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**Contribution of the
Danish Meteorological Institute
to the final report of
SAMMOA**

CEC contract EVK2-1999-00315:
Spring-to-Autumn Measurements and Modelling
of Ozone and Active species

Bjørn M. Knudsen, Signe B. Andersen and Allan Gross

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Main conclusions

1. At least 26% of the observed downward trend in ozone at northern mid-latitudes in May 1979-97 is caused by export of ozone depletion from the polar vortex. For 1995 and 1997 it has previously been found that about 40% of the observed depletion originates from the vortex.
2. The export of ozone depletion from the polar vortex together with circulation changes explain 80% of the longitudinal variations in mid-latitude ozone trends in April and May 1979-97. This helps explain why the mid-latitude downward ozone trends are largest over Europe and Russia. Any increase in ozone depletion in the polar vortex as a result of future cooling of the stratosphere would therefore be particularly bad for Europe and Russia.

WP3. Dilution and ozone depletion in the spring

Activity 3.2. Mid-latitude depletion in spring

Chipperfield and Jones (1999) argue that most of the variation in Arctic (63°-90°N) total ozone in March from 1992 to 1997 is dominated by dynamical variations. We have used the best available published estimated of the vortex depletions to derive its influence on the Arctic total ozone in March (Andersen and Knudsen, 2002), and find that vortex ozone depletion and transport effects are equally important for the ozone variations. Moreover, we find that vortex depletions account for 75% of the decrease from 1979-82 to 1992-2000.

Activity 3.3. Northern mid-latitude ozone dilution in spring.

It has long been known that trends in the circulation can explain a substantial fraction of the longitudinal ozone trend differences in winter. Entzian and Peters [2000] showed that trends in the 300 hPa geopotential height from 1979-1992 explains around half the longitudinal trend differences from 1979-1992 all the year round. Observations by the TOMS instrument on-board the Nimbus-7, Meteor 3, and Earth Probe satellites from 1979-1997 have shown that the largest spring ozone depletions over the northern and southern midlatitudes occur over Europe and Russia [WMO, 1999], except for large depletions south of 55°S. We have updated the circulation trends to 1997 and they still explain about half the longitudinal trend differences in April and May. They do, however, not explain the strong April and May trends over Scandinavia and especially Russia, but when including the transport of ozone depleted air from the vortex it almost does.

In this study Northern Hemisphere ozone depletions originating from the winter/spring vortex in 1995 and 1997 have been taken from Knudsen and Grooß [2000]. They were calculated by following the depleted air with reverse domain-filling (RDF) trajectory calculations covering the altitude region of the ozone depletion (350-550K potential temperature (θ) or approximately 13-22 km height). Diabatic descent was calculated by the Morcrette radiation scheme. The ozone depletion mixing ratios were regrided every 7th day to introduce nearly realistic mixing on average Knudsen and Grooß [2000]. These calculations might be termed RRDF (regridded RDF) calculations. The resulting average column depletion for April and May is shown in Figure 1. Part of the depletion results in an irreversible dilution of the midlatitude ozone. The calculations in Knudsen and Grooß [2000] started on April 11th, so the vortex depletions on April 4th were added here. Also the calculations were corrected for the isentropic differences in depletion inside the vortex as shown by Knudsen et al. [1998].

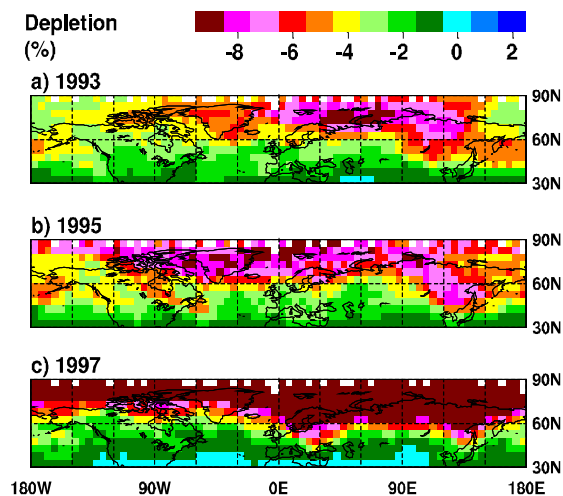


Figure 1. April-May averages of the depletion originating from the polar vortex in 1993 (a), 1995 (b) and 1997 (c). 5° latitude-longitude boxes were used.

In 1993 Larsen et al. [1994] used ozone soundings from Greenland to calculate the vortex ozone depletion. From their article it is evident that most of the ozone depletion has occurred by March 5th. Therefore we have determined the depletion as the difference between the vortex ozone soundings from Scoresbysund on March 5th and January 13th (corrected for diabatic descent). While this is not generally a feasible approach the results of Larsen et al. [1994] indicate that it is in 1993 since the variations in ozone mixing ratio inside the vortex were small that year. March 5th was chosen as the end date because the size of the vortex decreased substantially thereafter. As a zero order approximation the effect of the diffusive transport into the vortex was taken from 1997 calculations [Knudsen et al., 1998]. The vortex average column depletion from 375 – 525 K is 79 DU. Of these 24 DU are below 400 K and therefore possibly below the vortex, where the calculated depletions are most uncertain because e.g. the diffusive transport is biggest. The depletions at 375 and 400 K seem to agree quite well with the results of Müller et al. [1996], however. Figure 1a shows the depletion originating from the vortex in 1993.

By picking the years 1993 and 1997 we have included the major part of the vortex depletion, since the TOMS column ozone data used here have a gap from December 1994 to July 1996 and also in May 1994 [McPeters et al., 1996]. Braathen et al. [2000] have shown that at 475 K the depletion in the winters 1991/1992 and 1988/1989 was small, and only in the winter

1989/1990 ozone depletions comparable to the depletion in 1993 were found. In the winter 1990/1991 little PSC activation was predicted [Pawson et al., 1995], so little ozone depletion is expected. In earlier winters the depletion potential is considerably reduced due to smaller amounts of chlorine and bromine.

Simple linear regression results in the trends given in Figure 2a. Like Entzian and Peters [2000] we did not take the influence of e.g. the quasibiennial oscillation (QBO) into account. This should, however, not have a great influence since the time series is so long. The March to May trends are slightly larger [WMO, 1999] because the largest depletion occurs in March. The April and May period is, however, most interesting biologically due to increased exposure to harmful ultraviolet radiation.

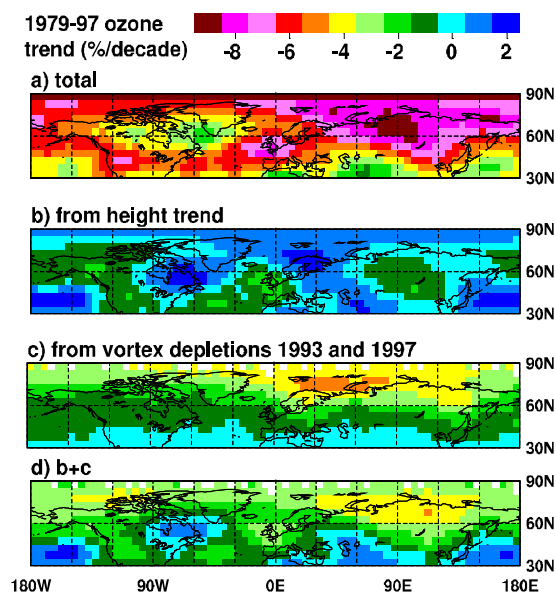


Figure 2. (a) The April-May 1979-97 ozone trend. (b) The ozone trend due to the trend in the 250 hPa height. (c) The ozone trend due to the vortex depletions in 1993 and 1997. (D) The sum of b and c.

Trends in the height of the 250 hPa geopotential from 1979-97 were calculated exactly as the ozone trends using ECWMF analyses. In order to calculate the effect of trends in the planetary wave structure on trends in ozone, regression and correlation coefficients for the spatial distribution of ozone and the 250 hPa geopotential were calculated. To avoid interference from chemical ozone depletion this was done for the period 1979-1984. A regression coefficient of 0.16 DU/gpm was found for the April-May average at 30° - 60°N in good agreement with the 300 hPa results for 1979-92 in Entzian and Peters [2000].

Figure 2b shows the trend in ozone that may be explained by the trend in the 250 hPa geopotential. This trend was obtained by multiplying the trend in the 250 hPa geopotential with the regression coefficient mentioned above. It is clear that the height trend does a good job explaining that the downward ozone trend is weak south of Greenland and strong over the UK. But it does not explain the strong trends over e.g. Scandinavia and Russia.

The effect of the transport of ozone depleted air from the polar vortex in 1993 and 1997 on the observed ozone trends is calculated in the following way: The 1993 and 1997 depletion (as shown in Figure 1) is added to the observed ozone in the same years. The ozone trend for

this data set is then calculated and subtracted from the ozone trend shown in Figure 2a. The resulting trend shown in Figure 2c helps explain the strong downward ozone trends over Scandinavia and Russia. By neglecting the vortex depletion in other years than 1993 and 1997 the effect of the vortex depletion will be underestimated. The part of the midlatitude (30°-60°N) trend that may be attributed to the vortex depletion amounts to 0.7%/decade or 18% of the observed ozone trend on average (DE3.4). This might be compared to the 25% of the observed ozone depletion in only April and May 1997, which was found to originate from the vortex depletion [Knudsen and Grooß, 2000]. For May alone the part of the midlatitude trend that may be attributed to the vortex depletion amounts 26% of the observed ozone trend (DE3.4). For May 1995 and 1997 Knudsen and Grooß [2000] found that about 40% of the observed depletion originated from the vortex. The discrepancy could be due to the neglect of ozone depletion in other years than 1993 and 1997.

In Figure 2d the trends in panels b and c in Figure 2 have been added and the combination does explain quite a fraction of the longitudinal trend variations. From 30°-60°N it explains 60% of the variation (the correlation is 0.77), whereas the height trend alone only explains 41% for the April to May period. Using a multiple regression Knudsen and Andersen [2001] found that 80% of the midlatitude variation is explained. In April (May) alone the combined trend explains 66% (76%) of the variation, whereas the height trend only explains 49% (68%). The fact that the trends in panel a generally are more negative (~4%/decade) than the trends in panel d is due to e.g. local ozone depletion outside the vortex.

In the Southern Hemisphere the vortex is much more circumpolar and breaks up about two months later than in the Northern Hemisphere. Therefore the Antarctic vortex depletion has only little influence on the southern mid-latitudes in spring and this helps explain why the ozone downward trend in the northern midlatitudes is much stronger than in the southern in spring [WMO, 1999].

We have thus shown that the large vortex ozone depletions seen in the later years contribute to the observed spring ozone depletion over Europe and Russia mainly. Eastern Russia is at the climatological maximum of ozone, so the depletions here might not matter as much as the depletions over Europe, which is at the climatological minimum (longitudinally).

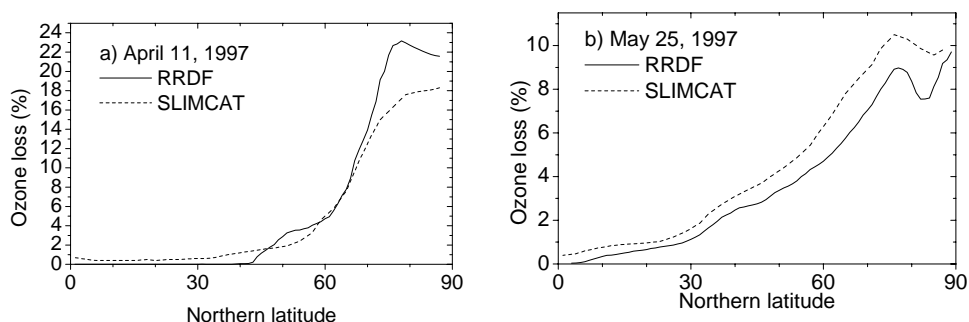


Figure 3. RRDF and SLIMCAT ozone loss compared on April 11 and May 25, 1997.

The RRDF calculations, which simply advect the end-of-winter vortex depletions, have been compared to the ozone loss tracer in the high-resolution SLIMCAT run with simplified PSC scheme and Cariolle ozone. Figure 3a shows the result for April 11, 1997 (April 10 for SLIMCAT). It is evident that SLIMCAT underestimates the vortex depletion, as it is common in cold winters. In SLIMCAT there is some depletion outside the vortex due to in-situ chemis-

try or export of vortex air prior to April 11. In figure 3b, the result for May 25, 1997, is shown. The increase in the SLIMCAT ozone loss compared to the DMI loss is probably due to the Cariolle scheme. In fact the total NH ozone loss from SLIMCAT increases 9% during the period, whereas it is expected to recover. The RRDF and SLIMCAT curves have approximately the same slope indicating that the mixing to lower latitudes is about the same (as expected from WP5.3).

WP4. Summer ozone loss over the Arctic and impact on mid-latitudes.

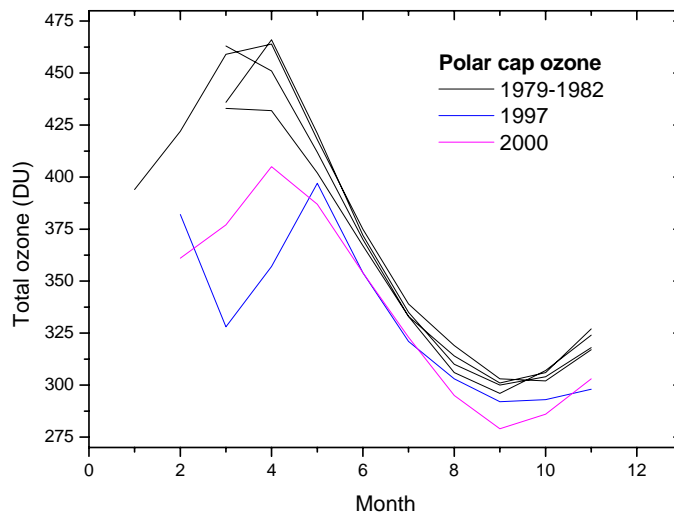


Figure 4: Monthly mean 60°-90°N total ozone from TOMS.

In figure 4 the year-round development of the total ozone in the polar cap is shown. These data have been averaged in 10° bins (e.g. 80°-90°N) and then the area-weighted average in the polar cap is formed. The North Pole is only sunlit from March 21 to September 21, so data from September to March should be used with caution. The plots shows the large ozone depletions in spring, but also show a rapid recovery from the depletion. At least by June the polar cap ozone seems to have recovered to an amount of depletion which persists throughout the whole summer, and which could be due to ongoing enhanced summer ozone loss due to man-made compounds. In the polar cap the recovery is presumably particularly fast due to rapid photochemistry in eternal sunlight, and the recovery at mid-latitudes is expected to be slower.

5.3. Effective mixing in regridded RDF calculations.

As mentioned in WP5.1 it is not possible to quantify the mixing in the model as originally proposed, by looking at tracer-tracer correlations. Instead the mixing is simulated. In the horizontal the diffusivity of the model is $1650 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-1}$ [Knudsen and Groß, 2000]. The vertical spacing is 25 K or about 1 km. With an aspect ration of 250 this corresponds to a horizontal distance of 250 km. Thus the linear interpolation in the vertical introduces the same mixing as a horizontal grid of 250 km spacing. This mixing is a factor of 5 larger than the horizontal mixing in the model (at 111 km grid resolution). The diffusivity of the model is therefore about $8.25 \cdot 10^3 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-1}$ instead of $1.65 \cdot 10^3 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-1}$, or somewhat higher than the real diffusivity (which is less than $10^3 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-1}$). That means that the midlatitude dilution in WP 3.3 might be overestimated by about 2% [Knudsen and Groß, 2000].

How does the mixing in the regridded RDF calculations compare to the mixing in a CTM as the SLIMCAT model? The SLIMCAT model uses the Prather [1986] advection scheme, which has a low diffusivity. On the other hand the timestep is only 15 minutes, which tends to increase the mixing. In figure 5 the mixing of a step function in the regridded RDF model is followed.

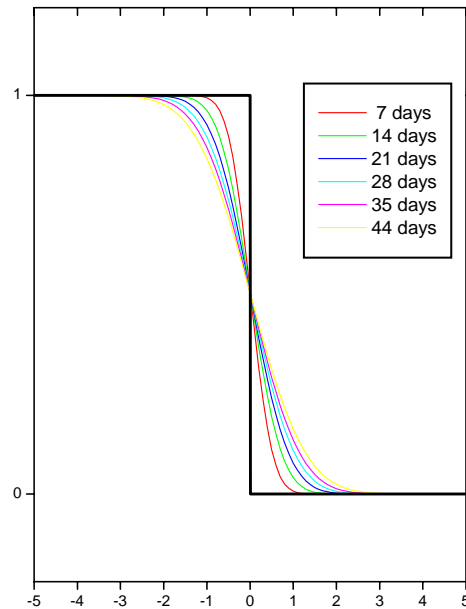


Figure 5. mixing of a step function with the regridded RDF model.

The units on the x-axis is grid-intervals, whereas the unit on the y-axis is arbitrary. This figure can be compared to figure 3a in Prather [1986]. Advection through 200 grid intervals (without limits) gives almost the same mixing as in the RDF model during 21 days. 200 grid intervals corresponds to 1000 time steps or about 10 days. That means for the same horizontal resolution the Prather scheme with a timestep of 15 minutes is slightly more diffusive (a factor of 2.1) than the RDF model. The diffusivity of the SLIMCAT model at 111 km grid spacing is thus $3.4 \cdot 10^3 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$, and at 555 km grid spacing the diffusivity is $9.0 \cdot 10^4 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$. Again the mixing in the vertical might be more important. SLIMCAT is often run at 3 km vertical spacing and with Prather advection in the vertical. For an aspect ratio of 250 this would lead to a diffusivity of $1.6 \cdot 10^5 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$.

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