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# On the unexplained stratospheric ozone losses during cold 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 O<sub>3</sub> during January of four cold winters (1992, 1995, 12 1996, and 2000) is consistently faster than can be accounted 13 for by assuming complete activation of reactive chlorine and 14 standard reaction kinetics. However, O3 loss rates measured during late February and early March 1996 are shown to be 15 16 consistent with observations of ClO. The faster than expected O<sub>3</sub> loss rates during January are shown to occur when air 17 parcels are illuminated at high solar zenith angles (SZAs 18 19 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, 20 21 but may be related to a photolytic process at high SZA that is 22 poorly represented by current photochemical models.

#### 23 **1. Introduction**

24 Proper understanding of the timing and extent of chemical 25 depletion of Arctic O<sub>3</sub> during winter is a prerequisite for 26 developing reliable assessments of future ozone. Early studies 27 suggested consistency between observed rates of chemical O<sub>3</sub> 28 loss (hereafter referred to as O3 loss\_obs) and modeled loss rates 29  $(O_3 loss mdl)$  based on measured concentrations of ClO and 30 BrO and relevant laboratory kinetics [e.g., Salawitch et al., 31 1990]. These studies focused primarily on the February to 32 March time period and were limited by large (e.g., factor of 33 two) uncertainties in O<sub>3</sub> loss\_obs [Schoeberl et al., 1990]. 34 Several recent studies suggest that observed rates of

35 chemical loss of Arctic O<sub>3</sub> are considerably faster than expected. Becker et al. [1998, 2000] reported that O3 loss\_obs 36 37 for mid-January was more than a factor of two greater than 38 loss rates found using a parcel-trajectory photochemical model. Hansen et al. [1997] reported that the accumulated O<sub>3</sub> loss 39 40 observed at 69.3°N in late March 1996 was ~50% larger than 41 values calculated using a chemical transport model (CTM). A similar discrepancy has been reported based on analyses of O3 42 43 from the POAM (Polar Ozone and Aerosol Measurement) II 44 satellite instrument using a different CTM [Deniel et al., 45 1998].

46 Using a combination of data from the Match technique,
47 POAM II, POAM III and the Microwave Limb Sounder
48 (MLS), we show that Arctic ozone loss rates during cold

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1 Arctic Januaries are consistently faster than is currently understood. Our study focuses on O<sub>3</sub> loss rates measured by 2 the Match technique [e.g., Rex et al., 1993, 1997, 2002; von 3 der Gathen, 1995] for four cold Arctic winters that underwent 4 5 significant chemical ozone depletion during January. We use a simple theoretical framework for modeling chemical ozone 6 loss rates [Salawitch et al., 1993] that is based on abundances 7 8 of CIO specified either from MLS satellite observations [Santee et al., 1996] or by assumptions regarding the level of 9 10 chlorine activation. We investigate the consistency between O<sub>3</sub> loss\_obs and O<sub>3</sub> loss\_mdl for different time periods of Arctic 11 12 winter

#### 13 **2. Chemical Loss of Arctic Ozone: January**

14 Fig. 1 shows values of O<sub>3</sub> loss\_obs on isentropic surfaces of 15 the lower stratosphere found by the Match technique for four 16 winters that underwent significant chemical loss. These measurements are based on data collected by ozonesondes 17 18 from dozens of stations in a coordinated manner that allows air 19 masses to be sampled multiple times as they traverse the vortex 20 [e.g., Rex et al., 1998, 1999]. The loss rates are expressed in 21 ppbv/sunlit hour, a convenient way to account for variations in 22 solar insolation. The sunlit times are defined as periods at solar 23 zenith angles (SZA) less than  $95^{\circ}$ . The discussion in this 24 section focuses on ozone loss rates for January of each winter.

25 Chemical loss of  $O_3$  per sunlit hour peaks in January of all 26 winters due to greater abundances of ClO [Rex et al., 1997, 2002]. Data for January 1995 and 2000 are shown for the 27 28 isentropic surfaces that experienced the largest ozone loss rates 29 (490 and 500 K respectively). For 1992 and 1996, sufficient 30 numbers of ozonesonde observations are not available to precisely define loss rates above 475 K. Therefore, for those 31 years, ozone loss rates at the 475 K level are given in Fig. 1. 32

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.

38 To our knowledge, during the cold Arctic Januaries 39 discussed here, measurements of CIO at the required altitudes are not available, or not sufficiently frequent, to constrain 40 41 model runs along the trajectories used in Match. Therefore we 42 have chosen a different approach. To illustrate the extent of the 43 discrepancy, we have used a photochemical box model to 44 calculate the level of  $ClO_r$  (ClO+2×ClOOCl) that would be 45 required to account for the observed O<sub>3</sub> loss rates along Match 46 trajectories. In the model we use a simple theoretical 47 framework for the representation of the diurnal variation of 48 CIO, CIOOCI, OCIO, BrO, BrCl, and atomic O [Salawitch et 49 al., 1993] (note 1). The calculations assume constant  $ClO_x$ 50 along each Match trajectory, account for the effects of 51 variations in temperature and solar insolation on O<sub>3</sub> loss\_mdl, 52 and use kinetic parameters from JPL00-3 [Sander et al., 2000] 53 (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]. 1 Ozone loss rates for January found by assuming  $ClO_x$  equals 2 3.7 ppbv are also shown in Fig. 1. The failure to fully account 3 for  $O_3 loss_obs$ , even assuming complete activation of  $ClO_x$ , is 4 robust for reasonable uncertainties in the reaction coefficients 5 of the primary ozone loss cycles (ClO+ClO and BrO+ClO). 6 These analyses suggest that loss of O<sub>3</sub> in January occurs by a 7 process that is not well represented by current photochemical 8 models.

9 The discrepancy between  $O_3$  loss\_obs and  $O_3$  loss\_mdl is 10 significant considering the uncertainty in the measured loss 11 rates. The error bars for  $O_3$  loss\_obs in Fig. 1 represent  $1\sigma$ statistical uncertainties assuming a Gaussian distribution of the 12 error of individual Match events (note 3). Observed ozone loss 13 14 rates exceed the maximum possible modeled loss rate (assuming ClO<sub>x</sub>=3.7 ppbv) by  $2\sigma$  to  $3\sigma$  for late January 1992 15 16 and by  $1\sigma$  to  $2\sigma$  for parts of mid to late January of other years. Our assessment that this discrepancy is significant is based 17 18 also on the consistent observation of faster than expected 19 ozone loss rates for all cold Januaries during the past decade. 20 Finally, the Match observation of essentially zero rates of 21 chemical O<sub>3</sub> loss for January of warm winters (e.g., 1998 and 22 1999) [Schulz et al., 2001], when higher levels of planetary 23 wave activity pose greater challenges to the Match approach 24 than for cold winters, increases our confidence in the validity 25 of the observed January loss rates shown here.

26 A statistical analysis of the ozonesonde data has been 27 performed to determine whether sunlight exposure is 28 associated with chemical ozone loss. A bivariate linear 29 regression has been applied to the data, allowing for different 30 rates of ozone change for the sunlit and dark (defined as SZA > 31 95°) segments of the trajectories [Rex et al., 1999]. Ozone 32 depletion, expressed in units of ppbv/hr, is found only for the 33 sunlit segments (Fig. 2). No significant change in O<sub>3</sub> is found 34 for the times the airmasses are in complete darkness. The 35 consistency of these results for four winters suggests that the 36 unaccounted for ozone loss process is photolytic.

37 Since Match results are available for a range of potential 38 temperature surfaces, the accumulated loss of ozone can be 39 calculated on surfaces that follow the diabatic descend of air 40 [Rex et al., 1997]. For 1994/1995 and 1999/2000 the range of 41 theta levels for which Match results are available is sufficiently 42 broad to do the accumulation on various descending surfaces, 43 resulting in a vertical profile of the overall loss at the end of 44 January (Fig. 3).

Accumulated O<sub>3</sub> 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<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> was moderate (~0.22  $\pm$  0.13 ppmv) at the 444 K surface, close to the cruise altitude of the 1 NASA ER-2 aircraft during January. Therefore, the finding of

2 little or no chemical loss of ozone ( $0.0 \pm 0.15$  ppmv) from ER-

3 2 observations during January 2000 [*Richard et al.*, 2001] is

4 not inconsistent with the analyses presented here.

## 5 3. Chemical Loss of Arctic Ozone: February and 6 March

Changes in ozone per sunlit hour are smaller in February and March compared to January because of partial recovery of  $CIO_x$  to the CINO<sub>3</sub> reservoir [*Rex et al.*, 1997, 2002]. In this section, we use MLS observations of CIO to calculate loss rates along the Match trajectories, and compare them to Match estimates of O3 *loss\_obs*.

13 1996 is the only year for which Match observations of rapid ozone loss overlapped with sufficiently dense MLS 14 15 observations of ClO to allow the reconstruction of ClO<sub>x</sub> along 16 the match trajectories. MLS observations during rapid ozone loss events in other years were not available due to the 17 18 monthly yaw of the Upper Atmospheric Research Satellite 19 (UARS) or were not sufficiently dense due to difficulties with 20 the MLS scan mechanism in later years.

21 We have reconstructed the abundance of active chlorine 22 along the Match trajectories by interpolating between mixing ratios of ClO<sub>x</sub> that have been inferred from MLS 23 measurements of ClO close to the respective trajectories. We 24 25 use Version 5 MLS retrievals, which provide a better definition 26 of the vertical distribution of ClO than previous MLS retrievals 27 [Livesey et al., 2002]. O<sub>3</sub> loss\_mdl was calculated along each 28 Match trajectory at 475 K for this time period. All other 29 assumptions (i.e.,  $BrO_x$ ,  $O_3$ ) are as previously described.<sup>1</sup>

30 Excellent agreement is found between decreases in O<sub>3</sub> along 31 the Match trajectories and modeled loss based on MLS 32 observations of ClO for late February/early March 1996 (Fig. 33 4). The ozone loss rates (e.g., change per sunlit hour) are 34 considerably slower than observed during January. Abundances of ClO<sub>x</sub> inferred from MLS ClO along Match 35 36 trajectories range from ~1.2 to 2.6 ppbv. Most importantly, the Match trajectories spend a considerably smaller portion of their 37 38 overall sunlit time at high SZA (e.g., between ~85 and 94°) 39 than is found for the January trajectories.

### 40 **4. Discussion**

41 We turn our attention to speculation regarding the cause of 42 the rapid ozone loss during January. Standard photochemical 43 models predict relatively slow rates of polar  $O_3$  loss at high 44 SZA (e.g., between 85 and 94°) because strong attenuation of 45 UV light, due to the high  $O_3$  slant columns, limits the 46 photolysis rate of ClOOCl and hence the overall rate of  $O_3$  loss 47 by the ClO+ClO and BrO+ClO cycles.

Prior to the SOLVE/THESEO 2000 field campaign, we had speculated that photolysis of ClOOCl by an unknown state in the near IR (wavelengths > 800 nm, which is optically thin even at high SZA) might 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 CIO and CIOOCI,
 obtained from the NASA ER-2 during SOLVE, provide
 evidence that CIOOCI does not photolyze at an appreciable
 rate in the near IR [R. M. Stimpfle, private communication,
 20021 Hence we are left to ponder other possible causes of

7 2002]. Hence, we are left to ponder other possible causes of 8 the observed rapid loss of ozone during January.

It is possible that  $O_3$  is lost by reactions on the surface of 9 PSCs (polar stratospheric clouds). The upper limit for the 10 reaction probability of this process,  $2.5 \times 10^4$  on the surface of 11 nitric acid trihydrate [Sander et al., 2000], suggests that this 12 13 process could contribute significantly to ozone loss in January. 14 For each January considered here, air was exposed to considerable amounts of PSCs during both day and night. Our 15 16 finding that loss of ozone occurs only during sunlit periods 17 suggests that, if direct loss on PSC surfaces is responsible, such loss must be driven by photons. 18

19 Observations indicate that BrO does not fall off with 20 increasing SZA near sunset as rapidly as expected [Wahner 21 and Schiller, 1992; Avallone and Toohey, 2001]. It is difficult 22 to reconcile these observations with existing photochemical 23 theory. Nonetheless, it is not clear how enhanced BrO in 24 twilight could lead to appreciable increases in chemical loss 25 rates since ClO is observed to decline with increasing SZA 26 essentially as expected [Kreher et al., 2002; R. M. Stimpfle, 27 private communication, 2002]. A reactive partner is required 28 for the enhanced levels of BrO, since the self-reaction of BrO 29 is too slow to contribute appreciable amounts of ozone loss. 30 Perhaps loosely bound higher oxides of ClOOCl contribute to 31 the rapid ozone loss found in January, either by reaction with 32 BrO or in other yet unidentified ozone loss cycles [Sander et 33 al., 1989]. Better understanding of the photochemistry of this time period requires observations at high SZA, and appropriate 34 35 potential temperature levels (e.g., 480 to 520 K), of BrO, other 36 radicals, and a variety of chlorine species to test the budget and 37 partitioning of halogens in the stratosphere.

## 38 5. Concluding Remarks

39 We have analyzed data from Match, POAM II, POAM III 40 and MLS to assess our understanding of Arctic ozone loss 41 rates. The consistent inability to fully account for observed ozone loss rates during cold Arctic Januaries suggests the 42 43 existence of a currently unknown ozone loss mechanism. 44 Detailed data analyses indicate that this loss process involves a 45 photolytic step. Observed ozone loss later during winter (e.g., mid February to early March) is in good quantitative 46 47 agreement with model results based on observed ClO, 48 suggesting that the unknown ozone loss mechanism is most 49 important at high SZA and low temperatures typical of January 50 conditions.

51 During cold Arctic Januaries we find cumulative ozone loss 52 of about 0.5 ppmv. Although our and other analyses point 53 toward the existence of a currently unknown ozone loss 54 mechanism, its relative impact is modest for winters with 55 massive ozone depletion. For such winters, loss of ozone 56 predominantly occurs during February and March by known 57 catalytic processes (CIO+CIO and CIO+BrO) that operate 1 efficiently under conditions of high solar illumination. Nonetheless, the January discrepancy demands further 2 investigation because reliable assessments of future Arctic 3 ozone depletion require a full understanding of all significant 4 5 processes that affect ozone.

6 7 Acknowledgments. We have benefited from public discussion of this material at the Arctic Ozone Workshop held in Potsdam, 8 9 Germany during March 2002. Research at the Jet Propulsion 10 Laboratory (JPL), California Institute of Technology, is performed 11 under contract with the National Aeronautics and Space 12 Administration. This work was initiated when M. Rex was at JPL, 13 supported by the NASA UARS Guest Investigator Program. Work at 14 the Alfred Wegener Institute was supported by the BMBF under the 15 project AFO 2000 / 07ATC08.

#### 16 Notes

17 1. Values of BrO are found by specifying the sum, BrO+BrCl, as a 18 function of potential temperature such that observed mixing ratios of BrO in the Arctic vortex [Harder et al., 1998] are reproduced. 19 Measurements of O<sub>3</sub> from Match are also specified along each trajectory.

20 21 22 23 24 25 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. 26 27 28 29 30 Hence, the increase in O<sub>3</sub> loss due to the ClO+ClO cycle is nearly balanced by the calculated decrease due to the BrO+ClO cycle.

3. An analysis of the individual errors of the Match events shows that the distribution of errors is Gaussian [Rex, 1993]. However, based 31 on the sample size, it is hard to exclude a small, non-Gaussian component at the far edge (e.g., beyond  $2\sigma)$  of the distribution. Since 32 33 faster than expected ozone loss rates are observed for all cold Januaries, it is unlikely that the discrepancy discussed in this paper is 34 35 due to a statistical fluctuation of the data.

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43 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 44 45 Match method (red boxes; error bars represent  $1\sigma$  uncertainty). The abundance of  $ClO_x$  necessary to account for  $O_3$  loss\_obs 46 along each trajectory (green dots; see text) for JPL00-3 47 48 kinetics is also shown. Also shown is an estimate of O<sub>3</sub> loss\_mdl for January of each year assuming  $ClO_x=3.7$  ppbv (blue dashed 49 50 line). 51

- 52 Figure 2. Rate of change of ozone along Match trajectories for 53 data collected during sunlit conditions (defined as  $SZA < 95^{\circ}$ ) 54 and during dark periods (SZA >  $95^{\circ}$ ) based on bivariate 55 regressions for data collected between 5 and 31 January of 56 each year for the set of matches used in Fig. 1. Error bars are 57  $1\sigma$  estimates of the statistical uncertainty. During January 1996 58 a much smaller number of ozone soundings have been 59 performed compared to the other years shown here and the 60 uncertainty of the bivariate analysis is much larger.
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62 Figure 3. Accumulated chemical loss of O<sub>3</sub> versus potential temperature for Januaries of 1992 (black), 1995 (red), 1996 63 64 (green), and 2000 (blue). Results from Match analyses are 65 shown by solid lines with solid markers. The single open marker represents a result from MLS for 1 to 31 January 1995 66 67 [Harris et al., 2002]. The dotted lines represent ozone losses derived from POAM II and III measurements. For these an 68 69 ozone versus PV relation was derived from POAM

- 1 measurements made during day  $32 \pm 2$  days. The vortex 2 average ozone profile was calculated based on these relations 3 at various heights. The ozone loss was then estimated by 4 comparing this profile with subsided vortex average profiles 5 calculated with the same approach for day  $5 \pm 2$  days. Error
- 5 calculated with the same approach for day  $5 \pm 2$  days. Erro 6 bars represent  $1\sigma$  uncertainties. 7
- 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 ClO (green crosses). Error bars represent the 1 $\sigma$  sigma standard deviation of the measured and modeled changes in
- 15 O<sub>3</sub>.
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Figure 1, Rex et al.



Figure 2, Rex et al.



Figure 3, Rex et al.



Figure 4, Rex et al.