Popular Summary for

Evaluation of transport in the lower tropical stratosphere in a global chemistry and transport model

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Questions about the effect of natural and man-made changes in trace gas concentrations on the stratospheric composition and climate are addressed using computer models. These models are complex, because the processes that control the composition and climate of the stratosphere are interrelated. It is a long-standing challenge to develop a computer model to simulate the radiative, dynamic and photochemical processes that are important in the stratosphere. One approach to this challenge is to develop a general circulation model that solves the equations of motion in the stratosphere. A second approach is to develop a chemistry and transport model that uses winds and temperatures from a data assimilation system. The assimilation system combines observations made by instruments on satellite, balloon, and ground-based platforms with a general circulation model to provide the best estimate of the state of the atmosphere at a specific time.

In this work we are comparing observations of ozone and methane to calculations of ozone and methane that were made using winds from a general circulation model or using winds from a data assimilation system. These comparisons show what happens to the overall stratospheric transport when the assimilation system removes biases between the general circulation model results and the actual winds and temperatures. The circulation speeds up in the tropics, and there is too much mixing between the tropics and middle latitudes. This work shows that it is necessary for the general circulation model used in an assimilation system to represent all of the important physical processes. The assimilation system can remove biases, but when biases are present the transport calculated with assimilated winds is less realistic than the transport calculated with the general circulation model winds. The excessive transport and mixing makes assessment calculations using assimilated winds uncertain. Understanding these processes is an important step towards making reliable predictions of the future of stratospheric composition and climate.
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Abstract

Off-line models of the evolution of stratospheric constituents use meteorological information from a general circulation model (GCM) or from a data assimilation system (DAS). Here we focus on transport in the tropics and between the tropics and middle latitudes. Constituent fields from two simulations are compared with each other and with observations. One simulation uses winds from a GCM and the second uses winds from a DAS that has the same GCM at its core. Comparisons of results from the two simulations with observations from satellite, aircraft, and sondes are used to judge the realism of the tropical transport. Faithful comparisons between simulated fields and observations for O₃, CH₄, and the age-of-air are found for the simulation using the GCM fields. The same comparisons for the simulation using DAS fields show rapid upward tropical transport and excessive mixing between the tropics and middle latitudes. The unrealistic transport found in the DAS fields may be due to the failure of the GCM used in the assimilation system to represent the quasi-biennial oscillation. The assimilation system accounts for differences between the observations and the GCM by requiring implicit forcing to produce consistency between the GCM and observations. These comparisons suggest that the physical consistency of the GCM fields is more important to transport characteristics in the lower tropical stratosphere than the elimination bias with respect to meteorological observations that is accomplished by the DAS. The comparisons presented here show that GCM fields are more appropriate for long-term calculations to assess the impact of changes in stratospheric composition because the balance between photochemical and transport terms is likely to be represented correctly.

I. Introduction

As first discussed by Rood et al. [1989], constituent evolution calculated using an off-line chemistry and transport model (CTM) that is forced by meteorological fields from a data assimilation system will reproduce observed constituent variability and transport if several conditions are met. These conditions include the following: 1) that the assimilation fields reflect the actual atmospheric state; 2) that the model photochemistry is realistic; 3) that the advection scheme is sufficiently accurate that scheme numerics
have little impact. If 1) and 3) are shown to be true, the approach can be used to identify and test photochemical mechanisms.

This approach has become standard during the past decade. CTMs use winds from analyses produced by the United Kingdom Meteorological Office (UKMO) [Chipperfield et al., 1994; Chipperfield et al., 1996], by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) [Lefèvre et al., 1994; Deniel et al., 1998], and by the Goddard Earth Observing System Data Assimilation System (GEOS DAS) [Rood et al., 1991; Douglass et al., 1997; Kawa et al., 2002]. CTM simulations have been used to interpret observations from different platforms, including aircraft [Douglass et al., 1993; Lefèvre et al., 1994]; satellite [Geller et al., 1995; Chipperfield et al., 1996], balloon [Kondo et al., 1996] and ground based instruments [Goutail et al., 1999; Chipperfield and Pyle, 1998; Chipperfield, 1999, Sinnhuber et al., 2000]. CTMs using assimilated winds have been used to simulate transport and buildup of pollutant from hypothetical supersonic aircraft flying in the lower stratosphere [Weaver et al., 1996] and to quantify the relative contributions of transport and photochemistry to ozone changes on seasonal and longer time scales [Chipperfield and Jones, 1999]. Several groups are using this approach for interpretation of satellite observations of tropospheric aerosols [Chin et al., 2000; Ginoux et al., 2001] and constituents [Bey et al., 2001].

Comparisons of model and observations reveal striking similarities, and it is well known that the assimilation-driven CTMs reproduce synoptic and planetary scale variability as observed in stratospheric ozone and other constituents at middle and high latitudes. However, good agreement of observations and model for a single tracer does not imply good agreement for a second constituent with different relative vertical and horizontal gradients. For example, Considine et al. [2002] demonstrated that horizontal and vertical transport in the high latitude polar winter produce good agreement between observed and modeled values for vortex N₂O throughout the northern winter 1999-2000, but poor agreement for modeled NOₓ. There are additional nagging problems as well. Douglass et al. [1997] and Chipperfield [1999] show poor representation of tracer gradients particularly between tropics and middle latitudes using the Goddard Space Flight Center (GSFC) CTM with winds from GEOS DAS and the SLIMCAT CTM with winds from UKMO respectively. Both of these studies find that modeled ozone generally compares better with observations than do long-lived tracers, with the exception of a high bias between modeled and observed ozone in the summer high latitude lower stratosphere. The weak tracer gradients between the tropics and middle latitudes are consistent with the results of Weaver et al. [2000], who developed a climatology for the production of laminae in ozone profiles from ozonesonde profiles and found that the model produced excessive laminations in the subtropics.

For short integrations, a CTM driven by assimilated winds provides information about the meteorological conditions in which measurements are made. Such information is useful to bring together measurements of various constituents made from different platforms (e.g., balloon, aircraft, and satellite). However, a primary application for atmospheric models is to predict the future condition of the atmosphere, and assess the importance of natural and anthropogenic changes in atmospheric composition to
stratospheric ozone. Assessment calculations often require long integrations, and the requirements for model performance are stringent. Ideally the model ozone evolution will match observations because the balance between transport and photochemical processes is represented correctly. It is also necessary that the balance among photochemical processes be represented correctly for a realistic assessment calculation [Wennberg et al., 1994]. Decadal length data sets for reactive constituents such as ozone and long-lived constituents like CH₄ can be compared with output from long model simulations to verify that the model balances are realistic.

Comparison of model fields with observations for specific meteorological conditions are made for a CTM using winds from a data assimilation system but not for a CTM using winds from a free running general circulation model. Douglass et al. [1999] developed data based diagnostics that could be applied to fields from any three dimensional model. The diagnostics were chosen to address specific aspects of transport, so that the model evaluation would be semi-quantitative and the overall impact of future model improvements could be evaluated. All discrepancies between model and observation affect the uncertainties of assessment calculations. The uncertainties in the assessment calculations that are introduced by poor agreement of various aspects of constituent transport in the face of "good agreement" for other aspects of transport are difficult to quantify.

Recently attention has focused on the use of the mean age of stratospheric air as a tool for model evaluation. The mean age, the mass weighted average of the transit times from the tropical tropopause to any given location, is a sensitive diagnostic of model transport [Hall and Plumb, 1994; Hall et al., 1999]. Model calculations of mean age were compared with the age determined from observations of SF₆ and CO₂ as part of Models and Measurements Intercomparison II [Park et al., 1999]. Hall et al. [1999] show that in most models, the age of air in the middle and high latitude lower stratosphere is too young, indicating that the overall model circulation and mixing are too rapid. Young model mean ages are consistent with strong upward tropical transport and excessive transport out of the tropics, and/or excessive horizontal mixing between middle latitudes and the tropics. Thus young age in the middle and high latitude lower stratosphere is consistent with weak horizontal constituent gradients in the lower stratosphere subtropics as found by Douglass et al. [1997]. Schoeberl et al. [2002] use trajectory calculations with meteorological input from assimilations systems and a general circulation model to show how horizontal mixing and vertical transport characteristics of the meteorological fields impact the age spectrum, i.e., the distribution of parcel transit times that comprise the mean age. The age spectra determined from DAS fields differ from that computed using winds from a GCM. The age spectra for DAS fields are too broad as a result of too much exchange between the tropics and mid-latitudes.

The results of Schoeberl et al. [2002] are consistent with the problem that modeled tracer gradients between the tropics and middle latitudes are weaker than observed. These weak horizontal tracer gradients are produced by various assimilation systems, and different approaches to utilizing assimilation winds within the CTM framework do not solve the problem. Douglass et al. [1997] and Chipperfield [1999] used fields from GEOS DAS
and UKMO respectively. Applications using the GSFC CTM calculate the vertical velocities from the horizontal divergence by requiring continuity, thus an excessively strong circulation and excessive horizontal mixing may contribute to the weak horizontal gradients. The SLIMCAT model calculates vertical transport from diabatic heating; in this case the vertical transport is realistic, but excessive horizontal mixing is possible. Waugh [1996] used contour advection with meteorological fields from GEOS DAS, UKMO, and NCEP to examine isentropic transport from the tropics to the middle latitudes, and found that the different meteorological fields produced similar transport.

This study will focus on simulations using the NASA Goddard three-dimensional chemistry and transport model. Meteorological fields from two sources are used to drive the model. These are the Finite Volume General Circulation Model (FVGCM) and the FVDAS, a version of the GEOS DAS that uses the FVGCM at its core. All aspects of the CTM are identical except the meteorological data, thus the comparisons between model fields and observations can be thought of as a controlled experiment designed to determine the effect of the assimilation process on the transport. Model fields are compared with total ozone observations (Total Ozone Mapping Spectrometer (TOMS)), ozone profiles (Halogen Occultation Experiment (HALOE) on Upper Atmosphere Research Satellite (UARS) and Southern Hemisphere Additional Ozone sondes (SHADOZ)), methane profiles (HALOE) and in situ measurements of ozone and total reactive nitrogen from the NASA ER-2.

The constituent observations used in this study are described in section II. The CTM and a short description of the meteorological data sets used to drive it are described in section III. Section IV considers comparisons of model fields with observations, focusing primarily on the lower tropical stratosphere. Comparisons of observations of methane and ozone with results from the two simulations provides a means to untangle contributions of transport and photochemistry to ozone in the lower tropical stratosphere. Conclusions are given in section V.

II. DATA

The observations used in this study are from four sources described briefly in the following subsections.

Total Ozone Mapping Spectrometer (TOMS)

Total ozone data used here are taken from the Total Ozone Mapping Spectrometer (TOMS) instrument launched on the Earth Probe Satellite in July 1996. The data are processed with the TOMS algorithm version 7 and are described by McPeters et al. [1998]. Time series of zonal mean TOMS data are compared with model values in section IV to provide a global context for the seasonal migration of the latitudes of strongest upwelling.

Halogen Occultation Experiment (HALOE)
Russell et al. [1993] describe the HALOE instrument that has measured profiles of ozone and other important gases using solar occultation from launch of the Upper Atmosphere Research Satellite in fall of 1991 until present. Approximately 15 sunrise and sunset profiles are measured daily at each of two near-constant latitudes. Profiles for ozone and methane used here are retrieved using algorithm version 19. Vertical resolution for ozone profiles is about 2 km; the ozone mixing ratio error estimates are ~10% between 50 hPa and 1 hPa, and ~30% at 100 hPa [Brühl et al., 1996]. The vertical resolution for methane profiles is about 4 km; between 50 hPa and 0.2 hPa the total error is less than 15% [Park et al., 1996]. The differences between model and observations will be explored by organizing the HALOE observations to emphasize seasonal and spatial variability in the tropics and subtropics. A typical scan of the sampling latitude for HALOE sunrise or sunset observations is shown in Figure 1. There are about 25 similar periods during 1998 and 1999 when the latitude for sunrise or sunset observations on successive days sweeps from about 30° in one hemisphere to 30° in the other hemisphere. Such a scan will be referred to as a sweep. Each day during a sweep HALOE measures as many as 15 profiles. The latitude change during a single day is typically 3-5 degrees.

Southern Hemisphere Additional Ozonesondes (SHADOZ)

Thompson et al. [2002] describe the ozone and temperature profiles that are available through the SHADOZ network. This data set is ideal for the comparisons used here. Ozone and temperature profiles are usually reported more than once per month at participating stations. The SHADOZ temperatures are not used in the assimilation system, thus comparisons between SHADOZ, FVGCM and FVDAS temperatures show how well the assimilation process eliminates any biases between the GCM temperatures and observations. This is not possible with HALOE temperatures because the temperature profiles reported with HALOE constituent profiles are taken from the National Center for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) analyses below 35 km. NCEP and FVDAS analyses rely on the same temperature observations, thus comparisons in the lower stratosphere between temperature profiles from HALOE and FVDAS are not independent. The high-resolution profiles of lower stratospheric ozone are also ideal for use in this paper. The temporal and spatial range sampled by the SHADOZ stations (Table 1) is sufficient to resolve features like the seasonal migration of the latitude of deepest upwelling seen in TOMS and HALOE data.
Table 1 SHADOZ stations ordered by latitude, starting at the farthest south

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Station Name</th>
<th>Latitude</th>
<th>Longitude</th>
<th>Years with Data</th>
<th>Profiles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Irene, South Africa</td>
<td>25.90 S</td>
<td>28.22 E</td>
<td>1998-2000</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>La Réunion Observatory</td>
<td>21.06 S</td>
<td>55.48 E</td>
<td>1998-2000</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suva, Fiji Observatory</td>
<td>18.13 S</td>
<td>178.40 E</td>
<td>1998-2000</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pago Pago, American Samoa</td>
<td>14.23 S</td>
<td>170.56 W</td>
<td>1998-2000</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tahiti</td>
<td>18 S</td>
<td>149 W</td>
<td>1998-1999</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ascension Island</td>
<td>7.98 S</td>
<td>14.42 W</td>
<td>1998-2000</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Java, Indonesia</td>
<td>7.57 S</td>
<td>112.65 E</td>
<td>1998-2000</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natal, Brazil</td>
<td>5.42 S</td>
<td>35.38 W</td>
<td>1998-2000</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nairobi, Kenya</td>
<td>1.27 S</td>
<td>36.80 E</td>
<td>1998-2000</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>San Cristóbal, Galapagos</td>
<td>0.92 S</td>
<td>89.60 W</td>
<td>1998-2000</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paramaribo</td>
<td>5.81 N</td>
<td>55.21 W</td>
<td>1999-2000</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ER-2

In situ observations of ozone [Profitt et al., 1989] and reactive nitrogen (NO$_y$) [Fahey et al., 1989] were made during March and October 1994 from the ER-2 near 20 km as part of the 1994 Airborne Southern Hemisphere Ozone Experiment/Measurements for Assessing the Effects of Stratospheric Aircraft (ASHOE/MAESA) campaign. The data show that the interior of the tropics between 50 and 70 hPa is strongly isolated from the middle latitudes [Fahey et al., 1996]. The gradient in the observed ratio NO$_y$/O$_3$ is weaker at middle latitudes and sharper in the subtropics than the gradient of either NO$_y$ or O$_3$. The ratios NO$_y$/O$_3$ calculated from the CTM driven by FVDAS and FVGCM will be compared with observations. The model fields in the lower tropical stratosphere are sensitive to the CTM balance between photochemical production, upwelling and horizontal transport and mixing.

III. MODEL

The GSFC CTM solves a coupled set of constituent continuity equations. Winds and temperatures needed for transport and photochemical reaction rates are input to the model, thus there are no feedbacks between constituents such as ozone and the meteorological fields. Photochemical production and loss are calculated using the photochemical scheme described by Kawa et al. [2002]. Numerical transport is calculated using a scheme described by Lin and Rood [1996]. A 15-minute time step is used for transport and photochemistry. The photolysis rates are calculated using temperature dependent cross sections JPL [2000] and reduced fluxes that are interpolated using a table lookup based on detailed radiative transfer calculations from the model of Anderson and Lloyd [1990]. The photolysis rates calculated in this way agree with the photolysis benchmark which was developed as part of the Atmospheric Effects of Aviation Project [Stolarski et al., 1995].
Meteorological input may be taken from a general circulation model (GCM) or from a data assimilation system (DAS). The general circulation model produces fields that satisfy the equations of motion; agreement of model climate with observations is an important aspect of GCM evaluation. A data assimilation system (DAS) combines information from both observations and a general circulation model (GCM). The system produces meteorological fields that draw to the observations and also satisfy the equations of motion. If the model fully represents the atmospheric physics, and the observations are accurate, the differences between the model and observations would have zero bias and a Gaussian distribution. The assimilation process would account for random errors, and the overall transport characteristics from the DAS would likely be similar to the overall characteristics of the GCM. However, current GCM fields exhibit biases when compared with observations. The DAS produces meteorological fields that draw to the observations and satisfy the equations of motion, but to accomplish this it implicitly provides systematic forcing to the model. The overall transport characteristics produced by DAS fields lose part of their connection to the transport produced by the GCM.

The FVGCM, which was developed in collaboration with the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR), uses a flux-form semi-Lagrangian transport scheme [Lin and Rood, 1996, 1997] and a quasi-Lagrangian vertical coordinate system [Lin, 1997] to ensure accurate representation of transport by the resolved-scale flow. The FVGCM has a horizontal resolution 2° lat by 2.5° long, and extends to 0.01 hPa, and the daily averaged product is available to the user. Physical parameterizations in the current version of the FVGCM are from the NCAR Community Climate Model, Version 3 (CCM3), described by Kiehl et al. [1998].

Various versions of GEOS DAS have been used in past applications of the GSFC CTM. The systems and the chief differences among them are summarized in Table 2; improvements in the assimilation system have been accompanied by improvements in the CTM transport. There are important differences between the Terra assimilation system (GEOS 3) and the prototype system FVDAS (GEOS 4). The spatial resolution of the Terra system is 1° lat by 1° long horizontal grid with 48 levels compared with 2° lat by 2.5° long and 55 levels in FVDAS. The Terra system uses incremental analysis update and retrieved temperatures from TOVS; the FVDAS used an intermittent update and assimilates TOVS/AMSU radiance instead of retrieved temperatures. The Terra system and FVDAS both use the Physical-space Statistical Analysis Scheme (PSAS) [Cohn et al., 1998]. A fundamental difference is that the GCM at the core of the Terra system is replaced by FVGCM in FVDAS. Figure 2 compares potential vorticity (PV) between 30°S and 30°N at 50 hPa calculated using fields from the Terra system with PV from FVDAS. The Terra PV is much noisier than the FVDAS PV, although similar features are recognizable in both fields. As noted above, the horizontal transport produced by assimilation fields typically leads to horizontal gradients that are weaker than observed in the subtropics. Because the PV from FVDAS is much smoother than the PV from Terra, we anticipated less horizontal mixing in the CTM driven by winds from FVDAS than was produced in the CTM driven by winds from Terra, particularly between the subtropics and middle latitudes.
CTM calculations have been completed using meteorological fields from all of the assimilation systems listed in Table 2 and also with output from the FVGCM. There are differences in the distributions of the constituents calculated using winds from the different DAS systems, and comparisons of model fields with ozone sonde data are shown in the following section. The fields produced by the CTM using winds from FVDAS are more similar to observations than fields using the CTM with winds from older assimilation systems. Because this paper focuses on changes in transport that result from the assimilation process, most comparisons with observations will utilize output from the CTM driven by FVGCM (here termed CTM$_{FVGCM}$) or FVDAS (here termed CTM$_{FVDAS}$).

IV. Comparisons with Observations

Temperature, Mean Age, and Tropical Isolation

The zonal monthly mean temperature fields for January 1998 from FVDAS and the difference between FVDAS and FVGCM for 45°S – 45°N are given in Figure 3. The FVGCM is warmer in the tropical lower stratosphere than FVDAS. This comparison provides a sense of the horizontal and vertical extent of the difference between the two fields. The time series of the difference between zonal mean temperatures from FVGCM and FVDAS for the equator between 100 hPa and 10 hPa is given Figure 4a. The time series of the difference in zonal mean zonal wind from FVGCM and FVDAS at the equator is given in Figure 4b. The importance of the quasi-biennial oscillation (QBO) is evident in these difference fields. Both temperature and wind information are combined with the GCM in the assimilation process; the assimilated fields must satisfy the equations of motion and account for the physical forcing that leads to the observed evolution of wind and temperature that is absent from FVGCM. The equatorial thermal wind relationship illustrates the success of the assimilation system in producing fields that satisfy the equations of motion.
Here $u$ is the zonal wind, $T$ is the temperature, $y$ and $z$ indicate the partial derivative with respect to latitude and altitude respectively, $R$ is the gas constant, $H$ is the scale height, and $\beta$ is the rate of change of the Coriolis parameter with latitude. This relationship is satisfied for fields from FVGCM (not shown) since the GCM fields are solutions to the equations of motion. Time series for $u_y$ and $-R/\beta H T_{yy}$ calculated using monthly mean zonal wind and temperature show that this relationship is also satisfied for FVDAS fields (Figures 4c and 4d). However, the forcing to produce the spatial and temporal structure found in FVDAS is lacking in FVGCM. The structure is produced by the assimilation system through the input of observations; in the absence of observations the system would relax to the nearly constant easterly winds of the FVGCM. The assimilation system produces fields that are very different from the FVGCM fields but still satisfy the equations of motion in the tropics by including systematic forcing as required by the observations through the assimilation system.

To illustrate the effect of the assimilation system on the temperature distribution, histograms of the differences between temperatures at 46 hPa measured by the SHADOZ sonde network and temperatures from the FVGCM and the FVDAS at the sonde locations (Table 1) are shown in Figure 5. The temperatures from the FVGCM are biased with respect to the sonde temperature, which those from FVDAS compare closely with the sonde temperatures. The mean (-0.11 K) and standard deviation (3.03 K) of the difference between sonde temperatures and FVDAS temperatures are much smaller than the mean (-2.13 K) and standard deviation (3.52 K) of the difference between sonde temperatures and FVGCM temperatures.

The forcing in the assimilation system that is required for consistency between the observations and the GCM forecast can be considered an artificial source of heating that will be accompanied by changes in model transport. We illustrate the changes using the mean age as a diagnostic of the integrated model transport and the isolation of the tropics from the middle latitudes.

As discussed by Hall et al. [1999], the mean age at a location in the stratosphere for a constituent such as SF$_6$, with a steady tropospheric trend is the difference between the time of a measurement and the time in the tropospheric time series when the measured value matches the troposphere value. The age of air is determined using CTM$_{FVGCM}$ and CTM$_{FVDAS}$ simulations of SF$_6$. Results are shown in Figure 6. The integration was continued until comparison of successive years showed that the age distribution had converged (nine years of simulation for CTM$_{FVGCM}$ and five years of simulation for CTM$_{FVDAS}$). There are striking differences between these two calculations. The stratospheric air is much younger for the CTM$_{FVDAS}$ than for the CTM$_{FVGCM}$. Above 25 km, the age of air for CTM$_{FVGCM}$ changes much more rapidly between the middle latitudes and the tropics than that for CTM$_{FVDAS}$. Observations suggest that at 65°N the mean age should be between four and six years at 20 km. Here the age of air from CTM$_{FVGCM}$ is

\[
  u_y = -\frac{R}{\beta H} T_{yy}
\]
greater than three years, compared with less than two years from CTM\textsubscript{FVDAS}. The mean age from CTM\textsubscript{FVGM} does not reproduce all of the features of the observations, however, it is much more representative of the observations than the mean age from CTM\textsubscript{FVDAS}. Note that the mean age is also sensitive to advection numerics, resolution, and choices such as use of instantaneous winds rather than time average or an on-line calculation [Eluszkiewicz et al., 2000]. Schoeberl et al. [2002] show results for age spectra calculated from the same wind fields using diabatic trajectories, kinematic trajectories, and a CTM. The trajectory calculations eliminate contributions from numerical errors. However, the same methodology was used for the CTM\textsubscript{FVDAS} and CTM\textsubscript{FVGM} calculations shown here. The methodology may affect the comparison of results from either calculation with observations, but will have little impact on comparisons between the calculations. The differences between the age distributions in Figure 6 result solely from differences in the transport produced by the FVDAS and FVGM winds.

Fahey et al. [1996] show that the sharp gradient in the ratio NO\textsubscript{y}/O\textsubscript{3} calculated from distributions of NO\textsubscript{r} and O\textsubscript{3} measured from the ER-2 as part of ASHOE MAESA marks the boundary between the inner tropics and middle latitudes. The gradient at the edge of the tropics is sharper in the northern hemisphere during March and October 1994 than that in the southern hemisphere. In the northern hemisphere the steepest gradient in October is poleward of its March latitude. Fahey et al. [1996] reported poor agreement of the observed steep horizontal gradients with those produced by two-dimensional models available at that time, although better agreement was obtained when model diffusion was reduced to emulate the conceptual model known as the tropical pipe [Plumb, 1996]. The time series of the zonal mean ratio NO\textsubscript{y}/O\textsubscript{3} and the absolute value of the latitudinal derivative, both at 500K, are shown in Figure 7. The contrast between the subtropics and middle latitudes is marked in CTM\textsubscript{FVGM} compared to CTM\textsubscript{FVDAS}. The latitudinal gradients (Figure 7c and 7d) highlight the difference in isolation. However, both simulations reproduce the observed seasonal migration of the latitude of the steepest gradient in the northern hemisphere. The latitude of the steepest gradient varies less with season in the southern hemisphere.

The NO\textsubscript{y} and O\textsubscript{3} from CTM\textsubscript{FVGM} and CTM\textsubscript{FVDAS} are interpolated linearly in latitude, longitude and log pressure in the vertical, to compare the ratio NO\textsubscript{y}/O\textsubscript{3} directly with the ER-2 data taken March 20-29, 1994. These results, along with the model zonal mean ratios at 56 hPa and 67 hPa, are shown in Figure 8. The apparent sharp boundary observed at 18°S reflects the vertical gradient of the ratio between 50 and 65 hPa. Ignoring this sharp transition, the CTM\textsubscript{FVGM} ratio reflects most of the features of the observations. One flight shows lower, near tropical values in the northern subtropics. Inspection of model fields shows no evidence of such variability in CTM\textsubscript{FVGM}. The CTM\textsubscript{FVDAS} for 1998 or 1999 shows much weaker gradients than observed in either hemisphere. Near the equator the minimum is too large and at middle latitudes the maxima are too small. The transition between the northern subtropics and middle latitudes is less pronounced during 1999 (QBO westerly) than in 1998. This lack of agreement shows that the model balance between horizontal mixing and vertical advection is not realistic.
Comparisons of Model Total Ozone with TOMS Observations

Time series of the zonal average total ozone and the latitudinal derivative from TOMS, CTM_{FVGCM} and CTM_{FVDS} are shown for 40°S – 40°N in Figure 9. Both simulations bear a resemblance to TOMS. The ozone in the tropics is somewhat lower in CTM_{FVDS} than in CTM_{FVGCM} (or TOMS), suggesting that the tropical upwelling and the overall strength of the residual circulation are stronger in CTM_{FVDS} than in CTM_{FVGCM} [Jackman et al., 1991]. CTM_{FVGCM} represents the poleward migration of the low values during autumn of the both hemispheres more faithfully than CTM_{FVDS}. This is also demonstrated by comparison of the absolute values of the latitudinal derivatives between 40°S and 40°N. The TOMS derivative at 20°S exhibits seasonal variation; the gradient of column O_3 is weaker in Feb/Mar/Apr than between August and November. In CTM_{FVDS}, the gradient at 20°S is nearly constant until late November. In CTM_{FVGCM}, the gradient is weaker at 20°S during June and July than in the second half of the year, and is more similar to TOMS than CTM_{FVDS}. In the northern hemisphere, both simulations approximate the seasonal variation in TOMS, although the derivative near 20°N from CTM_{FVDS} is too strong throughout the year. The areal extent of very weak latitudinal derivative is smaller in CTM_{FVDS} than in the CTM_{FVGCM} or TOMS. However, in the tropics the CTM_{FVGCM} derivative shows structure not seen in the observations, and CTM_{FVGCM} values are generally higher than observed.

Histograms of the distributions of 1998 TOMS and column ozone for 15°S-15°N, and latitudes between 15° and 40° are given in Figure 10. The TOMS data are utilized at 4° latitude by 5° longitude resolution, and grid boxes with missing data are eliminated from the model fields. The most probable values, means and standard deviations of the distributions are also provided on Figure 10.

There are differences and similarities in the observed and modeled distributions. The CTM_{FVDS} mean is close to the TOMS mean and lower than the CTM_{FVGCM} mean, consistent with stronger upwelling in CTM_{FVDS} than CTM_{FVGCM} [Jackman et al., 1991] and with the younger age of air in CTM_{FVDS} than CTM_{FVGCM}. In the tropics, the distributions have a similar shape. The standard deviation for the distribution from CTM_{FVDS} is about 14% higher than that for the observed distribution; the standard deviation for the CTM_{FVGCM} distribution is 17% lower. The model distributions for 15°–40° latitude differ, and the distribution for the simulation driven by CTM_{FVGCM} is similar to the observed distribution. Total ozone greater than 400 DU is much more probable in the CTM_{FVDS} simulation than observed. The most probable value of the CTM_{FVDS} distribution is 20 DU (7%) greater than that of the observed distribution, and the standard deviation is 10.1 DU (31%) greater.

Comparisons of Model Ozone with SHADOZ data

Histograms for the partial ozone column between 140 hPa and 57 hPa calculated from the ozonesondes and both models are shown in Figure 11. The distributions are divided by latitude; sonde stations between 18°-26°S are subtropics and those between 14°S and 6°N
are tropics. The ozonesondes and CTM$_{FVDAS}$ show similar variability in the tropics, and virtually identical standard deviations (~4.5 DU). The mean and most probable values of the distributions for the tropics using CTM$_{FVDAS}$ or CTM$_{FVGCM}$ are about 5 DU greater than those of the sonde distribution. The sonde distribution in the subtropics is shifted about 2 DU to higher values relative to that for the tropics. Both distributions are sharply peaked. For CTM$_{FVGCM}$, the subtropics distribution is shifted about 5 DU relative to the tropics and the shapes of the distributions in the tropics and subtropics are similar. The distribution from CTM$_{FVDAS}$ bears little resemblance to that observed in the subtropics.

However, there has been improvement in the quality of simulations obtained with successive data assimilation systems, as illustrated by the distributions for simulations using winds from the TRMM and TERRA data assimilation systems (Table 2), also given in Figure 11. These partial columns calculated using the same model but different meteorological input show even greater variability in the subtropics relative to the tropics than CTM$_{FVDAS}$. Furthermore, the tropics exhibit far more variability than that observed or found in CTM$_{FVDAS}$. The expectation that the smoother potential vorticity for FVDAS shown in Figure 2 would be accompanied by more realistic transport is realized, but large differences remain.

Tropical ozone from either CTM$_{FVDAS}$ or CTM$_{FVGCM}$ is high biased when compared with sondes and with total column ozone from TOMS. The total column comparison is worse than it seems because the simulated column ozone should be systematically low with respect to TOMS in the tropics since TOMS contains contributions from the troposphere that are absent from the CTM. It is not possible that changes in the residual circulation can resolve all the discrepancies between observations and the model, because an increase in the strength of the upwelling or increase in the latitude breadth of upwelling that would bring the CTM ozone into better agreement with observations would surely further degrade the age of air calculation. In spite of the increase in upwelling in the tropics in FVDAS relative to FVGCM, the most probable value of CTM$_{FVDAS}$ remains significantly higher than that of the ozonesondes. The possibility that a problem with ozone photochemistry contributes to this bias will be discussed further after comparing modeled methane and ozone with that observed by HALOE.

**Comparison of Ozone and Methane with HALOE Observations**

The HALOE data for 1998 and 1999 are organized according to sweeps (see Figure 1) for comparisons with the model ozone and methane to illustrate the seasonal variation in the tropics. The HALOE mixing ratios for each sweep are shown as functions of latitude in Plates 1 and 2. Model sweeps are obtained by sampling the model output following the HALOE pattern and are also given in Plates 1 and 2. The differences between observed and modeled sweeps are also given in these Plates to facilitate the comparison. Note that the comparisons for each year are shown separately to emphasize differences between the two years that may be due to the QBO. The sweeps are identified by the colors of the plotting symbols; the months during which the sweeps take place are given on the bottom of the figure. The mean and standard deviation are provided for all observations that fall
between 15°S-15°N for each year and for observations between between 15-40 north or south latitude in Table 3 (ozone) and Table 4 (methane).

HALOE O$_3$ (Plates 1a and 1b) and CH$_4$ (Plates 2a and 2b) show little seasonal variation during 1998 or 1999 between 15°S and 15°N. However, some interannual differences are apparent. In 1999 (QBO westerly), HALOE ozone between 15°S and 15°N is elevated compared with 1998 (QBO easterly) (compare Plates 1b and 1a). This is consistent with the analysis of aerosol observations reported by Trepte and Hitchman [1992]. HALOE methane does not exhibit a signature related to the phase of the QBO at this pressure because its vertical gradient is near zero.

Seasonal variation is apparent at higher latitudes. South of 15°S the HALOE O$_3$ (CH$_4$) is higher (lower) during winter (July, September) than summer (December, March). This seasonal signature is seen in both years of HALOE observations and is apparent in O$_3$ and CH$_4$ from CTM$_{FVGM}$ (Plate 1c-d and Plate 2c-d) but not in CTM$_{FVDAS}$ (Plate 1g-h and Plate 2g-h).

North of 15°N both seasonal and interannual differences are apparent. The March 1998 ozone mixing ratios are the largest observed by HALOE during this period, and the December 1998 mixing ratios are the lowest seen in 1998. In contrast, the December 1999 ozone mixing ratios exceed the March 1999 mixing ratios. The methane mixing ratios behave in the opposite sense because the spatial gradients of methane are opposite to those of ozone, e.g., the December 1999 mixing ratios are the lowest. The seasonal signatures for methane are much less pronounced than for ozone because the methane gradients are small relative to the ozone gradients.

As shown in the comparisons of temperature with observations, the QBO is evident in the wind fields produced by FVDAS, but FVGCM does not produce a QBO and this feature is forced by observations in the assimilation system. During 1999 the zonal wind near 46 hPa is westerly (Figure 4b), and the variance in constituent fields calculated using CTM$_{FVDAS}$ is increased at all latitudes relative to that seen in CTM$_{FVDAS}$ fields during 1998 (compare Plate 1i with Plate 1j and Plate 2i with Plate 2j). Since GCM zonal winds are always weak easterlies, this increase in variance may indicate a relationship between the noise in model constituent fields and the difference between the base state of the GCM used in the assimilation and the observed state. The variance in CTM ozone at 46 hPa (Table 3) is largest during the westerly phase of the QBO when the difference between the GCM wind field and the observations is largest (Figure 4b). The standard deviations of the HALOE observations for ozone (Table 3) and methane (Table 4) are nearly the same for the two years within each latitude regions.
HALOE methane in the subtropics and middle latitudes falls off relative to the tropics due methane loss processes at higher levels combined with both horizontal and vertical transport. The comparison of CH\textsubsfolly from CTM\textsubscript{FVGDAS} with HALOE CH\textsubscript{4} suggests an appropriate balance in FVGCM. Plate 2e-f shows no latitude dependence difference between observed and calculated methane. The increased spread in the difference at latitudes greater than 15° is not unexpected as FVGCM does not correspond to a particular year. Plate 2i-j shows no bias between HALOE CH\textsubscript{4} and that from CTM\textsubscript{FVGDAS} in the tropics, but bias for latitudes greater than 15°. The difference between the average methane between 15°S and 15°N and the average methane between 15° and 30° is nearly 30% smaller for CTM\textsubscript{FVGDAS} than for HALOE or CTM\textsubscript{FVGCM} (Table 4). This is consistent with stronger upwelling in FVDAS than FVGCM. The descent of lower methane air is also expected to be stronger, but the methane vertical gradient is weak and the excess horizontal transport is dominant.

The ozone comparisons and the age of air differences can also be explained by stronger upwelling in FVDAS than FVGCM between 15°S and 15°N. Plate 1i-j show a smaller
bias relative to HALOE $O_3$ between $15^\circ$S and $15^\circ$N for $O_3$ from CTM$_{FVDAS}$ than from CTM$_{FGGCM}$. The decrease in the ozone bias is a result of the stronger circulation; the improved ozone comparison is countered by degraded comparisons for methane and the age of air. Note that the ozone bias in the subtropics is larger for CTM$_{FVDAS}$ (Plate 1i-j) than for CTM$_{FGGCM}$ (Plate 1e-f). Excessive downward transport acting on the steep $O_3$ vertical gradient contributes to the ozone overestimate at middle latitudes.

Implications for Model Photochemistry

Between $15^\circ$S – $15^\circ$N and 100-46 hPa the seasonal change in $O_3$ is small. The most important terms in the continuity equation are production (increases $O_3$) and vertical advection (decreases $O_3$) [Ko et al., 1989; Avallone and Prather, 1996]. The seasonal change in tropical $CH_4$ is also small. In the lower stratosphere tropics, $CH_4$ loss is nearly negligible. In the subtropics, the mean of the observed methane distribution is significantly smaller than that in the tropics. The breadth of the distribution in subtropical methane is produced by latitudinal migration of the region of the strongest vertical advection. Plate 2 shows that CTM$_{FGGCM}$ reproduces many aspects of the seasonal cycle in HALOE $CH_4$. Even in the subtropics, the root mean square difference between model and observations is small compared with the standard deviation of the observations. In contrast, $CH_4$ from CTM$_{FVDAS}$ is systematically high biased with respect to observations for latitudes greater than $15^\circ$.

Probability distribution functions (PDFs) for ozone and methane at 46 hPa from HALOE and from both simulations are shown in Figure 12. Each panel contains PDFs determined from tropical and subtropical observations. All observations during 1998 and 1999 within the specified latitude limits are grouped together (more than 1500 observations in the tropics, more than 2300 observations between 15 and 40). For $CH_4$ at 46 hPa, the distributions from HALOE are similar to the distributions from the two simulations. The $CH_4$ vertical gradient is very weak, thus this comparison provides no information about the vertical motion. In the subtropics, the HALOE distribution is broader than that of the simulations, and the mean value and standard deviation of the HALOE distribution (1.48 ppmv, 0.1 ppmv) are more similar to those for CTM$_{FGGCM}$ (1.44 ppmv, 0.084 ppmv) than for CTM$_{FVDAS}$ (1.53 ppmv, 0.065 ppmv). This comparison is consistent with excess horizontal transport and mixing between the tropics and the middle latitudes.

A high bias in modeled ozone is found in the tropics and in the subtropics for both simulations. In the tropics, the mean of the ozone distribution from CTM$_{FVDAS}$ (1.79 ppmv) is somewhat closer to the HALOE mean (1.55 ppmv) than that of CTM$_{FGGCM}$ (1.87 ppmv). Ozonesonde values are also closer to those calculated using CTM$_{FVDAS}$ than to those calculated using CTM$_{FGGCM}$. It is not possible to bring modeled $O_3$ into agreement with observations without degrading the comparisons for $CH_4$ and the age of air. The ozone comparisons are consistent with the conclusion that the circulation in CTM$_{FGGCM}$ is realistic and too strong for CTM$_{FVDAS}$ if there is also a small error in stratospheric ozone production. We summarize the arguments that support this conclusion:

1. To bring the FVDAS ozone into agreement with observations in the tropics, it would be necessary to increase the tropical upwelling. Although this possibility is not
eliminated by the methane comparisons (because of its weak vertical gradient), an increase in tropical upwelling would lead to even younger stratospheric air.

2. CTM Ozone and CH₄ have opposite horizontal and vertical gradients in the tropics and subtropics, and the mixing ratios of both exceed observations in the subtropics. It is not possible to produce simultaneous agreement for these two constituents by changing the balance of transport processes.

3. If modeled ozone production were excessive, there would be two effects. The first would be that local ozone would be too high – if the upwelling in FVGCM is correct and feedbacks are neglected, the inferred error in production would be about 25%. The second would be that transport to the middle latitudes would be excessive by the same percentage. Reducing the production in the lower stratosphere would improve agreement of ozone from FVGCM with observations in the tropics and subtropics without affecting the good agreement already present for methane and for the age of air.

4. The ratio NOₓ/O₃ for FVGCM agrees fairly well with observations (Figure 8). A small decrease in the O₃ would be accompanied by a small decrease in NOₓ, since the growth in NOₓ from the tropopause to ER-2 altitudes is controlled by local production through reaction of N₂O with O(¹D) and vertical advection. Thus it is expected that such a change in production would not place the model ratio NOₓ/O₃ outside the range of the observations.

The production of ozone through photolysis of O₂ may be excessive for a simple reason – the CTM tropical ozone at about 2 hPa is (20%) lower than observed by HALOE, at least partly because the CTM mixing ratio for NOₓ ≈ NO + NO₂ + 2 N₂O₅ is ~40% higher than the sunset HALOE NO + NO₂ at the same pressure. The optical depth of ozone is too small, allowing for excess penetration of radiation contributing to photolysis of O₂. Such interactions among processes emphasize the requirement for scrupulous global evaluation of assessment models.

**Discussion and Conclusions**

CTMs driven by assimilated winds have played an important role in the interpretation of observations of stratospheric constituents from all platforms. The requirements for a meaningful assessment calculation are more stringent, however, and the successful application of winds from a data assimilation system to data interpretation does not guarantee that the transport produced in a decadal scale assessment calculation will be realistic. The comparisons shown here highlight some of the problems with the transport produced by these systems, and have implications both for future applications of CTMs such as this one and for improvements in the assimilation system. Model transport in the tropics and subtropics from CTM_vDA is shown to differ significantly from that produced by CTM_FVGCM, and the transport from CTM_vDA is found to be more realistic. Douglass et al. [1999] developed objective criteria for evaluating transport from three sets of meteorological fields, and also found that more realistic transport was produced by winds from a general circulation model than by winds from an assimilation system. For multi-year assessment calculations, the internal consistency provided by winds and
temperatures from a general circulation may be more important than representation of particular transport events using winds from a data assimilation system.

In current assimilation systems, adjustments are made to the prognostic quantities such as temperature, wind, and moisture. Other parameters such as diabatic heating and precipitation respond to these adjustments. Data assimilation techniques assume that the observations and model are unbiased. The comparisons made in this study show that the impact of the data insertion is significant where there is bias between model and observations. Dee and da Silva [1998] and Dee and Todling [2000] have studied techniques to correct bias based on observational information within a three-dimensional variational assimilation system. Griffith and Nichols [2000] have studied the problem of correction of systematic errors within a four-dimensional variational framework. These studies show that bias can be accommodated during the assimilation process. However, the physical or discretization errors that are responsible for the generation of the bias in the first place are not corrected. Therefore, there is an impact on the derived quantities of the assimilation system that is seen in applications that rely on the integrated consistency of the assimilated fields. Use of assimilated winds for CTM simulations are an example of an application that requires this integrated consistency.

Thus, flaws in the tropical transport similar to those shown here are likely to be similar for any assimilation system unless the GCM at the core of the system does not exhibit systematic bias with respect to observations. The comparisons shown here emphasize the QBO, and suggest that overall transport from a CTM driven by assimilation will be flawed if the underlying GCM lacks the physical processes necessary to produce a QBO. It is likely that any systematic bias will impact the transport produced by an assimilated wind fields, however, a bias in the tropics will have a larger impact on the global transport than a bias of similar magnitude at higher latitude due to the greater area and mass involved in the tropics.

As shown here, it is possible to use tracers along with ozone and the CTM response to changes in transport to achieve what has long been promised for CTM's driven by assimilated wind fields, i.e., to identify flaws in constituent behavior that are consistent with problems in model photochemistry. The analysis described here depends on the comparison between the results from CTM<sub>PVDAS</sub> and CTM<sub>PVCM</sub> as well as the comparisons with observations, and could not be completed with a single simulation driven by assimilated winds. Finally, we emphasize that excess horizontal mixing is as detrimental to the quality of a simulation as overly vigorous vertical transport because this also upsets the balance between the transport and photochemical terms. It remains a challenge for assessment models to demonstrate that the appropriate balance between photochemical and transport contributions to continuity equations is maintained at all latitudes and altitudes. For constituents like ozone it is also necessary to demonstrate appropriate balance among contributing photochemical processes. Development of a general circulation model that will not exhibit persistent bias with respect to meteorological observations is necessary (but not sufficient) to realize the potential contributions of assimilated datasets to assessments of trace gas transport.
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Figure 1 The locations of HALOE observations between 980314 and 980324 are
superimposed on ozone at 46hPa from CTM_{FVCM}. A group of measurements for which
latitude progresses from about 30° latitude in one hemisphere to the same latitude in the
opposite hemisphere is called a “sweep.”

Figure 2 Potential vorticity (PV) at 50 hPa is given (a) from the Terra system and (b)
from the FVDAS system. Main features are similar, but the FVDAS PV field is much
smoother than from Terra.
Figure 3 (a) The January zonal mean temperature for FVDAS and (b) the difference between the January zonal mean temperature from FVDAS and FVGCM.

Figure 4 Time series at the equator show that winds and temperatures from FVGCM are rarely similar to those from FVDAS. (a) $\Delta T = T_{\text{FVGCM}} - T_{\text{FVDAS}}$; (b) $\Delta U = U_{\text{FVGCM}} - U_{\text{FVDAS}}$. The fields from FVDAS satisfy the equatorial thermal wind relationship (equation 1): (c) the vertical derivative of the zonal mean wind (left side of equation 1); (d) the right side of equation 1 calculated for zonal mean temperature. The implicit forcing derived from the observations through the assimilation system to produce the QBO signature in the temperature and wind fields from FVDAS represents physical processes that are absent from FVGCM.
Figure 5 Temperatures at 46 hPa from the SHADOZ sondes (Table 1) are compared with those from FVDAS and from FVGCM. A histogram of $\Delta T = \text{sonde temperatures} - T_{\text{FVGCM}}$ (bold line) shows a negative bias; the mean difference is $-2.13K$. The histogram $\Delta T = \text{sonde temperatures} - T_{\text{FVDAS}}$ (shaded) shows almost no bias; the mean difference is $-0.11K$. The standard deviation of the distribution sonde temperatures $- T_{\text{FVDAS}}$ (3.03K) is smaller than sonde temperatures $- T_{\text{FVGCM}}$ (3.52K).

Figure 6 (a) Age of air calculated from an SF-6 simulation using $\text{CTM}_{\text{FVDAS}}$. The age calculation converges after 5 years integration. (b) Same as (a) but using $\text{CTM}_{\text{FVGCM}}$. The age calculation converges after 9 years integration. The contour interval is 0.2 years.
Figure 7 Time series at 500 K of the ratio NO$_y$/O$_3^*1.e3$ (a) calculated using CTM$_\text{FVGCM}$ winds; (b) calculated using CTM$_\text{FVDAS}$ winds. Time series at 500K of the latitudinal derivative of NO$_y$/O$_3^*1.e3$ (c) calculated using CTM$_\text{FVGCM}$; (d) calculated using CTM$_\text{FVDAS}$. Note that the range of values in (c) is twice the range of values in (d). In both (c) and (d), the latitude of the steepest gradient in the northern hemisphere during fall is poleward of its spring location.
Figure 8 (a) ER-2 observations of NO$_y$/O$_3$ * 1.e3; (b) ER-2 observations (grey) and model values (black) of NO$_y$/O$_3$ * 1.e3 at locations of ER-2 observations. The solid lines are the model zonal average NO$_y$/O$_3$ * 1.e3 at 67 hPa (thin) and 57 hPa (bold).
Figure 9 Time series of total zonal mean total ozone from (a) TOMS; (b) CTM\textsubscript{FVGM}; (c) CTM\textsubscript{FVDAS}, and of the absolute value of the latitudinal derivative from (d) TOMS; (e) CTM\textsubscript{FVGM} (f) CTM\textsubscript{FVDAS}. The bold line indicates 1DU/°lat; the area enclosed by these contours exhibits weak gradients.
Figure 10. Distribution functions (a) 1998 TOMS observations between 15S and 15N; (b)
Figure 11 Distribution functions for the partial ozone column 140 hPa – 56 hPa calculated from sondes (a); (b) model ozone using CTM_{FVDAS}; (c) model ozone using CTM_{FVGCM}; (d) model ozone using CTM_{TRMM}; (e) model ozone using CTM_{TERRA}. The bold line is the distribution for sonde locations between 14°S and 5.8°N; the shaded distribution is for sonde locations between 18°S and 26°S. Model values are at sonde locations.
Figure 12 Probability distribution functions for (a) HALOE Ozone for observations between 15S and 15N (solid) and for latitudes between 15 and 30 (shaded); (b) same as (a) but for HALOE Methane; (c) same as (a) for ozone CTM_{FVDA5} sampled as by HALOE; (d) same as (c) for methane from CTM_{FVDA5}; (e) same as (c) for ozone from CTM_{FVGCM}; (f) same as (c) for methane from CTM_{FVGCM}.
Plate 1 (a) HALOE O₃ for 1998 at 46 hPa organized by “sweeps”; each color refers to the month during which the HALOE observations were made as shown on the bottom of the figure; (b) same as (a) for 1999; (c) CTM_FVGC_CM ozone for 1998; (d) same as (c) for 1999; (e) ΔO₃ = O₃(HALOE) - O₃(CTM_FVGC_CM) for 1998; (f) same as (e) for 1999; (g) same as (c) for ozone from CTM_FVDA_S; (h) same as (e) for 1999; (i) ΔO₃ = O₃(HALOE) - O₃(CTM_FVDA_S) for 1998; (j) same as (i) for 1999.
Plate 1 (a) HALOE CH₄ for 1998 at 46 hPa organized by “sweeps”; each color refers to the month during which the HALOE observations were made as shown on the bottom of the figure; (b) same as (a) for 1999; (c) CTM_{FVGCM} methane for 1998; (d) same as (c) for 1999; (e) ΔCH₄ = CH₄(HALOE) - CH₄(CTM_{FVGCM}) for 1998; (f) same as (e) for 1999; (g) same as (c) for methane from CTM_{FVDAS}; (h) same as (e) for 1999; (i) ΔCH₄ = CH₄(HALOE) - CH₄(CTM_{FVDAS}) for 1998; (j) same as (i) for 1999.
References


