

1 Impact of a moderate volcanic eruption on chemistry in the lower 2 stratosphere: balloon-borne observations and model calculations

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19

20 Abstract.

21 The major volcanic eruption of Mount Pinatubo in 1991 has been shown to have significant effects
22 on stratospheric chemistry and ozone depletion even at mid-latitudes. Since then, only “moderate” but
23 recurrent volcanic eruptions have modulated the stratospheric aerosol loading and are assumed to be
24 one cause for the reported increase in the global aerosol content over the past 15 years. This particular
25 enhanced aerosol context raises questions about the effects on stratospheric chemistry which depend
26 on the latitude, altitude and season of injection. In this study, we focus on the mid-latitude Sarychev
27 volcano eruption in June 2009 which injected 0.9 Tg of sulfur dioxide (about 20 times less than
28 Pinatubo) in a lower stratosphere mainly governed by high stratospheric temperatures. Together with
29 in situ measurements of aerosol amounts, we analyse high-resolution in situ and/or remote-sensing
30 observations of NO₂, HNO₃ and BrO from balloon-borne infrared and UV-visible spectrometers
31 launched in Sweden in August-September 2009. It is shown that differences between observations and
32 three-dimensional (3D) Chemistry-Transport Model (CTM) outputs are not due to transport
33 calculation issues but rather reflect the chemical impact of the volcanic plume below 19 km altitude.
34 Good measurement-model agreement is obtained when the CTM is driven by volcanic aerosol
35 loadings derived from in situ or space-borne data. As a result of enhanced N₂O₅ hydrolysis in the
36 Sarychev volcanic aerosol conditions, the model calculates reductions of ~45% and increases of ~11%
37 in NO₂ and HNO₃ amounts respectively over the August-September 2009 period. The decrease in NO_x
38 abundances is limited due to the expected saturation effect for high aerosol loadings. The links
39 between the various chemical catalytic cycles involving chlorine, bromine, nitrogen and HO_x
40 compounds in the lower stratosphere are discussed. The increased BrO amounts (~22%) compare
41 rather well with the balloon-borne observations when volcanic aerosol levels are accounted for in the
42 CTM and appear to be mainly controlled by the coupling with nitrogen chemistry rather than by
43 enhanced BrONO₂ hydrolysis. We show that the chlorine partitioning is significantly controlled by
44 enhanced BrONO₂ hydrolysis. However simulated effects of the Sarychev eruption on chlorine
45 activation are very limited in the high temperature conditions in the stratosphere at the period
46 considered, inhibiting the effect of ClONO₂ hydrolysis. As a consequence, the simulated chemical
47 ozone loss due to the Sarychev aerosols is low with a reduction of -22 ppbv (-1.5%) of the ozone
48 budget around 16 km. This is at least 10 times lower than the maximum ozone depletion from

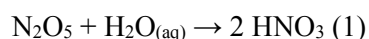
1 chemical processes (up to -20%) reported in the northern hemisphere lower stratosphere over the first
2 year following the Pinatubo eruption. This study suggests that moderate volcanic eruptions have
3 limited chemical effects when occurring at mid-latitudes (restricted residence times) and outside
4 winter periods (high temperature conditions). However, among the other reported moderate eruptions
5 it would be of interest to investigate longer lasting tropical volcanic plumes or sulfur injections in the
6 wintertime low temperature conditions.

1. Introduction

2

3 In the stratosphere, the photo-oxidation of N₂O is the main source of the total nitrogen species (NO_y).
4 About 97% of the stratospheric NO_y budget can be explained by the NO, NO₂, HNO₃, ClONO₂, and
5 N₂O₅ compounds and the partitioning between reactive and reservoir nitrogen species is an important
6 issue in stratospheric ozone chemistry (e.g. Wetzel et al., 2002; Brohede et al., 2008). Nitrogen oxides
7 (NO_x = NO + NO₂) are major catalysts responsible for significant ozone destruction in the middle
8 stratosphere. In the gas phase, NO_x interacts with the hydrogen and halogen species in catalytic cycles
9 affecting ozone loss rates in the lower stratosphere (e.g. Portmann et al., 1999; Salawitch et al., 2005).
10 Therefore NO_x can also buffer the ozone destruction by halogenated compounds through the formation
11 of ClONO₂ and BrONO₂ (e.g. Rivière et al., 2004). The HNO₃ reservoir is formed from NO_x indirectly
12 via the hydrolysis of N₂O₅ on liquid sulfate aerosols:

13



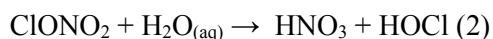
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15 It has been shown that models need to include reaction (1) to better reproduce observations of NO_y
16 partitioning at mid-latitude for background aerosol conditions (i.e. in volcanically quiescent periods) in
17 the lower stratosphere (Rodriguez et al., 1991; Granier and Brasseur, 1992; Fahey et al., 1993; Webster
18 et al., 1994; Salawitch et al., 1994b; Sen et al., 1998). This reaction tends to decrease NO_x amounts and
19 reduces the ozone loss efficiency associated with the NO_x catalytic cycle as the less reactive nitrogen
20 reservoir HNO₃ is formed (e.g. Rodriguez et al., 1991; Weisenstein, 1991; McElroy et al., 1992).
21 Reaction (1) is fairly insensitive to temperature and has the potential to greatly reduce reactive nitrogen
22 globally, even under background aerosol conditions.

23

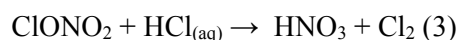
The hydrolysis of ClONO₂ can be expressed by:

24



25 It results in additional formation of HNO₃ on sulfate aerosols and to the formation of reactive chlorine
26 in the sunlight where HOCl is rapidly photolyzed releasing Cl radicals (e.g. Hofmann and Solomon,
27 1989; Prather, 1992; McElroy et al., 1992). This heterogeneous reaction is highly dependent on the water
28 content in the aerosols and has been shown to be of considerable importance in determining the
29 abundance of active chlorine available to destroy ozone under some conditions, i.e. for temperatures
30 typically below 210-215 K and where HNO₃ photolysis rates are slow (typically in winter at high
31 latitudes), (e.g. Hanson et al., 1994; Tie et al., 1994; Borrmann et al., 1997). However, for higher
32 temperatures the ClONO₂ hydrolysis is not expected to be significant enough to compete with reaction
33 (1) on the NO_y partitioning under these conditions (Fahey et al., 1993; Cox et al., 1994; Sen et al., 1998).
34 Also, the reaction,

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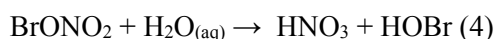
37 of ClONO₂ with dissolved HCl in sulfuric acid droplets has negligible effects on chlorine activation at
38 such temperatures (Hanson et al., 1994; Borrmann et al., 1997).

39

Some works also suggest that the hydrolysis of BrONO₂,

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43 on background sulfate aerosols also plays a significant role in ozone depletion in the lower stratosphere
44 with rates almost independent of temperature making this reaction efficient at all latitudes and for all
45 seasons (Hanson and Ravishankara, 1995; Hanson et al., 1996; Lary et al., 1996; Randeniya et al., 1997;
46 Erle et al., 1998).

47

48 After large volcanic eruptions, the aerosol loading in the stratosphere and the surface area densities
49 (hereafter SAD) available for reaction (1) to occur are dramatically enhanced (e.g. Deshler et al., 2003).
50 As a result, the amount of ozone-depleting NO_x is strongly reduced (e.g. Prather, 1992; Johnston et al.,
51 1992; Fahey, 1993; Mills et al., 1993; Solomon et al., 1994; Kondo et al., 1997; Sen et al., 1998; [Dhomse et al., 2015](#)) whereas HNO₃ amounts increase (Koike et al., 1993; Webster et al., 1994; Koike et al.,

1 1994; Rinsland et al., 2003) as shown for the Pinatubo aerosols. Different [chemical](#) impacts on
2 stratospheric ozone are expected depending on the altitude. In the middle stratosphere (above ~30 hPa)
3 where ozone loss is dominated by NO_x , the presence of volcanic aerosols can result in layers of increased
4 net production of ozone due to the suppression of the NO_x cycle by the N_2O_5 hydrolysis (Hofmann et
5 al., 1994; Bekki and Pyle, 1994; Tie and Brasseur, 1995). In the lower stratosphere, halogen (ClO_x and
6 BrO_x) and hydrogen (HO_x) radicals play a dominant role in ozone depletion and their abundances, which
7 depend on NO_x levels, are increased (in particular for halogen species, as the rate of gas-phase
8 conversion of ClO into the ClONO_2 reservoir is reduced), resulting in an enhanced catalyzed ozone loss
9 (McElroy et al., 1992; Granier and Brasseur, 1992; Brasseur and Granier, 1992; Hofmann et al., 1994;
10 McGee et al., 1994; Bekki and Pyle, 1994; Salawitch et al., 1994a; 2005; Tie et al., 1994; Solomon et
11 al., 1996; Solomon, 1999).

12 However, the NO_x -to- HNO_3 conversion by reaction (1) shows saturation as the aerosol SAD
13 increases because the amount of N_2O_5 present in the stratosphere is limited by its production rate by the
14 gaseous reaction $\text{NO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ (Fahey, 1993; Prather, 1992; Mills et al., 1993; Tie et al., 1994; Solomon
15 et al., 1996; Kondo et al., 1997; Sen et al., 1998). Consequently, ozone loss rates are expected to be
16 limited because the saturation of the NO_x/NO_y response to the aerosol increase dampens the increase in
17 ClO/Cl_y (Fahey et al., 1993; Tie et al., 1994). Reaction (2) does not show such a rapid saturation resulting
18 in enhanced ozone depletion by chlorine catalytic cycles in cold air masses as the aerosol loading
19 increases (Fahey et al., 1993). The BrONO_2 hydrolysis through reaction (4) is primarily dependent on
20 the aerosol loading and is enhanced in periods of high volcanic aerosol loading. The resulting increase
21 of BrO_x and HO_x radical concentrations and decrease in HCl (due to enhanced OH) accompanied by an
22 increase in ClO_x radicals is expected to give further ozone loss in the lower stratosphere at all latitudes
23 and seasons (Lary et al., 1996).

24 In periods following major eruptions, the year-to-year variability in stratospheric ozone at northern
25 mid-latitudes appears closely linked to dynamical changes induced by the volcanic aerosol radiative
26 perturbation (e.g. Telford et al., 2009; Aquila et al., 2013) and to changes in chlorine partitioning (e.g.
27 Solomon et al., 1999; Chipperfield, 1999). Effects on stratospheric chemistry are expected in periods of
28 elevated chlorine levels from anthropogenic activities (Tie and Brasseur, 1995; Solomon et al., 1996).
29 In the past decade no event comparable to the 1991 Pinatubo or 1982 El Chichon eruptions was
30 observed. However, several volcanic eruptions, though of much lesser amplitude, impacted the aerosol
31 burden in the lower stratosphere over periods of months (Vernier et al., 2011). These "moderate"
32 eruptions have occurred in a period of still high chlorine loading with potential impact on stratospheric
33 ozone chemistry. [Their effects depend on the amount of released \$\text{SO}_2\$ and on latitudes and altitudes of](#)
34 [injection which directly influence aerosol residence times. The season of the eruption is also important](#)
35 [for photochemical processes which are directly connected to temperatures and solar illumination.](#)

36 The goal of this paper is to show how such moderate eruptions are likely to modify the chemical
37 balance of the northern hemisphere lower stratosphere at periods excluding wintertime/springtime
38 halogen-activating photochemistry. We specifically focus on the eruption of the Sarychev volcano on
39 15 and 16 June 2009 which injected 0.9 Tg of sulfur dioxide in the lower stratosphere (Clarisse et al.,
40 2012) resulting in enhanced sulfate aerosol loading up to 19 km, for a period of about 8 months ending
41 before winter (Haywood et al., 2010; Kravitz et al., 2011; O'Neill et al., 2012; Jégou et al., 2013).

42 The approach consists in analysing some key aspects of lower stratospheric chemistry and ozone loss
43 in a context of high aerosol surface area densities and high stratospheric temperatures using balloon-
44 borne observations conducted in August-September 2009 from Kiruna/Esrang in Sweden (67.5°N,
45 21.0°E) within the frame of the STRAPOLETE project. To our knowledge we show here the first high-
46 resolution in situ observations of chemical compounds obtained within the volcanic aerosol plume of a
47 moderate eruption. We show that at the period on which the study is focused N_2O_5 has reformed and the
48 role of its hydrolysis becomes important again after the sunlit summer period justifying the use of these
49 balloon data for the investigation of heterogeneous processes. Aerosol-constrained simulations using a
50 3D Chemistry Transport Model (CTM) are compared to the observations. These model calculations
51 ignore possible dynamical effects induced by the volcanic aerosols but are used to estimate the amplitude
52 of the chemical impacts and ozone loss with some comparisons with the post-Pinatubo eruption period.
53

2. Methodology

2.1 Balloon-borne observations

Our study is based on in situ and remote-sensing balloon-borne observations obtained during summer 2009 in Northern Sweden. More details about the instrument descriptions and retrieval techniques are given in the Appendix and in the references. Data can be found at <http://www.pole-ether.fr>.

2.1.1 In situ observations

Aerosol in situ measurements have been performed by the STAC (Stratospheric and Tropospheric Aerosol Counter) instrument which is an optical particle counter providing aerosol size distributions (Ovarlez and Ovarlez, 1995; Renard et al., 2008). This instrument has been used in a number of studies dedicated to the quantification of the aerosol content in the stratosphere at various locations and seasons (e.g. Renard et al., 2002; Renard et al., 2010). Eight vertical aerosol concentration profiles have been obtained between August and September 2009 as reported by Jégou et al. (2013).

Our study presents in situ vertical profiles of the N_2O , NO_2 and HNO_3 gases as observed by the SPIRALE (French acronym for SPECTROSCOPIE InfraROUGE d'Absorption par Lasers Embarqués) infrared absorption spectrometer (Moreau et al., 2005) from two balloon flights. Firstly, the measurements during the 7 August 2009 flight (further on called SPIRALE-07082009) were conducted between 02:00 UT (04:00 local time) and 03:20 UT (05:20 local time) corresponding to altitudes of 14 km and 34 km respectively. The position of the balloon varied from 67.72°N - 21.40°E to 67.63°N - 20.92°E during the ascent. Secondly, for the SPIRALE balloon flight on 24 August 2009 (further on called SPIRALE-24082009), the measurements started at 21:00 UT (23:00 local time) at an altitude of 14 km and the maximum altitude of 34 km was reached at 22:30 UT (00:30 local time). The measurement position remained rather constant during the ascent with a displacement of the balloon from 67.91°N - 21.09°E to 67.86°N - 20.94°E . The data used in this study are averaged over a vertical range of 250 m (corresponding to ~ 1 minute of measurements).

2.1.2 Remote-sensing observations

Since 1996 stratospheric NO_2 and BrO have been measured by solar occultation by the DOAS balloon-borne instrument using the so-called Differential Optical Absorption Spectroscopy (DOAS) technique (e.g. Platt, 1994; Stutz and Platt, 1996; Ferlemann et al., 2000). The details of the vertical profile retrieval can be found in Butz et al. (2006) for NO_2 and in Harder et al. (1998), Aliwell et al. (2002), Dorf et al. (2006b) and Kreycey et al. (2013) for BrO. In our study we use the DOAS profile recorded in the stratosphere during the balloon ascent on 7 September 2009 between 15:15 UT (17:15 local time) and 16:35 UT (18:35 local time), corresponding to altitudes of 10 km and 30 km respectively.

The SALOMON (French acronym for "Spectroscopie d'Absorption Lunaire pour l'Observation des Minoritaires Ozone et NO_x ") balloon-borne UV-visible spectrometer also uses the DOAS method to derive the mixing ratio profile of NO_2 (Renard et al., 2000; Berthet et al., 2002). SALOMON was initially based on the lunar occultation technique but on 25 August 2009, we flew a new version also able to use the Sun as direct light source to derive BrO amounts. The profiles used in this study have been obtained on 25 August 2009 during solar occultation between 18:50 UT (20:50 local time) and 19:30 UT (21:30 local time). The float altitude was of 33 km and the position of the tangent point varied from 71.0°N - 13.3°E to 71.4°N - 12.6°E for altitudes below 19 km which are the main focus of our study as a result of the presence of the volcanic aerosols.

Variations of solar zenith angle (SZA) along solar occultation lines of sight and associated concentration variations are likely to impact the retrieved vertical profiles near sunrise and sunset especially below 20 km (Newchurch et al., 1996; Ferlemann et al., 1998). Some works propose to use a photochemical model to correct for this effect (e.g. Harder et al., 2000; Butz et al., 2006) depending on the considered chemical compound, the observation geometry (i.e. balloon ascent or occultation) and daytime (SZA variation). Typically, concentrations are converted to values expected at 90° SZA.

1 In our study, the NO₂ profile from the SALOMON instrument recorded on 25 August 2009 from a
2 typical solar occultation at constant float altitude is not photochemically corrected since conversion to
3 90° SZA conditions results in differences of less than 6%, in agreement with the work of Payan et al.
4 (1999). The NO₂ vertical profile observed by the DOAS instrument was recorded on 7 September 2009
5 with a different observation geometry, i.e. during the balloon ascent. In this case applying a
6 photochemical correction gives differences of 24% and the model-measurement comparison is done for
7 SZA = 90°.

8 Photochemical effects on the BrO profile obtained by the SALOMON instrument from solar
9 occultation measurements are estimated to be of 10% and are taken into account in the error estimation
10 in accordance with the study of Ferlemann et al. (1998). Photochemical changes in the BrO slant column
11 densities (SCD) recorded during balloon ascent are small and the DOAS BrO profile has not been
12 corrected to 90° SZA (Ferlemann et al., 1998; Harder et al., 2000; Dorf et al., 2006b).

15 2.2 Model calculations

16 The REPROBUS 3D CTM has been used in a number of studies of stratospheric chemistry involving
17 nitrogen and halogen compounds in particular through comparisons with space-borne and balloon-borne
18 observations (e.g. Krecl et al., 2006; Berthet et al., 2005; Brohede et al., 2007). It is designed to perform
19 annual simulations as well as detailed process studies. A description of the model is given in Lefèvre et
20 al. (1994) and Lefèvre et al. (1998), as well as in the Appendix.

21 In this study, REPROBUS was integrated from 1 October 2008 to 1 October 2009 with a horizontal
22 resolution of 2° latitude by 2° longitude. The ozone field was initialized on 1 April 2009 from the
23 ECMWF ozone analysis. Following the work of Legras et al. (2005), REPROBUS has been driven by
24 3-hourly ECMWF wind fields obtained by interleaving operational analysis and forecasts. Using these
25 more timely resolved and less noisy ECMWF wind fields reduced the ascent velocities of the upward
26 branch of the Brewer-Dobson circulation in the tropics, largely reduced the model-measurement
27 discrepancies by increasing the simulated global NO_y and NO_x amounts from increased N₂O photo-
28 oxidation (Berthet et al., 2006). In this configuration, the summer 2009 REPROBUS simulations are in
29 agreement with the SPIRALE in situ observations (Figure 1a).

30 As sulfur chemistry is not included in REPROBUS we have conducted a simulation (hereafter called
31 Ref-sim) constrained with typical background aerosol levels inferred from H₂SO₄ mixing ratios provided
32 by the UPMC 2D model (Bekki and Pyle, 1994) and used as reference, namely without presence of
33 volcanic aerosols. A simulation (hereafter called Sat-sim) has been set up by prescribing time-dependent
34 variations of the stratospheric sulfate aerosol content from 1-km vertical resolution extinction
35 measurements by the Optical Spectrograph and Infrared Imaging System (OSIRIS) instrument onboard
36 the Odin satellite. OSIRIS aerosol extinction data used in this study are the validated version 5 retrieved
37 at 750 nm (Bourassa et al., 2012). They compare well with the profiles inferred from the STAC balloon-
38 borne aerosol counter (Jégou et al., 2013) thus providing confidence in the use of the data as a basis for
39 consideration of time dependent changes of aerosol content. OSIRIS data have been averaged daily and
40 zonally over 10° latitude bins. A standard Mie scattering model (Van de Hulst, 1957; Wiscombe, 1980;
41 Steele and Turco, 1997) has been run to convert extinction values to H₂SO₄ mixing ratios from
42 parameters of log-normal unimodal size distributions provided by the STAC instrument and used in the
43 work of Jégou et al. (2013) in the Sarychev aerosol conditions. The derived H₂SO₄ mixing ratios have
44 been then incorporated into the model over the period of presence of the Sarychev aerosols in the
45 northern hemisphere lower stratosphere, i.e. from the beginning of July 2009 onwards. The simulation
46 has been conducted until October 2009 because OSIRIS data at high latitudes are lacking beyond this
47 period due to decreasing solar illumination.

48 We have conducted another type of simulation (hereafter called Bal-sim) consisting in adjusting the
49 input H₂SO₄ mixing ratios so that the model output matches SADs observed by the STAC aerosol
50 counter. Although similar aerosol SAD values were observed by Kravitz et al. (2011) in November
51 2009, i.e. ~2 months after the STAC measurements as mentioned by Jégou et al. (2013), a single vertical
52 profile may be not representative of the geographical distribution of the still unmixed volcanic plume
53 throughout summer 2009. To account for the range of aerosol variability as observed by STAC over the
54 Arctic region for the August-September period (Figure 2) we have performed two simulations based on

1 the spread (1σ standard deviation) of observed SADs. We have excluded data suspected to be spoiled
2 by balloon outgassing as deduced from joint water vapour measurements. Also, flights revealing the
3 sporadic presence of clouds are not considered to derive the range of SADs below 12 km. Each Bal-sim
4 simulation is respectively driven by the lower and the upper bound of observed SAD values below 20
5 km (**Figure 2**) from the beginning of August until the end of the model run for latitudes above 40°N .
6 Note that in Bal-sim, H_2SO_4 mixing ratios in July are taken from the Sat-sim simulation.
7
8

9 **3. Impact of the volcanic aerosols on stratospheric nitrogen compounds:** 10 **comparisons between balloon-borne observations and model simulations**

11 **3.1 Photochemical conditions**

12
13
14 N_2O_5 is produced mainly at night from the recombination of NO_2 with NO_3 and destroyed during the
15 day by photolysis leading to the reformation of NO_2 . Polar summer is characterised by continuous solar
16 illumination preventing the formation of N_2O_5 (Fahey and Ravishankara, 1999) until about the
17 beginning of August (Brühl et al., 1998), i.e. around day 213 for the considered Esrange/Kiruna location
18 as illustrated in **Figure 3** at 17.5 km. When NO_3 reforms at this time, significant conversion of NO_2 to
19 N_2O_5 occurs during the night. The associated decrease in NO_x is reflected in **Figure 3**. The conversion
20 of N_2O_5 to HNO_3 through reaction (1) occurs almost exclusively at night. As the season progresses, the
21 increase in the conversion rate caused by the increase in night duration is moderated by the decrease in
22 NO_2 amounts at the beginning of the night.

23 As expected, increasing SAD values in the model to reproduce the volcanic aerosol levels has no
24 effect on N_2O_5 (and on the production of HNO_3) and on NO_x during the period of continuous solar
25 illumination. However, from the onset of N_2O_5 recovery a significant decrease in the N_2O_5 and NO_x
26 levels in comparison with the background aerosol simulation is calculated as the lifetime of N_2O_5 in
27 reaction (1) is reduced (e.g. Kinnison et al., 1994) and as further nitrogen oxides are converted to the
28 more stable HNO_3 reservoir.

29 This situation implies that the balloon flights performed from August 7, 2009 in the Kiruna region
30 match the photochemical conditions for which volcanic aerosols likely have an impact on NO_y
31 partitioning via elevated N_2O_5 hydrolysis and can be suitably used to investigate heterogeneous
32 processes.
33
34

35 **3.2 NO_2**

36 **3.2.1 Model comparisons with observations**

37
38 For the Sarychev situation, minima in NO_2 concentrations appear closely correlated with
39 enhancements in aerosol amounts in the lower stratosphere (**Figure 4**). Thus the empirical evidence
40 supports the view that NO_x chemistry is largely driven by heterogeneous processes even in the case of
41 a moderate volcanic eruption. The vertical structures depicted in **figure 4** confirm that the plume is not
42 homogeneously mixed over the Arctic region ~ 2 months after the eruption. Minimum concentration
43 values of 1 to 2 particles. cm^{-3} (for sizes $> 0.4 \mu\text{m}$) correspond to unperturbed background extra-vortex
44 conditions (Renard et al., 2010) and therefore indicate air masses unaffected by the volcanic aerosols.
45 Conversely, layers with aerosol concentration increases by more than a factor of 3 (with respect to the
46 mean profiles) can be assigned to the presence of the volcanic plume and show associated reductions in
47 NO_2 by up to a factor of ~ 2 .

48 **Figure 5** and **Figure 6** present the measured profiles of NO_2 obtained by the SPIRALE, SALOMON
49 and DOAS instruments, together with REPROBUS model outputs for altitudes below 20 km where the
50 Sarychev aerosols were present. In contrast to the reference simulations, the Bal-sim simulations
51 constrained by the range of aerosol SADs observed by STAC show significant improvement in

1 comparison with the non-volcanic calculations with for instance average differences of $3\pm 20\%$ for
2 SPIRALE-07082009. Results from the Sat-sim simulations driven by OSIRIS satellite data are very
3 close to the Bal-sim results and are only shown for the SPIRALE flights.

4 It can be noted that the REPROBUS calculations do not reproduce some of the vertical structures
5 detected by the SPIRALE instrument, i.e. between 17.5 and 19.5 km for SPIRALE-07082009 and at 17
6 km and 20.5 km for SPIRALE-24082009. This is likely due to the vertical resolution of the model or
7 inaccurate simulation of mixing effects in the CTM as already mentioned in previous studies showing
8 this kind of comparisons (e.g. Berthet et al., 2006).

9 Calculated differences between the volcanic-aerosol-constrained and the reference simulations
10 provide an estimation of the chemical perturbation induced by the Sarychev aerosols. **Reductions in NO₂**
11 **mixing ratios between 34 and 50 % are simulated on average below 19 km.** For a stratosphere affected
12 by the Pinatubo aerosols, decreases ranging from 30 to 45% have been reported both in model
13 calculations of NO₂ concentrations (Kinnison et al., 1994; Webster et al., 1994) and in the NO₂ columns
14 (Johnston et al., 1992; Koike et al., 1993; Koike et al., 1994; Solomon et al., 1994). At a glance, the
15 amplitude in the NO₂ reduction is therefore similar for both eruptions but it should be noted that results
16 from these above-mentioned studies were provided for different latitudes, various seasons and
17 correspond to wider altitude ranges as a result of the larger vertical extent of the Pinatubo aerosol cloud.

18 19 **3.2.2 One-dimensional model calculations**

20
21 Some small model-measurement discrepancies in the 20-35 km altitude range as shown in the
22 embedded plots in **Figure 5** and **Figure 6** suggest that the model-measurement differences in the lower
23 stratosphere may be only partly attributed to remaining uncertainties in calculations of transport. A way
24 to discard a possible remaining effect of transport and improve the modelling of total NO_y is to use one-
25 dimensional (1D) calculations constrained by observations (Dufour et al., 2005; Berthet et al., 2006).

26 Total NO_y from SPIRALE measurements can be derived from established N₂O-NO_y correlation
27 curves. Since the study of Michelsen et al. (1998), global emissions of N₂O have increased and the N₂O-
28 NO_y correlations reported therein need some revision. As a consequence, we have constructed updated
29 correlation curves from the IMK/IAA V5R_220 MIPAS-Envisat data for the high-latitude in summer
30 stratosphere (Fischer et al., 2008; data available at <http://www.imk-asf.kit.edu/english/308.php>) as
31 shown in **Figure 7** in which the Michelsen et al.'s former results are also represented for comparison.
32 An example of the estimated vertical profile of NO_y (hereafter NO_y*) derived from the conversion of
33 the SPIRALE N₂O profile (**Figure 1a**) using the N₂O-NO_y ratios derived from MIPAS data is presented
34 in **Figure 1b**. Then, following the strategy of Berthet et al. (2006) the N₂O and the derived NO_y* profiles
35 for SPIRALE-07082009 and SPIRALE-24082009 are used to initialise the REPROBUS 1D version.

36 The 1D-REPROBUS reference simulation is computed with background aerosol levels, whereas the
37 Sarychev aerosol affected simulation is constrained with the mean observed aerosol profile presented in
38 **Figure 2**. As a result of the NO_y* input in the calculations, the 1D reference simulations show very good
39 agreement for NO₂ (in red in **Figure 5**) with the SPIRALE measurements above 20 km. The 1D
40 simulations constrained by observed volcanic aerosol quantities (in yellow in **Figure 5**) match well with
41 the in situ measurements. The calculated chemical impact on NO₂ gives percentage values similar to the
42 3D simulation results certainly because both NO_y* and 3D NO_y profiles agree well in the lower
43 stratosphere (**Figure 1b**). We note that fine structures in the measured profile are not reproduced by the
44 1D model as a matter of height resolution and interpolation (Berthet et al., 2006).

45 Overall the 1D NO_y-constrained simulations do not significantly improve the comparisons. This
46 result confirms that the model-observations differences in the lower stratosphere can be mostly
47 attributed to heterogeneous processes and not to spurious calculations of transport.

48 49 **3.2.3 Saturation effect of NO_x reduction**

50
51 The reduction of NO_x from the results described above (section 3.2.1) is significant but also indicates
52 some saturation through reaction 1 for the range of SADs observed for the Sarychev aerosols. The
53 partitioning between NO_x and NO_y is expected to become insensitive to increases in aerosol SAD beyond
54 a certain value when N₂O₅ hydrolysis is the dominant sink for NO_x because the night-time formation of
55 N₂O₅ by reaction of NO₂ and NO₃ is quadratically dependent on NO_x. This effect is reflected in **Figure**

1 **8** presenting the NO₂-SAD curve constructed for the range of altitudes spanned by the volcanic plume
2 (i.e. with different NO_y amounts and photochemistry). Although the asymptotic behaviour in the NO₂
3 reduction would be more evident if shown for a given altitude level with constant SZA and varying
4 SADs, our results indicate saturation for SAD values larger than about 4 μm².cm⁻³ which is reached on
5 average for altitudes around 18 km. The net reduction of NO_x reported for the Pinatubo aerosols tends
6 to saturate at similar SADs in the 18-22 km range, as shown in the works of Fahey et al. (1993), Kondo
7 et al. (1997) and Sen et al. (1998).

8 9 10 **3.3 HNO₃ and NO₂/HNO₃ ratio**

11
12 We consider here total HNO₃, i.e. both in the gas phase and condensed. All the REPROBUS
13 simulated profiles for HNO₃ are mostly within the errors bars of the SPIRALE measurements and only
14 differ by less than 10% on average (not shown). Calculated amounts from Bal-sim are increased by 10-
15 13% when including volcanic aerosols below 19 km, highlighting limited effects on HNO₃.

16 The NO₂/HNO₃ ratio can be used as a good approximation of the NO_x/NO_y ratio to reduce the
17 uncertainty in a model estimate of NO_y (e.g. Webster et al., 1994; Berthet et al., 2006). This is especially
18 useful for the SPIRALE flights for which modelled NO₂ and HNO₃ amounts account for more than 92%
19 of total NO_y. Good agreement is obtained between the observed NO₂/HNO₃ ratio and the model outputs
20 by including the Sarychev aerosols, with for instance absolute differences decreasing to 3±20% for the
21 Bal-sim simulation for SPIRALE-07082009 (**Figure 9**). However no clear improvement can be noticed
22 with respect to the model-measurement comparisons presented in **Figure 5** for NO₂ both at and above
23 the altitudes of the plume. 1D calculations do not show improvement as well (not shown). Again this
24 indicates that transport calculation is not a major issue in the comparisons. Reductions in the NO₂/HNO₃
25 ratios between 36 and 44% are simulated on average below 19 km for SPIRALE-07082009 and
26 SPIRALE-24082009, respectively, when volcanic aerosols are included.

27 For the Pinatubo aerosol loaded stratosphere, maximum HNO₃ column increases of 30-40% have
28 been measured at mid-latitudes (e.g. Koike et al., 1994). Reductions ranging from 20 to 45% have been
29 reported both in the observed NO₂/HNO₃ column ratios (Koike et al., 1994) and in model calculations
30 (Webster et al., 1994). However, quantifying the difference between both eruptions through
31 comparisons of local concentrations versus columns remains challenging because the production
32 efficiency of HNO₃ by heterogeneous processes generally depends on the altitude level where volcanic
33 aerosols are present (Webster et al., 1994; Danilin et al., 1999). In particular, the observed signature of
34 the Pinatubo-induced HNO₃ enhancement was not limited to the lower stratosphere and was prevailing
35 above the 420-465 K (~16-18 km) vertical range (Webster et al., 1994; Santee et al., 2004).

36 37 38 39 **4. Impact of the volcanic aerosols on the coupled catalytic cycles involving** 40 **halogen, nitrogen and HO_x compounds**

41 42 **4.1 Chlorine partitioning**

43
44 Several studies have revealed the impact of the Pinatubo eruption on the stratospheric halogen
45 chemistry. This has been shown to be of particular importance regarding ozone destruction processes
46 through the partitioning of chlorine reservoir species and activation of chlorine radicals on volcanic
47 aerosols (e.g. Solomon, 1999 and references therein).

48 Some volcanic eruptions are likely to inject halogenated compounds within the stratosphere therefore
49 impacting directly the halogen content and bypassing (or adding to) in situ heterogeneous processes. For

1 the Sarychev volcano eruption, an injection of several ppbv of HCl in the stratosphere has been reported
2 by Carn et al. (2016) using Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS) data, mainly below the 140 hPa level (see
3 their Figure 4). However because of the low vertical resolution of MLS data, i.e. ~3 km, the exact altitude
4 of injection is unclear and requires further investigation. In addition, MLS HCl measurements are known
5 to be biased high below the 100 hPa level (Livesey et al., 2011) making difficult to infer a robust
6 injection amount. As a consequence, the possible effect of the HCl injection on the stratospheric chlorine
7 chemistry is not investigated in our study.

8 We therefore examine the direct impact of the Sarychev sulfate aerosols on the chlorine partitioning
9 in connection with NO_x and HO_x in the lower stratosphere. Heterogeneous reactions on volcanic aerosols
10 involving the ClONO₂ and HCl chlorine reservoirs (especially reaction 2) have been shown to play a
11 major role in determining the abundance of active chlorine and therefore they are likely to compete with
12 reaction 1 as a sink of NO_x depending on ambient temperature values (e.g. Hanson et al., 1994).
13 Significant decreases of HCl and corresponding increases in ClONO₂ have been reported for
14 temperatures below 210 K in the lower stratosphere with a strong temperature sensitivity when volcanic
15 aerosol amounts are large (Michelsen et al., 1999; Webster et al., 1998; Webster et al., 2000). **Table 1**
16 presents the calculated effects of the Sarychev aerosols on the partitioning of the halogen species at 16.5
17 km. Simulated levels of HCl decrease by 3% (~20 pptv) which is much smaller than the change observed
18 by Webster et al. (2000) for the Pinatubo aerosols (about -31% at 21 km). Higher levels of ClONO₂ are
19 simulated post the Sarychev eruption with respect to background conditions with increases of about 16%
20 (~20 pptv). ClO and HOCl increase by 106% (~6 pptv) and 217% (~2 pptv) respectively at daytime. It
21 is interesting to notice that these results for ClO are comparable to the calculations of Tie et al. (1994)
22 who show ClO increases by at least 5 pptv in the lower stratosphere for summer 1992 at a time when
23 Pinatubo related aerosol SADs were similar to August 2009 values.

24 The impact of the volcanic aerosols on the chlorine partitioning appears somewhat small since it is
25 primarily the consequence of the increasing losses of HCl by enhanced OH through reaction HCl + OH
26 → Cl + H₂O (McElroy et al., 1992; Webster et al., 2000) rather than by reaction 2 for which the
27 efficiency is low in the ~215-225 K range of temperatures mostly encountered in the lower stratosphere
28 over the August-September 2009 period (see Figure 9 in Jégou et al., 2013). In fact, in the model HO_x
29 is increased by 51% (~1.4 pptv) (**Table 1**) and destruction of HCl by OH is faster than the HCl formation
30 reaction Cl + CH₄ → HCl + CH₃. An additional source of OH is due to photolysis of HNO₃ (Rodriguez
31 et al., 1991; Webster et al., 2000). Also the decreased reaction rate of reaction NO₂ + OH + M → HNO₃
32 + M in reduced NO_x conditions (Kinnison et al., 1994) may increase OH. As also described by Bekki
33 and Pyle (1994), subsequent production of reactive chlorine and increase in ClO is accompanied by an
34 increase in ClONO₂ amounts through increased rate of reaction ClO + NO₂ + M → ClONO₂ + M, for
35 which ClO is the limiting reactant. To a lesser extent, decreased rate of reaction 3 for the observed
36 temperature range contributes to this increase. Overall, the ClONO₂ increase compensates for the HCl
37 decrease in reaction 3 (Kinnison et al., 1994; Michelsen et al., 1999; Webster et al., 2000). HOCl
38 amounts rise as a result of slightly enhanced ClONO₂ hydrolysis and production by enhanced HO_x
39 through reaction HO₂ + ClO → HOCl + O₂.

42 **4.2 Bromine compounds**

43 **4.2.1 Effect on BrO**

44 Coupling between chlorine and bromine compounds is of particular importance in the lower
45 stratosphere (e.g. Lary et al., 1996; Erle et al., 1998; Salawitch et al., 2005). Heterogeneous bromine
46 reactions are expected to increase the coupled gas phase ClO/BrO catalytic ozone destruction cycles.
47 Because BrONO₂ hydrolysis (reaction 4) is not temperature dependent, its effects on the chemistry of
48 the lower stratosphere are primarily dependent on the aerosol loading and not on latitude or SZA (Lary
49 et al., 1996; Kondo et al., 1997; Erle et al., 1998).

50 Since direct injection of bromine in the stratosphere was insignificant after the Sarychev eruption
51 (Hormann et al., 2013) we expect that stratospheric bromine chemistry was only modified by the
52 enhanced aerosol loading. BrO was the only key halogenated radical detected during the summer 2009
53 balloon campaign. Vertical profiles were provided by the SALOMON and DOAS instruments on 25

1 August 2009 and 7 September 2009 respectively (**Figure 10**). They were simultaneously measured with
2 the NO₂ profiles presented in [section 3.2](#). Differences between both profiles in terms of BrO amounts
3 are mainly due to differences in SZA. When volcanic aerosol SADs are included BrO amounts are
4 increased in the lower stratosphere, matching the observations within the error bars (**Figure 10**).

5 Simulated results related to the bromine chemistry at 16.5 km are presented in **Table 1** for the
6 August-September 2009 period. At daytime part of the BrO enhancement is linked to the decreased loss
7 by the three body reaction with decreased NO₂. The other part is expected to be controlled by BrONO₂
8 hydrolysis which is by far the most efficient bromine heterogeneous reaction in the temperature range
9 observed in our study (Hanson and Ravishankara, 1995; [Hanson et al., 1996](#)). Under high aerosol
10 loading the rate of the BrONO₂ hydrolysis is likely to compete with the BrONO₂ photolysis and with
11 other gas phase reactions which normally control the bromine partitioning at daytime (Lary et al., 1996).
12 Here note that the conclusion of Kreycey et al., (2013) on a possibly larger ratio of the photolysis and the
13 three body formation reaction for BrONO₂ ($J(\text{BrONO}_2)/k_{\text{BrO}+\text{NO}_2}$) than compiled by Sander et al. (2011) is
14 not affected by the presence of the Sarychev aerosols in the lower stratosphere, since they have addressed
15 observations with SZA <92.5° at 31 km (i.e., tangent heights >24 km). After sunset BrONO₂ production
16 is ceasing and its enhanced hydrolysis on volcanic aerosols leads to strongly increased formation of
17 HOBr (+3.9 pptv or +141%) at an early stage of the night so that little BrONO₂ remains before dawn.
18 This conversion at night-time results in further release of OH and Br atoms in the morning through
19 photolysis of HOBr.

20 However, it is not clear if BrONO₂ hydrolysis is mainly responsible for the increase in BrO within
21 the lowermost stratosphere. Dedicated simulations to estimate the respective contribution of gas-phase
22 chemistry and heterogeneous processes on the control of BrO production under volcanic conditions have
23 thus been performed. The effects of the Sarychev aerosols on each chemical compound are calculated
24 by switching off reaction 4 and compared in terms of percentage differences with the simulations
25 including all chemistry. Results are summarized in **Table 1**. It particularly shows that under the
26 Sarychev aerosol loading, only 16% of the 22% (0.9 pptv) increase in daytime BrO at 16.5 km for the
27 August-September 2009 period is produced from BrONO₂ hydrolysis. This result implies that bromine
28 chemistry in the gas phase coupled to processes controlling the NO_y partitioning mainly govern BrO
29 amounts (e.g., Lary et al., 1996).

30 **4.2.2 Role of BrONO₂ hydrolysis on other compounds**

32 As shown in **Table 1** for an altitude of 16.5 km, at night BrONO₂ amounts are mainly affected by
33 reaction 4 which controls 98% of its decrease under volcanic aerosol influence. Nearly 100% of the
34 night-time HOBr production is due to BrONO₂ hydrolysis which accounts for 44% of the increase in
35 OH radical amounts from the subsequent photolysis of HOBr at dawn. Therefore, under volcanic
36 conditions enhanced BrONO₂ hydrolysis nearly matches the contribution of nitrogen chemistry (see
37 [section 4.1](#)) as a source of OH (e.g., [Hanisco et al., 2001](#)).

38 This additional release of OH radicals has significant consequences in the chemistry of the lower
39 stratosphere. In our study the reduction in NO_x from BrONO₂ hydrolysis are small (less than 2%) as
40 well as the overall effects on nitrogen partitioning confirming the conclusions of Lary et al. (1996) and
41 Kondo et al. (1997). In contrast, there is substantial repartitioning of the active chlorine family species.
42 The catalytic increase in OH due to the hydrolysis of BrONO₂ leads to a reduction in the HCl lifetime
43 which is primarily dependent on the aerosol loading (Tie and Brasseur, 1996). The additionally produced
44 OH converts further HCl to ClO and, ultimately, to ClONO₂. As shown in **Table 1**, ~60% of the HCl
45 decrease, 39% of the ClO increase and 66% of the ClONO₂ increase are due to reaction 4 under the
46 Sarychev aerosol loading, thus illustrating a significant enhancement of the coupling between the
47 stratospheric chlorine and bromine photo-chemistry.

5. Stratospheric ozone

5.1 Chemical ozone change

It is interesting to estimate the stratospheric ozone depletion induced by the Sarychev eruption. As said above, the model does not directly calculate possible effects of aerosols on stratospheric temperature and circulation. All our simulations use the same transport calculations, whereas ozone loss from Pinatubo in the northern mid-latitudes can be both attributed to chemical and transport (such as increased tropical upwelling) effects (e.g. Telford et al., 2009; Dhomse et al., 2015). In the following, we therefore solely calculate the change in ozone due to photochemistry.

We then compare model simulations with enhanced and background aerosol levels (**Figure 11**). Results indicate chemical reductions in ozone of a few percent following the eruption when aerosol levels are computed from the OSIRIS space-borne data. Accumulated ozone depletion reaches its maximum above Kiruna near 16 km from around mid-September with changes of -22 ppbv corresponding to -1.5%. Below this level changes range from -10 ppbv to -18 ppbv, i.e. -2.5% to -3.5%. From the upper bound of the Bal-sim outputs calculated ozone depletion reaches -25 ppbv (-2.8%) and -35 ppbv (-4%) at 16.5 km and 14 km, respectively (not shown).

We note that for the post-Pinatubo eruption period, ozone reductions as large as -30% were measured for the 12 and 22 km altitude range monitored at some mid-latitude locations in winter and spring (Hofmann et al., 1994) but these losses are both due dynamical and chemical perturbations. Through 2D modelling, ozone losses of up to -20% directly resulting from heterogeneous chemical processes were calculated in the northern hemisphere lower stratosphere over the first year following the Pinatubo eruption (Pitari and Rizi, 1993; Tie et al., 1994). The calculated chemical loss had reduced to values much closer to those simulated for the Sarychev aerosols, i.e. ~-5%, at 60°N in the autumn 1992 extrapolar vortex conditions (Tie et al., 1994).

5.2 Chemical mechanisms for the ozone change in the lower stratosphere

In the lower stratosphere ozone removal rates are mainly controlled by the HO_x and halogen catalytic cycles which have been found to typically account for 30-50% and 30% of the total ozone loss respectively, in non-volcanic conditions (Portmann et al., 1999; Salawitch et al., 2005). The NO_x cycles play a relatively minor role in the direct removal of ozone in the lower stratosphere but, as a result of the coupling among the NO_x, HO_x and halogen cycles, the rate of ozone removal is still very sensitive to the concentration of NO_x (Wennberg et al., 1994; Gao et al., 1999; Portmann et al., 1999; Salawitch et al., 2005). Through the reaction of HO₂ with NO (HO₂ + NO → NO₂ + OH), the decreased NO_x concentrations after the Sarychev eruption result in a larger HO₂/OH ratio (as shown in **Table 1**) than for background conditions (HO₂/OH ratios typically ranging from 4 to 7). Because the photochemical removal of ozone in the lower stratosphere is dominated by processes involving HO₂, catalytic ozone destruction by HO_x cycles is likely to be amplified after volcanic eruptions (Wennberg et al., 1994; 1995) though ozone loss rates are limited due to the saturation of the NO_x/NO_y response. After the eruption of Sarychev the effectiveness of halogen cycles is enhanced due to increased ClO_x resulting from OH increase (**Table 1**) (as explained in section 4.1). However, as said above heterogeneous reactions activating chlorine are strongly and non-linearly dependent on temperature, implying slow rates at the average mid-latitude temperature conditions (minimum values of 215 K) (Hanson et al., 1994; Webster et al., 1998; Michelsen et al., 1999). Under these conditions the simulated depletion in ozone is restrained similarly to the finding of Tie et al. (1994) for the post-Pinatubo eruption period.

Part of the ozone depletion can be related to the coupled BrO_x/ClO_x cycle which is expected to be responsible for 20-25% of the halogen-controlled loss under non-volcanic aerosol conditions (Portmann et al., 1999; Salawitch et al., 2005). **Table 1** shows that the hydrolysis of BrONO₂ accounts for more than 22% of the ozone loss at 16.5 km after the Sarychev eruption. As described in section 4.2.2, this is due to reaction 4 acting as a source of OH, reducing the HCl lifetime and thereby indirectly amplifying the chlorine-mediated ozone depletion. Because the sticking coefficient for hydrolysis of BrONO₂ on

1 sulfate aerosols is not temperature dependent, this effect occurs at all latitudes and seasons in the lower
2 stratosphere during high aerosol loading periods (Lary et al., 1996; Tie and Brasseur, 1996).

7 6. Summary and conclusions

8
9 Our study provides key observations of the chemical perturbation in the lower stratosphere by the
10 moderate Sarychev volcano eruption in June 2009. 3D and 1D CTM simulations are performed to
11 interpret balloon-borne observations of some key chemical species made in the summer high-latitude
12 lower stratosphere. The modelled chemical response to the volcanic aerosols is treated by comparing
13 simulations using background aerosol levels and simulations driven by volcanic aerosol amounts
14 inferred from balloon-borne and space-borne observations.

15 Quantifying the impact of volcanic aerosols on stratospheric ozone chemistry is difficult as chemical
16 and dynamical (radiative) effects simultaneously occur (Pitari and Rizi, 1993; Robock, 2000; Al-Saadi
17 et al., 2001; Aquila et al., 2013). The model is a CTM driven by ECMWF off-line meteorological data
18 and does not describe radiative processes. In other words, volcanic aerosol radiative effects are not
19 directly interactive with the circulation computed by the model. Radiative processes from the injection
20 of volcanic aerosols in the tropics have been shown to have an impact on mean meridional circulation
21 and ozone transport (Brasseur and Granier, 1992; Pitari et Rizi, 1993). In our study, effects of the
22 Sarychev aerosols on mid-latitude stratospheric dynamics, if any, are at least at the first order
23 intrinsically taken into account in the ECMWF analyses used for all simulations. REPROBUS does not
24 take into account the aerosol impact on calculated photolysis rates which is likely to result in some
25 differences between models when this process is computed or ignored (Pitari et Rizi, 1993; Pitari et al.,
26 2014). However because the Sarychev eruption has impacted only [the lower stratosphere at mid- and
27 high latitudes](#) the effect on the photolysis frequency of molecular oxygen and ozone due to absorption
28 and backscattering of solar radiation by the volcanic aerosols is expected to be very small in [these
29 regions](#) (Tie et al., 1994). Therefore, since all our simulations have been driven with the same wind and
30 temperature fields our approach only estimates the chemical effects of the Sarychev aerosols.

31 The NO_y chemistry appears to be very sensitive to the increase in SAD within the lower stratosphere
32 resulting from the Sarychev eruption. A decrease in the NO_x abundances is evident but shows some
33 saturation as emphasized in a number of studies referring to cases of high sulfate aerosol loadings (e.g.
34 Fahey et al., 1993). The effect of volcanic aerosols on nitrogen partitioning is also reflected in the
35 calculated production of HNO_3 as a result of the decrease of the N_2O_5 nitrogen reservoir from its
36 enhanced hydrolysis and NO_x reduction.

37 Although direct comparisons in terms of solar illumination, latitude, injection altitudes and
38 temperature are not possible for distinct volcanic eruptions such as Pinatubo and Sarychev, it is
39 interesting to compare the effect of both eruptions on the photochemistry of the lower stratosphere.
40 Overall, although different in magnitude, the eruptions of Pinatubo and Sarychev show similar observed
41 and simulated depletion of NO_2 , probably due to the saturation effect of the enhanced N_2O_5 hydrolysis.
42 In comparison with the Pinatubo period, the Sarychev aerosols led to less overall HNO_3 production in
43 the stratosphere possibly because the related HNO_3 enhancement has been shown to be considerably
44 weaker in the lowermost stratosphere (below ~ 18 km) than for sulfur injection into higher altitudes
45 (Webster et al., 1994; Santee et al., 2004). However, one must notice that previously reported modelling
46 studies on the Pinatubo aerosols were conducted with former chemical kinetic rate constants and
47 photolysis rates which have been largely updated ever since, somewhat adding complexity for
48 comparisons discussed within the present study.

49 For the Pinatubo aerosols, ozone destruction was not observed throughout the volcanic aerosol layer
50 because N_2O_5 hydrolysis reduced NO_x related ozone loss, which even resulted in small increases of
51 ozone in the middle stratosphere (Bekki and Pyle, 1994; Tie and Brasseur, 1995). For the Sarychev
52 eruption, the volcanic aerosol layer is restrained to altitude levels below 19 km where the ozone
53 destruction processes by HO_x and halogen catalytic cycles are expected to play a major role (e.g.

1 Salawitch et al., 2005) with some sensitivity towards NO_x levels. To summarize, the increased
2 production of HNO_3 via N_2O_5 hydrolysis enhances the photolytic production of OH from HNO_3 . As a
3 result, the gas-phase sink for HCl by reaction with OH is slightly enhanced and is associated with an
4 increase of ClO amounts. An important result from the heterogeneous hydrolysis of BrONO_2 is the
5 formation and subsequent photolysis of additional HOBr. The OH so produced additionally converts
6 HCl to ClO (and ultimately to ClONO_2). Accordingly, there is substantial repartitioning of the active
7 chlorine but effects of the BrONO_2 hydrolysis on nitrogen partitioning are insignificant. In this chemical
8 context, the magnitude of the ozone response to the Sarychev volcanic perturbation appears **restricted**
9 **(for instance -22 ppbv or -1.5% around 16 km)** because the saturation of the NO_x/NO_y response limits
10 the increase in HO_x and in active chlorine (ClO) by enhanced HO_x , precluding important ozone loss
11 rates. Moreover, stratospheric temperatures remained too high (i.e. mainly above 215 K) for efficient
12 heterogeneous conversion of ClONO_2 to active chlorine, which could have led to significant ozone
13 depletion. For these temperature conditions, reaction 2 is not expected to compete with N_2O_5 hydrolysis
14 in the NO_y partitioning (Fahey et al., 1993; Cox et al., 1994).

15 However limitations in our model simulations also contribute to some model-measurement
16 discrepancies. A first major difficulty is to drive the model simulations with representative and
17 consistent inputs in term of volcanic aerosol loading. To address this issue, two different model runs for
18 aerosol forcing have been performed, one using OSIRIS satellite data converted to aerosol SAD fields
19 and the other one from **in situ** balloon-borne observations. The OSIRIS satellite data represent zonally
20 and daily averaged values of SAD which may vary from a 3D construction based on the local surface
21 areas. The possible presence of aerosol streamers (geographical variations of the aerosol content)
22 resulting from the transport of the volcanic aerosols over the northern hemisphere present from mid-
23 July to September 2009 is likely to affect locally and regionally the N_2O_5 abundances and, to a lesser
24 extent, NO_2 and HNO_3 (Jucks et al. 1999; Küll et al., 2002). If our aerosol SAD dataset had been obtained
25 when the local concentrations were higher than the zonal mean values, then the calculated rate of the
26 heterogeneous reactions would be biased low and calculated NO_x and HNO_3 abundances would be
27 systematically biased high and low respectively. **This is not however evident in all our comparisons**
28 **from simulations based on OSIRIS aerosols. The second type of aerosol-constrained simulation uses**
29 **SADs from balloon-borne observed profiles.** By definition, such in situ observations deal with a
30 particular location. Extrapolating in situ derived SADs to drive a 3D model at a large scale may induce
31 inaccurate simulations of the chemical impact of the aerosols (Kondo et al., 2000). To account for this
32 SAD-related uncertainty, our simulations based on **in situ** data encompass the range of SADs derived
33 from the STAC balloon-borne observations over the August-September 2009 period. Both satellite- and
34 balloon-driven simulations give similar results in terms of NO_2 and HNO_3 amounts possibly because the
35 **in situ** observations represent well the aerosol loading at the northern mid-latitudes. Another explanation
36 is that the saturation effect (roughly when SADs become larger than $3 \mu\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$) of the NO_x/NO_y ratio
37 is more relevant for the range of observed SADs than spatiotemporal inhomogeneities.

38 Secondly, adequate modelling of transport is also crucial for the partitioning of NO_y . Processes that
39 control the vertical profiles of NO_2 and HNO_3 in the stratosphere are based on a complex interplay
40 between dynamics and chemistry with the key issue to accurately simulate total NO_y which may be not
41 systematically achieved with 3D CTM calculations. Improved simulations of transport can be obtained
42 by combing operational analyses with forecasts to construct 3-hourly meteorological data to drive the
43 CTM (Berthet et al., 2006). We have applied this strategy in the present study. Using 1D modelling
44 driven by **in situ** observations or calculating NO_2/HNO_3 ratios to reduce transport effects does not clearly
45 improve the model-measurement comparisons for the lower stratosphere. Although some features in the
46 vertical profiles are not systematically captured by the model, this tends to indicate that the error in
47 calculated transport is not large enough to account for the overall difference between measured and
48 modelled NO_2 and HNO_3 when no volcanic aerosol loading is included in the model. Rather, these
49 results show some evidence of the role of heterogeneous reactions at the surface of volcanic aerosols.

50 Thirdly, part of the discrepancies between model and observations might be attributed to spatial
51 resolution issues. It may be tricky to compare model calculations with high resolution **in situ** profiles
52 and with remote sensing observations integrating over tens of **kilometres** (Berthet et al., 2007). For
53 instance, discrepancies between remote sensing observations and model calculations have been reported
54 for stratospheric NO_3 in case of localized temperature inhomogeneities as a result of the strong
55 dependence of NO_3 cross sections and kinetics on temperature (Renard et al., 2001). N_2O_5 and NO_2 may

1 be subsequently impacted because NO_3 , together with NO_2 , plays a central role in the equilibrium
2 reaction controlling N_2O_5 in the gas phase.

3 In our study, no comprehensive sulfur chemistry is included in the model. We have also excluded
4 dynamical and radiative effects on the ozone response which have been shown to be of primary
5 importance when dense volcanic clouds are present (e.g. Pitari and Rizi, 1993; Kinnison et al., 1994;
6 Tie et al., 1994; [Al-Saadi et al., 2001](#)). In a forthcoming study it would be interesting to compare
7 dynamical/radiative and chemical effects of moderate volcanic eruptions on stratospheric ozone using
8 Chemistry-Climate models with full sulfur chemistry and aerosol-dynamics interactive calculations.

9 Finally, it might be interesting to investigate the effects of other volcanic plumes coming from
10 moderate volcanic eruptions which are then transported to high-latitude regions when stratospheric
11 temperatures are more favourable for chlorine activation and enhanced ozone loss (e.g. in winter).
12 Activation of chlorine from volcanic sulfate aerosols and associated ozone depletion is arguably more
13 significant in the cold temperature conditions of winter/spring, even above the formation threshold of
14 Polar Stratospheric Clouds (Hanson et al., 1994). The eruption of the Calbuco volcano in the southern
15 hemisphere in April 2015 could be a good candidate for the study of this process ([Solomon et al., 2016](#)).

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18

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13 the WINDOAS algorithm very well-adapted for data reduction methods based on the Differential
14 Optical Absorption Technique. We acknowledge the MIPAS/Envisat team from Karlsruhe Institute of
15 Technology (KIT) for making IMK/IAA data available.

16

17

1 Appendix A: Technical description

3 A.1 The STAC aerosol counter

5 Aerosol size distributions are provided in the 0.4–5 μm diameter size range (Ovarlez and Ovarlez,
6 1995; Renard et al., 2008). Since 2008, the number of available size classes has been increased from 7
7 to 14 within this size range (Renard et al., 2010). The counting uncertainty is obtained from the statistical
8 probability given by Poisson counting statistics (Willeke and Liu, 1976). This uncertainty, defined as
9 the relative standard deviation, is 60% for aerosol concentrations of 10^{-3} cm^{-3} , 20% for 10^{-2} cm^{-3} , and
10 6% for concentrations higher than 10^{-1} cm^{-3} . Laboratory comparisons between two copies of the STAC
11 aerosol counter using identical aerosol samples have shown differences of $\pm 10\%$ for concentrations
12 higher than 10^{-2} cm^{-3} . From these results, we define a measurement precision limited to $\pm 10\%$. It should
13 be noted that comparisons with the aerosol concentrations measured by the University of Wyoming
14 optical particle counter (Deshler et al., 2003) have shown consistent results between both instruments
15 (Renard et al., 2002). STAC is calibrated in order to provide size distributions of non-absorbing liquid
16 aerosols which have been unambiguously observed in the 8–19 km altitude range in the case of the
17 Sarychev eruption (Jégou et al., 2013). Aerosol distribution moments are derived using well-known
18 analytical expressions. Using a statistical approach as described in Deshler et al. (2003), STAC counting
19 **precision** (Poisson statistics and the $\pm 10\%$ **measurement reproducibility**) translate into uncertainties on
20 distribution moments, with estimated values of 40% for SAD. Profiles are typically averaged over a
21 vertical range of 250 m (corresponding to ~ 1 minute of measurements).

23 A.2 The SPIRALE **in situ** infrared spectrometer

25 A detailed description of the instrumental characteristics of SPIRALE and of its operating mode can
26 be found in Moreau et al. (2005). Six tunable laser diodes emitting in spectral micro-windows ($< 1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$
27 1) in the mid-infrared domain (1250 to 3000 cm^{-1}) are used for in situ measurements of trace gas species
28 from the upper troposphere to the stratosphere. The six laser beams are injected into a multipass Herriott
29 cell, comprising two mirrors spaced 3.50 m apart by a telescopic mast, allowing for 434.0 m optical
30 path. This cell is deployed under the gondola during the flight, above ~ 9 km altitude, i.e. when pressure
31 is below ~ 300 hPa and thus absorption lines are significantly narrower than the scanned micro-windows.
32 Species concentrations are retrieved from direct absorption, by fitting experimental spectra with spectra
33 calculated using HITRAN 2012 database (Rothman et al., 2013) and the temperature and pressure
34 measured on board the gondola. Measurements of pressure (by two calibrated and temperature-regulated
35 capacitance manometers) and temperature (by two probes made of resistive platinum wire) allow for
36 conversion of the species concentrations to volume mixing ratios. Uncertainties on these parameters are
37 negligible regarding the other uncertainties discussed below. The instrument provides measurements
38 each 1.1 s, thus with a vertical resolution of a few meters depending on the vertical velocity of the
39 balloon (2 to 5 m s^{-1}). Absorption lines in the micro-windows 1260.95–1261.25 cm^{-1} , 1598.45–1598.85
40 cm^{-1} and 1701.50–1701.80 cm^{-1} were selected for N_2O , NO_2 and HNO_3 , respectively. The **total error**
41 for the volume mixing ratios **has** been assessed by taking into account the random errors and the systematic
42 errors, and combining them as the square root of their quadratic sum (Moreau et al., 2005). There are
43 two important sources of random errors: (1) the fluctuations of the laser background emission signal and
44 (2) the signal-to-noise ratio. These error sources are the main contributions for NO_2 giving a total
45 uncertainty of 30% at the lower altitudes (around 15 km), gradually reduced to 20% around 20 km, and
46 decreasing to 5% at higher altitudes (above 30 km). For HNO_3 these random errors are less significant
47 but two sources of systematic errors have to be considered: the laser line width (an intrinsic characteristic
48 of the laser diode) and the non-linearity of the detectors resulting in an uncertainty of 20% on the whole
49 profile. Concerning N_2O and ozone, which are abundant and measured using detection systems with
50 proper linearity of the photovoltaic conversion, the overall uncertainties are 3% over the whole vertical
51 profile, and decrease from 10% at 14 km (i.e. for mixing ratios below 1 ppmv) to 5% above 17 km,
52 respectively. With respect to the above errors, systematic errors on spectroscopic data (essentially
53 molecular line strength and pressure broadening coefficients) are considered to be negligible for these
54 well studied species (Rothman et al., 2013). SPIRALE has been used routinely during the 2000's, in

1 particular as part of European projects and satellite validation campaigns (Grossel et al., 2010; Mébarki
2 et al., 2010; Krysztofiak et al., 2012 and 2015, and references therein).

3 4 **A.3 The DOAS remote-sensing UV-visible spectrometer**

5
6 Direct solar spectra from two UV/visible DOAS spectrometers are collected onboard the azimuth-
7 controlled LPMA/DOAS (Limb Profile Monitor of the Atmosphere/Differential Optical Absorption
8 Spectroscopy) balloon payload which carries a sun-tracker (Hawat et al., 1995). The solar reference
9 spectrum is usually the spectrum for which the air mass along the line-of-sight and the residual trace gas
10 absorption are minimal. The residual absorption in the solar reference is determined using Langley's
11 extrapolation to zero air mass. Rayleigh and Mie scattering are accounted for by including a third order
12 polynomial in the fitting procedure. The relative wavelength alignment of the absorption cross sections
13 and the solar reference spectrum is fixed and only the measured spectrum is allowed to shift and stretch.
14 O₃ Slant Column Densities (SCDs) are retrieved from the differential structures in the Chappuis
15 absorption band between 545 nm and 615 nm. The line-of-sight absorptions of NO₂ are inferred from
16 the 435 nm to 485 nm wavelength range. Two O₃ absorption cross sections recorded in the laboratory
17 at 230K and 244 K, aligned to cross sections from Voigt et al. (2001), are orthogonalized and fitted
18 simultaneously. Broad band spectral features are represented by a fourth order polynomial. Additional
19 complications arise from the temperature dependence of the NO₂ absorption cross section (Pfeilsticker
20 et al., 1999). The NO₂ analysis is performed using absorption cross sections recorded in the laboratory,
21 scaled and aligned to convolved and orthogonalized cross sections from Harder et al. (1997) taken at
22 217 K, and 230 K. The error bars of the retrieved SCDs are estimated via Gaussian error propagation
23 mainly from the statistical error given by the fitting routine, the error in determining the residual
24 absorber amount in the solar reference spectrum and the errors of the absorption cross sections. In total,
25 typical accuracies of the DOAS O₃ and NO₂ measurements are better than 5% and 10%, respectively.
26 The retrieval process for NO₂ is described in Butz et al. (2006).

27 Bromine monoxide (BrO) is detected in the UV wavelength range from 346 nm to 360 nm as
28 recommended by Aliwell et al. (2002). This wavelength range contains the UV vibration absorption
29 bands (4-0 at 354.7 nm, and 5-0 at 348.8 nm) of the A(²π) ← X(²π) electronic transition of BrO. Typical
30 optical densities are 10⁻⁴–10⁻³ for UV vibration absorption bands. The set of reference spectra used
31 contains a NO₂ reference spectrum for T=233 K, and two O₃ spectra at T=197 K and T=253 K, in order
32 to account for temperature effects. All NO₂ and O₃ spectra were recorded with the balloon spectrograph
33 in the laboratory. The BrO reference is the absolute cross-section measured by Wahner et al. (1988),
34 with the wavelength calibration taken from our own laboratory measurements. Profile information was
35 obtained by a least-squares profile inversion technique (Maximum A Posteriori) (Rodgers, 2000).
36 Further details on the BrO DOAS-retrieval and the profile inversion can be found in Harder et al. (1998)
37 and (2000), Aliwell et al. (2002), Dorf et al. (2006b) and Kreycky et al. (2013).

38 39 **A.4 The SALOMON remote-sensing UV-visible spectrometer**

40
41 The data presented in this study were obtained using a SAOZ-type UV-visible spectrometer
42 (Pommereau and Piquard, 1994) connected to a sun/moon tracker for the detection of ozone and NO₂
43 amounts. The one-band spectral window of SALOMON between 400 and 950 nm is adequate for the
44 retrieval of absorption features over large spectral ranges, i.e. roughly from 400 to 680 nm for ozone
45 and from 400 to 550 nm for NO₂. The spectrum recorded at float altitude (more than 36.5 km)
46 corresponds to a minimum air mass and is considered as a reference spectrum. Occultation spectra
47 recorded for elevation angles between 0° and -5° below the gondola horizon are taken into account for
48 the retrieval of the SCDs. Owing to the thermal insulation of the spectrometer, no spectral drift of the
49 Fraunhofer lines and no instrumental resolution changes have been observed between the reference and
50 the occultation spectra. The Rayleigh scattering contribution is calculated and removed from the spectra
51 using these profiles and the spectral cross-sections given by Bucholtz (1995). Then, O₃ and NO₂ SCDs
52 are determined by least-squares fits using the University of Bremen high resolution absorption cross-
53 sections convolved to the spectral resolution of the instrument (data available from [http://www.iup.uni-
54 bremen.de/gruppen/molspec/databases/index.html](http://www.iup.uni-bremen.de/gruppen/molspec/databases/index.html)). Aerosols are a major low frequency spectral
55 contribution which is removed by a high-pass filter to derive the NO₂ SCDs. All lines of sight are not

1 used to derive SCDs since the retrieval is performed only when signal-to-noise ratios (computed in our
2 case by the ratio of the fit maximum amplitude to the standard deviation between the measurement and
3 the fit) are greater than 1. NO₂ fitting errors are typically of 5-9% for SCDs crossing the altitude levels
4 of the volcanic aerosol layer (i.e. below ~19 km). Vertical concentration profiles have been derived
5 using an a posteriori least-squares inversion technique (Rodgers et al., 2000) taking into account the
6 fitting error and the uncertainties of the cross sections. Note that the data reduction method used in this
7 study is described by Renard et al. (2000) and Berthet et al. (2002).

8 For the flight presented in this study we have added a HR4000 UV spectrometer from Ocean Optics
9 to detect BrO absorption lines in the 346-360 nm range as done for the DOAS instrument. The
10 spectrometer is thermally insulated and regulated using Peltier devices to avoid spectral shifts. It has its
11 own connection to the sun tracker but collects the sunlight simultaneously with a Jobin-Yvon UV-visible
12 spectrometer. We use the same data reduction method as for DOAS as described in details by Dorf et
13 al. (2006b) to retrieve SCDs and the vertical profile of BrO. In our case the Wahner et al. BrO and
14 Bremen ozone and NO₂ cross sections are convolved to the resolution of the instrument determined in
15 the laboratory using a UV lamp. SCD data are smoothed to increase the signal-to-noise ratio. The altitude
16 grid for profile inversion is 2 km. Associated random errors are those provided by the spectral fit. The
17 major systematic error comes from the uncertain estimation of the residual BrO column above float
18 altitude.

21 22 **Appendix B: Model description**

23
24 The REPROBUS 3D CTM computes the evolution of 55 species by means of about 160 photolytic
25 gas-phase and heterogeneous reactions, with a time step of 15 minutes in this study. A semi-Lagrangian
26 code transports 40 species or chemical families, typically long-lived tracers but also more unstable
27 compounds (Lefèvre et al., 1994; Lefèvre et al., 1998).

28 Temperature, winds and surface pressure are specified from the 3D European Centre for Medium-
29 Range Weather Forecast (ECMWF) meteorological data from the surface up to 0.01 hPa (i.e. about 80
30 km in altitude) on 91 levels. This results in a vertical resolution of about 0.45 km in the lower
31 stratosphere. REPROBUS is driven by 3-hourly ECMWF wind fields obtained by interleaving
32 operational analysis and forecasts because in this way spurious calculation of transport is reduced in
33 comparison with simulations based on 6-hourly analysis (Legras et al., 2005; Berthet et al., 2006).

34 Gas-phase kinetics parameters used in the present study are based on the recommendation by the Jet-
35 Propulsion-Laboratory (JPL) described in Sander et al. (2011). In particular for nitrogen gas-phase
36 chemistry, revised kinetic data were recommended because, following a number of studies (e.g. Brown
37 et al., 1999; Gao et al., 1999; Jucks et al., 1999; Osterman et al., 1999; Kondo et al., 2000; Prasad, 2003),
38 a lower rate for the reaction of NO₂ with OH and a higher rate for HNO₃ with OH significantly reduced
39 model-measurement discrepancies highlighted in former published work (e.g. Fahey et al., 1993; Kondo
40 et al., 1997; Sen et al., 1998).

41 The heterogeneous chemistry module includes reactions on liquid aerosols. An analytical expression
42 is used to calculate the equilibrium composition and volume of the H₂SO₄-H₂O droplets as a function of
43 temperature and the total amounts of H₂O and H₂SO₄ (Carslaw et al., 1995). The routine calculates the
44 aqueous phase concentrations for the soluble species HCl, HBr, HOCl, and HOBr to calculate the rates
45 of the heterogeneous reactions involving these compounds on stratospheric liquid aerosols. Reactions
46 of N₂O₅, ClONO₂, and BrONO₂ on/in sulfuric acid are usually dependent on the species' Henry's law
47 solubility and liquid phase diffusion coefficient in the liquid as well as the surface and/or liquid phase
48 reaction rates (Hanson et al., 1994; Shi et al., 2001; Sander et al., 2011). N₂O₅ hydrolysis takes place at
49 the surface of the particles (Hanson et al., 1994). As in a number of previous studies (e.g. Mills et al.,
50 1993; Gao et al., 1999; Bracher et al., 2005) REPROBUS computes a γ reaction efficiency of 0.1 as
51 default value (0.05-0.2 in Sander et al., 2011) and which is independent of temperature and acid
52 composition. The reaction rate is proportional to γ and increases with aerosol SAD. For heterogeneous
53 reactions involving ClONO₂, kinetics are taken from the well-detailed uptake model of Shi et al. (2001)
54 which uses the parameterization of H₂SO₄/H₂O composition of Tabazadeh et al. (1997). These processes
55 are **strong** functions of the acid composition and temperature. Note that the γ reaction efficiency for

1 ClONO₂ described in the JPL recommendation of Sander et al. (2011) is taken from Shi et al. (2001).
2 The BrONO₂ reactivity on sulfuric acid particles is computed from the JPL parameterization which is
3 based on the work of Hanson (2003) and shows a rather limited dependence on acid composition and
4 temperature.

5 Initialized amounts of species are taken from a [long-term simulation from the UPMC 2D model](#)
6 (Bekki and Pyle, 1994; [Weisenstein and Bekki; 2006](#)). Initialization of stratospheric chlorine precursors
7 is based on scenarios defined by the World Meteorological Organization (WMO, 2014). Total inorganic
8 chlorine ($Cl_y = HCl + ClONO_2 + HOCl + ClO + Cl_2O_2$) is calculated by the model, and approaches 3.3
9 ppbv in the upper stratosphere in 2009, in accordance with the WMO (2014). Note that as expected this
10 value is reduced compared to the study (3.7 ppbv) by Berthet et al. (2005). Total stratospheric inorganic
11 bromine takes into account the contributions from Halons, methyl bromide and very-short-lived bromine
12 compounds to reach 19.5 pptv, matching the scenario given by WMO (2010) updated from Dorf et al.
13 (2006a).

14 [Gaseous sulfur chemistry is not included in the REPROBUS CTM. The UPMC 2D model](#)
15 [climatology \(Bekki and Pyle, 1994\) provides the initialization of H₂SO₄ mixing ratios for the](#)
16 [background aerosols](#). Liquid particles are formed in equilibrium and are assumed to have a predefined
17 number density. Mean particle radii and SADs of the liquid aerosols are calculated from the number
18 density and the amount of H₂SO₄ and H₂O assuming a lognormal unimodal distribution with a fixed
19 distribution width.

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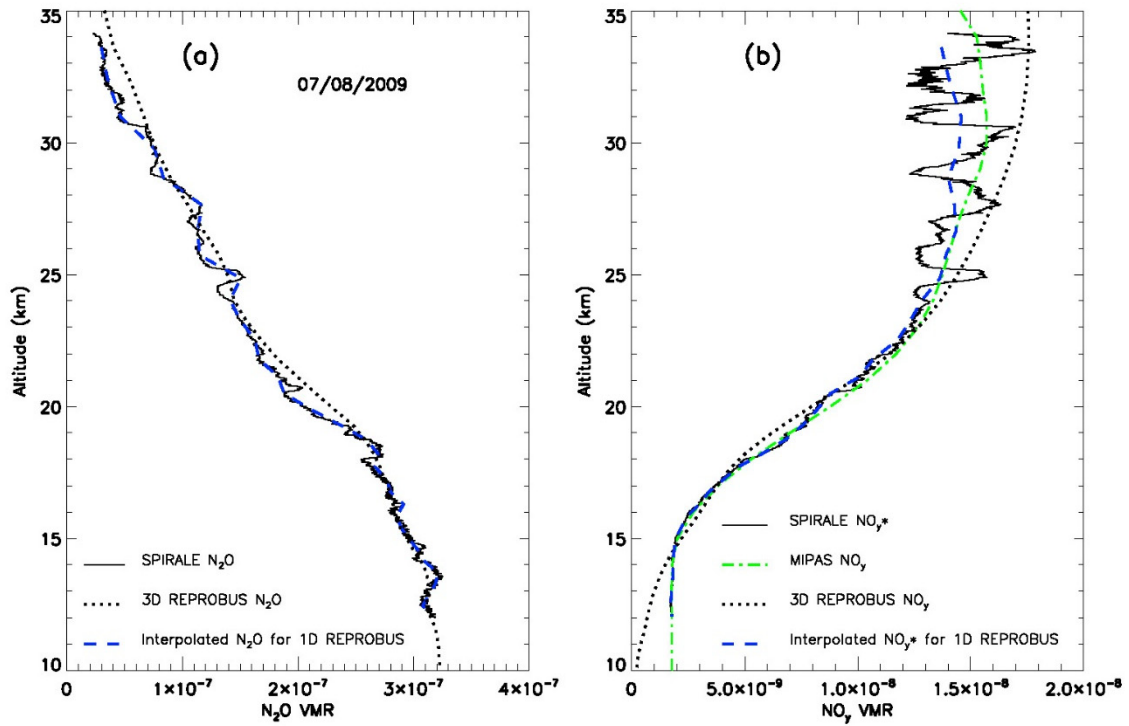
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1 **Table 1:** Simulated changes on various stratospheric key species due to the Sarychev volcanic aerosols
 2 over the August-September 2009 period at 16.5 km. Numbers are taken from the Sat-sim simulation.
 3 Effects for daytime and night-time conditions are provided depending on statistically significant
 4 amounts in the diurnal cycle of a given compound. Also the contribution of BrONO₂ hydrolysis
 5 (reaction 4) to changes on the various species is shown (see text).
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Species	All chemistry				BrONO ₂ hydrolysis effect	
	12H UT		00H UT		12H UT	00H UT
NO _x	-0.23 ppbv	-44%	-0.19 ppbv	-48%	1.8%	1.1%
NO ₂	-0.12 ppbv	-43%	-0.19 ppbv	-48%	1.8%	1.1%
NO	-0.11 ppbv	-45%	---	---	2.0%	---
HNO ₃	+0.31 ppbv	+11%	+0.31 ppbv	+11%	-2.3%	-0.9%
N ₂ O ₅	-0.08 ppbv	-80%	-0.12 ppbv	-66%	-3.6%	-3.1%
ClONO ₂	+0.02 ppbv	+16%	+0.02 ppbv	+22%	66.2%	60.6%
HCl	-0.02 ppbv	-3%	-0.02 ppbv	-3%	58.8%	58.9%
ClO _x	+5.77 pptv	+106%	---	---	39.3%	---
ClO	+5.77 pptv	+106%	---	---	39.3%	---
HOCl	+2.17 pptv	+217%	+1.16 pptv	+346%	47.4%	50.1%
BrONO ₂	-1.37 pptv	-33%	-4.15 pptv	-70%	18.3%	98%
BrO	+0.94 pptv	+22%	---	---	16.2%	---
HOBr	---	---	+3.89 pptv	+141%	---	98.8%
HO _x	+1.41 pptv	+51%	---	---	24.1%	---
OH	+0.05 pptv	+16%	---	---	44.1%	---
HO ₂	+1.36 pptv	+56%	---	---	23.1%	---
O ₃	-13.1 ppbv	-1.1%	-12.6 ppbv	-1.1%	22.5%	26.3%

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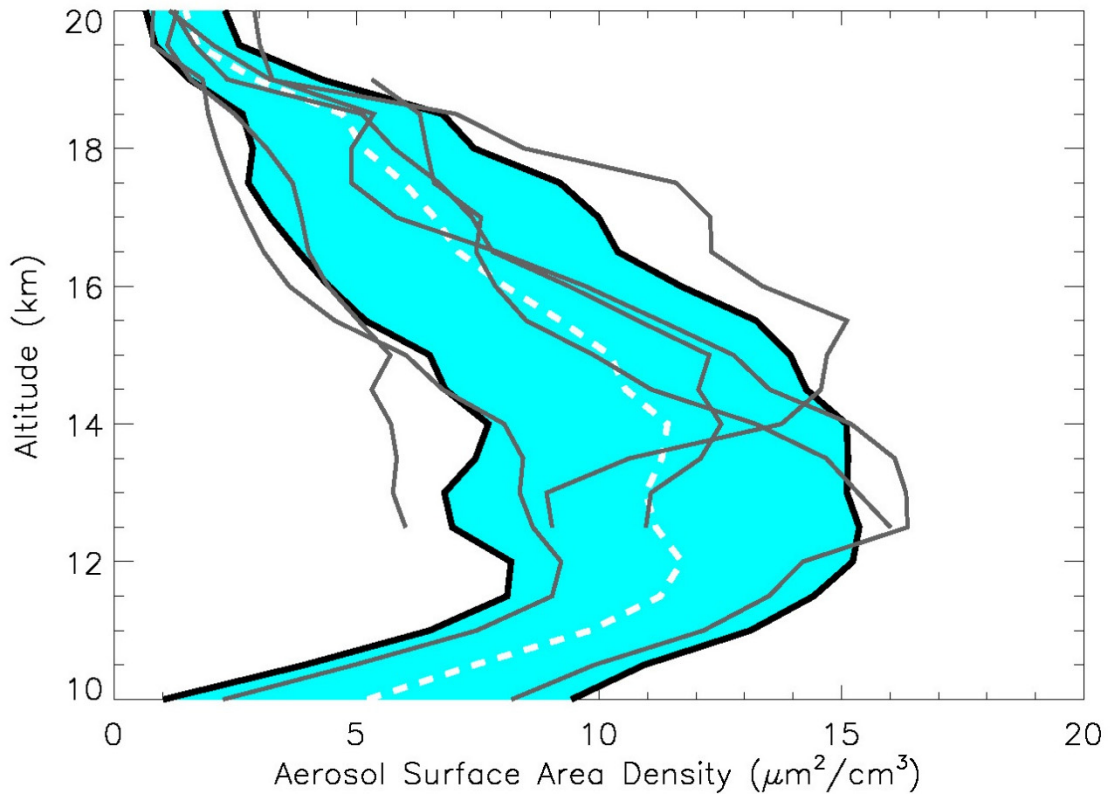


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4 **Figure 1:** (a) Vertical profile of N₂O recorded on 7 August 2009 (black line) compared to the results
5 from the 3D version of REPROBUS (dotted line). (b) Vertical profile of NO_y inferred from the
6 SPIRALE N₂O profile converted using the N₂O-NO_y correlation curve presented in Figure 7 (referred
7 to as NO_y*). Also shown are the NO_y profiles from the 3D version of REPROBUS (dotted line) and the
8 MIPAS averaged data (green line). The 1D version of REPROBUS is computed with the profiles
9 interpolated to the model resolution (blue lines).

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4 **Figure 2:** Range of aerosol SAD values (black lines) as derived from several balloon-borne observations
5 in the lower stratosphere in summer 2009 (1σ standard deviation of the mean). The individual profiles
6 (grey lines) and their average (white dashed line) are also presented. Data supposed to be spoiled by
7 balloon outgassing as revealed from simultaneous in situ water vapour observations and data revealing
8 the sporadic presence of clouds below 12 km have been excluded.

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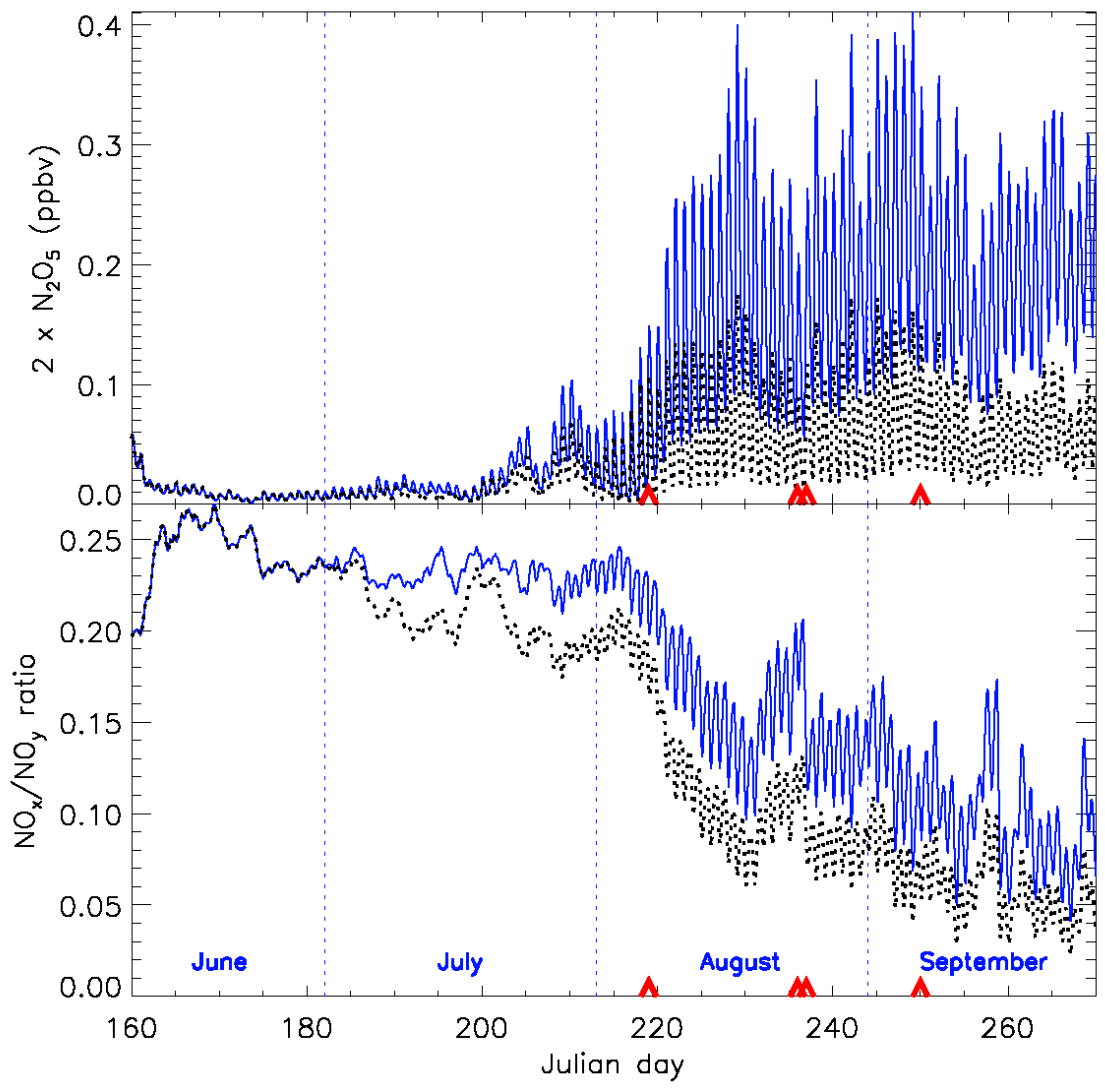
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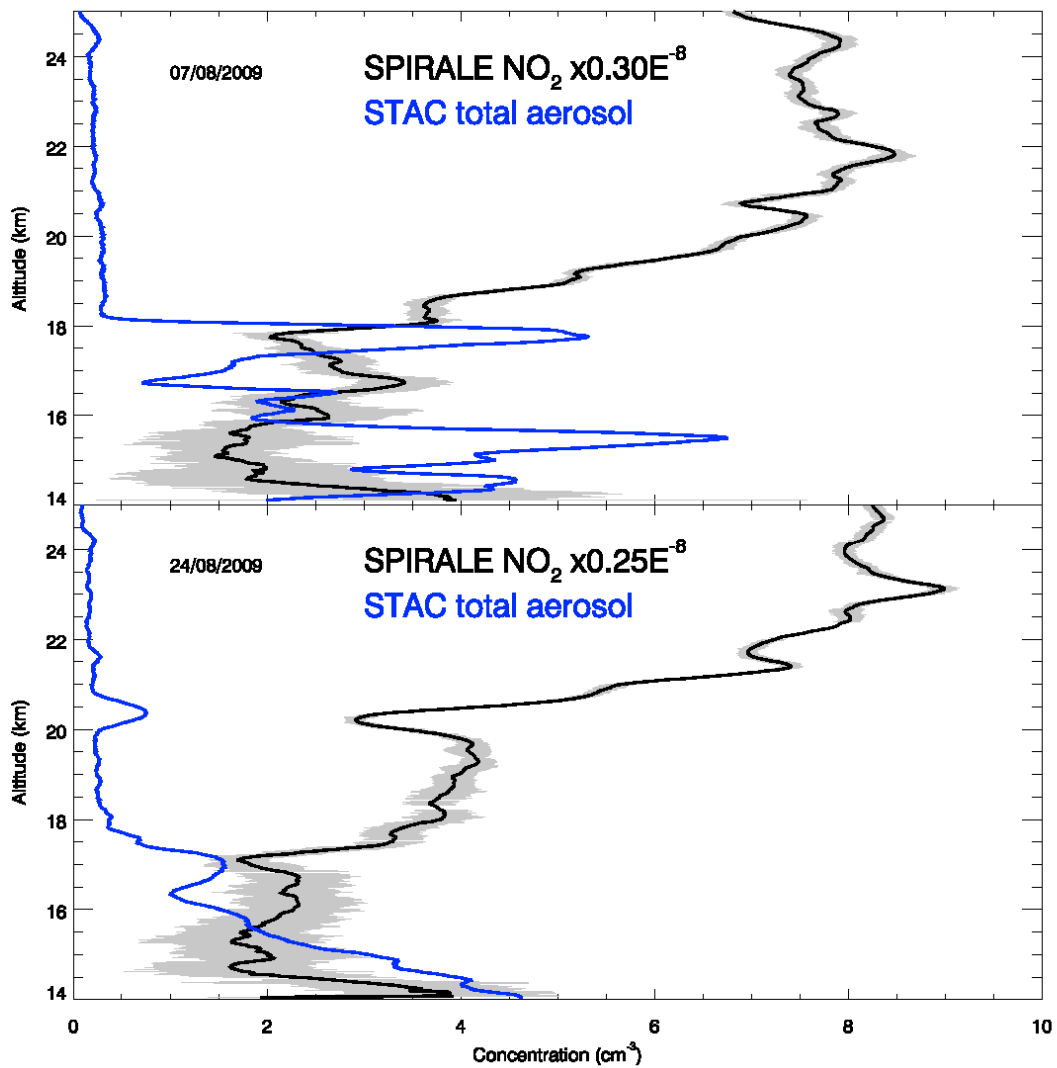
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Figure 3: Seasonal variation of N_2O_5 (a) and of the NO_x/NO_y ratio (b) simulated by the REPROBUS CTM above Kiruna in Northern Sweden ($67.5^\circ N$, $21.0^\circ E$) around 17.5 km. The simulation driven by non-volcanic aerosol contents (Ref-sim) is shown in blue. The black dotted line is the REPROBUS simulation driven by volcanic aerosol levels from STAC balloon-borne observations (Bal-sim). Red triangles represent the dates of the balloon flights. N_2O_5 recovery is onset at the beginning of August (day 213 is August 1, 2009) i.e. when SZA become $>90^\circ$.

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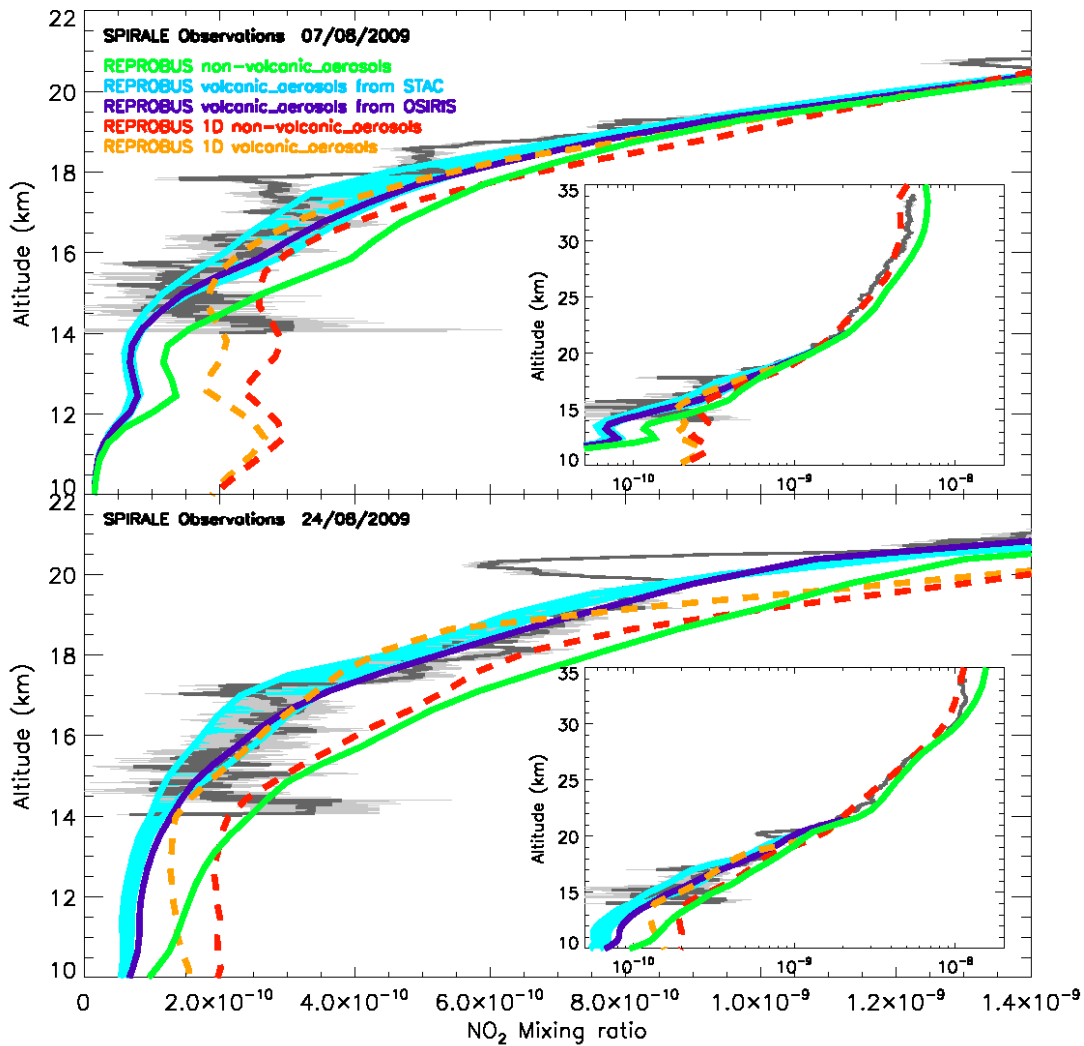


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4 **Figure 4:** Vertical profiles of NO₂ observed by the SPIRALE balloon-borne instrument (black line with
5 grey shaded error bars) on 7 and 24 August 2009 compared to the total aerosol concentration profiles
6 (for sizes > 0.4 μm) simultaneously recorded by the STAC aerosol counter (blue line) above Kiruna
7 during balloon ascent. SPIRALE data have been averaged over 250 m (corresponding to ~1 minute of
8 measurements).

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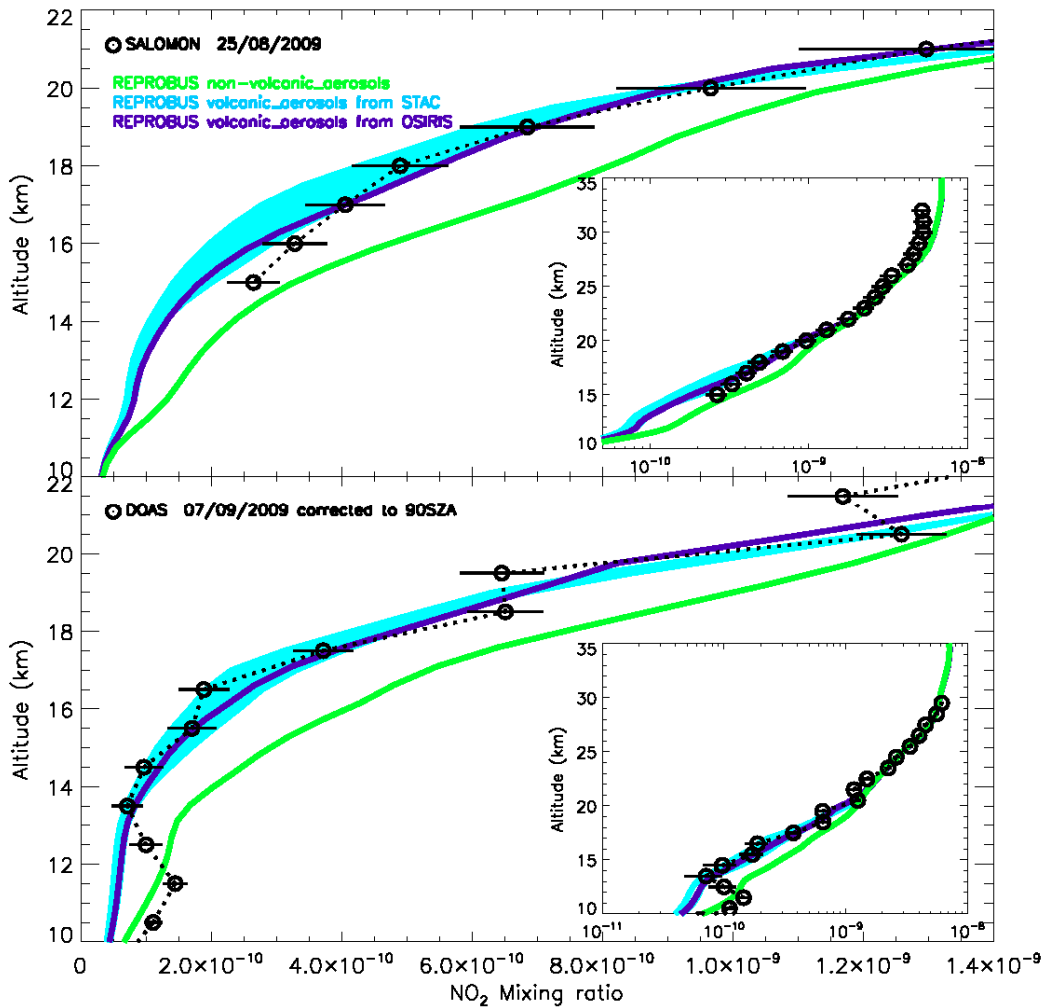


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5 **Figure 5:** Vertical profile of NO₂ observed by the SPIRALE balloon-borne instrument (black line)
6 above Kiruna during balloon ascent between 02:00 and 02:30 UT (~87° SZA at 02:15 UT) for the 7
7 August 2009 flight (top) and between 21:00 and 21:30 UT (~100° SZA at 21:15 UT) for the 24 August
8 2009 flight (bottom). Model outputs (available every 15 minutes) are provided for the closest location
9 of the instrument and interpolated to the time of observations. Three-dimensional simulations have been
10 driven without volcanic aerosols (green), with volcanic aerosols from balloon-borne observations (blue
11 shaded area) and with volcanic aerosols from satellite data (dark blue line). Results from a one-
12 dimensional (1D) version of the REPROBUS model (dashed lines) computed using hybrid NO_y* profiles
13 (NO_y*) derived from the observed profiles of N₂O are also provided (see text), with in red the non-
14 volcanic reference simulations and in yellow the calculations driven with volcanic aerosols from the
15 mean observed balloon-borne profile presented in [Figure 2](#).

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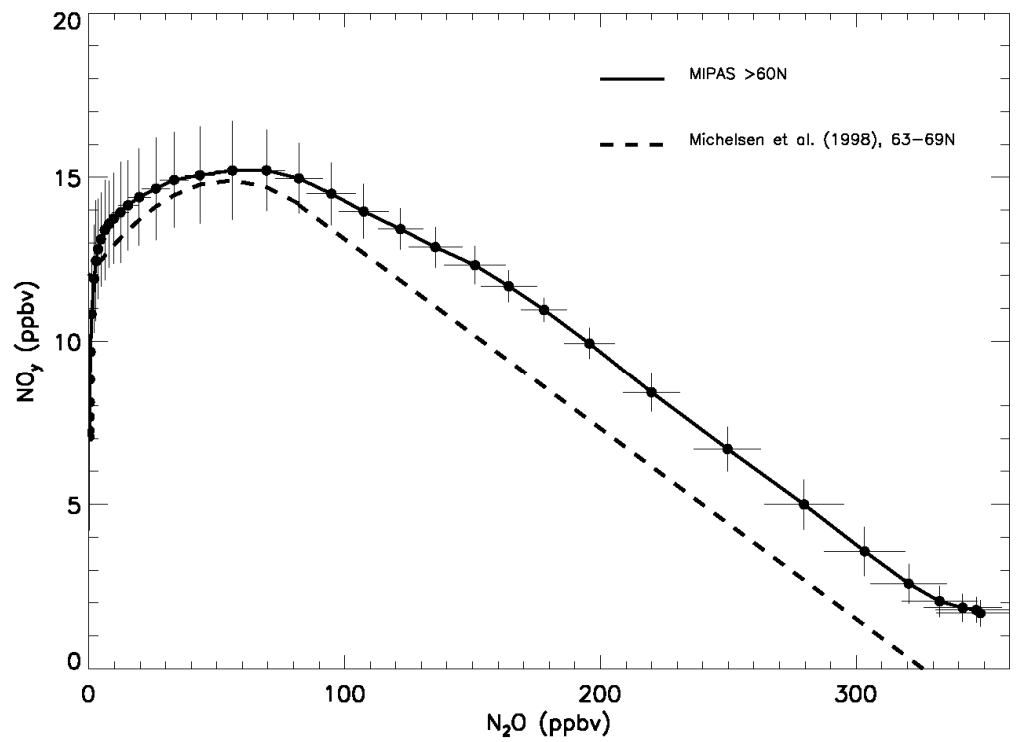
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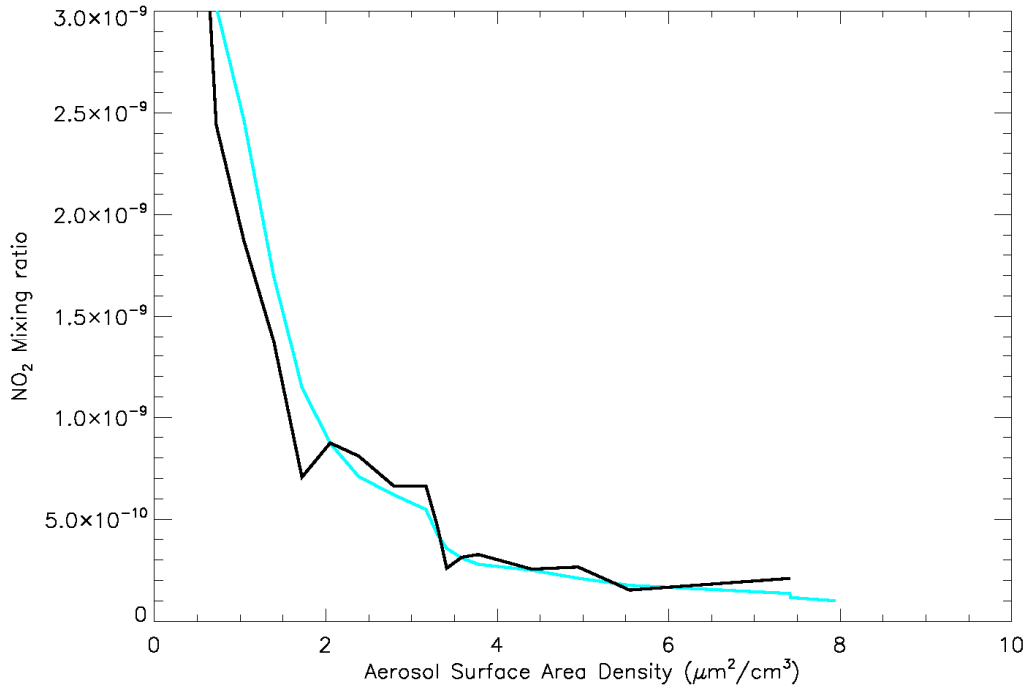
Figure 6: (top) Vertical profile of NO₂ recorded by the SALOMON instrument (black lines) obtained during solar occultation between 18:50 (32 km tangent height) and 19:30 UT (15 km tangent height) on 25 August 2009 above Kiruna. Chemistry-transport model simulations computed with no volcanic aerosols (green line), with volcanic aerosols from balloon-borne observations (blue shaded area) and with volcanic aerosols from satellite data (dark blue line) are shown. The model output is provided for the closest location of the tangent points. (bottom) Vertical profile of NO₂ recorded by the DOAS instrument (black lines) on 7 September 2009 above Kiruna. The DOAS profile has been recorded during the balloon ascent and has been converted to 90°SZA (~17:30 UT) as well as the simulated profile.

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Figure 7: N₂O-NO_y correlation curve inferred from IMK/IAA V5R_220 MIPAS-Envisat data at high latitudes (> 60°N) in July-August 2009 (full line). Error bars reflect the spread of the data. The former Michelsen et al. (1998) correlation is also shown for comparison (dashed line).



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2 **Figure 8:** NO₂ mixing ratio as a function of aerosol SAD as simultaneously observed in the lower
 3 stratosphere by the SPIRALE and STAC instruments on 24 August 2009 (black curve). The result from
 4 the REPROBUS Bal-sim simulation is also plotted (blue curve).

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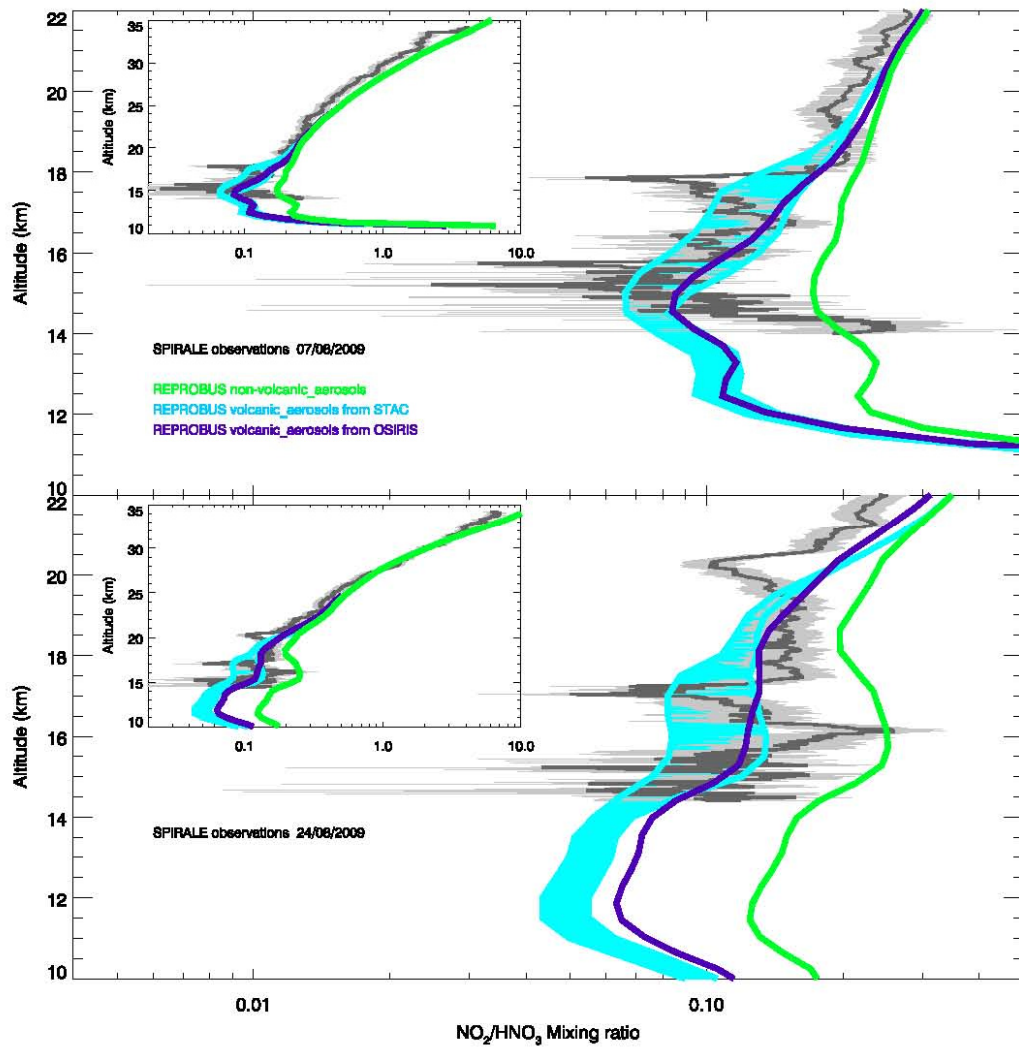
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3 **Figure 9:** Same as **Figure 5** but for the NO_2/HNO_3 ratio observed by the SPIRALE instrument.
4 Provided are the three-dimensional simulations driven without volcanic aerosols (green), with volcanic
5 aerosols from balloon-borne observations (blue shaded area) and with volcanic aerosols from satellite
6 data (dark blue line).

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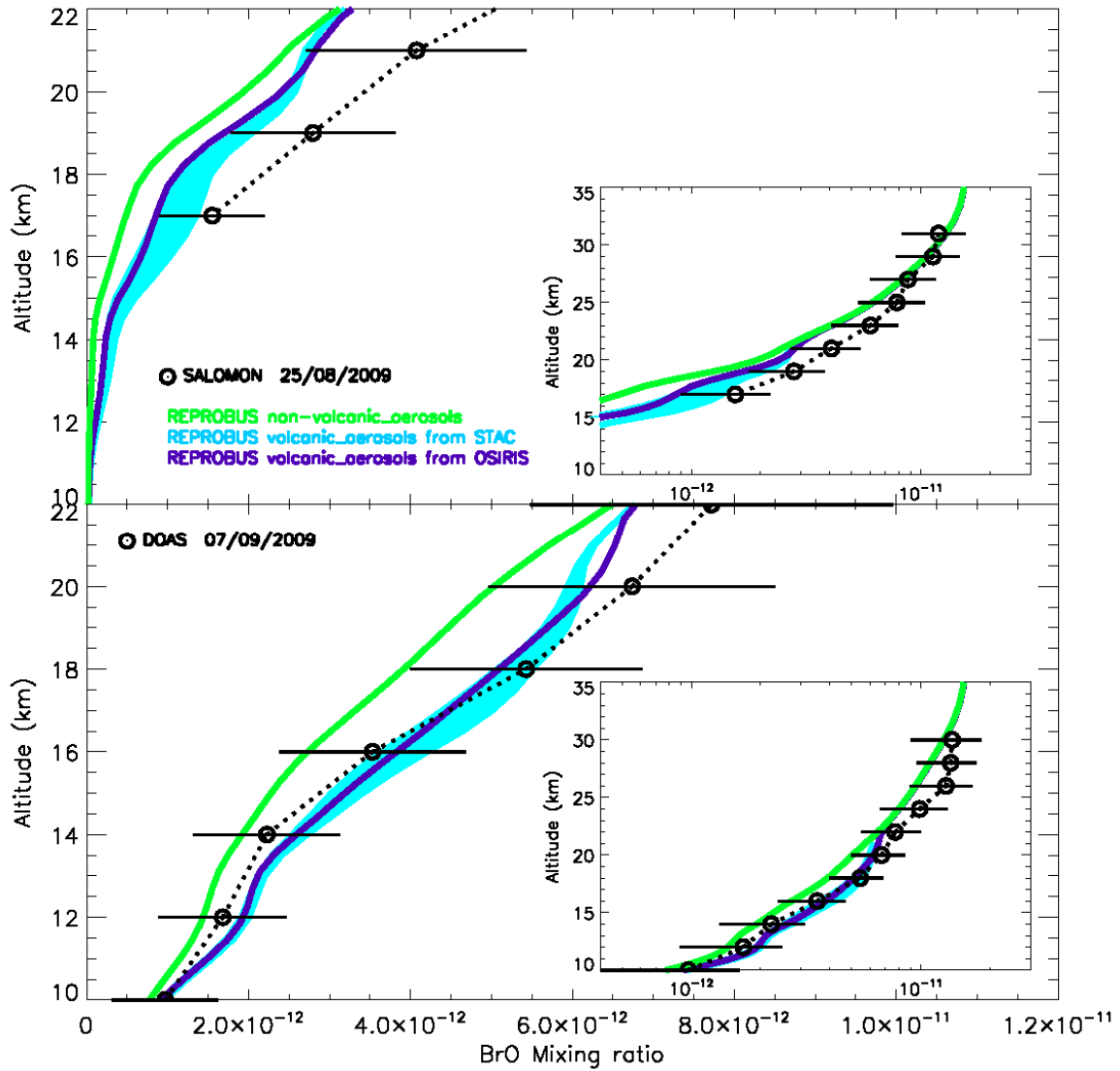
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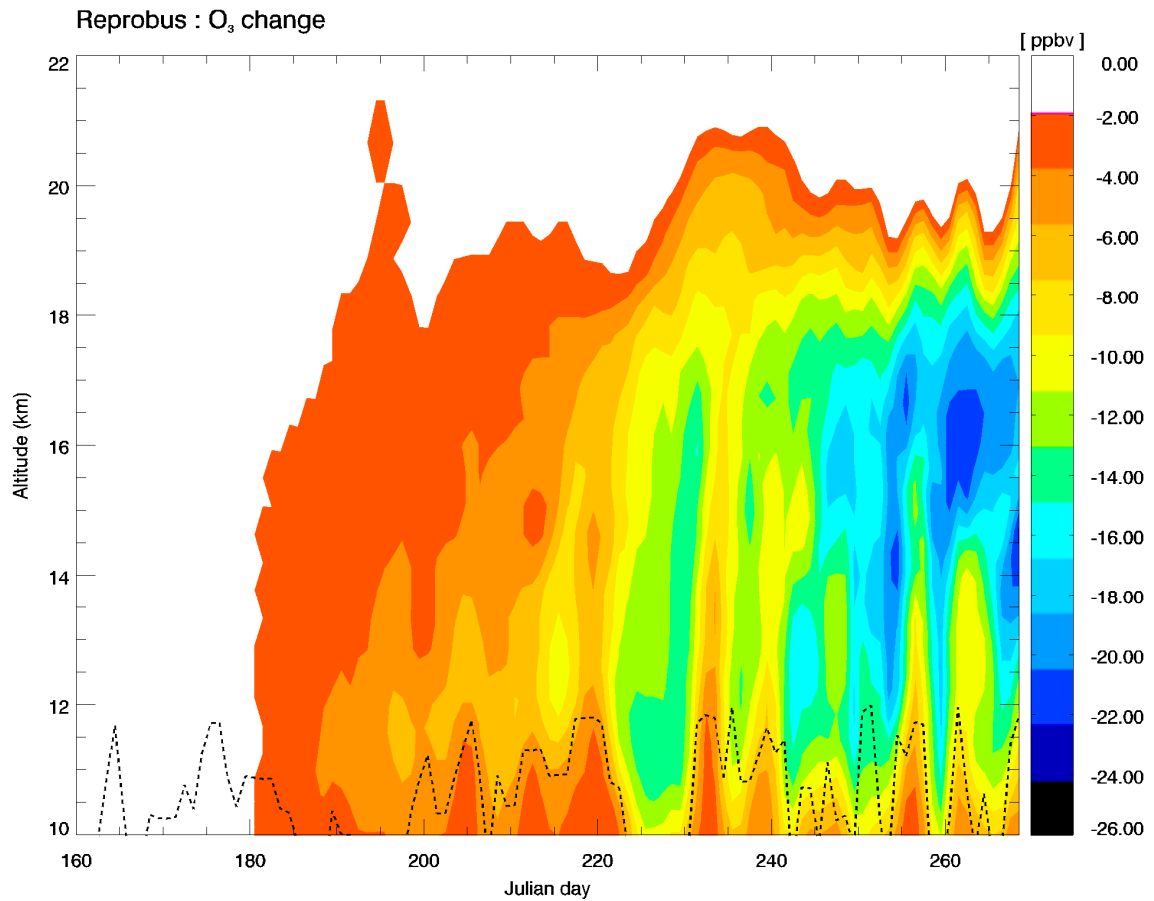
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Figure 10: same as **Figure 6** but for BrO. The SALOMON data in the lower stratosphere were obtained between 19:15 UT (SZA=93.8° at 22 km tangent height) and 19:25 UT (SZA=94.5° at 17 km tangent height). The DOAS profile was measured between 15:15 UT (SZA=77.5° at 10 km) and 15:55 UT (SZA=81.3° at 22 km) during balloon ascent.



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2 **Figure 11:** Changes in ozone over Kiruna (67.5°N, 21.0°E) as a function of altitude and time between
 3 1 July and 1 October 2009. Calculations are done by subtracting outputs from the volcanic simulation
 4 driven by OSIRIS observations with the background simulation. The position of the tropopause is given
 5 by the black dotted line.