Validation of Ionospheric Specifications During Geomagnetic Storms: TEC and foF2 during the 2013 March Storm Event-II

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December 18, 2022

Abstract

Assessing space weather modeling capability is a key element in improving existing models and developing new ones. In order to track improvement of the models and investigate impacts of forcing, from the lower atmosphere below and from the magnetosphere above, on the performance of ionosphere-thermosphere models, we expand our previous assessment for 2013 March storm event [Shim et al., 2018]. In this study, we evaluate new simulations from upgraded models (Coupled Thermosphere Ionosphere Plasmasphere Electrodynamics (CTIPe) model version 4.1 and Global Ionosphere Thermosphere Model (GITM) version 21.11) and from NCAR Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model with thermosphere and ionosphere extension (WACCM-X) version 2.2 including 8 simulations in the previous study. A simulation of NCAR Thermosphere-Ionosphere-Electrodynamics General Circulation Model version 2 (TIE-GCM 2) is also included for comparison with WACCM-X. TEC and foF2 changes from quiet-time background are considered to evaluate the model performance on the storm impacts. For evaluation, we employ 4 skill scores: Correlation coefficient (CC), root-mean square error (RMSE), ratio of the modeled to observed maximum percentage changes (Yield), and timing error(TE). It is found that the models tend to underestimate the storm-time enhancements of foF2 (F2-layer critical frequency) and TEC (Total Electron Content) and to predict foF2 and/or TEC better in the North America but worse in the Southern Hemisphere. The ensemble simulation for TEC is comparable to results from a data assimilation model (Utah State University-Global Assimilation of Ionospheric Measurement (USU-GAIM)) with differences in skill score less than 3% and 6% for CC and RMSE, respectively.

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23 Key Points:

24	٠	foF2/TEC and their changes during a storm predicted by seven ionosphere-thermosphere
25		coupled models are evaluated against GIRO foF2 and GPS TEC measurements.
26	•	Model simulations tend to underestimate the storm-time enhancements of foF2 and TEC
27		and to predict them better in the North America but worse in the southern hemisphere.
28	٠	Ensemble of all simulations for TEC is comparable to the data assimilation model (USU-
29		GAIM).
30		

31 Abstract

32 Assessing space weather modeling capability is a key element in improving existing models and 33 developing new ones. In order to track improvement of the models and investigate impacts of 34 forcing, from the lower atmosphere below and from the magnetosphere above, on the 35 performance of ionosphere-thermosphere models, we expand our previous assessment for 2013 36 March storm event [Shim et al., 2018]. In this study, we evaluate new simulations from upgraded 37 models (Coupled Thermosphere Ionosphere Plasmasphere Electrodynamics (CTIPe) model 38 version 4.1 and Global Ionosphere Thermosphere Model (GITM) version 21.11) and from 39 NCAR Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model with thermosphere and ionosphere 40 extension (WACCM-X) version 2.2 including 8 simulations in the previous study. A simulation 41 of NCAR Thermosphere-Ionosphere-Electrodynamics General Circulation Model version 2 42 (TIE-GCM 2) is also included for comparison with WACCM-X. TEC and foF2 changes from 43 quiet-time background are considered to evaluate the model performance on the storm impacts. 44 For evaluation, we employ 4 skill scores: Correlation coefficient (CC), root-mean square error 45 (RMSE), ratio of the modeled to observed maximum percentage changes (Yield), and timing 46 error(TE). It is found that the models tend to underestimate the storm-time enhancements of foF2 47 (F2-layer critical frequency) and TEC (Total Electron Content) and to predict foF2 and/or TEC 48 better in the North America but worse in the Southern Hemisphere. The ensemble simulation for 49 TEC is comparable to results from a data assimilation model (Utah State University-Global 50 Assimilation of Ionospheric Measurement (USU-GAIM)) with differences in skill score less than 51 3% and 6% for CC and RMSE, respectively.

52

53 Plain Language Summary

54 The Earth's ionosphere-thermosphere (IT) system, which is present between the lower 55 atmosphere and the magnetosphere, is highly variable due to external forcings from below and 56 above as well as internal forcings mainly associated with ion-neutral coupling processes. The 57 variabilities of the IT system can adversely affect our daily lives, therefore, there is a need for 58 both accurate and reliable weather forecasts to mitigate harmful effects of space weather events. 59 In order to track the improvement of predictive capabilities of space weather models for the IT 60 system, and to investigate the impacts of the forcings on the performance of IT models, we 61 evaluate new simulations from upgraded models (CTIPe model version 4.1 and GITM version 62 21.11) and from NCAR WACCM-X version 2.2 together with 8 simulations in the previous 63 study. A simulation of NCAR TIE-GCM version 2 is also included for the comparison with 64 WACCM-X. Quantitative evaluation is performed by using 4 skill scores including Correlation 65 coefficient (CC), root-mean square error (RMSE), ratio of the modeled to observed maximum percentage changes (Yield), and timing error (TE). The findings of this study will provide a 66 67 baseline for future validation studies of new and improved models.

68

69 1. Introduction

Variabilities of the Earth's ionosphere-thermosphere (IT) system, caused by charged particles and electromagnetic radiation emitted from the sun, can adversely affect our daily lives, which are highly dependent on space-based technological infrastructures such as Low-Earth Orbit (LEO) satellites and the Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS). To mitigate harmful effects of space weather events, modeling plays a critical role in our quest to understand the connection between solar eruptive phenomena and their impacts in interplanetary space and near-Earth space environment. In particular, the Earth's upper atmosphere including the IT system is

77	the space environment closest to the human society. Thus, during the past few decades, first-
78	principles physics-based (PB) IT models have been developed for specifications and forecasts of
79	the near-Earth space environment. In addition, there have been recent developments of whole
80	atmosphere models with thermospheric and ionospheric extension to fully understand
81	variabilities of the IT system by considering coupling between the IT system and the lower
82	atmosphere [e.g., Akmaev, 2011; Fuller-Rowell et al., 2010; Jin et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2018].
83	For more accurate space weather forecasting, assessing space weather modeling capability is
84	a key element to improve existing models and to develop new models. Over the last decade, in
85	an effort to address the needs and challenges of the assessment of our current knowledge about
86	space weather effects on the IT system and current state of IT modeling capabilities, the NASA
87	GSFC Community Coordinated Modeling Center (CCMC) has been supporting community-wide
88	model validation projects, including Coupling, Energetics and Dynamics of Atmospheric
89	Regions (CEDAR) [Shim et al., 2011, 2012, 2014] and Geospace Environment Modeling
90	(GEM)-CEDAR modeling challenges [Rastätter et al., 2016; Shim et al., 2017a].
91	Furthermore, in 2018, the CCMC established an international effort, "International Forum
92	for Space Weather Modeling Capabilities Assessment", to evaluate and assess the predictive
93	capabilities of space weather models (<u>https://ccmc.gsfc.nasa.gov/iswat/IFSWCA/</u>). As a result of
94	this international effort, four ionosphere/thermosphere working groups were established with an
95	overarching goal to devise a standardized quantitative validation procedure for IT models
96	[Scherliess et al., 2019].
97	The working group, focusing on neutral density and orbit determination at LEO, reported

97 The working group, focusing on neutral density and orbit determination at LEO, reported
98 their initial results for specific metrics for thermosphere model assessment over the selected
99 three full years and two geomagnetic storms in 2005 [*Bruinsma et al.*, 2018]. They reported that

100 the tested models in general performed reasonably well, although seasonal errors were 101 sometimes observed and impulsive geomagnetic events remain a challenge. Kalafatoglu Eyigüler 102 et al. (2019) compared the neutral density estimates from two empirical and three PB models 103 with those obtained from the CHAMP satellite. They suggested that several metrics that provide 104 different aspects of the errors should be considered together for a proper performance evaluation. 105 Another working group, "Ionosphere Plasmasphere Density Working Team", performed the 106 assessment of present modeling capabilities in predicting the ionospheric climatology of f_0F_2 107 and hmF2 for the entire year 2012 [Tsagouri et al., 2018]. Tsagouri et al. (2018) identified a 108 strong seasonal and local time dependence of the model performances, especially for PB models, 109 which could provide useful insight for future model improvements. Tsagouri et al. cautioned that 110 the quality of the ground truth data may play a key role in testing the model performance. Shim 111 et al. (2018) assessed how well the ionospheric models predict storm time f_0F_2 and TEC by 112 considering quantities, such as TEC and f_0F_2 changes and percentage changes compared to quiet 113 time background, at 12 selected midlatitude locations in the American and European-African 114 longitude sectors. They found that the performance of the model varies with locations, even 115 within a localized region like Europe, as well as with the metrics considered. In this paper, we expand our previous assessment of modeled foF2 and TEC during 2013 116 117 March storm event (17 March, 2013) [Shim et al., 2018] to track improvement of the models and 118 to investigate impacts of forcings from the lower atmosphere below and from the magnetosphere 119 above on the performance of IT models. For this study, we evaluate the updated version of the

120 coupled IT models available at the CCMC [Webb et al., 2009] since our previous study [Shim et

121 *al.*, 2018]: CTIPe version 4.1 and GITM version 21.11. However, the other types of models such

122 as empirical models, stand-alone ionospheric models, and data assimilation models are not

123	included. In addition, for the first time, simulations of NCAR WACCM-X 2.2 are included in
124	our assessment. We also included a simulation of NCAR TIE-GCM 2 to compare with results
125	from WACCM-X 2.2. For TEC prediction, we compare a weighted mean of the ensemble of all
126	13 simulations (ensemble average), including 8 simulations from our previous study with
127	individual simulations to assess ensemble forecast capability. In Section 2, we briefly describe
128	observations, models, and metrics used for this study. Section 3 presents the results of model-
129	data comparisons and performance of the models are presented. Section 4 shows comparisons of
130	ensemble of TEC predictions with the individual simulations based on the skill scores used in
131	this study. Finally, we summarize and conclude in Section 5.
132	
133	2. Methodology
134	2.1 Observations and Metrics
135	We use the foF2 and TEC measurements at 12 ionosonde stations selected in middle
136	latitudes: 8 northern hemisphere (NH) stations in the US (Millstone Hill, Idaho national Lab,
137	Boulder, and Eglin AFB) and Europe (Chilton, Pruhonice, Ebre, and Athens) and 4 southern
138	hemisphere (SH) stations in South America (Port Stanley) and South Africa (Louisvale,
139	Hermanus, and Grahamstown) (Figure 1 and Table 1 in Shim et al. [2018] for details). The foF2
140	and GNSS vertical TEC (vTEC) data are provided by Global Ionosphere Radio Observatory
141	(GIRO) (http://giro.uml.edu/) [Reinisch and Galkin, 2011] and by MIT Haystack Observatory
142	(http://cedar.openmadrigal.org/, http://cedar.openmadrigal.org/cgi-bin/gSimpleUIAccessData.py)
143	[Rideout and Coster, 2006], respectively.
144	Table 1 shows the quantities and skill scores calculated for model-data comparison. To
145	remove potential systematic uncertainties in the models and observations and baseline

146 differences among the models and between models and observations, we use the shifted values 147 and changes from their own quiet-time background values (e.g., shifted TEC (TEC*) = TEC 148 (UT) on a particular DOY – median (UT) of TEC for 30 days centered on the storm date). 149 Furthermore, using these quantities likely reduce the impacts of differing upper boundaries for 150 TEC calculations, since the plasmaspheric TEC variations with geomagnetic activity are 151 negligible in middle latitudes [Shim et al., 2017b]. 152 To measure how well the observed and modeled values are linearly correlated (in phase) 153 with each other and how different the values are on average over the time interval considered, CC and RMSE are calculated, respectively, for the error values below 95th percentile. We also 154 155 calculate Yield and timing error to measure the models' capability to capture peak disturbances 156 during the storm. For more detailed information on the quantities and skill scores used for the 157 study, refer to Section 2 in Shim et al. [2018].

158

159 **2.2 Models and Simulations**

160 The simulations used in this study are obtained from the updated and newly incorporated 161 coupled ionosphere-thermosphere models available at the CCMC [Webb et al., 2009] since our 162 previous study [Shim et al., 2018]: CTIPe 4.1, GITM 21.11 and WACCM-X 2.2. The WACCM-163 X 2.2 simulations are provided by NCAR HAO. The WACCM-X version 2 [Liu et al., 2018] is a 164 comprehensive numerical model that extends the atmospheric component model of the NCAR 165 Community Earth System Model (CESM) [Hurrell et al., 2013] into the thermosphere up to 166 500–700 km altitude. WACCM-X is uniquely capable of being run in a configuration where the 167 atmosphere is coupled to active or prescribed ocean, sea ice, and land components, enabling 168 studies of thermospheric and ionospheric weather and climate. WACCM-X version 2 is based

169 upon WACCM version 6 [Gettelman et al., 2019] with a top boundary of ~130 km, which is 170 built upon the Community Atmosphere Model (CAM) version 6 having a top boundary of ~40 km. WACCM-X 2.2 includes WACCM6 physics for middle atmosphere and lower thermosphere 171 172 as well as CAM6 physics for the troposphere and the lower stratosphere, and it fully incorporates 173 the electrodynamical processes related to low-to mid-latitude wind dynamo that is implemented 174 in the NCAR TIE-GCM. For this study, two specified-dynamics (SD) WACCM-X 2.2 175 simulations with different high-latitude electrostatic potential models [*Heelis et al.*, 1982; 176 Weimer, 2005] are used. The SD simulations are carried out by constraining the model's lower 177 atmospheric neutral dynamics using meteorological reanalysis data. The constraining process is 178 achieved by nudging the model towards MERRA-2 (Modern Era Retrospective Analysis for 179 Research and Applications, Version 2) data [Gelaro et al., 2017] below around the altitude of 50 180 km in a way presented by *Brakebusch et al.* [2013]. 181 The resulting WACCM-X simulations are compared with the simulations of TIE-GCM. The 182 comparisons between WACCM-X and TIE-GCM simulations will show differences and 183 similarities in modeling capabilities between whole atmosphere modeling and ionosphere-184 thermosphere modeling with a specified low-boundary forcing (e.g., Global Scale Wave Model 185 (GSWM) [Hagan et al., 1999] used for this study). 186 Table 2 shows the version of the models, input data used for the simulations, and models 187 used for lower boundary forcing and high latitude electrodynamics. We utilized unique model 188 setting identifiers to distinguish the current simulations from those used in our previous studies 189 [Shim et al., 2011, 2012, 2014, 2017a, 2018]. Additional information for the models and model

190 setting identifiers is available in *Shim et al.* [2011] (Refer to all references therein) and at

191 <u>https://ccmc.gsfc.nasa.gov/support/GEM_metrics_08/tags_list.php</u>

192 To investigate improvement in foF2 and TEC predictions of the updated versions of CTIPE 193 (12 CTIPE) and GITM (7 GITM), the simulations of the old versions of the models (11 CTIPE 194 and 6 GITM) from our previous study are included. The comparison will be focused on the 195 comparison between the simulations obtained from the same model. As for TIE-GCM, 12 TIE-196 GCM (run at 2.5° resolution) is presented for this study, but the comparison between 197 11 TIE GCM and 12 TIE-GCM was not included in this study because the only difference 198 between the two is horizontal resolution (5°lat.×5°long. vs 2.5°lat.×2.5°long.). 199 We should take note of the difference between the simulations obtained from the same 200 model that influence foF2 and TEC responses to geomagnetic storms. For two CTIPe runs, 201 different lower atmospheric tides were specified: 11 CTIPE was driven by the imposed 202 migrating semidiurnal (2,2), (2,3), (2,4), (2,5), and diurnal (1,1) tidal modes, while 12 CTIPE 203 was run with monthly mean spectrum of tides obtained from WAM (Whole Atmosphere Model) 204 [Akmaev et al., 2011, Fuller-Rowell et al., 2010]. For two GITM simulations, 7 GITM used 205 Fang's auroral precipitation [Fang et al., 2013], while 6 GITM used Ovation model [Newell et 206 al., 2009; 2011]. For two WACCM-X simulations, Heelis and Weimer2005 electric potential 207 models were used for 3 WACCM-X and 4 WACCM-X, respectively. 12 TIEGCM was driven 208 by Weimer2005 electric potential model and GSWM.

209

210 3. Performance of the Models in Predictions of foF2 and vTEC on 17 March 2013

Most simulations newly added for this study show similar behavior to those used in *Shim et al.* [2018], in predicting foF2 and TEC during the storm. For example, the simulations are not able to reproduce (1) the difference between eastern and western parts of the North American sector (e.g., TEC increases at Millstone Hill but decreases at Idaho and Boulder around 20UT), and (2) different responses between foF2 (negligible changes) and TEC (noticeable increase)
found in European (Chilton) and South-African (Grahamstown) stations (See Figure 4 of Shim et
al. [2018] for reference). However, compared to other simulations, 4_WACCM-X driven by *Weimer* (2005) high latitude electric potential model captures relatively well the two differences
in TEC and foF2 described above (Figure S1 in supporting information).

220 Figure 1 shows scatter plots of the observed (x axis) and modeled (y axis) shifted foF2 and 221 TEC, and percentage change of foF2 and TEC during the storm (03/17/2013) for all 12 locations 222 grouped into 4 sectors: North America (NA, green), Europe (EU, blue), South Africa (SAF, red), 223 and South America (SAM, black). First of all, the qualitative comparison between the 224 simulations from the same model can be summarized as follows. 11 CTIPE/12 CTIPE tends to 225 underestimate foF2 for both quiet and disturbed conditions, but 12 CTIPE predicts much better 226 both foF2 and TEC during the storm than 11 CTIPE. 6 GITM and 7 GITM underestimate foF2 227 and TEC for all cases and show relatively small response to the storm compared to the other 228 simulations. 12 TIE-GCM and WACCM-Xs produce similar foF2 and TEC changes during the 229 storm. All three simulations give substantial underestimation of TEC in SAF. 12 TIE-GCM and 230 3 WACCM-X produce larger overestimation of foF2 and TEC in NA sector than 4 WACCM-X. 231 4 WACCM-X shows substantial improvement in the TEC overestimation in NA. 3 WACCM-X, 232 of which the high latitude electric potential is specified by Heelis et al. [1982], tends to 233 overestimate foF2 and TEC compared with 4 WACCM-X. 3 WACCM-X and 4 WACCM-X 234 produce better quiet time foF2 and TEC than 12 TIEGCM does and capture wave-like small 235 increases in foF2 and TEC at Idaho National Lab around 10–11UT (2–3 LT) (Figure S1 in 236 supporting information).

237	As shown for 6_GITM and 11_CTIPE in Shim et al. [2018], the modeled foF2 values of
238	7_GITM and 12_CTIPE better agrees with the observed ones when they are shifted by
239	subtracting the minimum of 30-day median (see Figure S2 in supporting information, Shim et al.
240	[2018]). Most foF2 and TEC data points of 7_GITM and 12_CTIPE before shifting are below
241	and above the line with slope 1 (black solid line), respectively. This indicates that 7_GITM
242	underestimates foF2 and TEC like 6_GITM, while 12_CTIPE overestimates them. The models
243	that tend to underestimate foF2, such as 6_GITM, 7_GITM and 11_CTIPE, seem to unable to
244	produce foF2* larger than about 7 MHz, and underestimate TEC* being less than about 20
245	TECU during the storm as reported in Shim et al. [2018]. 12_TIE-GCM and WACCM-Xs show
246	similar distribution of the data points after shifting foF2 and TEC with a tendency to
247	underestimate foF2 and TEC in the South Africa region.
248	The modeled dfoF2[%] and dTEC[%] show less agreement with the observed values than
249	the modeled foF2* and TEC* do. The data points in the 2nd quadrant (top left) and the 4th
250	quadrant (bottom right) indicate that the modeled and observed percentage changes are in
251	opposite sign. 7_GITM and 3_WACCM-X have more data points in the 2nd quadrant for
252	dfoF2[%] prediction than 6_GITM and 4_WACCM-X, respectively. Like most simulations used
253	in our previous evaluation [Shim et al. 2018], 12_CTIPE and 7_GITM do not appear to
254	reproduce the large dTEC[%] (about 200 %) at Port Stanley in SAM. However, 12_TIE-GCM
255	and WACCM-Xs better produce the enhancement in TEC percentage change. Compared to
256	4_WACCM-X and 12_TIE-GCM, 3_WACCM-X overestimates dTEC[%] especially in NA and
256 257	4_WACCM-X and 12_TIE-GCM, 3_WACCM-X overestimates dTEC[%] especially in NA and EU regions. 12_CTIPE and 6_GITM have more data points of overestimated dTEC[%] in SAF

From now on, foF2 and TEC will represent shifted foF2 (foF2*) and shifted TEC (TEC*),
respectively.

261

262 **3.1 Correlation Coefficient (CC)**

263 We first calculate correlation coefficient (CC) between the modeled and observed foF2 and 264 TEC for DOY 076 (17 March, 2013) for quantitative assessment of the model performance of 265 TEC and foF2 predictions. In Figure 2, the CCs for each simulation are presented for foF2 in the 266 left panel and for TEC in the right panel. For each simulation, four CC values are displayed. First 267 three of the values correspond to the average CC over Europe (EU), North America (NA), 268 Southern Hemisphere (SH refers to SAF and SAM combined), and the last one is the average of 269 all 12 locations. The modeled foF2 and TEC (blue dots) are highly correlated with the observed 270 values. The average CC values over all 12 locations for both foF2 and TEC are about 0.8–0.95, 271 but the average CCs for their changes are much smaller. For example, the CCs for TEC changes 272 (dTEC) are 0.5–0.6 and even smaller for foF2. The modeled foF2 changes (green), percentage 273 changes (red) and normalized percentage changes (black only applicable for TEC) are much less 274 correlated (closer to uncorrelated) with the observed values (about 0.1 < average CC < 0.4). 275 There is no big difference between dTEC[%] and dTEC[%] norm based on the average values 276 for each simulation as reported in *Shim et al.* [2018]. 277 Note that the CC values for the changes and percentage changes of foF2 and TEC are highly 278 dependent on locations. Most simulations, except for 12 CTIPE and GITMs, show lower CC for 279 dfoF2 and dTEC in NA. It seems to be caused by the decreases of foF2 and TEC during the 280 storm (negative phase) in the western parts of NA that are not captured well. GITMs show the

283	11_CTIPE's foF2 and TEC averaged over 12 locations are slightly better correlated with the
284	observed values than 12_CTIPE. However, the changes and percentage changes of foF2 and
285	TEC from 12_CTIPE are better correlated with the observed values than 11_CTIPE's values in
286	most regions. Although the two GITMs produce similar CCs, 7_GITM shows better CC in NA
287	regions for dfoF2, dfoF2[%], dTEC[%], and n_dTEC[%], while 6_GITM shows better CC for
288	foF2 and dTEC. WACCM-Xs perform better than 12_TIE_GCM for all the considered quantities
289	based on the average except for dTEC. WACCM-Xs perform similar to each other.
290	Close inspection of Figures. 1 and 2 indicates that a linearity between CTIPE and
291	observations is improved in the newer version of CTIPE (12_CTIPE), but 12_CTIPE gives more
292	scattered distribution around a linear relation (Fig. 1), which seems to lead to the lower CC in
293	12_CTIPE than in 11_CTIPE. 7_GITM exhibits a slight improvement in a linearity between the
294	model and observations (Fig. 1), but this improvement is not clearly seen in the correlation
295	analysis (Fig. 2). For 12_TIEGCM and WACCM-Xs, both a linearity between the models and
296	observations (Fig. 1) and CCs (Fig. 2) demonstrate that the model performances are overall
297	improved in WACCM-Xs compared with TIEGCM. In terms of the model-observation linearity,
298	4_WACCMX is somewhat better than 3_WACCMX (Fig. 1), but their CCs seems comparable to
299	each other (Fig. 2).

3.2 Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)

Figure 3 shows RMSE of foF2 and dfoF2 in the left panel, and TEC and dTEC in the right
panel. For foF2 (blue) and dfoF2 (green) predictions, based on the average RMSE values, the

RMSEs from the updated version (12_CTIPE and 7_GITM) are about 1.5 MHz for foF2 and
about 1 MHz for dfof2, and they are slightly lower than RMSEs in their old versions. 12_CTIPE
shows improvement in foF2 in SH and dfoF2 in NA and EU compared to 11_CTIPE. 7_GITM
performs better in foF2 and dfoF2 in EU and SH than 6_GITM. 4_WACCM-X has smaller
RMSE (~1 MHz) than 3_WACCM-X and 12_TIE-GCM (~1.3 MHz for dfoF2 and ~2 MHz for
foF2).

12_CTIPE is better in TEC prediction than 11_CTIPE, while the opposite holds true for
dTEC prediction. The two GITMs' average RMSE values for TEC and dTEC predictions are
similar to each other, about 9 TECU for TEC and 5 TECU for dTEC. Like foF2 and dfoF2
prediction, 4_WACCM-X has smaller RMSE (~ 5 TECU for TEC and 4 TECU for dTEC) than
12 TIE-GCM and 3 WACCM-X (~6 TECU).

315 As seen in Shim et al. [2018], RMSE is highly variable with location. Most simulations 316 appear to predict foF2 and/or TEC better in NA and worse in SH (except for 12 TIE-GCM for 317 foF2 and 12 CTIPE for TEC). Both 11 CTIPE and GITMs tend to perform better in NA for 318 dTEC, while WACCM-Xs show the opposite tendency for dfoF2 and dTEC. 7 GITM and 319 4 WACCM-X shows the least RMSE dependence on location for dfoF2 and for dTEC, 320 respectively, among seven simulations. 321 Figure 4 shows the RMSE of percentage changes of foF2 (blue) and TEC (red) and 322 normalized percentage changes of TEC (black). The two CTIPEs produce the similar RMSE for 323 dTEC[%], but 12 CTIPE and 11 CTIPE produce lower RMSE for dfoF2[%] and 324 dTEC[%] norm, respectively. For all three percentage changes of dfoF2[%], dTEC[%], and

325 dTEC[%]_norm, 7_GITM seems to perform better than 6_GITM based on the average RMSEs

over the 12 locations. 4_WACCM-X and 12_TIE-GCM perform very similarly for dfoF2[%] and
dTEC[%] and better than 3_WACCM-X.

328 Difference in the performance among locations is more noticeable in dTEC[%] and

dTEC[%]_norm than in dfoF2[%] as found in *Shim et al.* [2018]. All simulations, except

330 6_GITM, produce lower RMSE of dTEC[%] in NA and higher in SH region. This tendency

remains the same for dTEC[%]_norm with the exception of 3_WACCM-X, which has lower

332 RMSE for dTEC[%]_norm in SH. For 3_WACCM-X, the higher RMSE for dTEC[%] and the

lower RMSE for dTEC[%]_norm in SH than in NA are probably due to the normalization factor,

334 standard deviation of dTEC[%] in the locations.

335

336 **3.3 Yield and Timing Error (TE)**

To measure how well the models capture the degree of TEC and foF2 disturbances during the main phase, Yield and Timing Error (TE) of dfoF2[%], dTEC[%], and dTEC[%]_norm are calculated. *Shim et al.* [2018] considered two time intervals, 06–15UT and 15–22UT, when peaks are observed in most of 12 locations. In each time interval, we calculate one Yield value and one TE value. Definitions of Yield and TE are presented in Table 1.

In each sector, average Yield and TE are calculated over the number of stations where the model correctly predicts the storm phase, i.e., Yield is positive. Table 3 shows the total number of stations where the models show correct storm phase, either positive or negative. The numbers in bold are the higher values between the simulations compared. 12_CTIPE predicts the storm phase better for dTEC[%] than 11_CTIPE, but 11_CTIPE predicts better for dfoF2[%] than 12_CTIPE. 7_GITM is improved in predicting the storm phase of dfoF2[%], while 6_GITM predicts better the storm phase of dTEC[%]. 4_WACCM-X, compared to 12_TIE-GCM and 349 3_WACCM-X, is better for predicting the phase of dfoF2[%] and worse for predicting that ofdTEC[%].

351 Figure 5 shows average Yield (left) and average of absolute values of TE (right) over the 352 two time intervals: dfoF2[%] in blue, dTEC[%] in red, and dTEC[%] norm in black. Concerning 353 the average of all 12 locations, 12 CTIPE appears to overestimate peak values of dTEC[%] and 354 dTEC[%] norm with larger variation with location (e.g., $\sim 1 < \text{Yield of dTEC}[\%]$ norm $< \sim 2.5$) 355 than 11 CTIPE, of which Yield is less than 1 for all three quantities of percentage changes (e.g., 356 0.7 < Yield of dTEC[%] norm < 0.9). Yields of 12 CTIPE for dTEC[\%] and dTEC[\%] norm 357 are closer to 1 in NA. GITMs produce similar ratios based on the average over all locations, but 358 7 GITM shows smaller differences in Yield among locations (e.g., $\sim 0.5 <$ Yield of 359 dTEC[%] norm $< \sim 1$) than 6 GITM (e.g., 0.5 < Yield of dTEC[%] norm $< \sim 2.5$). In terms of 360 average Yield, 12 TIE-GCM and two WACCM-Xs tend to overestimate the peak values and 361 show similar performance, although 12 TIE-GCM's ratios are closer to 1 than those of 362 WACCM-Xs. 3 WACCM-X shows larger variation in Yield among locations (e.g., ~0.9 < Yield 363 of dTEC[%] norm $< \sim 2.7$) than 12 TIE-GCM and 4 WACCM-X (e.g., $\sim 1.7 <$ Yield of 364 dTEC[%] norm $< \sim 2.3$).

Average Timing Errors of dfoF2[%] and dTEC[%]_norm are between 1 and 2 hours, and TE of dTEC[%] are about 0.8–1.5 hours. With respect to the average TE, 12_CTIPE has smaller TE (~1 hr) than 11_CTIPE (about 1.5 hr) for all three percentage changes with less location dependence as well. 7_GITM's three TEs are about 1.5 hrs, while 6_GITM's TEs of dfoF2[%], dTEC[%] and dTEC[%]_norm are ~1, ~1.4, and ~2 hrs, respectively. 12 TIE-GCM has smaller TE for dfoF2[%] and 3_WACCM-X has smaller TE for dTEC[%] and dTEC[%]_norm, however 3_WACCM-X show larger location dependence of TE for dTEC[%]_norm and dfoF2[%]. 372

373 4. Ensemble of TEC obtained from13 simulations

374 The linearity check, RMSE, and CC between model results and observations for shifted foF2 375 and TEC and their relative changes indicate that the newer versions of the models (i.e., 376 12 CTIPE, 7 GITM and 4 WACCM-X) produces the better results. From the viewpoints of 377 correct prediction of storm phases (Table 3), Yields, and TEs (Fig. 5), however, there is no one 378 best simulation for all locations, and the performance of model varies with locations as well as 379 the Yields and TE. 380 The differences in performance among the simulations could be caused by inherent 381 differences among the models or by a combination of different input data and different models 382 used for lower boundary forcing and high-latitude electrodynamics. Even different data 383 assimilation models for the same weather condition can yield different results, due to numerous 384 reasons (e.g., the use of different background weather models, spatial/temporal resolutions, 385 assimilation methods, and data error analyses), even if the same data are assimilated [Schunk et 386 al., 2021]. The common way to handle these differences is to use model ensembles and the use

390 simulations. To get the weighted mean ($\bar{x} = \sum w_i x_i / \sum w_i$), we used the RMSE of shifted TEC

391 ($w_i = 1/\text{RMSE}$).

387

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Figure 6 is the same as Figure 1 but for the ensemble of the simulations (ENSEMBLE will be used as model setting ID) and a simulation (1_USU-GAIM) from a data assimilation model (DA), USU-GAIM. For TEC less than about 20 TECU, ENSEMBLE shows better agreement

of ensembles enables estimations of the certainty of results. Thus, we used a weighted mean of

the ensemble of all 13 simulations including 8 simulations from our previous study (Shim et al.,

2018) for TEC, dTEC and dTEC[%] to compare the ensemble average with the individual

with GPS TEC than the individual simulations, including 1_USU-GAIM. However, as we can expect, ENSEMBLE underestimates TEC larger than about 30 TECU due to the tendency to underestimate TEC of many simulations as pointed out in Section 3 and *Shim et al.*, [2018]. For dTEC[%], ENSEMBLE appears to be correlated better with GPS dTEC[%] than the other simulations, although there are some underestimations in SAF, as well as in SAM with opposite prediction of the storm phase.

Figure 7 shows averaged CC and RMSE values over all 12 locations of 13 simulations, the
ensemble of them, and the ensemble of 12 simulations excluding 1_USU-GAIM

403 (ENSEMBLE_wo_DA). The simulations in Figure 7 (a) were arranged by the average of the

404 three averaged CC values for TEC, dTEC and dTEC[%] from the smallest to the largest (closer

405 to 1). In Figure 7 (b), the simulations were arranged by the average of the two averaged RMSEs

406 for TEC and dTEC from the largest to the smallest. Based on the averaged CC and RMSE,

407 ENSEMBLEs (ENSEMBLE and ENSEMBLE_wo_DA) of the simulations perform very

408 similarly and outperform all 12 simulations but a data assimilation model, 1_USU-GAIM.

409 However, ENSEMBLEs and 1_USU-GAIM do not show big difference in their performance.

410 The differences in RMSE of TEC and dTEC between ENSEMBLE and 1_USU-GAIM are less

411 than 0.5 and 0.1 TECU, respectively. For dTEC[%], ENSEMBLE performs slightly better than

412 1_USU-GAIM with about 1.5% lower RMSE. The fact that ENSEMBLEs are comparable to the

413 data assimilation model 1_USU-GAIM indicates that the multi-model ensemble can be useful in

414 forecasting the IT system, although this result is obtained from a single geomagnetic storm event.

415 Figure 8 shows Yield and Timing Error of dTEC[%] for all 13 simulations along with

416 ENSEMBLE. The values correspond to the average over all 12 locations. Unlike CC and RMSE,

417 ENSEMBLE does not outperform all physic-based coupled models in terms of Yield and TE,

418 although the difference is small. ENSEMBLE underestimates Yield, while most of the

419 simulations overestimate it, except 4_IRI and 11_CTIPE. 7 simulations from PB coupled IT

420 models and 1_USU-GAIM produce Yield closer to 1 than ENSEMBLE does.

421 Timing Error of dTEC[%] of ENSEMBLE is about 1 hr, which is slightly larger than TE

422 from 4 simulations from CTIPE and WACCM-X, but the difference from the smallest TE is less

423 than 0.5 hr.

424 Regarding the averaged skill scores for all 12 locations, newly added five simulations in this

425 study produce comparable TEC and TEC changes to the simulations from PB IT models used in

426 our previous study. The simulations of newer versions of the models (12_CTIPE, 7_GITM and

427 4_WACCM-X) are found to give overall improved forecast results. Based on the averaged

428 RMSE, the ensemble of simulations of the models' newer versions is comparable to 1_USU-

429 GAIM and performs better than the ensemble of the simulations of old versions of models

430 (11_CTIPE, 6_GITM and 12_TIE-GCM) (Table 4).

431

432 **5. Summary and Conclusions**

We expanded on our previous systematic assessment of modeled foF2 and TEC during 2013 March storm event (17 March, 2013) to track the improvement of the models and investigate impacts of forcings from the lower atmosphere and the magnetosphere, on the performance of ionosphere-thermosphere coupled models.

437 We evaluated simulations from upgraded models (CTIPe4.1 and GITM21.11) since our

- 438 previous assessment and a whole atmosphere model (WACCM-X2.2). To compare with results
- 439 from WACCM-X2.2, we also included a simulation of TIE-GCM2.0, of which the
- 440 electrodynamic processes are implemented in WACCM-X 2.2. Furthermore, to evaluate TEC

prediction of the simulations, we used a weighted mean of the ensemble of all 13 simulations
including 8 simulations from our previous study to compare the ensemble average with the
individual simulations.

For evaluation of the simulations, we used the exact same procedure with the same data set, same physical quantities, and same skill scores as our previous study [*Shim et al.*, 2018]. The skill scores were calculated for the three sectors, EU (Europe), NA (North America), and SH (Southern Hemisphere) to investigate the longitudinal and hemispheric dependence of the performance of the models.

449 From the five simulations used in the study, we also found the general behaviors of most 450 simulations identified in Shim et al. [2018]: 1) tendency to underestimate storm-time 451 enhancements of foF2 and TEC and not to reproduce large enhancements of dTEC[%] (e.g., 452 about 200 % TEC increase at Port Stanley in the SAA region), 2) being unable to capture 453 opposite responses to the storm in the eastern and western parts of NA, especially negative phase 454 (except for GITM), which is what in part causes lower CC in NA, 3) tendency to predict foF2 455 and/or TEC better in NA and worse in SH with respect to RMSE. However, it was found that 456 12 TIE-GCM and WACCM-Xs better produce the large TEC percentage changes at Port Stanley 457 in SAM. Based on the averaged skill scores for all 12 locations, the five simulations used in this 458 study show skill scores better or comparable to those of the simulations from PB IT models used 459 in our previous study.

Compared to 11_CTIPE (obtained from CTIPe3.2), 12_CTIPE (from CTIPe4.1) driven by
tides from WAM tends to overestimate foF2 and TEC for both quiet and disturbed conditions
and predicts better TEC peaks during the storm. For more cases, 12_CTIPE performs largely
better than 11 CTIPE based on the average scores. 12 CTIPE predicts the storm phase better for

464	dTEC[%], but 11_CTIPE does better for dfoF2[%]. 12_CTIPE appears to overestimate peak
465	values of dTEC[%] and dTEC[%]_norm, while 11_CTIPE produces Yield less than 1.
466	The two GITMs, 7_GITM with Fang's auroral precipitation and 6_GITM with Ovation
467	model, underestimate foF2 and TEC for all cases and show relatively small response to the storm
468	compared to the other simulations that do not appear to reproduce the large dTEC[%] (about
469	200 % increase at Port Stanley in SAM). 7_GITM and 6_GITM perform very similarly for most
470	cases with similar skill scores. However, 7_GITM shows better CC for most quantities except for
471	dTEC, and lower RMSEs and Yield closer to 1 for most regions and quantities considered.
472	7_GITM shows the least RMSE dependence on location for dfoF2 among the other simulations.
473	Comparing two WACCM-Xs and 12_TIE-GCM, the two WACCM-Xs, 3_WACCM-X with
474	Heelis high latitude electric potential model and 4_WACCM-X with Weimer 2005, predict quiet
475	time foF2 and TEC better than 12_TIE-GCM. During the storm, 12_TIE-GCM and 4_WACCM-
476	X produce similar foF2 and TEC in NA sector, while 3_WACCM-X tends to overestimate them
477	and produces larger changes in foF2 and TEC. In most cases, WACCM-Xs and 12_TIE_GCM
478	perform similarly in terms of average values of skill scores, but 3_WACCM-X and/or
479	4_WACCM-X perform better than 12_TIE-GCM except for Yield of percentage changes.
480	4_WACCM-X slightly outperforms 3_WACCMX for all cases but not for TE for percentage
481	changes.
482	Our findings suggest that the newer versions of the models (12_CTIPE, 7_GITM and
483	4_WACCM-X) with Weimer2005 electric potential model give overall improved forecast, and
484	the performance of the models depends on forcing from the magnetosphere and also forcing from
485	the lower atmosphere even during storms.

486 For TEC, dTEC and dTEC[%], our results indicate that the ensemble of all 13 simulations 487 (ENSEMBLE), including 8 simulations from our previous study (Shim et al., 2018) is 488 comparable to the data assimilation model (1 USU-GAIM) with differences in skill score less 489 than 3% and 6% for CC and RMSE, respectively. However, ENSEMBLE underestimates Yield 490 (0.73) while 7 simulations from PB coupled IT models and 1 USU-GAIM produce Yield closer 491 to 1. Timing Error of dTEC[%] of ENSEMBLE is about 1 hr, but the difference from the 492 smallest TE of the simulations is less than 0.5 hr. In addition, based on RMSE, the ensemble of 493 the newer versions of the models (12 CTIPE, 7 GITM and 4 WACCM-X) is comparable to 494 1 USU-GAIM. 495 To advance our understanding of the ionosphere-thermosphere system requires significant 496 efforts to improve the capability of numerical models along with the scope of observations 497 [*Heelis and Maute*, 2020]. There have been recent new developments of theoretical models, 498 including AMGeO (Assimilative Mapping of Geospace Observations) for High-Latitude 499 Ionospheric Electrodynamics [Matsuo, 2020] and MAGE geospace model that couples the Grid 500 Agnostic MHD for Extended Research Applications (GAMERA) global MHD model of 501 the magnetosphere (Sorathia et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2019), the Rice Convec-tion Model 502 (RCM) model of the ring current (Toffoletto et al., 2003), TIEGCM of the upper atmosphere and

503 the RE-developed Magnetosphere-Ionosphere Coupler/Solver (REMIX) (Merkin & Lyon, 2010).

504 These models will be available soon to the public through CCMC, and then the modeling

505 capability will help us better understand the processes responsible for the observed

506 characteristics and features during disturbed conditions. In addition, CCMC will also provide

507 users with the capability to run PB IT models with various combination of models for lower

atmospheric forcing and for magnetosphere forcing, which enable us to research further theimpacts of the forcings on the IT system.

The findings of this study will provide a baseline for future validation studies using new models and improved models, along with earlier results [*Shim et al.*, 2011, 2012, 2014, 2017a, 2018] obtained through CEDAR ETI, GEM-CEDAR Modeling Challenges, and the international effort, "International Forum for Space Weather Modeling Capabilities Assessment". We will extend our study to include more geomagnetic storm events to investigate differences and similarities in the performance of the models. In addition, we will also include foF2 and TEC predictions for the high- and low-latitude regions.

517

518 Acknowledgement

519 This work was supported by Korea Polar Research Institute (KOPRI) grant funded by the 520 Ministry of Oceans and Fisheries (KOPRI PE22020) and basic research funding from the Korea 521 Astronomy and Space Science Institute (KASI) (KASI2022185009). The vertical TEC data were 522 provided by MIT Haystack Observatory and can be obtained through CEDAR Madrigal database 523 (http://cedar.openmadrigal.org). We thank the operators of the digisondes for sharing their data 524 through http://giro.uml.edu/. Data from the South African Ionosonde network is made available 525 through the South African National Space Agency (SANSA), who are acknowledged for 526 facilitating and coordinating the continued availability of data. This work is supported by grants 527 from the National Science Foundation (NSF) Space Weather Program. This model validation 528 study is supported by the Community Coordinated Modeling Center (CCMC) at the Goddard 529 Space Flight Center. Data processing and research at MIT Haystack Observatory are supported 530 by cooperative agreement AGS-1242204 between the U.S. National Science Foundation and the

531	Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The National Center for Atmospheric Research is
532	sponsored by the National Science Foundation. Model output and observational data used for the
533	study will be permanently posted at the CCMC website (http://ccmc.gsfc.nasa.gov) and provided
534	as a resource for the space science community to use in the future.
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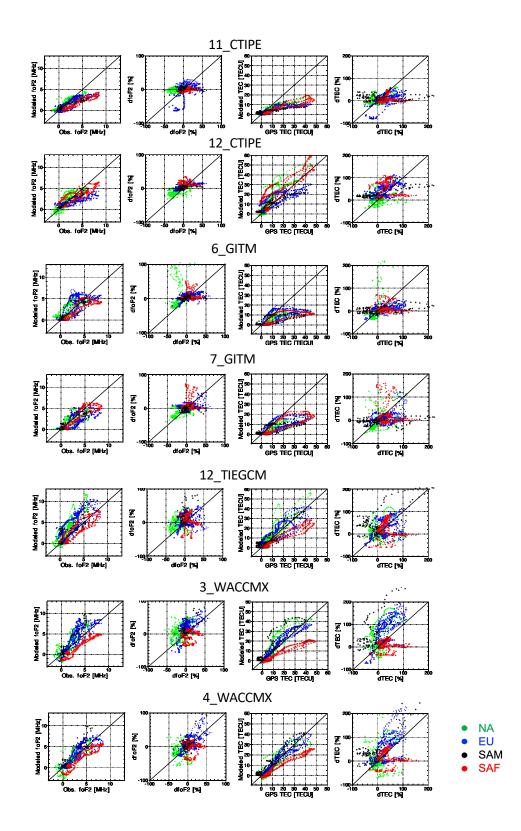


Figure 1

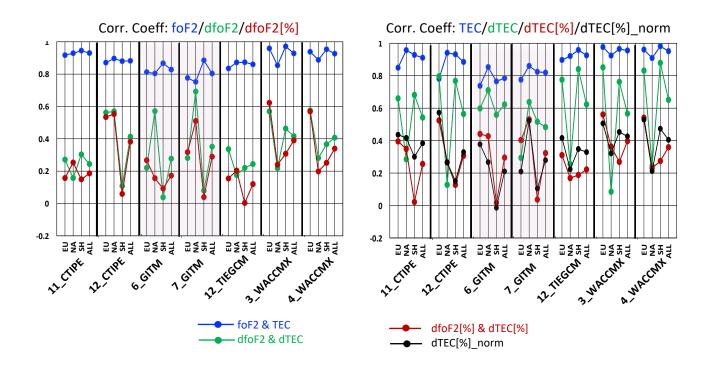
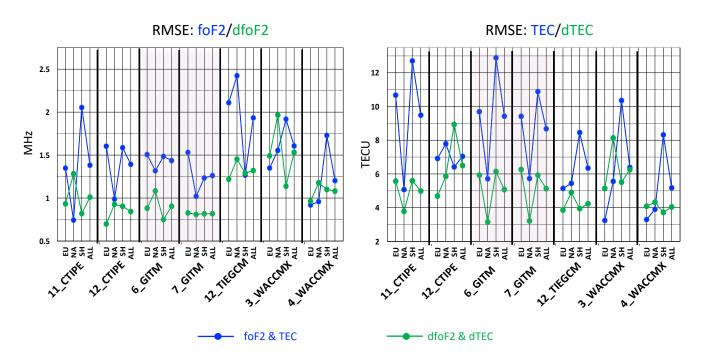
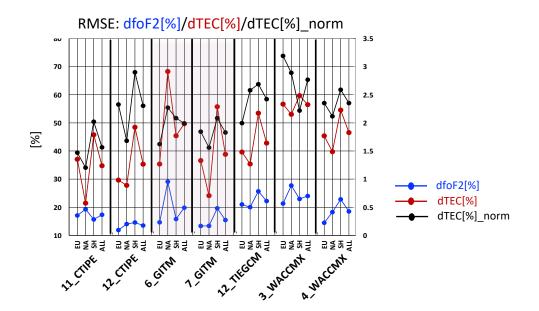
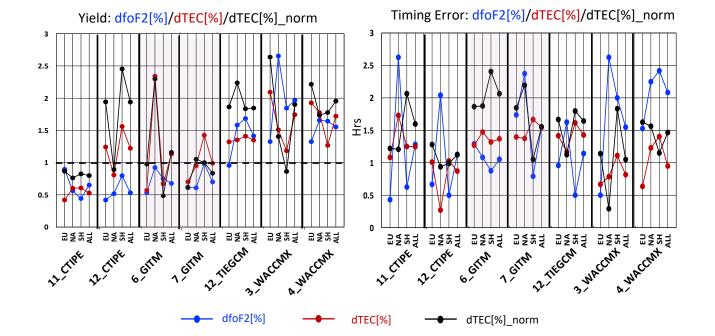
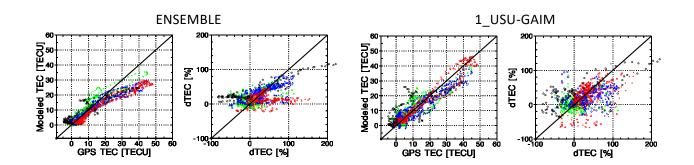


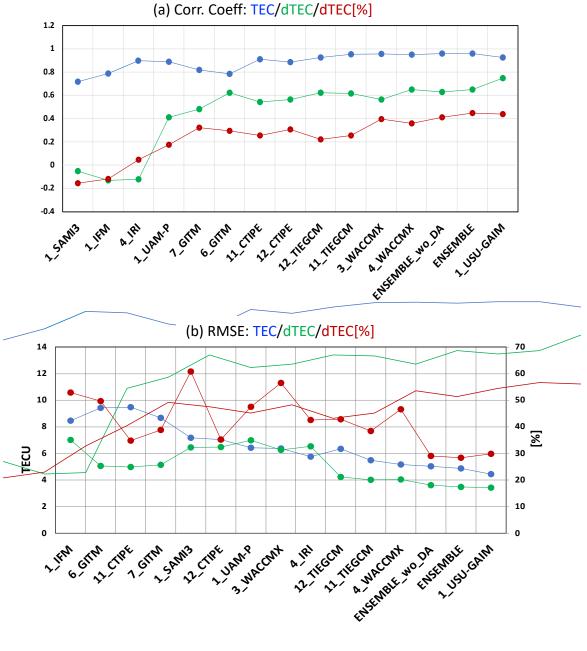
Figure 2











-TEC -dTEC -dTEC[%]

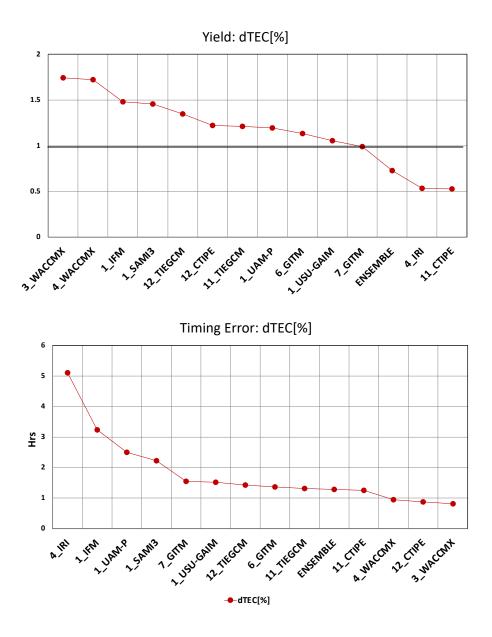


Figure 1. Scatter plots of the observed (*x* axis) and modeled (*y* axis) shifted foF2 and TEC (foF2*
in the 1st, TEC* in the 3rd columns), and percentage change of foF2 and TEC (dfoF2[%] in the
2nd, dTEC[%] in the 4th columns) during the storm (03/17/2013) for all 12 locations grouped into
North America (NA, green), Europe (EU, blue), South Africa (SAF, red), and South America
(SAM, black)

23	Figure 2. Correlation Coefficients (CC) between modeled and observed foF2 (left panel) and
24	TEC (right panel). Four CCs are displayed for each simulation: CC averaged over Europe (EU),
25	North America (NA), Southern Hemisphere (SH refers to SAF and SAM combined), and all 12
26	locations, from left to right. Different colors denote different quantities. Blue denotes shifted
27	foF2 and TEC, green and red the change and percentage changes, and black normalized
28	percentage change. The closer the circles are to the horizontal line of 1, the better the model
29	performances are.
30	
31	Figure 3. Same as Figure 2 but for RMSE of shifted foF2 and TEC, and changes of foF2 and
32	TEC
33	
34	Figure 4. Same as Figure 2 but for RMSE of percentage change of foF2 and TEC, and
35	normalized percentage change. Blue denotes dfoF2[%], red and black dTEC[%] and
36	dTEC[%]_norm.
37	
38	Figure 5. Same as Figure 2 but for Yield (ratio) and absolute of Timing Error ($ TE $ =
39	t_peak_model - t_peak_obs)

41	Figure 6. Same as Figure 1 but for only TEC and dTEC[%] from the ensemble of the simulations
42	(ENSEMBLE) and 1_USU-GAIM
43	
44	Figure 7. Averaged CC (a) and RMSE (b) over all 12 locations of 13 simulations, the ensemble
45	of them (ENSEMBLE), and the ensemble of 12 simulations excluding 1_USU-GAIM
46	(ENSEMBLE_wo_DA). Blue denotes shifted TEC, green and red the change and percentage
47	changes of TEC. CCs are plotted from the smallest to the largest (closer to 1) according to the
48	average of the three averaged CC values of TEC, dTEC and dTEC[%]. RMSEs are plotted from
49	the largest to the smallest according to the average RMSE for TEC and dTEC.
50	
51	Figure 8. Yield and Timing Error of dTEC[%] for all 13 simulations and ENSEMBLE.

1 Table 1. Quantities and Skill Scores for Model-Data Comparison

Quantities and skill scores for model-data comparison				
Quiet time references	30-day median value at a given time: TEC_quiet(UT),			
	30 days consist of 15 days before (03/01-03/15/2013) and 15 days after (03/22-04/05/2013) the storm			
Shifted TEC/foF2:	e.g., TEC*(doy, UT) = TEC(doy, UT) – minimum of TEC_quiet(UT)			
TEC/foF2 changes	e.g, dTEC(doy, UT)= TEC(doy, UT) – TEC quiet (UT)			
w.r.t. the quiet time	e.g, urre(uoy, or) rre(uoy, or)-rre_quiet(or)			
TEC/foF2 percentage	a = dTEC[0/1(day, UT) = 100* dTEC(day, UT)/TEC anist(UT)			
changes w.r.t.the quiet time	e.g., dTEC[%](doy,UT) =100* dTEC(doy, UT)/TEC_quiet(UT)			
Normalized Demonstrate	$dTEC[\%]_norm = (dTEC[\%] - ave_dTEC[\%])/std_dTEC[\%];$			
Normalized Percentage	ave_dTEC[%] is the average of dTEC[%] at a given time and at a given location over the quiet 30 days,			
changes of TEC	std_dTEC[%] is the standard deviation of the average percentage change			
Skill Scores				
CC	Correlation Coefficient			
RMSE	Root-Mean-Square Error $\left(=\sqrt{\frac{\sum (x_{obs}-x_{mod})^2}{N}}\right)$, where x_{obs} and x_{mod} are observed and modeled values			
Yield	ratio of the peak of modeled percentage change to that of the observed one $\left(=\frac{(x_{mod})_{max}}{(x_{obs})_{max}}\right)$			
Timing Error (TE)	difference between the modeled peak time and observed peak time: $TE = t_peak_model - t_peak_obs$			

7 Table 2. Models used for this study

Model Setting			Upper boundary for			
ID	Model Version	Input data	Models used for thermosphere, ti latitude ele	TEC calculation/ Resolution		
Physics-based Co	oupled Ionosphere-Thermos	sphere Model				
			Tides	High Latitude Electrodynamics		
11_CTIPE ^a	CTIPe3.2 [Codrescu et al., 2000; Millward et al., 2001]	F10.7, ACE IMF data and solar wind speed and density, NOAA	(2,2), (2,3), (2,4), (2,5), and (1,1) propagating tidal modes	Weimer-2005 high latitude electric potential [<i>Weimer</i> , 2005], Fuller-Rowell and Evans auroral	~2,000 km, 2° lat. × 18° long.	
12_CTIPE ^a	CTIPe4.1	POES Hemispheric Power data	WAM [Akmaev et al., 2011, Fuller-Rowell et al., 2010] tides	precipitation [1987]		
6_GITM ^a	GITM2.5 [<i>Ridley et al.</i> , 2006]	FISM solar EUV irradiance, ACE IMF data and solar wind speed and density	MSIS [<i>Hedin</i> , 1991] migrating diurnal and semidiurnal tides	Weimer-2005 high latitude electric potential, Ovation auroral precipitation [<i>Newell et al.</i> , 2009; 2011]	~600 km, 2.5° lat. × 5° long.	
7_GITM	GITM21.11			Weimer-2005 high latitude electric potential, Fang's auroral precipitation [<i>Fang et al.</i> , 2013]		
12_TIE-GCM ^a	TIE-GCM2.0 [Roble et al., 1988; Richmond et al., 1992; Solomon et al., 2012]	F10.7, Kp, OMNI IMF data and solar wind speed and density	GSWM [<i>Hagan et al.</i> , 1999] migrating diurnal and semidiurnal tides	Weimer-2005 high latitude electric potential, Roble and Ridley auroral precipitation [1987]	~600 km, 2.5° lat. × 2.5° long.	
Whole Atmosphe	ere Model					
3_WACCM-X	CESM2.2 [Gettelman et al., 2019; Liu et al.,	F10.7, Kp, OMNI IMF data and solar	Heelis high latitude electric potent Ridley auroral precipitation [1987	~600 km, 1.9° lat. × 2.5° long.		
4_WACCM-X	2018]	wind speed and density	Weimer-2005 high latitude electric precipitation [1987]			

^aThe model results are submitted by the CCMC using the models hosted at the CCMC

	Time Interval	11_CTIPE	12_CTIPE	6_GITM	7_GITM	12_TIE-GCM	3_WACCM-X	4_WACCM-X
46-52[0/1	06–15UT	8	7	5	9	9	6	10
dfoF2[%]	15–22UT	10	6	7	8	7	7	10
	06–15UT	9	10	10	10	7	10	9
dTEC[%]	15–22UT	7	10	12	11	10	7	8

10 Table 3. Number of locations where the models correctly predict negative or positive phase.

11

12 Table 4. Averaged RMSE over all 12 locations of the ensemble of newer versions (ENSEMBLE_new) of models (12_CTIPE, 7_GITM and

13 4_WACCM-X) driven by Weimer2005 electric potential model, the ensemble of older versions (ENSEMBLE_old) of models (11_CTIPE,

14 6_GITM and 12_TIE-GCM), and 1_USU-GAIM.

	TEC (TECU)	dTEC (TECU)	dTEC[%]
ENSEMBLE_old	6.6	4.1	33.4
ENSEMBLE_new	4.6	3.2	29.8
1_USU-GAIM	4.5	3.4	29.9

15

1	Validation of Ionospheric Specifications During Geomagnetic Storms: TEC and foF2
2	during the 2013 March Storm Event-II
3	
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5	Vitt ⁶ , L. Rastaetter ⁷ , J. Yue ^{7,8} , M. Chou ^{7,8} , M. Codrescu ⁹ , A. J. Coster ⁵ , M. Fedrizzi ⁹ , T. J. Fuller-
6	Rowell ⁹ , A. J. Ridley ¹⁰ , S. C. Solomon ⁶
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18	
19	
20	
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23 Key Points:

24	٠	foF2/TEC and their changes during a storm predicted by seven ionosphere-thermosphere
25		coupled models are evaluated against GIRO foF2 and GPS TEC measurements.
26	•	Model simulations tend to underestimate the storm-time enhancements of foF2 and TEC
27		and to predict them better in the North America but worse in the southern hemisphere.
28	٠	Ensemble of all simulations for TEC is comparable to the data assimilation model (USU-
29		GAIM).
30		

31 Abstract

32 Assessing space weather modeling capability is a key element in improving existing models and 33 developing new ones. In order to track improvement of the models and investigate impacts of 34 forcing, from the lower atmosphere below and from the magnetosphere above, on the 35 performance of ionosphere-thermosphere models, we expand our previous assessment for 2013 36 March storm event [Shim et al., 2018]. In this study, we evaluate new simulations from upgraded 37 models (Coupled Thermosphere Ionosphere Plasmasphere Electrodynamics (CTIPe) model 38 version 4.1 and Global Ionosphere Thermosphere Model (GITM) version 21.11) and from 39 NCAR Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model with thermosphere and ionosphere 40 extension (WACCM-X) version 2.2 including 8 simulations in the previous study. A simulation 41 of NCAR Thermosphere-Ionosphere-Electrodynamics General Circulation Model version 2 42 (TIE-GCM 2) is also included for comparison with WACCM-X. TEC and foF2 changes from 43 quiet-time background are considered to evaluate the model performance on the storm impacts. 44 For evaluation, we employ 4 skill scores: Correlation coefficient (CC), root-mean square error 45 (RMSE), ratio of the modeled to observed maximum percentage changes (Yield), and timing 46 error(TE). It is found that the models tend to underestimate the storm-time enhancements of foF2 47 (F2-layer critical frequency) and TEC (Total Electron Content) and to predict foF2 and/or TEC 48 better in the North America but worse in the Southern Hemisphere. The ensemble simulation for 49 TEC is comparable to results from a data assimilation model (Utah State University-Global 50 Assimilation of Ionospheric Measurement (USU-GAIM)) with differences in skill score less than 51 3% and 6% for CC and RMSE, respectively.

52

53 Plain Language Summary

54 The Earth's ionosphere-thermosphere (IT) system, which is present between the lower 55 atmosphere and the magnetosphere, is highly variable due to external forcings from below and 56 above as well as internal forcings mainly associated with ion-neutral coupling processes. The 57 variabilities of the IT system can adversely affect our daily lives, therefore, there is a need for 58 both accurate and reliable weather forecasts to mitigate harmful effects of space weather events. 59 In order to track the improvement of predictive capabilities of space weather models for the IT 60 system, and to investigate the impacts of the forcings on the performance of IT models, we 61 evaluate new simulations from upgraded models (CTIPe model version 4.1 and GITM version 62 21.11) and from NCAR WACCM-X version 2.2 together with 8 simulations in the previous 63 study. A simulation of NCAR TIE-GCM version 2 is also included for the comparison with 64 WACCM-X. Quantitative evaluation is performed by using 4 skill scores including Correlation 65 coefficient (CC), root-mean square error (RMSE), ratio of the modeled to observed maximum percentage changes (Yield), and timing error (TE). The findings of this study will provide a 66 67 baseline for future validation studies of new and improved models.

68

69 1. Introduction

Variabilities of the Earth's ionosphere-thermosphere (IT) system, caused by charged particles and electromagnetic radiation emitted from the sun, can adversely affect our daily lives, which are highly dependent on space-based technological infrastructures such as Low-Earth Orbit (LEO) satellites and the Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS). To mitigate harmful effects of space weather events, modeling plays a critical role in our quest to understand the connection between solar eruptive phenomena and their impacts in interplanetary space and near-Earth space environment. In particular, the Earth's upper atmosphere including the IT system is

77	the space environment closest to the human society. Thus, during the past few decades, first-
78	principles physics-based (PB) IT models have been developed for specifications and forecasts of
79	the near-Earth space environment. In addition, there have been recent developments of whole
80	atmosphere models with thermospheric and ionospheric extension to fully understand
81	variabilities of the IT system by considering coupling between the IT system and the lower
82	atmosphere [e.g., Akmaev, 2011; Fuller-Rowell et al., 2010; Jin et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2018].
83	For more accurate space weather forecasting, assessing space weather modeling capability is
84	a key element to improve existing models and to develop new models. Over the last decade, in
85	an effort to address the needs and challenges of the assessment of our current knowledge about
86	space weather effects on the IT system and current state of IT modeling capabilities, the NASA
87	GSFC Community Coordinated Modeling Center (CCMC) has been supporting community-wide
88	model validation projects, including Coupling, Energetics and Dynamics of Atmospheric
89	Regions (CEDAR) [Shim et al., 2011, 2012, 2014] and Geospace Environment Modeling
90	(GEM)-CEDAR modeling challenges [Rastätter et al., 2016; Shim et al., 2017a].
91	Furthermore, in 2018, the CCMC established an international effort, "International Forum
92	for Space Weather Modeling Capabilities Assessment", to evaluate and assess the predictive
93	capabilities of space weather models (<u>https://ccmc.gsfc.nasa.gov/iswat/IFSWCA/</u>). As a result of
94	this international effort, four ionosphere/thermosphere working groups were established with an
95	overarching goal to devise a standardized quantitative validation procedure for IT models
96	[Scherliess et al., 2019].
97	The working group, focusing on neutral density and orbit determination at LEO, reported

97 The working group, focusing on neutral density and orbit determination at LEO, reported
98 their initial results for specific metrics for thermosphere model assessment over the selected
99 three full years and two geomagnetic storms in 2005 [*Bruinsma et al.*, 2018]. They reported that

100 the tested models in general performed reasonably well, although seasonal errors were 101 sometimes observed and impulsive geomagnetic events remain a challenge. Kalafatoglu Eyigüler 102 et al. (2019) compared the neutral density estimates from two empirical and three PB models 103 with those obtained from the CHAMP satellite. They suggested that several metrics that provide 104 different aspects of the errors should be considered together for a proper performance evaluation. 105 Another working group, "Ionosphere Plasmasphere Density Working Team", performed the 106 assessment of present modeling capabilities in predicting the ionospheric climatology of f_0F_2 107 and hmF2 for the entire year 2012 [Tsagouri et al., 2018]. Tsagouri et al. (2018) identified a 108 strong seasonal and local time dependence of the model performances, especially for PB models, 109 which could provide useful insight for future model improvements. Tsagouri et al. cautioned that 110 the quality of the ground truth data may play a key role in testing the model performance. Shim 111 et al. (2018) assessed how well the ionospheric models predict storm time f_0F_2 and TEC by 112 considering quantities, such as TEC and f_0F_2 changes and percentage changes compared to quiet 113 time background, at 12 selected midlatitude locations in the American and European-African 114 longitude sectors. They found that the performance of the model varies with locations, even 115 within a localized region like Europe, as well as with the metrics considered. In this paper, we expand our previous assessment of modeled foF2 and TEC during 2013 116 117 March storm event (17 March, 2013) [Shim et al., 2018] to track improvement of the models and 118 to investigate impacts of forcings from the lower atmosphere below and from the magnetosphere 119 above on the performance of IT models. For this study, we evaluate the updated version of the

120 coupled IT models available at the CCMC [Webb et al., 2009] since our previous study [Shim et

121 *al.*, 2018]: CTIPe version 4.1 and GITM version 21.11. However, the other types of models such

122 as empirical models, stand-alone ionospheric models, and data assimilation models are not

123	included. In addition, for the first time, simulations of NCAR WACCM-X 2.2 are included in
124	our assessment. We also included a simulation of NCAR TIE-GCM 2 to compare with results
125	from WACCM-X 2.2. For TEC prediction, we compare a weighted mean of the ensemble of all
126	13 simulations (ensemble average), including 8 simulations from our previous study with
127	individual simulations to assess ensemble forecast capability. In Section 2, we briefly describe
128	observations, models, and metrics used for this study. Section 3 presents the results of model-
129	data comparisons and performance of the models are presented. Section 4 shows comparisons of
130	ensemble of TEC predictions with the individual simulations based on the skill scores used in
131	this study. Finally, we summarize and conclude in Section 5.
132	
133	2. Methodology
134	2.1 Observations and Metrics
135	We use the foF2 and TEC measurements at 12 ionosonde stations selected in middle
136	latitudes: 8 northern hemisphere (NH) stations in the US (Millstone Hill, Idaho national Lab,
137	Boulder, and Eglin AFB) and Europe (Chilton, Pruhonice, Ebre, and Athens) and 4 southern
138	hemisphere (SH) stations in South America (Port Stanley) and South Africa (Louisvale,
139	Hermanus, and Grahamstown) (Figure 1 and Table 1 in Shim et al. [2018] for details). The foF2
140	and GNSS vertical TEC (vTEC) data are provided by Global Ionosphere Radio Observatory
141	(GIRO) (http://giro.uml.edu/) [Reinisch and Galkin, 2011] and by MIT Haystack Observatory
142	(http://cedar.openmadrigal.org/, http://cedar.openmadrigal.org/cgi-bin/gSimpleUIAccessData.py)
143	[Rideout and Coster, 2006], respectively.
144	Table 1 shows the quantities and skill scores calculated for model-data comparison. To
145	remove potential systematic uncertainties in the models and observations and baseline

146 differences among the models and between models and observations, we use the shifted values 147 and changes from their own quiet-time background values (e.g., shifted TEC (TEC*) = TEC 148 (UT) on a particular DOY – median (UT) of TEC for 30 days centered on the storm date). 149 Furthermore, using these quantities likely reduce the impacts of differing upper boundaries for 150 TEC calculations, since the plasmaspheric TEC variations with geomagnetic activity are 151 negligible in middle latitudes [Shim et al., 2017b]. 152 To measure how well the observed and modeled values are linearly correlated (in phase) 153 with each other and how different the values are on average over the time interval considered, CC and RMSE are calculated, respectively, for the error values below 95th percentile. We also 154 155 calculate Yield and timing error to measure the models' capability to capture peak disturbances 156 during the storm. For more detailed information on the quantities and skill scores used for the 157 study, refer to Section 2 in Shim et al. [2018].

158

159 **2.2 Models and Simulations**

160 The simulations used in this study are obtained from the updated and newly incorporated 161 coupled ionosphere-thermosphere models available at the CCMC [Webb et al., 2009] since our 162 previous study [Shim et al., 2018]: CTIPe 4.1, GITM 21.11 and WACCM-X 2.2. The WACCM-163 X 2.2 simulations are provided by NCAR HAO. The WACCM-X version 2 [Liu et al., 2018] is a 164 comprehensive numerical model that extends the atmospheric component model of the NCAR 165 Community Earth System Model (CESM) [Hurrell et al., 2013] into the thermosphere up to 166 500–700 km altitude. WACCM-X is uniquely capable of being run in a configuration where the 167 atmosphere is coupled to active or prescribed ocean, sea ice, and land components, enabling 168 studies of thermospheric and ionospheric weather and climate. WACCM-X version 2 is based

169 upon WACCM version 6 [Gettelman et al., 2019] with a top boundary of ~130 km, which is 170 built upon the Community Atmosphere Model (CAM) version 6 having a top boundary of ~40 km. WACCM-X 2.2 includes WACCM6 physics for middle atmosphere and lower thermosphere 171 172 as well as CAM6 physics for the troposphere and the lower stratosphere, and it fully incorporates 173 the electrodynamical processes related to low-to mid-latitude wind dynamo that is implemented 174 in the NCAR TIE-GCM. For this study, two specified-dynamics (SD) WACCM-X 2.2 175 simulations with different high-latitude electrostatic potential models [*Heelis et al.*, 1982; 176 Weimer, 2005] are used. The SD simulations are carried out by constraining the model's lower 177 atmospheric neutral dynamics using meteorological reanalysis data. The constraining process is 178 achieved by nudging the model towards MERRA-2 (Modern Era Retrospective Analysis for 179 Research and Applications, Version 2) data [Gelaro et al., 2017] below around the altitude of 50 180 km in a way presented by *Brakebusch et al.* [2013]. 181 The resulting WACCM-X simulations are compared with the simulations of TIE-GCM. The 182 comparisons between WACCM-X and TIE-GCM simulations will show differences and 183 similarities in modeling capabilities between whole atmosphere modeling and ionosphere-184 thermosphere modeling with a specified low-boundary forcing (e.g., Global Scale Wave Model 185 (GSWM) [Hagan et al., 1999] used for this study). 186 Table 2 shows the version of the models, input data used for the simulations, and models 187 used for lower boundary forcing and high latitude electrodynamics. We utilized unique model 188 setting identifiers to distinguish the current simulations from those used in our previous studies 189 [Shim et al., 2011, 2012, 2014, 2017a, 2018]. Additional information for the models and model

190 setting identifiers is available in *Shim et al.* [2011] (Refer to all references therein) and at

191 <u>https://ccmc.gsfc.nasa.gov/support/GEM_metrics_08/tags_list.php</u>

192 To investigate improvement in foF2 and TEC predictions of the updated versions of CTIPE 193 (12 CTIPE) and GITM (7 GITM), the simulations of the old versions of the models (11 CTIPE 194 and 6 GITM) from our previous study are included. The comparison will be focused on the 195 comparison between the simulations obtained from the same model. As for TIE-GCM, 12 TIE-196 GCM (run at 2.5° resolution) is presented for this study, but the comparison between 197 11 TIE GCM and 12 TIE-GCM was not included in this study because the only difference 198 between the two is horizontal resolution (5°lat.×5°long. vs 2.5°lat.×2.5°long.). 199 We should take note of the difference between the simulations obtained from the same 200 model that influence foF2 and TEC responses to geomagnetic storms. For two CTIPe runs, 201 different lower atmospheric tides were specified: 11 CTIPE was driven by the imposed 202 migrating semidiurnal (2,2), (2,3), (2,4), (2,5), and diurnal (1,1) tidal modes, while 12 CTIPE 203 was run with monthly mean spectrum of tides obtained from WAM (Whole Atmosphere Model) 204 [Akmaev et al., 2011, Fuller-Rowell et al., 2010]. For two GITM simulations, 7 GITM used 205 Fang's auroral precipitation [Fang et al., 2013], while 6 GITM used Ovation model [Newell et 206 al., 2009; 2011]. For two WACCM-X simulations, Heelis and Weimer2005 electric potential 207 models were used for 3 WACCM-X and 4 WACCM-X, respectively. 12 TIEGCM was driven 208 by Weimer2005 electric potential model and GSWM.

209

210 3. Performance of the Models in Predictions of foF2 and vTEC on 17 March 2013

Most simulations newly added for this study show similar behavior to those used in *Shim et al.* [2018], in predicting foF2 and TEC during the storm. For example, the simulations are not able to reproduce (1) the difference between eastern and western parts of the North American sector (e.g., TEC increases at Millstone Hill but decreases at Idaho and Boulder around 20UT), and (2) different responses between foF2 (negligible changes) and TEC (noticeable increase)
found in European (Chilton) and South-African (Grahamstown) stations (See Figure 4 of Shim et
al. [2018] for reference). However, compared to other simulations, 4_WACCM-X driven by *Weimer* (2005) high latitude electric potential model captures relatively well the two differences
in TEC and foF2 described above (Figure S1 in supporting information).

220 Figure 1 shows scatter plots of the observed (x axis) and modeled (y axis) shifted foF2 and 221 TEC, and percentage change of foF2 and TEC during the storm (03/17/2013) for all 12 locations 222 grouped into 4 sectors: North America (NA, green), Europe (EU, blue), South Africa (SAF, red), 223 and South America (SAM, black). First of all, the qualitative comparison between the 224 simulations from the same model can be summarized as follows. 11 CTIPE/12 CTIPE tends to 225 underestimate foF2 for both quiet and disturbed conditions, but 12 CTIPE predicts much better 226 both foF2 and TEC during the storm than 11 CTIPE. 6 GITM and 7 GITM underestimate foF2 227 and TEC for all cases and show relatively small response to the storm compared to the other 228 simulations. 12 TIE-GCM and WACCM-Xs produce similar foF2 and TEC changes during the 229 storm. All three simulations give substantial underestimation of TEC in SAF. 12 TIE-GCM and 230 3 WACCM-X produce larger overestimation of foF2 and TEC in NA sector than 4 WACCM-X. 231 4 WACCM-X shows substantial improvement in the TEC overestimation in NA. 3 WACCM-X, 232 of which the high latitude electric potential is specified by Heelis et al. [1982], tends to 233 overestimate foF2 and TEC compared with 4 WACCM-X. 3 WACCM-X and 4 WACCM-X 234 produce better quiet time foF2 and TEC than 12 TIEGCM does and capture wave-like small 235 increases in foF2 and TEC at Idaho National Lab around 10–11UT (2–3 LT) (Figure S1 in 236 supporting information).

237	As shown for 6_GITM and 11_CTIPE in Shim et al. [2018], the modeled foF2 values of
238	7_GITM and 12_CTIPE better agrees with the observed ones when they are shifted by
239	subtracting the minimum of 30-day median (see Figure S2 in supporting information, Shim et al.
240	[2018]). Most foF2 and TEC data points of 7_GITM and 12_CTIPE before shifting are below
241	and above the line with slope 1 (black solid line), respectively. This indicates that 7_GITM
242	underestimates foF2 and TEC like 6_GITM, while 12_CTIPE overestimates them. The models
243	that tend to underestimate foF2, such as 6_GITM, 7_GITM and 11_CTIPE, seem to unable to
244	produce foF2* larger than about 7 MHz, and underestimate TEC* being less than about 20
245	TECU during the storm as reported in Shim et al. [2018]. 12_TIE-GCM and WACCM-Xs show
246	similar distribution of the data points after shifting foF2 and TEC with a tendency to
247	underestimate foF2 and TEC in the South Africa region.
248	The modeled dfoF2[%] and dTEC[%] show less agreement with the observed values than
249	the modeled foF2* and TEC* do. The data points in the 2nd quadrant (top left) and the 4th
250	quadrant (bottom right) indicate that the modeled and observed percentage changes are in
251	opposite sign. 7_GITM and 3_WACCM-X have more data points in the 2nd quadrant for
252	dfoF2[%] prediction than 6_GITM and 4_WACCM-X, respectively. Like most simulations used
253	in our previous evaluation [Shim et al. 2018], 12_CTIPE and 7_GITM do not appear to
254	reproduce the large dTEC[%] (about 200 %) at Port Stanley in SAM. However, 12_TIE-GCM
255	and WACCM-Xs better produce the enhancement in TEC percentage change. Compared to
256	4_WACCM-X and 12_TIE-GCM, 3_WACCM-X overestimates dTEC[%] especially in NA and
256 257	4_WACCM-X and 12_TIE-GCM, 3_WACCM-X overestimates dTEC[%] especially in NA and EU regions. 12_CTIPE and 6_GITM have more data points of overestimated dTEC[%] in SAF

From now on, foF2 and TEC will represent shifted foF2 (foF2*) and shifted TEC (TEC*),
respectively.

261

262 **3.1 Correlation Coefficient (CC)**

263 We first calculate correlation coefficient (CC) between the modeled and observed foF2 and 264 TEC for DOY 076 (17 March, 2013) for quantitative assessment of the model performance of 265 TEC and foF2 predictions. In Figure 2, the CCs for each simulation are presented for foF2 in the 266 left panel and for TEC in the right panel. For each simulation, four CC values are displayed. First 267 three of the values correspond to the average CC over Europe (EU), North America (NA), 268 Southern Hemisphere (SH refers to SAF and SAM combined), and the last one is the average of 269 all 12 locations. The modeled foF2 and TEC (blue dots) are highly correlated with the observed 270 values. The average CC values over all 12 locations for both foF2 and TEC are about 0.8–0.95, 271 but the average CCs for their changes are much smaller. For example, the CCs for TEC changes 272 (dTEC) are 0.5–0.6 and even smaller for foF2. The modeled foF2 changes (green), percentage 273 changes (red) and normalized percentage changes (black only applicable for TEC) are much less 274 correlated (closer to uncorrelated) with the observed values (about 0.1 < average CC < 0.4). 275 There is no big difference between dTEC[%] and dTEC[%] norm based on the average values 276 for each simulation as reported in *Shim et al.* [2018]. 277 Note that the CC values for the changes and percentage changes of foF2 and TEC are highly 278 dependent on locations. Most simulations, except for 12 CTIPE and GITMs, show lower CC for 279 dfoF2 and dTEC in NA. It seems to be caused by the decreases of foF2 and TEC during the 280 storm (negative phase) in the western parts of NA that are not captured well. GITMs show the

283	11_CTIPE's foF2 and TEC averaged over 12 locations are slightly better correlated with the
284	observed values than 12_CTIPE. However, the changes and percentage changes of foF2 and
285	TEC from 12_CTIPE are better correlated with the observed values than 11_CTIPE's values in
286	most regions. Although the two GITMs produce similar CCs, 7_GITM shows better CC in NA
287	regions for dfoF2, dfoF2[%], dTEC[%], and n_dTEC[%], while 6_GITM shows better CC for
288	foF2 and dTEC. WACCM-Xs perform better than 12_TIE_GCM for all the considered quantities
289	based on the average except for dTEC. WACCM-Xs perform similar to each other.
290	Close inspection of Figures. 1 and 2 indicates that a linearity between CTIPE and
291	observations is improved in the newer version of CTIPE (12_CTIPE), but 12_CTIPE gives more
292	scattered distribution around a linear relation (Fig. 1), which seems to lead to the lower CC in
293	12_CTIPE than in 11_CTIPE. 7_GITM exhibits a slight improvement in a linearity between the
294	model and observations (Fig. 1), but this improvement is not clearly seen in the correlation
295	analysis (Fig. 2). For 12_TIEGCM and WACCM-Xs, both a linearity between the models and
296	observations (Fig. 1) and CCs (Fig. 2) demonstrate that the model performances are overall
297	improved in WACCM-Xs compared with TIEGCM. In terms of the model-observation linearity,
298	4_WACCMX is somewhat better than 3_WACCMX (Fig. 1), but their CCs seems comparable to
299	each other (Fig. 2).

3.2 Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)

Figure 3 shows RMSE of foF2 and dfoF2 in the left panel, and TEC and dTEC in the right
panel. For foF2 (blue) and dfoF2 (green) predictions, based on the average RMSE values, the

RMSEs from the updated version (12_CTIPE and 7_GITM) are about 1.5 MHz for foF2 and
about 1 MHz for dfof2, and they are slightly lower than RMSEs in their old versions. 12_CTIPE
shows improvement in foF2 in SH and dfoF2 in NA and EU compared to 11_CTIPE. 7_GITM
performs better in foF2 and dfoF2 in EU and SH than 6_GITM. 4_WACCM-X has smaller
RMSE (~1 MHz) than 3_WACCM-X and 12_TIE-GCM (~1.3 MHz for dfoF2 and ~2 MHz for
foF2).

12_CTIPE is better in TEC prediction than 11_CTIPE, while the opposite holds true for
dTEC prediction. The two GITMs' average RMSE values for TEC and dTEC predictions are
similar to each other, about 9 TECU for TEC and 5 TECU for dTEC. Like foF2 and dfoF2
prediction, 4_WACCM-X has smaller RMSE (~ 5 TECU for TEC and 4 TECU for dTEC) than
12 TIE-GCM and 3 WACCM-X (~6 TECU).

315 As seen in Shim et al. [2018], RMSE is highly variable with location. Most simulations 316 appear to predict foF2 and/or TEC better in NA and worse in SH (except for 12 TIE-GCM for 317 foF2 and 12 CTIPE for TEC). Both 11 CTIPE and GITMs tend to perform better in NA for 318 dTEC, while WACCM-Xs show the opposite tendency for dfoF2 and dTEC. 7 GITM and 319 4 WACCM-X shows the least RMSE dependence on location for dfoF2 and for dTEC, 320 respectively, among seven simulations. 321 Figure 4 shows the RMSE of percentage changes of foF2 (blue) and TEC (red) and 322 normalized percentage changes of TEC (black). The two CTIPEs produce the similar RMSE for 323 dTEC[%], but 12 CTIPE and 11 CTIPE produce lower RMSE for dfoF2[%] and 324 dTEC[%] norm, respectively. For all three percentage changes of dfoF2[%], dTEC[%], and

325 dTEC[%]_norm, 7_GITM seems to perform better than 6_GITM based on the average RMSEs

over the 12 locations. 4_WACCM-X and 12_TIE-GCM perform very similarly for dfoF2[%] and
dTEC[%] and better than 3_WACCM-X.

328 Difference in the performance among locations is more noticeable in dTEC[%] and

dTEC[%]_norm than in dfoF2[%] as found in *Shim et al.* [2018]. All simulations, except

330 6_GITM, produce lower RMSE of dTEC[%] in NA and higher in SH region. This tendency

remains the same for dTEC[%]_norm with the exception of 3_WACCM-X, which has lower

332 RMSE for dTEC[%]_norm in SH. For 3_WACCM-X, the higher RMSE for dTEC[%] and the

lower RMSE for dTEC[%]_norm in SH than in NA are probably due to the normalization factor,

334 standard deviation of dTEC[%] in the locations.

335

336 **3.3 Yield and Timing Error (TE)**

To measure how well the models capture the degree of TEC and foF2 disturbances during the main phase, Yield and Timing Error (TE) of dfoF2[%], dTEC[%], and dTEC[%]_norm are calculated. *Shim et al.* [2018] considered two time intervals, 06–15UT and 15–22UT, when peaks are observed in most of 12 locations. In each time interval, we calculate one Yield value and one TE value. Definitions of Yield and TE are presented in Table 1.

In each sector, average Yield and TE are calculated over the number of stations where the model correctly predicts the storm phase, i.e., Yield is positive. Table 3 shows the total number of stations where the models show correct storm phase, either positive or negative. The numbers in bold are the higher values between the simulations compared. 12_CTIPE predicts the storm phase better for dTEC[%] than 11_CTIPE, but 11_CTIPE predicts better for dfoF2[%] than 12_CTIPE. 7_GITM is improved in predicting the storm phase of dfoF2[%], while 6_GITM predicts better the storm phase of dTEC[%]. 4_WACCM-X, compared to 12_TIE-GCM and 349 3_WACCM-X, is better for predicting the phase of dfoF2[%] and worse for predicting that ofdTEC[%].

351 Figure 5 shows average Yield (left) and average of absolute values of TE (right) over the 352 two time intervals: dfoF2[%] in blue, dTEC[%] in red, and dTEC[%] norm in black. Concerning 353 the average of all 12 locations, 12 CTIPE appears to overestimate peak values of dTEC[%] and 354 dTEC[%] norm with larger variation with location (e.g., $\sim 1 < \text{Yield of dTEC}[\%]$ norm $< \sim 2.5$) 355 than 11 CTIPE, of which Yield is less than 1 for all three quantities of percentage changes (e.g., 356 0.7 < Yield of dTEC[%] norm < 0.9). Yields of 12 CTIPE for dTEC[\%] and dTEC[\%] norm 357 are closer to 1 in NA. GITMs produce similar ratios based on the average over all locations, but 358 7 GITM shows smaller differences in Yield among locations (e.g., $\sim 0.5 <$ Yield of 359 dTEC[%] norm $< \sim 1$) than 6 GITM (e.g., 0.5 < Yield of dTEC[%] norm $< \sim 2.5$). In terms of 360 average Yield, 12 TIE-GCM and two WACCM-Xs tend to overestimate the peak values and 361 show similar performance, although 12 TIE-GCM's ratios are closer to 1 than those of 362 WACCM-Xs. 3 WACCM-X shows larger variation in Yield among locations (e.g., ~0.9 < Yield 363 of dTEC[%] norm $< \sim 2.7$) than 12 TIE-GCM and 4 WACCM-X (e.g., $\sim 1.7 <$ Yield of 364 dTEC[%] norm $< \sim 2.3$).

Average Timing Errors of dfoF2[%] and dTEC[%]_norm are between 1 and 2 hours, and TE of dTEC[%] are about 0.8–1.5 hours. With respect to the average TE, 12_CTIPE has smaller TE (~1 hr) than 11_CTIPE (about 1.5 hr) for all three percentage changes with less location dependence as well. 7_GITM's three TEs are about 1.5 hrs, while 6_GITM's TEs of dfoF2[%], dTEC[%] and dTEC[%]_norm are ~1, ~1.4, and ~2 hrs, respectively. 12 TIE-GCM has smaller TE for dfoF2[%] and 3_WACCM-X has smaller TE for dTEC[%] and dTEC[%]_norm, however 3_WACCM-X show larger location dependence of TE for dTEC[%]_norm and dfoF2[%]. 372

373 4. Ensemble of TEC obtained from13 simulations

374 The linearity check, RMSE, and CC between model results and observations for shifted foF2 375 and TEC and their relative changes indicate that the newer versions of the models (i.e., 376 12 CTIPE, 7 GITM and 4 WACCM-X) produces the better results. From the viewpoints of 377 correct prediction of storm phases (Table 3), Yields, and TEs (Fig. 5), however, there is no one 378 best simulation for all locations, and the performance of model varies with locations as well as 379 the Yields and TE. 380 The differences in performance among the simulations could be caused by inherent 381 differences among the models or by a combination of different input data and different models 382 used for lower boundary forcing and high-latitude electrodynamics. Even different data 383 assimilation models for the same weather condition can yield different results, due to numerous 384 reasons (e.g., the use of different background weather models, spatial/temporal resolutions, 385 assimilation methods, and data error analyses), even if the same data are assimilated [Schunk et 386 al., 2021]. The common way to handle these differences is to use model ensembles and the use

390 simulations. To get the weighted mean ($\bar{x} = \sum w_i x_i / \sum w_i$), we used the RMSE of shifted TEC

391 ($w_i = 1/\text{RMSE}$).

387

388

389

Figure 6 is the same as Figure 1 but for the ensemble of the simulations (ENSEMBLE will be used as model setting ID) and a simulation (1_USU-GAIM) from a data assimilation model (DA), USU-GAIM. For TEC less than about 20 TECU, ENSEMBLE shows better agreement

of ensembles enables estimations of the certainty of results. Thus, we used a weighted mean of

the ensemble of all 13 simulations including 8 simulations from our previous study (Shim et al.,

2018) for TEC, dTEC and dTEC[%] to compare the ensemble average with the individual

with GPS TEC than the individual simulations, including 1_USU-GAIM. However, as we can expect, ENSEMBLE underestimates TEC larger than about 30 TECU due to the tendency to underestimate TEC of many simulations as pointed out in Section 3 and *Shim et al.*, [2018]. For dTEC[%], ENSEMBLE appears to be correlated better with GPS dTEC[%] than the other simulations, although there are some underestimations in SAF, as well as in SAM with opposite prediction of the storm phase.

Figure 7 shows averaged CC and RMSE values over all 12 locations of 13 simulations, the
ensemble of them, and the ensemble of 12 simulations excluding 1_USU-GAIM

403 (ENSEMBLE_wo_DA). The simulations in Figure 7 (a) were arranged by the average of the

404 three averaged CC values for TEC, dTEC and dTEC[%] from the smallest to the largest (closer

405 to 1). In Figure 7 (b), the simulations were arranged by the average of the two averaged RMSEs

406 for TEC and dTEC from the largest to the smallest. Based on the averaged CC and RMSE,

407 ENSEMBLEs (ENSEMBLE and ENSEMBLE_wo_DA) of the simulations perform very

408 similarly and outperform all 12 simulations but a data assimilation model, 1_USU-GAIM.

409 However, ENSEMBLEs and 1_USU-GAIM do not show big difference in their performance.

410 The differences in RMSE of TEC and dTEC between ENSEMBLE and 1_USU-GAIM are less

411 than 0.5 and 0.1 TECU, respectively. For dTEC[%], ENSEMBLE performs slightly better than

412 1_USU-GAIM with about 1.5% lower RMSE. The fact that ENSEMBLEs are comparable to the

413 data assimilation model 1_USU-GAIM indicates that the multi-model ensemble can be useful in

414 forecasting the IT system, although this result is obtained from a single geomagnetic storm event.

415 Figure 8 shows Yield and Timing Error of dTEC[%] for all 13 simulations along with

416 ENSEMBLE. The values correspond to the average over all 12 locations. Unlike CC and RMSE,

417 ENSEMBLE does not outperform all physic-based coupled models in terms of Yield and TE,

418 although the difference is small. ENSEMBLE underestimates Yield, while most of the

419 simulations overestimate it, except 4_IRI and 11_CTIPE. 7 simulations from PB coupled IT

420 models and 1_USU-GAIM produce Yield closer to 1 than ENSEMBLE does.

421 Timing Error of dTEC[%] of ENSEMBLE is about 1 hr, which is slightly larger than TE

422 from 4 simulations from CTIPE and WACCM-X, but the difference from the smallest TE is less

423 than 0.5 hr.

424 Regarding the averaged skill scores for all 12 locations, newly added five simulations in this

425 study produce comparable TEC and TEC changes to the simulations from PB IT models used in

426 our previous study. The simulations of newer versions of the models (12_CTIPE, 7_GITM and

427 4_WACCM-X) are found to give overall improved forecast results. Based on the averaged

428 RMSE, the ensemble of simulations of the models' newer versions is comparable to 1_USU-

429 GAIM and performs better than the ensemble of the simulations of old versions of models

430 (11_CTIPE, 6_GITM and 12_TIE-GCM) (Table 4).

431

432 **5. Summary and Conclusions**

We expanded on our previous systematic assessment of modeled foF2 and TEC during 2013 March storm event (17 March, 2013) to track the improvement of the models and investigate impacts of forcings from the lower atmosphere and the magnetosphere, on the performance of ionosphere-thermosphere coupled models.

437 We evaluated simulations from upgraded models (CTIPe4.1 and GITM21.11) since our

- 438 previous assessment and a whole atmosphere model (WACCM-X2.2). To compare with results
- 439 from WACCM-X2.2, we also included a simulation of TIE-GCM2.0, of which the
- 440 electrodynamic processes are implemented in WACCM-X 2.2. Furthermore, to evaluate TEC

prediction of the simulations, we used a weighted mean of the ensemble of all 13 simulations
including 8 simulations from our previous study to compare the ensemble average with the
individual simulations.

For evaluation of the simulations, we used the exact same procedure with the same data set, same physical quantities, and same skill scores as our previous study [*Shim et al.*, 2018]. The skill scores were calculated for the three sectors, EU (Europe), NA (North America), and SH (Southern Hemisphere) to investigate the longitudinal and hemispheric dependence of the performance of the models.

449 From the five simulations used in the study, we also found the general behaviors of most 450 simulations identified in Shim et al. [2018]: 1) tendency to underestimate storm-time 451 enhancements of foF2 and TEC and not to reproduce large enhancements of dTEC[%] (e.g., 452 about 200 % TEC increase at Port Stanley in the SAA region), 2) being unable to capture 453 opposite responses to the storm in the eastern and western parts of NA, especially negative phase 454 (except for GITM), which is what in part causes lower CC in NA, 3) tendency to predict foF2 455 and/or TEC better in NA and worse in SH with respect to RMSE. However, it was found that 456 12 TIE-GCM and WACCM-Xs better produce the large TEC percentage changes at Port Stanley 457 in SAM. Based on the averaged skill scores for all 12 locations, the five simulations used in this 458 study show skill scores better or comparable to those of the simulations from PB IT models used 459 in our previous study.

Compared to 11_CTIPE (obtained from CTIPe3.2), 12_CTIPE (from CTIPe4.1) driven by
tides from WAM tends to overestimate foF2 and TEC for both quiet and disturbed conditions
and predicts better TEC peaks during the storm. For more cases, 12_CTIPE performs largely
better than 11 CTIPE based on the average scores. 12 CTIPE predicts the storm phase better for

464	dTEC[%], but 11_CTIPE does better for dfoF2[%]. 12_CTIPE appears to overestimate peak
465	values of dTEC[%] and dTEC[%]_norm, while 11_CTIPE produces Yield less than 1.
466	The two GITMs, 7_GITM with Fang's auroral precipitation and 6_GITM with Ovation
467	model, underestimate foF2 and TEC for all cases and show relatively small response to the storm
468	compared to the other simulations that do not appear to reproduce the large dTEC[%] (about
469	200 % increase at Port Stanley in SAM). 7_GITM and 6_GITM perform very similarly for most
470	cases with similar skill scores. However, 7_GITM shows better CC for most quantities except for
471	dTEC, and lower RMSEs and Yield closer to 1 for most regions and quantities considered.
472	7_GITM shows the least RMSE dependence on location for dfoF2 among the other simulations.
473	Comparing two WACCM-Xs and 12_TIE-GCM, the two WACCM-Xs, 3_WACCM-X with
474	Heelis high latitude electric potential model and 4_WACCM-X with Weimer 2005, predict quiet
475	time foF2 and TEC better than 12_TIE-GCM. During the storm, 12_TIE-GCM and 4_WACCM-
476	X produce similar foF2 and TEC in NA sector, while 3_WACCM-X tends to overestimate them
477	and produces larger changes in foF2 and TEC. In most cases, WACCM-Xs and 12_TIE_GCM
478	perform similarly in terms of average values of skill scores, but 3_WACCM-X and/or
479	4_WACCM-X perform better than 12_TIE-GCM except for Yield of percentage changes.
480	4_WACCM-X slightly outperforms 3_WACCMX for all cases but not for TE for percentage
481	changes.
482	Our findings suggest that the newer versions of the models (12_CTIPE, 7_GITM and
483	4_WACCM-X) with Weimer2005 electric potential model give overall improved forecast, and
484	the performance of the models depends on forcing from the magnetosphere and also forcing from
485	the lower atmosphere even during storms.

486 For TEC, dTEC and dTEC[%], our results indicate that the ensemble of all 13 simulations 487 (ENSEMBLE), including 8 simulations from our previous study (Shim et al., 2018) is 488 comparable to the data assimilation model (1 USU-GAIM) with differences in skill score less 489 than 3% and 6% for CC and RMSE, respectively. However, ENSEMBLE underestimates Yield 490 (0.73) while 7 simulations from PB coupled IT models and 1 USU-GAIM produce Yield closer 491 to 1. Timing Error of dTEC[%] of ENSEMBLE is about 1 hr, but the difference from the 492 smallest TE of the simulations is less than 0.5 hr. In addition, based on RMSE, the ensemble of 493 the newer versions of the models (12 CTIPE, 7 GITM and 4 WACCM-X) is comparable to 494 1 USU-GAIM. 495 To advance our understanding of the ionosphere-thermosphere system requires significant 496 efforts to improve the capability of numerical models along with the scope of observations 497 [*Heelis and Maute*, 2020]. There have been recent new developments of theoretical models, 498 including AMGeO (Assimilative Mapping of Geospace Observations) for High-Latitude 499 Ionospheric Electrodynamics [Matsuo, 2020] and MAGE geospace model that couples the Grid 500 Agnostic MHD for Extended Research Applications (GAMERA) global MHD model of 501 the magnetosphere (Sorathia et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2019), the Rice Convec-tion Model 502 (RCM) model of the ring current (Toffoletto et al., 2003), TIEGCM of the upper atmosphere and

503 the RE-developed Magnetosphere-Ionosphere Coupler/Solver (REMIX) (Merkin & Lyon, 2010).

504 These models will be available soon to the public through CCMC, and then the modeling

505 capability will help us better understand the processes responsible for the observed

506 characteristics and features during disturbed conditions. In addition, CCMC will also provide

507 users with the capability to run PB IT models with various combination of models for lower

atmospheric forcing and for magnetosphere forcing, which enable us to research further theimpacts of the forcings on the IT system.

The findings of this study will provide a baseline for future validation studies using new models and improved models, along with earlier results [*Shim et al.*, 2011, 2012, 2014, 2017a, 2018] obtained through CEDAR ETI, GEM-CEDAR Modeling Challenges, and the international effort, "International Forum for Space Weather Modeling Capabilities Assessment". We will extend our study to include more geomagnetic storm events to investigate differences and similarities in the performance of the models. In addition, we will also include foF2 and TEC predictions for the high- and low-latitude regions.

517

518 Acknowledgement

519 This work was supported by Korea Polar Research Institute (KOPRI) grant funded by the 520 Ministry of Oceans and Fisheries (KOPRI PE22020) and basic research funding from the Korea 521 Astronomy and Space Science Institute (KASI) (KASI2022185009). The vertical TEC data were 522 provided by MIT Haystack Observatory and can be obtained through CEDAR Madrigal database 523 (http://cedar.openmadrigal.org). We thank the operators of the digisondes for sharing their data 524 through http://giro.uml.edu/. Data from the South African Ionosonde network is made available 525 through the South African National Space Agency (SANSA), who are acknowledged for 526 facilitating and coordinating the continued availability of data. This work is supported by grants 527 from the National Science Foundation (NSF) Space Weather Program. This model validation 528 study is supported by the Community Coordinated Modeling Center (CCMC) at the Goddard 529 Space Flight Center. Data processing and research at MIT Haystack Observatory are supported 530 by cooperative agreement AGS-1242204 between the U.S. National Science Foundation and the

531	Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The National Center for Atmospheric Research is
532	sponsored by the National Science Foundation. Model output and observational data used for the
533	study will be permanently posted at the CCMC website (http://ccmc.gsfc.nasa.gov) and provided
534	as a resource for the space science community to use in the future.
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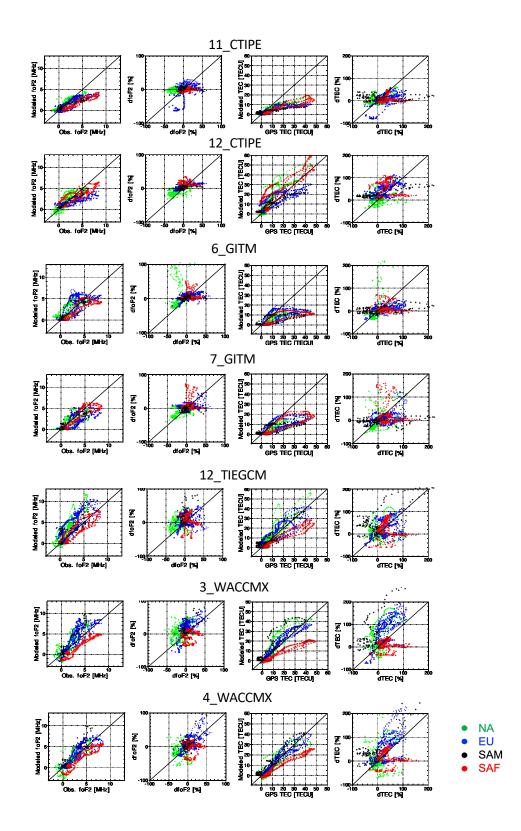


Figure 1

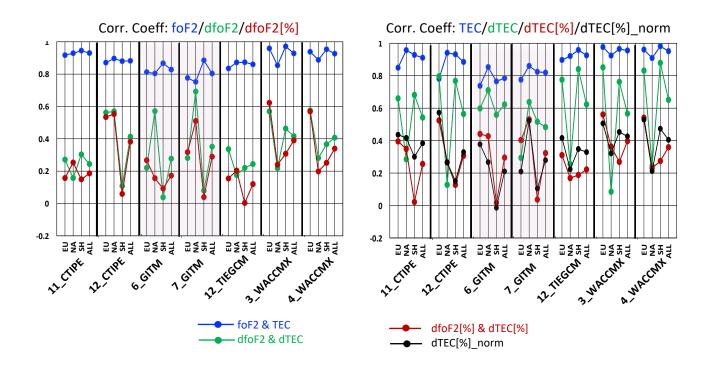
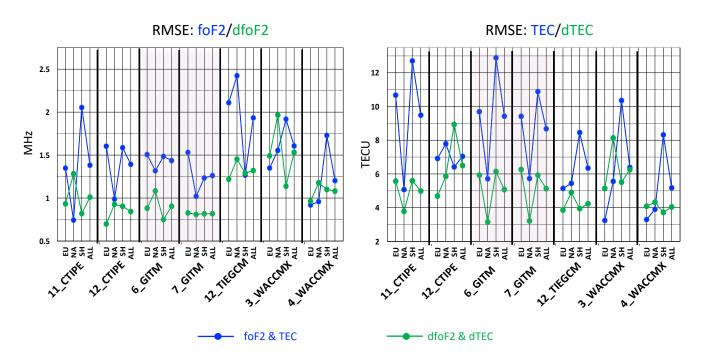
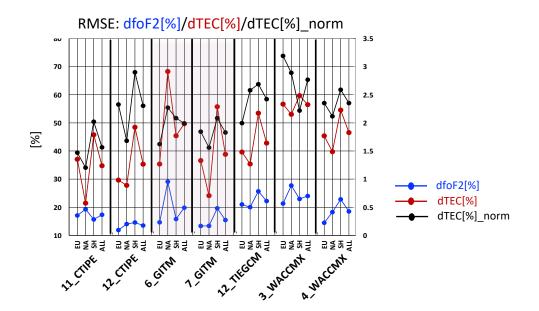
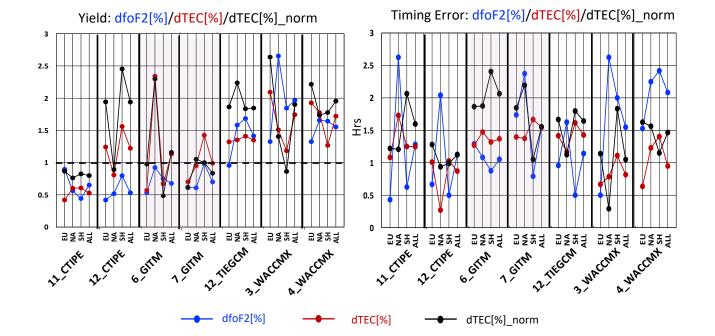
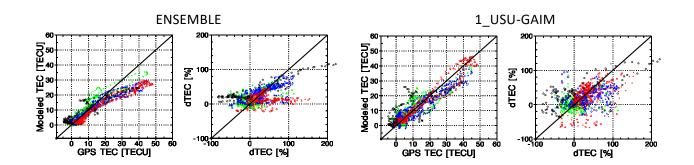


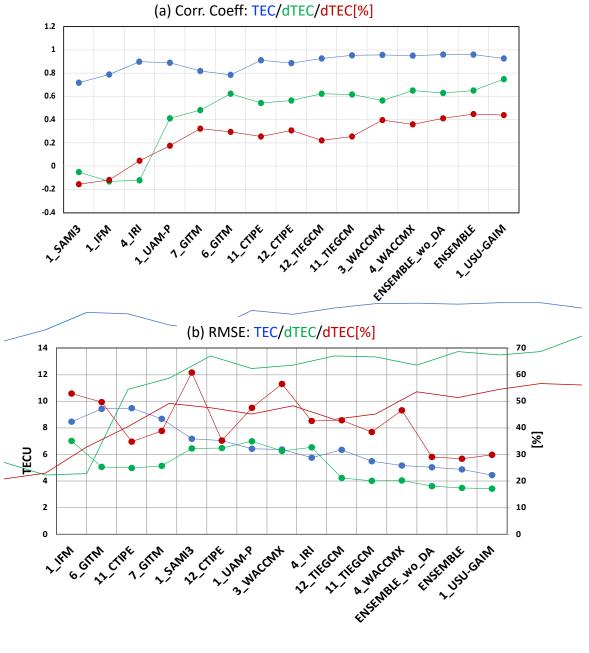
Figure 2











-TEC -dTEC -dTEC[%]

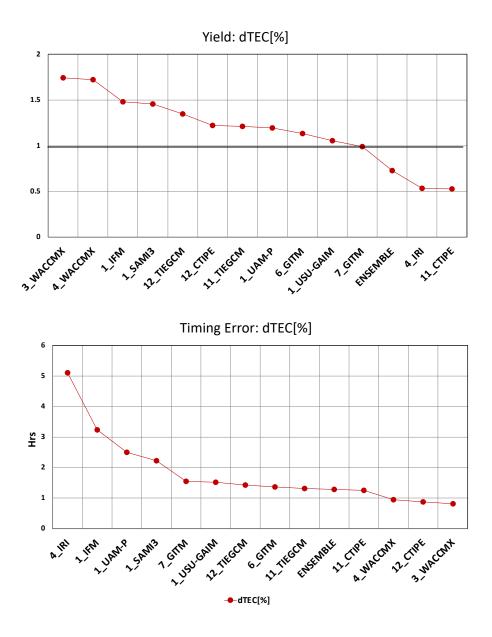


Figure 1. Scatter plots of the observed (*x* axis) and modeled (*y* axis) shifted foF2 and TEC (foF2*
in the 1st, TEC* in the 3rd columns), and percentage change of foF2 and TEC (dfoF2[%] in the
2nd, dTEC[%] in the 4th columns) during the storm (03/17/2013) for all 12 locations grouped into
North America (NA, green), Europe (EU, blue), South Africa (SAF, red), and South America
(SAM, black)

23	Figure 2. Correlation Coefficients (CC) between modeled and observed foF2 (left panel) and
24	TEC (right panel). Four CCs are displayed for each simulation: CC averaged over Europe (EU),
25	North America (NA), Southern Hemisphere (SH refers to SAF and SAM combined), and all 12
26	locations, from left to right. Different colors denote different quantities. Blue denotes shifted
27	foF2 and TEC, green and red the change and percentage changes, and black normalized
28	percentage change. The closer the circles are to the horizontal line of 1, the better the model
29	performances are.
30	
31	Figure 3. Same as Figure 2 but for RMSE of shifted foF2 and TEC, and changes of foF2 and
32	TEC
33	
34	Figure 4. Same as Figure 2 but for RMSE of percentage change of foF2 and TEC, and
35	normalized percentage change. Blue denotes dfoF2[%], red and black dTEC[%] and
36	dTEC[%]_norm.
37	
38	Figure 5. Same as Figure 2 but for Yield (ratio) and absolute of Timing Error ($ TE =$
39	t_peak_model - t_peak_obs)

41	Figure 6. Same as Figure 1 but for only TEC and dTEC[%] from the ensemble of the simulations
42	(ENSEMBLE) and 1_USU-GAIM
43	
44	Figure 7. Averaged CC (a) and RMSE (b) over all 12 locations of 13 simulations, the ensemble
45	of them (ENSEMBLE), and the ensemble of 12 simulations excluding 1_USU-GAIM
46	(ENSEMBLE_wo_DA). Blue denotes shifted TEC, green and red the change and percentage
47	changes of TEC. CCs are plotted from the smallest to the largest (closer to 1) according to the
48	average of the three averaged CC values of TEC, dTEC and dTEC[%]. RMSEs are plotted from
49	the largest to the smallest according to the average RMSE for TEC and dTEC.
50	
51	Figure 8. Yield and Timing Error of dTEC[%] for all 13 simulations and ENSEMBLE.

1 Table 1. Quantities and Skill Scores for Model-Data Comparison

Quantities and skill scores for model-data comparison					
Quiet time references	30-day median value at a given time: TEC_quiet(UT),				
	30 days consist of 15 days before (03/01-03/15/2013) and 15 days after (03/22-04/05/2013) the storm				
Shifted TEC/foF2:	e.g., TEC*(doy, UT) = TEC(doy, UT) – minimum of TEC_quiet(UT)				
TEC/foF2 changes	e.g, dTEC(doy, UT)= TEC(doy, UT) – TEC quiet (UT)				
w.r.t. the quiet time	e.g, urre(uoy, or) rre(uoy, or)-rre_quiet(or)				
TEC/foF2 percentage	a = dTEC[0/1(day, UT) = 100* dTEC(day, UT)/TEC anist(UT)				
changes w.r.t.the quiet time	e.g., dTEC[%](doy,UT) =100* dTEC(doy, UT)/TEC_quiet(UT)				
Normalized Demonstrate	$dTEC[\%]_norm = (dTEC[\%] - ave_dTEC[\%])/std_dTEC[\%];$				
Normalized Percentage	ave_dTEC[%] is the average of dTEC[%] at a given time and at a given location over the quiet 30 days,				
changes of TEC	std_dTEC[%] is the standard deviation of the average percentage change				
Skill Scores					
CC	Correlation Coefficient				
RMSE	Root-Mean-Square Error $\left(=\sqrt{\frac{\sum (x_{obs}-x_{mod})^2}{N}}\right)$, where x_{obs} and x_{mod} are observed and modeled values				
Yield	ratio of the peak of modeled percentage change to that of the observed one $\left(=\frac{(x_{mod})_{max}}{(x_{obs})_{max}}\right)$				
Timing Error (TE)difference between the modeled peak time and observed peak time: $TE = t_peak_model - t_peak_model$					

7 Table 2. Models used for this study

Model Setting			Upper boundary for				
ID	Model Version	Input data	Models used for thermosphere, tides from lower boundary, and high latitude electrodynamics		TEC calculation/ Resolution		
Physics-based Co	oupled Ionosphere-Thermos	sphere Model					
			Tides	High Latitude Electrodynamics			
11_CTIPE ^a	CTIPe3.2 [Codrescu et al., 2000; Millward et al., 2001]	F10.7, ACE IMF data and solar wind speed and density, NOAA	(2,2), (2,3), (2,4), (2,5), and (1,1) propagating tidal modes	Weimer-2005 high latitude electric potential [<i>Weimer</i> , 2005], Fuller-Rowell and Evans auroral	~2,000 km, 2° lat. × 18° long.		
12_CTIPE ^a	CTIPe4.1	POES Hemispheric Power data	WAM [Akmaev et al., 2011, Fuller-Rowell et al., 2010] tides	precipitation [1987]			
6_GITM ^a	GITM2.5 [<i>Ridley et al.</i> , 2006]	FISM solar EUV irradiance, ACE IMF data and solar wind speed and density	MSIS [<i>Hedin</i> , 1991] migrating diurnal and semidiurnal tides	Weimer-2005 high latitude electric potential, Ovation auroral precipitation [<i>Newell et al.</i> , 2009; 2011]	~600 km, 2.5° lat. × 5° long.		
7_GITM	GITM21.11			Weimer-2005 high latitude electric potential, Fang's auroral precipitation [<i>Fang et al.</i> , 2013]			
12_TIE-GCM ^a	TIE-GCM2.0 [Roble et al., 1988; Richmond et al., 1992; Solomon et al., 2012]	F10.7, Kp, OMNI IMF data and solar wind speed and density	GSWM [<i>Hagan et al.</i> , 1999] migrating diurnal and semidiurnal tides	Weimer-2005 high latitude electric potential, Roble and Ridley auroral precipitation [1987]	~600 km, 2.5° lat. × 2.5° long.		
Whole Atmosphere Model							
3_WACCM-X	CESM2.2 [Gettelman et al., 2019; Liu et al.,	F10.7, Kp, OMNI IMF data and solar	Heelis high latitude electric potential [<i>Heelis et al.</i> , 1982], Roble and Ridley auroral precipitation [1987]		~600 km, 1.9° lat. × 2.5° long.		
4_WACCM-X	2018]	wind speed and density	Weimer-2005 high latitude electric precipitation [1987]				

^aThe model results are submitted by the CCMC using the models hosted at the CCMC

	Time Interval	11_CTIPE	12_CTIPE	6_GITM	7_GITM	12_TIE-GCM	3_WACCM-X	4_WACCM-X
46-52[0/1	06–15UT	8	7	5	9	9	6	10
dfoF2[%]	15–22UT	10	6	7	8	7	7	10
	06–15UT	9	10	10	10	7	10	9
dTEC[%]	15–22UT	7	10	12	11	10	7	8

10 Table 3. Number of locations where the models correctly predict negative or positive phase.

11

12 Table 4. Averaged RMSE over all 12 locations of the ensemble of newer versions (ENSEMBLE_new) of models (12_CTIPE, 7_GITM and

13 4_WACCM-X) driven by Weimer2005 electric potential model, the ensemble of older versions (ENSEMBLE_old) of models (11_CTIPE,

14 6_GITM and 12_TIE-GCM), and 1_USU-GAIM.

	TEC (TECU)	dTEC (TECU)	dTEC[%]
ENSEMBLE_old	6.6	4.1	33.4
ENSEMBLE_new	4.6	3.2	29.8
1_USU-GAIM	4.5	3.4	29.9

15

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Space Weather: The International Journal of Research and Applications

Supporting Information for

Validation of Ionospheric Specifications During Geomagnetic Storms: TEC and foF2 during the 2013 March Storm Event-II

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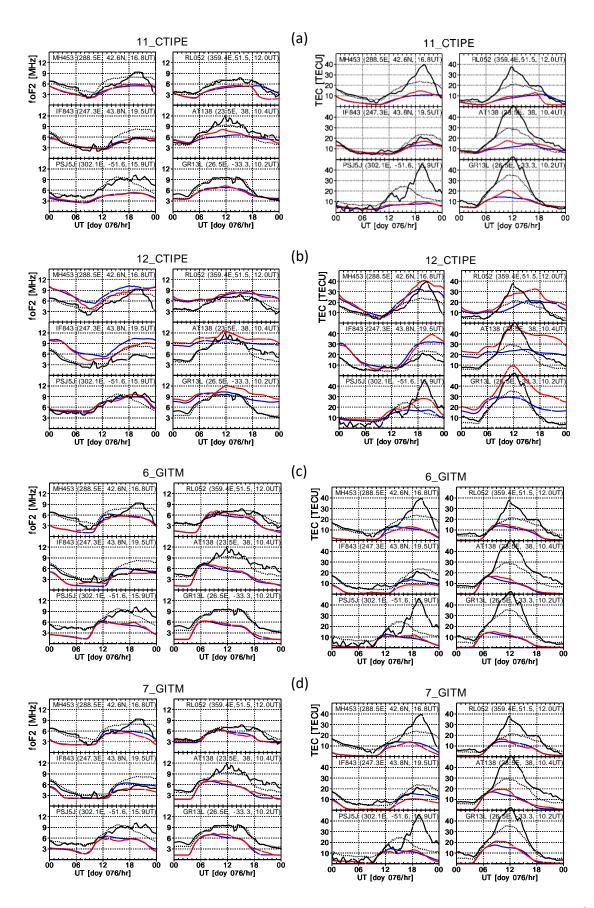
Contents of this file

Figures S1

Introduction

This supporting information file includes:

1. Figure S1: Comparison foF2 and TEC data with modeled values



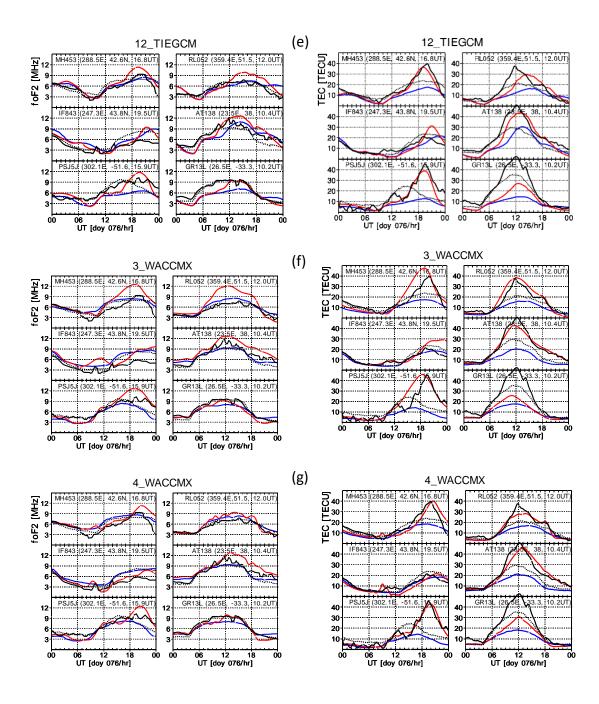


Figure S1. Comparison foF2 and TEC data with modeled values: (a) 11_CTIPE, (b) 12_CTIPE, (c) 6_GITM, (d) 7_GITM, (e) 12_TIEGCM, (f) 3_WACCM-X, and (g) 4_WACCM-X. In each plot, foF2 in the first two columns and TEC in the other two. Black solid and dotted lines denote observed storm time values and quiet-time reference (30-day median) respectively. Red and blue curves denote modeled storm time values and 30-day median.