1 # Simulating CO_2 profiles using NIES TM and comparison with

2 # HIAPER Pole-to-Pole Observations

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14 **Abstract.** We present a study on validation of the National Institute for Environmental

15 Studies Transport Model (NIES TM) by comparing to observed vertical profiles of

16 atmospheric CO_2. The model uses a hybrid sigma-isentropic (σ–θ) vertical coordinate

17 that employs both terrain-following and isentropic parts switched smoothly in the

18 stratosphere. The model transport is driven by reanalyzed meteorological fields and

19 designed to simulate seasonal and diurnal cycles, synoptic variations, and spatial

20 distributions of atmospheric chemical constituents in the troposphere. The model

21 simulations were run for combination of biosphere, fossil fuel, air-ocean exchange,

22 biomass burning and inverse correction fluxes of carbon dioxide (CO_2) by GOSAT

Level 4 product. We compared the NIES TM simulated fluxes with data from the

HIAPER Pole-to-Pole Observations (HIPPO) Merged 10-second Meteorology,

Atmospheric Chemistry, and Aerosol Data, including HIPPO-1, HIPPO-2   and

HIPPO-3   from 128.0E to -84.0W, and 87.0N to -67.2S.

The simulation results were compared with CO_2 observations made in January and

November, 2009, and March and April, 2010. The analysis attests that the model is

good enough to simulate vertical profiles with errors generally within 1–2 ppmv, except

for the lower stratosphere in the Northern Hemisphere high latitudes.

1   Introduction

Atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO_2) is the primary radiative forcing greenhouse gas

produced by human activities. It causes the most global warming (IPCC, 2013) and its

atmospheric concentration has been increasing at a progressively faster rate each decade

because of rising global emissions (Raupach et al., 2007). The monitoring of

atmospheric CO_2 from space is intended to identify the sources and sinks of the

greenhouse gases generated by human and natural activities. A number of satellites are

actively monitoring greenhouse gases (e.g., GOSAT, SCIAMACHY, AIRS, IASI) to

answer this question, and retrieval algorithms for CO_2 have been developed for these

satellite observation data to provide more accurate estimates of CO_2concentrations

using several different methods.

The sparseness and spatial inhomogeneity of the existing surface network have

limited our ability to understand the quantity and spatiotemporal distribution of CO_2

45   sources and sinks (Scholes et al., 2009). Recent studies of global sources and sinks of

46   greenhouse gases, and their concentrations and distributions, have been mainly based

47   on in situ surface measurements (GLOBALVIEW-CO_2, 2010). The diurnal and

48   seasonal "rectifier effect", the covariance between surface fluxes and the strength of

49   vertical mixing, and the proximity of local sources and sinks to surface measurement

50   sites all have an influence on the measured and simulated concentrations, and

51   complicate the interpretation of results (Denning et al., 1996; Gurney et al., 2004; Baker

52   et al., 2006). Comparatively speaking, the vertical integration of mixing ratio divided

53   by surface pressure, denoted as the column-averaged dry-air mole fraction (DMF;

54   denoted XG for gas G) is much less sensitive to the vertical redistribution of the tracer

55   within the atmospheric column (e.g., due to variations in planetary boundary layer (PBL)

56   height) and is more easily related to the underpinning surface fluxes than are near-

57   surface concentrations (Yang et al., 2007). Thus, column-averaged measurements and

58   simulations are expected to be very useful for improving our understanding of the

59   carbon cycle (Yang et al., 2007; Keppel-Aleks et al., 2011; Wunch et al., 2011). In

60   addition, atmospheric transport has to be accounted for when analyzing the

61   relationships between observations of atmospheric constituents and their sources/sinks

62   near the earth's surface or through the chemical transformation in the atmosphere. As

63   a result, reliable estimates of climate change depend upon our ability to predict

64   atmospheric CO_2 concentrations, which requires further investigation of the CO_2

65   sources, sinks, and atmospheric transport.

66   Global atmospheric tracer transport models are usually applied to studies of the

67 global cycles of the long-lived atmospheric trace gases, such as CO_2 and methane (CH_4),

68 because the long-lived atmospheric tracers exhibit observable global patterns (e.g., the

69 interhemispheric gradient of the concentration). Global three-dimensional chemistry

70 transport models (hereafter referred to as CTMs), driven by actual meteorology from

71 numerical weather predictions, and global circulation models (GCMs) play a crucial

72 role in assessing and predicting change in the composition of the atmosphere due to

73 anthropogenic activities and natural processes (Rasch et al., 1995; Jacob et al., 1997;

74 Denning et al., 1999; Bregman et al., 2006; Law et al., 2008; Maksyutov et al., 2008;

75 Patra et al., 2008).

76   The transport modeling is done on different scales ranging from local plume spread,

77 regional mesoscale transport to global scale analysis, depending on the scale of the

78 phenomena that are studied. Forward modeling is used to estimate tracer concentrations

79 in regions that lack observation data and to identify the features of tracer transport and

80 dispersion (Law et al., 2008; Patra et al., 2008). Inverse methods are generally applied

81 when interpreting the data, with atmospheric transport models providing the link

82 between surface gas fluxes and their subsequent influence on atmospheric

83 concentrations (Rayner and O'Brien, 2001; Patra et al., 2003a,b; Gurney et al., 2004;

84 Baker et al., 2006). Global modeling analysis has helped to identify the relative

85 contribution of the land and oceans in the Northern and Southern hemispheres to the

86 interhemispheric concentration differences in CO_2, CH_4, carbon monoxide (CO) and

87 other tracer species (Bolin and Keeling, 1963; Hein et al., 1997). For stable and slowly

88 reacting chemical species, a number of studies have derived information on the spatial

89 and temporal distribution of the surface sources and sinks by applying a transport model

90 and atmospheric observations (Tans et al., 1990; Rayner et al., 1999).

91   There are several factors that strongly influence model performance: the numerical

92 transport algorithm used，meteorological data, grid type and resolution. In tracer

93 transport calculations, semi-Lagrangian transport algorithms are often used in

94 combination with finite-volume models. Losses in the total tracer mass are possible in

95 these algorithms. While such losses are often negligible for short-term transport

96 simulations, they can seriously distort the global trends and tracer budgets in long-term

97 simulations. To avoid such losses, various mass-fixing schemes have been applied

98 (Hack et al., 1993; Rasch et al., 1995). Although the use of mass fixers can prevent

99 mass losses, there remains a possibility of predicting distorted tracer concentrations. By

100 contrast, when using a flux-form transport algorithm, the total tracer mass is conserved

101 and thus the issue of mass losses can be eliminated, provided the flow is conservative.

102 The use of numerical schemes with limiters leads to distorted tracer concentrations and

103 affects the linearity. Thus, to accurately calculate the tracer concentration in a forward

104 simulation and to use the model in inverse modeling, we employed a flux-form version

105 of the global off-line, three-dimensional chemical NIES TM.

106   The synoptic and seasonal variability in XCO_2 is driven mainly by changes in surface

107 pressure, the tropospheric volume-mixing ratio (VRM) and the stratospheric

108 concentration, which is affected in turn by changes in tropopause height. The effects of

109 variations in tropopause height are more pronounced with increasing contrast between

110 stratospheric concentrations. Many CTMs demonstrate some common failings of model

transport in the stratosphere (Hall et al. 1999). The difficulty of accurately representing

dynamical processes in the upper troposphere (UT) and lower stratosphere (LS) has

been highlighted in recent studies (Mahowald et al., 2002; Wauch and Hall, 2002;

Monge-Sanz et al., 2007). While there are many contributing factors, the principal

factors affecting model performance in vertical transport are meteorological data and

the vertical grid layout (Monge-Sanz et al., 2007).

The use of different meteorological fields in driving chemical transport models can

lead to diverse distribution of chemical species in the UTLS region (Douglass et al.,

1999). The quality of wind data provided by numerical weather predictions is another

crucial factor for tracer transport (Jöckel et al., 2001; Stohl et al., 2004; Bregman et al.,

2006). Wind fields produced by the Data Assimilation System (DAS) are commonly

used for driving CTMs. Spurious variability, or "noise", introduced via the assimilation

procedure affects the quality of meteorological data through a lack of suitable

observations, or by the inaccurate treatment of model biases (Bregman et al., 2006).

This negative effect is proportional to the dynamic time scale and increases with

operational time. The most sensitive area in this regard is the lower stratosphere in

tropical regions, where large volumes of air move upward from the troposphere to the

stratosphere. A lack of observations makes this region the most challenging in terms of

data assimilation. Bregman et al. (2006) pointed that additional difficulties for detecting

model biases are caused by the fact that tropical atmosphere is not in geostrophic

balance. Schoeberl et al. (2003) suggested that GEOS DAS (Geodetic Earth Orbiting

Satellite Data Assimilation System) is less suitable for long-term stratospheric transport

133   studies than wind from a general circulation model. At the same time, improvements to

134   the data assimilation system itself (ECMWF ERA-Interim reanalysis; Dee and Uppala,

135   2009) and the development of special products for use in transport models (MERRA:

136   Modern Era Retrospective-analysis for Research and Applications; Bosilovich et al.,

137   2008) have assisted in improving the accuracy of atmospheric circulation when using

138   off-line models (Monge-Sanz et al., 2007).

139   Belikov et al. (2013) evaluated the simulated column-averaged dry air mole fraction

140   of atmospheric carbon dioxide (XCO_2) against daily ground-based high-resolution

141   Fourier Transform Spectrometer (FTS) observations measured at twelve sites of the

142   Total Column Observing Network (TCCON), which provides an essential validation

143   resource for the Orbiting Carbon Observatory (OCO), SCIAMACHY, and GOSAT. In

144   this manuscript, we present the application of the standard version of isentropic

145   transport model with HIAPER Pole-to-Pole Observations (HIPPO) Merged 10-second

146   Meteorology, Atmospheric Chemistry, and Aerosol Data, which are highly time-

147   resolved, because of the underlying 1-second in situ frequency measurement, and

148   vertically-resolved, because of the GV flight plans that performed 787 vertical

149   ascents/descents from the ocean/ice surface up to the tropopause. The remainder of this

150   paper provides the model information and a detailed description of the meteorology

151   dataset and HIPPO data, and a validation of the CO_2 vertical profiles comparing against

152   the HIPPO observations, followed by a discussion and conclusions.

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154   **2 Model features and operation**

In this section, we describe the features and use of the NIES TM (denoted NIES-08, li).

As Belikov et al. (2011, 2013) described, the latest improved version of the NIES TM model uses the (θ–σ) hybrid sigma-isentropic vertical coordinate that is isentropic in the UTLS region but terrain-following in the free troposphere. This designed coordinate helps to simulate vertical motion in the isentropic part of the grid above level 350K. Basic physical model features include the flux-form dynamical core with a third-order van Leer advection scheme, a reduced latitude-longitude grid, a horizontal flux-correction method for mass balance, and turbulence parameterization.

2.1 Meteorological data used in the simulation

The NIES TM is an off-line model driven by Japanese reanalysis data, which covers more than 30 years from 1 January 1979 to present (Onogi et al., 2007). The period of 1979-2004 is covered by the Japanese 25-year Reanalysis (JRA-25), used by Belikov et al. (2013), and is the product of the Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA) and Central Research Institute of Electric Power Industry (CRIEPI). After 2005, near real-time operational analysis, employing the same assimilation system as JRA-25, has been continued as the JMA Climate Data Assimilation System (JCDAS). The JRA-25/JCDAS dataset is distributed on a Gaussian horizontal grid T106 (320×160) with 40 hybrid σ–p levels. The 6-hourly time step of JRA-25/JCDAS is coarser than the 3-hourly data from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) Global Forecast System (GFS) and Global Point Value (GPV) datasets, which were used in the previous model version (Belikov et al., 2011). However, with a better vertical resolution

177 (40 levels on a hybrid σ-p grid versus 25 and 21 pressure levels for GFS and GPV,

178 respectively) it is possible to implement a vertical grid with 32 levels (versus the 25

179 levels used before), resulting in a more detailed resolution of the boundary layer and

180 UTLS region (Table 1).

181   The 2-D monthly distribution of the climatological heating rate, used to calculate

182 vertical transport in the θ-coordinate domain of the hybrid sigma-isentropic coordinate,

183 is prepared from JCDAS reanalysis data, which are provided as the sum of short- and

184 long-wave components on pressure levels.

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186 **2.2 HIPER Pole-to-Pole data**

187 The HIPPO study investigated the carbon cycle and greenhouse gases at various

188 altitudes (from 0 to 16 km) in the western hemisphere through the annual cycle. HIPPO

189 is supported by the National Science Foundation (NSF) and its operations are managed

190 by the Earth Observing Laboratory (EOL) of the National Center for Atmospheric

191 Research (NCAR). Its base of operations is the EOL Research Aviation Facility (RAF)

192 at the Rocky Mountain Metropolitan Airport (RMMA) in Jefferson Country, Colorado.

193 The main goal of HIPPO was to determine the global distribution of CO_2 and other

194 trace atmospheric gases by sampling at several altitudes and latitudes (from 0 to 16 km,

195 87.0N to -67.2S) in the Pacific Basin.

196 The dataset used in this paper includes the merged 10-second data product of

197 meteorological, atmospheric chemistry, and aerosol measurements from three HIPPO

198 Missions 1 to 3. The three missions took place from January, 2009 to April, 2010;

199   HIPPO-1 (20090109–20090126), HIPPO-2 (20091102–20091122), and HIPPO-3

200   (20100324–20100415), ranging from 128.0E to -84.0W, and 87.0N to -67.2S (Table 2).

201   All data are provided in a single space-delimited format ASCII file

202   (https://www.eol.ucar.edu/field_projects/hippo).

203   HIPPO measured atmospheric constituents along transects running approximately

204   pole-to-pole over the Pacific Ocean and recorded hundreds of vertical profiles from the

205   ocean/ice surface up to the tropopause five times during four seasons from January,

206   2009 to September, 2011. HIPPO provides the first high-resolution vertically resolved

207   global survey of a comprehensive suite of atmospheric trace gases and aerosols

208   pertinent to understanding the carbon cycle and challenging global climate models. The

209   10-second merge product applied in this study was derived by combining the National

210   Science foundation (NSF)/NCAR GV aircraft navigation and atmospheric structure

211   parameters including position, time, temperature, pressure, and wind speed reported at

212   1-second frequency, with meteorological, atmospheric chemistry and aerosol

213   measurements made by several teams of investigators on a common time and position

214   basis.

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218   **2.3 Model setup**

219   The standard model was run with the three HIPPO missions to study atmospheric tracer

220   transport and the ability of the model to reproduce the column-averaged dry air mole

221 fractions and vertical profile of atmospheric CO_2. The model was run at a horizontal

222 resolution of 2.5 °×2.5 °and 32 vertical levels from the surface to 3 hPa.

223   The CO_2 simulations were began on January 1, 2009, November 1, 2009 and March

224 1, 2010 for the three HIPPO missions 1 to 3, respectively, with individual initial 3D

225 tracer distributions using the global prior fluxes of biosphere-atmosphere and air-ocean

226 exchange, fossil fuel emissions, biomass burning, and GOSAT Level 4A inverse model

227 correction (Maksyutov et al., 2013), provided by climatological mean of monthly global

228 CO_2 fluxes estimated with GLOBALVIEW and GOSAT SWIR Level 2 XCO_2 data. As

229 we use same set of fluxes and same version of transport model as GOSAT Level 4

230 product, the flux corrections provided by GOSAT Level 4 product provide optimal fit

231 to available observations.

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233 **3 Discussions**

234   The current model versions have been used in several tracer transport studies and

235 were evaluated through participation in transport model intercomparisons (Niwa et al.,

236 2011; Patra et al., 2011). The simulation results of the tracer transport model show

237 consistency with observations in the near-surface layer and in the free troposphere.

238 However, the model performance in the UTLS region has not been evaluated in detail

239 against other observations.

240 **3.1 Comparison with CO_2 observations**

241 Figure 1 show the scatters diagram of modeled results versus total column of HIPPO-

242 1, 2, 3. The majority of points are within a 95% confidence interval of total CO_2 column

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243 concentration. Modeled HIPPO-1's precision successively exceeds 2 and 3, inferring

244 the simulation results with the relevant either seasonal changes or data quality.

245 The simulation results of CO_2 concentration time-varying for HIPPO-1 using the

246 standard model display good performance and weak dispersion of concentrations. The

247 validation results (Figure 2(a)) show that approximately 69.2% of the absolute biases

248 are within 1 ppmv, approximately 92.3% are within 2 ppmv, and only 7.7% exceed 3

249 ppmv. Furthermore, as shown by the root-mean-square error (RMSE) with time, during

250 most days in January the model values' dispersion was small compared with the

251 observed values, apart from the first few days of the month. According to the simulation

252 results of the HIPPO-1 observed and simulated latitude-varying CO_2 concentration data,

253 the comparison values always underestimate the atmospheric XCO_2, and the

254 differences are all within 1.5 ppmv in the Southern Hemisphere, and vice versa in the

255 Northern Hemisphere with 85.8% of the differences under 1.1 ppmv. Figure 2(b) shows

256 that the larger biases usually occur in the Northern Hemisphere high latitudes. The

257 RMSE also reflects the instability of the simulated values in the Northern Hemisphere

258 high latitudes.

259   For HIPPO-2 data from November 2 to 22, 2009,the absolute biases of observed and

260 simulated time-varying are all within 2 ppmv, and 77.8 % of the differences are less

261 than 1 ppmv (Figure 2(c)).Approximately 5/6 of the data over the month show

262 comparative stability. Similarly with HIPPO-1, the simulation results are always

263 underestimates in the Southern Hemisphere and overestimates in the Northern

264 Hemisphere. As shown in Figure 2(d), the complete simulation displays good

265   performance, apart from one day in the Northern Hemisphere high latitudes. In the same

266   manner, the RMSE shows good stability in the Southern Hemisphere, in particular for

267   the low-to mid-latitudes of the Southern Hemisphere. The model also simulates well in

268   the Northern Hemisphere, especially from 45 °to 70 °N.

269   Based on HIPPO-3 data from March 24 to April 15, 2010, the model simulation

270   overestimates in March and underestimates in April. As shown in Figure 2(e), in March,

271   the biases over several days were over 2 ppmv, and one of these days exceeded 3 ppmv.

272   However, the absolute biases were all within 2 ppmv in April, and 75% of the absolute

273   biases were less than 1 ppmv, which suggests relatively good performance by the model

274   simulation. As shown by the RMSE, the data for the last days in March were disperse.

275   However, 81.8% of the data in April showed comparatively good stability. The absolute

276   biases are all under 1.5 ppmv in the Southern Hemisphere, and are also within 2 ppmv

277   for the low- and mid-latitudes of the Northern Hemisphere (Figure 2(f)).However, a

278   relatively large difference occurs at the Northern Hemisphere high latitudes, at one

279   point exceeding 3 ppmv. Furthermore, the RMSE become greater with latitude from

280   the Southern to Northern hemisphere, inferring the simulation results are increasingly

281   disperse with increasing latitude.

282   **3.2 Validation of CO_2 vertical profiles**

283   The GV flight plan performed 787 vertical ascents/descents from the ocean/ice

284   surface/land surface to the tropopause. Two maximum altitude ascents were planned

285   per flight to the tropopause/LS; one in the first half and the other in the second half of

286   the research flight. In between, several vertical profiles from below the PBL to the mid-

troposphere (1000–28000 feet) were flown. Profiles were flown approximately every

2.2° of latitude with 4.4° between consecutive near-surface or high-altitude samples.

Rate of climb and descent was 1500 ft/minute (457m/minute). During these profiles,

the GV averaged a ground speed of approximately 175m/second, or 10 km/minute.

Most of a flight was conducted below the international Reduced Vertical Separation

Minimum (RVSM), usually 29000 ft or 8850 m, to allow the GV to descend and climb

constantly to collect data at different altitudes throughout the troposphere. All flight

plans were subject to modifications depending on local atmospheric conditions and

approval by air traffic control. Most profiles extended from approximately 300 to 8500

m altitude, constrained by air traffic, but significant profiling extended above

approximately 14 km.

One of the aims of this paper was to validate the model column-averaged

concentration against the typical HIPPO flight plans, and we therefore examined the

variability of CO_2 concentrations with HIPPO merged 10-second meteorology,

atmospheric chemistry, and aerosol measurements from Mission 1 to 3. For each

mission, several hundred vertical profiles were produced. We have only selected the

vertical profiles from near-surface to LS to compare the simulations using the standard

model with observations. Each mission can be divided into six parts for analysis; the

low-, mid- and high-latitudes in the Southern and Northern hemispheres, respectively.

The above Figure 3 presents us the change of flight altitude and bias by subtracting

observation by simulation of HIPPO-1, 2, 3 with latitude. The observations' number of

these three missions is 17621, 23451, 22372 respectively, and the plenty of observations

provide basis for model validation. Based on the change of flight height with latitude

in the Figure 3, we only select CO_2 profiles that their height is from near surface to lower stratosphere. According to the above rule, 24, 34, 35 profiles are chosen respectively for the HIPPO-1, 2, 3. Then we separately choose one profile in the low, middle and high latitude of Northern and Southern hemisphere from the selected profiles for each mission because of the similarity of the profile shape in every latitude zone. Seen from the Figure 3, the relatively larger biases repeatedly occur in the higher latitude of Northern hemisphere.

For HIPPO-1, the modeled value is always less than the observation value in the Southern Hemisphere and vice versa in the Northern Hemisphere. The bias is less than 2 ppmv for the entire profile from the near-surface to the LS; however, it increases from 2 to 4 ppmv above 10 km covering the Northern Hemisphere high latitudes.

Figure 4 shows the comparison of simulation results and observations for data from the near-surface to the LS in the low-, mid- and high- latitude. In the low-latitudes, as shown by panel 4(c) and (d), the simulation performed very well compared with observations. With the exception of the biases of approximately 2 ppmv in the tropopause in panel 4(d), the biases are all within 1 ppmv. In the mid- and high- latitudes, it is different in both hemispheres. In the Southern Hemisphere, the majority biases are within 2 ppmv apart from the LS zone in Figure 4(a) and 2 to 6 km region in panel 4(b). In the Northern Hemisphere (panel 4(e) and (f)), the simulated vertical profiles show good performances, apart from UTLS, and the biases are less than 2 ppmv. Some large biases occurred in the UTLS exceeding 4 ppmv when the potential temperature gradient increased rapidly with height. For details, Figure 5 presents us the biases of simulation minus observation corresponding to Figure 4(a) – 4(f) respectively.

333   HIPPO-2 data showed overall similarity with HIPPO-1 data based on the distribution

334   of positive and negative bias. However, an anomaly occurred at approximately -60 °and

335   75 ° latitude, showing positive and negative biases, respectively, some exceeding 6

336   ppmv. Figure 6(a) is the vertical profile of the Southern Hemisphere high latitudes,

337   which clearly shows that the simulation matches well with the observations from the

338   near-surface to the tropopause. However, large biases occur above 8 km; panel 6(b) also

339   shows this phenomenon above 10 km. In the low latitudes (Figure 6(c) and (d)), the

340   simulations match well with observations. The potential temperature gradient is smooth

341   and the biases are less than 1 ppmv from near-surface to the UT, which indicates good

342   performance. For the mid-latitudes of the Northern Hemisphere, panel 6(e) shows

343   relatively good simulation performance. However, as shown in panel 6(f), the high

344   latitudes did not perform well in the near-surface or the low- and mid-troposphere.

345   Compared with observations, the simulation profiles do not appear to reflect the original

346   shape. Moreover, Figure 7 further displays the biases of simulation minus observation

347   corresponding to Figure 6(a) – 6(f) respectively.

348   As shown by HIPPO-3 data the biases increase abruptly with flight height for the

349   mid- to high-latitudes of the Northern Hemisphere with values reaching 7 ppmv. In the

350   high-latitudes of the Southern Hemisphere (panel 8(a)) the simulation underestimates

351   the observations, and the absolute biases are isostatic from the near-surface to the LS,

352   which are less than 3 ppmv. The Southern Hemisphere low latitudes (panel 8(c))

353   indicate good performance of the simulations, where all the biases are less than 1 ppmv.

354   In the Northern Hemisphere low latitudes (panel 8(d)), the entire simulation appears to

match well with observations. However, some locations do not reproduce the precise shape through the entire height. For the mid- to high- northern latitudes (panel 8(e) and (f)), the simulations performed relatively well from the near-surface to the UT. Furthermore, Figure 9 shows the biases of simulation minus observation corresponding to Figure 8(a) – 8(f) respectively.

Larger bias in simulations is found in the winter lower stratosphere in the northern high-latitudes. The problem appears because between tropopause and 350 K level model uses vertical wind provided by reanalysis instead of using radiative heating rate, which is more accurate in stratosphere (Weaver et al, 1993, Belikov et al., 2013). Extending the isentropic coordinates to mid-troposphere levels such as implemented by Chen and Rasch, (2011), Bleck et al (2015) has potential for reducing the transport bias in this region and season. The positive bias can reach level of 4 ppm for CO_2. However, this problem only affects simulations for observation made in lower stratosphere in high latitudes in cold season when the tropopause level is low. However the number of in-situ observations made in this altitude is very limited. The satellite observations of the total column such as GOSAT are also reduced considerably in high latitudes in cold season (Yoshida et al, 2013). Thus this lower stratosphere bias is not likely to deteriorate the transport model performance in the inverse modeling applications (Maksyutov et al., 2013). However, these biased values probably result in greater errors of a flux inversion with signals being transported into lower latitudes in adverse synoptic patterns.

4 Conclusions

This study tested and verified the ability of a chemistry transport model to reproduce CO_2 vertical profiles using HIPPO merged 10-second meteorology, atmospheric chemistry, and aerosol data from Missions 1 to 3, which span three different seasons (autumn, winter and spring). The results show that the model somewhat underestimates CO_2 in the Southern Hemisphere and overestimates it in the Northern Hemisphere for these three missions. However, the model was able to reproduce the seasonal and inter-annual variability of CO_2 with RMS bias across all profiles with a level of 0.9 ppmv. The model performed well from the near-surface layer to the top of the troposphere, apart from the lower stratosphere the high latitude regions, in particular, in the Northern Hemisphere in spring, where large biases would often appear. The smaller bias for HIPPO-1 compared with HIPPO-3 arises from seasonal changes in synoptic patterns from January to March and April, as simulated by Patra et al. (2008).

The accuracy of these calculations will increase with the adaptation of the mass-balanced reanalysis data (MERRA, Bosilovich et al., 2008). This off-line model with horizontal flux-correction attain mass conservation because vertically integrated mass change is in balance with the surface pressure tendency (Belikov et al., 2011). The computation achieve fast convergence with CO_2 distribution tending towards stability in the whole integral height. Demand for global high-resolution fields of CO_2 and other greenhouse gases will also increase because of their use as a priori information in retrieval algorithms of observation instruments, such as the AIRS satellite (e.g., Strow and Hannon, 2008) and GOSAT (e.g., Yokota et al., 2009), and regional inverse

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399   modeling studies (Thompson, et al., 2014). Employing HIPPO-1, 2, 3, validation of the

400   NIES model provide basis for applying high-precision satellite product, and so we can

401   get more and better carbon sources/sinks information.

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656 *Table 1.Vertical grid levels of the NIES TM model

	H, km	$\sigma=P/P_s$	$\approx\triangle$, m	ξ(σ-θ grid levels), K	Number of levels
Near-surface layer	0-2	1.0−0.795	250	−	8
Free troposphere	2-12	0.795−0.195	1000	−, 330,350,	10
Upper troposphere and stratosphere	12−40	0.195-0.003	1000 2000 −	365,380,400,415, 435,455,475,500, 545, 590,665,850, 1325,1710	14
				Total levels:	32

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*H, height; P, atmospheric pressure; P$_s$, surface atmospheric pressure; $\triangle$, vertical integral step; ξ, the level of the sigma-isentropic grid.

658   Table 2.Temporal and spatial (horizontal) coverage of HIPPO mission flights.

Missions	Sampling Dates	Vertical Profiles Flown	Flight Path Notes
HIPPO-1	January 8–30, 2009	138	Northern polar flight #1 reached 80 °N, Southern ocean flight reached 67 °S, 175 °W (no return to the Arctic a second time).
HIPPO-2	October 31 to November 22, 2009	148	Northern polar flight #1 reached 80 °N, Southern ocean flight reached 66 °S, and 174 °W, Northern polar flight #2 reached 83 °N.
HIPPO-3	March 24 to April 16, 2010	136	Northern polar flight #1 reached 84.75 °N, Southern ocean flight reached 66.8 °S, 170 °E, Northern polar flight #2 reached 85 °N.

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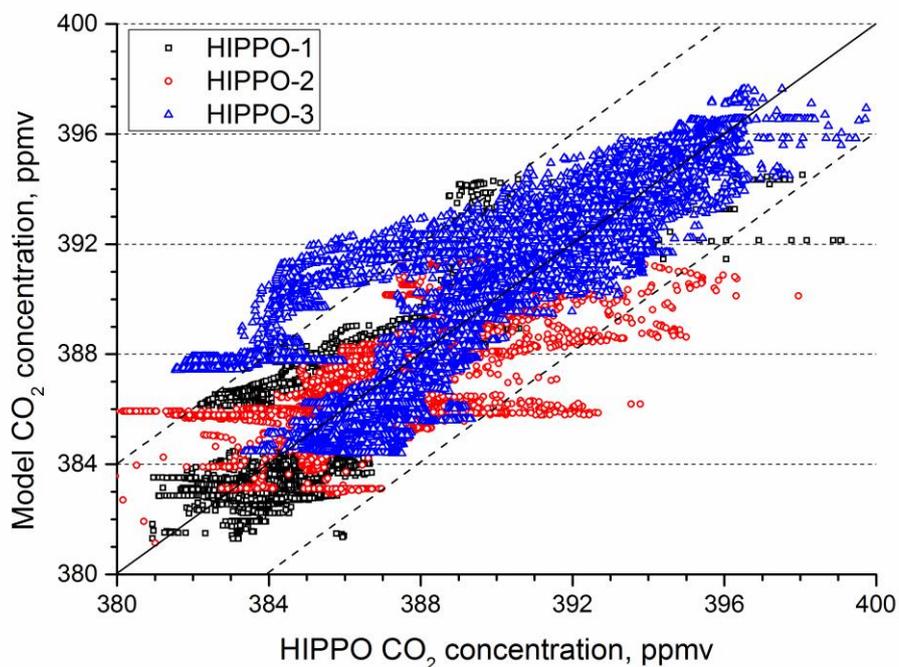
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664   **Figure 1.** Scatter diagram of modeled and observed CO_2 of HIPPO-1 (black square), 2

665   (red circle), 3 (blue triangle). Dotted lines show a 95% confidence interval

666   of CO_2 concentration.

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673   (a)   (b)

674   (c)   (d)

675   (e)   (f)
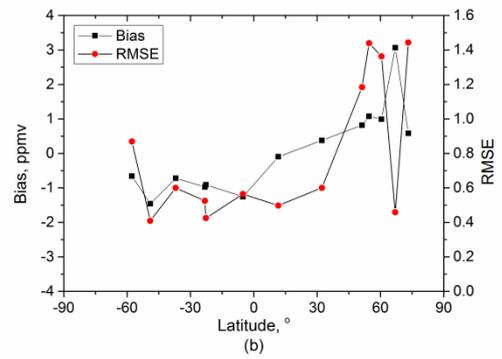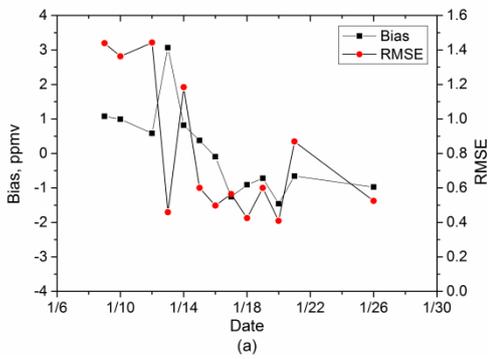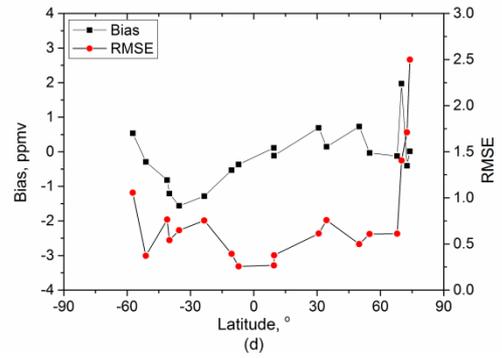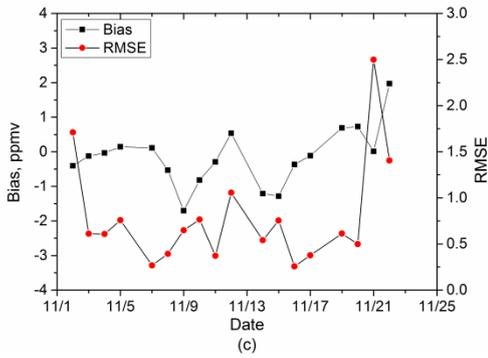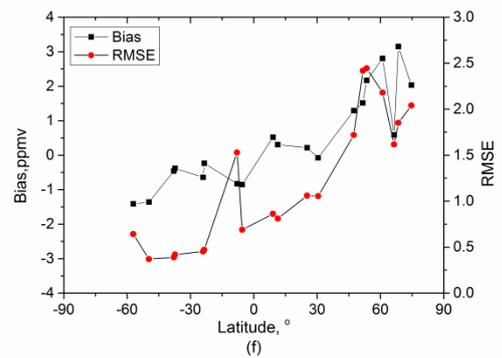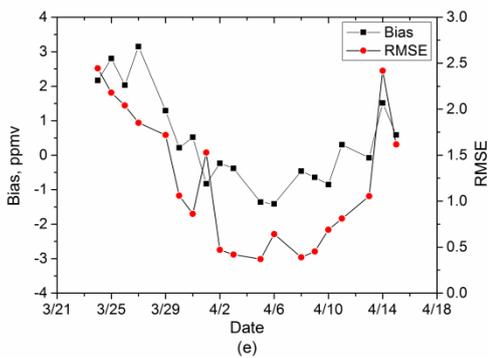
Figure 2. Bias (simulation-observation, black square) and RMSE (red circle) of time-

((a) HIPPO-1, (c) HIPPO-2, (e) HIPPO-3) and latitude-varying ((b) HIPPO-

1, (d) HIPPO-2, (f) HIPPO-3) CO_2 concentration data.
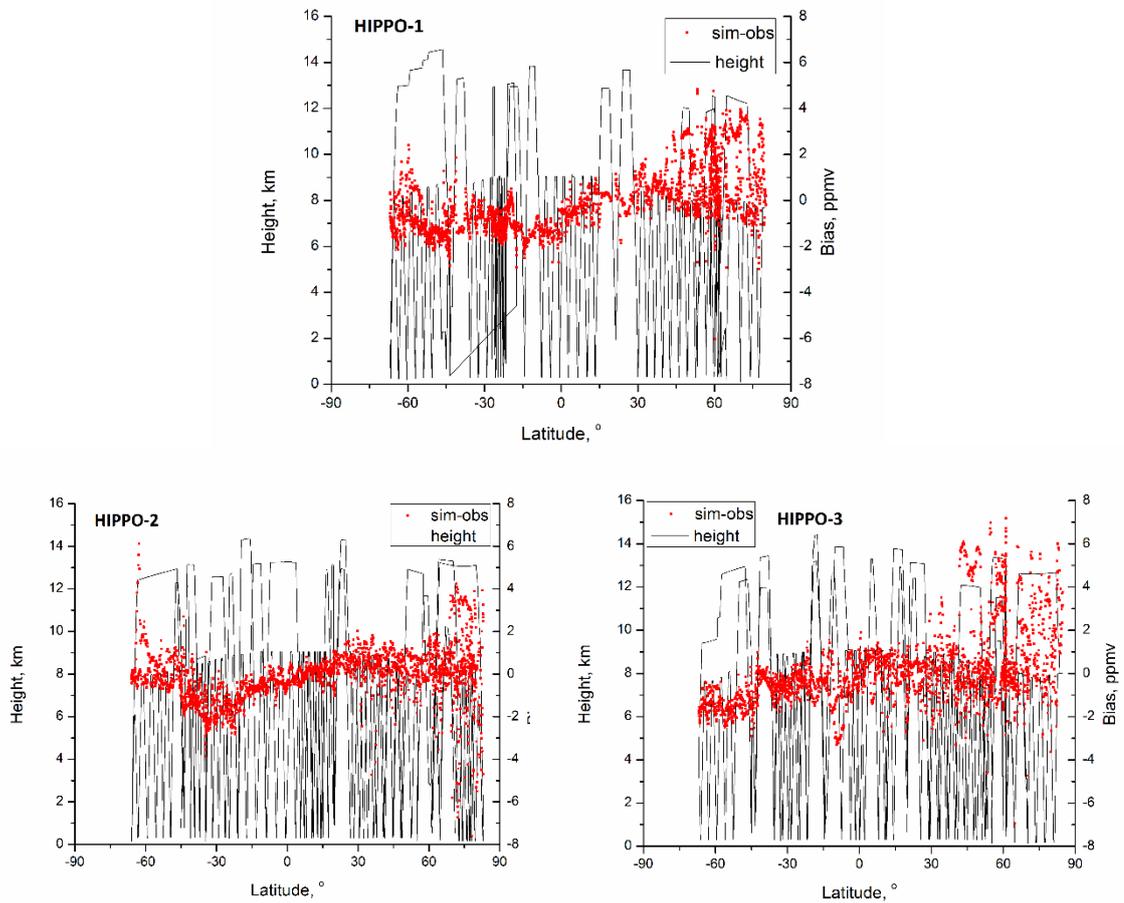
Figure 3. Change of flight height and difference between simulation and observation of HIPPO-1, 2, 3 with latitude.

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(a)

(b)

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(c)

(d)

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(e)

(f)

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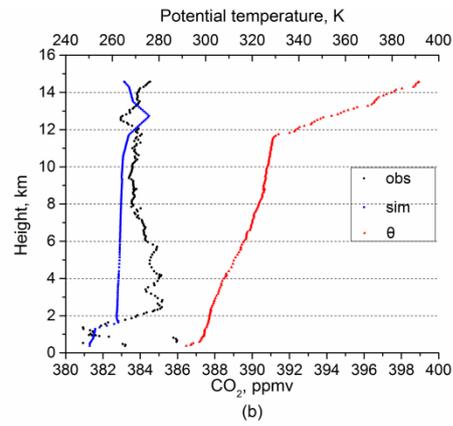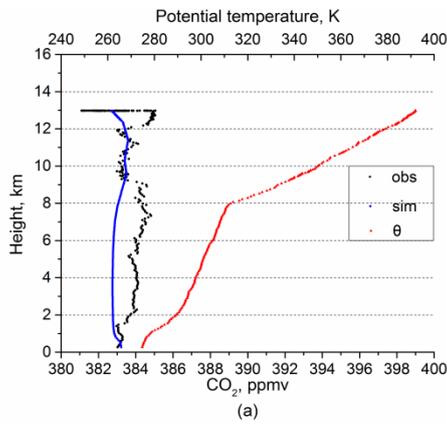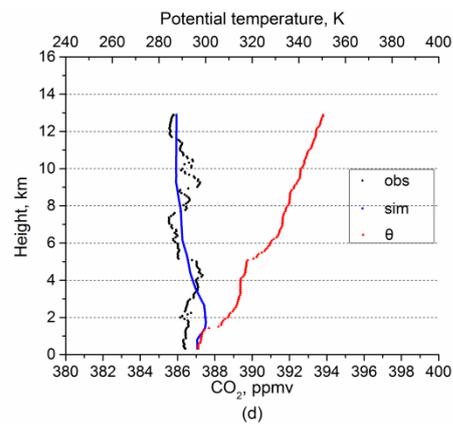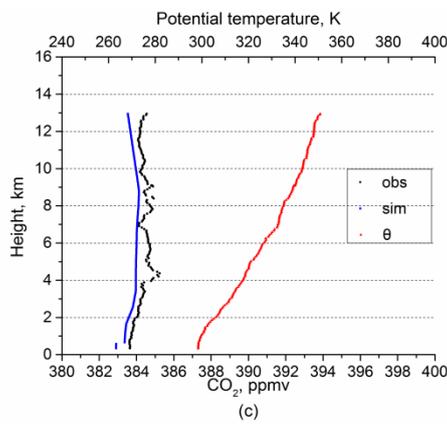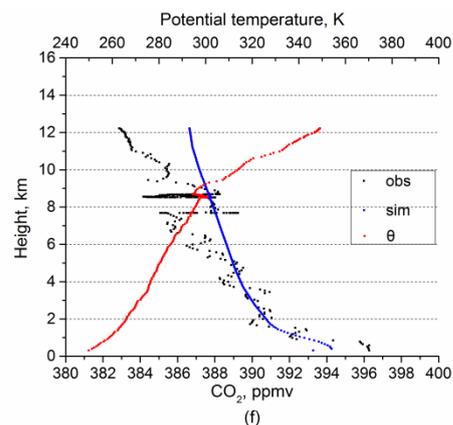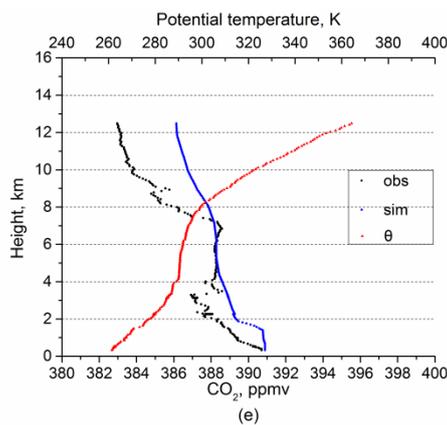
Figure 4. Vertical profiles from near-surface to the LS for HIPPO-1, panels represent

the vertical profiles of observation (black square), simulation (blue square)

and potential temperature (red square) in Southern ((a) high-, (b) mid-, (c)

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low- latitude), and Northern Hemisphere ((d) low- , (e) mid-, (f) high-

720 latitude).

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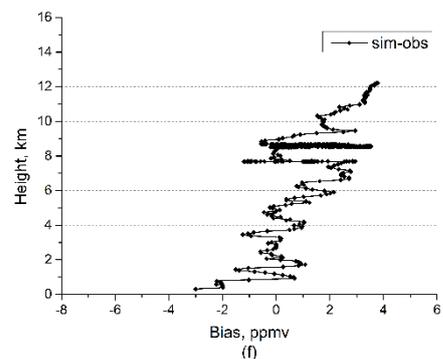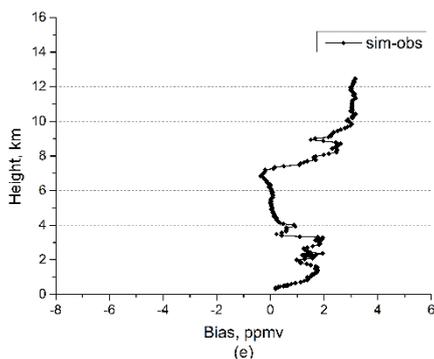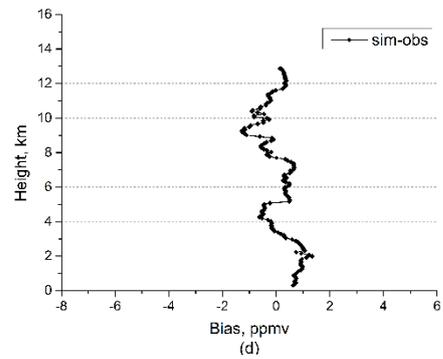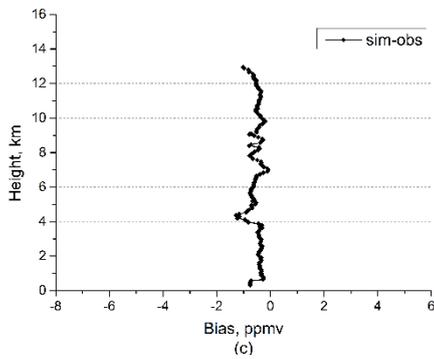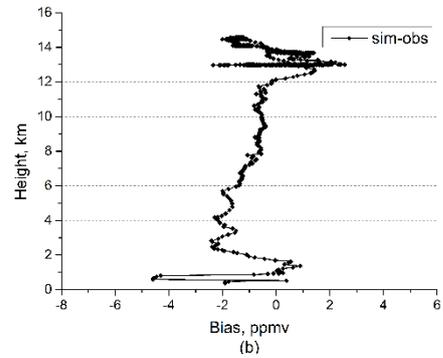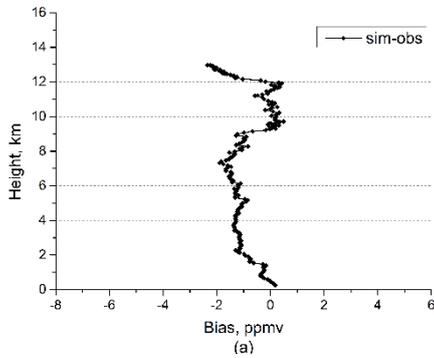
Figure 5. Biases of simulation minus observation from near-surface to the LS for HIPPO-1, panels are corresponding to Figure 4(a)-4(f) respectively.

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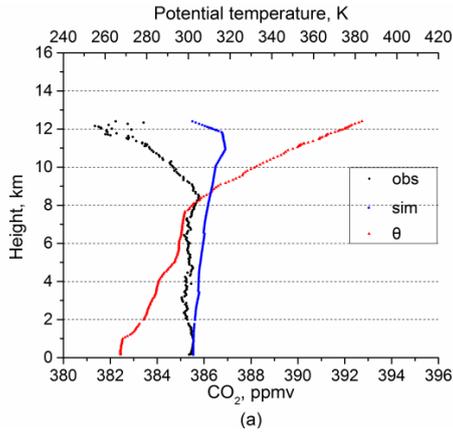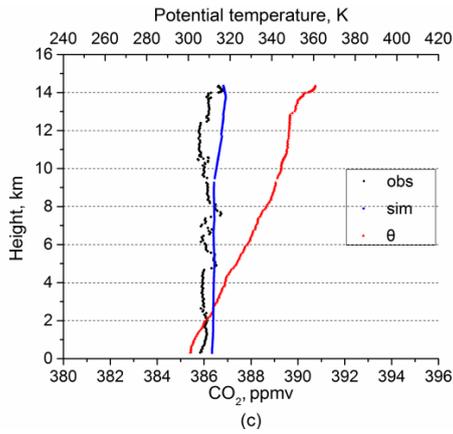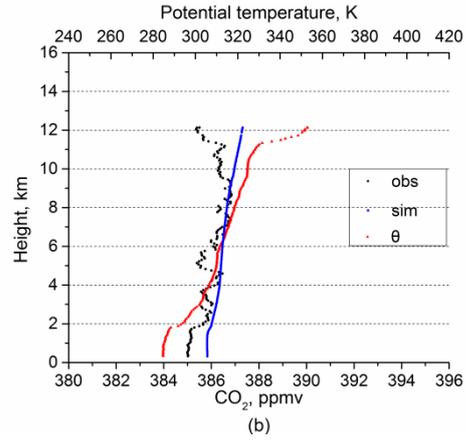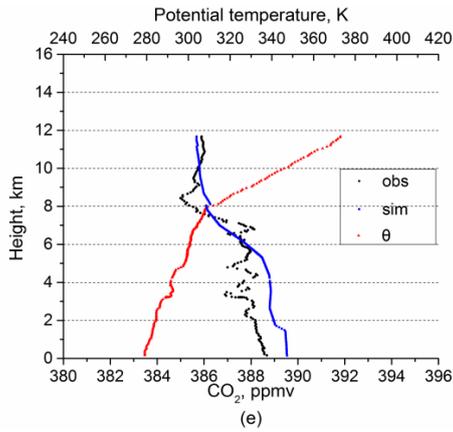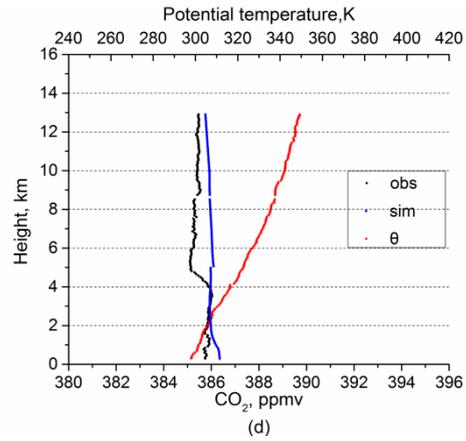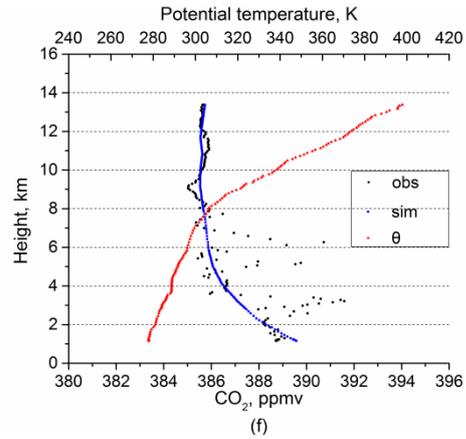
Figure 6. The vertical profiles from near-surface to the LS for HIPPO-2, panels

represent the vertical profiles of observation (black square), simulation (blue

square) and potential temperature (red square) in Southern ((a) high-, (b)

mid-, (c) low- latitude), and Northern Hemisphere ((d) low-, (e) mid-, (f)

high- latitude).

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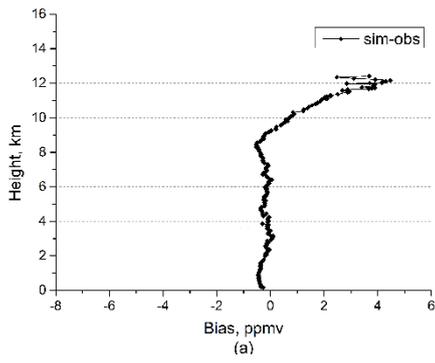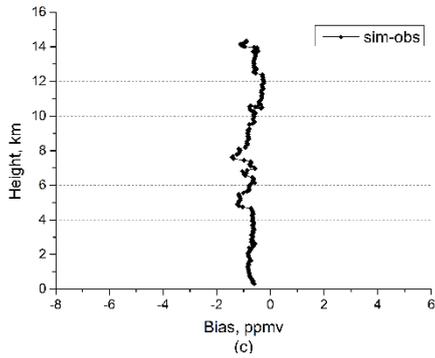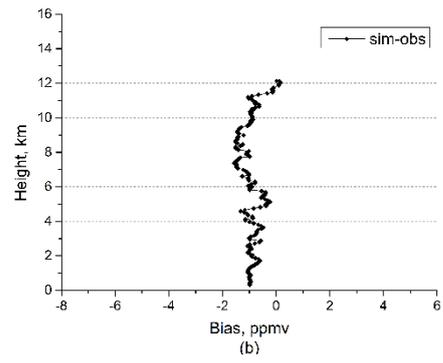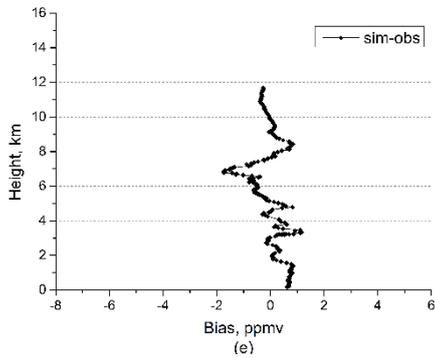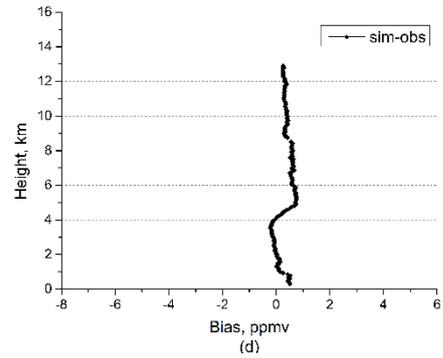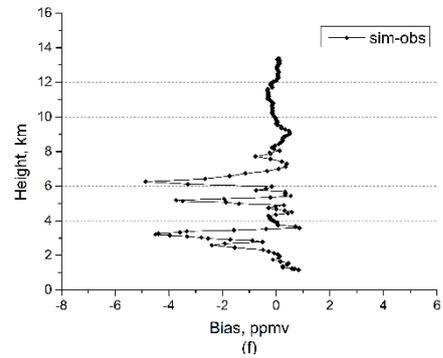
Figure 7. Biases of simulation minus observation from near-surface to the LS for HIPPO-2, panels are corresponding to Figure 6(a)-6(f) respectively.

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(a)

(b)

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(c)

(d)

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(e)

(f)
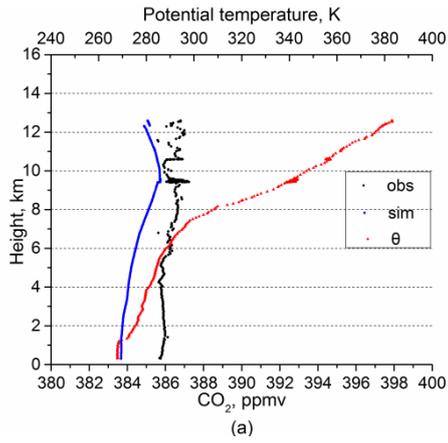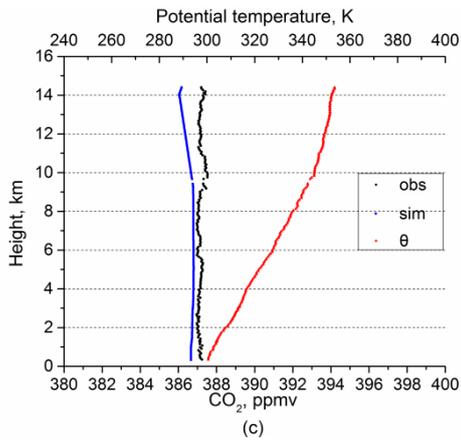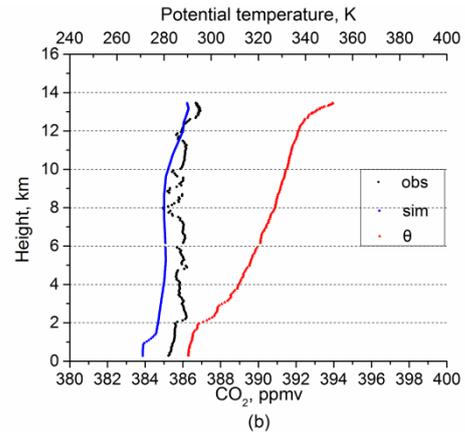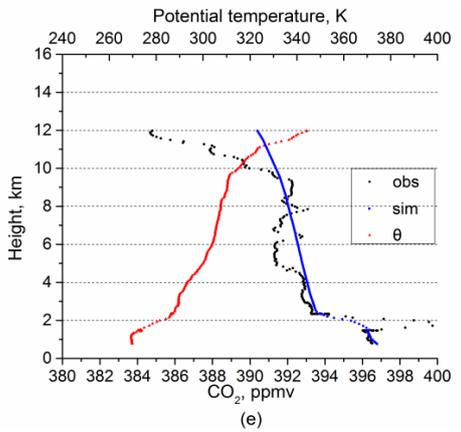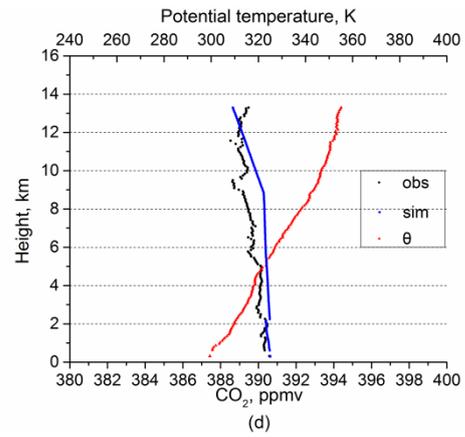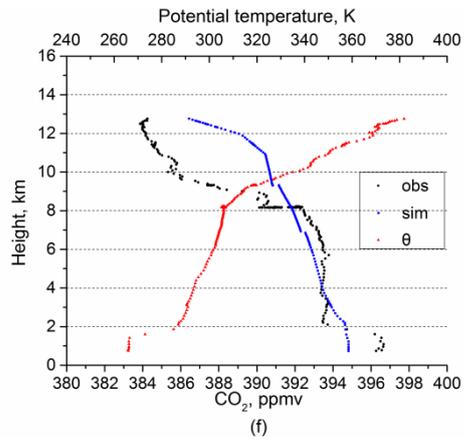
747 **Figure 8**.The vertical profiles from near-surface to the LS for HIPPO-3, panels

748 represent the vertical profiles of observation (black square), simulation (blue

749 square) and potential temperature (red square) in Southern ((a) high-, (b)

750 mid-, (c) low- latitude), and Northern Hemisphere ((d) low-, (e) mid-, (f)

751 high- latitude).

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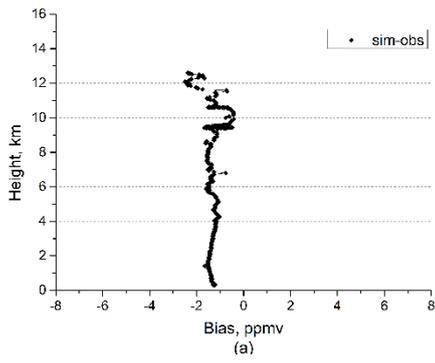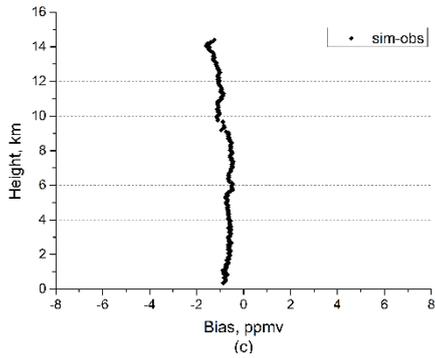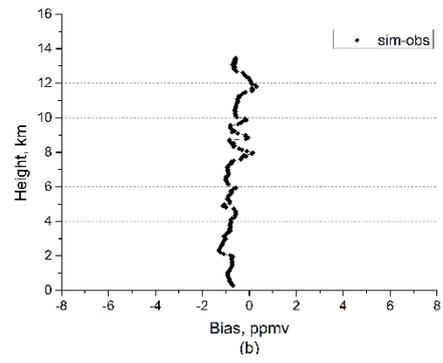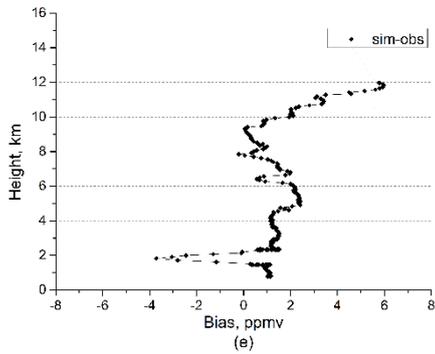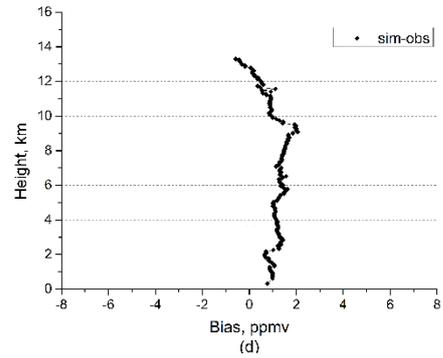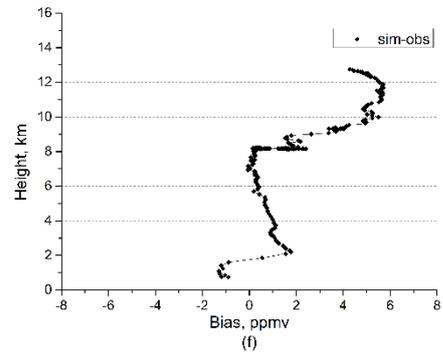
Figure 9. Biases of simulation minus observation from near-surface to the LS for HIPPO-3, panels are corresponding to Figure 8(a)-8(f) respectively.

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