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# Global high-resolution simulations of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> using a NIES transport model to produce a priori concentrations for use in satellite data retrievals

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## Abstract

The Greenhouse gases Observing SATellite (GOSAT) measures column-averaged dry air mole fractions of carbon dioxide and methane ( $XCO_2$  and  $XCH_4$ , respectively). Since the launch of GOSAT, model-simulated three-dimensional concentrations from a National Institute for Environmental Studies offline tracer Transport Model (NIES TM) have been used as a priori concentration data for retrieving  $XCO_2$  and  $XCH_4$  from GOSAT short-wavelength infrared spectra at NIES. Though a priori concentrations for retrievals are optional, more reliable concentrations are desirable. In this paper we describe the newly developed NIES TM that has been adapted to provide global and near real-time concentrations of  $CO_2$  and  $CH_4$  using a high-resolution meteorological dataset, the Grid Point Value (GPV) prepared by the Japan Meteorological Agency. The spatial resolution of the NIES TM is set to  $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$  in the horizontal in order to utilize GPV data, which have a resolution of  $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ , 21 pressure levels, and a time interval of 3 h. GPV data are provided to the GOSAT processing system with a delay of several hours, and the near real-time model simulation produces a priori concentrations driven by diurnally varying meteorology. A priori variance–covariance matrices of  $CO_2$  and  $CH_4$  are also derived from the simulation outputs and observation-based reference data for each month of the year at a resolution of  $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$  and 21 pressure levels. Model performance is assessed by comparing simulation results with the GLOBALVIEW dataset and other observational data. The overall root-mean-square differences between model predictions and GLOBALVIEW analysis are estimated to be 2.28 ppm and 12.68 ppb for  $CO_2$  and  $CH_4$ , respectively, and the seasonal correlation coefficients are 0.86 for  $CO_2$  and 0.61 for  $CH_4$ . The model showed good performance particularly at oceanic and free tropospheric sites. The model also performs well in reproducing both the observed synoptic variations at some sites, and stratospheric profiles over Japan. These results give us confidence that the performance of our GPV-forced high-resolution NIES TM is adequate for use in satellite retrievals.

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## 1 Introduction

Global atmospheric transport models provide an effective means of quantifying the global cycle of long-lived atmospheric trace gases such as carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) and methane (CH<sub>4</sub>). There is an increasing demand for high-resolution models that simulate global tracer transport over synoptic and sub-daily timescales to reproduce observed variations more accurately. For example, the Atmospheric Tracer Transport Model Intercomparison Project (TransCom) has initiated simulations of hourly and synoptic CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (Law et al., 2008; Patra et al., 2008), which will complement and make use of state-of-the-art measurements of greenhouse gases. In this TransCom continuous experiments, 25 transport models participated, and two of them ran at horizontal resolutions of 0.5° × 0.5° and the others ran at 1° × 1° to 3.8° × 5.0° resolutions. Patra et al. (2008) concluded that increasing model horizontal resolution clearly improved the synoptic-scale variations in simulated CO<sub>2</sub>. Maksyutov et al. (2008) compared model CO<sub>2</sub> results at horizontal resolutions of 2.0°, 1.0°, 0.5°, and 0.25° with continuous observations at a tower site in Japan and showed that increasing the model's horizontal resolution greatly improved the match with observations. But most of recent model simulations of these greenhouse gases still have carried out at horizontal resolutions of 1° × 1° ~ 3.75° × 2.5° (e.g. Allen et al., 2011; Saito et al., 2011; Patra et al., 2011).

Another demand for the high-resolution models stems from a new approach in which model-predicted CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations are used to give a priori concentrations for satellite spectroscopic data retrieval algorithms (e.g. Saitoh et al., 2009; Yoshida et al., 2011; O'Dell et al., 2012). Satellite observations cover most of the globe in several days to a few weeks, and retrievals based on satellite spectra require a priori concentrations of targeted gases. Global transport models can provide simulated a priori concentration profiles of those greenhouse gases in order to obtain optimal retrieval solutions and to physically interpret satellite-derived data. Instantaneous fields of view of satellite instruments are of the order of 10–100 km; e.g. 30 × 120 km<sup>2</sup> for

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the SCanning Imaging Absorption spectroMeter for Atmospheric CHartography (SCIAMACHY) (Buchwitz et al., 2005), and a nadir circular footprint of about 10.5 km diameter for the Greenhouse gases Observing SATellite (GOSAT) (Yoshida et al., 2011). For GOSAT, the retrieval precisions are estimated to be smaller than 3.5 ppm and 15 ppb for column-averaged dry air mole fractions of both carbon dioxide and methane (XCO<sub>2</sub> and XCH<sub>4</sub>), respectively (Yoshida et al., 2011). Furthermore, future satellites that observe greenhouse gases target higher precision with less bias. For example, the Orbiting Carbon Observatory-2 (OCO-2) is designed to retrieve XCO<sub>2</sub> theoretically with 1–2 ppm (0.3–0.5 %) precision for single-soundings with a small field of view with an area of 3 km<sup>2</sup> in nadir (Boesch et al., 2011). Therefore, much effort is currently being devoted to the development of global high-resolution transport models with less model error that meet the demands from satellite observations of greenhouse gases.

GOSAT is the first satellite to measure global distributions of XCO<sub>2</sub> and XCH<sub>4</sub> (Kuze et al., 2009; Yokota et al., 2009; Yoshida et al., 2011). At the National Institute for Environmental Studies (NIES), XCO<sub>2</sub> and XCH<sub>4</sub> are retrieved from the short-wavelength infrared (SWIR) spectra obtained by the Thermal And Near infrared Sensor for carbon Observation-Fourier Transform Spectrometer (TANSO-FTS) on board GOSAT. An optimal estimation method is used to retrieve XCO<sub>2</sub> and XCH<sub>4</sub> which minimizes the cost function

$$J(\mathbf{x}) = [\mathbf{y} - F(\mathbf{x})]^T \mathbf{S}_\varepsilon^{-1} [\mathbf{y} - F(\mathbf{x})] + [\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_a]^T \mathbf{S}_a^{-1} [\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_a] \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathbf{x}$  is the state vector to be retrieved,  $\mathbf{y}$  is the vector containing the observed spectrum,  $F(\mathbf{x})$  is the forward model that relates the state vector to the observed spectrum,  $\mathbf{S}_\varepsilon$  is the error covariance matrix of the observed spectrum,  $\mathbf{x}_a$  is the a priori state of  $\mathbf{x}$ , and  $\mathbf{S}_a$  is the a priori variance–covariance matrix (VCM) (Yokota et al., 2009; Yoshida et al., 2011). A priori state  $\mathbf{x}_a$  includes a priori concentration profiles of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>. The retrieved XCO<sub>2</sub> and XCH<sub>4</sub> at NIES are available after April 2009 at GOSAT User Interface Gateway (GUIG; <http://data.gosat.nies.go.jp/>).



and other observations to evaluate the model performance and investigate potential biases arising from the model simulation. Our conclusions follow in Sect. 4.

## 2 NIES transport model and numerical experiments

A NIES off-line global transport model (Maksyutov et al., 2008) has been used to simulate seasonal and spatial distributions of long-lived atmospheric constituents in the lower and mid-troposphere. The advection scheme of the model was semi-Lagrangian, and a mass fixer was adopted. The vertical mixing in the model was represented by cumulus convection and turbulent diffusion with explicitly parameterized Planetary Boundary Layer (PBL) physical processes. The earlier version of the NIES transport model (denoted NIES-99) was developed to simulate the seasonal cycles of long-lived tracer species at a relatively coarse horizontal resolution ( $2.5^{\circ}$ – $5.0^{\circ}$  longitude–latitude), and to perform source–sink inversions of atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  (e.g. Gurney et al., 2002, 2004; Patra et al., 2002, 2003, 2005a). Improvements to NIES-99 led to a recent development of the model (NIES-05), which has a higher horizontal resolution (tested on  $2^{\circ} \times 2^{\circ}$  to  $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$  in Maksyutov et al., 2008). NIES-05 was driven by the ECMWF 3-hourly PBL height data and the vertical resolution was enhanced to 47 levels for better resolution of the mixing processes in the boundary layer. For more details of NIES TM, see Maksyutov et al. (2008). NIES-05 was able to simulate observed diurnal-synoptic scale variability of tracers of interest, and participated in the TransCom hourly  $\text{CO}_2$  experiment (Law et al., 2008; Patra et al., 2008). The original version of NIES-05 used meteorology datasets from NCEP final analyses (<http://dss.ucar.edu/datasets/ds083.2/>).

We have recently upgraded NIES-05 to utilize a high-resolution meteorological dataset, the Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA) Grid Point Values (GPV) product (Belikov et al., 2011). GPV/JMA data is created from JMA Global Spectral Model, which is operated for short- and medium-range forecasts covering the entire globe with TL959 resolution and 60 vertical levels from the surface to 0.1 hPa and assimilated by 4D-Var within a framework of JMA's numerical weather prediction system

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<http://www.jma.go.jp/jma/en/Activities/nwp.html>; JMA, 2007). Original GPV data is provided by 0.5° × 0.5° horizontal resolution from the surface to 100 hPa and 1.0° × 1.0° above 100 hPa to 10 hPa (<http://www.jmbosc.or.jp/hp/online/f-online0a.html>). For use in GOSAT project, GPV data is specially extended at resolution of 0.5° × 0.5° up to 10 hPa.

5 Since November 2007, the extended GPV has been supplied for the GOSAT Data Handling Facility (DHF; JAXA/NIES/MoE, 2011) at NIES in near-real time (delay of several hours). The spatial resolution of the GOSAT version of the GPV dataset is 0.5° × 0.5° on 21 pressure levels (from 1000 to 10 hPa) and the time resolution is 3 h. We used both of GPV objective analysis and forecasts. The GPV data and the ECMWF 3-hourly  
10 PBL height data in GRIB2 format are automatically converted to direct access binary for NIES TM input on DHF everyday. Data size is about 1.1 GB per one model day.

We employed the NIES-05 model driven by GPV data to simulate atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations for use as a priori concentrations for GOSAT SWIR Level 2 processing at NIES. The horizontal resolution was 0.5° with 47 sigma vertical levels from  
15 the surface to 0.01 sigma, and simulated CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations were calculated for every observed day. Flux climatologies were prepared because no real-time fluxes were available. The climatological CO<sub>2</sub> flux dataset was that prepared for the TransCom model inter-comparison studies (Gurney et al., 2004), which consisted of four components: (1) annual constant fossil fuel emissions with a spatial resolution of 0.5° × 0.5°  
20 (Brenkert, 1998); (2) monthly terrestrial biosphere flux obtained using the Carnegie-Ames-Stanford-Approach (CASA) model (Randerson et al., 1997); (3) monthly varying ocean flux (Takahashi et al., 2002); and (4) monthly flux corrections obtained using the cyclostationary inversion approach (Gurney et al., 2004) with NIES-99. For CH<sub>4</sub>, we used the monthly varying flux for 2000, as obtained from Patra et al. (2009). This CH<sub>4</sub>  
25 flux is based on the Emission Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR) version 32FT2000 (Olivier and Berdowski, 2001) for anthropogenic CH<sub>4</sub>, and on GISS emissions (Fung et al., 1991) for natural CH<sub>4</sub>. The chemical destruction of CH<sub>4</sub> by OH radicals was calculated based on climatological monthly mean OH radical concentrations (Spivakovsky et al., 2000) and a temperature-dependent rate constant. All these

flux datasets were prepared at a spatial resolution of  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ , except for the  $\text{CO}_2$  fossil fuel emission.

Stratospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{CH}_4$  variations are poorly understood due to a lack of precise observations over the globe. In addition, it is difficult to reproduce accurately transport and chemical processes in the stratosphere in NIES TM. This is a common problem in many transport models, where the model age of air in the stratosphere tends to be younger than that observed (Saito et al., 2011, and references therein). To reduce model biases in the stratosphere, the model stratospheric concentrations above the diagnosed tropopause are nudged towards the zonal-mean climatological concentrations based on observations. The tropopause in the model is determined from the gradient of potential temperature versus geopotential height at every model grid box at every time step. Zonal-mean climatologies for  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{CH}_4$  were prepared at  $2.5^\circ$  resolution for every month.  $\text{CO}_2$  monthly climatological concentrations in the stratosphere were constructed using the Gap-filled Ensemble Climatology Mean (GECM; Saito et al., 2011). GECM is a three-dimensional daily  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration generated by combining information from in situ measurements and multi-model means, carried out in the framework of the TransCom satellite experiment in which six models participated. The mean age of air in the GECM stratosphere has been corrected using in situ profiles of  $\text{SF}_6$ . The latest version of GECM was used here with further corrections in the stratosphere; i.e., the vertical gradient in GECM  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration at northern mid-latitudes from 30 hPa to 10 hPa was corrected to match  $\text{CO}_2$  observations (Aoki et al., 2003; Engel et al., 2009). The climatological stratospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  values were prepared from 2007 to 2015 with interannual variations for  $\text{CO}_2$ . For  $\text{CH}_4$ , monthly climatological values in the stratosphere were derived from satellite measurements by the Halogen Occultation Experiment (HALOE) (Russell et al., 1993), averaged over the period 1994–2005 to exclude the period of the Pinatubo eruption in 1991. HALOE provides a long time series of data, from October 1991 to November 2005 (Russell et al., 1993). Park et al. (1996) validated HALOE  $\text{CH}_4$  data against the following correlative data from space-borne infrared spectroscopy: the Atmospheric Trace Molecule

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presented in Sect. 3.5. For all the comparisons, the nearest horizontal and vertical model grid box to the observation location is selected.

### 3.1 Comparison with observations: annual-mean biases

Annual means of simulated CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations are compared with those from GV analysis (GLOBALVIEW-CO<sub>2</sub>, 2009; GLOBALVIEW-CH<sub>4</sub>, 2009) for the year 2008 at 260 (CO<sub>2</sub>) and 206 (CH<sub>4</sub>) GV sites (Fig. 2) because no GV-CH<sub>4</sub> dataset is opened for the years 2009 and 2010. Annual mean biases of the simulated concentrations against GV analysis are shown in Table 1 and Fig. 3. Simulated results averaged over 13:00–16:00 LT were used for the comparison. In general, the annual mean model biases (difference between simulations and GV analysis) are found to be less than ~ 1 ppm for CO<sub>2</sub> and ~ 10ppb for CH<sub>4</sub> at oceanic and Southern Hemisphere sites. The model also reproduces the GV pole-to-pole gradients very well for both CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>.

For CO<sub>2</sub>, the average annual mean bias and its standard deviation are  $-0.01 \pm 1.57$  ppm and RMSD of 2.28 ppm (Table 1), which shows good agreement with less than 1 % between the model prediction and the GV data at most of the sites. Some inland or near-continental sites show significant positive biases (e.g. LJO, La Jolla, California, 32.90° N, 117.30° W, 10 m a.s.l.; HUN, Hegyhatsal, Hungary, 46.95° N, 16.65° E, 248 m a.s.l.) or negative biases (BSC, Black Sea, Constanta, Romania, 44.17° N, 28.69° E, 3 m a.s.l.). LJO is located on the west coast of California and the GV dataset shows a clear seasonal cycle with small synoptic variations, which only involve differing oceanic air masses. However a large point source with CO<sub>2</sub> 15 ppm higher than the surroundings appears on the model grid close to LJO, and it is clear that in the model LJO is affected by plumes from this point source. This may explain the large model–observation mismatch at LJO. This might be caused by the high variability observed near source regions, which is not expected to be captured by global scale transport models. Even with the NIES TM 0.5° grids, such sub-grid scale dynamics could not be represented in the model. The BSC site is located in a coastal region of the Black Sea. Peérez-Landa et al. (2007a,b) studied the effect of regional and local meteorological

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conditions on CO<sub>2</sub> transport in the coastal area of Valencia, Spain, and concluded that coastal circulation and strong local flux gradients introduced large biases against observations in a model. When a digital filter is applied to the BSC record in the GV data, large irregular seasonal variations of about -5 to +5 ppm are found, against regular seasonal peak-to-peak amplitudes of 14.8 ppm. BSC appears to be affected by local-scale circulation and/or local fluxes, and this may explain the failure of the model to reproduce BSC variations, as is the case also with HUN. The HUN site, a tall tower site, has the largest model-observation mismatch in the TransCom 3 seasonal experiment (Gurney et al., 2004). The model tends to overestimate GV data at most of the tower sites (e.g. ITN051, Grifton, North Carolina, United States, 35.35° N, 77.48° W, 9 + 51 m a.s.l.), mainly because of a failure to reproduce the large seasonal amplitudes and interannual variations, due to their location in areas affected by biogenic CO<sub>2</sub>, such as forest or inland plain.

The simulated CH<sub>4</sub> mostly agree well with the GV data, with an average annual mean bias and standard deviation of 0.88 ± 14.16 ppb and RMSD of 12.68 ppb (Table 1). Significant positive or negative biases are found in Southeast Asia (SCS, South China Sea, shipboard observation), Eurasia (TAP, Tae-ahn Peninsula, Republic of Korea, 36.73° N, 126.13° E, 20 m a.s.l.; KZD, Sary Taukum, Kazakhstan, 44.06° N, 76.82° E, 601 m a.s.l.), and North America (BNE010, Beaver Crossing, Nebraska, airborne observation, 40.80° N, 97.18° W, 0–2000 m; LEF030, Park Falls, Wisconsin, United States, tower observation, 45.95° N, 90.27° W, 472 + 30 m a.s.l.) with maximum 76 ppb and minimum -49 ppb. TAP, on the western edge of Korea, is influenced by seasonally varying wind direction, and local and remote CH<sub>4</sub> sources such as wetland (Dlugokencky et al., 1993), and this causes large interannual and seasonal variations, which the model finds difficult to reproduce. The SCS shipboard track is located downwind of Eastern and Southeastern Asia and is affected by the complex wind circulation of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ). SCSN03 (3° N) and SCSN06 (6° N) in particular are points surrounded by Indochina, the Malay Peninsula, and Indonesian islands where CH<sub>4</sub> sources occur, such as wetlands and biomass burning. Located in the

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American Prairie, CH<sub>4</sub> at BNE010 exhibits scattered and large interannual variations and seasonal cycles, which is also difficult to reproduce by the model.

### 3.2 Comparison with observations: monthly biases

To assess the ability of the model to reproduce seasonal variations, the simulated monthly mean concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> for the year 2008 were compared with the analyzed seasonal amplitudes at GV sites (Fig. 4). Analyzed seasonal amplitudes at GV sites were taken from “seas” files stored in the dataset. The simulated results were detrended and monthly means of 13:00–16:00 LT concentrations used for the comparison.

The characteristics of the observed seasonal variability at oceanic sites and free troposphere sites (above 3000 m altitude) are generally reproduced fairly well by the model for both CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>, but relatively large biases are found at tower sites and some of the land sites. Standard deviations over all GV sites are 1.58 ppm for CO<sub>2</sub> and 14.7 ppb for CH<sub>4</sub>. Large seasonal biases over 10 ppm in CO<sub>2</sub> are seen at tower sites in mid-northern latitudes such as ITN (Grifton, North Carolina, United States, 35.35° N, 77.38° W, 9 m a.s.l.) and AMT (Argyle, Maine, United States, 45.03° N, 68.58° W, 50 m a.s.l.); both sites provide continuous measurements and are located near forested areas on the eastern coast of the United States. Seasonal biases at ITN and AMT show that the model seasonal amplitudes are smaller than those in the GV analysis; i.e., the model overestimates the observed summer minima in July and August and underestimates winter maxima. At continental sites with quasi-continuous measurements such as the towers, both the regional-local transport and daily flux variability, including temporal resolution of the biospheric fluxes, are found to be important in simulating such high-frequency CO<sub>2</sub> behavior (Geels et al., 2004, 2007; Patra et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2007). Patra et al. (2008) also found that at lower levels some models overestimated the magnitudes of synoptic variations at high-frequency observational sites at tall towers such as LEF (Park Falls, Wisconsin, United States, 45.95° N, 90.27° W, 472 + 11 ~ 396 m a.s.l.). These small-scale phenomena

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may influence model–observation mismatches at tower sites even though the comparisons are on a monthly basis. Except for such tower sites and inland sites, the model succeeds in capturing the GV seasonal variations with biases smaller than 5 ppm at most sites and for most months.

5 For CH<sub>4</sub>, the monthly model biases fall within some 20 ppb at oceanic and free troposphere sites (mostly airborne observational points). In particular, there appear to be no significant monthly model biases in the Southern Hemisphere. However, at continental sites such as TAP (Korea), HUN (Hungary) and ITN (North America), the agreement was poorer, mainly due to the influences of strong sources located near the sites and  
10 extreme climate conditions such as a strong inversion layer in a cold winter. Over near-equatorial regions, large biases over 50 ppb were also found at some sites such as DAA (north coast of Australia), SEY (the Indian Ocean), and CRI (west coast of India). These regions are influenced by nearby sources and the complex wind motion associated with the ITCZ and monsoon circulation, which affects transport of CH<sub>4</sub> from  
15 source regions. These conditions make it impossible for the model to reproduce the seasonal variations at these sites.

Statistics of monthly CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> biases against the GV analysis for the year 2008 are shown in Table 1 and Fig. 5. The overall correlation coefficients between the observed and modeled seasonal patterns at the GV sites are 0.86 for CO<sub>2</sub> and 0.61 for  
20 CH<sub>4</sub>, which shows a high degree of consistency between the model and the GV analyses. High correlations are found particularly at oceanic sites: correlation coefficients are 0.97 and 0.70 for CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>, respectively. Total model–observation differences (CRMSD in Table 1) are 0.51 and 1.02 for CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>, respectively, and better performance are found at oceanic sites. Generally, the model underestimates the GV CO<sub>2</sub>  
25 amplitudes (total RSTD 0.77) and overestimates the GV CH<sub>4</sub> amplitudes (total RSTD 1.25). Simulated CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> at the tower sites show relatively poorer performance, particularly for the CH<sub>4</sub> case with correlations of 0.68 for CO<sub>2</sub> and 0.22 for CH<sub>4</sub>. Tower sites are typically located near source regions on land. The use of the climatological flux dataset might make it difficult for the model to reproduce the large variations

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observed at the tower sites. Model transport errors such as PBL height, vertical diffusion may also affect on the model's reproductivity of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration observed at tower sites. Except for the tower sites, the model shows statistically good performance at the oceanic, land, and free tropospheric sites.

### 3.3 Comparison with observations: synoptic variations

Daily averages from the simulated results and observations were compared at Mauna Loa, Hawaii (MLO; 19.5° N, 155.6° W, 3397 m a.s.l.), South Pole, Antarctica (SPO; 89.98° S, 24.8° W, 2810 m a.s.l.), and Hateruma, Japan (HAT; 24.05° N, 124.8° E, 47 m a.s.l.). CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> data at MLO and SPO were provided by NOAA/ESRL in the WDCGG dataset. Daily CO<sub>2</sub> data at HAT were available from the Greenhouse Gases Trend Update (<http://db.cger.nies.go.jp/g3db/ggtu/index.html>) operated by the Center for Global Environmental Research (CGER), NIES. CH<sub>4</sub> data at HAT are hourly data (Tohjima et al., 2002, 2010; Tohjima, unpublished data, 2011). CH<sub>4</sub> observations at SPO are discrete observations and the other observations are continuous measurements. The continuous data and the 3-hourly model output were daily averaged based on local time for each site. As described in Sect. 2, GPV data are only available after December 2007, so the year 2008 meteorological data were used from January to November 2007 for the simulation.

Comparisons with continuous measurements of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> show that the model was able to capture the observed synoptic and seasonal variations at each monitoring station (Fig. 6). Simulated CO<sub>2</sub> at MLO shows good agreement with the observed CO<sub>2</sub> though the model underestimates the observed spring maxima in 2008 and 2010, while simulated CH<sub>4</sub> at MLO slightly underestimates the observed CH<sub>4</sub> by about 20 ppb after 2009. MLO is remote from the large source regions, which are mainly on land, and transport is therefore a dominant factor for CO<sub>2</sub> variability. Unlike CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> reacts with OH radicals during transport, which affects CH<sub>4</sub> variability. The interannual variability of atmospheric circulation is also important for the growth rate at MLO because transport determines the area the air mass come from, such as boreal Asia, the North Pacific,

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or the tropical Atlantic (Higuchi et al., 2002; Patra et al., 2005b). In this mean, the model transport reproduces the overall features of observed CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> at MLO, but the use of climatological fluxes in this study gives some discrepancies. At SPO, another remote site away from strong source regions, the observed CO<sub>2</sub> has very small seasonal variations. A gap in the simulated CO<sub>2</sub> at the end of January 2009 is due to the offset correction described in Sect. 2. Differences between the model and the observed small variations in the first half of 2010 are slightly large at 2 ppm. Otherwise, the simulated CO<sub>2</sub> trend generally matches the observed one. In spite of the OH sink, the simulated CH<sub>4</sub> reproduces the observed CH<sub>4</sub> at SPO very well except for the second half of 2010, where there occurs a large increase in observed CH<sub>4</sub>.

HAT is an island located on the East-Asian continental margin and is influenced by air masses transported from the Pacific Ocean in summer and from the continent in winter (Tohjima et al., 2002, 2010). Larger seasonal amplitudes and larger synoptic events are therefore observed here, relative to the background sites MLO and SPO. Though the CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes in the model are climatological, the model can simulate the observed seasonal pattern and occasional synoptic events such as the low concentrations in August 2008 and 2009. High-CO<sub>2</sub> events in winter are difficult to represent perfectly in the model, possibly due to transport of CO<sub>2</sub> from continental urban areas, but the model successfully simulates observed spring maxima. CH<sub>4</sub> at HAT is also well reproduced by the model; i.e., the model shows a clear seasonal pattern of summer and winter air mass exchanges. The model sometimes even captures sudden summer high CH<sub>4</sub>. Basically HAT is covered by oceanic air mass and the CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes in the model are climatological; thus, these high-CH<sub>4</sub> events are thought to be CH<sub>4</sub> transported from continental CH<sub>4</sub> source regions.

Table 2 lists the statistics (ratio of standard deviations, correlation coefficients, overall biases, centered pattern root-mean-square differences) between daily averaged modeled and observed CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> at the three sites. As described above, only CH<sub>4</sub> at SPO is discrete data and the modeled CH<sub>4</sub> is taken from the same date and time as the observation. The statistics suggest that the model can simulate the observed daily



CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> variations fairly well with a correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) > 0.8 at the three sites, except for CH<sub>4</sub> at MLO ( $r = 0.59$ ). The calculated RSTDs are nearly 1 and overall biases are less than 1 ppm for CO<sub>2</sub> and 10 ppb for CH<sub>4</sub>. CRMSDs are also below 1, indicating that the model performs reasonably well.

### 3.4 Comparison with observations: stratospheric profiles

There are few periodical high-precision observations of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> in the stratosphere, but observations are made over Japan about once a year using a balloon-borne cryogenic sampler operated by Tohoku University, Japan (Nakazawa et al., 2002; Aoki et al., 2003). In this study we compare the simulated stratospheric profiles of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> with the observed mean profiles from the balloon-borne data over Japan. The observed mean profiles and their standard deviations are obtained as follows: first the observed tracer concentrations over Sanriku (39.17° N, 141.8° E), Japan from 1985 to 2007 are averaged in each of five height bins: below 15 km, 15–20 km, 20–25 km, 25–30 km, above 30 km; then the concentrations at the highest level are shifted to match observations carried out on 22 August 2012 over Taiki-cho (42.48° N, 143.42° E), Japan (Nakazawa et al., 2002; Aoki et al., 2003; Nakazawa and Aoki, unpublished data, 2010). The simulated profiles on the same day over Sanriku are compared with the averaged observed profiles (Fig. 7). The simulated profile of CO<sub>2</sub> (corrected by age of air in the stratosphere, Sect. 2) is a close match to the observations with no bias on the day, and the difference between simulated and observed CO<sub>2</sub> profiles is within the standard deviation of the observed CO<sub>2</sub>. The simulated CH<sub>4</sub> profile also shows very good agreement with the observed profiles within the observed standard deviation, though the simulated profile tends to be smaller than the observed one at a height of about 100–20 hPa. Recently, De Mazière et al. (2008) compared CH<sub>4</sub> profiles from the Atmospheric Chemistry Experiment-Fourier Transform Spectrometer (ACE-FTS) launched on August 2003 with those from HALOE. They found both instruments showed similar average profiles and variability from 15 km to 70 km, and though ACE-FTS showed slightly higher biases compared with HALOE, they concluded that their differences

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were of the order of 5 % below 35 km (the target region of the present study) and were not significant because the error bars overlapped.

Though the model–observation comparison is for only one profile due to the lack of stratospheric observations, the agreement between the simulated and observed profiles shows that nudging the model stratosphere to the climatology field of CO<sub>2</sub> (corrected by age of air) and CH<sub>4</sub> (HALOE) works quite well with no bias on the observed day or within the observed standard deviations.

### 3.5 Global distributions

Overall, the model successfully reproduces the observed variations of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> as described in the previous sections. In this section, we present the latitude–longitude distributions for both the model surface level and the column-averaged dry air mole fractions. Column-averaged dry air mole fractions, XCO<sub>2</sub>, was obtained by weighting the concentration in each layer by the air mass in that layer from the model output at 21 pressure levels; thus,

$$XCO_2 = \sum_{n=L}^{21} CO_2^n \times \frac{\Delta P_n}{P_{srf}}, \quad (2)$$

where CO<sub>2</sub><sup>*n*</sup> is the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in layer *n* defined at a layer center in the pressure level coordinate, *L* is the lowest level of the grid (surface level), *P*<sub>srf</sub> is surface pressure, and Δ*P*<sub>*n*</sub> is the thickness of layer *n* in pressure. XCH<sub>4</sub> is calculated in the same way.

The temporal and spatial patterns of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> are primarily governed by seasonal cycles of the sources, sinks, and atmospheric transport. Column abundances are also sensitive to changes in surface pressure and the tropopause height (e.g. Washenfelder et al., 2003). Figures 8 and 9 show the simulated surface CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations, column CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>, and their differences for January and July 2010 at 13:00 LT, almost the same time as the GOSAT orbit descending node around 12:48 LT (Yoshida et al., 2011). Surface CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in January are highest over

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high-emission areas such as Siberia and Asia in the northern mid and high latitudes, and also over the equatorial regions (Africa, East South Asia, South America). Strong sinks in July are found in mid and high latitudes in Siberia and North America due to photosynthesis by land biomass in summer. Compared with the continental regions, the marine boundary layers exhibit low concentrations because of the absence of strong sources. In the Southern Hemisphere, the CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are relatively homogeneous, except for some limited continental areas such as South America. XCO<sub>2</sub> has less variation than surface CO<sub>2</sub>, as expected. Strong sources over China, India, and Equatorial Africa and a strong sink in Siberia are still recognizable in XCO<sub>2</sub>, particularly in July. Their difference (XCO<sub>2</sub> – surface CO<sub>2</sub>) is generally smaller in equatorial regions due to the high tropopause height, and larger in northern high latitudes due to strong sources/sinks and low tropopause height. In July their difference is positive over mid and high northern latitudes due to large sinks at the surface. Nakazawa et al. (1993) found that the observed seasonal variation of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration showed a phase delay of about 1 month between the lower and upper troposphere by using long-term airborne observations over Japan. This fact supports the positive difference between XCO<sub>2</sub> and surface CO<sub>2</sub> over strong sink regions in mid and high northern latitudes.

High-CH<sub>4</sub> regions are simulated at the surface over land both in January and July, and CH<sub>4</sub> is higher in the Northern Hemisphere than in the Southern Hemisphere throughout the year due to large CH<sub>4</sub> emission in the Northern Hemisphere. XCH<sub>4</sub> exhibits the same trend as surface CH<sub>4</sub>: relatively high in the Northern Hemisphere and low in the Southern Hemisphere. High-XCH<sub>4</sub> regions, which appear over South and Eastern Asia and Equatorial Africa, are associated with deep convection over these areas. Xiong et al. (2009) found a high-CH<sub>4</sub> plume over South Asia in the middle to upper troposphere associated with the monsoon season during July–September. These convective flows transport surface CH<sub>4</sub> to the upper tropopause and the model can capture such characteristics. While CO<sub>2</sub> is stable in the atmosphere, CH<sub>4</sub> reacts with O(<sup>1</sup>D) and Cl in the stratosphere in addition to chemical loss with OH radicals, creating a significant vertical decrease in the stratospheric concentration (Fig. 6). These

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atmospheric sinks for CH<sub>4</sub> create a negative difference in (XCH<sub>4</sub>–surface CH<sub>4</sub>) except for the equatorial region where the tropopause tends to be high due to strong convection.

Figure 10 shows the simulated surface CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations around Japan. The high-resolution model (0.5° × 0.5°; Fig. 9a) simulates a much clearer land–ocean contrast in CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations and synoptic-scale motions than the model with a resolution of 2° × 2° (Fig. 9b). An intrusion of air mass with low CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations from the Pacific is more sharply resolved in the 0.5° simulation than at 2° resolution. The 0.5° model appears to be able to resolve point sources of CH<sub>4</sub>, such as highly populated urban areas (e.g. Tokyo), as shown by Maksyutov et al. (2008) for CO<sub>2</sub>.

Figure 11 shows monthly zonal-mean latitudinal distributions of surface CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub>, and their standard deviations at 13:00 LT, and Fig. 12 those of CH<sub>4</sub>. Zonal-mean surface CO<sub>2</sub> shows a strong sink centered on about 60° N in July, which then spreads toward high and low latitudes in August. The seasonal amplitude for XCO<sub>2</sub> is about 9 ppm, which is about half of that for surface CO<sub>2</sub>, 15 ppm. This tendency is consistent with previous modeling studies (e.g. Olsen and Randerson, 2004). Variances are large in northern mid and southern low latitudes, reflecting activity of land biosphere. The longitudinal variations in XCO<sub>2</sub> are about 2 ppm at maximum. The north-to-south gradient of the concentrations modeled at the surface level and that of XCH<sub>4</sub> concentrations simulated at 13:00 LT were similar in trend; i.e., the concentrations in the Northern Hemisphere are higher than those in the Southern Hemisphere. XCH<sub>4</sub> values at every latitude are shifted to lower concentrations due to chemical OH loss in the tropopause and the stratosphere. Small peaks in XCH<sub>4</sub> in equator are found in equatorial regions throughout the year, possibly due to strong vertical transport of surface CH<sub>4</sub> by deep cumulus convection (e.g. Patra et al., 2009; Terao et al., 2011). CH<sub>4</sub> variance at the surface is high over most of the latitude band, reflecting the various CH<sub>4</sub> sources over land. This tendency is the same for XCH<sub>4</sub> but the variance is less than half the surface value. Relatively large variances in southern high latitudes might be due to the high elevation of the Antarctic Continent at over 3000 m, which makes this region susceptible

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to seasonal variations in tropopause height, as the stratospheric partial column of low CH<sub>4</sub> has a large weight.

## 4 Conclusions

We have developed the NIES transport model at a resolution of 0.5° × 0.5° × 47 sigma levels, driven by high-resolution meteorological data, GPV, with 0.5° × 0.5° resolution and 21 pressure levels (1000–10 hPa). This GPV-forced NIES TM has been designed to provide global high-resolution and near real-time a priori CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations for the GOSAT data retrieval algorithm to derive XCO<sub>2</sub> and XCH<sub>4</sub> at NIES. Since real-time fluxes of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> are not available, the flux climatologies were used with the trend adjustment to the observed background concentrations. To overcome the problem of stratospheric transport in the model, the stratospheric part of the model was nudged to climatological values using three-dimensional CO<sub>2</sub> climatology that was adjusted to observed age of air for CO<sub>2</sub> and long-term satellite observations from HALOE for CH<sub>4</sub>. We also updated the stratospheric part of the earlier version of a priori error variance–covariance matrices for CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> to give more realistic stratospheric values.

The model performance was assessed by comparing the model outputs with available observational records of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations. A large-scale, latitudinal distribution of the simulated annual mean CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations is found to be in good agreement with the analysis of GV sites, with overall annual biases and standard deviations of  $-0.14 \pm 1.57$  ppm and  $0.88 \pm 14.16$  ppb, and with RMSDs of 2.28 ppm and 12.68 ppb at 260 CO<sub>2</sub> sites and 206 CH<sub>4</sub> sites, respectively. In particular, pole-to-pole gradients of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> are reproduced exactly by the model with almost no biases. Comparison between monthly GV CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> and the model output showed that, despite large model–observation mismatch in monthly seasonal variations at some tower sites and some inland sites where large seasonal variations were observed, the model seasonal variations generally agreed well, particularly at

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oceanic and free tropospheric sites, with GV values with averaged correction coefficients of 0.86 for CO<sub>2</sub> and 0.61 for CH<sub>4</sub> in terms of seasonal variations. The observed daily or discrete time series at MLO, SPO, and HAT are generally well reproduced by the model with statistically good performance, though some discrepancies were found, possibly due to the use of climatological fluxes. In the stratosphere, the simulated vertical profiles and growth rates agree well with the average profiles from balloon-borne observations over Japan within the observed standard deviations.

The global CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> distributions, and XCO<sub>2</sub> and XCH<sub>4</sub> obtained are in qualitative agreement with previous studies. The 0.5° model can resolve synoptic-scale motions and point sources than the 2.0° model does. Seasonal amplitudes in zonal-mean XCO<sub>2</sub> are found to be almost half those for surface CO<sub>2</sub>. Zonal-mean XCH<sub>4</sub> shows different features from XCO<sub>2</sub> because of the chemical sinks in the atmosphere and its sensitivity to tropopause height.

These validations suggest that the model is able to reproduce fairly reasonable global concentrations as well as synoptic variations and give confidence in quantitative analysis of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> cycles using the model, and its use in providing a priori concentrations for satellite retrievals. This model has been implemented on the GOSAT DHF system and has been run every observed day, and the simulated results have been used for a priori concentrations for GOSAT XCO<sub>2</sub> and XCH<sub>4</sub> retrievals. As future satellite instruments like OCO-2 are expected to have smaller footprints or higher precision to observe greenhouse gases more precisely, the ability to simulate a priori concentrations with a higher-resolution model would be useful in reducing error in a priori concentrations. Thus the updated high-resolution concentrations and VCMs provided by the developed model have the potential to be powerful tools for a priori of satellite data retrievals as well as for the high-resolution global modeling of greenhouse gases.

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**Table 1.** Statistics to show the model performance against GLOBALVIEW analyses of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>: annual-mean biases and seasonal variations.

Tracer	Site type <sup>1</sup>	Number of sites	Annual mean		Seasonal variation		
			Biases and standard deviations	RMSD <sup>2</sup>	RSTD <sup>3</sup>	Correlation coefficients <sup>4</sup>	CRMSD <sup>5</sup>
CO <sub>2</sub>	Oceanic	74	-0.02 ± 1.03	0.17	0.83	0.97	0.27
	Land	93	-0.35 ± 1.46	3.36	0.83	0.91	0.41
	Tower	17	3.30 ± 2.56	13.60	0.64	0.68	0.74
	Free tropos.	76	-0.14 ± 0.61	6.76	0.78	0.93	0.39
	Total	260	-0.01 ± 1.57	2.28	0.77	0.86	0.51
CH <sub>4</sub>	Oceanic	58	0.90 ± 7.88	6.89	1.14	0.70	0.84
	Land	83	4.33 ± 17.92	39.43	1.26	0.62	1.01
	Tower	8	7.53 ± 27.42	21.30	1.75	0.22	1.80
	Free tropos.	57	-5.09 ± 6.81	38.40	1.18	0.62	0.96
	Total	206	0.88 ± 14.16	12.68	1.25	0.61	1.02

<sup>1</sup> Site types: the same as those defined in Fig. 2.

<sup>2</sup> Root-mean-square differences (RMSD).

<sup>3</sup> Ratio of standard deviation (SD), which is calculated by dividing the model SD by the observed SD.

<sup>4</sup> Pearson's correlation coefficient.

<sup>5</sup> Centered pattern root-mean-square differences (CRMSD), which is a measure of the distance between model and observation.

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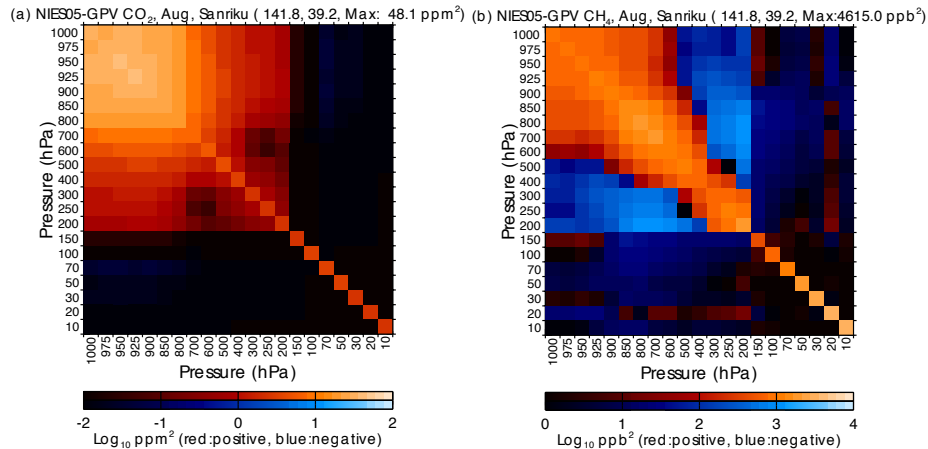
**Table 2.** Statistics to show the model performance against continuous measurements for daily-mean CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> at HAT (Hateruma), MLO (Mauna Loa), and SPO (South Pole). Observed CH<sub>4</sub> data at SPO are discrete data, and the simulated results corresponding to the measurement date are used for the comparisons. Statistics are defined as in Table 1.

Tracers	Site	Time interval of comparisons	Period of comparisons	Number of data	RSTD	Correlation coefficients	Overall bias	CRMSD
CO <sub>2</sub>	HAT	Daily	1 Jan 2007–30 Aug 2011	1638	0.82	0.90	−0.29	0.44
	MLO	Daily	1 Jan 2007–31 Dec 2010	1351	0.88	0.96	−0.41	0.28
	SPO	Daily	1 Jan 2007–31 Dec 2010	1439	1.12	0.98	0.73	0.25
CH <sub>4</sub>	HAT	Daily	1 Jan 2007–31 Dec 2010	1421	0.95	0.83	2.44	0.57
	MLO	Daily	1 Jan 2007–31 Dec 2010	1377	0.82	0.59	−9.83	0.84
	SPO	Event	1 Jan 2007–31 Dec 2010	191	0.92	0.96	−1.19	0.30

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**Fig. 1.** A priori error variance–covariance matrices of **(a)** CO<sub>2</sub> and **(b)** CH<sub>4</sub> over Sanriku, Japan (141.8° E, 39.2° E) in August at 21 pressure levels from 1000 to 10 hPa. Color scales are logarithmic, with ranges of 0.01–100 ppm<sup>2</sup> for CO<sub>2</sub> and 1–10 000 ppb<sup>2</sup> for CH<sub>4</sub>. Warm and cold colors indicate positive and negative correlations, respectively. Dark and light colors indicate small and large variance–covariance values, respectively.

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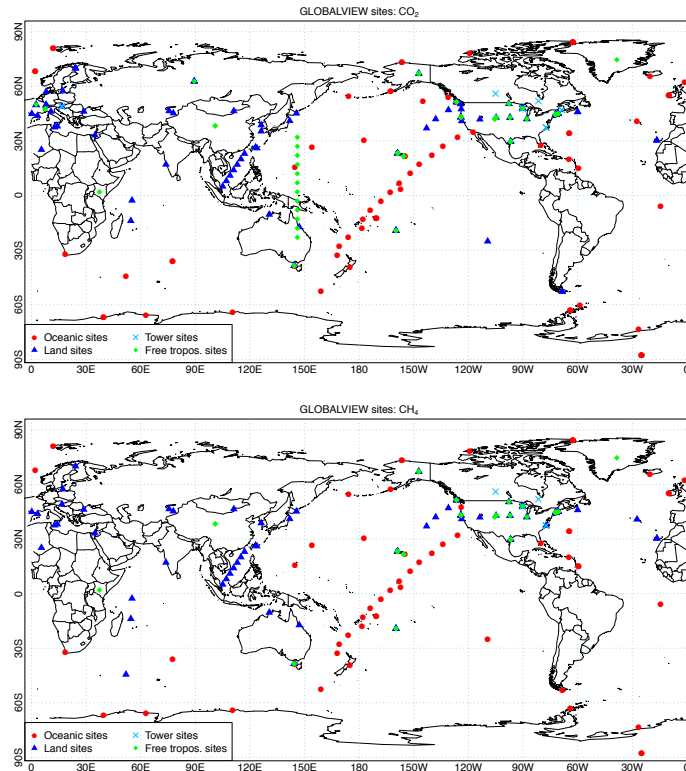
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**Fig. 2.** GLOBALVIEW site locations used for the comparisons of CO<sub>2</sub> (top) and of CH<sub>4</sub> (bottom). “Oceanic”; sites with marine-boundary-layer (MBL) marks in the GV dataset (gv\_table.co2 and gv\_table.ch4); “land”, sites below 3000 m which are neither MBL sites nor tower sites; “tower”, tower sites with sampling platform code “3” in GV file names; “free tropos.”, free troposphere sites located above 3000 m and marked as non-MBL sites, mostly airborne observational points.

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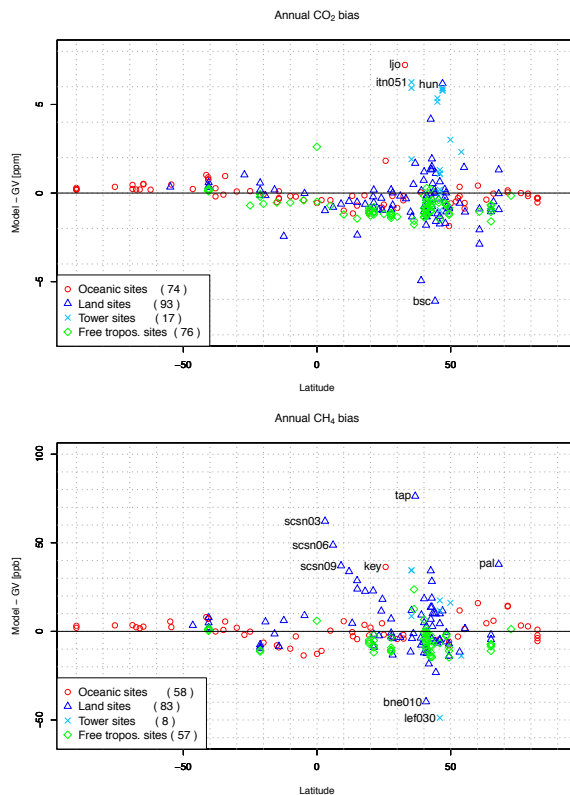
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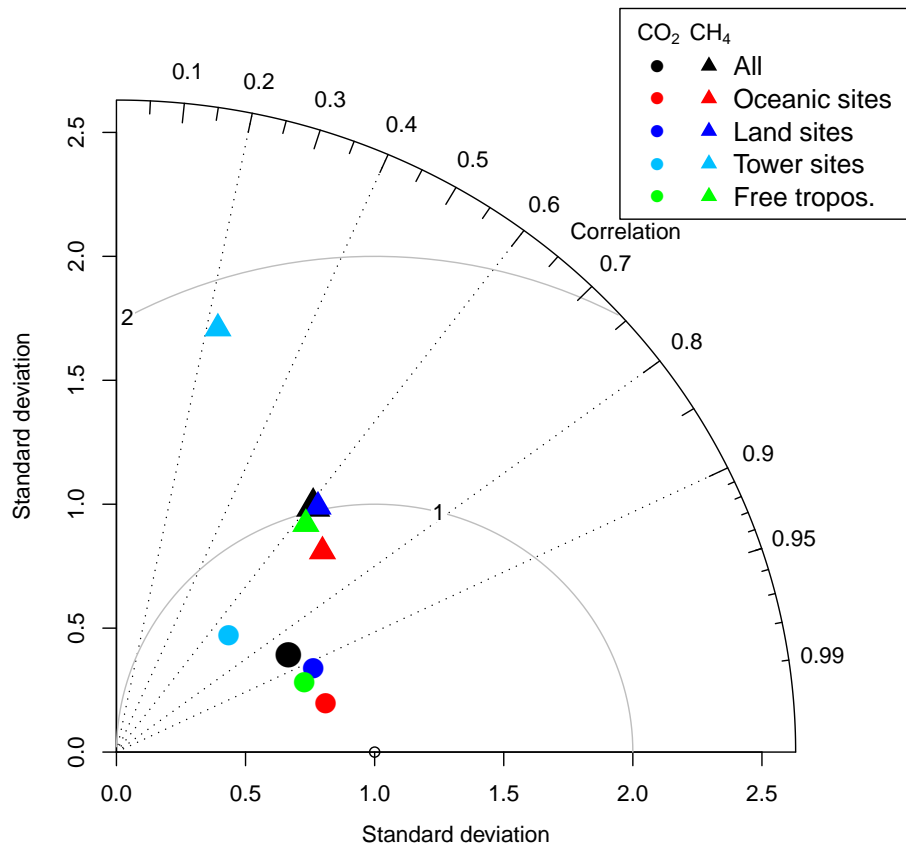
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**Fig. 3.** Latitudinal distributions of differences in annual mean between the simulated and GV data for CO<sub>2</sub> (top) and CH<sub>4</sub> (bottom) at GV monitoring sites. The simulated results at 13:00–16:00LT were used for the comparison. Letters in the plot represent the GV site code. Site types in the legend are the same as those defined in Fig. 2. Numbers in legend parentheses indicate the numbers of GV sites used for the analysis.

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**Fig. 5.** Normalized Taylor diagram showing a statistical comparison (Pearson's correlation coefficient, normalized standard deviation, and centered root-mean-square difference) between simulated CO<sub>2</sub> (solid circles) and CH<sub>4</sub> (solid triangles), and GV analysis, for monthly seasonal variations.

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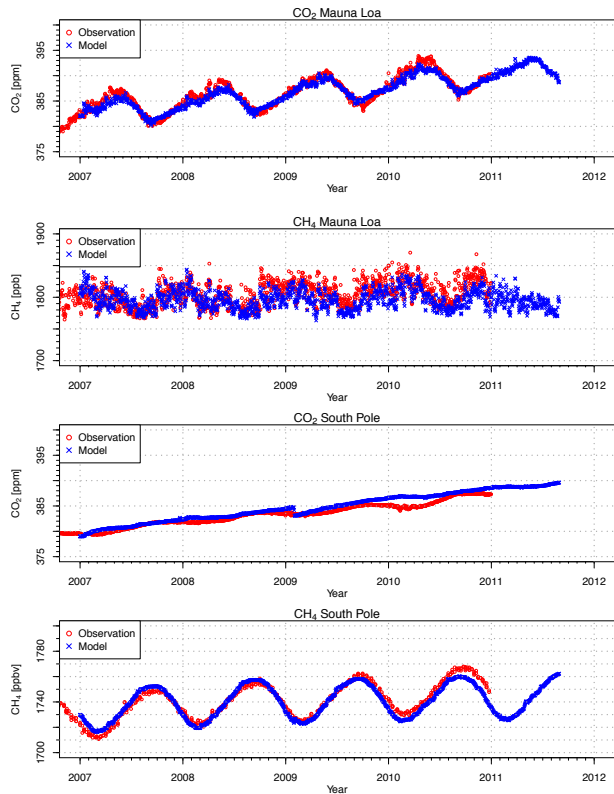


Fig. 6. Caption on next page.

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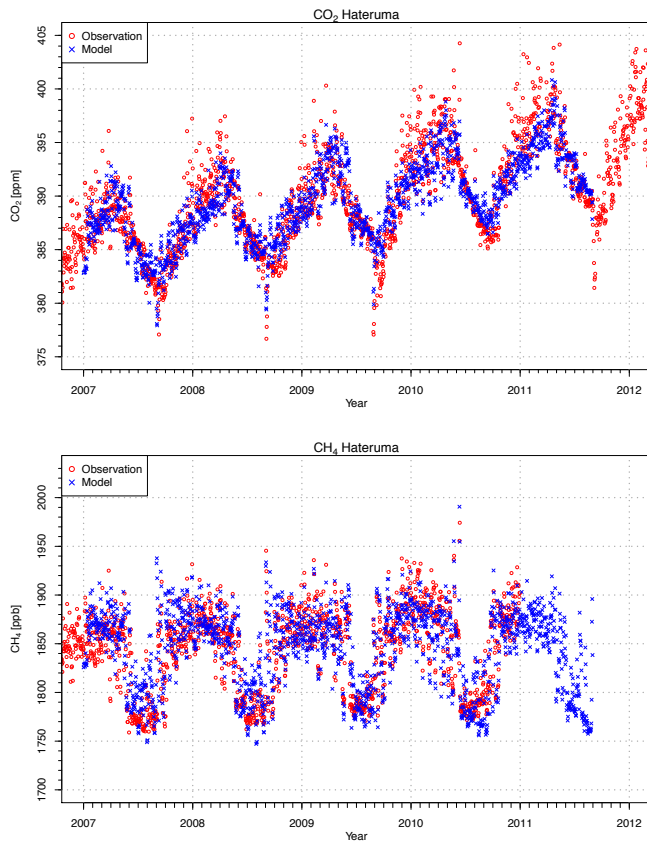
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**Fig. 6.** Observed and simulated time series of daily mean CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations at Mauna Loa, South Pole, and Hateruma sites. CH<sub>4</sub> observations at South Pole are discrete data and are plotted directly; quasi-continuous data at the other sites and 3-hourly model output are daily averages. A gap in the simulated CO<sub>2</sub> at SPO at the end of January 2009 is due to the offset correction (see text).

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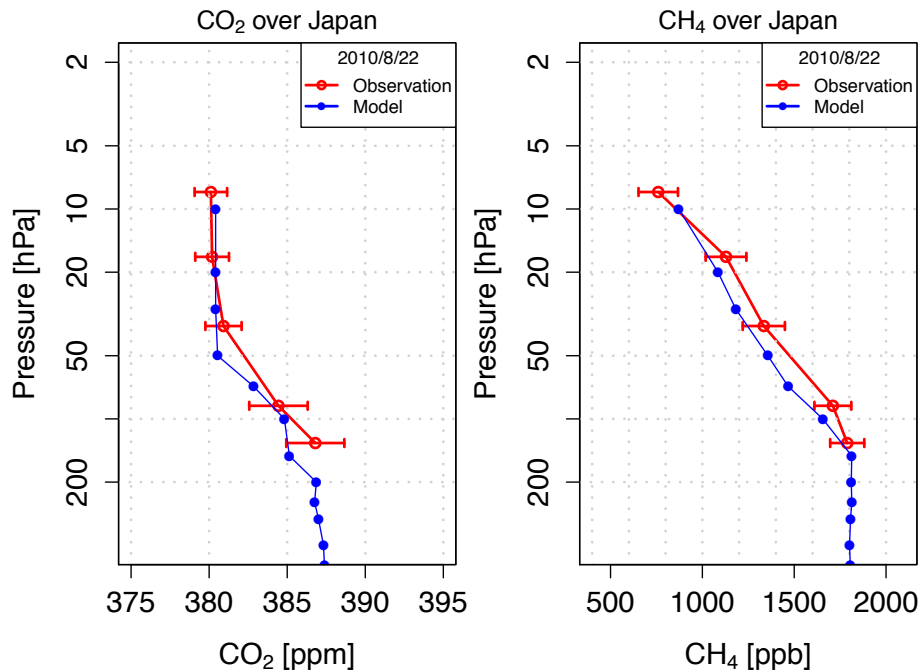
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## Global simulations of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> for satellite data retrievals

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**Fig. 7.** Vertical profiles of CO<sub>2</sub> (left) and CH<sub>4</sub> (right) in the stratosphere over Japan. The blue lines indicate NIES TM simulated data on 22 August 2010. The red lines are observed average profiles and their standard deviations derived from balloon-borne measurements over Sanriku, Japan (141.8° E, 39.17° N).

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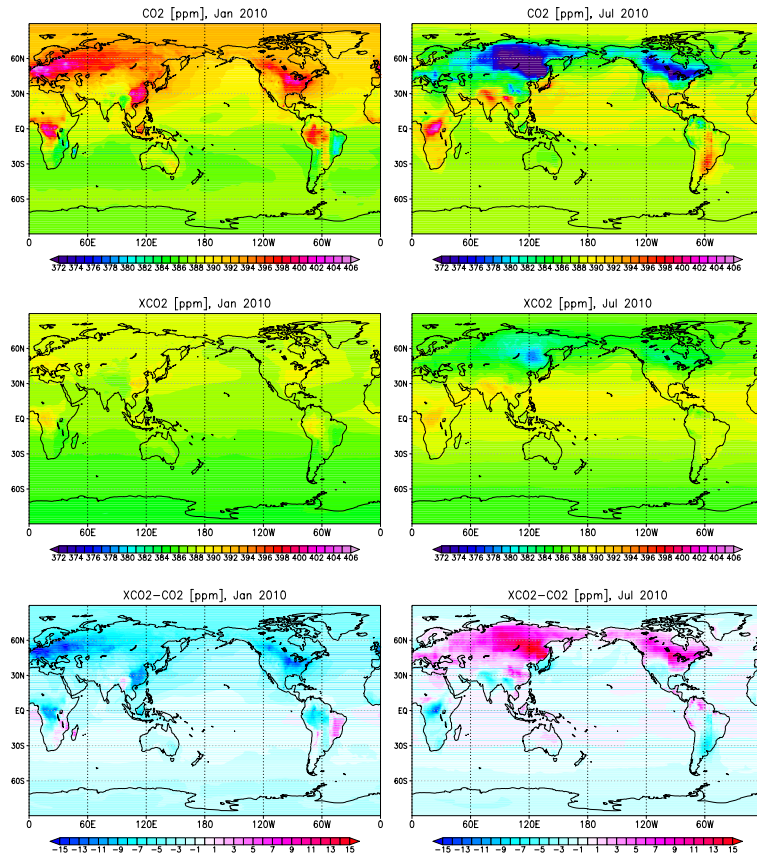
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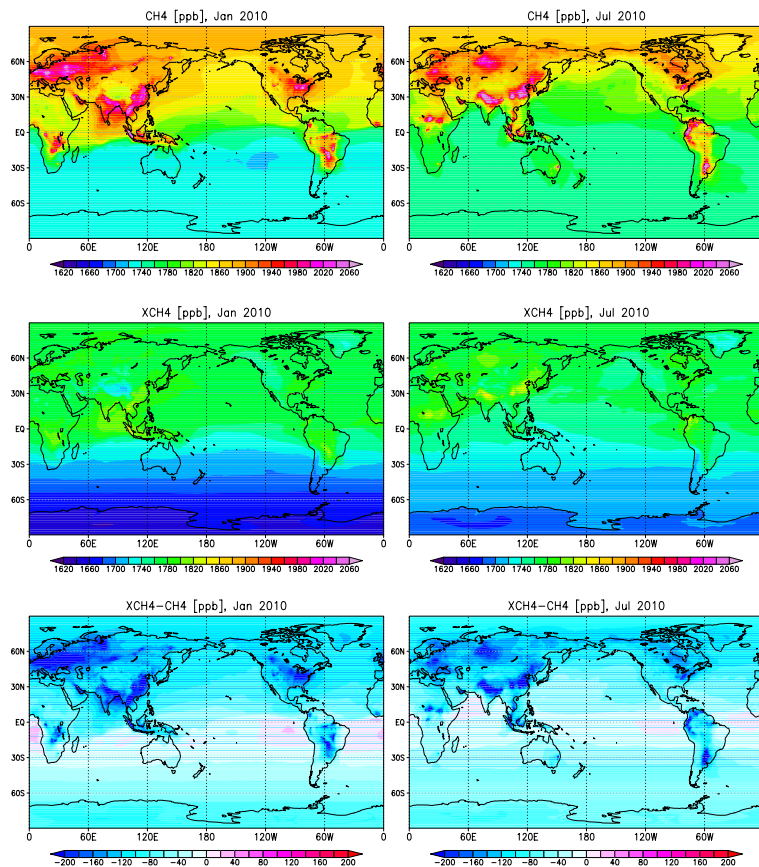


**Fig. 8.** Simulated monthly mean surface CO<sub>2</sub> (top), XCO<sub>2</sub> (middle), and their differences (bottom) at 13:00 LT in January (left column) and July (right column) 2010. Ranges of color scales are 372–406 ppm for CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub>, and –15 to 15 ppm for the differences.



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**Fig. 9.** Same as Fig. 7, but for CH<sub>4</sub>, XCH<sub>4</sub>, and their differences. Ranges of color scales are 1620–2060 ppb for CH<sub>4</sub> and XCH<sub>4</sub>, and –200 to 200 ppb for the differences.

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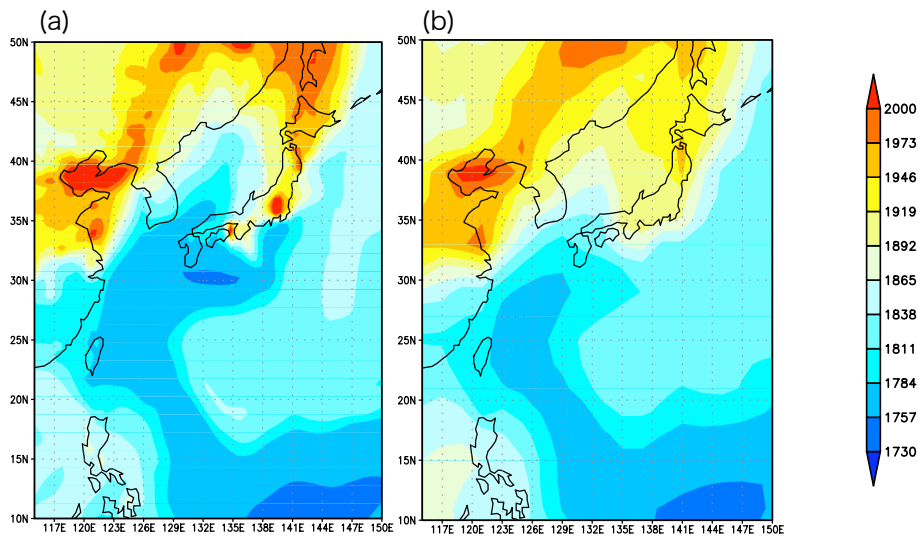
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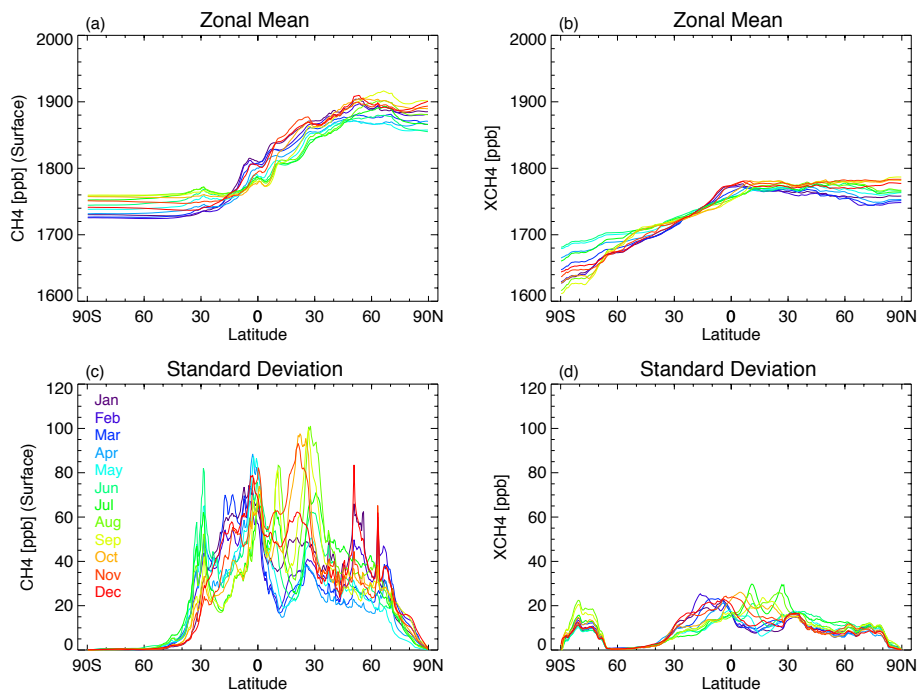


**Fig. 10.** Simulated surface CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations (ppb) around Japan at 13:00 JST on 6 July 2008 with a horizontal resolution of **(a)** 0.5° and **(b)** 2.0°.



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**Fig. 12.** Same as Fig. 11, but for CH<sub>4</sub> and XCH<sub>4</sub>.[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Printer-friendly Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)