On the unexplained stratospheric ozone losses during cold

2 Arctic Januaries

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- 9 Abstract. Using a combination of data from Match, POAM II,
- 10 POAM III and MLS we show that the chemical loss rate of
- 11 Arctic O₃ during January of four cold winters (1992, 1995,
- 12 1996, and 2000) is consistently faster than can be accounted
- for by assuming complete activation of reactive chlorine and
- standard reaction kinetics. However, O₃ loss rates measured
- during late February and early March 1996 are shown to be
- consistent with observations of ClO. The faster than expected
- O_3 loss rates during January are shown to occur when air
- O₃ loss rates during January are shown to occur when an
- 18 parcels are illuminated at high solar zenith angles (SZAs
- between ~85 and 94°), and to result in cumulative O_3 loss of
- ~ 0.5 ppmv. The cause of the rapid January O_3 loss is unclear,
- but may be related to a photolytic process at high SZA that is
- 22 poorly represented by current photochemical models.

1. Introduction

Proper understanding of the timing and extent of chemical depletion of Arctic O₃ during winter is a prerequisite for developing reliable assessments of future ozone abundances. Early studies suggested consistency between *observed* rates of chemical O₃ loss (hereafter referred to as O₃ *loss_obs*) and *modeled* loss rates (O₃ *loss_mdl*) based on measured concentrations of ClO and BrO and relevant laboratory kinetics [e.g., *Salawitch et al.*, 1990]. These studies focused primarily on the February to March time period and were limited by large (e.g., factor of two) uncertainties in O₃ *loss_obs* [*Schoeberl et al.*, 1990].

Several recent studies suggest that observed rates of chemical loss of Arctic O₃ are considerably faster than expected during mid-winter. *Becker et al.* [1998, 2000] reported that O₃ *loss_obs* for mid-January was more than a factor of two greater than loss rates found using a parcel-trajectory photochemical model. *Hansen et al.* [1997] reported that the accumulated O₃ loss observed at 69.3°N in late March 1996 was ~50% larger than values calculated using a chemical transport model (CTM). A similar discrepancy has been reported based on analyses of O₃ from the POAM (Polar Ozone and Aerosol Measurement) II satellite instrument using a different CTM [*Deniel et al.*, 1998].

Using a combination of data from the Match technique, POAM II, POAM III and the Microwave Limb Sounder

(MLS), we show that Arctic ozone loss rates during cold Arctic Januaries are consistently faster than is currently understood. Our study focuses on O3 loss rates measured by the Match technique [e.g., Rex et al., 1993, 1997, 2002; von der Gathen, 1995] for four cold Arctic winters that experienced significant chemical ozone depletion during January. We use a simple theoretical framework for modeling chemical ozone loss rates [Salawitch et al., 1993] that is based on abundances of ClO specified either from MLS satellite observations [Santee et al., 1996] or by assumptions regarding the level of chlorine activation. We investigate the consistency between O₃ loss_obs and O₃ loss_mdl for different time periods of Arctic winter.

2. Chemical Loss of Arctic Ozone: January

 Fig. 1 shows values of O₃ *loss_obs* on isentropic surfaces of the lower stratosphere found by the Match technique for four winters. These measurements are based on data collected by ozonesondes from dozens of stations in a coordinated manner that allows air masses to be sampled multiple times as they traverse the vortex [e.g., *Rex et al.*, 1998, 1999]. The loss rates are expressed in ppbv/sunlit hour, a convenient way to account for variations in solar insolation. The sunlit times are defined as periods at solar zenith angles (SZA) less than 95°. The discussion in this section focuses on ozone loss rates for January of each winter.

Chemical loss of O_3 per sunlit hour peaks in January of all winters due to greater abundances of ClO [*Rex et al.*, 1997, 2002]. Data for January 1995 and 2000 are shown for the isentropic surfaces that experienced the largest ozone loss rates (490 and 500 K respectively). For 1992 and 1996, sufficient numbers of ozonesonde observations are not available to precisely define loss rates above 475 K. Therefore, for those years, ozone loss rates at the 475 K level are given in Fig. 1.

As noted above, *Becker et al.* [1998, 2000] could not account for the rapidity of ozone loss during January 1992 (at 475 K) and January 1995 (at 490 K). They used a Lagrangian photochemical box model with a comprehensive description of gas phase and heterogeneous reactions.

To our knowledge, during the cold Arctic Januaries discussed here, measurements of ClO at the required altitudes are not available, or not sufficiently frequent, to constrain model runs along the trajectories used in Match. Therefore we have chosen a different approach. To illustrate the extent of the discrepancy, we have used a photochemical box model to calculate the level of ClO_x (ClO+2×ClOOCl) that would be required to account for the observed O₃ loss rates along Match trajectories. In the model we use a simple theoretical framework for the representation of the diurnal variation of ClO, ClOOCl, OClO, BrO, BrCl, and atomic O [Salawitch et al., 1993] (note 1). The calculations assume constant ClO_x along each Match trajectory, account for the effects of variations in temperature and solar insolation on O₃ loss_mdl, and use kinetic parameters from JPL00-3 [Sander et al., 2000] (note 2).

The level of ClO_x necessary to account for the observed ozone loss rates in January exceeds 5 ppbv for each winter analyzed. This is larger than 3.7 ppbv, the total amount of

inorganic chlorine present in the stratosphere [WMO, 1998]. Ozone loss rates for January found by assuming ClO_x equals 3.7 ppbv are also shown in Fig. 1. The failure to fully account for O_3 loss_obs, even assuming complete activation of ClO_x , is robust for reasonable uncertainties in the reaction coefficients of the primary ozone loss cycles (ClO+ClO and BrO+ClO). These analyses suggest that loss of O_3 in January occurs by a process that is not well represented by current photochemical models

The discrepancy between O_3 loss_obs and O_3 loss_mdl is significant considering the uncertainty in the measured loss rates. The error bars for O_3 loss_obs in Fig. 1 represent 1σ statistical uncertainties assuming a Gaussian distribution of the error of individual Match events (note 3). Observed ozone loss rates exceed the maximum possible modeled loss rate (assuming ClO_x =3.7 ppbv) by 2σ to 3σ for late January 1992 and by 1σ to 2σ for parts of mid to late January of other years.

The model calculations depend on the abundance of BrO_x, the photolysis rate of Cl₂O₂ (J_{Cl2O2}) and the reaction rate for the reaction ClO+ClO+M (k_{ClO+ClO}). To estimate the uncertainty of the model results we have varied these parameters within reasonable limits, i.e. for BrO the highest measurements of bromine reported for the Arctic so far (Pfeilsticker et al., private communication) plus 20%, for k_{ClO+ClO} the uncertainty given in JPL00-3 (which encompasses the values reported by Bloss et al., 2001), and for J_{Cl2O2} the recommended value \pm 50%. The results of some of these sensitivity studies are given in Figure 1. For some of the points in January the discrepancy is larger than the combined uncertainties of the model results and the observations. Our assessment that this discrepancy is significant is based also on the consistent observation of faster than expected ozone loss rates for all cold Januaries during the past decade. However, the uncertainty for J_{C12O2} given in JPL00-3 at 50 hPa is about a factor of three. Using the upper limit of J_{Cl2O2} based on this uncertainty, all measurements fall within the model uncertainty, with the exception of two points in January 1992. But increasing J_{Cl2O2} by a factor of three would not be consistent with analysis of ClO measurements at high SZA [e.g. Avallone and Toohey, 2001; Vömel et al., 2001], which suggest that the 50% used here is a more realistic estimate for the uncertainty. Finally, the Match observation of essentially zero rates of chemical O3 loss for January of warm winters (e.g., 1998 and 1999) [Schulz et al., 2001], when higher levels of planetary wave activity pose greater challenges to the Match approach than for cold winters, increases our confidence in the validity of the observed January loss rates shown here.

A statistical analysis of the ozonesonde data has been performed to determine whether sunlight exposure is associated with chemical ozone loss. A bivariate linear regression has been applied to the data, allowing for different rates of ozone change for the sunlit and dark (defined as SZA > 95°) segments of the trajectories [$Rex\ et\ al.$, 1999]. Ozone depletion, expressed in units of ppbv/hr, is found only for the sunlit segments (Fig. 2). No significant change in O₃ is found for the times the airmasses are in complete darkness. The consistency of these results for four winters suggests that the unaccounted for ozone loss process is photolytic.

Since Match results are available for a range of potential temperature surfaces, the accumulated loss of ozone can be calculated on surfaces that follow the diabatic descend of air [Rex et al., 1997]. For 1994/1995 and 1999/2000 the range of theta levels for which Match results are available is sufficiently broad to do the accumulation on various descending surfaces, resulting in a vertical profile of the overall loss at the end of January (Fig. 3).

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Accumulated O_3 loss measured by POAM II and POAM III for January 1995, 1996, and 2000, found by allowing vortex averaged ozone to descend using calculated cooling rates [Hoppel et al., 2002], compares well with Match observations considering the respective uncertainties (Fig. 3).

Significant chemical removal of O_3 during January has been reported by other techniques. Accumulated chemical loss of 0.5 ppmv of ozone at 465 K was observed by MLS during January 1995 (Fig. 3), in excellent quantitative agreement with ozone reductions found by Match [Harris et al., 2002].

In January 2000 ozone loss derived by Match peaks at ~0.54 \pm 0.2 ppmv between potential temperature levels of 480 and 520 K. Accumulated loss of O₃ was moderate (~0.22 \pm 0.13 ppmv) at the 444 K surface, close to the cruise altitude of the NASA ER-2 aircraft during January. Therefore, the finding of little or no chemical loss of ozone (0.0 \pm 0.15 ppmv) from ER-2 observations during January 2000 [*Richard et al.*, 2001] is not inconsistent with the analyses presented here.

3. Chemical Loss of Arctic Ozone: February and March

Changes in ozone per sunlit hour are smaller in February and March compared to January because of partial recovery of ClO_x to the ClNO₃ reservoir [*Rex et al.*, 1997, 2002]. In this section, we use MLS observations of ClO to calculate loss rates along the Match trajectories, and compare them to Match estimates of O3 *loss_obs*.

1996 is the only year for which Match observations of rapid ozone loss overlapped with sufficiently dense MLS observations of ClO to allow the reconstruction of ClO_x along the match trajectories. MLS observations during rapid ozone loss in other years were not available due to the monthly yaw of the Upper Atmospheric Research Satellite (UARS) or were not sufficiently dense due to difficulties with the MLS scan mechanism in later years.

We have reconstructed the abundance of active chlorine along the Match trajectories by interpolating between mixing ratios of ClO_x that have been inferred from MLS measurements of ClO close to the respective trajectories. We use Version 5 MLS retrievals, which provide a better definition of the vertical distribution of ClO than previous MLS retrievals [Livesey et al., 2002]. O_3 loss_mdl was calculated along each Match trajectory at 475 K for this time period. All other assumptions (i.e., BrO_x , O_3) are as previously described.

Excellent agreement is found between decreases in O₃ along the Match trajectories and modeled loss based on MLS observations of ClO for late February/early March 1996 (Fig. 4). The hourly ozone loss rates (e.g., change per sunlit hour) are considerably smaller than are observed during January.

- 1 Abundances of ClO_x inferred from MLS ClO along Match
- 2 trajectories range from ~1.2 to 2.6 ppbv. Most importantly, the
- 3 Match trajectories spend a considerably smaller portion of their
- 4 overall sunlit time at high SZA (e.g., between ~85 and 94°)
- than is found for the January trajectories.

4. Discussion

 We turn our attention to speculation regarding the cause of the rapid ozone loss during January. Standard photochemical models predict relatively slow rates of polar O_3 loss at high SZA (e.g., between 85 and 94°) because strong attenuation of UV light, due to the high O_3 slant columns, limits the photolysis rate of ClOOCl and hence the overall rate of O_3 loss by the ClO+ClO and BrO+ClO cycles.

Longwave photolysis of ClOOCl by an unknown state in the near IR (wavelengths > 800 nm, which is optically thin even at high SZA) could principally provide a strong enhancement to the abundance of Cl and ClO during twilight. Such photoloysis could lead to significant increases in chemical ozone loss rates at high SZA. Little change would occur for calculated loss along trajectories in late February and early March because air parcels spend a much smaller fraction of overall sunlit time at high SZA. However, in-situ observations of ClO and ClOOCl, obtained from the NASA ER-2 during SOLVE, provide evidence that ClOOCl does not photolyze at an appreciable rate in the near IR [Avallone and Toohey, 2001; Vömel et al., 2001; R. M. Stimpfle, private communication, 2002]. Hence, we are left to ponder other possible causes of the observed rapid loss of ozone during January.

 O_3 could also be lost by reactions on the surface of PSCs (polar stratospheric clouds). The upper limit for the reaction probability of this process, 2.5×10^{-4} on the surface of nitric acid trihydrate [Sander et al., 2000], suggests that this process could contribute significantly to ozone loss in January. For each January considered here, air was exposed to considerable amounts of PSCs during both day and night. Our finding that loss of ozone occurs only during sunlit periods suggests that, if direct loss on PSC surfaces is responsible, such loss must be driven by photons.

Observations indicate that BrO does not fall off with increasing SZA near sunset as rapidly as expected [Wahner and Schiller, 1992; Avallone and Toohey, 2001]. It is difficult to reconcile these observations with existing photochemical theory. Nonetheless, it is not clear how enhanced BrO in twilight could lead to appreciable increases in chemical loss rates since CIO is observed to decline with increasing SZA essentially as expected [Vömel et al., 2001; Kreher et al., 2002; R. M. Stimpfle, private communication, 2002]. A reactive partner is required for ozone destruction by enhanced levels of BrO, since the self-reaction of BrO is too slow to contribute appreciable amounts of ozone loss. Observations of a burst of CIO [Pierson et al., 1999] and BrO [McKinney et al., 1997] at high SZA at sunrise also suggest that the halogen chemistry at high SZA is still not fully understood. Perhaps loosely bound higher oxides of ClOOC1 contribute to the rapid ozone loss found in January, either by reaction with BrO or in other yet unidentified ozone loss cycles [Sander et al., 1989]. Better understanding of the photochemistry of this time period

- 1 requires more extensive observations at high SZA, and
- 2 appropriate potential temperature levels (e.g., 480 to 520 K), of
- 3 BrO, other radicals, and a variety of chlorine species to test the
- 4 budget and partitioning of halogens in the stratosphere.

5. Concluding Remarks

We have analyzed data from Match, POAM II, POAM III and MLS to assess our understanding of Arctic ozone loss rates. The consistent inability to fully account for observed ozone loss rates during cold Arctic Januaries suggests the existence of a currently unknown ozone loss mechanism. Detailed analyses suggest that this loss process involves a photolytic step. The lack of measurable loss during warm winters indicates that the process is related to ClO_x. Observed ozone loss later during winter (e.g., mid February to early March) is in good quantitative agreement with model results based on observed ClO, suggesting that the unknown ozone loss mechanism is most important at high SZA and low temperatures typical of January conditions.

During cold Arctic Januaries we find cumulative ozone loss of about 0.5 ppmv. Although our and other analyses point toward the existence of a currently unknown ozone loss mechanism, its relative impact is modest for winters with massive ozone depletion. For such winters, loss of ozone predominantly occurs during February and March by known catalytic processes (ClO+ClO and ClO+BrO) that operate efficiently under conditions of high solar illumination. Nonetheless, the January discrepancy demands further investigation because reliable assessments of future Arctic ozone depletion require a full understanding of all significant processes that affect ozone.

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41 Notes

1. Values of BrO are found by specifying the sum, BrO+BrCl, as a function of potential temperature such that observed mixing ratios of BrO in the Arctic vortex [Avallone et al., 1995] are reproduced. Measurements of O₃ from Match are also specified along each trajectory.

2. Use of the *Bloss et al.* (2001) rate for CIO+CIO+M rather than the JPL00-3 [Sander et al., 2000] rate has essentially no effect on our model calculations because a faster rate titrates CIO into CIOOCI. Hence, the increase in O_3 loss due to the CIO+CIO cycle is nearly balanced by the calculated decrease due to the BrO+CIO cycle.

3. An analysis of the individual errors of the Match events shows that the distribution of errors is Gaussian [Rex, 1993]. However, based on the sample size, it is hard to exclude a small, non-Gaussian component at the far edge (e.g., beyond 2σ) of the distribution. Since faster than expected ozone loss rates are observed for all cold

Januaries, it is unlikely that the discrepancy discussed in this paper is 2 due to a statistical fluctuation of the data.

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Figure 1. Chemical loss rate of O_3 (O_3 loss_obs) in the Arctic vortex for indicated years and isentropic surfaces based on the Match method (red boxes; error bars represent 1σ uncertainty). The abundance of ClO_x necessary to account for O_3 loss_obs along each trajectory (green dots; see text) for JPL00-3 kinetics is also shown. Also shown is an estimate of O_3 loss_mall for January of each year assuming ClO_x =3.7 ppbv (horizontal blue line). The dashed lines show results for assuming BrO_x based on measurements of BrO during winter by Pfeilsticker et al. (private communication) (run 1). The dotted lines are results for increasing these values for BrO_x by 20% (run 2). The dash-dotted line show results for increasing J_{Cl2O2} by 50% (run 3), and the dash-dot-dotted line is for increasing J_{Cl2O2} by 50% (run 4). Run 2 and 3 are the lines farthest from the base run, run 4 lies closest to the base run.

Figure 2. Rate of change of ozone along Match trajectories for data collected during sunlit conditions (defined as SZA $<95^{\circ}$) and during dark periods (SZA $>95^{\circ}$) based on bivariate regressions for data collected between 5 and 31 January of each year for the set of matches used in Fig. 1. Error bars are 1σ estimates of the statistical uncertainty. During January 1996 a much smaller number of ozone soundings have been performed compared to the other years shown here and the uncertainty of the bivariate analysis is much larger.

Figure 3. Accumulated chemical loss of O_3 versus potential temperature for Januaries of 1992 (black), 1995 (red), 1996 (green), and 2000 (blue). Results from Match analyses are shown by solid lines with solid markers. The single open marker represents a result from MLS for 1 to 31 January 1995 [Harris et al., 2002]. The dotted lines represent ozone losses derived from POAM II and III measurements. For these an ozone versus PV relation was derived from POAM measurements made during day 32 ± 2 days. The vortex average ozone profile was calculated based on these relations at various heights. The ozone loss was then estimated by comparing this profile with subsided vortex average profiles calculated with the same approach for day 5 ± 2 days. Error bars represent 1σ uncertainties.

Fig. 4. The chemical loss of O_3 measured by Match between 20 February 1996 and 3 March 1996 at 475 K versus the amount of sunlight exposure along each Match trajectory (red squares) and the computed reduction in O_3 along the same Match trajectory based on MLS Version 5 measurements of CIO (green crosses). Error bars represent the 1σ sigma standard deviation of the measured and modeled changes in O_3 .

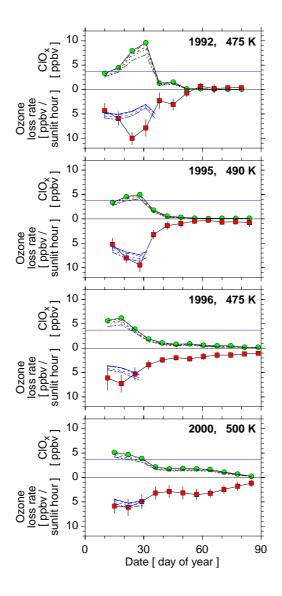


Figure 1, Rex et al.

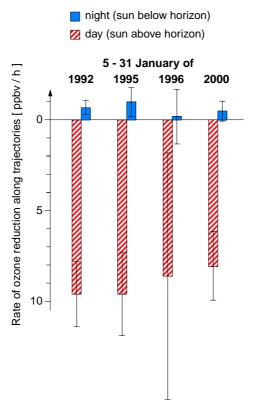


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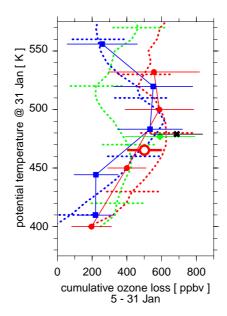


Figure 3, Rex et al.

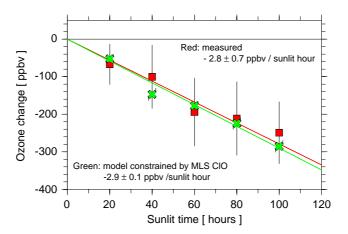


Figure 4, Rex et al.