



Deposited via The University of Leeds.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:

<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/id/eprint/131572/>

Version: Accepted Version

Article:

Garcia, RR, López-Puertas, M, Funke, B et al. (2016) On the secular trend of CO_x and CO₂ in the lower thermosphere. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 121 (7). pp. 3634-3644. ISSN: 2169-897X

<https://doi.org/10.1002/2015JD024553>

©2016. American Geophysical Union. This is an author produced version of a paper published in *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*. Uploaded in accordance with the publisher's self-archiving policy.

Reuse

Items deposited in White Rose Research Online are protected by copyright, with all rights reserved unless indicated otherwise. They may be downloaded and/or printed for private study, or other acts as permitted by national copyright laws. The publisher or other rights holders may allow further reproduction and re-use of the full text version. This is indicated by the licence information on the White Rose Research Online record for the item.

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.

1

2

3

On the secular trend of CO_x and CO₂ in the lower thermosphere

4

5

Rolando R. Garcia¹, Manuel López-Puertas², Bernd Funke², Douglas E. Kinnison¹,

6

Daniel R. Marsh¹, and Liying Qian¹

7

8

9

10

11

12

13

14 ¹National Center for Atmospheric Research, Boulder, CO, USA

15 ²Instituto de Astrofísica de Andalucía, CSIC, Granada, Spain

16 Corresponding author: R. R. Garcia, National Center for Atmospheric Research, Boulder,

17 CO, 80307-3000, USA (rgarcia@ucar.edu)

18

19 **Key points:**

- 20 • Observations suggest that CO₂ in the lower thermosphere has increased rapidly
21 since the early 2000s.
- 22 • The observed behavior cannot be simulated by a comprehensive climate-chemistry
23 model.
- 24 • Model and observations could be reconciled if vertical eddy mixing has increased
25 by about 30% per decade.

Abstract

26
27
28 An analysis of recent observations (2004-2013) made by the ACE-FTS instrument
29 indicate that total carbon ($\text{CO}_x = \text{CO} + \text{CO}_2$) has been increasing rapidly in the lower
30 thermosphere, above 10^{-3} hPa (90 km). The estimated trend ($\sim 9\%$ per decade) is about a
31 factor of two larger than the rate of increase that can be ascribed to anthropogenic
32 emissions of CO_2 ($\sim 5\%$ per decade). Here we investigate whether the observed trends of
33 CO_2 and CO_x can be reproduced using the Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model
34 (WACCM), a comprehensive global model with interactive chemistry, wherein vertical
35 eddy diffusion is estimated from a parameterization of gravity wave breaking that can
36 respond to changes in the model climate. We find that the modeled trends of CO_2 and CO_x
37 do not differ significantly at any altitude from the value expected from anthropogenic
38 increases of CO_2 , and that WACCM does not produce significant changes in eddy
39 diffusivity. We show that the discrepancy between model and observations cannot be
40 attributed to uncertainties associated with geophysical noise and instrumental effects, to
41 difficulties separating a linear trend from the 11-year solar signal, or to sparse sampling by
42 ACE-FTS. Estimates of the impact of vertical diffusion on CO_2 in the model indicate that a
43 large increase in K_{zz} ($\sim 30\%$ per decade) would be necessary to reconcile WACCM results
44 with observations. It might be possible to ascertain whether such a large change in vertical
45 mixing has in fact taken place by examining the trend of water vapor in the upper
46 mesosphere.

47 **1. Introduction.**

48 *Emmert et al.* (2012) calculated the global linear trend of CO_x (the sum of CO and
49 CO₂) from observations made by the Atmospheric Chemistry Experiment Fourier
50 Transform Spectrometer (ACE-FTS) between April 2004 and September 2011, and
51 documented a very fast rate of increase at altitudes above about 10⁻³ hPa (~90 km). Near
52 100 km, the linear trend of CO_x was approximately 9% per decade, which is much faster
53 than the anthropogenic rate of increase of CO₂ in the lower atmosphere for the period in
54 question (~5% per decade). *Emmert et al.* analyzed the trend in CO_x in order to minimize
55 the effects of the solar cycle on CO₂, since the photolysis of this gas by UV radiation
56 (which produces CO) becomes important above 90 km and varies strongly with solar
57 activity. Insofar as CO₂ represents the bulk of CO_x below about 100 km, *Emmert et al.*
58 ascribed the trend in CO_x to increases in CO₂. They also showed, using a one-dimensional
59 model with interactive chemistry [*Roble, 1995*], that the observed trend in CO_x could be
60 due to a corresponding trend in vertical eddy diffusion of 15% per decade, since such a
61 trend would increase the rate of transport of CO₂ into the lower thermosphere. Indeed,
62 *Garcia et al.* [2014] have shown that, in the range of altitude 90-105 km (about 10⁻³ to 10⁻⁴
63 hPa), the mixing ratio of CO₂ is controlled principally by the competition between eddy
64 diffusion and molecular diffusive separation.

65 *Emmert et al.*'s conclusions regarding a fast rate of increase of CO₂ in the lower
66 thermosphere are supported by the recent study of *Yue et al.* [2015], who used SABER
67 (Sounding of the Atmosphere by Broadband Emission Radiometry) observations from 2002
68 through 2014, and estimated a rate of increase of CO₂ exceeding 10% per decade above
69 100 km. While SABER observations do not include CO, *Yue et al.* performed a multiple

70 linear regression that included the solar 10.7 cm radio flux as a predictor to account for the
71 influence of solar activity on CO₂.

72 Here we investigate whether the large trends of CO₂ and CO_x in the upper atmosphere
73 derived from observations can be reproduced in simulations made with the Whole
74 Atmosphere Community Climate Model (WACCM), a three-dimensional, global climate
75 model with interactive chemistry. The model is discussed briefly in Section 2, with
76 emphasis on the question of transport in the mesosphere and lower thermosphere (MLT),
77 which is dominated by the divergence of vertical eddy fluxes due to breaking gravity
78 waves. While these small-scale waves cannot be simulated explicitly at the relatively coarse
79 spatial and temporal resolutions used in a climate model, they are parameterized in such a
80 way that they can respond to changes in the model's climate.

81 In Section 3, we compare updated ACE-FTS observations that span the period 2004
82 through 2013 with WACCM simulations of the same period to show that the simulated CO
83 and CO₂ agree well with the observations in the lower thermosphere. In Section 4, we
84 derive trends in CO_x and CO₂ from the ACE-FTS data and compare them with trends
85 derived from WACCM output, and with the earlier estimates of *Emmert et al.* [2012]. The
86 trends derived from the data are consistent with the findings of *Emmert et al.*, and are much
87 larger than the model trends above 90 km. In fact, WACCM-derived trends in the lower
88 thermosphere are not significantly different from the trends below the mesopause, which
89 are ascribable to anthropogenic emissions of CO₂. We go on to examine several possible
90 sources of uncertainty that might account for the discrepancy between observed and
91 modeled trends, and conclude that none can explain the differences between the model and
92 the observations. Finally, we estimate the impact of increases in vertical eddy diffusion on

93 the trends computed with WACCM, and find that a rather large K_{zz} trend, of over 30% per
94 decade, would be needed to reconcile the model with the observations. In Section 5, we
95 summarize our findings and suggest additional observations that might be useful for
96 ascertaining whether such increases in vertical eddy diffusion might have taken place in the
97 Earth’s upper atmosphere.

98 **2. Numerical model**

99 The Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model (WACCM) is a global climate
100 model with interactive chemistry that spans the range of altitude 0-140 km. In this study,
101 we use the “specified dynamics” version (SD-WACCM), described by *Garcia et al.* [2014].
102 In SD-WACCM, winds and temperature are constrained by NASA’s Modern-Era
103 Retrospective Analysis (MERRA) data [*Rienecker et al.*, 2011] everywhere below
104 approximately 1 hPa, using the procedure discussed by *Kunz et al.* [2011]. The use of SD-
105 WACCM for the present investigation is motivated by the desire to study the particular
106 period, 2004 through 2013, covered by the ACE-FTS observations described in the next
107 section. While SD-WACCM is free running above 1 hPa, *Liu et al.* [2009] have shown that
108 the dynamics of the mesosphere and lower thermosphere are strongly influenced by the
109 behavior of the lower atmosphere. In the remainder of this paper, we refer to the model
110 simply as WACCM, with the understanding that all simulations have been carried out with
111 the specified dynamics version.

112 The reader is referred to the study of *Garcia et al.* [2014] for additional details of the
113 specified dynamics configuration. Here, we emphasize only the parameterization of small-
114 scale gravity waves, since vertical mixing due to gravity wave breaking is the principal

115 upward transport mechanism in the lower thermosphere, below 10^{-4} hPa, particularly in the
116 global-mean sense. The gravity wave parameterization attempts to take into account the
117 excitation of mesoscale waves by various physical mechanisms, such as flow over
118 orography, deep convection, and frontal zones. Non-orographic gravity wave source
119 spectra are dependent on convective heat release in the Tropics and frontal zones diagnosed
120 in extra-tropical latitudes, as described in detail by *Richter et al.* [2010]. Because
121 parameterized gravity wave sources are related to physical processes simulated in the
122 underlying global model, their behavior can potentially change as the model climate
123 changes. For example, the source spectra will change if the characteristics of convection or
124 the frequency or intensity of fronts diagnosed in the model changes; and the propagation of
125 the waves to the MLT will be influenced by the behavior of the zonal-mean zonal wind
126 systems in the stratosphere.

127 We note that the effective value of K_{zz} calculated with WACCM depends also on the
128 value assumed for the Prandtl number, Pr , which describes the ratio of the eddy momentum
129 flux to the eddy flux of potential temperature or chemical species [see *Garcia et al.*, 2007].
130 The value used in the study of *Garcia et al.* [2014] was $Pr = 4$. As discussed in that study,
131 comparison of simulated and observed CO and CO₂ suggests that a smaller value, $Pr = 2$,
132 might be more appropriate; therefore, we use simulations made with $Pr = 2$ to compute
133 model trends in this study. Nevertheless, in Section 4 we use results from our earlier
134 simulation with $Pr = 4$ to estimate the potential impact of changes in K_{zz} on the trends of
135 CO_x and CO₂. (It should be notedemphasized, however, that the trends of CO₂ and CO_x in
136 WACCM are insensitive to Pr as long as the value of Pr is constant throughout the
137 simulation).

138 **3. Comparison of observed and modeled CO and CO₂**

139 The Atmospheric Chemistry Experiment Fourier Transform Spectrometer (ACE-FTS)
140 on SCISAT-1 has been making solar occultation measurements of CO and CO₂ since 2004
141 [Boone *et al.*, 2005; Clerbaux *et al.*, 2008; Beagley *et al.*, 2010]. CO₂ volume mixing ratio
142 (vmr) is retrieved from 50 to 120 km; the vertical resolution averages 3-4 km, varying from
143 2 to 6 km depending on the time of the year. Random errors are 2.5-5%, depending on
144 latitude, and systematic errors range from 2% at the low altitudes (50-70 km) to about 5%
145 at 90 km, 9% at 100 km, and 16% at 118.5 km [Beagley *et al.*, 2010]. CO vmr is retrieved
146 in the range from 8 km to about 100 km [Clerbaux *et al.*, 2008]. The vertical resolution
147 above about 1 hPa is about 4 km, degrading to 6 km in the upper mesosphere. The random
148 errors of the CO measurements are < 10% in the mesosphere and lower thermosphere;
149 systematic errors are < 25% from 30 to 100 km. The ACE-FTS observations, as well as the
150 data screening procedures employed, are discussed in more detailed by Garcia *et al.*
151 [2014]. The data used here is version 3.5 [Boone *et al.*, 2013] and was obtained from the
152 ACE Science Team at the University of Waterloo, Canada. We note that ACE observations
153 are processed in geometric coordinates. However, the final data products are provided in
154 both geometric and pressure coordinates, and we use data in pressure coordinates in all
155 comparisons with WACCM.

156 CO has also been observed by the Michelson Interferometer for Passive Atmospheric
157 Sounding (MIPAS) using the “middle atmosphere” and “upper atmosphere” modes
158 [Oelhaf, 2008], which cover the altitude ranges 20-102 km and 40-170 km, respectively.
159 The vertical resolution of the MIPAS CO profiles is 4–7 km below 60 km at night and
160 below 95 km during daytime, and 7-14 km above those altitudes. The single-measurement

161 precision (noise error) is 40-80% below 60 km, and 30-60% above, while the systematic
162 error is estimated to range between 8 and 15 % [Funke *et al.*, 2009]. The MIPAS data are
163 also discussed in detail by Garcia *et al.* [2014].

164 Figure 1 shows time series of WACCM CO and CO₂ together with observations at
165 several levels in the lower thermosphere: 6×10^{-5} hPa (~108 km), 2×10^{-4} hPa (~100 km)
166 and 10^{-3} hPa (~90 km). For CO₂, WACCM is within 10% of the ACE-FTS observations at
167 all levels except 6×10^{-5} hPa, where the differences reach 15-20%. While the discrepancies
168 are not large compared to the measurement errors for ACE-FTS, WACCM results for CO₂
169 are uniformly low in all cases. For CO, the WACCM simulation is generally closer to
170 observations, especially given the large measurement errors. However, at 10^{-3} hPa,
171 WACCM CO is systematically higher than both ACE-FTS and MIPAS. In spite of these
172 discrepancies, WACCM reproduces well the long-term variability of the data, which is
173 dominated by the solar cycle, in particular at the higher altitudes.

174 The effect of the solar cycle can be largely removed by considering total carbon, CO_x,
175 which in the lower thermosphere is essentially the sum of CO and CO₂. Figure 2 shows a
176 comparison of modeled and observed CO_x at 10^{-3} and 2×10^{-4} hPa, two levels where both
177 CO and CO₂ are measured by ACE-FTS. Since CO_x at these levels is dominated by CO₂,
178 the agreement is within 10%, as was the case for CO₂ in Figure 1, with WACCM being
179 systematically low compared to ACE-FTS. In both model and observations, the evolution
180 of CO_x shows mainly an increasing trend, with no indication of any solar cycle influence.
181 The rate of increase of CO_x is clearly faster in ACE-FTS than in WACCM, and this
182 difference will be quantified in the next section, where we calculate linear trends. An
183 additional difference between model and observations, both for CO_x and for CO and CO₂

184 individually, is that the observations exhibit considerably larger short-term variability than
185 the model. The potential effect of this difference on the calculation of trends from
186 WACCM output will be addressed below.

187 4. Calculation and comparison of linear trends

188 Time series of CO_x in WACCM are constructed from monthly-mean, globally
189 averaged output for CO and CO₂. The model output was de-seasonalized by subtracting the
190 composite monthly seasonal cycle for the period 2004-2013 at each model level. ACE-FTS
191 data were treated here in the same way as the WACCM output; that is, de-seasonalized,
192 global monthly averages were calculated from the data on each pressure level. This differs
193 from the procedure employed by *Emmert et al.* [2012] but yields very similar trends, as
194 shown below.

195 We characterize the long-term behavior of CO_x in the 10-year period 2004 to 2013 in
196 terms of the linear trend obtained from a multiple linear regression (MLR). The regression
197 model used is:

$$198 \quad \psi = a + b \cdot t + c \cdot s(t) + d \cdot qbo_1(t) + e \cdot qbo_2(t) \quad (1)$$

199 where t is time; s is a solar cycle predictor, here taken to be the 10.7 cm radio flux; and
200 qbo_1 , and qbo_2 are two linearly independent indices of the quasi-biennial oscillation (QBO),
201 represented by the zonal-mean zonal wind at 10 and 30 hPa, respectively. The
202 autocorrelation of the residuals of the fit was taken into account when estimating the
203 uncertainty of the trend [*Tiao et al.*, 1990]. No attempt was made to include in the MLR
204 predictors for ENSO (El Niño-Southern Oscillation) or for volcanic eruptions. In practice, it
205 turns out that even the QBO predictors explain a negligible fraction of the variance of CO_x

206 in the lower thermosphere. Likewise, the solar predictor turns out to be relatively
207 unimportant at the altitudes (below about 105 km) where CO_x data are available from ACE-
208 FTS. Note that this is not true of CO₂ alone, which is photolyzed by UV radiation to
209 produce CO. However, the combination of CO and CO₂ into a total carbon variable, CO_x,
210 has the desirable effect of minimizing the impact of the solar cycle on the MLR.

211 Figure 3 compares the vertical profile of the linear trend coefficient, *b*, obtained when
212 the MLR defined by Eq. (1) is applied to ACE-FTS observations and to WACCM output.
213 Three things are immediately obvious from the figure: The trend calculated from ACE-FTS
214 measurements reaches a maximum of 8.5% at 95-100 km, consistent with the results of
215 *Emmert et al.* [2002], who analyzed a shorter period (2004-2011); the trend calculated from
216 WACCM output in the lower thermosphere is statistically indistinguishable from the trend
217 at lower altitudes; and the WACCM trend is significantly different from that derived from
218 ACE-FTS observations in the lower thermosphere, between 2×10^{-3} hPa (~85 km) and $2 \times$
219 10^{-4} hPa (~100 km). As in *Emmert et al.*, our estimate of the ACE-FTS trend below 80 km
220 (~ 10^{-2} hPa) is influenced by *a priori* assumptions about CO₂ inherent in the ACE-FTS
221 retrieval, which yield too low a trend for the period under examination. However, as noted
222 by *Emmert et al.*, this does not affect the estimate of the trend above 90 km (~ 10^{-3} hPa).

223 We consider next whether the statistical significance of the WACCM-ACE differences
224 might be exaggerated because WACCM CO_x has substantially less short-term variability
225 than ACE-FTS data. Specifically, the WACCM time series shown in Figures 1 and 2 are
226 constructed from true zonal means averaged globally over latitude, whereas ACE-FTS solar
227 occultation observations are much more sparse, both in longitude and latitude, and in time,
228 and they are subject to measurement errors not present in WACCM. A cursory

229 examination of Figures 1 and 2 reveals that the high-frequency variability is about a factor
230 of 2 larger in the ACE-FTS time series than in the WACCM time series. We therefore test
231 the sensitivity of the WACCM trends to the addition of “random noise”, which we
232 simulate simply by adding to the time series of WACCM CO and CO₂ a series of normally
233 distributed pseudo-random numbers, multiplied times the standard deviation of the original
234 time series at each altitude; this has the effect of increasing the standard deviation of the
235 resulting “noisy” time series by about a factor of $\sqrt{2}$ compared to the original. As a result,
236 the high-frequency variability of the treated WACCM output is similar to that seen in ACE-
237 FTS data (not shown). The linear CO_x trend profile extracted from the WACCM output
238 with added noise is shown in Figure 4. While the uncertainty of the trend is much larger
239 than for the original WACCM output (Figure 3) the trend in the thermosphere remains
240 statistically undistinguishable from the trend at lower altitudes, and statistically different
241 from the ACE-FTS trend between about 85 and 100 km.

242 We have also tested whether uncertainties in our knowledge of 11-year solar variability
243 at UV wavelengths might influence the CO_x trend derived from WACCM. As discussed by
244 *Ermolli et al.* [2013], recent measurements of spectral solar irradiance (SSI) variability
245 differ substantially from estimates based on empirical models. In particular, *Ball et al.*
246 [2014] show that the 11-year variability observed by the SOLSTICE instrument onboard
247 NASA’s SORCE satellite is much larger at wavelengths < 300 nm than predicted by
248 models such as NRLSSI [*Lean et al.*, 1997] and SATIRE [*Krivova et al.*, 2011]. For CO_x,
249 we are interested in the range of wavelength 121-200 nm, which dominates CO₂ photolysis
250 below ~105 km [cf. *Garcia et al.*, 2014; their Figure 1]. At these wavelengths, SSI changes
251 over the 11-year solar cycle are about a factor of two larger in SOLSTICE observations

252 than in either of the aforementioned models. SSI in WACCM is prescribed using the
253 NRLSSI model, so we adjusted SSI variability in the range 120-200 nm to be twice as
254 predicted by this model, with no changes elsewhere in the spectrum, and carried out a new
255 simulation of the period 2004-2013. The resulting CO_x trend profile is compared with the
256 original trend profile in Figure 5. It is evident that the larger SSI variability at 120-200 nm
257 introduces little additional uncertainty in the WACCM CO_x trend, even at 100 km. This is
258 not wholly surprising because the use of CO_x is intended to minimize the effect of solar
259 variability on the estimate of the long-term trend. In addition, as shown by *Garcia et al.*
260 [2014] (cf. their Figure 9), the mixing ratio of CO₂ below 10⁻⁴ hPa (~105 km) is determined
261 mainly by the competition between vertical eddy diffusion due to gravity wave breaking
262 and molecular diffusive separation, with a smaller influence from UV photolysis.

263 Finally, we have considered whether the sparse sampling inherent in solar occultation
264 observations might contribute to the differences in the trend profiles derived from ACE-
265 FTS and WACCM. To investigate this possibility, we extracted WACCM vertical profiles
266 of CO and CO₂ at the geo-locations (longitude, latitude, and time) nearest to ACE-FTS
267 observations for the period 2004-2013. We then performed a trend analysis after processing
268 the data as described by *Emmert et al.* [2012], with one exception: we regressed the
269 WACCM output on both time (the linear trend) and on the solar f10.7 cm radio flux. As
270 noted previously, regression on a solar predictor does not affect the results below 10⁻⁴ hPa
271 (~105 km), although it becomes increasingly important at higher altitudes, where CO_x is no
272 longer conserved due to differences in molecular diffusion between CO and CO₂. The
273 resulting trend profile is shown in Figure 6. It is clear that, even when the model is sampled

274 using the ACE geo-locations, the WACCM trend is significantly smaller than the ACE-FTS
275 trend at altitudes between about 85 and 100 km.

276 **5. Summary and Discussion**

277 The results presented above show that the global trend of CO_x in the lower
278 thermosphere calculated with WACCM is not significantly different from the trend
279 ascribable to anthropogenic increases in CO_2 , and that this trend (nowhere larger than
280 5.5%) is much smaller than the trend calculated from ACE-FTS observations (8-9% per
281 decade in the lower thermosphere). We have also shown that, even when we consider
282 several plausible sources of uncertainty that might affect the WACCM CO_x trend, that trend
283 remains smaller and statistically different from the ACE-FTS trend in the lower
284 thermosphere.

285 *Emmert et al.* [2012] suggested that the CO_x trend derived from ACE-FTS
286 observations could be explained if the rate of eddy diffusive transport of CO_2 into the lower
287 thermosphere was itself increasing. We have examined the evolution of the vertical
288 diffusion coefficient, K_{zz} , estimated from the gravity wave parameterization in WACCM
289 and find no statistical significant trend anywhere in the model domain during the period
290 under consideration, 2004-2013; this is consistent with the lack of any trend in CO_2 or CO_x
291 in the model beyond that due to anthropogenic emissions.

292 The value of K_{zz} in WACCM is predicted by the gravity wave parameterization
293 interactively with the underlying, resolved dynamics, and cannot easily be adjusted *ad hoc*.
294 However, we can estimate the impact of K_{zz} on chemical species by comparing otherwise
295 identical simulations made with a different value of the Prandtl number, Pr , which

296 describes the ratio of the eddy momentum flux to the eddy flux of chemical species [see
297 *Garcia et al.*, 2007]. In particular, halving Pr has the effect of increasing the effective
298 magnitude of K_{zz} by approximately a factor of two. As noted in Section 2, the simulations
299 examined thus far were made using $Pr = 2$, but we also have at hand earlier simulations,
300 discussed by *Garcia et al.* [2014], that used $Pr = 4$. By comparing CO and CO₂ across the
301 simulations, we can ascertain the impact of doubling K_{zz} on these species. Then, if we
302 assume that changes in CO and CO₂ are linear in K_{zz} , we can estimate the impact of smaller
303 changes in K_{zz} acting over one decade, and thus estimate the decadal trend in eddy diffusion
304 that is necessary to bring WACCM CO_x trends into agreement with ACE-FTS trends.

305 Figure 7 shows the estimated effect on the WACCM CO_x trend of increasing K_{zz} at
306 various rates. The figure reproduces the trend results shown earlier in Figure 3,
307 superimposing upon those our estimates of the trends that would result if K_{zz} in WACCM
308 increased at 25%, 33% and 50% per decade. Above about 10⁻² hPa, where CO₂ is no longer
309 well mixed, changes in K_{zz} begin to impact the CO_x trend, and a trend of 33% per decade in
310 K_{zz} gives the best match to the observed trend in CO_x below about 2 x 10⁻⁴ hPa (95 km).
311 Above that altitude there are substantial differences between the estimated WACCM trend
312 and the ACE-FTS trend; better agreement might have been achieved by limiting the altitude
313 range over which K_{zz} changes, but we have avoided any such arbitrary modifications, if for
314 no other reason that they would have required additional calculations that are not easily
315 implemented in the model. A similar mismatch between the modeled and observed trend
316 profiles occurred when *Emmert et al.* used a one-dimensional model to support their
317 argument for an increase in the rate of vertical diffusion (cf. their Figure 2). Thus, neither
318 the results presented in Figure 7 nor those of *Emmert et al.* produce a completely

319 satisfactory agreement between modeled and observed trends of CO_x , although they are
320 able to match the observed trends over much of the lower thermosphere.

321 Similar results are obtained when trends in CO_2 alone are considered, as shown in
322 Figure 8. Again, a decadal increase in K_{zz} of about a third would bring the WACCM trend
323 of CO_2 into line with the trend obtained from ACE-FTS data. Incidentally, the ACE-FTS
324 trend of CO is statistically indistinguishable from zero everywhere above 90 km (not
325 shown). Thus, the discrepancy in modeled versus observed trends in CO_x is dominated by
326 the behavior of CO_2 , at least below 100-105 km, where most of the total carbon resides in
327 CO_2 . The very large trend in CO_2 obtained from ACE-FTS data (which exceeds 12% near
328 105 km) is consistent with the recent study of *Yue et al.* [2015], who estimated the trend in
329 CO_2 from observations made by the SABER instrument onboard NASA's TIMED satellite
330 from 2002 through 2014. *Yue et al.* reported a trend of $\sim 10\%$ per decade above 105 km; as
331 shown in their Figure 2, the trend profile derived from SABER differs from the ACE-FTS
332 trend profile in that the trend peaks at a higher altitude, but is consistent with ACE-FTS
333 insofar as the trend in the lower thermosphere is much larger than the trend below 80 km.

334 Taken together, the SABER and ACE-FTS results make a strong case for a fast
335 increase in CO_2 in the lower thermosphere in recent years. WACCM simulations, on the
336 other hand, produce trends that are everywhere indistinguishable from the trend at lower
337 altitudes, which can be ascribed to anthropogenic emissions of CO_2 . Estimates of the
338 impact of K_{zz} on modeled trends suggest that an increase in eddy vertical mixing can bring
339 the model results into agreement with observations. This is consistent with the conclusions
340 of *Emmert et al.* [2012], who obtained a similar result using the one-dimensional, diffusive
341 model of *Roble* [1995]. The required change in K_{zz} ranges from 15% per decade in the

342 calculations of *Emmert et al.* to over 30% per decade in the estimates presented here. The
343 parameterization of gravity wave breaking included in WACCM is designed to interact
344 with the resolved dynamics of the underlying model, as discussed in Section 2, but fails to
345 produce a significant change in K_{zz} in the MLT over the period considered here (or indeed,
346 over any period in the late 20th and early 21st centuries; not shown). Furthermore, there is
347 essentially no direct evidence for a recent global increase in turbulent mixing, although the
348 work of *Hoffman et al.* [2011] suggests a local increase in gravity wave activity over
349 Juliusruh, Germany (55°N).

350 In view of the foregoing results, one might wonder whether it is possible to find
351 additional, independent evidence for a rapid increase in eddy vertical mixing in the MLT
352 since the early 2000s. Insofar as there are no global, long-term observations of gravity
353 wave breaking in the MLT, evidence for a global increase in K_{zz} would have to come from
354 global observations of minor species that are expected to respond sensitively to vertical
355 mixing. We have examined the impact of K_{zz} in WACCM on several species, including
356 atomic oxygen (which can be estimated from ozone and OH airglow observed by SABER,
357 and is measured by the SCIAMACHY instrument on the Envisat satellite [*Zhu et al.*,
358 2015]), and water vapor (which has been measured by SABER but not yet released as a
359 validated data product). As regards atomic oxygen, Smith et al. (2009) have shown that its
360 vertical profile is affected by vertical diffusion. However, wWe find that, even though O
361 exhibits a very steep vertical gradient above 80 km, it is not very sensitive to changes in K_{zz}
362 in WACCM. This happens because the vertical gradient of O is shallow at the altitudes
363 where its photochemical lifetime is long, and steep mainly where it photochemical lifetime
364 is short, which reduces the impact of transport on the local mixing ratio. Even a 50%

365 change in K_{zz} produces changes in WACCM O whose magnitude is less than 10% (not
366 shown).

367 Water vapor, on the other hand, may be a potentially useful indicator of changes in K_{zz} .
368 Water vapor is photolyzed by Lyman-alpha radiation above about 80 km, but the rate of
369 photolysis is slow enough (days to weeks) that the vertical gradient is strongly influenced
370 by eddy mixing. Figure 9 shows the estimated impact of trends in K_{zz} on the trend of water
371 vapor. Between about 85 and 95 km (3×10^{-3} to 5×10^{-4} hPa), where the H₂O mixing ratio
372 in WACCM varies from about 1 ppmv to 0.5 ppmv (not shown), a 33% per decade trend in
373 K_{zz} would produce a trend in H₂O varying from 15% per decade at 85 km to 30% per
374 decade at 95 km. This is substantially larger than the trend below the mesopause (~7% per
375 decade), which in WACCM arises mainly from specified anthropogenic emissions of
376 methane and a slight warming of the cold point tropopause during the period of interest.
377 Above 95 km, the trend in H₂O produced by increasing K_{zz} is even larger than at lower
378 altitudes, but the local mixing ratio is much less than 1 ppmv, likely making it impossible to
379 retrieve its abundance accurately.

380 *Nedoluha et al.* [2009] studied the evolution of water vapor in the mesosphere, up to
381 about 80 km, during solar cycle 23. They compared observations made by the Water Vapor
382 Millimeter-wave Spectrometer (WVMS) with data from HALOE (Halogen Occultation
383 Experiment) and other instruments that together covered the period 1992-2008. After
384 accounting for the impact of changes in Lyman-alpha radiation over the solar cycle,
385 *Nedoluha et al.* found that HALOE water vapor increased by about 8-9% between 60 and
386 80 km from 1992 through 1996; on the other hand, from 1996 through 2005 (the last year
387 of HALOE observations), water vapor decreased slightly in both HALOE and WVMS. To

388 put these findings in perspective, the WACCM water vapor trend over the decade 1992-
389 2001 (which encompasses the period of increase documented by *Nedoluha et al.*), is $\sim 8 \pm$
390 7% at 80 km and $\sim 13 \pm 12\%$ at 90 km (not shown); this may be compared to the nearly
391 altitude independent $7 \pm 10\%$ per decade obtained for 2004-2013 (Figure 9). The trend in
392 K_{zz} calculated by WACCM over the period 1992-2001 is also statistically indistinguishable
393 from zero (not shown). Evidently, WACCM water vapor can exhibit substantial inter-
394 decadal variability, comparable to that seen in the observations analyzed by *Nedoluha et*
395 *al.*, that is unrelated to eddy transport and could complicate the attribution of decadal
396 trends. Nevertheless, the estimated impact of changes in K_{zz} illustrated in Figure 9 is large
397 enough (15-30% per decade at 85-95 km) that it ought to be discernible even in the
398 presence of variability arising from other sources.

399 In summary, the evidence from the observations considered in this study points to a
400 fast rate of increase in CO_2 in the lower thermosphere that cannot be simulated with our
401 state of the art climate-chemistry model. In order for WACCM to produce trends of CO_x
402 and CO_2 in the lower thermosphere consistent with ACE-FTS and SABER observations,
403 vertical eddy diffusion would have to increase substantially (at an estimated rate of over
404 30% per decade). Examination of suitable datasets for other minor species (e.g., water
405 vapor) in the lower thermosphere would be desirable to provide independent confirmation
406 of such a rapid rate of increase in turbulent mixing.

407
408 **Acknowledgments.** The Atmospheric Chemistry Experiment (ACE), also known as
409 SCISAT, is a Canadian-led mission supported mainly by the Canadian Space Agency and
410 the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada; we thank Kaley Walker
411 for helping us access the ACE data and advising us on its use. We are also indebted to

412 Anne K. Smith and William Randel for their comments and suggestions on the original
413 version of this work; and to Marty Mlynczak and two anonymous reviewers for additional
414 comments, all of which have resulted in an improved paper. The National Center for
415 Atmospheric Research (NCAR) is sponsored by the U.S. National Science Foundation. R.
416 R. Garcia and D. R. Marsh were supported in part by NASA grants X09AJ83G and
417 NNX13AE33G, respectively. M. López-Puertas and B. Funke were supported by
418 MINECO (Spain) under grant ESP2014-54362-P, and EC FEDER funds. WACCM is a
419 component of NCAR’s Community Earth System Model (CESM), which is supported by
420 the National Science Foundation (NSF) and the Office of Science of the U.S. Department
421 of Energy. Computing resources were provided by NCAR’s Climate Simulation
422 Laboratory, sponsored by NSF and other agencies. This research was enabled by the
423 computational and storage resources of NCAR’s Computational and Information Systems
424 Laboratory (CISL). The model output and data used in this paper is listed in the references
425 or available from the authors.

- 427 Ball, W. T., N. A. Krivova, Y. C. Unruh, J. D. Haigh and S. K. Solanki (2014), A new
428 SATIRE-S Spectral Solar Irradiance reconstruction for solar cycles 21–23 and its
429 implications for stratospheric ozone, *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **71**, 4086–4101, 2014.
- 430 Beagley, S. R., C. D. Boone, V. I. Fomichev, J. J. Jin, K. Semeniuk, J. C. McConnell, and
431 P. F. Bernath (2010), First multi-year occultation observations of CO₂ in the MLT by
432 ACE satellite: Observations and analysis using the extended CMAM, *Atmos. Chem.*
433 *Phys.*, **9**, 1133–1153.
- 434 Boone, C. D., R. Nassar, K. A. Walker, Y. Rochon (2005), Retrievals for the atmospheric
435 chemistry experiment Fourier-transform spectrometer, *Appl. Opt.*, **44** (33), 7218–7231.
- 436 Boone, C. D., Walker, K. A., and Bernath, P. F. (2013), Version 3 Retrievals for the
437 Atmospheric Chemistry Experiment Fourier Transform Spectrometer (ACE-FTS). In
438 *The Atmospheric Chemistry Experiment ACE at 10: A Solar Occultation Anthology*, A.
439 Deepak Publishing, Hampton, Virginia, USA, 103–127.
- 440 Clerbaux, C. et al. (2008), CO measurements from the ACE-FTS satellite instrument: data
441 analysis and validation using ground-based, airborne and spaceborne observations,
442 *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, **8**, 2569–2594.
- 443 Emmert, J. T., M.H. Stephens, P. F. Bernath, D. P. Drob and C. D. Boone (2012),
444 Observations of increasing carbon dioxide concentrations in the Earth’s thermosphere,
445 *Nature Geoscience*, **5**, 868–871, doi:10.1038/ngeo1626.
- 446 Ermolli, I., et al., Recent variability of the solar spectral irradiance and its impact on
447 climate modeling, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, **13**, 3945–3977, 2013.

448 Fischer, H., et al. (2008), MIPAS: An instrument for atmospheric and climate research,
449 *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, **8**, 2151–2188.

450 Funke, B. et al. (2009), Carbon monoxide distributions from the upper troposphere to the
451 mesosphere inferred from 4.7 μ m non-local thermal equilibrium emissions measured by
452 MIPAS on ENVISAT, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, **9** (7), 2387–2411.

453 Garcia, R. R., D. R. Marsh, D. E. Kinnison, B. A. Boville, and F. Sassi (2007), Simulation
454 of secular trends in the middle atmosphere, 1950-2003, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **112**, D09301,
455 doi:10.1029/2006JD007485.

456 Garcia, R. R., M. López-Puertas, B. Funke, D. R. Marsh, D. E. Kinnison, A. K. Smith, and
457 F. González-Galindo (2014), On the distribution of CO₂ and CO in the mesosphere and
458 lower thermosphere, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **119**, 5700-5718, doi:10.1002/2013JD021208.

459 Hoffmann, P., M. Rapp, W. Singer, and D. Keuer (2011), Trends of mesospheric gravity
460 waves at northern middle latitudes during summer, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **116**, D00P08,
461 doi:10.1029/2011JD015717.

462 Krivova, N., S. K. Solanki, and Y. C. Unruh (2011), Towards a long-term record of solar
463 total and spectral irradiance. *J. Atmos. Sol.-Terr. Phys.*, **73**, 223–234,
464 doi:10.1016/j.jastp.2009.11. 013.

465 Kunz, A., L. L. Pan, P. Konopka, D. E. Kinnison, and S. Tilmes (2011), Chemical and
466 dynamical discontinuity at the extratropical tropopause based on START08 and
467 WACCM analysis, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **116**, D24302, doi:10.1029/2011JD016686.

468 Lean, J. L., G. J. Rottman, H. L. Kyle, T. N. Wood, J. R. Hickey and L. C. Puga (1997),
469 Detection and parameterization of variations in solar mid- and near-ultraviolet radiation
470 (200-400 nm), *J. Geophys. Res.*, **102**, 29,329-29,956.

471 Liu, H.-L., F. Sassi and R. R. Garcia (2009), Error growth in a whole atmosphere climate
472 model, *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **66**, 173-186.

473 Nedoluha, G. E., R. M. Gomez, B. C. Hicks, J. E. Wrotny, C. Boone, and Alyn Lambert
474 (2009), Water vapor measurements in the mesosphere from Mauna Loa over solar cycle
475 23, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **114**, D23303, doi: 10.1029/2009JD012504.

476 Oelhaf, H., MIPAS Mission Plan (2008), ESA Technical Note ENVI- SPPA-EOPG-TN-07-
477 0073.

478 Richter, J. H., F. Sassi, and R. R. Garcia (2010), Toward a physically based gravity wave
479 source parameterization in a general circulation model, *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **67**, 136-156.

480 Rienecker, M. M., et al. (2011), MERRA: NASA's Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for
481 Research and Applications, *Journal of Climate*, **24**, 3624-3648, doi:10.1175/JCLI-D-
482 11-00015.1.

483 Roble, R. G. (1995), Energetics of the mesosphere and thermosphere, in The Upper
484 Mesosphere and Lower Thermosphere: A Review of Experiment and Theory, *Geophys.*
485 *Monogr. Ser.*, vol. **87**, edited by R. M. Johnson and T. L. Killeen, pp. 1-21, AGU,
486 Washington, D. C., doi:10.1029/GM087p0001.

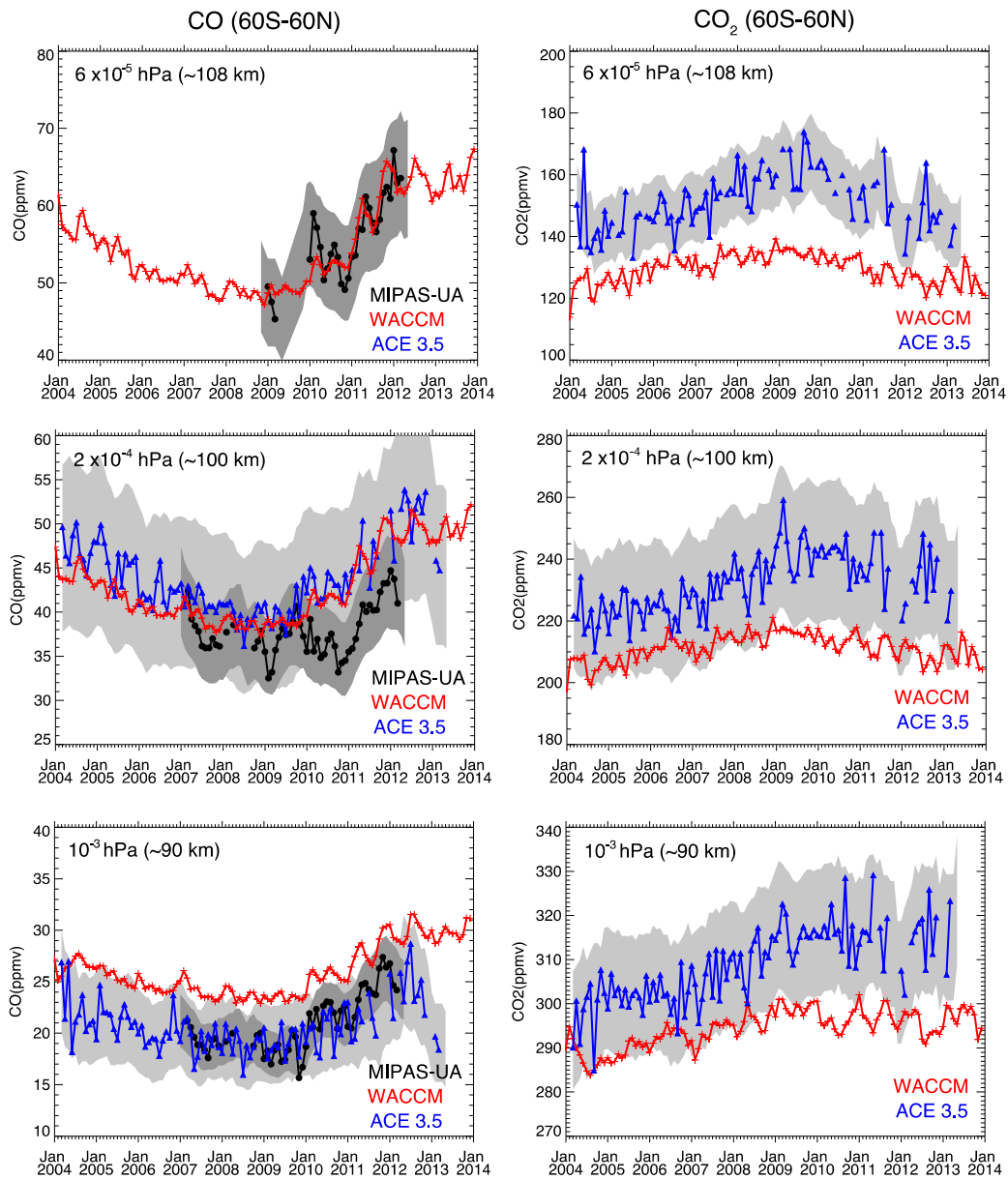
487 Smith, A. K., D. R. Marsh, M. G. Mlynczak, and J. C. Mast (2010): Temporal variations of
488 atomic oxygen in the upper mesosphere from SABER, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **115**, D18309,
489 doi:10.1029/2009JD013434.

490 Tiao, G. C., G. C. Reinsel, D. Xu, J. H. Pedrick, X. Zhu, A. J. Miller, J. J. DeLuisi, C. L.
491 Mateer, and D. J. Wuebbles (1990), Effects of autocorrelation and temporal sampling
492 schemes on estimates of trend and spatial correlation, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **95**, 20,507-
493 20,517.

494 Yue, J., J. Russell III, Y. Jian, L. Rezac, R. Garcia, M. López-Puertas, and M. G. Mlynchak
495 (2015), Increasing carbon dioxide concentration in the upper atmosphere observed by
496 SABER, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **42**, doi:10.1002/2015GL064696.

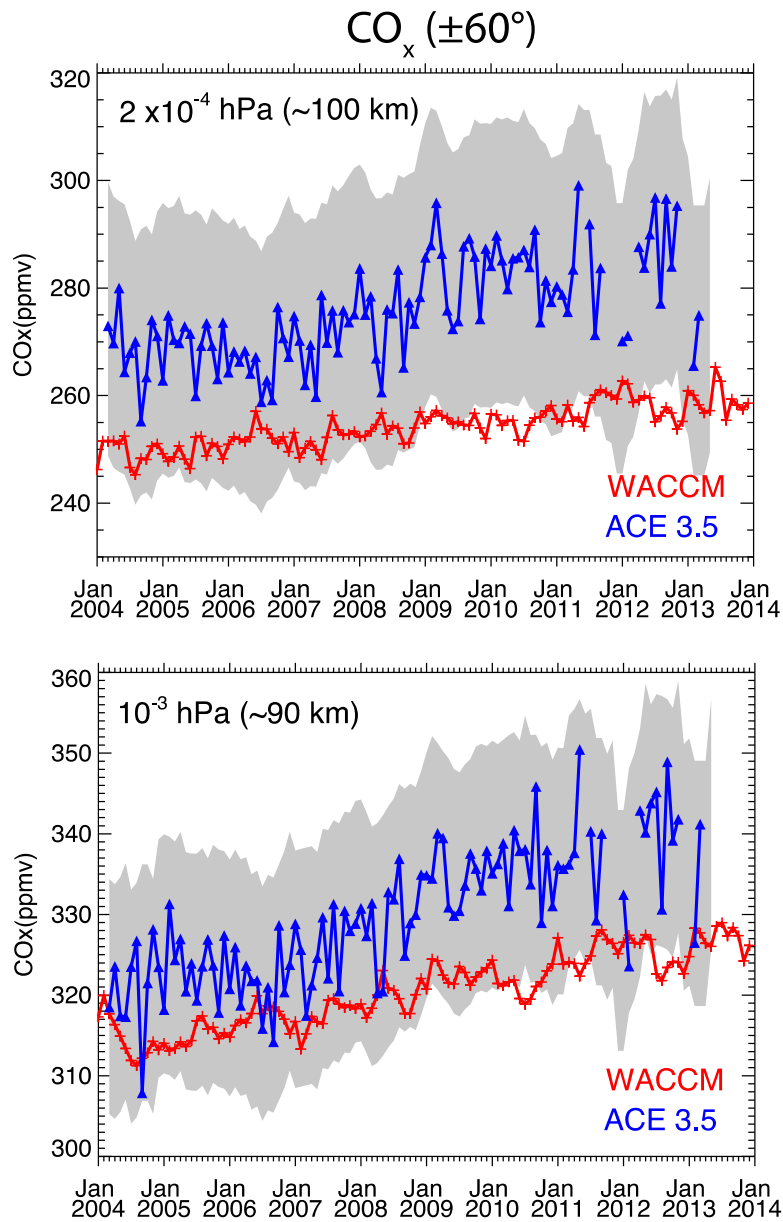
497 Zhu, Y., M. Kaufmann, M. Ern, and M. Riese: Nighttime atomic oxygen in the mesopause
498 region retrieved from SCIAMACHY O(¹S) green line measurements and its response to
499 solar cycle variations (2015), *J. Geophys. Res.*, doi: 10.1002/2015JA021405.

500



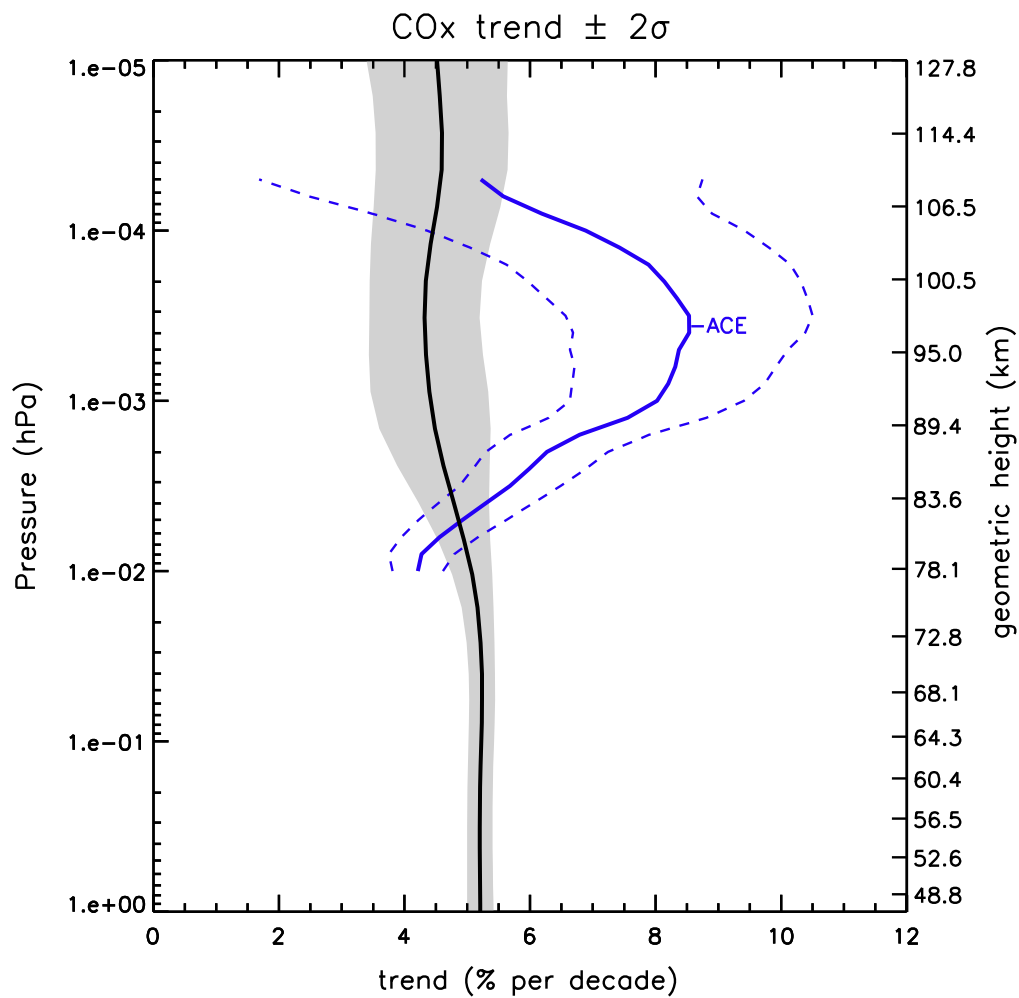
501

502 Figure 1. Evolution of observed and modeled CO (left) and CO₂ (right) averaged over 60S-
 503 60N for 2004-2013 at three pressure levels. Black and blue curves denote MIPAS and ACE
 504 data, respectively, with systematic measurement errors shaded; WACCM results are shown
 505 in red.



506

507 Figure 2. Evolution of observed and modeled CO_x averaged over 60S-60N for the period
 508 2004-2013 at $2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ hPa}$ and 10^{-3} hPa . Blue curves denote ACE data, with systematic
 509 errors shaded; WACCM results are shown in red.

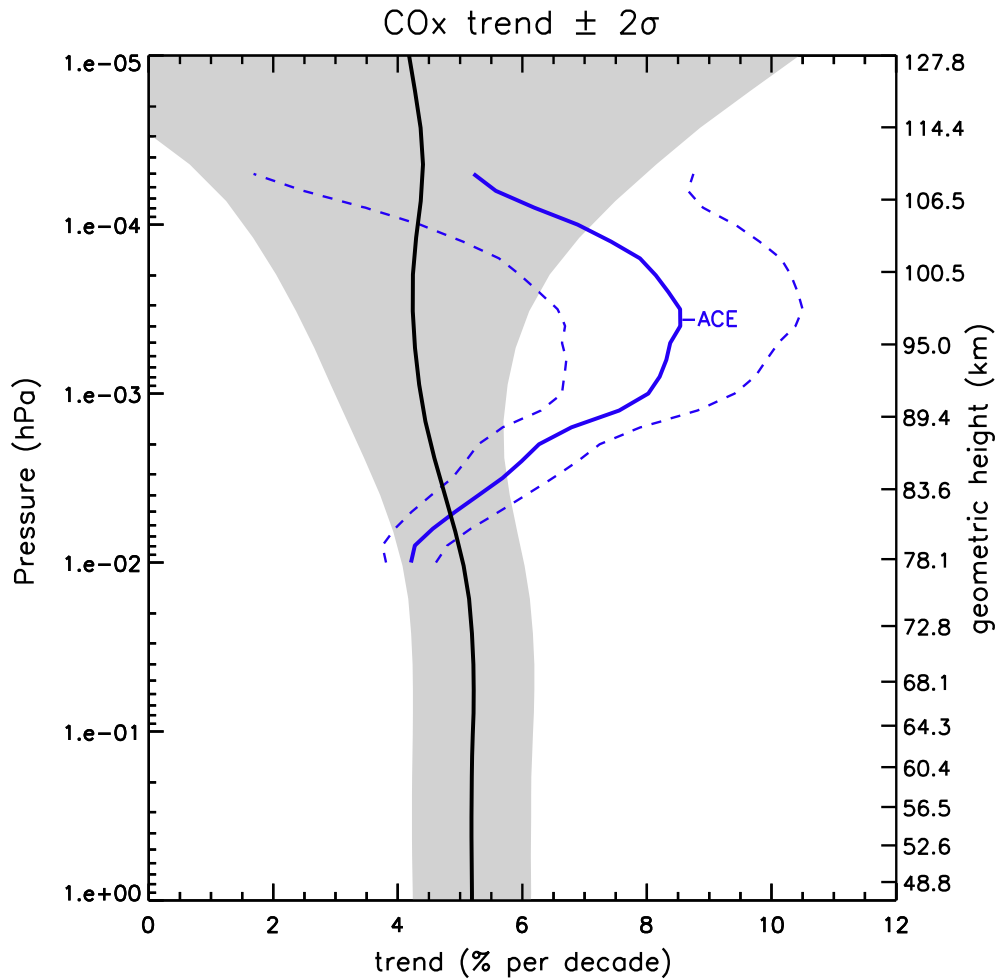


510

511 Figure 3. Vertical profile of the global trend (% per decade) of CO_x = CO + CO₂ for the
 512 period 2004-2013 derived from ACE observations (blue) and WACCM results (black).

513 Dashed lines and gray shading denote 2-sigma uncertainties of the ACE and WACCM

514 trend estimates, respectively.



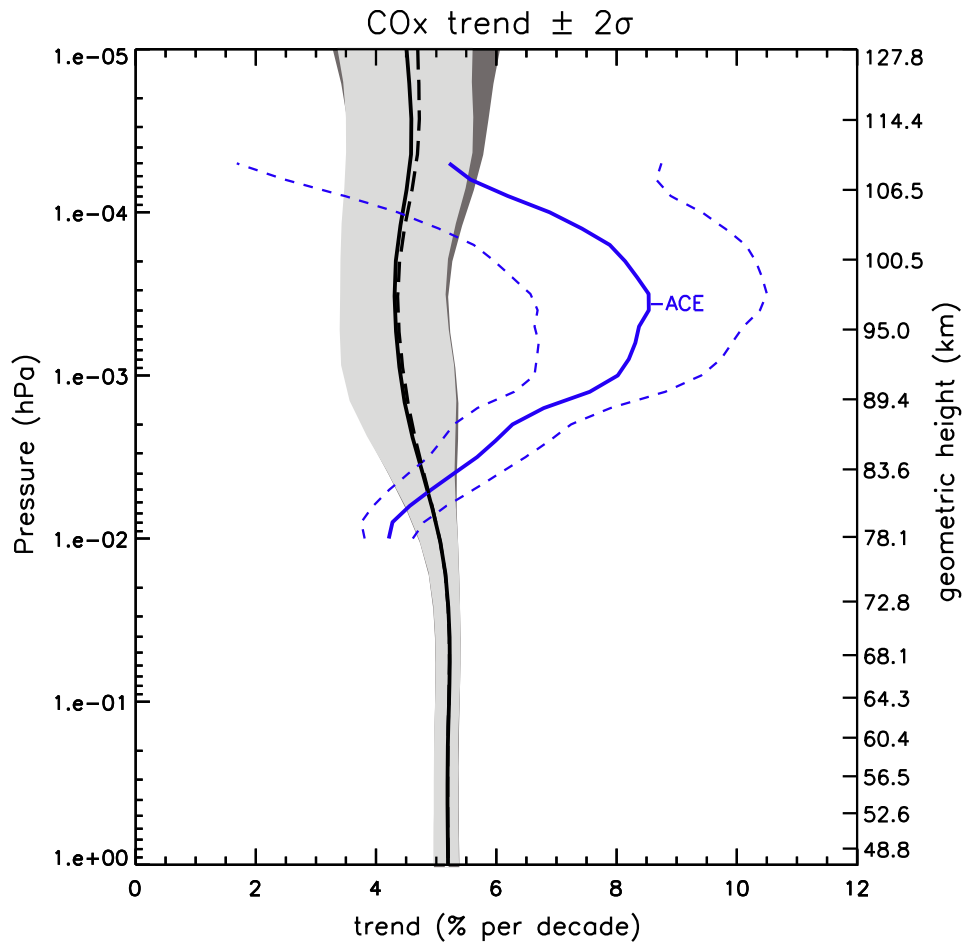
515

516 Figure 4. Effect on the WACCM CO_x trend of adding random noise to the model output.

517 The blue curve denotes the trend derived from ACE; dashed lines and gray shading denote

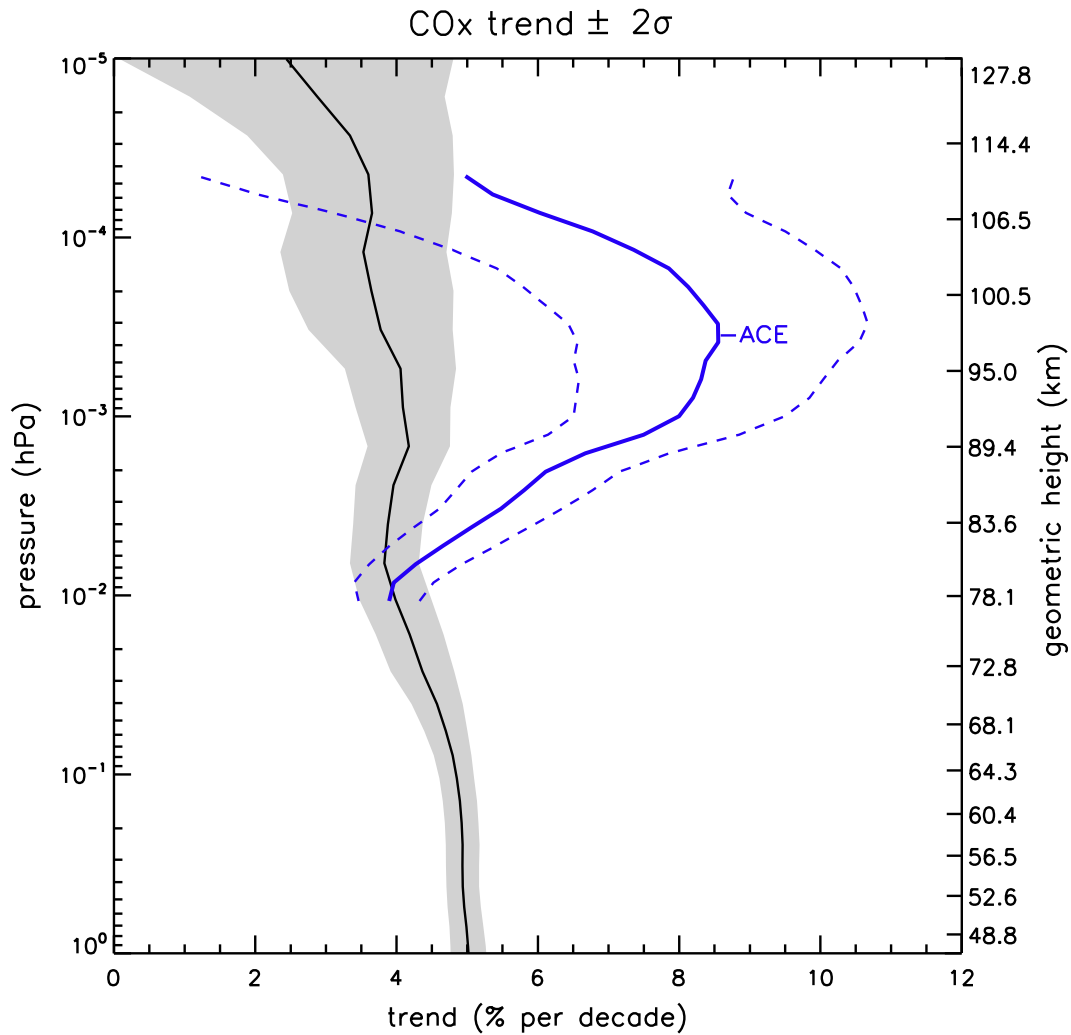
518 2-sigma uncertainties of the ACE and WACCM trend estimates, respectively. See text for

519 details.



520

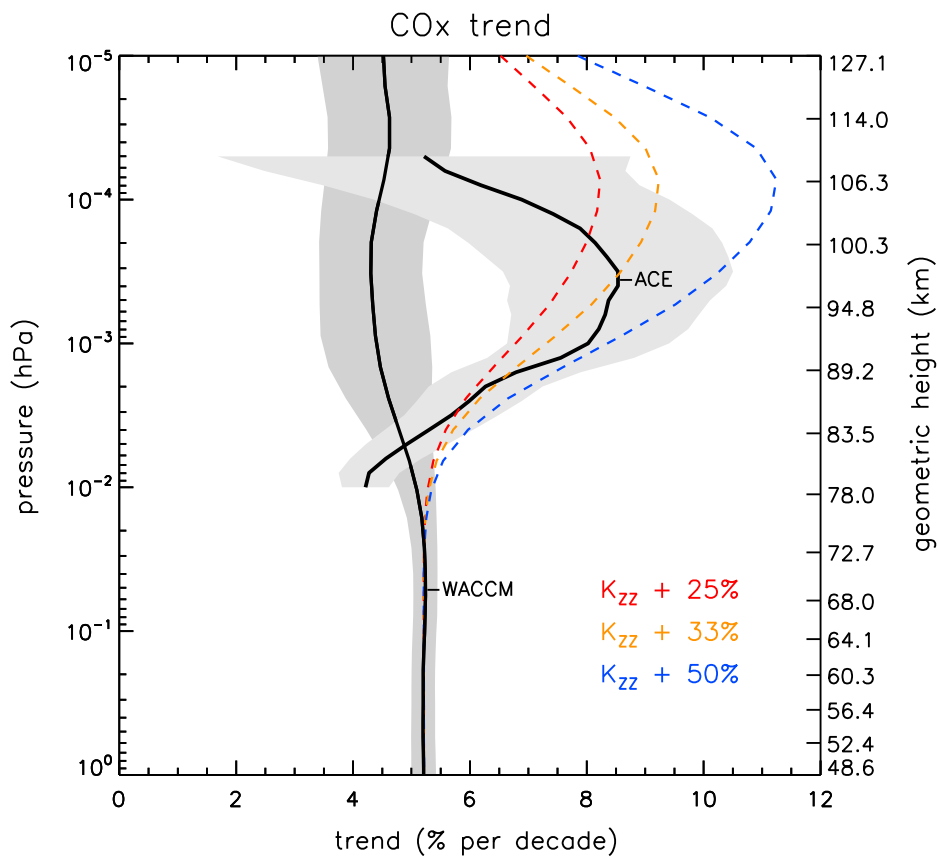
521 Figure 5. Effect on the WACCM CO_x trend of doubling the solar cycle irradiance variation
 522 at 120-200 nm. The solid curve and light shading denote the trend from the original
 523 simulation and its uncertainty; the dashed curved and dark shading refer to the simulation
 524 with increased irradiance variability. The blue curve and dashed lines denote the ACE trend
 525 and its uncertainty. See text for details.



526

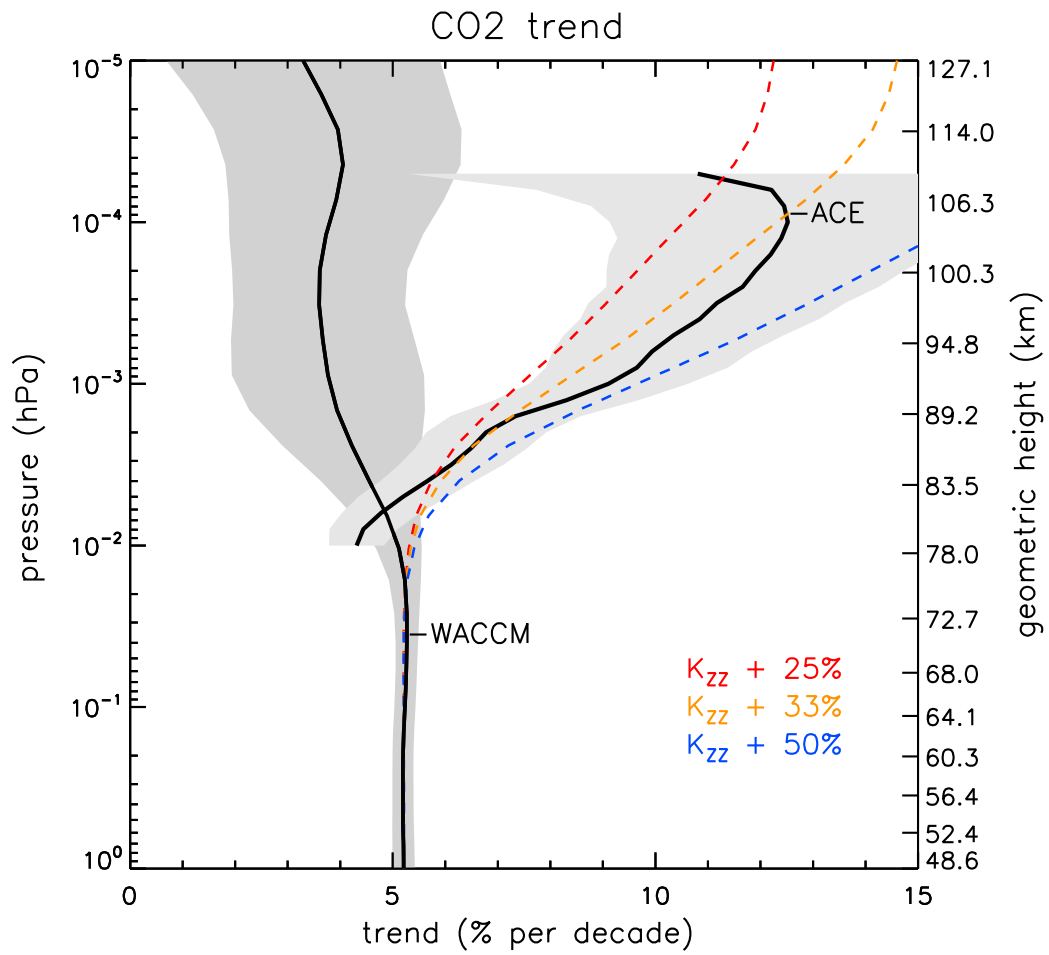
527 Figure 6. The WACCM CO_x trend obtained when the model is sampled at the geo-locations
 528 of the ACE-FTS observations compared with the trend obtained from ACE data;
 529 uncertainties are denoted by shading and dashed lines, respectively. See text for details.

530



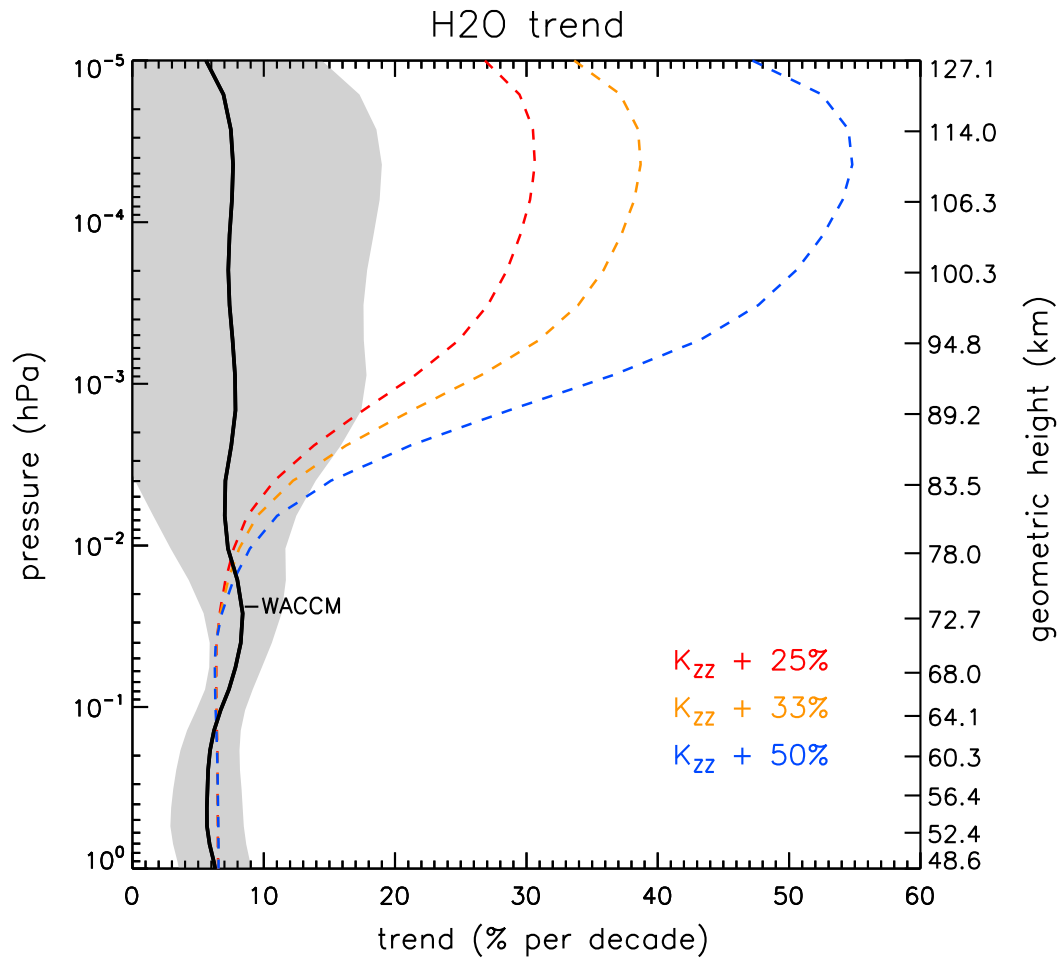
531

532 Figure 7. Effect of changing K_{zz} on the WACCM trend of CO_x . ACE and WACCM trends
 533 for 2004-2013 are denoted by the black curves, with gray shading indicating 2-sigma
 534 uncertainties. The estimated impact on WACCM results of increasing K_{zz} by 25%, 33% and
 535 50% per decade is illustrated by the colored dashed curves. See text for details.



536

537 Figure 8. As in Figure 7, but for the trend of CO₂.



538

539 Figure 9. As in Figure 7, but for the trend of H₂O.