

# Interannual Variability of Temperature, Water Vapor, and Clouds in the Tropical Tropopause Layer

Aodhan Sweeney<sup>1</sup> and Qiang Fu<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>University of Washington, Department of Atmospheric Sciences.

Corresponding author: Aodhan Sweeney ([aodhan@uw.edu](mailto:aodhan@uw.edu))

## Key Points:

- Variability of temperature, water vapor at 83 hPa, and cirrus in the tropical tropopause layer is dominated by stratospheric processes
- Tropical cold point tropopause height covaries with both stratospheric and tropospheric temperatures
- The extent of stratospheric versus tropospheric control of this interannual variability changes based on season

## Abstract

Water vapor and cirrus clouds in the Tropical Tropopause Layer (TTL) are important for the climate and are largely controlled by temperature in the TTL. On interannual timescales, both stratospheric and tropospheric modes of variability affect temperatures in the TTL. In this study, we use satellite observations to investigate the explained variance in cold point temperature (CPT), 83 hPa water vapor (WV83), and TTL cirrus cloud fraction (TTLCCF) over the equatorial region (15°N - 15°S) using a multiple linear regression (MLR) model where predictors are stratospheric and tropospheric modes of variability. The MLR model can explain 68%, 60%, and 52% of the variance in CPT, WV83, and TTLCCF. The model suggests that these variables are dominated by stratospheric ‘top-down’ processes associated with the Quasi-Biennial Oscillation (QBO) and Brewer Dobson Circulation (BDC) as opposed to tropospheric ‘bottom-up’ processes associated with the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and the Madden-Julian Oscillation (MJO). Although cold point temperature is controlled by ‘top-down’ mechanisms, the cold point tropopause height is related to both ‘top-down’ stratospheric and ‘bottom-up’ tropospheric processes. Our MLR model explains more variance during boreal winter. We also investigate how these modes of variability correlate with zonal mean temperature, water vapor, and cloud fraction globally in the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere (UTLS) and find significant relationships between clouds and the modes of variability.

## Plain Language Summary

Between the tropical troposphere and stratosphere, water can exist as either vapor or ice phases. The partitioning of this water between vapor and ice is largely controlled by the coldest temperatures in this region, which on interannual timescales could be modulated by both stratospheric and tropospheric processes. Here we show that 68%, 60%, and 52% of the interannual variance in cold point temperature, water vapor at 83 hPa, and ice clouds in this region can be explained using a multiple linear regression (MLR) model, where the predictors are known stratospheric and tropospheric processes. Stratospheric processes are much more important in controlling these interannual variances, but notably, the height of the cold point is controlled by both stratospheric and tropospheric processes. The explained variances also depend

46 on seasons, with more variance explained during boreal winter. Finally, we check how these  
47 predictors correlate with temperature, water vapor, and cloud fraction globally in the upper  
48 troposphere and lower stratosphere (UTLS) and find significant relationships throughout the  
49 globe.

50

## 51 **1 Introduction**

52 Water vapor and cirrus clouds in the Tropical Tropopause Layer (TTL) are important for  
53 surface climate. Stratospheric water vapor impacts stratospheric ozone and Earth's radiative  
54 budget, and its concentration is regulated by the coldest temperatures in the TTL (Mote et al.,  
55 1996; Forster and Shine 1999; Kirk-Davidoff et al., 1999; Holton and Gettelman, 2001;  
56 Fueglistaler and Haynes, 2005; Solomon et al., 2010; Joshi et al., 2010; Flury et al., 2012a; Ding  
57 & Fu, 2018; Randel and Park, 2019). Temperatures in the TTL control water vapor through the  
58 formation of thin and extensive ice clouds referred to as TTL cirrus clouds. These clouds are  
59 important for the local radiative heating rate in the TTL (McFarquhar et al., 2000; Dinh et al.,  
60 2010) which may impact the TTL upwelling (Corti et al, 2006; Yang et al, 2010) and feedback to  
61 temperatures there (Fu et al., 2018). TTL cirrus clouds might also likely contribute a warming  
62 effect on the surface and may be important for interannual fluctuations in surface climate (Zhou  
63 et al., 2014). Despite their importance, climate models neither precisely nor accurately simulate  
64 TTL cirrus cloud fraction and stratospheric water vapor concentrations (Gettelman et al., 2010;  
65 Randel and Jensen, 2013; Hardiman et al., 2015; Wang and Fu, 2021).

66 Because of the cold temperatures and high relative humidity of the TTL, small variations  
67 in the TTL temperatures dictate how much water vapor can transit into the stratosphere versus  
68 how much is turned into ice and sediments out of the TTL (Jensen 1996; Jensen et al., 2013;  
69 Randel and Jensen, 2013). The TTL itself extends from the level of zero net radiative heating to  
70 the maximum height where clouds still exist (~14.5 to ~18.5 km) and is located between the  
71 troposphere and stratosphere (Holton et al. 1995; Gettelman and Forster, 2002; Fu et al, 2007;  
72 Fueglistaler et al, 2009). Temperature variability in this region is thus a result of both  
73 stratospheric and tropospheric processes (Davis et al., 2013; Randel and Wu, 2015; Tseng and  
74 Fu, 2017b; Lu et al., 2020). On interannual timescales the temperature, water vapor, and clouds  
75 in the TTL exhibit extreme variability driven by stratospheric modes including the Quasi-  
76 Biennial Oscillation (QBO) and Brewer Dobson circulation (BDC) and tropospheric modes  
77 including the El Nino Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and Madden-Julian Oscillation (MJO) (Virts  
78 and Wallace 2010; Eguchi and Kodera, 2010; Liang et al., 2011; Davis et al 2013; Li and  
79 Thompson 2013; Virts and Wallace 2014; Ding and Fu 2017; Tseng and Fu 2017a; Tseng and Fu  
80 2017b; Ye et al; 2018; Sweeney et al., 2023). Gravity waves have also been shown to be  
81 contemporaneous with low cold point tropopause temperatures (CPTs) and TTL cirrus clouds  
82 (Grise and Thompson 2013; Kim and Alexander 2015; Podglajen et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2016;  
83 Podglajen et al., 2018; Chang and L'Ecuyer 2020; Bramberger et al., 2022).

84 A fundamental question regarding the interannual variability remains: to what extent are  
85 these observed fluctuations governed by stratospheric processes, acting via a 'top-down'  
86 mechanism, versus tropospheric processes, acting via a 'bottom-up' mechanism (Fu, 2013; Ding  
87 and Fu, 2018)? This study attempts to answer this question by examining the explained variance  
88 based on a multiple linear regression (MLR) model, where predictors are the tropospheric and  
89 stratospheric modes of variability (Dessler et al., 2013; Dessler et al., 2014; Tseng and Fu,  
90 2017b; Wang et al., 2019). This MLR model is fitted to timeseries of interannual variations in  
91 CPT, 83 hPa water vapor (WV83) and ozone (O<sub>3</sub>83), and TTL cirrus cloud fraction (TTLCCF)

92 averaged over 15°S-15°N, obtained from observations by GPS radio occultations, the Microwave  
93 Limb Sounder (MLS), and the CALIOP instrument, respectively. Results show much stronger  
94 susceptibility of these variables to stratospheric processes, suggesting that the interannual  
95 variability of these variables is governed by a ‘top-down’ mechanism. The interannual variability  
96 of O<sub>3</sub>83 is also examined here, motivated by a recent study (Match and Gerber, 2022) showing  
97 that tropospheric expansion under global warming reduces tropical lower stratospheric ozone.  
98 Results show that the skill of this MLR model depends on season (Li and Thompson, 2013;  
99 Martin et al., 2021; Sweeney et al., 2023). We also investigate how the modes of large-scale  
100 variability correlate with upper-tropospheric and lower-stratospheric temperature, water vapor,  
101 and cloud fraction globally, and find significant correlations throughout the globe.

102

## 103 **2 Data**

### 104 **2.1 Temperature from Radio Occultations**

105 Temperature data comes from Global Positioning System Radio Occultation (GPS-RO)  
106 measurements from the COSMIC-1 and 2 as well as the MetOp-A, B, and C satellites, archived  
107 at the University Corporation for Atmospheric Research. Data was preprocessed using the level 2  
108 WetPrf product from June 2006 to December of 2021 (Sweeney and Fu, 2021). These GPS-RO  
109 temperature profiles have high accuracy (less than 0.1 K). They have high vertical resolution  
110 (~0.5 km) in the TTL, but coarser horizontal resolution of about 200 km (Kursinski et al, 1997;  
111 Kuo et al, 2004; Zeng et al, 2019).

### 112 **2.2 Clouds from CALIPSO**

113 The main instrument used to identify clouds in this study is the Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with  
114 Orthogonal Polarization (CALIOP) lidar (Winker et al, 2010). CALIOP can provide information  
115 of cloud layers with optical depth as small as 0.01 or less, ideal for TTL cirrus cloud  
116 identification. We use the Level 2 V4.2 5-km Merged Layer Products using only nighttime  
117 measurements from June of 2006 to December of 2021 to avoid the solar contamination on the  
118 lidar signals (Thorsen et al., 2013; Thornberry, 2017). The primary quantity derived from the  
119 CALIPSO data is the cloud fraction, which is defined as the number of detections of a cloud  
120 divided by the total number of observations in each 2.5°x2.5° grid cell at a given level. TTL  
121 cirrus in this study is defined as the clouds with bases above 14.5 km (Tseng and Fu, 2017a;  
122 Tseng and Fu, 2017b). Our metrics for All clouds consider all clouds including the TTL cirrus.  
123 Positive cloud identifications here require Cloud-Aerosol Distinction (CAD) values of greater  
124 than 30. This study uses an adapted version of the Level 2 V4.2 data for clouds above the lapse  
125 rate tropopause (Sweeney et al., 2023).

### 126 **2.3 Microwave Limb Sounder**

127 Water vapor and ozone data is obtained using the Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS) onboard the  
128 Aura Spacecraft. MLS measurements began in August 2004 and continue until present day. We  
129 use monthly mean Level 3 MLS values from June 2006 to December of 2021.

### 130 **2.4 Indices of Physical Processes**

131 The QBO index is defined using the monthly mean 10°S-10°N 50 hPa zonal wind from  
132 ERA5 (Hersbach et al., 2020). The QBO index has a two-month lead of the zonal winds to  
133 account for its descent from 50 hPa to the cold point tropopause (Dessler et al, 2013; Dessler et  
134 al 2014; Ding and Fu 2018; Tseng and Fu 2017b; Ye et al., 2018; Tian et al., 2019; Sweeney et  
135 al., 2023). The ENSO is the dominant mode of variability in the troposphere (Philander et al.,  
136 1989). Instead of using a traditional ENSO index, we use the 15°S-15°N 500 hPa temperature  
137 (T500) which is highly correlated with a three-month lead of the ENSO 3.4 index ( $r=0.79$ ) and

138 captures how anomalous convection heats the troposphere (Dessler et al., 2013; Wang et al.,  
139 2019; Marsh and Garcia, 2007).

140 The BDC index is the tropopause upwelling between 15°S-15°N from the residual stream  
141 function (Rosenlof, 1995). The upwelling is calculated using the ERA5 reanalysis with 6-hourly  
142 data from 1979-2021 (Abalos et al., 2012). We define the tropopause upwelling by interpolating  
143 between pressure levels to match the seasonally varying CPT pressure identified from a GPS-RO  
144 derived climatology between 15°S-15°N. Noting that this upwelling can be impacted by both the  
145 QBO and T500, we regress out the combined impact of both from the upwelling using a MLR  
146 from 1979-2021.

147 The impact of the MJO is represented by the second principal component of the velocity  
148 potential index (Ventrice et al., 2013). Maximums in this MJO index are associated with peak  
149 MJO-related convection over the western Pacific and suppressed over the eastern Indian Ocean  
150 (Virts and Wallace, 2014; Tseng and Fu, 2017b). We also quantify the impact of gravity waves  
151 using the monthly mean gravity wave potential energy ( $E_P$ ) diagnosed from each RO temperature  
152 profile ( $T_{\text{Prof}}$ ) by finding the gravity wave temperature anomaly profiles ( $T_{\text{GW}}$ ) (Alexander et al.,  
153 2008; Wang and Alexander, 2015; Luo et al., 2021). To define  $T_{\text{GW}}$ , we create 5° latitude x 20°  
154 longitude maps of tropical temperature profiles using 30-day time periods centered on each day  
155 in the record (Chang and L'Ecuyer, 2020). For each  $T_{\text{Prof}}$  we bilinearly interpolate the given  
156 day's background temperature map to the latitude and longitude of  $T_{\text{Prof}}$ , resulting in the  
157 background temperature profile ( $T_{\text{background}}$ ).  $T_{\text{GW}}$  is defined as  $T_{\text{Prof}} - T_{\text{background}}$ . Because we use  
158 30-day mean background temperature maps, the derived  $E_P$  will be contributed by all waves with  
159 time periods less than 30 days. We initially created the gravity wave index using  $E_P$  averaging  
160 over the 15°S-15°N TTL but found significantly greater correlations and more uniquely  
161 explained variance of target variables when we averaged  $E_P$  from 17-19 km over 10°-20° in both  
162 hemispheres. We thus define the GW index as the average gravity wave potential energy from  
163 17-19 km over 10°S-20°S and 10°N-20°N.

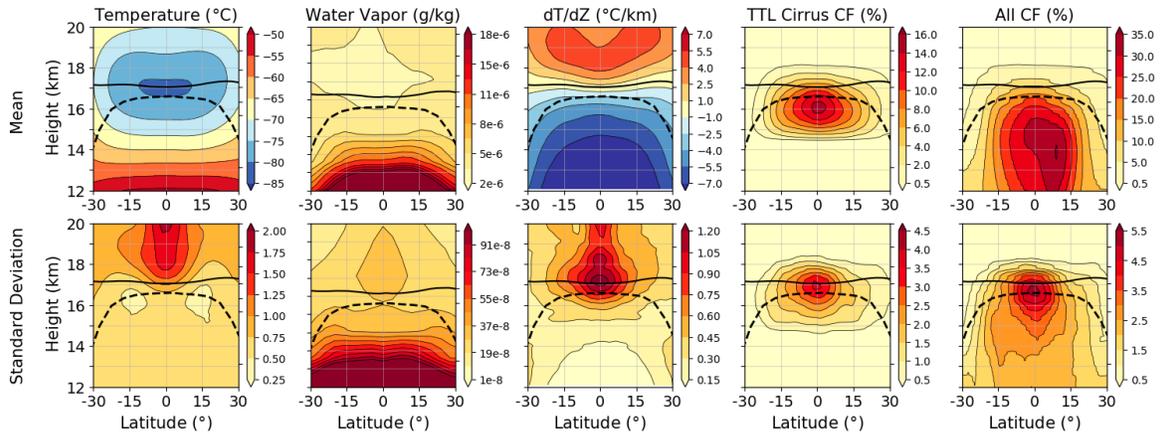
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### 165 **3 Results**

#### 166 **3.1 The Control of Interannual Variability on the Target Variables**

167 This study attempts to quantify the impact of stratospheric and tropospheric modes of  
168 variability (Section 2.4) on the target variables (i.e., temperatures, water vapor, and cloud  
169 fractions) in the TTL. Figure 1 shows the climatological annual mean (1<sup>st</sup> row) and interannual  
170 standard deviations (2<sup>nd</sup> row) of TTL variables (as well as vertical temperature gradient).  
171 Interannual standard deviations are the standard deviations of monthly anomalies after removing  
172 the mean seasonal cycle. The solid (dashed) black line in each plot is the climatological mean  
173 cold point (lapse rate) tropopause height.

174



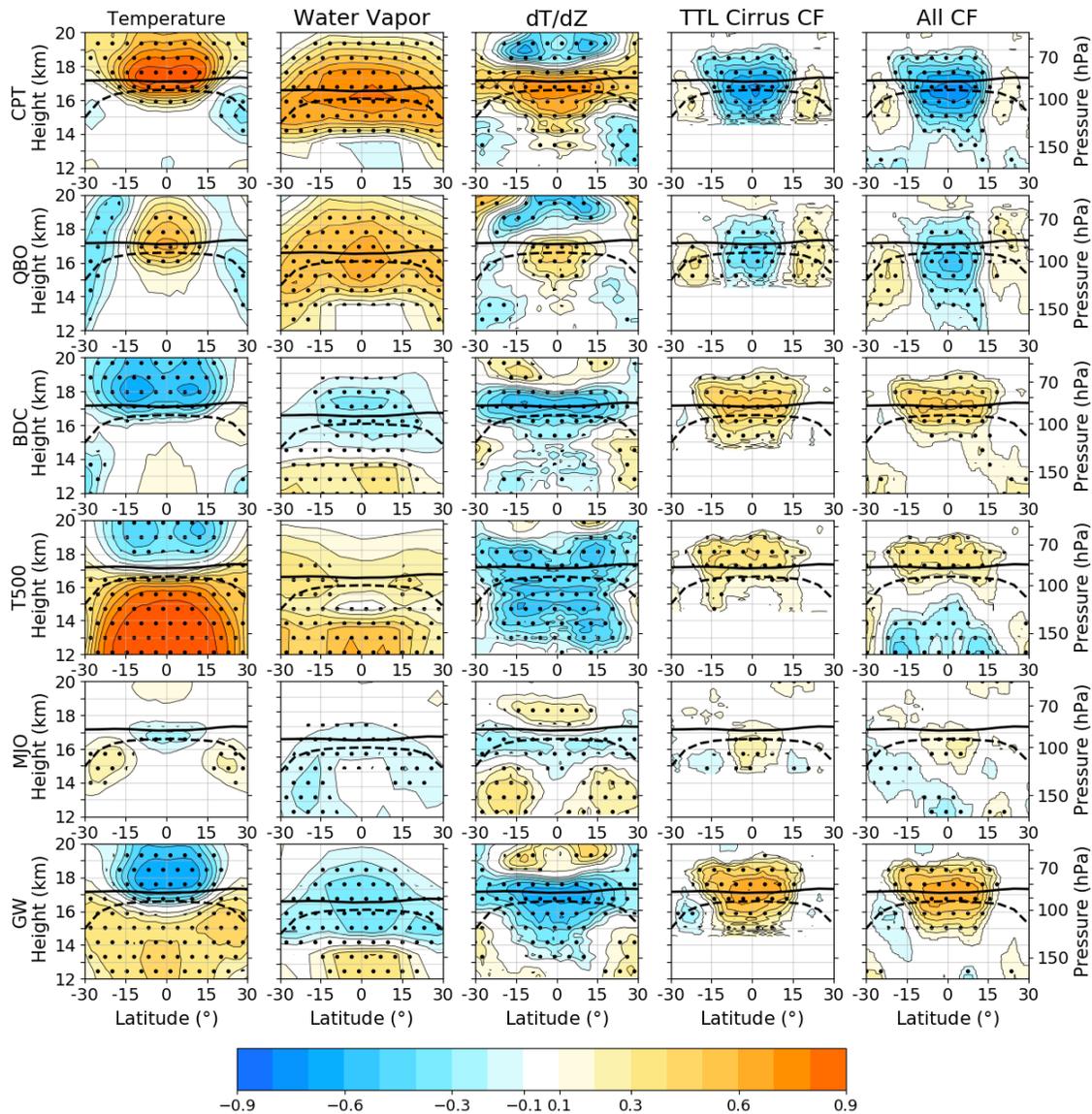
175  
 176 Figure 1: (Top) Climatological means of target variables in the upper troposphere and lower  
 177 stratosphere. (Bottom) Interannual standard deviations of target variables. The solid (dashed)  
 178 black line in all plots is the climatological mean cold point (lapse rate) tropopause.  
 179

180 The first panel of Fig. 1 shows the characteristically cold temperatures of the TTL  
 181 (Fueglistaler et al., 2009). Water vapor carried into the stratosphere must pass these cold  
 182 temperatures and thus reaches its minimum above the equatorial tropopause (Mote et al., 1996;  
 183 Flury et al., 2012a). The magnitude of the vertical temperature gradient ( $dT/dZ$ ) decreases with  
 184 height throughout the troposphere and increases into the stratosphere. Changes in both  
 185 temperature and  $dT/dZ$  are important for cirrus cloud formation (Kim et al., 2016; Tseng and Fu,  
 186 2017b; Chang and L'Ecuyer, 2020). Directly below the equatorial tropopause, TTL cirrus clouds  
 187 reach their maximum and rarely occur in the stratosphere (Tseng and Fu, 2017a). The interannual  
 188 standard deviation of temperature maximizes in the equatorial lower stratosphere (Randel and  
 189 Wu, 2015). Large variability in cold point temperature occurs near the equator, resulting in peak  
 190 stratospheric water vapor variability near the equatorial tropopause (Randel and Park, 2019). The  
 191 elevated temperature variability near the tropopause is collocated with the increased TTL cirrus  
 192 variability. Notably, peak cloud fraction variability is close to the cold point tropopause with  
 193 significant variations occurring above the cold point, very much collocated with variance in  
 194  $dT/dZ$  (Tseng and Fu, 2017b).

195 Figure 2 shows how target variables correlate with different modes of variability except  
 196 row 1 that shows the correlation with zonal-mean cold point tropopause temperature (CPT)  
 197 averaged over  $15^{\circ}\text{S}$ - $15^{\circ}\text{N}$ . Although the CPT is not itself a mode of variability, it is critically  
 198 important for both stratospheric water vapor (e.g., Randel and Jensen, 2013) and is highly  
 199 correlated with TTL cirrus cloud fraction (Tseng and Fu, 2017b). CPT is highly correlated with  
 200 temperatures above the cold point tropopause, suggesting that processes impacting CPT are tied  
 201 to lower-stratospheric temperatures (Randel and Wu, 2015). CPT is also strongly correlated with  
 202 stratospheric temperature throughout the globe, showing both QBO and BDC signatures (see  
 203 Figure 4). Lower-stratospheric water vapor is highly correlated with the CPT (e.g., Randel and  
 204 Jensen, 2013). Correlations between water vapor and CPT are transported throughout the  
 205 stratosphere by the BDC (Brewer et al., 1949; Mote et al., 1996; Flury et al., 2012a; Flury et al.,  
 206 2012b). Water vapor is also transported meridionally through the quasi-horizontal isentropic  
 207 mixing between lower and higher latitudes (Randel and Park, 2019). CPT is strongly  
 208 anticorrelated with TTL cirrus and All cloud fraction (CF) directly below the cold point  
 209 tropopause. Two nodes of positive correlation between CPT and CF exist near the subtropical

210 lapse rate tropopause, the inverse of the correlation between CPT and temperature. The strong  
 211 correlations between CPT and the target variables stress the temperature control of the  
 212 partitioning of water between clouds and vapor in the TTL (Tseng and Fu, 2017b).

213  
 214



215  
 216 Figure 2: Correlations in tropical upper troposphere and lower stratosphere between target  
 217 variable monthly anomalies and modes of large-scale variability except for row 1 that shows  
 218 correlation between target variables and CPT averaged over 15°S-15°N. Stippling indicates  
 219 significance at 95% confidence and the solid (dashed) black line is the climatological mean cold  
 220 point (lapse rate) tropopause.

221  
 222 The QBO and temperature are correlated (anticorrelated) in the equatorial (subtropical)  
 223 TTL due to the QBO's meridional circulation (Plumb and Bell, 1982; Baldwin et al., 2001;  
 224 Pahlavan et al., 2021). The water vapor signal associated with the QBO shows peak correlation  
 225 at the equatorial tropopause and is transferred to higher latitudes through isentropic mixing

226 (Randel and Park, 2019). The QBO correlations with CF mirror those with temperature. The  
227 subtropical cloud fraction correlations are weaker than the equatorial signal, which may be due  
228 to the weaker QBO-temperature correlation in the subtropics combined with this region's lower  
229 relative humidity. This may also contribute to the QBO's positive subtropical correlations in  
230 water vapor. QBO correlations with equatorial TTL cirrus CF are weaker than correlations with  
231 temperature, water vapor, and All CF. Significant QBO correlations with All CF reach depths of  
232 12 km, well below the region of peak QBO power (Sweeney et al., 2023).

233 The BDC index used here is strongly anticorrelated with lower stratospheric temperatures  
234 (Mote et al., 1996; Plumb and Eluszkiewicz, 1999) and is strongly correlated with cloud fraction  
235 which maximizes directly above the equatorial cold point tropopause. Although clouds are  
236 infrequent in these regions, a substantial amount of cloud fraction variation occurs above the  
237 climatological mean cold point tropopause (see Fig. 1). The BDC is negatively correlated with  
238 water vapor in lower stratosphere, yet the correlation is weaker than the BDC correlation with  
239 temperature and cloud fraction. The response of target variables to the CPT appears to be a linear  
240 combination of the responses to QBO and BDC.

241 T500 is highly correlated with ENSO which cools lower-stratospheric temperatures by  
242 accelerating the BDC (Garfinkel and Hartmann 2008; Randel et al., 2009; Calvo et al., 2010).  
243 T500 also measures convective heating of the troposphere leading to strong positive correlations  
244 all the way up to the tropopause (Holloway and Neelin, 2007). Notably, T500 is not significantly  
245 correlated with CPT (Figure S1). ENSO is not correlated to zonal mean CPT due to the dipolar  
246 zonal impact near the tropopause (Randel et al., 2000; Scherllin-Pirscher et al., 2012). In Fig. 2 a  
247 weak significant correlation is found between T500 (and no correlation with ENSO 3.4) and  
248 lower-stratospheric water vapor, possibly due to its weak impact on zonal mean CPT, or a  
249 nonlinear relationship between ENSO and lower-stratospheric water vapor (Avery et al., 2017;  
250 Diallo et al., 2018; Garfinkel et al., 2021; Ziskin Ziv et al., 2022). T500 has significant  
251 correlations with cloud fraction above the tropopause, where temperature and  $dT/dZ$  correlations  
252 are strong (Davis et al., 2013).

253 Row 5 of Fig. 2 shows correlations of the MJO and target variables. The MJO impacts  
254 subseasonal variability of temperature and cloud fraction in the TTL (Virts and Wallace., 2014).  
255 The monthly timescale used in this study smooths some of the MJO variability. Further, the  
256 zonal mean MJO signal may cancel due to the MJO's strong moving dipole of active and  
257 inactive convection (Tseng and Fu, 2017b; Virts et al., 2010). Weak correlations between the  
258 MJO and the target variables are present.

259 Of all the modes of variability investigated, the GW index has the strongest correlations  
260 with cloud fraction and elicits a strong response in vertical temperature gradient near the  
261 tropopause. Like results of cirrus clouds and CPT, the cirrus cloud and GW index correlation  
262 pattern is akin to a linear combination of the QBO and BDC correlation pattern with cloud  
263 fraction. The QBO is driven by gravity waves (e.g., Pahlavan et al., 2021), and its impact on  
264 gravity wave potential energy is well documented (e.g., De La Torre, 2006). The equatorial  
265 upwelling associated with tropical waves induces a strong meridional circulation with upwelling  
266 (cold anomalies) near the equatorial tropopause and downwelling (warm anomalies) near the  
267 subtropical tropopause, related to the shallow branch of the BDC (Ortland and Alexander, 2014).  
268 This wave impact on the upwelling may cause similar correlation patterns of cirrus clouds and  
269 the GW and BDC.

270 We next use a multiple linear regression (MLR) model to quantify the explained variance  
271 in the 15°S-15°N average CPT, water vapor at 83 hPa (WV83), TTL cirrus cloud fraction

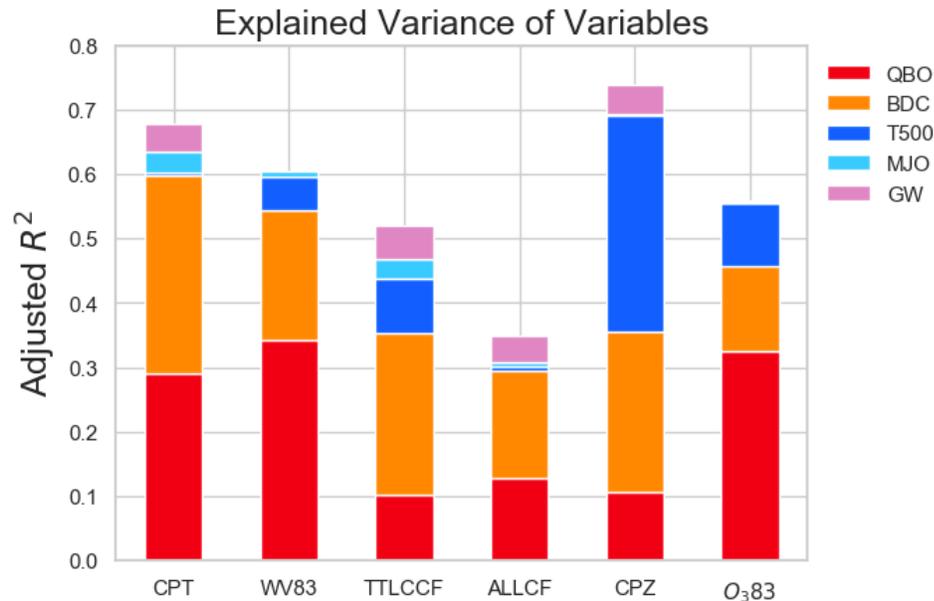
272 (TTLCCF) that is the total cloud fraction for all clouds with cloud base above 14.5 km (Tseng  
273 and Fu, 2017a; Tseng and Fu, 2017b). We also apply this MLR model to All Cloud Fraction  
274 (ALLCF) that is the total cloud fraction for all clouds with cloud top above 14.5 km regardless of  
275 cloud base height, cold point tropopause height (CPZ), and ozone concentrations at 83 hPa  
276 ( $O_383$ ). Although  $15^\circ\text{S}$ - $15^\circ\text{N}$  is close to the equator, it is where most of the variability in the  
277 target variables occurs (see Fig. 1). The predictors in this MLR model are the modes of  
278 variability and are described in 2.4. WV83 is lagged by one month with respect to other variables  
279 to account for transit time from the cold point tropopause height to 83 hPa. We choose to  
280 quantify the control of TTLCCF and ALLCF separately because TTLCCF may be more relevant  
281 for the water vapor dehydration in the TTL, while ALLCF is more relevant for the upwelling in  
282 the TTL and for the total energy budget of the tropics (Corti et al., 2006; Jensen et al., 2013;  
283 Sokol and Hartmann, 2020; Sweeney et al., 2023).

284 The explained variance is defined using the adjusted  $R^2$ , which accounts for artificially  
285 high  $R^2$  due to potential collinearity in the MLR and is always less than the true  $R^2$ . The unique  
286 contribution of explained variance to the adjusted  $R^2$  from each predictor is not possible if  
287 predictors are correlated. A correlation matrix among all predictors and target variables is  
288 provided in Figure S1. Although most of our predictors show no statistically significant relation  
289 over the period investigated, the GW index is highly correlated to the QBO, BDC, and T500  
290 index. Further, insignificant weak correlations between predictors also exist. To account for this,  
291 we partition the adjusted  $R^2$  into the unique contributions from the QBO, BDC, T500, and MJO  
292 by recursively adding each predictor to our MLR model while also permuting the order of  
293 addition, allowing for an estimate of unique explained variance (Lindeman et al., 1980). We note  
294 that this method is not perfect but provides an estimate of the unique variance contributed to the  
295 MLR from each mode of variability. After the unique explained variances are found for these  
296 four processes, the unique explained variance by GW is found by taking the difference between  
297 the adjusted  $R^2$  before and after adding in the GW to the MLR model.

298 Figure 3 shows that 68%, 60%, 52%, 35%, 74%, and 56% of the variance in CPT,  
299 WV83, TTLCCF, ALLCF, CPZ, and  $O_383$  can be explained using this MLR model. ‘Top-down’  
300 processes (i.e., the QBO and BDC) explain most of the variance captured by the MLR in all  
301 variables except CPZ. This model’s ability explained TTLCCF variance varies strongly with  
302 height, explaining over 60% of the variance in TTL cirrus and All cloud fraction at 17 km (not  
303 shown). Increased explained variance at these higher levels may be due to the types of clouds at  
304 these altitudes (more mostly laminar tropopause cirrus) (Wang et al., 2019). This MLR model  
305 only captures a third of the ALLCF variance, so other processes must control its interannual  
306 variance. The GW index, which is significantly correlated with QBO, BDC and T500 (see Fig.  
307 S1), adds very little unique variance to the MLR, indicating that although the GW index is very  
308 well correlated with the target variables, its contribution is mostly explained by the QBO, BDC,  
309 and T500 indices.

310 Ozone concentrations in tropical lower stratosphere may decrease in the future due to the  
311 strengthening of the BDC but may also be depleted due to the expansion of the troposphere  
312 (Banerjee et al., 2016; Chiodo et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2020; Match and Gerber, 2022). We  
313 examined the correlations of  $15^\circ\text{S}$ - $15^\circ\text{N}$  83hPa ozone concentrations ( $O_383$ ) from MLS with the  
314 predictors as well as other target variables considered (see Fig. S1). Interannual variations in  
315  $O_383$  are very well correlated with equatorial tropopause height ( $r=-0.75$ ). Increases in CPZ  
316 decrease lower stratospheric  $O_3$  concentrations by mixing low  $O_3$  tropospheric air with  
317 stratospheric air. Figure 3 shows that the MLR explains 56% of  $O_383$  variance. Of this explained

318 variance  $\sim 1/5$  is contributed by T500 and another  $\sim 1/5$  comes from the BDC while the remaining  
 319  $\sim 3/5$  are explained by the QBO. Despite its important role in determining  $O_3$ 83 interannual  
 320 variability, QBO is less relevant for the future climate given its quasi-period characteristics and  
 321 large uncertainties in its changes in response to climate (e.g., Butchart et al., 2020; Richter et al.,  
 322 2020; Fu et al. 2020). Our results that both T500 and the BDC affect  $O_3$ 83 are in alignment with  
 323 a recent study claiming that both contribute future  $O_3$  concentration changes in the tropical lower  
 324 stratosphere (Match and Gerber, 2022).



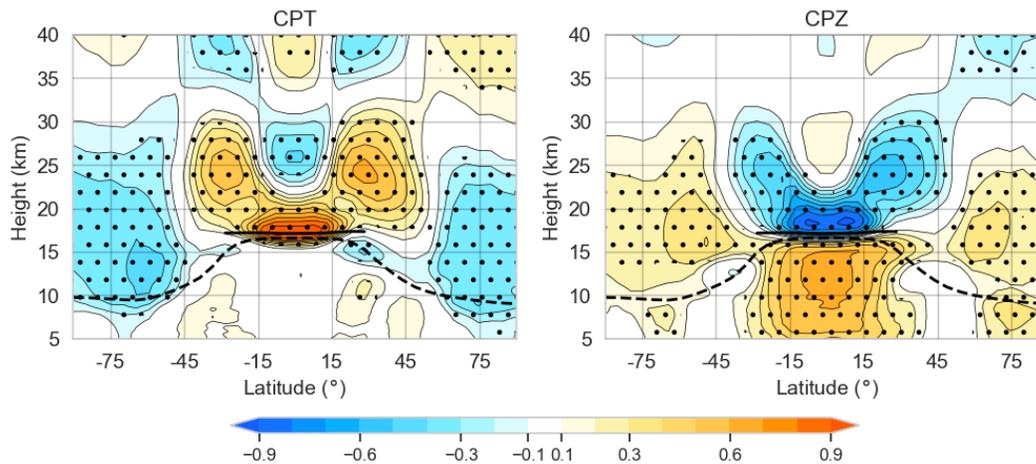
325 Figure 3: Adjusted  $R^2$  from multiple linear regression model applied to target variables using  
 326 modes of the large-scale variability as predictors. Colored sections indicate the estimated  
 327 contribution to the adjusted  $R^2$  from each predictor. The GW contribution here is that after  
 328 removing contributions from BDC, QBO, T500, and MJO (see text).  
 329

330  
 331 We also investigate the power spectra of residual timeseries after variance captured from  
 332 our model has been removed (Fig. S2). It is revealed that the CPT and WV83 still retain large  
 333 interannual variations with spectral peaks at 2+ year periods. The residual TTLCCF and ALLCF  
 334 power spectra are dominated by intraseasonal variability, with periods less than 9 months. This  
 335 suggests that physical processes which control the residual variability in CPT and WV83 are  
 336 different than those that control cloud fraction.

337 Tseng and Fu (2017b) stressed the importance of CPT in determining the TTLCCF. If we  
 338 include CPT as a predictor in our MLR model for TTLCCF, the adjusted  $R^2$  increases only  
 339 slightly from 0.52 to 0.55. In other words, most of the CPT control of TTLCCF has already been  
 340 included in our MLR, and the remaining variance in the TTLCCF timeseries is uncoupled from  
 341 the CPT. This is not true for WV83 whose explained variance increases markedly by 15% (from  
 342 0.60 to 0.75) when including CPT as a predictor. This underscores the importance of the CPT in  
 343 determining entry values of lower-stratospheric water vapor but suggests that the temperature  
 344 control of TTLCCF is already captured by our MLR model. Figure S3 shows that the residual  
 345 tropical CPT is still strongly correlated with lower-stratospheric temperatures throughout the  
 346 globe, suggesting that the residual CPT variability is further largely controlled by ‘top-down’  
 347 processes that are not captured by our MLR model. The resemblance of this correlation map to

348 the BDC signal in lower stratospheric temperature shows that our BDC index is capturing only  
 349 part of the BDC's importance for CPT. Although our BDC index maximizes the explained  
 350 variance in the target variables, a similar pattern of strong correlations between the residual CPT  
 351 and global stratospheric temperature is apparent when using a BDC index based on 100-hPa heat  
 352 flux (Li and Thompson et al., 2013; Tseng and Fu, 2017b) to remove the BDC from the CPT (not  
 353 shown).

354 A notable result of Fig. 3 is that although CPT is entirely dependent on stratospheric  
 355 processes, CPZ has almost equal contribution from stratospheric and tropospheric processes.  
 356 Figure 4 shows the correlations of CPT and CPZ averaged over 15°S-15°N with zonal mean  
 357 temperature from 5-40 km obtained from the GPS-RO data. As suggested in Fig. 4, the CPT is  
 358 controlled by the processes throughout the global stratosphere. The checkerboard pattern in the  
 359 tropical stratosphere is due to the meridional circulation associated with the QBO. The  
 360 anticorrelation above the equatorial cold point and the polar lower stratosphere is due to the  
 361 BDC. Notably, the CPT is not significantly correlated with tropospheric temperatures anywhere.  
 362 In contrast, CPZ is also highly correlated with temperature in the tropical upper troposphere. As  
 363 tropospheric temperatures warm, the thermal expansion of the troposphere lifts the CPZ (Santer  
 364 et al., 2003; Lorenz and DeWeaver, 2007; Lin et al., 2017). A strong BDC signal is also apparent  
 365 in the CPZ and temperature correlation map. These correlation maps show that the temperature  
 366 and height of the equatorial tropopause are impacted by different physical processes.



367  
 368 Figure 4: Correlation of cold point temperature (CPT) and height (CPZ) averaged over 15°S-  
 369 15°N with zonal mean temperature globally from 5-40 km obtained from GPS-RO data.  
 370 Stippling indicates significance at 95% confidence and the solid (dashed) black line is the  
 371 climatological mean cold point (lapse rate) tropopause.  
 372

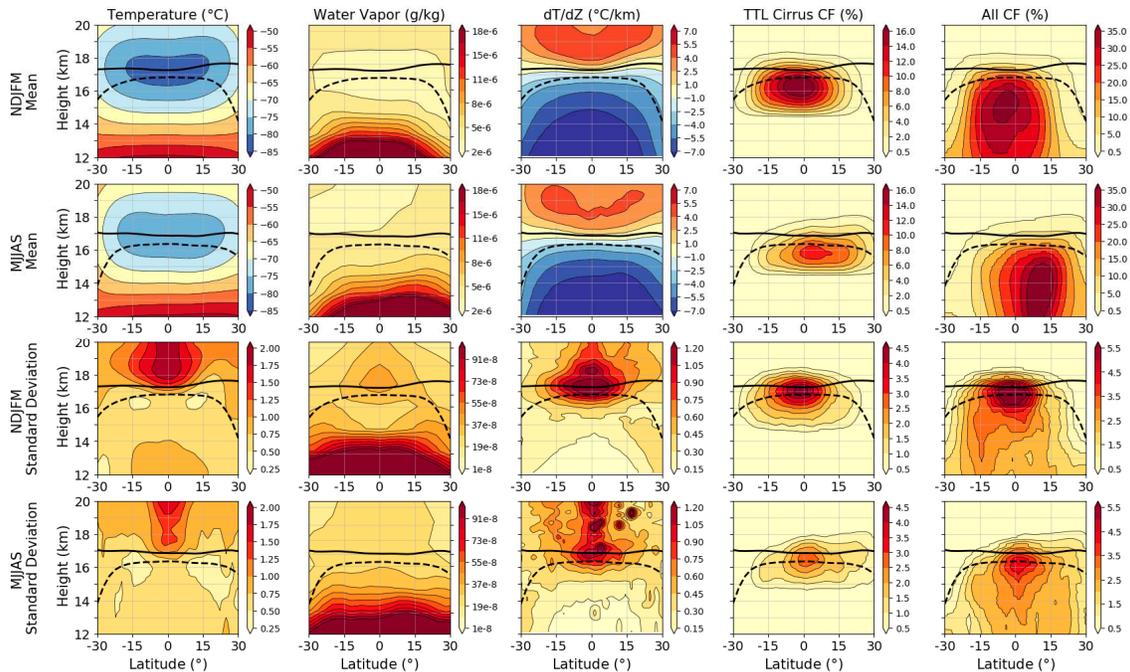
### 373 3.2 Seasonality

374 Figure 3 showed that a significant portion of the interannual variance in the target  
 375 variables can be explained by the investigated modes of variability. A less studied aspect of the  
 376 influence of these processes on the TTL is how their impact depends on season. Many studies  
 377 have shown that the correlation between interannual variations in CPT and lower-stratospheric  
 378 water vapor varies with season (Randel and Jensen, 2013; Randel and Park 2019, Lu et al.,  
 379 2020). Seasonal changes in the tropical upwelling and the Asian monsoon also impact the  
 380 seasonal variation in TTL cirrus clouds and stratospheric water vapor (Sunilkumar et al., 2010;  
 381 Randel et al 2009; Abalos et al., 2012; Walker et al., 2015; Ueyama et al., 2015; Tseng and Fu,  
 382 2017b; Ueyama et al., 2018; Das and Suneeth, 2020). There is also evidence that the modes of

383 variability investigated impact the TTL differently throughout the year (Li and Thompson, 2013;  
 384 Konopka et al., 2016; Tweedy et al., 2018; Martin et al., 2021; Sweeney et al., 2023).

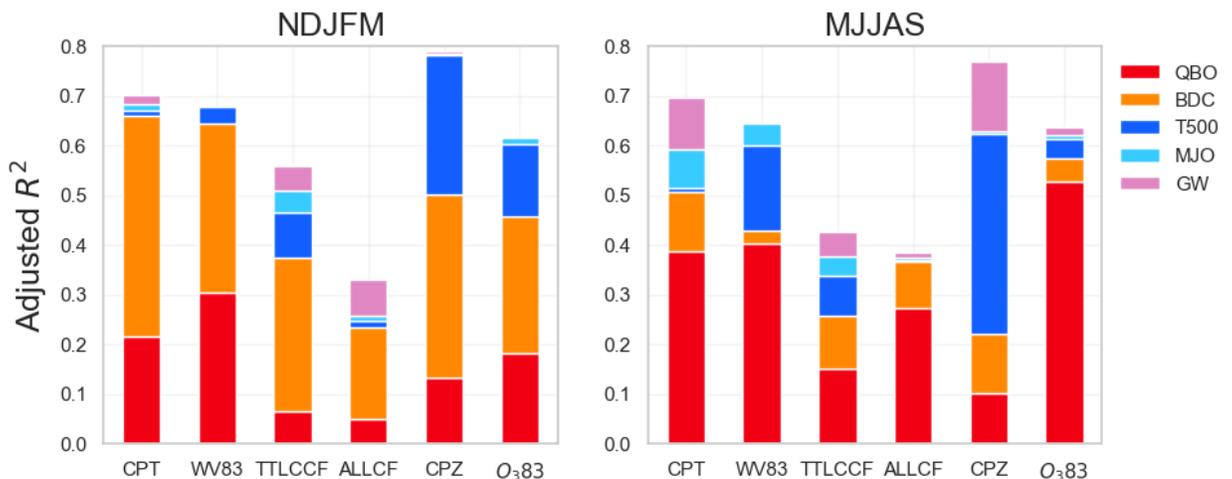
385 The climatological mean and standard deviations of target variables for extended boreal  
 386 winter (NDJFM) and summer (MJJAS) are shown in Figure 5. During NDJFM the TTL is  
 387 colder, drier, and cloudier than in MJJAS. Standard deviations of interannual anomalies during  
 388 boreal winter and summer are shown in the third and fourth rows of Fig. 5. NDJFM has more  
 389 variability near the tropopause in all variables. Although the lower stratosphere is drier during  
 390 NDJFM, standard deviations in lower-stratospheric water vapor are larger, especially over the  
 391 equatorial tropopause. This may be tied to the increased temperature variance near the equatorial  
 392 tropopause during boreal winter (see row 3 of Fig. 5) (Randel and Park, 2019). Peak standard  
 393 deviations are still focused near the equatorial tropopause, suggesting that the 15°S-15°N TTL is  
 394 still key to understanding their interannual variability.

395 Figure S4 shows correlation matrices between all target variables and predictors for both  
 396 NDJFM and MJJAS separately. Like previous findings, we find a stronger correlation between  
 397 WV83 and CPT during boreal winter compared to boreal summer ( $r=0.84$  compared to  $r=0.65$ ),  
 398 which has been extensively reported (Randel and Jensen, 2013; Lu et al., 2020). Interestingly, we  
 399 find that this seasonal variation is reversed for cloud fraction. CPT and cloud fraction have a  
 400 weaker correlation during boreal winter ( $r=-0.63$  for TTLCCF and  $r=-0.57$  for ALLCF)  
 401 compared to boreal summer ( $r=-0.7$  for TTLCCF and  $r=-0.72$  for ALLCF). Tseng and Fu  
 402 (2017b) reported stronger correlations between CPT and cloud fraction closer to the tropopause.  
 403 Given that the tropopause is lower during MJJAS and that cloud fractions are defined using a  
 404 14.5 km threshold, this may be a result of more near tropopause cirrus during MJJAS.  
 405



406  
 407 Figure 5: Seasonal means (rows 1 and 2) and interannual standard deviations (rows 3 and 4) of  
 408 target variables split into NDJFM and MJJAS. The thick white line in all plots is the seasonal  
 409 mean cold point tropopause height.  
 410

411 We next fit the MLR model to the interannual variations of 15°S-15°N target variables  
 412 for both NDJFM and MJJAS individually in Figure 6. Note that the seasonal split reduces the  
 413 data for each MLR by more than half, so partitioning of the variance is likely less reliable. The  
 414 MLR predicts target variables slightly better during NDJFM than MJJAS (besides ALLCF). This  
 415 increase in skill during boreal winter is mainly related to the BDC due to the much weaker BDC  
 416 presence during boreal summer. Although the seasonal cycle in the BDC index has been  
 417 removed, anomalies in the BDC index are weaker during MJJAS due to the decreased wave  
 418 driving during southern hemisphere winter. The QBO exhibits a strong seasonality in correlation  
 419 with TTLCCF ( $r=-0.26$  in NDJFM and  $r=-0.37$  in MJJAS), ALLCF ( $r=-0.25$  in NDJFM and -  
 420  $0.52$  in MJJAS), and  $O_383$  ( $r=0.43$  in NDJFM and  $r=0.72$  in MJJAS) explaining more CF  
 421 variance during MJJAS. This is also true for CPT and WV83, but the seasonality is weaker.  
 422 Sweeney et al. (2023) found that the zonal mean QBO signal in clouds is more zonally  
 423 symmetric and propagates further into the troposphere from April-June, causing stronger QBO  
 424 correlations with cloud fraction during MJJAS. The reason for this deeper QBO penetration  
 425 depth during boreal spring and early summer is still not known. Further, the MJJAS TTL is less  
 426 variable than that of NDJFM, so a given QBO signal should be more salient during this season.  
 427 The ‘bottom-up’ processes contribute more explained variance during MJJAS. This may be due  
 428 to the aliasing of the Boreal Summer Intraseasonal Oscillation into our MJO index, or indirectly  
 429 capturing monsoon variability in our T500 index through its impact on tropospheric  
 430 temperatures.  
 431



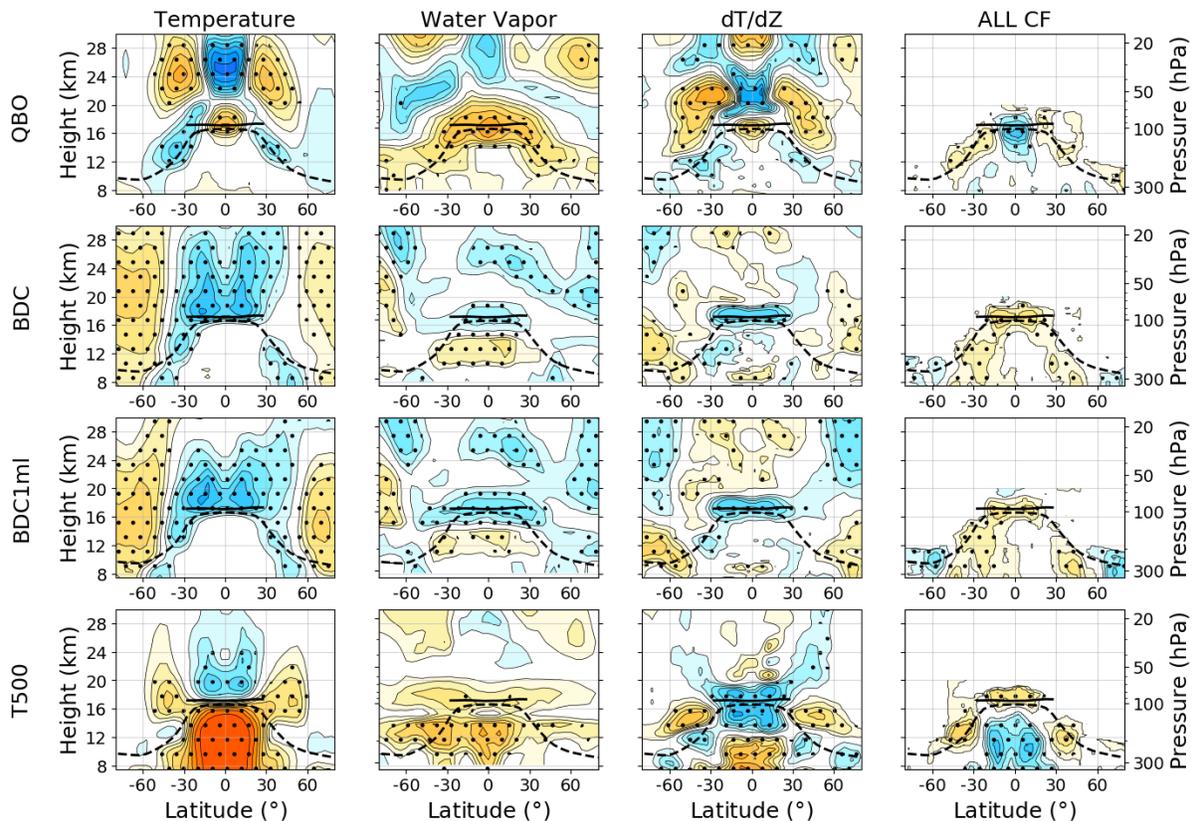
432  
 433 Figure 6: Adjusted  $R^2$  from MLR model applied to target variables for NDJFM and MJJAS  
 434 individually. Colored sections indicate the contribution to the adjusted  $R^2$  from each predictor.  
 435

### 436 3.3 Impacts on the Global Upper Troposphere and Lower Stratosphere

437 The above sections show that a significant portion of the interannual variance in  
 438 temperature, water vapor and clouds in the equatorial TTL can be explained by the QBO, BDC,  
 439 and T500. Here we investigate the correlations of the target variables over the global upper  
 440 troposphere and lower stratosphere (UTLS) with these modes of variability. Figure 7 shows the  
 441 correlations between the monthly anomalies of zonal mean target variables in the UTLS from  
 442 80°S-80°N and the QBO, BDC, and T500. The QBO and T500 indices are described in section  
 443 2.4. The BDC index used in Fig. 7 is the cold point tropopause upwelling between 30°S-30°N  
 444 after regressing out the impacts from T500 and QBO. We also include results using this BDC

445 index with a one-month lead (BDC1ml) to account for potential lags between the tropopause  
 446 upwelling and high latitude downwelling associated with the BDC (Li and Thompson, 2013;  
 447 Tseng and Fu, 2017b). We do not show results for TTL cirrus clouds as they are only defined in  
 448 the tropics. Because we only use nighttime data from CALIPSO, correlations in the polar regions  
 449 are based only on data during polar night. We exclude results related to the MJO due to its  
 450 minimal global zonal mean impact, and gravity wave activity because of its difficulty in defining  
 451 a globally relevant index.

452 The first row in Fig. 7 shows strong anticorrelations of the QBO with temperature with  
 453 extend from the subtropics to  $\sim 50^\circ$  in both hemispheres following the lapse rate tropopause  
 454 height. Water vapor increases associated with warmer equatorial tropopause temperatures are  
 455 transported globally. Cloud fraction correlations mirror those of temperature. A small but  
 456 statistically significant increase in cloud fraction occurs in the Arctic which may suggest that the  
 457 QBO has impacts on polar clouds during boreal winter, but this is not further investigated  
 458 (Garfinkel and Hartmann, 2011; Yamazaki et al., 2020).  
 459



460  
 461 Figure 7: Correlations between the monthly anomalies of target variables in the global upper  
 462 troposphere and lower stratosphere and modes of variability including QBO, BDC, BDC1ml and  
 463 T500. BDC1ml is the BDC index with a one-month lead. Stippling indicates significance at 95%  
 464 confidence and the solid (dashed) line is the cold point (lapse rate) tropopause height.  
 465

466 The BDC is significantly anticorrelated with temperature in the stratosphere equatorward  
 467 of  $40^\circ$  and positively correlated poleward. The BDC anticorrelation with water vapor is weak  
 468 throughout the global lower stratosphere except over the south pole. Cloud fraction correlations  
 469 associated with the BDC are the inverse of those of temperature, with positive correlations

470 trailing the lapse rate tropopause. Using this BDC1ml index, correlations of the BDC and  $dT/dZ$   
471 in the polar regions are closer to the lapse rate tropopause. The BDC1ml is also significantly  
472 correlated with Arctic and Antarctic clouds from 7-12 km. Li and Thompson (2013) showed that  
473 the BDC impacts both equatorial and Arctic high clouds during boreal winter. Here we show that  
474 this is also true with Antarctic high clouds, but the correlation is weaker. Note that we only use  
475 nighttime cloud fraction data from CALIPSO, so cloud fraction correlations in the polar regions  
476 are only representative of the winter response.

477 The final column in Fig. 7 shows the correlations of target variables with T500. As  
478 expected, strong correlations with temperature and water vapor throughout the tropical  
479 atmosphere are visible. The correlation with lower stratospheric temperature indicates a signature  
480 of the shallow branch of the Brewer-Dobson circulation. Increases in temperature and  $dT/dZ$  are  
481 anticorrelated with CF. CF near the tropopause increases from 50°S-50°N and is collocated with  
482 decreases in the vertical temperature gradient near the tropopause in these regions. We find no  
483 statistically significant correlation between polar clouds and T500 in either hemisphere. Figure 7  
484 indicates that the correlation of cold point temperature averaged over 15°S-15°N with global  
485 zonal mean temperature shown in Fig.4 is a response to the QBO and BDC.

## 486 487 **5 Conclusions**

488 Stratospheric water vapor and TTL cirrus clouds are important for the Earth's radiative  
489 budget and are poorly constrained in climate models. Both exhibit large interannual variability,  
490 which is strongly correlated to the equatorial CPT, stressing the temperature control of the phase  
491 of water in the TTL (Jensen et al., 2013; Tseng and Fu, 2017b). Previous work shows that the  
492 QBO, BDC, and ENSO contribute to this interannual variability by modulating the  
493 thermodynamic environment of the TTL (e.g., Dessler et al., 2013; Davis et al., 2013; Randel  
494 and Wu, 2015). Here we investigate how these modes of variability, the MJO, and GW  
495 contribute to this interannual variability. To do this, we use a MLR model to explain the variance  
496 in CPT, WV83 and TTLCCF using these modes of variability as predictors. In addition, we also  
497 apply our MLR model to ALLCF, CPZ, and O<sub>3</sub>83.

498 We find that 68%, 60%, 52%, 35%, 74%, and 56% of CPT, WV83, TTLCCF, ALLCF,  
499 CPZ, and O<sub>3</sub>83 variance can be explained using this MLR model. The most important predictor  
500 for our cloud fraction is the BDC. The BDC index used here is the 15°S-15°N tropopause  
501 upwelling diagnosed from the residual stream function after regressing out the impacts of the  
502 QBO and T500 (Rosenlof, 1995). This BDC index's high correlation may be related to its  
503 capturing of tropical/subtropical wave activity which induces upwelling near the equatorial  
504 tropopause and downwelling in the subtropics and contributes to the shallow branch of the BDC  
505 (Abalos et al., 2012; Ortlund and Alexander, 2014; Abalos et al., 2014). The GW index was  
506 strongly correlated to all target variables investigated, yet only marginally contributed to  
507 explained variance after considering QBO, BDC and T500. This suggests that although gravity  
508 wave activity is important for tropopause temperature and TTLCCF, its impact on interannual  
509 timescales can be considered though other modes of variability.

510 It is shown that explained variance of CPT, WV32, TTLCCF, and O<sub>3</sub>83 is associated  
511 with stratospheric processes (see Figs. 2 and 3), suggesting that the interannual variability of the  
512 target variables is mostly controlled by 'top-down' processes. CPT was entirely controlled by  
513 stratospheric processes, while CPZ is controlled by near equal contributions from 'top-down'  
514 and 'bottom-up' processes. Analysis of the residual CPT variability shows that it is still well  
515 correlated to lower-stratospheric temperature. Adding the residual CPT timeseries into the MLR

516 model increases the explained variance of WV83 but only marginal increases in explained  
517 variance of cloud fractions, meaning remaining variance in TTLCCF is uncoupled from the CPT.  
518 It should be noted that the roles of BDC shown in Figs. 3 and 6 might be underestimated since  
519 part of the BDC shallow branch is included in T500 (Fig.7).

520 The modes of variability might impact the target variables differently based on the time  
521 of year (Li and Thompson, 2013; Konopka et al., 2016; Tweedy et al., 2018; Martin et al., 2021;  
522 Sweeney et al., 2023). The interannual variability of the target variables is confined to the  
523 equatorial region regardless of season (see Fig. 4). We applied our MLR model to extended  
524 boreal winter and summer individually. We find that more interannual variance is explained  
525 during NDJFM compared to MJJAS, which is largely due to the weakened BDC during boreal  
526 summer. The MJJAS MLR model was more dependent on “bottom-up” processes which may be  
527 related to the importance of convection to clouds and water vapor in the TTL during MJJAS  
528 (Ueyama et al., 2018).

529 Correlations between the QBO, BDC, and T500 and the target variables throughout the  
530 global UTLS were also investigated. Correlations in temperature are collocated with  
531 anticorrelations in CF. While previous studies have shown that the BDC can impact Arctic high  
532 clouds, this study shows that the BDC also impacts Antarctic high clouds during polar night  
533 (although the relationship is weaker in the Antarctic).

534

535

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### 539 **Open Research**

540 The code for this project is being held at <https://github.com/AodhanSweeney/TTLVariability>. The

541 processed data will be held on zenodo and released at the time of publication.

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