

Arctic Tropospheric Ozone Trends

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Abstract

Trends in tropospheric ozone, an important air pollutant and short-lived climate forcer (SLCF), are estimated using available surface and ozonesonde profile data for 1993-2019. Using a coherent methodology, observed trends are compared to modeled trends (1995-2015) from the Arctic Monitoring Assessment Programme SLCF 2021 assessment. Statistically significant increases in observed surface ozone at Arctic coastal sites, notably during winter, and concurrent decreasing trends in surface carbon monoxide, are generally captured by multi-model median (MMM) trends. Wintertime increases are also estimated in the free troposphere at most Arctic sites, but tend to be overestimated by the MMMs. Springtime surface ozone increases in northern coastal Alaska are not simulated while negative springtime trends in northern Scandinavia are not always reproduced. Possible reasons for observed changes and model behavior are discussed, including decreasing precursor emissions, changing ozone sinks, and variability in large-scale meteorology.

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Key Points:

- Coherent ozone trend analysis methodology applied to multi-decade, pan-Arctic surface and ozonesonde datasets and multi-model medians.
- Increasing winter Arctic tropospheric ozone overestimated by models in the free troposphere, Alaskan spring surface increases not captured.
- Spring (summer) decreases (increases) in observed ozone throughout the troposphere, not always simulated by models.

Abstract

Trends in tropospheric ozone, an important air pollutant and short-lived climate forcer (SLCF), are estimated using available surface and ozonesonde profile data for 1993-2019. Using a coherent methodology, observed trends are compared to modeled trends (1995-2015) from the Arctic Monitoring Assessment Programme SLCF 2021 assessment. Statistically significant increases in observed surface ozone at Arctic coastal sites, notably during winter, and concurrent decreasing trends in surface carbon monoxide, are generally captured by multi-model median (MMM) trends. Wintertime increases are also estimated in the free troposphere at most Arctic sites, but tend to be overestimated by the MMMs. Springtime surface ozone increases in northern coastal Alaska are not simulated while negative springtime trends in northern Scandinavia are not always reproduced. Possible reasons for observed changes and model behavior are discussed, including decreasing precursor emissions, changing ozone sinks, and variability in large-scale meteorology.

Plain Language Summary

The Arctic is warming much faster than the rest of the globe due to increases in carbon dioxide, and other trace constituents like ozone, also an air pollutant. However, improved understanding is needed about long-term changes or trends in Arctic tropospheric ozone. A coherent methodology is applied to determine trends in surface and regular profile measurements over the last 20-30 years, and results from six chemistry-climate models. Statistically significant increases in observed ozone are found at the surface and in the free troposphere during winter in the high Arctic. Paradoxically, decreases in nitrogen oxide emissions at mid-latitudes appear to be leading to increases in ozone during winter, but associated increases in Arctic tropospheric ozone tend to be overestimated in the models. Increases are also found at the surface in northern Alaska during spring but not reproduced by the models. The causes are unknown but could be related to changes in local sources or sinks of Arctic ozone or in large-scale weather patterns. Declining mid-latitude emissions may also explain negative surface ozone trends over northern Scandinavia in spring that are not always captured by the models. Further work is needed to understand changes in Arctic tropospheric ozone.

1 Introduction

Tropospheric ozone (O_3) is a short-lived climate forcer (SLCF) contributing to global and Arctic warming (AMAP, 2015; Sand et al, 2016; von Salzen et al. 2022), and a critical secondary air pollutant, detrimental to human health (Anenberg et al., 2010) and ecosystems (Arnold et al., 2018). The Arctic tropospheric O_3 budget is complex, as recently discussed in a companion paper, Whaley et al. (2023). It originates from photochemical production of anthropogenic or

71 natural emissions of O₃ precursors, including nitrogen oxides (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO) and
72 methane (CH₄), in the Arctic, or following air mass transport from mid-latitudes, as well as
73 transport of O₃ from the stratosphere (Law et al., 2014; Schmale et al., 2018). Sinks include
74 photochemical destruction, including reactions involving halogens leading to so-called ozone
75 depletion events (ODEs) (Barrie, et al., 1988; Simpson et al., 2007), and surface dry deposition
76 (Clifton et al., 2020). Growth in anthropogenic emissions since pre-industrial times has led to
77 increases in tropospheric O₃ throughout the Northern Hemisphere (NH) (Tarasick et al., 2019;
78 Turnock et al., 2020; Cooper et al., 2020) contributing to observed global and Arctic warming
79 over the past century (e.g. Griffiths et al., 2021). Since the mid-1990s, a mix of relatively weak
80 positive and negative trends (+1 to -1 parts per billion by volume (ppbv) per decade) have been
81 reported in the NH at the surface and in the free troposphere (FT), with largest increases over
82 south and eastern Asia, associated with increasing anthropogenic emissions (Cooper et al., 2020;
83 Wang et al., 2022a).

84 To date, only a few studies have focused on assessing tropospheric O₃ trends in the Arctic. While
85 positive O₃ trends were diagnosed at several surface sites, results are not always statistically
86 significant, and both positive and negative trends were reported at some Canadian sites (Tarasick
87 et al., 2016; Sharma et al., 2019; Cooper et al., 2020). In the Arctic FT, studies found significant
88 positive trends (Christiansen et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2022a), no trends (Tarasick et al., 2016),
89 or mixed trends in different seasons (Bahramvash Shams et al., 2019). Differences in the periods
90 analyzed, sign or magnitude of trends emphasizes the need to further examine trends using the
91 same methodology. Coherent estimation of observed trends, and evaluation of modeled trends, is
92 needed to better understand O₃ changes and impacts on Arctic climate that are sensitive to the
93 altitude where O₃ perturbations occur (Rap et al., 2015). This study assesses annual and monthly
94 trends, together with possible evolution in seasonal cycles, of Arctic tropospheric O₃ over the last
95 20-30 years. Observed changes are compared to results from atmospheric chemistry-climate
96 models run as part of the recent Arctic Monitoring and Assessment Programme (AMAP) SLCP
97 assessment (AMAP, 2021; Whaley et al., 2022; von Salzen et al., 2022). Results are discussed in
98 light of possible changes in sources and sinks of Arctic tropospheric O₃.

2 Methods

2.1 Measurements

The location of surface and ozonesonde sites used in this study are displayed in Fig. 1, together with the Arctic Circle at 66.6°N, used to define the Arctic. Annual surface trends are shown in the table grouped into 1) high Arctic coastal sites (Alert, Utqiagvik/Barrow, Villum), Zeppelin (situated at 474m on Svalbard) and Summit (high altitude (FT) site on Greenland (3211m), and 2) European continental sites within (Pallas, Esrange), and just south (Tustervatn) of the Arctic Circle.



Site	Annual trend (%)	Significance level	Period
High Arctic:			
Alert	0.29	95%	1999-2019
	0.24	95%	1993-2019
Utqiagvik	0.53	<90%	1999-2019
	0.26	<90%	1993-2019
Villum	1.98	95%	1999-2019
	0.68	90%	1996-2019
Zeppelin	-0.19	<90%	1999-2019
	0.18	90%	1993-2019
Summit	-0.28	<90%	2001-2019
European continental Arctic and near-Arctic:			
Esrange	0.08	<90%	1999-2019
	0.00	<90%	1993-2019
Pallas	-0.30	90%	1998-2019
	-0.40	90%	1995-2019
Tustervatn	-0.52	99%	1999-2019
	-0.18	>90%	1994-2019

Figure 1. Left: Location of surface (bold) and ozonesonde (italic) sites and showing the Arctic Circle (66.55°N). Right: annual O_3 trends at surface sites in % per year (left column), the significance level (middle column), calculated over periods shown in the right column. Statistically significant trends (above 90% confidence level) are in bold. Geographical coordinates for all sites are provided in Whaley et al. (2023). See text for details.

Surface observations are from EBAS Level 2 data, station owners for Villum before 2001, Canada's Open Government Portal for Alert, and National Oceanic and Atmospheric

Administration (NOAA) for Summit, and Barrow Atmospheric Observatory, Utqiagvik (Utqiagvik from now on). Ozone data are from the World Ozone and Ultraviolet Radiation Data Centre (WOUDC) and Network for the Detection of Atmospheric Composition Change (NDACC). See also the Supplementary Information (Text S1, Figs. S1 and S2, including data coverage).

2.2 Trend analysis

Observed monthly and annual trends in surface O_3 concentrations at different sites are determined using the non-parametric Mann-Kendall test at the 90th and 95th confidence level (CL) and Sen's slope methodology (Theil, 1950; Sen, 1968) (see Text S2). Daily median data are sorted into different months and pre-whitened, due to the presence of autocorrelation, via the 3PW algorithm from Collaud Coen et al. (2020). Trends using ozonesonde profiles are calculated based on weekly medians for selected pressure levels. For the calculation of relative trends, data are normalized by division with median values and multiplied by 100.

2.3 Modeled trends

Modeled trends at the surface and different altitudes are calculated for 1995-2015 using results from four global chemistry-climate models (CMAM, GISS-E2.1, MRI-ESM2, UKESM1) and two chemistry-transport models (DEHM, EMEP MSC-W) run using the same ECLIPSEv6b anthropogenic emissions, and nudged with meteorological reanalyses as part of AMAP (2021). Details can be found in Whaley et al. (2022), Text S3 and Table S1. Simulated monthly mean O_3 volume mixing ratios from the model grid box containing the measurement location are used to compute multi-model medians (MMMs). For ozonesonde comparisons, modeled vertical profiles are interpolated onto the same vertical bins as the measurements before trends are computed.

3 Surface ozone trends in the Arctic

3.1 Observed ozone trends

Annual trends are calculated for 1993-2019, or for the longest period with sufficient data, for all the sites (see Fig. 1, Table S2).

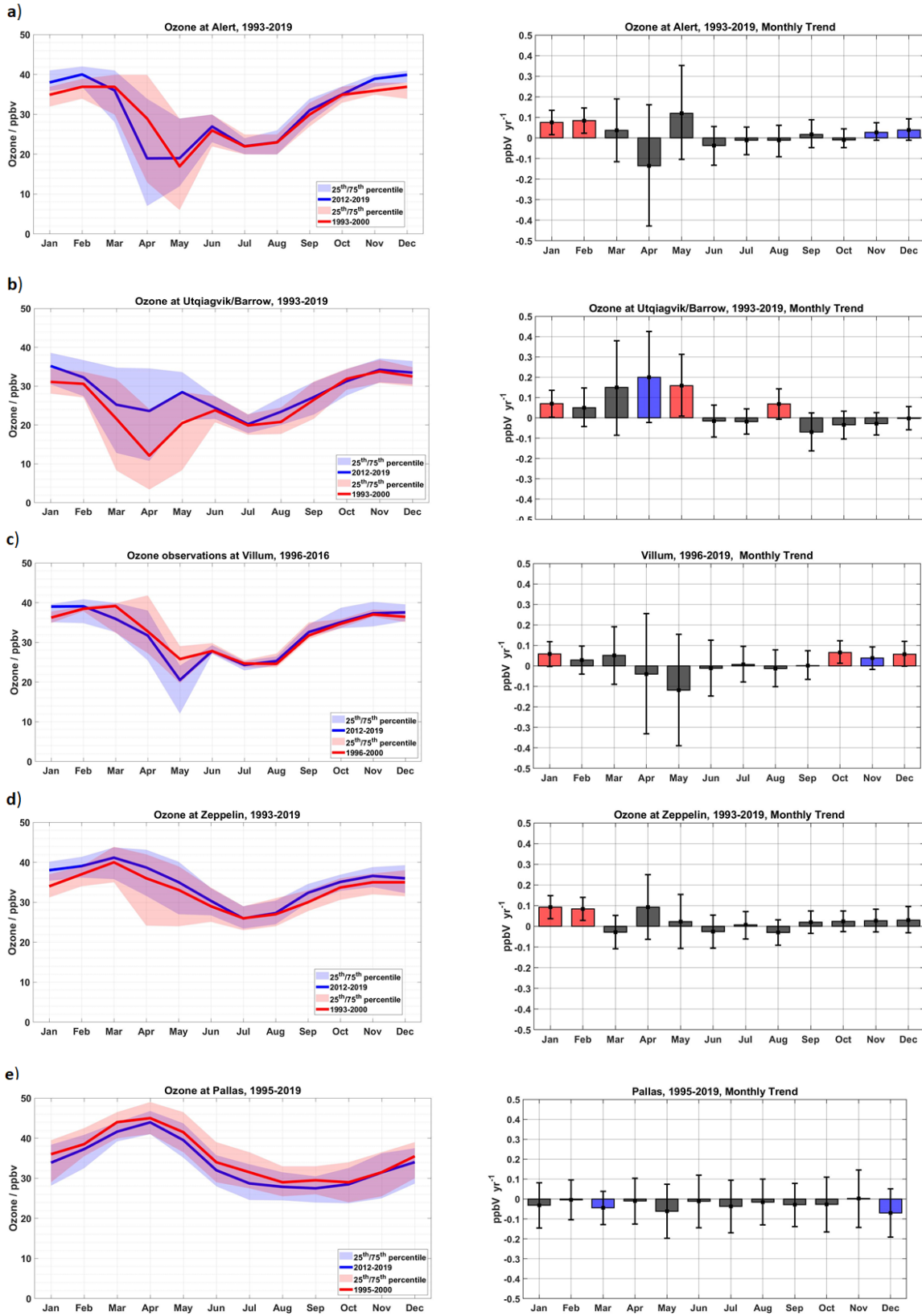


Figure 2. Observed surface O_3 trends and seasonal cycles. Left: seasonal cycles of monthly median O_3 (ppbv) at a) Alert, b) Utqiagvik, c) Villum, d) Zeppelin, and e) Pallas for 1993-2000 (blue lines) vs 2012-2019 (red lines). Shaded areas show upper and lower quartiles of hourly values. Right: monthly trends for 1993-2019. Boxes represent the slope of the trend in ppbv per year with red boxes significant at 95th% CL, blue boxes at 90th% CL, and black boxes not statistically significant. Error bars show 95th% CLs. Results are shown for shorter periods depending on data availability.

Average O_3 seasonal cycles are also calculated for earlier (1993-2000) and later (2012-2019) periods, to examine possible changes, together with monthly trends (Fig. 2) at selected sites (see Fig. S3 for other sites). Monthly trends are also analyzed for different 21-year periods (1993-2012, 1999-2019) (Fig. S4).

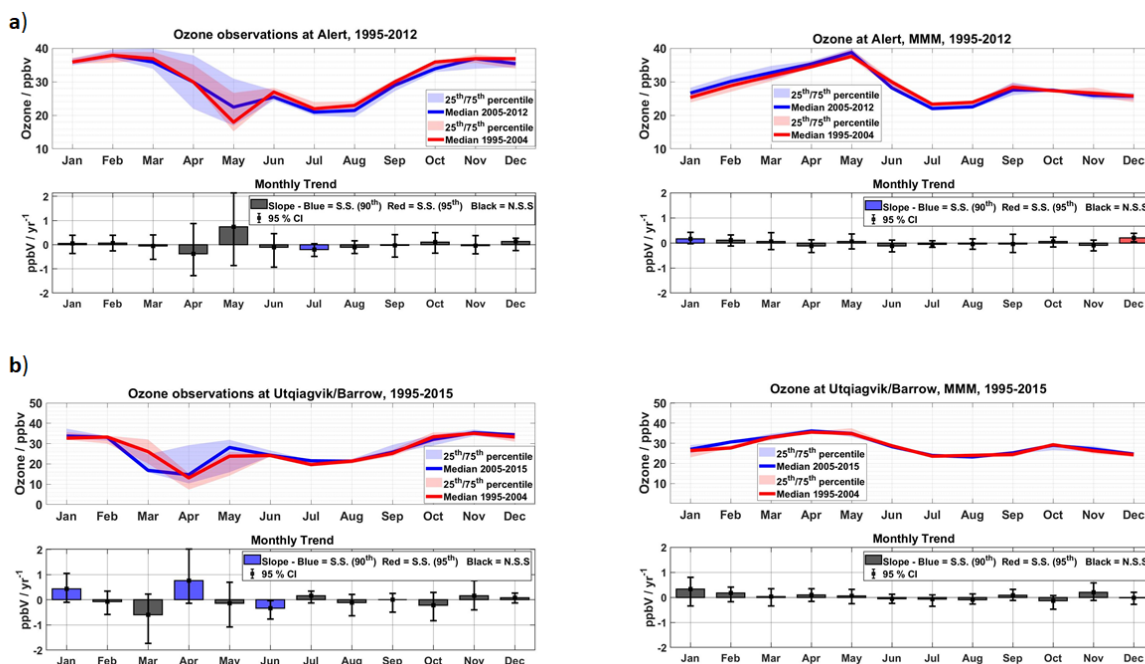
First considering high Arctic sites at coastal locations that exhibit a winter maximum with low spring concentrations attributed to ODEs, as discussed in Whaley et al. (2023). Alert has statistically significant (“ss”) positive O_3 annual trends, as does Villum for the shorter time period 1999-2019, while annual trends at Utqiagvik are not significant (see Fig. 1). Ss trends are also calculated in particular seasons, as shown in Fig. 2. Notably, ss positive trends are found during late autumn and/or winter at Alert, Villum and Utqiagvik. Positive trends are also calculated for spring at Utqiagvik (April-May). Winter trends at Alert and spring trends at Utqiagvik are more pronounced when using the later record (1999-2019) (see Fig. S4). To further characterize these changes, probability distributions in observed O_3 concentrations are calculated for months with ss trends (see Fig. S5). Positive ss trends during winter and spring at Utqiagvik are the result of a decrease (increase) in the frequency of low (high) concentrations (Jan.-May), whereas wintertime O_3 concentrations shifted recently towards higher values at Alert (Nov.-Feb.) and Villum (Oct.-Jan.). Zeppelin shows a different seasonal behavior compared to Arctic sea-level coastal sites with a spring maximum, more similar to remote mid-latitude sites. Here, ss positive annual trends are estimated for 1993-2019 (Fig. 1), and in winter (Fig. 2), driven by increases in the earlier part of the record (1993-2013) (Fig. S4).

Continental northern Scandinavian sites exhibit a different behavior with Pallas and Tustervatn showing ss negative annual trends but no ss annual (or monthly) trends at Esrange over any of the periods considered. The shape of the seasonal cycle for the earlier versus the later period is

similar at these sites, which also have a spring maximum like Zeppelin. O₃ appears to be decreasing throughout the year when comparing earlier and later periods although ss negative trends are only evident at Pallas (March, December), and at Tustervatn in spring and early summer (Fig. S4, 1999-2019 trends). Summit is more representative of the FT and samples air masses transported from North America and Asia, or of stratospheric origin (Dibb, 2007; Schmeisser et al., 2018). The annual trend, calculated over the shorter 2001-2019 record, is not ss at the 90th % CL, but ss negative monthly trends are estimated for January, March-May and September.

3.2 Comparison of observed and modeled surface trends

Figure 3 compares observed monthly and MMM trends for 1995-2015, or the closest possible time interval in case of years with missing observations. Results for other sites are shown in Fig. S6. Observed ss trends are more frequently diagnosed over 1993-2019 (Fig. 2) than over the shorter period ending in 2015 (Fig. 3). While the MMMs simulate O₃ seasonal cycles reasonably well, low O₃ concentrations are missed in spring, and wintertime O₃ is underestimated (Whaley et al., 2023). The MMMs simulate ss positive and negative trends at Zeppelin (Jan.) and Esrange (May), respectively, but not ss positive trends at Utqiagvik (April). Ss trends are simulated, but not observed, at Alert (January, December) and Tustervatn (March).



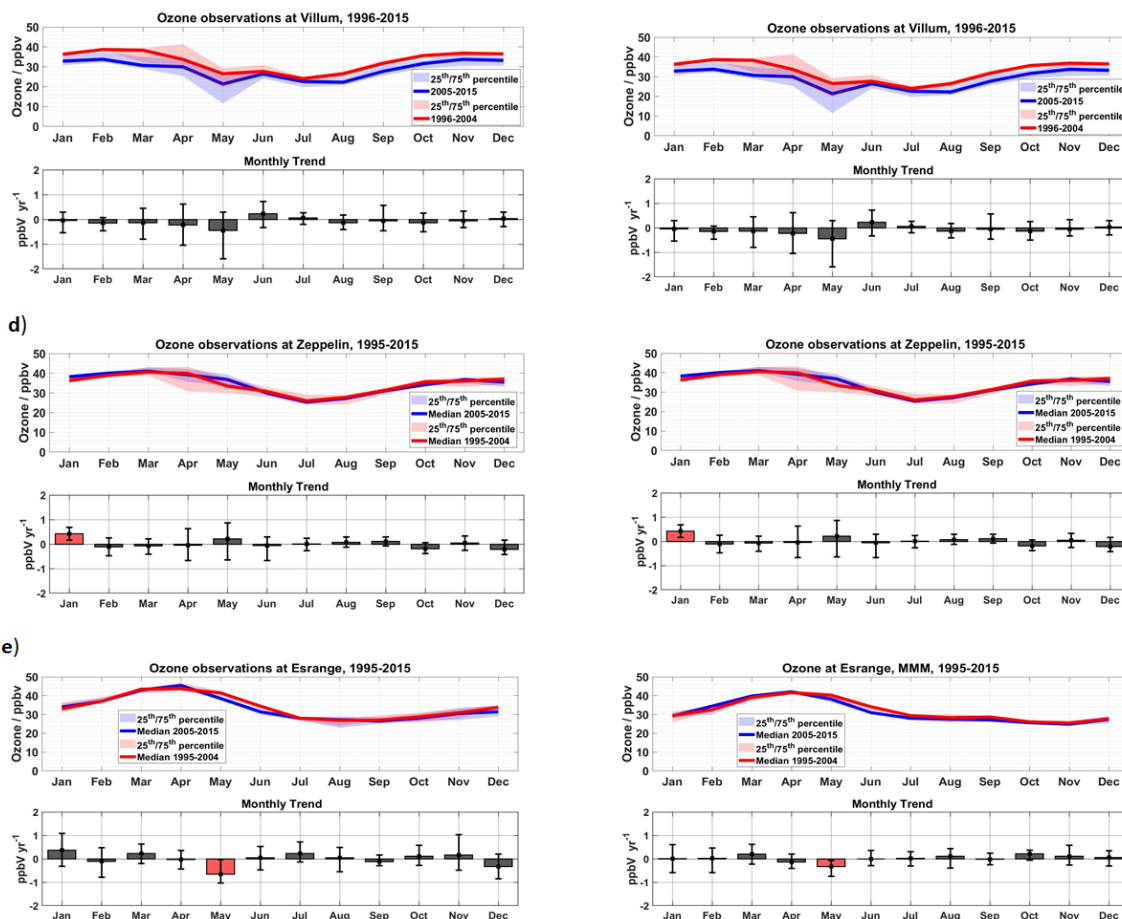


Figure 3: Comparison of observed (left) and MMM (right) surface O_3 trends and seasonal cycles at a) Alert, b) Utqiagvik, c) Villum, d) Zeppelin, and e) Esrange. Upper panels: seasonal cycles for 1995-2004 (red lines) vs 2005-2015 (blue lines). Shaded areas show upper and lower quartiles of monthly values (observations only). Lower panels: monthly median trends in ppbv per year for 1995-2015, or shorter periods depending on data availability. Box coloring and error bars are the same as Fig. 2.

4 Arctic ozone trends in the free troposphere

4.1 Observed vertical trends

This analysis focuses on O_3 changes in the lower and mid-troposphere. Figure 4 shows observed relative trends at six Arctic ozonesonde sites from 925-400 hPa for 1993-2019. Absolute trends above and below 400 hPa, and relative trends from 925-100 hPa, are also calculated (Figs. S7a,

S7b). Overall, while there are few ss trends, there seems to be a “dipole effect” with positive trends in winter and summer, and negative trends in spring and autumn. Positive ss winter (Jan/Dec) trends are found up to 400 hPa at most sites (except Resolute), and also at Scoresbysund in early spring. Positive wintertime trends are more evident in the earlier period in the upper troposphere (UT) and lower stratosphere (LS) (Fig. S8). Eureka, Resolute, and Sodankyla have periods with negative trends especially during spring and early summer in the lower troposphere. Resolute decreases extend up to 500 hPa in March-April. Relative ss trends vary from -1.5% to +0.5-1.0 % per year (Figs. 4, S7b) while stronger negative trends are diagnosed in later years (1999-2019) compared to 1993-2013 at all sites (Fig. S8).

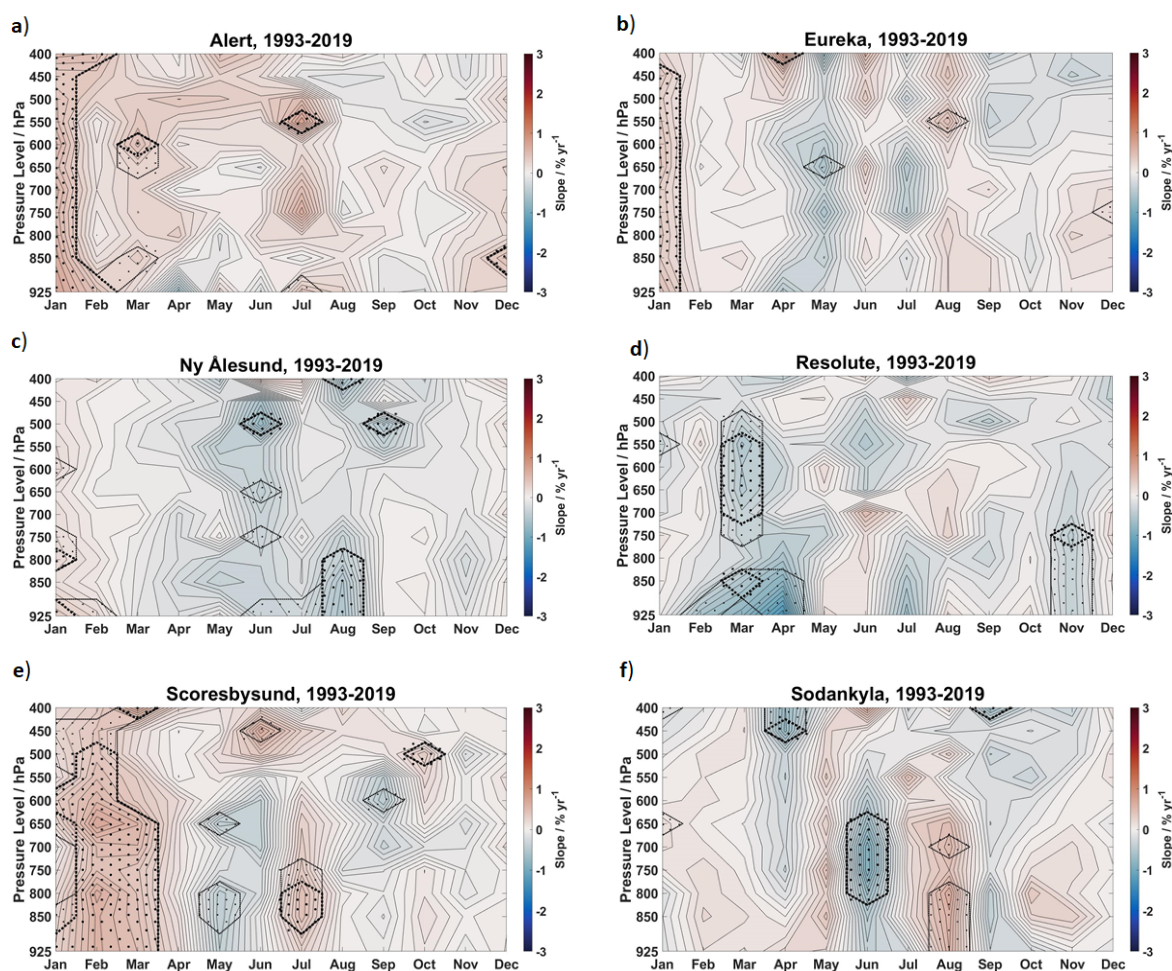


Figure 4: Vertical trends in observed monthly O_3 for 1993-2019, relative to monthly median concentrations, in % per year, from 925-400 hPa at a) Alert, b) Eureka, c) Ny Alesund, d) Resolute, e) Scoresbysund, and f) Sodankyla. Stippled lines/areas show statistical significance at the 90th % CL (smaller marker size) and 95th % CL (larger marker size).

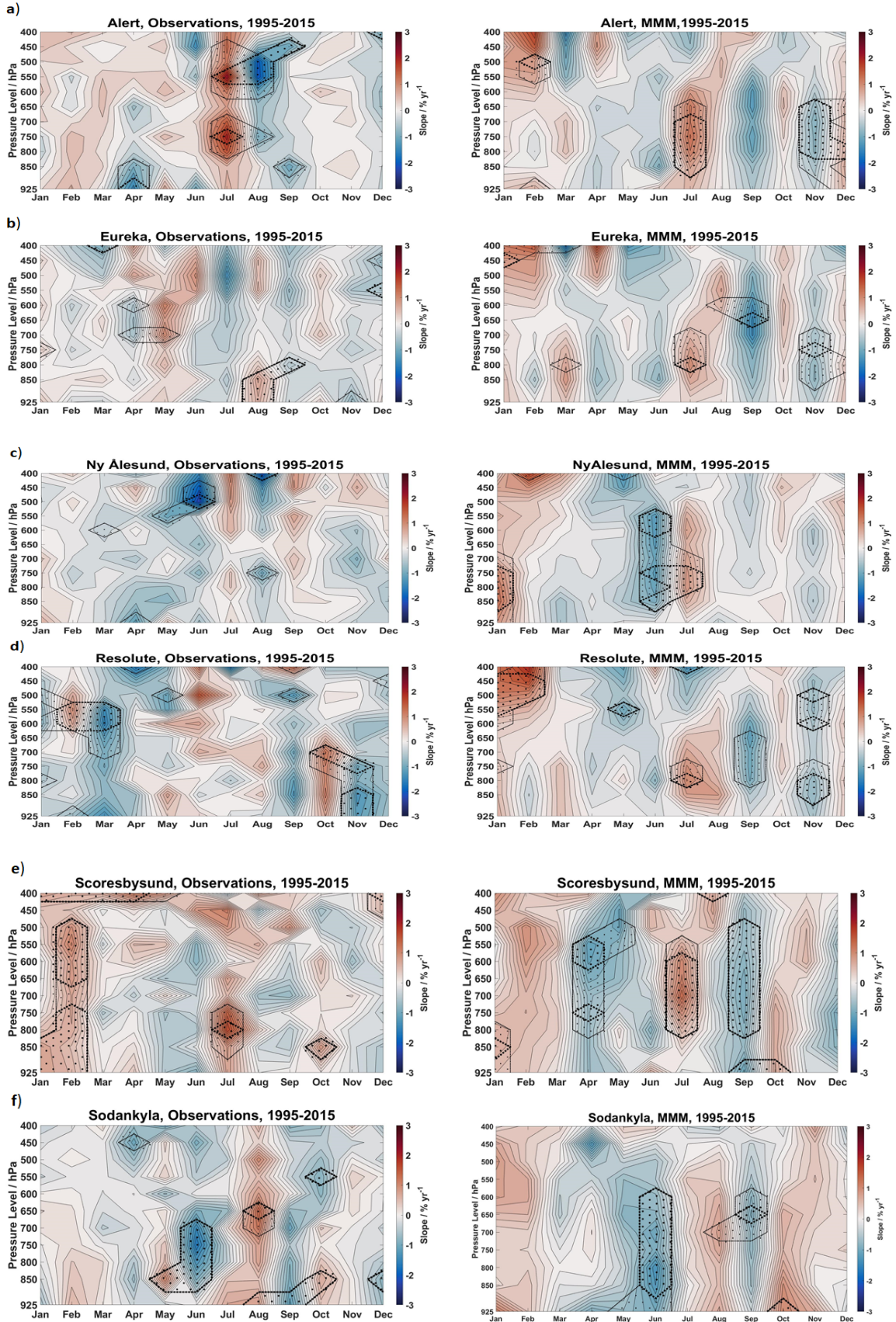


Figure 5: Comparison of observed (left) and MMM (right) vertical trends in monthly O_3 , relative to monthly medians, in % per year, from 925-400 hPa over 1995-2015 at a) Alert, b) Eureka, c) Ny Alesund, d) Resolute, e) Scoresbysund, and f) Sodankyla. Shading/symbols are as in Fig. 4.

4.2 Comparison of observed and modeled vertical trends

Figure 5 shows observed ozonesonde and MMM trends for 1995-2015 up to 400 hPa (see Fig. S9 for results up to 100 hPa). Only results from 5 models are used, since EMEP MSC-W only provided surface O_3 . The MMMs appear to capture the observed “dipole effect” seen in the observed trends. Models also capture observed increases in the winter but trends are overestimated at most sites, especially Ny Alesund and Sodankyla. Negative winter trends at Resolute are not simulated. This may be linked to positive modeled trends above 500 hPa at all sites (Fig. S9). Summertime positive ss MMM trends are larger than observed trends at some sites, e.g. Resolute and Ny Alesund.

5 Discussion and conclusions

Increasing annual surface O_3 trends at Arctic coastal sites, and at Zeppelin, are in qualitative agreement with Cooper et al. (2020), but in contrast to negative or non-significant surface trends at Canadian ozonesonde sites (Tarasick et al., 2016). A notable finding is that ss positive trends occur mainly in the winter months. While such increases were reported previously at Utqiagvik (Gaudel et al. 2018; Christiansen et al., 2022) and Alert (Sharma et al., 2019), we confirm this tendency over the wider Arctic. Emission reductions of NO_x in Europe and North America, and more recently over eastern Asia, have led to increasing wintertime O_3 at mid-latitudes due to less NO titration of O_3 (Jhun et al., 2015, Wang et al., 2022b, Bowman et al., 2022). This can explain observed increases in wintertime surface Arctic O_3 , influenced primarily by transport of air masses from Europe (Hirdman et al., 2010). Evidence for declining O_3 precursor trends is supported by decreases in observed CO in the Arctic during autumn and winter (Fig. S10). At the same time, CH_4 continues to increase globally contributing to rising O_3 in the NH (Zeng et al., 2022) (see also Text S4 on Arctic O_3 precursor trends).

Another intriguing finding is springtime ss surface O_3 increases at Utqiagvik (especially over 1999-2019, Fig S4), but no ss changes at Alert and Villum. Changes in O_3 concentrations at this

time of year may be driven by changes in ODE frequency linked to climate change or weather patterns (Oltmans et al, 2012). ODEs lead to zero or very low springtime O₃ due to bromine released from frost flowers or blowing snow (on sea-ice) (Simpson et al., 2007) or iodine compounds with a possible oceanic source (Benevant et al., 2022). Increases in springtime tropospheric bromine oxide have been observed from satellites, especially along the north coast of Greenland and central Arctic Ocean, correlating weakly with an increasing frequency in first year sea-ice (Bougoudis et al., 2020). Indeed, the frequency of low springtime O₃ concentrations has been increasing at Canadian high Arctic sites (see Fig. S11) but no ss springtime monthly trends are determined at Alert or Villum in our analysis. Springtime increases at Utqiagvik could be due to stronger transport from mid-latitudes to this site during periods with a more northerly extension of the Pacific storm track, hampering conditions for ODEs (Koo et al., 2012). They could also be due to an increasing influence from local emissions, such as shipping or Alaskan petroleum extraction, when photochemistry becomes active in spring (Gunsch et al., 2017).

Decreases in springtime/early summer O₃ in northern Scandinavia, especially over the later 1999-2019 period, are consistent with negative trends reported at Tustervatn (Cooper et al., 2020), and sites in northern Sweden during summer (Andersson et al., 2017). These decreases are associated with lower maximum O₃ concentrations linked to reductions in European precursor emissions leading to less photochemical O₃ production (Cooper et al., 2020) although no ss trends in observed Arctic CO are found at this time of year (Fig. S10). Springtime ss negative trends at Summit may also be due to emission reductions over North America. Our results do not suggest a shift in the O₃ seasonal cycle toward higher concentrations in the spring (i.e. moving back toward pre-industrial O₃ seasonality) as reported at NH mid-latitudes (Bowman et al., 2022). Another explanation for decreasing springtime O₃ at the surface could be that reductions in snow cover (Mudryk et al., 2020) are leading to more O₃ dry deposition to Scandinavian forests.

The observed and modeled surface trend comparison covers 1995-2015, thereby missing the later time period when stronger observed O₃ trends are found, especially ss positive trends in winter. MMMs capture wintertime O₃ increases at Zeppelin, but overestimate at Alert and miss increase at Utqiagvik. However, Whaley et al. (2023) noted that these models underestimate wintertime Arctic O₃ due to deficiencies modeling shallow boundary layers, O₃ deposition or NO_x lifetimes.

Nevertheless, decreasing winter trends in surface CO are captured at Alert and Utqiagvik (Fig. S10). Ss positive spring O₃ trend at Utqiagvik is not evident in MMM trends over 1995-2015. However, the models do not capture springtime O₃ seasonality due to incorrect simulation of transport patterns (Oltmans et al., 2012) or missing surface halogen chemistry (Whaley et al., 2023). Negative ss springtime (May) trends are not always reproduced, possibly reflecting issues in the emission trends or modeled dry deposition.

FT O₃ trends are ss positive in winter at all Arctic sites, except Resolute, in common with several coastal Arctic surface sites. These results are in-line with increases reported at NH mid-latitudes (Cooper et al., 2020), and at Canadian ozonesonde sites (up to 400 hPa), except Resolute (Wang et al., 2022a). MMM trends are similar to observed trends over 1995-2015, including where they are ss. Patterns in observed trends are quite well captured, notably positive ss trends in winter and summer, although they tend to be overestimated. Observed negative trends in spring, extending from near the surface into the FT, are generally reproduced, and are likely to be due to decreasing NO_x emissions leading to lower FT O₃ where photochemical production is NO_x-limited. Overestimation of winter trends contrasts to previous studies where models underestimated NH trends (Wang et al., 2022a; Christiansen et al., 2022). This may be due to differences in model transport or O₃ precursor emission trends, including NO_x reductions (see also Text S4). AMAP models overestimate mid-latitude FT O₃ (Whaley et al., 2023), possibly suggesting a larger sensitivity to precursor emission changes.

Observed trends in the UT (LS) appear to have switched from positive to negative since 1993 in winter/spring, which may explain stronger positive FT trends in the earlier part of the record (1993-2013). More frequent positive phases of the Arctic Oscillation in recent years may be contributing with a weaker Brewer-Dobson circulation leading to less transport of stratospheric O₃ into the Arctic UT-LS, a higher tropopause height, and thus lower O₃ concentrations in this region (Zhang et al., 2017). However, Liu et al. (2020) did not detect any trend in the stratospheric O₃ flux into the Arctic UT. On the other hand, Wang et al. (2022a) attributed FT increases in NH mid-high latitude O₃ to increases in aircraft NO_x emissions.

Overall, this study finds significant robust trends in Arctic tropospheric O₃. Observed trends are generally quite well captured by multi-model median results, although for example, they

overestimate wintertime free tropospheric increases, and miss Alaskan surface increases in spring. Further investigation into the causes of observed trends, and model performance, are needed taking into account uncertainties in the observations and models (Young et al., 2018; Fiore et al., 2022).

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Data Availability Statement:

Surface O₃ monitoring datasets are provided by EMEP (European Monitoring and Evaluation Program), and Global Atmosphere Watch (GAW) World Data Centre for Reactive Gases. EMEP and GAW O₃ data are available via the EBAS data portal (from end of 1989 to present). CO data at Utqiagvik/Barrow and Zeppelin are also available via the EBAS data portal:

<http://ebas.nilu.no>. Select the station name, and the component (CO, O₃) to access the data files.

Canadian surface O₃ data can be downloaded from: [https://data-](https://data-donnees.ec.gc.ca/data/air/monitor/networks-and-studies/alert-nunavut-ground-level-ozone-study/)

[donnees.ec.gc.ca/data/air/monitor/networks-and-studies/alert-nunavut-ground-level-ozone-](https://data-donnees.ec.gc.ca/data/air/monitor/networks-and-studies/alert-nunavut-ground-level-ozone-study/)

[study/](https://data-donnees.ec.gc.ca/data/air/monitor/networks-and-studies/alert-nunavut-ground-level-ozone-study/). Canadian surface CO is available at: [https://data-](https://data-donnees.ec.gc.ca/data/air/monitor/national-air-pollution-surveillance-naps-program/?lang=en)

[donnees.ec.gc.ca/data/air/monitor/national-air-pollution-surveillance-naps-program/?lang=en](https://data-donnees.ec.gc.ca/data/air/monitor/national-air-pollution-surveillance-naps-program/?lang=en).

Click on folders Data, Year, ContinuousData, then HourlyData. Surface O₃ records for

Utqiagvik/Barrow (BRW) and Summit (SUM) are provided by PE and IE via NOAA GML. Data

is available at <https://gml.noaa.gov/aftp/data/ozwv/SurfaceOzone/>. Click on the directories for

BRM or SUM to obtain the data. Surface O₃ measurements at Summit are made possible via the

U.S. National Science Foundation Office of Polar Programs and their contract with Battelle

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Sodankylä ozonesonde data are obtained as part of the Network for the Detection of Atmospheric

Composition Change (NDACC). Data is available via <https://ndacc.larc.nasa.gov/index.php/stations>. Click on the relevant site location to access the data files. Ozonesonde data for Alert, Resolute and Eureka have been reprocessed according to Tarasick et al. (2016), available at <https://hegiftom.meteo.be/datasets/ozonesondes>.

All model output files in NetCDF format from the simulations used in this study can be found here: <https://open.canada.ca/data/en/dataset/c9a333ea-b81c-4df3-9880-ea7c3daeb76f>. Model codes for GISS-E2.1 are available at: <https://www.giss.nasa.gov/tools/modelE/>.

Open-source codes for the Mann-Kendall test associated with Sen's slope are distributed under the BSD 3-Clause License in dedicated GitHub repositories hosted within the “mannkendall” organization (<https://github.com/mannkendall>), a Matlab (Collaud Coen and Vogt, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4134618>, <https://github.com/mannkendall/Matlab>), Python (Vogt, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4134435>, <https://github.com/mannkendall/Python>), and R (Bigi and Vogt, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4134632>, <https://github.com/mannkendall/R>). Last access for all codes 27 January 2023.

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Arctic Tropospheric Ozone Trends

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Key Points:

- Coherent ozone trend analysis methodology applied to multi-decade, pan-Arctic surface and ozonesonde datasets and multi-model medians.
- Increasing winter Arctic tropospheric ozone overestimated by models in the free troposphere, Alaskan spring surface increases not captured.
- Spring (summer) decreases (increases) in observed ozone throughout the troposphere, not always simulated by models.

Abstract

Trends in tropospheric ozone, an important air pollutant and short-lived climate forcer (SLCF), are estimated using available surface and ozonesonde profile data for 1993-2019. Using a coherent methodology, observed trends are compared to modeled trends (1995-2015) from the Arctic Monitoring Assessment Programme SLCF 2021 assessment. Statistically significant increases in observed surface ozone at Arctic coastal sites, notably during winter, and concurrent decreasing trends in surface carbon monoxide, are generally captured by multi-model median (MMM) trends. Wintertime increases are also estimated in the free troposphere at most Arctic sites, but tend to be overestimated by the MMMs. Springtime surface ozone increases in northern coastal Alaska are not simulated while negative springtime trends in northern Scandinavia are not always reproduced. Possible reasons for observed changes and model behavior are discussed, including decreasing precursor emissions, changing ozone sinks, and variability in large-scale meteorology.

Plain Language Summary

The Arctic is warming much faster than the rest of the globe due to increases in carbon dioxide, and other trace constituents like ozone, also an air pollutant. However, improved understanding is needed about long-term changes or trends in Arctic tropospheric ozone. A coherent methodology is applied to determine trends in surface and regular profile measurements over the last 20-30 years, and results from six chemistry-climate models. Statistically significant increases in observed ozone are found at the surface and in the free troposphere during winter in the high Arctic. Paradoxically, decreases in nitrogen oxide emissions at mid-latitudes appear to be leading to increases in ozone during winter, but associated increases in Arctic tropospheric ozone tend to be overestimated in the models. Increases are also found at the surface in northern Alaska during spring but not reproduced by the models. The causes are unknown but could be related to changes in local sources or sinks of Arctic ozone or in large-scale weather patterns. Declining mid-latitude emissions may also explain negative surface ozone trends over northern Scandinavia in spring that are not always captured by the models. Further work is needed to understand changes in Arctic tropospheric ozone.

1 Introduction

Tropospheric ozone (O_3) is a short-lived climate forcer (SLCF) contributing to global and Arctic warming (AMAP, 2015; Sand et al, 2016; von Salzen et al. 2022), and a critical secondary air pollutant, detrimental to human health (Anenberg et al., 2010) and ecosystems (Arnold et al., 2018). The Arctic tropospheric O_3 budget is complex, as recently discussed in a companion paper, Whaley et al. (2023). It originates from photochemical production of anthropogenic or

71 natural emissions of O₃ precursors, including nitrogen oxides (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO) and
72 methane (CH₄), in the Arctic, or following air mass transport from mid-latitudes, as well as
73 transport of O₃ from the stratosphere (Law et al., 2014; Schmale et al., 2018). Sinks include
74 photochemical destruction, including reactions involving halogens leading to so-called ozone
75 depletion events (ODEs) (Barrie, et al., 1988; Simpson et al., 2007), and surface dry deposition
76 (Clifton et al., 2020). Growth in anthropogenic emissions since pre-industrial times has led to
77 increases in tropospheric O₃ throughout the Northern Hemisphere (NH) (Tarasick et al., 2019;
78 Turnock et al., 2020; Cooper et al., 2020) contributing to observed global and Arctic warming
79 over the past century (e.g. Griffiths et al., 2021). Since the mid-1990s, a mix of relatively weak
80 positive and negative trends (+1 to -1 parts per billion by volume (ppbv) per decade) have been
81 reported in the NH at the surface and in the free troposphere (FT), with largest increases over
82 south and eastern Asia, associated with increasing anthropogenic emissions (Cooper et al., 2020;
83 Wang et al., 2022a).

84 To date, only a few studies have focused on assessing tropospheric O₃ trends in the Arctic. While
85 positive O₃ trends were diagnosed at several surface sites, results are not always statistically
86 significant, and both positive and negative trends were reported at some Canadian sites (Tarasick
87 et al., 2016; Sharma et al., 2019; Cooper et al., 2020). In the Arctic FT, studies found significant
88 positive trends (Christiansen et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2022a), no trends (Tarasick et al., 2016),
89 or mixed trends in different seasons (Bahramvash Shams et al., 2019). Differences in the periods
90 analyzed, sign or magnitude of trends emphasizes the need to further examine trends using the
91 same methodology. Coherent estimation of observed trends, and evaluation of modeled trends, is
92 needed to better understand O₃ changes and impacts on Arctic climate that are sensitive to the
93 altitude where O₃ perturbations occur (Rap et al., 2015). This study assesses annual and monthly
94 trends, together with possible evolution in seasonal cycles, of Arctic tropospheric O₃ over the last
95 20-30 years. Observed changes are compared to results from atmospheric chemistry-climate
96 models run as part of the recent Arctic Monitoring and Assessment Programme (AMAP) SLCP
97 assessment (AMAP, 2021; Whaley et al., 2022; von Salzen et al., 2022). Results are discussed in
98 light of possible changes in sources and sinks of Arctic tropospheric O₃.

2 Methods

2.1 Measurements

The location of surface and ozonesonde sites used in this study are displayed in Fig. 1, together with the Arctic Circle at 66.6°N, used to define the Arctic. Annual surface trends are shown in the table grouped into 1) high Arctic coastal sites (Alert, Utqiagvik/Barrow, Villum), Zeppelin (situated at 474m on Svalbard) and Summit (high altitude (FT) site on Greenland (3211m), and 2) European continental sites within (Pallas, Esrange), and just south (Tustervatn) of the Arctic Circle.



Site	Annual trend (%)	Significance level	Period
High Arctic:			
Alert	0.29	95%	1999-2019
	0.24	95%	1993-2019
Utqiagvik	0.53	<90%	1999-2019
	0.26	<90%	1993-2019
Villum	1.98	95%	1999-2019
	0.68	90%	1996-2019
Zeppelin	-0.19	<90%	1999-2019
	0.18	90%	1993-2019
Summit	-0.28	<90%	2001-2019
European continental Arctic and near-Arctic:			
Esrange	0.08	<90%	1999-2019
	0.00	<90%	1993-2019
Pallas	-0.30	90%	1998-2019
	-0.40	90%	1995-2019
Tustervatn	-0.52	99%	1999-2019
	-0.18	>90%	1994-2019

Figure 1. Left: Location of surface (bold) and ozonesonde (italic) sites and showing the Arctic Circle (66.55°N). Right: annual O_3 trends at surface sites in % per year (left column), the significance level (middle column), calculated over periods shown in the right column. Statistically significant trends (above 90% confidence level) are in bold. Geographical coordinates for all sites are provided in Whaley et al. (2023). See text for details.

Surface observations are from EBAS Level 2 data, station owners for Villum before 2001, Canada's Open Government Portal for Alert, and National Oceanic and Atmospheric

Administration (NOAA) for Summit, and Barrow Atmospheric Observatory, Utqiagvik (Utqiagvik from now on). Ozone data are from the World Ozone and Ultraviolet Radiation Data Centre (WOUDC) and Network for the Detection of Atmospheric Composition Change (NDACC). See also the Supplementary Information (Text S1, Figs. S1 and S2, including data coverage).

2.2 Trend analysis

Observed monthly and annual trends in surface O_3 concentrations at different sites are determined using the non-parametric Mann-Kendall test at the 90th and 95th confidence level (CL) and Sen's slope methodology (Theil, 1950; Sen, 1968) (see Text S2). Daily median data are sorted into different months and pre-whitened, due to the presence of autocorrelation, via the 3PW algorithm from Collaud Coen et al. (2020). Trends using ozonesonde profiles are calculated based on weekly medians for selected pressure levels. For the calculation of relative trends, data are normalized by division with median values and multiplied by 100.

2.3 Modeled trends

Modeled trends at the surface and different altitudes are calculated for 1995-2015 using results from four global chemistry-climate models (CMAM, GISS-E2.1, MRI-ESM2, UKESM1) and two chemistry-transport models (DEHM, EMEP MSC-W) run using the same ECLIPSEv6b anthropogenic emissions, and nudged with meteorological reanalyses as part of AMAP (2021). Details can be found in Whaley et al. (2022), Text S3 and Table S1. Simulated monthly mean O_3 volume mixing ratios from the model grid box containing the measurement location are used to compute multi-model medians (MMMs). For ozonesonde comparisons, modeled vertical profiles are interpolated onto the same vertical bins as the measurements before trends are computed.

3 Surface ozone trends in the Arctic

3.1 Observed ozone trends

Annual trends are calculated for 1993-2019, or for the longest period with sufficient data, for all the sites (see Fig. 1, Table S2).

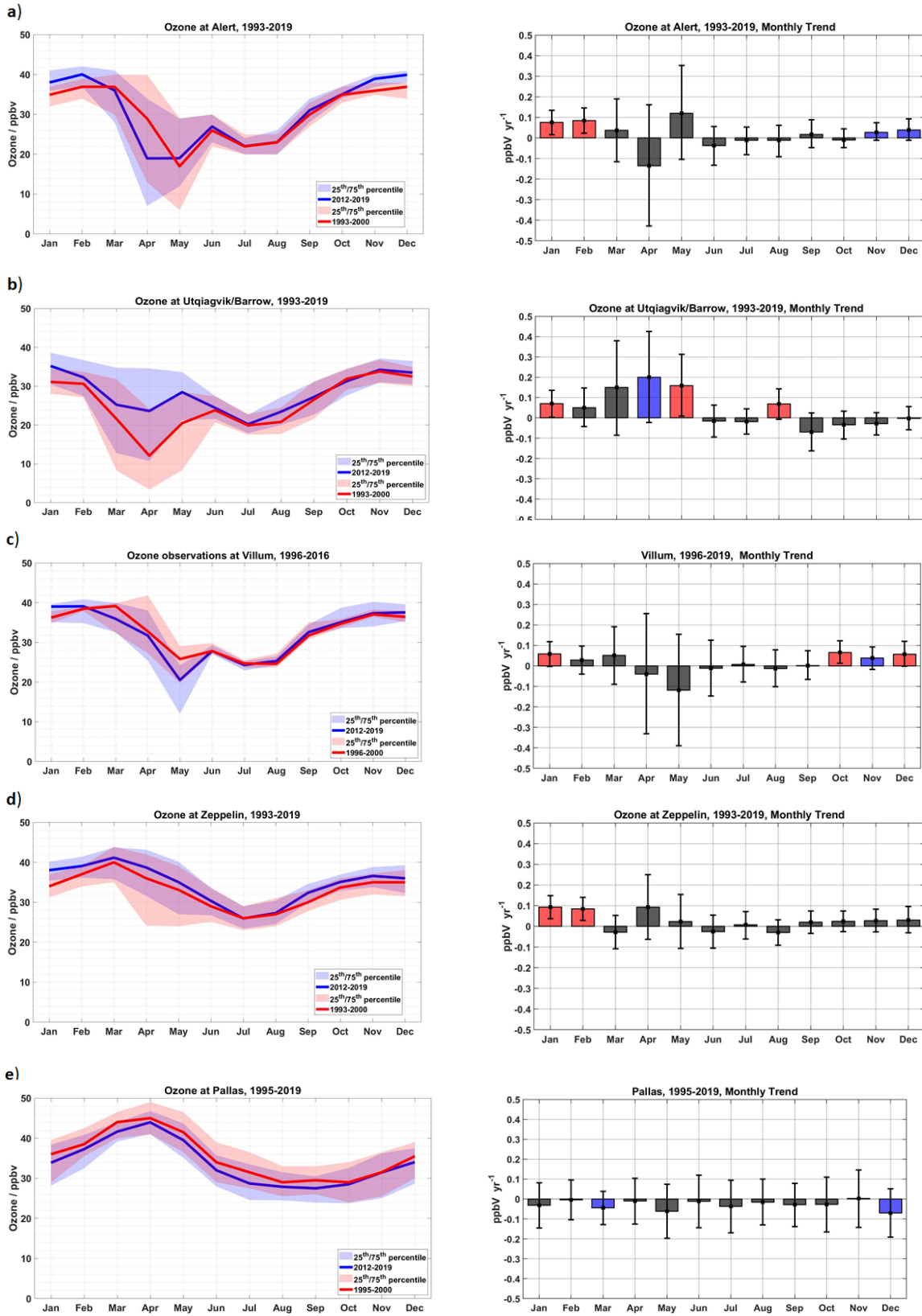


Figure 2. Observed surface O_3 trends and seasonal cycles. Left: seasonal cycles of monthly median O_3 (ppbv) at a) Alert, b) Utqiagvik, c) Villum, d) Zeppelin, and e) Pallas for 1993-2000 (blue lines) vs 2012-2019 (red lines). Shaded areas show upper and lower quartiles of hourly values. Right: monthly trends for 1993-2019. Boxes represent the slope of the trend in ppbv per year with red boxes significant at 95th% CL, blue boxes at 90th% CL, and black boxes not statistically significant. Error bars show 95th% CLs. Results are shown for shorter periods depending on data availability.

Average O_3 seasonal cycles are also calculated for earlier (1993-2000) and later (2012-2019) periods, to examine possible changes, together with monthly trends (Fig. 2) at selected sites (see Fig. S3 for other sites). Monthly trends are also analyzed for different 21-year periods (1993-2012, 1999-2019) (Fig. S4).

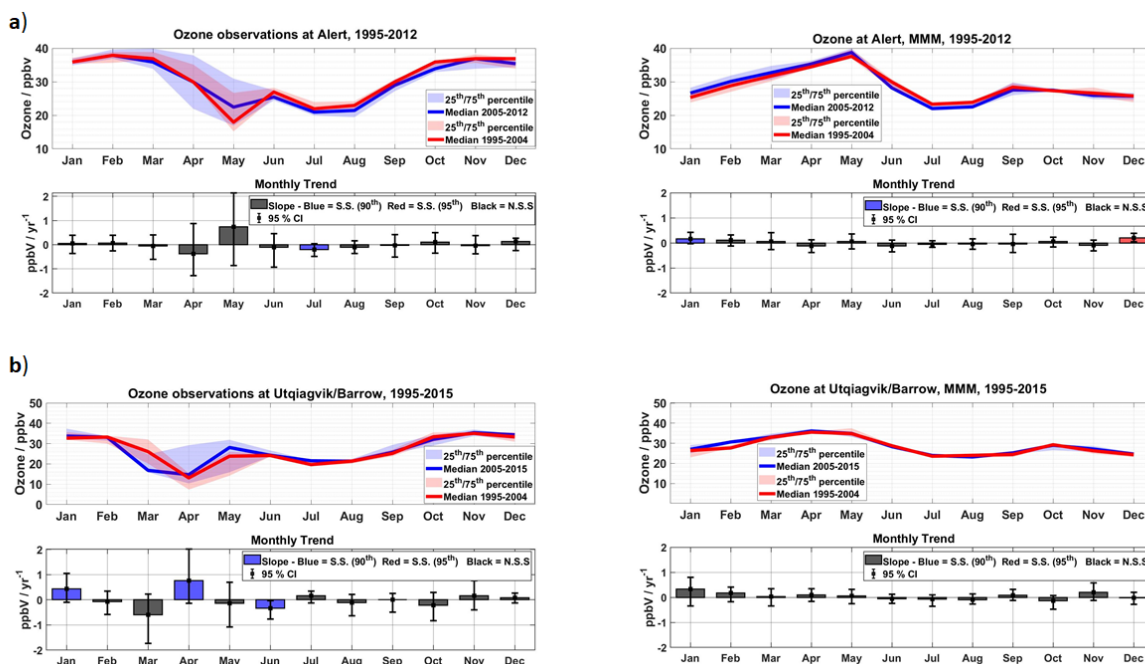
First considering high Arctic sites at coastal locations that exhibit a winter maximum with low spring concentrations attributed to ODEs, as discussed in Whaley et al. (2023). Alert has statistically significant (“ss”) positive O_3 annual trends, as does Villum for the shorter time period 1999-2019, while annual trends at Utqiagvik are not significant (see Fig. 1). Ss trends are also calculated in particular seasons, as shown in Fig. 2. Notably, ss positive trends are found during late autumn and/or winter at Alert, Villum and Utqiagvik. Positive trends are also calculated for spring at Utqiagvik (April-May). Winter trends at Alert and spring trends at Utqiagvik are more pronounced when using the later record (1999-2019) (see Fig. S4). To further characterize these changes, probability distributions in observed O_3 concentrations are calculated for months with ss trends (see Fig. S5). Positive ss trends during winter and spring at Utqiagvik are the result of a decrease (increase) in the frequency of low (high) concentrations (Jan.-May), whereas wintertime O_3 concentrations shifted recently towards higher values at Alert (Nov.-Feb.) and Villum (Oct.-Jan.). Zeppelin shows a different seasonal behavior compared to Arctic sea-level coastal sites with a spring maximum, more similar to remote mid-latitude sites. Here, ss positive annual trends are estimated for 1993-2019 (Fig. 1), and in winter (Fig. 2), driven by increases in the earlier part of the record (1993-2013) (Fig. S4).

Continental northern Scandinavian sites exhibit a different behavior with Pallas and Tustervatn showing ss negative annual trends but no ss annual (or monthly) trends at Esrange over any of the periods considered. The shape of the seasonal cycle for the earlier versus the later period is

similar at these sites, which also have a spring maximum like Zeppelin. O₃ appears to be decreasing throughout the year when comparing earlier and later periods although ss negative trends are only evident at Pallas (March, December), and at Tustervatn in spring and early summer (Fig. S4, 1999-2019 trends). Summit is more representative of the FT and samples air masses transported from North America and Asia, or of stratospheric origin (Dibb, 2007; Schmeisser et al., 2018). The annual trend, calculated over the shorter 2001-2019 record, is not ss at the 90th % CL, but ss negative monthly trends are estimated for January, March-May and September.

3.2 Comparison of observed and modeled surface trends

Figure 3 compares observed monthly and MMM trends for 1995-2015, or the closest possible time interval in case of years with missing observations. Results for other sites are shown in Fig. S6. Observed ss trends are more frequently diagnosed over 1993-2019 (Fig. 2) than over the shorter period ending in 2015 (Fig. 3). While the MMMs simulate O₃ seasonal cycles reasonably well, low O₃ concentrations are missed in spring, and wintertime O₃ is underestimated (Whaley et al., 2023). The MMMs simulate ss positive and negative trends at Zeppelin (Jan.) and Esrange (May), respectively, but not ss positive trends at Utqiagvik (April). Ss trends are simulated, but not observed, at Alert (January, December) and Tustervatn (March).



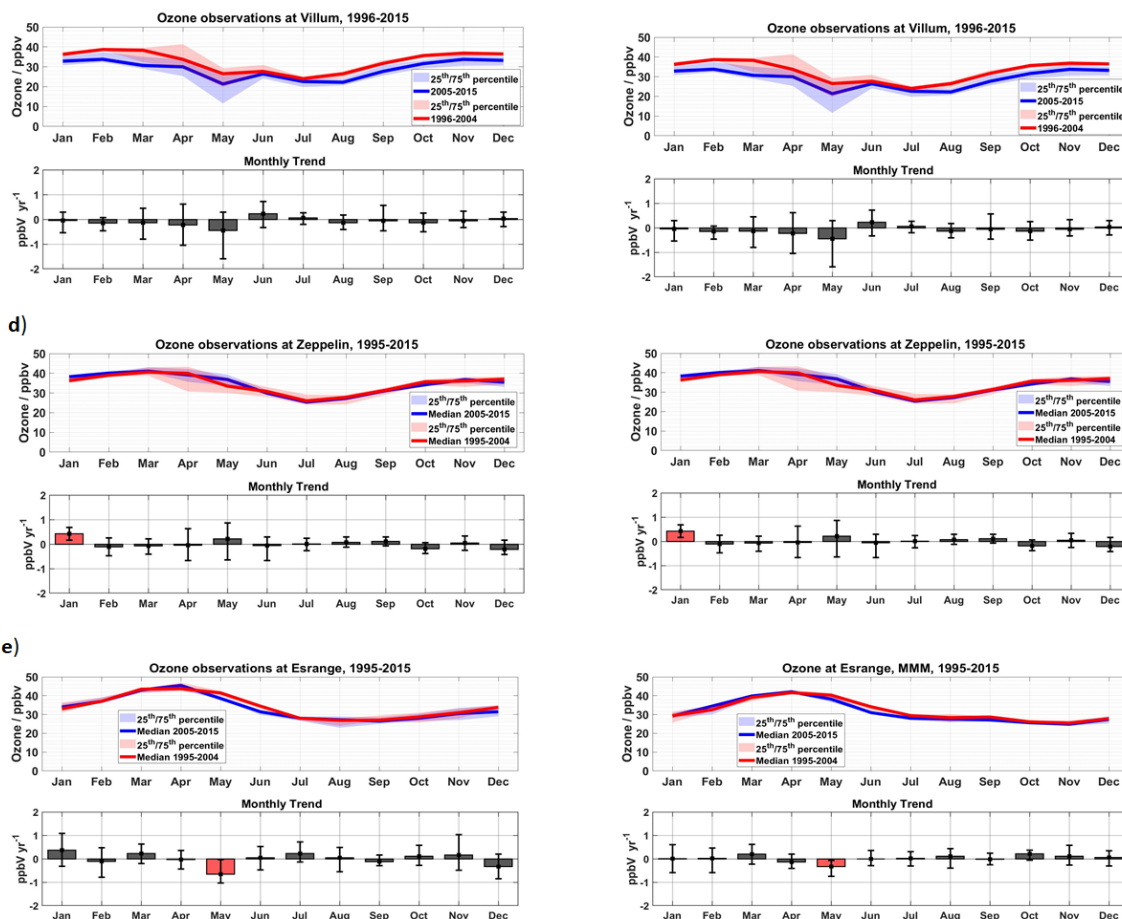


Figure 3: Comparison of observed (left) and MMM (right) surface O_3 trends and seasonal cycles at a) Alert, b) Utqiagvik, c) Villum, d) Zeppelin, and e) Esrange. Upper panels: seasonal cycles for 1995-2004 (red lines) vs 2005-2015 (blue lines). Shaded areas show upper and lower quartiles of monthly values (observations only). Lower panels: monthly median trends in ppbv per year for 1995-2015, or shorter periods depending on data availability. Box coloring and error bars are the same as Fig. 2.

4 Arctic ozone trends in the free troposphere

4.1 Observed vertical trends

This analysis focuses on O_3 changes in the lower and mid-troposphere. Figure 4 shows observed relative trends at six Arctic ozonesonde sites from 925-400 hPa for 1993-2019. Absolute trends above and below 400 hPa, and relative trends from 925-100 hPa, are also calculated (Figs. S7a,

S7b). Overall, while there are few ss trends, there seems to be a “dipole effect” with positive trends in winter and summer, and negative trends in spring and autumn. Positive ss winter (Jan/Dec) trends are found up to 400 hPa at most sites (except Resolute), and also at Scoresbysund in early spring. Positive wintertime trends are more evident in the earlier period in the upper troposphere (UT) and lower stratosphere (LS) (Fig. S8). Eureka, Resolute, and Sodankyla have periods with negative trends especially during spring and early summer in the lower troposphere. Resolute decreases extend up to 500 hPa in March-April. Relative ss trends vary from -1.5% to +0.5-1.0 % per year (Figs. 4, S7b) while stronger negative trends are diagnosed in later years (1999-2019) compared to 1993-2013 at all sites (Fig. S8).

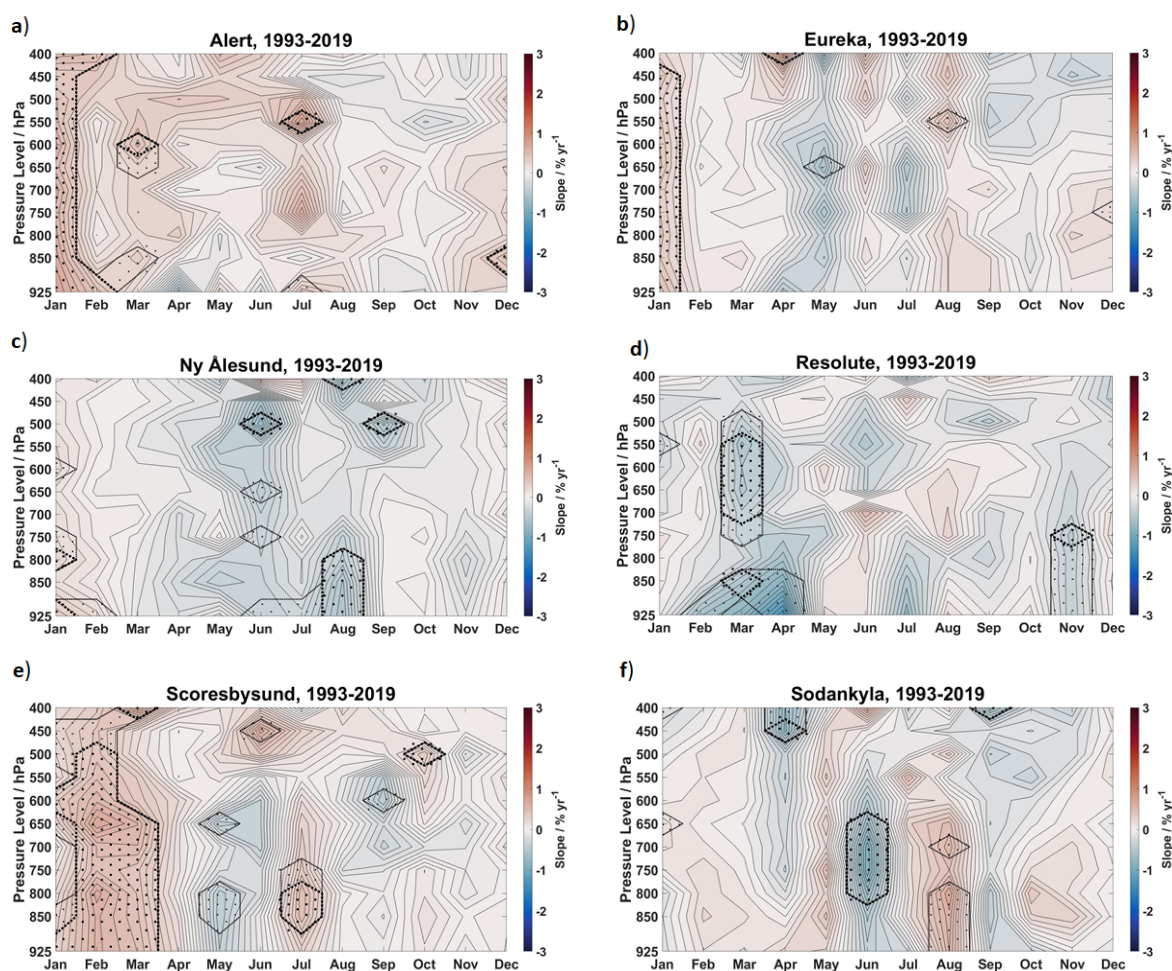


Figure 4: Vertical trends in observed monthly O_3 for 1993-2019, relative to monthly median concentrations, in % per year, from 925-400 hPa at a) Alert, b) Eureka, c) Ny Alesund, d) Resolute, e) Scoresbysund, and f) Sodankyla. Stippled lines/areas show statistical significance at the 90th % CL (smaller marker size) and 95th % CL (larger marker size).

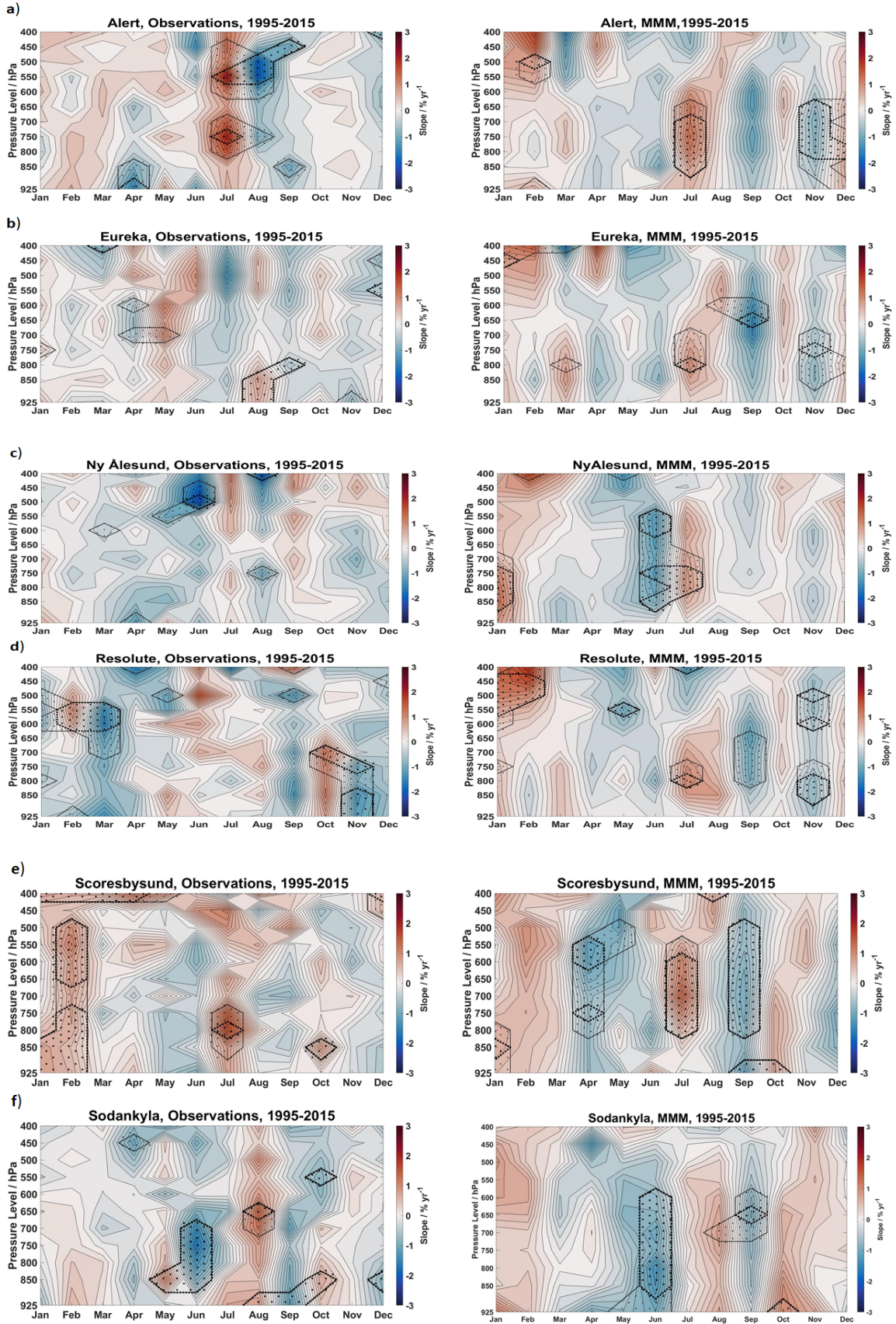


Figure 5: Comparison of observed (left) and MMM (right) vertical trends in monthly O_3 , relative to monthly medians, in % per year, from 925-400 hPa over 1995-2015 at a) Alert, b) Eureka, c) Ny Alesund, d) Resolute, e) Scoresbysund, and f) Sodankyla. Shading/symbols are as in Fig. 4.

4.2 Comparison of observed and modeled vertical trends

Figure 5 shows observed ozonesonde and MMM trends for 1995-2015 up to 400 hPa (see Fig. S9 for results up to 100 hPa). Only results from 5 models are used, since EMEP MSC-W only provided surface O_3 . The MMMs appear to capture the observed “dipole effect” seen in the observed trends. Models also capture observed increases in the winter but trends are overestimated at most sites, especially Ny Alesund and Sodankyla. Negative winter trends at Resolute are not simulated. This may be linked to positive modeled trends above 500 hPa at all sites (Fig. S9). Summertime positive ss MMM trends are larger than observed trends at some sites, e.g. Resolute and Ny Alesund.

5 Discussion and conclusions

Increasing annual surface O_3 trends at Arctic coastal sites, and at Zeppelin, are in qualitative agreement with Cooper et al. (2020), but in contrast to negative or non-significant surface trends at Canadian ozonesonde sites (Tarasick et al., 2016). A notable finding is that ss positive trends occur mainly in the winter months. While such increases were reported previously at Utqiagvik (Gaudel et al. 2018; Christiansen et al., 2022) and Alert (Sharma et al., 2019), we confirm this tendency over the wider Arctic. Emission reductions of NO_x in Europe and North America, and more recently over eastern Asia, have led to increasing wintertime O_3 at mid-latitudes due to less NO titration of O_3 (Jhun et al., 2015, Wang et al., 2022b, Bowman et al., 2022). This can explain observed increases in wintertime surface Arctic O_3 , influenced primarily by transport of air masses from Europe (Hirdman et al., 2010). Evidence for declining O_3 precursor trends is supported by decreases in observed CO in the Arctic during autumn and winter (Fig. S10). At the same time, CH_4 continues to increase globally contributing to rising O_3 in the NH (Zeng et al., 2022) (see also Text S4 on Arctic O_3 precursor trends).

Another intriguing finding is springtime ss surface O_3 increases at Utqiagvik (especially over 1999-2019, Fig S4), but no ss changes at Alert and Villum. Changes in O_3 concentrations at this

time of year may be driven by changes in ODE frequency linked to climate change or weather patterns (Oltmans et al, 2012). ODEs lead to zero or very low springtime O₃ due to bromine released from frost flowers or blowing snow (on sea-ice) (Simpson et al., 2007) or iodine compounds with a possible oceanic source (Benevant et al., 2022). Increases in springtime tropospheric bromine oxide have been observed from satellites, especially along the north coast of Greenland and central Arctic Ocean, correlating weakly with an increasing frequency in first year sea-ice (Bougoudis et al., 2020). Indeed, the frequency of low springtime O₃ concentrations has been increasing at Canadian high Arctic sites (see Fig. S11) but no ss springtime monthly trends are determined at Alert or Villum in our analysis. Springtime increases at Utqiagvik could be due to stronger transport from mid-latitudes to this site during periods with a more northerly extension of the Pacific storm track, hampering conditions for ODEs (Koo et al., 2012). They could also be due to an increasing influence from local emissions, such as shipping or Alaskan petroleum extraction, when photochemistry becomes active in spring (Gunsch et al., 2017).

Decreases in springtime/early summer O₃ in northern Scandinavia, especially over the later 1999-2019 period, are consistent with negative trends reported at Tustervatn (Cooper et al., 2020), and sites in northern Sweden during summer (Andersson et al., 2017). These decreases are associated with lower maximum O₃ concentrations linked to reductions in European precursor emissions leading to less photochemical O₃ production (Cooper et al., 2020) although no ss trends in observed Arctic CO are found at this time of year (Fig. S10). Springtime ss negative trends at Summit may also be due to emission reductions over North America. Our results do not suggest a shift in the O₃ seasonal cycle toward higher concentrations in the spring (i.e. moving back toward pre-industrial O₃ seasonality) as reported at NH mid-latitudes (Bowman et al., 2022). Another explanation for decreasing springtime O₃ at the surface could be that reductions in snow cover (Mudryk et al., 2020) are leading to more O₃ dry deposition to Scandinavian forests.

The observed and modeled surface trend comparison covers 1995-2015, thereby missing the later time period when stronger observed O₃ trends are found, especially ss positive trends in winter. MMMs capture wintertime O₃ increases at Zeppelin, but overestimate at Alert and miss increase at Utqiagvik. However, Whaley et al. (2023) noted that these models underestimate wintertime Arctic O₃ due to deficiencies modeling shallow boundary layers, O₃ deposition or NO_x lifetimes.

Nevertheless, decreasing winter trends in surface CO are captured at Alert and Utqiagvik (Fig. S10). Ss positive spring O₃ trend at Utqiagvik is not evident in MMM trends over 1995-2015. However, the models do not capture springtime O₃ seasonality due to incorrect simulation of transport patterns (Oltmans et al., 2012) or missing surface halogen chemistry (Whaley et al., 2023). Negative ss springtime (May) trends are not always reproduced, possibly reflecting issues in the emission trends or modeled dry deposition.

FT O₃ trends are ss positive in winter at all Arctic sites, except Resolute, in common with several coastal Arctic surface sites. These results are in-line with increases reported at NH mid-latitudes (Cooper et al., 2020), and at Canadian ozonesonde sites (up to 400 hPa), except Resolute (Wang et al., 2022a). MMM trends are similar to observed trends over 1995-2015, including where they are ss. Patterns in observed trends are quite well captured, notably positive ss trends in winter and summer, although they tend to be overestimated. Observed negative trends in spring, extending from near the surface into the FT, are generally reproduced, and are likely to be due to decreasing NO_x emissions leading to lower FT O₃ where photochemical production is NO_x-limited. Overestimation of winter trends contrasts to previous studies where models underestimated NH trends (Wang et al., 2022a; Christiansen et al., 2022). This may be due to differences in model transport or O₃ precursor emission trends, including NO_x reductions (see also Text S4). AMAP models overestimate mid-latitude FT O₃ (Whaley et al., 2023), possibly suggesting a larger sensitivity to precursor emission changes.

Observed trends in the UT (LS) appear to have switched from positive to negative since 1993 in winter/spring, which may explain stronger positive FT trends in the earlier part of the record (1993-2013). More frequent positive phases of the Arctic Oscillation in recent years may be contributing with a weaker Brewer-Dobson circulation leading to less transport of stratospheric O₃ into the Arctic UT-LS, a higher tropopause height, and thus lower O₃ concentrations in this region (Zhang et al., 2017). However, Liu et al. (2020) did not detect any trend in the stratospheric O₃ flux into the Arctic UT. On the other hand, Wang et al. (2022a) attributed FT increases in NH mid-high latitude O₃ to increases in aircraft NO_x emissions.

Overall, this study finds significant robust trends in Arctic tropospheric O₃. Observed trends are generally quite well captured by multi-model median results, although for example, they

overestimate wintertime free tropospheric increases, and miss Alaskan surface increases in spring. Further investigation into the causes of observed trends, and model performance, are needed taking into account uncertainties in the observations and models (Young et al., 2018; Fiore et al., 2022).

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Data Availability Statement:

Surface O₃ monitoring datasets are provided by EMEP (European Monitoring and Evaluation Program), and Global Atmosphere Watch (GAW) World Data Centre for Reactive Gases. EMEP and GAW O₃ data are available via the EBAS data portal (from end of 1989 to present). CO data at Utqiagvik/Barrow and Zeppelin are also available via the EBAS data portal:

<http://ebas.nilu.no>. Select the station name, and the component (CO, O₃) to access the data files.

Canadian surface O₃ data can be downloaded from: [https://data-](https://data-donnees.ec.gc.ca/data/air/monitor/networks-and-studies/alert-nunavut-ground-level-ozone-study/)

[donnees.ec.gc.ca/data/air/monitor/networks-and-studies/alert-nunavut-ground-level-ozone-](https://data-donnees.ec.gc.ca/data/air/monitor/networks-and-studies/alert-nunavut-ground-level-ozone-study/)

[study/](https://data-donnees.ec.gc.ca/data/air/monitor/networks-and-studies/alert-nunavut-ground-level-ozone-study/). Canadian surface CO is available at: [https://data-](https://data-donnees.ec.gc.ca/data/air/monitor/national-air-pollution-surveillance-naps-program/?lang=en)

[donnees.ec.gc.ca/data/air/monitor/national-air-pollution-surveillance-naps-program/?lang=en](https://data-donnees.ec.gc.ca/data/air/monitor/national-air-pollution-surveillance-naps-program/?lang=en).

Click on folders Data, Year, ContinuousData, then HourlyData. Surface O₃ records for

Utqiagvik/Barrow (BRW) and Summit (SUM) are provided by PE and IE via NOAA GML. Data

is available at <https://gml.noaa.gov/aftp/data/ozwv/SurfaceOzone/>. Click on the directories for

BRM or SUM to obtain the data. Surface O₃ measurements at Summit are made possible via the

U.S. National Science Foundation Office of Polar Programs and their contract with Battelle

Arctic Research Operations (contract #49100420C0001). Ny Ålesund, Scoresbysund and

Sodankylä ozonesonde data are obtained as part of the Network for the Detection of Atmospheric

Composition Change (NDACC). Data is available via <https://ndacc.larc.nasa.gov/index.php/stations>. Click on the relevant site location to access the data files. Ozonesonde data for Alert, Resolute and Eureka have been reprocessed according to Tarasick et al. (2016), available at <https://hegiftom.meteo.be/datasets/ozonesondes>.

All model output files in NetCDF format from the simulations used in this study can be found here: <https://open.canada.ca/data/en/dataset/c9a333ea-b81c-4df3-9880-ea7c3daeb76f>. Model codes for GISS-E2.1 are available at: <https://www.giss.nasa.gov/tools/modelE/>.

Open-source codes for the Mann-Kendall test associated with Sen’s slope are distributed under the BSD 3-Clause License in dedicated GitHub repositories hosted within the “mannkendall” organization (<https://github.com/mannkendall>), a Matlab (Collaud Coen and Vogt, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4134618>, <https://github.com/mannkendall/Matlab>), Python (Vogt, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4134435>, <https://github.com/mannkendall/Python>), and R (Bigi and Vogt, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4134632>, <https://github.com/mannkendall/R>). Last access for all codes 27 January 2023.

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Arctic Tropospheric Ozone Trends

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Introduction

The supporting information gives details about surface and ozonesonde data coverage (Text S1, Figs. S1 and S2), the trend analysis method (Text S2), and the models (Text S3) used in this study, and discusses trends of tropospheric ozone (O₃) precursors in the Arctic (Text S4). Additional figures show O₃ trends at Arctic locations not shown in the main text, and trends over different time periods for both the observations and models (Figs. S3-S9). Trends in surface carbon monoxide (CO) (Fig. S10), and in low springtime O₃ concentrations at Canadian Arctic

sites (Fig. S11) are also shown. Tables S1 and S2 provide additional details about the models and surface annual O₃ trends, respectively. See Fig. 1 in main text for measurement site locations.

Text S1. Data coverage

To ensure proper statistical representation of the data coverage thresholds at least 50% of available data is required for the calculation of monthly and annual trends. Data coverage for the surface sites is shown in Fig. S1. It is also verified that at least one complete year of data is available at the beginning and end of the time series, since incomplete years at the beginning and end of a time series can have a larger influence on trend analysis results (Collaud Coen et al., 2020). Esrange has full data coverage, with less than five months having coverage lower than 50%. Pallas, Summit, Tustervatn and Zeppelin have one to three periods of 1-2 years without data that do not preclude long-term trend analysis, although it should be noted that the Summit record only started in June 2000. Alert and Villum have a high monthly data coverage but suffer from missing data over a 4-5 year period in the middle of the time series. For Alert, there are two missing periods throughout the time series. For Villum there is only one missing period although the period 1996-2002 suffers from poor data coverage. Therefore, trends at Villum and Alert can be considered as valid but should be interpreted with caution (Collaud Coen et al., 2020).

Ozonesondes were launched at least once per week at the six Arctic stations used in this analysis. There are periods with up to three soundings a week, mostly in winter and spring (Fig. S2). Periods without measurements do not exceed 1 month except at Eureka, where there are five periods with missing data of three to eight months mostly in spring (2000, 2003, 2005, 2006, and 2016) and a 3-month period missing in 2006 at Sodankyla. The mean yearly number of soundings varies between 38 (Resolute) and 90 (Ny Ålesund). At Alert and Sodankyla a lower number of soundings were performed in 2016-2020. A visual inspection of the O₃ time series at the 20 pressure levels used in this analysis does not show evidence for any rupture apart from at the 4 lowest levels before 1995 at Eureka, potentially resulting in lower O₃ concentrations.

Text S2. Trend analysis methodology

Long-term trend determination needs to be applied to homogeneous time series in order to analyze real variations or changes in the observations as opposed to artifacts. For the surface O₃ concentrations, while data is taken from quality-controlled repositories, this does not take into account technical changes such as modification or changes in instrumentation, station position, changes to calibration procedures or instrumental drifts. Visual inspection allowed detection of potential ruptures in the time series.

Trends in surface O₃ concentrations at different sites are determined using the non-parametric Mann-Kendall test and Sen's slope methodology (Theil, 1950; Sen, 1968), and calculated using daily medians of the O₃ volume mixing ratios using hourly observations. These tests require the data to be serially independent and homogeneously distributed. However, the O₃ measurements are significantly lag-1 auto-correlated and exhibit high amounts of seasonality. Therefore, the data is prewhitened to remove the lag-1 autocorrelation. The seasonal Mann-Kendall test is applied to address the seasonality present in the data (Hirsch et al., 1982) using the Matlab version (Collaud Coen and Vogt, 2021) of the 3PW algorithm from Collaud Coen et al. (2020).

The 3PW method uses two prewhitening methods prior to testing for statistical significance. The first method from Kulkarni and von Storch (1995) simply removes the lag-1 autocorrelation (referred to as PW). This method has a low rate of false positives but lowers the power of the Mann-Kendall test. The second prewhitening method from Yue and Wang (2002), detrends the data before prewhitening (referred to as TFPW-Y). This method returns the power of the Mann-Kendall test although it increases the rate of false positives. Trends must be statistically significant using both methods to be considered significant in the 3PW algorithm. If a significant trend is present, then the slope is calculated using the variance corrected trend free prewhitening (VCTFPW) method from Wang et al. (2015), which gives an unbiased estimate of the Theil Sen slope. This method maximizes the advantages of these prewhitening methods and minimizes their disadvantages. We use the seasonal Mann-Kendall test on a monthly temporal segmentation (i.e., a trend analysis is performed on each value in a respective month over the period analyzed). For the O₃ soundings weekly resolution is applied since regular daily measurements are not available. Relative monthly trends (% per year) for the 20 pressure levels of the ozonesonde data are calculated as absolute monthly trends divided by monthly median concentrations x 100 %. Statistically significant (ss) trends are determined at the 90th and 95th % confidence levels (CLs). The Theil-Sen estimator is the median of all possible pairwise slopes. Upper CL and lower CL, on the 95th % CL, contain the middle 95% of the pairwise slopes, which are normally distributed (Gilbert, 1987). To test the robustness of the results, trends are also compared for different periods of available records (1993-2019, 1993-2013, 1999-2019), and comparison with the model results (1995-2015). Monthly medians are used to compare model results with the observations since higher temporal resolution results are not available from the models. In all cases, model results are averaged to produce multi-model median (MMM) results.

For trends in the yearly median, a simple Mann-Kendall test and Theil Sen Slope without prewhitening are employed, using the MAKESENS application (Salmi et al., 2002), since there is no seasonality present, and the data are not autocorrelated. The minimum requirement for including observation series in this evaluation is data available from 1996 to 2018 in order to have comparable trends. Nearly all of the stations have years with less than 50% data coverage which are not included in the calculations of the annual trends. Relative trends are given as percentages of median concentrations.

Text S3. Models

Four global chemistry-climate (CMAM, GISS-E2.1, MRI-ESM2, UKESM1) and two chemistry-transport (DEHM, EMEP MSC-W) models were run using the same (ECLIPSEv6b) anthropogenic emissions for 1990 (1995 for GISS model) to 2015 as part of the Arctic Monitoring and Assessment Programme (AMAP) assessment (AMAP, 2021). They were run with different biogenic emissions and meteorology and nudged using different reanalysis products (see Table S1). The models also vary in their representation of the stratosphere with only a subset of having a fully simulated stratosphere. CMAM, MRI-ESM2, GISS-E2.1, and UKESM1 contain relatively complete stratospheric O₃ chemistry (involving nitrogen oxides (NO_x), chlorine and bromine chemistry), while the other models have no stratospheric chemistry (DEHM, EMEP MSC-W). Model results from 1995-2015 are used in this study.

Present-day model simulations for 2014-2015, including the models contributing to this study, were evaluated first against a limited set of tropospheric Arctic O₃ observations (Whaley et al., 2022), and also in more detail, including tropospheric Arctic O₃ seasonal cycles, in our companion paper Whaley et al. (2023). These evaluations show large variability in model performance. The MMMs capture surface Arctic O₃ observations quite well, except for low concentrations observed during high Arctic polar spring (Whaley et al., 2023). Most atmospheric models, including all of the models in this study, do not yet contain Arctic tropospheric halogen chemistry, and thus cannot simulate the surface-level bromine and iodine-driven O₃ depletion events that occur during spring at some Arctic locations (Whaley et al., 2023). Model performance in the free troposphere is better (within +/- 10%) compared to satellite, aircraft and ozonesonde data, but upper tropospheric O₃ is overestimated (Whaley et al., 2022, 2023).

Text S4. Trends in tropospheric Arctic O₃ precursors

To understand Arctic tropospheric O₃ trends, it is important to understand trends in O₃ precursors as well as other factors such as changing transport patterns. O₃ precursors include methane (CH₄), CO, NO_x and non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs). While, as pointed out in the main text, precursor trends over Northern Hemisphere (NH) mid-latitude emission regions are likely contributing to changes in Arctic tropospheric O₃, it is also useful to examine precursor trends in the Arctic, when long-term measurements are available, and to evaluate MMM trends. The contribution of different sources, including precursor emissions, and sinks of Arctic O₃ is discussed in Whaley et al. (2023) and references therein.

Arctic CH₄ at the surface rose from 1.75 ppmv in 1984 to 1.95 ppmv in 2020 (AMAP, 2021). The increasing trend was interrupted by a plateau between 2000 and 2005 that accelerated after 2015 based on data from Pallas, Zeppelin and Utqiagvik (formerly known as Barrow). AMAP (2021) derived an ss (95th % CL) observed annual trend of +2.29+/-0.55 ppbv per year, whereas modeled CH₄, which was prescribed, had an annual trend of +2.79 ppbv per year, ss only at 90th % CL. Thus, modeled and measured trends are reasonably comparable. Around 40% of Arctic O₃ response to precursor emission changes may be due to increasing CH₄ (AMAP, 2015).

Mackie et al. (2016) showed that CO decreased from 1989-2012 at Utqiagvik with the largest ss decreases in winter and spring attributed to decreasing anthropogenic CO emissions in Europe and North America. Figure S10 compares seasonal CO trends from observations and MMM results at the few sites with long time series (Alert, Utqiagvik and Zeppelin). These trend calculations are based on monthly averages, applying the 3PW algorithm, as discussed in 2.3 and S2, for periods with available data. MMM results are in general agreement with the observations showing ss negative trends in winter and autumn. However, it can be noted that the models underestimate surface NH CO in winter (Whaley et al, 2023). This discrepancy is larger earlier in the time series, while the models agree better with observed CO later in the time series (not shown).

There are no reported trends in NO_x or NMVOCs in the Arctic due to a lack of long-term measurements (AMAP, 2021). In general, observed NMVOC concentrations are low at Arctic sites monitoring background air masses, and away from local sources (Pernov et al. 2021). Thus,

167 local NMVOC photo-oxidation only has limited effect on Arctic tropospheric O₃ as discussed by
168 Helmig et al. (2014) and Gautrois et al. (2003). However, long-range transport of air masses,
169 influenced by mid-latitude anthropogenic and natural NMVOC emissions, can influence Arctic
170 tropospheric O₃ (Whaley et al., 2023). NO_x concentrations are also generally low in the
171 background Arctic troposphere (Whaley et al., 2023), but can be elevated near local sources, for
172 example due to shipping emissions (e.g. Marelle et al., 2016). Also, long-range transport of NO_x
173 reservoir species such as peroxy-acetyl nitrate (PAN) or nitric acid can decompose in the warmer
174 spring and summer months producing NO_x (Law et al. (2014) and refs therein). Walker et al.
175 (2012) estimated that more than 50% of O₃ in the Arctic during summer is formed from local
176 PAN decomposition. Whaley et al (2023) showed that MMMs underestimate CO and NO_x
177 throughout the troposphere, but overestimates PAN compared to observed aircraft profiles in the
178 Arctic. Despite these differences, models match observed O₃ profiles in the troposphere, but
179 significantly overestimates O₃ near the tropopause, as noted earlier.

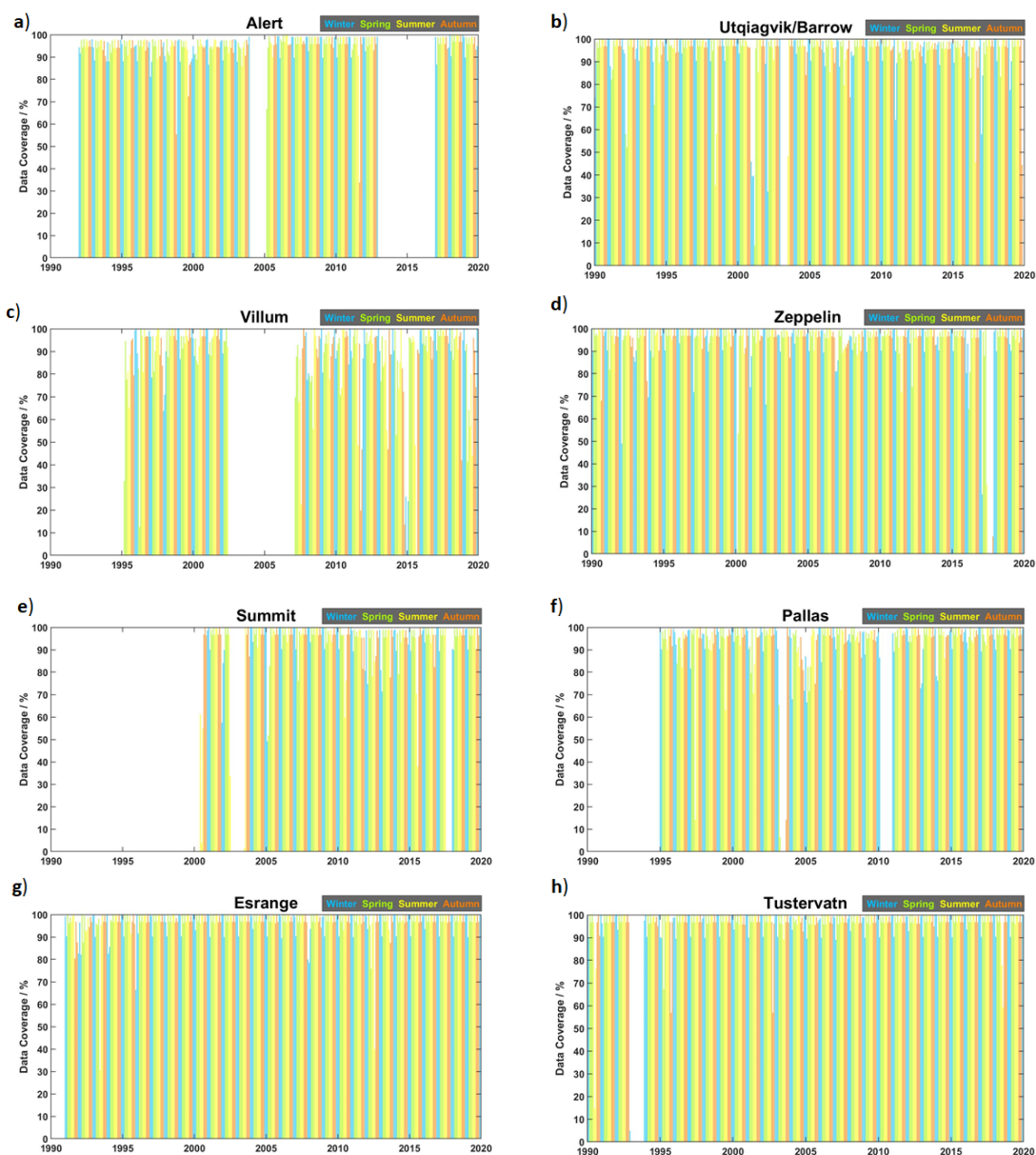


Figure S1. Data coverage for surface O_3 measurements at a) Alert, b) Utqiagvik, c) Villum, d) Zeppelin, e) Summit, f) Pallas, g) Esrange, and h) Tustervatn. Coverage is given as a percentage of hours with measurements compared to the total number of hours for each month. Monthly coverage is color-coded by the meteorological seasons. See Figure 1 for station locations.

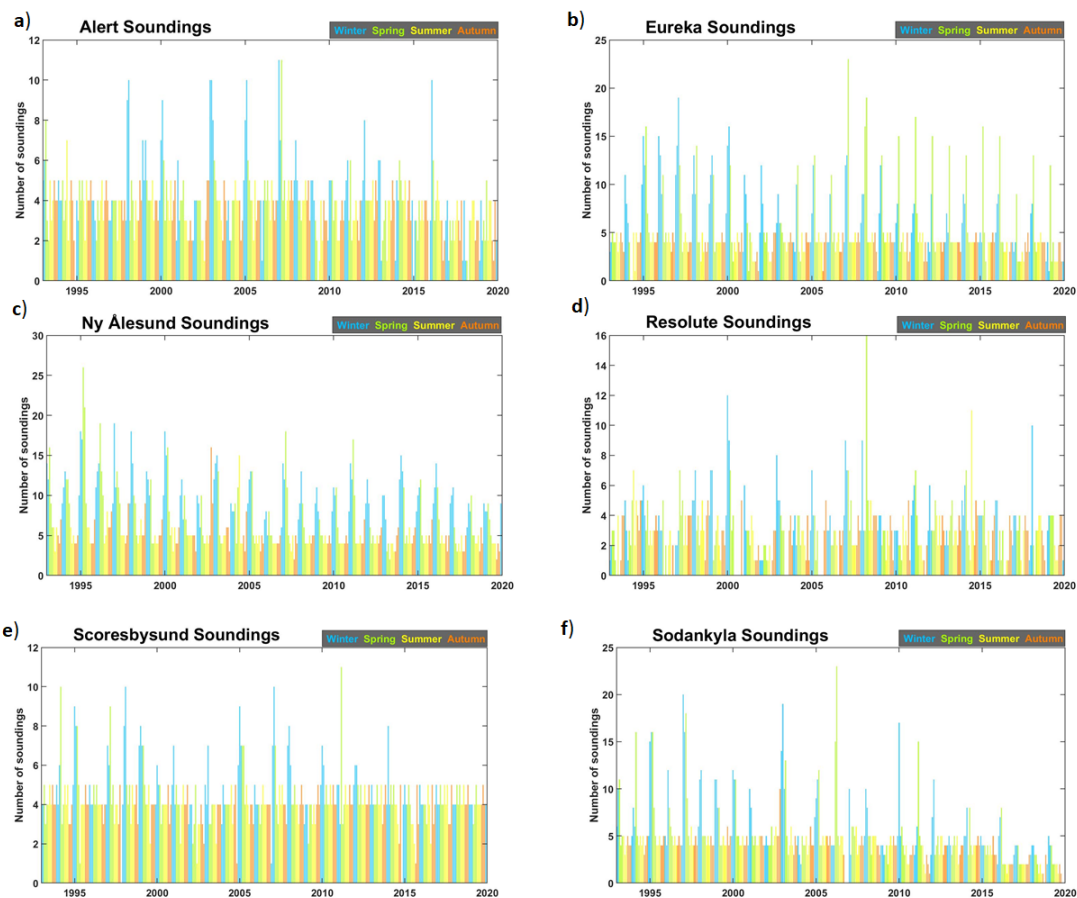


Figure S2. Ozonesonde data coverage at a) Alert, b) Eureka, c) Ny Alesund, d) Resolute, e) Scoresbysund, and f) Sodankyla. The number of O_3 soundings in each month is shown color-coded by the meteorological seasons. See Figure 1 for station locations.

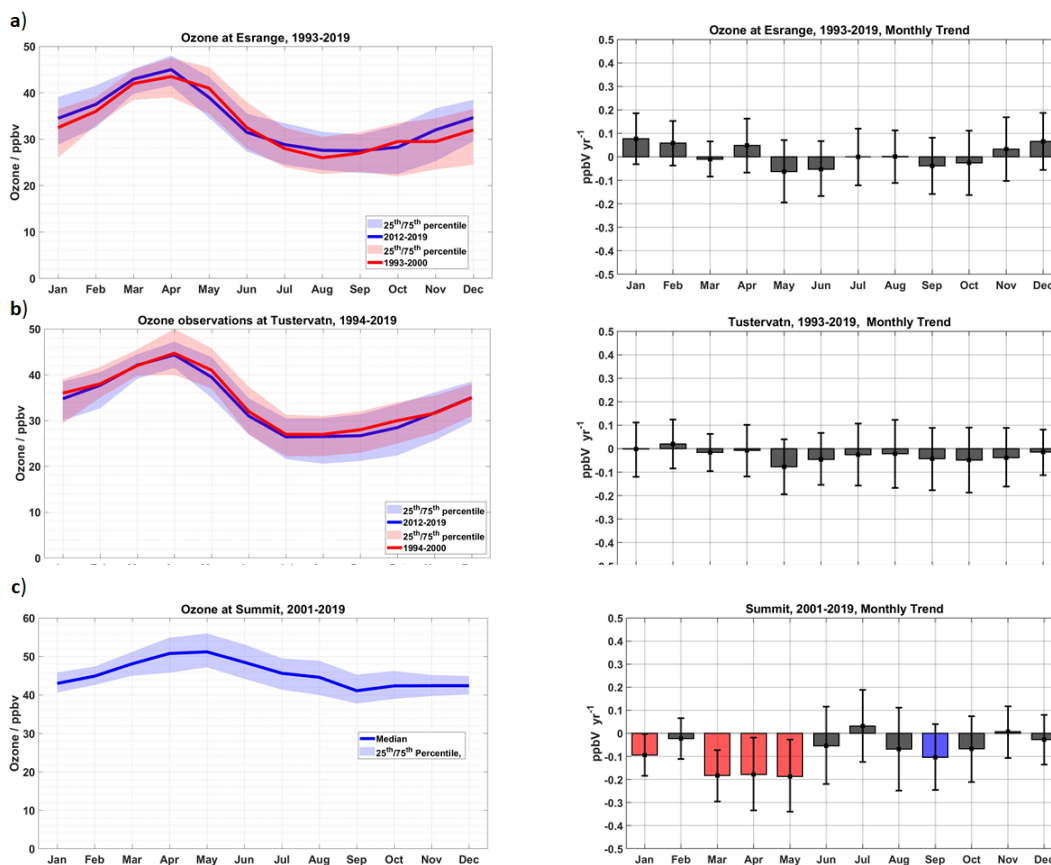


Figure S3. Observed surface O_3 trends and seasonal cycles. Left panels: seasonal cycles of monthly median O_3 (ppbv) at a) Esrange, and b) Tustervatn for 1993-2000 (blue lines) vs 2012-2019 (red lines), and c) Summit for 2001-2019 only. Shaded areas show upper and lower quartiles of hourly values. Right panels: monthly trends over 1993-2019, or for shorter periods depending on data availability. Boxes represent the slope of the trend in ppbv per year with red boxes significant at 95th% CL, blue boxes at 90th% CL, and black boxes not statistically significant. Error bars show 95th% CLs.

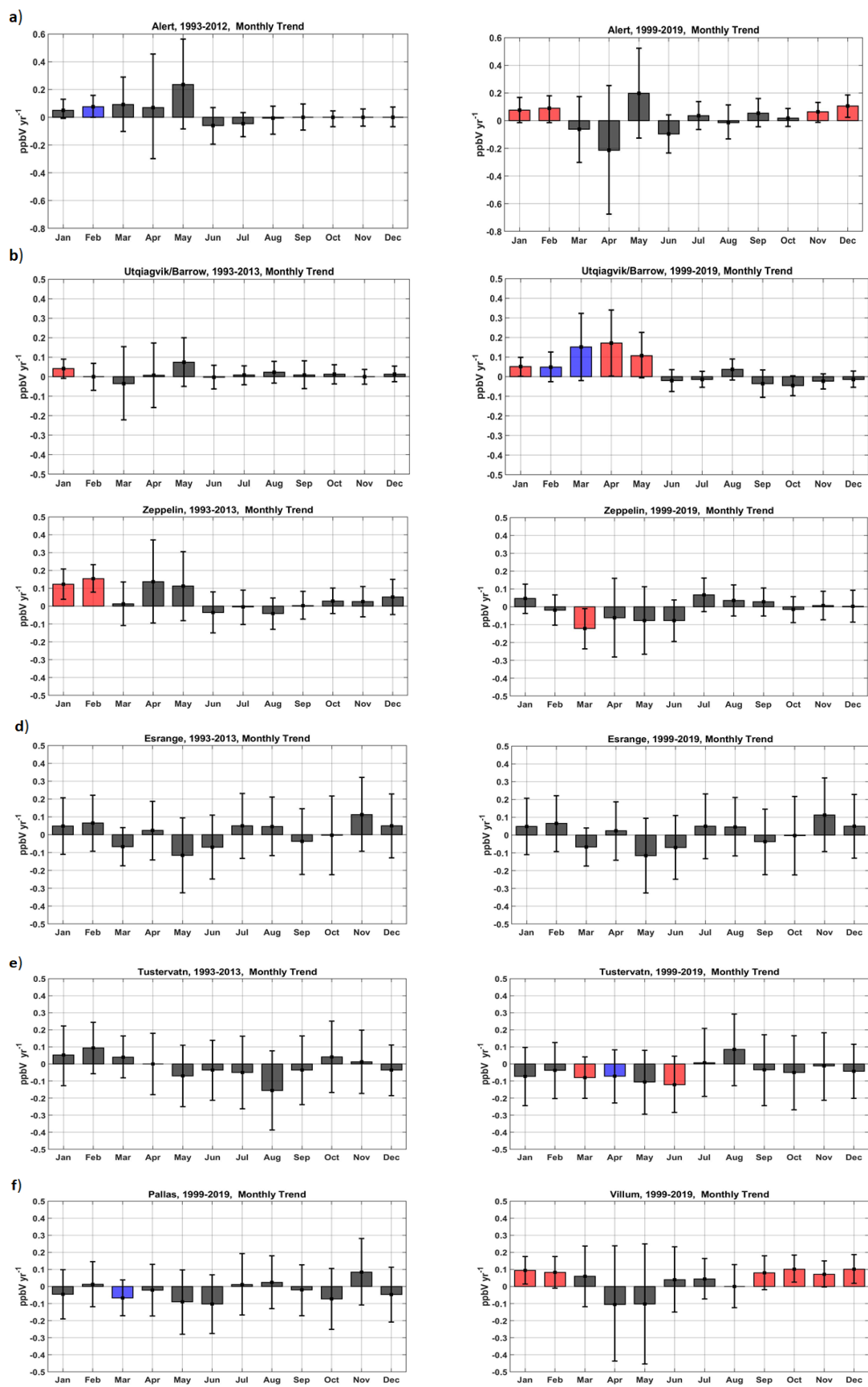


Figure S4. Comparison of observed surface O_3 monthly median trends in ppbv per year for different time periods at a) Alert, b) Utqiaġvik, c) Zeppelin, d) Esrange, e) Tustervatn for 1993-2012 and 1999-2019, depending on data availability, and f) Pallas (left) and Villum (right) for 1999-2019, when good data coverage is available. Box coloring and error bars are the same as Fig. S3 (right panels).

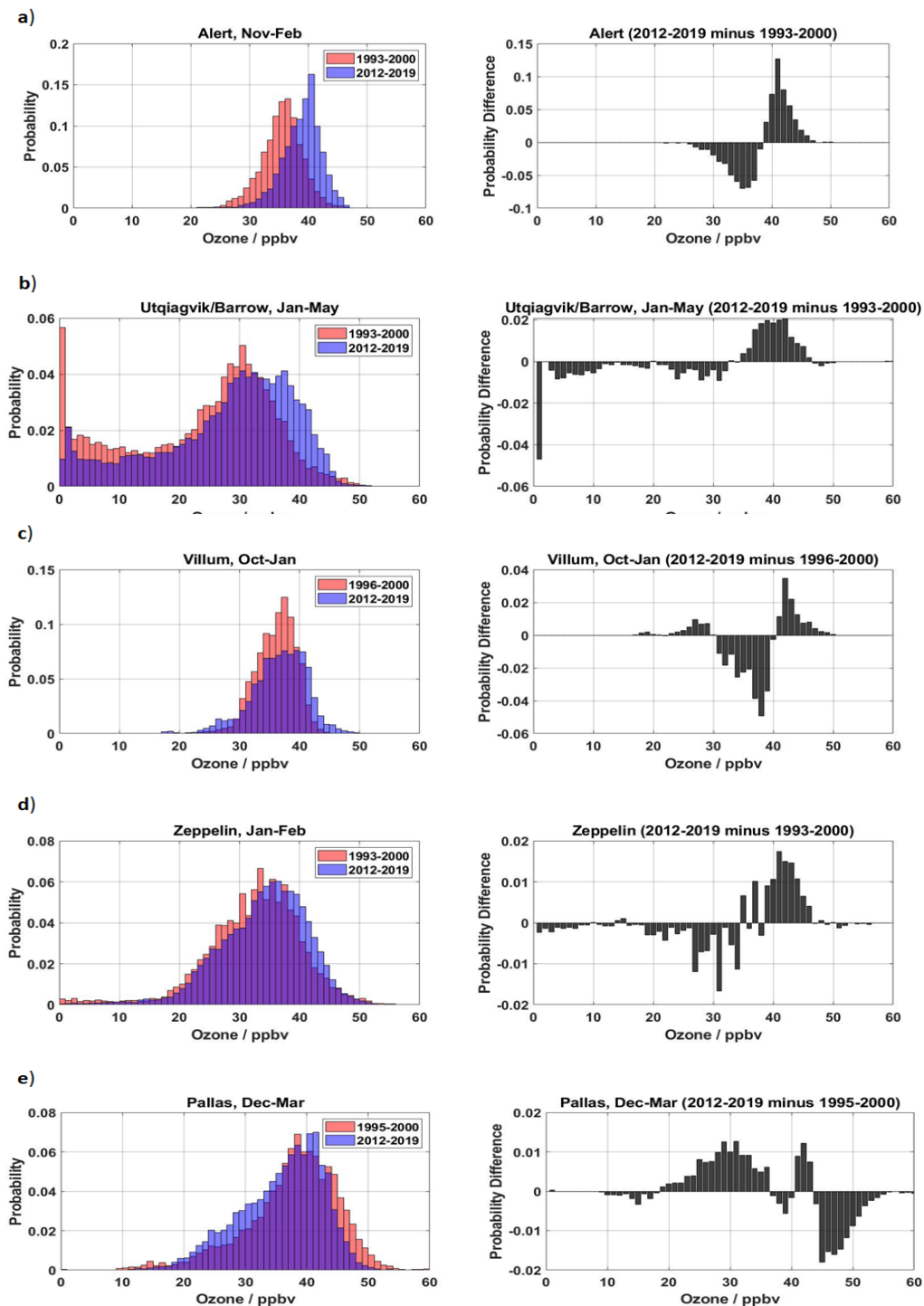


Figure S5. Changes in probability distributions of surface O_3 concentrations in ppbv between earlier (1993-2000) and later (2012-2019) periods for selected months with statistically significant trends (see Figs. 2 and S3) at a) Alert, b) Utqiagvik, c) Villum, d) Zeppelin, and e) Pallas. Periods shown vary depending on data availability.

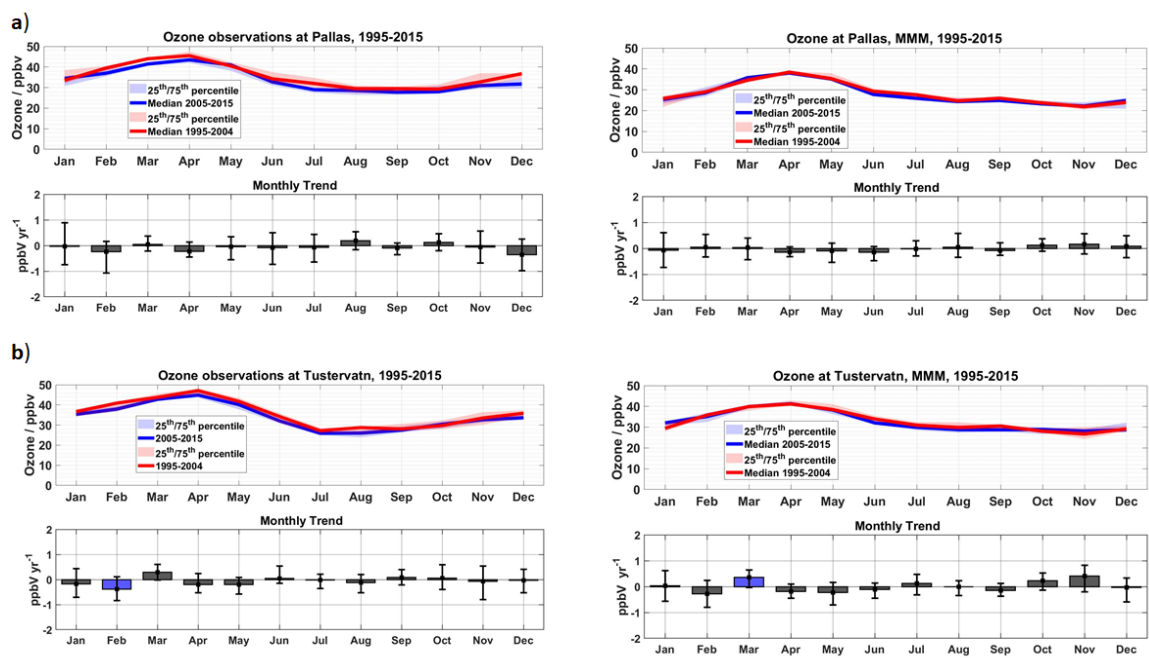


Figure S6. Comparison of observed (left) and MMM (right) surface O_3 trends and seasonal cycles at a) Pallas and b) Tustervatn. Upper panels: seasonal cycles for 1995-2004 (red lines) vs 2005-2015 (blue lines). Shaded areas show upper and lower quartiles of hourly values (observations only). Lower panels: monthly median trends in ppbv per year for 1995-2015. Box coloring and error bars are the same as Fig. S3. Shorter periods are shown depending on data availability.

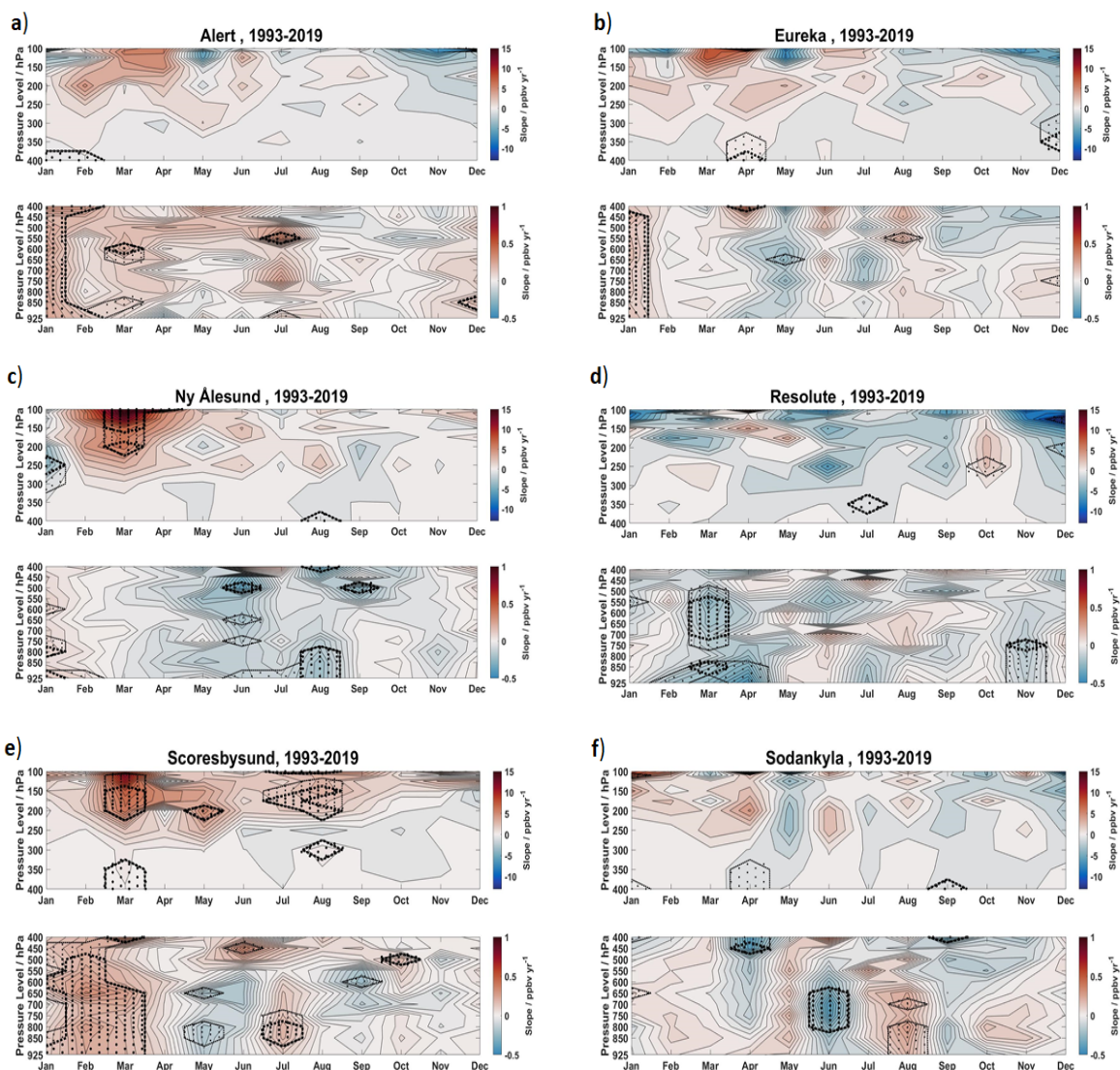


Figure S7a. Absolute vertical trends in observed monthly O_3 for 1993-2019 in ppbv per year at a) Alert, b) Eureka, c) Ny Alesund, d) Resolute, e) Scoresbysund and f) Sodankyla. Upper panels: upper troposphere and lower stratosphere (400-100 hPa). Lower panels: mid- and lower troposphere (925-400 hPa). Note the different color scales. Stippled lines/areas show statistical significance at the 90th % CL (smaller marker size) and 95th % CL (larger marker size).

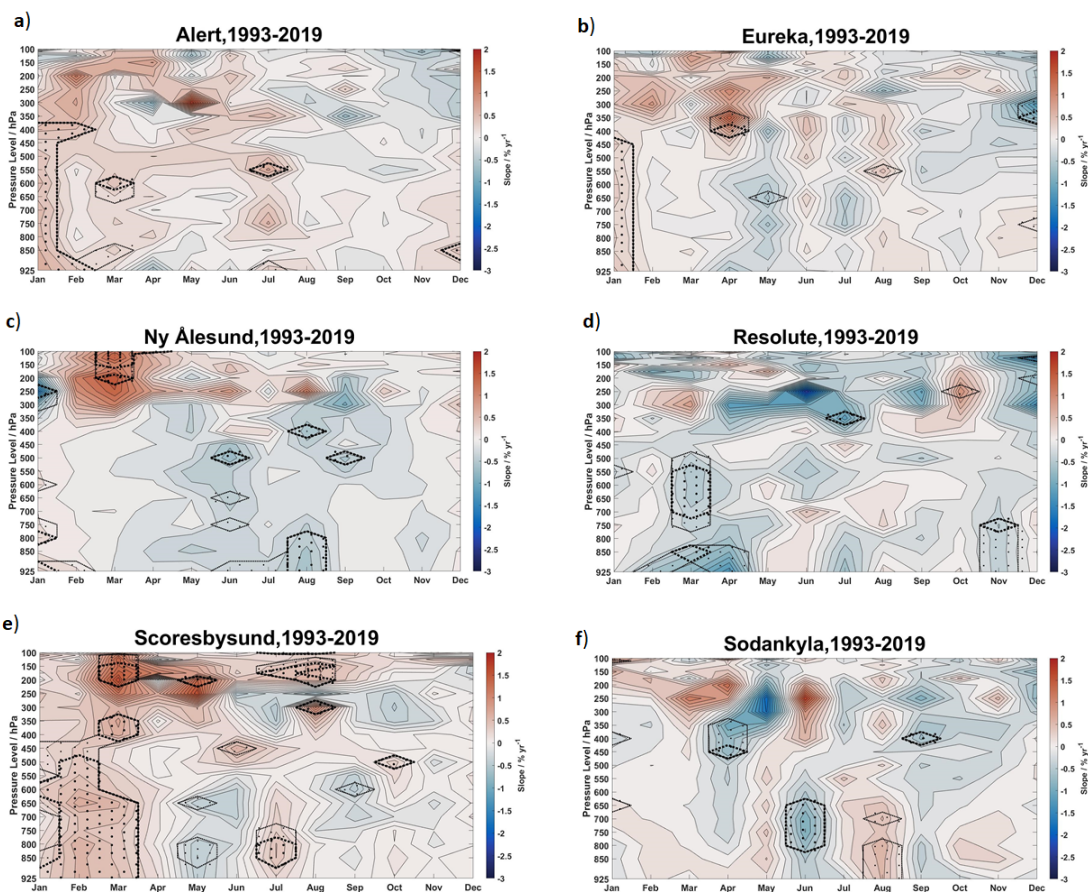
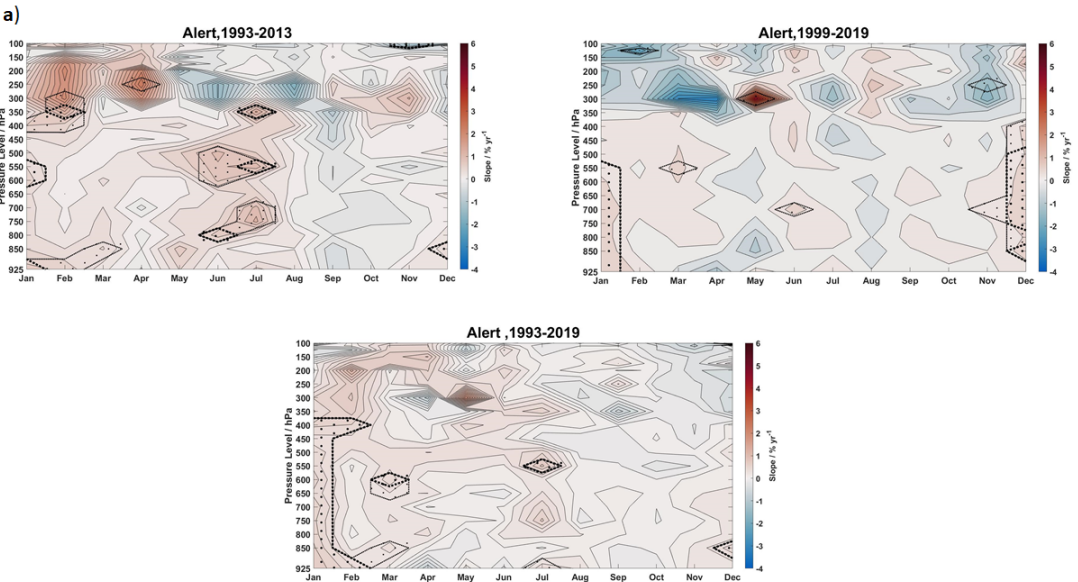
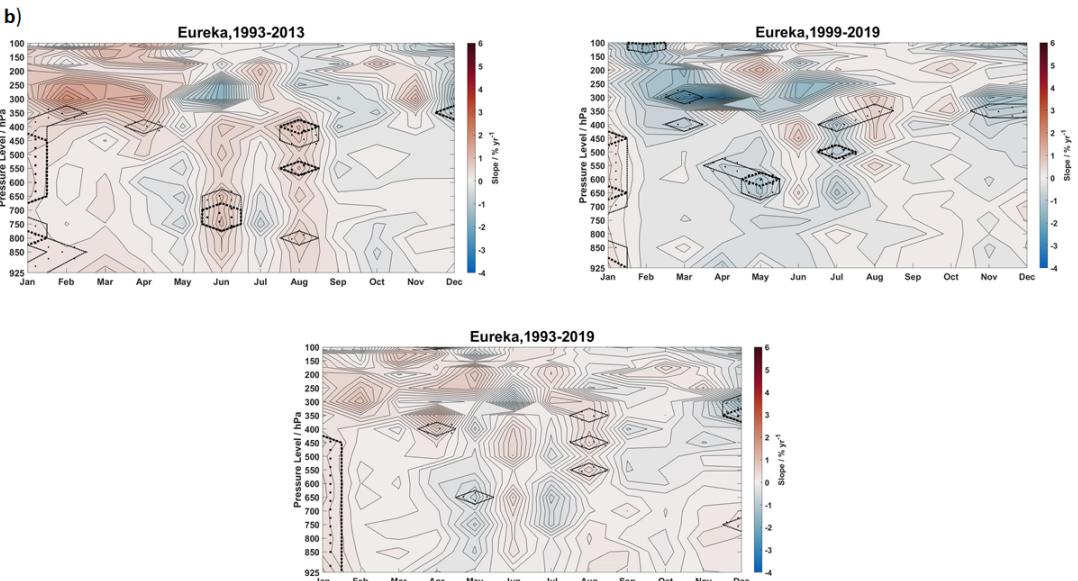


Figure S7b: Same as Figure S7a, but vertical trends from 925-100 hPa in observed monthly O_3 for 1993-2019, relative to monthly median concentrations, in % per year. Shading and symbols are the same as Fig S7a.

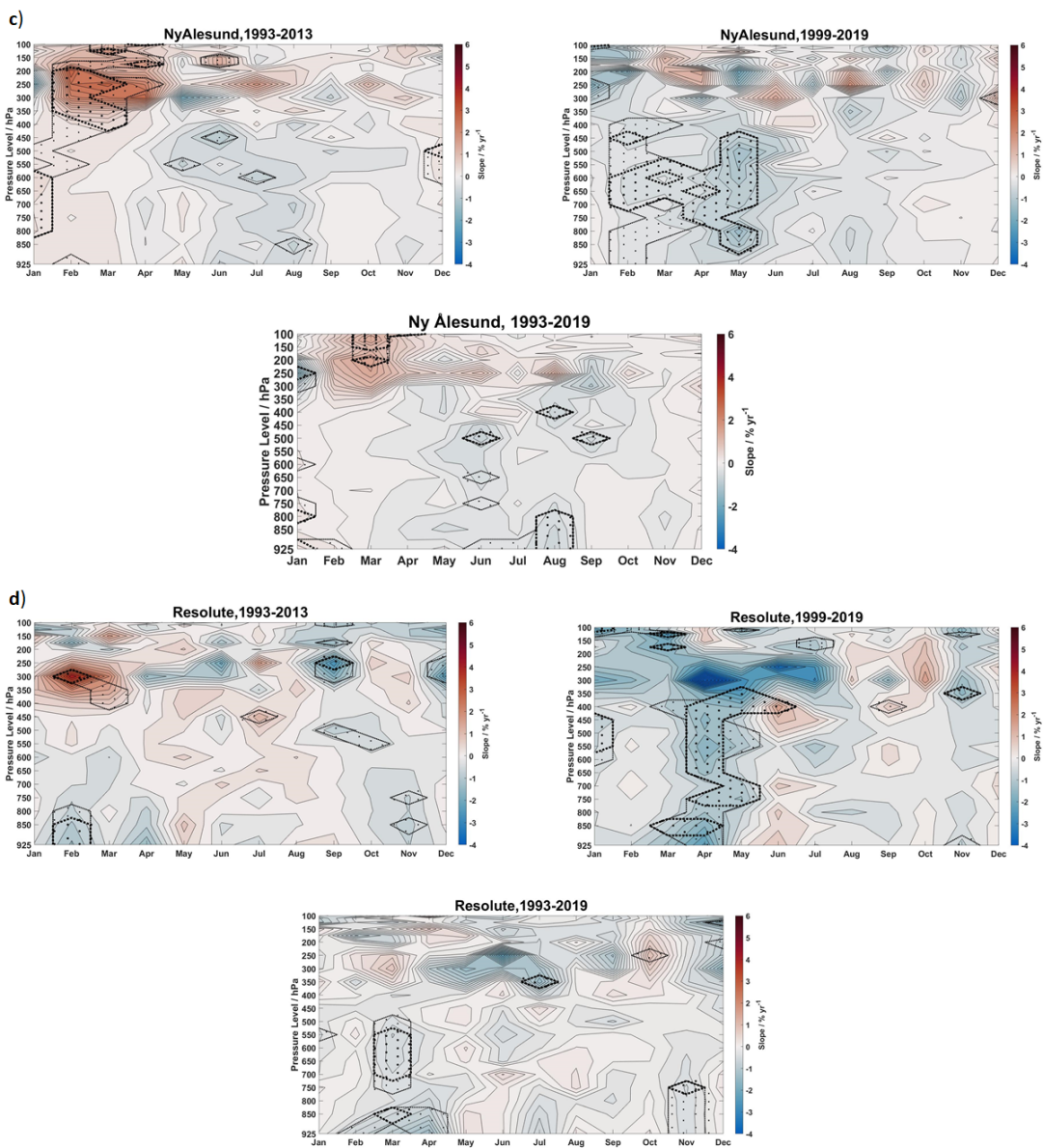
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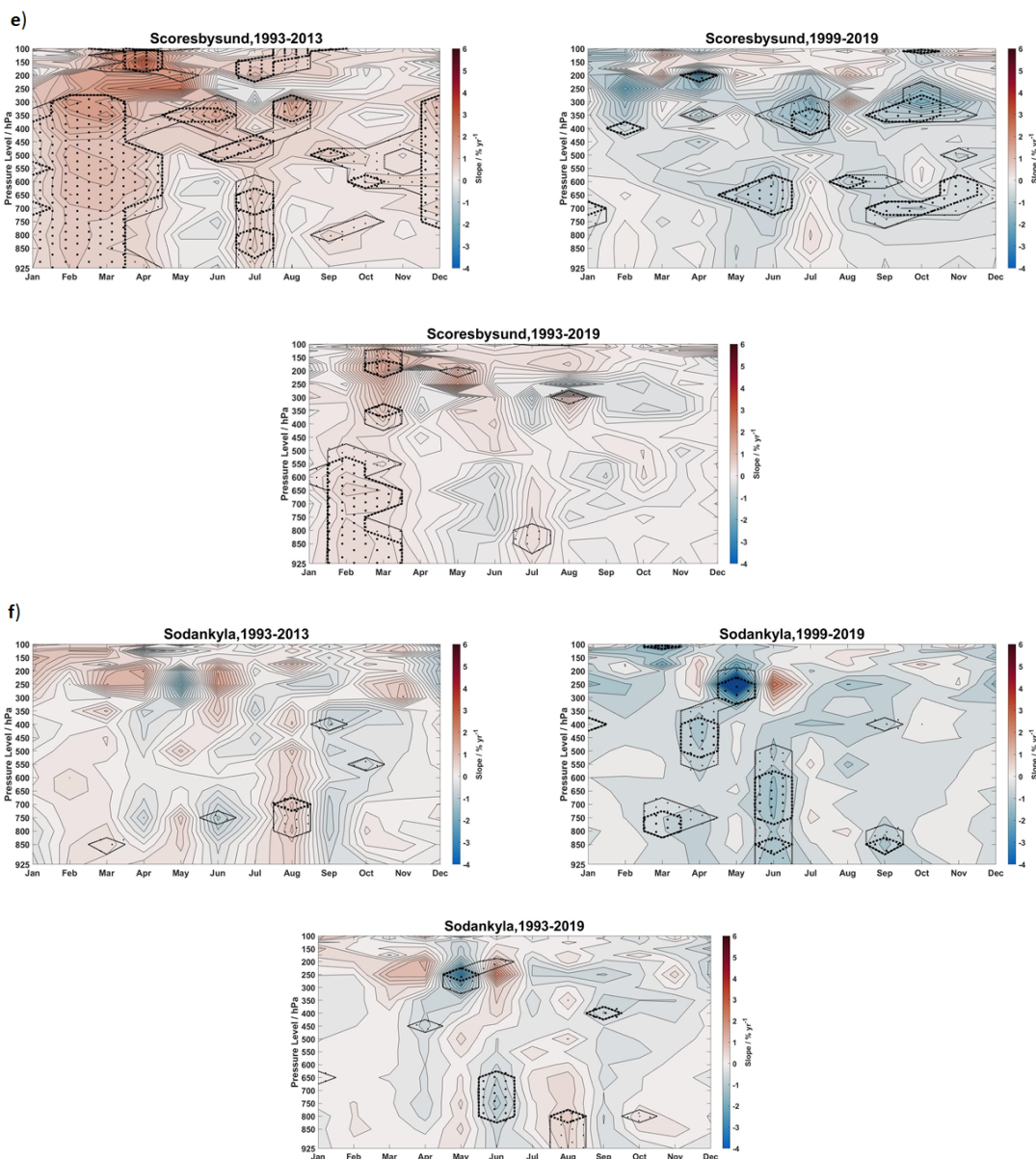


Figure S8. Vertical trends in observed monthly O_3 , relative to monthly median concentrations, in % per year, for different time periods (1993-2013, 1999-2019, and 1993-2019) from 925-100 hPa at a) Alert, b) Eureka, c) Ny Alesund, d) Resolute, e) Scoresbysund, and f) Sodankylä. Shading and symbols are the same as Fig S7a.

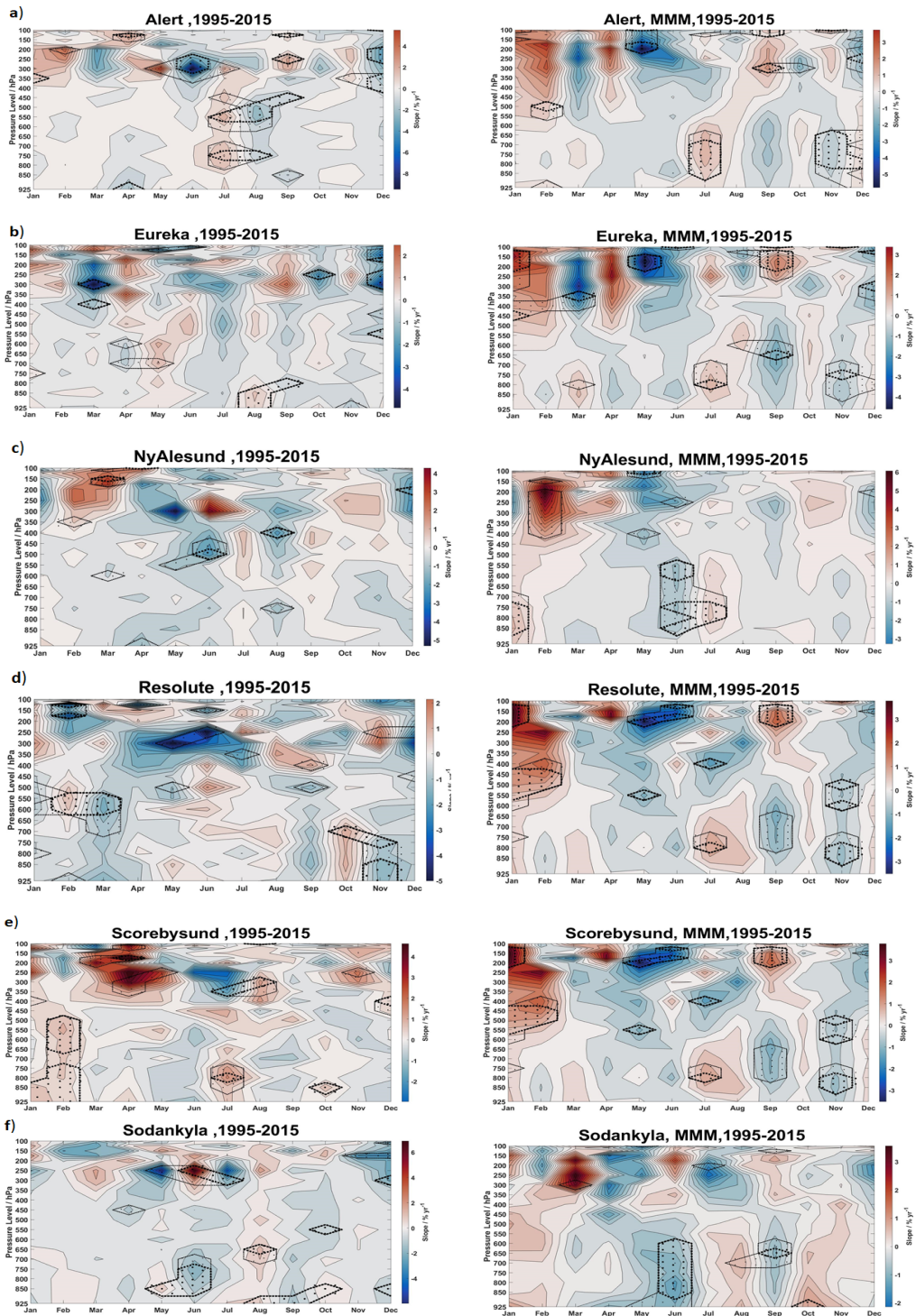


Figure S9: Comparison of observed (left) and MMM (right) vertical trends in monthly O_3 , relative to monthly medians, in % per year, from 925-100 hPa over 1995-2015 at a) Alert, b) Eureka, c) Ny Alesund, d) Resolute, e) Scoresbysund, and f) Sodankyla. Shading/symbols are the same as Fig. S7a.

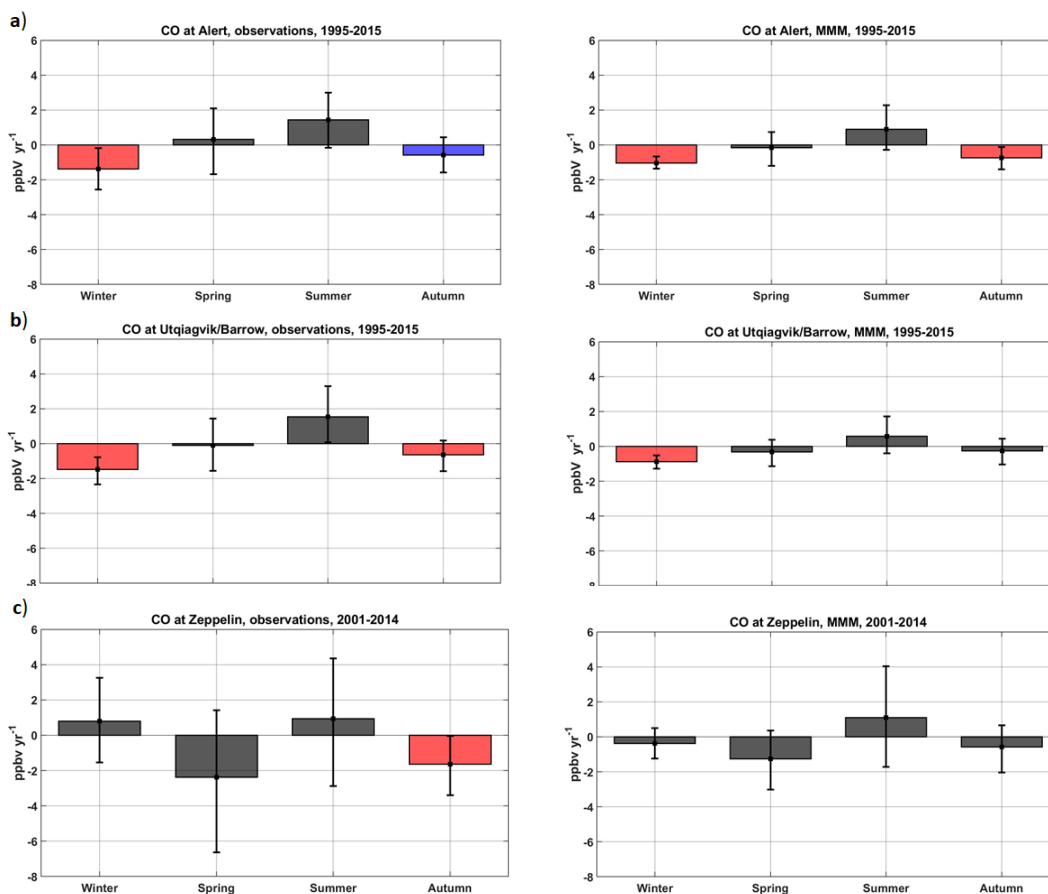


Figure S10. Observed (left) and MMM (right) seasonal surface CO trends at a) Alert, b) Utqiagvik, and c) Zeppelin. Boxes represent the slope of the trend in ppbv per year with red boxes significant at 95th % CL, blue boxes at 90th % CL, and black boxes not statistically significant. Error bars show 95th % CLs.

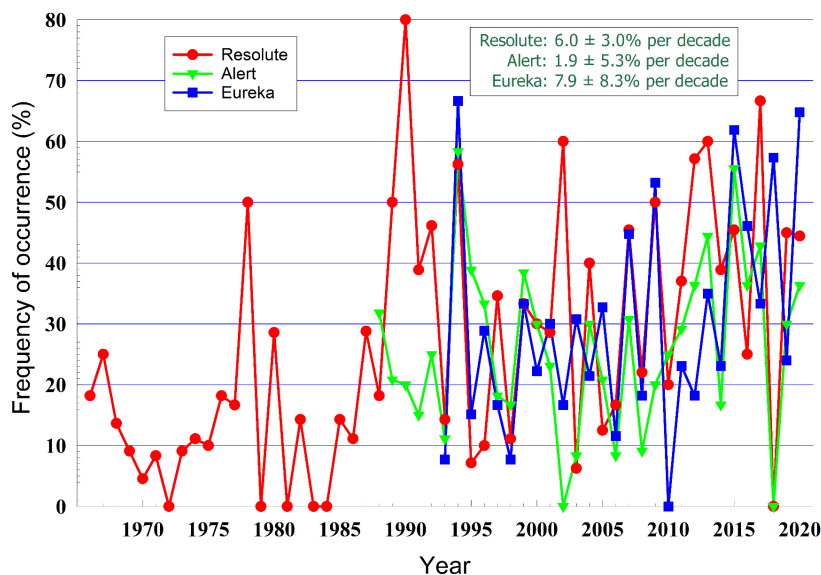


Figure S11. Frequency of occurrence in % of March to May low O_3 concentrations, defined as <10 ppbv and indicative of O_3 depletion events, using ozonesonde data at the surface, and the first measurement level after balloon release, at Canadian Arctic sites from 1966–2020. Data are adjusted for the effects of occasional variation in sounding frequency. Details about the methodology are given in Tarrasick and Bottenheim (2002).

269 **Table S1.** Emissions and meteorology used in the models. See Whaley et al. (2022) for further
270 details.

Model name	Biogenic emissions	Forest fire emissions	Meteorology
CMAM	None	CMIP6	Nudged to ERA-Interim reanalysis
DEHM	MEGANv2	GFAS	Nudged to ERA-Interim reanalysis
EMEP MSC-W	EMEP scheme (Simpson et al., 2012)	FINN (based on Wiedinmyer et al., 2011)	Driven by 3-hourly data from the Integrated Forecast System (IFS) at ECMWF
GISS-E2.1	Isoprene:Guenther et al. (2012); Terpenes: ORCHIDEE; Online DMS, Sea-salt and dust	CMIP6	Nudged to NCEP reanalysis
MRI-ESM2	Biogenic VOCs emissions are taken from Horowitz et al. (2003)	CMIP6	Nudged to the Japanese 55-year Reanalysis (JRA55)
UKESM1	Isoprene and monoterpenes interactive with land surface vegetation scheme	Prescribed from CMIP6 dataset	Nudged to ERA-Interim reanalysis

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Table S2. Annual surface O₃ trends in % per year based at Arctic sites. ‘Significance level’ is the probability that the observed trend is not the result of random variations. Lower and upper 95 % CLs are also shown together with the significance (confidence) level for the annual trends calculated over the periods indicated. Statistically significant trends (above 90% CL) are in bold. The far right column displays the number of years included in the trend calculation compared to the maximum number of years over the period considered.

Site	Annual trend (%)	Lower 95% CL	Upper 95% CL	Significance level	Period	Number yrs included/ max. yrs
Alert	0.29	0.00	0.75	95%	1999-2019	16/21
	0.24	0.00	0.60	95%	1993-2019	22/27
Utqiagvik	0.53	-0.32	1.18	<90%	1999-2019	20/21
	0.26	-0.21	0.76	<90%	1993-2019	26/27
Villum	1.98	0.09	3.11	95%	1999-2019	16/21
	0.68	-0.28	2.30	<90%	1996-2019	18/24
Zeppelin	-0.19	-0.45	0.15	<90%	1999-2019	20/21
	0.18	-0.03	0.46	90%	1993-2019	26/27
Summit	-0.28	-0.77	0.12	<90%	2001-2019	19/19
Esrange	0.08	-0.37	0.64	<90%	1999-2019	21/21
	0.00	-0.24	0.38	<90%	1993-2019	27/27
Pallas	-0.30	0.85	-0.06	90%	1999-2019	21/21
	-0.40	-0.84	0.00	90%	1995-2019	25/25
Tustervatn	-0.52	-1.14	-0.08	99%	1999-2019	21/21
	-0.18	-0.51	0.08	<90%	1994-2019	26/26

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