

The authors thank Howard Roscoe for reviewing the paper and for the many fruitful comments which were helpful to improve the paper. All changes of the paper are highlighted with red colors. Point by point answers to your comments are reported below.

Major comments

- *First major comment: As author of a paper speculating about descent of Antarctic stratospheric air into the troposphere (Roscoe 2004, referenced by Rolf et al.), I was greatly looking forward to reading this work in detail. My earlier speculation was that some air should be descending over a broad area within the stratospheric vortex for a large part of the winter and early spring, based on various lines of circumstantial evidence. It would have been very pleasing for the speculation to be proven. If so, the implications for the water vapour budget in the troposphere over the Antarctic Plateau, and for the isotopic composition of snow in ice cores there, would have been very significant. Unfortunately, Rolf et al. do not indisputably show descent over a broad area, nor for a large part of the winter and early spring. Instead they show transport over a limited area (a few degrees latitude and longitude) on one day. They show how there is a strong probability that it is caused by a breaking Rossby wave, which suggests that the transport identified is unlikely to be widespread or frequent. Although their Figure 8 is interpreted as showing a widespread occurrence of such episodes, Figure 8 is based on trajectories of such long duration that their validity must be considered doubtful (see D below). Hence, while the title, abstract and arguments within the bulk of the paper are factually correct, the importance of the discovery to the wider questions of water budget and isotopes in ice cores is probably rather limited.*

You are right, we don't see a descent of air masses from the stratosphere into troposphere over a broad area or the entire Antarctic. We see also no evidence for changing the isotope ratio in ice cores. Nevertheless, transport and exchange processes in the Antarctic UT/LS region are insufficiently investigated due to the lack of adequate observations in this region. We cited your paper (Roscoe 2004) due to the description of the downward transport mechanisms which might facilitate the transport from the stratosphere into troposphere. Even if this transport is caused by Rossby wave activity, we think it occurs more often and permanent in the Antarctic lowermost stratosphere (see page 22 ll 555-580). Regarding your comment on the trajectory length in Figure 8, we included a new Figure 8 (now it is Figure 9), where we give more detailed insights in the behavior of the trajectories (i.e. shorter timescales of 2 weeks before and after the observations).

- *Second major comment: The authors consistently describe air at 8 to 9 km as though it were obviously tropospheric. This is often not the case in Antarctic winter and spring within the vortex. In the example shown in Figure 3 of Roscoe et al. (2004) of temperature and ozone structure at Halley (76S) on 27 August 1987, the lapse rate becomes stable and the ozone amount increases sharply above about 290 hPa, which was at 8.4 km. On 1 September 1987 the ozone increase started at*

300 hPa, which was at 8.2 km (Gardiner & Farman 1988). There are many more examples of such a low tropopause in Gardiner & Farman (1988), which contains convenient plots and tables for examining this issue. One difficulty with the "thermal tropopause" calculation, from ECMWF and GLORIA data in Figures 1 and 3 is that such a calculation would normally define the tropopause as the height where the lapse rate changes sign. In the example in my Figure 3 (Roscoe et al. 2004) this would be at 30 hPa, clearly a long way into the stratosphere. (What matters is the height at which the atmosphere becomes ultra-stable, with a lapse rate less than, say, 3C/km, which would always be at a much lower altitude than where the lapse rate changes sign. A tropopause defined by the discontinuity in ozone amount would also often be at a much lower altitude than where the lapse rate changes sign. Finally, most authors would assert that a potential temperature of 310 K in Antarctic winter and spring is in the lowest stratosphere, and 290 K is probably in the troposphere. In Figure 3, the 300 K contour would be at about 8.5 km within the vortex on the earlier flight leg, and down to 7.8 km during the dehydration event in the later flight leg. Again, much of the discussion about the dehydration in the later flight leg is about air that is very likely still in the stratosphere. I do not argue that the premise of the paper is wrong because of these factors - Figure 3 shows clear transport of dehydrated air down to 7 km - merely that some of the analysis of data in the paper contains statements about tropospheric air that are contestable or over-emphasised.

We agree to the point, that we cannot attribute the air masses below the thermal tropopause to be tropospheric at the time of the observation. However, the observation shows clearly the transport of dehydrated airmasses down to 7 km. Even if the air masses are still in the lowermost stratosphere, it is very likely and shown by Figure 9 (revised Figure) that these low air masses would be transported further and become really tropospheric. The thermal tropopause definition in this study based on the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) using the lowest height at which the temperature lapse rate decreases to ≤ 2 K/km and remains below this value for a range of at least 2 km. So we don't chose the height were the lapse rate changes sign. We include the description of the tropopause calculation in Section "Instrumentation and meteorological data". We revised the text and describe the air masses as tropospheric or stratospheric more carefully.

- *Third major comment: The transport event described in the paper is very reminiscent of a tropopause fold. These normally occur on the poleward side of the mid-latitude or the sub-tropical jet, and take stratospheric air sideways and equatorward as they descend. But for Figure 1b, which shows no sign of the mid-latitude jet near the event at 47S, we might easily have characterised the event described as a conventional tropopause fold. Surely, this aspect of the discovery deserves comment, and perhaps some analysis of why it is more significant than a conventional tropopause fold?*

We actually don't state that it is completely different compared to a conventional tropopause fold. You are right, the mechanism are similar/same as a conventional

tropopause fold. The point is compared to a tropopause fold at the mid-latitude jet that the air masses originate directly from the vortex and were strongly dehydrated. These air masses have a different chemical composition than the "normal" air masses in the mid-latitude lowermost stratosphere. This point is included in the description of the meteorological situation (see P. 12 ll 271-275).

Minor comments

- *A. The last paragraph on page 7899 misses an important point identified by Lee et al. (2002): the lowest stratosphere below the vortex, from about 300 K to about 330 K, is (significantly mixed with mid-latitude air the vortex barely exists at these altitudes as an isolating mechanism.*

We agree on this point. The vortex edge derived from the Nash criterion visible in Figure 1b reaches down to 340 K. Below the 340 K filaments of enhanced H₂O in the lowermost stratosphere are visible in the GLORIA observations (Figure 3). With the trajectory analysis, we show that the origin is due to mixing from outside the vortex. We include the reference with an additional sentence in the introduction (see page 4 ll 80-84).

- *B. Page 7900 lines 6-8 describes my idea that katabatic winds provide a downward force over the Plateau, because of the expected paucity of re-supply to be expected as a result of the Coriolis force, as though it were a proven fact. It is not proven.* We revised the text and state the idea of katabatic winds more as a possible suggestion for downward transport (see page 5 ll 103-106).

- *C. Possible rehydration after ice particles have fallen is an important topic. It would be very helpful to see the water measurements during the dive, which the authors say (page 7912 lines 3-4) confirm the absence of any rehydration features.* Figure 0.1 shows the vertical profiles from the dive. In the stratosphere no rehydration layers are visible. The increase at 10km is associated to mixing of tropospheric air, which is indicated by a decrease in O₃ and an increase of CO. The peaks 9.3-9.5 km can be attributed to clouds in the troposphere below the thermal tropopause (blue dashed line), as the saturation mixing ratio is lower than that of the total water mixing ratio. We don't want to include this Figure into the manuscript, because it fit not very well into the scope of this study and the dive has a different location as the stratospheric intrusion.

- *D. Most workers would regard back trajectories calculated for 50 days (Figure 4) or 150 days (Figure 8) as being of doubtful validity. Surely there should be some discussion about this?*

You are right, that a trajectory length with 150 days has to be discussed and treated carefully. We actually don't need the trajectory length of 150 days to explain the mechanism. We decided to have a more detailed look into the trajectory properties 2 weeks before and 2 weeks after the observations. Therefore, we replaced Figure 8 where now 2 RWB events are visible and revised the text accordingly (see p. 21-23).

- *E. The confusion about heights and potential temperatures discussed in the second major comment above continues on page 7915 line 27, where 5 km altitude is reported as being at 300 K. During the ozonesonde flight of 27 August 1987 (Figure 3 of Roscoe 2004), 5 km was at 286 K, and 300 K was at 8.9 km.*

You are right. In the text the median potential temperature and height of all trajectories are described. Some of the air masses are transported to lower latitudes over time and therefore have a different potential temperature/altitude dependence. We revised the text and describe the air masses and potential temperatures more carefully (see p. 21-23).

Editorial comments

- *1. p7898 l3 replace extend by extends.*
Changed.
- *2. p7898 l3 replace changing by changes.*
Changed.
- *3. Fig1 caption l5 replace indicate by indicates.*
Changed.
- *4. Fig1 caption l6 surely the dots are blue-green (turquoise if you prefer), not blue?*
Changed.

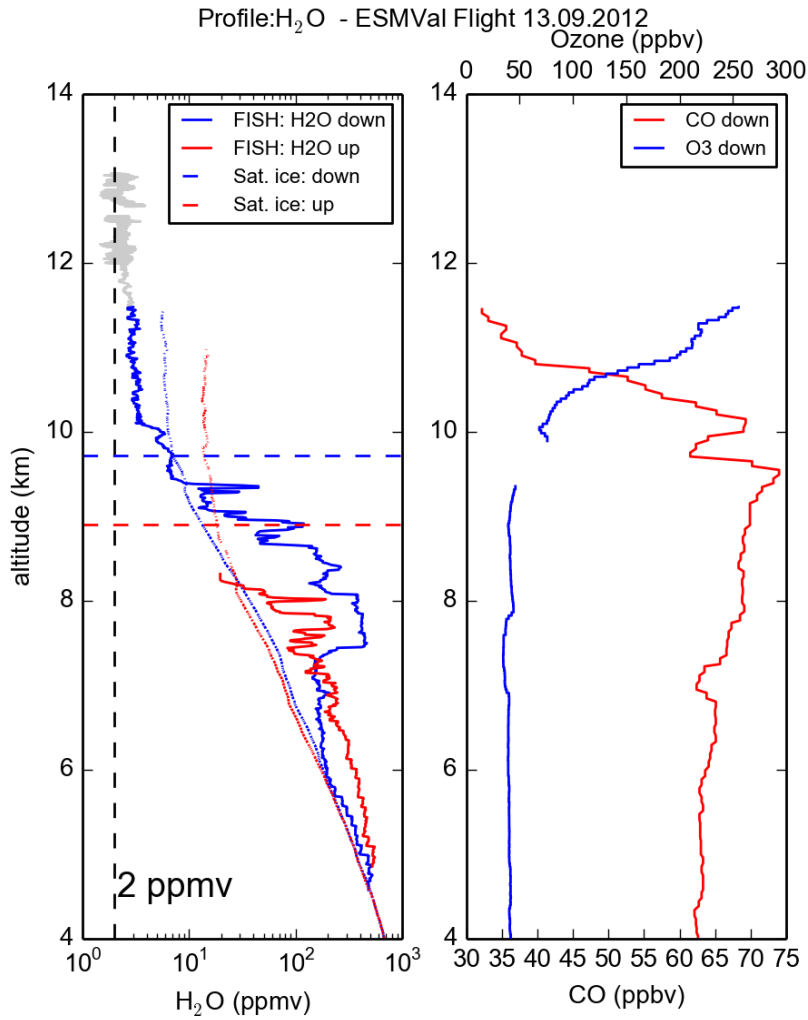


Figure 0.1: In-situ measurements during the dive at the most southern point during the ESMVal Flight on 13 September 2012: blue profile in the left panel during decent, red profile in the left during ascent. The measured thermal tropopauses during decent and ascent are marked with dashed lines. Tracer measurements during the decent of CO and O₃ are shown in the right panel.

The authors thank Heini Wernli for reviewing the paper and for the many fruitful comments which were helpful to improve the paper. All changes of the paper are highlighted with red colors. Point by point answers to your comments are reported below.

Major comments

- *In several places the writing should be more precise, for instance in the abstract:*
We revised the text according to your points below.
- *- line 3: "in-situ measurements of dehydration", I think you rather mean "of dehydrated air masses" (which is not the same)*
You are right, measurement of "dehydration" and "dehydrated air masses" is not the same, we changed the text to "dehydrated air masses", because that is what we actually observed.
- *- line 8: what is meant by "which has never been observed by satellites"? The statement could mean "which has never been observed before (and before all observations have been made by satellites)" or it could mean "which is in contradiction to satellite observations, which never show such low values". Similarly, I don't understand the intention of the statement on p. 7899 line 16: do you want to emphasize that satellite measurements are not good enough to see dehydrated air masses or that this process is so rare that it has not been seen before??*
We want to state that satellite measurements in the UT/LS do not offer the necessary horizontal and vertical resolution to see dehydrated airmasses down to the tropopause as written on page 7898 l16. But you are right especially in the abstract it is not clear what is really meant "which has never been observed by satellites". We removed this part from the abstract and we added an explanation on page (see page 4 ll 67-71) to make it more clearer.
- *- p. 7899 line 27: "frequent" should read "frequently", then the rest of the sentence and the next sentence must be rephrased. It is not clear whether the Khosrawi study is relevant for the Arctic or mid-latitudes. Then why do you know that the transport across the thermal tropopause occurs "vertically" (see also comment 2), it can also be along isentropes. Then "directly" is not needed, and "dry the troposphere down to the surface" sounds strange to me - do you mean that a dry tongue of originally stratospheric air is reaching down to the surface? (OK with this, but this is not the same as "drying the troposphere").*
We followed your suggestion and changed it to "frequently" and revised the sentence with the Khosrawi study (see page 5 ll 85-87). We assume a transport along isentropes, but the transport has a vertical geometrical component due to the tilt of isentropes. We agree with the third part of your comment and rephrased it to "Nevertheless, Antarctic stratospheric air masses can be transported through the thermal tropopause into the troposphere and can create a dry tongue reaching down to the Earth's surface." (see page 5 ll 87-90)

- - p. 7905 line 18: *this is a misleading statement: PV is conserved in the stratosphere along the flow, not in an Eulerian sense (as implied by your sentence). And in the troposphere, it is not small-scale mixing that primarily alters the PV of air parcels but diabatic processes in clouds.*

You are right, the PV is only conserved along the flow. But this is actually what we wanted to say. To make it more clearer we revised the text as you suggested: "The PV and equivalent latitude are nearly conserved along the flow in the stratosphere but less strongly in the troposphere due to diabatic processes in clouds (Joos and Wernli, 2012) and small-scale mixing." (see page 11 ll 264-266)

- - p. 7915 line 22: *"katabatic surface winds"?? Why should they influence your air parcels at an altitude of 10 km? Katabatic winds are typically very shallow and directly located above the topography.*

You are right, katabatic winds are shallow. But nevertheless the mass flux associated with these katabatic winds is significant and results in a general subsidence over Antarctic continent (see Introduction, Van de Berg et al., 2007, Stohl & Sode-mann, 2010). Some of the air descending into the Antarctic boundary layer may originate in the stratosphere as described by Roscoe (2004). Indeed, we have no prove that the airmasses described by the trajectories descend caused by the katabatic winds, but it is one possible explanation for the subsidence visible in Fig. 8 a,b. Therefore we would like to keep the line of argument as it is, but denote it as more speculative.

- - p. 7915 line 23: *this is rather speculation than a description of your figure. It might be right that RWB events occurred but you never show this. I suggest that you more strictly separate the parts shown by your data and analyses and the more speculative parts.*

We replaced Figure 8 (now Figure 9) by a more detailed analysis (2 weeks before and 2 weeks after the observation) where now 2 RWB events are visible. The text is revised according to the new Figure 8 and the speculative parts are more separated to the end. (see pages 21-23)

- 2) *The concept of what the authors regard as strat-trop exchange should be reconsidered. There are (to me) some irritating statements already in the abstract:*

We revised the text and give answers to your points below.

- - line 17: *"the irrelevant role of the Antarctic thermal tropopause as a transport barrier is confirmed" is a strange statement because the thermal tropopause is never (not only not in Antarctica) a transport barrier, because its definition is based on a lapse rate criterion and the lapse rate is not a materially conserved quantity. Therefore air parcels can without any problems cross the thermal tropopause. A PV-based tropopause is already a bit more a "transport barrier", because of PV conservation for adiabatic flow - so for an adiabatic flow the dynamic tropopause acts as a transport barrier, and because the real flow is not perfectly adiabatic, there is STE. I therefore dont think that this particular "finding" is a key result of this*

study (which, I think, has many other important things to show!)

You are right, the thermal tropopause is based on a lapse rate and is not a materially conserved quantity and much less a transport barrier. Nevertheless, the change in the temperature lapse rate coincides with a change in the static stability. The static stability in the troposphere is low (i.e. unstable with strong vertical mixing), while in the stratosphere it is higher (i.e. stable with weak vertical mixing). The thermal tropopause separates both regimes. Therefore, we think that it is justified to speak about a thermal tropopause with enhanced permeability, if the tropopause is only poorly defined. Nevertheless, we changed the text to focus more on the adiabatic transport of dehydrated air masses within the folded PV structure. (see Introduction p.5 ll 92-102)

- - *line 20: what is a "weak tropopause"? A tropopause with a weak PV gradient? A tropopause where STE occurs? Per se, the term "weak tropopause" does not make sense.*

We agree, the term "weak tropopause" is a bit awkward/unclear. We changed the wording in the whole text to thermal tropopause with enhanced permeability. With more explanation in the text according to the thermal tropopause and static stability. (see Introduction p.5 ll 92-102)

- - *line 21: This sounds like a very general statement, but it is well known that the transport of STE air parcels down to surface can occur much faster (within 1-5 days, see, e.g., Skerlak et al. 2014, ACP, and references therein). For this fast downward transport the large-scale flow along tilted isentropes is then much more important than radiative cooling.*

We changed the statement to several days. Because with the new Figure 8 (now 9) it becomes obvious that the air masses represented by the green line descent from 8.5 km down to 3 km within 4 days. In the old Figure, this behavior was smoothed due to averaging over all 1400 trajectories. Also the downward transport of air masses represented by the red line is fast (3 km within 4 days) but started later. We also mentioned the fast transport along tilted isentropes in addition to the radiative cooling in the introduction. (see Introduction p.5 ll 108-113)

- - *p. 7900 line 14: you should write "can descend ..." instead of "will descend" because many air parcels, after crossing the tropopause, will never reach the surface! See, e.g., Stohl et al. 2003 (BAMS) for a discussion of deep STT vs. total STT (deep STT reaching down to the surface is only a small fraction).*

We agree on this point. The text is revised already relating to previous point (see Introduction p.5 ll 92-102).

- - *p. 7905 (Fig. 1): why do you show equivalent latitude? On line 20 you write that high values of eq. lat. indicate the polar vortex. Is this really true? Even without a polar vortex you would get high values of eq. lat. somewhere by definition. And the really high eq. lat. values are only south of 70S (which would be a more normal position of the vortex). Then on line 22 you use the high eq. lat. values in the*

troposphere to infer about STE. Again I am not convinced that this works. If you define eq. lat. separately on every isentrope then you must get high values somewhere, but this does not necessarily point to a stratospheric origin. In the troposphere PV is strongly altered by diabatic processes and therefore PV (and the PV-based eq. lat.) use some of its qualities as a tracer of origin.

We used the equivalent latitude because it visualize the stratospheric intrusion in a nice way. You are right, using equivalent latitude especially in vertical cross section might lead to false conclusion. But in this case we get the same conclusion, if we use the PV to show the stratospheric origin. We therefore exchanged Figure 1b showing the PV instead of equivalent latitude. The new Figure 9b displays the PV along the trajectories showing a rather constant median value of -4.3 PVU in the two weeks before the measurement time. Another point is that the structures of air masses below thermal tropopause in Figure 2b and vortex air in the equivalent latitude and PV fields are connected and coherent, so that there is a strong evidence that these air masses down to 5 km in the latitude range from 60-45°S have a stratospheric origin. In addition, the observed dry air below the thermal tropopause is also a strong indicator for a stratospheric origin of these air masses. (see page 11 ll 262-275)

- - p. 7905 line 26: *the three times crossing of the thermal tropopause and the 320 K isentrope is maybe not too meaningful. The two surfaces are rather parallel and they might change in time. Also it is not clear that the flow is along the particular vertical section you are showing, therefore simply from looking at the intersections you cannot infer about STE.*

We are very sure that the surfaces of the thermal tropopause and isentropes will change in time. But this snapshot in time indicates the region of potential transport. We remove the specific locations of the intersections and write it in a more general way (see p.11 ll 276-282).

- - p. 7915 line 19: *even if the vertical PV gradient is relatively weak, a diabatic process is required to change the PV of an air parcel and to make it move across the dynamic tropopause. I think that the argument that the a weak vertical gradient (in one particular cross section!) implies strong STE (i.e., a weak barrier) is too simplistic. We clearly also know of the reverse case where STE occurs due to clear air turbulence near the jet stream (i.e., in a region where the PV gradient is particularly strong). Similarly, the statement on line 22 "... can be transported ... without strong resistance" is very fuzzy.*

The text is not contradictory to your comment. For sure the PV has to change in order to cross the dynamical tropopause. However, if the PV gradient within the stratospheric intrusion is weak, the air masses can more easily detach the PV structure and become more tropospheric compared to a case with a strong PV gradient. From the new Figure 9 we see that the PV changes in the following days after the observations (green line) imply a decrease of PV that air masses become more tropospheric. Due to the extreme dryness of these air masses, we

think that most likely no cloud processes but rather diabatic cooling is the reason for changing the PV. The statement "... can be transported ... without strong resistance" is removed.

- 3) *At the end of the introduction I am missing a clear outline of research questions addressed in this paper. The reader is therefore constantly unclear about where the story goes and it is difficult to follow the presentation of the results. Having a set of specific questions at the end of section 1 would be very helpful. The same problem occurs at the beginning of section 4 - here it would be very helpful if the reader was presented with a brief outline of what she/he can expect/learn from the trajectory analysis. As presented now, it is difficult for the reader to follow the story.*

This is a good suggestion. We introduced three specific questions in the introduction (see page 6 ll 115-122), which will be answered in the trajectory section and summarized in the conclusion section (see page 23-24).

- 4) *Trajectories are so essential for this study that you should give a better explanation of the input data. Why did you use ERA-Interim reanalyses and not operational analyses (which have a better resolution)? And what diabatic heating rates did you use? Do they only include radiative heating or also latent heating in clouds?*

We used ERA-Interim reanalyses because they provide full diabatic heating rates in the UT/LS region in contrast to the operational analyses. We include the following text into the trajectory section to give more information about the trajectory calculations and the used input data (see page 15 ll 373-383):

"To resolve transport processes in the troposphere influenced by the orography and transport processes in the stratosphere where adiabatic horizontal transport dominates, the hybrid σ - θ coordinate ζ is used (Mahowald et al., 2002). Therefore in the stratosphere and in the UTLS, potential temperature θ is employed as the vertical coordinate of the model and the cross-isentropic velocity $\hat{\theta} = Q$ is deduced from the ERA-Interim forecast total diabatic heating rates Q , including the effects of all-sky radiative heating, latent heat release and diffusive heating as described by Ploeger et al. (2010). In the tropospheric region defined by the condition $\sigma = 0.3$, the vertical model coordinate smoothly transforms into an orography-following $\sigma = p/p_s$ -coordinate (p - pressure, p_s - surface pressure), with the vertical velocity transforming into the corresponding $\hat{\sigma}$ Pommrich et al. (2014)."

- 5) *The meteorological description of the event is too brief and makes it difficult to put the detailed analyses into context. For instance, on p. 7905 the vortex edge is mentioned to be at 47S, which I think is quite unusual(?). Has the entire vortex been shifted far away from the pole? Also is it fully justified to speak about the vortex edge when looking at PV and winds on 360-400 K? I assume that this is OK and that you have checked that in this specific situation the vortex really reaches so far down into the lower stratosphere, but I think that this deserves a better description (additional figures showing the entire vortex, discussion of how typical/unusual this situation is, etc.*

The vortex edge is derived with the Nash criterion, which is fulfilled down to the 340K level (see Figure 2b). The vortex has typically a concave outer shape, where the bottom is broader. In addition, the bottom of the vortex is stronger disturbed by Rossby waves propagating from the troposphere. So we think that this situation occurs regular, but we cannot state numbers or rates. This would need additional analyses, which would be out of scope of the paper. But we included two additional Figures where we show the potential vorticity on two theta levels (310, 350 K) to give more insights how the entire vortex behave (see page 10 ll 239-250).

- 6) *Related to 5): on p. 7908 line 22 you write that "the dynamic tropopause ... is somewhat lower than the thermal tropopause", which I think strongly downplays the huge difference between the two tropopauses in this situation. The GLORIA derived thermal tropopause is always above the -4 pvu contour and the -2 pvu contour is up to 4 km(!) lower than the thermal tropopause. Clearly there is exciting dynamics going on with a -2 pvu tropopause reaching below 7 km, but this is not properly discussed. The implications for STE are that crossing the thermal tropopause brings an air mass to a region with PV \geq -4 pvu, which is not yet the "real troposphere". I think it should be emphasized that the low H₂O values observed by GLORIA are mainly/all above the -2 pvu tropopause. This questions then somehow whether you really observed dehydrated air in the troposphere or just in the lowermost stratosphere. To me this would be (almost) equally exciting - but I think that this ambiguity (what is the relevant tropopause in this situation? The thermal tropopause appears to be very high, etc.) should be much more carefully discussed.*

We agree to this point, that we cannot state that the observed dry air masses down to 7km are already in the troposphere. We revised the text (also according to your point 2), which contain a better description of the dynamic tropopause and a more diminished statement to the thermal tropopause. In the revised Figure 8 (now 9), we show that parts of the air masses between the thermal tropopause and the -2 PVU isoline are transported into the troposphere since they change their PV to values between 0 and -2 PVU.

- 7) *p. 7914, beginning of section 4.2.2: I suggest that this general discussion of the Antarctic tropopause is moved to the introduction and slightly extended. A highly relevant paper to reference is by Zngl and Hoinka, 2001, The tropopause in Polar regions, where they show that in winter the thermal tropopause definition is not very meaningful.*

The part is shifted to the introduction with citing the paper of Zngl and Hoinka, 2001. (see page 5 ll 92-102)

- 8) *The end of the story (Fig. 8 and its description) is a bit weak because of the shift of perspective from a very detailed analysis of the measurements (which I like) to the very coarse analysis of the trajectories over several months (which is very general and does not provide too much insight). It would be very interesting to understand what happens to the observed dry air masses during the following hours*

and few days (with the one month perspective we always get into the question of do we believe the trajectories? What does it mean that the gray area in Fig. 8c covers everything from 30 to 80S?). Do they enter the folded tropopause structure? Do they move to low/high latitudes (Fig. 8c indicates that they move poleward during the days after the observations: why? There is not much descent during this time period ...)? How does PV change along these air parcels? When do they cross the -2 pvu tropopause and where?

You are right, the rather long perspective is not very meaningful. We therefore replaced the Fig. 8 by a more detailed / shorter timescale analysis where we show the trajectories from all GLORIA observations (≥ 3 ppmv) below the thermal tropopause in a two week perspective. We separated the trajectories every time a RWB event happened and a subset of air masses (green and red line) were detached and separated from the rest. With this analysis it becomes better obvious, that one Rossby wave event is not the sole reason for the large downward transport. The separation in different branches reduces also the gray area and makes the trajectory analysis more meaningful. The text is revised according to the new Figure (see page 21 ll 544-584).

Minor comments

- - p. 7897 line 25: *references should be in chronological order*
Changed.
- - p. 7898 line 3: *"... dehydration extends down ..."*
Changed.
- - p. 7898 line 7: *"which lie around" is translated from German, maybe "ratios of about 4-5 ppmv"*
Changed.
- - p. 7898 line 9: *I think this is not really correct, for sublimation temperature is not directly relevant but rather relative humidity.*
Changed to "sublimate caused by sub-saturation of water vapor at higher temperatures".
- - p. 7899 line 14: *"quite far north up to" sounds odd, maybe "were measured in-situ between XdegS and YdegS"*
Changed.
- - p. 7900 line 12: *the James et al. paper is not really about tropopause folds, maybe Sprenger et al., Tropopause folds and cross-tropopause exchange: A global investigation based upon ECMWF analyses for the time period March 2000 to February 2001, J. Geophys. Res., 108(D12), 8518, doi:10.1029/2002JD002587, 2003, would be a better reference (which also shows that some folds occur along the Antarctic coast).*

We exchanged the reference to Sprenger et al., where it can be more clearly seen that tropopause folds occur more often in midlatitudes (see page 5 ll 113-115).

- - p. 7901 line 21 (and in several other places): I dont understand the notation "X% +/- Y ppmv", how can you add ppmv to %? Do you mean that the 6% correspond to about 0.4 ppmv?

This is a notation which is often used for instruments to specify the relative uncertainty (%) with a constant uncertainty due to the precision (see e.g. Fahey et al., AMT, 2014). We changed it to $\pm(X\% + Y \text{ ppmv})$ to make it more clearer.

- - p. 7903 lines 1 and 8: why do define precision with 2 sigma for one instrument and 1 sigma for another?

There is no hard definition for the precision of an instrument. So typically each instrument group state its precision with specifying the way how it is determined (1 σ , 2 σ , etc.).

- - p. 7903 lines 21ff: here I have the impression that the text is very general (a most general description of GLORIA), however a description that focuses more on the relevant aspects for this study would be more useful. Similarly, I dont think that you need to mention PSCs for this study (p. 7904 lines 16ff).

The GLORIA instrument is relatively new, thus it is rather unknown for most people. Therefore, we kept the description simple and referenced to the corresponding papers. Nevertheless, we give few information more about the H₂O product used in this study. Regarding the second part of your comment: We used the CALIPSO PSC cloud product to identify freezing events along the trajectories in order to show that dehydration is present in the lowermost stratosphere. The two sentence describe the data product. So we keep this description here.

- - p. 7904 line 2: "quantities at lower altitudes are several ... hundreds of kilometers away" is very unclear.

The vertical location of retrieved quantities approximately follows the tangent points of the measurement geometry (parabola curve through the atmosphere). With the following additional sentence we try to make the measurement geometry more clearer: "Assuming a flight altitude of 13 km the water vapor observation at 12 km is horizontally 113 km away from the aircraft while at 8 km it is already 250 km." (see page 9 ll 207-213)

- - p. 7908 line 2: "to focus on air masses where ..." sounds odd, maybe better "to focus on a time period when GLORIA observed vortex air"

Changed.

- - p. 7908 line 10: note that "westerly" is used only for winds (a westerly wind is from W to E), what you mean is probably simply "measured ... west of the flight path"

Changed.

- - p. 7908 line 13: why "seem"?

We see it east and west of the flight path in a distance of up to 250 km but cannot

ensure 100% that it is below the flight path / aircraft. But to avoid any confusion we skip the the word "seem".

Transport of Antarctic stratospheric strongly dehydrated air into the troposphere observed during the HALO-ESMVal campaign 2012

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Abstract

Dehydration in the Antarctic winter stratosphere is a well-known phenomenon that is **annually observed by satellites and** occasionally observed by balloon-borne measurements. However, in-situ measurements of **dehydrated air masses** in the Antarctic vortex are very rare. Here, we present detailed observations with the in-situ and GLORIA remote sensing instrument payload aboard the German aircraft HALO. Strongly dehydrated air masses down to 1.6 ppmv of water vapor were observed as far **northward** as 47° S **in an altitude** between 12 and 13 km in **the lowermost stratosphere**. The dehydration can be traced back to individual ice formation events **above the Antarctic Peninsula and Plateau**, where ice crystals sedimented out and water vapor was irreversibly removed. Within these dehydrated stratospheric air masses, filaments of moister air reaching down to the tropopause are detected with the high resolution limb sounder, GLORIA. Furthermore, dehydrated air masses are observed with GLORIA in the Antarctic **lowermost stratosphere** down to 7 km. With the help of a backward trajectory analysis, a **mid-latitude** origin of the moist filaments in the vortex can be identified, while the dry air masses **down to 7 km** have stratospheric origins. Antarctic stratosphere/troposphere exchange (STE) and **transport of dehydrated air masses into the troposphere are investigated**. Further, it is shown that the exchange process can be attributed to several successive Rossby wave events in combination with an isentropic **exchange** of air masses across the **thermal tropopause**. **The transport into the troposphere is caused by air masses that are detached from the PV structure by Rossby wave breaking events and subsequent transported diabatically across the dynamical tropopause**. Once transported to the troposphere, air masses with stratospheric origin **can** reach near-surface levels within **several days**.

1 Introduction

Antarctic stratospheric dehydration occurs regularly every winter and spring in the very isolated **and very cold** southern hemispheric polar vortex

(e.g. Kelly et al., 1989; Schoeberl et al., 1992; Vömel et al., 1995; Nedoluha et al., 2002; Jimenez

The reason is that the temperatures in the Antarctic stratosphere are regularly sufficiently low for ice particles to form. These ice particles will sediment with a rate of 2.5 km d^{-1} depending on their size and will thus transport water to lower altitudes. If dehydration extends down to the tropopause, water is removed from the stratosphere and changes the stratospheric water vapor budget of the lower Antarctic vortex drastically. After the break-up of the Antarctic vortex, redistribution and exchange between vortex air and air masses outside the vortex lead to a return to typical stratospheric background water vapor mixing ratios of about 4–5 ppmv (Nedoluha et al., 2007). Rehydration with redistribution of water from the solid into the gas-phase occurs at lower altitudes where ice crystals sublimate caused by sub-saturation of water vapor at higher temperatures. In the Arctic region, stratospheric dehydration is also possible but much less frequent than in the Southern Hemisphere (e.g. Schiller et al., 2002; Khaykin et al., 2013).

Dehydration of Antarctic vortex air masses is observed frequently by satellite measurements (e.g. Nedoluha et al., 2002; Jimenez et al., 2006; Schoeberl and Dessler, 2011). However, satellite measurements in the lower stratosphere and upper troposphere (UT/LS) do not offer the necessary horizontal and vertical resolution to be suitable for process studies in the tropopause region. Balloon borne measurements launched from the Antarctic continent also observed dehydration and the corresponding rehydration (e.g. Vömel et al., 1995). Beside these balloon soundings, only three aircraft campaigns have been conducted where Antarctic stratospheric air masses were probed in-situ; two US campaigns with the ER-2 aircraft (AAOE in 1987; Tuck et al., 1989, and ASHOE in 1994; Tuck et al., 1997) and one European campaign with the Geophysica aircraft (APE-GAIA in 1999; Giovanelli et al., 2005). Airborne in-situ measurements in the Antarctic vortex are very rare, since the flight range of research aircraft is limited. This paper focuses on one measurement flight directly into the Antarctic vortex that was performed as part of the ESMVal (Earth System Model Validation; Schlager, 2014) campaign in September 2012 with the German research aircraft HALO (High Altitude and Long range; Krautstrunk and Giez, 2012). The ESMVal campaign was embedded in the TACTS (Transport And Composition in the Upper

Troposphere/Lowermost Stratosphere; Engel et al., 2013) campaign which took place just before and after the ESMVal flights in August and the end of September 2012. A mutual scientific objective of both campaigns was to investigate the transition region between the troposphere and stratosphere. HALO was equipped with in-situ instruments as well as the high resolution limb sounder, GLORIA (Gimballed Limb Observer for Radiance Imaging of the Atmosphere). This combination of high-precision in-situ measurements together with sophisticated remote sensing observations in the UT/LS is an outstanding attribute of both campaigns. Another objective of the ESMVal flights was to obtain a full meridional cross section of atmospheric measurements for global chemistry model evaluation. The Antarctica flight was performed in an effort to penetrate as far south as possible and reach the stratospheric vortex. During this flight, dehydrated air masses were measured in-situ far north up to 45° S between 12 and 13 km. In contrast, Aura-MLS and POAM 3 satellite measurements (Nedoluha et al., 2002; Jimenez et al., 2006; Schoeberl and Dessler, 2011) do not show dehydrated air masses as far north (not beyond 57° S) and as low in the stratosphere and upper troposphere as was observed during this ESMVal flight. This is mostly caused by the poor resolution of satellites in the UT/LS region.

In general, the process of dehydration is well understood. Relatively little is known about the fate of the dehydrated air masses at the bottom of the stable vortex. Tuck et al. (1997) found out that dehydrated air masses descend downwards through the bottom of the vortex down to the thermal tropopause. Normally, the air within the Antarctic polar vortex is highly isolated with a weak exchange of trace gases across the vortex edge driven by stratospheric planetary Rossby waves propagating from the troposphere and Rossby wave breaking (RWB) events. However, the RWB events mainly disturb the bottom of the polar vortex, where the vortex edge barely exists as an isolating mechanism. Mixing and transport of dehydrated air masses from the Antarctic lower stratosphere towards mid-latitudes is also indicated by previous aircraft mission with the ER-2 (Tuck, 1989). Thus, the Antarctic lowermost stratosphere consists of dehydrated air masses frequently mixed with moist mid-latitude air (Tuck et al., 1997; Lee et al., 2002). The vortex edge in the Southern Hemisphere is typically less strongly disturbed than in the Arctic due to less wave activity

85 (Schoeberl et al., 1992). For instance, Khosrawi et al. (2006) presented a case study where
at the edge of a midlatitude deep intrusion in the northern hemisphere also dehydrated air
masses were observed.

Nevertheless, Antarctic stratospheric air masses can also be exchanged with tropo-
spheric air masses (stratosphere/troposphere exchange (STE)) and can be transported
90 deep into the troposphere creating a dry tongue reaching down to the Earth's surface. This
air is rich in ozone and reactive nitrogen due to the stratospheric origin and can influence
the chemical composition of the Antarctic troposphere (Stohl and Sodemann, 2010; Miha-
likova and Kirkwood, 2013). The thermal tropopause, for instance, is characterized by a
low temperature lapse rate (≤ 2 K/km) and coincides with a change in the static stability.
95 Thus, the thermal tropopause separates the unstable troposphere from the stable strato-
sphere. However, the thermal tropopause in the Antarctic region is formed under unique cli-
mate conditions (Evtushevsky et al., 2011). The upper troposphere and lower stratosphere
are generally very cold with a very weak vertical temperature gradient during winter and
spring. Therefore, the thermal tropopause in the Antarctic region is rather poorly defined
100 (Stohl and Sodemann, 2010). As a consequence, transport across the thermal tropopause
can be either along isentropes crossing the thermal tropopause or diabatic with reduction
in potential temperature. In addition, Zangl and Hoinka (2001) showed that the definition
of the thermal tropopause in the Antarctic winter is not very meaningful in contrast to the
potential vorticity (PV)-based tropopause definition.

105 Stohl and Sodemann (2010) identify two general processes that transport stratospheric
air masses down to near-surface levels. The first process might involve katabatic winds at
the surface over the Antarctic Plateau caused by the high topography that create a gen-
eral downwelling above the Antarctic continent as suggested by Roscoe (2004). The sec-
ond process is driven by mid-latitude cyclones on the poleward side of the jet stream that
110 support RWB events and a corresponding stratospheric intrusion as reported by Ndarana
et al. (2012). Downward transport could be either very fast along tilted isentropes on time
scales of 1-5 days (Škerlak et al., 2014) or slower by radiative cooling and reduction in po-
tential temperature. In the latter case, air masses can potentially descend from the ther-

mal tropopause to near-surface heights within 10 days (descent rate of 5 mm s^{-1}) or longer as reported by van de Berg et al. (2007). Rossby wave induced stratospheric intrusions, such as tropopause folds, occur more often further north and in the midlatitudes than directly above the Antarctic continent (Sprenger et al., 2003; Škerlak et al., 2014). However, the frequency, the seasonality, and the process behind tropopause folds and stratospheric intrusions in the Antarctic region is still under debate (Stohl and Sodemann, 2010; Ndarana et al., 2012; Mihalikova and Kirkwood, 2013).

The following research questions will be answered, based on the observations of the ES-MVal flight (13 September 2012): 1) Can we confirm dehydration in the lowermost stratosphere and at the bottom of the Antarctic vortex? 2) How deep do dehydrated air masses from the vortex descend into the troposphere? 3) Where and how have Antarctic dehydrated stratospheric air masses been transported?

To answer the questions above the study presented here is structured as follows: in Sect. 2, a brief overview of the different instruments and data used is given. The in-situ and remote sensing measurements across the Antarctic polar vortex are described in Sect. 3. Furthermore, Sect. 4 includes an extensive trajectory case study: First, dehydration in the in the Antarctic lowermost stratosphere is analyzed. Second, the transport of dehydrated air masses and the question how deep below the thermal tropopause dehydrated air masses can be found is investigated.

2 Instrumentation and meteorological data

The German research aircraft, HALO, deployed during TACTS and ESMVal has a long flight endurance of up to 12 h. This allows air masses in the Antarctic vortex to be sampled without landing in Antarctica. Altogether, a set of nine in-situ instruments for measuring trace gases and one remote sensing instrument were installed aboard HALO. For the study presented here, we use the water vapor data of FISH and HAI as well as measurements from TRIHOP for methane and FAIRO for ozone. The remote sensing instrument GLORIA, provides cross-sections of trace gases that are approximately parallel to the flight track of the aircraft.

GLORIA's high vertical resolution makes it particularly suited for the investigation of small-scale structures.

In addition to the aircraft measurements, satellite observations from CALIPSO and meteorological **reanalysis** data from ECMWF are used for further interpretation of the observed situation. The instruments and meteorological data are described in the following subsections. **The thermal tropopause definition in this study based on the WMO definition (WMO , 1957) using the lowest height at which the temperature lapse rate decreases to ≤ 2 K/km and remains below this value for a range of at least 2 km.**

2.1 FISH – total water measurements (in-situ H₂O)

The airborne Lyman- α photofragment fluorescence hygrometer FISH (Fast In-situ Stratospheric hygrometer) is a well-established closed-path instrument for measuring water vapor in the range of 1 to 1000 ppmv (Zöger et al., 1999). The FISH is especially built to measure the low water vapor mixing ratios prevailing in the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere. It is regularly calibrated on the ground to a reference frost point hygrometer (MBW DP30) and had an accuracy of $\pm(6\% + 0.4 \text{ ppmv})$ during TACTS and ESMVal campaigns (Meyer et al., 2015). The air supply for the measuring cell is provided by a forward facing inlet, which also samples ice crystals if present (H₂O_{cond}). Together, the evaporated crystals and the gas-phase water (H₂O_{gas}) sum up to a total water measurement.

2.2 HAI – total water measurements (in-situ H₂O)

The Hygrometer for Atmospheric Investigation (HAI) (Buchholz, 2014) is a fast, airborne, in-situ hygrometer capable of multi-phase water detection that employs direct Tunable Diode Laser Absorption Spectroscopy (dTDLAS) in combination with a special data retrieval method, which allows absolute water vapor measurements without any sensor calibration (Buchholz et al., 2013). This data retrieval was recently successfully validated via a direct side by side comparison with the German metrological water vapor scale (Buchholz et al., 2014). HAI is a 2×2 , multi-channel TDLAS spectrometer which realizes, in a unique

concept, a simultaneous gas phase and total water measurement via a parallel water detection in an open-path cell, outside the aircraft fuselage, and in extractive (i.e. gas sampling) closed-path cells inside the aircraft. To enlarge the dynamic range to 1–40 000 ppmv, both cell types are simultaneously probed by two laser wavelengths, at 1.4 μm for the lower to mid troposphere and at 2.6 μm for the upper troposphere and the stratosphere. The ranges of the 1.4 and 2.6 μm spectrometer channels overlap and therefore provide a redundant, independent detection between 10 and about 5000 ppmv. The metrologically calculated spectrometer uncertainties are $\pm(4.3\% + 3 \text{ ppmv})$ at 1.4 μm and $\pm(5.9\% + 0.4 \text{ ppmv})$ at 2.6 μm . In this study, data from the two closed-path spectrometers are used, i.e. total water measurements similar to FISH.

2.3 TRIHOP – methane measurement (in-situ CH_4)

The TRIHOP instrument is a three channel Quantum Cascade Laser Infrared Absorption spectrometer capable of the subsequent measurement of CO , CO_2 , N_2O and CH_4 . During TACTS/ESMVal the instrument was calibrated in-situ against secondary standards of compressed ambient air which are traceable against NOAA standards. Integration time for each species was 1.5 s at a duty cycle of 8 s, which finally limits the temporal resolution of the measurements. For the ESMVal flight on 13 September 2012, TRIHOP CH_4 -data achieved a precision (2σ) of 9.5 ppbv and accuracy of 13.5 ppbv, respectively, without any corrections applied.

2.4 FAIRO – ozone measurement (in-situ O_3)

FAIRO is a new accurate ozone instrument developed for use on board the HALO aircraft. It combines two techniques, the UV photometry (light absorption of O_3 at $\lambda = 250\text{--}260 \text{ nm}$) with high accuracy and chemiluminescence detection with high measurement frequency. A UV-LED is used as a light source for the UV photometer, which can be controlled well (in contrast to Hg lamps) for constant light emission. The 1-sigma precision is 0.08 ppbv at a measurement frequency of 4 s and a cuvette pressure of 1 bar and the total uncertainty

is 2%. The chemiluminescence detector shows a measurement frequency of 12.5 Hz and a high precision of 0.05 ppbv (at 10 ppbv absolute, a measurement frequency of 5 Hz, and a pressure of 1 bar) (Zahn et al., 2012).

2.5 GLORIA (aircraft remote sensing)

The Gimballed Limb Observer for Radiance Imaging of the Atmosphere (GLORIA) combines a two-dimensional focal plane detector array with a Fourier-transform spectrometer to capture about 6000 infrared limb spectra simultaneously. This enables remote sensing observations with high vertical and horizontal resolution to resolve small scale structures (see Riese et al., 2014). The spectral sampling can be switched between 0.625 and 0.0625 cm^{-1} at the cost of an increased acquisition time in case of higher spectral resolution (Friedl-Vallon et al., 2014). The gimbal mount and inertial altitude control system allows GLORIA to maintain a steady pointing on a moving aircraft; it can also be used to point the instrument at a range of azimuth angles with respect to the aircraft, covering about 70° . This allows for tomographic measurement patterns and 3-D reconstruction of fine-scale filamentary structures (Ungermann et al., 2011; Kaufmann et al., 2014). The vertical location of retrieved quantities approximately follows the tangent points of the measurement geometry (parabola curve through the atmosphere). Thus, while the location of quantities retrieved at flight level lies in the vicinity of the aircraft, the locations of quantities at lower altitudes are horizontally several tens to hundreds of kilometers away from the flightpath. Assuming a flight altitude of 13 km the water vapor observation at 12 km is horizontally 113 km away from the aircraft while at 8 km it is already 250 km. Concerning the water vapor product used in this paper, GLORIA achieved a vertical and horizontal resolution of about 500 m and 100 km, respectively. The water vapor precision and total error (accuracy + precision) amounts to about 0.2 ppmv and 1.0 ppmv in the stratosphere. Ungermann et al. (2015) showed that GLORIA water vapor at flight level agrees fairly well with the in-situ FISH measurements, within error bars. The deviations to FISH during the ESMVal/TACTS flights are mostly less than 0.4 ppmv.

220 2.6 CALIPSO (satellite remote sensing)

The Cloud-Aerosol Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder Satellite Observation (CALIPSO) satellite is one of five satellites in the NASA A-train constellation. CALIPSO completes 14.55 orbits per day with an inclination of 98.2° and thus delivers good coverage above the polar regions. Besides one wide field camera and an imaging infrared radiometer, the Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal Polarization (CALIOP) is aboard CALIPSO. The lidar operates with two wavelengths (532, 1064 nm) with additional polarization-sensitivity, providing high-resolution vertical backscatter profiles of aerosols and clouds. In this study we use the CALIPSO Lidar Level 2 Polar Stratospheric Cloud (PSC) data product, which is described in Pitts et al. (2009) and Pitts et al. (2011). This data product provides a PSC composition scheme on a daily basis for all nighttime orbits with a resolution of 5 km horizontally by 180 m vertically.

230 2.7 ECMWF (meteorological data)

Global meteorological reanalysis ERA-Interim data (Dee et al., 2011) of the ECMWF (European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts) are used to **interpret** the observations. The meteorological fields have a resolution of $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ with 60 vertical levels from the surface (1000 hPa) up to 0.1 hPa. Every 6 h a full global dataset is available. The trajectories used in Sect. 4 are based on the horizontal wind fields and diabatic heating rates; additional parameters like temperature, pressure etc. are added to the trajectories from the ERA-Interim data (**for details see Sec. 4**).

240 3 ESMVal flight on 13 September 2012

3.1 Meteorological situation/flight pattern

The **general dynamical situation of the Antarctic vortex is shown in Figure 1a. High PV values of < -9 PVU denotes the Antarctic vortex at the 350 K isentrope which corresponds**

245 approximately to the flight level. The vortex edge is marked with a blue line according to the
definition of Nash et al. (1996) . The vortex itself is shifted about 10° towards Africa indicat-
ing a wave one pattern caused by Rossby wave activity. This results in high PV values up
to 47° S, where the aircraft in-situ measurements confirm the presence of Antarctic vortex
250 air as will be shown later (see Section 3.2). In the lowermost stratosphere below the vortex,
represented by the 310 K isentrope (see Figure 1b), the PV structure with high PV values
around -6 to -3 PVU is more jagged but mostly connected. Here, a strong Rossby wave ac-
tivity is visible and also RWB events associated with isolated PV structures are discernible.
A blob with high PV at 60° to 47° S and 10° to 30° E indicates an ongoing RWB event.
255 These air masses were probed during the ESMVal flight on 13 September 2012. The flight
was performed from Cape Town (South Africa) heading towards Antarctica until 65° S at an
altitude of 12–13 km (see Fig. 2). After a dive from 12.5 km down to 3 km to sample the tran-
sition from the polar stratosphere to the troposphere, the return flight took place at 12.5 km
and rose up to 15 km shortly before descending back to Cape Town. A hexagonal flight
pattern was included in the flight path back to Cape Town to enable the tomographic study
of trace gases with GLORIA. The ECMWF wind field (black lines) as well as the strongly
260 increasing potential vorticity (PV, see Fig. 3) show that the vortex edge (yellow dots, deter-
mined with the Nash criterion) was far north, up to 47° S down to the 340 K level. The color
code in Fig. 2a represents the in-situ measured water vapor mixing ratios from FISH along
the flight path. Directly south of the vortex edge the water vapor mixing ratios decrease
rapidly to below 2.5 ppmv (purple dots along the flight path).

265 The latitudinal cross section of PV from ECMWF along the flight path is shown in Fig. 2b.
The thermal tropopause (cyan dots) stays almost constant at around 10 km and rises up to
12 km further poleward. The PV and also the equivalent latitude (not shown) reveal high val-
ues within the vortex and thus clearly mark the vortex air masses. However, high PV values
of -2 PVU show up far below the thermal tropopause down to 5 km altitude in the latitude
270 range from 60 – 45° S. The difference compared to a tropopause fold at the mid-latitude jet
is that the air masses directly originate from the Antarctic vortex and were strongly dehy-
drated. Thus, the air masses have a different chemical composition than the "normal" air

masses in the mid-latitude lowermost stratosphere. This indicates that these air masses originate from higher altitudes and were transported through the thermal tropopause and form a stratospheric intrusion with a low PV-based tropopause. Interestingly, the isentropes between 310 K and 320 K intersect the thermal tropopause on the poleward side of the jet core. Therefore, air masses can be potentially transported along these tilted isentropes to the low altitudes across the thermal tropopause into the low PV structure. The flight path crosses the air masses with high PV in the stratosphere before and after the dive. The dive down to 3.5 km altitude was performed on the poleward side of the air masses with high PV below the thermal tropopause.

3.2 Observations

The time series of the in-situ measurements are shown in Fig. 3, where the measurements of the water vapor instruments are visible in the upper panel and the measurements of the tracers for defining stratospheric/vortex air masses are shown in the lower panel. After the ascent of HALO near Cape Town, the water vapor mixing ratio decreases to the typical stratospheric value of 4 ppmv, from 06:30 until 08:15 UTC. During this time, ozone and PV (i.e. the stratospheric tracers with low values in the troposphere) show an increase compared to the values before 06:30 UTC, while methane (tropospheric tracer with low values in the stratosphere) shows a slight decrease from 1790 to 1740 ppbv. Both indicates that the aircraft entered the stratosphere. Henceforth, methane and water vapor further decrease to 1650 ppbv and 3 ppmv respectively on the same flight level starting at 08:15 UTC, and simultaneously ozone and PV further increase. This is the time when HALO penetrated the Antarctic vortex (marked in blue in Fig. 3). After ascending to a higher flight level (08:35 UTC), water vapor decreases to slightly above 2 ppmv and stays there until the southernmost point was reached and the dive started at 11:00 UTC. This low water vapor in the time between 08:15 and 11:00 UTC coincides well with high PV values (see Fig. 2b). Subsequently, the strong increase in methane and decrease in ozone and PV indicate the penetration of the aircraft into the Antarctic troposphere at 11:00 UTC. After returning to the previous flight level (11:45 UTC), the vortex signatures with low values of water vapor and

methane as well as high values of ozone and PV show up again. However, at this point (~ 12:30 UTC) the water vapor mixing ratio reaches the lowest value of 1.6 ± 0.5 ppmv together with a strong maximum in ozone and PV. The low water vapor below 4 and even below 2 ppmv indicates strongly dehydrated air masses.

305 The saturation mixing ratio with respect to ice within the vortex is three to four times larger than the measured water vapor mixing ratio. Thus, the sampled air masses were clearly sub-saturated with relative humidities of 25–33 % and it is unlikely that ice particles remained in the probed air masses. In addition, HAI and FISH show no peaks in the total water vapor time series (based on 1 Hz data), which would indicate the presence of ice particles on the flight level. Especially, the water vapor mixing ratios around 2 ppmv during the stratospheric flight legs (06:30 to 11:00 and 11:45 to 15:45 UTC) are very smooth and show no significant variations. Thus, both water vapor instruments, FISH and HAI, measured only gas-phase water vapor, and no cloud particles were present in the vortex air. Both FISH and HAI observed these low water vapor mixing ratios independently.

310 In order to show the fairly good agreement of both water vapor instruments FISH and HAI based on 1 Hz data at the observed low water vapor values, we choose two flight legs for the comparison (leg one: 09:45–10:45 UTC and leg two: 13:00–14:00 UTC). During flight leg one, both hygrometers have an absolute difference of 0.21 ppmv and a mean relative difference of -14.9% ($\pm 10.5\%$, 1σ). During flight leg two, a difference of 0.26 ppmv and a mean relative difference of -5.9% ($\pm 7.3\%$, 1σ) is found. These rather small differences are consistent with the uncertainties of both hygrometers, which are ± 0.45 and ± 0.5 ppmv at the 2 ppmv level for FISH and HAI, respectively. The HAI data measured before 09:10 UTC (marked with gray in Fig. 3) are influenced by an untypical memory effect of the measurement cell during ascent, caused by a valve which was opened too late, but only when flying in the upper troposphere. As a result, the “wet” measurement cells were not sufficiently dried off with the high mass flows during take-off and ascent. This also explains the asymmetry in the deviations to FISH before and after the dive. In addition, the agreement of GLORIA water vapor observations at flight level with the two in-situ instruments, FISH and HAI, is remarkably good, considering that GLORIA is a remote sensing instrument.

330 The GLORIA instrument measures quasi-vertical profiles along the flight path by viewing
the atmosphere on the right side of HALO. Here, we focus on the H₂O retrieval product,
which is shown in Fig. 4. We consider only the times from 08:00 to 14:00 UTC to focus
on a time period when GLORIA observed vortex air (the whole dataset is from 06:30 to
15:30 UTC). The dive is noticeable as the white area between 11:00 and 12:00 UTC, where
335 GLORIA did not measure in order to prevent condensation of tropospheric water vapor
on the cold instrument. The dry vortex air masses are clearly visible between 08:00 and
13:00 UTC at flight level (black solid line in Fig. 4), but also below, down to altitudes of
7 km. As mentioned in Sect. 2.5, the quantities retrieved from GLORIA are approximately
placed on a parabola following the tangent points through the atmosphere (e.g. 250 km
340 horizontal distance to flight path at 9 km altitude). The dry region just before the dive was
measured by GLORIA west of the flight path on the way towards Antarctica, while the air
masses after the dive are measured east of the flightpath on the way back to Cape Town.
Thus, the dehydrated air masses below the thermal tropopause cover a large region, having
a dimension of at least 500 km horizontally at 9 km altitude.

345 The thermal tropopause is also derived from the GLORIA retrieved temperature profiles
and is marked with black dots. Interestingly, low water vapor mixing ratios around and be-
low 2 ppmv are observed beneath the thermal tropopause. Especially in the time range from
09:00 to 10:30 UTC and from 12:00 to 13:30 UTC, very dry air masses with water vapor mix-
ing ratios of 2–3 ppmv can be found far below the thermal tropopause, down to 7 km. This
350 indicates that dehydrated stratospheric air masses could have been transported through
the thermal tropopause. The dynamic tropopause, which is between the –4 and –2 PVU
isoline, is somewhat lower than the thermal tropopause at ~7 km in the time range from
12:00 to 13:30 UTC and indicates a proceeding stratospheric intrusion. In Sect. 4.2, we
analyze this transport process with the help of air mass backward trajectories. In addition,
355 no water vapor values less than 6 ppmv are found below the –4 PVU isoline in ECMWF
data (not shown here). This shows, at least for this situation, that the transport process of
dry stratospheric air masses to these low altitudes we observed here is not captured by the
ECMWF meteorological analysis (see Sect. 4).

360 Embedded in the dry vortex air masses, small filaments (marked in Fig. 4 with red boxes)
of enhanced water vapor are visible. These filaments may indicate rehydration layers, where
sedimented ice particles from upper layers have sublimated and resulted in layers of en-
hanced water vapor as described in Khaykin et al. (e.g. 2013) for the Arctic. However, tra-
jectory reverse domain filling (RDF) (Sect. 4.2) showed that these air masses could not be
365 attributed to rehydration. Also the in-situ measurements of FISH/HAI showed no evidence
of a rehydration layer during the dive from ~ 12.5 to 3 km and back. We have analyzed
these somewhat moister air masses in more detail, as discussed in the next section.

4 Trajectory based case study of 13 September 2012

Detailed investigation of the observed Antarctic dehydration is performed using air mass
trajectories calculated with the tool CLaMS-traj which is part of the Chemical Lagrangian
370 Model for the Stratosphere (CLaMS) (McKenna et al., 2002; Konopka et al., 2007).
The trajectories are driven by the ERA-Interim reanalysis horizontal winds and diabatic
heating rates (Dee et al., 2011; Ploeger et al., 2010). **To resolve transport processes
in the troposphere influenced by the orography and transport processes in the strato-
sphere where adiabatic horizontal transport dominates, the hybrid σ - θ coordinate ζ is used
(Mahowald et al., 2002) . Therefore in the stratosphere and in the UTLS, potential tempera-
375 ture θ is employed as the vertical coordinate of the model and the cross-isentropic velocity
 $\dot{\theta} = Q$ is deduced from the ERA-Interim forecast total diabatic heating rates Q , including the
effects of all-sky radiative heating, latent heat release and diffusive heating as described by
Ploeger et al. (2010) . In the tropospheric region defined by the condition $\sigma = 0.3$, the verti-
380 cal model coordinate smoothly transforms into an orography-following $\sigma = p/p_s$ -coordinate
(p - pressure, p_s - surface pressure), with the vertical velocity transforming into the corre-
sponding $\dot{\sigma}$ (Pommrich et al., 2014) . Besides temperature, pressure, and humidity along
the trajectories, the potential vorticity (PV) and thermal tropopause height (WMO, <2 K/km
lapse rate criterion) are **derived** from the ECMWF meteorological fields. The temperatures
385 from ECMWF along the flight path agree very well with the measured temperatures from the**

HALO aircraft (not shown here). The mean deviation on each flight level is mostly around 0.4 K, and the temperatures in ECMWF are slightly lower than the measured temperatures.

In the following we will use the trajectory analysis to investigate the time scale and location of potential dehydration events. In a second step we will analyze the trajectory data for possible exchange into the Antarctic troposphere.

4.1 History of dehydrated air masses along flight path

In this section, we investigate the history of the in-situ measured dehydrated air masses. For that purpose, the trajectories are calculated every 10 s along the flight path, each reaching 50 days backwards in time. For further analysis, we selected all trajectories between 12:20–12:29 UTC (in total 54), where the lowest water vapor mixing ratios were measured. However, the other trajectories with measured low water vapor mixing ratios between 2 and 3 ppmv show very similar history. Figure 5 shows the median saturation mixing ratio with respect to ice (orange line) and the frequency distribution (gray scale color-code) of every 1 h trajectory time step of all trajectories calculated by ClAMS along the 50 days back in time. The trajectories show the same history in saturation mixing ratio from 13 September until 14 August, where the trajectory start to diverge. This indicates that the trajectories have the same path with the same temperature history for at least 30 days. After this time, the trajectories split up into two branches, indicating a bifurcation point and associated mixing on 14 August. The trajectories within the branch with lower saturation mixing ratios of 2 to 3 ppmv below the median line stay together on the same path until the beginning of August. The trajectories before the 1 August have different saturation mixing ratios indicating the dispersion of air masses, which limits the interpretation of the trajectory calculations.

To show the presence of ice particles and subsequent dehydration, CALIPSO data (see Sect. 2.6) are used. A distance criterion is used to match the air mass trajectories with the CALIPSO data. Every trajectory at a specific time which coincides with the CALIPSO orbit inside a square of $\pm 5^\circ$ latitude and $\pm 5^\circ$ longitude is checked for the presence of ice in an altitude range of ± 0.2 km. If more than 50 % of all trajectories at one time coincide with

a CALIPSO ice observation, the corresponding time periods are marked with a blue bar (see Fig. 5).

415 Figure 5 illustrates the coincidence of low saturation mixing ratios along the trajectories with observed ice formation (CALIPSO) in the considered air masses. The trajectories pass several cold regions associated with low saturation mixing ratio where ice formation is initiated. If the ice cloud and supersaturation exist long enough (typically around 0.5–1 day, Nedoluha et al., 2002) to allow the ice particles to grow to sizes of several microns (diameter of 10 to 20 μm), sedimentation of these ice particles begins and causes irreversible dehydration. The sedimented ice particles with these sizes fall with velocities of around 420 2.5 km d^{-1} (see Müller and Peter, 1992) until warmer temperatures in lower regions causes them to evaporate. With each pass of a cold region, more and more water vapor is removed from the air mass. As stated by Nedoluha et al. (2002), air masses must undergo several 425 periods with dehydration before reaching the 1 to 2 ppmv mixing ratio level, which is typically observed by satellites within the vortex in the Antarctic spring. This periodic behavior is confirmed by Fig. 5, where trajectories undergo four events with low saturation mixing ratios and simultaneous ice cloud observations by CALIPSO. The first and the second period (1 and 9 August) reveal rather high saturation mixing ratios of around 3 ppmv. In every later 430 period, colder temperatures and lower saturation mixing ratios are necessary to initiate additional ice formation and dehydration. **This is the case during** the third and the fourth period on 16 and 29 August where CALIPSO observed ice show lower saturation mixing ratios of 1.5 and 1.2 ppmv, respectively. The last two events will have dried out the air masses to the final state of about 1.6 ppmv, which is observed by the FISH and HAI instruments. After 435 this strong dehydration, the temperatures became warmer in the late Antarctic spring and summer and no additional dehydration took place according to the simulations.

The recurring low saturation mixing ratios and corresponding low temperatures are primarily caused by gravity waves, which are induced by the high topography of the Antarctic continent (Stohl and Sodemann, 2010). Especially, the first three ice formation events occurred just as the trajectories passed the Antarctic Peninsula (northernmost part), which is 440 a strong source of gravity waves (e.g. Ern et al., 2011; Hoffmann et al., 2013). Only the last

freezing event with the lowest supersaturation occurs above the Antarctic Plateau (central part) in the north-east of the continent.

After freezing, the ice particles can even reach the troposphere due to sedimentation, especially if dehydration takes place at low altitudes (11.5–12.5 km) as **revealed by the trajectories**. The lack of rehydration signatures in the GLORIA measurements (see Fig. 4) also indicates the permanent removal of water vapor from the stratosphere, as will be further discussed in Sect. 4.2. The air masses from which the ice particles originate and the air masses where they **potentially sublime in the troposphere** behave very differently in dynamical perspective (**not shown**). Due to the length of time since the last dehydration on 28 August (16 days before measurement) it is very unlikely that rehydrated air masses would still be found below the observed dehydrated air masses in the troposphere. In addition, the in-situ measurements taken during the dive confirm the absence of any observed rehydration features.

4.2 History of air masses observed by GLORIA

The trajectories for analyzing the transport of dehydrated air masses observed by GLORIA are calculated **70** days backward in time from each tangent point (in total 30 000 single trajectories). In addition, the trajectories are also calculated **14** days forward to show where the air masses are further transported. With this set of trajectories, the GLORIA measurements can be interpreted and the associated transport pathways can be investigated.

In the first subsection, the dehydrated air masses observed with the in-situ instruments and GLORIA in the lowermost stratosphere are analyzed and the origin of moist filaments is investigated. The second subsection contains the trajectory analysis of dry air masses found to be below the thermal tropopause and investigate the further transport.

4.2.1 Vortex air masses

From the in-situ ozone and methane measurements, it is visible that the HALO aircraft has penetrated the Antarctic vortex (see Sect. 3.2). The identification of vortex air masses in the

GLORIA trace gas cross-sections is performed using the tangent point trajectories. Figure 6 shows the amount of time that the trajectory for each GLORIA tangent point stayed within the vortex before the measurement took place. To calculate this so-called vortex indicator, the vortex border needs to be determined at each trajectory time step with the Nash criterion (Nash et al., 1996). Then, the time that each individual trajectory remains within the vortex border is counted backwards from the time of measurement. This procedure is limited to the preceding 50 days. The blue color in Fig. 6 shows the trajectories that stay in the vortex for at least the last 50 days. In contrast, air masses that were never in the vortex are indicated by a deep red color. This includes tropospheric air, but also stratospheric air masses north of 48° S. Interestingly, **strong gradients between former vortex air (blue) and extra-vortex air (red) are evident** between 09:00 and 11:00 UTC and also between 11:45 and 12:20 UTC, which exactly follows the measured thermal tropopause (black dots). Here, the **lower vortex boundary defined by (Nash et al., 1996) along the trajectories coincide well with the WMO thermal tropopause.**

In contrast, the air masses that spent between 5 and 40 days in the vortex (marked by light blue and reddish colors) indicate mixing of **mid latitude** air into the vortex. Even at the vortex edge and in the core of the vortex itself, small filaments are apparent. As indicated in Sect. 3.2, some filaments with elevated amounts of water vapor were also observed with GLORIA. Two of these filaments observed around 13:00 UTC between 10 to 12 km altitude can be found with this Nash PV criterion showing vortex residence times of 5 days (filament 6) and 35 days (filament 7), respectively. This shows that these filaments are likely freshly mixed in from outside the vortex and thus could potentially contain higher water vapor content compared to the dehydrated vortex air and therefore weaken the hypothesis of rehydration signatures.

To show that all observed filaments (red boxes in Fig. 4) are caused by mixing, reverse domain filling (RDF) is applied to all trajectories, as already stated in Sect. 3.2 (similar as in Beuermann et al., 2002). For the RDF calculation, only advection and no mixing along the trajectories is assumed. In each time step of the RDF method, the ECMWF water vapor field

is interpolated onto the locations of the trajectories and then projected onto the observed time-altitude grid of the GLORIA observations.

Figure 7 shows ECMWF water vapor mixing ratios five days prior to the measurement time as projected by the trajectories. The red boxes highlight the position of the water vapor filaments observed by GLORIA (see Fig. 4). With some small deviations in time and altitude, almost all of the observed filaments in the vortex can be reproduced by the RDF method. Note, that the RDF method cannot produce the effect of rehydration. This indicates that the water vapor filaments observed by GLORIA were not generated by rehydration, but are likely the signatures of moister **mid-latitude** air masses that were mixed into the vortex during the preceding 5 days. Continuing the RDF method further back in time, the filament 7 (≈ 12 km) at 13:00 UTC emerges 35 days before observation and indicates the origin to be another mixing event. The time of in-mixing of the filament 7 was already visible in our analysis in Fig. 6. Thus, it seems that these filaments originate from several mixing events, not from a single mixing event only. Furthermore, very dry air masses observed in the time between 09:00 to 10:30 and 12:00 to 13:30 UTC down to 7 km (see Sect. 3.2) can also be partly reproduced with the RDF method, indicating that transport is the main reason for the occurrence of dry air below the thermal tropopause. The origin of these air masses and the transport mechanism are analyzed and discussed in the next subsection.

4.2.2 Transport of dehydrated air masses across the **thermal tropopause**

The weak vertical temperature gradient **and the poor definition of** the thermal tropopause **is** implied by the tropopause heights derived from GLORIA, which have a broad scatter (± 0.5 km) at some places. In addition, the PV gradient **along isentropes (i.e. isentropes following the PV isolines) as well as the vertical gradient** at the transition between troposphere and stratosphere within the vortex (08:30–13:30 UTC) is small. The PV isolines (-4 and -2) in the vortex have a larger spacing than at the edge (jet region), where the vertical distance between the isolines decreases (08:15 and 13:30 UTC in Fig. 6). As a consequence, **the weak isentropic PV gradient along the sloping isentropes facilitate a transport to lower altitudes below the location of the thermal tropopause. Subsequent diabatic processes may**

525 lead to STE and irreversible exchange with tropospheric air. Especially in the case of planetary wave breaking events that produce stratospheric intrusions, large amounts of air can be transported into the troposphere across the tropopause. Figure 8 shows the time difference between the trajectory initialization time and the first thermal tropopause crossing. This time is determined by counting the trajectory time steps backward in time to wherever the difference in altitude between current tropopause and trajectory is positive. Air parcels having stayed for the last 70 days below the thermal tropopause (dark red colors) can clearly be assumed to be tropospheric nature. In addition, low PV values (indicator for tropospheric air masses) can be attributed to these air masses as discernible from Figure 2 b.

530 The stratospheric and vortex air masses did not cross the thermal tropopause (dark blue colors). The air masses below the measured thermal tropopause are obviously more patchy and contain more trajectories originating from the troposphere (reddish colors). However, some freshly transported stratospheric air masses are also discernible below the thermal tropopause (light blue colors), down to 7 km. The green framed areas in Fig. 8 mark all the trajectories having tropopause crossing times between 0 and 70 days and where GLORIA observations reveal a water vapor content of less than 3 ppmv. Indeed, there is a very good correlation between the light blue air masses, which crossed the thermal tropopause between 2 and 6 days before, and the green framed areas marking the dehydrated air masses. In addition to the low water vapor content in the green framed areas, higher values of ozone were also observed by GLORIA, which corroborates the stratospheric origin of these air masses (not shown here).

545 Figure 9 shows the median altitude (a), PV (b), latitude (c) and equivalent latitude (d) distributions of all trajectories within the green framed areas from Fig. 8 for the period of 2 weeks preceding and the 2 weeks following the observation. In addition, two RWB events are marked where subsets of air masses

550 (green and red line) are detached and separated from the rest (blue line). The strong Rossby wave activity is made visible by comparing the median latitude and equivalent latitude just a few days before the observation (8 to 17 September) as seen in Fig. 9c and d. The latitude is oscillating from near 70 down to 80° S, up to 50° S, and then back to 70° S,

while the equivalent latitude in this time frame stays constant at around 70° S. This implies no PV change and only an isentropic latitudinal displacement due to planetary Rossby waves.

On 10 September, on the point furthest south at latitudes around 80° S (see Fig. 9c), the back trajectories split up into two different branches, indicating a bifurcation point caused by partly breaking of the Rossby wave. Later, at the point of most northward displacement (around 50° S) a second RWB event is identifiable; thenceforward parts of the air masses are separated from the rest. The air masses associated with the first RWB event (green line) stay at a similar altitude and PV level for at least up to the 14 September. At this day the PV starts to increase further to more tropospheric values, while the altitude starts later to decrease from the 17 September on rapidly within 4 days to an altitude of less than 3 km with a simultaneous decrease in latitude to 30° S. The previous PV change before the altitude change indicate the point in time, where air masses detach the lowermost stratosphere and become more tropospheric. The trajectories associated with the second RWB event (red line) show a similar behavior but shifted by about 3 days. So it is not possible to match one specific event to the transport of all air masses which were observed below the thermal tropopause with low water vapor content (green framed areas in Fig. 8). This implies that one Rossby wave event is not the sole reason for the downward transport. Parts of the air masses (950 trajectories) within the stratospheric intrusion did not leave the lowermost stratosphere within the two weeks. Indeed, if one looks into the following weeks, additional Rossby wave and RWB events occurred which brings more parts of the remaining air masses (950 trajectories) into the troposphere.

Thus, Rossby wave breaking events drive the mixing process together with isentropic transport through the thermal tropopause. Additionally, RWB events detach air masses from the PV structure and can facilitate a wave-driven, secondary circulation that transports warmer air masses from around the vortex edge to the colder inner vortex. The change in PV is most likely not caused by cloud processes due to the dryness of these air masses. However, despite the dryness, the slight enhancement of ozone and the residual water vapor enable radiative cooling and a reduction in potential temper-

585 ature i.e. descent of air masses. Also the potential general subsidence in the Antarctic troposphere caused by the katabatic surface winds could lead to adiabatic heating of these air masses (Roscoe, 2004) . Once transported into the troposphere, air masses will be transported down to near-surface level within few days as suggested already by Stohl and Sodemann (2010) .

The vortex becomes more and more unstable during the Antarctic spring and one may assume that this **mixing** event is already a first sign of the vortex break-up. Haigh and Roscoe (2009) reported about recent Antarctic final warming events occurring between the 590 beginning of December to late January at the 100 hPa level. Therefore, the observed in-mixing of vortex air masses occurs long (at least two months) before the final warming and break-up of the vortex. It is therefore independent of the final warming event **to a certain extent** and seems to be a **frequently occurring** process in the Antarctic winter and spring.

595 Finally, the reason for the large downward transport is a mixture of strong Rossby wave activity, the presence of a **permeable** thermal tropopause, **RWB events** and the additional radiative cooling with corresponding subsidence of the air masses.

5 Conclusions

Detailed observations of dehydration and **STE** in the Antarctic UT/LS are very rare. In this study, **we used** high resolution in-situ **and remote sensing measurements aboard the HALO aircraft in combination with an extensive trajectory case study to answer the following questions:**

- 605 1. **Can we confirm dehydration in the lowermost stratosphere and at the bottom of the Antarctic vortex ? We observed** strongly dehydrated air in the lower vortex **at potential temperatures of 350 to 360 K (\approx 12-13 km)** with the hygrometers FISH and HAI. The final dehydration can be traced back to several ice formation events **occurring at 350 to 370 K, in a time frame of several weeks**, where water is sedimented out of the observed air masses. **Finally, dehydration occurs directly in the lower vortex and in the lowermost stratosphere below the vortex.**

2. How deep do dehydrated air masses from the vortex descend into the troposphere ?

610 Dehydrated air masses are also observed with the high resolution remote sensing instrument GLORIA down to the thermal tropopause, as well as below this point, down to 7 km in altitude. We confirm that dehydrated air masses with water vapor mixing ratio <3 ppmv cover large regions of the Antarctic lowermost stratosphere down to the -2 PVU isoline and thus dominate at least for this observed case the transition region between the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere. But besides that, small filaments of enhanced water vapor are observed by GLORIA in the vortex air and the lowermost stratosphere at 330 to 350 K (≈ 10 -12.5 km). These filaments can be clearly assigned to in-mixing of moister air masses into the dry vortex at several points in time, indicating that this transport process occurs frequently.

3. Where and how have Antarctic dehydrated stratospheric air masses been transported ?

620 With an extensive trajectory case study, dry air masses below the thermal tropopause in the south hemisphere polar and mid-latitude region are determined to have stratospheric origin. The enhanced permeability of the Antarctic thermal tropopause in winter and spring allowing isentropic downward transport is confirmed (e.g. Zangl and Hoinka, 2001; Roscoe, 2004; Evtushevsky et al., 2011). It is shown that parts of these dry air masses are transported further down to near surface levels within few days. This transport into the troposphere is caused by several Rossby wave breaking events, where they detach air masses from the PV structure. Once the air masses have been transported into the Antarctic troposphere, most likely radiative cooling causes their subsidence to near surface levels.

635 *Acknowledgements.* Sincere thanks goes to the whole CLaMS team and in particular to Jens-Uwe Grooß for supporting the trajectory calculations. We acknowledge the NASA Langley Research Atmospheric Science Data Center for providing the CALIPSO data. In addition, we acknowledge the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts for meteorological reanalysis data support. The development and application of the HAI instrument was financially supported by the German science foundation DFG. We thank all members of the GLORIA instrument team for their great efforts in developing the first IR limb-imager. The GLORIA hardware was mainly funded by

the Helmholtz Association of German Research Centers through several large investment funds. Great thanks goes to the coordinators of the TACTS campaign, Andreas Engel and Harald Bönisch, and of course to the whole HALO community for the great work during both campaigns. We thank Jens-Uwe Groöß for assisting the flight planning by CLaMS model forecasts supported by German Research Foundation (DFG) under the project LASSO (HALO-SPP 1294/GR 3786). Special thanks go to Anna Luebke for language revision. Finally, we greatly acknowledge the two reviewers Heini Wernli and Howard Roscoe as well as Adrian Tuck who provided constructive and fruitful comments leading to an improvement of the study.

The article processing charges for this open-access publication have been covered by a Research Centre of the Helmholtz Association.

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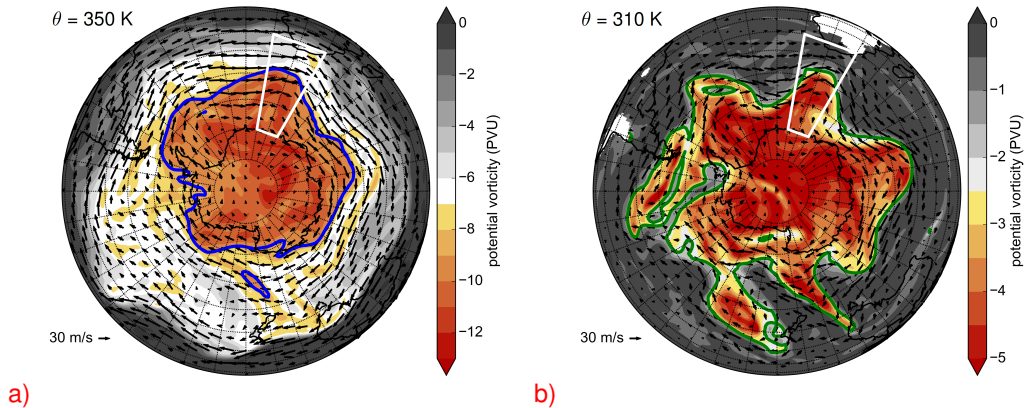


Figure 1. Dynamical situation with color-coded PV from ECMWF data on 13 September 2012 at 12 UTC on two different potential temperature levels: a) 350 K b) 310 K. The black arrows depict the wind vectors. The blue line represents the vortex edge at 350 K (Nash et al., 1996) and the green line the -2 PVU isoline at the 310 K level. The region of the ESMVal flight is marked by a white box.

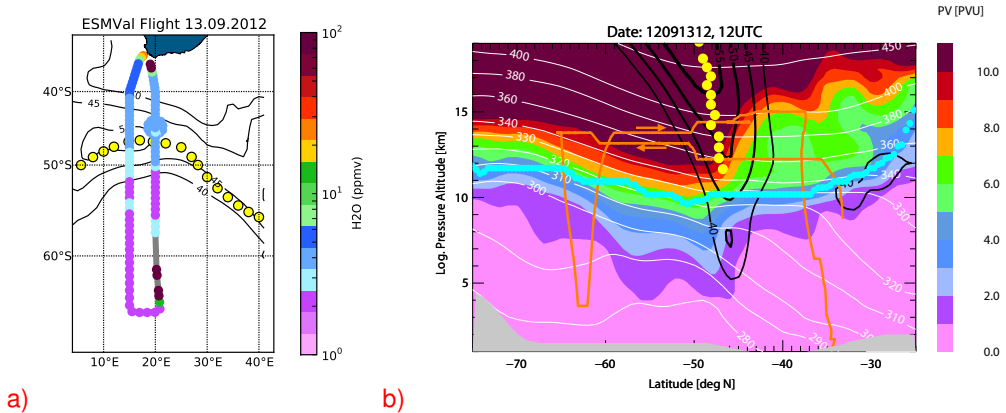


Figure 2. Flight pattern of the ESMVal flight on 13 September 2012. The black contours illustrate the horizontal westerly wind from ECMWF data. Yellow dots represent the vortex edge derived from the Nash criterion (Nash et al., 1996) based on ECMWF data. **(a)** Horizontal map of water vapor mixing ratios measured by FISH (5 min averaged data) is color coded on the flight path (gray color indicates data gaps due to the dive). **(b)** Meridional cross-section of PV along the flight path (orange line) calculated from ECMWF data. Cyan dots represent the ECMWF thermal tropopause.

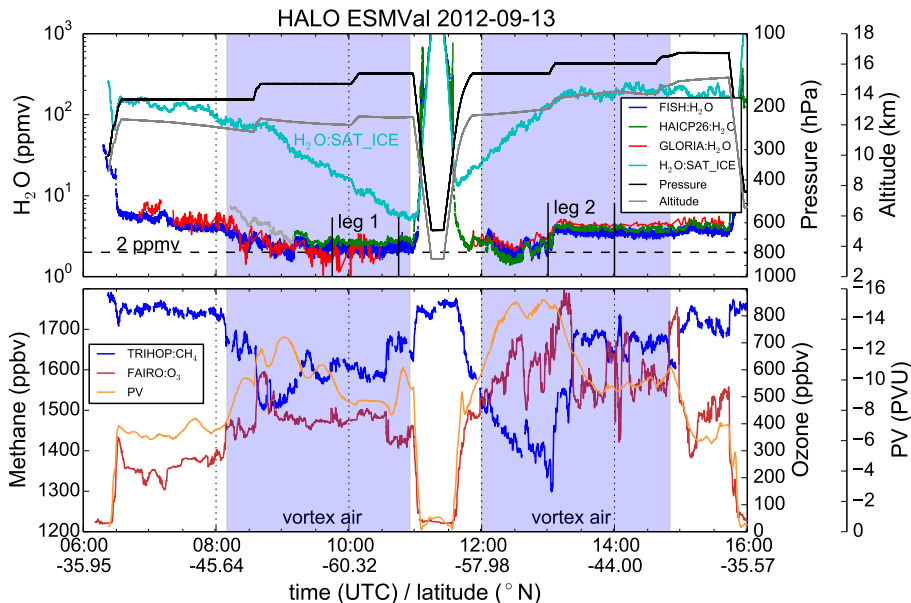


Figure 3. Timeseries of ESMVal Antarctica flight on 13 September 2012: the upper panel shows FISH (blue), HAI (green) and GLORIA (red) water vapor measurements, water vapor saturation mixing ratio with respect to ice (cyan, derived from HALO temperature), pressure (black), and altitude (gray) at flight level. The lower panel shows the tracer observations ozone (red), and methane (blue) and interpolated ECMWF PV values (orange). Time ranges within the vortex are marked with bluish shadows according to the tracer measurements. Time ranges leg 1 and leg 2 are marked for hygrometer intercomparison of FISH and HAI (see text).

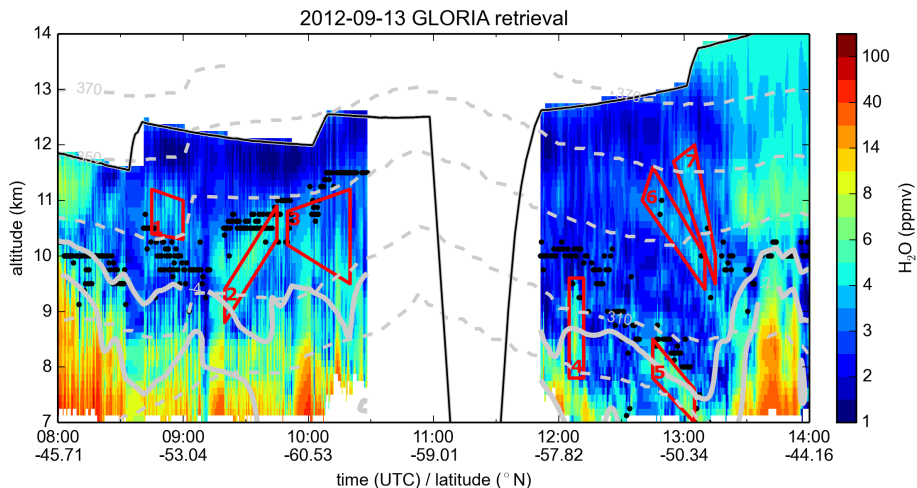


Figure 4. GLORIA time series of the H_2O retrieval product (13 September 2012). The solid black line and the black dots represent the flight path and thermal tropopause derived from the GLORIA temperature measurements, respectively. The dashed gray lines and the solid lines marks isolines of potential temperature (290–370 K, $\Delta\theta = 20$ K) and PV (–2 and –4 PVU), respectively. The red boxes marks filaments (1–7) with slightly enhanced water vapor mixing ratios in or below the vortex.

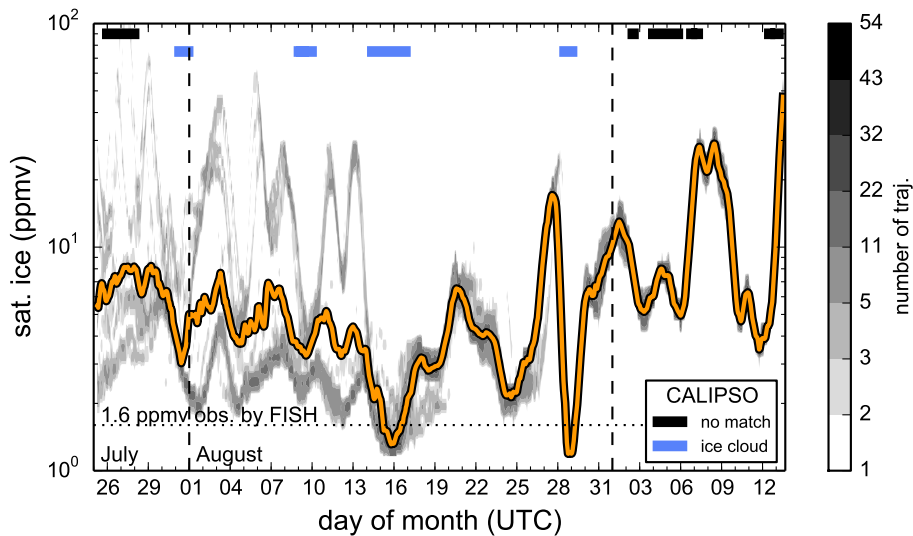


Figure 5. Calculated frequency distribution (number, gray shadow) and median (orange line) of ice saturation mixing ratio along trajectories 50 days back in time starting at the flight path on 13 September 2012 (12:20 to 12:29 UTC, 54 trajectories in total). If more than 50 % of trajectories have a corresponding CALIPSO observations of ice or no ice, the time is marked with blue or white, respectively. Otherwise, it is marked in black, indicating no CALIPSO match.

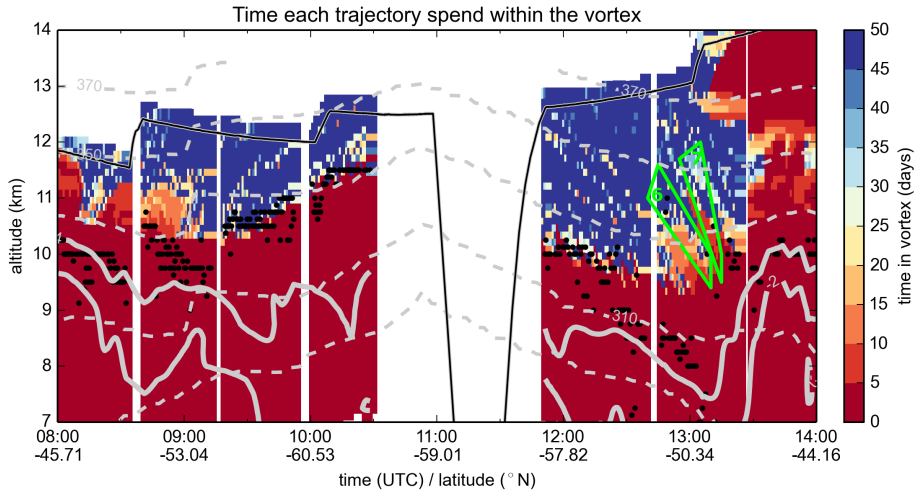


Figure 6. The time each GLORIA tangent point trajectory has spent in the vortex before the measurement. The green boxes mark two of the filaments (6, 7) observed by GLORIA (see Fig. 4). The flight path, tropopause height, potential temperature, and PV isolines are the same as in Fig. 4.

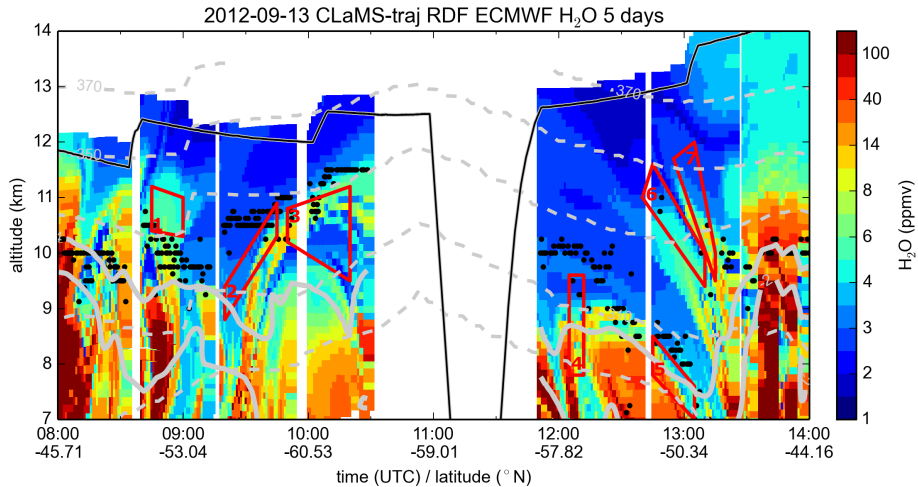


Figure 7. RDF (Reverse Domain Filling) of each GLORIA tangent point trajectory with ECMWF water vapor of 5 days prior the measurement time. Red boxes show the location of the observed filaments. The flight path, tropopause height, potential temperature, and PV isolines are the same as in Fig. 4.

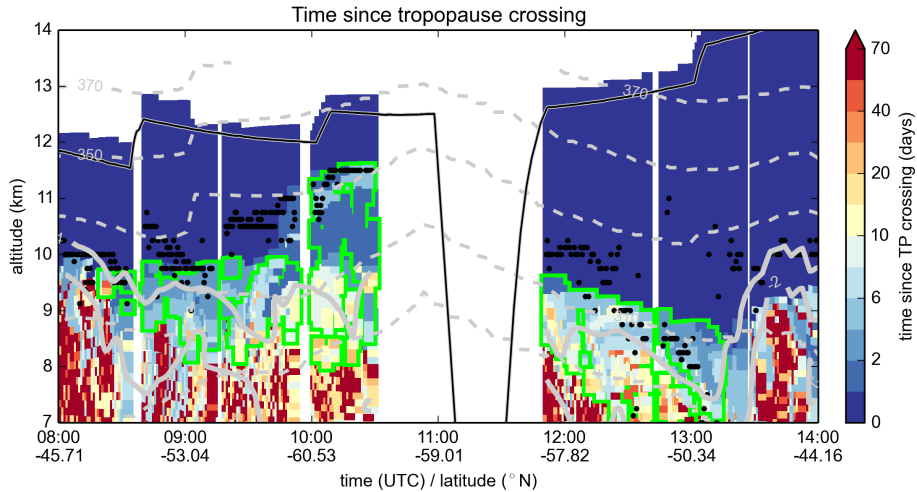


Figure 8. The color code denotes the time since trajectories passed the thermal tropopause from stratosphere to troposphere. Bluish colors denote trajectories which recently passed the thermal tropopause, reddish colors indicate tropopause crossings longer ago. The green framed areas mark the trajectories where GLORIA observations show water vapor below 3 ppmv. The flight path, tropopause height, potential temperature, and PV isolines are the same as in Fig. 4.

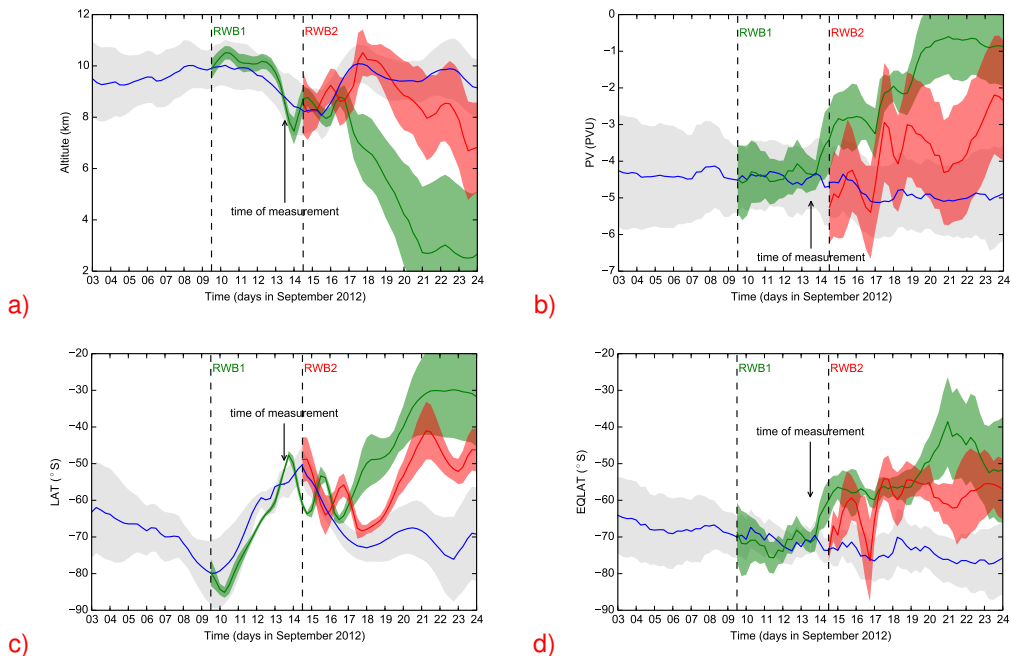


Figure 9. Air parcel properties based on trajectory analyses for all green framed trajectories from Fig. 8 for the period of 2 weeks before to 2 weeks after the measurement. On the 3 of September the median of all 1400 trajectories is represented by the blue line with the respective standard deviation as gray shadow. At RWB event 1 a subset of 250 trajectories (green line, median) is separated from the rest (from that moment on the blue line represents 1150 traj.). At RWB event 2 a subset of 200 trajectories (red line, median) is separated from the rest (from that moment on the blue line represents 950 traj.): **(a)** median of potential temperature (θ), **(b)** median altitude above mean sea level, **(c)** median latitude, **(d)** median equivalent latitude. The gray, green and red shaded areas marks the respective SD of the trajectories.