

Observed changes in stratospheric circulation: Decreasing lifetime of N₂O, 2005-2021

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Abstract. Using Aura Microwave Limb Sounder satellite observations of stratospheric nitrous oxide (N₂O), ozone, and temperature from 2005 through 2021, we calculate the atmospheric lifetime of N₂O to be decreasing at a rate of -2.1 ± 1.2 %/decade. This decrease is occurring because the N₂O abundances in the middle tropical stratosphere, where N₂O is photochemically destroyed, are increasing at a faster rate than the bulk N₂O in the lower atmosphere. The cause appears to be a more vigorous stratospheric circulation, which models predict as a result of climate change. If this climate-driven circulation trend continues to 2100, then anthropogenic N₂O emissions will be removed 20% faster than current projections, and their impact on global warming and ozone depletion will be proportionately lessened. Because global warming is caused in part by N₂O, this finding is an example of a negative climate-chemistry feedback.

1 Introduction

20 Projections of climate change include the acceleration of the stratospheric overturning circulation over the 21st century (Abalos et al., 2021). This three-dimensional circulation, condensed into a two-dimensional framework called the Brewer-Dobson Circulation (BDC), brings tropospheric air into the tropical stratosphere where it ascends, being photochemically processed with ultraviolet radiation that increases with altitude, mixes across latitudes, and then descends at mid- to high-latitudes, re-entering the troposphere around mid-latitudes (Plumb and Mahlman, 1987; Neu and Plumb, 1999; Butchart, 2014). Observational metrics for an enhanced BDC are based on trends in the Age-of-Air (AoA) using surrogate gases such as SF₆. While models predict an enhanced BDC, the SF₆ observations indicate an unchanged or decreasing BDC, but with large uncertainty (Karpechko et al., 2018; Abalos et al., 2021; Garney et al., 2022). The comparison of models and measurements of AoA has proven difficult (Fritsch et al., 2020). The search for BDC change with AoA has missed a more obvious and compelling case based on the important greenhouse gas nitrous oxide

(N₂O), where recent work has shown agreement in upper stratospheric trends across satellite
35 instruments and a model (Froidevaux et al., 2022). Here we take the Aura MLS observations
of N₂O, ozone (O₃), and temperature (T) from 2005 through 2021 and show that N₂O
increases through the middle tropical stratosphere, relatively greater than the rate of
tropospheric increases, lead to a shorter atmospheric lifetime, an important consequence of a
more vigorous BDC.

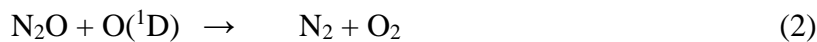
40 Consequences of an enhanced BDC have recently focussed on the increased flux of
stratospheric ozone (O₃) into the troposphere with subsequent increase in tropospheric O₃, see
discussion in (Karpechko et al., 2018; Garney et al., 2022). Enhanced BDC also leads to
shorter lifetimes for gases like nitrous oxide (N₂O) and chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) as
45 greater abundances are pushed higher in the tropical stratosphere where they experience
greater photolytic destruction. Two decades ago this mechanism was proposed by Butchart
and Scaife (2000) for the CFCs based on dynamical diagnostics of the BDC from a climate
model. Now we have observed and quantified this effect for a major greenhouse gas. Using
the simultaneous MLS vertical profiles of N₂O, O₃, and temperature, we calculate the total
50 loss of N₂O in the column, needing only the solar spectrum and absorption cross sections, as
in Prather et al. (2015, hence P2015). We find that the stratospheric N₂O loss rate is
increasing faster than the observed trend in surface N₂O, and hence the N₂O lifetime is
declining. For N₂O, a major greenhouse gas, it means that the climate impact of its
anthropogenic emissions will be reduced over this century; and for CFCs where we expect
55 parallel results, it means that these now-banned ozone-depleting gases will be cleaned out of
the atmosphere faster as shown by Butchart and Scaife (2001).

2 Measurements and methods

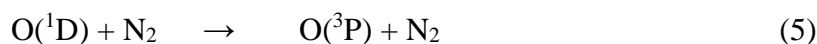
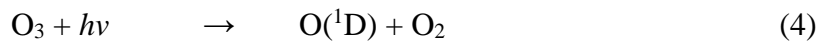
60 The Aura MLS observations of N₂O, O₃, and T are taken from the Goddard Earth Sciences
Data and Information Services Center in the form of Version 5 Level 3 monthly binned
profiles from August 2004 through December 2021 (Lambert et al., 2021; Schwartz et al.,
2021a, 2021b). All data are averaged over the 72 longitude bins. There are 43 latitude
profiles every 4° (84°S to 84°N). Pressure levels range from 100 to 0.001 hPa with
65 logarithmic spacing, and the resolution depends on the MLS quantity. The very few negative
O₃ values (0.04% of data at 0.01 hPa) occur at the minimum in the O₃ profile and are
replaced with the mean value of 0.2 ppm, with negligible impact on photolysis rates. The

negative N₂O values are slightly more frequent (about 0.1% of data at 32 and 22 hPa, but 1.6% at 0.5 hPa where the mean value is 2.3 ppb). We do not wish to inflate the N₂O loss by replacing negative values with large positive ones, so we opt for the safest choice and just replace negative N₂O values with 1 ppb, again, with negligible impact on N₂O loss. The N₂O vertical grid between 146 and 1 hPa (6 evenly spaced log(pressure) levels per decade) is coarser than that of O₃ and T (both use 12 intervals per decade). The missing N₂O levels in the O₃-T grid are calculated as the square-root of the product of the values on the adjacent levels. For pressures <0.4 hPa, where MLS V5 N₂O data are not reported, we set the abundance to 0 ppb. Our consolidated MLS dataset then covers: 43 latitudes (84°S to 84°N), 37 pressure levels (100 – 0.001 hPa), and 209 months (Aug 2004 to Dec 2021).

The observational data consists of 8,987 independent column atmospheres. The top level (0.001 hPa) is high enough that only a single layer of thickness 0.001 hPa with the same properties as the top layer is added to complete the atmosphere for the radiative calculation. Below 100 hPa, we add 6 layers with typical tropospheric values (320 ppt), however, these layers have negligible impact on N₂O loss because very little of the critical ultraviolet radiation reaches below 100 hPa. Each latitude profile is weighted by the area of the Earth ±2 ° latitude on either side except for latitudes 1 (90 °S-82 °S) and 43 (82 °N-90 °N). For each column we calculate the profile of N₂O loss from photolysis (J-N₂O) and reaction with the electronically excited atomic oxygen O(¹D) from the three reactions:



The O(¹D) is calculated from the O₃-T profiles assuming production equals loss



The radiative transfer calculation is the same as in Prather et al. (2015) and includes the solar declination for the middle of each month, the sun-earth distance, but not the solar cycle (a mean solar flux is used).

Vertically, losses are weighted linearly in pressure (mass); and across latitude, they are weighted by the area of each latitude belt. Annually integrated budgets include the number of days in each month, but leap-years are treated as 365-day years, and thus our annual losses are biased low by 0.07%. Lifetimes are budgetary time scales and calculated as a 12-month burden (TgN) divided by the 12-month loss (TgN/yr). The burden is calculated from monthly-mean, globally-averaged NOAA marine surface measurements (Dlugokencky, 2022) and using the conversion factor of 4.78 TgN/ppb (Prather et al., 2012). Given that the gridding and source files have changed since P2015 (which used the 5° latitude GOZCARDS data), we compared the global monthly loss rates for the overlap period with P2015 (Aug 2004 – Dec 2011): the mean difference of 0.2% and rms difference of 0.6% show that both calculations are essentially identical. Uncertainty in the absolute N₂O lifetime is estimated at ±8 % (1-sigma), based primarily on the absolute calibration of MLS N₂O and the chemical kinetics uncertainty, see Section 4 of P2015.

Uncertainties in trends here are calculated from a linear regression of the 12-month running averages of the monthly means as reported or calculated here. We select the 68% (1-sigma) range, because we are looking for 'likely' connections (68% confidence) rather than 'extremely likely' (95%). For example, the linear regression trend in N₂O loss uses the running averages and has 198 monthly points. The uncertainty is scaled up assuming there are only 17 yearly data points. As a check we recalculate the regression fit with the unsmoothed monthly data and get the same uncertainty.

3 Results

The primary calculation here is the annual N₂O loss (TgN/yr) shown in Figure 1a. It was surprising in that such a clear 17-year increase is apparent. Most of the interannual variability in this 12-month running mean time series is associated with the quasi-biennial oscillation (see Ruiz et al., 2021). The linear regression gives a trend of $+5.0 \pm 0.7$ %/decade. This is larger than the $+2.9 \pm 0.02$ %/decade trend in the burden (Figure 1b), and results in an N₂O budgetary lifetime trend of -2.1 ± 0.7 %/decade (Figure 1c). Our best estimate for the N₂O lifetime over the past decade (117 yr) is still close to that in P2015, which included other model calculations. Most important for the N₂O budget is the average loss itself, namely 13.43 TgN/yr with an interannual standard deviation of 3% and min-to-max range of 7%.

The primary source of stratospheric odd-nitrogen species (e.g., NO, NO₂, HNO₃) is production of NO in reaction (3), and we calculate the production of NO (Figure 1d), which (like the N₂O loss) also shows a positive trend of $+3.9 \pm 0.6$ %/decade.

140 The immediate cause of the lifetime trends (i.e., enhanced N₂O loss) can be an increase in the photochemical loss frequency or in the abundance of N₂O, or both. The critical zone for loss in the vertical is 3 to 30 hPa (80% of total loss), and in latitude it is 30°S to 30°N (75%), see P2015. Thus we focus on the tropical middle stratosphere. Photolysis (reaction 1) dominates loss here (by more than 90%) and the monthly mean J-N₂O at the equator (Figure 1e) shows
145 only a consistent decline across the critical region from -0.5 ± 0.1 %/decade at the top of the region (3 hPa) to -1.3 ± 0.3 %/decade at altitudes below 10 hPa. This change by itself would reduce the loss.

The declining J-N₂O is primarily due to the recovery of overhead ozone during this period
150 from reduced chlorine-catalysed depletion as the CFCs and other chlorinated gases have declined following the Montreal Protocol agreement that regulated these source gases (Bernath et al., 2020; Froidevaux et al., 2022; and references therein). Observations show continued increases in upper tropical stratospheric ozone for 2000–2020 (Godin-Beekmann et al., 2022) from a range of satellite measurements, including the MLS O₃ used here that is
155 driving the change of J-N₂O. For the upper stratospheric tropics (1–10 hPa), the generally observed O₃ trend of order $+1.0$ to $+1.6$ %/decade is consistent with the vertical pattern and magnitude of the J-N₂O trend. Another source of declining J-N₂O is the reduction in photolysis cross sections from lower temperatures. We calculate that the relative change in J in this altitude region is $+0.4$ %/K, and combining with the observed temperature trend of
160 about -0.5 K/decade (Maycock et al., 2018), we estimate the trend in J from temperature dependent cross sections is -0.2 %/decade and thus a small contribution to the total. The overall trend in J of about -1 %/decade reduces the N₂O loss and makes the disagreement between the burden and loss trends even greater.

165 Given that N₂O loss is increasing faster than the global burden by $+2.1$ %/decade, we expect that the N₂O abundances in the critical zone are likewise increasing faster. Because of the reduction in photolysis rates, we expect the abundance to be increasing at about $+6$ %/decade. Can we see this in the MLS N₂O data? The monthly mean 30°S–30°N N₂O abundances are shown in Figure 1f. The trends are clear but vary over altitude. At the bottom of the critical

170 zone (32 hPa) the trend is negative, -3.4 ± 0.5 %/decade and probably due to a residual
negative drift of the V5 MLS data in the lower stratosphere after 2010 as shown in Figure 16
of Livesey et al. (2021). It is unlikely to be real because suppression of vertical transport of
N₂O below 30 hPa can hardly lead to increases in N₂O above and, moreover, the ACE-FTS
data show positive trends at these pressures following the analysis of Froidevaux et al.
175 (2022). The trend increases rapidly reaching $+5.5 \pm 1.2$ %/decade in the central zone (10 hPa)
and $+12.0 \pm 2.3$ %/decade near the top (4.6 hPa). These increases are used directly in our
calculation and average to $+6$ %/decade needed to explain the trend in total N₂O loss.

Are these increases in N₂O real or an artefact of a known calibration drift in the MLS 190
GHz observations, affecting mainly water vapor and N₂O? The MLS Version 5 dataset
benefits from an extensive effort to remove/reduce drifts and verify the MLS H₂O and N₂O
against the overlapping ACE-FTS satellite measurements, which are not believed to be
drifting (Livesey et al., 2021; Froidevaux et al., 2022). The key comparison is Figure 16 of
Livesey et al. (2021). In the tropics (20°S-20°N) there could be a small positive drift in MLS
185 V5 N₂O versus ACE-FTS N₂O for the period 2005-2010 in the range 3-30 hPa, but for the
later period 2010-2019, there is no drift, or even a negative drift at 30 hPa and below. This
change with altitude may explain the small or negative trend in N₂O below 15 hPa. It is
possible that N₂O is increasing throughout the tropical stratosphere if the negative trend at 32
hPa is due to instrumental drift. Parallel analysis of the MLS V4 N₂O (not shown) shows a
190 similar increase in the trend from small negative trends at 32 hPa to large positive ones at 3
hPa (not shown). At the upper end of our range (2.2-6.8 hPa), Froidevaux et al. (2022, their
Figure 12) find similar trends in N₂O to ours (~ 13 %/decade) from MLS, ACE-FTS, and a
model. Their analysis included a much wider latitude range (50°S-50°N), but because N₂O
abundances fall off rapidly outside of the tropical ascent region (see Figure 3 of Prather et al.,
195 2015), the tropics should dominate the mean value and its trend. Thus, any calibration drift
that impacts the lifetime (i.e., occurring in the critical region 3 to 30 hPa and 30°S to 30°N) is
negligible compared to the increasing trend in N₂O loss ($+5.0$ %/decade). If the drift were
slightly negative, correction would further increase this trend.

200 We believe that the solar cycle has had little impact on N₂O lifetime variability over the MLS
Aura record here. The period 2005-2011 following Cycle 23 showed low activity (smoothed
monthly sunspot number < 50); the peak of Cycle 24 (2011-2015) was among the lowest in
the last 100 years; and Cycle 25 began in 2020 but activity remained low through 2021. We

conclude that the impact of the solar cycle on these observations was much less than the min-
to-max decrease in N₂O lifetime of 4-7 % (see P2015) and probably less than 2-3%.
Moreover, the symmetry of this low solar activity over 2005-2021 is unlikely to affect trends.

4 Implications

The recent WMO Ozone Assessments (Karpechko et al., 2018; Garny et al., 2022) concluded that disagreement remains regarding the direction of the BDC trend between the chemistry-climate model simulations (increasing rates) and the satellite observations of AoA tracers (decreasing or uncertain). We present clear observational evidence supporting the models of what is likely a climate-change driven increase in the net BDC using a major trace gas. N₂O abundances in the tropical upper stratosphere are increasing at rates much faster than tropospheric abundances, but this pattern cannot distinguish between more rapid ascent or reduced mixing with extra-tropical latitudes. The latter would imply a slower growth rate for extra-tropical N₂O, but this is not seen. If we perform a similar trend analysis to that shown in Figure 1f for the extra-tropics (i.e., 30°N-58°N and 30°S-58°S), then we find an almost identical pattern to that in the tropics: increasing at 7-8 %/decade versus 6 at 10 hPa; and at 14-18 %/decade versus 13 at 3.2 hPa, see Supplement Figure S1ab and Table S6. The obvious explanation is an increase in the meridional mean ascent rate in the tropics with little or no change in mixing across the barrier between tropics and extra-tropics. The use of an integrated quantity like the N₂O lifetime provides robust averaging over the large seasonal and interannual variability of this gas in the middle and upper stratosphere. We expect these results to hold for other gases with mid-stratosphere photolytic sinks, such as CFC-12.

Viewing the changing BDC in terms of lifetimes gives a different perspective of the potential consequences of climate change. If this rate of change continues over the 21st century, then the lifetimes of N₂O and CFC-12 might drop by 20%. Thus CFCs will be cleared out of the atmosphere earlier than currently projected (e.g., Butchart and Scaife, 2001). The climate impact of N₂O emissions will drop because their decay time will fall from 110 yr to 90 yr. Note that the decay time of a pulse based on a lifetime of 117 yr is reduced by a factor of 0.94 due to chemical feedbacks (Prather, 1998; Prather et al., 2015). Overall, we will see an accelerated removal of the long-lived trace gases. Chipperfield et al. (2014) analyzed the change in CFC and N₂O atmospheric lifetimes with climate change (year 2100 versus 2000).

For the five chemistry-climate models that calculated the N₂O lifetime, results were ambiguous: 2 increased, 1 decreased, and 2 were unchanged, all with absolute changes less than 0.5 %/decade. These results are not necessarily inconsistent with the projections here because the modeled scenarios included other chemical changes in the stratosphere and adopted a middling climate scenario (RCP 4.5). Chipperfield et al. also found that AoA metrics were a poor predictor of N₂O lifetime (see their Fig. 8-9). Thus, chemistry-climate model intercomparison projects should encourage the calculation of N₂O and CFC lifetimes over the 21st century as a major diagnostic of changing BDC, although accompanying changes in O₃ and T must also be diagnosed to evaluate the photochemically driven changes in lifetime.

There is an additional oddity in this analysis. We find that the production of NO (+3.9 %/decade) is increasing faster than the burden (+2.9 %/decade) but not as fast as N₂O loss (+5.0 %/decade), although the uncertainties overlap. This is expected because NO production peaks lower in the stratosphere and the rapid increase in loss above 10 hPa (~32 km) produces proportionally much less NO (see P2015, Figure 1). Reduced NO production relative to N₂O loss was also a theme in Nevison et al. (1999), who suggested that such changes might occur and be detectable in the observed ratio of NO_y (NO and its products) to N₂O in the lowermost stratosphere. Our result supports a finding in the analysis of Froidevaux et al. (2022), where the abundance of NO and NO₂ in the upper stratosphere is increasing at a rate much less than that of N₂O (approximately 2 vs. 12 %/decade). The abundance of NO in the tropical upper stratosphere, however, is a balance between production, vertical transport, and photochemical loss above 40 km, and we cannot estimate it from the production alone.

In parallel with our MLS N₂O data analysis, S.E. Strahan led a full chemistry-transport modeling study of the MLS period using the MERRA-2 wind fields and focusing on the chemistry of N₂O, NO_y, and O₃. Their results support our analysis and show that more rapid vertical ascent in the tropical upper stratosphere is the cause of enhanced N₂O and N₂O loss. This enhanced transport of NO led to its accumulation in the Arctic upper stratosphere with enhanced O₃ loss there. The modeled changes were shown to be driven by circulation changes, and they were matched by available satellite observations. That paper has now appeared (Strahan et al., 2022).

From the results here and in P2015, we assemble a budget for N₂O from pre-industrial to the last two decades (Table S7). Assuming the pre-industrial loss (11.0 TgN/y) is natural and has remained constant, then the anthropogenic emissions for the 2000s decade is 5.9 TgN/y and that for the 2010s decade is 7.6 TgN/y. This 28 %/decade increase in anthropogenic emissions comes primarily from the increasing N₂O atmospheric burden with only 4 %/decade coming from the decrease in N₂O lifetime derived here. Such growth in emissions shows how hard it will be to control them and identifies N₂O as a looming threat to climate stabilization.

Data Availability. The raw data used here were downloaded from the sites and at the dates specified. The time series calculated here and shown in the figures are included in Tables S1-S5 & S8 in the Supplement.

Supplement. The Supplement related to this article is available online at:
<https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-22-.....>

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Competing interests. The contact author has declared that neither they nor their co-authors have any competing interests

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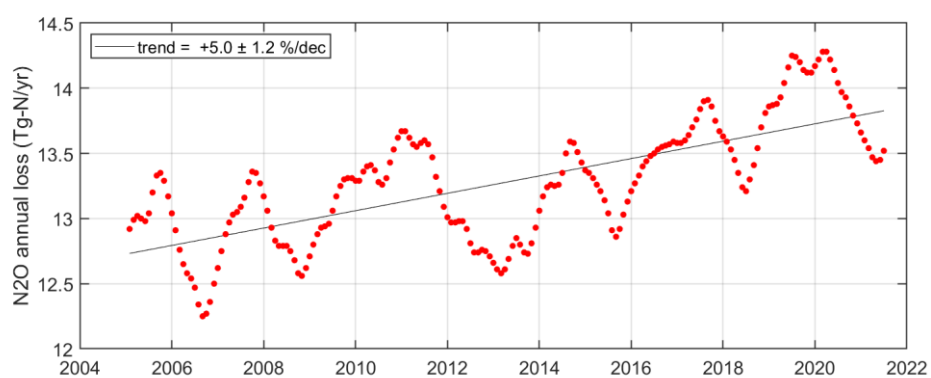
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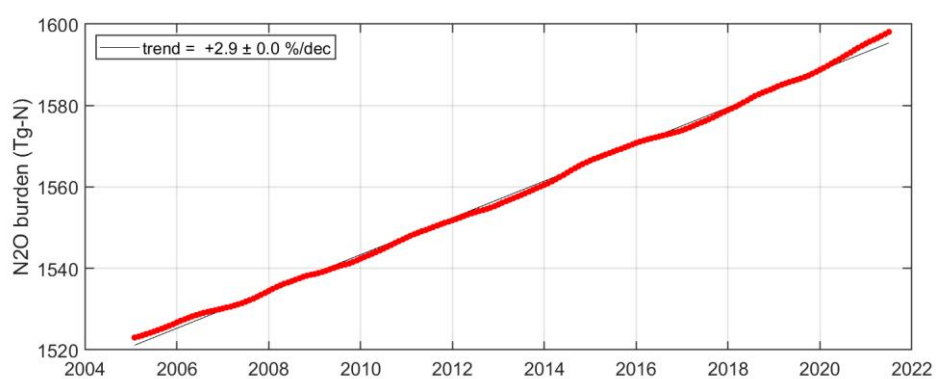
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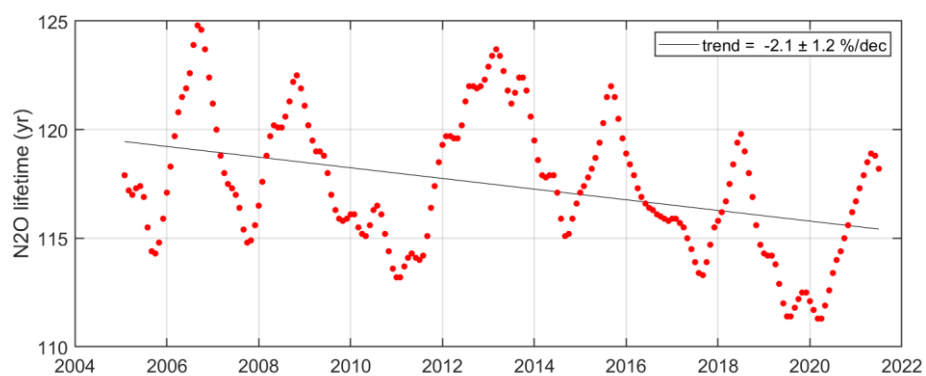
(a)



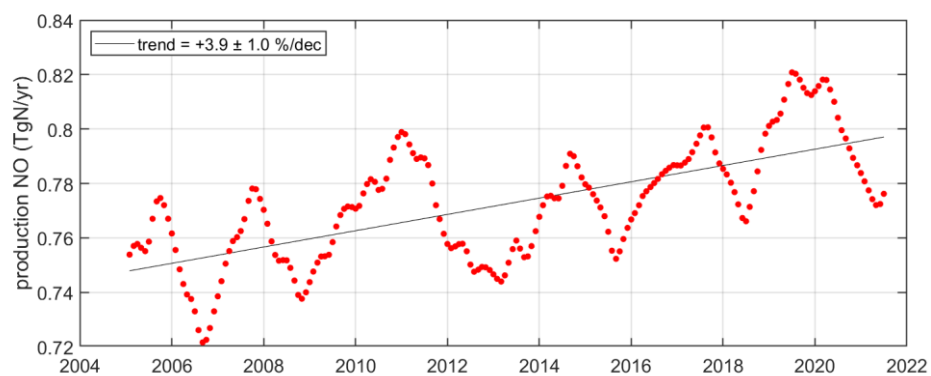
(b)



(c)



(d)



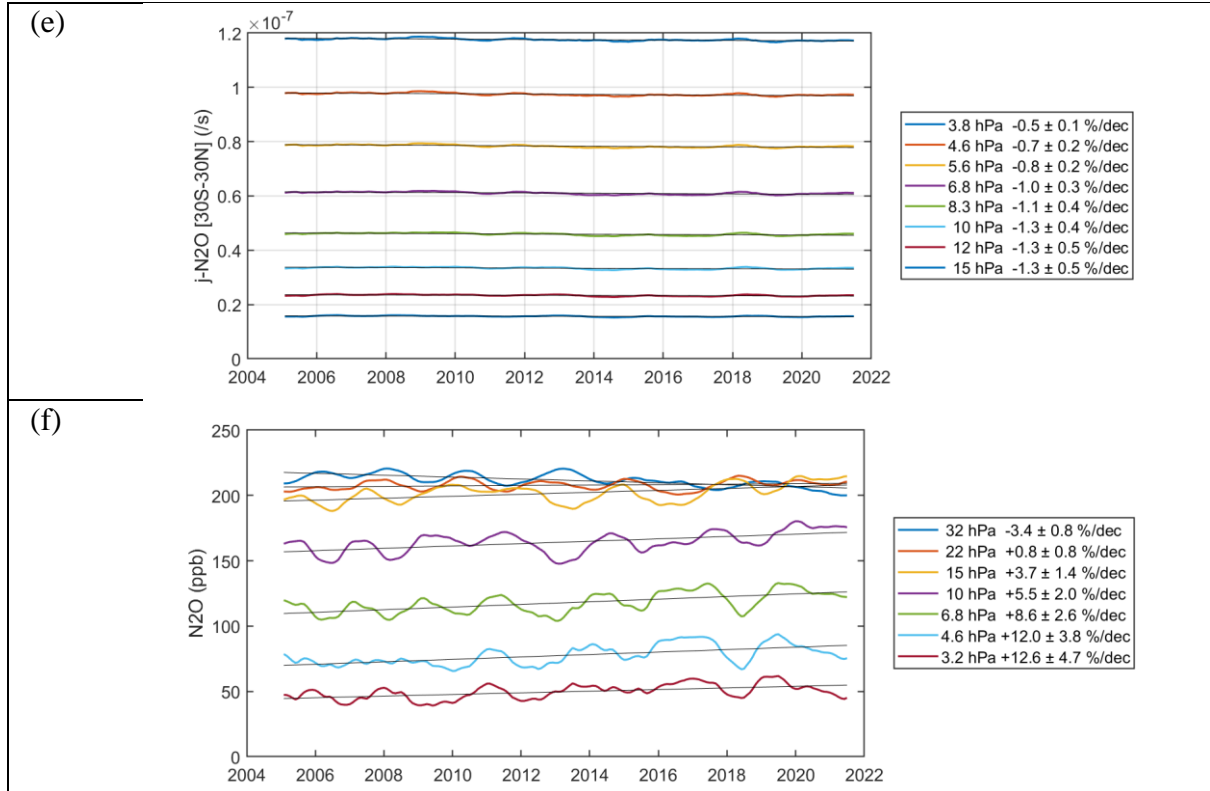


Figure 1. (a) N_2O loss rate (TgN/yr) as monthly values of a 12-month running mean. The 198 red points begin with the 12-month average of August 2004 through July 2005 plotted as February 1, 2005 with the final point being July 1, 2021 (all of 2021). The thin black trend line show the slope and uncertainty in the legend, see text. (b) N_2O global burden (TgN) based on marine surface observations. (c) N_2O lifetime derived from the burden divided by loss rate. (d) Production of NO (TgN/yr) from N_2O loss. (e) Stratospheric photolysis rates, $j\text{-N}_2\text{O}$ ($/s$), at the standard MLS V5 T pressure levels (see legend) and averaged over 30°S - 30°N . (f) N_2O abundance (ppb) at the standard V5 N_2O pressure levels (see legend) and averaged over 30°S - 30°N .