

# 1 Retrieval of Solar-induced Chlorophyll Fluorescence from Satellite 2 Measurements: Comparison of SIF between TanSat and OCO-2

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17 **Abstract.** Solar-induced chlorophyll fluorescence (SIF) is emitted during photosynthesis in plant leaves. It constitutes a  
18 small additional offset to reflected radiance and can be observed by sensitive instruments that with high SNR and spectral  
19 resolution. The Chinese global carbon dioxide monitoring satellite (TanSat), as its mission, acquires greenhouse gas column  
20 density. The advanced technical characteristics of the hyper-spectrum grating spectrometer (ACGS) onboard TanSat enable  
21 SIF retrieval from space observations in the O<sub>2</sub>-A band. In this study, one-year SIF data at sounding scale was processed  
22 globally from Orbiting Carbon Observatory-2 (OCO-2) and TanSat using a physical-based algorithm. A comparison between  
23 the SIF results retrieved from OCO-2 spectra and the official OCO-2 SIF product (OCO2\_Level 2\_Lite\_SIF.8r) shows their  
24 strong linear relationship ( $R^2 > 0.85$ ) and suggests the reliability of the SIF retrieval algorithm. The global distribution  
25 showed that the SIF retrieved from the two satellites shared the same spatial pattern for all seasons with the gridded SIF  
26 difference less than  $0.3 \text{ W m}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$ , and they also agreed well with the official OCO-2 SIF product with the difference  
27 less than  $0.2 \text{ W m}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$ . The retrieval uncertainty of seasonal-gridded TanSat SIF is less than  $0.03 \text{ W m}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$   
28 whereas the uncertainty of each sounding ranges from 0.1 to  $0.6 \text{ W m}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$ . The relationship between annual averaged  
29 SIF products and FLUXCOM gross primary productivity (GPP) was also estimated for six vegetation types in a  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  grid  
30 over the globe, indicating that the SIF data from the two satellites have the same potential in quantitatively characterizing  
31 ecosystem productivity. The spatiotemporal consistency between TanSat and OCO-2 and their comparable data quality make  
32 the comprehensive usage of the two mission products possible. Data supplemented by TanSat observations are expected to  
33 contribute to the development of global SIF maps with more spatiotemporal detail, which will advance global research on  
34 vegetation photosynthesis.

## 35 1 Introduction

36 Terrestrial vegetation accounts for a large part of the ecosystem, with its photosynthesis and respiration processes playing  
37 important roles in the global carbon cycle. Incoming radiation is absorbed, reflected, and/or transmitted by plant leaves. A  
38 portion of the absorbed radiation is used by the chlorophyll in plant leaves for carbon fixation, while the rest is either  
39 dissipated as heat or re-emitted as solar-induced chlorophyll fluorescence (SIF) at longer wavelengths (Frankenberg et al.,  
40 2011a, 2014). In contrast to the traditional remotely sensed vegetation indices obtained from some studies (Frankenberg et  
41 al., 2011b; Guanter et al., 2014; Li et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2017a; Yang et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2014), SIF offers the  
42 potential to measure photosynthesis activity and gross primary production (GPP), due to the strong correlation between these  
43 measures (Frankenberg et al., 2011b; Guanter et al., 2012, 2014). The fluorescence emission ( $F_s$ ) adds a low-intensity  
44 radiance less than  $10 \text{ W m}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$  and fills in the solar absorption features of the reflected spectrum (Frankenberg et al.,  
45 2011a). The filling-in effect of the solar lines (Fraunhofer lines) is the basic principle applied to measure SIF from space  
46 using the capabilities of hyperspectral observation (Frankenberg et al., 2011b; Guanter et al., 2012).

47 The first attempt at SIF research based on space-based observations was performed using images acquired by the Medium  
48 Resolution Imaging Spectrometer (MERIS) onboard the ENVironmental SATellite (ENVISAT) (Guanter et al., 2007). This  
49 led to a new idea for conducting SIF studies on a global scale. The first global SIF map was retrieved with high-resolution  
50 spectra from the Greenhouse-gases Observing SATellite (GOSAT) (Joiner et al., 2011; Frankenberg et al., 2011b). After that,  
51 SIF retrievals were implemented from a variety of satellite measurements, such as those from the Global Ozone Monitoring  
52 Experiment-2 (GOME-2) instruments onboard meteorological operational satellites, SCIAMACHY on board ENVISAT, and  
53 Orbiting Carbon Observatory-2 (OCO-2) (Joiner et al., 2016; Köhler et al., 2015). The TROPOspheric Monitoring  
54 Instrument (TROPOMI) on board Sentinel 5 Precursor (S-5P) provides more efficient SIF observations in terms of global  
55 coverage and new opportunities for exploring the application potential of SIF data in the terrestrial biosphere as well as in  
56 climate research (Doughty et al., 2019; Köhler et al., 2018b). Furthermore, an upcoming European Space Agency mission  
57 called FLuorescence EXplorer (FLEX), the first satellite dedicated to SIF emission observation, will launch in the middle of  
58 2024 (Drusch et al., 2017). Many studies on SIF applications have been initiated with the accumulation of SIF products in  
59 recent years. The responses of satellite-measured SIF to environmental conditions have been applied to drought dynamics  
60 monitoring and regional vegetation water stress estimation (Lee et al., 2013; Sun et al., 2015; Yoshida et al., 2015). As a  
61 proxy of photosynthesis, SIF acts as a powerful constraint parameter in estimating carbon exchange in an ecosystem between  
62 the atmosphere, ocean, and soil; as such, the analysis of the relationship between SIF and GPP has become an important  
63 research topic (Li et al., 2018; Köhler et al., 2018a; Sun et al., 2017a; Zhang et al., 2018). The strong linear relationship  
64 between them paves the way for improving terrestrial ecosystem model simulation of GPP, along with consequent  
65 improvement of global carbon flux estimation (MacBean et al., 2018; Yin et al., 2020). GPP estimations based on satellite-  
66 measured SIF have proven to be an effective method validated by in-situ flux observations (Joiner et al., 2018; Qiu et al.,  
67 2020). However, uncertainty in the factors that determine the relationship between SIF and GPP still exists and is a key

68 limitation in the application of SIF to flux estimation. Based on multi-satellite SIF products, eddy covariance flux tower  
69 observations, and ecological models, the relationship between SIF and GPP under different environmental conditions has  
70 been discussed in a number of studies to analyze the dominant factors for the growing status of different biomes, such as  
71 temperature, soil moisture, and vegetation types (Chen et al., 2020; Doughty et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020; Qiu et al., 2020; Yin  
72 et al., 2020).

73 The Chinese global carbon dioxide monitoring satellite (TanSat) was launched in December 2016. Aiming at acquiring CO<sub>2</sub>  
74 concentrations as OCO-2, TanSat flies in a sun-synchronous orbit at approximately 700 km in height with a 16-day repeat  
75 cycle and an equator crossing time of ~1:30 p.m. local time (Cai et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2018). Onboard  
76 TanSat, the hyperspectral Atmospheric Carbon-dioxide Grating Spectrometer (ACGS) is designed to separately record solar  
77 backscatter spectra in three channels centered at 0.76 μm (O<sub>2</sub>-A band), 1.61 μm (weak CO<sub>2</sub> absorption band), and 2.06 μm  
78 (strong CO<sub>2</sub> absorption band). With the recorded spectra, many Optimal Estimation Method (OEM) full physics retrieval  
79 algorithms have been developed and applied for XCO<sub>2</sub> retrievals (Boesche et al., 2009; Butz et al., 2009, 2011; O'Dell et al.,  
80 2012; Reuter et al., 2010; Yang et al., 2015b; Yoshida et al., 2011, 2013). The Institute of Atmospheric Physics Carbon  
81 Dioxide Retrieval Algorithm for Satellite Remote Sensing (IAPCAS) algorithm has been applied for TanSat retrieval (Yang  
82 et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2021) and was also previously tested on GOSAT and OCO-2 missions (Yang et al., 2015b).  
83 However, the fluorescence feature causes substantial biases when retrieving surface pressure and scattering parameters from  
84 the O<sub>2</sub>-A band, and the associated errors propagate into the XCO<sub>2</sub> retrievals. In previous XCO<sub>2</sub> retrieval, the surface  
85 emissions were well modeled as a continuum zero offset of the O<sub>2</sub>-A band to reduce errors (Frankenberg et al., 2011a, 2012;  
86 Butz et al., 2009, 2010; Joiner et al., 2012). The high spectral resolution of ~0.044 nm and a signal-to-noise ratio of ~360 in  
87 the O<sub>2</sub>-A band makes it possible to obtain SIF from space measurements, with a spatial resolution of 2 km × 2 km in nadir  
88 mode (Liu et al., 2018).

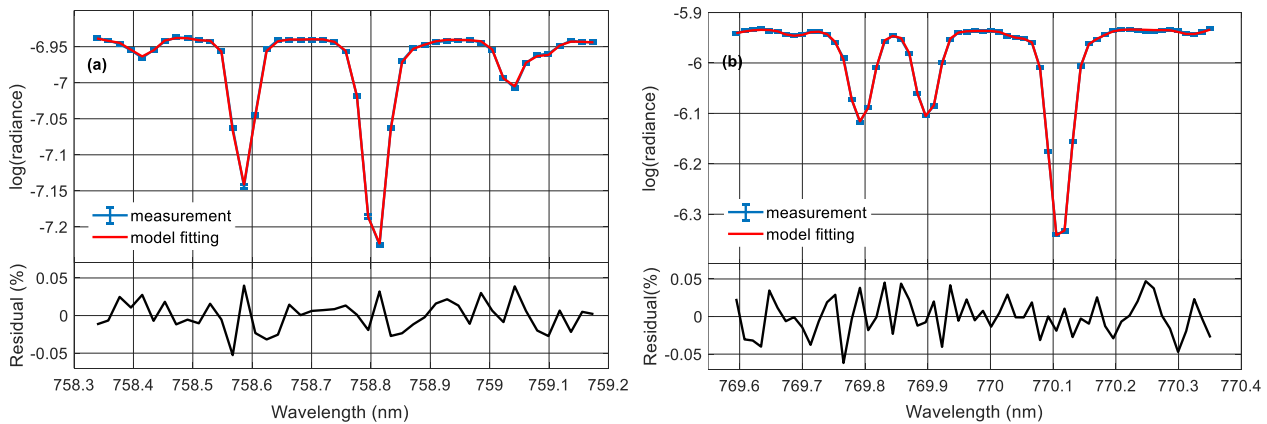
89 Various approaches have been used to infer SIF from satellite measurements (Frankenberg et al., 2011b, 2014a, 2014b;  
90 Guanter et al., 2007, 2012, 2015; Joiner et al., 2011, 2013, 2016; Köhler et al., 2015, 2018b). The SIF signal induces a  
91 filling-in effect of solar lines, which can be used for SIF retrieval, as the fractional depth of solar Fraunhofer lines does not  
92 change during radiation transmission in the atmosphere. To recognize the filling-in features by SIF, high-resolution spectra  
93 and an instrument spectral response function (ISRF) are required to describe subtle changes in the spectral absorption lines.  
94 With the detailed spectral features, a method was developed based on solar line fitting and the Beer-Lambertian law. This  
95 method is robust and accurate when the spectrum is out of the influence of telluric absorptions, even in the presence of  
96 aerosols (Frankenberg et al., 2011a; Joiner et al., 2011); in the current study, this method was applied to develop the  
97 IAPCAS/SIF algorithm. Another SIF retrieval method is the data-driven algorithm based on the singular value  
98 decomposition (SVD) technique (Joiner et al., 2011; Guanter et al., 2012), which has been broadly applied in GOSAT, OCO-  
99 2, TanSat and TROPOMI SIF retrieval (Joiner et al., 2011; Guanter et al., 2012, 2015; Frankenberg et al., 2014a; Du et al.,  
100 2018; Köhler et al., 2018b). In the data-driven method, the spectrum is represented as a linear combination of the SIF signal  
101 and several singular vectors that are trained from non-fluorescent scenes by SVD; thus, the SIF signal can be obtained with

102 linear least-squares fitting (Du et al., 2018; Guanter et al., 2012). The first TanSat SIF map was obtained by the SVD  
 103 method (Du et al., 2018), in a previous study, a preliminary comparison between the TanSat SIF products retrieved by  
 104 IAPCAS/SIF algorithm and the SVD data-driven method was performed, and the comparison shows that the two SIF  
 105 products share a similar global pattern and signal magnitude for all seasons while different biases still exist in four seasons  
 106 (Yao et al., 2021). The different biases in four seasons may be caused by the different training samples of the SVD method.  
 107 In order to obtain stable SIF data products from TanSat and other subsequent satellite missions, it is particularly important to  
 108 establish a stable and high-precision SIF inversion algorithm. To validate the IAPCAS/SIF algorithm and test the potential of  
 109 comprehensive usage of multi-satellites SIF data in analysis, in this study, we detailed the TanSat SIF retrieval using the  
 110 IAPCAS/SIF algorithm and made the comparison of SIF products between TanSat and OCO-2.

## 111 2 Data and retrieval algorithm

### 112 2.1 Retrieval Principle and Method

113 We used TanSat version 2 Level 1B (L1B) nadir-mode earth observation data in the retrieval process. The measurements  
 114 covered the period from March 2017 to February 2018. Polarized radiance in the O<sub>2</sub>-A band with a spectral resolution of  
 115 0.044 nm was provided in the L1B data, and two micro-windows near 757 nm (758.3-759.2 nm) and 771 nm (769.6-770.3  
 116 nm) were chosen to retrieve the top-of-atmosphere (TOA) SIF while avoiding the contamination from strong lines of  
 117 atmospheric gas absorption. The retrieval was independent for each micro-window as shown in Figure 1. To avoid  
 118 duplication of information, we use the SIF product at 757 nm as the example in the analysis.



119  
 120 **Figure 1: The fitted spectra and residuals for the (a) 757 nm and (b) 771 nm micro-windows of TanSat measurement. The error**  
 121 **bar of the measured spectra depicts the estimated precision of each TanSat sounding.**

122  
 123 Filling-in on solar lines by chlorophyll fluorescence in the O<sub>2</sub>-A band can be detected in the hyperspectral measurements  
 124 from TanSat. This effect on spectral radiance is different from the impact of atmospheric and surface processes, e.g.,

125 scattering and absorption. For example, scattering by aerosols and clouds does not change the relative depth of clear solar  
 126 lines, unlike the SIF emission signal. We applied the differential optical absorption spectroscopy (DOAS) technique to  
 127 IAPCAS/SIF algorithm for TanSat measurement (Frankenberg, 2014b; Sun et al., 2018).

128 The TOA spectral radiance ( $L_{TOA}^\lambda$ ) at wavelength  $\lambda$  can be represented as follows:

$$129 \quad L_{TOA}^\lambda = I_t^\lambda \cdot \mu_0 \cdot (\rho_0^\lambda + \frac{\rho_s^\lambda \cdot T_d^\lambda \cdot T_u^\lambda}{\pi}) + F_{TOA}^\lambda \quad (1)$$

130 where  $I_t^\lambda$  is the incident solar irradiance at the TOA,  $\mu_0$  is the cosine of the solar zenith angle (SZA),  $\rho_0^\lambda$  is atmospheric path  
 131 reflectance,  $\rho_s^\lambda$  is surface reflectance, and  $T_d^\lambda$  and  $T_u^\lambda$  are the total atmospheric transmittances along the light-path in the  
 132 downstream and upstream directions, respectively.  $F_{TOA}^\lambda$  is the SIF radiance at TOA.

133 The first term on the right of Eq. (1) represents the transmission process of solar radiance. In the micro-windows used in SIF  
 134 retrieval, gas absorption is very weak and smooth, and hence, the atmosphere term  $\mu_0 \cdot (\rho_0^\lambda + \frac{\rho_s^\lambda \cdot T_d^\lambda \cdot T_u^\lambda}{\pi})$  can be simplified to a  
 135 low-order polynomial that varies with  $\lambda$  (Joiner et al., 2013; Sun et al., 2018); this is always valid as long as the spectrum  
 136 fitting range is out of sharp atmospheric absorptions. In the retrieval, the spectral radiance measurement was converted to  
 137 logarithmic space by the instrument and the radiative transfer process  $f(F_s^{rel}, \mathbf{a})$  was represented as follows:

$$138 \quad f(F_s^{rel}, \mathbf{a}) = \log(\langle I_t + F_s^{rel} \rangle) + \sum_{i=0}^n a_i \cdot \lambda^i \quad (2)$$

139 where  $\langle \rangle$  denote the convolution with the ISRF from line-by-line spectra. The polynomial coefficient  $\mathbf{a}$  determines the  
 140 wavelength dependence polynomial for the atmosphere term; in the retrieval, we used a second-order polynomial ( $n = 2$ ).  
 141 The radiance is normalized to the continuum level; hence,  $I_t$  is a normalized disk-integrated solar transmission model, and  
 142  $F_s^{rel}$  is the normalized relative SIF. In the micro-window, SIF was regarded as a constant signal due to its small changes.

143 Although the atmospheric gas absorption was very weak in the micro-window, the weak absorption and the far-wing effects  
 144 ( $O_2$  lines) can still change spectral features, which induces errors in spectrum fitting. Therefore, we used the European  
 145 Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) interim surface pressure ( $0.75^\circ \times 0.75^\circ$ ) to estimate  $O_2$  absorption  
 146 firstly and then modified the absorption feature by a scale factor. The scale factor is obtained simultaneously in SIF retrieval  
 147 to reduce the error induced by the uncertainty in surface pressure. As described by Yang (2020), there is also a continuum  
 148 feature in TanSat L1B data that needs to be considered for the high-quality fitting of the  $O_2$ -A band. However, in this study,  
 149 this continuum feature was not corrected, as the impact of such a smooth continuum variation in the micro-window is weak  
 150 and the polynomial continuum model is capable of compensating for most of this effect.

151 The state vector list in the retrieval includes the relative SIF signal  $F_s^{rel}$ , a wavenumber shift, the scale of  $O_2$  column  
 152 absorption for surface pressure correction, and coefficients of the polynomial. The continuum level radiance  $I_{cont}$  within the  
 153 fitting window is calculated using the radiance outside the absorption features in the micro-window and is then used for the  
 154 actual SIF signal calculation thus:  $F = F_s^{rel} \cdot I_{cont}$ .

155 In the IAPCAS/SIF algorithm, we used an OEM for state vector optimization in the retrieval process. Unlike  $XCO_2$  retrieval,  
 156 SIF retrieval employs a state vector with fewer elements and a much simpler forward model, so there is no need to perform

157 complex radiation transmission calculations. Considering the low complexity of SIF retrieval, the Gauss-Newton method  
158 was applied in inversion iteratively to find the optimal solution.

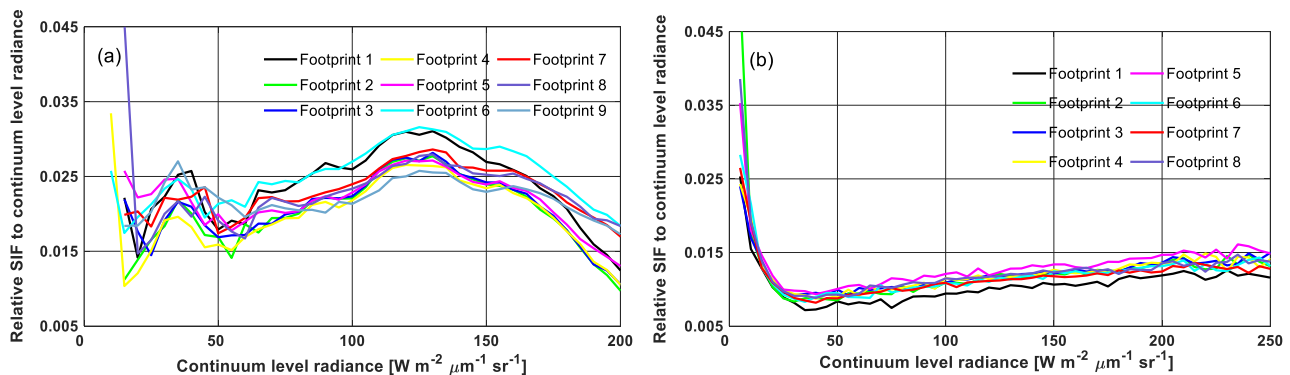
## 159 2.2 Bias Corrections

160 A systematic error remains in the raw SIF retrieval output if no bias correction is performed; similar results have been  
161 reported in GOSAT and OCO-2 SIF retrieval studies (Frankenberg et al., 2011a, 2011b; Sun et al., 2018). This is because the  
162 SIF signal is weak (e.g., typically ~1-2% of the continuum level radiance), which means that even a small issue in the  
163 measurement, such as a zero-offset caused by radiometric calibration error, could induce significant bias. Unfortunately, the  
164 lack of knowledge on in-flight instrument performance makes it difficult to perform a direct systematic bias correction in the  
165 measured spectrum. In the retrieval, a continuum level radiance bin fit was used to estimate the bias. The bins have a  
166 continuum level radiance interval of  $5 \text{ W m}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$ . In each bin, the mean bias was estimated using all non-fluorescence  
167 measurements, and a piecewise linear function was built from the mean bias of each continuum level radiance interval.

168 The non-fluorescence soundings that were used in the bias estimation were based on the dataset “sounding\_landCover” in  
169 TanSat L1B data. This dataset depends on the MODIS land cover product and provides a scheme consisting of 17 land cover  
170 classifications defined by the International Geosphere-Biosphere Programme. These retrieved measurements marked as  
171 “snow and ice,” “barren,” and “sparsely vegetated” were chosen to estimate the bias. Calibrations compensated for most of  
172 the instrument degradations, but this alone was not perfect. To reduce the impact from the remaining minor discrepancies,  
173 we built the bias correction function daily to obtain bias for each sounding via interpolation of the continuum level radiance  
174 (Sun et al., 2017b, 2018).

175 The bias curves shown in Figure 2 differ significantly between TanSat and OCO-2. This is mostly due to the differences in  
176 instrument performance and radiometric calibration. In general, the TanSat bias curves exhibited two peaks at radiance levels  
177 of approximately  $40$  and  $125 \text{ W m}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$ , separately, and most biases were larger than  $0.015$ . For OCO-2, the curves  
178 dropped sharply at low radiance levels, reaching the valley at a radiance level of approximately  $40 \text{ W m}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$ , and then  
179 increased slowly with the radiance level.

180



181 **Figure 2: Variations in the bias correction curves of continuum level radiance from (a) TanSat on July 7, 2017, and (b) Orbiting**  
182 **Carbon Observatory-2 (OCO-2) on June 16, 2017. The different colors in the legend present different footprints of the satellite**  
183 **frame.**

### 184 2.3 Data Quality Controls

185 Only data that passed quality control were used in further applications. There were two data quality control processes for the  
186 SIF products: pre-screening and post-screening. Pre-screening focused mainly on cloud screening; only cloud-free  
187 measurements were used in SIF retrieval. A surface pressure difference (SPD), defined as:

$$188 \Delta P_0 = |P_{retrieval} - P_{ECMWF}| \quad (3)$$

189 was used to evaluate cloud contamination along with a chi-square test

$$190 \chi^2 = \sum \frac{(y_{sim} - y_{obs})^2}{y_{noise}^2} \quad (4)$$

191 where  $y_{sim}$ ,  $y_{obs}$ , and  $y_{noise}$  represent the model fitting spectrum, observation spectrum, and spectrum noise, respectively.  
192  $P_{retrieval}$  is the apparent surface pressure obtained from O<sub>2</sub>-A band surface pressure retrieval, assuming a single scattering  
193 atmosphere.  $P_{ECMWF}$  is the ECMWF interim (0.75° × 0.75°) surface pressure. A “cloud-free” measurement was required to  
194 simultaneously satisfy an SPD of less than 20 hPa and a  $\chi^2$  value of less than 80. Here, post-screening was applied to filter  
195 out “bad” retrievals; this screening process involved the following steps: (1) SIF retrievals with reduced  $\chi^2$  ( $\chi_{red}^2$ ) values  
196 ranging from 0.7 to 1.3 were considered “good” fitting, (2) continuum level radiance outside the range of 15 ~ 200 W m<sup>-2</sup>  
197  $\mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{sr}^{-1}$  was screened out to avoid scenes too bright or too dark, and (3) soundings with the SZA higher than 60° were also  
198 filtered out.

### 199 2.4 IAPCAS versus IMAP-DOAS OCO-2 SIF Retrieval

200 Before applied to TanSat retrievals, we tested the IAPCAS/SIF algorithm on the OCO-2 L1B data first  
201 (OCO2\_L1B\_Science.8r) and then compared the retrieval results with the OCO-2 L2 Lite SIF product (OCO2\_Level  
202 2\_Lite\_SIF.8r) retrieved by the Iterative Maximum A Posteriori-Differential Optical Absorption Spectroscopy (IMAP-  
203 DOAS) algorithm (Frankenberg, 2014b). The Lite product provides the SIF value for each sounding on a daily basis and  
204 hence the SIF comparison could be performed on the sounding scale for each month.

205 Table 1 displays the relationship of OCO-2 SIF values between the IAPCAS/SIF and IMAP-DOAS at 757 nm micro-  
206 window for each month. Overall, the two SIF products were in good agreement. The linear fitting of the two SIF products  
207 suggests that they are highly correlated, as indicated by the strong linear relationship with R<sup>2</sup> mostly larger than 0.85 and the  
208 root mean square error (RMSE) of about 0.2 W m<sup>-2</sup>  $\mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{sr}^{-1}$ . Good consistency between the two SIF products implies the  
209 reliability of the IAPCAS/SIF algorithm; thus, it was further applied to TanSat SIF retrieval. However, there was still a small  
210 bias in the comparisons, which was due, most likely, to the impact of differences in the bias correction method, retrieval  
211 algorithm, and fitting window.

212 **Table 1:** Summary of the relationship between the Institute of Atmospheric Physics Carbon Dioxide Retrieval Algorithm for  
 213 Satellite Remote Sensing (IAPCAS) OCO-2 and Iterative Maximum A Posteriori-Differential Optical Absorption Spectroscopy  
 214 (IMAP-DOAS) OCO-2 solar-induced chlorophyll fluorescence (SIF) products at 757nm micro-window.

month	Number of soundings	Slope	Intercept	R <sup>2</sup>	RMSE/ $W m^{-2} \mu m^{-1} sr^{-1}$
2017/03	1097277	0.85	0.034	0.86	0.18
2017/04	1119464	0.86	0.045	0.87	0.19
2017/05	1054235	0.88	0.041	0.88	0.19
2017/06	1014848	0.91	0.032	0.90	0.19
2017/07	965309	0.92	0.011	0.91	0.19
2017/09	211219	0.88	0.005	0.81	0.23
2017/10	473359	0.88	0.031	0.88	0.17
2017/11	579009	0.87	0.022	0.85	0.19
2017/12	645134	0.87	0.020	0.88	0.16
2018/01	788655	0.87	0.019	0.88	0.17
2018/02*	629995	0.86	0.024	0.87	0.18

215 \* Due to the lack of OCO-2 measurements in August 2017, the comparison is only performed for 11 months.

## 216 **3 Results and Discussion**

### 217 **3.1 Comparison between TanSat and OCO-2 SIF Measurements**

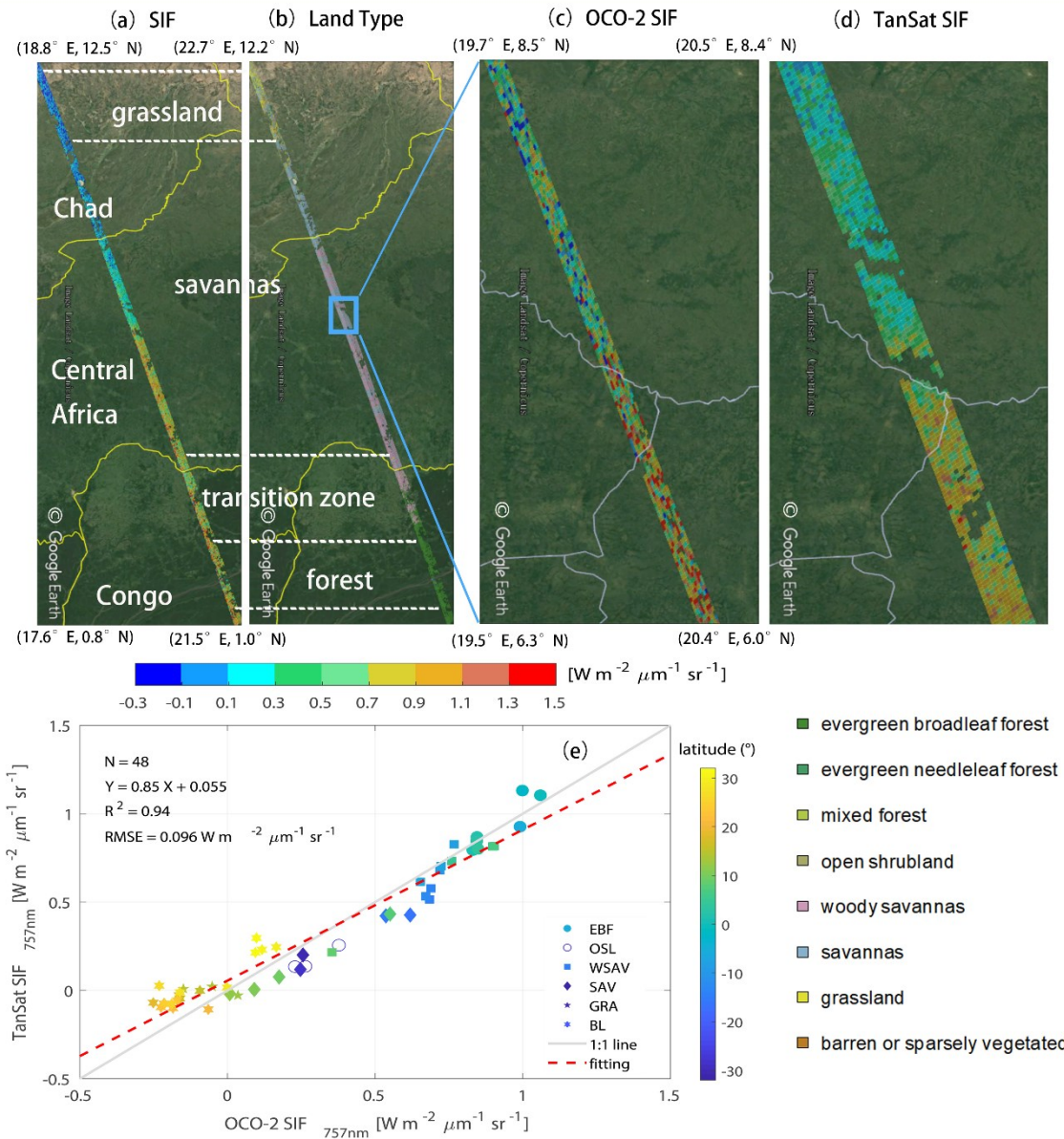
218 Directly comparing OCO-2 and TanSat SIF measurements could provide information on joint data application at the  
 219 sounding scale for further studies. However, an identical sounding overlap barely exists because the two satellites often have  
 220 different nadir tracks on the ground, which is induced by the different temporal and spatial intervals of the two satellite  
 221 missions. Fortunately, the ground tracks of the two satellites were relatively close from April 17 to April 23, 2017. A couple  
 222 of overlapping orbits were found in the measurements obtained from Africa with the orbit number of 1733 from TanSat and  
 223 14890a from OCO-2 (Figure 3). In the comparison, the OCO2\_Level 2\_Lite\_SIF.8r product was used to present the SIF  
 224 emission over the study area. These overlapping measurements encompassed multiple land cover types, in which the SIF  
 225 varied within an acceptable time difference (<5 min).

226 Overall, measurements from the two satellites indicated SIF variation with land cover type. The SIF emission over evergreen  
 227 broadleaf forests was larger than that over savannas, and grasslands exhibited the lowest SIF emission in April (Figure 3a,b).  
 228 The mean SIF emission over evergreen broadleaf forests was approximately  $0.9-1.1 W m^{-2} \mu m^{-1} sr^{-1}$ , whereas those over  
 229 savannas and grasslands were  $0.5-0.7 W m^{-2} \mu m^{-1} sr^{-1}$  and less than  $0.1 W m^{-2} \mu m^{-1} sr^{-1}$ , respectively (Figure 3c,d).  
 230 Furthermore, we also found a significant difference in the SIF emission intensity over tropical savannas, which was observed  
 231 by both satellites (Figure 3c,d).

232

233





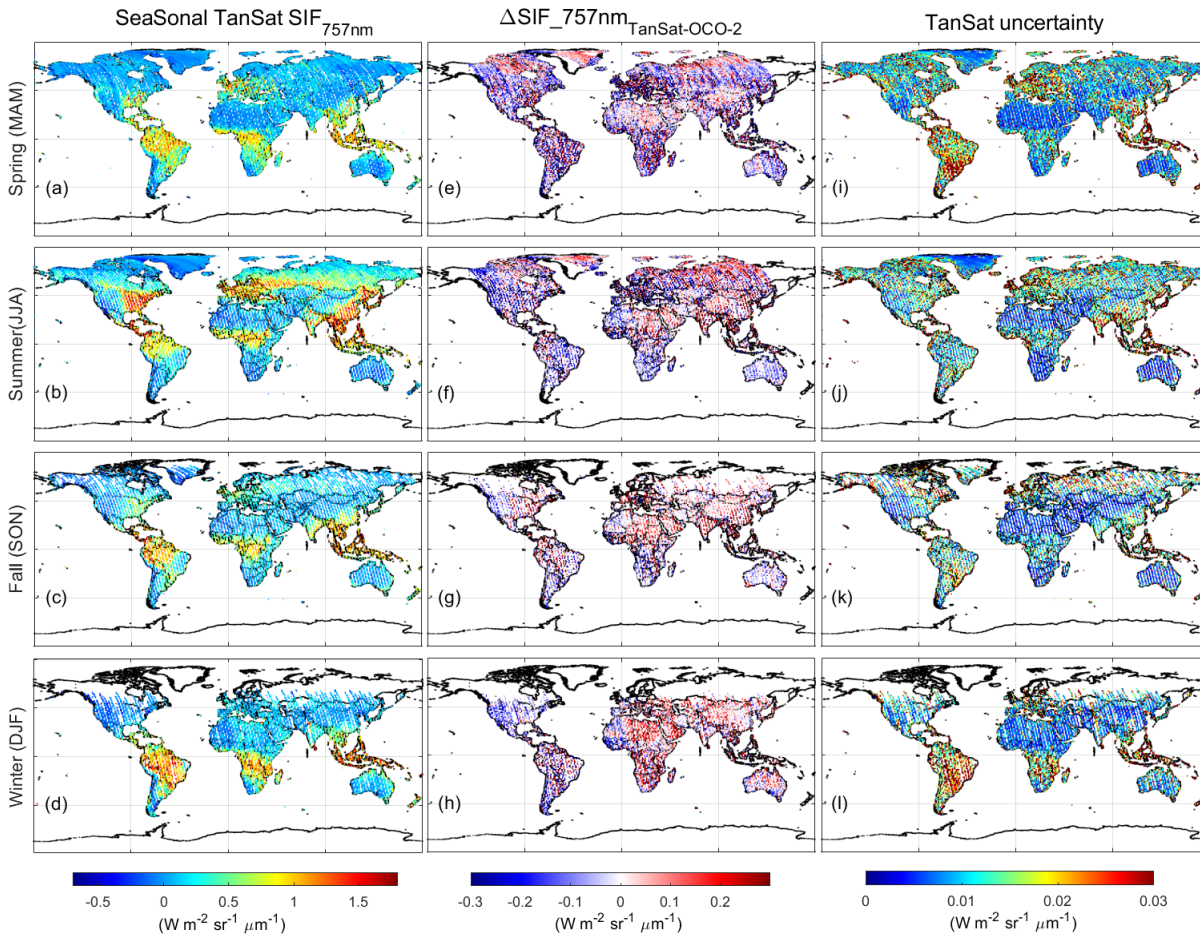
234

235 **Figure 3: Overlapping orbits of TanSat and OCO-2 on April 19, 2017 over Africa displayed in Google Earth, (a) the SIF**  
 236 **measurements from both the two satellites and (b) the footprint land cover type were compared. Compared to OCO-2, TanSat has**  
 237 **a wider swath width. A zoom-in view over savannas shows variations in the SIF signal measured by (c) OCO-2 and (d) TanSat.**  
 238 **The land surface image shown in Google earth is provided by Landsat/Copernicus team. Following the International Geosphere-**  
 239 **Biosphere Programme classification scheme, the vertical legend on the bottom right corner depicts the land cover type that occurs**  
 240 **in the study area. The middle horizontal color bar represents the intensity of the SIF radiance. (e) Small-area SIF comparison**  
 241 **between OCO-2 and TanSat; each data point represents the mean SIF of a degree in latitude (colors) along the track. The marker**  
 242 **legend that is shown on the bottom right of the plot indicates the dominant land cover (defined as the majority land cover type of**  
 243 **each sounding) in each small area. There are six land cover types including evergreen broadleaf forest (EBF), open shrubland**  
 244 **(OSL), woody savanna (WSAV), savanna (SAV), grassland (GRA), and barren land (BL). The red dashed line represents the**  
 245 **linear fit between the two SIF products with statistics shown in the upper left of the plot. The gray line indicates a 1:1 relationship**  
 246 **for reference.**

247

248 Because the footprint sizes of the two satellites are different, it is difficult to make a direct footprint-to-footprint comparison.  
 249 Therefore, we made the comparison between the two satellite measurements based on a small area average. Each small area  
 250 spans a degree in latitude and continues along the track. The small area-averaged SIF comparison is shown in Figure 3e. The  
 251 results indicate good agreement, with an  $R^2$  of 0.94 and an RMSE of  $0.096 \text{ W m}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$ . Additional ground-based SIF  
 252 measurement setups (Guanter et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2019; van der Tol et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2015a; Yu et al., 2019)  
 253 should allow for direct evaluation of satellite retrieval accuracy in the future.

254



255

256 **Figure 4: Global TanSat SIF (left, a-d), differences between TanSat and IAPCAS OCO-2 SIF values (middle, e-h), and the grid-**  
 257 **cell retrieval uncertainty estimated from TanSat (right, i-l) at  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  spatial resolution. The maps in each row represent a**  
 258 **Northern Hemisphere season, i.e., spring (MAM), summer (JJA), fall (SON), and winter (DJF).**

259

260 Figure 4 shows the global SIF comparison between IAPCAS/SIF retrieved OCO-2 and TanSat; this comparison is only  
 261 performed at  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  spatial resolution. In general, the difference in SIF globally is mostly less than  $0.3 \text{ W m}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$  for  
 262 all seasons, and on average, the smallest difference appears in fall. There are regional biases observed in North Africa, South  
 263 Africa, South America, and Europe in all seasons except fall. This is mainly caused by the differences in instrument  
 264 performance between TanSat and OCO-2, such as the Instrument Respond Function and the Signal-to-Noise. The instrument  
 265 performance difference is represented by the different structural characteristics of the bias curves. The bias correction  
 266 compensates for most of the bias caused by instrument performance; however, small biases could remain. Furthermore, the  
 267 hundreds of kilometers of distance between the OCO-2 and TanSat footprints, for example, over different vegetation regions,  
 268 will also cause some measurement discrepancies. The global distribution of the two satellites was also compared with the  
 269 official OCO-2 SIF data on the global scale, the results show that the difference between the retrieved SIF maps and the  
 270 official map is less than  $0.2 \text{ W m}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$ , indicating that the retrieved SIF data from OCO-2 and TanSat both have good  
 271 SIF characterization capabilities on a global scale. The uncertainty  $\sigma$  of each sounding was estimated to validate SIF  
 272 reliability and is provided in the product.  $\sigma$  is derived from the retrieval error covariance matrix,  $S_e = (K^T S_0^{-1} K)^{-1}$ , where  $K$   
 273 is the Jacobian matrix from the forward model fitting and  $S_0$  is the measurement error covariance matrix that is calculated  
 274 from the instrument spectrum noise. In general,  $\sigma$  ranges from 0.1 to  $0.6 \text{ W m}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$  for both TanSat and OCO-2  
 275 measurements in the 757 nm fitting window, which is of a similar magnitude and data range as those of previous studies (Du  
 276 et al., 2018; Frankenberg et al., 2014a). Meanwhile, the standard error of the mean SIF in each grid  $\sigma_{meas}$  was estimated to  
 277 represent the gridded retrieval error and natural variability, which is calculated from TanSat SIF values with  $\sigma_{meas} = \frac{\sigma_{std}}{\sqrt{n}}$

278 and  $\sigma_{std} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (SIF_i - \overline{SIF})^2}{n}}$ , where  $\sigma_{std}$  represents the standard deviation of the grid cell with  $n$  soundings,  $SIF_i$  is the  
 279 retrieved SIF values of each sounding, and  $\overline{SIF}$  is the mean SIF value for all measurements in the grid. As depicted in the  
 280 right column of Figure 4, the  $\sigma_{meas}$  of each grid cell is much lower than the precision of a single sounding. The  $\sigma_{meas}$  for  
 281 South America is larger than that for any other region on the globe (Figure 4i-1). This is similar to that of OCO-2 SIF  
 282 retrieval and caused by fewer effective measurements due to the South Atlantic Anomaly (Sun et al., 2018). The difference  
 283 in SIF emission values between the two satellites indicates that the collaborative usage of two satellite SIF products still  
 284 requires analysis of the impact of instrument differences, although the two satellite SIF products share the same  
 285 spatiotemporal pattern on a global scale.

### 286 3.2 SIF Global Distribution and Temporal Variation

287 The SIF emission intensity reflects the growth status of vegetation due to its correlation with photosynthetic efficiency;  
 288 hence, the overall global vegetation status can be represented by global SIF maps for each season. TanSat SIF over a whole  
 289 year's cycle, from March 2017 to February 2018, is represented seasonally as a  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  grid spatially. The seasonal variation

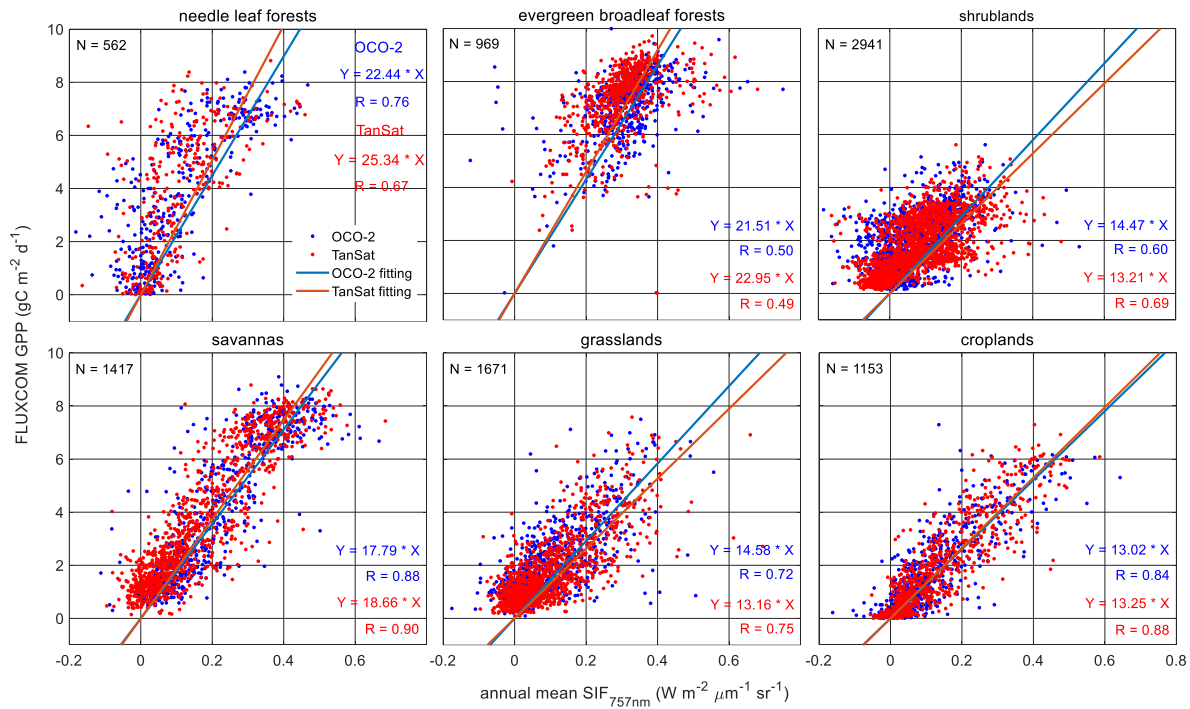
290 in SIF emission is clear in the Northern Hemisphere, i.e., it is enhanced from spring to summer and then decreases (Sun et al.,  
291 2018).

292 In general, the SIF emission varied with latitude and the vegetation-covered areas near the equator maintained a continuous  
293 SIF emission throughout the year. Large SIF emissions in the Northern Hemisphere, above  $1.5 \text{ W m}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$ , mostly from  
294 the eastern U.S., southeast of China, and southern Asia in summer, were due to the large areas of cropland. There was also  
295 an obvious SIF emission of  $1\text{-}1.2 \text{ W m}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$  observed over Central Europe and northeastern China during the summer.  
296 In these regions, croplands and deciduous forests contribute to SIF emissions. In the Southern Hemisphere, the strongest SIF  
297 emission occurred in the Amazon, with a level of approximately  $1\text{-}2 \text{ W m}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$  in DJF (Northern Hemisphere winter),  
298 where there is an evergreen broadleaf rainforest. Africa, which is covered by evergreen broadleaf rainforests and woody  
299 savannas, had an average SIF value of  $0.7\text{-}1.5 \text{ W m}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$  during the year.

300 The SIF-GPP relationship over different vegetation types was also investigated by comparing the annual mean satellite SIF  
301 measurements with the FLUXCOM GPP (Jung et al., 2020; Tramontana et al., 2016) dataset in a  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  grid over the globe.  
302 The FLUXCOM GPP dataset used in the study comprises monthly global gridded flux products with remote sensing and  
303 meteorological/climate forcing (RS+METEO) setups, which are derived from mean seasonal cycles according to MODIS  
304 data and daily meteorological information (Jung et al., 2020; Tramontana et al., 2016). The satellite-measured SIF is an  
305 instantaneous emission signal that varies with incident solar radiance within the day. To reduce the differences caused by the  
306 observation time and SZA at different latitudes, we applied a daily adjustment factor to convert the instantaneous SIF  
307 emission into a daily mean SIF (Du et al., 2018; Frankenberg et al., 2011b; Sun et al., 2018). The daily adjustment factor  $d$  is  
308 calculated as follows:

$$309 \quad d = \frac{\int_{t=t_0-12h}^{t=t_0+12h} \cos(SZA(t)) \cdot dt}{\cos(SZA(t_0))} \quad (5)$$

310 where  $t_0$  is the observation time in fractional days and  $SZA(t)$  is a function of latitude, longitude, and time for calculating  
311 the SZA of the measurements. The annual averaged SIF is calculated from the daily mean SIF. To evaluate the relationship  
312 between SIF and GPP on the periodic scale of vegetation growth status, annually-averaged data were used in the regression  
313 fitting analysis.



314

315 **Figure 5: Relationship between annual mean SIF and FLUXCOM gross primary production (GPP) from March 2017 to February**  
 316 **2018. Blue and red dots represent OCO-2 and TanSat SIF grids, respectively. Fitted lines and statistics for OCO-2 and TanSat are**  
 317 **shown in each plot.**

318 Figure 5 shows the linear fits for six vegetation types, including needle leaf forest, evergreen broadleaf forest, shrubland,  
 319 savanna, grassland, and cropland. Recent studies have shown a strong linear correlation between SIF and GPP. The TanSat  
 320 SIF and the OCO-2 official SIF data were used to estimation the SIF-GPP correlation. To make a direct comparison of the  
 321 relationship between SIF and GPP among various vegetation types, we used non-offset linear fitting to indicate the  
 322 correlation between satellite SIF and FLUXCOM GPP. For savanna and cropland, there were strong relationships between  
 323 the mean SIF and GPP with an R-value above 0.84. The fitting results show that the SIF products of the two satellites have  
 324 similar capabilities in characterizing GPP, especially for the evergreen broadleaf forest, savanna, and cropland, with slopes  
 325 of approximately 21, 18, and 13, respectively. For shrubland and grassland, the slope of OCO-2 SIF with GPP is higher than  
 326 that of TanSat and has a worse correlation. For forests, OCO-2 SIF present a better correlation with GPP, especially in the  
 327 needle leaf forest. The markedly different fitting slopes across various biomes suggest that the application of SIF in GPP  
 328 estimation needs more detailed analysis although the evidence of the strong linear relationship between them.

#### 329 4 Conclusions

330 In this paper, we introduced the retrieval algorithm IAPCAS/SIF and its application in TanSat and OCO-2 measurements.  
 331 One-year (March 2017-February 2018) TanSat SIF data was introduced and compared with OCO-2 measurements in this

332 study. The TanSat and OCO-2 SIF products based on the IAPCAS/SIF algorithm are available on the Cooperation on the  
333 Analysis of carbon SATellites data (CASA) website, [www.chinageoss.org/tansat](http://www.chinageoss.org/tansat). Comparisons between TanSat and OCO-2  
334 measurements directly, using a case study, and indirectly, with global  $1^{\circ}\times 1^{\circ}$  grid data, showed consistency between the two  
335 satellite missions, indicating that the coordinated usage of the two data products is possible in future studies. With increasing  
336 satellites becoming available for SIF observations, space-based SIF observations have recently expanded in range to provide  
337 broad spatiotemporal coverage. The next-generation Chinese carbon monitoring satellite (TanSat-2) is now in the  
338 preliminary design phase, which is designed to be a constellation of six satellites to measure different kinds of greenhouse  
339 gases and trace gases in a more efficient way, including CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, CO, NO<sub>x</sub>, as well as SIF. SIF measurements from  
340 TanSat-2 will provide global data products over broader coverage areas with less noise. The improvement in the  
341 spatiotemporal resolution of SIF data will benefit GPP predictions based on the numerous studies of the linear relationship  
342 between SIF and GPP. In future work, the measurement accuracy should be validated directly using ground-based  
343 measurements to ensure data quality.

#### 344 **Data availability**

345 The SIF products of TanSat and OCO-2 by IAPCAS/SIF algorithm are available on the Cooperation on the Analysis of  
346 carbon SATellites data (CASA) website ([www.chinageoss.org/tansat](http://www.chinageoss.org/tansat)).

347

#### 348 **Author contributions**

349 L.Y. and D.Y. developed the retrieval algorithm, designed the study, and wrote the paper. Y.L. led the SIF data process and  
350 analysis. Y.L., D.Y., Z.C., and J.W. contributed to manuscript organization and revision. C.L. and Y.Z. provided information  
351 on the TanSat instrument performance. L.T. provided TanSat in-flight information. M.W. and S.W. provided information on  
352 the scientific requirement for data further application. N.L. and D.L. led the TanSat data application. Z.Y. led the TanSat in-  
353 flight operation.

#### 354 **Competing interests**

355 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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