Reply to Anonymous Referee #1

We would like to thank the referee for the time and the useful comments that helped to clarify important aspects of the manuscript. Our replies to the comments have been added in blue.

(1) General comments:

Ozone in the troposphere is important for the radiative budget (i.e. greenhouse gas, GHG), atmospheric chemistry (e.g. main source of hydroxyl radicals) and air quality (i.e. pollutant with negative consequences for the biosphere). Thus it is crucial to understand its evolution during the 21st century under different pathways (i.e. emission scenarios). Indeed, a key term influencing the abundance and distribution of tropospheric ozone is the stratosphere-troposphere exchange (STE). The study investigates future changes of STE following the RCP8.5 and RCP6.0 emission scenarios based on experiments of the EMAC chemistry-climate model. Projections based on chemistry-climate models are a valuable mean to probe ozone evolution associated with specific factors – i.e. such as ozone precursors, GHGs and ozone depleting substances (ODSs) – albeit significant disagreements compared to observations and between models are often found.

Overall, the study addresses relevant research questions with regard to the evolution of the STE, its drivers and the contribution of stratospheric-produced ozone to the tropospheric budget. The manuscript is technically well written. Specific comments are detailed below, which are intended to help the authors improve the paper. Briefly, I suggest more details about the "climates" (sea-surface temperatures and sea-ice concentrations, SSTs/SICs) imposed on the simulations to better interpret the comparison between the two emission scenarios considered, since they are from different models (e.g. different climate sensitivity) with consequences for ozone (e.g. chemistry and dynamics). Also, I suggest further acknowledgement to the various roles that methane plays on ozone chemistry – in the troposphere and the stratosphere – as well as its importance on the evolution of the STE. I understand in this set of simulations the effect of an enhanced Brewer-Dobson circulation and stratospheric cooling cannot be separated from the role of methane on ozone chemistry. The present study is recommended for publication after the specific and technical comments are addressed.

We thank the referee for addressing these two important aspects. We have addressed both in detail in our responses to the specific comments below, and adapted the manuscript accordingly.

(2) Specific comments:

a. The study explores how two different emission scenarios (RCP6.0 and RCP8.5) affect the stratospheric ozone mass flux into the troposphere. There is, however, an inconsistency between the SSTs/SICs used that have not been explored/detailed. In order to compare and better understand the differences in STE between these scenarios, it would be desirable to discuss how the underlying Earth System Models (ESMs) – MPI-ESM and HadGEM2-ESM – project climate. For example, the difference in global surface warming by the end of the century (2081–2099 relative to 1985–2005) between these ESMs may be as large as 1 K (higher for HadGEM2-ESM) under the RCP8.5 (see Table 3 in Friedlingstein et al., 2014 – doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-12-00579.1). Moreover, Fig. 11 in Jöckel et al. (2016 – doi.org/10.5194/gmd-9-1153-2016) shows that internally generated (EMAC-MPIOM) global

and annual mean SSTs for the same period but following the RCP6.0 scenario are 1 K lower compared to those projected by HadGEM2-ES. Also, the CMIP5 ensemble projects that annual mean surface air temperature anomalies for the same period under the RCP6.0 and RCP8.5 are of 2.2 ± 0.5 K and 3.7 ± 0.7 K respectively (i.e. mean difference of 1.5 K; see Table 12.2 in IPCC, 2013). Therefore, the difference between the SSTs/SICs imposed on the simulations under these emission scenarios may be relatively small, implying that ozone precursor emissions (i.e. methane) may account for a large fraction of the STE difference (i.e. rather than climate-induced).

We thank the referee for this important comment. We have addressed this issue in the revision by including the following text in Section 4:

"Note that the difference in OMF change by 2100 between the timeslice and transient simulations may not be due to the different GHG scenario alone. The HadGEM2-ES model which provided the SST/SIC distribution for the transient RCP6.0 simulation is known to have a higher climate sensitivity than the MPI-ESM which provided the SST/SICs for the EMAC timeslice runs (Andrews et al., 2012). This might lead to a somewhat stronger future SST increase, stratosphere-troposphere exchange and OMF in the transient RCP6.0 run than would arise using MPI-ESM SSTs/SICs. Hence, the differences in OMF by 2100 discussed here represent a lower boundary estimate of the expected OMF differences between the RCP6.0 and RCP8.5 scenarios."

However, the following figure shows that the MPI-ESM RCP8.5 SSTs are clearly higher than the HadGEM2-ES RCP6.0 SSTs by the end of the century.





b. Methane is a GHG and plays various roles on ozone chemistry. Although, the authors already acknowledge the role of ozone precursors in the troposphere (i.e. methane; Page 5, lines 85–92; Page 20, lines 462–464), the effect on the stratosphere is not addressed (see below). Among other effects, it is an ozone precursor in the lower stratosphere (i.e. smog-like chemistry) and affects chlorine active/inactive partitioning, which is particularly important for polar regions under high concentrations of ODSs. An increase in methane abundances (e.g. boundary conditions) results in higher stratospheric ozone (e.g. Kawase et al., 2011 – doi.org/10.1029/2010GL046402; Revell et al., 2012 – doi.org/10.5194/acp-12-11309-2012), which will affect the stratospheric ozone mass flux into the troposphere. I guess in the GHG2100 simulation, methane is coupled to both, radiation and chemistry schemes. Therefore, the climate-induced and methane-related impacts on the STE cannot

be unambiguously separated (i.e. both included in the "GHG-induced changes"). I think this should be addressed more clearly in the manuscript and its main findings.

We included the following section to the introduction:

"Besides the temperature effect of the GHGs (mainly CO_2) on the ozone chemistry, the increasing abundances of CH_4 and N_2O also have an impact on the net production of stratospheric ozone: While higher N_2O concentrations are associated with an enhanced ozone loss in the stratosphere due to reactive nitrogen, a CH_4 increase not only causes a larger ozone loss in the lower and upper stratosphere but also leads to an increased ozone production in the lower stratosphere where it acts as an ozone precursor (e.g. Revell et al., 2012). In addition, CH_4 plays a role in polar ozone chemistry since changing CH_4 concentrations also alter the partitioning between halogen reservoir gases and activated halogen species (e.g. Nevison et al., 1999). The combined effect of the increasing GHG concentrations (including the interactions between the chemical cycles) on the net stratospheric ozone production is positive (e.g. Meul et al., 2014)."

We agree that in our simulations the climate-induced and the methane related impacts of GHG changes on STE cannot be separated, but this was not our intention but instead to distinguish between the GHG and ODS related effects on STE and tropospheric ozone change. A comment has been added in Section 2.1 for clarification.

(3) Technical comments:

Pages 1–2, lines 24–25. ". . . GHG effect on the STE change is due to circulation and stratospheric ozone changes, . . .". Does the latter refer to stratospheric cooling and/or methane-related chemistry? Please clarify.

The abstract has been rewritten to improve clarity.

Pagea 1–2, Abstract. Research question (4) refers to a comparison between the emission scenarios, yet I find no reference to this in the abstract.

The abstract has been rewritten to improve clarity.

Page 4, lines 77–79. Note Banerjee et al. (2016) in their "climate" simulations did not include methane (and N2O) in the chemistry scheme.

A respective comment has been added to the text.

Page 6, lines 111–113. The sentence reads a bit confusing – i.e. 1960–1999 period is not RCP6.0.

The sentence has been rewritten.

Page 7, lines 150–152. I guess "well-mixed GHGs" are coupled to the radiation and chemistry schemes. Please clarify, this is important to interpret the findings.

This has been clarified in the text.

Page 11, line 244. Typo: "... Eqation".

Corrected

Page 11, line 246. "... ozone flux into the NH is larger than into the SH..." Is this significant?

The difference between NH maximum and SH maximum is not significant so we removed this statement from the manuscript.

Page 12, lines 252–259. Here it would be appropriate to include the STE budget term from the ACCMIP ensemble (i.e. 477 ± 96 Tg/year; mean and sdev) that informed the last (AR5) IPCC assessment report (see Table 2 in Young et al., 2013; doi.org/10.5194/acp-13-2063-2013).

The paragraph has been rewritten including information from ACCENT, ACCMIP and IPCC (2013).

Page 12, lines 259–261. Note Olsen et al. (2002) presented an influx estimate for the NH midlatitudes (e.g. see their Table 1 for further estimates).

Thank you for this note. We now use the values from IPCC (2013) based on Young et al. (2013).

Page 13, line 289. Do you mean "O3s tropospheric columns. . ."?

Yes, 'tropospheric' added

Page 14, lines 302-303. "low(er). . . small(er)"?

Yes, corrected

Page 14, lines 309–311. I would also include where your model lies compared to the last IPCC report. As the authors commented, there is still a relatively large uncertainty on the STE term.

A broader discussion of the STE analyses from IPCC (2013) and model intercomparisons has been included in Section 3.2

Page 15, lines 325–326. Could the "... unintended neglect of minor chlorine source gases..." account partly for the difference on ozone mass flux trends compared to Hegglin and Shepherd (2009)?

Yes, the weaker ozone depletion due to the missing minor chlorine gases could contribute to the smaller negative trend. But we don't have the possibility to quantify this effect, so decided not to discuss this in the text.

Page 15, line 346. I would explain a bit more what the ". . . more extreme GHG emission scenario" means (i.e. climate-induced and methane-related impacts).

'climate change- and methane-related effects' has been included in the text.

Page 16, lines 356–359. From Fig. 5 it seems that non-linearities may not have a significant impact on the STE, and that ODS-only and GHG-only largely account for the total change (i.e. largest changes in ozone precursors are for methane).

Unfortunately, we are not able to test the impact of non-linearities but we agree that the effect is probably small.

Page 17, lines 385–389; Page 19, lines 419–420; Page 20, lines 460–462; Page 23, lines 522–524. I think the effect of methane-related chemistry on the STE and ozone should be included (assuming methane is coupled to the radiation and chemistry schemes).

We have rewritten the statement:

"The increase of Fin (or O3 x $-\overline{w}^*$) due to the GHG effect (Fig. 6d) is caused by an increase in the downwelling (i.e. $-\overline{w}^*$, positive for downwelling, Fig. 6e) of the BDC in the winter season with climate

change (e.g., Sudo et al., 2003; Butchart et al., 2010; Oberländer et al., 2013) in combination with an ozone increase resulting from modified chemical production and loss rates in the stratosphere and enhanced meridional transport (Figure 6f)."

Page 18, lines 403–405. Please clarify this sentence.

We have added a new figure (Figure 7) showing the changes in the seasonal breathing term. We think that this make this section clearer.

Page 20, lines 456–457. This is a robust result from different CCMs and worth mentioning (Banerjee et al., 2017 – doi.org/10.5194/acp-2017-741; Iglesias–Suarez et al., 2017 – doi.org/10.5194/acp-2017-939).

Both manuscripts address the radiative forcing due to changes in ozone which is not a topic of this manuscript. Moreover, Iglesias-Suarez et al. (2017) is still under review. Therefore, the references have not been added.

Page 41 and 46, Figure 4 and 9. "TS RCP8.5" legend is a bit confusing since it includes year 2000 (i.e. REF2000).

We have modified the Figures. Now it is stated "TS obs+RCP8.5".

Pages 43–44, Figure 6 and 7. How is the 95 % confidence level calculated? Please explain.

The statistical significance of the future changes is tested by applying the Student's t-test. We have included this information in the text.

Page 45, Figure 8. It would be very helpful to have the annual and global mean values [DU] and [%] at the top of the figures.

Done

Reply to Anonymous Referee #2

We would like to thank the referee for the time and the useful comments that helped to clarify important aspects of the manuscript. Our replies to the comments have been added in blue.

General assessment

This manuscript investigates the role of stratosphere-troposphere exchange of ozone on the tropospheric ozone budget and its drivers – climate change and declining ODS concentrations – over the 21st century. In general, the evaluations are straightforward and the manuscript is well written. While I see some shortcomings in the experimental setup of the simulations to answer the questions posed in a clean way (see major and minor comments in the following), the study offers some new and interesting insights, which warrant publication.

Major comments

A major issue of this study results from trying to answer question 5 – How is the ratio of stratospheric ozone in the troposphere changing in the future? The problem lies in how the authors have set up their simulations to answer the questions 1-5 posed, and that they do not allow for a clean separation of the different factors (ozone precursor, ODS, CH4, GHG effects) influencing stratosphere-troposphere exchange of ozone. As such the quantification of the relative contributions of the climate and ODS drivers seems somewhat unsatisfying, since the ratio of stratospheric to total ozone in the troposphere depends also on the mixture of the other contributions of CH4 and ozone precursor induced ozone production) need to be discussed more thoroughly.

The major goal of our study was to investigate the impacts of future changes in both GHG increases and ODS decline between 2000 and 2100 on STE and tropospheric ozone, both for the combined effect and the separate GHG and ODS effects. The additional effect of changes in tropospheric ozone production by changes in ozone precursors was implicitly included in the simulations: In the REF2100 simulation all ozone precursors were adapted to 2100; in the GHG2100 simulation the CH₄ GHG precursor was increased to 2100 values. With this model setup the goals of our study could be addressed. To clarify the inclusion of CH4 and precursors text has been added in Sections 2 and 4.

If I understand right, Figure 8 is meant to quantify the relative contributions of ODS decline and GHGincreases to the stratospheric ozone contribution to tropospheric ozone increases. However, I think the discussion of this Figure is not very logical. On P20 you focus first on the discussion of the relative contributions, which doesn't answer the question you pose at the beginning of the paragraph and in my eyes puts the wrong emphasis on these results. Per definition or design of your simulations, it is a given that the stratospheric contribution in the ODS-only simulation will be the main effect on tropospheric ozone levels (since nothing else is changing), so nothing surprising. The smallish regional differences can be explained by inconsistencies in boundary condition settings or internal variability of the climate system. Hence, the absolute numbers and their relative contributions to the ozone changes in the full simulation are of much more relevance and should be discussed first.

We are sorry but are not able to understand completely the referee's comment. In Fig. 9 (old Fig. 8) the left column shows from top to bottom the absolute change in the tropospheric ozone column, the absolute change in the tropospheric column of stratospheric ozone, and how much of tropospheric ozone column change is due by stratospheric ozone (in %), all that for the total forcing

by GHG and ODS changes. The middle column shows the same quantities only for GHG increase; the right column for ODS decline. We agree that in the GHG and ODS cases, change patterns are only due to the implied forcing change (and nothing else). And it is true that in the ODS run, the relative contribution from the stratosphere is very high because there is no CH4 increase in the troposphere (hence no changed ozone production) and the effects of dynamical changes are minor (although the stratospheric contribution is not 100% everywhere). But the benefit of this figure – in our opinion - is that by comparing the change patterns of the individual forcings with those by the total forcing allows us to derive which forcing affects which region to which extent.

List of comments

Abstract: I feel that the abstract could be much improved by summarising more succinctly and more clearly the main conclusions of the manuscript. At the moment they read like a conclusions section with too much (and nevertheless not enough) detail to me. In particular L29-30 are unclear to me, since you do not explain through which mechanism GHGs lead to increased tropospheric ozone loss.

The abstract has been rewritten and hopefully clarified.

Abstract L31: The notation of 'stratospheric column ozone in the troposphere' is confusing to me and seems too close to the notion of the stratospheric column ozone we usually refer to (that resides in the stratosphere). Could you say 'the column-integrated O3s in the troposphere' instead, or anything similar?

We have changed the notation.

P8L178ff: Appenzeller et al (1996) did only address the mass flux, not the ozone flux with their approach. It is important to note that the approach you follow is that of Hegglin and Shepherd (2009), which has to be seen as an extension of Appenzeller et al. Please add this reference to reflect this.

Reference Hegglin and Shepherd (2009) has been added to the text and the method clarified.

P4L77 Usually, scientists refer to 'idealized model simulations' where simplified models are used and not full-blown chemistry-climate models that hopefully are at least somewhat realistic. Suggest rephrasing here and further down (L104) as well.

'idealized' not really needed here and removed at both places

P6L188 correct to '. . . change in the future.'

done

P7L150 Using only 5 years of spin-up seem somewhat short to me given that you would need to bring the stratosphere (with transport times around 5 years in the upper stratosphere) into an updated state. Did you make any tests to see whether the model has no remaining drifts?

Yes, we checked that there were no drifts in the analysis periods of the model runs. The figure shows as an example global annual mean temperature of the REF2000 run (the analysis period extends from model year 2005 to model year 2045; all model years are run with year 2000 conditions).



P10L209-215 The explanation of this alternative method of estimating STE is unclear to me. Did these references really use the loss of O3s and not O3 to infer STE as a residual from O3 production/loss? What additional information would this yield compared to looking at O3s change as you do here?

Yes, they use the loss of the diagnostic O3s tracer. However, since this is not relevant here we have removed this part.

P10L223ff and P11L232 It would have been more convincing to compare the model results here to actual measurements in these figures to test the realism of the transition region and stratospheric transport in EMAC. However, I realize that this may be beyond the scope of this paper and do hence not request you to do so. However, it is difficult to say what you learn from a comparison with assimilated MOPPITT data as shown in Barre et al (2013), since these data do not have the required vertical resolution to resolve the transition region. I suggest to instead compare to the ACE-FTS derived correlations in Hegglin et al. (2009) who conveniently show the CO-O3 correlations for the 30-60N latitude band in DJF (and other seasons, see their figure 7) as you have chosen in your figure. Here you see (in contrast to the Tian et al (2010) paper) that the CO-O3 correlations has a strong seasonality and latitudinal dependency. Judging by eye in the apple-to-apple comparison when using the Hegglin et al Flgure, I would say EMAC is resolving the transition very well, not just reasonably well with CO values at O3=0.1, 0.5, 1,5 ppmv of around 90, 30, 17 ppbv, respectively.

The reference to the MOPPITT data has been removed and a comparison to ACE-FTS in Hegglin et al. (2009) included in the text instead. 'reasonably' has been removed.

Hegglin, M. I., C. D. Boone, G. L. Manney, K. A. Walker, A global view of the extratropical tropopause transition layer from Atmospheric Chemistry Experiment Fourier Transform Spectrometer O3, H2O, and CO, J. Geophys. Res., 114, D00B11, doi:10.1029/2008JD009984, 2009.

Reference has been added.

P11L228 The reference to Pan et al 2007 seems missing.

Pan et al. (2007) has been added in the list of references.

P12L259 IPCC (2013) has a newer compilation/assessment of STE ozone fluxes derived from different methodologies, please update to the range indicated there.

STE ozone fluxes from Table 8.1 in IPCC (2013) are used for comparison now. The section has been rewritten accordingly.

P13L276-8 It seems to me that the ozone influx from the stratosphere is larger in spring than in summer according to your results in Figure 2.

This is true for the SH, but in the NH the largest influx occurs in early summer. Text has been clarified.

P14L280 correct to '. . . in the SH.'

done

P14L282 again, I would prefer here '. . .the column-aggregated stratospheric ozone in the troposphere. . .'

Has been added.

P14L311 Please update this statement with respect to the IPCC 2013 results.

The reference to IPCC (2001) has been removed.

Tables 2 and 3: Please provide statistical uncertainties for your trend estimates.

The uncertainty ranges were included in Table 2 and 3. It has been added that all changes are significant on the 95% confidence level.

P16L358 See also major comment above. It seems crucial to highlight already in the methodology section that precursor emissions are not evolving in the GHG- and ODSC4 only simulations. Or did I miss this point? Can you provide an argument/estimate of the effect changes in precursor emissions could have on your results? This seems a major inconsistency in the design of your study with a potentially large effect on the amounts of ozone with stratospheric-origin in the troposphere that should be more thoroughly discussed also in the results and conclusion section. Not only are ozone precursor emissions potentially affecting the lifetime of O3s in the troposphere, but models predict that they had a major effect on lowermost stratospheric ozone concentrations as well, which will likely influence your derived ozone fluxes through non-linear chemical reactions.

The reference simulation for the year 2100 includes changes in tropospheric precursor emissions, hence future changes in tropospheric ozone production (in addition to changes in STE). In addition, the GHG2100 simulation considering the effect of increased GHG concentrations includes increases in CH_4 , i.e. the ozone precursor with the strongest trend in the RCP8.5 scenario, and consequently changes in tropospheric ozone production.

We have clarified this now by adding text in Sections 2 and 4.

P17L372-5 Reading your manuscript, I found this to be a very interesting and puzzling result, which you explain further down in more detail. However, to better envision what is going on I would appreciate to see how -dM/dt changes over time in particular given that this is the second major term in determining the ozone flux into the troposphere. I hence suggest adding a figure that quantifies the LMS mass changes over the 21st century.

A new Figure 7 has been added showing dM/dt in the same format as Fig. 5. The text has been expanded to explain the seasonal variation of the seasonal breathing term for the total, GHG and ODS forcings.

P19L424-6 I do not see that O3s is transported further down in the NH than in the SH in Figure 7, rather it seems the opposite. Also, the explanation seems not really an explanation since the chemical lifetime is equally long in the SH winter than in the NH winter. Please check.

The text states: "In the SH, the abundance of stratospheric ozone increases throughout the troposphere down to the surface. More O3s seems to be transported further down than in the NH,...". "Here" has been included to avoid misunderstanding.

P20L447 correct to '... a similarly strong ...'

Done

Figure 8 caption: Please indicate that the numbers you show are changes in ozone and not absolute amounts and do not just refer to Figure 6. Using delta O3 in the figure titles would achieve the same result.

Done

Figure 9 caption L1008: did you mean 'inter-annual'?

Yes; changed.

P21L484 Sentence seems incomplete.

We removed the sentence.

P21L386-8 Another factor that needs to be discussed are tropospheric ozone precursor emissions and their effect on the tropospheric ozone burden in the RCP6.0 simulation, since this will be another confounding factor when discussing relative changes in O3s contributions to total tropospheric ozone.

The role of tropospheric ozone precursors in the RCP6.0 and RCP8.5 simulations on the relative changes in O3s contributions in the troposphere had already been discussed in the manuscript by the following sentences:

"Thus, the increase in the contribution of O3s in the future is slightly smaller in the RCP8.5 scenario than in the RCP6.0 scenario, despite the larger increase in OMF shown in Figure 2. Here, the different evolution of tropospheric ozone production in the two GHG scenarios plays a crucial role."

P22L504 correct to '... will consist of 46% ozone from...'

Done

1 Future changes in the stratosphere-to-troposphere ozone mass flux and the contribution

2 from climate change and ozone recovery

3

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9

10 Abstract

Using a state-of-the-art chemistry-climate model we investigate the future change in 11 12 stratosphere-troposphere exchange (STE) of ozone, the drivers of this change as well as the future distribution of stratospheric ozone in the troposphere. Supplementary to previous work, 13 14 our focus is on changes on the monthly scale. The global mean annual influx of stratospheric ozone into the troposphere is projected to increase by 53% between the years 2000 and 2100 15 16 under the RCP8.5 greenhouse gas scenario. The change in ozone mass flux (OMF) into the 17 troposphere is positive throughout the year with maximal increase in the summer months of the 18 respective hemispheres. Whereas in the northern hemisphere (NH) this summer maximum in STE increase is a result of increasing greenhouse gas (GHG) concentrations, it is due to equal 19 20 contributions of decreasing levels of ozone depleting substances (ODS) and increasing GHG concentrations in the southern hemisphere (SH). Here the GHG effect is dominating in the 21 22 winter months. A large ODS-related ozone increase in the SH stratosphere leads to a change in the seasonal breathing term which results in a future decrease of the OMF into the troposphere 23 in the SH in September and October. The resulting distributions of stratospheric ozone in the 24

troposphere differ for the GHG and ODS changes because (a) ozone input occurs at different 25 regions for GHG- (midlatitudes) and ODS-changes (high latitudes), and (b) stratospheric ozone 26 27 is more efficiently mixed towards lower tropospheric levels in the case of ODS changes, whereas tropospheric ozone loss rates grow when GHG concentrations rise. The comparison 28 between the moderate RCP6.0 and the extreme RCP8.5 emission scenarios reveals that the 29 annual global OMF trend is smaller in the moderate scenario, but the resulting change in the 30 contribution of O3s to ozone in the troposphere is of comparable magnitude in both scenarios 31 32 due to the larger tropospheric ozone precursor emissions and hence ozone production in the RCP8.5 scenario. 33

34 1. Introduction

35 Ozone (O_3) in the troposphere has two sources: photochemical production involving ozone 36 precursor species such as nitrogen oxides (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO) and hydrocarbons (e.g., methane (CH₄)) and the transport of ozone from the stratosphere into the troposphere (i.e. 37 stratosphere-troposphere exchange, STE) (IPCC, 2001). Mass can be exchanged between the 38 39 stratosphere and the troposphere along isentropic surfaces which intersect the tropopause in the 40 lowermost stratosphere (LMS) (Holton et al., 1995) where the chemical lifetime of ozone is 41 larger than the transport timescale. Tropopause folds in the vicinity of the polar and the 42 subtropical jets and cut-off lows are important structures for the effective transport of stratospheric air masses into the troposphere because of their large displacements of the 43 tropopause on isentropic surfaces (Stohl et al., 2003). Mass exchange is also possible by slow 44 cross-isentropic transport, which is driven by diabatic cooling (Stohl et al., 2003) through the 45 large-scale vertical motion of air in the stratospheric meridional residual circulation, the 46 47 Brewer-Dobson circulation (BDC).

48 Earlier studies have shown that in a changing climate the mass transport from the stratosphere will increase due to a strengthened BDC (e.g., Scaife and Butchart, 2001; Butchart et al., 49 50 2010; Oberländer et al., 2013). Akritidis et al. (2016) found coinciding increases in the 51 frequency of tropopause folds in summer over the Eastern Mediterranean and in stratospheric 52 ozone in the lower troposphere between 1979 and 2013. In addition to changes in the ozone transport from the stratosphere into the troposphere, ozone concentrations in the stratosphere 53 54 are expected to change. Due to declining halogen levels in the stratosphere following the 55 regulation of ozone depleting substances (ODS) by the Montreal Protocol and its amendments, stratospheric ozone is projected to recover during the 21st century (e.g., WMO, 56 2014). In addition, radiative cooling of the stratosphere associated with the rising 57

| 58 | concentrations of well-mixed greenhouse gases (GHG) (i.e. carbon dioxide (CO ₂), nitrous |
|----|---|
| 59 | oxide (N ₂ O) and CH ₄) will lead to reduced ozone loss rates and an ozone increase in the |
| 60 | stratosphere (e.g., Jonsson et al., 2004). Besides the temperature effect of the GHGs (mainly |
| 61 | CO ₂) on the ozone chemistry, the increasing abundances of CH ₄ and N ₂ O also have an impact |
| 62 | on the net production of stratospheric ozone: While higher N ₂ O concentrations are associated |
| 63 | with an enhanced ozone loss in the stratosphere due to reactive nitrogen, a CH ₄ increase not |
| 64 | only causes a larger ozone loss in the lower and upper stratosphere but also leads to an |
| 65 | increased ozone production in the lower stratosphere where it acts as an ozone precursor (e.g., |
| 66 | Revell et al., 2012). In addition, CH ₄ plays a role in polar ozone chemistry since changing |
| 67 | CH ₄ concentrations also alter the partitioning between halogen reservoir gases and activated |
| 68 | halogen species (e.g., Nevison et al., 1999). The combined effect of the increasing GHG |
| 69 | concentrations (including the interactions between the chemical cycles) on the net |
| 70 | stratospheric ozone production is positive (e.g., Meul et al., 2014). |
| 71 | -Both, the intensified stratospheric circulation, and the concurrent recovery increase of |
| 72 | stratospheric ozone are expected to lead to an increase in the ozone mass entering the |
| 73 | troposphere (e.g., Stevenson et al., 2006; Shindell et al., 2006; Hegglin and Shepherd, 2009; |
| 74 | Young et al., 2013; Banerjee et al., 2016). Previous studies with different models and |
| 75 | approaches have indicated a dominant role of stratospheric circulation changes for the |
| 76 | increased STE (e.g., Sudo et al., 2003; Zeng and Pyle, 2003; Collins et al., 2003). Also in |
| 77 | observational data, the connection between stratospheric circulation changes and tropospheric |
| 78 | ozone variations was identified (Neu et al., 2014). However for the past, Ordóñez et al. (2007) |
| 79 | showed that changes in lowermost stratospheric ozone concentrations have a larger effect on |
| 80 | the STE change than variations in cross-tropopause air mass transport. A reduced STE due to |
| 81 | stratospheric ozone depletion in the past was found by Shindell et al. (2006) to offset more |
| 82 | than half of the tropospheric ozone increase since preindustrial times. The influence of |

stratospheric ozone recovery on STE in the future was reported by Zeng et al. (2010) who
showed that in the Southern Hemisphere (SH) during winter stratospheric ozone increase and
climate change have a nearly equal contribution to the increase in surface ozone under the
A1B scenario. More recently, the drivers of future STE changes have been analysed by
Banerjee et al. (2016) in idealized model simulations. Neglecting the impact of methane and
N₂O, <u>T</u>they find that ODS and climate change under the RCP8.5 scenario contribute about
equally to the annual global STE increase between 2000 and 2100.

90 Rising GHG concentrations, however, do not only affect the stratospheric circulation and 91 chemistry. In the troposphere, GHG-induced warming increases the water vapour content and 92 thus tropospheric ozone destruction (e.g., Johnson et al., 1999). This results in a decrease of 93 chemical ozone lifetimes (e.g., Zeng et al., 2010; Banerjee et al., 2016) which means that the 94 distribution and the burden of stratospheric ozone entering the troposphere are also altered.

In addition to a changing amount of stratospheric ozone in the troposphere, changing future 95 emissions of ozone precursor species will affect the local ozone production in the troposphere 96 (e.g. Monks et al., 2009). Large differences exist in the temporal evolution of the emissions 97 98 between the Representative Concentration Pathways (RCP) for the radiative forcing of 6.0 W/m^2 and 8.5 W/m^2 (Meinshausen et al., 2011), especially for CH₄. This will result in a larger 99 ozone production under the RCP8.5 scenario at the end of the 21st century compared to the 100 101 RCP6.0 scenario. As a consequence, the importance of stratospheric ozone in the troposphere in the future will depend on the net tropospheric chemical ozone production. 102

Most studies addressing the question of future STE changes and their role for tropospheric ozone trends focus on the annual and global integrated fluxes. Hegglin and Shepherd (2009) showed also the annual cycle of the ozone mass fluxOMF derived from a boxmodel approach introduced by Appenzeller et al. (1996). In their model simulation, the maximum ozone flux occurs in spring in the SH and Northern Hemisphere (NH) for the 1960 to 1970 mean. In the future (2090-2100), the peak is shifted towards late spring/early summer in the NH and towards winter in the SH. As Roelofs and Lelieveld (1997) reported, the seasonal timing of the input of stratospheric ozone into the troposphere is relevant for potential mixing of stratospheric ozone towards the surface, since in summer the ozone loss rate is larger than in winter. This means that the future distribution of stratospheric ozone in the troposphere depends not only on the overall increase on <u>OMF</u>, but also on the seasonality of the input.

The aim of our study is therefore, to quantify the future changes of STE in idealized simulations 114 115 with a chemistry-climate model (CCM) under the most extreme RCP8.5 scenario for the annual and monthly means. We identify the changes in the seasonal cycle of STE due to the projected 116 increase in GHGs and decline in ODS, i.e. the associated stratospheric ozone recovery. 117 118 Furthermore, we analyse the resulting changes in the distribution of stratospheric ozone in the troposphere, using comprehensive stratospheric and tropospheric chemistry. We thus and 119 therefore considering the full range of changes in chemical loss and production caused by GHG 120 or ODS changes. By analyzing The additional analysis with an additional -transient 121 122 simulationrun run under the RCP6.0 scenario we are able allows us on the one hand to study 123 the past changes between 1960 and 1999 and on the other hand to compare assess the different 124 effects of a moderate and a strongtwo different GHG scenarios and their effect on the future <u>OMF and trends of n</u> stratospheric ozone trends in the troposphere. 125

- 126 In this study we want to address the following research questions:
- 127 (1) How will the stratosphere-to-troposphere ozone mass flux<u>OMF</u> change in the future?
- (2) What are the major drivers of the future changes in the stratosphere-to-troposphere ozone
 mass fluxOMF?
- 130 (3) Will the seasonality of the STE change in <u>the future?</u>
- 131 (4) How will the GHG emission scenarios affect the ozone mass flux<u>OMF</u> into the troposphere?
- 132 (5) How is the ratio of stratospheric ozone in the troposphere changed in the future?

The study is structured as followed: First the model and the experimental set-up used for the simulations are described as well as the methodology for calculating the ozone mass fluxOMF from the stratosphere to the troposphere (Section 2). In Section 3 we show the climatological mean state of the year 2000 simulation for a basic evaluation. Results of mass flux changes and changes in the distribution of stratospheric ozone in the troposphere are shown in Section 4 followed by the attribution analysis in Section 5. The results are summarized in Section 6.

139

140 2. Model experiments and methods

141 **2.1 Model experiments**

In this study we applied the EMAC (ECHAM/MESSy Atmospheric Chemistry) CCM version 142 described by Jöckel et al. (2016) in the T42L47MA configuration, i.e. with 47 model layers and 143 a horizontal resolution of 2.8°x2.8°. EMAC is a numerical chemistry and climate simulation 144 system that includes submodels describing tropospheric and middle atmosphere processes and 145 their interaction with oceans, land and human influences (Jöckel et al., 2016). It uses the second 146 version of the Modular Earth Submodel System (MESSy2) to link multi-institutional computer 147 codes. The core atmospheric model is the 5th-generation European Centre Hamburg general 148 circulation model (ECHAM5) (Roeckner et al., 2006). The atmospheric chemistry is calculated 149 using the submodule MECCA (Module Efficiently Calculating the Chemistry of the 150 Atmosphere; revised version by Sander et al., 2011a). The gas-phase rate coefficients follow 151 the latest recommendations of JPL (Sander et al., 2011b). For heterogeneous reactions in the 152 stratosphere the rate coefficients are calculated with the submodel MSBM (Multi-phase 153 Stratospheric Box Model) which also returns the parameters (e.g., number densities, surface 154 areas) of the sulfuric acid aerosols and the polar stratospheric cloud (PSC) particles. 155

156 To quantify the impact of increasing GHG concentrations and of declining stratospheric

halogen levels on the net ozone mass fluxOMF from the stratosphere into the troposphere, we 157 performed four experiments in timeslice mode, i.e. with non-varying boundary conditions from 158 year to year, but including a seasonal cycle. In addition to reference simulations for the years 159 2000 and 2100, one sensitivity simulation for GHG increase only and one for ODS decrease 160 161 only have been set up. Each timeslice simulation has been integrated over 40 years following 5 years of spin-up time. Future surface concentrations of the well-mixed GHGs (CO₂, N₂O, CH₄) 162 are prescribed according to the extreme RCP8.5 scenario (Meinshausen et al., 2011) in order to 163 reveal the upper boundary of the anticipated future changes. They are coupled to both the 164 radiation and chemistry schemes of the model. The changes in tropospheric ozone precursor 165 species (such as nitrogen monoxide (NO), carbon monoxide (CO), CH₄ and non-methane 166 volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs) also follow the RCP8.5 emission scenario and are 167 included in the reference simulation for the year 2100. Since CH₄ acts as both a GHG and 168 tropospheric ozone precursor, a clear separation of the effects by prescribing the surface 169 boundary conditions in a model run is not possible. Therefore, for the GHG sensitivity 170 simulation the non-methane precursor compounds are fixed at the year 2000 level (see Table 2) 171 172 whereas CH₄ is increasing. Although the RCP scenarios project the surface emissions of NOx, CO and NMVOCs in the year 2100 to be lower than in the year 2000, the strong increase in 173 CH₄ concentrations (more than doubling in the RCP8.5) will lead to an increased tropospheric 174 ozone production by the end of the 21st century which is attributed to the GHG change in this 175 176 study.

¹⁷⁷ <u>-</u>The estimated decline of ODS as a consequence of the successful regulation of halogen ¹⁷⁸ containing species in the Montreal Protocol and its amendments is given by the boundary ¹⁷⁹ conditions following the A1 scenario in WMO (2011). Note that due to an unintended neglect ¹⁸⁰ of minor chlorine source gases CFC-113, CFC-144, CFC-155 as well as HCFC-22, HCFC-¹⁸¹ 141b and HCFC-142b, stratospheric chlorine levels in the year 2000 are underestimated by about 10%.

The quasi-biennial oscillation (QBO) of tropical winds in the stratosphere is nudged to 183 184 observations following Giorgetta and Bengtsson (1999). Solar variability like the 11-year solar cycle is not included, instead solar mean conditions of solar cycle number 22 are prescribed. 185 186 The sea surface temperature (SST) and sea ice concentration (SIC) fields are prescribed as 10-187 year averages around the respective years using the output from a transient simulation with the 188 coupled atmosphere ocean model MPI-ESM (Max-Planck-Institute Earth System Model; Giorgetta et al., 2013; Schmidt et al., 2013) for the RCP8.5 scenario. Using multi-year averages 189 190 reduces the inter-annual variability of the SSTs, but ensures quasi neutral conditions of the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO). An overview of the boundary conditions in the four 191 simulations is given in Table 1. The chosen setup of the simulations allows us to separate the 192 combined effect of the CO₂, N₂O and CH₄ increase from the ODS effect on the future OMF. It 193 has to be noted that the GHG-induced changes in this study include all GHG-related effects on 194 195 stratospheric chemistry and dynamics, and the contributions from GHG-induced climate change

196 <u>cannot be separated from the impact of CH_4 and N_2O related changes in the ozone chemistry.</u>

197 To show the temporal evolution of the changes and to compare the effects for different GHG scenarios we also analyse the model output from the transient simulation RC2-base-05 of the 198 Earth System Chemistry integrated Modelling (ESCiMo) project (Jöckel et al., 2016) which has 199 been integrated according to the RCP6.0 scenario from 1960 to 2100 following a 10-year spin-200 201 up. The SST and SIC fields for the RCP6.0 scenario are prescribed from the Hadley Centre 202 Global Environment Model version 2 - Earth System (HadGEM2-ES) Model (Collins et al., 2011; Martin et al., 2011). The boundary conditions for this simulation are given in Table 1. 203 More detailed information of this simulation can be found in Jöckel et al. (2016). Note that 204 205 consistent SSTs/SICs from a MPI-ESM RCP6.0 simulation were not available. Potential effects of the different SST datasets are discussed in section 4. It has also to be noted, that the
stratospheric ozone loss in the past is underestimated in this simulation, which affects the trends
in ozone mass fluxOMF.

209 **2.2 Methods**

210 To quantify the net ozone mass fluxOMF from the stratosphere into the troposphere we followapply the boxmodel approach described by Hegglin and Shepherd (2009) which is an 211 212 extension to the boxmodel approach by Appenzeller et al. (1996). They Appenzeller et al. (1996) described the hemispheric net mass transport in a simple model which consists of three regions 213 214 (i.e. boxes), the troposphere, the 'lowermost stratosphere' (LMS) and the 'overworld'. The LMS is the region where isentropic surfaces intersect the tropopause. Thus mass can be exchanged 215 between the stratosphere and the troposphere along such isentropic surfaces. Above the LMS, 216 217 often referred to as the overworld according to Holton et al. (1995), the isentropic surfaces lie entirely in the stratosphere and mass exchange is only possible by cross-isentropic transport, 218 which is carried out by the large-scale meridional circulation in the stratosphere (BDC). Due to 219 220 mass continuity, a mass flux from the overworld into the LMS (F_{in}) must be balanced by a mass 221 flux out of the LMS (Fout) and/or mass change (dM/dt) in the LMS:

 $\label{eq:Fin} \mbox{222} \qquad F_{in} = F_{out} + dM/dt \qquad (1).$

In our study we use the 91 hPa surface (nearest pressure level of the model output to 100 hPa) as upper boundary for the LMS boxmodel and the model tropopause (a combination of the thermal tropopause in the tropics and the dynamical tropopause in the extratropics) as lower boundary, analogously to Hegglin and Shepherd (2009). Thus, M in Equation 1 is the total ozone mass between these boundaries, and dM/dt is the monthly change of M. F_{in} is calculated for each hemisphere as the area-weighted integral of the product of the monthly zonal mean ozone concentration and the negative of the monthly mean residual vertical velocity ($-\overline{w}^*$) at 91

hPa at each gridpoint. Since, by definition, the vertical velocity is positive for upward and 230 231 negative for downward motion, \overline{w}^* is multiplied by the factor -1 in order to get positive values for the downward ozone mass fluxOMF into the troposphere. Finally, Fout is calculated as 232 residual. It has to be noted that with this methodology it is not possible to study the transport 233 234 pathways. The use of the 91 hPa surface as upper boundary instead of 100 hPa leads to slightly 235 lower values of the resulting ozone mass fluxOMF (< 2-% in the REF2000 simulation, estimation based on linear interpolation between the two model pressure surfaces surrounding 236 100 hPa). 237

238 To distinguish ozone with stratospheric origin (O3s) and ozone produced in the troposphere (O3t) we use a diagnostic tracer O3s (Roelofs and Lelieveld, 1997; Collins et al., 2003; Jöckel 239 240 et al., 2016). This tracer is reset in each model time step (by nudging with a relaxation time equaling the model time step length) to the interactive ozone above the model tropopause. In 241 242 the troposphere, the chemical production of O3s is omitted while the sinks of O3s, i.e. chemical 243 loss and dry deposition, are considered in the same way as for O3. The loss of O3s (LO3s) plus 244 the dry deposition have been used as a qualitative measure of STE in earlier studies (e.g., Roelofs and Lelieveld, 1997; Jöckel et al., 2006). However, in our study this different method 245 246 of STE estimation was not applied since the output of dry deposition for the O3s tracer was not available. Also, LO3s is not only affected by changes in ozone flux but also by changes in 247 tropospheric ozone chemistry due to the prescribed forcings, potentially leading to differences 248 in the derived STE. The statistical significance of the future changes is tested by applying the 249 Student's t-test. 250

251

252 **3.** Equilibrium state of the year 2000 (REF2000)

Before we estimate the future change in ozone mass fluxOMF into the troposphere, the presentday equilibrium state is analysed to ensure that the important mixing processes and tracer distributions are represented realistically in the EMAC simulations. An effective method to investigate STE and mixing processes in the LMS are tracer-tracer correlations.

257 **3.1 Tracer-tracer correlations from scatter plots**

258 Fischer et al. (2000) introduced the O_3 -CO correlations for aircraft in situ measurements to 259 analyse the chemical transition between the stratosphere and troposphere and the mixing processes in the UTLS. Due to the sharp gradients with high CO (low O₃) values in the upper 260 troposphere and low CO (high O₃) values in the lower stratosphere, the O₃-CO scatter plot has 261 a characteristic L-shape in the UTLS (e.g., Fischer et al., 2000; Tian et al., 2010; Barré et al., 262 2013). Pan et al. (2007) distinguish the stratospheric branch and the tropospheric branch with a 263 quasi linear relation between O₃ and CO and a transition region in between characterized by 264 265 non-linear behavior. Figure 1 (top) shows the O_3 -CO scatter plot for the REF2000 simulation in the northern middle mid-latitudes. Compared to the correlationsresults shown by Fischer et 266 al. (2000) (derived forfrom aircraft measurements) and by Hegglin et al. (2009) (derived from 267 ACE-FTS measurements) Barré et al. (2013) for measurements and model data, we find that 268 the L-shape of the correlation is captured reasonably well by the EMAC timeslice simulation. 269

The shape of the O_3 - N_2O scatter plot (Figure 1, bottom) with a full stratosphere coverage results from the negative vertical gradient in N_2O and the O_3 maximum in the stratosphere: The correlation is negative below the ozone maximum and positive above. The fan-shaped structure is due to the horizontal gradient with higher O_3 and N_2O values in the tropics than in the extratropics. The model result is in qualitative agreement with O_3 - N_2O scatter plots for ACE measurements shown by Hegglin and Shepherd (2007). This comparison indicates that the dynamical and chemical processes in the transition region between the troposphere and stratosphere are realistic in the EMAC timeslice simulations and allows us to assess the future changes.

279 3.2 Ozone mass flux (OMF)

The annual cycle of the ozone mass flux<u>OMF</u> into the troposphere (F_{out} , calculated according Equation 1) for the year 2000 reference simulation is shown in Figure 2a, integrated globally and over the NH and SH respectively. The ozone mass flux<u>OMF</u> into the NH is larger than into the SH and has its peak in early summer (June), whereas in the SH the maximum ozone mass flux<u>OMF</u> is found in spring (October). The annual cycle in the EMAC REF2000 simulation is comparable to the results of Hegglin and Shepherd (2009) for the period 1960 to 1970, but with a less pronounced peak in the NH spring in EMAC.

Integrated over all months, the ozone mass fluxOMF in the EMAC REF2000 timeslice 287 simulation reaches 390 ± 187 Tg per/year in the NH, 322 ± 165 Tg per/year in the SH and 712 288 ± 264 Tg per/year globally. Compared to estimates derived from observations (540 ± 140 Tg 289 290 per year; Olsen et al., 2001; Wild, 2007), the global OMF is slightly overestimated in EMAC, 291 however, within the range of 340 – 1440 Tg per year given by Wild (2007) for a number of models. The global ozone mass flux The STE OMF in EMAC hits the upper boundary of the 292 ozone mass fluxOMF derived from the Atmospheric Composition Change: the European 293 294 Network of excellence (ACCENT) tropospheric model intercomparisons for the year 2000 (552 \pm 168 Tg per year) (for the year 2000 (552 \pm 168 Tg/year; Stevenson et al., 2006), while and is 295 larger than the ozone mass flux reported by Hegglin and Shepherd (2009) ($655 \pm 5 \text{ Tg/year}$), 296 which was derived by averaging the 1995 to 2005 period of a transient simulation with a middle 297 atmosphere resolving CCM. or by Young et al. (2013) (477 ± 96 Tg/yr) who estimated the 298 mean net influx of STE ozone from the stratosphere to the troposphere OMF from six models 299

300 of the Atmospheric Chemistry and Climate Model Intercomparison Project (ACCMIP) was lower (477 \pm 96 Tg per year; Young et al., 2013). The estimated STE OMFs generally show a 301 large range as they strongly depend on various factors, such as the prescribed ozone precursors, 302 the horizontal and vertical resolution of the applied models, the definition of the tropopause, or 303 the degree of chemical processes considered in the models. Hegglin and Shepherd (2009), using 304 a middle atmosphere resolving CCM with full chemistry - comparable in complexity to the 305 EMAC CCM used in this study – derived a global STE ozone flux of 655 ± 5 Tg per year, 306 averaged over the 1995 to 2005 period of a transient simulation. However, the ozone mass flux 307 in the REF2000 simulation lies in the range of 340 – 930 Tg/year given by Collins et al. (2000) 308 for a range of models and agrees well with the ozone mass flux of 770 ± 400 Tg/year given in 309 310 IPCC (2001). Compared to estimates derived from observations (500 ± 140 Tg/year; Olsen et al., 2002), the ozone mass flux in the EMAC timeslice simulation is slightly overestimated. 311

To better understand the changes in the calculated ozone mass flux OMF ($F_{out} = F_{in} - dM/dt$), 312 313 we analyse the climatological annual cycle of the two ozone mass flux OMF components, Fin at 91 hPa (Figure 2b) and -dM/dt (Figure 2c). The ozone mass fluxOMF across the 91 hPa 314 pressure level is controlled by the seasonality of the BDC with the maximum (ozone) net mass 315 316 transport flux into the LMS in the winter hemisphere and a hemispherically asymmetric strength (Figure 2b). The ozone distribution in the stratosphere (see also Figure 3a) with low columns 317 in the tropics and high columns in the middle and high latitudes also reflects the structure of the 318 stratospheric meridional circulation. 319

The seasonal breathing of the LMS <u>(Figure 2c)</u> leads to a shift of the <u>maximum_high</u> ozone mass flux<u>OMF</u> phase from winter to spring and early summer (which is consistent with Hegglin and Shepherd, 2009) and of the low OMF phase from summer to autumn. The amplitude of the 323 seasonal cycle in -dM/dt is slightly larger in the NH than in the SH which dampens the 324 amplitude of the ozone mass flux<u>OMF</u> in the NH.

The timing of the maximum ozone mass flux<u>OMF</u> into the troposphere is relevant for the resulting downward mixing since the chemical lifetime of tropospheric ozone in the mid- and high latitudes has a pronounced seasonal cycle with short lifetimes in the summer and relatively long lifetimes in winter and spring. This means that ozone can be mixed more efficiently with tropospheric air masses in winter and spring (Roelofs and Lelieveld, 1997) although the ozone influx from the stratosphere is smaller in northern early spring than in summer.

In the next section we analyse the abundance of stratospheric ozone with stratospheric origin
(O3s) in the troposphere for June (Figure 3), when the ozone mass fluxOMF is maximal in the
NH and minimal in the SH (Figure 2a).

334 **3.3 Stratospheric ozone in the troposphere**

In the troposphere, the columns of ozone originating from the stratosphere (The column-335 336 aggregated stratospheric ozone in the troposphere (Figure 3b) reaches a maximum of 30 DU 337 around 30° in both hemispheres and a minimum in the tropics (3-6 DU over Indonesia) and the southern high latitudes. The low values in the tropics presumably result from very short ozone 338 339 lifetimes near the surface as the high insolation and high water vapour concentrations in the 340 intertropical convergence zone (ITCZ) form a strong sink for tropospheric ozone in the troposphere (Roelofs and Lelieveld, 1997). In addition, the downward transport of stratospheric 341 342 ozone in the tropics is very small due to the upward branch of the BDC in this region. The high tropospheric O3s columns in the subtropics result from high abundances of stratospheric ozone 343 in the upper troposphere, especially in the NH subtropics, which is evident in Figure 3c. Here, 344 345 ozone entering the troposphere through tropopause folds is efficiently transported to lower altitudes in the downward branch of the Hadley cell (Roelofs and Lelieveld, 1997) resulting in 346

relatively high O3s levels in the middle troposphere around 30°N. The O3s mixing ratios decrease with lower altitude and reach their minimum near the surface, with the smallest values in the tropics and the NH, since ozone loss is largest in summer (Figure 3d). However, ozone originating from the stratosphere is also found down to the lower troposphere in the extratropics. This may be caused by events when stratospheric air penetrates deep into the troposphere and affects also lower levels (e.g., Škerlak et al., 2014).

353 and the NH lower troposphere and up to 40-% in the middle troposphere (500 hPa) in the NH. 354 355 In the SH, the relative contribution of O3s to O_3 is larger (50-60-% near the surface and more than 60-% at 500 hPa at high latitudes). This is caused by lower chemical loss of O3s in winter 356 (Figure 3d) in combination with smaller chemical production of tropospheric ozone in this 357 season. In SH summer this pattern is reversed (not shown), however, with a slightly larger 358 contribution of O3s near the SH surface (20-30-%) compared to NH summer. This is possibly 359 360 related to the lower local photochemical ozone production in the SH due to reduced emissions and abundances of tropospheric ozone precursor species. 361

362 In summary, we have found realistic tracer distributions in the tropopause region of the EMAC reference simulation for the year 2000. The ozone mass fluxOMF appears to be overestimated 363 compared to observations and other model studies, while lying within the range estimated in 364 **IPCC** (2001). However, Given the large uncertainties for estimates from observational data 365 and the range of different model types, the ozone mass fluxOMF in EMAC can be regarded as 366 367 reasonable. The results indicate that the important processes determining the STE are sufficiently well reproduced by EMAC, which allows us to study in the next section the past 368 and future changes of the ozone mass fluxOMF as well as the contributions from GHG and 369 ODS changes. 370

372 **4.** Past and future changes in ozone mass flux<u>OMF</u> into the troposphere

Changes in the input of stratospheric ozone into the troposphere can be caused by changes in 373 the dynamical processes and/or by the amount of ozone that is available for transport in the 374 stratosphere. Thus, not only GHG concentrations may have an impact on the stratosphere-to-375 troposphere transport but also the development of the ODS. The temporal evolution between 376 377 1960 and 2099 of the integrated ozone mass fluxOMF between 1960 and 2099 for the RCP6.0 simulation, which includes both, the observed, and projected ODS and GHG changes as well 378 379 as the increase in tropospheric ozone precursor concentrations, is shown in Figure 4. In the past (1960-1999), the integrated ozone mass fluxOMF exhibits a negative trend in both hemispheres 380 381 with a larger change of -1.4-% per/decade in the SH which is in qualitative agreement but 382 smaller than the trend (-2.3-%/ per decade) found by Hegglin and Shepherd (2009) between 1965 and 2000. Zeng et al. (2010) showed that this negative trend is associated with the ODS-383 induced ozone loss in the stratosphere which is most prominent in the southern polar region in 384 spring. Between 2000 and 2099 the ozone mass fluxOMF is projected to increase globally by 385 4.2-% per /decade. Again, the change in the SH (4.9-%/ per decade) is slightly larger than in the 386 NH (3.7-%/ per decade). This increase may be the consequence of ascribed to different forcings: 387 388 (1) the regulations of ODS emissions lead to a decline of chlorine in the stratosphere and increasing stratospheric ozone levels; (2) the increasing GHG concentrations alter the 389 temperature structure of the atmosphere and intensify the large-scale mass transport in the 390 391 stratosphere, and (3) the radiative cooling of the stratosphere due to increasing GHG concentrations slows chemical loss reactions, which increases the ozone amount in the 392 stratosphere. To understand the impact of ODS and GHG changes on the ozone mass fluxOMF 393 in more detail, we further analyse the sensitivity simulations following the RCP8.5 scenario. 394

For comparison the reference timeslice simulations for the years 2000 and 2100 are included in Figure 4. The 1995-2004 average in the RCP6.0 simulation gives an ozone mass fluxOMF of 688 ± 24 Tg_per /year which is slightly lower than in the timeslice simulation for 2000, but within the range of two standard deviations of the REF2000 simulation. This difference might be due to the reduced variability in the timeslice simulation compared to the transient one (see Section 2), and/or due to the different SST/SIC fields used in the simulations. However, the results of the model simulations are in relatively good agreement.

402 In the future, the ozone mass fluxOMF is clearly larger in the timeslice simulations than in the 403 transient simulation due to the climate change- and methane-related effects of the more extreme 404 GHG emission scenario (RCP8.5 compared to RCP6.0). The integrated ozone mass fluxOMF reaches 598 ± 29 Tg per /year in the NH, 490 ± 23 Tg per /year in the SH and 1088 ± 43 Tg per 405 /year for the global sum. This corresponds to a relative increase of 5.3%, 5.2% and 5.3-%/ per 406 407 decade, respectively (see also Table 2). Thus, in contrast towhile in the transient RCP6.0 408 scenarioimulation, the future ozone mass fluxOMF increase by the end of the century is stronger change in the SH than in the NH due to the prevailing impact of stratospheric ozone recovery in 409 the SH, OMF increases are of similar magnitude in both hemispheres for the RCP8.5 GHG 410 411 scenario. This is due to the growing role of an increased BDC in the RCP8.5 scenario which has a stronger impact in the NHtimeslice simulations is similar in the NH and in the SH. Note 412 413 that the difference in OMF change by 2100 between the timeslice and transient simulations may not be due to the different GHG scenario alone. The HadGEM2-ES model which provided the 414 SST/SIC distribution for the transient RCP6.0 simulation is known to have a higher climate 415 416 sensitivity than the MPI-ESM which provided the SST/SICs for the EMAC timeslice runs (Andrews et al., 2012). This might lead to a somewhat stronger future SST increase, STE, and 417 OMF in the transient RCP6.0 run than would arise using MPI-ESM SSTs/SICs. Hence, the 418

419 differences in OMF by 2100 discussed here represent a lower boundary estimate of the expected
420 OMF differences between the RCP6.0 and RCP8.5 scenarios.

421

422 5. Attribution of future changes in ozone mass flux OMF to climate change

Figure 5 shows the monthly changes of the ozone mass flux OMF for the sensitivity simulations, 423 i.e. for the total change between 2000 and 2100 due to all forcings and the contributions 424 425 changes resulting from GHG and ODS changes only. -It has to be noted that the changes due to GHGs and ODS do not necessarily sum up to the total change due to because of non-linear 426 427 interactions and <u>due to the fact that the missing</u> change in <u>non-methane</u> tropospheric ozone precursor species_in the ODS-only and GHG-only-is only included in the reference simulation 428 for 2100s (see Table 1). However, in the RCP8.5 scenario the largest changes in ozone 429 precursors are for methane which are included in the GHG signal. 430

431 <u>Nevertheless, the effect of the projected increase in tropospheric ozone precursor concentrations</u>

432 on the ozone mass fluxOMF change between 2000 and 2100 can't cannot be unambiguously

433 separated from the total change in this study. This is also due to the impact of the non-methane

434 <u>ozone precursors on ozone production in the lower stratosphere and the tropospheric ozone loss</u>

435 which can affect the OMF as well as the O3s distribution in the troposphere. While all these

436 interactions are taken into account in the future reference simulation, the objective of the

437 <u>sensitivity runs of this study</u> is to simplify the complexity and to focus on the changes driven by

438 the well-mixed GHGs and the ODSs.

439 Furthermore, all results shown for the GHG-induced signal in the OMF consist of both the

440 <u>contribution from a strengthened BDC and the chemically driven (climate and CH₄ related)</u>

441 increase in stratospheric ozone available for downward transport.

The change in ozone mass fluxOMF between 2000 and 2100 due to all forcings (Figure 5, top 442 443 row) is positive throughout the year with maximal increases in the summer months of the 444 respective hemispheres by up to 32 Tg per /month (75-%) in the NH and 19 Tg per /month (68 %) in the SH. The GHG (Figure 5, middle row) and ODS (Figure 5, bottom row) induced 445 446 changes clearly indicate the dominant role of rising GHG concentrations for the future ozone mass fluxOMF change in the NH, explaining 80 to 95 % of the total change. In the NH, tThe 447 448 GHG-related ozone mass fluxOMF increase in the NH-is maximal in June and July, slightly 449 shifting the peak in the annual cycle to later in summer which is consistent with the findings by Hegglin and Shepherd (2009) for the total change between the 1960-1970 and 2090-2100 450 means. The ODS decrease, however, leads only to small positive and (not significant) negative 451 452 changes in the NH.

In the SH, the GHG-induced increase dominates the ozone mass fluxOMF change in winter and spring, but while in summer the ODS-related increase of the ozone mass fluxOMF contributes up to 50 % nearly equally to the total change in the SH summer. A significant reduction of ozone mass fluxOMF is found from August to October in the SH due to the ODS change. This causes a shift of the SH maximum ozone flux from October to December/January and is in contrast to the results by Hegglin and Shepherd (2009) who found the maximum SH ozone mass fluxOMF in the future (2090-2100) to occur in August.

460 Overall we find that the GHG-induced changes will determine the positive trend of the ozone
461 mass fluxOMF in the NH, while in the SH both ODS and GHG changes affect the trend and the
462 seasonality of the future ozone mass fluxOMF into the troposphere.

To identify the processes behind the ODS- and GHG-induced changes, we analyse the changes
of the two ozone mass flux<u>OMF</u> components, i.e. F_{in} and the seasonal breathing term. We find
that <u>the integrated</u> F_{in} will increase in the future throughout the year in both hemispheres and

for both external forcings (not shown). To give a more detailed picture Figure 6 shows in the 466 467 top row the latitudinal distribution of the product of ozone concentration and $-\overline{w}^*$ at 91 hPa, which equals F_{in} , when integrated over all latitudes. The two components of F_{in} , $-\overline{w}^*$ and the 468 469 ozone concentration, are shown separately in the middle and bottom rows of Figure 6, respectively. The increase of F_{in} (or $O_3 \times -\overline{W}^*$) due to the GHG effect (Figure- 6d) is caused by 470 an increase in the downwelling (i.e. $-\overline{w}^*$, positive for downwelling, Figure- 6e) of the BDC in 471 472 the winter season with climate change (e.g., Sudo et al., 2003; Butchart et al., 2010; Oberländer et al., 2013) in combination with an ozone increase resulting from modified chemical 473 474 production and loss rates in the stratospherestratospheric cooling and enhanced meridional 475 transport (Figure 6f). In contrast, with ODS decrease no significant changes in the downwelling occur (Figure 6h). The small increase in F_{in} (Figure 6g) is therefore attributed to stratospheric 476 ozone recovery from ODS, in particular in Antarctic spring (Figure 6i). Figure 6 also indicates 477 that the maximum change in ozone mass fluxOMF into the troposphere occurs at midlatitudes 478 479 for the GHG increase and at high latitudes for the ODS reduction. This may have an influence on can be relevant for the mixing and distribution of stratospheric ozone in the troposphere (see 480 481 below).

482 Thus, given the positive changes in F_{in}, the significant negative change in the ozone mass 483 fluxOMF identified in September and October for the ODS decrease, must be attributed to 484 changes in -dM/dt (i.e. the monthly change in the ozone mass contained in the LMS, also referred to as seasonal breathing, Figure 7). While the total mass in the LMS is decreasing with 485 rising GHG concentrations in the sensitivity simulations (possibly due to the tropopause lifting 486 487 effect of rising GHGs), it slightly increases with ODS change only (not shown). The mass of ozone (M), however, is increasing globally due to both, GHGs and ODS. Thus, for the GHG 488 effect, the future increase of ozone in the LMS outweighs the reduction in total LMS mass. If 489 this future increase of M in the LMS is monthly varying, a future change (positive or negative) 490

in -dM/dt will result. <u>This change in -dM/dt (i.e. the seasonal breathing) is shown in Figure 7.</u>
Exactly this is happening in In SH spring, when the ozone mass increase is steadily amplified
between August and November due to the decline of ODS<u>, a considerable change in -dM/dt</u>
results. This results in leads to the shift of the seasonality of the ozone mass fluxOMF and
therefore to negative changes in SH spring.<u>Der</u>

As mentioned above, the timing of the strongest input of stratospheric ozone into the troposphere is relevant in that the efficiency of mixing down to lower altitudes or to the surface depends on the chemical lifetime of ozone which varies with season. A shift of the spring maximum in the SH to summer (<u>December</u>/January) for instance may result in different mean abundances of O3s in the troposphere. Furthermore, the chemical loss of ozone will increase in a warmer troposphere, affecting the lifetime of ozone and thus the distribution of stratospheric ozone in the troposphere.

503 The future changes in the distribution of O3s mixing ratios are shown in Figure 87 for June. O3s is projected to increase throughout the extra-tropical troposphere. The largest changes will 504 505 occur in the subtropics in the upper and middle troposphere, the regions where cross-tropopause transport along isentropic surfaces is possible and ozone is efficiently transported into the 506 troposphere through tropopause folds. This pattern is caused by the rising GHG concentrations 507 508 (Figure 87b). Near the surface however, the O3s mixing ratios will decrease with GHG change at summer NH mid-latitudes, either induced by an increased chemical O3s loss or dry 509 deposition. The total positive change near the surface results from the O3s increase due to ODS 510 511 change (Figure 87c). In the SH, the abundance of stratospheric ozone increases throughout the 512 troposphere down to the surface. Here, mMore O3s seems to be transported is present further down than in the NH, which may be related to the longer chemical lifetime of ozone in winter. 513 This is also obvious from the ODS-induced changes, albeit with very small signals. 514

515 The annual mean column-integrated values of O3s and ozone in the troposphere and their respective changes are listed in Table 3. The O3s column increases globally by 42-% between 516 517 the years 2000 and 2100, with a larger change occurring in the SH than in the NH. Consistent with the results above, the main contribution is from the GHG changes the change due to GHG 518 is larger than due to ODS., whereas the ODS changes have the largest effect on the SH (+ 6 %). 519 As expected the ODS decrease has a larger effect on the SH (+6%) than on the NH (+2%). 520 These changes may result from the combination of an increased/monthly shifted ozone mass 521 522 fluxOMF into the troposphere, increased chemical loss of O3s and changes in dry deposition of O3s. The increase By splitting the increase in the total burden of tropospheric ozone 523 (=O3s+O3t) between 2000 and 2100 into the single components O3s and O3t (derived from 524 525 Table 3), indicates we find that the main contribution to the change is from O3s (19-%), whereas ozone produced in the troposphere (O3t, calculated as residual) causes an increase of 12-% 526 summing up to a total increase of 31-% of tropospheric ozone. The larger increase in the 527 chemical loss of O3s compared to the increase in the ozone mass fluxOMF indicates changing 528 chemical conditions in the troposphere due to climate change. The larger increase in the ozone 529 530 mass flux (Table 2) compared to the increase of O3s columns in the troposphere indicates changing chemical conditions in the troposphere due to climate change. This means that the 531 larger amount of stratospheric ozone entering the troposphere does not accumulate to the 532 533 equivalent larger abundance of O3s in the troposphere.

Next we investigate, to what extent the future change in O3s (Figure <u>98</u>, middle row) contributes to the ozone change (Figure <u>98</u>, top row) in the troposphere. The relative contribution is shown in Figure <u>98</u> (bottom row) as annual cycle of the tropospheric columns for (c) the change between 2000 and 2100 due to all forcings, (f) the respective change due to GHGs, and (i) the respective change due to ODS. We find that at SH middle and high latitudes more than 80-% of the increase in tropospheric ozone column is caused by ozone originating from the stratosphere from April through October. A similarly strong contribution to the overall change of more than 80-% occurs in the NH extratropics, however confined to the spring season (March, April and May). For the rest of the year, ozone originating from the stratosphere causes more than 50-% of the total change in both hemispheres. In contrast, in the tropics only 20 to 50-% of the ozone change are attributable to changes in ozone from the stratosphere throughout the year.

546 In addition, our simulations illustrate that the future enhancement of stratospheric ozone import into the troposphere and the resulting tropospheric ozone change will be dominated by the GHG 547 548 effect. If only the concentrations of ODS would decline between the years 2000 and 2100, -a 549 minor increase in tropospheric ozone burden in the (mainly SH) extratropics would form 550 (Figure 98g), which is almost completely attributable to increased stratospheric ozone entering into the troposphere (Figures 98h, 98i). However, only in the simulation with increased GHG 551 concentrations, the patterns and the amount of tropospheric ozone increase (Figure 8d) and the 552 553 contribution of stratospheric ozone to this increase (Figure 8e), as shown in the simulation with all forcings (Figures 8a, 8b), are well reproduced. Up In the GHG only simulation up to 80-% 554 of the tropospheric ozone trends in SH winter and 70-% in NH spring can be explained by 555 increased abundances of stratospheric ozone O3s due to the GHG effect (Figure 98f). These 556 numbers also indicate the strong increase of tropospheric photochemical ozone production in 557 the future due to the doubling of methane emissions under the RCP8.5 scenario (e.g., Young et 558 al., 2013; Meul et al., 2016). In NH summer, about 50-% of the change are due to stratospheric 559 560 ozone, while in the tropics and the SH summer months, the contribution is less than 40-%. This 561 reflects the effect of the substantially increased ozone loss rates resulting from the more tropical/subtropical downward transport of stratospheric ozone with enhanced GHG 562 concentrations. The chemical ozone loss rate in the troposphere in the ODS simulation is less 563 influenced and nearly unchanged in the tropics. In summary, Figure 98 shows that as expected 564

the input of stratospheric ozone is the <u>dominant</u> driver of ozone changes in the troposphere, if only ODS levels are reduced. <u>There is no considerable change in tropospheric chemistry due to</u> the larger ODS abundances. <u>In contrast</u>, <u>Ff</u>or the GHG increase we find that other processes, such as tropospheric chemistry, modulate the tropospheric ozone abundance in addition to the increased influx of stratospheric ozone.

570 Finally, we compare the tropospheric O3s columns derived from the timeslice simulations 571 under the RCP8.5 scenario with the transient simulation using the RCP6.0 scenario. Figure <u>109</u>a shows the evolution of annual mean tropospheric ozone (solid) and O3s (dashed) columns for 572 573 the NH and the SH. Tropospheric ozone increases in the RCP6.0 simulation from 1960 to the middle of the 21st century and slightly declines afterwards in the NH, while it stays nearly 574 constant in the SH. There is very good agreement of the tropospheric ozone column between 575 the transient and timeslice simulations for the year 2000, when both simulations use observed 576 GHG concentrations. Regarding the temporal evolution of O3s, we find a positive trend in both 577 hemispheres and only a slight decrease in the NH at the end of the 21st century. In the past, an 578 effect of the ODS driven stratospheric ozone loss is overlaid by the GHG related increase in 579 both hemispheres. However, a slightly smaller rise of O3s in the SH might be an indication. 580

The RCP8.5 scenario (circles) leads to higher values of tropospheric ozone in 2100 which is related to two effects: a larger import of stratospheric ozone and a larger chemical ozone production in the troposphere due to strongly enhanced methane concentrations in the second half of the 21st century in the RCP8.5 scenario (see Meinshausen et al., 2011).

The ratio between O3s and tropospheric ozone (Figure <u>109</u>b) gives an indication if the role of stratospheric ozone in the troposphere will change in the future. In the past period of the transient simulation (i.e. RCP6.0 scenario), the relative contribution of O3s decreases from 48 % (1960s) to 44-% (1990s) in the NH and from 52-% to 48-% in the SH. This is caused by an increase of ozone produced in the troposphere, which is stronger than the increase of O3s (Figure 109a). In the future, however, the relative importance of ozone from the stratosphere increases, reaching 49-% in the NH and 55-% in the SH around the year 2100. Thus, in the RCP6.0 scenario (more than) half of the ozone in the troposphere will originate from the stratosphere in the (SH) NH at-by the end of the 21^{st} century.

The comparison with the timeslice simulation (RCP8.5 GHG scenario) shows that the 594 595 abundance contribution of O3s to O3 in the troposphere is lower in the year 2000 than in the transient simulation. This is probably caused by the different data sets used for the SST/SIC 596 597 fields in the timeslice and transient simulation (see Table 1) leading to different tropopause heights and therefore to different tropospheric columns. However, the larger contribution of 598 O3s to ozone in the SH (48-%) compared to the NH (43-%) is confirmed. In 2100, tropospheric 599 ozone columns in the NH (SH) will consist ofto 46-% (52-%) of ozone originating from the 600 stratosphere. 601

In summary, in a future RCP6.0 scenario, the relative importance of ozone from the stratosphere 602 in the troposphere will increase by 5% in the NH and 7% in the SH around the year 2100 603 compared to 1990. In the RCP8.5 scenario, the increase will be slightly smaller (3% in the NH 604 and 4% in the SH in 2100 compared to 2000) despite the larger increase in OMF shown in 605 Figure 2. Thus, the increase in the contribution of O3s in the future is slightly smaller in the 606 RCP8.5 scenario than in the RCP6.0 scenario, despite the larger increase in ozone mass flux 607 shown in Figure 2. Here, the different evolution of tropospheric ozone production in the two 608 609 GHG scenarios plays a crucial role.

610

611 6. Summary

612 In this study we have analysed the future changes in stratosphere-to-troposphere transport of ozone in timeslice and transient simulations with the CCM EMAC to address the questions 613 614 brought up in the introduction: (1) How will the stratosphere-to-troposphere ozone mass fluxOMF change in the future? (2) What are the major drivers of the future changes in 615 616 stratosphere-to-troposphere ozone mass fluxOMF? (3) Will the seasonality of the STE change in future? (4) How will the GHG emission scenarios affect the ozone mass fluxOMF into the 617 618 troposphere? (5) How is the ratio of stratospheric ozone in the troposphere changed in the future? 619

620 In agreement with other studies (e.g., Sudo et al., 2003; Collins et al., 2003; Hegglin and Shepherd, 2009; Banerjee et al., 2016), we find that the influx of stratospheric ozone into the 621 troposphere will increase in the future. Between 2000 and 2100 the EMAC timeslice 622 simulations project an increase of the annual global mean ozone mass fluxOMF by 53-% under 623 the RCP8.5 scenario. Increasing GHG concentrations were identified as the main driver of the 624 625 rising ozone mass fluxOMF into the troposphere by strengthening the BDC and reducing chemical ozone loss increasing the net ozone production in a colder the stratosphere. The annual 626 global ozone mass fluxOMF is increased by 46-% due to rising GHG concentrations compared 627 628 to an increase of 7-% due to the ODS decline and the associated ozone recovery. The GHG effect leads to a larger intensification of STE in the NH (51-%) than in the SH (40-%), whereas 629 the ODS effect is most prominent in the SH (9-%) compared to 4-% in the NH. 630

Regarding the seasonal changes of the ozone mass flux<u>OMF</u>, we showed the dominant role of GHG changes for the NH whereas in the SH, both ODS and GHG changes affect the seasonality of the ozone mass flux<u>OMF</u> increase: the GHG increase is the main driver of the increase in winter and spring, but in summer also ODS-induced changes contribute to the ozone mass flux<u>OMF</u> increase. Furthermore, the ODS decrease and the concomitant ozone increase in the

lower stratosphere during SH spring cause a large change in the seasonal breathing term in the 636 SH from August to October, which results in a shift of the maximum ozone flux to late 637 spring/early summer. The GHG effect leads to a dampened amplitude of the seasonal cycle in 638 the SH and an intensified in the NH. This can have an impact on the distribution of stratospheric 639 640 ozone in the troposphere: in the SH more ozone is transported into the troposphere in winter, when the chemical lifetimes are relatively long, whereas in the NH the largest increase is found 641 642 in summer. This may explain the larger increase of O3s columns in the SH compared to the NH 643 despite the smaller increase in ozone mass fluxOMF (see Table 2 and 3).

644 The future spatial distribution of the tropospheric O3s column in the troposphere is determined 645 by the change pattern due to GHG increases. Here, the largest increase of O3s mixing ratios occurs in the subtropical upper troposphere, where stratospheric ozone is transported into the 646 troposphere via tropopause folds and then further down to lower levels in the large-scale sinking 647 of the Hadley cell (Roelofs and Lelieveld, 1997). ODS-related changes in the tropospheric O3s 648 649 column are smaller. They show no comparable signal in the subtropical region, but a more homogeneous distribution. In the ODS simulation, the main increase of stratospheric ozone 650 input occurs via the downward branch of the BDC in middle and higher latitudes, where the 651 652 chemical ozone loss of tropospheric ozone is smaller than in the subtropics and hence mixing towards the surface is more efficient. 653

In the SH winter months, the ozone change due to increased stratospheric ozone influx explains up to 80-% of the overall tropospheric ozone increase under the RCP8.5 scenario by the end of the century. In the rest of the year, the stratospheric ozone changes cover more than 50-% of the ozone changes in the SH troposphere. In contrast, increased stratospheric ozone explains only about 70-% of the ozone changes in NH spring indicating the strong increase of tropospheric photochemical ozone production in the future due to the doubling of methaneemissions under the RCP8.5 scenario.

661 The comparison with the transient EMAC simulation under the RCP6.0 scenario shows a 662 smaller future increase in annual global ozone mass fluxOMF into the troposphere (4.2-%/per 663 decade) than under the RCP8.5 scenario (5.3-%/per decade). In the transient RCP6.0 simulation 664 the positive trend between 2000 and 2100 is larger in the SH than in the NH, which is not found 665 in the RCP8.5 timeslices. The stronger increase in the ozone mass fluxOMF under the RCP8.5 scenario is connected with a larger O3s column, but the relative contribution of O3s to ozone 666 667 in the troposphere rises similarly in both scenarios. This is caused by the different evolution of 668 the ozone produced in the troposphere in the RCP6.0 and RCP8.5 scenario due to the deviating emission scenarios for the ozone precursor species. In the past, the input of stratospheric ozone 669 has slightly decreased between 1960 and 1999, especially in the SH (-1.4-%/ per decade) due 670 to the formation of the ozone hole. However, the O3s column in the troposphere integrated over 671 672 the NH and the SH shows a small positive trend. This may be related with the seasonal timing of the changes, since ozone loss in the SH stratosphere has the largest effect on the ozone mass 673 fluxOMF in spring and early summer when the tropospheric ozone loss rates are higher than in 674 675 winter and mixing is less efficient anyway.

In summary, this study shows that GHG and ODS changes have different effects on the future ozone mass flux<u>OMF</u>, the seasonality and the resulting abundances of stratospheric ozone in the troposphere. Moreover, it shows that both forcings are projected to cause an increased amount of stratospheric ozone in the troposphere, which will not only contribute to the radiative forcing and global warming but will also affect the air quality at the surface. Further studies are needed to investigate and separate the effect of non-methane precursors on the OMF, the interactions with the increasing GHGs and the resulting distribution of O3s in the troposphere.

684 Code availability

The Modular Earth Submodel System (MESSy), including the EMAC model, is continuously further developed and applied by a consortium of institutions. The usage of MESSy and access to the source code is licensed to all affiliates of institutions, which are members of the MESSy Consortium. Institutions can become a member of the MESSy Consortium by signing the MESSy Memorandum of Understanding. More information can be found on the MESSy Consortium website (http://www.messy-interface.org).

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692 Data availability

The data of the ESCiMo simulation RC2-base-05 will be made available in the Climate and 693 Environmental Retrieval and Archive (CERA) database at the German Climate Computing 694 Centre (DKRZ; http://cera-www.dkrz.de/WDCC/ui/Index.jsp). The corresponding digital 695 object identifiers (doi) will be published on the MESSy Consortium web page 696 697 (http://www.messy-interface.org). A subset of the RC2-base-05 simulation results has been uploaded to the BADC database for the CCMI project. Data of the EMAC timeslice simulations 698 699 performed for this for this paper are available at the Freie Universität Berlin on the SHARP 700 data archive under ACPD_ozone_transport_Meul_et_al_2018.tar.

701

702 Author contribution

SM has performed and analysed the timeslice simulations and has written the manuscript. ULhas initialized the study and has considerably contributed to the manuscript and the discussion.

PK has contributed to the analysis of the model data. SOH has performed the timeslice simulations and has contributed to the discussion of the results. PJ led the ESCiMo project, coordinated the preparation of the EMAC simulation setups and conducted the model simulations (here RC2-base-05). Moreover, he contributed to the EMAC model development, including the here applied O3s diagnostics.

710

711 Competing interests

712 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

713

714 Special issue statement

This article is part of the special issue "The Modular Earth Submodel System (MESSy)(ACP/GMD inter-journal SI)". It is not associated with a conference.

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| Name | Run mode | GHG | Tropos. O3 | ODS | SST/SIC |
|-----------------|------------------|---|-----------------------------|---------------|-----------|
| | | <u>(CO₂, CH₄,</u> | precursor | | |
| | | <u>N2O)</u> | <u>(CO, NO_x,</u> | | |
| | | | <u>NMVOCs)</u> | | |
| RCP6 0 | Transient | RCP6.0 | RCP6 0 | Observations | HadGEM |
| (referred to as | (1060-2000 | KCI 0.0 | KCI 0.0 | and A 1 | 1060 2000 |
| RC2-base-05 in | (1900-2099, | | | allu Al | 1900-2099 |
| Jöckel et al., | alter 10 years | | | | |
| 2016) | spinup) | | | | |
| REF2000 | Timeslice | Observations | Observations | Observations | MPI-ESM |
| 1121 2000 | (40 years, after | for 2000 | for 2000 | for 2000 | 1995-2004 |
| | 5 years spinup) | 101 2000 | 101 2000 | 101 2000 | 1770 2001 |
| | 5 years spinap) | | | | |
| REF2100 | Timeslice | RCP8.5 for | RCP8.5 for | A1 for 2100 | MPI-ESM |
| | (40 years, after | 2100 | 2100 | | 2095-2104 |
| | 5 years spinup) | | | | |
| GHG2100 | Timeslice | RCP8.5 for | Observations | Obs. for 2000 | MPI-ESM |
| | (40 years, after | 2100 | for 2000 | | 2095-2104 |
| | 5 years spinup) | | | | |
| | 5 1 17 | | | | |
| ODS2100 | Timeslice | Observations | Observations | A1 for 2100 | MPI-ESM |
| | (40 years, after | for 2000 | for 2000 | | 1995-2004 |
| | 5 years spinup) | | | | |
| | | | | | |

Table 1. EMAC CCM simulations used in this study.

921 Table 2. Overview of the annual ozone mass flux into the troposphere and the corresponding
922 standard deviations in the EMAC timeslice simulations. Gray numbers indicate the change
923 relative to the REF2000 simulation. <u>All changes are significant on the 95% confidence level.</u>

| | O3 mass flux [Tg/yr] | | | | |
|---------|----------------------|---------------|---------------|--|--|
| | global mean | NH | SH | | |
| REF2000 | 712±26 | 390±18 | 322±16 | | |
| REF2100 | 1088±43 | 598±29 | 490±23 | | |
| | +53% | +53% | +52% | | |
| GHG2100 | 1041±36 | 590±28 | 451±26 | | |
| | +46% | +51% | +40% | | |
| ODS2100 | 758±26 | 406±20 | 352±13 | | |
| | +7% | +4% | +9% | | |

Table 3. Overview of the annual mean tropospheric O3 and O3s burden [Tg] in the troposphere
with the corresponding standard deviations in the EMAC timeslice simulations. Grey numbers
indicate the change relative to the REF2000 simulation. <u>All changes are significant on the 95%</u>
<u>confidence level.</u>

| | Tropospheric O3 column [Tg] | | | Tropospheric O3s column [Tg] | | |
|---------|-----------------------------|--------------|-------|------------------------------|--------------|---------------|
| | global mean | NH | SH | global mean | NH | SH |
| REF2000 | 401±2 | 222±2 | 179±1 | 182 ±3 | 96 ±2 | 86 ±2 |
| REF2100 | 527±3 | 290±2 | 237±2 | 258 ±4 | 134 ±2 | 123 ±2 |
| | +31% | +31% | +32% | +42% | +40% | +43% |
| GHG2100 | 513±3 | 282± 2 | 231±2 | 246 ±3 | 128 ±2 | 118 ±2 |
| | +28% | +27% | +29% | +35% | +33% | +37% |
| ODS2100 | 409±2 | 225±2 | 184±1 | 189 ±2 | 98 ±1 | 91 ±1 |
| | +2% | +1% | +3% | +4% | 2% | +6% |



Figure 1: Top: O₃-CO scatter plot for the months January to December in the latitude band
30°-60°N for the REF2000 simulation from the troposphere to the lower stratosphere. Color
coding indicates different height regions. Bottom: O₃-N₂O scatter plot for the months
September to November in the <u>n</u>Northern <u>h</u>Hemisphere for the REF2000 simulation for the
altitude region between 270 and 0.1 hPa. Color coding indicates different latitude bands.



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Figure 2: a) Annual ozone mass flux and its 95% confidence interval (i.e. $\pm 2\sigma$, with σ := standard deviation) [Tg/month] from the stratosphere into the troposphere (F_{out}) in the REF2000 simulation integrated globally (black), over the northern (red) and southern (blue) hemispheres. b) As a) but for F_{in} (the product between the ozone concentration and the negative zonal mean residual vertical velocity \overline{w}^* at 91 hPa). c) As a) but for the negative monthly change in ozone mass of the LMS (-dM/dt), also referred to as seasonal breathing.

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Figure 3: a) Geographical distribution of stratospheric partial columns of the diagnostic O3s tracer in Dobson Units (DU) in June for the REF2000 simulation. b) as a) but for the tropospheric columns. c) Latitude-height section of the O3s volume mixing ratios [ppbv] and d) latitude-height section of the chemical loss rate of O3s [ppbv/day]. The black dashed line indicates the position of the mean tropopause. Gray contour lines in c) show the relative contribution of O3s to the ozone field in %.

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Figure 4: Temporal evolution of the ozone mass flux [Tg/year] <u>into the troposphere</u> from 1960 to 2099 in the transient RCP6.0 simulation integrated globally (black), over the northern (red), and southern (blue) hemispheres. The thin lines indicate the linear fits for the sub-periods 1960 to 2000 and 2000 to 2099. In addition, the ozone mass fluxes derived from the timeslice simulations (TS) for the years 2000 (REF2000) and 2100 (REF2100, RCP8.5 scenario) are shown by open circles including the $\pm 2\sigma$ range.





Figure 5: Annual cycle of ozone mass flux changes <u>between 2000 and 2100</u> [Tg/month] in the timeslice simulations integrated globally (left), over the NH (middle), and over the SH (right) for the changes due to all forcings <u>between 2000 and 2100</u> (top row), the effect of increasing GHG concentrations (middle row) and the impact of declining ODS levels (bottom row). The black error bars denote the $\pm 2\sigma$ standard deviation. The absolute ozone mass flux of the reference simulation REF2000 is shown as grey line with the corresponding y-axis on the right.

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Figure 6: Annual cycle of the zonal mean change at 91 hPa in the timeslice simulations due to all forcings between 2000 and 2100 (left column), due to GHG increase (middle column), and due to ODS decrease (right column). Upper row: changes in the product of ozone concentration and $-\overline{w}^*$ [10⁶ g/cm^{2/}month], which equals F_{in} when integrated over all latitudes. Middle row: changes in $-\overline{w}^*$ [mm/s]. Bottom row: changes in the ozone concentration [molecules/cm²]. Significant changes on the 95-% confidence level are colored.





Figure 87: Changes in the volume mixing ratios [ppbv] of the diagnostic tracer O3s for a) the changes between 2000 and 2100 due to all forcings, b) the changes between 2000 and 2100 due to increasing GHG concentrations and c) the changes between 2000 and 2100 due to declining ODS levels for June (when the ozone mass flux is maximum in the NH and minimum in the SH; see Fig. 2a). Significant changes on the 95-%_-confidence level are colored. The black dotted line represents the mean tropopause position in the REF2000 simulation. For the small ODS-induced changes (c) additional contour lines (2, 3, and 4 ppbv) are shown.





Figure 109: a) Temporal evolution of the annual mean tropospheric column in ozone (solid) and O3s (dashed) [DU] averaged for the NH (red) and the SH (blue) in the transient RCP6.0 simulation and the corresponding values of the reference timeslice simulations for the year 2000 and 2100 (ozone: closed circle; O3s: open circle). b) Same as a) but for the ratio between O3s and O3 [%]. The black bars denote the $\pm 2\sigma$ range for the timeslice simulations. Note that the interra-annual variability in ozone and O3s is small in the timeslice simulations and the error bars are very short.