

1 **Revisiting regional and seasonal variations in decadal carbon monoxide variability:**

2 **Global reversal of growth rate**

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13 **Abstract**

14 Carbon monoxide (CO) is one of the important trace gases in the atmosphere capturing the

15 evolution of chemical properties of the troposphere. Here we analyze the growth rates of CO

16 during the period of 1991 – 2020 using *in situ* measurements from the World Meteorological

17 Organization's (WMO) Global Atmospheric Watch (GAW) program. The analysis of trends

18 has been done on different spatial and temporal scales. Our analysis supports the decline in

19 the overall CO mixing ratios over the globe but inter-decadal and regional trend analysis has

20 shown heterogeneous changes in the given period of study. On average, there has been a

21 decrease of  $-16.22 \pm 1.92$  ppb and  $-4.5 \pm 0.64$  ppb observed at the sites in the northern

22 hemisphere (NH) and southern hemisphere (SH), respectively. This decline occurred at rates

23 of  $-0.80 \pm 0.12$  ppb yr<sup>-1</sup> in the NH and  $-0.12 \pm 0.03$  ppb yr<sup>-1</sup> in the SH. Bifurcating the annual

24 trends for seasonal analysis reveals the impact of emissions, chemistry and atmospheric

25 transport on CO variation over different regional clusters of stations. Seasonal trend analysis

26 provides further evidence regarding heterogeneous patterns in the South-East Asia region.  
27 Our study highlights a slowdown in CO decline during the 2011-2020 decade when  
28 compared to the rate of decrease observed in 2001-2010. This is inferred from the variability  
29 and much slower decline of CO emissions across different regions, contributing to a  
30 weakening in CO trends.

31

32 Keywords: Carbon monoxide, trends, emissions, inter-decadal, regional trend analysis

33

### 34 **1. Introduction**

35 Carbon monoxide (CO) is not only an important toxic atmospheric pollutant but also a crucial  
36 player in regional and global atmospheric chemistry. In the radiation budget of Earth's  
37 atmosphere, CO has an indirect radiative forcing of  $+0.2 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  (Myhre et al., 2013). As a  
38 primary pollutant, it reduces the oxygen-carrying capacity of the blood, which can lead to  
39 unconsciousness and even death at high CO levels (WHO, 1999). The sources of CO are  
40 ubiquitous as it is formed during incomplete combustions of carbon-containing materials  
41 including fossil fuels in industry, transportation, residential combustion, burning of  
42 agricultural residues, and forest fires. About 2600 Tg CO is emitted per year globally, split  
43 between direct emissions and chemical production. The direct emission sources include  
44 anthropogenic (27%), biogenic (7%), and biomass burning (19%) while chemical sources  
45 include CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation (34.5%) and NMVOC oxidation (11.5%) (Zheng et al., 2019). It can  
46 be conceived that with increasing needs for food and fuel, the emission of CO will increase,  
47 particularly in developing regions of the world. The emissions can additionally lead to an  
48 increase in CO through the oxidation of hydrocarbons in the atmosphere. The overwhelming  
49 contribution of anthropogenic CO emissions in the Northern Hemisphere (NH) is responsible  
50 to maintain CO at a twice higher level in the NH than in the Southern Hemisphere (SH) and it

51 has grown in the latter part of the 20th century following the industrialization and population  
52 growth (Ehhalt and Prather, 2001). This is because the OH concentrations are suggested to be  
53 in parity between the hemispheres (Patra et al., 2014; Strode et al., 2015) and in the SH, CO  
54 is primarily emitted from biomass burning and as an oxidation byproduct of the volatile  
55 organic carbon (VOCs) (Gaubert et al., 2016; Lelieveld et al., 2016).

56

57 CO is a major sink (about 40%) for atmospheric OH radicals, the major cleansing agent of  
58 the atmosphere, at weekly-monthly time scales (Lelieveld et al., 2016). The oxidation of CO  
59 by OH (R1) has several implications for atmospheric chemistry including the HO<sub>x</sub> cycling,  
60 the production of tropospheric ozone, and the lifetime of greenhouse gases like methane,  
61 hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs). In addition, CO changes has strong impact on coupled system of  
62 CO-OH-CH<sub>4</sub> chemistry in atmosphere. Lifetime of methane is very sensitive to the CO  
63 changes (Nguyen et al., 2020; Shindell et al., 2006). Increase in CO will lead to lower levels  
64 of OH in the atmosphere and cause increase in CH<sub>4</sub> lifetime and vice-versa (Ehhalt and  
65 Prather, 2001; Gaubert et al., 2017)



67 CO constitutes a significant part of OH reactivity for low OH reactivity environments  
68 (Safieddine et al., 2017). In strong polluted air, NO<sub>2</sub> can also be a large OH sink through self-  
69 limiting reaction. NO<sub>x</sub> is an important contributor to atmospheric chemical cycling impacting  
70 both O<sub>3</sub> production as well as secondary OH production through recycling process. For a low  
71 NO<sub>x</sub> environment in Cyprus where OH could be successfully simulated within 10% of  
72 observations, it was observed that the OH recycling efficiency increased from 0.28 at 10 pptv  
73 of NO to 0.7 at 100 pptv of NO corresponding to a chain length of 2.8 (Mallik et al., 2018).  
74 The recycling efficiency peaked at 0.85 at 500 pptv of NO or about 3 ppbv of NO<sub>x</sub> after  
75 which it stabilized, meaning no additional efficiency of OH production at higher NO. This

76 situation may resemble relatively low anthropogenic emission regions of the world while at  
77 higher emission regions, the NO<sub>x</sub> recycling mechanism of OH results in O<sub>3</sub> production  
78 through photo-dissociation of NO<sub>2</sub> in presence of UV (Lelieveld et al., 2016). The reaction of  
79 NO<sub>2</sub> with OH will be a direct competitor for the reaction of CO with OH as though CO-OH  
80 rate constant is much slower; the CO has much higher concentration. The situation can be  
81 analogous to the large CH<sub>4</sub> depletions observed in tropical regions with high atmospheric  
82 H<sub>2</sub>O concentrations and a strong formation of O<sub>3</sub> due to the NO<sub>x</sub> emissions (Rosanka et al.,  
83 2020). While the global distribution of OH shows higher values between the tropics with  
84 hotspots over equatorial rainforests (Lelieveld et al., 2016), high secondary OH formation is  
85 observed over India and South-East Asia in addition to biogenically dominated rainforest  
86 regions.

87 CO air samples collected by NOAA/CMDL revealed a significant long term downward CO  
88 trend during 1990s that was largely confined to the NH. In SH, CO exhibits a considerable  
89 interannual variability but the trend was insignificant (Novelli et al., 2003). A global decline  
90 of  $0.52 \pm 0.10$  ppb yr<sup>-1</sup> between 1991-2001 was estimated with a steady decline of  $0.92 \pm$   
91  $0.15$  ppb yr<sup>-1</sup> in NH. Various regional studies have mentioned a significant decline in CO  
92 during mid 1990's and reported that changes were due to decrease in vehicular emissions in  
93 Europe and USA. (Bradley et al., 1999; Hallock-Waters et al., 1999; Novelli et al., 1998).  
94 ECHAM5/MESSy, an atmospheric chemistry GCM simulated downward trend in NH as well  
95 as in SH with decreasing rate of  $13.5 \pm 11.1$  ppbv/decade and  $0.8 \pm 6.7$  ppbv/decade  
96 respectively with global decline of  $7.2 \pm 7.8$  ppbv/decade during 2001-2010. Modeled surface  
97 CO estimated a significant decrease in over northern Australia, eastern USA, western Europe  
98 with rates of  $13.7 \pm 9.5$ ,  $59.6 \pm 9.1$ ,  $35.5 \pm 5.8$  ppbv/decade, respectively. But in southern  
99 Asia and eastern China, a positive CO trend of  $+8.9 \pm 4.8$  ppbv/decade and  $+9.1 \pm 9.7$   
100 ppbv/decade was present, though not statistically significant (Yoon and Pozzer, 2014).

101

102 Tropospheric CO columns observed by MOPITT declined at an average rate of  $-0.32 \pm$   
103  $0.05 \text{ \% yr}^{-1}$  over the whole globe and is consistent with the negative trends at WDCGG  
104 network ( $60^\circ\text{N}$ - $60^\circ\text{S}$ ) during 2000–2017 (Deeter et al., 2015; Worden et al., 2013; Zheng et  
105 al., 2019). MOPITT, AIRS, TES and IASI measurements consistently showed a decrease in  
106 CO trends in NH and SH during 2000-2011 particularly over the regions with high  
107 population density (Worden et al., 2013). MOPITT showed decreasing trend of  $-1.4 \pm 0.2 \text{ \%}$   
108  $\text{yr}^{-1}$  and  $1.6 \pm 0.5 \text{ \% yr}^{-1}$  over USA and China during 2000s. However, a spatial heterogeneity  
109 existed with the largest decrease in northern mid latitudes ( $30^\circ\text{N}$ – $60^\circ\text{N}$ ) (Gaubert et al., 2017).  
110 The tropical region ( $30^\circ\text{S}$ – $30^\circ\text{N}$ ) has a smaller decrease in CO columns due to increasing  
111 trends existing over South Asia and a large part of Africa. However, such fire-prone regions  
112 could potentially counteract with global decline in CO by local changes in biomass burning  
113 especially in summer. Because of the large fire activities and interannual variabilities in  
114 sources, determining the CO trends in such regions is very difficult (Fanin and van der Werf,  
115 2017; Strode and Pawson, 2013). Asia is the only region that has a statistically significant  
116 trend of rising CO columns since 2000 (Zheng et al., 2019). In the southern mid-latitudes  
117 ( $30^\circ\text{S}$ – $60^\circ\text{S}$ ), which are mostly covered by oceans and have limited landmasses, both  
118 MOPITT and WDCGG data consistently indicate a notable decline in CO levels (Zheng et  
119 al., 2019). Satellite observations are consistent in the negative trend with WDCGG sites  
120 during 2001-2015 which confirms the decrease in global tropospheric CO (Jiang et al., 2017;  
121 Warner et al., 2013). TIR-CO satellite records of 2002-2018 from MOPITT, AIRS, TES,  
122 IASI has shown a global slow-down to a reduced negative trend in recent years by comparing  
123 trends for 2002–2010 with 2010–2018 from  $-1 \text{ \% per year}$  to  $-0.50 (\pm 0.3) \text{ \% per year}$   
124 (Buchholz et al., 2021).

125

126 Due to its fairly long lifetime (weeks - months), CO emissions over a region can influence its  
127 zonal-mean mixing ratio levels. Since local CO emissions can quickly transcend to zonal  
128 scales, it is necessary to study a global network of stations to make inferences regarding  
129 factors influencing CO levels and growth rates over a location. Systematic ground-based  
130 observations of CO started in the late 1980s pioneered by NOAA's cooperative flask  
131 sampling network (Novelli et al., 1992; Novelli et al., 1998a).

132

133 Availability of long-term measurements of CO from several sites around the globe from the  
134 World Data Center for Greenhouse Gases (WDCGG) makes it a lucrative option to study  
135 global and regional CO growth rates. As CO levels in a location are impacted by local  
136 emissions, atmospheric transport as well as atmospheric photochemical process, deciphering  
137 the intricacies of CO trends has been a topic of much debate (Buchholz et al., 2021; Hedelius  
138 et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2019) In the present study, we analyze the growth rates of CO  
139 during the period of 1991 – 2020 using data from ground-based *in situ* observations and flask  
140 samples retrieved from the WDCGG to unravel the heterogeneities in different regional,  
141 spatial and temporal scales.

142

## 143 **2. Materials and methods**

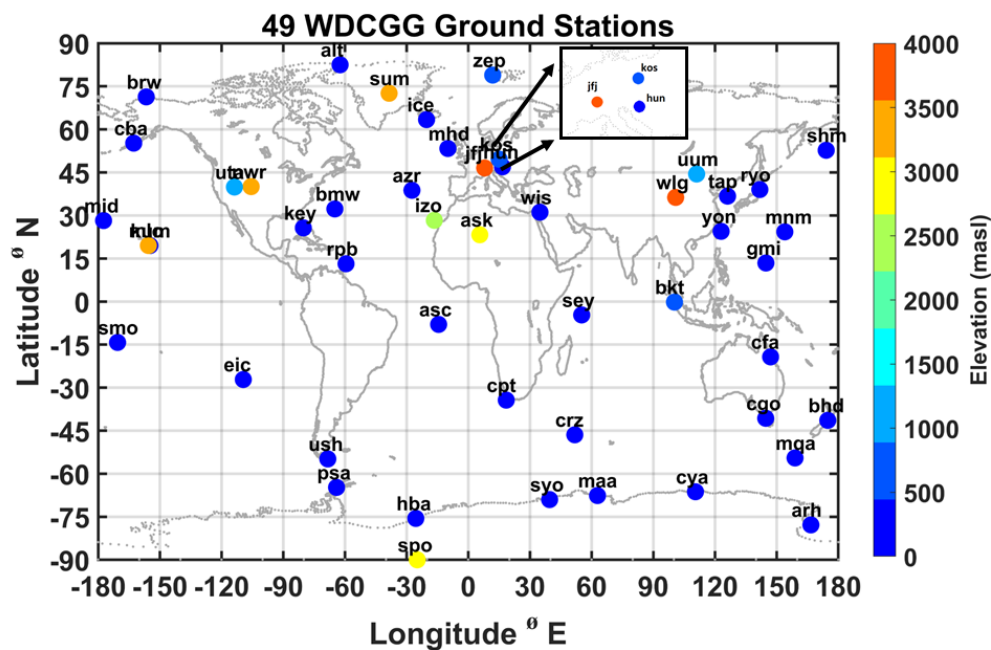
144 For the present study, 49 stations from an initial list of 129 stations of the WDCGG data  
145 archive were selected based on the data availability and location of the stations (Figure 1,  
146 Table 1). WDCGG is a World Data Centre operated by the Japan Meteorological Agency  
147 (JMA) under the Global Atmospheric Watch (GAW) program of the World Meteorological  
148 Organization (WMO) (<https://gaw.kishou.go.jp/>). CO sampling follows WMO  
149 recommendations and utilizes three methods: continuous in-situ observation, surface flask air  
150 sampling, and onboard ship-based (mobile) sampling (Crotwell et al., 2020; NOAA, 2018).

151 The stations in our study employ both in-situ and flask-based sampling (Table S1). Flask air  
152 sampling collects discrete air samples in specialized flasks, analyzed centrally. NOAA and  
153 CSIRO use glass flasks with Teflon (PTFE or PFA) with O-rings for long-term storage,  
154 offering cost-effective CO data collection for monthly, seasonal, and inter-annual analysis.  
155 Air samples are collected in metal and glass flasks, carefully considering materials, protocols,  
156 and storage conditions to minimize contamination. Weekly sampling ensures data quality and  
157 trend analysis. *In situ* continuous observations provide near-real-time data with a temporal  
158 range from seconds to one hour. For precise CO measurements, various techniques are  
159 employed, including NDIR, GC/FID, GC/HgO, and VURF, which can detect fast changes in  
160 the mole fractions (Zellweger et al., 2009). These techniques exhibit overall agreement better  
161 than 2% for 1-hourly averages. Each technique has unique advantages and limitations; NDIR  
162 offers robustness, GC/HgO has low detection limits, VURF provides high-frequency  
163 measurements, and GC/FID simultaneously detects additional greenhouse gases like CO<sub>2</sub> and  
164 CH<sub>4</sub>, enriching the QA/QC framework to cover various environmental scenarios. VURF,  
165 based on resonance CO fluorescence in the vacuum ultraviolet, excels in accuracy and low  
166 detection limits (Gerbig et al., 1999). The data processing involves automated quality control  
167 and manual review. It aims to create a time series of mole fractions representing ambient  
168 conditions, while flagging artifacts. No entries are removed; instead, non-representative  
169 samples are flagged. Flags stem from calibration and instrument issues, to outlier detection  
170 (via sophisticated curve fitting). High-resolution CO data are aggregated into hourly, daily,  
171 weekly, and monthly averages for analysis (WMO-GAW, 2010)./

172

173 For the atmospheric transport of CO using wind vector analysis, reanalysis data of global  
174 wind was collected from NOAA (<https://psl.noaa.gov>). Anthropogenic emissions of CO from  
175 different sources are taken from EDGAR-v6.0 inventory

176 ([https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/dataset\\_ghg60](https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/dataset_ghg60)) (Crippa et al., 2021). The ENSO Index time  
 177 series was taken from Multivariate ENSO Index Version 2 (MEI.v2) provided by the  
 178 Physical Sciences Division of the Earth System Research Laboratory of the National Oceanic  
 179 and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA). (NOAA, 2020)  
 180 (<https://www.psl.noaa.gov/enso/mei/>)  
 181



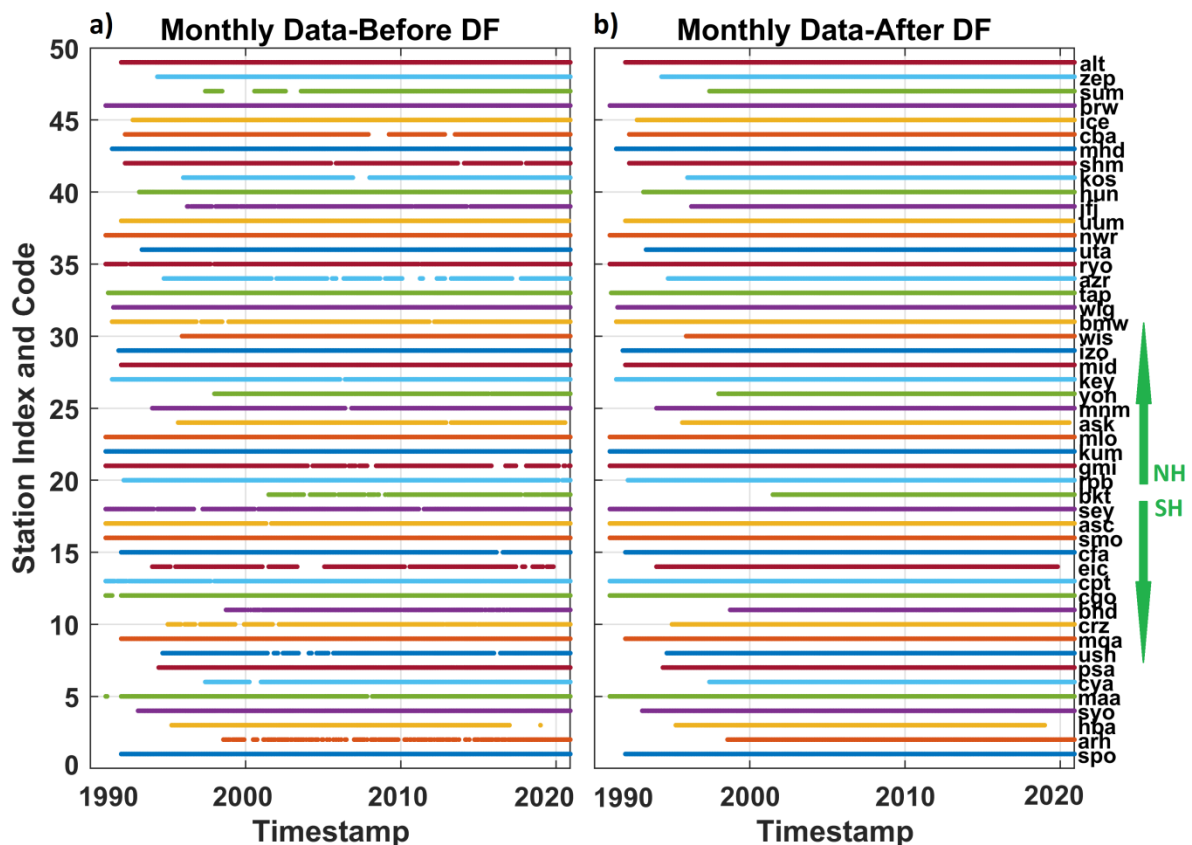
182  
 183 **Figure 1.** Spatial coverage of stations selected for this analysis from the WDCGG database  
 184 (<http://ds.data.jma.go.jp/gmd/wdcgg/>). See Table S1 for other details of stations.

185  
 186 The WDCGG data repository hosts hourly, daily, event, and monthly datasets. For the given  
 187 study, monthly data have been used. The monthly datasets had continuous time series of CO  
 188 with some data gaps for a few sites. To fill these missing monthly data points in such case a  
 189 simple linear interpolation is not an adequate approach and, a curve-fitting procedure was  
 190 applied. The digital filtering (DF) and curve fitting technique was developed at Tohoku  
 191 University (Nakazawa et al., 1997a), which has been used for various flask measurements in  
 192 the past for long term-trend determination (Chandra et al., 2022; Patra et al., 2005; Yashiro et



193 al., 2009).. Digital filtering is a statistical procedure that uses Fourier harmonics, Reinsch-  
194 type cubic splines, linear interpolation, and a Butterworth filter to approximate the long-term  
195 temporal trends, seasonal cycles, and growth rate. The processes primarily involve the  
196 following four steps: (i) approximation of seasonal cycle and long-term trend, (ii)  
197 extrapolation and interpolation of the data, (iii) calculation of the seasonal cycle and long-  
198 term trend on average, and (iv) extraction of the seasonal cycle and interannual variations. To  
199 determine the long-term trend and curve fitting each data point was fitted individually using  
200 the Butterworth filter with a cut-off duration of 48 months and 3 harmonics (sinusoidal form  
201 of a Fourier function) in this technique. Unevenly spaced initial data is first detrended and  
202 then seasonal cycles are removed by fitting smoothing spline & Fourier components of data.  
203 The residuals were then interpolated onto evenly spaced data format followed by passing it  
204 through the Butterworth filter. Outliers, defined as data larger than 3 standard errors away  
205 from the fitted curve, were successively rejected after each iterative fit. More detailed  
206 information about the DF technique can be found in (Hung et al., 2005; Nakazawa et al.,  
207 1997a; Pickers and Manning, 2015). The fitted curve of the DF method generally exhibits a  
208 good representation of sharp temporal variation in mixing ratios without erroneous ripples.  
209 After applying DF on the raw monthly dataset of 1991-2020, a smooth fitted continuous time  
210 series data with no gaps was generated for each station. The availability of final monthly data  
211 is shown in Figure 2. This smoothed fitted monthly dataset was then used for the trend  
212 analysis. Then the Mann-Kendall test and Theil-Sen estimator were used to conduct a trend  
213 analysis on the monthly averaged time series. Mann-Kendall test is a statistical tool to check  
214 whether the time series has decreasing, increasing or no trends. And if a trend is present, the  
215 Theil-Sen estimator or Sen's Slope technique was used to calculate the slope of the trend (Li  
216 et al., 2022). The Theil-Sen method is a robust linear regression method widely used for  
217 trendline's slope estimation. It competes effectively with simple linear regression and the

218 simple least squares methods and is an efficient and commonly used nonparametric method  
 219 of estimating a linear trend (Jindal et al., 2020; Kamal and Pachauri, 2019).  
 220  
 221 The data from the majority of stations comes from flask-based sampling. Although the  
 222 sampling is designed to sample background air, local influences cannot be entirely ruled out  
 223 and sporadic polluted samples can sometimes bias the monthly mean values. About 83.7 % of  
 224 the stations have more than 25 years of data while 14.3 % of stations have data between 20-  
 225 25 years. Only 1 station out of 49 have comparatively less data e.g., ‘bkt’ in Indonesia have  
 226 less than 20 years of data, but these sites are retained in our analysis due to their strategic  
 227 location. To compute the long-term decadal trends, the 2/3 rule was strictly followed, i.e., at  
 228 least 67% of data (7 years) in each decade must be present for decadal trend calculation.



229  
 230 **Figure 2.** Data coverage for each site selected for this analysis from the WDCGG database  
 231 (<http://ds.data.jma.go.jp/gmd/wdcgg/>). The left panel is the data availability of original

232 monthly dataset having some missing data points for a few sites. The right panel is the final  
233 monthly data availability after curve fitting.

234

### 235 **3. Results and discussion**

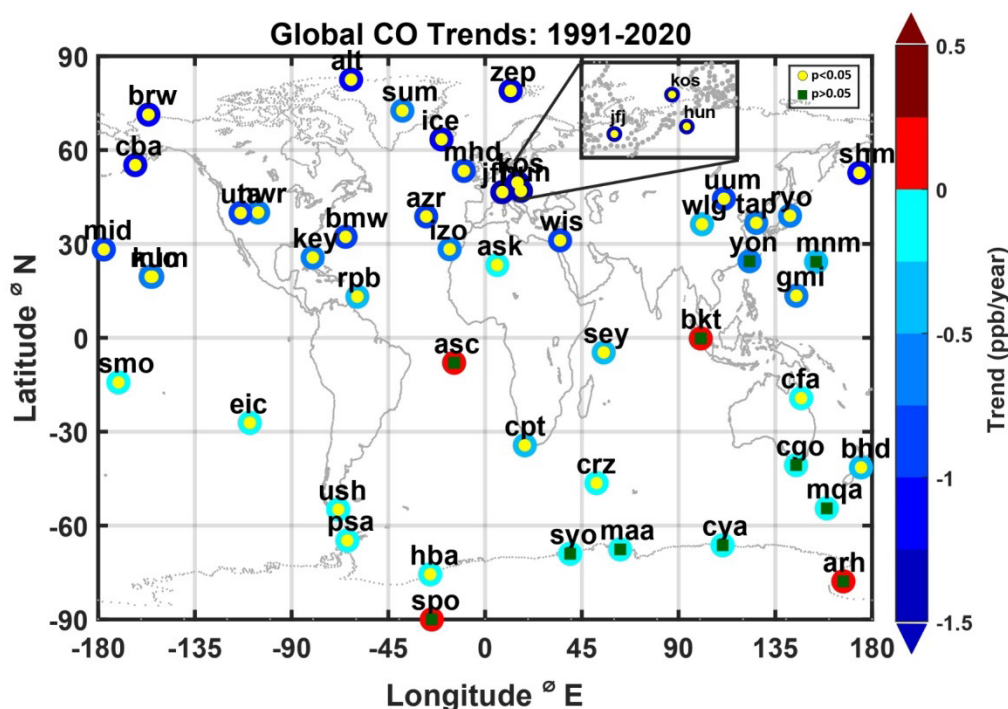
#### 236 **3.1. Global CO levels, variability, and trends: General features**

237

238 Out of the 49 stations analyzed during this study, a decrease in CO levels is observed for 45  
239 stations, and these trends were further classified into statistical significance categories.  
240 Specifically, 38 stations exhibited a statistically significant decrease, with a level of  
241 significance at 0.05 under The Theil-Sen method, while the remaining 11 stations showed a  
242 slightly positive trend (Figure 3). There is an overall declining trend in CO in the last 3  
243 decades. Stations having significant and non-significant CO trends with p-values can be  
244 found in Figure S1. There are few sites like ‘bkt’ with insignificant confidence interval.  
245 However, these sites are kept in the analysis for their critical location on the global scale. The  
246 ‘bkt’ station on Western Sumatra is occasionally exposed to emissions from persistent  
247 biomass burning events. Thus, the calculated trend can be biased by the appearance and the  
248 strength of these events within the observed period (Figure S2). Over the past three decades,  
249 there has been a consistent decline in CO levels. While this global trend shows a general  
250 decrease in CO, it is important to note that there is significant spatial variation in the  
251 distribution of these trends.. Three out of 18 stations in SH have slight positive trends  
252 (increase rate less than 0.25 ppb yr<sup>-1</sup>) and other stations show slight negative trends in CO  
253 (decrease rate less than 0.25 ppb yr<sup>-1</sup>) whereas downtrends within NH stations are very  
254 contrasting.

255 The decreasing trends of CO could either be related to an increase in CO chemical loss rates  
256 or a decrease in both the CO primary emissions and chemical production. The CO loss (R1)

257 and it's chemical production involves OH, and their effects on CO mixing ratio are opposite.  
 258 The loss rates of methyl chloroform (MCF), derived from the 12-month difference of  
 259 monthly means in successive years, shows very small normalized variation (of the order of  
 260 0.2%) during 2001-2018 (Patra et al., 2021). This does not support the hypothesis that the CO  
 261 decrease can be explained based on changes in global OH distributions alone (Jiang et al.,  
 262 2017). Rather, the decrease in CO emissions is a more reasonable explanation for stronger  
 263 decreasing trends of CO in the northern latitudes ( $>23.5^{\circ}\text{N}$ ), relative to the sites in the  
 264 latitudes south of this (Figure 1).



265  
 266 **Figure 3.** Spatial distribution of long-term trends in atmospheric CO during 1991-2020.

267  
 268 In the northern latitudes, all CO time series show negative trends for the 1991-2020 period  
 269 (see Figure 3). Reduction in atmospheric CO levels was particularly recorded since 2003-  
 270 2004 in agreement with the EDGAR anthropogenic emissions (Figure 4). Between 2000-  
 271 2004, 22 sites out of 25 in this region have shown the highest growth rate in CO. This high  
 272 growth rate was prominent between  $50^{\circ}\text{N}$  -  $70^{\circ}\text{N}$  (sum, brw, ice, cba, mhd, shm) (Figure S4

273 A). Whereas some European sites (kos, hun, jfj) (Figure S4 B) have comparatively less  
274 growth rate during this period. However, over the tropics, the CO growth rates are not in sync  
275 with EDGAR emissions. East Asia shows high growth in emissions driven by energy use and  
276 industries; however, this is not reflected in mixing ratio trends in CO even over East Asian  
277 sites (Figure 3). For this zone, the average CO concentrations shows stabilization for most  
278 part of this century. Thus, an enhancement in CO from the EDGAR inventory emissions over  
279 East Asia (China, Hong Kong, Mongolia, Taiwan) and South Asia (India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka,  
280 Bangladesh) must be somewhat balanced by an increased CO chemical sink (OH) as  
281 observed for some stations in Figure S3.

282

283 Alternatively, reduced transport from higher latitudes may partly explain the stabilization.  
284 Moreover, the emissions from South Asia nations started increasing much later than the  
285 emissions from East-Asian countries (China, Hong Kong, Mongolia, Taiwan), suggesting a  
286 large influence of emissions from Chinese region on the tropical CO growth rates despite the  
287 fact that CO emissions by a major contributing sector (road transportation) have a decreasing  
288 slope after 2000s (Figure S5). However, the CO contribution from other sectors like  
289 industries, electricity-heat production, and solid fuels has increased unabated. South America  
290 is the major contributor to anthropogenic CO emissions (EDGARv6.0) in SH in all sectors  
291 except solid fuel while Southern Africa and Oceania (Australia, New Zealand, etc.) have  
292 contributed to a moderate increase in different sectors.

293

294 (Crippa et al., 2023) present HTAP\_v3 MOSAIC CO emission data which shows a decline in  
295 Global CO emissions from 502.7 Mt to 499.8 Mt between 2000 – 2018. However, it has not  
296 been monotonically downwards but exhibits variability in regional trends (Crippa et al.,  
297 2016). Road transport accounted for the majority of CO emissions in the European Nations,

298 UK, USA and China and the development of emission standards contributed to a drastic  
299 reduction in total emissions (Guan et al., 2021; Oreggioni et al., 2022). Europe and North  
300 America, have shown reductions of -42% and -62%, respectively, in CO emissions. This is a  
301 consequence of implementing the EURO standards that have enabled specific emission  
302 reductions of up to 91% per unit of gasoline consumed which is a major contributor  
303 (Oreggioni et al., 2022). The combined effect of European policy and technological advances  
304 not only had significant positive effects on Europe itself but also significantly improved air  
305 quality in other regions of the world (Crippa et al., 2016; Kuklinska et al., 2015). CO  
306 emissions in Africa and South Asia have increased by 45% and 49%, respectively even  
307 though CO emissions from road transportation have reduced by 55% over the same period,  
308 while emissions from other sectors have increased (Crippa et al., 2023). These findings are  
309 consistent with (MOPITT) satellite retrievals, with similar patterns over different regions  
310 (Worden et al., 2013; Y Yin et al., 2015). MOZAIC-IAGOS measurements from commercial  
311 aircrafts (2001-2012) also showed a decline in CO in the NH along with a strong  
312 interhemispheric CO gradient in late winter/early spring (Osman et al., 2016).

313

314 Between 1985 and 2015, CO emissions from road transport significantly decreased by 93%  
315 in European nations and the UK, despite a 56% increase in total fuel consumption. This  
316 reduction is primarily attributed to the implementation of EURO standards, which achieved  
317 specific emission reductions of up to 91% per unit of gasoline consumed (Oreggioni et al.,  
318 2022). In ASEAN countries, this sector experienced the fastest growth during the same  
319 (Kurokawa et al., 2013). If controls, based on CHN-3 and CHN-4 standards, had not been  
320 enforced in China, CO emissions would have been 58% higher than the most recent data  
321 included in the EDGAR database (Oreggioni et al., 2022).

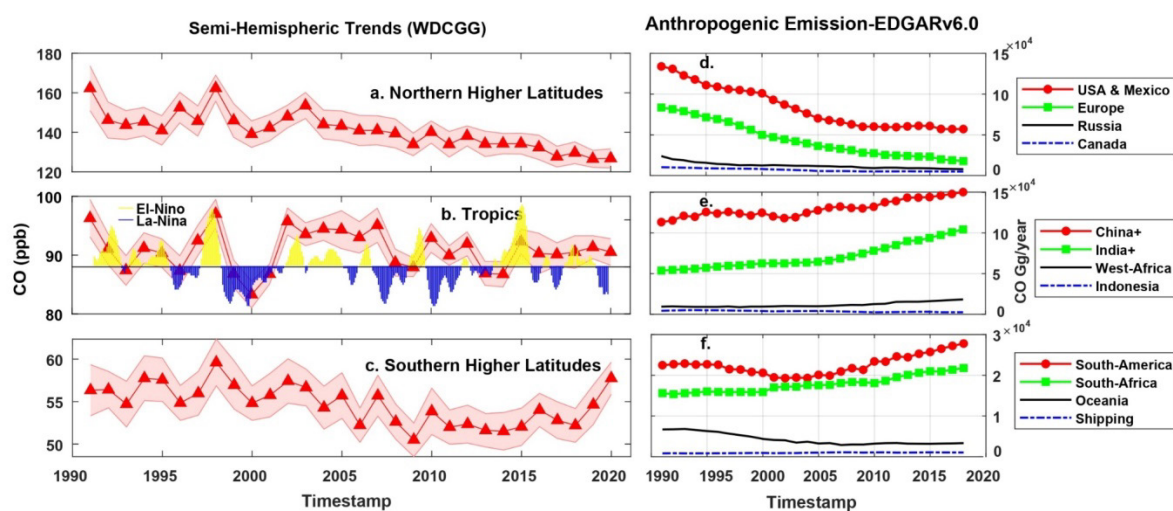
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323 Based on EDGARv5 release, emissions from the energy and transport sectors significantly  
324 declined in the European Union, UK and USA between 1985 and 2015 and regions that are in  
325 the midst of industrialization, like China and other Southeast Asian nations, have witnessed  
326 exponential growths (M et al., 2021; Oreggioni et al., 2022). China experienced such growth  
327 in CO emissions between 1990 and 2005 due to rising demand, followed by relevant  
328 reductions. Since 2005, China's CO emissions have been decreasing due to improvements in  
329 energy efficiency and emission control laws (Guan et al., 2021; Xia et al., 2016). Among the  
330 available inventories, only the MEIC regional inventory for China aligns with the observed  
331 decrease in CO emissions as diagnosed through inversion methods. MEIC dataset shows that  
332 there is a cumulative decline of  $-32\%$  from 2005 to 2016 and the decreasing CO emissions is  
333 driven by rapid technological changes with improved combustion efficiency and emission  
334 control measures in four main sectors (iron and steel industries, residential sources, gasoline-  
335 powered vehicles, and construction materials industries) in China. This led to 76% of the  
336 inversion-based trend of East Asian CO emissions. Global emission inventories  
337 underestimate the strength of emission control and recent reduction in CO emissions in China,  
338 which occurred despite the increased consumption of carbon-based fuel (Bo Zheng et al.,  
339 2018). Based on MEIC dataset, CO emissions increased from by  $+31\%$  between 2000-2005  
340 and then declined by  $-6\%$  from 2006 to 2010 (Meng Li et al., 2017). Improvements in  
341 combustion efficiency, the recycling of industrial coal gases, and stringent car emission rules  
342 are all responsible for the decrease in CO emissions during 2006-2010 i.e. 11th FYP (M Li et  
343 al., 2017). CO emissions were falling by 1.2% year, which is in good agreement with many  
344 satellite datasets (Buchholz et al., 2021; Worden et al., 2013; Yumimoto et al., 2014).  
345 According to MEIC v1.2, CO emissions are down by 4% from 2011 to 2015, reaching a  
346 maximum reduction of 162 Tg. Due to the implementation of stringent vehicle emissions

347 standards, the share of transportation has decreased since 2006 (Buchholz et al., 2021; Meng  
 348 Li et al., 2017).

349

350 Overall, CO growth rates calculated using WDCGG data are not in good agreement with  
 351 emission inventories (e.g., EDGARv6.0), over the northern tropics and the southern  
 352 hemisphere. The relatively stable CO concentration in the tropics could be a result of  
 353 transport of decreasing CO from the NH extratropics (Figure 4a) and an increasing CO due to  
 354 the increasing emissions within the tropics (Figure 4e). The emission increase in the SH is  
 355 very small, at about 1 Gg yr<sup>-1</sup> during 2005-2018 (Figure 4f), and the decrease in CO in the  
 356 SH extratropics (Figure 4c) could be caused by the transport of air mass from the NH to SH  
 357 through the upper troposphere (Belikov et al., 2022; Frederiksen and Francey, 2018).



358

359 **Figure 4.** Time series of yearly averaged CO mixing ratios from WDCGG for the 3 broad  
 360 latitude bands, of 75°N - 23.5°N, 23.5°N - 23.5°S, and 23.5°S - 75°S (panels a-c). The  
 361 corresponding regional total CO emissions derived from EDGAR v6.0 are also shown (panels  
 362 d-f). ENSO Index has shown (moderate La Nina: 2007-08, 2010-11; very strong El Nino:  
 363 1997-98, 2015-16; moderate El Nino: 2002-03, 2009-10, 2018-19).

364

365 **3.2.Latitudinal variation and regional CO trends**



366 The spatial heterogeneity in decreasing CO trends is addressed by looking into its spatial  
367 distribution. Figures 4 and 5 show a clear distinction in CO mixing ratios between both  
368 hemispheres. Mixing ratios were considerably higher in the Northern latitudes, especially in  
369 the early years of the observations. Moreover, NH stations, especially between 15°N-60°N  
370 have shown the strongest negative trends compared to other globally distributed sites. In this  
371 latitudinal region, 18 out of 22 stations have shown very high seasonal CO mixing ratios  
372 peaks varying between the range of 140-200 ppb having few sites (kos, hun, tap,) with more  
373 than 250 ppb which is higher than the average global CO mixing ratio ~90 ppb as compared  
374 to other sites in the NH. Also, these CO mixing ratio ranges are decreasing when moving  
375 towards the Southern part of the globe. The difference in CO mixing ratio between the both  
376 hemispheres is so high (average = 80-90 ppb) that the peak CO mixing ratio of sites between  
377 15 °S -90 °S is below the minimum CO mixing ratio of most of NH sites. Despite  
378 significantly higher mixing ratio in NH attributed to strong emission sources, the transport of  
379 CO may not be able to reduce the N-S gradient significantly due to the short lifetime of CO.  
380 Species with lifetime of about 1 year could be transported from one hemisphere to the other  
381 (Belikov et al., 2022). The higher decreasing trends are observed in NH and become less  
382 prominent towards the South. Figure 5 evinces a systematic distribution with negative trends  
383 in the NH (<-0.5 ppb/year) and approaching the zero line with decreasing latitudes and close  
384 to zero values from southern tropics to South Pole.

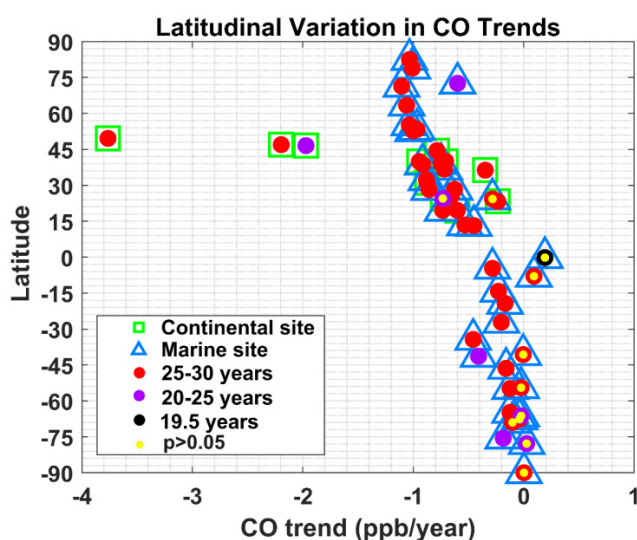
385

386 Apart from absolute values of trends, the variability of trends is higher in the NH compared  
387 to the SH. The mean growth rate of CO is  $-0.87 \pm 0.16$  ppb/year ( $p < 0.01$ ) in the Northern  
388 midlatitudes (23.5°N-66.5°N) while this value is  $-0.13 \pm 0.04$  ppb/year ( $p < 0.05$ ) in the  
389 Southern midlatitudes. The tropical regions of the NH show a growth rate of  $-0.57 \pm 0.08$   
390 ppb/year ( $p < 0.01$ ) in the 0-23.5°N while the rate is  $-0.15 \pm 0.04$  ppb/year ( $p < 0.01$ ) in the 0-

391 23.5°S. The latitudinal distribution of CO not only depends on the primary emissions but is  
392 also controlled via chemical production through oxidation of CH<sub>4</sub> by OH and chemical  
393 oxidative losses (Tie et al., 1992). Thus, the latitudinal distribution of OH will also exert a  
394 control on the photochemical production of CO.

395

396 Apart from the magnitude of OH and OH recycling probability, the trends in OH must be  
397 known to interpret their impacts on CO trends. To understand the relationship between CO  
398 and OH, the observed CO is compared to OH provided by TCR-2 (Tropospheric Chemistry  
399 Reanalysis version 2) (Miyazaki et al., 2020). Results are shown for a few example stations  
400 in Figure S3. For many stations like bhd, gmi, mmm and even to some extent ‘yon’, CO and  
401 OH are anti-correlated and a long-term decline in CO is accompanied by a long-term increase  
402 in OH indicating the important of atmospheric chemical mechanisms in controlling CO losses.  
403 Interestingly, unlike stations in Pacific where anti-correlation is clearly observed, in ‘tap’ at  
404 Korea directly experiencing humungous outflow of pollution from China, the trends in both  
405 CO and OH are negligible and run parallel to each other.



406

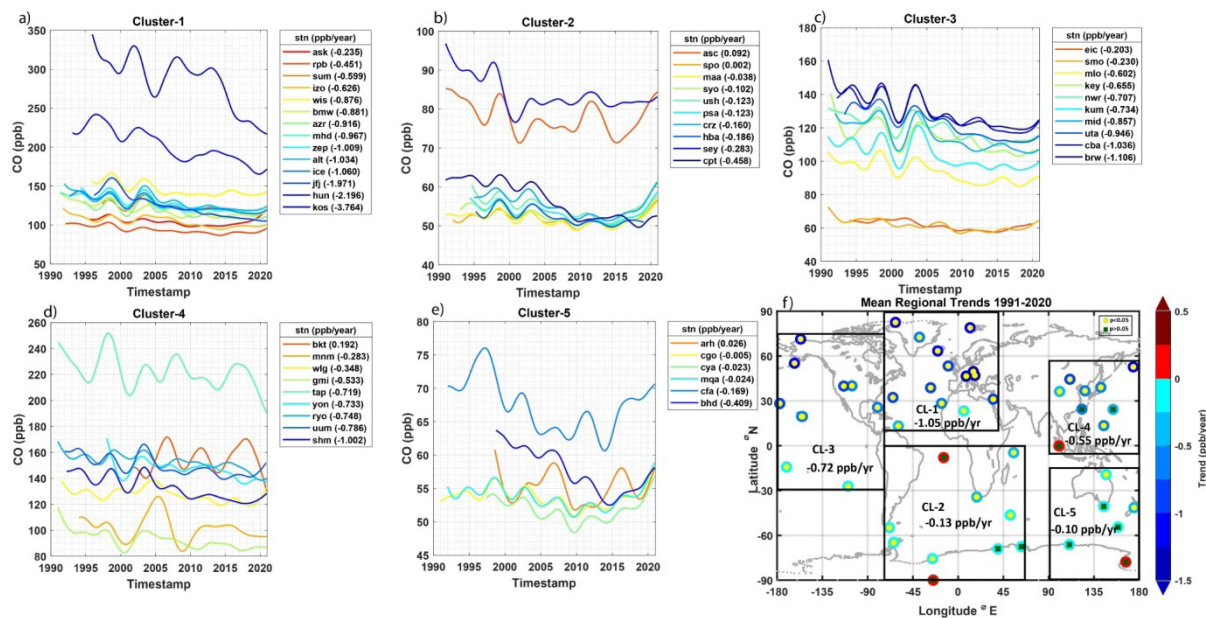
407

408 **Figure 5.** Latitudinal gradient of CO trends as observed at 49 sites. A dominance of NH sites  
409 is observed latitudinally, with continental sites ( $\square$ -marker) contributing higher CO (ppb) than  
410 the sites with marine background ( $\Delta$ -marker). The colored circle inside each marker provides  
411 the information of the length of time series data (in years) available for each site.

412

413 To address the spatial heterogeneity in global CO trends, we conducted an in-depth analysis  
414 of regional trends. 5 groups were identified using weighted k-mean cluster analysis based on  
415 long-term trend, latitude, and longitude values with assigned weights of 16.6%, 33.3% and  
416 50% respectively. (Figure 6). This method partitions N observations into k number of  
417 clusters based on the weight of input data. The trend values show largest variability ( $\sim$  -0.23  
418 to -3.7 ppb/year) in Cluster 1 with an average value of -1.05 ppb/year (Figure 6) and lowest  
419 variability (0 to -0.4 ppb/year) in the Australia region (Cluster 5, Figure 6). This is because  
420 Cluster 1 has a larger number of stations (14) as compared to other clusters and spans a large  
421 geographical area (European and East-American regions). These regions have mostly been  
422 regulated by emission control protocols as evident in the emission estimates in Figure 4  
423 indicating reduced emissions could be responsible for the large negative trends as there is  
424 reduction in anthropogenic emission in industries, road-transportation etc. (EDGARv6.0).  
425 Data collected from the website of the International Energy Agency (<https://www.iea.org/>)  
426 also correlates with the fact that coal fuel consumption has been drastically reduced since  
427 1990s in Europe. Lower variability is also observed for cluster 2 (0.09 to -0.46 ppb/year)  
428 while clusters 4 (0.1 to -1.0 ppb/year) and cluster 3 show intermediate variability (-0.2 to -1.1  
429 ppb/year). The increasing strength and frequency of El-Nino events rather than the increase  
430 in fire events in the 2010-2020 period is likely to be responsible for the flipping of the CO  
431 growth curve from expected lines during 2015-2020 (Figure S2). ENSO can modulate the  
432 interdecadal CO growth rates in case more La Ninas in 2001-2010 produced a +ve (positive)

433 OH anomaly (negative CO growth rate), while more El Ninos in 2011-2020 produced -ve  
 434 (negative) OH anomaly and positive CO growth rate. La Nina / El Nino also modulate the  
 435 strength and the appearance of biomass burning. The El-Nino effect is also observed for other  
 436 stations e.g. maa and mqa in the SH (Figure S6). Cluster 3 and 4 are dominated by emissions  
 437 from China and stations located in East-Pacific region. Cluster 4 representing emissions over  
 438 South-East Asian region shows high CO mixing ratios but low magnitude in annual negative  
 439 trends. Despite having similar ranges because CO is relatively well mixed zonally (Figure 6),  
 440 these trends are further decoupled into decadal and seasonal components to understand their  
 441 variability.



442  
 443 **Figure 6.** 5 regional clusters representing average CO trend of in respective region. Each  
 444 cluster is grouped according on the closeness to centroid value of long-term trend, latitude  
 445 and longitude. Right corner panel is a visual representation of each cluster on global map  
 446 marked with average CO trend in respective cluster. Each panel of clusters has a de-  
 447 seasonalized CO time series colored with respective trend values. A set of European + North  
 448 Atlantic sites; Cluster-1 shows most negative trends of all groups and contributing more to

449 negative trends in NH. Each cluster differs in average CO ranges and magnitude of trend  
450 slope (ppb/yr).

451

452 Biomass burning is a common source for both NO<sub>x</sub> and CO. Coincidentally, some of these  
453 regions have also exhibited a strong positive trend in NO<sub>x</sub> e.g. over India (+29 %/decade),  
454 China (+26 %/decade) based on surface emissions (Miyazaki et al., 2017). It was also  
455 observed that tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> showed an enhancement over China (40%), India (25%) and  
456 SE Asia (13%) during 2005-2014 (Miyazaki et al., 2017). Negative trends were also observed  
457 over several places in USA and Europe with larger negative trends during 2005–2010 than  
458 2011–2014 while negative trend in NO<sub>x</sub> over China was observed after 2011. The same  
459 analysis beautifully shows a correspondence between OH and NO<sub>x</sub> changes over many  
460 places of the world using an approach to constrain the interdependent chemistry of CO and  
461 NO<sub>x</sub> thorough O<sub>3</sub> and OH. Thus, changes in CO are not independent of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions due  
462 to common constraining OH chemistry and if instances of large CO emissions like biomass  
463 burning plumes are also accompanied by large NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, the oxidation chemistry may  
464 be directly dependent on the recycling efficiency. In fact (Lelieveld et al., 2004) describe the  
465 limiting nature of NO<sub>x</sub> on OH recycling and O<sub>3</sub> formation and point to a decrease in CO  
466 concentration in NH along with an increase in NO<sub>x</sub> emissions in Asia.

467

468 A large fraction of CO variability is associated with ENSO and they vary by region to region,  
469 e.g., as shown in Fig. 4. Interannual variability in upper tropospheric CO peaks in Southern  
470 Hemisphere was observed using aircraft observations with enhanced values during strong El  
471 Nino years e.g. 1997 (Matsueda et al, 1997). Although the CO peak in the SH high latitudes  
472 in 2019-2020 (Fig. 4c) could be caused by the large Australian bush fires (Canadell et al.,  
473 2021; Yang et al., 2021), GFAS fire emission flux shows a decreasing trend in most of the

474 region in last two decades (Fan et al., 2023). Also, a 25 % global decline has been observed  
475 in burned area and fire emissions between 1997-2015 and the area of global grassland fires  
476 generally shows a downward trend, except for parts of the Australia (Yin et al., 2020). The  
477 relative changes in burned area in Australia are highest suggesting that the fire occurred  
478 frequently with high intensity(Ohneiser et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2021) However, there exists  
479 a large interannual variations in the previous years (Chen et al., 2023; Fan et al., 2023). Those  
480 cannot be explained by the ENSO cycle, which we show to have a compact relation with CO  
481 variation in the tropics (Fig. 4b). Overall, variability and trends in vegetation fires vary  
482 strongly from continent to continent, as summarized by (Bowman et al., 2020). While Africa  
483 features a consistent decline in vegetation fire emissions (see also (Jiang et al., 2020)), fire  
484 emissions increased in the last decades especially in Brazilian Amazonia and the Western  
485 United States. In fact, in recent years, fire emissions during summer had increased whereas in  
486 winter it had decreased, therefore there has not been a major shift in the multi-year average  
487 emissions (Fan et al., 2023). Tagged CO experiments with CHASER model using data from  
488 container ships has revealed impact of forest fires and biomass burning on CO (Yashiro et al.,  
489 2009). A review by (Bowman et al., 2020) of studies looking into future projections of fire  
490 activity does not reveal a consistent pattern (i.e., either no change, mixed results or increase  
491 in fire activity). However, it does not report a decrease in fire activity in the future either.

#### 492 **Decadal variations in CO trends**

493 To get an insight into the temporal evolution of CO trends, the analysis period of 1991-2020  
494 has bifurcated into three decades: 1991-2000, 2001-2010 and 2011-2020. From this point  
495 forward, these decades will be referred to as the 1990s, 2000s, and 2010s, respectively. It  
496 must be noted that there are few sites having less data than 7 years between 1991-2000 (e.g.,  
497 ask, crz). Decadal trends (1991-2000) of such sites are not calculated and not compared as  
498 1991 vs 2000. Since these sites have continuous data after 2000, so comparison of these sites

499 can be seen in 2000s vs 2010s. These decadal trends shown in Figure 7 present a riveting  
500 picture. The general downward trend in CO is not consistent for the whole period. The  
501 number of sites with positive trend keeps increasing in each decade i.e., 7 sites in 1990s to 20  
502 sites 2010s which is mainly noticeable in SH otherwise negative trends are constant to the  
503 north of 20°N in each decade. The CO mixing ratios in the NH remains rather constant in the  
504 1990, followed by a decrease till now. For SH, there is slight decrease observed from the  
505 beginning but a leveling-off after 2010. The positive trend during 1990s for SH sites could be  
506 influenced by a strong El Nino effect in the late 1990s, leading to increased biomass burning  
507 contributions to CO. It may also indicate a reduction in strength of OH mediated chemical  
508 loss of CO. It may be noted that the regions of high OH reactivity as well as OH recycling  
509 probability lie in the SH (Lelieveld et al., 2016). So, a strong biomass burning event can  
510 quickly disturb the natural OH cycling by injecting copious amounts of hydrocarbons. Thus,  
511 these events will not only lead to primary CO emissions into the atmosphere but also change  
512 the strength of chemical losses. Figure S3 for bkt shows simultaneous changes in observed  
513 CO and modeled OH. It is very interesting to observe that normally the peaks in CO coincide  
514 with the trough in OH. However, around 2013, the peaks in CO and OH are in sync, both  
515 showing simultaneous enhancement along with strong biomass burning emissions (Figure  
516 S3). The sync is also somewhat observed during 2017. Studies in 1990s pointed out that  
517 emissions of CO and CH<sub>4</sub> by biomass burning can affect the oxidation efficiency of the  
518 atmosphere by scavenging hydroxyl radicals (Crutzen and Andreae, 1990). However, with  
519 advancement in measurement techniques and detection of larges suites of non-methane  
520 organic gases (NMOGs), biomass burning plumes, despite their importance, have mystified  
521 our understanding as represented by contrasting characteristics in O<sub>3</sub> enhancement ratios  
522 ( $\Delta O_3/\Delta CO$ ) which has been shown to increase, decrease as well as remain unchanged  
523 (Coggon et al., 2019) depending on NMOG/NO<sub>x</sub> ratios, downwind meteorology, and

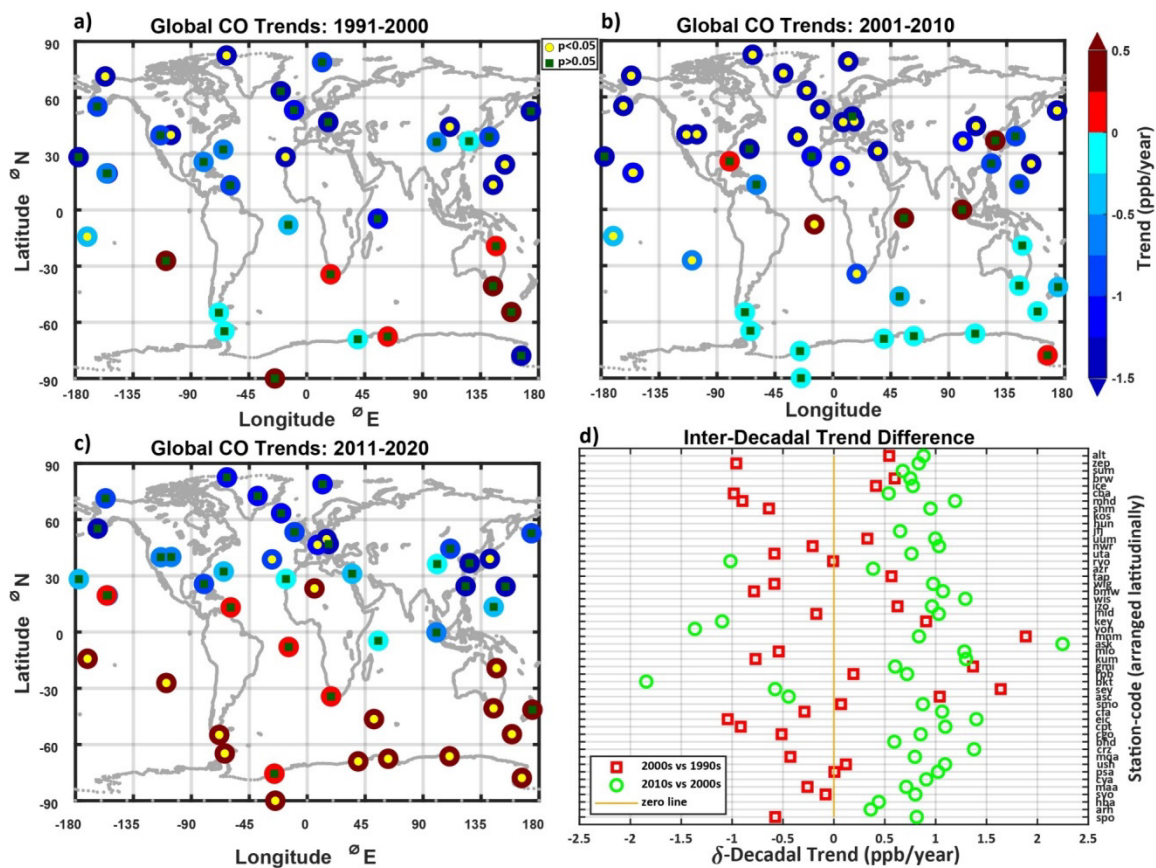
524 incident solar radiation. This indicates that a systematic relation (sync or anti) in BB emission  
525 regions between CO and OH can be very quickly perturbed. (Müller et al., 2016) investigated  
526 temporal evolution of BB plumes from its origin to several kilometers downwind using high  
527 precision measurements along with a photochemical box model and found stable OH radical  
528 concentrations of  $7.45 \pm 1.07 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  along a 13 km transect and NMOGs with more  
529 than 10 carbon atoms were found to be absent at mixing ratios larger than 50 pptv/ppmv CO  
530 emitted. Several studies have shown an enhancement in oxidation capacity of the atmosphere  
531 and hence OH formation during biomass burning and found a correlation between the  
532 interannual variation in O<sub>3</sub> and burned area (Zhu et al., 2021). While O<sub>3</sub> formation was found  
533 to be mainly limited by the availability of NO<sub>x</sub>, depending on the fuel nitrogen content and  
534 the combustion efficiency (Jaffe and Wigder, 2012), an efficient HO<sub>2</sub> regeneration was also  
535 observed (Alvarado et al., 2015). The HO<sub>2</sub> regeneration can increase the OH levels through  
536 recycling while CO levels can be enhanced through oxidation of carbon compounds changing  
537 the OH-CO relationship from anti to sync and vice versa through high OH reactivity of a  
538 plethora of C compounds. The biomass burning net influence in South-East Asia was found  
539 to be large at 50% for OH, 40% for HO<sub>2</sub>, 60% for HCHO, and 10 ppbv for O<sub>3</sub> along with an  
540 enhancement of CO. While on one hand, the OH decrease due to BB influence can be upto  
541 40% in downwind regions below 1 km altitude, the BB nonradiative influence on OH  
542 becomes positive and can enhance OH concentrations by up to 90% (Tang et al., 2003).

543

544 Interesting, in the 2000s, most of these positive trends in SH had turned into negative. Going  
545 by the previous logic, the El-Nino events towards end of the 2000s decade were weaker.  
546 Under unstressed conditions, OH is mostly well-buffered and recycling would restore OH  
547 levels and the loss mechanisms will operate smoothly (Lelieveld et al., 2016; Mallik et al.,  
548 2018). Most of the European stations have continued their overall decreasing trend from



549 1990s into the 2000s. Interestingly, the negative trends over Korea during the 1990s have  
 550 turned into positive (although very close to zero) during the 2000s. Although along with  
 551 developed regions of the world in USA and Europe, most of the stations in East Asia also  
 552 continued with negative trends (Table S1, Figure 7). The tropical regions around Africa and  
 553 Asia have also shown positive trends in the 2000s, dominated by biomass burning effects  
 554 (Figure 4). The positive trends at 'tap' is consistent with other studies which says that the  
 555 trends at northeast Asia could potentially be effected by the changes in meteorology (Jiang et  
 556 al., 2017).



557  
 558  
 559 **Figure 7.** Decadal decouple of CO trends into 1990s, 2000s and 2010s. Representation of  
 560 non-uniform decrease in all decades mostly in SH whereas a continuous decrease in NH. But  
 561 a positive inter-decadal trend difference ( $\delta$ -trend) reveals the weakening of decreasing trends  
 562 of CO in 2010s w.r.t to previous decades.

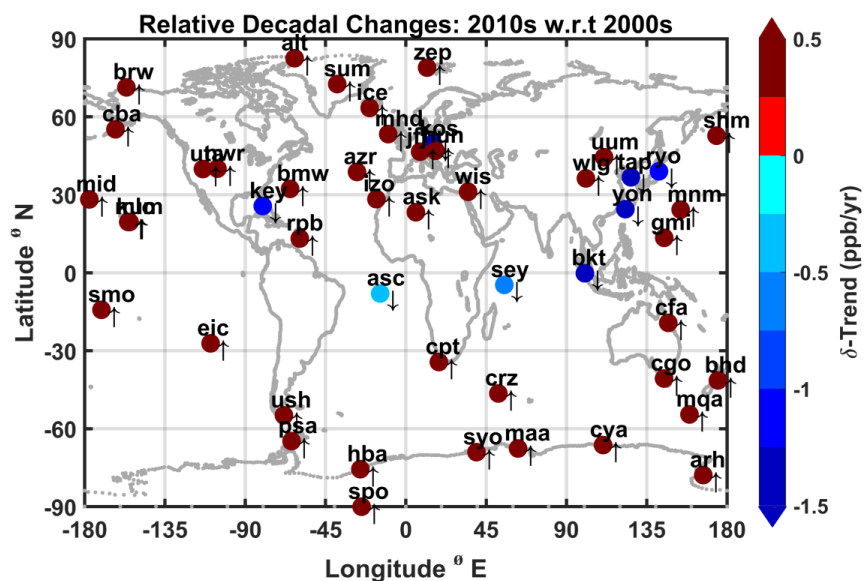
563

564 When it comes to 2010s, it is observed that trends are positive for 20 out of 49 stations. In  
565 fact, all 16 sites in SH ( $> 10^{\circ}\text{S}$ ) have shown positive trends such that 15 sites had negative  
566 trends in 2000s. Though NH sites have continued to show negative trend in 2010s decade but  
567 a decline in the strength of decreasing trend has been observed for many NH sites, too. The  
568 inter-decadal trend difference ( $\delta$ -trend) of 2010s and 2000s for each station showed positive  
569  $\delta$ -trend difference in total 41 out of 49 stations averaging to  $0.96 \pm 0.42$  i.e. there is observed  
570 slowdown in decreasing rate of CO trends in 2010s (Figure 7). This *global reversal* of CO  
571 trends in 2010s is visible in many stations barring a few stations in Europe, Pacific and  
572 Atlantic. Figure 8 shows the sites where relative decadal changes i.e. relative  
573 uptrend/downtrend reversal during 2010s w.r.t. 2000s is observed. Sites of relative +ve  $\delta$ -  
574 trend are observed in 41 out of 49 which means the strength of CO negative trends has been  
575 weakened at these sites in the recent decade of 2010s. Relative downtrend are the -ve  $\delta$ -trend  
576 sites where CO is decreasing at a higher rate in 2010s than 2000s (Figure S7). It can be  
577 concluded that though the trends are still negative but CO is decreasing at a slower rate  
578 during 2010s with respect to 2000s. This conclusion is largely in consistent with (Buchholz et  
579 al., 2021) in which a global slowdown in the CO decline has been shown in 2010s as  
580 compared to CO trends from earlier studies using TIR CO satellite records from MOPITT,  
581 AIRS, TES, IASI. The reversal in CO trends in 2010s can have several reasons depending on  
582 the station location.

583

584 However, the large heterogeneity in the rate of decrease in each of the cluster (Table S1)  
585 points to strong local effects in addition to an overwhelming global effect like ENSO events  
586 pointing to increased CO emissions from a warming climate (Figures S3 and S2). The local  
587 effects can be either be change in emission patterns or the change in CO loss chemistry

588 mediated by the OH mixing ratios and recycling probabilities. Despite an overall global effort  
589 in curbing emissions, the enhanced CO columns could be influenced by fire and  
590 anthropogenic emissions (Buchholz et al., 2021). The overall decrease in CO coincides with  
591 advancements in the combustion efficiency of anthropogenic sources (B Zheng et al., 2018),  
592 a reduction in global fire emissions from 1997 to 2009 (van der Werf et al., 2010), and a  
593 negative trend in burned area (Andela et al., 2017). Since 33% of the world's CO emissions  
594 come from fire emission (Y. Yin et al., 2015), a trend in fires can have a significant impact  
595 on atmospheric CO. (Buchholz et al., 2021; McDonald et al., 2013) suggests that the  
596 slowdown in decreasing CO may be caused by diminishing returns from advancements in  
597 combustion efficiency and emission controls. . This is because unlike NO<sub>x</sub> which have  
598 predominant contributions from anthropogenic emissions, CO sources have competing  
599 anthropogenic and natural/biomass burning components (Strode and Pawson, 2013). Thus CO  
600 reduction efforts must consider fire mitigation and containment strategies. Despite opposite  
601 trends in NO<sub>x</sub> over Korean (tap) and Japanese (mnm) sites (Figure S8 & Figure S10), the  
602 decreasing effect on CO is more homogeneous (Figure S8). Apart from the atmospheric  
603 chemistry component, the much longer lifetime of CO compared to NO<sub>x</sub> allows for  
604 atmospheric transport mechanism to impact the CO budget. As transport patterns change  
605 season wise, the seasonal variation of CO trends is investigated to understand the role of  
606 atmospheric transport on CO trends.



607

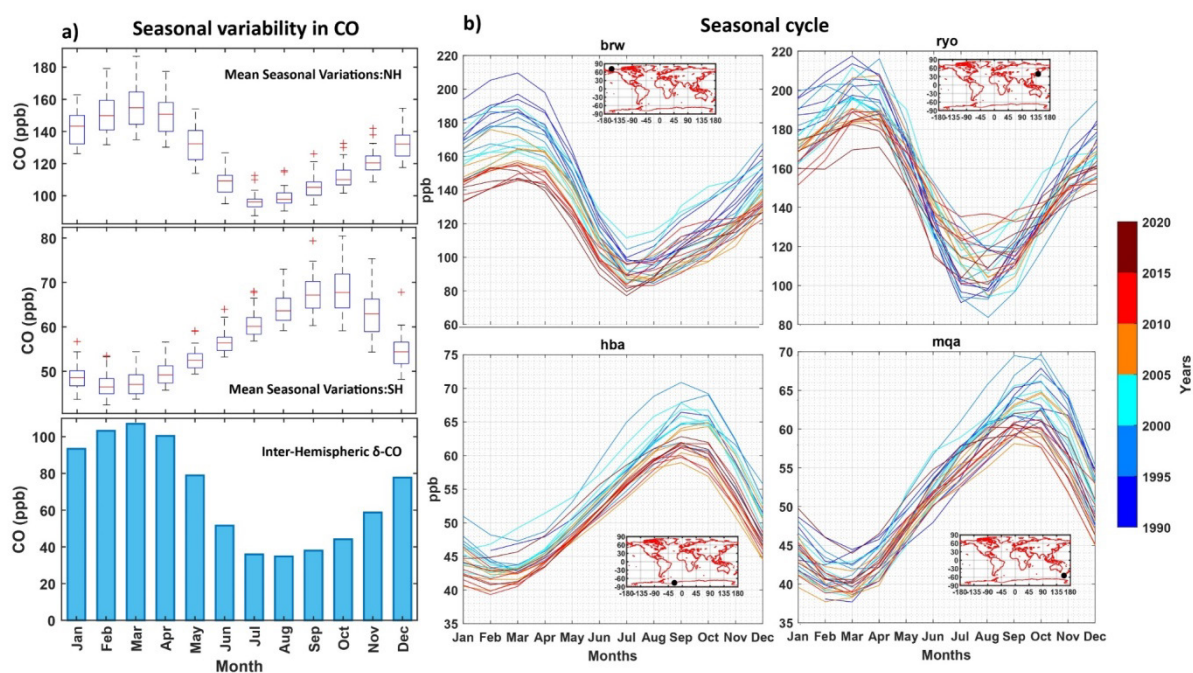
608 **Figure 8.** Spatial representation of relative decadal changes in growth rate in 2011-2020  
 609 decade with respect to 2001-2010.  $\delta$ -Trend is the difference of growth rates in 2010s and  
 610 2000s. +ve difference in  $\delta$ -Trend meaning the magnitude of negative growth rates in CO has  
 611 been reduced or have become positive and vice versa in the recent decade. Red/brown  
 612 markers are the spatially distributed 39 out of 49 sites depicting CO is decreasing with slower  
 613 rate or have positively increasing trend during 2010s with respect to 2000s.

614

### 615 3.3. Seasonal variations in CO trends

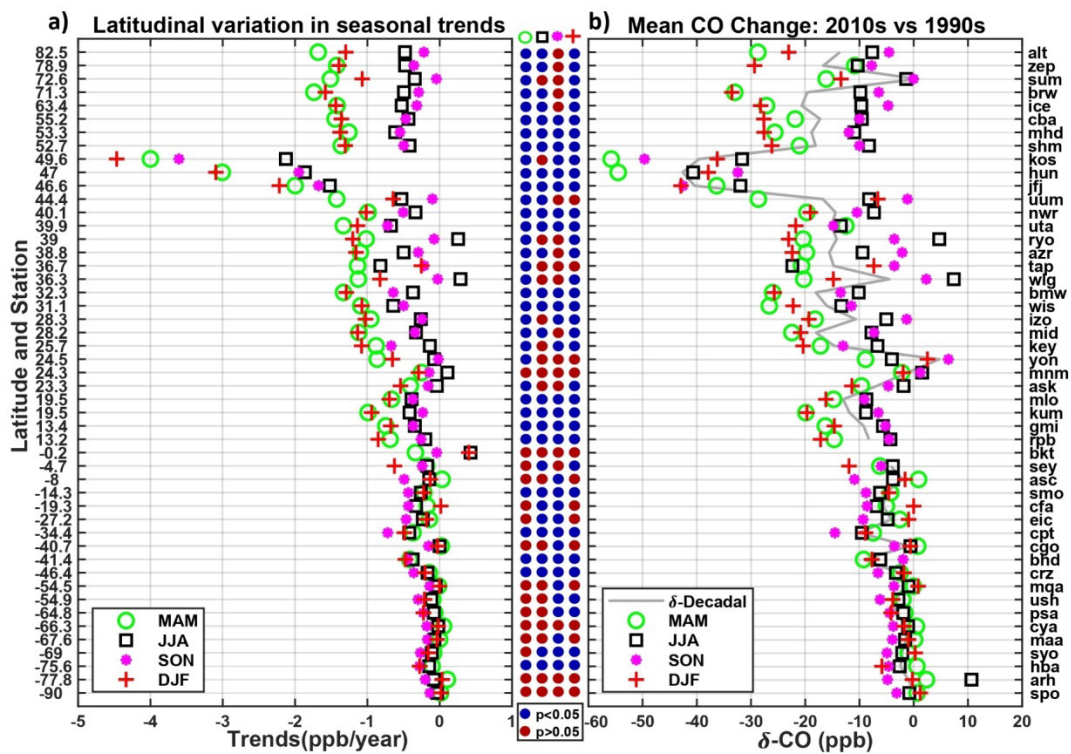
616 Peaks of CO mixing ratio are found from late winters to early springs and minimum during  
 617 summer season. In NH, February- March are the peak and July-August are the minimum CO  
 618 months (Figure 9, Table S2). Similarly, in SH, spring months i.e., September-October  
 619 exhibits the peak mixing ratios consistent with (Osman et al., 2016) . Biomass burning is very  
 620 favorable during this period on the south of equator due to which SH has sharper peaks than  
 621 NH (Chandra et al., 2016; Worden et al., 2013). A seasonal pattern in the inter-hemispheric  
 622 CO mixing ratio difference is observed with maximum difference (103-107 ppb) during  
 623 February-March (103-107 ppb) and a minimum difference (~34-35 ppb) (Figure 9) during  
 624 July-August. CO destruction by OH is high during summer (Khalil and Rasmussen, 1990).

625 Photolysis in the presence of higher temperature and atmospheric moisture results in high OH  
 626 primary production in summer (Hildebrandt et al., 2010) leading to CO chemical losses by  
 627 OH mediated oxidation resulting in reduced CO mixing ratios (Worden et al., 2013).  
 628 Oxidation by OH also reduces the lifetime of CO to few weeks (~10 days) in summer  
 629 whereas during winters its lifetime can extend to a few months (>60 days) (Holloway et al.,  
 630 2000).



631  
 632 **Figure 9.** a) The box plot shows the average range of CO values varied in each month  
 633 between 1991-2020. The variability of CO (ppb) values shows that highest differences are  
 634 observed during Feb-March and lowest in July-August in between both hemispheres. b)  
 635 Mean seasonal variations in CO Seasonal cycles of CO at 2 sites each in the NH (top row)  
 636 and SH (bottom row). A blue to red color shift correspond to the reduction in the range of CO  
 637 (ppb) seasonal.  
 638  
 639 Decomposition of the CO time series into seasonal trend component (1991-2020) reveals the  
 640 season which has a dominant impact on CO trends. The seasonal trend analysis is performed  
 641 for each meteorological season (Table S3) in NH and SH. Seasonal trend slopes are

642 calculated using the Sen Slope method on annually averaged season-wise CO values. In NH,  
 643 decreasing trend is dominating in DJF and MAM seasons while in SH the overall trends are  
 644 controlled by SON. There is a large difference ( $> -1.01$  ppb/yr,  $p < 0.05$ ) in the inter-seasonal  
 645 trends (between DJF, MAM and JJA, SON) at higher latitudes ( $50^{\circ}\text{N} - 90^{\circ}\text{N}$ ) (Figure 10) i.e.,  
 646 CO is decreasing at a higher rate in winter and spring than other seasons at higher latitudes.  
 647 Seasonal trends during DJF and MAM are close to  $\sim -1.35$  to  $-1.48$  ppb/yr,  $p < 0.01$  for each  
 648 respective station at this latitude belt and for JJA and SON are  $\sim -0.47$  &  $-0.34$  ppb/yr,  $p <$   
 649  $0.01$ . This dominance of DJF and MAM is noticeable in NH and as going down south of  
 650 equator SON starts dominating the decreasing trend, though magnitude of decreasing trends  
 651 remains very low and barely falls below  $-0.5$  ppb/yr in any season.



652 **Figure 10.** Latitudinal gradient of CO seasonal (DJF, MAM, JJA, SON) trends and overall  
 653 decrease in CO mixing ratio during 1991-2020. Extreme negative trends in  $40^{\circ}\text{N} - 50^{\circ}\text{N}$   
 654 resulted in maximum CO (ppb) decrease over these sites ( $> -30$  ppb) in all seasons. SON  
 655 season dominated an average reduction of  $\sim 3.5 - 3.7$  ppb in SH.  
 656  
 657

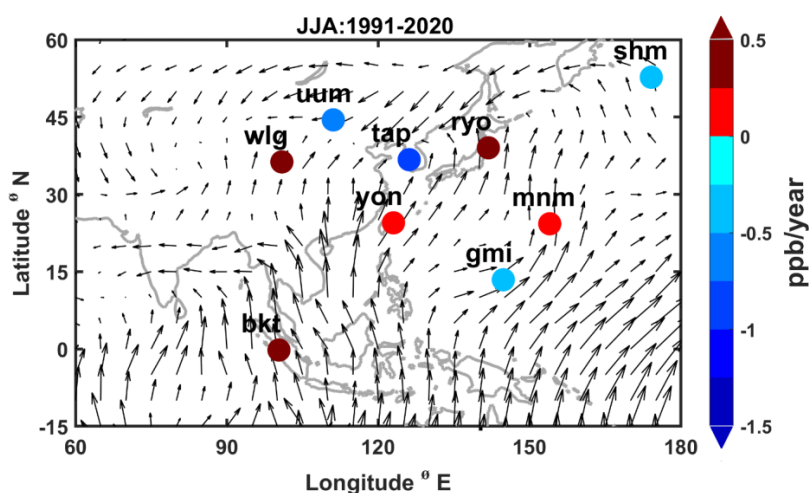


658 A difference of averaged decadal CO mixing ratio of 2010s and 1990s shows that on average,  
659 there is a decrease of -12.6 to -14.8 ppb,  $p < 0.05$  in NH sites with large decreases ( $> -40$  ppb)  
660 seen in  $45^{\circ}\text{N}$  - $50^{\circ}\text{N}$  (Figure 10). 50% of this is attributed to the JJA season, in which average  
661 decrease is -7.08 to -8.03 ppb,  $p < 0.05$  in NH, while average decrease during the DJF and  
662 MAM seasons are -19.93 and -20.85 ppb,  $p < 0.05$  respectively. Similarly, SH station also  
663 has shown average -3.5,  $p < 0.05$  decreases over the period with the maximum decrease of -  
664 6.1 ppb,  $p < 0.05$  during SON season and -3.7 ppb,  $p < 0.05$  in other seasons. In NH,  
665 negative trends are observed consistent throughout the year. In contrast, SH exhibits most  
666 negative trends ( $p < 0.05$ ) specifically in SON season aligning with the most pronounced  
667 decline in CO levels occurs during the fire season along with global decrease in burned area  
668 reported by (Andela et al., 2017). Notably, the SON season has the most stations showing  
669 negative trends compared to other seasons (see Figure 10). This suggests that in other SH  
670 seasons, CO sources and sinks might be equilibrium, indicating that CO levels remain stable  
671 during these periods. In summary, in the NH, various factors contribute to the trend,  
672 including improved combustion efficiency, while in the SH, the main driver of CO level  
673 changes is wildfires (Buchholz et al., 2021).

674

675 While NH seasonal trends are dominated by negative values, 5 stations in South-East Asian  
676 region show positive trends during JJA (Figure 11). These stations are: 'bkt' (Indonesia),  
677 'mnm' (Japan), 'ryo' (Japan), 'wlg' (China), 'yon' (Japan). Atmospheric transport  
678 mechanisms are invoked to provide a first-hand explanation of these positive trends. During  
679 MAM season when CO mixing ratio is highest in the NH, it is seen that trends are less  
680 negative at 'mnm' site in Pacific compared to mainland Korean and Japanese sites which are  
681 still much lower compared to mainland China sites. This gradual decrease in trends from  
682 mainland China to the east towards Japan and finally the ocean is supported by the wind

683 patterns. Coastal South China experiences a significant influence from subregional and  
 684 regional-scale sources due to the multiscale transport and dispersion of air pollution.  
 685 Influenced by the Asian monsoon, stations in South China are primarily affected by marine  
 686 air from the South China Sea during the summer and by continental outflows from the  
 687 Eurasian Continent. Consequently, the region serves as an excellent receptor for continental  
 688 outflows, especially the regional emissions from East and South China (Ding et al., 2013;  
 689 Wang et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2011). (Ding et al., 2013) also concluded that the CO mixing  
 690 ratios during JJA months are influenced by coastal regions in South China and East China,  
 691 while North China is not a significant factor in this regard, considering the seasonal wind  
 692 patterns and air mass trajectories.



693  
 694 **Figure 11.** A contrasting positive trend over South-Asian sites during 1991-2020 in JJA  
 695 season. 5 out of 9 sites had positive trends unlike other seasons.

696  
 697 It is to be noted that stations with positive trends (Figure 11) are non-significant ( $p > 0.05$ )  
 698 and there are several factors that leads to non-significance CO trends during summer season  
 699 in this region. High variability in CO mixing ratios during these months can impact the  
 700 significance of trends (Zhang et al., 2020). Also, major tropical fire hotspots (the islands of  
 701 Kalimantan, Sumatra, and Papua; Indonesia) are in this region and fire emissions from these



702 boreal fires can be responsible for the weakening of the CO trend in this season (Buchholz et  
703 al., 2021; Fanin and van der Werf, 2017). This region has been affected by two strong  
704 biomass burning events in the middle of last two decades due to El-Nino events; one in 2006  
705 and occurred from late 2014 to early 2016. These biomass burning events have also  
706 contributed to the increase in CO mole fractions (Babu et al., 2021; Fadnavis et al., 2019;  
707 Ribeiro et al., 2020). CO trends indicates negative trends in this region when 2015 El-Nino  
708 driven fires are excluded from the analysis(Jiang et al., 2017). Furthermore, agricultural  
709 burning, which typically peaks in June (Li et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2017), may potentially be a  
710 factor in the elevated CO levels. Studies have suggested an increase in strength of the  
711 summer monsoon rainfall over China and a decrease in number dry days (Li and Hu, 2019).  
712 A possible result of this may be the observed increase cloud cover (Cai et al., 2017) leading  
713 to decreased primary production of OH and hence decreased photochemical losses of CO  
714 causing an enhancement in trend.

715

716 (Xiong et al., 2022) provided long term seasonal analysis between 2004-2019 at higher  
717 altitude site in China ('wlg'). This study revealed that there was a distinct increasing trend for  
718 the amplitude of CO mole fraction in diurnal cycle in summer., The highest CO mole  
719 fractions increased from  $152.3 \pm 7.4$  ppb in to  $180.4 \pm 20.3$  ppb between 2004-2019  
720 specifically to daytime in summer season. CO generally peaks in afternoon and then  
721 decreases in other seasons but it was observed that in summer it rises again from afternoon  
722 and reaches maximum value in dusk. In this season, the strengthening of wind (Wang et al.,  
723 2006) in the afternoon is responsible for local transport of emitted CO to 'wlg' which lead to  
724 second peak at dusk. In the nearby Chinese province of Qinghai, urban industrialization led  
725 to extensive fossil fuel consumption, which increased CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from 19.0 MT to 51.9  
726 MT between 2004 and 2018, with coal accounting for most of that increase having highest

727 peak of 212.0 MT in 2014-2015. In Gansu (another nearby province) also CO<sub>2</sub> emission  
728 reached to highest peak of 209.0 MT in 2015. Due to the significant contribution of this, CO  
729 emissions in urban areas increased over time and eventually reached 'wlg' with air masses  
730 (Lin et al., 2011; Xiong et al., 2022)

731  
732 MOPITT constrained inverse analysis suggested decreasing CO emissions from east China  
733 (Strode and Pawson, 2013; Worden et al., 2013) between 2008-2014 however there is an  
734 increase of 6 ppb in CO concentrations over the outflow of east China during this period  
735 (Jiang et al., 2017). This increase has been influenced by a considerable increase in  
736 anthropogenic emissions from India and southeast Asia and this could be a possible reason  
737 for the rise in CO concentration that WDCGG stations have reported in this region (Jiang et  
738 al., 2015).

739

#### 740 **4. Conclusions**

741

742 This study utilizes the observations from 49 stations across the globe to understand the CO  
743 trend during 1991-2020. It mainly shows

744

- 745 1. Atmospheric CO exhibits a decreasing trend during 1991-2020 although it is not  
746 homogenously decreasing globally on spatial and temporal scale.
- 747 2. CO changes have a latitudinal and regional dependency. Negative trends are more  
748 prominent in northern higher latitudes. Sites in midlatitudes (23.5°N-66.5°N) have the  
749 highest CO mixing ratio (150-250 ppb) and most negative trends. Trend ranges from -  
750 0.35 to -3.77 ppb/year between 25°N -90°N and -0.02 to -0.46 ppb/year between 25°S  
751 -90°S. Different regions have different rates of decreasing trends within the

752 hemisphere i.e., European continent has higher decreasing trends than USA and Asian  
753 continent in NH. When it comes to emissions, there a difference on CO growth rate,  
754 depending on where CO emission change occurred. If CO emissions changed in the  
755 high latitudes (long lifetime region) the effect on CO growth rate is bigger, and any  
756 change in CO emission in the tropical latitudes (short lifetime region) has lesser  
757 impact on CO growth rate.

758 3. There is strong inter-hemispheric gradient in decreasing trend and in CO mixing ratio.  
759 The peak CO mixing ratio of every SH site are below the base mixing ratio of NH  
760 sites. A maximum difference in CO (ppb) between NH and SH is 103-107 ppb during  
761 Feb-Mar and minimum difference of 35-36 ppb during July-August.

762 4. CO was decreasing with stronger rate till 2000s but a reversal is observed in 2010s as  
763 the strength of decreasing CO has weakened in 2010-2020 decade. Given that the  
764 global total emissions did not increase much in 2001-2010, it may be related to  
765 several factors like ENSO modulating interdecadal CO growth rate highlighting the  
766 relevance of climate vis a vis emissions in modulating the growth rate.

767 5. Our analysis points to a weakening of the negative growth rate in CO in the 2011-  
768 2020 period compared to the previous decade. This observation, however, does not  
769 imply that the recent reduction in growth rate will continue to weaken in future or  
770 even turn in to an increasing trend. However, these observations provide a  
771 challenging background for modeling studies of CO to understand past trends under  
772 different scenarios of emission and project for the future possibilities. Both the  
773 emission and loss budget scenarios must be considered in order to explain the CO  
774 trends.

775 6. Among all regional clusters, Cluster-1 (European region) showed a largest and  
776 continuous decrease in CO in 1991-2020.

- 777 7. NH sites have maximum CO in DJF-MAM seasons and SON season dominates in SH.  
778 8. There is an average reduction of  $-16.22 \pm 1.92$  ppb and  $-4.5 \pm 0.64$  ppb CO in the  
779 NH and SH respectively between 1991-2020.

780

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1251 **Figure 11.** A contrasting positive trend over South-Asian sites during 1991-2020 in JJA  
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