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1 **300 years of Tropospheric Ozone changes using CMIP6 Scenarios with a**
2 **Parameterised Approach**

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7

8 **Abstract**

9 Tropospheric Ozone (O₃) is both an air pollutant and a greenhouse gas. Predicting changes
10 to O₃ is therefore important for both air quality and near-term climate forcing. It is
11 computationally expensive to predict changes in tropospheric O₃ from every possible future
12 scenario in composition climate models like those used in the 6th Coupled Model
13 Intercomparison Project (CMIP6). Here we apply the different emission pathways used in
14 CMIP6 with a model based on source-receptor relationships for tropospheric O₃ to predict
15 historical and future changes in O₃ and its radiative forcing over a 300 year period (1750 to
16 2050). Changes in regional precursor emissions (nitrogen oxides, carbon monoxide and
17 volatile organic compounds) and global methane abundance are used to quantify the impact
18 on tropospheric O₃ globally and across 16 regions, neglecting any impact from changes in
19 climate. We predict large increases in global surface O₃ (+8 ppbv) and O₃ radiative forcing
20 (+0.3 W m⁻²) over the industrial period. Nine different Shared Socio-economic Pathways are
21 used to assess future changes in O₃. Scenarios involving weak air pollutant controls and
22 climate mitigation are inadequate in limiting the future degradation of surface O₃ air quality
23 and enhancement of near-term climate warming over all regions. Middle-of-the-road and
24 strong mitigation scenarios reduce both surface O₃ concentrations and O₃ radiative forcing by
25 up to 5 ppbv and 0.17 W m⁻² globally, providing benefits to future air quality and near-term
26 climate forcing. Sensitivity experiments show that targeting mitigation measures towards
27 reducing global methane abundances could yield additional benefits for both surface O₃ air
28 quality and near-term climate forcing. The parameterisation provides a valuable tool for rapidly
29 assessing a large range of future emission pathways that involve differing degrees of air
30 pollutant and climate mitigation. The calculated range of possible responses in tropospheric
31 O₃ from these scenarios can be used to inform other modelling studies in CMIP6.

32 Keywords – Ozone, air quality, climate, radiative forcing, CMIP6

33 1.0 Introduction

34 Tropospheric Ozone (O₃) is an important trace gas in the atmosphere, and is both an air
35 pollutant and a climate forcing agent. At the Earth's surface elevated concentrations of O₃ are
36 harmful to human health (Jerrett et al., 2009; Malley et al., 2017; Turner et al., 2016) and can
37 affect ecosystems (Fowler et al., 2009). O₃ in the troposphere acts as a greenhouse gas by
38 interacting with outgoing longwave radiation, resulting in a net warming impact on climate of
39 +0.4 (0.2 to 0.6) W m⁻² over the industrial period (Myhre et al., 2013; Stevenson et al., 2013).
40 The relatively short lifetime of O₃ in the troposphere (~3 weeks, Young et al., 2013) means
41 that it is classified as a Near Term Climate Forcer (NTCF), having an important influence on
42 climate over shorter timescales. Understanding how tropospheric O₃ changes is important for
43 both future air quality and climate.

44 Tropospheric O₃ is a secondary pollutant that can be formed from both local and remote
45 precursor emissions (Fiore et al., 2009). It is therefore influenced by both national and
46 international emission control measures. Changes in global methane (CH₄) abundance and
47 climate change also affect O₃ formation. These global changes are influenced by changes in
48 future emission policies, adding additional uncertainty to the O₃ response (Fiore et al., 2012;
49 Jacob and Winner, 2009; von Schneidemesser et al., 2015). It is therefore vital to consider the
50 impact on tropospheric O₃ from a range of different future scenarios to ascertain which have
51 beneficial effects over key regions.

52 A multi-model assessment of historical and future changes in tropospheric O₃ was made in
53 the Atmospheric Chemistry and Climate Model Intercomparison Project (ACCMIP), using
54 future changes in climate and O₃ precursor emissions from the Representative Concentration
55 Pathways (RCPs) (Lamarque et al., 2013). The models participating in ACCMIP predicted
56 changes in global annual mean surface O₃ concentrations between 2000 and 2030 of ±1.5
57 ppbv using the different RCPs (Young et al., 2013). More recent single model estimates by
58 O'Connor et al., (2014) and Kim et al., (2015) predict a surface O₃ response across the
59 different RCPs of between -4.0 to +2.0 ppbv by 2050 (relative to 2000). Global annual mean
60 tropospheric O₃ burden was predicted to change by between -18% and +20% from 2000 to
61 2100 in the different RCPs (Cionni et al., 2011; Kawase et al., 2011; O'Connor et al., 2014;
62 Young et al., 2013). For the ACCMIP models, Stevenson et al., (2013) calculated that
63 tropospheric O₃ radiative forcing (relative to 2000) varies between -0.05 and +0.08 W m⁻² in
64 2030 and between -0.19 and +0.22 W m⁻² in 2100 across the range of the RCPs. For RCP8.5,
65 Iglesias-Suarez et al., (2018) predicted a whole atmosphere O₃ radiative forcing of +0.43 ±
66 0.11 W m⁻² in 2100 (relative to 2000), with +0.3 ± 0.05 W m⁻² due to tropospheric O₃ and +0.13
67 ± 0.04 W m⁻² from stratospheric O₃. Future tropospheric O₃ may therefore either increase or
68 decrease depending on the mitigation measures assumed in the scenario. In addition, the
69 spread of the model responses in ACCMIP can be as much as 50% of the reported multi-
70 model mean values, highlighting the large uncertainty in the future prediction of tropospheric
71 O₃ across different models.

72 ACCMIP formed part of the 5th Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP5) and used air
73 pollutant precursor emissions that spanned a relatively narrow range of future trajectories in
74 the RCPs (Rao et al., 2017). In preparation for the 6th CMIP (CMIP6) a new set of historical
75 and future pathways have been created. Five different socio-economic pathways (SSPs) have
76 been developed with centennial trends based on different combinations of social, economic
77 and environmental developments (O'Neill et al., 2014). Different levels of emission mitigation

78 are included within a specific SSP, to meet a particular climate target and a defined amount
79 of air pollution control (Rao et al., 2017; Riahi et al., 2017). The SSPs allow for a wider range
80 of future trajectories in air pollutant precursors to be explored than was possible in CMIP5 with
81 the RCPs.

82 Here we utilise the historical and future scenarios used in CMIP6 with the parameterised
83 approach of Turnock et al., (2018) to quantify the response of tropospheric O₃ to changes in
84 regional precursor emissions and global CH₄ abundances. The parameterisation uses source-
85 receptor relationships derived from the response of models to emission precursor perturbation
86 experiments, conducted as part of Phase 2 of the Hemispheric Transport of Air Pollutants
87 (HTAP) project (Turnock et al., 2018). Whilst it is not intended to replace full atmospheric
88 chemistry simulations, the parameterisation allows rapid assessment and provides a first look
89 at the impact of all future CMIP6 scenarios on surface O₃ air quality and near-term O₃ radiative
90 forcing. It calculates the response of tropospheric O₃ across the industrial period and to all
91 available future SSPs, permitting simple identification of the most interesting SSPs to
92 investigate in more detail using the current generation of chemistry, climate and Earth system
93 models.

94 In this paper we briefly describe the historical emissions and those in the SSPs that are used
95 with the parameterisation to predict changes in tropospheric O₃ and its radiative forcing. We
96 quantify changes in surface O₃, tropospheric O₃ burden and O₃ radiative forcing over the
97 historical period (1750 to 2014) and provide the first results from future scenarios used in
98 CMIP6 (2015 to 2050, when the impact of climate change is relatively small). The O₃ response
99 is solely due to changes in anthropogenic emissions of O₃ precursors and CH₄ abundance,
100 neglecting any impact from climate change. Here, we extend the analysis with a limited
101 number of CMIP6 scenarios by attributing changes in O₃ to anthropogenic emission source
102 sectors and by using idealised experiments to explore the impact on O₃ of mitigation measures
103 solely targeting CH₄. Finally, we summarise how different policy measures in the SSPs impact
104 future surface O₃ air quality and O₃ climate forcing.

105 **2.0 Methods**

106 2.1 Ozone Parameterisation

107 The approach used in this study is a parameterisation of O₃ changes developed previously by
108 Wild et al., (2012) and Turnock et al., (2018). The parameterisation uses the source-receptor
109 relationships from models participating in the HTAP project, derived from perturbation
110 experiments of regional precursor emissions and global CH₄ abundances. The input to the
111 parameterisation is the individual model O₃ response to changes in global CH₄ abundance
112 and to 20% reductions of nitrogen oxide (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO) and non-methane
113 volatile organic compound (NMVOC) emissions within each source region (14 source regions
114 in total over the globe, see Figure S1). The parameterisation accounts for the effect of
115 emission and CH₄ changes on O₃ but neglects any influence from changes in climate, as the
116 HTAP simulations were performed for a single meteorological year corresponding to 2010.

117 For a particular emission scenario, the fractional precursor emission (NO_x, CO, NMVOCs)
118 and CH₄ abundance change (r) is calculated relative to the original 20% emission (E)
119 perturbation (Eq. 1). This linear emission scaling factor is applied to the O₃ response for
120 changes in CO and NMVOCs (Eq. 2), but a non-linear scaling factor (Eq. 3) is used for
121 changes in NO_x and CH₄ and (Eq. 4) for conditions where O₃ titration occurs (an O₃ increase

122 for a decrease in NO_x). For each source region the multi-model monthly O₃ response (Eq. 5)
 123 from the 20% emission perturbation experiments (ΔO_3 for emissions of NO_x, CO and
 124 NMVOCs and ΔO_{3m} for CH₄) are then scaled by the relevant emission scaling factor (f). The
 125 total monthly mean O₃ response (ΔO_3) over each receptor region (k) is the sum of the
 126 individual O₃ responses from each model to global CH₄ changes and the different emission
 127 precursors (i) across all source regions (j).

$$128 \quad r_{ij} = \frac{\Delta E_{ij}}{-0.2 \times E_{ij}} \text{ or } \frac{\Delta[CH_4]}{-0.2 \times [CH_4]} \quad (1)$$

$$129 \quad f_{ij} = r_{ij} \quad \text{Linear Scaling of } O_3 \text{ response} \quad (2)$$

$$130 \quad f_{ij} = 0.95r_{ij} + 0.05r_{ij}^2 \quad \text{Scaling accounting for reduced } O_3 \text{ increases from } NO_x \text{ and } CH_4 \quad (3)$$

$$131 \quad f_{ij} = 1.05r_{ij} - 0.05r_{ij}^2 \quad \text{Scaling for titration regimes where decreasing } NO_x \text{ increases} \quad (4)$$

$$132 \quad \Delta O_3(k) = \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^5 f_{ij} \Delta O_{3e}(i, j, k) + f_m \Delta O_{3m}(k) \quad (5)$$

133 The parameterisation provides the global and regional O₃ response at the surface and
 134 throughout the troposphere. The O₃ radiative forcing is then derived from the change in
 135 tropospheric O₃ burden using the multi-model ensemble mean relationship from ACCMIP
 136 (Stevenson et al., 2013). In this way the parameterisation can be used to rapidly assess the
 137 impact of changes in precursor emissions and CH₄ abundance on surface O₃ air quality and
 138 near term climate forcing due to O₃. In addition, a measure of uncertainty is generated by the
 139 parameterisation based on the range of HTAP multi-model responses.

140 We have updated the parameterisation used in Turnock et al., (2018) to rectify some small
 141 coding errors subsequently found in the calculation of tropospheric O₃ burden and O₃ radiative
 142 forcing. Table S1 reproduces Table 10 of Turnock et al., (2018) but includes results from the
 143 updated parameterisation used here. The surface O₃ response is unaffected by the updates,
 144 but the tropospheric O₃ burden and O₃ radiative forcing are reduced compared to that in
 145 Turnock et al., (2018), although still within or at the lower end of the range of the ACCMIP
 146 multi-model response.

147 The parameterisation has previously been shown to reproduce the O₃ response to different
 148 emission perturbations from full model simulations (Turnock et al., 2018; Wild et al., 2012).
 149 Here we use the parameterisation to quantify the O₃ response to CMIP6 historical emissions
 150 and to the full range of future SSPs, which include differing climate mitigation targets and
 151 various levels of air pollutant control. Using a combination of historical and future emissions
 152 we calculate 300 years of changes to tropospheric O₃. Further experiments are conducted
 153 with the parameterisation to attribute the change in tropospheric O₃ from different emission
 154 source sectors and the impact from mitigation scenarios solely targeting reductions in CH₄.

155 2.2 CMIP6 Emissions

156 A new set of historical anthropogenic emissions has been developed with the Community
 157 Emissions Data System (CEDS) (Hoesly et al., 2018). CEDS uses updated emissions factors
 158 to provide monthly emissions of the major aerosol and trace gas species over the period 1750
 159 to 2014 for use in CMIP6, and includes the interannual variation in biomass burning.

160 The SSPs used in CMIP6 represent an update from CMIP5 as they combine pathways of
 161 different greenhouse gas concentrations (RCPs) with new scenarios of socio-economic

162 development that encompass a range of challenges to mitigation and adaption (O'Neill et al.,
 163 2014; van Vuuren et al., 2014). Five different baseline SSPs (1-5) are used to represent
 164 different combinations of future social, environmental and economic development over the 21st
 165 Century (O'Neill et al., 2014; Riahi et al., 2017). The SSPs vary from those with lower resource
 166 and energy use (sustainability - SSP1) to those focussing on energy intensification and fossil
 167 fuel use (SSP5). Mapped onto each SSP is an assumption about the degree of air pollution
 168 control (strong, medium or weak), representing the different speeds and technological
 169 pathways to meet targets. Rising income levels and stricter air pollution controls are assumed
 170 to occur together, as control technology costs are lowered and a greater emphasis is placed
 171 on improving human health (Rao et al., 2017). This allows the SSPs to cover a wider range of
 172 future air pollutant emission trajectories in a greater number of scenarios than was possible in
 173 CMIP5, and supports the need for a rapid assessment tool to evaluate all scenarios.

174 The baseline SSPs are unable to reach lower radiative forcing targets and result in a climate
 175 radiative forcing of 5.0 – 8.7 W m⁻² by 2100 (Riahi et al., 2017). Different greenhouse gas
 176 mitigation strategies are introduced on top of each baseline SSP to achieve a defined climate
 177 radiative forcing target in 2100. A wide range of measures are used to achieve emission
 178 reductions and reflect the specific storyline of the SSP, e.g., carbon capture and storage,
 179 increased use of renewables, reduced agriculture emissions and afforestation. A summary of
 180 each scenario used in this study is shown in Table 1, with further details on each pathway
 181 presented in O'Neill et al., (2014), Rao et al., (2017), Riahi et al., (2017) and (Gidden et al.,
 182 2019).

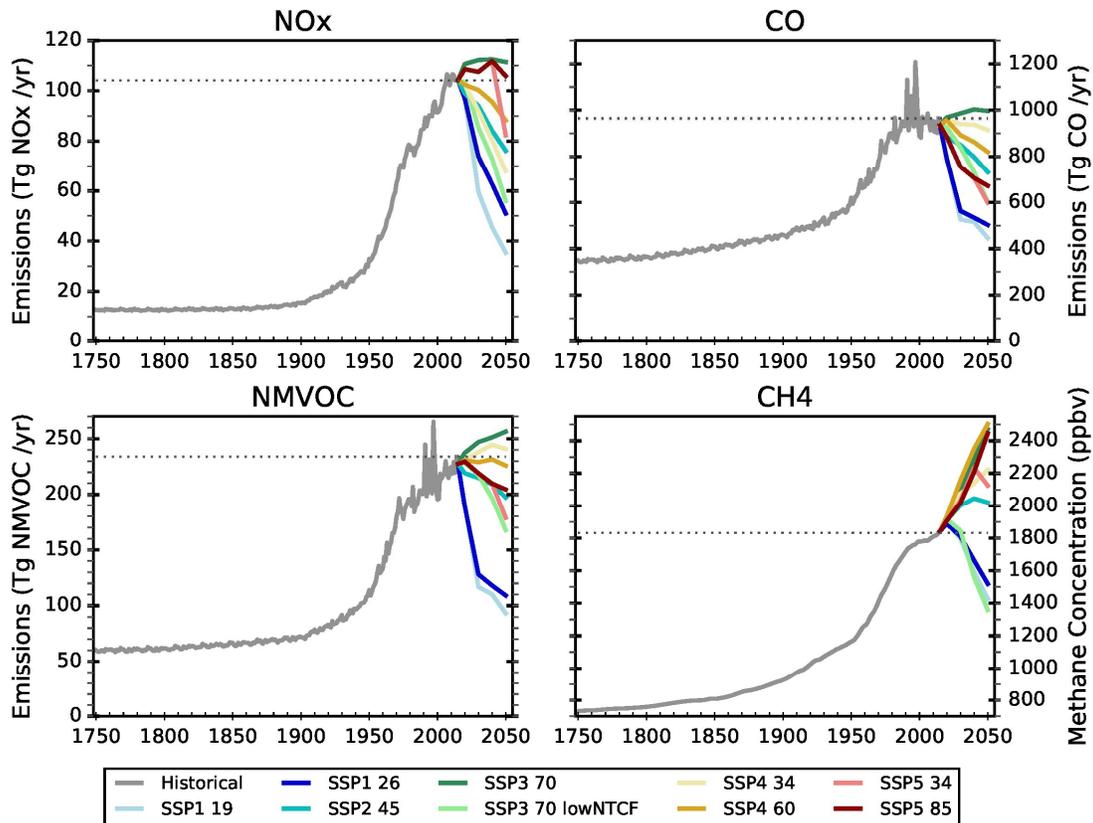
183 **Table 1** – Summary of all CMIP6 scenarios with gridded emissions that are used in this study

Scenario	SSP Narrative	Challenges for:		Climate Target (radiative forcing by 2100, W m ⁻²)	Level of Air Pollution Controls
		Mitigation	Adaption		
SSP1 1.9	Sustainability	Low	Low	1.9	Strong
SSP1 2.6	Sustainability	Low	Low	2.6	Strong
SSP2 4.5	Middle of the Road	Medium	Medium	4.5	Medium
SSP3 7.0	Regional Rivalry	High	High	7.0	Weak
SSP3 7.0 lowNTCF	Regional Rivalry	High	High	6.3*	Strong
SSP4 3.4	Inequality	Low	High	3.4	Weak
SSP4 6.0	Inequality	Low	High	6.0	Weak
SSP5 3.4	Fossil-fuelled Development	High	Low	3.4	Strong
SSP5 8.5	Fossil-fuelled Development	High	Low	8.5	Strong

184 * Climate target is lowered due to reduced contribution of NTCFs to end of century warming (Gidden et al., 2019).

185 In this study we have used changes in CH₄ abundance and anthropogenic emissions of NO_x,
 186 CO and NMVOCs from the historical dataset and nine SSPs developed for CMIP6 (Table 1).
 187 Similar climate forcing targets to those used in CMIP5 are included within SSP1 2.6, SSP2
 188 4.5, SSP3 7.0 and SSP5 8.5 scenarios. Additional scenarios with differing levels of climate
 189 mitigation (SSP1 1.9, SSP3 lowNTCF, SSP4 3.4, SSP4 6.0 and SSP5 3.4) are provided for
 190 CMIP6. The radiative forcing targets range from a strong mitigation scenario of 1.9 W m⁻²,
 191 which keeps temperatures well below 2°C by 2100 (in accordance with the Paris Agreement,
 192 (United Nations, 2016)), to a weak mitigation scenario with a radiative forcing of 8.5 W m⁻²,
 193 resulting in a temperature change of ~5°C by 2100 (Riahi et al., 2017). SSP3 7.0 lowNTCF is
 194 provided for the Aerosol and Chemistry Model Intercomparison Project (AerChemMIP)
 195 experiments (Collins et al., 2017) and represents a direct comparison to SSP3 7.0 but with
 196 substantially reduced NTCFs. SSP4 scenarios are included to study pathways with low

197 mitigation challenges that have strong land use and aerosol-climate effects (Gidden et al.,
 198 2019). SSP5 3.4 is a delayed mitigation scenario which follows the same pathway as SSP5
 199 8.5 up until 2040 but then implements policy measures to reduce warming in the latter half of
 200 the century.



201

202 **Figure 1** – Global total annual emissions of NO_x, CO and NMVOCs and the global CH₄ abundance
 203 from the CMIP6 historical and future scenarios dataset.

204 Figure 1 shows the global change in the emission of air pollutants (NO_x, CO and NMVOCs)
 205 and CH₄ abundance over the period 1750 to 2014 in the historical emissions and in the nine
 206 different future SSPs from 2015 to 2050. Global emissions of air pollutants remain low up until
 207 the early part of the 20th Century. In the second half of the 20th Century global emissions rapidly
 208 increase in response to industrialisation, particularly over Europe, North America and Asia
 209 (Table S2). On a global basis, SSP3 7.0 is the only scenario where global air pollutant
 210 emissions are not declining (relative to 2015). Large reductions in all air pollutant
 211 emissions are seen across all regions in SSP3 7.0 lowNTCF and the SSP1s (Table 1 and Table S3-S4)
 212 due to large reductions in the energy, industrial, residential and transport sectors (Figures S2-
 213 S4, Tables S5-S7). In SSP3 7.0 and SSP5 8.5 air pollution emissions tend to increase in most
 214 regions, apart from Europe and North America. Emissions decrease across most regions
 215 in the SSP2 and SSP4 scenarios, apart from in South Asia where emissions increase for almost
 216 all scenarios, mainly from the energy, industrial and transport sectors (Figure S5).

217 CH₄ abundances show a continuous increasing trend over the historical period from 731 ppbv
 218 in 1750 to 1831 ppbv in 2014, with the most rapid changes occurring since the 1950s. Over
 219 the period 2015 to 2050 most of the future scenarios show an increase in global CH₄

220 abundance of between 10% and 36%, apart from the three scenarios with the strongest
 221 climate and air pollutant mitigation (SSP1 1.9, SSP1 2.6 and SSP3 7.0 lowNTCF), where CH₄
 222 abundance reduces by 18% to 26% (Table 2).

223 **Table 2** – Percentage change in global methane abundance and in global and regional total
 224 (anthropogenic, shipping and biomass burning sectors) annual NO_x emissions in 2050, relative to 2015,
 225 over each source region for the different CMIP6 emission scenarios. Positive changes are shown in
 226 bold. Regions are as defined in Figure S1.

Annual Total Emissions Change in 2050 (%) from 2015									
Region	SSP1	SSP1	SSP2	SSP3	SSP3 7.0	SSP4	SSP4	SSP5	SSP5
	1.9	2.6	4.5	7.0	NTCF	3.4	6.0	3.4	8.5
Global CH ₄	-22	-18	+10	+34	-26	+21	+36	+15	+33
Global NO _x	-66	-51	-27	+7	-46	-35	-15	-21	+2
Central America	-58	-42	-20	+27	-51	-41	-25	0	+32
Central Asia	-32	-6	+11	+27	-37	-26	-11	-13	+4
East Asia	-79	-68	-53	+17	-44	-61	-27	-29	-12
Europe	-79	-74	-50	-38	-58	-64	-43	-34	-14
Middle East	-77	-55	-22	+46	-63	-42	-25	-39	-12
North Africa	-45	-4	+10	+54	-46	-1	+18	+10	+51
North America	-82	-74	-59	-37	-60	-61	-45	-49	-29
North Pole	-92	-86	-36	-43	-84	-56	-48	-46	-32
Ocean	-88	-78	-29	-27	-79	-47	-34	-35	-14
Pacific Aus NZ	-52	-46	-37	-13	-42	-32	-18	-22	-14
Rus Bel Ukr	-56	-50	-17	-14	-60	-59	-37	-42	-26
South America	-59	-46	-23	+13	-38	-39	-18	-9	+12
South Asia	-59	-25	+29	+72	+3	+11	+50	+12	+52
South East Asia	-49	-26	-24	+33	-31	+46	+18	-22	+6
Southern Africa	-10	+3	-14	-8	-33	-9	-2	+9	+25

227

228 **3.0 Results**

229 3.1 Historical Changes

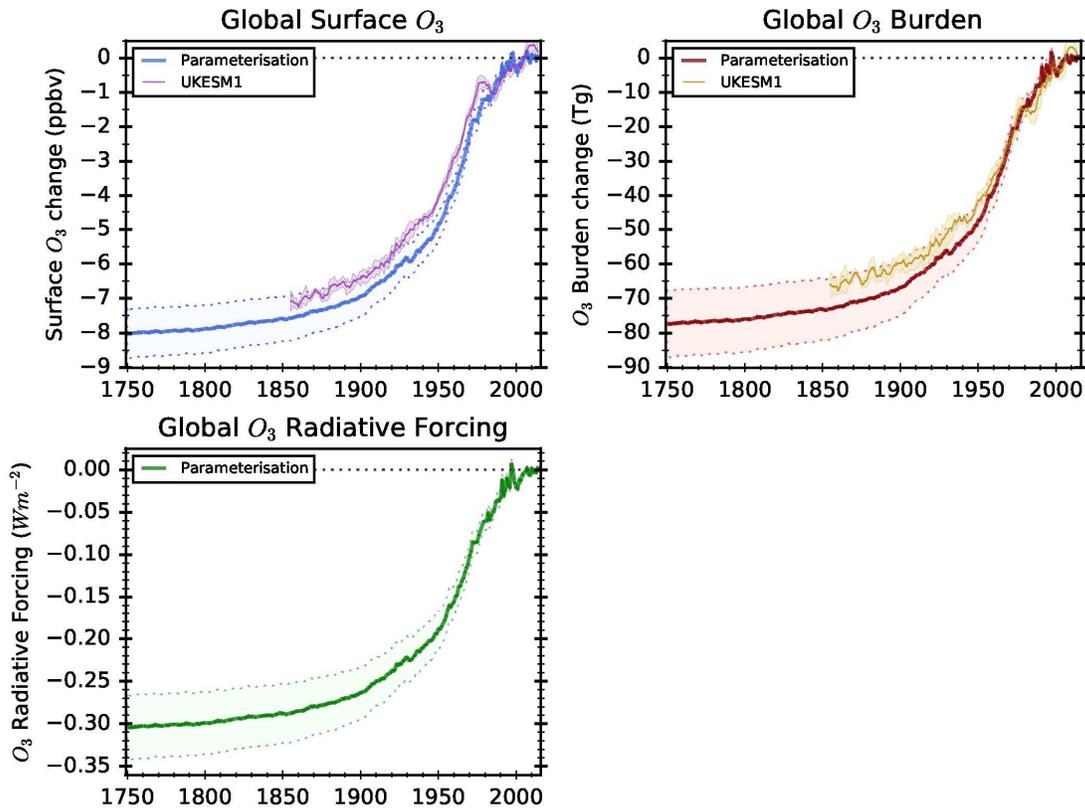
230 The parameterisation reveals that global annual mean surface O₃, tropospheric O₃ burden and
 231 O₃ radiative forcing (± 1 standard deviation) increased by 7.6 ± 0.7 ppbv, 73 ± 8.9 Tg and 0.29
 232 ± 0.03 W m⁻² over the period 1850 to 2014 (Table 3 and Figure 2). The change in these
 233 variables over the period 1850 to 2000 simulated by the ACCMIP models is 10 ± 1.6 ppbv, 98
 234 ± 17 Tg and 0.36 ± 0.06 W m⁻² respectively (Stevenson et al., 2013; Young et al., 2013),
 235 slightly larger than the changes from the parameterisation. The large standard deviations show
 236 that there is a substantial diversity in model responses in the ACCMIP results. UKESM1, an
 237 Earth system model conducting experiments for CMIP6 (Sellar et al., 2019, in prep.), and a
 238 successor to the HadGEM2 model used for building the parameterisation, gives global
 239 changes of 7.3 ± 0.4 ppbv in surface O₃ and 66.7 ± 5.1 Tg in O₃ burden, very similar to the
 240 parameterisation (Figure 2).

241 The parameterisation does not account for the impacts on tropospheric O₃ from changes in
 242 stratosphere-to-troposphere exchange, chemical regime (O₃ production/titration) or climate,

243 which could explain the discrepancy with the ACCMIP models. A discrepancy could also occur
244 from the use of the different emission datasets in ACCMIP and CMIP6, but a comparison with
245 the parameterisation itself found this contribution to be very small. Within ACCMIP some
246 models calculated the impact of climate change over the historical period by conducting
247 experiments with a varying climate and emissions fixed at 1850 values. These models
248 calculated that climate change has a relatively small impact on tropospheric O₃ over the
249 industrial period, reducing the change in surface O₃, O₃ burden and O₃ radiative forcing by 2.7
250 ppbv, 22 Tg and 0.024 W m⁻² respectively (Stevenson et al., 2013; Young et al., 2013). Most
251 of this reduction is anticipated to occur from enhanced O₃ destruction due to increases in water
252 vapour from rising temperatures (Doherty et al., 2013). If the reduction in tropospheric O₃ due
253 to the effects of climate change is removed from the ACCMIP estimate of change in O₃ over
254 the industrial period, then there is better agreement with the estimate of historical change from
255 the parameterisation.

256 There is no agreed observed change in tropospheric O₃ over the industrial period due to the
257 absence of reliable measurements (Young et al., 2018). Chemistry-climate models are only
258 able to reproduce half of the observed trend in O₃ over the second half of the 20th Century,
259 when reliable measurements are available and most of the change in O₃ occurred (Gaudel et
260 al., 2018; Young et al., 2018). Tropospheric O₃ changes from the parameterisation over the
261 industrial period are consistent with those from ACCMIP models and UKESM1 but all tend to
262 underestimate the measured change.

263 Figure 2 shows that surface O₃, tropospheric O₃ burden and O₃ radiative forcing rapidly
264 increase through the 20th Century, coinciding with the largest changes in emissions and CH₄
265 (Figure 1). Larger regional increases in annual mean surface O₃ of >10 ppbv occur over
266 Europe, North America, Asia and the Middle East (Table 3 and Figure S6). The changes in
267 annual mean surface O₃ since 1750 show the impact of industrialisation and increasing
268 emissions over the 20th century across most regions. However, they also show the more recent
269 decline in surface O₃ concentrations across Europe and North America (<2 ppbv) over the last
270 30 years due to the reduction in precursor emissions from the implementation of air pollution
271 controls. Historical changes in tropospheric O₃ over the industrial period provide a context in
272 which to frame the predicted changes from different future scenarios.



273

274 **Figure 2** – Change in the global annual mean surface O₃ concentrations, total O₃ burden and O₃
 275 radiative forcing over the historical period, relative to 2014, from the parameterisation using historical
 276 emissions provided for CMIP6. A 5-year running mean of the change in global surface O₃ concentrations
 277 and total O₃ burden, relative to 2014, is also shown from UKESM1. Shaded areas show the spread in
 278 the response from the multi-model parameterisation and ensemble members of UKESM1 (±1 standard
 279 deviation).

280 **Table 3** – Regional and global change in annual mean surface O₃ concentrations over the historical
 281 period, relative to 2014.

Region	Δ Surface O ₃ (ppbv)					
	1750	1850	1900	1950	1980	2000
Global	-7.9	-7.6	-6.9	-4.8	-1.2	-0.4
Central America	-9.1	-8.7	-8.2	-5.3	-1.0	+0.5
Central Asia	-10.6	-9.9	-8.8	-5.8	+0.9	+0.4
East Asia	-12.9	-12.4	-11.5	-8.7	-2.5	-1.2
Europe	-10.5	-9.6	-8.3	-5.0	+2.0	+1.0
Middle East	-17.6	-16.8	-15.7	-11.9	-3.4	-1.0
North Africa	-12.2	-11.6	-10.4	-6.9	-0.1	+0.4
North America	-10.8	-10.1	-9.1	-4.5	+1.0	+0.7
North Pole	-7.8	-7.3	-6.6	-4.2	+0.2	+0.2
Ocean	-7.8	-7.4	-6.9	-4.8	-1.4	-0.4
Pacific Aus NZ	-4.7	-4.5	-4.0	-3.0	-1.2	-0.3
Rus Bel Ukr	-7.9	-7.4	-6.5	-4.0	+0.4	+0.2
South America	-4.6	-4.4	-4.1	-3.2	-1.5	-0.5
South Asia	-17.7	-17.1	-16.3	-13.6	-6.9	-3.8
South East Asia	-9.7	-9.5	-9.1	-7.7	-4.8	-2.9
South Pole	-3.5	-3.3	-3.0	-2.2	-0.9	-0.3
Southern Africa	-5.1	-4.8	-4.4	-3.1	-1.1	-0.3

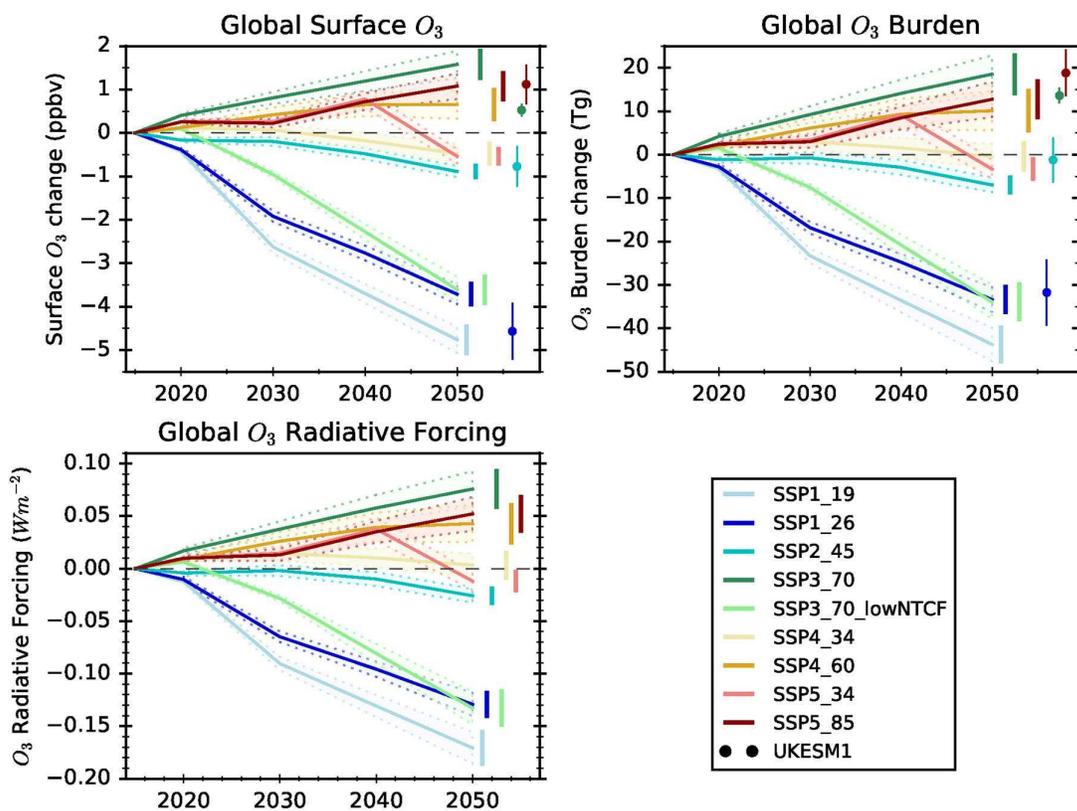
282 3.2 Future Scenarios

283 The nine CMIP6 SSPs (Table 1) are used with the O₃ parameterisation to predict the impact
284 on tropospheric O₃ over the near-term future (2015 to 2050), when effects of climate are likely
285 to be small (Doherty et al., 2017; Fiore et al., 2015). Figure 3 shows that there are a variety of
286 responses in global annual mean surface O₃, O₃ burden and O₃ radiative forcing to the
287 different SSPs. The predictions from the parameterisation are compared to the global mean
288 changes simulated by UKESM1 for four representative SSPs.

289 The three strong mitigation pathways (SSP1 1.9, SSP1 2.6 and SSP3 7.0 lowNTCF) all show
290 (relative to 2015) large reductions of >3.5 ppbv in surface O₃, >30 Tg in O₃ burden and an O₃
291 radiative forcing of <-0.1 W m⁻² in 2050, due to the large reductions in precursor emissions
292 and CH₄. Figure 3 shows that the global changes in surface O₃ and O₃ burden in 2050 from
293 the parameterisation are consistent with those simulated using UKESM1. Using the simplified
294 expression of Etminan et al., (2016) a direct CH₄ radiative forcing of <-0.15 W m⁻² is calculated
295 for the strong mitigation scenarios, providing an additional direct benefit to climate on top of
296 the reduction in O₃ forcing. However, the benefits to surface air quality and near-term climate
297 forcing in the most ambitious mitigation scenarios are still less than half of the changes that
298 occurred over the industrial period.

299 The middle of the road scenario (SSP2 4.5) is predicted to have slightly reduced global surface
300 O₃ concentration, O₃ burden and O₃ radiative forcing in 2050 compared to 2015. In this
301 scenario decreases in precursor emissions are offset by increases in global CH₄ abundance
302 of 10%. The global changes predicted by the parameterisation are again in agreement with
303 those from UKESM1, which shows a slight reduction in surface O₃ and O₃ burden.

304 All the weak mitigation scenarios (SSP 7.0, SSP5 8.5 and SSP4 6.0) are predicted to increase
305 global annual mean surface O₃ by up to 1.5 ppbv, O₃ burden by up to 18 Tg and O₃ radiative
306 forcing by up to +0.07 W m⁻² in 2050. The predicted changes in surface O₃ and O₃ burden for
307 SSP5 8.5 are consistent with those from UKESM1. For SSP3 7.0 the predicted increases in
308 O₃ are larger than those in UKESM1, particularly over South Asia (Figure S7). These regions
309 experience large increases in NO_x emissions of up to 70% in SSP3 7.0, resulting in changes
310 in chemical regime from O₃ production to O₃ titration. This change in chemical regime cannot
311 be captured with the parameterisation and it therefore overestimates the O₃ response in these
312 regions, as previously shown in Turnock et al., (2018). A direct CH₄ radiative forcing of up to
313 +0.27 W m⁻² is calculated using the simplified expression of Etminan et al., (2016) for the weak
314 SSP mitigation scenarios. This is in addition to the positive forcing from O₃, which will both
315 have a detrimental effect on climate. The large global increase in CH₄ abundance in these
316 scenarios, of up to 36%, offsets any benefits to O₃ from reducing precursor emissions,
317 highlighting the importance of controlling future CH₄ emissions for reducing tropospheric O₃.

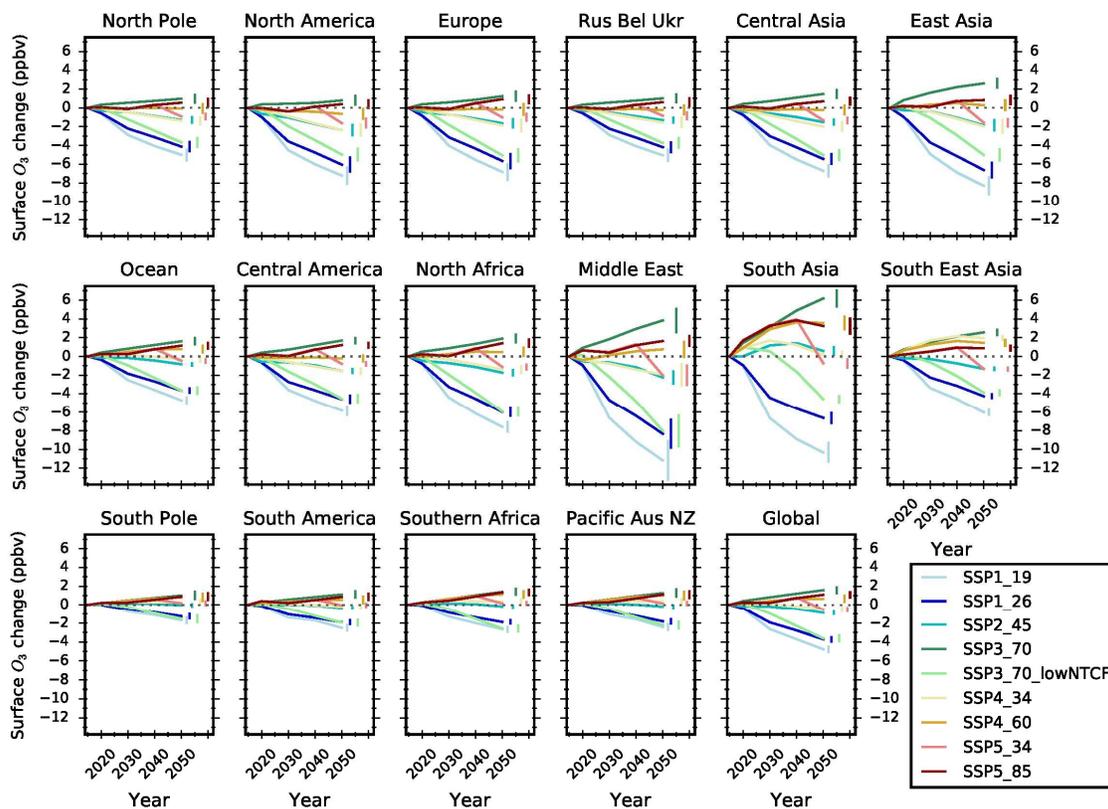


318

319 **Figure 3** – Changes in global annual mean surface O₃ concentrations, total O₃ burden and O₃ radiative
 320 forcing, relative to 2015, from the parameterisation for different future CMIP6 pathways. Shaded area
 321 shows the spread in multi-model response (± 1 standard deviation). The spread in multi-model response
 322 in 2050 is represented by the vertical line at the end of each plot. The change in surface O₃ and O₃
 323 burden (± 1 standard deviation) simulated by UKESM1 in 2050 is represented by the circles at the far
 324 end of the plot.

325 Figure 4 and Table S8 show that there is a large range in annual regional mean surface O₃
 326 responses for the nine SSPs. The largest range occurs over the Middle East and South Asia
 327 where a reduction of >10 ppbv (relative to 2015) is predicted for the strong mitigation scenario
 328 (SSP1 1.9) and an increase of >3 ppbv is predicted for the weak mitigation scenario (SSP3
 329 7.0). However, the range in O₃ responses over these particular regions may be overestimated
 330 with the parameterisation, as noted above. Across Europe, North America and East Asia, the
 331 range of response in surface O₃ is smaller but reductions of >6 ppbv occur in the strong
 332 mitigation scenarios where precursor emissions and CH₄ abundances are heavily reduced.
 333 However, even the most ambitious mitigation scenario results in regional annual mean surface
 334 O₃ concentrations over Europe and North America that are 30% greater than estimated for the
 335 pre-industrial period (Figure S6).

336 For the weak mitigation scenario of SSP3 7.0 surface O₃ increases by 2.6 ppbv for East Asia
 337 and by ~1 ppbv for Europe and North America. Increases in surface O₃ occur in both SSP3
 338 7.0 and SSP5 8.5 due to the >30% increase in global CH₄ abundances, despite reductions in
 339 NO_x emissions. This again highlights the importance of implementing both local and
 340 hemispheric emission control measures, particularly for CH₄, to control future regional
 341 changes in surface O₃.



342

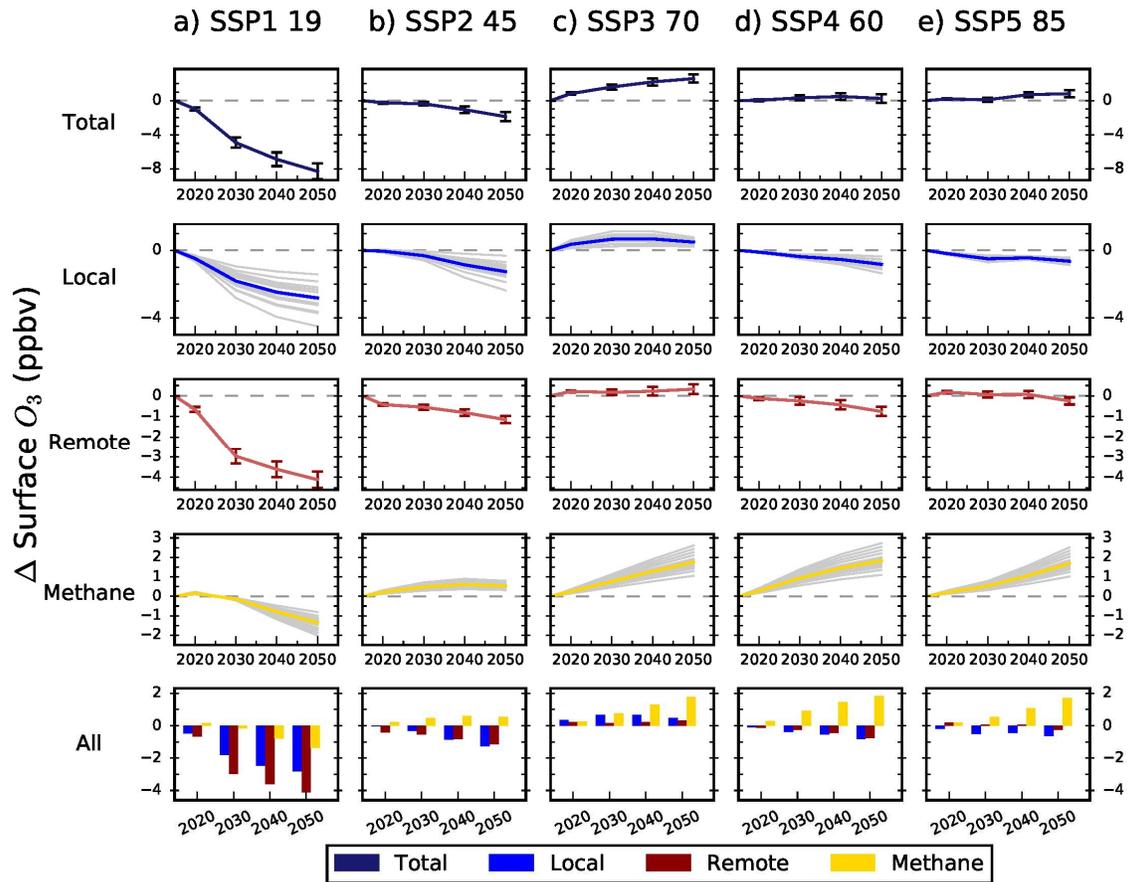
343 **Figure 4** – Changes in global and regional annual mean surface O₃ concentrations, relative to 2015,
 344 for different future CMIP6 pathways. The spread in multi-model response in 2050 is represented by the
 345 vertical line at the end of each plot (± 1 standard deviation).

346 A source attribution is presented for selected SSPs for East Asia (Figure 5) and South Asia
 347 (Figure 6) to show the influence of local and remote emission sources on surface O₃. Across
 348 East Asia the contribution of locally formed O₃ to the total surface O₃ response in 2050
 349 decreases by up to 2.8 ppbv across most scenarios due to the reduction of local emissions.
 350 SSP3 7.0 is an exception to this, as local emissions increase and consequently the O₃
 351 response increases by 0.5 ppbv in 2050. The influence from regions external to East Asia is
 352 shown to be important in achieving reductions in regional surface O₃, particularly for the
 353 stronger mitigation scenarios where reductions of more than 1 ppbv can be achieved. In most
 354 scenarios, apart from SSP1 1.9, global CH₄ abundances rise and contribute to an increase in
 355 surface O₃ of up to 2 ppbv.

356 Over South Asia, local emission sources are more important in influencing the total O₃
 357 response and counteract changes from external source regions. Large reductions in surface
 358 O₃ concentrations are achieved in the strong mitigation scenario from local (-4.8 ppbv), remote
 359 (-4.1 ppbv) and CH₄ (-1.5 ppbv) sources. However, in the medium and weak mitigation
 360 scenarios surface O₃ increases from local emissions (up to +4.1 ppbv) and global CH₄
 361 abundance (up to +1.9 ppbv). This increase outweighs any reductions in O₃ obtained from
 362 emission sources remote to South Asia (up to -1.6 ppbv).

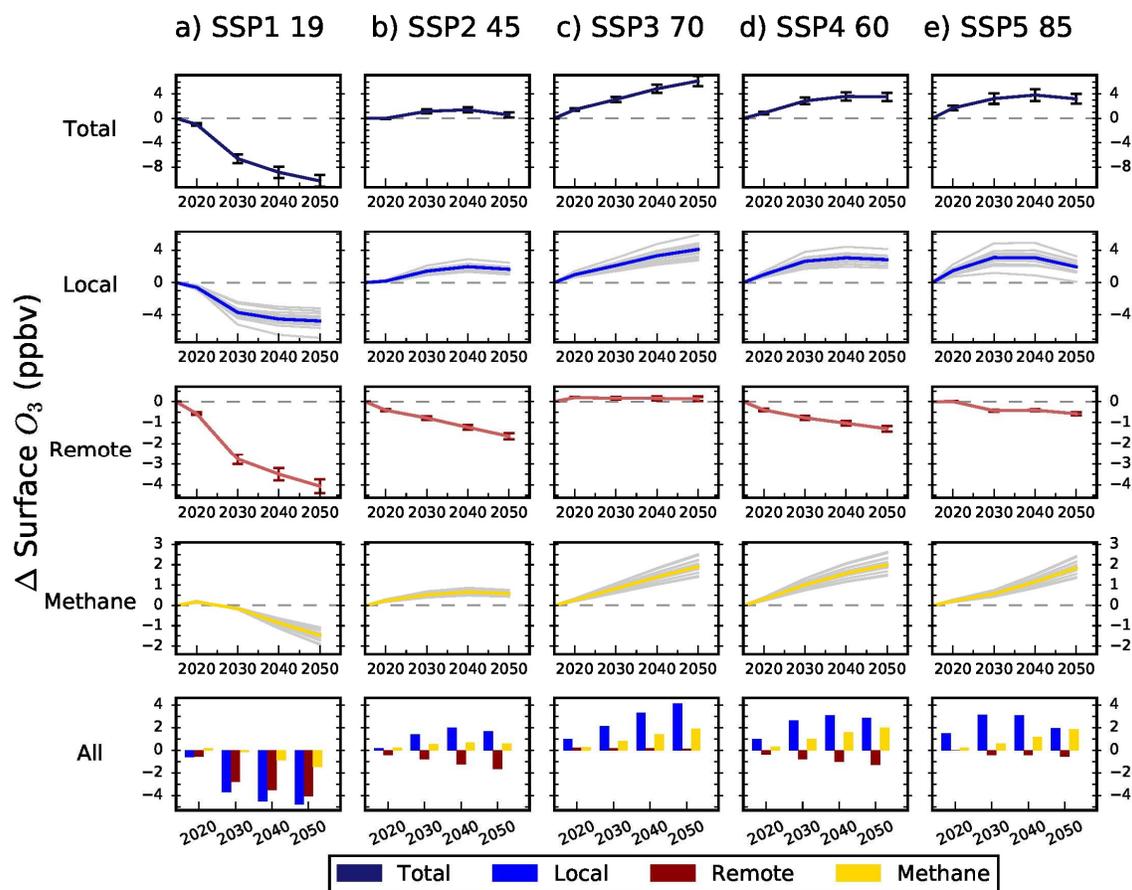
363 This analysis of source contributions highlights that local emission reductions are not always
 364 enough to reduce regional surface O₃ concentrations in the future. Emission controls on a

365 hemispheric scale are also required, particularly for CH₄, to reduce transboundary sources of
 366 O₃ and keep the regional surface O₃ below present-day concentrations.



367

368 **Figure 5** - Total annual mean changes in regional surface O₃ concentrations over East Asia and the
 369 contribution of local (blue), remote (red) and methane (gold) sources between 2015 and 2050 from the
 370 parameterisation for the CMIP6 emissions under the a) SSP1 1.9, b) SSP2 4.5, c) SSP3 7.0, d) SSP4
 371 6.0 and e) SSP5 8.5 scenarios. Grey lines on the local and methane panels represent individual model
 372 estimates of O₃ changes, showing the spread in model responses; solid lines show the multi-model
 373 mean. Error bars represent one standard deviation over the entire multi-model range. The bottom
 374 panels show the O₃ response from individual sources plotted together.

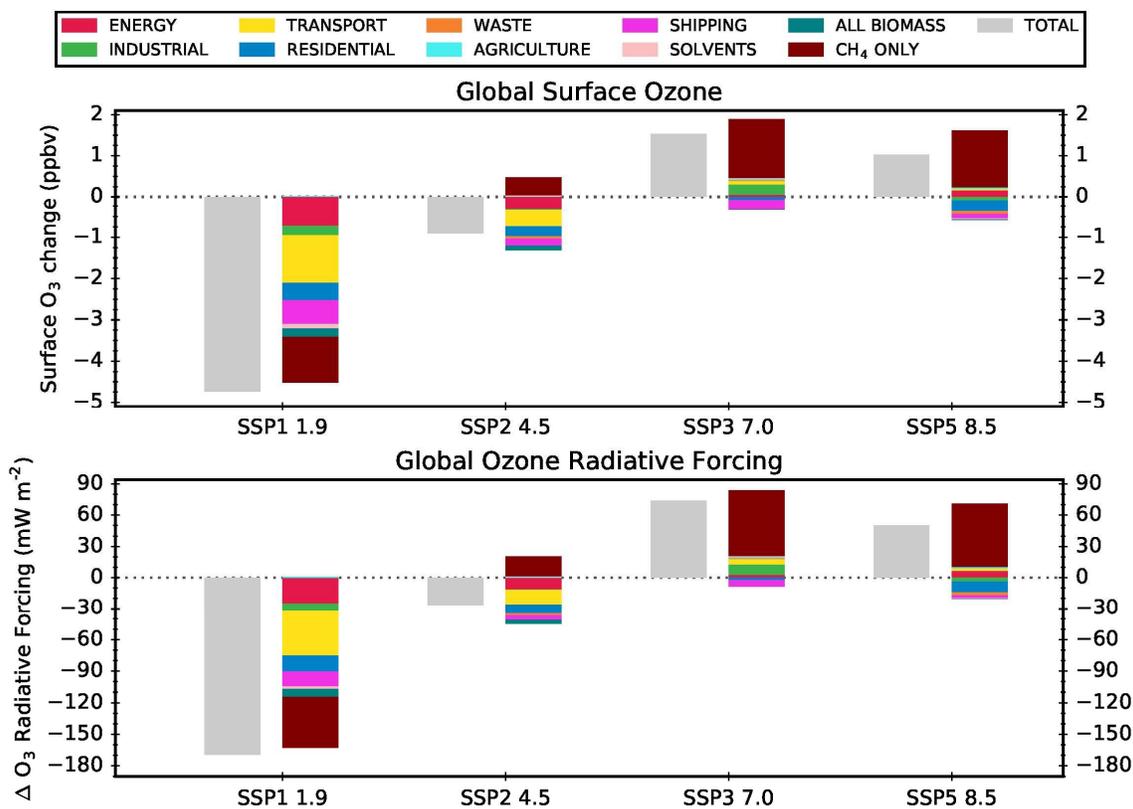


375

376 **Figure 6** - Total annual mean changes in regional surface O_3 concentrations over South Asia and the
 377 contribution of local (blue), remote (red) and methane (gold) sources between 2015 and 2050 from the
 378 parameterisation for the CMIP6 emissions under the a) SSP1 1.9, b) SSP2 4.5, c) SSP3 7.0, d) SSP4
 379 6.0 and e) SSP5 8.5 scenarios. Grey lines on the local and methane panels represent individual model
 380 estimates of O_3 changes, showing the spread in model responses; solid lines show the multi-model
 381 mean. Error bars represent one standard deviation over the entire multi-model range. The bottom
 382 panels shows the O_3 response from individual sources plotted together.

383 3.3 Emission Source Sectors

384 We have used the fractional emission change from different emission source sectors, relative
 385 to the total (Figures S2-S4, Tables S5-S7), to understand their contribution to the overall
 386 response in annual mean surface O_3 and O_3 radiative forcing in four SSPs (SSP1 1.9, SSP2
 387 4.5, SSP3 7.0, SSP5 8.5). The sum of the O_3 response from the individual source sectors
 388 closely matches (within 7%) the combined O_3 response in each scenario (Figure 7).

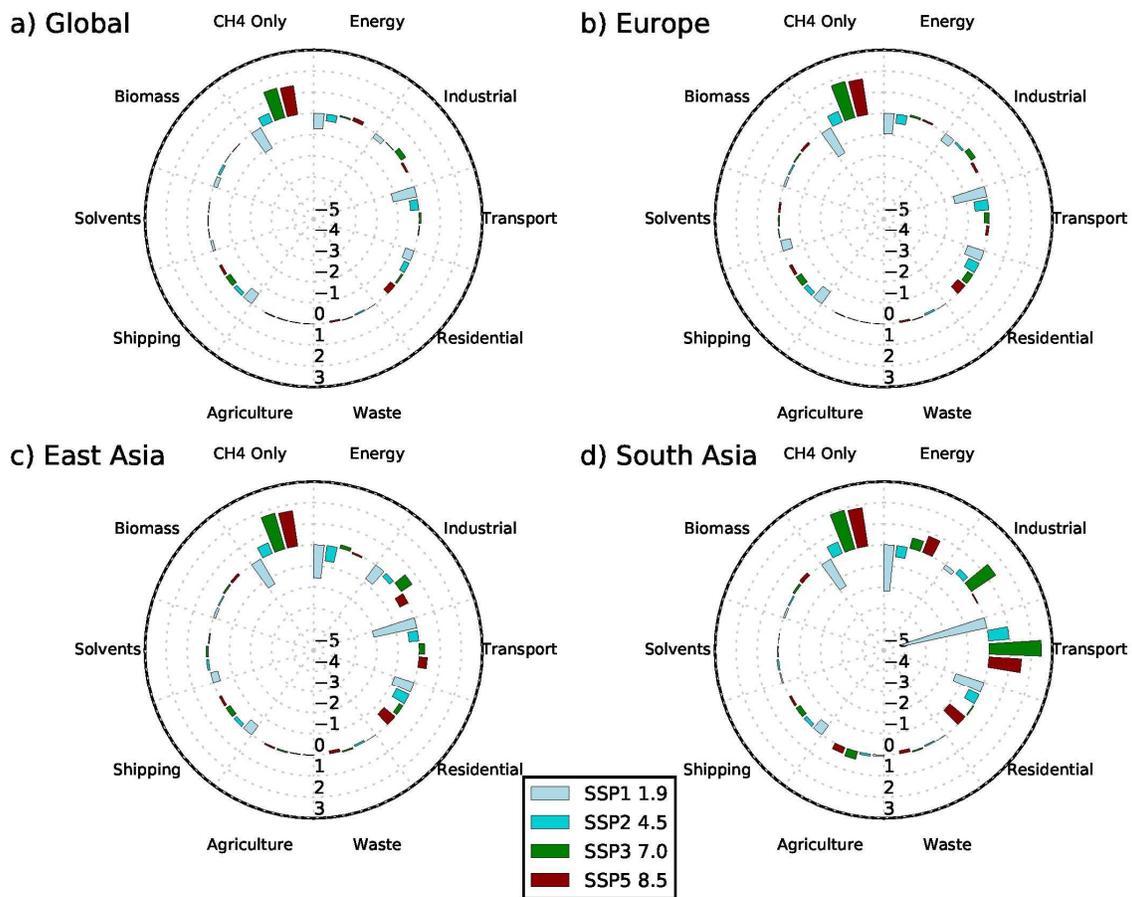


389

390 **Figure 7** – Changes in global annual mean surface O₃ concentrations (ppbv) and O₃ radiative forcing
 391 (mW m⁻²) due to individual emission sectors and the total overall response between 2015 and 2050
 392 using four different CMIP6 future scenarios.

393 Figure 8 shows the surface O₃ response from each source sector in 2050 across four regions.
 394 Both Figures 7 and 8 show that the dominant driver of changes in surface O₃ both globally
 395 and regionally is changes in CH₄ abundance. An analysis of individual source sectors
 396 contributing to CH₄ emissions shows that the largest changes occur in the energy, waste and
 397 agricultural sectors (Figure S8). Globally, other emission source sectors make smaller
 398 contributions to surface O₃. The energy, industrial, transport and residential source sectors
 399 are more important regionally. Strong emission controls in these sectors, particularly on
 400 transport, could reduce surface O₃ by up to 2 ppbv over Europe and East Asia and by more
 401 than 4 ppbv over South Asia. In contrast, scenarios that include weak emission controls show
 402 increases in surface O₃ of up to 2 ppbv over South Asia.

403 From the individual source contributions to surface O₃ in 2050, we find most of the benefit for
 404 surface O₃ air quality occurs from emission reduction measures in a limited number of sectors,
 405 e.g., transport. This highlights where more action to reduce precursor emissions could provide
 406 additional benefits to surface O₃, e.g. from agriculture. For regions like Europe and East Asia
 407 local emission policies targeting the energy and transport sectors will not be sufficient to
 408 achieve substantial O₃ air quality benefits compared to the present day. Benefits can only be
 409 achieved by targeting CH₄ sources, as well as local precursor emissions.



410

411 **Figure 8** – Changes in annual mean surface O₃ concentrations (ppbv) due to individual emission
 412 sectors between 2015 and 2050 for different regions using four different CMIP6 future scenarios.

413 The contribution of different source sectors to global O₃ radiative forcing in 2050 is shown in
 414 Figure 7 and Table S9. The largest source contribution in all scenarios comes from changes
 415 in CH₄ abundance, with the energy, waste and agricultural sectors being important sources
 416 contributing to changes in CH₄ emissions (Figure S8). For the weak mitigation scenarios
 417 (SSP3 7.0 and SSP5 8.5) CH₄ is shown to be the main contributor, causing a positive O₃
 418 radiative forcing in 2050. There are smaller positive contributions under these scenarios from
 419 the energy, industrial and transport sectors. For the medium mitigation scenario (SSP2 4.5)
 420 the small positive O₃ radiative forcing due to CH₄ is offset by the negative forcing from the
 421 energy, transport and residential sectors. For the strongest mitigation scenario (SSP1 1.9)
 422 there is a negative O₃ radiative forcing from the energy, transport, residential and shipping
 423 sectors, as well as from CH₄, which combine to produce the largest negative O₃ radiative
 424 forcing by 2050. Strong reductions in both CH₄ and precursor emissions are needed to reduce
 425 the warming effect of O₃. Controlling CH₄ would have the largest impact on reducing future O₃
 426 radiative forcing, as the strong mitigation scenarios show that decreasing CH₄ can significantly
 427 reduce the overall positive O₃ radiative forcing, as well as the direct CH₄ radiative forcing.

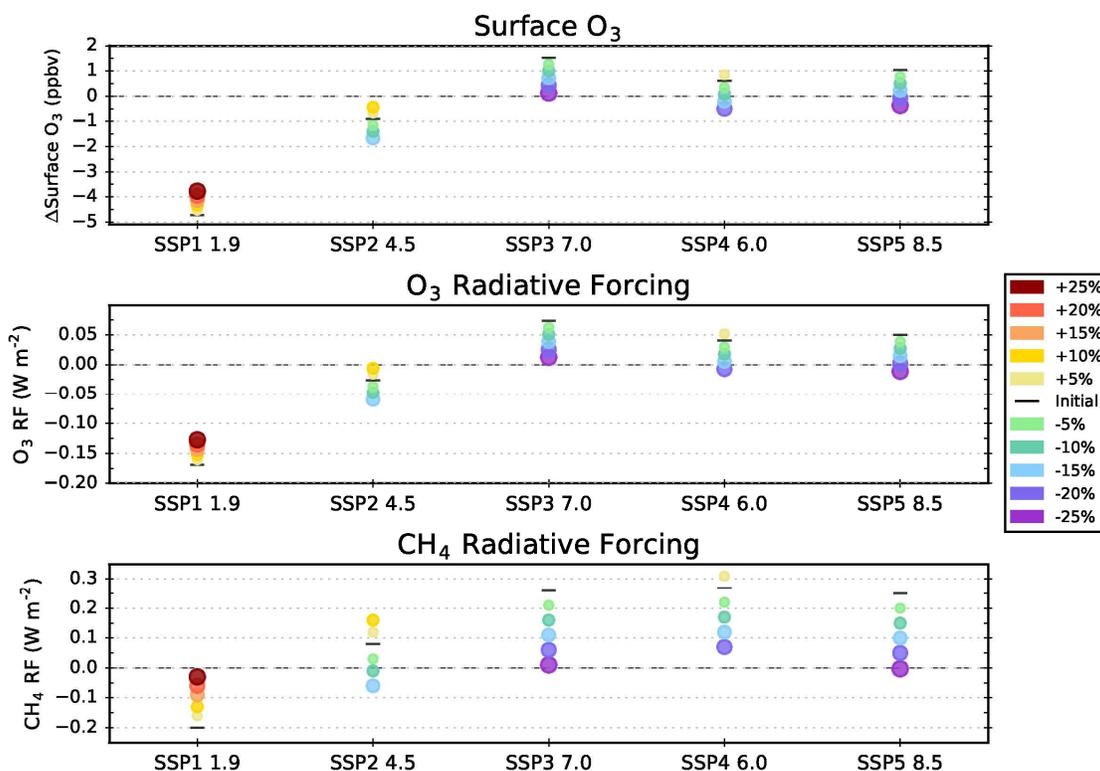
428 3.4 Reductions in Global Methane

429 To assess the additional benefits from further reductions in global methane we have performed
 430 sensitivity experiments with the parameterisation using different values of global CH₄

431 abundances (-25% to +25%) compared to that in five of the SSPs (Table 4). For all SSPs
 432 using lower values of CH₄ (of up to -25%) additionally reduces the predicted global surface O₃
 433 concentration by more than 1 ppbv in 2050 (Table 4 and Figure 9), with larger reductions on
 434 a regional scale (Figure S9). For example, the predicted increases in global surface O₃
 435 concentrations in 2050 under the weaker mitigation scenarios (SSP3 7.0, SSP4 6.0 and SSP5
 436 8.5) could be eliminated if the global CH₄ abundance was reduced by 15–25% of the original
 437 value used in each scenario. A similar benefit is seen in climate forcing (both O₃ and direct
 438 CH₄). The O₃ radiative forcing in SSP1 1.9 would not be as large if the reductions in CH₄
 439 abundances were smaller under this scenario. If larger reductions in global CH₄ abundances
 440 occurred for the weaker mitigation scenarios then O₃ radiative forcing in 2050 relative to 2015
 441 could be reduced to near zero, with an additional reduction in the direct CH₄ radiative forcing
 442 of up to 0.2 W m⁻². Further reductions to the global CH₄ abundance by 2050 would deliver
 443 clear additional benefits to surface O₃ air quality and near-term climate forcing (both O₃ and
 444 CH₄) under all SSPs.

445 **Table 4** – The response in global surface O₃, O₃ radiative forcing and CH₄ radiative forcing to additional
 446 perturbations in CH₄ abundance compared to that in five of the existing SSPs.

Initial SSP Scenario		% change from the initial scenario concentration										
		-25	-20	-15	-10	-5	Initial	+5	+10	+15	+20	+25
SSP1 1.9	ΔCH ₄ (ppbv)	-	-	-	-	-	1428	1499	1571	1642	1714	1785
	ΔO ₃ (ppbv)	-	-	-	-	-	-4.7	-4.5	-4.3	-4.1	-4.0	-3.8
	O ₃ RF (Wm ⁻²)	-	-	-	-	-	-0.17	-0.16	-0.15	-0.14	-0.14	-0.13
	CH ₄ RF (Wm ⁻²)	-	-	-	-	-	-0.20	-0.16	-0.13	-0.09	-0.06	-0.03
SSP2 4.5	ΔCH ₄ (ppbv)	-	-	1717	1818	1919	2020	2121	2222	-	-	-
	ΔO ₃ (ppbv)	-	-	-1.7	-1.4	-1.2	-0.9	-0.7	-0.4	-	-	-
	O ₃ RF (Wm ⁻²)	-	-	-0.06	-0.05	-0.04	-0.03	-0.02	-0.01	-	-	-
	CH ₄ RF (Wm ⁻²)	-	-	-0.06	-0.01	+0.03	+0.08	+0.12	+0.16	-	-	-
SSP3 7.0	ΔCH ₄ (ppbv)	1854	1978	2101	2225	2348	2472	-	-	-	-	-
	ΔO ₃ (ppbv)	+0.1	+0.4	+0.7	+1.0	+1.3	+1.5	-	-	-	-	-
	O ₃ RF (Wm ⁻²)	+0.01	+0.03	+0.04	+0.05	+0.06	+0.07	-	-	-	-	-
	CH ₄ RF (Wm ⁻²)	+0.01	+0.06	+0.11	+0.16	+0.21	+0.26	-	-	-	-	-
SSP4 6.0	ΔCH ₄ (ppbv)	-	2003	2128	2253	2378	2504	2629	-	-	-	-
	ΔO ₃ (ppbv)	-	-0.5	-0.2	+0.1	+0.4	+0.6	+0.9	-	-	-	-
	O ₃ RF (Wm ⁻²)	-	-0.01	+0.01	+0.02	+0.03	+0.04	+0.05	-	-	-	-
	CH ₄ RF (Wm ⁻²)	-	+0.07	+0.12	+0.17	+0.22	+0.27	+0.31	-	-	-	-
SSP5 8.5	ΔCH ₄ (ppbv)	1835	1957	2079	2202	2324	2446	-	-	-	-	-
	ΔO ₃ (ppbv)	-0.4	-0.1	+0.2	+0.5	+0.8	+1.0	-	-	-	-	-
	O ₃ RF (Wm ⁻²)	-0.01	+0.00	+0.01	+0.03	+0.04	+0.05	-	-	-	-	-
	CH ₄ RF (Wm ⁻²)	+0.00	+0.05	+0.10	+0.15	+0.20	+0.25	-	-	-	-	-



447

448 **Figure 9** – Changes in the global annual mean response of surface O₃ concentrations, O₃ radiative
 449 forcing and direct CH₄ radiative forcing in 2050 due to different amounts of methane mitigation assumed
 450 in a particular SSP.

451 **4.0 Conclusions**

452 We have used a parameterisation based on source-receptor relationships to predict changes
 453 in tropospheric O₃ and its radiative forcing over the period 1750 to 2050. Changes in CH₄
 454 abundance and O₃ precursor emissions (NO_x, CO and NMVOCs) from historical and future
 455 scenarios of the CMIP6 emission dataset are used within the parameterisation. This allows an
 456 initial assessment of the full range of CMIP6 scenarios to be conducted prior to full chemistry
 457 climate modelling studies.

458 Using changes in precursor emissions and CH₄ abundances over the industrial period (1750-
 459 2014) we find changes in surface O₃, tropospheric O₃ burden and O₃ radiative forcing of +8
 460 ppbv, +76 Tg and +0.3 W m⁻². These changes in O₃ over the historical period are within the
 461 range of multi-model changes simulated in the ACCMIP project, although the parameterisation
 462 does not account for changes in climate, stratosphere-to-troposphere exchange or chemical
 463 regime (O₃ production/titration). There is a much better agreement over the historical period
 464 between the parameterisation and ACCMIP if the impact of climate change on tropospheric
 465 O₃ is accounted for.

466 Nine future SSPs are used to explore changes to tropospheric O₃ over the period 2014 to
 467 2050, when the effects of climate change are assumed to be small. Future scenarios that
 468 include strong climate and air pollutant mitigation measures show reductions in global surface
 469 O₃ concentrations of more than 3.5 ppbv and have a global O₃ radiative forcing of less than -
 470 0.1 W m⁻². There is an additional benefit in these scenarios from the reduction in direct CH₄

471 radiative forcing, to less than -0.15 W m^{-2} . Large reductions in surface O_3 occur across the
472 Middle East and South Asia, due to substantial reductions in O_3 precursor emissions and
473 global CH_4 abundance. These reductions will benefit both future surface O_3 air quality and
474 near-term climate forcing but remain well above pre-industrial values.

475 Surface O_3 increases across all regions in future scenarios with assumed weak climate and
476 air pollutant mitigation measures, with the largest increase of >6 ppbv over South Asia. The
477 weak mitigation scenarios result in an O_3 radiative forcing of $>+0.05 \text{ W m}^{-2}$, along with a direct
478 CH_4 radiative forcing of up to $+0.27 \text{ W m}^{-2}$. This highlights that without reductions to O_3
479 precursor emissions, particularly CH_4 , it will not be possible to prevent the future degradation
480 of surface O_3 air quality and the enhancement of anthropogenic climate forcing.

481 A source attribution for East Asia shows that any benefits to surface O_3 from reducing local
482 emission sources could be offset by intercontinental transport of O_3 formed from sources
483 remote to the region and that from global CH_4 sources. In contrast, for South Asia local sources
484 of O_3 are shown to be more important than those remote to the region. Global CH_4 and the
485 transport, industrial and energy sectors have the largest contribution to changes in surface O_3 .
486 Our analysis shows that local emission control measures are required alongside
487 intercontinental controls to provide regional benefits to future air quality and near-term climate
488 forcing. In particular, the level of climate mitigation measures for CH_4 within a scenario has a
489 strong influence on the magnitude of benefits that can be achieved. Additional reductions in
490 global CH_4 abundance within a scenario have the potential to provide larger benefits for air
491 quality and climate.

492 The O_3 parameterisation used here provides an easy-to-use tool with which to rapidly assess
493 the impact on tropospheric O_3 from a large range of future emission scenarios. The results of
494 this study highlight the need for emission reduction measures both locally and internationally,
495 particularly for CH_4 . While not replacing full model simulations, the tool can provide useful
496 information on a range of future trajectories for tropospheric O_3 . This is particularly valuable
497 for modelling centres conducting full chemistry-climate model simulations, allowing them to
498 make better informed decisions on selecting a more limited range of scenarios for detailed
499 analysis.

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