

N₂O rate of change as a diagnostic of the Brewer-Dobson Circulation in the stratosphere

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Key Points:

- The poor sampling of the Atmospheric Chemistry Experiment Fourier Transform Spectrometer exaggerates the stratospheric nitrous oxide trends
- Decadal trends of nitrous oxide are less significant in the northern extratropics due to a larger short-timescale variability of transport
- The Transformed Eulerian Mean analysis shows that the residual advection contributes to the positive nitrous oxide trends over the Tropics

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Abstract

The Brewer-Dobson Circulation (BDC) determines the distribution of long-lived tracers in the stratosphere; therefore, their changes can be used to diagnose changes in the BDC. We investigate decadal (2005-2018) trends of nitrous oxide (N_2O) stratospheric columns (12-40 km) as measured by four Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) ground-based instruments and by the Atmospheric Chemistry Experiment Fourier Transform Spectrometer (ACE-FTS), and compare them with simulations by two models: a chemistry-transport model (CTM) driven by four different reanalyses, and the Whole Atmosphere Chemistry-Climate Model (WACCM). The limited sensitivity of the FTIR instruments can hide negative N_2O trends in the mid-stratosphere because of the large increase in the lowermost stratosphere. When applying the ACE-FTS sampling on model datasets, the reanalyses by the European Centre for Medium Range Weather Forecast (ECMWF) compare best with ACE-FTS, but the N_2O trends are consistently exaggerated. Model sensitivity tests show that while decadal N_2O trends reflect changes in transport, these trends are less significant in the northern extratropics due to the larger variability of transport over timescales shorter than two years in that region. We further investigate the N_2O Transformed Eulerian Mean (TEM) budget in three model datasets. The TEM analysis shows that enhanced advection affects the stratospheric N_2O trends more than changes in mixing. While no ideal observational dataset currently exists, this model study of N_2O trends still provides new insights about the BDC and its changes thanks to relevant sensitivity tests and the TEM analysis.

Plain Language Summary

The circulation in the stratosphere is characterized by upward motion above the Tropics, followed by poleward and downward motions above the high latitudes. Changes in the pattern of this stratospheric circulation are currently a challenging topic of research. We investigate the decennial changes of this stratospheric circulation using observations and numerical simulations of the long-lived tracer nitrous oxide. Observations are obtained from ground-based and satellite instruments. Numerical simulations include complex atmospheric models that reproduce the chemistry and dynamics of the stratosphere. Both observations and models show differences between the hemispheres in the nitrous oxide decennial changes. Unfortunately, the current observations of nitrous oxide are not perfect. The ground-based instruments cannot correctly measure the changes of nitrous oxide in the northern hemisphere. The satellite does not measure at all times, and it spatially covers more the high latitudes, which negatively affects the measurements of nitrous oxide. On the other side, model simulations can provide valuable insights into the changes in the stratospheric circulation. They show that changes in the stratospheric circulation cause the differences between hemispheres in the nitrous oxide tendencies. In addition, the model simulations show that the circulation changes can be associated with different physical contributions.

1 Introduction

Nitrous oxide (N_2O) is continuously emitted in the troposphere, with a nearly constant rate of change of 2% per decade, and transported into the stratosphere, where it is destroyed by photodissociation mainly in the Tropics (Tian et al., 2020). The atmospheric lifetime of N_2O is approximately 120 years, which makes it an excellent tracer for stratospheric transport studies (Seinfeld & Pandis, 2016). Changes in ozone abundances have been studied and attributed to chemical and dynamical contributions (Petropavlovskikh et al., 2019). Recently, Ball et al. (2018) discussed positive ozone trends in the lower stratosphere and attributed them to changes in transport. However, the ozone distribution in the middle and upper stratosphere is largely impacted by changes in its chemistry. Hence,

73 long-lived tracers as N_2O are more relevant than ozone to investigate transport changes
74 with little interference from the chemistry.

75 The transport in the stratosphere is enabled by the Brewer-Dobson Circulation (BDC),
76 a wave-driven circulation that consists of upwelling in the Tropics followed by poleward
77 transport and downwelling in the extratropics (Plumb, 2002). For tracer transport, the
78 BDC is often separated into an advective component, the residual meridional circula-
79 tion, and a quasi-horizontal mixing component (Shepherd, 2007). The BDC has a sig-
80 nificant impact in determining the stratospheric distribution of chemical tracers, like ozone
81 and greenhouse gases (GHGs), and in the momentum and heat budgets of the strato-
82 sphere (e.g., Butchart, 2014).

83 Long-term changes in the BDC could have significant impacts on the climate sys-
84 tem. One of the most important is the effect on the recovery of stratospheric ozone, as
85 a changing BDC would result in changes of the meridional distribution of ozone (e.g.,
86 Shepherd, 2008; Dhomse et al., 2018). The lifetime of Ozone Depleting Substances (ODS)
87 in the stratosphere is also impacted by changes in the BDC (Butchart & Scaife, 2001;
88 Waugh & Hall, 2002), as well as the water vapor entering the stratosphere in the Trop-
89 ics (e.g., W. Randel & Park, 2019). The troposphere is also impacted by the BDC changes
90 in terms of mass exchange with the stratosphere (e.g., ozone, Meul et al., 2018), and of
91 the harmful ultra-violet radiation reaching the surface (Meul et al., 2016).

92 Understanding the changes in the BDC is thus fundamental to fully comprehend
93 the past and future evolution of climate. Simulations by Chemistry-Climate Models (CCMs)
94 robustly project an acceleration of the BDC throughout the stratosphere in recent and
95 coming decades due to the increase of GHGs (e.g., Hardiman et al., 2014; Abalos et al.,
96 2021). On the other hand, Oberländer-Hayn et al. (2016) argue that the global BDC trends
97 in the lower stratosphere in CCMs are caused by a lift of the tropopause in response to
98 global warming rather than an actual speedup of the circulation. Other modeling stud-
99 ies have shown that mixing also plays an important role in the simulated BDC changes,
100 and is also the primary reason for the differences in the simulated BDC changes among
101 CCMs (e.g., Eichinger et al., 2019). Recent studies have also shown that ODS, through
102 their impact on ozone, play a significant role in the modeled BDC changes, and that ODS
103 decreases resulting from the Montreal Protocol, will reduce the global warming-induced
104 acceleration of the BDC (e.g., Polvani et al., 2019; Abalos et al., 2020).

105 The BDC can be quantified indirectly from measurements of long-lived tracers or
106 temperature (e.g., Fu et al., 2015; Engel et al., 2009). Recently, Strahan et al. (2020) used
107 ground-based observations of nitric acid and hydrogen chloride to investigate hemispheric-
108 dependent BDC changes in the stratosphere. The Age of Air (AoA) is a widely used di-
109 agnostic for stratospheric transport, and is defined as the transit time of an air parcel
110 from the tropical tropopause (or the surface, depending on the definition) to a certain
111 point of the stratosphere (Waugh & Hall, 2002). Engel et al. (2017) used balloon-borne
112 observations of carbon dioxide and methane to derive mean AoA trends above the north-
113 ern mid-latitudes in the mid-lower stratosphere. They found positive but not statisti-
114 cally significant AoA trends over about 40 years (corresponding to a slowdown of the BDC),
115 which is in contrast with model results that anticipate a significant acceleration of the
116 BDC. These discrepancies can be partly attributed to the temporal and spatial sparse-
117 ness of the measurements and to uncertainties in the AoA trends derived from real trac-
118 ers (Garcia et al., 2011; Fritsch et al., 2020).

119 Satellite measurements of long-lived tracers have been used to compute AoA trends
120 as well (e.g., Stiller et al., 2012; Haenel et al., 2015). These observational studies using
121 remote sensing measurements have shown a hemispheric asymmetry in the AoA trends
122 over the last decade, with positive changes in the Northern Hemisphere (NH) and a neg-
123 ative change in the Southern Hemisphere (SH) (e.g., Mahieu et al., 2014; Stiller et al.,
124 2017; Fu et al., 2019). However, the mean AoA indirectly obtained from satellite mea-

125 surements does not allow the separation between residual advection and mixing, which
126 was proven to be important in CCMs (Dietmüller et al., 2018). The recent study of von
127 Clarmann and Grabowski (2021) proposes an alternative method to infer the stratospheric
128 circulation from satellite measurements of long-lived tracers by a direct inversion of the
129 continuity equation. When studying BDC trends, it is crucial to consider time scales longer
130 than around 12 years, as the natural variability of the BDC can mask trends computed
131 over shorter periods (Hardiman et al., 2017).

132 Reanalysis datasets try to fill the gap between observations and free-running mod-
133 els, providing a global multi-decadal and consistent state of the past atmosphere by as-
134 similating available observations. Dynamical fields from reanalyses can be used to drive
135 Chemistry-Transport Models (CTMs) to simulate the distribution of real and synthetic
136 tracers in the atmosphere. In the past decade, these CTMs experiments have been used
137 to investigate BDC changes in reanalyses, providing similar results as the satellite mea-
138 surements for decadal time scales, as first shown by Monge-Sanz et al. (2013). However,
139 recent studies have shown significant differences in BDC changes obtained from differ-
140 ent reanalyses, especially over decadal time scales (e.g., Chabrillat et al., 2018). Further-
141 more, the computation of AoA largely depends on whether the velocities or the heat-
142 ing rates are used to drive the CTMs, leading to significant differences within the same
143 reanalysis (Ploeger et al., 2019).

144 Minganti et al. (2020, hereafter M2020) investigated the climatology of stratospheric
145 N_2O and its Transformed Eulerian Mean (TEM) budget in a CCM and in a CTM driven
146 by dynamical reanalyses. The TEM diagnostic allows separating the effects of transport
147 and chemistry on the rate of change of a stratospheric tracer such as N_2O (Andrews et
148 al., 1987; W. J. Randel et al., 1994). Within the TEM framework, the impact of trans-
149 port can be further separated into the impact from the residual mean advection and mix-
150 ing, as was done for ozone in Abalos et al. (2013). In this study, we aim to investigate
151 multi-decadal and decadal changes of stratospheric N_2O and the impact of the BDC on
152 those changes in both observations and model simulations. We use ground-based obser-
153 vations of N_2O from Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectrometers that are part of
154 the Network for the Detection of Atmospheric Composition Change (NDACC) at four
155 stations in the SH and NH subtropics as well as at mid-latitudes (De Mazière et al., 2018,
156 <http://www.ndaccdemo.org/>). We compare these FTIR observations with satellite mea-
157 surements from the Atmospheric Chemistry Experiment Fourier Transform Spectrom-
158 eter (ACE-FTS, P. Bernath et al., 2021). Contrary to M2020, who used the chemical re-
159 analysis of N_2O measured by the Aura Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS) within their com-
160 parison (Errera et al., 2019), we cannot use such reanalysis because of the drift in the
161 MLS N_2O dataset (Livesey et al., 2021).

162 We use four modern reanalyses that are part of the SPARC (Stratosphere-troposphere
163 Processes and their Role in Climate) Reanalysis Intercomparison Project (S-RIP, Fuji-
164 wara et al., 2017). These reanalyses drive simulations of the Belgian Assimilation Sys-
165 tem for Chemical Observations Chemistry-Transport Model CTM (BASCOE CTM, Chabril-
166 lat et al., 2018). We compare the observations and the BASCOE CTM simulations with
167 the Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model (WACCM) version 4 (Garcia et al.,
168 2017) and version 6 (Gettelman et al., 2019).

169 The present study is structured as follows. Section 2 describes the observational
170 and modeling datasets used in this study, as well as the TEM diagnostics and the regres-
171 sion model used to derive linear trends. In Section 3, we use FTIR observations to eval-
172 uate the trends in the N_2O stratospheric columns obtained from satellite measurements
173 and models. In Section 4, using ACE-FTS as a reference, we study the global N_2O trends
174 in the stratosphere and focus on the differences in the trend patterns among datasets.
175 In Section 5, we investigate the N_2O TEM budget for two BASCOE simulations and WACCM
176 version 6 in order to separate the impact of the residual advection and mixing on the

177 N₂O trends. Finally, Section 6 concludes the study with a summary of the principal find-
 178 ings.

179 2 Data and Methods

180 This section describes the observational and model data as well as the methods used
 181 in this study (see Tables 1 and 2). Throughout the study, we will refer to the CCMs and
 182 the BASCOE CTM simulations as "models" to distinguish them from the observations
 183 obtained from the FTIR and ACE-FTS. For the sake of brevity, we refer to M2020 for
 184 a more detailed description of the dataset (BASCOE CTM, WACCM version 4, and S-
 RIP reanalyses) and methods (TEM framework) already used there.

Dataset name	Full Name	Reference	Year range	Vertical resolution
WACCM-REFC1	Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model	Garcia et al. (2017)	1985-2018	L66, 5.96 10 ⁻⁶ hPa
WACCM-REFD1	Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model	Gettelman et al. (2019)	1985-2018	L70, 5.96 10 ⁻⁶ hPa
CTM+ERA1	ECMWF Reanalysis Interim	Dee et al. (2011)	1985-2018	L60, 0.1 hPa
CTM+ERA5	ECMWF Reanalysis 5	Hersbach et al. (2020)	1985-2019	L86, 0.01 hPa
CTM+JRA55	Japanese 55-year Reanalysis	Kobayashi et al. (2015)	1985-2018	L60, 0.2 hPa
CTM+MERRA2	Modern-Era Retrospective analysis for Research and Applications	Gelaro et al. (2017)	1985-2018	L72, 0.01 hPa
ACE-FTS	Atmospheric Chemistry Experiment Fourier Transform Spectrometer	P. Bernath et al. (2021)	2005-present	L42, 150 km

Table 1. Overview of the models and satellite measurements used in this study.

Station name	Reference	Location (lat and lon)	Altitude	strato DOFS
Lauder	Zhou et al. (2019)	45.4°S and 169.68°E	370 m	2
Wollongong	Griffith et al. (2012)	34.45°S and 150.88°E	30 m	2
Izãna	García et al. (2021)	28.30°N and 16.48°E	2367 m	1.5
Jungfraujoch	Zander et al. (2008)	46.55°N and 7.98°E	3580 m	1.1

Table 2. Overview of FTIR stations considered in this study.

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186 2.1 Ground-based FTIR Observations

187 We use ground-based measurements of stratospheric N₂O columns obtained at four
 188 stations that are part of NDACC: Lauder (New Zealand, 45°S), Wollongong (Australia,
 189 34°S), Izãna (Spain, 28°N) and Jungfraujoch (Switzerland, 46°N) (Zhou et al., 2019). The
 190 FTIR technique allows the acquisition of long-term consistent ensembles of very high-
 191 resolution solar absorption spectra under clear-sky conditions. The stations have been
 192 chosen at the mid-latitudes and subtropics where the observed BDC changes are the largest
 193 (e.g., Engel et al., 2017; Strahan et al., 2020).

194 At Jungfraujoch, measurements have been obtained from two spectrometers: an
 195 instrument developed at the University of Liège (1984-2008), and a Bruker IFS 120HR
 196 (early 1990's-present) (Zander et al., 2008; Prignon et al., 2019). In this study, we use
 197 the Bruker spectrometer to investigate the most recent period. Ground-based measure-
 198 ments of N₂O profiles at Lauder started in 2001 with a Bruker 120HR spectrometer, re-
 199 placed in 2018 (with 6 months overlap) by a Bruker 125HR (Strong et al., 2008; Zhou
 200 et al., 2019). The Lauder station is particularly relevant as is the only FTIR site of NDACC
 201 located in the SH mid-latitudes. The Wollongong station has provided data for the SH
 202 subtropics since 1996. Solar spectra were measured with a Bomem instrument until 2007,
 203 which was then replaced by a Bruker 125HR (Griffith et al., 2012). N₂O profiles are also
 204 measured at the IzānaObservatory since 1999. This high-altitude station is character-
 205 ized by excellent conditions for FTIR spectroscopy, with clear sky conditions for most
 206 of the year. Observations started using a Bruker 120M spectrometer and continued, since
 207 2005, with a Bruker 125HR (García et al., 2021). The retrieval code for the N₂O pro-
 208 files is the SFIT-v4 (v0.9.4.4) for the Jungfraujoch, Lauder and Wollongong stations, and
 209 PROFITT9 for the Izānastation (Zhou et al., 2019).

210 We consider stratospheric N₂O columns between 12 and 40 km because the instru-
 211 ments at all stations are the most sensitive to the measured N₂O profiles over that layer
 212 (not shown). The degrees of freedom for signal (DOFS), which quantify the vertical res-
 213 olution of the measurement (Rodgers, 2000), largely vary among the stations. For N₂O,
 214 the stratospheric DOFS between 12 and 40 km of the instruments above the SH are around
 215 2, allowing the separation of two stratospheric layers. On the other hand, the stratospheric
 216 DOFS of the instruments above the NH are around 1.5 for Izāna, and 1 for Jungfrau-
 217 joch, limiting the analysis to one stratospheric layer between 12 and 40 km. Thus, in or-
 218 der to perform a fair comparison, we compute one stratospheric N₂O column between
 219 12 and 40 km for all stations.

220 2.2 Spaceborne Measurements - ACE-FTS

221 ACE-FTS, onboard the SCISAT Canadian satellite, was launched in August 2003
 222 on a high inclination (74°) low earth orbit (650 km) and is still in operation in 2021 (P. F. Bernath
 223 et al., 2005; P. Bernath, 2017). ACE-FTS instrument measures the infrared absorptions
 224 from solar occultations between 2.2 and 13.3 μm with a spectral resolution of 0.02 cm^{-1} .
 225 This allows the retrieval of vertically resolved mixing ratio profiles for 44 molecules and
 226 24 isotopologues from each measurement (P. Bernath et al., 2020).

227 In this study, we use version 4.1 of the ACE-FTS data. It differs from previous ver-
 228 sions by significantly better retrievals at low altitudes and led to substantially improved
 229 trends compared to earlier version 3.5 (P. Bernath et al., 2021). For N₂O, previous com-
 230 parisons of v3.6 with independent satellite instruments showed a good agreement below
 231 35 km (within 10%) and larger biases above that level (within 20%, Sheese et al., 2017).
 232 In our study, N₂O profiles are filtered for outliers using the method described in Sheese
 233 et al. (2017) and are then vertically regridded to a constant pressure vertical grid using
 234 a mass-conservative scheme (Bader et al., 2017). When compared to ground-based mea-
 235 surements, ACE-FTS profiles are vertically interpolated to the grid of the FTIR data
 236 applying the averaging kernels of the FTIR retrieval as described in Langerock et al. (2015).
 237 For trend analysis, profiles are monthly averaged on latitude bins with 5° spacing from
 238 pole to pole.

239 In order to compare trend analysis of model simulations with those obtained by
 240 ACE-FTS, model datasets are first re-sampled as ACE-FTS (this is important in par-
 241 ticular due to the low sampling of ACE-FTS - only 30 daily profiles due to the solar oc-
 242 culation method). This is done by finding model output adjacent it time to each ACE-
 243 FTS profile (BASCOE and WACCM datasets used in this study have, respectively, 6 hourly
 244 and daily output) and then by linearly interpolating the model values in time and space

245 at the profile geolocation. The re-sampled model datasets are then monthly averaged as
 246 done with ACE-FTS.

247 **2.3 BASCOE CTM and Driving Reanalyses**

248 In this study, we use the BASCOE CTM driven by four dynamical reanalyses: the
 249 European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecast Interim reanalysis (ERA-Interim, Dee
 250 et al., 2011), and its newer version ERA5 (Hersbach et al., 2020), the Modern-Era Ret-
 251 rospective analysis for Research and Applications (MERRA2, Gelaro et al., 2017), and
 252 the Japanese 55-year Reanalysis (JRA55, Kobayashi et al., 2015). In the following, we
 253 provide a brief overview of the CTM and the ERA-Interim, MERRA2 and JRA55 reanalyses,
 254 because those datasets are already described in a number of companion studies (Chabrillat
 255 et al., 2018; Prignon et al., 2019, 2021, M2020). On the other hand, we provide a more
 256 detailed description of ERA5, as is the newest reanalysis in this study.

257 The BASCOE CTM is built on a kinematic transport module (that takes in input
 258 the surface pressure and the horizontal winds) with a flux-form semi-Lagrangian (FFSL)
 259 advection scheme (S.-J. Lin & Rood, 1996). The FFSL scheme is run on a common hor-
 260 izontal grid of $2^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$ for all the reanalyses, while the vertical grid depends on the in-
 261 put reanalysis. The chemical scheme explicitly solves for stratospheric chemistry, and
 262 includes 65 chemical species and 243 reactions (Prignon et al., 2019). ERA-Interim and JRA55
 263 have 60 levels up to 0.1 hPa, MERRA2 has 72 levels up to 0.01 hPa. The model setup,
 264 as well as the boundary conditions, are the ones used in Prignon et al. (2019), M2020
 265 and Prignon et al. (2021). Refer to Chabrillat et al. (2018) for a detailed description of
 266 the BASCOE CTM and its driving by the ERA-Interim, JRA55 and MERRA2 reanalyses.

267 The ERA5 reanalysis is the fifth generation of reanalysis produced by the ECMWF
 268 and covers the 1979-present period, with a programmed extension back to 1950 (Hersbach
 269 et al., 2020). The horizontal resolution is 31 km, with hourly output frequency, and the
 270 vertical grid ranges from the surface to 0.01 hPa with 137 levels and with 300-600 m ver-
 271 tical spacing in the troposphere and stratosphere, which increases to 1-3 km above 30
 272 km. ERA5 suffers from a cold bias in the lower stratosphere from 2000 and 2006. For
 273 this reason, a new analysis (ERA5.1) has been produced for that period to correct for
 274 that bias (Simmons et al., 2020). In this study, the BASCOE CTM was driven by ERA5.1
 275 for the 2000-2006 period. For computational reasons, the vertical resolution is reduced
 276 to 86 levels from the original 137 keeping the original vertical spacing in the stratosphere,
 277 and we used 6-hourly (0000, 0600, 1200, 1800 UTC) data. As done for the other reanal-
 278 yses, the ERA5 data on the fine 31-km grid were truncated at wavenumber 47 to avoid
 279 aliasing on the target $2.5^\circ \times 2^\circ$ horizontal grid (Chabrillat et al., 2018).

280 In order to investigate more the contribution of transport for ERA5, we performed
 281 two sensitivity tests with the BASCOE CTM driven by that reanalysis. In order to iso-
 282 late the contribution of transport, the first sensitivity test consisted of a BASCOE CTM
 283 experiment where the N_2O does not increase over time. We accomplished that by per-
 284 forming a BASCOE CTM run exactly as the ERA5 simulation but keeping the N_2O vol-
 285 ume mixing ratios at the surface fixed to their values at the beginning of the simulation
 286 (cst- N_2O run). Variations in the rate of change of N_2O for cst- N_2O are therefore due only
 287 to the effect of transport. The other sensitivity test is complementary to cst- N_2O , and
 288 consists of an experiment where the transport does not change over time (cst-dyn). In
 289 order to include a complete Quasi Biennial Oscillation cycle (QBO, Baldwin et al., 2001),
 290 we used the years 2006 and 2007 from ERA5.1 and ERA5, respectively. Those years are
 291 unusual (but convenient) because the QBO lasted exactly 24 months (see the zonal wind
 292 data at Singapore [https://www.geo.fu-berlin.de/met/ag/strat/produkte/qbo/singapore](https://www.geo.fu-berlin.de/met/ag/strat/produkte/qbo/singapore.dat)
 293 [.dat](https://www.geo.fu-berlin.de/met/ag/strat/produkte/qbo/singapore.dat)). We used the dynamics of the year 2006 to simulate even years and from the year
 294 2007 for odd years. All the N_2O changes simulated by cst-dyn are due to its constant
 295 increase at the surface.

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2.4 WACCM

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In this study, we use two versions of WACCM: version 4 (Marsh et al., 2013) and version 6 (Gettelman et al., 2019). WACCM version 4 (WACCM4) is the atmospheric component of the Community Earth System Model version 1.2.2 (CESM, Hurrell et al., 2013), which has been developed by the U.S. National Center of Atmospheric Research. It is the extended (whole atmosphere) version of the Community Atmosphere Model version 4 (CAM4, Neale et al., 2013). WACCM4 has a longitude-latitude grid of $2.5^\circ \times 1.9^\circ$ and 66 vertical levels from the surface to about 140 km altitude, with 1.1-1.75 km vertical spacing in the stratosphere. The physics of WACCM4 is the same as CAM4 and the dynamical core is a finite volume with a horizontal discretization based on a conservative flux-form semi Lagrangian (FFSL) scheme (S.-J. Lin, 2004). WACCM4 is not able to internally generate the QBO; thus, it is nudged towards observations of stratospheric winds (Matthes et al., 2010). In this study, we use the WACCM4 version included within the SPARC (Stratosphere-troposphere Processes And their Role in Climate) Chemistry-Climate Model Intercomparison phase 1 (CCMI-1, Morgenstern et al., 2017). In particular, we use the REFC1 experiments (WACCM-REFC1), which consist of simulations of the recent past (1960-2018) using state-of-the-art historical forcings and observed sea-surface temperatures (Morgenstern et al., 2017). Compared to the default WACCM4 version, WACCM-REFC1 includes important modifications of the treatment of heterogeneous chemistry and of the gravity waves parameterization, which ultimately improve the simulation of ozone above the Southern Hemispheric (Garcia et al., 2017). In this study, we use three realizations of the WACCM-REFC1 configuration for the 1985-2018 period.

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Version 6 of WACCM (WACCM6) is the extension to the whole atmosphere of version 6 of CAM that is part of version 2 of CESM (Danabasoglu et al., 2020). The default horizontal resolution of WACCM6 is $0.9^\circ \times 1.25^\circ$ latitude-longitude, with 70 levels in the vertical from the ground to around 140 km, with vertical resolution similar to WACCM4. The transition from WACCM4 to WACCM6 involved several changes in the physics and chemistry that are described in Gettelman et al. (2019). WACCM6 is part of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP6, Eyring et al., 2016), and is used in the CCMI-2022 activity (i.e., the successor of CCMI-1, Plummer et al., 2021). Within CCMI-2022, we use the REFD1 WACCM6 experiments (WACCM-REFD1), i.e., a suite of hindcast experiments for the recent past (1960-2018) used to compare with observations. The REFD1 experiments use the databases for historical forcings and observed sea surface temperatures developed for the CMIP6. Although WACCM6 can internally produce the QBO, the REFD1 experiments require a nudged QBO towards observed winds to ensure synchronization with historical variability. In this study, we use one realization of the WACCM-REFD1 experiments for the 1985-2018 period.

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2.5 TEM Diagnostics

For stratospheric tracers, the TEM diagnostics (Andrews et al., 1987) allows separating the impact of transport and chemistry on the zonal mean local rate of change of a tracer with mixing ratio χ :

$$\bar{\chi}_t = -v^* \bar{\chi}_y - w^* \bar{\chi}_z + e^{z/H} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{M} + \bar{S} + \bar{\epsilon}, \quad (1)$$

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where χ represents N_2O , $\mathbf{M} = -e^{-z/H} (\overline{v'\chi'} - \overline{v'\theta'} \bar{\chi}_z / \bar{\theta}_z, \overline{w'\chi'} + \overline{v'\theta'} \bar{\chi}_y / \bar{\theta}_z)$ is the eddy flux vector, and (v^*, w^*) are the meridional and vertical components of the residual circulation, respectively. Overbars denote zonal means and prime quantities indicate deviations from it, while subscripts indicate partial derivatives. $H = 7 \text{ km}$ is the scale height, and $z \equiv -H \log_e(p/p_s)$ is the log-pressure altitude, with the surface pressure $p_s = 10^5 \text{ Pa}$. The S term is the net rate of change due to chemistry, defined as the difference between the production (\bar{P}) and loss (\bar{L}) rates $\bar{S} = \bar{P} - \bar{L}$. The $\bar{\epsilon}$ contribution

341 represents the residual of the budget, i.e., the difference between the actual rate of change
 342 of χ and the sum of the transport and chemistry terms on the right-side hand of Eq. 1.

The transport terms in Eq. 1 can be grouped as follows:

$$\bar{\chi}_t = ADV + MIX + \bar{S} + \bar{\epsilon}, \quad (2)$$

343 where $ADV = (-v^*\bar{\chi}_y - w^*\bar{\chi}_z)$ and $MIX = e^{z/H}\nabla \cdot \mathbf{M}$ represent the contribution of
 344 the residual advection and of the resolved mixing, respectively. We refer to M2020 for
 345 a more detailed description of the TEM framework applied to the N₂O mixing ratios in
 346 the stratosphere and for a comprehensive discussion of the contribution of each term to
 347 the N₂O budget.

348 2.6 Derivation of Trends with the Dynamical Linear Modelling Tool

349 In this study, we investigate decadal trends using the Dynamical Linear Modeling
 350 (DLM, Alsing, 2019). DLM is based on Bayesian inference and provides a number of pos-
 351 sible models to analyze time series. Each model is characterized by some unknown pa-
 352 rameters, and the DLM computes the posterior probability distribution of those param-
 353 eters using a combination of Kalman filtering and Markov chain Monte Carlo method.

354 For a given atmospheric time-series y_t , a generic DLM model is composed of four
 355 components: a linear background trend, a seasonal cycle with 12- and 6-months periods,
 356 forcing terms described by a number of regressor variables and an auto-regressive com-
 357 ponent:

$$\begin{aligned} 358 \quad y_t = & \beta_{1,t}z_{1,t} + \beta_{2,t}z_{2,t}\dots + \beta_{n,t}z_{n,t} & (3) \\ 359 & + \beta_{1,t}^{12} \sin(2\pi t/12) + \beta_{2,t}^{12} \cos(2\pi t/12) \\ 360 & + \beta_{1,t}^6 \sin(2\pi t/6) + \beta_{2,t}^6 \cos(2\pi t/6) \\ 361 & + \mu_t \\ 362 & + z_t^{AR} \\ 363 & + \epsilon_t. \end{aligned}$$

364 In Eq. 3, the terms $\beta_{i,t}z_{i,t}$ represent the contribution to y_t from each of the regressors.
 365 The 6- and 12-months seasonal cycles are modeled respectively by $\beta_{1,t}^6 \sin(2\pi t/6) + \beta_{2,t}^6 \cos(2\pi t/6)$
 366 and $\beta_{1,t}^{12} \sin(2\pi t/12) + \beta_{2,t}^{12} \cos(2\pi t/12)$. The μ_t term denotes the linear fit term, and z_t^{AR}
 367 the auto-regressive term, defined similarly to the Cochrane-Orcutt correction (Kyrölä
 368 et al., 2013), and ϵ_t is the uncertainty.

369 Contrarily to a multi-linear regression (MLR) model, the background linear fit μ_t
 370 and the amplitudes of the seasonal cycles $\beta_{i,t}^{6,12}$ in DLM can vary with time (i.e., they
 371 are non-parametric). Their degrees of time-dependence are the unknown model param-
 372 eters and are initially set by the user and inferred from the data during the model run.
 373 Furthermore, the auto-regressive process in the DLM is computed within the model run
 374 together with the other parameters, not as a post-run correction as done in the MLR,
 375 and its uncertainties are carefully taken into account within the error propagation. In
 376 addition, the standard DLM implementation has time-varying (heteroscedastic) uncer-
 377 tainty distribution, when time-varying uncertainties are available. DLM was recently used
 378 to investigate stratospheric ozone trends in observations and models (Ball et al., 2017,
 379 2018). A more detailed description of the DLM models and their implementation can
 380 be found in Laine et al. (2014). For a more comprehensive review of time-series analy-
 381 sis using DLM, refer to Durbin and Koopman (2012).

382 As regressor variables, we used the 30 cm radio flux as a solar proxy (de Wit et al.,
 383 2014), an index for the El-Nino Southern Oscillation (Wolter & Timlin, 2011) from the
 384 National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (<http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/>)

enso/mei/), and two indices for the QBO at 30 and 50 hPa from the Freie Universität Berlin (<http://www.geo.fu-berlin.de/en/met/ag/strat/produkte/qbo/index.html>). We fed the DLM model with monthly data, running 3000 samples where the first 1000 were considered as a warmup and discarded. We also tried 10000 realizations and 3000 as warmup with very similar results (not shown). We performed several sensitivity tests to determine the appropriate values of the initial model parameters, i.e., the degree of time-dependence of the linear trend and seasonal cycles, in order to allow a reasonable time-dependence without being unrealistic. The different combinations of these values did not provide significant differences, so we kept the recommended values.

The linear trends are computed from the distribution of the fit samples as the difference of the model realizations between the end and start dates of the period considered (Δ), weighted by the number of the years considered. The uncertainties associated with the trend are computed as the percentage of the Δ values that are positive (negative). This percentage can be interpreted as the posterior probability that the overall change in the fit is positive (negative) between the considered dates. In this way, we do not make any assumption on the shape of the distribution of the trends. In this study, we show three values of the posterior probability, 80, 90 and 95 %.

3 Stratospheric N₂O Columns and their Trends

Figure 1 shows the monthly linear fits of the N₂O stratospheric columns (12-40 km) at the four FTIR stations, together with the initial N₂O columns for the observations and the ERA5 simulation. In this analysis, we do not apply the FTIR time sampling to the model outputs, because sensitivity tests using the WACCM-REFD1 outputs at each station showed no significant impact of the FTIR time sampling on the recovered trends of the N₂O columns (not shown). The stratospheric N₂O columns computed between 12 and 40 km of altitude are highly sensitive to the N₂O increase in the lower stratosphere, which is the result of the continuous growth in the troposphere (Tian et al., 2020; P. Bernath et al., 2020). Consequently, all datasets exhibit an increase in the stratospheric N₂O columns over the last two decades.

Above Lauder, the linear fit of the stratospheric N₂O columns from the ERA5 simulation is in agreement with the observations, similarly to JRA55 and ERAI. WACCM-REFD1 underestimates the N₂O stratospheric columns compared to the observations by around 10%, and performs worse than its earlier version WACCM-REFC1. At Wollongong, the slope of the linear fit of the N₂O columns measured by the FTIR, and to a lesser extent by ACE-FTS, is steeper before 2005 compared to the following period. This change of gradient is not visible in any of the model simulations. On the contrary, some of the models show a slower increase before 2005, followed by a more rapid increase.

Above Izāna, all the model simulations underestimate the stratospheric N₂O columns with respect to the FTIR observations, with the largest difference reaching 14% for MERRA2. Concerning ACE-FTS, the bias with FTIR measurements is around 8%, which is qualitatively consistent with the results of Strong et al. (2008), even though they used v2.2 of ACE-FTS. However, García et al. (2021) showed good agreement above Izāna for tropospheric N₂O abundances and total N₂O columns obtained from independent measurements. The difference between the stratospheric N₂O columns measured by FTIR and ACE-FTS could be explained by the poor coverage of ACE-FTS over the tropical and subtropical regions. Since the ACE-FTS measurements represent a latitude band, the observed N₂O results biased towards the values measured at higher latitudes, where more occultations are available (Kolonjari et al., 2018). Since the N₂O abundances decrease poleward (Jin et al., 2009), this could explain the low bias in the stratospheric N₂O columns measured by ACE-FTS compared to those obtained from FTIR.

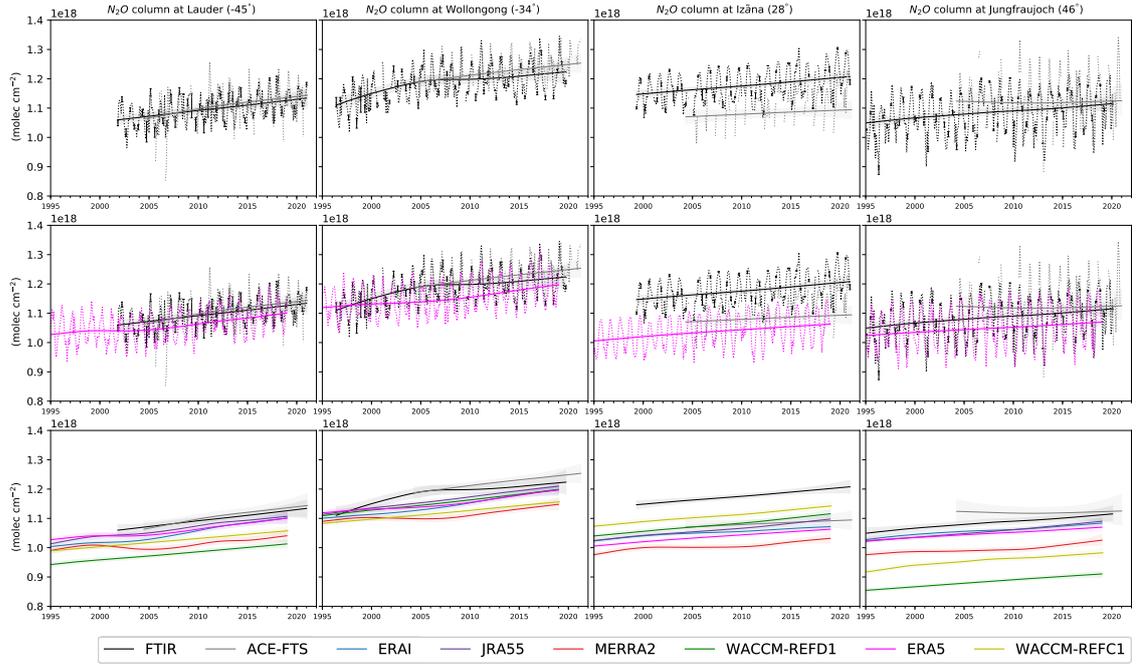


Figure 1. Time-series of N_2O stratospheric columns (12-40 km) from observations and models at four stations. Continuous lines show the linear fit obtained by the DLM regression, dashed lines depict the N_2O column data. The color code is shown in the legend. First row: DLM fits and data for FTIR and ACE-FTS measurements. Second row: DLM fits and data for FTIR and ACE-FTS measurements and the BASCOE simulation driven by ERA5. Third row: DLM fits for all the datasets considered. The model and satellite data are interpolated to the longitude and latitude of the station, and vertically regrided to match the retrieval layering schemes. After the regriding, the data were smoothed using the FTIR averaging kernels. The colored shadings represent the uncertainties from the 2.5 and 97.5 percentiles of the distributions from the DLM.

434 Above Jungfraujoch, there is the largest spread in the linear fits of the stratospheric
 435 N_2O columns, with differences reaching around 25% between ACE-FTS and WACCM-
 436 REFD1. Prignon et al. (2019) compared lower stratospheric columns of chlorodifluoromethane
 437 (HCFC-22) between an earlier WACCM version and FTIR measurements, and showed
 438 that WACCM consistently underestimates the HCFC-22 columns compared to the FTIR
 439 measurements. Since both N_2O and HCFC-22 (which has an atmospheric lifetime of 12
 440 years, Prignon et al., 2019) are produced at the surface and transported into the strato-
 441 sphere, this underestimation in WACCM could indicate a shortcoming in simulating the
 442 accumulation of long-lived tracers in the stratosphere above Northern mid-latitudes. In-
 443 deed, Angelbratt et al. (2011) already highlighted that the stratospheric transport has
 444 a large impact on the N_2O columns above Jungfraujoch compared to stations at higher
 445 latitudes. Regarding the observational datasets, there is a considerable disagreement be-
 446 tween the FTIR instrument and ACE-FTS before 2012, showing increasing and decreas-
 447 ing N_2O columns, respectively. This is in contrast with the remarkably good agreement
 448 in the SH between the two datasets. This difference between the stratospheric N_2O columns
 449 in ACE-FTS and FTIR measurements will be further addressed in Sect. 4.

450 In the Tropics and above the lower stratospheric mid-latitudes, the N_2O mixing
 451 ratio is inversely proportional to the mean AoA (Galytska et al., 2019). The N_2O strato-
 452 spheric columns at mid-latitudes considered here are highly sensitive to the N_2O abun-
 453 dances in the lower stratosphere, hence the inverse relationship also holds for the strato-
 454 spheric N_2O columns above the mid-latitudes. Thus, the lower N_2O stratospheric columns
 455 in MERRA2 compared to the other datasets across the stations are consistent with the
 456 older mean AoA throughout the stratosphere found using MERRA2 by Chabrilat et al.
 457 (2018). The N_2O distribution in the stratosphere is opposite also to the total inorganic
 458 fluorine F_y . N_2O is emitted in the troposphere while F_y is produced in the stratosphere,
 459 and the transport due to the BDC tends to remove N_2O and increase F_y in the strato-
 460 spheric mid-latitudes. In the light of this relationship between N_2O and F_y , the under-
 461 estimated N_2O columns above Lauder and Jungfraujoch in MERRA2 are consistent with
 462 larger F_y stratospheric columns in MERRA2 compared to the other reanalyses above
 463 those stations (Prignon et al., 2021).

464 Figure 2 shows distributions of the trend of the stratospheric N_2O columns obtained
 465 from the respective linear fits over the common period 2005-2018. The N_2O trends at
 466 the surface have already been validated for a number of FTIR stations (including Lauder,
 467 Wollongong and Izana) against observations from flask samples, showing an excellent agree-
 ment (Zhou et al., 2019).

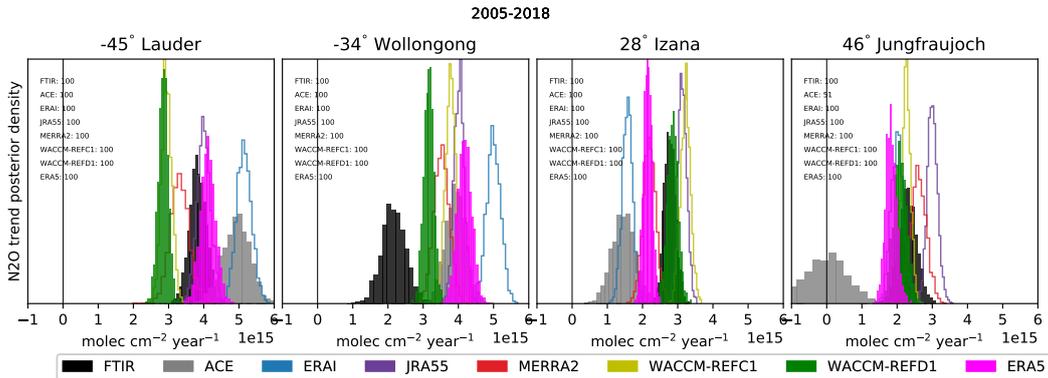


Figure 2. Posterior probability of positive changes of the DLM linear trend of the strato-
 spheric N_2O columns (12-40 km) for the four FTIR stations (2005-2018). The color code is shown
 in the legend.

468 Above Lauder, the N₂O trends obtained with ERA5 are in good agreement with
 469 the FTIR measurements, but are underestimated in WACCM-REFD1 (around 25%) with
 470 no particular improvement with respect to WACCM-REFC1. At Wollongong, the N₂O
 471 trend obtained with the FTIR measurements is the smallest because the N₂O increase
 472 above that station is smoother compared to the other datasets. Interestingly, the N₂O
 473 trend simulated by WACCM-REFD1 is the closest to the trend obtained from the FTIR
 474 observations, while the trend obtained with ERA5 is almost twice as large. Above Izana,
 475 WACCM-REFD1 agrees remarkably well with the FTIR (difference around 3%), while
 476 the trend from ERA5 lies between the trends measured from FTIR and ACE-FTS, with
 477 around 20% difference compared to FTIR. Above Jungfraujoch, the trend in the N₂O
 478 columns from WACCM-REFD1 agrees with the trend from the FTIR station within 10%
 479 difference and is similar to what is obtained with ERA5. The decreasing N₂O stratospheric
 480 column in ACE-FTS before 2012 results in a near-zero trend, which is in contrast with
 481 the trends obtained by the other datasets, which approximately range from 2 to 3×10¹⁵
 482 molec cm⁻² year⁻¹.

483 Considering decadal changes, the observations and the ERA5 simulation show larger
 484 trends of the stratospheric N₂O columns in the SH than in the NH, especially at mid-
 485 latitudes (respectively Lauder and Jungfraujoch). WACCM-REFD1 also shows this hemi-
 486 spheric difference at mid-latitudes, which is a clear improvement with respect to WACCM-
 487 REFC1. Those asymmetries are consistent with the results of Strahan et al. (2020), who
 488 found significantly negative AoA trends in the SH compared to the NH using HCl and
 489 HNO₃ measured at several ground-based FTIR stations. In addition, the hemispheric
 490 differences of the N₂O trends are also consistent with the results of Prignon et al. (2021),
 491 who found larger and more significant Fy trends above Jungfraujoch than above Lauder.

492 We conclude the section by providing a short description of the limits of using strato-
 493 spheric columns of N₂O from FTIR measurements. As mentioned earlier, the stratospheric
 494 N₂O columns between 12 and 40 km are primarily influenced by the steady increase in
 495 the lowermost stratosphere. The DOFS of the FTIR instrument at Jungfraujoch for the
 496 stratosphere (12-40 km) is close to 1.1. Thus, the measurements cannot resolve more than
 497 one partial column between 12 and 40 km, which can hinder the detection of N₂O trends
 498 in the middle and upper stratosphere (i.e., above 30 km) because of the influence of the
 499 increase in the lowermost stratosphere. Indeed, it was shown that stratospheric N₂O trends
 500 over the last decades, obtained both from satellite measurements and model simulations,
 501 do not consist of just a global increase, but largely depend on latitude and height (e.g.,
 502 Froidevaux et al., 2019). Therefore, we will consider latitudinal- and vertical-dependent
 503 trends of N₂O mixing ratios in the following section.

504 4 Global N₂O Linear Trends

505 Figure 3 shows latitude-vertical cross sections of the linear trends of the N₂O mix-
 506 ing ratios for the various datasets, over the 2005-2018 period. In order to perform a fair
 507 comparison, the model datasets are sampled in space and time as ACE-FTS before the
 508 computation of the trends. We use the ACE-FTS measurements as a reference, because
 509 they encompass this relatively long period with global coverage and good stability (P. Bernath
 510 et al., 2020, 2021).

511 In the upper stratosphere above 10 hPa, the N₂O trends from ACE-FTS are pos-
 512 itive, with larger trends in the NH that are found significant at lower levels than in the
 513 SH. The ERAI-driven simulation qualitatively reproduces these patterns in the upper
 514 stratosphere, while the other model datasets differ from ACE-FTS, especially ERA5. A
 515 common feature among all datasets is an increase in N₂O above the Equator in the up-
 516 per stratosphere, around 5 hPa. At those altitudes of the tropical pipe, the upward trans-

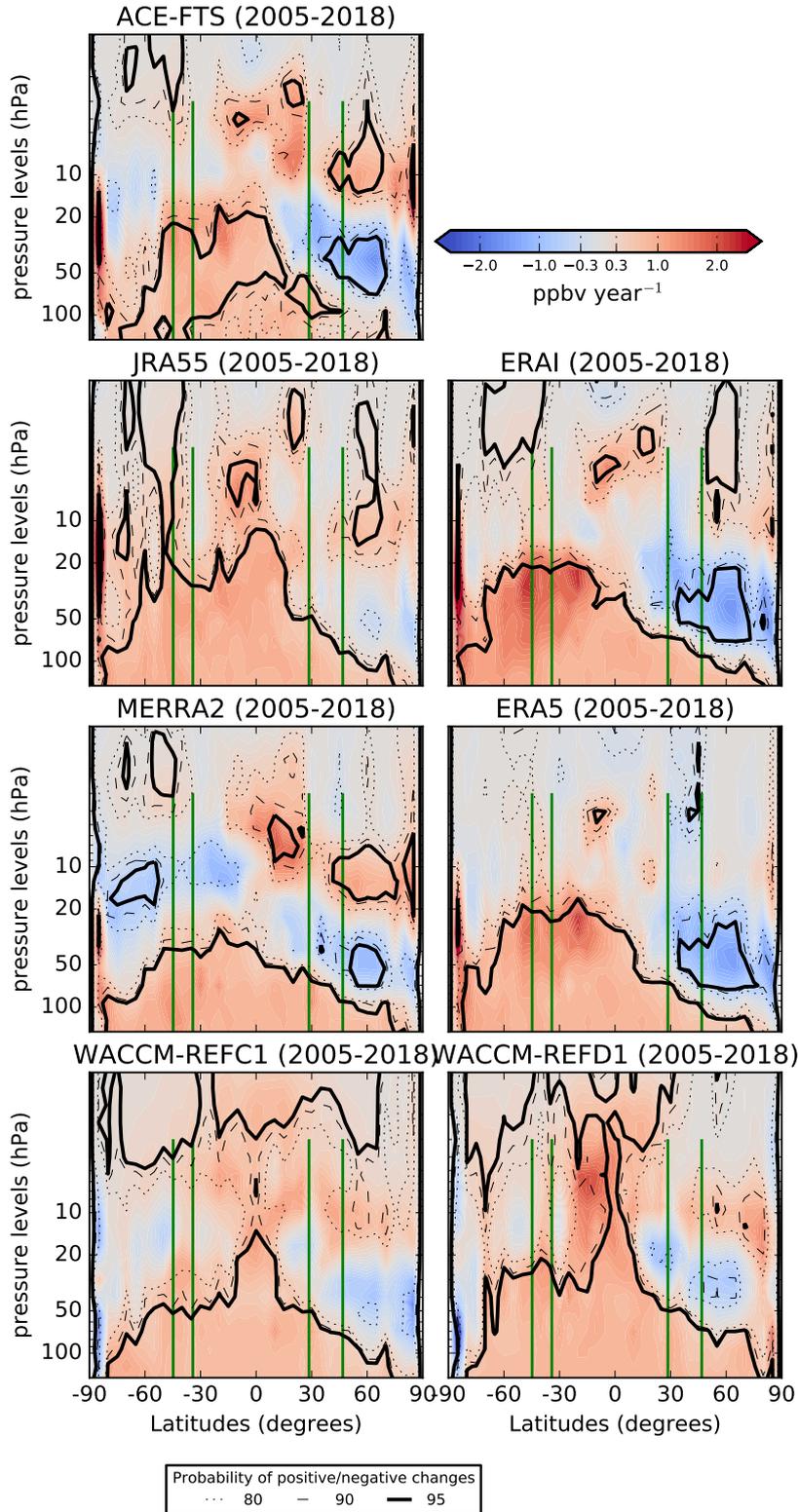


Figure 3. Latitude-pressure cross-sections of N_2O linear trends (pptv year^{-1}) obtained from the DLM (2005-2018). The N_2O simulated by the model is interpolated to the location and timing of the observations, see text for details. The dotted, dashed and continue lines represent the probability at 80, 90 and 95% of positive/negative N_2O changes respectively. The green vertical lines identify the position of the FTIR stations together with their vertical coverage.

517 port of N₂O by the mean advection reaches its maximum (see M2020). In the mid-lower
 518 stratosphere below 20 hPa, ACE-FTS shows a clear hemispherical asymmetry (merid-
 519 ional dipole) in the N₂O trends, with significantly negative values in the NH and signif-
 520 icantly positive in the SH, that is generally reproduced by the models with ERAI and
 521 ERA5 delivering trends that are most similar to those derived from ACE-FTS.

522 Prignon et al. (2021) used the same simulations as the present study to investigate
 523 global stratospheric trends of total inorganic fluorine Fy. The dipoles obtained here in
 524 the N₂O trends from ACE-FTS and the ECMWF reanalyses are consistent with the op-
 525 posite trends of Fy for almost the same period (Prignon et al., 2021). Above the loca-
 526 tion of Jungfrauoch (the most northern vertical green line), the negative N₂O trend de-
 527 tected by ACE-FTS in the mid-lower stratosphere is responsible for the disagreement
 528 with the FTIR observations discussed in the previous section, as the layer of the strato-
 529 spheric N₂O column encompasses regions of both positive (lowermost and upper strato-
 530 sphere) and negative (mid-lower stratosphere) N₂O trends. In the lowermost stratosphere
 531 (pressure larger than 100 hPa), all models and ACE-FTS show positive N₂O trends, re-
 532 sulting from the constant increase in the troposphere. However, the N₂O increase in the
 533 equatorial lowermost stratosphere is not significant in ACE-FTS, contrary to the model
 534 simulations.

535 Figure 4 shows the N₂O trends as in Fig. 3, but in the model space, i.e., the sam-
 536 pling from the observations is not applied. A comparison between each model simula-
 537 tion in the observation and model space (respectively Fig. 3 and Fig. 4) reveals large
 538 differences in the N₂O decadal trends. Generally, the sampling of the ACE-FTS obser-
 539 vations enhances the trends simulated by the models, both in the negative and positive
 540 directions. For the ERA5 simulation, the significantly negative trend in the NH obser-
 541 vational space becomes insignificant in model space. In addition, one notes immediately
 542 that the N₂O trends in the WACCM simulations change sign, with negative trends in
 543 the NH in the observational space becoming weakly positive in model space. However,
 544 this difference is not significant because neither of the trends above that region is sta-
 545 tistically significant at 95%.

546 For satellite measurements, the impact of the sampling in the detection of trends
 547 in long-lived species (including N₂O) has been evaluated in Millán et al. (2016). They
 548 concluded that large errors may arise in the detected trends for coarse and non-uniform
 549 sampling obtained with occultation instruments (such as ACE-FTS), and that long time
 550 scales are required for a robust trend detection from these datasets. Such errors prop-
 551 agate to the models when they are sampled in space and time as the observations. In
 552 particular, within the DLM, the non-uniform time sampling considerably increases the
 553 standard deviation of the error in the time series, which is zero for regular time sampling.
 554 This difference plays a role when deriving trends over these relatively short (decadal) time
 555 scales. For example, the non-uniform ACE-FTS sampling applied to the ERA5 output
 556 results in negative N₂O trends that are 4 times stronger compared to the native grid above
 557 the northern mid-latitudes between 50 and 70 hPa. For WACCM, the issue of downsam-
 558 pling was also raised by Garcia et al. (2011) when comparing AoA trends obtained from
 559 balloon-borne observations and simulated by the model. They showed that sampling the
 560 model as the observations would deliver positive and non-significant AoA trends, sim-
 561 ilarly to the observations. We find consistent results with the WACCM simulations: sam-
 562 pling the WACCM output as the observations drives the N₂O trends towards the observed
 563 values. In addition, the non-significant negative N₂O trends simulated by WACCM are
 564 compatible with the non-significant positive AoA trends found by Garcia et al. (2011)
 565 when downsampling WACCM at the AoA observations. Hence, the ACE-FTS sampling
 566 exaggerates the simulated N₂O trends in the stratosphere.

567 In order to understand the actual trends and compare them with other modeling
 568 studies, we now focus on the N₂O trends obtained from the model datasets in model space
 569 (Fig. 4). We mentioned earlier that the mean AoA and the N₂O abundancies are inversely

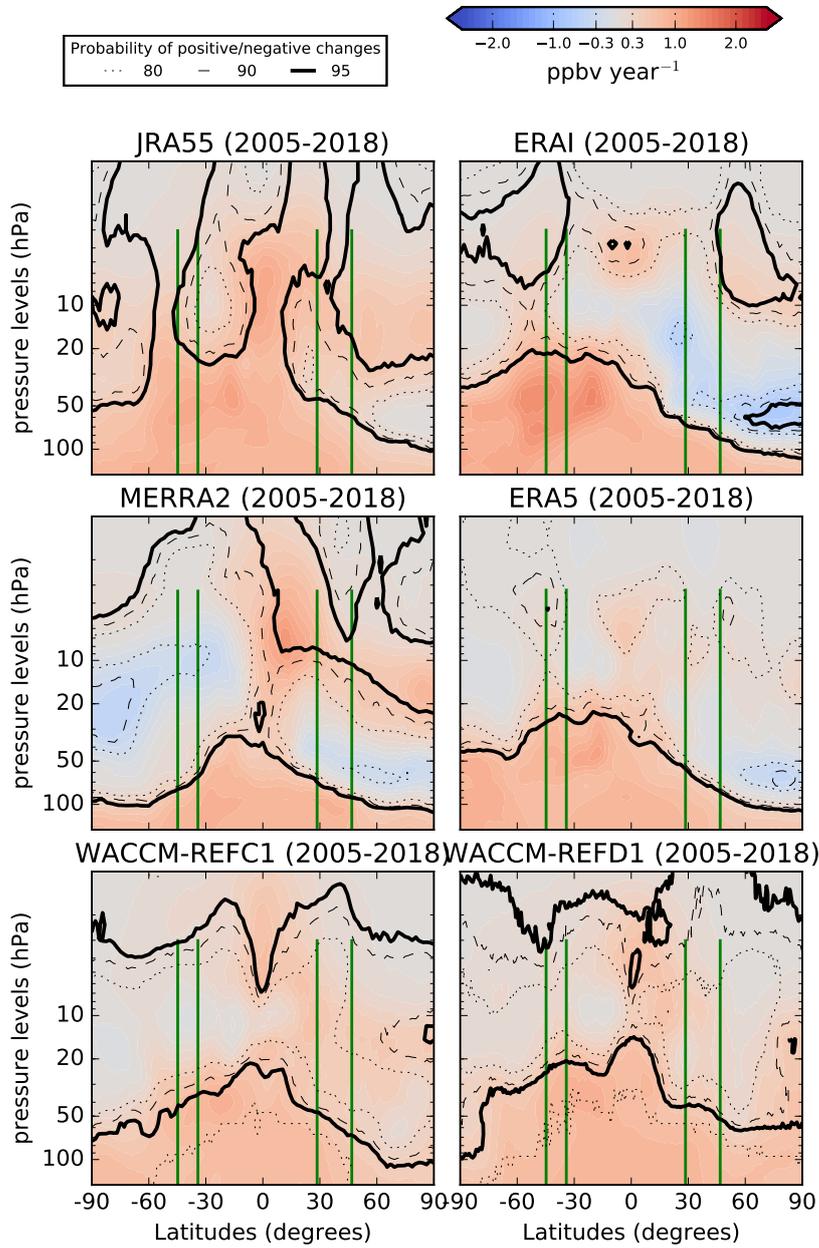


Figure 4. As in Figure 3, but in the model space.

570 correlated in the Tropics and above the lower stratospheric mid-latitudes. Thus, the strato-
571 spheric N_2O trends have opposite signs compared to trends of mean AoA. For ERAI,
572 the meridional N_2O trend dipole is consistent with AoA trends derived over a shorter
573 period with the same CTM (Chabrillat et al., 2018) and also with different CTMs (Ploeger
574 et al., 2019; Han et al., 2019). ERAI shows positive N_2O trends in the upper stratosphere,
575 around 5 hPa, above the Equator, which is consistent with the findings of Galytska et
576 al. (2019) using the same reanalysis to drive a different CTM in that region, but ERA5
577 does not allow us to find any significant trend in the upper stratosphere. The ERA5 sim-
578 ulation confirms the meridional dipole in the mid-lower stratosphere of ERAI, and is con-
579 sistent with recent AoA trend results over a shorter period (Ploeger et al., 2021).

580 Above the SH mid-latitudes in the mid-lower stratosphere, the N_2O trends obtained
581 with MERRA2 are biased low compared to the other models, and do not replicate the
582 hemispheric asymmetry that is visible in the ECMWF reanalyses. Wargan et al. (2018)
583 have shown that the tropopause height has changed in MERRA2 in the past decades,
584 with a decrease in the extratropics and an increase above the Tropics. The pattern of
585 the N_2O trends in MERRA2 is qualitatively consistent with the changing tropopause
586 height: a rise of the tropopause would lead to positive N_2O trends, while a sinking tropopause
587 to negative N_2O trends. In addition, the N_2O trends with MERRA2 do not match the
588 AoA trends obtained with the same CTM (Chabrillat et al., 2018), at least in the regions
589 where the inverse relationship between N_2O and AoA holds (Galytska et al., 2019). Ploeger
590 et al. (2019) found that AoA trends in the stratosphere for MERRA2 are opposite with
591 their diabatic transport model than with our kinematic transport model. The large dif-
592 ferences between JRA55 and MERRA2 and the ECMWF reanalyses highlight the fact
593 that decadal changes in the stratospheric transport are not as robustly detected in JRA55
594 and MERRA2 as in the ERAI and ERA5. The WACCM simulations do not simulate
595 the vertical and meridional gradients of the N_2O trends, especially compared to the CTM
596 experiments driven by MERRA2 above the southern polar latitudes and by the ECMWF
597 reanalyses above the northern polar latitudes, but rather a global N_2O increase that is
598 largest in the lower stratosphere. This N_2O increase in the tropical lower stratosphere
599 can be related to the AoA decrease due to the projected BDC acceleration in response
600 to global warming (e.g., Butchart, 2014). However, WACCM-REFD1 improved the rep-
601 resentation of the N_2O trends with respect to WACCM-REFC1 in the SH mid-latitudes.
602 The newer WACCM version simulates significant N_2O increase up to 20 hPa, which makes
603 the N_2O trends in the mid-lower stratosphere slightly more similar to the meridional dipole
604 seen in ERAI and ERA5, even though the decreasing N_2O trends in the NH are not re-
605 produced.

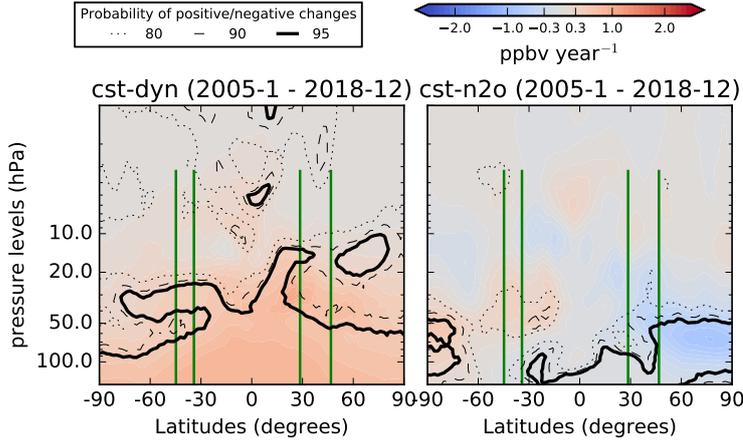


Figure 5. Latitude-pressure cross sections of N_2O linear trends (pptv year^{-1}) obtained from the DLM from a BASCOE run driven by ERA5 with fixed dynamics and increasing N_2O (left panel), and from the same model setup but with N_2O kept constant at the surface and time-varying dynamics (right panel).

606 The two sensitivity tests done with ERA5 (cst-dyn and cst- N_2O) are shown in Fig.
 607 5. As expected, the cst-dyn experiment does not simulate any N_2O decrease in the strato-
 608 sphere, showing only a steady N_2O increase as a consequence of the constant buildup
 609 at the surface. Between 30 and 50 hPa, the N_2O increase in the SH is significant with
 610 95% probability, while this is not the case over the NH. This difference can be attributed
 611 to the larger variability of the NH over one QBO cycle compared to the SH due to its
 612 larger wave activity (Scaife & James, 2000), and was already shown for the significance
 613 of ozone trends (Shepherd, 2008). This highlights the importance of considering a suf-
 614 ficiently long period for the trend detection in the stratosphere (Garcia et al., 2011; Hardi-
 615 man et al., 2017). In particular, the 14 years considered here are sufficient to propagate
 616 the N_2O increase to the mid-stratospheric mid-latitudes in the SH but not in the NH.
 617 The cst- N_2O sensitivity test confirms that the extratropical N_2O trends in the mid-lower
 618 stratosphere are due to the impact of changes in the stratospheric transport. Contrari-
 619 ly to the cst-dyn experiment, a changing dynamics impacts the sign of the obtained trends,
 620 with an N_2O decrease above the NH and increase in the SH. The mean stratospheric trans-
 621 port contributes to the hemispheric asymmetry through differences in the significance
 622 of the trends between the hemispheres, and the decadal changes in the transport con-
 623 tribute to the recovered trends through changes in their signs.

5 N_2O TEM Budget

624
 625 This section further investigates the N_2O trends from the model simulations using
 626 the TEM budget. Equation 2 allows separating the contributions of the residual ad-
 627 vection and mixing terms (respectively ADV and MIX) to the N_2O rate of change. In
 628 particular, we aim to identify the contributions from changes in the ADV and MIX terms
 629 to the N_2O trends shown in the previous section. To that end, we compute the changes
 630 of the ADV and MIX terms as the differences between their linear fits (i.e., the μ_t term
 631 of Eq. 3) at the end and the beginning of the considered period. A similar analysis was
 632 also done by the recent study of Abalos et al. (2020), who used the outputs of several
 633 CCMs to compute changes of the TEM budget terms of synthetic tracers. For a detailed
 634 description of the climatologies of the ADV and MIX terms, we refer to M2020.

635 We highlight that we do not aim to provide a quantitative analysis of the contri-
 636 butions of the changes of each transport term to the N₂O trends. The complete TEM
 637 budget also includes the chemistry term \bar{S} (i.e., loss due to photolysis, Tian et al., 2020),
 638 which is large in the tropical mid-high stratosphere, and the residual term $\bar{\epsilon}$, which ac-
 639 counts for all the processes not resolved by the TEM analysis (Eq. 2). Here, we provide
 640 a qualitative estimate of the contributions from changes in the advection and mixing to
 641 the N₂O trends, by comparing the signs of the changes of *ADV* and *MIX* with those
 642 of the N₂O trends discussed in the previous section. Figure 6 shows the latitude-vertical
 643 cross sections of those changes in the *ADV* and *MIX* terms over the 2005-2018 period.
 644 We limit the analysis to the simulations by ERA5, WACCM-REFD1 and MERRA2 in
 645 order to investigate further the differences in their N₂O trends discussed in the previ-
 646 ous section. In the following, we refer to N₂O trends discussed in the previous section
 647 as "direct" N₂O trends, in order to distinguish them from the N₂O changes derived from
 648 changes in the *ADV* and *MIX* contributions.

649 Looking at the changes in the *ADV* term in ERA5, the N₂O abundances increase
 650 in the tropical high stratosphere (between 4 and 10 hPa) because of the impact of ad-
 651 vection, similarly to the weak positive direct N₂O trends above the same region. These
 652 changes are mainly due to an enhanced tropical upwelling over that region (not shown),
 653 and agree with a recent study showing a strengthening of the advective part of the BDC
 654 obtained from ERA5 over a longer period (Diallo et al., 2021). Above the lower strato-
 655 spheric subtropics, the positive N₂O changes due to an enhanced *ADV* contribution are
 656 small but significant and can contribute to the positive direct N₂O trend above the SH.
 657 Such increased contribution from *ADV* above the lower stratospheric subtropics can be
 658 associated with the strengthening of the shallow branch of the BDC (P. Lin & Fu, 2013),
 659 which was recently detected in ERA5 using the AoA diagnostic (Ploeger et al., 2021).

660 Above the extratropical latitudes, the changes of the *ADV* term differ between the
 661 two hemispheres. Above the northern polar latitudes below 50 hPa, the negative changes
 662 of the *ADV* term can explain the negative direct N₂O trend and are consistent with the
 663 enhanced advection term over the tropical region. Above the southern mid-latitudes, the
 664 *ADV* term shows positive changes between 30 and 70 hPa. Over that region, N₂O-rich
 665 air is advected upward and southward from the lower tropical region (M2020 and their
 666 Supplement). Therefore, the positive *ADV* changes can indicate a strengthening of the
 667 residual advection over that region and can contribute to the positive direct N₂O trend,
 668 which is part of the hemispheric asymmetry described in the previous section.

669 Concerning the *MIX* term in ERA5, its changes are more irregular compared to
 670 those of the *ADV* term, and do not correspond to the direct N₂O trends over the NH.
 671 Above the SH between 10 and 30 hPa, there is enhanced poleward N₂O mixing from the
 672 subtropics (where *MIX* changes are negative), and increased N₂O abundances over the
 673 mid-latitudes (positive *MIX* changes). Such positive N₂O changes above the southern
 674 mid-latitudes can be associated with the positive but not significant direct N₂O trends
 675 over the same region. The role of mixing in the decadal BDC trends has been studied
 676 in ECMWF reanalyses, especially using AoA (e.g., Ploeger et al., 2015; Dietmüller et
 677 al., 2017). Recent studies have associated the N₂O trend dipole discussed in the previ-
 678 ous section with a southward shift of the circulation pattern, which in turn is related to
 679 the impact of mixing on the BDC changes (Stiller et al., 2017; Ploeger et al., 2019). Our
 680 results with N₂O from ERA5 confirm the role of mixing processes above the southern
 681 mid-latitudes in determining changes in the N₂O abundances, and indirectly support the
 682 hypothesis of the southward shift of the circulation as the reason for the dipole struc-
 683 ture. Considering AoA results, Ploeger et al. (2015) showed that mixing plays a major
 684 role in the SH in determining the negative AoA trend over the 2002-2012 period for ERAI,
 685 which is consistent with the impact of mixing on the positive N₂O changes in ERA5 out-
 686 lined here.

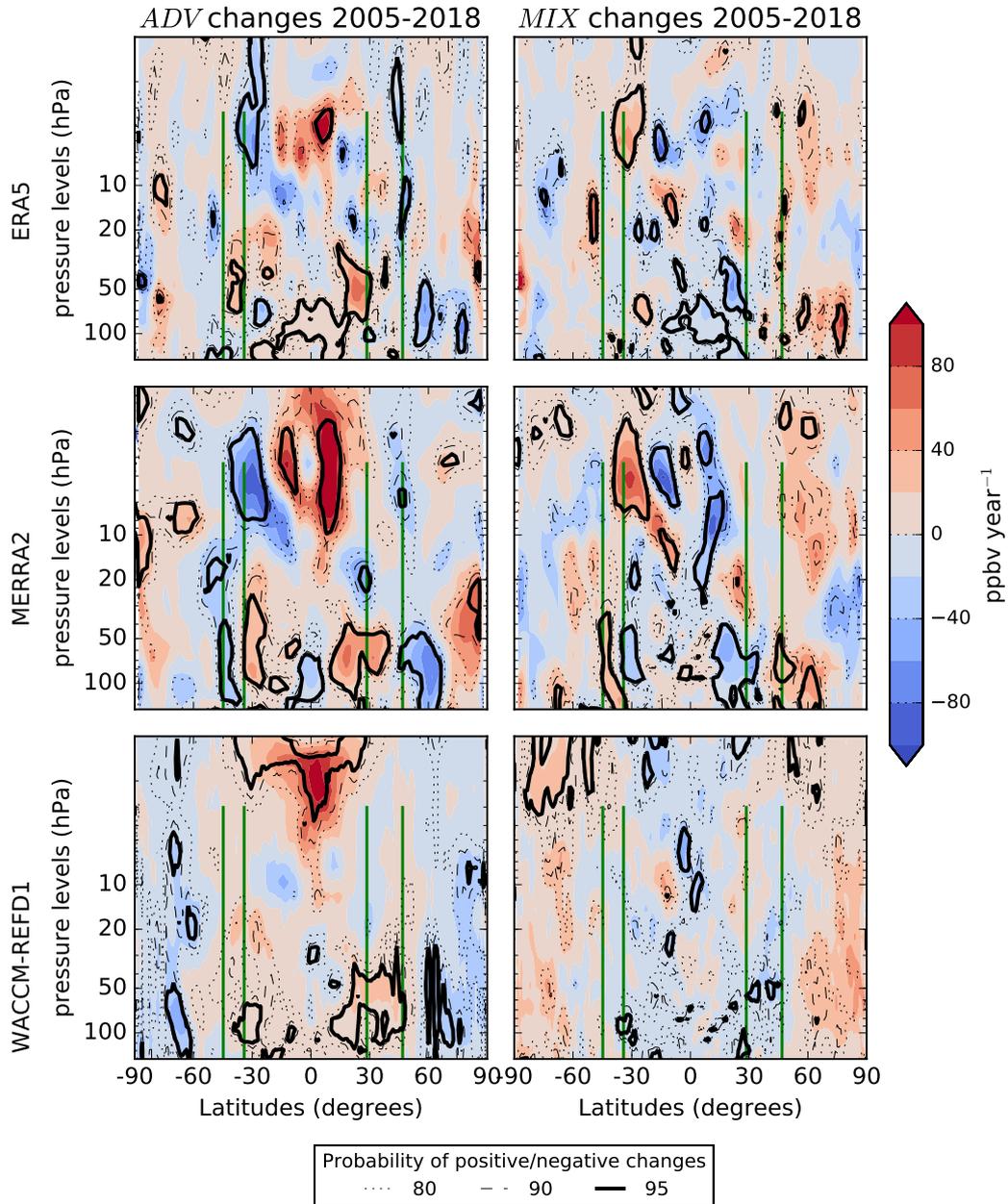


Figure 6. Latitude-pressure cross sections of the changes of the advection term (A_z+A_y , central panel, ppbv year^{-1}) and mixing term (M_z+M_y , left panel, ppbv year^{-1}) of the TEM N_2O budget for ERA5, WACCM-REFD1 and MERRA2 (2005-2018). The dotted, dashed and continue lines represent the probability at 80, 90 and 95% of positive/negative N_2O changes respectively. The green vertical lines identify the position of the FTIR stations together with their vertical coverage.

687 We now consider the MERRA2 simulation, starting with the changes in the *ADV*
 688 term. Similar to the ERA5 simulation, the MERRA2 experiment shows positive *ADV*
 689 changes over the tropical region above 10 hPa, which correspond to positive direct N₂O
 690 trends over the same region. These changes are due to an enhanced tropical upwelling
 691 at those levels (not shown), and qualitatively agree with the negative trends of mean AoA
 692 simulated by MERRA2 over a similar period (Ploeger et al., 2019). Above the subtrop-
 693 ics in the lower stratosphere, the changes of the *ADV* term are positive and stronger than
 694 those obtained from the ERA5 simulation, and can be associated with the strengthen-
 695 ing of the shallow branch of the BDC in MERRA2, as was already argued by Wargan
 696 et al. (2018). Above the southern mid-latitudes between 10 and 30 hPa, the decreasing
 697 *ADV* term leads to negative N₂O changes, indicating an enhanced downwelling over that
 698 region. Those negative *ADV* changes, possibly combined with larger chemical losses, cor-
 699 respond to the negative but not significant direct N₂O trends over the same region.

700 Regarding the *MIX* term in the MERRA2 simulation, there are no significant changes
 701 that correspond to direct N₂O trends. An intercomparison of AoA trends among reanal-
 702 yses showed that significant differences in mixing exist between MERRA2 and ERAI that
 703 contribute to the mean AoA, as well as differences in the trends of the AoA spectrum
 704 in the lower and middle stratosphere (Ploeger et al., 2019). Indeed, we find large differ-
 705 ences in the mixing contribution to the N₂O trends between MERRA2 and ERA5 (which
 706 is very similar to ERAI, not shown).

707 After discussing the TEM terms in the BASCOE simulations driven by ERA5 and
 708 MERRA2, we now investigate those simulated by WACCM-REFD1, starting with the
 709 *ADV* contribution. Similar to the BASCOE experiments, the positive changes in the *ADV*
 710 term simulated by WACCM-REFD1 consistently result in an N₂O increase in the Trop-
 711 ics above 5 hPa, which contributes to the positive direct N₂O trend over the same re-
 712 gion. In addition, the *ADV* term is also enhanced above the subtropical lower strato-
 713 sphere, possibly as a consequence of the strengthening of the shallow branch of the BDC
 714 that was robustly detected in CCMs (Butchart, 2014). Above the polar latitudes of both
 715 hemispheres, the *ADV* term decreases, resulting in negative N₂O changes, which are not
 716 visible in the direct N₂O trends because masked by the constant N₂O increase in the low-
 717 ermost stratosphere. These patterns of positive and negative N₂O changes due to changes
 718 in the *ADV* term across the whole stratosphere are driven by a strengthening of the up-
 719 welling in the Tropics and downwelling in the extratropics (not shown), and can be as-
 720 sociated with the acceleration of the BDC, which was robustly detected in several CCMs
 721 studies over longer periods (e.g., Abalos et al., 2021).

722 The changes in the *MIX* term in WACCM-REFD1 have a small impact on the N₂O
 723 trends compared to those of the *ADV* term. Large differences between WACCM and re-
 724 analyses were shown already by M2020 for WACCM-REFC1 for the climatologies of the
 725 mixing terms of the TEM budget. Furthermore, the weaker effect of mixing in WACCM-
 726 REFD1 compared to ERA5 is consistent with AoA studies that found weaker trends in
 727 aging by mixing in a free-running CCM compared to its specified-dynamics version and
 728 a reanalysis (Dietmüller et al., 2017).

729 From this section, we highlight that, within the TEM framework, changes in the
 730 residual advection have a stronger impact on the direct N₂O trends compared to those
 731 in mixing, for all datasets. However, the ERA5 simulation also delivers significant N₂O
 732 changes due to mixing that are consistent with previous studies using ECMWF reanal-
 733 ysis. We also notice that the hemispheric asymmetry in the direct N₂O trends simulated
 734 by ERA5 can be attributed to changes in both advection and mixing.

6 Summary and Conclusions

We have investigated the N₂O stratospheric columns (12-40 km) and their decadal (2005-2018) rates of change at four ground-based FTIR stations: Lauder (45°S), Wollongong (34°S), Izāna (28°N) and Jungfraujoch (46°N). We compared those ground-based observations with space-borne measurements from ACE-FTS, with the output of the BASCOE CTM driven by four modern reanalyses: ERAI, ERA5, JRA55 and MERRA2, and with two versions of WACCM: WACCM-REFC1 (version 4) and WACCM-REFD1 (version 6). We also studied the latitudinal and vertical distributions of these trends of the N₂O mixing ratios from model output and satellite measurements, both in the observation and model space, and used the Transformed Eulerian Mean (TEM) budget to investigate further the trends above the SH mid-latitudes in the BASCOE CTM driven by ERA5 and MERRA2 and in WACCM-REFD1.

The comparison of the stratospheric N₂O columns reveals a good agreement above Wollongong, and Lauder to a lesser extent, and larger differences above Jungfraujoch and Izāna. The trends in the N₂O stratospheric columns are larger in the SH compared to the NH, which is consistent with hemispherical differences in trends of stratospheric tracers measured at FTIR stations over the past decade (Strahan et al., 2020; Prignon et al., 2021). We find that the decadal trends in the N₂O columns are consistently positive in all cases except for ACE-FTS observations above Jungfraujoch. However, the vertical resolution of the FTIR retrievals above the Northern Hemisphere for N₂O limits our analysis to one stratospheric column, hence (in this analysis) the detection of potentially negative N₂O trends in the mid-stratosphere is hindered by the large N₂O increase in the lowermost stratosphere which arises from its continuous increase at the surface.

Global and vertically resolved trends of N₂O volume mixing ratios provide a more detailed picture compared to N₂O profiles obtained from FTIR measurements. The ACE-FTS measurements show a meridional dipole in the N₂O trends in the mid-lower stratosphere, with negative values in the NH mid-latitudes and positive values in the SH. When applying the temporal and spatial sampling of ACE-FTS on model datasets, ERAI and ERA5 compare best with the satellite measurements while the other reanalyses and the CCMs do not reproduce the meridional dipole in the mid-lower stratosphere as clearly as the ECMWF reanalyses. However, this application of the irregular sampling of ACE-FTS to the model output consistently enhances the N₂O trends, both positive and negative. Using continuous time sampling on native model grids, ERAI, and ERA5 to a lesser extent, still simulate the meridional dipole in the N₂O trends, consistently with a large number of modeling studies using both idealized and real tracers (e.g., Chabrillat et al., 2018; Ploeger et al., 2021; Prignon et al., 2021), but MERRA2, JRA55 and WACCM fail to reproduce the meridional dipole. WACCM-REFD1 is still an improvement compared to WACCM-REFC1, because it simulates the positive trend above the SH mid-latitudes also in the mid-lower stratosphere. The inherently limited spatial and temporal sampling of ACE-FTS, and its effect on N₂O trends, highlight how a regular coverage in the measurements, as in MLS, is essential to deliver reliable trends of long-lived tracers in the stratosphere. Because of this, the N₂O trends discussed here should be revisited using a newer version of MLS, once its drift in the N₂O retrievals will have been corrected.

We carried out two sensitivity tests using the BASCOE CTM driven by ERA5: one keeping N₂O constant at the surface with time-dependent dynamics (cst-N₂O), and the other using fixed dynamics with increasing N₂O at the surface (cst-dyn). The cst-N₂O experiment confirms that the extratropical N₂O trends in the mid-lower stratosphere are due to the impact of changes in the stratospheric transport. As expected, the cst-dyn simulation shows that N₂O increases everywhere, but the trend over 2005-2018 is not significantly positive in the NH mid-stratosphere. From these sensitivity tests with ERA5, we confirm that the hemispheric asymmetry of the decadal N₂O trends arises from decadal changes in transport. For the 2005-2018 period and in the 20-50 hPa layer, the hemispheric asymmetry in the significance of these trends arises from the larger dynamical

788 variability which is found in the northern extratropics on shorter timescales, i.e. with
789 one single QBO cycle repeating indefinitely.

790 We found a strong impact of transport on the stratospheric trends of N₂O volume
791 mixing ratios for the ERA5 simulations and large differences between ERA5, MERRA2
792 and WACCM-REFD1. This prompted us to study the TEM budget of N₂O in these datasets,
793 in order to separate the possible impacts of the residual advection and mixing. For all
794 datasets, the analysis of the TEM budget reveals positive N₂O changes in the tropical
795 mid-high stratosphere and negative changes in the northern extratropical lower strato-
796 sphere, as a result of enhanced tropical upwelling and extratropical downwelling, respec-
797 tively. This is in agreement with the acceleration of the advective part of the BDC over
798 this relatively short period both in models (Butchart, 2014) and reanalyses (Ploeger et
799 al., 2019). For the ERA5 simulation, the positive N₂O trend above the southern mid-
800 latitudes (part of the meridional dipole) can be due to the impact of changes in both ad-
801 vection and mixing, the latter is consistent with previous studies, both using Age of Air
802 (AoA, Ploeger et al., 2015) and N₂O (Stiller et al., 2017). The TEM budget obtained
803 with MERRA2 delivers different results, with a larger impact of the residual advection
804 in forcing the N₂O trends. This discrepancy is consistent with the large differences be-
805 tween MERRA2 and other reanalyses when considering stratospheric mixing on decadal
806 time scales (e.g., Ploeger et al., 2019).

807 Using a measurable tracer for stratospheric transport studies allows direct com-
808 parisons with observations. The rate of change of N₂O at the surface is well-known and
809 approximately linear and the chemical losses are limited to the higher stratosphere. In
810 theory, this relatively simple chemistry, combined with its long life, makes N₂O a very
811 good tracer for stratospheric transport studies. Unfortunately, no ideal observational dataset
812 currently exists for N₂O-based investigations such as the present study: FTIR observa-
813 tions generally lack adequate vertical resolution, the N₂O product from the latest MLS
814 version suffers from an unrealistic drift, and ACE-FTS has poor spatial and temporal
815 sampling. Here, we showed how model studies of N₂O trends still provide new insights
816 about the BDC and its changes thanks to properly taking into account the ACE-FTS
817 sampling, complementary sensitivity tests, and the TEM analysis. Despite the shortcom-
818 ings of the TEM approach, i.e., the difficulty of closing its budget, its combination with
819 sensitivity tests provides new insights on transport changes and their impacts on the com-
820 position of the stratosphere. This approach could be extended to other tracers that are
821 both measured and modeled - e.g., carbon monoxide, methane, and inorganic fluorine.

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839 doi.org/10.5065/D6RX99HX. The WACCM and BASCOE CTM data used for the N₂O

840 trends and TEM comparisons in the study are available at the BIRA-IASB repository
841 (<http://repository.aeronomie.be>) via <https://dx.doi.org/10.18758/71021071> with
842 CC BY license (Minganti & Errera, 2022). FTIR data at the various stations are avail-
843 able at <https://www-air.larc.nasa.gov/pub/NDACC/PUBLIC/stations/>. ACE-FTS
844 data are available at https://databace.scisat.ca/level2/ace_v4.1/display_data
845 [.php](#). ERA5 data are available at <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/>. ERA-Interim
846 data are available at <https://apps.ecmwf.int/datasets/>. JRA-55 data are available
847 at <https://rda.ucar.edu/>. MERRA2 data are available at [https://disc.gsfc.nasa](https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets/)
848 [.gov/datasets/](#). The DLM source code is available at [https://github.com/justinalsing/](https://github.com/justinalsing/dlmmc)
849 [dlmmc](#).

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