Long-term trends in ground level ozone over the contiguous United States, 1980–1995

Arlene M. Fiore, Daniel J. Jacob, Jennifer A. Logan, and Jeffrey H. Yin

Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences and Division of Engineering and Applied Sciences, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts

Abstract. Long-term trends of median and 90th percentile summer afternoon \( \text{O}_3 \) concentrations were examined at 549 sites across the United States for the 1980-1995 period. Daily temperature data were used to account for the variability in \( \text{O}_3 \) concentrations associated with temperature. Both before and after segregating the \( \text{O}_3 \) data by temperature, trends were insignificant over most of the continental United States. No region of the United States experienced a significant increase in \( \text{O}_3 \) concentrations during the 1980-1995 period. Decreasing trends were predominantly clustered in the three largest metropolitan areas: New York City, Los Angeles, and Chicago. In these areas, additional sites with trends were identified in the temperature-segregated analysis. Correlation of trends with local anthropogenic emissions of nitrogen oxides (\( \text{NO}_x = \text{NO} + \text{NO}_2 \)) and volatile organic compounds (VOC) indicates a greater frequency of decreasing trends for urban sites with high emission. National emission inventories for the United States indicate that anthropogenic VOC emissions decreased by 12% over the 1980-1995 period while \( \text{NO}_x \) emissions remained constant. The observed \( \text{O}_3 \) trends are consistent with the view that summertime \( \text{O}_3 \) production over the United States is \( \text{NO}_x \)-limited except in the largest metropolitan areas where it is partly VOC-limited.

1. Introduction

Ground level \( \text{O}_3 \) "smog" is produced from complex photochemical reactions involving nitrogen oxides (\( \text{NO}_x \)) and volatile organic compounds (VOCs). Ozone in surface air is hazardous to human lungs and has been blamed for billions of dollars in agricultural damage in the United States [Prinz, 1988; Lippmann, 1991]. As of 1995, approximately 71 million Americans lived in counties unable to meet the National Ambient Air Quality Standard (NAAQS) for \( \text{O}_3 \) set by the United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) at a 1-hour average of 120 parts per billion by volume (ppb) not to be exceeded more than 3 times in three years [EPA, 1996a]. The NAAQS standard was revised in July, 1997 to an 8-hour average of 80 ppb, which is expected to increase the extent of noncompliance [Chameides et al., 1997].

Over the past 25 years, substantial effort has been invested in controlling precursor emissions with the aim of reducing \( \text{O}_3 \) levels. The primary focus has been on controlling VOCs [Calvert et al., 1993; Tietenberg, 1996]. Between 1980 and 1995, anthropogenic VOC emissions in the United States decreased by 12%, while \( \text{NO}_x \) emissions remained constant, even though the annual number of vehicle kilometers driven rose by 60% [EPA, 1996b]. Recent modeling studies have indicated that over most of the United States, \( \text{O}_3 \) production is limited by the supply of \( \text{NO}_x \) rather than VOCs [Trainer et al., 1987; Sillman et al., 1990a; McKeen et al., 1991a,b; National Research Council (NRC), 1991; Chameides et al., 1992; Jacob et al., 1993]. The 1990 Clean Air Act Amendments imposed stricter \( \text{NO}_x \) controls on new cars and power plants, but these changes will impact national \( \text{NO}_x \) emissions only gradually.

A number of studies have examined long-term trends of \( \text{O}_3 \) concentrations in selected regions of the United States (Table 1). Most of the focus has been on the northeastern United States and southern California, which frequently exceed the NAAQS [EPA, 1996a]. Methods have ranged from ordinary least squares regression analysis [e.g., Walker, 1985] to complex regression models that account for the effects of multiple meteorological variables on \( \text{O}_3 \) [e.g., Flaum et al., 1996]. \( \text{O}_3 \) concentrations are strongly correlated with temperature on a day-to-day basis [Wolff and Liou, 1978; Clark and Karl, 1982; NRC, 1991], and this correlation is generally accounted for in \( \text{O}_3 \) trend analyses (Table 1). Some of the studies in Table 1 based their diagnostics of trends on the 1-hour daily maximum \( \text{O}_3 \) concentration, while others focused on extreme yearly statistics to reflect the formulation of the NAAQS. Most recently, the EPA reported a 6% decrease from 1986 to 1995 in the national average of daily maximum 1-hour \( \text{O}_3 \) concentrations, and a 53% decrease in the number of exceedances of the NAAQS [EPA, 1996a].

Our work expands upon the previous studies in Table 1 by examining the spatial distribution of trends on a national scale, using 1980-1995 data from all \( \text{O}_3 \) monitoring sites included in the EPA Aeronometric Information Retrieval Service (AIRS). The analysis begins in 1980 to avoid difficulties with instrument calibrations; beginning in 1979, the AIRS sites have used the ultraviolet photometric method to uniformly calibrate all \( \text{O}_3 \) measurements, facilitating comparisons among sites [Chock, 1989]. We focus on the medians and 90th percentiles of summer afternoon \( \text{O}_3 \) concentrations, as these statistics are more robust diagnostics of \( \text{O}_3 \) than extrema. Daily temperature data are used to account for the correla-
Table 1. Studies of Summertime Ozone Trends in the United States

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Time period Analyzed</th>
<th>Statistics Used</th>
<th>Region/Sites</th>
<th>Method of Analysis</th>
<th>Meteorological Variables Factored Into Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kuntasal and Chang [1987]</td>
<td>1968-1985</td>
<td>multistation mean of daily 1-hour max</td>
<td>SCAB: nine sites</td>
<td>linear regression</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zeldin et al. [1990]</td>
<td>1981-1989</td>
<td>daily 1-hour max, days exceeding 200 ppb</td>
<td>SCAB: eight station pairs</td>
<td>linear regression</td>
<td>24 standardized variables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cassmassi and Bassett [1991]</td>
<td>1976-1990</td>
<td>hours &gt; 120 ppb and hours &gt; 200 ppb</td>
<td>SCAB: mean of all sites</td>
<td>linear regression</td>
<td>T, precipitation, WS, sky cover</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lefohn and Shadwick [1991]</td>
<td>1979-1988</td>
<td>hourly averages weighted by exposure indices</td>
<td>77 rural sites nationwide</td>
<td>linear regression</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPA [1996a, b]</td>
<td>1986-1995</td>
<td>second daily 1-hour max</td>
<td>183 U.S. MSAs</td>
<td>linear regression</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This study</td>
<td>1980-1995</td>
<td>summer afternoon median and 90th percentile</td>
<td>549 sites nationwide</td>
<td>linear regression</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{a}\)T, temperature; RH, relative humidity; WS, wind speed.

\(^{b}\)SCAB, South Coast Air Basin of California.

\(^{c}\)Used fixed-value and fixed-range criteria.

\(^{d}\)Exposure indices weigh the concentrations according to their adverse affects on vegetation.

\(^{e}\)Determines significance of slope by the Mann-Kendall test for trend.

\(^{f}\)The bootstrap method, extreme value statistics, and the Mann-Kendall test for trend.

\(^{g}\)The Kolmogorov-Zurbenko filter is first applied by Rao et al. [1994]. It consists of repeated iterations of a simple moving average. It separates the trend component from the seasonal and short-term variation components of a time series consisting of the logarithm of daily maximum O\(_3\) concentrations.

\(^{h}\)MSAs, Metropolitan Statistical Areas.

2. Data and Methods

Records of hourly O\(_3\) concentrations for 1980-1995 were obtained from EPA for all AIRS stations in the continental United States (approximately 900 sites). Many of the AIRS sites are clustered around major cities; rural regions have few monitoring stations. The density of sites is greater in the east than in the west (with the exception of California). Our analysis focuses on summer afternoons (June through August), when O\(_3\) is at its seasonal and diurnal maximum [Logan, 1989]. For each summer day in the 1980-1995 record, hourly concentrations from 13 to 16 local time (LT) were extracted. Medians and 90\(^{th}\) percentiles of these concentrations are displayed in Plate 1. Much of the eastern and southwestern United States have median concentrations greater than 50 ppb. Concentrations are generally lower along the west coast than along the east coast due to the prevailing westerly winds and the greater emission density in the east. The highest O\(_3\) concentrations in the nation are found in the Los Angeles Basin of southern California, reflecting a combination of high emissions and poor ventilation.

We restrict our trend analysis to sites with at least one half-month of data (64 hourly data points) for each summer for a minimum of 12 years. Data for sequential years were sometimes available from sites a few kilometers apart, usually because the O\(_3\) monitoring station had moved. In these cases, the O\(_3\) data were merged. A total of 549 sites (Figure 1) were found suitable for trend analysis.

Our trend analysis focuses on the median and 90\(^{th}\) percentile summer afternoon concentrations. Similar to [Walker 1985], ordinary least squares regression of O\(_3\) concentrations versus year was used, and the slope of the regression line is reported as the trend, in
both ppb per year and percent change per year. Percent changes are referenced to the mean value for the 1980-1995 period. A site was considered to possess a significant trend if the t-statistic for the slope of the regression line was equal to or above the 95% confidence limit. Figure 2 shows as an example the trends of 90th percentile concentrations in Pasadena, California and Boston, Massachusetts.

The Boston data in Figure 2 display unusually high O3 concentrations in 1988, when record-high temperatures and pollution were observed over much of the eastern United States [Ludlum, 1988]; this feature illustrates the importance of accounting for temperature variability when diagnosing O3 trends. We referenced the daily O3 concentrations measured at the individual AIRS sites to daily maximum surface temperatures from nearby National Climatic Data Center (NCDC) monitoring sites. The NCDC sites were chosen for the length of their records and their proximity to AIRS sites (Figure 1). The O3 concentrations at each AIRS site were thus sorted into 5 K temperature bins from 295 to 315 K. Median and 90th percentile concentrations were calculated for each bin that met the data density criteria discussed previously, and trends were analyzed within each bin. Only three bins contained enough data for useful analysis: 295-300 K, 300-305 K and 305-310 K. The temperature range 300-305 K included 75% of all AIRS trend sites (412/549) and will be the focus of our discussion.

The relationship between trends and local emissions was explored using two site classification systems. First, we used the EPA descriptions accompanying the AIRS database in which each site is labeled as "urban," "suburban," "rural," or "unknown." Second, we developed a more continuous classification of sites based on local emission data for anthropogenic NOx and VOC from the National Acid Precipitation Assessment Program (NAPAP) [EPA, 1989]. For this purpose, we used the NAPAP summer weekday inventory including both area and point sources with 20 x 20 km² resolution. The two classification systems are compared in Figure 3. Sites designated as urban and suburban by the EPA tend to fall into the category of high local NOx emissions (greater than 1 x 10¹² molecules cm⁻² s⁻¹), while rural sites are generally in the low NOx emissions category (less than 5 x 10¹⁰ molecules cm⁻² s⁻¹). Six sites considered rural by the EPA fall into the high NOx category; four of these sites appear to be near power plants as indicated by their low VOC/NOx ratios [Sillman et al., 1990b]. The few sites classified by EPA as "unknown" tend to be in areas of low NOx emissions.

3. Ozone Trends

The 1980-1995 trends in summer afternoon O3 concentrations are shown in Plate 2 and 3 in terms of absolute magnitude (ppb per...
Plate 2. 1980-1995 trends (ppb per year) of median and 90th percentile O₃ concentrations for summer afternoon (13-16 local time) in surface air over the United States. The trends were computed for individual sites and results were averaged over 50 x 50 km² squares; sites with no significant trends were entered in the averages as having a trend of zero. The yellow shade indicates that no site in the 50x50 km² square had a significant trend.

Plate 3. Same as Plate 2 but for relative trends in percent per year. The relative trends were referenced to the 1980-1995 mean of the corresponding quantity.
Figure 1. Ozone (EPA/AIRS) and temperature (NCDC) sites used in the trend analysis.

Figure 2. 1980-1995 trends of summer afternoon O₃ concentrations (90th percentile) in Pasadena, California, and Boston, Massachusetts. The Pasadena data show a significant decreasing trend ($r^2 = 0.68$; slope = -5.1 ppb yr⁻¹), while the Boston data do not ($r^2 = 0.01$).

Figure 3. Relationship between the EPA/AIRS classification of sites ("urban," "suburban," "rural," "unknown") and the NAPAP NOₓ emission inventory for 1985. Sites with NOₓ emissions in a given range were sorted according to the EPA/AIRS classification.

Figure 4 provides a detailed view of the spatial distribution of trends in the metropolitan areas of New York City, Los Angeles, and Chicago. Similar patterns are found for the relative trends (not shown) in each of these three regions. In New York City, prevailing summer winds are from the southwest, and decreasing trends are observed for about 400 km downwind, spanning across Connecticut (Figure 4a). The largest trends are in coastal Connecticut, where median concentrations decreased by 1-1.5 ppb yr⁻¹ over the 1980-1995 time period and 90th percentile concentrations decreased by 2-4 ppb yr⁻¹. In the Los Angeles Basin, the most pronounced decreases are 3 ppb yr⁻¹ in median and 5 ppb yr⁻¹ in 90th percentile concentrations (Figure 4b). Trends are strongest approximately 40 km inland and decline radially outward. The Chicago metropolitan area shows no significant trends in median O₃ concentrations and only scattered significant trends in 90th percentile concentrations (Figure 4c).

4. Segregation by Temperature

Trends in O₃ concentrations for days with maximum temperatures in the 300-305 K range are shown in Plate 4. Comparison with Plate 2 reveals many more decreasing trends in the data segregated by temperature. Table 2 gives the numbers of sites with significant trends in each temperature bin. We find that 17 and 32% of sites display downward trends in median and 90th percentile concentrations, respectively, as compared with 12 and 19% before segregation by temperature. Sites with downward trends in the temperature-segregated data are still clustered in the three metropolitan areas discussed above, but also extend to additional metropolitan areas including Detroit, Michigan; Cleveland, Ohio; Cincinnati, Ohio; Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; and Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. The fraction of sites with upward trends is similar to the previous analysis. The improved detection of downward O₃ trends in the temperature-segregated data reflects interannual variability in temperature rather than any long-term warming trend; we find no significant warming for the 1980-1995 period at the NCDC sites used in our analysis.
Table 2. Numbers of Sites With Significant Trends

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>90th Percentile</th>
<th>90th Percentile</th>
<th>90th Percentile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>295–300 K</td>
<td>300–305 K</td>
<td>305–310 K</td>
<td>Percentile</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of sites analyzed</td>
<td>549</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>412</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>549</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sites with increasing trends</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(4%)</td>
<td>(1%)</td>
<td>(3%)</td>
<td>(5%)</td>
<td>(1%)</td>
<td>(0%)</td>
<td>(1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sites with decreasing trends</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(12%)</td>
<td>(24%)</td>
<td>(17%)</td>
<td>(13%)</td>
<td>(19%)</td>
<td>(43%)</td>
<td>(32%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1980-1995 trends in medians and 90th percentiles of summer afternoon \( \text{O}_3 \) concentrations at the EPA AIRS sites across the United States. The percentages of sites with trends are shown in parentheses. The data were segregated by daily maximum temperature measured at nearby NCDC stations. Only sites with sufficient data over at least 12 years were analyzed (see text).

\( ^a \)Without segregation by temperature.

The bottom panels of Figure 4 display the spatial distribution of trends in the 300-305 K temperature range for the metropolitan areas of New York City, Los Angeles and Chicago. In the northeastern corridor, decreasing trends extend further southwest than in the previous analysis, incorporating Washington D. C. (Plate 4). In the Los Angeles Basin, the spatial distribution of trends is similar to that found in the previous analysis. It appears from Plate 4 that fewer sites exhibit downward trends south of the Los Angeles Basin.

Figure 4a. Spatial distributions of \( \text{O}_3 \) concentrations and trends for the New York City metropolitan area in 1980-1995. The top panels show the median and 90th percentile summer afternoon concentrations, the middle panels show the corresponding trends, and the bottom panels show the trends in the temperature-segregated data (300-305 K temperature bin). Diamonds show the individual data sites; there are fewer trend sites than concentration sites because of the data density requirement. Crossed diamonds in the middle and lower panels indicate sites with significant decreasing trends.
after segregation by temperature. Most summer days in this region have maximum temperatures in the range 305-310 K; decreasing trends are found within the 305-310 K bin, but the trends at the few sites with adequate data in the 300-305 K temperature bin are generally not significant. Many additional sites with decreasing trends emerge in the Chicago area (Figure 4c).

5. Relationship to Local Emissions

Figure 5 displays the percentage of sites with significant trends (positive or negative) sorted by local anthropogenic emissions of NOx and VOC, local VOC/NOx emission ratios, and EPA site classifications. The trends are for the data not segregated by temperature; results for the temperature-segregated data are similar. Increasing trends comprise a small percentage of most categories. Downward trends in the 90th percentile concentrations are more likely to be found at urban sites (high precursor emissions). Median concentrations are also more likely to show downward trends at urban than at rural sites according to the EPA classification; by the NOx emission classification, however, approximately the same percentages of increasing and decreasing trends in median concentrations are found for all emission ranges.

Figure 5 indicates a correlation of trends with the VOC/NOx emission ratio. This correlation could be taken to imply that O3 air quality has improved most in areas where emissions are dominated by mobile sources (high ratios). However, we find that the correlation is determined mainly by the high VOC/NOx emission ratios in the Los Angeles Basin. The large fraction of sites with decreasing trends in this region can be probably attributed to the more stringent emission controls than in the rest of the country, as discussed below, rather than to particularity in the VOC/NOx emission ratio.

6. Discussion and Conclusions

Previous analyses of trends in summertime ozone are summarized in Table 1. Most of these studies used shorter records, and they used a variety of ozone statistics. The addition of a few years of data can lead to different trend results for such short time series, particularly if the analysis starts or ends near an anomalous year, such as 1988 which had record high ozone levels. The choice of ozone statistic (such as mean, daily maximum, seasonal extrema) and inclusion of explanatory variables in the trend model may also influence results. Our results are generally in accord with previous trend analyses, and differences are most likely attributable to the use of different time periods and choice of ozone statistic.

Our finding that no large region of the United States demonstrates significant increasing trends is consistent with the work of [Lefohn and Shadwick 1991] (Table 1), who found little evidence of significant trends in O3 at 77 rural sites from 1979-1988. The few trends they did find were generally positive. As they noted, this
result may have been influenced by the final year of their study, 1988, when O₃ concentrations were unusually high. Increases in ozone were found for only 2% of metropolitan areas for 1986-95 [EPA, 1996a]. We compared our results with trends in temperature-independent O₃ observed by Rao et al. [1995] in the eastern United States from 1983-1992 and found that we do not detect significant trends at roughly half of their sites. This discrepancy could reflect the 6 extra years of data in our analysis. Our findings compare well with the 1980-1992 trend analysis of Zurbenko et al. [1995] for the northeastern United States, where there are only 3 years of difference in the analysis periods.

Our conclusion that half the sites with decreasing trends in 90th percentile O₃ concentrations are in the metropolitan areas of New York City, Los Angeles, and Chicago is similar to results given by the Environmental Protection Agency [EPA, 1996a]. The EPA analysis gives trends in the second highest daily maximum O₃ value for 1986-95. They find decreases for 23% of 183 metropolitan statistical areas, and half the areas with decreases are in California, Chicago and environs, and the New York-New Jersey-Connecticut region. We find decreases in 90th percentile O₃ values for 19% of sites overall, again similar to EPA [1996a].

The downward trend of O₃ concentrations in the New York City metropolitan region has been reported previously by Korsog and Wolff [1991], Rao et al., [1992, 1995], Cox and Chu [1993], Rao and Zurbenko [1994], Zurbenko et al. [1995], EPA [1996a] and Flaum et al. [1996]. A number of modeling studies have argued that the best strategy for controlling O₃ in this region is to reduce VOC emissions [McKeen et al., 1991b; Roselle et al., 1991; Jacob et al., 1993; Stillman, 1993].

The Los Angeles Basin suffers from the most severe O₃ smog problem in the nation EPA, [1996a]. In an effort to ameliorate this situation, the state of California has implemented emission controls beyond the requirements for the rest of the nation. Total NOₓ and VOC emission levels in the Los Angeles Basin in 1995 were 10 and 40% lower, respectively, than in 1980 (B. Croes and D. Goodenow; California Air Resources Board, personal communication, 1997). Our study indicates that these stringent regulations have met with success in reducing both median and extreme O₃ levels. Walker [1985], Kuntasal and Chang [1987], Zeldin et al. [1990] and Cassmassi and Bassett [1991] have previously reported downward trends in extreme concentrations of O₃ in the South Coast Air Basin.

The third largest metropolitan area of the nation (Chicago) shows significant downward trends for the 90th percentile O₃ concentrations but not for the medians. After segregation by temperature, more pronounced downward trends are found, although they

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**Figure 4c.** Same as Figure 4a but for the Chicago area. No contours are shown in the middle panels because of the paucity of sites with significant trends.
Plate 4. Same as Plate 2 but for days when the maximum temperature fell in the range 300-305 K.

Figure 5. Percentage of sites with significant positive or negative trends, sorted by local NOx and VOC anthropogenic emissions, local VOC/NOx emission ratio, and EPA site classification. The total number of sites in each category is given at the top of each bar.
are still weaker than in New York City or Los Angeles. Sillman [1993] suggests that O₃ production in the Chicago urban plume should be VOC-sensitive.

In conclusion, we find decreasing trends in O₃ concentrations over the 1980-1995 period to be largely confined to the three largest metropolitan regions: New York City, Los Angeles, and Chicago. Within these regions, the trends are more pronounced for 90th percentile concentrations (pollution episodes) than for the medians. National emission inventories indicate that VOC emissions declined constant. Although emission trends may vary regionally, the spatial distribution of O₃ trends in our analysis appears consistent with photochemical model calculations showing that O₃ production over the United States is NOₓ-limited except in large urban plumes where it is partly VOC-limited [Trainer et al., 1987; Milford et al., 1989; McKeen et al., 1991a,b; Roselle et al., 1991; Jacob et al., 1993]. VOC-limited conditions in urban plumes persist longer under conditions of low dispersion associated with pollution episodes in large metropolitan areas [Jacob et al., 1993; Sillman and Samson, 1995]. Abatement of O₃ pollution elsewhere in the country appears contingent upon a reduction of NOₓ emissions.

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References


A. M. Fiore, D. J. Jacob (corresponding author), and J. A. Logan, Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences and Division of Engineering and Applied Sciences, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA 02138. (e-mail: djj@io.harvard.edu).

J. H. Yin, Department of Atmospheric Sciences, University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98195.

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