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Stratospheric Ozone: The Possible Effects of

Tropospheric-Stratospheric Feedback

Abstract. The existence of tropospheric-stratospheric feedback mechanisms affecting variations in stratospheric ozone indicates the need to model the complete troposphericstratospheric system. For instance, a decrease in stratospheric ozone results in increased photolytic destruction of nitrous oxide in the troposphere and thereby reduced production of nitric oxide in the stratosphere. Estimates indicate that this mechanism will result in a recovery in atmospheric ozone of about 6 to 13 percent of the initial perturbation.

As a result of recent studies, the prediction has been made that the release of stratospheric pollutants, such as nitrogen oxides, NO_x, from supersonic transports and CIX (Cl, ClO, HCl) from the photolytic destruction of chlorofluoromethanes will cause a significant diminution in the atmospheric O_3 content (1-3). In order to quantitatively assess the effects of these and other perturbations, several photochemical models have been constructed (2, 4, 5). In these models it is generally assumed, as a lower boundary condition, that the tropospheric mixing ratios of long-lived gases,



Fig. 1 (left). Results for case 1. The solid line represents the dependence of X, the tropospheric N_2O mixing ratio, upon $N(O_3)$, the O₃ column above 15 km. The dashed line represents the dependence of $N(O_3)$ upon X after Crutzen (9). The dashed-dotted line represents the dependence of $N(O_3)$ upon X with an assumed uniform 10 percent perturbation. Under present-day conditions, the coupled system is in equilibrium at A. The initial effect of an assumed 10 percent perturbation would be to move the system from A to B. Equilibrium is reestablished at C, reducing the effect of the pertur-Fig. 2 (right). Results for case II. For an explanation of the abbreviations used, see the bation. legend to Fig. 1.

such as N2O, CH4, and CH3Cl, are constant and do not vary with changes in the O_3 column above (2, 4, 5). This practice effectively decouples the troposphericstratospheric system, not allowing for possible feedback between the troposphere and stratosphere. In fact, it is likely that a perturbation in the stratospheric O₃ content will, because of the resultant change in near-ultraviolet radiation penetrating the tropopause, cause changes in tropospheric photochemistry.

Calculations, based on a model similar to that of Chameides (6), indicate that a 10 percent decrease in the O₃ column above 15 km, $N(O_3)$, results in an approximate 13 percent increase in the photolytic destruction rate of N₂O and a 20 percent increase in the tropospheric concentration of OH radicals. These increases will cause a decrease in the tropospheric concentration of N_2O , and in the concentration of CH_4 and CH₃Cl, both of which are destroyed by OH (7). Thus a decrease in $N(O_3)$ may result in a decrease in the tropospheric input of NO_x , CH_4 , H_2O , odd hydrogen (OH, HO_2 , H_2O_2 , H), and ClX to the stratosphere, possibly leading to feedback effects.

We estimate that these feedback effects are small but not insignificant, an indication that the entire troposphericstratospheric system must be modeled. The largest of the tropospheric feedback mechanisms that we have identified thus far involves tropospheric N_2O and is discussed below.

The major source of stratospheric NO_x is the oxidation of $N_2O(8)$ by excited oxygen atoms: $O(D) + N_2O \rightarrow 2NO$. Since catalytic destruction by NO_x is the major sink of stratospheric O_3 (1), the stratospheric abundance of N₂O plays a major role in determining the atmospheric O₃ content. Crutzen (9) reports that, with no N₂O in the atmosphere, the total atmospheric O₃ content would be 60 percent higher, whereas twice as much N₂O would yield 20 percent less atmospheric O₃.

However, since N₂O is produced at the earth's surface by denitrification and is then transported upward (10), the stratospheric N₂O abundance is determined by the N_2O mixing ratio at the tropopause. Tropospheric observations indicate that N_2O is well mixed with a residence time of 10 years or more (11, 12). Although tropospheric N₂O is destroyed by photodissociation (10), measurements of N₂O production in oceans and the temporal variability of N₂O concentrations (11, 12) suggest the existence of another unidentified, but dominant, tropospheric sink. (Our calculations include the effects of this unknown sink on the variability of N₂O.)

Although photolysis of N₂O is energetically possible for wavelengths below SCIENCE, VOL. 190

3370 Å, observations of the N₂O cross section indicate that the process is not effective for wavelengths greater than about 3100 Å (10). Since the O_3 absorption cross section decreases by a factor of 20 from 2900 to 3100 Å, leading to a variation in the atmospheric optical depth from 15.2 to 0.8 (13), the rate of photolytic destruction of tropospheric N₂O and hence the tropospheric and stratospheric N_2O abundance is sensitive to the atmospheric O_3 content. We find that for equinoctial conditions near the ground at 30°N, the daily averaged N_2O photodissociation frequency, J, varies from 3.8 \times 10 $^{\scriptscriptstyle -10}$ to 2.8 \times 10 $^{\scriptscriptstyle -10}$ sec $^{\scriptscriptstyle -1}$ when the O_3 column above varies from 8×10^{18} to 1×10^{19} cm⁻² (14).

It follows, therefore, that, if the stratospheric O₃ content decreases, more solar radiation in the 3000-Å region reaches the troposphere, increasing J, thereby decreasing N_2O in the troposphere and the N_2O flux into the stratosphere. This change in turn causes a decrease in stratospheric NO_x and a subsequent increase or recovery in stratospheric O₃. A similar but opposite effect occurs if the stratospheric O_3 content is initially increased. This mechanism tends to reduce the amplitude of perturbations in N_2O and O_3 caused by changes in the N_2O flux (for example, by fertilizers) (15).

Thus, tropospheric N₂O variations act to stabilize stratospheric O_3 . The effectiveness of this negative feedback mechanism depends upon the sensitivity of tropospheric N₂O to changes in stratospheric O_3 as well as the sensitivity of stratospheric O_3 to changes in tropospheric N₂O. Qualitatively consistent with our predictions are observations of an increase in total O₃ in the Northern Hemisphere from 1961 to 1970 (16) and an increase in tropospheric N_2O during the late 1960's (11, 12). However, these measurements are not conclusive. Continued monitoring of tropospheric N_2O along with O_3 are needed to test this hypothesis.

To determine the effectiveness of this stabilization mechanism, we have calculated the likely variation in the tropospheric N_2O mixing ratio, X, due to changes in $N(O_3)$ (17). The results are presented for two cases. In case I we assume photolysis to be the only sink for N_2O_2 , implying a tropospheric N_2O lifetime of about 50 years. In case II an unidentified N_2O sink, with a destruction frequency of 1.7 \times 10⁻⁹ sec⁻¹, is assumed to balance the large N₂O production rate from oceans deduced by Hahn (12). The solid lines in Figs. 1 and 2 illustrate the calculated dependence of X upon $N(O_3)$ for cases I and II, respectively. Crutzen's (9) prediction that $N(O_3)$ is dependent upon X is represented by the dashed lines in Figs. 1 and 2. The coupled 26 DECEMBER 1975

system of stratospheric O₃ and tropospheric N_2O is in equilibrium where the two lines cross, labeled A in Figs. 1 and 2. If an additional O₃ destruction mechanism is introduced, for example, chlorofluoromethanes, the O₃ equilibrium curves tend to move downward. Assuming a uniform 10 percent perturbation, this hypothetical perturbed O_3 equilibrium is shown in Figs. 1 and 2 as dashed-dotted lines. Thus, the initial effect of the perturbation would be to move the system from A to B, along a line of constant X, as shown in Figs. 1 and 2. At *B*, however, the rate of loss of N_2O exceeds production, causing X to decrease and $N(O_2)$ to increase. Equilibrium is reestablished for both constituents at C in Figs. 1 and 2. Hence the curves indicate that an initial 10 percent perturbation in $N(O_3)$ is reduced to 8.7 percent for case I and 9.4 percent for case II. Thus, the final reduction in O_3 is about 6 to 13 percent smaller than it would have been in the absence of the N₂O stabilization mechanism.

In case I, because the tropospheric residence time of N_xO is about 50 years, this feedback mechanism would not take effect until about 50 years after an initial perturbation. In case II, on the other hand, tropospheric N₀O has a residence time of about 15 years, implying a much shorter delay.

Calculations indicate that the CH₄ feedback mechanism, involving variations in tropospheric OH, will also result in an approximate 100 percent recovery in atmospheric O_3 , initially perturbed by NO_x or small amounts of CIX (18). We expect a significantly smaller effect from variations in CH₃Cl. However, quantitative modeling of the complete coupled system is needed to fully determine the importance of these and other possible tropospheric-stratospheric feedback mechanisms. In the case of N_2O , a redetermination of the N_2O absorption cross section in the critical 3000-Å region would also be useful.

Although our results do not refute warnings of serious perturbations to the O₃ layer due to stratospheric pollutants, the existence of tropospheric feedback should not be ignored when one is attempting to assess the impact of perturbations upon the O_3 layer. We believe that future calculations should include tropospheric photochemical processes as well as those of the stratosphere and mesosphere.

Note added in proof: Recent laboratory measurements of the N₂O cross section by Johnston and Selwyn (19) and in situ measurements of J by Stedman et al. (20)indicate that N₂O is not dissociated in the troposphere. Thus, the N₂O cross sections quoted by Bates and Hays (10) and used in this work may be erroneous. Nevertheless, we believe that the effects of tropo-

spheric-stratospheric feedback, as illustrated in the CH₄ and CH₃Cl mechanisms, should be included in future stratospheric calculations.

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