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Materials that enter the stratosphere can remain there for long periods of time, often as stratified layers.

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- It is involved in many stratospheric chemical reactions.

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- Subsequent ground-based UV measurements, and the first measurements of the concentrations of stratospheric O_3 by balloons in the 1930s, placed the maximum O_3 concentration in the lower part of the stratosphere.
- Shown in the figure below are the results of more recent measurements of O_3 . The presence of an ozone layer between heights of $\sim 15-30$ km is very clear.



Mean vertical distributions of ozone concentrations based on measurements at different latitudes (given in degrees).

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Much of the change in the total column abundance of O_3 is due to differences in the profiles below 20 km.

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In this way, a vertical profile of O_3 is obtained, the integration of which provides the O_3 column from ground level up to the height of the balloon.

Ozone Sonde Schematics



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This is done by measuring the amount of UV sunlight that reaches the ground, and deducing from this how much UV absorption occurred due to O_3 . Absorption by O_3 occurs in the UV-B region ($\lambda = 0.29 - 0.32$ m).

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By taking the ratio of the two measured values, absorption by O_3 in the total vertical column can be obtained.
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For a description of these methods, see *Wallace & Hobbs*.



Four passive techniques for measuring ozone from satellites.

Chapman's Theory

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In 1930 Sydney Chapman proposed a simple chemical scheme for maintaining steady state concentrations of O_3 in an "oxygen-only" stratosphere.

These reactions are called the Chapman reactions.

• The dissociation of O_2 by solar UV radiation

 $O_2 + h\nu \rightarrow 2O$

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 $\mathbf{O} + \mathbf{O_2} + \mathbf{M} \to \mathbf{O_3} + \mathbf{M}$

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• The photodissociation of O₃

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Since the concentration of M decreases with increasing altitude, the time constant for converting O atoms and O_2 molecules to O_3 increases with altitude (e.g., from a few seconds at 40 km to ~100 s at 50 km).



Schematic illustration of the Chapman reactions.

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There is an equator-to-pole circulation in the stratosphere, known as the Brewer-Dobson Circulation, which transports O_3 from its primary source in the tropical stratosphere to higher latitudes.

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The destruction of stratospheric O_3 by the various chemical mechanisms discussed above, and many other possible mechanisms not discussed here, are not simply additive because the species in one cycle can react with those in another.

Therefore, *advanced numerical models* that consider all the known suspects must be used to unravel the relative importance of the various mechanisms for destroying O_3 in the stratosphere.

This task is complicated further by the fact that concentrations of many of the prime suspects are changing with time due to anthropogenic emissions. This task is complicated further by the fact that concentrations of many of the prime suspects are changing with time due to anthropogenic emissions.

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Most of the catalytic reactions that have been proposed for the removal of stratospheric odd oxygen are of the form

 $\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{O_3} \, \rightarrow \, \mathbf{XO} + \mathbf{O_2} \\ \mathbf{XO} + \mathbf{O} \, \rightarrow \, \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{O_2} \end{array}$

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Net: $O + O_3 \rightarrow 2O_2$

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If the concentration of catalyst X is increased significantly by anthropogenic activities, the balance between the sources and sinks of atmospheric O_3 will be disturbed and stratospheric O_3 concentrations can be expected to decrease. One of the first concerns in this respect was a proposal in the 1970s to create a fleet of supersonic aircraft flying in the stratosphere. This is because aircraft engines emit nitric oxide (NO), which can decrease odd oxygen. One of the first concerns in this respect was a proposal in the 1970s to create a fleet of supersonic aircraft flying in the stratosphere. This is because aircraft engines emit nitric oxide (NO), which can decrease odd oxygen.

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However, the proposed fleet of supersonic aircraft was rejected on both environmental (?) and economic grounds.

Of much greater concern, with documented impacts, is the catalytic action of chlorine, from industrially manufactured *chlorofluorocarbons* (CFCs), in depleting stratospheric ozone.

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- Compounds containing H, Cl, F, and C are called hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs).
- HFCs and HCFCs are considered to be more "environmentally friendly" than CFCs because they are partially destroyed by OH in the troposphere.

CFC-11 (CFCl₃) and CFC-12 (CF₂Cl₂) are the most common CFCs. CFCs were first synthesized in 1928, as the result of a search for a nontoxic, nonflammable refrigerant.

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Concern about the effects of CFCs on the atmosphere began in 1973 when it was found that they were spreading globally and, because of their inertness, were expected to have residence times of up to several hundred years in the troposphere. Concern about the effects of CFCs on the atmosphere began in 1973 when it was found that they were spreading globally and, because of their inertness, were expected to have residence times of up to several hundred years in the troposphere.

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$$\mathbf{CFCl}_3 + h\nu \rightarrow \mathbf{CFCl}_2 + \mathbf{Cl}$$

and

 $\mathbf{CF_2Cl_2} + h\nu \to \mathbf{CF_2Cl} + \mathbf{Cl}$

The chlorine atom released by these reactions can serve as the catalyst X and destroy odd oxygen in the cycle

 $\begin{array}{l} Cl+O_3 \ \rightarrow \ ClO+O_2 \\ ClO+O \ \rightarrow \ Cl+O_2 \end{array}$

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In 1990, $\sim 85\%$ of the chlorine in the stratosphere originated from anthropogenic sources. Because CFCs absorb strongly in the infrared, they are also significant greenhouse gases.

In 1985, British scientists, who had been making groundbased, remote sensing measurements of O_3 at Halley Bay (76°S) in the Antarctic for many years, reported that there had been about a 30% decrease in total O_3 column abundance each October (i.e., in the austral spring) since 1977.

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These observations were subsequently confirmed by remote sensing measurements from satellite and by airborne in situ measurements.

Shown in the next Figure are a series of satellite measurements of the total O_3 column in the southern hemisphere.



Satellite observations of the total ozone column (DU) in the southern hemisphere during October for eight years from 1970-2002.

The Antarctic ozone hole, as it came to be called, is apparent in the lower four images in the Figure as the anomalously low O_3 values (blue) over the continent in October from 1999-2002.

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The areal extent of the Antarctic ozone hole, derived from satellite measurements for the period September 7 to October 13 1979-2002 are shown next.

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The areal extent of the Antarctic ozone hole, derived from satellite measurements for the period September 7 to October 13 1979-2002 are shown next.

From 1979 to 2001 the ozone hole grew progressively until it occupied an area (\sim 25 million km²) similar to that of North America.



Average areal extent of the ozone hole (<220 DU) from September 7-October 13, 1979-2003.

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Paul Crutzen, Mario Molina, and Sherwood Rowland were awarded the Nobel Prize in Chemistry in 1995 for their explanation of stratospheric O_3 loss by CFCs and nitrogencontaining gases.

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High-level clouds, called polar stratospheric clouds (PSCs), form in the cold core of the vortex, where temperatures can fall below -80° C.

In the austral spring, as temperatures rise, the winds around the vortex weaken, and by November the vortex disappears.
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There are also sharp decreases in the oxides of nitrogen and water vapour when passing from the outside to the inside of the vortex collar.

These decreases are due, respectively, to the formation of nitric acid (HNO_3), and to the condensation of water at the very low temperatures inside the vortex.

Type I PSCs. These probably consist of a mixture of liquid and solid particles of nitric acid trihydrate $[HNO_3(H_2O)_3 - NAT$ for short], water and sulfuric acid, which condense at about -78° C. These particles are $\sim 1 \,\mu$ m in diameter, so they sediment very slowly ($\sim 10 \,\mathrm{m}$ per day).

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Type II PSCs. These consist of a mixture of ice and water together with some dissolved HNO₃, form near ~ 85° C. Since these particles are > $10 \,\mu$ m in diameter, they settle out with appreciable speeds (~1.5 km per day).

Type III PSCs. These "mother-of-pearl" clouds are produced by the rapid freezing of condensed water in air flow over topography. However, they are of limited extent and duration and do not form over the South Pole.



Schematic of the polar vortex (blue) over Antarctica.

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 $\begin{array}{l} ClONO_2(g) + HCl(s) \ \rightarrow \ Cl_2(g) + HNO_3(s) \\ ClONO_2(g) + H_2O(s) \ \rightarrow \ HOCl(g) + HNO_3(s) \\ HOCl(g) + HCl(s) \ \rightarrow \ Cl_2(g) + H_2O(s) \\ N_2O_5(g) + H_2O(s) \ \rightarrow \ 2HNO_3(s) \\ N_2O_5(g) + HCl(s) \ \rightarrow \ ClNO_2(g) + HNO_3(s) \end{array}$

[(s) indicates those compounds that are on (or in) ice particles, and (g) indicates species that are released as gases.] The above reactions convert the reservoir species $ClONO_2$ and HCl into Cl_2 , HOCl and $ClNO_2$. The above reactions convert the reservoir species $ClONO_2$ and HCl into Cl_2 , HOCl and $ClNO_2$.

When the Sun rises in the Antarctic spring, these three species are photolyzed rapidly to produce Cl and ClO

 $\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Cl_2} + h\nu &\to \mathbf{2Cl} \\ \mathbf{HOCl} + h\nu &\to \mathbf{OH} + \mathbf{Cl} \\ \mathbf{ClNO_2} + h\nu &\to \mathbf{Cl} + \mathbf{NO_2} \end{aligned}$

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Ozone is then destroyed efficiently by

 $\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{ClO} + \mathbf{ClO} + \mathbf{M} \ \rightarrow \ (\mathbf{ClO})_2 + \mathbf{M} \\ (\mathbf{ClO})_2 + h\nu \ \rightarrow \ \mathbf{Cl} + \mathbf{ClOO} \\ \mathbf{ClOO} + \mathbf{M} \ \rightarrow \ \mathbf{Cl} + \mathbf{O}_2 + \mathbf{M} \\ \mathbf{2Cl} + \mathbf{2O}_3 \ \rightarrow \ \mathbf{2ClO} + \mathbf{2O}_2 \end{array}$

Net: $2O_3 + h\nu \rightarrow 3O_2$



Schematic of the polar vortex (blue) over Antarctica. Again!

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- The dimer (ClO)₂ is formed only at low temperatures. Low enough temperatures are present in the Antarctic stratosphere before the Spring.



Schematic to illustrate the time evolution of the main processes associated with the development of the Antarctic ozone hole. (a) The polar vortex. (b) Chlorine species.

(c) Ozone.

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In 2003, which was a cold year, the ozone hole returned to its earlier extent of ~ 25 million square kilometers.

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Although the conditions that produce severe loss of ozone in the Antarctic are not as common in the Arctic, the total ozone column in the Arctic spring has, on average, decreased over the past two decades.

However, prior to the winter of 1995–96 there was not a stratospheric ozone hole in the Arctic comparable to that in the Antarctic.

During the northern winter of 1996–97, the longest lasting polar vortex on record developed over the Arctic, and in March 1997 the average ozone column over the Arctic (354 DU) was the lowest in 20 prior years of observations. During the northern winter of 1996–97, the longest lasting polar vortex on record developed over the Arctic, and in March 1997 the average ozone column over the Arctic (354 DU) was the lowest in 20 prior years of observations.

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In the winter of 1999–2000 the average total ozone column in March poleward of $63^{\circ}N$ was lower by ~ 75 DU than the average climatological value, and these low values continued through 2003.
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No trends in total column ozone were observed in the tropics $(25^{\circ}N-25^{\circ}S)$ during the period 1980–2000.



Average ozone columns between latitudes $63^{\circ} - 90^{\circ}$ for the northern hemisphere in March and the southern hemisphere in October.

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However, due to the long lifetimes of CFCs, the concentrations of Cl in the stratosphere are expected to continue to rise for some time.

Therefore, it is predicted that the O_3 layer will not completely recover until about the middle of the 21^{st} century.

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The *Copenhagen Amendment* (1992) called for the complete elimination of CFCs by 1996, and the *Vienna Amendment* (1995) called for the complete elimination of HCFCs by 2020.

An Interesting Historical Review

For an interesting review of the emergence of evidence on the ozone hole in the Antarctic, see the article:

> Data Collection and the Ozone Hole: Too much of a Good Thing? Maureen Christie, *Proc. ICHM*, 1.1 (2004). On course website.