



Australian Bushfire Emissions Result in Enhanced Polar Stratospheric Ice Clouds

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Abstract

15 Extreme bushfire events amplify climate change by emitting greenhouse gases and destroying carbon sinks while causing economic damage through property destruction and even fatalities. One such bushfire occurred in Australia during 2019/2020, injecting large amounts of aerosols and gases into the stratosphere and depleting the ozone layer. While previous studies focused on the drivers behind ozone depletion, the bushfire impact on the polar stratospheric clouds (PSC), a paramount factor in ozone depletion, has not been extensively investigated so far. This study focuses on the effects of bushfire aerosols on the dynamics and stratospheric chemistry related to the PSC formation and its pathways. An analysis from Aura's microwave limb sounder revealed enhanced hydrolysis of dinitrogen pentoxide significantly increased nitric acid (HNO₃) in the high-latitude lower stratosphere in early 2020. Using a novel methodology which retrieves formation pathways of PSCs from spaceborne lidar observations, we found that the enhanced HNO₃ condensed on bushfire aerosols, forming 82 % of Liquid Nitric Acid Trihydrate (LNAT), which rapidly converted to 77 % of ice, resulting in an anomalous high areal coverage of ice PSCs. This highlights the primary formation pathways of ice and LNAT and possibly helps us to simulate the PSC formation and denitrification process better in climate models. As tropospheric warming is anticipated to increase the frequency of extreme wildfire events and stratospheric cooling is expected to expand the PSC areal coverage, these findings will contribute significantly to a deeper understanding of the impacts of extreme wildfire events on stratospheric chemistry and PSC dynamics.

30 **Keywords:** Aerosols; Australian Bushfire; Formation pathways; Polar Stratospheric Clouds; Stratospheric chemistry



1 Introduction

Southeast Australia, comprising the states of New South Wales and Victoria, faced an extreme bushfire event from September 2019 to February 2020, which is widely recognized as the black summer or Australian New Year (ANY) event and has been extensively studied (Allen et al., 2020; Deb et al., 2020; Schwartz et al., 2020; Chang et al., 2021; Rieger et al., 2021; Tencé et al., 2021, 2022; Heinold et al., 2022; Sellitto et al., 2022;). This catastrophic event injected substantial amounts of aerosols, between 0.4 and 2 Tg, into the southern hemispheric lower stratosphere (Khaykin et al., 2020; Hirsch and Koren, 2021; Heinold et al., 2022; Tencé et al., 2022); which composed of 2.5 % black carbon and 97.5 % organic carbon (Yu et al., 2021). Significant warming of the mid-latitude stratosphere by up to 3.5 K has been reported, which is unparalleled since the 1991 eruption of Mount Pinatubo (Stocker et al., 2021). Additionally, this event led to significant changes in various trace gas species, such as CH₄, CO, CH₃CN, CH₃Cl, HCN, CH₃OH, HCl, HNO₃, H₂O, and ClONO₂, particularly in the mid-latitude lower stratosphere (Schwartz et al., 2020; Santee et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2023).

Furthermore, these aerosols provided a surface area for heterogeneous chlorine activation reactions, resulting in the early depletion of HCl and an enhancement of ClO (Santee et al., 2022), and led to additional stratospheric ozone loss (Solomon et al., 2022). Along with these aerosols, liquid Polar Stratospheric Clouds (PSCs) are also known to promote such ozone-depleting heterogeneous reactions (Molina et al., 1993; Carslaw et al., 1994; Ravishankara and Hanson, 1996). Solid PSCs like Nitric Acid Trihydrate (NAT) are known to retard the deactivation process of active halogens like chlorine, bromine, and fluorine through denitrification and thereby contribute to prolonged ozone depletion (Hoyle et al., 2013). Ansmann et al. (2022) reported that the bushfire aerosols from the black summer event have influenced the PSCs by increasing their surface area and particle number concentration. Wang et al. (2023) reported an increased stratospheric chlorine activation on the bushfire aerosols and PSCs. However, previous studies have not extensively investigated the influence of the black summer event on the PSC dynamics, specifically the formation pathways. It is paramount to understand the influence of extreme events like the black summer event on PSC dynamics for two main reasons:

(i) The frequency of extreme wildfire events is projected to increase due to global warming (Mansoor et al., 2022), resulting in more injection of aerosols into the stratosphere, which could enhance the PSC area coverage.

(ii) Stratospheric cooling is anticipated to further expand the PSC coverage, resulting in more surface area density for chlorine activation reactions and thus more ozone depletion (Robrecht et al., 2019).

Under the above backdrop, using multi-satellite measurements and reanalysis data, this study aims to investigate the anomalies in stratospheric chemistry and PSC dynamics caused by the black summer event.

The data and methodology used in this study are detailed in Sect. 2. The results and their discussion are given in Sect. 3 and the study is concluded in Sect. 4.



2 Data and Methodology

65 2.1 Satellite data

Ozone Monitoring Profiler Suite (OMPS) on board Suomi NPP and NOAA-20 satellites measures atmospheric O₃ and aerosols using limb viewing techniques. We have used OMPS level 2 version 2.0 product which provides aerosol extinction coefficient at 745 nm wavelength, with a horizontal resolution of 125 km × 2 km and a vertical resolution of 1.8 km (https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets/OMPS_NPP_LP_L2_AER_DAILY_2/summary; Taha et al., 2021).

Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS) aboard the Aura satellite provides the trace gases mixing ratio by measuring limb emission spectra through a Fourier Transform Spectrometer (FTS). The MLS Level 2, version 5.0 daily HNO₃ and H₂O mixing ratio are used (<https://mls.jpl.nasa.gov/eos-aura-mls/data-products>; Waters et al., 2006). Atmospheric Chemistry Experiment-FTS (ACE-FTS) onboard SciSat satellite provides trace gases mixing ratio by measuring limb absorption spectra and level 2, version 4.0 daily HF, H₂O, HNO₃, N₂O₅ mixing ratio (<https://www.frdr-dfdr.ca/repo/dataset/c75d2e49-0def-49e5-9c69-5e74c824dc6c>; Bernath et al., 2020) are used in the present study.

Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal Polarization (CALIOP) onboard the Cloud-Aerosol Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder Satellite Observations (CALIPSO) satellite probes the vertical distribution of aerosols and clouds. The PSCs are detected as those measurements with a relatively larger extinction coefficient than the background aerosol extinction coefficient (Pitts et al., 2007). It classifies the detected PSCs through perpendicular attenuated backscatter and total scattering ratio (ratio between the total attenuated backscatter to the molecular backscatter) into five categories: Supercooled Ternary Solution (STS ≡ H₂SO₄.HNO₃.H₂O), Liquid Nitric Acid Trihydrate (LNAT ≡ HNO₃.3H₂O, a mixture of liquid STS and solid NAT with low number density of 10⁻² cm⁻³), ENAT (Enhanced NAT, with high number density of 10⁻¹ cm⁻³), Ice (Water ice ≡ H₂O), and Mountain Wave Ice (MWI ≡ H₂O, caused by gravity waves). The total areal coverage of the PSCs such as LNAT, STS, Ice, ENAT, and MWI contributes to 48 %, 24.7 %, 21.4 %, 5.8 %, and 0.1 % respectively (Pitts et al., 2018). In this study, CALIPSO PSC Level 2, version 2.0 is used (https://asdc.larc.nasa.gov/project/CALIPSO/CAL_LID_L2_PSCMask-Standard-V2-00_V2-00; Pitts et al., 2007; 2009; 2013), which provides PSC information at a spatial resolution of 180 m (vertical) × 5 km (horizontal). The PSC areal coverage is estimated as described in Pitts et al. (2009).

European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts Reanalysis fifth generation (ERA-5) reanalysis provides meteorological data with a spatial resolution of 0.25° × 0.25° and a temporal resolution of 1 hour at 37 pressure levels (1000 to 1 hPa). We have used the hourly meridional and zonal velocity from June 2020 to July 2020 (<https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-pressure-levels?tab=overview>; Hersbach et al., 2020).

2.2 Anomaly estimation

Anomalies (Δ) in aerosol extinction coefficient (k_{ext} at 745 nm), mixing ratios of H₂O, and HNO₃, and PSC properties are estimated following Eq. (1):

$$\Delta X = X_{2020} - \bar{X} \quad (1)$$

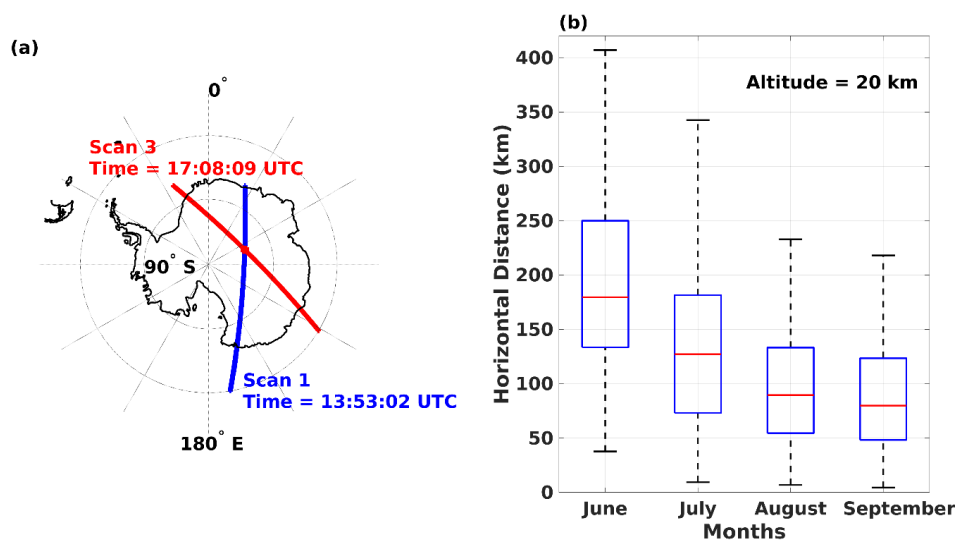


100 where ‘ ΔX ’ is a daily anomaly of quantity ‘ X ’, ‘ X_{2020} ’ is the daily mean in 2020, and ‘ \bar{X} ’ is the daily background
 mean. The background mean values of H_2O and HNO_3 mixing ratio and PSC properties are constructed by
 averaging the daily values during the period 2009 to 2019 while for k_{ext} , the period is 2012 to 2019 [excluding the
 year 2015, to avoid the effects of the Calbuco volcanic eruption (Zhu et al., 2018)]. The standardized anomaly (Z)
 is estimated following Eq. (2):

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$$Z_X = \frac{\Delta X}{\sigma_X} \quad (2)$$

where ‘ σ_X ’ is the standard deviation of the parameter ‘ X ’.

2.3 Retrieval of formation pathways



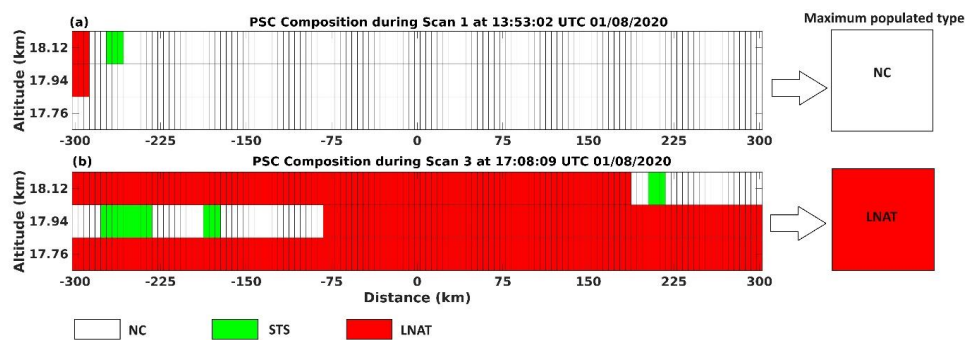
110 *Figure 1: (a) Intersection of two CALIPSO scan tracks: Scan 1 (blue line) and Scan 3 (red line) during 01/08/2020 and (b) Boxplot showing the simulated horizontal distance traveled by air parcels for 240 minutes starting at 00:00 (hour: minutes) at an altitude of 20 km during June, July, August, and September of 2020. In the boxplot, the redline marks the median distance, the horizontal blue lines below and above the median mark the first and third quartile respectively, and the lower and uppermost black lines mark the minimum and maximum distance traveled by the air parcels.*

115 CALIPSO provides PSC composition derived from the backscattered signal, but it does not carry information
 about the formation pathways of these PSCs. Previous studies retrieved the PSC formation pathways from
 CALIPSO (Nakajima et al., 2016) and aircraft campaigns (Voigt et al., 2018) using Lagrangian trajectory analysis
 but were limited to a few days. However, the methodology they employed did not provide a relative percentage
 contribution of various formation pathways of PSCs. We have developed a new methodology to address this
 120 limitation. The CALIPSO orbits the Earth ~15 times per day with an orbit period of ~100 minutes. These scan
 tracks periodically intersect at high-latitude regions (an example is given in Fig. 1a). The intersection points
 provide a unique opportunity to measure the PSC composition at certain intervals of time. In this study, we choose
 the intersection between the scan ‘ n ’ and scan ‘ $(n+2)$ ’ which usually occurs at latitude ~-80°. The time interval



125 between these two scans is ~200 minutes. Though we have a measurement of the PSC composition at the same
 location with a periodic time interval, the air parcel tends to move vertically and horizontally. Hence, it is vital to
 find the distance traveled by air parcels in the given 200 minutes. The vertical velocity of the air parcel at the
 lower stratosphere is extremely low of order of 0.001 m s^{-1} (Hamill and McMaster, 1984). But horizontal velocity
 varies according to the prevailing meteorological condition modulated by the polar vortex.

130 To find the horizontal distance traveled by the air parcels, we utilized a trajectory module from the Chemical
 Lagrangian Model of the Stratosphere (CLaMS) where the ERA5 hourly meteorological dataset is provided as an
 input. For the simulation, the initial location of the air parcels is considered to be at latitude -80° , time 00:00 UTC
 (hh: mm), longitude between 0° and 360° at an interval of 45° and altitude of 20 km. The air parcels are allowed
 to travel for the next 4 hours (240 mins) in the trajectory module. Though the requirement is to measure the
 135 horizontal distance traveled by air parcels in 200 minutes, we run the trajectory module on an hourly scale to
 reduce the computational cost. Hence, the monthly statistics of the distance traveled by the air parcels in 240
 minutes, starting from the initial location, are shown in Fig. 1b.



140 *Figure 2: Observed CALIPSO PSC composition during 01/08/2020 at (a) Scan 1 and (b) Scan 3. The '0 km' in the x-axis marks the intersection of the two scan tracks. 'NC', 'LNAT', and 'STS' stand for No Cloud (white), Liquid Nitric Acid Trihydrate (red), and Supercooled Ternary Solution (green).*

Based on the trajectory results, it is found that the monthly mean distance traveled by the air parcels is within 300 km. Hence, around the intersection, profiles falling within a 300 km radius and three consecutive vertical levels (i.e., 540 m) are chosen, as shown in Fig. 2. The maximum populated PSC within the chosen boundary is assumed to be the PSC of the air parcel. This reclassification reduces the noise further. The transition in the maximum populated PSC type during the two scans provides vital information about the PSC formation pathways. In CALIPSO PSC Version 2.0, statistical threshold values of perpendicular attenuated backscatter (β_{\perp}) and total scattering ratio (R_{532}) are used to classify the PSC composition (Pitts et al., 2009). Here, the perpendicular attenuated backscatter refers to the perpendicular component (i.e., polarization perpendicular to the emitted lidar signal) of the attenuated backscatter signal from the particulate and the total scattering ratio is the ratio between the total particulate backscatter and molecular backscatter. For example, the particle is classified as enhanced NAT PSC if it's $2 < R_{532} < 5$ and $\beta_{\perp} > 2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ km}^{-1} \text{ sr}^{-1}$, as ice PSC if it's $2.75 < R_{532} < 50$ and $\beta_{\perp} > 1.55 \times 10^{-5}$



$\text{km}^{-1} \text{sr}^{-1}$ and STS PSC if it's $\beta_{\perp} < \sim 1.55 \times 10^{-5} \text{ km}^{-1} \text{sr}^{-1}$ (Pitts et al., 2009, 2018). Similarly, the other types of PSCs are classified based on empirically found threshold values. More details can be found in Pitts et al. (2009).
155 We choose PSCs whose optical properties are far away from these thresholds (i.e., more than one standard deviation with respect to the threshold value). Through this, we ensure that only grids which exhibited drastic change in PSC optical properties during the 200 minutes are considered for the retrieval of PSC formation pathways. It should be noted that as these intersections occur at the latitude of $\sim 80^\circ$, the retrieved formation pathways correspond to the interior of the polar vortex. As such, they cannot be considered representative of all
160 PSC formations which occur outside the polar vortex.

The CALIPSO PSC composition observed on 01/08/2020 in Scan 1 and Scan 3 are shown in Fig. 2. The horizontal and vertical boundaries are selected as described above. During Scan 1, No Cloud (NC) is the maximum populated PSC type (NC refers to the presence of no clouds as observed by CALIPSO but may contain stratospheric aerosols/sub-visible PSC/NAT rock (Tritscher et al., 2021)). Hence, all grids within this boundary are labeled as
165 'NC. During scan 3, as LNAT is the maximum populated PSC type, it is traced that "NC" turned into "LNAT" in the given ~ 200 minutes. Similarly, all possible formation pathways of both ice and LNAT are retrieved during each successful intersection point. This technique helps us to narrow down the possible formation pathways. However, it is difficult to uniquely conclude the formation pathways using CALIPSO PSC information only. Because, as discussed earlier, 'NC' refers to the air parcel containing either stratospheric aerosols or large NAT rock, whose optical properties are below the CALIPSO detection threshold. If the same air parcel became
170 populated with 'LNAT' after a certain time, it could imply that it either formed through nucleation on stratospheric aerosols aided by decreased temperature or evaporation of large NAT rock aided by increased temperature such that its size now falls within CALIPSO detection thresholds. Hence, to conclude which formation pathway is responsible for the specific PSC formation, it is essential to consider the corresponding change in temperature and
175 gaseous species also, as described in the next section.

2.4 Thermodynamic Analysis of PSC Formation Pathways

The change in air temperature and gas-phase HNO_3 mixing ratio offer valuable insight into potential PSC formation pathways, as described in Sect. 2.3, we accounted for changes in these parameters when retrieving the PSC formation pathways (Nakajima et al., 2016). Furthermore, each formation pathway occurs at a specific
180 temperature, which is conventionally viewed in the 'T- T_{ice} ' temperature coordinate (Lambert et al., 2012; Pitts et al., 2013). Here 'T' is the ambient air temperature and ' T_{ice} ' is the frost point (the temperature at which the air parcel saturates with water vapor, leading to ice formation). The estimation of ' T_{ice} ' follows the parameterization described in Murphy and Koop (2005). The change in air temperature ' ΔT ', and gas-phase nitric acid ' ΔHNO_3 ' are estimated following Eqs. (3) and (4) respectively.

$$185 \quad \Delta T = T_n - T_{n+2} \quad (3)$$

$$\Delta \text{HNO}_3 = \text{HNO}_{3_n} - \text{HNO}_{3_{n+2}} \quad (4)$$

where T_n and HNO_{3_n} respectively represent the temperature and HNO_3 mixing ratio of the air parcel during the scan 'n'. The temperature and HNO_3 are obtained from MLS and MERRA-2 (provided along with CALIPSO PSC v2.0 product) respectively. For reliable results, the estimated ΔT and ΔHNO_3 (using Eqs. 3 and 4) should be



190 statistically significant such that their magnitude should be higher than their respective measurement uncertainties. The measurement uncertainty (represented by σ) in temperature and HNO_3 is 0.5 K (Graham et al., 2019) and 0.6 ppbv (Lambert et al., 2016) respectively. Hence, the combined uncertainty in ΔT and ΔHNO_3 are estimated following the summation in quadrature rule (Bell, 2001) as written in Eq. (5):

$$\sigma(\Delta x) = \sqrt{2\sigma(x)^2} \quad (5)$$

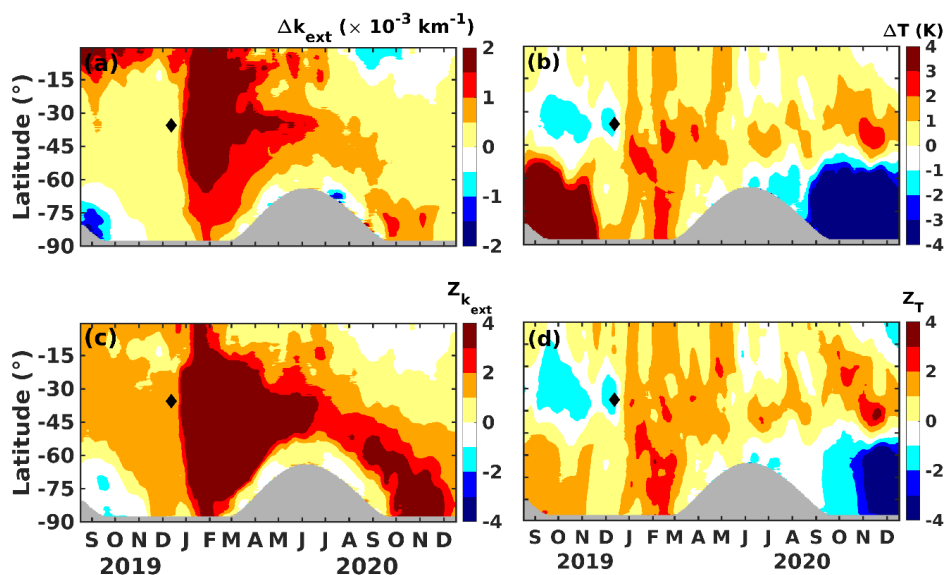
195 Where ' $\sigma(\Delta x)$ ' represents the uncertainty in Δx , and ' x ' represents the HNO_3 mixing ratio or T. Similarly, the uncertainty in ' $T - T_{\text{ice}}$ ' is estimated following Eq. (6):

$$\sigma(T - T_{\text{ice}}) = \sqrt{\sigma(T)^2 + \sigma(T_{\text{ice}})^2} \quad (6)$$

Where $\sigma(T_{\text{ice}})$ is the uncertainty in T_{ice} which is taken as 0.5 K (Lambert et al., 2016). To ensure the reliability of the results, we are excluding values of ΔT , ΔHNO_3 , and $T - T_{\text{ice}}$ falling within the respective uncertainty limits
200 $\sigma(T)$, $\sigma(\text{HNO}_3)$, and $\sigma(T - T_{\text{ice}})$.

3 Results and discussions

3.1 Increased aerosol loading in the lower stratosphere



205 *Figure 3: Daily zonal mean anomaly (Δ) in OMPS (a) k_{ext} at 745 nm, (b) temperature, and standardized anomaly (Z) of (c) k_{ext} at 745 nm and (d) temperature at the altitude of 15 km between September 2019 and December 2020 are shown. The grey-shaded region corresponds to no data. The x-ticks mark the middle of each month. The black diamond in each plot marks the black summer event.*

An anomaly in aerosol extinction coefficient (k_{ext}) at 745 nm and temperature along with their corresponding standardized anomalies at the altitude of 15 km are shown in Fig. 3. A notable positive anomaly of k_{ext} in mid-latitude since early January 2020 is attributable to the increased aerosol loading caused by the black summer event
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(Fig. 3a). The anomaly in k_{ext} exceeded three standard deviations (Fig. 3c) and warmed the lower stratosphere by 2 K owing to the radiative heating (Rieger et al., 2021), which is readily seen in Fig. 3b. By February 2020, these aerosols have been transported to high latitudes where PSC usually forms in the subsequent Austral winter. As stratospheric aerosols act as nuclei for PSC, it is likely that these aerosols also influenced the PSC dynamics during this period. Since April 2020, a negative anomaly of k_{ext} has been observed at the latitude $\sim 80^\circ$, which is attributed to the nucleation of PSC on these aerosols (Zhu et al., 2018). The k_{ext} increased again at high latitudes in October and November 2020 which is due to the re-release of the captured aerosols by the PSC, upon evaporation of the corresponding gas species (Toon et al., 1989; Schwarzenböck et al., 2001; Rex et al., 2004; Hoyle et al., 2013). Previous studies reported additional ozone loss during the same period (Ansmann et al., 2022; Ohneiser et al., 2022). Despite the abundant aerosol loading, strong cooling of more than 3 K is observed at high latitude regions from September to December 2020 (Fig. 3b). This suggests that the radiative cooling caused by the additional ozone loss (Fig. S1) has surpassed the radiative heating by the increased aerosol loading, in agreement with Rex et al., (2004). Before the black summer event, intense warming exceeding 5 K was observed at the high latitude of the lower stratosphere from September to November 2019, which was attributed to the minor sudden stratospheric warming event (Liu et al., 2022).

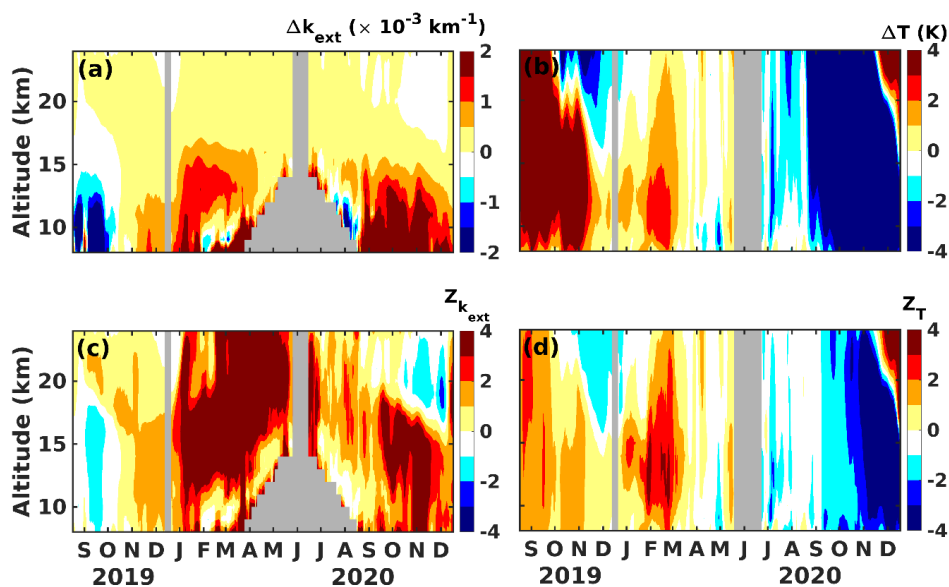


Figure 4: Daily vertical anomaly (Δ) in OMPS (a) k_{ext} at 745 nm, (b) temperature, and standardized anomaly (Z) of (c) k_{ext} at 745 nm and (d) temperature averaged between latitude -60° and -90° from September 2019 to December 2020 are shown. The grey-shaded region corresponds to no data. The x-ticks mark the middle of each month. The black diamond in each plot marks the black summer event.

The vertical profiles of anomaly and standardized anomaly (Z) of k_{ext} and temperature are shown in Fig. 4. Significant aerosol loading is observed in Fig. 4a between the altitudes of 10 to 25 km from January to June 2020. The continuous increase in $Z_{k_{\text{ext}}}$ since January 2020, to an even higher altitude (Fig. 4c), is attributed to the self-lofting mechanism (Khaykin et al., 2020). Like Fig. 3, the positive anomaly in k_{ext} in the lower stratosphere from October to December 2020 surpassed the anomaly observed during early 2020. The major type of aerosol emitted



during the black summer is organic carbon (Yu et al., 2021), which is hydrophilic in nature. The increased k_{ext} could hence be due to the exposure of these aerosols in the low temperatures during the winter where condensation of water vapor resulted in the growth of the aerosols, increasing its size and light extinction further. In addition, the transport of more bushfire aerosols from mid to high latitude regions could be another cause of the observed increase in k_{ext} . The descending pattern as observed in Zk_{ext} (Fig. 4c) from August to December 2020 could be due to the result of mesospheric air, as explained by Kessenich et al. (2023).

These observations reveal high aerosol loading in the lower stratosphere of the high latitudes after the black summer event. It can increase the surface area availability for heterogeneous chemical reactions and potentially modify the stratospheric chemistry itself. For a comprehensive understanding of the impact of the black summer event on the PSC dynamics, we explore the changes in key constituent gases of PSCs in the next section.

3.2 Enhanced HNO_3 and H_2O in the lower stratosphere

The anomalies in MLS HNO_3 and H_2O mixing ratios along with their corresponding standardized anomalies averaged between latitudes -60° and -90° are shown in Fig. 5. An elevated level of HNO_3 mixing ratio has been observed between 20 to 30 km altitude since February 2020 and peaked by 1.5 ppb over the background value by April 2020 (Fig. 5a). This surge exceeded two standard deviations and remained significant till June 2020 at the altitude of 20 km (Fig. 5c). Similarly, an increase in the H_2O mixing ratio is observed at slightly lower altitudes (between 15 to 20 km) since mid-January 2020 (Fig. 5b), which exceeded more than one standard deviation (the cause of this anomalous increase is discussed in Sect. 3.3). As both HNO_3 and H_2O are principal constituents of the PSCs (Tritscher et al., 2021), the near-simultaneous decrease of them along with k_{ext} (Fig. 4a) during Austral winter suggests that these species condensed on the bushfire aerosols and thus likely converted into PSCs.

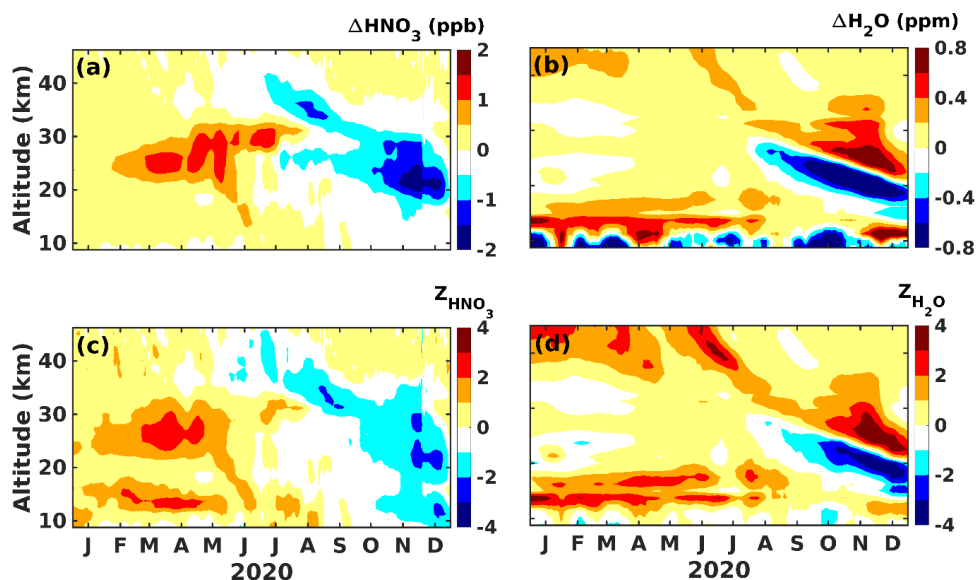


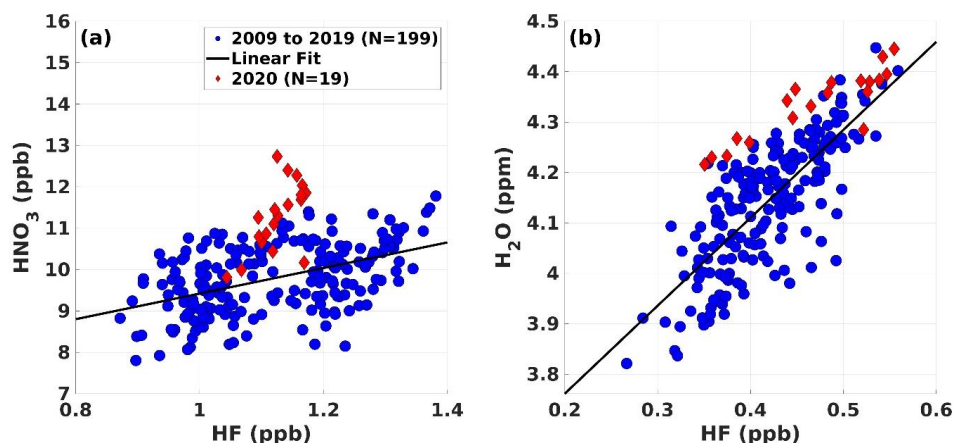
Figure 5: Anomaly in (a) HNO_3 and (b) H_2O mixing ratio, and standardized anomaly of (c) HNO_3 and (d) H_2O mixing ratio, averaged between latitudes -60° and -90° during 2020. The x-ticks mark the middle of each month.



260 Unlike HNO_3 , abundant water vapor is detected in the upper stratosphere (above 40 km) (Fig. 5b and d) from
January to April 2020. Since there is no evidence that the smoke plume from the black summer event has reached
such altitudes, we believe that the moist upper stratosphere is not associated with the black summer event.
Typically, the upper stratospheric water vapor is produced through the oxidation of methane CH_4 (Brewer, 1949;
Fueglistaler et al., 2009) and directly injected from the tropical tropopause layer through deep convection
(Schoeberl et al., 2018). This water vapor is further transported from low to high latitudes through a deep branch
265 (present at the upper and middle stratosphere) and a shallow branch (present just above tropopause) of the Brewer-
Dobson circulation (Butchart, 2014). The descent of water vapor from the upper stratosphere to the lower
stratosphere during 2020 in Fig. 5b suggests that these water vapors are carried by the deep branch of the Brewer-
Dobson circulation and resulted in a strong positive H_2O anomaly from September to December 2020 within the
altitudes 30 to 25 km. A strong negative anomaly in both HNO_3 and H_2O can be observed below this layer, which
270 could be due to the prolonged polar vortex during this period separating the mid and high-latitude air mass, thereby
preventing further mixing. To understand whether the cause of these anomalies during early 2020 was due to
dynamical (i.e. due to change in transportation) or chemical (i.e., due to chemical reaction) processes, tracer-trace
correlation analysis was carried out and the results are discussed in the next section.

3.3 Tracer-Tracer Correlation Analysis

275 The Tracer-Tracer correlation analysis technique is used to diagnose whether a change in atmospheric gas
concentration is driven by chemical reactions or transportation (such as convection or advection). The idea behind
this technique is that chemically active and long-lived tracer (i.e., chemically inert) gas should exhibit the same
order of change if the cause is transport-related (Müller et al., 1996, 1997). If a chemically active gas
increases/decreases with no change in long-lived tracer gas, that change is attributed to the chemical reaction. In
280 this technique, a linear regression between the long-lived tracer gas and the chemically active gas is performed.
A deviation from the regression line indicates the chemical production of the chemically active gases. For our
analysis, hydrofluoric acid (HF) was chosen as the long-lived tracer gas, as it is chemically inert in the stratosphere
(Wang et al., 2023).

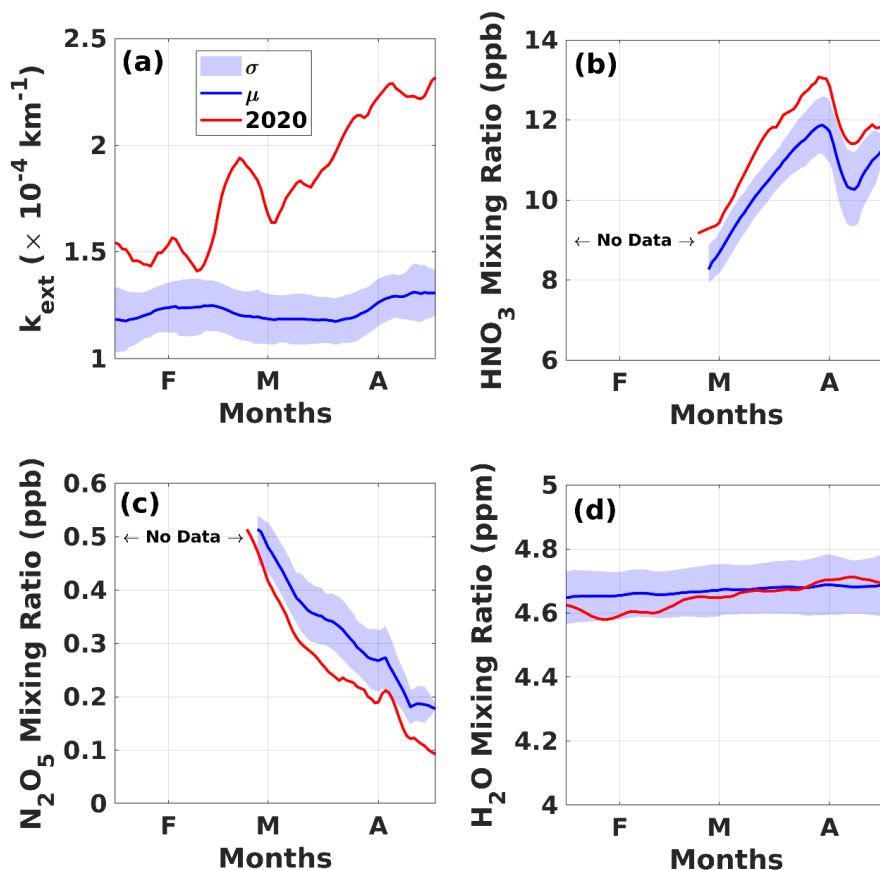


285 *Figure 6: Tracer-Trace correlation between ACE-FTS (a) HNO_3 and HF at the altitude of 25 km, and (b) H_2O vs HF at the altitude of 17 km. The blue circle and red diamond correspond respectively to the periods March 2009–2019 and March 2020, and the solid black line is a linear fit. Here, ‘N’ is the number of data points used for regression analysis for both subplots.*

The Atmospheric Chemistry Experiment - Fourier Transform Spectrometer (ACE-FTS) obtained HF is regressed
 290 against HNO_3 and H_2O at altitudes of 25 km and 17 km respectively during March 2020 (Fig. 6). The results
 suggested that the HNO_3 was produced through a chemical process as the data corresponding to March 2020 (red
 diamond in Fig. 6a) deviate much from the linear fit (black line). In contrast, increased H_2O is transport-related
 as the data are close to the linear fit (Fig. 6b) and likely carried to the lower stratosphere by the smoke plumes
 from the black summer event (Schwartz et al., 2020). The production of HNO_3 in the lower stratosphere is
 295 governed by the heterogeneous chemical reactions in dinitrogen pentoxide (N_2O_5) hydrolysis, which can be
 written as (Zhang et al., 1995):



We noticed coinciding depletion in ACE-FTS N_2O_5 at the altitude of 25 km during the same period (Fig. 7a) and
 performed a similar tracer-tracer correlation analysis for N_2O_5 (Fig. S2). The result indicates that N_2O_5 is
 300 chemically depleted in the lower stratosphere, suggesting the possible role of the N_2O_5 hydrolysis process. In
 general, the stratospheric background aerosols provide a surface for H_2O to condense and gas-phase N_2O_5 reacts
 with it to form HNO_3 . To confirm the involvement of the N_2O_5 hydrolysis process, H_2O , N_2O_5 , and HNO_3 from
 ACE-FTS, and k_{ext} at 745 nm from OMPS at 25 km altitude from February to May 2020 are analyzed and shown
 in Fig. 7.



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Figure 7: OMPS obtained (a) k_{ext} at 745 nm, and ACE-FTS obtained (b) HNO_3 , (c) N_2O_5 , and (d) H_2O mixing ratio at the altitude 25 km averaged between the latitude band -60° to -90° . Here, ' σ ' represents the standard deviation with respect to the background mean ' μ '. The x-ticks mark the middle of each month.

The background mean of k_{ext} remains $\sim 1.25 \times 10^{-4} \text{ km}^{-1}$ between February to May (Fig. 7a). But since early 2020, k_{ext} gradually increased to peak at $2.4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ km}^{-1}$ by April 2020. This increasing trend of k_{ext} could be attributed to the coupled effect of the transportation of even more bushfire aerosols from mid to high latitude as days passes and aerosol aging, where bushfire aerosols mixed with stratospheric sulfate aerosols result in an increased size and extinction coefficient (Li et al., 2021; Ohneiser et al., 2022). The simultaneous production and depletion of HNO_3 and N_2O_5 exceeded the respective standard deviations and substantiated that HNO_3 is produced through N_2O_5 hydrolysis (Fig. 7b and c).

During Austral winter, due to the continued lack of solar radiation, the temperature of the polar region decreases by less than 195 K, which results in the condensation of these trace gases, forming PSC. The near-simultaneous decrease in aerosol loading (as discussed in Sect. 3.2), HNO_3 , and H_2O at the lower stratosphere during the early winter of 2020 suggests that these changes possibly affected the PSC formation. A comprehensive investigation of PSC dynamics was carried out using CALIPSO measurements and discussed in the next section.

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3.4. Impact of the black summer event on the PSC areal coverage during 2020

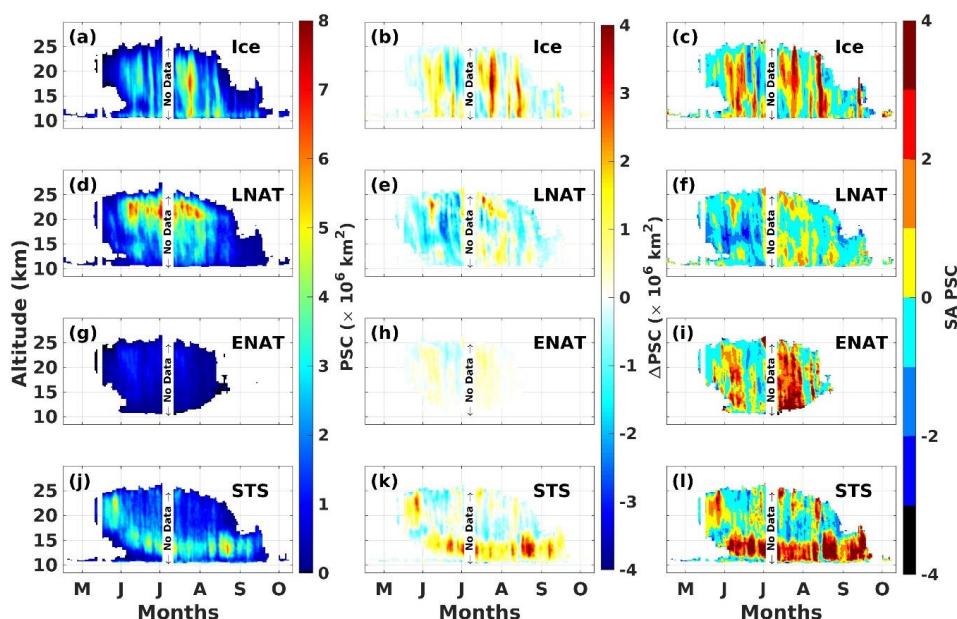


Figure 8: CALIPSO Antarctic PSC areal coverage monthly mean (left column, panels a, d, g, and j), anomaly (middle column, panels b, e, h, and k), and standardized anomaly (right column, panels c, f, i, and l) for the year 2020.

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The Antarctic PSC areal coverage for the year 2020, and corresponding anomalies and standardized anomalies are estimated (as described in the methodology Sect. 2.3) and are shown in Fig. 8. CALIPSO detected the PSC from late May onwards (Fig. 8) but the depletion in HNO_3 has been apparent since mid-April itself (Fig. 7c). This could be attributed to the sub-visible PSCs whose optical properties are below the detection threshold of the CALIPSO (Lambert et al., 2012; 2016). Peak positive anomaly of up to $4 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$ is exhibited by ice at the altitude between 15 km and 20 km during the second week of August 2020. Followed by ice, the Supercooled Ternary Solution (STS) exhibited a high positive anomaly, which peaked up to $3.5 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$ at an altitude between 12 km and 15 km during early September 2020. Since the STS is always in the liquid state and has a relatively higher surface area density than the solid PSCs, the amplification in the STS areal coverage can potentially promote the heterogeneous chlorine activation reaction and lead to additional ozone loss (Molina et al., 1993; Carslaw et al., 1994; Ravishankara and Hanson, 1996). Similarly, an increase in Enhanced Nitric Acid Trihydrate (ENAT) areal coverage is observed but its contribution to the total PSC areal coverage is negligible. It is evident from Fig. 8 that the positive anomalies in the areal coverage of PSCs like ice, STS, and ENAT exceeded three standard deviations with respect to the background mean. The increase in HNO_3 containing PSCs: STS and ENAT can be attributed to the increased surface area provided by the bushfire aerosols and the production of HNO_3 through the N_2O_5 hydrolysis process. In contrast, the areal coverage of another HNO_3 containing PSC, i.e., Liquid Nitric Acid Trihydrate (LNAT), exhibited strong negative anomalies (Fig. 8 e, f).

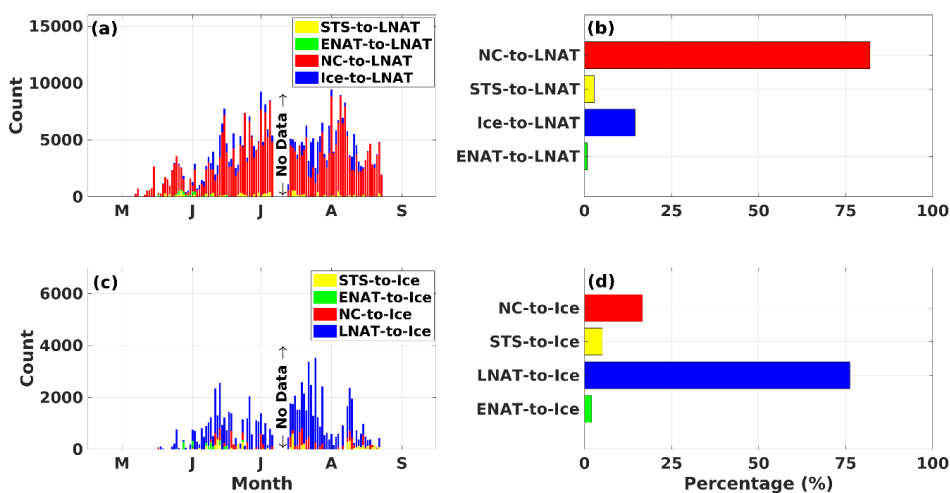
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For instance, during June and July 2020, areal coverage of LNAT decreased significantly, leading to a negative anomaly of up to 2.5×10^6 km², which is more than two standard deviations from the background mean (Fig. 8 e, f). During the same period, a significant increase in ice areal coverage of up to 2×10^6 km² is observed, exceeding two standard deviations (Fig. 8 b, c). Similar simultaneous positive and negative anomalies in ice and LNAT are observed during August 2020 as well. As NAT can serve as efficient nuclei for ice formation (Hoyle et al., 2013), a possible explanation for this observation could be the heterogeneous nucleation process of ice on existing NAT PSC. To verify this hypothesis, we developed a novel methodology which retrieves the PSC formation pathways, and the results are discussed in the next section.

3.5. Formation pathways of LNAT and Ice PSC

The PSC formation pathways are retrieved from the CALIPSO PSC measurements, as described in Sect. 2.3, during the Austral winter of 2020, and are shown in Fig. 9.

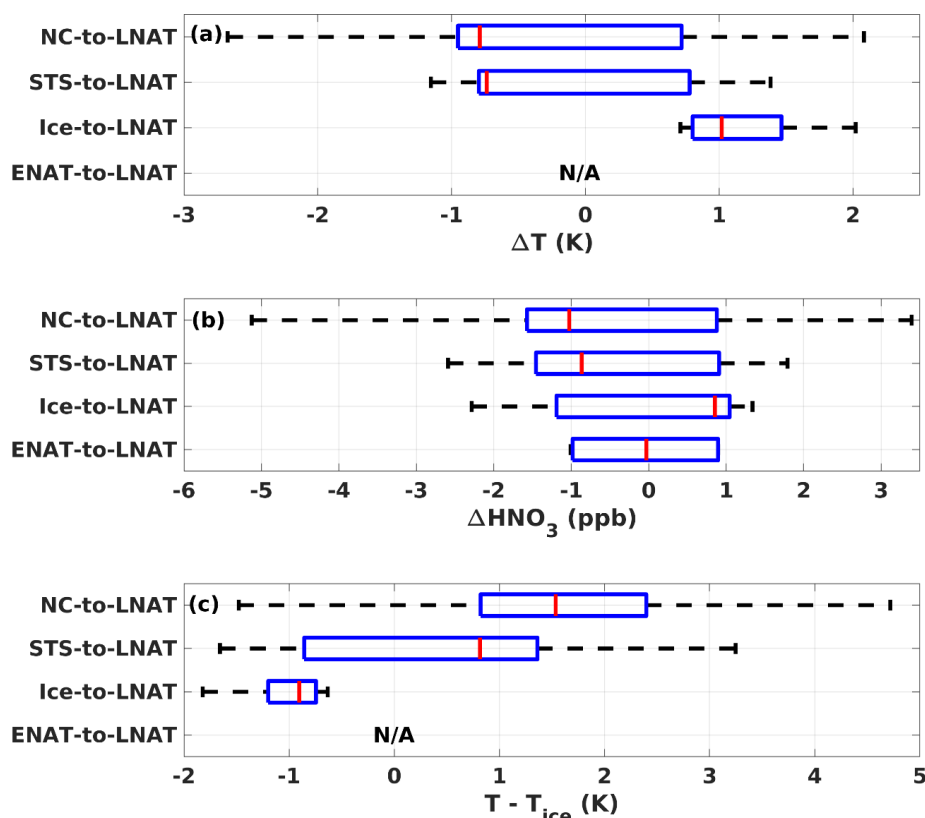


355 *Figure 9: (a) Formation pathways of LNAT, (b) percentage contribution of LNAT formation pathways, (c) Formation pathways of ice, and (d) percentage contribution of ice formation pathways, for the year 2020. The 'Count' in the y-axis of panels (a) and (c) represents the number of CALIPSO grids or pixels exhibiting transition in PSC composition. The x-ticks mark the middle of each month.*

3.5.1 LNAT formation pathways

360 The change in air temperature (ΔT), HNO_3 (ΔHNO_3), and temperature ($T - T_{\text{ice}}$) at which transition in PSC composition is observed are shown respectively in Fig. 10 and Fig. 11. The negative and positive values of ' ΔT ' (' ΔHNO_3 ') indicate the cooling (uptake) and warming (release) of the air parcels (gas-phase HNO_3). As ' ΔT ' and ' ΔHNO_3 ' exhibit skewed distributions (not shown here), their median values are chosen to represent the average (Huff, 2023).

365



370 *Figure 10: Observed change in (a) temperature (ΔT) and (b) HNO_3 (ΔHNO_3) of the air parcels in which various formation pathways leading to LNAT formation are shown. The temperature at which LNAT forms is shown on the $T - T_{\text{ice}}$ temperature coordinate in panel (c). 'N/A' represents no availability of data. In the boxplot, the redline marks the median of the respective quantities, and the left and right whiskers represent the minimum and maximum of the observed changes, respectively.*

The results in Fig. 9 b show that 82 % of LNAT is formed through the 'NC-to-LNAT' pathway, during which the corresponding air parcels are cooled (average $\Delta T = -0.75$ K) as seen in Fig. 10a and led to the uptake of HNO_3 (average $\Delta \text{HNO}_3 = -0.8$ ppbv) as seen in Fig. 10b. Though, according to CALIPSO PSC classification, NC refers to 'No Cloud' detected, it may yet contain either (i) stratospheric liquid sulfate aerosol immersed with foreign nuclei (such as meteoritic dust or smoke aerosols) or (ii) large NAT at very low number density, such that their optical signal is below the detection threshold of CALIPSO (Lambert et al., 2016). The former scenario leads to PSC formation through the uptake of HNO_3 (upon cooling of the air), and the latter leads to denitrification, which increases gas-phase HNO_3 (upon warming). Given an observed cooling and uptake of HNO_3 , we consider that 'NC' primarily corresponds to the presence of stratospheric aerosols rather than large NAT. Furthermore, as stated earlier, the LNAT is a mixture of liquid STS and solid NAT (Pitts et al., 2011). The liquid STS can form through a homogeneous nucleation process from Stratospheric Sulfuric Acid (SSA; $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$) which is ubiquitous in the stratosphere (Junge et al., 1961). As the temperature decreases, the SSA transforms into STS homogeneously, upon the uptake of H_2O and HNO_3 (Carslaw et al., 1994). Observational evidence based on ground-based lidar data supports the formation of STS through homogeneous nucleation (Biele et al., 2001). Hence, owing to the

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observed decrease in temperature and gas-phase HNO_3 , we primarily attribute the formation of liquid STS in the LNAT mixture to the homogeneous nucleation process.

415 Unlike STS, the homogeneous nucleation of NAT is kinetically suppressed (Koop et al., 1995). Thus, the
420 heterogeneous nucleation processes such as (i) ice-induced NAT nucleation and (ii) ice-free NAT nucleation are
425 the possible ways of solid NAT formation. The former requires the presence of ice PSC which occurs only when
430 the temperature $T_{\text{ice}} < 0$ (Carslaw et al., 1999). The latter requires the presence of solid foreign nuclei such as
435 meteoritic dust, volcanic ash, soot, or H_2SO_4 hydrates which occurs even when the temperature is above T_{ice}
440 (Iraci et al., 1995; Peter and Groö, 2012). We noticed that the majority of the LNAT is formed via the 'NC-to-
445 LNAT' pathway at temperatures $T_{\text{ice}} > 0$, averaging around $T_{\text{ice}} = 1.6$ K (Fig. 10c). Thus, the ice-free nucleation
450 process is the primary cause of the observed LNAT formation rather than the ice-induced nucleation process,
455 which is further substantiated by the observed uptake of HNO_3 and cooling of the air parcels.

We have observed that 15 % of the LNAT is formed through the 'Ice-to-LNAT' pathway (Fig. 9b), where the
460 corresponding air parcels are found to be warming (average $\Delta T = 0.8$ K; Fig. 10a) and led to the release of HNO_3
465 (average $\Delta\text{HNO}_3 = 0.9$ ppbv; Fig. 10b). It occurred at a temperature of $T_{\text{ice}} = -0.9$ K (Fig. 10c). These
470 observations rule out the possibility of heterogeneous nucleation of LNAT on ice, which occurs only after
475 homogeneous nucleation of ice and requires $T_{\text{ice}} < -3$ K (Koop et al., 1995). Hence, the average ΔT and
480 temperature at which LNAT is formed indicate that it is likely that the ice already nucleated on LNAT, and upon
485 warming, the ice evaporated, leading to the exposure of the LNAT.

490 In the case of the 'STS-to-LNAT' pathway, which is responsible for 2.8 % of LNAT formation (Fig. 9b), the
495 corresponding air parcels are found to be cooling (average $\Delta T = -0.7$ K) and resulted in condensation of HNO_3
500 (average $\Delta\text{HNO}_3 = -0.85$ ppbv) (Fig. 10a, b). Laboratory experiments have revealed that the homogeneous
505 nucleation rate of NAT on STS is extremely low for stratospheric conditions (Hanson and Ravishankara, 1991;
510 1992). However, the STS, with the inclusion of foreign nuclei, can potentially serve as nuclei for NAT formation
515 (Koop et al., 1997). Ground-based lidar observations by Biele et al. (2001) provided evidence of the existence of
520 such STS with foreign nuclei inclusion. As such, solid NAT would have nucleated on STS with foreign nuclei
525 inclusion and thus transformed STS into LNAT mixture. A very meager fraction of the ENAT (~0.7 %) was
530 transformed to LNAT and since there is no valid corresponding temperature data, the formation process is
535 inconclusive.

415



3.5.2 Ice formation pathways

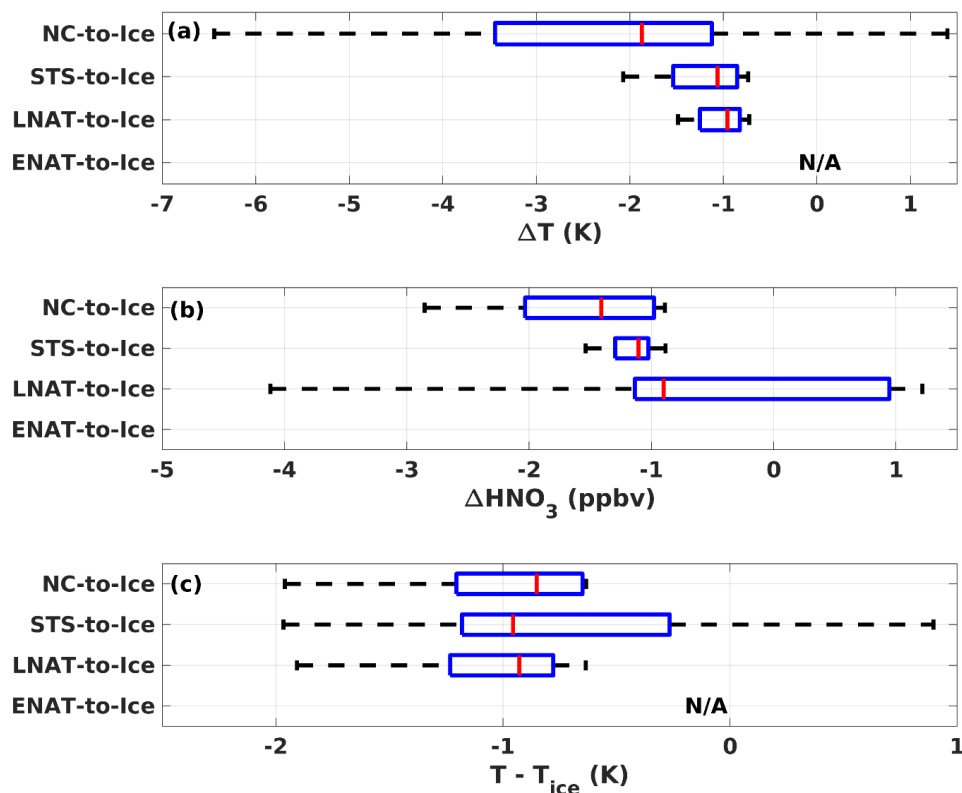


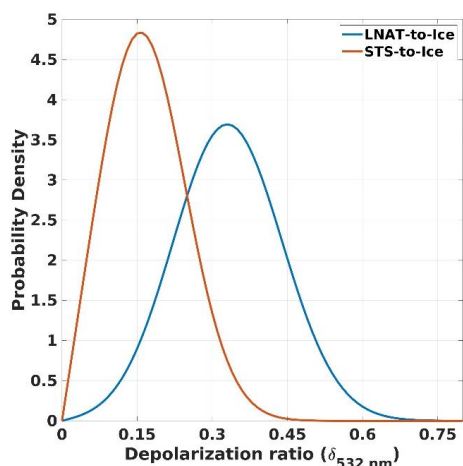
Figure 11: Same as Fig. 10 but for the case of ice PSC.

420 Figure 9d reveals that the most dominant formation pathway for ice formation is ‘LNAT-to-Ice’ (77 %), during
 which average ΔT is found to be -1 K, indicating cooling of the corresponding air parcels. The average ΔHNO_3
 is found to be -0.9 ppbv, indicating an uptake of HNO_3 (Fig. 11 a, b). It occurred at the temperature of $T - T_{\text{ice}} = -$
 0.95 K (Fig. 11 c). The NAT is known to act as potential nuclei for ice formation (Khosrawi et al., 2011; Engel et
 al., 2013; Voigt et al., 2018). Hence, based on the observed change in temperature and the temperature at which
 425 the ice formed, the ice nucleating on the existing LNAT is the most feasible pathway.

Following the LNAT-to-Ice pathway, 17 % of the ice is formed through the ‘NC-to-Ice’ pathway (Fig. 9d). During
 the ice formation through this pathway, a relatively rapid decrease in temperature, with an average ΔT of -1.9 K
 and a maximum cooling of -6.5 K, is observed (Fig. 11a). Furthermore, an uptake of HNO_3 with an average
 ΔHNO_3 of -1.4 ppbv is also observed (Fig. 11b). While homogeneous nucleation of ice is another possibility, it
 occurs only under supercooled conditions at temperatures between $T - T_{\text{ice}} = -3$ K and $T - T_{\text{ice}} = -4$ K (Koop et al.,
 430 1998). But the observed temperature at which these ices are formed never fell below $T - T_{\text{ice}} = -2$ K, ruling out the
 possibility of homogeneous ice nucleation (Fig. 11c). It indicates that the ‘NC-to-Ice’ is possibly a tandem of two



pathways described above: ‘NC-to-LNAT’ and ‘LNAT-to-Ice’ (Peter, 1997). Due to the rapid temperature decrease, both these processes probably occurred in a relatively shorter time frame.



435

Figure 12: Probability density of the CALIPSO PSC depolarization ratio ($\delta_{532 \text{ nm}}$) for ice formed through the ‘LNAT-to-Ice’ pathway (blue line), and ‘STS-to-Ice’ pathway (orange line).

We observed just 5.1 % of the ice is formed through the ‘STS-to-Ice’ pathway (Fig. 9d). This process occurred at the temperature $T-T_{\text{ice}} = -0.95 \text{ K}$ with an average ΔT and ΔHNO_3 of -0.7 K , and -0.9 ppbv respectively (Fig. 11a, b). Similar to the ‘STS-to-LNAT’ pathway, the STS with solid nuclei inclusion could serve as nuclei for ice formation (Koop et al., 1998; 2000; Engel et al., 2013). The temperature at which this pathway has taken place indicates that the heterogeneous nucleation of ice on STS, with solid nuclei inclusion, could be a possible formation mechanism. Furthermore, we observed that the mean particulate depolarization ratio (δ_{532}) of ice nucleated on STS (‘STS-to-Ice’ pathway) is 0.15, which is less than half of the depolarization ratio of ice nucleated on LNAT (‘LNAT-to-Ice’ pathway; Fig. 12). This observation is consistent with the results from a previous aircraft campaign conducted over Arctic PSC, where the authors showed that δ_{532} of ice PSC exhibited bimodal distribution and ice formed through the ‘STS-to-Ice’ pathway has relatively low δ_{532} compared to the ice formed through ‘LNAT-to-Ice’ pathway (Voigt et al., 2018). It is possible because STS is always in the liquid state and has a spherical shape, leading to low δ_{532} . Hence the ice nucleation on the STS is also likely to lead to ‘near-spherical’ morphology. On the other hand, LNAT always exists in the solid state, and due to its non-spherical morphology, δ_{532} tends to be relatively larger than that of STS. The rest of the ice (2 %) is formed through the ‘ENAT-to-Ice’ pathway. Since there is no valid data for the corresponding thermodynamics parameters, further discussion on this is omitted.

From the above discussions, it is clear that the majority of the LNAT (82 %) and ice (77 %) are formed through ‘NC-to-LNAT’ and ‘LNAT-to-Ice’ pathways respectively. It indicates that LNAT nucleated on the stratospheric aerosols, which subsequently acted as nuclei for ice formation. Moreover, the ‘LNAT-to-Ice’ conversion should have occurred rapidly to explain the high anomalous ice areal coverage. In fact, both ‘NC-to-LNAT’ and ‘LNAT-to-Ice’ pathways are parts of the three-stage PSC formation model (Peter, 1997). During the first stage, the heterogeneously nucleated solid H_2SO_4 hydrates on other foreign nuclei such as meteoritic dust, soot, etc. present

455



460 in the atmosphere (Luo et al., 1994). Along with these nuclei, aerosols from the black summer event also participated in this stage during Austral winter 2020. In the second stage, these nuclei lead to heterogeneous nucleation of solid NAT, and in the third stage, upon cooling further, the ice nucleates on the pre-existing NAT (Peter, 1997; Lowe and MacKenzie, 2008). These results corroborate the hypothesis which we made earlier that majority of the Antarctic ice PSC forms by nucleating on the pre-existing NAT PSC.

465 In summary, we report the strong enhancement in aerosol loading in the lower stratosphere caused by the black summer event. In early 2020, it significantly affected the stratospheric chemistry by promoting increased production of HNO_3 at an altitude of ~ 25 km and directly injecting H_2O at an altitude of ~ 17 km. Subsequently, during Austral Winter 2020, anomalously high PSC areal coverage was observed, which conveys that the modified stratospheric chemistry strongly influenced the PSC formation. Furthermore, we observed that the ice areal
470 coverage exceeded three standard deviations with respect to the background mean while the LNAT remained within one standard deviation. To explain this behavior, we developed a novel methodology which retrieves the relative contribution of various PSC formation pathways from satellite measurements. The results revealed that most of the LNAT is formed via a heterogeneous nucleation process assisted by the aerosols from the black summer event. Subsequently, these LNAT rapidly acted as nuclei for ice formation, resulting in anomalous high
475 areal coverage of ice PSC. The consistency of the observed thermodynamics of the PSC formation process with our existing knowledge indicates that our methodology could efficiently retrieve the PSC formation pathways using satellite measurements. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study which provides relative contributions of various LNAT and ice formation pathways. These results provide deeper insights into the microphysical processes through which the aerosols from extreme bushfire events (like black summer) can
480 influence the stratospheric chemistry and PSC formation.

4 Conclusions

Australia's extreme bushfire event of 2019/20, also referred to as black summer, injected 0.4 to 2 Tg of aerosols into the stratosphere, initiating a series of events. We carried out an extensive investigation on the impacts of bushfire emissions on the Polar Stratospheric Clouds (PSCs), using multi-satellite and reanalyses data. The key
485 findings from this study are:

1. During the austral autumn of 2020, we found a significant increase in gas phase nitric acid (HNO_3) and water vapor (H_2O) (principal constituents of PSCs) in high latitude region of the southern hemisphere at the altitudes of ~ 25 and ~ 17 km respectively. The former is due to the enhanced dinitrogen pentoxide hydrolysis process, caused by the increased bushfire aerosols. The latter is attributed to the direct injection of the water vapor by the black
490 summer event.
2. The increase in HNO_3 was expected to enhance HNO_3 -containing PSCs like STS and NAT. While the areal coverage of STS peaked significantly, no notable enhancement in LNAT was observed. However, there was an anomalous increase in the areal coverage of ice PSC.
3. Most of the LNAT ($\sim 82\%$) were formed through heterogeneous nucleation on bushfire aerosols. Consequently,
495 these LNAT served as nuclei for 77% of ice PSC formation. This rapid conversion of LNAT to ice was responsible for the anomalous high areal coverage of ice PSC.



In the context of climate change scenarios, a warming troposphere and cooling stratosphere are anticipated. The former is expected to increase the frequency of extreme wildfire events and the latter is projected to enhance the PSC areal coverage, together possibly delaying the ozone recovery process. The findings from this study will contribute to a deeper understanding of the influence of extreme wildfire events on PSC dynamics.

Data availability

Processed data are available upon request.

Author contribution

SP conceived the work and carried out the scientific data analysis. SP, NSA, KS, KKM, and SKS were involved in the scientific interpretation of the results, leading to the formulation of the manuscript. SP prepared the initial draft with input from NSA. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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