

19 **Abstract**

20 This paper introduces the special collection in *Geophysical Research Letters* and *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres* on the exceptional stratospheric polar vortex in 2019/2020. Papers in this collection show that the 2019/2020 stratospheric polar vortex was the strongest, most persistent, and coldest on record in the Arctic. The unprecedented Arctic chemical processing and ozone loss in spring 2020 has been studied using numerous satellite and ground-based datasets and chemistry-transport models. Quantitative estimates of chemical loss are broadly consistent among the studies and show profile loss of about the same magnitude as in the Arctic in 2011, but with most loss at lower altitudes; column loss was comparable to or larger than that in 2011. Several papers show evidence of dynamical coupling from the mesosphere down to the surface. Studies of tropospheric influence and impacts link the exceptionally strong vortex to reflection of upward propagating waves, and show coupling to tropospheric anomalies including extreme heat, precipitation, windstorms, and marine cold air outbreaks. Predictability of the exceptional stratospheric polar vortex in 2019/2020 and related predictability of surface conditions are explored. The exceptionally strong stratospheric polar vortex in 2019/2020 highlights the extreme interannual variability in the Arctic winter/spring stratosphere and the far-reaching consequences of such extremes.

37 **Plain Language Summary**

38 The Arctic stratospheric polar vortex – a band of strong winds roughly encircling the pole at about 65°N latitude from about 15 to 50 km above the Earth’s surface that forms every winter – was exceptionally strong during the 2019/2020 winter. The strong vortex in the stratosphere was linked to unusual conditions at both higher and lower altitudes. This collection of papers explores the far-reaching consequences of the exceptionally strong stratospheric polar vortex in 2019/2020, including impacts on Arctic chemical ozone loss and on surface weather conditions. Chemical ozone loss in spring 2020 matched or exceeded the most previously on record (for 2011) and showed some features similar to the larger loss that occurs over the Antarctic every spring. The exceptionally strong stratospheric polar vortex was linked to weather extremes including record heat, unusual patterns of precipitation, marine cold air outbreaks, and windstorms.

49 **1 Introduction**

50 The 2019/2020 Northern Hemisphere (NH) stratospheric polar vortex was exceptionally strong and cold throughout the winter and spring. The prolonged period of low vortex temperatures combined with suppressed poleward ozone transport led to record low polar cap total column ozone between February and April of 2020 (Manney et al., 2020; Lawrence et al., 2020; Feng et al., 2021). Chemical ozone depletion was more extreme than previously observed in the NH during prior cold stratospheric winters, including that in the most recent comparable year 2011 (Wohltmann et al., 2020). Extremes were also observed in the troposphere. In particular, record high positive values of the Arctic Oscillation (AO) index in early 2020 concurrent with the strong vortex (Lawrence et al., 2020) suggest significant dynamical coupling between the polar stratospheric and tropospheric circulations.

61 These remarkable characteristics of the 2020 winter and spring season sparked significant interest among the members of the scientific community. A special collection of papers devoted to this topic was created across the American Geophysical Union journals under the name *The Exceptional Arctic Stratospheric Polar Vortex in 2019/2020: Causes and Consequences*. The call for papers seeks contributions on topics including *detailed meteorological descriptions of 2019/2020 stratospheric vortex characteristics and evolution in the context of wave fluxes and other atmospheric modes of variability; anomalous transport in the stratospheric vortex; lower stratospheric polar processing diagnos-*

69 *tics and chemical processing, including polar stratospheric clouds (PSCs) and ozone ex-*
 70 *trêmes; tropospheric/surface precursors and feedbacks; surface impacts via downward strato-*
 71 *sphere/troposphere coupling; effects on Arctic upper tropospheric flow and stratosphere/troposphere*
 72 *exchange; relationships to anomalous quasi-biennial oscillation (QBO) variations in 2020;*
 73 *implications for subseasonal to seasonal predictability; and possible relationships to cli-*
 74 *mate change and/or climate interventions.* These research topics reflect the known in-
 75 terconnections between the state of the stratospheric polar vortex and other elements
 76 of the Earth’s system and its modes of variability. The vortex strength is controlled by
 77 variations in the intensity and propagation of planetary waves of mainly tropospheric
 78 origin (Matsuno, 1970; Polvani & Waugh, 2004) and non-linear dynamical processes within
 79 the stratosphere (Albers & Birner, 2014; de la Cámara et al., 2019). Vortex variability
 80 in turn impacts polar stratospheric ozone via both transport and chemical mechanisms
 81 (Weber et al., 2011; WMO, 2018). Variability of the the stratospheric polar vortex also
 82 influences the surface weather on timescales of weeks to months, providing a source of
 83 subseasonal to seasonal predictability.

84 The present paper introduces this special collection. In addition to the motivation
 85 for it presented in this Introduction, this work provides a broad summary, categorized
 86 by main research topics, of the publications accepted to the collection so far. At the time
 87 of writing there are 26 papers in this special collection on subjects ranging from the dy-
 88 namics and chemistry of the 2019/2020 polar stratosphere and mesosphere, to surface
 89 impacts of the stratospheric polar vortex and implications for subseasonal and seasonal
 90 forecasting, to connections with the Montreal Protocol and climate change.

91 The dynamics of the stratospheric polar vortex and the exceptionally low values
 92 of total column ozone emerge as the central themes of the research results discussed in
 93 this special collection. Both topics have found their way into the mainstream media and
 94 popular science outlets, prompting several authors to reevaluate the language that re-
 95 searchers use to communicate these topics to the public. Specifically, many experts ex-
 96 press their concerns about the often imprecise and sometimes misleading use of the terms
 97 “polar vortex” and “ozone hole” in public discourse and scientific reporting.

98 A commentary in this special collection (Manney, Butler, et al., 2022) discusses the
 99 uses and misuses of the term “polar vortex” in popular media as well as scientific liter-
 100 ature. They argue that while this well-established term accurately describes a well-defined
 101 major feature that dominates the circulation in the polar winter stratosphere, attempt-
 102 ing to use this term to describe the tropospheric circulation is misguided, as that circula-
 103 tion is best characterized in terms of regional undulations of jet streams and the con-
 104 ventional language of ridges and troughs.

105 The term “ozone hole” when applied to instances of extreme ozone loss in the Arctic
 106 is equally problematic. While several metrics of ozone loss in 2020 approached val-
 107 ues typical for the Antarctic (Section 3), occurrences of extremely low ozone were spa-
 108 tially localized and short-lived compared to those in the Antarctic. Wohltmann et al.
 109 (2020), as well as discussion published with Dameris et al. (2021, not in this special is-
 110 sue), briefly present arguments against referring to the polar ozone anomaly in 2020 as
 111 an “ozone hole”, echoing previous arguments made in light of the 2011 Arctic ozone de-
 112 pletion (e.g., Solomon et al., 2014). These sources argue that the term “ozone hole” is
 113 inappropriate and potentially misleading for even the most extreme instances to date of
 114 low ozone resulting from chemical loss over the Arctic.

115 This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 summarizes and elucidates links among
 116 the contributions focused on dynamical processes in and affected by the stratospheric
 117 polar vortex. Section 3 summarizes the results of contributions focused on chemical pro-
 118 cessing and ozone loss in the 2019/2020 stratospheric polar vortex, including the observed
 119 ozone extremes. Section 4 discusses papers that focus on further implications, includ-
 120 ing subseasonal to seasonal predictability in the context of the 2019/2020 NH winter and

121 spring, and effects of chemical processing in the stratospheric vortex on the troposphere
122 and surface. Section 5 provides a brief summary and discusses broad implications in the
123 context of ozone recovery and climate change.

124 **2 Dynamical Features and Impacts of the Stratospheric Vortex in 2019/2020**

125 Some measures of the anomalous stratospheric polar vortex strength and longevity
126 are shown in Fig. 1. According to several diagnostics of vortex strength (including the
127 NAM index shown in Fig. 1a, vortex-edge averaged wind speeds in Fig. 1b, and poten-
128 tial vorticity gradients shown in Fig. 1e,f), the vortex was the strongest and most per-
129 sistent in a record of over 40 years (Lawrence et al., 2020; Manney et al., 2020). Lawrence
130 et al. (2020) noted that it represented the most extreme case of two-way stratosphere-
131 troposphere coupling on record. Figure 1a shows that anomalies related to the excep-
132 tionally strong vortex extend from the lower mesosphere to the surface, as discussed in
133 detail in several papers described below. The stratospheric vortex was also unusually large
134 in the lower through middle stratosphere, especially in spring (Fig. 1c), demonstrating
135 its exceptional persistence, as well as unusually pole-centered (Fig. 1d). Further exam-
136 ination of vortex “moments” calculated as in Lawrence and Manney (2018) indicate that
137 it was more circular (less distorted) than is typical. Lawrence et al. (2020) introduce many
138 of the “causes and consequences” discussed further in individual focused papers. The
139 upward influence on and of the stratosphere is apparent in the combination of weak tro-
140 pospheric wave driving (Lawrence et al., 2020; Weber et al., 2021) and downward cou-
141 pling events following the development of a reflective configuration of the stratospheric
142 vortex, which resulted in the extreme robustness and persistence of the 2019/2020 Ar-
143 ctic stratospheric vortex (Lawrence et al., 2020). The persistent low temperatures and
144 vortex confinement accompanying the exceptionally strong and long-lasting stratospheric
145 polar vortex in 2019/2020 drove chemical processing leading to unprecedented lower strato-
146 spheric ozone loss (e.g., Lawrence et al., 2020; Inness et al., 2020; Manney et al., 2020;
147 Weber et al., 2021; Wohltmann et al., 2020), as analyzed further in the papers discussed
148 in section 3.

149 In addition to Lawrence et al. (2020) and discussion in papers related to polar pro-
150 cessing (see section 3), several papers in the special collection discuss aspects of verti-
151 cal dynamical coupling, including coupling to the troposphere and surface impacts (Lawrence
152 et al., 2020; Dahlke et al., 2022; Rupp et al., 2022), connections to the upper stratosphere
153 and mesosphere lower-thermosphere (MLT) (Lukianova et al., 2021; Ma et al., 2022), and
154 vertical coupling during the spring vortex breakup (Matthias et al., 2021).

155 While much focus has been given to surface impacts following a disrupted strato-
156 spheric polar vortex, or sudden stratospheric warming, the winter/spring of 2020 demon-
157 strated that persistent coupling of a strong polar vortex to the tropospheric circulation
158 also has substantial effects on weather and extremes. In particular, the 2020 strong pol-
159 ar vortex was associated with the most positive January-March averaged Arctic Oscil-
160 lation (AO) in the 70-year reanalysis record, and record high temperatures over Siberia
161 (Lawrence et al., 2020). Other weather extremes were also observed during this time pe-
162 riod, including extreme marine cold air outbreaks over the Fram Strait (Dahlke et al.,
163 2022). Wetter than average conditions over northern Europe and drier than average con-
164 ditions over southern Europe were consistent with the strongly positive phase of the AO
165 (Lawrence et al., 2020). However, whether these anomalous patterns and extremes can
166 be directly attributed to the downward influence of the stratosphere on the surface is less
167 clear; while circulation extremes from the troposphere to the stratosphere were vertically
168 coupled, they may have arisen by “fortuitous alignment” (Rupp et al., 2022). Nonethe-
169 less spring 2020 exemplified how strong vertical coupling in the atmosphere can result
170 in diverse extremes.

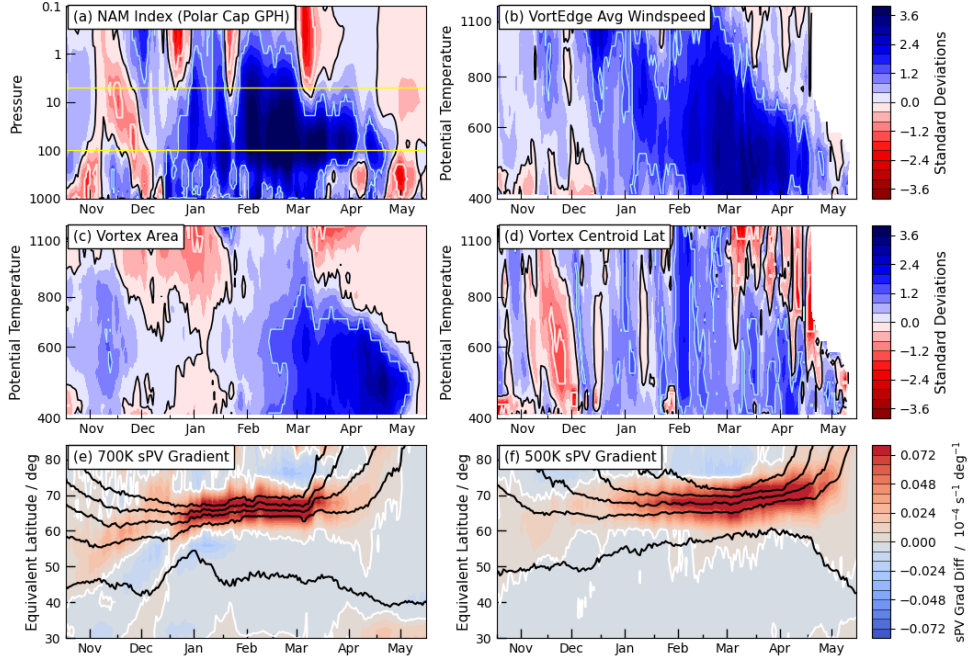


Figure 1. Example metrics of stratospheric polar vortex strength in 2019/2020 calculated from the MERRA-2 reanalysis (Gelaro et al., 2017): standard anomalies of (a) polar cap geopotential height (calculated as in Lawrence et al., 2020), (b) vortex-edge averaged wind speed, (c) vortex area, and (d) vortex centroid latitude; remaining panels show anomalies from climatology of scaled PV (sPV) gradients in the (e) middle (700 K) and (f) lower (500 K) stratosphere; black overlays show sPV contours in the vortex edge region. Fields in (b), (c), and (d) are calculated as in Lawrence and Manney (2018). Yellow horizontal lines in (a) show approximate vertical range shown in (b) through (d).

171 The effects of vertical coupling are also seen up into the mesospheric/lower ther-
 172 mosphere (MLT). A study of the climatology and characteristic patterns of the spring-
 173 time transition in the stratosphere and mesosphere showed 2019/2020 to be a key ex-
 174 ample of a springtime transition for a “no negative NAM” case Matthias et al. (2021).
 175 In this class of spring transition, as in 2020, a minor warming in the upper stratosphere/lower
 176 mesosphere in early spring is unable to propagate downward due to the strong winds in
 177 the mid-stratosphere, thereby delaying the spring transition in until late spring, when
 178 it progresses smoothly downward. The most distinct features of the composite of no neg-
 179 ative NAM cases arose from features of the evolution in 2019/2020, highlighting the unique
 180 extremes of the 2019/2020 polar vortex.

181 Additional unusual aspects of the circulation extending above the stratosphere were
 182 seen in the evolution of disturbances in winds and temperatures in the upper stratosphere/lower
 183 mesosphere (USLM) and the MLT: Lukianova et al. (2021) showed USLM disturbances
 184 in December 2019 and early January 2020 similar to those often preceding SSWs, but
 185 which in 2019/2020 were instead followed by episodic USLM and MLT zonal wind ac-
 186 celerations and rapid cooling of the entire stratospheric layer. Their results appear con-
 187 sistent with an extension into the MLT of the “split” upper stratospheric jet reported
 188 by Lawrence et al. (2020) that played a role in the wave reflection. Quasi-10-day waves
 189 in the MLT also showed anomalous behavior, especially in that they were unusually weak
 190 during a minor SSW that affected the upper stratosphere in February 2020, whereas they
 191 are typically enhanced following polar warming in the stratosphere (Ma et al., 2022). Ma
 192 et al. (2022)’s analysis suggested that the extremely strong stratospheric vortex was in-
 193 strumental in inhibiting upward propagation of quasi-10-day waves from the stratosphere.

194 These papers provide a broad view of the dynamics of the exceptional Arctic strato-
 195 spheric polar vortex in 2019/2020, including its upward influence through the mesosphere
 196 and downward influence to the surface. In the following sections we synthesize work on
 197 further consequences of the exceptional vortex strength in 2019/2020.

198 **3 Polar Processing and Arctic Ozone Loss in 2019/2020**

199 The process of chemical ozone loss in the lower stratospheric polar vortex is well
 200 understood and depends critically on heterogeneous chlorine activation on liquid aerosols
 201 and polar stratospheric clouds (PSCs) (e.g., Tritscher et al., 2021, not in this special is-
 202 sue). This process typically becomes significant below the formation temperature of Ni-
 203 tric Acid Trihydrate (NAT) PSCs, therefore this threshold temperature is commonly used
 204 to locate areas of stratospheric ozone loss. When integrated over the winter, 2019/2020
 205 had the largest so-defined PSC potential on record in the Arctic (Lawrence et al., 2020;
 206 Wohltmann et al., 2020) because, while temperatures low enough for PSC existence per-
 207 sisted similarly long in 2020 to those in 2011, in late 2019 temperatures dropped below
 208 the PSC threshold in a large vertical region much earlier than they did in late 2010 (Lawrence
 209 et al., 2020; Manney et al., 2020; Wohltmann et al., 2020; Weber et al., 2021). PSC po-
 210 tential at some times during the Arctic winters of both 2011 and 2020 (including dur-
 211 ing fall and early winter 2019/2020) matched or exceeded that in some Antarctic win-
 212 ters (Wohltmann et al., 2020). Consistent with these results inferred from temperatures,
 213 DeLand et al. (2020) and Bognar et al. (2021) used observations of PSCs to document
 214 unprecedented Arctic PSC activity in March, comparable to the average in mid-August
 215 in the Antarctic.

216 Also critical to polar processing and ozone loss is the degree of confinement of air
 217 that is primed for ozone depletion inside the polar vortex, and how it is transported within
 218 the vortex. In addition to the metrics already discussed of exceptional polar vortex strength
 219 and longevity (Fig. 1e, f, Lawrence et al., 2020; Manney et al., 2020, also show diagnos-
 220 tics that are indicative of unusually low mixing), Manney, Millán, et al. (2022) discussed
 221 the unusual transport throughout the 2019/2020 winter, showing that in early winter

222 unusual long-lived trace gas distributions arose primarily from descent of preexisting anoma-
223 lies entrained into the vortex as it formed, whereas in spring trace gas anomalies arose
224 primarily from inhibited mixing into the polar regions related to the late polar vortex
225 breakup. Further, Curbelo et al. (2021) explored aspects of the evolution of and trans-
226 port within the polar vortex during a vortex-split event in the lower to middle strato-
227 sphere in the period preceding the springtime vortex breakup. They detailed the lower-
228 stratospheric vortex evolution and transfer of air from the main to offspring vortex dur-
229 ing the split event, showing that air in the offspring vortex originated well inside the main
230 vortex, but the air with lowest ozone values remained confined within the main vortex
231 (which then persisted into mid-May). These results, in conjunction with the evidence
232 of unprecedented Arctic ozone destruction summarized below, have important implica-
233 tions for how ozone-depleted air may be transported as the vortex is eroding in spring,
234 possibly affecting (e.g., through enhanced surface UV, see section 4) densely populated
235 regions.

236 Studies in this special collection focusing on observations and/or modeling of chemi-
237 cal ozone loss in the Arctic in 2019/2020 use satellite datasets including those from: the
238 Aura Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS) (Manney et al., 2020; Manney, Butler, et al., 2022;
239 Wohltmann et al., 2020, 2021; Feng et al., 2021; Grooß & Müller, 2021), the Atmospheric
240 Chemistry Experiment-Fourier Transform Spectrometer (ACE-FTS) (Manney et al., 2020;
241 Bognar et al., 2021; Grooß & Müller, 2021), the Aura Ozone Monitoring Instrument (Bernhard
242 et al., 2020), the TROPOspheric Monitoring Instrument (TROPOMI), the Global Ozone
243 Monitoring Experiment-2 (GOME-2), the SCanning Imaging Absorption spectroMeter
244 for Atmospheric CartographY (SCIAMACHY), and the Ozone Mapping and Profiler
245 Suite - Limb Profiler (OMPS-LP) (last four by Weber et al., 2021). In addition, several
246 studies use ground- and/or balloon-based datasets (Bognar et al., 2021; Wohltmann et
247 al., 2020). Inness et al. (2020) presented results from the Copernicus Atmosphere Mon-
248 itoring service (CAMS) chemical reanalysis and the ERA5 reanalysis, both of which as-
249 simulate many of the satellite datasets listed above.

250 Quantitative estimates of Arctic ozone loss are highly uncertain and difficult to com-
251 pare because of many factors including different methods and datasets (e.g., WMO, 2007;
252 Griffin et al., 2019) and the strong influence of dynamical and transport processes that
253 themselves may be represented differently in different meteorological datasets used in
254 the calculations (and references therein Santee et al., 2022). Papers in this special col-
255 lection (Manney et al., 2020; Wohltmann et al., 2020; Grooß & Müller, 2021) used MLS-
256 Match (method as described in Livesey et al., 2015), vortex-averaged descent, and CTM
257 passive subtraction methods to estimate chemical loss in ozone profiles. Given differences
258 in datasets, methods, time periods, and definitions of vortex regions, their results are very
259 consistent, estimating 2.3–2.8 ppmv of chemical loss in spring 2020, comparable in mag-
260 nitude to that in 2011, but with maximum loss at a lower altitude. Several papers also
261 presented estimates of chemical loss in column ozone. Again these span numerous datasets
262 and methods, including differences in the geographic or vertical domains for which the
263 estimates are calculated, but show good consistency, with estimates of maximum vor-
264 tex or local loss ranging from about 108 to 130 DU (Wohltmann et al., 2020; Bognar et
265 al., 2021; Feng et al., 2021; Grooß & Müller, 2021; Weber et al., 2021).

266 The above estimates of ozone loss each include comparisons with 2011, the previ-
267 ous year with the largest Arctic chemical ozone loss on record. In general the conclusions
268 indicate that the amount of chemical loss was comparable in the two years, with some
269 studies stating that each one showed slightly more. Several of the studies noted an un-
270 usually weak dynamical resupply of ozone via descent in the vortex in 2020 compared
271 to that in previous winters including 2011 (Manney et al., 2020; Wohltmann et al., 2020;
272 Feng et al., 2021), which may also contribute to the difficulty in making comparisons and
273 the large uncertainties. Nevertheless, the overall picture of chemical ozone loss that emerges
274 is very consistent across the studies.

275 The temperature and PSC evolution in the 2019/2020 Arctic winter, as well as ev-
 276 idence of vortex-wide denitrification (Manney et al., 2020; Wohltmann et al., 2021), sug-
 277 gests that it was more “Antarctic-like” than any previous Arctic winter on record (in-
 278 cluding 2010/2011). Chlorine from observations (e.g., Manney et al., 2020) and models
 279 (Grooß & Müller, 2021; Wohltmann et al., 2021) shows a more Antarctic-like pattern of
 280 chlorine deactivation in that the reformation of ClONO₂ was slower and HCl reformed
 281 very rapidly and to high values that far overshoot those in fall before chlorine activation
 282 – similar to patterns seen in Antarctic spring under very low ozone and denitrified con-
 283 ditions (e.g., Douglass et al., 1995; Douglass & Kawa, 1999). Both observational and mod-
 284 eling results in this special collection thus indicate a progression of polar processing and
 285 ozone loss that was in between those typical for the Northern and Southern Hemispheres,
 286 and emphasize the exceptionally low ozone (Manney et al., 2020; Grooß & Müller, 2021;
 287 Wohltmann et al., 2021), with Wohltmann et al. (2021) noting that “only an additional
 288 21–46 h below PSC temperatures and in sunlight would have been necessary to reduce
 289 ozone to near zero locally”. Though unprecedented in the Arctic, the extreme ozone loss
 290 in spring 2020 was still far from the conditions seen in the Antarctic that we refer to as
 291 an “ozone hole”.

292 4 Further Implications

293 Impacts of the strong 2019/2020 stratospheric polar vortex extend to effects of anoma-
 294 lous ozone evolution (via transport, chemistry, and radiative processes) on surface vari-
 295 ability, including changes in UV (Bernhard et al., 2020), possible impacts of stratospheric
 296 ozone loss on surface temperatures (Xia et al., 2021) and tropospheric ozone (Steinbrecht
 297 et al., 2021; Bouarar et al., 2021), and possible implications for subseasonal to seasonal
 298 prediction (Lee et al., 2020; Rao & Garfinkel, 2020, 2021b).

299 One very direct consequence of exceptionally low ozone in the Arctic springtime
 300 polar vortex is on surface UV. Bernhard et al. (2020) found monthly mean low total ozone
 301 column anomalies up to ~45% colocated with high UV index (UVI) anomalies of over
 302 ~80% in March and April 2020, as compared to 30% and 35%, respectively, in 2011. High
 303 UVI anomalies exceeded 9 standard deviations in daily data at some stations underly-
 304 ing the polar vortex. Because the solar elevation was still relatively low when the vor-
 305 tex broke up, these anomalous values did not result in high absolute UVI values (in con-
 306 trast to those in the Antarctic spring, when the ozone-depleted vortex persists longer into
 307 spring/summer than any on record in the Arctic, even in 2020).

308 Given the strong coupling between dynamics, ozone, and radiation in the spring-
 309 time polar stratosphere, and the influence of these feedbacks on surface climate variabil-
 310 ity and trends in the Southern Hemisphere, efforts have been increasing to better un-
 311 derstand if these feedbacks also play a role in the Arctic (e.g., WMO, 2018, Chapter 5).
 312 Dynamical coupling appears to dominate over direct influences of stratospheric ozone
 313 on surface climate [ref]. However, ozone feedbacks may be important for fully captur-
 314 ing the stratospheric influence on the surface. For example, Arctic ozone loss such as ob-
 315 served in 2019/2020 can reduce lower stratospheric static stability, which may increase
 316 high clouds and thus longwave radiation at the surface, contributing to surface warm-
 317 ing (Maleska et al., 2020; Xia et al., 2021, former not in this special collection). Not all
 318 of the complex feedbacks among processes lead to negative impacts. For example, the
 319 strong polar vortex/positive AO (Section 2) led to reductions in tropospheric ozone com-
 320 parable to or greater than those due to the influence of COVID19-associated emission
 321 reductions (Steinbrecht et al., 2021; Bouarar et al., 2021).

322 The persistence of the two-way coupling between the troposphere and stratosphere
 323 in 2020 suggests that the strong polar vortex event and its connection to surface climate
 324 may have shown enhanced predictive skill on subseasonal to seasonal timescales. For sub-
 325 seasonal (2–3 weeks) forecasts, surface temperatures and precipitation were better pre-

dicted for forecasts initialized during the strong polar vortex (Rao & Garfinkel, 2021b). For seasonal forecasts, it was found that ensemble members that better predicted destructive wave interference had better forecasts of the strong polar vortex, and ensemble members that better predicted the strong stratospheric polar vortex better predicted the anomalously strong AO (Lee et al., 2020). Hardiman et al. (2020, not in this special collection) also noted improved seasonal predictability of the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) and hence the exceptionally warm and wet 2019/2020 European winter, partly via a stratospheric pathway of the second strongest Indian Ocean dipole on record in late 2019, which they argue led to the strengthening of the polar vortex and its persistent influence on the NAO.

Because polar vortex strength is a proxy for stratospheric ozone amount, sub-seasonal forecasts initialized during polar vortex extremes should contain some information to constrain chemistry-climate interactions in the following weeks (Rao & Garfinkel, 2021b). Indeed, empirical relationships between the strength of the polar vortex and Arctic ozone can be used with some skill to forecast Arctic ozone extremes on sub-seasonal timescales (Rao & Garfinkel, 2020). However a better prediction of Arctic ozone by itself does not appear to produce better sub-seasonal forecasts of surface climate (Rao & Garfinkel, 2020).

5 Summary and Longer View

Though the 2019/2020 Arctic winter/spring represents one dynamical coupling event with links to numerous extremes, it's worth considering it in the broader context of ozone recovery and climate change. As the concentrations of ozone depleting substances (ODSs) in the stratosphere gradually decrease following the implementation of the Montreal Protocol and its amendments (MP) the stratospheric ozone layer is expected to recover to its pre-1980 levels (WMO, 2018). While the onset of ozone recovery has already been observed in the midlatitude upper stratosphere, trend detection over the Arctic is complicated by significant year-to-year dynamical variability and possible confounding factors arising from increasing concentrations of greenhouse gases (GHGs)(von der Gathen et al., 2021, not in this special collection). Nonetheless, chemistry model simulations suggest that the 2020 Arctic ozone loss, while intense, was to some degree mitigated by the decrease in the ODSs since their peak concentrations around the year 2000. Feng et al. (2021) estimate that the MP ameliorated the March 2020 ozone depletion by about 20 DU. Even more strikingly, Wilka et al. (2021, not in this special collection) found that the dynamical conditions observed in 2019/2020 would have produced areas of about 20 million km² of total ozone below 220 DU if the ODSs had continued to grow at a 3.5% annual rate since 1985 as they did before the implementation of the Montreal Protocol. This is close to the typical maximum size of the 21st-century Antarctic ozone holes. In comparison, the maximum area of total ozone below 220 DU reported in the Arctic in 2020 was below 1 million km² (Wohltmann et al., 2020; Kuttippurath et al., 2021, latter not in this special collection).

The work of Jucker et al. (2021) relates to questions of how extreme stratospheric vortex states may change in the future. They focus primarily on assessing the likely frequency of future SSWs in the Antarctic, with comparison to the Arctic. While Antarctic SSWs and other stratospheric vortex weakening events are expected to become much less likely in the next century with accompanying strong and longer-lived polar vortices, it is unclear what may happen in the Arctic – while the results of Jucker et al. (2021) do not suggest a large change in Arctic SSW frequency in the future, other studies show disagreement even in the sign of the SSW frequency response across models (e.g., Ayarzagüena et al., 2019; Ayarzagüena et al., 2020; Rao & Garfinkel, 2021a, papers not in this special collection). Correspondingly, we have no consensus as to whether exceptionally strong vortices such as that in 2019/2020 may become more or less common in the future.

376 Also subject to ongoing debate is how the human-induced increase of GHGs con-
377 centrations influence the stratospheric polar vortex and polar ozone depletion. There is
378 currently little agreement in scientific literature regarding the future projections of the
379 Antarctic polar vortex strength and temperature (Wohlmann et al., 2020, and references
380 therein). Some published results suggest that “cold Arctic winters are getting colder (in
381 the stratosphere)” under climate change (von der Gathen et al., 2021, not in this spe-
382 cial collection). If correct, these results project that the wintertime Arctic will see even
383 colder polar vortices than that in 2019/2020 and that extreme chemical ozone losses as-
384 sociated with these cold winters will continue to occur sporadically for the next several
385 decades despite the decreasing ODSs.

386 A common thread among most of the studies in this special collection is the ex-
387 tensive use of satellite composition and temperature data to elucidate the evolution and
388 important consequences of the exceptional 2019/2020 stratospheric polar vortex. These
389 analyses are made possible by the wealth of satellite data currently available, and the
390 increasing length of many of these data records. Continuity of satellite observations with
391 near global daily coverage has thus been critical for understanding the 2019/2020 win-
392 ter, and continued long-term measurements will be invaluable for future exceptional events.
393 This is true not only for ozone data, but also both for additional species important to
394 polar chemical processing and evaluation of transport, and for temperatures and dynam-
395 ical information in the upper stratosphere and mesosphere where observations are sparse
396 and thus data assimilation models are not well-constrained. While continuing ozone records
397 will be provided by some newer platforms and scheduled launches, this is not the case
398 for high-altitude temperatures or for other chemical species that are critical to under-
399 standing the immediate and potential future environmental and human impacts of ex-
400 treme conditions / events in the middle atmosphere.

401 The papers in this special collection on “The Exceptional Arctic Stratospheric Po-
402 lar Vortex in 2019/2020: Causes and Consequences” provide a broad view of the evo-
403 lution of an exceptionally strong Arctic stratospheric polar vortex and processes that af-
404 fected and were affected by it. They also raise questions that will be fruitful avenues for
405 further investigation including possible impacts of the strong polar vortex on tropopause
406 variations and stratosphere-troposphere exchange and possible links to the QBO disrup-
407 tion in 2019/2020. Exceptionally strong stratospheric polar vortex states have been much
408 less studied than SSWs and weak vortex states, and understanding the vast interannual
409 variability in the Arctic winter stratosphere poses unique challenges, including for key
410 topics such as the importance of stratospheric variability to human and environmental
411 impacts, to climate change impacts and trend evaluation, and to predictability of future
412 strong vortex states on subseasonal to seasonal and longer time scales.

413 6 Open Research

414 The data used herein are from MERRA-2 and are publicly available at [https://](https://disc.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/uui/datasets?keywords=%22MERRA-2%22)
415 disc.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/uui/datasets?keywords=%22MERRA-2%22 (Global Model-
416 ing and Assimilation Office (GMAO), 2015)

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