

1 **Subpolar activation of halogen heterogeneous chemistry in austral spring**

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10 **Key points:**

- 11 • Observed and modeled NO₂ depletion indicates significant heterogeneous chemistry in
12 the Southern Hemisphere springtime subpolar lower stratosphere.
- 13 • Novel evidence for chemical processes is revealed using probability distributions in NO₂
14 data versus simulations.

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ABSTRACT

Heterogeneous halogen chemistry plays a dominant role in driving changes in polar chemical composition and ozone depletion. Activation of halogens outside the polar regions may result in depletion of local ozone, along with changes in the chemical budgets of various species in the lower stratosphere (LS). In this paper, the means and distributions of NO₂ measurements from the Stratospheric Aerosol and Gas Experiment III (SAGE3m) are compared to simulations from a coupled climate-chemistry model, in order to better characterize and quantify subpolar heterogeneous halogen chemistry. NO₂ abundances from a simulation with heterogeneous chemistry are drawn from the same distribution as the SAGE3m observations, while the NO₂ distribution is different in a simulation without heterogeneous chemistry. Results indicate that heterogeneous chemistry plays a significant role in determining the chemical composition of the subpolar LS in austral spring and show how analysis of distribution functions can provide useful insights to chemical processes.

Plain Language Summary. Much research has been done on the impacts of ozone-depleting substances on the atmospheres of the polar regions, where their impacts, including the infamous Antarctic ozone hole, are greatest. However, it is possible for these same chemicals to be active outside the polar regions, where they can destroy ozone locally as they do near the poles. In this study, we analyze observations of NO₂ outside the polar region. Because its concentrations are also impacted by the same chemistry that destroys ozone, NO₂ is a good indicator of where chemistry involving ozone-depleting substances is occurring. We provide important evidence for the active presence of ozone-depleting substances outside of the polar regions. In addition, we use a model to show that the chemistry is essential to explain the observed NO₂ distributions.

44 The results presented here should motivate further research on the impacts of ozone-depleting
45 substances on ozone abundances throughout the atmosphere.

1. Introduction

It is well known that heterogeneous halogen chemistry in and on polar stratospheric particles (PSCs) plays a dominant role in driving changes in polar chemical composition (e.g., ClO, HCl, ClONO₂, NO₂) and ozone depletion. While such processes could also be important outside the polar regions, their impacts there are smaller and therefore more difficult to identify (see, e.g., Solomon, 1999, and references therein). Significant activation of inorganic halogens outside the polar regions may potentially result in the following: (i) depletion of ozone, including possible chemistry-climate coupling (e.g., Anderson et al., 2017; Hanson et al., 1994), (ii) changes in the chemical budgets not only of chlorine and bromine species, but also those of nitrogen compounds in the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere (Adams et al., 2017; Solomon et al., 2016; Zambri et al., 2019); and (iii) alteration of the local loss rates and lifetimes of some organic molecules due to enhanced atomic chlorine concentrations, e.g., C₂H₆ and methane near the tropopause (Lelieveld et al., 1999). These considerations broaden the scope of potential impacts associated with the chemistry of the subpolar stratosphere.

Anderson et al. (2012, 2017) theorized potential roles of liquid sulfate aerosols for ozone loss under cold tropopause conditions at mid-latitudes along with changes in water vapor associated with deep convection. Solomon et al. (2016) used model calculations to argue that heterogeneous halogen activation may occur near the tropical monsoon regions as well. Near the mid-latitude tropopause, some modeling studies have suggested that heterogeneous chemistry might also occur on cirrus cloud particles (e.g., Borrmann et al., 1996; Solomon et al., 1997). A number of observational studies have made use of volcanic perturbations to provide airborne and/or satellite evidence for reductions in NO_x associated with liquid sulfate aerosol chemistry

(e.g., Adams et al., 2017; Fahey et al., 1993; Zambri et al., 2019) but the specific reactions involved and their chemical impacts are not fully established. Important evidence has been presented for heterogeneous halogen chemistry in the tropopause region outside the polar vortices, but its scope and impacts remain uncertain (e.g., Barrera et al., 2020; Santee et al., 2011; Thornton et al., 2003). For this reason, additional study, especially with satellite methods that can provide extensive temporal and latitudinal coverage, is useful.

In this study, we analyze the chemistry of the Southern Hemisphere (SH) subpolar lower stratosphere in September and October using satellite observations from the Stratospheric Aerosol and Gas Experiment III on the Meteor-3M satellite (SAGE3m) in conjunction with the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) Community Earth System Model, version 2 (CESM2) Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model (WACCM6; Danabasoglu et al., 2020; Gettelman et al., 2019). The model is run in specified dynamics (SD) mode wherein an observations-based reanalysis provides the temperatures and winds that are important for the chemistry. NO_2 is a useful indicator of heterogeneous processes. Reactions on surfaces (Solomon et al., 2015) convert NO_2 from short-lived NO_x reservoir species to longer-lived reservoir species, thereby locally depleting NO_2 and “denoxifying” the atmosphere (Table S1). Some heterogeneous processes result only in denoxification (e.g., $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow 2\text{HNO}_3$) and indirectly affect halogens, while others not only denoxify but also directly activate halogens from longer-lived species to more reactive forms (e.g., $\text{HCl} + \text{ClONO}_2 \rightarrow \text{HNO}_3 + \text{Cl}_2$). Therefore, NO_2 abundances are a key tool for analysis of heterogeneous processing and evaluation of chemical understanding. We show how comparisons of not just means but more importantly the modeled and observed NO_2 distributions, defined by their discrete probability density functions (PDF) can be expected to demonstrate *where, when, and by how much heterogeneous halogen chemistry*

can perturb chemical composition outside the polar vortex. The analysis of probability distributions is shown to be a useful tool, and can also be expected to improve understanding of the measurement capabilities (including sensitivity and precision).

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 SAGE3m

The SAGE III was launched aboard the Russian Aviation and Space Agency's Meteor-3M satellite (Mauldin et al., 1998). The satellite was launched on December 10, 2001 into a Sun-synchronous orbit at an altitude of 1020 km and with an approximate 9:00 a.m. equatorial crossing time on the ascending node. The occultation instrument provided NO₂ measurements are reported at 0.5-km intervals from the tropopause to 45 km from 2002 to 2005, mostly at high latitudes in the Northern Hemisphere (between 50° and 80°N) and midlatitudes in the Southern Hemisphere (between 30° and 50°S). SAGE3m NO₂ observations are interpolated vertically to the CESM2(WACCM) grid.

2.2 CESM2(WACCM)

The CESM2(WACCM6) is the latest version of the CESM (Danabasoglu et al., 2020; Gettelman et al., 2019). The configuration of CESM2(WACCM) used here features ~2° (1.9° latitude × 2.5° longitude) horizontal resolution and a finite volume dynamical core (Lin & Rood, 1997). The model was run in specified dynamics mode (WACCM-SD) using the National Aeronautics and Space Administration Global Modeling and Assimilation Office Modern-Era Retrospective analysis for Research and Applications, Version 2 (MERRA2) meteorological fields (Gelaro et al., 2017). WACCM-SD allows for the synoptic comparison of model and

observations; in particular, WACCM has a purpose-built capability to output chemical constituent and other information at the specific longitude, latitude, and local time of a given satellite instrument. This tool has been employed in previous studies, for example, to examine sunrise and sunset data for ClONO_2 and O_3 (Sakazaki et al., 2015; Solomon et al., 2015). We have leveraged this capability to extract the model output at the same times and locations as the SAGE3m observations, which allows for a like-like comparison of model and observations.

2.3 Defining the subpolar region

The stratospheric polar vortex is a large-scale region of air that is contained by strong westerly winds that circle the polar region. This westerly jet stream is usually referred to as the polar night jet. The polar vortex extends from the tropopause through the stratosphere and into the mesosphere (above 50 km; Waugh, Sobel & Polvani, 2017). Cold temperatures and low ozone abundances, relative to midlatitudes, are associated with the air inside the vortex, because the polar vortex inhibits the exchange of polar and midlatitude air (Fig. 1). The potential vorticity (PV) is a conserved quantity that acts as a tracer for motion on an isentropic surface and is frequently used to distinguish polar versus midlatitude airmasses, although the vortex is not completely impermeable. In the winter, the magnitude of the PV is larger at the pole than at midlatitudes. The spacing of PV contours is tightest at the polar vortex edge, and widens inside the vortex and at latitudes equatorward of the vortex edge. The edge of the vortex is therefore defined to be where the contours of PV are closest together, quantified as the location of the maximum PV gradient with respect to equivalent latitude (Nash et al., 1996). In order to identify activation of inorganic halogens and heterogeneous chemistry, we consider only profiles that are outside the vortex and within 8° of the polar vortex edge for a given day. Fig. 1 illustrates the

selection of “subpolar” SAGE3m retrievals for October 29, 2014. Examination of rates of chlorine activation in the model (not shown) indicate that sulfuric acid activation is more than 10x greater than nitric acid trihydrate activation in this region. The chlorine activation also shows a band of significant activation about 8–10° in the subpolar region, which motivates the choice of band width. Latitudes of profiles considered to be subpolar range from 44°S to 58°S, with a mean latitude of 52°S. In addition, Fig. S1 shows that in a second, more equatorward 8° band (i.e., 9°–16° from the vortex edge), there is very little activation, as indicated by the much more comparable WACCMhet and WACCMnoHet distributions.

2.4 Comparison of observed and modelled NO₂ distributions

In order to compare the NO₂ distributions based on SAGE3m observations and the CESM2(WACCM) simulations with and without heterogeneous chemistry (WACCMhet; includes all heterogeneous reactions on natural, sulfate, and ice polar stratospheric clouds, and WACCMnoHet; all halogen heterogeneous reactions are zeroed), we use the two-sample Kolmogorov–Smirnov test (K–S test; Smirnov, 1948). The two-sample K–S statistic is given by

$$D = \max_x |F_1(x) - F_2(x)|, \#(1)$$

where F_1 and F_2 are the empirical distribution functions (ECDF) of the respective samples. The K–S test measures the maximum distance between the empirical distributions; the two data samples are deemed to be drawn from different distributions (i.e., the null hypothesis rejected) at level α if the distance, D , is smaller than some critical value,

$$c(\alpha, n_1, n_2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n_1}} \cdot \sqrt{-\ln\left(\frac{\alpha}{2}\right) \cdot \frac{1 + \frac{n_2}{n_1}}{2n_2}}, \#(2)$$

where n_1 and n_2 are the sample sizes. The K–S test statistic is illustrated in Fig. 2, which shows an example of distributions of NO_2 for SAGE3m (black), WACCMhet (blue), and WACCMnoHet (red), where vertical dashed lines indicate the different values of D . As discussed further below, in the UTLS region the polar vortex is not as strong a barrier between polar and subpolar air, and so we also include the results of a simulation in which the heterogeneous chemical reactions were turned off only poleward of 60°N/S (WACCMnoHet60NS; green line in Figs. 2–3) to identify the extent to which mixing may impact the observed and modelled NO_2 distributions.

3. Results

Fig. 3 shows ~ 1000 subpolar NO_2 profiles for September and October for the SAGE3m observations and WACCM model simulations, as well as their relative frequencies of NO_2 concentrations in the UTLS (164–72 hPa). It is evident that SAGE3m and WACCMhet NO_2 abundances are broadly consistent. Note the occurrence of a substantial number of low values of NO_2 from ~ 50 hPa down to near the tropopause in both observations and model results, although it is more apparent in the model where values can be lower than 10 pptv (likely below the detection limit of the SAGE3m instrument, which reports an expected precision of 10%). For this reason, we are less interested in the extreme low values of NO_2 and more interested in the values near 50–100 pptv, which are within the measurement range of good estimated accuracy of the observations. In particular, SAGE3m and WACCMhet have a similar proportion of retrievals with $\text{NO}_2 < 100$ pptv (8% and 7%, respectively). On the other hand, less than 1% of SAGE3m NO_2 retrievals are less than 25 pptv, while 3% of the WACCMhet retrievals show NO_2 concentrations below 25 pptv. Comparison of Fig. 3b (WACCMhet) and Fig. 3d

(WACCMnoHet) shows a stark change in NO₂ abundances based on the inclusion of heterogeneous chemical processes. In the 164–72 hPa region, the mean NO₂ abundance for WACCMhet (317 pptv) is within 1% of the mean for the SAGE3m observations (318 pptv), while the mean for WACCMnoHet (359 pptv) is about 13% higher than the observed mean. The absence of low NO₂ abundances in WACCMnoHet (Fig. 3d; < 1% below 100 pptv NO₂, no retrievals with < 25 pptv NO₂) relative to observations (Fig. 3a) and WACCMhet (Fig. 3b) is a direct indication of heterogeneous halogen activation in this region. As more NO₂ in halogen nitrates is converted to HNO₃, this not only depletes NO₂, but it also increases the availability of ClO there and can deplete ozone, making such observations of NO₂ an important indicator for chemistry related to ozone depletion. Indeed, average NO₂ abundances in the 50–100 pptv range are much closer (and lower) for SAGE3m and WACCMhet than WACCMnoHet (78, 80, and 89 pptv, respectively).

Fig. 3e shows the PDF approach: we first collect all the data points for sampled profile observations and model simulations between 164 hPa and 72 hPa, as in the region denoted in Figs. 3a–d in the heart of the heterogeneous activation. The relative frequencies are constructed in 25 pptv bins. The observations (black) and model results with heterogeneous chemistry (blue) are overall in very good agreement. For 25–100 pptv, the normalized frequencies are lower in WACCMhet (0.04) relative to the observations (0.07). On the other hand, the model suggests a higher frequency (0.03) of occurrence of values below 25 pptv than the data (0.01). Again, instrument sensitivity may be an issue in terms of observation of these very low NO₂ concentrations.

The WACCMnoHet simulation PDF exhibits a large decrease in the probability of NO₂ values less than 125 pptv, compared to both the observed and WACCMhet PDFs (Fig. 3e). This is a qualitative but clear indication that heterogeneous activation is indeed occurring. Furthermore, the observations and WACCMhet are in broad agreement. It is also important to note that there is a higher probability of NO₂ in the WACCMnoHet simulation in the higher magnitude NO₂ bins (relative to the WACCMhet simulation and observations). This is consistent with more available NO₂ shifting the distribution towards 200 pptv and higher. These results are not sensitive to the model horizontal resolution, as WACCMhet simulations at 1° yield almost identical distributions (Fig. S2).

Though we have excluded retrievals inside the polar vortex, the vortex edge at these altitudes is not as efficient a barrier to transport and mixing of polar and subpolar air as at higher altitudes (McIntyre, 1995), and so the chemical composition of subpolar air at these latitudes is subject to greater exchange between polar and midlatitude air (Tuck, 1989). Therefore, the denoxification in the LS in Figure 3 is due to a combination of heterogeneous activation outside the polar vortex and chemical processing inside and subsequent transport outside of the polar vortex. This is illustrated in Figs. 3c, e: WACCMnoHet60NS shows lower frequencies of NO₂ concentrations below 100 pptv and higher frequencies of concentrations in the 100–200 pptv concentration, relative to WACCMHet.

For a more quantitative comparison of the NO₂ distributions, Fig. 2 shows the ECDFs for the observations and three model simulations. The vertical lines indicate the maximum distances between each of the distributions, which is equivalent to the K–S test statistic. It is clear that the WACCMnoHet distribution (red) is different from the others, with the null hypothesis of the K–

218 S test being rejected at the $\alpha = 0.00001$ level in all three cases (that is, the probability of
 219 WACCMnoHet NO₂ being drawn from the same distribution as SAGE3m (black), WACCMhet
 220 (blue), or WACCMnoHet60NS (green) is $p < 0.00001$). On the other hand, SAGE3m and
 221 WACCMhet NO₂ are drawn from the same distribution, with the K–S test failing to reject the
 222 null hypothesis at the $\alpha = 0.05$ level. WACCMnoHet60NS is drawn from the same distribution
 223 as WACCMhet at the $\alpha = 0.1$ level, indicating that much of the heterogeneous activation
 224 evidenced by low NO₂ concentrations in WACCMhet is occurring at subpolar latitudes.
 225 However, WACCMnoHet60NS is drawn from a different distribution than SAGE3m: the null
 226 hypothesis is rejected with $p < 0.00001$; this further indicates that the exchange of polar-
 227 processed air with midlatitude air also contributes to the SAGE3m observed and WACCMhet
 228 NO₂ distributions.

229 In contrast to the clear heterogeneous halogen activation illustrated by the NO₂
 230 distributions in the lower stratosphere, Fig. 4 shows the PDFs for the middle stratosphere (11–5
 231 hPa), where heterogeneous chemistry is not expected to impact NO₂ concentrations. In this case,
 232 the WACCMhet and WACCMnoHet distributions are nearly identical (Fig. 4a–b), with the K–S
 233 test failing to reject the null hypothesis at the $\alpha = 0.5$ level. On the other hand, the SAGE3m
 234 NO₂ concentrations are clearly drawn from a different distribution than the model NO₂
 235 concentrations, given the discrepancies in Figs. 4a–b. However, visual inspection reveals that the
 236 shapes of the distributions are very similar, and the differences reflect an offset. This stands in
 237 contrast to the differences in shape of the distributions found at lower altitudes between the
 238 observations and the WACCMnoHet case. Thus, we suggest that it is most likely that a model–
 239 observation bias of ~ 570 pptv (or $\sim 9\%$) is responsible for these apparently “different”
 240 distributions. To demonstrate this, Figs. 4c–d show the same distributions with the WACCM

NO₂ adjusted to have the same mean values as the SAGE3m observations by adding the mean difference to each WACCM profile. In this case, the three distributions are equal, with the K–S test failing to reject the null hypothesis at the $\alpha = 0.25$ level for WACCMhet–SAGE3m, and at the $\alpha = 0.5$ level for WACCMnoHet–SAGE3m. This is an important consideration, since it shows that the scales (i.e., the spreads of the distributions) are alike, and it is the locations (i.e., the means) that cause the NO₂ distributions to be considered different at these levels. The bias was calculated as the difference between the means in this region, but the results are indifferent to different methods, such as scaling by the average difference between the observed and modelled profiles. This is in contrast to the UTLS region (Figs. 2–3), for which the SAGE3m observations and WACCMnoHet simulation are deemed to be drawn from different distributions ($p < 0.00001$), even after adjusting the means as above (Fig. S3).

4. Summary and Conclusions

Much deserved attention has been given to understanding the role of PSC heterogeneous halogen chemistry in driving changes in polar atmospheric composition and ozone depletion. In addition, important evidence has been presented for heterogeneous halogen chemistry outside the polar vortices (Santee et al., 2011; Thornton et al., 2003), but its scope and impacts have not been probed. In this study, we have identified substantial and consistent occurrence of such chemistry outside the polar regions, which broadens the scope of potential impacts associated with the chemistry of the subpolar stratosphere. While quantitative uncertainties remain (such as incomplete knowledge of thermal fluctuations potentially associated with sub-grid scale gravity waves, and of the rates of heterogeneous kinetic processes measured in the laboratory, etc.), the

approach of analyzing probability distribution functions from models and satellite observations has been shown to provide an improved picture of key aspects of this chemistry.

In particular, we have shown that: (1) there is strong evidence for considerable heterogeneous halogen activation occurring locally in the subpolar lower stratosphere in September–October, as illustrated by the occurrence of extremely low NO₂ concentrations in the observations and WACCMhet; (2) concentrations of NO₂ from observations and model simulations with heterogeneous chemistry turned on are drawn from the same distribution, and the inclusion of heterogeneous chemistry at both subpolar and polar latitudes appears to be *essential* for model–observation agreement; (3) at higher altitudes, where there is no heterogeneous activation, the model simulations with and without heterogeneous chemistry are nearly identical, and show the same scale (spread) as the observations, though the mean of the observations is about 9% higher than the model.

These results indicate that heterogeneous activation of halogens could play a role in ozone variability and trends in the subpolar lower stratosphere that is thus-far unaccounted for. WACCMnoHet60NS subpolar ozone abundances in the 164–72 hPa region are on average 4% lower than those for WACCMnoHet. It also highlights the importance of examining not only the mean state of atmospheric composition, but also its distribution. Impacts of heterogeneous processes in the modelled NO₂ abundances are evident in this region throughout the year. However, we focus here on September–October because of the density of observations in the subpolar region for this time period. Overall, these results act to enhance understanding of heterogeneous chemical processes and their impacts in the stratosphere.

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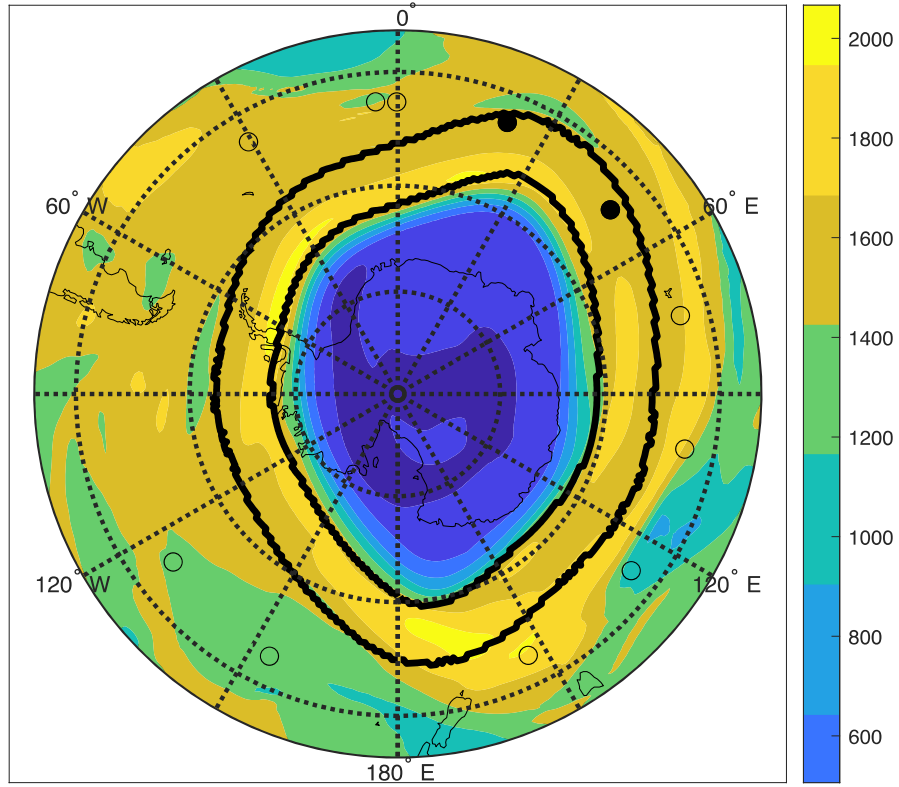
Data Availability. Model output used is available at <https://doi.org/10.7910/DVN/PIYPBB>. MERRA2 reanalysis data are available at <https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets?keywords=%22MERRA-2%22&page=1&source=Models%2FAnalyses%20MERRA-2>. SAGE satellite data is available at https://eosweb.larc.nasa.gov/project/sage3/sage3_table.

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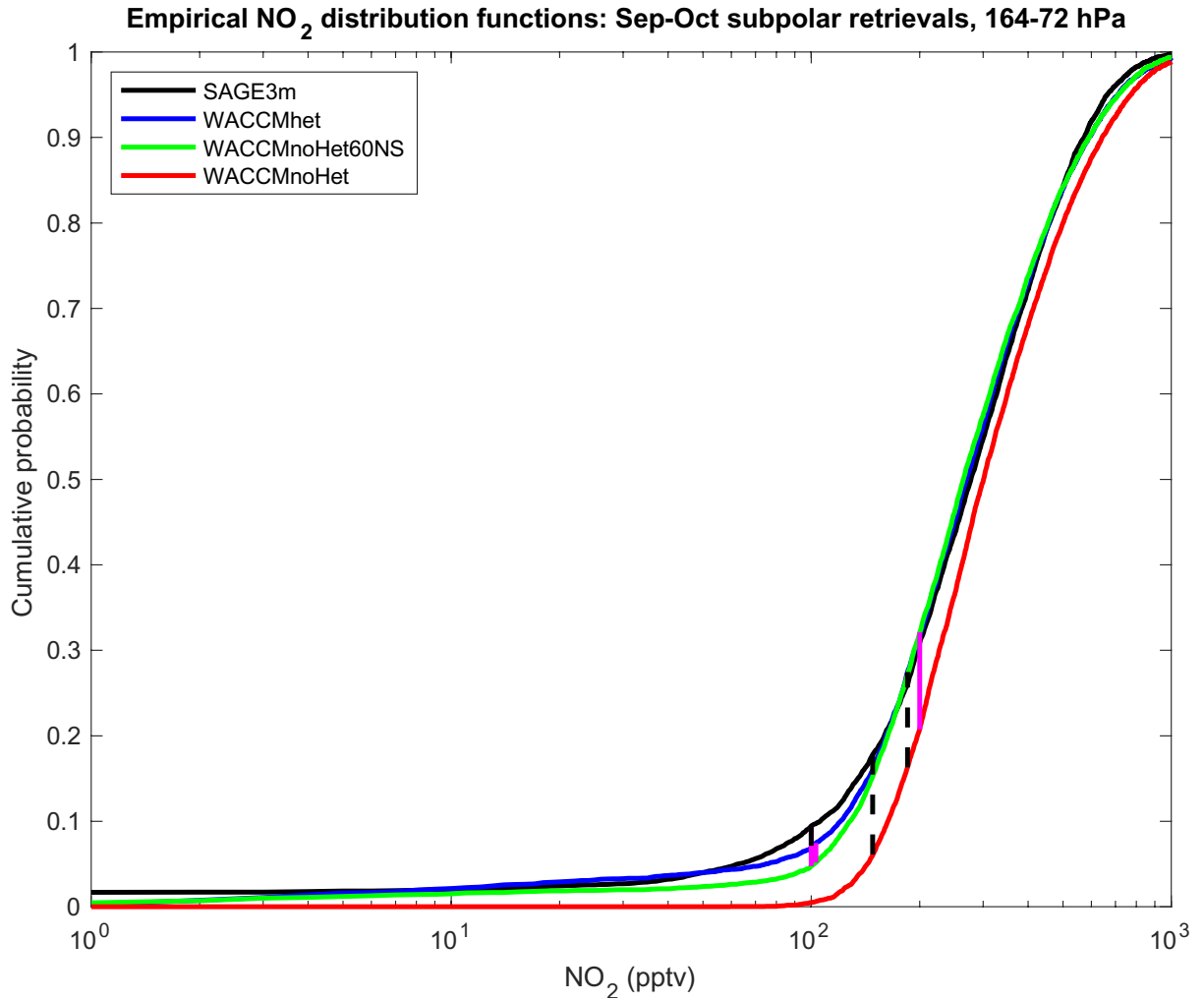
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SAGE3m retrievals and MERRA2 O₃ (ppbv) for 20041029



380 **Figure 1.** Locations of SAGE3m retrievals in the Southern Hemisphere for October 29, 2004 as
381 an example. Open and filled circles represent retrievals that were excluded from and included in
382 the analysis, respectively, based on proximity to the vortex edge. Black contours indicate the
383 subpolar region as determined by the maximum PV gradient on the 460 K isentrope on that day.
384 Also shown are the MERRA2 O₃ concentrations at 460 K, to highlight the changes in
385 atmospheric composition inside and outside the polar vortex.



386 **Figure 2.** ECDFs for (black) SAGE3m, (blue) WACCMhet, (green) WACCMnoHet60NS, and
 387 (red) WACCMnoHet. Vertical dashed lines indicate the two-sample K–S test statistics, which are
 388 the maximum distances between two samples (magenta lines for WACCMnoHet60NS).
 389 Distribution functions shown are for September–October and 164–72 hPa.

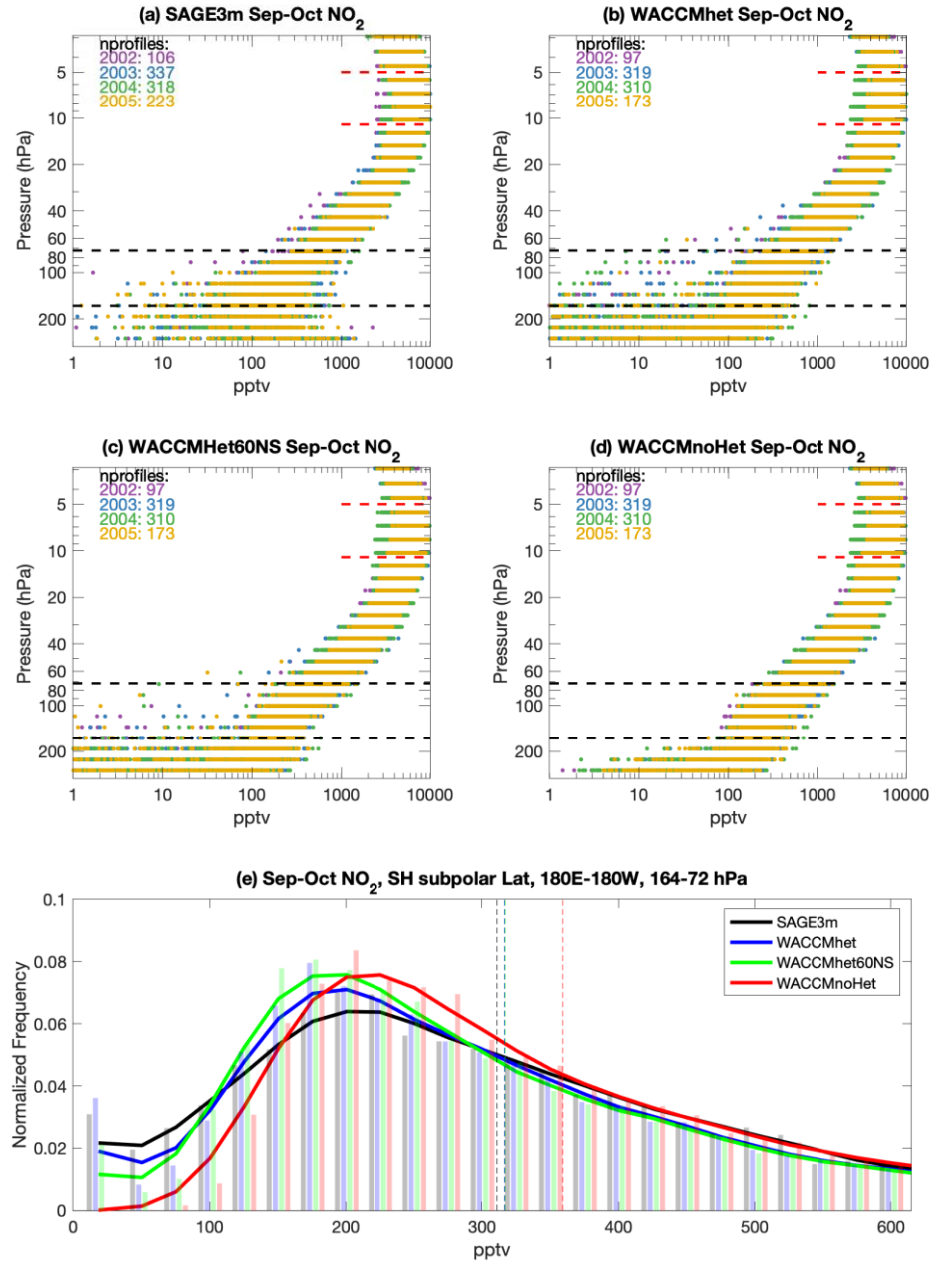


Figure 3. (a)–(d): September–October NO₂ concentrations for subpolar retrievals for (a) SAGE3m, (b) WACCMhet, (c) WACCMhet60NS, and (d) WACCMnoHet. (e) PDFs for 164–72 hPa for (black) SAGE3m, (blue) WACCMhet, (green) WACCMhet60NS, and (red) WACCMnoHet. Black horizontal dashed lines in (a)–(d) indicate the vertical range for the distributions in (e); red horizontal dashed lines indicate the vertical range for Fig. 4. Solid curves in (e) are the Epanechnikov kernel density estimates (Epanechnikov, 1968); dashed vertical lines

396 are the mean NO₂ values for each distribution. Nprofiles represents the number of profiles that
397 lie inside the polar vortex region for a given year.

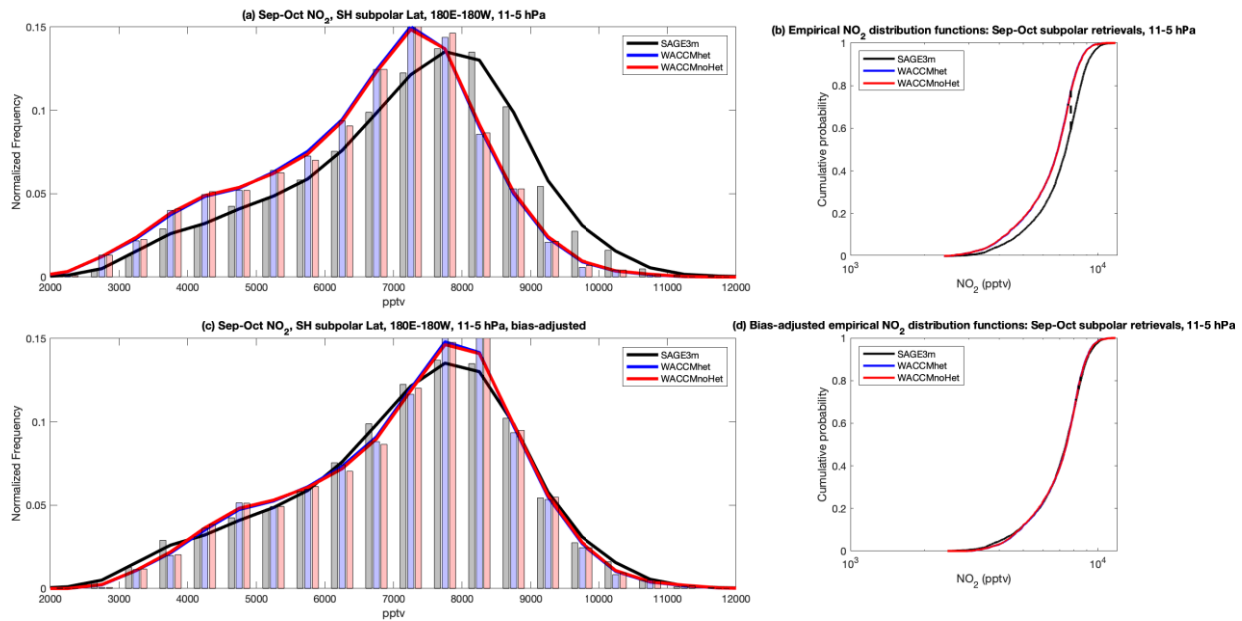


Figure 4. (a) PDFs and (b) ECDFs of September–October NO_2 concentrations for subpolar retrievals for 11–5 hPa for (black) SAGE3m, (blue) WACCMhet, and (red) WACCMnoHet. (c)–(d): as (a)–(b), but with WACCM means adjusted to match the SAGE3m mean.

Figure 1.

SAGE3m retrievals and MERRA2 O₃ (ppbv) for 20041029

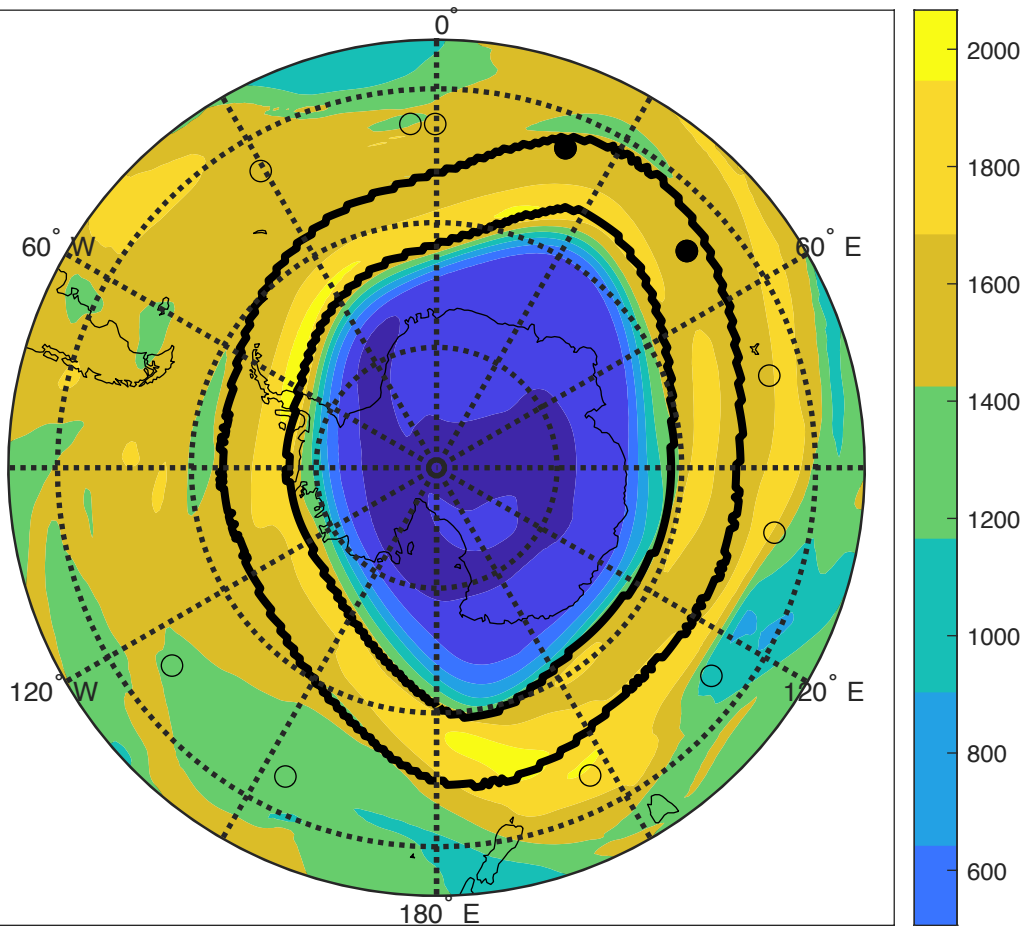


Figure 2.

Empirical NO_2 distribution functions: Sep-Oct subpolar retrievals, 164-72 hPa

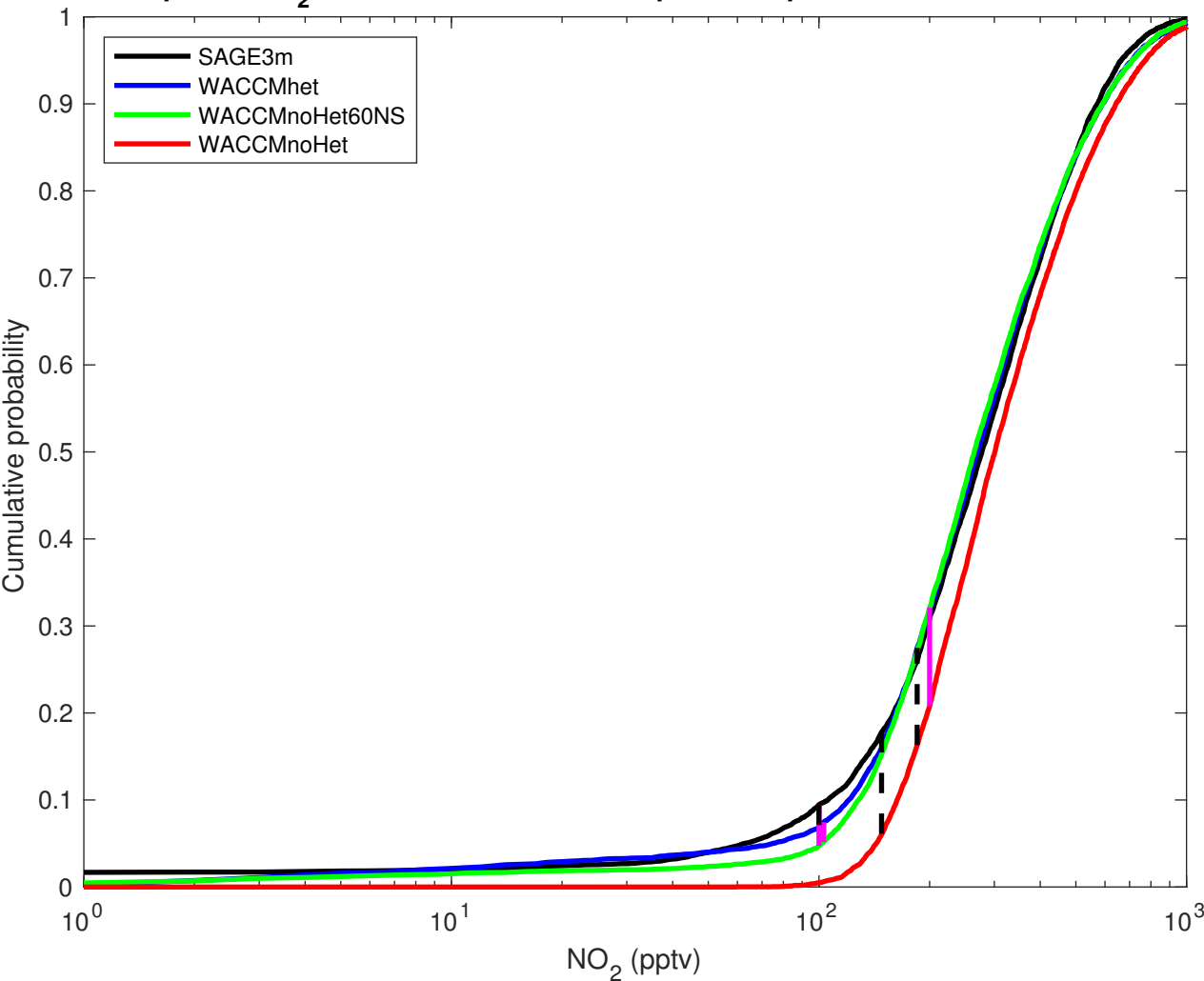
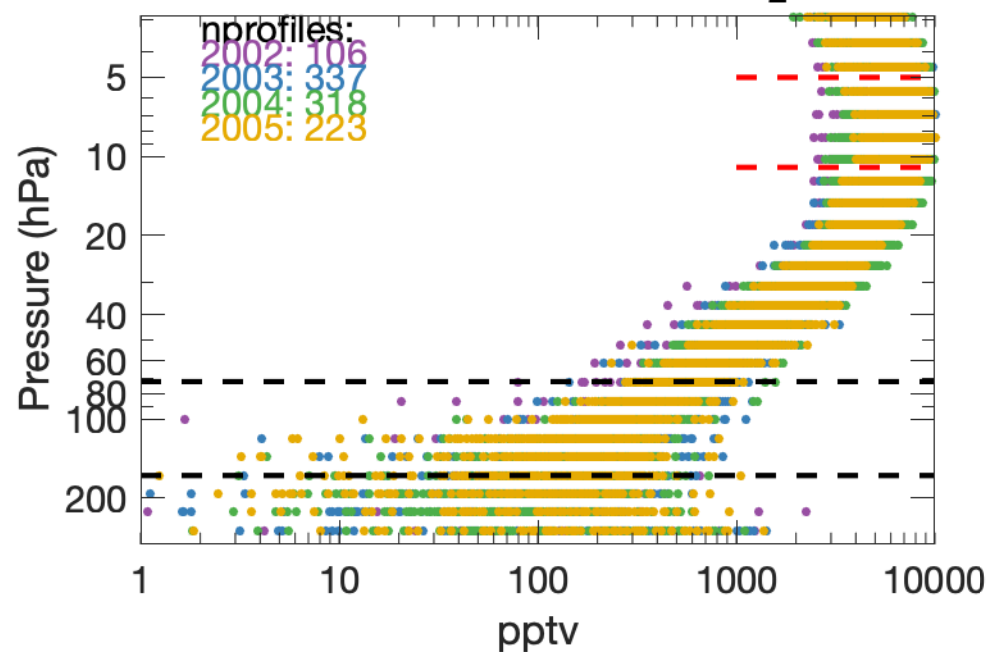
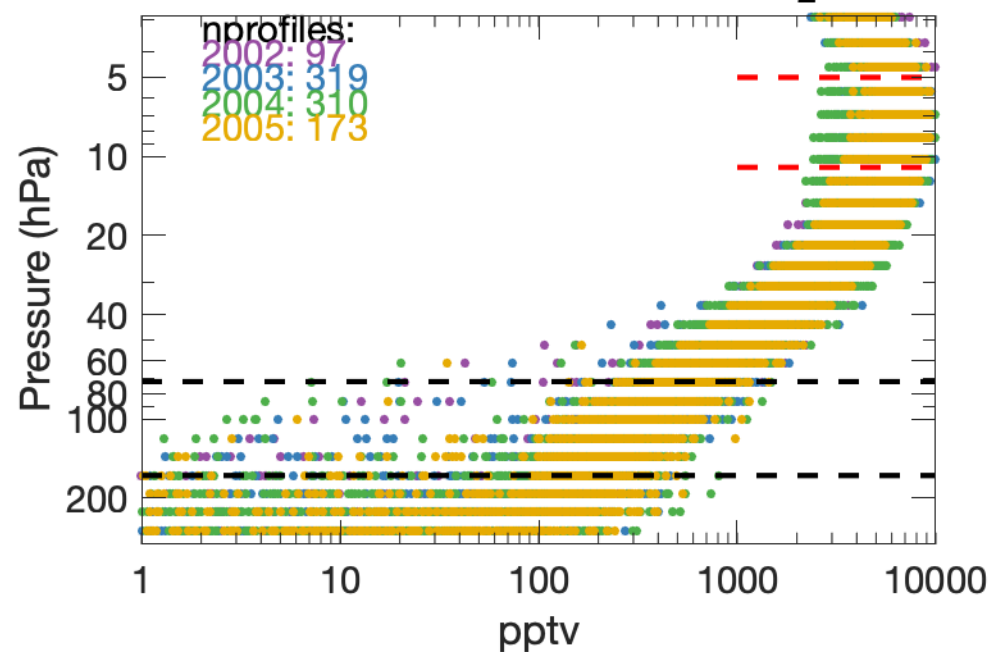


Figure 3.

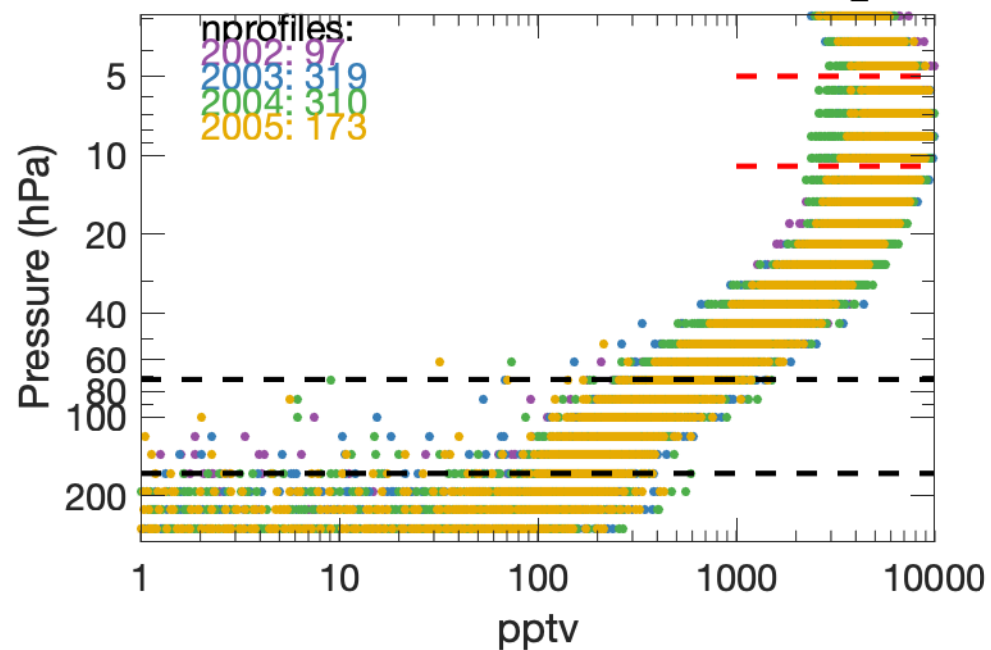
(a) SAGE3m Sep-Oct NO₂



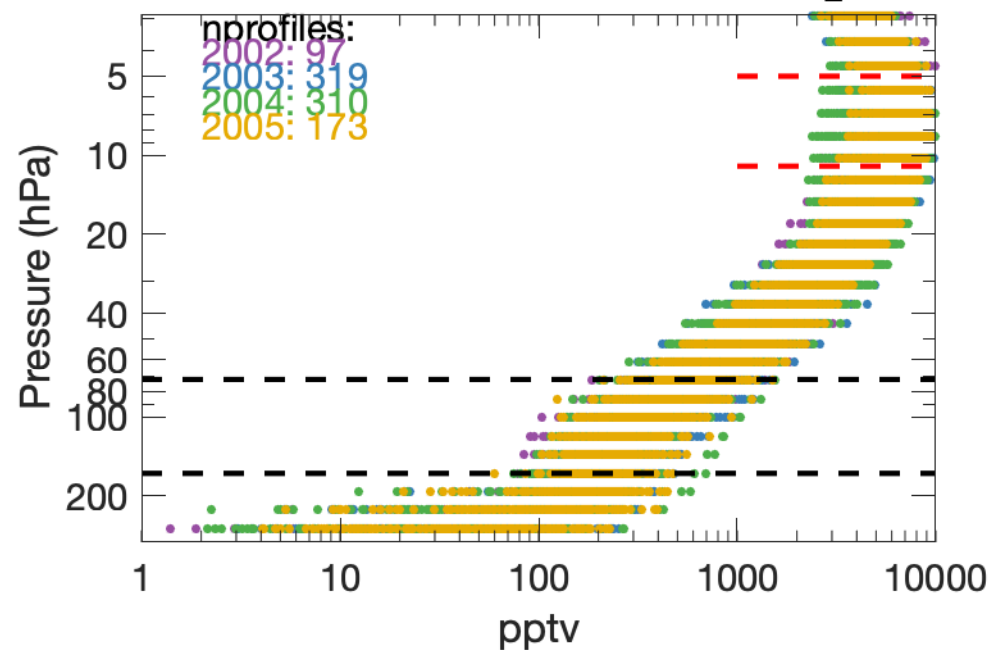
(b) WACCMhet Sep-Oct NO₂



(c) WACCMHet60NS Sep-Oct NO₂



(d) WACCMnoHet Sep-Oct NO₂



(e) Sep-Oct NO₂, SH subpolar Lat, 180E-180W, 164-72 hPa

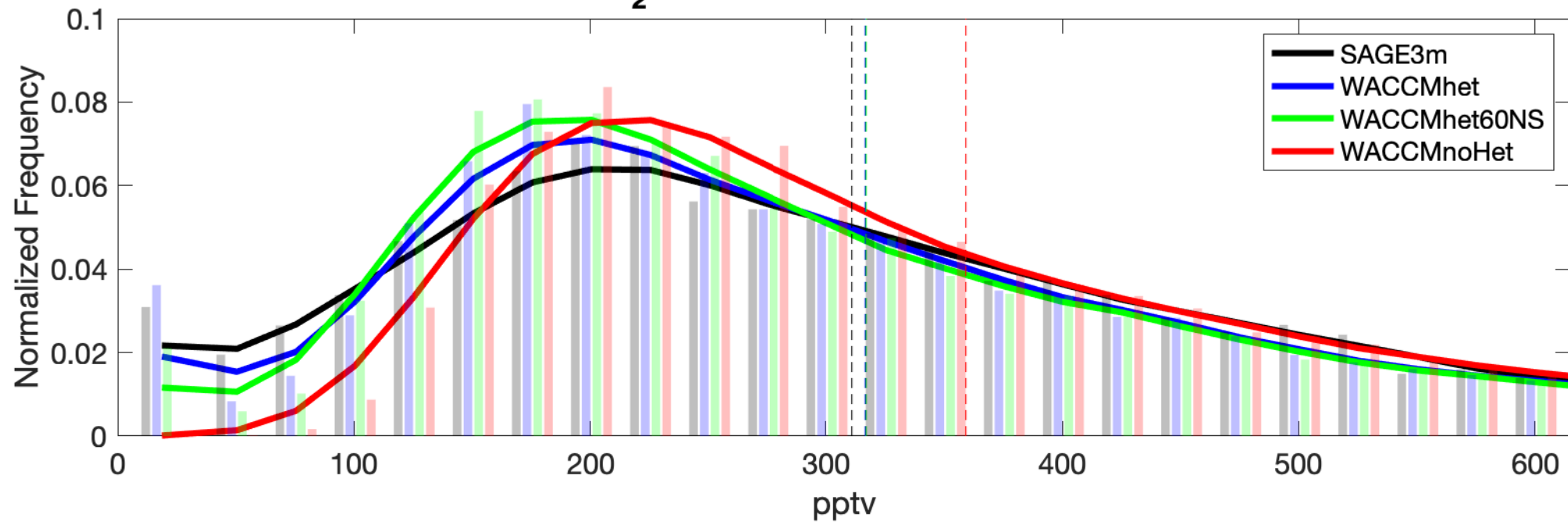
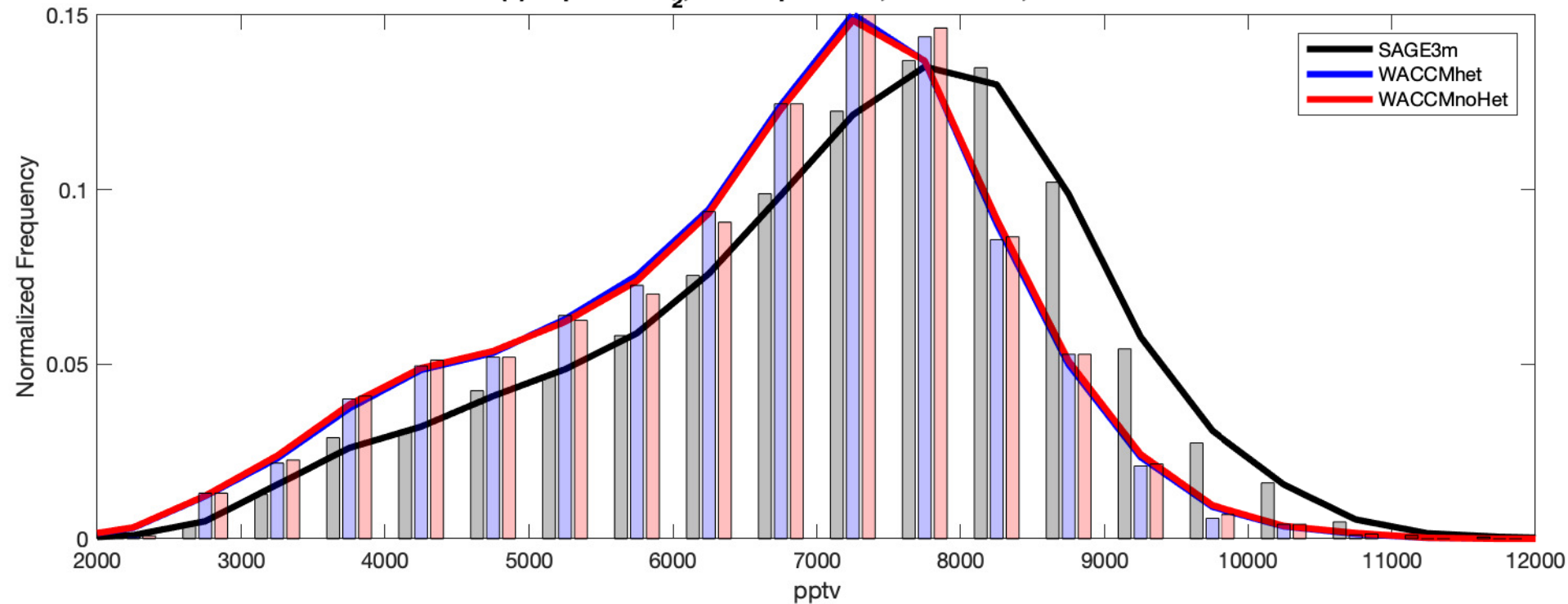
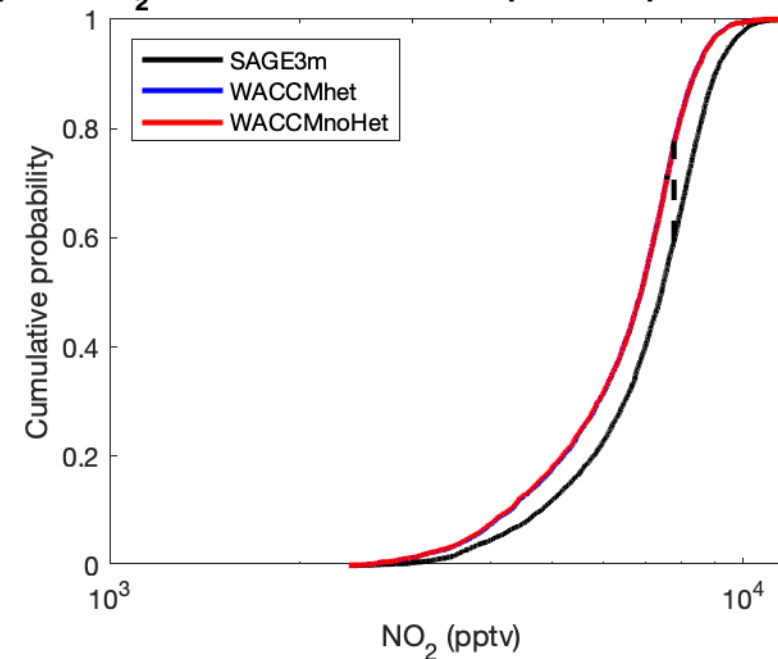


Figure 4.

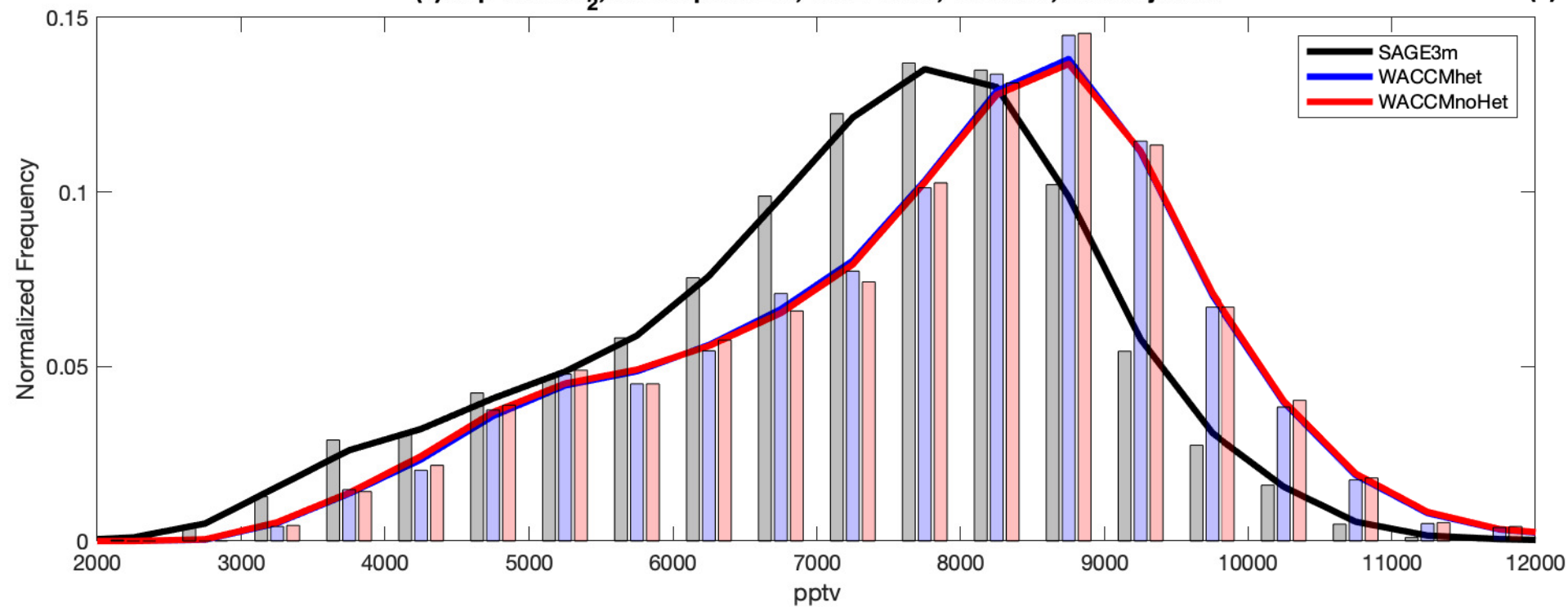
(a) Sep-Oct NO_2 , SH subpolar Lat, 180E-180W, 11-5 hPa



(b) Empirical NO_2 distribution functions: Sep-Oct subpolar retrievals, 11-5 hPa



(c) Sep-Oct NO_2 , SH subpolar Lat, 180E-180W, 11-5 hPa, bias-adjusted



(d) Bias-adjusted empirical NO_2 distribution functions: Sep-Oct subpolar retrievals, 11-5 hPa

