



**Co-location
mismatch and
smoothing issues of
total ozone data
comparisons**

T. Verhoelst et al.

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Metrology of ground-based satellite validation: co-location mismatch and smoothing issues of total ozone comparisons

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Abstract

Comparisons with ground-based correlative measurements constitute a key component in the validation of satellite data on atmospheric composition. The error budget of these comparisons contains not only the measurement uncertainties but also several terms related to differences in sampling and smoothing of the inhomogeneous and variable atmospheric field. A versatile system for Observing System Simulation Experiments (OSSEs), named OSSSMOSE, is used here to quantify these terms. Based on the application of pragmatic observation operators onto high-resolution atmospheric fields, it allows a simulation of each individual measurement, and consequently also of the differences to be expected from spatial and temporal field variations between both measurements making up a comparison pair. As a topical case study, the system is used to evaluate the error budget of total ozone column (TOC) comparisons between on the one hand GOME-type direct fitting (GODFITv3) satellite retrievals from GOME/ERS2, SCIAMACHY/Envisat, and GOME-2/MetOp-A, and on the other hand direct-sun and zenith-sky reference measurements such as from Dobsons, Brewers, and zenith scattered light (ZSL-)DOAS instruments respectively. In particular, the focus is placed on the GODFITv3 reprocessed GOME-2A data record vs. the ground-based instruments contributing to the Network for the Detection of Atmospheric Composition Change (NDACC). The simulations are found to reproduce the actual measurements almost to within the measurement uncertainties, confirming that the OSSE approach and its technical implementation are appropriate. This work reveals that many features of the comparison spread and median difference can be understood as due to metrological differences, even when using strict co-location criteria. In particular, sampling difference errors exceed measurement uncertainties regularly at most mid- and high-latitude stations, with values up to 10 % and more in extreme cases. Smoothing difference errors only play a role in the comparisons with ZSL-DOAS instruments at high latitudes, especially in the presence of a polar vortex. At tropical latitudes, where TOC variability is lower, both types of errors remain below about 1 % and consequently

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do not contribute significantly to the comparison error budget. The detailed analysis of the comparison results, including now the metrological errors, suggests that the published random measurement uncertainties for GODFITv3 reprocessed satellite data are potentially overestimated, and adjustments are proposed here. This successful application of the OSSMOSE system to close for the first time the error budget of TOC comparisons, bodes well for potential future applications, which are briefly touched upon.

1 Introduction

Compliance of essential climate variable (ECV) records obtained from satellite platforms with user requirements such as those formulated within the Global Climate Observing System (GCOS) framework, is usually assessed through validation studies. These include as a key component the comparison with reference measurements from ground-based instruments (see e.g. Keppens et al., 2015, this issue, for a detailed protocol). In these validation exercises, a compromise must be made between on the one hand abundance of comparison pairs and on the other hand non-instrumental comparison errors due to non-perfect co-location in space and time between satellite and ground-based measurements. This non-perfect co-location is a consequence of both a difference in sampling, i.e. a satellite pixel center generally does not coincide exactly with a ground station, and a difference in the way each instrument has a smoothed perception of the real, non-homogeneous, atmospheric field. Indeed, the actual airmass to which the measurement is sensitive has a 4-D extent, determined by the interplay between measurement principle and atmosphere. Figure 1 visualizes this problem of different sampling and smoothing properties of the instruments that are being compared.

While pioneering literature exists on these metrology aspects of a comparison for meteorological variables (see e.g. Ridolfi et al., 2007; Lambert et al., 2012; Ignaccolo et al., 2015) and for ozone profiles (Sparling et al., 2006; Cortesi et al., 2007), they

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remain to be quantified for total ozone column (TOC) comparisons. This is the objective of the current paper. Ultimately, the aim is full error budget closure, a prerequisite for proper interpretation of the comparison results in terms of data quality.

1.1 Error budget of a data comparison

As an extension of the pioneering work by Rodgers (1990, 2000) and Rodgers and Connor (2003) to assess the error budget of retrieval-type remote sensing data comparisons, von Clarmann (2006) presents a unified formalism and Lambert et al. (2012) a multi-dimensional perspective including horizontal smoothing errors and errors due to less than perfect coincidence. The same nomenclature is followed here, and can be summarized in the following generic error budget of a data comparison, leaving out potential correlations between the different terms:

$$S_{\text{total}} = S_{1N} + S_{2N} + S_{1M} + S_{2M} + S_{\text{SH}} + S_{\text{ST}} + S_{\text{dO}_3/\text{dH}} + S_{\text{dO}_3/\text{dt}}, \quad (1)$$

where

- S_{1N} and S_{2N} represent the random component of the measurement uncertainty of the different sensors,
- S_{1M} and S_{2M} represent the systematic component of the measurement uncertainty,
- S_{SH} represents the so-called horizontal smoothing error, due to differences in smoothing of horizontal structures in the atmospheric field,
- S_{ST} represents the temporal smoothing error, due to differences in temporal averaging of atmospheric variability,
- $S_{\text{dO}_3/\text{dH}}$ represents the error due to differences in the horizontal sampling of the field, and

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2013). This constitutes the backbone of the approach followed here, in which we estimate the comparison errors due to metrological differences through an Observation System Simulation Experiment (OSSE, see e.g. Arnold and Dey, 1986; Errico et al., 2013). Briefly summarized it consists in the creation of multi-dimensional observation operators constrained by the real observing system metadata, followed by the application of those observation operators onto the high-resolution atmospheric fields. In so far as both observation operators and fields are realistic, this simulation allows a quantified estimate of the error terms due to smoothing and sampling differences, and of the combined metrological error. The required tools make up our software suite OSSMOSE (Observing System of Systems Simulator for Multi-mission Synergies Exploration). The general structure of this OSSE is visualized in the flowchart in Fig. 2, and described in detail in Sect. 3.

1.3 Total ozone column validation as a topical case study

Total ozone column measurements from satellites remain of prime scientific importance, both for the monitoring of tropospheric ozone pollution (e.g. Valks et al., 2014), and for the detection of stratospheric ozone recovery, including its impact or dependence on climate change (e.g. Weber et al., 2011). Consequently, satellite TOC records benefit from a long-lasting validation effort, in particular by comparison with direct-sun (Brewer and Dobson) and zenith scattered light differential optical absorption spectroscopy (ZLS-DOAS) instruments (see e.g. Lambert et al., 1999; Balis et al., 2007a, b; Loyola et al., 2011; Koukouli et al., 2012; Labow et al., 2013). Within the Global Climate Observing System (GCOS) framework, total uncertainty and stability requirements of 2 and 1 % decade⁻¹ respectively were formulated for the TOC essential climate variable (ECV) (GCOS, 2011).

Due to the highly structured and variable nature of the atmospheric ozone field, this validation work inevitably has to deal with the impact of metrological errors on the data comparisons, an aspect which has nevertheless not been given sufficient attention in the existing literature. As such, ground-based TOC validation represents a pertinent

are analyzed in detail. Results for the comparisons between GOME-2/MetOp-A total ozone data and observations from a larger number of ground-based stations are discussed in Sect. 5. Finally, conclusions and prospects are summarized in Sect. 6.

2 Satellite and ground-based data: origin, uncertainties, and smoothing properties

This paper addresses the error budget of comparisons between satellite and ground-based TOC measurements. The TOC validation work performed within ESA's O₃ CCI and reported by Koukouli et al. (2015) represents a topical application of such comparisons. Consequently, the research presented here is based on the same co-located data sets, or subsets thereof. In this section, the specifics of these instruments and datasets are discussed, with emphasis on the known random and systematic uncertainties (S_N and S_M), and on the way they sample different airmasses, information which is required to construct the corresponding observation operators.

2.1 Satellite data

The level-2 satellite data used here are part of a reprocessing of GOME/ERS-2, SCIAMACHY/Envisat, and GOME-2/MetOp-A observations, using the latest version of the GODFIT direct fitting retrieval algorithm, i.e. v3.0 (Lerot et al., 2014). In particular, this latest version of GODFIT deals with instrumental degradation through a soft-calibration scheme, effectively correcting level-1 radiance data by comparison with simulated spectra based on co-located Brewer total column measurements at selected sites. This and other improvements regarding a priori profiles, cloud and Ring-effect treatment, and polarization, help bring these records closer to the aforementioned GCOS requirements of 2 % total uncertainty and 1 % decade⁻¹ long-term stability.

Through a detailed sensitivity analysis, Lerot et al. (2014) estimate the total random uncertainty (instrument signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) plus cloud fraction and cloud top

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height uncertainty) to be better than 1.7 and 2.6 % for solar zenith angles (SZA) $< 80^\circ$ and $SZA > 80^\circ$ respectively. Systematic errors are derived to be lower than 3.6 and 5.3 %, again depending on these SZA regimes.

The area of sensitivity of such satellite nadir measurements contains the ground pixel footprint, an extension of that pixel in the direction of the sun, and, in case of a non-zero viewing angle, also an extension in the direction of the satellite. These extensions correspond to the projection on the ground of the airmass to which the measurement is sensitive, following the optical light path between sun, scatterer, and detector. A functional approximation of the horizontal spread of information (i.e. the observation operator describing the total airmass footprint) was derived from the horizontal projection of vertical averaging kernels which were computed for different solar zenith angles with the UVSPEC/DISORT (Mayer and Kylling, 2005) radiative transfer model. A full description can be found in Vandebussche et al. (2009). The horizontal dilution in the direction of the sun ranges from a few 10s of kilometers at a SZA of 60° to almost 400 km at a SZA of 90° . For a viewing zenith angle of 31° (the maximum for normal GOME and SCIAMACHY operation modes) the horizontal dilution in the direction of the satellite is about 22 km, increasing up to 33 km for the 54° maximum viewing zenith angle (VZA) of GOME-2. An illustration of this observation operator can be found in Fig. 3.

2.2 Ground-based network data

Correlative ground-based total ozone column measurements used here were obtained using state-of-the-art instruments with documented quality assessment, and provided through the Network for the Detection of Atmospheric Composition Change (NDACC, <http://ndacc.org>). From the NDACC network, a non-exhaustive list of Brewer and Dobson direct-sun instruments is used, complemented by several Dobsons archiving data at the World Ozone and Ultraviolet Radiation Data Centre (<http://woudc.org>), to improve the latitude coverage, in particular in the Southern Hemisphere. The NDACC zenith-sky looking instruments which benefitted from a full data reprocessing by Hendrick et al.

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dramatically. For Brewer instruments this is less of a concern since the ratio of the cross sections at the wavelength pairs used in these instruments is less temperature dependent. In principle, it is possible to correct for this temperature dependence in the Dobson data (Komhyr et al., 1993), but this is not done for the present work. Both types of instruments are also affected by large contributions of diffuse light when observing at solar elevations below 15° . This problem is largely addressed by Brewer instruments with double monochromators (the MkIII and MkIV).

Assuming an optically thin atmosphere, a first-order approximation of the sensitivity along the LOS is the projection of the vertical ozone profile onto the LOS, followed by a normalization. Further projection of this sensitivity on the horizontal dimension provides a pragmatic estimate of the (1-dimensional) airmass footprint, including relative sensitivity along the footprint. When multiple measurements are averaged into daily means, the associated range of solar azimuth angles (SAA) leads to a 2-D footprint. In practice, the projection is limited to the middle part of the profile making up 90 % of the total column. The profile itself is taken from the Fortuin and Kelder (1998) climatology. At 75° SZA, the operational limit for Dobsons and early Brewers, the furthest point taken into account corresponds to a distance of roughly 100 km from the instrument location, with the bulk of the sensitivity around 50 km from the station. Further details can be found in Lambert and Vandenbussche (2011).

2.2.2 ZSL-DOAS instruments

Ground-based zenith scattered light differential optical absorption spectrometers (ZSL-DOAS) play a key role in the long-term monitoring of stratospheric ozone and related trace gases since the late 1980s (e.g. Pommereau and Goutail, 1988; Solomon et al., 1987; McKenzie et al., 1991). Based on the differential optical absorption spectroscopy (DOAS, Platt and Stutz, 2008) technique applied to the visible Chappuis absorption band of ozone, they allow accurate observations at low sun and with limited cloud sensitivity. As such, they constitute a fundamental part of the ground-based reference instrument network used for satellite total ozone column validations, which is comple-

mentary to the direct-sun measurements obtained with Dobsons and Brewers. More than 35 such instruments, located from pole to pole, contribute regularly to the NDACC and WOUDC archives.

While formal DOAS fitting errors are generally provided with the data, these are significantly smaller than the random and systematic errors observed when comparing DOAS total columns with those obtained with direct-sun and satellite instruments (e.g. Van Roozendael et al., 1998). In particular, Van Roozendael et al. (1998) report systematic biases up to 5–6% due to seasonal changes of the actual profile, biases up to 5% for high altitude stations, and an average meridian dependence from –3% at 67° N to +2.8% at the tropics. These differences are generally attributed to uncertainties in cross sections and air mass factors (AMFs) used in the retrievals. Recently, Hendrick et al. (2011) report on a reprocessing of Système d'Analyse par Observation Zénithale (SAOZ) data (which constitute an automated subset of the ZSL-DOAS instrument network, operated by LATMOS), following homogenisation recommendations by the NDACC UV-Vis working group and including a detailed error budget analysis, based on sensitivity studies w.r.t. profile climatology (for the AMF computation), clouds, aerosols, cross section, etc. The total random uncertainty of the SAOZ instruments is estimated to be about 4.7%, and the total systematic uncertainty is conservatively put at 5.9%.

Measurements following the typical NDACC procedure cover the range 86–91° SZA at either sunrise or sunset. Although the measurement is made by observing scattered light at zenith, the absorption signal effectively stems from the LOS between scattering agent and the sun. Using a ray-tracing code, the horizontal projection of the measurement sensitivity was derived, and taking into account the change in solar azimuth angle (SAA) during the measurement, a polygon (observation operator) can be constructed representing the airmass footprint of the measurement. Because of the very high SZA involved, the furthest points of these polygons can be located more than 500 km from the instrument. More details are available in Lambert and Vandenbussche (2011).

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3 Metrology simulator

The core of OSSSMOSE is its metrology simulator, which consists of: (1) the design of an observation operator constrained by observational properties and describing the multi-dimensional sensitivity of the measurement to the atmosphere, followed by (2) the application of this observation operator onto a realistic representation of the atmospheric composition field, and (3) the calculation of metrological uncertainties arising from the multi-dimensional nature of both the sensitivity of the observation and the atmospheric composition when point-to-area or volume-to-area assumptions are made. This suite of metrological elements is followed by an application processor enabling the calculation of, e.g., the smoothing errors associated with a single observation and with the comparison of two different observations. The modular design of OSSSMOSE is visualized in Fig. 2, and described hereafter.

3.1 Module 1: data and metadata

The starting point (upper green box in Fig. 2) is a library of co-located atmospheric measurements and their associated uncertainties (X, σ_x) and (Y, σ_y), built up either from existing databases (e.g., GOME-2A and NDACC total ozone data archives) or from virtual observing systems (e.g., new concept of satellite or modified network configuration). Each observation has associated with it the set of metadata and ancillary parameters needed to characterize the measurement and its three-dimensional sensitivity: date and time of the measurement, coordinates and elevation of the station or satellite footprint, measurement mode (e.g., ground-based direct Sun or zenith-sky, satellite nadir or limb), solar zenith and azimuth angles, viewing angle(s), ground albedo. . . In particular, the basic properties of the data described in Sect. 2 are useful.

For the illustrations proposed in the following sections, the total ozone co-location libraries were built upon the following co-location criteria, reflecting community practices published in the total ozone validation literature in general and the recommendations of the international CEOS ACC ozone harmonization initiative in particular: (1) a maxi-

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ferent – and as much independent as possible – modelled fields. Hereafter results are reported for two substantially different atmospheric representations: (1) the MACC-IFS-MOZART reanalysis performed at ECMWF, and (2) the MERRA reanalysis performed by NASA’s GMAO. Their general set-up and characteristics are described below. Table 2 summarizes the relevant characteristics of each reanalysis.

3.3.1 MACC (IFS-MOZART)

In the context of the EU FP7 Monitoring Atmospheric Composition and Climate Interim Implementation (MACC-II, Inness et al., 2013), the Integrated Forecast System (IFS) at European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecast (ECMWF) was coupled with the Model for OZone And Related chemical Tracers (MOZART-3) transport model to include chemically reactive gases (Stein et al., 2012). IFS is run at T255 spectral truncation, corresponding to roughly 80 km horizontal resolution, but MOZART-3 resolution is slightly lower at $1.125^\circ \times 1.125^\circ$. The vertical grid consists of 60 hybrid sigma-pressure levels, with of top of atmosphere (TOA) at 0.1 hPa. Data assimilation follows an incremental formulation of the 4D-VAR approach. The list of ozone observations that are assimilated by IFS are listed in Table 2. Global model ozone fields are available on a 6 hourly basis at the MOZART-3 horizontal resolution. Lefever et al. (2015) compared IFS-MOZART (Near Real Time) total ozone data with ground-based reference measurements acquired by NDACC certified instrumentation (Dobson, Brewer, ozonesondes...), and they find good agreement (biases below 5% at both polar and tropical latitudes), including a reliable performance in ozone-hole conditions (reported biases below 2%).

3.3.2 MERRA

The Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for Research and Applications (MERRA) is a reanalysis undertaken by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA)’s Global Modelling and Assimilation Office (GMAO) with the aim to place ob-

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measurements, yields an estimate of the horizontal smoothing for both measurements. This completes the 3rd, blue, box in Fig. 2.

These simulated measurement, whether as a point-like interpolation or through averaging over the FOV footprint or over the actual airmass, can be compared to the actual measurements to gauge both the fitness-for-purpose of the modelled fields and the benefit of taking into account the smoothing properties. This is represented by the blue dashed and red dotted lines in Fig. 2. Moreover, this feedback loop can be used to further optimise the co-location criteria and the observation operators, e.g. in adjusting the somewhat ad hoc choice of vertical sensitivity limits for the ZLS-DOAS observation operator, as detailed in Sect. 4.3.3.

An illustration of these measurement simulations based on an averaging of the re-analysis field over the appropriate airmass using the associated observation operator is presented in Fig. 3.

3.5 Module 4: comparison simulator

Finally, the different metrological components of the uncertainty budget can be estimated and confronted with the actual difference between the retrieved total ozone values (bottom yellow box in Fig. 2):

- Using the simulated smoothing errors $\Delta x = x_{FP} - x_{PC}$ and $\Delta y = y_{FP} - y_{ST}$, for the satellite and ground-based observations respectively, we can estimate the smoothing error differences, $S_{SH} = (\Delta x - \Delta y)/y_{ST}$,
- Using the point-like simulated measurements at the pixel center (x_{PC}) and at the station location (y_{ST}), each at the time of the respective observations, we can estimate the spatio-temporal sampling error, $S_{dO_3/dH} + S_{dO_3/dt} = (x_{PC} - y_{ST})/y_{ST}$,
- Using the simulated smoothed measurements (x_{FP} and y_{FP} respectively), we can estimate the combined smoothing and sampling error, $S_{SH} + S_{dO_3/dH} + S_{dO_3/dt} = (x_{FP} - y_{FP})/y_{FP}$,

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4.1 Co-located measurements and measurement footprints

An illustration of the comparison pairs at these three stations is shown in Fig. 4, one pair per season. In the context of O3 CCI, only coincidences within a 150 km radius from the station are used for direct-sun observations, such as those obtained with the Dobson at Hohenpeißenberg or the Brewer at Izaña, with at most 3 h time difference. For the zenith-sky observations such as those at Dumont d'Urville, an intersection between the satellite pixel footprint and the ground-based airmass footprint is already enforced to minimize sampling difference errors. For these comparisons with ZSL-DOAS instruments, a larger 12 h time difference is allowed so that both sunrise and sunset ground-based measurements can be co-located with satellite observations. An evaluation of the consequences of using different (more relaxed) co-location criteria is performed in Sect. 4.4.

Also visualized in Fig. 4 are the airmass footprints of the different measurements, represented by the observation operators introduced in Sect. 2. Since a direct-sun measurement is sensitive to the absorption along the line-of-sight towards the sun, the daily means of DS measurements cover an area which depends on the SZA and SAA evolution throughout the day. The zenith-sky observations during twilight conditions cover a smaller range in SAA but the high SZA leads to sensitivity very far from the station. Pixel sizes differ among satellite instruments (and observing modes), and further dilution of measurement sensitivity (and hence of the observation operator) towards the sun or satellite depends on SZA and VZA.

4.2 Observed and modelled TOC time series

The corresponding observed TOC time series for both satellite (X, σ_X) and ground-based (Y, σ_Y) measurements are presented in Fig. 5. These illustrate the different atmospheric regimes probed by the three case studies. Also shown in these graphs are the modelled TOC time series for the satellite instrument (x_{FP}), as derived by averaging the IFS-MOZART reanalysis fields over the observation operator shown in cyan

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in Fig. 4. While minor differences between observations and models are evident, the correlation coefficients ($r_{X, X_{FP}} > 0.96$) and root mean square error (RMSE, $\sim 2\text{--}3\%$) indicate a very good agreement, almost to within measurement uncertainty for stable atmospheric conditions such as those near Hohenpeißenberg and Izaña. Note that the correlation coefficient at Izaña is somewhat lower due to the intrinsic low variability of the ozone field at (sub-)tropical latitudes. A similar level of agreement is obtained using the MERRA reanalysis fields (not shown here, but further elaborated in Sect. 4.5). The use of the full observation operators – rather than pixel centers or station coordinates – for the averaging of the reanalysis field yields only minimal improvement in observation-model agreement, except for the twilight UV-Vis measurements, where the RMSE can be significantly reduced by using the observation operator (from 5.3% down to 4.2% in the case of Dumont d’Urville). Use of the satellite observation operator even degrades somewhat the correspondence between GOME and the IFS-MOZART reanalysis fields, but this is not surprising since the GOME data were assimilated in the IFS-MOZART reanalysis without taking into account the dilution of sensitivity towards the sun and satellite. A more detailed analysis of the use of these observation operators in the context of model-observation comparisons is beyond the scope of the current paper, but such prospects are expanded in Sect. 6.

4.3 Comparison error budget: observed and simulated

The satellite-ground differences, both observed ($(X - Y)/Y$, marked in black) and simulated ($[(X_{FP} + \delta x) - (Y_{FP} + \delta y)]/(Y_{FP} + \delta y)$, marked in green) are visualized as 3 month running medians in Fig. 6. Some derived quantities, including model-quality indicators, are summarized in Table 3. Moreover, the simulated differences are decomposed into the different components resulting from the metrology aspects of the comparison: smoothing difference errors ($\Delta x - \Delta y/y_{ST}$) in blue and sampling difference errors ($(X_{PC} - Y_{ST})/y_{ST}$) in red. The magenta line represents the combined random measurement uncertainty $\sqrt{\sigma_X^2 + \sigma_Y^2}$. Depending on the instruments involved, σ_X and σ_Y are

creased from 1.5–2 to 4–9 %, and is entirely dominated by sampling mismatch errors, as expected. The median shows a seasonal behaviour of similar magnitude as for the D150 comparisons, well matched by the simulations and therefore fully due to metrological differences. Note that also the small-scale temporal structure of the median curve can be directly traced back to sampling difference errors (the red curve).

Figure 10 shows the observed comparison spread and median as a function of the spatial co-location criterium (maximum distance) for these comparisons at Izaña. The values at 1000 km correspond to the temporal average of Fig. 9. The comparison spread increases almost linearly when relaxing the co-location criterium, both in the observations and in the simulation, and this up to at least 1000 km. This behaviour is expected to saturate at distances where the auto-correlation of the ozone field is reduced to zero, but no attempt was made here to estimate that scale as it is beyond any reasonable co-location criterium used in validation work. In this particular case, the comparison median also depends strongly on co-location criterium, suggesting the presence of persistent atmospheric gradients which are sampled in a non-homogeneous way. The green curves demonstrate that the spread and median of the OSSMOSE simulated differences accurately reproduce the observed statistics. The ~ 3% offset between observed and simulated median difference is again due to the station altitude, as discussed in Sect. 4.3.2.

In fact, the simulations are realistic not only in the statistical sense (total sample spread and median), but even at the level of each individual comparison pair. This is illustrated by the cyan curves which represents the observed comparison spread and median after subtraction of the metrology differences predicted by the OSSE for each individual comparison pair. As the resulting spread and bias are almost independent on co-location criterium, it is clear that the simulated differences are an excellent qualitative proxy of the real sampling and smoothing difference errors.

The error bars in Fig. 10, obtained using a bootstrap approach, illustrate the impact of the sample size on the accuracy of the spread and bias determination: a strict co-location criterium, e.g. < 100 km leads to a small observed comparison spread, but

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because that number is based on very few pairs, it has a large uncertainty. On the other side of the graph, at very large numbers of comparison pairs, the precision on the derived spread and bias is very high, but because of the large contribution to the total error budget by the sampling (and smoothing) differences, these numbers are of little direct meaning for the validation campaign. Best practice in validation work usually argues against the contamination of the data with information derived from models and as such the use of metrology-corrected observed differences is not advised, but in particular cases, such as retrieval algorithm delta validations, a metrology-correction approach may allow the detection of small improvements in measurement bias and noise which do not show up when using very strict co-location criteria.

4.5 Choice of modelled fields

The metrology simulations presented above were all based on the reanalyses produced in the IFS-MOZART system. While it was found that the modelled observations agree with the actual measurements almost to within measurement uncertainty, indicating very low model uncertainty for IFS-MOZART total ozone columns, independent confirmation of the reliability of the simulations can be obtained by use of fully independent reanalysis fields, such as those produced by NASA's GMAO for MERRA (see also Sect. 3.3). In general, we find the agreement between MERRA and the observations to be somewhat more noisy than for IFS-MOZART (see Fig. 12 in the next section), but the satellite-ground comparisons statistics are very similar, as is illustrated for the GOME-2/MetOp-A vs. Brewer daily mean comparisons at Izaña in Fig. 11, to be compared to the middle panel of Fig. 6.

5 GOME-2/MetOp-A vs. the NDACC network

In this section, the methodology developed in Sect. 3 and illustrated in detail in Sect. 4 is extended to the comparisons of GOME-2/MetOp-A total columns with the entire

NDACC network of direct-sun and zenith-sky instruments over a 3 year period (2008–2010). This allows a more comprehensive study of the comparison error budget as a function of latitude and atmospheric regime. Further details about the NDACC network and the contributing instruments were already described in Sect. 2.

5.1 Models vs. GOME-2 and NDACC observations

Figure 12 illustrates the quality of the simulated TOC measurements, and hence of the underlying model fields, for both the IFS-MOZART and MERRA reanalyses. None of the observations used for this graph were assimilated in the modelled fields. The IFS-MOZART fields in general lead to the lowest comparison spread between model and observation. In particular at high southern latitudes, the difference in agreement is significant. For this reason, the analysis in this section is based only on IFS-MOZART fields. However, as illustrated in Sect. 4.5, the results do not critically depend on the choice of model fields.

5.2 Direct-sun instruments

Error budget simulations for comparisons between GOME-2 and NDACC Brewers and Dobsons are analyzed in Figs. 13 and 14. These comparisons follow the co-location criteria used for the validation work performed within ESA's O₃ CCI project, i.e. at most 150 km spatial separation between station location and satellite pixel center, and at most 3 h time difference.

5.2.1 Spread of the differences

The spread of the differences (Fig. 13) is remarkably well reproduced across the network, in both stable and highly variable atmospheric conditions, see e.g. the Izaña vs. the Lauder comparisons. While smoothing difference errors (blue lines) remain below combined random measurement uncertainties (magenta lines) in all cases, sampling difference errors (red lines) often dominate the comparison spread, in particular at

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mid and high latitudes. At the tropical station of Paramaribo, this is not the case: both smoothing and sampling errors are well below the combined measurement uncertainties.

For two stations, Uccle and Arosa, no measurement uncertainty estimate is present in the files provided through the NDACC archive, which implies that some guestimate had to be made here. Good agreement between simulated and observed comparison spread was obtained assuming 1.5 % uncertainty for the Brewer at Uccle, 2.5 % for the Dobson there, and 1.5 % for the Dobson at Arosa. These numbers appear realistic.

As discussed in Sect. 4, the error estimate provided with the satellite data takes into account only the formal fitting error and as such is known to be too optimistic. On the other hand, the error estimate published by Lerot et al. (2014), which includes all known sources of random and systematic uncertainty, is confirmed here to be too pessimistic across the entire NDACC network, as already expected from the case studies in Sect. 4. Indeed, a 1 % satellite random error suffices at all stations, with the data at the tropical stations requiring only 0.7 % random uncertainty to account for the comparison spread. These numbers also hold in comparisons with zenith-sky instruments (Sect. 5.3).

It is noteworthy that for most stations the minimum observed comparison spread roughly corresponds to the combined measurement uncertainty, i.e. there exist periods during which metrological errors are still well below measurement errors, for the 150 km/3 h co-location criterium.

When relaxing the co-location criteria, as done for Hohenpeißenberg and Izaña in Sect. 4.4, the results are qualitatively the same for all stations: the errors due to sampling differences determine the comparison spread more and more, totally dominating the other error terms (smoothing and measurement errors), which do not depend on co-location distance.

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5.2.2 Median of the differences

For the 3-month median of the differences (Fig. 14), the results are in general less satisfactory, as the observed comparison median often deviates far from zero, with strong temporal features, which can not be traced back to the comparison metrology.

5 Still, good agreement between observed and simulated comparison median is found for the Brewers at De Bilt and Izaña (with the offset in the latter known to be due to the station altitude), and to a lesser extent also for the Brewer at Hohenpeißenberg and for the Dobson at Boulder. For the latter two stations, the simulations predict fairly significant smoothing and sampling errors, with an amplitude and structure similar to
10 the observed comparison mean, but some discrepancies remain. Dobsons are known to have a seasonal systematic error (see Sect. 2), which could play a role here, as it appears to do in many of the other comparisons with Dobsons (Uccle, Observatoire de Haute-Provence, Lauder). For Arosa, Izaña, and Mauna Loa, the large offset can be traced back to the station altitude (w.r.t. its immediate surroundings), as was already
15 discussed for Izaña in Sect. 4.3.2.

5.3 Zenith-sky instruments

Error budget simulations for comparisons between GOME-2 and NDACC UV-Vis zenith sky instruments (SAOZ and DOAS) are analyzed in Figs. 15 and 16. Here also the comparisons follow the co-location criteria used for the validation work performed
20 within ESA's O₃ CCI project, i.e. the satellite pixel footprint is required to intersect the ground-measurement airmass as quantified by the observation operator described in Sect. 2.2.2 and illustrated in the right-hand panel of Fig. 4. The observation operator used to calculate the smoothing difference errors is however the scaled-down version derived in Sect. 4.3.3. The maximum time difference is 12 h, implying that a GOME-2
25 measurement can be co-located with both sunrise and sunset zenith-sky ground measurements.

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5.3.1 Spread of the differences

As already discussed in Sect. 2.2.2, the measurement uncertainties provided with the ground-based data are not representative for the total measurement uncertainty as they only include formal DOAS fitting uncertainties. On the other hand, the 4.7% precision estimated by Hendrick et al. (2011) based on a detailed investigation of all sources of random and systematic uncertainty is confirmed here to be too pessimistic for all NDACC stations, as was already found for Dumont d'Urville in Sect. 4.3.3. Aiming for error budget closure, a random uncertainty of 2 to 2.5% suffices at mid and high latitudes, and only 1 to 1.5% is required at tropical latitudes.

As for the comparisons with direct-sun instruments, the simulations agree very well with the observed comparison spread, except for a few isolated events such as spring 2009 at Aberystwyth and winter 2009–2010 at Rio Gallegos. The comparisons at Bauru show an increase in spread towards 2010 which is not reproduced by the simulations.

5.3.2 Median of the differences

The median difference for the GOME-2 vs. zenith-sky UV-Vis instrument comparisons shows strong deviations from zero, with both seasonal and irregular components. While the simulations predict some non-zero medians, they do not match the observed statistics, except for a few particular features at selected stations, e.g. at Scoresbysund and at the Observatoire de Haute Provence. Surprisingly, the best agreement is in fact observed at high southern latitudes (Dumont d'Urville and Rothera). In general though, most stations show some level of pathology, be it strong seasonality (e.g. Zhigansk), a drift (e.g. Aberystwyth), or an other erratic behaviour (e.g. Bauru). The SAOZ data obtained at Sodankylä were analyzed in detail by Hendrick et al. (2011), who find a similar disagreement with the Brewer located at the same station.

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6 Conclusions and prospects

The ever increasing accuracy of satellite total ozone column data records, required for both stratospheric and tropospheric ozone research and monitoring, and obtained through improved instrumentation and optimized retrieval methods, places correspondingly stringent requirements on the ground-based validation of these records. Besides the need for accurate and representative reference measurements, also the validation methodology has to be fine-tuned to current and future requirements. A key hurdle in ground-based satellite TOC validation is the introduction of additional uncertainties in the comparisons by natural variability through non-perfect spatial and temporal co-location, including differences in smoothing of the TOC field.

In this paper, the error budget of total ozone column ground-based validation work was analyzed in detail, including for the first time the errors due to the interplay of on the one hand sampling and smoothing differences between the satellite and ground-based measurements, and on the other hand an inhomogeneous and variable ozone field. These error terms were estimated using a versatile system for observing system simulation experiments (OSSEs), named OSSMOSE. The simulations are based on the real observation metadata, pragmatic observation operators, and 4-D high-resolution global ozone fields. Several station-based case studies were analyzed in detail, and extended to comparisons between GOME-2/MetOp-A and NDACC-affiliated direct-sun and zenith-sky instruments, complemented with some further stations to improve the pole-to-pole coverage.

From this work, the following conclusions could be drawn:

1. Both the modelled fields (IFS-MOZART and MERRA reanalyses) and the pragmatic observation operators are accurate enough to closely reproduce the actual satellite and ground-based observations, almost to within measurement uncertainty.
2. Comparison statistics (spread and median of the differences) derived from the simulated measurements accurately reproduce the observed comparison statis-

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tics for most satellite vs. ground-based measurement combinations, at most NDACC stations. Discrepancies, in particular in the comparison median which is indicative of systematic uncertainties, could mostly be traced back to known instrumental issues, e.g. the Dobson's temperature-dependent – and therefore seasonal – bias.

3. Sampling difference errors range from less than 1 % to well above 10 %, depending on parameters such as co-location criterium, station latitude, and season. They are found to be a significant contributor to the error budget in almost all cases, except at tropical stations, even when using the tight co-location criteria adopted in the Committee on Earth Observation Satellites (CEOS) Atmospheric Composition Constellation (ACC) and in ESA's O3 Climate Change Initiative. Their contribution increases further as the co-location criteria are relaxed.
4. Smoothing difference errors contribute only occasionally to the error budget, with amplitudes typically below 1 % for comparisons with direct-sun instruments, and below 2 % for comparisons with ZLS-DOAS measurements. They become comparable to the measurement noise only for the comparisons with zenith-sky measurements in atmospheric conditions with particularly large gradients (e.g. near the polar vortex border).
5. By correcting the observed differences with the simulated metrology errors, the comparison spread and median become almost independent of co-location criterium, illustrating that the OSSMOSE simulations are not only meaningful in a statistical sense, but also at the level of individual comparison pairs.
6. Uncertainties provided with the satellite data records contain only the formal spectral-fit errors and as such underestimate the full (random) measurement uncertainty. The random uncertainties estimated by Lerot et al. (2014) on the other hand are found to be too conservative. For the GODFITv3 GOME-2/MetOp-

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assessed and recommendations for future observing sites formulated. Similar work can be done for other reactive and greenhouse gases, meteorological variables and other ECVs (in so far as reliable global gridded data, either from models or observations, are available), and for satellite intercomparison studies. Finally, the use of observation operators may improve model-observation comparisons as performed for instance in chemical data assimilation.

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Table 1. Overview of the ground-based instruments used here as a source of reference data.

Station	Lat.	Lon.	Alt.	Instrument	Institute
Direct sun instruments					
Sondre Stromfjord	67.0° N	50.7° W	180 m	Brewer #053 (MkII)	DMI, Denmark
De Bilt	52.1° N	5.2° E	4 m	Brewer #189 (MkIII)	KNMI, the Netherlands
Valentia	51.9° N	10.3° W	14 m	Brewer #088 (MkIV)	ME, Ireland
Uccle	50.8° N	4.4° E	100 m	Brewer #178 (MkII)	RMI, Belgium
Hohenpeißenberg	47.8° N	11.02° E	980 m	Brewer #010 (MkII)	DWD, Germany
				Dobson #104	
Arosa	46.8° N	9.7° E	1840 m	Dobson #101	MeteoSwiss, Switzerland
Obs. de Haute Provence	43.9° N	5.7° E	650 m	Dobson #085	GSMA, France + NOAA/ESRL, USA
Boulder	40.0° N	105.3° W	1634 m	Dobson #061	NOAA/ESRL, USA
Izaña	28.3° N	16.5° W	2367 m	Brewer #157 (MkIII)	AEMET, Spain
Mauna Loa	19.5° N	155.6° W	3397 m	Dobson #076	NOAA/ESRL, USA
Paramaribo	5.8° N	55.2° W	23 m	Brewer #159 (MkIII)	KNMI, the Netherlands
Darwin	12.4° S	130.9° E	31 m	Dobson #078	BoM, Australia
Bribane	27.4° S	153.1° E	3 m	Dobson #012	BoM, Australia
Lauder	45.0° S	169.7° E	370 m	Dobson #072	NIWA, New Zealand
Arrival Heights	77.8° S	166.7° E	184 m	Dobson #017	NIWA, New Zealand
UV-Vis instruments					
Scoresbysund	70.5° N	22.0° W	68 m	SAOZ #4	LATMOS-CNRS, France
Sodankylä	67.4° N	26.7° W	100 m	SAOZ #17	LATMOS-CNRS + FMI, Finland
Zhigansk	66.8° N	123.4° E	50 m	SAOZ #12	LATMOS-CNRS + CAO, Russia
Salekhard	66.5° N	66.7° E	137 m	SAOZ #5	LATMOS-CNRS + CAO, Russia
Harestua	60.2° N	10.8° E	596 m	BISA-DOAS	BIRA-IASB, Belgium
Aberystwyth	52.4° N	4.1° W	50 m	SAOZ #9	Univ. of Manchester, UK
Jungfraujoch	46.6° N	8.0° E	3580 m	SAOZ #11	BIRA-IASB, Belgium
Obs. de Haute Provence	44.0° N	5.7° E	650 m	SAOZ #13	LATMOS-CNRS, France
Bauru	22.3° S	49.0° W	640 m	SAOZ #1	LATMOS-CNRS + UNESP, Brazil
Kerguelen	49.3° S	70.3° E	10 m	SAOZ #3	LATMOS-CNRS, France
Rio Gallegos	51.6° S	69.3° W	650 m	SAOZ #26	LATMOS-CNRS, France
Dumont d'Urville	66.7° S	140.0° E	20 m	SAOZ #16	LATMOS-CNRS, France
Dome Concorde	75.1° S	123.3° E	3233 m	SAOZ #27	LATMOS-CNRS, France

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Table 2. Characteristics of the two reanalyses from which atmospheric ozone fields were used as input to metrology simulations.

Name	office	time step	lat–lon grid	vertical grid	assimilated ozone observations
IFS-MOZART-3	ECMWF	6 hourly	1.125° × 1.125°	60 levels	GOME, MIPAS, SCIAMACHY, SBUV/2, OMI, MLS
MERRA	NASA GMAO	3 hourly	1.25° × 1.25°	42 levels	SBUV/2

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Table 3. OSSE quality indicators and related information for the 3 case studies discussed in Sect. 4. The first row lists the correlation between actual observations and simulated measurements and the second row lists the corresponding RMSE. The third row lists the random measurement uncertainties, either as provided with the data sets, or proposed here. The last row contains the correlation coefficient between observed and simulated satellite-ground differences.

	Hohenpeißenberg (47.8° N)		Izaña (28.3° N)		Dumont d'Urville (66.7° S)	
	SCIAMACHY	Dobson DM	GOME-2A	Brewer DM	GOME	SAOZ
$r_{X, X_{FP}}$ or $r_{Y, Y_{FP}}$	0.99	0.99	0.96	0.97	1.00	0.97
$X - X_{FP}$ or $Y - Y_{FP}$ RMSE [%]	1.8	2.1	1.8	1.7	1.7	4.2
σ_x or σ_y [%]	1.0	0.8	0.7	1.0	1.0	2.5
$r_{X-Y, X_{FP}-Y_{FP}}$	0.43		0.63		0.77	

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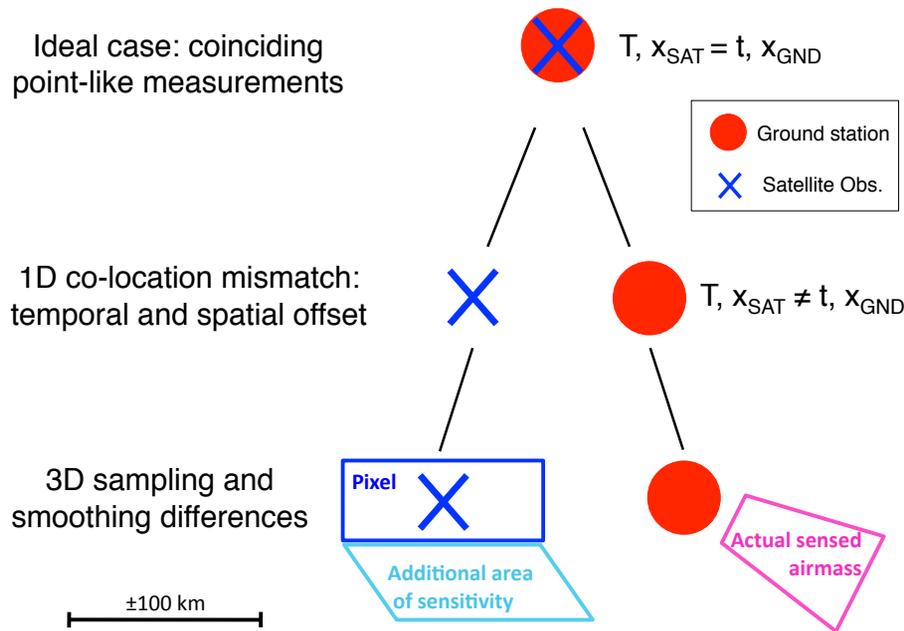


Figure 1. Conceptual visualisation of the metrology of a satellite-ground measurement comparison. In the ideal case, ground and satellite sensed airmasses coincide in space and time. In practice, spatio-temporal sampling mismatches are inevitable, and also the extent of the actually sensed airmasses around the nominal locations depends on measurement types and atmospheric conditions.

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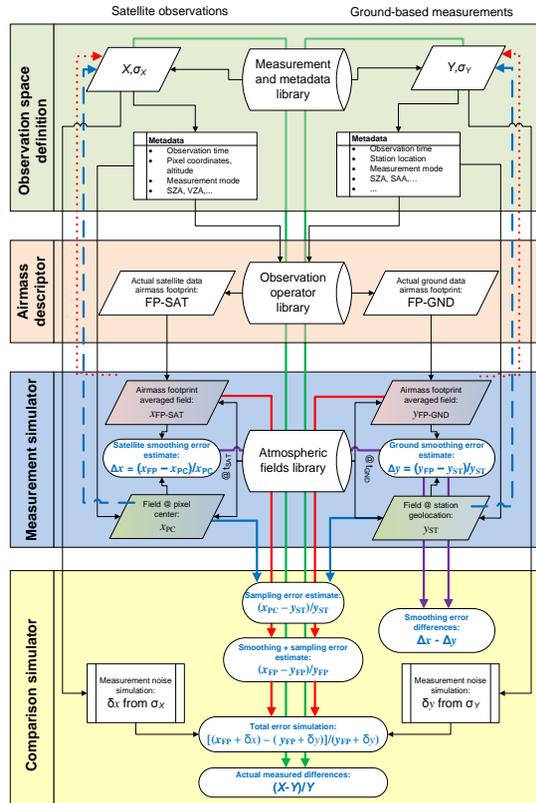


Figure 2. Architecture of the OSSSMOSE atmospheric metrology simulator as set up for the error budget closure of ground-based satellite validations. X and Y refer to the actual observations, e.g. hereafter total ozone data retrieved from GOME-2A and Brewer measurements, while x and y with varying subscripts refer to the simulated observations. The lateral feedback loops – highlighted in dashed blue and dotted red – show the possibility to compare the simulated observations to the real observations

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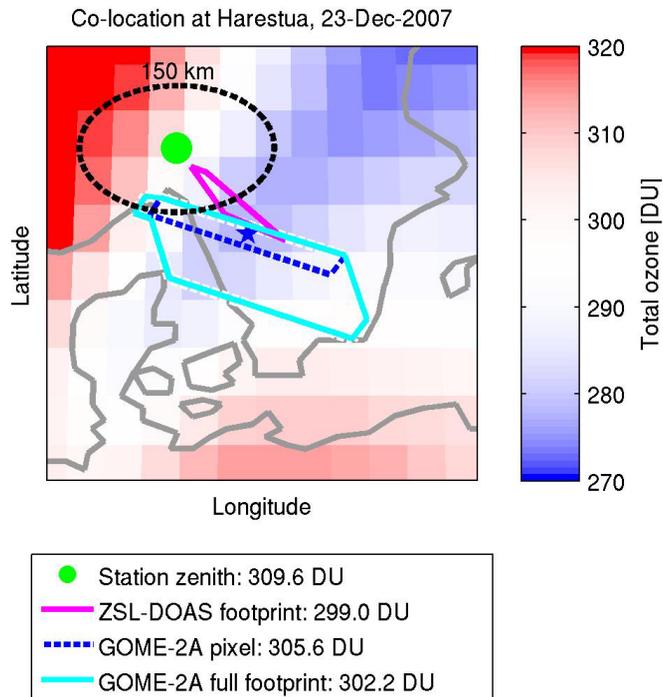


Figure 3. An illustration of the observation operators for a GOME-2A measurement co-located with a ZSL-DOAS observation at Harestua. The background represents the IFS-MOZART modelled TOC field at the time of the ZSL-DOAS measurement. The blue star represents the center of the satellite pixel footprint, the blue dashed line denotes the edge of the satellite pixel footprint, and the solid cyan line represents the entire airmass of sensitivity of the satellite measurement. The latter has an extension towards the sun, in the South-East, and towards the satellite, in the West. Similarly, the green dot represents the station geo-location, while the magenta line represents the airmass of sensitivity of a morning ZSL-DOAS observations at that station. For reference, the dashed black circle describes a radius of 150 km around the station.

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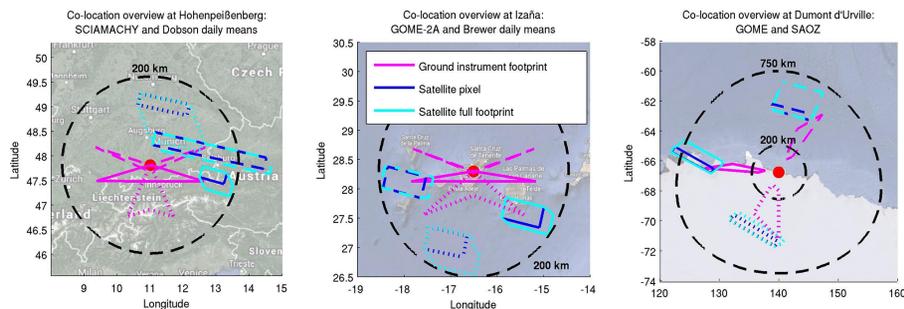


Figure 4. Co-located ground-satellite measurement pairs near summer and winter solstice (dashed and dotted lines respectively) and near the autumn and spring equinox (solid line). The station is indicated by a red dot, the ground observation operators in magenta, the satellite pixel in dark blue and the full satellite observation operator in cyan.

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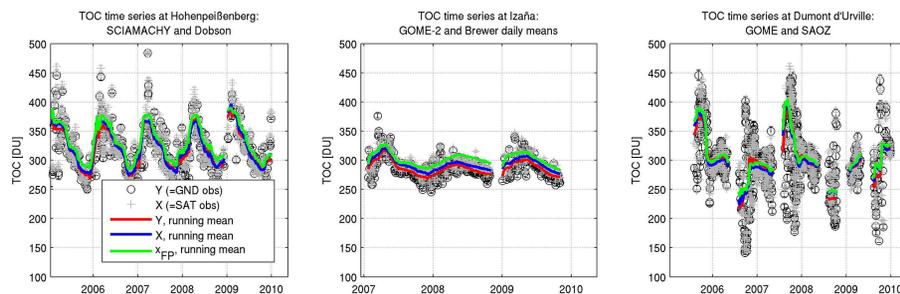


Figure 5. Total ozone column time series measured at the three sites with the different instruments that are being compared, including a running median of both the observed and simulated time series.

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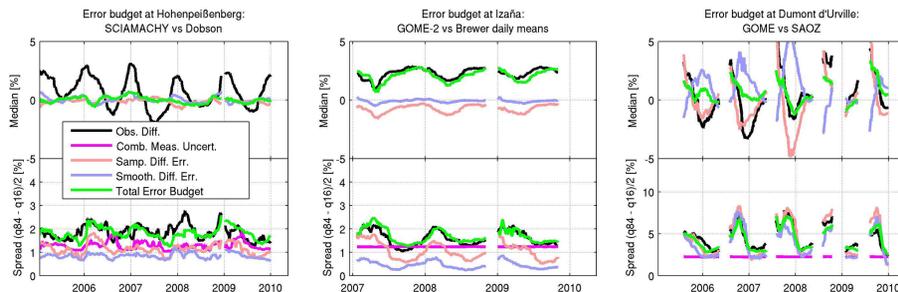


Figure 6. Running 3 month comparison median and spread (as derived from 16 and 84 % quantiles), both observed (black) and simulated (green), and the decomposition in the different metrological components of the simulations. Note the larger range of the bottom right-hand panel.

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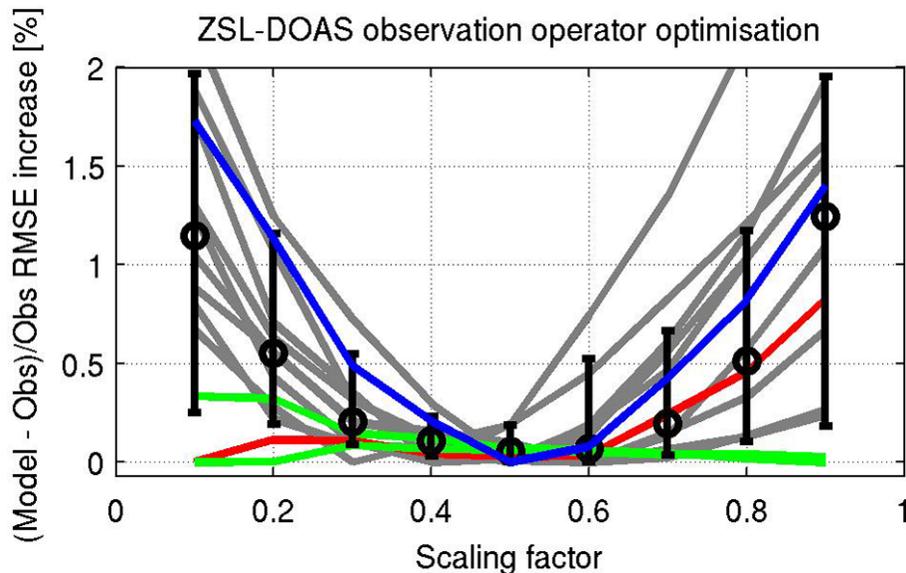


Figure 7. Increase in comparison spread (w.r.t. the optimum) between simulated and observed SAOZ measurements as a function of observation operator scaling factor for all NDACC stations (grey and coloured lines). The median curve with 0.16–0.84 interpercentile error bars is shown with black markers. The optimal observation operator size appears to be about half the currently assumed size. The red curve corresponds to the results at Hohenpeißenberg, and the blue curves, showing no clear minimum, correspond to tropical stations (Bauru and St. Denis). At tropical latitudes, the TOC variability is low at the scale of a few hundred km and hence the exact shape of the observation operator is not of great importance. The blue curve represents the optimisation at Dumont d’Urville, i.e. the current case study.

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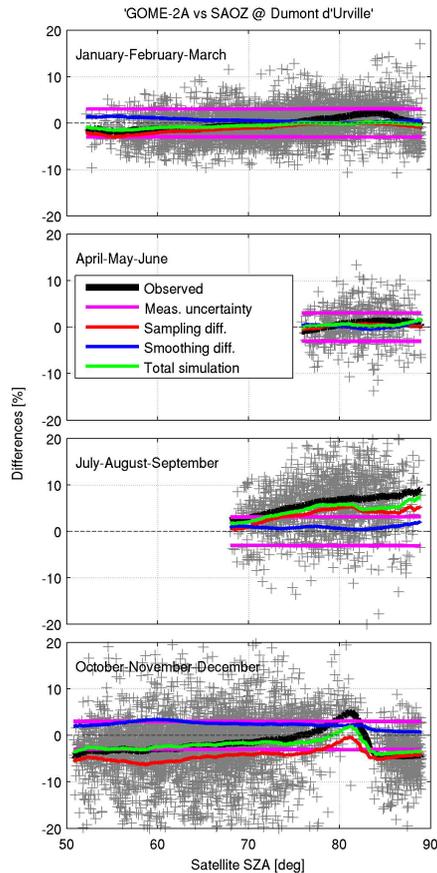


Figure 8. SZA dependence of the differences between GOME-2A and the SAOZ at Dumont d'Urville, grouped per season and covering 2007 to 2009. While not perfect, the simulations qualitatively reproduce the observed SZA dependence, e.g. the increasing median in local winter, and the feature at 80° SZA in local spring.

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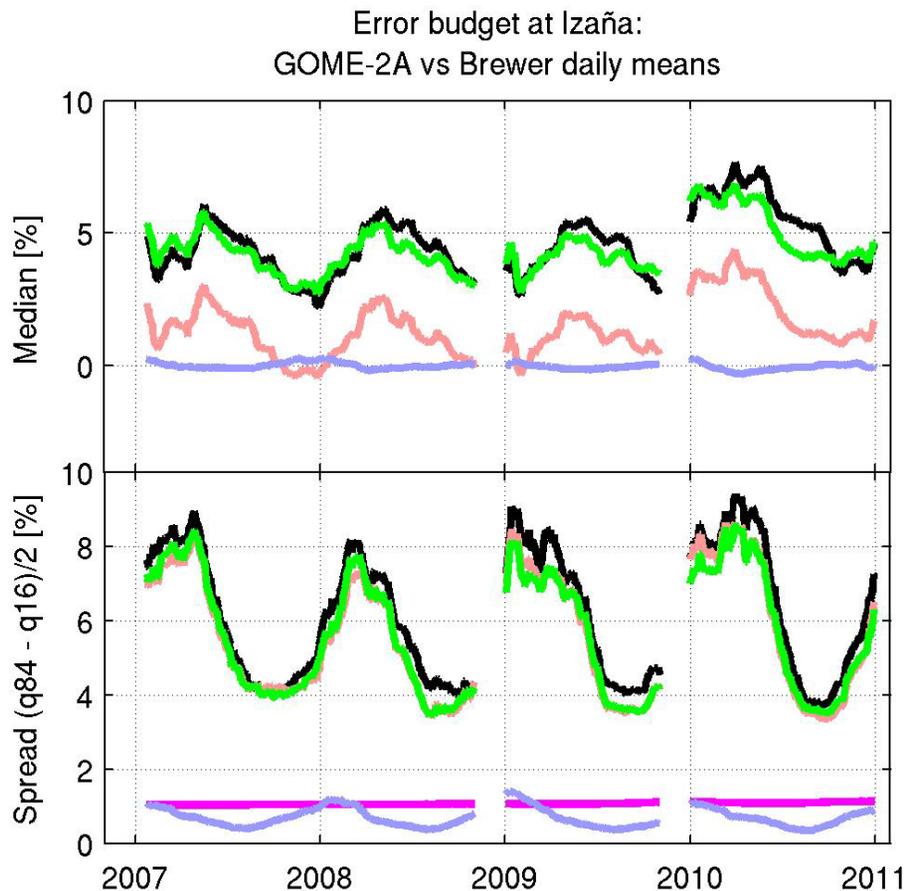


Figure 9. Error budget of 5 years of GOME-2A vs. Brewer comparisons at Izaña using a very relaxed spatial co-location criterium of 1000 km maximum distance. Colours as in Fig. 6.

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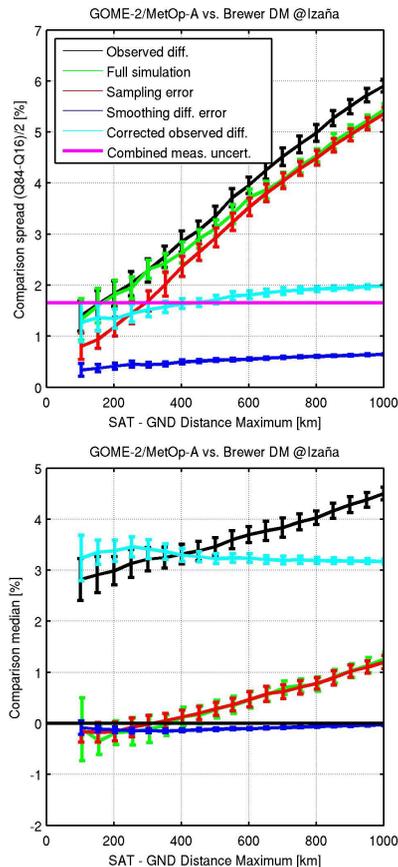


Figure 10. Upper panel: observed and simulated comparison spread between GOME-2/MetOp-A TOC measurements and correlative Brewer observations as a function of maximum co-location distance for the Izaña station over the period 2007–2010. Lower panel: comparison median for the same sets of comparisons. Colours as in the upper panel.

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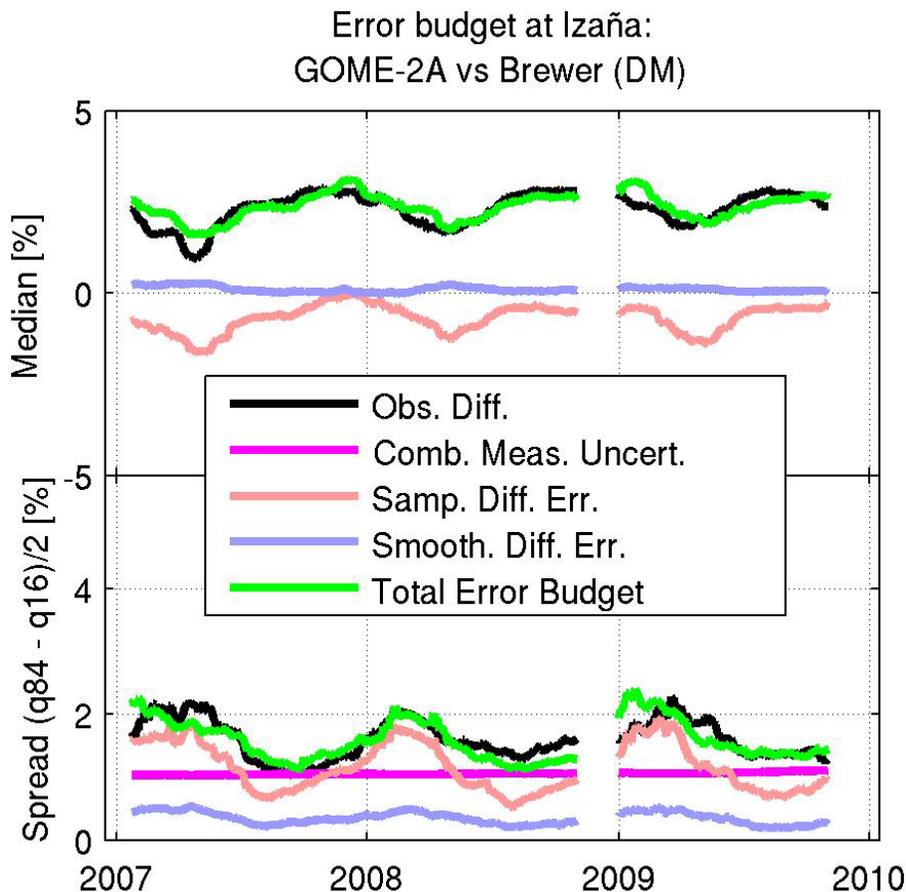


Figure 11. Error budget of the GOME-2/MetOp-A vs. Brewer daily mean comparisons at Izaña, derived from simulation based on MERRA fields rather than IFS-MOZART fields.

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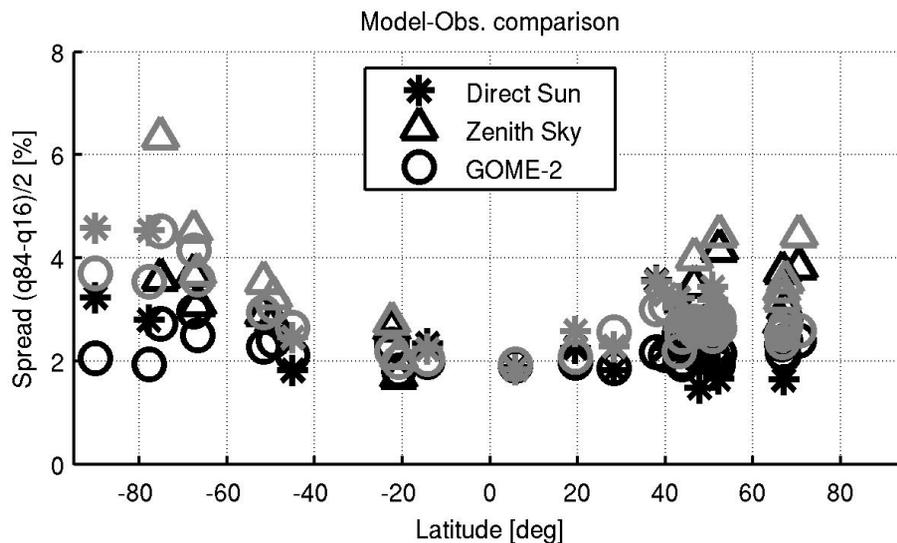


Figure 12. Spread of the differences between simulated TOC measurements, based on either the IFS-MOZART fields (black) or the MERRA fields (grey), and actual observations.

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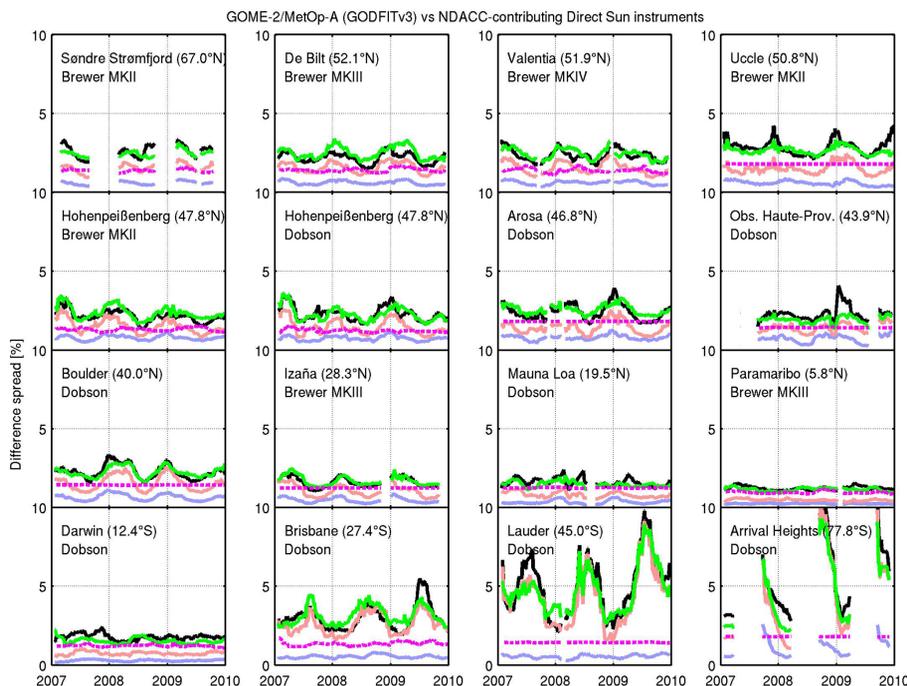


Figure 13. Spread of the differences (3 month running 16–84 % interquartiles) between GOME-2/MetOp-A observations and correlative direct sun measurements (Brewers and Dobsons) from all NDACC network stations with sufficient co-locations during this period. The legend and the definition of comparison spread are the same as in Fig. 6. Note that the magenta line, representing the combined measurement uncertainty, is based on the revised estimates of the random satellite measurement uncertainty.

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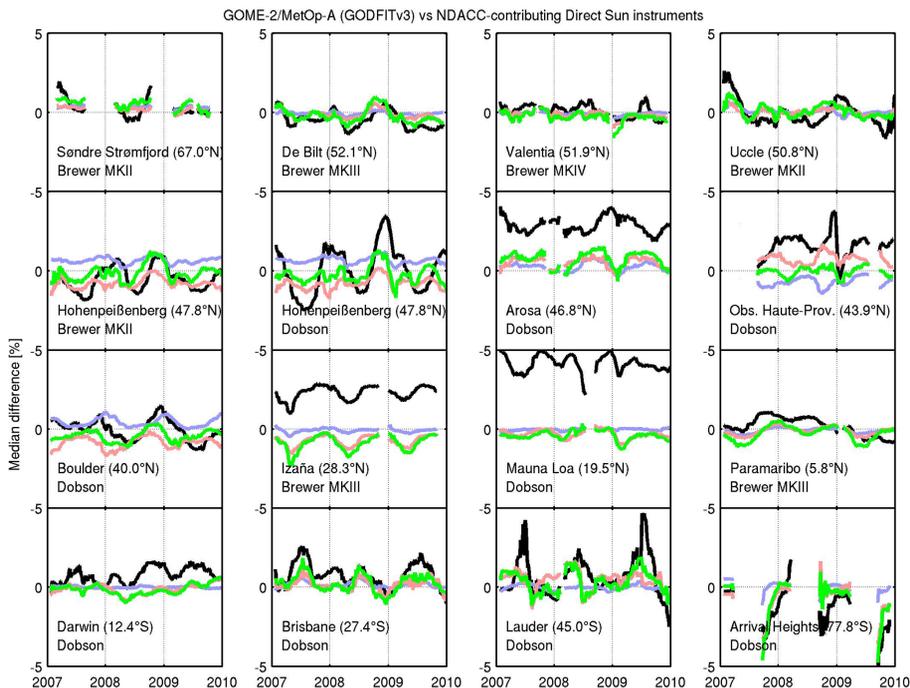


Figure 14. Similar to Fig. 13 but now for the median of the differences. The large median differences for Arosa, Mauna Loa and Izaña are due to the high-altitude location of these stations, for which no correction was implemented here.

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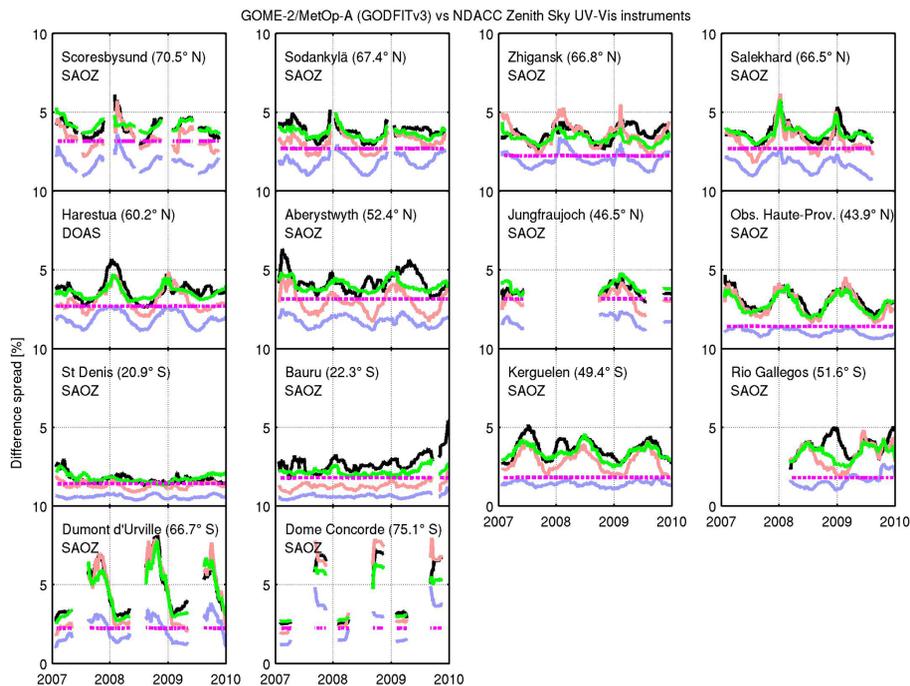


Figure 15. Similar to Fig. 13 but now for all NDACC UV-Vis (ZSL-DOAS) instruments with sufficient colocations.

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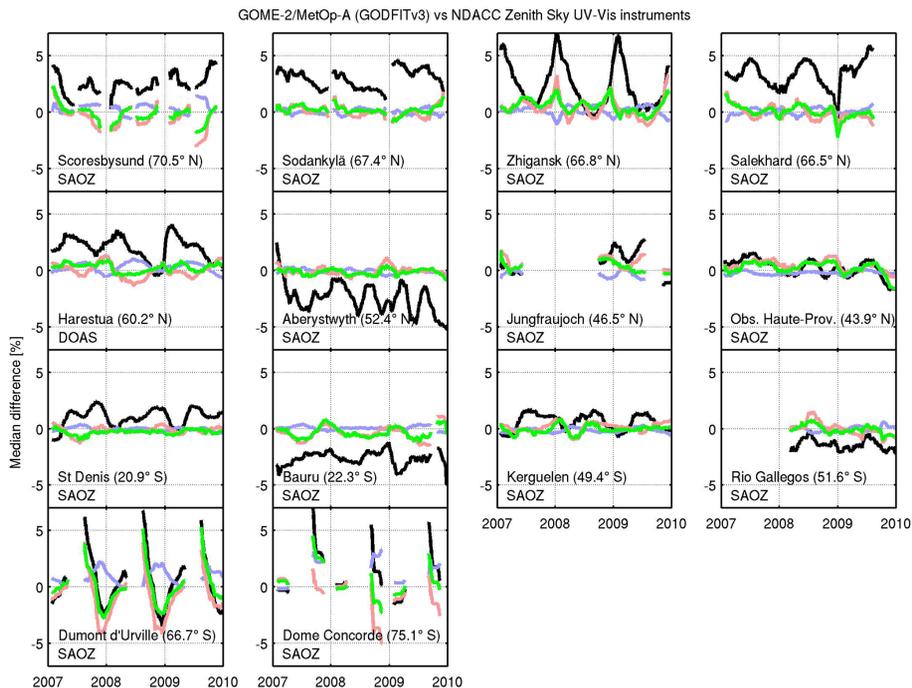


Figure 16. Similar to Fig. 15 but for the median of the differences.

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