

Satellite Measurements of Greenhouse Gases

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Overview of this Afternoon

- 1. Basic Concepts of Remote Sensing**
- 2. Remote Sensing of CO₂**
- 3. Computer-based Activity**

Relevant Literature:

G. Petty - A first course in Atmospheric Radiation

G. Stephens – Remote Sensing of the Lower Atmosphere

W.G. Rees – physical Principles of Remote Sensing

R.M. Goody and Y.L. Yung – Atmospheric Radiation

K.N. Liou - An Introduction to Atmospheric Radiation

Section 1:

Basic Concepts of Remote Sensing

What is Remote Sensing ?

*“Remote sensing is the science and art of obtaining information about an object, area, or phenomenon through the analysis of data acquired by a device that is **not in contact** with the object, area, or phenomenon under investigation”*

(Lillesand and Kiefer 1987)

*“Remote sensing is the acquisition of information of an object or phenomenon, by the use of either recording or real-time sensing device(s) that is **not in physical or intimate contact** with the object”*

(Wikipedia)

In practice, remote sensing is the utilization at a distance (as from aircraft, spacecraft, satellite, or ship) of any device for gathering information about the environment, e.g. an aircraft taking photographs, earth observation and weather satellites

What is Remote Sensing ?

*“Remote sensing is the science and art of obtaining information about an area, or phenomenon through the analysis of data collected by a sensor that does not make **contact** with the object, area, or phenomenon being studied”*
(Lillesand and Kiefer 1987)

*“Remote sensing is the acquisition of information about an object or phenomenon without the use of either recording or real-time sensing in **intimate contact** with the object”*
(Wikipedia)

In practice, remote sensing is the utilization of (e.g. aircraft, spacecraft, satellite, or ship) of any device to collect data about an environment, e.g. an aircraft taking photographs from a satellite



An Example from the Early Days

So what do we see ?



Nadir view

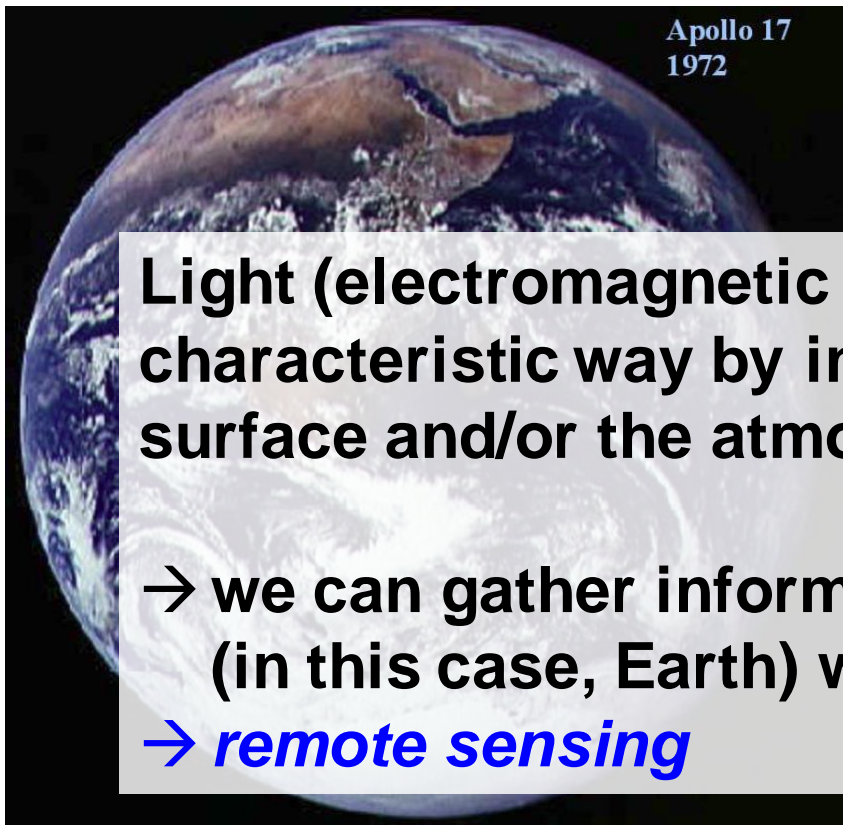


View towards the limb

An Example from the Early Days

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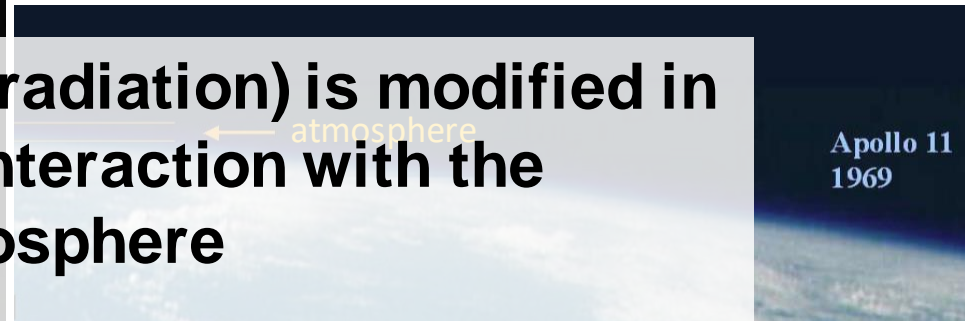
- *Clouds, different surfaces, light scattered from the atmosphere ...*



Light (electromagnetic radiation) is modified in characteristic way by interaction with the surface and/or the atmosphere

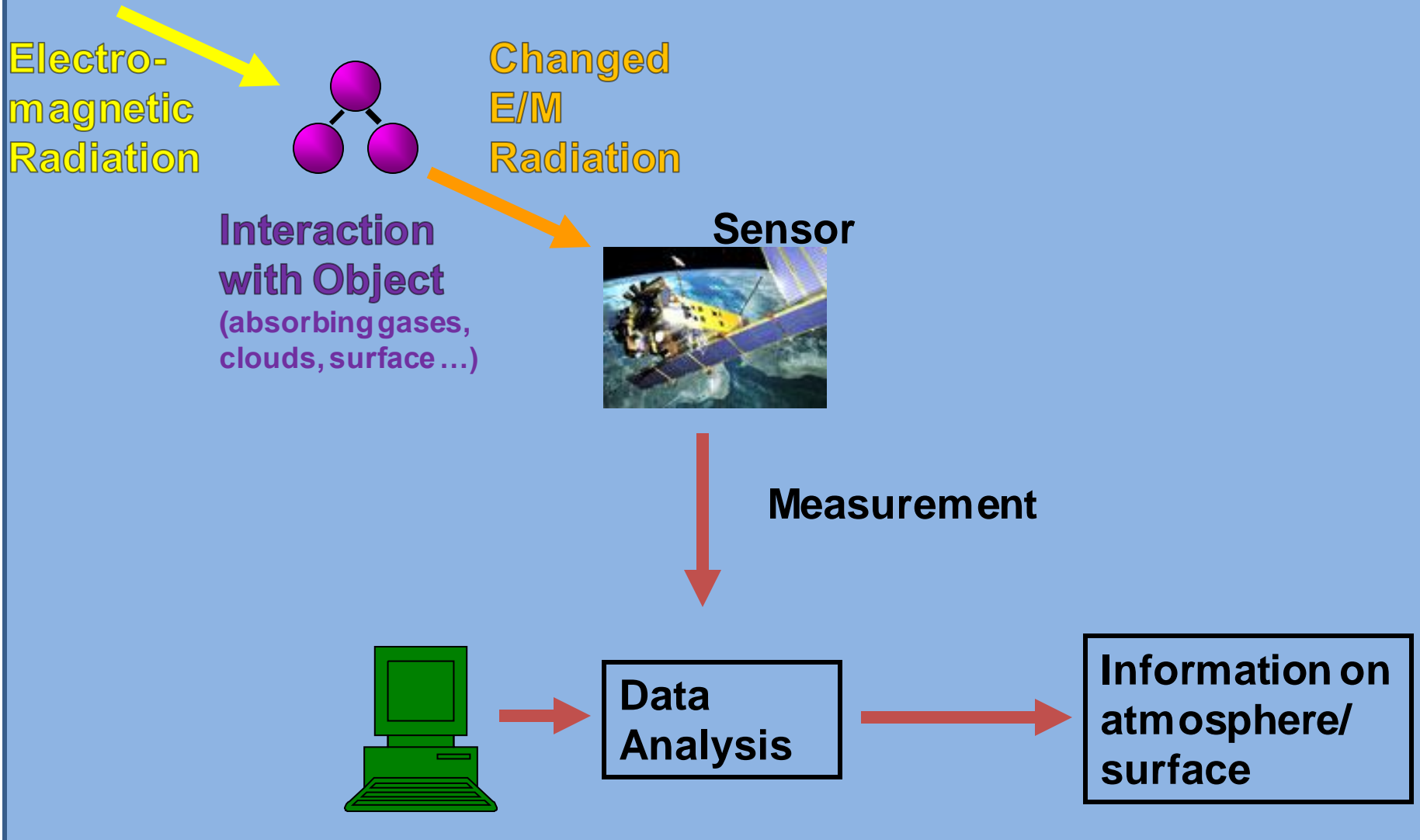
→ we can gather information about a system
(in this case, Earth) without physical contact
→ *remote sensing*

Nadir view



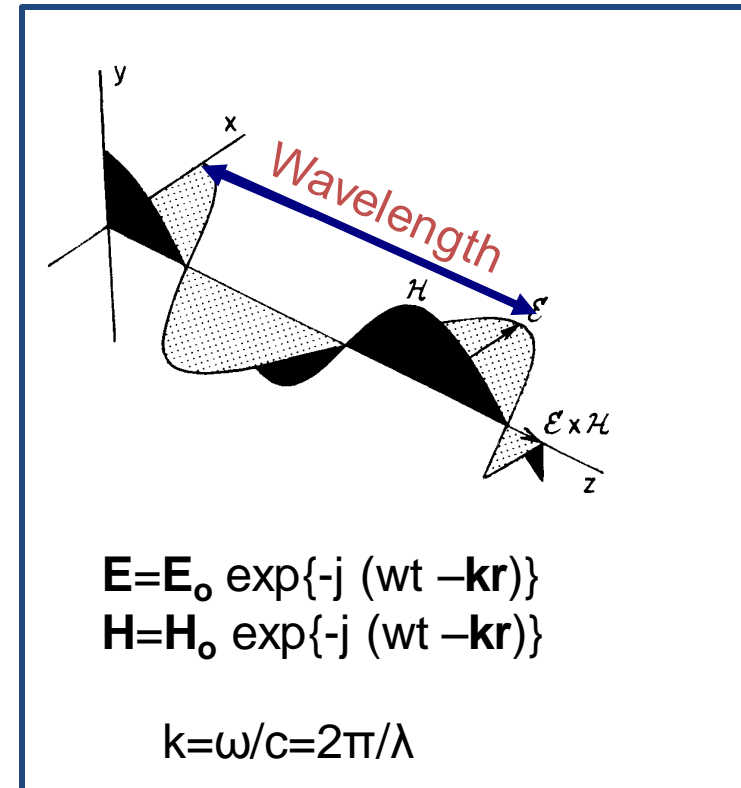
View towards the limb

Principle of Remote Sensing Observations



Electro-Magnetic Radiation: Basic Properties

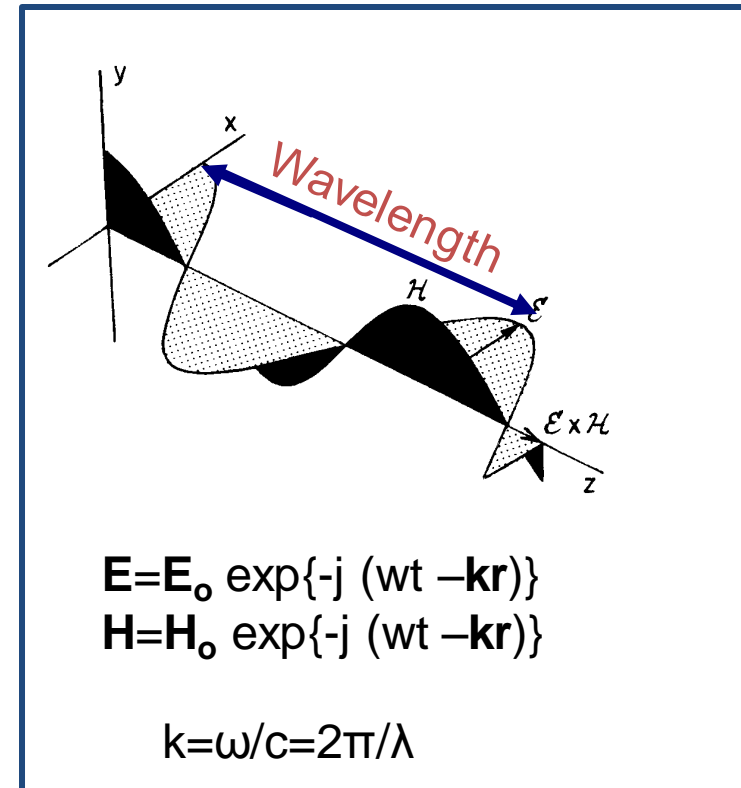
- EM radiation is created via mutual oscillations of **electric fields** E and **magnetic fields** H
- Direction of propagation of an EM wave is orthogonal to direction of oscillations (E , H , k form orthogonal system)
- EM waves travel at the speed of light: $c = c_0/n$, where n is **refractive index** of medium
- Oscillations can be described in terms of:
 - **wavelength** (λ): distance between individual peaks in the oscillation
 - **frequency** ($\nu = c/\lambda$): number of oscillations per second
 - **wavenumber** ($= 1/\lambda$): number of wave crests (or troughs) per length
 - *Wavelength, (frequency) and wavenumber are often used interchangeably*



Electro-Magnetic Radiation: Basic Properties

Three basic properties describe EM radiation:

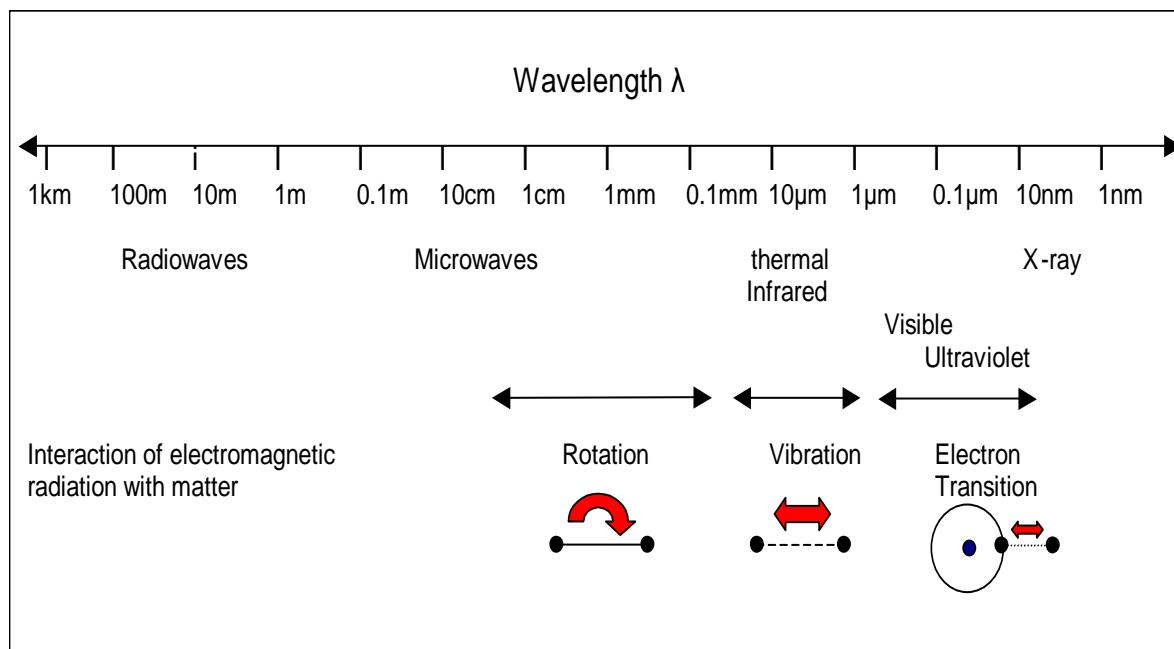
- **Frequency** determines how radiation interacts with matter
 - *Rule of thumb: high frequency oscillations (e.g. UV wavelengths) interact with smallest matter (e.g. electrons), whilst low frequency oscillations (IR and microwave) interact with larger matter (e.g. molecules, water droplets, particles)*
- **Amplitude** E_0 directly defines the amount of energy carried by an EM wave (Poynting vector): proportional to $|E_0|^2$
- **Polarization** defines orientation of oscillation – which can affect way radiation interacts with matter (e.g. Fresnel laws)



For the purposes of this course, we are interested primarily in energy carried by EM radiation, how it is affected by interactions with matter, and how those interactions vary spectrally (as a function of wavelength)

Electromagnetic spectrum

Highest
Energy



Lowest
Energy

The energy of a photon is determined by frequency ν :

$$E = h\nu = h\frac{c}{\lambda}$$

***c*: speed of light**

***h*: Planck constant**

- **UV/Vis and near-IR:** **Electronic and vibrational transitions**
- **Thermal IR:** **Vibrational transitions**
- **Microwaves:** **Rotational transitions**
- **Usually a combination of the different transition types occur**

Black Body Radiation

A **black body** is a body or gas volume that

- has constant temperature
- absorbs all incoming radiation completely
- has the maximum possible emission in all directions (isotropic) and at all wavelengths

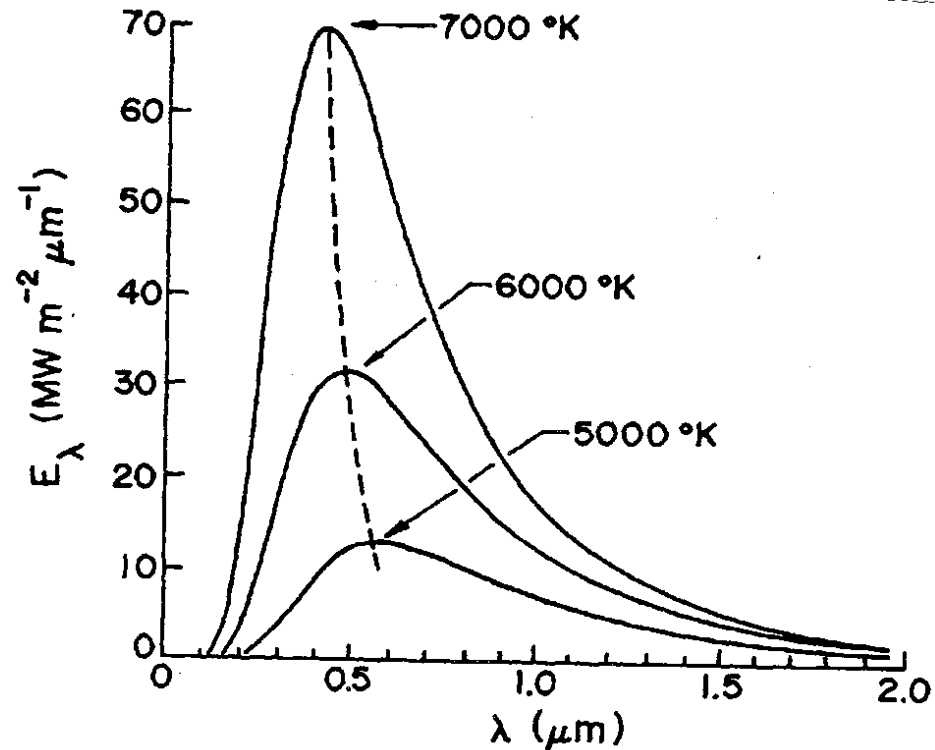
The **Planck function** describes the energy flux, $B(\lambda, T)$, emitted by a black body

$B(\lambda, T)$, is characterised by:

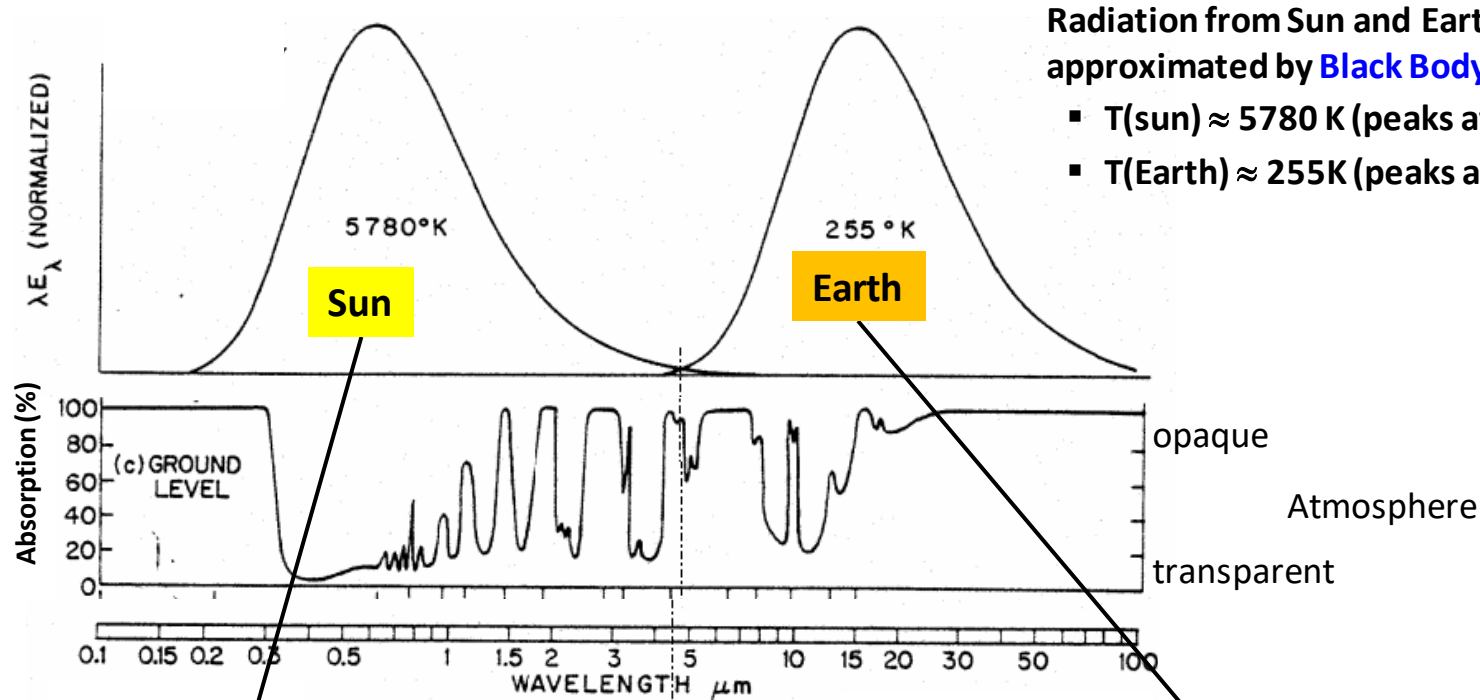
- Large dependence on λ
- Total emitted power increases strongly with temperature ($\sim T^4$) - **Stefan Boltzmann Law**
- Well defined maximum for given T that is at smaller λ for larger T (**Wien law**)
- Emission from real object is given by:

$$I(\lambda) = \epsilon(\lambda) B(\lambda, T)$$

with **spectral emissivity** $\epsilon(\lambda)$



Two Main Sources for E/M Radiation



Radiation from Sun and Earth can be approximated by **Black Body** (Planck Functions):

- $T(\text{sun}) \approx 5780 \text{ K}$ (peaks at $\sim 0.6 \mu\text{m}$ = visible)
- $T(\text{Earth}) \approx 255 \text{ K}$ (peaks at $\sim 10 \mu\text{m}$ = IR)

Shortwave Range:

- Sun as a Light Source:
- High Intensity
- High transparency of atmosphere allows to see to the surface

- Shortwave and longwave range are well separated
- Thermal emission can be (usually) neglected in the solar spectral range and vice versa

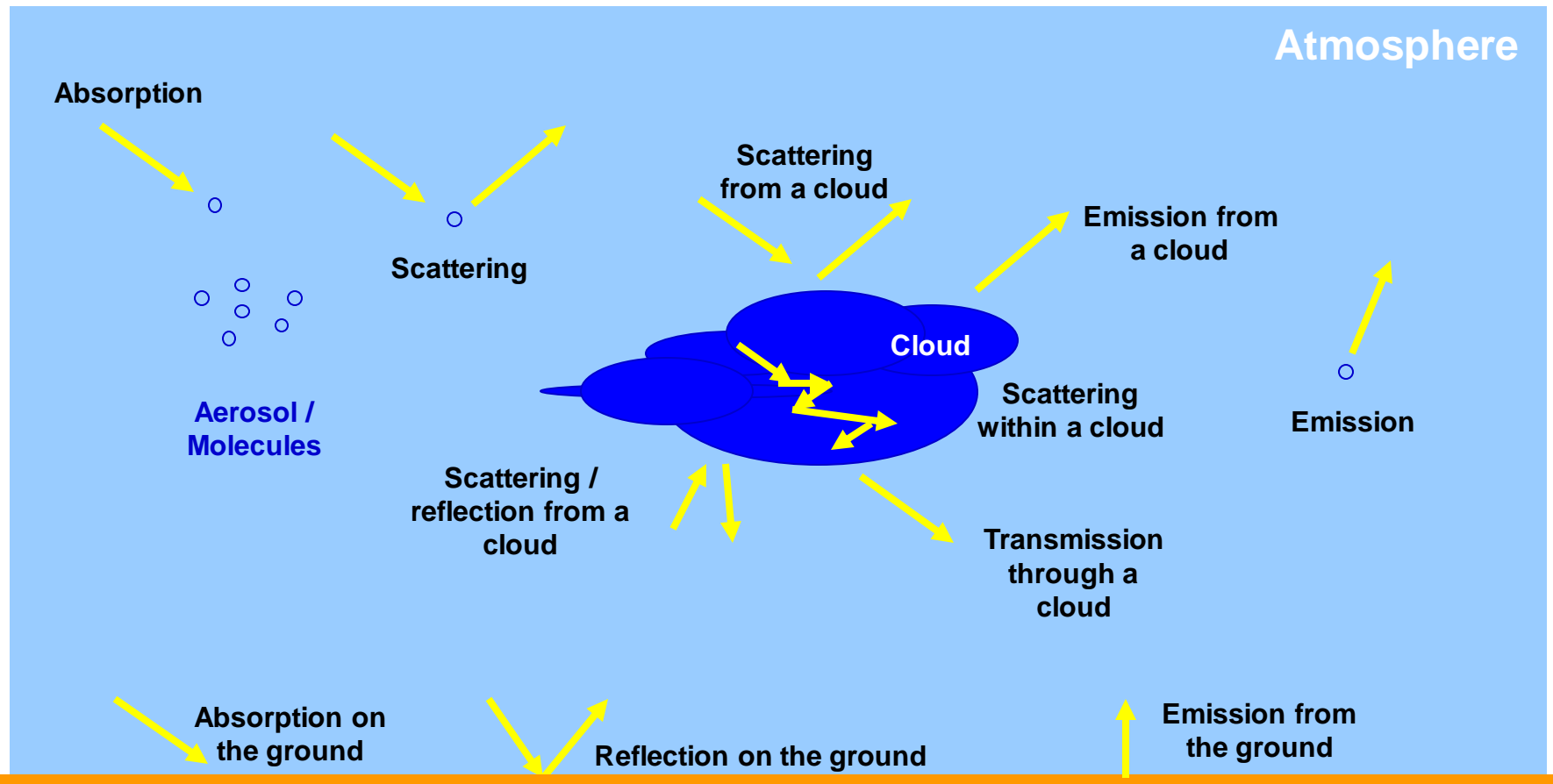
Long wave Range:

- Thermal IR radiation:
- Available night and day
- Many more absorbers/emitters

Overview of Radiative Transfer Processes

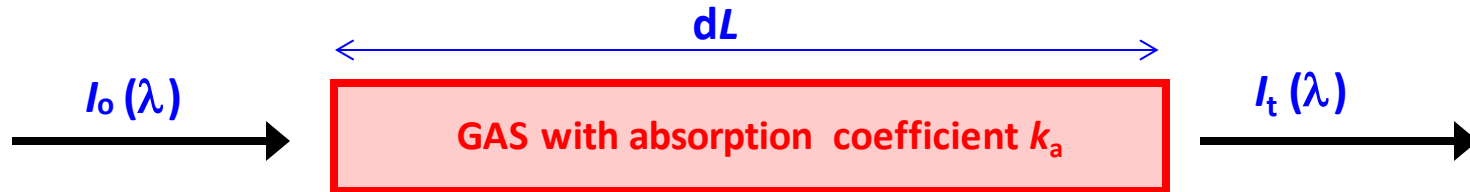


Interaction of Photons (E/M radiation) with Surface and Atmosphere generates the signals that we are interested in!



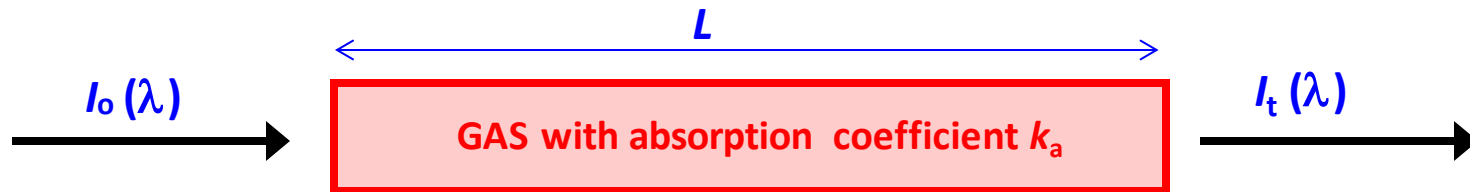
Beer-Lambert Law: The Conventional Case

The **Beer-Lambert (-Bouget) Law**: if a signal of intensity $I(\lambda)$ passes a distance, dL , through a homogenous medium with absorption coefficient, k_a (per unit distance):



Beer-Lambert Law: The Conventional Case

The **Beer-Lambert (-Bouget) Law**: if radiation of intensity $I(\lambda)$ passes a distance, dL , through a homogenous medium with absorption coefficient, k_a (per unit distance):



For a short path dL :
$$dI(\lambda) = - k_a(\lambda) I dL$$

Then
$$I_t(\lambda) = I_0(\lambda) \exp \{- k_a(\lambda) L \}$$
 assuming $k_a = \text{constant}$

And transmissivity:
$$T(\lambda) = I_t(\lambda) / I_0(\lambda) = \exp \{- k_a(\lambda) L \}$$

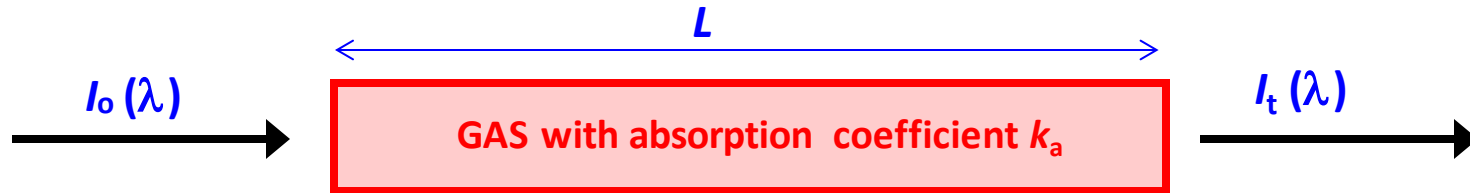
or
$$T(\lambda) = \exp \{- \sigma(\lambda) c L \} = \exp \{-\tau\}$$

$\sigma(\lambda)$: the absorption coefficient per molecule

c : density of molecules per unit volume

τ : optical depth

Transmissivity: The Purely Absorbing Case



And transmissivity: $T(\lambda) = I_t(\lambda) / I_o(\lambda) = \exp \{-k_a(\lambda) L\}$

or $T(\lambda) = \exp \{-\sigma(\lambda) c L\} = \exp \{-\tau\}$

$\sigma(\lambda)$: the absorption coefficient per molecule

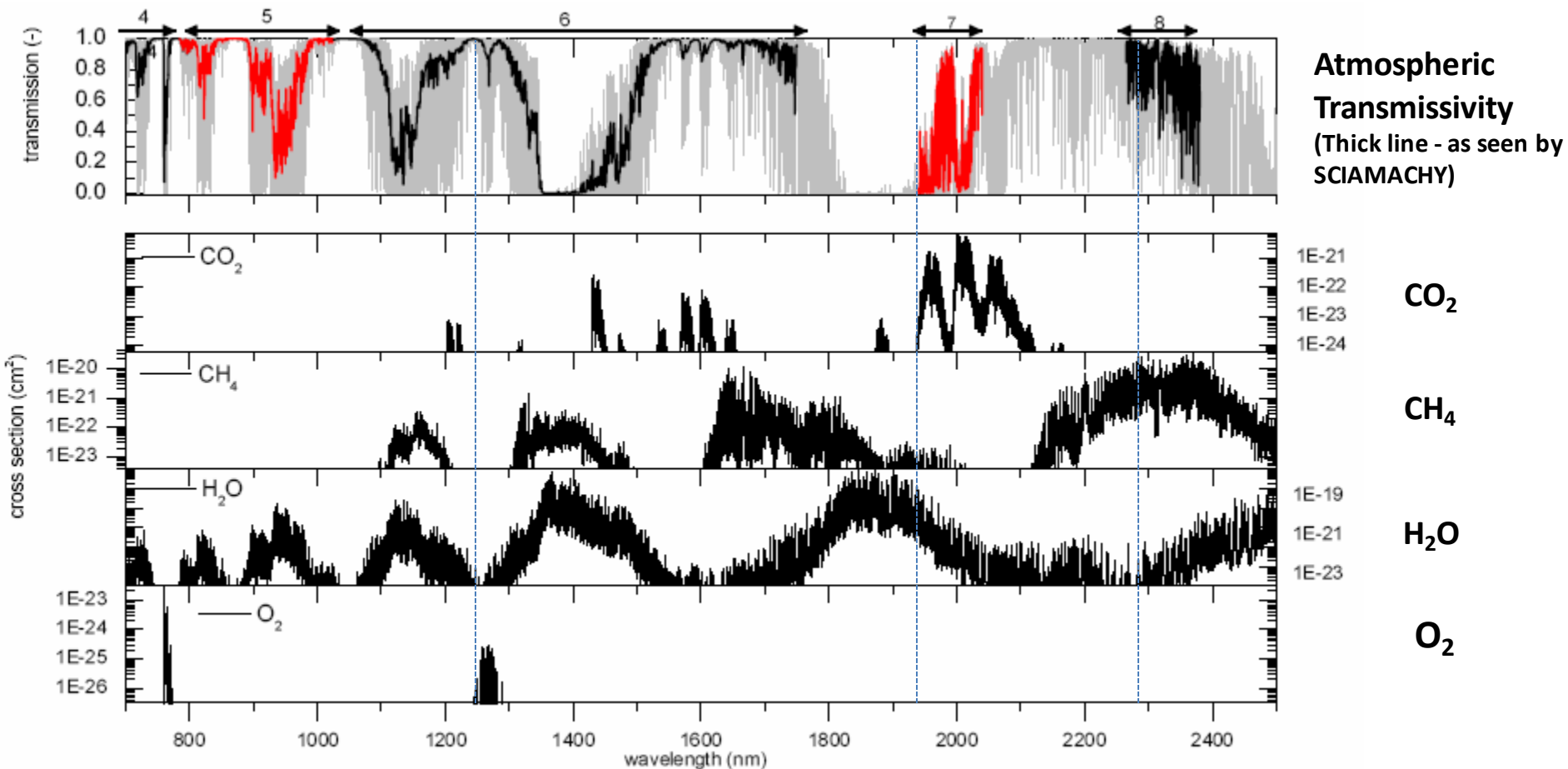
c : density of molecules per unit volume

τ : optical depth

→ Three factors matter:

- **Spectroscopy**: absorption cross section $\sigma(\lambda)$ [$\text{cm}^2/\text{molecule}$]
- **Composition**: $c = \chi c_{\text{air}}$ [$\text{molecules}/\text{cm}^3$]
- **Photon path length**: geometrical distance = L

Gas Transmissivity and Absorption Cross Section: Near-Infrared



- 100 % Absorption, 0% Transmissivity = Gases absorb all radiation
- Absorption depends on strength of absorption cross section (per molecule) and total number of molecules along path

Example:

Calculate the transmissivity of well mixed gases CO₂, CH₄ and O₂ in the near-infrared...

Use:
$$T(\lambda) = \exp - \{ \sigma(\lambda) c L \}$$

Or more accurate:
$$T(\lambda) = \exp - \int_L \sigma(\lambda, p(L), T(L)) \times c(L) dL$$

Which we approximate by:
$$T(\lambda) = \exp - \left\{ \sigma(\lambda, \bar{p}, \bar{T}) \times \chi \times VCD_{air} \right\}$$

Given mixing ratio χ for each gas, and vertical column density VCD of air = 2.14×10^{25} molec/cm² ...

- **CO₂**: $\chi = 380$ ppm and $\sigma(\lambda = 1.95 \text{ } \mu\text{m}) = 1 \times 10^{-21} \text{ cm}^2 \rightarrow T = \exp\{-8.1\} = \mathbf{3 \times 10^{-3}}$
- **CH₄**: $\chi = 1800$ ppb and $\sigma(\lambda = 2.3 \text{ } \mu\text{m}) = 4 \times 10^{-21} \text{ cm}^2 \rightarrow T = \exp\{-0.15\} = \mathbf{0.86}$
- **O₂**: $\chi = 0.2$ and $\sigma(\lambda = 1.27 \text{ } \mu\text{m}) = 1 \times 10^{-25} \text{ cm}^2 \rightarrow T = \exp\{-0.43\} = \mathbf{0.65}$

The Infrared Case



$$\mathcal{T}(\lambda) + \alpha(\lambda) + R(\lambda) = 1 \quad : \text{ conservation of energy !!!}$$

– here $R(\lambda)$ includes both reflection and scattering

For a gas (atmosphere) in the **infra-red**: $\alpha(\lambda) = \varepsilon(\lambda)$ (Kirchhoff law) and $R(\lambda)=0$.

Hence $\alpha(\lambda) = \varepsilon(\lambda) = 1 - \mathcal{T}(\lambda)$, and there are **2 signals** emerging:

1. Absorption by the gas in the volume: $I_t(\lambda) = (1 - \alpha(\lambda)) I_o(\lambda) = \mathcal{T}(\lambda) I_o(\lambda)$
2. Emission by the gas in the volume: $I_t(\lambda) = \varepsilon(\lambda) \times B(\lambda, T) = \alpha(\lambda) \times B(\lambda, T)$
 $= (1 - \mathcal{T}(\lambda)) \times B(\lambda, T)$

The Infrared Case



Hence, the total signal $I(\lambda)$ is given by:

$$I(\lambda) = \underbrace{\mathcal{T}(\lambda) I_o(\lambda)}_{\text{Surface contribution}} + \underbrace{(1 - \mathcal{T}(\lambda)) \times B(\lambda, T)}_{\text{Atmosphere contribution}}$$

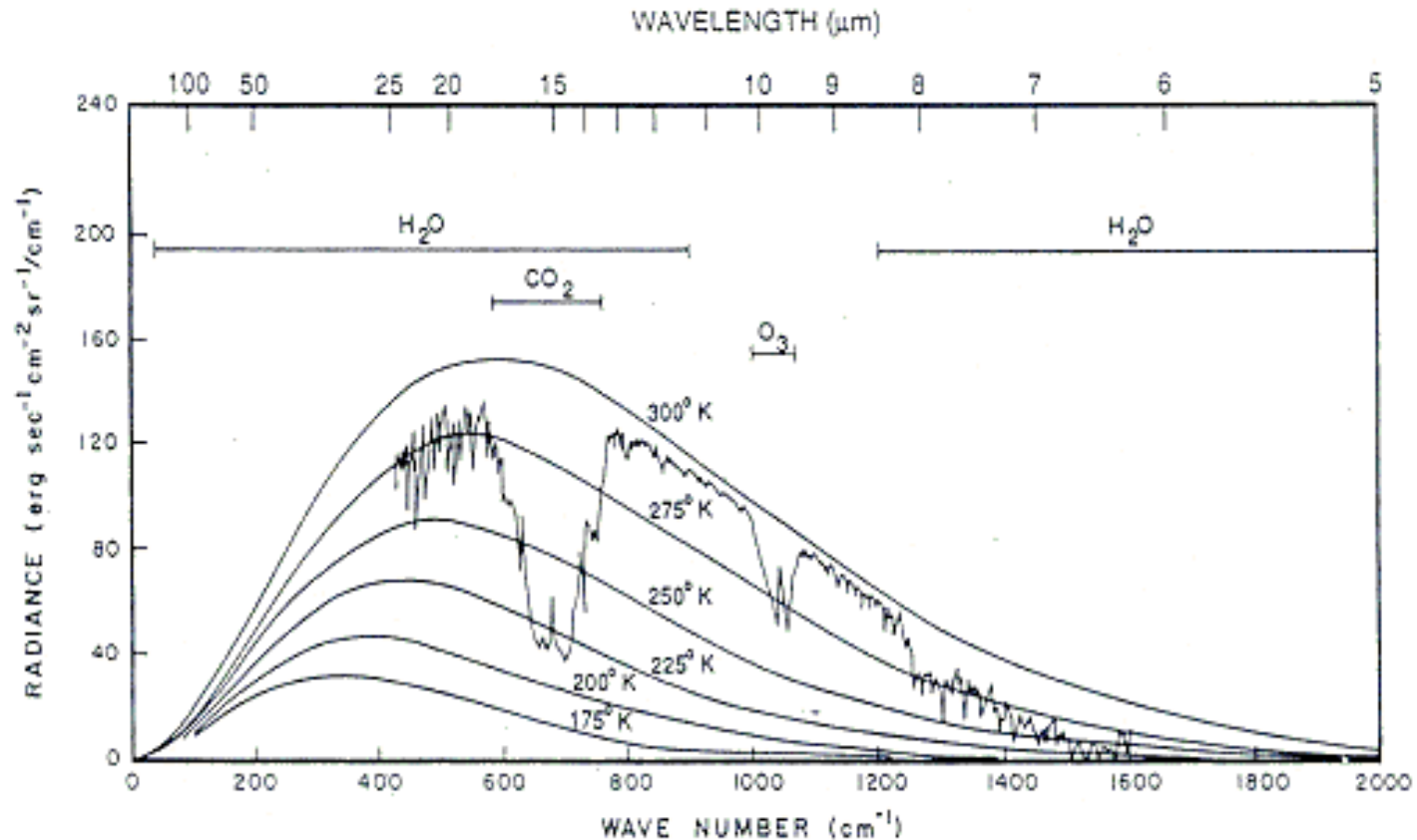
Limiting cases:

1. $\mathcal{T}(\lambda) \rightarrow 1 : I(\lambda) = \mathcal{T}(\lambda) I_o(\lambda)$ [Known as a *spectral window* – also N.B.]
2. $\mathcal{T}(\lambda) \rightarrow 0 : I(\lambda) = (1 - \mathcal{T}(\lambda)) \times B(\lambda, T)$ [100% absorption, known as *saturation*]

N.B. : If: a) term 1 \gg term 2 or b) if $T_{\text{gas}} \approx 0 \text{ K}$ (!)

then case 1) would be true and conventional use of $\mathcal{T}(\lambda)$ alone is fine,
e.g. UV-visible wavelengths on Earth, or hot source relative to cold gas.

Emission spectrum of the Earth

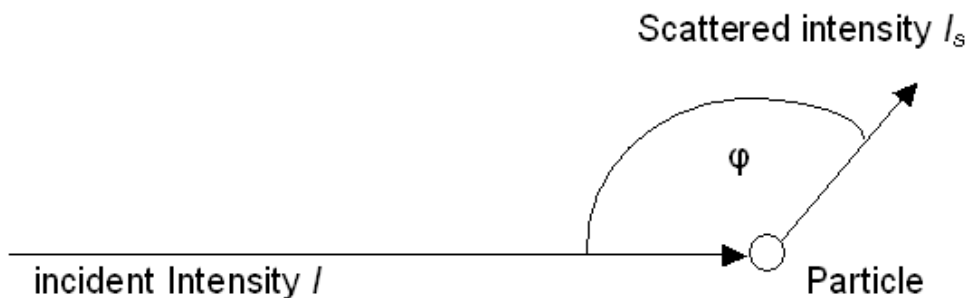


- Earth surface emits radiation with $T \sim 280$ K
- Gases (H₂O, CO₂, O₃ etc) in atmosphere absorb and re-emit with emissivity equal to the absorptivity (Kirchoff's Law).
- Gas is at a colder temperature and hence emits with a lower Planck function

Scattering Processes in the Atmosphere

- **Basic Considerations:**

- Scattering removes fraction of radiation along one direction and directs it into other directions
- Photons passing through a medium may encounter only one particle (**single scattering**) or many particles (**multiple scattering**)
- Scattering in the atmosphere occurs from molecules (**Rayleigh scattering**) and aerosol/cloud particles (**Mie scattering**)



Main Parameters:

- **Scattering cross section** σ_s (effective area for scattering)
- **Scattering phase function** $p(\phi)$ (direction)

Scattering by Molecules (Rayleigh Scattering)

- Scattering by molecules can be described as radiation from an oscillating dipole (Hertz Dipole)
- Rayleigh scattering cross section:
 - $\sigma_s^{\text{Rayleigh}}(\lambda) \sim \lambda^{-4}$
- Rayleigh scattering is very efficient for short wavelength
 - Sky appears blue
 - UV radiation is usually scattered before reaching the surface
- Rayleigh scattering polarises light
 - skylight is polarised
 - the maximum of polarisation is reached at 90° scattering angle

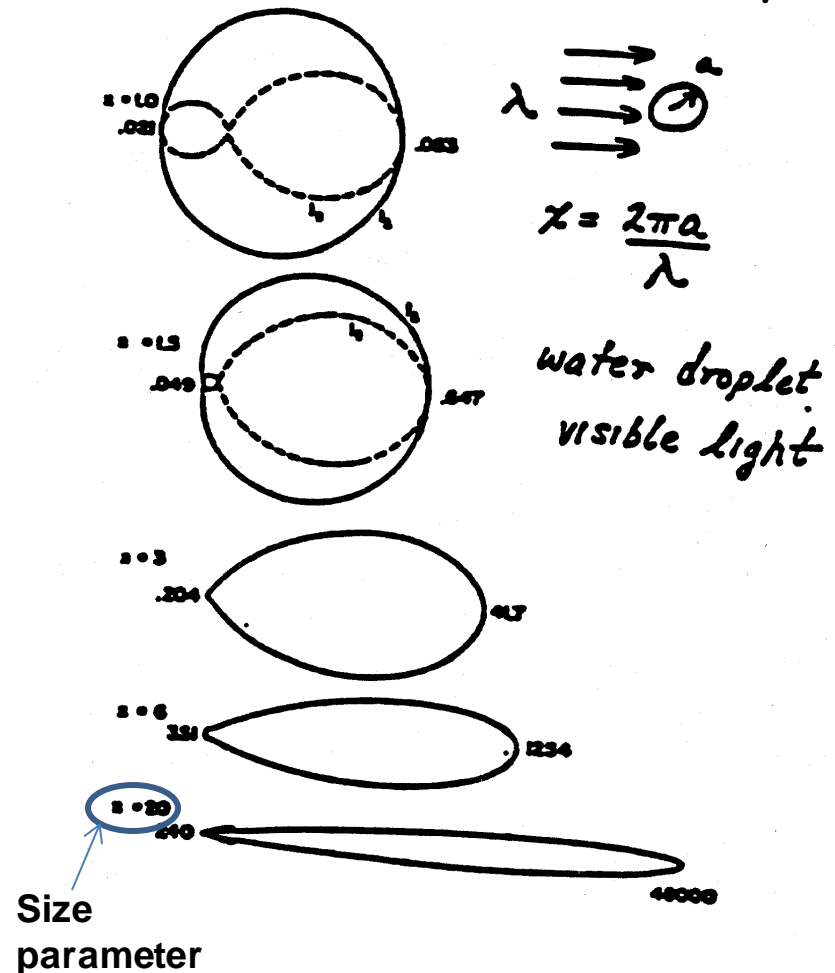


Photography: Polarization filters can be used to remove polarized skylight

Scattering on Particles (Mie Scattering)

- Explained by coherent scattering from many individual particles (dipoles)
- Mie scattering can be computed using Maxwell equations for spherical particles (**Mie theory**)
- Scattering/absorption properties are complex functions of chemical composition, size and shape of particles (sea salt, dust, sulphate ...)
- The larger the particles, the stronger the forward peak
- Scattering cross section:
 - $\sigma_s^{Mie}(\lambda) \sim \lambda^{-1} \dots \lambda^{-1.5}$
 - *Scattered light by aerosols/clouds is white-ish*
 - *Mie scattering is the dominant scattering term for larger λ*

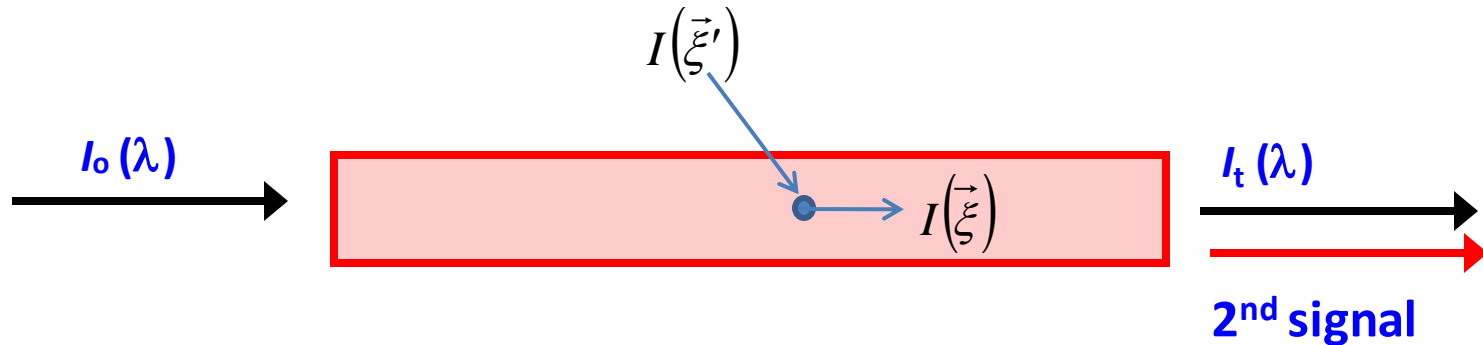
Scattering phase function



Scattering example:

- Compare probability for Rayleigh and Mie Scattering between ultra-violet ($\lambda = 300 \text{ nm}$) and visible red ($\lambda = 1 \text{ micron}$):
 - Rayleigh scattering $\sim \lambda^{-4} \quad \rightarrow \quad (300/1000)^{-4} \approx 120$
 - Mie scattering $\sim \lambda^{-1.5} \quad \rightarrow \quad (300/1000)^{-1.5} \approx 6$
- \rightarrow *Rayleigh scattering* will dominate in *ultra-violet* and *Mie scattering* in *infrared*

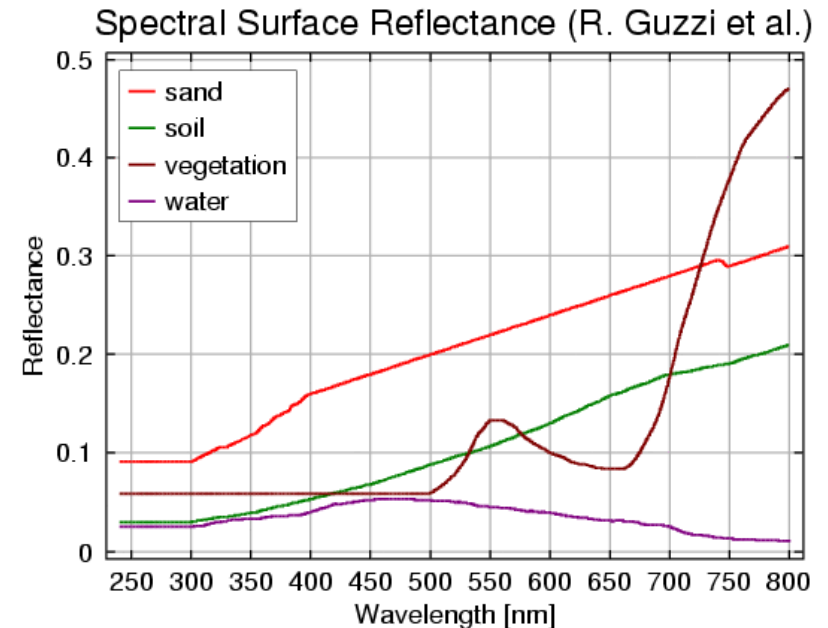
One more scattering effect...



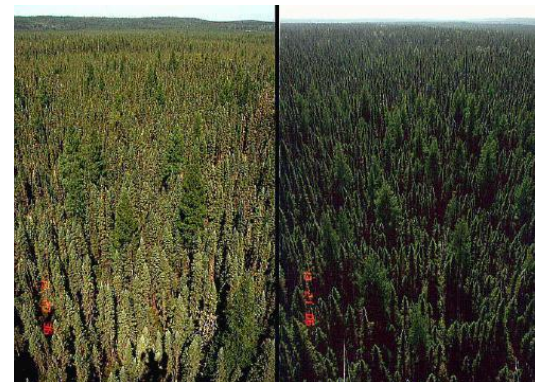
- Light can also be scattered from outside the volume into the viewing direction
- This term is difficult to calculate and leads to a second signal (an additional source) similar to the emission term
- This additional source term is a major difficulty for finding a solution to a radiative transfer problem (and in general the problem requires a dedicated RT solver)

Surface Reflection of E/M Radiation

- Photons can be absorbed and/or reflected by the Earth surface
- The **surface albedo** is fraction of incoming solar radiation reflected by surface, integrated over all viewing directions
- Usually assume a **Lambertian surface**, where reflected intensity does not depend on viewing angle
- The wavelength-dependence of the albedo depends on surface characteristics (and provides information about surface)



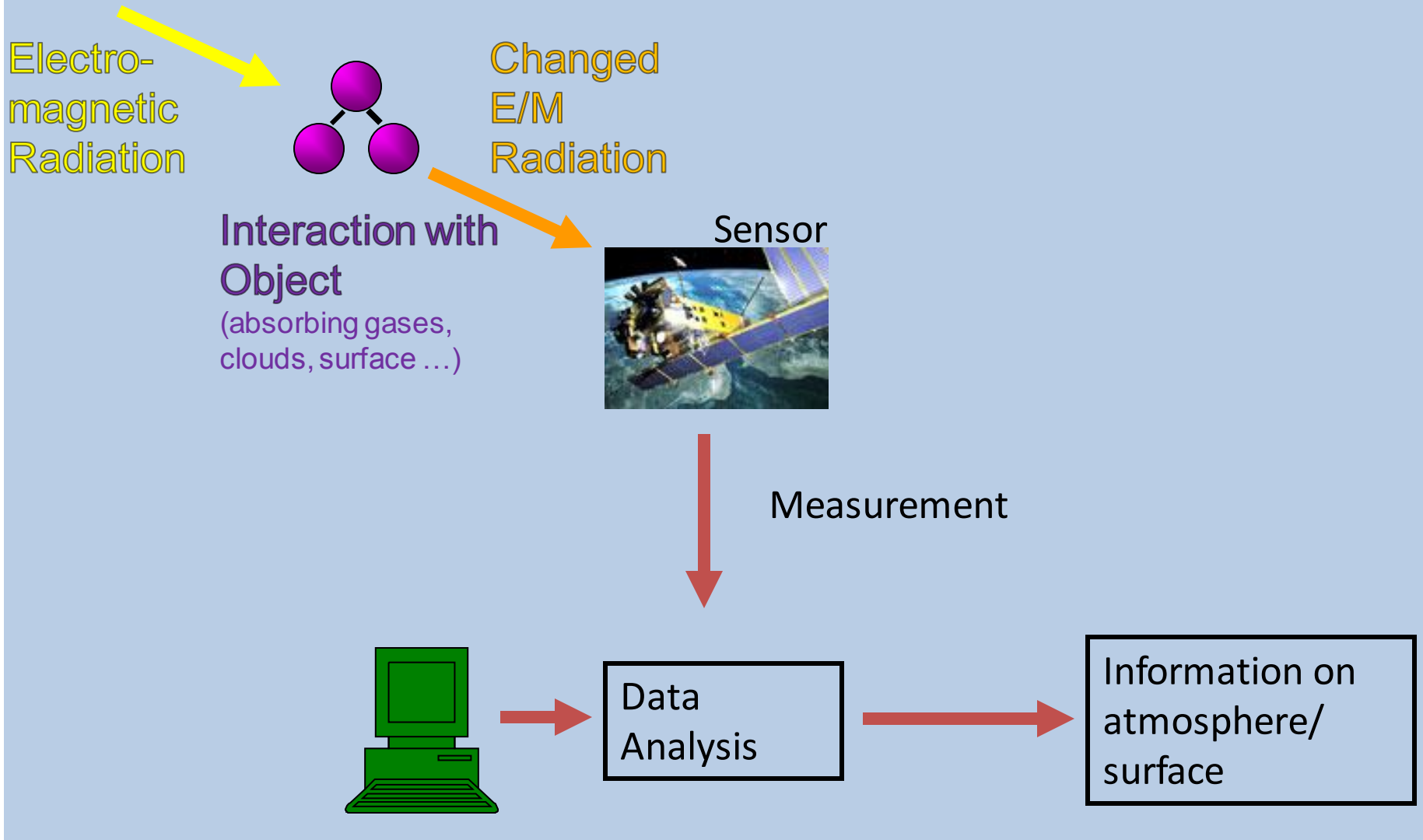
In reality: Surface reflectance is a function of direction and is characterised by the **BRDF** (bidirectional reflection distribution function).



Section 2:

Remote Sensing of CO₂ in the shortwave-infrared spectral range

Principle of Remote Sensing Observations



Absorption Spectroscopy Allows Measurement of Gases

- Main assumption: no scattering
- Beer-Lambert law:

$$I(L) = I_0 \exp\left(-\int_0^L \sigma(L') c(L') dL'\right)$$

and thus:

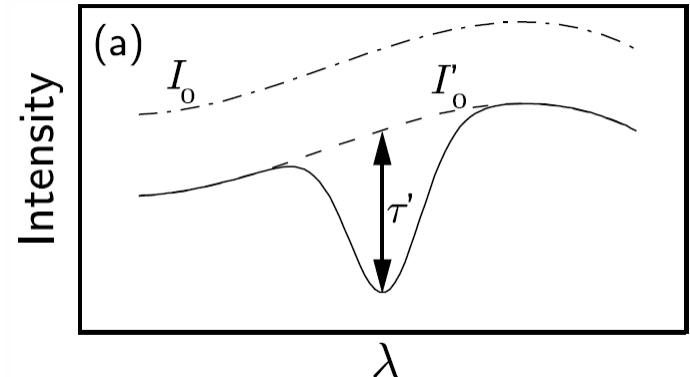
$$\tau(L) = -\ln(I / I_0) \approx \sigma(\bar{T}, \bar{p}) \times SCD$$

Optical depth

Absorption cross section for mean temperature and pressure

Slant column density gives the number of molecules per area along the path

$$SCD = \int_0^L c(L') dL'$$

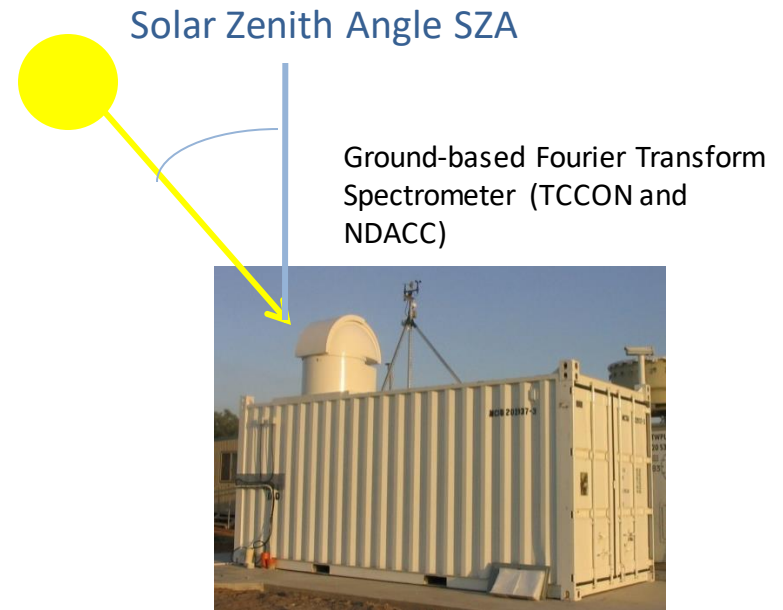


- For atmospheric measurements, a more useful quantity is the vertical column density *VCD*: number of molecules per area along the vertical direction for the whole atmosphere

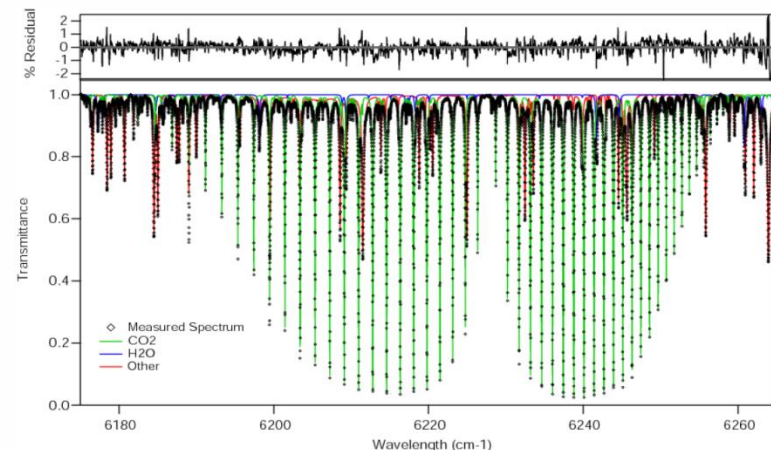
$$VCD = \int_0^{\infty} c(L') dL' \quad - \text{How can you obtain VCD from SCD?}$$

Example: Direct-Sunlight Observations from the Ground

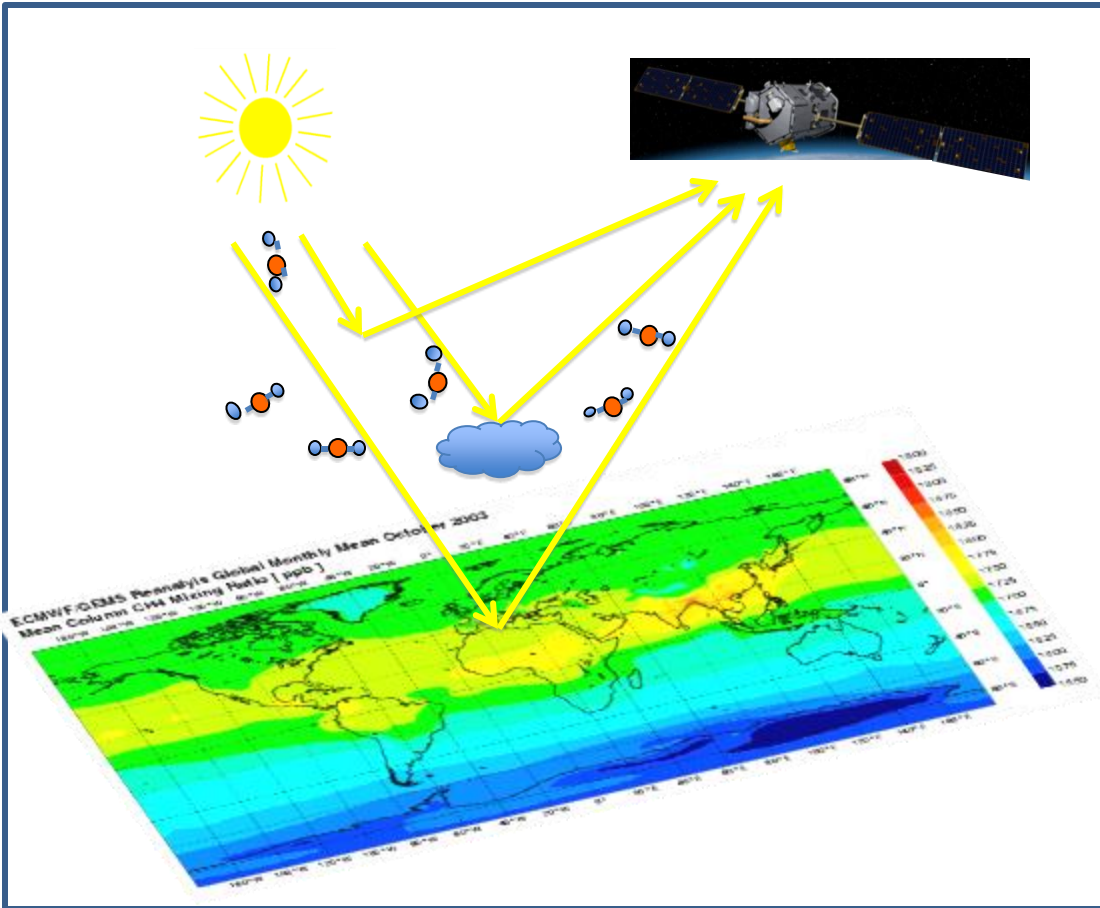
- The principal of absorption spectroscopy is valid for **direct-sunlight observations**:
 - No surface effects
 - High intensity source, so scattering into observer-direction is not important
 - Scattering leads to broad reduction of total intensity but will not change the optical depth due to gaseous absorption
- Direct sunlight observations:
 - Relation between slant path and vertical path is given by geometric factor of $1/\cos(\text{SZA})$



Example of spectral fit to 6228 cm^{-1} CO_2 band



The Retrieval Problem for Satellite Observations



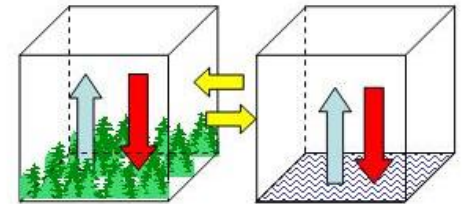
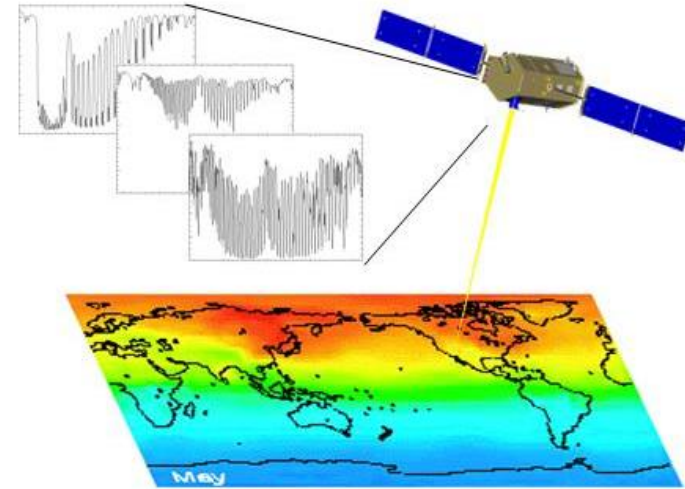
For accurate retrievals of CO₂ we need to be able to deal with:

- Multiple-scattering
- Aerosols and thin clouds
- Polarization
- Surface properties
- Gas absorption (spectroscopy)
- Topography
- Atmospheric state (T, H₂O, p)
- ...

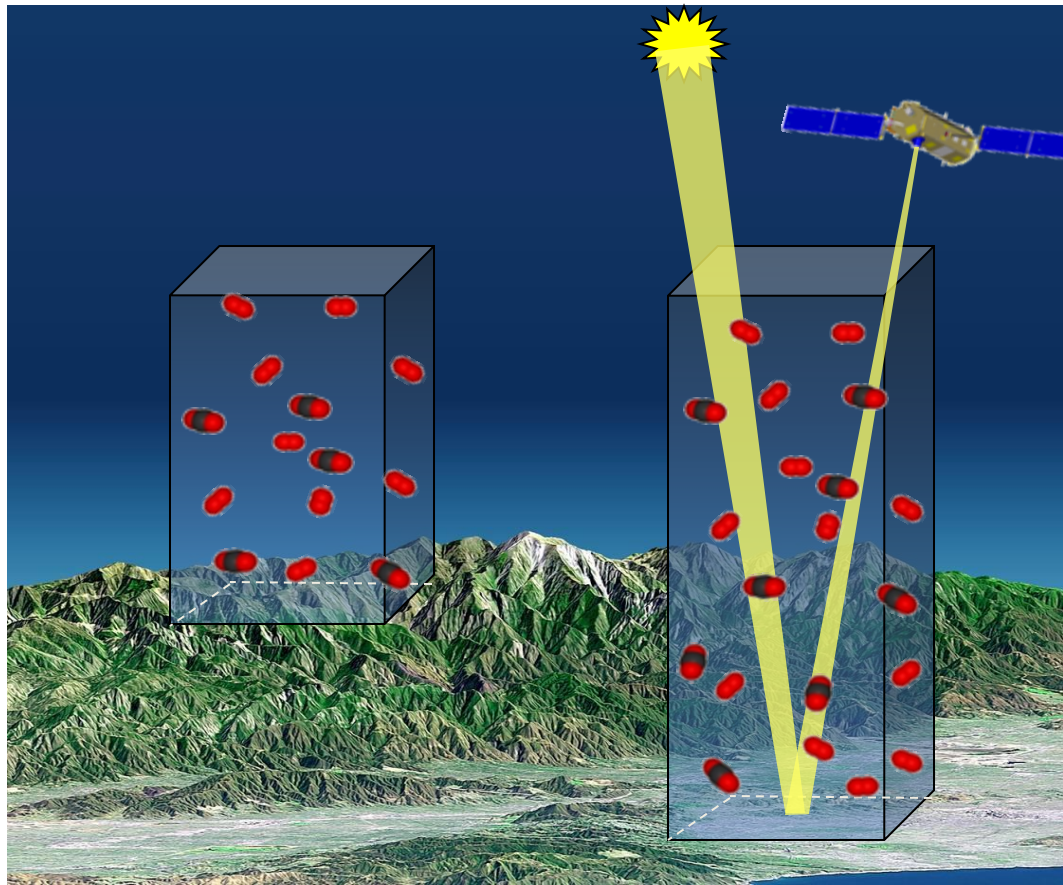
The Approach for CO₂ Column Observations from Space

Approach:

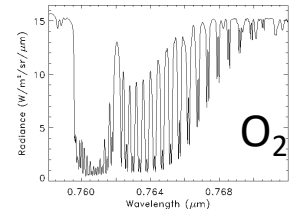
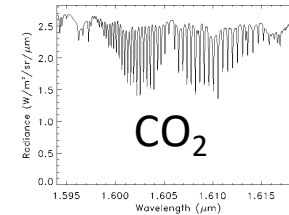
- Collect spectra of **CO₂ and O₂** absorption in reflected sunlight in the shortwave-infrared region
- Use these data to resolve variations in the **column averaged CO₂ dry air mole fraction, X_{CO_2}** over the sunlit hemisphere
- Validate measurements to ensure X_{CO_2} accuracies of **1 - 2 ppm (0.3 - 0.5%)** on regional scales at monthly intervals ('tie data to WMO standard')



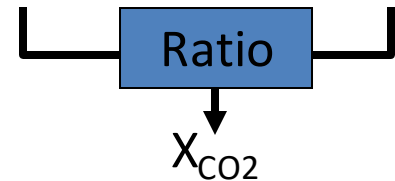
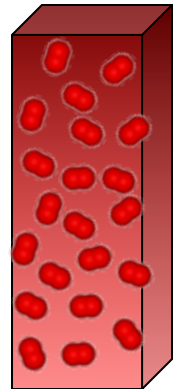
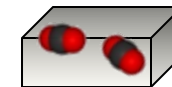
What is column averaged CO₂ dry air mole fraction X_{CO_2} ?



Measured Spectra



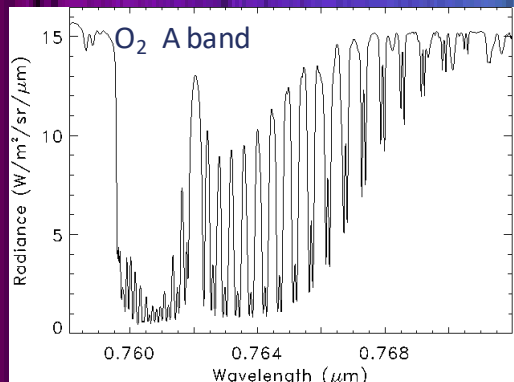
Column
Abundances
*Path
Dependent*



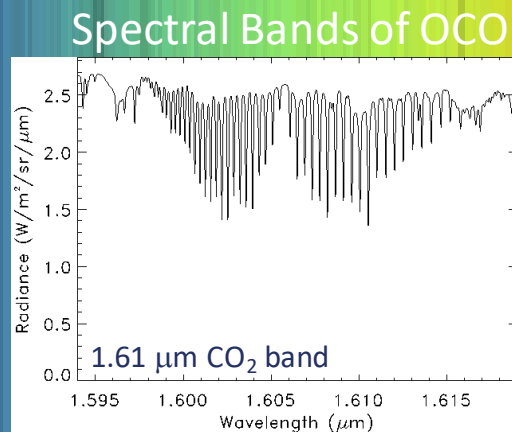
Normalization removes effects of varying surface pressure & topography
→ 26-meter change in surface elevation equals 0.3% (1 ppm) change in X_{CO_2}

Measurement Approach

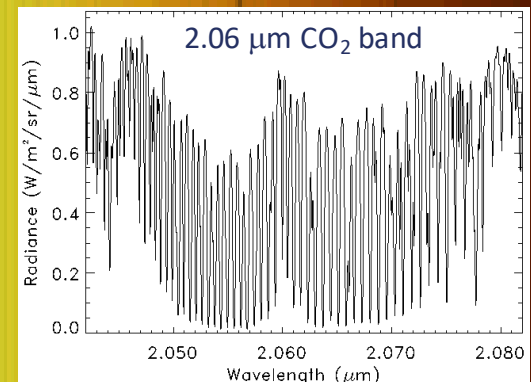
- Measurement of SWIR CO₂ and O₂ bands to retrieve information on scattering (aerosol/clouds) together with CO₂:
 - 1.61 μm CO₂ band: Column CO₂
 - 2.06 μm CO₂ band: Column CO₂, clouds/aerosols, H₂O, Temperature
 - 0.76 μm O₂ A-band: Surface pressure, clouds/aerosols, Temperature
- Instruments are specifically designed for CO₂ column observations:
 - High spectral resolution
 - Large number of key parameters can be retrieved independently
 - Enhanced sensitivity and minimized biases due to interferences



Aerosols, p_{surf} , T



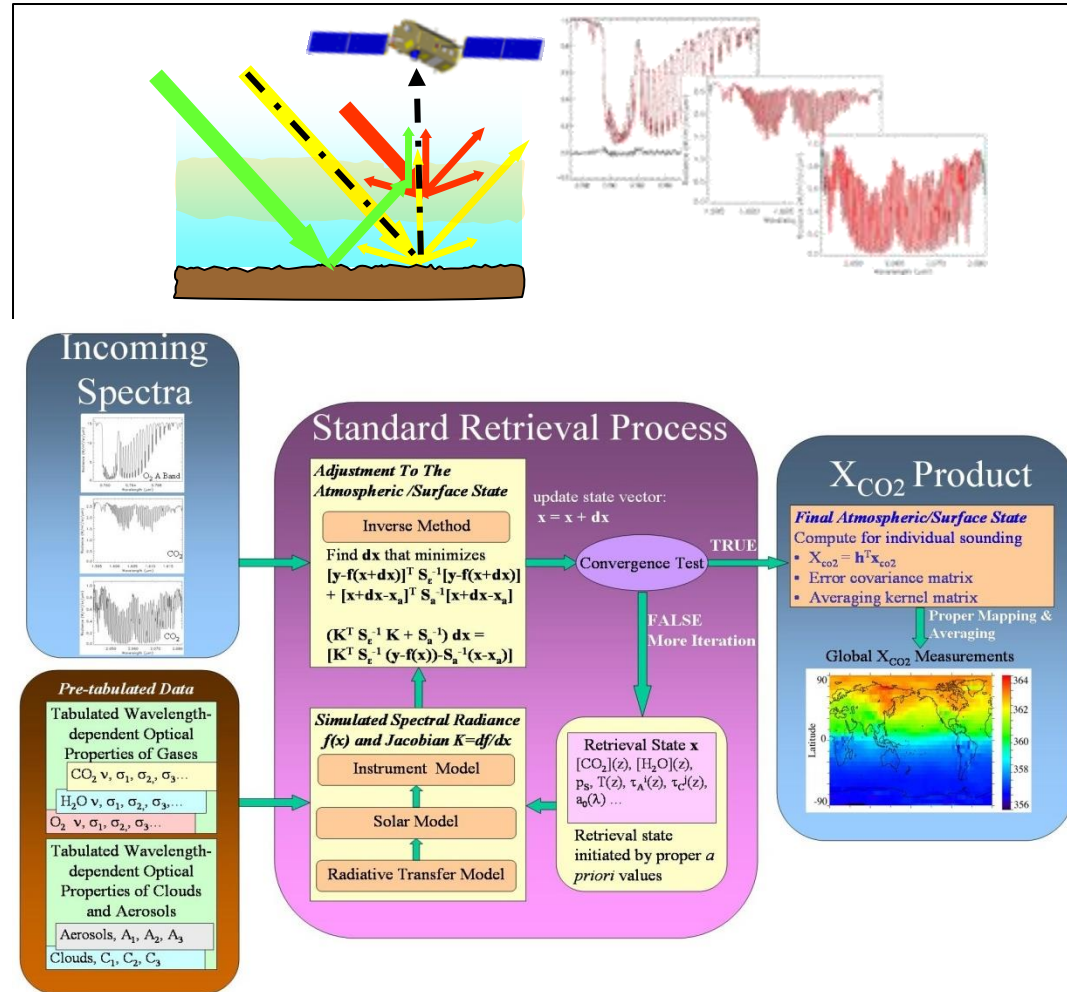
CO₂ Column



CO₂, H₂O, Aerosols

'Full-Physics' Retrieval Algorithm

- Accurately retrieving CO₂ (and CH₄) is extremely difficult and time-consuming:
 - Retrieved CH₄ and CO₂ will depend on assumptions of retrieval algorithm (retrieval biases)
- Forward Model needs to describe accurately physics of measurement:
 - Multiple-scattering RT
 - Polarization Correction
 - Spherical Geometry
 - Surface (polarized) BRDF
 - Instrument Model
 - Solar Model
- Inverse Method estimates state:
 - Rodgers' optimal estimation technique (based on Bayes' theorem)



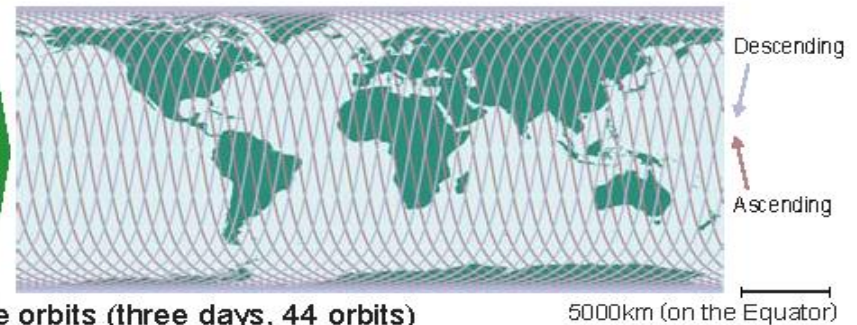
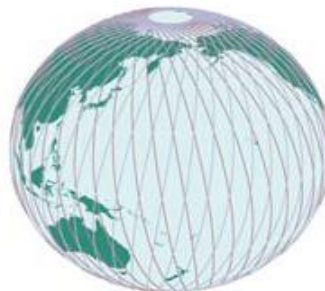
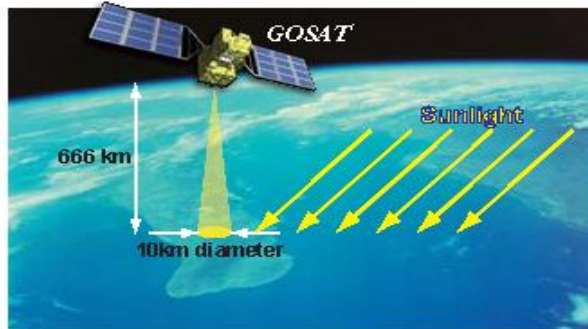
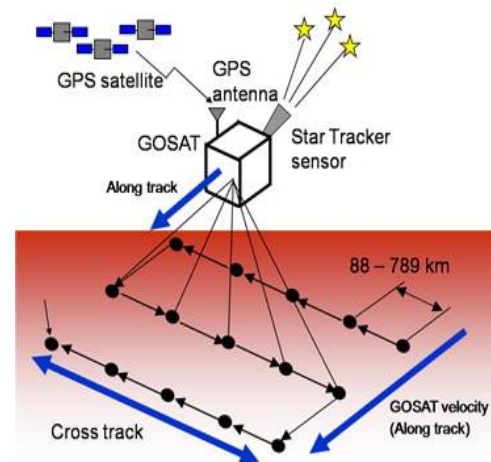
(Boesch et al., 2006, 2011, O'Dell et al., 2011)

Greenhouse gases Observing SATellite (GOSAT) launched January 23rd 2009



Mission objectives:

- 1) To monitor the density of greenhouse gases precisely and frequently worldwide.
- 2) To study the absorption and emission levels of greenhouse gases per continent or large country over a certain period of time.
- 3) To develop and establish advanced technologies that are essential for precise greenhouse-gas observations.



Conceptual diagram of GOSAT observation and the satellite orbits (three days, 44 orbits)

5000km (on the Equator)

The GOSAT Payload

TANSO - FTS

Provides spectrally-resolved radiances for 4 shortwave-IR (polarized) and thermal-IR bands

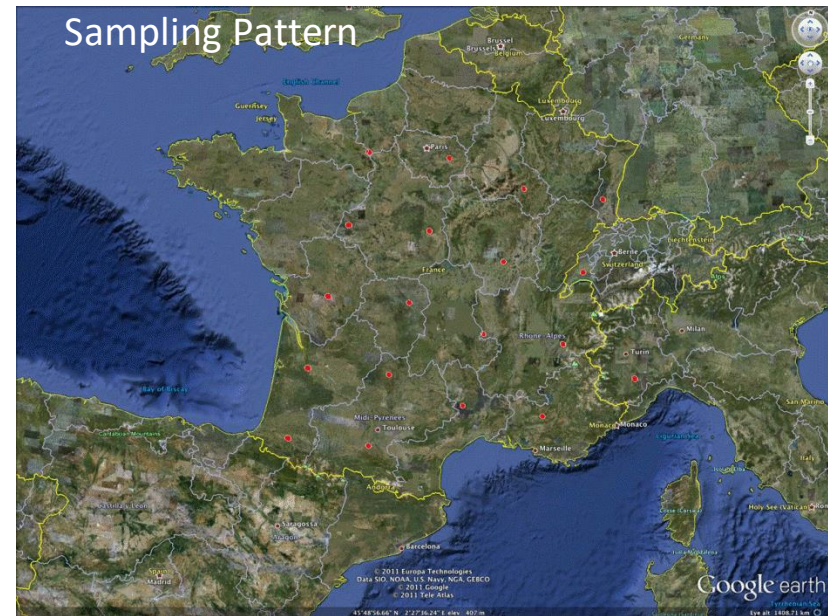
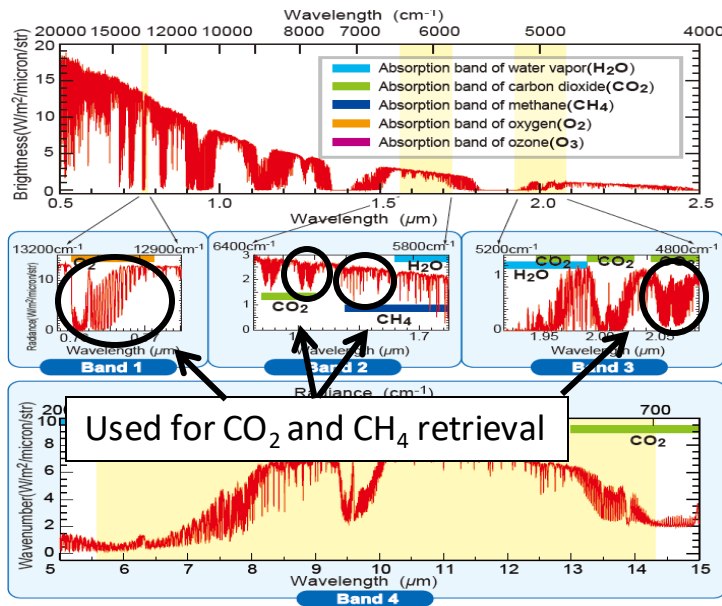
Covers several absorption bands of CO_2 , CH_4 , O_3 and H_2O (and others) and O_2



TANSO - CAI

4 broadband channels from UV to SWIR with high spatial resolution

Provides aerosol and cloud information required for the greenhouse gas retrieval

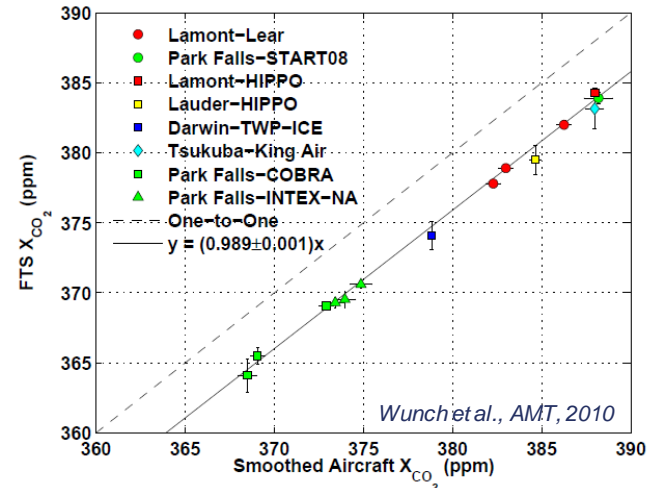


Validation against ground-based TCCON

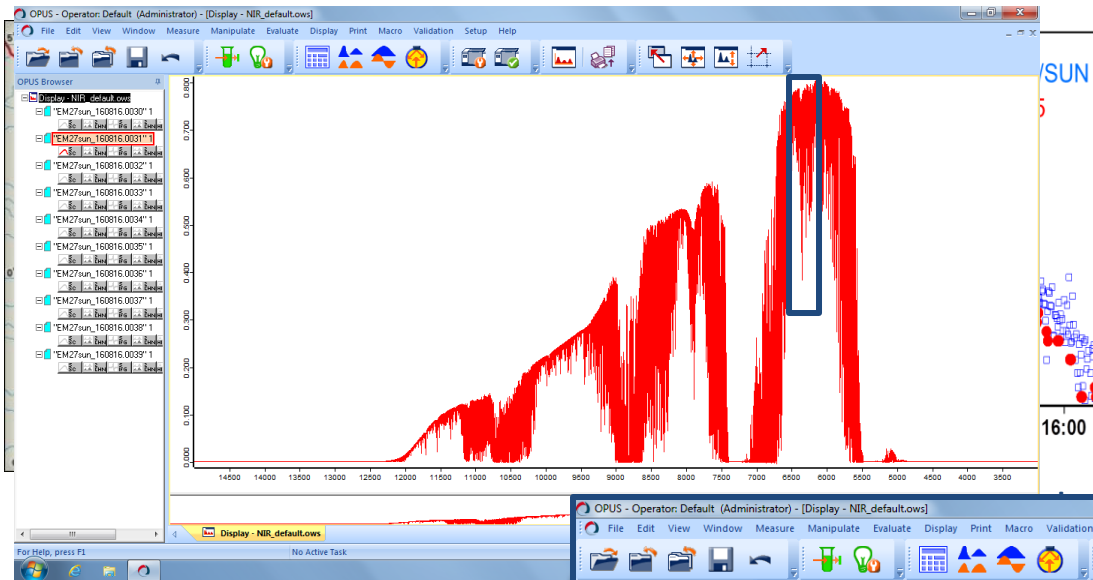
- TCCON (Total carbon column observing network) network of ground-based Fourier Transform Spectrometers
- Provides precise, accurate total columns of CO_2 , CH_4 and other gases
- Ideal for satellite validation – uniformity of instrumentation and data processing methodology across the network
- Lack of TCCON sites in Asia, South America and Africa: deployment of portable FTS's to fill the gaps in validation?



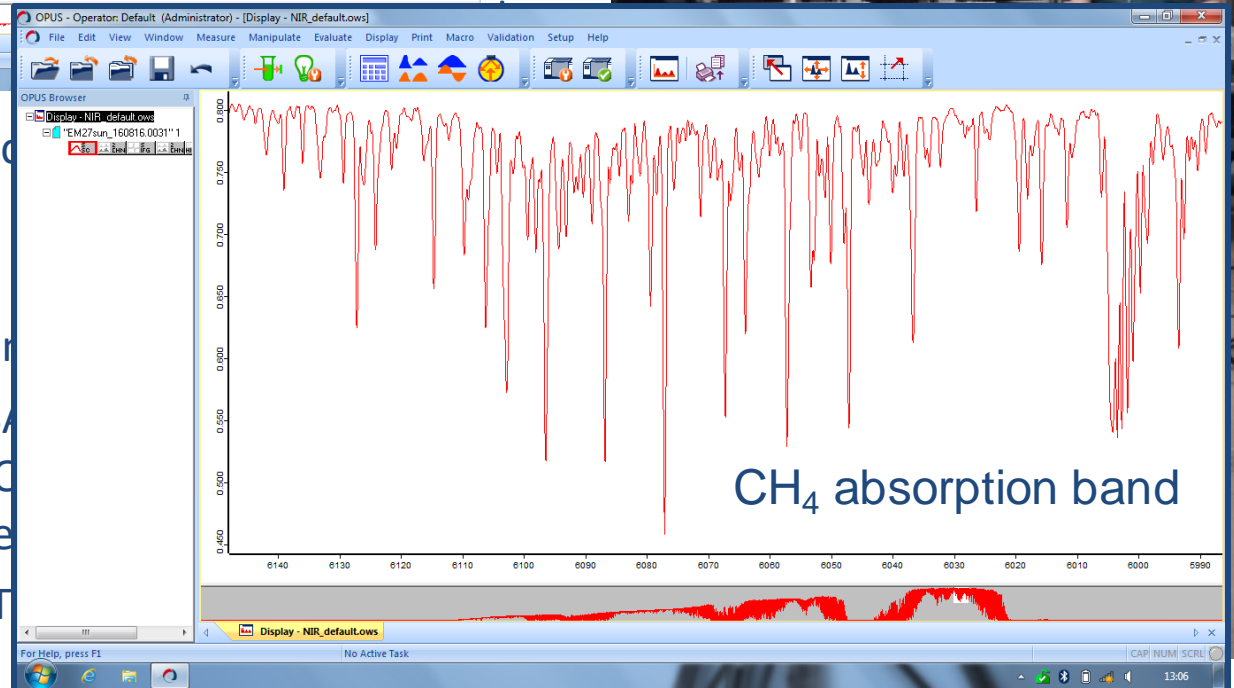
TCCON calibration against in-situ data from aircraft profiles



Deployment of Bruker EM27/SUN FT-IR in Uganda in 2018

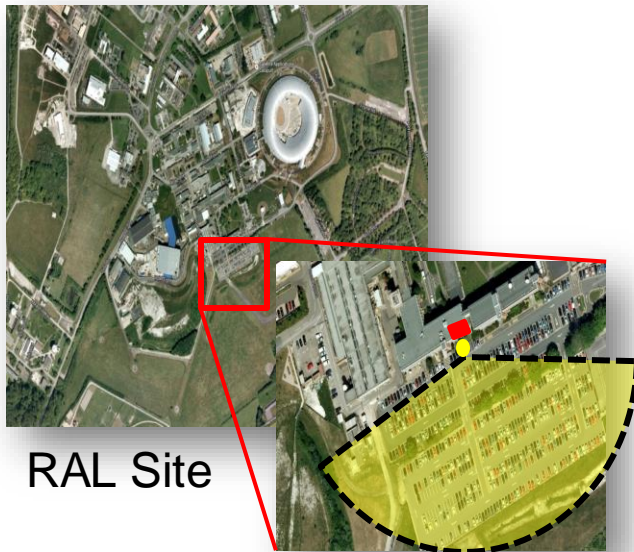


- 5000 to 14500 cm^{-1} at 0.5 μm to 2.0 μm)
- Internal calibration source
- Portable and robust instrument
- Provide validation for GOSAT data in tropical Africa (gap in TCCO₂ long term (but < 1 year) deployment)
- Inter-calibrated against KIT (Kilimanjaro International Network)

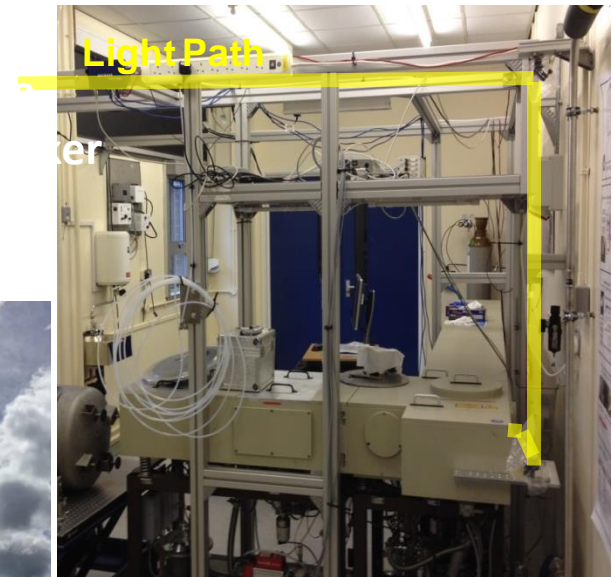


Setup of a UK TCCON Site at Harwell

- NCEO and RALSpace Collaboration
- Instrument: Bruker 120HR with Resolution = 0.0015cm^{-1} (OPD 6m)
- Large external Sun tracker with dome



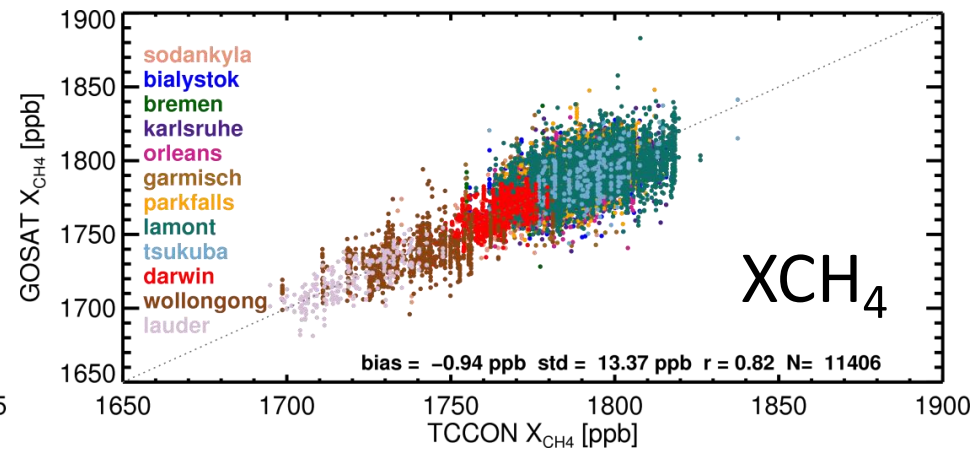
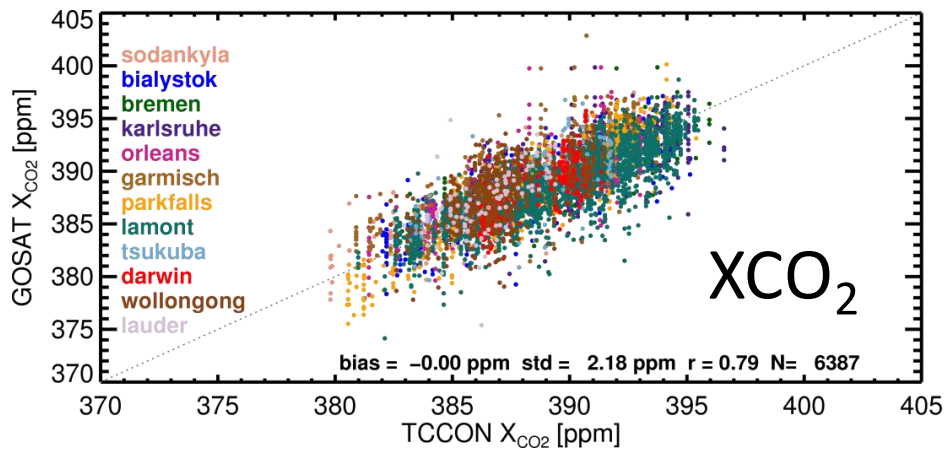
Suntracker
and Dome



Bruker FTS

Validation of XCO₂ and XCH₄

- Comparison against 12 TCCON sites (covering different geophysical regimes)
- Co-location criteria: $\pm 5^\circ$



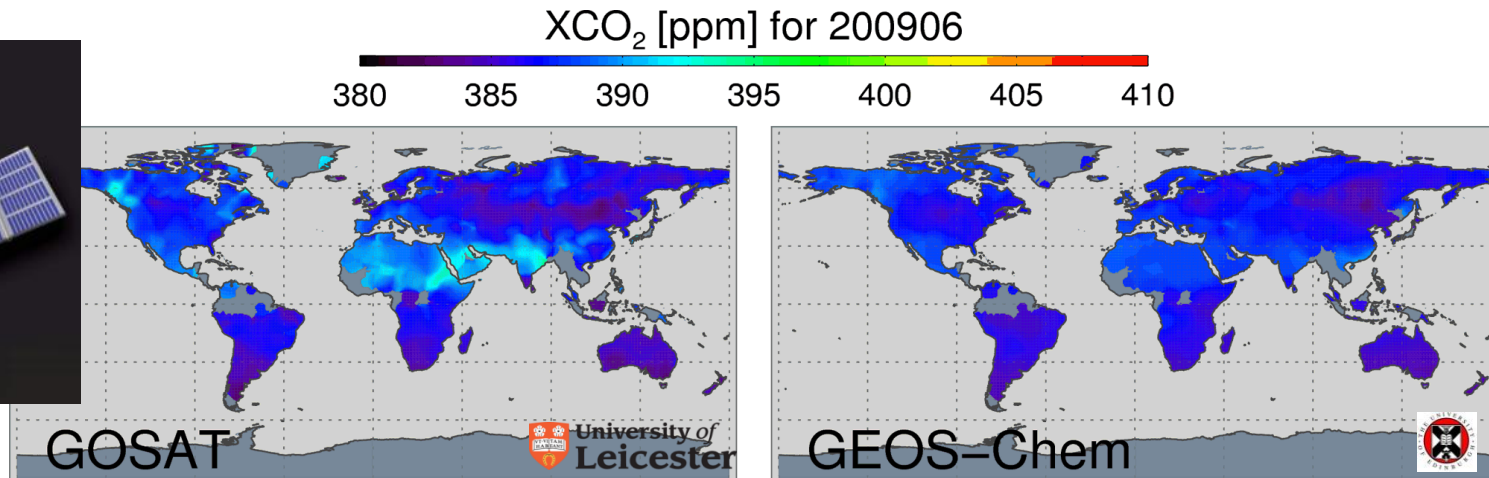
- Data is bias-corrected globally which results in a bias of 0 ppm to TCCON.
- Small (<0.06%) bias between GOSAT and TCCON (no bias correction necessary)
- Relies on model XCO₂ to normalise the XCH₄/XCO₂

Testing Model Calculations with GOSAT

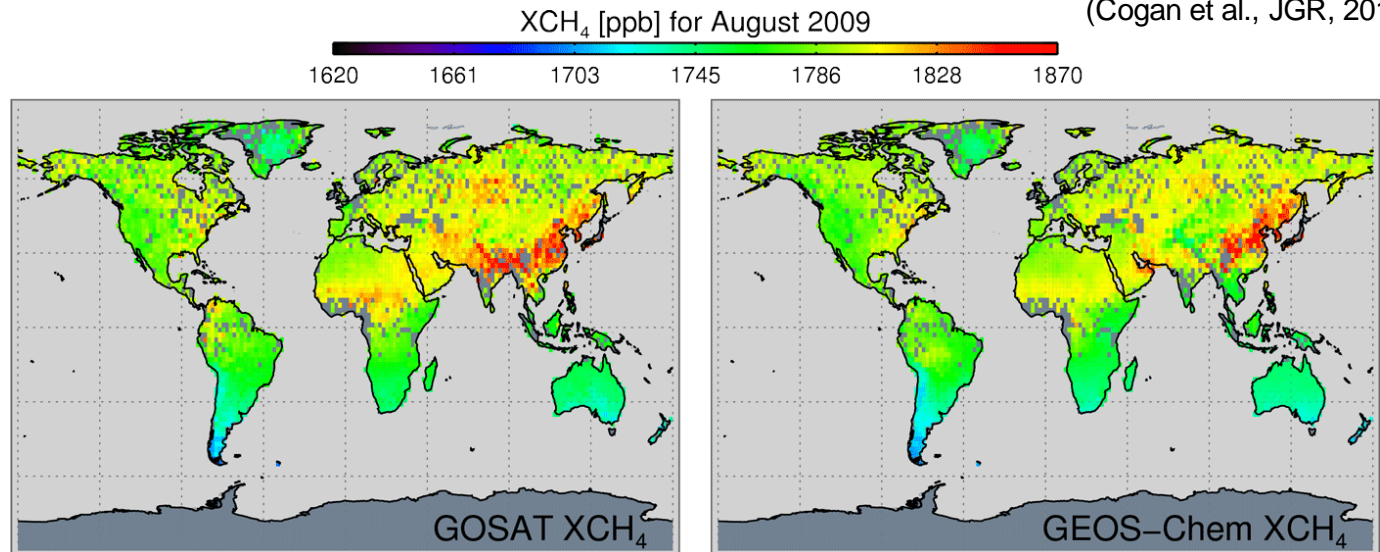
Dedicated satellite missions provide unprecedented global view of release and uptake of CO_2 and CH_4 by surface processes to critically test and improve models and to track main emission regions



GOSAT – first dedicated GHG satellite



(Cogan et al., JGR, 2012)

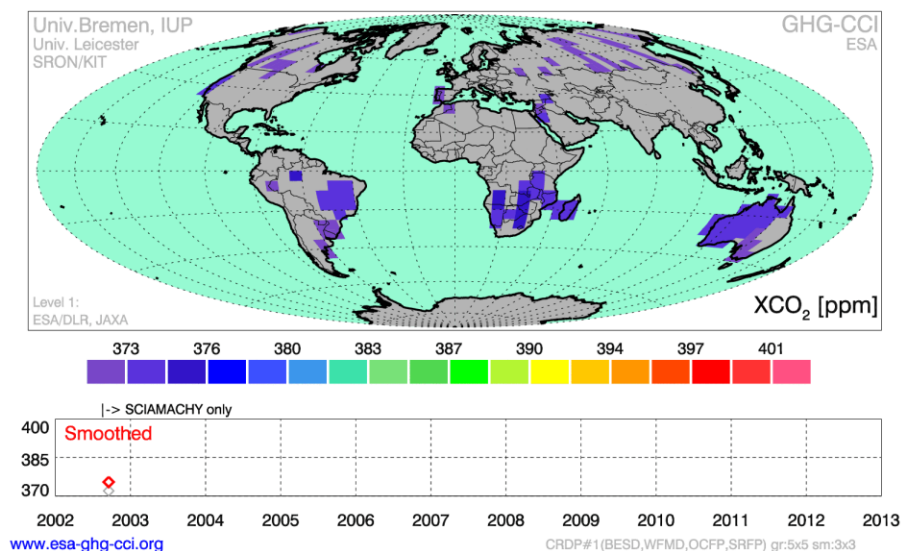


(Parker et al., GRL, 2011)

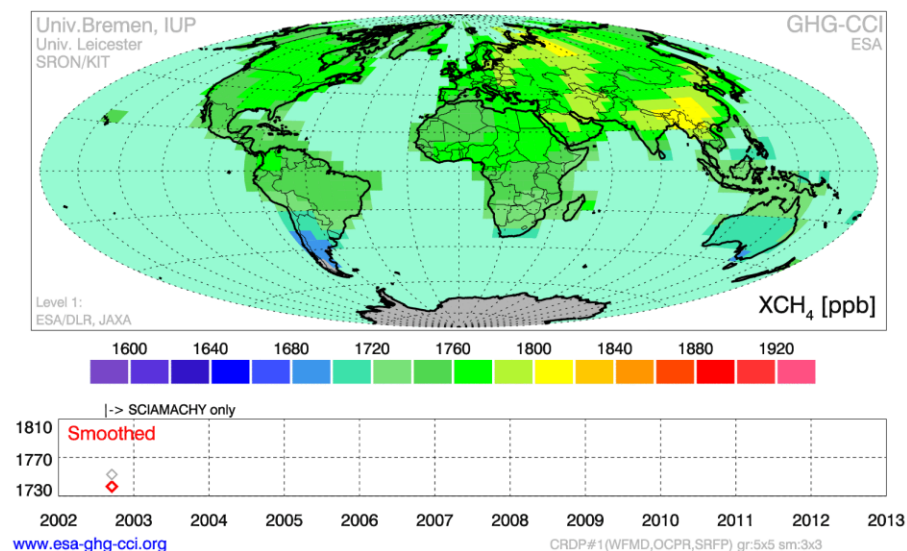
Data Access
www.leos.le.ac.uk/GHG/data/

More than 10 years of CO₂ and CH₄ from Space

Carbon Dioxide SCIAMACHY/ENVISAT+TANSO/GOSAT 2002 08



Methane SCIAMACHY/ENVISAT+TANSO/GOSAT 2002 08

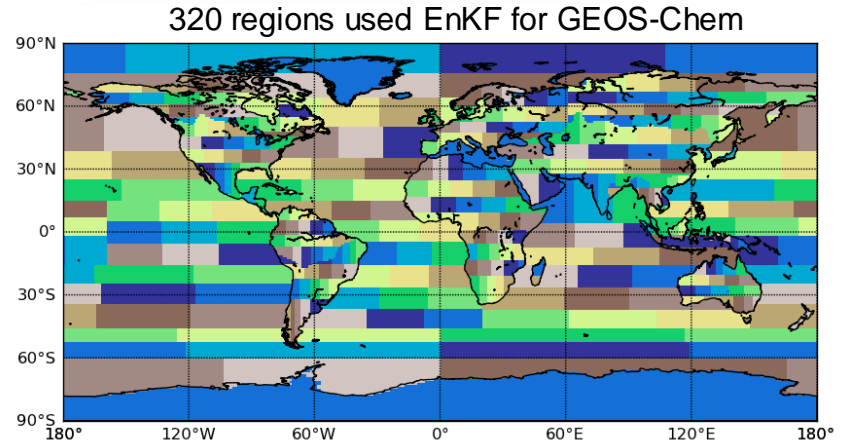


ESA Climate Change Initiative: <http://www.esa-ghg-cci.org/>

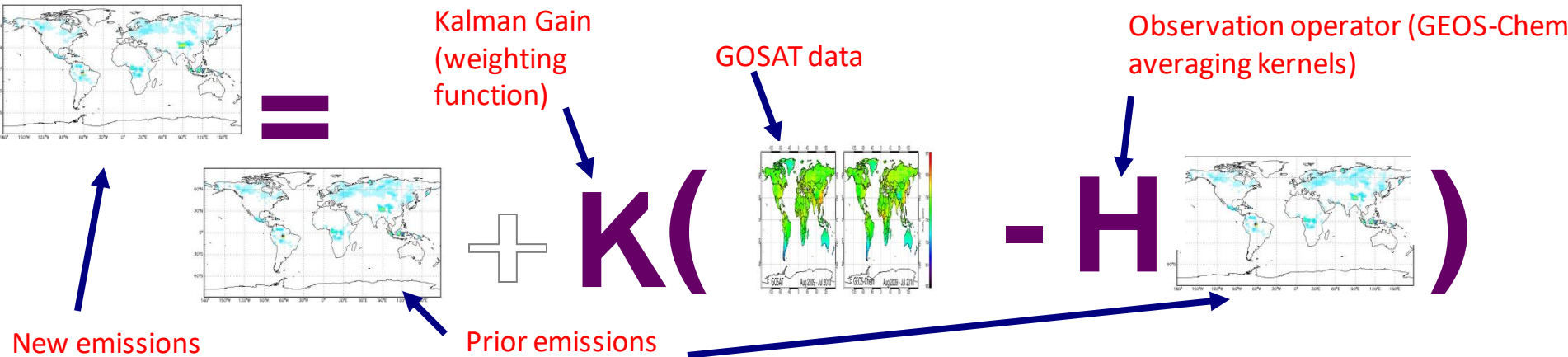


Surface Fluxes

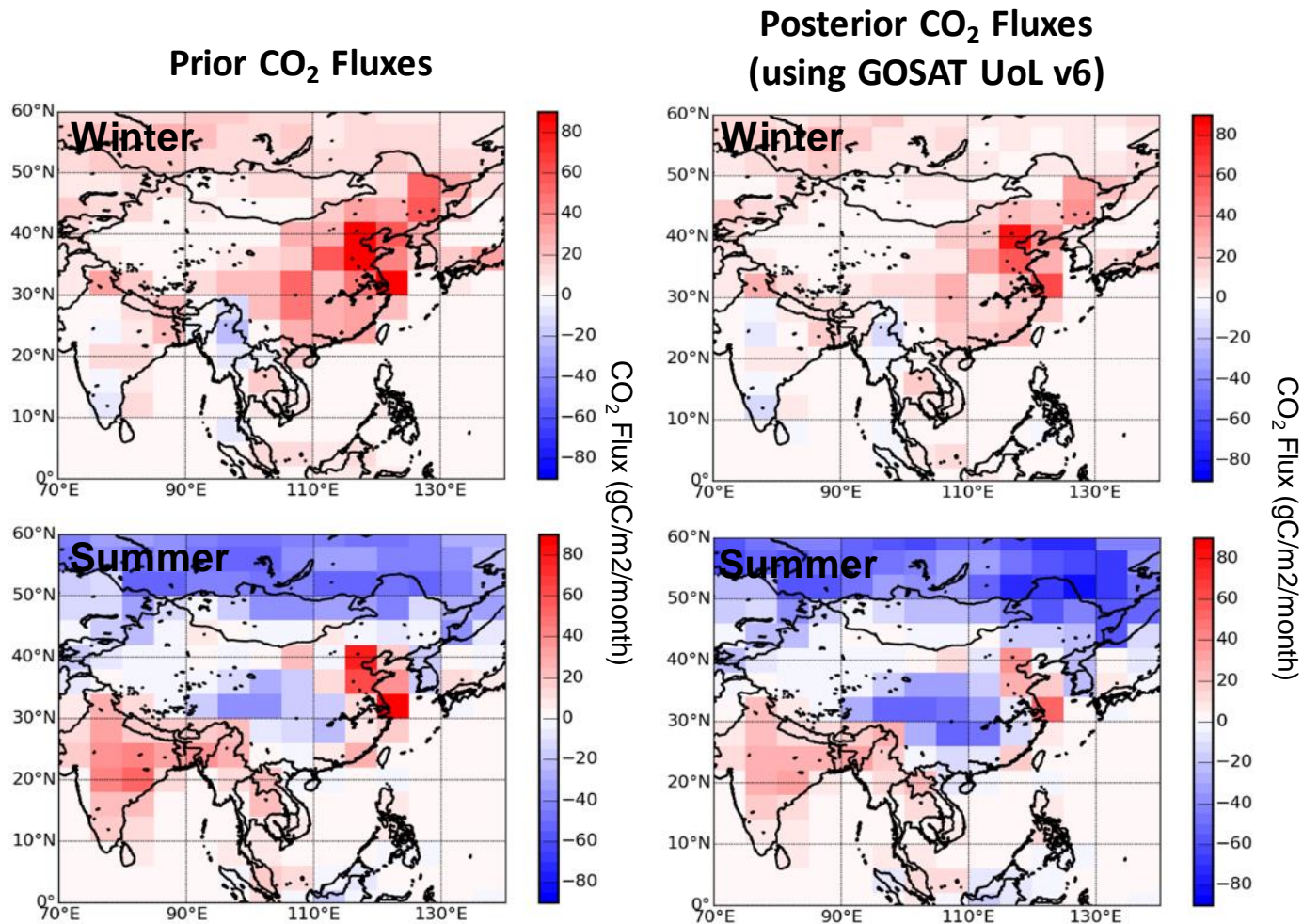
- We need to consider atmospheric transport if we want to link atmospheric CO₂ to surface fluxes
- This is done by assimilation of satellite data into an offline transport model
- Example: Ensemble Kalman Filter for GEOS-Chem which optimizes CO₂ or CH₄ fluxes for 320 regions (land and ocean)



Ensemble Kalman Filter (EnKF)

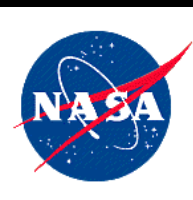


Example: Estimating CO₂ Surface Fluxes from GOSAT over China



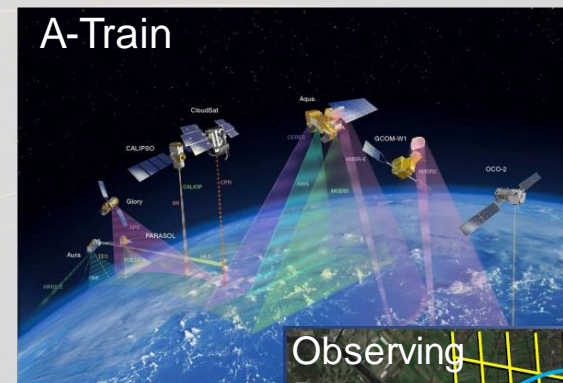
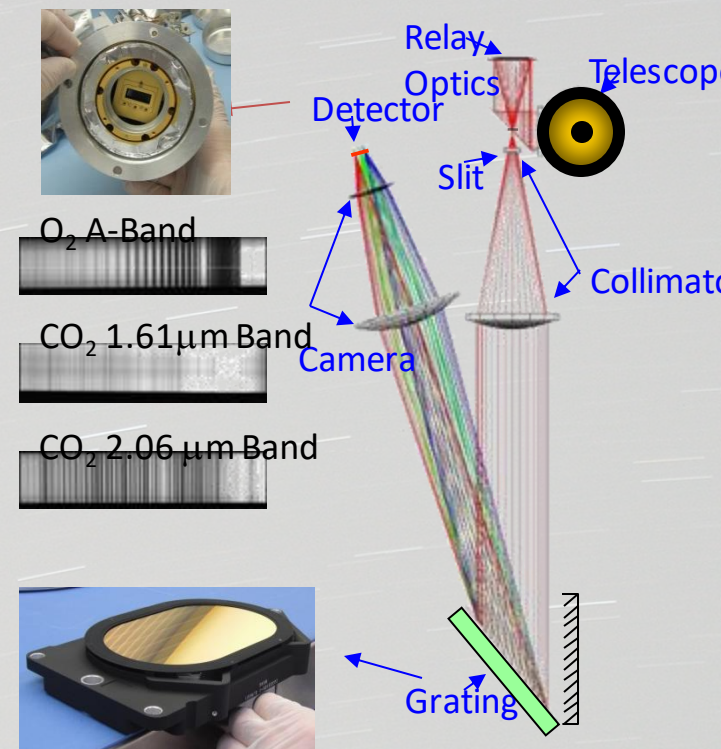
Lower emissions (winter) and larger uptake (summer)

Launch of NASA OCO-2
from Vandenberg AFB
in California on 2 July
2015 at 2:56 a.m. PDT



What is OCO-2 ?

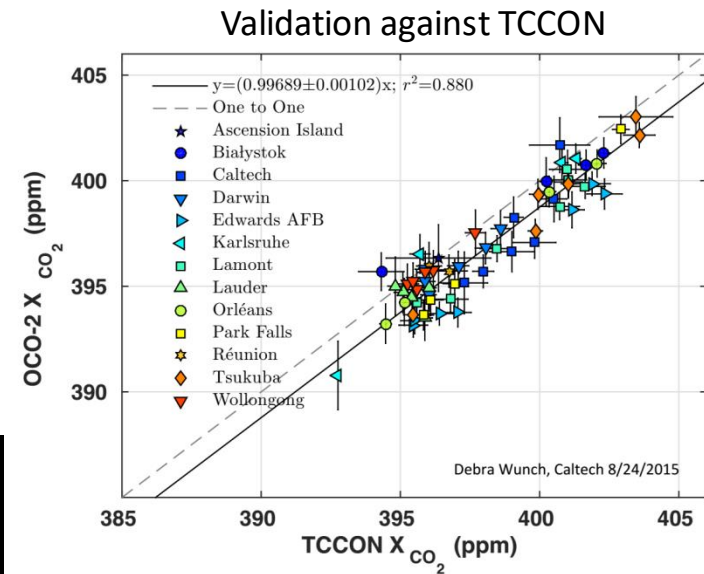
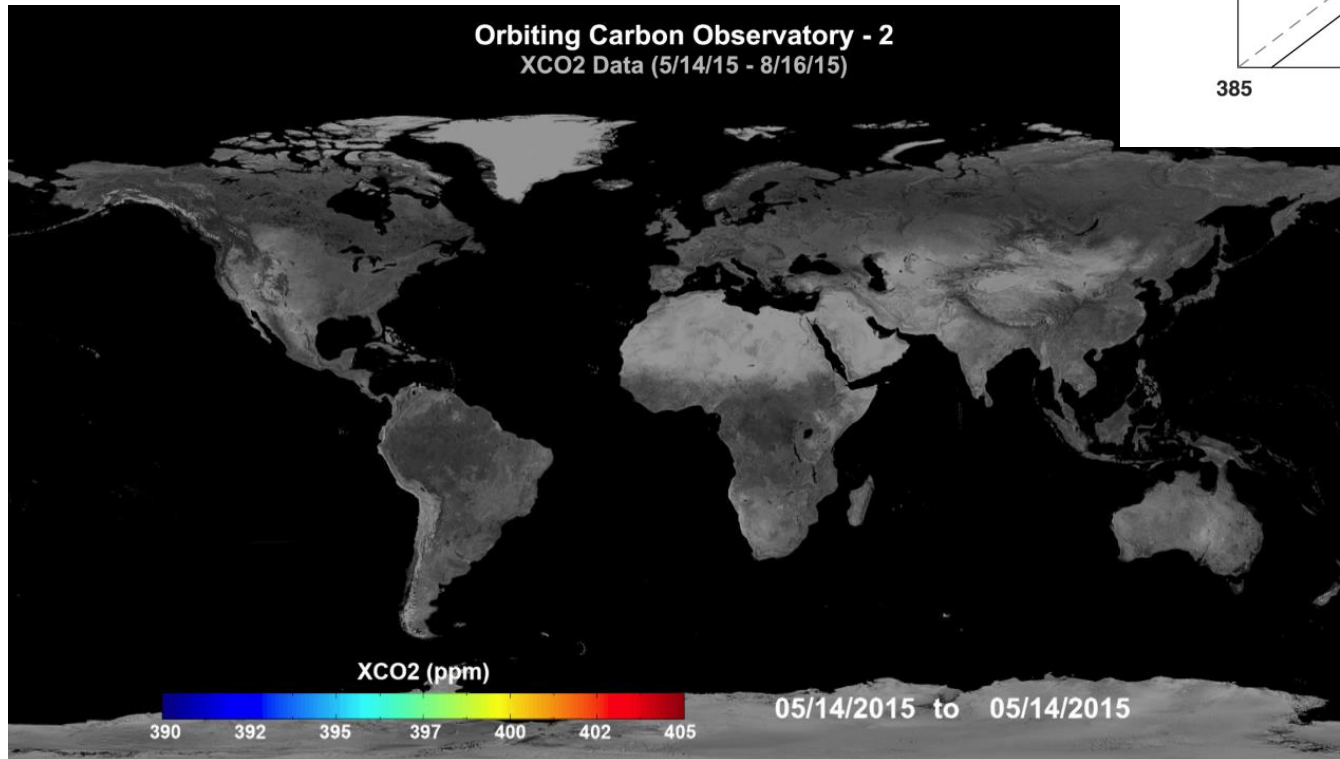
- First dedicated CO₂ mission by NASA
- Copy of the failed OCO-1 mission (launched in 2009)
- High resolution grating spectrometer that measures reflected sunglint in the near and shortwave-infrared
- OCO-2 flies at the head of A-Train, but 217 km East of AQUA
- OCO-2 carries out nadir and sunglint (ocean) and target (over validation sites) observations
- The ground track is 10 km width with 8 across track pixels of area 3km²
- OCO-2 generate 100x more soundings than GOSAT with higher SNR



OCO-2 CO₂ Results

OCO-2 offers CO₂ (+ SIF) observations with much higher precision and coverage than GOSAT

A Quick Look at the First 13 Months of Operations:



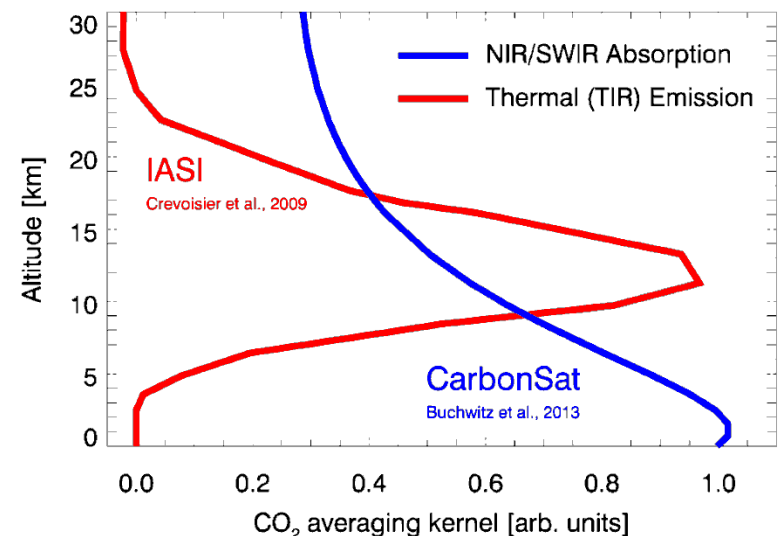
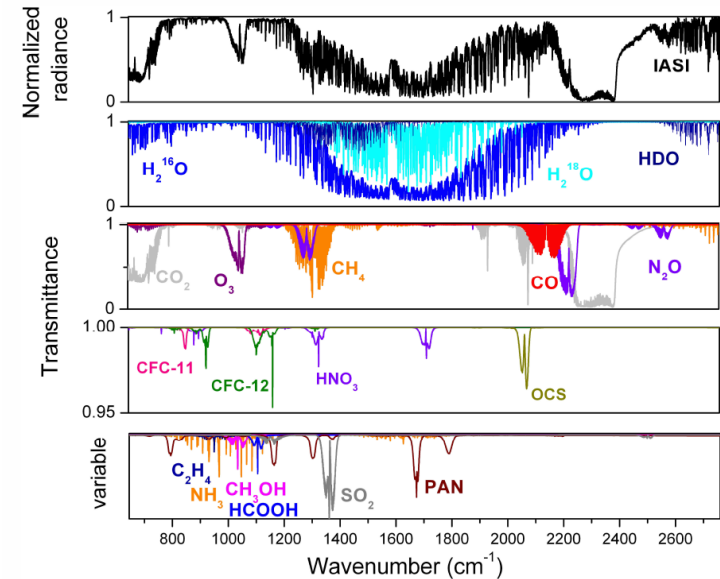
Current and Planned GHG Missions

Satellite, Instrument (Agencies)	CO ₂	CH ₄	FOV	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025
ENVISAT SCIAMACHY (ESA)	•	•	30x60 km ²	Operating													
GOSAT TANSO-FTS (JAXA-NIES-MOE)	•	•	10.5 km (d)	Operating													
OCO-2 (NASA)	•		1.29x2.25 km ²														
Sentinel-5P TROPOMI (ESA)		•	7x7 km ²														
TanSat (CAS-MOST-CMA)	•		1x2 km ²														
OCO-3 (NASA)	•		~4 km ²														
GOSAT-2 TANSO-FTS (JAXA-NIES-MOE)	•	•	10.5 km (d)														
MERLIN (DLR-CNES)		•	0.135 km (w)														
MicroCarb (CNES)	•		25 km ²														
PCW-PHEOS-FTS (CSA)	?	•	10x10 km ²														
MetOpSG Sentinel-5 (ESA-EUMETSAT)		•	7x7 km ²														
CarbonSat (ESA)	•	•	2x3 km ²														
ASCENDS (NASA)	•		0.100 km (w)														
GEO-CAPE (NASA)		•	4x4 km ²														
(GEOCARB)			d = diameter w = width of a narrow strip along orbit track														
Based on information from various sources				Operating	Planned	Considered	Mission Extension										
Proposed or funding not confirmed																	

Over the next decade, a succession of missions with a range of CO₂ and CH₄ measurement capabilities will be deployed in both polar and geostationary orbits

Thermal IR Sounders for GHGs

- CO₂ and CH₄ absorption is also present in the thermal infrared part of the spectrum
- The light source is the emission from the Earth's surface and not the Sun → measurements possible during both day and night
- Measurement of atmospheric gases requires thermal contrast to the surface thus peak sensitivity is in free troposphere with little sensitivity to boundary layer
- Sensors: ESA IASI, NASA AIRS and NASA TES



Summary

- Remote sensing from satellites allows measuring the global distribution of greenhouse gases → especially beneficial for regions poorly sampled by surface networks
- However, it is an indirect measurement so careful validation and calibration is needed to ensure the accuracy and precision
- We now have the first dedicated GHG missions in space (GOSAT, OCO-2) and we hope for a continuous presence in space in the future using a range of technologies (including active sensing)

Section 3:

Computer-based Activity

Main Goals of the Activity

- Visualize the main aspects of the global carbon cycle as observed by GOSAT such as global distribution and seasonal cycle of CO₂
- Compare to observations from a thermal-IR sounder (AIRS) and from an in-situ surface station
- Explain your observations and summarize them in brief Powerpoint presentation

Data Sources and Tools

- We will use GOSAT CO₂ (Shortwave-infrared) columns from the ESA Climate Change Initiative and analyse them with IDL
- AIRS thermal-infrared CO₂ data available from the NASA Giovanni web-portal
- NOAA surface in-situ data from the NOAA ESRL webpage

Seasonal Cycle for surface and total column CO₂

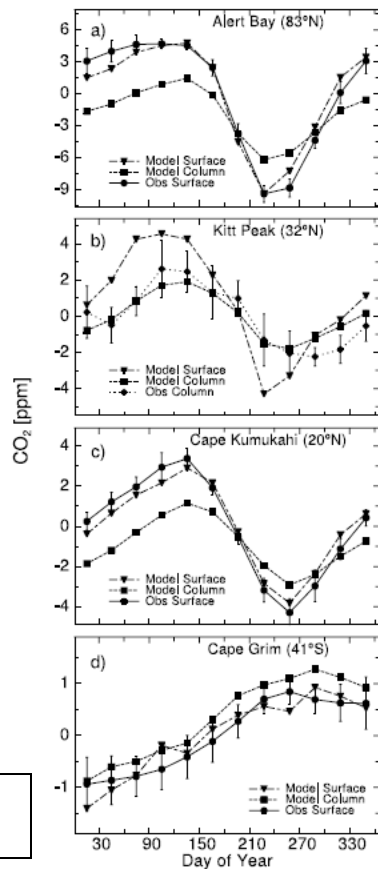


Figure 6. Modeled surface (triangles) and column (squares) CO₂ mixing ratios at (a) Alert Bay, Canada, (b) Kitt Peak, USA, (c) Cape Kumukahi, USA, and (d) Cape Grim, Australia. At Alert Bay, Cape Kumukahi, and Cape Grim, surface measurements from the NOAA/CMDL network are shown with circles and standard deviation error bars. At Kitt Peak, data from Yang *et al.* [2002] for solar zenith angles less than 80° are shown with diamonds and standard deviation error bars. To construct the model estimate of the column at Kitt Peak, we sampled the model at levels above 790 hPa, corresponding to the height of Kitt Peak (2083 m).

Olsen and Anderson, JGR, 2006

Seasonal Cycle for total column and free-tropospheric CO₂

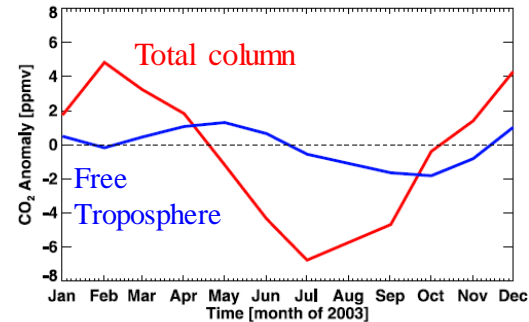
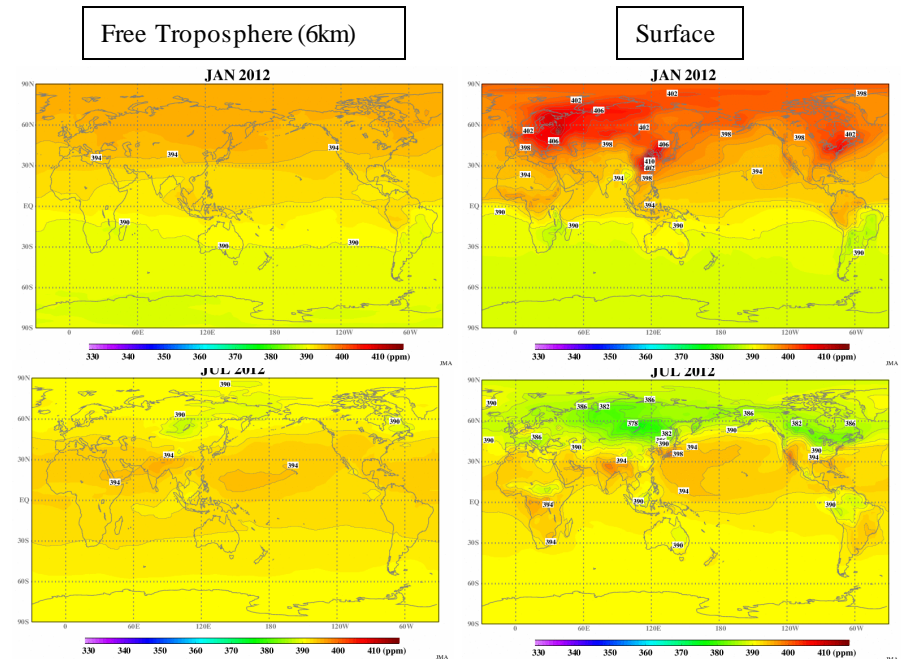


Figure 2. CO₂ anomaly over North America detected by SCIAMACHY (red) and AIRS (blue).

Barkley *et al.*, GRL, 2006

North-South Variations



http://ds.data.jma.go.jp/ghg/kanshi/info_kanshi_e.html