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Contact CEH NORA team at
noraceh@ceh.ac.uk

1 **A site-specific analysis of the implications of a changing ozone profile and climate for**
2 **stomatal ozone fluxes in Europe**

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4 ^{1*}Felicity Hayes, ¹Gina Mills, ²Rocio Alonso, ²Ignacio González-Fernández, ³Mhairi Coyle,
5 ⁴Ludger Grünhage, ⁵Giacomo Gerosa, ⁶Per Erik Karlsson, ⁵Riccardo Marzuoli

6
7 ¹ Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Deiniol Road, Bangor, Gwynedd, LL57 2UW, UK

8 ² Ecotoxicology of Air Pollution, CIEMAT. Avda. Complutense 40. 28040, Madrid, Spain

9 ³ Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Bush Estate, Penicuik, Midlothian, EH26 0QB, UK

10 ⁴ Department of Plant Ecology, Justus-Liebig-University Giessen, Heinrich-Buff-Ring 26, D-
11 35392 Giessen, Germany

12 ⁵ Department of Mathematics and Physics, Catholic University of Brescia, via Musei 41,
13 25121 Brescia, Italy

14 ⁶ IVL Swedish Environmental Research Institute, Box 530 21, SE-400 14 Gothenburg

15
16 *Corresponding author. fhay@ceh.ac.uk

17
18
19 **Abstract**

20
21 In this study we used eight sites from across Europe to investigate the implications of a future
22 climate (2°C warmer and 20% drier) and a changing ozone profile (increased background
23 concentrations and reduced peaks) on stomatal ozone fluxes of three widely occurring plant
24 species. A changing ozone profile with small increases in background ozone concentrations
25 over the course of a growing season could have significant impacts on the annual
26 accumulated stomatal ozone uptake, even if peak concentrations of ozone are reduced.
27 Predicted increases in stomatal ozone uptake showed a strong relationship with latitude, and
28 were larger at sites from northern and mid-Europe than those from southern Europe. At the
29 sites from central and northern regions of Europe, including the UK and Sweden, climatic
30 conditions were highly conducive to stomatal ozone uptake by vegetation during the summer
31 months and therefore an increase in daily mean ozone concentration of 3 - 16% during this
32 time of year (from increased background concentrations, reduced peaks) would have a large
33 impact on stomatal ozone uptake. In contrast, during spring and autumn, the climatic
34 conditions can limit ozone uptake for many species. Although small increases in ozone
35 concentration during these seasons could cause a modest increase in ozone uptake, for those
36 species that are active at low temperatures, a 2°C increase in temperature would increase
37 stomatal ozone uptake even in the absence of further increases in ozone concentration.
38 Predicted changes in climate could alter ozone uptake even with no change in ozone profile.
39 For some southern regions of Europe, where temperatures are close to or above optimum for
40 stomatal opening, an increase in temperature of 2°C could limit stomatal ozone uptake by
41 enhancing stomatal closure during the summer months, whereas during the spring, when
42 many plants are actively growing, a small increase in temperature would increase stomatal
43 ozone uptake.

44
45 **Keywords**

46 Stomata; climate change; ozone flux; *Betula pendula*; *Dactylis glomerata*; *Leontodon*
47 *hispidus*

48

49

50 **Acknowledgements**

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52 supporting this project (NEC05574). The contribution by PEK was made possible by the
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56

57 **Introduction**

58 Tropospheric ozone concentrations have approximately doubled across northern mid-latitudes
59 between 1950 and 2000 (Parrish et al., 2012). More recently, there has been a reduction in
60 emissions of ozone precursors in Europe due to a combination of legislation and
61 modernisation of industrial sources, which has resulted in a slowed increase in ozone
62 concentrations at some sites e.g. rural monitoring stations in the Western Mediterranean basin
63 (Sicard et al., 2013). European annual mean surface ozone concentrations are predicted to
64 decrease slightly based on the Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) greenhouse gas
65 concentration trajectory scenarios RCP 2.6, 4.5 and 6.0, but are expected to continue to rise
66 with the RCP 8.5 scenario (Fiore et al., 2012, Wild et al., 2012). However, these annual
67 mean projections do not show the detail of the anticipated change in the ozone concentration
68 profiles. In particular, whilst large episodic peaks of ozone have reduced in frequency and
69 severity across much of Europe, low- and medium-range ozone concentrations have
70 continued to rise over the period 1990 to 2010 in Europe and the USA (Paoletti et al., 2014;
71 Lefohn et al., 2017; Karlsson et al., 2017). This has been attributed to factors including
72 changing meteorological conditions, background ozone and source patterns that are not
73 always fully incorporated into models of future ozone scenarios (Akritidis et al., 2014).
74 Further rises in mean ozone concentration in northern Europe are predicted as it is thought
75 that reductions in precursor emissions in this region will be outweighed by increased
76 hemispheric transport of precursors, together with reduced titration of ozone with nitric oxide
77 (Lacressonniere et al., 2014; Wilson et al., 2012; Lefohn et al., 2017; Karlsson et al., 2017).

78
79 Current and projected future ozone concentrations are a concern for vegetation (Royal
80 Society, 2008; Mills et al., 2011a) and detrimental effects have been reported at ambient
81 concentrations including for trees (Braun et al., 2014; Wittig et al., 2009) and (semi-)natural
82 vegetation (Mills et al., 2011a). Much work on effects on vegetation has focussed on the
83 impacts of peak ozone concentrations and therefore ozone delivery within experiments has
84 often used a pronounced diurnal profile (e.g. Calvo et al., 2007, Bender et al., 2006). Despite
85 the continued increase in background ozone concentrations due to the predicted changes in
86 ozone exposure profile over the coming decades, the consequence of this for vegetation
87 remains poorly understood (Coyle et al., 2003). Some studies, however, have shown that an
88 increase in background ozone concentration can be as deleterious to plant health as an
89 increase in peak concentrations (Oksanen and Holopainen, 2001; Hayes et al., 2010, Harmens
90 et al., 2018).

91
92 Ozone enters plants through stomata, which are open when climatic conditions are favourable
93 for gas exchange. Stomatal ozone uptake can be as high in central and northern Europe,
94 when concentrations are moderate and climatic conditions are conducive to stomatal opening,
95 as in more southern areas where ozone concentrations are higher but conditions for uptake are
96 less favourable (Mills et al., 2011a). Therefore, when quantifying the risk to vegetation of
97 ozone pollution it is important to consider ozone uptake through the stomata as this has been
98 shown to be better related to plant effects such as crop yield loss and reduced tree growth
99 than to concentration based metrics (e.g. Pleijel et al., 2004; Mills et al., 2011a; Büker et al.,
100 2015). Plants have some capacity to detoxify ozone that enters leaves through the stomata,
101 with increased damage occurring when this is exceeded (Burkey et al., 2006). Using a
102 constant threshold for stomatal ozone flux ('Y' in POD_Y (Phytotoxic Ozone Dose over a
103 threshold flux of $Y \text{ nmol m}^{-2} \text{ PLA s}^{-1}$) is considered to act as a surrogate for an ozone
104 detoxification threshold (Musselman et al., 2006) with different values used for different
105 species (Mills et al., 2011b). Although this principal is sound for quantifying ozone impacts
106 on individual plant species, there are mathematical implications when modelling fluxes close

107 to this threshold as very small variations in value can have a large cumulative impact on
108 POD_Y depending on whether or not the threshold has been reached.

109

110 A spring peak of ozone concentrations has been observed at many remote northern
111 hemisphere sites. In northern Arizona this peak occurs in May and has been attributed to
112 transport of precursor molecules from other regions (Diem, 2004). Over recent years there is
113 some evidence of a change in seasonality of ozone, with peak concentrations occurring earlier
114 in the year (Parrish et al., 2013), including in regions such as the north-eastern US as NO_x
115 emissions are reduced (Clifton et al., 2014). Furthermore, the start of spring has also been
116 occurring increasingly earlier in some parts of Europe over recent decades (Peñuelas et al.,
117 2002; Menzel et al., 2006), meaning that the timing of peak ozone concentrations now
118 overlaps with early season plant growth (Karlsson et al., 2007, Karlsson et al., 2009,
119 Klingberg et al., 2009). At this time, many species may be sensitive to ozone as they are
120 fully metabolically active (Alonso et al., 2001), indicating that it is important to consider
121 ozone concentrations and fluxes in spring. In some locations, an increased autumn ozone
122 peak has also been observed, including Hong Kong (Lee et al., 2009) and the consequences
123 of this for vegetation have not yet been investigated.

124

125 Alongside any changes in ozone concentration in future decades, there are likely to be
126 changes in meteorological conditions, due to projected changes in climate. Although there is
127 much variation in predictions of future climate, mean surface temperatures are likely to
128 increase by at least $2^\circ C$ by 2100 according to all but the most stringent mitigation scenario
129 RCP2.6 (IPCC, 2014). Similarly, there is a spatially varying range in predictions of
130 precipitation, however, for much of Europe a reduction in annual precipitation of 10-20% by
131 2100 is likely (IPCC, 2014). Both temperature and precipitation (via effects on soil moisture)
132 affect stomatal ozone fluxes and are thus critical in determining the instantaneous and
133 cumulative ozone uptake by plants (Klingberg et al., 2011).

134

135 In this study we investigate the possible consequences for vegetation of a combination of
136 reduced peak and increased background ozone concentrations based on effects mediated by
137 stomatal ozone flux for selected example sites in Europe. We use the DO_3SE model
138 (Emberson et al., 2000a, b) which uses a multiplicative algorithm, based on that developed by
139 Jarvis (Jarvis, 1976) to estimate leaf stomatal conductance. We use 2010 as the baseline year
140 for climate and ozone, a typical year with relatively few ozone ‘episodes’ and with similar
141 exceedances of the thresholds set to protect human health as in the previous three years
142 (EEA, 2011). We then consider the implications of a changing ozone concentration profile by
143 calculating stomatal ozone uptake using the DO_3SE model for a grass, a forb and a deciduous
144 tree species widely found across much of Europe, using site-specific hourly ozone and
145 climate data. Lastly, we calculate the ozone dose under current (2010) and future (2100)
146 climatic conditions representative of RCP scenarios at the same sites to evaluate changes in
147 potential risk to vegetation and test the hypothesis that predicted changes to climate will
148 result in increased stomatal ozone uptake.

149

150

151 **Methods**

152 Stomatal ozone fluxes (POD_0) were calculated using the multiplicative model DO_3SE
153 (Emberson et al., 2000a) for three species that are commonly occurring across Europe,
154 although they may not be part of the dominant vegetation community at all of the sites used.
155 The model was parameterised for the species *Dactylis glomerata* and *Leontodon hispidus*
156 using stomatal conductance measurements made using a porometer (AP4, Delta-T, UK)

157 during ozone exposure experiments in solardomes at CEH Bangor, UK. In addition, the
158 parameterisation for *Betula pendula* used within the UNECE was also included (LRTAP
159 Convention, 2017), using the northern Europe parameterisation. As regional-specific
160 parameterisations were not available for all regions of Europe, the same parameterisation was
161 used at all sites for this simulation exercise to facilitate comparison. Further details about
162 these experiments, the method of parameterisation and the parameterisations used are
163 included in the supplementary material (S1). The phenology function (f_{Phen}) was considered
164 to be 1 at all times to avoid the potential, but currently unquantifiable, changes in plant
165 phenology that may occur in future scenarios due to the influence of climatic changes. The
166 stomatal response to ozone, f_{O_3} , was not included in the model as this is not yet parameterised
167 in LRTAP Convention (2017) for trees and grassland species. For the purposes of this
168 modelling study, no threshold was used for the accumulation of ozone fluxes to avoid having
169 varying species-specific influences of the threshold when assessing potential differences in
170 calculated stomatal ozone uptake, and because small differences in ozone fluxes may appear
171 to have a disproportionately large effect if the change moves the hourly flux across the
172 threshold. However, due to the dependence of ozone fluxes on meteorological conditions in
173 addition to ozone concentration, stomatal ozone flux is not directly related to ozone
174 concentration alone.

175
176 On-site observed hourly climate and ozone data was obtained for the sites UK-Snowdon, UK-
177 Harwell, UK-Auchencorth, UK-Strath Vaich, Germany (DE)-Linden, Italy (IT)-Arconate,
178 Spain (ES)-Tres Cantos, Sweden (SE)-Östad for the year 2010. These sites were selected to
179 represent a gradient of ambient climatic and ozone conditions. The monthly mean ozone
180 concentrations and mean diurnal profile for each site are shown in Figure 1 and full details of
181 the site locations and descriptions, and a summary of meteorological data for 2010 are shown
182 in the supplementary material (S2). The sites are rural, but of differing altitude and distance
183 to pollutant sources. For the UK sites, climate data was obtained from the Environmental
184 Change Network (<http://data.ecn.ac.uk/index.asp>), and ozone data was obtained from the UK-
185 AIR archive (<http://uk-air.defra.gov.uk/data/>). Ozone data from DE-Linden was obtained
186 from the Hessian Air Quality Monitoring Network
187 (<http://www.hlnug.de/messwerte/luft.html>), with corresponding meteorological data from the
188 Environmental Monitoring and Climate Impact Research Station at Linden (personal
189 communication). Data from IT-Arconate were obtained from ARPA Lombardia (Agenzia
190 Regionale per la Protezione dell' Ambiente) air quality monitoring network of the Lombardy
191 region (<http://www2.arpalombardia.it/sites/QAria/>). Data from ES-Tres Cantos were
192 obtained from an experimental station run by CIEMAT (García-Gómez et al., 2016). Data
193 from SE-Östad were obtained from local meteorological measurements on site; where needed
194 interpolated daily values for Östad were used to fill gaps in data, obtained from official
195 statistics on the web-site of the Swedish Meteorological and Hydrological Institute. For each
196 of these sites, stomatal ozone fluxes for each species were calculated over the period January-
197 December using the DO₃SE version 3.03 model (Emberson et al., 2000a; LRTAP
198 Convention, 2017, <https://www.sei-international.org/do3se>) using these climate and ozone
199 data as meteorological inputs as the 'current' scenario. We appreciate that in some parts of
200 Europe the species will not be in leaf for the entire year. As the time window of active
201 growth varies between sites and years and will change in a future climate, showing
202 theoretical fluxes for the whole year provides conceptual understanding of the potential for
203 changes during earlier springs and later autumns as climates warm.

204
205 Stomatal ozone uptake was also calculated using the same set of meteorological data, but
206 with hourly ozone values increased by 5 ppb above ambient values when ozone was <40 ppb

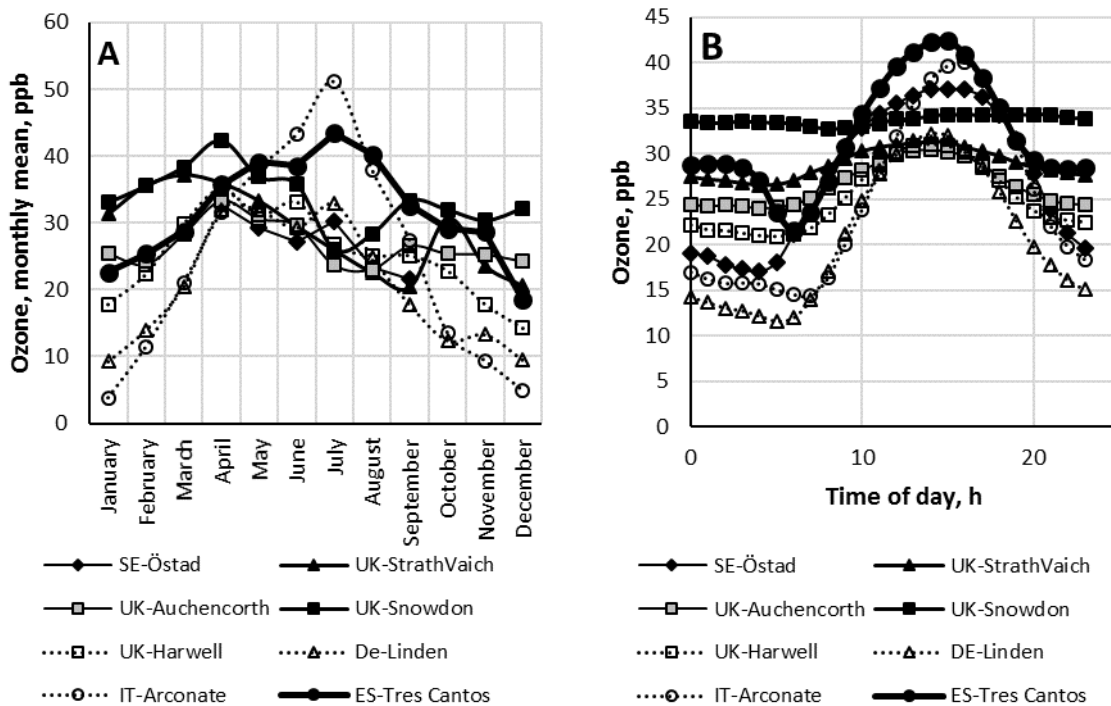
207 and decreased by 5 ppb when ambient values were >45 ppb (2100 ozone scenario). These
 208 changes are simplified, but similar to the overall model predictions for Europe for 2100 using
 209 the RCP6 emission scenario (Coleman et al., 2013), which shows decreased peak ozone
 210 concentrations of up to 8 ppb in parts of Europe in 2100 compared to current conditions.
 211 Additional model runs were also made using reduced rainfall, with hourly rainfall when it
 212 occurred decreased by 20% (-20% rain scenario), and with hourly temperature increased by
 213 2°C (+ 2°C scenario). To compensate for the increase in VPD associated with increased
 214 temperature, in model runs where temperature was increased by 2°C, VPD was also increased
 215 by 13%. This was calculated as representing the increase in VPD that would occur within the
 216 range 20-30°C and at relative humidity of 50%, as relative humidity data was not available
 217 from all sites to allow this to be calculated directly. The ozone and climatic features of the
 218 model runs are summarised in Table 1. In all model runs, rather than DO₃SE reading in soil
 219 moisture as an input, soil moisture was modelled by DO₃SE from rainfall data, assuming a
 220 loam soil for consistency. The soil moisture module of DO₃SE is based on the Penman-
 221 Monteith model of evapotranspiration (Monteith, 1965) and uses hourly plant transpiration,
 222 soil evaporation and intercepted canopy evaporation (Büker et al., 2012).

223
224
225

226 Table 1: Summary of the ozone and climate features of the model runs performed. In each
 227 scenario ‘2010’ indicates measured values at the sites in 2010. The 2100 ozone scenario is
 228 simulated, but based on the 2010 values at each site. Temperature, VPD and rainfall are also
 229 based on measured 2010 values, but for some scenarios each hourly value has been modified
 230 by +2°C, +13% or -20% respectively.

Scenario name (abbreviated)	Ozone	Temperature	VPD	Rainfall
Current	2010	2010	2010	2010
2100 profile	2100 simulation	2010	2010	2010
+2 °C	2010	2010 +2°C	2010 +13%	2010
-20% rain	2010	2010	2010	2010 -20%
+2 °C, -20% rain	2100 simulation	2010 +2°C	2010 +13%	2010 -20%
2100 profile +2 °C	2100 simulation	2010 +2°C	2010 +13%	2010
2100 profile -20% rain	2100 simulation	2010	2010	2010 -20%

231



232

233 Figure 1: a) Monthly mean ozone profile and b) Mean diurnal ozone profile for the sites used
 234 in this study, based on hourly ozone data from 2010, Jan 1st – Dec 31st. Note, data for SE-
 235 Östad was available for April to September only.

236

237 Results

238 Ozone concentrations and flux (POD₀) in 2010

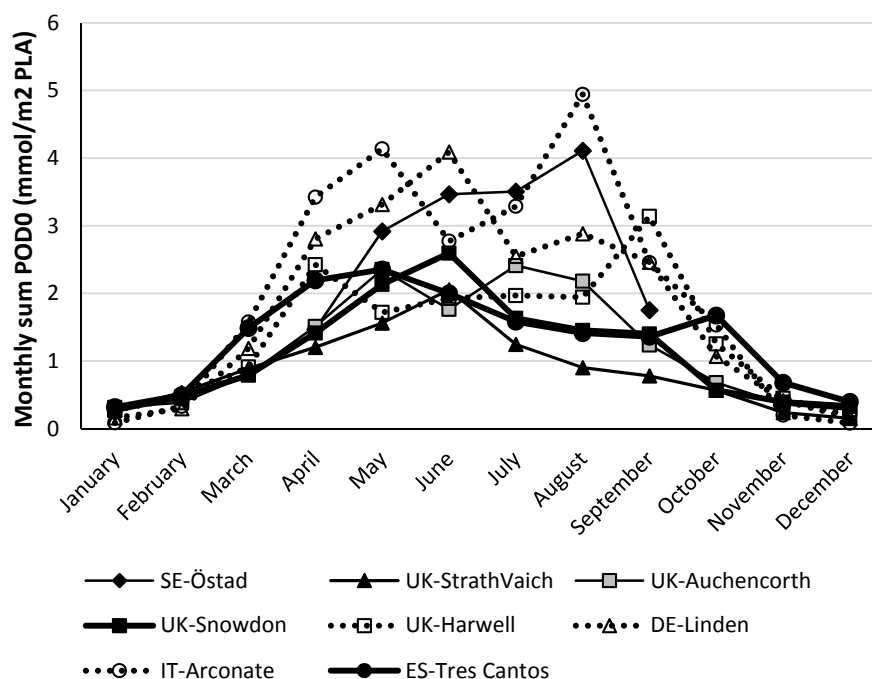
239 Almost all sites (except IT-Arconate and ES-Tres Cantos) had a ‘spring peak’ of ozone
 240 concentration, with the highest concentrations in March/April (Figure 1a). This pattern is
 241 common in Europe due to the seasonal variations in precursor emissions, the strength of the
 242 stratospheric source, and the balance between photochemical production and destruction of
 243 ozone (Royal Society, 2008). Diurnal ozone concentrations generally peaked in mid-
 244 afternoon, with lowest concentrations between midnight and 06:00 (Figure 1b). However,
 245 the amplitude between the minimum and maximum ozone concentration was variable with
 246 some sites having an amplitude of 25 ppb (e.g. IT-Arconate) and some showing little
 247 variation (e.g. UK- Snowdon and UK-Strath Vaich). The sites at highest altitude had higher
 248 night-time and winter-time ozone concentrations compared to those at lower altitude, which
 249 is a recognised pattern due to losses from dry-deposition being replaced from ozone-rich
 250 layers above (Royal Society, 2008). The monthly total ozone flux (POD₀) showed very
 251 different patterns between the different sites (Figure 2). The most northern sites, from the
 252 UK and Sweden, had the highest ozone fluxes in the summer months, when the ozone values
 253 were typically 5-10 ppb lower than those of the spring maxima. Interestingly, ozone fluxes
 254 calculated for *D. glomerata* between May and August were similar in SE-Östad to those of
 255 IT-Arconate despite large differences in ozone concentration and climate during this time
 256 period. For perennial grassland species such as *D. glomerata* (Figure 4) and *L. hispidus*
 257 (Figure 5), the DO₃SE model predicted that stomatal ozone uptake could take place almost all
 258 year round at most sites, as meteorological conditions are conducive to stomatal opening.
 259 However, it is important to note that stomatal uptake for birch (Figure 3) would be limited to
 260 when leaves are present. Similarly, overwintering leaves of *D. glomerata* and *L. hispidus*
 261 may not be physiologically active during the winter months. Modelled total annual stomatal

262 ozone uptake for the different climate and ozone scenarios for *B. pendula*, *D. glomerata* and
 263 *L. hispidus* are shown in supplementary material (S4).

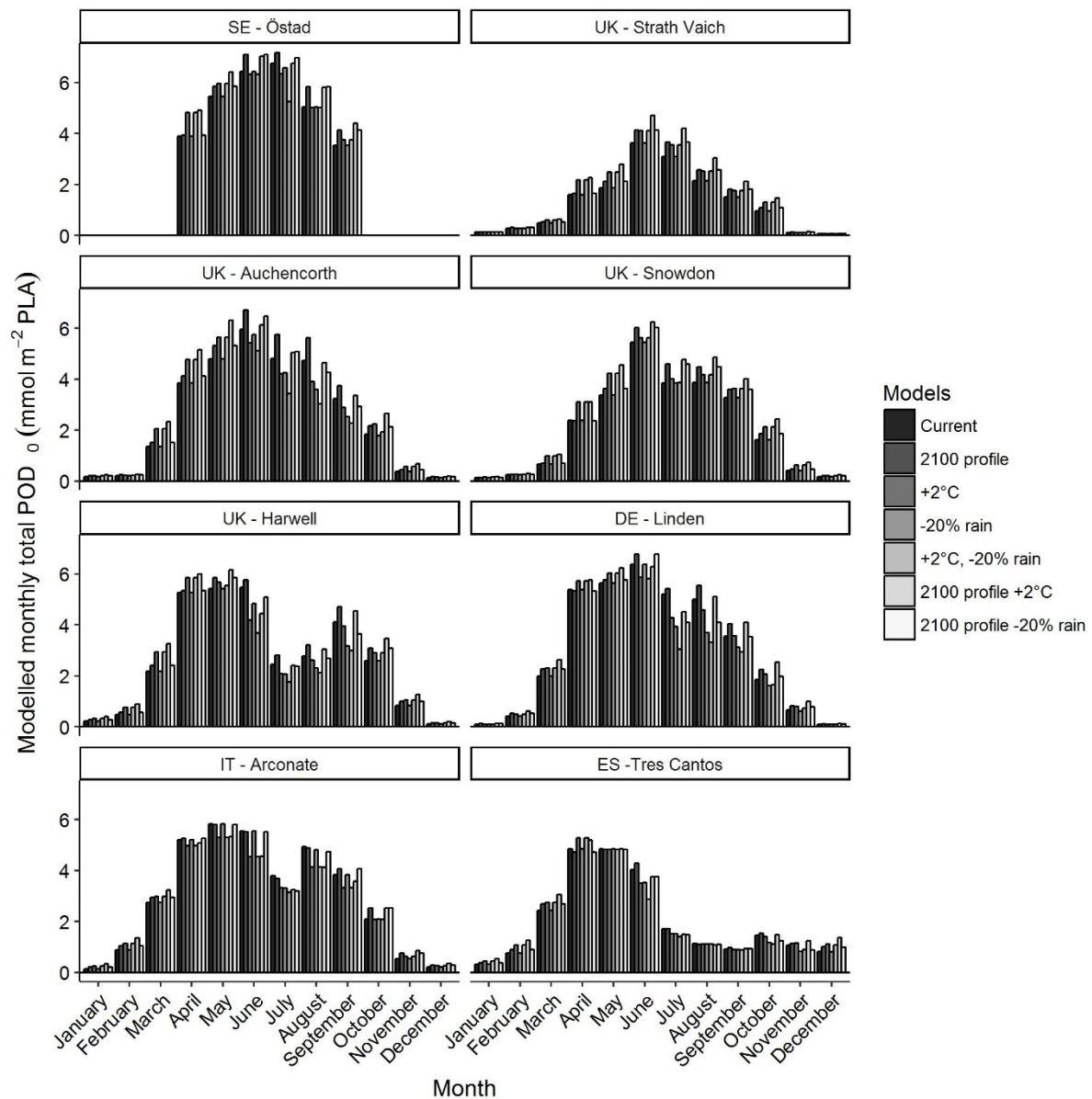
264
 265 Frequently at all sites, the periods of highest stomatal ozone fluxes did not coincide with the
 266 periods of highest ozone concentration, for example DE-Linden and ES-Tres Cantos had the
 267 highest ozone concentrations in summer whereas stomatal ozone fluxes were higher in spring
 268 (Supplementary material Figure S2). In many cases during the year such differences may be
 269 explained by limitations due to soil moisture availability, which are apparent when
 270 comparing model runs with and without soil moisture deficit induced reductions in stomatal
 271 ozone uptake. These show that soil moisture deficit at some sites can reduce stomatal ozone
 272 flux, with several sites showing reductions of over 50% during some months compared to
 273 fluxes under field capacity conditions (Supplementary material S3).

274
 275 The majority of the total stomatal ozone flux (POD₀) occurred with ozone values between 20
 276 and 50 ppb at all sites for both the ‘current’ and 2100 ozone profiles (Figure 6). The
 277 contribution to total stomatal ozone uptake from ozone concentrations above 50 ppb was
 278 comparatively low, with the exception of IT-Arconate, which had the highest ozone
 279 concentrations during the summer months and 25-50% of the total ozone flux was attributed
 280 to ozone values >50 ppb. Using the 2100 ozone scenario there was a significantly lower
 281 contribution to total stomatal ozone uptake from ozone values of 10-20 ppb for all species
 282 ($p < 0.05$, $p < 0.01$, $p < 0.05$ for *B. pendula*, *D. glomerata* and *L. hispidus* respectively). There
 283 was also a significantly lower contribution from ozone values of 0-10 ppb for *D. glomerata*
 284 ($p < 0.05$) and *L. hispidus* ($p < 0.05$) and from ozone values of 20-30 ppb for *D. glomerata*
 285 ($p < 0.01$) and *L. hispidus* ($p < 0.05$). In contrast, there was a significantly higher contribution
 286 from ozone values of 40-50 ppb in the 2100 compared to the current scenario for all species
 287 ($p < 0.001$). At higher ozone concentrations there was a significantly lower contribution to
 288 stomatal ozone uptake in the 2100 ozone scenario in the categories 50-60 ppb (*B. pendula*,
 289 $p < 0.05$), 60-70 ppb ($p < 0.05$ for all species) and 70-80 ppb (*L. hispidus*, $p < 0.05$).

290

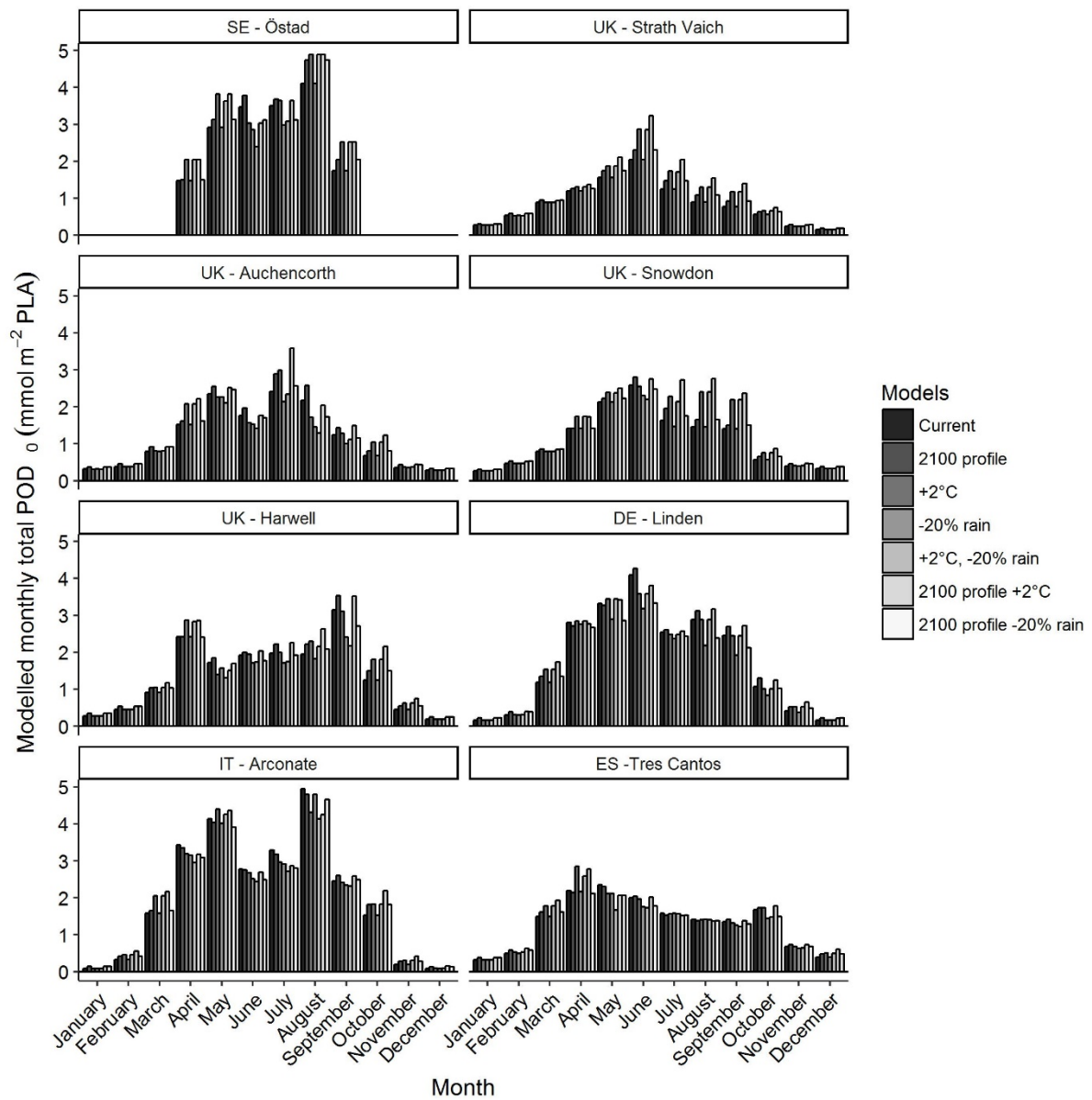


291
 292 Figure 2: Monthly stomatal ozone uptake (POD₀, mmol m⁻² per month) for *D. glomerata* in
 293 current (2010) ozone and climate conditions at all sites.



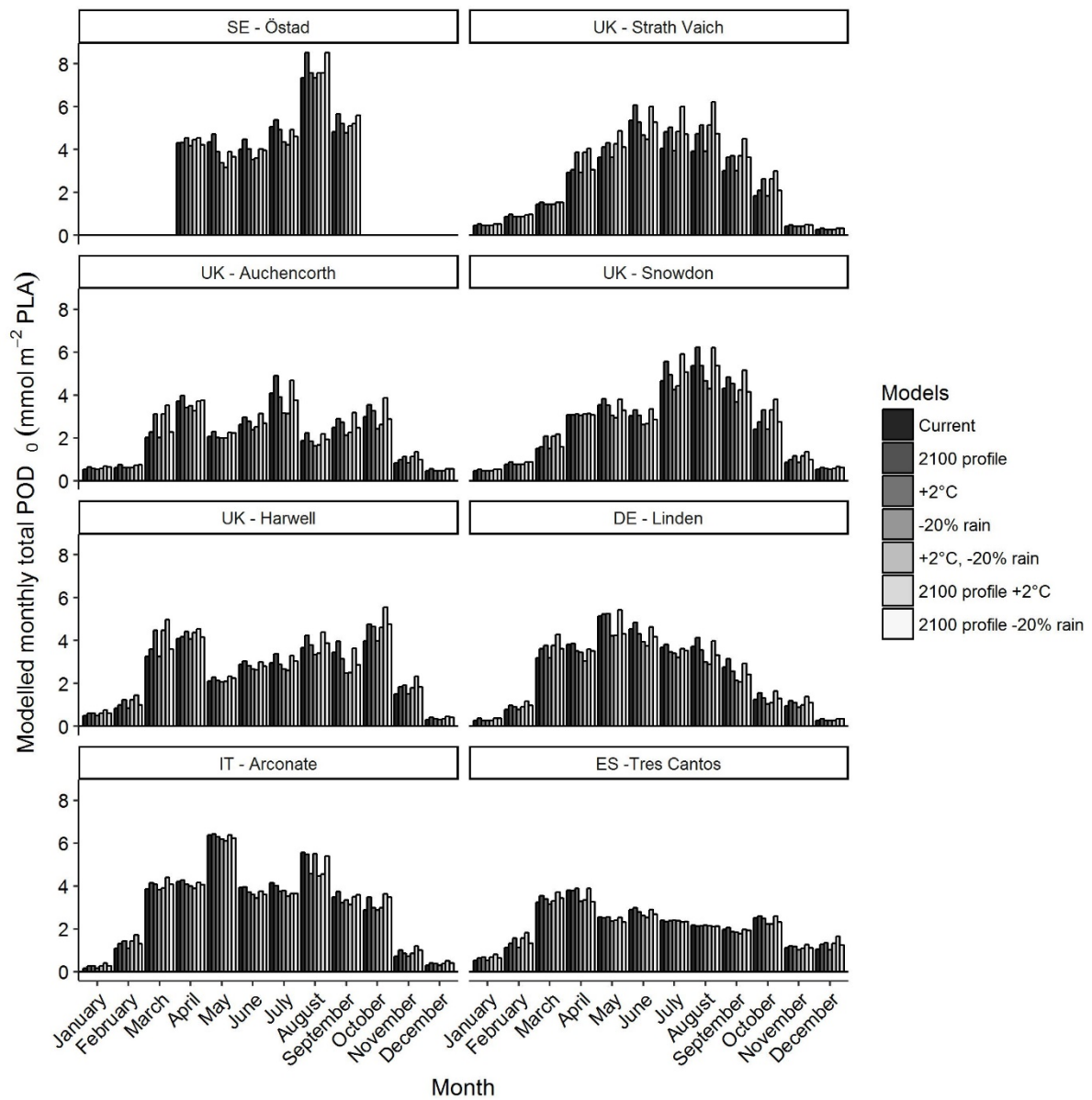
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Figure 3: Modelled monthly total stomatal ozone uptake (POD_0 , $mmol\ m^{-2}$ per month) for *B. pendula* at selected European sites in 2010. Note: Whilst year round fluxes are provided for comparison with Figure 3 and 4, it is important to note that the leaves of *B. pendula* are shed from trees in the autumn, with bud-burst occurring in the spring with the date depending on location.



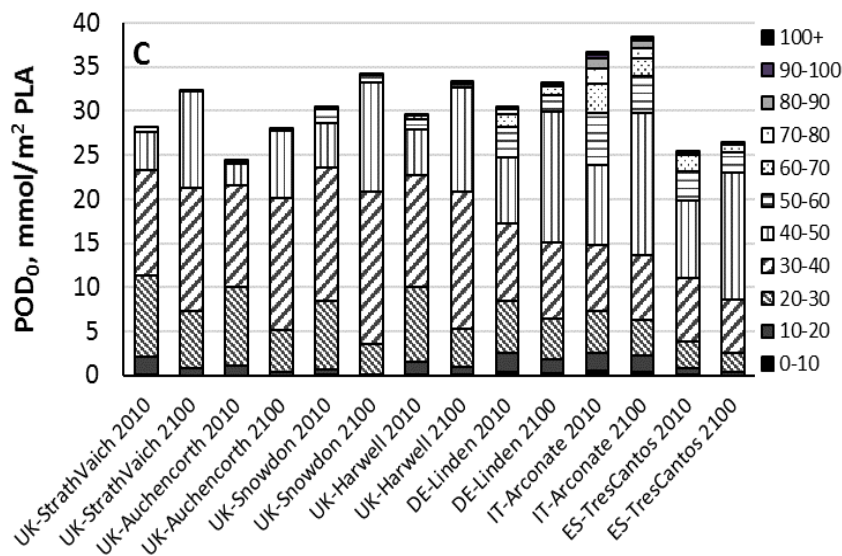
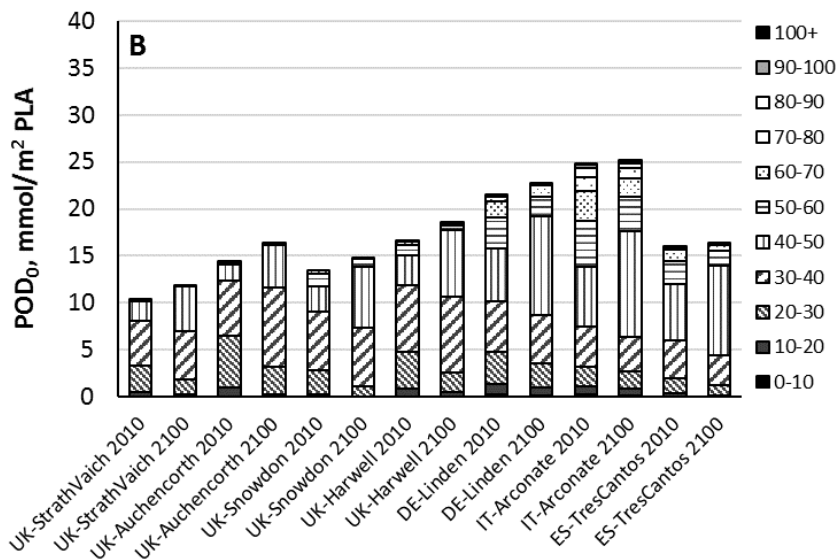
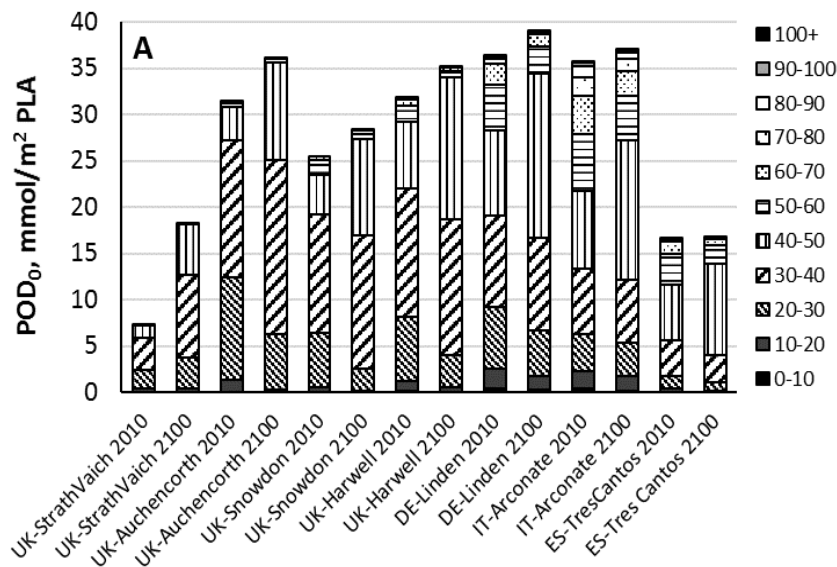
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 302

Figure 4: Modelled monthly total stomatal ozone uptake (POD_0 , $mmol\ m^{-2}$ per month) for *D. glomerata* at selected European sites in 2010.



303
304
305

Figure 5: Modelled monthly total stomatal ozone uptake (POD₀, mmol m⁻² per month) for *L. hispidus* at selected European sites in 2010.



309 Figure 6: Total stomatal ozone flux from different categories of ozone concentration for A) *B. pendula*, B) *D. glomerata* and C) *L. hispidus* for the different sites, using the current and
 310 2100 ozone profiles. (annual data is not available for Sweden-Östad).
 311

312 Predicted ozone concentrations and POD₀ in 2100

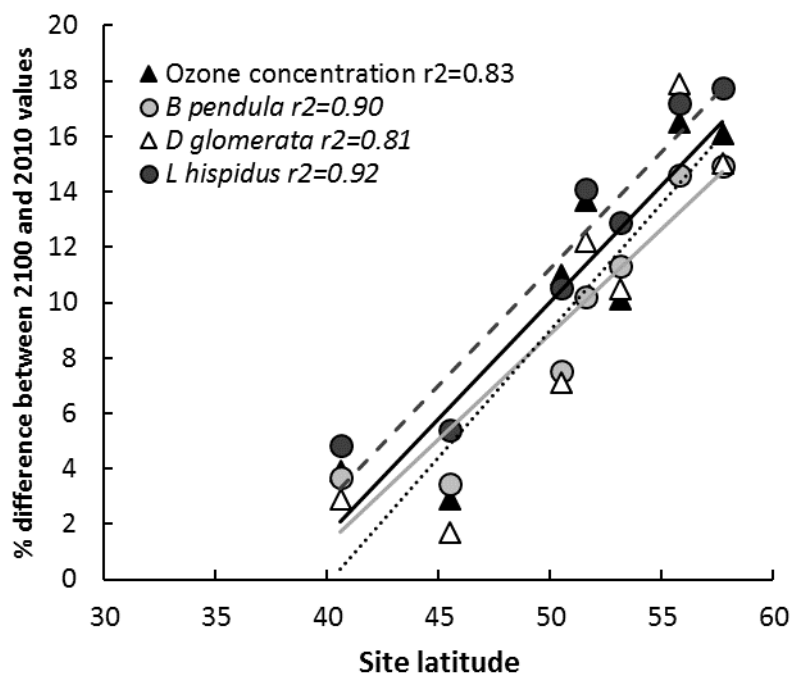
313 Consequences of changes in ozone profile

314 The 2100 ozone profile, with increased background and decreased peaks, resulted in
 315 increased 24h mean ozone values at all sites of 1 to 4 ppb (full details are shown in
 316 Supplementary material S4). The DO₃SE model predicted that this would increase annual
 317 stomatal ozone uptake by as much as 14-18% at northern sites e.g. UK-Strath Vaich (Figure
 318 6). In southern Europe, the increase in annual stomatal ozone uptake was lower (3% increase
 319 for *B. pendula* at IT-Arconate), partly because the higher hourly ozone concentrations of the
 320 ‘current’ dataset at these sites meant that the increase in background ozone concentrations
 321 was offset by decreases in peaks (current vs 2100 ozone profiles for all sites are shown in
 322 Supplementary material S4). The percentage increase in ozone flux using the 2100 profile
 323 compared to current was linearly related to latitude (Figure 7: $r^2=0.90$ for *B. pendula*, $r^2=0.92$
 324 for *L. hispidus* and $r^2=0.81$ for *D. glomerata*), with a similar relationship with latitude for the
 325 percentage increase in ozone concentration ($r^2=0.83$).

326

327 The extent of additional ozone uptake due to the changing ozone profile varied throughout
 328 the year. For the majority of sites the increase in ozone flux was largest during the summer
 329 and autumn (Figures 3-5). Climate (particularly temperature) tended to limit stomatal
 330 opening in spring so that ozone fluxes were comparatively unaffected by an increase in ozone
 331 concentration, unless temperature was also increased.

332



333

334 Figure 7: Percentage increase in ozone flux with the 2100 ozone profile compared to 2010
 335 ozone for *L. hispidus*, *D. glomerata* and *B. pendula* at the different sites. The percentage
 336 increases in ozone concentration with the 2100 ozone profile compared to 2010 (based on
 337 24h mean concentrations) are also shown. Note these do not include SE-Östad as the model
 338 runs for this site did not include the full 12 months. — = ozone concentration, — = *B.*
 339 *pendula*, -- = *L. hispidus* and ··· = *D. glomerata*.

340

341

342

343

344 Consequences of changes in climate

345 An increase in temperature of 2°C increased stomatal ozone uptake at all sites and had a
346 larger impact than changing ozone profile in many cases (Figures 3-5), particularly for *B.*
347 *pendula* ($p < 0.01$) and *L. hispidus* ($p < 0.01$). For IT-Arconate and ES-Tres Cantos there was a
348 small increase in stomatal ozone uptake with increasing temperature, which was largest in the
349 spring. The other sites showed increases in stomatal ozone uptake with increased temperature
350 over a wider time-period, and although these were sometimes largest in spring (March to
351 May), they also sometimes occurred in summer and/or autumn. *D. glomerata* has a higher
352 T_{min} than *L. hispidus* and *B. pendula* and for this species increasing temperature by 2°C in the
353 spring was not sufficient for T_{min} to be reached, particularly in the more northern sites, and
354 therefore there was no increase in stomatal opening. However, for *L. hispidus* and *B. pendula*
355 the increase in temperature caused a shift from T_{min} towards T_{opt} and therefore an increase in
356 stomatal opening.

357
358 Soil moisture limitations in the current climate were sufficient to reduce stomatal ozone
359 uptake for *L. hispidus* and *D. glomerata* during the summer for prolonged periods at the sites
360 IT-Arconate, ES-Tres Cantos and UK-Harwell, and for a shorter time at DE-Linden
361 (Supplementary material S3). A reduction in rainfall by 20% reduced stomatal ozone uptake
362 in some months at all sites, including those with high annual rainfall. For the sites IT-
363 Arconate and ES-Tres Cantos the reduction in stomatal ozone uptake due to reduced rainfall
364 was lower than for the other sites, because stomatal fluxes were already limited by soil
365 moisture in 'current' conditions. Reductions in rainfall by 20% had very little impact on the
366 stomatal ozone uptake of *B. pendula* at any of the sites used, because the stomatal
367 conductance model parameterisation indicated that this species maintained stomatal opening
368 at low soil water potential.

369
370 Consequences of combined changes in ozone and climate in 2100

371 A combination of a 2°C increase in temperature and 2100 ozone profile increased stomatal
372 ozone uptake, although the magnitude of the increase varied. For *L. hispidus* at the sites UK-
373 Harwell, IT-Arconate, ES-Tres Cantos and DE-Linden, the impact was largest in March and
374 was much less in the summer, when other factors were limiting stomatal fluxes. For UK-
375 Strath Vaich, UK-Snowdon, UK-Auchencorth and SE-Östad the combination of 2°C increase
376 in temperature and 2100 ozone scenario corresponded with increased fluxes throughout most
377 of the year and the impact was largest in summer and autumn. A combination of 20%
378 decreased rainfall and 2100 ozone profile often gave monthly stomatal ozone fluxes that were
379 intermediate between those of 2100 ozone profile and decreased rainfall, therefore, the
380 monthly stomatal ozone uptake with this scenario were usually higher than those of the
381 'current' scenario.

382
383 Species-specific considerations

384 Calculated ozone fluxes were highest for *L. hispidus* and *B. pendula*, with *D. glomerata*
385 fluxes generally lower at all sites. This is partly because *L. hispidus* had a higher g_{max} than the
386 other species and therefore higher stomatal conductance, but *L. hispidus* and *B. pendula* also
387 had a lower T_{min} , enabling stomatal uptake at lower temperatures than for *D. glomerata*. This
388 difference in response to meteorological conditions also meant that the seasonal profile of
389 stomatal ozone flux was different for the different species, with *D. glomerata* having a more
390 pronounced seasonal variation.

391
392 Identification of the minimum ozone concentration with a corresponding stomatal ozone
393 uptake rate reveals that for *B. pendula*, ozone fluxes above the commonly used threshold of 1

394 nmol m² s⁻¹ (POD₁) accumulated when ozone values were >10 ppb, if climatic conditions
395 were optimal. Although ozone flux could be high when ozone concentrations were higher
396 than 50 ppb, often climatic conditions were limiting. For *L. hispidus*, *B. pendula* and *D.*
397 *glomerata*, ozone flux could be above the threshold of 1 nmol m⁻² s⁻¹ when ozone values
398 were as low as 5 ppb, 10 ppb and 10 ppb respectively (Supplementary material S5).

399

400 Discussion

401 This study has shown that without any change in climate, increased background and reduced
402 peak ozone concentrations typically predicted for Europe in 2100 as a result of increased
403 hemispheric transport of precursors and local precursor emission reductions could result in up
404 to a 15% increase in total stomatal ozone uptake to vegetation (POD₀) compared to 2010
405 ozone profiles. The north-south gradient in ozone concentration for the sites meant that the
406 impacts of the future ozone scenario varied with latitude. In more northern sites where peak
407 ozone concentrations were lower, a higher proportion of hourly ambient ozone values were
408 less than 40 ppb and the applied scenario therefore increased the ozone concentration as a
409 result of the increasing background. In contrast, the southern European sites had higher
410 peaks of ozone in current conditions and therefore there was a larger effect of the reduction in
411 values > 45 ppb by 5 ppb on the ozone concentrations with the 2100 scenario. Although all
412 sites showed a net increase in mean ozone concentration and total stomatal ozone uptake with
413 the 2100 scenario compared to current conditions, the proportionate increase was lower in the
414 southern sites. This indicates that a changing ozone profile in Europe could have a larger
415 impact in mid and northern regions than southern regions, especially when the increased
416 ozone concentrations coincide with climatic conditions favourable for ozone uptake.

417

418 Changes in meteorology as a consequence of predicted climate change could also have a
419 large influence on stomatal ozone uptake in the absence of any alterations in ozone
420 concentration, particularly temperature, which increased modelled stomatal ozone uptake at
421 all sites in this study. In this study only a single stomatal conductance parameterisation per
422 species was used across Europe and it is possible that vegetation of the Mediterranean region
423 may exhibit a reduced extent of stomatal closure with high temperature, VPD and SWP
424 compared to that grown in more northern regions (Calvo et al., 2007, LRTAP 2017) and
425 therefore climatic conditions may be more favourable for stomatal ozone uptake than this
426 modelling exercise suggests. The element of climate change having the largest influence on
427 stomatal fluxes varied according to region. This is consistent with a previous study on winter
428 wheat and beech, where increased ozone fluxes in response to increased temperature were
429 predicted over the period 1997-2100 in Germany (Bender et al., 2015).

430

431 This study applied a simplified 2100 scenario for ozone and meteorological conditions in the
432 future to provide an indication of potential implications for stomatal ozone flux. However,
433 diurnal and seasonal variations in changes in both ozone and meteorological conditions may
434 occur in 2100 which could influence stomatal fluxes. Higher daily maxima for temperature
435 could enhance the rate of ozone formation as well as influencing the contribution of natural
436 sources to precursor emissions (Royal Society, 2008), increasing hourly ozone values by 1-10
437 ppb (Jacob and Winner, 2009). There could also be feedbacks between the vegetation and
438 ozone and microclimatic conditions, for example, reduced stomatal ozone uptake due to
439 increased soil moisture deficit in 2100 could lead to increased ambient ozone concentrations,
440 (Kroeger et al. 2014; Emberson et al. 2013).

441

442 The impact of increasing temperature on stomatal ozone fluxes could be particularly
443 important for species that have a low T_{min} and are actively growing in cooler conditions,

444 where an increase in temperature would give conditions closer to optimum for conductance.
445 As a consequence of predicted climate change, stomatal ozone fluxes could occur over a
446 longer period of the year than in current conditions, including into early spring and autumn,
447 which until recently have not been considered to be associated with a risk to vegetation from
448 ozone pollution. It has been suggested that some species are most sensitive to ozone at or
449 around the time of flowering (e.g. Pleijel et al., 1998, Soja et al., 2000) and ozone impacts on
450 flowering and seed development have been shown for a wide range of species in a recent
451 meta-analysis (Leisner and Ainsworth, 2012). Since many European species flower in
452 March-April it is possible that these species are particularly at risk from future ozone and
453 climate change scenarios. Spring flowering species have been poorly studied for ozone
454 responses in northern Europe in comparison to those which flower in summer (Hayes et al.,
455 2007). In addition, stomatal conductance model parameterisations are not available for many
456 of these early flowering species, which may be active at lower temperatures than the species
457 considered in this study. Further studies on spring flowering species are therefore needed to
458 better understand the potential consequences of a changing ozone profile. In contrast,
459 experiments in the Mediterranean region have focussed on spring flowering plants as this is
460 the main flowering season in this region before conditions become too dry (González-
461 Fernández et al., 2010, Calvete-Sogo et al., 2015).

462
463 Increased ozone fluxes to vegetation in autumn may also be important. It has been
464 demonstrated that mature leaves of some tree species are more sensitive to ozone than those
465 that are not fully-expanded in terms of both visible injury and impairment of photosynthesis
466 (Zhang et al., 2010, Bagard et al., 2008). It is therefore possible that increased stomatal
467 ozone uptake in autumn may damage leaves to a greater extent than a similar ozone uptake in
468 spring if the leaves are more sensitive to ozone at this time. Ozone can also accelerate
469 senescence (e.g. Matyssek and Sandermann, 2003), and if premature leaf loss occurs in the
470 autumn there may be a longer period without leaves until the following spring. In addition,
471 autumn exposure to ozone may decrease winter-hardiness of some species e.g. *Picea abies*
472 due to changes in chloroplast shape and location within the cells (Kivimaenpaa et al., 2014).
473 With increased background ozone concentrations these detrimental effects could be further
474 enhanced as climatic conditions are favourable for uptake of additional ozone.

475
476 An aspect not considered in this study is that alterations in climate could also influence
477 stomatal ozone fluxes due to changes in phenology. In Europe, a comprehensive analysis of
478 a large phenological dataset has shown that the phenological response to climate change
479 shows an advance in spring/summer of 2.5 days per decade (Menzel et al., 2006). Over the
480 previous 60 years it has been demonstrated that bud-burst of beech, birch and oak is
481 beginning increasingly earlier (Olsson, 2014), particularly at northern latitudes and it has
482 been estimated that in Fennoscandia the growing season is extending by four days per decade
483 (Hogda et al., 2013). This is particularly relevant for deciduous trees such as *B. pendula*
484 because the current study has shown that climatic and ozone conditions in the early spring
485 and late autumn months that are outside of the current growing period are also conducive to
486 ozone uptake, should the growing season extend into these.

487
488 Ozone uptake exceeding $1 \text{ nmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (considered to be a surrogate ozone detoxification
489 threshold for forest trees and semi-natural vegetation; Mills et al., 2011b) occurred with
490 ozone concentrations at or below 10 ppb for the species used in this study. This demonstrates
491 that small but frequent increases to these low concentrations could result in large impacts on
492 total ozone fluxes over the course of a growing season. However, the ozone concentration
493 required to reach this threshold is related to the g_{max} of the species and species with a higher

494 g_{\max} reach this threshold at a lower ozone concentration, when climatic conditions are
495 favourable. Due to the mis-match between high ozone concentrations and optimum climatic
496 conditions for stomatal uptake, the species-specific minimum and optimum temperature for
497 stomatal uptake were very influential in determining ozone fluxes, indicating that a robust
498 parameterisation of T_{\min} is essential to ensure that stomatal ozone fluxes in sub-optimal
499 climatic conditions can be accurately assessed.

500

501 This study has used example sites from across Europe to show that a future ozone profile in
502 Europe with increased background ozone concentrations and decreased peaks can cause a
503 significant increase in stomatal ozone flux to vegetation. In particular at mid- to northern
504 latitudes, large increases in ozone flux are predicted for the summer months when climatic
505 conditions are rarely limiting. In Southern Europe, our predictions using a generalized flux
506 model parameterisation to facilitate comparisons suggest that the changing ozone profile
507 would have proportionately less impact on accumulated flux. Although changes in
508 temperature, soil moisture and ozone profile can all influence accumulated flux, a
509 combination of an altered ozone profile together with a 2°C increase in temperature gives a
510 much larger increase in predicted stomatal ozone uptake than altered ozone profile alone.
511 Furthermore, background ozone concentrations are also high during spring and autumn and
512 increased impacts on vegetation during these periods may be biologically significant as some
513 species may be more vulnerable at these times. The time window for considering vegetation
514 at risk from ozone pollution in future scenarios should therefore be extended to include the
515 active growing seasons in spring and autumn as significant ozone fluxes could occur during
516 this time.

517

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