

1 **Characterizing tropospheric O₃ and CO around Frankfurt over**
2 **the period 1994-2012 based on MOZAIC-IAGOS aircraft**
3 **measurements**

4
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9 **Abstract**

10 In the framework of the MOZAIC-IAGOS program, vertical profiles of ozone (O₃) and carbon
11 monoxide (CO) are available since 1994 and 2002, respectively. This study investigates the
12 variability and trend of both species in three tropospheric layers above the German airports
13 Frankfurt and Munich. About 21,300 flights have been performed over the period 1994-2012, which
14 represents the worldwide densest vertical in-situ dataset of O₃ and CO (with ~96 flights per month
15 on average). The mean vertical profile of ozone shows a strong gradient in the first kilometre during
16 the whole year and close to the tropopause in spring and summer. The mean vertical profile of CO
17 is characterized by high mixing ratios at ground, a strong decrease in the first kilometre, in
18 particular in winter and autumn, and a moderate one in the free troposphere. O₃ minimizes in
19 November-December and shows a broad spring/summer maximum in the lower and mid-
20 troposphere and a sharp maximum in summer in the upper troposphere. The seasonal variation of
21 CO shows a broad minimum in July-October close to the surface and in September-October higher
22 in the troposphere, while the maximum occurs in February-April in the whole troposphere. Over the
23 period 1994-2012, O₃ has changed insignificantly (at a 95% confidence level), except in winter
24 where a slightly significant increase (from +0.83[+0.13;+1.67]% yr⁻¹ in the LT to
25 +0.62[+0.02;+1.22]% yr⁻¹ in the UT, relatively to the reference year 2000) is found. The O₃ 5th
26 percentile shows similar upward trends at the annual scale in all three tropospheric layers. All trends
27 remain insignificant for the O₃ 95th percentile. In contrast, for CO the mean as well as its 5th and
28 95th percentiles are decreasing both at the annual scale and at the seasonal scale in winter, spring
29 and summer (although not always in all three tropospheric layers) with trends ranging between -
30 1.22[-2.27;-0.47] and -2.63[-4.54;-1.42]% yr⁻¹, relatively to the reference year 2004). However, all
31 CO trends remain insignificant in autumn.

32 The phase of the seasonal variation of O₃ was found to change in the entire troposphere. The O₃
33 maxima moves forward in time at a rate of -17.8±11.5 days decade⁻¹ in the lower troposphere, in

1 general agreement with previous studies. Interestingly, this seasonal shift is shown to persist in the
2 middle troposphere (-7.8 ± 4.2 days decade⁻¹) but turns insignificant in the upper troposphere.

3

4 **1 Introduction**

5 As one of the major sources of hydroxyl radicals (OH) that directly control the atmospheric lifetime
6 of a large number of compounds, ozone (O₃) plays a unique role in the oxidative capacity of the
7 atmosphere. In the troposphere, it acts as a powerful greenhouse gas with a positive radiative
8 forcing (RF) of 0.40 ± 0.20 W m⁻² that is not compensated by the RF of stratospheric ozone
9 estimated at -0.05 ± 0.10 W m⁻² (IPCC, 2013). It also has well-known adverse impacts on human
10 health (Jerrett et al., 2009), vegetation (Ashmore, 2005; Paoletti, 2006) and agricultural crop yields
11 (Van Dingenen et al., 2009). In the troposphere, O₃ is formed by photochemical reactions implying
12 various compounds including volatile organic compounds (VOC), carbon monoxide (CO) and
13 nitrogen oxides (NO_x). It can be removed by photolysis, dry deposition and uptake on aerosols
14 (Moise and Rudich, 2000, 2002). Despite the considerable scientific achievements made during the
15 last decades, the O₃ budget remains difficult to quantify precisely (Wu et al., 2007). Major
16 uncertainties are related to lightning NO_x production, isoprene biogenic emissions and degradation
17 chemistry, biomass burning emissions, water vapour concentrations and stratosphere-troposphere
18 exchange (STE) (Stevenson et al., 2006). This leads to a large heterogeneity of the O₃ abundance
19 and variability in the troposphere, making it difficult to draw a simple and global picture of the O₃
20 present-day concentrations and trends.

21 During the last decades, O₃ trends in the free troposphere have been intensively investigated,
22 notably based on long-term ozonesonde observations. Specifically in Europe where such
23 measurements are available over a few decades at several sites (e.g., Hohenpeissenberg, Payerne,
24 Uccle, De Bilt, Legionowo, Lindenberg), most results indicate an increase of ozone levels from the
25 1960s until the mid-1980s (Logan et al., 1999; Oltmans et al., 1998; Tiao et al., 1986), the only site
26 with no significant trend being Lindenberg, Germany, for the period 1975-1983 (Tiao et al., 1986).
27 Such positive trends were found all along the year without any significant seasonal influence
28 (Logan et al., 1999) and through the entire tropospheric column (Logan et al., 1999; Oltmans et al.,
29 1998). By the mid-1980s until 2000s, most ozonesonde observations in Europe indicate a
30 progressive levelling-off of ozone mixing ratios in the free troposphere (Logan et al., 1999; Oltmans
31 et al., 1998, 2006; Gaudel et al., 2015). For instance, the significant positive trends obtained at
32 Hohenpeissenberg in the entire tropospheric column for 1971-2010 vanish in most tropospheric
33 layers considering the period 1981-2010 (Oltmans et al., 2013). Ozone observations at Jungfraujoch,
34 Switzerland (3850 m), an elevated alpine site supposed to be representative of the free troposphere,
35 indeed reveal that mixing ratios have continued to increase in the 1990s, in particular during winter,

1 the levelling-off occurring only in the 2000s (Cui et al., 2011). A similar evolution is reported by
2 Cooper et al. (2014) at other mountain or remote sites in Europe, and by Logan et al. (2012) on the
3 observations by the MOZAIC (Measurements of OZone and water vapour by Airbus In-service
4 airCraft) aircraft above some European airports.

5 Observations at the coastal site Mace Head have shown an average annual increase of $+0.25 \pm 0.09$
6 ppb year⁻¹ of the baseline (i.e. originating from the Northern Hemispheric marine boundary layer)
7 O₃ mixing ratios during the period 1988-2012 (Simmonds et al., 2004, Derwent et al., 2013). This
8 increase has been the strongest in winter and spring and the lowest in summer, and has slowed
9 down during the 2000s (Derwent et al., 2013). In contrast, the annual O₃ mixing ratios in European
10 air masses have shown a much lower increase (Derwent et al., 2013), which suggests a possible
11 compensation between a decrease of O₃ local formation in Europe and an increase of O₃ imports. At
12 several remote or alpine sites in northern mid-latitudes, Parrish et al. (2013) recently highlighted a
13 noticeable shift in the O₃ cycle at ground, the maximum daily O₃ occurring between 3 and 6 days
14 earlier each decade since the 1970s. Such a shift may reflect some changes in the transport
15 pathways, precursors emissions and photochemistry of O₃, possibly due to climate change (Parrish
16 et al., 2013).

17 The present study aims at characterizing the vertical distribution, the temporal variability, the
18 seasonality and the trends of tropospheric O₃ in Central/Western Europe. Based on vertical profiles
19 measured by commercial aircraft involved in the MOZAIC-IAGOS (In-service Aircraft for a Global
20 Observing System) program, it will focus on the free and upper troposphere in order to go beyond
21 the more limited representativeness in the boundary layer (BL) at the regional scale. However,
22 results in the BL will be also presented to give a full picture of the troposphere. This study will also
23 investigate the variability and trend of CO, one of the main O₃ precursors measured in the
24 framework of the MOZAIC-IAGOS program. As a moderate lifetime (several weeks to several
25 months) compound emitted by incomplete combustion processes, CO represents a powerful
26 pollution tracer able to provide information on long-range transport at the hemispheric scale.
27 Characterizing CO in troposphere may thus help investigating the variability and trend affecting O₃.

28 Section 2 presents the MOZAIC-IAGOS dataset and describes the treatment applied on vertical
29 profile data. The vertical distribution, the seasonal variations, the trends of O₃ and CO and the
30 changes affecting the O₃ seasonal cycle are analysed in Sect. 3. Main results and conclusions are
31 summarized in Sect. 4.

1 **2 Data and methodology**

2 **2.1 MOZAIC-IAGOS dataset**

3 In the framework of the MOZAIC-IAGOS program (www.iagos.org), O₃ and CO measurements
4 (among other parameters) are performed by commercial aircraft along various flight routes in the
5 world (most of them from or to European airports) since 1994 (O₃) and 2002 (CO), respectively
6 (Marengo et al., 1998; Petzold et al., 2015). Until October 2014 (date of the last MOZAIC aircraft
7 flight), both O₃ and CO have been measured using the same instruments in all aircraft, thus ensuring
8 the dataset consistency during most of the period. Ozone measurements were performed using a
9 dual-beam UV-absorption monitor (time resolution of 4 seconds) with an accuracy/precision
10 estimated at about ± 2 ppbv / $\pm 2\%$ (Thouret et al., 1998). Carbon monoxide was measured by an
11 improved infrared filter correlation instrument (time resolution of 30 seconds) with an
12 accuracy/precision estimated at ± 5 ppbv / $\pm 5\%$ (Nédélec et al., 2003).

13 As MOZAIC aircraft have been retired from service, the European partners involved prepared since
14 years the technical successor in the framework of the European Commission (EC) funded IAGOS
15 program (Petzold et al., 2015). A new concept of aircraft system and instruments has been
16 developed and installed on Airbus long-range aircraft (A340 or A330), starting from July 2011.
17 Seven aircraft are actually in operation with IAGOS systems. The new IAGOS instrumentation for
18 O₃ and CO is extensively described in Nédélec et al. (2015). The O₃ and CO measurements are
19 based on the same technology used for MOZAIC, with the same estimated accuracy and the same
20 data quality control. The nearly 4 years overlap of “historical” MOZAIC and “new” IAGOS
21 instrumentation allowed to prove that the new IAGOS systems provide the same data quality
22 (Nédélec et al., 2015), which is especially important for trends analysis.

23 Note also that several studies have investigated the consistency of the MOZAIC-IAGOS O₃ dataset
24 with other types of in-situ data (e.g., surface stations, ozonesonde) (Logan et al., 2012; Staufer et al.,
25 2013, 2014; Tanimoto et al., 2015; Zbinden et al., 2013). Focusing on O₃ changes in Europe, Logan
26 et al. (2012) showed a reasonable agreement between aircraft and alpine sites but noticed the
27 absence of O₃ increase in 1994-1998 in the sonde dataset (contrary to the two other types of data).
28 Focusing on the pure tropospheric profiles, Zbinden et al. (2013) found a mean difference between
29 MOZAIC-IAGOS and sondes of -2% in Germany, -8% in eastern United States and +1% over
30 Japan. Tanimoto et al. (2015) obtained similar results, with differences between aircraft and sondes
31 data around $\pm 2\%$ throughout the whole troposphere in Belgium, Germany and Japan, and $\pm 5\%$ at
32 Hong Kong. The MOZAIC-IAGOS data at Munich were found to compare reasonably well with the
33 surface observations at Hohenpeissenberg (slope of 0.97, correlation of 0.77).

34 The present study will focus on the airport Frankfurt where the longest (from 1994 to 2012) and
35 densest (18,598 flights) record is available. In order to fill a large data gap in 2005, this dataset is

1 combined to the data from the airport Munich (2,734 flights, mostly between 2002 and 2005),
2 approximately 300 km South-East from Frankfurt, as done in several previous studies (Logan et al.,
3 2012; Zbinden et al., 2006, 2013). Note also that no measurements are available during a part of
4 2010 due to instrumental problems. An illustration of the dataset density by month and year is
5 shown in Fig. S1 and S2 in the Supplement.

6 **2.2 Tropopause altitude and tropospheric layers**

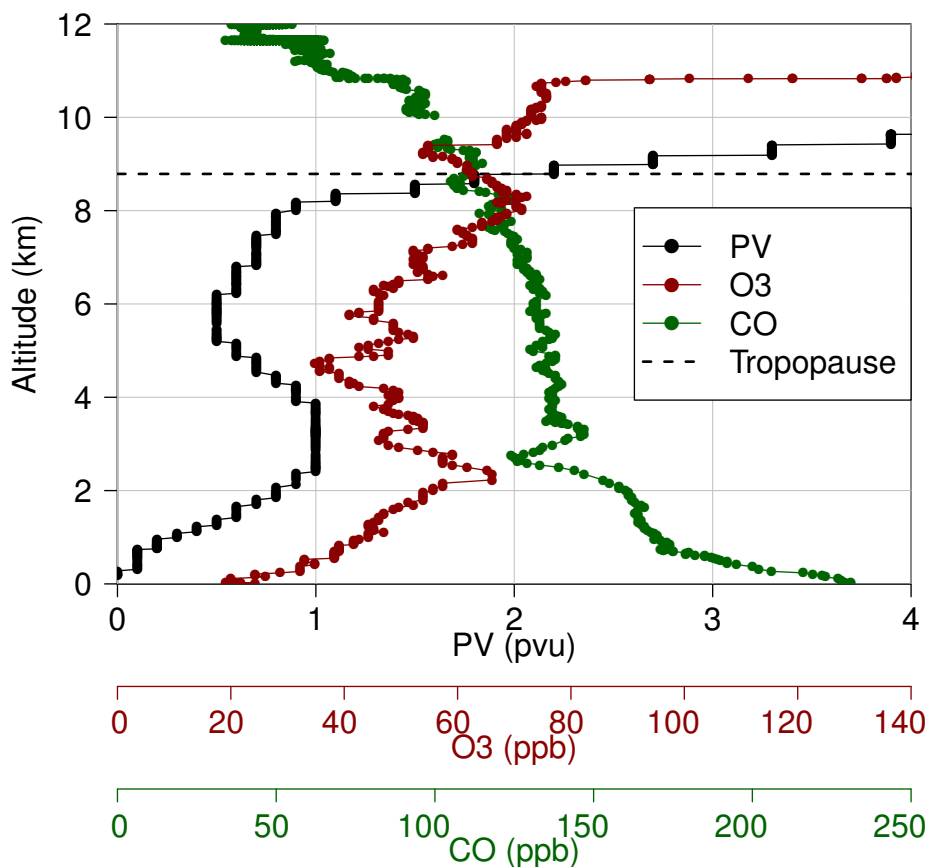
7 This paper focuses on the analysis of tropospheric vertical profiles obtained over Europe (Germany)
8 during both ascent and descent. As tropospheric O₃ shows strongly varying sources, sinks and
9 lifetimes with height, the troposphere is divided here in three layers: the lower troposphere (LT), the
10 mid-troposphere (MT) and the upper troposphere (UT). As in Thouret et al. (2006), the UT is
11 defined here as the layer having its top at the tropopause plus 15 hPa and spanning a pressure of 60
12 hPa, that is a layer ~1.6 km thick and starting/ending ~2.1/~0.5 km below the tropopause. The MT
13 is delimited by the UT lower boundary and an arbitrarily fixed altitude of 2 km. Data collected
14 below are finally assigned to the LT, the first kilometre above surface being ignored to limit the
15 representativeness degradation induced by emissions over the airport area (confirmed by large
16 enhancements of CO mixing ratios near the ground in most vertical profiles). The influence of the
17 local emissions on the observations in the LT will be briefly discussed in Sect. 3.2.2.

18 The tropopause altitude can be estimated by several approaches, e.g., thermal, dynamic, chemical
19 criteria (Thouret et al., 2006) or a combination of them (Stohl et al., 2003b). In this paper, we
20 consider the dynamical tropopause (DT), delimited by a potential vorticity (PV) of 2 pvu (1 pvu =
21 $10^{-6} \text{ K m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) (see the tropopause height over the period 1994-2012 in Fig. S3 in the
22 Supplement). Two parameters, the PV and the pressure at which PV reaches 2 pvu (so-called $p_{\text{PV}=2}$),
23 are derived along all MOZAIC flight routes based on the European Centre for Medium-Range
24 Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) operational analysis (00:00, 06:00, 12:00, 18:00 UTC) and forecasts
25 (03:00, 09:00, 15:00, 21:00 UTC). The pressure at the DT ($p_{\text{PV}=2}$) plus 15 hPa defined the top of the
26 UT applied here.

27 Tropospheric vertical profiles are selected according to several criteria:

- 28 (i) Distance from the airport: Take-offs and landings do not exactly correspond to vertical
29 profiles as aircraft travel some distance before reaching their cruise altitude. In order to
30 limit the uncertainties induced by a potential horizontal heterogeneity, a maximum distance
31 of 400 km from the airport is fixed for the vertical profile data selection. In practice, such a
32 distance is sufficient for sampling the entire vertical profile in most flights, and remains
33 reasonable considering the fact that the O₃ vertical variability is expected to be higher than
34 the horizontal one. A sensitivity test with a distance threshold of 800 km leads to
35 differences of mean O₃ mixing ratio in the UT below 3% at the seasonal and annual scale.

1 (ii) Potential vorticity: Based on PV vertical profiles, the 2 pvu value is used to locate the top of
 2 the tropospheric vertical profiles. This is illustrated in Fig. 1 with the flight from Frankfurt
 3 to Boston on the 19 March 2002 during which the DT altitude is estimated at 8.8 km. If the
 4 distance criterion is fulfilled before reaching DT, the $p_{PV=2}$ parameter is used to estimate the
 5 DT pressure (and thus to determine to which tropospheric layer points belong). However,
 6 PV values above 2 pvu may sometimes be encountered in the lower troposphere — due to
 7 recent deep stratospheric intrusions or convective processes — before decreasing again
 8 below the 2 pvu threshold until the tropopause. To avoid a misevaluation of the DT
 9 altitudes in such cases, PV values are not considered point by point but over a window of
 10 several points — in our case, 60 points, which approximately corresponds to 1800 m on the
 11 vertical — and the tropopause is considered to be reached only when the minimum PV over
 12 that window exceeds 2 pvu (this value of 60 being empirically chosen to handle most of
 13 these situations) (or when the previous criterion is fulfilled) and is set to the bottom of that
 14 window. In this study, we are thus considering the real and not purely tropospheric layer,
 15 i.e., recent stratospheric intrusions are not filtered in our methodology.



16
 17 Figure 1: Vertical profile of the potential vorticity (PV), O₃ and CO mixing ratios during the flight
 18 from Frankfurt to Boston on the 19 March 2002 (take-off). The tropopause altitude (dotted black
 19 line) is estimated based on PV (see text for the methodology).

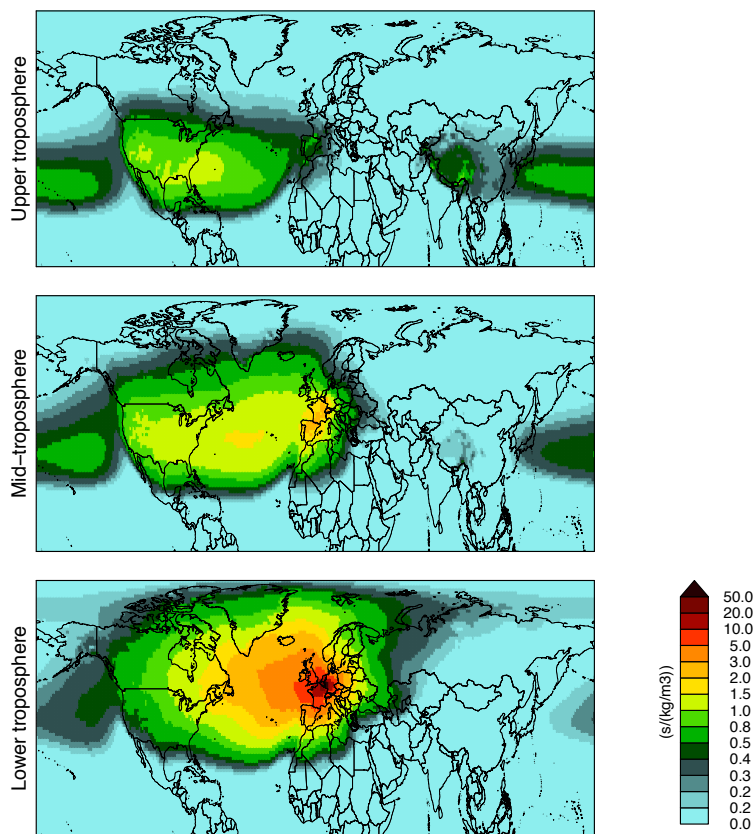
1 It is worth noting that the determination of the tropopause altitude is associated to several
2 uncertainties. Some uncertainties arise from the choice of the method used to locate the tropopause.
3 For instance, the chemical tropopause (defined in terms of both O₃ mixing ratio and vertical
4 gradient of O₃ mixing ratio, also referred as the ozone tropopause) is on average below the thermal
5 tropopause (Bethan et al., 1996). In the determination of the DT altitude, other uncertainties can
6 arise from the choice of a constant PV to locate the DT. Indeed, Kunz et al. (2011) showed that the
7 PV values at the DT can vary between 1.5 and 5, with higher PV values in summer than in winter.
8 In our case, there are also uncertainties related to the fact that the PV is here a modelled variable. In
9 addition, it is linearly interpolated between PV fields 6-hours apart, which does not allow to entirely
10 catch the variability of the DT. A good example is given in Fig. 1 where the abrupt O₃ increase
11 (corresponding to the tropopause) occurs 2 km above the DT derived from PV values. However, our
12 approach allows to assess in which layer (MT or UT) observations belong even when the
13 tropopause is not reached (within the 400 km around the airport).

14 In order to assess the uncertainties introduced by an erroneous DT pressure, we compared it with
15 the chemical tropopause (CT), here defined as the pressure at which O₃ reaches the typical
16 tropopause O₃ mixing ratios. In addition, we require that beyond that pressure, O₃ mixing ratios
17 remain higher than these typical tropopause O₃ mixing ratios, in order to avoid a wrong
18 determination due to stratospheric intrusions in the troposphere. As O₃ at the tropopause varies
19 seasonally, we consider a dynamic criterion given by the formula $97+26*\sin((\text{DayOfYear}-$
20 $30)*2\pi/365)$ (ppb) proposed by Zahn et al. (2002) based on CARIBIC observations (and consistent
21 with Thouret et al., 2006). We also require the CT to be located above the 600 hPa pressure level, in
22 order to avoid a wrong allocation if for instance a high O₃ plume is sampled in the BL with missing
23 data above in the profile. This was done for all vertical profiles where it was possible, which
24 represents 41% of the dataset. On average over the period 1994-2012, the mean bias of the DT
25 pressure compared to the chemical tropopause derived from O₃ mixing ratios is +2 hPa, while the
26 5th, 10th, 50th, 90th and 95th percentiles of this bias are -138, -57, +10, +57 and +75 hPa, respectively.
27 Therefore, the DT pressure derived from PV does not appear systematically biased, but quite large
28 discrepancies can exist on some profiles. It is beyond the scope of this study to investigate in more
29 detail the influence of the method used to locate the tropopause. Above the airport Frankfurt, a
30 majority of vertical profiles (63%) reach the tropopause while most of the remaining profiles (36%)
31 are selected according to the distance criterion. A similar proportion is found at Munich (63 and
32 35%, respectively).

33

2.3 FLEXPART simulations

The FLEXPART Lagrangian particle dispersion model (Stohl et al., 2005) is used to investigate the origin of air masses sampled by the aircraft in the different tropospheric layers above Frankfurt/Munich. Input meteorological data are taken from the ECMWF operational analysis (00:00, 06:00, 12:00, 18:00 UTC) and forecasts (03:00, 09:00, 15:00, 21:00 UTC) and interpolated on a $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ global longitude-latitude grid. The methodology used here basically consists in releasing along each vertical profile 1000 particles every 10 hPa and following them backward in time during 20 days. This duration corresponds approximately to the time during which a pollution plume is expected to remain significantly higher than the tropospheric background (Stohl et al., 2003a). The FLEXPART model computes the particles' residence time, sometimes referred as the potential emissions sensitivity (PES), that is the potential to catch up emissions from certain regions. Output are given on a $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ global longitude-latitude grid, over 1-km width vertical layers up to 11 km plus a remaining layer ranging from 11 to 50 km (i.e., 12 vertical layers). The PES between 0-1 km is presented in Fig. 2 for each tropospheric layer, averaged over the period 1994-2012. As expected, air masses sampled in the LT spend most of their time in the European BL (mostly in France, Germany, Benelux, England). In the MT, the influence of Europe persists but the influence of North America is greatly enhanced. In the UT, the PES is the highest over North America but stronger winds at these altitudes (e.g. jet streams) also allow a fast transport of air masses from Asia.



1 Figure 2: Average residence time in the first kilometre (normalized by the air density) of air masses
2 sampled in all three tropospheric layers around Frankfurt. The average is calculated based on all
3 FLEXPART simulations over the period 1994-2012. Note the irregular scale.

4 **3 Results**

5 The climatological vertical profiles of O₃ and CO around Frankfurt/Munich are described in Sect.
6 3.1. The annual and monthly variations of both compounds are analysed in Sect. 3.2. The annual
7 and seasonal trends are investigated in Sect. 3.3. The changes of the O₃ seasonal cycle are explored
8 in Sect. 3.4.

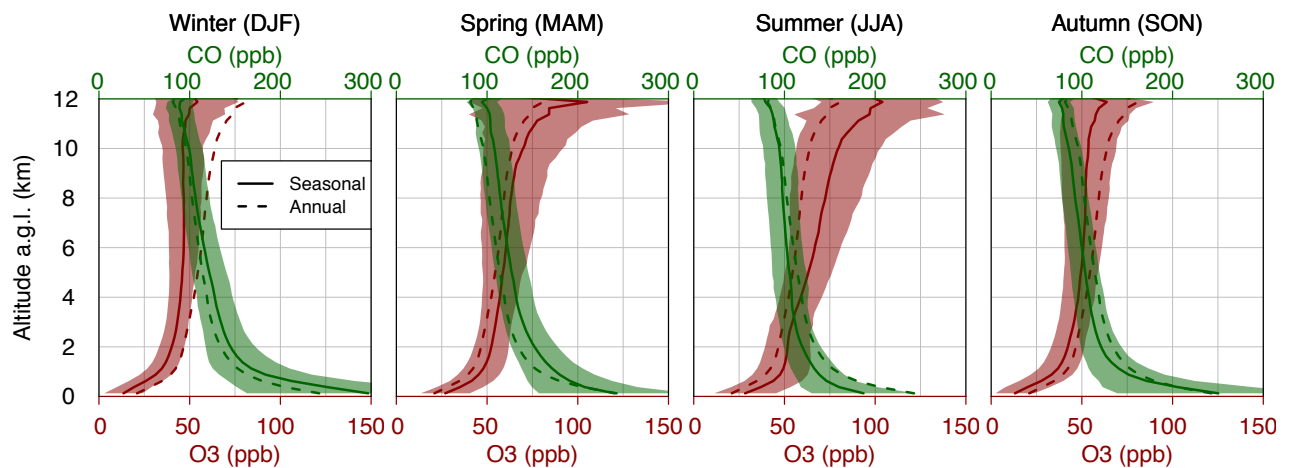
9 **3.1 Climatological vertical profiles**

10 **3.1.1 Ozone**

11 Annual and seasonal mean vertical profiles of O₃ and CO are calculated over the whole period
12 (1994-2012 for O₃, 2002-2012 for CO) and shown in Fig. 3. The standard deviation shown in Fig. 3
13 is inferred from the daily mean vertical profiles, and thus represents the day-to-day variability at the
14 seasonal scale. Over the entire tropospheric column, the annual mean O₃ mixing ratio is 56 ppb. The
15 mean O₃ over the tropospheric column shows the minimum mixing ratios in winter (44 ppb) and
16 autumn (48 ppb), and the maximum ones in summer (67 ppb) and spring (61 ppb). The annual mean
17 O₃ mixing ratio increases with altitude, from 21 ppb at ground to 81 ppb at 12 km (47 ppb at 2 km).
18 The highest vertical gradients are found close to the surface during the whole year and close to 12
19 km during spring and summer. The inflexion of vertical gradients at about 1 km a.g.l. has already
20 been mentioned in Chevalier et al. (2007). Above 3 km, the mean vertical gradients are +1.1, +1.5,
21 +3.0 and +5.1 ppb km⁻¹ in winter, autumn, spring and summer, respectively.

22 During the summer, short episodes of high O₃ mixing ratios are often observed in the European BL
23 (van Loon et al., 2007; Meleux et al., 2007). High O₃ mixing ratios are also measured in urban
24 environments, despite the presence of NO_x emitted locally by anthropogenic activities (Vautard et
25 al., 2007 reported a 95th percentile of daily O₃ maximum ranging between 70 and 100 ppb in 4
26 European megacities in 2010). Thus, one might have expected higher mixing ratios in the BL than
27 in the lower free troposphere (sometimes described as a « C » shaped profile), as sometimes
28 observed in the profile above polluted cities (Ding et al., 2008; Tressol et al., 2008). However,
29 observations do not show such a profile. One may suspect that this is due to the night-time titration
30 of O₃ in the BL but limiting data to the afternoon does not highlight a clear « C » shaped profile.
31 Actually, such « C » shaped profile is only observed when considering the 95th percentile rather
32 than the mean O₃ mixing ratio (Petetin et al., 2016). It means that the potentially high O₃ pollution
33 in the BL during the summer can greatly modify the vertical profile of O₃ mixing ratios but only
34 episodically. On average, the structure of the mean O₃ vertical profile in summer remains

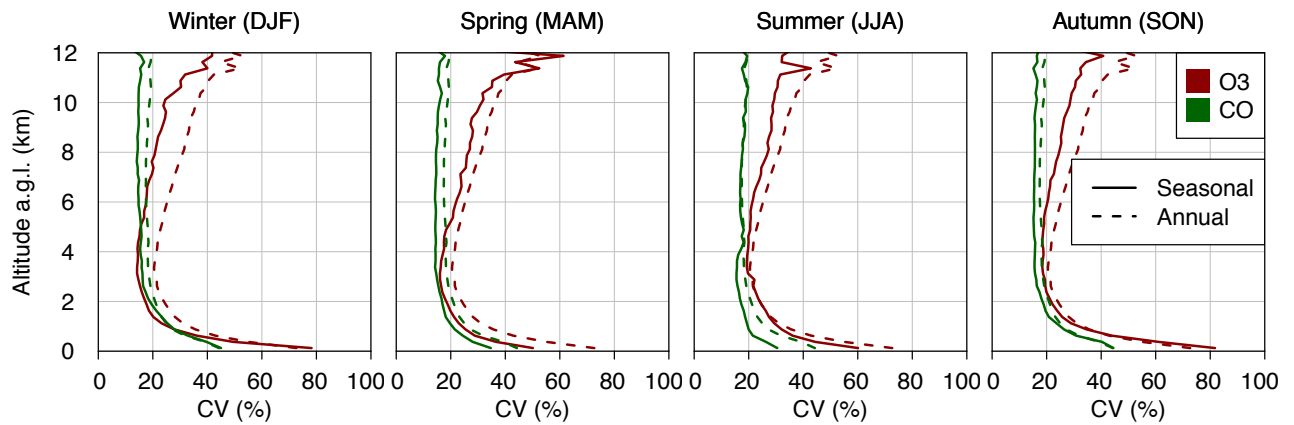
1 qualitatively the same (i.e. positive gradient through the whole troposphere) as during the rest of the
2 year.



3
4 Figure 3: Climatological vertical profiles of O₃ and CO mixing ratios above Frankfurt/Munich per
5 season (continuous lines). Standard deviation inferred from daily averaged profiles is also indicated
6 (filled contour), as well as the annual mean profile (dotted line, the same for all panels).

7 To further characterize the variability of O₃ and CO above Frankfurt/Munich, we now investigate
8 the day-to-day variability at both the annual and seasonal scales. The day-to-day variability is here
9 defined as the coefficient of variation (CV) of the daily-averaged mixing ratios, that is the standard
10 deviation normalized by the corresponding (i.e. annual or seasonal) mean mixing ratio. Vertical
11 profiles of the day-to-day variability for O₃ and CO are shown in Fig. 4. Results about CO will be
12 discussed in Sect. 3.1.2. The day-to-day variability of O₃ at the annual scale ranges between 20 and
13 73% depending on the altitude, with a mean value of 32%. The maximum day-to-day variability of
14 O₃ is found at ground (73%) and at 12 km (53%) where it is likely driven by intense shallow and
15 transient exchange between the stratosphere and the troposphere (Stohl et al., 2003b). Conversely,
16 the minimum day-to-day variability is found at about 3.4 km. Such day-to-day variability is lower at
17 the seasonal scale, at most altitudes and during most seasons, but the shape of the vertical profiles
18 remains similar. The seasonal day-to-day variability minimizes at 4.4 km in autumn and between
19 3.1-3.4 km during the other seasons, thus close to the minimum annual diurnal variability. Similarly,
20 it maximizes at the surface and close to the tropopause. Interestingly, the day-to-day variability
21 above 11 km is noticeably higher in spring than during the other seasons, which again may be due
22 to the day-to-day variability of STE that peaks during that season.

1



2

3 Figure 4: Annual (dotted lines, the same for all panels) and seasonal (continuous lines) day-to-day
 4 variability of O₃ and CO mixing ratios above Frankfurt/Munich. The day-to-day variability is here
 5 defined as the coefficient of variation (CV) of the daily-averaged mixing ratios (i.e. the standard
 6 deviation normalized by the mean).

7

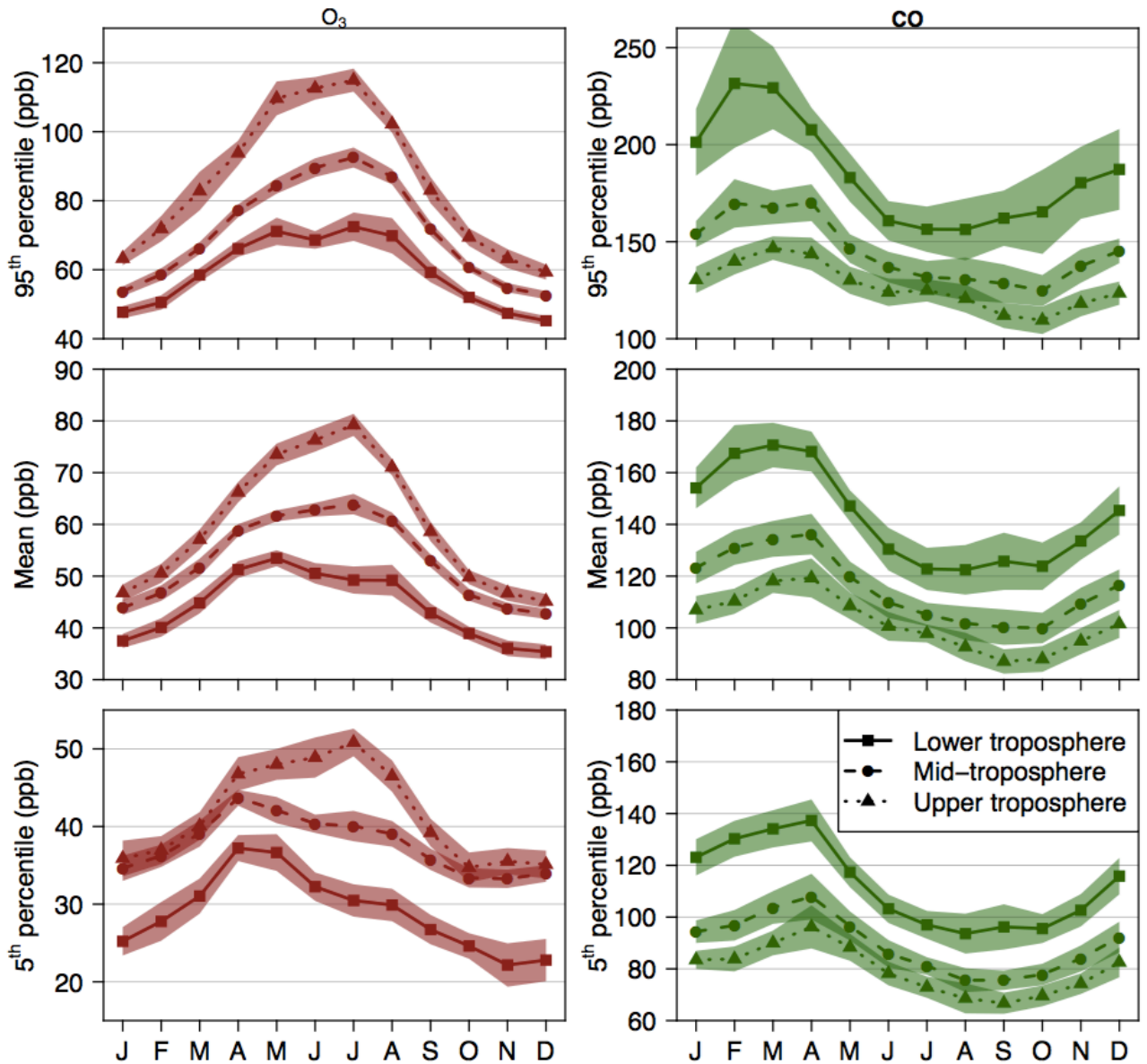
8 3.1.2 Carbon monoxide

9 The annual mean vertical profile of CO (Fig. 3) shows mixing ratios ranging from 150 ppb at 1 km
 10 to 80 ppb at 12 km. Over the entire tropospheric column, the mean CO mixing ratio is 117 ppb. At
 11 the ground and close to surface emissions, CO maximizes with 243 ppb on the annual average. This
 12 high mixing ratio is first and foremost due to emissions from the airport area (including aircraft
 13 emissions on runways) and potentially to emissions from the neighbouring agglomeration. The
 14 strongest seasonal variation is observed close to the surface, with mean mixing ratios in the first
 15 kilometre ranging from 156 ppb in summer to 233 ppb in winter. This increase during winter is
 16 likely due to higher emissions and a lower vertical mixing.

17 The Figure 4 shows that the day-to-day variability is lower for CO than for O₃, in particular at the
 18 surface and close to the tropopause. Over the entire tropospheric column, the annual day-to-day
 19 variability of CO is 20%. It ranges between 44% close to the surface and 17% in the free
 20 troposphere where it remains almost constant with altitude. A very similar picture is drawn for the
 21 different seasons. The highest values at the surface (in the second half of the troposphere) are
 22 encountered in winter/autumn (summer).

23 3.2 Annual and monthly variations

24 The average seasonal variations of O₃ and CO in all three tropospheric layers around
 25 Frankfurt/Munich are given in Fig. 5, and their long-term time series are shown in Fig. 6.



1
 2 Figure 5: Averaged O₃ (left panels) and CO (right panels) seasonal variations above
 3 Frankfurt/Munich in all three tropospheric layers, for the 95th percentile (top panels), the mean
 4 (middle panels) and the 5th percentile (bottom panels). The shaded areas show the ± 2 standard error
 5 (i.e. the uncertainty in the average at a 95% confidence level) calculated based on the monthly
 6 averages assumed to be well determined (i.e. uncertainties on the individual monthly averages are
 7 not taken into account) and independent.

8 3.2.1 Ozone

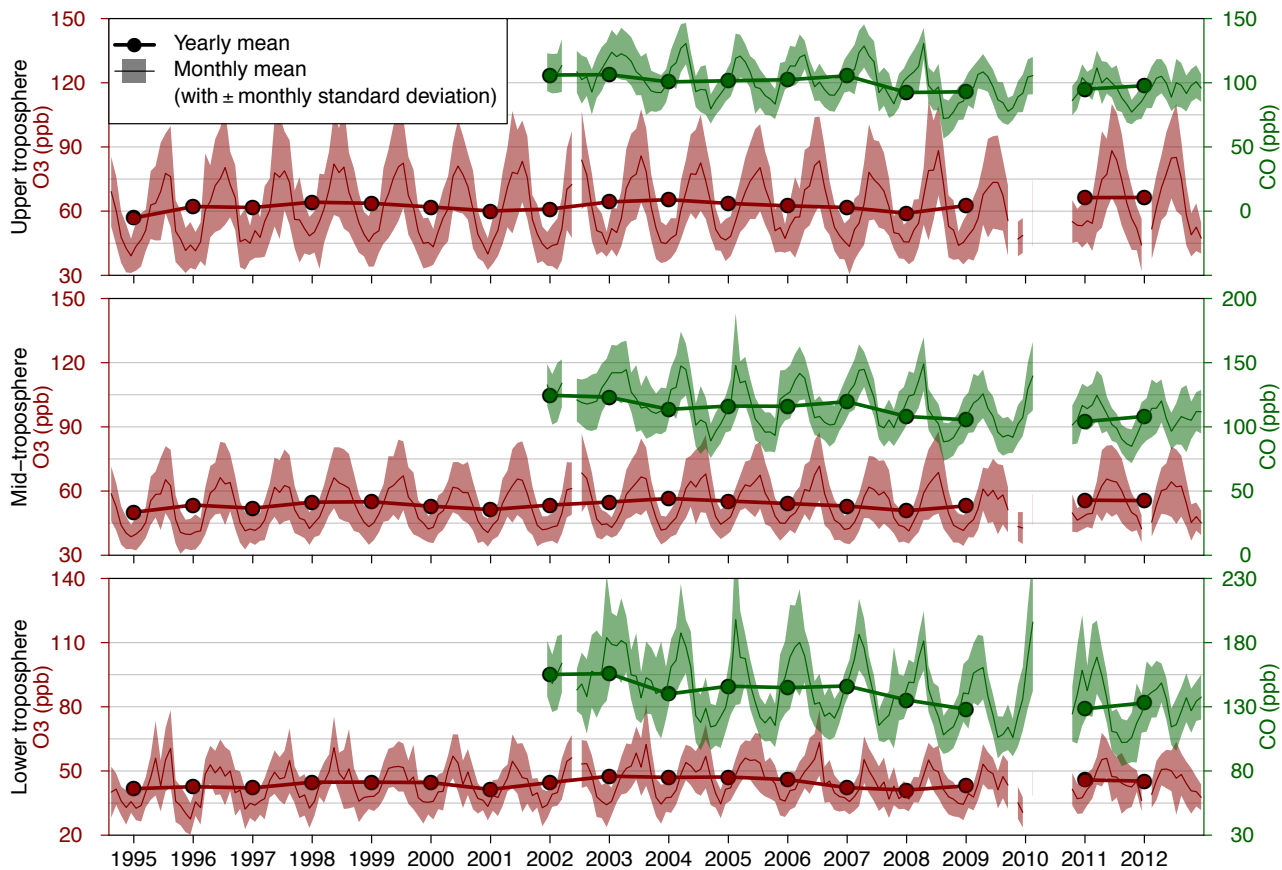
9 As noted in Sect. 3.1.1, the mean tropospheric O₃ increases with altitude, with average mixing ratios
 10 (over the whole period) of 44, 53 and 63 ppb in the LT, MT and UT, respectively. A clear seasonal
 11 pattern is emphasized in the entire tropospheric column. In the LT, the seasonal variation shows a
 12 broad spring/summer maximum and a minimum in winter, in good accordance with the seasonal
 13 variations observed at surface in Europe (Wilson et al., 2012). In the MT and UT, mixing ratios
 14 maximize between May and August. The O₃ 5th percentile shows higher mixing ratios in April-May

1 in the LT and MT while the seasonal variations in the UT remains similar than for the mean O₃. The
2 95th percentile shows a maximum in spring/summer in all tropospheric layers, this maximum being
3 sharper in the UT than in the LT and MT.

4 The annual mean O₃ mixing ratios are highly correlated between the three tropospheric layers
5 (R=0.87, 0.75 and 0.94 between the LT/MT, LT/UT and MT/UT, respectively). As the sources and
6 sinks of O₃ in the troposphere strongly vary with altitude, such high correlations were not expected.
7 This may be explained by the fact that both the first kilometre and the tropopause layer are not
8 taken into account in this study, which likely reduces the differences of interannual variation among
9 the tropospheric layers as defined in this study. However, some high O₃ mixing ratios are still
10 observed in the UT, with for instance a 95th percentile up to 115 ppb in summer, which suggests an
11 influence of stratospheric air. They are likely partly due to a wrong estimation of the tropopause
12 height since we saw in Sect. 2.2 that, despite a very low mean bias, quite large differences can be
13 found compared to a chemical tropopause determined based on typical tropopause O₃ mixing ratios.
14 As we do not consider a purely tropospheric UT (see Sect. 2.2), some of these high O₃ mixing ratios
15 may also be due to stratospheric intrusions in the troposphere. Similar correlations are obtained at
16 the seasonal scale. An interesting exception is the low correlation found between the LT and UT in
17 summer (R=0.26) and spring (0.46). This may be due to the fact that the BL is deeper during these
18 seasons (typically up to 3 km), which limits the influence of the free troposphere on the 1-2 km LT.

19 The highest monthly mean mixing ratios in the LT (above 60 ppb, the 99th percentile) are observed
20 in August 1995, May 1998, August 2003, July 2006 (Fig. 6). The spring 1998 anomaly is related to
21 the 1997 El Niño that enhanced the pollution export from Asia (due to a higher convective activity
22 and a strengthening of the subtropical jet stream) and North America and may have increased the
23 STE (Koumoutsaris et al., 2008; Zeng and Pyle, 2005). This anomaly is visible in the whole
24 troposphere, and is the strongest in the UT. The anomalies in August 2003 and July 2006 are related
25 to the severe heat waves that struck a large part of Europe (Ordóñez et al., 2005; Solberg et al.,
26 2008; Struzewska and Kaminski, 2008; see also Tressol et al. (2008) for a detailed analysis of the
27 2003 heat wave with the MOZAIC measurements). They are the strongest in the LT but remain
28 visible in the MT.

29



1
 2 Figure 6: Monthly and yearly mean O₃ and CO mixing ratios of combined Frankfurt and Munich
 3 vertical profiles, in the lower (bottom panel), mid- (middle panel) and upper troposphere (top panel)
 4 between 1994 and 2012.

5 3.2.2 Carbon monoxide

6 On average, CO mixing ratios of 143, 115 and 101 ppb are found in the LT, MT and UT,
 7 respectively. Mixing ratios in the UT are thus only 29% lower than in the LT close to local
 8 emissions. In comparison with O₃, the monthly mean of the day-to-day variability of CO is lower
 9 and similar in all three tropospheric layers (around 14-16%). Such a result is expected due to the
 10 longer lifetime of CO in comparison with O₃ in most of the troposphere, which leads to a higher
 11 regional and hemispheric background (Junge, 1974). As shown in Fig. 5, the seasonal cycle of CO
 12 is characterized by maximum mixing ratios in late winter/early spring in the whole troposphere.
 13 Minimum mixing ratios are encountered in summer/early autumn in the LT and are slightly shifted
 14 to late summer/early autumn higher in altitude. Such a seasonal pattern is consistent with the
 15 seasonal variation observed in background air masses arriving at the coastal site Mace Head
 16 (Derwent et al., 1998) or at a larger scale by satellite observations (Edwards et al., 2004; Worden et
 17 al., 2013). Averaged over the western Europe, the Terra/MOPITT CO tropospheric column
 18 maximizes at $\sim 2.5 \cdot 10^{18}$ molecules cm⁻² in March-April and minimize at $\sim 1.9 \cdot 10^{18}$ molecules cm⁻² in
 19 late summer, the ratio of the maximum over the minimum being 1.3 (Edwards et al., 2004). A very
 20 similar seasonal variation of tropospheric columns of CO has been observed by Zbinden et al.

1 (2013) based on the MOZAIC data over the period 2002-2009. This is in good agreement with the
2 amplitude of the seasonal cycle observed in the MT, the maximum CO mixing ratio being 1.35
3 higher than the minimum. The winter-time maximum results from the accumulation of the primary
4 CO emissions at northern mid-latitudes when the oxidation by OH is limited. In summer, CO
5 mixing ratios minimize due to a more effective photolytic destruction, despite an enhanced
6 secondary formation from biogenic compounds and additional emissions from biomass burning (in
7 particular in boreal regions). A rather similar seasonal pattern is observed with the CO 5th and 95th
8 percentiles except that the peak is sharper (February-March) in the LT for the 95th percentile.

9 As mentioned in Sect. 2.2 and 3.1.2, the data below 1 km were skipped in order to reduce the
10 impact of the local emissions from both the neighbouring agglomeration and the other aircraft — on
11 tarmac and/or during the take-off/landing phases (in case the MOZAIC-IAGOS aircraft closely
12 follows other aircraft). Indeed, many studies have shown that airport activities can impact the air
13 quality at the local scale (e.g. Hu et al., 2009; Pison and Menut, 2004; Yu et al., 2004). It is worth
14 mentioning that in a standard landing take-off cycle – comprising the approach, the taxi (plane on
15 the tarmac), the take-off (acceleration phase on the tarmac) and the climb up to a standard
16 atmospheric boundary layer of 915 m (Kesgin, 2006) – most of the CO emissions (85-95%) occur
17 on the tarmac during the taxi phase (Kurniawan and Khardi, 2011). However, even above 1 km in
18 the LT, one cannot exclude any influence of these emissions, or by the emissions of the
19 neighbouring agglomeration.

20 To assess more precisely the spatial representativeness of the MOZAIC-IAGOS data in the LT and
21 MT, a comparison is made with the CO mixing ratios measured at the World Meteorology
22 Organisation (WMO) Global Atmosphere Watch (GAW) surface stations (see Sect. S.1 in the
23 Supplement for details). Only the stations located between 45°N and 55°N (i.e. $\pm 5^\circ$ from the
24 latitude of Frankfurt) and with at least 80% data capture for the period 2002-2012 (based on the
25 monthly time series) are retained, which gives a set of 10 stations. The annual mean CO mixing
26 ratio measured by MOZAIC-IAGOS aircraft in the LT (143 ppb) is in the lower range of the zonal
27 average 155 ± 28 ppb observed among the GAW surface stations. When considering only the stations
28 above 1000 m (i.e. 3 stations all located in Europe), the zonal average is reduced to 145 ± 19 ppb,
29 which is very close to the mean CO observed in the LT. In the MT, the annual mean CO mixing
30 ratio is 115 ppb, thus lower than the CO mixing ratios at the ground whatever the station, but the
31 difference with the highest mountain station Jungfrauoch (3580 m elevation) is very small (-7%).
32 Additionally, the annual MOZAIC-IAGOS CO data in both the LT and MT is strongly correlated
33 with the CO observed at the ground (R between 0.61 and 0.94 at all stations except one at which
34 $R=0.41$). Therefore, the comparison between the MOZAIC-IAGOS CO dataset at Frankfurt/Munich
35 and the GAW dataset at the same latitude shows a good consistency, both in terms of mean annual

1 CO mixing ratios and interannual variations. This ensures a satisfactory representativeness of the
2 MOZAIC-IAGOS observations.

3 Along the period 2002-2012, the highest CO annual mixing ratios are encountered in 2003. This is
4 in agreement with the satellite measurements that show on this year a high positive anomaly on CO
5 total columns in Europe and more generally in North Hemisphere, notably due to intense boreal
6 fires (Worden et al., 2013). High mixing ratios in the LT are also observed during the winter 2010,
7 concomitantly with a cold snap over Europe that may have induced higher CO emissions (for the
8 residential heating) (Cattiaux et al., 2010).

9 **3.3 Trends**

10 In order to easily compare trends between the different tropospheric layers, O₃ mixing ratios are
11 normalized following the approach of Parrish et al. (2014) : (i) a quadratic least-squares regression
12 is applied to mean annual mixing ratios in which the year 2000 is taken as a reference (i.e. the
13 origin of the time series), (ii) the obtained intercept corresponds to the interpolated mean annual O₃
14 mixing ratio in 2000 (hereafter designated as O_{3,2000}), and is used for the normalization. The year
15 2000 is chosen in order to facilitate the comparison with the results obtained by Parrish et al. (2014).
16 Trends are thus expressed in percentage of year 2000 intercept per year (hereafter referred
17 as %O_{3,2000} yr⁻¹). The same approach is used for each season. Considering the relatively short time
18 coverage of MOZAIC-IAGOS observations (in comparison with measurements at some historical
19 surface sites traditionally used for long-term trend calculations), we limit the analysis to linear
20 regressions. Besides mean O₃ mixing ratios, we also investigate trends of the 5th and 95th percentiles.
21 Hereafter, all these quantities are referred as M(O₃), P₅(O₃) and P₉₅(O₃) for clarity. The same
22 approach is followed for CO, with the year 2004 as a reference (and the results expressed
23 in %CO₂₀₀₄ yr⁻¹). This year is chosen because in all three tropospheric layers, the mean CO mixing
24 ratios in 2004 (140, 114 and 101 ppb in the LT, MT and UT, respectively) are very close to the
25 mean CO mixing ratios over the period 2002-2012 (141, 114 and 102 ppb). Ozone and CO
26 normalized mean mixing ratios at the annual and seasonal scale are shown in Fig. S4 in the
27 Supplement (similar plots of the 5th and 95th percentile are given in Fig. S5-S6 in the Supplement).
28 Trends are investigated using the non-parametric Mann-Kendall analysis combined with Theil-Sen
29 slope estimate (Sen, 1968) which has several important advantages compared to the least-square
30 regression, including the absence of distributional assumptions and the lower sensitivity to outliers.
31 We use the OpenAir package (in the statistical programming language R) developed for
32 applications in atmospheric sciences (Carslaw and Ropkins, 2012). This package provides an
33 estimation of the uncertainties based on the bootstrap method, and allows to take into account the
34 autocorrelation of the data. The autocorrelation of environmental parameters is quite common
35 (although often ignored in trend analysis), and tends to artificially decrease the uncertainties of

1 trends, which can lead to the identification of trends that are actually insignificant (Weatherhead et
 2 al., 2002). Note that using our approach, the confidence intervals are not necessarily symmetric
 3 (around the mean slope estimate). The Theil-Sen slope estimates are reported for CO in Table 1. For
 4 information, the trend uncertainties obtained for O₃ and CO by ignoring the autocorrelation are
 5 reported in Table S1 in the Supplement.

6 Table 1: Annual and seasonal trends of mean CO mixing ratios, 5th and 95th percentiles over the
 7 period 2002-2012. Trends are estimated using the Theil-Sen slope estimate (see text). Uncertainties
 8 are given at the 95% confidence level (NS: non-significant trend).

		CO relative trend (%CO ₂₀₀₄ yr ⁻¹)			CO absolute trend (ppb yr ⁻¹)		
Season	Layer	Mean	5 th	95 th	Mean	5 th	95 th
Year	UT	-1.36 [-2.05;-0.74]	-1.22 [-2.27;-0.47]	-1.43 [-2.08;-0.89]	-1.42 [-2.14;-0.78]	-0.91 [-1.69;-0.35]	-2.00 [-2.90;-1.24]
Year	MT	-1.55 [-2.34;-0.72]	-1.57 [-2.52;-0.68]	-1.44 [-2.25;-0.59]	-1.85 [-2.79;-0.85]	-1.33 [-2.15;-0.58]	-2.30 [-3.59;-0.95]
Year	LT	-1.51 [-2.42;-0.44]	-1.59 [-2.58;-0.46]	-1.41 [-2.40;-0.12]	-2.24 [-3.59;-0.65]	-1.69 [-2.75;-0.49]	-2.90 [-4.91;-0.25]
Winter	UT	-1.64 [-2.73;-0.80]	-1.39 [-2.76;-0.39]	-1.59 [-2.59;-1.06]	-1.84 [-3.06;-0.89]	-1.22 [-2.42;-0.34]	-2.20 [-3.60;-1.47]
Winter	MT	-1.50 [-2.53;-0.60]	-1.69 [-2.81;-0.31]	-1.22 [-2.24;-0.28]	-1.96 [-3.29;-0.78]	-1.68 [-2.80;-0.31]	-2.00 [-3.66;-0.45]
Winter	LT	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Spring	UT	-1.67 [-2.83;-0.48]		-1.97 [-3.13;-0.86]	-2.02 [-3.43;-0.58]		-2.92 [-4.65;-1.28]
Spring	MT	-2.00 [-2.97;-0.69]		-2.01 [-2.71;-1.07]	-2.76 [-4.09;-0.95]		-3.45 [-4.66;-1.85]
Spring	LT	-1.91 [-2.72;-1.09]		-2.22 [-4.04;-0.87]	-3.26 [-4.64;-1.86]		-4.94 [-9.00;-1.94]
Summer	UT			-1.53 [-2.22;-0.59]			-1.94 [-2.83;-0.75]
Summer	MT	-1.83 [-3.25;-0.56]		-2.29 [-3.77;-1.21]	-2.01 [-3.58;-0.62]		-3.22 [-5.30;-1.70]
Summer	LT	-2.31 [-3.61;-0.97]	-2.08 [-2.83;-0.76]	-2.63 [-4.54;-1.42]	-3.08 [-4.81;-1.29]	-2.16 [-2.94;-0.79]	-4.45 [-7.69;-2.40]
Autumn	UT	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Autumn	MT	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS

Autumn	LT	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
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1 3.3.1 Ozone

2 All annual and seasonal trends of the $M(O_3)$ appear insignificant, except in winter for which a
3 weakly significant increase is found in all three tropospheric layers ($+0.83[+0.13;+1.67]$,
4 $+0.62[+0.05;+1.22]$ and $+0.62[+0.02;+1.22]\%O_{3,2000} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in the LT, MT and UT, respectively).
5 Previous trend analysis at the alpine sites (Zugspitze since 1978, Jungfraujoch and Sonnblick since
6 1990) have highlighted (i) a strong increase of O_3 during all seasons in the 1980s (around $+0.6-0.9$
7 ppb yr^{-1}), (ii) a persistent but lower increase in the 1990s during all seasons except summer where
8 O_3 has levelled off, (iii) the extension of that levelling off in the 2000s to the other seasons and a
9 slight decrease in summer (Logan et al., 2012; Parrish et al., 2012). This picture is in general
10 agreement with our results in the lower part of the troposphere. More specifically, in winter, Parrish
11 et al. (2012) found an average trend of $+0.61\pm 0.25 \%O_{3,2000} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ at regional background sites in
12 Europe over the 2-3 last decades, which is consistent with the trends found here over the period
13 1994-2012. At low altitudes, this increase of O_3 in winter is mainly attributed to a reduced O_3
14 titration by NO due to decreasing NO_x emissions (e.g. Ordóñez et al., 2005). The persistent positive
15 trends found higher in altitude suggest that wintertime O_3 has increased at a large scale (if not
16 hemispheric) since air masses sampled by MOZAIC-IAGOS aircraft in both the MT and UT can be
17 influenced by emissions from North America and Asia (as shown in Fig. 2).
18 Concerning the $P_5(O_3)$, a significant increase is found at the annual scale in all three tropospheric
19 layers ($+1.03[+0.36;+1.62]$, $+0.42[+0.09;+0.68]$ and $+0.63[+0.09;+0.99]\%O_{3,2000} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in the LT, MT
20 and UT, respectively). Conversely, trends of the $P_{95}(O_3)$ are all insignificant. Note that ignoring the
21 autocorrelation of the data leads to some additional significant positive trends, including the $M(O_3)$
22 at the annual scale, the $P_5(O_3)$ in winter and autumn, and the $P_{95}(O_3)$ in winter, although not in all
23 tropospheric layers (see Table S1 in the Supplement). It is beyond the scope of this study to
24 investigate why the autocorrelation has a stronger effect on these specific seasons or layers, but this
25 illustrates the strong influence of the serial dependence on the trend analysis and the necessity to
26 take it into account.

27 3.3.2 Carbon monoxide

28 As previously mentioned in the beginning of Sect. 3.3, CO trends are here investigated relatively to
29 the reference year 2004. Over the period 2002-2012, the $M(CO)$ at the annual scale significantly
30 decreases in the whole troposphere, with trends of $-1.51[-2.42;-0.44]$, $-1.55[-2.34;-0.72]$ and $-1.36[-$
31 $2.05;-0.74]\%CO_{2004} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in the LT, MT and UT, respectively. Similar negative trends are also
32 obtained for the $P_5(CO)$ and $P_{95}(CO)$ in all tropospheric layers. At the seasonal scale, the $M(CO)$
33 and $P_{95}(CO)$ show negative trends in winter, spring and summer, although not always in all
34 tropospheric layers, while the $P_5(CO)$ is significantly decreasing in winter (in the MT and UT) and

1 summer (in the LT). Conversely, all trends in autumn are insignificant. Note that the results without
 2 taking into consideration the autocorrelation of the data show significant negative trends of the
 3 $P_5(\text{CO})$ in most layers and during all seasons, except autumn (see Table S1 in the Supplement).
 4 These results are in general agreement with previous studies in Europe (e.g., Karlsdóttir et al., 2000;
 5 Novelli et al., 2003; Dils et al., 2009; Worden et al., 2013). Based on satellite observations, Worden
 6 et al. (2013) highlighted a decrease of the total column of CO over Europe, around $-1.44 \pm 0.22\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$
 7 with MOPITT over 2001-2011 and $-1.00 \pm 0.33\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ with AIRS over 2003-2011, thus in the range
 8 of our results over Frankfurt. Over the period 1995-2007, Gilge et al. (2010) found trends of -
 9 3.36 ± 1.08 and $-1.51 \pm 0.64 \text{ ppb yr}^{-1}$ (reduced to $-2.65 \pm 0.04 \text{ ppb yr}^{-1}$ by filtering the background
 10 values (Zellweger et al., 2009)) at two alpine sites from the WMO GAW network, in reasonable
 11 agreement with our absolute Theil-Sen slope estimates at Frankfurt/Munich in the LT and MT (-
 12 $2.24[-3.59;-0.65]$ and $-1.85[-2.79;-0.85] \text{ ppb yr}^{-1}$).

13 **3.4 Changes of the O₃ seasonal cycle**

14 In Sect. 3.3.1, we highlighted that only a few O₃ trends are statistically significant. However, the
 15 differences of trends between the seasons remain insignificant. It is worth noting that an
 16 insignificant trend does not imply the absence of trend since a trend can be hidden by a strong
 17 variability. In this section, we investigate if these trends come along with a change of the O₃
 18 seasonal cycle above Frankfurt/Munich (Sect. 3.4.1). Results are discussed in Sect. 3.4.2.

19 **3.4.1 Evolution of the seasonal cycle at Frankfurt/Munich**

20 The seasonal variation of O₃ can be well approximated by a sine function fully characterized by
 21 three parameters: an offset value defined here as the average O₃ mixing ratio over the considered
 22 period, an amplitude, and a phase that determines at which period in the year the maximum of O₃ is
 23 reached. Following the approach of Parrish et al. (2013), one can fit a sine function over different
 24 periods of time and compare the results of the fit in order to highlight potential changes in the
 25 seasonal pattern of O₃. While Parrish et al. (2013) applied the sine fit to the monthly mean time
 26 series, we here consider the daily mean O₃ mixing ratio but the results from both approaches will be
 27 discussed. The equation of the fit is :

$$28 \quad \tilde{y}(t) = y_0 + a \sin\left(\frac{2\pi t}{365} + \phi\right) \quad (1)$$

29 with t the time (in days, values ranging between 0.5 and 364.5), y_0 the offset mixing ratio (in ppb), a
 30 the amplitude (in ppb) and ϕ the phase. The date of the year of the seasonal maximum of O₃ is then
 31 estimated as : $(\pi/2 - \phi) * 365/2\pi$ (Parrish et al., 2013). We apply the sine fit to the two 9-year
 32 time periods 1995-2003 and 2004-2012. As there is no overlap between these periods, the two
 33 datasets and the results of the sine fit are independent. The changes of amplitude and phase obtained
 34 with the sine fits are reported in Table 2. The uncertainties directly given by the standard linear

1 least-square regression are underestimated since daily averages of O₃ show some synoptic-scale
 2 multi-day correlation (readily seen in the correlograms of the daily residuals of the sine fits, not
 3 shown). In order to take into account this autocorrelation in the estimation of the uncertainties, we
 4 assume that the data follows a first-order regressive process, which allows to estimate the effective
 5 independent sample size (n') based on the sample size (n) and the lag-1 autocorrelation coefficient
 6 (ρ_1): $n' = n(1 - \rho_1)/(1 + \rho_1)$ (Wilks, 2006). These lag-1 coefficients for the two periods and the three
 7 layers range between 0.22 and 0.60, which leads to an increase of the initial confidence intervals by
 8 a factor of 1.3 to 2.0. The uncertainties (95% confidence interval) reported in Table 2 reflect this
 9 calculation.

10 Between the average 1995-2003 and the average 2004-2012, the amplitude of the O₃ seasonal cycle
 11 has decreased at levels that are statistically significant throughout the troposphere, with a difference
 12 of -2.5 ± 1.7 , -1.1 ± 0.8 and -2.1 ± 1.2 ppb decade⁻¹ in the LT, MT and UT, respectively. Note that the
 13 difference between the two nine-year periods has been scaled to per decade. The reason for the
 14 decreasing amplitude is the significantly increased yearly O₃ minimum occurring in winter whereas
 15 the maximum occurring in spring/summer remained constant (see Sect. 3.3.1). The differences of
 16 amplitude change between the different layers are all statistically insignificant.

17 Table 2. Characteristics of the O₃ seasonal cycle over the periods 1995-2003 and 2004-2012 in all
 18 tropospheric layers. Amplitude and phase are obtained by fitting a sine function to the daily mean
 19 O₃ mixing ratios (see text).

Layer	Amplitude			Phase		
	Amplitude 1995-2003 (ppb)	Amplitude 2004-2012 (ppb)	Amplitude trend (ppb decade ⁻¹)	Date of seasonal maximum 1995- 2003	Date of seasonal maximum 2004-2012	Shift (day decade ⁻¹)
UT	18.0±0.8	16.1±0.7	-2.1±1.2	23 th June ± 2.6 days	20 th June ± 2.6 days	-3.3±4.1
MT	11.5±0.5	10.5±0.5	-1.1±0.8	23 th June ± 2.4 days	16 th June ± 2.9 days	-7.8±4.2
LT	9.9±1.0	7.6±1.1	-2.5±1.7	18 th June ± 5.8 days	2 nd June ± 8.6 days	-17.8±11.5

20 Over the period 1995-2003, the sine fit gives a seasonal maximum of O₃ the 18th June in the LT and
 21 the 23th June in the MT and UT. The date of seasonal maximum in the LT is in reasonable
 22 agreement with those obtained by Parrish et al. (2013) at two alpine sites (Jungfrauoch,
 23 Switzerland and Zugspitze, Germany) and at a lower elevation site (Hohenpeissenberg, Germany,
 24 ~50 km from Munich). Over the period 2004-2012, the seasonal maximum O₃ occurs on 2nd June in
 25 the LT, on 16th June in the MT and on 20th June in the UT. Thus, the phase of the seasonal
 26 variations of O₃ shifted forward during the period 1995-2012. The shift of the O₃ maximum
 27 (typically in June) between average 1995-2003 and average 2004-2012 is statistically significant in

1 the LT (-17.8 ± 11.5 day decade⁻¹) and MT (-7.8 ± 4.2 day decade⁻¹), but not in the UT (-3.3 ± 4.1 day
2 decade⁻¹). The difference of the seasonal shift between the LT and the UT is also significant. Note
3 that reducing the width of the time windows (to less than 9 years) does not give significantly
4 different results.

5 At the three continental sites, Parrish et al. (2013) reported statistically significant rates of shift (at
6 the 95% confidence level) ranging between -5 and -7 days decade⁻¹ since 1970s while at the coastal
7 site Mace Head, the rate was lower and insignificant (-3 ± 3.7 days decade⁻¹). In comparison, the
8 seasonal shift we obtained in the LT is significantly higher, but discrepancies are likely due to the
9 fact that the studied periods are different. As a faster change of phase is found between 2005 and
10 2008 (the 3 last years studied) (see Fig. 2 in Parrish et al. (2013)), restricting their analysis to our
11 shorter period would likely lead to a higher seasonal shift (i.e., closer to our values).

12 **3.4.2 Discussion**

13 The previous analysis confirms that the ozone seasonal pattern in Central/Western Europe is
14 changing, at least since the mid-1990s, moving toward a lower amplitude and an earlier O₃
15 maximum. It is worth noting that the MOZAIC-IAGOS observations above Frankfurt/Munich
16 represent the worldwide densest dataset of O₃ vertical profiles. The vertical profile observations
17 provide unique data, allowing us to show that this seasonal change of the phase in the O₃ maximum
18 to earlier days in the year extends above the surface at Frankfurt/Munich. The magnitude of this
19 shift in maximum is statistically significant through the middle troposphere. This may highlight that
20 the O₃ seasonal pattern behaves differently over the northern hemisphere continents (Europe, North
21 America, Asia). Indeed, the FLEXPART-derived PES clearly shows that the air masses sampled by
22 MOZAIC-IAGOS aircraft in the different tropospheric layers originate from different regions (see
23 Fig. 2). The LT is predominantly influenced by the European emissions, the MT by both the
24 European and Northern American emissions, the UT by both the Northern American and Asian
25 emissions.

26 Parrish et al. (2013) exhaustively discussed several reasons that may explain this changing phase at
27 surface in Europe, including changes in downward transport of stratospheric O₃, long-range
28 transport, O₃ precursor's emissions and their spatial distribution, photochemical production and the
29 potential influence of climate change. Our study does not provide an unambiguous explanation to
30 either the seasonal trends discrepancies or the subsequent seasonal shifts (which would ideally
31 require the use of global models able to correctly reproduce both O₃ seasonal patterns and trends
32 throughout the troposphere). In terms of stratospheric contributions, the STE is known to peak in
33 spring (Auvray and Bey, 2005; James et al., 2003; Tang et al., 2011) due to both enhanced
34 downward transport (Appenzeller et al., 1996) and maximum mixing ratios in the lowermost
35 stratosphere (e.g., Thouret et al., 2006). If the seasonal shift was induced by higher STT fluxes, one

1 would expect stronger positive trends in spring close to the tropopause compared to the LT and a
2 larger (and more significant) seasonal shift in the UT, which contradicts our observations. Thus, the
3 STE is not likely the main reason explaining the shift of the O₃ seasonal pattern. The trend analysis
4 (Sect. 3.3) has not highlighted any significant O₃ trend either in spring or summer, the large
5 uncertainties being at least partly due to the strong interannual variability of O₃ mixing ratios.

6 **4 Summary and conclusions**

7 An extensive database of O₃ and CO vertical profiles above worldwide airports is available from the
8 MOZAIC-IAGOS program since 1994 and 2002, respectively. In this study, we investigate the
9 climatology, variations and trends of O₃ and CO mixing ratios above the German airports Frankfurt
10 and Munich whose combination represents the worldwide densest and longest MOZAIC-IAGOS
11 dataset. We focus on the troposphere, each vertical profile being subdivided in three tropospheric
12 layers: the lower, mid- and upper troposphere (LT, MT and UT, respectively). The UT is defined
13 relative to the dynamical tropopause, based on the potential vorticity extracted from ECMWF
14 meteorological data. Main results are given below (all trends are given with uncertainties at a 95%
15 confidence level):

- 16 1. Climatological vertical profiles: The mean O₃ vertical profile is characterized by a strong
17 increase with altitude in the first kilometre above the surface whatever the season and close
18 to the tropopause in spring/summer, while the vertical gradient remains moderate (low) in
19 the free troposphere in spring/summer (winter/autumn). These variations of the O₃ vertical
20 gradient are likely due to the effect of deposition and titration by NO close to the surface,
21 and STE close to the tropopause. We also highlighted a minimum of daily O₃ variability at
22 around 3-4 km. The mean CO vertical profile shows maximum mixing ratios at the surface,
23 a strong decrease in the first kilometre (in particular in winter/autumn) and a moderate one
24 in the rest of the troposphere. A maximum of day-to-day variability is also found at the
25 surface, while that variability remains constant (around 18%) through the rest of the
26 troposphere, whatever the season.
- 27 2. Seasonal variations: The mean O₃ seasonal variations show a minimum in November-
28 December in all tropospheric layers, a broad spring/summer maximum in the LT and MT
29 and a sharper summer maximum in the UT. The O₃ 5th percentile is also minimum in
30 November-December in the entire troposphere, but reaches its maximum in April-May in
31 the LT and MT, and April-August in the UT. The seasonal profile of the O₃ 95th percentile is
32 less contrasted in the troposphere, with a maximum in April-August in the LT, July-August
33 in the MT and May-July in the UT. The mean CO seasonal variations peak in March/April
34 in the whole troposphere, and reach a broad minimum in July-October in the LT, refined to

1 September/October in the MT and UT. A similar pattern is observed for the CO 5th and 95th
2 percentiles.

- 3 3. Annual and seasonal O₃ trends: Over the period 1994-2012, most O₃ trends are insignificant.
4 The few exceptions are the significant increases of the mean O₃ in winter, and of the O₃ 5th
5 percentile at the annual scale. No significant trends are found for the O₃ 95th percentile.
6 Considering the uncertainties at a 95% confidence level, the significant trend values range
7 between 0.02 and 1.67%O_{3,2000} yr⁻¹ (relative change with the year 2000 as a reference). Over
8 the period 2002-2012, the mean CO mixing ratios are decreasing at the annual scale and at
9 the seasonal scale in winter, spring and summer in all tropospheric layers (except in the LT
10 in winter), with trends ranging between -2.31[-3.61;-0.97] and -1.36[-2.05;-0.74]%CO₂₀₀₄
11 yr⁻¹ (relative change with the year 2004 as a reference). A similar picture is observed for
12 both the 5th and the 95th percentiles, except that most trends in spring and summer are
13 insignificant for the 5th percentile. All trends remain insignificant in autumn.

14 This study also investigates the changes in the O₃ seasonal cycle (by fitting sinusoids over the 9-
15 years periods 1995-2003 and 2004-2012) with a focus on the phase. Our results highlight a
16 statistically significant change of the phase in the LT, ozone maxima occurring earlier by -
17 17.8±11.5 days decade⁻¹ on average (at a 95% confidence level), in general agreement with
18 previous results (Parrish et al., 2013). A major contribution of this study is that it extends the
19 analysis throughout the troposphere, and shows that such shifts become smaller and less significant
20 as one approaches the tropopause. In particular, the difference of seasonal shift between the LT and
21 UT is statistically significant. The larger contribution from other regions (e.g. Asia) higher in
22 altitude may explain the lower seasonal shift observed in the free troposphere and close to the
23 tropopause, although further studies are required to quantitatively assess this issue.

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