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1	Chemical climatology and assessment of atmospheric composition impacts
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10 Many atmospheric composition studies measure or model the concentration of X at place Y at time t, but fewer studies synthesise these measurements in the context of the full chemical 11 environment and specific impacts. In contrast, the first systematic study of air pollution, by 12 13 Victorian chemist Robert Angus Smith (1817-1884), had this explicit aim. From his experiences with the Health of Towns Commission and as Chief Inspector of the Alkali Act 14 (1863), Angus Smith investigated the link between atmospheric composition and human 15 health impacts in urban areas. In his 1872 book 'Air and Rain: The beginnings of a chemical 16 *climatology*', not only did Angus Smith coin the phrase 'chemical climatology', but he 17 18 utilised methodologies recognisable today including monitoring networks with site classification, the analysis of temporal trends, and basic source apportionment (Angus Smith, 19 20 1872). Perhaps the most important legacy was his philosophy of seeking to link the 21 atmospheric state to both causal factors and to pollution impacts. Subsequently, the term chemical climatology was used only sporadically. Recently, however, published literature 22 containing phrases such as 'chemical climatology', 'aerosol climatology' and 'ozone 23 24 climatology' have increased, but with widely varying context.

25

We propose that an impact-centred approach to defining chemical climatology, based on the 26 legacy of Angus Smith, would be beneficial to establishing both relevant linkages between 27 impacts and their drivers, and consistent syntheses of atmospheric composition studies for the 28 29 research community and policy makers. To achieve this, we propose a framework that defines any climate (chemical, or otherwise, for example meteorological or political) as 30 consisting of three elements -the 'impact', the 'state' and the 'drivers', contained within 31 32 specified spatial and temporal boundaries (Figure 1, Table 1). It is noted that some studies do fulfil the chemical climatology framework laid out here (e.g. Derwent et al., 2013). This 33 framework is consistent with modern interpretations of a meteorological climate. For 34

example Bryson (1997) defined meteorological climate as 'the thermodynamic/hydrodynamic
status of the global boundary conditions that determine the current array of weather *patterns*'. In this definition a climate 'state' determines the possible weather patterns (impacts)
and is itself produced by drivers e.g. solar variability.

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40 In the atmospheric chemical climatology context:

Impact is an identified effect or metric of atmospheric composition, for which it is
 sought to determine the underlying contributing sources and processes. Different
 impacts (e.g. different metrics of the same component or of different components) are
 associated with different chemical climates.

State is the description of the 'what', 'when' and 'where' of atmospheric composition
producing the identified impact. This includes consideration of atmospheric
constituents and their temporal and spatial variations relevant to the impact (metric),
for example diurnal, annual, peak over threshold, etc. An individual chemical climate
contains one state, incorporating all relevant variation.

Drivers are the sources and influences on the atmospheric composition that determine
 the state, and hence the impact (metric). Assessment of the relative importance of
 each driver should explain 'why' and 'how' the composition variation detailed in the
 state occurs, and hence identify the dominant processes in producing instances of the
 impact.

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The chemical climatology framework can be applied to measured or modelled data. The chemical climate is the holistic characterisation within clearly demarcated boundaries in space and time. Further, the concept of a 'phase' of a chemical climate (Figure 1) demarcates significant change in the drivers and state leading to significant change in the impact (metric). Phases may be identified through the segmentation of the temporal or spatial domain of a
chemical climate derived using all available data, or by merging climates derived separately
for a given impact over smaller temporal or spatial domains into a single climate of separate
phases.

64

Six practical steps to define a chemical climate are summarised in Table 1, and an example 65 template for its presentation is shown in Table 2. Step 1 identifies the impact; for example, 66 studies link acute exposure to elevated ozone concentrations and respiratory conditions 67 (WHO, 2006). Step 2 defines the relevant metric; e.g. maximum daily 8-h average 68 concentration above 70 μ g m⁻³, which is associated with a statistically significant increase in 69 70 mortality (Amann et al., 2008). Step 3 defines the temporal and spatial boundaries to the 71 dataset. Step 4 is the description of the state. This involves relevant temporal and spatial patterns of ozone variation above 70 µg m⁻³, e.g. diurnal and seasonal variation, and 72 covariance with precursor molecules. Step 5 identifies drivers, for example the relative 73 74 importance of local, regional and hemispheric transport, and source activities emitting ozone precursors. Step 6 assesses the presence of different phases within the chemical climate e.g. 75 significantly different patterns of ozone metric exceedance in different regions, or significant 76 changes to ozone precursor emissions over time. Different phases may be identified during 77 steps 2-5 or through independent application of steps 2-5 for different spatial/temporal 78 79 domains, followed by collation into a single chemical climate. Were a different impact being investigated, for example the ozone impact on vegetation (assessed by a cumulative 80 deposition flux over a season), the state and drivers would be different, and a separate 81 82 chemical climate would be derived.

83

84 Table 1 highlights the chemical climatology steps covered by four illustrative studies concerning ground-level ozone. Derwent et al. (2013) is a good recent example of a study 85 featuring full chemical climates assessing the contribution of a driver (hemispheric baseline 86 87 ozone concentrations) to different ozone impacts (vegetation and human health). Three examples of the majority of studies which assess a subset of the steps are also included in 88 Table 1. WHO (2006) assess the health impact of ozone and define a relevant metric (steps 1 89 and 2), but do not evaluate the state and drivers of ozone variation in particular locations; 90 Malley et al. (2014) describe changes in ozone variation at rural sites across Europe (steps 3) 91 92 and 4), but do not link to ozone impacts or causal drivers; Gerasopoulos et al. (2006) assess the state and drivers of ozone variation at Finokalia, Crete (steps 4 and 5), but do not link this 93 variation to ozone impacts, nor evaluate the temporal and spatial representativeness of ozone 94 95 variation at the location. Covering a subset of the chemical climatology steps is not a 96 shortcoming of studies, and neither should every investigation aim to cover every step in the chemical climatology framework. However, increased awareness of the steps within the 97 98 framework covered by isolated studies means that they can be combined to produce full impact-led chemical climate assessments focussing on relevant local, regional and global 99 100 scale issues. This would better facilitate consideration of impact mitigation strategy development where needed. A standard output from chemical climate studies (Table 2) 101 102 summarises the statistical features of the chemical climate, as well as the temporal and spatial 103 boundaries and scientific uncertainties. This could allow collation and linkage between chemical climates. 104

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Table 1: Chemical climatology framework	: Component	Steps	and a	few	example	studies	
Table 1: Chemical climatology framework: Component Steps and a few example studies identifying which component steps were described							

		Example chemical climatology		Example studies						
Step	Description	Ozone	-	rasopoulos WHO Derwent et Malley et al. al. (2006) (2006) al. (2013) (2014)						
1	Identify impact	Human health; Vegetation damage		✓	✓					
2	Define relevant chemical	Sum of means over 35 ppb (SOMO35);		\checkmark	\checkmark					
	climate metric(s) for the	Accumulated ozone over 40 ppb (AOT40)								
	impact									
3	Define the chemical climate's	Representivity of time period and location			\checkmark	\checkmark				
	temporal and spatial boundarie	S								
4	Describe the chemical climate	Statistical analysis of measured/modelled dataset	\checkmark		\checkmark	\checkmark				
	state									
5	Identify the chemical climate	Relative contribution of meteorology, source	\checkmark		\checkmark					
	driver(s)	apportionment, atmospheric chemistry								
6	Assess for phases within the	Significant temporal/spatial changes in impact			\checkmark					
	chemical climate	severity								

Table 2: Chemical climate datasheet template. The example is for the human health impact of ozone at Harwell, a monitoring site in south east England.

Impact	Spatial domain		Drivers					State	Key uncertainties				
Ozone human	Harwell:	Representivity	Meteorology					Data source:					
health impact		1 0						Ozone					
	EMEP level II	S and SE UK							Mean	3 rd Quart	ile Max		
Respiratory	Supersite, lat:	(Malley et al.,								-			-
effects:	51.571078	2014)	The second design of the secon					-					
Increased	long:	AURN	Temperature										
mortality,	-1.325283	classification:	Prevailing Wind Direction										
decreased lung function,	Birmingham Coventry	Rural Background	Atmospheric chemistry						No. exceed	lances	SOMO35		-
coughing, throat	the set of	Background											
irritation.	Bristol London												
shortness of	Exeter Brighton Bournemouth												
breath,	Torquay English Charmel							4					
inflammation of	Temporal Doma	in	Air transport patterns (back						<u> </u>				_
airways, increased			trajectories grouped using hierarchical cluster analysis):					% exc	eedances by			337.	_
asthma attacks,			nierarchical cluster analysis):					07.11	Spring	Summer	Autumn	Winter	_
(WHO, 2006).								07-11 02-06					
*** 11** 1.1	Phases		Hemispheric/Regional/Local					96-01					
World Health	1 hases		influences:					90-95					
Organization (WHO) 8-hour									MO35 by se	eason			-
daily max ozone								7000	Spring	Summer	Autumn	Winter	_
concentration								07-11	- I 8				-
above which there			Source proximity:					02-06					
is a significant			Data source:					96-01					
increased								90-95					
mortality risk: 35				1990-1995	1996-2001	2002-2006	2007-2011	Diurna	al ozone cyc				
ppb (Amann et al.,			EU27 NO _x emissions (Gg)						Non-excee	dance	Exceedan	ce	_
2008).			UK NO _x emissions (% EU27)					07-11					
Savanity of			EU27 VOC emissions (Gg)					02-06					
Severity of exceedance			UK VOC emissions (% EU27)					96-01 90-95					
characterised by			Major sources: NO _x						ianco with 1	NO (maa-	NO dunia	g 070P0	-
SOMO35 metric:			Major Sources: NO _x					Covariance with NO _x (mean NO _x during ozone exceedance/non-exceedance (ppb))					
Sum of daily max								CALLEU	NO non-ex			ex NO ₂ ex	-
8-hour mean			Major sources: VOCs					07-11			100211011-0		-
ozone			U U					02-06					
concentration in								96-01					
excess of 35 ppb.													

Figure 1: An illustration of the chemical climatology framework. For a particular chemical climate description, only a single phase might be identified.

