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Trends in Global Tropospheric Ozone Inferred from a Composite Record of TOMS/OMI/MLS/OMPS Satellite Measurements and the MERRA-2 GMI Simulation

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16 Abstract. Past studies have suggested that ozone in the troposphere has increased globally 17 throughout much of the 20th century due to increases in anthropogenic emissions and transport. 18 We show by combining satellite measurements with a chemical transport model that during the 19 last four decades tropospheric ozone does indeed indicate increases that are global in nature, yet 20 still highly regional. Satellite ozone measurements from Nimbus-7 and Earth Probe Total Ozone 21 Mapping Spectrometer (TOMS) are merged with ozone measurements from Aura Ozone 22 Monitoring Instrument/Microwave Limb Sounder (OMI/MLS) to determine trends in 23 tropospheric ozone for 1979-2016. Both TOMS (1979-2005) and OMI/MLS (2005-2016) depict 24 large increases in tropospheric ozone from the Near East to India/East Asia and further eastward 25 over the Pacific Ocean. The 38-year merged satellite record shows total net change over this 26 region of about +6 to +7 Dobson Units (DU) (i.e., $\sim 15-20\%$ of average background ozone), with 27 the largest increase (~4 DU) occurring during the 2005-2016 Aura period. The Global Modeling 28 Initiative (GMI) chemical transport model with time-varying emissions is used to aid in the 29 interpretation of tropospheric ozone trends for 1980-2016. The GMI simulation for the

30 combined record also depicts greatest increases of +6 to +7 DU over India/east Asia, very similar 31 to the satellite measurements. In regions of significant increases in tropospheric column ozone 32 (TCO) the trends are a factor of 2-2.5 larger for the Aura record when compared to the earlier 33 TOMS record; for India/east Asia the trends in TCO for both GMI and satellite measurements 34 are ~+3 DU-decade⁻¹ or greater during 2005-2016 compared to about +1.2 to +1.4 DU-decade⁻¹ 35 for 1979-2016. The GMI simulation and satellite data also reveal a tropospheric ozone increase 36 of ~+4 to +5 DU for the 38-year record over central Africa and the tropical Atlantic Ocean. Both the GMI simulation and satellite-measured tropospheric ozone during the latter Aura time period 37 show increases of $\sim+3$ DU-decade⁻¹ over the N Atlantic and NE Pacific. 38

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40 **1. Introduction**

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42 Over the last several decades there have been substantial regional changes in emissions and 43 concentrations of global pollutants including precursors of tropospheric ozone as documented by 44 many studies (e.g., Granier et al., 2011; Parrish et al., 2013; Young et al., 2013; Cooper et al., 45 2014; Lee et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2016; Heue et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2017). The largest 46 increases in global pollutants over the last four decades occurred broadly over a region extending 47 from the Near East to India and east/SE Asia. Lin et al. (2017) used a global chemistry-climate 48 model (CCM) for 1980-2014 to study the effects of global changes in emissions on surface ozone. They show that rising increases in emissions, including a tripling of Asian NO_x (NO + 49 50 NO₂) since just 1990, lead to large increases in surface ozone over India/East Asia and to a lesser 51 extent over the western US due to long-range transport. Young et al. (2013) combined 15 global 52 chemistry climate models projected to year 2100 and found significant inter-model differences; 53 relative to year 2000, global tropospheric ozone from the models indicated both increases and 54 decreases up to year 2030, and largely decreases by 2100. One conclusion from Young et al. 55 (2013) is that the models are sensitive to emission and climate changes in different ways; they 56 mention that this requires a unified approach to ozone budget specifications and rigorous 57 investigation of the factors driving tropospheric ozone to attribute changes in tropospheric ozone 58 and inter-model differences more clearly.

60 The changes in global emissions since 1980 are described by Zhang et al. (2016) as an 61 equatorward redistribution over time into developing countries of India and those of SE Asia. 62 Zhang et al. (2016) used a global chemical-transport model (CTM) for 1980-2010 to quantify the effects of these changes in emissions on tropospheric ozone. The model simulations and 63 64 OMI/MLS satellite measurements employed by Zhang et al. (2016) indicated largest increases in tropospheric ozone extending from the Near East to India and SE Asia and further eastward over 65 66 the Pacific Ocean. Zhang et al. (2016) included IAGOS aircraft ozone profiles that also showed 67 large increases (i.e., double-digit percent increases) for India, SE Asia, and East Asia between the 1994-2004 and 2005-2014 time records. The model used by Zhang et al. (2016) also 68 69 simulated a net increase in global tropospheric ozone of about 28 Tg (~8.9%) over the 30-year 70 record. The results by Zhang et al. (2016) appear consistent with the Bulletin of the American 71 Meteorological Society BAMS State of the Climate Report for year 2016 that indicates about 72 21.8 Tg increase in OMI/MLS tropospheric ozone when averaged over 60°S-60°N between 73 October 2004 and December 2016, with largest contribution to global trends (about +3 to +4 74 DU-decade⁻¹ for OMI/MLS) originating from the same India and east/SE Asia region. The 75 increases in tropospheric ozone for OMI/MLS are from a shorter record than the 30-year record 76 of Zhang et al. (2016) and not global. (We discuss trends for a 38-year merged record from 77 combined TOMS and OMI/MLS satellite measurements later in section 3.3.) The first evidence 78 of increases in tropospheric ozone over SE Asia from satellite data was shown by Beig and Singh 79 (2007). Beig and Singh used a version of Convective-Cloud Differential (CCD) gridded 80 tropospheric ozone for 1979-2005 that was a predecessor to the current CCD data used for our 81 study (discussed in Section 2). The CCD algorithm is described by Ziemke et al. (1998). The 82 largest increases in tropospheric ozone reported by Beig and Singh (2007) were up to 7-9% decade⁻¹ and were located in SE Asia. 83

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The Tropospheric Ozone Assessment Report (TOAR) provides analyses of trends in tropospheric ozone calculated from a large array of data sources including satellite, aircraft, balloon ozonesondes and surface measurements (Gaudel et al., 2018). Figure 24 of Gaudel et al., (2018) shows calculated linear trends/decadal changes during the Aura time record for six global data products, five from satellite and one from trajectory-mapped ozonesondes. The six products show large divergence in estimated trends, in part due to their short and differing time records; it was noted that one should be careful about placing precise numbers on estimated trends in TCO
from the results. Figure 25 of Gaudel et al. (2018) combined all six TCO products together
statistically and showed that the largest and most consistent (and positive) trends between the six
products were centered over SE Asia.

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96 Heue et al. (2016) derived a merged 1995-2015 tropical tropospheric ozone dataset from multiple 97 satellite instruments using a variant of the CCD approach for latitude range $\pm 20^{\circ}$. Their dataset 98 was constructed by concatenating measurements from several instruments including 99 SCIAMACHY and GOME (but not including either TOMS or OMI/MLS). Their main findings 100 included evidence for increases in tropospheric ozone over both India/SE Asia and the tropical 101 Africa/Atlantic region; however, their largest detected positive trends were across tropical 102 Africa/Atlantic rather than India/SE Asia. Heue et al. (2016) estimated a mean trend in TCO of 103 about +0.7 DU-decade⁻¹ in the tropics (15°S-15°N). Heue et al. (2016) indicated that significant 104 positive trends occurred over central and southern Africa that maximized during June-August 105 which represents the peak burning season for this region; they suggested that the trends in 106 central/southern Africa are associated with an increase in biomass burning. Leventidou et al. 107 (2018) using similar (but processed differently) SCIAMACHY/GOME CCD TCO measurements for 1995-2015 found $\sim+3$ DU-decade⁻¹ trend over southern Africa, but no statistical change in 108 109 the tropics $(15^{\circ}S-15^{\circ}N)$.

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111 The purpose of our study is to derive trends in tropospheric ozone for 1979-2016 by combining 112 TOMS (1979-2005) and OMI/MLS (2005-2016) measurements. A main incentive is to evaluate 113 TCO trends for a longer satellite record than previous investigations including TOAR, and to 114 identify and possibly explain the regional trend patterns that emerge from the data. Areal 115 coverage for calculated trends is all longitudes and latitudes $30^{\circ}S - 30^{\circ}N$ for TOMS and $60^{\circ}S$ -116 60°N for OMI/MLS. The Global Modeling Initiative (GMI) CTM replay simulation is included 117 to assess ozone trends during both the TOMS and OMI/MLS time periods. All satellite ozone 118 products were re-processed from previous versions to improve data quality for trend calculations. 119 We also provide a preliminary evaluation of tropospheric column ozone (TCO) measured from 120 the Ozone Mapping Profiler Suite (OMPS) nadir-mapper and limb-profiler instruments 121 beginning in 2012 as possible future continuation of the OMI/MLS TCO record. Section 2 discusses the satellite measurements, GMI model, ozonesonde data, and trend calculations.
Section 3 discusses derived trends in tropospheric ozone including net changes for the combined
38-year record. Results are summarized in Section 4. We also include Supporting Material
(Sections A-D) that discusses validation of OMI/MLS, TOMS, and OMPS TCO, and
comparisons of decadal changes/trends between ozonesonde and OMI/MLS TCO.

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128 2. Satellite Measurements, MERRA-2 GMI Model, Ozonesondes, and Trend Calculations. 129

- 130 <u>2.1. Satellite Measurements.</u>
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132 All satellite measurements of TCO used for our study are developed at NASA Goddard Space 133 Flight Center (Code 614) and updated and upgraded periodically for the science community. 134 TCO measurements and their validation from Nimbus-7 (N7) and Earth Probe (EP) TOMS instruments are discussed by Ziemke et al. (2005, and references therein). TOMS TCO for 1979-135 136 2005 is derived using the Convective-Cloud Differential (CCD) algorithm (Ziemke et al., 1998) 137 which differences clear versus thick cloud measurements of column ozone. Useful CCD gridded 138 TCO is limited mostly to tropical latitudes due to having both a large number of deep convective 139 clouds and small zonal variability of SCO. Our TOMS CCD dataset originates from a 140 preliminary TOMS CCD gridded dataset that Beig and Singh (2007) used for evaluating TCO 141 trends, but now includes a re-processing with extensive flagging of outliers out to latitudes $\pm 30^{\circ}$. 142 The N7 and EP TOMS instruments have similar spectral/spatial/temporal resolution with TCO 143 obtained from both using the same version 8 algorithm. TOMS TCO is determined by 144 subtracting thick cloud column ozone measurements (to estimate stratospheric column ozone, 145 SCO) from near clear-sky total column ozone. By differencing SCO and total ozone from the 146 same instrument, derived TCO is largely self-calibrating over time and should not be affected by 147 instrument/inter-instrument drifts or offsets. Standard precision error (i.e., 1o standard 148 deviation) of TOMS gridded TCO is estimated to be about 1.7 DU (e.g., Ziemke et al., 1998). 149 Validation of TOMS TCO is discussed in Section C of the Supporting Material. The validation 150 of TOMS TCO involves comparisons with ozonesondes beginning in 1979.

152 We also include OMI/MLS TCO (Ziemke et al., 2006) for January 2005-December 2016 and 153 latitude range 60°S-60°N. TCO is determined by subtracting MLS SCO from OMI total column 154 ozone each day at each grid point. Tropopause pressure used to determine SCO invoked the WMO 2K-km⁻¹ lapse-rate definition from NCEP re-analyses. For consistency these same lapse-155 156 rate tropopause pressure fields were used to derive TCO for ozonesondes, OMPS, and the GMI 157 model (discussed below). OMI total column ozone is retrieved using the OMTO3 v8.5 algorithm 158 that includes co-located UV cloud pressures from OMI (Vasilkov et al., 2008) and several other 159 improvements from version 8. The OMI total ozone and cloud data including discussion of data 160 quality are available from https://ozoneaq.gsfc.nasa.gov/. The MLS data used to obtain SCO 161 were derived from their v4.2 ozone profiles (https://mls.jpl.nasa.gov/data/datadocs.php/). We 162 estimate 1^o precision for the OMI/MLS monthly-mean gridded TCO product to be about 1.3 163 DU. The additional Supporting Material discusses both validation and adjustments made to 164 OMI/MLS TCO. It can be shown that OMI/MLS TCO derived from this residual technique is 165 nearly identical to the TCO from OMI CCD measurements for the same time period, albeit with 166 the CCD data limited mostly to tropical/subtropical latitudes (e.g., Ziemke et al., 2012).

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168 Tropospheric ozone for January 2012 through 2016 is also determined from the OMPS nadir-169 mapper and limb-profiler instruments onboard the National Polar-orbiting Operational 170 Environmental Satellite System (NPP) spacecraft. The OMPS tropospheric ozone is evaluated 171 for possibly continuing the OMI/MLS data record. TCO is determined by subtracting OMPS 172 v2.5 limb-profiler SCO from OMPS v2.3 nadir-mapper total column ozone. SCO is determined 173 from the limb-profiler measurements using the same tropopause pressure fields as for MLS SCO. 174 With both OMPS instruments onboard the same NPP satellite, the time difference between the 175 limb and nadir measurements is about 7 minutes (similar to Aura MLS and OMI instruments). of 176 **OMPS** The data including evaluation data quality are available from 177 https://ozoneaq.gsfc.nasa.gov/data/omps/. Section B of the Supporting Material discusses the 178 derived OMPS TCO. A main conclusion regarding this preliminary version of OMPS TCO is 179 that these measurements will be useful for extending the OMI/MLS record of TCO.

All satellite-derived TCO represents monthly-means under mostly clear-sky conditions with
 radiative cloud fractions < 40%. This cloud threshold reduces the number of total column ozone

183 pixels by $\sim 20\%$. The cloud filtering was applied to reduce precision error in satellite-measured 184 TCO due to errors in assumed climatological below-cloud ozone for thick cloud scenes. These 185 errors in tropospheric ozone are largely random in nature on a pixel-by-pixel basis and do not 186 affect calculated trend magnitudes whether or not such measurements are removed from the 187 analyses. Satellite-derived TCO was gridded to $5^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$ bins centered on longitudes -177.5°, -172.5°, ..., 177.5°, and latitudes -27.5°, -22.5°, ..., 27.5° for TOMS and latitudes -57.5°, -52.5°, 188 189 ..., 57.5° for OMI/MLS (and also OMPS). This bin size for all measurements was chosen for consistency because the original bin size for the CCD measurements for 1979-2005 is $5^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$. 190

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192 <u>2.2. MERRA-2 GMI Model.</u>

193 The Modern-Era Retrospective analysis for Research and Applications (MERRA-2) GMI 194 simulation is produced with the Goddard Earth Observing System (GEOS) modeling framework 195 (Molod et al., 2015), using winds, temperature, and pressure from the MERRA-2 reanalysis 196 (Gelaro et al., 2017). The configuration for this study is a dynamically constrained replay (Orbe 197 et al., 2017) coupled to the Global Modeling Initiative's (GMI) stratospheric and tropospheric 198 chemical mechanism (Duncan et al., 2007; Oman et al., 2013; Nielsen et al., 2017). The GMI 199 mechanism includes a detailed description of ozone-NOx-hydrocarbon chemistry and has over 200 100 species and approximately 400 chemical reactions. The simulation was run at $\sim 0.5^{\circ}$ horizontal resolution, c180 on the cubed sphere, and output on the same 0.625° longitude x 0.5° 201 202 latitude grid as MERRA-2 from 1980-2016.

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204 The MERRA-2 GMI simulation includes emissions of NO, CO, and other non-methane 205 hydrocarbons from fossil fuel and biofuel sources, biomass burning, and biogenic sources. There 206 are also NO emissions from lightning and soil. Fossil fuel and biofuel sources are prescribed 207 from the MACCity Measuring Atmospheric Composition and Climate megaCity - zoom for the 208 environment (MACCity) inventory (Granier et al, 2011), which interpolates to each year from 209 the decadal Atmospheric Chemistry and Climate - Model Inter-comparison Project (ACCMIP) 210 emissions (Lamarque et al, 2010) and applies a seasonal scaling factor. The MACCity inventory 211 ends in 2010, so for later years we use fossil fuel and biofuel emissions from the Representative 212 Concentration Pathways 8.5 (RCP8.5) scenario. Time-dependent biomass burning emissions for 213 1997 onwards come from the Global Fire Emissions Dataset (GFED) version 4s (Giglio et al.,

214 2013). Biomass burning emissions for prior years have interannual variability from regional 215 scaling factors based on the TOMS aerosol index (Duncan et al, 2003) imposed on a climatology 216 derived from GFED-4s, similar to the approach used in Strode et al. [2015]. Emissions of 217 isoprene and other biogenic compounds are calculated online using the Model of Emissions of 218 Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN) model [Guenther et al., 1999, 2000], and thus 219 respond to MERRA-2 GMI meteorology. NO emissions from soil, parameterized based on 220 Yienger and Levy [1995], also responds to the MERRA-2 meteorology. Lightning NO 221 production is prescribed monthly based on the scheme of Allen et al. (2010) using a de-trended 222 cumulative mass flux in the mid-troposphere from MERRA-2, constrained seasonally with the 223 OTDLIS v2.3 lightning climatology (Cecil et al., 2014). A global mean scaling factor is applied 224 to the de-trended cumulative mass flux so that the annual average global mean lightning NO_x 225 production is 6.5 Tg N yr⁻¹ for each year of simulation. Methane is specified as a latitude and 226 time-dependent surface boundary condition. In addition to chemical loss, dry deposition 227 provides a major sink for tropospheric ozone. GMI uses a resistance-in-series method [Wang et 228 al., 1998; Wesely and Hicks, 1977] for dry deposition and thus depends on factors including land 229 surface type and leaf area index. Ozone depleting substances are specified using the A12014 230 scenario from WMO [2014].

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TCO is derived from the GMI simulation by integrating the generated ozone profiles from the surface up to tropopause pressure. GMI TCO (discussed below) was also averaged monthly and re-gridded from original 0.5° latitude $\times 0.625^{\circ}$ longitude resolution to this same $5^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$ gridding. Where we refer to GMI in this paper it is equivalent to MERRA-2 GMI.

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237 <u>2.3. Ozonesondes.</u>

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239 We include balloon-launched ozonesonde measurements for comparisons and validation of the 240 OMI/MLS TCO. The ozonesonde database extends from 2004-2016 and includes measurements 241 from Southern Hemisphere ADditional OZonesondes (SHADOZ) (Thompson et al., 2017; Witte 242 et al., 2017), World Ozone and Ultraviolet Data Center (WOUDC) (https://woudc.org/), and 243 Network for Detection of Atmospheric Composition (NDACC). the Change (http://www.ndsc.ncep.noaa.gov/). The ozonesondes provide daily ozone profile concentrations 244

245 as a function of altitude from several dozen global station sites. The ozone profiles are 246 integrated vertically each day to derive tropospheric column measurements. Most of the sonde 247 ozone profile measurements during the Aura record that we used are derived from 248 Electrochemical Concentration Cell (ECC) instruments. Non-ECC instruments include Brewer-249 Mast (for the entire Aura record at Hohenpeisenberg) and Carbon-Iodide (up through November 250 2009 at Sapporo and Tateno, up through October 2008 at Naha, and through March 2005 at 251 Kagoshima). Section A of the Supporting Material discusses the ozonesonde analyses and 252 includes evaluation of potential offset and/or drift in OMI/MLS data. The ensuing corrections 253 made to the OMI/MLS TCO were small. The corrections included a +2 DU offset adjustment (via ozonesonde comparisons) and a -1.0 DU-decade⁻¹ drift adjustment (via OMI row anomaly 254 255 analysis).

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257 <u>2.4. Trend Calculations.</u>

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259 For the short 15-month overlapping time period of October 2004 – December 2005 between 260 TOMS and OMI/MLS, mean offset differences in TCO were found to be regionally varying with 261 values up to 5 DU or greater which hampers any useful effort for deriving trends from their 262 concatenated datasets. Offsets of several DU between TOMS and OMI total ozone have been 263 well documented (e.g., Witte et al., 2018, and references therein). Therefore, we have calculated 264 trends independently for the TOMS (1979-2005) and OMI/MLS (2005-2016) datasets. Total net 265 change in TCO (in DU) at each grid point for the 38-year record was determined by adding together the net changes (i.e. trend in DU-month⁻¹ \times number of months) for the TOMS and 266 267 OMI/MLS records. Year 2017 and later months were not included in our analyses because the 268 MERRA-2 GMI simulation ended December 2016 and also that the global ozonesonde 269 measurements used for validating the OMI/MLS TCO extended only into mid-2016.

270

Multivariate linear regression (MLR) (Ziemke et al., 1997, and references therein) was applied to estimate trends in TCO. The regression includes components for the seasonal cycle, linear trend, and ENSO (e.g., Nino 3.4 index) from $TCO(x,t) = A(x,t) + B(x,t) \cdot t + C(x,t) \cdot Nino3.4(t) + \varepsilon(x,t)$, where *x* is the grid point and *t* is month. The term $\varepsilon(x,t)$ represents residual error. We applied

275 two approaches regarding Nino3.4(t) in the MLR model. One approach was to de-trend

276 Nino3.4(t) prior to the regression analysis and the other was not to de-trend this proxy. A main 277 reason for possibly wanting to de-trend Nino3.4(t) is that TCO variability is not truly linear with 278 Nino3.4(t) variability over any timescale including decadal which may potentially influence 279 linear trend calculations in the MLR method. We opted not to include de-trending of Nino3.4(t)280 after finding little or no difference between either approach for both OMI/MLS and TOMS 281 records. The seasonal coefficient A in the MLR equation above includes a constant plus annual 282 and semi-annual harmonics while coefficients B and C each include a constant. Since our study 283 does not evaluate seasonality of trends, we constrained the number of regression constants for 284 trend B to only one which tends to improve overall trend statistical uncertainties when compared 285 to using several regression seasonal constants for *B*. Trend magnitudes exceeding the calculated 286 2σ value uncertainty for *B* are deemed statistically significant. Calculated 2σ uncertainties for 287 trends included an autoregressive-1 adjustment as presented in Weatherhead et al. (1998). 288 Trends were calculated similarly for GMI TCO and NO emissions using this MLR approach.

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- **3. Trends in Tropospheric Ozone.**
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292 <u>3.1. The Aura Record (2005-2016).</u>

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294 OMI/MLS TCO trends for 60° S - 60° N are shown in Figure 1a with asterisks denoting regions 295 that are statistically significant at 2σ level. Positive trends lie in the tropics and extra-tropics in 296 both hemispheres with the largest trends (shown in red) of ~+3 DU-decade⁻¹ or greater extending 297 from India to East/SE Asia and further eastward over the Pacific Ocean. There are also 298 statistically significant increases in ozone in the north Atlantic extending eastward over central 299 Africa.

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Trends for GMI TCO (Figure 1b) have features similar to trends for OMI/MLS TCO. Large positive trends for GMI also extend from Saudi Arabia and India to SE/East Asia and further eastward over the Pacific Ocean. Changes for both OMI/MLS and GMI TCO over this region are ~+3 DU-decade⁻¹. GMI TCO also indicates evidence of positive trends over Africa and in the north Atlantic, although these trends are generally weak compared to India/east Asia. For the north Atlantic region the positive trends for GMI are also not in the same location as the positive 307 trends for OMI/MLS. There are other differences between GMI and OMI/MLS trends in Figure 308 1 such as in the SH where GMI does not indicate statistically significant positive trends as the 309 satellite observations do. Anet et al. (2017) examined surface ozone data from El Tololo, Chile $(30^{\circ}\text{S}, 71^{\circ}\text{W})$ and found a small positive trend of ~+0.7 ppbv-decade⁻¹ for the period 1995-2010. 310 311 Their analyses indicated that the positive increase at the site was driven mainly by stratospheric 312 intrusions and not photochemical production from anthropogenic and biogenic precursors. The 313 results from Anet et al. (2017) suggest that the positive trends in SH OMI/MLS TCO in Figure 314 1a (primarily over ocean) may be real; however, one cannot make any conclusion based on only 315 ground-level measurements and from only one station. Lu et al. (2019) detected positive trends 316 in ozone throughout the Southern Hemisphere (SH) since 1990 from a large number of surface, 317 ozonesonde, and satellite measurements; they also included the GEOS-Chem CTM that showed 318 similar increases throughout the SH. Lu et al. (2019) suggested that the increases in tropospheric 319 ozone in the SH are linked to a broadening of the Hadley association. Their analyses indicate 320 that broadening of the Hadley circulation is associated with changes in meridional transport 321 which coincides with greater influx of ozone from the stratosphere and larger tropospheric ozone 322 production due to stronger uplifting of tropical ozone precursors into the upper troposphere. We 323 have calculated ozonesonde column ozone trends for the 2005-2016 Aura record to compare 324 with the GMI and OMI/MLS TCO trends in Figure 1. (Section D of the Supporting Material 325 discusses these trend comparisons.) Figure S10 in Section D indicates that it is not possible from 326 the ozonesondes to conclude anything definitive regarding trends, particularly in the SH extra-327 tropics where the ozonesondes are relatively scarce over the short Aura time record.

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329 Trends for NO emissions for 2005-2016 from the GMI simulation are shown in Figure 2, again 330 with positive (negative) trends as red (blue). Largest increases in tropospheric NO emissions in 331 Figure 2 are located over India and east/SE Asia while greatest decreases originate over the 332 eastern US, Europe, and Japan. We note that although there are large increases in NO emissions 333 over eastern China for 2005-2016 depicted in Figure 2, observations show NO₂ concentrations 334 decreased over this region after year 2012 (e.g., Krotkov et al., 2016). This recent downturn is 335 not included in the GMI emissions, likely contributing to the overestimate of the ozone trend 336 over eastern China in the GMI simulation. Overall, however, the ability of the GMI simulation

337 to capture the positive trends above and downwind of regions with large NO_x emission increases

- 338 suggests that the NO_x emission trends are driving the trends in TCO over India and east Asia.
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Figure 1 shows that the regions of large decrease in NO emissions such as the eastern US and Europe in Figure 2 do not coincide with similar decrease in TCO for either GMI or OMI/MLS. Both GMI and OMI/MLS TCO instead show essentially zero or slightly positive trends for these regions, despite the fact that the GMI simulation indicates significant negative trends in tropospheric column NO₂ over the eastern U.S. and Europe. This contrasts with the situation at the surface, in which simulations with GMI chemistry indicate decreases in surface ozone over the eastern U.S. in response to NO_x reductions (Strode et al., 2015).

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348 Figure 3 shows comparisons between OMI/MLS and GMI deseasonalized TCO time series and 349 their calculated linear trends for (a) SE Asia, (b) equatorial Africa, (c) NE Pacific, and (d) north 350 Atlantic. Included in each panel are MLR regression fits for linear trends and their calculated 2σ 351 uncertainties (both in DU-decade⁻¹). Not only are trends for GMI and OMI/MLS comparable and 352 statistically significant in Figure 3 in each panel, but their month-to-month variations in their de-353 trended time series have relatively large cross-correlations varying from +0.64 to +0.70. Several 354 inter-annual features are common with both MERRA-2 GMI and OMI/MLS TCO time series in 355 Figure 3 such as large reductions (exceeding -5 DU) during spring 2008 over the NE Pacific and 356 spring 2010 in the north Atlantic.

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358 <u>3.2. The TOMS Record (1979-2005).</u>

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360 Trends for TOMS (1979-2005) and GMI (1980-2005) TCO are shown in Figure 4. As with both 361 OMI/MLS and GMI TCO for the Aura period 2005-2016 in Figure 1, largest positive trends in 362 Figure 4 are also located over the Near East to East Asia and extending further eastward over the Pacific Ocean. Calculated trends for this region are $\sim +1.2$ to +1.4 DU-decade⁻¹ for both TOMS 363 364 and GMI which are considerably smaller than during the Aura record. An important conclusion 365 is that both the model and measurements in Figures 1 and 4 suggest that the trends in 366 tropospheric ozone over this region are markedly larger during the Aura period compared to the 367 earlier TOMS period, by a factor of about 2-2.5.

As with OMI/MLS and GMI TCO trends in Figure 1 there are discrepancies between the TOMS and model TCO trends in Figure 4. For TOMS TCO in Figure 4 there are regions of negative trends (in blue) as much as -0.6 DU-decade⁻¹ over ocean in both hemispheres that are not explainable. Trends for GMI in Figure 4 are instead largely positive within these regions and actually positive throughout much of the SH when compared with TOMS. This suggests that the TOMS trends may be biased slightly low overall, provided that the simulation is closer to truth.

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376 The trends for GMI TCO are positive over Brazil whereas OMI/MLS TCO shows only a hint of 377 positive trends. It is likely that there will be smaller trends for TOMS because most ozone 378 produced from biomass burning over Brazil lies in the lower troposphere, and also that TOMS has reduced ability to detect ozone in the lower troposphere. The GMI simulation shows that of 379 the ~+1.4 DU-decade⁻¹ TCO trend over Brazil in Figure 4, about +0.9 DU-decade⁻¹ of this trend 380 381 comes from ozone in the lower troposphere below 500 hPa. With a known retrieval efficiency of 382 50-60% below 500 hPa (and essentially 100% above 500 hPa) for TOMS over Brazil, the model suggests that TOMS should detect a trend of about +0.5 DU-decade⁻¹ below 500 hPa. Therefore 383 384 TOMS would then have a trend in TCO of about +0.9 DU-decade⁻¹ which is comparable to the ~+0.8 DU-decade⁻¹ measured for TOMS in Figure 4. 385

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Trends in NO emissions during 1980-2005 for the GMI simulation are shown in Figure 5. Figure 5 is similar to Figure 2 except for an earlier time period coinciding with the TOMS record. The largest increases in tropospheric NO emissions in Figure 5 are located over India and east/SE Asia, as noted earlier for Figure 2. Negative trends over the eastern US are much less pronounced (nearly non-existent) in Figure 5 during the TOMS record compared to the negative trends for the region in Figure 2.

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In Figure 6 we show some examples of time series of TCO for TOMS and MERRA-2 GMI in regions where both records exhibit statistically significant positive trends. The positive correlations between TOMS and model TCO in Figure 6 are generally small compared to the correlations between OMI/MLS and model TCO in Figure 3. The only large correlation in Figure 6 is over Indonesia and is due to the intense El Nino of 1997-1998 that caused record

399 increases in TCO in October 1997 in the region due to record levels of biomass burning (e.g., 400 Chandra et al., 2003). The cross-correlations in the other panels in Figure 6 are small; these 401 smaller correlations indicate the noisy nature of TOMS measurements compared to OMI/MLS 402 and also possibly larger uncertainties present in meteorological winds, temperatures, and 403 emissions during these earlier TOMS years for the GMI simulation. Changes in the observing 404 system increases transport uncertainties for MERRA-2; these transport uncertainties increase the 405 further back we go in time with MERRA-2, in particular the TOMS record. The recent Aura 406 period for MERRA-2 has both more observations and higher vertical resolution than during the 407 TOMS record. Stauffer et al. (2019) suggests that there is less impact of the changing observing 408 system using the "Replay" technique compared to traditional CTMs. Wargan et al. (2018) 409 discusses changes in the observing system for MERRA-2 for 1998-2016, including changes in 410 the input assimilated radiances.

411

412 A main result from Figures 4 and 6 is that the positive trends for both TOMS and MERRA-2 413 GMI TCO are substantially larger, by a factor of about 2 or more, during the OMI/MLS record 414 compared to the TOMS record. The GMI simulation suggests that larger trends during the Aura 415 record are the manifestation of an escalation of anthropogenic emissions and transport.

416

417 <u>3.3. The Merged Record (1979-2016).</u>

418

419 The net increases in tropospheric ozone over India and east/SE Asia for the merged 38-year 420 record are sizable. Total changes in GMI and satellite-measured TCO for the merged record are 421 shown in Figure 7 where contour values were determined by adding changes from the individual 422 TOMS and OMI/MLS records together. There are two regions of greatest increase of TCO in 423 Figure 7 for both GMI and the satellite measurements, one coinciding with the Near East to East 424 Asia (increases of ~+6 to +7 DU, or about 15-20% average background ozone) and the other 425 being tropical Africa/Atlantic (increases of ~+4 to +5 DU, of about 10-15% average background 426 ozone). There is also an area of negative net change in the SH lying between Australia and the 427 maritime continent in Figure 7 for both GMI and measurements (shown in blue); these negative 428 variations over the SH Indian Ocean appear small and are not statistically significant. 429

The color bar in Figure 7 also provides conversion from DU to tropospheric ozone mass surface density in units of metric tons per km². This conversion was included primarily to compare our results with the model simulation of Zhang et al. (2016). The large TCO trends over India and east/SE Asia in Figure 7 are about +0.13 to +0.15 metric tons per km² for both GMI and the satellite data. These numbers are comparable to increases of ~+0.11 metric tons per km² for this region as modeled by Zhang et al. (2016) for years 1980-2010.

436

437 Using the 38-year net changes from the two independent regression analyses of 438 TOMS+OMI/MLS TCO we can estimate the mass of ozone in the bands 0°-30°N and 0°-30°S for 439 the years 1979 and 2016 that model simulations can compare with. Based on 2016 OMI/MLS 440 TCO fields and extrapolated backwards linearly in time, mean area-weighted 0-30°N ozone 441 masses are about 75.1 Tg for year 1979 and 83.1 Tg for year 2016, yielding about 8.0 ± 4.6 (2 σ) 442 Tg net increase. For 0°-30°S, the mean numbers are 73.7 Tg for 1979 and 78.2 Tg for 2016, vielding about 4.4 ± 4.2 (2 σ) Tg net increase. As percentage change, tropospheric ozone mass in 443 444 the 0-30°N band increased by about 10.1%, and about 5.8% for 0-30°S from 1979 to 2016 from 445 the satellite measurements.

446

Figure 8 shows TCO time series from the merged satellite measurements for 1979-2016 centered over the two regions of largest increase in Figure 7 (i.e., eastern Asia and equatorial Africa). In both panels TOMS is the solid red curve and OMI/MLS is the dotted blue curve. For plotting purposes, offsets were applied to the TOMS data in both panels using 2005 overlap measurements (see figure and caption). The last five years in both panels in Figure 8 shows that current OMPS TCO (solid black curves) with several years of overlap with OMI/MLS TCO will be useful to continue the OMI/MLS record which has already extended past 13 years.

454

455 Studies suggest that ozone in the lower stratosphere in both hemispheres has been decreasing 456 over the last 1-2 decades despite the decrease in global CFC concentrations following the 1987 457 Montreal Protocol. Ball et al. (2018) evaluated global ozone trends for 1985-2016 by combining 458 models with measurements from several satellite instruments. A conjecture as stated by Ball et 459 al. (2018) is that while ozone in the upper stratosphere above ~10 hPa appears to be recovering, 460 ozone in the lower stratosphere appears to be decreasing which models do not seem to replicate 461 despite the decrease in CFCs. A main point of Ball et al. (2018) is that total ozone has not 462 changed because the ongoing stratospheric ozone decrease is opposed by tropospheric ozone 463 increase. A global decrease in lower stratospheric ozone of about 2 DU below 32 hPa was 464 detected by Ball et al. (2018) and it appeared to be compensated largely by opposite increases in 465 tropospheric ozone. In their study they included OMI/MLS TCO for 2005-2016 (i.e., their 466 Figure 4 and Figure S13) and measured a trend in 60°S-60°N TCO of about +1.7 DU-decade⁻¹ 467 which mostly cancels out the negative trend in stratospheric ozone. Wargan et al. (2018) in a 468 related paper evaluated MERRA-2 assimilated ozone for 1998-2016 using an idealized 469 atmospheric tracer also driven from MERRA-2 meteorological fields. Similar to Ball et al. 470 (2018), Wargan et al. (2018) also found net decrease in ozone in the lower stratosphere (i.e., 471 within a 10 km layer above the tropopause) in both hemispheres; their trend values were about -1.2 DU-decade⁻¹ in the SH and about -1.7 DU-decade⁻¹ in the NH. Wargan et al. (2018) found 472 473 evidence that these negative trends over the last two decades have been driven by enhanced 474 isentropic transport of ozone between the tropical and extratropical lower stratosphere.

475

The increases in measured TCO from TOMS and OMI/MLS as indicated in Figures 1, 3, 4 and in Figures 6-8 can have implications for evaluating global ozone trends, particularly for trends in total column ozone and assessment of the recovery of stratospheric ozone. One should be careful using total ozone to infer stratosphere ozone recovery if trends in TCO are not accounted for. The increases in TCO of +6 to +7 DU in Figures 7-8 for India-eastern Asia represent a sizeable change even for total column ozone.

482

483 **4. Summary.**

484

485 Studies suggest that ozone in the troposphere has increased globally throughout much of the 20th 486 century due largely to increases in anthropogenic emissions. We provide evidence from 487 combined satellite measurements and a chemical transport model that tropospheric ozone over 488 the last four decades does indeed indicate increases that are global in nature, yet highly regional 489 due to combined effects of regional pollution and transport.

We have obtained tropospheric ozone trends for 1979-2016 by merging TOMS (1979-2005) and Aura OMI/MLS (2005-2016) satellite measurements. We included the MERRA-2 GMI CTM simulation to evaluate and possibly explain the global trend patterns found for both TOMS and OMI/MLS TCO. Trends were calculated independently for TOMS and OMI/MLS records using a linear regression model. Net changes in both measured and modeled TCO for the entire merged record were estimated by adding net changes for the TOMS and OMI/MLS time periods together.

498

499 A persistent trend pattern emerges with TCO for the GMI simulation and satellite measurements 500 for both the TOMS and OMI/MLS records. The GMI model, and also measurements from 501 TOMS and OMI/MLS all independently show large (positive) trends in TCO in the NH 502 extending from the Near East to India and east/SE Asia, and further eastward over the Pacific 503 Ocean. An important finding is that the trends in TCO for both the GMI model and satellite 504 measurements for this region are smaller during the earlier part of the merged record; that is, the trends for both GMI and satellite measurements increase from about +1.2 to +1.4 DU-decade⁻¹ 505 (1979-2005) to about +3 DU-decade⁻¹ or greater (2005-2016). Analysis of the NO emissions 506 507 input to the GMI simulation indicates that the measured trends in tropospheric ozone in this 508 region including the escalation of increased trends during the latter Aura period are consistent 509 with increases in pollution in the region.

510

511 For the long merged record there are again strong similarities between the GMI simulation and 512 satellite measurements of TCO. Net changes in tropospheric ozone for India and east/SE Asia for 1979-2016 are about +6 to +7 DU, or about 0.13-0.15 metric tons per km^2 for both the GMI 513 514 and satellite TCO. These are pronounced increases in TCO representing ~15-20% average TCO background amounts. Both the GMI simulation and satellite measurements show that of these 515 516 +6 to +7 DU increases over this broad area, about half or slightly most of the change (i.e., \sim +4 DU) occurs during the Aura time record of 2005-2016. The GMI simulation and satellite 517 518 measurements also depict a secondary maximum of TCO increase for 1979-2016 over the 519 tropical Atlantic/Africa region of about +4 to +5 DU (~10-15% average background ozone).

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- 521

522 Author Contributions. J. R. Ziemke contributed as lead author to the production of the satellite 523 tropospheric ozone measurements and analysis. L. D. Oman, S. A. Strode, A. R. Douglass, M. 524 A. Olsen were responsible for the production and analyses involving the MERRA-2 GMI 525 simulation. R. D. McPeters, P. K. Bhartia, G. J. Labow, D. P. Haffner, N. A. Kramarova, S. M. 526 Frith, L.-K. Huang, G. R. Jaross, C. J. Seftor, M. T. Deland and S. L. Taylor all contributed to 527 the paper by their involvement in the development of the satellite total ozone products including 528 their long-term calibration necessary for ozone trend evaluation. L. Froidevaux contributed by 529 his involvement in the MLS product development and use in this study. J. C. Witte and A. M. 530 Thompson provided key contributions to the paper regarding ozonesonde data and analysis. 531

532

533 Acknowledgments. We thank the NASA Goddard Space Flight Center Ozone Processing Team 534 for the TOMS and OMI total ozone measurements and the Jet Propulsion Laboratory MLS team 535 for MLS v4.2 ozone. OMI is a Dutch-Finnish contribution to the Aura mission. We thank 536 WOUDC and the NDACC for providing extensive ozonesonde measurements that we used for 537 the comparisons/validation of satellite tropospheric ozone. We also thank the NASA MAP 538 program for supporting the MERRA-2 GMI simulation and the NASA Center for Climate 539 Simulation (NCCS) for providing high-performance computing resources. Special thanks go to 540 Ryan Stauffer for important discussions regarding the ozonesonde measurements and the 541 MERRA-2 GMI simulation. More information on the MERRA-2 GMI simulation and access is 542 available at https://acd-ext.gsfc.nasa.gov/Projects/GEOSCCM/MERRA2GMI/. Tropospheric 543 ozone data used in this study are available from NASA Goddard Space Flight Center at 544 http://acdb-ext.gsfc.nasa.gov/Data services/cloud slice/ and links from the Aura Validation Data 545 Center (https://avdc.gsfc.nasa.gov/). Funding for this research was provided in part by NASA 546 NNH14ZDA001N-DSCOVR. 547

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Figure 1. (a) Trends in OMI/MLS TCO (in DU-decade⁻¹) for 2005-2016. Asterisks denote grid points where trends are statistically significant at the 2σ level. (b) Same as (a) except for MERRA-2 GMI TCO.



Figure 2. Trends in MERRA-2 GMI NO emissions (units mg-m $^{-2}$ -y $^{-1}$) for 2005-2016.



Figure 3. (a) Deseasonalized TCO for OMI/MLS (red, dashed curve) and the MERRA-2 GMI model (blue, solid curve) for SE Asia. Included are MLR regression fits for linear trends and calculated 2σ values (both in DU-decade⁻¹). Shown at the bottom is the correlation r between the two time series after removing their linear trends. (b) Same as (a), but for equatorial Africa. (c) Same, but for NE Pacific. (d) Same, but for north Atlantic.

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Figure 4. (top) Trends (DU-decade⁻¹) calculated for TOMS CCD TCO measurements for years 1979-2005. Asterisks denote grid points where trends are statistically significant at the 2σ level. (bottom) Similar to (top), but for MERRA-2 GMI TCO and for 1980-2005.



Figure 5. Trends in MERRA-2 GMI NO emissions (units mg-m $^{-2}$ -y⁻¹) for 1980-2005. This figure is similar to Figure 2, except for having an earlier 1980-2005 time record.





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Figure 6. (a) Deseasonalized TCO for TOMS (red, dashed curve) and the MERRA-2 GMI model (blue, solid curve) for Brazil. Included are their MLR linear trends and calculated 2σ values (both in DU-decade⁻¹) averaged over the specified region. Shown also is the crosscorrelation r between the two time series after removing their linear trends. (b) Same as (a), but for Indonesia. (c) Same as (a) but for SE Asia. (d) Same as (a) but for tropical Atlantic/Africa.

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Figure 7. (top) Net changes in TOMS and OMI/MLS TCO calculated for their combined time records (1979-2016). The net changes for TCO are shown in the color bar in both DU and metric tons of ozone per km² (1 DU \equiv 0.0214 metric tons per km² for ozone). Asterisks denote grid points where net changes are statistically significant at the 2 σ noise level. (bottom) Similar to (top), but for GMI TCO and years 1980-2016. Net change for GMI TCO is determined similar to the satellite measurements by adding together the net changes for the two records (i.e., for GMI, the 1980-2005 and 2005-2016 periods).

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854 Figure 8. (a) Merged time series of TOMS/OMI/MLS/OMPS TCO for 1979-2016 over east 855 Asia centered at 22.5° N and 112.5° E ($5^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$ region). The solid red curve is TOMS TCO and dashed blue curve is OMI/MLS. OMPS TCO (solid black curve) is also over-plotted with 856 857 OMI/MLS TCO starting 2012 for comparison. A constant adjustment of about -5 DU (using 858 year 2005 coincident overlap data) was applied to the TOMS measurements for plotting with 859 OMI/MLS. Both OMI/MLS and OMPS TCO also included offsets of +2 DU and -2 DU 860 following comparisons with ozonesonde measurements (see Supplementary Material). The 861 indicated total increase of 6.2 DU was estimated using a regression best-fit line (black line 862 shown) to the TOMS/OMI/MLS merged time series and agrees well with the 6-7 DU net increase for this region in Figure 7. (b) Similar to (a) except for central Africa centered at 2.5° S, 863 22.5° E and a TOMS offset of +3 DU. The line-fit increase is slightly smaller than the 4-5 DU in 864 865 Figure 7. The estimated mean increases in both panels include calculated 2σ uncertainties. 866