Montreal Protocol's impact on the ozone layer and climate

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Abstract. It is now recognized and confirmed that the ozone layer shields the biosphere from dangerous solar UV radiation and is also important for the global atmosphere and climate. The observed massive ozone depletion forced the introduction of limitations on the production of halogen-containing ozone-depleting substances (hODS) by the Montreal Protocol and its Amendments and adjustments (MPA). Further research was aimed at analyzing the role played by the Montreal Protocol to increase public awareness of its necessity. In this study, we evaluate the benefits of the Montreal Protocol on climate and ozone evolution using the Earth system model (ESM) SOCOLv4.0 which includes dynamic ocean, sea ice, interactive ozone, and stratospheric aerosol modules. Here, we analyze the results of the numerical experiments performed with and without limitations on the ozone-depleting substances emissions. In the experiments, we have used CMIP6 SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios for future forcing behavior. We confirm previous results regarding catastrophic ozone layer depletion in the case without MPA limitations. The climate effects of MPA consist of additional global mean warming by up to 2.5 K in 2100 caused by the direct radiative effect of the hODS. We also obtained dramatic changes in several essential climate variables such as regional surface air temperature, sea-ice cover, and precipitation fields. Our research updates and complements previous modeling studies on the quantifying of MPA benefits for the terrestrial atmosphere and climate.

Short description: for submission purposes

This paper describes the climate and atmosphere benefits of the Montreal Protocol, simulated with the state-of-the-art Earth system model SOCOLv4.0. We have added to and confirmed the previous studies by showing that without the Montreal Protocol by the end of the 21st century there would be a dramatic reduction of the ozone layer as well as substantial perturbation of the essential climate variables in the troposphere caused by the warming from increasing ozone-depleting substances.

1 Introduction

The ozone layer evolution remains a major problem in contemporary science because of its significance for the sustainable development of human civilization. The ozone not only shields the biosphere from dangerous solar UV radiation but is also essential for the global atmosphere and climate (e.g., Bais et al., 2018, Barnes et al., 2019, Neale et al., 2021). Ozone depletion was registered first using the ground station data (Farman et al., 1985). Afterward, it was confirmed by space observations, which showed that this ozone depletion coined as the Antarctic ozone "hole" can cover the entire Antarctic (Stolarski et al., 1986). Physical explanations for the massive southern polar ozone loss (see e.g., review by Solomon, 1999), established the role of heterogeneous chemistry and previously suggested impact of anthropogenic halogen-containing ozone-depleting substances (hODS) (Molina and Rowland, 1974). Therse discoveries led to limitations on hODS production by the Montreal Protocol and its Amendments and adjustments (MPA) (e.g., Rowland, 2006). Further research was aimed at analyzing the benefits of the MPA to increase public acceptance of its necessity, projection, and estimation of the time at which ozone layer recovery will be reached, and careful analysis of observational and model data to characterize the ozone layer evolution. According to the last Executive summary of Scientific Assessment of Ozone Depletion: 2022 (WMO, 2022), Montreal Protocol is continuing to decrease atmospheric abundances of regulated hODS and contribute to ozone recovery. However, the widely expected future ozone recovery and the efficiency of the MPA are now being questioned due to disagreement between models and observations and inspire a search for missing processes or unaccounted driving factors in models (Ball et al., 2018, 2019, Dietmüller et al. 2021).

Several attempts have been made to estimate the efficiency of the MPA by comparing the future state of the ozone layer simulated under two hypothetical scenarios: with and without MPA limitations. The first estimates were made with relatively simple models (e.g., Prather et al., 1996). Later, Egorova et al. (2001), and recently Chipperfield et al. (2015), performed more accurate estimates using 3-D chemistry-transport models driven by observed meteorological fields. An improved understanding of the influence and importance of ozone on the climate led to the application of chemistry-climate models that can account for stratospheric changes related to the ozone evolution (Morgenstern et al., 2008; Newman et al., 2009; Egorova et al., 2013). The results of these studies confirmed that the absence of MPA limitations would have led to dramatic ozone loss and an increase in the level of dangerous UV radiation near the surface. However, these models have certain limitations for modeling the effect of the Montreal Protocol restrictive measures on ozone evolution and climate. For example, in Newman et al. (2009) and Egorova et al. (2013), the use of prescribed sea-surface surface temperature did not allow considering tropospheric temperature response to halogen forcing or stratospheric changes. And the lack of troposphere chemistry (Morgenstern et al., 2008, Newman et al., 2009, Egorova et al., 2013) led to incorrect modeling of the tropospheric response with possible implications for the stratosphere. In addition, halogen-containing ozone-depleting substances (hODS) are also very potent greenhouse gases (GHG). They can directly affect radiation balance (e.g., Polvani et al., 2020) in the present-day atmosphere, but in the case of hODS uncontrolled increase their radiative forcing can be comparable to or even exceed the other GHG. Therefore, proper evaluation of the MPA influence on climate is not possible

without the application of dynamically coupled ocean-atmospheric models. First, Garcia et al. (2012) applied a coupled chemistry-climate-ocean model and showed that, in addition to the collapse of the ozone layer, the uncontrolled growth of
65 hODS would have caused enhanced global mean warming between 2 K, in the tropics, and 6 K, in the Arctic, by the end of 2070; this is comparable to the effects of carbon dioxide increase and would have had substantial implications for sea ice coverage. However, the robustness of these conclusions cannot be established because this experiment had only one run and was not performed with other models. Further, Goyal et al. (2019) tried to increase awareness for a wider community about the MPA's success in climate warming reduction. They used ACCESS1.0 coupled atmosphere-ocean-land-sea-ice but
70 without interactive atmospheric chemistry to estimate the impact of MPA on surface temperature warming. In this work, the stratospheric ozone field was prescribed from GEOS CCM (Pawson et al., 2008) for no MPA and reference scenarios, while the tropospheric ozone concentration was fixed for both experiments. Goyal et al. (2019) showed that for the year 2019 the MPA already prevented additional 0.5-1.0°C warming over land in middle latitudes (Africa, North America, Eurasia), and in the Arctic. For 2050, they obtained larger MPA effects, reaching 1.5-2.0°C warming in the extra-polar areas and 3-4°C in
75 the Arctic with the greenhouse forcing from the RCP8.5 scenario. However, there are various shortcomings in this study. First, the fixed tropospheric ozone approach is difficult to justify for the no MPA case due to the expected dramatic increase of UV radiation in the troposphere caused by stratospheric ozone depletion and strong tropospheric ozone radiative forcing. Second, the provided results were not supported by statistical significance analysis, and therefore the conclusions about MPA effects in Goyal et al. (2019) require further verification. Morgenstern et al. (2020) obtained larger cooling by ozone
80 depletion than Goyal et al. (2019) and Polvani et al. (2020) and pointed out that the effect of MPA on surface climate would be smaller, therefore there is a need to reduce the uncertainties in the estimation of the MPA regulation effect on surface temperature (Neale et al., 2021). Because of the uncertainties in MPA climate effects estimations, more studies are necessary to clarify and obtain robust results of MPA benefits for the Earth's climate. In this paper, we applied the Earth system model (ESM) SOCOLv4.0 (Sukhodolov et al., 2021) to simulate the dramatic global scale depletion of the ozone layer and its
85 consequences on Earth's climate. In Section 2 we describe the model, experiment design, and forcing. The results of this study are provided in Section 3 followed by the conclusions summarized in Section 4.

2 Method

2.1 Model description

90 SOCOLv4.0 used in this study has the standard configuration with horizontal resolutions (T63, approximately 1.9x1.9 degrees) and 47 layers in the vertical direction and has been validated against observations and other models using comprehensive statistical tools (Sukhodolov et al., 2021). The model consists of the Earth system model (MPI-ESM, Hamburg, Germany) (Mauritsen et al., 2019), the chemistry (MEZON) (Egorova et al., 2003), and the size resolving sulfate

aerosol microphysics (AER) (Sheng et al., 2015) modules. The chemical module treats more than 100 gas species linked by
216 gas-phase, 72 photolysis, and 16 heterogeneous reactions in/on aqueous sulfuric acid aerosols and polar stratospheric
clouds. The photolysis rates are calculated online using the look-up-table scheme. All modules are interactively coupled by
the 3-dimensional meteorological fields of wind and temperature as well as by the radiative forcing of sulfate aerosol and
radiatively active gases including chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs). The model directly simulates many important forcings and
feedbacks in the climate system, including oceanic processes and dynamic vegetation. Thus, the model accounts for most of
the known atmospheric processes involved in the ozone net chemical production and transport as well as chemistry-
dynamics feedbacks. Extensive model validation showed that the climatology and variability of the temperature/circulation
fields, as well as the distribution of several key atmospheric tracers, are successfully reproduced (see Sukhodolov et al., 2021
for further details).

2.2 Experimental design and forcing

To assess the benefits of the Montreal Protocol and its Amendments and adjustments for atmospheric composition and
climate, we performed two main 3-member 120-year long (1980-2100) ensemble simulations with SOCOLv4.0 switching on
(MPA) and off (noMPA) limitations on the emissions of hODS. For the MPA and noMPA cases, the model boundary
conditions mostly follow the recommendations of CMIP6 provided by the input4MIPs database, (https://esgf-
node.llnl.gov/search/input4mips/) as described in Sukhodolov et al. (2021). All anthropogenic forcing except hODS is
historical before 2015 and then switched to the SSP2-4.5 scenarios till 2100, accordingly. The experiment with MPA
restrictions under the SSP2-4.5 scenario further will be named MPA_ssp245. For the long- and short-lived halogenated
source gases, we used the baseline mixing ratio scenario from WMO (2018), which is a combination of the observation
record up to the year 2017 (Engel et al.,2018) and CMIP6 data (Eyring et al., 2016). Several newly discovered and
unregulated hODSs (CFC-112, CFC-112a, CFC-113a, CFC114a, and HCFC-133a) have been introduced to the model
chemistry scheme together with some additional chlorine-containing very short-lived substances (VSLSs: CHCl3, CH2Cl2,
C2Cl4, C2HCl3, C2H4Cl2) that are not controlled by the MPA (Hossaini et al., 2017). For the noMPA experiment, we
applied the same boundary conditions except for the hODS, whose surface mixing ratio was increased by 3% per year since
1987 (Velders et al., 2007) for regulated species. For unregulated species we follow the recommendations of WMO (2018):
from 2016 CFC112a grow 1.5%/yr, CFC113a grow 6.5%/yr, HCFC-133a grow 5.4%/yr. HCFC-141b, CH3Cl, CHBr3,
CH2Br2, and H-2402 are assumed to be equal to the reference case value. In addition to the main two experiments, we
performed a run with the MPA limitations using the SSP5-8.5 scenario (MPA_ssp585) to compare climate effects with the
MPA_ssp245 experiment. To distinguish between the ozone and direct greenhouse effects of CFCs, we performed a model
run, where increasing CFCs were active only chemically but not radiatively under the SSP2-4.5 scenario
(noMPA_noRadCFC).

3 Results and discussion

3.1 MPA benefits for the total column ozone

Figure 1 shows the global, annual and ensemble mean total ozone from the MPA_ssp245, MPA_ssp585, and noMPA experiments simulated with SOCOLv4 and the amount of saved total ozone by MPA, calculated as the absolute difference between the MPA_ssp245 and noMPA experiments. Without MPA, ozone could be almost entirely depleted by the end of the 21st century and this result agrees very well with previous publications (e.g., Newman et al., 2009, Garcia et al., 2012, Egorova et al., 2013). The model results demonstrate that the continuous increase of stratospheric halogens destroys about 80% of the total ozone at the end of the 21st century, and it is difficult to overemphasize the importance of the Montreal Protocol and its Amendments and adjustments for preserving the ozone layer. Besides the direct consequences for human health, the increased surface UV radiation would also strongly affect the terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems (Neale et al., 2021) and biogeochemical cycles (Young et al., 2021).
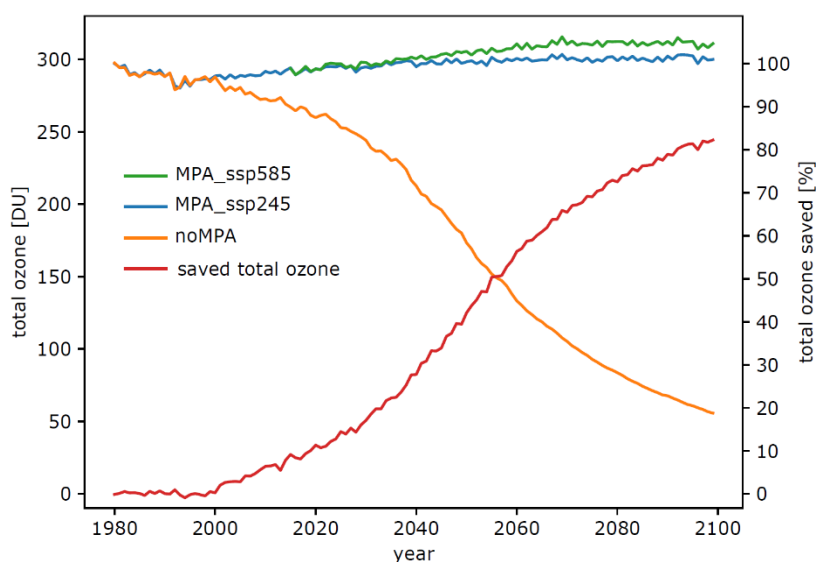
Figure 1: Time evolution of the global mean annual mean total ozone (DU) for the MPA_ssp245 (blue line), MPA_ssp585 (green line), and noMPA (orange line) simulations, the red line illustrates saved total ozone by the MPA limitations.

Figure 2 shows the geographical distribution of annual, and ensemble mean total ozone changes due to the absence of MPA regulations for the time periods 2021-2040 and 2080-2099. The most pronounced changes take place over the northern high latitudes and mid-latitudes of both hemispheres, where halogen chemistry is the most active. It is interesting to note that the southern polar area is less sensitive. It is explained by already large ozone depletion caused by the present-day hODS

level, leading to slight saturation of the effects. As expected, smaller, but still considerable changes occur over the tropical

latitudes where the ozone layer is still maintained to some extent by the in-situ production through photolysis of molecular

145 oxygen. All obtained results are statistically significant even for the near present time 2021-2040, which means that in no

MPA world some dramatic consequences could already be observable.
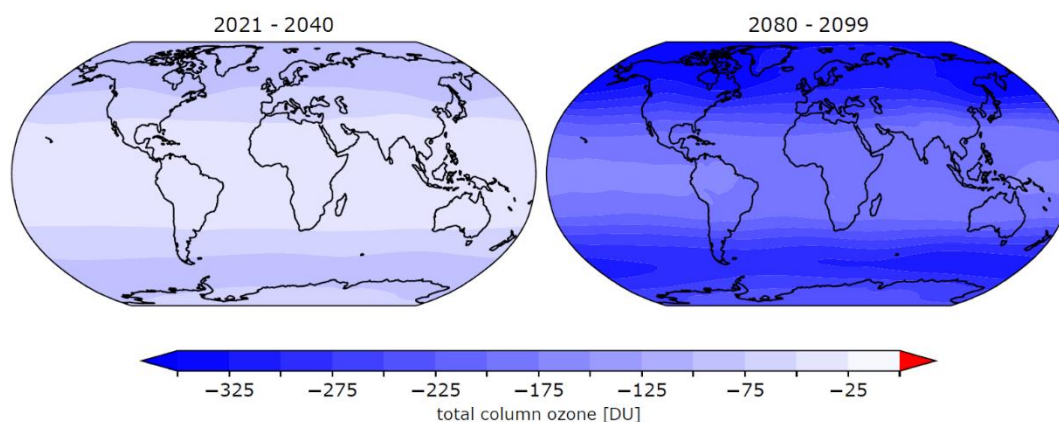
Figure 2: Geographical distribution of the annual mean total ozone difference (in D.U.) between MPA-ssp245 and noMPA simulations, averaged over the periods 2021-2040 (upper part) and 2080–2099 (lower part). The colored areas mark statistically significant results at

150 the better than 95% level.

3.2 Chemical composition and temperature changes

It is of interest to analyze the impact of hODS on chemical composition and temperature because it helps to understand the

response of the ozone and climate. Moreover, the extreme conditions that the atmosphere would be put in the luckily avoided

noMPA scenario presents an interesting exercise that allows us to learn more and verify our knowledge about the chemical

155 and dynamic links in the atmosphere/climate system. Figure 3 shows the response of several essential chemical species and

temperature to the absence of MPA limitations for the 2080–2099 period. The period is chosen because the response pattern

is quite close to the earlier periods, while the magnitude of the signal is larger. An uncontrolled increase of the hODS

emissions dramatically (around 2000%) enhances Cl_y concentration. This primary forcing leads to ozone depletion in most of

the stratosphere. The ozone decrease maximizes in the upper and lower stratosphere. In the upper stratosphere, the efficiency

160 of gas-phase chlorine-based catalytic ozone destruction cycles is the highest (e.g., Revell et al., 2012). In the lower

stratosphere, ozone depletion is related to the enhanced liquid aerosol concentration in the Junge layer (Junge and Mandson,

1961), a colder environment, and the presence of polar stratospheric clouds. In the tropical lower stratosphere (10–20 km)

the model shows about a 20% ozone increase caused by the increase in the oxygen photolysis rates in the lower stratosphere

related to strong ozone depletion higher up leading to a downward shift of the net ozone production. The obtained pattern of

165 the ozone response is very close to the other model results (e.g., Morgenstern et al., 200; Newman et al., 2009).

The ozone abundance is tightly related to atmospheric chemistry due to the modulation of the temperature structure and photolysis rates. Well-pronounced cooling in the stratosphere is mostly related to ozone depletion and reaches maxima in the upper stratosphere, where the ozone absorption of solar UV radiation is the main energy source. The secondary maximum in the lower stratosphere is formed by both ozone depletion and intensification of the Brewer-Dobson circulation (e.g., Zubov

170 et al., 2013) caused by the tropospheric warming owed to the direct radiative forcing of hODS as well as by the modulation of the temperature gradients in the stratosphere. The tropical pattern of the temperature response is similar to the Garcia et al. (2012) and Newman et al. (2009) results. More details of climate warming will be discussed in section 3.3. Tropospheric warming is responsible for the increase of tropospheric water vapor due to enhanced evaporation in a warmer climate. Together with enhanced ozone photolysis followed by more intensive $O(1D)$ production, it leads to substantially higher (up

175 to 100%) hydroxyl concentration, with a negative impact on tropospheric ozone that is also lowered because of the reduced transport from the stratosphere. The stratospheric water vapor is slightly decreasing in the upper stratosphere, where the methane oxidation cycle is still operational. However, in the lower stratosphere, where the influx from the troposphere dominates, the water vapor concentration drops by up to 70% due to a cooler environment and a more efficient cold trap at the entry level. This process and lower ozone concentration (less $O(1D)$) suppresses hydroxyl radical production and

180 decreases the stratospheric oxidation capacity. A substantial amount of HO_x is also removed via $HO_2 + ClO = HOCl + O_2$ due to very high chlorine loading. The effect of a lower OH mixing ratio is more visible in the weaker ozone depletion in the lower mesosphere and partially in the tropical lower stratosphere. The major source gases such as methane and N_2O demonstrate rather similar behaviour, with very weak changes in the troposphere and substantial depletion above approximately 30 km. The methane decrease in the troposphere is caused by enhanced hydroxyl concentration. Above 30

185 km, methane is being destroyed by atomic chlorine via the reaction $CH_4+Cl = HCl + CH_3$. Tropospheric N_2O is not extensively sensitive to other species and photolysis rates, so it only very weakly reacts to the introduced forcing. Two spots of positive N_2O changes over the extratropics are probably formed due to the deficit of the $O(1D)$ related to ozone depletion. N_2O decrease above 25 km is most likely related to the enhanced photolysis ($N_2O+hv = N_2 + O$), which does not enhance NO_y production. As a result, NO_y concentration drops in the entire stratosphere because of enhanced NO photolysis followed

190 by the cannibalistic reaction $NO+N =N_2+O$ in combination with a substantial N_2O decrease. Reactive NO_x radical depletion is even more intensive than NO_y. It can be explained by the conversion to $ClONO_2$ (via $NO_2 + ClO = ClONO_2$) in the high chlorine loading atmosphere. NO_y increase in the upper tropical troposphere is partly related to the enhanced lightning flashes frequency and convective activity in the warmer climate (e.g., Mareev and Volodin, 2014; Revell et al., 2015). The obtained results show that an uncontrolled increase in halogen loading affects chemical processes and the temperature

195 distribution in the entire atmosphere from the ground to the mesosphere.
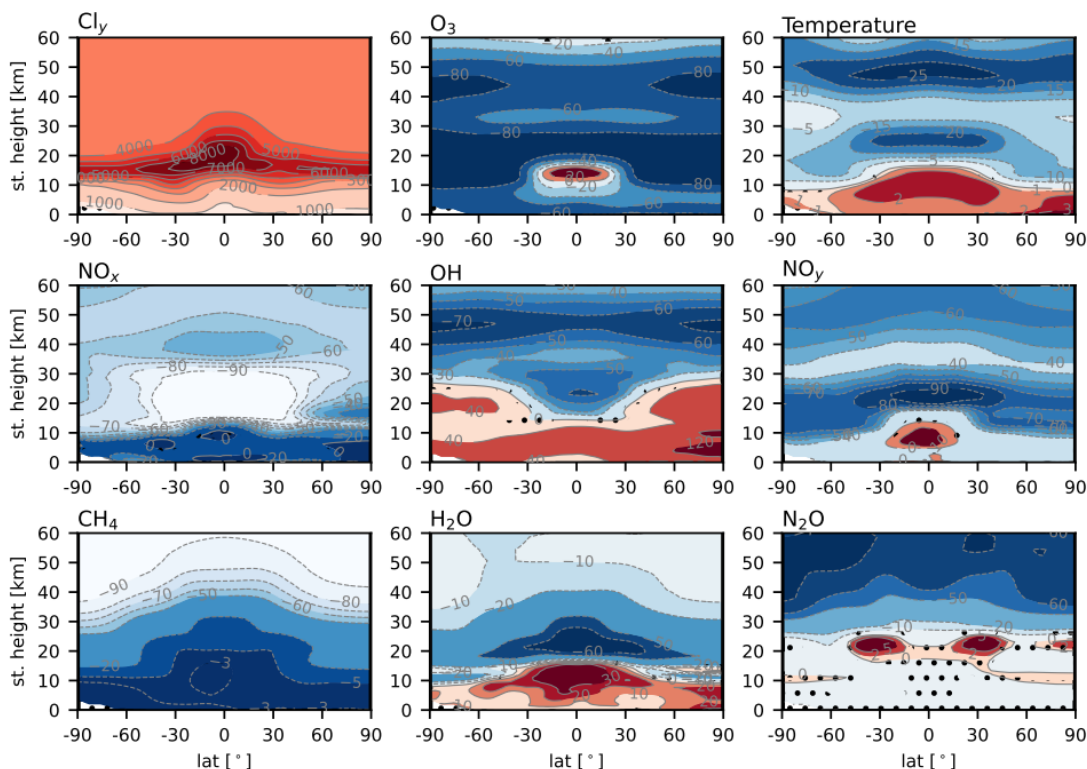
Figure 3: Zonal, annual, and ensemble mean Cl_y, O_3, NO_x, OH, H_2O, NO_y, CH_4, H_2O, N_2O (in %), and temperature (in K) response to the absence of the MPA regulations averaged over 2080–2099. The colored areas mark statistically significant results at the better than 95% level.

3.3 MPA implications for the surface air temperature

As it was mentioned above, the troposphere would warm by up to 3 K without MPA restrictions at the end of the 21st century (see figure 3). It means that the MPA not only protects the ozone layer but also helps to limit greenhouse warming described in IPCC (2013). Here, we analyze surface air temperature in more detail to illustrate the benefits of the MPA limitations for the surface climate. Figure 4 shows the time evolution of global mean temperature response for all considered cases in comparison with the other model results published by Garcia et al. (2012), Goyal et al. (2019), and Young et al. (2021). Before approximately 2030, all models show a slightly (within 0.25 K) warmer climate. Then the warming started to grow at a higher rate for Garcia et al. (2012), Goyal et al. (2019), and Young et al. (2021). Our model demonstrates weaker warming until approximately 2060 and a sharp temperature increases during the second half of the century. In 2100 the warming from our model is even higher than in Young et al. (2021). This disagreement is not easy to understand. The model's peculiarities could play a role. It is known (e.g., IPCC, 2013) that climate sensitivities are not in perfect agreement among the models. The ocean inertia could also strongly affect the magnitude of the response. Another aspect is related to

the treatment of the hODS distribution. In climate models without interactive chemistry, hODS are usually prescribed as a single value for the entire atmosphere. In the chemistry-climate models, there is the possibility to do the same or utilize 3-D hODS concentration from the chemical module for calculating radiation fluxes and heating rates. Due to intensive

215 destruction by solar UV radiation, hODS almost disappear from the stratosphere, which diminishes their radiative forcing. This process is insignificant for the hODS concentration close to the present-day values but becomes more important in the future for the noMPA case. It can explain a smaller temperature response in our model in comparison with the prescribed chemistry model of Goyal et al. (2019). Still, the reason for the difference with results from Garcia et al. (2012) remains unclear because we do not know how hODS were treated in their model.

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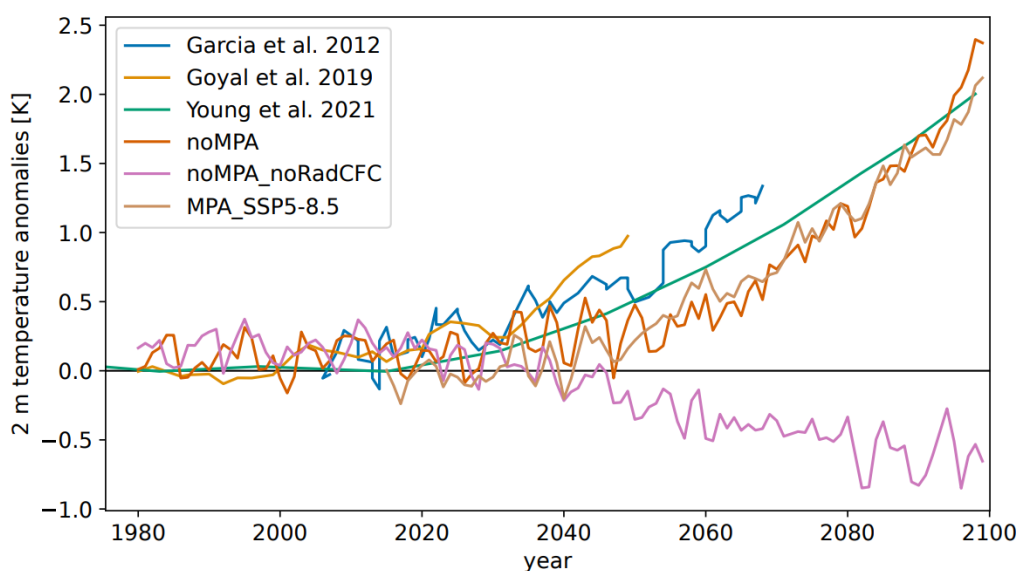
Figure 4: Global mean surface air temperature deviation for the noMPA (orange line), MPA-ssp585 (magenta line), and noMPA_noRadCFC (violet line) from the reference MPA-ssp245 run. For comparisons, the same quantity is shown using digitized data from Garcia et al. (2012, blue line), Goyal et al. (2019, red line), and Young et al. (2021, light blue line).

225 An interesting fact to note is that the noMPA case gives virtually the same global warming rate as the MPA-ssp885, which emphasizes the importance of MPA for global climate. The influence of the ozone change is also shown in Figure 4. For the noMPA_noRadCFC run, uncontrolled hODS increase was applied only for the chemical module, while infrared radiative forcing from hODS was kept as in the reference (MPA_ssp245) case. The ozone depletion discussed earlier in section 3.2 caused significant global cooling by up to 0.8 K. This can be explained mainly by the decrease of ozone in the troposphere

230 and stratosphere (see Figure 3), where it has a strong radiative forcing potential. The separation of these two physical processes requires several additional experiments and cannot be done in the present paper framework.
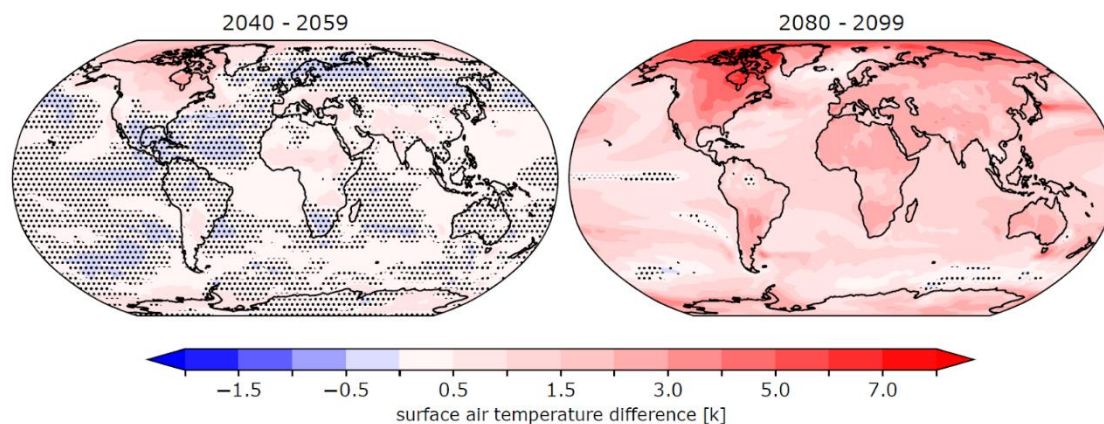
Figure 5: Geographical distribution of annual mean difference of the surface air temperature between noMPA and MPA_ssp245 simulations, averaged over the periods 2040-2059, and 2080–2099 (in K). Areas, where the statistical significance of the signal is less than 95%, are marked by dots.

Figure 5 shows the regional effects of MPA regulations on surface air temperature for annual mean values for two periods. Uncontrolled hODS increase leads by the end of the 21st century to robust warming all around the globe, except marginally significant cooling in equatorial Africa. The pattern of the warming is typical for the warmer climate (IPCC, 2013) with up to 8K warming in the northern high latitude, reflecting well-known Arctic amplification. In general, the warming maximizes over the land masses and is only about 1 K over the oceans. The smaller warming as in the case of GHG increase (e.g., IPCC, 2013) is visible over the northern Atlantic. The temperature response is insignificant during the 2020-2040 period (not shown) and started to appear over North America, the Arctic, Asia, and Africa only after 2040. Small and even not robust warming just after 2020 does not agree with the results of Goyal et al. (2019), who demonstrate substantial warming already during the early 21st century. It looks reasonable due to their larger global mean response (see Figure 4). However, their results are also difficult to interpret because Goyal et al. (2019) did not provide statistical significance of the results and internal variability of the climate system can provide quite substantial noise even with 5 ensemble members.

3.4 MPA impact on cloud cover, precipitation, and sea ice

Among essential climate variables, cloud amount and precipitation intensity play an important role because they demonstrate energy and water flux changes in the climate system, which are dramatically important for the environment (e.g., IPCC, 2013). Figure 6 (left panel) illustrates the evolution of the global and annual mean cloud cover for the MPA (reference) and noMPA cases relative to the 1980-1990 period. The cloud amount response is very small (within 1%) until approximately 2060 for both cases, and the difference between cases is not statistically significant. After 2060 global mean cloud amount

decrease due to the absence of the MPA limitations is observable, reaching about 2% at the end of the century and more
255 pronounced than in the reference case. The small global mean response could be related to the redistribution of the cloud
field caused by the circulation changes in the warmer climate. The geographical distribution of the cloud amount supports
this explanation, showing a very inhomogeneous pattern. The cloud amount increase over the high and tropical latitudes is
competing with a pronounced decrease over the extratropics leading to very small changes (up to 2% at the end of the 21st
century) in the global mean. The obtained pattern resembles the results of climate models obtained for the RCP8.5 scenario
260 (see IPCC, 2013, Figure 12.17), but there are some deviations in the maritime continent, South America, Australia, and
Southern Africa, where the cloud response to hODS forcing has a different sign. It should be noted, however, that these
differences could be related rather to our model peculiarities.
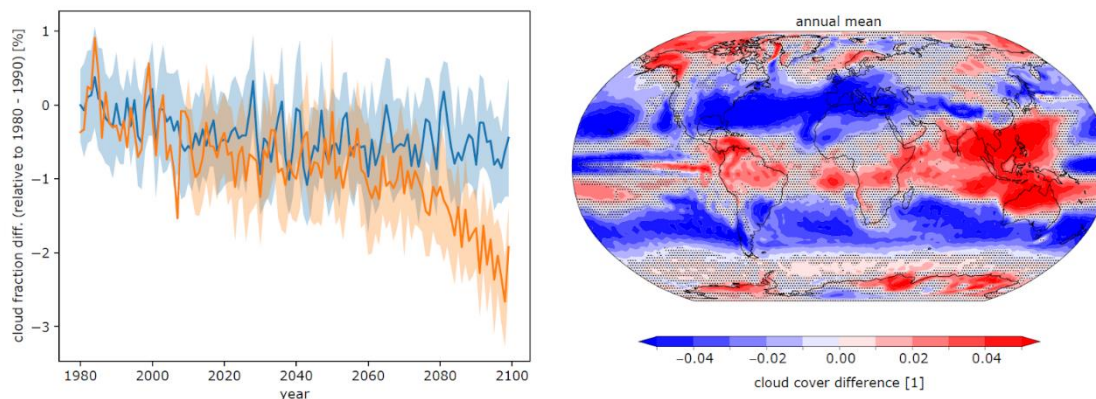
Figure 6: Time evolution of global and annual mean cloud cover change (left panel) for MPA-ssp245 (blue) and for noMPA (orange)
265 cases relative to 1980-1990 mean and geographical distribution (right panel) of the annual mean difference in cloud cover between noMPA
and MPA_ssp245 simulations, averaged over the period 2090–2100. Areas, where the statistical significance of the signal is less than 95%,
are marked by dots.

Figure 7 shows substantial changes (up to 9% at the end of the 21st century) in global mean precipitation and its spatial
distribution. In a warmer climate, we expect more water vapor in the atmosphere, and consequently substantial changes in
270 precipitation intensity. It is known (IPCC, 2013, 2022) that the global mean precipitation increases in a warming climate.
The rate is not perfectly constrained and can be within 1-4 % per 1 K warming. In our case, we have about 2 K warming for
the noMPA case (see Figure 4) and a consistent extra 7% precipitation amount. As expected, the geographical distribution of
the precipitation changes resembles the cloud cover response.
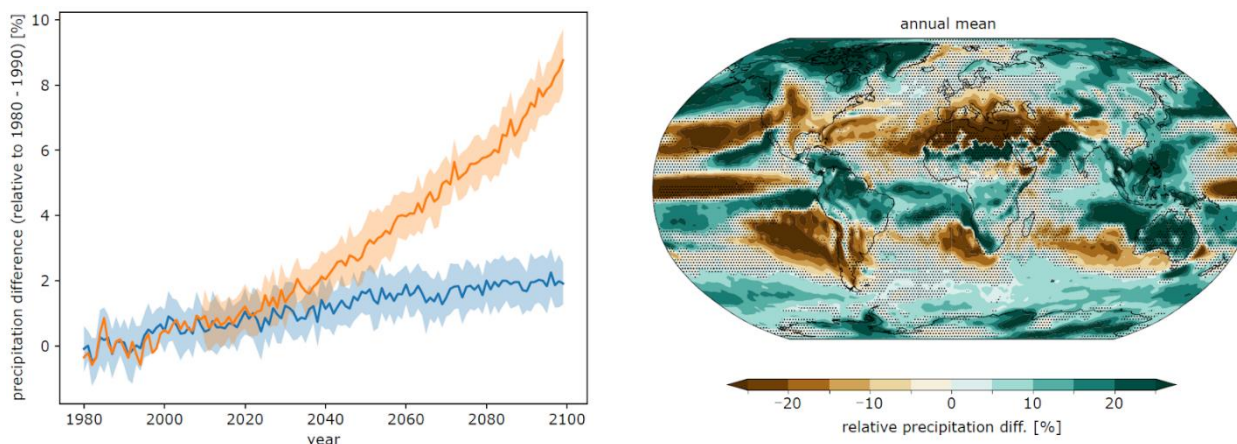
Figure 7: Time evolution of global and annual mean precipitation change (left panel) for reference MPA-ssp245 (blue) and for noMPA (orange) cases relative to 1980-1990 mean and geographical distribution (right panel) of the annual mean difference in precipitation between noMPA and MPA-ssp245 simulations averaged over the period 2090–2100 (in %). Areas, where the statistical significance of the signal is less than 95%, are marked by dots.

High latitude areas, the tropical belt, Australia, and the maritime continent are experiencing substantial (more than 20%), statistically significant precipitation increase. Greater changes over the high latitudes are explained by increased water vapor transport from the tropical latitudes (IPCC, 2013). The Mediterranean region becomes substantially (by up to 20%) drier, responding to the absence of MPA limitations. Over the Pacific Ocean, the pattern is not homogeneous. The obtained precipitation changes resemble the results presented in IPCC (2022, Figure 4.24) but are not identical. Our model produces very different precipitation changes over Australia and South Africa. However, the magnitude of the changes due to the absence of MPA limitations is comparable with the precipitation response obtained for the SSP3-7.0 scenario (IPCC, 2022).

The status of the Northern Sea ice cover is essential for the Arctic biosphere as well as for the economic issues related to transportation, tourism, population life, and fossil fuel extraction (e.g., Notz et al., 2016). All these factors make sea ice one of the main climate indicators. As shown above, in Figure 5, the Arctic region experiences large warming if the MPA had not been implemented. The implications on the September sea-ice cover are visible in Figure 8 (left panel). The Arctic would be ice-free (cover less than 1 Mio. km2) in September around 40 years earlier, i.e., around 2050 without MPA compared to 2090 with MPA. A similar early timing of an ice-free Arctic is also seen for simulations with the SSP5-8.5 scenario (see for example Lee et al.,2021: IPCC AR6 Figure 4.2c). The minimum sea-ice cover is decreased on the whole surface quite uniformly (Figure 8 right panel). In spring, however, which is the time of the maximum sea-ice extension, the reduction is confined to the edge of the sea-ice cover. Hudson Bay and Baffin Bay would be largely ice-free at the end of the century without the MPA. Additionally, the sea-ice edge between Svalbard and Siberia will move to the North and Fram Strait has a reduced cover, leading to the conclusion that there is less transport of sea ice out of the Arctic Basin.
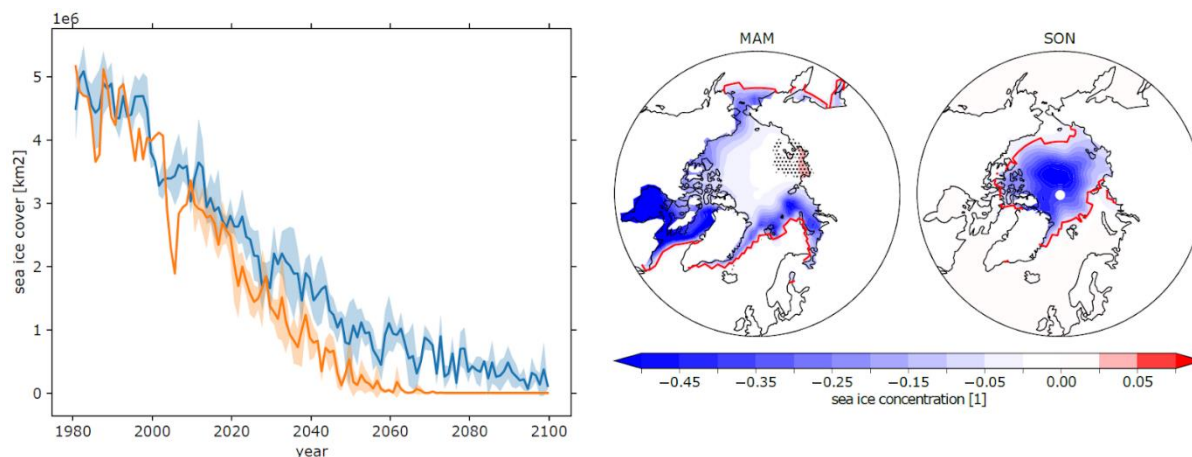
Figure 8: Left panel: September sea-ice extent time evolution for reference MPA-ssp245 (blue) and for no MPA (orange) cases; Right panel: Sea-ice loss due to hODSs for 2080-2099, the red line represents sea ice extent of the reference MPA-ssp245 run.

4 Summary and conclusions

This paper describes the climate and atmosphere benefits of the Montreal Protocol and its Amendments and adjustments (MPA) simulated with the state-of-the-art Earth system model SOCOLv4.0 using the CMIP6 boundary conditions and socioeconomic pathway scenarios. We have added to and confirmed the previous studies by showing that without the MPA by the end of the 21st century there would be a dramatic reduction of the ozone layer as well as a huge perturbation of the essential climate variables in the troposphere caused by the warming from increasing hODSs.

With performed simulations, we have confirmed the value and benefits of MPA limitations for the ozone layer and climate, considering multiple feedbacks within the Earth system. The uncontrolled increase in hODS influences the chemical processes and temperature distribution in the entire atmosphere from the earth to the mesosphere. Ozone could be almost entirely depleted, and surface temperature could be warmer all around the globe and up to 8K in the northern high latitude, reflecting well-known Arctic amplification. Also, cloud cover and precipitation would be affected. Our simulations with ESM SOCOLv4 showed very small changes in global mean cloud amount, by about a 2% decrease at the end of the century due to the competing between an increase over the high and tropical latitudes and a pronounced decrease over the extratropics, and the geographical distribution of the precipitation changes resemble the cloud cover response. The modeling results for the sea ice show that the Arctic would be ice-free around 40 years earlier, i.e., around 2050 without MPA compared to 2090 with MPA.

The warming rate of the noMPA scenario under the SSP2-4.5 conditions would be very similar to that from the SSP5-8.5 conditions with MPA, i.e., the harsh future without MPA would combine both the negative health effects from the increased UV radiation at the surface and most of the negative consequences of the high-end future climate pathway described in detail by IPCC (2021). Such a combination of fast and strong negative environmental changes would trigger further socioeconomic

320 problems like shortage of food and water security (Barnes et al., 2019), unprecedented migration (Ionesco et al., 2016), civil and international conflicts (e.g., Hsiang et al., 2011), with many of the negative effects starting to emerge already in the current decade.

Our paper reminds us once more how timely and extremely important was the MPA. The Montreal Protocol is one of the few cases in human history when all countries urgently agreed on measures benefiting the survival of humanity. The ozone

325 layer made life on terrestrial land possible (e.g., Ratner and Walker, 1972), and we were very close to severely damaging it. The Montreal Protocol science should continue to be conveyed in the future to remind society how vulnerable and close to a total disaster we could be, and that international dialogue and consensual decisions on environmental questions are possible.

Data availability. The data were downloaded to a general-purpose open repository Zenodo at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7234665 (Egorova et al., 2022) and can also be provided by the corresponding authors upon
330 request.

Author contributions. TE wrote the manuscript draft, prepared CFC and VSLS scenarios for the experiments, and participated in the experiments' performance. TS and JS run the SOCOLv4 experiments. ADK took part in the discussion of the results. TE, ER, TS, JS, and FZ participated in the visualizing and analysis of the results. All authors participated in manuscript editing and discussions about the results.

335 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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