

1 **More Frequent Spaceborne Sampling of X_{CO2} Improves Detectability of**
2 **Carbon Cycle Seasonal Transitions in Arctic-Boreal Ecosystems**

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13 **Key Points:**

- 14 • The Arctic Fourier Transform Spectrometer Investigation (AURORA) mission concept
15 addresses GHG sampling limitations in the Arctic
- 16 • AURORA uses a highly elliptical orbit (HEO) to increase repeat frequency, and a
17 panchromatic iFTS for wide spectral range (0.7–15.4 μm)
- 18 • Increased sampling frequency in the SWIR improves detection of spatial gradients in cold
19 season efflux in the Arctic relative to OCO-2

22 **Abstract**

23 Surface, aircraft, and satellite measurements indicate pervasive cold season CO₂ emissions across
24 Arctic regions, consistent with a hyperactive biosphere and increased metabolism in plants and
25 soils. A key remaining question is whether cold season sources will become large enough to
26 permanently shift the Arctic into a net carbon source. Polar orbiting GHG satellites provide robust
27 estimation of regional carbon budgets but lack sufficient spatial coverage and repeat frequency to
28 track sink-to-source transitions in the early cold season. Mission concepts such as the Arctic
29 Observing Mission (AOM) advocate for flying imaging spectrometers in highly elliptical orbits
30 (HEO) over the Arctic to address sampling limitations. We perform retrieval and flux inversion
31 simulation experiments using the AURORA mission concept, leveraging a Panchromatic imaging
32 Fourier Transform Spectrometer (PanFTS) in HEO. AURORA simulations demonstrate the
33 benefits of increased CO₂ sampling for detecting spatial gradients in cold season efflux and
34 improved monitoring of rapid Arctic change.

35 **1 Introduction**

36 Anthropogenic warming is occurring 3-4 times as fast in the Arctic compared to the global mean,
37 potentially unlocking climate feedbacks with global implications (Rantanen et al., 2022). The
38 changing Arctic carbon balance is a critical global uncertainty to future climate warming, and
39 processes that control this balance are already responding to warming (Natali et al 2019; Bruhwiler
40 et al 2021). Climate change has been shown both to increase photosynthetic uptake of CO₂, and to
41 accelerate emission of CO₂ back into the atmosphere (Jeong et al 2018). The balance of these
42 competing processes is an important determinant of whether the Arctic remains a net sink for CO₂,
43 — current sink magnitude estimated as 850 TgC (Watts et al., 2023) — or transitions to a net
44 source.

45 Growing evidence from Arctic and boreal site-level flux (Natali et al 2019; Watts et al 2021), and
46 tower and satellite CO₂ concentration measurements (Liu et al 2022; Byrne et al 2022), indicate
47 pervasive CO₂ release during the early cold season (Sep–Dec) across the pan-Arctic. These
48 emissions are linked to warmer soils and increasingly labile carbon and have significant impacts
49 on annual carbon budgets. The spatial extent of these emissions is well characterized at local scale
50 (1–2 km) from flux towers, and at sub-continental scale (> 1000 km) from tower and satellite
51 observations. However, the interactions between climate change and carbon storage vary
52 regionally, at scales between the current generation of flux tower networks and satellite observing
53 capabilities, due to season, ecosystem type, and permafrost condition. Aircraft campaigns can help
54 fill these gaps (e.g., Parazoo et al., 2016; Commane et al., 2017; Schiferl et al., 2022) but are
55 impractical for continuous pan-Arctic coverage, leaving key observational gaps in remote regions
56 such as Siberia, where significant carbon losses are already occurring at regional scale (Liu et al
57 2022), and which are likely to become amplified in the next decades as ancient carbon reserves
58 buried deep in the soil thaw and decompose. Moreover, hotspots of abrupt and irreversible carbon

59 loss may not be observed by spatially and temporally sparse field campaigns, and infrequent
60 satellite measurements.

61 There remains a knowledge gap in existing observing systems owing to (a) spatially sparse field
62 measurements, (b) spatially and temporally limited and sporadic airborne campaigns, and (c) low
63 repeat frequency (1–2 times per month) of existing satellite CO₂ data. While satellites offer the
64 best opportunity to provide consistent pan-Arctic coverage, existing measurements are too
65 infrequent to detect abrupt emissions or resolve vegetation gradients, and coverage falls off steeply
66 outside summer as northern high latitude (NHL; latitudes > 45°N) data coverage and quality
67 succumb to clouds, snow, and polar darkness. New mission concepts focused on frequent and
68 continuous coverage in space and time over multiple consecutive years are needed to detect
69 emissions and provide new information relevant to improving process understanding.

70 Here, we examine one possible observing strategy to help address the above-mentioned sampling
71 limitations and provide more detailed understanding of pan-Arctic carbon cycling (Figure 1). This
72 strategy leverages key innovations in instrument design and observing platform. First, we use a
73 Panchromatic imaging Fourier Transform Spectrometer (PanFTS) that utilizes high-speed digital
74 focal plane arrays to record shortwave infrared (SWIR) spectra from each pixel of a 2-D array.
75 Second, data is obtained from a unique 12-hour highly elliptical orbit (HEO) that observes both
76 North American and Eurasian high latitude regions for up to 8 consecutive hours each. This
77 approach stems from the Arctic Observing Mission (AOM, Nassar et al., 2023) (formerly AIM-
78 North, Nassar et al., 2019), which will carry an imaging spectrometer for making SWIR
79 measurements of CO₂, CH₄, and CO in HEO. This idea developed out of an earlier HEO FTS
80 concept (Nassar et al., 2014). Some of the key advantages of employing imaging spectrometers
81 such as PanFTS in HEO include the following:

- 82 1. SWIR observations provide near-surface sensitivity,
- 83 2. Collocation of three carbon species (CO₂, CO, CH₄) supports chemical-based process
84 attribution,
- 85 3. Large focal plane array (640 × 480) enables mapping of spatial gradients,
- 86 4. Frequent repeat cycle (90 minutes) facilitates observations of fast-evolving events (e.g., fires)
- 87 5. Sub-daily year-round observations help to more accurately determine (1) seasonal controls on
88 uptake versus release of modern carbon, using CO₂ column observations, (2) spatial and
89 temporal extent of carbon emissions in response to episodic warming, and (3) carbon balance
90 of fire and processes that affect recovery after burn.

91 As demonstrated by Natraj et al. (2023), PanFTS uses a wide spectral range (1–15.4 μm)
92 encompassing both SWIR and thermal infrared (TIR) bands, which can help separate near-surface
93 and mid-tropospheric variability and enable vertical profiling of water vapor, temperature, and
94 greenhouse gases (GHGs). This capability has potential to further augment carbon cycle science
95 in the Arctic through improved sampling in polar winter and over ocean, and better
96 characterization of background influences (e.g., Parazoo et al., 2016), but is beyond the scope of

97 this paper. Here, we focus on using PanFTS SWIR bands to retrieve CO₂ concentration and flux
98 using end-to-end Observation System Simulation Experiments (OSSEs) to show potential gains in
99 tracking (1) seasonal change across the transition season and early cold season, and (2) grid scale
100 fluxes. To gauge improvement over the Program of Record (PoR), we compare PanFTS-based flux
101 retrievals to those from OCO-2, the latter providing infrequent (16-day repeat) but widespread
102 spatial coverage. Given the challenges of implementing a regional mission focusing for example
103 on NHLs in a global inversion, we design OSSEs starting with OCO-2, and then combining with
104 PanFTS in a HEO configuration similar to AOM. We describe the HEO orbit, PanFTS retrievals,
105 and CO₂ flux inversion experiments in more detail in Section 2, present first results for PanFTS
106 retrievals and flux inversions across the pan-Arctic in Section 3, and finally discuss the
107 implications of these results in Section 4.

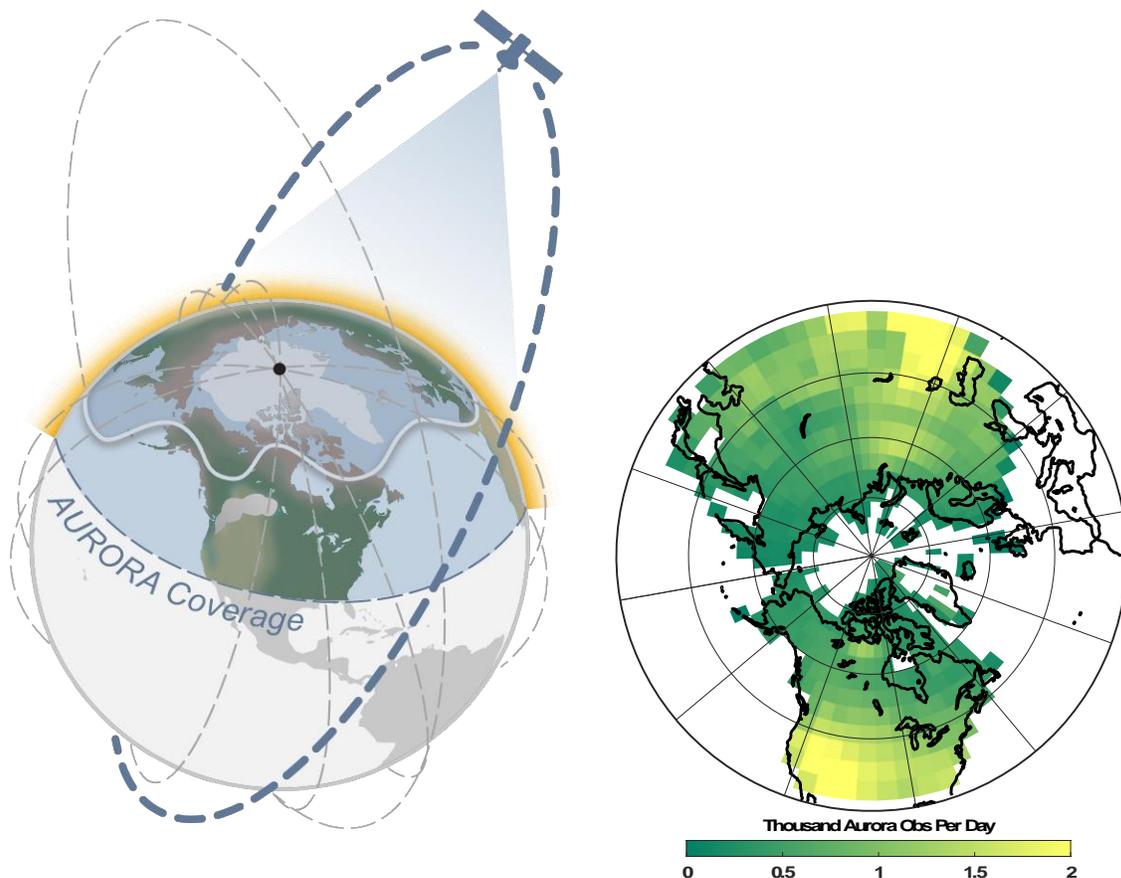
108 **2 Materials and Methods**

109 We designed an end-to-end OSSE to determine the added benefit of PanFTS CO₂ retrievals with
110 respect to OCO-2 based inferences of grid- and regional- scale CO₂ flux across NHLs. Our
111 approach is based on existing models for (1) retrieval of column integrated CO₂ mixing ratio
112 (XCO₂) in SWIR bands using the PanFTS instrument configuration, and (2) inversion of XCO₂
113 for obtaining grid scale CO₂ flux. These models are summarized below. We henceforth refer to the
114 PanFTS HEO observing strategy as the Arctic Fourier Transform Spectrometer Investigation, or
115 AURORA.

116 **2.1 Molniya Orbit**

117 For AURORA, we assume a single PanFTS flying in HEO, observing over land from 30–90°N
118 multiple times per day (Figure 1). The slow movement of the satellite at apogee is well suited for
119 the long stare time requirements of imaging spectroscopy. PanFTS requires 6 minutes of
120 integration time per field of view (FOV) for day-time scans in the SWIR. This translates to 84
121 minutes to scan over the field of regard (FOR) at the summer solstice. The 12-hour HEO orbit,
122 with an apogee altitude of 39700 km, inclination of 63.4°, and eccentricity of 0.722, could in
123 principle provide 8 hours of total view time of the sunlit hemisphere, providing quasi-stationary
124 sub-daily coverage of the pan-Arctic. However, we exclude samples beyond 2 hours of apogee
125 due to significant instrument drift and potential detrimental impacts to coverage, ground sampling
126 distance, and retrieval calculations. We therefore assume two revisits per orbit within 90 minutes
127 of Apogee, enabling two full summer visits per orbit. We furthermore assume the Apogee is
128 centered over boreal North America (63.4°N, 85°W) for the first orbit and over boreal Eurasia
129 (63.4°N, 95°E) for the second orbit, to minimize off-nadir land views.

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131
 132 **Figure 1:** AURORA Schematic + Map of Sampling Coverage. (left) AURORA is comprised of the
 133 Panchromatic Fourier Transform Spectrometer (PanFTS) deployed in a highly elliptical orbit
 134 centered on North America and Siberia, providing sub-daily mapping of key greenhouse gases
 135 (CO_2 , CO , CH_4) over pan-Arctic oceanic and land regions. (right) AURORA cloud-free sampling per
 136 day, averaged over one year. AURORA provides sampling rates on the order of 1000 samples per
 137 month per $5^\circ \times 5^\circ$ on an annual basis, representing a period of widespread CO_2 efflux across the
 138 pan-Arctic (see Fig S3 for monthly sampling rates). AURORA aims to reduce uncertainty in the
 139 magnitude and distribution of grid-scale fluxes during this critical transition period.

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142 2.2 CO_2 Retrieval from PanFTS Observations

143 We examine atmospheric profiles spanning multiple locations (one in central Alaska and one in
 144 eastern Canada), times of day (afternoon and evening), seasons (spring and fall equinox, summer
 145 and winter solstice), land cover types (forest and snow), and solar zenith angles (SZA) in North
 146 America (parameters summarized in [Table S1](#)).

147 We use the two-stream-exact-single-scattering (2S-ESS) radiative transfer (RT) model (Spurr and
 148 Natraj, 2011; Natraj et al., 2023) to generate monochromatic radiances at the top of the atmosphere
 149 for the atmospheric profiles and surface conditions in Alaska and Canada over the entire PanFTS

150 spectral range. The model and experiments follow the same basic setup described by Natraj et al
151 (2022), which provides a scoping study for retrieving multiple GHGs (CO₂, CH₄, and CO) over
152 temperate North America.

153 The PanFTS instrument model is similar in design to the GEO-IR Sounder (Natraj et al, 2022),
154 which allows exploration of the instrument trade space and its effect on retrieved atmospheric
155 composition. It reads synthetic data from the RT model, convolves synthetic spectra and Jacobians
156 with the instrument line shape (ILS), converts spectra into an interferogram, and computes photon
157 noise and signal to noise ratio. To optimize the tradeoff between frequent sub-daily sampling and
158 cloud free pixels in HEO, we assume a ground sampling distance (GSD) of 4 km from the 39700
159 km apogee. A 4 km ground pixel subtends an angle of 58.7 μ rad and for a Focal Plane Array (FPA)
160 of 540 \times 540 pixels; the overall FOV is 60 mrad. The PanFTS optics uses a triple-band optical
161 filter to narrow SWIR interferometer output to the following spectral regions for CO₂: (1) 2.000–
162 2.433 μ m, covering the strong CO₂ band near 2.1 μ m, (2) 1.565–1.695 μ m, covering the weak CO₂
163 band near 1.61 μ m, and (3) 1.233–1.302 μ m, covering the 1.27 μ m oxygen band needed to measure
164 the light path. The time per interferogram point is 10 ms for SWIR and 2.5 msec for the O₂ band.
165 We employ the widely used optimal estimation approach (Rodgers, 2000) and perform linear
166 retrievals (e.g., Kulawik et al., 2006) of CO₂ from simulated radiances based on the instrument
167 model. The a priori constraint vectors for temperature (TATM), water vapor (QV), and CO₂ are
168 obtained at the time and location of the scenarios in [Table S1](#). TATM is taken from Tropospheric
169 Emission Spectrometer (TES) retrievals (<https://tes.jpl.nasa.gov/tes/data/products/level-2/>), H₂O
170 from MERRA-2 reanalysis (<https://gmao.gsfc.nasa.gov/reanalysis/MERRA-2/>), and CO₂ from the
171 GEOS-Chem tracer transport model (e.g., Byrne et al., 2023). We prescribe TATM from TES,
172 rather than MERRA-2, to provide a more realistic estimate of the tropopause and stratospheric
173 profile. CO₂ data are constrained using posterior CO₂ fluxes derived from Greenhouse gases
174 Observing SATellite (GOSAT) CO₂ observations in the CMS-Flux inversion system (Byrne et al.,
175 2023). The representative atmospheric profiles for each species show expected vertical and
176 seasonal behavior for the Arctic region ([Figure S1](#)). A priori constraint matrices are constructed
177 using the method described in Kulawik et al (2006).

178 **2.3 CO₂ Flux Inversion OSSE**

179 PanFTS retrieval cases are propagated to full year-round pan-Arctic sampling based on time of
180 day and year, land cover, solar zenith angle (SZA), and cloud presence. Land cover is identified
181 using the MERRA-2 snow fraction (snow fraction \geq 0.2 indicates snow, $<$ 0.2 denotes forest).
182 The main requirements for SWIR retrievals are (1) SZA $<$ 70° and (2) clear sky conditions. We
183 identify cloud presence every two hours per hemisphere over the two-year period of study (Jan
184 2015 – Dec 2016). We identify 12 \times 12 km (aggregated) cloud free pixels using 3-hour, 0.1° cloud
185 mask data from the International Satellite Cloud Climatology Project (ISCCP) HXG Series dataset
186 (Yong et al., 2018). We re-grid ISCCP data to 0.5° \times 0.67° for consistency with MERRA, retaining
187 the number of 0.1° cloud free pixels within each MERRA pixel. We propagate the five scenarios

188 listed in [Table S1](#) as follows: apply Scenarios 1–2 to cold season months (Oct–May), Scenarios
189 3–4 to early summer (Jun–Jul), and Scenarios 4 and 5 to late summer (Aug–Sep).

190 AURORA provides extensive sampling of NHL land regions on an annual basis ([Figure 1](#)),
191 including summer to fall transition months (August–October, [Figure S2](#)), with peak coverage in
192 lower latitudes, and reduced coverage moving north under diminished sunlight and more prevalent
193 temperature inversions. AURORA regional coverage of NHLs exceeds that of OCO-2 by a factor
194 of 100 on a per pixel basis, at the expense of global coverage provided by OCO-2 LEO orbits
195 ([Figure S3](#)).

196 A series of two-year (2015–2016) flux inversion OSSEs are conducted to test the impact of
197 AURORA sampling on CO₂ flux constraints. These OSSEs use the JPL-developed CMS-Flux 4-
198 D variational (4D-Var) inversion system (see Liu et al 2017, 2021) to optimize weekly estimates
199 of net ecosystem exchange (NEE) and ocean fluxes at 4° × 5° spatial resolution. Two OSSEs are
200 conducted, differing in assimilated data: (1) OCO-2 and (2) OCO-2+AURORA. True NEE and
201 ocean fluxes are derived from climatological (2010–2015 mean) posterior fluxes constrained by
202 satellite and surface observations following Byrne et al. (2020). Interannual variations in NEE are
203 added by calculating anomalies in the FLUXCOM 8-day RS NEE dataset scaled by a factor of two
204 to account for the weak interannual variations in this dataset (Jung et al., 2020) Model-based prior
205 fluxes are derived from a suite of 12 dynamic global vegetation models from the TRENDY
206 ensemble (Sitch et al., 2015) version 8 as used in the Global Carbon Budget 2019 (Friedlingstein
207 et al., 2019). We leverage the large ensembles from TRENDY to calculate a prior mean and
208 uncertainty independent of the atmospheric CO₂ data. The uncertainty is inflated by a factor of
209 four to account for the significant bias between prior and true fluxes. We note that this setup creates
210 a realistic situation where the prior uncertainties are specified relative to the actual true–prior flux
211 differences. To test the sensitivity of our results to the prescribed model prior, we provide an
212 additional run using an identical set as described above but replacing the prior flux with output
213 from the CASA biosphere model, which exhibits deeper and earlier summer drawdown compared
214 to TRENDY.

215 AURORA pseudo-observations (Sec. 2.1.6) are aggregated into super-observations using a 0.5 ×
216 0.625 spatial grid. Following Kulawik et al. (2016), each super-observation is given a measurement
217 error of

$$218 \left(\frac{(\text{retrieval error})^2}{N} + (0.7 \text{ ppm})^2 \right)^{1/2}.$$

219 Retrieval precision is normalized by the square root of the number of cloud-free 4-km pixels within
220 the 0.5° × 0.67° GEOS-Chem grid (denoted N). Pseudo XCO₂ data for OCO-2 is extracted from
221 the V10r Level 2 product at GES DISC ([10.5067/5Q8JLZL1VD4A](https://doi.org/10.5067/5Q8JLZL1VD4A)). OCO-2 data are averaged
222 into super-observations at 0.5° × 0.5° resolution grids following Liu et al. (2017). Inversion runs
223 are performed from Oct 1, 2014 though Mar 31, 2017. Results are analyzed for the two-year period
224 from 2015–2016, with the first and last three months serving as spin-up/down.

225 **3 Results**

226 We examine the extent to which OCO-2 and AURORA recover the basic seasonal structure
227 (amplitude and timing) of true fluxes, and their anomalies (difference in flux between 2016 and
228 2015), at different spatial scales ranging from large-, regional-, and grid- scale. For large scale
229 analysis, we integrate posterior fluxes across boreal-arctic (48°–80°N) and midlatitude (28°–48°N)
230 latitude bands, denoted North and South regions, respectively, to assess impacts on the north-south
231 distribution of fluxes and flux anomalies. For regional scale analyses, we aggregate posterior
232 fluxes across discrete regions in Eurasia, characterized by differences in date of temperature zero
233 crossing, to assess detectability of fall emissions in progressively remote and cold climates. Finally,
234 we examine recovery of grid scale fluxes across the pan-Arctic based on significant differences in
235 mean signal from zero. We compute grid scale estimate of RMSE based on differences between
236 posterior and true fluxes, then take the difference between the absolute value of the posterior flux
237 and RMSE, denoting flux recovery as significant (denoted below as “detectable”), if the difference
238 is greater than zero. By this definition, neutral fluxes are not detectable.

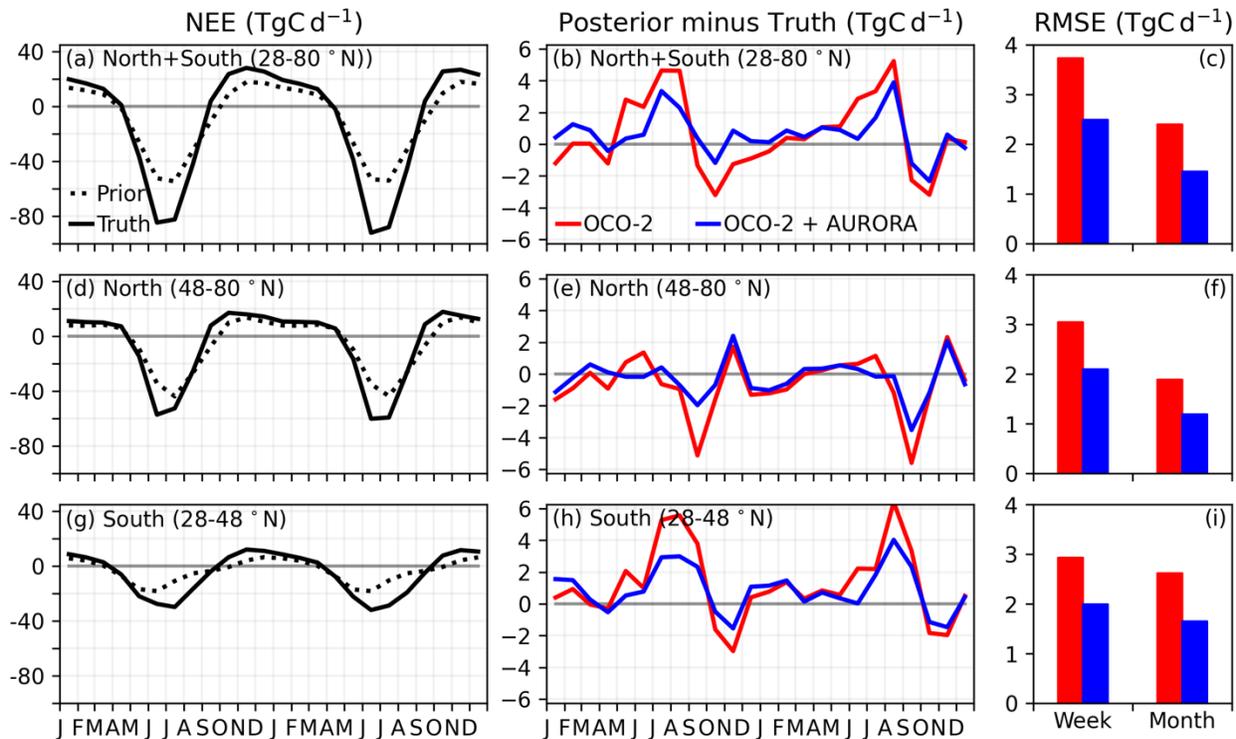
239 **3.1 Retrieval OSSEs**

240 Single sounding SWIR retrievals show a range of total column DOF (0.5–1.0) and precision (0.45–
241 0.68) depending on the time of year (Figure S4 and Table S2). The highest quality retrievals,
242 characterized by large DOFs and high precision, occur over forested surfaces in summer (DOF =
243 0.92; Precision = 0.45). In general, the presence of snow and higher SZAs degrade precision and
244 DOF in the SWIR. Aggregating neighboring cloud free pixels into 3×3 bins increases DOFs
245 (0.89-1.19) and precision (0.25-0.44).

246 **3.2 Flux Inversion OSSEs**

247 Several key systematic differences between modeled (prior) and expected (truth) flux seasonal
248 amplitude and phase in North (48–80°N) and South (24–48°N) regions provide an important test
249 for satellite-based detection of changing seasonal emissions (e.g., Liu et al., 2022) in northern
250 latitudes. True fluxes exhibit stronger seasonal amplitude and earlier fall onset compared to prior
251 fluxes, and more variable seasonality in the North region (Figure 2).

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Figure 2: Errors in posterior estimates of seasonal NEE in northern high latitudes (NHL). Aggregated (28–80°N), North (48–80°N), and South (28–48°N) regions are shown from top to bottom, respectively. Prior and True fluxes are shown in the left column posterior (posterior minus true NEE) NEE errors for OCO-2 (red) and OCO-2+AURORA (blue) in the middle column, and weekly- to monthly-mean RMSE in the right column.

262 OCO-2 recovers a significant portion of the prescribed seasonal structure of true fluxes in south
263 and north NHL regions (Figure S5), with several key exceptions (Figure 2). The first is temporal
264 dipole behavior, characterized by a gradual seasonal swing in the sign of bias in the combined
265 region (28–80°N), from strongly positive in late summer (peaking at ~5 TgC d⁻¹), to weakly
266 negative in fall (peaking at ~2.5 TgC d⁻¹). The presence of temporal dipoles is further indicated in
267 comparisons of annual RMSE values (Figure 2), which are reduced by ~50–100% as temporal
268 aggregation occurs from weekly (3–4 TgC d⁻¹) to monthly (~2 TgC d⁻¹) scales. The second is
269 spatial dipole behavior, indicated by reversed behavior in the sign of the seasonal bias between
270 north and south regions (shift from negative bias in summer to positive bias in fall in the north
271 region). The third is a persistent bias in the timing of the fall zero crossing, characterized by
272 excessive efflux in late summer (before zero crossing) and excessive uptake in the early cold
273 season (after zero crossing).

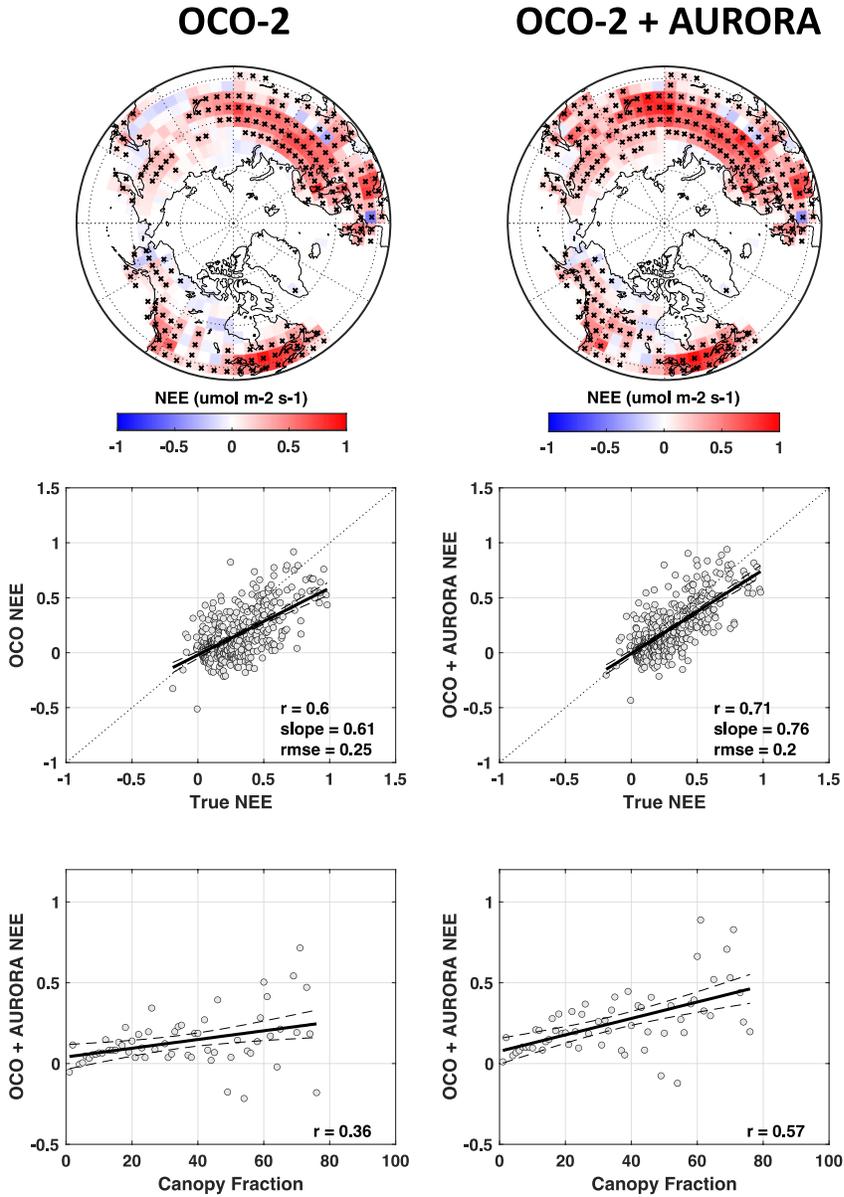
274 The addition of AURORA sub-daily sampling diminishes the magnitude and dipole behavior of
275 biases incurred by infrequent OCO-2 sampling. The RMSE is reduced by ~50% on an annual basis,

276 with larger reductions at monthly scale during summer in North and South regions, and during fall
277 in the North region. This significantly improves detection of transitional fluxes and zero crossing
278 date in fall. AURORA has more significant impact during transition and cold season months and
279 exhibits greater return in regions and periods that are poorly observed and/or poorly known.

280 OCO-2 incurs significant seasonal and meridional dipoles in recovered fluxes (Figures S6).
281 Compensating positive (brown patches) and negative (green patches) biases are present across
282 multiple latitude bands from 30–70°N. NHL posteriors (~60–80°N) shift from positive to negative
283 bias with ~1 month cadence and appear staggered in sign relative to fluxes in adjacent latitudes to
284 the south (~40–60°N). Similar dipole features are seen for OCO-2+AURORA, but with
285 substantially reduced magnitude.

286 Similar improvements are found in the recovery of seasonal flux anomalies (Figure S7),
287 representing the difference in flux from 2015–2016 when including AURORA compared to OCO-
288 2 alone. Seasonal dipoles persist, but the main features are better captured, and overall variability
289 in the error is reduced throughout the year. For example, OCO-2+AURORA captures most (>
290 90%) of the negative flux anomaly in the high latitude summer, and a larger fraction of smaller
291 anomalies in spring and early summer. It is noteworthy that AUORA improves detection of
292 dynamic nature of monthly flux anomalies in the South region, compared to more smoothly
293 varying anomalies inferred by OCO-2 alone. Similar improvements are seen at regional scale in
294 Eurasia (Figure S8), with increasingly significant reductions in bias moving eastward and
295 northward from warm (~Europe) to cold (northern Siberia) regions, consistent with increasingly
296 dense and influential coverage from sub-daily sampling. These results indicate improved tracking
297 by AURORA of seasonal flux amplitude, timing, and anomalies across latitudes.

298 Finally, OCO-2+AURORA shows significant improvement in the recovery in the spatial pattern
299 of fall efflux across the pan-Arctic (Figure 3). We define fall efflux as the 30-day period following
300 the NEE zero crossing date when NHL ecosystems transition from net CO₂ sink, when
301 photosynthesis exceeds respiration, to net CO₂ source, when respiration outpaces photosynthesis.
302 OCO-2 flux detectability, representing the percentage of pan-Arctic grid points which are
303 significantly different from zero, is 57%. This increases to 70% with OCO-2+AURORA. The
304 largest improvements occur in Siberia where OCO-2 shoulder season measurements are more
305 limited (67% of Siberian grid cells relative to 34% with OCO-2 alone, assuming Siberia is defined
306 by the domain [90°E-180°E, 45°N-90°N]). The magnitude and spatial pattern of recovered fluxes
307 is also much closer to the truth, as indicated by increased correlation ($r = 0.6$ vs. 0.71) and
308 convergence of slope to the 1:1 line (0.61 vs. 0.76) relative to OCO-2 (Figure 3). The recovered
309 fluxes are also better correlated with tree cover in the permafrost region ($r = 0.36$ vs. 0.57),
310 consistent with findings of enhanced fall efflux in high forest Arctic regions (Byrne et al., 2022;
311 Liu et al., 2022).



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 313 **Figure 3:** Performance of posterior NEE at grid scale across the pan-Arctic shoulder season.
 314 Results for OCO-2 and OCO-2+AURORA are shown in the left and right columns, respectively, and
 315 are based on 30-day means for the period of net efflux following fall zero crossing. (top row)
 316 Spatial pattern of posterior NEE, where crosses represent “detectable points” that are
 317 significantly different from zero, i.e., $\text{abs}(\text{posterior} - \text{truth}) > 0$. (middle row) Scatter plot of grid-
 318 scale posterior vs true NEE shows improvement in slope, correlation, and RMSE when OCO-2 is
 319 combined with AURORA. (bottom row) Scatter plot of posterior NEE with canopy fractions shows
 320 improved correlation with AURORA, which better captures increasing efflux with increasing
 321 forest coverage, consistent with recent findings by Byrne et al. (2022) and Liu et al (2023).
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324 4 Discussion and Conclusions

325 OCO-2 captures several key features of seasonal CO₂ fluxes in the Arctic. First and foremost, it
326 captures large scale differences in the amplitude and timing of the seasonal cycle in the high (48–
327 80°N) vs middle (28–48°N) latitudes, including deeper and shorter growing season in high
328 latitudes. OCO-2 also captures the jump in CO₂ efflux in early fall, which is prescribed in the true
329 fluxes but missing from the prior, representing a key feature of an accelerating and increasingly
330 labile northern carbon cycle (e.g., Commane et al., 2017; Jeong et al., 2018). Repeated sub-
331 monthly sampling of daylight hours thus provides important constraints on growing and shoulder
332 season fluxes. However, the inability to map concentrations more frequently limits the ability of
333 OCO-2 to accurately place the timing and location of shoulder season fluxes.

334 Sub-daily mapping of northern high latitudes by AURORA augments flux information from OCO-
335 2 during the critical fall transition period. AURORA’s continuous mapping of daytime CO₂ in
336 SWIR bands better resolves spatial gradients of CO₂, which reduces the guesswork required by
337 atmospheric inversion systems in the optimization of surface fluxes to match those gradients,
338 which in turn leads to more accurate seasonal and spatial flux posteriors with smaller errors and
339 reduced dipole features. Our results indicate increased detectability of grid scale and regional
340 fluxes in cold and remote northern Arctic regions, enabled in part by increased daytime sampling
341 of shoulder seasons.

342 AURORA addresses a key science need that has been identified by the carbon cycle community
343 by providing more frequent measurements of CO₂ efflux during Arctic transition periods. A
344 number of planned missions, including the constellation of LEO satellites from CO2M (and
345 others), are expected to advance upon OCO-2 capabilities with more frequent daytime
346 measurements, providing more accurate pictures of Arctic carbon cycling at regional and
347 potentially grid scale. Planned quasi-geostationary missions such as AOM will provide additional
348 sampling of pan-Arctic transitions seasons, which are expected to further advance grid scale
349 information as demonstrated by AURORA flux inversion OSSEs.

350 However, the question of what happens during polar twilight and darkness as new carbon in soils,
351 and old carbon in permafrost, is respired back to the atmosphere under increasingly warm fall and
352 winter temperatures is likely to remain a mystery. Addressing this question will require coincident
353 measurements of CO₂ in shortwave and thermal bands, which show significant improvements in
354 the information content (as indicated by the degrees of freedom) in the Arctic (see [Text S1](#)) and
355 potential vertical profiling capability, enabling probing closer to the surface, and deeper into the
356 shoulder season, to better localize and extract information. Additional science OSSEs are needed
357 to better characterize thermal retrievals, quantify flux information enabled by combined thermal
358 and shortwave channels, and provide the appropriate science leaps needed to close the Arctic
359 carbon budget.

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367

368 **Open Research**

369 Data Archiving is underway, and has been uploaded as Supporting Information for peer review.
370 Model results will be made available in a public repository (<https://cmsflux.jpl.nasa.gov/>) upon
371 publication.

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