

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.

37 **Abstract**

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

50 **Plain Language Summary**

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

65 **1 Introduction**

66 Tropospheric ozone (O₃) is a short-lived climate forcer (SLCF) contributing to global and Arctic
67 warming (AMAP, 2015; Sand et al, 2016; von Salzen et al. 2022), and a critical secondary air
68 pollutant, detrimental to human health (Anenberg et al., 2010) and ecosystems (Arnold et al.,
69 2018). The Arctic tropospheric O₃ budget is complex, as recently discussed in a companion
70 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) SLCF
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.

99 **2 Methods**100 **2.1 Measurements**

101 The location of surface and ozonesonde sites used in this study are displayed in Fig. 1, together
 102 with the Arctic Circle at 66.6°N, used to define the Arctic. Annual surface trends are shown in
 103 the table grouped into 1) high Arctic coastal sites (Alert, Utqiagvik/Barrow, Villum), Zeppelin
 104 (situated at 474m on Svalbard) and Summit (high altitude (FT) site on Greenland (3211m), and
 105 2) European continental sites within (Pallas, Esrange), and just south (Tustervatn) of the Arctic
 106 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

107 **Figure 1.** Left: Location of surface (bold) and ozonesonde (italic) sites and showing the Arctic
 108 Circle (66.55°N). Right: annual O₃ trends at surface sites in % per year (left column), the
 109 significance level (middle column), calculated over periods shown in the right column.
 110 Statistically significant trends (above 90% confidence level) are in bold. Geographical
 111 coordinates for all sites are provided in Whaley et al. (2023). See text for details.
 112

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

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

120 **2.2 Trend analysis**

121 Observed monthly and annual trends in surface O₃ concentrations at different sites are
122 determined using the non-parametric Mann-Kendall test at the 90th and 95th confidence level
123 (CL) and Sen's slope methodology (Theil, 1950; Sen, 1968) (see Text S2). Daily median data are
124 sorted into different months and pre-whitened, due to the presence of autocorrelation, via the
125 3PW algorithm from Collaud Coen et al. (2020). Trends using ozonesonde profiles are calculated
126 based on weekly medians for selected pressure levels. For the calculation of relative trends, data
127 are normalized by division with median values and multiplied by 100.

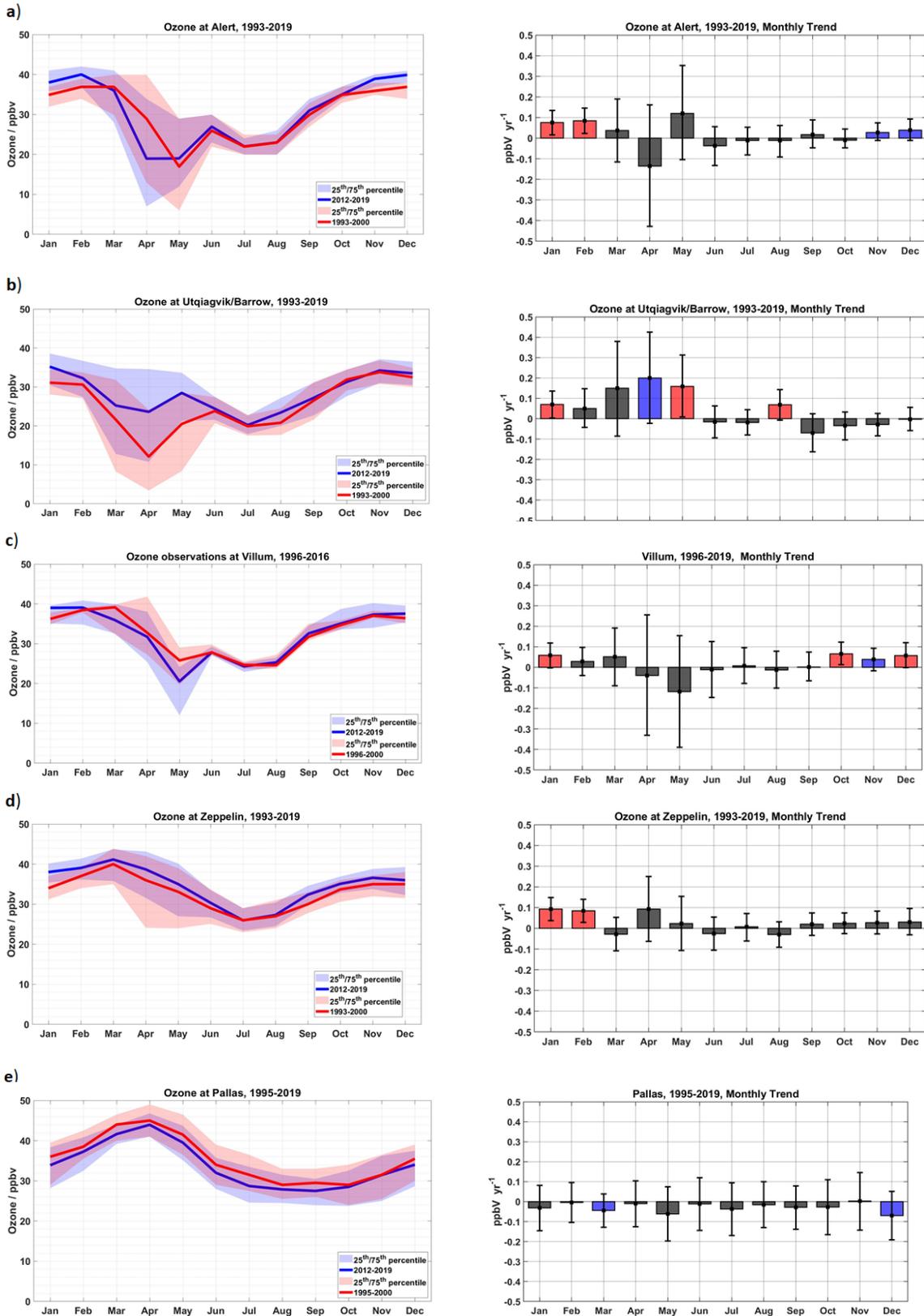
128 **2.3 Modeled trends**

129 Modeled trends at the surface and different altitudes are calculated for 1995-2015 using results
130 from four global chemistry-climate models (CMAM, GISS-E2.1, MRI-ESM2, UKESM1) and
131 two chemistry-transport models (DEHM, EMEP MSC-W) run using the same ECLIPSEv6b
132 anthropogenic emissions, and nudged with meteorological reanalyses as part of AMAP (2021).
133 Details can be found in Whaley et al. (2022), Text S3 and Table S1. Simulated monthly mean O₃
134 volume mixing ratios from the model grid box containing the measurement location are used to
135 compute multi-model medians (MMMs). For ozonesonde comparisons, modeled vertical profiles
136 are interpolated onto the same vertical bins as the measurements before trends are computed.

137 **3 Surface ozone trends in the Arctic**

138 **3.1 Observed ozone trends**

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



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

151 Average O_3 seasonal cycles are also calculated for earlier (1993-2000) and later (2012-2019)
152 periods, to examine possible changes, together with monthly trends (Fig. 2) at selected sites (see
153 Fig. S3 for other sites). Monthly trends are also analyzed for different 21-year periods (1993-
154 2012, 1999-2019) (Fig. S4).

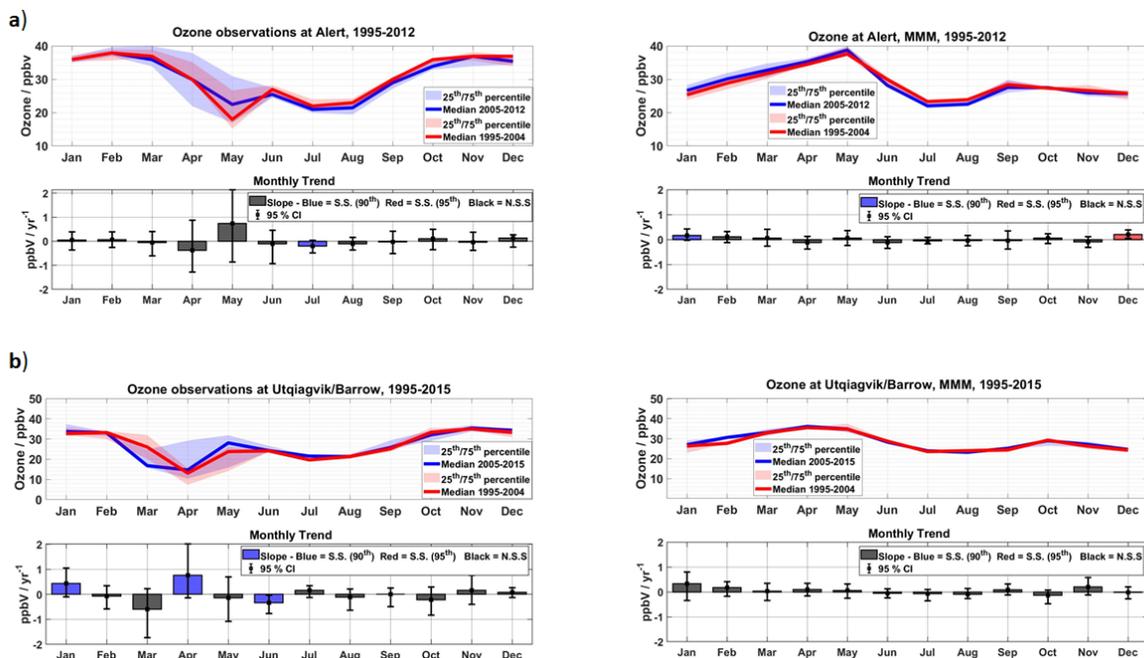
155 First considering high Arctic sites at coastal locations that exhibit a winter maximum with low
156 spring concentrations attributed to ODEs, as discussed in Whaley et al. (2023). Alert has
157 statistically significant (“ss”) positive O_3 annual trends, as does Villum for the shorter time
158 period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

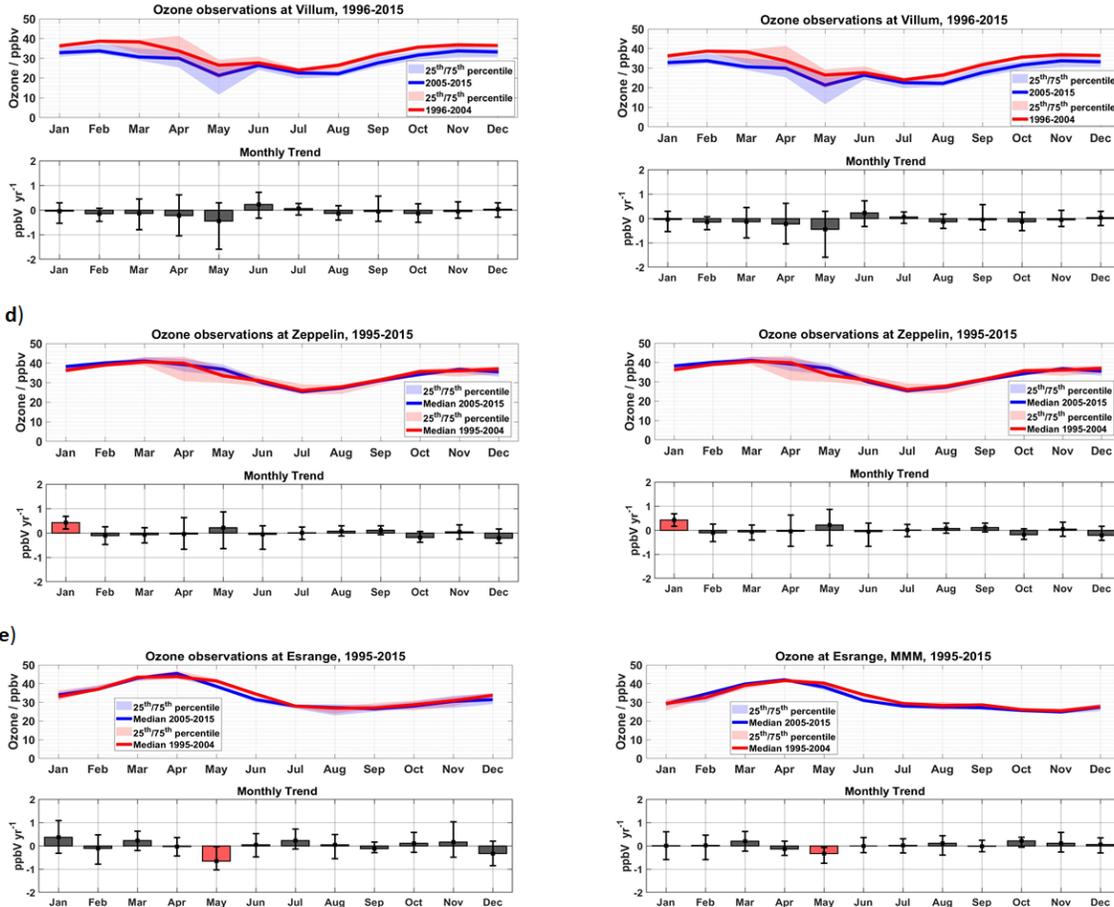
171 Continental northern Scandinavian sites exhibit a different behavior with Pallas and Tustervatn
172 showing ss negative annual trends but no ss annual (or monthly) trends at Esrange over any of
173 the periods considered. The shape of the seasonal cycle for the earlier versus the later period is

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

182 3.2 Comparison of observed and modeled surface trends

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





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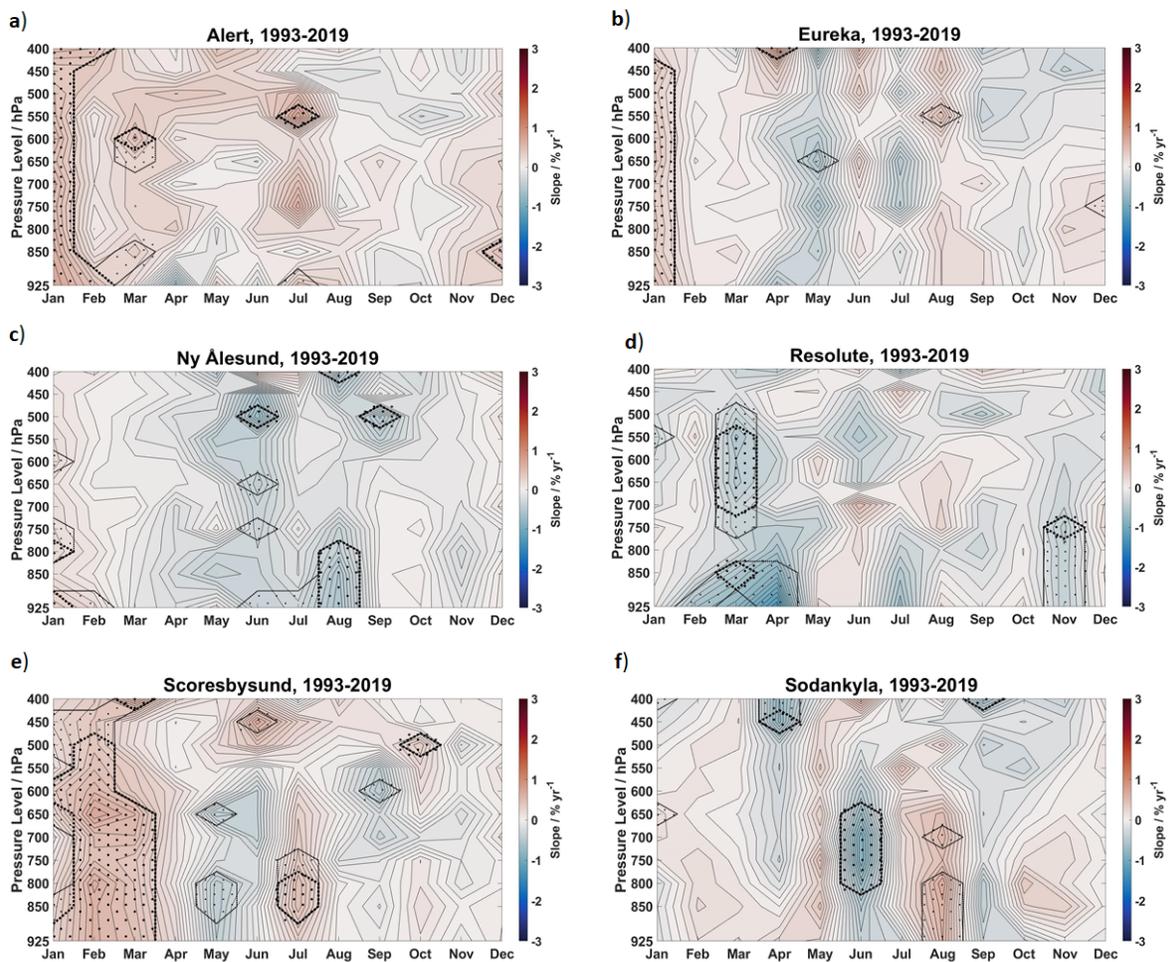
194 **Figure 3:** Comparison of observed (left) and MMM (right) surface O_3 trends and seasonal cycles
 195 at a) Alert, b) Utqiagvik, c) Villum, d) Zeppelin, and e) Esrange. Upper panels: seasonal cycles
 196 for 1995-2004 (red lines) vs 2005-2015 (blue lines). Shaded areas show upper and lower
 197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

200 4 Arctic ozone trends in the free troposphere

201 4.1 Observed vertical trends

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

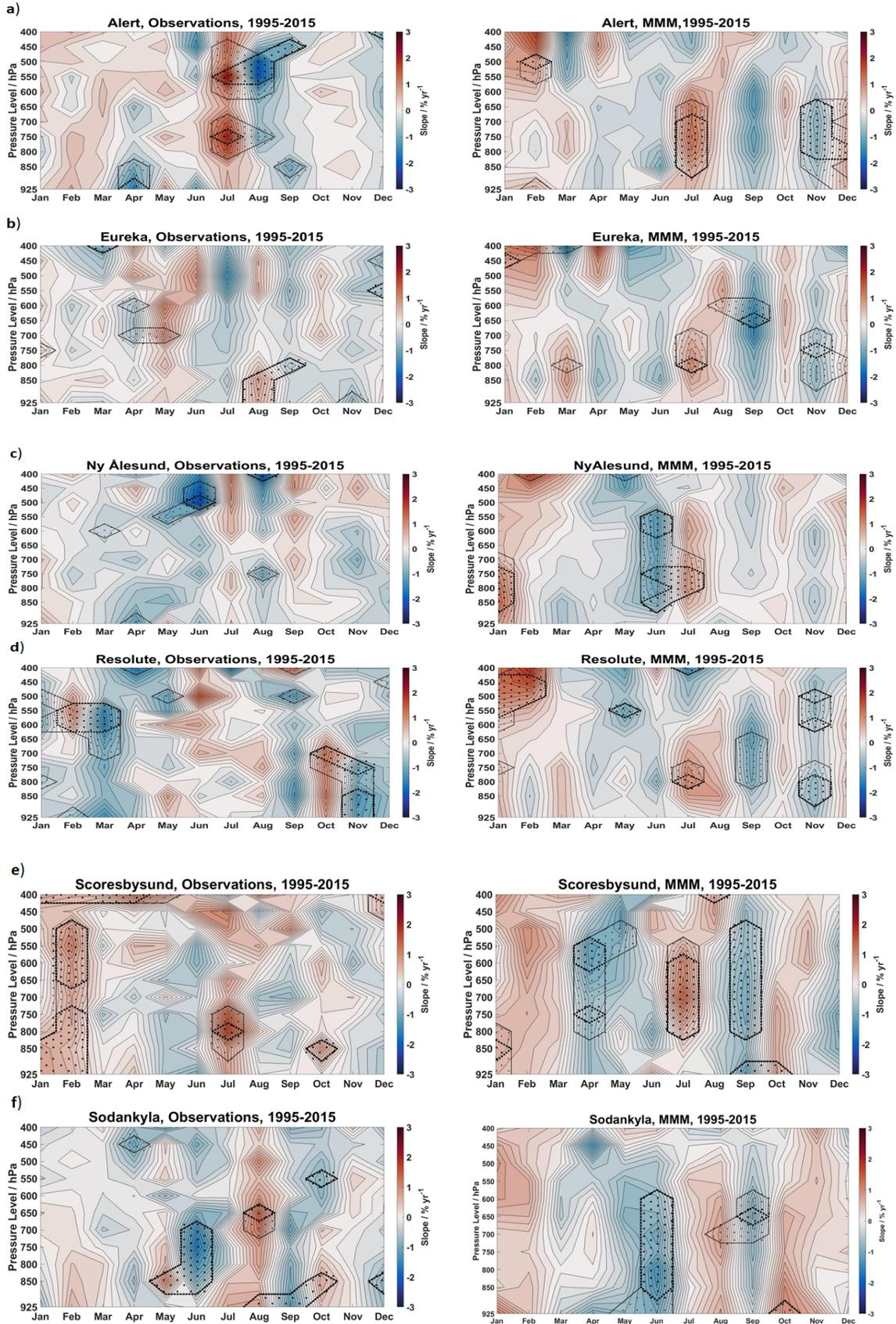
205 S7b). Overall, while there are few ss trends, there seems to be a “dipole effect” with positive
 206 trends in winter and summer, and negative trends in spring and autumn. Positive ss winter
 207 (Jan/Dec) trends are found up to 400 hPa at most sites (except Resolute), and also at
 208 Scoresbysund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



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



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

226 **4.2 Comparison of observed and modeled vertical trends**

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

235 **5 Discussion and conclusions**

236 Increasing annual surface O_3 trends at Arctic coastal sites, and at Zeppelin, are in qualitative
237 agreement with Cooper et al. (2020), but in contrast to negative or non-significant surface trends
238 at Canadian ozonesonde sites (Tarasick et al., 2016). A notable finding is that ss positive trends
239 occur mainly in the winter months. While such increases were reported previously at Utqiagvik
240 (Gaudel et al. 2018; Christiansen et al., 2022) and Alert (Sharma et al., 2019), we confirm this
241 tendency over the wider Arctic. Emission reductions of NO_x in Europe and North America, and
242 more recently over eastern Asia, have led to increasing wintertime O_3 at mid-latitudes due to less
243 NO titration of O_3 (Jhun et al., 2015, Wang et al., 2022b, Bowman et al., 2022). This can explain
244 observed increases in wintertime surface Arctic O_3 , influenced primarily by transport of air
245 masses from Europe (Hirdman et al., 2010). Evidence for declining O_3 precursor trends is
246 supported by decreases in observed CO in the Arctic during autumn and winter (Fig. S10). At the
247 same time, CH_4 continues to increase globally contributing to rising O_3 in the NH (Zeng et al.,
248 2022) (see also Text S4 on Arctic O_3 precursor trends).

249 Another intriguing finding is springtime ss surface O_3 increases at Utqiagvik (especially over
250 1999-2019, Fig S4), but no ss changes at Alert and Villum. Changes in O_3 concentrations at this

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

264 Decreases in springtime/early summer O₃ in northern Scandinavia, especially over the later
265 1999-2019 period, are consistent with negative trends reported at Tustervatn (Cooper et al.,
266 2020), and sites in northern Sweden during summer (Andersson et al., 2017). These decreases
267 are associated with lower maximum O₃ concentrations linked to reductions in European
268 precursor emissions leading to less photochemical O₃ production (Cooper et al., 2020) although
269 no ss trends in observed Arctic CO are found at this time of year (Fig. S10). Springtime ss
270 negative trends at Summit may also be due to emission reductions over North America. Our
271 results do not suggest a shift in the O₃ seasonal cycle toward higher concentrations in the spring
272 (i.e. moving back toward pre-industrial O₃ seasonality) as reported at NH mid-latitudes
273 (Bowman et al., 2022). Another explanation for decreasing springtime O₃ at the surface could be
274 that reductions in snow cover (Mudryk et al., 2020) are leading to more O₃ dry deposition to
275 Scandinavian forests.

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

281 Nevertheless, decreasing winter trends in surface CO are captured at Alert and Utqiagvik (Fig.
282 S10). Ss positive spring O₃ trend at Utqiagvik is not evident in MMM trends over 1995-2015.
283 However, the models do not capture springtime O₃ seasonality due to incorrect simulation of
284 transport patterns (Oltmans et al., 2012) or missing surface halogen chemistry (Whaley et al.,
285 2023). Negative ss springtime (May) trends are not always reproduced, possibly reflecting issues
286 in the emission trends or modeled dry deposition.

287
288 FT O₃ trends are ss positive in winter at all Arctic sites, except Resolute, in common with several
289 coastal Arctic surface sites. These results are in-line with increases reported at NH mid-latitudes
290 (Cooper et al., 2020), and at Canadian ozonesonde sites (up to 400 hPa), except Resolute (Wang
291 et al., 2022a). MMM trends are similar to observed trends over 1995-2015, including where they
292 are ss. Patterns in observed trends are quite well captured, notably positive ss trends in winter
293 and summer, although they tend to be overestimated. Observed negative trends in spring,
294 extending from near the surface into the FT, are generally reproduced, and are likely to be due to
295 decreasing NO_x emissions leading to lower FT O₃ where photochemical production is NO_x-
296 limited. Overestimation of winter trends contrasts to previous studies where models
297 underestimated NH trends (Wang et al., 2022a; Christiansen et al., 2022). This may be due to
298 differences in model transport or O₃ precursor emission trends, including NO_x reductions (see
299 also Text S4). AMAP models overestimate mid-latitude FT O₃ (Whaley et al., 2023), possibly
300 suggesting a larger sensitivity to precursor emission changes.

301
302 Observed trends in the UT (LS) appear to have switched from positive to negative since 1993 in
303 winter/spring, which may explain stronger positive FT trends in the earlier part of the record
304 (1993-2013). More frequent positive phases of the Arctic Oscillation in recent years may be
305 contributing with a weaker Brewer-Dobson circulation leading to less transport of stratospheric
306 O₃ into the Arctic UT-LS, a higher tropopause height, and thus lower O₃ concentrations in this
307 region (Zhang et al., 2017). However, Liu et al. (2020) did not detect any trend in the
308 stratospheric O₃ flux into the Arctic UT. On the other hand, Wang et al. (2022a) attributed FT
309 increases in NH mid-high latitude O₃ to increases in aircraft NO_x emissions.

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

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

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322 acknowledged for support (see author metadata).

323 **Data Availability Statement:**

324 Surface O₃ monitoring datasets are provided by EMEP (European Monitoring and Evaluation
325 Program), and Global Atmosphere Watch (GAW) World Data Centre for Reactive Gases. EMEP
326 and GAW O₃ data are available via the EBAS data portal (from end of 1989 to present). CO data
327 at Utqiagvik/Barrow and Zeppelin are also available via the EBAS data portal:
328 <http://ebas.nilu.no>. Select the station name, and the component (CO, O₃) to access the data files.
329 Canadian surface O₃ data can be downloaded from: [https://data-](https://donnees.ec.gc.ca/data/air/monitor/networks-and-studies/alert-nunavut-ground-level-ozone-study/)
330 [donnees.ec.gc.ca/data/air/monitor/networks-and-studies/alert-nunavut-ground-level-ozone-](https://donnees.ec.gc.ca/data/air/monitor/networks-and-studies/alert-nunavut-ground-level-ozone-study/)
331 [study/](https://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://donnees.ec.gc.ca/data/air/monitor/national-air-pollution-surveillance-naps-program/?lang=en)
332 donnees.ec.gc.ca/data/air/monitor/national-air-pollution-surveillance-naps-program/?lang=en.
333 Click on folders Data, Year, ContinuousData, then HourlyData. Surface O₃ records for
334 Utqiagvik/Barrow (BRW) and Summit (SUM) are provided by PE and IE via NOAA GML. Data
335 is available at <https://gml.noaa.gov/aftp/data/ozwv/SurfaceOzone/>. Click on the directories for
336 BRM or SUM to obtain the data. Surface O₃ measurements at Summit are made possible via the
337 U.S. National Science Foundation Office of Polar Programs and their contract with Battelle
338 Arctic Research Operations (contract #49100420C0001). Ny Ålesund, Scoresbysund and
339 Sodankylä ozonesonde data are obtained as part of the Network for the Detection of Atmospheric

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

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

347 Open-source codes for the Mann-Kendall test associated with Sen’s slope are distributed under
348 the BSD 3-Clause License in dedicated GitHub repositories hosted within the “mannkendall”
349 organization (<https://github.com/mannkendall>), a Matlab (Collaud Coen and Vogt, 2020,
350 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4134618>, <https://github.com/mannkendall/Matlab>), Python (Vogt,
351 2020, <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4134435>, <https://github.com/mannkendall/Python>), and R
352 (Bigi and Vogt, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4134632>,
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