The extreme Arctic ozone depletion in 2020 as was observed from Svalbard (EXAODEP-2020)

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1. Introduction

Observations of ozone column density and solar ultraviolet (UV) irradiance (~295 – 400 nm) reaching the ground at Svalbard were presented in the 2018 SESS report (Petkov et al. 2019). Instruments operating at four stations (Table 1) provide data about ozone amount, erythemally weighted UV (UVE) irradiance and intensity of the UV-B (~295 – 315 nm) and UV-A (315 – 400 nm) spectral bands. The devices were compared in the frame of the intercomparison campaign performed in late April 2018 with the aim to unite them in a local network (Petkov et al. 2019).

As was shown in the 2018 SESS report (Petkov et al. 2019), ozone density oscillates during the year, reaching its annual maximum in spring: this is the typical behaviour over the Northern Hemisphere (Brasseur and Solomon 2005). In Antarctica, however, spring is the period when strong stratospheric ozone depletions usually occur (Farman et al. 1985; Solomon et al. 1986, Solomon et al. 2007). This difference is attributed to the polar vortices, which are much less marked in the Arctic. Nevertheless, some unusual ozone reduction events took place in the region around the North Pole during the past three decades. The most pronounced were the ozone depletion episodes observed in 1996, 1997, 2011 and 2020. The magnitude of the 2020 depletion was comparable with the Antarctic ozone hole (Lawrence et al. 2020; Manney et al. 2011 and 2020; Svendby et al. 2021; Weber et al. 2021). It was found that such events are able to impact the ozone column at lower latitudes in both late spring (Petkov et al. 2014 and 2021) and summer (Karpechko et al. 2013), underlining the significance of the polar regions for the environment in the densely populated mid-latitude areas. In this regard, the present chapter update aims to describe the most recent significant ozone reduction registered by the instruments operating in Svalbard.

Station (coordinates)	Instruments	Measured parameters	Measurement frequency
Ny-Ålesund (78°56'N, 11°55'E)	Brewer MKIV #050	Ozone column, UVE	~ 20 min
	GUV radiometer	Ozone column, UVE, UV- A, UV-B	1 min
	UV-RAD radiometer	Ozone column, UVE, UV- A, UV-B	5 min
Barentsburg (78°24'N, 14°9'E)	Ozonometer M 124	Ozone column	~ 1 h
Longyearbyen (78°13'N, 15°39'E)	Kipp & Zonen UVS-E-T	UV-E	1 min
Hornsund (77°00'N, 15°33'E)	Kipp & Zonen UVS-AE-T	UV-E	1 min

 Table 1: Instruments operating in Svalbard that perform observations of the ozone column and solar UV radiation.

2. A strong Arctic ozone depletion event occurred in 2020

While satellite-borne instruments can provide a general and large-scale look at the event (see next subsection), the instruments in Svalbard are able to present precisely the development of the event. Moreover, these ground-based measurements

allow a quantitative assessment of the effect that ozone variations produce on the solar UV irradiance reaching Earth's surface (discussed in subsection 2.2).

2.1. <u>A general picture of the 2020</u> <u>Arctic ozone depletion</u>

The appearance of the ozone-reduced areas in the polar regions in spring is considered a result of combined action of dynamical and chemical processes (Brasseur and Solomon 2005; Feng et al. 2021). The polar vortex that forms in early winter and may persist through spring is the main dynamical factor for the ozone depletion episodes in the Antarctic and the Arctic. Isolating huge areas over the poles from the mid-latitude air masses, the vortex contributes to a sharp cooling of the stratosphere. This cooling creates conditions for the formation of the polar stratospheric clouds, which in turn favour heterogeneous reactions leading to the appearance of the active halogen species (chlorine and bromine) that destroy the ozone (Molina and Rowland 1974; Solomon et al. 1986). In Antarctica, the vortex is usually very stable and has given rise to significant ozone depletion almost every year in the past decades. In contrast, the Arctic vortex is frequently disturbed by dynamic processes that make it quite unstable. This impedes the appearance of appreciable stratospheric cooling and, hence, of severe ozone depletion like in the Antarctic. The effects of vortex formation/non-formation are illustrated in figure 1, which presents the potential vorticity (PV) in the Arctic, extracted from the ECMWF database (ECMWF 2021) for three winter-spring months of 2019 and 2020. It is considered that PV is able to



Figure 1: The left two columns represent the monthly mean potential vorticity over the Northern Hemisphere as extracted from ECMWF (2021) database for February-April 2019 and 2020 in the Arctic, while the right two columns give the corresponding ozone amount distributions (NASA 2021).

outline the polar vortex (Hoskins et al. 1985). Actually, figure 1 (left columns) shows the monthly mean PV assuming that such an averaging filters the short-term oscillations and better represents the status of the polar vortex within a month. The two columns on the right side of figure 1 show the distribution of the monthly mean of the ozone column during the corresponding months.

The difference between the PV patterns in 2019 and 2020 is obvious. While the PV contours outline a large area with rather high PV values for each of the months in 2020, no similar picture can be identified in 2019. As mentioned, this is due to the frequent perturbations of the Arctic vortex; the monthly mean PV in 2019 depicts a guite weak vortex. It should be noted that the development of the 2019 vortex represents typical Arctic behaviour, whereas in 2020 the vortex was exceptionally strong (and long-lasting). Figure 1 demonstrates also the response of the ozone column to the vortex features. In 2019 the ozone content was close to the normal values whereas in 2020, areas characterised by significantly reduced total ozone can be recognised in each of the monthly patterns. Svalbard was inside or in the periphery of these areas, and the next subsection presents a picture of the ozone depletion using results from the instruments operating in Svalbard.

2.2. <u>The development of the 2020</u> <u>ozone depletion over Svalbard</u> <u>and its consequences</u>

The behaviour of the ozone column over Svalbard in the spring of 2020 is presented in figure 2. All the instruments registered a deep minimum that lasted about a month, from late March to late April. This minimum was found to be nearly 150 DU below the climatological value; this represents an almost 40% decrease. At the same time, this minimum is about 70 DU lower than the 2.5-percentile of the climatological mean value. In the second half of April, the ozone column sharply returned to average values with episodical drops under the 2.5-percentile level.



Figure 2: Time patterns of the daily ozone column, observed over Svalbard by the instruments located in Ny-Ålesund and Barentsburg during the first half of 2020. The solid black curve shows the mean annual ozone course during the period and the dashed curve represents the 2.5-percentile. Both parameters were estimated from historical measurements performed at Ny-Ålesund during the past 20 years (Petkov et al. 2019; Svendby et al. 2021).

Such a profound ozone column decrease was expected to cause a considerable increase in the solar UV-B irradiance reaching the ground, as UV-B penetrance is quite sensitive to ozone changes. This is confirmed by the upper panel of figure 3, where the daily integrated values (daily doses) of radiation in the UV-B range are presented for 2018 – 2020. It is seen that the annual course of UV-B doses is quite similar for the years 2018 and 2019, which were characterised by normal ozone amounts, while the development seen in 2020 shows a doubling of the values in March – April, when the ozone column reached the extreme minimum shown in figure 1. At the same time, the evolution of UV-A irradiance (lower panel of Fig. 3), which only weakly depends on the ozone column, shows almost the same behaviour in 2020 as in the previous two years. These findings confirm the strong relationship between the ozone column and surface UV-B irradiance.

Figure 4 exhibits the daily doses of the erythemal UV irradiance (UVE) calculated through the weighting of the solar radiation by the erythemal action spectrum (Mckinlay and Diffey 1987). It shows that UVE irradiance was also subject to significant enhancement, similarly to the UV-B band. These results are consistent with those obtained by Bernhard et al. (2020), who observed a 75% increase in ultraviolet index in Canada in March 2020.

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Figure 3: Daily UV-B and UV-A doses registered by GUV (solid curves) and UV-RAD (dashed curves) at Ny-Ålesund during the early spring periods of 2018 – 2020. The discrepancy between GUV and UV-RAD data that is particularly marked in the period of the ozone reduction, can be attributed to the different approaches applied to extract the doses from the output voltages of both instruments, which approaches depend on the ozone behaviour and other geometrical factors (see WMO (2010) and Petkov et al. (2006) for GUV and UV-RAD, respectively).

Studies performed to analyse the dependence of UV radiation on the ozone column led to the introduction of the so-called radiation amplification factor (RAF, Madronich et al. 1998) determined by the equation:

$$\frac{I}{I_0} = \left(\frac{Q}{Q_0}\right)^{-\text{RAF}},\tag{1}$$

where UV irradiances I and I_0 correspond to the ozone columns Q and Q_0 , respectively. The RAF is usually determined empirically under cloud-free sky and at a certain solar elevation, to underline the effect of the ozone on UV radiation and reduce the impact of clouds and aerosols. However, we could formally assess RAF through Eq. (1) by taking into account the daily mean ozone column given in figure 2 and daily UV-B and UVE irradiance doses presented in figures 3 and 4, respectively. In this case the effect of clouds, aerosols and solar elevation turns out to be smoothed but it persists in the RAF assessments. The estimate shows that the RAF varied between 2 and 3 for UV-B and from 1.1



Figure 4: Evolution of the daily UVE doses observed at three of the Svalbard stations in March – April of 2018, 2019 and 2020. As in the case of the patterns in figure 3, the discrepancy between GUV and UV-RAD is attributed to the different techniques applied to extract the erythemal irradiance from the corresponding output voltages.

to 1.4 for UVE doses. These values are consistent with assessments reported in other studies (Antón et al. 2011; Bais and Zerefos 1993; Blumthaler et al. 1995; Lakkala et al. 2018; Petkov et al. 2012; Seckmeyer et al. 2005). Hence, the 2020 ozone depletion in the Arctic led to an increase in the UV-B and UVE irradiance levels. This increase in both UV-B and UVE agrees with the established relationship between ozone and UV radiation. The consistency between the RAFs calculated here using data obtained under a range of conditions involving factors that impact UV-B and UVE (e.g., clouds, aerosols, low solar elevation), and RAFs calculated conventionally (i.e. using data obtained in the absence of such factors) suggests that the effect of ozone depletion was dominant in spring 2020. In other words, even though cloud cover can significantly reduce the UV radiation reaching the ground during the day, the depleted ozone column over Svalbard turned out to be a decisive factor for the UV-B irradiance level over relatively long periods.

The appreciable increase in the short-wave part of the solar UV irradiance observed in Svalbard in the period of the strong ozone reduction was an unusual deviation from the common spring environmental conditions in the Arctic. Such an occurrence can be assumed to be able to cause stress on the plants and animals (e.g. Kvíderová et al. 2019) living in Svalbard. The expected effects of UV radiation on the polar ecosystems will be a subject of future studies.

3. Unanswered questions

The recurrence of the atypically strong winter polar vortices in the Arctic can be considered a consequence of the effects of climate change on Arctic stratosphere dynamics. These occurrences caused at least three appreciable ozone depletion episodes in the past 30 years that led to corresponding increase in solar UV irradiance on the ground. Such an increase is likely to impact the Svalbard ecosystems on both short and long time scales, but these effects have not been studied yet. Another important issue that needs to be addressed concerns the interconnection between climate change and ozone evolution in both Arctic and densely populated mid-latitude areas.

4. Recommendations for the future

- In view of the unanswered questions, studies on the surface UV irradiance increase should be performed jointly with experts on experimental physiology and polar ecosystems.
- All instruments operating at Svalbard should be coordinated in a regional network to ensure reliable and coherent data over a large area of Svalbard in a long-term perspective.
- In particular, the coverage of UV spectral observations should be improved.
- The solar UV observation network should be extended across the Fram Strait to Eastern Greenland.
- The effects of climate change on the frequency of profound ozone reductions in the Arctic need to be taken into account in future studies.

5. Data availability

Dataset	Parameter	Period	Location	Metadata access (URL)	Dataset provider ¹
Ozone_ EXAODEP-2020	Ozone column (DU)	March – July, 2020	Svalbard (Ny-Ålesund, Barentsburg)	https://metadata.iadc. cnr.it/geonetwork/srv/	Tove M. Svendby (NILU), Boyan H. Petkov (ISP-CNR), Anna Solomatnikova (GGO)
UV_ EXAODEP-2020	Daily erythemal, UV-B and UV-A irradiance doses (W m-2)	March – July, 2020	Svalbard (Ny-Ålesund, Longyearbyen, Hornsund)	eng/catalog.search#/ metadata/77556de7- c3ec-48f7-883e- 6d9e6ad3c03c	Bjørn Johnsen (NILU), Boyan H. Petkov (ISP-CNR), Kamil Láska (MU), Piotr S. Sobolewski (PAS)

¹ Abbreviations can be found in the list of institutions in the beginning of the report

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