



1 **Impacts of ozone-vegetation feedbacks on surface ozone in a**
2 **coupled climate-chemistry-ecosystem model**

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Abstract

Surface ozone (O_3) is strongly influenced by interactions between atmospheric chemistry and terrestrial ecosystems, yet these feedbacks remain insufficiently represented in Earth system models. Here, we develop a fully coupled O_3 -vegetation interaction framework by integrating the terrestrial ecosystem model iMAPLE into the ECHAM-HAMMOZ Earth system model. The coupled model explicitly represents three major land-atmosphere interaction pathways, including dynamic biogenic volatile organic compound (BVOC) emissions, vegetation-mediated O_3 dry deposition, and O_3 -induced vegetation damage. These feedback pathways exert heterogeneous impacts on surface O_3 concentrations due to spatial variations in vegetation characteristics and nonlinear chemical sensitivities. Changes in monoterpene emissions cause the largest global effect with widespread reductions in surface O_3 , whereas isoprene-driven responses vary among regions with different chemical sensitivities. In regions with high anthropogenic emissions, such as East Asia, vegetation-mediated changes in BVOCs and dry deposition substantially amplify O_3 responses. The O_3 -induced vegetation damage further modifies atmospheric chemistry by reducing BVOC emissions through leaf area loss while increasing surface O_3 by inhibiting stomatal conductance. Incorporating these processes decreases simulated global surface O_3 concentrations and alleviates the positive bias in the original model, particularly over China (relative mean bias decreases from 31.5% to 29.7%) and the U.S. (from 19.0% to 7.8%). These results demonstrate that interactive O_3 -vegetation feedbacks are essential for improving the representation of atmospheric composition and ecosystem-atmosphere interactions in Earth system models.

Keywords: iMAPLE, ozone-vegetation interactions, ecosystems, atmospheric chemistry



37 1. Introduction

38 Tropospheric ozone (O_3) is an important secondary air pollutant and short-lived climate forcer
39 that plays a central role in atmospheric oxidation chemistry (Stevenson et al., 2013; Monks et al.,
40 2015; Ipcc, 2021). Elevated surface O_3 concentrations threaten human health, reduce crop yields,
41 and impair terrestrial ecosystem productivity (Anenberg et al., 2010; Tai et al., 2014; Mills et al.,
42 2018). In the atmosphere, O_3 influences the lifetime of methane and other reactive trace gases,
43 thereby affecting radiative forcing and climate (Fiore et al., 2002; Young et al., 2013; Ipcc, 2021).
44 Over recent decades, surface O_3 pollution has intensified in many regions, particularly in eastern
45 Asia, making it a key challenge at the intersection of air quality, climate change, and ecosystem
46 functioning (Cooper et al., 2014; Gaudel et al., 2018; Lu et al., 2018).

47 Terrestrial vegetation strongly regulates surface O_3 through both chemical and physical
48 pathways (Fowler et al., 2009; Monks et al., 2015; Clifton et al., 2020). Vegetation emits large
49 amounts of biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOC), particularly isoprene and monoterpenes,
50 which are important precursors of tropospheric O_3 and secondary organic aerosols (Trainer et al.,
51 1987; Chameides et al., 1988). These emissions far exceed anthropogenic non-methane VOC
52 sources globally and represent a dominant source of reactive carbon in the atmosphere (Guenther et
53 al., 1995; Guenther et al., 2012; Sindelarova et al., 2014), strongly enhancing O_3 formation in NO_x -
54 rich environment (Chameides et al., 1988; Fiore et al., 2005; Li et al., 2019). Meanwhile, vegetation
55 acts as an important sink for O_3 through dry deposition (Wesely, 2007; Fowler et al., 2009; Clifton
56 et al., 2020), which is controlled by leaf area, canopy structure, and stomatal conductance
57 (Emberson et al., 2000; Fowler et al., 2009; Clifton et al., 2020). Once taken up, O_3 induces
58 oxidative stress that suppresses photosynthesis, reduces stomatal conductance, and ultimately
59 decreases ecosystem productivity (Sitch et al., 2007; Lombardozzi et al., 2015; Yue et al., 2015),
60 forming a two-way land-atmosphere coupling.

61 The representation of O_3 -vegetation interactions in Earth system models (ESMs) has evolved
62 substantially. Early land surface models focused on energy, water, and momentum exchanges,
63 neglecting biogeochemical and chemical feedbacks (Bonan, 1995; Sellers et al., 1996; Pitman,
64 2003). The development of Dynamic Global Vegetation Models (DGVMs), such as IBIS, LPJ, and
65 TRIFFID, enabled the explicit representation of vegetation dynamics and carbon cycling (Foley et
66 al., 1996; Cox, 2001; Sitch et al., 2003). Thereafter, BVOC emission modules were implemented



67 into DGVMs to enable quantitative assessment of vegetation-driven impacts on atmospheric
68 chemistry (Guenther et al., 2006; Arneth et al., 2007). More recently, ESMs have incorporated O₃
69 dry deposition and vegetation damage processes, allowing assessments of O₃ impacts on
70 photosynthesis and carbon uptake (Lombardozzi et al., 2015; Yue and Unger, 2015).

71 Despite these advances, fully coupled O₃-vegetation interactions remain inadequately
72 represented in current ESMs. In most models, BVOC emissions and O₃ dry deposition are included,
73 but O₃ damage to vegetation is either absent or implemented using prescribed O₃ concentrations and
74 empirical parameterizations. Consequently, O₃ impacts on vegetation and their feedbacks on
75 atmospheric chemistry are typically treated separately rather than within a unified dynamic system,
76 preventing a fully two-way feedback. To address this limitation, we couple the ECHAM6.3-
77 HAM2.3-MOZ1.0 ESM with the interactive Model for Air Pollution and Land Ecosystems
78 (iMAPLE). Within this framework, O₃-vegetation coupling is incorporated via three major
79 pathways: (1) BVOC emissions that affect O₃ formation; (2) vegetation-mediated O₃ dry deposition;
80 and (3) O₃-induced vegetation damage. Through a series of sensitivity experiments, we quantify the
81 individual contributions of these processes to surface O₃ concentrations at global and regional scales,
82 with emphasis on polluted areas such as eastern Asia and North America.

83

84 **2. Methods and data**

85 **2.1 Models**

86 The ESM used in this study is ECHAM6.3-HAM2.3-MOZ1.0 (hereafter ECHAM-HAMMOZ),
87 which was jointly developed by the Max Planck Institute for Meteorology and several collaborating
88 institutions (Schultz et al., 2018). ECHAM-HAMMOZ couples a comprehensive atmospheric
89 general circulation model with interactive aerosol and atmospheric chemistry modules, enabling the
90 simulation of coupled meteorological, chemical, and aerosol processes from regional to global
91 scales (Schultz et al., 2018). ECHAM6.3 provides the atmospheric dynamical core and physical
92 framework, simulating large-scale circulation and key physical processes including radiative
93 transfer, cloud microphysics, convection, turbulence, and land-atmosphere exchanges (Stevens et
94 al., 2013). HAM2.3 is an aerosol module that considers the emission, transport, chemical
95 transformation, and removal of major species, including sulfate, black carbon, organic carbon, sea
96 salt, and mineral dust, as well as their interactions with radiation and cloud (Stier et al., 2005; Zhang



97 et al., 2012). MOZ1.0 is developed based on the MOZART chemistry mechanism, with detailed
98 tropospheric and lower-stratospheric chemistry including the oxidation of VOCs, nitrogen oxides
99 (NO_x), and O_3 , thereby enabling the simulation of atmospheric oxidizing capacity and O_3 formation
100 processes (Kinnison et al., 2007; Emmons et al., 2010).

101 iMAPLE is a process-based land surface model considering both vegetation dynamics and key
102 biogeochemical processes (Yue and Unger, 2015; Yue et al., 2024). It provides a comprehensive
103 representation of terrestrial ecosystem processes, including vegetation physiology, plant growth,
104 and carbon allocation. The model is specifically designed to resolve interactions between air
105 pollution and ecosystem functioning. For example, iMAPLE employs a photosynthesis-based
106 BVOC emission scheme (PS_BVOC) to predict emissions of isoprene and monoterpene (Yue and
107 Unger, 2015). It also includes an O_3 damage parameterization that quantifies the effects of O_3
108 exposure on leaf-level photosynthesis and vegetation productivity through stomatal uptake (Yue and
109 Unger, 2015).

110

111 2.2 O_3 -vegetation coupling

112 By incorporating iMAPLE into ECHAM-HAMMOZ, we establish a coupled model (ECHAM-
113 HAMMOZ-iMAPLE, short as ECHAM-Hi thereafter) to represent O_3 -vegetation interactions
114 (Figure 1), in which vegetation modulates O_3 levels through biogenic emissions and dry deposition,
115 while O_3 in turn impairs vegetation physiology via stomatal uptake.

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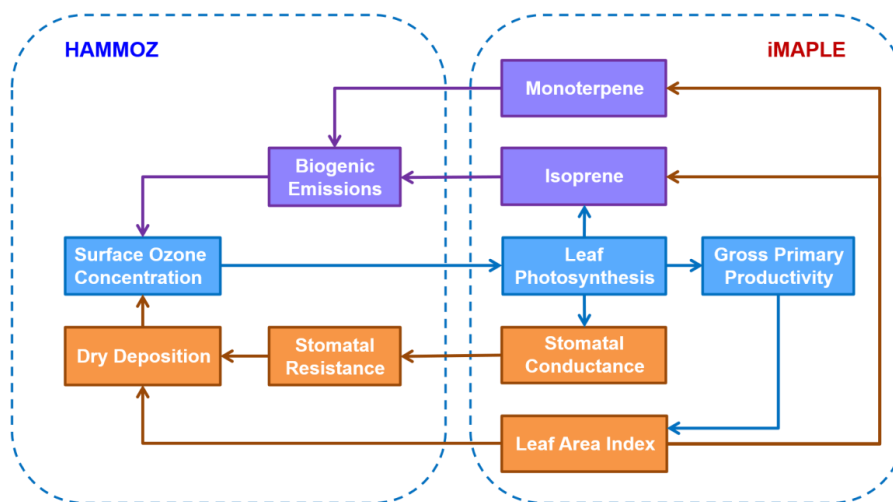


Figure 1. Schematic plot of the interactions between ecosystem and atmospheric chemistry in ECHAM-HAMMOZ-iMAPLE (short as ECHAM-Hi)

2.2.1 Biogenic emissions

The original HAMMOZ module applies prescribed biogenic emissions. Here, we use iMAPLE to dynamically simulate emissions of isoprene and monoterpenes, the two dominant BVOC species. Isoprene emissions are simulated using the PS_BVOC scheme to link with leaf photosynthetic activity (Unger et al., 2013) :

$$E_I = J_e \cdot \beta \cdot \kappa_p \cdot \tau \cdot \varepsilon, \quad (1)$$

where E_I is the isoprene emission rate ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} [\text{leaf}] \text{ s}^{-1}$), and J_e is the electron transport-limited photosynthetic rate ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} [\text{leaf}] \text{ s}^{-1}$). The β converts electron flux into isoprene equivalents. The factor κ_p represents the inhibitory effect of atmospheric CO_2 on isoprene production, while τ accounts for differences in the temperature optima of photosynthesis and isoprene synthase activity. The ε denotes the plant functional type (PFT) specific fraction of electrons available for isoprene synthesis, also referred to as the isoprene emission potential.

Monoterpene emissions are simulated using a simplified temperature-dependent algorithm following Lathière et al. (2006). The leaf-level monoterpene emission rate (E_M , $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} [\text{leaf}] \text{ s}^{-1}$) is calculated as:

$$E_M = E_f \cdot C_T \cdot \kappa_p, \quad (2)$$



138 where E_f is the PFT-specific emission factor based on Guenther et al. (1995). C_T is the
139 temperature response factor. The same CO_2 inhibitory factor κ_p used for isoprene emissions is
140 applied to monoterpenes. Simulated BVOC emissions are integrated with leaf area index (LAI) and
141 passed online to HAMMOZ, where they participate in atmospheric oxidation chemistry and
142 contribute to tropospheric O_3 formation.

143

144 2.2.2 Dry deposition

145 HAMMOZ computes O_3 dry deposition velocity using the Wesely (1989) scheme, in which
146 stomatal resistance is parameterized as an empirical function of solar radiation and air temperature.
147 Here, we replace the empirically derived stomatal resistance (s m^{-1}) with the reciprocal of
148 dynamically predicted leaf stomatal conductance (g_s , m s^{-1}) from iMAPLE, in which g_s is
149 calculated using the Ball-Berry scheme (Ball et al., 1987) :

$$150 \quad g_s = m \frac{A_{net}}{c_s} \text{RH} + b, \quad (3)$$

151 where A_{net} is net leaf photosynthesis ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} [\text{leaf}] \text{s}^{-1}$); c_s is CO_2 concentration at the leaf
152 surface ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-3}$); RH is relative humidity; m is an empirical slope controlling the sensitivity
153 of stomatal conductance to photosynthesis and is modified by plant water stress; b (m s^{-1})
154 represents the minimum stomatal conductance when A_{net} is 0.

155 We also update the LAI, which determines the effective leaf surface area available for O_3 dry
156 deposition. In iMAPLE, LAI is calculated on a daily time scale as follows:

$$157 \quad \text{LAI} = f \cdot \text{LAI}_{max}, \quad (4)$$

158 where f is the phenological factor determined by meteorological conditions, and LAI_{max} represents
159 the maximum attainable LAI, which is related to vegetation structural properties and carbon content
160 (Cox, 2001; Clark et al., 2011). The modifications of both g_s and LAI jointly alter O_3 dry deposition
161 velocity, thereby influencing near-surface O_3 concentrations.

162

163 2.2.3 O_3 vegetation damage

164 In iMAPLE, gross primary productivity (GPP) is calculated by vertically integrating the total
165 leaf photosynthetic rate (A_{tot} , $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} [\text{leaf}] \text{s}^{-1}$) across the canopy:



$$GPP = \int_0^{LAI} A_{tot} dL. \quad (5)$$

A_{tot} is constrained by the most limiting of three processes: Rubisco carboxylation capacity, electron transport-limited RuBP regeneration, and product synthesis limitations associated with phosphate availability in C_3 plants or phosphoenolpyruvate regeneration in C_4 plants.

We consider the GPP reduction caused by stomatal O_3 uptake using the O_3 damage scheme proposed by Sitch et al. (2007), in which the O_3 damage factor F is parameterized as a function of stomatal O_3 flux:

$$F = \begin{cases} -a(F_{O_3} - T_{O_3}), & F_{O_3} > T_{O_3} \\ 0, & F_{O_3} \leq T_{O_3} \end{cases}, \quad (6)$$

where a is the PFT-specific O_3 damage sensitivity parameter, and T_{O_3} is the threshold stomatal O_3 flux ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$). O_3 damage is assumed to occur only when stomatal O_3 uptake exceeds this threshold. The stomatal O_3 flux (F_{O_3} , $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) is calculated as:

$$F_{O_3} = \frac{[O_3]}{r_a + r_b + k \cdot r_s}, \quad (7)$$

where $[O_3]$ is the O_3 concentration at the canopy top. r_a , r_b and r_s denote aerodynamic resistance, boundary-layer resistance, and stomatal resistance, respectively (s m^{-1}). The O_3 -damaged photosynthetic rate (A_{totd} , $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} [\text{leaf}] \text{s}^{-1}$) and stomatal conductance (g_{sd} , m s^{-1}) are calculated as:

$$A_{totd} = (1 + F)A_{tot}, \quad (8)$$

$$g_{sd} = (1 + F)g_s. \quad (9)$$

Reduced photosynthetic capacity subsequently alters GPP, which further affects downstream ecosystem variables, including BVOC emissions (isoprene and monoterpenes), LAI, and stomatal conductance. These changes feed back to atmospheric chemistry through both emission and deposition processes, thereby establishing the two-way coupling between atmosphere chemistry and terrestrial ecosystem (Figure 1).

2.3 Data

2.3.1 Emissions

Anthropogenic emissions were adopted from three inventories to ensure consistent long-term coverage and improved regional representation. Global emissions for 1990-2014 were obtained



194 from the Community Emissions Data System (CEDS), which provides global gridded emissions of
195 reactive trace gases and aerosols (Hoesly et al., 2018). Emissions for 2015-2100 were obtained from
196 the CMIP6 input4MIPs forcing dataset developed by Gidden et al. (2025), which provides
197 standardized emissions and boundary conditions for CMIP6 climate model experiments. We
198 adopted the SSP5-8.5 high-emission scenario generated by the IAMC-REMIND-MAGPIE
199 integrated assessment model.

200 In China, anthropogenic emissions were replaced with the Multi-resolution Emission Inventory
201 for China (MEIC v1.4), which provides high-resolution emission estimates tailored to China's
202 socioeconomic and industrial conditions (Geng et al., 2024). MEIC is developed using a unified
203 source classification framework and region-specific emission factors for China, integrating bottom-
204 up statistical data, process-based modeling, and big-data-driven emission fusion techniques.
205 Compared to global inventories, MEIC offers a more detailed representation of sectoral emissions
206 and spatial heterogeneity over China, and has been extensively applied in regional air quality
207 simulations, atmospheric chemistry studies, and policy assessments (Li et al., 2017).

208

209 2.3.2 Validations

210 LAI and GPP used for model validations were obtained from the Global Land Surface Satellite
211 (GLASS) product (Liang et al., 2021). GLASS integrates multi-source satellite observations with
212 ground measurements to provide long-term, high-quality global datasets for terrestrial ecosystem
213 monitoring. In this study, we used the GPP product derived from the Advanced Very High
214 Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR) and the LAI product retrieved from the Moderate Resolution
215 Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS). The original 0.05° datasets were re-gridded to the model
216 resolution of 1.875° and averaged for the period of 2013-2015 to facilitate the comparison.

217 Surface O₃ observations used for model evaluation comprised 4,016 monitoring sites across
218 China, North America, and Europe during 2013–2015. Observations over China were obtained from
219 the Air Quality Monitoring Network operated by the Ministry of Ecology and Environment
220 (AQMN-MEE), which provides near-real-time, quality-controlled measurements widely used for
221 air pollution assessment, atmospheric chemistry model evaluation, and environmental policy
222 analysis. Surface O₃ data for North America and Europe were taken from Sofen et al. (2016), which



compiles approximately 2,200 quality-controlled monitoring sites, mainly in U.S. and Europe, with over 200 million valid records. Owing to its extensive spatial coverage and rigorous quality assurance, this dataset has been widely used for evaluating atmospheric chemistry models.

2.4 Experiments

To quantify the individual contributions of land-atmosphere interaction pathways to surface O_3 and ecosystem responses, we conducted a series of sensitivity experiments with progressively increasing model complexity (Table 1). A baseline simulation (Base) was firstly conducted without any interactive coupling between the atmospheric chemistry and terrestrial ecosystem components. Subsequent experiments then sequentially activated individual interaction pathways to isolate their effects on surface O_3 . In Exp_isp, the isoprene emission pathway (ISP) was enabled, allowing isoprene emissions simulated by iMAPLE to affect atmospheric chemistry in HAMMOZ. Exp_mtp further activated the monoterpene emission pathway (MTP) to account for the combined effects of the two major BVOC sources on O_3 formation. Exp_lai additionally incorporated the LAI pathway, through which vegetation structural changes influence O_3 dry deposition by modifying the effective deposition surface area. Exp_gs activated the stomatal conductance (Gs) pathway, which regulates stomatal resistance and thereby controls O_3 uptake by vegetation. In Exp_all, surface O_3 simulated by HAMMOZ directly affects vegetation physiology through the O_3 damage scheme in iMAPLE. In turn, O_3 -induced changes in vegetation state and function feed back to the atmosphere through both altered BVOC emissions and modified dry deposition. This stepwise design enables attribution of the incremental contribution of each process, isolating the effects of isoprene emissions, monoterpene emissions, LAI-driven deposition changes, stomatal regulation, and O_3 vegetation damage on surface O_3 and/or ecosystem productivity.

Table 1. Summary of sensitivity experiments

Experiment	Isoprene emissions	Monoterpene emissions	LAI in deposition	Stomatal conductance	O_3 vegetation damage
Base	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO
Exp_isp	YES	NO	NO	NO	NO
Exp_mtp	YES	YES	NO	NO	NO
Exp_lai	YES	YES	YES	NO	NO
Exp_gs	YES	YES	YES	YES	NO
Exp_all	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES



263 observations from (d) site-level measurements and (e, f) the GLASS data products for boreal
264 summer (June–August) averaged over 2013–2015. Corresponding grid-level scatter plots are shown
265 in (g–i), with correlation coefficient (R), relative mean bias (RMB), and root-mean-square error
266 (RMSE) indicated.

267 **3.2 Impacts of dynamic BVOC emissions on O₃**

268 In the ECHAM-Hi model, the global isoprene emissions during boreal summer are 169.5 Tg
269 (Fig. S1d), with a corresponding global mean surface O₃ concentration of 32.96 ppbv (Fig. S1b).
270 Relative to the prescribed emissions in the original model (Fig. S1c), ECHAM-Hi simulates a 66.1
271 Tg (64.1%) increase in global isoprene emissions during boreal summer (Fig. 3b), with pronounced
272 enhancements across the Northern Hemisphere (NH). This leads to heterogeneous changes in
273 surface O₃, with increases primarily over land north of 45°N (Fig. 3a), particularly in East Asia (4–
274 10 ppbv) and Europe (26 ppbv). In these regions, high anthropogenic NO_x emissions favor VOC-
275 limited chemistry, whereby enhanced isoprene promotes O₃ formation. In contrast, O₃ decreases by
276 2–6 ppbv over large parts of North America and northern Asia, where NO_x levels are relatively low
277 and chemistry is NO_x-limited; under these conditions, additional isoprene acts as a radical sink and
278 suppresses O₃ production (Sillman, 1999; Fiore et al., 2005; Browne et al., 2013). Meanwhile, global
279 monoterpene emissions increase by only 0.2 Tg (1.2%) reaching a total emission of 16.3 Tg (Fig.
280 S2d), but exhibit pronounced spatial heterogeneity. Relative to the original model (Fig. S2c),
281 ECHAM-Hi predicts substantial increases in high northern latitudes, while emissions decrease
282 across most other regions (Fig. 3d). As a result, global surface O₃ shows widespread reductions (Fig.
283 3c), resulting from monoterpene enhancement in NO_x-limited regions but suppression in VOC-
284 limited or warm regions.

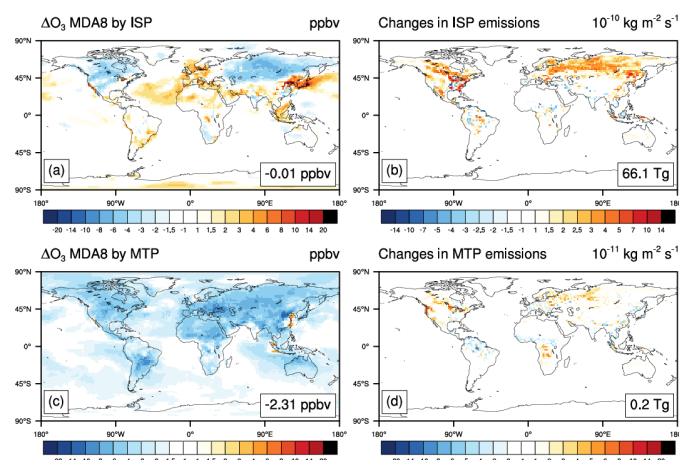


Figure 3. Changes of (a, c) surface MDA8 O_3 concentrations in response to changes in (b) isoprene (ISP) and (d) monoterpene (MTP) emissions averaged for the boreal summer (June–August) of 2013–2015.

3.3 Impacts of updated dry deposition on O_3

The dynamically simulated LAI from ECHAM-Hi is larger than the original model by $0.026 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2}$ globally, reaching an average value of $1.035 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2}$ (Fig. S3d), with pronounced increases in the northern high latitudes and tropical rainforests (Fig. 4b). In contrast, LAI decreases over middle latitudes in both hemispheres, especially in Asia and the Sahel. These LAI changes result in corresponding shifts in O_3 dry deposition velocity, with increases over boreal regions and the eastern U.S., but decreases over East Asia and northern Africa (Fig. 4c). As a result, global mean surface O_3 increases by 0.11 ppbv (Fig. 4a), exhibiting a spatial pattern broadly opposite to that of LAI. The LAI-induced reduction in dry deposition enhances surface O_3 by 3–8 ppbv over eastern China and by 2–4 ppbv over western Europe, thereby dominating the global mean positive response.

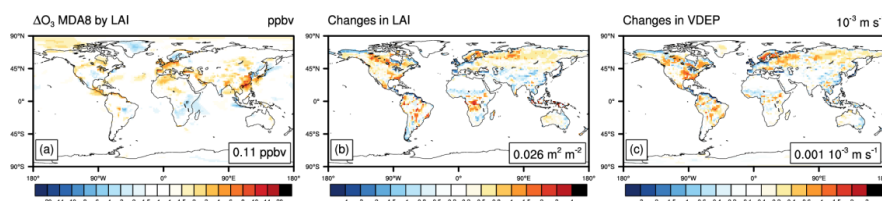


Figure 4. Changes of (a) surface MDA8 O_3 concentrations in response to (b) LAI changes and (c) LAI-induced changes in dry deposition velocity averaged for boreal summer (June–August) of 2013–2015.

Stomatal conductance simulated by iMAPLE was converted to leaf surface resistance and



coupled to the dry deposition in ECHAM-HAMMOZ (Fig. 5). Relative to the original leaf resistance (Fig. S4c), which in general has only the latitudinal gradient, the updated resistance better represents spatial variability across different land-cover types (Fig. S4d). As a result, the global mean leaf surface resistance increased by approximately 60 s m^{-1} (Fig. 5b). The largest increases occurred over deserts, plateaus, tundra, and ice-covered regions, where sparse vegetation and low canopy conductance produce high surface resistance. In contrast, densely vegetated regions, particularly eastern and southern Asia, exhibited decreases of up to 100 s m^{-1} in leaf surface resistance (Fig. 5b), leading to increases in O_3 dry deposition velocity of $\sim 0.8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 5c). Consequently, surface O_3 concentrations decreased by $\sim 3 \text{ ppbv}$ over eastern Asia (Fig. 5a).

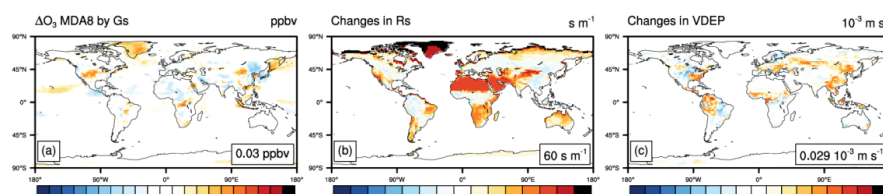


Figure 5. Changes of (a) surface MDA8 O_3 concentrations in response to (b) changed leaf resistance and (c) the associated changes in dry deposition velocity (VDEP) averaged for boreal summer (June–August) of 2013–2015.

3.4 O_3 vegetation damage (OVD) and feedback

OVD leads to a global GPP loss of 2.5 Pg C (5.7%) during boreal summer (Fig. 6). This reduction is slightly stronger than the estimate of 4.8% by Ma et al. (2023), likely because this study focuses on the boreal summer months when surface O_3 is usually at the peak. Regionally, high GPP losses of $1.6\text{--}3 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ occur over eastern China and U.S., where surface O_3 levels are usually high (Fig. 2a). When OVD feedback is activated, ECHAM-Hi predicts an even larger global GPP loss of 3.0 Pg C , with pronounced amplifications over eastern China and U.S. (Fig. 7a). This enhancement arises because initial O_3 -induced photosynthesis loss suppresses LAI (Fig. 7b), which in turn decreases the total canopy GPP due to the reduction of leaf area (Equation 5).

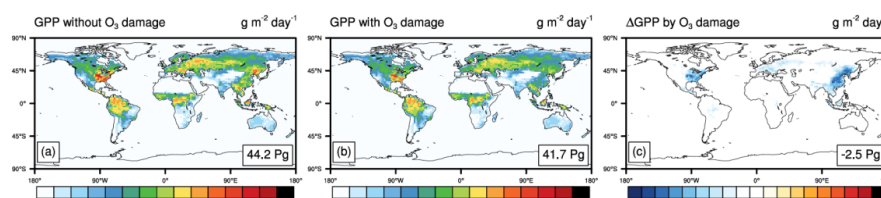


Figure 6. Simulation of (a) original GPP, (b) O_3 -affected GPP, and (c) O_3 -induced GPP loss (difference between a and b) averaged for boreal summer (June–August) of 2013–2015. The O_3 -induced GPP loss does not feed back to affect vegetation growth.

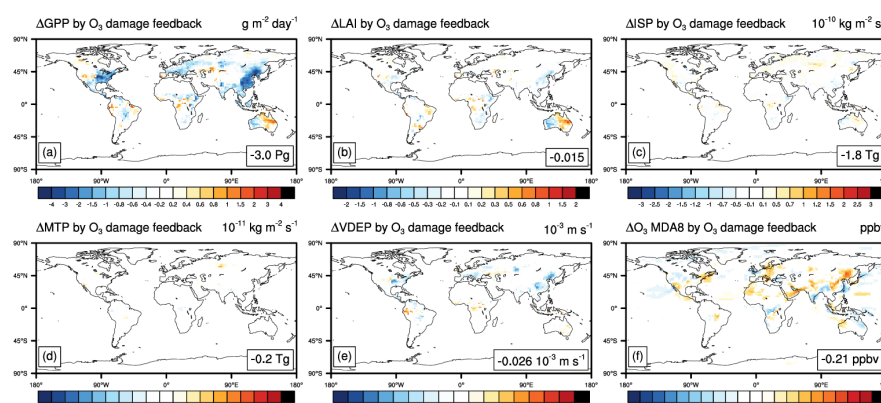


Figure 7. Responses of (a) GPP, (b) LAI, (c) ISP, (d) MTP, (e) VDEP, and (f) surface MDA8 O_3 to the online O_3 vegetation damaging effects during boreal summer (June–August) of 2013–2015.

The OVD feedback also influences atmospheric components. The LAI reduction leads to global decreases of 1.8 Tg C in isoprene emissions (Fig. 7c) and 0.2 Tg C in monoterpene emissions (Fig. 7d). Meanwhile, O_3 -induced damages to stomatal conductance weakens O_3 dry deposition velocity (Fig. 7e), thereby increasing surface O_3 concentrations over eastern China, eastern U.S. and western Europe (Fig. 7f). This positive O_3 feedback is consistent with previous studies reporting similar O_3 enhancements using different models and/or vegetation damage schemes (Zhu et al., 2022; Cao et al., 2024). The online coupling also produces localized positive GPP responses (Fig. 7a), driven by reductions in surface O_3 associated with climate perturbations (Fig. 7f). As a result, LAI exhibits spatially heterogeneous changes, including patchy regional increases (Fig. 7b).



347 **3.5 Feedback of O₃-vegetation coupling to surface O₃**

348 Globally, O₃-vegetation coupling reduces the boreal summer mean surface O₃ concentration
349 from 32.95 to 30.57 ppbv (-7.22%; Fig. 8a). Among the individual feedback pathways, ISP, MTP,
350 and OVD decrease surface O₃, whereas LAI and Gs feedbacks increase it. The MTP pathway exerts
351 the strongest influence, lowering the global mean surface O₃ by 2.31 ppbv (Fig. 8a), followed by
352 the OVD pathway, which contributes a further 0.21 ppbv reduction. In contrast, ISP, LAI, and Gs
353 show relatively modest net effects, reflecting spatially heterogeneous responses that largely offset
354 each other at the global scale.

355 Regionally, O₃-vegetation coupling induces much larger perturbations. In East Asia, the mean
356 boreal summer surface O₃ concentration increases by 1.33% from 79.82 to 80.88 ppbv (Fig. 8b).
357 The ISP, LAI, and OVD pathways increase surface O₃ by 4.66, 3.53, and 1.51 ppbv, respectively.
358 However, the MTP and Gs pathways on average reduce O₃ by 7.18 and 1.46 ppbv. In contrast, mean
359 boreal summer surface O₃ over central North America decreases by 9.89%, from 52.95 to 47.71
360 ppbv (Fig. 8c). The LAI, Gs, and OVD pathways exert weaker influences than in East Asia, although
361 their effects remain larger than the global mean. Here, changes in BVOC emissions dominate the
362 O₃ response, with the MTP and ISP pathways reducing surface O₃ by 4.42 and 1.54 ppbv,
363 respectively (Fig. 8c).

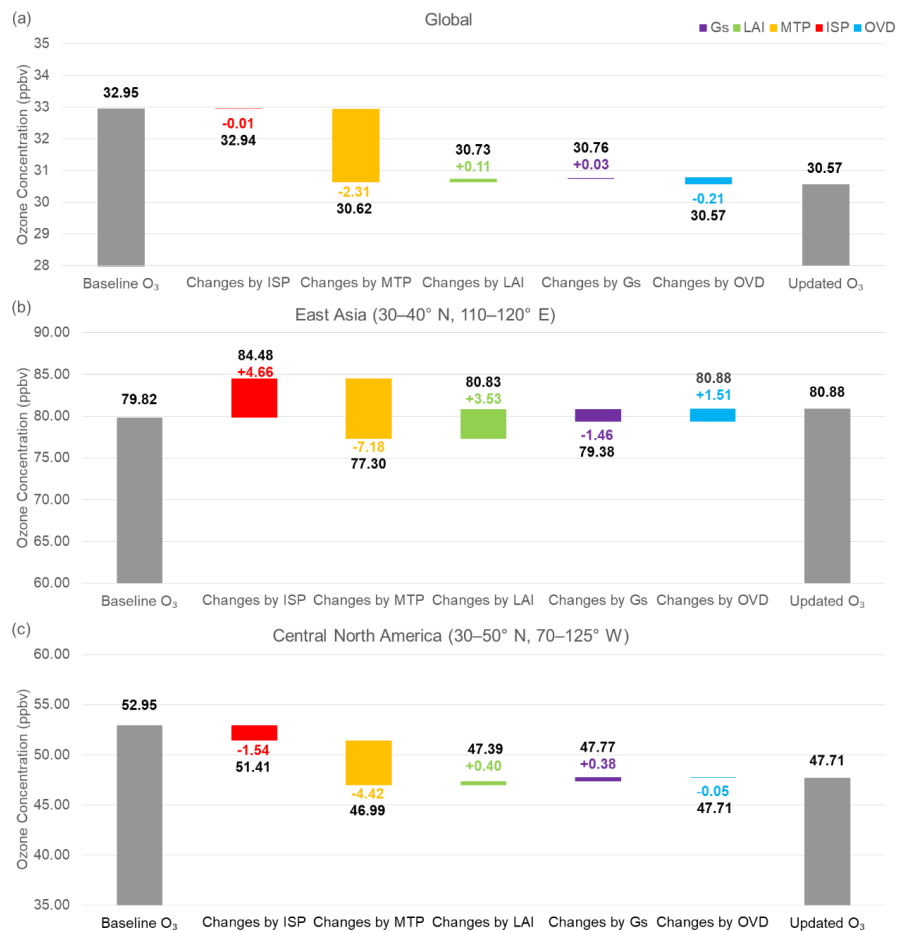


Figure 8. Changes in surface MDA8 O₃ concentrations attributable to individual processes included in the model development averaged over boreal summer (June–August) of 2013–2015 across (a) the globe, (b) East Asia, and (c) Northern Asia. OVD represents O₃ vegetation damage process.

4. Conclusions and discussion

In this study, we developed a fully coupled O₃-vegetation interaction framework by integrating the terrestrial ecosystem model iMAPLE into the ECHAM-HAMMOZ ESM. The coupled model explicitly represents three major land-atmosphere interaction pathways, including dynamic BVOC emissions, vegetation-mediated O₃ dry deposition, and O₃ damages to vegetation physiology. Incorporating these processes improve the simulation of surface O₃, particularly over China and the U.S. For example, the R between simulations and observations in China increases from 0.41 to 0.43,



376 while the RMSE decreases from 21.2 to 20.6 ppbv and the RMB from 31.5% to 29.7% (Fig. S5a,
377 c). The improvement is more pronounced over the U.S., where the RMB declines from 19.0% to
378 7.8% and the RMSE from 10.7 to 9.5 ppbv (Fig. S5b, d), though the spatial R is weakened. Globally,
379 O₃-vegetation coupling reduces the modeled O₃ levels (Fig. 5a), improving the originally positive
380 biases against site-level measurements (Fig. 2g).

381 At the global scale, the updated ISP, LAI, and Gs exert limited impacts on surface O₃, either
382 due to spatially heterogeneous changes relative to the original model (e.g., LAI and Gs) or
383 compensating effects arising from nonlinear O₃ chemical sensitivity (e.g., ISP). For example,
384 enhanced ISP in boreal regions decreases surface O₃, as additional BVOCs in NO_x-limited
385 environments promotes O₃ chemical loss (Fiore et al., 2005; Browne et al., 2013). In contrast, the
386 increased ISP in Asia supplies additional precursors for O₃ formation under VOC-limited conditions
387 (Wu et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2023), thereby enhancing surface O₃. The updated MTP produces the
388 largest net effect, driven by consistent but opposing changes in BVOC emissions and chemical
389 regimes. Over China, these responses are substantially amplified relative to the global means, likely
390 because high anthropogenic NO_x emissions (Zheng et al., 2018) and elevated background O₃ (Wang
391 et al., 2017) enhance the sensitivity of photochemical production to vegetation-driven changes in
392 BVOC emissions and dry deposition. Overall, these results suggest that O₃-vegetation coupling can
393 substantially modulate surface O₃ in chemically sensitive and/or highly vegetated regions.

394 Several limitations and uncertainties should be acknowledged. First, the evaluation of O₃
395 concentrations is constrained by the spatial coverage of available observations. In particular,
396 monitoring sites remain sparse in regions such as Africa and Amazon, limiting a comprehensive
397 assessment of model performance in these highly vegetated areas. Second, uncertainties remain in
398 key process parameterizations, particularly in the representation of BVOC emissions and stomatal
399 uptake responses to O₃ (Yue and Unger, 2015; Ma et al., 2023). Although the coupled model overall
400 improves O₃ simulations, limited evaluations of BVOC emissions and stomatal conductance may
401 influence the magnitude and spatial pattern of simulated O₃-vegetation feedbacks, leading to model-
402 dependent quantifications. Third, although the coupled ECHAM-Hi model is capable of
403 representing climate-chemistry-ecosystem interactions, this research mainly focuses on O₃-
404 vegetation feedbacks to atmospheric composition. Previous studies have shown that temperature,



405 radiation, and extreme events can strongly influence coupled O₃-vegetation dynamics (Fischer et
406 al., 2007; Oikonomakis et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2020). Future work should
407 incorporate these climatic feedbacks to further improve understanding of how climate change
408 modulates ecosystem-atmosphere interactions and future air pollution.

409 Despite these limitations, this study highlights the importance of explicitly representing O₃–
410 vegetation coupling in ESMs for accurately simulating surface O₃ and its regional impacts. By
411 introducing process-based updates to BVOC emissions, dry deposition, and stomatal uptake, the
412 model reveals that vegetation feedbacks can substantially modify surface O₃ with pronounced
413 regional effects. These impacts are strongly amplified in chemically sensitive and highly polluted
414 regions such as East Asia, while cleaner regions respond differently depending on chemical regimes.
415 Overall, this work underscores that neglecting dynamic ecosystem–atmosphere interactions may
416 lead to systematic biases in O₃ simulations, and that future projections of air quality and ecosystem
417 health should account for coupled climate-chemistry-ecosystem feedbacks.

418

419 **Data availability**

420 Anthropogenic emissions of reactive gases and aerosols are adopted from the CEDS and CMIP6
421 input4mips datasets (<https://metagrid.esgf-west.org/search>, last access: 16 June 2026). For China,
422 anthropogenic emissions are obtained from the MEIC inventory
423 (http://meicmodel.org.cn/?page_id=541&lang=en, last access: 16 June 2026). Surface O₃
424 observations in North America and Europe used in this study are obtained from Sofen et al. (2016)
425 (doi:[10.5285/08fbe63d-fa6d-4a7a-b952-5932e3ab0452](https://doi.org/10.5285/08fbe63d-fa6d-4a7a-b952-5932e3ab0452), last access: 16 June 2026). LAI and GPP
426 observational datasets are obtained from Global land surface satellite products (GLASS,
427 <http://glass-product.bnu.edu.cn/englishpage.html>, last access: 16 June 2026). The code and
428 simulation data of the coupled model ECHAM-HAMMOZ-iMAPLE, as well as the surface O₃
429 observations in China, are available at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.33263793>.

430

431 **Author contributions**

432 XY conceived this research, reviewed and edited the manuscript. YZ established the bidirectional



433 interaction processes, designed the experiments, analyzed the data and wrote the draft paper. WF
434 and CT helped with the modeling codes and paper revisions. JH and YH offered suggestions for
435 model development.

436

437 **Competing interests**

438 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

439

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444

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