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eprints@whiterose.ac.uk https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/ <sup>3</sup> Dynamical Mechanisms for the Recent Ozone Depletion in
 <sup>4</sup> the Arctic Stratosphere Linked to North Pacific Sea Surface
 <sup>5</sup> Temperatures

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### 7 Abstract

The stratospheric ozone layer, which prevents solar ultraviolet radiation from reaching 8 9 the surface and thereby protects life on earth, is expected to recover from past depletion during this century due to the impact of the Montreal Protocol. However, how the ozone 10 column over the Arctic will evolve over the next few decades is still under debate. In 11 this study, we found that the ozone level in the Arctic stratosphere at 100-150 hPa 12 during 1998–2018 exhibits a decreasing trend of -0.12±0.07 ppmv decade<sup>-1</sup> from 13 MERRA2, suggesting a continued depletion during this century. About 30% of this 14 ozone depletion is contributed by the second leading mode of sea surface temperature 15 anomalies (SSTAs) over the North Pacific with one month leading and therefore is 16 dynamical in origin. The North Pacific SSTAs associated with this mode tend to result 17 in a weakened Aleutian low, a strengthened Western Pacific pattern and a weakened 18 19 Pacific-North American pattern, which impede the upward propagation of wavenumber-1 waves into the lower stratosphere. The changes in the stratospheric 20 wave activity may result in decreased ozone in the Arctic lower stratosphere through 21 22 weakening the Brewer-Dobson circulation. Our findings uniquely linked the recent ozone depletion in the Arctic stratosphere to the North Pacific SSTs and might provide 23 new understanding of how dynamical processes control Arctic stratospheric ozone. 24

#### 25 1. Introduction

26 Stratospheric ozone, which comprises about 90% of the total amounts present in the Earth's atmosphere, is a radiatively and chemically active gas that shields the Earth 27 from harmful solar ultraviolet radiation (WMO, 2018). In the stratosphere, ozone 28 changes can alter the temperature and its gradient via radiative effects (Ramaswamy, 29 2001) and modify the circulation and wave activity via radiative-dynamical feedbacks 30 (Hu & Tung, 2003; Eyring et al., 2007; Hu et al., 2015). Some studies have shown that 31 32 depletion of stratospheric ozone during the austral summer may result in the poleward 33 shift of the mid-latitude jet (e.g., Thompson et al., 2011; Son et al., 2018), widening of the Hadley circulation (Son et al., 2010), an increase in subtropical precipitation (Kang 34 et al., 2011) and the poleward extension of the subtropical dry zones (Polvani et al., 35 2011) in the Southern Hemisphere. Ozone depletion over the Arctic may also affect sea-36 level pressure (SLP), temperature, and precipitation in most parts of the Northern 37 Hemisphere (NH) (Calvo et al., 2015; Ivy et al., 2017), even the sea surface temperature 38 anomalies (SSTAs) over tropical Pacific SSTs including El Niño-Southern Oscillation 39 (ENSO) (Xie et al., 2017), though Harari et al. (2019) suggested that the Arctic 40 stratospheric ozone may be not the proximate cause of the impacts on the surface over 41 polar and tropical latitudes. 42

As the rapid increase in anthropogenic emissions of ozone depleting substances (ODSs) peaked in the mid-1990s (Weatherhead & Andersen, 2006), the globally averaged column ozone showed a negative trend from the late 1970s to the late 1990s

46	(WMO, 2007). With the observed decrease in ODSs in the atmosphere from the 1990s
47	under the impact of the Montreal Protocol and its amendments (Chipperfield, 2015),
48	numerical studies indicated that ozone concentrations in the upper stratosphere will
49	recover due to the decreased ODSs (WMO, 2018). Chemistry-climate models predicted
50	that ozone will recover to the levels of pre-1980 around 2050 (e.g., Weatherhead &
51	Andersen, 2006). Bednarz et al. (2016) further reported that the ozone in the NH may
52	recover to 1980 levels by about 2030-2040. Results from Chemistry-Climate Model
53	Initiative (CCMI) simulations project under a Representative Concentration Pathway
54	(RCP) of 6.0 showed that the column ozone will return to 1980 values in 2032 (2020-
55	2044) at mid-latitudes but in 2034 (2025–2043) at high-latitudes in the NH (Dhomse et
56	al., 2018).

57 Datasets from National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) and National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) satellites show that ozone 58 in the mid- and upper stratosphere increased slowly during 2000-2016 (Steinbrech et 59 60 al., 2017). However, some studies have suggested that there was no significant trend in the ozone levels in the lower stratosphere from 1984 to 2011 (Tummon et al., 2015) or 61 62 from 1995 to 2013 (Cohen et al., 2018). Some other studies reported that the ozone concentrations derived from merged datasets in the lower stratosphere between 40°S-63 40°N after 1997 (Bourassa et al., 2014) and between 60°S-60°N after 1998 (e.g., Ball 64 et al., 2018, 2020; Wargan et al., 2018) were still decreasing. Given the declining ODS 65 66 concentrations, extensive research, vigorous debate and a number of papers tried to refine the results and propose potential mechanisms after the continuing decline of the 67

lower stratospheric ozone in the 21<sup>st</sup> century was first found by Ball et al. (2018). While 68 these above-mentioned studies focused on tropical and midlatitudinal ozone trends, the 69 result on the ozone over the Arctic is still unclear. Note that there has been a significant 70 chemical depletion of ozone during some Arctic cold stratospheric winters during the 71 past two decades (Tilmes et al., 2004; Manney et al., 2015). For example, the magnitude 72 of the reduction in ozone concentrations over the Arctic observed during the late winter 73 and early spring in 2011 was comparable with that over the Antarctic (e.g., Manney et 74 al., 2011; Hurwitz et al., 2011). The lowest observed ozone levels in the Arctic occurred 75 76 in 2020, which covered an area about three times the size of Greenland (e.g., Witze, 2020; Dameris et al., 2020; Innes et al., 2020; Lawrence et al., 2020; Manney et al., 77 2020; Wohltmann et al., 2020; Xia et al., 2021). The above mentioned numerical and 78 79 observational results point to two elements: the apparent negative trends over the past two decades constitute a new and intriguing result and large variability is a confounding 80 factor in trend estimation. 81

82 Stratospheric ozone is not only affected by chemical processes related to ODSs (Rex et al., 2004), but is also modulated by SSTs via dynamical processes (e.g., Hu et 83 al., 2014). Some studies suggested that SSTs in the North Pacific have significant 84 impacts on the stratospheric Arctic vortex (e.g., Hurwitz et al., 2012; Hu et al., 2018). 85 Hu et al. (2018) reported that the warming over the central North Pacific may lead to a 86 strengthening of the stratospheric vortex over the Arctic during the boreal winter. Other 87 88 studies revealed that the Arctic vortex in the stratosphere is related to the concentrations of ozone there (e.g., Hu et al., 2015). Polar vortices in cold years would have increased 89

polar stratospheric clouds (PSCs) occurrence, on the surface of which chlorine-90 activating heterogeneous reactions occur, further reducing the ozone (Solomon et al., 91 92 1994; Chipperfield et al., 1999; Daniel et al., 1999). Strength of the polar vortex during boreal winter is partly controlled by wave driving (e.g., Newman et al., 2001; Hu et al., 93 2018). The stronger and more variable wave driving can affect the ozone concentrations 94 by both ozone transport (i.e., dynamical resupply) and chemical depletion (e.g., Strahan 95 et al., 2016), i.e., stronger (weaker) wave driving is closely associated with increased 96 (decreased) ozone by dynamical resupply and increased (decreased) ozone by reducing 97 98 (increasing) ozone loss. A question therefore arises about whether the ozone concentrations in the stratosphere over the Arctic are affected by the SSTs over the 99 North Pacific and how can these SSTs affect stratospheric ozone. 100

101 To answer the above questions, the reanalysis, observational datasets and a chemical transport model (CTM) are used to investigate the trends in ozone 102 concentrations over the Arctic in the lower stratosphere during 1998–2018 and provide 103 a dynamical mechanism. Our results show that the ozone has declined during this period, 104 which can be ascribed to the second leading mode of the SSTAs over the North Pacific 105 or the Victoria mode, the low-frequency variability in the SSTAs over the North Pacific 106 that cannot be explained by the Pacific decadal oscillation alone (Bond et al., 2003; 107 Ding et al., 2015). The SSTAs over the North Pacific associated with the Victoria mode 108 influence stratospheric ozone through reducing the upward propagation of the 109 110 wavenumber-1 wave in the extratropical stratosphere, weakening the Brewer-Dobson circulation (BDC). The recent depletion of ozone in the Arctic lower stratosphere and 111

its links to the North Pacific SSTs suggest that some potential dynamical processes play
a key role in the stratospheric ozone variations over the Arctic, not only the ODSs
controlled by the Montreal Protocol and the associated chemical processes. It is worth
clarifying that a trend of two decades could reflect decadal variability that is likely to
reverse going forward.

### 117 2. Data, numerical experiments and methods

118 **2.1 Datasets** 

The monthly mean datasets of temperature, winds, geopotential height, SLP, and 119 120 ozone during 1980-2018 from Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for Research and Applications version 2 (MERRA2) (Gelaro et al. 2017) are used in this study. Because 121 the observations assimilated in reanalysis over the course of many decades are highly 122 non-homogeneous, changes in input data can and do lead to significant discontinuities 123 in all assimilated fields (e.g., Davis et al., 2017; Wargan et al. 2018). Following the 124 method in Wargan et al. (2018), we have removed the discontinuities of MERRA2 125 reanalysis by step changes using the results from the reference run in 126 TOMCAT/SLIMCAT (hereafter TOMCAT, described in section 2.2) (Chipperfield et 127 al., 2006) as a transfer function standard. And the results suggested that the 128 discontinuities of MERRA2 are not an issue in the regions of 65°–90°N and 100–150 129 hPa we focused on (figure not shown). Wargan et al. (2018) have demonstrated that the 130 ozone record from MERRA2 can be homogenized allowing reliable trend calculations. 131 132 We also used the monthly mean ozone datasets from European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts fifth generation atmospheric reanalyses (ERA5) 133

134	(Hersbach et al. 2019), Global OZone Chemistry And Related trace gas Data records
135	for the Stratosphere (GOZCARDS) (Froidevaux et al. 2015), partial column ozone field
136	from Solar Backscattered Ultraviolet (SBUV) (Kramarova et al. 2013; Bhartia et al.
137	2013), Stratospheric Water and OzOne Satellite Homogenized (SWOOSH) (Davis et al.
138	2016), Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS) (Schwartz et al. 2021). The SST data from the
139	Extended Reconstructed Sea Surface Temperature V5 (Huang et al. 2017) was used.
140	The description of above data sources is listed in Table 1.

141 **Table 1.** Description of the data sources used in this work.

Datasets	Download websites	References
MERRA2	https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets/M2IMNPASM_V5	Gelaro et al. (2017)
	.12.4/summary?keywords=merra-2	
ERA5	https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/rea	Hersbach et al. (2019)
	nalysis-era5-pressure-levels-monthly-	
	means?tab=form	
GOZCARDS	https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets/GozSmlpO3_V1	Froidevaux et al. (2015)
SBUV	https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets/SBUV2N09L3zm_	Kramarova et al. (2013);
	V1	Bhartia et al. (2013)
SWOOSH	http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/csd/groups/csd8/swoosh/	Davis et al. (2016)
MLS	https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets/ML3MBO3_005/s	Schwartz et al. (2021)
	ummary?keywords=MLS	
ERSST V5	https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/gridded/data.noaa	Huang et al. (2017)
	.ersst.v5.html	

142 **2.2 Model and simulations** 

We also used a three dimensional (3D) chemical transport model TOMCAT/SLIMCAT (hereafter TOMCAT) (Chipperfield, 2006). This model has a good description of chemistry for both the troposphere and stratosphere, which include the heterogeneous reactions on sulfate aerosols and liquid/solid polar stratospheric clouds (Chipperfield et al., 2018a) as well as chemistry reactions of the oxygen, nitrogen, hydrogen, chlorine and bromine families (Grooss et al., 2018). More details about TOMCAT can be found in Chipperfield et al. (2018a).

Two experiments have been designed. Both simulations were forced by the 150 temperature and winds fields from European Centre for Medium-Range Weather 151 Forecasts ERA-Interim reanalysis (Dee et al., 2011). The model has a horizontal 152 resolution of  $2.8^{\circ} \times 2.8^{\circ}$  and the vertical levels from the surface up to ~60 km 153 (Chipperfield, 2006). The only difference between the reference run and sensitivity run 154 (ODSfix) (Feng et al., 2021) is that the ODSs after year 1995 are fixed in the sensitivity 155 run but are time-varying in the reference run. The ODSs in the experiments are obtained 156 157 from WMO (2018).

### 158 **2.3 Methods**

As the BDC is a Lagrangian mean circulation, approximated by the residual mean meridional circulation of the transformed Eulerian-mean equations (Dunkerton 1978), the various processes that can influence the ozone could be separated into the ozone advection by the BDC or mean ozone transport, the large-scale eddy transport, and the chemical net production term (Garcia and Solomon, 1983). The zonal mean ozone tracer continuity equation in the transformed Eulerian-mean formulation in spherical geometry following Garcia and Solomon (1983), is as follows:

166 
$$\frac{\partial \bar{\chi}}{\partial t} = -\frac{\bar{v}^*}{a} \frac{\partial \bar{\chi}}{\partial \varphi} - \bar{w}^* \frac{\partial \bar{\chi}}{\partial z} - \frac{1}{\rho_0} \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{M} + \bar{S}$$
(1)

167 
$$\bar{v}^* = \bar{v} - \frac{1}{\rho_0} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left( \rho_0 \frac{\overline{v'\theta'}}{\overline{\theta_z}} \right) ; \quad \overline{w}^* = \overline{w} + \frac{1}{\operatorname{acos}\varphi} \frac{\partial}{\partial \varphi} \left( \cos\varphi \frac{\overline{v'\theta'}}{\overline{\theta_z}} \right)$$
(2)

168 
$$\boldsymbol{M}^{(\varphi)} = \rho_0 \left( \overline{\nu' \chi'} - \frac{\overline{\nu' \theta'}}{\overline{\theta_z}} \frac{\partial \overline{\chi}}{\partial z} \right) ; \ \boldsymbol{M}^{(z)} = \rho_0 \left( \overline{\omega' \chi'} + \frac{1}{a} \frac{\overline{\nu' \theta'}}{\overline{\theta_z}} \frac{\partial \overline{\chi}}{\partial \varphi} \right)$$
(3)

169 where  $\bar{\chi}$  is the zonal mean ozone concentration,  $\bar{\nu}^*$  and  $\bar{w}^*$  calculated as Eq. (2) are 170 the BDC's meridional and vertical velocities, respectively, defined by Andrews et al.

(1987).  $\overline{S}$  is the chemical net production of ozone. The variables v and w are the 171 meridional and vertical winds, respectively,  $\theta$  is the potential temperature, a is the 172 Earth's radius,  $\rho_0$  is air density, t,  $\varphi$  and z are time, latitude, and height, 173 respectively. The overbars represent the zonal mean and the primes denote the departure 174 from the zonal mean. The first and second terms on the right-hand side of Eq. (1) 175 represent the advection of ozone by the BDC and the mean ozone transport. The eddy 176 flux M is defined in Eq. (3) by Garcia and Solomon (1983) and represents the ozone 177 flux related to the eddies caused by the wave component.  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{M}$  is the eddy flux (**M**) 178 179 divergence. So the third term in Eq. (1) represents the ozone caused by the large-scale eddy transport. The fourth term  $\overline{S}$  in Eq. (1) represents the chemical net production of 180 181 ozone.

The linear trends and their statistical significance were estimated with the Sen median slope (Sen 1968) and the Mann–Kendall (Kendall 1975) method, respectively, since the nonparametric methods are less sensitive to outliers. In addition, the two-tailed Student's *t* test is used to test the statistical significance of the regression and correlation coefficients between two auto-correlated time series. The effective number of degrees of freedom  $N^{eff}$  is expressed below as Pyper and Peterman (1998):

188 
$$\frac{1}{N^{eff}} = \frac{1}{N} + \frac{2}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \frac{N-j}{N} \rho_{XX}(j) \rho_{YY}(j)$$
(4)

189 where *N* is the sample size and  $\rho_{XX}(j)$  and  $\rho_{YY}(j)$  are the auto-correlations of the 190 two sampled time series *X* and *Y* at time lag *j*, respectively.

### 191 **3.** Decreasing trend in the ozone over the Arctic in the lower stratosphere

Ivy et al. (2017) suggested that changes in the stratospheric ozone in March is a 192 useful indicator for the climate anomalies in the troposphere in the NH. Xie et al. (2017) 193 further revealed that changes in the stratospheric ozone over the Arctic has strongest 194 linkage between the SSTs over the North Pacific in April. These previous studies 195 suggested the importance of the stratospheric ozone over the Arctic in March. Figure 1 196 displays the trends in the zonal mean ozone concentrations in March derived from 197 MERRA2 reanalysis and reference simulation in TOMCAT during 1998-2018. 198 Downward trends in the March zonal mean ozone mixing ratios are observed in the 199 200 lower stratosphere over the Arctic during the period 1998–2018 in MERRA2 (Fig. 1a), ERA5 (Fig. 1b), and TOMCAT (Chipperfield, 2006) (Fig. 1c), with the largest negative 201 trends occurring in the subpolar regions 50°–70°N at 100–150 hPa. The negative trends 202 203 during 1998–2018 from MERRA2 and ERA5 can also be observed during different periods with the start year shifted several points earlier or later (figure not shown). 204 Therefore, the negative ozone trend in the lower stratosphere (100-150 hPa) over the 205 206 Arctic is not much influenced by the samples in some unusual years and is persistent during 1998–2018. The time series of ozone averaged over 65°–90°N from 100–150 207 hPa (hereafter  $O_{3 ALS}$ ) during 1998–2018 (Fig. 1d) also shows statistically significant 208 negative trends of -0.12±0.07 ppmv decade<sup>-1</sup> from MERRA2 and -0.07±0.06 ppmv 209 decade<sup>-1</sup> from TOMCAT, respectively. Also, the year-to-year variability of ozone in 210 the lower stratosphere over the Arctic from MERRA2 and TOMCAT (Fig. 1d) can be 211 212 observed clearly and is highly consistent, with a correlation coefficient r equals to 0.87, significant above the 95% confidence level. Moreover, the levels of ozone from 213







**Figure 1.** (a–c) Trends (units: ppmv decade<sup>-1</sup>) in the zonal mean ozone concentrations

in March derived from the (a) MERRA2 reanalysis, (b) ERA5 reanalysis, and (c)
reference simulation from TOMCAT during 1998–2018. Stippled regions represent the
values significant at/above the 90% confidence level. (d) Time series of ozone
concentrations averaged over 65°–90°N and 100–150 hPa derived from different
databases in March. The black and red straight lines represent the linear trends of ozone
concentrations from MERRA2 and reference run in TOMCAT, respectively.

Note that the negative trends in the lower stratospheric ozone over the Arctic from 233 MERRA2 and TOMCAT are also observed during the period 1980-1997, which is 234 shown in Fig. 2. The statistically significant decreasing ozone trends at high-latitude 235 before 1980–1997 indicate a depletion of Arctic stratospheric ozone, consistent with 236 previous studies (WMO, 2018). However, the negative ozone trends at high-latitude in 237 the lower stratosphere during 1980–1997 (Fig. 2) are larger than those during 1998– 238 2018 (Fig. 1), which is possibly because of the decreased ODSs during the latter period 239 (WMO, 2018). Previous studies revealed that the concentration of stratospheric ozone 240 from 1979 to mid-1990s exhibits a significant decreasing trend, and it is expected to 241 recover to the level of pre-1980 around the middle of this century under the impacts of 242 Montreal Protocol and its Amendments (e.g., Weatherhead & Andersen, 2006; WMO, 243 2018). However, the observations and simulation (Fig. 1) presented here all show a 244 245 continued decreasing trend in the levels of ozone in the lower stratosphere over the Arctic after the 2000s, which suggests that the levels of ozone in this region have not 246 247 started to recover as expected, but the downward trend after the 2000s is slightly smaller because of the deceasing ODS levels. This is consistent with the results in Garfinkel et 248

249 al. (2015).

250



Figure 2. Trends (units: ppmv decade<sup>-1</sup>) in the ozone concentrations during 1980–1997
in March from (a) MERRA2 and (b) TOMCAT. Stippled areas represent the values
at/above 95% level of confidence.

To further verify the role of ODSs played in the ozone trends after the 2000s, the 254 255 sensitivity experiment in which ODSs are fixed after the 1995 has been designed. More details are provided in Section 2.2. Figure 3 gives the trends in the zonal mean ozone 256 concentrations in March from reference run and ODSfix run in TOMCAT during 1998-257 2018. The trends in ozone concentration in the stratosphere over the Arctic in two 258 simulations are both statistically significantly negative, with smaller negative trends in 259 reference run (Fig. 3a) but larger negative trends in ozone in ODSfix run (Fig. 3b). This 260 261 smaller negative trend in ozone between the sensitivity and reference simulations in TOMCAT (Fig. 3) not only confirms the role of decreased ODSs after mid 1990s, but
also suggests that some other processes might also influence the trends in ozone over
the Arctic in the stratosphere.



Figure 3. Trends (units: ppmv decade<sup>-1</sup>) in the zonal mean ozone concentrations in March derived from TOMCAT during 1998–2018, (a) reference run and (b) ODSfix run. Stippled regions represent the values statistically significant at/above the 90% confidence level. (c) Time series of  $O_{3\_ALS}$  from two simulations in March. The black and red straight lines represent the linear trends of ozone concentrations from reference and sensitivity runs, respectively.

### 4. Connections between the Arctic ozone and North Pacific SSTAs

The factors that affect the stratospheric ozone concentrations include the ODSs 273 through chemical reactions (e.g., Rex et al., 2004) and the SSTs via dynamical processes 274 (e.g., García-Herrera et al., 2006; Manzini et al., 2006; Hu et al., 2014). Previous studies 275 suggested the delayed impacts of tropical SSTs on the stratosphere (e.g., García-Herrera 276 et al., 2006; Manzini et al., 2006) and a significant impact of the North Pacific SSTAs 277 on the stratospheric polar vortex (e.g., Hurwitz et al., 2012; Hu et al., 2018). However, 278 the connection between the lower stratospheric ozone over the Arctic and the SSTAs 279 280 over the North Pacific is still unclear. Figure 4 shows the regressed SSTAs over the North Pacific in February based on the normalized  $O_{3 ALS}$  index during 1980–2018 in 281 March. From Fig. 4a, the SSTAs exhibit a northeast-southwest-oriented dipole pattern, 282 283 i.e., the band of positive anomalous values that extends from the coast of California across the Pacific to the western Bering Sea, and the band of negative anomalous values 284 from the central North Pacific to the coast of Asia. This pattern resembles the spatial 285 286 pattern of the second leading mode of the SSTAs over the North Pacific (Bond et al., 2003; Ding et al., 2015). Following Bond et al. (2003), we adopted the monthly North 287 Pacific (100° E-100.5° W, 20.5-65.5° N) SSTAs during 1980-2018 in February to 288 perform an Empirical Orthogonal Function (EOF) reanalysis. Its second EOF mode 289 290 (EOF2) (Fig. 4b) resembles the pattern of the second leading mode of the North Pacific SSTAs or Victoria mode (Bond et al., 2003; Ding et al., 2015), accounting for 18.7% of 291 292 the total variance. As expected, the pattern of the regressed SSTAs over the North Pacific in February based on the normalized  $O_{3 ALS}$  index in March (Fig. 4a) is similar 293

294	to that of the EOF2 of North Pacific SSTAs (Fig. 4b), appearing as a Victoria-like mode.
295	This suggests that ozone levels over the Arctic in the lower stratosphere in March are
296	possibly related to the SSTAs over the North Pacific associated with the Victoria mode
297	in February. It would be interesting to understand the role of ENSO, because of its
298	impacts on the stratospheric polar vortex (e.g., Sassi et al. 2004; Manzini et al., 2006;
299	Garfinkel and Hartmann 2008; Xie et al., 2012; 2014; Rao and Ren 2016). However,
300	there are no significant trends in the Multivariate ENSO Index index from 1998 to 2018
301	in March and the SSTAs related to the stratospheric ozone over the Arctic are
302	statistically insignificant over the tropical Pacific Ocean (figure not shown). It implies
303	that ENSO might be not a dominant role in modulating the trends in the stratospheric
304	ozone over the Arctic after 1998.



305

Figure 4. (a) Regression of SSTAs (unit: K) over the North Pacific in February on the normalized  $O_{3\_ALS}$  index in March during 1980–2018. The dotted values are significant at/above the 90% confidence level. (b) EOF2 of the North Pacific SSTAs (20.5–65.5°N, 100°E–100.5°W) in February during 1980–2018. The top-right value is the explained variations of EOF2. Time series of the normalized  $PC2_{SST}$  (red line) and  $O_{3\_ALS} \times (-1)$  (black line) is shown in (c).

To verify the impacts of the SSTAs over the North Pacific associated with the Victoria mode on the ozone over the Arctic in the stratosphere in March, we also calculated the correlations between the normalized  $O_{3\_ALS}$  index in March and the second principal component ( $PC2_{SST}$ ) of North Pacific SSTAs in October–March that leads the  $O_{3\_ALS}$  by 5 to 0 months, shown in Table 2. The results show that the highest and statistically significant correlation of  $PC2_{SST}$  with  $O_{3\_ALS}$  in March occurs in February ( $PC2_{SST}$  leads  $O_{3\_ALS}$  by one-month), suggesting that changes in the SSTAs over North Pacific associated with the Victoria mode in February may influence ozone in the Arctic lower stratosphere.

Table 2. Correlations of  $O_{3\_ALS}$  in March during 1998–2018 with  $PC2_{SST}$  in October, November and December during 1997–2017, January, February, and March during 1998–2018, respectively.  $PC2_{SST}$  leads  $O_{3\_ALS}$  in March during 1998–2018 by 5 to 0 months. Values with asterisks are for those at/above 95% confidence level.

Correlations	October	November	December	January	February	March
O <sub>3_ALS</sub>	-0.08	-0.01	0.19	0.38	0.46*	0.35

325

326 An in-phase relationship between the  $PC2_{SST}$  in February and  $O_{3ALS} \times (-1)$  (here the negative  $O_{3_{ALS}}$  is used for purposes of visualization) (Fig. 4c) can clearly be seen, 327 and the correlation coefficient between  $PC2_{SST}$  and  $O_{3 ALS}$  is -0.40 during 1980-328 2018 and -0.47 during 1998-2018, respectively, with both values significant at/above 329 the 95% confidence level. Note that the correlation coefficient between these two 330 indices is only -0.27 during 1980-1997, which is insignificant at the 90% confidence 331 level. Similar results can be seen in TOMCAT data (figure not shown). This implies 332 that there is an out-of-phase linkage between the lower-stratospheric ozone over the 333

Arctic and SSTAs associated with the Victoria mode, but that this out-of-phase relationship is much stronger during 1998–2018. The interannual correlation between lower-stratospheric ozone over the Arctic and North Pacific SSTAs suggests that the decreasing Arctic lower stratospheric ozone trends during 1998–2018 (Fig. 1) are connected to the trends in the North Pacific SSTAs associated with the Victoria mode. The linear trend in  $PC2_{SST}$  during 1998–2018 in February is consistent with the trend in  $O_{3_{aLS}} \times (-1)$  during 1998–2018 in March (Fig. 4c).

To quantify the contributions from different factors to ozone trends in the Arctic lower stratosphere, a multiple linear regression (MLR) was considered as follows:

343 
$$Ozone(\varphi, p, t) = \sum_{i=1}^{8} \alpha_i (\varphi, p) \cdot F_i(t) + residual$$

344 Where  $Ozone(\varphi, p, t)$  is the interannual variability of zonal mean ozone concentration in March. Here the interannual variability of one variable is obtained by 345 subjecting it to a seven-year high-pass Lanczos filter (Duchon 1979).  $\varphi$ , p, and t 346 represent the latitude, level, and time, respectively. Variables F<sub>1</sub>, F<sub>2</sub>, F<sub>3</sub>, F<sub>4</sub>, F<sub>5</sub>, F<sub>6</sub>, 347  $F_7$  and  $F_8$  denote the interannual variabilities of stratospheric aerosol depth at 550 nm 348 (SAD; SAD before 1990 the is downloaded from 349 350 https://data.giss.nasa.gov/modelforce/strataer/tau.line 2012.12.txt and after 1990 is from http://dx.doi.org/10.5065/D6S180JM), NPSST (represented by the PC2<sub>SST</sub> 351 index), multivariate **ENSO** index (NINO) 352 (https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/correlation/nina34.data), quasi-biennial 353 oscillation (QBO) index 30 hPa 354 at

(https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/correlation/qbo.data), solar cycle (SC, represented

by the 10.7 cm solar flux; https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/correlation/solar.data), 356 ice concentration (SIC) from HadISST 357 sea data (http://hadobs.metoffice.com/hadisst/data/download.html), CO2 concentration (from 358 the IPCC AR4 B1 scenarios, IPCC, 2007), and the tripole-like SSTAs over the North 359 Atlantic (NASST), respectively. Some studies revealed that the North Atlantic also 360 plays a role in the stratospheric Arctic vortex (e.g., Garfinkel et al., 2015; Hu et al., 361 2019). Figure 5 displays the trends in the SSTAs over the North Atlantic during 1998– 362 2018. The trends in the North Atlantic SSTAs during this period exhibit a tripole-like 363 364 pattern, with significant positive anomalies in the subtropical western North Atlantic and negative values in the tropical and subpolar eastern North Atlantic, which 365 resembles the SSTAs in previous studies (e.g., Rodwell et al., 1999; Sutton et al., 2000; 366 367 Czaja and Marshall, 2001; Peng et al., 2003). Therefore, a NASST index is defined as the SSTAs averaged over a southern box (35°-45°N, 50°W-70°W) minus that in a 368 northern box (50°-60°N, 20°W-40°W) according to Fig. 5. 369



Figure 5. Trends in the SSTAs (unit: K/decade) from ERSST V5 in (a) February and
(b) March during 1998–2018. The values over the stippled regions are statistically
significant at/above the 95% confidence level.

The trends in the ozone concentrations contributed from different factors are 374 estimated by the linear trends of  $\alpha_i(\varphi, p) \cdot Trend_{F_i}/Trend_{ozone}$ 375 (i = 1)1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8). As we focused on the trends in the ozone averaged over  $65^{\circ}$ -90°N 376 from 100–150 hPa during 1998–2018, the contributions of different factors to the lower 377 stratospheric ozone over the Arctic are calculated by the coefficient  $\alpha_i(\varphi, p)$  averaged 378 over 65°-90°N from 100-150 hPa multiplied by the trends in different factors over 379 ozone during 1998-2018. Figure 6 shows the contributions of the various factors 380 including solar cycle, QBO, ENSO, North Pacific SSTAs, CO<sub>2</sub>, sea ice, stratospheric 381 382 aerosol, and North Atlantic SSTAs to the recent decreasing trend in ozone. A key point here is that the North Pacific SSTAs associated with Victoria mode is the largest 383 contributor to the decreased ozone over the lower stratospheric Arctic after the 2000s, 384 385 which contributes ~30% to the decreased trend in the lower stratospheric ozone over the Arctic. 386



387

Figure 6. Contributions (%) from different factors (NASST, SAD, SIC, CO2, North Pacific SSTs, ENSO, QBO and SC) using the MLR equation to  $O_{3\_ALS}$  during 1998– 2016.

### 391 5. Dynamic mechanisms

We will now provide evidence for a causal mechanism linking the SSTAs 392 393 associated with the Victoria mode to the concentrations of lower-stratospheric ozone over the Arctic. The variability of the ozone in the upper stratosphere were shown to be 394 dominated by chemical processes, while ozone in the lower stratosphere is strongly 395 affected by dynamical processes (e.g., Douglass et al., 1985; Hartmann et al., 1981; 396 Wargan et al., 2018; Ball et al., 2020; Orbe et al., 2020). And the SSTAs over the North 397 Pacific were suggested to have significant effects on the stratospheric Arctic vortex via 398 399 dynamical processes (e.g., Hurwitz et al., 2012; Hu et al., 2018). Therefore, it is worthwhile to investigate the possible dynamical mechanisms affecting ozone 400 concentrations in the lower stratosphere over the Arctic in response to the North Pacific 401 SSTAs. 402

Figure 7 gives the trends in the geopotential height and horizontal winds at 200 403 and 500 hPa in March during 1998–2018. The geopotential height at both 200 and 500 404 405 hPa exhibits statistically significant positive trends north of 35°N in the North Pacific, along with anticyclonic trends in the horizonal winds (Figs. 7a-b). The regressed 406 407 anomalies in the geopotential height and horizontal winds at 200 and 500 hPa in March from MERRA2 based on the PC2<sub>SST</sub> in February during 1980–2018 (Figs. 7c–d) are 408 similar to the pattern of tropospheric circulation trends during 1998–2018 (Figs. 7a–b), 409 but the magnitudes of the anomalies in the geopotential height and horizontal winds 410 related to the North Pacific SSTAs are smaller than those of the trends. In response to 411 the second leading mode of North Pacific SSTAs, there are statistically significant 412

positive anomalies in the geopotential height at 200 hPa occurring in the north of 35°N 413 in the North Pacific, accompanied by anticyclonic anomalies in the horizontal winds 414 415 (Fig. 7c). The *PC2*<sub>SST</sub>-related geopotential height over the southwestern North Pacific exhibits negative anomalies accompanied with cyclonic horizontal wind anomalies. 416 417 The pattern of geopotential height over the North Pacific is consistent with that at 500 hPa (Fig. 7d), also similar to that of SST (Fig. 4b), which indicates a weakened Aleutian 418 low in response to  $PC2_{SST}$ . A previous study has revealed that the warming in the 419 central North Pacific corresponds to a weakened Aleutian low (Hu et al., 2018), 420 421 consistent with our result here. Tropospheric teleconnection patterns, such as the Western Pacific (WP) and Pacific-North American (PNA) patterns, can be 422 characterized by a deep Aleutian low (Wallance & Gutzler, 1981). The correlation 423 coefficients between the  $PC2_{SST}$  and WP, PNA teleconnection patterns at 200 hPa 424 following the definitions in Wallace and Gutzler (1981) are 0.43 and -0.37, respectively, 425 both above the 95% confidence level. This implies that in response to the positive 426 427 Victoria mode, the WP teleconnection pattern strengthens but the PNA teleconnection pattern weakens. 428



Figure 7. (a, b) Trends in the geopotential height (shading, m decade<sup>-1</sup>) and horizontal winds (vectors, only values above  $0.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  decade<sup>-1</sup> are shown) at (a) 200 hPa and (b) 500 hPa in March during 1998–2018. (c, d) Same as (a, b), but for the anomalies in the geopotential height (shading) and horizontal winds (vectors, only values above 0.5 m s<sup>-1</sup> are shown) at (a) 200 hPa and (b) 500 hPa in March obtained by the regression of the *PC2<sub>SST</sub>* in February during 1980–2018. Dotted regions represent the values statistically significant at the 90% confidence level.

The weakened Aleutian low, accompanied by the strengthened WP and weakened PNA patterns, may affect the wave activity in the stratosphere (Hu et al., 2018). Therefore, trends in the longitudinal and vertical structures of the wavenumber-1 and -2 components of geopotential height averaged over 45°N–75°N during 1998–2018 are shown in Figs. 8a–b. Trends in the zonal wavenumber-1 component are out-of-phase

with its climatologies, i.e., the positive (negative) trends are co-located with the 442 negative (positive) climatologies (Fig. 8a). Whereas the trends in the wavenumber-2 443 444 component are in-phase with its climatologies, exhibiting the positive trends co-located with the positive climatolgoies and negative trends co-located with the negative 445 climatologies (Fig. 8b). This suggests that the wavenumber-1 wave intensity during 446 1998-2018 weakens but the wavenumber-2 wave intensity during this period 447 strengthens, consistent with the results in Hu et al. (2019). Similar to the trend results, 448 anomalies in the longitudinal and vertical structure of the wavenumber-1 and -2 449 450 components of geopotential height in response to  $PC2_{SST}$  (Figs. 8c,d) exhibit positive (negative) anomalies in the zonal wavenumber-1 component of geopotential height that 451 co-locates with the negative (positive) climatologies (Fig. 8c), suggesting a weakened 452 453 wavenumber-1 planetary wave in response to the North Pacific SSTAs. However, anomalies in the wavenumber-2 component of geopotential height are in-phase with its 454 climatologies (Fig. 8d), implying a strengthened wavenumber-2 planetary wave in 455 456 response to the positive Victoria mode phases.





Figure 8. (a, b) Trends (shading, m decade<sup>-1</sup>) in the longitudinal and vertical structure of the wavenumber-1 and -2 components of geopotential height averaged over  $45^{\circ}N$ – 75°N in March during 1998–2018. (c, d) Same as (a, b), but for the geopotential height anomalies regressed on *PC2<sub>SST</sub>* in February during 1980–2018. The contours represent the climatological mean of wavenumber-1 (left panels) and -2 (right panels) components of geopotential height averaged over  $45^{\circ}N$ –75°N. The values over the stippled regions are statistically significant at the 90% confidence level.

The details of the weakened wavenumber-1 and strengthened wavenumber-2 wave intensity during 1998–2018 can be seen more clearly in Figs. 9a,b. Meanwhile, Figures 9c–d give the regressed anomalies in the wavenumber-1 and -2 components of geopotential height at 200 hPa based on  $PC2_{SST}$ . The out-of-phase (in-phase) between

the anomalies and climatologies in the wavenumber-1 (-2) components of geopotential 469 height in response to the North Pacific SSTAs (Fig. 8) can clearly be seen in the maps 470 471 at 200 hPa (Figs. 9c–d). Above results suggest that the weakened WP and strengthened PNA patterns in response to the positive Victoria mode phases are consistent with the 472 473 weakened wavenumber-1 component in the wave activity over the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere, which plays a dominant role in the weakening of the 474 stratospheric wave flux in response to the Victoria mode. But the strengthening of the 475 wavenumber-2 components associated with the Victoria mode counteract the 476 477 weakening of wavenumber-1 to some extent.



Figure 9. (a, b) Trends (shading, m decade<sup>-1</sup>) in the wavenumber-1 and -2 components of geopotential height at 200 hPa in March during 1998–2018. (c, d) Same as (a, b), but for the geopotential height anomalies regressed on  $PC2_{SST}$  in February during 1980–

2018. The contours represent the climatological mean of wavenumber-1 (left panels)
and -2 (right panels) components of geopotential height at 200 hPa. Dotted regions
represent the values statistically significant at the 90% confidence level.

The quasi-geostrophic Eliassen–Palm (EP) flux (Edmon et al., 1980) is chosen to 485 diagnose the propagation of planetary waves. During 1998–2018, there are weakened 486 trends in the wavenumber-1 wave propagation in the lower stratosphere (Fig. 10a) but 487 strengthened trends in the wavenumber-2 wave propagation (Fig. 10b), which are 488 consistent with the weakened wavenumber-1 wave intensity and strengthened 489 wavenumber-2 wave intensity during this period (Figs. 8a-b). In response to PC2<sub>SST</sub>, 490 there are weakened upward planetary wavenumber-1 waves in the lower stratosphere 491 492 over the Arctic region (Fig. 10c), with slightly strengthened meridional propagation at mid-latitude in the upper troposphere. However, the planetary wavenumber-2 waves 493 in response to  $PC2_{SST}$  exhibit strengthened upward propagation in the lower 494 stratosphere with weakened equatorward propagation at mid-latitude in the upper 495 troposphere (Fig. 10d). The weakened wavenumber-1 upward propagation and 496 strengthened wavenumber-2 upward propagation (Fig. 10) are in accord with the 497 weakened wavenumber-1 component but strengthened wavenumber-2 component in 498 the wave activity over the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere shown in Fig. 8. 499 Note that the weakened upward planetary wavenumber-1 wave propagation is 500 accompanied with positive zonal wind anomalies over the Arctic and negative 501 502 anomalies at mid-latitudes. This indicates that the subtropical westerly jet weakens in response to the positive  $PC2_{SST}$  phases, which may not favor the planetary wave 503



# 505 al., 1987).



506

Figure 10. (a, b) Trends in the zonal winds (shading, m  $s^{-1}$  decade<sup>-1</sup>) and (a) 507 wavenumber-1 and (b) wavenumber-2 components of EP flux (arrows with units of  $10^4$ 508 kg s<sup>-2</sup> decade<sup>-1</sup> for vertical vectors and 10<sup>6</sup> kg s<sup>-2</sup> decade<sup>-1</sup> for horizontal vectors over 509 50–200 hPa, and  $5\times10^4$  kg s<sup>-2</sup> decade<sup>-1</sup> for vertical vectors and  $5\times10^6$  kg s<sup>-2</sup> decade<sup>-1</sup> 510 for horizontal vectors over 250-500 hPa, respectively) in March during 1980-2018. (c, 511 d) Same as (a, b), but for the regressed anomalies in the zonal winds (shading, m  $s^{-1}$ 512 decade<sup>-1</sup>) and (c) wavenumber-1 and (d) wavenumber-2 components of EP flux (arrows 513 with units of  $10^4$  kg s<sup>-2</sup> for vertical vectors and  $10^6$  kg s<sup>-2</sup> for horizontal vectors over 514 50–200 hPa, and  $5\times10^4$  kg s<sup>-2</sup> for vertical vectors and  $5\times10^6$  kg s<sup>-2</sup> for horizontal vectors 515 over 250–500 hPa, respectively) in March based on PC2<sub>SST</sub> in February during 1980– 516

517 2018. The contours represent the climatologies of zonal winds (only values above 20 518 m s<sup>-1</sup> are shown), respectively. Dotted regions represent the values statistically 519 significant at the 90% confidence level.

As the BDC is closely related to the stratospheric planetary wave activity (Butchart 520 et al., 2014 and references therein), the BDC possibly weakens in response to the 521 positive PC2<sub>SST</sub> because of the weakened propagation of planetary wave in response 522 to the SSTAs over the North Pacific. Figure 11 further shows the trends in the March 523 velocities of BDC during 1998-2018 and their anomalies regressed on PC2<sub>SST</sub> in 524 525 February during 1980–2018. The vertical velocity of BDC during 1998–2018 exhibits 526 negative trends at subpolar regions but positive trends at polar regions (Fig. 11a), along with the negative trends in the meridional velocity of BDC at extratropics in the 527 stratosphere (Fig. 11b). It seems that the extratropical downwelling in the NH after 528 1998 does not totally weaken, but with some regional characteristics, i.e., the BDC 529 weakens over the Arctic but strengthens at subpolar regions, which need more 530 531 investigation. Because we focused on the decreasing trends in the stratospheric ozone over the Arctic, the anomalies in the BDC velocities over the Arctic related to the North 532 533 Pacific SSTAs are paid more attention to. As expected, there are weakened anomalies 534 in the downwelling velocity over the Arctic compared to its climatology in response to the warmed North Pacific SSTAs (Fig. 11c), which implies a weakened BDC to the 535 North Pacific SSTAs. 536



Figure 11. (a, b) Trends in the March (a)  $w^*$  (mm s<sup>-1</sup> decade<sup>-1</sup>) and (b)  $v^*$  (m s<sup>-1</sup> decade<sup>-1</sup>) during 1980–2018. (c, d) Anomalies in the March  $w^*$  (mm s<sup>-1</sup>) and  $v^*$  (m s<sup>-1</sup>) regressed on  $PC2_{SST}$  in February during 1980–2018. The dashed and solid contours represent the negative and positive climatological mean of  $w^*$  and  $v^*$  in March, respectively. The values over the stippled regions are statistically significant at and above the 90% confidence level.

Changes in the BDC could modulate concentrations of ozone in the stratosphere (e.g., Hu et al., 2014; 2015). Anomalies in the lower-stratospheric ozone over the Arctic caused by the BDC and eddy transport can be examined according to the Transformed Eulerian-Mean formulation of the zonal-mean ozone tracer continuity equation (Garcia & Solomon, 1983) (more details in the section of 2.3). Figure 12 further shows the trends in the March ozone produced by the BDC and eddy during 1998–2018 and the associated anomalies regressed on  $PC2_{SST}$  in February during 1980–2018. The ozone

caused by changes in the meridional and vertical velocities of BDC during 1998-2018 551 exhibits positive trends at mid-latitudes, negative trends at high-latitudes (Figs. 12a,b). 552 553 However, the ozone trends caused by changes in the eddy during this period are different, i.e., positive trends at high-latitudes but negative trends at mid-latitudes (Fig. 554 555 12c). These results imply that the ozone trends over the Arctic in the stratosphere are related to both the BDC and the eddy transport. Looking at Fig. 12 and Fig. 1 together, 556 it seems that the vertical transport from BDC might play the dominant role in the 557 decreasing trend in the ozone concentration during this period. In response to the North 558 559 Pacific SSTAs, there are positive ozone anomalies caused by changes in the meridional BDC velocity (Fig. 12d) and eddy transport (Fig. 12f) in the Arctic lower stratosphere, 560 but statistically significant negative ozone anomalies caused by the vertical transport of 561 562 BDC there (Fig. 12e). These imply that the lower-stratospheric ozone anomalies over the Arctic in response to  $PC2_{SST}$  are mainly caused by vertical transport of the BDC, 563 and not by the eddy transport. However, the eddy transports in response to  $PC2_{SST}$  can 564 565 result in negative anomalies of lower-stratospheric ozone at mid-latitudes. The 566 weakened BDC downwelling velocity over the Arctic (Fig. 11) may result in negative anomalies in the lower-stratospheric ozone over the Arctic via weakening the ozone 567 568 transport from the ozone-rich middle stratosphere to the ozone-poor lower stratosphere (Fig. 12). 569



Figure 12. Trends in the March ozone (a)  $v^*$ -produced, (b)  $w^*$ -produced, and (c) eddy transported during 1980–2018. (d–f) Same as (a–c), but for the anomalies in the March ozone (d)  $v^*$ -produced, (e)  $w^*$ -produced, and (f) eddy transported regressed on  $PC2_{SST}$  in February during 1980–2018. Dotted regions represent the values statistically significant at and above the 90% confidence level.

576 Besides changes in the BDC and eddy transport, the temperatures in the Arctic stratosphere can be also controlled by the anomalous planetary wave activity associated 577 with the North Pacific SSTs. Figure 13 shows the trends in the temperature and zonal 578 winds in March during 1998–2018 and their anomalies regressed on PC2<sub>SST</sub> in 579 February during 1980–2018. During 1998–2018, the temperature over the Arctic 580 exhibits negative trends (Fig. 13a) along with the positive trends in the zonal winds 581 582 there (Fig. 13b), but most of these trends are insignificant. In response to the warmed North Pacific SSTAs, there are cooling anomalies in the lower-stratospheric 583 temperature over the Arctic (Fig. 13c) and strengthened anomalies in the zonal winds 584 585 (Fig. 13d). These anomalies are in accord with the decreased ozone anomalies. The stronger and more variable wave driving can affect the ozone concentrations by both 586

ozone transport (dynamical resupply) and chemical depletion (e.g., Strahan et al., 2016), 587 i.e., stronger (weaker) wave driving is closely associated with increased (decreased) 588 589 ozone by dynamical resupply and increased (decreased) ozone by reducing (increasing) chemical loss. In addition to the ozone decrease caused by the weakened BDC in 590 591 response to the Victoria mode (Figs. 11 and 12), the cooler Arctic stratosphere (Fig. 13) can increase polar stratospheric cloud occurrence, on whose surface chlorine-activating 592 heterogeneous reactions occur, further reducing the ozone (Solomon et al., 1994; 593 Chipperfield et al., 1999; Daniel et al., 1999). If the temperatures are low enough and 594 595 active chlorine is present during boreal spring, particularly following cold winters, such as 1997 and 2011 (Chipperfield, 2015), and 2020 (Rao and Garfinkel, 2020), 596 photochemical ozone loss may depress the temperature, which in turn enhances the 597 598 chemical reactions and leads to more ozone loss.



**Figure 13.** (a, b) Trends in (a) temperature and (b) zonal winds in March during 1980–

601 2018. (c, d) Anomalies in (c) temperature and (d) zonal winds in March obtained by the 602 regression on the  $PC2_{SST}$  in February during 1980–2018. Dotted regions represent the 603 values statistically significant at the 90% confidence level.

604

## 6. Conclusions and discussion

Using meteorological reanalysis, several observational datasets and a chemical transport model, trends in the concentrations of lower-stratospheric ozone over the Arctic and its links to the SSTAs over the North Pacific are examined in this study. Our results show a decreasing trend in the concentrations of ozone in March of  $-0.12\pm0.07$ ppmv decade<sup>-1</sup> from MERRA2 and  $-0.09\pm0.07$  ppmv decade<sup>-1</sup> from TOMCAT after 1998, in the period following the turnaround in the atmospheric ODS levels.

Further analysis suggested that the North Pacific SSTAs associated with the 611 612 second leading mode in February appear to have impacts on the lower-stratospheric ozone over the Arctic in March with a contribution of about 30%. Ozone concentrations 613 decrease with the warm phases of Victoria mode-related North Pacific SSTAs, and 614 615 increase with the North Pacific SSTAs associated with its cold phases. The decrease in ozone over the lower stratospheric Arctic during 1998-2018 is consistent with an 616 increase in the PC2 of the North Pacific SSTAs. The Victoria-mode-related SSTAs tend 617 to result in a weakened Aleutian low accompanied by a strengthening in the WP pattern 618 619 and a weakening in the PNA pattern, which impede the upward propagation of wavenumber-1 waves into the subpolar lower stratosphere. In response to the Victoria 620 621 mode, the BDC is weakened via weakening the wave propagation, which results in the negative anomalies in the lower-stratospheric ozone over the Arctic via weakening the 622

ozone transport from the middle stratosphere of ozone-rich to the ozone-poor lower stratosphere. Besides these dynamical processes, the cooler and stronger Arctic stratosphere in response to the North Pacific SSTAs related to the Victoria mode may also affect the ozone concentrations through chemical depletion, which needs further investigation. It is also worth clarifying that a trend of two decades could reflect decadal variability that is likely to reverse going forward, rather than, say, an anthropogenically forced signal.

Some previous studies investigated the connections between the stratospheric 630 631 Arctic vortex and North Pacific SSTs associated with Pacific decadal oscillation (PDO) (e.g., Hurwitz et al., 2012; Woo et al., 2015; Kren et al., 2016; Hu et al., 2018). These 632 studies showed that the warming in the North Pacific associated with the positive PDO 633 634 phases could result in a stronger stratospheric Arctic vortex. While some other studies investigated the potential linkage between the Victoria mode-related North Pacific 635 SSTAs with stratosphere (e.g., Xie et al., 2017; Li et al., 2018). Li et al. (2018) revealed 636 that the positive phases of PC2 of North Pacific SSTAs tend to result in more frequent 637 stratospheric sudden warming (SSW) events and longer SSW duration than their 638 negative phases. That is, the warming in the North Pacific SSTs associated with the 639 second leading mode of North Pacific SSTAs might lead to less SSW events (Li et al., 640 641 2018), suggesting more strong stratospheric vortex events. From this view, it seems that the stratospheric polar vortex might be not sensitive to the pattern of SSTAs over the 642 643 North Pacific, but to the warming somewhere over the North Pacific. But it does not mean that the warming anywhere in the North Pacific will lead to a stronger vortex, 644

because the warming related to the PDO and Victoria mode both are not uniform all 645 over the North Pacific Ocean. A recent study suggested that a warming over the central 646 North Pacific could lead to a stronger stratospheric polar vortex (Hu et al., 2018). The 647 central North Pacific is the overlapping region of the PDO and Victoria mode of North 648 Pacific SSTAs, we infer that the stratospheric polar vortex might be more sensitive to 649 the warming over the central North Pacific. The connections between the stratospheric 650 ozone over the Arctic with the warming in the North Pacific over different regions are 651 still unclear, which are worthy of further investigation. 652

653 Recall that the ozone trends in the tropics and NH midlatitudes, and the potential mechanism, are under wide debate (e.g., Ball et al. 2018, 2019; Wargan et al., 2018; 654 Chipperfield et al., 2018b; Orbe et al., 2020). Wargan et al. (2018) provided the 655 656 evidence for a dynamical origin of the observed decreased trend in the ozone in the extratropical lower stratosphere, which corroborated the results of Ball et al. (2018). 657 Chipperfield et al. (2018b) argued that these trends resulted from natural variability. 658 659 That met with a response from Ball et al. (2019) who demonstrated robustness of the trends through 2018. Orbe et al. (2020) demonstrated that the trends in ozone in the 660 lower stratosphere in the NH midlatitudes result from trends in the residual circulation. 661 In this paper, we link the polar ozone in the stratosphere to the BDC. Furthermore, Ball 662 et al. (2020) suggests changes in mixing as a mechanism underpinning these trends, 663 consistent with Wargan et al (2018), and points to an apparent inability of free-running 664 665 models to reproduce the observed the lower-stratospheric ozone behavior. The latter point is also elaborated on extensively by Dietmüller et al. (2021). This present work 666

explored the trends in the stratospheric ozone over the Arctic and uniquely linked the
recent ozone depletion in the stratosphere over the Arctic to the North Pacific SSTs,
which might provide another important element to the debate.

670

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676 (https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-pressure-levels-monthly-

677 means?tab=form), SBUV (https://disc. gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets/SBUV2N09L3zm\_V1), SWOOSH

- 678 (http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/csd/groups/ csd8/swoosh/), MLS (https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets),
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