Multi-year assimilation of IASI and MLS ozone retrievals : variability of tropospheric ozone over the tropics in response to ENSO.

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Response to the reviews

Remarks from the reviewer are in blue while our answers are in black. The changes proposed for the revised manuscript are in italic (*grey* for unchanged sentences and **bold black** for modified/new sentences).

1. It is necessary to add a few sentences in conclusion about the importance of this study in a perspective of climate
5 **variability, such as the ENSO and chemistry connection, and how that would affect the tropospheric chemistry in climate change scenario. In addition, the authors also need to state the advantage of IASI or similar satellite measurements to be used for studies on ENSO dynamics.**

We thank the editor for this comment. We have modified the conclusion based on these remarks as follows:

Page 17, line 23 : *Overall, the assimilation of stratospheric MLS and tropospheric IASI data within MOCAGE gives a*
10 *good representation of the tropospheric ozone variability linked with ENSO and the Walker circulation.* ***We have shown the importance of assimilating tropospheric IASI data to provide vertical information of the variability of tropospheric ozone, showing the benefit of IASI analyses for ENSO dynamics studies. In addition, since ENSO is one of the most important interannual fluctuations in climate variability, this study is part of a climate variability perspective. The assimilation of satellite data is promising for determining the impact of climate variability on tropospheric chemistry.*** *There are however*
15 *some limitations in our simulations that have to be adressed.*

Page 17, line 33 : ***Times series of IASI analysis could then be derived and used to study the tropospheric ozone variability over at least a thirty-year period. One advantage of infrared sounders like IASI for climate studies is their good spectral stability over time, with respect for example to UV instruments. This is an important feature when trying to determine potentially small climate signals hidden by large ozone variability, due for example to ENSO. Finally, using a more detailed***
20 ***chemistry scheme within future ozone reanalyses would also allow further insights on chemical feedbacks in the context of a changing climate.***

2. Is there any longitudinal variation in the linearized chemistry scheme ? If not, can this be used for atmospheric/constituent changes induced by the Walker circulation ? Please write a few sentences about this in the appropriate section.

The CARIOLLE scheme does not have longitudinal variation. This was mentioned in section 3.2.1. (page 12, line 31). However, the CTM meteorological forcings reproduce the dynamics associated with both ENSO and the Walker circulation. Therefore, these features are also visible in the modeled ozone field (e.g. direct model anomalies in Fig. 6 of the manuscript). We updated the paragraph (section 3.2.1, page 12, line 31) as follows :

*However the amplitude of the TCO anomalies from the DM simulation is much lower compared to OMI-MLS. Since the chemical scheme used in the MOCAGE model has no longitudinal forcing in the chemical tendencies, the TCO anomalies in the DM simulation are only due to changes in the equatorial circulation and the associated ozone transport. The ECMWF analyses capture the dynamics associated to **the Walker circulation and to** ENSO and hence drive the variations of the TCO seen in the DM simulation.*

We also added this remark in the section describing the CARIOLLE scheme (section 2.3.1, page 7, line 25) for more clarity.

Since the linearized chemistry scheme does not have any longitudinal variation, the longitudinal ozone variability that is reproduced by the model (e.g. in correspondence of the Walker circulation, see section 3.2.1) results only from the ozone transport.

3. p.10, l. 8 : What is RSD ?.

RSD stands for *Relative Standard Deviation*. Every acronym is written in full letters at least once in the text (at first occurence). This acronym has been already given in page 5, line 4. We report the full name also here for better readability.

4. Page 9. line 26 : I don't think the choice of method would have a significant impact on the colocation for the regularly spaced model output, but 'a linear interpolation' seems to be an over-simplified statement for a spatial field. I assume the authors were using a bilinear interpolation, but a spline interpolation is also a popular choice for model outputs too. Please specify it explicitly.

Indeed, the interpolation is linear along each dimension, which results in a linear interpolation in time (between 6-hourly model outputs) and trilinear interpolation in space (horizontal plus vertical dimensions). We clarify it in the manuscript.

list of all relevant changes made in the manuscript :

- Section 2.3.1, page 7, line 25 : Since the linearized chemistry scheme does not have any longitudinal variation, the longitudinal ozone variability that is reproduced by the model (e.g. in correspondence of the Walker circulation, see section 3.2.1) results only from the ozone transport.

5   - Page 9, line 26 : The collocation was done with a linear interpolation along each dimension, which results in a linear interpolation in time of the model's 6-hourly outputs and trilinear interpolation in space (on both the horizontal/vertical dimensions).

- Section 3.2.1, page 12, line 31 : Part of the TCO variability in Eastern and Western Pacific ocean linked with the Walker circulation is reproduced with the DM simulation (Fig. 6b). The TCO with values 10% higher (resp. 10% lower) than average

10   are located in POC (resp. IIO) region. However the amplitude of the TCO anomalies from the DM simulation is much lower compared to OMI-MLS. Since the chemical scheme used in the MOCAGE model has no longitudinal forcing in the chemical tendencies, the TCO anomalies in the DM simulation are only due to changes in the equatorial circulation and the associated ozone transport. The ECMWF analyses capture the dynamics associated to the Walker circulation and to ENSO and hence drive the variations of the TCO seen in the DM simulation.

15   - Conclusion :

Page 17, line 23 : Overall, the assimilation of stratospheric MLS and tropospheric IASI data within MOCAGE gives a good representation of the tropospheric ozone variability linked with ENSO and the Walker circulation. We have shown the importance of assimilating tropospheric IASI data to provide vertical information of the variability of tropospheric ozone, showing the benefit of IASI analyses for ENSO dynamics studies. In addition, since ENSO is one of the most important interannual

20   fluctuations in climate variability, this study is part of a climate variability perspective. The assimilation of satellite data is promising for determining the impact of climate variability on tropospheric chemistry. There are however some limitations in our simulations that have to be adressed.

Page 17, line 33 : Times series of IASI analysis could then be derived and used to study the tropospheric ozone variability over at least a thirty-year period. One advantage of infrared sounders like IASI for climate studies is their good spectral stability

25   over time, with respect for example to UV instruments. This is an important feature when trying to determine potentially small climate signals hidden by large ozone variability, due for example to ENSO. Finally, using a more detailed chemistry scheme within future ozone reanalyses would also allow further insights on chemical feedbacks in the context of a changing climate.

Revised Manuscript

Abstract.

The Infrared Atmospheric Sounder Instrument (IASI) allows global coverage with very high spatial resolution and its measurements are promising for long-term ozone monitoring. In this study, Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS) O_3 profiles and IASI O_3 partial columns (1013.25 hPa - 345 hPa) are assimilated in a chemistry transport model to produce 6-hourly analyses of tropospheric ozone for six years (2008-2013). We have compared and evaluated the IASI-MLS analysis and the MLS analysis to assess the added value of IASI measurements.

The global chemical transport model MOCAGE (MOdèle de Chimie Atmosphérique à Grande Echelle) has been used with a linear ozone chemistry scheme and meteorological forcing fields from ERA-Interim (ECMWF global reanalysis) with a horizontal resolution of 2°x2° and 60 vertical levels. The MLS and IASI O_3 retrievals have been assimilated with a 4-D variational algorithm to constrain stratospheric and tropospheric ozone respectively. The ozone analyses are validated against ozonesoundings and Tropospheric Column Ozone (TCO) from the OMI-MLS residual method. In addition, an Ozone ENSO Index (OEI) is computed from the analysis to validate the TCO variability during the ENSO events.

We show that the assimilation of IASI well reproduces the variability of tropospheric ozone during the period under study. The variability deduced from the IASI-MLS analysis and the OMI-MLS measurements are similar for the period of study. The IASI-MLS analysis can reproduce the extreme oscillation of tropospheric ozone caused by ENSO events over the tropical Pacific Ocean, although a correction is required to reduce a constant bias present in the IASI-MLS analysis.

1 Introduction

Tropospheric ozone (O_3) is the third most important greenhouse gas (Houghton et al., 2001). It influences the atmospheric radiative forcing as one of the main absorbers of infrared and ultraviolet radiation (Wang et al., 1980; Lacis et al., 1990). It also has a strong effect on human health and vegetation. High levels of O_3 concentrations increase pulmonary and chronic respiratory diseases, increasing human premature mortality (Guilbert, 2003; Bell et al., 2004; Ebi and McGregor, 2008). High concentrations of O_3 reduce photosynthesis and other important physiological functions of vegetation (Yendrek et al., 2015). Due to its relatively long life-time (~2 weeks in the troposphere), the global variability of tropospheric ozone is the combination of the complex interactions between anthropogenic emissions, chemical production and destruction, long-range transport and stratosphere-troposphere exchanges. A global increase of tropospheric ozone has been documented during the last 30 years (Cooper et al., 2014), the cause of which is not yet well understood (Fowler et al., 2008). To determine the origin of this trend, it is important to evaluate the relative contributions between natural variability and anthropogenic forcing.

Among the natural forcings, the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) is an atmospheric phenomenon with a large-scale circulation pattern that influences the O_3 distribution (Chandra et al., 1998; Zeng and Pyle, 2005) with a periodicity of about 2-7

years. ENSO refers to two events in the tropical Eastern Pacific: El Niño (anomalously warm ocean temperatures) and La Niña (anomalously cold ocean temperatures). ENSO is the dominant source of the tropical Pacific variability for the atmosphere and the ocean (Trenberth, 1997; Philander S. G., 1989). During ENSO, changes in sea-surface temperatures (SST) in the Pacific Ocean have a large influence on the normal atmospheric circulation, displacing the location of convection and its intensity (Quan et al., 2004). These changes in circulation impact the temperature and moisture fields across the tropical Pacific, influencing the chemical composition of the troposphere (Ziemke, J. R. and Chandra,2003; Randel and Thompson,2011, Fig. 1).

Convection during ENSO affects tropical tropospheric O_3 in two ways. First, convection impacts the vertical mixing of O_3 itself. Convection lifts lower tropospheric air masses with a low ozone concentration, where O_3 lifetime is shorter, to upper troposphere where O_3 lifetime is longer (Doherty et al., 2005). Overall increased convection leads to a decrease of the tropospheric ozone column (Fig. 1a). Second, convection affects vertical mixing and vertical distribution of O_3 precursors (Stevenson et al., 2005). El Niño events coincide with dry conditions generating large-scale biomass burning in Indonesia (Chandra et al., 2002). During El Niño, TCO over Indonesia is higher than average. A remarkable change in the tropospheric O_3 concentration due to El Niño occurred in the Western part of Pacific during 1997-1998, with an increase in the TCO of +20 DU to +25 DU (Chandra et al., 2002). Atmospheric particulates and O_3 precursors increase in Indonesia (Fig. 1b). During La Niña event, dry conditions are located in South America causing an increase of TCO in the Eastern Pacific Ocean (Fig. 1c).

Previous studies have characterized the variations of the tropical tropospheric O_3 linked to ENSO (Ziemke et al., 2015). To characterize the ENSO amplitude several ENSO indices have been proposed based on ENSO footprints on the pressure field or the outgoing longwave radiation (Ardanuy and Lee Kyle, 1985; Trenberth, 1997). Ziemke et al. (2010) developed such an index for Ozone, the Ozone ENSO Index (OEI), to better characterize the effect of the oscillation on the O_3 distribution and as a diagnostic tool for tropospheric chemistry models.

A detailed analysis of the effects of convection on tropospheric O_3 has been prevented so far by the paucity of observations (Solomon et al., 2005; Lee et al., 2010). The restricted number of ozonesondes observations limits analysis of the links between O_3 and ENSO (Thompson et al., 2003). Satellites observations can give more information on the O_3 variability, and their global coverage gives better insight on the processes involved in ENSO (Ziemke et al., 2010). To derive tropospheric O_3 several studies have combined ozone measurements from Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) that measures the total ozone columns, and the Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS) that provides vertical ozone profiles in the upper troposphere and stratosphere. Ziemke et al. (2006) subtracted the stratospheric column O_3 (of MLS) from the total column O_3 (of OMI) to obtain the tropospheric column O_3 (named hereafter OMI-MLS). They show a large impact of ENSO on tropospheric O_3 in the tropics by analyzing the OMI-MLS data (Ziemke et al., 2015). The O_3 sensitivity to ENSO was also studied with the Tropospheric Emission Spectrometer (TES) observations (Neu et al., 2014). They studied, during El Niño, the long range transport of Asian pollution due to the Northern Hemisphere subtropical jet. MLS and TES data were also compared to a chemistry-climate model to study how ENSO can influence the O_3 distribution (Oman et al., 2013). These studies demonstrate the link between O_3 and ENSO becomes a key element of the chemistry-climate interactions.

The combination of OMI and MLS measurements allows insights on the links between tropospheric O_3 and ENSO, but has limitations because the tropospheric partial O_3 columns are obtained as a difference between two large quantities, the total column and the stratospheric column. Hence, possible bias and errors in MLS and OMI data can be amplified when the partial tropospheric column is calculated. The objective of the present study is to obtain direct evaluations of tropospheric ozone using assimilation of ozone profiles from MLS and from IASI.

5   The IASI instrument, launched on board Metop-A in 2006, was designed for numerical weather predictions and atmospheric composition observations (Clerbaux et al., 2009). IASI allows a daily global coverage at very high spatial resolution (12 km for nadir observations). Because of its spatial coverage, the day and night retrieval coverage, IASI provides an important added value with respect to other satellites like TES or OMI (Herbin et al., 2009; Pittman et al., 2009; Oetjen et al., 2016). The IASI mission is meant to last for several decades (MetOP) whereas the instruments OMI, MLS and TES are scientific missions

10   with limited lifespan. Tropospheric O_3 from IASI has been already studied and validated. The IASI ozone data was found particularly well suited to study O_3 variations in the upper troposphere (Dufour et al., 2012; Tocquer et al., 2015; Barret et al., 2016). Since we already have about 10 years of data, the IASI mission provides a valuable dataset to study the O_3 variability and trends (Toihir et al., 2015; Wespes et al., 2016), both in the troposphere and the stratosphere (Wespes et al., 2009, 2012; Dufour et al., 2010; Barret et al., 2011; Scannell et al., 2012; Safieddine et al., 2013). More recently, the tropospheric O_3

15   variability due to ENSO has been studied using eight years (January 2008 to March 2016) of IASI measurements (Wespes et al., 2017). They have shown that IASI retrievals can capture the variability of tropospheric ozone related to the large-scale dynamical modes of ENSO.

By assimilating IASI data within the MOCAGE model (Teyssèdre et al., 2007), we expect to obtain O_3 distributions consistent with OMI-MLS observations and to have additional information on the vertical O_3 distributions in the troposphere. We

20   use the MOCAGE Chemistry Transport Model (CTM) to assimilate tropospheric ozone profiles from IASI and stratospheric profiles from MLS with a 4D-Var (4-Dimensional-Variational) algorithm. The joint assimilation of IASI and MLS data was already found to improve modelled O_3 in the UTLS (Barré et al., 2013; Emili et al., 2014). Since the information in IASI retrievals is strongly weighted in the troposphere, the assimilation of MLS allows to introduce complementary information in case of stratosphere-troposphere exchanges (Barré et al., 2012), which intensify over the Eastern Pacific Ocean during La Niña

25   phase of the ENSO. We will evaluate in this study the relative importance of assimilating MLS and IASI in the context of the O_3 variability related to ENSO. To compute ozone tendencies MOCAGE uses the latest version of the linear ozone chemistry parametrization of Cariolle and Teyssedre (CARIOLLE scheme, 2007).

The influence of ENSO on tropical tropospheric O_3 has been simulated by CTMs or by global chemistry-climate models (Sudo and Takahashi, 2001b; Zeng and Pyle, 2005; Doherty et al., 2006; Oman et al., 2011). Fewer studies used data as-

30   similation to study the distribution and inter-annual variability of tropospheric ozone in the Pacific (Liu et al., 2017; Olsen et al., 2016). Data assimilation allows to obtain time-series of chemical fields that integrate all available information from measurements and models. This can be particularly useful when tropospheric retrievals from satellite measurements become very sparse, due for instance to the occurrence of convective clouds in the tropical region. Furthermore, the assimilation of IASI data for a long time period has never been considered yet. The 6 years reanalysis (2008-2013) of tropospheric O_3 that

we have computed in the present study is ideal for studying the ozone variability in the tropics from short-term to inter-annual time scales.

The format of this paper is as follows. In Sect. 2 we describe the observations used for assimilation and model validation, and the settings used by the MOCAGE model and the assimilation suite. In Sect. 3 we discuss the results obtained assimilating IASI and MLS data with emphasis on the impact of ENSO on tropospheric O_3. We derive an Ozone ENSO index and compare its evolution to previous studies. The final section summarizes the results.

2 Methodology

2.1 Assimilated observations

2.1.1 IASI/MetOp-A measurements

The IASI is one of the instruments onboard the polar-orbiting satellite MetOp-A (Meteorological Operational) operated by the European organization for the exploitation of Meteorological Satellites (EUMETSAT). The MetOp-A satellite was launched on 19 October 2006 and has already provided data for about 10 years. Due to its inclination to the equatorial plane and its altitude (817km), MetOp-A crosses the equatorial plane at 09:30 and 21:30 local time.

IASI is a nadir viewing Fourier Transform Spectrometer. The detectors sense in the thermal infrared spectral range between 645 cm^{-1} and 2760 cm^{-1} (15.5 μm to 3.62 μm). IASI provides spectra with a high radiometric quality at a resolution of 0.5 cm^{-1} (after apodization). IASI measurements are taken along and across-track over a swath width of 2200 km with an horizontal resolution of 12 km. Therefore, IASI provides global coverage twice a day. The high spectral resolution of IASI allows the retrieval of vertical profiles of a number of gases affecting the climate system and the atmospheric pollution (Clerbaux et al., 2009; Coheur et al., 2009). Previous studies have used vertical information from IASI Level 2 products to study O_3 in the troposphere, in the Upper Troposphere/Lower Stratosphere (UTLS) and in the stratosphere (Dufour et al., 2010; Barret et al., 2011; Wespes et al., 2012; Tocquer et al., 2015; Barret et al., 2016).

A radiative transfer code and a retrieval software are used to retrieve O_3 profiles from IASI radiances. We use O_3 retrievals performed with the Software for Fast Retrieval of IASI Data (Barret et al., 2011) developed at Laboratoire of Aerology. The SOFRID (SOftware for a Fast Retrieval of IASI Data) is based on the RTTOV (Radiative Transfer for TOVS, Saunders et al., 1999a; 1999b) fast radiative transfer model coupled to the 1DVar algorithm developed at UKMO (United Kingdom Met Office, Pavelin et al., 2008). SOFRID retrieves the O_3 profiles on 43 levels from 1013.25 hPa to 0.1 hPa using a single a priori profile and covariance matrix based on one year of in situ observations (see Barret et al. (2011) for details). Validation of six months of tropospheric O_3 columns from IASI-SOFRID against ozonesondes and airborne data have shown biases of about 5% and Relative Standard Deviation (RSD) of about 15% in the tropics. In their validation study of three IASI O_3 products over one year, Dufour et al. (2012) also found biases of 3.8% and RSD of 9.5% for IASI-SOFRID tropospheric O_3 relative to ozonesonde data in the tropics. In this study, partial O_3 columns between 1013.25 hPa and 345 hPa has been computed from the IASI-SOFRID profile prior to the assimilation.

2.1.2 MLS measurements

The MLS instrument flies on board the Aura satellite in a polar orbit with a continuous record that begins in July 2004. The Aura spacecraft has an equatorial crossing time of 1:45 pm (ascending node) with approximately 15 orbits per day on average. The MLS measures thermal emissions at the atmospheric limb and provides vertical profiles of several atmospheric constituents (Waters et al., 2006). MLS allows the retrieval of about 3500 profiles per day with a nearly global spatial coverage between 82°S and 82°N. Each profile is spaced by about 165 km along the orbit track. The recommended useful pressure range (Livesey et al., 2011) for the MLS measurements of the versions v3 and v4 is from 261 hPa to 0.02 hPa, with a vertical resolution between 2.5 km and 6 km, depending on altitude.

We used for this study version 4.2 of the MLS ozone product (Schwartz et al., 2015). Notable improvements of the v4.2, compared to the earlier versions v3.3/v3.4, show a reduction in the severity and frequency of cloud impacts on ozone determination. For more information, users of MLS/Aura L2 v4.2 should refer to the EOS MLS Level 2 Version 4 Quality Document by Livesey et al. (2016). MLS ozone profiles show good quality in the UTLS, with a precision of about 5%. Biases for MLS ozone profiles are about 2 % in the stratosphere but they increase in the upper troposphere and can be as high as 20 % at the 215 hPa level (Froidevaux et al., 2008). To avoid the introduction of biases at this level in our analyses we have taken the MLS ozone data only between 12.12 hPa to 177.83 hPa.

2.2 Validation measurements

2.2.1 The OMI-MLS residual method and the Ozone ENSO index

The OMI instrument, is one among a total of four instruments on board Aura satellite. It is a nadir viewing imaging spectrometer that measures the solar radiation reflected by Earth's atmosphere and surface (Levelt et al., 2006). It makes spectral measurements in the ultraviolet (270-314 nm; 306-380 nm) and visible 350-500 nm wavelength regions at 0.5 nm resolution. OMI provides measurements with a daily global coverage and a very high horizontal spatial resolution of 13 km x 24 km at nadir (Dobber et al., 2006). Retrieval errors of the OMI data vary from 6% to 35% in the troposphere (Liu et al., 2010). Total column ozone from OMI have been derived using the TOMS version 8 algorithm (Ziemke et al., 2006).

To derive TCO with the OMI-MLS residual method, Ziemke et al. (2006) subtracted the stratospheric ozone columns retrieved with MLS from the OMI total column. They selected OMI pixels with near clear-sky conditions (radiative cloud fraction < 30%). Stratospheric MLS data was spatially interpolated each day on a coarser regular grid. The tropopause height used for the TCO cutoff between OMI and MLS comes from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) using the 2K.km^{-1} lapse rate tropopause definition (Craig, 1965) of the World Meteorological Organization (WMO). We used OMI-MLS data from the NASA GODDARD website for tropospheric ozone (http://acd-ext.gsfc.nasa.gov/Data_services/). All available daily data have been averaged to compute monthly means with a latitude-longitude resolution of 1°x1.25°.

There is no single universal ENSO index reproducing oceanic and atmospheric physical conditions over the tropical Pacific (Trenberth, 1997). Many ENSO indices have been developed using for instance sea-surface pressure, SST, and precipitation

(Trenberth, 1997; Curtis and Adler, 2000). The commonly used NOAA Niño 3.4 index is derived from SST anomalies. Based on thirty years of satellite measurements spanning to investigate ENSO's impact on tropical TCO, Ziemke et al. (2010) pro-
5 duced monthly OEI. Stratospheric column ozone in the tropical Pacific has very small longitudinal variations of only a few Dobson Units. This has been shown in the previous studies from SAGE, UARS HALOE, UARS MLS and AURA MLS strato-spheric O_3 satellite measurements (Ziemke et al., 1998, 2010). Because of this characteristic, the zonal variation of the TCO in tropical Pacific is essentially identical to the east-west variation of total column ozone. Thus TCO alone can be used to derive the OEI. The OEI is obtained by subtracting the TCO in the region named *Pacific Ocean Center* (POC, 15°S - 15°N, 110°W -
10 180°W) from the TCO in the region *Indonesia with Indian Ocean* (IIO, 15°S - 15°N, 70°E - 140°E) each month. To compute the TCO, the altitude of the tropopause must be known. Ziemke et al. (2010) used tropopause heights derived from the NCEP data. The tropopause is defined as the lowest level, with respect to altitude, at which the temperature lapse rate decreases to $2°C.km^{-1}$ or less and does not exceed 2K/km for 2km above. We adopted this tropopause computation to derive the OEI from our analyses. Tropopause pressures, used to compute Ozone Index with both the assimilation of IASI-MLS and MLS only
15 data, are comprised between 80 hPa at low latitudes and 500 hPa at high latitudes.

2.2.2 Ozonesondes

Ozonesondes are launched in many locations over the world on a weekly basis, measuring vertical profiles of O_3 concentration with a high vertical resolution of 150-200 m, from the ground to approximately 10 hPa. Data are collected by the World Ozone and Ultraviolet Radiation Data Center (WOUDC, http://www.woudc.org). During the six years considered in this study (2008
20 to 2013), only 270 ozonesoundings are available for the Pacific area between 15°S-15°N and 70°E-110°W (Fig. 2). We divide this area in two regions: IIO and POC, which are represented by the two blue retangles in Fig. 2.

WOUDC ozonesondes measurements used for the validation are considered as a reference. Despite their sparse geographical distribution, several studies have used WOUDC database to validate global models and satellite retrievals (Geer et al., 2006; Massart et al., 2009; Dufour et al., 2012).

2.3 Analyses

2.3.1 Chemical transport model

MOCAGE is a three-dimensional CTM based on a semi-Lagrangian advection scheme (Williamson and Rasch, 1989) devel-oped for both tropospheric and stratospheric applications. Multiple nested domains with different horizontal resolutions can be used within MOCAGE, as well as chemical and physical parameterizations of increasing complexity. The different configura-
30 tions of MOCAGE have been validated against *in situ*, satellite, and ground-based measurements in several studies (Josse et al., 2004; Teyssèdre et al., 2007; Bousserez et al., 2007; Honoré et al., 2008; Sič et al., 2015). For this study, a global horizontal resolution of 2°x2° has been used with 60 sigma hybrid vertical levels from the surface up to 0.1 hPa. The vertical resolution goes from about 40 m in the boundary layer, to about 500 m in the free troposphere and to approximately 800 m in the upper

troposphere and lower stratosphere. The model uses winds, temperature and ground pressure from the European Center for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) ERA-Interim reanalysis (Berrisford et al., 2011).

5 For the chemical scheme we use the simplified ozone chemistry scheme developed by Cariolle and Teyssedre (2007), based on the linearization of the destruction and production rates of ozone. Emili et al. (2014) have shown that with this simplified chemical scheme it is possible to obtain O_3 analyses from IASI data of comparable quality to those obtained using more complex chemical schemes. The use of this simplified scheme reduces numerical costs, which is highly beneficial for the production of long chemical reanalyses such as the ones discussed in this study. Since the linearized chemistry scheme does

10 not have any longitudinal variation, the longitudinal ozone variability that is reproduced by the model (e.g. in correspondence of the Walker circulation, see section 3.2.1) results only from the ozone transport.

2.3.2 Assimilation algorithm

The chemical data assimilation system for MOCAGE is developed at CERFACS and has already been used for several applications at both regional and global scales (El Amraoui et al., 2010; Sič et al., 2016). The MOCAGE assimilation system was

15 part of the first international exercise of satellite ozone assimilation (Geer et al., 2006) and it currently provides operational air quality analyses for the european project CAMS (Marécal et al., 2015). The assimilation configuration used for this study is based on the 4D-Var algorithm in a "perfect model" framework. Compared to the 3D-Var algorithm, the 4D-Var allows a better exploitation of satellite observations with large spatial and temporal fingerprint (Massart et al., 2010). The cost function is minimized using the limited-memory BFGS (Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno) method (Liu and Nocedal, 1989) and the

20 3D background error covariance matrix (B) is modeled through a diffusion equation (Weaver and Courtier, 2001).

The IASI partial O_3 columns (1000-345 hPa) and MLS profiles have been assimilated in the troposphere and in the stratosphere respectively to constrain the ozone concentration along the full atmospheric column. For this study, the choice of the assimilated column top (345 hPa) has been taken based on SOFRID averaging kernels found over the tropics (Barret et al., 2011). The objective was to minimize the extent of the atmospheric layer where both MLS and IASI can have a direct impact.

25 This avoids to some extent the need of quantifying and accounting for possible biases between the two instruments. Before the assimilation, IASI data have been averaged to obtain 2° by 2° pixels to match the model resolution. The smoothing equation based on the averaging kernels (AK) and on the a priori profile in the troposphere has been applied to the profiles from the model to account for the limited sensitivity of IASI retrievals in the troposphere (see Barret et al., 2016). The description of the linear retrieval equation can be found in Barret et al. (2011). Emili et al. (2014) found global biases of 10% in the troposphere

30 assimilating IASI-SOFRID product in MOCAGE. When they removed 10% of the values in the IASI observations, the biases in the analyses were significantly reduced. The same correction has been applied in this study.

Most of the parameters of the assimilation algorithm used to compute the reanalyses in this study are based on the study of Emili et al. (2014). The validation of a short reanalysis of two months against ozonesondes (not shown) has been used to further optimize some of these parameters. The background and observation errors are defined as follows. Emili et al. (2014) have assimilated IASI and MLS data globally with a background error standard deviation equal to 30 % of the modeled ozone

profile in the tropopshere and 5 % in the stratosphere. Based on local validation in the tropics, we found slightly superior results using an error standard deviation of 15 % instead of 30 % in the troposphere. Therefore, this choice has been taken for the 6-years reanalyses. We specify the background error variances as a percentage of the modeled ozone profile equal to 15% in the troposphere and 5% in the stratosphere. These values were established through a global validation of ozone forecasts against ozonesondes. We use horizontal correlation length that differs for meridional and zonal dimensions. The meridional length scale is fixed to a constant value of 300 km and the zonal length scale varies from 500 km at the equator to 100 km at the poles. Further tests led us to deactivate the vertical error correlation, compared to the value of one grid point used in the previous study (Emili et al., 2014). Ozonesondes validation has shown a 20% decrease in bias close to the tropopause when deactivating the vertical correlation, the scores remaining the same elsewhere. The reason for such improvement is due to the relatively coarse vertical resolution of the model compared to the magnitude of the ozone gradient at the tropopause. When a non-zero error correlation is used, large assimilation increments due to lowermost MLS observations can spread into the upper troposphere and degrade the ozone concentration. For IASI data we set the variance of the observation error equal to 15% of the measured ozone columns. The error covariance matrix of the MLS retrieval is prescribed from retrieval product of MLS measurements.

3 Results

We have performed three ozone simulations covering the period 2008 to 2013. The first simulation, called Direct Model (DM), has been produced running the MOCAGE CTM without data assimilation. The model is initialized with a climatology on 1st November 2007 to allow for a spin-up period of two months. The second simulation, named MLS-a, started in January 2008 with the assimilation of MLS profiles for the whole period. Finally, the third simulation (IASI-a) was produced with the assimilation of IASI tropospheric O_3 columns and MLS stratospheric O_3 profiles. Both MLS-a and IASI-a are initialized with the direct model output on 1st January 2008. For the three simulations the outputs are recorded every six hours.

The main results are outlined as follows. Section 3.1 contains the validation of the simulations against ozonesondes. A first validation (section 3.1.1) has been done considering all the measurements available in the latitude band between 15°S-15°N providing a statistically significant validation in the tropical region. The following section 3.1.2 limits the comparison with O_3 soundings over the region directly influenced by ENSO events. In section 3.2 we analyze the temporal and spatial variability of TCO during the period 2008-2013. The link between sea surface temperature and ozone variability is studied with the OMI-MLS estimations (see section 2.2). The objective is to evaluate how modelled ozone distributions reproduce the observed ozone variability over the Pacific ocean during the normal conditions of the Walker cell and during ENSO events. In section 3.2.2, we compare the Ozone ENSO Index (OEI) computed using the previous datasets, to the Niño 3.4 index, to demonstrate the added value of IASI tropospheric assimilation for long term ozone monitoring. Finally, in section 3.2.3 the vertical distributions of ozone are examined over two regions (Eastern Asia and Indonesia and over the Pacific Ocean) to highlight the footprint of ENSO within the three model simulations.

3.1 Validation with ozonesonde measurements

3.1.1 The equatorial latitudes

The O_3 data have been treated as follows: i) The modelled fields have been collocated with the soundings in space and time, ii) The obtained values have been averaged on a two-month basis, in order to take into account a larger number of soundings for statistical evaluations. The collocation was done with a linear interpolation along each dimension, which results in a linear interpolation in time of the model's 6-hourly outputs and trilinear interpolation in space (on both the horizontal/vertical dimensions).

Figure 3 shows the comparison between the partial ozone column of the three simulations and the ozonesondes data in the tropical band (15°S-15°N). Partial ozone columns (in DU) and relative differences (in %) are plotted separately for the TCO (1000 - 100 hPa), the boundary layer (1000 - 750 hPa) and the free troposphere (750 - 100 hPa). The TCO from ozonesondes (Fig. 3a) has maxima in summer/fall and minima in winter. The observed seasonal variation is a consequence of biomass burning, which provides precursors for ozone formation in summer/fall. The emission of gases by biomass burning, such as carbon monoxide and carbonaceous aerosols, intensifies during the dry season (June-July and August-October) over both South America and South Africa regions (Andreae et al., 1998; Sinha et al., 2004). The ozone columns produced by the DM and MLS-a simulations do not show the variability measured by the ozonesondes, their correlation coefficients with the sondes data are lower than 0.76 (Fig. 3a,b). The IASI-a variability matches the ozonesondes better with a correlation coefficient of 0.88. In particular the IASI-a simulation exhibits a year-to-year variability that agrees very well with the ozonesonde data. This is confirmed by the RSD (*Relative Standard Deviation*) of the differences between simulated and observed values: the RSD of IASI-a is 6% whereas it is about 10% for MLS-a and MD. The relative differences between simulated and observed values are presented in Fig. 3b. IASI-a is less biased (6%) than DM and MLS-a, and MLS-a has lower biases (24%) than DM (32%). Biases are lower with MLS-a, compared to DM, due to the assimilation of MLS stratospheric data. The MLS-a improvement is due to the direct influence of the lowest assimilated level of MLS (170 hPa) which brings information on the O_3 distribution in the UTLS region. Compared to IASI-a the lower accuracy of DM comes from the use of the simplified ozone scheme, which does not account for the production of tropospheric ozone by biomass burning.

Figure 3c and 3d show that the IASI-a tropospheric columns are biased high in the lower troposphere. In this region, the RSD of the three simulations are very similar implying a similar variability compared to ozonesondes, even if IASI-a matches the ozonesondes slightly better. However, IASI-a is half as less accurate for the boundary layer O_3 column than for the TCO and its biases are higher than MD and MLS-a. Larger biases in the boundary layer are a consequence of both the low DOFs of IASI retrievals in the troposphere and the presence of a DM bias with opposite sign between the free troposphere and the boundary layer. The positive correction provided by IASI assimilation in the free troposphere propagates downward in the boundary layer, therefore increasing the original DM bias.

Ozone concentration and biases of the IASI-a simulation in the free troposphere (Fig. 3e and Fig. 3f) show much better results than the two other simulations. As it can be seen, the sensitivity of the IASI measurements is larger in the mid and upper

5 troposphere. The RSD of IASI-a is around 6% instead of 11% for DM and 9% for MLS-a in the middle-upper troposphere (Fig. 3f). The added value of IASI data in the middle troposphere is particularly remarkable in the case of bias, which is 2% for IASI-a instead of 41% and 32% for DM and MLS-a, respectively. Since the boundary layer (1000 - 750 hPa) corresponds approximately to 12% of the TCO (1000 - 100 hPa), the overestimation of the ozone column by IASI-a does not have a major impact on the TCO used for our study of the ENSO-O_3 correlation, which is the main objective of this study.

10 ### 3.1.2 From Eastern Africa to South America : focus on the ENSO

To study the ENSO we divide the region of interest (latitudes ranges from 15°S to 15°N and longitudes ranges from 70°E to 110°W) in two areas (see Fig. 2) : the first one, called IIO, has a longitude range between 70°E and 140°E while the second one, called POC, is located between 180°W and 110°W. Three ozonesonde stations are available for both regions, two in the IIO region and one in the POC region (Tab. 1).

Table 1. Ozonesonde stations at tropical latitudes between 70°E and 110°W.

Name	Ozonesondes	Localization	Coordinates
Malaysia	443 ECC	Kuala Lumpur international airport, Malaysia	3°N - 101°E
Indonesia	437 ECC	Watukosek, Java Timur, Indonesia	8°S - 113°E
Samoa	191 ECC	Apia, Samoa	13°S - 172°W

15 Ozone measurements for each site are available over different time periods. The Malaysia site provides measurements only between January 2008 and December 2009, the Indonesia site from January 2008 to December 2012, and the Samoa site from January 2008 to December 2013. Due to the small number of ozonesondes measurements, results of the statistical validation presented here should be considered with more caution than in the previous section. The main objective of this section is to check whether the reanalysis can capture strong local variations of TCO due to ENSO.

20 Figure 4 shows the statistics of the IASI-a O_3 simulation versus the three records from the ozonesoundings. Time series are computed in the same manner as the time series over the tropical band discussed in the previous section (section 3.1.1). From January 2008 to December 2009, TCO from the ozonesondes located in the IIO region (Fig. 4a and Fig. 4c) and those located in the POC region (Fig. 4e), has a seasonal variability with maxima in boreal summer and minima in boreal winter. This ozone seasonality is caused by the biomass combustion over the Western Pacific Ocean near New Guinea during the dry period (Kim 25 and Newchurch, 1998). Among the countries of Southern Asia, Indonesia is known as the third country for biomass burning emissions (Streets et al., 2003). During the year 2010 and over the IIO region (Fig. 4c), the variability of ozone concentrations has a different seasonality. We see a peak of ozone during March 2010 over Indonesia (26 DU) whereas there is a minimum in Samoa (12 DU) (Fig. 4e). This ozone rise over the IIO region is linked with subsidence, generated by the El Niño event starting in January 2010 (see Fig. 1). El Niño intensifies the subsidence and therefore dry conditions and biomass burning over Southern Asia (Matsueda et al., 2002; Chandra et al., 2002). From September 2010 to August 2011, the TCO values decrease to an average of about 20 DU over Indonesia. This decrease in tropospheric ozone is due to the other phase of ENSO : La

5   Niña. As we have already mentioned (Fig. 1), La Niña strengthens the convection over the IIO causing a minimum in the TCO.
     Hence, there is a lower TCO over Indonesia (around 20 DU) than over Samoa (around 28 DU). After summer 2011 the ENSO
     disappears and the TCO returns to normal seasonality.

     IASI-a reproduces quite well the variability measured by the ozonesondes during normal conditions of the Walker circulation
     (2008-2009) and during the ENSO (2010-2011). In particular, IASI-a agreement with the ozonesondes is better over the POC
10   region (Samoa), where the correlation coefficient of 0.96, than over Indonesia and Malaysia where the coefficients are around
     0.7. However, the relative difference between IASI-a and the ozonesondes is larger over the POC region (Fig. 4f) than over the
     IIO region (Fig. 4b,Fig. 4d), with an overestimation of the ozone columns by about 17% in Samoa. Mean biases are around 3-
     5% for over Indonesia and Malaysia, showing that IASI-a reproduces quite well the ozone variability during normal condition
     of the Walker circulation. Equally, IASI-a reproduces the maximum over Indonesia and the minimum over Samoa during the
15   2010 El Niño event, as well as the TCO minima generated during La Niña over the IIO region. As already discussed, biases
     observed in the POC and IIO regions come from the decreased sensitivity of IASI in the boundary layer, and from the lack
     of adequate representation of the chemistry in the lower troposphere by the linear scheme used within MOCAGE. The three
     simulations (IASI-a, MD and MLS-a) have identical biases in the boundary layer compared to the ozonesoundings (Figures not
     shown). Biases in the boundary layer are higher in the POC region (around 45%) compared to the IIO region (around 20%).
20   However, in the POC region, the variability of the three simulations are remarkably well correlated with the ozonesondes, with
     coefficient correlations higher than 0.85 (not shown).

     To summarize, the IASI-a simulation reproduces well the O_3 variability observed with the ozonesondes for the tropical
     latitudes and for both regions of POC and IIO. The seasonal oscillations of ozone, caused by the anthropogenic pollution and
     by ENSO, are reproduced by IASI-a despite a slightly overestimation of about 4% in the IIO region and around 17% in the
25   POC region. The IASI-a simulation is thus adequate to study ozone variability during ENSO events since biases are not very
     large over the period under study.

3.2   Temporal and spatial variability of ozone during ENSO

3.2.1   Characterization of ENSO and footprints on SST and tropospheric ozone content

In this section we consider the link between Sea Surface Temperature (SST) and tropospheric ozone during ENSO events.
30   Previous studies have highlighted the link between SST anomalies and ENSO dynamics (Philander S. G., 1989; Barnston et al.,
     1997; Wang et al., 2014). Colder SST in the POC region is associated with La Niña whereas El Niño has warmer SST than
     normal condition (Trenberth, 1997). Variations in TCO concentrations are a combination of biomass burning rejecting large
     quantities of ozone precursors (Chandra et al., 2002) and eastward shift in the tropical convection of the Walker circulation
     associated with SST changes (Chandra et al., 1998; Sudo and Takahashi, 2001a). The correlation between SST and TCO have
     already been characterized using OMI-MLS data, our objective is to see if similar correlations can be derived using the model
     simulations. To this end, we have taken SST data from the Giovanni-Interactive Visualization and Analysis - GES DISC:

5   Goddard Earth Sciences, data and Information Services Centre (https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov). The SST data were measured by the instrument MODIS (Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer) aboard the Aqua satellites (NASA Earth Observing System platforms).

Figure 5 shows the time versus longitude Hovmöller diagram, averaged between 15°S and 15°N of the monthly mean SST and the OMI-MLS measurements. SST over the Pacific ocean has a characteristic geographic distribution (Fig. 5a), with

10   warmest water in the IIO region (70°E-140°E) and coldest water in the POC region (180°W-110°W). The link between SST and TCO (Chandra et al., 1998, 2009) is observed comparing the SST (Fig. 5a) with OMI-MLS measurements (Fig. 5b). The warmest water-induced convective movements resulting in a TCO decrease and inversely for the coldest water. During El Niño (January 2010) the warm SST shifts from IIO region to the POC region. These eastward shifts in SST coincide with eastward shifts of TCO from July 2008 to January 2010. During La Niña (occurred between September 2010 and January

15   2011) an opposite condition occurs with the strengthening of colder SST between 80°W and 150°W. In this region of colder SST (Fig. 5a), higher TCO (26 - 32 DU) is located between the coast of South America and 140°W (Fig. 5b). The eastward shift of SST occuring from January 2011 to December 2013, corresponds to the return of normal conditions over the Pacific ocean and impacts TCO with an eastward shift.

To compare the three model simulations, with OMI-MLS, we have computed anomalies of tropospheric ozone of each

20   datasets for the period 2008-2013 (Fig. 6). The anomalies are calculated by subtracting the time averaged TCO to each TCO determination and this difference has been divided by the mean TCO. The TCO anomalies are expressed in percentage. The variability of TCO, observed previously with OMI-MLS measurements in Fig. 5, is also clearly visible with the TCO anomaly (Fig. 6a). The TCO with values 20% lower than average are located in the IIO region. The TCO with values 20% higher than average are located close to South America coasts. The El Niño event on January 2010 has a significant impact on TCO,

25   with 20% higher values in the IIO region and 10% lower in the POC region. The La Niña event that follows shows different localization on the TCO maximum with a maximum between 110°W and 80°W. Part of the TCO variability in Eastern and Western Pacific ocean linked with the Walker circulation is reproduced with the DM simulation (Fig. 6b). The TCO with values 10% higher (resp. 10% lower) than average are located in POC (resp. IIO) region. However the amplitude of the TCO anomalies from the DM simulation is much lower compared to OMI-MLS. Since the chemical scheme used in the MOCAGE

30   model has no longitudinal forcing in the chemical tendencies, the TCO anomalies in the DM simulation are only due to changes in the equatorial circulation and the associated ozone transport. The ECMWF analyses capture the dynamics associated to the Walker circulation and to ENSO and hence drive the variations of the TCO seen in the DM simulation. The assimilation of MLS O_3 profiles in the stratosphere does not change much the structures and percentages of anomalies of the TCO, the results of the MLS-a simulation (Fig. 6c) are similar to those of the DM. Eastward shift during El Niño and higher TCO in the POC region during La Niña are represented with both simulations but the TCO anomalies for both simulations are 10% lower than with those of OMI-MLS. Basically the ENSO impacts the troposphere and little information is brought by the assimilation

5   of MLS data. Eastern shift during El Niño and higher TCO in the POC region during La Niña are underestimated by both simulations. Compared to DM and MLS-a the TCO variability is much better reproduced with IASI-a (Fig. 6d). The amplitude

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of the TCO changes caused by El Niño and La Niña compares very well with the OMI-MLS observations. However, small differences appear between IASI-a and OMI-MLS. Over the IIO region during El Niño the TCO anomaly is 10% lower with IASI-a than with OMI-MLS. In addition,the location of the TCO maximum during La Niña is located in the whole POC region with IASI-a and in the Eastern part of the POC region with OMI-MLS.

Overall, the anomalies of the TCO reproduced by IASI-a are in good agreement with those of OMI-MLS. The improvement compared to the DM and MLS-a simulations is very significant, thus demonstrating the usefulness of the IASI data for the ozone evaluation in the troposphere. Equally, the assimilation process is efficient to follow ozone variability and the resulting IASI-a analysis appears to give a consistent data set for the study of the ozone variability. The advantage of IASI-a over OMI-MLS is that the analyses are fully 4D with six hourly outputs and resolved information on the vertical dimension. The vertical distributions are studied in section 3.2.3.

3.2.2   Intercomparison of Ozone ENSO Indices

The OEI is the TCO difference computed between the IIO region (70°E-140°E) and the POC region (180°W-110°W). The resulting time series are then deseasonalized. This deseasonalization is done to remove the signal of the annual cycle (Ziemke et al., 2010). OEI is a strong indicator of the ENSO intensity influencing the tropospheric ozone over IIO and POC regions (Ziemke et al., 2010). It is considered as a basic diagnostic tool to evaluate the ability of the models to reproduce changes in tropospheric ozone linked with ENSO (Ziemke et al., 2010, 2014).

Figure 7 shows the OEI during the period January 2008 to December 2013 computed from our model analyses and from the OMI-MLS data. The OEI variations are related to ENSO, with maxima during El Niño and minima during La Niña events. In Fig. 7a we have plotted the OEI computed for the OMI-MLS measurements (noted OMI-MLS) and the Niño 3.4 index. The monthly Niño 3.4 is calculated from SST anomalies in the Pacific Ocean. The Niño 3.4 index calculated from SST is avalaible from the NOAA website (*http://www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov/data/indices/*). Sea surface temperature anomalies were calculated using the monthly Extended Reconstructed Sea Surface Temperature version 4 (ERSST.v4, 1950-2016 base period). Also included is the OEI of OMI-MLS smoothed using a 3-month running average, as computed by (Ziemke et al., 2010, 2014) and called OEI-Z hereafter. Figure 7b shows the OEI computed from IASI-a, MLS-a, DM and OMI-MLS. Our OEI indices from OMI-MLS, DM, MLS-a and IASI-a are computed without time averaging, by subtraction of TCO in the POC region from TCO averaged over the IIO region. As defined by the NOAA, the two ENSO phases occur when the Niño 3.4 index is higher than 0.5 (corresponding to El Niño) and lower than -0.5 (corresponding to La Niña) during five consecutive months. Thus, in the analysed period an El Niño starts on July 2008 with a maximum on January 2010, and a La Niña starts on July 2010 with a maximum on January 2011. The two time series of OEI-Z and OMI-MLS appear remarkably similar (Fig. 7a), except around January 2008. For this period they are out of phase with the Niño 3.4. The discrepancy is attributed to the phase opposition between the interannual and intraseasonal variability of the TCO (Ziemke et al., 2014) linked with the intraseasonal Madden Julian Oscillation (MJO, (Madden and Julian, 1972, 1994). The MJO increases the differences between OEI-Z and OMI-MLS in 2008. Detailing the effect of MJO on monthly OEI is beyond the scope of our current study. As expected, the OEI from

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OMI-MLS shows a consistent variability with OEI-Z, in particular the maxima and minima agree and are well correlated to the Niño 3.4 index. Since the OMI-MLS OEI is obtained from monthly averages it exhibits shorter term variability than OEI-Z and can be directly compared to the indices derived from the model simulations.

The DM OEI (Fig. 7b, green curve) is negative during the whole period, corresponding to a tropospheric column higher over the POC region than over the IIO region. The DM OEI variations show some features of the ENSO, with a relative maxima in January 2010 followed by a minima at the end of the same year, but the intensity is weak, about three times lower than values observed with OMI-MLS. The MLS-a produces an OEI very similar to DM. As already discussed, constraining the ozone profile in the stratosphere has little impact on the quality of the modelled ENSO O_3 signal. With the IASI-a we can quantify the contribution of IASI data in the computed OEI (Fig. 7b, red curve). Compared to DM and MLS-a simulations the IASI-a analysis produces OEI in better agreement with the ones derived from OMI-MLS. The OEI variations are in phase with a very good match of periods of maxima and minima. There is however a constant bias of approximately 2.4 DU between the indices of OMI-MLS and IASI-a. As discussed in section 3.1.2, IASI-a bias in the lower troposphere is larger in the POC region than in the IIO region. This difference of biases between POC and IIO regions affects the determination of the OEI. In addition, during ENSO events we have seen from the Hovmöller plots in section 3.2.1 that during La Niña the TCO maximum with IASI-a is slightly shifted to the Western part of the POC region compared to the OMI-MLS data. The difference in the location of maximum over the Eastern Pacific between OMI-MLS and IASI-a explains part of the difference in the OEI absolute values during El Niño and La Niña events (Fig. 7).

Tropospheric ozone variability during ENSO is therefore very well captured from the OEI variations computed from IASI-a, despite a constant bias in the boundary layer. Further insights in the vertical distribution of O_3 over the POC and IIO regions during ENSO are discussed in the next section.

3.2.3 Vertical structure of O_3

The evaluations of TCO obtained with the OMI-MLS by subtracting stratospheric ozone from MLS from the total ozone from OMI cannot give information on the vertical structure of the O_3 anomalies forced by ENSO. This is clearly an advantage of model assimilations that can give a complete 3D structure of the ozone fields with no gaps due to orbitography and clouds. We focus here on the information brought by the assimilation of IASI and MLS data in describing the vertical ozone response to ENSO in the POC and IIO regions. Figure 8 shows monthly mean ozone profiles for IASI-a, MLS-a and DM, over the six-year record. The tropopause pressure for the three simulations is about 100 hPa. Ozone concentration in this layer is around 70 ppbv. Due to the limitations of the model and the lack of information brought by the two instruments in the boundary layer, as already discussed, we focus our analysis in the IIO et POC regions on the free troposphere, between 750 hPa and 100 hPa.

The DM (Fig. 8a,b) and MLS-a (Fig. 8c,d) produce very close distributions of the vertical ozone concentration. The MLS-a simulation shows slightly more ozone in the lower stratosphere and upper troposphere, but the fluctuations of the concentration have similar amplitudes in both simulations. Particularly noticeable is the signal during the 2010 El Niño with low ozone values in the POC region during the first months of the year linked to increased convection and associated upward motions, and an

opposite behaviour in the IIO region with subsidence and increased ozone down to the middle troposphere. This footprint of ENSO is very well captured with the IASI-a simulation, especially over the POC region. Over that region the ozone content is lower than 35 ppbv during El Niño and larger than 50 ppbv during La Niña. The information brought by IASI is very significant,

the amplitude of the ozone change between El Niño and La Niña periods is 2 to 3 times larger with IASI-a assimilation than it is with DM and MLS-a simulations. If we refer to OEI indices (Fig. 7) some ENSO activity is detected in late 2012/early 2013. Indeed an O_3 minimum in early 2013 followed by a maximum in the middle of the year is clearly visible in the IASI-a assimilation in the POC region. The amplitude of the ENSO signal on ozone is lower than for the 2010 event, in agreement with the lower values of the Niño 3.4 index. Also more clearly visible with IASI-a are the seasonal variations of the ozone content in the IIO region that is quite regular outside ENSO periods. In that region the annual periodicity of ozone is much pronounced in comparison of the more erratic variations shown in the POC region. The regularity of the ozone fluctuation is more pronounced in IASI-a assimilation than in DM and MLS-a simulations. In addition to the influence of atmospheric dynamics, biomass burning and the associated ozone production could trigger the seasonal fluctuations. Such an ozone production detected by the IASI instrument (and therefore visible in IASI-a) cannot be reproduced by the DM and MLS-a simulations due to the simplified chemical scheme.

Overall the combination of the IASI ozone tropospheric retrievals and our 4D-Var algorithm produces a very consistent dataset for the study of the influence of ENSO on the ozone distribution from the stratosphere to the middle troposphere. The quality of IASI-a, which also includes the assimilation of MLS, is good in stratosphere down to the middle troposphere. In the boundary layer, below 800 hPa, a comprehensive chemical scheme with adequate emissions should be used to improve the assimilation since there are no global observations of the ozone content in this layer over the equatorial regions.

4 Summary and conclusion

Six years (from January 2008 to December 2013) of 6-hourly tropospheric ozone fields have been derived assimilating IASI and MLS ozone measurements in the MOCAGE CTM. The assimilation of IASI tropospheric columns combined with MLS stratospheric profiles has been first validated against ozonesondes in the tropical band (15°S-15°N), providing a statistically robust validation. In the tropical band and over the whole period, IASI-a gives results similar to ozonesondes and reproduces well the ozone variability despite a constant bias. Biases in the analysis come from the low accuracy of the model in the boundary layer. The ozone linear scheme in MOCAGE does not take surface emissions into account. In addition, IASI has a weak sensitivity in the boundary layer therefore not bringing additional information on O_3 content in this layer. A second validation has been done over the Pacific ocean and over Southern Asia (longitude band of 70°E to 110°W). During the 2008-2013 period, an ENSO event developed with its two phases : El Niño in winter 2010 and La Niña in winter 2011. IASI-a has been validated in two areas : the Indonesia and Indian Ocean (IIO) and the Pacific Ocean Center (POC) regions. In both regions, biases appear and are larger in the POC region. The weak sensitivity of IASI sounding in the boundary layer is responsible for these biases. However, the tropospheric ozone variability related to the Walker Circulation and to the ENSO event is well reproduced with IASI-a.

OMI-MLS tropospheric columns have been used and validated by several past studies. We have used OMI-MLS ozone data to characterize the links between SST and tropospheric O_3 and to compare with our IASI-a assimilation. Anomalies of TCO have been computed allowing a comparison between IASI-a and the two other simulations (Direct-Model and MLS-a) with OMI-MLS. Anomalies of the Direct-Model (MOCAGE without assimilation) are similar to anomalies of MLS-a (assimilation of MLS stratospheric profiles). The good reproduction of anomalies in term of location and timing between Eastern and Western regions in both simulations are due to the transport forced by the winds from the ECMWF meteorological analyses. However, the amplitude of anomalies is lower than in OMI-MLS data. Assimilation of IASI data corrects this behaviour, the anomalies of IASI-a appear very similar to the OMI-MLS anomalies. In particular, the IASI data bring essential information to reproduce the Eastern shift of TCO caused by El Niño.

In order to study the ability of IASI-a to reproduce the ozone variability caused by El Niño and La Niña phases, we have used the OEI. The OEI represents an essential diagnostic test for models that should be able to represent ozone features linked with ENSO changes in tropospheric dynamic. OEI from IASI-a shows variations similar to those of OMI-MLS with a small bias corresponding to higher TCO over the POC than over the IIO region. Direct-Model and MLS-a have the same bias. This bias has been located in the boundary layer with the comparison with the ozonesondes.

We have also examined the vertical structures of tropospheric ozone in the IIO and POC regions, with the three simulations (Direct-Model, MLS-a and IASI-a), in order to show the contribution of IASI tropospheric data in the assimilation. The IASI-a analysis is consistent with the ozone displacements in adequation with subsidences and convergences generated by El Niño and La Niña on both IIO and POC regions. The IASI assimilation gives a very valuable high resolution dataset suitable to perform analyses of the O_3 variability in the upper and middle troposphere for short term and inter-annual time scales in the tropical band.

Overall, the assimilation of stratospheric MLS and tropospheric IASI data within MOCAGE gives a good representation of the tropospheric ozone variability linked with ENSO and the Walker circulation. We have shown the importance of assimilating tropospheric IASI data to provide vertical informations of tropospheric ozone variability, showing the benefit of IASI analyses for studies on ENSO dynamics. In addition, since ENSO is one of the most important interannual fluctuations in climate variability, this study is part of a climate variability perspective. The assimilation of satellite data is promising for determining the impact of climate variability on tropospheric chemistry. There are however some limitations in our simulations that have to be adressed. One of them is the bias found in the boundary layer over the Pacific Ocean that affects the calculation of the OEI. In this study we have used a linear ozone parameterization to compute the ozone chemical tendencies. This approach is suitable for the free troposphere and the stratosphere but is certainly not adequate for the boundary layers. In the future we plan to use a more comprehensive chemical scheme that accounts for the surface emissions.

With the use of IASI data we have demonstrated here the value of assimilating satellite data that document the direct information in the tropospheric ozone content to compute OEI. This approach is promising because many types of data can enter in an assimilation process, sush as the ballon and aircraft measurements. Improvements in the tropospheric ozone content evaluations can be expected from an increase in assimilated data. Times series of IASI analysis could then be derived and used

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to study the tropospheric ozone variability over at least a thirty-year period. One advantage of infrared sounders like IASI for climate studies is their good spectral stability over time, with respect for example to UV instruments. This is an important feature when trying to determine potentially small climate signals hidden by large ozone variability, due for example to ENSO. Finally, using a more detailed chemistry scheme within future ozone reanalyses would also allow further insights on chemical feedbacks in the context of a changing climate.

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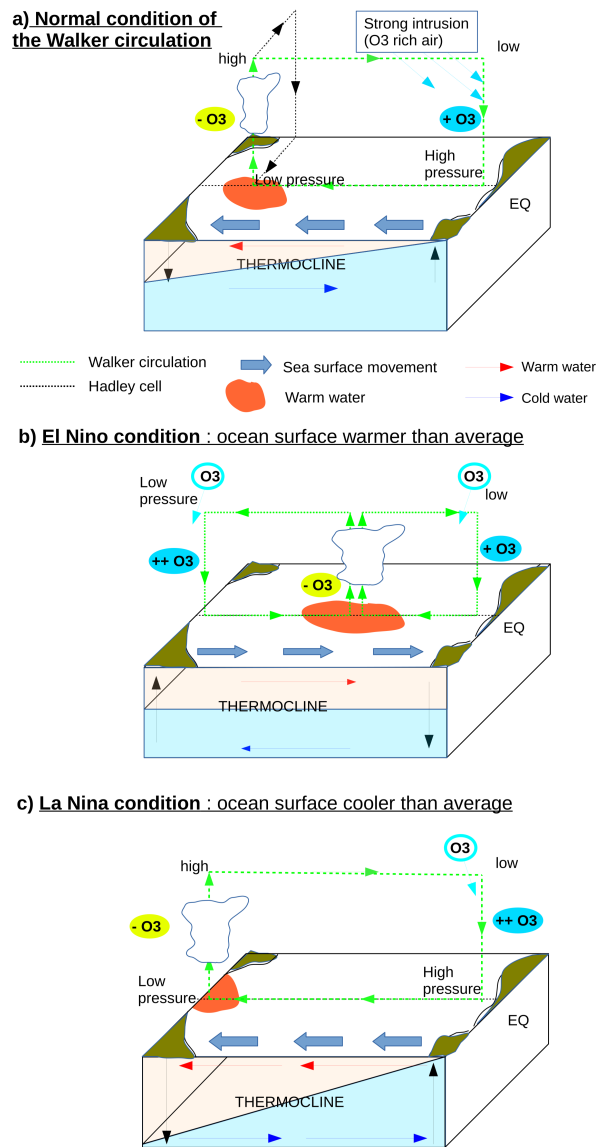
Figure 1. Schematic of the Walker Circulation over the Pacific ocean. a) During normal conditions : trade winds induce subsidence along South America with intrusion of O_3 rich air. The TCO is elevated. In addition, along Indonesia, warmer waters generate convergence that results in low O_3 concentrations. The TCO is weakened, b) During El Niño event : easterly trade winds are weakened. Therefore, convergence areas are located near the coast of South America while subsidence zones are located in the Indonesia. Low TCO is located over the Pacific ocean while high TCO is located over Indonesia, and c) During La Niña event : during exceptionally strong trade winds the convergence over the Indonesia is stronger. The TCO has the lowest value. Subsidence over South America brings air masses with high O_3 concentration resulting in higher TCO than average values.
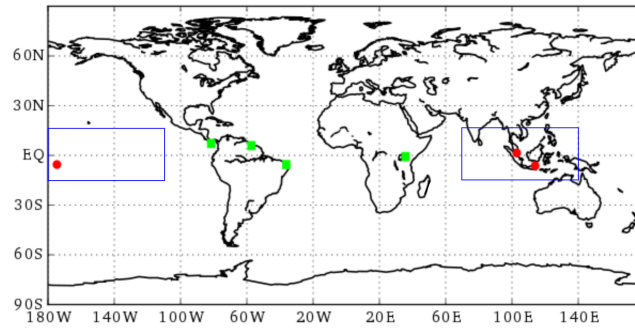
Figure 2. Map of WOUDC ozonesondes localization between 15°S and 15°N. The red circles mark ozonesondes stations between 70°E to 110°W. Green squares are ozonesondes stations elsewhere in the tropical band used hereafter. The two blue squares define the IIO region (15°S-15°N and 70°E-140°E) and the POC region (15°S-15°N and 180°W-110°W) referred in this study.
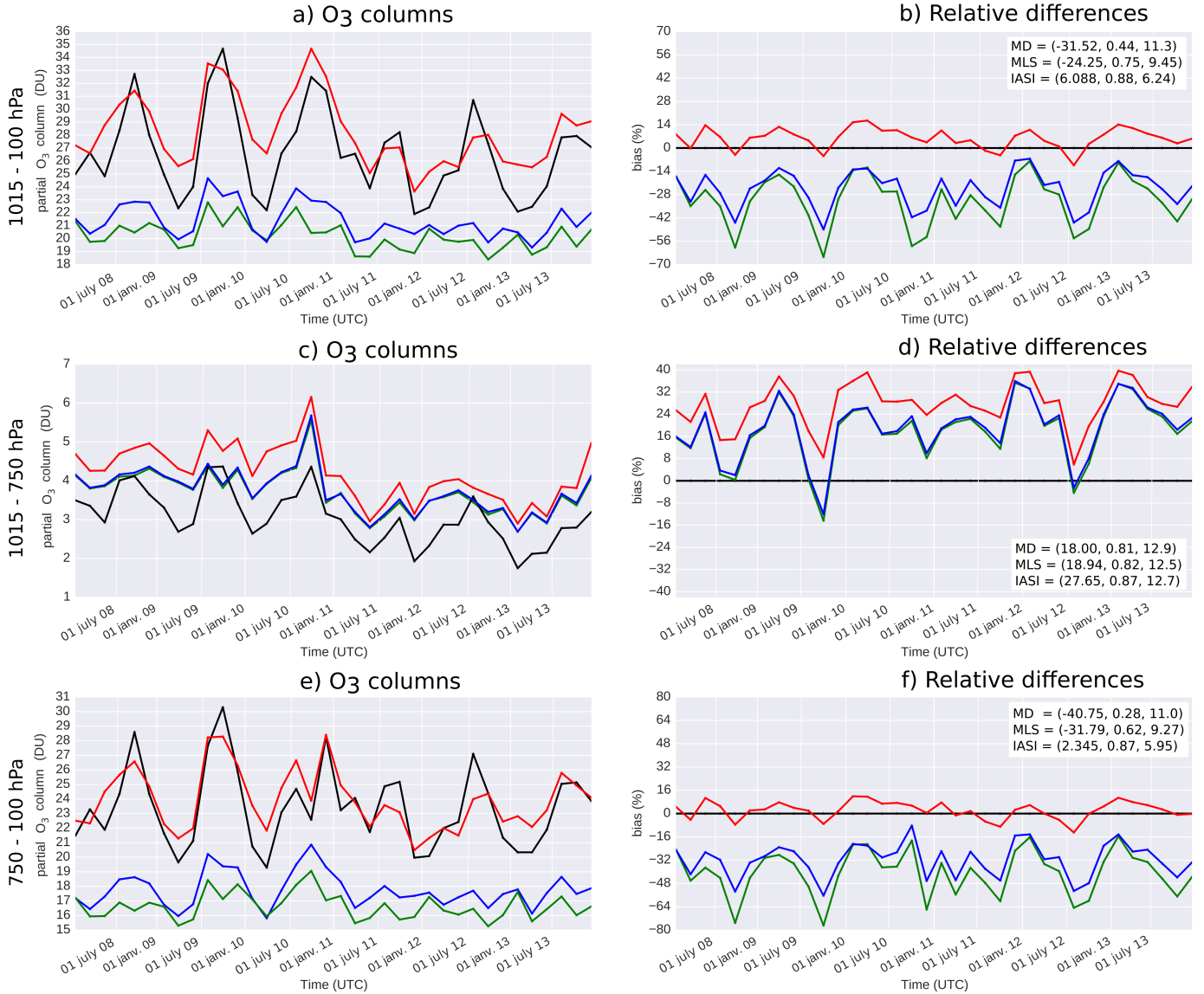
Figure 3. Time series of partial ozone columns (left panels, in DU) from the IASI-a (red curves), the MLS-a (blue curve), and the DM (green curve) plotted versus several stations measurements from WOUDC (black curves). Data are two-month averages over the area 15°S-15°N and 180°W-180°E for : a,b) the ozone column between 1015 hPa to 100 hPa, c,d) the boundary layer (1015 hPa-750 hPa) and e,f) the free troposphere (750 hPa-100 hPa). Biases in percentages are shown in right panels. Mean biases, correlation coefficients and standard deviations are also given (between brackets in the right panels).
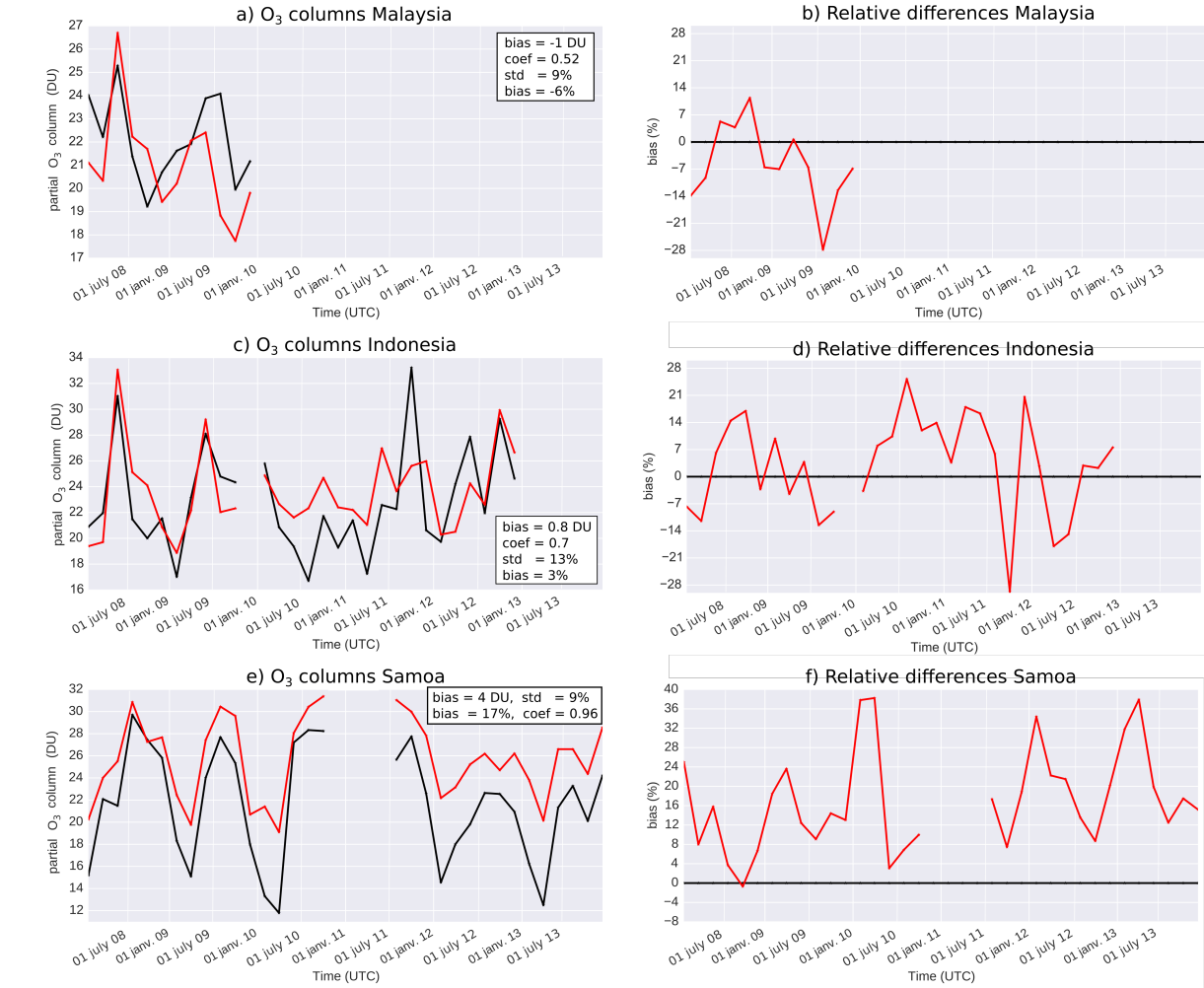
Figure 4. Comparisons between IASI-a (in red) and ozonesondes (in black). Time series of the TCO (in DU) are plotted on the left and relative differences are on the right for the sites of : a-b) Malaysia , c-d) Indonesia and e-f) Samoa.
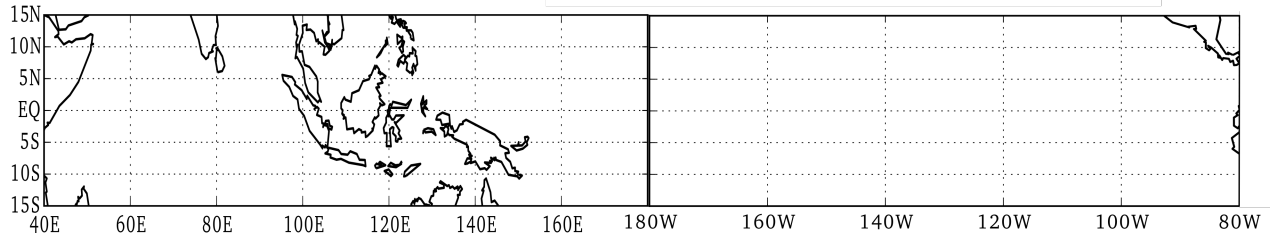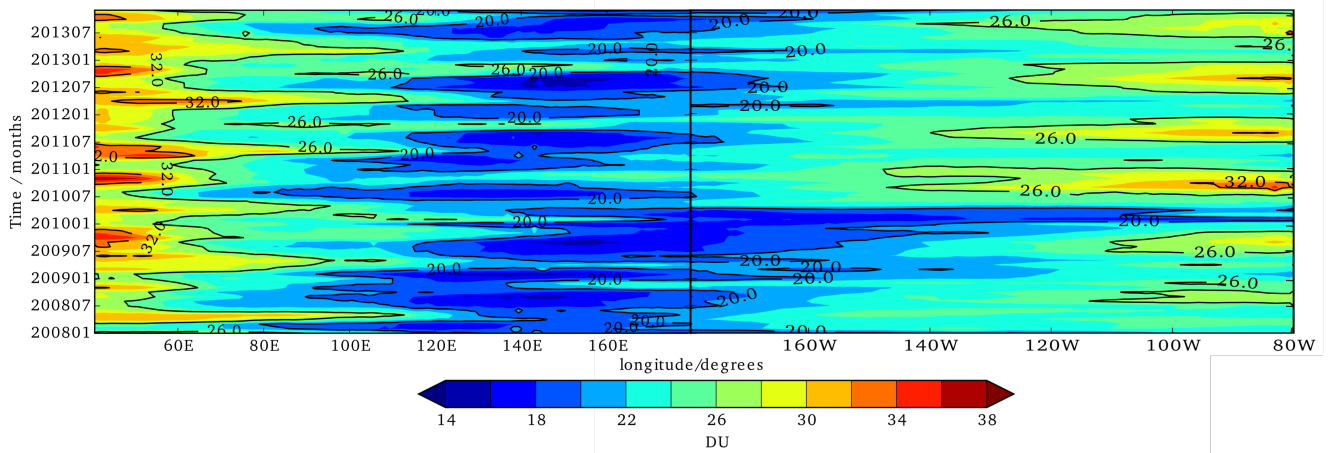
a) SST measurements
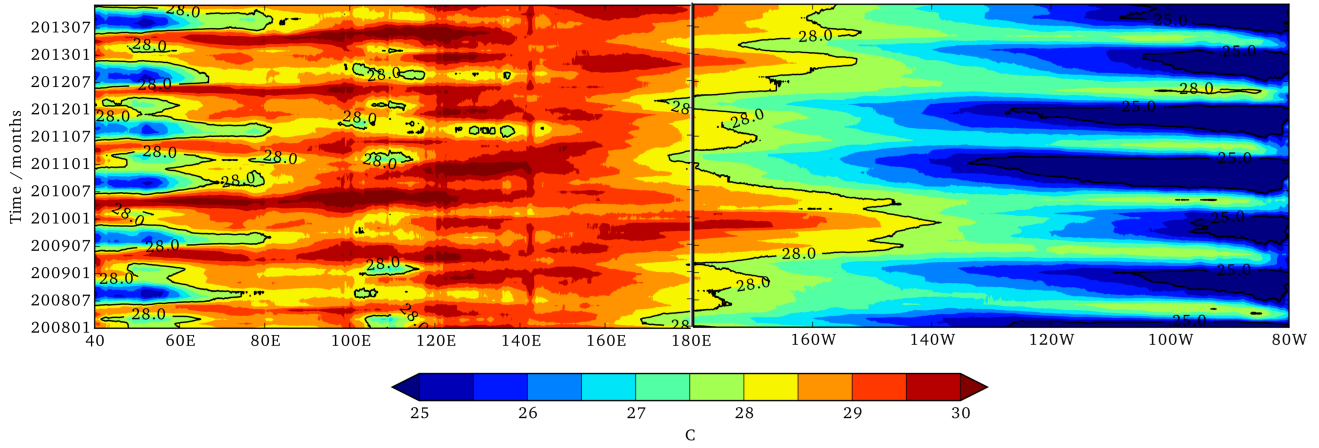
b) OMI-MLS TCO

Figure 5. a) Time versus longitude Hovmöller diagram of the SST (in degrees Celsius). b) Same diagram from the OMI-MLS data. The data are monthly means from January 2008 to December 2013 and area-averaged between latitudes 15°S and 15°N. Also included on the bottom the maps corresponding of the Hovmöller diagram.
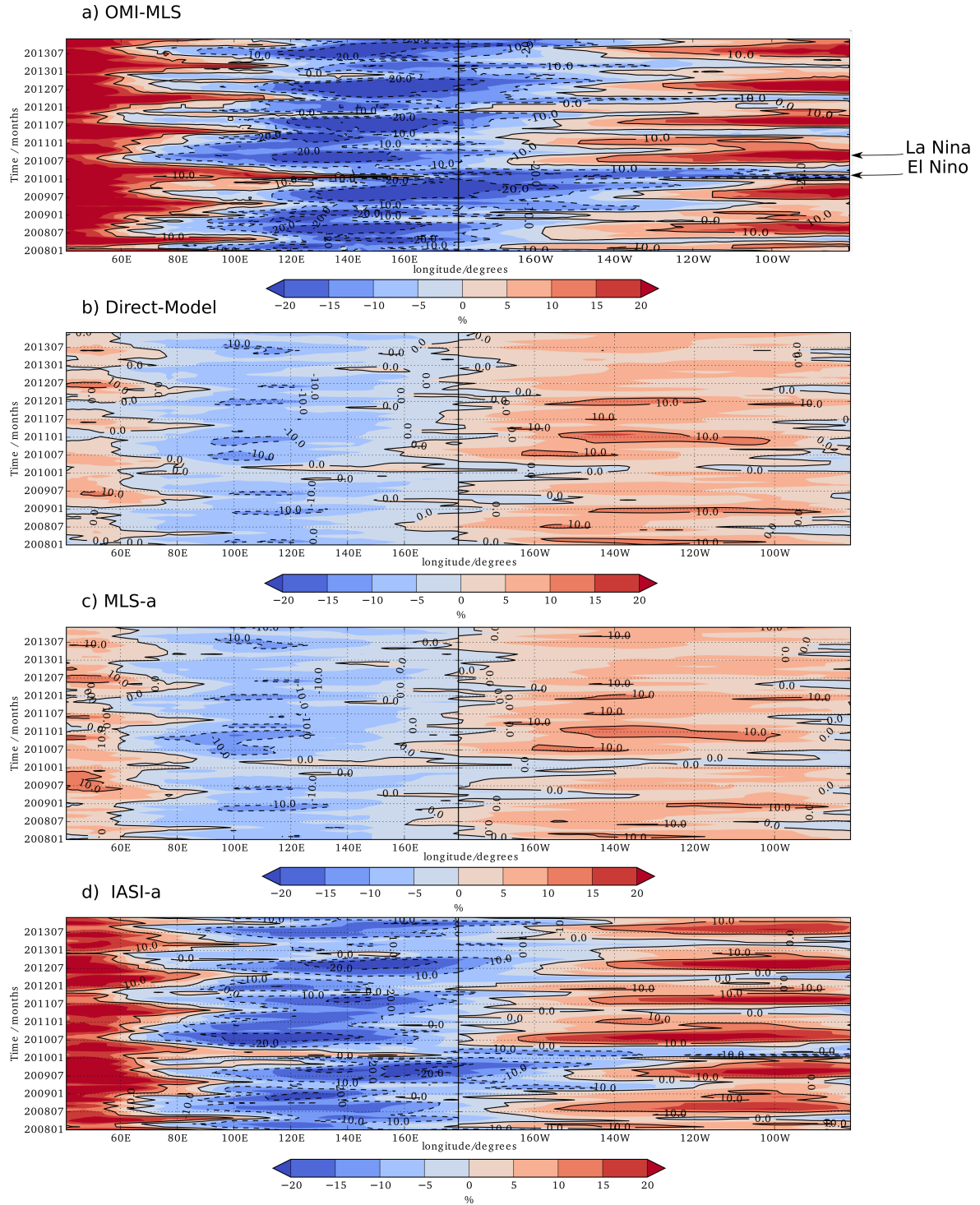
Figure 6. Longitude Hovmöller diagrams of TCO anomalies for a) OMI-MLS measurements, b) Direct-Model, c) MLS-a and d) IASI-a between 2008 to 2013. Longitudes are identical to Fig. 5 : between $40°$E and $80°$W. Anomalies are expressed in percentage.
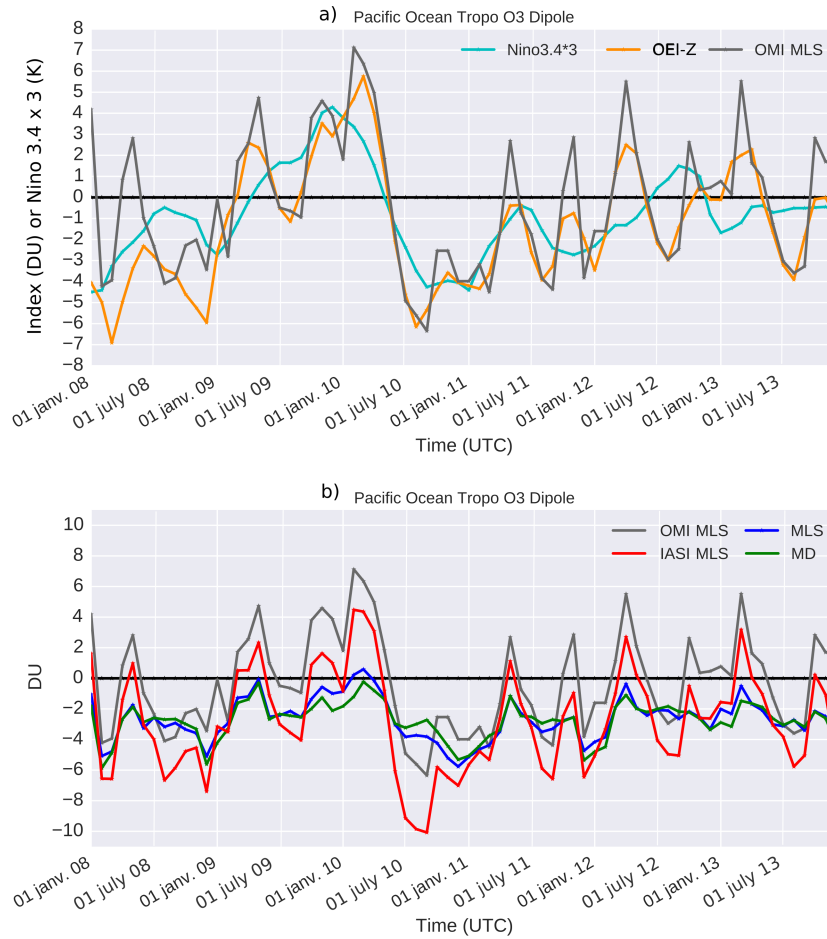
Figure 7. a) Monthly mean tropospheric Ozone ENSO Index (in DU) derived from the OMI-MLS data (grey line). Also shown is the Niño 3.4 monthly temperature anomaly ENSO index (cyan curve, multiplied by a factor 3, in Kelvin) and the OEI-Z index derived from the OMI-MLS data with a deseasonalization followed by a sliding average of 3 months (orange curve). b) the OMI-MLS data (grey curve) as in the above plot, the MLS-a (in blue curve), the DM in green curve and the IASI-a (in red curve). All ENSO indices extend from January 2008 through December 2013.
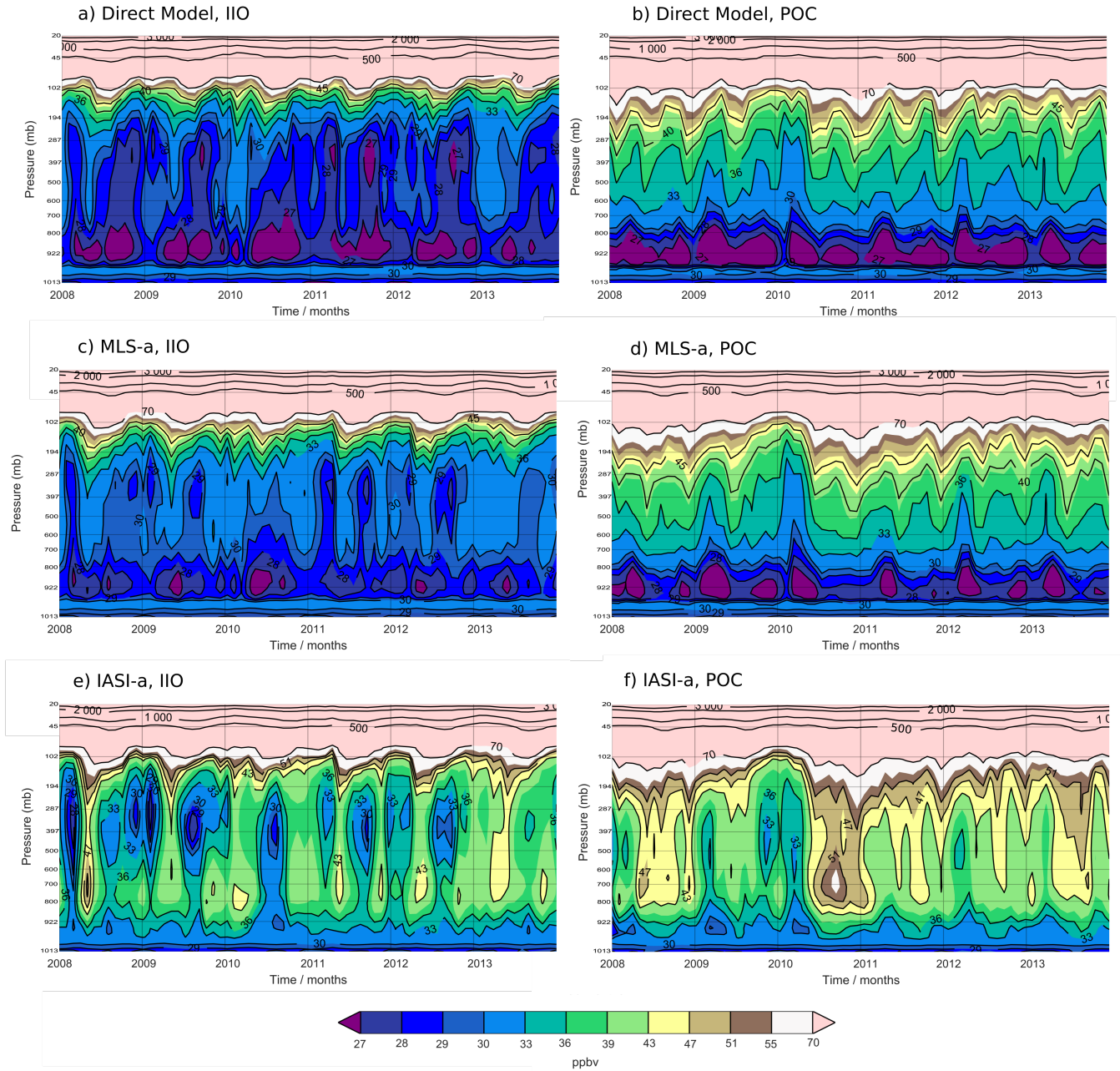
Figure 8. Monthly mean time series of ozone vertical profiles (units ppbv) versus pressure for the IIO region (left panels) and the POC region (right panels). The abscissa goes from January 2008 to December 2013. The top panels correspond to the Direct-Model, the middle panels to the MLS-a and the bottom panels to the IASI-a simulations. Pressure scale goes from 1013 hPa to 20 hPa.