



1 **Comparisons of the tropospheric specific humidity from GPS radio occultations with**

2 **ERA–Interim, NASA MERRA and AIRS data**

3

4 Panagiotis Vergados<sup>1</sup>, Anthony J. Mannucci<sup>1</sup>, Chi O. Ao<sup>1</sup>, Olga Verkhoglyadova<sup>1</sup>, and Byron

5 Iijima<sup>1</sup>

6

7 <sup>1</sup> Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, California, USA

8

9 **Corresponding author:** P. Vergados, Jet Propulsion Laboratory, M/S 138-310B, 4800 Oak

10 Grove Dr., Pasadena, CA, 91109, USA. (Panagiotis.Vergados@jpl.nasa.gov)

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20 **Copyright 2017. All rights reserved. Government sponsorship acknowledged.**



21 **Abstract.** We construct a 9-year data record (2007-2015) of the tropospheric specific humidity  
22 (SH) using Global Positioning System radio occultation (GPS RO) observations from the  
23 Constellation Observing System for Meteorology, Ionosphere, and Climate (COSMIC) mission.  
24 This record covers the  $\pm 40^\circ$  latitude belt and includes estimates of the zonally averaged monthly  
25 mean SH from 700 hPa up to 400 hPa. It includes three major climate zones: a) the deep tropics  
26 ( $\pm 15^\circ$ ), b) the trade winds belts ( $\pm 15-30^\circ$ ), and c) the subtropics ( $\pm 30-40^\circ$ ). Our objective is to  
27 compare the RO observations with the European Center for Medium-range Weather Forecasts  
28 Re-Analysis Interim (ERA-Interim), the Modern-Era Retrospective analysis for Research and  
29 Applications (MERRA), and the Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS) to examine the  
30 consistency among the data sets. We present RO SHs from both JPL and UCAR processing  
31 centers to provide an estimate of the structural uncertainty of the RO SH products. The results  
32 show that the RO observations capture the seasonal and interannual SH variability as all other  
33 data sets. On average, the JPL-RO SH agrees with both reanalyses to within 10%, is overall  
34 larger than all data sets, having maximum differences with AIRS by  $\sim 10-30\%$ , and is almost  
35 twice as wet as all other data sets in the middle-to-upper troposphere at the subtropics. The  
36 UCAR-RO SH also agrees with both reanalyses and AIRS, but is systematically drier than all  
37 other data sets. Provided the estimated differences between the RO observations and the rest of  
38 the data sets, together with the retrieval uncertainty of the SH products from all data sets, we  
39 conclude that RO observations are a valuable independent observing system, which could  
40 augment independent reanalyses and satellite platforms. We anticipate that the COSMIC-2  
41 mission will increase the observational sampling; thus, improving the coverage and quality of the  
42 observed SH climatology.

43

44 **1 Introduction**

45 The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) Fifth Assessment Report (AR5)  
46 [Flato *et al.*, 2013] documented that identifying the vertical structure of humidity is subject to  
47 great uncertainty, because dynamical processes that cannot be captured by one sensor alone drive  
48 water vapor. Hence, we ought to quantify and understand the degree of agreement of the water  
49 vapor concentration throughout the vertical extent of the troposphere among different sensors, in  
50 order to improve the representation of the Earth's atmospheric humidity content that is key to  
51 predicting future climate [Hegerl *et al.*, 2015].

52 To-date, ground- and space-based platforms, reanalyses, and model simulations do not  
53 provide precise knowledge of the water vapor's concentration, or its trends over time, in multiple  
54 regions of the Earth's atmosphere [Sherwood *et al.*, 2010]. This is because of the combination of  
55 different reasons that include: (a) sampling bias due to cloudiness, deep convection, or surface  
56 emissivity variations; (b) biases due to limited local time coverage, or random observations  
57 versus volume-filling scans; (c) coarse spatial resolutions, and (d) misrepresentation of the  
58 planetary boundary layer's (PBL) moisture content [Hannay *et al.*, 2009] that induces errors in  
59 the lower-to-middle troposphere moist convection.

60 In particular, infrared (IR) space-based platforms have a coarse vertical resolution (e.g.,  
61 2.0–3.0 km), are prone to cloud contamination [Fetzer *et al.*, 2006], and tend to be low biased  
62 over wet and dry humidity extremes [Fetzer *et al.*, 2008; Chou *et al.*, 2009]. The use of IR  
63 observations in the lower troposphere still remains a challenge, due to the decreasing information  
64 content and the difficulty detecting low-cloud contamination [Schreier *et al.*, 2014]. Space-based  
65 microwave (MW) sounders, despite having low sensitivity to precipitation and clouds, have a  
66 coarse vertical resolution (e.g., 3.0 km in case of the Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS) [Waters



67 *et al.*, 2006]) and are sensitive to the *a-priori* solution that could cause unsuccessful limb-  
68 viewing radiance retrievals (e.g., of up to 30% in the case of MLS [*Read et al.*, 2007]) under  
69 clear sky but moist conditions. Heavy cloudiness, especially in the middle-to-upper troposphere  
70 can also introduce biases in the upwelling MW radiation from water vapor due to the presence of  
71 ice particles that can contaminate the MW retrievals [*Fetzer et al.*, 2008]. Global Circulation  
72 Models (GCMs) do not properly represent the middle troposphere moist convection [*Sherwood*  
73 *et al.*, 2004; *Holloway and Neelin*, 2009; *Frenkel et al.*, 2012], and large discrepancies in the  
74 tropospheric humidity among different reanalyses [*Chen et al.*, 2008] and among reanalyses,  
75 models, and satellite observations [*Chuang et al.*, 2010; *Jiang et al.*, 2012; *Tian et al.*, 2013;  
76 *Wang and Su*, 2013] still persist.

77 The path towards constraining the models, reanalyses, and satellite water vapor  
78 observations uncertainty is to compare them against data sets that are as independent from their  
79 *a-priori* information as possible. Here, we exploit the multi-year record of Global Positioning  
80 System Radio Occultation (GPS RO) observations for remote sensing the Earth's water vapor  
81 content. GPS ROs offer unique atmospheric observing properties such as, all-weather sensing,  
82 high vertical resolution (100–200 m; *Kursinski et al.* [2000]; *Schmidt et al.* 2005]), high specific  
83 humidity (SH) accuracy (< 1.0 g/Kg), and full diurnal cycle sampling.

84 The description of the humidity retrieval process from RO observations is discussed in  
85 details in *Kursinski et al.* [1997], *Kursinski and Hajj* [2001], and *Collard and Healey* [2003], to  
86 name a few. Numerous authors have validated these products against reanalyses, satellite  
87 observations, and radiosondes as discussed in *Steiner et al.* [1999], *Gorbunov and Kornblueh*  
88 [2001], *Divakarla et al.* [2006], *Ho et al.* [2007], *Chou et al.* [2009], *Ho et al.*, [2010], *Sun et al.*  
89 [2010], *Gorbunov et al.* [2011], *Kishore et al.*, [2011], *Wang et al.* [2013], *Vergados et al.*





90 [2014], *Vergados et al.* [2015]. Also, recently, *Kursinski and Gebhardt* [2014] proposed a novel  
91 approach to further improve the retrieved humidity distribution from ROs in the middle  
92 troposphere. Motivated by the above studies, our primary objective is to create a short-term SH  
93 data record (9 years) based on RO observations and compare it against NASA's Modern Era  
94 Retrospective Analysis for Research and Applications (MERRA), European Center for Medium-  
95 range Weather Forecasts Reanalysis Interim (ERA-Interim), and Atmospheric Infrared Sounder  
96 (AIRS) data sets. Our goal is to evaluate the consistency of the RO SH with respect to state-of-  
97 the-art reanalyses and satellite observations by quantifying the RO SH differences with the rest  
98 of the data sets over the tropics and subtropics We anticipate to gain new insights about the SH  
99 distribution over different convective regions, which could provide guidelines for future model  
100 improvements. The uniqueness of this study is that it is the first to compare nearly a decade long  
101 data records of RO SH information and their interannual variability against MERRA, ERA-  
102 Interim, and AIRS. Of importance is the fact that we use MERRA, instead of MERRA-2,  
103 because MERRA does not assimilate ROs (unlike ERA-Interim), providing an independent data  
104 set when comparing the RO SH observations. Section 2 presents the data sets we use in this  
105 analysis together with their retrieval characteristics. In Section 3, we present and discuss the RO  
106 SH climatologies with respect to the rest of the data sets. Section 4 summarizes our current  
107 research.

108

## 109 **2 Methodology**

110 We create time series of tropospheric SH climatologies using the COSMIC observations  
111 (using both the UCAR and the JPL retrievals), the MERRA and ERA-Interim data sets, and the  
112 Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS) observations. These climatologies contain a 9-year



113 measurement record from January 2007 until December 2015 and represent monthly zonal mean  
114 averages. We study the tropics and subtropics ( $\pm 40^\circ$ , in three distinct latitudinal regions) from  
115 700 hPa up to 400 hPa, because this region is key to climate research [IPCC, 2007], but models  
116 and observations have large SH differences in the middle and upper troposphere [e.g., Jiang *et*  
117 *al.*, 2012; Tian *et al.*, 2013; Wang and Su, 2013], and we select this pressure range because the  
118 RO SH retrievals are most robust.

119

## 120 2.1 Constellation Observing System for Meteorology, Ionosphere and Climate

121 The COSMIC constellation of six microsattellites were launched in April 2006 orbiting  
122 the Earth at an altitude of  $\sim 800$  km in near-circular Low Earth Orbit (LEO) [Anthes *et al.*, 2008].  
123 They measure the phase and amplitude of the transmitted dual frequency *L*-band GPS signals  
124 ( $f_1=1.57542$  GHz;  $f_2=1.22760$  GHz) as a function of time. The relative motion of the COSMIC  
125 satellites with respect to the GPS satellites and the presence of the atmosphere cause a Doppler  
126 frequency shift on the transmitted GPS signals upon receipt at the COSMIC satellites. The  
127 magnitude of the Doppler frequency shift is estimated as the time derivative of the recorded GPS  
128 signal phases, which together with precise knowledge of the position and velocity information of  
129 both the COSMIC and the GPS satellites allows for the estimation of the amount of bending of  
130 the transmitted GPS signals due to the presence of the atmosphere, from which one can infer the  
131 air refractive index [Kursinski *et al.*, 1997]. In the lower troposphere, the bending angle is  
132 retrieved using radioholographic methods (such as canonical transform or full spectrum  
133 inversion) that eliminate errors due to atmospheric multipath [e.g., Ao *et al.*, 2003]. The relative  
134 motion of the COSMIC and GPS satellite pair allows for the vertical scanning of the atmosphere  
135 providing vertical profiles of atmospheric refractivity, which contain temperature and humidity



136 information.

137 We use GPS RO-derived SH products from both the UCAR and the JPL processing  
138 centers, which follow different processing techniques to retrieve the SH products. Although this  
139 study does not focus on these differences, we ought to note that UCAR adopts a variational  
140 assimilation method, which requires *a-priori* knowledge of the atmospheric water vapor content  
141 (provided by ERA-Interim), implying that the derived SH products may be subject to error  
142 characteristics of the initial humidity conditions. On the other hand, JPL uses the refractivity  
143 equation (along with the hydrostatic equation and equation of state) to estimate the water vapor  
144 pressure given *a-priori* knowledge of the air temperature [Hajj *et al.*, 2002]:

145

$$N = 77.6 \frac{P}{T} + 3.73 \cdot 10^5 \frac{e}{T^2} \Leftrightarrow e = \frac{1}{3.73 \cdot 10^5} (NT^2 - 77.6PT) \quad [1]$$

146

147 Where  $N$  (unitless) is the refractivity,  $P$  (mbar) is the pressure,  $T$  (K) is the temperature,  
148 and  $e$  (mbar) is the GPS-RO-derived water vapor pressure. The retrieval errors of the JPL SH  
149 products do not contain *a-priori* humidity information, but are subject to errors in the *a-priori*  
150 temperature information, which is provided by the ECMWF Tropical Ocean and Global  
151 Atmosphere (TOGA) database. Because Eq. (1) requires that both the RO and the ECMWF data  
152 sets be reported at the same pressure levels, we interpolate the temperature profiles into the  
153 vertical grid of the RO profiles using linear interpolation. Currently, the JPL-retrieved COSMIC  
154 air refractivity profiles are provided at 200 m vertical resolution in the lower to middle  
155 troposphere.

156

157 **2.2 Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for Research and Application**



158 We use the MERRA (v5.2.0) analysis that employs a 3-D variational assimilation  
159 technique based on the Gridpoint Statistical Interpolation (GIS) scheme with a 6-hour update  
160 cycle [e.g., *Wu et al.*, 2002]. It does not assimilate RO observations, and therefore, it is an  
161 independent dataset from COSMIC. We analyze the monthly gridded SH products given in a  
162 1/2-degree x 2/3-degree latitude–longitude grid and 42 vertical pressure levels. In the  
163 troposphere, the vertical pressure resolution from the surface up to 700 hPa is 25 hPa, whereas  
164 from 700 hPa until 300 hPa the vertical resolution is 50 hPa. MERRA is a NASA analysis that  
165 assimilates satellite observations using the Goddard’s Earth Observing System (GOES) version  
166 5.2.0 Data Assimilation System (DAS) [*Rienecker et al.*, 2008]. Primarily, it assimilates  
167 radiances from AIRS, the Advanced Television and Infrared Observatory Spacecraft Operational  
168 Vertical Sounder (ATOVS), and the Special Sensor Microwave Imager (SSM/I), and figure 4 in  
169 *Rienecker et al.* [2011] provides a detailed list of the rest of the data sets that are assimilated.

170

### 171 **2.3. European Center for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts Re-Analysis Interim**

172 We use the ERA-Interim [*Dee et al.*, 2011], which uses a 4-D variational assimilation  
173 technique [*Simmons et al.*, 2005] to analyze a variety of observational data sets to predict the  
174 state of the atmosphere with accuracy similar to what is theoretically possible based on the error  
175 characteristics of the assimilated data [*Simmons and Hollingsworth*, 2002]. We analyze the  
176 monthly gridded SH products given in a 0.75 degree x 0.75 degree latitude–longitude grid and 20  
177 pressure levels from 1000 hPa up to 300 hPa. The vertical resolution from the surface up to 750  
178 hPa is 25 hPa, but the vertical resolution decreases to 50 hPa between 750 hPa and 300 hPa. The  
179 primary data sets assimilated in ERA-Interim are radiosonde humidity observations, AIRS and  
180 microwave radiances, and as of 11/2006 GPS-RO bending angle profiles.



#### 181 **2.4. Atmospheric Infrared Sounder**

182 We use the AIRS/AMSU v6 Level-3 data [Tian *et al.*, 2013a] and analyze the monthly  
183 gridded SH product given in a 1-degree x 1-degree latitude-longitude grid, which extend from  
184 the surface up to 100 hPa in 12 vertical pressure levels (~ 2.0 km vertical resolution). The latest  
185 AIRS v6 SH products are now available at standard pressure levels. The vertical resolution is  
186 between the surface up to 850 hPa is 75 hPa; between 700 hPa and 300 hPa the vertical  
187 resolution decreases to 100 hPa, and above the 300 hPa pressure level up to 100 hPa the vertical  
188 resolution is 50 hPa. The AIRS physical retrievals use an IR–microwave neural net solution  
189 [Blackwell *et al.*, 2008] as the first guess for temperature and water vapor profiles based on  
190 MIT’s stochastic cloud-clearing and neural network solution described in Khan *et al.* [2014].

191

#### 192 **2.5. Data Sources**

193 The GNSS-RO SH products are publicly available through JPL Global Environmental &  
194 Earth Science Information System (GENESIS) portal at  
195 <ftp://genesis.jpl.nasa.gov/pub/genesis/glevels/cosmic?postproc>, as well as accessible via the  
196 publicly available Atmospheric Grid Analysis and Extraction Profile (AGAPE) web interface at  
197 <https://genesis.jpl.nasa.gov/agape/>. The AIRS/AMSU v6 Level-3 SH products are described in  
198 detail in Tian *et al.* [2013], and for our analysis we use the AIRX3STM v006 data downloadable  
199 from multiple different online tools, including the Simple Subset Wizard (SSW) at  
200 <https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/SSW/> and the Mirador search base at <https://mirador.gsfc.nasa.gov>.  
201 From the MERRA SH products we use are the MAIMNPANA v5.2.0 files, which we  
202 downloaded from the SSW. The ERA-Interim SH products are publicly available at  
203 <http://apps.ecmwf.int/datasets/data/interim-full-moda/levtype=sfc/>.



## 204 2.6. Establishing Data Set Accuracy

205 *Kursinski et al.* [1995] estimated that GPS-RO water vapor profiles have an accuracy of  
206 10–20% below 7.0 km (~5.0% within the boundary layer), and *Kursinski and Hajj* [2001]  
207 estimated RO SH differences of ~0.1 g/kg compared to ECMWF. GPS-RO air refractivity  
208 accuracy of <1.0% at 2.0 km altitude [*Schreiner et al.*, 2007] reduces to ~0.2% above 5.0 km  
209 [*Kuo et al.*, 2005]. Given the air refractivity accuracy and a temperature error of  $\pm 1.0$  K, the  
210 JPL-RO SH is retrieved within ~0.2–0.4 g/kg accuracy at the tropics [*Vergados et al.*, 2014].  
211 MERRA assimilates various observational data sets and the SH accuracy is a function of the  
212 accuracy of the assimilated products. In general, the MERRA SH retrievals are accurate to ~20%  
213 [*Rienecker et al.*, 2011]. AIRS estimated SH product accuracies are typically ~25% at  $p > 200$   
214 hPa [*Fetzer et al.*, 2008], and ERA-Interim SH products have an estimated accuracy of ~7–20%  
215 in the tropical lower-to-middle troposphere [*Dee et al.*, 2011].

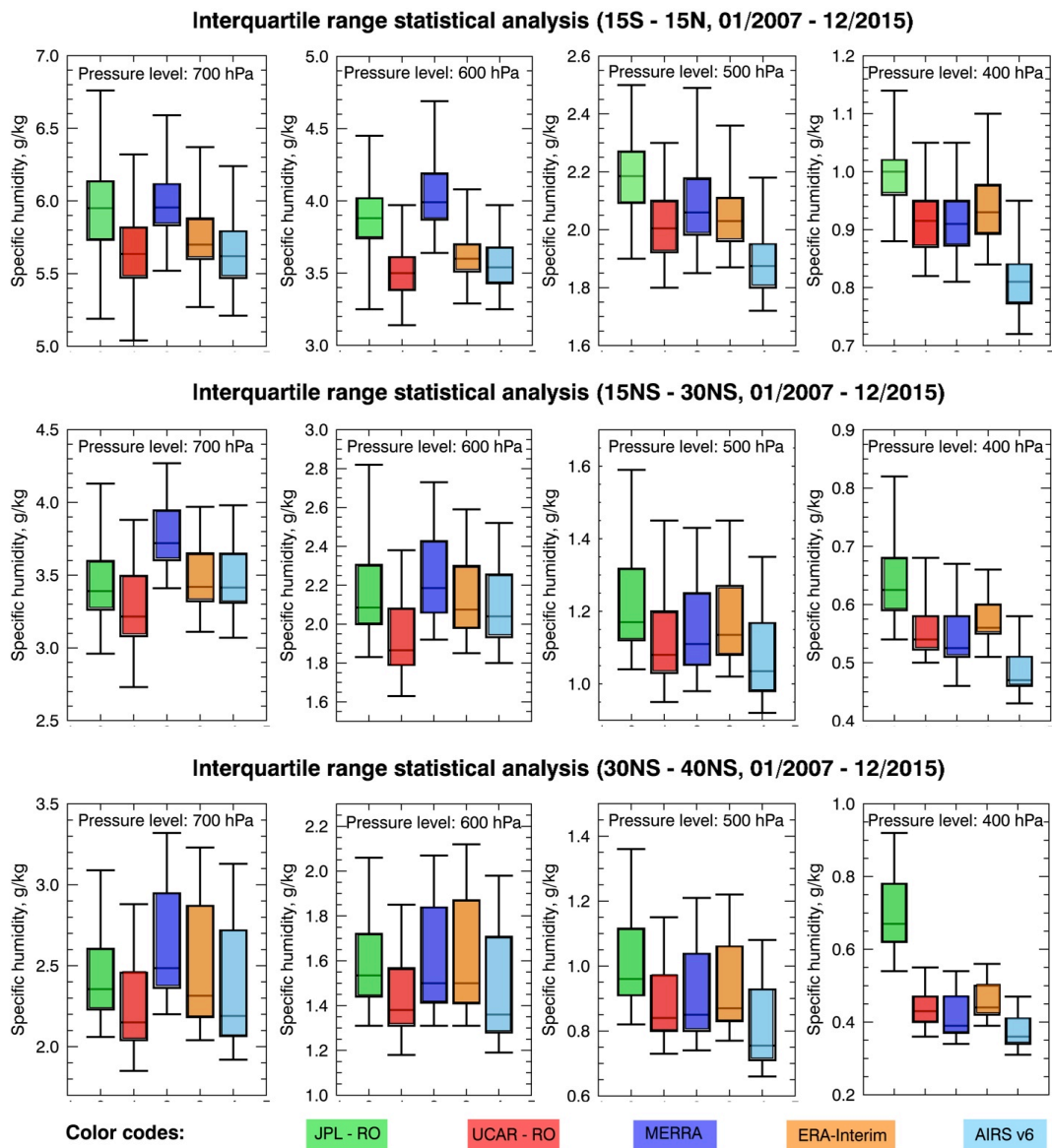
216

## 217 3. Results and Discussion

218 We divide this section into three sub-sections that represent the three tropical climate  
219 environments we analyze, each of which exhibits different atmospheric dynamic properties. In  
220 each sub-section, we study the long-term SH in terms of its: a) annual and interannual variability  
221 and trend, and b) deviations with respect to our center's SH values (JPL-RO). The time series  
222 represent monthly zonal averages of the SH at individual pressure levels from the lower up to the  
223 middle troposphere: 700 hPa, 600 hPa, 500 hPa, and 400 hPa. We do not extend our analysis at  
224 higher altitudes due to the small contribution of water vapor on to the RO observations. We use  
225 the JPL-RO SH values as reference to quantify all statistics with respect to the rest of the data



226 sets, and the differences between the JPL and the UCAR time series serve as a guideline of an  
 227 estimate of the SH structural uncertainty.



228

229 **Figure 1.** Boxplots of the monthly zonal mean SH throughout the 2007–2015 time period for the 700 hPa,  
 230 600 hPa, 500 hPa, and 400 hPa over the ascending branch of Hadley cell (15S–15N) (top row), the trade  
 231 winds belt (15NS–30NS) (middle), and the descending branch of Hadley cell at the subtropics (30NS–  
 232 40NS) from JPL-RO (green), UCAR-RO (red), MERRA (blue), ERA-Interim (orange), and AIRS v6 (cyan).



### 233 3.1. Analysis of the SH at the ascending branch of the Hadley cell

234 The latitude belt within  $\pm 15^\circ$  encompasses the ascending branch of the Hadley cell  
 235 circulation. Moist air masses from both hemispheres converge within this narrow equatorial  
 236 region, collide, and lead to heavy precipitation. The amount of the latent heat released during  
 237 rainfall warms the air driving strong rising motions, deep convection, and high cloud formation.

238 The top row in figure 1 presents statistical information about the median, the interquartile  
 239 range (IQR), and the minimum and maximum values of the SH time series over the entire  
 240 observational record for all data sets throughout the vertical extent of the troposphere. Figure 2  
 241 shows details about the variability of the monthly zonal mean SH and Table 1 summarizes the  
 242 results of figure 2.

243

244 **Table 1.** Mean climatology, deviation of the mean climatology from JPL – RO, and linear regression fits of  
 245 the SH time series from JPL–RO, UCAR–RO, ERA–Interim, MERRA, and AIRS over the 15S–15N climate  
 246 region. The 2-sigma uncertainties are estimated for each statistical metric, and their statistical significance  
 247 is evaluated at  $p < 0.05$  confidence level. Boxes filled with red are statistically insignificant

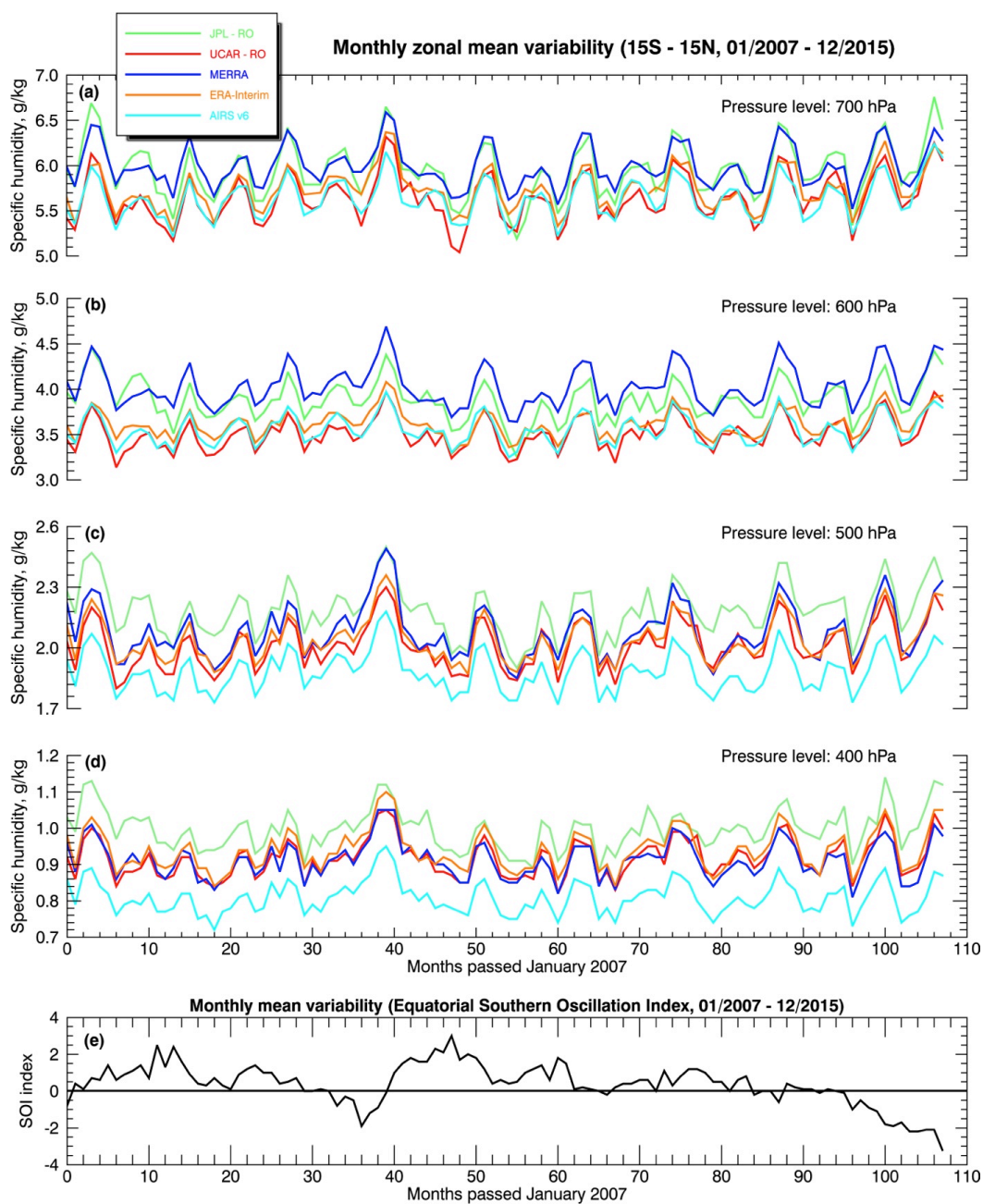
PART I: 9-year long mean of SH climatology with 2-sigma uncertainty, g/kg					
Data Records	JPL–RO	UCAR–RO	ERA–Interim	MERRA	AIRS
400 hPa	$0.99 \pm 0.12$	$0.92 \pm 0.10$	$0.94 \pm 0.12$	$0.91 \pm 0.10$	$0.81 \pm 0.08$
500 hPa	$2.18 \pm 0.26$	$2.01 \pm 0.22$	$2.04 \pm 0.22$	$2.08 \pm 0.26$	$1.88 \pm 0.20$
600 hPa	$3.88 \pm 0.44$	$3.51 \pm 0.30$	$3.62 \pm 0.30$	$4.03 \pm 0.44$	$3.55 \pm 0.32$
700 hPa	$5.95 \pm 0.60$	$5.64 \pm 0.52$	$5.74 \pm 0.46$	$5.99 \pm 0.46$	$5.64 \pm 0.44$
PART II: 9-year long mean of deviations from JPL–RO, g/kg					
400 hPa	n/a	- 0.08	- 0.06	- 0.08	- 0.19
500 hPa	n/a	- 0.17	- 0.14	- 0.10	- 0.31
600 hPa	n/a	- 0.37	- 0.27	+ 0.15	- 0.33
700 hPa	n/a	- 0.31	- 0.22	+ 0.04	- 0.32
PART III: Linear regression fits of SH anomalies with 2-sigma uncertainty, g/kg/month					
400 hPa	$(1.0 \pm 3.0) \times 10^{-4}$	$(3.7 \pm 2.2) \times 10^{-4}$	$(2.4 \pm 2.2) \times 10^{-4}$	$(0.1 \pm 2.1) \times 10^{-4}$	$(0.3 \pm 2.0) \times 10^{-4}$
500 hPa	$(2.3 \pm 6.0) \times 10^{-4}$	$(9.6 \pm 4.4) \times 10^{-4}$	$(6.2 \pm 4.6) \times 10^{-4}$	$(3.3 \pm 5.4) \times 10^{-4}$	$(2.1 \pm 4.2) \times 10^{-4}$
600 hPa	$(-1.8 \pm 10) \times 10^{-4}$	$(15.1 \pm 6.6) \times 10^{-4}$	$(6.3 \pm 6.8) \times 10^{-4}$	$(8.4 \pm 8.0) \times 10^{-4}$	$(6.3 \pm 5.4) \times 10^{-4}$
700 hPa	$(6.1 \pm 12) \times 10^{-4}$	$(17.2 \pm 9.0) \times 10^{-4}$	$(14.1 \pm 8.8) \times 10^{-4}$	$(1.3 \pm 7.2) \times 10^{-4}$	$(12.9 \pm 7.2) \times 10^{-4}$





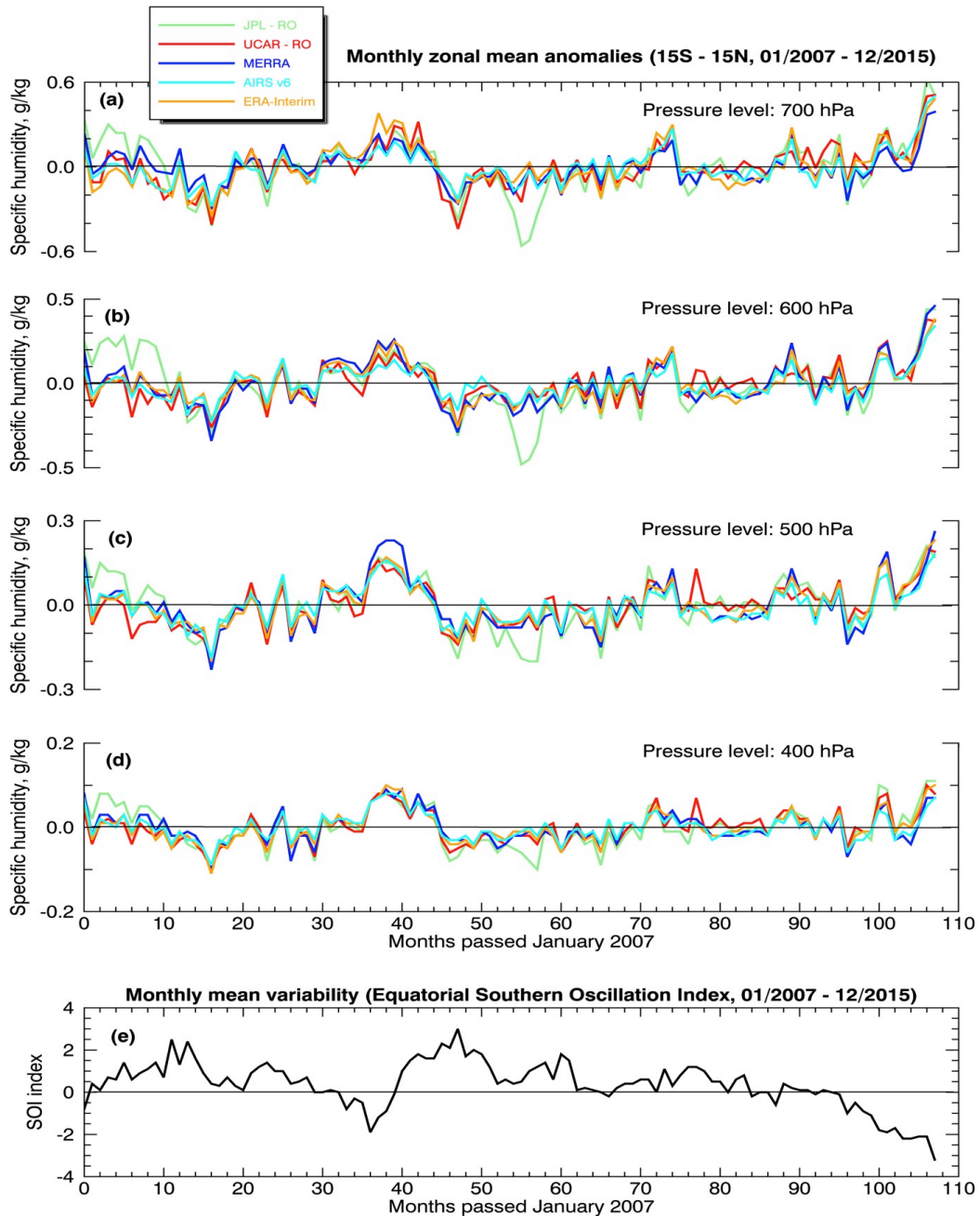
248 In the lower troposphere, above the planetary boundary layer, the JPL-RO observations  
249 show almost the same mean SH value as MERRA  $\sim 6.0$  g/kg (at 700 hPa) and  $\sim 4.0$  g/kg (at 600  
250 hPa) with the two data sets differing by  $< 1.0\%$  and  $< 4.0\%$  at the respective pressure levels (cf.,  
251 Table 1) marking an excellent agreement between JPL-RO and MERRA. The UCAR-RO,  
252 AIRS, and ERA-Interim are in a very good agreement with one another differing by  $< 3.0\%$  and  
253 all show that the lower troposphere is  $\sim 7.0$ – $10\%$  drier than what the JPL-RO and MERRA data  
254 sets indicate. This dryness is more pronounced at 600 hPa. These differences are statistically  
255 significant within the 2-sigma uncertainty. In the middle troposphere, at 500 hPa and 400 hPa,  
256 MERRA, ERA-Interim, and UCAR-RO agree very well capturing  $\sim 2.0$ – $2.1$  g/kg SH. However,  
257 the middle troposphere air appears to be moister in the JPL-RO data set than in the UCAR-RO  
258 and the two reanalyses by  $< 5.0$ – $9.0\%$ , which falls within the *Vergados et al.* [2014] uncertainty  
259 SH retrieval. AIRS is the driest among all data sets by  $< 10\%$ , and its dryness becomes more  
260 apparent at 400 hPa. These discrepancies are statistically significant within the 2-sigma  
261 uncertainty.

262 The AIRS dry bias over the ITCZ [*Hearty et al.* 2014], possibly due to sampling  
263 limitations over cloud-covered regions, explains the observed systematic lower SH values with  
264 respect to all data sets over this deep convective environment. ERA-Interim underestimates the  
265 total cloud fraction over the  $\pm 15^\circ$  region compared to MERRA [*Dolinar et al.*, 2016; figure 1]  
266 and is also colder than MERRA by  $\sim 1.0$  K in the 2006–2011 time period at the tropics at 700 hPa  
267 [*Simmons et al.*, 2014; figure 18]. Given the definition of SH (as the product between the relative  
268 humidity and the saturation vapor pressure), it is evident why MERRA shows a wetter air than  
269 ERA-Interim in the lower troposphere.



270

271 **Figure 2.** Times series of the monthly zonal averages of the specific humidity from January 1, 2007 until  
272 December 31, 2015 from JPL-RO (green), UCAR – RO (red), ERA-Interim (orange), MERRA (blue) and  
273 AIRS (cyan) at (a) 500 hPa, (b) 400 hPa, (c) 700 hPa, and (d) 600 hPa pressure levels.



274

275 **Figure 3.** Times series of the monthly zonal averages of the specific humidity interannual anomalies from  
276 January 1, 2007 until December 31, 2015 from JPL-RO (green), UCAR – RO (red), ERA-Interim (orange),  
277 MERRA (blue) and AIRS (cyan) at (a) 500 hPa, (b) 400 hPa, (c) 700 hPa, and (d) 600 hPa pressure levels.



278 However, the cold bias in the ERA–Interim becomes small with altitude and reduces to almost  
279 zero at 500 hPa, and ERA–Interim starts showing a warm bias with respect to MERRA at 300  
280 hPa by  $\sim 0.1\text{--}0.3$  K [Simmons *et al.*, 2014]. This temperature bias between the two reanalyses  
281 could possibly explain why the two reanalyses begin to estimate similar SH values at 500 hPa  
282 and 400 hPa.

283 The fact that the UCAR–RO data set seems to consistently agree with ERA–Interim at all  
284 altitudes could be the result of the variational assimilation technique adopted by the UCAR  
285 center, which uses ERA–Interim humidity information as the *a-priori*. The systematic wetter air  
286 shown in the JPL SH values could be due to the warm bias in ERA–Interim above 500 hPa that  
287 leaks through the retrieval process of JPL’s SH products (Eq. 1).

288 Despite the differences in the absolute value of the SH among the five different data sets,  
289 figure 2 shows that all data sets capture the same variability patterns, which exhibit clear  
290 signatures of an annual SH cycle. After computing the annual cycle for each data set and  
291 removing it from the time series, we estimate the respective SH interannual anomalies. The  
292 amplitude of these anomalies fluctuates around  $\pm 0.4$  g/kg at 700 hPa, whose amplitude decreases  
293 to  $\pm 0.1$  g/kg at 400 hPa. The interannual anomaly variations for all data sets in the middle  
294 troposphere correlate strongly ( $> 0.8$ ) with those in the lower troposphere, but have smaller  
295 amplitude. The SH interannual anomalies for all data sets also show a moderate cross-correlation  
296 ( $> 0.5$ ) with the monthly mean southern oscillation index (SOI), when using a 5–month lag,  
297 demonstrating that climate modes influence the troposphere in its entirety.

298 Based on a linear regression fit and a Student *t*-test statistical analysis at the 95%  
299 confidence level (criteria:  $p < 0.05$  and 2-sigma) of the SH interannual anomalies, we find that  
300 JPL–RO and MERRA suggest no increase in the amount of SH with time between 700 hPa and



301 400 hPa (cf., Table 1). Contrary to that, the UCAR–RO and ERA–Interim data sets indicate a  
302 gradual increase of the absolute amount of SH throughout the vertical extend of the troposphere.  
303 The increase is faster at 700 hPa and slows down with height, with UCAR–RO systematically  
304 indicating faster moistening than ERA–Interim. The AIRS data sets show an increase of the SH  
305 at 700 hPa and 600 hPa at a rate similar to that of ERA–Interim, but no SH increase at 500 hPa  
306 and above.

307

### 308 **3.2. Analysis of the SH at the trade winds zones**

309 The  $\pm 15\text{--}30^\circ$  belt, in both hemispheres, defines the trade winds zones, where dry air  
310 masses that descend from the Hadley cell at the subtropics travel towards the equator. These  
311 regions exhibit shallower convection compared to the  $\pm 15^\circ$  region, as clouds forming in these  
312 regions are typically cumulus and do not extend above 4.0 km.

313 In the lower troposphere, above the boundary layer, we notice different behaviors in  
314 terms of the data sets' agreement compared to our analysis of the SH in the deep tropics. In  
315 particular, there is a statistically significant disagreement between the JPL–RO and MERRA data  
316 sets of  $\sim 10\%$  (at 700 hPa) and  $\sim 3.5\%$  (at 600 hPa), with MERRA being the wetter of the two.  
317 The JPL–RO data set agrees very well with both the ERA–Interim and the AIRS data sets having  
318 differences of  $\sim 1.0\%$  (at 700 hPa) and  $\sim 2.0\text{--}3.0\%$  (at 600 hPa); but, these difference are  
319 statistically insignificant. The UCAR–RO data set continues to be the driest among all data sets  
320 having statistically significant differences of  $\sim 15\%$  (at 700 hPa and 600 hPa) and  $\sim 5.0\%$  (at 700  
321 hPa) to  $\sim 10\%$  (at 600 hPa) with respect to MERRA and JPL–RO, respectively (cf., Table 2). In  
322 the middle troposphere, the summer season in the JPL–RO data set is noticeably wetter by  $\sim$   
323 4.0% than the rest of the data sets (cf., figure 4c) and this wetness becomes more pronounced at



324 400 hPa throughout the entire time period. Similar to the deep tropics, the UCAR–RO is in  
 325 excellent agreement with both ERA–Interim and MERRA, and AIRS is still the driest data set  
 326 and this dryness becomes more pronounced at 400 hPa.

327

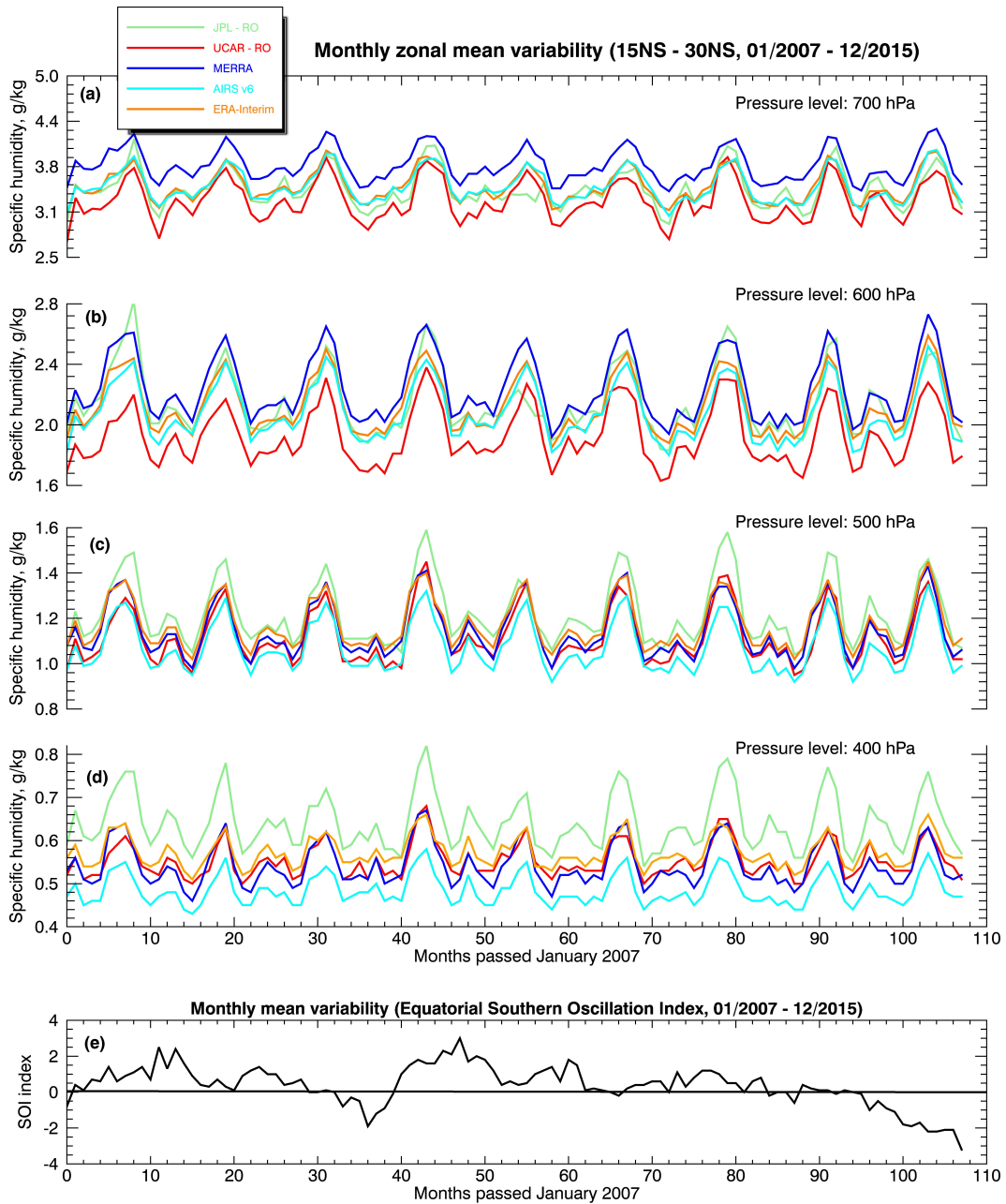
328 **Table 2.** Same as Table 1, but for the  $\pm 15\text{--}30^\circ$  climate zone.

PART I: 9–year long mean of SH climatology with 2-sigma uncertainty, g/kg					
Data Records	JPL–RO	UCAR–RO	ERA–Interim	MERRA	AIRS
400 hPa	$0.64 \pm 0.12$	$0.55 \pm 0.08$	$0.57 \pm 0.06$	$0.54 \pm 0.10$	$0.49 \pm 0.08$
500 hPa	$1.22 \pm 0.28$	$1.12 \pm 0.24$	$1.17 \pm 0.22$	$1.15 \pm 0.24$	$1.07 \pm 0.22$
600 hPa	$2.17 \pm 0.44$	$1.93 \pm 0.38$	$2.13 \pm 0.38$	$2.24 \pm 0.42$	$2.09 \pm 0.38$
700 hPa	$3.44 \pm 0.50$	$3.28 \pm 0.54$	$3.48 \pm 0.44$	$3.77 \pm 0.44$	$3.48 \pm 0.44$
PART II: 9–year long mean of deviations from JPL–RO, g/kg					
400 hPa	n/a	- 0.09	- 0.07	- 0.10	- 0.16
500 hPa	n/a	- 0.11	- 0.05	- 0.07	- 0.15
600 hPa	n/a	- 0.23	- 0.02	- 0.09	- 0.07
700 hPa	n/a	- 0.16	+ 0.04	+ 0.33	+ 0.04
PART III: Linear regression fits of SH anomalies with 2-sigma uncertainty, g/kg/month					
400 hPa	$(-0.7 \pm 1.8) \times 10^{-4}$	$(1.1 \pm 1.2) \times 10^{-4}$	$(0.3 \pm 1.0) \times 10^{-4}$	$(-0.3 \pm 1.0) \times 10^{-4}$	$(-0.3 \pm 1.0) \times 10^{-4}$
500 hPa	$(-0.5 \pm 3.6) \times 10^{-4}$	$(1.6 \pm 2.8) \times 10^{-4}$	$(-0.1 \pm 2.2) \times 10^{-4}$	$(-1.3 \pm 2.2) \times 10^{-4}$	$(-1.9 \pm 2.0) \times 10^{-4}$
600 hPa	$(-6.9 \pm 6.6) \times 10^{-4}$	$(1.8 \pm 4.8) \times 10^{-4}$	$(-1.9 \pm 3.4) \times 10^{-4}$	$(-5.0 \pm 3.8) \times 10^{-4}$	$(-5.2 \pm 3.2) \times 10^{-4}$
700 hPa	$(-3.9 \pm 8.6) \times 10^{-4}$	$(-0.4 \pm 7.2) \times 10^{-4}$	$(-3.8 \pm 4.8) \times 10^{-4}$	$(-7.5 \pm 4.6) \times 10^{-4}$	$(-6.2 \pm 4.4) \times 10^{-4}$

329

330 Compared to the  $\pm 15^\circ$  region, the absolute differences of the SH values averaged over the  
 331 entire time period between the JPL–RO and the rest of the data sets throughout the vertical extent  
 332 of the troposphere is smaller, except at the 400 hPa where it remains almost the same. Overall,  
 333 this suggests that over less convective regions different data sets tend to agree better, signifying  
 334 that convection is a limiting factor in properly sensing the amount of water vapor in the  
 335 atmosphere. The monthly zonal mean SH variability also shows a clear annual cycle signature  
 336 throughout the vertical extent of the troposphere, but the amplitudes of the SH interannual  
 337 anomalies is  $\sim 50\%$  smaller (cf., figure 5) than those estimated over the deep tropics.





338

339 **Figure 4.** Same as figure 2, but the results reflect SH trends in the 15NS–30NS latitudinal belt.



340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

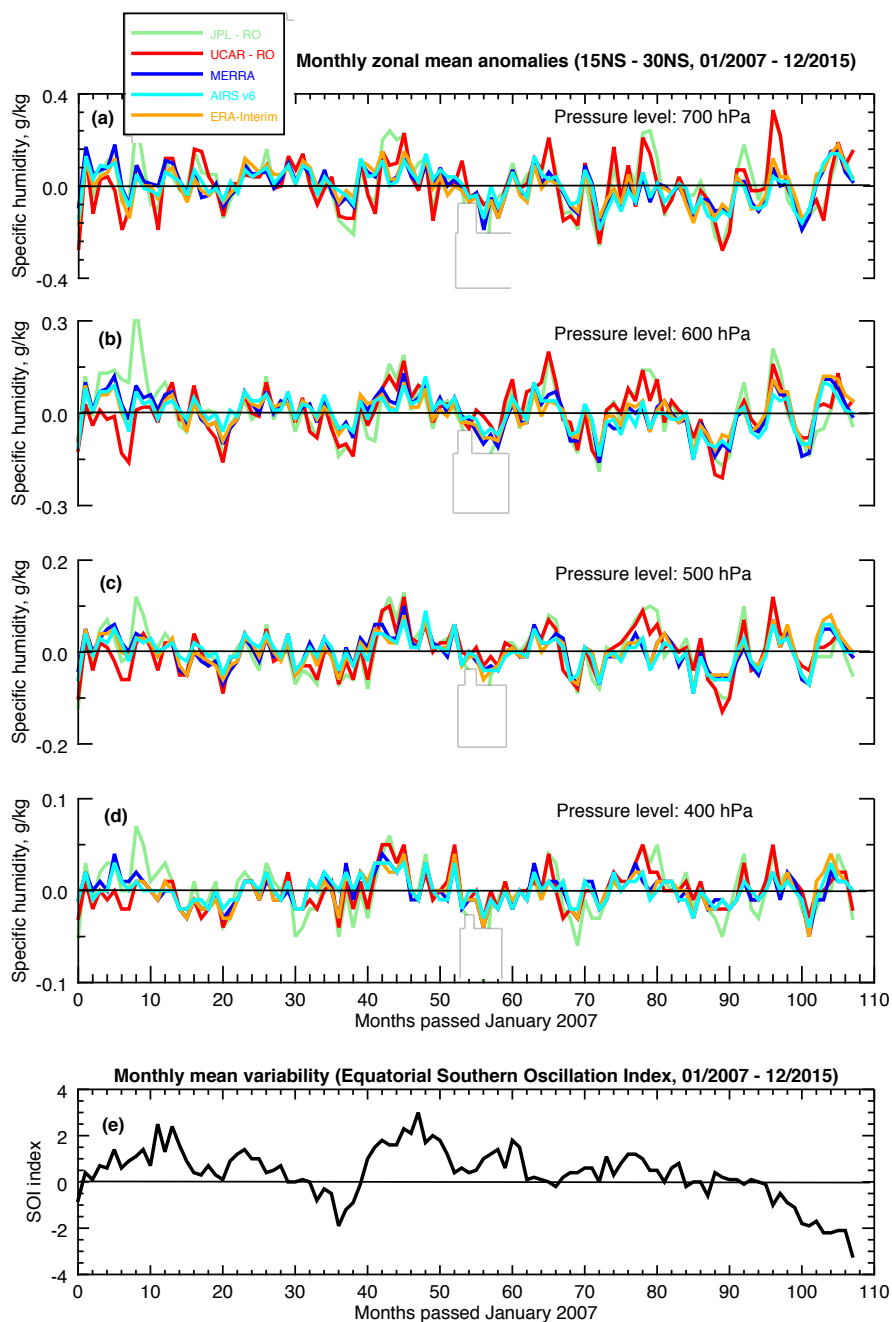
351

352

353

354

355



356 **Figure 5.** Same as figure 3, but the results reflect SH trends in the 15NS–30NS latitudinal belt.





357           The SH interannual anomalies of all data sets at 400 hPa are correlated ( $\sim 0.6$ ) with those  
358 at 700 hPa, but have smaller amplitude. The strength of their correlation over the trade winds  
359 zone is weaker and decreases with altitude compared to that estimated for the deep tropics. We  
360 suggest that this may be linked to the strength of the convection over the trade winds zone, which  
361 is weaker than that found over the deep tropics; thus, establishing a weaker vertical connection.  
362 Unlike the deep tropics, the SH interannual anomalies of all data sets show a weak cross-  
363 correlation ( $< 0.3$ ) with the monthly mean SOI, when using a 5-month lag (and the cross-  
364 correlation is even smaller at 0-month lag).

365           Based on a linear regression fit and a Student *t*-test statistical analysis (criteria:  $p < 0.05$   
366 and 2-sigma) of the SH interannual anomalies, unlike the deep tropics, all data sets indicate no  
367 change in the amount of the SH up to 400 hPa with time (cf., Table 2). Contrary to the deep  
368 tropics, the linear regression fit slopes are negative, with the MERRA and AIRS data sets  
369 indicating a gradual SH decrease in the lower troposphere at 700 hPa and 600 hPa.

370

### 371 **3.3. Analysis of the SH at the subtropics**

372           The  $\pm 30\text{--}40^\circ$  latitude belt, in both hemispheres, defines the subtropics where dry air  
373 masses descend from the Hadley cell. These moderate-to-strong subsidence regions exhibit low  
374 cloud formation (especially during the summer months), while favoring formation of low-  
375 altitude marine boundary layer (MBL) clouds.

376           In the subtropics, the interquartile range and 1-sigma uncertainty of the MERRA, ERA-  
377 Interim, and AIRS data sets at 700 hPa and 600 hPa is  $\sim 50\%$  larger than those estimated for the  
378 deep tropics and the trade winds zones (cf., figure 1; bottom row), indicating much larger  
379 variability of the monthly zonal mean SH in the lower troposphere over dry air regions.



380 **Table 3.** Same as Table 1, but for the subtropics  $\pm 30\text{--}40^\circ$  region.

381

<b>PART I: 9-Year long mean of SH climatology with 2-sigma uncertainty, g/kg</b>					
<b>Data Records</b>	<b>JPL-RO</b>	<b>UCAR-RO</b>	<b>ERA-Interim</b>	<b>MERRA</b>	<b>AIRS</b>
400 hPa	$0.64 \pm 0.12$	$0.44 \pm 0.08$	$0.46 \pm 0.10$	$0.42 \pm 0.12$	$0.37 \pm 0.08$
500 hPa	$1.01 \pm 0.26$	$0.88 \pm 0.22$	$0.94 \pm 0.28$	$0.92 \pm 0.18$	$0.82 \pm 0.26$
600 hPa	$1.59 \pm 0.36$	$1.44 \pm 0.34$	$1.62 \pm 0.52$	$1.61 \pm 0.48$	$1.48 \pm 0.50$
700 hPa	$2.44 \pm 0.52$	$2.25 \pm 0.52$	$2.50 \pm 0.64$	$2.64 \pm 0.68$	$2.38 \pm 0.76$
<b>PART II: 9-Year long mean of deviations from JPL-RO, g/kg</b>					
400 hPa	n/a	- 0.26	- 0.24	- 0.28	- 0.32
500 hPa	n/a	- 0.13	- 0.07	- 0.09	- 0.20
600 hPa	n/a	- 0.15	+ 0.03	+ 0.02	- 0.11
700 hPa	n/a	- 0.19	+ 0.06	+ 0.20	- 0.06
<b>PART III: Linear regression fits of SH anomalies with 2-sigma uncertainty, g/kg/month</b>					
400 hPa	$(-1.3 \pm 2.0) \times 10^{-4}$	$(1.1 \pm 1.0) \times 10^{-4}$	$(1.1 \pm 0.8) \times 10^{-4}$	$(1.0 \pm 0.8) \times 10^{-4}$	$(0.8 \pm 0.8) \times 10^{-4}$
500 hPa	$(-1.4 \pm 2.4) \times 10^{-4}$	$(1.1 \pm 2.0) \times 10^{-4}$	$(1.6 \pm 1.6) \times 10^{-4}$	$(0.3 \pm 1.6) \times 10^{-4}$	$(0.4 \pm 1.4) \times 10^{-4}$
600 hPa	$(-2.0 \pm 4.2) \times 10^{-4}$	$(2.8 \pm 3.4) \times 10^{-4}$	$(2.1 \pm 2.6) \times 10^{-4}$	$(0.4 \pm 2.8) \times 10^{-4}$	$(-3.1 \pm 2.2) \times 10^{-4}$
700 hPa	$(-0.3 \pm 5.8) \times 10^{-4}$	$(3.9 \pm 4.6) \times 10^{-4}$	$(4.0 \pm 3.6) \times 10^{-4}$	$(2.9 \pm 4.0) \times 10^{-4}$	$(-4.5 \pm 3.2) \times 10^{-4}$

382

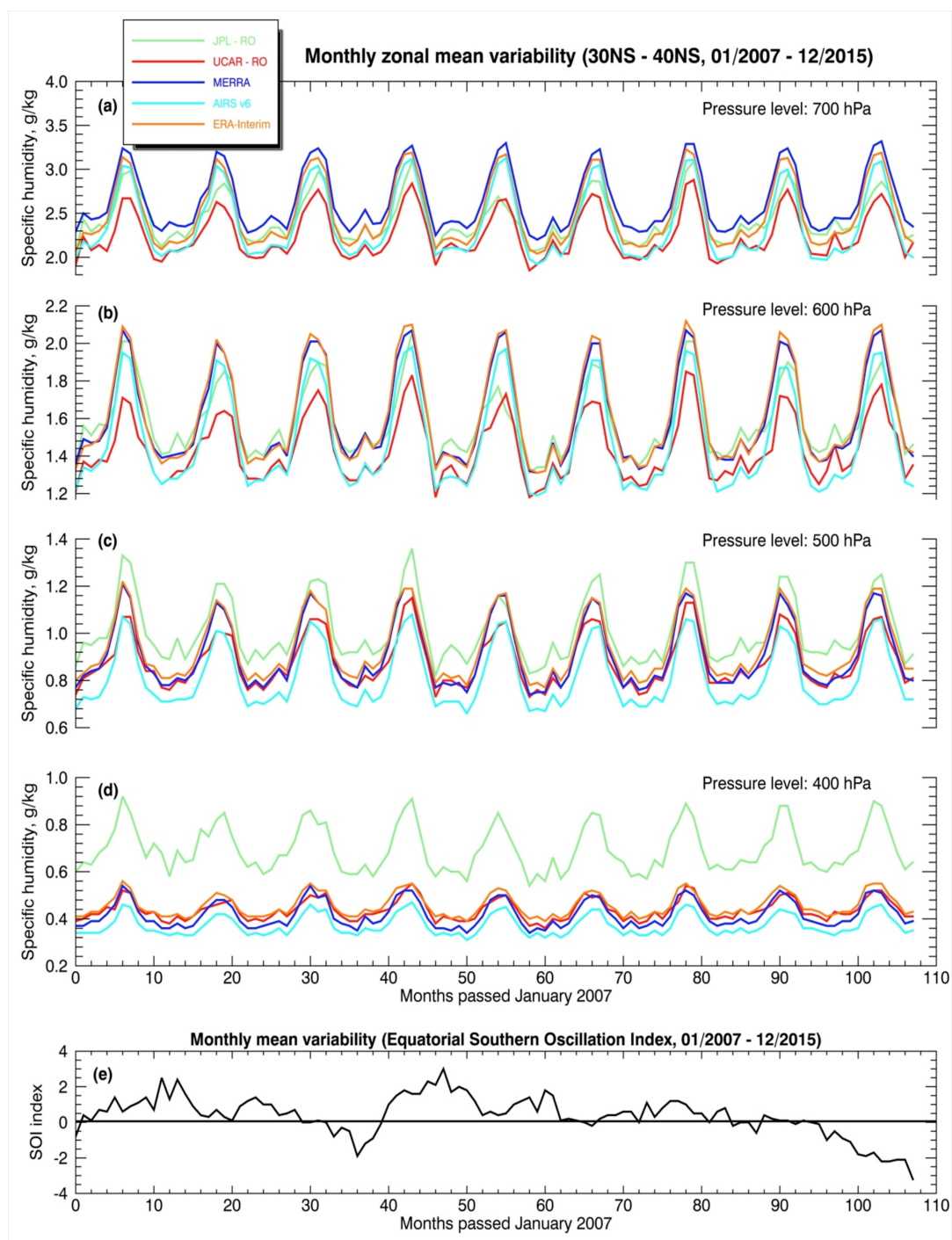
383 The interquartile ranges for the JPL-RO and UCAR-RO data sets do not show any  
 384 differences among the three climate zones, suggesting that RO observations show smaller  
 385 variability in the SH than the two reanalyses and the AIRS data sets regardless of the climate  
 386 zone and dynamics.

387 At the subtropics, similar to the trade winds zones, at 700 hPa, the JPL-RO data set  
 388 agrees very well with the ERA-Interim and the AIRS data sets within  $< 2.5\%$  (statistically  
 389 insignificant), and but is drier than MERRA by 8.0% (statistically significant). Again, the  
 390 UCAR-RO data set is the driest among all data sets by  $\sim 8.0\%$  (statistically significant);  
 391 however, during the autumn and winter seasons it agrees very well with the AIRS observations  
 392 throughout the entire time period (cf., figure 6) but during spring and summer AIRS captures  
 393 wetter air than UCAR-RO. Moving higher into the troposphere, at 600 hPa, the JPL-RO data set



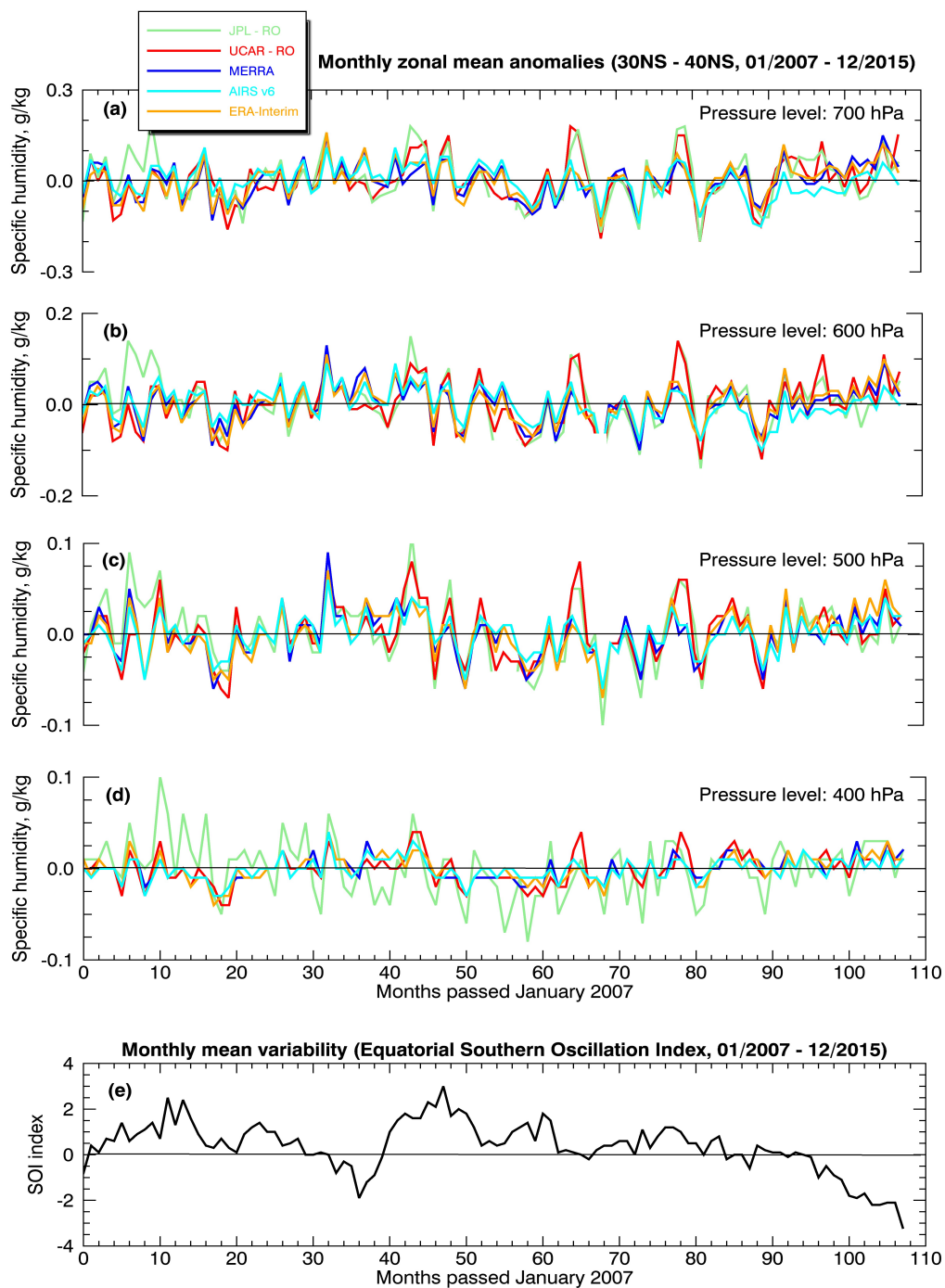
394 agrees very well with both reanalyses differing by  $< 2.0\%$  (statistically insignificant), but it is  
395 now statistically wetter than the AIRS data set by  $\sim 7.0\%$ . In particular, the JPL–RO data sets  
396 capture almost the same month–to–month zonal mean SH values with the two reanalyses during  
397 autumn and winter, and the AIRS data set is in excellent agreement with the UCAR–RO data set  
398 during the same seasons. The UCAR–RO data set continues to be the driest among all data sets  
399 by  $> 10\%$  with respect to both reanalyses and the JPL–RO data set, but it is statistically the same  
400 with AIRS differing by  $< 3.0\%$ .

401 In the middle troposphere, the JPL–RO data set starts indicating that the air is moister  
402 than all other data sets by  $> 4.0\%$ , and this wetness becomes much more pronounced at 400 hPa  
403 with the JPL–RO data set indicating that the atmosphere is wetter by  $> 30\%$  with respect to the  
404 rest of the data sets. The JPL–RO time series defines the maximum SH values at 500 hPa and  
405 400 hPa, while the AIRS data set sets the minimum SH values at the respective pressure levels,  
406 with the two reanalyses and the UCAR–RO data sets lay in between the JPL–RO and the AIRS  
407 data sets. MERRA and ERA–Interim are statistically in excellent agreement with one another at  
408 500 hPa differing by  $\sim 2.0\%$ . The UCAR–RO data set is systematically drier with respect to the  
409 two reanalyses during the summer season by  $\sim 7.0\%$  (with ERA–Interim) and  $\sim 4.5\%$  (MERRA).  
410 This dryness might be causing the UCAR–RO data set to appear statistically different with  
411 respect to MERRA and ERA–Interim. At 400 hPa, all data sets are statistically different from  
412 one another within 2-sigma; yet, the UCAR–RO data set is in close agreement with MERRA  
413 (during spring and summer) and ERA–Interim (during autumn and winter).



414

415 **Figure 6.** Same as figure 2, but the results reflect SH trends in the subtropics at 30NS–30NS.



416

417 **Figure 7.** Same as figure 3, but the results reflect SH trends in the subtropics  $\pm 30-40\text{NS}$  region.



418           Considering that both MERRA and ERA–Interim under-predict the total cloud fraction  
419 over subsidence regions [Dolinar *et al.*, 2016], the two reanalyses might underestimate the air  
420 absolute humidity. Additionally, taking into account the fact that JPL RO retrieval technique  
421 uses ECMWF as *a-priori* temperature information in the forward refractivity operator to estimate  
422 the SH (that has a warm bias in the upper troposphere) implies that JPL–RO may be  
423 overestimating the SH at 400 hPa. The abovementioned arguments might explain (partly) the >  
424 30% disagreement of the JPL–RO data set with respect to all other the data sets, and the current  
425 results show that the JPL–RO time series senses a wetter subsidence zone throughout the  
426 troposphere – more so at 400 hPa.

427           Compared to the deep tropics and the trade winds zones, the absolute differences of the  
428 SH values averaged over the entire time period between the JPL–RO and the rest of the data sets  
429 throughout the vertical extent of the troposphere are smaller than in the deep tropics and similar  
430 to the trade winds zone, except at the 400 hPa where it remains almost the same. Again, this  
431 hints towards the notion that different data sets agree better with one another over regions  
432 characterized by less convection. The monthly zonal mean SH variability also shows a clear  
433 annual cycle signature throughout the vertical extent of the troposphere, but the amplitudes of the  
434 SH interannual anomalies is ~ 30–50% smaller (cf., figure 5) than those estimated over the trade  
435 winds zone.

436           The SH interannual anomalies of all data sets at 400 hPa are again correlated (~ 0.65),  
437 with the anomalies at 700 hPa, with their amplitudes decreasing with altitude. The strength of  
438 their correlation over the subtropics is similar to that estimated over the trade winds zone and  
439 weaker than that found over the deep tropics. Again, this may hint that the strength of the  
440 convection is coupled with the correlation strength of the SH anomalies throughout the vertical



441 extent of the troposphere. Unlike the deep tropics, the SH interannual anomalies of all data sets  
442 show a weak cross-correlation ranges from  $\sim 0.25$  (at 700 hPa and 600 hPa) to  $\sim 0.4$  (at 500 hPa  
443 and 400 hPa) with the monthly mean SOI. This indicates that there is a connection between the  
444 surface temperature variability and the atmosphere aloft, and the surface climate variability  
445 affects more the upper than the lower troposphere. The magnitude of the correlation at the  
446 subtropics is smaller than that found in the deep tropics, suggesting that convection may be key  
447 to establishing the extent and strength of vertical teleconnection in the troposphere.

448         Based on a linear regression fit and a Student  $t$ -test statistical analysis (criteria:  $p < 0.05$   
449 and 2-sigma) of the SH interannual anomalies, unlike the trade winds zones, ERA–Interim and  
450 UCAR–RO (at all pressure levels) and AIRS (at 500 hPa and 400 hPa) show moistening of the  
451 subtropics, except from the AIRS 700 hPa and 600 hPa pressure levels where the data sets  
452 indicate a decrease in the SH over time. The JPL–RO data sets neither does it show decrease or  
453 increase of SH with time, and MERRA shows moistening of the upper troposphere.

454

#### 455 **4. Conclusions**

456         We conclude that based on statistical tests using a 2-sigma uncertainty and 95%  
457 confidence level criteria the RO observations: (a) capture similar patterns of the monthly zonal  
458 mean SH annual variability and trend as the two reanalyses and the AIRS observations (except  
459 from the JPL-RO time series that exhibit discrepancies in the SH variability at the beginning of  
460 the year 2007 and in the summer of 2011). (b) They capture the same SH annual cycle signature  
461 as all other data sets. (c) The RO interannual anomalies are in excellent agreement with all other  
462 data sets, both in magnitude and variability, despite discrepancies in the absolute value of SH  
463 with respect to other data sets. (d) The SH differences between JPL and UCAR are variable





464 depending on location and pressure level, ranging in general between 5.0% and 15.0%. This  
465 difference, although it is statistically significant at the 95% confidence level, falls within JPL's  
466 retrieval uncertainty [Vergados *et al.*, 2014]. Given the above, the RO observations could  
467 augment the reanalyses and satellite observations by providing an independent data set to study  
468 short-term SH variations, which are critical to the study of water vapor trends, and climate  
469 sensitivity, variability, and change. Although RO observations capture very well the SH  
470 variabilities and trends with time, we ought to point out that there exist discrepancies among the  
471 data sets over certain seasons and climate regions that introduce statistically significant  
472 differences in the amount of tropospheric SH measured by each data set.

473         In the middle-to-upper troposphere, at 500 hPa and 400 hPa, we notice that over all  
474 climate zones (despite the convection strength), the JPL–RO data set is the moistest than all data  
475 sets, the AIRS data set is the driest than all data sets, and the UCAR–RO data set agrees very  
476 well with both the ERA–Interim and MERRA reanalyses. Given the AIRS dry bias in the upper  
477 troposphere [Fetzer *et al.*, 2008], potential warm temperature bias in the JPL retrieval algorithm,  
478 and the fact that the UCAR–RO variation assimilation uses ERA–Interim as *a-priori*, we could  
479 explain part of the observed differences and data set agreement. We must point out that the JPL–  
480 RO observations systematically show moister air during the summer throughout the entire time  
481 period, which could also explain the observed overall wet bias with respect to the rest of the data  
482 sets. Over the deep tropics, the UCAR–RO and ERA–Interim data sets show a positive trend in  
483 the SH interannual anomalies at the 95% confidence level, but the rest of the data sets indicate no  
484 trend. Over the trade winds zones, all data sets indicate no trend in the SH interannual anomalies  
485 at the 95% confidence level. Over regions of strong subsidence, the JPL–RO and AIRS data sets





486 do not indicate any trend in the SH interannual anomalies, but the UCAR–RO and the two  
487 reanalyses suggest a positive trend.

488 Unlike the middle-to-upper troposphere, where the agreement and disagreement among  
489 data sets is consistent over all climate zones, in the lower-to-middle troposphere there is a  
490 complex behavior of discrepancies. We speculate that this might be because the 700 hPa pressure  
491 level lies above the planetary boundary layer that interfaces with the free troposphere via  
492 convection and entrainment. This implies that the SH measured by each data set might be  
493 susceptible to the degree which each data set represents this vertical coupling.

494 In particular, over the  $\pm 15^\circ$  (where the troposphere is subject to deep convection), the  
495 JPL–RO observations agree very well with MERRA (which does not assimilate ROs), while the  
496 UCAR–RO, ERA–Interim, and AIRS agree much better with one another. We argue here that  
497 ERA–Interim produces less total cloud fraction than MERRA. Considering that UCAR–RO and  
498 AIRS use ERA–Interim as *a-priori*, we might explain why UCAR–RO, ERA–Interim, and AIRS  
499 capture drier air than MERRA. Although the comparison between the JPL–RO and UCAR–RO  
500 data sets is not the focus of this study, considering the above discussion, we could argue that  
501 because the JPL–RO and MERRA data sets are independent measurements, the UCAR–RO,  
502 ERA–Interim, and AIRS underestimate the amount of SH during deep convection in the lower  
503 troposphere. Over the trade winds zones, in the  $\pm 15\text{--}30^\circ$ , the JPL–RO observations are in very  
504 good agreement with ERA–Interim, AIRS, and MERRA (except at 700 hPa), whereas the  
505 UCAR–RO observations are again drier than all data sets. Over the subtropics, where dry air  
506 masses descend through the Hadley cell, the JPL–RO observations agree very well with MERRA  
507 and ERA–Interim, while the UCAR–RO data set agrees better with AIRS.



508           In all climate zones the UCAR–RO, together with the AIRS data set, systematically show  
509 drier air in the lower troposphere than all other data sets. Aside from the AIRS low-cloud  
510 contamination [Schreier *et al.*, 2014], this behavior could indicate that both AIRS and UCAR–  
511 RO data sets may not be sensitive enough to properly capture high-moisture air rising from the  
512 boundary layer beneath, either due to entrainment and/or convective limitations. This study  
513 exploits the short-term RO SH data record in an attempt to quantify differences between the RO  
514 time series and other data sets. More detailed statistical analysis is required between the SH  
515 products among different RO processing centers to define its structural uncertainty. The reduced  
516 daily sampling of the COSMIC missions may be also a limiting factor in properly establishing  
517 differences between the RO and other platforms. We expect that the increased sampling rate of  
518 the COSMIC-2 follow-on mission will provide a much better picture of the tropical and  
519 subtropical SH climatology, which will help us extend the current short-term RO SH record.

520

521

522

523

524

525

526

527

528

529

530



531 **Acknowledgments:**

532 This research was carried out at the Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of  
533 Technology, under a contract with the National Aeronautics and Space Administration Earth  
534 Science Mission Directorate (SMD). We thank Robert Khachikyan for making publicly available  
535 the JPL-RO retrievals through the AGAPE interactive search tool. We would like to  
536 acknowledge the University Corporation for Atmospheric Research (UCAR) COSMIC Data  
537 Analysis and Archive Center (CDAAC) for making publicly available the COSMIC data sets.  
538 We would like to thank NASA Earth Observing System Data and Information System (EOSDIS)  
539 for making publicly available the MERRA and AIRS data sets. Finally, we would like to thank  
540 the European Center for Medium-range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) for making publicly  
541 available the ERA–Interim data sets.

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

549

550

551

552

553



554 **References:**

- 555 Anthes, R. A., et al. (2008), The COSMIC/FORMOSAT-3 mission: Early results, *Bull. Am.*  
556 *Meteorol. Soc.*, **89**, pp. 313–333, doi:10.1175/BAMS-89-3-313
- 557 Ao, C. O., T. K. Meehan, G. A. Hajj, A. J. Mannucci, and G. Beyerle, Lower troposphere  
558 refractivity bias in GPS occultation retrievals, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **108**(D18), 4577,  
559 doi:10.1029/2002JD003216, 2003
- 560 Blackwell, W. J., M. Pieper, and L. G. Jiram (2008), Neural network estimation of atmospheric  
561 profiles using AIRS/IASI/AMSU data in the presence of clouds, *Proc of SPIE*, 7149,  
562 doi:10.1117/12.804841
- 563 Chen, J., A. D. Del Genio, B. E. Carlson, and M. G. Bosilovich (2008), The spatiotemporal  
564 structure of twentieth-century climate variations in observations and reanalyses. Part I:  
565 Long-term trend., *J. Clim.*, **21**, pp. 2611–2633, doi:10.1175/2007JCLI2011.1
- 566 Chou, M.-D., C.-H. Weng, and P.-H. Lin (2009), Analyses of FORMOSAT-3/COSMIC  
567 humidity retrievals and comparisons with AIRS retrievals and NCEP/NCAR reanalyses,  
568 *J. Geophys. Res.*, **114**, D00G03, doi:10.1029/2008JD010227
- 569 Chuang, H., X. Huang, and K. Minschwaner (2010), Interannual variations of tropical upper  
570 tropospheric humidity and tropical rainy-region SST: Comparisons between models,  
571 reanalyses, and observations, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **115**, D21125,  
572 doi:10.1029/2010JD014205
- 573 Collard, A. D., and S. B. Healy (2003), The combined impact of future space-based atmospheric  
574 sounding instruments on numerical weather prediction analysis fields: A simulation  
575 study, *Q. J. R. Meteorol. Soc.*, **129**, pp. 2741–2760
- 576 Dee, D. P., Uppala, S. M., Simmons, A. J., Berrisford, P., Poli, P., Kobayashi, S., Andrae, U.,



- 577 Balmaseda, M. A., Balsamo, G., Bauer, P., Bechtold, P., Beljaars, A. C. M., van de Berg,  
578 L., Bidlot, J., Bormann, N., Delsol, C., Dragani, R., Fuentes, M., Geer, A. J., Haimberger,  
579 L., Healy, S. B., Hersbach, H., Hólm, E. V., Isaksen, L., Kållberg, P., Köhler, M.,  
580 Matricardi, M., McNally, A. P., Monge-Sanz, B. M., Morcrette, J.-J., Park, B.-K.,  
581 Peubey, C., de Rosnay, P., Tavalato, C., Thépaut, J.-N. and Vitart, F. (2011), The ERA  
582 Interim reanalysis: configuration and performance of the data assimilation system, *Q.J.R.*  
583 *Meteorol. Soc.*, **137**, pp. 553–597. doi:10.1002/qj.828
- 584 Divakarla, M. G., C. D. Barnett, M. D. Goldberg, L. M. McMillin, E. Maddy, W. Wolf, L. Zhou,  
585 and X. Liu (2006), Validation of Atmospheric Infrared Sounder temperature and water  
586 vapor retrievals with matched radiosonde measurements and forecasts, *J. Geophys.*  
587 *Res.*, **111**, D09S15, doi:10.1029/2005JD006116
- 588 Dolinar, E. K., X. Dong, and B. Xi (2016), Evaluation and intercomparison of clouds,  
589 precipitation, and radiation budgets in recent reanalyses using satellite-surface  
590 observations, *Clim. Dyn.*, **46**, pp. 2123–2144, doi: 10.1007/s00382-015-2693-z
- 591 Fasullo, J. T., and K. E. Trenberth (2012), A less cloudy future: The role of subtropical  
592 subsidence in climate sensitivity, *Science*, **338**, pp. 792–794,  
593 doi:10.1126/science.1227465
- 594 Flato, G., J. Marotzke, B. Abiodun, P. Braconnot, S.C. Chou, W. Collins, P. Cox, F. Driouech,  
595 S. Emori, V. Eyring, C. Forest, P. Gleckler, E. Guilyardi, C. Jakob, V. Kattsov, C.  
596 Reason and M. Rummukainen, 2013: Evaluation of Climate Models. In: Climate Change  
597 2013: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fifth  
598 Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change [Stocker, T.F., D.  
599 Qin, G.-K. Plattner, M. Tignor, S.K. Allen, J. Boschung, A. Nauels, Y. Xia, V. Bex and



- 600 P.M. Midgley (eds.]). Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and  
601 New York, NY, USA
- 602 Fetzer, E. J., B. H. Lambrigtsen, A. Eldering, H. H. Aumann, and M. T. Chahine (2006), Biases  
603 in total precipitable water vapor climatologies from Atmospheric Infrared Sounder and  
604 Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **111**, D09S16,  
605 doi:10.1029/2005JD006598
- 606 Fetzer, E. J., et al. (2008), Comparison of upper tropospheric water vapor observations from the  
607 Microwave Limb Sounder and Atmospheric Infrared Sounder, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **113**,  
608 D22110, doi:10.1029/2008JD010000
- 609 Frenkel, Y., A. J. Majda, and B. Khouider (2012), Using the Stochastic Multicloud Model  
610 to Improve Tropical Convective Parameterization: A Paradigm Example, *J. Atmos.*  
611 *Sci.*, **69**, pp. 1080–1105
- 612 Gorbunov, M. E., and L. Kornbluh (2001), Analysis and validation of GPS/MET radio  
613 occultation data, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **106**(D15), pp. 17,161–17,169
- 614 Gorbunov, M. E., A. V. Shmakov, S. S. Leroy, and K. B. Lauritsen (2011), COSMIC Radio  
615 Occultation Processing: Cross-Center Comparison and Validation. *J. Atmos. Oceanic*  
616 *Technol.*, **28**, pp. 737–751, doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1175/2011JTECHA1489.1
- 617 Hannay, C., et al. (2009), Evaluation of forecasted southeast Pacific stratocumulus in the NCAR,  
618 GFDL, and ECMWF models, *J. Clim.*, **22**, pp. 2871–2889, doi:10.1175/2008JCLI2479.1
- 619 Hearty, T. J., A. Savtchenko, B. Tian, E. Fetzer, Y. L. Yung, M. Theobald, B. Vollmer, E.  
620 Fishbein, and Y.-I. Won (2014), Estimating sampling biases and measurement  
621 uncertainties of AIRS/AMSU-A temperature and water vapor observations using  
622 MERRA reanalysis, *J. Geophys. Res. Atmos.*, **119**, pp. 2725–2741,



- 623           doi:10.1002/2013JD021205
- 624   Hegerl, G. *et al.* (2015), Challenges in quantifying changes in the global water cycle, *Bull. Amer.*  
625           *Meteor. Soc.*, **96**, pp. 1097–1115
- 626   Ho, S.-P., Y.-H. Kuo, and S. Sokolovskiy (2007), Improvement of the temperature and moisture  
627           retrievals in the lower troposphere using AIRS and GPS radio occultation measurements,  
628           *J. Atmos. Oceanic Technol.*, **24**, pp. 1726–1737, doi:10.1175/JTECH2071.1
- 629   Ho, S.-P., G. Kirchengast, S. Leroy, J. Wickert, A. J. Mannucci, A. Steiner, D. Hunt, W.  
630           Schreiner, S. Sokolovskiy, C. Ao, M. Borsche, A. von Engel, U. Foelsche, S. Heise, B.  
631           Iijima, Y.-H. Kuo, R. Kursinski, B. Pirscher, M. Ringer, C. Rocken, and T. Schmidt  
632           (2009), Estimating the uncertainty of using GPS radio occultation data for climate  
633           monitoring: Intercomparison of CHAMP refractivity climate records from 2002 to 2006  
634           from different data centers, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **114**, D23107, doi:10.1029/2009JD011969
- 635   Ho, S.-P., X. Zhou, Y.-H. Kuo, D. Hunt, and J.-H. Wang (2010), Global Evaluation of  
636           Radiosonde Water Vapor Systematic Biases using GPS Radio Occultation from COSMIC  
637           and ECMWF Analysis, *Remote Sens.*, **2**(5), pp. 1320–1330, doi:10.3390/rs2051320
- 638   Holloway, C. E., and J. D. Neelin (2009), Moisture vertical structure, column water vapor, and  
639           tropical deep convection, *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **66**, pp. 1665–1683,  
640           doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1175/2008JAS2806.1>
- 641   Jiang, J.H., *et al.* (2012), Evaluation of Cloud and Water Vapor Simulations in IPCC AR5  
642           Climate Models Using NASA “A-Train” Satellite Observations, *J. Geophys. Res.*,  
643           **117**, D14105, doi:10.1029/2011JD017237
- 644   Kahn, B. H., F. W. Irion, V. T. Dang, E. M. Manning, S. L. Nasiri, C. M. Naud, J. M. Blaisdell,  
645           M. M. Schreier, Q. Yue, K. W. Bowman, E. J. Fetzer, G. C. Hulley, K. N. Liou, D.



- 646 Lubin, S. C. Ou, J. Susskind, Y. Takano, B. Tian, and J. R. Worden (2014), The  
647 Atmospheric Infrared Sounder version 6 cloud products, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, **14**,  
648 pp. 399–426, doi:<https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-14-399-2014>
- 649 Kishore, P., M. Venkat Ratnam, S. P. Namboothiri, I. Velicogna, G. Basha, J. H. Jiang,  
650 K. Igarashi, S. V. B. Rao, and V. Sivakumar (2011), "Global (50S–50N) distribution of  
651 water vapor observed by COSMIC GPS RO: Comparison with GPS radiosonde, NCEP,  
652 ERA Interim, and JRA-25 reanalysis datasets", *JASTP*, **73**(13), pp. 1849–1860
- 653 Kuo, Y.-H., W. S. Schreiner, J. Wang, D. L. Rossiter, and Y. Zhang (2005), Comparison of GPS  
654 radio occultation soundings with radiosondes, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **32**, L05817,  
655 doi:[10.1029/2004GL021443](https://doi.org/10.1029/2004GL021443)
- 656 Kursinski, E. R., and T. Gebhardt (2014), A Method to Deconvolve Errors in GPS RO-Derived  
657 Water Vapor Histograms, *J. Atmos. Ocean. Technol.*, **31**, pp. 2606–2628,  
658 doi:[10.1175/JTECH-D-13-00233.1](https://doi.org/10.1175/JTECH-D-13-00233.1)
- 659 Kursinski, E. R., G. A. Hajj, J. T. Schofield, R. P. Linfield, and K. R. Hardy (1997), Observing  
660 Earth's atmosphere with radio occultation measurements using the Global Positioning  
661 System, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **102**(D19), pp. 23,429–23,465, doi:[10.1029/97JD01569](https://doi.org/10.1029/97JD01569)
- 662 Kursinski, E. R., and G. A. Hajj (2001), A comparison of water vapor derived from GPS  
663 occultations and global weather analyses, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **106**(D1), pp. 1113–1138,  
664 doi:[10.1029/2000JD900421](https://doi.org/10.1029/2000JD900421)
- 665 Read, W. G., et al. (2007), Aura Microwave Limb Sounder upper tropospheric and lower  
666 stratospheric H<sub>2</sub>O and relative humidity with respect to ice validation, *J. Geophys.*  
667 *Res.*, **112**, D24S35, doi:[10.1029/2007JD008752](https://doi.org/10.1029/2007JD008752)
- 668 Rienecker, M. M., M. J. Suarez, R. Todling, J. Bacmeister, L. Takacs, H.-C. Liu, W. Gu,





- 669 M. Sienkiewicz, R. D. Koster, R. Gelaro, I. Stajner, and J.E. Nielsen (2008), The  
670 GOES-5 Data Assimilation System – Documentation of versions 5.0.1, 5.1.0, and  
671 5.2.0, *NASA Tech. Rep.*, Series on Global Modeling and Data Assimilation,  
672 NASA/TM-2008-104606, **27**, 92 p.
- 673 Rienecker, M. M., and Coauthors (2011), MERRA: NASA’s Modern-Era Retrospective  
674 Analysis for Research and Applications. *J. Climate*, **24**, pp. 3624–3648,  
675 doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-11-00015.1>
- 676 Schreier, M. M., B. H. Kahn, K. Sušelj, J. Karlsson, S. C. Ou, Q. Yue, and S. L. Nasiri (2014),  
677 Atmospheric parameters in a subtropical cloud regime transition derived by AIRS and  
678 MODIS: observed statistical variability compared to ERA-Interim, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*,  
679 **14**, pp. 3573–3587
- 680 Schreiner, W., C. Rocken, S. Sokolovskiy, S. Syndergaard, and D. Hunt (2007), Estimates of the  
681 precision of GPS radio occultations from the COSMIC/FORMOSAT-3 mission,  
682 *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **34**, L04808, doi: 10.1029/2006GL027557
- 683 Sherwood, S. C., R. Roca, T. M. Weckwerth, and N. G. Andronova (2010), Tropospheric water  
684 vapor, convection, and climate, *Rev. Geophys.*, **48**, RG2001,  
685 doi:10.1029/2009RG000301
- 686 Simmons, A. J., and A. Hollingsworth (2002), Some aspects of the improvement in skill of  
687 numerical prediction, *Q. J. R. Meteorol. Soc.*, **128**, pp. 647–677
- 688 Simmons, A. J., M. Hortal, G. Kelly, A. McNally, A. Untach, and S. Uppala (2005), ECMWF  
689 analyses and forecasts of stratospheric winter polar vortex breakup: September 2002 in  
690 the southern hemisphere and related events, *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **62**, pp.668–689
- 691 Simmons, A. J., Poli, P., Dee, D. P., Berrisford, P., Hersbach, H., Kobayashi, S. and Peubey, C.



- 692 (2014), Estimating low-frequency variability and trends in atmospheric temperature using  
693 ERA-Interim, *Q. J. R. Meteorol. Soc.*, **140**, pp. 329–353, doi:10.1002/qj.2317
- 694 Steiner, A. K., G. Kirchengast, and H. P. Ladreiter (1999), Inversion, error analysis, and  
695 validation of GPS/MET occultation data, *Ann. Geophysicae*, **17**, pp. 122–138
- 696 Sun, B., A. Reale, D. J. Seidel, and D. C. Hunt (2010), Comparing radiosonde and COSMIC  
697 atmospheric profile data to quantify differences among radiosonde types and the effects  
698 of imperfect collocation on comparison statistics, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **115**, D23104,  
699 doi:10.1029/2010JD014457
- 700 Tian, B., E. J. Fetzer, B. H. Kahn, J. Teixeira, E. Manning, and T. Hearty (2013), Evaluating  
701 CMIP5 Models using AIRS Tropospheric Air Temperature and Specific Humidity  
702 Climatology, *J. Geophys. Res. Atmos.*, *118*, 114–134, doi:10.1029/2012JD018607
- 703 Vergados, P., A. J. Mannucci, and C. O. Ao (2014), Assessing the performance of GPS radio  
704 occultation measurements in retrieving tropospheric humidity in cloudiness: A  
705 comparison study with radiosondes, ERA-Interim, and AIRS data sets, *J. Geophys. Res.*  
706 *Atmos.*, **119**, pp. 7718–7731, doi:10.1002/2013JD021398
- 707 Vergados, P., A. J. Mannucci, C. O. Ao, J. H. Jiang, and H. Su (2015), On the comparisons of  
708 tropical relative humidity in the lower and middle troposphere among COSMIC radio  
709 occultations and MERRA and ECMWF data sets, *Atmos. Meas. Tech.*, **8**, pp. 1789–1797,  
710 doi:<https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-8-1789-2015>
- 711 Vergados, P., A. J. Mannucci, C. O. Ao, and E. J. Fetzer (2016), Using GPS radio occultations to  
712 infer the water vapor feedback, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **43**, pp. 11,841–11,851,  
713 doi:10.1002/2016GL071017
- 714 Wang, H., and W. Su (2013), Evaluating and understanding top of the atmosphere cloud



- 715 radiative effects in Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) Fifth Assessment  
716 Report (AR5) Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5) models using  
717 satellite observations, *J. Geophys. Res. Atmos.*, **118**, pp. 683–699,  
718 doi:10.1029/2012JD018619
- 719 Wang, B. R., X.-Y. Liu, and J.-K. Wang (2013), Assessment of COSMIC radio occultation  
720 retrieval product using global radiosonde data, *Atmos. Meas. Tech.*, **6**, pp. 1073–1083,  
721 doi:10.5194/amt-6-1073-2013
- 722 Waters et al. (2006), The Earth Observing System Microwave Limb Sounder (EOS MLS) on the  
723 Aura Satellite, *IEEE Trans. Geosci. Remote Sens.*, **44**, pp. 1075–1092
- 724 Wu, W.-S., R.J. Purser, and D.F. Parrish (2002), Three-dimensional variational analysis with  
725 spatially inhomogeneous covariances, *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, **130**, pp. 2905–2916