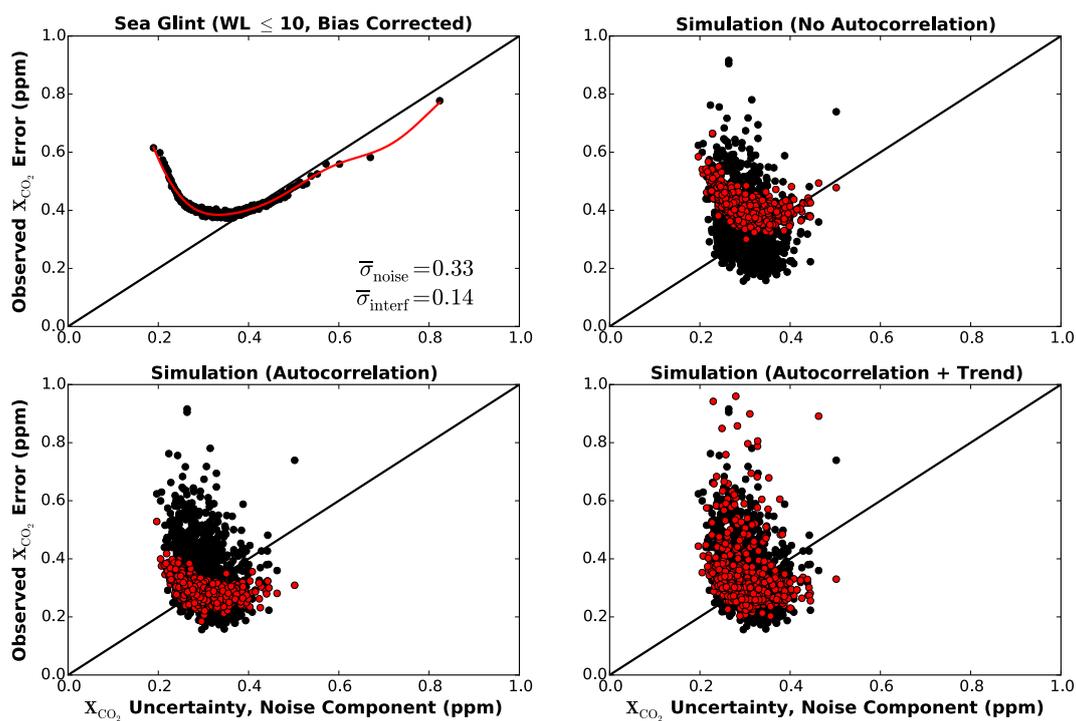
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Figure 2: Calculated, observed, and modeled uncertainties for Land-Nadir observations. Black circles are the observed distributions and red circles are modeled distributions assuming sampling and random error (upper right), correlated errors (bottom left) and correlated plus trend in error (bottom right).



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Figure 3: Observed and modeled distributions for Land-Glint data

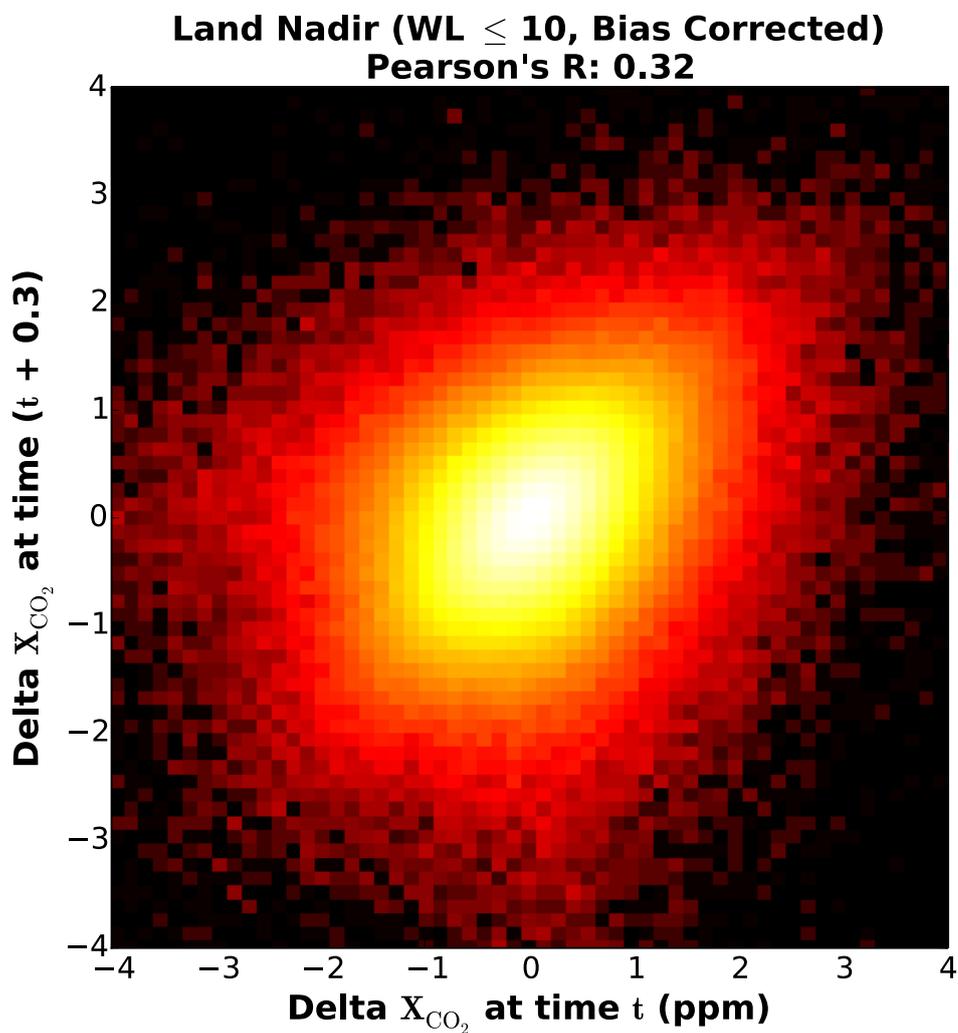


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Figure 4: Observed and modeled distributions for Sea-Glint data.



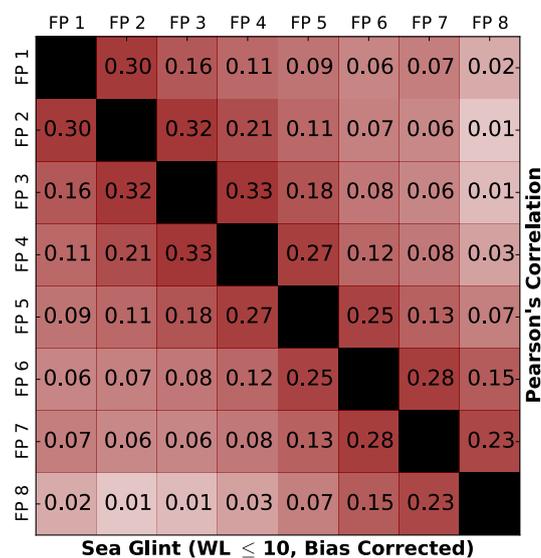
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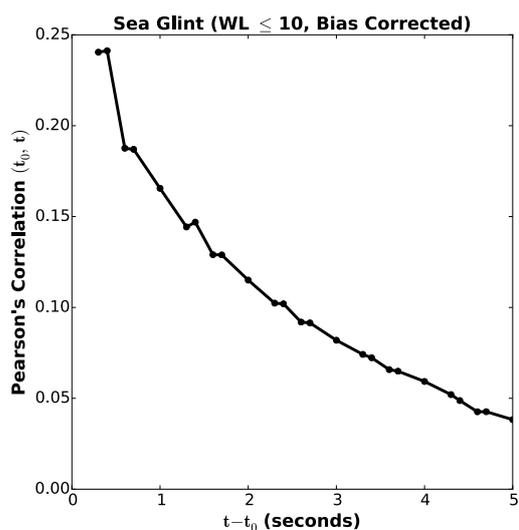
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5 Figure 5: Distribution of X_{CO_2} values between time steps for the set of observations from each
6 "small neighborhood" used in this analysis.
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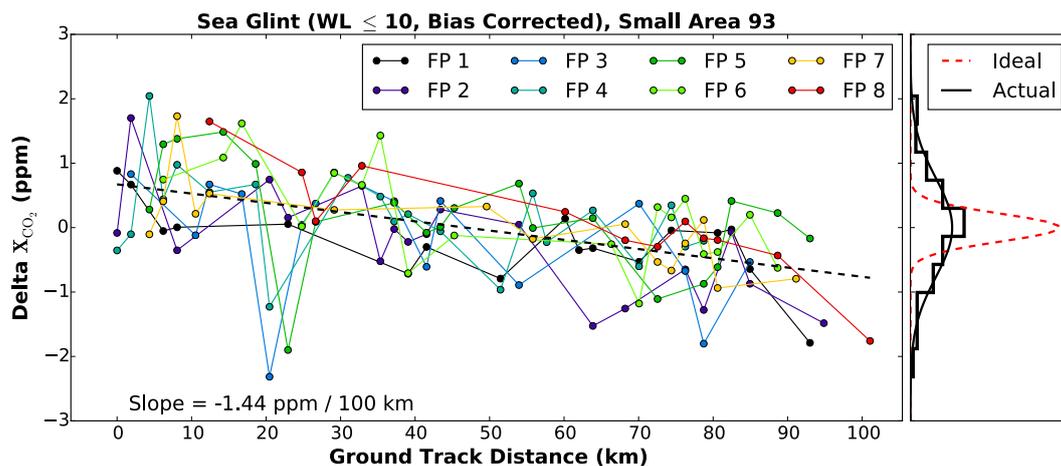


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Figure 6: (Top) Correlation of differences across pixels between observed minus mean within a neighborhood. (Bottom) correlation between observations for a single pixel.

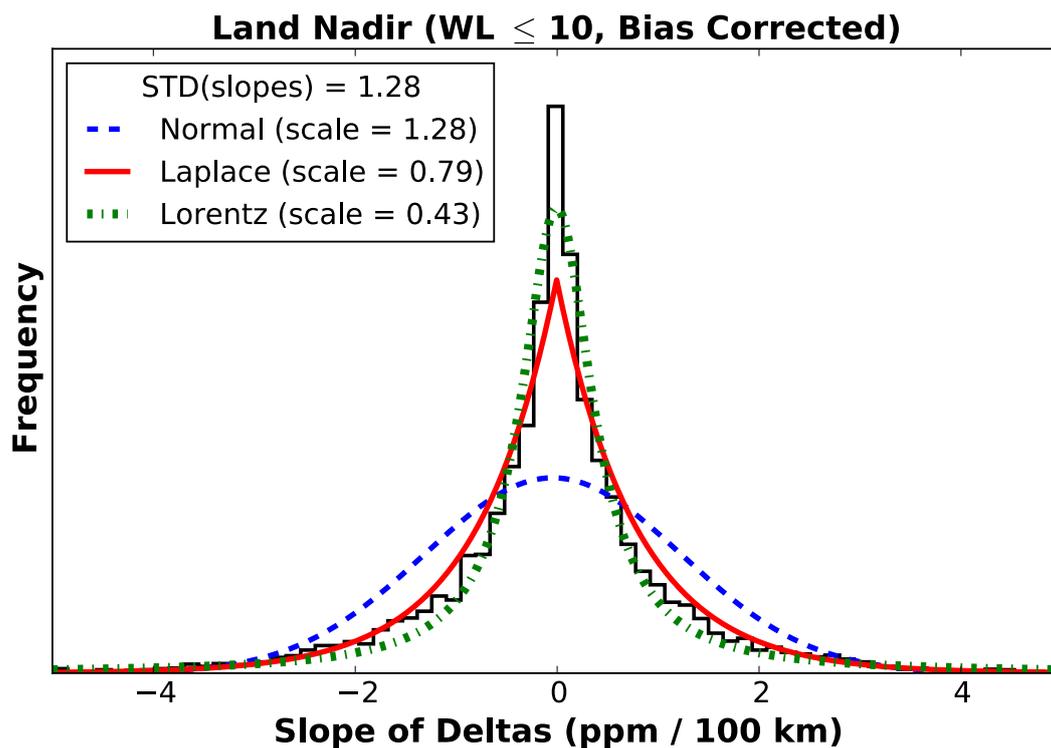


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Figure 7: The difference between X_{CO_2} and the mean value for one of the small neighborhoods (or areas) used in this analysis. The left panel shows the differences for each footprint (FP), representative of one of the OCO-2 observations. The right panel shows the observed distribution (actual) and one calculated if the distributions were representative of the calculated random error.



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Figure 8: The distributions of slopes of the observed XCO₂ gradients across all the small neighborhoods corresponding to Land Nadir observations.