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13 Abstract

14 Ozone (O₃) is a Short-lived Climate Forcer (SLCF) that contributes to radiative
15 forcing, influences secondary aerosol formation, and indirectly affects the
16 atmospheric lifetime of methane, a major greenhouse gas. This study investigates
17 the sensitivity of global O₃ to precursor gases in a clean atmosphere, where
18 hydroxyl (OH) radical characteristics are approximately uniform globally, using
19 data from the *PiClim* experiments of the Aerosols and Chemistry Model
20 Intercomparison Project (AerChemMIP) within the CMIP6 framework. We also
21 evaluate the O₃ simulation capabilities of four Earth system models
22 (CESM2-WACCM, GFDL-ESM4, GISS-E2-1-G, and UKESM1-0-LL). Our
23 analysis reveals that the CESM and GFDL models effectively capture seasonal O₃
24 cycles and consistently simulate vertical O₃ distribution. In contrast, the GISS and
25 UKESM models effectively replicate the positive correlation between tropospheric
26 O₃ and temperature but exhibit lower sensitivity to natural precursor sources than
27 anthropogenic ones. While all models successfully simulate O₃ responses to
28 anthropogenic precursor emissions, CESM and GFDL do not capture tropospheric
29 O₃ forcing from natural NO_x emissions (e.g., from lightning). The sensitivities of O₃
30 to its natural precursors (NO_x and VOCs) in GISS and UKESM models are also very
31 low. These findings refine our understanding of O₃ sensitivity to natural precursors
32 in clean atmospheres and provide insights for improving O₃ predictions in Earth
33 system models.



34 **1 Introduction**

35 Tropospheric ozone (O_3) is a key air pollutant and atmospheric oxidant,
36 exerting extensive influence on air quality and human health (Coffman et al., 2024;
37 Lim et al., 2019; Malley et al., 2017; Nuvolone et al., 2018), climate systems, and
38 biogeochemical processes (Hu et al., 2023; Fowler et al., 2009). As a Short-lived
39 Climate Forcer (SLCF), tropospheric O_3 exerts a radiative forcing of 0.35–0.5 W
40 m^{-2} and influences atmospheric processes such as evaporation, cloud formation, and
41 general circulation (Khomsy et al., 2022; Möller and Mauersberger, 1992; Rogelj et
42 al., 2014; Stevenson et al., 2013). Furthermore, O_3 plays a crucial role in regulating
43 the terrestrial carbon sink and enhancing the formation of the hydroxyl (OH) radical
44 (Naik et al., 2013a), which, in turn, affect the lifetime of methane (and halocarbons),
45 the second most prominent anthropogenic greenhouse gas after carbon dioxide
46 (Kumaş et al., 2023). O_3 also contributes to an increased atmospheric oxidation
47 capacity, influencing the formation of secondary aerosols, such as organic aerosol,
48 sulfate, and nitrate, which have significant implications for radiative forcing (Karset
49 et al., 2018).

50 While stratospheric O_3 entrainment contributes to tropospheric O_3 levels, the
51 primary source of tropospheric O_3 is photochemical production. This secondary
52 pollutant is formed through photochemical oxidation reactions involving oxides of
53 nitrogen ($NO + NO_2 = NO_x$) and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) in the
54 presence of OH and hydroperoxyl (HO_2) radicals (Monks et al., 2015). The
55 relationship between O_3 and its precursors is nonlinear, making it challenging to
56 mitigate O_3 pollution through simple precursor reduction strategies. Regional-scale
57 sensitivity to O_3 precursors has been extensively investigated, such as emphasizing
58 the diagnostic utility of ratios including O_3/NO_x and VOC/NO_x for assessing
59 O_3 - NO_x -VOC sensitivity (Jin et al., 2023; Sillman and He, 2002), and nations such
60 as the United Kingdom and the United States have demonstrated significant success
61 in controlling regional ozone levels by implementing measures to reduce NO_x
62 emissions (Hakim et al., 2019). However, the global-scale sensitivity of O_3 to its
63 precursors has received limited attention, despite evidence suggesting that global O_3
64 forcing may have a more substantial impact on climate forcing than localized O_3
65 enhancements. Consequently, improving our understanding of O_3 formation



66 mechanisms on a global scale is essential for effective air quality management and
67 climate change mitigation strategies (Yu et al., 2021).

68 Recent studies utilizing Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6
69 (CMIP6; Eyring et al., 2016) datasets have offered insights into the spatio-temporal
70 evolution of the global tropospheric O₃ budget from 1850 to 2100 (Griffiths et al.,
71 2021; Turnock et al., 2019) and have quantified the global stratosphere-troposphere
72 O₃ exchange process (Li et al., 2024; Griffiths et al., 2021). However, challenges
73 persist in quantifying the sensitivity of global O₃ to its precursors when assessing
74 the increasing global O₃ forcing attributed to these precursors. These challenges
75 arise from regional variability in meteorological conditions (Carrillo-Torres et al.,
76 2017), differences in NO_x and VOC volume mixing ratios (Jin et al., 2023; Sillman
77 and He, 2002), and the distinct characteristics of hydroxyl radicals (HO_x) influenced
78 by varying degrees of urbanization (Karl et al., 2023; Vermeuel et al., 2019).
79 Furthermore, while the observed upward trends in O₃ levels are primarily attributed
80 to increased precursor emissions, limited research has investigated whether
81 contemporary atmospheric conditions—shaped by climate warming and enhanced
82 oxidation capacities—may be creating a more favorable environment for O₃
83 formation.

84 To address these gaps, this study investigates the sensitivity of global-scale O₃
85 to its precursors under a pre-industrial background atmosphere, with approximate
86 unified HO_x conditions in major continental areas. We also examine the feedback
87 mechanisms of different model responses to precursors from both anthropogenic
88 and natural sources, using *PiClim* experiment data from the Aerosols and Chemistry
89 Model Intercomparison Project (AerChemMIP) simulations (Collins et al., 2017)
90 within CMIP6. Additionally, this research evaluates the ozone formation potential
91 in the pre-industrial era based on contemporary (2014) emissions of O₃ precursors,
92 with the aim of elucidating whether shifts in the background atmosphere have
93 rendered it chemically more conducive to O₃ generation. Our analysis employs four
94 models with interactive stratospheric and tropospheric chemistry, which have been
95 extensively utilized in O₃-related research (Brown et al., 2022; Griffiths et al., 2021;
96 Tilmes et al., 2022; Zeng et al., 2022). This approach allows us to assess the
97 global-scale sensitivity of O₃ to its precursors, evaluate the consistency and
98 discrepancies among different models in representing O₃-precursor relationships,



99 and provide insights into the potential impacts of changing emissions on future
100 global O₃ levels and associated climate forcing, contributing to more accurate
101 projections of future climate change.

102 2 Models and methods

103 2.1 Model descriptions

104 We use monthly-mean simulation data from four Earth system models in this
105 study. The four chosen models possess the benefit of extensive applicability and a
106 comprehensive *PiClim* experimental framework. Table 1 summarizes key model
107 features, including model resolution, vertical stratification, complexity of gas-phase
108 chemistry, and relevant references. All models include interactive coupling of
109 tropospheric and stratospheric chemistry with O₃ dynamics integrated into the
110 radiation scheme, simulating the interaction between O₃ concentration and
111 temperature. The response of simulated reactive gas emissions to chemical
112 complexity is important. For example, changes in Biogenic Volatile Organic
113 Compounds (BVOCs) can impact O₃, methane lifetime, and potentially the
114 oxidation of other aerosol precursors in models with interactive tropospheric
115 chemistry.

Table 1. Information on model resolution, vertical levels, sophistication of gas-phase chemistry and references.

Model	Resolution (lat × lon)	Vertical levels	Tropospheric and Stratospheric chemistry	Aerosol model	Simulation reference
CESM2-WACCM	192 × 288	70 levels; top level 6×10^{-6} hPa	Interactive	MAM4	Gettelman et al. (2019)
GFDL-ESM4	180 × 288	49 levels; top level 0.01 hPa	Interactive	MATRIX	Dunne et al. (2020) Horowitz et al. (2020)
GISS-E2-1-G	90 × 144	40 levels; top level 0.1 hPa	Interactive	OMA	Miller et al. (2014) Kelley et al. (2020)
UKESM1-0-LL	144 × 192	85 levels; top level 85km	Interactive	GLOMAP	Tang et al. (2019) Good et al. (2019)

116
117 CESM2-WACCM (hereafter “CESM”) is a fully coupled Earth system model
118 that integrates the Community Earth System Model version 2 (Emmons et al., 2020)
119 with the Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model version 6 (WACCM6). The
120 atmospheric component operates at a horizontal resolution of 0.9375° latitude by
121 1.25° longitude, with 70 hybrid sigma-pressure vertical layers extending from the
122 surface to 6×10^{-6} hPa. Its interactive chemistry and aerosol modules include the
123 troposphere, stratosphere, and lower thermosphere, with a comprehensive treatment
124 of 231 species, 150 photolysis reactions, 403 gas-phase reactions, 13 tropospheric
125 heterogeneous reactions, and 17 stratospheric heterogeneous reactions (Emmons et



126 al., 2020). The model utilizes the four-mode Modal Aerosol Model (MAM4)
127 (Emmons et al., 2020) and features its secondary organic aerosol (SOA) framework
128 based on the Volatility Basis Set (VBS, Donahue et al., 2013) approach. The
129 photolytic calculations use both inline chemical modules and a lookup table
130 approach, which does not consider changes in aerosols.

131 The Atmospheric Model version 4.1 (AM4.1, Horowitz et al., 2020) within the
132 GFDL Earth system model (Dunne et al., 2020) incorporates an interactive
133 chemistry scheme that spans both the troposphere and stratosphere (GFDL-ESM4;
134 hereafter “GFDL”). The atmospheric component operates at a horizontal resolution
135 of 1° latitude by 1.25° longitude, with 49 hybrid sigma-pressure vertical layers
136 extending from the surface to 0.01 hPa. This scheme includes 56 prognostic tracers,
137 36 diagnostic species, 43 photolysis reactions, 190 gas-phase kinetic reactions, and
138 15 heterogeneous reactions. Stratospheric chemistry accounts for key O₃ depletion
139 cycles (O_x, HO_x, NO_x, ClO_x, and BrO_x) and heterogeneous reactions on
140 stratospheric aerosols (Austin et al., 2013). Photolysis rates are calculated
141 dynamically with the FAST-JX version 7.1 code, which considers the radiative
142 impacts of modeled aerosols and clouds. The chemical mechanism is further
143 elaborated in Horowitz et al. (2020), and the gas-phase and heterogeneous chemistry
144 are similar to those employed by Schnell et al. (2018). Non-interactive natural
145 emissions of O₃ precursors are prescribed as outlined in Naik et al. (2013b).

146 The GISS model, developed by the NASA Goddard Institute for Space Studies,
147 integrates the chemistry-climate model version E2.1 with the GISS Ocean v1 (G01)
148 model (GISS-E2-1-G; hereafter “GISS”). The specific configurations of this model
149 utilized for the CMIP6 are detailed in Kelley et al. (2020). In this study, we focus on
150 the model subset that includes online interactive chemistry. The atmospheric
151 component operates at a horizontal resolution of 2° latitude by 2.5° longitude, with
152 40 hybrid sigma-pressure vertical layers extending from the surface to 0.1 hPa. The
153 interactive chemistry module employs the GISS Physical Understanding of
154 Composition-Climate Interactions and Impacts (G-PUCCINI) mechanism for
155 gas-phase chemistry (Kelley et al., 2020; Shindell et al., 2013). For aerosols, the
156 model utilizes either the One-Moment Aerosol (OMA) or the Multiconfiguration
157 Aerosol Tracker of Mixing state (MATRIX) model (Bauer et al., 2020). The
158 gas-phase chemistry involves 146 reactions, including 28 photodissociation



159 reactions, affecting 47 species across the troposphere and stratosphere, along with
160 an additional five heterogeneous reactions. The model transports 26 aerosol particle
161 tracers and 34 gas-phase tracers (OMA).

162 UKESM represents the United Kingdom's Earth system model (Sellar et al.,
163 2019). It builds upon the Global Coupled 3.1 (GC3.1) configuration of HadGEM3
164 (Williams et al., 2018), incorporating additional Earth system components, such as
165 ocean biogeochemistry, the terrestrial carbon-nitrogen cycle, and atmospheric
166 chemistry (UKESM1-0-LL; hereafter “UKESM”). Walters et al. (2019) provided
167 descriptions of the atmospheric and land components. The atmospheric component
168 operates at a horizontal resolution of 1.25° latitude by 1.875° longitude, with 85
169 vertical layers extending from the surface to 85 km. The chemistry module in the
170 UKESM model is a unified stratosphere-troposphere scheme (Archibald et al., 2020)
171 including 84 tracers, 199 bimolecular reactions, 25 unimolecular and termolecular
172 reactions, 59 photolytic reactions, 5 heterogeneous reactions, and 3 aqueous-phase
173 reactions for the sulfur cycle from the United Kingdom Chemistry and Aerosols
174 (UKCA) model. The aerosol module is based on the two-moment scheme from
175 UKCA, known as GLOMAP mode, and is integrated into the Global Atmosphere
176 7.0/7.1 configuration of HadGEM3 (Walters et al., 2019). The UKESM uses
177 interactive Fast-JX photolysis scheme, which is applied to derive photolysis rates
178 between 177 and 850 nm, as described in Telford et al. (2013). In the lower
179 mesosphere, photolysis rates are calculated using lookup tables (Lary and Pyle,
180 1991).

181 Models differ in their representation of O₃ source and sink processes, as well as
182 in the definitions of the associated budget terms, which contributes to variability in
183 model outcomes (Stevenson et al., 2006; Young et al., 2018). For example, in the
184 GISS model, the tropospheric chemistry component simulates the
185 NO_x-HO_x-O_x-CO-CH₄ system and the oxidation pathways for non-methane volatile
186 organic compounds (NMVOCs). Central to these discrepancies are the treatments of
187 non-methane volatile organic compound NMVOCs chemistry, which impacts both
188 chemical production and destruction rates, along with surface removal mechanisms
189 and stratospheric influences. Furthermore, the choice of tropopause definition can
190 significantly alter the diagnosed O₃ burden, as well as the flux from the stratosphere.



191 All four of the interactive tropospheric chemistry models contain
192 parameterizations of the nitrogen oxide (NO_x) emissions from lightning based on
193 the height of the convective cloud top (Price et al., 1997; Price and Rind, 1992;
194 Price, 2013). Each model has a different way of implementing emissions and how
195 much they are profiled. For instance, online calculations of lightning NO_x emissions
196 during deep convection in the GISS model are based on the method described by
197 (Kelley et al., 2020). Lightning NO_x continues to be a major source of uncertainty in
198 both model comparisons and the temporal development of tropospheric O_3 because
199 it has a disproportionately significant influence on tropospheric- O_3 concentration
200 relative to surface emissions (Murray et al., 2013).

201 BVOC emissions are modeled as a function of vegetation type and cover, as
202 well as temperature and photosynthetic rates (gross primary productivity) (Unger,
203 2014; Sporre et al., 2019; Pacifico et al., 2011; Guenther et al., 1995). While models
204 vary in the speciation of emitted VOCs, they commonly include isoprene and
205 monoterpenes, each with its own distinct emission parameterization. Despite the
206 common reliance on photosynthetically active radiation for the parameterization of
207 BVOC emissions across the four models, there exist notable distinctions. For
208 instance, the GFDL model exclusively considers the leaf area index, neglecting the
209 impact of temperature on BVOC emissions, and the CESM, GISS, and UKESM
210 models omit the influence of vegetation type from their calculations.

211 2.2 Simulation data and experimental design

212 The primary objective of AerChemMIP is to quantitatively ascertain the
213 influence of aerosols and reactive trace gases on the climate system, as well as the
214 bidirectional feedback mechanisms involved (Collins et al., 2017). Table 2 presents
215 a synopsis of the experimental configurations employed in this study. The control
216 experiment, denoted as *PiClim-control*, is designed to stabilize both atmospheric
217 composition and climatic conditions at a state reminiscent of the pre-industrial era,
218 specifically 1850. The *PiClim-2x* experiment involves doubling of individual
219 natural emission fluxes relative to the 1850 control, while the *PiClim-x* experiments
220 calibrate these fluxes to align with the emission levels prevalent in 2014 (Collins et
221 al., 2017). *PiClim-2xNO_x* represents the nitric oxide emissions from natural sources
222 due to lightning activity doubles. *PiClim-2xVOC* represents the volatile organic



compound emissions from natural sources, including isoprene and monoterpenes, doubles. *PiClim-VOC* represents the pre-industrial climatological control with 2014 VOC emissions both from anthropogenic and natural sources. *PiClim-aer* represents the pre-industrial climatological control with 2014 aerosol concentrations. *HC* represents halocarbon concentrations. *NTCF* represents Near-term climate forcers, including aerosols and chemically reactive gases such as tropospheric ozone and methane. *BC* represents black carbon and *N₂O* represents nitrous oxide.

Table 2. The available experiments of selected models in this study. "X" represents the experiment is available.

Models	<i>piClim-2xNO_x</i>	<i>piClim-2xVOC</i>	<i>piClim-HC</i>	<i>piClim-CH₄</i>	<i>piClim-NO_x</i>	<i>piClim-VOC</i>	<i>piClim-NTCF</i>	<i>piClim-N₂O</i>	<i>piClim-O₃</i>	<i>piClim-aer</i>	<i>piClim-control</i>	<i>piClim-BC</i>
CESM2-WACCM	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X				
GFDL-ESM4	X	X	X		X	X			X	X	X	X
GISS-E2-1-G	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
UKESM1-0-LL	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

We analyzed models that had archived sufficient data in the Earth System Grid Federation (ESGF) system to permit accurate characterization of tropospheric O₃. In practice this meant we used archived O₃ data from the AERmon characterization of the tropospheric O₃ (variable name: "o3") on native model grids. Other variables used include chemical production (variable name: "o3prod"), chemical destruction (variable name: "o3loss"), air temperature (variable name: "ta"), nitrogen monoxide (variable name: "no"), nitrogen dioxide (variable name: "no2"), isoprene (variable name: "isop"), organic dry aerosol (variable name: "emioa"), secondary organic aerosol (variable name: "mmrsoa"), and air temperature (variable name: "ta"). All data used in this paper are available on the Earth System Grid Federation website and can be downloaded from <https://esgf-index1.ceda.ac.uk/search/cmip6-ceda/> (last access: 4 July 2024, ESGF-CEDA, 2020).

A new set of historical anthropogenic emissions has been developed with the Community Emissions Data System (CEDS, Hoesly et al., 2018). CEDS uses updated emission factors to provide monthly emissions of the major aerosol and trace gas species over the period 1750 to 2014 for use in CMIP6, and biomass burning emissions are based on a different inventory developed separate from CEDS (Van Marle et al., 2017). The primary analysis examines emissions of NO_x and VOCs from anthropogenic (Hoesly et al., 2018) and biomass burning sources (van Marle et al., 2017) that were provided as a common emission inventory to be used by all models (including the four in this study) in CMIP6 simulations. In the



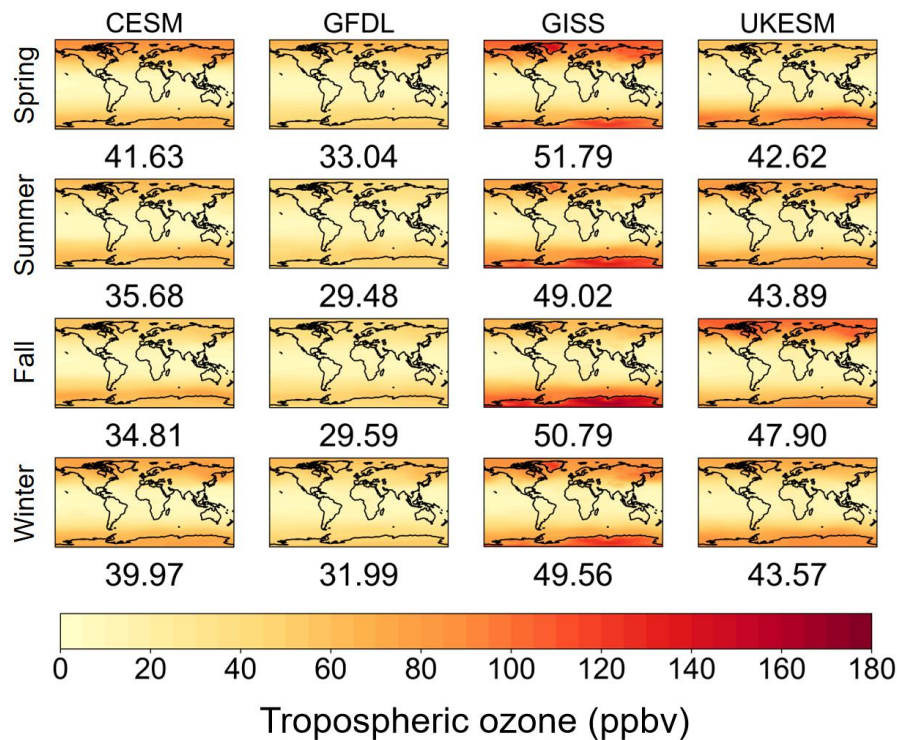
252 CESM and GFDL models, biogenic emissions, including isoprene and
253 monoterpenes, are calculated interactively using MEGAN version 2.1 (Guenther et
254 al., 2012) and are further utilized for SOA formation. While in the GISS model,
255 biogenic emissions of isoprene are computed online and are sensitive to temperature
256 (Shindell et al. (2006), whereas alkenes, paraffins, and terpenes are prescribed. And
257 in the UKESM model, emissions of isoprene and monoterpenes are interactively
258 calculated using the iBVOC emission model (Pacifico et al., 2011).

259 **3 Results and Discussions**

260 **3.1 Spatial, seasonal, and vertical distribution of tropospheric O₃**

261 We first investigate the seasonal and vertical variations of ozone volume
262 mixing ratio in the pre-industrial atmospheres simulated by four selected models.
263 The analysis of tropospheric O₃ data derived from the *PiClim* experiment outcomes
264 of CMIP6 models reveals distinct seasonal cycles and inter-model variations (Fig.
265 1). The GISS model demonstrates the highest simulated tropospheric column O₃
266 volume mixing ratio at 50.29 ppbv in the 30th year of simulation, followed by the
267 UKESM (44.50 ppbv), CESM (38.02 ppbv), and GFDL (31.03 ppbv), where the
268 height of the tropopause is based on the definition of WHO. These are consistent
269 with previous findings from historical experiments (Griffiths et al., 2021).

270 Furthermore, our analysis indicates that the disparity in O₃ volume mixing ratio
271 during the *PiClim* experiment primarily occurs in polar regions. This may be
272 attributed to the GISS model's ability to replicate a more robust entrainment of
273 stratospheric O₃, a key source of tropospheric O₃ in the pre-industrial atmosphere,
274 particularly at the poles. Previous studies have demonstrated that elevated O₃ levels
275 in the Arctic during spring and winter, as well as in the Antarctic during summer
276 and autumn, result from the cumulative impact of the polar O₃ barrier (Hamlin and
277 Honrath, 2002).



278

279 **Figure 1.** Comparison of the seasonal cycle of tropospheric column averaged
280 volume mixing ratio of O₃ of the *PiClim* experiment results in the 30th year of
281 simulation of the four models. Each row shows a separate meteorological season,
282 arranged from top to bottom: March to May (Spring), June to August (Summer),
283 September to November (Autumn), and December to February (Winter). Each
284 column represents a selected model, listed from left to right: CESM, GFDL, GISS,
285 and UKESM. The figures displayed below each chart represent the global average
286 ozone volume mixing ratio.

287 Seasonal variations in tropospheric O₃ volume mixing ratio exhibit
288 model-specific patterns. The CESM, GFDL, and GISS models simulate peak
289 tropospheric O₃ volume mixing ratio in spring during the *PiClim* experiments. In
290 contrast, the UKESM model reproduces maximum O₃ volume mixing ratio in
291 autumn, indicating a limited capability in simulating dynamic circulations in the
292 tropopause. Furthermore, the seasonal O₃ cycle simulations in CESM, GFDL, and
293 GISS exhibit distinct discrepancies in their outcomes. For instance, the CESM
294 model simulates the lowest O₃ volume mixing ratio in autumn, while the GFDL
295 model exhibits the lowest volume mixing ratio in summer. The GISS model
296 simulation indicates higher O₃ levels in autumn compared to winter, which is
297 consistent with results from historical experiments (Griffiths et al., 2021).



298 Additionally, our analysis reveals that the CESM simulations demonstrate the most
299 pronounced seasonal oscillation amplitude in O_3 volume mixing ratio,
300 approximately 6.82 ppbv. This feature underscores the model's sensitivity to
301 seasonal factors affecting tropospheric O_3 dynamics.

302 In the *PiClim* experiments, all four models accurately reproduce the peak
303 volume mixing ratio of O_3 in the middle stratosphere at 10 hPa and the zonal
304 average mixing ratios reaching their peak in the upper troposphere, particularly in
305 extratropical regions, indicative of extended chemical lifetimes at higher altitudes.
306 However, notable disparities are observed in the vertical distribution characteristics
307 of O_3 among the four models (Fig. 2). Specifically, the CESM model exhibits the
308 highest vertical extension, including an additional hotspot simulated in the
309 thermosphere. While the GFDL and CESM2 models exhibit consistent simulation
310 outcomes below 0.01 hPa, GISS and UKESM simulate significantly higher
311 stratospheric O_3 levels at 10 hPa in comparison.

312 Notable distinctions are observed in the spatial distribution of O_3 . The GISS
313 model simulates a more vertically concentrated and latitudinally extended O_3
314 distribution. This characteristic may be a crucial factor contributing to the
315 pronounced impact of O_3 transport in the polar stratosphere, as simulated by GISS.
316 The zonal variability in O_3 distribution simulated by the UKESM falls between that
317 of the GISS and CESM models. These inter-model discrepancies in O_3 simulation
318 results likely reflect suboptimal representation of local and regional dynamics, as
319 well as omitted chemical processes in corresponding models. The variability and
320 uncertainty in O_3 precursor emission estimates further exacerbate these disparities.

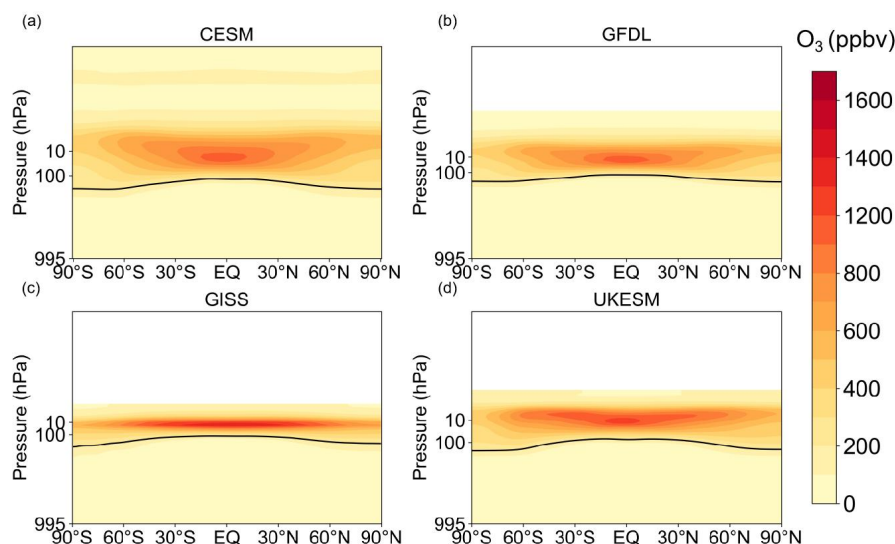


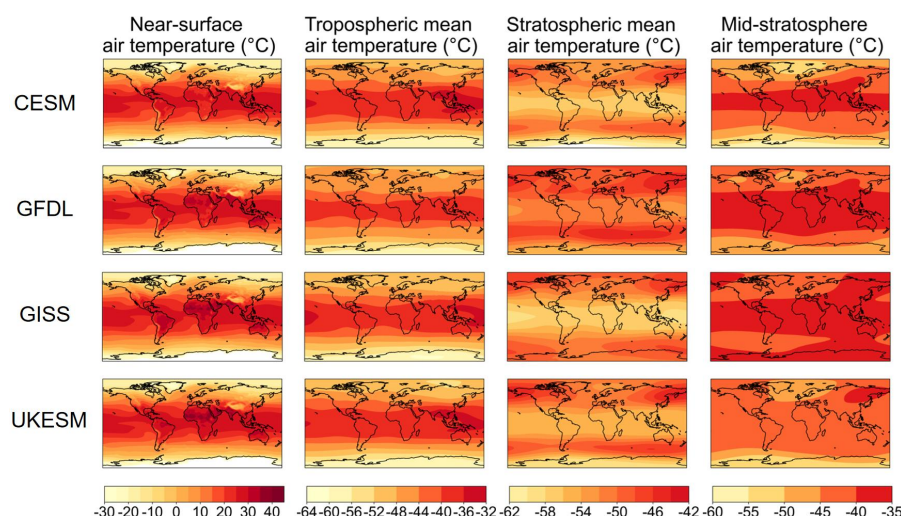
Figure 2. The zonal mean O_3 distribution for the 30th year of the *PiClim* experiment results from the (a) CESM, (b) GFDL, (c) GISS, and (d) UKESM model. Thick black lines represent the tropopause height for each model based on the WMO definition.

3.2 Spatial distribution of temperature and its correlation coefficient with O_3

Then we analyze the temperature and radiation characteristics at different altitudes of the four models to explore the correlation between thermal structures and ozone in the pre-industrial atmosphere in these models. The four models receive almost exactly the same distribution of solar radiation at the top of the atmosphere (figure not shown) and the four models exhibit similar spatial patterns in surface-level temperature results, with the GISS and UKESM models showing the highest temperatures (Fig. 3a), which is mainly because these experiments are driven by fixed SSTs which means that the simulated temperatures would only vary significantly interannually. However, significant differences emerge in the spatial distribution of temperatures in the troposphere and stratosphere. In the troposphere, the GFDL model would not exhibit the high-temperature center over the east-central Pacific Ocean observed in other models (Fig. 3b). Stratospheric temperature simulations also vary considerably: GFDL shows higher temperatures compared to CESM and GISS, but lower than UKESM (Fig. 3b and c). Notably, despite GFDL's higher stratospheric temperatures relative to CESM, it simulates lower stratospheric O_3 volume mixing ratios (Fig. 2). The CESM and GISS models demonstrate more consistent spatial distributions of tropospheric and stratospheric temperatures.



344 However, the GISS model shows a more latitudinally extended spatial distribution
345 of temperatures in the mid-stratosphere (10 hPa), aligning with the extensive zonal
346 reach of stratospheric O₃ simulations of these two models. These variations in
347 temperature simulations can be attributed to distinct radiative configurations among
348 the models, leading to differences in heating rates, stratospheric chemical processes,
349 and water vapor distribution. The diversity in radiation parameterizations
350 significantly influences both longwave and shortwave radiative fluxes.



351
352 **Figure 3.** Comparison of the spatial distribution of annual mean air temperature for
353 the 30th year of the *PiClim* experiment results from the four models at (a)
354 surfacetropo-level, (b) tropospheric column averaged, (c) stratospheric column
355 averaged, and (d) middle of the stratosphere (10 hPa).

356 Figure 4 illustrates the decadal moving average correlation coefficients
357 between temperature and O₃ levels at various elevations. GISS and UKESM display
358 a strong positive correlation between temperature and O₃ volume mixing ratios
359 across all levels (troposphere and stratosphere), with the strongest positive
360 correlation observed in the stratosphere. CESM shows a positive correlation in the
361 troposphere and stratosphere. GFDL exhibits a weak or negative correlation in the
362 troposphere. However, it demonstrates a pronounced positive correlation in the
363 stratosphere, particularly in the middle stratosphere, surpassing the correlations
364 observed in the other models.

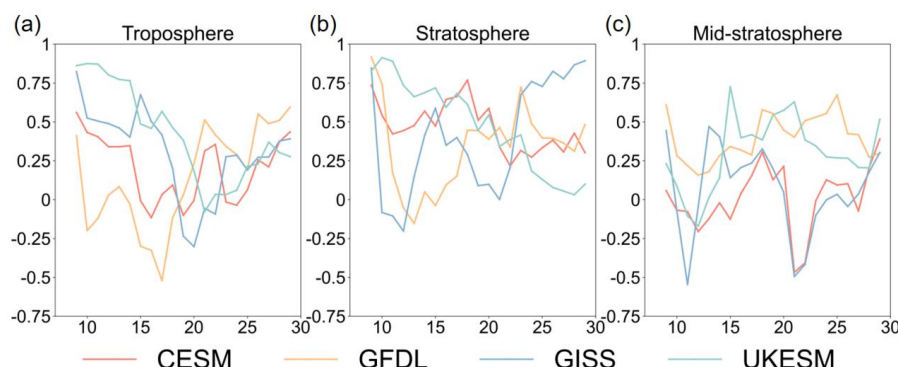


Figure 4. 10-year sliding correlation coefficients between O_3 volume mixing ratio and air temperature of the *PiClim* experiment results for the four models are presented at the (a) surface-level, (b) troposphere, (c) stratosphere, and (d) middle of the stratosphere (10 hPa).

3.3 Characteristics of tropospheric O_3 under various experiments

Tables 3 and 4 present the global O_3 volume mixing ratio and tropospheric O_3 volume mixing ratio across all experiments from the four different models. The GISS model simulations show higher tropospheric O_3 volume mixing ratios, reflecting increased rates of stratospheric downwelling and surface O_3 precursor emissions. However, its overall O_3 volume mixing ratio is notably lower compared to the UKESM, CESM, and GFDL models, with reductions of 114.24, 76.16, and 47.04 ppbv, respectively. Analysis reveals that in the CESM, GFDL, and GISS models, the global O_3 molar fraction in the *PiClim-2NO_x* and *PiClim-NO_x* experiments surpasses that in the *PiClim-2VOC* and *PiClim-VOC* experiments. This difference is most pronounced in the GISS model, aligning with previous findings indicating its heightened sensitivity to NO_x response (Turnock et al., 2019). Conversely, in the UKESM model, the global O_3 molar fraction of the *PiClim-2NO_x* experiment is lower than that of the *PiClim-2VOC* experiment. Interestingly, the tropospheric O_3 volume mixing ratios in the *PiClim-2NO_x* experiment in the CESM and GFDL models are notably lower than in their respective *PiClim-2VOC* experiments, with reductions of 0.41 and 0.29 ppbv. This discrepancy challenges the conventional understanding that increased NO_x emissions from lightning activity should lead to tropospheric O_3 generation, suggesting a need for enhanced sensitivity simulations in these two models regarding O_3 and NO_x emissions from natural sources due to lightning activity. In contrast, the *PiClim-2NO_x* experiments of the GISS and UKESM models effectively simulate an increase in tropospheric O_3 .



volume mixing ratio compared to their *PiClim-2VOC* experiments. Furthermore, across all four models, the tropospheric O₃ volume mixing ratio of the *PiClim-NO_x* experiment surpasses that of the *PiClim-VOC* experiment, indicating the models' ability to accurately replicate the impact of rising anthropogenic emissions on O₃ production. Additionally, methane, a crucial natural source of volatile organic compounds and a key greenhouse gas, enhances tropospheric O₃ generation by influencing temperature, thereby elevating global O₃ volume mixing ratio. This phenomenon contributes to the heightened sensitivity of O₃ to methane volume mixing ratio in a clean atmosphere. Elevated volume mixing ratios of HCFCs (*PiClim-HC*) and nitrous oxide (*PiClim-CH₄*) lead to substantial stratospheric O₃ depletion, consequently affecting tropospheric O₃ volume mixing ratio through the poleward process. Other influencing factors, such as aerosols and black carbon, induce warming through radiation effects, thereby simulating elevated O₃ volume mixing ratio.

Table 3. The averaged concentrations of global ozone at all simulated vertical levels in the 30th year for each experiment of four models (ppbv).

Models	<i>piClim-2xNO_x</i>	<i>piClim-2xVOC</i>	<i>piClim-HC</i>	<i>piClim-CH₄</i>	<i>piClim-NO_x</i>	<i>piClim-VOC</i>	<i>piClim-NTCF</i>	<i>piClim-N₂O</i>	<i>piClim-O₃</i>	<i>piClim-aer</i>	<i>piClim-control</i>	<i>piClim-BC</i>
ESM2-WACCI	398.62	398.56	363.84	391.89	400.20	399.17	398.27	390.32				
GFDL-ESM4	365.48	364.35	332.16		367.46	365.65			367.85	365.37	366.27	366.15
GISS-E2-1-G	322.97	317.19	278.06	324.52	322.51	316.40	320.04	310.42	319.19	320.09	318.92	318.96
UKESM1-0-LL	435.24	435.65	377.78	429.12	440.70	433.71	445.53	427.35	439.55	428.95	432.54	431.88

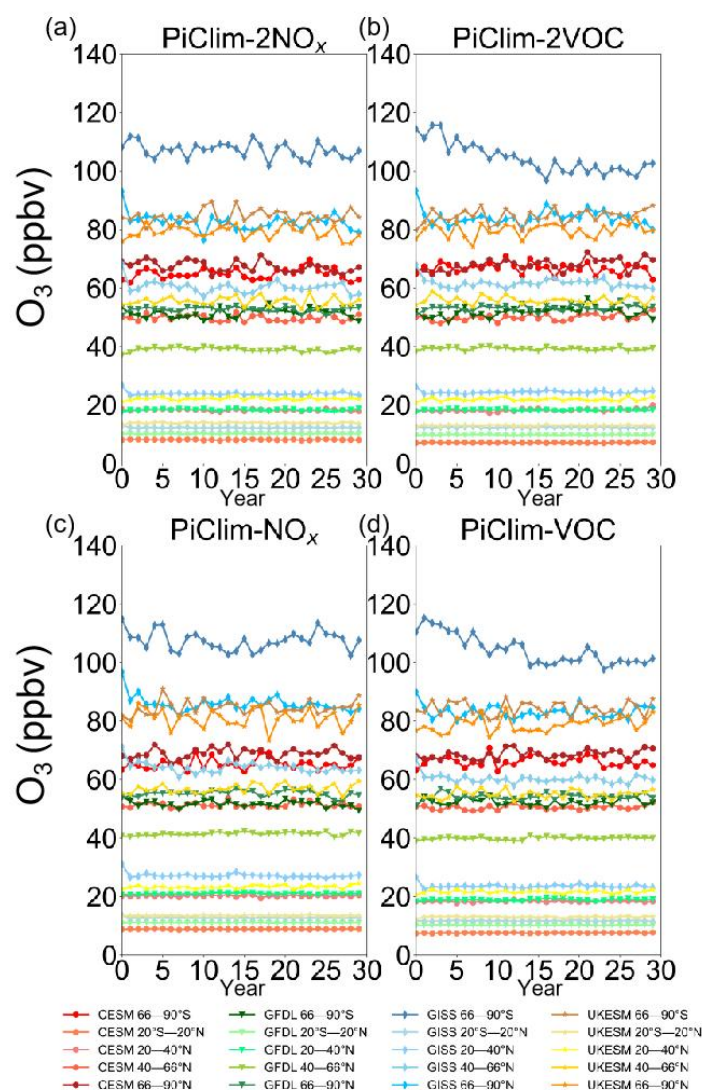
Table 4. The averaged concentrations of global tropospheric ozone in the 30th year for each experiment of four models (ppbv).

Models	<i>piClim-2xNO_x</i>	<i>piClim-2xVOC</i>	<i>piClim-HC</i>	<i>piClim-CH₄</i>	<i>piClim-NO_x</i>	<i>piClim-VOC</i>	<i>piClim-NTCF</i>	<i>piClim-N₂O</i>	<i>piClim-O₃</i>	<i>piClim-aer</i>	<i>piClim-control</i>	<i>piClim-BC</i>
ESM2-WACCI	38.17	38.58	33.44	39.42	39.16	39.14	41.33	38.10				
GFDL-ESM4	31.33	31.62	24.42		32.64	32.25			34.09	31.01	30.79	30.95
GISS-E2-1-G	52.30	50.96	44.18	53.08	52.14	50.21	51.65	48.36	52.47	50.36	49.27	50.02
UKESM1-0-LL	47.53	46.14	31.04	45.55	46.02	45.97	47.29	45.04	46.65	43.69	46.70	45.11

Figure 5 shows the temporal evolution of tropospheric O₃ levels across various latitudes, as simulated by four distinct models in O₃ precursor experiments. In the *PiClim* experiments, none of the models predicted an enhancement in O₃ volume mixing ratio, reflecting the consistent chemical lifetime of O₃ within the pristine atmospheric conditions. However, discrepancies in O₃ predictions among the models become more pronounced with increasing latitudes. While the CESM model generally exhibits higher tropospheric O₃ volume mixing ratios compared to the GFDL model, it paradoxically portrays the lowest O₃ levels in the equatorial region. The GISS model demonstrates a marked disparity in tropospheric O₃ volume mixing ratios between the Antarctic and Arctic regions, with the former registering notably higher levels. In contrast, the CESM and GFDL models exhibit similar patterns in this regard. A unique feature of the GISS model is a notable declining trend in



420 Antarctic tropospheric O₃ levels during the initial 15 years of both the *PiClim-2VOC*
421 and *PiClim-VOC* experiments. This trend is not observed in the CESM, GFDL, and
422 UKESM models, highlighting a distinctive characteristic of the GISS model's
423 simulation. The UKESM model stands out with its pronounced simulation of
424 elevated O₃ volume mixing ratios in the tropical belt. Furthermore, the
425 *PiClim-2xVOC* experiment conducted within the UKESM model demonstrates a
426 significant O₃ response to enhanced emissions of VOCs from natural sources in the
427 equatorial region. This suggests a strong sensitivity of O₃ in the UKESM to
428 increases in VOC emissions from natural sources.



429

430 **Figure 5.** The temporal evolution characteristics of annual mean tropospheric
431 column averaged O_3 volume mixing ratio at different latitudes for each model are
432 presented for the (a) *PiClim-2NO_x*, (b) *PiClim-2VOC*, (c) *PiClim-NO_x*, and (d)
433 *PiClim-VOC* experiment.

434 3.4 Analysis of O_3 generation in precursor experiments

435 In the *PiClim* experiments, the O_3 production was defined as the cumulative
436 tendency from HO_2 , CH_3O_2 , RO_2 , and NO reactions, while O_3 loss encompassed the
437 sum of $O(1D) + H_2O$, $O_3 + HO_2$, $OH + O_3$, and $O_3 +$ alkene reactions. The GISS
438 demonstrates the lowest O_3 chemical production among the models, whereas the



other three models show generally consistent production levels. Notably, the GISS model exhibits a relatively low efficiency in O₃ chemical consumptions, primarily due to missing the loss of O₃ with isoprene and terpenes process. The low offset of ozone production and depletion in the pre-industrial atmosphere by the GISS model provides a new perspective based on previous studies indicating the high offset of ozone production and depletion in the present atmosphere by the GISS model. The four models all showed high ozone chemical production in the *PiClim-NO_x* experiment, indicating that the four all have perfect ability to simulate the photochemical generation mechanism of tropospheric ozone. However, the CESM and GFDL models do not show a significant increase in tropospheric O₃ chemical generation during the *PiClim-2NO_x* experiment. And although the GISS and UKESM models successfully simulated an increase in the O₃ chemical generation rate due to heightened lightning activity in this experiment, these increases in ozone production are also much smaller than the chemical production generated by the *PiClim-NO_x* experiment, which might show that the theoretical mechanism of ozone sensitivity to natural precursors in pre-industrial atmosphere differs from the present mechanism due to the differences in the characteristics of intermediate products such as OH. Furthermore, in either model, the ozone chemical production from the *PiClim-NO_x* experiment, while higher than in other experiments other than *PiClim-NTCF*, is much smaller than the ozone chemical production caused by this emission inventory in the atmosphere today. Today's NO_x emission forcing has not led to a sustained increase in the ozone volume mixing ratio in the pre-industrial atmosphere over a long-time scale, which indicates important differences between the pre-industrial atmosphere and the present atmosphere in terms of the ozone generation environment and the ozone depletion environment.

Furthermore, the *PiClim-2VOC* experiment in the CESM and GFDL models lead to an increase in tropospheric O₃ volume mixing ratio, despite not reproducing higher O₃ chemical production. The UKESM model successfully captures the enhancement of O₃ chemical formation due to increased emissions of VOCs from natural sources, underscoring its precise sensitivity to these emissions and validating its capability to simulate O₃ dynamics influenced by them. However, the global O₃ volume mixing ratio in the *PiClim-2xVOC* experiment of these models is lower than that of the *PiClim-VOC* experiment. These observations illustrate the



variability among models in capturing the O_3 response to its precursor species, stemming from varied treatments of critical atmospheric processes, including photolysis, dry deposition, transport mechanisms, and mixing dynamics. Furthermore, these findings highlight the variability in global O_3 sensitivity compared to local O_3 sensitivity, underscoring the complexity of studying O_3 sensitivity on a global scale to mitigate its climate impacts.

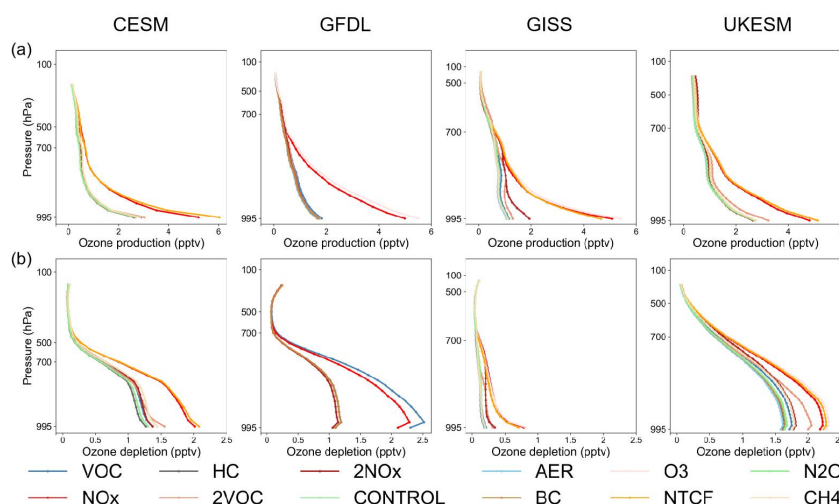


Figure 6. Vertical profiles of O_3 volume mixing ratio (a) chemical production and (b) chemical depletion rate for the 30th year across all available experiments in the four models.

Figure 6b illustrates that, apart from the O_3 chemical formation mechanism, the CESM, GFDL, and UKESM models in the *PiClim-2NO_x* experiment do not accurately depict the O_3 chemical depletion process induced by NO_x . Despite successfully replicating the rise in NO and NO_2 levels (Fig. 7a, b) in the upper troposphere, these models fall short in capturing the NO_x -related O_3 depletion phenomenon. Moreover, the GISS model stands out with notably elevated NO_x volume mixing ratios attributed to heightened lightning activity compared to the other models. Additionally, it demonstrates a peak NO_x volume mixing ratio near 500 hPa across all experiments conducted, a feature not observed in the other models.

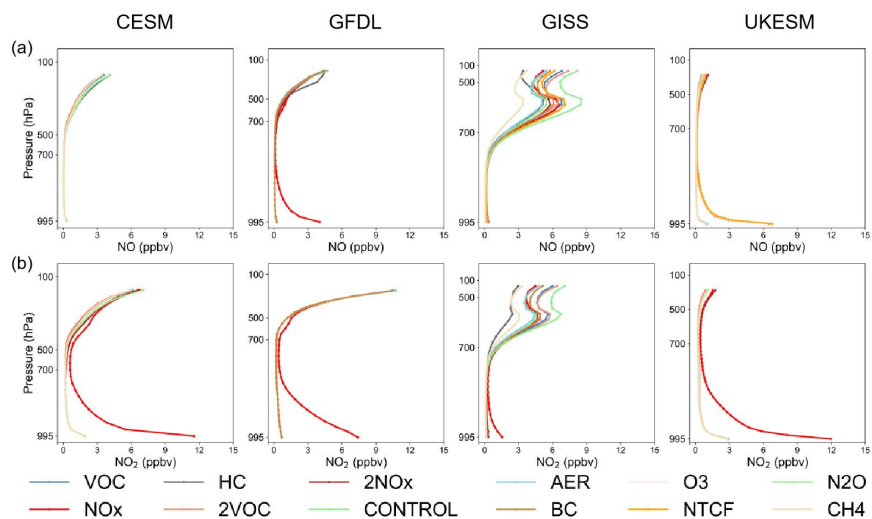


Figure 7. Vertical profiles of (a) NO and (b) NO₂ volume mixing ratios for the 30th year across all available experiments in the four models.

Figure 8 illustrates a notable inverse correlation between the consumption of isoprene and the chemical production of O₃ in four models, when the rise in VOCs emissions is not factored in. This relationship is attributed to the significance of isoprene as a natural VOC source in unpolluted atmospheres and highlights the absence of O₃ generation simulation due to lightning activity in the CESM, GFDL, and UKESM models. In the *PiClim* experiments, the UKESM model did not provide mass fraction of secondary particulate organic matter dry aerosol particles in the air (mmrsoa), and so we only include its volume mixing ratio of isoprene in the air (isop) and the primary emissions and chemical production of dry aerosol organic matter (emioa) in Fig. 8. Additionally, the CESM model exhibits higher emissions and chemical formation of organic dry aerosol particles compared to the GFDL and GISS models. This difference potentially contributes to the observed variation in global O₃ volume mixing ratios, with the highest levels recorded in the CESM model and the lowest in the GISS model.

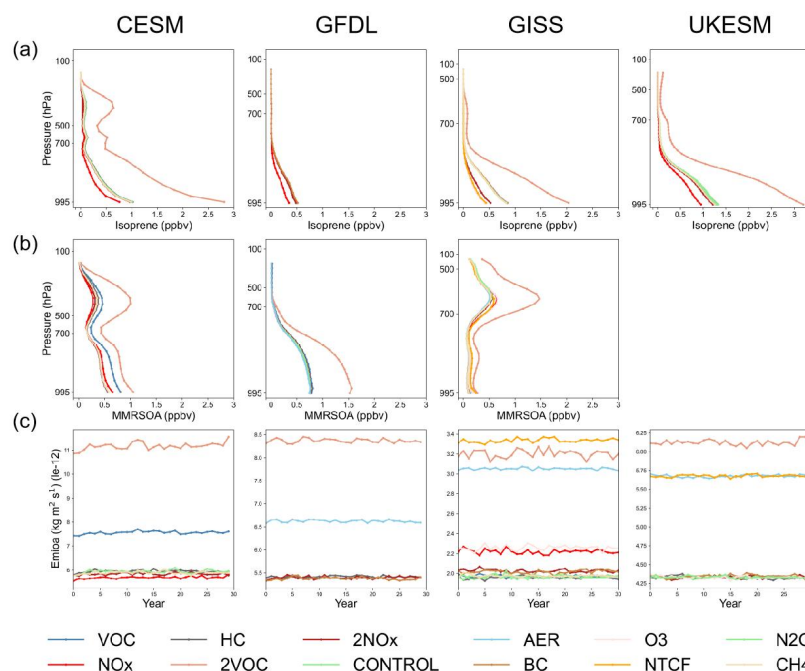


Figure 8. Vertical profiles of (a) isoprene volume mixing ratio and (b) secondary organic aerosol mass mixing ratio for the 30th year of all available experiments across the three models. (c) Temporal evolution characteristics of major emissions and the chemical production of organic dry aerosol particles from all available experiments of the four models.

4. Conclusions

This study assessed the sensitivity of global-scale ozone (O_3) to precursor gases in a clean atmosphere and evaluated the simulation capabilities of four Earth system models using data from the *PiClim* experiments within the AerChemMIP framework. Our results highlight both strengths and limitations of these models in capturing O_3 dynamics. The CESM and GFDL models excelled in reproducing seasonal O_3 cycles and the vertical distribution of O_3 , but they showed limitations in simulating the tropospheric O_3 response to NO_x emissions from natural sources, such as lightning activity. Conversely, the GISS and UKESM models effectively simulated the positive correlation between tropospheric O_3 and temperature but were less sensitive to natural precursors compared to anthropogenic sources. Discrepancies, such as zonal temperature biases in the GISS model and stratospheric temperature inconsistencies in the GFDL model, underscore areas for improvement.



531 Our findings suggest that existing assumptions regarding O₃ sensitivity to
532 natural precursors may require refinement in clean atmospheric conditions. This
533 research provides critical insights into the interplay between O₃ and its precursors,
534 enhancing the accuracy of O₃ simulations in Earth system models. Given the
535 significant role of O₃ in radiative forcing, atmospheric oxidation, and climate
536 feedback mechanisms, our study reinforces the necessity of precise modeling to
537 better predict and mitigate future climate scenarios. Additionally, the results
538 underscore the importance of controlling anthropogenic precursor emissions as an
539 essential strategy to manage tropospheric O₃ volume mixing ratios and address
540 broader climate change challenges.

541 It is important to acknowledge that the results generated by the models are
542 accompanied by a degree of uncertainty. Variations in the methodologies employed
543 by different models to address chemical reactions, including the production and
544 depletion of ozone, contribute to the uncertainty surrounding the ozone budget.
545 Furthermore, discrepancies in the data pertaining to anthropogenic and natural
546 emissions, particularly concerning NO_x and BVOC emissions, substantially
547 influence the outcomes of these models. Additionally, the uncertainty associated
548 with the stratosphere-troposphere exchange process represents a critical factor in the
549 ozone budget, with notable divergences in the treatment of this process across
550 various models.

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563 **Data availability**

564 All data from the Earth system models used in this paper are available on the
565 Earth System Grid Federation website and can be downloaded from
566 <https://esgf-index1.ceda.ac.uk/search/cmip6-ceda/> (last access: 4 July 2024,
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568 **Author contributions**

569 WW and CYG provided data analysis and contributed to the writing and
570 discussion of this paper.

571 **Competing interests**

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

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