Contributions of World Regions to the Global Tropospheric Ozone Burden Change from 1980 to 2010

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Abstract

We investigate the contributions of emission changes from 10 world regions, as well as the global methane concentration change, on the global tropospheric ozone burden change from 1980 to 2010. The modeled global tropospheric ozone burden has increased by 28.1 Tg, with 26.7% (7.5 Tg) of this change attributed to the global methane increase. Southeast Asia (5.6 Tg) and South Asia (4.0) contribute comparably to the global ozone burden change as East Asia (5.6), even though NO emission increases in each region are less than one third of those in East Asia, highlighting the greater sensitivity of global ozone to these regions. Emission decreases from North America, Europe and Former Soviet Union have led to ozone burden decreases of 2.8, 1.0, and 0.3 Tg. The greater sensitivity of the global ozone burden to emission changes in tropical regions emphasizes the importance of controlling emissions in these regions for global ozone.

1 **Contributions of World Regions to the Global Tropospheric Ozone Burden Change** 2 from 1980 to 2010 3 Yuqiang Zhang¹, J. Jason West², Louisa K. Emmons³, Johannes Flemming⁴, Jan Eiof 4 Jonson⁵, Marianne Tronstad Lund⁶, Takashi Sekiya⁷, Kengo Sudo⁷ 5 ¹Nicholas School of the Environment, Duke University, 9 Circuit Dr, Durham, NC 27708, USA. 6 7 ²Environmental Sciences and Engineering Department, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, North Carolina 27599, USA. 8 ³Atmospheric Chemistry Observations and Modeling Laboratory, National Center for 9 10 Atmospheric Research (NCAR), Boulder, CO, USA ⁴European Center for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts, Reading, UK 11 ⁵Norwegian Meteorological Institute, Oslo, Norway 12 ⁶CICERO Center for International Climate Research, Oslo, Norway 13 ⁷Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology, Yokohama, Japan 14 15 ⁸Nagova University, Furocho, Chigusa-ku, Nagoya, Japan Corresponding author: Yuqiang Zhang (Yuqiang.Zhang@duke.edu) 16 **Key Points:** 17 Tropospheric ozone burden increased from 1980 to 2010, driven mainly by increases in 18 emissions from Southeast Asia, East Asia and South Asia, as well as global methane 19 concentration increases; 20 Among regions, greatest ozone burden influence came from Southeast Asia despite 21 • smaller emission increases, highlighting the much greater sensitivity for this region. 22 23

24 Abstract

- 25 We investigate the contributions of emission changes from 10 world regions, as well as the
- 26 global methane concentration change, on the global tropospheric ozone burden change from
- 1980 to 2010. The modeled global tropospheric ozone burden has increased by 28.1 Tg, with
- 28 26.7% (7.5 Tg) of this change attributed to the global methane increase. Southeast Asia (5.6 Tg)
- and South Asia (4.0) contribute comparably to the global ozone burden change as East Asia
- 30 (5.6), even though NO_x emission increases in each region are less than one third of those in East
- Asia, highlighting the greater sensitivity of global ozone to these regions. Emission decreases
- 32 from North America, Europe and Former Soviet Union have led to ozone burden decreases of
- 2.8, 1.0, and 0.3 Tg. The greater sensitivity of the global ozone burden to emission changes in
 tropical and subtropical regions emphasizes the importance of controlling emissions in these
- 35 regions for global ozone.

36 Plain Language Summary

- 37 The global tropospheric ozone burden is highly sensitive to emission changes in tropical and
- 38 subtropical regions, due to high temperature, strong sunlight, and convection which are favorable
- 39 for ozone production and accumulation. Through model sensitivity simulations, we show that
- 40 emission increases in Southeast Asia, South Asia, and East Asia contribute over half of the
- 41 global tropospheric ozone burden increase from 1980 to 2010. Southeast Asia and South Asia
- 42 contribute about as much to the ozone increase as East Asia, even though emission increases
- 43 were much smaller from these regions, showing the high ozone sensitivity in these regions.

44 **1 Introduction**

Ozone (O_3) at the surface is detrimental to human health, crop yields, and ecosystems (Silva et al., 45 2013; Zhang et al., 2018; Fowler et al., 2009; Cooper et al., 2014; Monks et al., 2015; Mills et al., 46 2018). Ozone in the troposphere is recognized as the third most important greenhouse gas, 47 48 following carbon dioxide (CO₂) and methane (CH₄) (Myhre et al., 2013). Ozone is a secondary air pollutant, which is not emitted directly, but is produced through chemical reactions of precursor 49 gases in the atmosphere, such as nitrogen oxides (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO), CH₄, and non-50 methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs). O₃ precursors are mainly emitted by human 51 activities, such as fossil fuel combustion, residential burning, oil and gas production, agriculture, 52 and biomass burning. Observations from aircraft, ozonesondes, and different satellites show that 53 the tropospheric ozone burden has been increasing second half of the 20th century (Gaudel et al., 54 2018; TF HTAP 2010). Both satellite ozone measurements and global chemical transport models 55 have found that the largest ozone burden increases – about +6 to +7 Dobson units (i.e., ~15% to 56 20% of average background ozone) from 1980 to 2016 - are over India, Southeast Asia and East 57 Asia (Ziemke et al., 2019). 58

59 Previous studies have demonstrated that methane emissions affect global ozone with little dependence on the location of emissions (Fiore et al., 2008). For short-lived ozone precursors, the 60 global tropospheric ozone burden (B₀₃) responds differently to emission changes from different 61 world regions, with generally much greater sensitivity to emissions in tropical and subtropical 62 regions (Naik et al., 2005; West et al., 2009a; Fry et al., 2012, 2013, and 2014). Since about 1980, 63 global anthropogenic emissions of O_3 precursors have been shifting toward the equator, 64 particularly decreasing in North America and Europe, and increasing in East and South Asia 65 (Richter et al., 2005; Larmarque et al., 2010; Granier et al., 2011; Xing et al., 2013; Duncan et al., 66

2016). In our previous study (Zhang et al., 2016), we investigated for the first time the influences 67 of changes in the spatial distribution of global anthropogenic emissions of short-lived ozone 68 precursors, the magnitude of these emissions, and the global atmospheric methane concentration 69 on the global B₀₃ change from 1980 to 2010. We found that the spatial distribution change of 70 emissions is most important for the increase in Bo3, slightly exceeding the combined influences of 71 the increased emission magnitude and global methane (Zhang et al., 2016). We also found that Bo3 72 has increased most strongly over Southeast, East, and South Asia, a conclusion that was supported 73 by satellite and ozonesonde observations. Based on previous studies that found a much greater 74 sensitivity of B₀₃ to emissions in tropical and subtropical regions and especially Southeast Asia, 75 we hypothesized that emission increases from these regions were particularly important for the 76 77 global B₀₃ increase, because of the strong sunlight, high temperature, and strong convection (Gupta et al., 1998; Lawrence et al., 2003; West et al., 2009a). However, the effects of emission 78 changes over recent decades from individual world regions on the global Bo3 has not been 79 previously quantified. 80

Here we build on our previous study (Zhang et al., 2016) by investigating how emission 81 changes from different world regions, as well as the global methane concentration changes, have 82 contributed to global B_{03} changes (ΔB_{03}) from 1980 to 2010. We are particularly interested in 83 quantifying the contributions of emissions from tropical and subtropical regions including 84 85 Southeast Asia. We also calculate B₀₃ changes from multi-model experiments from the second phase of the Task Force on Hemispheric Transport of Air Pollutants (HTAP2, Galmarini et al., 86 2017), which have not been reported previously, to investigate the sensitivity of B₀₃ to emissions 87 88 from different world regions.

89 **2 Methods**

The global chemistry-climate model CAM-chem is used in this study, which is based on 90 the global Community Atmosphere Model (CAM) version 4, the atmospheric component of the 91 Community Earth System Model (CESM, v1.2.2) (Larmarque et al., 2012; Tilmes et al., 2015, 92 2016). Model simulations are constructed to be consistent with those in our previous study (Zhang 93 et al., 2016). The model uses a horizontal grid with a resolution of $2.5^{\circ} \times 1.9^{\circ}$ (longitude × latitude), 94 and 56 vertical levels between the surface and 4 hPa (\approx 40 km) with a time step of 1800 s. The 95 NASA Global Modeling and Assimilation Office GEOS-5 meteorology from 2008 to 2012 is used 96 to drive the model as a chemical transport model, such that meteorological inputs for all 97 simulations are identical. For all simulations, the first year is spin-up and results are presented as 98 four-year averages. By using fixed meteorology, we focus on the effects of changes in 99 100 anthropogenic emissions on B_{03} , and ignore other influences, such as possible influences of climate change. Monthly mean distributions of chemically active stratospheric species (such as 101 O₃, NO, NO₂ and N₂O₅) are prescribed using the climatology from the Whole Atmospheric 102 103 Community Climate Model simulations (Garcia et al., 2007; Lamarque et al., 2012). Global anthropogenic emissions of all short-lived species including ozone precursors, aerosols, and 104 aerosol precursors, from all anthropogenic sectors including biomass burning, are from ACCMIP 105 for 1980 (Larmarque et al., 2010) and RCP8.5 for 2010 (Riahi et al., 2011), which are compatible 106 with one another. Monthly temporal variations for the anthropogenic air pollutant emissions are 107 added by using monthly emission factors from RETRO (Schultz et al., 2008) and the NMVOCs 108 109 are re-speciated into CAM-chem chemical species following previous methods (Fry et al., 2014; Silva et al., 2016). All natural emissions, such as biogenic, lightning NO_x, volcano, soil NO_x, and 110

111 ocean emissions used the same configuration as in our previous study (Zhang et al., 2016; 112 Lamarque et al., 2012), and are constant across all simulations.

We use three base simulations from our previous study (Zhang et al., 2016), the first two 113 of which have global anthropogenic emissions and methane concentrations for 1980 (S_1980) and 114 2010 (S_2010), and a third in which CH₄ concentration is set to the 1980 level and all other 115 parameters stay the same as S 2010 (named S CH₄). In this study, we conduct another ten 116 sensitivity simulations; for each of these, we replace the anthropogenic emissions of all air 117 pollutants in 2010 with their emissions in 1980, for ten world regions individually, holding all 118 other regions and the global CH₄ concentration at the 2010 levels (Table S1). The differences 119 between S_2010 and the 10 sensitivity runs (S_2010 - sensitivity) are the ΔB_{03} from that region's 120 emission changes from 1980 to 2010. Bo3 is defined as the total O3 mass below the chemical 121 tropopause of 150 ppbv ozone in the S 2010 simulation, with the same tropopause applied to all 122 123 the other simulations.

124 The ten world regions follow the definitions introduced by HTAP2, except that we reduce the 13 land regions from HTAP2 to 10 regions here, grouping Northern Africa and Sub-Saharan 125 together as a new region Africa (AFR), grouping Mexico and Central America and South America 126 to give Central South America (CSA), and grouping Russia, and Belarus, Ukraine and Central 127 Asia to give the Former Soviet Union (FSU). The other 7 regions include North America (NAM), 128 Europe (EUR), South Asia (SAS), East Asia (EAS), South East Asia (SEA), Pacific, Australia and 129 New Zealand (PAN), and the Middle East (MDE) (Figure S1). Since in HTAP2 definitions the 130 131 region classification number for each grid cell is defined by the largest area fraction contributed by individual regions (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2015), we found that when these region 132 definitions are applied to ACCMIP and RCP8.5 emissions, some coastal cells with emissions were 133 treated as ocean. To ensure we account for the relevant emissions from each region, we extend the 134 10 land mass regions outward into the oceans by two grid cells at 0.5°×0.5° horizontal resolution. 135 By doing this, the inland region emissions increase by 2%-30% depending on the region and air 136 137 pollutant, compared with the case when we do not include the two extra cells (Tables S2-S4 in the supporting information). 138

139 To evaluate model performance in simulating the surface, vertical and long-term O₃ trends from 1980 to 2010, we thoroughly compared the model results in S_1980 and S_2010 with long-140 term surface observations, ozonesonde, aircraft, and satellites in our previous work (Zhang et al., 141 2016). Compared with surface O₃ observations, S_2010 overestimates O₃ by 5.8 ppbv averaged 142 over all stations in the US (average from 2009 to 2012 from the US CASTNET network), and 0.7 143 ppbv over Europe (average from 2009 to 2011 from the EMEP network), but captures the seasonal 144 cycles very well. Our model also captures very well the vertical distribution of O₃ from 145 ozonesondes, although it is biased high between 30°S and 30°N, particularly in the upper 146 troposphere. The B₀₃ in 2010 (342.7±4.5 Tg yr⁻¹) simulated by CAM-Chem is in the range of 147 multi-model simulations (ACCENT: 336 ± 27 Tg; ACCMIP: 337 ± 23 Tg; TOAR: 340 ± 34 Tg, 148 and CMIP6: 348 ± 15 Tg (Young et al., 2013, 2018; Griffiths et al., 2020), and is also comparable 149 with satellite observations (Ziemke et al., 2011, 2019). The estimated net increase of Bo3 of about 150 28 Tg from 1980 to 2010 is also consistent with OMI/MLS satellite retrievals between October 151 2004 and December 2016, which indicate a 21.8 Tg increase in tropospheric ozone over 60°S-152 60°N (Blunden and Arndt, 2017). 153

154 **3 Results**

155 **3.1 Regional emission changes**

From 1980 to 2010, EAS had by far the largest NO_x emissions increase (16.6 Tg), triple 156 157 the emissions in 1980, mainly from industry and transportation, as well as the largest increase in VOCs emissions (Fig 1 for absolute changes in Tg; Figs S2 and S3 for relative changes in %). The 158 largest increases in CO emissions occurred in AFR (49.9 Tg, 22% higher than 1980, Fig. S2), EAS 159 160 (47.0 Tg, 40%), and SAS (45.9 Tg, 70%), due to residential biomass burning and industrial emissions (Hoesly et al., 2018). SAS and SEA also have large emission increases for these 161 pollutants. NAM and EUR had the largest emission decreases of 62% and 69% for CO, 36%, 32% 162 for NO_x, and 67%, 47% for NMVOCs (Fig. S2). The overall decline of CO emissions likely 163 resulted from motor vehicle emission controls (Granier et al., 2011; Hoesly et al., 2018), while the 164 NO_x decreases were likely from the implementation of emission control devices on thermal power 165 plants, the shuttering of inefficient plants, and stricter vehicle emission standards in these regions 166 (Lamsal et al., 2015; Duncan et al., 2016). NO_x emissions in FSU have also decreased by 43%, but 167 CO increased by 52% (Fig. S2), largely from residential emissions (Popovicheva et al., 2014; 168

169 Hoesly et al., 2018).

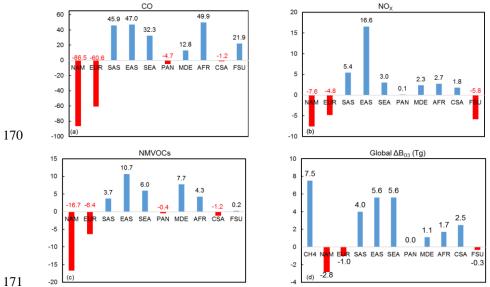


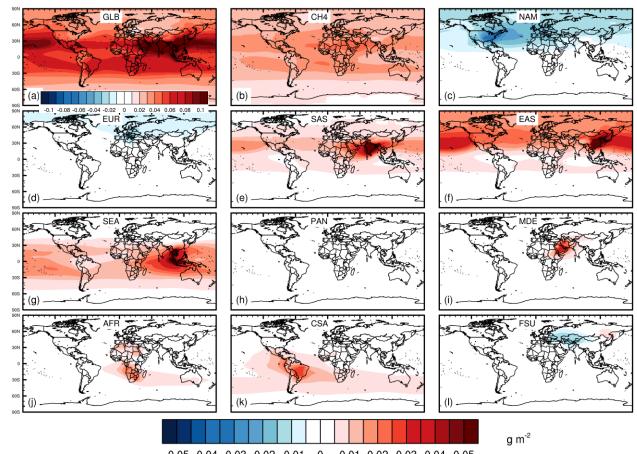
Figure 1. Emission changes from 1980 to 2010 for CO (a, Tg CO), NO_x (b, Tg NO₂), and NMVOCs (c, Tg NMVOCs), and global tropospheric ozone burden changes (d, Tg O₃) from global methane increases as well as emission changes from the 10 world regions.

175 **3.2 Global tropospheric ozone changes**

176 The global B_{03} is modeled to have increased 28.1 Tg from 1980 to 2010, with the largest increase from the global CH₄ increase (7.5 Tg, Fig. 1d). Among the 10 regions, the global ΔB_{03} is 177 estimated to increase most from emission changes in SEA (5.6 Tg), EAS (5.6 Tg) and SAS (4.0 178 179 Tg). These three regions together accounted for 54% of the global ΔB_{03} . Emission decreases from NAM and EUR contributed ΔB_{03} decreases of -2.8 Tg and -1.0 Tg (Fig. 1d). Emission changes in 180 FSU also contributed global ΔB_{03} decreases (-0.3 Tg), mainly caused by the NO_x decreases (Fig. 181 1d). Other regions contributed to the global ΔB_{03} from negligibly (~0 Tg fom PAN) to 182 considerably (2.5 Tg from CSA). The total global ΔB_{O3} summed from the global CH₄ 183

184 concentration change and the emission changes in the 10 world regions (23.9 Tg) are slightly lower 185 than difference between S_2010 and S_1980 (28.1 Tg), mainly because of the nonlinear response 186 of ozone to the precursors, but also because we do not account for emission changes over the 187 oceans (Tables S2-S4). Although EAS has much larger NO_x and NMVOCs increases from 1980 188 to 2010 than that in SAS and SEA (Fig. 1), the Δ Bo₃ are comparable between these three regions, 189 as a result of the large sensitivity of Δ Bo₃ to NO_x emissions in SAS and SEA (Naik et al., 2005; 190 West et al., 2009a; Fry et al., 2012).

191 The spatial pattern of the modeled ΔB_{03} also suggests a strong influence of emission 192 increases from SEA, EAS, and SAS, and decreases from NAM and EUR, and this pattern is 193 consistent with satellite observations (Ziemke et al., 2019). The global CH₄ concentration increase 194 has contributed more uniformly to the global ΔB_{03} (Fig. 2b), but does not explain the pattern of 195 ΔB_{03} .



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The global zonal ΔB_{03} increases are more notable in the northern hemisphere (NH) than that in the southern hemisphere (SH) extending from the surface to 100 hPa (Fig. 3). The global zonal ΔB_{03} increases show a strong influence of global CH₄, which is more spatially uniform than in the regional scenarios. Emission increases from SEA and SAS cause large ozone increases over the tropics, extending to high elevation, which shows the strong convection over these regions. This convection lifts ozone precursors to high elevations where they have a longer lifetime to form and accumulate ozone, reflecting the higher temperature and strong sunlight in these regions (Lawrence et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2016). Although the tropics have greater water vapor, which causes greater HO_x radicals that destroy ozone, less HO_x is likely present at higher elevation, and the ozone lifetime would be longer. In contrast, ozone reductions over NAM and EUR stay at high latitude, with little transport toward the equator, and do not reach high altitude. Much of the emissions from EAS are far enough north that they are mainly not transported toward the equator, or to high altitude, helping to explain the lower sensitivity for emissions from EAS relative to SEA

and SAS.

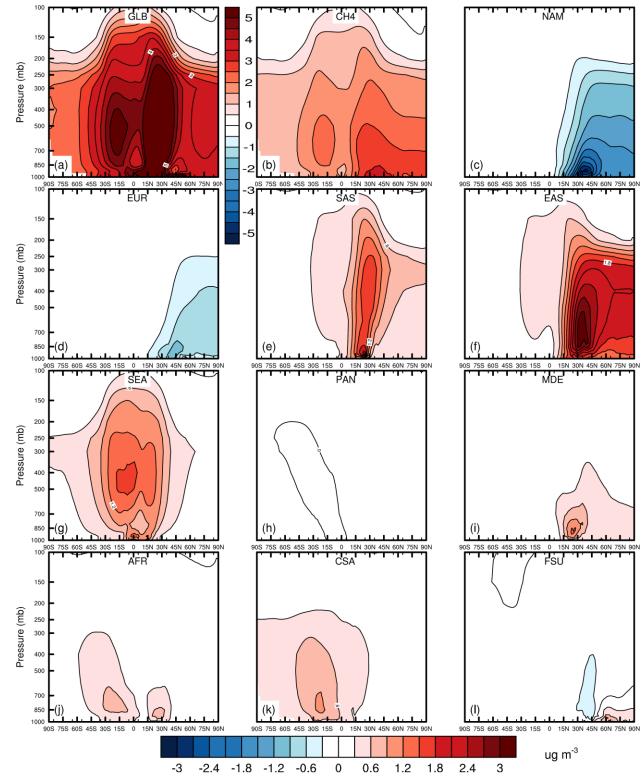


Figure 3. Zonal annual average O_3 change (μ g m⁻³) from 1980 to 2010, for (a) total emission changes, (b) global CH₄ concentration change, and (c)-(l) emission changes in 10 world regions. Note the different colorbar used in panel a.

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We also analyzed spatial and zonal ΔB_{03} in each season (Figs. S4 to S12). In JJA and SON, there is greater sensitivity to emissions from EAS and SAS, as the intertropical convergence zone is further north, and emissions from EAS and SAS are transported more effectively toward the tropics and high elevation. In contrast, emissions from SEA do not cause large differences in B₀₃ in different seasons. NAM and EUR have slightly larger ΔB_{03} decreases in JJA (Fig. S8).

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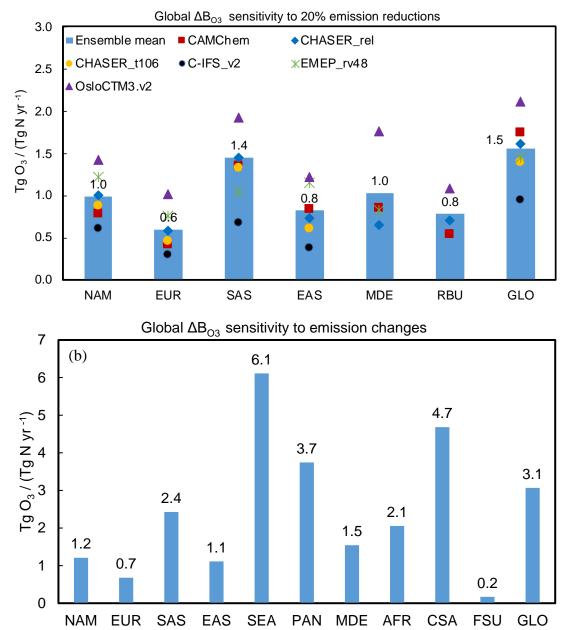
3.3 Comparisons with HTAP2 sensitivity experiments

229 To further investigate the greater sensitivity of ΔB_{03} to emissions from tropical and subtropical regions, we calculated the global ΔB_{03} for regional reductions from the HTAP2 230 multimodel experiment, which simulated 2010. Previous HTAP2 studies have analyzed regional 231 232 emission perturbations on surface air quality and radiative forcing changes, but here we present ΔB_{03} for experiments which simulated 20% reductions in all anthropogenic air pollutant emissions 233 globally and from six source regions analyzed here: NAM, EUR, SAS, EAS, RBU (here RBU in 234 235 the HTAP2 experiment equivalent to the FSU region in our study), and MDE (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2015; Stjern et al., 2016; Galmarini et al., 2017). We chose to analyze the six CTMs (Table 236 S5) that simulated the base experiment, the global 20% reduction, and the 20% reductions from at 237 least four of six regions. 238

Whereas the HTAP2 experiments reduced emissions of multiple precursors by the same 239 percentage, our experiments changed emissions by different percentages for different precursors 240 based on the changes from 1980 to 2010. To compare the modeled sensitivities, we normalize the 241 global ΔB_{03} by the NO_x emission changes (Tg O₃/(Tg N yr⁻¹)), since previous studies found that 242 percent changes in NO_x produce greater B_{O3} changes compared with CO and NMVOCs (Fry et al., 243 2012). For HTAP2 experiments, the global ΔB_{03} (Fig. S13) is most sensitive to changes in 244 emissions from SAS and MDE (Fig. 4). In our experiments, SAS and MDE also had the greatest 245 sensitivities of the six regions that HTAP2 studies by perturbing emissions. However, we also find 246 that the highest sensitivities occur in three regions that HTAP2 did not simulate, and which are 247 mainly in tropical and subtropical regions – SEA (6.1 Tg O₃ / (Tg N yr⁻¹), CSA (4.7) and PAN 248 (3.7) - and we also show high sensitivity to emissions from AFR. The HTAP2 results for SAS and 249 MDE provide supportive evidence for our conclusion of greater sensitivity from tropical and 250 subtropical regions, suggesting that future experiments analyzing ozone like HTAP2 should 251 include more regions and give a greater priority to studying the impact of emissions from the 252 tropics. From Fig. 4, we also see that the global ΔB_{03} sensitivity to 20% global emission 253 perturbations (GLO) is lower (ensemble mean of 1.5 Tg O₃ / (Tg N yr⁻¹)) than that in our study 254 $(3.1 \text{ Tg O}_3 / (\text{Tg N yr}^{-1}))$, mostly caused by the different percent changes of other air pollutants 255 (CO and NMVOCs). 256

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(a)



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263 Figure 4. The sensitivity of global tropospheric ozone burden changes, normalized per unit NO_x emissions, to (a) 264 regional and global 20% emission reductions in 2010 for all anthropogenic air pollutants from the HTAP2 265 experiments (blue columns are the ensemble mean from the 6 models), (b) regional and global emission changes 266 from 1980 to 2010 in all anthropogenic air pollutants (unit of Tg O₃ / (Tg N yr⁻¹)). Note for the HTAP2 results in panel a, the CHASER t106 and C-IFS v2 models did not perform the MDE and RBU perturbation experiments, and 267 the EMEP_rv48 model did not perform the RBU experiment. In Fig b, for the GLO (3.1 Tg O₃/ (Tg N yr⁻¹)) we do 268 not consider the B_{03} changes caused by CH₄ concentration changes from 1980 to 2010 (S_CH₄ - S_1980), to 269 270 compare with the HTAP2 results.

4 Conclusions and Discussion 271

The global ozone burden is modeled to have increased from 1980 to 2010 by 28.1 Tg, with 272 273 global CH₄ concentration increases contributing 26.7% of this total (7.5 Tg). Among world regions, emission increases in Southeast Asia (5.6 Tg), East Asia (5.6 Tg), and South Asia (4.0 274

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Tg) are most important for the global ozone burden, together accounting for 54% of the total 275 change. East Asia has much larger NOx and NMVOCs increases from 1980 to 2010 than those in 276 Southeast Asia and South Asia, but the global ozone burden change is comparable between these 277 three regions, as a result of large strong sensitivity of ozone burden and convection over these 278 tropical and subtropical regions. The emission reductions in North America and Europe contribute 279 to global ozone burden decreases, by 2.8 Tg and 1.0 Tg. We further calculate the sensitivity of 280 ΔB_{03} to regional emission from the HTAP2 multimodel experiment, which also simulated 2010. 281 From HTAP2 experiments, we find that the global ΔBO_3 also has large sensitivity to changes in 282 emissions from SAS and MDE regions (the HTAP2 experiments did not similate perturbations 283 from SEA), consistent with our findings. 284

Changes in emissions of NO_x, VOCs, and CO affect concentrations of the hydroxyl radical 285 (OH), which is the major sink for CH₄ (Wang and Jacob, 1998; Wild and Prather, 2000; Fiore et 286 al., 2002). The changes in CH₄ lifetime are important for climate forcing and in turn affect global 287 tropospheric ozone concentration in the long-term (West et al., 2007; West et al., 2009b; Stevenson 288 et al., 2006, 2013). We did not include this long-term ozone influence, since simulations used 289 observed CH₄ concentrations in 1980 and 2010. But changes in ozone precursor emissions from 290 different world regions affected this growth of methane. Future work should model the effects of 291 historic changes in ozone precursors from different world regions on methane and long-term ozone 292 via changes in OH. 293

294 We conclude that special attention should be paid in both research and environmental policy to low latitude regions, such as Southeast Asia and South Asia because of the greater 295 sensitivity of the global tropospheric ozone burden. NO_x emissions from these two regions 296 increased only 18% and 33% of the NOx increases in East Asia from 1980 to 2010, but their effects 297 on the global ozone burden are comparable. Since 2010, global emissions have continued to 298 evolve, as China is now reducing emissions (Li M. et al., 2017 2018; Zheng et al., 2018a,b). 299 However, ozone concentrations have worsened recently in China and it remains an important issue 300 (Lu et al., 2018, 2020). Meanwhile, emissions in India and other South Asia regions have continued 301 to grow (Li C. et al., 2017; Koplitz et al., 2017; Kumar et al., 2018), and emissions from Africa 302 are expected to accelerate (Liousse et al., 2014). For example, emissions of CO, NO_x, and 303 NMVOCs in South Asia are projected to increase by 116%, 6%, and 18% in 2050 under the 304 RCP8.5 scenario, and 72%, 4%, and 12% under the RCP6.0 scenario, relative to 2000 (Kumar et 305 al., 2018). The global shift of emissions toward the equator, where global ozone sensitivity is 306 greater, is therefore expected to continue. More efforts to reduce ozone precursor emissions 307 308 domestically and internationally, including through methane reductions (West et al., 2006), are therefore needed to combat ozone as global issue. 309

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model results used in this research are available through the AeroCom servers

317 (<u>http://aerocom.met.no/data.html</u>, accessed 2020-07-23, Labonne et al., 2017).

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GEOPHYSICAL RESEARCH LETTERS

Supporting Information for

Contributions of World Regions to the Global Tropospheric Ozone Burden Change from 1980 to 2010

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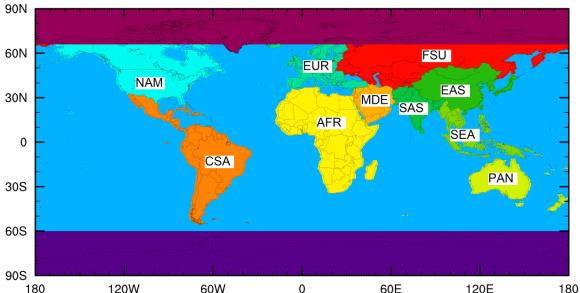


Figure S1. The 10 world regions definitions, including two extra grid cells along the coastal regions. Most of the regions are following the HTAP2 definitions (<u>http://iek8wikis.iek.fz-juelich.de/HTAPWiki/WP2.1</u>, last access July 2 2018), such as North America (NAM, including USA and Canada), Europe (EUR), South Asia (SAS), East Asia (EAS), South East Asia (SEA), Pacific, Australia and New Zealand (PAN), Middle East (MDE). We group Northern Africa and Sub Saharan together as new region Africa (AFR). We then group Mexico and Central America and South America together as region Central South America (CSA). We group Russia, Belarussia, Ukraine and Central Asia as region Former Soviet Union (FSU). Blue color means the Ocean region (OCN). Dark red means Arctic Circle (North of 66 N) + Greenland (NPO). Purple color means Antarctic (SPO).

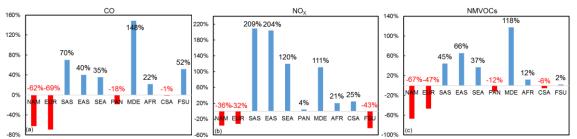


Figure S2: Percent emission changes for CO (a, $(2010-1980)/1980\times100\%$), NO_x (b), and NMVOCs (c) from 1980 to 2010 for the 10 world regions. The red color shows regions with emission decreases, and blue color shows emission increases.

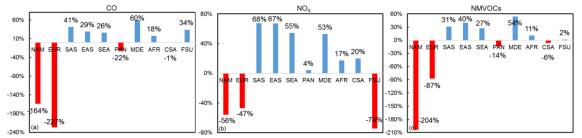


Figure S3. As for Fig. S2, but the differences are calculated as relative to the emissions totals in 2010 ((2010-1980)/2010×100%).

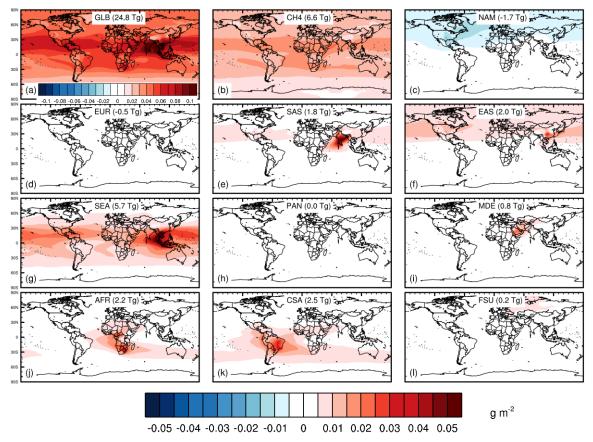


Figure S4: Spatial distributions of ΔBO_3 (g m⁻²) from 1980 to 2010 for the season DJF, for (a) total emission changes from 1980 to 2010, (b) global CH₄ concentration change, and (c)-(I) emission changes in 10 world regions.

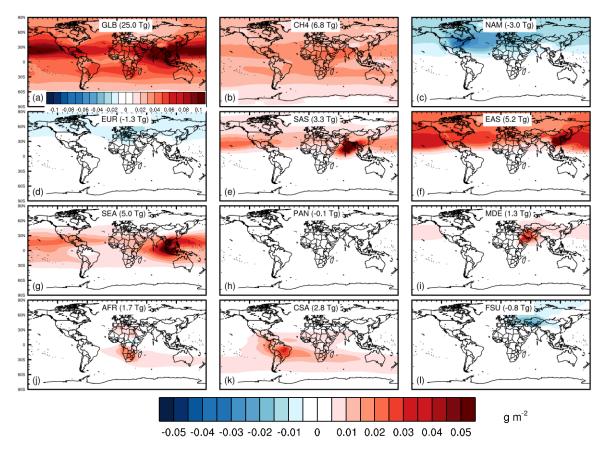


Figure S5: As in Fig. S4 but for MAM.

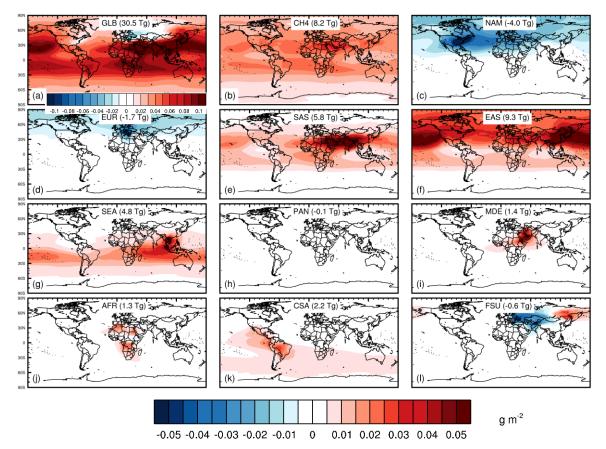
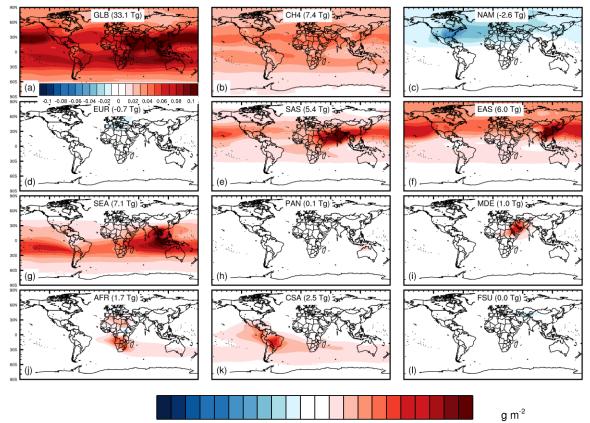


Figure S6: As in Fig. S4 but for JJA.



-0.05 -0.04 -0.03 -0.02 -0.01 0 0.01 0.02 0.03 0.04 0.05

Figure S7: As in Fig. S4 but for SON.

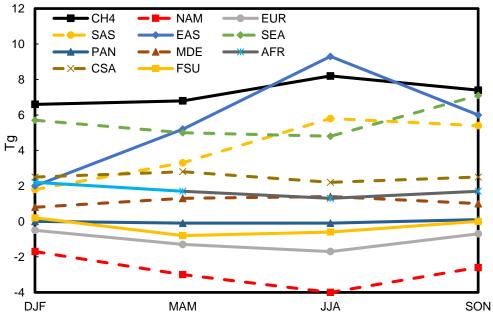


Figure S8: Seasonal distributions of the global tropospheric ozone burden changes between 1980 and 2010 from changes in the global CH₄ concentration, and regional emissions.

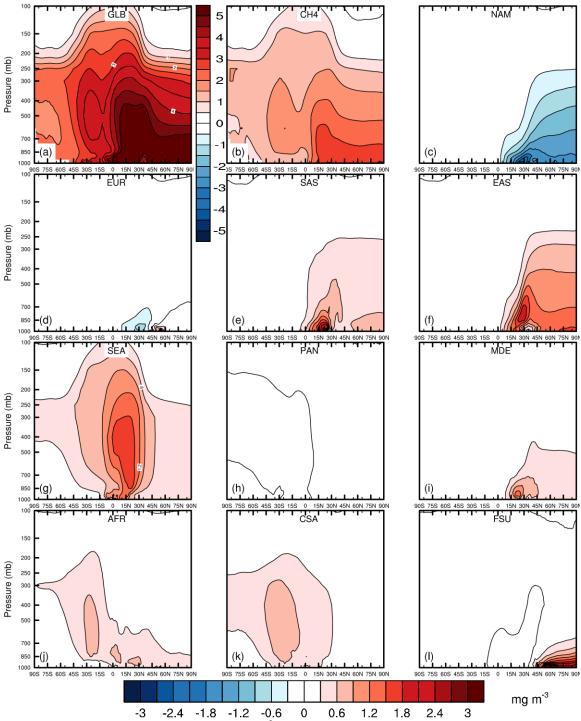
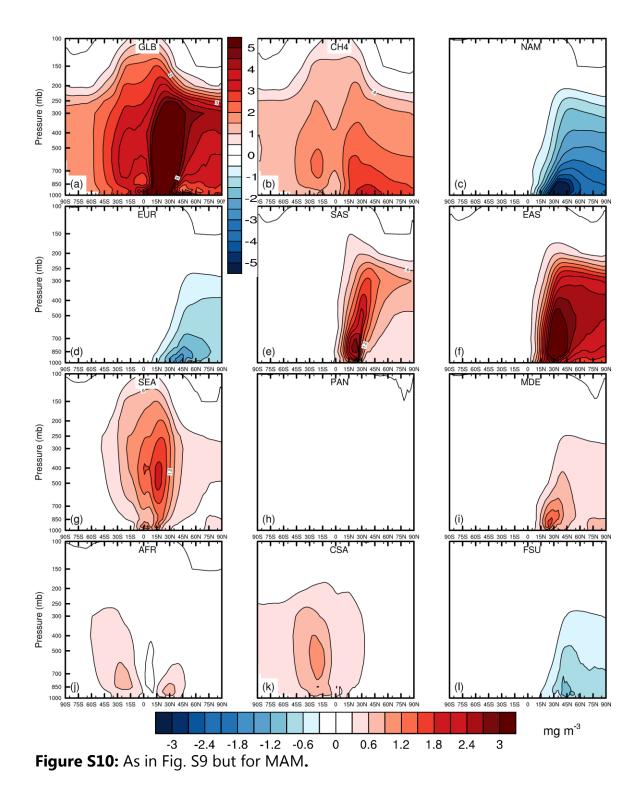
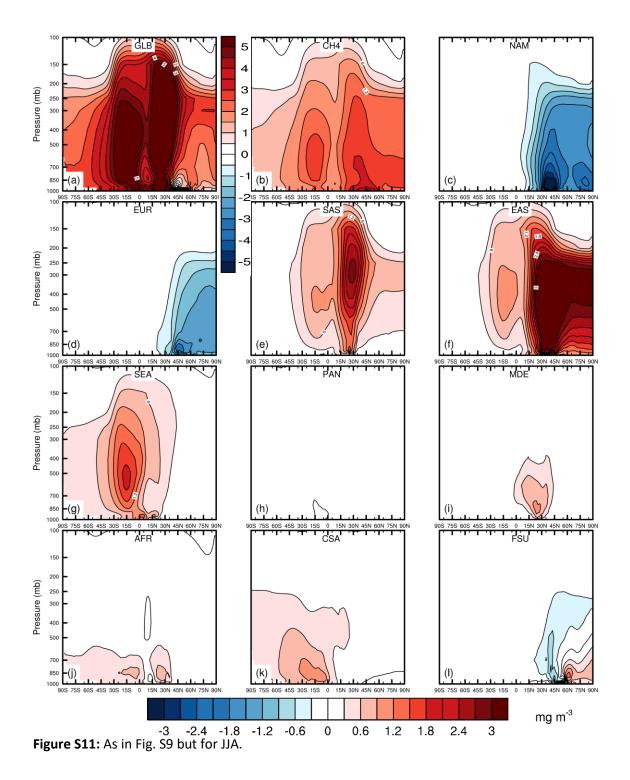


Figure S9: Zonal DJF mean O_3 change (mg m⁻³) from 1980 to 2010, for (a) total emission changes from 1980 to 2010, (b) global CH₄ concentration change, and (c)-(l) emission changes in 10 world regions.





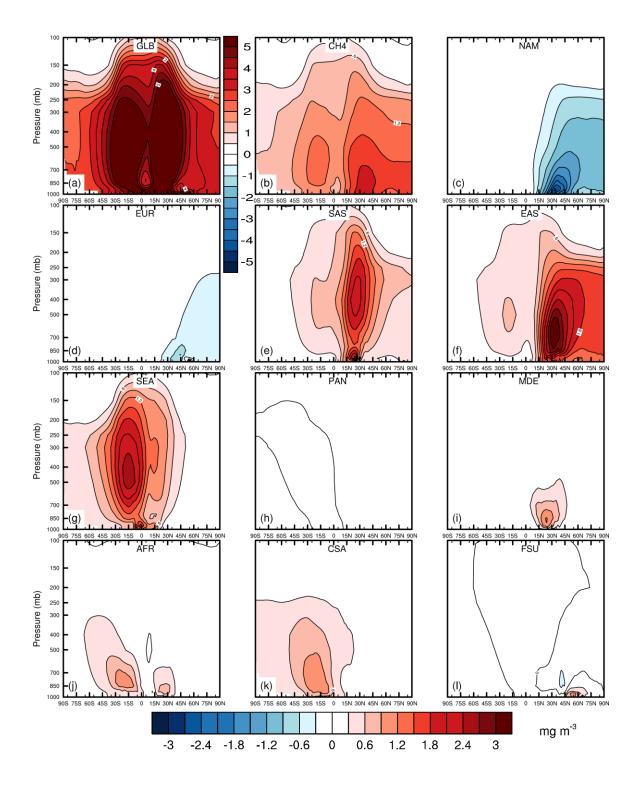


Figure S12: As in Fig. S9 but for SON.

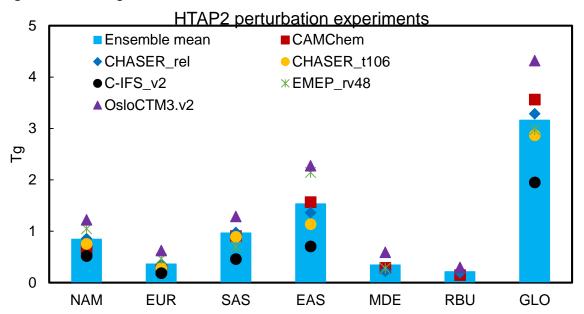


Figure S13: Global tropospheric ozone burden changes between the base and 7 perturbation experiments. The blue columns are the ensemble model mean from the 6 available models. Note that both the CHASER_t106 and C-IFS_v2 did not perform the MDE and RBU perturbation experiments, and the EMEP_rv48 model did not perform the RBU experiment. The global ozone burden changes for GLO experiments are divided by 3 for all the single and ensemble models to better fit the plot.

	Anthropogenic and Biomass burning emissions in year	Global CH ₄
		concentration
S_2010	2010	1798 ppbv
S_1980	1980	1567 ppbv
S_CH₄	2010	1567 ppbv
S_NAM	2010 worldwide, 1980 in North America	1798 ppbv
S_EUR	2010 worldwide, 1980 in except for Europe	1798 ppbv
S_SAS	2010 worldwide, 1980 in South Asia	1798 ppbv
S_EAS	2010 worldwide, 1980 in East Asia	1798 ppbv
S_SEA	2010 worldwide, 1980 in South East Asia	1798 ppbv
S_PAN	2010 worldwide, 1980 in Pacific, Australia and New Zealand	1798 ppbv
S_MDE	2010 worldwide, 1980 in for Middle East	1798 ppbv
S_AFR	2010 worldwide, 1980 in Africa	1798 ppbv
S_CSA	2010 worldwide, 1980 in Central South America	1798 ppbv
S_FSU	2010 worldwide, 1980 in Former Soviet Union	1798 ppbv

Table S1. Model simulations discussed in this study. The first three simulations (S_2010, S_1980, and S_CH₄) were performed in our last study (Zhang et al., 2016). The global methane concentration has increased from 1567 ppbv in 1980 to 1798 ppbv in 2010 (Prather et al., 2013).

Table S2. Regional anthropogenic emissions in 1980 and 2010 for CO, including biomass burning, and the differences in regional emissions from adding two extra grid cells. Units are Tg CO yr⁻¹. The 10 regions are defined in Figure S1.

	With 2 extra coastal grid cells			Differences between with and without 2 extra grid cells	
	1980	2010	Diff (Relative)	1980	2010
NAM	139.2	52.7	-86.5 (-62%)	6.0	2.0
EUR	87.4	26.8	-60.6 (-69%)	9.0	2.8
SAS	65.2	111.1	45.9 (70%)	4.0 6.6	
EAS	116.2	163.2	47.0 (40%)	9.5 10.	
SEA	91.3	123.6	32.3 (35%)	18.0	24.0
PAN	25.8	21.1	-4.7 (-18%)	-18%) 2.6	
MDE	8.6	21.5	12.8 (148%)	0.7	1.9
AFR	228.8	278.6	49.9 (22%)	4.2	6.6
CSA	106.8	105.5	-1.2 (-1%)	5.2	5.2
FSU	42.4	64.3	21.9 (52%)	0.8	1.6
Sum ¹	911.8	968.4	56.7 (6%)	60.0	63.2
Global ²	Global ² 967.8 1029.9 62.1 (6.4%)				

¹Sum are the emission totals from the 10 inland regions.

²Global are the emission total in all the grid cells. The differences between the Global and the Sum are the emissions over the ocean, NPO and SPO (see Figure S1).

	W/ extra 2 coastal grid cells			Differences between w/ and w/o extra 2 grid cells	
	1980	2010	Diff (Relative)	1980	2010
NAM	21.2	13.6	-7.6 (-36%)	1.2	0.8
EUR	15.2	10.3	-4.8 (-32%)	1.8	1.5
SAS	2.6	8.0	5.4 (209%)	0.2	0.5
EAS	8.1	24.7	16.6 (204%)	1.1 2.1	
SEA	2.5	5.5	3.0 (120%)	3.0 (120%) 0.6	
PAN	2.1	2.2	0.1 (4%)	0.3	0.3
MDE	2.1	4.4	2.3 (111%)	0.2	0.5
AFR	13.1	15.8	2.7 (21%)	0.4	0.7
CSA	7.1	8.8	1.8 (25%)	0.7	0.8
FSU	13.7	7.8	3 -5.8 (-43%) 0.3		0.2
Sum ¹	87.6	101.2	13.6 (15%) 6.9		8.6
Global ²	104.0	126.1	22.1 (21.2%)		

Table S3. The same as Table S2, but for NO_x . Units are Tg NO_x yr⁻¹.

Table S4. The same as Table S2, but for NMVOCs. Units are Tg NMVOCs yr⁻¹.

	W/ extra 2 coastal grid cells		Differences between w/ and w/o extra 2 grid cells			
	1980	2010	Diff (Relative)	1.6	0.5	
NAM	24.9	8.2	-16.7 (-67%)	1.5	0.9	
EUR	13.6	7.3	-6.4 (-47%)	0.4	0.6	
SAS	8.3	12.0	3.7 (45%)	1.4	2.0	
EAS	16.3	26.9	10.7 (66%)	3.4	4.7	
SEA	16.0	22.0	6.0 (37%)	0.4	0.4	
PAN	3.6	3.2	-0.4 (-12%)	0.8 1		
MDE	6.6	14.3	7.7 (118%)	0.8 1.2		
AFR	35.6	39.9	4.3 (12%)	1.4	1.4 1.3	
CSA	21.3	20.1	-1.2 (-6%)	0.2 0.1		
FSU	11.4	11.6	0.2 (2%)	12.1	13.6	
Sum ¹	157.7	165.5	7.8 (5%)	1.6	0.5	
Global ² 170.1 180.3 10.2 (6.09		10.2 (6.0%)				

Table S5. Available models that simulate the 20% emission perturbation experiments in global and 6 Tier 1 source regions from HTAP2, with reporting hourly O_3 at different model levels. Data are available upon request from <u>http://aerocom.met.no</u>, last accessed Feb 28, 2019.

Models	Institution	Contact	Model resolution (lon×lat)	Reference
CAMchem	NCAR	Louisa Emmons	2.5° × 1.9°	Tilmes et al., 2016
CHASER_rel	NAGOYA, JAMSTEC, NIES	Kengo Sudo Takashi Sekiya	2.8° × 2.8°	Sudo et al., 2002
CHASER_t106	As above	As above	1.1 ⁰ × 1.1 ⁰	Sudo et al., 2002
C-IFS_v2	ECMWF	Johannes Flemming	0.7 [°] × 0.7 [°]	Flemming et al., 2015
EMEP_rv48	Met No	Jan Eiof Jonson	0.5° × 0.5°	Simpson et al., 2012
OsloCTM3.v2	CICERO	Marianne Tronstad Lund	2.8° × 2.8°	Søvde et al., 2012

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