



1 **Simulation of ozone-vegetation coupling and feedback in**
2 **China using multiple ozone damage schemes**

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Jiachen Cao¹, Xu Yue^{1*}, Mingrui Ma²

- 7 1. Jiangsu Key Laboratory of Atmospheric Environment Monitoring and Pollution
8 Control, Collaborative Innovation Center of Atmospheric Environment and
9 Equipment Technology, School of Environmental Science and Engineering, Nanjing
10 University of Information Science & Technology (NUIST), Nanjing, 210044, China
11 2. State Key Laboratory of Pollution Control and Resource Reuse, School of the
12 Environment, Nanjing University, Nanjing, 210044, China

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16 *Corresponding author: Xu Yue

17 email: yuxu@nuist.edu.cn

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Abstract

26 As a phytotoxic pollutant, surface ozone (O_3) not only affects plant physiology but
27 also influences meteorological fields and air quality by altering leaf stomatal
28 functions. Previous studies revealed strong feedbacks of O_3 -vegetation coupling in
29 China but with large uncertainties due to the applications of varied O_3 damage
30 schemes and chemistry-vegetation models. In this study, we quantify the O_3
31 vegetation damage and the consequent feedbacks to surface meteorology and air
32 quality in China by coupling two O_3 damage schemes (S2007 vs. L2013) into a fully
33 coupled regional meteorology-chemistry model. With different schemes and
34 damaging sensitivities, surface O_3 is predicted to decrease summertime gross primary
35 productivity by 5.5%-21.4% and transpiration by 5.4%-23.2% in China, in which the
36 L2013 scheme yields 2.5-4 times of losses relative to the S2007 scheme. The damages
37 to photosynthesis of sunlit leaves are ~ 2.6 times that of shaded leaves in the S2007
38 scheme but show limited differences in the L2013 scheme. Though with large
39 discrepancies in offline responses, the two schemes yield similar magnitude of
40 feedback to surface meteorology and O_3 air quality. The O_3 -induced damage to
41 transpiration increases national sensible heat by $3.2\text{-}6.0\text{ W m}^{-2}$ (8.9% to 16.2%) while
42 reduces latent heat by $3.3\text{-}6.4\text{ W m}^{-2}$ (-5.6% to -17.4%), leading to a $0.2\text{-}0.51\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$
43 increase in surface air temperature and a 2.2-3.9% reduction in relative humidity.
44 Meanwhile, surface O_3 concentrations on average increase by $1.3\text{-}3.3\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ due to
45 the inhibitions of stomatal uptake and the anomalous enhancement in isoprene
46 emissions, the latter of which is attributed to the surface warming by O_3 -vegetation
47 coupling. Our results highlight the importance of O_3 control in China due to its
48 adverse effects on ecosystem functions, deterioration of global warming, and
49 exacerbation of O_3 pollution through the O_3 -vegetation coupling.

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51 **Keywords:** Ozone, vegetation, feedback, meteorology, air quality, regional model

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53 **1 Introduction**

54 Surface ozone (O_3) is one of the most enduring air pollutants affecting air quality
55 in China, with detrimental effects on human health and ecosystem functions (Monk et
56 al., 2015). Long-term observations and numerical simulations have shown that O_3
57 affects stomatal conductance (Li et al., 2017), accelerates vegetation aging (Feng et al.,
58 2015), and reduces photosynthesis (Wittig et al., 2007). These negative effects altered
59 carbon allocation (Yue and Unger, 2014; Lombardozzi et al., 2015) and inhibited plant
60 growth (Li et al., 2016), leading to a decreased strength of ecosystem carbon uptake
61 (Ainsworth, 2012). Moreover, these effects have profound implications for
62 global/regional climate and atmospheric environment. Given the significant
63 ecological impacts, a systematic quantification of the O_3 vegetation damage effect in
64 China is of great importance for the better understanding of the side effects of O_3
65 pollution on both regional carbon uptake and climate change.

66 At present, field experiments on O_3 -induced vegetation damage have been
67 conducted in China but were mostly confined to individual monitoring sites. For
68 instance, Su et al. (2017) conducted experiments on grassland in Inner Mongolia and
69 found that elevated O_3 concentrations resulted in a decrease of approximately 20% in
70 the photosynthetic rate of herbaceous plants. Meta-analysis of tropical, subtropical,
71 and temperate tree species in China found that increased O_3 concentrations reduced
72 net photosynthesis and total biomass of Chinese woody plants by 28% and 14%,
73 respectively (Li et al., 2017). However, most of these experiments were conducted
74 using open-top chambers with artificially controlled O_3 concentrations, rather than
75 actual surface O_3 concentrations, making it difficult to quantitatively estimate the
76 impact of ambient O_3 on vegetation productivity. Furthermore, the spatial coverage of
77 field experiments is limited, which hinders the direct use of observational data for
78 assessing O_3 vegetation damage in different regions of China.

79 Alternatively, numerical models provide a more feasible approach to quantify the
80 O_3 -induced vegetation damage from the regional to global scales. Currently, there are
81 three main parameterizations for the calculation of ozone vegetation damage. Felzer et



82 al. (2004) established an empirical scheme based on the Accumulated Ozone exposure
83 over a Threshold of 40 ppb (AOT40) within the framework of a terrestrial ecosystem
84 model. They further estimated that O₃ pollution in the United States led to a decrease
85 in net primary productivity (NPP) by 2.6% to 6.8% during the period of 1980-1990.
86 However, the AOT40 is related to O₃ concentrations alone and ignores the biological
87 regulations on the O₃ stomatal uptake, leading to inconsistent tendencies between O₃
88 pollution level and plant damage at the drought conditions (Gong et al., 2021). In
89 acknowledge of such deficit, Sitch et al. (2007) proposed a semi-mechanistic scheme
90 calculating O₃ vegetation damage based on the stomatal uptake of O₃ fluxes and the
91 coupling between stomatal conductance and leaf photosynthesis. Yue and Unger
92 (2014) implemented this scheme into the Yale Interactive terrestrial Biosphere (YIBs)
93 model. Taking into account varied O₃ sensitivities of different vegetation types, they
94 estimated that surface O₃ led to reductions of 2-5% in the summer gross primary
95 productivity (GPP) in eastern U.S. from 1998 to 2007. Later, Lombardozzi et al.
96 (2013) conducted a meta-analysis using published chamber data and found different
97 levels of responses to O₃ exposure between stomatal conductance and photosynthesis.
98 They further implemented the independent response relationships into the Community
99 Land Model (CLM) and estimated that current ozone levels led to a reduction in
100 global GPP by 8%-12% (Lombardozzi et al., 2015).

101 The O₃ stress on vegetation physiology can feed back to affect regional climate.
102 Lombardozzi et al. (2015) employed the CLM model and found that current O₃
103 exposure reduced transpiration by 2%-2.4% globally and up to 15% regionally over
104 eastern U.S., Europe, and Southeast Asia, leading to further perturbations in surface
105 energy and runoff. In U.S., Li et al. (2016) found that the O₃ vegetation damage
106 reduced latent heat (LH) flux, precipitation, and runoff by 10-27 W m⁻², 0.9-1.4 mm
107 d⁻¹, and 0.1-0.17 mm d⁻¹, respectively, but increased surface air temperature by
108 0.6-2.0 °C during the summer of 2007-2012. In China, Zhu et al. (2022) performed
109 simulations and found that the inclusion of O₃-vegetation interaction caused a 5-30 W
110 m⁻² decrease in LH, 0.2-0.8 °C increase in surface air temperature, and 3% reduction



111 in relative humidity during summers of 2014-2017. Recently, Jin et al. (2023) applied
112 a different regional model and estimated that O₃ exposure weakened plant
113 transpiration and altered surface heat flux in China, resulting in significant increase of
114 up to 0.16 °C in maximum daytime temperature and decrease of -0.74% in relative
115 humidity. However, all these previous estimates of O₃-induced feedback to climate
116 were derived using the empirical O₃ damage scheme proposed by Lombardozzi et al.
117 (2013), which assumed fixed damage ratios independent of O₃ dose for some
118 vegetation species and as a result may have biases in the further estimated feedback to
119 climate.

120 The O₃-vegetation coupling also has intricate implications for air quality. On one
121 hand, O₃-vegetation coupling can influence meteorological conditions that affect O₃
122 generation, ultimately influencing the O₃ level (Sadiq et al., 2017). On the other hand,
123 it can also influence biogenic emissions and dry deposition, thereby affecting O₃
124 concentrations (Gong et al., 2020). Sadiq et al. (2017) implemented O₃-vegetation
125 coupling in the Community Earth System Model (CESM) and estimated that surface
126 O₃ concentrations increased 4-6 ppb in Europe, North America, and China due to
127 O₃-vegetation coupling. By using the CLM model with the empirical scheme of
128 Lombardozzi et al. (2013), Zhou et al. (2018) found that O₃-induced damage on leaf
129 area index (LAI) could lead to changes in global O₃ concentrations by -1.8 to +3 ppb
130 in boreal summer. Gong et al., (2020) used the O₃ damage scheme from Sitch et al.
131 (2007) embedded in a global climate-chemistry-carbon coupled model and estimated
132 that O₃-induced stomatal inhibition led to an average surface O₃ increase of 1.2-2.1
133 ppb in eastern China and 1.0-1.3 ppb in western Europe. Different from the above
134 global simulations with coarse resolutions, regional modeling with fine resolution can
135 reveal more details about O₃-vegetation coupling and feedback to surface O₃
136 concentrations in China (Zhu et al., 2022; Jin et al., 2023). However, all these regional
137 simulations were carried out using O₃ damage scheme of Lombardozzi et al. (2013),
138 limiting the exploration of model uncertainties due to varied O₃ vegetation damage
139 schemes.



140 In this study, we implemented O₃ vegetation damage schemes from both Sitch et
141 al. (2007) and Lombardozzi et al. (2013) into the widely-used regional
142 meteorology-chemistry model WRF-Chem. We validated the simulated meteorology
143 and O₃ concentrations, and performed sensitivity experiments to explore the O₃
144 damage to GPP and consequent feedbacks to regional climate and air quality in China.
145 Within the same framework, we compared the differences of O₃-vegetation coupling
146 from two schemes and explored the causes for the discrepancies. We aimed to
147 quantify the modeling uncertainties in the up-to-date estimates of O₃ impact on
148 regional carbon fluxes and its feedback to regional climate and air quality in China.

149

150 **2 Method**

151 **2.1 WRF-Chem model**

152 We used WRF-Chem model version 3.9.1 to simulate meteorological fields and
153 O₃ concentration in China. The model includes atmospheric physics and dynamical
154 processes, atmospheric chemistry, and biophysical and biochemical processes (Grell
155 et al., 2005, Skamarock et al., 2008). The model domain is configured with 196×160
156 grid cells at 27 km horizontal resolution on the Lambert conformal projection, and
157 covers the entire mainland China. In the vertical direction, 28 layers are set extending
158 from surface to 50 hPa. The meteorological initial and boundary conditions were
159 adopted from ERA5 reanalysis produced by the European Centre for Medium-Range
160 Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) at a horizontal resolution of 0.25°×0.25° (Hersbach et al.,
161 2020). The chemical initial and boundary conditions were generated from the Model
162 for Ozone and Related Chemical Tracer version 4 (MOZART-4), which is available at
163 a horizontal resolution of 1.9°×2.5° with 56 vertical layers (Emmons et al., 2010).

164 Anthropogenic emissions are adopted from the 0.25° Multi-resolution Emission
165 Inventory for China (MEIC) and MIX Asian emission inventory for the other regions
166 (available at <http://meicmodel.org>). Biogenic emissions are calculated online using
167 the Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (Guenther et al., 2006),
168 which considers the impacts of plant types, weather conditions, and leaf area on



169 vegetation emissions. Atmospheric chemistry is simulated using the Carbon Bond
170 Mechanism version Z (CBMZ) (Zaveri and Peters, 1999) gas-phase chemistry module
171 coupled with a four-bin sectional Model for Simulating Aerosol Interactions and
172 Chemistry (MOSAIC) (Zaveri et al., 2008). The photolysis scheme is based on the
173 Madronich Fast-TUV photolysis module (Tie et al., 2003). The physical
174 configurations include the Morrison double-moment microphysics scheme (Morrison
175 et al., 2009), the Grell-3 cumulus scheme (Grell et al., 2002), the Rapid Radiative
176 Transfer Model longwave radiation scheme (Mlawer et al., 1997), the Goddard
177 short-wave radiation scheme (Chou and Suarez, 1994), the Yonsei University
178 planetary boundary layer scheme (Hong et al., 2006), and the revised MM5 (Fifth
179 generation Mesoscale Model) Monin–Obukhov surface layer scheme.

180

181 **2.2 Noah-MP model**

182 Noah-MP is a land surface model coupled to WRF-Chem with multiple options
183 for key land-atmosphere interaction processes (Niu et al., 2011). Noah-MP considers
184 canopy structure with canopy height and crown radius, and depicts leaves with
185 prescribed dimensions, orientation, density, and radiometric properties. The model
186 employs a two-stream radiative transfer approach for surface energy and water
187 transfer processes (Dickinson, 1983). Noah-MP is capable of distinguishing
188 photosynthesis pathways between C₃ and C₄ plants, and defines vegetation-specific
189 parameters for leaf photosynthesis and respiration.

190 Noah-MP considers prognostic vegetation growth through the coupling between
191 photosynthesis and stomatal conductance (Farquhar et al., 1980; Ball et al., 1987).
192 The photosynthesis rate, A ($\mu\text{molCO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$), is calculated as one of three limiting
193 factors as follows:

$$194 \quad A_{tot} = \min(W_c, W_j, W_e)I_{gs}$$

195 (1)

196 where W_c is the RuBisco-limited photosynthesis rate, W_j is the light-limited
197 photosynthesis rate, and W_e is the export-limited photosynthesis rate. I_{gs} is the



198 growing season index with values ranging from 0 to 1. Stomatal conductance (g_s) is
199 computed based on photosynthetic rate as follows:

$$200 \quad g_s = \frac{1}{r_s} = m \frac{A_{net}}{C_s} RH + b \quad (2)$$

201 where b is the minimum stomatal conductance; m is the Ball-Berry slope of the
202 conductance-photosynthesis relationship; A_{net} is the net photosynthesis by subtracting
203 dark respiration from A_{tot} ; C_s is the ambient CO₂ concentration at the leaf surface.
204 The assimilated carbon is allocated to various parts of vegetation (leaf, stem, wood,
205 and root) and soil carbon pools (fast and slow), which determines the variations of
206 LAI and canopy height. Plant transpiration rate is then estimated using the dynamic
207 LAI and stomatal conductance. Noah-MP also distinguishes the photosynthesis of
208 sunlit and shaded leaves. Sunlit leaves are more limited by CO₂ concentration while
209 shaded leaves are more constrained by insolation, leading to varied responses to O₃
210 damage.

211

212 **2.3 Scheme for ozone damage on vegetation**

213 We implemented the O₃ vegetation damage schemes proposed by Sitch et al.
214 (2007) (thereafter S2007) and Lombardozzi et al. (2013) (thereafter L2013) into the
215 Noah-MP. In S2007 scheme, the undamaged fraction F for net photosynthesis is
216 dependent on the sensitivity parameter a_{PFT} and excessive area-based stomatal O₃ flux,
217 which is calculated as the difference between f_{O_3} and threshold y_{PFT} :

$$218 \quad F = 1 - a_{PFT} \times \max\{f_{O_3} - y_{PFT}, 0\} \quad (3)$$

219 where a_{PFT} and y_{PFT} are specifically determined for individual plant functional types
220 (PFTs) based on measurements (Table 1). The stomatal O₃ flux f_{O_3} is calculated as

$$221 \quad f_{O_3} = \frac{[O_3]}{r_a + k_{O_3} \cdot r_s} \quad (4)$$

222 where $[O_3]$ is the O₃ concentration at the reference level (nmol m⁻³), r_a is the
223 aerodynamic and boundary layer resistance between leaf surface and reference level
224 (s m⁻¹). $k_{O_3} = 1.67$ represents the ratio of leaf resistance for O₃ to that for water vapor.
225 r_s represents stomatal resistance (s m⁻¹). For S2007 scheme, stomatal conductance is



226 damaged with the same ratio ($1-F$) as photosynthesis and further affects O_3 uptake.

227 As a comparison, the L2013 scheme applies separate O_3 damaging relationships
228 for photosynthetic rate and stomatal conductance. These independent relationships
229 account for different plant groups and are calculated based on the cumulative uptake
230 of O_3 (CUO) under different levels of chronic O_3 exposure. The leaf-level CUO
231 (mmol m^{-2}) over the growing season is calculated as follows:

$$232 \quad CUO = \sum (k_{O_3}/r_s + 1/r_a) \times [O_3]$$

233 (5)

234 The physical parameters in Equation (5) are the same as those in Equation (4). O_3
235 uptake is accumulated over time steps during the growing season with mean LAI >
236 0.5 (Lombardozzi et al., 2012), when vegetation is most vulnerable to air pollution
237 episodes. O_3 uptake is only accumulated when O_3 flux is above an instantaneous
238 threshold of $0.8 \text{ nmol } O_3 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ to account for ozone detoxification by vegetation at
239 low O_3 levels (Lombardozzi et al., 2015). We also include a leaf-turnover rate for
240 evergreen plants so that the accumulation of O_3 flux does not last beyond the average
241 foliar lifetime. The O_3 damaging ratios depend on CUO with empirical linear
242 relationships as follows:

$$243 \quad F_{pO_3} = a_p \times CUO + b_p \quad (6)$$

$$244 \quad F_{cO_3} = a_c \times CUO + b_c \quad (7)$$

245 where F_{pO_3} and F_{cO_3} are the ozone damage ratios for photosynthesis and stomatal
246 conductance, respectively. The slopes (a_p for photosynthesis and a_c for stomatal
247 conductance) and intercepts (b_p for photosynthesis and b_c for stomatal conductance)
248 of regression functions are determined based on the meta-analysis of hundreds of
249 measurements (Table 2). The ratios predicted in Equations (6) and (7) are applied to
250 photosynthesis and stomatal conductance, respectively, to account for their
251 independent responses to O_3 damages.

252

253 **2.4 Observational data**

254 We validated the simulated meteorology and air pollutants with observations.



255 The meteorological data were downloaded from the National Meteorological
256 Information Center of China Meteorological Administration (CMA Meteorological
257 Data Centre, 2022, <http://data.cma.cn/data/detail/dataCode/A.0012.0001.html>). The
258 daily averaged surface pressure (PRES), wind speed at a height of 10 m (WS10),
259 relative humidity (RH) and temperature at a height of 2 m (T2) were collected from
260 839 ground stations. Hourly surface O₃ concentrations at 1597 sites in China were
261 collected from Chinese National Environmental Monitoring Center (CNEMC,
262 <http://websearch.mep.gov.cn/>).

263

264 **2.5. Simulations**

265 We performed seven experiments to quantify the damaging effects of ambient O₃
266 on GPP and the feedbacks to regional climate and air quality (Table 3). All
267 simulations are conducted from 1st May to 31st August of 2017 with the first month
268 excluded from the analysis as the spin-up. The control simulations (CTRL) excluded
269 the impact of ozone on vegetation. Three offline simulations were performed with the
270 same settings as the CTRL run, except that O₃ vegetation damages were calculated
271 and output without feedback to affect vegetation growth. These offline runs were
272 established using either the S2007 scheme (Offline_SH07 for high sensitivity and
273 Offline_SL07 for low sensitivity) or the L2013 scheme (Offline_L13). As a
274 comparison, three online simulations applied the S2007 scheme (Online_SH07 for
275 high sensitivity and Online_SL07 for low sensitivity) and the L2013 scheme
276 (Online_L13) to estimate the O₃ damages to GPP, which further influenced LAI
277 development, leaf transpiration, and dry deposition. The differences between CTRL
278 and Online runs indicated the responses of surface meteorology and O₃ concentrations
279 to the O₃-induced vegetation damages.

280

281 **3. Results**

282 **3.1 Model evaluations**

283 We compared the simulated summer near-surface temperature, relative humidity,



284 wind speed, and surface O₃ concentrations to observations. The model reasonably
285 reproduces the spatial pattern of near-surface temperature with warmings in the
286 Southeast and Northwest but coolings over the Tibetan Plateau (Figure 1a). On the
287 national scale, the near-surface temperature is underestimated with a mean bias (MB)
288 of 1.04 °C and a spatial R of 0.96. Unlike temperature, simulated relative humidity is
289 overestimated with a MB of 5.04 % but a high R of 0.93 (Figure 1b). Due to the
290 modeling biases in the topographic effects, simulated wind speed is overestimated by
291 more than 1.06 m s⁻¹ on the national scale (Figure 1c). Such overestimation was also
292 reported in other studies (Hu et al., 2016, Liu et al., 2020, Zhu et al., 2022).

293 Comparisons with the measurements from air quality sites show that the
294 simulated O₃ deviates from the observed mean concentrations by 5.42 μg m⁻³ with a
295 spatial R of 0.68. The model reasonably captures the hotspots over North China Plain
296 though with some overestimations. Such elevated bias in summer O₃ is a common
297 issue for both global and regional models over Asia. For example, Zhu et al. (2022)
298 overestimated summer average ozone concentration by 13.82 μg m⁻³ in China. Liu et
299 al. (2020) reached positive biases ranging from 3.7 μg m⁻³ to 13.32 μg m⁻³ using the
300 WRF-CMAQ model. Overall, the WRF-Chem model shows reasonable performance
301 in the simulation of surface meteorology and O₃ concentrations in China.

302

303 **3.2 Offline O₃ damage**

304 We compared the offline O₃ damage to photosynthesis between sunlit (PSNSUN)
305 and shaded (PSNSHA) leaves during the summer. The S2007 scheme is dependent on
306 instantaneous O₃ uptake, which peaks when both O₃ concentrations and stomatal
307 conductance are high. For the same O₃ pollution level, the damages are much higher
308 for the sunlit leaves (Figures 2a-2b) than that for the shaded leaves (Figures 2d-2e),
309 because of the higher stomatal conductance linked with the more active
310 photosynthesis for the sunlit leaves. In contrast, the L2013 scheme depends on the
311 accumulated O₃ flux, which results in vegetation damage even at lower instant O₃
312 concentrations. As a result, we found limited differences in the O₃ damages between



313 sunlit (Figure 2c) and shaded (Figure 2f) leaves with L2013 scheme. Observations
314 have reported that surface O₃ has limited impacts on the shaded leaves (Wan et al.,
315 2014), consistent with the results simulated by the S2007 scheme. Furthermore,
316 surface O₃ concentrations are low in southwest during summer (Figure 1d),
317 suggesting a low O₃ vegetation damage over Tibetan Plateau and the more reasonable
318 performance with the S2007 scheme.

319 Figure 3 shows the effect of O₃ damage to stomatal resistance of sunlit (RSSUN)
320 and shaded (RSSHA) leaves. Overall, the spatial pattern of the changes in stomatal
321 resistance is consistent with those of photosynthesis (Figure 2) but with opposite signs.
322 Both RSSUN and RSSHA are enhanced by O₃ damage so as to prevent more O₃
323 uptake. For S2007 scheme, RSSUN with high and low sensitivities respectively
324 increases by 13.43% (Figure 3a) and 8.35% (Figure 3b), higher than the rates of
325 4.71% (Figure 3d) and 2.97% (Figure 3e) for RSSHA. These ratios are inversely
326 connected to the changes of photosynthesis (Figure 2), suggesting the full coupling of
327 damages between leaf photosynthesis and stomatal conductance. For L2013 scheme,
328 predicted changes in RSSUN (Figure 3c) and RSSHA (Figure 3f) are very similar
329 with the magnitude of 25.3%-26.3%. These changes are higher than the loss of
330 photosynthesis (Figures 2c and 2f), suggesting the decoupling of O₃ damages to leaf
331 photosynthesis and stomatal conductance as revealed by the L2013 scheme.

332 We further assessed the O₃ damage to GPP and transpiration (TR). For S2007
333 scheme, O₃ causes damages to GPP and TR approximately by 5.5% with low
334 sensitivity (Figures 4b and 4e) and 8.4% with high sensitivity (Figures 4a and 4d)
335 compared to the CTRL simulation. The model predicts high GPP damages over North
336 China Plain and moderate damages in the southeastern and northeastern regions. In
337 the northwest, GPP damage is very limited due to the low relative humidity (Figure 1b)
338 that constrains the stomatal uptake. For L2013 scheme, TR shows uniform reductions
339 exceeding -25% in most regions of China except for the northwest (Figure 4f), though
340 O₃ concentrations show distinct spatial gradient (Figure 1d). The changes of GPP are
341 similar to that of TR but with lower inhibitions (Figure 4c). On average, the GPP



342 reduction with the L2013 scheme is 2.5-3.9 times of that predicted with the S2007
343 scheme. The most significant differences are located in Tibetan Plateau with limited
344 damages in S2007 but strong inhibitions in L2013. Given the cold environment
345 (Figure 1a) that constrains stomatal uptake (Wilkinson et al., 2001), we consider the
346 low O₃ impacts in Tibetan Plateau predicted with S2007 scheme are more reasonable.

347

348 **3.3 The O₃-vegetation feedback to surface energy and meteorology**

349 The O₃ vegetation damage causes contrasting responses in surface sensible heat
350 (SH) and LH (Figure 5). For S2007 scheme, the SH fluxes on average increase by
351 3.17 W m⁻² (8.85%) with low sensitivity (Figure 5b) and 5.99 W m⁻² (16.22%) with
352 high sensitivity (Figure 5a). The maximum enhancement is located in southern China,
353 where the increased stomatal resistance (Figure 3a) reduces transpiration and the
354 consequent heat dissipation. Meanwhile, LH fluxes decrease by 3.26 W m⁻² (5.58%)
355 with low sensitivity (Figure 5e) and 6.43 W m⁻² (15.29%) with high sensitivity
356 (Figure 5d), following the reductions in transpiration (Figures 4d and 4e). We found
357 similar changes in surface energy by O₃-vegetation coupling between the S2007 and
358 L2013 schemes. The SH shows the same hotspots over southern China with national
359 average increase of 12.85% (Figure 5c), which is within the range of 8.85% to
360 16.22% predicted by the S2007 scheme. The LH largely decreases in central and
361 northern China with the mean reduction of 17.4% (Figure 5f), close to the magnitude
362 of 15.29% predicted with the S2007 scheme using the high O₃ sensitivity (Figure 5d).
363 Although the offline damages to GPP and TR are much larger with the L2013 than
364 S2007 (Figure 4), their feedback to surface energy shows consistent spatial pattern
365 and magnitude (Figure 5), likely because the O₃ inhibition in S2007 has the same
366 diurnal cycle with energy fluxes while the L2013 scheme shows almost constant
367 inhibitions through the day (Figure S1). The nighttime damages in L2013 have
368 limited contributions to the changes of surface energy, which usually peaks at the
369 daytime.

370 The O₃-induced damages to stomatal conductance weaken plant transpiration and



371 thus slow down the heat dissipation at the surface, leading to the higher temperature
372 but lower RH in China (Figure 6). On the national scale, temperature increases by
373 0.5 °C due to O₃ vegetation damage with the high sensitivity (Figure 6a) and 0.23 °C
374 with the low sensitivity (Figure 6b) predicted using the S2007 scheme. A similar
375 warming is predicted with the L2013 scheme except that temperature shows moderate
376 enhancement over Tibetan Plateau (Figure 6c). The average RH decreases by 3.68%
377 with the high O₃ sensitivity (Figure 6d) and 2.22% with the low sensitivity (Figure 6e)
378 in response to the suppressed plant transpiration. A stronger RH reduction of -3.85%
379 is achieved with the L2013 scheme, which predicts the maximum RH reductions in
380 the North (Figure 6f).

381

382 **3.4 The O₃-vegetation feedback to air quality**

383 The O₃-induced inhibition on stomatal resistance leads to a significant increase
384 in surface O₃ concentrations, particularly in eastern China (Figures 7a-7c). The main
385 cause of such feedback is the reduction in O₃ dry deposition, which exacerbates the O₃
386 pollution in China. For S2007 scheme, this positive feedback can reach up to 15 µg
387 m⁻³ with high sensitivity (Figure 7a) and 8 µg m⁻³ with low sensitivity (Figure 7b)
388 over North China Plain. On the national scale, surface O₃ enhances 3.31 µg m⁻³ (1.25
389 µg m⁻³) or 7.92 µg m⁻³ (3.04%) with the high (low) O₃ sensitivity. For L2013 scheme,
390 the changes of O₃ concentration (Figure 7c) are comparable to that of the S2007
391 scheme with high sensitivity (Figure 7a), except that the O₃ enhancement is stronger
392 in the Southeast but weaker in the Northeast.

393 The O₃-vegetation coupling also increases surface isoprene emissions. For S2007
394 scheme, isoprene emissions increase by 6.13% with high sensitivity (Figure 7d) and
395 3.43% with low sensitivity (Figure 7e), with regional hotspots in North China Plain,
396 northeastern and southern regions. The predictions using L2013 scheme (Figure 7f)
397 show very similar patterns and magnitude of isoprene changes to the S2007 scheme
398 with high sensitivity. Such enhancement in isoprene emissions is related to the
399 additional surface warming by O₃-vegetation interactions (Figures 6a-6c). In turn, the



400 increased isoprene emissions contribute to the deterioration of O₃ pollution in China.

401

402 **4. Conclusions and discussion**

403 In this study, we explored the feedback of O₃-vegetation coupling to surface
404 meteorology and air quality in China using two O₃ damage schemes embedded in a
405 regional meteorology-chemistry coupled model. The two schemes predicted distinct
406 spatial patterns with much larger magnitude of GPP loss in the L2013 scheme than
407 that in the S2007 scheme. We further distinguished the leaf responses with different
408 illuminations. For the S2007 scheme, the damages to photosynthesis of sunlit leaves
409 are ~2.6 times of that to shaded leaves. However, for the L2013 scheme, limited
410 differences are found between the sunlit and shaded leaves. The damages to leaf
411 photosynthesis increase stomatal resistance, leading to the reductions of transpiration
412 but enhancement of sensible heat due to the less efficient heat dissipation. These
413 changes in surface energy and water fluxes feed back to increase surface temperature
414 but decrease relative humidity. Although the L2013 scheme predicts much stronger
415 offline damages, the feedback causes very similar pattern and magnitude in surface
416 warming as the S2007 scheme. Consequently, surface O₃ increases due to the stomatal
417 closure and isoprene emissions enhance due to the anomalous warming.

418 Our predicted O₃ damage to GPP was within the range of -4% to -40% as
419 estimated in previous studies using different models and/or parameterizations over
420 China (Ren et al., 2011; Lombardozzi et al., 2015; Yue et al., 2015; Sadiq et al., 2017;
421 Xie et al., 2019; Zhu et al., 2022; Jin et al., 2023). Such a wide span revealed the large
422 uncertainties in the estimate of O₃ impacts on ecosystem functions. In this study, we
423 employed two schemes and compared their differences. With the S2007 scheme, we
424 predicted GPP reductions of -5.5% to -8.5% in China, similar to the range of -4% to
425 -10% estimated by Yue et al. (2015) using the same O₃ damage scheme but lower than
426 the estimate of -12.1% predicted by Xie et al. (2019), likely due to the slight
427 overestimation of surface O₃ in the latter study. With the L2013 scheme, we predicted
428 much larger GPP reductions of -21.4%. However, such value was still lower than the



429 -28.9% in Jin et al. (2023) and -20% to -40% in Zhu et al. (2022) using the same
430 L2013 scheme embedded in WRF-Chem model, though all studies showed similar
431 spatial patterns in the GPP reductions. Such differences were likely attributed to the
432 varied model configuration as we ran the model from May while the other studies
433 started from the beginning of years. The longer time for the accumulation of O₃
434 stomatal uptake in other studies resulted in higher damages than our estimates with
435 the L2013 scheme.

436 The O₃-vegetation coupling caused strong feedback to surface meteorology and
437 air quality. Our simulations with either scheme revealed that surface SH increases by
438 2-28 W m⁻² and LH decreases by 4-32 W m⁻² over eastern China, consistent with the
439 estimates of 5-30 W m⁻² by Zhu et al. (2022) using WRF-Chem model with the L2013
440 scheme. Consequently, surface air temperature on average increases by 0.23-0.51°C
441 while relative humidity decreases by 2.2-3.8%, similar to the warming of 0.2-0.8°C
442 and RH reduction of 3% as predicted by Zhu et al. (2022). However, these changes in
443 surface energy flux and meteorology are much higher than that in Jin et al. (2023),
444 likely because the latter focuses on the perturbations averaged throughout the year
445 instead of summer period as in this study and Zhu et al. (2022). We further predicted
446 that O₃ vegetation damage increased surface O₃ by 0.6-1.7 ppbv in China, similar to
447 the 1.2-2.1 ppbv estimated for eastern China using a global model (Gong et al., 2020).
448 Regionally, the O₃ enhancement reached as high as 4-7.5 ppbv in North China Plain,
449 consistent with the maximum value of 6 ppbv over the same domain predicted by Zhu
450 et al. (2022). However, limited feedback to surface O₃ was predicted in Jin et al.
451 (2023), mainly because the decreased dry deposition had comparable but opposite
452 effects to the decreased isoprene emissions due to the reductions of LAI. Such
453 discrepancy was likely caused by the stronger O₃ inhibition in Jin et al. (2023)
454 following the longer period of O₃ accumulation, consequently exacerbating the
455 negative impacts of LAI reductions on O₃ production.

456 There were some limitations in our parameterizations and simulations. The
457 WRF-Chem model slightly overestimated summer O₃ concentrations, which could



458 exacerbate the damages to stomatal conductance and the subsequent feedback. The
459 S2007 scheme employed the coupled responses in photosynthesis and stomatal
460 conductance to O₃ vegetation damage. However, some observations revealed that
461 stomatal response is slow under long-term O₃ exposure, resulting in loss of stomatal
462 function and decoupling from photosynthesis (Calatayud et al., 2007; Lombardozzi et
463 al., 2012). The L2013 scheme considered the decoupling between photosynthesis and
464 stomatal conductance. However, this scheme could not distinguish the responses of
465 sunlit and shaded leaves. In addition, the calculation of CUO heavily relied on the
466 ozone threshold and accumulation period, leading to varied responses among different
467 studies using the same scheme. Furthermore, the slopes of O₃ sensitivity in L2013
468 scheme were set to zero for some PFTs, leading to constant damages independent of
469 CUO. Finally, the current knowledge of the O₃ effects on stomatal conductance was
470 primarily derived from leaf-level measurements (Matyssek et al., 2008), which were
471 much fewer compared to that for photosynthesis. The limited data availability and
472 lack of inter-PFT responses constrain the development of empirical parameterizations.

473 Despite these limitations, our study provided the first comparison of different
474 parameterizations in simulating O₃-vegetation interactions. We found similar
475 feedbacks to surface energy and meteorology though the two schemes showed varied
476 magnitude and distribution in the offline responses of GPP and stomatal conductance
477 to surface O₃. The main cause of such inconsistency lied in the low feedback of
478 damages in L2013 with some unrealistic inhibitions of ecosystem functions at night
479 and over the regions with low O₃ level. Such similarity provides a solid foundation for
480 the exploration of O₃-vegetation coupling using different schemes. The positive
481 feedback of O₃ vegetation damage to surface air temperature and O₃ concentrations
482 posed emerging but ignored threats to both climate change and air quality in China.

483

484 **Data availability**

485 The observed hourly O₃ concentrations were obtained from Chinese National
486 Environmental Monitoring Center (CNEMC, <http://websearch.mep.gov.cn/>). The



487 observed meteorological data were obtained from the National Meteorological
488 Information Center of China Meteorological Administration (CMA Meteorological
489 Data Centre, 2022, <http://data.cma.cn/data/detail/dataCode/A.0012.0001.html>). The
490 MEIC and MIX emission inventory are available at
491 (http://meicmodel.org.cn/?page_id=560 and http://meicmodel.org.cn/?page_id=89).

492

493 **Author contributions**

494 XY conceived the study. XY and JC designed the research and carried out the
495 simulations. JC completed data analysis and the first draft. MM provided useful
496 comments on the paper. XY reviewed and edited the manuscript.

497

498 **Competing interests**

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

500

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505

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686 **Tables**

687

Table 1. Parameters used for S2007 O₃ damage scheme.

PFTs ^a	a_{PFT} (nmol ⁻¹ m ² s) ^b	γ_{PFT} (nmol m ⁻² s ⁻¹)
EBF	0.075, 0.02	1.6
NF	0.075, 0.02	1.6
DBF	0.15, 0.04	1.6
SHR	0.1, 0.03	1.6
GRA	1.4, 0.25	5
CRO	1.4, 0.25	5

688 ^a The plant functional types (PFTs) include evergreen broadleaf forest (EBF),
689 needleleaf forest (NF), deciduous broadleaf forest (DBF), shrubland (SHR), grassland
690 (GRA), and cropland (CRO).

691 ^b The first number is for high sensitivity and the second is for low sensitivity.

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693

694 **Table 2.** Slopes and intercepts used for L2013 O₃ damage scheme.

PFTs	a_p (mmol m ⁻²)	b_p	a_c (mmol m ⁻²)	b_c
EBF	0	0.8752	0	0.9125
NF	0	0.839	0.0048	0.7823
DBF	0	0.8752	0	0.9125
SHR	0	0.8752	0	0.9125
GRA	-0.0009	0.8021	0	0.7511
CRO	-0.0009	0.8021	0	0.7511

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Table 3. Summary of simulation experiments

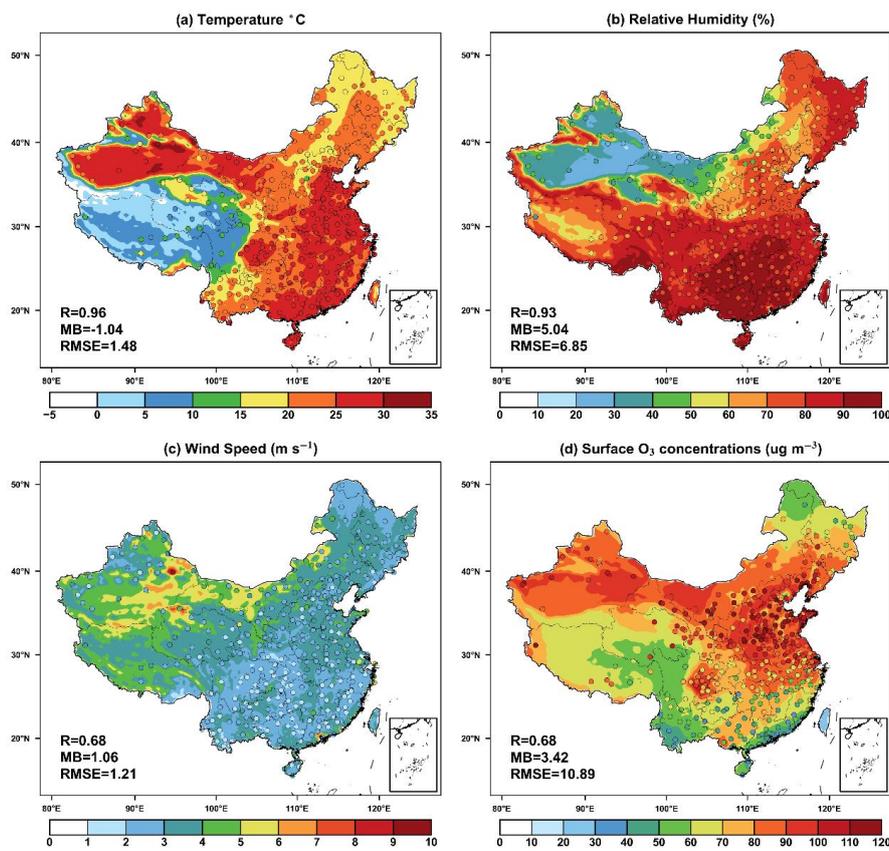
Name	O ₃ damage to vegetable	Scheme
CRTL	-	-
Offline_SH07	High	Sitch et al. (2007)
Offline_SL07	Low	Sitch et al. (2007)
Offline_L13	-	Lombardozzi et al. (2013)
Online_SH07	High	Sitch et al. (2007)
Online_SL07	Low	Sitch et al. (2007)
Online_L13	-	Lombardozzi et al. (2013)

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701 **Figure captions**



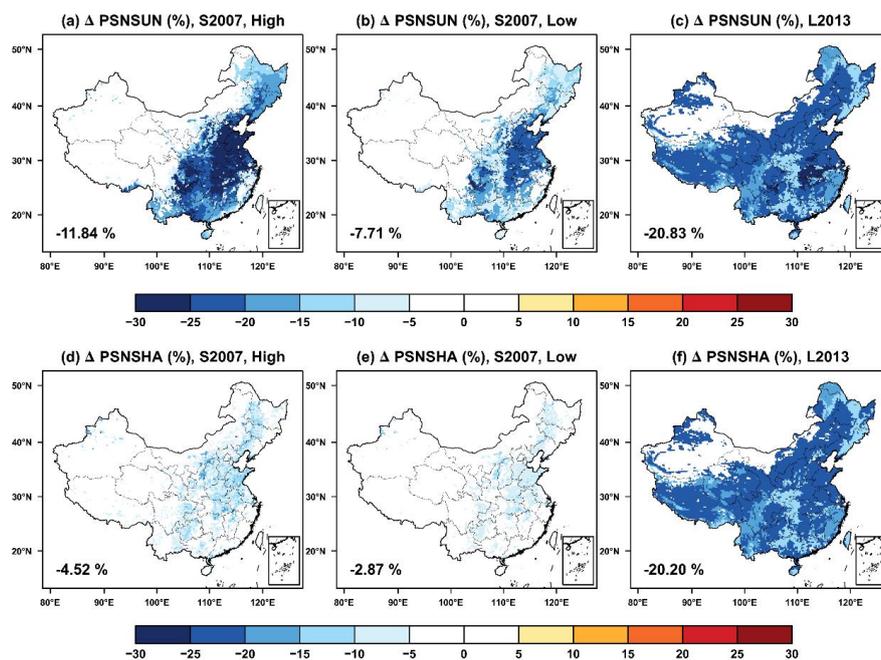
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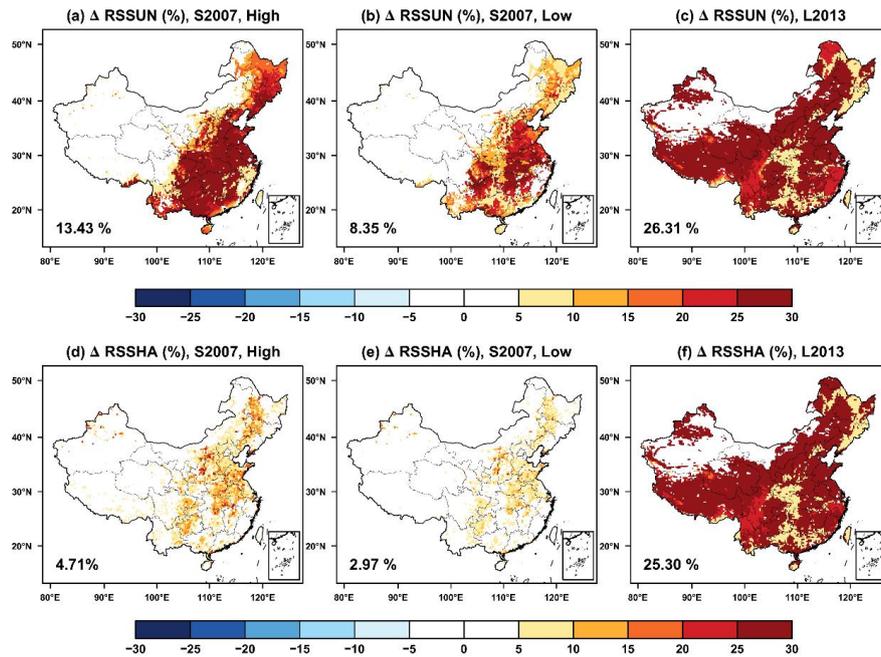
705 **Figure 1** Evaluations of simulated summer (June–August) daily (24-h average) (a)
706 near-surface temperature, (b) relative humidity, (c) wind speed, and (d) surface O₃
707 concentrations in China. The dots represent the site-level observations. The
708 correlation coefficients (R), mean biases (MB), and root-mean-square error (RMSE)
709 for the comparisons are shown in the lower left corner of each panel.

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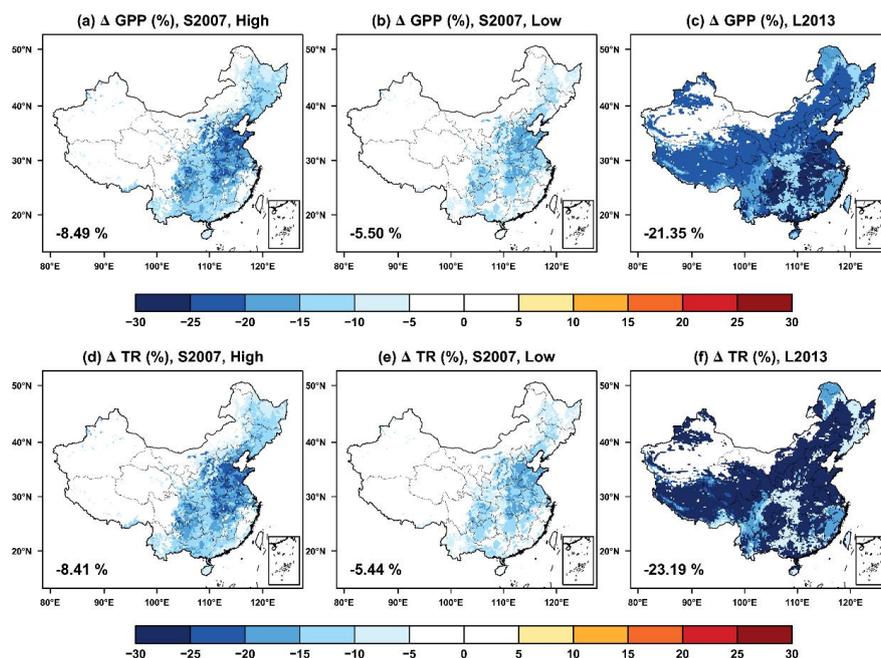
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Figure 2 Offline O₃ damage (%) to the summertime photosynthesis of (a-c) sunlit and (d-f) shaded leaves predicted by the S2007 scheme with (a, d) high and (b, e) low sensitivities or the (c, f) L2013 scheme. The area-weighted percentage changes are shown in the lower left corner.



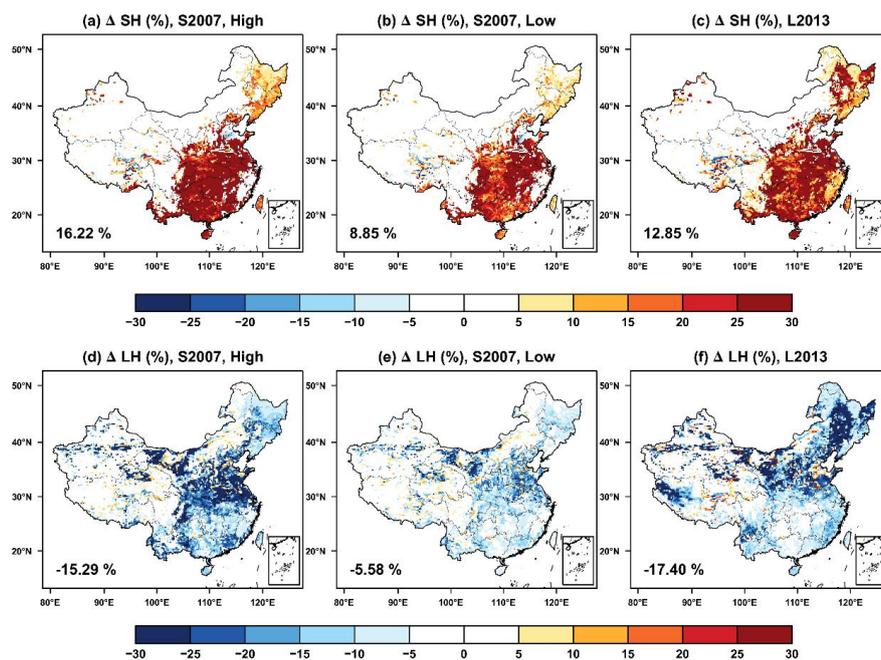
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Figure 3 The same as Figure 2 but for the changes in stomatal resistance.



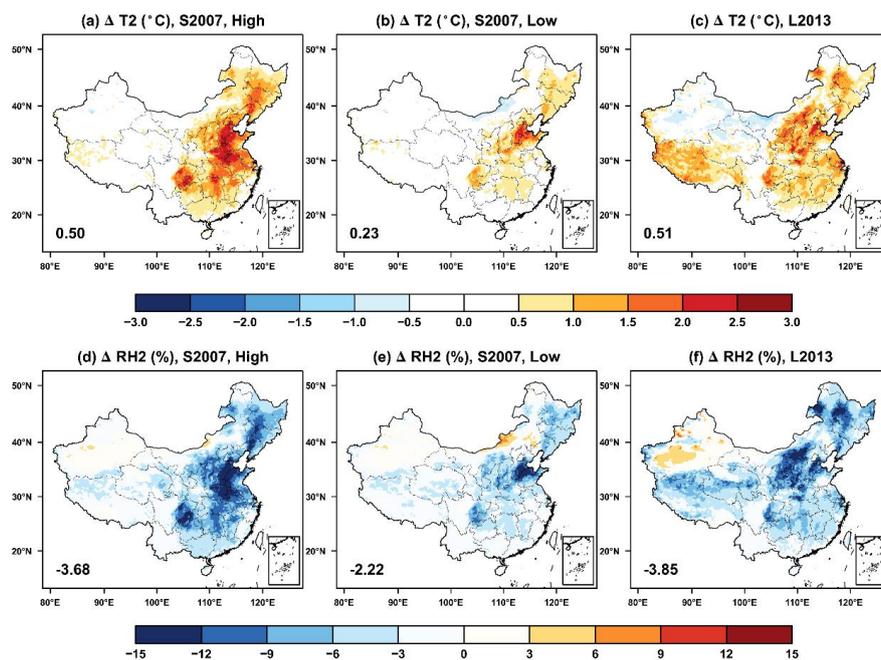
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Figure 4 Offline O₃ damage (%) to the (a-c) gross primary productivity (GPP) and (d-f) transpiration rate (TR) predicted by the Sitch scheme with (a, d) high and (b,e) low sensitivities or the (c, f) Lombardozzi scheme. The area-weighted percentage changes are shown in the lower left corner.



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Figure 5 The feedback of O₃-vegetation interaction to surface (a-c) sensible and (d-f) latent heat fluxes in the summer predicted by the S2007 scheme with (a, d) high and (b, e) low sensitivities or the (c, f) L2013 scheme. The relative changes are shown with area-weighted percentage changes indicated at the lower left corner.

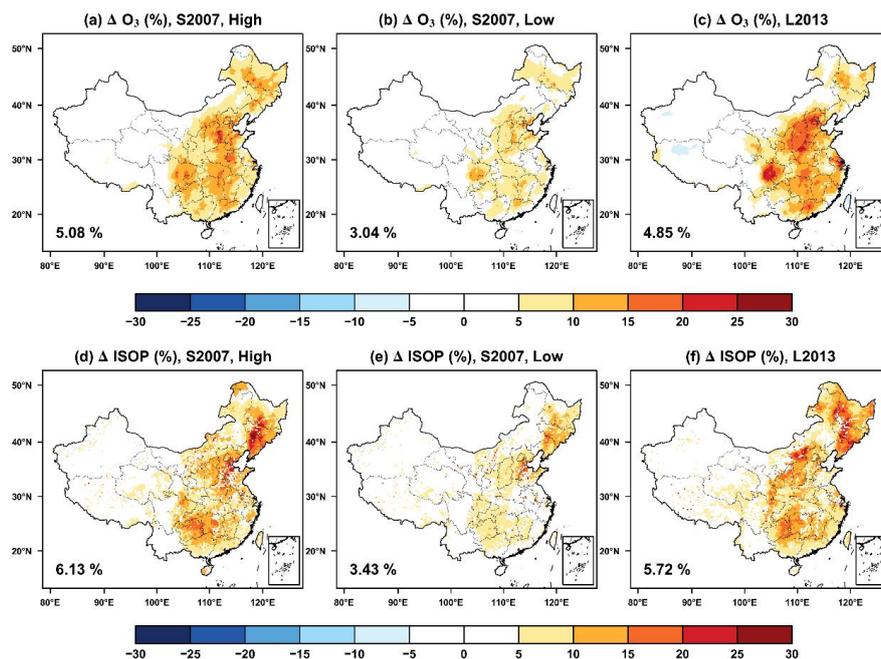


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Figure 6 The same as Figure 5 but for changes in (top) air temperature and (bottom) relative humidity at 2 meters.



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Figure 7 The feedback of O₃-vegetation interaction to surface O₃ concentrations and isoprene emissions in the summer predicted by the S2007 scheme with (a, d) high and (b, e) low sensitivities or the (c, f) L2013 scheme. The area-weighted percentage changes are shown in the lower left corner.