

The Influence of Temperature on Ozone Production under varying NO_x Conditions – a modelling study

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Abstract

1 Introduction

Surface-level ozone (O₃) is a secondary air pollutant formed during the photochemical degradation of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) in the presence of nitrogen oxides (NO_x \equiv NO + NO₂). Due to the photochemical nature of ozone production, meteorological variables such as temperature strongly influence ozone production (Jacob and Winner, 2009). A study by Otero et al. (2016) indicated that temperature is a major meteorological driver for ozone in many areas of central Europe during the summertime.

Temperature primarily influences ozone production in two ways: speeding up the reaction rates of many chemical reactions leading to ozone production and increasing emissions of VOCs from biogenic sources (BVOCs). In general, emissions of anthropogenic VOCs (AVOCs) are not typically temperature dependent, although evaporative emissions of AVOCs tend to increase with temperature (Rubin et al., 2006). The review of Pusede et al. (2015) provides further details of the temperature-dependent processes impacting ozone production.

Many studies over the US (Sillman and Samson, 1995; Dawson et al., 2007; Pusede et al., 2014) noted that increased temperatures tend to lead to higher ozone levels, often exceeding local air quality guidelines. Some studies (Sillman and Samson, 1995; Dawson et al., 2007) included modelling experiments using regional chemical transport models simulating the observed

increases in ozone with temperature. In these studies, the increase of ozone with temperature was attributed to the decrease in the lifetime of PAN (peroxy acetyl nitrate) at higher temperatures and increased emissions of BVOCs, in particular isoprene, from vegetation.

Pusede et al. (2014) used an analytical model constrained by observations over San Joaquin Valley, California to infer a non-linear relationship of ozone production with temperature and NO_x , similar to the well-known non-linear relationship of ozone production on NO_x and VOC levels (Sillman, 1999). Moreover, Pusede et al. (2014) showed that temperature can be used as a surrogate for VOC levels when considering the relationship of ozone across NO_x gradients.

Environmental chamber studies have also been used to analyse the relationship of ozone with temperature for a particular mixture of VOCs. The chamber experiments of Carter et al. (1979) and Hatakeyama et al. (1991), also showed increases in ozone with temperature linked to increased PAN decomposition at higher temperatures ($T > 303 \text{ K}$).

Despite many studies considering the effects of temperature on ozone production from an observational and chamber study perspective, there have not been (to our knowledge) modelling studies focusing on the detailed chemical processes of the influence of temperature on ozone production. Where regional modelling has accompanied observational studies, these have only considered the relationship of temperature on ozone under the same NO_x conditions. The review of Pusede et al. (2015) also highlights a lack of modelling studies looking at the non-linear relationship of ozone on temperature across NO_x gradients.

In this study, we use an idealised box model to determine how ozone levels vary with temperature and across NO_x gradients. We separate the effects of temperature-dependent chemistry and temperature-dependent BVOC emissions on ozone production by performing simulations using a temperature-independent source of isoprene followed by simulations using a temperature-dependent source of isoprene at differing temperatures and NO_x emissions.

2 Methodology

2.1 Model Setup

We used the MECCA box model for this study to determine the important chemical processes for ozone production under different temperatures and NO_x conditions. The MECCA box model was set up as described in Coates and Butler (2015) and updated to include vertical mixing with the free troposphere and a diurnal cycle for the PBL height based on the data from the

BAERLIN 2014 campaign over Berlin, Germany (Bonn and et.al., 2016). The supplementary material includes further details of these updates.

Simulations were performed to broadly simulate urban conditions of central Europe with equinoctical conditions. The simulations started at 06:00 with a total run time of two days. Methane was fixed at 1.7 ppmv throughout the model run, carbon monoxide (CO) and ozone were initialised at 200 ppbv and 40 ppbv and then allowed to evolve freely throughout the simulation. All VOC emissions were held constant until noon of first day simulating a plume of freshly-emitted VOC.

In order to determine whether increased emissions of BVOC or faster chemistry is more important for the increase of ozone with temperature, model runs were repeated using a temperature-dependent and temperature-independent source of BVOC emissions. MEGAN2.1 (Guenther et al., 2012) specified the temperature-dependent BVOC emissions of isoprene, Sect. 2.3 provides further details. We considered isoprene as representative of all BVOC emissions as isoprene emissions are the most important on the global scale (Guenther et al., 2006). In reality, many other BVOC are emitted from varying vegetation types (Guenther et al., 2006) and increased temperature can also increase BVOC emissions through increased evaporation (Rubin et al., 2006).

Rasmussen et al. (2013) indicated that changing the chemical mechanism used by a model may also change the simulated ozone-temperature relationship and warranted further investigation. All simulations were repeated using different chemical mechanisms to investigate how well the relationship of ozone with temperature across NO_x gradients is represented. The reference chemical mechanism was the near-explicit Master Chemical Mechanism, MCMv3.2, (Jenkin et al., 1997), (Jenkin et al., 2003), (Saunders et al., 2003), (Rickard et al., 2015). The reduced chemical mechanisms in our study were Common Representative Intermediates, CRIv2 (Jenkin et al., 2008), Model for ozone and related chemical tracers, MOZART-4 (Emmons et al., 2010), Regional Acid Deposition Model, RADM2 (Stockwell et al., 1990) and the Carbon Bond Mechanism, CB05 (Yarwood et al., 2005). Coates and Butler (2015) described these chemical mechanisms and the implementation of these chemical mechanisms in MECCA. These reduced chemical mechanisms were chosen as they are commonly used by modelling groups in 3D regional and global models.

Separate box model simulations were performed with systematically varying the temperature between 288 and 313 K (15 – 40 °C). The only source of NO_x emissions in the box model was a constant source of NO emissions. Box model runs were performed with the NO emissions

Table 1: Total AVOC emissions in 2011 in tonnes from each SNAP category assigned from TNO-MACC_III emission inventory and temperature-independent biogenic VOC emissions in tonnes from Benelux region assigned from EMEP. The allocation of these emissions to MCMv3.2, CRIv2, CB05, MOZART-4 and RADM2 species is found in the supplementary material.

	SNAP1	SNAP2	SNAP34	SNAP5	SNAP6	SNAP71
Belgium	4494	9034	22152	5448	42809	6592
Netherlands	9140	12173	29177	8723	53535	16589
Luxembourg	121	44	208	1371	4482	1740
Total	13755	21251	62648	15542	100826	24921
	SNAP72	SNAP73	SNAP74	SNAP8	SNAP9	BVOC
Belgium	2446	144	210	6448	821	7042
Netherlands	3230	1283	1793	10067	521	1462
Luxembourg	1051	6	324	643	0	2198
Total	6727	1433	2327	17158	1342	10702

systematically varied from 5.0×10^9 to 1.5×10^{12} molecules (NO) $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ at each temperature used in this study.

2.2 VOC Emissions

Typical emissions of urban AVOC over central Europe were taken from TNO-MACC_III emission inventory for the Benelux (Belgium, Netherlands and Luxembourg) region for the year 2011. TNO-MACC_III is the current version of the TNO-MACC_II emission inventory created using the same methodology as Kuenen et al. (2014) and based upon improvements to the existing emission inventory during AQMEII-2 (Pouliot et al., 2015).

Temperature-independent emissions of the biogenic VOC isoprene and monoterpenes were calculated as a fraction of the total AVOC emissions from each country in the Benelux region. This data was obtained from the supplementary data available from the EMEP (European Monitoring and Evaluation Programme) model (Simpson et al., 2012). Temperature-dependent emissions of isoprene are detailed in Sect. 2.3.

AVOC emissions were allocated to SNAP (Selected Nomenclature for Air Pollution) source categories. Table 1 shows the tonnes of NMVOC emissions from each SNAP category and the temperature-independent BVOC emissions. These categorised AVOC emissions were assigned to chemical species and groups based on the country specific profiles for Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg provided by TNO. Most individual chemical species are represented by the MCMv3.2, otherwise the individual contributions of a group of NMVOC were further split into individual components using the detailed speciation of Passant (2002). For example, ‘xylenes’ are

one of the component chemical groups to many SNAP categories but the MCMv3.2 treats xylenes as the individual isomers (m-, o-, p-xylene) and the individual contributions of the individual isomers to a SNAP category was provided by Passant (2002). This approach was also used in von Schneidemesser et al. (2016) to allocate AVOC emissions from different solvent sector speciations to MCMv3.2 species.

Again similarly to von Schneidemesser et al. (2016), the NMVOC emissions were first assigned to chemical species represented by the MCMv3.2 and then mapped to the mechanism species representing NMVOC emissions in each reduced chemical mechanism. The NMVOC emissions in the reduced chemical mechanisms were weighted by the carbon numbers of the MCMv3.2 species and the emitted mechanism species. The supplementary data outlines the primary NMVOC and calculated emissions with each chemical mechanism.

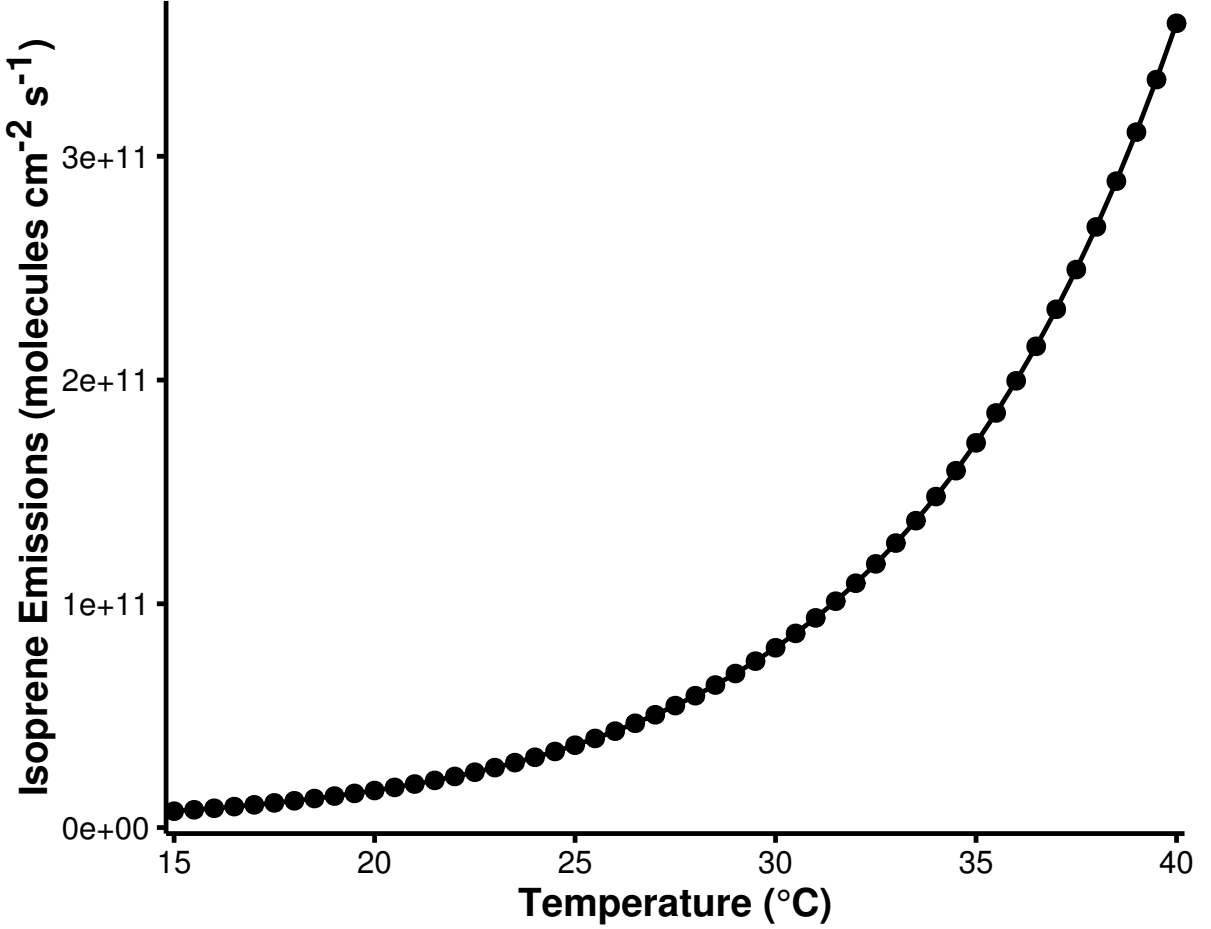
2.3 Temperature Dependent Isoprene Emissions

Temperature-dependent emissions of isoprene were estimated using the MEGAN2.1 model for calculating the emissions of VOC from vegetation (Guenther et al., 2012). Emissions from plants are dependent on variables including temperature, radiation and age but for the purpose of our study we are only interested in the effects of temperature, hence all variables except temperature were held constant.

The MEGAN2.1 parameters were chosen to give similar isoprene mixing ratios at 20 °C to the temperature-independent emissions of isoprene in order to compare the effects of increased isoprene emissions with temperature. The estimated emissions of isoprene with MEGAN2.1 using these assumptions, are illustrated in Fig. 1 and show the expected exponential increase in emissions with temperature (Guenther et al., 2006).

We compared simulated isoprene mixing ratios from our simulations to measured isoprene emissions from the urban area of Essen, Germany (Wagner and Kuttler, 2014) to verify whether our chosen variables for MEGAN2.1 produced realistic isoprene mixing ratios. At 20 °C, the estimated emissions of isoprene lead to 0.07 ppbv of isoprene in our model while at 30 °C, the increased emissions of isoprene using MEGAN2.1 estimations lead to 0.35 ppbv of isoprene in the model. In the measurement campaign over Essen, 0.1 ppbv of isoprene were measured at temperatures of 20 °C and 0.3 ppbv of isoprene were measured at 30 °C. This comparison indicates that the values chosen for calculating the temperature-dependent emissions of isoprene with MEGAN2.1 lead to reasonable values of isoprene mixing ratios.

Figure 1: The estimated isoprene emissions (molecules isoprene $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) at each temperature step used in the study. Isoprene emissions were estimated using the MEGAN2.1 algorithm (Guenther et al., 2012).



3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Ozone as a Function of NO_x and Temperature

Figure 2 depicts the maximum mixing ratio of ozone as a function of the total NO_x emissions on the first day of simulations and temperature when using temperature-independent and temperature-dependent source of isoprene emissions for each chemical mechanism. A non-linear relationship of ozone mixing ratios with NO_x and temperature is reproduced by each chemical mechanism. This non-linear relationship has a similar form to that determined by Pusede et al. (2014) using an analytical model constrained to observational measurements over the San Joaquin Valley in California.

Larger ozone mixing ratios are produced when using a temperature-dependent source of isoprene emissions in the ridges of the ozone contours and for higher emissions of NO_x in Fig. 2. The highest mixing ratios of ozone in Fig. 2 are produced at higher temperatures and high

Figure 2: Contours of maximum ozone mixing ratios as a function of the total NO_x emissions on the first day and temperature for each chemical mechanism using a temperature-dependent and temperature-independent source of isoprene emissions.

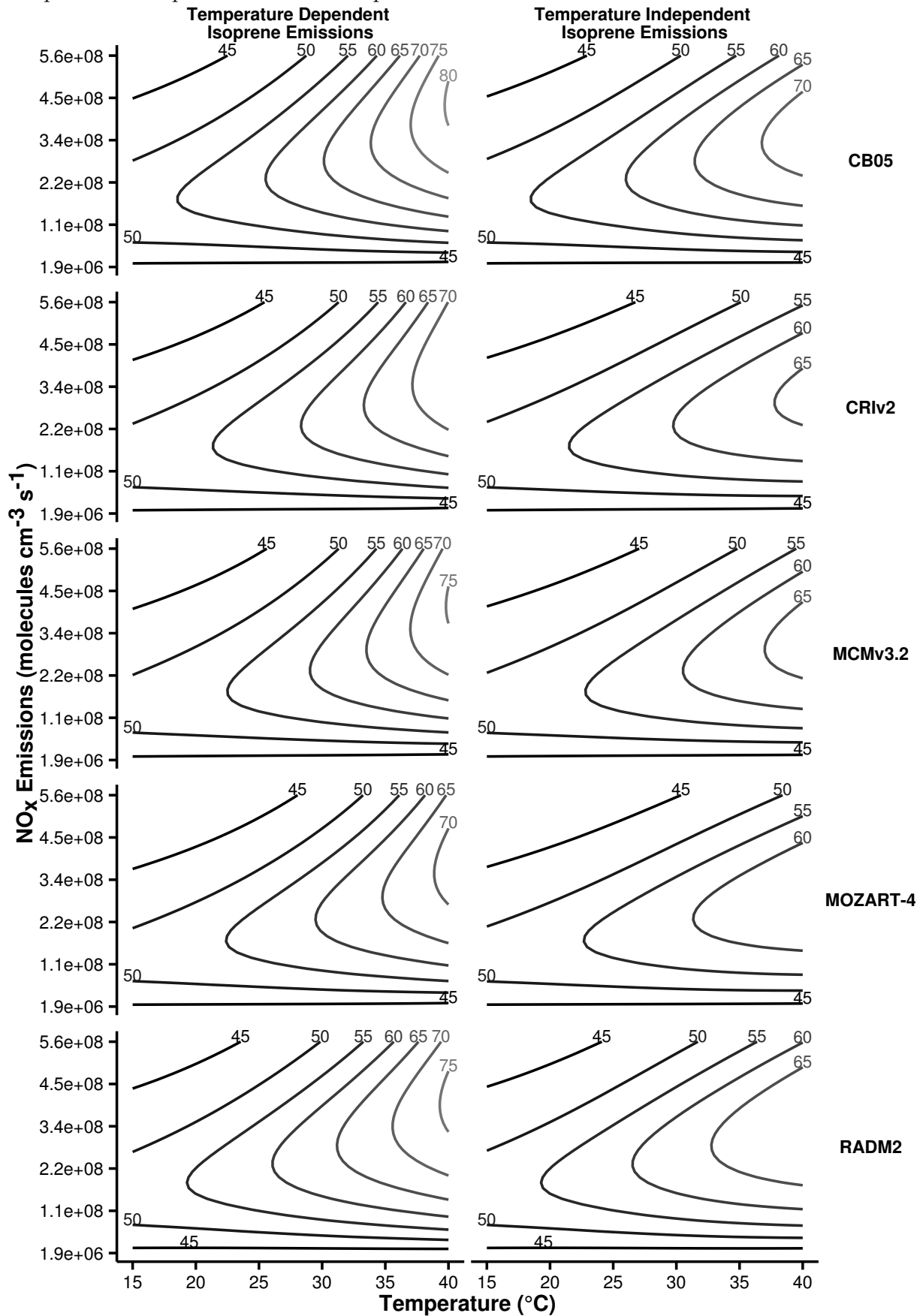
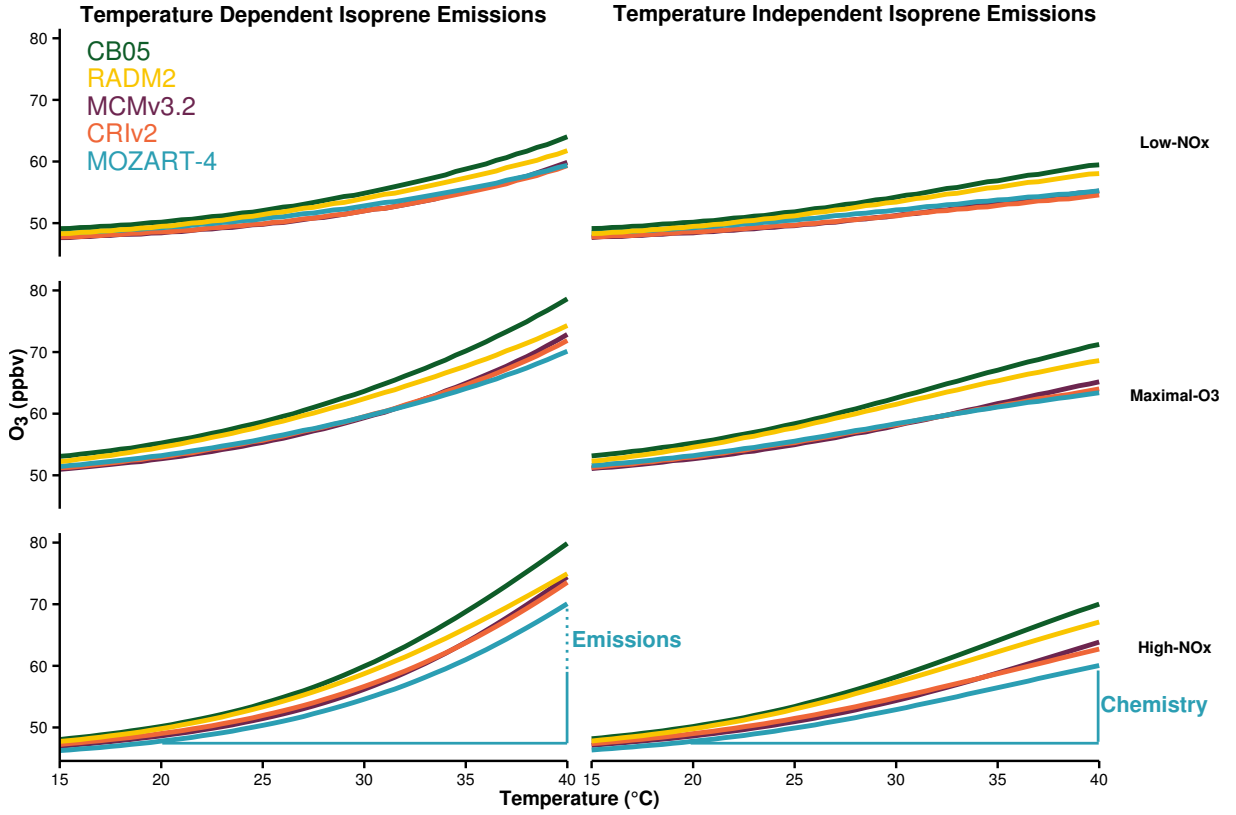


Figure 3: Ozone mixing ratios at each temperature are allocated to different NO_x -regimes of Fig. 2. The differences in ozone mixing ratios due to chemistry (solid line) and emissions (dotted line) are represented graphically for MOZART-4 with High- NO_x conditions and summarised in Table 2, the approach was used to calculate the differences with each chemical mechanism.



emissions of NO_x regardless of the source of isoprene emissions. Conversely, the least amount of ozone is produced with low emissions of NO_x over the whole temperature range (15 – 40 °C) when using both a temperature-independent and temperature-dependent source of isoprene emissions.

The contours of ozone mixing ratios as a function of NO_x and temperature can be split into three NO_x -regimes (Low- NO_x , Maximal- O_3 and High- NO_x). The Low- NO_x regime corresponds to the regions where there is little increase in ozone with temperature, also called NO_x -sensitive regime. The High- NO_x (or NO_x -saturated) regime is when ozone levels increase rapidly with temperature and the ridges of the contours in Fig. 2 correspond to regions of maximal ozone production and we call this the Maximal- O_3 regime. Pusede et al. (2014) have shown that temperature can be used as a proxy for VOC, thus we used the ratio of HNO_3 to H_2O_2 used by Sillman (1995) to determine NO_x -regimes for the non-linear relationship of ozone with NO_x and VOC to assign the ozone mixing ratios for each simulation to the defined NO_x regimes. Fig. 3 illustrates the mean ozone mixing ratio at each temperature in the three NO_x regimes for each chemical mechanism and each source of isoprene emissions.

The absolute increase in ozone at 40 °C from 20 °C due to faster chemistry is the difference in

Table 2: Increase in ozone mixing ratio (ppbv) due to chemistry and emissions at 40 °C from reference temperature (20 °C) in the NO_x-regimes of Fig. 3.

Chemical Mechanism	Source of Difference	Increase in Ozone at 40 °C from 20 °C (ppbv)		
		Low-NO _x	Maximal-O ₃	High-NO _x
MCMv3.2	Chemistry	6.8	12.5	15.2
	Emissions	4.6	7.7	10.6
CRIV2	Chemistry	6.0	11.1	13.7
	Emissions	4.8	7.9	10.8
MOZART-4	Chemistry	6.0	10.2	12.3
	Emissions	4.1	6.7	10.0
CB05	Chemistry	9.3	16.0	19.9
	Emissions	4.6	7.4	9.8
RADM2	Chemistry	8.6	14.1	17.3
	Emissions	3.8	5.7	7.8

ozone mixing ratios at 40 °C and 20 °C when using a temperature-independent source of isoprene emissions. When using a temperature-dependent source of isoprene emissions, the difference in ozone mixing ratios at 40 °C from 20 °C minus the increase due to faster chemistry, gives the absolute increase in ozone due to increased isoprene emissions. These differences are represented graphically in Fig. 3 and summarised in Table 2.

The results in Table 2 show that the absolute increase in ozone due to faster chemistry is larger than the absolute increase in ozone due to increased isoprene emissions for each chemical mechanism and each NO_x regime. Both Fig. 3 and Table 2 highlight that the absolute increase in ozone at 40 °C from 20 °C is largest with High-NO_x conditions. The increase in ozone mixing ratio at 40 °C from 20 °C due to faster chemistry with high-NO_x conditions is almost double that with Low-NO_x conditions. We shall explore which chemical processes are responsible for the increases in ozone mixing ratios at 40 °C from 20 °C by analysing O_x production budgets in Sect. 3.2.

Comparing the response of ozone mixing ratios to temperature in the reduced chemical mechanisms (CRIV2, MOZART-4, CB05 and RADM2) to the near-explicit MCMv3.2 chemical mechanism shows that the largest differences from the MCMv3.2 occur in the Maximal-O₃ and High-NO_x regimes. Table 2 also indicates that all reduced chemical mechanisms, except RADM2, have similar increases in ozone due to increased isoprene emissions to MCMv3.2. RADM2 produces 3 ppbv less ozone than the MCMv3.2 due to increased isoprene emissions consistently in each NO_x regime, indicating that this difference is due to how isoprene degradation chemistry is treated in RADM2.

The Tagged Ozone Production Potential (TOPP) is a measure of the number of molecules

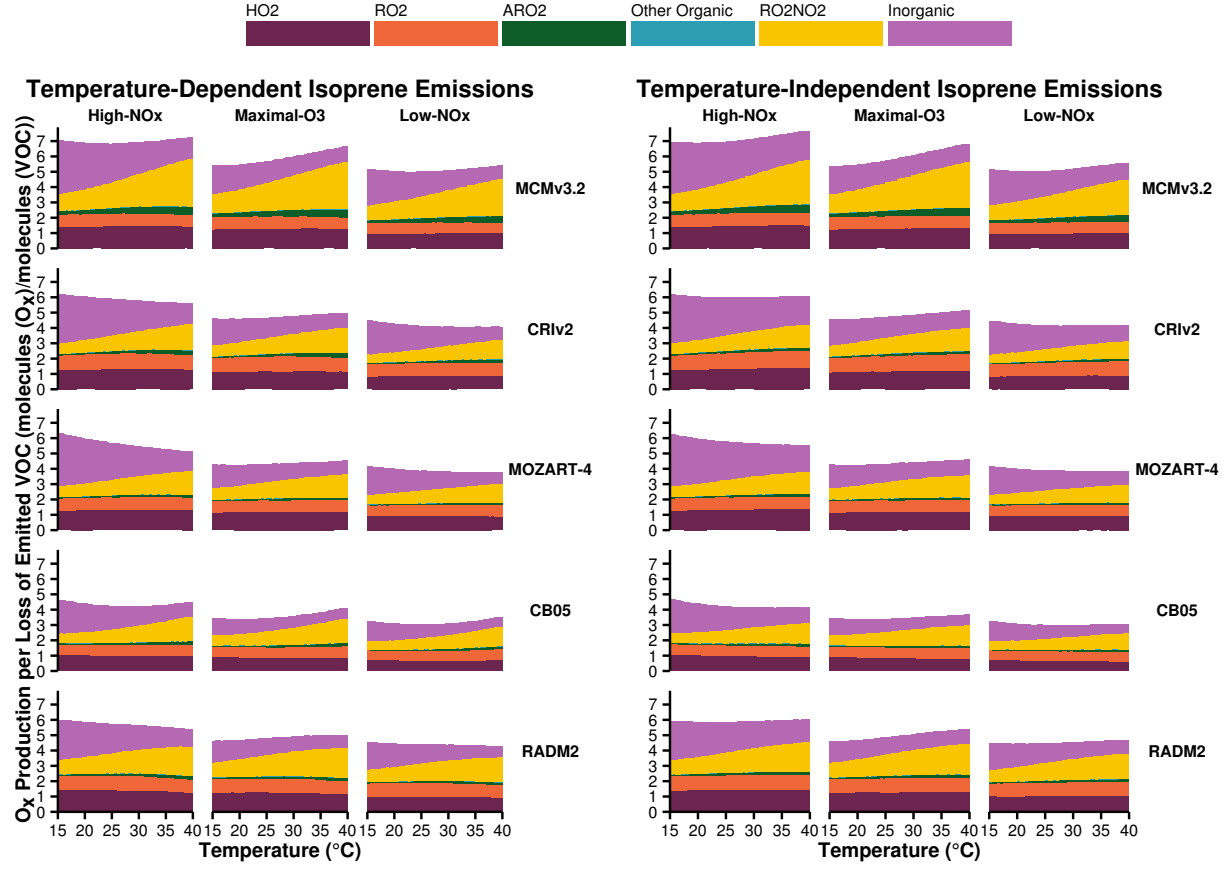
of ozone produced per molecule of VOC emitted originally defined in Butler et al. (2011) and used to compare different chemical mechanisms to the near-explicit MCMv3.2 in Coates and Butler (2015). Coates and Butler (2015) showed that less ozone is produced per molecule of isoprene emitted using RADM2 than with MCMv3.2. The degradation of isoprene has been extensively studied and it is well-known that the secondary degradation species methyl vinyl ketone (MVK) and methacrolein are signatures of isoprene degradation. All chemical mechanisms except RADM2 used in our study explicitly represent MVK and methacrolein (in the case of CB05, a lumped species representing both these secondary degradation products) production during isoprene degradation. RADM2 does not represent methacrolein and the mechanism species representing ketones represents a mixture of acetone and methyl ethyl ketone (MEK). Thus the secondary degradation of isoprene in RADM2 is unable to represent the ozone production from the further degradation of the signature secondary degradation products of isoprene, MVK and methacrolein. Updated versions of RADM2, RACM (Stockwell et al., 1997) and RACM2 (Goliff et al., 2013), sequentially include methacrolein and MVK and with these updates the TOPP values of isoprene approach the TOPP value of isoprene in the MCMv3.2 (Coates and Butler, 2015).

3.2 Ozone Production Budgets

The total day-time production budgets of O_x ($\equiv O_3 + NO_2 + O$) normalised by the total rate of oxidation of the emitted VOC are displayed in Fig. 4. The O_x production budgets are assigned to each NO_x regime for each chemical mechanism and source of isoprene emissions. The budgets allocated to the major sources, where ‘HO2’, ‘RO2’, ‘ARO2’ represent the reactions of NO with HO_2 , alkyl peroxy radicals and acyl peroxy radicals respectively. ‘RO2NO2’ represents the thermal decomposition of peroxy nitrates, ‘Inorganic’ represents all inorganic contributions to O_x production (primarily the de-excitation of O^1D to O) and any other remaining organic reactions producing O_x are included in the ‘Other Organic’ category.

In Fig. 4 the number of molecules of O_x produced per molecule of emitted VOC oxidised in High- NO_x conditions is similar when using either a temperature-dependent or a temperature-independent isoprene emissions for each chemical mechanism, the same is true for the Maximal- O_3 and Low- NO_x regimes. Thus the increases in isoprene emissions with temperature are balanced by the faster oxidation rates of the increased amounts of emitted isoprene. The highest amount of O_x is produced in the High- NO_x regime and the lowest amount of O_x is

Figure 4: Day-time O_x production budgets normalised by the total oxidation rate of emitted VOC in the NO_x -regimes of Fig. 3. The budgets are allocated to categories of inorganic reactions, peroxy nitrate (RO_2NO_2) decomposition, reactions of NO with HO_2 , alkyl peroxy radicals (RO_2) and acyl peroxy radicals (ARO_2). All other reactions contributing to O_x budgets are allocated to the ‘Other Organic’ category.



produced in the Low- NO_x regime, mirroring the O_3 mixing ratios in the different NO_x regimes in Fig.3. For example, MCMv3.2 produces seven molecules of O_x per molecule of emitted VOC oxidised in High- NO_x conditions decreasing to about six and five molecules of O_x per molecule of emitted VOC oxidised in the Maximal- O_3 and Low- NO_x regimes.

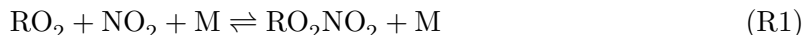
In each NO_x regime, each reduced chemical mechanism produces up to two molecules of O_x per molecule of emitted VOC oxidised less than the MCMv3.2 despite the reduced chemical mechanisms producing similar absolute amounts of ozone to the MCMv3.2 (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3). This is similar the results of Coates and Butler (2015) where many reduced mechanisms produced similar absolute amounts of ozone but the amount of ozone produced per emitted VOC in the reduced chemical mechanisms was lower than that of the MCMv3.2. A faster breakdown of the emitted VOC in reduced chemical mechanisms compared to the MCMv3.2 led to lower amounts of ozone produced per emitted VOC in the reduced chemical mechanisms.

Peroxy nitrate (RO_2NO_2) decomposition has the largest contribution to the normalised O_x

production at higher temperatures in Fig. 4 and will be analysed further in Sect. 3.2.1. While the contribution of RO₂NO₂ decomposition to normalised O_x production increases with temperature, the contribution of inorganic reactions to normalised O_x production decreases with temperature in all NO_x regimes, each chemical mechanism and regardless of the source of isoprene emissions. Whereas the contributions of the reaction of NO with the peroxy radicals (HO₂, RO₂ and ARO₂ in Fig. 4) to the normalised production of O_x do not increase strongly with temperature indicating that these processes are strongly related to the faster degradation of the emitted VOC with temperature.

3.2.1 Peroxy Nitrates

We shall now turn our focus to the peroxy nitrate (RO₂NO₂) contribution to the normalised O_x production as this category has a strongly temperature-dependent contribution in Fig. 4. Peroxy nitrates are formed from the reactions of alkyl and acyl peroxy nitrates with NO₂ (Reaction R1) and are an important reservoir species for both peroxy radicals and NO_x.

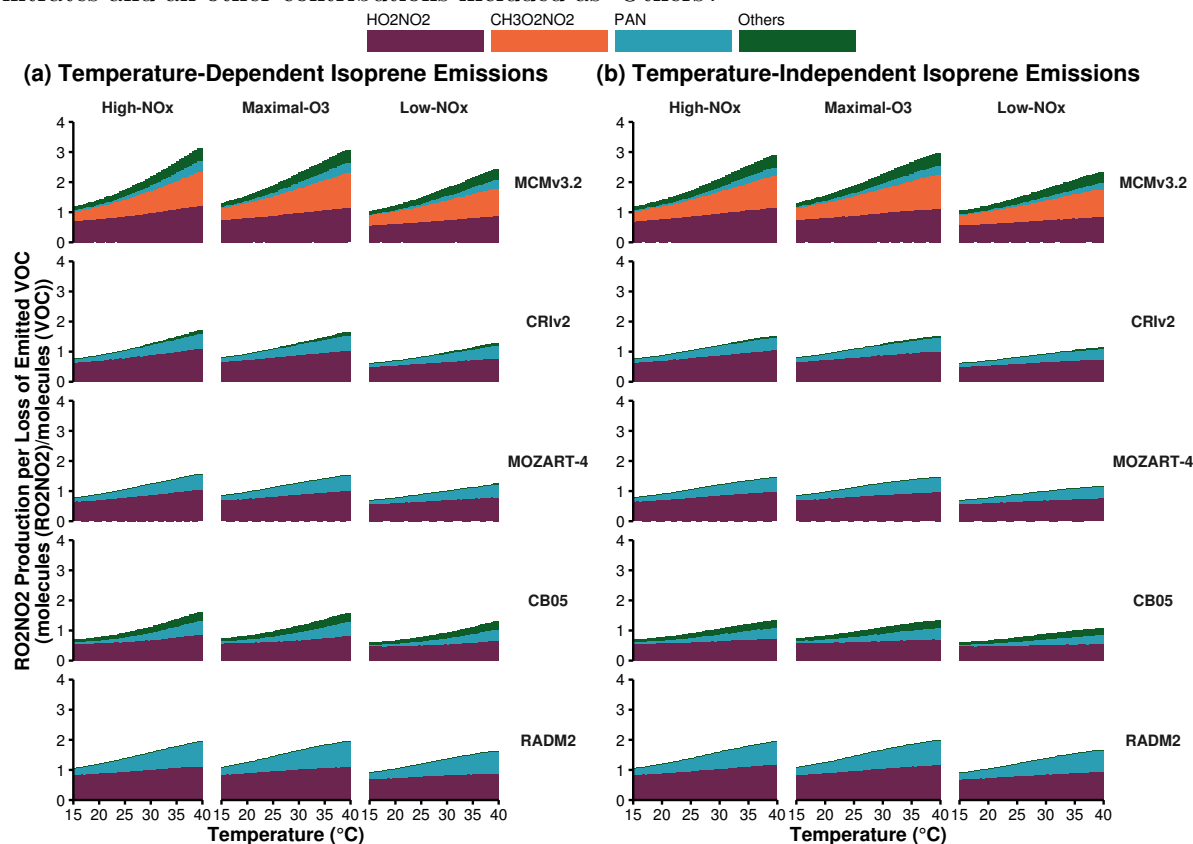


The chemical bond of RO₂NO₂ is quite weak with thermal decomposition being the most important chemical process and the rate of thermal decomposition increases strongly with temperature. At low temperatures, RO₂NO₂ can accumulate and be transported downwind of emissions of the sources of its precursors (VOC and NO_x). After thermal decomposition of RO₂NO₂, the release of NO₂ and peroxy radicals can promote production of O₃ downwind (Moxim et al., 1996).

Peroxy nitrates are formed from both alkyl and acyl peroxy radicals produced during the secondary degradation of emitted VOC. The most important alkyl peroxy nitrates are pernitric acid (HO₂NO₂) and methylperoxy nitrate (CH₃O₂NO₂), while peroxy acetyl nitrate (PAN, CH₃C(O)O₂NO₂) and peroxy propionyl nitrate (PPN, C₂H₅C(O)O₂NO₂) are important acyl peroxy nitrates. The alkyl peroxy nitrates have a weaker RO₂–NO₂ bond than acyl peroxy nitrates hence alkyl peroxy nitrates have a shorter lifetime than acyl peroxy nitrates. For example, CH₃O₂NO₂ has a lifetime of 0.5 seconds at 298 K while PAN has a lifetime of 51 minutes at 298 K (Orlando and Tyndall, 2012).

Each chemical mechanism used in our study represents HO₂NO₂ and PAN, although in

Figure 5: Day-time RO_2NO_2 production budgets normalised by the total oxidation rate of emitted VOC in the NO_x -regimes of Fig. 3. The total budgets are allocated to the most important peroxy nitrates and all other contributions included as ‘Others’.



many reduced chemical mechanisms the PAN mechanism species represents $\text{CH}_3\text{C}(\text{O})\text{O}_2\text{NO}_2$ and other acyl peroxy nitrates. This representation of PAN in reduced chemical mechanisms can overestimate PAN levels compared to more detailed chemical mechanisms (Luecken et al., 1999). The near-explicit MCMv3.2 represent a diverse range of peroxy nitrates including $\text{CH}_3\text{O}_2\text{NO}_2$ and about 280 acyl peroxy nitrates.

Figure 5 displays the normalised production budgets of RO_2NO_2 by the total oxidation rate of the emitted NMVOC, similar to Fig. 4, for each chemical mechanism in each NO_x regime and when using a temperature-independent and temperature-dependent source of isoprene emissions. The large contribution of $\text{CH}_3\text{O}_2\text{NO}_2$ to normalised RO_2NO_2 production in MCMv3.2 is missing from the budgets of each reduced chemical mechanism as $\text{CH}_3\text{O}_2\text{NO}_2$ is not represented in any of the reduced chemical mechanisms. In fact the number of molecules of RO_2NO_2 produced per molecule of emitted VOC oxidised in each reduced chemical mechanism is similar to that of MCMv3.2 without the contribution of $\text{CH}_3\text{O}_2\text{NO}_2$ for the separate NO_x regimes and regardless of isoprene source.

The contribution of RO_2NO_2 to the normalised O_x production in Fig. 4 is largest in the

Table 3: Slopes (m_{O_3-T} in ppbv per $^{\circ}C$) of the linear fit to the ozone-temperature correlations in Fig. 6

(a) Slope of linear fit of the ERA-Interim observational data and WRF-Chem model output using MOZART-4 and RADM2 chemistry over central and eastern Germany and western and central Poland.

	Germany	Poland
ERA-Interim	2.15	1.94
WRF-Chem with MOZART-4	2.05	2.00
WRF-Chem with RADM2	1.78	1.77

(b) Slope of linear fit of box model experiments for each chemical mechanism, source of isoprene emissions allocated to the three NO_x -regimes.

Mechanism	Isoprene Emissions	Low- NO_x	Maximal- O_3	High- NO_x
MCMv3.2	Temperature Dependent	0.42	0.74	0.93
	Temperature Independent	0.28	0.51	0.59
CRIv2	Temperature Dependent	0.40	0.71	0.90
	Temperature Independent	0.25	0.47	0.55
MOZART-4	Temperature Dependent	0.38	0.65	0.81
	Temperature Independent	0.25	0.44	0.49
CB05	Temperature Dependent	0.52	0.89	1.12
	Temperature Independent	0.39	0.67	0.79
RADM2	Temperature Dependent	0.48	0.79	0.97
	Temperature Independent	0.37	0.61	0.70

MCMv3.2 than the reduced chemical mechanisms due to the representation of $CH_3O_2NO_2$ in the MCMv3.2. If reduced chemical mechanisms represent $CH_3O_2NO_2$ chemistry then this would improve the representation of the total RO_2NO_2 production which would have the added effect of improving the representation of O_x production budgets.

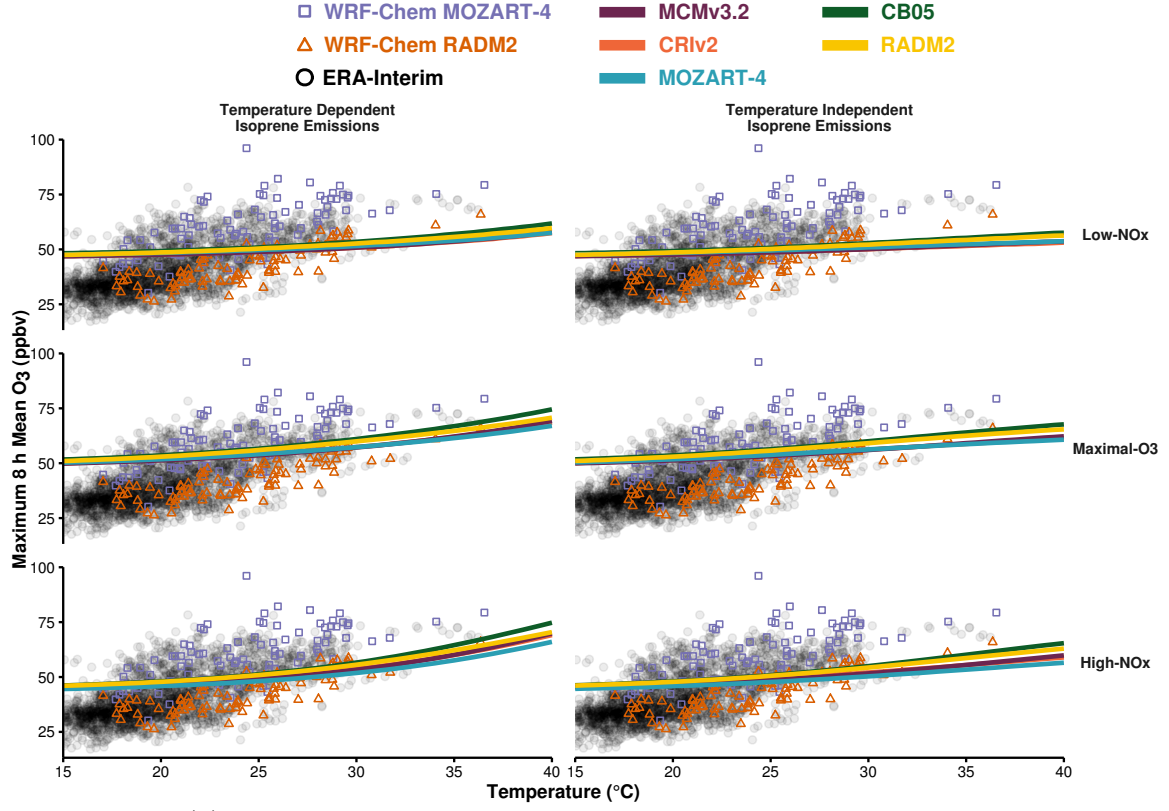
3.3 Comparison to Observations and 3-D Model Simulations

This section compares the results from the idealised box model simulations to real-world observations and model output from a 3-D model verifying the applicability of our results to more realistic atmospheric conditions. Otero et al. (2016) used the interpolated observational data set of the ERA-Interim re-analysis data set of Schnell et al. (2015) which includes the daily maximum temperature and daily maximum 8 h mean of ozone for the years 1998–2012 over Europe. In their study, Otero et al. (2016) showed that over the summer (JJA) months, temperature is the main meteorological driver of ozone production over many regions of central Europe. Katie provided model output from the 3-D WRF-Chem regional model set-up over the European domain for simulations of the year 2007 using MOZART-4 and RADM2 chemistry .

Katie
ref.

Figure 6: The maximum 8-h mean ozone from each box model experiment (temperature-dependent and temperature-independent isoprene emissions), allocated to the different NO_x regimes for each chemical mechanisms (solid lines). The box model ozone-temperature correlation is overlaid with the summer 2007 ERA-Interim data (black circles) and WRF-Chem output using MOZART-4 (purple boxes) and RADM2 (orange triangles).

(a) Ozone-Temperature correlation over central and eastern Germany



(b) Ozone-Temperature correlation over central and western Poland

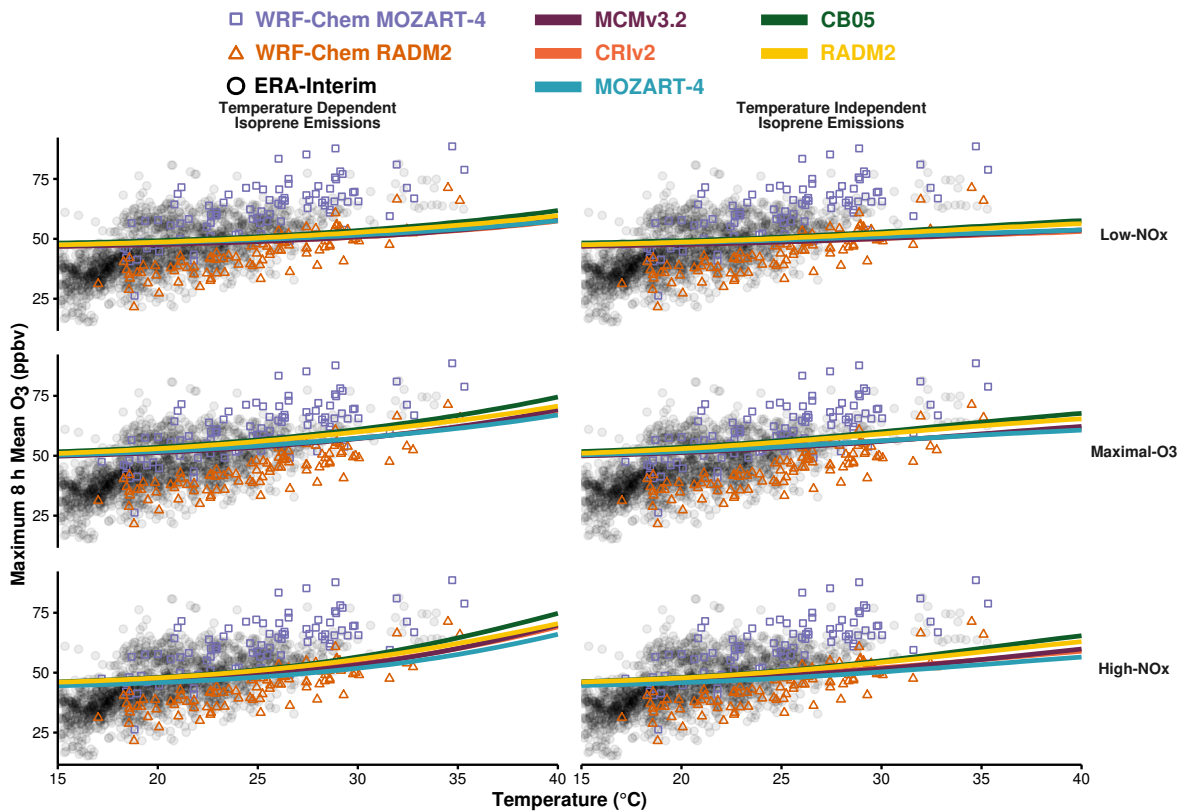


Figure 6 compares the summer data of 2007 from observations (ERA-Interim), WRF-Chem simulations and the maximum 8 h mean ozone from the box model simulations using a temperature-independent and temperature-dependent source of isoprene emissions for each chemical mechanism and allocated to the different NO_x -regimes. In Fig. 6, only days where the daily maximum temperature corresponded to the temperature range in our study (15–40 °C) were considered from the ERA-Interim observational data set. We selected two regions of the gridded domains of the observations and WRF-Chem output to central and eastern Germany (Fig. 6a) and central and western Poland (Fig. 6b) as the summertime ozone values in these regions are correlated with temperature (Otero et al., 2016). Table 3 summarises the slopes ($m_{\text{O}_3\text{-T}}$) of the linear fits of all the ozone-temperature correlations displayed in Fig. 6 in ppbv of ozone per °C.

The spread of the ERA-Interim ozone-temperature values over both Germany and Poland are generally captured by the combined WRF-Chem simulations using both MOZART-4 and RADM2 chemistry. However, the ozone-temperature outputs from WRF-Chem using MOZART-4 chemistry only reproduces the higher ozone values with temperature from ERA-Interim but not the lower values. On the other hand, WRF-Chem with RADM2 only reproduces the lower ozone values from the ERA-Interim data. The slope of the linear ozone-temperature correlation from the WRF-Chem simulations using MOZART-4 is closer to the ERA-Interim data than the WRF-Chem simulations using RADM2. However, the ozone values at the lower end of the temperature range (15–18 °C) are not reproduced with WRF-Chem using either MOZART-4 or RADM2 chemistry.

The box model simulations using a temperature-independent source of isoprene emissions do not reproduce the spread of ozone-temperature values of ERA-Interim, also indicated by the $m_{\text{O}_3\text{-T}}$ values in Table 3. When using a temperature-dependent source of isoprene emissions in the box model, the ozone-temperature values from the ERA-Interim data over Germany and Poland are improved as seen by the $m_{\text{O}_3\text{-T}}$ values in Table 3 but still lower than the observed slopes. High- NO_x conditions with a temperature-dependent source of isoprene produce the most similar ozone-temperature slope to the observational data. However, this closest $m_{\text{O}_3\text{-T}}$ from the box model simulations is still lower by a factor of two than the observed ozone-temperature slope. In particular, the box model simulations over-predict the ozone values at lower temperatures and under-predict the ozone values at higher temperatures than the ERA-Interim data, regardless of the chemical mechanism.

One reason for the box model simulations being less sensitive to temperature than the observations are related to the set-up of the experiments compared to observations. Observations consider the total effect of temperature on ozone, while models represent the individual effects of temperature on ozone separately. In other words, observational studies look at the total derivative of ozone with temperature while models look at the partial derivatives of the temperature-dependent processes influencing ozone.

$$\frac{d[\text{O}_3]}{dT} = \frac{\partial[\text{O}_3]}{\partial[\text{BVOC}]} \frac{\partial[\text{BVOC}]}{\partial T} + \frac{\partial[\text{O}_3]}{\partial \text{Chemistry}} \frac{\partial \text{Chemistry}}{\partial T} + \frac{\partial[\text{O}_3]}{\partial \text{Stagnation}} \frac{\partial \text{Stagnation}}{\partial T} + \dots$$

In our simulations, we focused on determining whether faster chemistry or increased BVOC emissions are more important for the increase of ozone with temperature from a freshly-emitted plume not under stagnant conditions. In stagnant atmospheric conditions, the ozone built-up from the previous day is not transported away from the region and can lead to increased ozone levels with the production of fresh ozone from new emissions. 3-D models such as WRF-Chem would play a valuable role for further work also considering stagnant conditions as these models also include meteorological processes missing from our box model set-up. Despite these short-comings of our box model set-up, the detailed analysis of the chemistry provided in this study should complement any future analysis of the ozone-temperature relationship.

4 Conclusions

In this study, we have simulated idealised urban conditions with a box model over a range of temperatures and NO_x conditions using a temperature-independent and temperature-dependent source of isoprene emissions. These simulations were repeated using reduced chemical mechanism schemes (CRIV2, MOZART-4, CB05 and RADM2) typically used in 3-D models and compared to the near-explicit MCMv3.2 chemical mechanism. Each chemical mechanism produced a non-linear relationship of ozone with temperature and NO_x with the most ozone produced under high emissions of NO_x . Conversely, lower NO_x levels led to a minimal increase of ozone with temperature regardless of the source of isoprene. Thus future air quality under the influence of higher temperatures due to climate change would benefit from reducing NO_x emissions.

Allocating the ozone from each box model simulation to separate NO_x regimes indicated that faster chemistry with temperature is responsible for a greater absolute increase in ozone than increased isoprene emissions. The larger increase of ozone with temperature due to faster

chemistry was reproduced by each chemical mechanism and in each NO_x regime.

Production budgets of ozone were normalised by the total oxidation rate of emitted VOC and allocated to the major contributing processes: peroxy nitrate decomposition, reaction of NO with HO_2 , alkyl and acyl peroxy radicals, inorganic reactions and any other organic reactions. The total normalised ozone production budget in each NO_x regime was larger in the MCMv3.2 than any reduced chemical mechanism.

The increase in thermal decomposition of peroxy nitrates with temperature has the largest contribution to ozone production with chemical mechanism and each NO_x regime. The contribution of peroxy nitrates is larger in MCMv3.2 due to the inclusion of methylperoxy nitrate chemistry that is not included in any other chemical mechanism used in this study. Including methylperoxy nitrate chemistry in reduced chemical mechanisms would increase the number of molecules of ozone produced per molecule of emitted VOC oxidised.

The slope ($m_{\text{O}_3\text{-T}}$) of the linear fit of ozone-temperature values from observational data (ERA-Interim) over Europe was twice as high as the closest slope using the box model (temperature-dependent emissions of isoprene and high emissions of NO_x). Compared to WRF-Chem output using MOZART-4 and RADM2 chemistry, the ozone-temperature values from the box model are again less-sensitive to temperature than the WRF-Chem output. The box model does not represent stagnant atmospheric conditions that are represented by observational values and simulated by 3-D models that include meteorology, such as WRF-Chem. Future work looking at the influence of temperature on ozone should include stagnant conditions to represent more realistic atmospheric conditions. Any modelling work addressing this should also consider a range of NO_x conditions as this influences the amount of ozone produced.

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