



Lightning NO_x, a key chemistry–climate interaction

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Lightning NO_x, a key chemistry–climate interaction: impacts of future climate change and consequences for tropospheric oxidising capacity

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Received: 16 February 2014 – Accepted: 9 March 2014 – Published: 31 March 2014

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Published by Copernicus Publications on behalf of the European Geosciences Union.

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Abstract

Lightning is one of the major natural sources of NO_x in the atmosphere. A suite of time-slice experiments using a stratosphere-resolving configuration of the Unified Model (UM), containing the UK Chemistry and Aerosols sub-model (UKCA), have been performed to investigate the impact of climate change on lightning produced NO_x (LNO_x) and to highlight its critical impacts on photochemical ozone production and the oxidising capacity of the troposphere. Two Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) scenarios (RCP4.5 and RCP8.5) are explored. LNO_x emissions are simulated to increase in a year-2100 climate by 33 % (RCP4.5) and 78 % (RCP8.5) in response to changes in convection. The total tropospheric chemical odd oxygen production ($P(\text{O}_x)$) increases linearly with total LNO_x emissions and consequently, the tropospheric ozone burden also increases by $29 \pm 4 \text{ Tg}(\text{O}_3)$ (RCP4.5) and $46 \pm 4 \text{ Tg}(\text{O}_3)$ (RCP8.5). We thus show that, through changes in LNO_x , the effects of climate change counteract the simulated mitigation of the ozone burden, which results from reductions in ozone precursor emissions as part of air quality controls projected in the RCP scenarios. Without the driver of increased LNO_x , our simulations suggest that the net effect of climate change would be to lower free tropospheric ozone. In addition, we identify large climate-change induced enhancements in the concentration of the hydroxyl radical (OH) in the tropical upper troposphere (UT), particularly over the Maritime Continent, primarily as a consequence of larger LNO_x emissions. The OH enhancement in the tropics increases oxidation of both methane (with feedbacks onto chemistry and climate) and very short-lived substances (VSLs) (with implications for stratospheric ozone depletion). We emphasise that it is important to improve our understanding of LNO_x in order to gain confidence in model projections of future climate.

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1 Introduction

Lightning is one of the primary sources of nitrogen oxides ($\text{NO}_x = \text{NO} + \text{NO}_2$) in the troposphere and the only natural source remote from the Earth's surface. As a result of the strong vertical gradient in these emissions, combined with high NO_x lifetimes in the upper troposphere (UT), NO_x produced from lightning (LNO_x) exerts a disproportionately large influence on tropospheric chemistry. Lightning occurs predominantly in regions of strong convection. These regions, and hence LNO_x , are likely to change in a warmer, more moist climate; LNO_x therefore has the potential to be a particularly important factor in chemistry–climate interactions.

LNO_x has several roles relevant to both the composition and the radiative properties of the troposphere. LNO_x induces production of ozone (O_3) in the mid to upper troposphere (e.g. Williams et al., 2005; Schumann and Huntrieser, 2007; Barret et al., 2010), where ozone can exert a particularly strong radiative forcing (Forster and Shine, 1997). The production can be large enough to affect the tropospheric column ozone over or downwind of LNO_x emissions, particularly when other natural sources of NO_x (e.g. biomass burning) are absent (Ryu and Jenkins, 2005).

Concentrations and partitioning of other important trace gases are also affected. For example, the partitioning of the HO_x ($\text{HO}_x = \text{OH} + \text{HO}_2$) family can be altered by the conversion of HO_2 to OH via the reaction between HO_2 and NO . In addition, LNO_x can induce HO_x formation indirectly, as lightning produced ozone is subsequently photolysed to form $\text{O}(^1\text{D})$, which then reacts with water vapour to generate OH . In contrast, HO_x loss ensues when OH and NO_2 react to form nitric acid, which can then be deposited to the surface (Brasseur et al., 2006; Schumann and Huntrieser, 2007). Any changes in HO_x can affect the lifetime of methane, whose loss depends primarily on OH (Holmes et al., 2013; Murray et al., 2013). Since methane is the second most important greenhouse gas in terms of radiative forcing, this represents a crucial chemistry–climate feedback resulting from changes in LNO_x .

ACPD

14, 8753–8778, 2014

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lies in examining changes in LNO_x and subsequent impacts on tropospheric composition. We do not attempt to provide a detailed description of all the changes associated with the applied perturbations; that will form the basis of a future publication.

The following sections are organised as follows. Section 2 describes the experimental set-up and the method in which LNO_x emissions are calculated in UM-UKCA. Section 3 then discusses the impacts of future climate change on LNO_x emissions. The associated changes in tropospheric ozone and OH are highlighted. Section 4 concludes with a summary of the results.

2 Model description

2.1 Experimental set-up

We use UM-UKCA in its atmosphere-only set-up at N48L60 resolution (3.75° × 2.5° with 60 hybrid-height levels extending up to 84 km). The dynamical core is described by Hewitt et al. (2011). The model is forced by prescribed sea surface temperatures (SSTs) and sea ice. A uniform concentration for CO₂ is assumed while uniform surface boundary conditions are prescribed for the remaining greenhouse gases (GHGs) and ozone-depleting substances (ODS) (N₂O, methane and halogen-containing species). These can be varied independently within the radiation and chemistry schemes. There are surface emissions of 9 species (NO, CO, HCHO, C₂H₆, C₃H₈, CH₃COCH₃, CH₃CHO, C₅H₈ and biogenic CH₃OH) and multi-level emissions for NO_x emitted from aircraft.

The chemistry scheme used is a combination of the well-established tropospheric (O'Connor et al., 2014) and stratospheric (Morgenstern et al., 2009) schemes. It includes the O_x, HO_x and NO_x chemical cycles and the oxidation of CO, ethane, propane, and isoprene (Archibald et al., 2011), in addition to chlorine and bromine chemistry, including heterogeneous processes on polar stratospheric clouds (PSCs) and liquid sulfate aerosols. Photolysis is calculated interactively by the Fast-JX scheme (Telford et al., 2013) and ozone is coupled interactively between chemistry and radiation.

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to the RCP4.5 scenario. Emissions from natural sources and isoprene emissions remain unchanged. Methane is also not changed in the chemical scheme.

We aim to isolate the impact of LNO_x from other effects of climate change by performing two further simulations in which we fix LNO_x but allow climate (and its influence on convection) to vary between them. These are the Base(fLNO_x) and ΔCC8.5(fLNO_x) simulations which are run under year-2000 and year-2100 RCP8.5 climate, respectively. In these, both the amount and distribution of LNO_x is fixed to that of the Base run. To do this, we switch off the interactive calculation of LNO_x emissions and instead, impose a monthly mean climatology of these emissions obtained from the output of the Base run. The Base(fLNO_x) and Base runs should be identical; indeed, there are negligible differences in temperature, tropospheric ozone and OH between these runs, providing validation for the method of imposing an LNO_x climatology. It is therefore also valid to present results of ΔCC8.5(fLNO_x) as differences from Base (as with all other perturbations in this study), with the confidence that there are no differences generated from the contrasting experimental set-ups. Base(fLNO_x) will henceforth not be discussed and ΔCC8.5(fLNO_x) will be referred to as the “fixed-LNO_x” run.

2.2 Lightning NO_x parameterisation

Lightning NO_x is represented in UM-UKCA following the method applied in the p-TOMCAT model. Details of the methodology are provided in Barret et al. (2010) and references therein but a brief description is provided here. Lightning flash frequencies are parameterised according to the Price and Rind (1992, 1994a) scheme (henceforth abbreviated as PR92):

$$F_c = 3.44 \times 10^{-5} H^{4.9} \quad (1)$$

$$F_m = 6.40 \times 10^{-4} H^{1.73} \quad (2)$$

where F_c and F_m are continental and marine lightning frequencies (flashes min⁻¹ (25 km²)⁻¹), respectively, and H is the cloud-top height (km), which is

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determined from the model convection scheme. The PR92 method for calculating the proportion of cloud-to-ground (CG) and intra-cloud (IC) flashes is incorporated, but here the energy per flash is constant regardless of the type of flash. 10^{26} molecules of NO are produced per flash and the flash frequencies are scaled to match observations of the present-day (Barret et al., 2010), resulting in total, global LNO_x emissions of 6 Tg(N) yr⁻¹ for the year 2000. The scaling factor is unchanged between runs, such that LNO_x will vary only with changes in convective cloud-top height through changes in convection. The molecules of NO_x produced in each column are then distributed evenly in log-pressure coordinates from 500 hPa to the cloud-top and the ground to 500 hPa for IC and CG flashes, respectively.

Implementation of the PR92 scheme varies in its details from model to model, generally with an aim to generate lightning flash frequencies and distribution for the present-day atmosphere (as within the development of UM-UKCA) or for a particular choice of total, global LNO_x emissions. Convection itself is also parameterised at the horizontal resolution used in this model and in most current chemistry–climate and chemical transport models (CCMs, CTMs). Russo et al. (2011) showed that although a high vertical model resolution is needed to match the vertical distribution of clouds to observations, a low horizontal resolution is sufficient to capture the geographical distribution. As in many sensitivity studies, we bear these caveats in mind and use our parameterisations as reference schemes relative to which we study changes. Our goal is thus to understand the mechanisms by which climate change could drive changes in chemistry, with a focus on the role of LNO_x, rather than attempt to predict the future state of the atmosphere.

3 Results

We primarily address changes related to LNO_x between the runs outlined in Sect. 2.1. We will first discuss changes in the LNO_x amount and distribution with climate change in Sect. 3.1. Then, in Sect. 3.2, we will show the resulting impacts on the tropospheric,

global odd oxygen budget. Finally, in Sect. 3.3, we will address the consequences for the OH radical, which principally determines the oxidising capacity of the troposphere.

3.1 Changes in LNO_x

The fifth column in Table 1 shows that experiments with a warmer climate simulate greater LNO_x emissions, which reflects changes in convection. Relative to the year-2000 climate, there are substantial increases in LNO_x of 2 Tg(N)yr⁻¹ (33%) and 4.7 Tg(N)yr⁻¹ (78%) between runs for which only the climate changes, according to the RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios, respectively. This corresponds to a sensitivity of 0.96 Tg(N)K⁻¹ or 16%K⁻¹ although the relationship between LNO_x and global mean surface temperature is not quite linear (not shown). This sensitivity is stronger than that reported by some previous model studies: 9%K⁻¹ (Brasseur et al., 2006), 12%K⁻¹ (Grenfell et al., 2003), 5–6%K⁻¹ (Price and Rind, 1994b). This could reflect differences in the specific tuning of the PR92 parameterisation (used in all of these cited studies), in convection schemes and/or in the model resolutions.

With regard to its geographical distribution, LNO_x is emitted predominantly over the tropics in regions which show high convective activity: South America, Central Africa and the West Pacific/Maritime Continent. Figure 1 shows the changes in the tropically averaged (20° S–20° N), annual mean, longitudinal distribution of LNO_x between Base and the runs which change climate only (Fig. 1a: ΔCC4.5 and Fig. 1b: ΔCC8.5). Increases in LNO_x occur primarily over the Maritime Continent for ΔCC4.5. ΔCC8.5 displays, in addition, large increases over Central Africa and South America, highlighting the potential importance of all three regions with respect to future changes in LNO_x. In contrast to the study of Hui and Hong (2013), in which the Maritime Continent displays the weakest increases in LNO_x by 2050 (except in boreal winter when they are comparable to the increases over South America), this region is associated with the largest changes in LNO_x in UM-UKCA for all months of the year and both RCP scenarios. These opposing results might be attributable to a difference in model resolutions.

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Compared to UM-UKCA, the coarser resolution ($4^\circ \times 5^\circ$) GEOS-Chem model used by Hui and Hong (2013) is less able to resolve the islands and peninsulas of the Maritime Continent, which may result in systematic biases in the production of LNO_x over this region.

3.2 Changes in ozone

As a global measure of changes in ozone, we have analysed the tropospheric budget of odd oxygen (O_x), of which chemical production ($P(\text{O}_x)$) represents one term. Since LNO_x is one driver of $P(\text{O}_x)$, we first study the correlation between $P(\text{O}_x)$ and LNO_x , shown in Fig. 2a. For each set of experiments (i.e. climate change; climate change plus changes in ODS; and climate change plus changes in tropospheric ozone precursors), a highly linear fit between $P(\text{O}_x)$ and LNO_x is found. Within this ensemble of simulations, we find that increases in LNO_x with climate change are concurrent with increases in $P(\text{O}_x)$ of $413 \pm 28 \text{ Tg}(\text{O}_3)\text{yr}^{-1}$ and $977 \pm 33 \text{ Tg}(\text{O}_3)\text{yr}^{-1}$ for the RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios, respectively, where the reported ranges represent the interannual variability as one standard deviation.

Figure 2a allows for an assessment of the importance of climate change vs. non-climate change related impacts on $P(\text{O}_x)$. Reductions in $P(\text{O}_x)$ of approximately $100 \text{ Tg}(\text{O}_3)\text{yr}^{-1}$ due to removal of ODS (green line, Fig. 2a) are small in magnitude relative to climate-change driven increases. Runs containing reduced emissions of anthropogenic ozone precursors (red line, Fig. 2a) show approximately $800 \text{ Tg}(\text{O}_3)\text{yr}^{-1}$ lower $P(\text{O}_x)$ than corresponding runs without (blue line). However, for the RCP8.5 scenario, this reduction is more than cancelled by the effect of climate change on LNO_x , such that $P(\text{O}_x)$ in $\Delta(\text{CC8.5} + \text{O3pre})$ is greater than in Base.

$P(\text{O}_x)$ represents one of four contributing terms to the global burden of ozone in the troposphere, the others being chemical loss ($L(\text{O}_x)$), deposition and stratosphere–troposphere exchange (STE). A future publication will discuss the effect of the applied perturbations on these terms in detail. Here, we simply note that LNO_x driven increases

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in $P(O_x)$ induced by climate change represent a significant contribution to the increases in the ozone burden of $29 \pm 4 \text{ Tg}(O_3)$ for RCP4.5 and $46 \pm 4 \text{ Tg}(O_3)$ for RCP8.5, as shown in Table 1 and Fig. 2b. As a result, the decrease in burden of $34 \pm 4 \text{ Tg}(O_3)$ due to $\Delta O_3\text{pre}$ is just outweighed by the increase in $\Delta(\text{CC8.5} + O_3\text{pre})$. Therefore, it appears that reductions in the ozone burden due to emission policies could be counteracted by future changes in climate.

To confirm that LNO_x is the dominant factor leading to increases in $P(O_x)$ and the ozone burden, we examine the $\Delta\text{CC8.5}(fLNO_x)$ simulation, which includes RCP8.5 climate forcings but with emissions of LNO_x taken from the Base run rather than calculated online. Table 2 shows numerical changes in the tropospheric O_x budget terms for the $\Delta\text{CC8.5}$ and $\Delta\text{CC8.5}(fLNO_x)$ runs relative to Base. With fixed LNO_x , $P(O_x)$ increases by only 7.0 % as compared to 20.1 % when LNO_x is allowed to vary with climate change. There is strong buffering in the response of the burden by the loss terms: fixing LNO_x also leads to smaller magnitude changes in loss through $L(O_x)$ and deposition. Overall however, there is a greater decrease in net chemical production ($P(O_x)$ minus $L(O_x)$) from Base for $\Delta\text{CC8.5}(fLNO_x)$ than for $\Delta\text{CC8.5}$.

Table 2 shows that we also find a smaller increase in STE when fixing LNO_x . Comparing Fig. 3a and b gives one possible explanation: without increases in LNO_x and consequently upper tropospheric ozone, the amount of ozone in the lower stratosphere is reduced (following entry into the tropical lower stratosphere and quasi-horizontal mixing). In the mid-latitudes, this would reduce the STE of ozone back into the troposphere. Thus, in our model, we estimate that the increase in LNO_x with climate change at RCP8.5 contributes 6.4 % to the increase in STE.

Importantly, the balance between the budget terms means that, without inclusion of changes in LNO_x emissions, there results a slight decrease (-5.8 %) rather than an increase (13.2 %) in the ozone burden with climate change at RCP8.5. In fact, the decrease in ozone is seen throughout the troposphere in the zonal and annual mean (Fig. 3b), primarily due to increased humidity in a warmer climate. Hence, these results

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suggest that climate change would enhance possible future mitigation of free tropospheric ozone if LNO_x emissions were not to increase in a future climate.

3.3 Changes in OH

The impacts of LNO_x extend to other chemical species. Figure 4 illustrates zonal changes in OH for ΔCC4.5, ΔCC8.5 and ΔCC8.5(fLNO_x) as absolute (a–c) and relative differences (d–f) from Base. Regions of OH enhancement in Fig. 4 correspond to regions of increased LNO_x in Fig. 1. The Maritime Continent, which experiences the greatest increases in LNO_x in these simulations, also displays the strongest enhancements in OH. Figure 4 shows that these changes are large, with a peak of over 0.2 ppt (100 %) for ΔCC4.5 and 0.3 ppt (160 %) for ΔCC8.5. An analysis of the zonal distributions of species concentrations and reaction fluxes indicates that these changes in OH are due to a combination of:

- i. direct chemical conversion of HO₂ to OH via NO emitted from lightning;
- ii. deeper convection transporting water vapour into these regions of the UT and hence inducing OH production through O(¹D) + H₂O;
- iii. feedbacks through other chemical species e.g. ozone produced following process (i) can photolyse to produce O(¹D) and induce OH production, once again, through O(¹D) + H₂O.

We examined process (ii) in isolation by switching LNO_x changes off in the model in the ΔCC8.5(fLNO_x) simulation. So, when LNO_x increases are ignored (Fig. 4c and f), we only find an increase in OH over the Maritime Continent, amounting to about 20 %. OH decreases elsewhere, indicating that an increase in water vapour transport into the tropical UT is not the dominant process controlling OH increases with climate change throughout that region. In contrast, our analysis shows that LNO_x increases the flux through HO₂ + NO (process i) and, as a result, also through O(¹D) + H₂O (process iii) throughout the tropical UT.

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Since OH is the primary tropospheric oxidant, substantial enhancements such as these can have ramifications for a range of other chemical species. For example, oxidation by OH is the main loss process for atmospheric methane. Hence, there are potentially global consequences through perturbation of the methane lifetime. A measure of this effect can again be deduced from the $\Delta\text{CC8.5}(\text{fLNO}_x)$ run. Relative to Base, a reduction of 21 months in the methane lifetime against loss by OH ($\tau_{\text{CH}_4+\text{OH}}$) is calculated for $\Delta\text{CC8.5}$; in contrast, a smaller reduction of 12 months is found for $\Delta\text{CC8.5}(\text{fLNO}_x)$. Inclusion of changes in LNO_x thus contributes 9 months to the reduction in $\tau_{\text{CH}_4+\text{OH}}$ due to climate change. This might have implications for both chemistry and climate through methane's role as a tropospheric ozone precursor, an OH sink and a greenhouse gas. However, by fixing a uniform lower boundary condition for methane, such feedbacks are neglected within these experiments. If methane concentrations were allowed to respond to decreases in its lifetime with climate change, lower methane concentrations would be simulated at equilibrium in a future climate, with a somewhat lower increase in ozone burden and an enhanced increase in OH (e.g. Stevenson et al., 2013).

Furthermore, there is currently considerable interest in the role of very short-lived substances (VSLs) in stratospheric ozone depletion following rapid convective transport into the upper troposphere-lower stratosphere (UTLS) region. Increased oxidation of VSLs by OH in the UT in a future climate could serve to counteract increased stratospheric VSLs loading following enhanced convective lofting into the tropical tropopause layer (TTL) and subsequent transport into the lower stratosphere. The effect could be particularly important over the Maritime Continent, since it is a region characterised by both high deep convective activity and coastal emissions of VSLs (Hosking et al., 2010). These feedbacks add weight to the importance of future changes in LNO_x .

4 Summary

We have assessed the impacts of climate change on lightning NO_x (LNO_x) and the consequences for tropospheric chemistry using UM-UKCA. Using the Price and Rind

(e.g. Dessens et al., 2009; Hossaini et al., 2012) project an increase in concentrations of VSLS or their oxidised products in the UTLS, which deplete ozone if they remain in the stratosphere. LNO_x-derived OH could partially offset this effect in a future climate.

In this study, we have demonstrated that NO_x production from lightning, following tropical convection, is a key process through which climate can influence the chemistry of the troposphere. Hence, given its importance, we believe it is crucial to strengthen our knowledge of both convection and LNO_x.

Acknowledgements. We thank the ERC for support under the ACCI project, Project No. 267760. ATA was supported by a fellowship from the Hershel Smith Foundation. ACM was supported by a postdoctoral fellowship from the AXA Research Fund.

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Table 1. List of model simulations. The final two columns are averages over the 10 year simulation periods.

Scenario	Climate (SSTs, sea ice, GHGs ^a)	ODS: Cl _y , Br _y ^b	Anthropogenic ozone precursor emissions ^c	LNO _x (Tg(N)yr ⁻¹)	Tropospheric ozone burden (Tg(O ₃))
Base	2000	2000	2000	6.04	326
ΔODS	2000	2100 (RCP4.5)	2000	5.98	344
ΔO3pre	2000	2000	2100 (RCP4.5)	5.98	292
Δ(ODS + O3pre)	2000	2100 (RCP4.5)	2100 (RCP4.5)	6.05	308
ΔCC4.5	2100 (RCP4.5)	2000	2000	8.08	356
Δ(CC4.5 + ODS)	2100 (RCP4.5)	2100 (RCP4.5)	2000	7.97	374
Δ(CC4.5 + O3pre)	2100 (RCP4.5)	2000	2100 (RCP4.5)	8.01	319
ΔCC8.5	2100 (RCP8.5)	2000	2000	10.7	369
Δ(CC8.5 + ODS)	2100 (RCP8.5)	2100 (RCP4.5)	2000	10.6	393
Δ(CC8.5 + O3pre)	2100 (RCP8.5)	2000	2100 (RCP4.5)	10.6	337
Base(fLNO _x)	2000	2000	2000	6.04 ^d	325
ΔCC8.5(fLNO _x)	2100 (RCP8.5)	2000	2000	6.04 ^d	307

^a These are the changes in GHGs imposed within the radiation scheme only.

^b Relative to Base, runs containing ΔODS include total chlorine (Cl_y) and total bromine (Br_y) reductions of 60–70 % (1.6 ppb) and 40–50 % (9.4 ppt), respectively.

^c Relative to Base, runs containing ΔO3pre include average global and annual emission changes of: NO (–51 %), CO (–51 %), HCHO (–26 %), C₂H₆ (–49 %), C₃H₈ (–40 %), H₃CCOCH₃ (–2 %), CH₃CHO (–28 %).

^d LNO_x is not interactively calculated but imposed by applying a monthly mean climatology of the Base run.

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Table 2. Tropospheric O_x budget of the Base run and changes from Base to ΔCC8.5 and ΔCC8.5(fLNO_x).

	Base	ΔCC8.5 – Base	ΔCC8.5(fLNO _x) – Base
Production (Tg(O ₃)yr ⁻¹)	4870	980 (20.1 %)	340 (7.0 %)
Loss (Tg(O ₃)yr ⁻¹)	4220	1090 (25.8 %)	500 (11.8 %)
Net chemical production (Tg(O ₃)yr ⁻¹)	655	-109 (-16.6 %)	-159 (-24.3 %)
Deposition (Tg(O ₃)yr ⁻¹)	1020	-10 (-1.0 %)	-87 (-8.5 %)
STE inferred* (Tg(O ₃)yr ⁻¹)	360	101 (28.1 %)	78 (21.7 %)
Burden (Tg(O ₃))	326	43 (13.2 %)	-19 (-5.8 %)
Methane lifetime (yrs)	7.60	-1.79 (-23.6 %)	-1.04 (-13.7 %)

* Stratosphere-troposphere exchange calculated as the residual from closure of the O_x budget.

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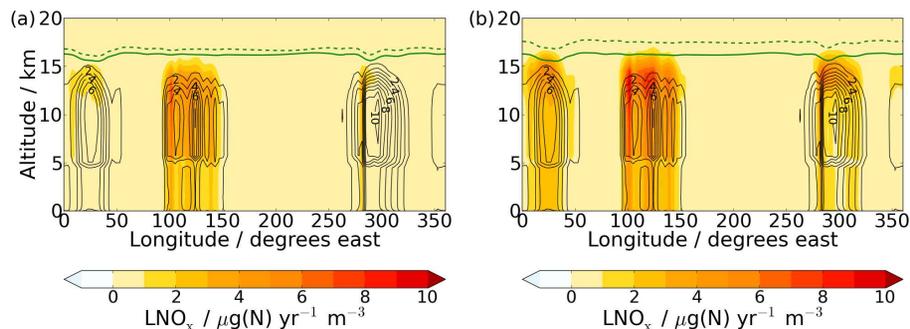


Fig. 1. Annual mean, longitude–altitude cross sections of tropically averaged (20°S – 20°N) LNO_x emissions (contours) of the Base run and changes (shading) from Base to **(a)** $\Delta\text{CC4.5}$ and **(b)** $\Delta\text{CC8.5}$. Regions which show notable changes in LNO_x are: Central Africa (0 – 50°E), the Maritime Continent (100 – 150°E) and South America (280 – 320°E). Solid (Base run) or dashed (future runs) green lines indicate the height of the thermal tropopause, which is calculated based on the WMO lapse rate definition (WMO, 1957).

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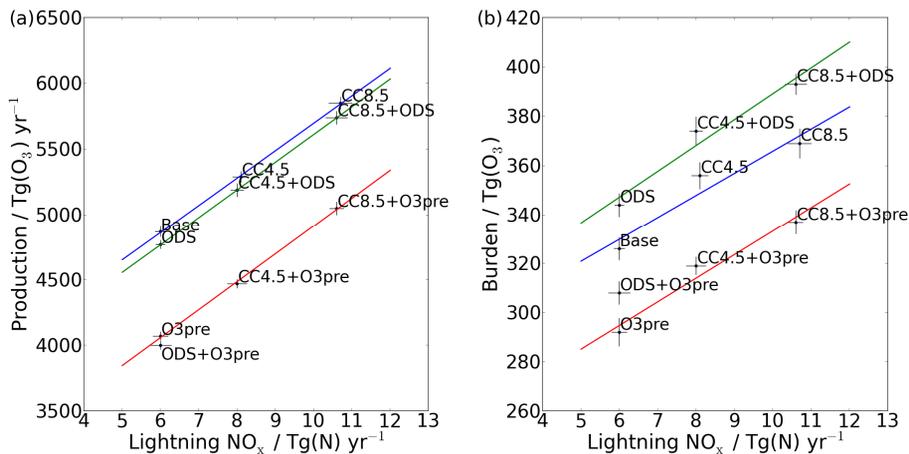


Fig. 2. Correlation between **(a)** $P(\text{O}_3)$ and LNO_x and **(b)** tropospheric ozone burden and LNO_x . Each linear fit is calculated for runs between which only the climate changes. Error bars indicate ± 1 standard deviation.

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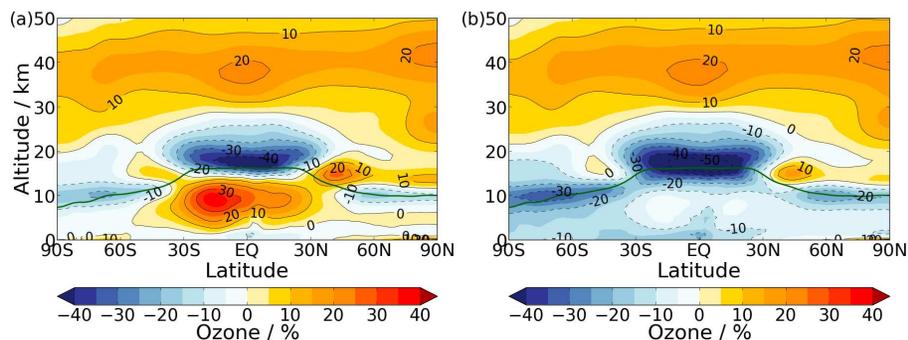


Fig. 3. Annual mean, zonal mean changes (shading and contours) in ozone (%) relative to Base for (a) $\Delta\text{CC8.5}$ and (b) $\Delta\text{CC8.5}(\text{fLNO}_x)$. Solid green lines indicate the height of the thermal pause of the Base run.

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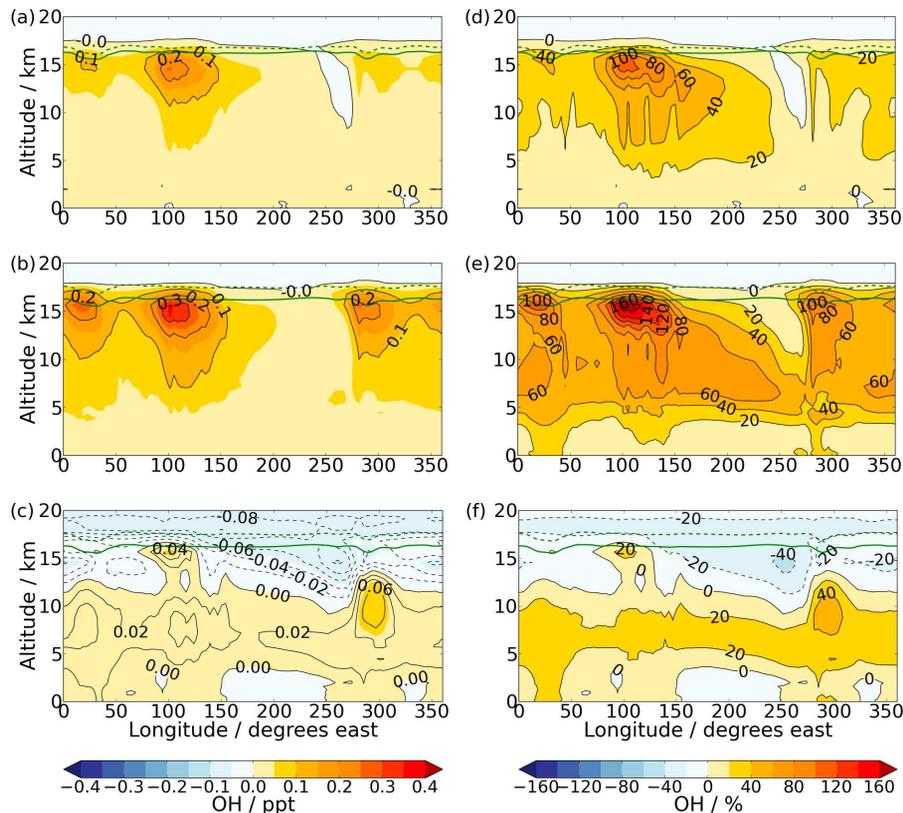


Fig. 4. Annual mean, longitude-altitude cross sections of tropically averaged (20°S – 20°N) changes (shading and contours) in OH mixing ratios (ppt) from Base to **(a)** $\Delta\text{CC4.5}$ **(b)** $\Delta\text{CC8.5}$ and **(c)** $\Delta\text{CC8.5}(\text{fLNO}_x)$; the differences as a percentage of the Base values for **(d)** $\Delta\text{CC4.5}$ **(e)** $\Delta\text{CC8.5}$ and **(f)** $\Delta\text{CC8.5}(\text{fLNO}_x)$. Solid (Base run) or dashed (future runs) green lines indicate the height of the thermal tropopause.