Polar stratospheric nitric acid depletion surveyed from a decadal dataset of IASI total columns

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Abstract

In this paper, we exploit the first 10-year data-record (2008-2017) of nitric acid (HNO₃) total columns measured by the IASI-A/Metop infrared sounder, characterized by an exceptional daily sampling and a good vertical sensitivity in the mid-stratosphere (around 50 hPa), to monitor the causal relationship between the temperature decrease and the observed HNO₃ loss that occurs each year in the Antarctic stratosphere during the polar night. Since the HNO₃ depletion results from the formation of polar stratospheric clouds (PSCs) which trigger the development of the ozone (O₃) hole, its continuous monitoring is of high importance. We verify here, from the 10-year time evolution of the pair HNO3temperature (taken from reanalysis at 50 hPa), the recurrence of specific regimes in the cycle of IASI HNO₃ and identify, for each year, the day and the 50 hPa temperature ("drop temperature") corresponding to the onset of strong HNO₃ depletion in the Antarctic winter. Although the measured HNO₃ total column does not allow differentiating the uptake of HNO₃ by different types of PSC particles along the vertical profile, an average drop temperature of 194.2 ± 3.8 K, close to the nitric acid trihydrate (NAT) existence threshold (~195 K at 50 hPa), is found in the region of potential vorticity lower than -10×10⁻⁵ K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹ (similar to the 70° − 90° S Eqlat region during winter). The spatial distribution and inter-annual variability of the drop temperature are investigated and discussed. This paper highlights the capability of the IASI sounder to monitor the long-term evolution of the polar stratospheric composition and processes involved in the depletion of stratospheric O₃.

1 Introduction

 The cold and isolated air masses found within the polar vortex during winter are associated with a strong denitrification of the stratosphere due to the formation of PSCs (composed of HNO₃, sulphuric acid (H₂SO₄) and water ice (H₂O)) (Peter, 1997; Voigt et al., 2000; von König, 2002; Schreiner et al., 2003; Peter and Grooß, 2012). These clouds strongly affect the polar chemistry by (1) acting as surfaces for the heterogeneous activation of chlorine and bromine compounds, in turn leading to enhanced O3 destruction (Solomon, 1999; Wang and Michelangeli, 2006; Harris et al., 2010; Wegner et al., 2012) and by (2) removing gas-phase HNO₃ temporarily or permanently through uptake by PSCs and sedimentation of large PSC particles to lower altitudes. The denitrification of the polar stratosphere during winter delays the reformation of chlorine reservoirs and, hence, intensifies the O₃ hole (Solomon, 1999; Harris et al., 2010). The heterogeneous reaction rates on PSCs surface and the uptake of HNO₃ strongly depend on the temperature and on the PSCs particle type. The PSCs are classified into three 3different types based on their composition and optical properties: type Ia solid nitric acid trihydrate

NAT (HNO₃.(H₂O)₃), type Ib liquid supercooled ternary solution - STS (HNO₃/H₂SO₄/H₂O with variable composition) and type II, crystalline water-ice particles (likely composed of a combination of different chemical phases) (Toon et al., 1986; Koop et al., 2000; Voigt et al., 2000; Lowe and MacKenzie, 2008). In the stratosphere, they mostly consist of mixtures of liquid/solid STS/NAT particles in varying number densities, with HNO₃ being the major constituent of these particles. The large-size NAT particles of low number density are the principal cause of sedimentation (Lambert et al., 2012; Pitts et al., 2013; Molleker et al., 2014; Lambert et al., 2016). The formation temperature of STS (T_{STS}) and the thermodynamic equilibrium temperatures of NAT (T_{NAT}) and ice (T_{ice}) , have been determined, respectively, as: ~192 K (Carslaw et al., 1995), ~195.7 K (Hanson and Mauersberger, 1988) and ~188 K (Murphy and Koop, 2005) for typical 50 hPa atmospheric conditions (5 ppmv H₂O and 10 ppbv HNO₃). While the NAT nucleation was thought to require temperatures below T_{ice} and pre-existing ice particles, recent observational and modelling studies have shown that HNO3 starts to condense in early PSC season in liquid NAT mixtures well above T_{ice} (~4 K below T_{NAT}, close to T_{STS}) even after a very short temperature threshold exposure (TTE) to these temperatures but also slightly below T_{NAT} after a long TTE, whereas the NAT existence persists up to T_{NAT} (Pitts et al., 2013; Hoyle et al., 2013; Lambert et al., 2016; Pitts et al., 2018). It has been recently proposed that the higher temperature condensation results from heterogeneous nucleation of NAT on meteoritic dust in liquid aerosol (Hoyle et al., 2013; Grooß et al., 2014; James et al., 2018). Further cooling below T_{STS} and T_{ice} leads to nucleation of liquid STS, of solid NAT onto ice and of ice particles mainly from STS (type II PSCs) (Lowe and MacKenzie, 2008). The formation of NAT and ice has also been shown to be triggered by stratospheric mountainwaves (Carslaw et al., 1998; Hoffmann et al., 2017). Although the formation mechanisms and composition of STS droplets in stratospheric conditions are well described (Toon et al., 1986; Carslaw et al., 1995; Lowe and MacKenzie, 2008), the NAT and ice nucleation processes still require further investigation. This could be important as the chemistry-climate models (CCMs) generally oversimplify the heterogeneous nucleation schemes for the PSCs formation (Zhu et al., 2015; Spang et al., 2018; Snels et al., 2019) preventing an accurate estimation of O₃ levels. The influence of HNO₃ in modulating O₃ abundances in the stratosphere is furthermore underrepresented in CCMs (Kvissel et al., 2012).

Several satellite instruments measure stratospheric HNO₃ (e.g. MLS/UARS (Santee et al., 1999), MLS/Aura (Santee et al., 2007), MIPAS/ENVISAT (Piccolo and Dudhia, 2007), ACE-FTS/SCISAT (Sheese et al., 2017) and SMR/Odin (Urban et al., 2009)). The spaceborne lidars CALIOP/CALIPSO and the infrared instrument MIPAS/Envisat) are capable to detect and classify the PSC types, and to follow their formation mechanisms (Lambert et al., 2016; Pitts et al., 2018; Spang et al., 2018) and references therein, which complements in situ measurements (Voigt et al., 2005) and ground-based lidar (Snels et al., 2019). From these available observational datasets, the HNO₃ depletion has been linked to the PSCs formation and detected below the T_{NAT} threshold (Santee et al., 1999; Urban 55 et al., 2009; Lambert et al., 2016; Ronsmans et al., 2018), but its relationship to PSCs still needs further investigation given the complexity of the nucleation mechanisms that depends on a series of parameters (e.g. atmospheric temperature, water and HNO₃ vapour pressure, time exposure to temperatures, temperature history).

In contrast to the limb satellite instruments mentioned above, the infrared nadir sounder IASI offers a dense spatial sampling of the entire globe, twice a day (Section 2). While it cannot provide a vertical profile of HNO₃ similar to the limb sounders, IASI provides reliable total column measurements of HNO₃ characterized by a maximum sensitivity in the low-middle stratosphere around 50 hPa (20 km) during the dark Antarctic winter (Ronsmans et al., 2016, 2018) where the PSCs cloud form (Voigt et al., 2005; Lambert et al., 2012; Spang et al., 2016, 2018). This study aims to explore the 10-years continuous HNO₃ measurements from IASI for providing a long-term global picture of depletion and of its dependence to temperatures during polar winter (Section 3). The temperature corresponding to the onset

of the strong depletion in HNO₃ records (here referred to as 'drop temperature') is identified in Section 4 for each observed year and discussed in the context of previous studies.

2 Data

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The HNO₃ data used in the present study are obtained from measurements of the Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI) embarked on the Metop-A satellite. IASI measures the Earth's and atmosphere's radiation in the thermal infrared spectral range (645 - 2760 cm⁻¹), with a 0.5 cm⁻¹ apodized resolution and a low radiometric noise (Clerbaux et al., 2009; Hilton et al., 2012). Thanks to its polar sun-synchronous orbit with more than 14 orbits a day and a field of view of four simultaneous footprints of 12 km at nadir, IASI provides global coverage twice a day (9.30 AM and PM mean local solar time). That extensive spatial and temporal sampling in the polar regions is key to this study.

The HNO₃ vertical profiles are retrieved on a uniform vertical 1 km grid of 41 layers (from the surface to 40 km with an extra layer above to 60 km) in near-real-time by the Fast Optimal Retrieval on Layers for IASI (FORLI) software, using the optimal estimation method (Rodgers, 2000). Detailed information on the FORLI algorithm and retrieval parameters specific to HNO₃ can be found in previous papers (Hurtmans et al., 2012; Ronsmans et al., 2016). For this study, only the total columns (v20151001) are used, considering (1) the low vertical resolution of IASI with only one independent piece of information (FWHM of the averaging kernels of ~30 km), (2) the limited sensitivity of IASI to tropospheric HNO₃, (3) the dominant contribution of the stratosphere to the HNO₃ total column and (4) the largest sensitivity of IASI in the region of interest, i.e. in the low and mid-stratosphere (from ~70 to ~30 hPa), where the HNO₃ abundance is the highest (Ronsmans et al., 2016). The IASI measurements capture the expected variations of HNO₃ within the polar night, as illustrated in Fig. 1 that shows examples of vertical HNO₃ profiles retrieved within the dark Antarctic vortex (above Arrival Height) and outside the vortex (above Lauder). The retrieved profiles are shown along with their associated total retrieval error and averaging kernels (the total column averaging kernels and the so-called "sensitivity profile" are also represented; see Ronsmans et al., 2016 for more details). Above Arrival Height during the dark Antarctic winter, we clearly see depleted HNO₃ levels in the low and mid-stratosphere and the altitude of maximum sensitivity (at around 30 hPa for this case). At Lauder on the contrary, HNO₃ levels larger than the a priori are observed in the stratosphere with a larger range of maximum sensitivity. The total columns are associated with a total retrieval error ranging from around 3% at mid- and polar latitudes to 25% above cold Antarctic surface during winter (due to a weaker sensitivity above very cold surface with a DOFS of 0.95 and to a poor knowledge of the seasonally and wavenumber-dependent emissivity above ice surfaces which induces larger forward model errors), and a low bias (lower than 12%) in polar regions over the altitude range where the IASI sensitivity is the largest, when compared to ground-based FTIR measurements (see Hurtmans et al., 2012 and Ronsmans et al., 2016 for more details). In order to expand on the comparisons against FTIR measurements which is not possible during the polar night, Fig. 2 (top panel) presents the time series of daily IASI total HNO₃ columns co-located with MLS measurements within 2.5x2.5 grid boxes, averaged in the 70°S-90°S equivalent latitude band. In order to account for the vertical sensitivity of IASI, the averaging kernels associated with each co-located IASI retrieved profiles were considered for this cross-comparison. The MLS profiles were first interpolated to the FORLI pressure grids, then converted into column profiles. They were also extended down to the surface by considering the FORLI-HNO3 a priori profile. Similar variations in the HNO3 column are captured by the two instruments, with an excellent agreement in particular for the timing of the strong HNO₃ depletion within the inner vortex core. Note that a similar good agreement between the two satellite datasets is obtained in other latitude bands (see Fig. 2 bottom panel for the 50°S-70°S equivalent latitude band; the other bands are not shown).

Quality flags similar to those developed for O₃ in previous IASI studies (Wespes et al., 2017) were applied a posteriori to exclude data (i) with a corresponding poor spectral fit (e.g. based on quality flags rejecting biased or sloped residuals, fits with maximum number of iteration exceeded), (ii) with less 150 reliability (e.g. based on quality flags rejecting suspect averaging kernels, data with less sensitivity characterized by a DOFS lower than 0.9) or (iii) with tropospheric cloud contamination (defined by a fractional cloud cover ≥ 25 %). Note that the HNO₃ total column distributions illustrated in sections below use the median as a statistical average since it is more robust against the outliers than the mean.

Temperature and potential vorticity (PV) fields are taken from the ECMWF ERA Interim Reanalysis dataset, respectively at 50 hPa and at the potential temperature of 530 K (corresponding to ~20 km altitude where the IASI sensitivity to HNO₃ is the highest during the Southern Hemisphere (S.H.) winter (Ronsmans et al., 2016). Because the HNO₃ uptake by PSCs starts a few degrees or slightly below T_{NAT} (~195.7 K at 50 hPa (Hanson and Mauersberger, 1988)) depending on the meteorological conditions (Pitts et al., 2013; Hoyle et al., 2013; Lambert et al., 2016; Pitts et al., 2018), a threshold temperature of 195 K is considered in the sections below to identify the PSCs-containing regions. The potential vorticity is used to delimit dynamically consistent areas in the polar regions. In what follows, we use either the equivalent latitudes ("eqlat", calculated from PV fields at 530 K) or the PV values to characterize the relationship between HNO₃ and temperatures in the cold polar regions. Uncertainties in ERA-Interim temperatures will also be discussed below.

3 Annual cycle of HNO₃ vs temperatures

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Figure 3a shows the yearly HNO₃ cycle (solid lines, left axis) in the southernmost equivalent latitudes $(70^{\circ} - 90^{\circ} \text{ S})$, as measured by IASI over the whole period of measurements (2008–2017). The total HNO₃ variability in such equivalent latitudes has already been discussed in a previous IASI study (Ronsmans et al., 2018) where the contribution of the PSCs into the HNO₃ variations was highlighted. The temperature time series, taken at 50 hPa, is here represented as well (dashed lines, right axis). From this figure, different regimes of HNO3 total columns vs temperature can be observed throughout the year and from one year to another. In particular, we define here three main regimes (R1, R2 and R3) along the HNO₃/temperature cycle. The full cycle and the main regimes in the 70° - 90° S eglat region are further represented in Fig. 3b that shows a histogram of the HNO₃ total columns as a function of temperature for the year 2011. Similar histograms are observed for the ten years of IASI measurements (not shown). The red horizontal and vertical lines in Fig. 3a and Fig. 3b, respectively, represent the 195 K threshold temperature used to identify the onset of HNO₃ uptake by PSCs (see Section 2). The three identified regimes correspond to:

- R1 is defined by the maxima in the total HNO₃ abundances covering the months of April and May (~3×10¹⁶ molec.cm⁻², R1 in Figures 3a and b), when the 50 hPa temperature strongly decreases (from ~220 to ~195 K). These high HNO₃ levels result from low sunlight, preventing photodissociation, along with the heterogeneous hydrolysis of N₂O₅ to HNO₃ during autumn before the formation of polar stratospheric clouds (Keys et al., 1993; Santee et al., 1999; Urban et al., 2009; de Zafra and Smyshlyaev, 2001). This period also corresponds to the onset of the deployment of the southern polar vortex which is characterized by strong diabatic descent with weak latitudinal mixing across its boundary, isolating polar HNO₃-rich air from lower latitudinal airmasses.
- R2 which extends from June to October is characterized by the onset of the strong decrease in HNO₃ total columns at the beginning of June, when the temperatures fall below 195 K, followed

by a plateau of total HNO₃ minima. In this regime, the HNO₃ total columns average below 2×10^{16} molec.cm⁻² and the 50 hPa temperatures range mostly between 180 and 190 K.

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- R3 starts in October when sunlight returns and the 50 hPa temperatures rise above 195 K. Despite the stratospheric warming with 50 hPa temperatures up to 240 K in summer, the HNO3 total columns stagnate at the R2 plateau levels (around 1.5×10¹⁶ molec.cm⁻²). This regime likely reflects the photolysis of NO3 and HNO3 itself (Ronsmans et al., 2018) as well as the permanent denitrification of the mid-stratosphere, caused by the PSCs sedimentation. The likely renitrification of the lowermost stratosphere (Braun et al., 2019; Lambert et al., 2012) where the HNO3 concentrations and the IASI sensitivity to HNO3 are lower (Ronsmans et al., 2016) can hardly be inferred from the IASI total column measurements. The plateau lasts until approximately February, where HNO3 total column slowly starts increasing, reaching the April-May maximum in R1.

As illustrated in Fig. 3a, the three regimes are observed each year with, however, some interannual variations. For instance, the sudden stratospheric warming (SSW) that occurs in 2010 (see the temperature time series at 20 hPa for the year 2010; green dotted line) yielded higher HNO₃ total columns (see green solid line in July and August) (de Laat and van Weele, 2011; Klekociuk et al., 2011; WMO, 2014; Ronsmans et al., 2018).

Figure 3c shows the evolution of the relationship between the daily averaged HNO₃ (calculated from a 7-day moving average) with the highest occurrence (in bins of 0.1×10¹⁶ molec.cm⁻² and of 2K) and the 50 hPa temperature, over the 10 years of IASI. The red vertical line represents the 195 K threshold temperature. Figure 3c clearly illustrates the slow increase in HNO₃ columns as the temperatures decrease (February to May, i.e. R3 to R1), the strong and rapid HNO₃ depletion occurring in June (R2), the plateau of low HNO₃ abundances in winter and spring (from August to November; R2 to R3). Figure 3c also highlights the interannual variability in total HNO₃, which is found to be the largest in R3, and shows a strong consistency in the onset of the depletion between each year (beginning of June when the temperatures fall below 195 K as indicated by the red vertical line). Given the span of PSCs formation over a large range of altitudes (typically between 10 and 30 km) (Höpfner et al., 150 2006, 2009; Spang et al., 2018; Pitts et al., 2018) and that of maximum IASI sensitivity to HNO₃ around 50 hPa (Hurtmans et al., 2012; Ronsmans et al., 2016), the temperatures at two other pressure levels, namely 70 and 30 hPa (i.e. ~15 and ~25 km), have also been tested to investigate the relationship between HNO₃ and temperature in the low and mid-stratosphere. The results (not shown here) exhibit a similar HNO₃temperature behavior at the different levels with, as expected, lower and larger temperatures in R2, respectively, at 30 hPa (down to ~180 K) and at 70 hPa (down to ~185 K), but still below the NAT formation threshold at these pressure levels (T_{NAT} ~193 K at 30 hPa and ~197 K at 70 hPa) (Lambert et al., 2016). Therefore, the altitude range of maximum IASI sensitivity to HNO₃ (see Section 2) is characterized by temperatures that are below the NAT formation threshold at these pressure levels, enabling the PSCs formation and the denitrification process. Furthermore, the consistency between the 195 K threshold temperature taken at 50 hPa and the onset of the strong total HNO₃ depletion seen in IASI data (see Fig. 3a and Fig. 3c) is in agreement with the largest NAT area that starts to develop in June around 20 km (Spang et al., 2018), which justifies the use of the 195 K temperature at that single representative level in this study.

4 Onset of HNO₃ depletion and drop temperature detection

To identify the spatial and temporal variability of the onset of the depletion phase, the daily time evolution of HNO₃ during the first 10 years of IASI measurements and the temperatures at 50 hPa are

explored. In particular, the second derivative of HNO₃ total column with respect to time is calculated to detect the strongest rate of decrease seen in the HNO₃ time series and to identify its associated day and 50 hPa temperature.

4.1 HNO₃ vs temperature time series

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Figure 4 shows the time series of the second derivative of HNO₃ total column with respect to time (blue) and of the temperature (red) averaged in the areas of potential vorticity smaller than -10×10⁻⁵ K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹ to encompass the regions inside the inner polar vortex where the temperatures are the coldest and the total HNO₃ depletion occurs (Ronsmans et al., 2018). The use of that PV threshold value explains the gaps in the time series during the summer when the PV does not reach such low levels, while the time series averaged in the 70°- 90° S Eqlat band (dashed blue for the second derivative of HNO₃ and grey for the temperature) covers the full year. Note that the HNO₃ time series has been smoothed with a simple spline data interpolation function to avoid gaps in order to calculate the second derivative of HNO₃ total column with respect to time as the daily second-difference HNO₃ total column. The horizontal red line shows the 195 K threshold.

As already illustrated in Fig. 3a and Fig. 3c, the strongest rate of HNO₃ depletion (i.e. the second derivative minimum) is found around the 195 K threshold temperature, within some days (4 to 23 days) after total HNO₃ reaches its maximum, i.e. typically between the 11th of May (2013) and the 8th of June (2009). Except for the year 2014, the 50 hPa drop temperatures are detected between 189.2 K and 198.6 K (194.1 K \pm 2.8 K - 1 σ standard deviation - on average over the 10 years, excluding 2014 that stands out with a drop temperature of 202.8 K). Knowing that T_{NAT} can be higher or lower depending on the atmospheric conditions and that NAT starts to nucleate from $\sim 2-4$ K below T_{NAT} (Pitts et al., 2011; Hoyle et al., 2013; Lambert et al., 2016), the results here tend to demonstrate the consistency between the 50 hPa drop temperature, i.e. the temperature associated with the strongest HNO₃ depletion detected from IASI, and the PSCs formation temperature in that altitude region. Note that the range observed in the 50 hPa drop temperature could reflect the preponderance by one type of PSCs over another from one year to the next. The results further justify the use of the single 50 hPa level for characterizing and investigating the onset of HNO₃ depletion from IASI. Nevertheless, given the range of maximum IASI sensitivity to HNO₃ around 50 hPa, typically between 70 and 30 hPa (Ronsmans et al., 2016), the drop temperatures are also calculated at these two other pressure levels (not shown here) to estimate the uncertainty of the calculated drop temperature defined in this study at 50 hPa. The 30 hPa and 70 hPa drop temperatures range respectively over 185.7 K -194.9 K and over 194.8 K - 203.7 K, with an average of 192.0 ± 2.9 K and 198.0 ± 3.2 K (1σ standard deviation) over the ten years of IASI. The average values at 30 hPa and 70 hPa fall within the 1 σ standard deviation associated with the average drop temperature at 50 hPa. It is also worth noting the agreement between the drop temperatures and the NAT formation threshold at these two pressure levels ($T_{NAT} \sim 193$ K at 30 hPa and ~ 197 K at 70 hPa) (Lambert et al., 2016).

Figures 5a and b show the zonal distribution of HNO₃ total columns and of the temperature at 50 hPa, respectively, spanning 55° - 90° S over the whole IASI period, with, superimposed, three isocontour levels of potential vorticity (-10, -8 and -5×10⁻⁵ K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹ in blue, cyan and black, respectively) and one isocontour for the 50 hPa temperature. The PV isocontour of -10×10⁻⁵ K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹ is clearly shown to separate well the region of strong depletion in total HNO₃ according to the latitude and the time. The red vertical dashed lines indicates the average date for the drop temperatures calculated in the area of PV \leq -10×10⁻⁵ K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹ (194.2 \pm 3.8 K; see Fig. 4) over the IASI period. It shows that the strongest rate in HNO₃ depletion occurs on average a few days before June. The delay of some days between the maximum in total HNO₃ and the start of the depletion (see Fig. 4) is also visible in Fig. 5a. The yearly

zonally averaged time series over the ten years of IASI can be found in Fig. 6; it shows the reproducibility of the edge of the collar HNO₃ region and of the region of the strong HNO₃ depletion, respectively delimited by the PV isocontours of -5×10^{-5} K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹ and of -10×10^{-5} K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹ at 50 hPa, measured by IASI from year to year.

4.2 Distribution of drop temperatures

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To explore the capability of IASI to monitor the onset of HNO₃ depletion at a large scale from year to year, figure 7 shows the spatial distribution of the 50 hPa drop temperatures (based on the second derivative minima of total HNO₃ averaged in 1°×1° grid cells) inside a region delimited by a PV value of -8×10⁻⁵ K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹, for each year of the IASI period. The green contour represents the PV isocontour of -10×10⁻⁵ K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹, averaged over the period 10 May – 15 July for each year, which delimits our region of interest. The isocontours of 195 K for the average temperatures and the minimum temperatures, as well as the isocontour of -10×10⁻⁵ K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹ for the minimum PV encountered at 50 hPa over the 10 May to 15 July period are also represented. The calculated drop temperatures corresponding to the onset of HNO₃ depletion inside the averaged PV isocontour are found to vary between ~180 and ~210 K and the corresponding dates range between ~mid-May and mid-July (not shown here). Note that the high extremes in the drop temperature, which are found in some cases above eastern Antarctica, should be considered with caution: they correspond to specific regions above ice surface with emissivity features that are known to yield errors in the IASI retrievals (Hurtmans et al., 2012; Ronsmans et al., 2016). Indeed, bright land surface such as ice might in some cases lead to poor HNO₃ retrievals. Although wavenumber-dependent surface emissivity atlases are used in FORLI (Hurtmans et al., 2012), this parameter remains critical and causes poorer retrievals that, in some instances, pass through the series of quality filters and could affect the drop temperature calculation.

The averaged isocontour of 195 K encircles well the area of HNO₃ drop temperatures lower than 195 K (typically from ~187 K to ~195 K), which means that the bins inside that area characterize airmasses that experience the NAT threshold temperature during a long time over the 10 May – 15 July period. That area encompasses the inner vortex core (delimited by the isocontour of -10×10⁻⁵ K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹ for the PV averaged over the 10 May -15 July period) and show pronounced minima (lower than -0.5×10^{14} molec.cm⁻².d⁻²) in the second derivative of the HNO₃ total column with respect to time (not shown here), which indicate a strong and rapid HNO₃ depletion. The area enclosed between the two isocontours of 195 K for the temperatures, the averaged one and the one for the minimum temperatures, show generally higher drop temperatures and weakest minima (larger than -0.5×10¹⁴ molec.cm⁻².d⁻²) in the second derivative of the HNO₃ total column (not shown). That area is also enclosed by the isocontour of -10×10⁻¹ ⁵ K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹ for the minimum PV, meaning that the bins inside correspond, at least for one day over the 10 May – 15 July period, to airmasses located at the inner edge of the vortex and characterized by temperature lower than the NAT threshold temperature. The weakest minima in the second derivative of total HNO₃ (not shown) observed in that area indicate a weak and slow HNO₃ depletion and might be explained by a short period of the NAT threshold temperature experienced at the inner edge of the vortex. It could also reflect a mixing with strong HNO₃-depleted and colder airmasses from the inner vortex core. The mixing with these already depleted airmasses could also explained the higher drop temperatures detected in those bins. These high drop temperatures are generally detected later (after the HNO₃ depletion occurs, i.e. after the 10 May – 15 July period considered here – not shown), which supports the transport, in those bins, of earlier HNO₃-depleted airmasses and the likely mixing at the edge of the vortex. Finally, these spatial variations might also partly reflect the range of maximum sensitivity of IASI to HNO₃, while biases in ECMWF reanalysis are too small for explaining the spatial variation in drop temperatures. Thanks to the assimilation of an advanced Tiros Operational Vertical Sounder (ATOVS) around 1998-2000 in reanalyses, to the better coverage of satellite instruments and 342 to the use of global navigation satellite system (GNSS) radio occultation (RO) (Schreiner et al., 2007; 343 Wang et al., 2007; Lambert and Santee, 2018; Lawrence et al., 2018), the uncertainties have been vastly 344

reduced. Comparisons of the ECMWF ERA Interim dataset used in this work with the COSMIC data

- 345 (Lambert and Santee, 2018) found a small warm bias, with median differences around 0.5 K, reaching 346 0-0.25 K in the southernmost regions of the globe at ~68-21 hPa where PSCs form.
- 347 Except above some parts of Antarctica which are prone to larger retrieval errors, the overall range in the 348 drop 50 hPa temperature for total HNO₃ inside the isocontour for the averaged temperature of 195 K, typically extends from ~187 K to ~195 K, which falls within the range of PSCs nucleation temperature 349 at 50 hPa: from slightly below T_{NAT} to around 3-4 K below the ice frost point - T_{ice} - depending on 350 atmospheric conditions, on TTE and on the type of formation mechanisms (Pitts et al., 2011; Peter and 351 352 Grooß, 2012; Hoyle et al., 2013). This underlines well the benefit of the excellent spatial and temporal 353 coverage of IASI that allows capturing the rapid and critical depletion phase over a large scale.

5 Conclusions

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In this paper, we have explored the added value of the dense HNO₃ total columns dataset provided by the IASI/Metop satellite over a full decade (2008–2017) for monitoring the stratospheric depletion phase that occurs each year in the S.H. and for investigating its relationship to the NAT formation temperature. To that end, we focused on and delimited the coldest polar region of the S.H. using a specific PV value at 530 K (~50 hPa, PV of -10×10⁻⁵ K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹) and stratospheric temperatures at 50 hPa, taken from the ECMWF ERA Interim reanalysis. That single representative pressure level has been considered in this study given the maximum sensitivity of IASI to HNO₃ around that level over a range where the PSCs formation/denitrification process occur.

The annual cycle of total HNO₃, as observed from IASI, has first been characterized according to the temperature evolution. Three various regimes (R1 to R3) in the total HNO₃ - 50 hPa temperature relationship were highlighted from the time series over the S.H. polar region and described along the cycle: R1 is defined at play during April and May and characterized by a rapid decrease in 50 hPa temperatures while HNO₃ accumulates in the poles; R2, from June to September, shows the onset of the depletion when the 50 hPa temperatures fall below 195 K (considered here as the onset of PSCs nucleation phase at that level), with a strong consistency between each year; R3, defined from November until March when total HNO₃ remains at low R2 plateau levels, despite the return of sunlight and heat, characterizes the strong denitrification of the stratosphere, likely due to PSCs sedimentation at lower levels where the IASI sensitivity is low. For each year over the IASI period, the use of the second derivative of the HNO₃ column versus time was then found particularly valuable to detect the onset of the HNO₃ condensation to PSCs. It is captured, on average from IASI, a few days before June with a delay of 4-23 days after the maximum in total HNO₃. Except for the year 2014, the corresponding temperatures ('drop temperatures') were detected between 189.2 K and 198.6 K (194.1 \pm 2.8 on average over the 10 years, excluding the year 2014 that shows a drop temperature of 202.8 K), which tends to demonstrated the good consistency between the 50 hPa drop temperature and the PSCs formation temperatures in that altitude region. Finally, the annual and spatial variability (within $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$) in the drop temperature was further explored from IASI total HNO₃. Inside the isocontours of 195 K for the average temperatures and of -10×10⁻⁵ K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹ for the averaged PV at 50 hPa, the drop temperatures are detected between ~mid-May and mid-July, typically range between ~187 K to ~195 K and are associated with the highest minima (lower than -0.5×10^{14} molec.cm⁻².d⁻²) in the second derivative of the HNO₃ total column with respect to time, indicating a strong and rapid HNO₃ depletion. Except for extreme drop temperatures (~210 K) that were found from year to year above eastern Antarctica and suspected to result from unfiltered poor quality retrievals in case of emissivity issues above ice, the range of drop temperatures is interestingly found in line with the PSCs nucleation temperature that is known, from

previous studies, to strongly depend on a series a factors (e.g. meteorological conditions, HNO₃ vapour pressure, temperature threshold exposure, presence of meteoritic dust). At the edge of the vortex, considering the isocontours of 195 K for the minimum temperatures or of -10×10⁻⁵ K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹ for the minimum PV, higher and later drop temperatures along with weakest minima in the second derivative of the HNO₃ total column with respect to time, indicating a slow HNO₃ depletion, are found. It likely results from a short temperature threshold exposure or a mixing with already depleted airmasses from the inner vortex core. The results of this study highlight the ability of IASI to measure the variations in total HNO₃ and, in particular, to capture and monitor the rapid depletion phase over the whole polar regions.

We show in this study that the IASI dataset allows capturing the variability of stratospheric HNO₃ throughout the year (including the polar night) in the Antarctic. In that respect, it offers a new observational means to monitor the relation of HNO₃ to temperature and the related formation of PSCs. Despite the limited vertical resolution of IASI which does not allow to investigate the HNO₃ uptake by the different types of PSCs during their formation and growth along the vertical profile, the HNO₃ total column measurements from IASI constitute an important new dataset for exploring the strong polar depletion over the whole stratosphere. This is particularly relevant considering the mission continuity, which will span several decades with the planned follow-on missions. Indeed, thanks to the three successive instruments (IASI-A launched in 2006 and still operating, IASI-B in 2012, and IASI-C in 2018) that demonstrate an excellent stability of the Level-1 radiances, the measurements will soon provide an unprecedented long-term dataset of HNO₃ total columns. Further work could also make use of this unique data set to investigate the relation between HNO₃, O₃, and meteorology in the changing climate.

Data availability

The IASI HNO₃ data processed with FORLI-HNO₃ v0151001 are available upon request to the corresponding author.

Author contributions

G.R. performed the analysis, wrote the manuscript and prepared the figures. C.W. and L.C. contributed to the analysis. C.W., S.S., P.-F. C. and L.C. contributed to the interpretation of the results. D.H. was responsible for the retrieval algorithm development and the processing of the IASI HNO₃ dataset. All authors contributed to the writing of the text and reviewed the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Acknowledgements

IASI has been developed and built under the responsibility of the Centre National d'Etudes Spatiales (CNES, France). It is flown on board the Metop satellites as part of the EUMETSAT Polar System. The IASI L1 data are received through the EUMETCast near-real-time data distribution service. The research was funded by the F.R.S.-FNRS, the Belgian State Federal Office for Scientific, Technical and Cultural Affairs (Prodex arrangement 4000111403 IASI.FLOW) and EUMETSAT through the Satellite Application Facility on Atmospheric Composition Monitoring (ACSAF). G. Ronsmans is grateful to the Fonds pour la Formation à la Recherche dans l'Industrie et dans l'Agriculture of Belgium for a PhD grant (Boursier FRIA). L. Clarisse is a research associate supported by the F.R.S.-FNRS. C. Clerbaux is grateful to CNES for financial support. S. Solomon is supported by the National Science Foundation (NSF-1539972).

440 Figure captions

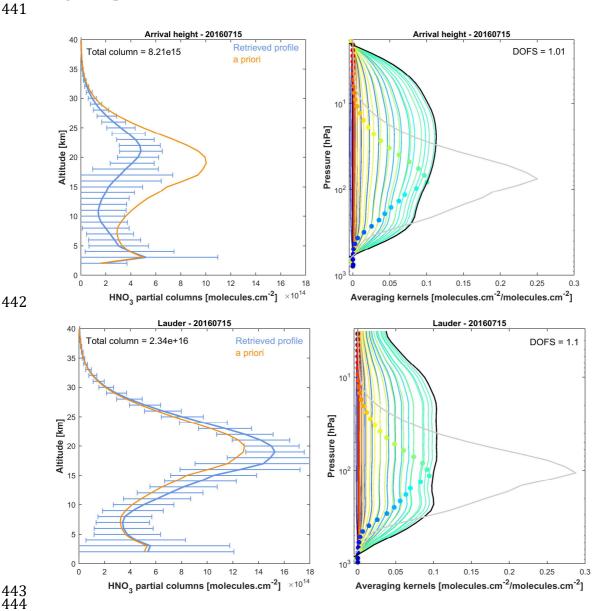


Figure 1. Examples of IASI HNO₃ vertical profiles (in molec.cm⁻²) with corresponding averaging kernels (in molec.cm⁻²/molec.cm⁻²; with the total column averaging kernels (black) and the sensitivity profiles (grey) (divided by 10) above Arrival Height (77.49°S, 166.39°E, top panels) and Lauder (45.03°S, 169,40°E; bottom panels). The error bars associated with the HNO₃ vertical profile represent the total retrieval error. The a priori profile is also represented. The total column and the DOFS values are indicated.

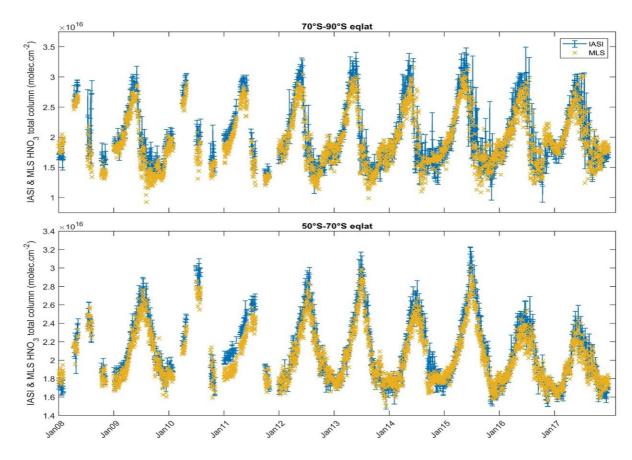


Figure 2. Time series of daily IASI total HNO₃ column (blue) co-located with MLS and of MLS total HNO₃ columns (orange) within 2.5x2.5 grid boxes, averaged in the $70^{\circ}\text{S}-90^{\circ}\text{S}$ (top panel), the $50^{\circ}\text{S}-70^{\circ}\text{S}$ (middle panel) and the $30^{\circ}\text{S}-50^{\circ}\text{S}$ (bottom panel) equivalent latitude bands. The error bars (blue) represents 3σ , where σ is the standard deviation around the IASI HNO₃ daily average.

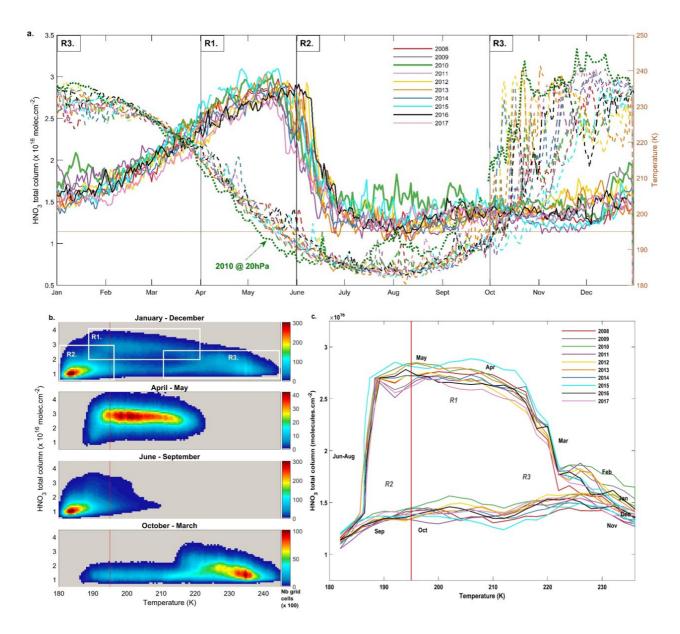


Figure 3. (a) Time series of daily averaged HNO₃ total columns (solid lines) and temperatures taken at 50 hPa (dashed lines) in the 70° - 90° S equivalent latitude band, for the years 2008 - 2017. The green dotted line represents the temperatures at 20 hPa for the year 2010. (b) HNO₃ total columns versus temperatures (at 50 hPa) histogram for the whole year (top) and for the 3 defined regimes (R1 - R3) separated in (a) for the year 2011. The colors refer to the number of gridded measurements in each cell. (c) Evolution of daily averaged HNO₃ total columns with the highest occurrence (in bins of 0.1×10^{16} molec.cm⁻² and 2 K) as a function of the 50 hPa temperature for the years 2008 - 2017. The red horizontal or vertical lines represent the 195 K threshold temperature.

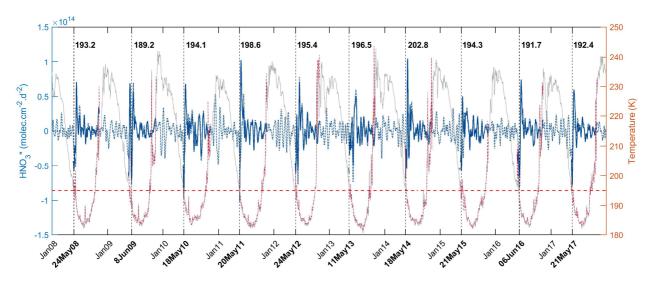


Figure 4. Time series of total HNO₃ second derivative (blue, left y-axis) and of the temperature (red, right y-axis), in the region of potential vorticity at 530 K lower than -10×10^{-5} K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹. The red horizontal line corresponds to the 195 K temperature. The vertical dashed lines indicate the second derivative minimum in HNO₃ for each year. The corresponding dates (in bold, on the x-axis) and temperatures are also indicated. The time series of total HNO₃ second derivative (dashed blue) and of temperature (grey) in the $70^{\circ} - 90^{\circ}$ S Eqlat band are also represented.

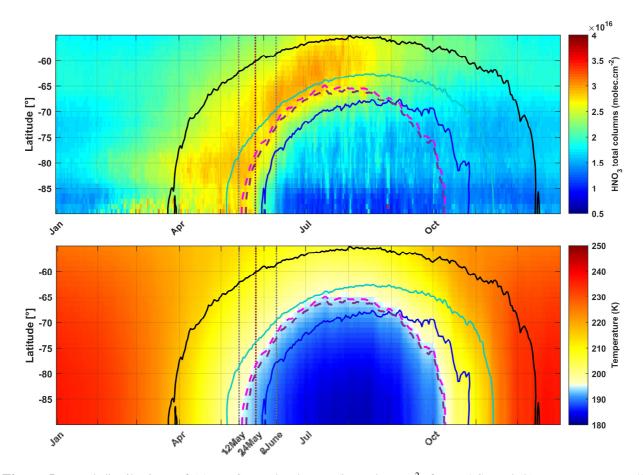


Figure 5. Zonal distributions of (a) HNO₃ total columns (in molec.cm⁻²) from IASI and (b) temperatures at 50 hPa from ERA Interim (in K) between 55° to 90° south and averaged over the years 2008 – 2017. Three isocontours for PV of -5 (black), -8 (cyan) and -10 (blue) ($\times 10^{-5}$ K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹) at 530 K, the isocontours for the 195 K temperature (pink) and for the averaged 194.2 K drop temperature (purple) at 50 hPa are superimposed. The vertical grey dashed lines encompass the period of the second derivative minima and the red one indicates the average date for the drop temperatures calculated in the area delimited by a -10×10⁻⁵ K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹ PV contour.

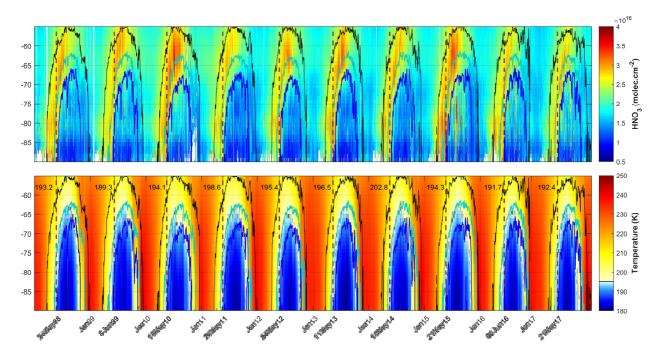


Figure 6. Zonally averaged distributions of (top) HNO₃ total columns (in molec.cm⁻²) from IASI and (bottom) temperatures at 50 hPa from ERA Interim (in K). The latitude range is from 55° to 90° south and the isocontours are PVs of -5 (black), -8 (cyan) and -10 (blue) (× 10^{-5} K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹ at 530 K). The vertical red dashed lines correspond to the second derivative minima each year in the area delimited by a - 10×10^{-5} K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹ PV contour.

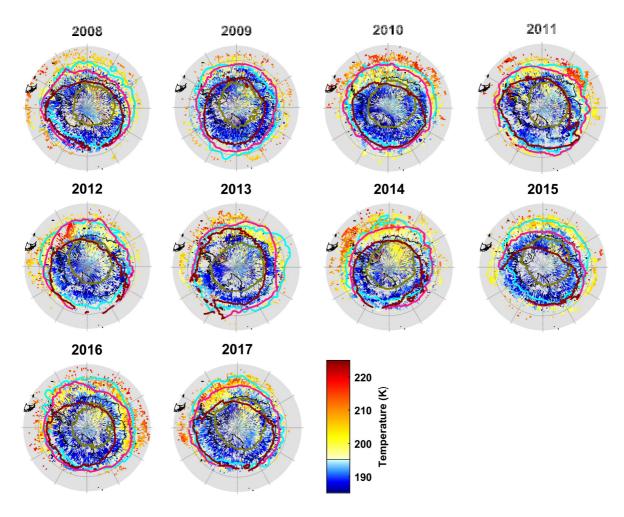


Figure 7. Spatial distribution $(1^{\circ}\times1^{\circ})$ of the drop temperature at 50 hPa (K) (calculated from the total HNO₃ second derivative minima) for each year of IASI (2008–2017), in a region defined by a PV of -8×10^{-5} K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹. The isocontours of -10×10^{-5} K.m².kg⁻¹.s⁻¹ at 530 K for the averaged PV (in green) and the minimum PV (in cyan) encountered over the period 10 May -15 June for each year and the isocontours of 195 K at 50 hPa for the averaged (in red) and the minimum (in pink) temperatures over the same period are represented.

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