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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 (O<sub>3</sub>) is both an air pollutant and a greenhouse gas. Predicting changes  
10 to O<sub>3</sub> is therefore important for both air quality and near-term climate forcing. It is  
11 computationally expensive to predict changes in tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> from every possible future  
12 scenario in composition climate models like those used in the 6<sup>th</sup> 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 O<sub>3</sub> to predict  
15 historical and future changes in O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> globally and across 16 regions, neglecting any impact from changes in  
19 climate. We predict large increases in global surface O<sub>3</sub> (+8 ppbv) and O<sub>3</sub> radiative forcing  
20 (+0.3 W m<sup>-2</sup>) over the industrial period. Nine different Shared Socio-economic Pathways are  
21 used to assess future changes in O<sub>3</sub>. Scenarios involving weak air pollutant controls and  
22 climate mitigation are inadequate in limiting the future degradation of surface O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> concentrations and O<sub>3</sub> radiative forcing by  
25 up to 5 ppbv and 0.17 W m<sup>-2</sup> 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 O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> 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 (O<sub>3</sub>) 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 O<sub>3</sub> 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). O<sub>3</sub> 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<sup>-2</sup> over the industrial period (Myhre et al., 2013; Stevenson et al., 2013).  
40 The relatively short lifetime of O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> changes is important for  
43 both future air quality and climate.

44 Tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> 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 (CH<sub>4</sub>) abundance and  
47 climate change also affect O<sub>3</sub> formation. These global changes are influenced by changes in  
48 future emission policies, adding additional uncertainty to the O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> was made in  
53 the Atmospheric Chemistry and Climate Model Intercomparison Project (ACCMIP), using  
54 future changes in climate and O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> response across the  
59 different RCPs of between -4.0 to +2.0 ppbv by 2050 (relative to 2000). Global annual mean  
60 tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> radiative forcing (relative to 2000) varies between -0.05 and +0.08 W m<sup>-2</sup> in  
64 2030 and between -0.19 and +0.22 W m<sup>-2</sup> in 2100 across the range of the RCPs. For RCP8.5,  
65 Iglesias-Suarez et al., (2018) predicted a whole atmosphere O<sub>3</sub> radiative forcing of +0.43 ±  
66 0.11 W m<sup>-2</sup> in 2100 (relative to 2000), with +0.3 ± 0.05 W m<sup>-2</sup> due to tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> and +0.13  
67 ± 0.04 W m<sup>-2</sup> from stratospheric O<sub>3</sub>. Future tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> across different models.

72 ACCMIP formed part of the 5<sup>th</sup> 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 6<sup>th</sup> 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 O<sub>3</sub> to changes in  
84 regional precursor emissions and global CH<sub>4</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> air quality and near-term O<sub>3</sub> radiative  
90 forcing. It calculates the response of tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> and its radiative forcing. We  
96 quantify changes in surface O<sub>3</sub>, tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> burden and O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> response  
99 is solely due to changes in anthropogenic emissions of O<sub>3</sub> precursors and CH<sub>4</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> to anthropogenic emission source  
102 sectors and by using idealised experiments to explore the impact on O<sub>3</sub> of mitigation measures  
103 solely targeting CH<sub>4</sub>. Finally, we summarise how different policy measures in the SSPs impact  
104 future surface O<sub>3</sub> air quality and O<sub>3</sub> climate forcing.

## 105 **2.0 Methods**

### 106 2.1 Ozone Parameterisation

107 The approach used in this study is a parameterisation of O<sub>3</sub> 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 CH<sub>4</sub> abundances. The input to the  
111 parameterisation is the individual model O<sub>3</sub> response to changes in global CH<sub>4</sub> abundance  
112 and to 20% reductions of nitrogen oxide (NO<sub>x</sub>), 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 CH<sub>4</sub> changes on O<sub>3</sub> 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<sub>x</sub>, CO, NMVOCs)  
118 and CH<sub>4</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> 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<sub>x</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> and (Eq. 4) for conditions where O<sub>3</sub> titration occurs (an O<sub>3</sub> increase

122 for a decrease in NO<sub>x</sub>). For each source region the multi-model monthly O<sub>3</sub> response (Eq. 5)  
 123 from the 20% emission perturbation experiments ( $\Delta O_3$  for emissions of NO<sub>x</sub>, CO and  
 124 NMVOCs and  $\Delta O_{3m}$  for CH<sub>4</sub>) are then scaled by the relevant emission scaling factor ( $f$ ). The  
 125 total monthly mean O<sub>3</sub> response ( $\Delta O_3$ ) over each receptor region ( $k$ ) is the sum of the  
 126 individual O<sub>3</sub> responses from each model to global CH<sub>4</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> response at the surface and  
 134 throughout the troposphere. The O<sub>3</sub> radiative forcing is then derived from the change in  
 135 tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> 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 CH<sub>4</sub> abundance on surface O<sub>3</sub> air quality and  
 138 near term climate forcing due to O<sub>3</sub>. 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 O<sub>3</sub> burden and O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> response is unaffected by the updates,  
 144 but the tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> burden and O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub>. Further experiments are conducted  
 153 with the parameterisation to attribute the change in tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> from different emission  
 154 source sectors and the impact from mitigation scenarios solely targeting reductions in CH<sub>4</sub>.

## 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 21<sup>st</sup>  
 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<sup>-2</sup> 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).

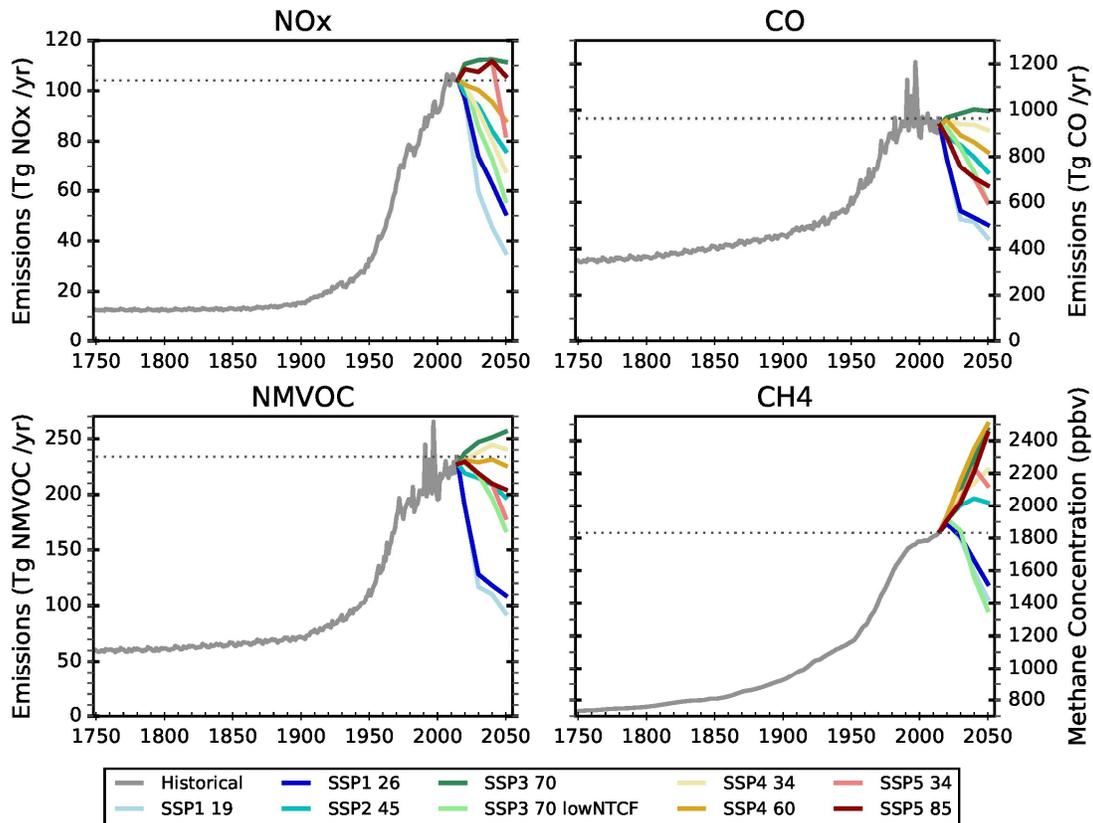
183 **Table 1** – Summary of all CMIP6 scenarios with gridded emissions that are used in this study

Scenario	SSP Narrative	Challenges for:		Climate Target (radiative forcing by 2100, W m <sup>-2</sup> )	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 CH<sub>4</sub> abundance and anthropogenic emissions of NO<sub>x</sub>,  
 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<sup>-2</sup>,  
 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<sup>-2</sup>,  
 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<sub>x</sub>, CO and NMVOCs and the global CH<sub>4</sub> abundance  
 203 from the CMIP6 historical and future scenarios dataset.

204 Figure 1 shows the global change in the emission of air pollutants (NO<sub>x</sub>, CO and NMVOCs)  
 205 and CH<sub>4</sub> 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 20<sup>th</sup> Century. In the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> 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 CH<sub>4</sub> 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 CH<sub>4</sub>

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 CH<sub>4</sub>  
 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<sub>x</sub> 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 1.9	SSP1 2.6	SSP2 4.5	SSP3 7.0	SSP3 7.0 NTCF	SSP4 3.4	SSP4 6.0	SSP5 3.4	SSP5 8.5
Global CH <sub>4</sub>	-22	-18	<b>+10</b>	<b>+34</b>	-26	<b>+21</b>	<b>+36</b>	<b>+15</b>	<b>+33</b>
Global NO <sub>x</sub>	-66	-51	-27	<b>+7</b>	-46	-35	-15	-21	<b>+2</b>
Central America	-58	-42	-20	<b>+27</b>	-51	-41	-25	0	<b>+32</b>
Central Asia	-32	-6	<b>+11</b>	<b>+27</b>	-37	-26	-11	-13	<b>+4</b>
East Asia	-79	-68	-53	<b>+17</b>	-44	-61	-27	-29	-12
Europe	-79	-74	-50	-38	-58	-64	-43	-34	-14
Middle East	-77	-55	-22	<b>+46</b>	-63	-42	-25	-39	-12
North Africa	-45	-4	<b>+10</b>	<b>+54</b>	-46	-1	<b>+18</b>	<b>+10</b>	<b>+51</b>
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	<b>+13</b>	-38	-39	-18	-9	<b>+12</b>
South Asia	-59	-25	<b>+29</b>	<b>+72</b>	<b>+3</b>	<b>+11</b>	<b>+50</b>	<b>+12</b>	<b>+52</b>
South East Asia	-49	-26	-24	<b>+33</b>	-31	<b>+46</b>	<b>+18</b>	-22	<b>+6</b>
Southern Africa	-10	<b>+3</b>	-14	-8	-33	-9	-2	<b>+9</b>	<b>+25</b>

227

## 228 3.0 Results

### 229 3.1 Historical Changes

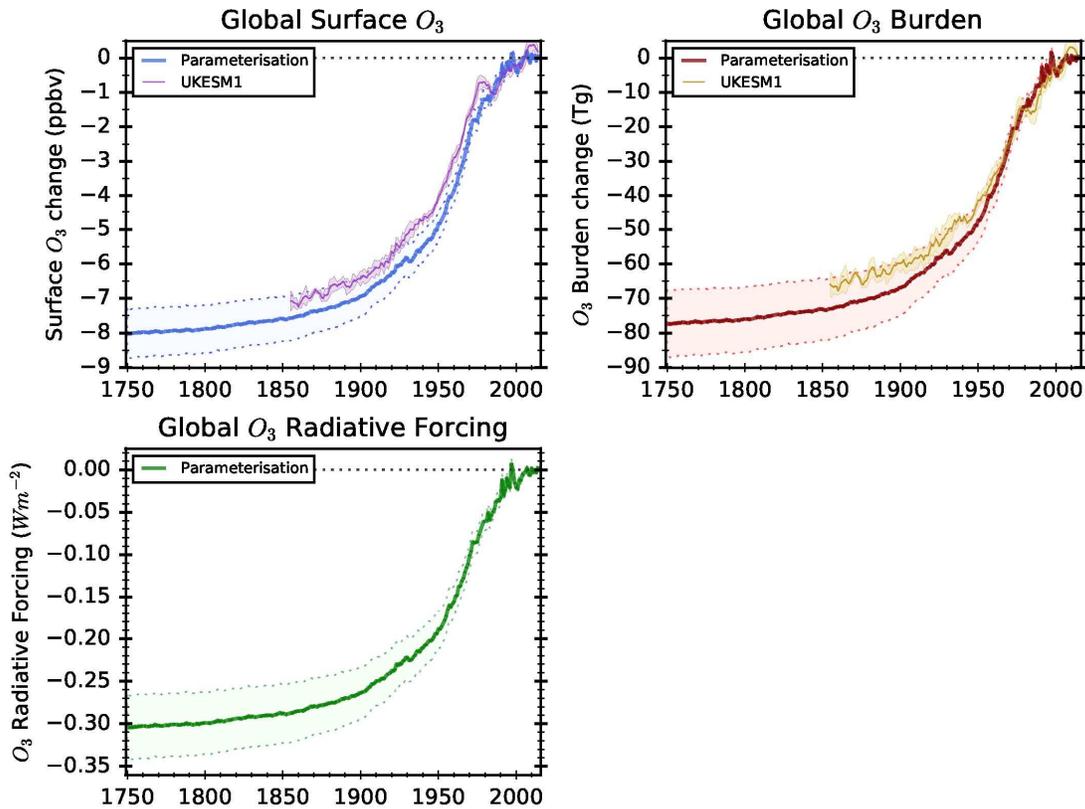
230 The parameterisation reveals that global annual mean surface O<sub>3</sub>, tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> burden and  
 231 O<sub>3</sub> radiative forcing ( $\pm 1$  standard deviation) increased by  $7.6 \pm 0.7$  ppbv,  $73 \pm 8.9$  Tg and  $0.29$   
 232  $\pm 0.03$  W m<sup>-2</sup> over the period 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  $10 \pm 1.6$  ppbv,  $98$   
 234  $\pm 17$  Tg and  $0.36 \pm 0.06$  W m<sup>-2</sup> 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  $7.3 \pm 0.4$  ppbv in surface O<sub>3</sub> and  $66.7 \pm 5.1$  Tg in O<sub>3</sub> burden, very similar to the  
 240 parameterisation (Figure 2).

241 The parameterisation does not account for the impacts on tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> from changes in  
 242 stratosphere-to-troposphere exchange, chemical regime (O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> over the  
249 industrial period, reducing the change in surface O<sub>3</sub>, O<sub>3</sub> burden and O<sub>3</sub> radiative forcing by 2.7  
250 ppbv, 22 Tg and 0.024 W m<sup>-2</sup> respectively (Stevenson et al., 2013; Young et al., 2013). Most  
251 of this reduction is anticipated to occur from enhanced O<sub>3</sub> destruction due to increases in water  
252 vapour from rising temperatures (Doherty et al., 2013). If the reduction in tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> due  
253 to the effects of climate change is removed from the ACCMIP estimate of change in O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> over the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> Century,  
259 when reliable measurements are available and most of the change in O<sub>3</sub> occurred (Gaudel et  
260 al., 2018; Young et al., 2018). Tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub>, tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> burden and O<sub>3</sub> radiative forcing rapidly  
264 increase through the 20<sup>th</sup> Century, coinciding with the largest changes in emissions and CH<sub>4</sub>  
265 (Figure 1). Larger regional increases in annual mean surface O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> since 1750 show the impact of industrialisation and increasing  
268 emissions over the 20<sup>th</sup> century across most regions. However, they also show the more recent  
269 decline in surface O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> concentrations, total O<sub>3</sub> burden and O<sub>3</sub>  
 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 O<sub>3</sub> concentrations  
 277 and total O<sub>3</sub> 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 ( $\pm 1$  standard  
 279 deviation).

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

Region	$\Delta$ Surface O <sub>3</sub> (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

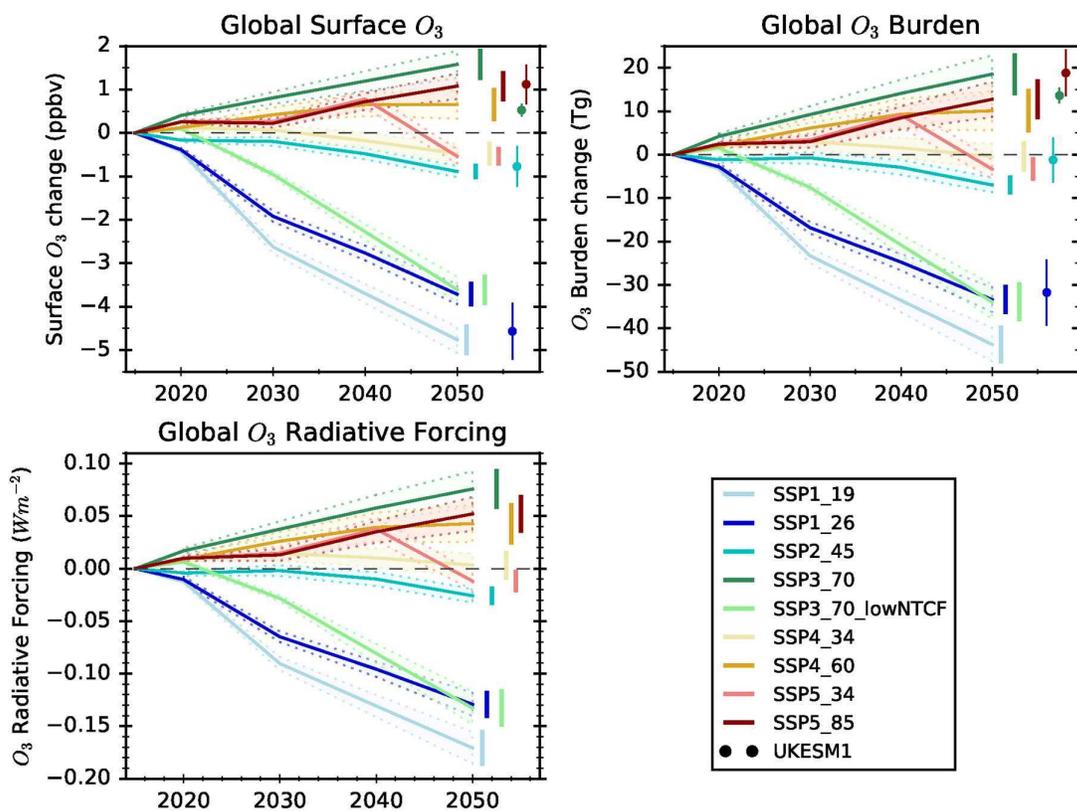
282 3.2 Future Scenarios

283 The nine CMIP6 SSPs (Table 1) are used with the O<sub>3</sub> parameterisation to predict the impact  
284 on tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub>, O<sub>3</sub> burden and O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub>, >30 Tg in O<sub>3</sub> burden and an O<sub>3</sub>  
291 radiative forcing of <-0.1 W m<sup>-2</sup> in 2050, due to the large reductions in precursor emissions  
292 and CH<sub>4</sub>. Figure 3 shows that the global changes in surface O<sub>3</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> 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 CH<sub>4</sub> radiative forcing of <-0.15 W m<sup>-2</sup> is calculated  
295 for the strong mitigation scenarios, providing an additional direct benefit to climate on top of  
296 the reduction in O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> concentration, O<sub>3</sub> burden and O<sub>3</sub> radiative forcing in 2050 compared to 2015. In this  
301 scenario decreases in precursor emissions are offset by increases in global CH<sub>4</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> by up to 1.5 ppbv, O<sub>3</sub> burden by up to 18 Tg and O<sub>3</sub> radiative  
306 forcing by up to +0.07 W m<sup>-2</sup> in 2050. The predicted changes in surface O<sub>3</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> burden for  
307 SSP5 8.5 are consistent with those from UKESM1. For SSP3 7.0 the predicted increases in  
308 O<sub>3</sub> are larger than those in UKESM1, particularly over South Asia (Figure S7). These regions  
309 experience large increases in NO<sub>x</sub> emissions of up to 70% in SSP3 7.0, resulting in changes  
310 in chemical regime from O<sub>3</sub> production to O<sub>3</sub> titration. This change in chemical regime cannot  
311 be captured with the parameterisation and it therefore overestimates the O<sub>3</sub> response in these  
312 regions, as previously shown in Turnock et al., (2018). A direct CH<sub>4</sub> radiative forcing of up to  
313 +0.27 W m<sup>-2</sup> 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 O<sub>3</sub>, which will both  
315 have a detrimental effect on climate. The large global increase in CH<sub>4</sub> abundance in these  
316 scenarios, of up to 36%, offsets any benefits to O<sub>3</sub> from reducing precursor emissions,  
317 highlighting the importance of controlling future CH<sub>4</sub> emissions for reducing tropospheric O<sub>3</sub>.

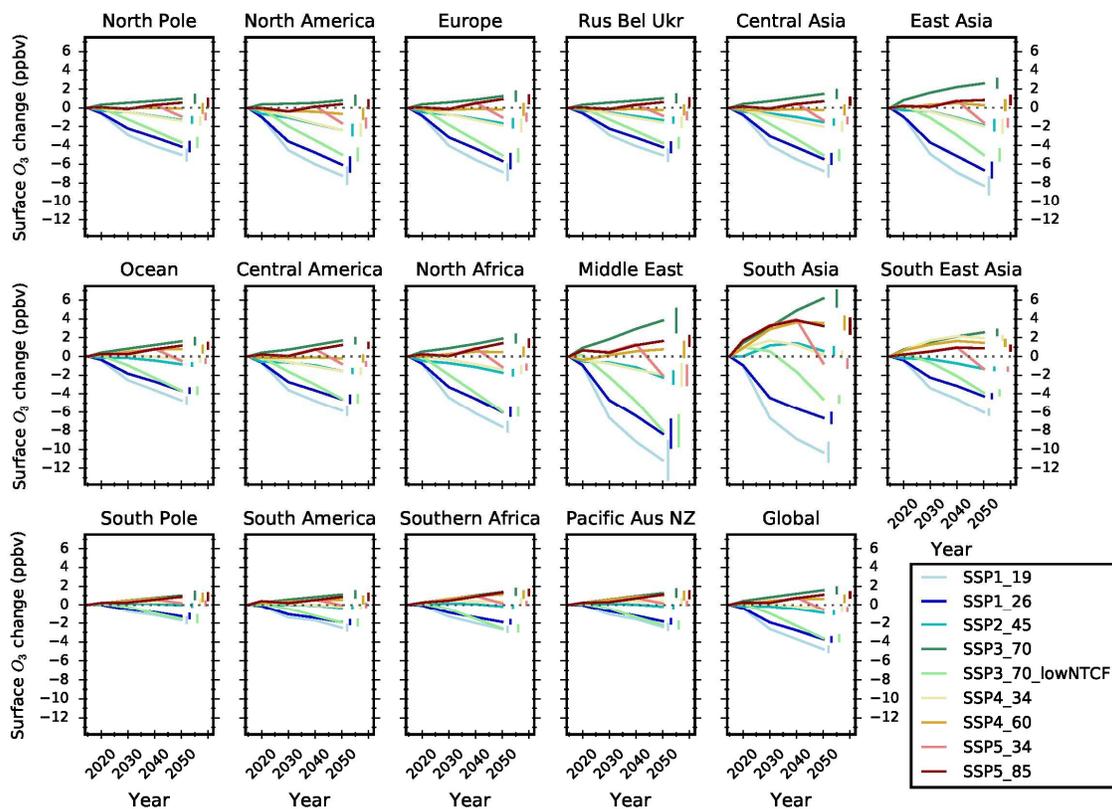


318

319 **Figure 3** – Changes in global annual mean surface  $O_3$  concentrations, total  $O_3$  burden and  $O_3$  radiative  
 320 forcing, relative to 2015, from the parameterisation for different future CMIP6 pathways. Shaded area  
 321 shows the spread in multi-model response ( $\pm 1$  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  $O_3$  and  $O_3$   
 323 burden ( $\pm 1$  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  $O_3$   
 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  $O_3$  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  $O_3$  is smaller but reductions of  $>6$  ppbv occur in the strong  
 332 mitigation scenarios where precursor emissions and  $CH_4$  abundances are heavily reduced.  
 333 However, even the most ambitious mitigation scenario results in regional annual mean surface  
 334  $O_3$  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  $O_3$  increases by 2.6 ppbv for East Asia  
 337 and by  $\sim 1$  ppbv for Europe and North America. Increases in surface  $O_3$  occur in both SSP3  
 338 7.0 and SSP5 8.5 due to the  $>30\%$  increase in global  $CH_4$  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  $CH_4$ , to control future regional  
 341 changes in surface  $O_3$ .



342

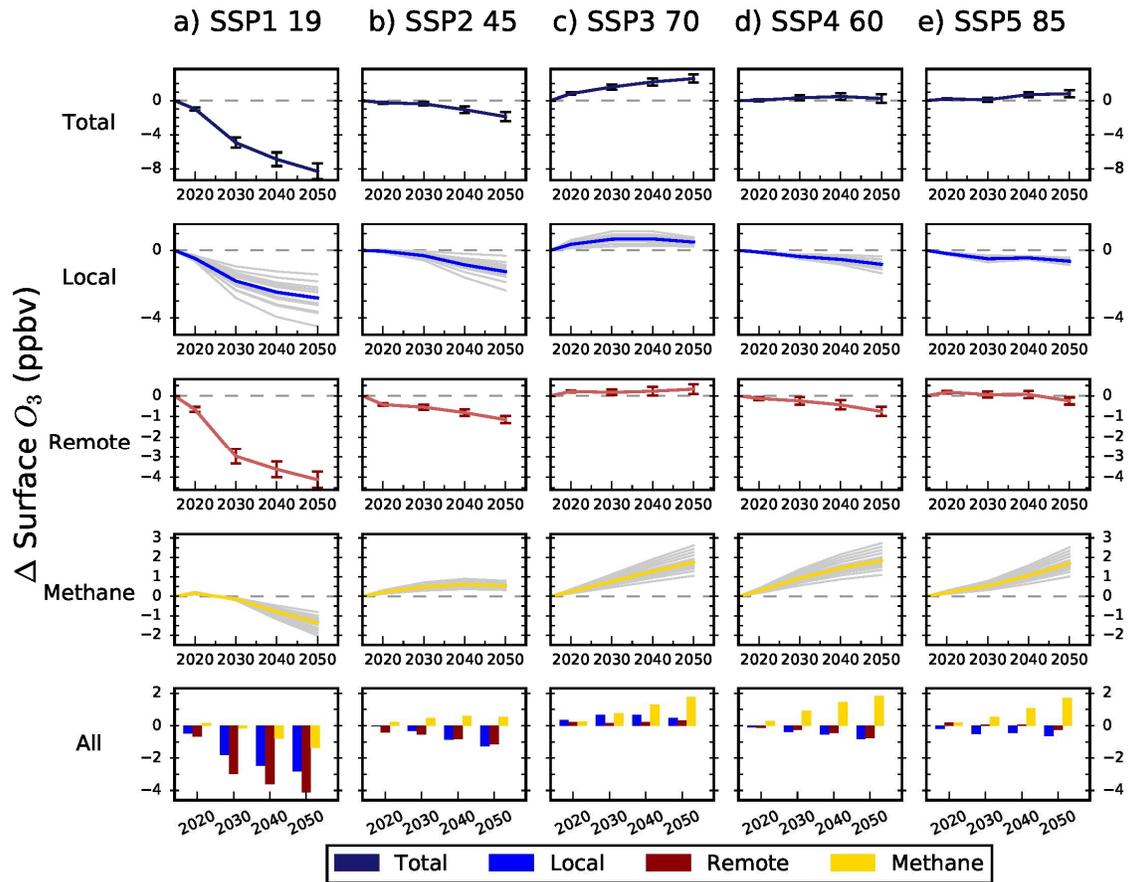
343 **Figure 4** – Changes in global and regional annual mean surface O<sub>3</sub> concentrations, relative to 2015,  
 344 for different future CMIP6 pathways. The spread in multi-model response in 2050 is represented by the  
 345 vertical line at the end of each plot ( $\pm 1$  standard deviation).

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 O<sub>3</sub>. Across  
 348 East Asia the contribution of locally formed O<sub>3</sub> to the total surface O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub>  
 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 O<sub>3</sub>, 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 CH<sub>4</sub> abundances rise and contribute to an increase in  
 355 surface O<sub>3</sub> of up to 2 ppbv.

356 Over South Asia, local emission sources are more important in influencing the total O<sub>3</sub>  
 357 response and counteract changes from external source regions. Large reductions in surface  
 358 O<sub>3</sub> concentrations are achieved in the strong mitigation scenario from local (-4.8 ppbv), remote  
 359 (-4.1 ppbv) and CH<sub>4</sub> (-1.5 ppbv) sources. However, in the medium and weak mitigation  
 360 scenarios surface O<sub>3</sub> increases from local emissions (up to +4.1 ppbv) and global CH<sub>4</sub>  
 361 abundance (up to +1.9 ppbv). This increase outweighs any reductions in O<sub>3</sub> obtained from  
 362 emission sources remote to South Asia (up to -1.6 ppbv).

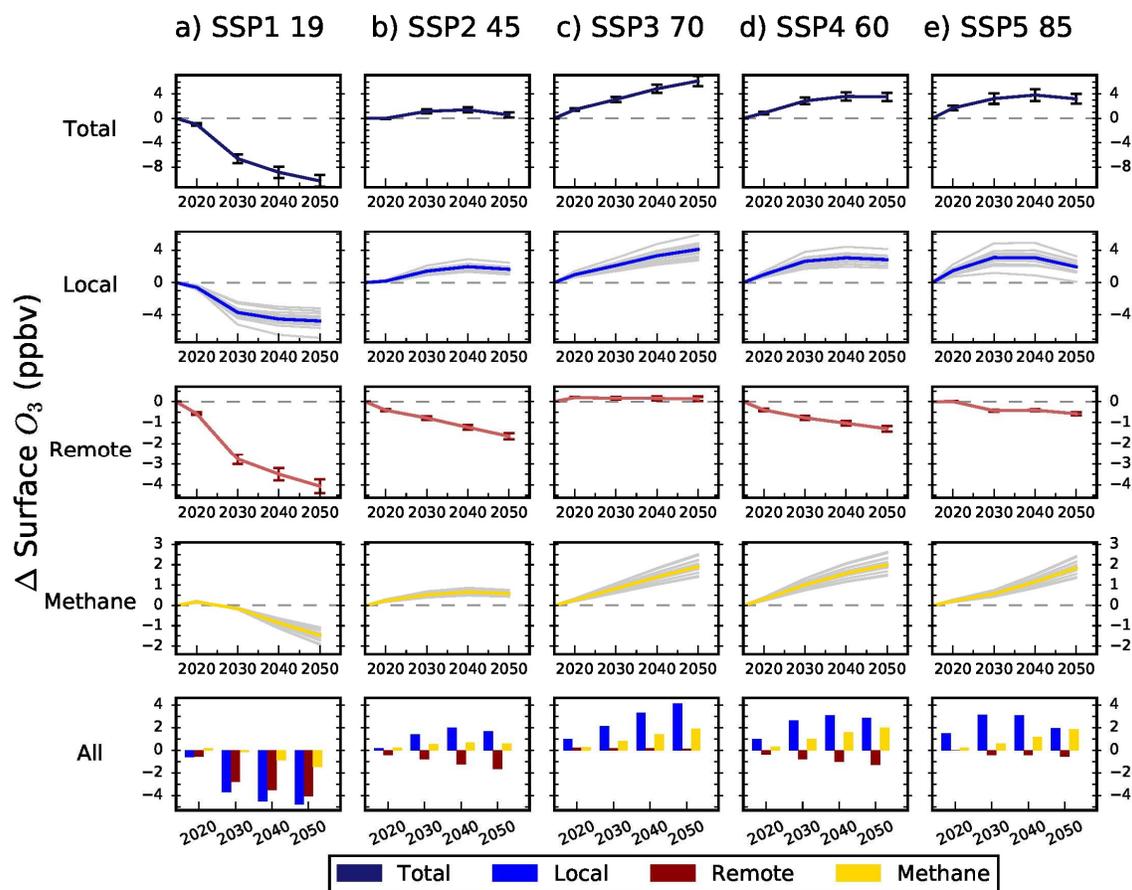
363 This analysis of source contributions highlights that local emission reductions are not always  
 364 enough to reduce regional surface O<sub>3</sub> concentrations in the future. Emission controls on a

365 hemispheric scale are also required, particularly for CH<sub>4</sub>, to reduce transboundary sources of  
 366 O<sub>3</sub> and keep the regional surface O<sub>3</sub> below present-day concentrations.



367

368 **Figure 5** - Total annual mean changes in regional surface O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> response from individual sources plotted together.

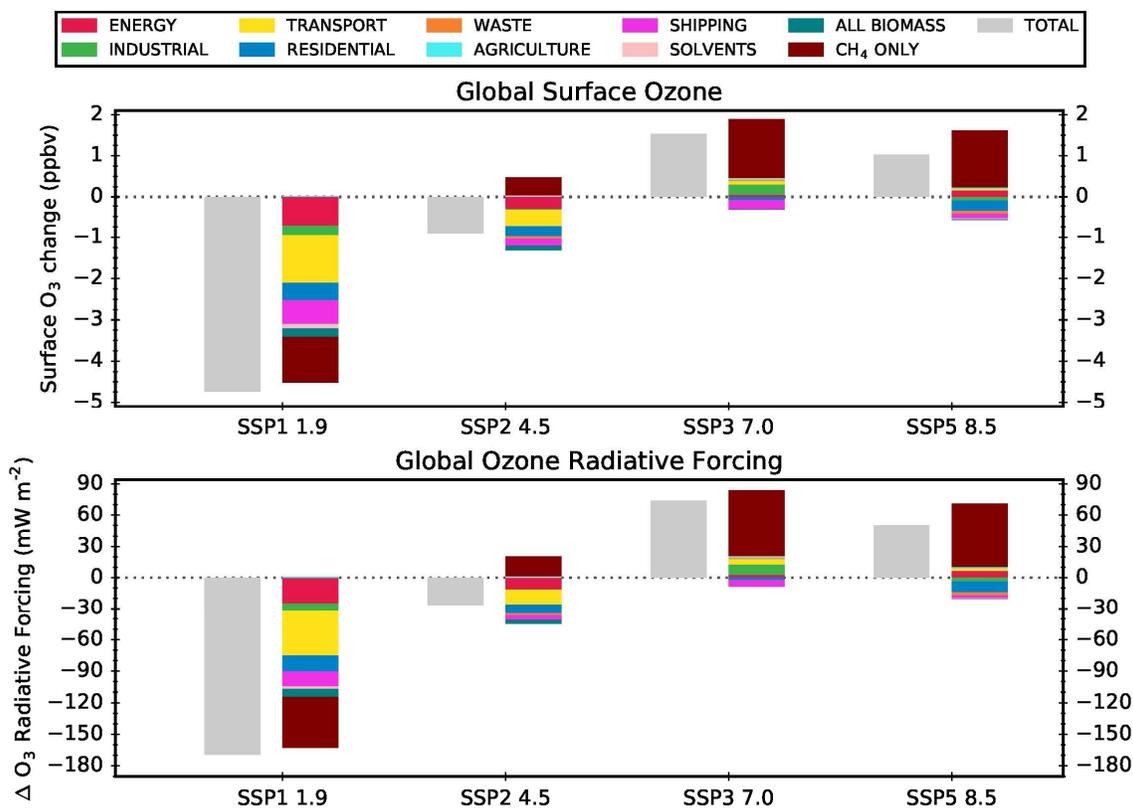


375

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).

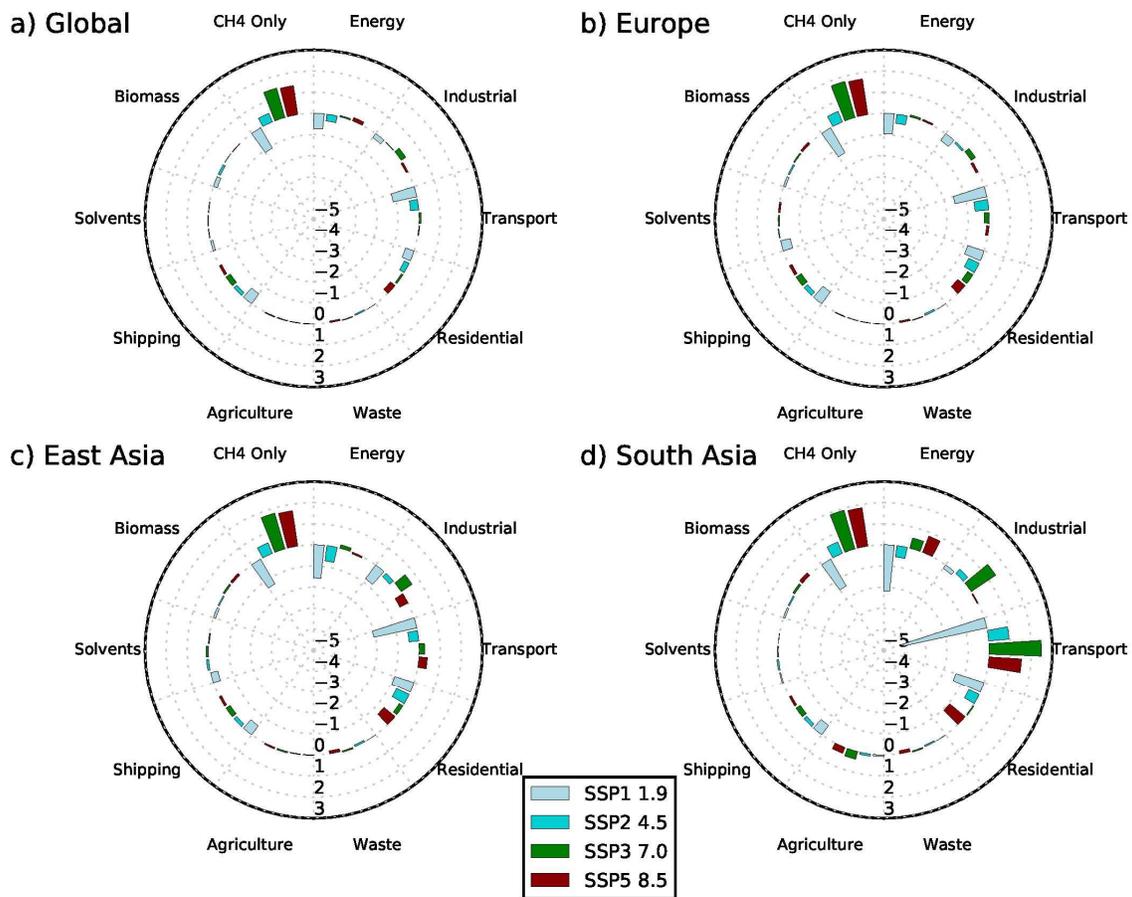


389

390 **Figure 7** – Changes in global annual mean surface O<sub>3</sub> concentrations (ppbv) and O<sub>3</sub> radiative forcing  
 391 (mW m<sup>-2</sup>) 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 O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> both globally  
 395 and regionally is changes in CH<sub>4</sub> abundance. An analysis of individual source sectors  
 396 contributing to CH<sub>4</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub>. 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 O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> of up to 2 ppbv over South Asia.

403 From the individual source contributions to surface O<sub>3</sub> in 2050, we find most of the benefit for  
 404 surface O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub>, 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 O<sub>3</sub> air quality benefits compared to the present day. Benefits can only be  
 409 achieved by targeting CH<sub>4</sub> sources, as well as local precursor emissions.



410

411 **Figure 8** – Changes in annual mean surface O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> 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 CH<sub>4</sub> abundance, with the energy, waste and agricultural sectors being important sources  
 416 contributing to changes in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Figure S8). For the weak mitigation scenarios  
 417 (SSP3 7.0 and SSP5 8.5) CH<sub>4</sub> is shown to be the main contributor, causing a positive O<sub>3</sub>  
 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 O<sub>3</sub> radiative forcing due to CH<sub>4</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> radiative forcing from the energy, transport, residential and shipping  
 423 sectors, as well as from CH<sub>4</sub>, which combine to produce the largest negative O<sub>3</sub> radiative  
 424 forcing by 2050. Strong reductions in both CH<sub>4</sub> and precursor emissions are needed to reduce  
 425 the warming effect of O<sub>3</sub>. Controlling CH<sub>4</sub> would have the largest impact on reducing future O<sub>3</sub>  
 426 radiative forcing, as the strong mitigation scenarios show that decreasing CH<sub>4</sub> can significantly  
 427 reduce the overall positive O<sub>3</sub> radiative forcing, as well as the direct CH<sub>4</sub> radiative forcing.

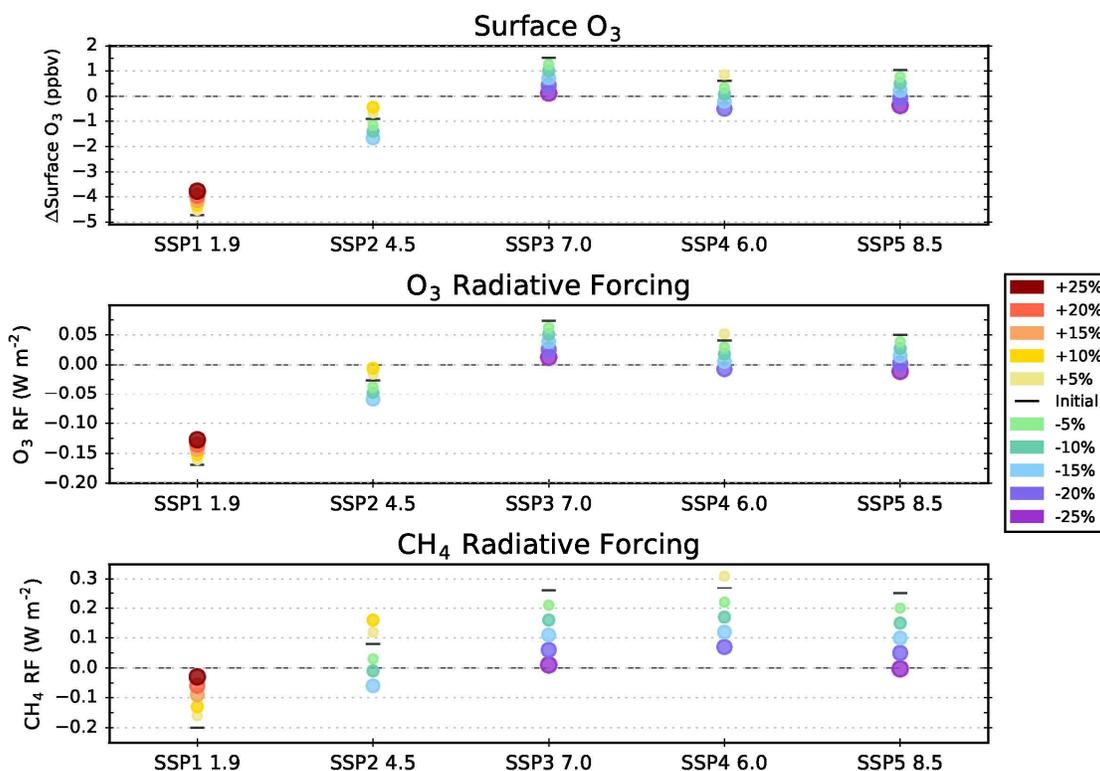
428 3.4 Reductions in Global Methane

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 CH<sub>4</sub>

431 abundances (-25% to +25%) compared to that in five of the SSPs (Table 4). For all SSPs  
 432 using lower values of CH<sub>4</sub> (of up to -25%) additionally reduces the predicted global surface O<sub>3</sub>  
 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 O<sub>3</sub>  
 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 CH<sub>4</sub> abundance was reduced by 15–25% of the original  
 437 value used in each scenario. A similar benefit is seen in climate forcing (both O<sub>3</sub> and direct  
 438 CH<sub>4</sub>). The O<sub>3</sub> radiative forcing in SSP1 1.9 would not be as large if the reductions in CH<sub>4</sub>  
 439 abundances were smaller under this scenario. If larger reductions in global CH<sub>4</sub> abundances  
 440 occurred for the weaker mitigation scenarios then O<sub>3</sub> radiative forcing in 2050 relative to 2015  
 441 could be reduced to near zero, with an additional reduction in the direct CH<sub>4</sub> radiative forcing  
 442 of up to 0.2 W m<sup>-2</sup>. Further reductions to the global CH<sub>4</sub> abundance by 2050 would deliver  
 443 clear additional benefits to surface O<sub>3</sub> air quality and near-term climate forcing (both O<sub>3</sub> and  
 444 CH<sub>4</sub>) under all SSPs.

445 **Table 4** – The response in global surface O<sub>3</sub>, O<sub>3</sub> radiative forcing and CH<sub>4</sub> radiative forcing to additional  
 446 perturbations in CH<sub>4</sub> 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 <sub>4</sub> (ppbv)	-	-	-	-	-	1428	1499	1571	1642	1714	1785
	ΔO <sub>3</sub> (ppbv)	-	-	-	-	-	-4.7	-4.5	-4.3	-4.1	-4.0	-3.8
	O <sub>3</sub> RF (Wm <sup>-2</sup> )	-	-	-	-	-	-0.17	-0.16	-0.15	-0.14	-0.14	-0.13
	CH <sub>4</sub> RF (Wm <sup>-2</sup> )	-	-	-	-	-	-0.20	-0.16	-0.13	-0.09	-0.06	-0.03
SSP2 4.5	ΔCH <sub>4</sub> (ppbv)	-	-	1717	1818	1919	2020	2121	2222	-	-	-
	ΔO <sub>3</sub> (ppbv)	-	-	-1.7	-1.4	-1.2	-0.9	-0.7	-0.4	-	-	-
	O <sub>3</sub> RF (Wm <sup>-2</sup> )	-	-	-0.06	-0.05	-0.04	-0.03	-0.02	-0.01	-	-	-
	CH <sub>4</sub> RF (Wm <sup>-2</sup> )	-	-	-0.06	-0.01	+0.03	+0.08	+0.12	+0.16	-	-	-
SSP3 7.0	ΔCH <sub>4</sub> (ppbv)	1854	1978	2101	2225	2348	2472	-	-	-	-	-
	ΔO <sub>3</sub> (ppbv)	+0.1	+0.4	+0.7	+1.0	+1.3	+1.5	-	-	-	-	-
	O <sub>3</sub> RF (Wm <sup>-2</sup> )	+0.01	+0.03	+0.04	+0.05	+0.06	+0.07	-	-	-	-	-
	CH <sub>4</sub> RF (Wm <sup>-2</sup> )	+0.01	+0.06	+0.11	+0.16	+0.21	+0.26	-	-	-	-	-
SSP4 6.0	ΔCH <sub>4</sub> (ppbv)	-	2003	2128	2253	2378	2504	2629	-	-	-	-
	ΔO <sub>3</sub> (ppbv)	-	-0.5	-0.2	+0.1	+0.4	+0.6	+0.9	-	-	-	-
	O <sub>3</sub> RF (Wm <sup>-2</sup> )	-	-0.01	+0.01	+0.02	+0.03	+0.04	+0.05	-	-	-	-
	CH <sub>4</sub> RF (Wm <sup>-2</sup> )	-	+0.07	+0.12	+0.17	+0.22	+0.27	+0.31	-	-	-	-
SSP5 8.5	ΔCH <sub>4</sub> (ppbv)	1835	1957	2079	2202	2324	2446	-	-	-	-	-
	ΔO <sub>3</sub> (ppbv)	-0.4	-0.1	+0.2	+0.5	+0.8	+1.0	-	-	-	-	-
	O <sub>3</sub> RF (Wm <sup>-2</sup> )	-0.01	+0.00	+0.01	+0.03	+0.04	+0.05	-	-	-	-	-
	CH <sub>4</sub> RF (Wm <sup>-2</sup> )	+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 O<sub>3</sub> concentrations, O<sub>3</sub> radiative  
 449 forcing and direct CH<sub>4</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> and its radiative forcing over the period 1750 to 2050. Changes in CH<sub>4</sub>  
 454 abundance and O<sub>3</sub> precursor emissions (NO<sub>x</sub>, 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 CH<sub>4</sub> abundances over the industrial period (1750-  
 459 2014) we find changes in surface O<sub>3</sub>, tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> burden and O<sub>3</sub> radiative forcing of +8  
 460 ppbv, +76 Tg and +0.3 W m<sup>-2</sup>. These changes in O<sub>3</sub> 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 (O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> is accounted for.

466 Nine future SSPs are used to explore changes to tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> 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 O<sub>3</sub> concentrations of more than 3.5 ppbv and have a global O<sub>3</sub> radiative forcing of less than -  
 470 0.1 W m<sup>-2</sup>. There is an additional benefit in these scenarios from the reduction in direct CH<sub>4</sub>

471 radiative forcing, to less than  $-0.15 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ . Large reductions in surface  $\text{O}_3$  occur across the  
472 Middle East and South Asia, due to substantial reductions in  $\text{O}_3$  precursor emissions and  
473 global  $\text{CH}_4$  abundance. These reductions will benefit both future surface  $\text{O}_3$  air quality and  
474 near-term climate forcing but remain well above pre-industrial values.

475 Surface  $\text{O}_3$  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  $\text{O}_3$  radiative forcing of  $>+0.05 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ , along with a direct  
478  $\text{CH}_4$  radiative forcing of up to  $+0.27 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ . This highlights that without reductions to  $\text{O}_3$   
479 precursor emissions, particularly  $\text{CH}_4$ , it will not be possible to prevent the future degradation  
480 of surface  $\text{O}_3$  air quality and the enhancement of anthropogenic climate forcing.

481 A source attribution for East Asia shows that any benefits to surface  $\text{O}_3$  from reducing local  
482 emission sources could be offset by intercontinental transport of  $\text{O}_3$  formed from sources  
483 remote to the region and that from global  $\text{CH}_4$  sources. In contrast, for South Asia local sources  
484 of  $\text{O}_3$  are shown to be more important than those remote to the region. Global  $\text{CH}_4$  and the  
485 transport, industrial and energy sectors have the largest contribution to changes in surface  $\text{O}_3$ .  
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  $\text{CH}_4$  within a scenario has a  
489 strong influence on the magnitude of benefits that can be achieved. Additional reductions in  
490 global  $\text{CH}_4$  abundance within a scenario have the potential to provide larger benefits for air  
491 quality and climate.

492 The  $\text{O}_3$  parameterisation used here provides an easy-to-use tool with which to rapidly assess  
493 the impact on tropospheric  $\text{O}_3$  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  $\text{CH}_4$ . While not replacing full model simulations, the tool can provide useful  
496 information on a range of future trajectories for tropospheric  $\text{O}_3$ . 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  
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