

**Mixed-phase boundary layer clouds terminate the ozone depletion events in the Arctic
region**

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1 **Abstract**

2 Ozone depletion events (ODEs) are frequently observed near the surface in the Arctic
3 area in spring. While their formation mechanism seems to be understood, their termination
4 mechanisms remain unclear. Gong et al. (1997) and Strong et al. (2002) reported that wind shear
5 above the boundary layer could induce enough vertical mixing to transport O₃-richer air from
6 aloft to replenish surface O₃, thus terminate the ODEs. Jacobi et al. (2010) illustrated that O₃-
7 richer air mass from midlatitudes moving northward into the Arctic may terminate the ODEs. In
8 this study a new mechanism related to mixed-phase boundary layer clouds is proposed. A single
9 layer stratocumulus deck observed over Barrow, Alaska (AK) on April 8, 2008 is simulated
10 using high-resolution (in both horizontal and vertical directions) WRF/Chem model. The effect
11 of such mixed-phase boundary layer clouds to the ODEs is simulated by including a tracer in the
12 simulation. The initial profile of the tracer is set as the O₃ profile during a typical ODE. It is
13 found that the cloud-top radiative cooling can induce strong downdrafts and updrafts. The
14 downdrafts due to the mixed-phase boundary layer cloud can bring O₃-richer air from above
15 downward to terminate the ODE.

16
17 **1. Introduction**

18 Anomalously low ozone (O₃) mixing ratios in the atmospheric boundary layer (ABL)
19 during spring in the Arctic area were reported since 1980s (Oltmans, 1981; Bottenheim et al.,
20 1986; Barrie et al., 1988). Such yearly O₃ depletion events (ODEs) in the Arctic area attracted
21 extensive research since then (Mickle et al., 1989; Oltmans et al., 1989; Anlauf et al., 1994;

22 Leaitch et al., 1994; Solberg et al., 1996; Rasmussen et al., 1997; Hopper and Hart, 1994;
23 Hopper et al., 1998; Sumner and Shepson, 1999; Bottenheim et al., 2002; 2009; Tarasick and
24 Bottenheim, 2002; Bottenheim and Chan, 2006, Jacobi et al., 2006; Helmig et al., 2007; Eneroth
25 et al., 2007; Jacobi et al., 2010). It is now generally accepted that the halogen (especially
26 bromine) activation and the subsequent reactions caused onset of the ODEs (Barrie et al., 1988;
27 Fan and Jacob, 1992; Boudries and Bottenheim, 2000; Rankin et al., 2002; Simpson et al., 2007;
28 Grannas et al., 2007; Piot and von Glasow, 2008; Hara et al., 2010; Frieß et al., 2011). While the
29 basic features of the ODEs seem understood, several questions remain unclear (Bottenheim et al.,
30 2002; Jacobi et al., 2006; 2010). First, why are the ODEs only observed in spring, but not other
31 seasons? (Bottenheim et al., 2002; Lehrer et al., 2004). Second, what is the spatial extent of the
32 ODEs? (Jacobi et al., 2006; 2010). Third, what are the processes that cause the termination of
33 the ODEs, transport (vertical or horizontal?) or chemical reactions? (Gong et al., 1997; Hopper et
34 al., 1998; Strong et al., 2002; Bottenheim et al., 2009; Jacobi et al., 2010). This paper focuses on
35 the third question.

36 Previous studies (e.g., Gong et al., 1997; Strong et al., 2002) indicated that wind shear
37 just above the Arctic ABL can contribute to the transport of O₃-richer air from aloft to the
38 surface, thus terminate the ODEs. Jacobi et al. (2010) reported that northward moving lows may
39 bring O₃-rich air from midlatitudes to the Arctic, leading to the termination of the ODEs. In this
40 study, we will provide another mechanism for the termination of the ODEs. We investigated the
41 ODEs in Barrow, AK in spring of 2009 (during which the field campaign of Ocean-Atmosphere-
42 Sea Ice-Snowpack Interactions in Polar Regions (OASIS) 2009 was conducted). During the
43 recovery periods of some ODEs (e.g., March 16, 2009), surface wind speeds kept calm, wind
44 shear in the boundary layer kept low and air mass kept come from the Arctic basin. Thus

45 horizontal transport was less likely the reason for the termination of the ODEs and vertical
46 mixing was unlikely induced solely by wind shear as the cases reported in Strong et al. (2002).
47 For the case of March 16, 2009 boundary layer clouds were noticed in presence during the
48 recovery period. The Arctic boundary layer clouds could strongly impact the vertical structure
49 of the boundary layer through cloud-top radiative cooling and generation of negative buoyancy
50 (Pinto, 1998; Morrison and Pinto, 2006). Thus we speculate the Arctic boundary layer cloud is
51 responsible for the termination of the ODEs in some cases.

52 The role of the Arctic boundary layer cloud in the ODEs is investigated in this study
53 using nested high-resolution three-dimensional model simulation.

54 **2. Model setup and experimental design**

55 The Arctic boundary layer cloud presents challenges to modelers because its unique types
56 and characteristics that are less common at lower latitudes. Previous numerical modeling studies
57 of boundary layer stratocumulus have indicated considerable spread in model solutions (Klein et
58 al., 2009; Morrison et al., 2011). To successfully simulate Arctic boundary layer clouds, a
59 realistic treatment of ice microphysics and proper model resolution are critical (Klein et al.,
60 2009). In this study, a single layer stratocumulus deck observed over the North Slope of Alaska
61 on April 8, 2008 is simulated using the Weather Research and Forecasting model with Chemistry
62 (WRF/Chem) version 3.2.1 (Grell et al. 2005). Most model configurations follow those used in
63 Solomon et al. (2011), in which the same cloud case appears to be successfully simulated. We
64 describe here only the configurations different from those in Solomon et al. (2011) and those that
65 are essential for the simulation of O₃. Three model domains with horizontal grid spacings of 25
66 km, 5 km, and 1 km used in this study are the same as the first three nested domains used in

67 Solomon et al. (2011). We do not nest even finer resolution domains since the simulation in the
68 1 km resolution domain appears to capture the characteristics of the Arctic mixed-phase cloud
69 (Solomon et al., 2009; 2011). 85 pressure levels below 800 hPa are adopted as Solomon et al.
70 (2011) to better resolve the mixing and entrainment in the mixed-layer and entrainment zone.
71 The National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) global forecast system (GFS) final
72 (FNL) operational global analyses are used for the initial conditions and boundary conditions of
73 all meteorological variables. The model is spun-up by 12 hours. The simulation starting from 12
74 UTC, April 8 is used in the analysis. Since the O₃ change rate due to chemical reactions in the
75 Arctic is much slower than that due to transport (Gong et al., 1997), O₃ is represented by a tracer
76 in WRF/Chem to investigate its transport in the presence of boundary layer stratocumulus. The
77 initial and boundary conditions for O₃ is set using a profile of O₃ during a typical ODE, in which
78 O₃ is almost depleted in the lower 300 m near the surface while it is around 45 ppbv in the free
79 troposphere above (Jacobi et al., 2010).

80 **3. Results**

81 In Figure 1, the simulated environmental conditions at Barrow, AK at 18 UTC is
82 compared with the nearest-in-time sounding taken at Barrow at 17.6 UTC, April 8. A well-
83 mixed boundary layer is reproduced by the simulation. However, the simulated boundary layer
84 is slightly lower than the observed by around 100 m. The simulation also captures the
85 temperature and humidity inversion at the top of the boundary layer. Such meteorological
86 conditions are consistent with typical conditions for an Arctic cloud-topped mixed layer (Curry
87 et al., 2000). The humidity and temperature inversion above the cloud-topped mixed layer
88 contributed to the persistence of the cloud deck by inhibiting evaporation associated with

89 entrainment mixing at the cloud top (Curry et al., 2000). Such humidity inversion is a unique
90 feature for Arctic boundary layer clouds. The simulated wind profile is qualitatively similar as
91 the observation: strong shear in the surface layer and at cloud top, weak winds within the cloud
92 and sub-cloud layer.

93 The simulated spatial distributions of condensed water path in Figure 2 imply simulated
94 cloud passed Barrow after 12 UTC. After the cloud moving to Barrow, the simulated surface O_3
95 increased by around 15 ppbv from 12 to 16 UTC. By 23 UTC, the surface O_3 increased to 28
96 ppbv. Thus it appears the presence of cloud plays an important role in replenishing boundary
97 layer O_3 and terminating the ODE.

98 The vertical structure of cloud ice content, vertical velocity and O_3 are shown in Figure 3.
99 A single layer stratocumulus cloud is successfully simulated in the boundary layer. Liquid water
100 resides at the cloud top, which varies between 1.15 km and 0.9 km along the west-east cross
101 section through Barrow (Figure not shown). The cloud top is at the base of the temperature
102 inversion with a cloud top temperature ranging from -17 to -13°C at Barrow. Cloud ice forms
103 within the liquid cloud layer. Thus the cloud is in mixed phase. Cloud liquid water path
104 dominates cloud ice water path. Total column integrated liquid water accounts for more than
105 90% of total cloud water (liquid plus ice). The model simulates the mixed-phase stratocumulus
106 starting at 11 UTC with a cloud top at 1.2 km at Barrow. The cloud top slowly descends since
107 then, which is consistent with observation (figure not shown). Strong infrared cooling occurs at
108 the cloud top. Because solar heating is very low due to low sun angle in the Arctic, the cloud
109 shows net cooling (Curry, 1986). The strong infrared cooling near the liquid cloud top generates
110 enough turbulence to promote downdrafts and compensating updrafts (Figure 3b). Cloud top

111 radiative cooling was shown to dominantly trigger the turbulence structure of Arctic boundary
112 layer stratus clouds (Finger and Wendling, 1990). Such radiative-cooling triggered downdrafts
113 are strong enough to reach the surface, which is consistent with the previous studies (e.g., Curry,
114 1986; Wang et al., 2001; and Zuidema et al., 2005). Before the cloud moves to Barrow, there is
115 a strong temperature inversion near the surface at Barrow. The inversion disappears after the
116 cloud moves in due to that the downdrafts bring warmer air in the upper boundary layer to the
117 surface (Figure not shown). Thus a cloud-top-cooled mixed-layer that extends from the cloud
118 top to the surface forms. Different from a surface-heated convective boundary layer, where
119 downdraft is much weaker than the updraft, the compensating updrafts have about the same
120 strength ($\sim 0.6 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) as the downdrafts in this Arctic stratocumulus case (Figure 3b). The
121 comparable size and strength of downdrafts and updrafts is consistent with the observed single-
122 layer, low-level mixed-phase stratiform clouds at Barrow in 2004 (Shupe et al., 2008). The
123 simulated composite structure is consistent with that of an idealized stratus-topped boundary
124 layer reported in Moeng and Schumann (1991), in which the turbulence is maintained solely by
125 cloud-top radiative cooling. It is also consistent with that of a mixed-phase stratus topped
126 boundary layer reported in Morrison and Pinto (2006). Resolved downdrafts and updrafts
127 (Figure 3b) are highly correlated with the vertical distribution of cloud ice (Figure 3a). In the
128 updrafts more cloud ice forms while in the downdraft cloud ice is reduced due to sublimation.

129 In addition to modifying the boundary layer structure, the downdrafts and updrafts
130 significantly modify the vertical structure of atmospheric constituents. Since the chemical life
131 time of O_3 is much longer than the time scale of vertical mixing due to downdrafts and updrafts,
132 its vertical distribution is dominated by the transport due to downdrafts and updrafts. The initial
133 O_3 profile is set to an observed profile during a typical ODE, in which O_3 has higher mixing

134 ratios above 300 m than the ozone-depleted boundary layer. The vertical mixing due to
135 downdrafts and updrafts extends to 0.9-1.1 km. Thus the downdrafts could bring O₃-richer air in
136 the upper layers downward to replenish O₃ near the surface. The vertical O₃ profiles at Barrow
137 during the ODEs and in the presence of cloud are shown in Figure 4. The O₃ near the surface is
138 replenished to around 28 ppbv at 23 UTC. This mechanism for the termination of an ODE is
139 consistent with the one-dimensional model simulation reported in Piot and Glasow (2008).
140 However in Piot and Glasow (2008), the details of the phases and dynamics of clouds are not
141 reported. The detailed description of the cloud presence and its interaction with vertical O₃
142 transport reported in this paper was greatly needed to confirm this ODE termination mechanism
143 (Piot and Glasow, 2008).

144 **4. Conclusions and discussion**

145 Ozone Depletion Events (ODEs) occur regularly in the Arctic boundary layers in spring.
146 This paper illustrates that the mixed-phase clouds commonly occurring in the Arctic area may
147 play important roles in the termination of the ODEs. The mixed-phase cloud can significantly
148 impact the structure of the boundary layer through the influence of cloud-top radiative cooling.
149 Downdrafts and the compensating updrafts induced by the cloud-top radiative cooling can be
150 strong enough to reach the surface. The averaged vertical velocity in the presence of cloud may
151 be as large as 0.6 m s⁻¹ in the mixing layer. The vertical mixing due to such updrafts and
152 downdrafts triggered by the clouds can mix the free tropospheric O₃-richer air downward to
153 replenish the O₃ near the surface, thus terminate an ODE.

154 Note that not all the downdrafts of mixed-phase clouds could reach the surface. The
155 vertical extent of cloud induced mixing depends on cloud top radiative cooling and cloud-base

156 stabilization (Komurcu, 2011). Cloud top radiative cooling of the Arctic mixed-phase cloud is
157 dominated by liquid water (Pinto, 1998). A few factors (e.g., ice nuclei concentration, ice
158 formation mechanism, and crystal habits) could affect clouds liquid water content (Avramov and
159 Harrington, 2010; Komurcu, 2011). Cloud-base stabilization is modulated by the degree of the
160 ice growth and precipitation (Harrington and Olsson, 2001). Whether a mixed-phase cloud could
161 generate strong enough downdrafts to terminate an ODE near the surface depends on complex
162 cloud microphysics and dynamic processes. The sensitivity of strength of cloud circulation
163 (downdrafts and updrafts) is investigated in Komurcu (2011).

164 The turbulent mixing in the boundary layer due to cloud top radiative cooling has been
165 discovered for many years (Pinto, 1998), however its implication for Arctic O₃ is not widely
166 realized yet. This study may serve as a bridge between the Arctic cloud community and Arctic
167 chemistry community. The new mechanism for the termination of ODEs reported in this study
168 may have profound implication for the spring time Arctic ODEs because of the frequent
169 occurrence of the Arctic mixed-phased clouds. Observations revealed that the Arctic region is
170 cloudy about 85% of the year and mixed-phase clouds dominate low-level clouds within the
171 Arctic during the colder three-quarters of the year (Intrieri et al., 2002; Verlinde et al., 2007).
172 This study also emphasizes that it is necessary for models to adequately simulate mixed-phase
173 boundary layer clouds to reproduce the Arctic ODEs.

174 The Arctic clouds occurred more frequently and have wider coverage in summer and fall
175 than in spring (Finger and Wendling, 1990; Interieri et al., 2002). A monthly averaged cloud
176 occurrence could be as high as 95% in summer and fall (Interieri et al., 2002). Thus the clouds
177 may enhance vertical mixing through cloud-top radiative cooling more frequently during

178 summer and fall. Such enhancement of vertical mixing in the boundary layer can breakdown the
179 strong surface temperature inversion, which is thought to be one of the prerequisites for ODEs
180 (Lehrer et al., 2004; Bottenheim et al., 2009). Thus higher frequent occurrence and wider
181 coverage of clouds in summer and fall might be linked to the absence of ODEs in those months.
182 Further investigation is greatly needed to confirm such linkage.

183

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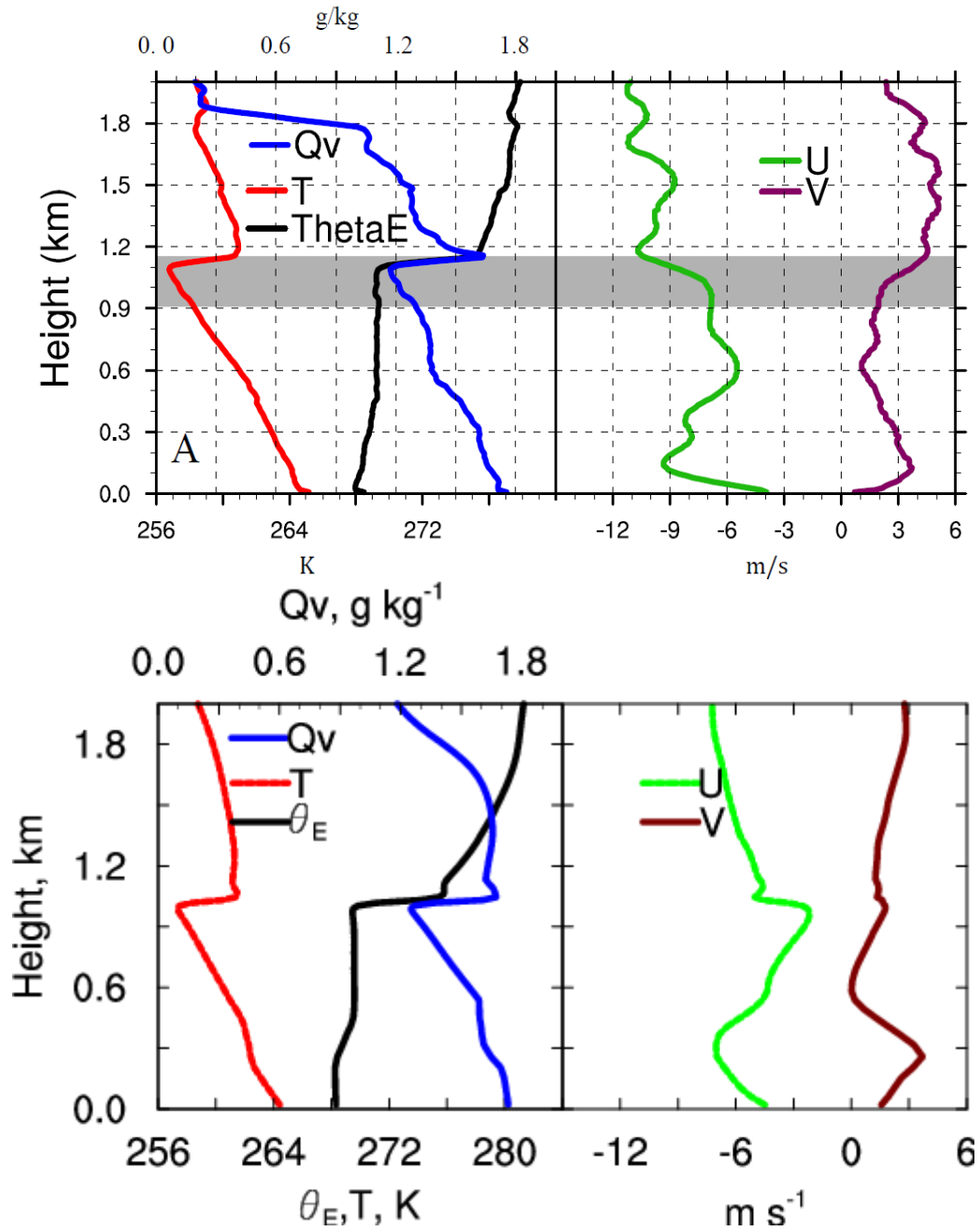


Figure 1. (Top) measured at 17.6 UTC and (bottom) simulated at 18 UTC profiles of temperature, equivalent potential temperature (θ_E), U, and V on April 8, 2008 at (71.33° N, 156.61° W). The measurement in the top panel is adapted from Solomon et al. (2011).

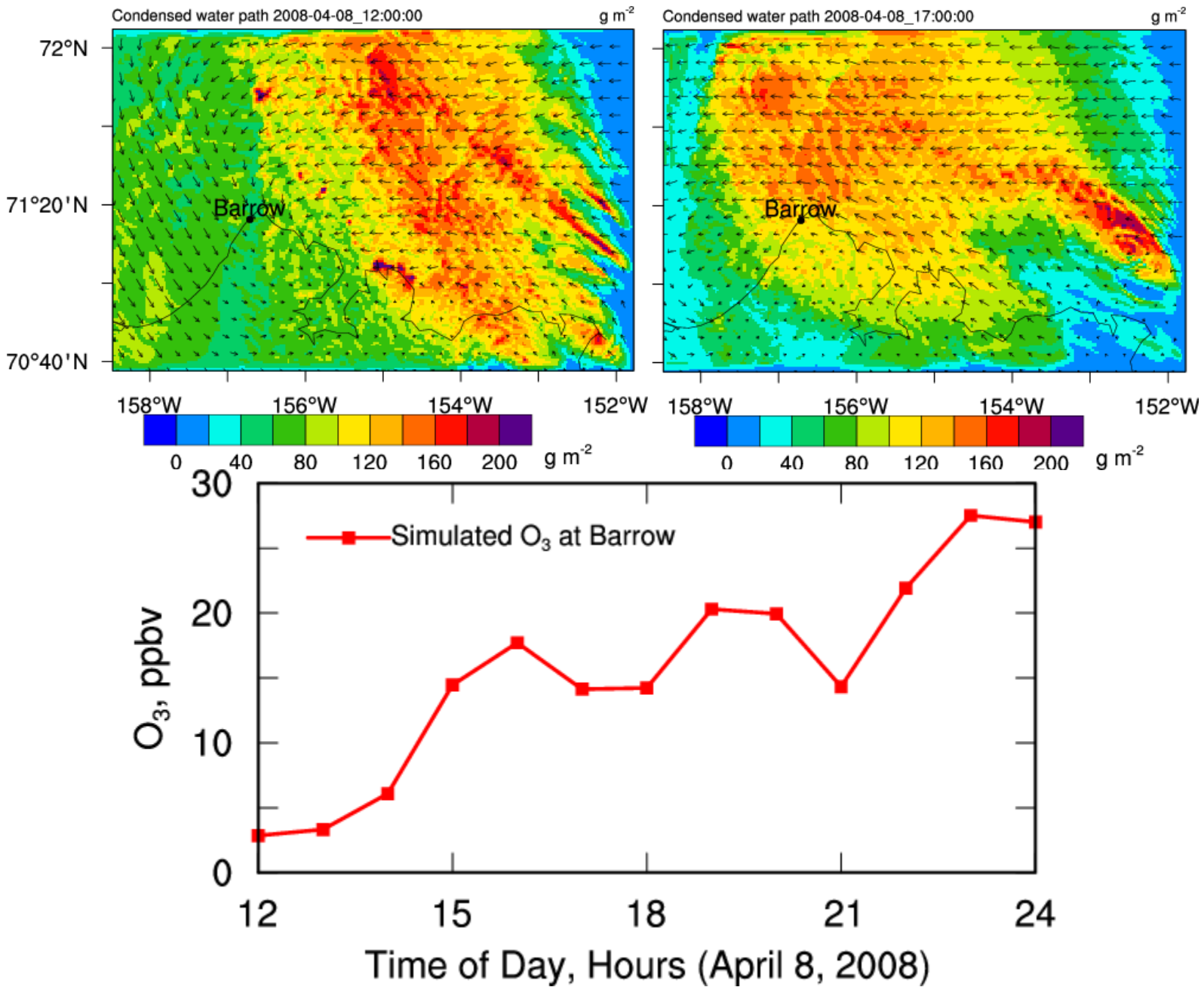


Figure 2. (Top) Column condensed water (cloud water plus cloud ice) path at 12 (before cloud passing Barrow) and 17 UTC (cloud present at Barrow) and (bottom) simulated surface O_3 at Barrow.

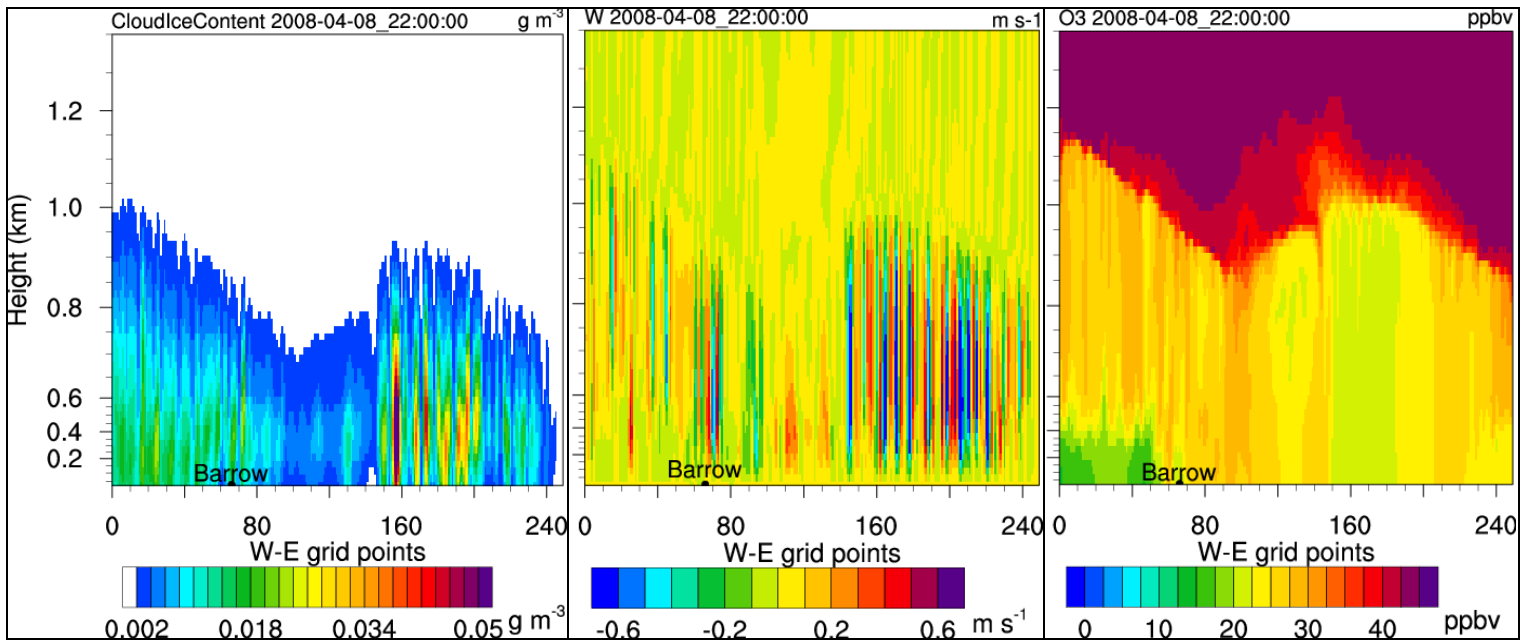


Figure 3. Simulated vertical structure of (left to right) cloud ice content, vertical velocity, and O_3 for the west-east cross section passing through Barrow, AK at 22 UTC on April 8, 2008

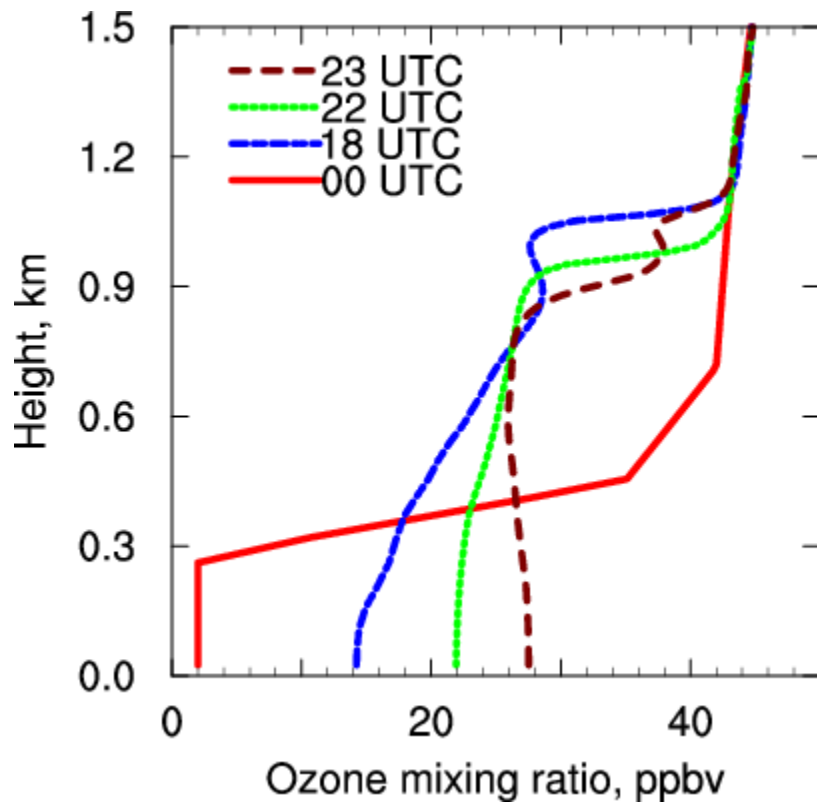


Figure 4. Initial vertical O₃ profile at 00 UTC and simulated O₃ profiles at 18, 22, and 23 UTC at Barrow, AK.