

Abstract

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.

Plain Language Summary

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.

1 Introduction

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 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 (Wohlmann 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.

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 *trems; 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 23 papers have been published in this special collection on subjects ranging
88 from the dynamics and chemistry of the 2019/2020 polar stratosphere and mesosphere,
89 to surface impacts of the stratospheric polar vortex and implications for subseasonal and
90 seasonal 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. Two com-
98 mentaries attempting to tackle these issues appeared in the special collection. Manney
99 et al. (2022) discusses the uses and misuses of the term “polar vortex” in popular me-
100 dia as well as scientific literature. They argue that while this well-established term ac-
101 curately describes a well-defined major feature that dominates the circulation in the po-
102 lar winter stratosphere, attempting to use this term to describe the tropospheric circ-
103 ulation is misguided, as that circulation is best characterized in terms of regional undu-
104 lations of jet streams and the conventional language of ridges and troughs. In addition
105 to a brief discussion in Wohltmann et al. (2020), the commentary by Newman et al. (2022,
106 submitted to *Geophys. Res. Lett.*) summarizes the most fundamental differences between
107 Antarctic and Arctic ozone depletion and argues that the term “ozone hole” is inappro-
108 priate and potentially misleading for even the most extreme of the occasional occurrences
109 of low ozone resulting from chemical loss over the Arctic.

110 This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 summarizes and elucidates links among
111 the contributions focused on dynamical processes in and affected by the stratospheric
112 polar vortex. Section 3 summarizes the results of contributions focused on chemical pro-
113 cessing and ozone loss in the 2019/2020 stratospheric polar vortex, including the observed
114 ozone extremes. Section 4 discusses papers that focus on further implications, includ-
115 ing subseasonal to seasonal predictability in the context of the 2019/2020 NH winter and
116 spring, and effects of chemical processing in the stratospheric vortex on the troposphere
117 and surface. Section 5 provides a brief summary and discusses broad implications in the
118 context of ozone recovery and climate change.

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

Some measures of the anomalous stratospheric polar vortex strength and longevity are shown in Fig. 1. According to several diagnostics of vortex strength (including the NAM index shown in Fig. 1a, vortex-edge averaged wind speeds in Fig. 1b, and potential vorticity gradients shown in Fig. 1e,f), the vortex was the strongest and most persistent in a record of over 40 years (Lawrence et al., 2020; Manney et al., 2020). Lawrence et al. (2020) noted that it represented the most extreme case of two-way stratosphere-troposphere coupling on record. Figure 1a shows that anomalies related to the exceptionally strong vortex extend from the lower mesosphere to the surface, as discussed in detail in several papers described below. The stratospheric vortex was also unusually large in the lower through middle stratosphere, especially in spring (Fig. 1c), demonstrating its exceptional persistence, as well as unusually pole-centered (Fig. 1d). Further examination of vortex “moments” calculated as in Lawrence and Manney (2018) indicate that it was more circular (less distorted) than is typical. Lawrence et al. (2020) introduce many of the “causes and consequences” discussed further in individual focused papers. The upward influence on and of the stratosphere is apparent in the combination of weak tropospheric wave driving (Lawrence et al., 2020; Weber et al., 2021) and downward coupling events following the development of a reflective configuration of the stratospheric vortex, which resulted in the extreme robustness and persistence of the 2019/2020 Arctic stratospheric vortex (Lawrence et al., 2020). The persistent low temperatures and vortex confinement accompanying the exceptionally strong and long-lasting stratospheric polar vortex in 2019/2020 drove chemical processing leading to unprecedented lower stratospheric ozone loss (e.g., Lawrence et al., 2020; Inness et al., 2020; Manney et al., 2020; Weber et al., 2021; Wohltmann et al., 2020), as analyzed further in the papers discussed in section 3.

While much focus has been given to surface impacts following a disrupted stratospheric polar vortex, or sudden stratospheric warming, the winter/spring of 2020 demonstrated that persistent coupling of a strong polar vortex to the tropospheric circulation also has substantial effects on weather and extremes. In particular, the 2020 strong polar vortex was associated with the most positive January-March averaged Arctic Oscillation (AO) in the 70-year reanalysis record, and record high temperatures over Siberia (Lawrence et al., 2020). Other weather extremes were also observed during this time period, including extreme marine cold air outbreaks over the Fram Strait (Dahlke et al., 2022). Wetter than average conditions over northern Europe and drier than average conditions over southern Europe were consistent with the strongly positive phase of the AO (Lawrence et al., 2020). However, whether these anomalous patterns and extremes can be directly attributed to the downward influence of the stratosphere on the surface is less clear; while circulation extremes from the troposphere to the stratosphere were vertically coupled, they may have arisen by “fortuitous alignment” (Rupp et al., 2022). Nonetheless spring 2020 exemplified how strong vertical coupling in the atmosphere can result in diverse extremes.

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

Additional unusual aspects of the circulation extending above the stratosphere were seen in the evolution of disturbances in winds and temperatures in the upper stratosphere/lower

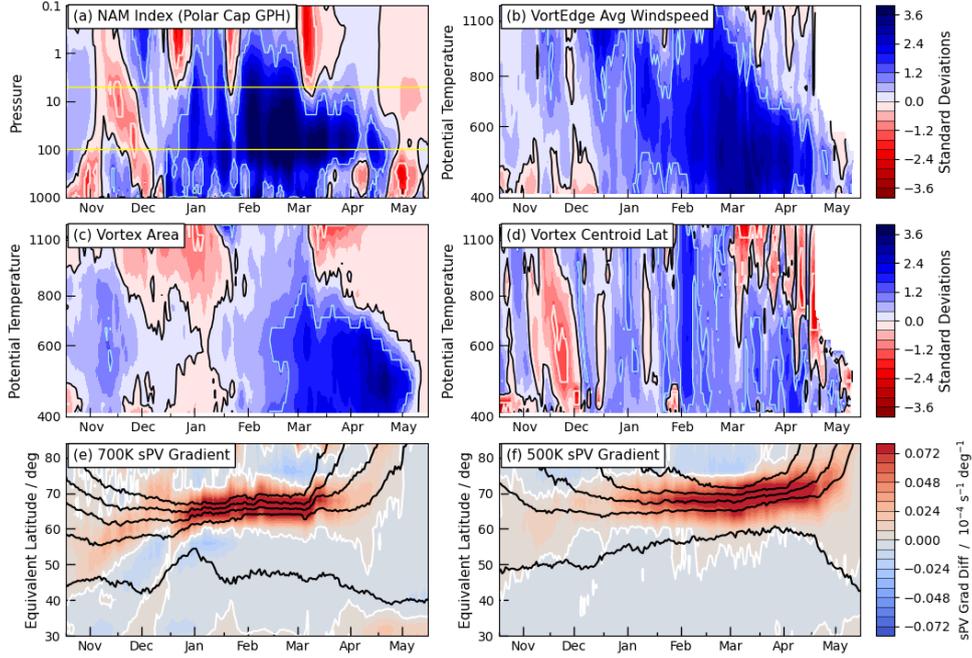


Figure 1. Example metrics of stratospheric polar vortex strength in 2019/2020 calculated from the MERRA-2 reanalysis (Gelaro et al., 2017): standard anomalies of (a) polar cap geopotential height (calculated as in Lawrence et al., 2020), (b) vortex-edge averaged wind speed, (c) vortex area, and (d) vortex 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).

172 mesosphere (USLM) and the MLT: Lukianova et al. (2021) showed USLM disturbances
 173 in December 2019 and early January 2020 similar to those often preceding SSWs, but
 174 which in 2019/2020 were instead followed by episodic USLM and MLT zonal wind ac-
 175 celerations and rapid cooling of the entire stratospheric layer. Their results appear con-
 176 sistent with an extension into the MLT of the “split” upper stratospheric jet reported
 177 by Lawrence et al. (2020) that played a role in the wave reflection. Quasi-10-day waves
 178 in the MLT also showed anomalous behavior, especially in that they were unusually weak
 179 during a minor SSW that affected the upper stratosphere in February 2020, whereas they
 180 are typically enhanced following polar warming in the stratosphere (Ma et al., 2022). (Ma
 181 et al., 2022)’s analysis suggested that the extremely strong stratospheric vortex was in-
 182 strumental in inhibiting upward propagation of quasi-10-day waves from the stratosphere.

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

187 **3 Polar Processing and Arctic Ozone Loss in 2019/2020**

188 The process of chemical ozone loss in the lower stratospheric polar vortex is well
 189 understood and depends critically on heterogeneous chlorine activation on liquid aerosols
 190 and polar stratospheric clouds (PSCs) (e.g., Tritscher et al., 2021). This process typi-
 191 cally becomes significant below the formation temperature of Nitric Acid Trihydrate (NAT)
 192 PSCs, therefore this threshold temperature is commonly used to locate areas of strato-
 193 spheric ozone loss. When integrated over the winter, 2019/2020 had the largest so-defined
 194 PSC potential on record in the Arctic (Lawrence et al., 2020; Wohltmann et al., 2020)
 195 because, while temperatures low enough for PSC existence persisted similarly long in 2020
 196 to those in 2011, in late 2019 temperatures dropped below the PSC threshold in a large
 197 vertical region much earlier than they did in late 2010 (Lawrence et al., 2020; Manney
 198 et al., 2020; Wohltmann et al., 2020; Weber et al., 2021). PSC potential at some times
 199 during the Arctic winters of both 2011 and 2020 (including during fall and early win-
 200 ter 2019/2020) matched or exceeded that in some Antarctic winters (Wohltmann et al.,
 201 2020). Consistent with these results inferred from temperatures, DeLand et al. (2020)
 202 and Bogner et al. (2021) used observations of PSCs to document unprecedented Arctic
 203 PSC activity in March, comparable to the average in mid-August in the Antarctic.

204 Also critical to polar processing and ozone loss is the degree of confinement of air
 205 that is primed for ozone depletion inside the polar vortex, and how it is transported within
 206 the vortex. In addition to the metrics already discussed of exceptional polar vortex strength
 207 and longevity Fig. 1e, f, Lawrence et al. (2020); Manney et al. (2020, also show diagnos-
 208 tics that are indicative of unusually low mixing), Curbelo et al. (2021) explored aspects
 209 of the evolution of and transport within the polar vortex during a vortex-split event in
 210 the lower to middle stratosphere in the period preceding the springtime vortex breakup.
 211 They detailed the lower-stratospheric vortex evolution and transfer of air from the main
 212 to offspring vortex during the split event, showing that air in the offspring vortex origi-
 213 nated well inside the main vortex, but the air with lowest ozone values remained con-
 214 fined within the main vortex (which then persisted into mid-May). These results, in con-
 215 junction with the evidence of unprecedented Arctic ozone destruction summarized be-
 216 low, have important implications for how ozone-depleted air may be transported as the
 217 vortex is eroding in spring, possibly affecting (e.g., through enhanced surface UV, see
 218 section 4) densely populated regions.

219 Studies in this special collection focusing on observations and/or modeling of chemi-
 220 cal ozone loss in the Arctic in 2019/2020 use satellite datasets including those from: the
 221 Aura Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS) (Manney et al., 2020; Wohltmann et al., 2020,
 222 2021; Feng et al., 2021; Grooß & Müller, 2021), the Atmospheric Chemistry Experiment-

223 Fourier Transform Spectrometer (ACE-FTS) (Manney et al., 2020; Bognar et al., 2021;
224 Grooß & Müller, 2021), the Aura Ozone Monitoring Instrument (Bernhard et al., 2020),
225 the TROPOspheric Monitoring Instrument (TROPOMI), the Global Ozone Monitor-
226 ing Experiment-2 (GOME-2), the SCanning Imaging Absorption spectroMeter for At-
227 mospheric CartographY (SCIAMACHY), and the Ozone Mapping and Profiler Suite -
228 Limb Profiler (OMPS-LP) (last four by Weber et al., 2021). In addition, several stud-
229 ies use ground- and/or balloon-based datasets (Bognar et al., 2021; Wohltmann et al.,
230 2020). Inness et al. (2020) presented results from the Copernicus Atmosphere Monitor-
231 ing service (CAMS) chemical reanalysis and the ERA5 reanalysis, both of which assim-
232 ilate many of the satellite datasets listed above.

233 Quantitative estimates of Arctic ozone loss are highly uncertain and difficult to com-
234 pare because of many factors including different methods and datasets (e.g., WMO, 2007;
235 Griffin et al., 2019) and the strong influence of dynamical and transport processes that
236 themselves may be represented differently in different meteorological datasets used in
237 the calculations (and references therein Santee et al., 2022). Papers in this special col-
238 lection used MLS-Match (Livesey et al., 2015), vortex-averaged descent, and CTM pas-
239 sive subtraction methods (Manney et al., 2020; Wohltmann et al., 2020; Grooß & Müller,
240 2021) to estimate chemical loss in ozone profiles. Given differences in datasets, meth-
241 ods, time periods, and definitions of vortex regions, their results are very consistent, es-
242 timating 2.3–2.8 ppmv of chemical loss in spring 2020, comparable in magnitude to that
243 in 2011, but with maximum loss at a lower altitude. Several papers also presented es-
244 timates of chemical loss in column ozone. Again these span numerous datasets and meth-
245 ods, including differences in the geographic or vertical domains for which the estimates
246 are calculated, but show good consistency, with estimates of maximum vortex or local
247 loss ranging from about 108 to 130 DU (Wohltmann et al., 2020; Bognar et al., 2021; Feng
248 et al., 2021; Grooß & Müller, 2021; Weber et al., 2021).

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

258 The temperature and PSC evolution in the 2019/2020 Arctic winter, as well as ev-
259 idence of vortex-wide denitrification (Manney et al., 2020; Wohltmann et al., 2021), sug-
260 gests that it was more “Antarctic-like” than any previous Arctic winter on record (in-
261 cluding 2010/2011). Chlorine from observations (e.g., Manney et al., 2020) and models
262 (Grooß & Müller, 2021; Wohltmann et al., 2021) shows a more Antarctic-like pattern of
263 chlorine deactivation in that the reformation of ClONO₂ was slower and HCl reformed
264 very rapidly and to high values that far overshoot those in fall before chlorine activation
265 – similar to patterns seen in Antarctic spring under very low ozone and denitrified con-
266 ditions (e.g., Douglass et al., 1995; Douglass & Kawa, 1999). Both observational and mod-
267 eling results in this special collection thus indicate a progression of polar processing and
268 ozone loss that was in between those typical for the Northern and Southern Hemispheres,
269 and emphasize the exceptionally low ozone (Manney et al., 2020; Grooß & Müller, 2021;
270 Wohltmann et al., 2021), with Wohltmann et al. (2021) noting that “only an additional
271 21–46 h below PSC temperatures and in sunlight would have been necessary to reduce
272 ozone to near zero locally”. Though unprecedented in the Arctic, as discussed by Newman
273 et al. (2022), the extreme ozone loss in spring 2020 was still far from the conditions seen
274 in the Antarctic that we refer to as an “ozone hole”.

4 Further Implications

Impacts of the strong 2019/2020 stratospheric polar vortex also extend to effects of anomalous ozone evolution (via transport and chemistry) on surface variability. One very direct consequence of exceptionally low ozone in the Arctic springtime polar vortex is on surface UV. Bernhard et al. (2020) found monthly mean low total ozone column anomalies up to $\sim 45\%$ collocated with high UV index (UVI) anomalies of over $\sim 80\%$ in March and April 2020, as compared to 30% and 35%, respectively, in 2011. High UVI anomalies exceeded 9 standard deviations in daily data at some stations underlying the polar vortex. Because the solar elevation was still relatively low when the vortex broke up, these anomalous values did not result in high absolute UVI values (in contrast to those in the Antarctic spring, when the ozone-depleted vortex persists longer into spring/summer than any on record in the Arctic, even in 2020).

Given the strong coupling between dynamics, ozone, and radiation in the springtime polar stratosphere, and the influence of these feedbacks on surface climate variability and trends in the Southern Hemisphere, efforts have been increasing to better understand if these feedbacks also play a role in the Arctic (e.g., WMO, 2018, Chapter 5). Dynamical coupling appears to dominate over direct influences of stratospheric ozone on surface climate [ref]. However, ozone feedbacks may be important for fully capturing the stratospheric influence on the surface. For example, Arctic ozone loss such as observed in 2019/2020 can reduce lower stratospheric static stability, which may increase high clouds and thus longwave radiation at the surface, contributing to surface warming (Maleska et al., 2020; Xia et al., 2021). Not all of the complex feedbacks among processes lead to negative impacts. For example, the strong polar vortex/positive AO (Section 2) led to reductions in tropospheric ozone comparable to or greater than those due to the influence of COVID19-associated emission reductions (Steinbrecht et al., 2021; Bouarar et al., 2021).

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

325 recovery and climate change. As the concentrations of ozone depleting substances (ODSs)
326 in the stratosphere gradually decrease following the implementation of the Montreal Pro-
327 tocol and its amendments (MP) the stratospheric ozone layer is expected to recover to
328 its pre-1980 levels (WMO, 2018). While the onset of ozone recovery has already been
329 observed in the midlatitude upper stratosphere, trend detection over the Arctic is com-
330 plicated by significant year-to-year dynamical variability and possible confounding fac-
331 tors arising from increasing concentrations of greenhouse gases (GHGs)(von der Gathen
332 et al., 2021, not in this special collection). Nonetheless, chemistry model simulations sug-
333 gest that the 2020 Arctic ozone loss, while intense, was to some degree mitigated by the
334 decrease in the ODSs since their peak concentrations around the year 2000. Feng et al.
335 (2021) estimate that the MP ameliorated the March 2020 ozone depletion by about 20
336 DU. Even more strikingly, Wilka et al. (2021, not in this special collection) found that
337 the dynamical conditions observed in 2019/2020 would have produced areas of about 20
338 million km² of total ozone below 220 DU if the ODSs had continued to grow at a 3.5%
339 annual rate since 1985 as they did before the implementation of the Montreal Protocol.
340 This is close to the typical maximum size of the 21st-century Antarctic ozone holes. In
341 comparison, the maximum area of total ozone below 220 DU reported in the Arctic in
342 2020 was below 1 million km² (Wohlmann et al., 2020; Kuttippurath et al., 2021, lat-
343 ter not in this special collection).

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

355 Also subject to ongoing debate is how the human-induced increase of GHGs con-
356 centrations influence the stratospheric polar vortex and polar ozone depletion. There is
357 currently little agreement in scientific literature regarding the future projections of the
358 Antarctic polar vortex strength and temperature (Wohlmann et al., 2020, and references
359 therein). Some published results suggest that “cold Arctic winters are getting colder (in
360 the stratosphere)” under climate change (von der Gathen et al., 2021). If correct, these
361 results project that the wintertime Arctic will see even colder polar vortices than that
362 in 2019/2020 and that extreme chemical ozone losses associated with these cold winters
363 will continue to occur sporadically for the next several decades despite the decreasing
364 ODSs.

365 A common thread among most of the studies in this special collection is the ex-
366 tensive use of satellite composition and temperature data to elucidate the evolution and
367 important consequences of the exceptional 2019/2020 stratospheric polar vortex. These
368 analyses are made possible by the wealth of satellite data currently available, and the
369 increasing length of many of these data records. Continuity of satellite observations with
370 near global daily coverage has thus been critical for understanding the 2019/2020 win-
371 ter, and continued long-term measurements will be invaluable for future exceptional events.
372 This is true not only for ozone data, but also both for additional species important to
373 polar chemical processing and evaluation of transport, and for temperatures and dynam-
374 ical information in the upper stratosphere and mesosphere where observations are sparse
375 and thus data assimilation models are not well-constrained. While continuing ozone records
376 will be provided by some newer platforms and scheduled launches, this is not the case
377 for high-altitude temperatures or for other chemical species that are critical to under-

378 standing the immediate and potential future environmental and human impacts of ex-
 379 tremite conditions / events in the middle atmosphere.

380 The papers in this special collection on “The Exceptional Arctic Stratospheric Pol-
 381 ar Vortex in 2019/2020: Causes and Consequences” provide a broad view of the evo-
 382 lution of an exceptionally strong Arctic stratospheric polar vortex and processes that af-
 383 fected and were affected by it. They also raise questions that will be fruitful avenues for
 384 further investigation: A detailed evaluation of unusual transport in and around the strato-
 385 spheric polar vortex is in preparation; impacts of the strong polar vortex may also in-
 386 clude tropopause variations and stratosphere-troposphere exchange and possible links
 387 to the QBO disruption in 2019/2020. Exceptionally strong stratospheric polar vortex
 388 states have been much less studied than SSWs and weak vortex states, and understand-
 389 ing the vast interannual variability in the Arctic winter stratosphere poses unique chal-
 390 lenges, including for key topics such as the importance of stratospheric variability to hu-
 391 man and environmental impacts, to climate change impacts and trend evaluation, and
 392 to predictability of future strong vortex states on subseasonal to seasonal and longer time
 393 scales.

394 6 Open Research

395 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)
 396 disc.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/uui/datasets?keywords=%22MERRA-2%22 (Global Model-
 397 ing and Assimilation Office (GMAO), 2015)

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