Replies to: Anonymous Referee #3. Interactive comment on "The ENSO signal in atmospheric composition fields: emission driven vs. dynamically induced changes" by A. Inness et al.

Received and published: 8 June 2015

We thank Referee 3 for their useful comments about our paper. We have tried to address all the suggestions and revised the manuscript accordingly. Our replies to their comments are given below in blue and changes to the manuscript in bold and blue.

General comments:

The manuscript presents results on the changes in atmospheric composition in the MACC system resulting from the ENSO. Differences in ozone, CO and NO2 concentrations between composites of El-Nino and La-Nina years are used to evaluate the role of changes in emission and dynamics on the atmospheric composition in the tropics. The first part of the paper presents differences in chemical composition in the MACC system dataset over a 10 year time period. The specific role of changes in emission or changes in dynamics is addressed in a second part with the C-IFS model which is run during a El-Nino year and a weak La-Nina year with different emission scenario. The authors conclude that changes in ozone over Indonesia are associated with changes in photochemical production due to an increase in biomass burning emission during El- Nino periods. Large scale ozone anomalies are found over the Pacific due to changes in vertical transport. Anomalies in CO, NO2 and AOD are mostly found over the maritime continent and are related to changes in biomass burning emission. I recommend the paper for publication after addressing the following comments.

Specific comments:

1) Last paragraph, page 13721: the authors claim that the MACC system can successfully model the ENSO signal. Because there is no validation of the ENSO signal against measurements, I cannot agree with this conclusion. Even though the MACC system was compared to satellite products in Inness et al. (2013), we need to see such validation for The ENSO signal, as it is estimated by subtracting El-Nino and La-Nina time periods. Inness et al. (2013) discussed only monthly averaged biases between MACC and satellite products. Bias and/or uncertainties specific to the ENSO signal in the MACC system could exist. It is particularly important if subsequent studies will deal with ocean-atmosphere interactions and ocean-atmosphere response to ENSO. If the atmospheric response in terms of terrestrial emission and dynamics is not well represented, how one can expect to have meaningful conclusions on ocean-atmosphere response and impact on atmospheric composition?
   We have changed that sentence to:

The results from this paper show that the MACC system is able to model changes in atmospheric composition fields found under El Niño and La Niña conditions. After a more thorough validation of the MACC atmospheric fields against observations, it could be interesting to investigate the ocean-atmosphere response to ENSO induced changes in atmospheric composition in a further study.

The way atmospheric dynamics is treated in section 2 is not convincing. The affirmations on the impact of dynamics on atmospheric composition in section 2 is only discussed in general terms since not enough meteorological fields are presented. Section 3 is much more convincing because it uses vertical velocity and specific humidity. Vertical velocity and specific humidity should be used in the first part of the analysis as well.

We have produced composites of vertical velocity and specific humidity at 500 hPa from the MACC reanalysis and added the El Nino minus La Nina difference plots as Figure 2 to the paper (the numbers of the subsequent figures have been changed in the revised manuscript, but we use the original numbers in our replies to the reviewers further below). We have added in the text:

Figure 2 shows that the increased precipitation over the Central Pacific and the reduced precipitation over the Maritime continent are collocated with increased ascent and increased descent at 500 hPa, respectively. At the same time, specific humidity at 500 hPa shows a positive anomaly in the area of increased ascent and precipitation over the Central Pacific and a negative anomaly over the Maritime continent.

2) Changes in cloud cover during La-Nina and El-Nino years can also affect ozone photochemical production. Maps of J(O1D) photolysis rate would provide additional insight into section 2 and 3.

Unfortunately, this is not available from the MACC reanalysis and would require a re-run of the experiments in Section 3. In general, the impact of increased cloud cover results in a reduction of JO1D below and increase of JO1D above the clouds, which is often compensating the OH production. Anomalies of cloud cover at 500 hPa show a similar signal to humidity (our new Figure 2) with decreased cloud cover over Indonesia and increased cloud cover over the central Pacific. A detailed analysis of the chemical budgets for this situation would make an interesting future study, but is beyond the scope of the current paper. We have added a sentence about the cloud cover in Section 2.2: ***Cloud cover shows a similar signal to humidity, with a negative anomaly over the Maritime continent and a positive anomaly over the central Pacific (not shown).***

3) Why formaldehyde is not treated in the paper? Atmospheric composition should not be limited to ozone, CO and NO2.

The reviewer is correct that formaldehyde (HCHO) is an interesting species as it points at varying isoprene sources in the region, which may in turn affect O3 production, depending on availability of NOx. Unfortunately, in current simulations HCHO is not constrained in the MACC system by observations and biogenic emissions are applied without inter-annual variability. Therefore we do not believe that HCHO is a suitable tracer to analyse for this paper.

4) How biomass burning is injected vertically in the model? Since the injection height will be affected by fire intensity and atmospheric stability, one can expect a change in injection height during El-Nino vs La-Nina. If a fixed injection height is used, it could bias the CO and AOD fields at 500hPa.

We have added in section 2.1 :

The emissions are injected at the surface and distributed over the boundary layer by the model's convection and vertical diffusion scheme. Despite the distribution being very efficient, this is a limitation of the current system that and will be addressed in future versions. Experiments have been carried out with a new version that uses injection heights based on the Plume Rise Model of Paugam et al. (2015). They show a significant impact on BC AOD for single large fires; the impact at a global scale is smaller: BC AOD is increased by around 5%. Most of the injections heights calculated with the Plume Rise Model lie within the boundary layer and only a small fraction of smoke (often from particularly intense, and well-studied fires) is injected directly into the free troposphere. The largest smoke transport from the boundary layer to the free troposphere occurs through larger-scale meteorological processes. The lowering of the boundary layer height, when air is advected from land to sea, and strong updrafts in frontal system have previously been identified as efficient smoke transport mechanisms. Similarly, Veira et al. (2015) has studied the sensitivity of AOD in a global climate model to different injection height parameterisations and the above-mentioned plume rise model, with the conclusion that a simple parameterisation reproduces the average larger-scale distribution sufficiently well.

Extra reference: Paugam, R., Wooster, M., Atherton, J., Freitas, S. R., Schultz, M. G., and Kaiser, J. W.: Development and optimization of a wildfire plume rise model based

on remote sensing data inputs – Part 2, Atmos. Chem. Phys. Discuss., 15, 9815-9895, doi:10.5194/acpd-15-9815-2015, 2015.

Veira, A., Kloster, S., Schutgens, N. A. J., and Kaiser, J. W.: Fire emission heights in the climate system – Part 2: Impact on transport, black carbon concentrations and radiation, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 15, 7173-7193, doi:10.5194/acp-15-7173-2015, 2015.

5) How ocean emission of halogenated species, VOCs and deposition on ocean surface is treated?

We have added in Section 2.1: ***The MACC models do not contain halogenated species, which would contribute to a small additional loss term to O3 and its precursors in the tropical marine boundary layer. Ocean emissions of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) originate from climatological data from POET. Deposition on ocean surface depends on the species solubility, which is negligible for O3 and CO, but not for some of the VOCs. All these aspects may contribute to overall biases in the model, but are not considered essential for the signals investigated here.***

6) section 2: Why the AOD anomaly reach the lower troposphere at 200E, but no such anomaly is found in CO, NOx and ozone?

We have added at the end of Section 2:

In the lower troposphere there is a negative aerosol anomaly over the Central Pacific that is not seen in the other atmospheric composition fields. This anomaly is likely to be the result of the increased precipitation in this area during El Niño conditions (see Figure 1) which leads to increased wet deposition and removal of aerosols, while not removing the gas-phase species in the same way.

Technical comments:

line 18, p13711: la nina ...

Changed

line 11, p13721: comparing simulations ...

Changed

Replies to: Dr. Nassar (Referee). Interactive comment on "The ENSO signal in atmospheric composition fields: emission driven vs. dynamically induced changes" by A. Inness et al.

Received and published: 14 June 2015

We thank Dr. Nassar for his useful comments about our paper. We have tried to address all the suggestions and revised the manuscript accordingly. Our replies to their comments are given below in blue and changes to the manuscript in bold and blue.

Inness et al. use the Monitoring Atmospheric Composition and Climate (MACC) reanalysis to investigate the effects of El Nino on atmospheric composition, specifically CO, ozone, NOx and aerosol in the region of the Maritime continent. The manuscript was very well-written and clearly presented, with minimal errors and high quality figures. The work described in this manuscript builds off of many previous studies on the impact of El Nino on atmospheric composition. While most previous studies focused on a single El Nino event relative to a neutral or La Nina year, Inness et al. investigate October, November and December composites from three El Ninos (2004, 2006, 2009) com- pared with composites from those months during La Nina (2005, 2007, 2008, 2010) from their 10-year MACC reanalysis. This reanalysis is at a far higher spatial resolution (80 km) than any known past global modeling studies on this topic, so in this sense the study is an advance relative to earlier work, however, the scientific investigation does not go as far as in some earlier work, which was a bit of a disappointment. For example, the authors separate the El Nino impacts on atmospheric composition into emissions and dynamics, and conclude that the ozone enhancement is mostly dynamical, but according to their method, their dynamical component must include the contribution from lightning NOx emissions, which is only briefly mentioned without an attempt to quantify the lightning impact on ozone.

Dr. Nassar is correct that our dynamical component includes the contribution from lightning NOx on ozone, as this contribution is not isolated in our study. Alike, also the wet scavenging is not separated from the dynamical component or the impact of cloudiness on photolysis rates. It is fair to say that we basically mean meteorological (or atmospheric) factors when we say „dynamics". In this study we wanted to isolate the impact of the biomass burning emissions. We argue that lightning NOx production is considered as an inseparable aspect of the dynamical component in this study, as the flash rate density that is used to calculate NO emissions from lightning is based on parameters of the convection scheme and is calculated using convective precipitation as input parameter. This parameter is affected by changes in the dynamics and not the fire emissions. In a future study it could be of interest to assess the chemical budgets in more detail but that is beyond the scope of the current paper.

In general, a more quantitative evaluation of the MACC reanalysis would have been desirable. For example, the authors state in their conclusion (p 13721) that the results of the paper show that "the MACC system is able to successfully model the ENSO signal in atmospheric composition fields, and could therefore be used in further studies to investigate the ocean-atmosphere response to ENSO induced changes in atmospheric composition." However, they do not demonstrate that the ozone, NOx and CO enhancements in the reanalysis during an El Nino do indeed match observations. Inness et al. 2013 is cited, but this is just a general comparison paper and does not demonstrate the agreement specifically in this region during El Nino. Perhaps this is because observations have been assimilated, so the fields are assumed to match observations, which may generally be the case, but reader has no knowledge of the degree of agreement with observations without it being demonstrated here. This contrasts with for example, Nassar et al. (2009) in which GEOS-Chem CO, ozone and water vapour composition fields generally agree with satellite observations, however, attempts were made to explain remaining differences between the model and observations by investigating issues like: the magnitude and timing of CO emission, possibly related to the model and biomass burning inventory's neglect of peat smouldering; the impact of enhanced lightning NOx and soil NOx on the ozone enhancement; or the impact of convective transport on CO, ozone and water vapour. Since Inness et al. does not quantitatively confirm the magnitude and timing of the anomalies in the reanalysis with independent observations, one can only make conclusions regarding the relative contributions of emissions and dynamics in the MACC system, but cannot reliably extend such conclusions to the real earth system.

In summary, while this paper in its current form (with minor corrections) can be considered a reasonable and a useful introductory analysis of MACC during El Nino, a quantitative verification of the MACC El Nino composition fields in this region using observations, AND hypotheses to explain any differences, would make this a stronger paper, perhaps enhancing our scientific understanding of the topic.

A detailed quantitative verification of the MACC El Nino composition fields is beyond the scope of this paper, but we agree with Dr. Nassar that it would be worth while to do this in a follow up study. A basic validation of the fields was done in Inness et al (2013), Inness et al. (2015) and Flemming et al. (2015) and more detailed validation is constantly carried out by the MACC validation team whose validation reports are available from http://www.copernicus-atmosphere.eu/. We already mention the reanalysis validation reports in Section 2.1. We have added a reference to Inness et al. (2015) and have also added in Section 3.1: ***A basic initial validation of CIFS-fields can be found in Flemming et al. (2015) and Inness et al. (2015) and more detailed validation of C-IFS can be found in the validation reports available from http://www.copernicus-atmosphere.eu/.***

Specific points

p 13706, line 12: “nitrogen oxide” should be “nitrogen oxides”

Corrected.

p 13714, line 14: “EL” should be “El”

Corrected.

p 13714, line 23: “upper the troposphere” should be “upper troposphere”

Corrected.

p 13715, line 4: the longitude for the anomaly in Figure 9 that they are referring to would be helpful to provide. They mention an anomaly over Africa, which I’d expect at 30 E, whereas a positive anomaly appears over 300E or South America.

Sorry, this was wrong in the text. We have changed it to: ***Now a small positive anomaly is found over South America.***

p 13716, line 15: “lighning” should be “lightning”

Corrected.

p 13718, line 15: “surrunding” should be “surrounding”

Corrected.

p 13721, line 11: “Comapring” should be “Comparing”

Corrected.

p 13721, line 17: “affected” should be “affected”

Corrected.

Figure 10. A more detailed interpretation of the NOx anomalies is desirable.

We have added in the discussion of Figure 10:

The positive NOx anomalies around 100^{o}E in October and November are collocated with high O_3 values in the lower troposphere (seen in Figure 8) pointing to enhanced O_3 production due to enhanced NOx concentrations from biomass burning. In December, when NOx does not show such a positive anomaly any more, O_3 concentrations in the lower troposphere are lower and the maximum of the O_3 anomaly is located above 700hPa.

Figure 15. The authors fail to comment on the fact that in October, the peak in specific humidity is south of ozone enhancement. Nassar et al. (2009) showed that the equa- torial component of the October ozone anomaly was related to fire emissions, with the southern component of the ozone anomaly due to other factors.

We have added in the paper:

In October the peak in specific humidity is located south of the ozone enhancement. This agrees with Nassar et al. (2009) who showed that the equatorial component of the October ozone anomaly was related to fire emissions, while the southern component of the ozone anomaly was due to other factors.

Furthermore, that fact that the elevated humidity over southern Africa corresponds to decreased ozone, but a similar feature over in the region of Saudi Arabia and Iran does not, warrants some comment.

We have added in the paper:

It should be noted that the positive specific humidity anomalies over the Arabian peninsula and over Australia in October do not correspond to decreased ozone values, while the ones over southern Africa, South America and the Central Pacific do. The reason for this is that relative anomalies are shown and that the absolute humidity values over the Arabian peninsula and Australia are much lower than in the other areas, so that the absolute humidity changes between 2006 and 2005 are actually relatively small. This all suggests that the correlation of O_3 to specific humidity is strongest in tropical regions with large variability in water vapour, combined with low NOx conditions.

Figure 17. It would have been useful to show a larger longitude range for the map here (especially westward) since in panel b, for example, major features are cut off at the map boundaries.

We have increased the area to the west so that it now extends from 40E to 130E.

Replies to M.-Y. Lin: Interactive comment on "The ENSO signal in atmospheric composition fields: emission driven vs. dynamically induced changes" by A. Inness et al.

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This comment is posted by Meiyun Lin (Princeton University). The role of emission driven versus dynamically induced changes in atmospheric composition in association with ENSO is a very interesting topic. The following two publications particularly addressed this question, and thus are highly relevant to many discussions in your paper. Meiyun Lin, L.W. Horowitz, S. J. Oltmans, A. M. Fiore, Songmiao Fan (2014): Tropospheric ozone trends at Manna Loa Observatory tied to decadal climate variability, Nature Geoscience, 7, 136-143, doi:10.1038/NGEO2066.

Meiyun Lin, A.M. Fiore, L.W. Horowitz, A.O.Langford, S. J. Oltmans, D. Tarasick, H.E. Reider (2015): Climate variability modulates western US ozone air quality in spring via deep stratospheric intrusions, Nature Communications, 6, 7105, doi:10.1038/ncomms8105

Despite large El Nino enhancements to wildfire activity in equatorial Asia, the model sensitivity experiments in Lin et al (2014, Nature Geosci) indicate that wildfire emissions are not the main driver of ENSO-related ozone variability observed at Mauna Loa, Hawaii (Figure 3). The dynamically induced eastward extension and equatorward shift of the subtropical jet stream during El Nino plays a key role on observed interannual variability of springtime lower tropospheric ozone at Mauna Loa. These shifts enhance long range transport of Asian ozone and CO pollution towards the eastern North Pacific in winter and spring during El Nino.

Lin et al (2015, Nature Communications) demonstrated a connection between springtime western US ozone air quality and jet characteristics associated with strong La Nina winters. They showed more frequent late spring deep stratospheric ozone intrusions when the polar jet stream meanders southward over the western United States as occurs following strong La Nina winters. Their finding again reflects the dynamically driven changes in atmospheric composition in association with ENSOT.

Thanks for pointing out these extra references. We have included them in Section 3.2 of the paper: ***The importance of the dynamically driven ozone changes was also highlighted by Lin et al. (2014 and 2015). Despite large El Nino enhancements to wildfire activity in equatorial Asia, the model sensitivity experiments in Lin et al. (2014) indicated that wildfire emissions are not the main driver of ENSO-related ozone variability observed at Mauna Loa, Hawaii. The dynamically induced eastward extension and equatorward shift of the subtropical jet stream during El Nino plays a key role on observed interannual***

variability of springtime lower tropospheric ozone at Mauna Loa. These shifts enhance long range transport of Asian ozone and CO pollution towards the eastern North Pacific in winter and spring during El Nino. Lin et al. (2015) demonstrated a connection between springtime western US ozone air quality and jet characteristics associated with strong La Nina winters. They showed more frequent late spring deep stratospheric ozone intrusions when the polar jet stream meanders southward over the western United States as occurs following strong La Nina winters.

The ENSO signal in atmospheric composition fields: Emission driven versus dynamically induced changes

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Abstract

The El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) does not only affect meteorological fields but also has a large impact on atmospheric composition. Atmospheric composition fields from the Monitoring Atmospheric Composition and Climate (MACC) reanalysis are used to identify the ENSO signal in tropospheric ozone, carbon monoxide, nitrogen oxide and smoke aerosols, concentrating on the months October to December. During El Niño years all these fields have increased concentrations over Maritime South East Asia in October. The MACC Composition Integrated Forecasting System (C-IFS) model is used to quantify the relative magnitude of dynamically induced and emission driven changes in the atmospheric composition fields. While changes in tropospheric ozone are a combination of dynamically induced and emission driven changes, the changes in carbon monoxide, nitrogen ~~oxide~~oxides and smoke aerosols are almost entirely emission driven in the MACC model. The ozone changes continue into December, i.e. after the end of the Indonesian fire season while changes in the other fields are confined to the fire season.

1 Introduction

The El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) is the dominant mode of variability in the Tropics (e.g. Allan et al. 1996). It does not only affect meteorological fields but has a large impact on atmospheric composition too, for example on ozone (O_3), carbon monoxide (CO), nitrogen oxides (NOx) and aerosols (e.g. Logan et al. 2008; Ziemke and Chandra, 2003, Chandra et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2004). As the result of an eastwards shift of the warm sea surface temperatures (SST) and the large scale Walker circulation anomaly in the tropical Pacific during El Niño years, downward motion is increased and convection and precipitation are reduced over the Western Pacific and the Maritime Continent. During La Niña conditions the opposite dynamical effects occur. Fire emissions over Indonesia show a large interannual variability (IAV), with largest emissions during El Niño years (e.g. van der Werf et al., 2006, Kaiser et al., 2012), when drought conditions and anthropogenic biomass burning lead to big wild fires (Duncan et al., 2003; Lyon et al., 2004; Page et al., 2002) that emit large amounts of trace gases and aersols. During El Niño years tropospheric O_3 columns (TCO3) are decreased over the Central and Eastern Pacific and increased over the Western Pacific and Indonesia, while CO concentrations and aerosols from biomass burning increase over Indonesia. Specific humidity changes in the upper troposphere are anti-correlated with the changes in TCO3 (e.g. Chandra et al., 2007).

These atmospheric composition changes have been found in observations (Chandra et al., 1998; Ziemke and Chandra 1999; Fujiwara et al., 1999; Chandra et al., 2007; Logan et al., 2008) and were confirmed by modelling studies (Hauglustaine et al., 1999; Sudo and Takashashi, 2001; Chandra et al., 2002; Doherty et al., 2006; Chandra et al., 2009; Nassar et al., 2009) which also tried to quantify the relative importance of the dynamically induced and the emission driven atmospheric composition changes. The reasons for the TCO3 increase over the Western Pacific and Indonesia during El Niño years are (i) changes in the vertical transport that lead to enhanced downward transport of O_3 rich air from the upper troposphere (and perhaps stratosphere) to the middle and lower troposphere, and reduced transport of O_3 poor air from the lower troposphere into the upper troposphere; (ii) a longer chemical lifetime of O_3 because of reduced humidity which affects the concentrations of the hydroxyl radical (OH) and hence the photochemical loss of tropospheric O_3; and (iii) enhanced photochemical production of O_3 in the lower troposphere

because of increased concentrations of O_3 precursors from biomass burning, such as NOx, CO or Hydrocarbons. We refer to (i) and (ii) as 'dynamically induced changes' and to (iii) as 'emission driven changes' throughout this paper.

For El Niño events with large fires over Indonesia, such as in 1997 and 2006, the TCO3 changes due to dynamics and due to increased emissions can be of similar magnitude (Sudo and Takahashi, 2001; Chandra et al., 2002; Chandra et al,. 2009), while for weaker events, such as the 2004 El Niño, the dynamical impact dominates (Chandra et al., 2007).

The changes in CO are mainly emissions driven (Logan et al., 2008; Chandra et al., 2009; Voulgarakis et al., 2010) and of smaller horizontal scale than the O_3 anomalies, but dynamical interactions due to changes in water vapour (H_2O) and hence OH can also play a role. CO is increased over the Western Pacific and the Maritime Continent during El Niño because of increased emissions from fires and the increased chemical lifetime due to reduced OH. The CO anomaly over Indonesia is usually gone by December (Logan et al., 2008; Chandra et al., 2009), after the end of the biomass burning season, while the O_3 anomaly continues.

Large Indonesian wildfires can affect the air quality over South East Asia. Aouizerats et al. (2015) investigated how the transport of biomass burning emissions from Sumatra affected the air quality in Singapore. They found that 21% of the PM_{10} loading in Singapore during July to October 2006 was due to Sumatran fires, and that Sumatran fires were responsible for about half of the days with PM_{10} concentrations greater than 50 μgm^{-3} while the other half was due to local anthropogenic pollution and contributions from smaller fires. The impact of fire emissions on atmospheric aerosol concentrations is of particular interest because of the potential feedbacks of fire-induced aerosols on climate. Several studies have looked at the correlations between ENSO and aerosols or atmospheric haze produced by the Indonesian fires. Wang et al. (2004) used visibility data over Sumatra as an indicator of biomass burning and found that haze events were strongly correlated with El Niño during the 1973 to 2003 period. Tosca et al. (2010) used satellite data and modelling studies and found that the aerosol optical depth (AOD) over Indonesia had a large IAV that was driven by wild fires during periods of El Niño induced droughts. Their modelling study showed that the fire-emitted aerosols could initiate a positive feedback loop. The aerosols acted to intensify drought over the biomass burning regions. The aerosols also reduced land and sea surface temperatures, and hence suppressed convection and precipitation in the area. Podgorny et al. (2003) looked at the feedback between El Niño and

the Indonesian biomass burning of 1997 and also found that the haze from the fires reduced the solar radiation absorbed by the equatorial Indian Ocean and increased the solar heating of the atmosphere, thus raising the possibility of dynamical feedbacks of the smoke forcing on ENSO. Chung and Ramanathan (2003) carried out modelling studies to assess the remote impact of changes in the South Asian haze and found that fluctuations in the absorbing aerosol forcing could affect the interannual climate variability in the Tropics (and Extratropics). It could remotely suppress convection in the equatorial western Pacific and lead to an ocean-atmosphere response that was very similar to El Niño like warming.

As part on the EU FP7 funded Monitoring Atmospheric Composition and Climate (MACC) project (www.copernicus-atmosphere.eu) a 10-year reanalysis of atmospheric composition (Inness et al. 2013) was constructed. This reanalysis provides fields of chemically active gases, for example CO, O_3, and NOx, as well as aerosols globally for both the troposphere and the stratosphere for the years 2003 to 2012. It gives us the unprecedented possibility to assess the impact of ENSO on atmospheric composition using an observationally constrained, continuous, 3-dimensional atmospheric composition dataset with a resolution of about 80 km, which is greater than the resolutions used in most previous modelling studies. In this paper we show that the MACC reanalysis shows the ENSO induced anomalies in O_3, CO, NOx and aerosols described in earlier studies. We then use MACC‘s Composition Integrated Forecasting System (C-IFS) model (Flemming et al. 2015) to quantify the relative impact of the dynamics and the biomass burning emissions on the ENSO signal in the O_3, CO, NOx and smoke aerosol fields.

This paper is structured in the following way. Section 2 describes the MACC reanalysis and the ENSO signal seen in MACC O_3, CO, NOx and smoke aerosol fields. Section 3 describes the additional C-IFS model runs that were carried out to quantify the relative impact of the dynamics and biomass burning emission on the ENSO signal in the atmospheric composition fields and their results, and Section 4 presents conclusions and outlook.

2 ENSO signal in the MACC reanalysis

2.1 The MACC reanalysis

The MACC data assimilation system provides analyses and forecasts of atmospheric composition and was used to produce a reanalysis of atmospheric compostion covering the

years 2003 to 2012, as described in Inness et al. (2013). O_3 retrievals from several instruments (including the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI), SCanning Imaging Absorption spectroMeter for Atmospheric CHartographY (SCIAMACHY), Solar Backscatter Ultra-Violet (SBUV/2), Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS~~)),~~), CO retrievals from Measurements of Pollution in the Troposphere (MOPITT) and the Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI), tropospheric NO_2 columns from SCIAMACHY, and AOD from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Sectroradiometer (MODIS) were assimilated to constrain the atmospheric compostions fields. For more information about the assimilated datasets and the quality of the O_3, CO, and NOx fields produced by the analysis see Inness et al. (2013). The aerosol analysis in the MACC reanalysis is similar to that described in Benedetti et al. (2009) and Morcrette et al. (2011) and is based on 4-dimensional variational assimilation of AOD observations at 550 nm from the MODIS sensors, including a global adaptive bias correction. Comparisons of multiyear averages of AOD over the period 2003–2010 from the MACC reanalysis and from the Multi-angle Imaging SpectroRadiometer (MISR) sensors onboard the Terra satellite indicate good qualitative agreement (not shown).

The anthropogenic emissions for the reactive gases for the MACC reanalysis were taken from the MACCity inventory (Granier et al., 2011) which accounts for projected trends in the emissions. For the aerosol fields they came from the EDGAR database (Dentener et al., 2006). Monthly biomass burning emission for the years 2003 to 2008 from the GFED3.0 inventory (van der Werf et al., 2010) were scaled to daily resolution using MODIS active fire observations. From 2009 to 2012 daily biomass burning emissions from MACC's GFAS, Version 1.0 (Kaiser et al. 2012) were used. One advantage of the MACC reanalysis is that it used daily fire emission, in contrast to several other studies that used monthly averages. Biogenic emissions used in the MACC reanalysis were for 2003. They came from a recent update (Barkley, 2010) of the Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature version 2 (MEGAN2; Guenther et al. 2006, http://acd.ucar.edu/~guenther/MEGAN/MEGAN.htm) and were used as monthly surface flux fields without interannual variation.

The emissions are injected at the surface and distributed over the boundary layer by the model's convection and vertical diffusion scheme. Despite the distribution being very efficient, this is a limitation of the current system that will be addressed in future versions. Experiments have been carried out with a new version that uses injection heights based on the Plume Rise Model of Paugam et al. (2015). They show a significant impact on BC AOD for single large fires; the

impact at a global scale is smaller: BC AOD is increased by around 5%. Most of the injection heights calculated with the Plume Rise Model lie within the boundary layer and only a small fraction of smoke (often from particularly intense and well-studied fires) is injected directly into the free troposphere. The largest smoke transport from the boundary layer to the free troposphere occurs through larger-scale meteorological processes. The lowering of the boundary layer height, when air is advected from land to sea, and strong updrafts in frontal system have previously been identified as efficient smoke transport mechanisms. Similarly, Veira et al. (2015) has studied the sensitivity of AOD in a global climate model to different injection height parameterisations and the above-mentioned plume rise model, with the conclusion that a simple parameterisation reproduces the average larger-scale distribution sufficiently well.

The MACC models do not contain halogenated species, which would contribute to a small additional loss term to O_3 and CO. Ocean emissions of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) originate from climatological data from POET. Deposition on ocean surface depends on the species solubility, which is negligible for O_3 and CO, but not for some of the VOCs. All these aspects may contribute to overall biases in the model, but are not considered essential for the signals investigated here.

Initial validation results from the MACC reanalysis are shown in Inness et al. (2013) and Morcrette et al. (2011) and more detailed validation can be found in the MACC reanalysis validation reports available from http://atmosphere.copernicus.eu/services/aqac/global_verification/validation_reports/ .

2.2 ENSO anomalies

The MACC reanalysis was used to construct monthly composites of O_3, CO, NOx fields at 500 hPa and of the smoke AOD, i.e. the sum of black carbon (BC) and organic matter (OM) AOD, at 550 nm for El Niño and La Niña years for the months October, November and December. The El Niño composite was constructed from the years 2004, 2006, 2009, the La Niña composite from the years 2005, 2007, 2008, 2010, and 2011. Weak El Niño and La Niña years were included in the composite calculation to increase the sample size. A recent timeseries of the Multivariate ENSO index which was used to define the years used in our El Niño and La Niña composites can be found on http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/enso/mei/index.html. Composites of vertical velocity and specific humidity at 500 hPa were also calculated from the

MACC reanalysis. SST and precipitation composite fields, that were not available from the MACC reanalysis, were constructed for the same years from the ERA Interim reanalysis (Dee et al. 2011), and biomass burning composites were calculated from the GFAS v1.0 data set. The composites were then used to calculated anomalies for the various fields by taking the difference between the El Niño and La Niña composites for the months October, November and December.

Figure 1 shows the warm SST anomaly over the Central Pacific associated with El Niño conditions and the resulting precipitation changes for October, November and December from ERA Interim. Precipitation is increased over the central Pacific and reduced over the Western Pacific, Maritime Continent, northern Australia and part of the Indian Ocean. Figure 2 shows that the increased precipitation over the Central Pacific and the reduced precipitation over the Maritime continent are collocated with increased ascent and increased descent at 500 hPa, respectively. At the same time, specific humidity at 500 hPa shows a positive anomaly in the area of increased ascent and precipitation over the Central Pacific and a negative anomaly over the Maritime continent. Cloud cover shows a similar signal to humidity, with a negative anomaly over the Maritime continent and a positive anomaly over the central Pacific (not shown).

The increased biomass burning emissions related to the lack of rainfall over Indonesia and Northern Australia can be seen in the FRP anomalies shown in Figure ~~2~~3. Increased fire activity can be seen over Indonesia in October and November, but has stopped by December after the end of the fire season, while a weaker biomass burning anomaly continues in Northern Australia into December. Over Brazil decreased fire activity can be seen in October.

Figure ~~3~~4 shows the IAV of the biomass burning emissions for CO from GFAS v1.0 for the 10 years covered by the MACC reanalysis for the area around Indonesia (10ºN and 10ºS, 90ºE and 130ºE) and illustrates that the emissions are higher during the El Niño years 2004, 2006, 2009 than at other times. The largest values are seen for 2006. Table 1 shows the average CO, NOx and fire aerosol emissions from GFAS v1.0 during October, November, December for the El Niño years and La Niña years. The average CO emissions during El Niño years during October, November, and December are a factor of about 9, 12, and 2 larger, respectively, than during La Niña years. For NOx fire emissions the factors are 6, 7, 2 and for smoke aerosols 8, 10, 2, respectively. The values in Table 1 are slightly smaller than the values in Chandra et al. (2009)

who list CO fire emissions over Indonesia as 44.2 Tg/month, 6.3 Tg/month and 0.2 Tg/months and NO_2 fire emissions of 0.76, 0.11, and 0.0 for October, November, and December 2006, respectively.

Figures ~~4~~5 to ~~7~~8 illustrate the impact that the dynamical and emission related changes have on the atmospheric composition fields, by showing the anomalies calculated from the MACC reanalysis at 500 hPa for O_3, CO, NOx, and smoke AOD, respectively. O_3 shows positive anomalies over the Western Pacific, Indonesia, Northern Australia and the Eastern Indian Ocean, and negative anomalies over the Central and Eastern Pacific (Figure ~~4~~5). These anomalies are quite large scale and continue into December after the end of the biomass burning anomaly over Indonesia. The O_3 anomalies agree well with those described in other studies based on MLS and Total Ozone Mapping Spectrometer (TOMS) data (Chandra et al. 2009) as well as Tropospheric Emission Spectrometer (TES) data (Logan et al. 2008). The negative O_3 anomaly over Africa and the western Indian Ocean in December was also noted by Nassar et al. (2009) in TES data and modelling studies with the Goddard Earth Observing System 3-D chemical transport model (GEOS-Chem), and we also note a negative O_3 anomaly over Brazil in October. The O_3 anomalies are a combination of biomass burning changes and meteorological changes as a consequence of changes in SSTs and the resulting eastward shift of the Walker circulation (Sudo and Takahashi 2001; Chandra et al. 2002; Chandra et al. 2009). The O_3 decrease over the Central and East Pacific is due to enhanced upward transport of O_3 poor air from the boundary layer into the middle and upper troposphere, and a shorter O_3 lifetime and larger photochemical loss due to increased H_2O (and hence OH) concentrations.

During October and November both dynamical and emission driven effects contribute, and modelling studies (e.g. Sudo and Takahashi 2001; Chandra et al. 2002; Chandra et al. 2009) have shown that emissions and dynamical changes can contribute equally for El Niño years with strong biomass buring. The O_3 changes in December are due to the dynamical changes after the end of the fire season over Indonesia. This agrees with what was seen by Logan et al. (2008), Chandra et al. (2009) and Nassar et al (2009).

Figure ~~5~~6 shows the CO anomalies at 500 hPa calculated from the MACC reanalysis. These anomalies are more confined to the areas of the biomass burning anomalies (see Figure ~~2~~3) than the O_3 anomalies (Figure ~~4~~5). The strongest positive anomaly is found over the Maritime Continent during October and is linked to increased emissions from enhanced biomass burning

under drought conditions. A negative CO anomaly extends from South America over the Southern Atlantic to Africa in October and is related to lower fire emissions over Brazil. Similar anomalies were described by Logan et al. (2008), Nassar et al. (2009) and Chandra et al. (2009). The CO anomalies during November are weaker than the October ones, and by December the anomalies have all but disappeared. This confirms that the CO anomalies are mainly emission driven and are not affected much by the dynamical changes that cause the O_3 anomalies after the end of the biomass burning season in December.

The NOx anomalies (Figure ~~6~~7) clearly show the impact of the increased emissions from biomass buring over Indonesia during October and November, but also seem to indicate some large scale response. For example, the negative anomaly over the Eastern Pacific is colocated with the negative O_3 anomaly here (Figure ~~4~~5) and could indicate enhanced upward transport of NOx poor air to these levels. Also the negative NOx anomaly over the Pacific in December is again co-located with a (larger) negative O_3 anomaly.

Figure ~~7~~8 shows the anomaly of smoke AOD at 550 nm calculated from the MACC reanalysis. The largest positive anomaly is found over Indonesia in October and November, corresponding to increased aerosol concentrations from biomass burning emissions. The negative aerosol anomaly over South America in October is related to the reduced fire activity seen in Figure ~~2~~3. By December the anomalies have disappeared. Similar AOD anomaly patterns over Indonesia were seen by Tosca et al. (2010) when comparing ~~EL~~El Niño and La Niña years for August to October for the period 2000 and 2006 from the MISR and MODIS data.

The 3-dimensional nature of the MACC reanalysis allows us to look at the vertical distribution of the anomalies in the troposphere. Figures ~~8~~9 to ~~11~~12 show height versus longitude cross-sections of O_3, CO, NOx and smoke AOD anomalies averaged over the latitude range from 0 to 12ºS. The O_3 cross section in Figure ~~8~~9 illustrates that the largest postive O_3 anomalies in October and November are located in the lower troposphere and are likely to be the result of enhanced O_3 production due to increased concentrations of O_3 precursors from enhanced fire emissions. However, the positive and negative anomalies extend into the upper ~~the~~ troposphere, and some of the anomalies (for example the negative anomaly over the Central Pacific) are clearly not connected to the surface but seem to originate in the middle or upper troposphere. These anomalies continue into December after the end of the fire season, and are likely to be a result of the dynamically induced changes mentioned above.

Figure ~~9~~10 shows that CO anomalies are largest in the lower troposphere but can extend throughout the troposphere over Indonesia and South America. There is a clear connection to increased CO emissions over Indonesia and decreased emissions over South America due to changes in biomass burning. By December the anomalies have all but gone and show that there is no dynamically induced anomaly, unlike in O_3. Now a small positive anomaly is found over ~~Africa~~South America.

Figure ~~10~~11 shows cross sections of NOx anomalies caclulated from the reanalysis. The largest anomalies are located in the lower troposphere and are again clearly connected to changes in the fire emissions. A large positive anomaly is found over Indonesia and negative anomalies over South America in October and Africa in October and November. In these areas there are reduced fire activities and increased precipitation during El Niño years. Positive NOx anomalies are found in the upper troposphere and could be a result of increased NOx production from lightning over South America where there is positive precipitation anomaly pointing to increased convection. The flash rates in the lightning NO parametrization are 5-10 larger over land than over ocean which might explain why no signal is seen over the Central Pacific. The positive NOx anomalies around 100^0E in October and November are collocated with high O_3 values in the lower troposphere (Figure 9) pointing to enhanced O_3 production due to enhanced NOx concentrations from biomass burning. In December, when NOx does not show such a positive anomaly any more, O_3 concentrations in the lower troposphere are lower and the maximum of the O_3 anomaly is located above 700 hPa.

Figure ~~11~~12 depicts cross sections of smoke AOD and shows that, as for CO and NOx, there is a clear connetion to increased emissions over Indonesia in October and reduced emissions over South America. By December the positive anomaly over Indonesia is much reduced and confined to the lower troposphere. Enhanced AOD concentrations can be seen in November over South America. In the lower troposphere there is a negative aerosol anomaly over the Central Pacific that is not seen in the other atmospheric composition fields. This anomaly is likely to be the result of the increased precipitation in this area during El Niño conditions (see Figure 1) which leads to increased wet deposition and removal of aerosols, while not removing the gas-phase species in the same way.

3 Quantifying the relative importance of dynamically and emission driven changes on the atmospheric composition fields

3.1 Experiment setup

To quantify the relative impact of increased biomass burning emissions and dynamically induced changes on the atmospheric composition fields during El Niño conditions two experiments are run for the years 2005 and 2006: one with normal and one with climatological GFAS v1.0 fire emissions. 2006 was an El Niño year, and 2005 is used to represent normal to weak La Niña conditions. The additional experiments use the most recent version of the MACC system, the C-IFS model (Flemming et al. 2015; Inness et al. 2015). This model is different to the one used in the MACC reanalysis (Inness et al. 2013) because it has chemistry routines included directly in ECMWF's Integrated Forecasting System (IFS). A basic initial validation of CIFS-fields can be found in Flemming et al. (2015) and Inness et al. (2015) and more detailed validation of C-IFS can be found in the validation reports available from http://www.copernicus-atmosphere.eu/.

The chemistry scheme implemented in the C-IFS model version used for these experiments is an extended, modified version of the Carbon Bond Mechanism 5 (Yarwood et al., 2005) chemical mechanism as originally implemented in the Tracer Model 5 (TM5) CTM (Huijnen et al., 2010, Williams et al., 2013; Huijnen et al., 2014). This is a tropospheric chemistry scheme with 54 species and 126 reactions. For O_3 a simple stratospheric parameterisation based on Cariolle and Teyssèdre (2007) has been added. Monthly mean dry deposition velocities are currently based on climatological fields from MOCAGE (Michou et al., 2004). The module for wet deposition is based on the Harvard wet deposition scheme (Jacob et al., 2000 and Liu et al., 2001). The output of the IFS convection scheme is used to calculate NO emissions from ~~lighning~~lightning. They are parameterised using estimates of the flash rate density, the flash energy release and the vertical emission profile. Estimates of the flash rate density are based on parameters of the convection scheme and calculated using convective precipitation as input parameter (Meijer et al 2001). Documentation of the technical implementation of C-IFS and more details about the model can be found in Flemming et al. (2015). In the present study, the C-IFS aerosol fields are not used in the radiation scheme, where an aerosol climatology based on Tegen et al. (1997) is used instead. Also, heteorogeneous chemistry on aerosols is not included.

The anthropogenic emissions used in the C-IFS runs come from the MACCity emission data base (Granier et al., 2011). Biogenic emissions are taken from the POET database for the year 2000 (Granier et al. 2005; Olivier et al. 2003), with isoprene emissions from MEGAN2.1, again for the year 2000 (Guenther et al., 2006). Biomass burning emissions for the runs are either taken from GFAS v1.0 (Kaiser et al. 2012) or from a GFAS v1.0 climatology. This daily climatology was constructed using the GFAS v1.0 dataset from 2000 to 2014 (Kaiser et al. 2012, Remy and Kaiser, 2014). Biomass burning emissions for each day of the year were defined as the average of the emissions of the same day of the year for the 15 years of the dataset.

The differences between the GFAS v1.0 and climatological GFAS emissions for the area between 10ºN, 10ºS, 90ºE, 130ºE are shown in Figure ~~12~~13. The figure illustrates that 2006 was a year with exceptionally large biomass burning emissions over Indonesia during the biomass burning season (as already seen in Figure ~~4~~5), while in 2005 emissions were slightly below average.

The experiments are started on 1 January 2005 and run until the end of 2006. The first experiment (BASE) uses daily GFAS v1.0 emissions, while the second experiment (CLIM) uses the climatological GFAS data set described above. We look at fields from these experiments for October and December 2005 and 2006 to determine

i. the overall impact of changes to the atmospheric composition fields due to El Niño related dynamically and emission induced changes by comparing BASE for the years 2006 and 2005 (BASE06 minus BASE05),

ii. changes of atmospheric composition due to differences in the biomass burning emissions under El Niño conditions by comparing BASE and CLIM for 2006 (BASE06 minus CLIM06),

iii. the impact of the El Niño induced dynamical changes on atmospheric composition and O_3 production by comparing CLIM for the years 2006 and 2005 (CLIM06 minus CLIM05).

3.2 Results of the C-IFS experiments

Figure ~~13~~14 shows timeseries of the tropospheric CO, O_3 and NO_2 burdens from the BASE and CLIM experiments averaged over the area between 10ºN, 10ºS, 90ºE, 130ºE. Between September and November 2006 the GFAS v1.0 fire emissions used in BASE lead to an increased CO burden, which reaches values up to 21 Tg, almost double the values seen in CLIM (around 11 Tg). In 2005 the tropospheric CO burden in both experiments is similar to the CLIM values of 2006 (around 10-12 Tg). Tropospheric O_3 burdens show a smaller increase (about 8%) in 2006 from about 7.4 Tg in CLIM to 8 Tg in BASE. The 2006 O_3 burdens in BASE are increased by about 30% relative to 2005, when the tropospheric O_3 burden is about 6 Tg in both experiments. It should be noted that the tropospheric O_3 mass shows considerable intra seasonal fluctuations. The tropospheric NO_2 burden in BASE is increased by about 20-30% compared to CLIM in September 2006 as a result of the increased fire emissions. During 2005 NO_2 burdens from BASE and CLIM are of similar magnitude.

The top panels of Figure ~~14~~15 show the overall impact of changes to the tropospheric O_3 column due to dynamically and emission driven changes, by comparing BASE06 and BASE05 for October and December. The patterns are very similar to the ones seen in the MACC reanalysis composite O_3 anomalies at 500 hPa (Figure ~~4~~5). The combined effect of dynamically induced and emission driven changes leads to an increase of TCO3 by over 50% in a large area ~~surrounding~~surrounding Indonesia and to a reduction of 10-30% over large parts of the Central Pacific. TCO3 values are also reduced by more than 30% over Brazil. TCO3 changes due to changes in the fire emissions alone (middle panels of Figure ~~14~~15) can only explain part of the observed O_3 increase over Indonesia (which is consistent with the small differences between BASE and CLIM seen in Figure ~~13~~14 for Sptember to November 2006) and a small decrease over Brazil, and can not explain the reduction of O_3 over the Pacific. The dynamically induced changes in October (Figure ~~14~~15, bottom left) show a similar pattern to the overall differences between El Niño and normal conditions. This illustrates that while emission driven changes can explain about half of the total TCO3 changes in a small area surrounding Indonesia, the TCO3 increase outside this region and the negative O_3 anomaly over the Pacific is unrelated to changes in the fire emissions. This is also confirmed by the December plots, when no fire related anomaly is seen any more (Figure ~~14~~15, middle right). The dynamically driven O_3 anomalies persist into December and can explain most of the TCO3 anomaly (Figure ~~14~~15, bottom right).

Over Indonesia the O_3 maxima are now located around 10ºN and 10ºS, and over the Pacific they are slightly smaller scale than in October.

The importance of the dynamically driven ozone changes was also highlighted by Lin et al. (2014 and 2015). Despite large El Nino enhancements to wildfire activity in equatorial Asia, the model sensitivity experiments in Lin et al. (2014) indicated that wildfire emissions are not the main driver of ENSO-related ozone variability observed at Mauna Loa, Hawaii. The dynamically induced eastward extension and equatorward shift of the subtropical jet stream during El Nino plays a key role on observed interannual variability of springtime lower tropospheric ozone at Mauna Loa. These shifts enhance long range transport of Asian ozone and CO pollution towards the eastern North Pacific in winter and spring during El Nino. Lin et al. (2015) demonstrated a connection between springtime western US ozone air quality and jet characteristics associated with strong La Nina winters. They showed more frequent late spring deep stratospheric ozone intrusions when the polar jet stream meanders southward over the western United States as occurs following strong La Nina winters.

The TCO3 changes seen in the bottom panel of Figure ~~14~~15 are anti-correlated with changes in specific humidity (Figure ~~15~~16, top panels) pointing to an enhanced O_3 lifetime over Indonesia due to reduced humidity and hence OH concentrations. Furthermore, there is enhanced ascent over the Central Pacific and enhanced descent over Indonesia (Figure ~~15~~16, bottom panels) so that increased upward transport of clean O_3 poor air over the Pacific and increased downward transport from the upper troposphere/stratosphere in the Indonesian region will also affect the tropospheric O_3 columns. In October the peak in specific humidity is located south of the ozone enhancement. This agrees with Nassar et al. (2009) who showed that the equatorial component of the October ozone anomaly was related to fire emissions, while the southern component of the ozone anomaly was due to other factors. It should be noted that the positive specific humidity anomalies over the Arabian peninsula and over Australia in October do not correspond to decreased ozone values, while the ones over southern Africa, South America and the Central Pacific do. The reason for this is that relative anomalies are shown and that the absolute humidity values over the Arabian peninsula and Australia are much lower than in the other areas, so that the absolute humidity changes between 2006 and 2005 are actually relatively small. This all suggests that the correlation of O_3 to specific humidity is strongest in tropical regions with large variability in water vapour, combined with low NOx conditions.

Figure ~~16~~17 shows that the TCCO anomalies over Indonesia are almost entirely emission driven, in contrast to the TCO3 anomalies seen in Figure ~~14~~15. Using GFAS v1.0 emissions rather than climatological GFAS emissions can explain most of the TCCO anomaly over Indonesia in October, apart from two small positive dynamically induced anomalies to the east and west of the maritime continent. By December, after the end of the fire season in Indonesia, the TCCO anomalies have almost gone.

As for CO, the NO_2 and smoke aerosol anomalies are entirely emission driven (not shown). For both these fields, no anomalies are seen when comparing CLIM06 and CLIM05, and the anomalies seen when comparing BASE06 and BASE05 are gone by December. It is possible that we would also see some dynamically induced changes in the smoke aerosols if aerosols were interactive with the radiation scheme in the model runs. However, without this feedback the smoke aerosol anomalies are entirely emission driven.

Figure ~~17~~18 shows O_3-CO correlations for October 2005 and 2006 from the BASE and CLIM experiments. We focus only on October as the month with the largest anomaly in the fire emissions. Such correlations have been used in several studies (e.g., Kim et al., 2013, Voulgarakis et al., 2011 and references therein) going back to Fishman and Seiler (1983) to identify regions of photochemically produced O_3 (positive correlations) and O_3 from other sources (e.g. downward transport from stratosphere) as well as O_3 loss due to chemistry or deposition (negative correlations). In 2005, free tropospheric O_3-CO correlations (Figure ~~17~~18 a and c) show a similar distribution across the Maritime Continent with relatively weak ($r < 0.7$) negative correlations extending from the Indian Ocean south of Indonesia to East and West Malaysia and the Philippines, and positive correlations over northern and eastern Indonesia. Slight differences in the distribution of the O_3-CO correlations between Figure ~~17~~18 (a) and (c) reflect differences in the fire emissions between the BASE and CLIM experiments. Larger differences are seen in the distribution of free tropospheric O_3-CO correlations between BASE and CLIM for the El Nino year of 2006 (Figure ~~17~~18 b and d). The increased fire activity in 2006 (Figures 4 and ~~12~~13) gives rise to larger positive ($r > 0.7$) O_3-CO correlations extending across most of Indonesia and Malaysia in the BASE experiment (Figure ~~17b~~18b) and reflect enhanced O_3 photochemistry associated with increased emissions of O_3 precursors from the fires. This agrees well with the area of increased O_3 concentrations due to fires seen in Figure 16 when comparing BASE06 and CLIM06. In contrast, O_3-CO correlations in the CLIM experiment (Figure ~~17d~~18d) are generally negative over much of Indonesia and Malaysia and

reflect the influence of transport across the region and the lack of enhanced O_3 production when the climatological fire emissions are used.

4 Conclusions and outlook

In this paper O_3, CO, NO_2 and smoke aerosol fields from the MACC reanalysis (Inness et al., 2013) were used to identify the ENSO signal in tropical atmospheric composition fields, concentrating on the months September to December. The MACC atmospheric composition fields show a clear ENSO related anomaly signal with increased O_3, CO, NO_2 and smoke aerosols over the Maritime Continent during El Niño years. O_3 also shows larger scale changes with decreased tropospheric columns over the Central and Eastern Pacific and increased columns over the Western Pacific and the Maritime continent that continue after the end of the Indonesian fire season.

Two simulations were carried out with the C-IFS model to quantify to what exent the ENSO signal seen in the atmospheric composition fields was due to changes in the biomass burning emissions or due to dynamically induced changes, e.g. related to changes in the vertical transport of O_3 from the lower troposphere and the stratosphere, and to changes of the photolysis of O_3 due to changes to OH. While the CO, NO_2 and smoke aerosol changes were almost entirely driven by changes in biomass burning emissions due to increased wild fires over the Maritime Continent during El Niño related drought conditions, changes in tropospheric O_3 were largely dynamically induced and only to a small part driven by changes in the emissions. The emission driven O_3 changes were confined to the area surrounding Indonesia, where enhanced photochemical O_3 production occurs under El Niño conditions because of increased biomass burning activities, while the larger-scale O_3 anomalies were dynamically induced.

~~Comapring~~Comparing simulations with daily GFAS v1.0 emissions for the years 2005 and 2006 and a daily GFAS v1.0 climatology of the period 2000 to 2014 showed that tropospheric CO was almost doubled in Sptember 2006 relative to September 2005 due to increased fire emissions, NO_2 was increased by 20-30 % and O_3 by about 8%. For tropospheric O_3, dynamically induced changes dominated the differences between 2006 and 2005. The fire induced O_3 anomaly was smaller in magnitude and horizontal extent than the dynamically induced changes which ~~affeced~~affected much of the Tropics. In 2006, tropospheric O_3 was increased by more than 50% over the Maritime Continent and Indian Ocean compared to 2005,

and decreased by between 20-30 % over large parts of the Tropical Pacific when the same climatological fire emissions were used in both years. Only in a small area over Indonesia was the O_3 increase due to fires of similar magnitude to the dynamically induced changes. A future study will look in more detail at the chemistry budgets and chemical processes that cause the changes in the atmospheric composition fields.

The results from this paper show that the MACC system is able to ~~successfully~~ model ~~the ENSO signal~~changes in atmospheric composition fields found under El Niño and La Niña conditions.After a more thorough validation of the MACC atmospheric fields against observations, it could ~~therefore~~ be ~~used in further studies~~interesting to investigate the ocean-atmosphere response to ENSO induced changes in atmospheric composition in a further study. A first step would be to include the aerosol direct and indirect effects through the cloud microphysics in the radiation scheme of the IFS and to look at the feedback of fire-induced aerosols on climate. We would expect a positive feedback, i.e. reduced convection due to increased atmospheric stability, as carbonaceous aerosols usually absorb (and thus re-emit) a significant amount of solar radiation in the mid troposphere, and increased aerosol concentrations also lead to reduced land and sea surface temperatures. Their presence should therefore act to reduce convection and precipitation over the Maritime Continent. Including the aerosols in the radiation scheme will also affect the chemical fields through changes in the UV radiation and hence photolysis rates. A second step could see the coupling of the chemistry and aerosol fields by including heterogeneous chemistry on aerosols. In a final step it can be envisaged to fully couple the MACC system with ECMWF's ocean model to investigate how the forcing from ENSO induced changes to atmospheric composition fields can feedback on the ENSO dynamics.

MACC atmospheric composition data are freely available from www.copernicus-atmosphere.eu.

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5 Tables

Table 1: Biomass burning emissions in Tg per month for CO, NOx, and the smoke aerosols (sum of organic matter and black carbon) from GFAS v1.0 for the region 10ºN - 10ºS, 90ºE - 130ºE averaged over the El Niño years (2004, 2006, 2009) and the La Niña years (2005, 2007, 2008, 2010, 2011), as well as the ratio of the El Niño/ La Niña values.

	CO Oct	**CO Nov**	**CO Dec**	**NOx Oct**	**NOx Nov**	**NOx Dec**	**OM+BC Oct**	**OM+BC Nov**	**OM+BC Dec**
El Niño	13.9	3.0	$2.4\ 10^{-1}$	$8.4\ 10^{-2}$	$1.9\ 10^{-2}$	$2.8\ 10^{-3}$	$6.3\ 10^{-1}$	$1.4\ 10^{-1}$	$1.3\ 10^{-2}$
La Niña	1.5	$2.5\ 10^{-1}$	$1.4\ 10^{-1}$	$1.4\ 10^{-2}$	$3.0\ 10^{-3}$	$1.5\ 10^{-3}$	$7.3\ 10^{-2}$	$1.4\ 10^{-2}$	$7.3\ 10^{-3}$
El Niño/ La Niña	9.5	11.8	1.7	6.1	6.3	1.9	8.6	10.0	1.8

6 Figures

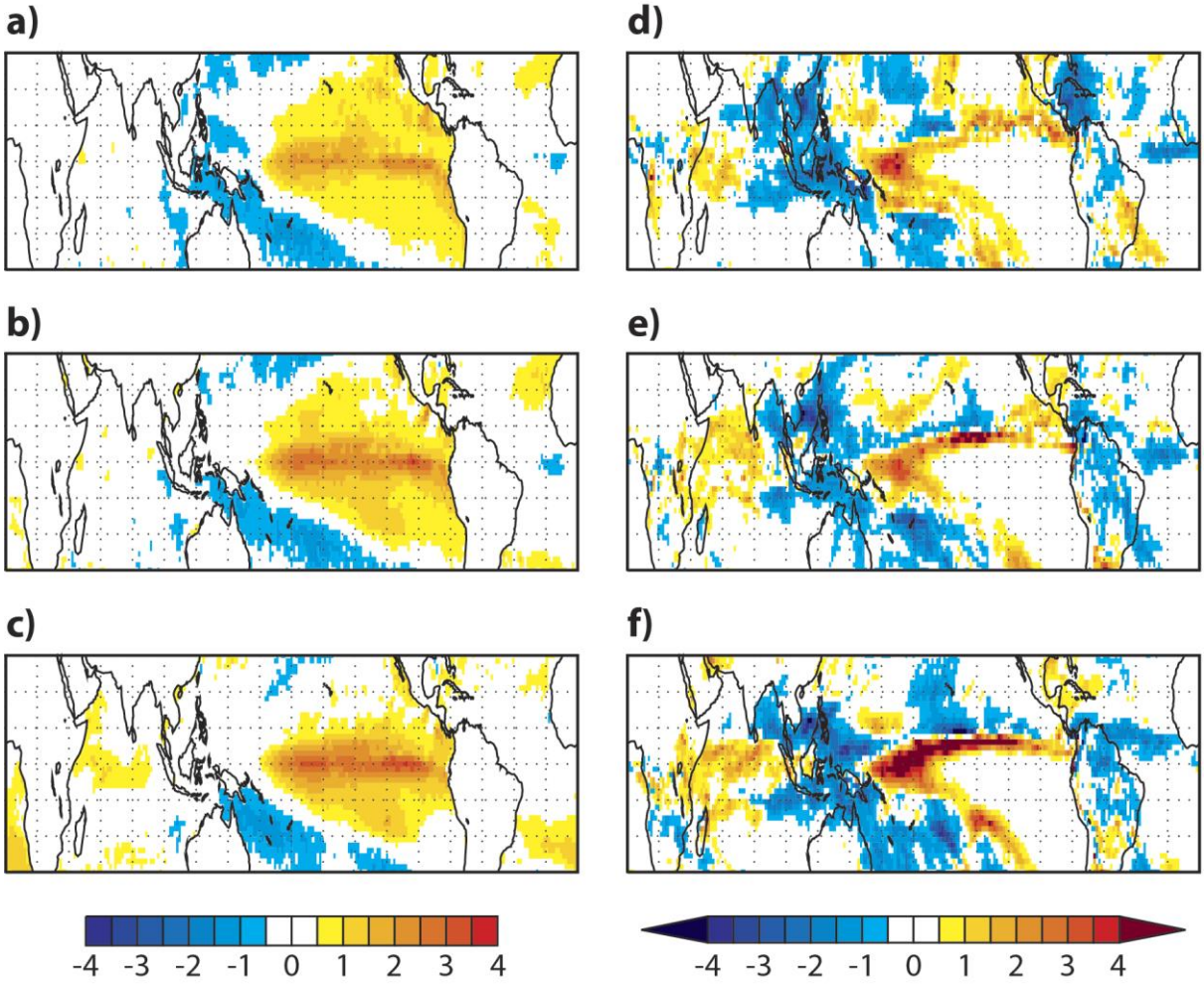
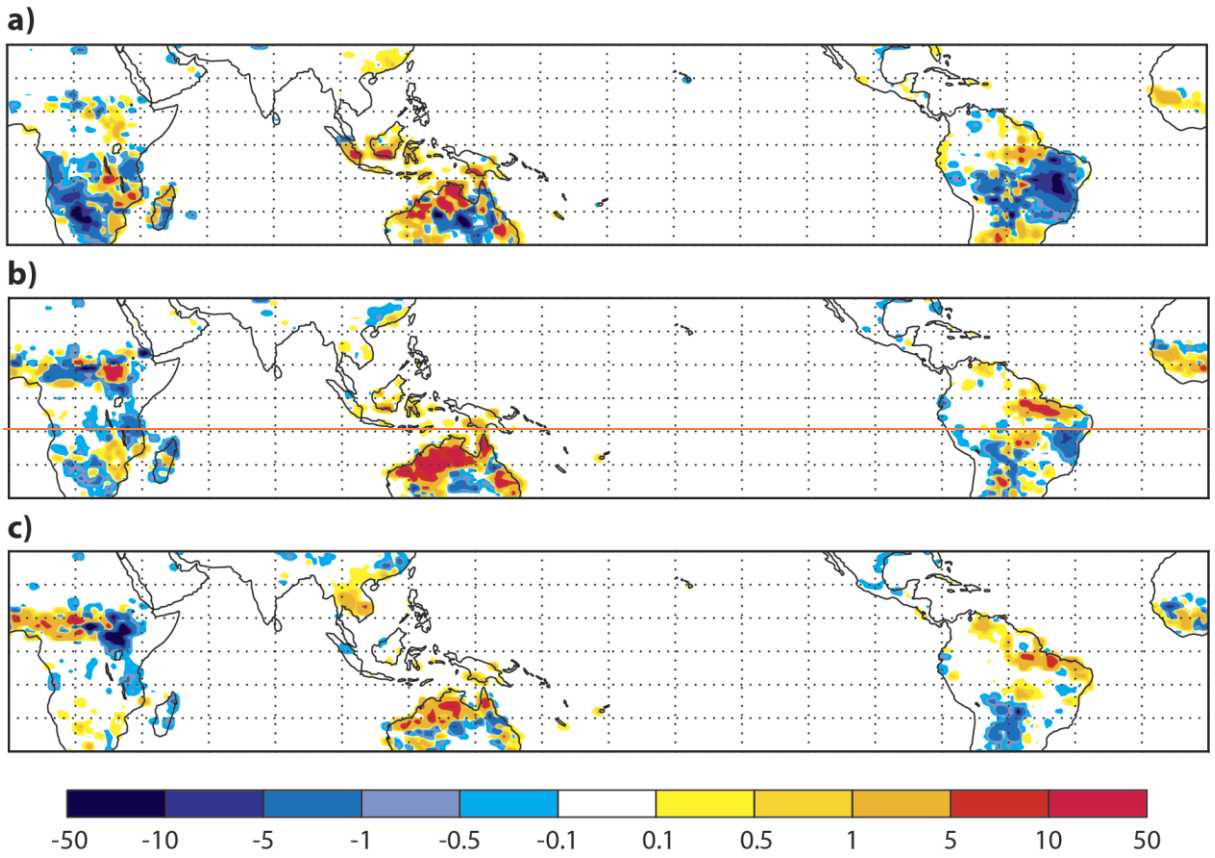


Figure 1: Left panels: SST anomaly in K calculated from ERA Interim as the difference of El Niño composite minus La Niña composite for October (a), November (b) and December (c). Right panels: Precipitation anomaly in mm/day calculated from ERA Interim as the difference of El Niño composite minus La Niña composite for October (d), November (e) and December (f). Red colours indicate positive values, blue colours negative values.



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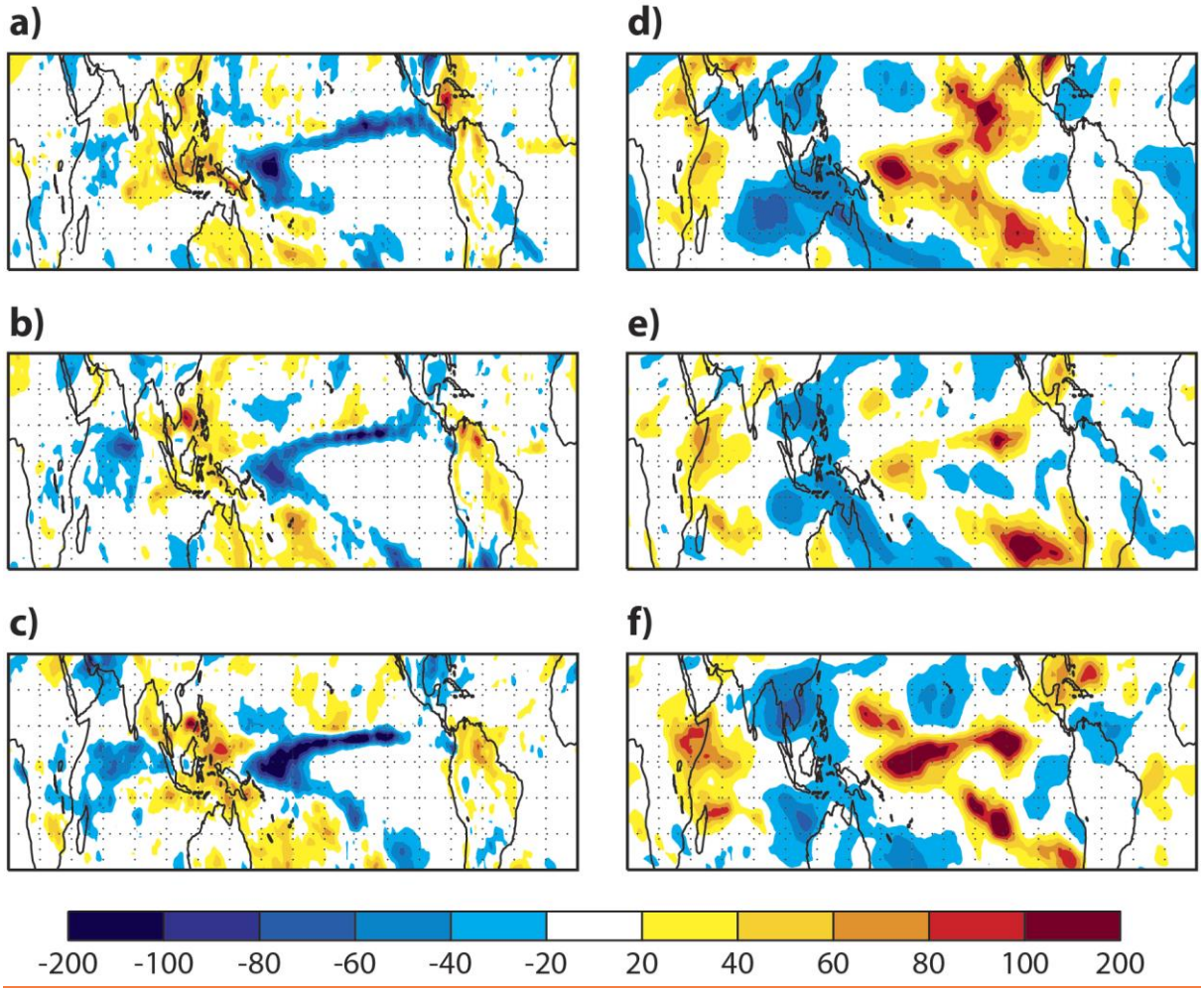


Figure 2: Left panels: Anomaly of vertical velocity at 500 hPa in mm/s calculated from the MACC reanalysis as the difference of El Niño composite minus La Niña composite for October (a), November (b) and December (c). Blue colours show increased ascent, red colours increased descent. Right panels: Specific humidity anomaly at 500 hPa in % calculated from the MACC reanalysis as the difference of El Niño composite minus La Niña composite for October (d), November (e) and December (f). Blue colours show reduced specific humidity, red colours increased values.

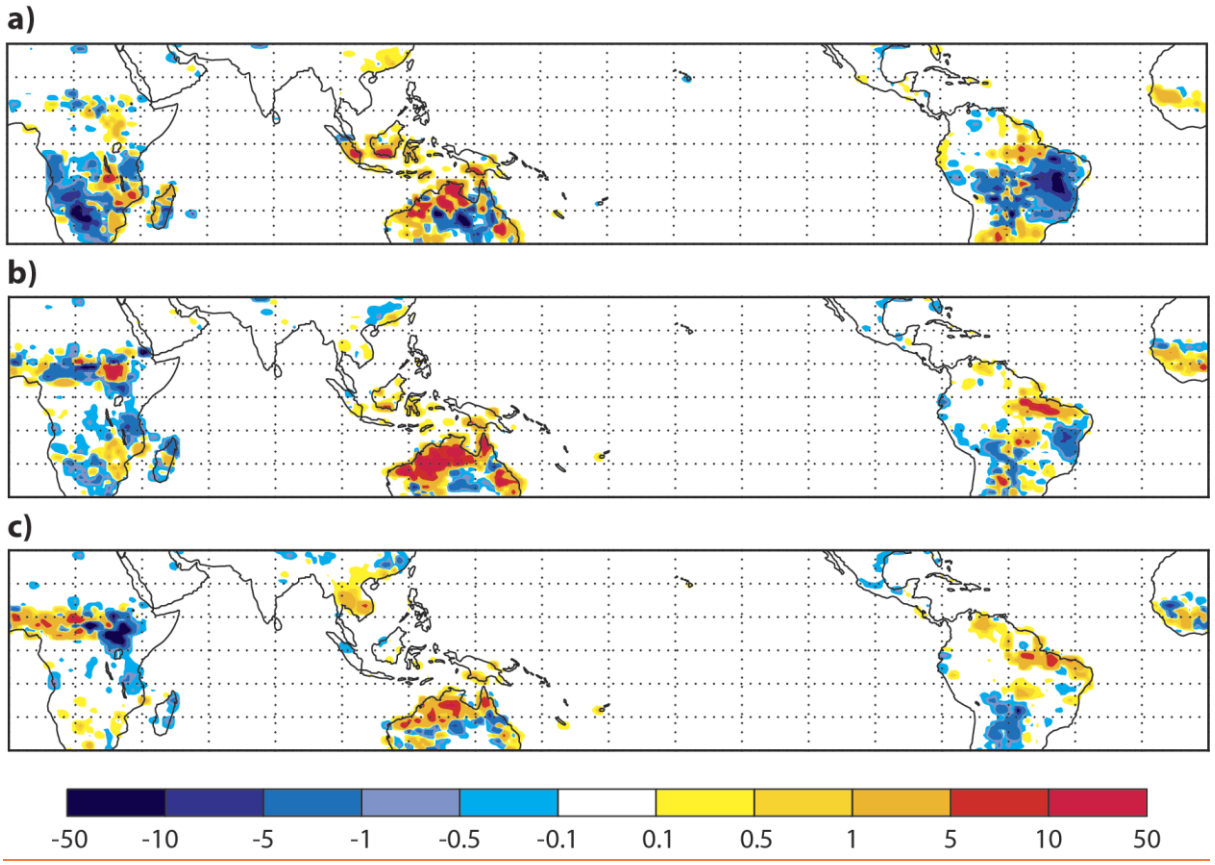


Figure 3: Biomass burning (fire ratiative power areal density) anomaly in mW/m^2 calculated from the GFAS v1.0 dataset as the difference of El Niño composite minus La Niña composite for October (a), November (b) and December (c). Red colours indicate positive values, blue colours negative values.

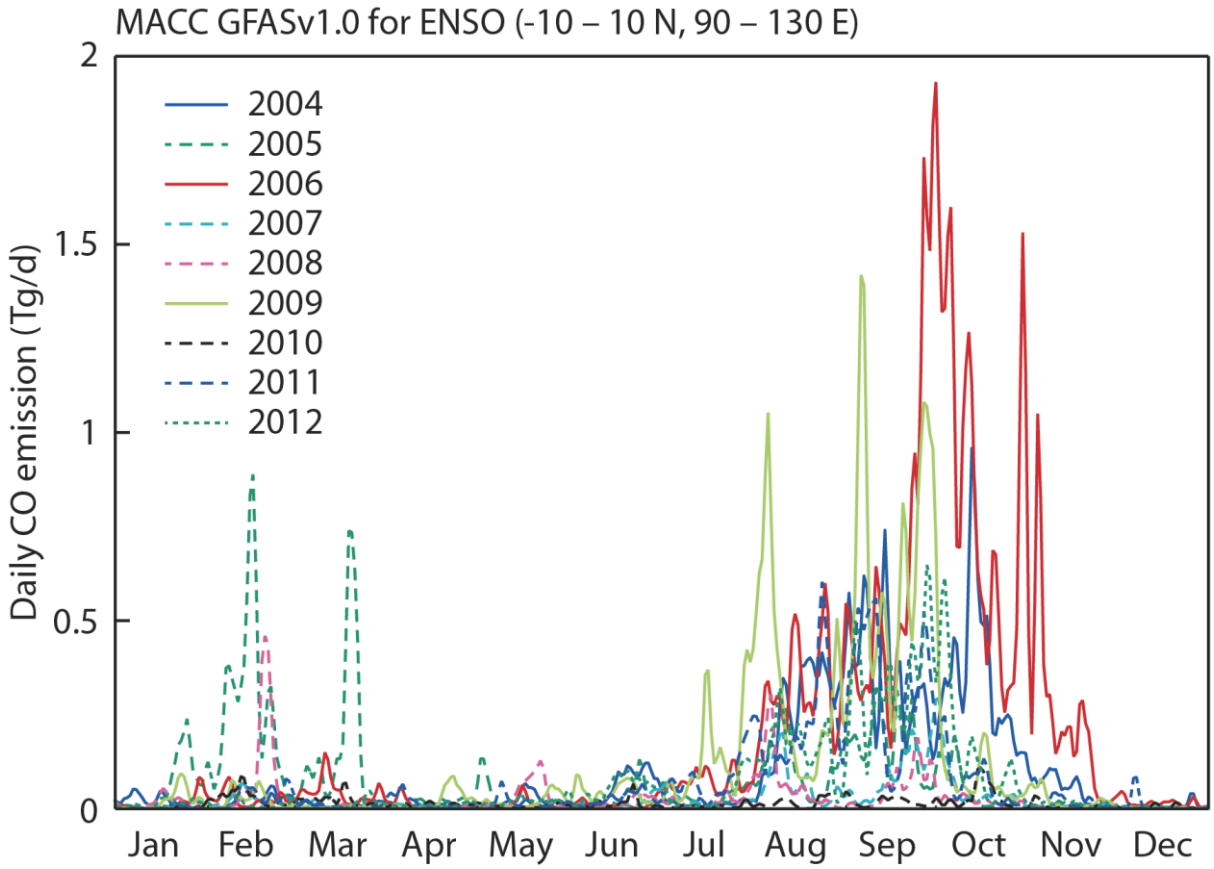


Figure ~~34~~: Timeseries of daily CO emissions in Tg (10^{12}g) per day from GFASv1.0 for the region 10ºN - 10ºS, 90ºE - 130ºE for the years 2003 to 2012.

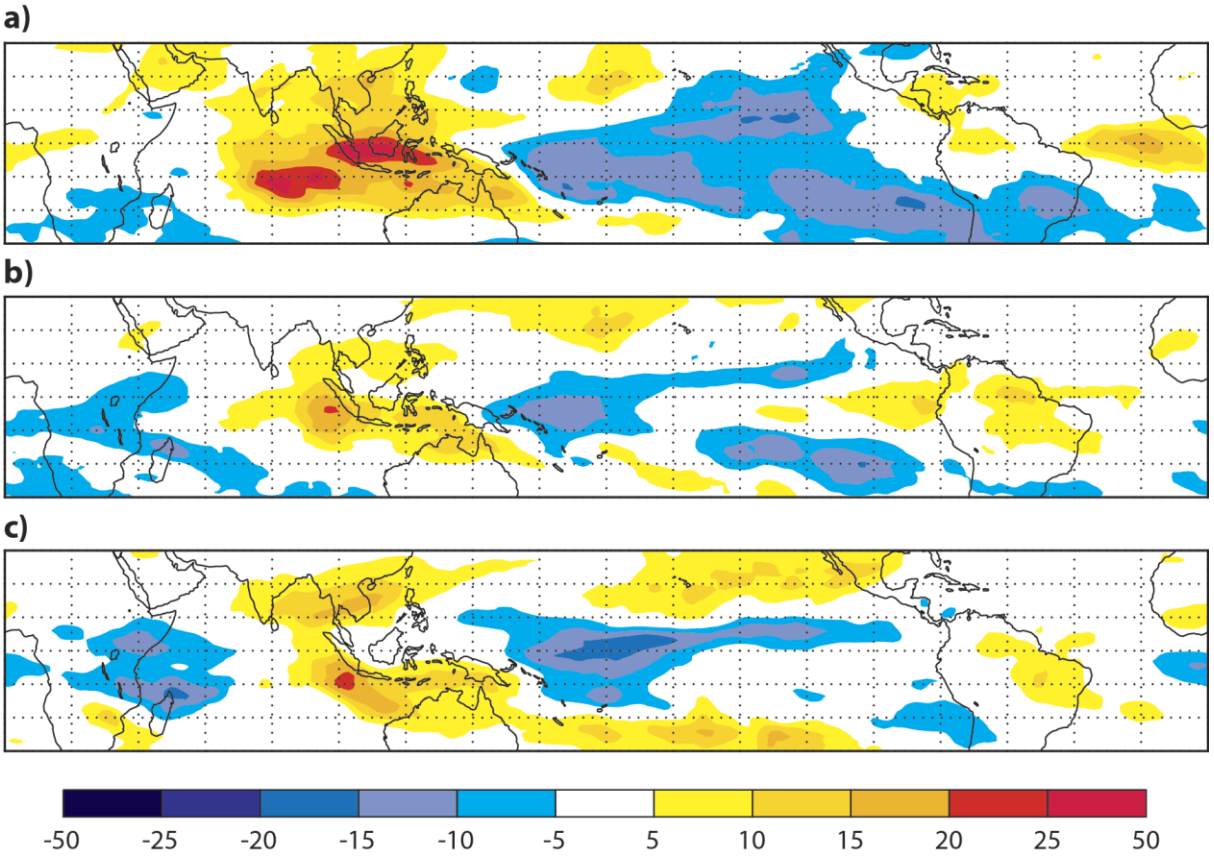


Figure 45: O_3 anomaly at 500 hPa in ppb calculated from the MACC reanalysis as the difference of El Niño composite minus La Niña composite for October (a), November (b) and December (c). Red colours indicate positive values, blue colours negative values.

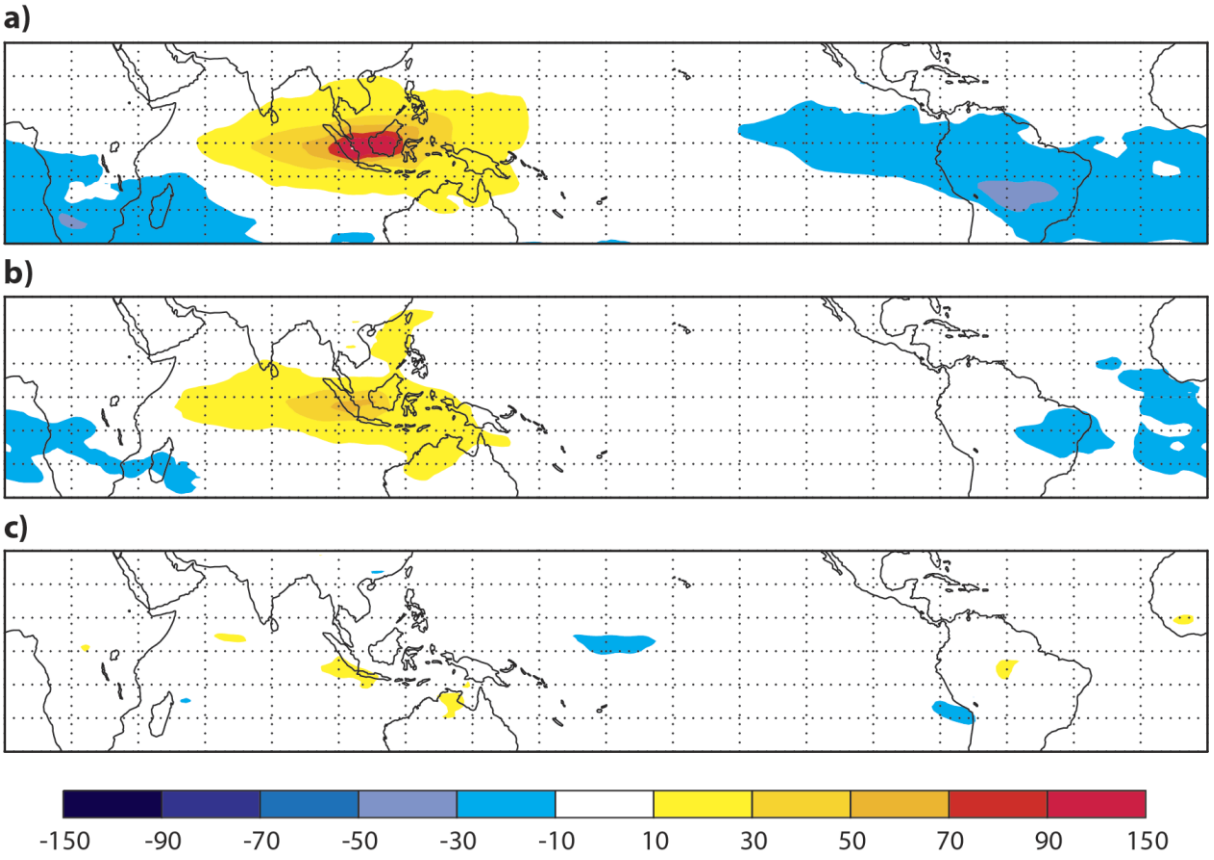


Figure 6: Like Figure 5~~: Like Figure 4~~ but for CO anomaly at 500 hPa in ppb.

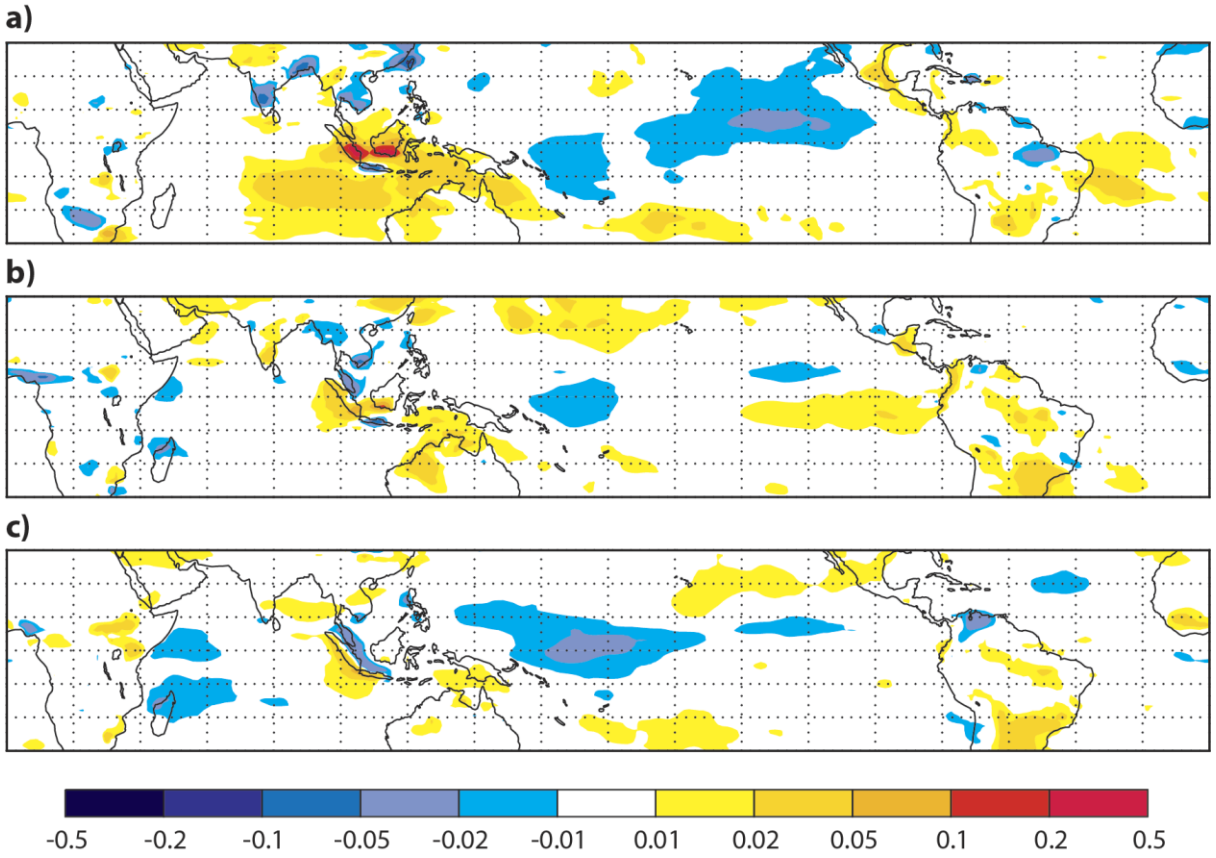


Figure ~~6~~7: Like Figure ~~4~~5 but for NOx anomaly in ppb.

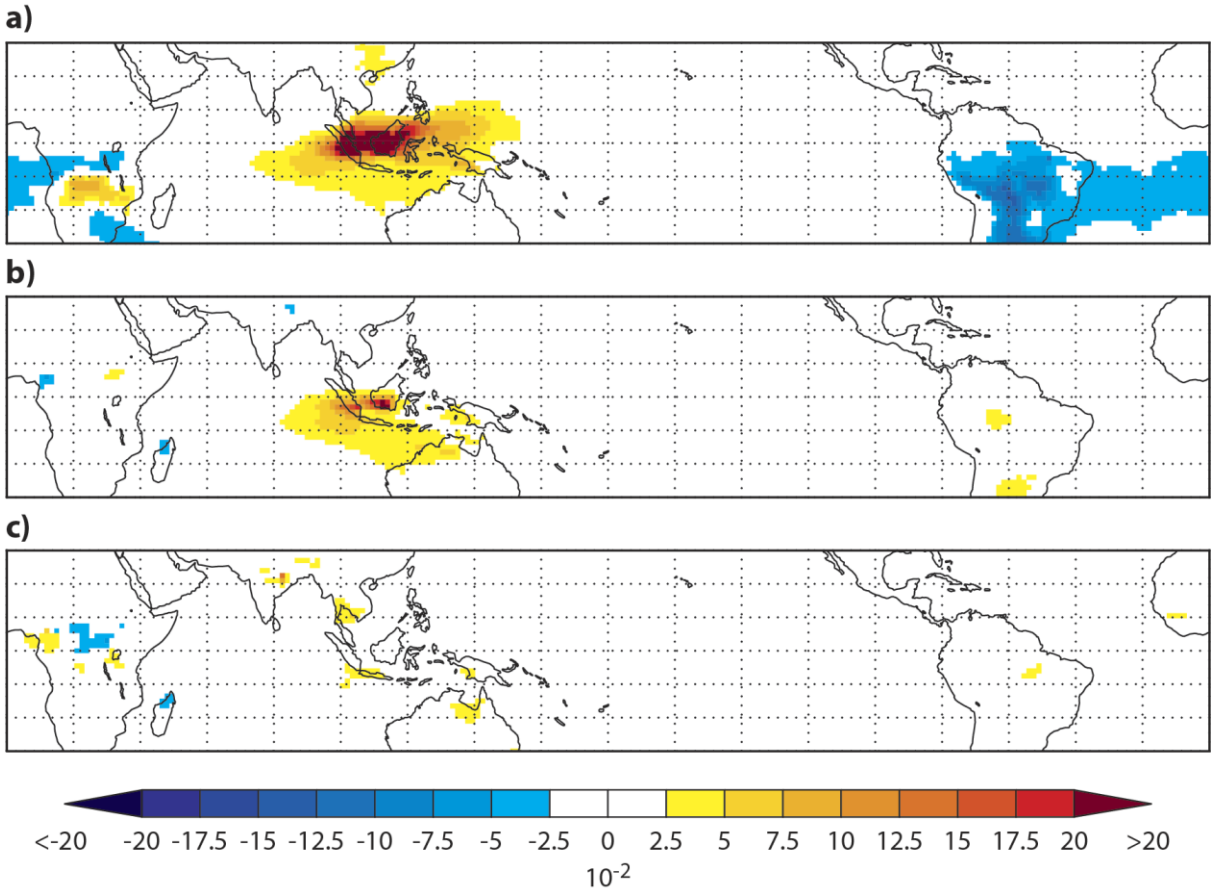


Figure ~~7~~8: Like Figure ~~4~~5 but for smoke AOD (BC+OM). AOD is unitless.

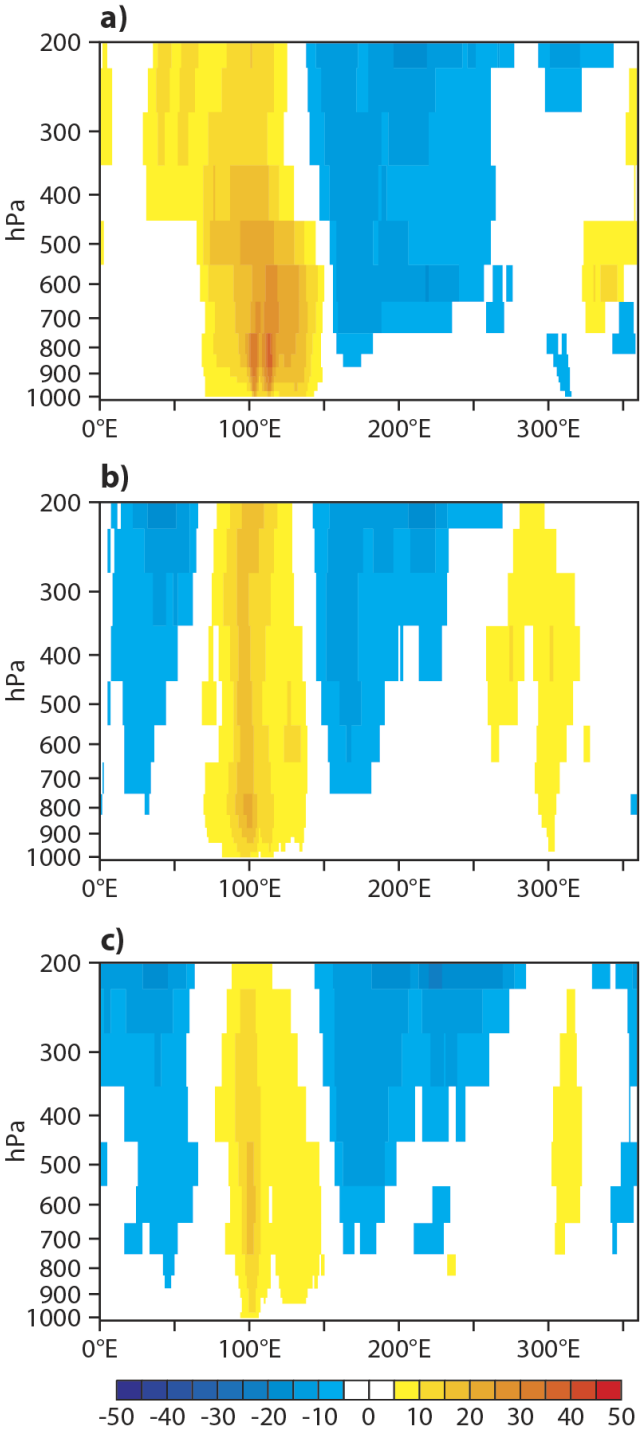


Figure ~~8~~9: Vertical cross section of O_3 anomalies in ppb plotted against longitude and averaged between 0º and 12ºS calculated from the MACC reanalysis as the difference of El Niño composite minus La Niña composite for October (a), November (b) and December (c). Red colours indicate positive values, blue colours negative values.

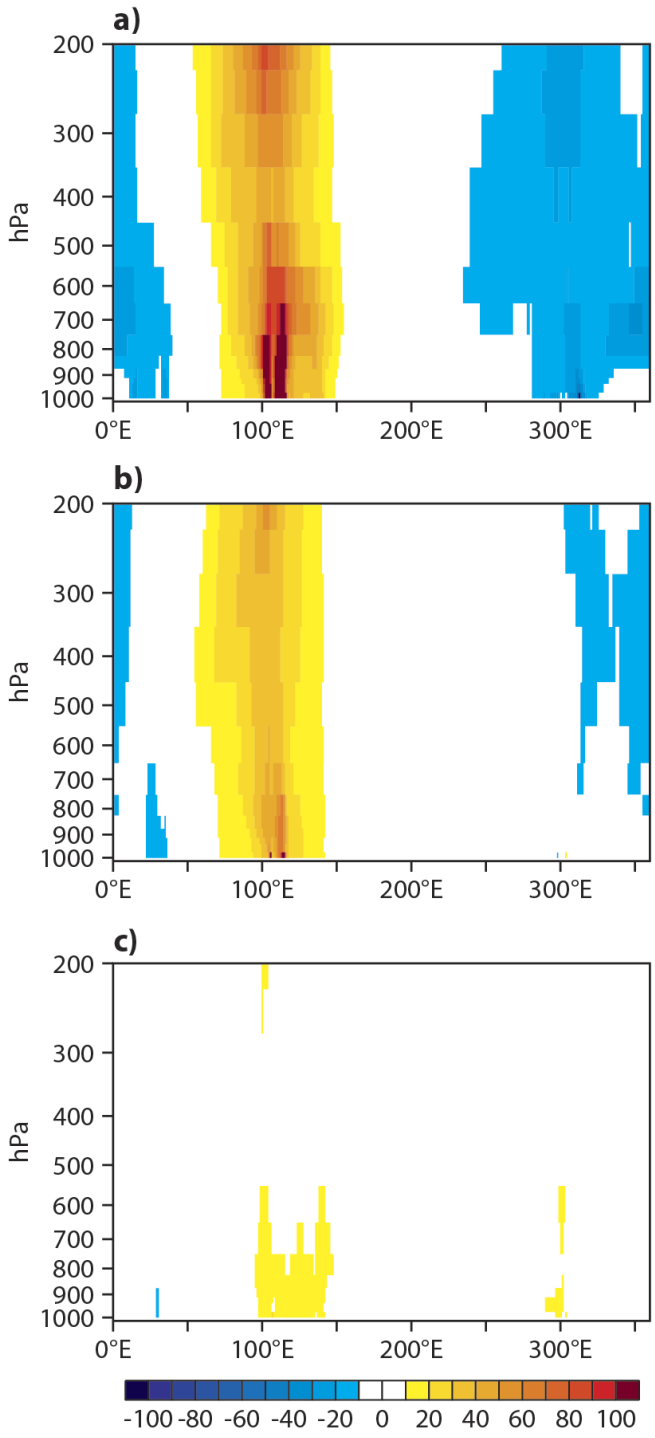


Figure 9: Like Figure 8 but for CO in ppb.

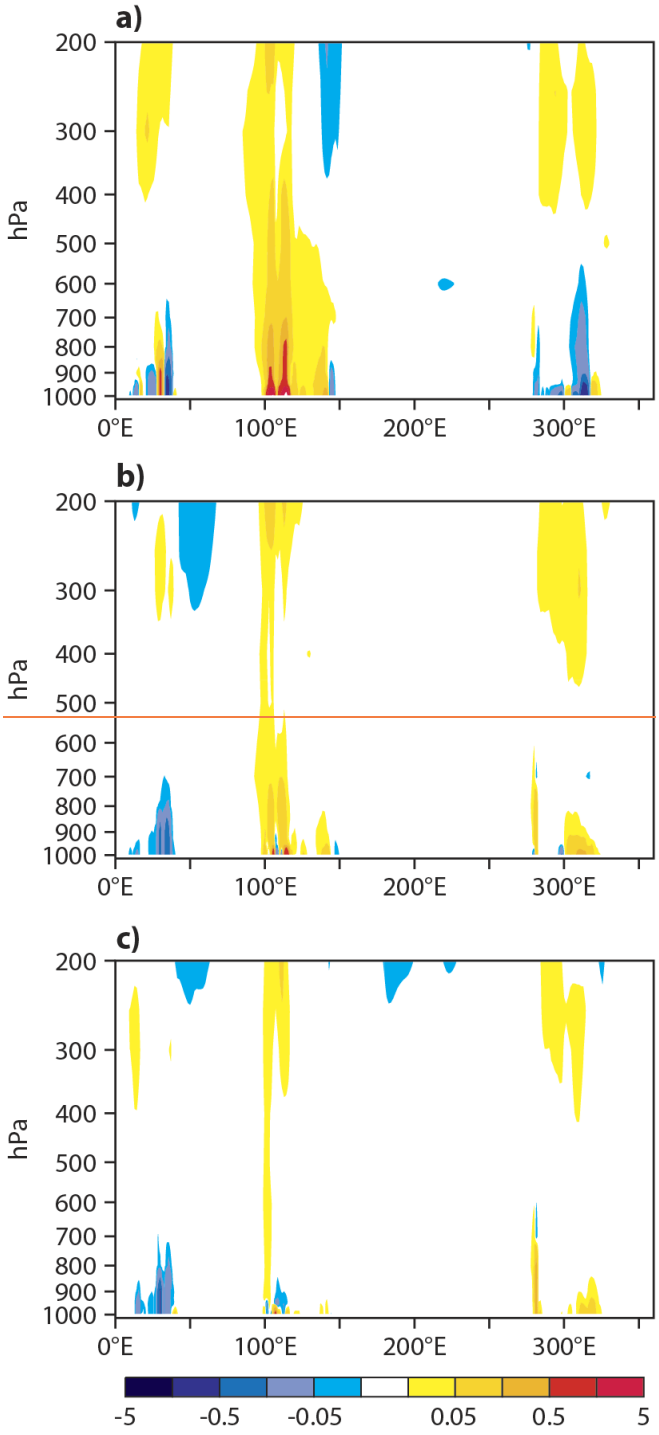
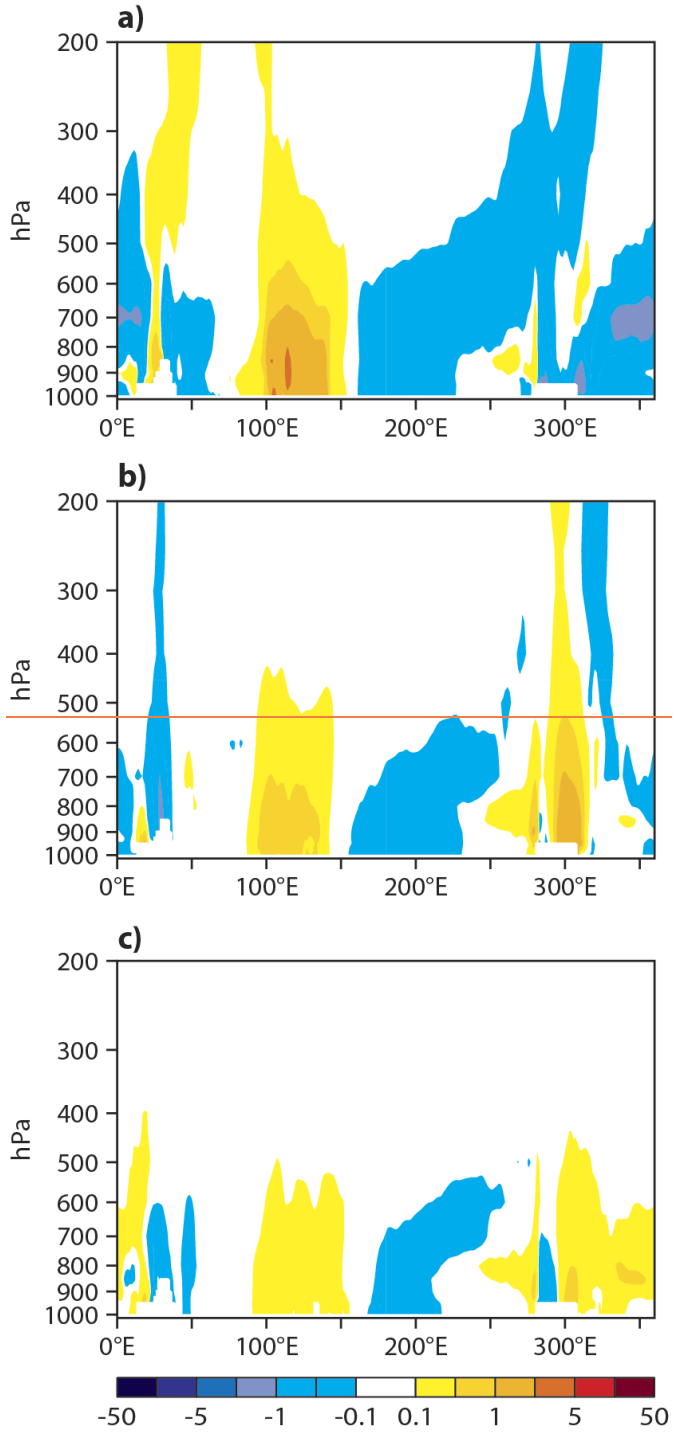


Figure 10: Like Figure ~~8~~9 but for ~~NOx~~CO in ppb.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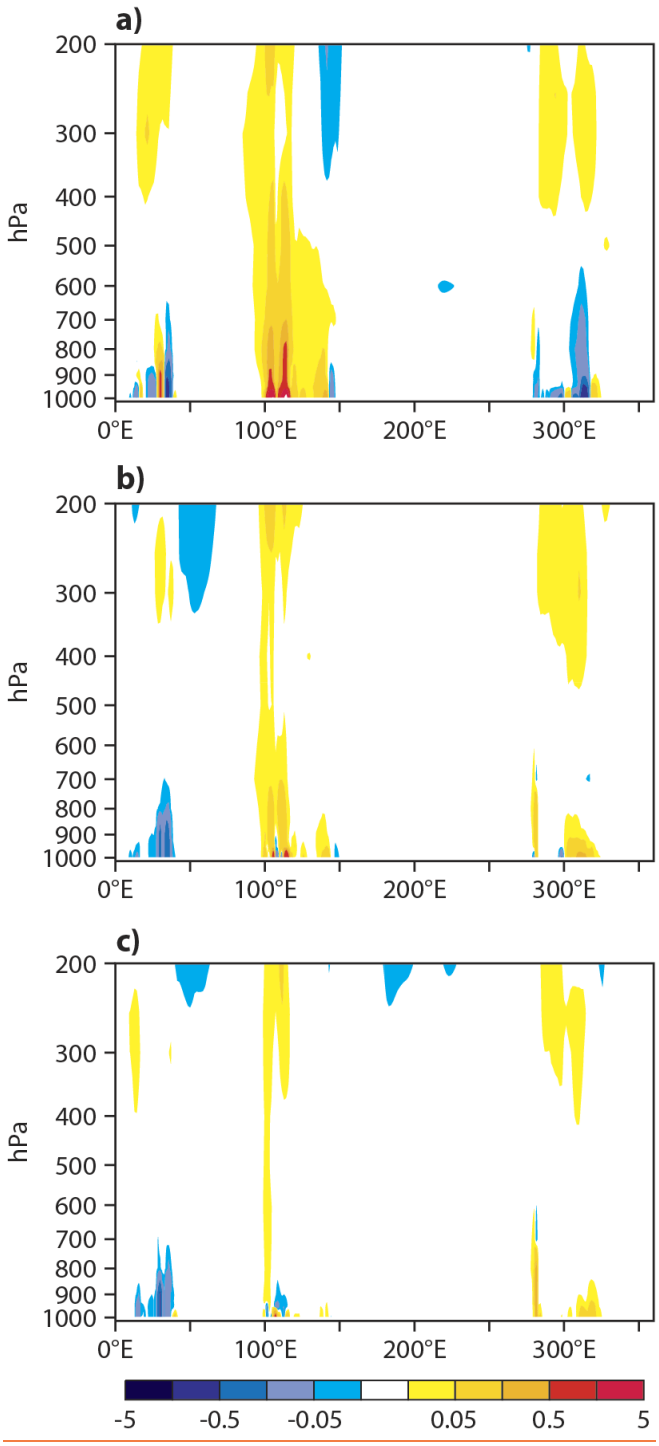


Figure 11: Like Figure ~~8~~9 but for NOx in ppb.

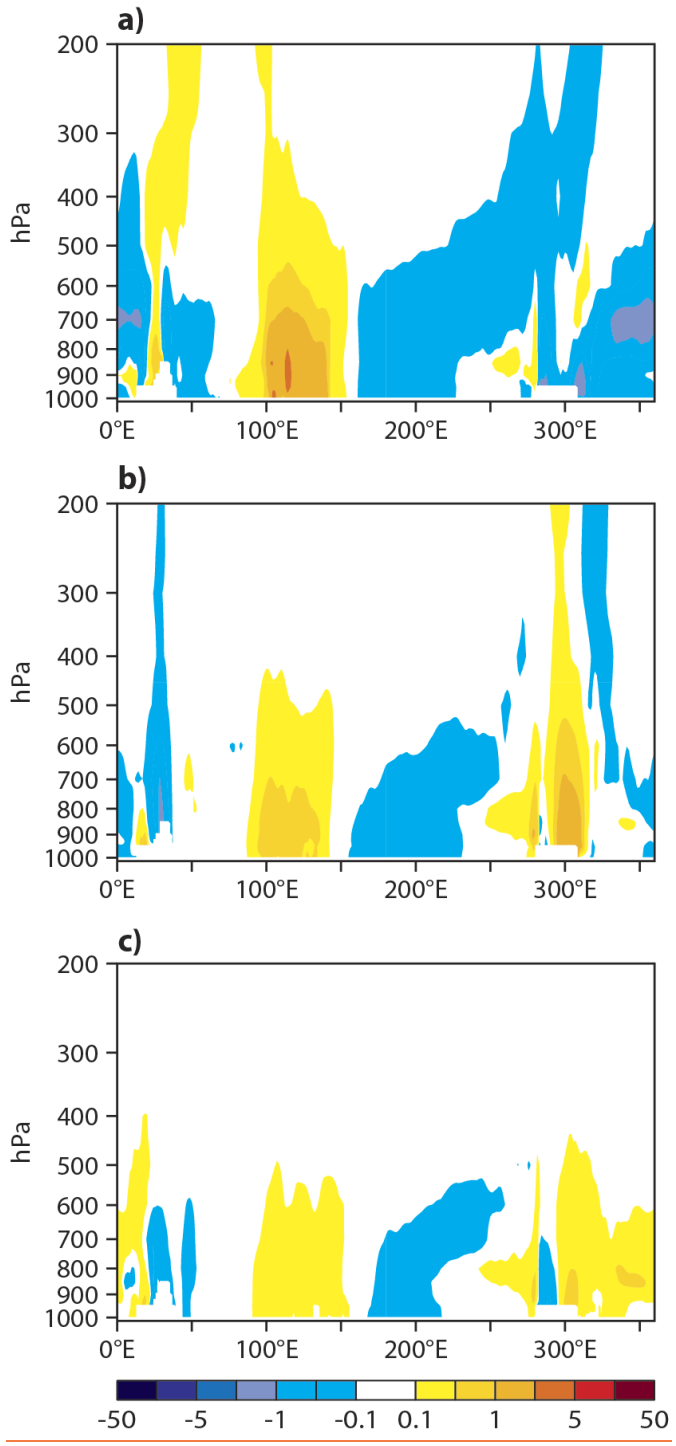


Figure 12: Like Figure 9 but for smoke aerosol in ppb.

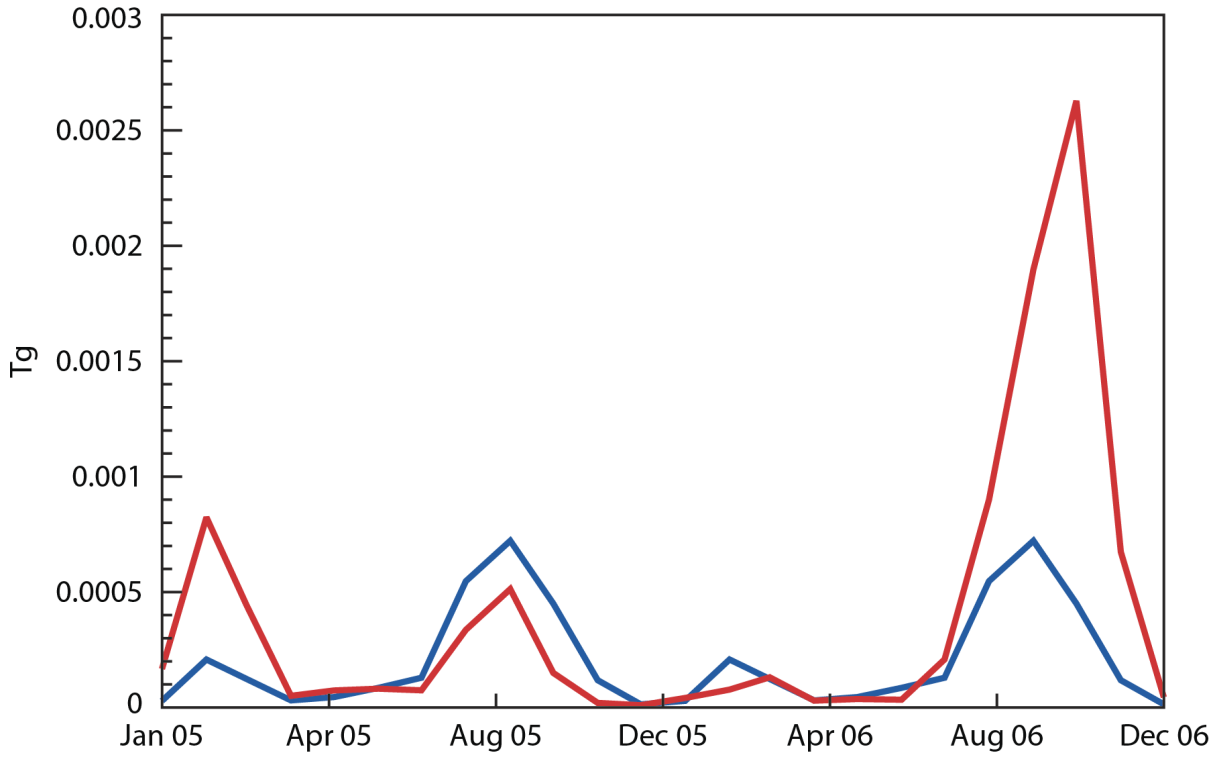


Figure ~~12~~13: Timeseries of CO biomass burning emissions in Tg averaged over the region between 10ºN, 10ºS, 90ºE, 130ºE from GFAS v1.0 (red) and climatological GFAS v1.0 data set (blue.)

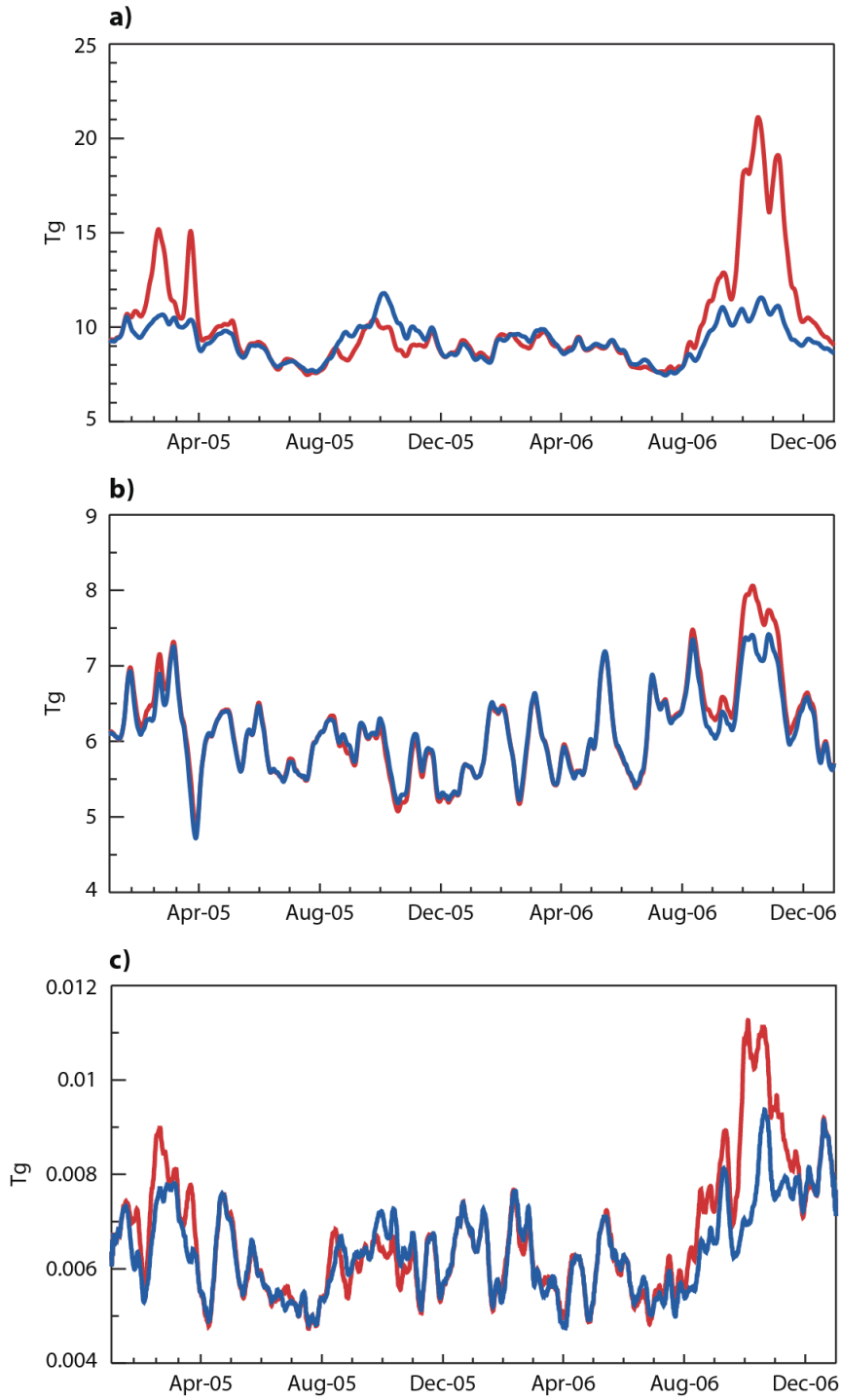


Figure ~~13~~14: Timeseries of the tropspheric CO (a), O_3 (b), NO_2 (c) burden in Tg from BASE (red) and CLIM (blue) for 2005 and 2006 averaged over the area between 10ºN, 10ºS, 90ºE, 130ºE.

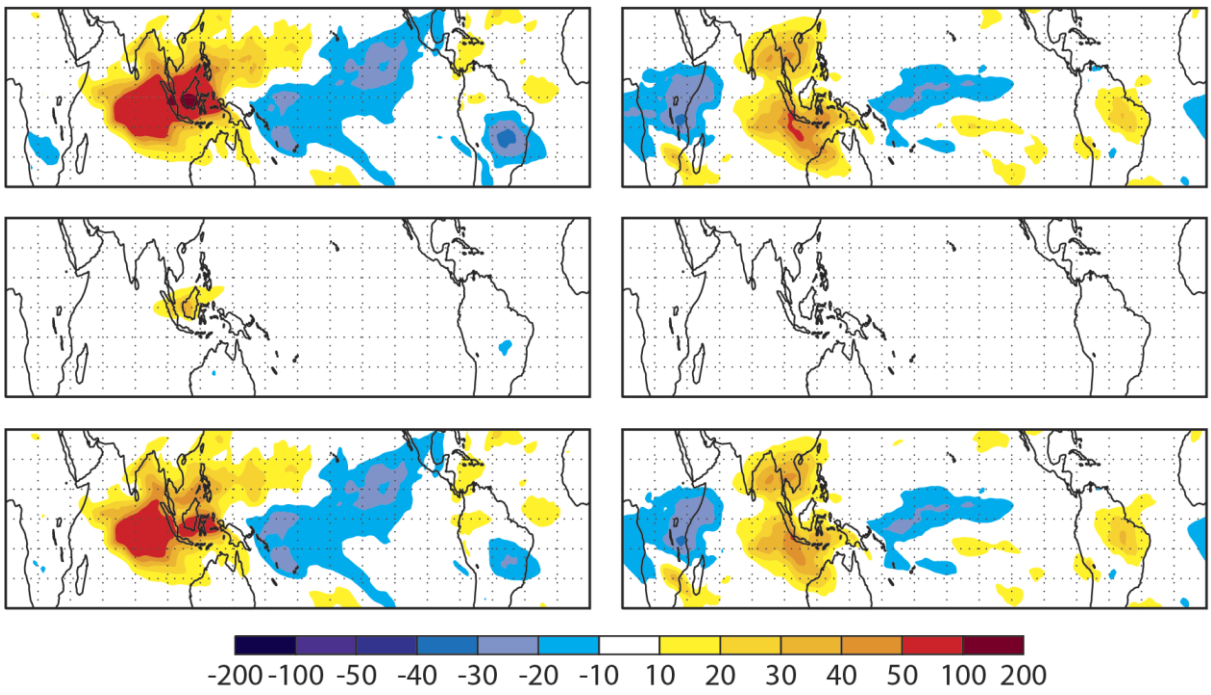


Figure ~~14~~15: TCO3 differences in % for October (left) and December (right) from the experiments BASE06 - BASE05 (top), BASE06 - CLIM06 (middle) and CLIM06 - CLIM05 (bottom). The top panels show the overall differences of TCO3 due to the combined effects of El Niño related dynamical changes and changes in the fires emissions between El Niño and normal conditions. The middle panels show the impact of changes to the fire emissions under El Niño conditions, and the bottom panels show the impact of the El Niño induced dynamical changes on TCO3 when climatological fire emissions are used for both years. Red colours indicate positive values, blue colours negative values.

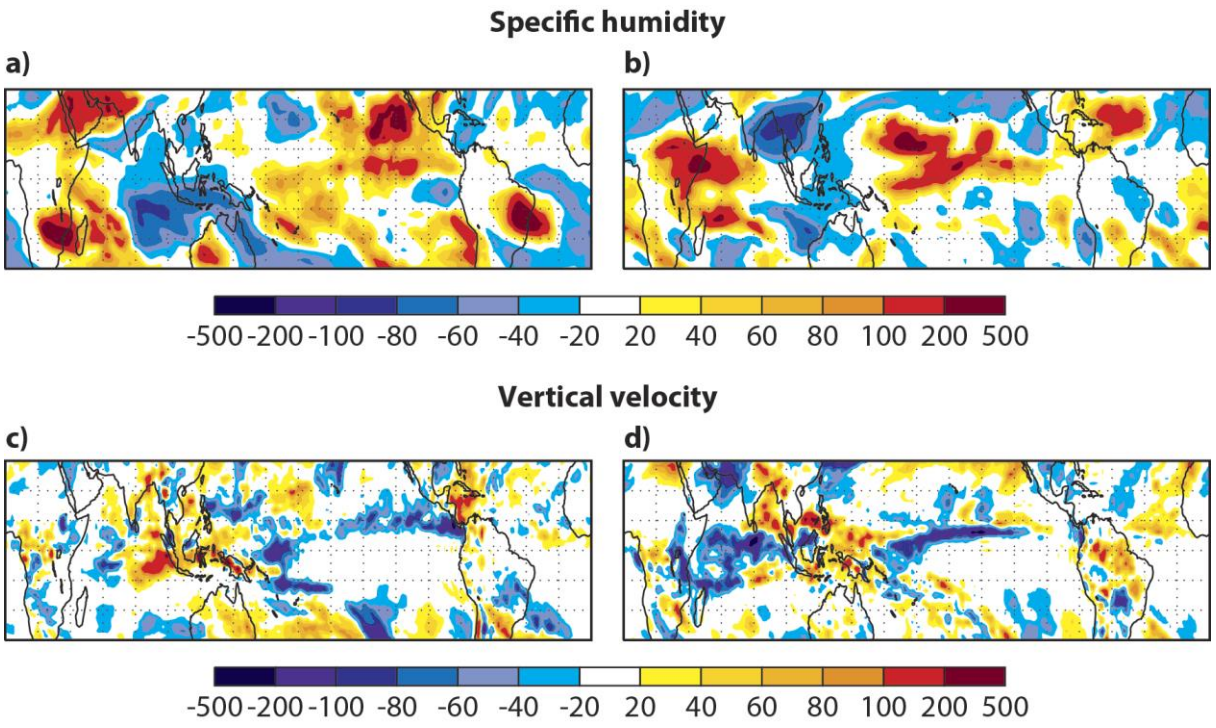


Figure ~~15~~16: Top panels: Specific humidity differences at 500 hPa in % for October (a) and December (b) from the experiments BASE06 minus BASE05. Blue colours show reduced specific humidity, red colours increased values. Bottom panels: Differences of vertical velocity in mm/s for October (c) and December (d) from the experiments BASE06 minus BASE05. Blue colours show increased ascent, red colours increased descent.

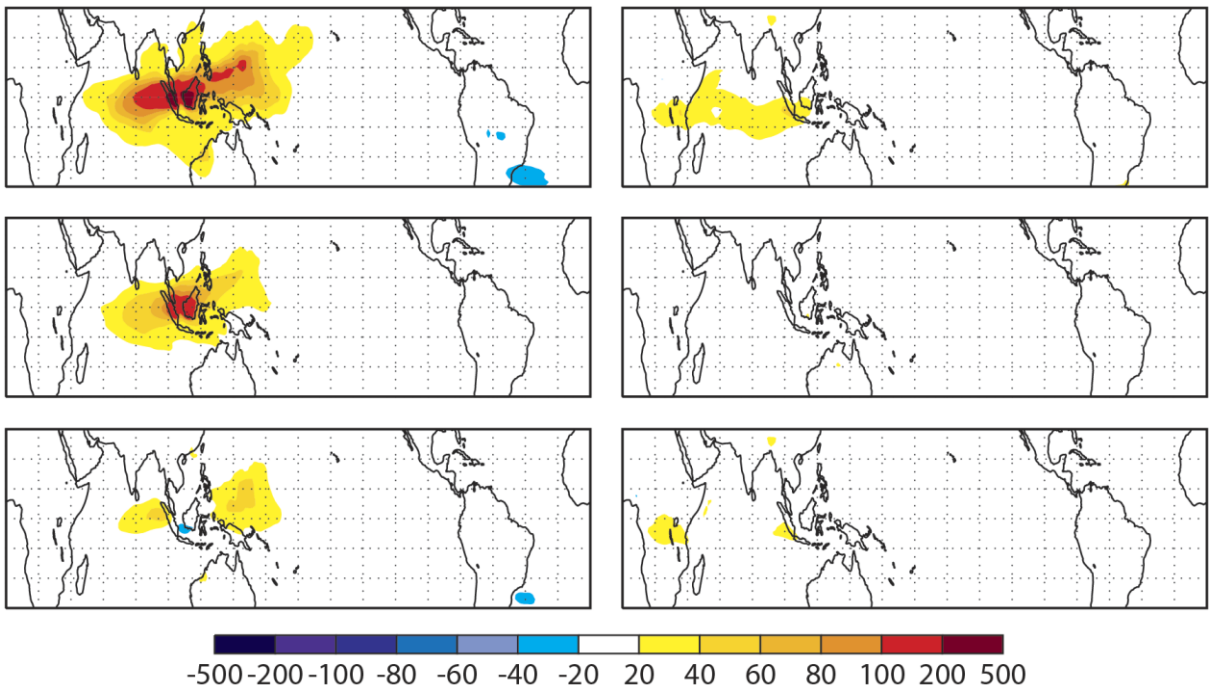
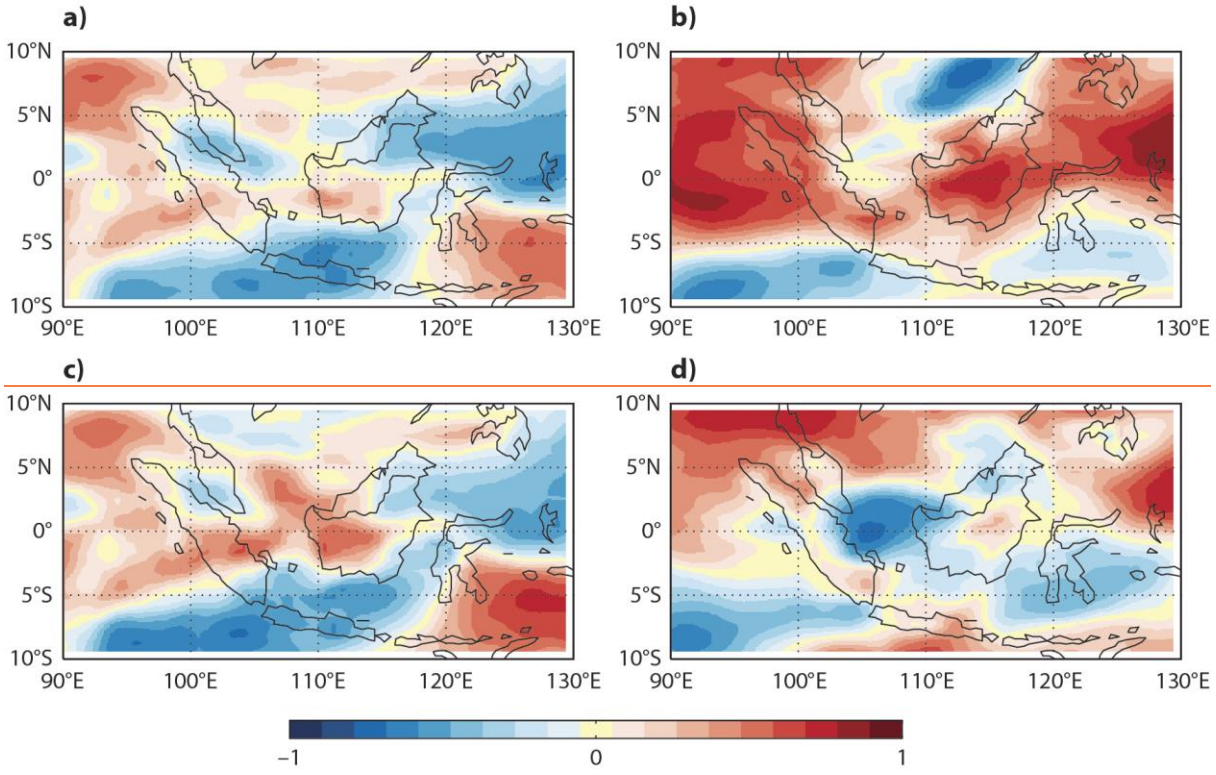
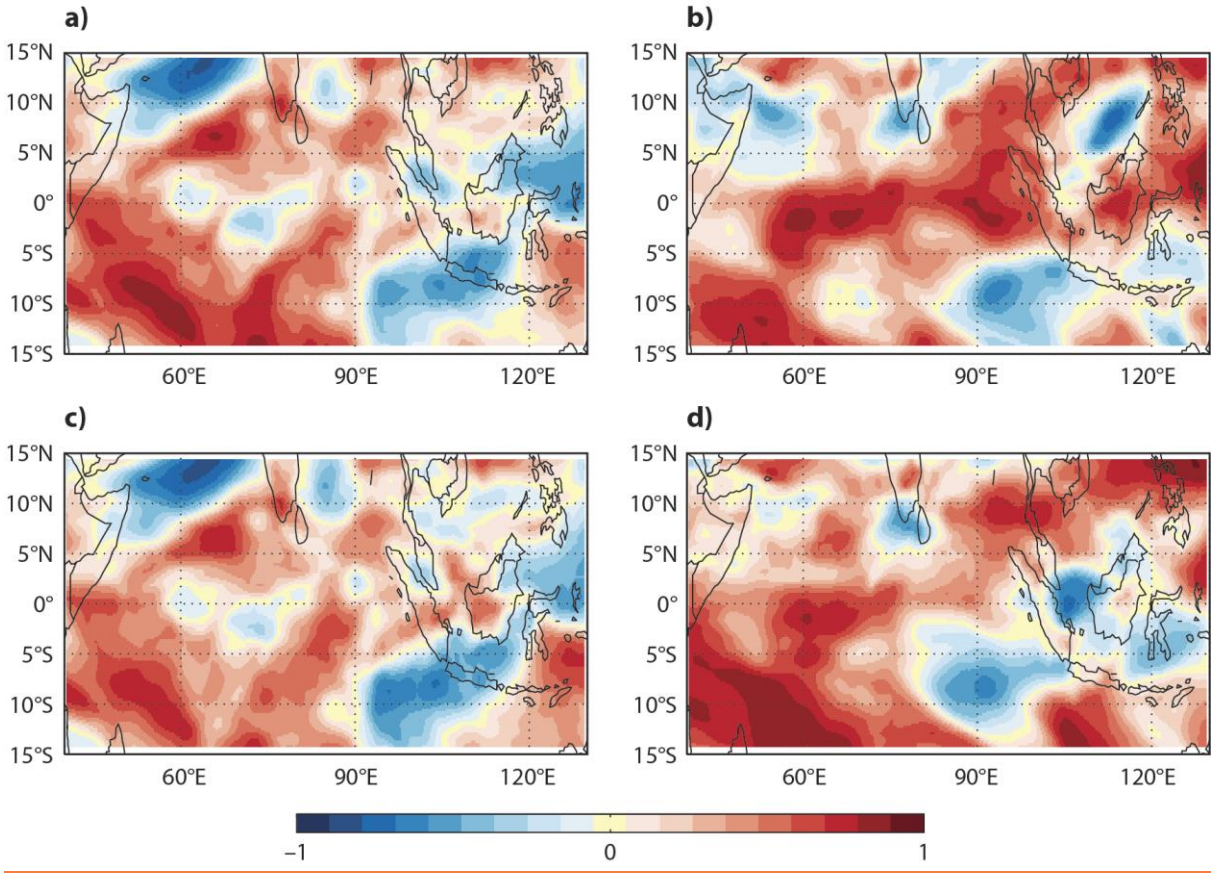


Figure ~~16~~17: TCCO differences in % for October (left) and December (right) from the experiments BASE06 - BASE05 (top), BASE06 - CLIM06 (middle) and CLIM06 - CLIM05 (bottom). Red colours indicate positive values, blue colours negative values.

1


a)
b)
c)
d)
10°N
5°N
0°
5°S
10°S
90°E
100°E
110°E
120°E
130°E
−1
0
1

2


a)
b)
c)
d)
15°N
10°N
5°N
0°
5°S
10°S
15°S
60°E
90°E
120°E
−1
0
1

3

Figure ~~17~~18: October O_3-CO correlations calculated for free tropospheric (approx. 750-350 hPa) column abundances over the Maritime Continent from the BASE (top) and CLIM (bottom) experiments for 2005 (left) and 2006 (right). Red colours indicated positive correlations, blue colours negative ones.