



1 Investigation of the summer 2018 European ozone air pollution episodes using 2 novel satellite data and modelling 3 Richard J. Pope^{1,2}, Brian J. Kerridge^{3,4}, Martyn P. Chipperfield^{1,2}, Richard Siddans^{3,4}, Barry G. Latter^{3,4}, 4 Lucy J. Ventress^{3,4}, Matilda A. Pimlott¹, Wuhu Feng^{1,5}, Edward Comyn-Platt⁶, Garry D. Hayman⁷, 5 Stephen R. Arnold¹ and Ailish M. Graham¹ 6 7 1: School of Earth and Environment, University of Leeds, Leeds, United Kingdom 8 9 2: National Centre for Earth Observation, University of Leeds, Leeds, United Kingdom 10 11 3: Remote Sensing Group, STFC Rutherford Appleton Laboratory, Chilton, United Kingdom 12 13 4: National Centre for Earth Observation, STFC Rutherford Appleton Laboratory, Chilton, United 14 Kingdom 15 16 5: National Centre for Atmospheric Science, University of Leeds, Leeds, United Kingdom 17 18 6: European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts, Reading, UK 19 20 7: Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Wallingford, United Kingdom 21 22 Submitted to Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics 23 Correspondence to: Richard J. Pope (r.j.pope@leeds.ac.uk) 24 Abstract: 25 In the summer of 2018, Europe experienced an intense heat wave which coincided with several 26 persistent large-scale ozone (O₃) pollution episodes. Novel satellite data of lower tropospheric 27 column O₃ from the Global Ozone Monitoring Experiment-2 (GOME-2) and Infrared Atmospheric 28 Sounding Interferometer (IASI) on the MetOp satellite showed substantial enhancements in 2018 29 relative to other years since 2012. Surface observations also showed ozone enhancements across 30 large regions of continental Europe in summer 2018 compared to 2017. Enhancements to surface 31 temperature and the O₃ precursor gases carbon monoxide and methanol in 2018 were co-retrieved 32 from MetOp observations by the same scheme. This analysis was supported by the TOMCAT 33 chemistry transport model (CTM) to investigate processes driving the observed O₃ enhancements. 34 Through several targeted sensitivity experiments we show that meteorological processes, and 35 emissions to a secondary order, were important for controlling the elevated O₃ concentrations at the 36 surface. However, mid-tropospheric (~500 hPa) O₃ enhancements were dominated by 37 meteorological processes. We find that contributions from stratospheric O₃ intrusions ranged 38 between 15 - 40%. Analysis of back trajectories indicates that the import of O₃-enriched air masses 39 into Europe originated over the North Atlantic substantially increasing O₃ in the 500 hPa layer during 40 summer 2018. 41 42



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1. Introduction

44 Over the past two decades there have been several intense summer-time heatwaves over Europe 45 (e.g. 2003 over continental Europe (Scott et al., 2004), 2006 over north-western Europe (Rebetez et 46 al., 2008) and 2010 across eastern Europe and Russia (Matsueda et al., 2011)). With current and 47 future climate change, increasing average global surface temperature is expected to trigger more 48 frequent and intense heatwaves (Lhotka et al., 2017; Guerreiro et al., 2018). The summer-time 2018 49 heatwave across predominantly north-western and central Europe and Scandinavia generated 50 temperature anomalies of approximately 2.0-4.0 K (Li et al., 2020; Drouard et al., 2020). Dynamically, 51 it was caused by a combination of intense anticyclonic blocking systems, Rossby wave dynamics and 52 the positive phase of the summer-time North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO+) (Li et al., 2020; Liu et al., 53 2020; Drouard et al., 2020). Environmentally, the summer 2018 heatwave caused severe drought 54 conditions with decreased precipitation and soil moisture content (Bastos et al., 2020; Dirmeyer et 55 al., 2020), while negatively impacting natural vegetation (e.g. decreased gross primary productivity 56 (Smith et al., 2020; Bastos et al., 2020)). From a human health perspective, the 2018 heatwave 57 caused 863 temperature related excess deaths in the UK (PHE, 2019).

58 As well as dynamical and vegetation responses, enhancements in atmospheric pollutants from 59 heatwaves can lead to a degradation in air quality (AQ). Firstly, anticyclonic conditions (i.e. 60 atmospheric blocking) have been shown to cause the accumulation of primary air pollutants such as 61 carbon monoxide (CO; Thomas and Devasthale, 2014), nitrogen dioxide (NO2; Pope et al., 2014) and 62 particulate matter (i.e. PM_{2.5}; Graham et al., 2020) to hazardous levels. Secondly, higher 63 temperatures during blocking events, which can trap and accumulate existing pollutants (e.g. Pope 64 et al., 2016), can lead to the secondary formation of tropospheric ozone (O_3). Elevated surface O_3 is 65 associated with adverse health impacts (Doherty et al., 2017; Jerrett et al., 2009) with ailments such 66 as asthma, reduced lung function and disease (WHO, 2021). It also has adverse impacts on the 67 natural biosphere (Sitch et al., 2007) and agriculture (Hollaway et al., 2012; van Dingenen et al., 68 2009).

In this study, we use surface and satellite observations of O_3 , in combination with the well-evaluated TOMCAT global chemical transport model (CTM), to investigate the impact of the summer 2018 heatwave on European AQ and determine the key processes driving observed surface/tropospheric O_3 enhancements. We describe the observations and model we have used in Section 2. Section 3 and Section 4 discusses our results and discussion/conclusions, respectively.

2. Observations and Model

2.1. Satellite and Surface Observations

We use satellite observations of lower tropospheric O_3 (i.e. sub-column O_3 (SCO₃) between the surface and 450 hPa) from the Global Ozone Monitoring Experiment (GOME-2) and the Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI) instruments on-board ESA's MetOp-A satellite, which was launched in 2006 into a sun-synchronous polar orbit with equator crossing times of 9:30 (day) and 21:30 (night). GOME-2 is a nadir-viewing spectrometer with spectral coverage in the ultraviolet-visible (UV-Vis) of 240–790 nm (Riese et al., 2012) and a ground footprint of 40 km \times 80 km in the first part of the mission and 40 km \times 40 km from 2013 (once Metop-B was commissioned). IASI is a Michelson interferometer which observes the infrared spectral range 645 to 2760 cm⁻¹ with spectral sampling of 0.25 cm⁻¹ (Illingworth et al., 2011). It measures simultaneously in four fields of view



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(circular at nadir with a diameter of 12 km) which are scanned across track to sample a 2200 km-wide swath (Clerbaux et al., 2009).

87 For GOME-2, the Rutherford Appleton Laboratory (RAL) scheme uses an optimal estimation 88 algorithm (Rodgers, 2000) to retrieve ozone height-resolved ozone distributions spanning the 89 stratosphere and troposphere (Miles et al., 2015). The scheme applied to GOME-2 has been 90 developed from that used first for GOME-1 on-board ERS-2 (Munro et al., 1998; Forster et al., 2007). 91 This is a multi-step scheme in which profile information is first retrieved in the stratosphere by 92 exploiting wavelength-dependent absorption in the O₃ Hartley band (270-307nm) and is then 93 extended into the troposphere by exploiting temperature-dependent spectral structure in the O₃ 94 Huggins bands (325-335nm). For IASI, O₃ profiles are retrieved using an extended version of RAL's 95 Infrared-Microwave-Sounding (IMS) scheme, which is described in Pope et al., (2021) and Palmer et 96 al., (2022). The IMS core scheme was originally developed to retrieve temperature, water vapour 97 and stratospheric O₃ profiles along with surface spectral emissivity and cloud jointly from co-located 98 measurements by IASI, the Microwave Humidity Sounder (MHS) and the Advanced Microwave 99 Sounding Unit (AMSU-A) on MetOp (RAL Space, 2015). GOME-2 O₃ data were filtered for a geometric 100 cloud fraction less than 0.2, a solar zenith angle less than 80°, a cost function less than 200.0 and a 101 convergence flag equal to 1.0. IASI data were filtered for a geometric cloud fraction less than 0.2 and 102 a cost function less than 1000.0.

We also use surface O₃ observations from the European Monitoring and Evaluation Programme (EMEP) network for May-August 2017 and 2018. In total, we used 83 spatial collocated EMEP sites in both years years across Europe. Here, data at individual sites were selected where the corresponding data flag was set to 0.0.

2.2. Modelling & Sensitivity Experiments

108 In this study the TOMCAT CTM (Chipperfield, 2006) is forced by European Centre for Medium-Range 109 Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) ERA-Interim reanalysis meteorology (Dee et al., 2011) and run at a 110 horizontal resolution of 2.8° × 2.8° with 31 vertical levels from the surface to 10 hPa. The model 111 includes detailed tropospheric chemistry, including 229 gas-phase reactions and 82 advected tracers 112 (Monks et al., 2017), and heterogeneous chemistry driven by size-resolved aerosol from the 113 GLOMAP module (Mann et al., 2010). Simulations used here include year-specific anthropogenic 114 emissions from MACCity (Granier et al., 2011) and fire emissions from the Global Fire Assimilation 115 System (GFAS, Kaiser et al., 2012). Year-specific off-line biogenic volatile organic compounds (VOCs) 116 emissions for acetone, methanol, isoprene and monoterpenes were simulated by the Joint UK Land 117 Environment Simulator (JULES - Pacifico et al., 2011; Best et al., 2011; Clark et al., 2011). All other 118 biogenic VOC emissions are climatological values and provided by the Chemistry-Climate Model 119 Initiative (CCMI) (Morgenstern et al., 2017). The global budgets of the JULES VOC emissions are low 120 in comparison to the climatological CCMI emissions, so were scaled up on a regional basis, while 121 retaining the 2017-2018 step change related to the 2018 summer heat wave. The full details of 122 JULES VOC emissions scaling can be found in Supplementary Material (SM) 3. The model was run for 123 2017 and 2018 with output at 6-hourly intervals (i.e. 00, 06, 12 and 18 UTC). Here, each year was run 124 with its respective meteorology and emissions and given the labels Met17 Emis17 (representing 125 2017) and Met18_Emis18 (representing 2018).

To explore the importance of emission and meteorological processes behind the elevated European summer 2018 tropospheric O₃ levels, a 1-year model sensitivity experiment was performed using





2018 meteorology but 2017 emissions (i.e. Met18_Emis17). Therefore, the difference between Met18 Emis17 and Met17 Emis17 highlights the impact of fixed emissions (i.e. 2017 emissions for both years), while the Met18 Emis18 minus Met18 Emis17 highlights the impact of fixed meteorology (i.e. 2018 meteorology for both years). These are compared with the control differences for 2018-2017 (Met18_Emis18- Met17_Emis17). From here on in, we refer to the control differences, fixed emission differences and the fixed meteorology differences as CTL DIFF, FIXED EMIS DIFF and FIXED MET DIFF, respectively. TOMCAT also includes a stratospheric O₃ tracer (i.e. tags O₃ in the model which originated in the stratosphere). This was used to investigate the impact of stratospheric O₃ intrusion into the troposphere. TOMCAT has been used in a number of previous studies to investigate air quality and tropospheric composition (e.g. Richards et al., 2013; Emmons et al., 2015; Pope et al., 2016; Pope 2020) whose results give confidence in the model's ability to simulate European tropospheric O₃ in this study. Overall, when compared with observations, TOMCAT has good spatial agreement with both GOME-2 and IASI and can reasonably reproduce the 2018 SCO₃ enhancement in 2018 verses 2017 (SM 4). The model also has good agreement, both in magnitude and seasonality, with the EMEP observed

2.3 ROTRAJ Back-trajectories

surface concentrations (SM 4).

We use the Reading Offline Trajectory Model (ROTRAJ) to generate air mass back-trajectories (Methven et al., 2003) to assess the import of tropospheric O₃ into Europe. ROTRAJ is a Lagrangian atmospheric transport model driven by meteorology from the same ECMWF ERA-Interim reanalyses as used by TOMCAT. Velocity fields at the Lagrangian particle positions are determined by cubic Lagrange interpolation in the vertical, bilinear interpolation in the horizontal and linear interpolation in time. Kinematic back-trajectories were released at 6-hourly intervals (i.e. at 00, 06, 12 and 18 UTC) from Paris and Berlin, both central locations over Europe in the region of summer-time 2018 O₃ enhancements, between the 1st May and 31st August for both 2017 and 2018. The trajectories were released at the surface and at approximately 500 hPa and integrated for 10 days with 6-hourly output (i.e. 41 trajectory points including the starting location) to investigate the origin of air masses arriving in these altitude regions of enhanced summer-time O₃ in 2018. In total, ROTRAJ was therefore run 8 times (2 years × 2 altitudes × 2 locations).

To quantify the import of tropospheric O_3 into Europe, for each trajectory, all the trajectory points were co-located with corresponding TOMCAT O_3 mixing ratio values (i.e. the horizontal and vertical grid box the trajectory point sits within and corresponding time stamp) and then the average O_3 -weighted back-trajectory (O_3 -WBT) determined (i.e. back-trajectories with larger O_3 WBT values come from air masses with larger O_3 content).

3. Results

3.1 Surface Temperature

Several studies (e.g. Li et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2020; Drouard et al., 2020) have documented the intense heat wave across Europe in the summer of 2018. This is further shown in **Figure 1** which compares surface temperature, co-retrieved with ozone and other variables from MetOp-A by the IMS scheme, between 2017 and 2018. In May, higher temperatures occur across Scandinavia (5.0-10.0 K), eastern Europe (3.0-7.0 K) and the UK (1.0-3.0 K), but temperatures are lower (-3.0 to -1.0 K) across Iberia. In June, a similar spatial distribution occurs but the magnitude of the differences is





smaller. In July the largest temperature increases range from 6.0-8.0 K in Scandinavia to 2.0-6.0 K in the UK/France. Iberia continued to experience temperatures lower by -2.0 to 0.0 K. In August, there are near-zero differences over the UK, Iberia and most of Scandinavia but with increases of 1.0-3.0 K over eastern Europe and Finland.

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3.2 Satellite Ozone

We investigate the longer term variability in tropospheric O₃ (i.e. SCO₃) to determine if 2017 is a suitable comparator for the 2018 summer O₃ enhancements as it is for temperature. Figure 2 shows the 2012-18 SCO₃ average between May and August for a domain over the Atlantic and Europe and the difference for the same season between specific years and the 2012-18 average. In 2012 and 2013, there are significant positive differences from the average between 1.0 DU and 5.0 DU over much of the domain. Over continental Europe, the differences are smaller. Here, the significance of differences between the year-specific and long-term averages are determined using the Wilcoxon Rank test (Pirovano et al., 2012) at the 95% confidence level. In 2014 and 2015, there are negative differences across Europe (-4.0 DU to -1.0 DU). In 2016, similar negative differences are primarily across the north and south-east of the domain. In 2017, there are near-zero differences across the Atlantic, UK and western Europe. Over eastern Europe and Mediterranean, there are significant negative differences of between -2.0 DU and -1.0 DU. In 2018, across continental Europe there are significant positive differences between 2.0 DU and 4.0 DU. As the 2017 differences are relatively small in magnitude with a low proportion of significant pixels (i.e. Sig Pixels % = 32.7 is the lowest across the 7 years), it is representative of average conditions for comparison with 2018. For 2018, the summer SCO₃ enhancements across continental Europe are the largest for the years shown with a coherent cluster of significant differences. This illustrates that the summer 2018 SCO₃ enhancements are a substantial deviation from the average conditions (which we represent as 2017 hereon) and that this is an intense O_3 event.

Investigation of SCO₃ retrieved from both GOME-2 (Figure 3) and the IMS scheme (Figure 4) show consistent enhancements in summer 2018. In 2017, between May and August, GOME-2 typically observed SCO₃ values between 20.0-30.0 DU across continental Europe. Peak SCO₃ values occurred over the Mediterranean (30.0-38.0 DU); relatively high ozone is a typical feature of the Mediterranean in summer (Richards et al., 2013). In 2018, the seasonality is consistent with 2017, but the continental European SCO₃ values ranged between 25.0 DU and 35.0 DU. For the 2018-2017 difference, SCO₃ enhancements occur across continental Europe in all four months, but peaked in May and July between 3.0 DU and 8.0 DU, while typically 1.0-5.0 DU in June and August. The spatial distribution of IMS-retrieved SCO₃ is similar to that of GOME-2 in 2017 and 2018, although the absolute values tend to be systematically lower by 3.0-4.0 DU. However, despite this systematic offset, the 2018-2017 differences are reasonably consistent with GOME-2. Across continental Europe, IMS SCO₃ shows 2018 enhancements in all months investigated, but peaks in May and July, like GOME-2, between 3.0 DU and 6.0 DU. The differences range from 1.0 DU to 3.0 DU in June and are approximately 1.0 DU in August (though a peak enhancement of 3.0-5.0 DU occurs over the Mediterranean). Spatial correlations between the GOME-2 and IASI difference (i.e. 2018-2017) maps for the months investigated ranged between 0.21 and 0.47 (see SM 4).

The GOME-2 and IASI instruments observe UV-Vis and IR wavelengths, with peak vertical sensitivities to tropospheric O₃ in the lower and mid/upper troposphere, respectively. Consistency in the 2018



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enhancements in SCO₃ indicates that these extend over the bulk of the troposphere and increases confidence in the differences for both sensors.

Investigation of several satellite-retrieved O₃ precursor gases (see **SM 1**) showed enhancements in total column methanol (TCCH₃OH, **Figure S1**), especially linked to May and July temperature enhancements (**Figure 1**), minor increases in tropospheric column NO₂ (TCNO₂, **Figure S2**) in May and July over central Europe and widespread enhancements (weakest in July and strongest in August) in total column carbon monoxide (TCCO, **Figure S3**). Investigation of the GOME-2 and IASI total column O₃ (TCO₃) differences between 2017 and 2018 (**Figures S4 & S5**) showed these to be in close agreement. Some spatial structure is similar to that of the SCO₃ difference patterns (**Figures 3 and 4**), with correlations of approximately 0.5 between TCO₃ and SCO₃ for each instrument (see **SM 2**). Given the complex relationship between tropospheric O₃, precursor gases, atmospheric chemistry (e.g. NO_x or VOC-limited regimes), surface deposition and meteorological conditions (e.g. atmospheric temperatures and transport), a detailed chemistry transport model is required to assess the key processes leading to the observed SCO₃ enhancements over Europe.

3.3 Surface Ozone

Increased temperatures during heat waves have been shown to enhance surface O₃ concentrations (e.g. Jacob and Daniel, 2009; Vieno et al., 2010; Pyrgou et al., 2018). In the summer (May-June-July-August, MJJA) of 2018, EMEP recorded larger O₃ mixing ratios across most of Europe in comparisons to 2017 (Figure 5a & b). Over central Europe, surface O₃ mixing ratios ranged from approximately 45.0 ppbv to over 60.0 ppbv, while in 2017 it was 35.0 ppbv to 50.0 ppbv. Over the UK and northwestern Europe, surface O₃ mixing ratios ranged from 20.0 ppbv to 30.0 ppbv and then 25.0 ppbv to 35.0 ppbv in MJJA 2017 and 2018, respectively. In Scandinavia and eastern Europe, surface O₃ mixing ratios ranged from 20.0 ppbv to 35.0 ppbv in MJJA 2017, while increasing to 25.0 ppbv to approximately 40.0 ppbv in MJJA 2018. Figure5c highlights these widespread enhancements where domain-average surface O3 mixing ratios are larger by typically 5.0-10.0 ppbv in May and from mid-June to mid-August in 2018. Figure 5d shows that the domain median surface O₃ concentration across MJJA was larger by 2.0-3.0 ppbv, but the 2018 extremes were greater with 75th and 95th percentiles of 42.0 ppbv and 53.0 ppbv in 2017 and 47.0 ppbv and 59.0 ppbv in 2018. Therefore, surface observations of O₃ recorded widespread enhancements in MJJA 2018 compared to 2017 with peak site differences >10.0 ppbv. This is generally consistent with the 2018 layer-averaged enhancements in the satellite-retrieved SCO₃ for regions where both datasets have spatial coverage.

3.4. Model Simulations

We use the TOMCAT model to investigate different factors potentially driving the observed enhancements in tropospheric O_3 . In comparisons with the observations (see **SM 4**) the model reproduces the sign and spatial distribution of observed 2018-2017 differences reasonably well. Although it has a tendency to underestimate the absolute magnitude, we are confident in the model's ability to simulate the tropospheric O_3 enhancements relative to 2017.

At the surface (**Figure 6**), TOMCAT CTL_DIFF (i.e. Met18_Emis18 - Met17_Emis17) suggests that O₃ is enhanced in May over Scandinavia (2.0- >5.0 ppbv), north-western Europe (0.0-2.0 ppbv), the Arctic Ocean (>5.0 ppbv) and off the coast of Iberia (3.0-5.0 ppbv). However, negative values exist over eastern Europe (-3.0 ppbv to -1.0 ppb) and the Atlantic west of Ireland (-3.0 ppbv to -1.0 ppb). In June, the negative differences persist in eastern Europe (-3.0 ppbv to -1.0 ppb), but positive





255 differences are located over northern Scandinavia (1.0-2.0 ppbv) and the North Atlantic (2.0-4.0 256 ppbv). For July, CTL DIFF shows the largest enhancements over continental Europe (i.e. Po Valley, 257 France, Benelux region and Iberia) and the UK (>5.0 ppbv). Negative differences of between -3.0 258 ppbv and -1.0 ppbv remain over eastern Europe. In August, the only clear differences are over Iberia 259 and the western Mediterranean, ranging between 3.0 ppbv and >5.0 ppbv. Overall, TOMCAT 260 simulates sub-regional surface O₃ enhancements over Europe, which are generally consistent with 261 EMEP observations apart from several sites over eastern Europe. 262 At 500 hPa, TOMCAT CTL DIFF shows larger-scale O₃ enhancements in 2018 compared to 2017 (>5.0 263 ppbv) throughout May to August. In May and August, there are, however, a few negative differences 264 (-5.0 ppbv to -3.0 ppbv) over far eastern Europe. In June and July, the full domain is more or less 265 dominated by O₃ enhancements in 2018. In Figures 4 and 5 (and SM 4), GOME-2 and IASI (and 266 TOMCAT with the instrument averaging kernels (AKs) applied to account for the vertical sensitivity of 267 the retrievals, see SM 4 for more information) show SCO₃ enhancements during these months of 268 2018. Given the vertical extents and peak heights of their retrieval sensitivities and consistency in 269 spatial patterns (Figs SM-8 and 10) it is evident that the O₃ enhancements detected by GOME-2 and 270 IASI extend over the free troposphere. The model shows large-scale O₃ enhancements in the free 271 troposphere and similar patterns to GOME-2 and IASI when averaging kernels applied. So the model 272 corroborates this finding from the satellite retrievals. Signals from EMEP and TOMCAT at the surface, 273 on the other hand, are more mixed across the domain. 274 The right-hand column of Figure 6 shows the relative difference in the stratospheric O₃ contribution 275 to the 500 hPa O₃ layer (i.e. Strat % @ 500 hPa), from CTL DIFF, between 2017 and 2018. Here, the 276 percentage of stratospheric O₃ contributing to the O₃ concentration at the 500 hPa is calculated for 277 2017 and 2018 and then the 2018-2017 difference determined. The largest enhancement to the 500 278 hPa layer was in July where the stratospheric O₃ contribution increased by 3.0% to >5.0% across 279 Europe. In June and August, the spatial patterns are similar with stratospheric O₃ contribution 280 enhancements of 3.0-5.0% across southern Europe, Scandinavia and the North Atlantic (above the 281 UK). In the North Atlantic, UK and northern Europe, there are near-zero changes in June and August. 282 In May, there are enhancements >5.0% across the northern region of the domain and northern 283 Africa, while smaller enhancements (1.0%-3.0%) over the UK and near-zero changes over eastern 284 Europe. This is partially supported by analysis of TCO₃ (see SM 2) where there are reasonable spatial 285 correlations (~0.5 to 0.6) between the SCO₃ 2017-2018 summer differences and the equivalent for 286 TCO₃. Therefore, these results indicate a potentially enhanced contribution of stratospheric O₃ into 287 the mid-troposphere during the summer of 2018 across Europe. 288 To quantify the separate importance of precursor emissions and meteorology in governing the 289 summer 2018 O₃ enhancements we compare the sensitivity experiments with the control runs. 290 Figure 7 (left column) shows the results for the fixed emissions differences (i.e. FIXED EMIS DIFF) 291 between years (i.e. Met18 Emis17 - Met17 Emis17). At the surface, the FIXED EMIS DIFF show 292 similar spatial patterns to that of CTL_DIFF (Figure 6 - left column). The domain spatial difference 293 correlations between these simulations is greater than 0.96 for all months considered. However, 294 FIXED EMIS DIFF (Figure 7 - left column) tends to be lower than CTL DIFF (Figure 6 - left column) 295 by approximately 0.0-2.9 ppbv (i.e. positive red regions are weaker and negative blue regions 296 stronger in intensity). Therefore, the Met18_Emis17 run struggles to reproduce the absolute surface 297 O₃ enhancements in the Met18_Emis18 run. When the fixed meteorology differences





298 (FIXED_MET_DIFF, i.e. Met18_Emis18 - Met18_Emis17, Figure 8 - left column) are compared with 299 CTL DIFF, the surface 2018-2017 differences are substantially different. 300 Surface FIXED MET DIFF ranges between 0.0 ppbv and 2.0 ppbv across the domain in May and June 301 and is more confined to continental Europe in July and August. This shows that TOMCAT simulates 302 lower 2018 summer-time O₃ when 2017 emissions are used and indicates that emissions do have 303 some role in controlling O₃ levels at the surface. However, as the spatial difference pattern for 304 FIXED MET DIFF (Figure 8 – left column) is different to that of CTL DIFF (Figure 6 – left column), 305 spatial correlations between them range from -0.53 to 0.54 over the four months, it suggests that 306 meteorology is important in governing the spatial distribution of CTL_DIFF. This is supported by the 307 fact that FIXED MET DIFF - CTL DIFF (Figure 8 left column - Figure 6 left column) yields absolute 308 domain variations between 0.0 ppbv and 12.2 ppbv. Therefore, the two sensitivity experiments 309 suggest meteorology and emissions both play important roles in controlling surface O₃ during the 310 summer of 2018, but meteorology predominantly governs the spatial pattern and absolute 311 magnitude of the O₃ enhancements. 312 At 500 hPa, comparison of FIXED EMIS DIFF and CTL DIFF show very consistent spatial patterns 313 across the four months with correlations all above 0.98. In terms of the absolute differences 314 between FIXED_EMIS_DIFF and CTL_DIFF (i.e. Figure 7 centre column - Figure 6 centre column) it 315 peaks at approximately 2.8 ppbv. For FIXED MET DIFF, the spatial correlation with CTL DIFF, as for 316 the surface, is variable with values between -0.38 and 0.43. The absolute differences between 317 FIXED MET DIFF and CTL DIFF (i.e. Figure 8 centre column - Figure 6 centre column) ranges from 318 0.0 ppbv to 14.8 ppbv. Therefore, emissions have a secondary role in controlling the O₃ while 319 meteorology is by far the dominant factor. For Strat % @ 500 hPa, the spatial correlations between 320 CTL DIFF and FIXED EMIS DIFF are above 0.95 for all months and the absolute differences between 321 them (i.e. Figure 7 right column - Figure 6 right column) are near-zero. Comparison of 322 FIXED_MET_DIFF and TC_CTL shows spatial difference correlations ranging between -0.33 and 0.71 323 and absolute differences (i.e. Figure 8 right column - Figure 6 right column) peaking at 12.9%. 324 Therefore, as expected, meteorological processes are dominating the influence of the stratospheric 325 O₃ contribution (i.e. through stratosphere-troposphere exchanges) to the 500 hPa layer during the 326 summer 2018 O₃ enhancements over Europe. 327 To investigate the importance of stratospheric-troposphere exchange to the middle troposphere 328 enhancement (i.e. as shown in the TOMCAT 500 hPa layer and the satellite SCO₃ data), Figures 9 and 329 10 show TOMCAT control run zonal 2018-2017 difference cross-sections (for the domain longitudes) 330 of O₃ profiles and the stratospheric O₃ contribution to each pressure layer. In May and June, in the 331 lower troposphere (approximately surface to 800 hPa), there are negative (-3.0% to 0.0%) and 332 positive (0.0% to 3.0%) differences between 30-50°N and 50-70°N, respectively. During June, there 333 are positive differences (0.0% to 5.0%) across most latitudes and in August, the opposite occurs to 334 that of May/June. In the mid-troposphere (800-300 hPa), positive differences occur in most months 335 (0.0-5.0% in May, 0.0-7.0% in June, >10% in July and 5.0-10.0% in August), though in May and August 336 negative differences (-5.0% to 0.0%) exist around 40°N and 55°N. This is consistent with the 500 hPa 337 O₃ differences in Figure 6 (centre panels). In the upper troposphere – lower stratosphere (UTLS, 338 approximately 300-100 hPa) there are limbs of positive O₃ differences (i.e. >10%, 5.0-10.0 ppbv) 339 propagating into the mid-troposphere (30-40°N in May, 30-50°N in June, 40-50°N in July and 30-40°N 340 & 60-70°N in August), suggestive of stratospheric intrusion into the mid-troposphere. Using the 341 stratospheric O₃ tracer in TOMCAT, Figure 10 shows the enhanced proportion of O₃ originating from





342 the stratosphere in the summer of 2018. Interestingly, for all months (apart from May between 30-343 45°N), there are enhanced contributions of stratospheric O₃ (15.0% to >50.0%) in the lower-mid 344 troposphere (i.e. below 500 hPa). In absolute terms, this is only a minor contribution typically below 345 800 of <1.0 ppbv. Between 800-400 hPa, this increases to 1.0-5.0 ppbv (remains relatively consistent 346 in percentage terms) in most months and latitude bands. In the UTLS, it increases to 5.0-10.0% 347 enhancements in stratospheric O₃ contributions, which is consistent with its proximity to the 348 stratosphere. In comparison between Figures 9 and 10, where there are enhancements in the 349 stratospheric O₃ contribution but negative differences in O₃ (e.g. in June in the lower troposphere 350 between 50°N and 55°N) which is suggestive of different processes influencing the O₃ concentrations 351 (e.g. descent of relatively small stratospheric O₃ contributions but advection of tropospheric O₃ away 352 from the region). Overall though, in the mid-troposphere, where there are larger enhancements in 353 O₃, there are similar responses in the stratospheric O₃ contribution. For June, the mid-troposphere 354 O₃ enhancement is approximately 5.0-7.0 ppbv with a signal of 1.0-2.0 ppbv in the stratospheric 355 tracer. Therefore, in the more extreme cases, the stratospheric O₃ contribution is approximately 356 15.0-40.0% to the mid-tropospheric O₃ enhancements in summer 2018 over Europe. 357 The two remaining factors, linked to meteorological processes (as suggested above), which may 358 affect the O₃ enhancements in 2018 are increased summer temperatures (e.g. through enhanced 359 kinetic rates), and the import of tropospheric O₃ from upwind (e.g. North America from the 360 prevailing winds). Figure 11 shows the 2017-2018 zonal temperature differences (i.e. same as Figure 361 9 but for temperature) with the correlation between the 2017 and 2018 temperature and O₃ 362 differences overplotted. Qualitatively, the zonal differences in O₃ and temperature have some 363 similarities. There are positive differences (temperature differences of 0.0-1.0%) between 50-60°N 364 and the surface and 400 hPa in May and June. Then in July, collocated positive differences (peaking 365 at 2.0% or 3.0 K) exist between 50-70°N from the surface to 300 hPa. In August, there is no clear 366 relationship between temperature and O₃ enhancements. In all months (to a lesser extent in 367 August), in the UTLS, there are spatial agreements with positive differences between approximately 368 30-45°N and negative differences between 50/55-70°N. In terms of correlations (i.e. temporal 369 correlation in each grid box using the TOMCAT 6-hourly time series), the spatial agreement is 370 relatively weak. In all months, most of domain has relatively small values ranging between -0.5 to 371 0.5. There are only a few locations with strong correlations (i.e. > 0.5), which are in the UTLS or in 372 the lower-mid troposphere between 50-70°N (June & August) and 45-55°N in July near the surface. 373 Overall, the relationship between increased temperatures and enhanced kinetic rates yielding more 374 ozone formation is non-linear, so it is unsurprising that the direct comparisons of temperature and 375 ozone 2018-2017 differences above shows no clear pattern. Therefore, future work could include a 376 further sensitivity experiment running TOMCAT for 2018, but with 2017 temperatures used in the 377 chemistry routines to quantify the role of temperature in the summer 2018 O₃ enhancements. 378 To investigate the potential advection of tropospheric O₃-rich air masses into Europe we have used 379 ROTRAJ back-trajectories to determine the O₃WBTs (i.e. an indicator of air mass O₃ content). As 380 shown in SM 5, there is large variability in the O₃WBT values and spatial distribution (i.e. Figures SM 381 12 and 13), so they have to be gridded onto the TOMCAT horizontal resolution (see Figures SM14 382 and 15). Figure 12 shows the differences (2018-2017) between the gridded O₃WBTs where the back-383 trajectories have been released at the surface from Paris (Figure 12a), at the surface from Berlin 384 (Figure 12b), at approximately 500 hPa from Paris (Figure 12c) and at approximately 500 hPa from 385 Berlin (Figure 12d). We selected Paris and Berlin as they are situated in central Europe where the





summer 2018 O_3 enhancements have been observed while the surface and 500 hPa are the altitudes of primary focus in the modelling work.

At the surface, Paris and Berlin show consistent patterns. Over the North Atlantic (i.e. origin of the prevailing winds into Europe), there are typically negative O₃WBT values between -5.0 ppbv and -1.0 ppbv suggesting that advection of O₃ into Europe during the summer (i.e. May-August) was predominantly larger in 2017 and did not strongly contribute to the 2018 $\,$ observed surface O_3 enhancements. Advection of O₃-rich air in 2018 did originate from Scandinavia into continental Europe, though the number of trajectories is relative low (see Figure S12). As both locations show similar relationships, it provides confidence in this methodology. At 500 hPa, the 50-60°N spatial pattern is less defined with values typically between -5.0 and 5.0 ppbv for both locations. However, in the southern North Atlantic (30-50°N) there are positive differences of approximately 3.0-10.0 ppbv for both release locations. Note that as free-tropospheric winds tend to have larger horizontal velocities, the back-trajectories generally start from further away closer to North America. Again, given the broad similarity in differences between both release locations, it provides confidence in this approach. Overall, our results indicate a larger transport of O₃ to the surface of continental Europe in 2017, while at approximately 500 hPa the import of O₃ into Europe is larger in 2018. Here, the positive differences originate from the southern North Atlantic (i.e. a larger range of locations, absolute values and homogeneous signal than the mixed differences between 50-60°N).

One potentially important factor is dry deposition of O₃ to the land surface. Due to the heatwave, stress on the biosphere and the associated die back of vegetation could potentially reduce the efficiency of O₃ deposition decreasing the O₃ sink (i.e. O₃ is more likely to deposit onto land covered by vegetation than bare soil). Investigation of the normalised difference vegetation index (NDVI), from the IMS scheme, between the summers of 2017 and 2018 did not highlight any spatially coherent changes (not shown here). As a result, there is no obvious large-scale spatial vegetation die back in 2018 due to the heatwave and thus the impact this would have on ozone deposition in TOMCAT. Therefore, we ran two further experiments where the bare soil fraction for each grid box over Europe was increased and decreased by 25% in summer 2018. This was to investigate the sensitivity of surface ozone deposition to changes in the land surface. For the increase in bare soil fraction there was a moderate systematic increase in European summer ozone by 0.0-1.5 ppbv (i.e. less ozone deposition). When the bare soil fraction was decreased by 25%, this yielded a small decrease in surface ozone by approximately 0.5 ppbv. Overall, a sizable level of vegetation die back would be required for decreased ozone dry deposition to substantially contribute to the summer 2018 surface ozone enhancements.

4. Discussion and Conclusions

The summer of 2018 produced an intense heatwave across most of Europe with a substantial impact on tropospheric temperatures, droughts, stress on vegetation and human mortality. Observations of surface temperature, precursor gases and total column O₃ (TCO₃) experienced enhancements in 2018 relative to 2017. In this paper we have demonstrated a strong enhancement in surface and tropospheric O₃ during the heatwave between May and August 2018. The EMEP surface data suggest an average European enhancement, relative to 2017, peaking at approximately 10.0 ppbv in July and August. Investigation of lower tropospheric O₃ (i.e. surface-450 hPa sub-column O₃ – SCO₃) from the GOME-2 and IASI instruments also showed enhancements, peaking at 5.0-10.0 DU, relative to 2017. Analysis of the long-term GOME-2 SCO₃ record indicates 2017 to be a suitably





- 429 neutral/average reference year and the enhancement in 2018 to be anomalously large. Our 430 comparisons were therefore made between the summers of 2017 and 2018. 431 Consistency between the UV (GOME-2) and IR (IASI) sounders was important to our analysis because 432 their vertical sensitivities peak in the lower and mid-upper troposphere, respectively. The similar 433 patterns of SCO₃ enhancement detected by the two sounders therefore indicate that these extend 434 over the bulk of the troposphere, supportive of surface/lower tropospheric ozone enhancements. 435 This consistency also provides confidence that the complementary vertical sensitivities of GOME-2 436 and IASI ozone retrievals could be exploited in further investigation of tropospheric ozone (e.g. long-437 term trends from multiple platforms/retrieval schemes has shown large-scale inconsistencies in 438 other studies e.g. Gaudel et al., (2018)) in the future. 439 Tropospheric O₃ behaviour is complex and the summer 2018 enhancements over Europe could 440 potentially have been caused by various factors: atmospheric chemistry, meteorology (e.g. 441 temperature, advection of O₃-rich air masses), anthropogenic and natural precursor emissions, dry 442 deposition and stratospheric intrusion. To investigate the interactions between these processes, 443 potentially leading to the summer 2018 O₃ enhancements, we used the well-evaluated TOMCAT 3D 444 CTM. Evaluation of the model in this study showed that it could accurately capture the spatial 445 pattern, temporal evolution and sign (i.e. positive 2018-2017 O₃ differences) of the O₃ 446 enhancements and that, although it underestimated the observed enhancements, TOMCAT is an 447 adequate tool to investigate them. 448 The results of several model simulations showed that the surface ozone enhancements (mainly in 449 north-western Europe) in the summer of 2018 were predominantly driven by meteorological 450 processes with emissions acting as a secondary factor. As the ROTRAJ back-trajectories suggest that 451 advection of summer-time O₃ was larger in 2017, the 2018 European O₃ enhancements at surface 452 level were likely from in-situ processes. The TOMCAT stratospheric O₃ tracer indicated a negligible 453 contribution of stratospheric O_3 to these surface enhancements. At 500 hPa, the enhancement in 454 tropospheric O₃ is much larger spatially across Europe and dominated by meteorological processes. 455 Intrusion of stratospheric O₃ into the mid-troposphere has a moderate influence on the 456 observed/modelled O₃ enhancements with contributions of up to 15.0-40.0%. Correlations between 457 TOMCAT temperature and O₃ enhancements show broad agreement at some latitudes (e.g. 50-70°N 458 in the lower-mid troposphere). However this relationship is non-linear and difficult to quantify 459 without further simulations/model tracers, which was beyond the scope of this study. ROTRAJ back-460 trajectories suggest that in 2018, relative to 2017, there is the advection of more O₃-rich airmasses 461 into the European mid-troposphere contributing to the summer 2018 O₃ enhancements at this 462 altitude. Therefore, in the summer of 2018 over Europe, in-situ meteorological processes appear to 463 be predominantly driving surface O₃ enhancements over Europe, while advection of tropospheric O₃-464 rich air and stratospheric intrusion are driving the corresponding tropospheric O₃. 465 Acknowledgements 466 This work was funded by the UK Natural Environment Research Council (NERC) by providing funding 467 for the National Centre for Earth Observation (NCEO, award reference NE/R016518/1). 468 **Conflicting Interests**
 - Date Availability

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

469





- 471 The TOMCAT simulations are publically available at
- 472 http://homepages.see.leeds.ac.uk/~earrjpo/european summer 2018 o3/tomcat, while the RAL
- 473 Space satellite can be found at
- 474 http://homepages.see.leeds.ac.uk/~earrjpo/european_summer_2018_o3/satellite. The EMEP
- 475 surface O₃ data was obtained from http://ebas-data.nilu.no/default.aspx. The GOME-2 tropospheric
- column NO₂ data was downloaded from EUMETSAT at https://acsaf.org/nrt_access.php. The
- 477 TOMCAT and RAL Space satellite data will be uploaded to the Zenodo open access portal
- 478 (https://zenodo.org/) if this manuscript is accepted for publication in ACP after the peer-review
- 479 process.

480 Author Contributions

- 481 RJP, MPC and BJK conceptualised and planned the research study. RJP performed the TOMCAT
- 482 model simulations with support from MPC and WF. The JULES BVOC emissions were provided by ECP
- 483 and GDH. RJP analysed the satellite data provided by RAL Space (BJK, RS, BGL and LJV) with support
- 484 from BJK, RS and BGL. RJP undertook the EMEP analysis. RJP ran ROTRAJ with technical support from
- 485 SRA and AMG. RJP prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

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636 Figures:

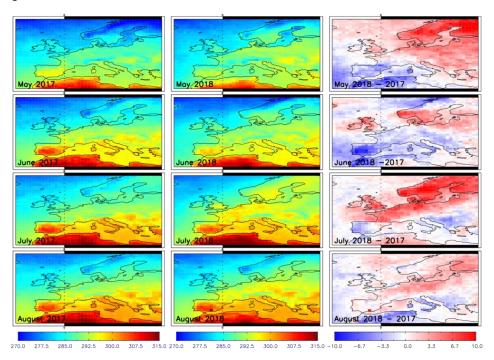


Figure 1: Surface temperature (K) over Europe for May to August in 2017 (LHS), 2018 (middle) and 2018-2017 difference (RHS) retrieved from MetOp-A IASI, MHS and AMSU by the IMS scheme.

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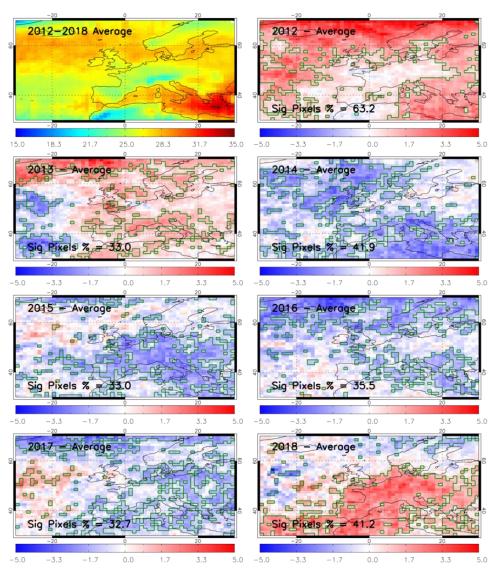


Figure 2: Sub-column ozone (SCO₃, surface-450 hPa), in Dobson units (DU), retrieved from GOME-2 on Metop-A averaged across May to August between 2012 and 2018 (top left panel) and the corresponding difference from the 2012-18 mean for each year, respectively. The green-polygon-outlined regions show where the year-specific seasonal average is significantly different (95% confidence level based on the Wilcoxon Rank Test (WRT)) from the long-term (2012-2018) seasonal average. The "Sig Pixel %" label indicates the number of pixels in the domain with significant differences.

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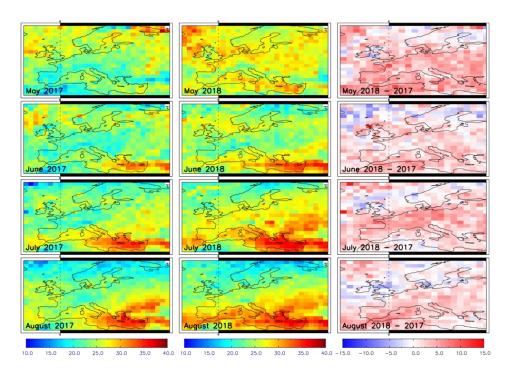


Figure 3: SCO_3 (DU) from GOME-2 over Europe for May to August in (left column) 2017, (middle column) 2018 and (right column) 2018-2017 difference.





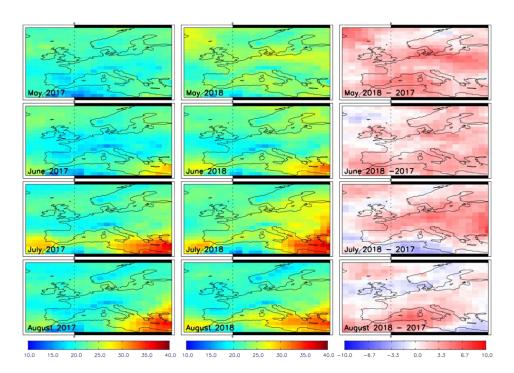


Figure 4: SCO_3 (DU) for May to August in 2017 (LHS), 2018 (middle) and 2018-2017 difference (RHS) over Europe retrieved from MetOp-A IASI, MHS and AMSU by the IMS scheme.





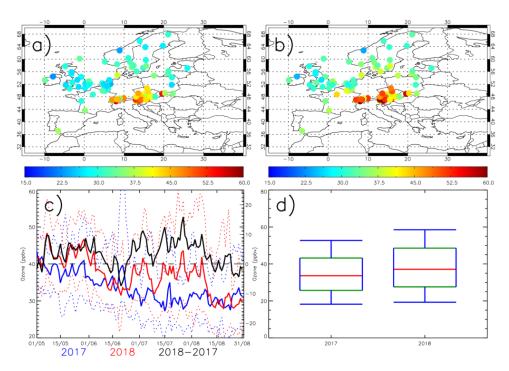


Figure 5: European surface ozone (ppbv) for a) May-June-July-August (MJJA) 2017, b) MJJA 2018), c) regional time series for MJJA 2017 (blue), MJJA 2018 (red) and the 2018-2017 difference (black) and d) box-whisker plots for MJJA 2017 and 2018. In panel d) the median, 25th & 75th percentiles and 10th & 90th percentiles are shown by the red, green and blue lines, respectively.





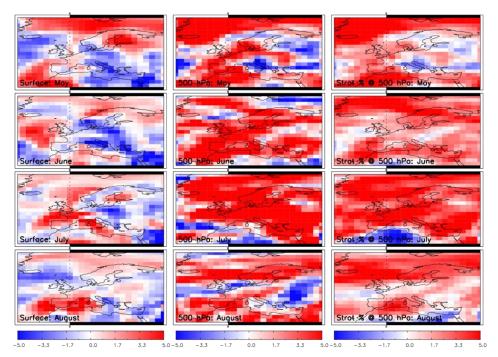


Figure 6: TOMCAT ozone (ppbv) 2018-2017 differences for May to August for the surface (LHS), 500 hPa (middle) and the stratospheric contribution (%) to the 500 hPa layer (RHS).





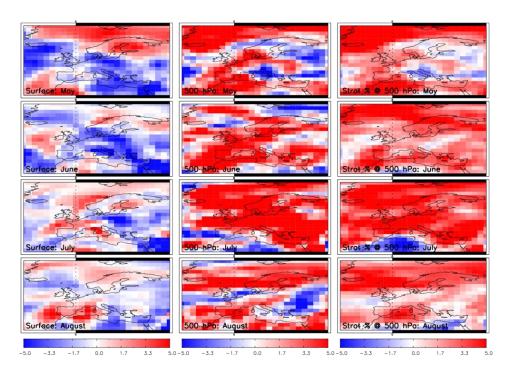


Figure 7: TOMCAT ozone (ppbv) 2018-2017 differences for May to August for the fixed emissions simulation (Fixed_EMIS) for the surface (LHS), 500 hPa (middle) and the stratospheric contribution (%) to the 500 hPa layer (RHS).

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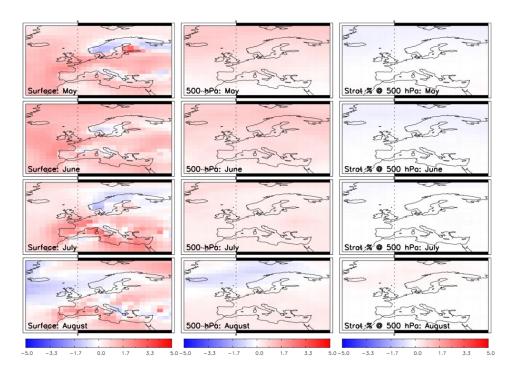


Figure 8: TOMCAT ozone (ppbv) 2018-2017 differences for May to August for the fixed meteorology simulation (Fixed_MET) for the surface (LHS), 500 hPa (middle) and the stratospheric contribution (%) to the 500 hPa layer (RHS).



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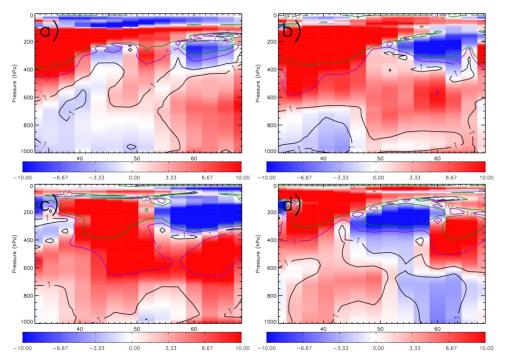


Figure 9: TOMCAT ozone, zonally averaged between 20°W and 40°E, 2018-2017 percentage differences (absolute difference (ppbv) shown as solid lines) from the control simulation. Panels a)-d) represent the monthly averages for May, June, July and August.



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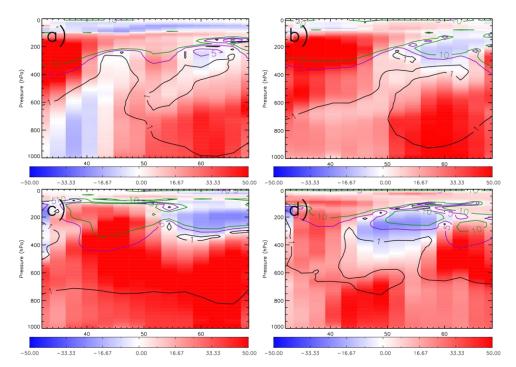


Figure 10: TOMCAT stratospheric ozone tracer, zonally averaged between 20°W and 40°E, 2018-2017 percentage differences (absolute difference (ppbv) shown as solid lines) from the control simulation. Panels a)-d) represent the monthly averages for May, June, July and August.



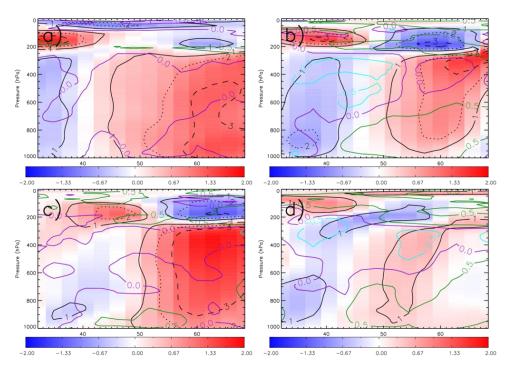


Figure 11: TOMCAT temperature, zonally averaged between 20°W and 40°E, 2018-2017 percentage differences (absolute difference (K) shown by black solid, dotted and dashed lines) from the control simulation. Overplotted are contours of the temporal correlation (i.e. within each grid box) between the temperature and ozone 2018-2017 differences. Panels a)-d) represent the monthly averages for May, June, July and August.





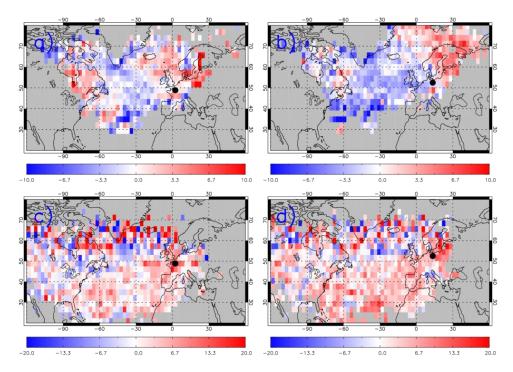


Figure 12: The difference between May-August 2018 and May-August 2017 (i.e. 2018-2017) ROTRAJ back-trajectories (10 days), weighted by the average TOMCAT O_3 (ppbv) concentration along each trajectory path, gridded onto the TOMCAT horizontal resolution for a) Paris at the surface, b) Berlin at the surface, c) Paris at approximately 500 hPa and d) Berlin at approximately 500 hPa. The black circles represent the location of Paris or Berlin, where the trajectories where released from.