



Solar cycle and
stratospheric ozone

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Stratospheric O₃ changes during 2001–2010: the small role of solar flux variations in a CTM

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Abstract

Solar spectral fluxes (or irradiance) measured by the SOLar Radiation and Climate Experiment (SORCE) show different variability at ultraviolet (UV) wavelengths compared to other irradiance measurements and models (e.g. NRL-SSI, SATIRE-S). Some modelling studies have suggested that stratospheric/lower mesospheric O₃ changes during solar cycle 23 (1996–2008) can only be reproduced if SORCE solar fluxes are used. We have used a 3-D chemical transport model (CTM), forced by meteorology from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF), to simulate middle atmospheric O₃ using three different solar flux datasets (SORCE, NRL-SSI and SATIRE-S). Simulated O₃ changes are compared with Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS) and Sounding of the Atmosphere using Broadband Emission Radiometry (SABER) satellite data. Modelled O₃ anomalies from all solar flux datasets show good agreement with the observations, despite the different flux variations. The off-line CTM reproduces these changes through dynamical information contained in the analyses. A notable feature during this period is a robust positive solar signal in the tropical middle stratosphere due to changes in stratospheric dynamics. Ozone changes in the lower mesosphere cannot be used to discriminate between solar flux datasets due to large uncertainties and the short time span of the observations. Overall this study suggests that, in a CTM, the UV variations detected by SORCE are not necessary to reproduce observed stratospheric O₃ changes during 2001–2010.

1 Introduction

The Sun is a primary source of energy to the Earth's atmosphere, so it is essential to understand the influence that solar flux variations may have on the climate system. This can be studied by investigating the effect of 11 yr solar flux variations on the atmosphere. Although total solar irradiance (TSI) shows only a small variation (~0.1 % per solar cycle), significant (up to 100 %) variations are observed in the ultra-violet

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(UV) region of the solar spectrum. Therefore, in a “top-down” mechanism, these UV changes are thought to modify middle atmospheric (lower mesospheric and stratospheric) O₃ production, thereby indirectly altering background temperatures (for a review see Gray et al., 2010). These temperature changes can then modulate upward propagating planetary waves, and amplify the solar signal in stratospheric O₃ and temperatures. The temperature changes will also affect the rates of chemical reactions which control ozone.

This mechanism has been well accepted. For example, using Solar Back-scatter Ultraviolet Radiometer (SBUV, 1979–2003) and Stratospheric Aerosol and Gas Experiment II (SAGE II, 1984–2003) satellite data, Soukharev and Hood (2006) showed nearly +3% O₃ variation in the upper stratosphere/lower mesosphere (45–55 km) with no solar signal in the tropical middle stratosphere (30–40 km). Randel and Wu (2007) estimated a similar signal using SAGE I and SAGE II (1979–2005) data. However, using Halogen Occultation Experiment (HALOE, 1992–2005) data, both Soukharev and Hood (2006) and Remsberg (2008) showed a negligible (< 1%) O₃ solar signal in the upper stratosphere/lower mesosphere and a positive solar signal in the middle stratosphere.

These differences in the lower mesospheric and upper stratospheric ozone solar signal between SBUV, SAGE and HALOE have been attributed to the shorter time span (< 14 yr) of HALOE measurements (Soukharev and Hood, 2006). However, using an off-line 3-D chemical transport model (CTM) forced with European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) (re)analysis meteorological data and NRL-SSI solar fluxes (Lean et al., 1997), Dhomse et al. (2011) found that their modelled solar signal was in better agreement with HALOE than SBUV or SAGE. Also, although some coupled 2-D and 3-D CCMs are able to simulate a “double-peak”-structured solar signal in tropical O₃, the simulated upper stratospheric peak is at lower altitudes than SBUV and SAGE observations (e.g. see Figure 4 in Austin et al., 2008) in almost all cases.

Recently, these differences in the middle atmospheric solar signal have gathered renewed interest with the availability of solar spectral data from the Solar Radiation and

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Climate Experiment (SORCE), launched in 2003. These SORCE fluxes show significantly different variations compared to the NRL-SSI model. Using SORCE solar fluxes in a 2-D radiative-dynamical-chemical model, and comparing results with Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS) data, Haigh et al. (2010) argued that the upper stratospheric and lower mesospheric O₃ solar signal might be out of phase with TSI during solar cycle 23. Using the Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model (WACCM) with these SORCE solar fluxes and comparing it with Sounding the Atmosphere using Broadband Emission Radiometry (SABER) data, Merkel et al. (2011) also showed an out-of-phase (larger than -2%) day-time O₃ solar signal in the mesosphere and upper stratosphere (above 40 km) during the recent solar maximum. Importantly, both Haigh et al. (2010) and Merkel et al. (2011) argued that the recent O₃ changes in the upper stratosphere and lower mesosphere cannot be simulated using the NRL-SSI solar fluxes, thereby providing indirect evidence for the fidelity of the SORCE solar fluxes. However, although the WACCM-simulated mesospheric O₃ changes with SORCE fluxes showed better agreement with SABER data, the same model run was unable to simulate stratospheric O₃ changes (see Figure 2d and h in Merkel et al., 2011).

In this study we use the SLIMCAT off-line 3-D CTM forced with ECMWF ERA-interim meteorology to simulate recent stratospheric and lower mesospheric O₃ changes. Using different solar flux datasets and dynamical conditions, we examine whether the model can reproduce these past O₃ changes, and therefore whether the model comparisons can help establish the accuracy of the solar fluxes used. Section 2 gives a brief description of the various satellite O₃ and solar flux data sets used. Section 3 describes the model set up. Our results are discussed in Sect. 4, and conclusions are summarised in Sect. 5.

2 Satellite data sets and solar fluxes

The SABER instrument was launched in December 2001 on board the TIMED (Thermosphere Ionosphere Mesosphere Energetics and Dynamics) satellite. SABER is an

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infrared radiometer and O₃ profiles are retrieved from the 1.27 μm band during the day and from the 9.6 μm band for both day and night. SABER therefore provides about 2200 profiles per 24 h period. Here we use O₃ profile data from the 9.6 μm band (v1.07) with anomalous O₃ profiles removed following Rong et al. (2009). Day-time and night-time measurements are separated using a flag provided in the data files. The vertical resolution of the SABER data is about 2 km with a useful vertical range between 10–0.0002 hPa (~ 30–100 km)

MLS was launched onboard the Aura satellite in July 2004. MLS consists of seven radiometers covering spectral regions from 118 GHz to 2.5 THz. MLS provides about 3500 profiles per 24 h period covering both day and night. The vertical resolution of MLS data ranges from 3 km in the lower stratosphere to about 5.5 km in the lower mesosphere, with a useful vertical range between 100–0.02 hPa (~ 16–70 km). MLS has retrieval errors of about 5 % in the middle and upper stratosphere and 10 % in the lower stratosphere (Froidevaux et al., 2008).

SATIRE-S is a semi-empirical model that calculates total and spectral solar irradiance variations (Krivova et al., 2003; Ball et al., 2012). It uses magnetograms and continuum images to identify three components that modulate solar irradiance: faculae, sunspot umbrae and sunspot penumbrae. The rest of the visible solar surface is considered to be the quiet Sun, which is thus the 4th component of the model. Semi-empirical models of the solar atmospheric structure are used to calculate the emergent intensities for each component (Unruh et al., 1999). Weighted by the corresponding area coverage these intensities are summed up to calculate spectral irradiance at a daily cadence. An Upper Atmosphere Research Satellite/Solar Ultraviolet Spectral Irradiance Monitor (UARS/SUSIM)-based correction is applied to wavelengths below 270 nm to gain better agreement with observations (Krivova et al., 2006).

The NRL-SSI solar flux model uses the photospheric sunspot index and the Mg II index to calculate the contribution of sunspots and faculae to irradiance changes, respectively (Lean et al., 1997). To calculate irradiance below 400 nm, a regression with UARS/SOLSTICE (Solar Stellar Irradiance Comparison Experiment) observations

is performed. This is done on detrended, rotational data to avoid the introduction of long-term instrumental errors.

Both NRL-SSI and SATIRE-S solar flux data show very similar 11 yr solar cycle variability for wavelengths less than 250 nm. Above 250 nm, SATIRE-S displays larger variability, with twice the change in flux compared to NRL-SSI at 300 nm, increasing to a three-fold larger variation at 370 nm. For most wavelengths between 440 and 1250 nm NRL-SSI is more variable than SATIRE-S.

3 Model experiments

SLIMCAT is a 3-D CTM which uses a hybrid σ - θ vertical coordinate system. Model runs were performed at $5.6^\circ \times 5.6^\circ$ horizontal resolution with 32-vertical levels ranging from the surface to about 64 km (~ 0.1 hPa). The model was forced with 6-hourly (00:00, 06:00, 12:00 and 18:00 UTC) ERA-interim reanalysis data for 2001–2010. Vertical velocities are calculated using heating rates and the modelled O_3 (Chipperfield, 2006), so a heating-rate related dynamical response (Oberländer et al., 2012) is incorporated in the simulations. The model has a detailed stratospheric chemistry scheme and there are 203 spectral intervals in the UV-visible photolysis scheme from 116 to 850 nm (see WMO, 1985, Table 7-4).

We have performed seven model simulations with different solar flux datasets and dynamical conditions and these are summarised in Table 1. Run *A_NRL* used NRL-SSI fluxes (similar to run *B_Int* in Dhomse et al., 2011) while run *B_SATIRE* used SATIRE-S fluxes. Run *C_FIX* was similar but used the mean NRL-SSI fluxes for 2001–2010. This means that run *C_FIX* only includes meteorological variability (i.e. no solar flux variability). Due to significant gaps in the SORCE data timeseries, a multi-annual simulation could not be performed with these fluxes. Run *D_SORCE2004* and *E_SORCE2007* are therefore two separate 10 yr simulations with constant SORCE solar fluxes for December 2004 and December 2007, respectively. These are the same fluxes as used in the 2-D model study by Haigh et al. (2010). Runs *G_NRLF* and *F_SATIREF* are similar to

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A_NRL and *B_SATIRE*, respectively but with fixed dynamics (from year 2004), these runs therefore contain solar variability but no meteorological variability.

4 Results and discussion

The differences in irradiance from the different solar flux datasets used in our model simulations are shown in Fig. 1. The threshold wavelength (242 nm) controlling O₃ production and destruction is also indicated. As shown in Haigh et al. (2010), at 210 nm

SORCE data shows nearly 9 % more UV in December 2004 (solar maximum period) than in December 2007 (solar minimum period). However, NRL-SSI and SATIRE-S both show only about a 2 % difference between these two months at this wavelength. Recently, Woods (2012) and Ermolli et al. (2013) re-evaluated SORCE data and suggested that the UV variability detected by SORCE might be 50 % lower than shown in Fig. 1. DeLand and Cebula (2012) argued that the SORCE flux variations we show in Fig. 1 might be incorrect due to undercorrection of instrument response changes during early on-orbit measurements. This indicates ongoing uncertainty in the accuracy of the SORCE data. Nevertheless, we employ the available SORCE data, as used in Haigh et al. (2010), to test the impact on modelled ozone and examine whether this can provide indirect evidence for their accuracy.

There are significant differences between stratospheric and mesospheric O₃ chemistry. Stratospheric O₃ is dynamically controlled whereas there is a strong diurnal cycle in mesospheric O₃ via HO_x chemistry (e.g. Marsh et al., 2003). Figure 2 shows monthly mean tropical (25° S–25° N) day and night-time O₃ profiles from SABER and run *A_NRL*. Overall, there is good agreement between modelled and observed O₃ during both December 2004 and December 2007. However, the peak in modelled O₃ seems to be at a lower altitude and upper stratospheric O₃ values are slightly smaller than those from SABER. Daytime O₃ values are in good agreement in the lower mesosphere, but above 55 km modelled night-time O₃ mixing ratios are less than observed by SABER. The estimated amplitude of the O₃ diurnal cycle (day-time mean minus

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night-time mean) is also shown in Fig. 2. As expected there are negligible differences in the stratosphere (up to 0.2 ppm, or less than 1%). However, the amplitude of the diurnal cycle in modelled O₃ in the mesosphere above 55 km seems to be slightly lower than those observed in SABER data.

Figure 3 shows tropical (25° S–25° N) O₃ anomalies at 0.3, 3 and 30 hPa from model runs *A_NRL*, *B_SATIRE*, and *C_FIX* (2001–2010) along with SABER (2002–2010) and MLS (2004–2010) observations. Excellent agreement among satellite and modelled O₃ anomalies is observed at the 3 levels with typical differences between them are less than 1%. This is not surprising as middle-lower stratospheric O₃ is dynamically controlled and our simulations use realistic dynamics (including the QBO). Overall, the modelled O₃ anomalies are better correlated with MLS than SABER. For example, at 30 hPa and 3 hPa, the MLS-model correlation is 0.9 while for MLS-SABER it is 0.8, highlighting the differences in the observational data sets. The MLS-SABER differences are largest in 2005 and 2008. In general, prior to 2005, SABER O₃ anomalies are slightly smaller (< 0.5%) than MLS and SLIMCAT at all levels and they become slightly larger afterwards.

The good correlation between modelled and satellite O₃ anomalies provides confidence in the middle and upper stratospheric O₃ changes during this period. However, the weaker correlations in the observational data sets in the lower mesosphere (0.3 hPa) (e.g. Mieruch et al., 2012), suggest that O₃ changes in this region must be carefully interpreted. Some model-SABER differences during the first few months of the SABER period might be due to reported ice build-up in the SABER detector during this time (Rong et al., 2009).

Zonal mean O₃ mixing ratios for December 2004 from SLIMCAT (runs *A_NRL* and *D_SORCE2004*), SABER and MLS are shown in Fig. 4. Results from run *B_SATIRE* are not shown as they are similar to run *A_NRL*. Although there is generally excellent agreement in the O₃ distribution, some differences in modelled and satellite O₃ in the tropical stratosphere are visible. In the middle stratosphere (near 10 hPa) MLS values are slightly smaller than SABER and SLIMCAT. In the lower stratosphere

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(below 50 hPa) and the lower mesosphere (above 1 hPa) SABER mixing ratios are larger than SLIMCAT and MLS.

Figure 4 also shows the relative O_3 differences between December 2004 and December 2007. Haigh et al. (2010) showed differences for day-time O_3 only (their Figure 2), whilst our differences shown in Fig. 4 include both day and night-time O_3 . Also, Haigh et al. (2010) used a coupled dynamical-chemical 2-D model, so a direct comparison with their results cannot be performed. However, some differences in O_3 between the 2-D model and SLIMCAT (runs *A_NRL* as well as *D_SORCE2004* minus *E_SORCE2007*) are noticeable. As in Haigh et al. (2010) (with *SORCE* fluxes), a 4% O_3 increase in the tropical middle stratosphere is clearly visible in all SLIMCAT simulations, confirming that the middle stratospheric enhancement can be simulated with *NRL-SSI* (or *SATIRE*), fixed and *SORCE* solar fluxes as the model uses realistic dynamics. However, significant O_3 reductions in the tropical upper stratosphere (above 1 hPa) produced in the 2-D model with *SORCE* solar fluxes are not visible in *MLS*, *SABER* or any *SLIMCAT* simulation. Note that run *D_SORCE2004* has larger O_3 mixing ratios than run *A_NRL* in December 2004. This is due to absolute differences between *NRL-SSI* and *SORCE* fluxes; the exact cause of this difference in solar fluxes is beyond the scope of this study.

Another interesting feature in Fig. 4 is the 10% increase in O_3 between 0–30° N and 15–5 hPa, which is distinctly noticeable in the observations and is well captured by the model. The model also captures the ~10% less O_3 between 5° S–5° N near 30 hPa, 20–40° S near 70 hPa, and 70–90° S near 20 hPa. However, there are differences in the *SABER* and *MLS* observations. Enhanced O_3 in the tropical lower stratosphere near 50 hPa is seen by *MLS* and the model, but does not appear in the *SABER* data. *SABER* also observed nearly 2% less O_3 in the southern hemisphere (SH) mid-latitude upper stratosphere (above 0.3 hPa) which is not seen by *MLS* or reproduced by the model.

To analyse the effect of the diurnal cycle and for better comparison with Haigh et al. (2010), annual mean day and night-time O_3 differences between 2004 and 2007 with *SORCE* fluxes (runs *D_SORCE2004* minus *E_SORCE2007*) are shown in Fig. 5. A

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middle stratospheric O_3 enhancement of nearly +6% during 2004 (near 5 hPa) is clearly visible in both day and night-time O_3 (see also Fig. 3h). Hence most of these O_3 changes must be due to dynamical changes. Interestingly these positive O_3 differences in the tropics are much larger than the 2-D model. However, at mid-high latitudes SLIMCAT shows negative differences (i.e. more O_3 in 2007) while the 2-D model showed nearly uniform positive differences throughout the stratosphere. These negative O_3 differences are distinctly visible between 40–60° N.

In the upper stratosphere and lower mesosphere SLIMCAT does not show any significant O_3 differences. However, in a fixed dynamics simulation (with SOLAR fluxes) they are slightly negative during the day but become positive at night. For the mean solar signal in O_3 in the lower mesosphere these effects seem to cancel out. This is in disagreement with Merkel et al. (2011), who argued for an insignificant solar signal in night-time O_3 , and thus an average O_3 solar signal remains negative.

Figure 6 shows day and night-time O_3 differences between 2003–2004 and 2008–2009 from model runs *A_NRL*, *B_SATIRE*, *C_FIX* and SABER. We have selected the pairs of years as active and quiet solar periods in order to make a direct comparison with the results from Merkel et al. (2011). Again, the O_3 difference patterns between observational and modelled data are nearly similar. The SABER data and all three model simulations show 3–6% more O_3 in the tropical middle stratosphere during 2003–2004 compared to 2008–2009. Negative differences in the lower stratosphere (near 50 hPa) are also in agreement with the data and model runs. The simulations show negligible (< 1%) O_3 differences in the upper stratosphere and lower mesosphere. SABER also shows nearly 0.5% negative O_3 anomalies in a narrow region near 0.3 hPa in both day and night-time data. SH mid-latitude SABER-observed O_3 changes are better captured in run *B_SATIRE* than run *A_NRL*, whereas NH mid-latitude changes are in better agreement with run *A_NRL*. However, due to the limited spatial coverage of SABER measurements, mid-latitude O_3 differences are not discussed here.

As expected our analysis of SABER data shown in Fig. 6 is consistent with the active (2003/4) and quiet (2008/9) period O_3 differences shown in Figure 2 of Merkel et al.

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(2011). However, the SLIMCAT O_3 differences do not agree with WACCM differences using NRL-SSI in that study. The tropical mid-stratospheric O_3 anomalies with NRL-SSI or SORCE solar fluxes shown by Merkel et al. (2011) are less than 1 %, whereas our simulations and SABER show O_3 differences of nearly 4 %. This again highlights that robust positive O_3 anomalies observed in SABER data can be reproduced in SLIMCAT with either NRL-SSI or SATIRE solar fluxes. Negligible upper stratospheric lower mesospheric O_3 changes with NRL-SSI are in good agreement with their simulations (see Figure 2a and e in Merkel et al., 2011).

Figure 7a shows the solar signals from some earlier studies (e.g. HALOE (Remsberg, 2008), a 2-D model (Brasseur, 1993) and a 3-D model (Dhomse et al., 2011)). A mid-stratospheric solar signal in earlier SLIMCAT simulations with NRL-SSI fluxes is consistent with other modelling studies (e.g. Austin et al., 2008, see Figure 4). Figure 7b shows the estimated solar signal in tropical (25°S – 25°N) O_3 using modelled and observed O_3 anomalies from this study. The regression model used here is similar to the one used in Dhomse et al. (2011) containing linear trend, QBO and solar ($F_{10.7}$ flux) terms (see also Dhomse et al., 2006). Overall the solar signal from runs A_NRL and B_SATIRE are in good agreement with SABER (and HALOE) data. However, due to the short time span of available MLS data (77 months), the estimated errors in the MLS solar signal are much larger. A robust positive solar signal in the middle stratosphere is clearly visible in the model simulations as well as SABER and MLS data sets.

There are some differences in the solar signals estimated from modelled and observed O_3 in Fig. 7b, but they are statistically insignificant. For example, the secondary solar signal maxima in the tropical lower stratospheric O_3 observed in SBUV, SAGE and SLIMCAT is not visible in SABER and MLS data. In the upper stratosphere and lower mesosphere modelled O_3 shows a positive ($\sim 1\%$) solar signal whereas in the observational data it is negative ($\sim -1\%$). Some of these difference might be due to ice contamination in the SABER detector as discussed earlier.

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In Fig. 7c, the regression is applied for the 2003–2010 time period. Both runs *A_NRL* and *B_SATIRE* show a negative solar signal in the lower mesosphere. This clearly highlights the importance of the time period used to quantify the O₃ solar signal. Figure 7c also shows the “chemical-only” solar response for the 2001–2010 period from fixed dynamical simulations (runs *G_NRLF* and *F_SATIREF*). Again, the solar signal from these simulations shows quite good agreement with the solar signal from SAGE and SBUV data (Soukharev and Hood, 2006). However, its magnitude is less than that for the fixed dynamical simulations presented in Dhomse et al. (2011). This is in line with our expectations, as the 2001–2010 time period only partially covers the solar cycle.

5 Conclusions

When using either NRL-SSI or SATIRE-S solar fluxes, and ECMWF meteorology, simulated O₃ from our 3-D CTM shows excellent agreement with satellite observations for 2001–2010. The model is also able to reproduce changes over the recent 2004–2007 time period which has previously been used to support the different solar flux variability measured by SORCE. Therefore, our model runs do not provide any indirect support for the accuracy of the new SORCE fluxes; rather they argue that the previously accepted NRL-SSI or SATIRE-S fluxes are able to reproduce recent observed O₃ changes.

The good agreement between our model and observations is partly due to variability imposed by the ECMWF analyses, which is therefore dynamical in origin. However, since 2001, there have been step-wise changes in stratospheric circulation (e.g. Dhomse et al., 2008) and a major sudden stratospheric warming in the SH in September 2002 (e.g. Weber et al., 2003). It will require further research using a coupled chemistry-climate model to see if these anomalous changes in stratospheric circulation are indeed solar-induced or due to internal atmospheric variability.

Our modelled O₃ solar signal in the middle and upper stratosphere during the 2001–2010 time period is different to that deduced from SBUV or SAGE data (1979–2003),

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but only slightly different (similar structure but larger in magnitude) than HALOE (1992–2005). However, there are some uncertainties in the SBUV (e.g. poor vertical resolution) and SAGE (e.g. limited temporal sampling, Twomey-Chahine inversion near 50 km) data sets (e.g. Terao and Logan, 2007; Wang et al., 2011). A re-evaluation of SBUV and SAGE data is needed to confirm if the solar signal in stratospheric O₃ during the recent solar cycle is indeed out of phase with TSI changes.

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**Table 1.** Solar and dynamical conditions for the model simulations.

Run	Solar fluxes	Dynamics
<i>A_NRL</i>	NRL-SSI	ERA-interim
<i>B_SATIRE</i>	SATIRE-S	ERA-interim
<i>C_FIX</i>	Fixed (mean NRL-SSI, 2001–2010)	ERA-interim
<i>D_SORCE2004</i>	SORCE (2004)	ERA-interim
<i>E_SORCE2007</i>	SORCE (2007)	ERA-interim
<i>G_NRLF</i>	NRL-SSI	Fixed (year 2004)
<i>F_SATIREF</i>	SATIRE-S	Fixed (year 2004)

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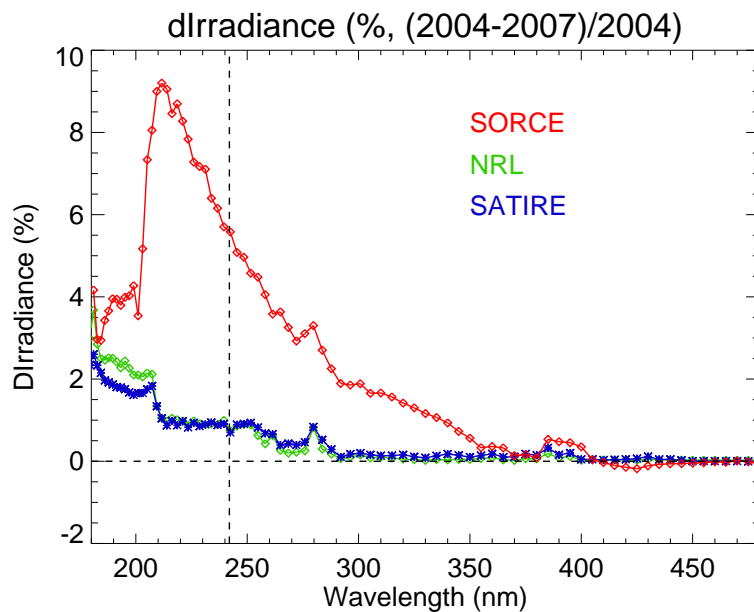


Fig. 1. Relative percentage differences in solar irradiance between 2004 and 2007 ((2004–2007)/2004) for the SORCE, NRL-SSI and SATIRE solar flux datasets. The threshold wavelength (242 nm) controlling O₃ production and destruction is also indicated with vertical dash line.

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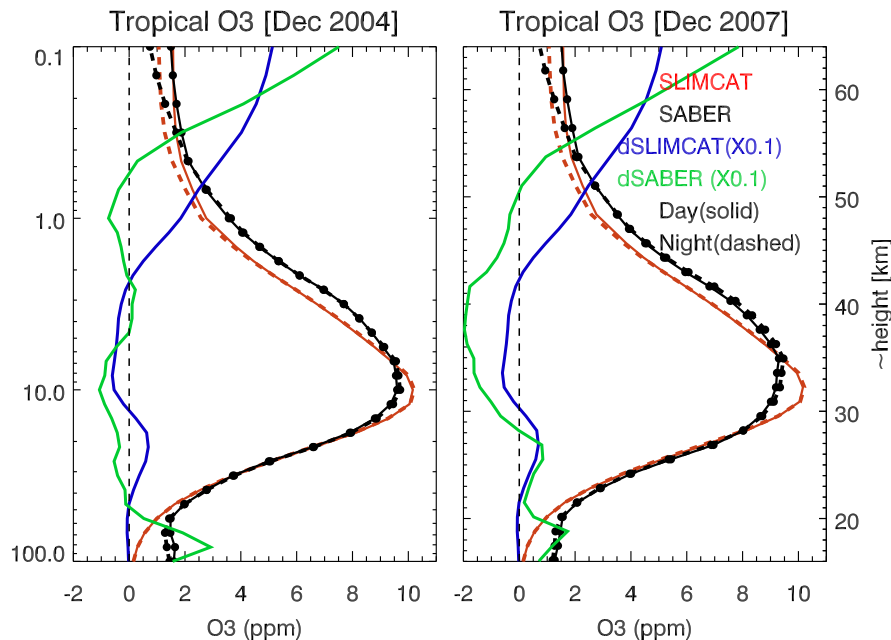


Fig. 2. Monthly mean tropical (25° S– 25° N) O_3 profiles for December 2004 and December 2007 from SABER data (black) and SLIMCAT run *A_NRL* (orange). Solid and dashed lines represent day-time and night-time profiles, respectively. Also shown is the O_3 diurnal variation (day-night) for SABER (green) and SLIMCAT (blue). For clarity, the diurnal variations have been scaled by a factor of 10.

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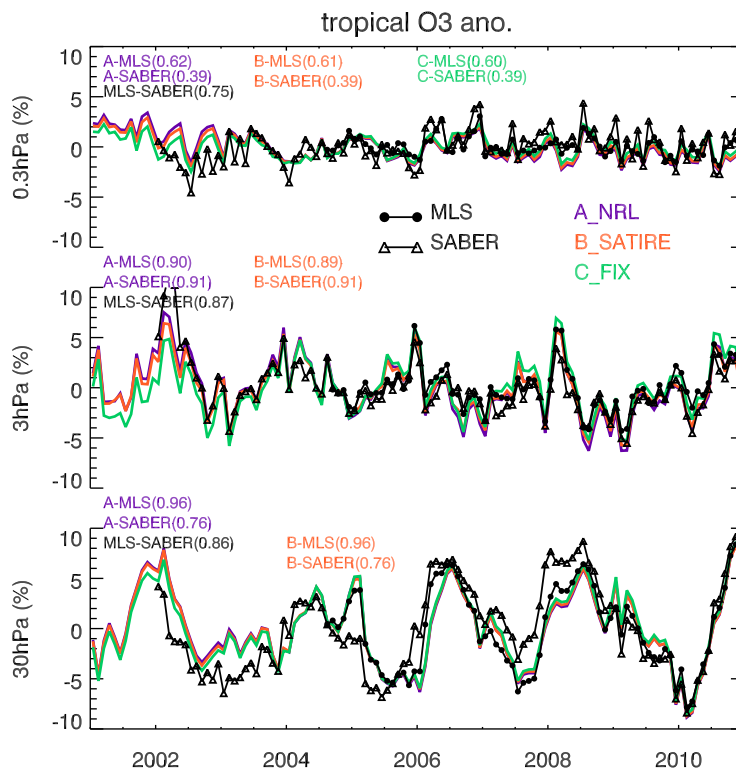



Fig. 3. Tropical (25° S–25° N) O₃ anomalies (%) from 3 model simulations (run *A_NRL* – violet, run *B_SATIRE* – orange, run *C_FIX* – green) and satellite data (MLS (2004–2010) – filled circles, SABER (2002–2010) – triangles) at 30 hPa (bottom), 3 hPa (middle) and 0.3 hPa (top). The rank-correlation between different O₃ anomalies is also given.

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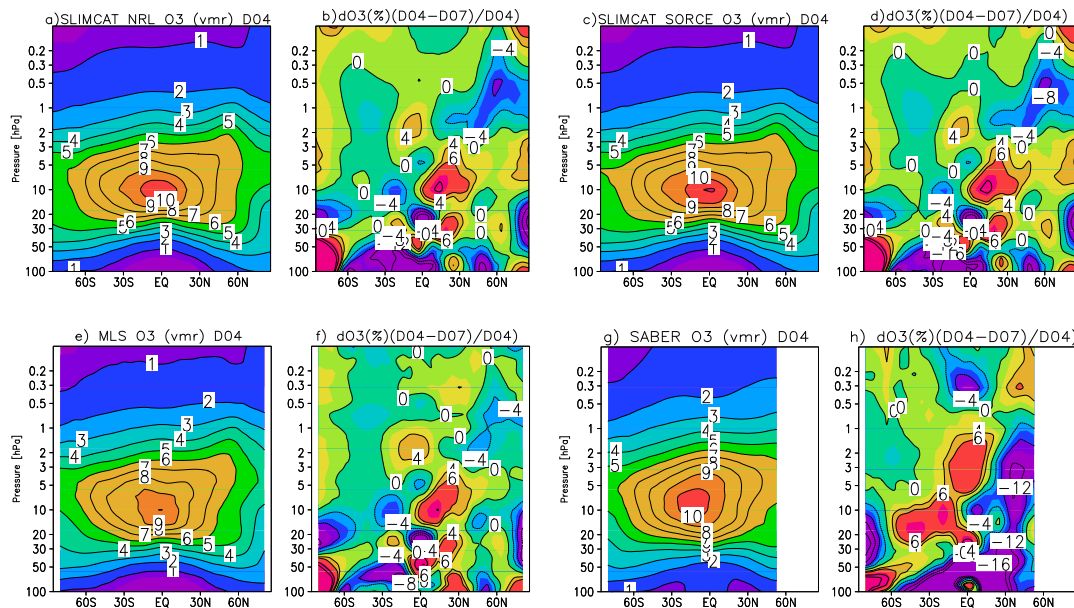


Fig. 4. Zonal mean monthly mean O₃ mixing ratio (ppmv) from SLIMCAT runs *A_NRL*, *D_SORCE2004* (panels **a** and **c**) and MLS and SABER (panels **e** and **g**) for December 2004. The ozone differences (%) between December 2004 and December 2007 for the corresponding data sets are also shown (panels **b**, **d**, **f**, **h**).

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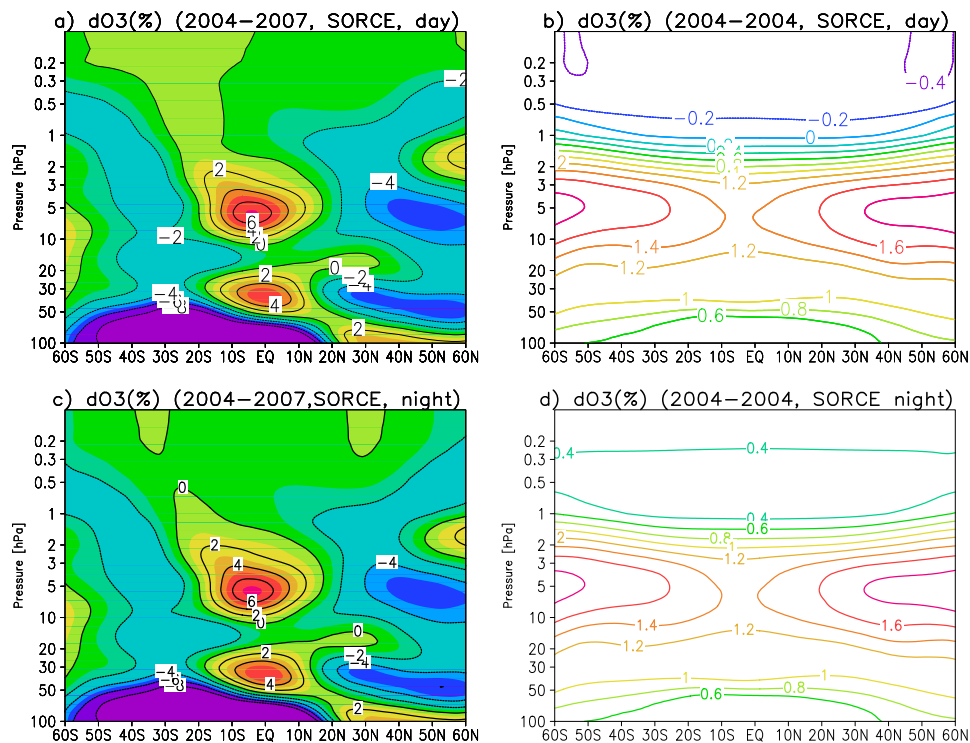


Fig. 5. (a) Differences in annual mean zonal mean O_3 between 2004 and 2007 for $D_SORCE2004$ and $E_SORCE2007$ in day-time (i.e. O_3 change due to both solar flux and dynamical variability). (b) Similar to (a) but for fixed meteorological forcing (year 2004, i.e. O_3 changes only due to solar flux variability). (c) and (d) are similar to (a) and (b), respectively but for night-time O_3 .

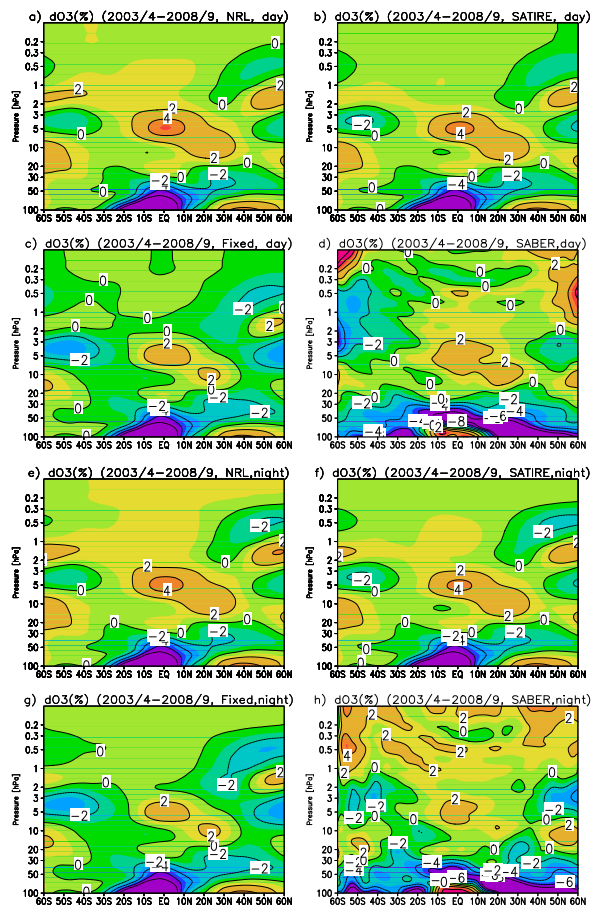


Fig. 6. Day-time (panels a–d) and night-time (panels e–f) biannual mean zonal mean O₃ differences (%) between 2003/2004 and 2008/2009 for (a and e) SLIMCAT run *A_NRL*, (b and f) SLIMCAT run *B_SATIRE*, (c and g) SLIMCAT run *C_FIX* and (d and h) SABER data.

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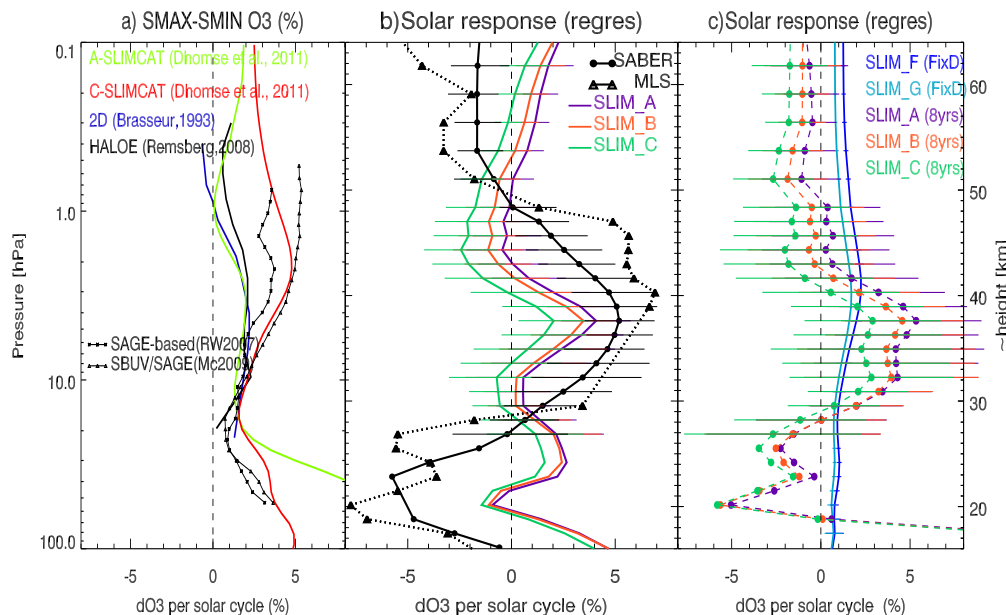


Fig. 7. (a) Tropical solar signal (25°S – 25°N) per solar cycle from SLIMCAT simulations for 1979–2010 with ERA-40 and fixed dynamics (Dhomse et al., 2011, green and red lines), HALOE (1992–2005, Remsberg, 2008, black line) and a 2-D model (Brasseur, 1993, blue line). The estimated solar signal using SBUV/SAGE data (McLinden et al., 2009, triangles), SAGE-based data (Randel and Wu (2007), stars) and a 3-D model (light-green line) by Dhomse et al. (2011) for 1979–2005 are also shown. (b) Estimated solar signal using multivariate regression model for modelled (2001–2010, 120 months), SABER (2002–2010, 108 months) and MLS (2004–2010, 77 months) O_3 data sets. Estimated errors (1σ) for solar coefficients are shown with coloured horizontal lines. The large error bars ($\pm 10\%$) at all levels for MLS data and in the lower stratosphere for SABER and model data are not shown. (c) The coloured dashed lines with filled circles show the solar signal from runs *A_NRL* and *B_SATIRE* if only 8 yr (2003–2010) of model data are used. The estimated solar signal from the runs (fixed dynamics) *G_NRLF* and *F_SATIREF* are shown with dark and light blue lines, respectively.

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