

The role of OCO-3 XCO₂ retrievals in estimating global terrestrial net ecosystem exchanges

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24 **Abstract**

25 Satellite-based column-averaged dry air CO₂ mole fraction (XCO₂) retrievals are frequently used to
26 improve the estimates of terrestrial net carbon exchanges (NEE). The Orbiting Carbon Observatory 3
27 (OCO-3) satellite, launched in May 2019, was designed to address important questions about the dis-
28 tribution of carbon fluxes on Earth, but its role in estimating global terrestrial NEE remains unclear.
29 Here, using the Global Carbon Assimilation System, version 2, we investigate the impact of OCO-3
30 XCO₂ on the estimation of global NEE by assimilating the OCO-3 XCO₂ retrievals alone and in com-
31 bination with the OCO-2 XCO₂ retrievals. The results show that when only the OCO-3 XCO₂ is as-
32 similated (Exp_OCO3), the estimated global land sink is significantly lower than that from the OCO-
33 2 experiment (Exp_OCO2). The estimate from the joint assimilation of OCO-3 and OCO-2
34 (Exp_OCO3&2) is comparable on a global scale to that of Exp_OCO2. However, there are significant
35 regional differences. Compared to the observed global annual CO₂ growth rate, Exp_OCO3 has the
36 largest bias, and Exp_OCO3&2 shows the best performance. Furthermore, validation with independent
37 CO₂ observations shows that the biases of the Exp_OCO3 are significantly larger than those of
38 Exp_OCO2 and Exp_OCO3&2 at mid and high latitudes. The reasons for the poor performance of
39 assimilating OCO-3 XCO₂ alone include the lack of observations beyond 52°S and 52°N, the large
40 fluctuations in the data amount, and its varied observation time. Our study indicates that assimilating
41 OCO-3 XCO₂ retrievals alone leads to an underestimation of land sinks at high latitudes, and that a
42 joint assimilation of OCO-2 XCO₂ and the OCO-3 XCO₂ retrievals observed in the afternoon is re-
43 quired for a better estimation of global terrestrial NEE.

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51 **1 Introduction**

52 The rising of the carbon dioxide (CO₂) concentration in the Earth's atmosphere in recent decades,
53 which is mainly caused by human activities, such as the burning of fossil fuels, deforestation and land-
54 use change, has become a global concern (Hansen et al., 2013). Terrestrial ecosystems and oceans
55 together absorb about 56 % of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions (Friedlingstein et al., 2023). Among them,
56 terrestrial ecosystems play a crucial role in regulating the atmospheric CO₂ concentration. However,
57 the carbon uptake capacity of terrestrial ecosystems varies considerably globally and regionally
58 (Bousquet et al., 2000; Takahashi et al., 2009; Piao et al., 2020). Therefore, accurate quantification of
59 global and regional terrestrial net ecosystem exchange (NEE) is very important to understand their role
60 and potential in regulating changes in the atmospheric CO₂ concentration.

61 Atmospheric inversion is a major method for estimating surface carbon fluxes from observations
62 of atmospheric CO₂ concentration (Enting and Newsam, 1990; Gurney et al., 2002; Thompson et al.,
63 2016; Jiang et al., 2021), but it is more effective at the global scale than at the regional scale. A large
64 number of previous studies have shown that different atmospheric inversion models can produce rela-
65 tively consistent global estimates of carbon fluxes, but their performance at regional scales is variable.
66 In regions such as the tropics, southern hemisphere oceans, and most continental interiors (South
67 America, Africa and boreal Asia), the reliability of atmospheric inversions varies considerably due to
68 the heterogeneous distribution of *in-situ* observations, leading to an increase in the uncertainty of car-
69 bon flux estimates (Peylin et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2019). The use of satellite observations to constrain
70 atmospheric inversions can be effective in improving carbon flux estimates because of their better
71 spatial coverage (Basu et al., 2013; Byrne et al., 2020; Jiang et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2022; He et al.,
72 2023a). The National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) launched the Orbiting Carbon
73 Observatory 2 (OCO-2) satellite in 2014 (Crisp et al., 2017; Eldering et al., 2012, 2017), followed by
74 the Orbiting Carbon Observatory 3 (OCO-3) satellite in 2019 (Taylor et al., 2023). The OCO satellites
75 have a high sensitivity to column-averaged dry air CO₂ mole fraction (XCO₂), a fine footprint, and
76 good spatial coverage, and can therefore be used to better constrain surface carbon flux estimates. In
77 previous studies, many atmospheric inversion models have used the XCO₂ from the OCO-2 satellites
78 to estimate global (e.g., Crowell et al., 2019; Peiro et al., 2022; Byrne et al., 2023) and regional (e.g.,

79 Palmer et al., 2019; Byrne et al., 2021; Philip et al., 2022; He et al., 2022; He et al., 2023a) surface
80 carbon fluxes. For example, Miller et al. (2018) evaluated the effectiveness of OCO-2 observations in
81 constraining regional biospheric CO₂ fluxes. Their findings indicate that OCO-2 observations are most
82 effective at continental and hemispheric scales. Byrne et al. (2022) utilised OCO-2 data to fill a gap in
83 station observations at high latitudes. Their study confirmed the presence of significant and widely
84 distributed early cold-season CO₂ emissions in the northeastern region of Eurasia. Furthermore, several
85 studies have utilised OCO-2 XCO₂ data to investigate the impact of climate extremes on terrestrial
86 NEE, such as El Niño (e.g., Liu et al., 2017) and droughts (He et al., 2023 b; Chen et al., 2024). OCO-
87 3 introduces new technologies and observational methods to monitor CO₂ on Earth, offering the same
88 spatial resolution as OCO-2. It is aimed at detecting mid-latitude regions where human CO₂ emissions
89 are concentrated. However, few studies have used the OCO-3 XCO₂ retrievals to constrain global and
90 regional surface carbon fluxes until now. Therefore, it is important to investigate the impact of assim-
91 ilating OCO-3 observations on the estimates of global and terrestrial carbon sinks.

92 In this study, we used both OCO-2 and OCO-3 XCO₂ retrievals to invert global and regional
93 carbon fluxes for the period of 2020-2022 with the Global Carbon Assimilation System, version 2
94 (GCASv2) (Jiang et al., 2021). The XCO₂ retrievals from OCO-2 and OCO-3 were assimilated sepa-
95 rately and together in order to disentangle the effect of OCO-3 XCO₂ retrievals on the estimates of
96 global and regional terrestrial carbon sinks.

97

98 **2 Methods and data**

99 **2.1 Inversion method**

100 The Global Carbon Assimilation System, version 2 (GCASv2) (Jiang et al., 2021; Wang et al.,
101 2021) designed primarily for assimilating satellite XCO₂ retrievals was adopted in this study to invert
102 surface carbon fluxes. The system uses the Model for Ozone and Related Chemical Tracers, version 4
103 (MOZART-4; Emmons et al., 2010) to simulate three-dimensional atmospheric CO₂ concentrations,
104 and an ensemble square root filter (EnSRF; Whitaker and Hamill, 2002) to implement the inversion of
105 surface fluxes. MOZART-4 is an offline global chemical transport model developed in the National
106 Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR). It can be driven by essentially any meteorological data set

107 and with any emissions inventory, so there is not a unique standard simulation (Emmons et al., 2010).
 108 We turned off all gas-phase, heterogeneous chemical reactions, aerosol and deposition processes in the
 109 MOZART4 model and added a corresponding number of CO₂ tracers according to the ensemble num-
 110 ber in GCASv2, in order to allow the model to run more quickly. EnSRF assimilates observations in a
 111 sequential way, and obviates the need to perturb the observations. It shows good performance as long
 112 as the observation errors are uncorrelated (Houtekamer and Mitchell, 2001). GCASv2 is an upgrade
 113 from the GCAS (Zhang et al., 2015) that was established in 2015. The main upgrades include: 1) the
 114 addition of an assimilation module for satellite observations; 2) a change in the assimilation algorithm
 115 (i.e., EnSRF); 3) a change in the operational flow of the assimilation system; 4) the addition of a ‘super-
 116 observation’ scheme; 5) inversion of fluxes at the grid scale; and 6) an improvement in the localization
 117 scheme.

118 GCASv2 runs cyclically, with a two-step optimization strategy in each assimilation window (1
 119 week). In the first step, the prior fluxes (\mathbf{X}_0^b) in each grid are independently perturbed with a random
 120 number (δ_i) drawn from a Gaussian distribution with mean of 0 and standard deviation of 1, and a
 121 scaling factor (λ) that represents the uncertainty of each prior flux (Eq. 1).

$$122 \quad \mathbf{X}_i^b = \mathbf{X}_0^b + \lambda \times \delta_i \times \mathbf{X}_0^b, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (1)$$

123 Then, the perturbed fluxes are put into the MOZART-4 model to simulate ensembles of CO₂ concen-
 124 trations. The CO₂ profiles are sampled according to the locations and times of XCO₂ observations and
 125 converted to the simulated ensembles of XCO₂ ($XCO_{2,i}^m$) according to prior XCO₂ (XCO_2^a), prior XCO₂
 126 profiles ($y_{a,j}$), pressure weighting function (h_j), and averaging kernel (a_j) of the XCO₂ retrievals (Eq.
 127 2).

$$128 \quad XCO_{2,i}^m = XCO_2^a + \sum_j h_j a_j (A(CO_{2,i}) - y_{a,j}) \quad (2)$$

129 Subsequently, the perturbed fluxes (\mathbf{X}_i^b), the simulated XCO₂ ensembles and the observed XCO₂ (\mathbf{y})
 130 are used in EnSRF to optimize the carbon fluxes ($\overline{\mathbf{X}}^a$) (Eqs. 3-5). The background error covariance
 131 matrix (\mathbf{P}^b) is calculated based on \mathbf{X}_i^b according to Eq. (3), where $\overline{\mathbf{X}}^b$ is the mean of \mathbf{X}_i^b . The pos-
 132 terior flux ($\overline{\mathbf{X}}^a$) is a correction to the prior flux using the bias between simulated and observed XCO₂
 133 ($\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H}\overline{\mathbf{X}}^b$) and the Kalman gain matrix (\mathbf{K}) (Eq. 4). And \mathbf{K} is calculated according to Eq. (5), which is

134 a function of model-data mismatch error covariance matrix (\mathbf{R}) and the background error covariance
 135 matrix.

$$136 \quad \mathbf{P}^b = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{X}_i^b - \bar{\mathbf{X}}^b) (\mathbf{X}_i^b - \bar{\mathbf{X}}^b)^T \quad (3)$$

$$137 \quad \bar{\mathbf{X}}^a = \bar{\mathbf{X}}^b + \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H}\bar{\mathbf{X}}^b) \quad (4)$$

$$138 \quad \mathbf{K} = \mathbf{P}^b \mathbf{H}^T (\mathbf{H} \mathbf{P}^b \mathbf{H}^T + \mathbf{R})^{-1} \quad (5)$$

139 In the second step, the optimized carbon fluxes are put into the MOZART-4 model to obtain the
 140 initial field of the next assimilation window. This scheme allows compensation of inversion results
 141 between neighboring windows and mass conservation between flux adjustments and concentration
 142 changes.

143 In order to reduce the effects of horizontal observation error correlation and representativeness
 144 error, based on the optimal estimation theory (Miyazaki et al., 2012), the system also performs a “su-
 145 per-observation” scheme, which combines multiple observations located within a same model grid into
 146 a single high-precision “super-observation”. In this method, it first calculates the simulated XCO₂ cor-
 147 responding to each observed XCO₂ based on the observation time and location, and then, it performs
 148 a retrieval error-weighted average for all the simulated and observed XCO₂ falling within the same
 149 model grid in the DA window, respectively.

150 There are inevitably spurious correlations in the EnKF method, to reduce the effect of spurious
 151 correlations, a two-layer localization scale was adopted in GCASv2, which is used to select which
 152 observations can be used for the flux analysis for each grid. The localization technique is based on the
 153 correlation coefficient between the simulated XCO₂ ensembles ($XCO_{2,i}^m$) in each observation location
 154 and the perturbed fluxes (\mathbf{X}_i^b) in current model grids and their distances. The observations will be
 155 accepted for assimilation if the distance is less than 500 km and the correlation coefficient is greater
 156 than 0; and if the distance is greater than or equal to 500 km and less than 3000 km and the correlation
 157 coefficient should be significant ($p < 0.05$). Otherwise, the observations are not accepted. The reason
 158 for this scheme is that considering the atmospheric horizontal diffusion, we believe that there must be

159 a correlation between the flux of one grid and the concentrations in its neighbouring grids, and there-
160 fore observations are accepted as long as this correlation coefficient is greater than zero. In contrast,
161 at distant locations (>500 km), where the effect of atmospheric horizontal diffusion is essentially neg-
162 ligible, the relationship between source and receptor is mainly due to atmospheric transport, and in
163 order to minimize spurious correlations we require that such correlations must be significant. More
164 details of the system can be found in Jiang et al (2021).

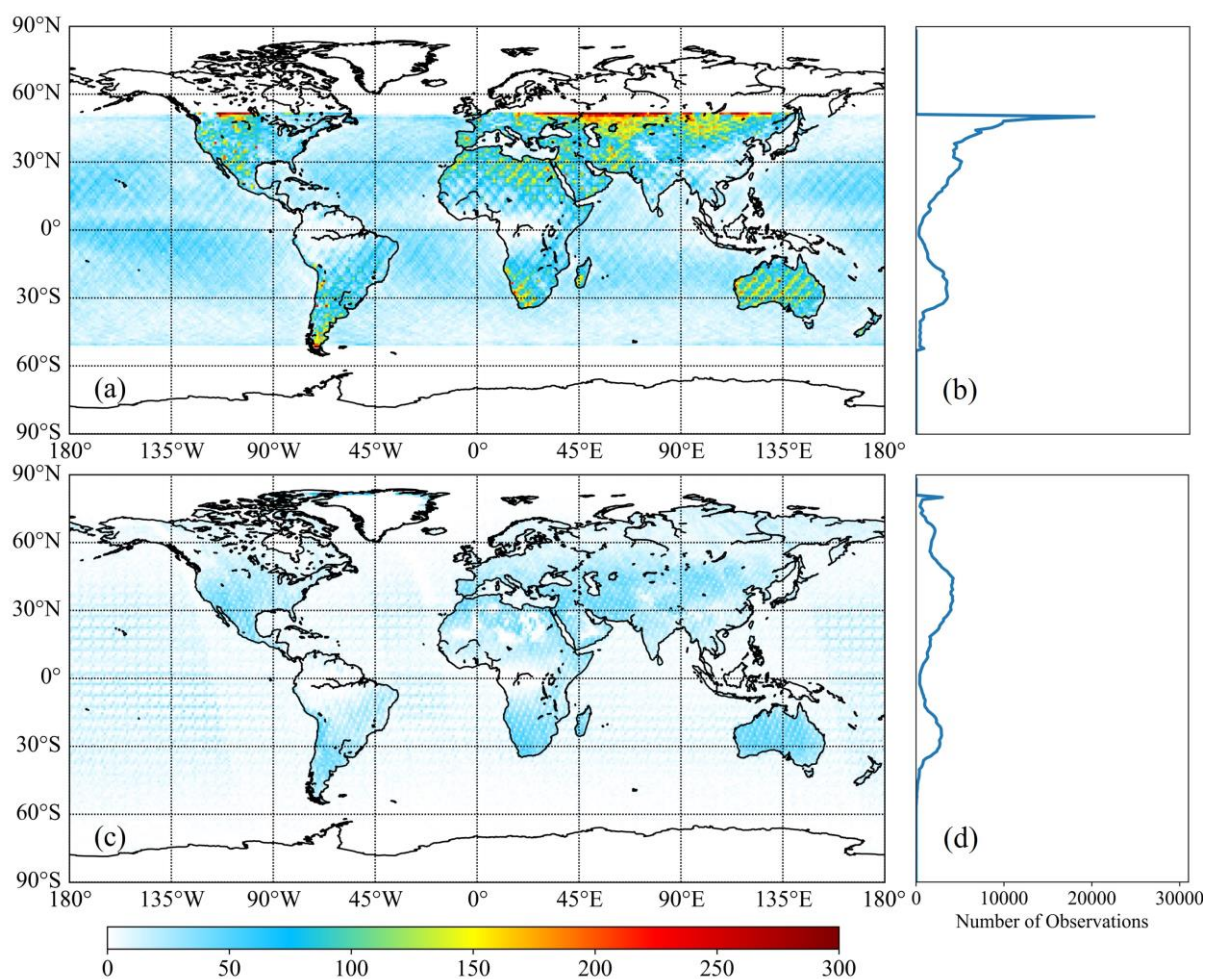
165 **2.2 OCO-2 and OCO-3 XCO₂ retrievals**

166 In July 2014, the Orbiting Carbon Observatory (OCO) -2 satellite was launched by NASA with
167 the primary objective of providing accurate space-based measurements to quantify changes in XCO₂.
168 The satellite is equipped with three high-resolution spectrometers that can detect two near-infrared
169 wavelength bands (1.61 μm and 2.06 μm) of sunlight reflectance spectra to observe CO₂. In May 2019,
170 NASA launched OCO-3 to the International Space Station (ISS) to detect CO₂ in mid-latitudes, where
171 human emissions are more concentrated. OCO-3 operates in a low-inclination orbit from 52°S to 52°N
172 and is equipped with three high-resolution spectrometers, providing the same spatial resolutions and
173 similar observation mode as the OCO-2 satellite (Taylor et al., 2023). However, since OCO-3 is
174 mounted on the ISS, its observation time and frequency for the same place is different from the OCO-
175 2.

176 The XCO₂ data from OCO-3 and OCO-2 used in this study are bias-corrected products from
177 August 2019 to December 2022 at the image element level. The data are sourced from Version 10.4r
178 Level 2 Lite and Version 11.1r Level 2 Lite, respectively. Before using them in our inversion system,
179 it is essential to pre-process the data. First, both the land (Land Nadir + Land Glint, LNLG) and ocean
180 (Ocean Glint, OG) retrievals were adopted, and they were filtered using the parameter of XCO₂_qual-
181 ity_flag, which indicates the quality of the data. Only data with XCO₂_quality_flag=0 was selected for
182 assimilation in this study. Then, the LNLG and OG retrievals and their corresponding retrieval param-
183 eters (namely XCO_2^a , $\gamma_{a,j}$, h_j , and a_j in Eq. 2) were re-gridded to a spatial resolution of $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ and
184 $5^\circ \times 5^\circ$ using the arithmetic averaging method, respectively. For the OG data, we used a coarser re-
185 gridding resolution, that is because the distribution of XCO₂ is more homogeneous on sea than on land.
186 Finally, both OCO-3 and OCO-2 XCO₂ retrievals were converted to the X2019 scale of the World

187 Meteorological Organization (WMO) following Hall et al., (2021). Figure 1a and c display the distri-
188 bution and coverage of screened OCO-3 and OCO-2 XCO₂ retrievals from 2020 to 2022. Compared
189 to OCO-2, OCO-3 has more observational data in the mid-latitudes of the northern and southern hem-
190 ispheres, especially in arid and semi-arid regions.

191 Following Jiang et al. (2022), the model-data mismatch errors were amplified by a factor on top
192 of the XCO₂ posterior errors, but with the minimum observation error setting to 1 ppm. It needs to be
193 noted that in the OCO-3 and OCO-2 products, the XCO₂ posterior errors of OG retrievals (0.48 ± 0.11
194 and 0.51 ± 0.15 ppm in 2020 for OCO-2 and OCO-3, respectively) are smaller than LNLG (0.54 ± 0.12
195 and 0.64 ± 0.18 ppm in 2020 for OCO-2 and OCO-3, respectively), but in fact, the observational error
196 should be greater at sea than on land (Peiro et al., 2022). Therefore, before multiplying by a uniform
197 factor, we increased the XCO₂ posterior errors of OG retrievals by 0.2 ppm. Taylor et al. (2023) re-
198 ported that the mean of the uncertainties for the OCO-2 and OCO-3 quality-filtered and bias-corrected
199 XCO₂ are 1.0 and 1.3 ppm, respectively. Considering that the global atmospheric transport model may
200 have an uncertainty of about 1.0 ppm (Lauvaux et al., 2009), thus in this study, we set the amplification
201 factor to be 3.5. Through this treatment, the mean model-data mismatch errors of LNLG and OG are
202 about 1.9 and 2.4 ppm for OCO-2, and 2.3 and 2.5 ppm for OCO-3, respectively.



203

204 **Figure1.** Data amount (the sum of 2020-2022) of XCO₂ in each grid cell (1° × 1°) and at each latitude used
 205 in this study (a, b, OCO-3; c, d, OCO-2)

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2.3 Prior carbon fluxes

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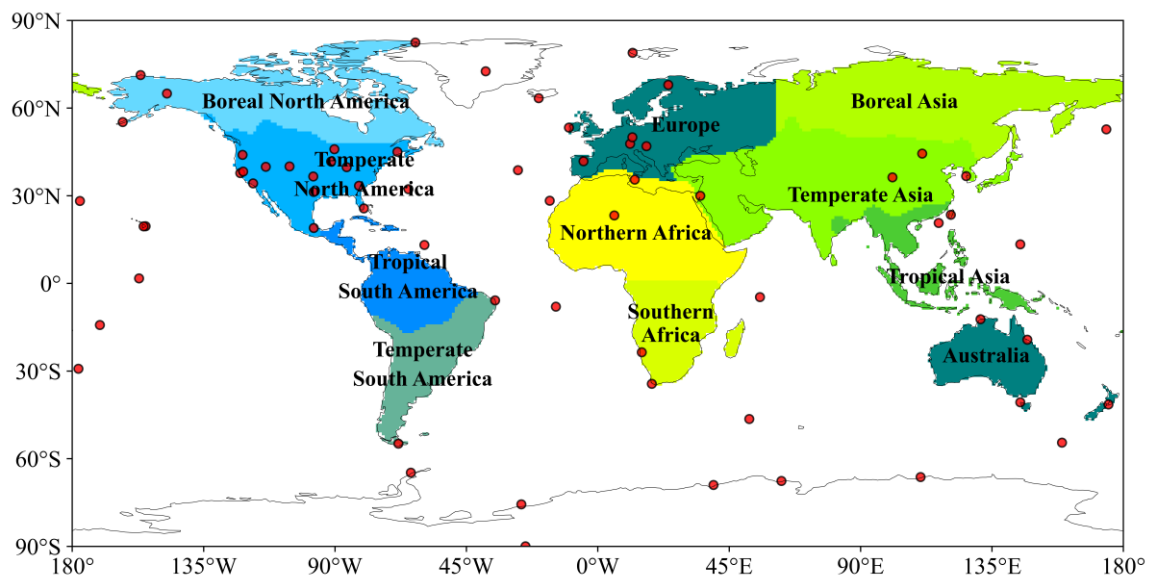
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There are 4 prior carbon fluxes used in this study, which are terrestrial NEE, ocean-atmosphere (OCN) carbon exchanges, fossil fuel and cement production (FOSSIL) carbon emissions, and biomass combustion (FIRE) carbon emissions. The NEE were simulated using the BEPS model (Chen et al., 2019). The OCN fluxes were derived from the mean of the JMA Ocean CO₂ Map (Iida et al., 2021), which contains a global product with 1°×1° resolution (Globe, v2022) and another product for the Northwest Pacific region with a resolution of 0.25°×0.25° (The western North Pacific, v2023). These two products were integrated before they are used in this study. The FOSSIL carbon emissions were obtained from GCP-GridFEDv2023.1 (Jones et al., 2021), which contains monthly global carbon emissions from fossil fuels, cement production, and cement product weathering carbon sequestration at a

216 spatial resolution of $0.1^{\circ} \times 0.1^{\circ}$. The FIRE carbon emissions were obtained directly from the Global
217 Fire Emissions Database, Version 4.1 (GFED4.1s; Randerson et al., 2017). All 4 prior fluxes cover the
218 entire time period of this study (i.e., August 2019 to December 2022) and they were re-gridded to a
219 unified spatial resolution of $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ before used in the GCASv2 system.

220 2.4 Evaluation data and methods

221 Due to the significant spatial scale discrepancy between the inverted fluxes and the *in-situ* ob-
222 served fluxes, direct validation of the posterior Net Ecosystem Exchange (NEE) using observed data
223 is typically unattainable. However, we are able to indirectly evaluate the posterior fluxes by comparing
224 the atmospheric CO_2 concentrations, simulated with the posterior fluxes, against independent CO_2
225 measurements. (e.g., Jin et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2019; Feng et al., 2020; Jiang et al., 2021). In this
226 study, we used surface flask observations at 66 sites from the ObsPack dataset (ObsPack v9.1, Schuldt
227 et al., 2023) to independently assess the posterior fluxes. The screening of the 66 sites followed the
228 methodology of Jiang et al. (2022). The distribution of the 66 flask sites is shown in Figure 2. The
229 specific metrics assessed were the statistics of mean bias (BIAS), absolute bias (MAE), and root mean
230 square error (RMSE). We calculated annual BIAS, MAE, and RMSE globally, for different latitudinal
231 zones, and for different land areas.



232
233 **Figure2.** Distributions of the observation sites used for independent evaluation in this study and the 11 Trans-
234 Com-3 regions on land defined in Botta et al. (2012).

235 **3 Inversion experiments**

236 The GCASv2 system was run from 1 August 2019 to 31 December 2022. The initial five months
237 were designated as the spin-up stage, and the results from January 2020 to December 2022 were ana-
238 lyzed in this study. Three inversion experiments were conducted: (1) assimilation of OCO-3 XCO₂ (all
239 inversion experiments use OG+LNLG data) retrievals alone (Exp_OCO3); (2) assimilation of OCO-2
240 XCO₂ retrievals alone (Exp_OCO2); and (3) simultaneous assimilation of OCO-3 and OCO-2 XCO₂
241 retrievals (Exp_OCO3&2). In each experiment, the methodology employed was consistent with that
242 of previous studies (Peters et al., 2007; Jiang et al., 2021, 2022), only the NEE and OCN fluxes were
243 optimized, and the FIRE and FOSSIL emissions are prescribed. According to Eq. (1), the prior NEE
244 and OCN fluxes were perturbed using Eq. (6).

$$245 \quad \mathbf{X}_i^b = \lambda_{NEE} \times \delta_{i,NEE} \times \mathbf{X}_{NEE}^b + \lambda_{ocn} \times \delta_{i,ocn} \times \mathbf{X}_{OCN}^b + \mathbf{X}_{Fire}^b + \mathbf{X}_{Fossil}^b, i = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (6)$$

246 where \mathbf{X}_{NEE}^b , \mathbf{X}_{OCN}^b , \mathbf{X}_{Fire}^b , and \mathbf{X}_{Fossil}^b represent the prior fluxes of NEE, OCN, FIRE, and FOSSIL,
247 respectively; δ_i is random perturbation samples, which is independent between grids; λ_{NEE} and
248 λ_{ocn} are the scaling factors for prior NEE and OCN fluxes, which were set to be 6 and 10 in this study,
249 respectively. As described above, the prior fluxes have a spatial resolution of $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$, for $\delta_{i,NEE}$ and
250 $\delta_{i,ocn}$, we adopted a spatial resolution of $3^\circ \times 3^\circ$, and the outputs of the posterior fluxes have the same
251 spatial resolution with the prior fluxes, that means in each $3^\circ \times 3^\circ$ grid, the prior fluxes were adjusted
252 with a same factor.

253 Additionally, two forward simulations were conducted to obtain the prior and posterior CO₂ con-
254 centrations, which were then compared with the independent CO₂ observations to assess the posterior
255 carbon fluxes. Following Jiang et al. (2022), MOZART-4 is driven by the $1.9^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$ grids version of
256 the GEOS5 Global Atmosphere Forcing Data (Tilmes, 2016). It has a vertical level of 72 layers, and
257 MOZART-4 uses the lowest 56 vertical levels of GEOS-5 and the same spatial resolution with GEOS-
258 5 data.

259 **4 Results and discussion**

260 **4.1 Global carbon budget**

261 Table 1 presents the prior and the posterior annual global carbon budgets from the 3 inversion

262 experiments during 2020-2022. The global terrestrial NEEs obtained from the Exp_OCO3,
 263 Exp_OCO2, and Exp_OCO3&2 experiments are -3.41 ± 0.65 , -4.17 ± 0.60 , and -4.14 ± 0.57 PgC yr⁻¹,
 264 respectively. The global NEE inferred from the Exp_OCO3 is significantly weaker than those from
 265 Exp_OCO2 and Exp_OCO3&2, and the latter two are comparable. For the OCN carbon sink,
 266 Exp_OCO3 has the strongest sink but is closest to the a priori result, while Exp_OCO2 and
 267 Exp_OCO3&2 have essentially the same sink. Combined with the FOSSIL and FIRE carbon emissions,
 268 the global net carbon fluxes are 4.74 ± 0.77 , 5.55 ± 0.67 , 4.90 ± 0.63 , and 4.93 ± 0.60 PgC yr⁻¹ for the a
 269 priori, Exp_OCO3, Exp_OCO2, and Exp_OCO3&2, respectively. In comparison with the average at-
 270 mospheric CO₂ growth rate of 4.93 PgC yr⁻¹ for 2020-2022 given by the Global Carbon Budget 2023
 271 (Friedlingstein et al., 2023), the results of Exp_OCO3&2 are the closest, with a mean bias of 0.0 PgC
 272 yr⁻¹, whereas Exp_OCO3 has the largest bias, with a deviation of 0.62 PgC yr⁻¹. This indicates that the
 273 carbon sinks in Exp_OCO3 may be significantly underestimated, and joint assimilation of OCO-2 and
 274 OCO-3 XCO₂ retrievals gives the best performance on a global scale.

275 **Table 1.** Global carbon budget estimated in the 3 inversion experiments (PgC yr⁻¹).

	Prior	Exp_OCO3	Exp_OCO2	Exp_OCO3&2
FOSSIL emissions			9.71	
FIRE emissions			1.97	
NEE	-4.10 ± 0.75	-3.41 ± 0.65	-4.17 ± 0.60	-4.14 ± 0.57
OCN fluxes	-2.84 ± 0.17	-2.71 ± 0.17	-2.61 ± 0.17	-2.61 ± 0.17
Global net carbon fluxes	4.74 ± 0.77	5.55 ± 0.67	4.90 ± 0.63	4.93 ± 0.60
Observed global CO ₂ growth rates			4.93	

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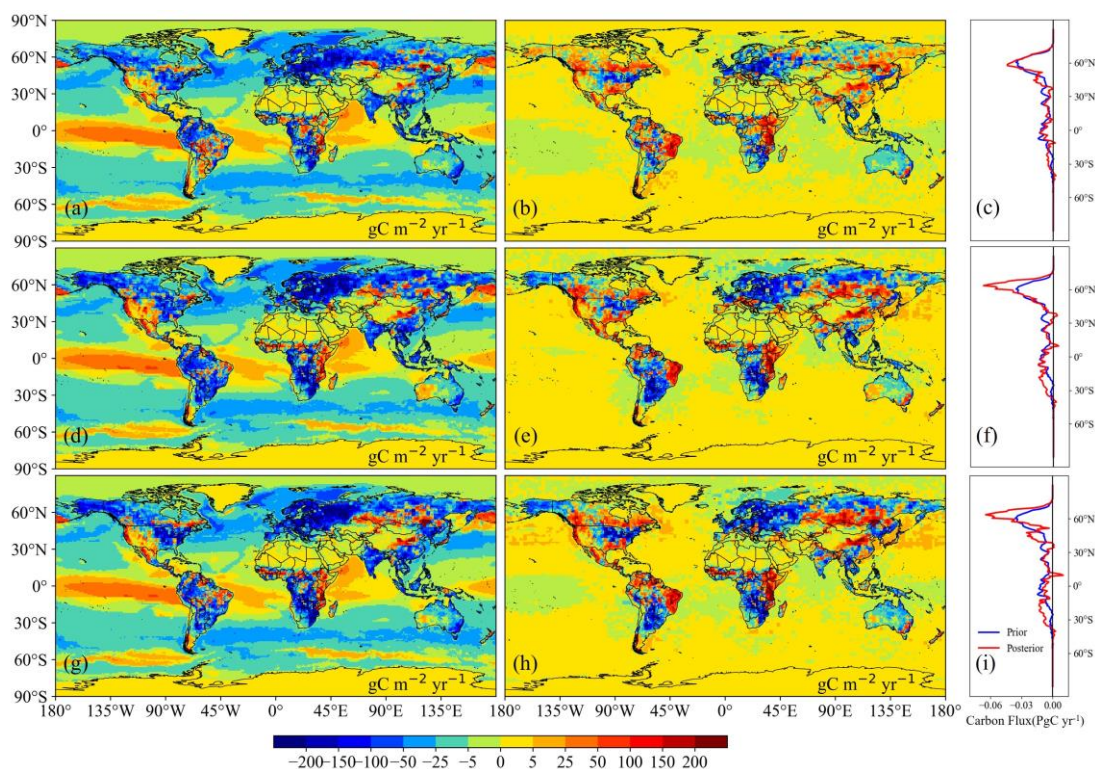
277 4.2 Regional NEE

278 Figure 3 shows the spatial distribution of annual mean posterior terrestrial fluxes and oceanic
 279 fluxes from the Exp_OCO3, Exp_OCO2, Exp_OCO3&2 and their differences against the a priori
 280 fluxes. Overall, the spatial distribution of carbon sources and sinks in terrestrial ecosystems obtained
 281 from different experiments is basically the same, with sources in western North America (N. America),

282 eastern Amazonia, parts of Siberia, parts of Northwest China, central and western Australia, and the
283 Sahel region and eastern parts of Africa, while other areas are carbon sinks. However, the carbon
284 sources/sinks obtained from Exp_OCO3 exhibit a markedly different strength compared to those de-
285 rived from the other two experiments. Compared with the prior flux, the terrestrial carbon sinks in
286 northeastern China, most of Europe, northern Siberia, the central and northeastern United States (US),
287 and southern Africa increased significantly in all the 3 experiments. However, the increase in terrestrial
288 carbon sinks in regions other than northeastern China in the Exp_OCO2 and Exp_OCO3&2 was
289 greater than that in the Exp_OCO3. Meanwhile, in southern Canada, western and southern US, eastern
290 Brazil and northern South America (S. America), the Sahel region and eastern parts of Africa, all the
291 3 inversion experiments show a significant decrease in the terrestrial carbon sink. The degree of change
292 in the inversion results is more pronounced in the Exp_OCO2 and Exp_OCO3&2 than in the
293 Exp_OCO3. Figure 3 also show the distribution of terrestrial carbon fluxes along latitudes. The poste-
294 rior and prior fluxes have a similar distribution trend along the latitude, with a significant peak of
295 carbon sink near 60°N, and the strongest sinks of Exp_OCO2 and Exp_OCO3&2 are comparable,
296 which are significantly stronger than the a priori, while Exp_OCO3 has the weakest peak of carbon
297 sink and that is close to the a priori. In addition, it also could be found that the terrestrial carbon sinks
298 obtained from Exp_OCO3 are also significantly smaller than those from Exp_OCO2 and
299 Exp_OCO3&2 near 30°S.

300 In order to better understand and compare the differences among different inversion experiments,
301 we have aggregated the prior and the posterior NEEs into the 11 TransCom-3 land regions (Figure 2),
302 as shown in Table 2. It is clearly that almost all terrestrial regions behave as carbon sinks, both prior
303 and posterior fluxes. Among the experiments, only the terrestrial NEE in northern Africa obtained by
304 Exp_OCO3&2 shows a weak carbon source. There is relatively good agreement between all the inver-
305 sion experiments on whether the land carbon flux is a source or sink, but there is significant difference
306 in the NEE values. In all regions except temperate N. America, northern Africa, temperate Asia, and
307 Australia, Exp_OCO3 shows a weaker carbon sink than Exp_OCO2. Comparing Exp_OCO3 with
308 Exp_OCO3&2, Exp_OCO3&2 shows stronger carbon sinks in temperate N. America, southern Africa,
309 Australia, and Europe; and weaker sinks in tropical S. America, northern Africa, and boreal Asia; and

310 elsewhere Exp_OCO3&2 shows sinks intermediate to the other two experiments.



311

312 **Figure 3.** Spatial distribution of annual mean posterior terrestrial and oceanic carbon fluxes from 2020 to 2022,
 313 the difference between posterior and prior fluxes, and the distribution of terrestrial NEEs at different latitudes.
 314 (a, b, c, Exp_OCO3; d, e, f, Exp_OCO2; g, h, i, Exp_OCO3&2)

315

316 The regions with more pronounced differences among experiments are temperate S. America and
 317 Europe. In Europe, the posterior fluxes of each inversion experiment show a pronounced carbon sink,
 318 which is significantly larger than the prior flux, but the results of different experiments vary to some
 319 extent, with NEEs ranging from -0.88 ± 0.24 to -1.18 ± 0.21 PgC yr⁻¹ (Table 2), with Exp_OCO3&2
 320 having the largest sink. In the temperate S. America, Exp_OCO3 exhibits a very weak carbon sink,
 321 whereas both Exp_OCO2 and Exp_OCO3&2 show a moderate carbon sink. One potential explanation
 322 for this discrepancy is that the XCO₂ concentration observed by OCO-3 in the temperate South Amer-
 323 ica is higher than that observed by OCO-2 for the duration of the study period (by ~ 0.55 ppm). Con-
 324 sequently, in that assimilating the OCO-3 observations yields a weaker carbon sink. Compared with
 325 the prior flux, the posterior NEE in the tropical S. America shows a significant discrepancy, the prior
 326 flux show a very strong carbon sink of -0.78 ± 0.23 PgC yr⁻¹, whereas the subsequent application of

327 constraints from satellite observations resulted in a reduction of the carbon sinks by approximately 2
 328 to 3 times, with values ranging from -0.21 ± 0.19 to -0.41 ± 0.20 PgC yr⁻¹.

329 Following the imposition of constraints derived from satellite observations, the carbon sinks on
 330 the Northern Hemisphere land are all enhanced, with the largest enhancement of 0.59 PgC yr⁻¹ in
 331 Exp_OCO3&2, followed by 0.19 and 0.36 PgC yr⁻¹ in Exp_OCO3 and Exp_OCO2, respectively.
 332 While in the tropics, the carbon sinks were all weakened, with Exp_OCO3 being weakened most, by
 333 0.67 PgC yr⁻¹, and the Exp_OCO2 and Exp_OCO3&2 being weakened by 0.37 and 0.59 PgC yr⁻¹,
 334 respectively; on Southern Hemisphere land, in Exp_OCO3, the sinks were weakened by 0.2 PgC yr⁻¹,
 335 whereas in Exp_OCO2 and Exp_OCO3&2, they were enhanced by 0.08 and 0.05 PgC yr⁻¹, respec-
 336 tively.

337 **Table 2.** Annual mean terrestrial fluxes (PgC yr⁻¹) in 2020-2022 for 11 TransCom-3 land regions, as well as for
 338 Northern Hemisphere land, Tropical land and Southern Hemisphere land. Includes the prior flux and the poste-
 339 rior fluxes from three inversion experiments.

Regions	Prior	Exp_OCO3	Exp_OCO2	Exp_OCO3&2
Boreal North America	-0.32 ± 0.16	-0.26 ± 0.14	-0.38 ± 0.13	-0.32 ± 0.13
Temperate North America	-0.19 ± 0.30	-0.25 ± 0.25	-0.12 ± 0.25	-0.35 ± 0.21
Tropical South America	-0.78 ± 0.23	-0.31 ± 0.21	-0.41 ± 0.20	-0.21 ± 0.19
Temperate South America	-0.28 ± 0.22	-0.03 ± 0.17	-0.40 ± 0.16	-0.27 ± 0.14
Northern Africa	-0.17 ± 0.28	-0.06 ± 0.24	-0.02 ± 0.23	0.03 ± 0.20
Southern Africa	-0.30 ± 0.24	-0.30 ± 0.19	-0.49 ± 0.17	-0.54 ± 0.16
Boreal Asia	-0.56 ± 0.26	-0.37 ± 0.24	-0.52 ± 0.21	-0.34 ± 0.23
Temperate Asia	-0.42 ± 0.23	-0.33 ± 0.20	-0.22 ± 0.19	-0.30 ± 0.18
Tropical Asia	-0.37 ± 0.13	-0.31 ± 0.12	-0.39 ± 0.11	-0.35 ± 0.11
Australia	-0.15 ± 0.09	-0.20 ± 0.08	-0.11 ± 0.08	-0.21 ± 0.07
Europe	-0.40 ± 0.26	-0.88 ± 0.24	-1.01 ± 0.19	-1.18 ± 0.21
Northern Hemisphere lands	-1.89 ± 0.56	-2.08 ± 0.49	-2.25 ± 0.44	-2.48 ± 0.44
Tropical lands	-1.65 ± 0.45	-0.98 ± 0.38	-1.28 ± 0.37	-1.06 ± 0.34
Southern Hemisphere lands	-0.43 ± 0.24	-0.23 ± 0.18	-0.51 ± 0.17	-0.48 ± 0.15

340

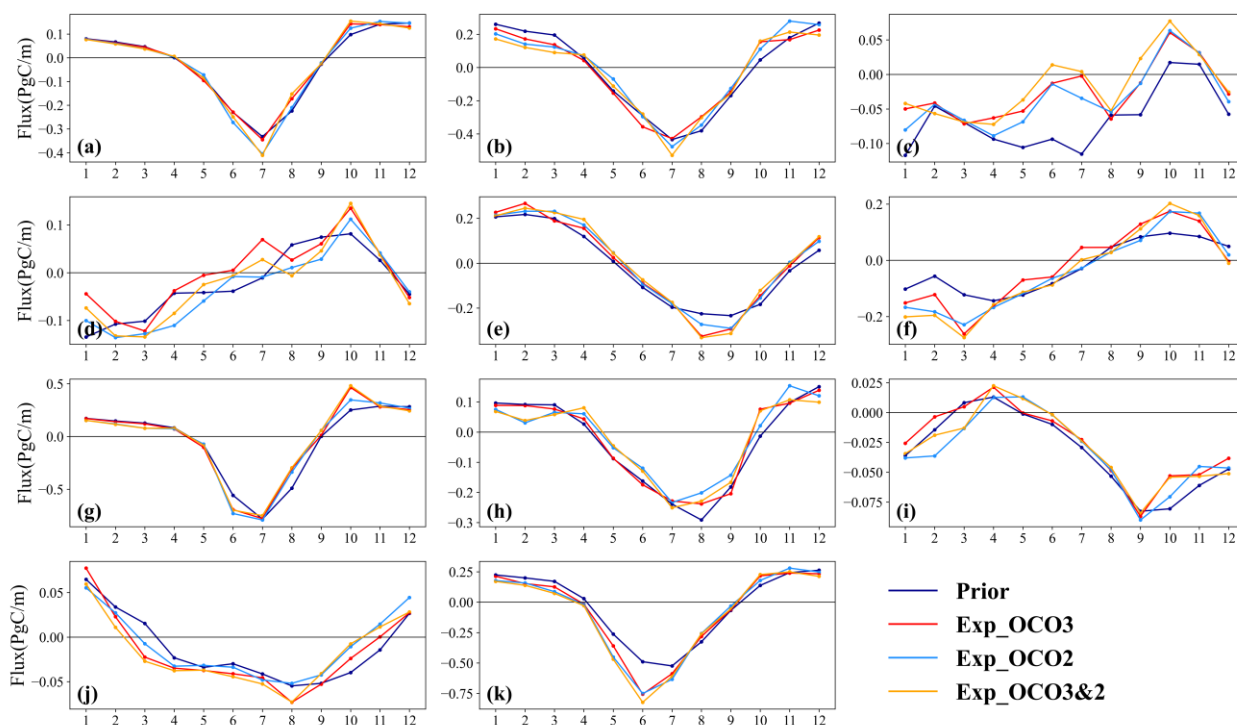
341 4.3 Seasonal cycle of NEE

342 Figure 4 illustrates the seasonal cycle of NEE for each TransCom-3 region. The posterior NEEs
343 of different experiments are in good agreement on the seasonal cycle in most regions. In the Northern
344 Hemisphere, the seasonal cycles of NEE in boreal N. America, temperate N. America, boreal Asia,
345 temperate Asia, and Europe show relatively consistent trends. Carbon sinks in these regions generally
346 occur from May to September and carbon sources from October to April. Large differences are evi-
347 dent in the strength of the carbon sinks observed in different regions, with different months in which
348 the strongest carbon sinks occur. Boreal N. America, temperate N. America, and boreal Asia have the
349 strongest carbon sinks in July, temperate Asia has the peak in July or August, and Europe has the
350 strongest sinks in June. In the Southern Hemisphere, the southern Africa and temperate S. America
351 have more consistent seasonal cycles, with their carbon sources occurring roughly from July to De-
352 cember and sinks from January to June. The strongest carbon sources all occur in October, and the
353 strongest sinks occur around March. In Australia, carbon sinks occur mainly from March to October,
354 with the peak occurring in August. In the tropics, southern Africa shows a seasonal cycle opposite to
355 that of northern Africa, and carbon sinks occur from January to July with the strongest carbon sinks
356 occurring near March. Tropical Asia shows a carbon sink in most months, with the strongest sink in
357 September. The seasonal cycle in tropical S. America is more complex, with the strongest carbon
358 source in October. In general, seasonal amplitudes are small in the tropics and large in the northern
359 regions. The averaged seasonal amplitudes of the three inversion experiments in the boreal Asia, Eu-
360 rope, and temperate N. America are 1.17, 0.97, and 0.72 PgC yr⁻¹, respectively, while the seasonal
361 amplitudes in tropical Asia and S. America are about 0.10 PgC yr⁻¹.

362 The regions where the difference between the prior and posterior NEEs is particularly pronounced
363 are tropical S. America, southern Africa, Australia, and Europe. In the tropical S. America, the prior
364 NEE is a significant sink from May to July, but after constraints from satellite observations, the carbon
365 sink decreases significantly, even approaching neutral in June and July, and furthermore, in September
366 and October, the sink also decreases significantly compared to the a priori. In southern Africa, the
367 carbon sink is significantly stronger from January to March compared to the a priori, and conversely,
368 the carbon source is significantly stronger in October and November. In Australia, the carbon sink is

369 significantly increased from January to August and decreased in October and November compared to
 370 the a priori. In Europe, there is a significant increase in the carbon sinks from May to June compared
 371 to the a priori.

372 As described in Section 4.2 that in temperate N. America, northern Africa, temperate Asia, and
 373 Australia, Exp_OCO3 shows a stronger sink than Exp_OCO2, which mainly occurs in May and June
 374 in temperate N. America, in August and September in northern Africa, from April to September in
 375 temperate Asia, and in Australia except for July. In other regions, Exp_OCO3 has weaker sinks than
 376 Exp_OCO2. In the high latitudinal regions, on the one hand, the carbon sinks in June and July of the
 377 Exp_OCO3 are generally smaller than those of Exp_OCO2, and on the other hand, the carbon source
 378 in October is significantly higher than that of Exp_OCO2, while in the tropics, the carbon sink is lower
 379 than that of Exp_OCO2 almost all year round. Compared to Exp_OCO3, Exp_OCO3&2 shows
 380 stronger carbon sinks in temperate N. America, southern Africa, Australia, and Europe, mainly in sum-
 381 mer; and weaker sinks in tropical S. America, northern Africa, and boreal Asia, mainly in autumn.
 382 Elsewhere Exp_OCO3&2 shows carbon sinks intermediate to the other two experiments.



383 **Figure 4.** Averaged prior and posterior seasonal cycle of NEE in different TransCom-3 regions during 2020–
 384 2022; (a) boreal N. America, (b) temperate N. America, (c) tropical S. America, (d) temperate S. America, (e)

385 northern Africa, (f) southern Africa, (g) boreal Asia, (h) temperate Asia, (i) tropical Asia, (j) Australia, (k) Eu-
386 rope.

387 4.4 Evaluation against independent observations

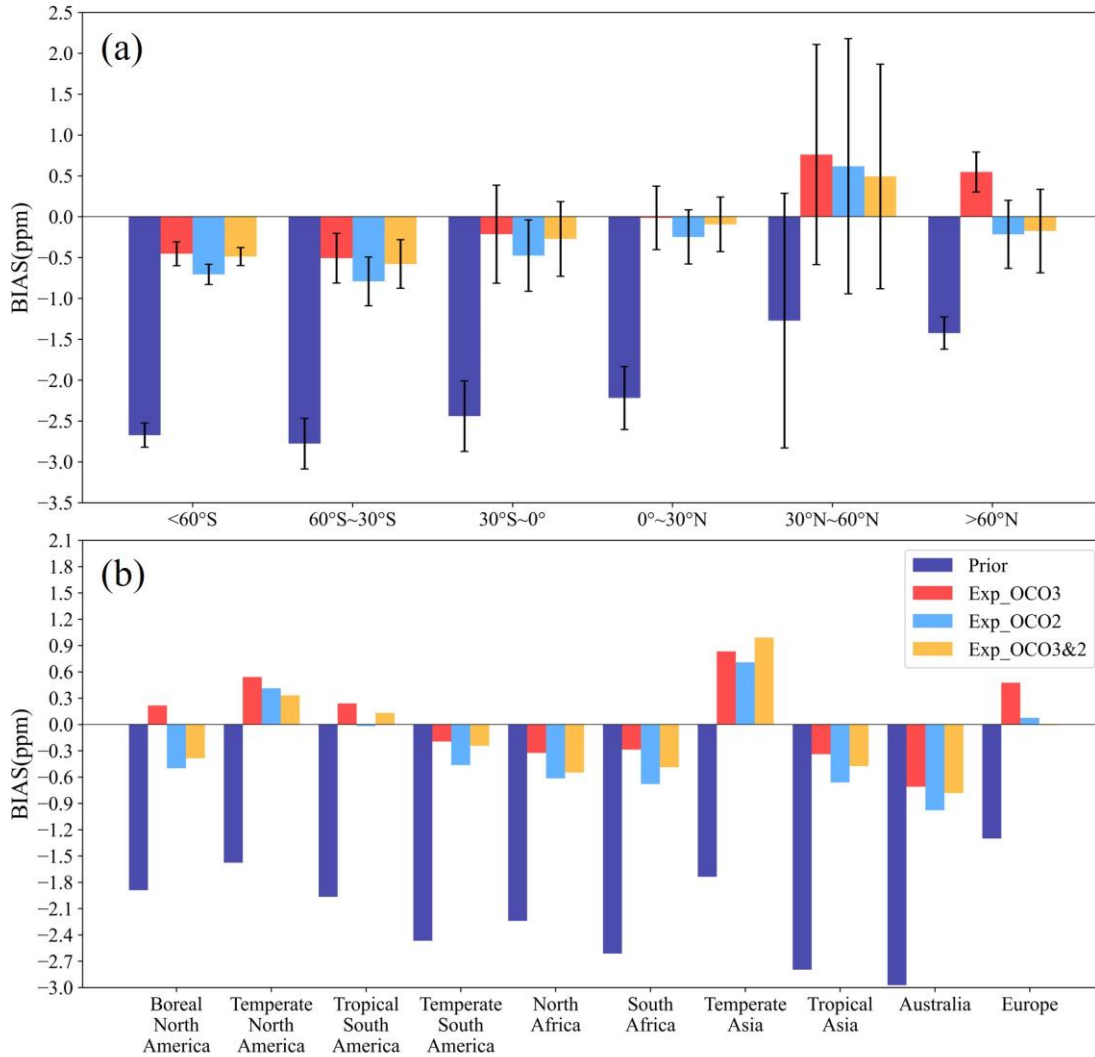
388 As shown in Figure 5, observations from 66 surface flask sites were used to evaluate the posterior
389 fluxes. The prior and posterior CO₂ concentrations were simulated by the MOZART-4 model using the
390 corresponding prior and posterior fluxes, as described in Section 3. The overall assessment results of
391 the individual inversion experiments on a global scale are shown in Table 3. The results show that the
392 mean BIAS, MAE, and RMSE between the prior CO₂ concentrations and surface flask observations
393 are -1.82, 3.27, and 5.01 ppm, respectively. The prior BIAS shows a pronounced negative bias, which
394 can be attributed to the fact that the prior NEE in 2019 (generated by the spin-up stage) was, on average,
395 approximately 3.5 PgC less than the posterior NEE. This part of the NEE has an impact on the sub-
396 sequent inversion. After constraints using the XCO₂ retrievals, the biases of the three experiments are
397 reduced significantly compared to the a priori, indicating that the surface carbon fluxes have been
398 improved. A comparison of the three inversion experiments reveals that Exp_OCO3 exhibits the largest
399 BIAS, while Exp_OCO3&2 exhibits the lowest MAE and RMSE.

400 **Table 3.** Error statistics between the simulated CO₂ concentrations and surface flask observations (ppm).

	BIAS	MAE	RMSE
Prior	-1.82	3.27	5.01
Exp_OCO3	0.32	2.44	4.56
Exp_OCO2	0.02	2.42	4.49
Exp_OCO3&2	0.05	2.34	4.47

407 Figure 5a and 5b illustrate the BIAS of the individual inversion experiments at different latitudinal
408 zones and in different TransCom-3 land regions. In all latitudinal bands and all land regions, the CO₂
409 concentrations modelled by the a priori fluxes have the largest negative BIAS, which is greater than -
410 1.2 ppm in all cases. Across latitudinal zones, in the Southern Hemisphere, and south of 30°N latitude,
411 the Exp_OCO3 had the smallest BIAS, which is smaller than the Exp_OCO2 and comparable to the

412 results of the Exp_OCO3&2. However, in the mid to high latitudes of the Northern Hemisphere, the
413 BIAS of the Exp_OCO3 is higher than those of the Exp_OCO2 and Exp_OCO3&2. Especially in the
414 region north of 60°N latitude, the Exp_OCO3 exhibits a significant positive BIAS, while the
415 Exp_OCO2 and Exp_OCO3&2 both exhibit small negative BIAS. This suggests that the carbon sinks
416 at mid to high latitudes were underestimated. We also find that the OCO-3 retrievals help with the lack
417 of space-based XCO₂ observations in the tropics compared to OCO-2. The BIAS of Exp_OCO3&2 is
418 smaller than Exp_OCO2 in the region from 30°S to 30°N. Meanwhile, the BIAS of Exp_OCO3&2 is
419 also smaller than Exp_OCO2 in southern Africa, northern Africa and tropical Asia. Furthermore, we
420 can find that the BIAS can be further reduced in the mid to high latitudes of the Northern Hemisphere
421 after the addition of assimilated OCO-3 observations compared to the Exp_OCO2. In different Trans-
422 Com-3 land regions, the BIAS of the three inversion experiments is less than ±0.6 ppm, except in the
423 temperate Asia. In Africa, temperate S. America, tropical Asia, and Australia, the Exp_OCO3 had the
424 smallest BIAS, while the BIAS of Exp_OCO3&2 was between those of Exp_OCO3 and Exp_OCO2.
425 However, in temperate N. America and Europe, the Exp_OCO3 has the largest BIAS, followed by the
426 Exp_OCO2, while the Exp_OCO3&2 has the smallest BIAS.



427

428 **Figure 5.** The prior and posterior CO₂ BIAS(a) at different latitudinal zones and (b) in different land
 429 regions.

430 **4.5 Discussion**

431 In most of the previous studies that used OCO-2 XCO₂ to invert surface carbon fluxes, the OG
 432 data were not used (e.g., Peiro et al., 2022; Byrne et al., 2023), the reason is that the OG XCO₂ may
 433 have larger uncertainties, inversions assimilating OCO-2 OG retrievals produced unrealistic results of
 434 annual global ocean sinks (Peiro et al., 2022). In addition to its large uncertainties, we believe that
 435 another reason for the poor assimilation performance of OG is the relatively homogeneous distribution
 436 of XCO₂ on ocean, causing a large correlation of the model-data biases among different XCO₂ obser-
 437 vations within a same region, which leads to observations at the same region having the same direction

438 of adjustment for surface fluxes, and thus leads to a significant overestimated or underestimated
439 of ocean carbon sink. Because of this, some assimilation algorithms (e.g., EnSRF) can only achieve
440 better assimilation results when the model-data biases between observations have relatively small cor-
441 relation or are uncorrelated. Therefore, in this study, we set the OG data with larger uncertainties than
442 the LNLG data, and re-grided it at a coarser spatial resolution of $5^\circ \times 5^\circ$. The results show that
443 under this scheme, the inverted ocean sink is reasonable, with value of -2.6 PgC yr^{-1} (Table 1). In
444 addition, in order to compare the scheme that we have adopted in this study with the previous scheme
445 that do not assimilate the OG, we added three additional inversion experiments, in which only the
446 LNLG data were assimilated (Table S1). It could be found that all the three inversion experiments
447 without OG observations place smaller constraints on the ocean fluxes compared to the original exper-
448 iments, with the posterior ocean fluxes remaining almost identical to the prior ocean fluxes. Corre-
449 spondingly, the inverted global land sink as well as the sinks in most regions show a slight decrease
450 (Tables S2 and S3). Evaluations in comparison with *in-situ* observations showed that there are some
451 increases in the a posteriori concentration biases for all three experiments after removing OG. For
452 example, for the experiments assimilating OCO-2 data, the mean bias increased from 0.02 to 0.14 ppm
453 (Table S4). This suggests that assimilating OG data with our method can improve the inversions some-
454 what compared to removing OG.

455 Since OCO-3 has similar observation uncertainties of XCO_2 with OCO-2 (Taylor et al., 2023), the
456 poor performance of assimilating OCO-3 XCO_2 retrievals (Exp_OCO3) may be related to that 1)
457 OCO-3 lacks observations beyond 52° North and South latitudes (Figure 1a); 2) the observation time
458 different from OCO-2; and 3) its spatial coverage between 52°S and 52°N . We first examined weekly
459 changes in the data amount of OCO-3 using the re-grided data as described in Section 2.3, and found
460 that there are very significant cyclical fluctuations in the data amount from OCO-3 (Figure S4a). Every
461 8 weeks or so, there is a trough in the data amount. There is a difference of about 5 times between the
462 weeks with the highest and the lowest data amount, and in the weeks with least data amount, there
463 were essentially no observations in the northern hemisphere (Figure S4b). This implies that the surface

464 carbon fluxes are largely unconstrained in the Northern Hemisphere, especially at mid- to high-lati-
465 tudes, during the weeks with low observational data, resulting in poorer assimilation performance than
466 for OCO-2. For the observation time, all observations of OCO-2 were at 1:30 p.m. local time (LST),
467 whereas that of OCO-3 were variable, with only about 14% of the observations near 13:30 p.m. LST
468 and about 54% in the morning or after 4:00 p.m. LST (Figure S1). For reasons such as coarser model
469 resolution, the global atmospheric chemical transport models generally simulate atmospheric concen-
470 trations better only in the afternoon, when boundary layer heights are at their highest and atmospheric
471 mixing is at its best, so assimilating these observations in the morning and after 4 p.m. LST may result
472 in poorer inversions due to the greater simulation bias of the atmospheric transport models at these
473 times of day.

474 In order to quantify these effects, we added another 3 additional inversion experiments, which
475 were named as Exp_OCO2r, Exp_OCO3tc, and Exp_OCO2ts (Table S1). In Exp_OCO2r, only the
476 OCO-2 XCO₂ retrievals located between 52°S and 52°N retrievals were assimilated, in Exp_OCO3tc,
477 all the observation times of the OCO-3 XCO₂ retrievals were changed to 1.30 p.m. LST, and in
478 Exp_OCO3ts, only OCO-3 data with observation times between 12 and 3 p.m. LST were assimilated.
479 When the OCO-2 data beyond 52° North and South latitudes were also removed (Exp_OCO2r), the
480 NEE estimates, both globally and for individual regions, are close to those of the Exp_OCO3 experi-
481 ment, especially in the high latitude region of Europe and boreal North America, the inverted NEEs
482 are almost identical to those of the Exp_OCO3 experiment (Table S2 and S3), and the bias of a poste-
483 riori concentrations from observations at high latitudes is close to that of the OCO-3 experiment (Fig-
484 ure S3). However, globally, compared to the OCO-3 experiment, the Exp_OCO2r experiment still has
485 smaller the deviation between the global net flux and the observed annual growth rate (Table S2), and
486 smaller the global mean bias of the posterior concentrations (Table S4). This suggests that the lack of
487 observations of OCO-3 beyond 52° North and South latitudes does have a significant impact on the
488 inversion results. In addition, it can also be noted that at mid-latitudes, the bias of Exp_OCO2r is also
489 smaller than the OCO-3 experiment, which may be caused by the significant fluctuations in the data

490 amount of OCO-3 (Figure S4). When we changed all the observation times of the OCO-3 XCO₂ re-
491 trievals to 1.30 p.m. LST (Exp_OCO3tc), although we are not actually able to do so, the inversion does
492 show a significant improvement compared to Exp_OCO3. However, if we only select the data with
493 observation time between 12:00 and 3:00 p.m. LST (Exp_OCO3ts), the deviation between the global
494 net flux and the observed annual growth rate, and the mean biases of the posterior concentrations at
495 most latitudes are larger than those of Exp_OCO3 (Table S2 and Figure S3), indicating a poorer per-
496 formance than Exp_OCO3. The probably reason is that the data number of observations is substantially
497 reduced at this time (Figure S2), which leads to a substantial weakening of the observational constraints
498 on surface carbon fluxes (Figure S5).

499

500 **5 Summary and Conclusion**

501 In this study, we constrained terrestrial NEEs for the period from 1 August 2019 to 31 December
502 2022 using the OCO-2 and OCO-3 XCO₂ retrievals and the GCASv2 system, and analyzed the inver-
503 sion results from 2020 to 2022. We conducted three inversion experiments for separately and jointly
504 assimilating the OCO-2 and OCO-3 XCO₂ retrievals, to explore the impact of the OCO-3 XCO₂ re-
505 trievals on the constraints of global terrestrial NEEs. The prior and posterior CO₂ mixing ratios ob-
506 tained from forward simulations using the prior and posterior fluxes are analysed in comparison with
507 observations from 66 surface flask sites.

508 Globally, the terrestrial carbon sink from the Exp_OCO3 is smaller than the prior, while the ter-
509 restrial carbon sinks from the other two inversion experiments are slightly larger than the prior, but the
510 difference is small. The global net carbon flux from the Exp_OCO3&2 is very close to the observed
511 atmospheric CO₂ growth rate. Regionally, the posterior NEEs for most terrestrial regions show a car-
512 bon sink, with Europe showing a very strong sink and North Africa close to carbon neutrality. In the
513 Northern Hemisphere, the carbon sinks are enhanced, with the Exp_OCO3&2 being the most enhanced
514 by 0.59 PgC yr⁻¹ and the Exp_OCO3 and Exp_OCO2 by 0.19 and 0.36 PgC yr⁻¹, respectively. In the
515 tropics, the carbon sinks are weakened, with the Exp_OCO3 being the most weakened by 0.67 PgC
516 yr⁻¹, and the Exp_OCO2 and Exp_OCO3&2 sinks being weakened by 0.37 and 0.59 PgC yr⁻¹, respec-
517 tively; in the southern land, the sink inverted in Exp_OCO3 is weakened by 0.2 PgC yr⁻¹, whereas

518 those in the Exp_OCO2 and Exp_OCO3&2 are enhanced, by 0.08 and 0.05 PgC yr⁻¹, respectively.

519 On a global scale, the BIAS between the prior CO₂ concentrations and surface flask observations
520 is -1.82 ppm, with a MAE of 3.27 ppm and a RMSE of 5.01 ppm. The deviations between the posterior
521 CO₂ concentrations and surface flask observations for all three inversions are reduced to different de-
522 grees from the prior, especially for the BIAS, which decreased to 0.32, 0.02, and 0.05 ppm by
523 Exp_OCO3, Exp_OCO2, and Exp_OCO3&2, respectively. The reasons for the poor performance of
524 assimilating OCO-3 XCO₂ alone are, on the one hand, the fact that it is only available between 52° S
525 and 52°N, which leads to a lack of observational constraints on the carbon sinks at high latitudes, and
526 the large fluctuations in the amount of observational data, which leads to significant differences in
527 observational constraints at mid-latitudes at different times; on the other hand, its varied observation
528 time also affect the inversions, but even choosing afternoon observations does not improve the inver-
529 sions because the amount of observed data drops significantly. Therefore, a better option for the future
530 would be to jointly assimilate the OCO-2 XCO₂ data and the OCO-3 XCO₂ retrievals observed in the
531 afternoon (12:00 to 16:00 LST).

532

533 **Code availability.** The code of the GCASv2 system is available to the community and can be accessed
534 upon request from Fei Jiang(jiangf@nju.edu.cn) at Nanjing University.

535 **Data availability.** The OCO-2 and OCO-3 data used in this study is available at [https://ww](https://www.earthdata.nasa.gov)
536 [w.earthdata.nasa.gov](https://www.earthdata.nasa.gov). The FOSSIL carbon emissions of GCP-GridFEDv2023.1 is available at
537 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8386803>. The FIRE carbon emissions GFED 4.1s is available at
538 https://daac.ornl.gov/VEGETATION/guides/fire_emissions_v4_R1.html. The results of three in
539 version experiments and evaluation are publicly available at [https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.112](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.11239535)
540 [39535](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.11239535).

541

542 **Author contributions.** XW and FJ designed the research. XW ran the model, analyzed the results
543 and wrote the paper. HW and ZZ collected the OCO-2 and OCO-3 XCO₂ retrievals. MW, JW, WH,
544 WJ and JC participated in the discussion of the inversion results and provided revisions before the
545 paper was submitted.

546

547 **Competing interests.** The author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

548

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552

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559

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