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1 Monsoon circulations and
2 tropical heterogeneous chlorine chemistry in the stratosphere
3

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18 Key Points.

19 • Transport linked to the monsoons brings increased HCl into contact with liquid
20 aerosols in the cold tropical lowermost stratosphere.

21 • Model results indicate that monsoon flows lead to tropical activation of reactive
22 chlorine on volcanic and non-volcanic particles.

23 • Heterogeneous chlorine activation contributes to the ozone budget and to tropical
24 lowermost stratosphere ozone trends.

25

26 Abstract. Model simulations presented in this paper suggest that transport processes
27 associated with the summer monsoons bring increased abundances of hydrochloric acid
28 into contact with liquid sulfate aerosols in the cold tropical lowermost stratosphere,
29 leading to heterogeneous chemical activation of chlorine species. The calculations
30 indicate that the spatial and seasonal distributions of chlorine monoxide and chlorine
31 nitrate near the monsoon regions of the northern hemisphere tropical and subtropical
32 lowermost stratosphere could provide indicators of heterogeneous chlorine processing.
33 In the model, these processes impact the local ozone budget and decrease ozone
34 abundances, implying a chemical contribution to longer-term northern tropical ozone
35 profile changes at 16-19 km.

36

37 1. Introduction

38

39 Heterogeneous chlorine chemistry on and in liquid polar stratospheric particles is thought
40 to play a significant role in polar and subpolar ozone depletion (Solomon et al., 1999
41 review, and references therein). Previous studies have not provided evidence for
42 heterogeneous chlorine chemistry occurring in the tropical stratosphere. Using the
43 current best understanding of liquid stratospheric particle chemistry in a state-of-the-art
44 numerical model, we examine whether such processes should be expected to affect
45 tropical composition, particularly at and slightly above the cold tropical tropopause, in
46 association with the Asian and North American summer (June-July-August) monsoons.
47 Further, we probe whether volcanic emissions of sulfur (which can increase stratospheric
48 sulfate aerosol abundances) could enhance this chemistry. The primary focus of this

49 paper is to examine whether ClO and ClONO₂ observations near the monsoon regions in
50 the tropical lowermost stratosphere could provide a novel testbed for understanding
51 stratospheric chlorine activation chemistry, while a secondary focus is on whether such
52 chemistry has the potential to contribute to the budget and trends of the tropical ozone
53 profile below about 20 km. Stratospheric chlorine chemistry has been a subject of
54 interest for decades, but key uncertainties remain in heterogeneous reactions rates (e.g.,
55 1-sigma uncertainties in reaction rates of 40%; JPL, 2011) that may be testable in new
56 ways in the tropics. The ozone profile trends in the tropical lowermost stratosphere have
57 long been a topic of scientific interest (Randel, 1999; Randel and Thompson, 2011) and
58 are thought to be largely dynamical in origin (e.g., WMO/UNEP 2014 and references
59 therein). Understanding whether there may be a potential chemical contribution to
60 tropical lower stratospheric ozone profile trends is hence of substantial scientific interest
61 and a secondary goal of this paper.

62

63 Monsoons are primarily driven by continental heating, extend into the lower stratosphere
64 (e.g., Dunkerton, 1995), and involve deep convection and formation of strong anti-
65 cyclonic circulation cells on a seasonal basis, maximizing in summer over Asia and North
66 America (e.g., Gettelman et al., 2004; Park et al., 2007; Randel et al., 2010). Weaker
67 monsoons are observed over southern hemisphere landmasses. Observations have shown
68 that transport related to the monsoons influences a range of chemicals in the tropical and
69 subtropical tropopause regions, including tracers such as carbon monoxide and hydrogen
70 cyanide (Randel et al., 2010), ozone (Park et al., 2007), volcanic and pollution aerosols
71 (Vernier et al., 2011; 2015) and water vapor (e.g., Rosenlof et al., 1997; Randel et al.,

72 2015; Schoeberl et al., 2013, Ploeger et al., 2013). Water vapor can play a role in
73 heterogeneous chemistry under cold conditions, both through its influence on formation
74 of ice clouds and through the dependence of chlorine activation reactions on the water
75 content of liquid stratospheric aerosol particles (which contain sulfuric acid and water,
76 see, e.g., Solomon, 1999; Thornton et al., 2007; Anderson et al., 2012). The influences
77 of HCl, water vapor, and temperature changes for stratospheric chlorine chemistry in the
78 tropics are discussed further below.

79

80 The primary goal of this paper is to probe the extent to which heterogeneous chlorine
81 chemistry may be expected to occur on liquid sulfate aerosols in the tropical stratosphere.
82 Liquid aerosol effects could represent a lower limit to this chemistry if, for example,
83 similar reactions also take place on tropical cirrus ice clouds, but the potential for ice
84 chemistry is not examined here. Heterogeneous halogen reactions on ice are sensitive to
85 the size distribution of cirrus ice particles (e.g., Bregman et al., 1997) and to the adopted
86 parameterization of cirrus clouds in models. Heterogeneous processing involving
87 chlorine, bromine, and iodine have also been identified on liquid and/or ice aerosols in
88 the troposphere (e.g., Wang et al., 2015; Schmidt et al., 2016; Saiz-Lopez and Fernandez,
89 2016; Von Hobe et al., 2011; see the review by Simpson et al., 2015 and references
90 therein) but the focus here is on stratospheric chlorine chemistry and the role of transport
91 via the monsoon circulations.

92 Recent progress in stratospheric chemistry modeling underpins this study. State-of-the-
93 art atmospheric chemistry models have been extensively intercompared and tested (e.g.,
94 Eyring et al., 2010), and the temperature-sensitive heterogeneous chemistry can be driven

95 by specified dynamics and temperatures from reanalysis fields based on observations;
96 here we use the Community Earth System Model, version 1, with the Whole Atmosphere
97 Community Climate Model version 4, as the atmospheric component
98 (CESM1(WACCM); see Marsh et al., 2013). The model's representation of
99 heterogeneous chemistry was shown to be in broad agreement with polar ozone and
100 constituent observations in Solomon et al. (2015), supporting its use to examine other
101 regions.

102 The stratospheric aerosol distributions employed in this model include representations of
103 both volcanic and non-volcanic sulfur sources. The calculated aerosol properties were
104 discussed in detail in Mills et al. (2016), and shown to compare well to total stratospheric
105 aerosol extinction data from lidars, including the Mauna Loa lidar. Further comparisons
106 to ground-based and satellite lidar backscatter data in the lowermost tropical stratosphere
107 are presented below. During the summer of 2011, tropical stratospheric aerosols were
108 enhanced compared to several other recent years, at least in part due to volcanic inputs
109 from the Nabro eruption in mid-June (Bourassa et al., 2012; Fairlie et al., 2013; Neely et
110 al., 2013) although pollution from Asian sources also contributes to aerosol loading in the
111 monsoon region (Vernier et al., 2015). In this paper we focus on 2011 as a period
112 when high tropical volcanic aerosol loading should be expected to increase the potential
113 role of the chemistry under consideration, and we compare 2011 to calculations for other
114 years.

115 2. Model Description

116

117 The specified dynamics version of CESM1 (WACCM), herein referred to as SD-

118 WACCM, is nudged to externally specified dynamical fields for temperature, zonal and
119 meridional winds, and surface pressure fields from the Modern Era Retrospective
120 Analysis for Research and Applications (MERRA; see Rienecker et al., 2011). The
121 procedure used to constrain the model is described by Marsh (2011) and Kunz et al.
122 (2011). The chemistry scheme includes the O_x , NO_x , HO_x , ClO_x , and BrO_x chemical
123 families, along with gas phase and heterogeneous reactions on liquid binary and ternary
124 sulfate aerosols. About 5 pptv of bromine from very-short lived substances (VSLS)
125 contributes to the modeled stratospheric bromine levels, along with CH_3Br and halon
126 sources. Chlorine from CH_3Cl , CH_3CCl_3 , and industrial chlorofluorocarbons is included
127 in the model. Arguably, our results represent a lower limit since chlorine from VSLS
128 may also contribute (see Hossaini et al, 2015) but are not included here, nor is convective
129 lofting of sea salt evaluated (e.g., Schmidt et al., 2016). Such additional sources of
130 chlorine and bromine could add to the chemical effects identified here if they reach the
131 stratosphere. Iodine chemistry is not included in the model; if there were to be iodine
132 input to the stratosphere akin to that identified in the upper troposphere, (see e.g.,
133 Volkamer et al., 2015; Saiz-Lopez and Fernandez, 2016) that could further affect the
134 chemistry of the region considered, but is not represented in this model. The
135 homogeneous and heterogeneous reactions and rate coefficients used in the simulations in
136 this paper are based on JPL (2011) except where indicated in Solomon et al. (2015).

137 We employ monthly averaged atmospheric aerosol distributions from Mills et al. (2016),
138 which were calculated using gas phase sulfur and related chemistry along with an aerosol
139 model in SD-WACCM. A database of volcanic SO_2 emissions and plume altitudes was
140 developed for eruptions between 1990 and 2014 by Neely and Schmidt (2016), and these

141 volcanic sulfur inputs along with background sources of sulfur (including OCS,
142 anthropogenic SO₂, etc.) were used to simulate stratospheric sulfate aerosols (Mills et al.,
143 2016). Aerosols are modeled as three lognormal modes: Aitken, accumulation, and
144 coarse. The model is capable of representing interactions of aerosol particles including
145 nucleation, condensation, coagulation, and sedimentation; for further details and
146 comparisons to observations, see Mills et al. (2016).

147 Three sets of SD-WACCM chemistry model results probe heterogeneous chlorine
148 chemistry in this paper: (i) simulations including volcanic and non-volcanic aerosol
149 sources; (ii) volcanically-clean simulations that include only background sources of
150 sulfur and (iii) simulations in which heterogeneous reactions are turned off between 40°N
151 and 40°S (but allowing heterogeneous reactions that do not involve chlorine or bromine
152 (e.g., N₂O₅+H₂O) to continue to occur).

153 3. Results

154

155 Figure 1 shows the distributions of calculated HCl obtained in SD-WACCM along with
156 the temperature distributions for the month of July, 2011 at 100 and 85 hPa, compared to
157 HCl observations for the channel centered at 100 hPa from the Microwave Limb Sounder
158 (MLS) instrument (Froidevaux et al., 2008), version 4.2. Model meteorological
159 tropopauses in the northern tropics at this time of year are from 90 to 130 hPa depending
160 upon longitude. No MLS data for HCl are available at 85 hPa, and the sounder has a
161 fairly broad vertical weighting function (see Figure 3 of Froidevaux et al., 2008). The
162 wind vectors superimposed in Figure 1 show the anti-cyclonic large-scale circulations
163 associated with the monsoonal flows over Asia and North America, and the temperatures

164 prescribed in SD-WACCM from MERRA are also overlaid in the bottom panel. While
165 temperatures near the tropopause in the summer monsoon regions are warmer than in
166 winter, they are nevertheless much colder than temperatures at mid-latitudes at these
167 altitudes, as can be seen in the overlaid contours of Figure 1.

168

169 The HCl gradients in the data and the model are qualitatively similar but display some
170 important quantitative differences. While the model tropical minima near 100 hPa are
171 lower than the MLS minima, a high bias of about 200 pptv at low to mid-latitudes in
172 MLS was noted in Froidevaux et al. (2008); further, tropical HCl by the infrared
173 HALogen Occultation Experiment (HALOE) are about 15% lower than MLS
174 (Froidevaux et al., 2005; see also Schoeberl et al., 2008). Froidevaux et al. (2008,
175 figures 11 and 14) also showed larger local differences of up to 20-50% at 100 hPa in
176 parts of the tropics in comparisons of MLS with HALOE and the Atmospheric Chemistry
177 Experiment (ACE). In all of these satellite data sources however, the HCl abundances
178 are much lower in the tropical lower stratosphere than in the extratropics; this is a robust
179 feature that is key to our analysis as discussed below.

180

181 Tropical regions are characterized on average by upwelling airmasses, in which chlorine
182 is largely expected to be tied up in unreactive organic chlorine source gases (mainly
183 CH₃Cl and chlorofluorocarbons). When these gases travel upward and poleward in the
184 stratosphere, their chemical breakdown supplies inorganic chlorine. The inorganic
185 chlorine can interact with sufficiently cold and wet surfaces and activate the chlorine (by
186 converting the inactive reservoir species, HCl, into free radical and less stable species, Cl,

187 ClO, ClONO₂, and HOCl). In the two polar regions, this chemistry enhances ClO and
188 destroys ozone. Chlorine activation and related chlorine-catalyzed ozone loss has been
189 documented following its discovery in association with the Antarctic ozone hole, but it
190 has been generally assumed that similar chemistry was negligible in the tropics due to
191 insufficient inorganic chlorine (see, e.g., Solomon, 1999 for a review stating this
192 assertion). However, Figure 1 shows that, in our model, the monsoon circulations lead
193 to equatorward transport of inorganic chlorine into the northern subtropics and tropics
194 along the eastern side of the monsoon anticyclones, and the MLS data supports these
195 general features. Recent studies have emphasized the importance of quasi-horizontal
196 transport in producing larger abundances of several key chemical constituents (including
197 ozone and HCl) in the northern tropics as compared to the southern tropics (e.g.,
198 Konopka et al., 2010; Ploeger et al., 2012; Abalos et al., 2012; Stolarski et al., 2014).
199
200 Figure 1 highlights the role of equatorward transport of extratropical air on the eastern
201 flanks of the northern hemisphere monsoon anticyclones, substantially increasing
202 available inorganic chlorine at northern subtropical latitudes in summer in this model and
203 in the observations. The combination of relatively cold temperatures, liquid aerosols, and
204 transport of inorganic chlorine from higher latitudes drives low-latitude heterogeneous
205 chlorine activation and enhances calculated ClO in our model. Figure 2 presents maps
206 of ClO and ClONO₂ calculated in the model at 17 km for July 2011 when low-latitude
207 heterogeneous chlorine chemistry is included. Supplemental figure S1 shows the
208 distributions of the rates of chemical processes that serve to activate chlorine, and Table
209 S1 indicates sensitivities of the key activation reaction rate constant to the range of

210 temperature and water vapor changes in the regions of maximum activation, illustrating
211 that the temperature changes are much more important than the water vapor changes for
212 enhancing the chemical reactivity. The largest heterogeneous chlorine activation rates
213 occur near 15-20°N, particularly where the southward flow around the Asian monsoon
214 brings high levels of inorganic chlorine into the coldest part of the subtropical lower
215 stratosphere, where the eastern edge of the anticyclone flows into the Western Pacific.
216 Temperatures as cold as 194-196K are found even in summer near, for example, 135°E in
217 this region (Figures 1, 2, and S1).

218

219 Local maxima in ClO of over 30 pptv (monthly mean) are calculated near the Asian
220 monsoon region near 17 km, while peak values of 15 pptv are obtained near the North
221 American monsoon region (Figure 2). Chlorine activation can be expected to produce
222 enhanced ClONO₂ downwind of the main activation region, provided that NO_x is not
223 completely removed by the heterogeneous processing. This chemistry forms the well-
224 known ClONO₂ ‘collar’ at sub-polar latitudes (e.g., Toon et al., 1989). Figure 2 shows
225 that the model calculates ClONO₂ values as large as 50-75 pptv near the ClO maxima,
226 linked to the North American and Asian summer monsoons. The calculated tropical
227 stratospheric chlorine activation depicted in Figure 2 has not been discussed in previous
228 studies of which we are aware.

229

230 A consequence of elevated ClO concentrations is potential destruction of stratospheric
231 ozone. When the tropical heterogeneous chlorine chemistry identified here is included
232 compared to calculations excluding it, we calculate ozone decreases (averaged over the

233 years 2009-2012 and over the northern tropics from 0-30°N) of about 2.5% at 16-17 km,
234 about 1.5% at 18 km, and about 1% at 19 km. For comparison, the estimated tropical
235 average ozone trends are about 1-4% per decade from 17-19 km over 1980-2005 (Randel
236 and Thompson, 2011; their figure 12).

237

238 The catalytic cycle involving chlorine and hydrogen radicals (in which the rate limiting
239 step is $\text{ClO} + \text{HO}_2$) dominates our calculated ozone decreases, but the inter-halogen
240 reaction between ClO and BrO also represents about 25% of the modeled ozone decrease.
241 These numbers imply an effect on the local ozone budget due to heterogeneous chlorine
242 chemistry, and whether this change represents anthropogenic ozone depletion (as
243 opposed to a change in the ozone background state) depends upon the balance between
244 chlorine and bromine from industrial chemicals versus natural sources in this region,
245 particularly very short-lived species (VSLS) with biogenic origins. In our model, the
246 balance between industrial and VSLS sources of chlorine and bromine suggests that
247 about three-quarters of the calculated ozone change is traceable to anthropogenic
248 emissions. While it remains likely that most of the ozone trend in tropical lower
249 stratosphere ozone since 1979 is linked to dynamical changes (Randel and Thompson,
250 2011), our work implies that heterogeneous chlorine chemistry may have made some
251 contributions to the vertical profile of trends in ozone in this region. The changes are
252 confined to a narrow height range, and the corresponding decreases in column ozone for
253 calculations including heterogeneous chemistry to those without them at, for example,
254 15°N in summer, vary between 1-2DU over 2009-2011. Whether the changes in ozone
255 profile or column due to the chemistry discussed here can be detected in observations

256 would depend not only on the precision and accuracy of the ozone measurements, but
257 also on the ability to quantify dynamical factors to sufficient accuracy. More detailed
258 analysis of tropical ozone trends is outside the scope of the present paper.

259

260 Figure 3 presents the zonally averaged distributions of ClONO₂ versus latitude and
261 altitude for July, 2011 for these SD-WACCM simulations. The location of the
262 meteorological tropopause is indicated in the figure. When low latitude heterogeneous
263 chlorine chemistry is included in the model, the calculated stratospheric gradient in
264 ClONO₂ from about 16-18 km and from about 10-25N in July 2011 displays a
265 pronounced ‘tongue’, with peak zonal mean abundances of over 40 pptv, while no such
266 tongue is obtained in the model without heterogeneous chemistry. Figure 3 illustrates
267 that the region substantially affected by the chemistry considered here is confined to a
268 limited range of height and latitude.

269

270 Figure 4 presents seasonal changes in ClO and ClONO₂ over several years at 17 km
271 averaged over the latitude band from 14-20°N for the three model test cases noted above:
272 with volcanic sulfur inputs, for volcanically clean conditions, and with the heterogeneous
273 chlorine activation chemistry turned off. Figure 4 shows that the calculated
274 heterogeneous chemical processes greatly increase the modeled concentrations of ClO
275 and ClONO₂ compared to calculations without heterogeneous chemistry. The changes in
276 these two species as compared to the no heterogeneous chemistry case exceed their
277 interannual variability, and are robust to substantial seasonal changes in HCl from month
278 to month (i.e., June-July-August) or interannually (see Figures 4 and S2). Considerably

279 smaller relative changes that lie within interannual variations are expected for HCl
280 (Figure S2). Figure 4 also presents averaged measured satellite extinction in the
281 monsoon region (15-45°N, 5-105°E) at 15, 16, and 17 km (adapted from Figure 2 in
282 Vernier et al., 2015) as compared to the model. As a further check on the modeled
283 aerosols over broader parts of the tropics, Figure 4 compares observations of lidar
284 backscatter from Mauna Loa observatory (19°N) integrated from 15-20 km to that from
285 the model at the same site; the modeled extinction has been converted to backscatter here
286 using a backscatter to extinction conversion factor of 40 (note different y-axes for model
287 and data in the bottom panel of Figure 4). Jaeger and Hofmann (2002, 2003) suggest
288 values of about 20-60 for this conversion factor depending on particle sizes, with lower
289 values for larger particles following major eruptions. Figure 4 shows that the model
290 captures the timing and magnitudes of the volcanic enhancements that are apparent in
291 both sets of observations. The modeled absolute values are generally close to the Vernier
292 et al. (2015) data but are somewhat lower than the Mauna Loa data.

293

294 The calculated chlorine activation that is evident in Figure 4 varies from year to year and
295 month to month depending on multiple factors: the strength of the transport associated
296 with the monsoons (which affects total chlorine), changes in temperature, and changes in
297 stratospheric aerosol amounts (see Fig. S1). It is likely that the quasi-biennial oscillation
298 plays a role in modulating transport of HCl from year to year (Schoeberl et al., 2008), and
299 the El Niño is also important for temperature variations, particularly in the warm pool
300 region of maximum activation (e.g., Rosenlof and Reid, 2008; Nishimoto and Shiotani,
301 2012).

302

303 The model results shown in Figure 4 suggest that heterogeneous chlorine chemistry in
304 this region greatly enhances reactive chlorine species even for volcanically clean
305 conditions, with substantial increases above what would be expected without
306 heterogeneous processing. Figure 4 suggests summer ClO and ClONO₂ abundances in
307 this region when heterogeneous chlorine reactions are simulated for non-volcanic
308 conditions are of the order of 5 and 25-40 pptv respectively, compared to only a few
309 tenths of a pptv and 5-10 pptv when these reactions are neglected. Further increases of
310 the order of 10 pptv for ClO and 5-8 pptv for ClONO₂ are simulated in volcanically
311 perturbed summers, particularly 2011 (after Nabro) and 2009 (when transport of aerosol
312 to the tropics from the Sarychev eruption has been documented; see Figure 1 in Solomon
313 et al., 2011).

314

315 4. Discussion and Conclusions

316

317 Heterogeneous chlorine chemistry has been well established in polar regions through
318 extensive measurements and modeling, and it should be expected to operate in other
319 latitudes if conditions allow. In this paper, we have shown that numerical model
320 simulations indicate that the appropriate conditions occur in association with the northern
321 hemisphere summer monsoons based on current chemical understanding.

322

323 Figures 1 and 2 taken together illustrate how the input of inorganic chlorine from mid-
324 latitudes and the relatively cold conditions of the tropical lowermost stratosphere region

325 combine to produce a rapid rate of chlorine activation on liquid sulfate aerosols near the
326 northern monsoon regions in SD-WACCM. The largest rates of calculated chlorine
327 activation are associated with flow around the Asian monsoon into the especially cold
328 lower stratosphere near the Western Pacific warm pool. Our model results suggest that
329 heterogeneous chlorine activation should greatly increase average ClO and ClONO₂
330 abundances from about 10-20N in the altitude range from 16-18 km as compared to
331 simulations neglecting this chemistry. Volcanic increases in liquid sulfate aerosols
332 enhance the perturbations, but the heterogeneous reactions are thought to be sufficiently
333 rapid that substantial changes are also indicated for volcanically clean conditions.

334

335 Many stratospheric chlorine chemistry measurements have focused on polar and subpolar
336 regions. We are not aware of any available datasets that have validated measurements of
337 ClO or ClONO₂ in the 16-18 km region of the tropics and subtropics against which our
338 findings could be further tested. Stratospheric chemistry is tightly coupled, and other
339 constituents including HCl, NO, NO₂, HOCl, etc. may also be useful to probe the impacts
340 of this heterogeneous chemistry. Laboratory studies of these reactions have used
341 H₂SO₄/H₂O and H₂SO₄/H₂O/HNO₃ solutions, and those studies form the basis for the
342 chemistry recommended in JPL (2011) and imposed in models. Even for pure
343 H₂SO₄/H₂O solutions, uncertainties in liquid heterogeneous reactivities are poorly
344 quantified, especially for temperatures below about 200K. Further, direct measurements
345 of particle composition in the tropical tropopause region have revealed substantial
346 amounts of other components, such as non-volatile species and pollutants including
347 organic compounds (Murphy, 2009; 2014; Borrmann et al., 2010). Whether these

348 components could alter the stratospheric liquid aerosol reactivity is unknown. If so, then
349 particle reactivities might differ in volcanic versus non-volcanic years, since the volcanic
350 particles would contain a much larger fraction of sulfuric acid, and hence provide a closer
351 correspondence to the laboratory data compared to non-volcanic conditions. Our
352 simulations provide a testable framework for examining whether or not heterogeneous
353 chlorine chemistry takes place in the tropical lowermost stratosphere, either under
354 volcanically clean or volcanically perturbed conditions, or both.

355

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374 this paper may be accessed at <http://ndacc-lidar.org/>. Model results shown in this paper
375 are available on request to the WACCM liaison, Michael Mills mmills@ucar.edu.

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532

533 Figure Captions

534

535 Figure 1. Distributions of HCl from MLS satellite data for the channel centered at 100
536 hPa (top) and at 100 and 85 hPa in SD-WACCM simulations for July 2011. Wind
537 vectors and temperatures from SD-WACCM are superimposed.

538

539

540 Figure 2. Model calculated monthly mean distributions of ClO (pptv, top panel),
541 ClONO₂ (pptv, bottom panel) for July 2011 at 17 km, with superimposed wind vectors.

542

543

544

545 Figure 3. Zonally averaged ClONO₂ abundances (pptv) in July 2011 versus latitude and
546 altitude in SD-WACCM model calculations with (top) and without (bottom) low-latitude
547 heterogeneous chlorine chemistry, including volcanic inputs. The location of the
548 meteorological tropopause has been indicated with a dashed green line, and the red box
549 highlights the region discussed.

550

551 Figure 4. Model-calculated chemical constituents (pptv) averaged over the latitude band
552 14-20°N versus month at 17 km, for simulations with and without volcanic inputs, and
553 without low-latitude heterogeneous chlorine chemistry, for 2009-2012 for ClO (top), and
554 ClONO₂ (second from top). The time series of extinction at 532 nm measured by
555 satellite lidar, averaged over the monsoon region (15-45°N, 5-105°E, adapted from
556 Figure 2 of Vernier et al., 2015), compared to the model values at 15, 16, and 17 km
557 (third from top). Aerosol backscatter integrated over 15-20 km (bottom) at Mauna Loa
558 (per steradian) from observations (right axis) and from the model, assuming an
559 extinction-to-backscatter conversion factor of 40 (left axis). Note change in scale of the
560 two y-axes in the bottom panel.

561

562

Figure 1.

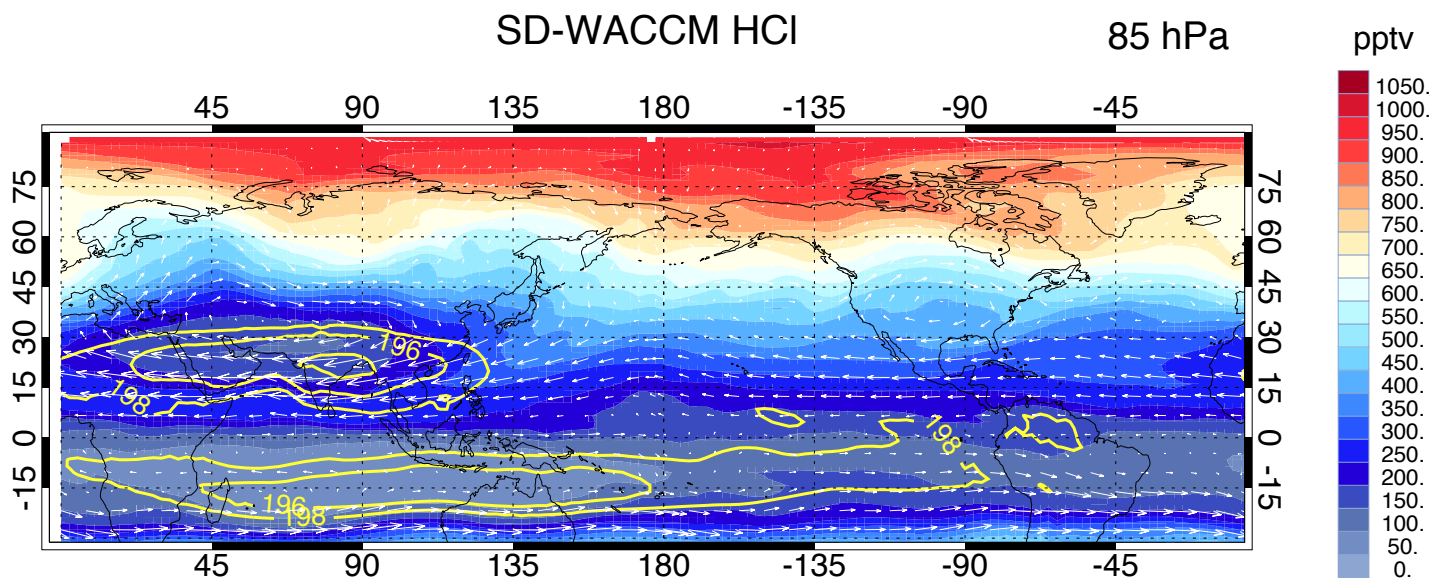
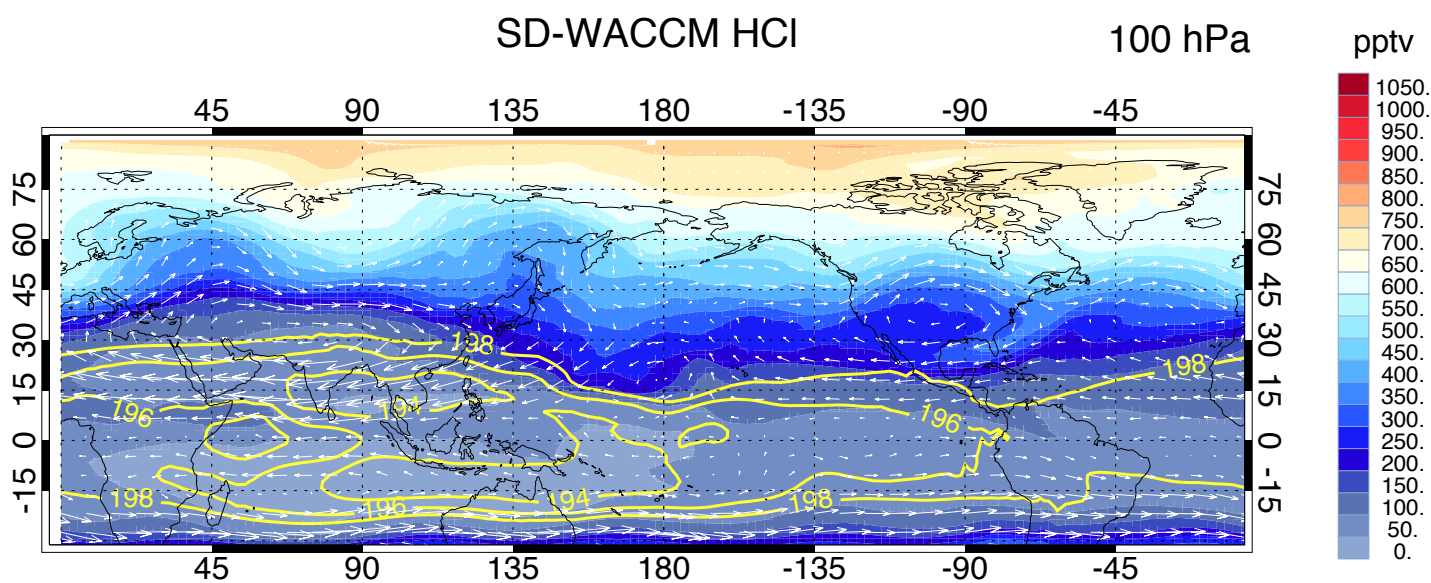
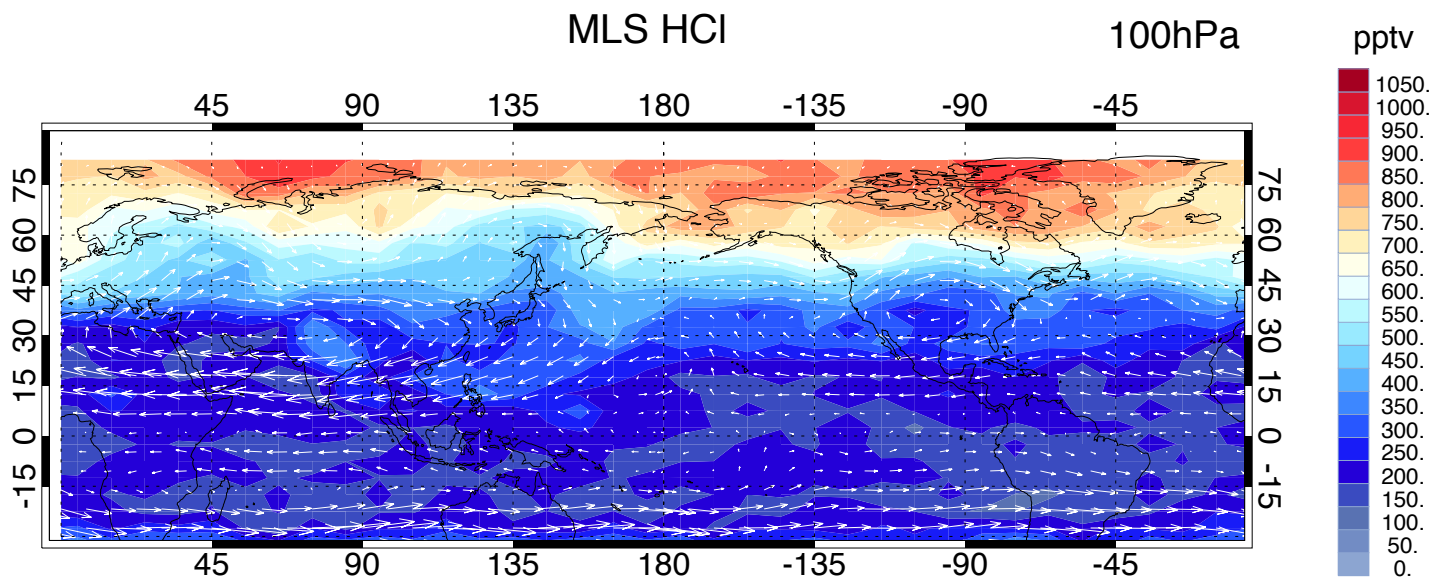


Figure 2.

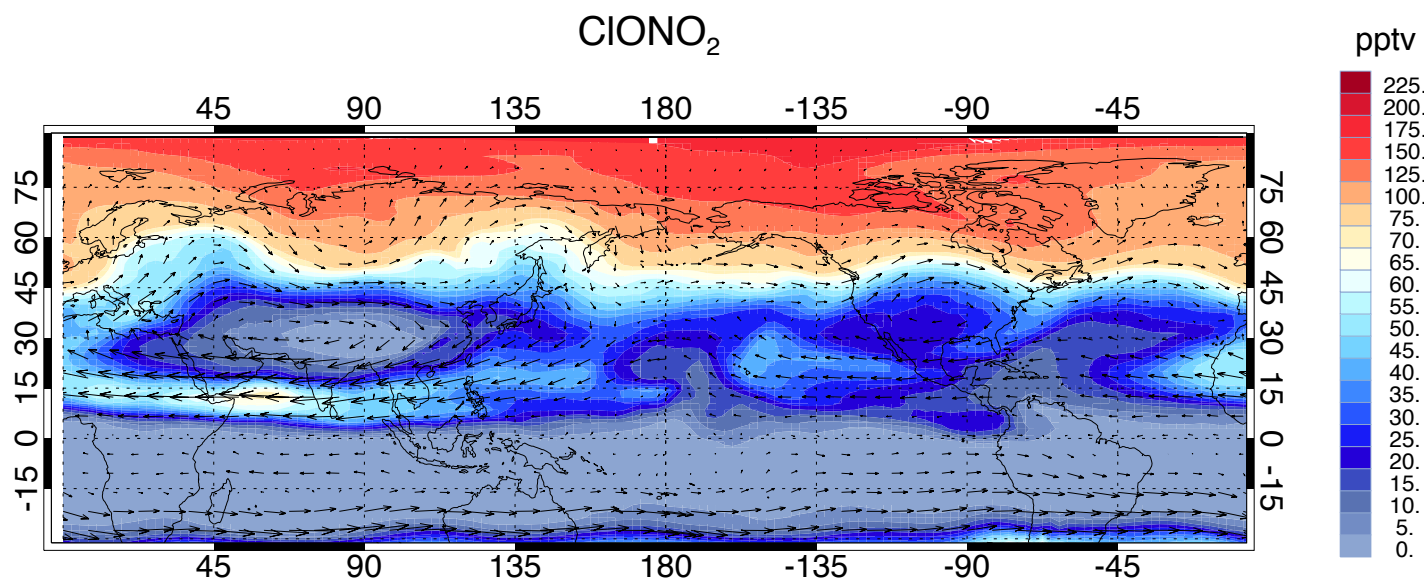
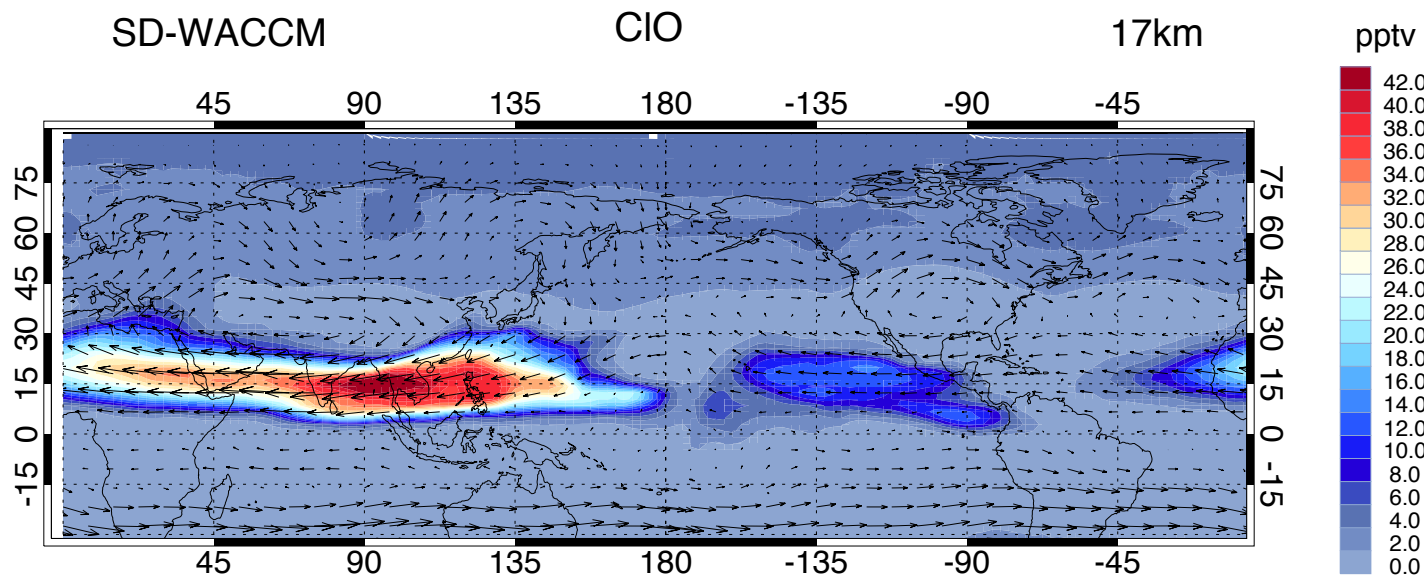
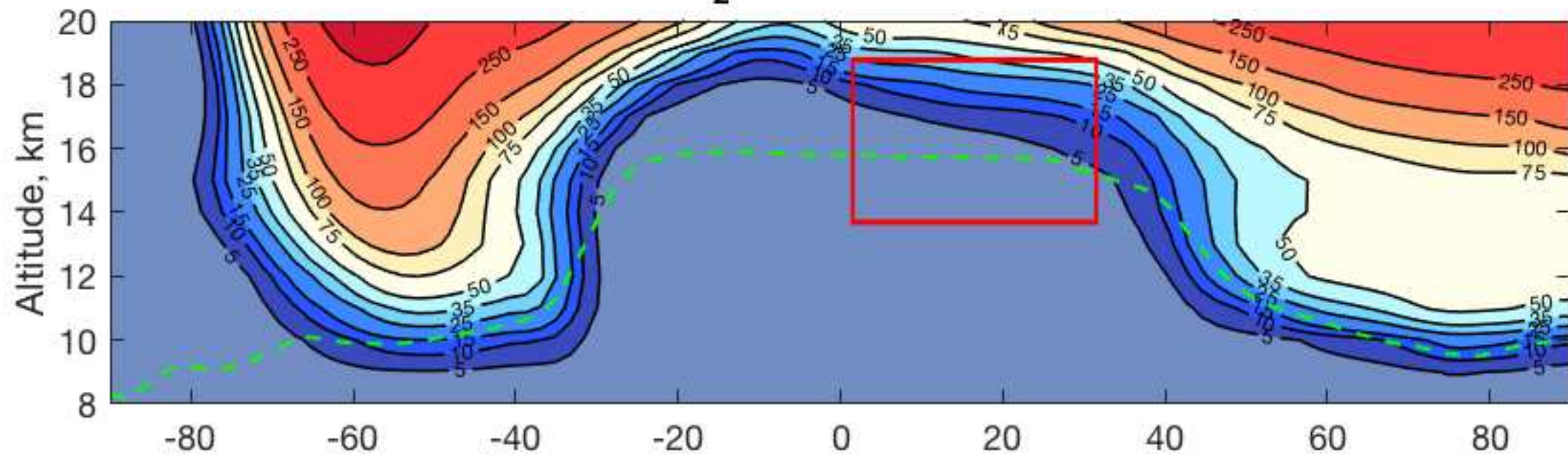


Figure 3.

July 2011 Model ClONO₂ no tropical heterogeneous chemistry



July 2011 Model ClONO₂ heterogeneous chemistry included

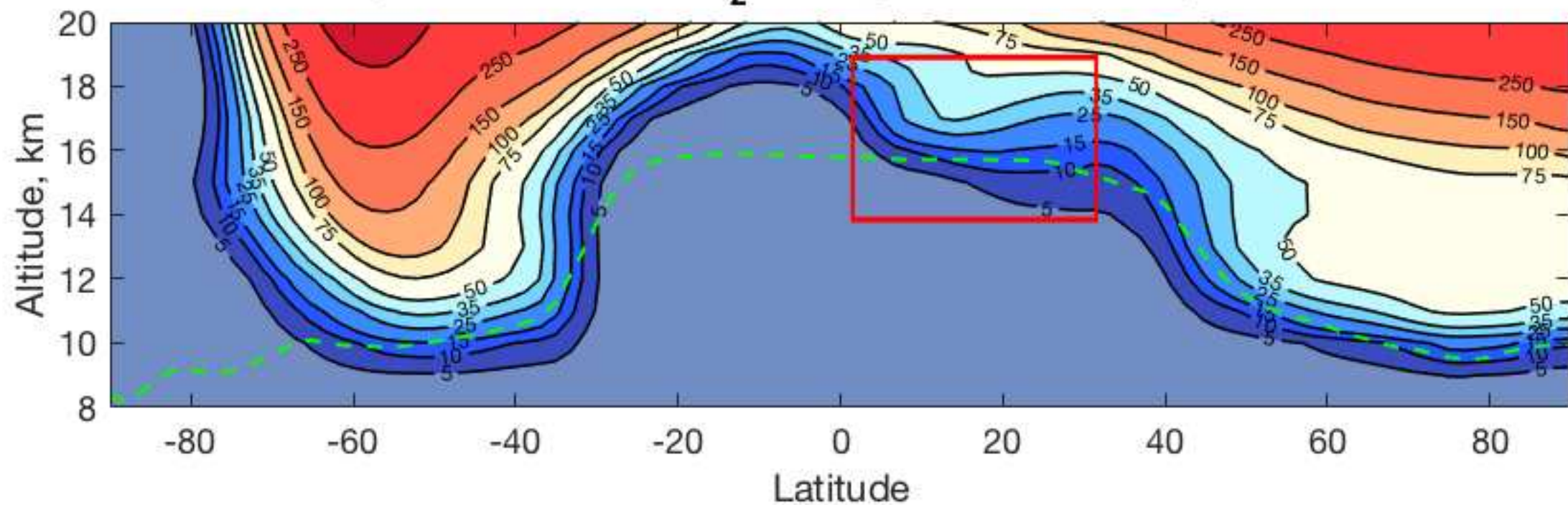


Figure 4.

