

# **A modified micrometeorological gradient method for estimating O<sub>3</sub> dry deposition over a forest canopy**

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**Abstract:** Small pollutant concentration gradients between levels above a plant canopy result in large uncertainties in estimated air-surface exchange fluxes when using existing micrometeorological gradient methods, including the aerodynamic gradient method (AGM) and the modified Bowen-Ratio method (MBR). A modified micrometeorological gradient method (MGM) is proposed in this study for estimating  $O_3$  dry deposition fluxes over a forest canopy using concentration gradients between a level above and a level below the canopy top, taking advantage of relatively large gradients between these levels due to significant pollutant uptake at top layers of the canopy. The new method is compared with the AGM and MBR methods and is also evaluated using eddy-covariance (EC) flux measurements collected at the Harvard Forest Environmental Measurement Site, Massachusetts during 1993-2000. All the three gradient methods (AGM, MBR and MGM) produced similar diurnal cycles of  $O_3$  dry deposition velocity ( $V_d(O_3)$ ) to the EC measurements, with the MGM method being the closest in magnitude to the EC measurements. The multi-year average  $V_d(O_3)$  differed significantly between these methods, with the AGM, MBR and MGM method being 2.28, 1.45 and 1.18 times of that of the EC. Sensitivity experiments identified several input parameters for the MGM method as first-order parameters that affect the estimated  $V_d(O_3)$ . A 10% uncertainty in the wind speed attenuation coefficient or canopy displacement height can cause about 10% uncertainty in the estimated  $V_d(O_3)$ . An unrealistic leaf area density vertical profile can cause an uncertainty of a factor of 2.0 in the estimated  $V_d(O_3)$ . Other input parameters or formulas for stability functions only caused an uncertainty of a few percent. The new

method provides an alternative approach in monitoring/estimating long-term deposition fluxes of similar pollutants over tall canopies.

## **1. Introduction**

Quantifying atmospheric dry and wet deposition of critical pollutants is important in assessing their life time in air and their potential impact on various ecosystems. In chemical transport models and in monitoring networks, dry deposition is commonly estimated using the so-called inferential method, which requires a parameter - dry deposition velocity ( $V_d$ ) typically calculated using empirically developed dry deposition algorithms (Wesely and Hicks, 2000; Pleim and Ran, 2011). Existing dry deposition algorithms have large uncertainties, e.g., a factor of 2.0 on long-term basis for several commonly studied species (Flechard et al., 2011; Schwede et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2012; Matsuda et al., 2006). Field flux measurements are still needed to reduce these uncertainties.

Measurements of  $O_3$  dry deposition flux mostly rely on micrometeorological methods (Wesely and Hicks, 2000). Two types of methods are commonly used: the eddy-covariance technique and the flux-gradient methods. Eddy-covariance (EC) is a direct measurement method determining turbulent fluxes without application of any empirical assumption (Baldocchi et al., 1988; Stella et al., 2012). It has been extensively used to estimate turbulent fluxes of momentum, heat, and trace gases (e.g.,  $CO_2$ ,  $H_2O$ ,  $SO_2$ ,  $O_3$ ) (Baldocchi et al., 2001; Turnipseed et al., 2009; Guenther et al., 2011). However, application of EC is often limited by the difficulty of making

1 high-quality measurements at sufficiently high frequencies (i.e.  $>1$  Hz) to resolve the  
2 covariance between vertical wind velocity and scalar concentration fluctuation (Jacob,  
3 1999). Besides, EC method is costive and complex for maintenance.

4 A flux-gradient theory approach, also known as  $K$ -theory, was used as an  
5 alternative method to determine fluxes of gases which lack the fast response  
6 instrument for the EC measurement (Meyers et al., 1996; Park et al., 2014).

7 Flux-gradient theory assumes that the turbulence flux is proportional to the product of  
8 the mean vertical concentration gradient and an eddy diffusivity ( $K$ ) (Baldocchi et al.,  
9 1988). The derivation of eddy diffusivity for air pollutants currently relies on the  
10 similarity assumption which needs more verification from field measurements.

11 Another critical aspect when employing the flux-gradient theory is to measure the  
12 concentrations of gases at different heights with sufficient accuracy and precision  
13 (Stella et al., 2012; Loubet et al., 2013). Usually measurements at two adjacent levels  
14 above a canopy are used to derive the gradient, e.g., the aerodynamic gradient method  
15 (AGM) and the modified Bowen-Ratio approach (MBR). Due to the small  
16 concentration gradient above the canopy and the instrument measurement  
17 uncertainties, using the flux-gradient method can cause larger uncertainties in  
18 estimated dry deposition fluxes.

19 On the other hand, gradients between levels above and below the canopy top are  
20 usually sufficiently large due to the significant sink at top layers of forest canopies.  
21 Thus, if concentration gradients at levels above and below the canopy top can be used  
22 for estimating dry deposition flux, the uncertainties might be smaller. The present

1 study aims to develop and evaluate such a method (hereafter referred to as the  
2 modified gradient method - MGM). It should be noted that this method is still based  
3 on the flux-gradient theory.

4 Long-term concurrent measurements of eddy-covariance fluxes and  
5 concentration profiles for O<sub>3</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> have been conducted at the Harvard Forest  
6 Environmental Measurement Site (HFEMS) since 1990 (Munger et al., 1996;  
7 Urbanski et al., 2007). This data set enables us to estimate O<sub>3</sub> dry deposition using  
8 existing (AGM, MBR and EC) and newly proposed (MGM) methods and thus to  
9 evaluate the applicability and uncertainties in all the methods. The  
10 micrometeorological methods are briefly described in Section 2, the measurement  
11 data in Section 3, comparison results and sensitivity tests in Section 4, and major  
12 conclusions and recommendations in Section 5.

13

## 14 **2. Micrometeorological methods of O<sub>3</sub> flux measurement**

### 15 *2.1. Eddy-covariance technique (EC)*

16 EC determines the turbulent flux ( $F$ ) by calculating the covariance between vertical  
17 wind velocity ( $w$ ) and concentration of the gas ( $c$ ):

$$18 \quad F = \overline{w'c'} \quad (1)$$

19 where the over-bar denotes the time average and the primes denote fluctuations from  
20 the mean ( $x' = x(t) - \bar{x}$ ,  $\bar{x}$  = mean). By convention, a positive flux is upward  
21 (emission) and negative flux is downward (deposition).

22

## 2.2. Aerodynamic gradient method (AGM)

With an assumption that turbulent transport is analogous to molecular diffusion (Baldocchi et al., 1988), the flux-gradient theory is theoretically described as follows:

$$F = -K_c(z) dC/dz \quad (2)$$

where  $K_c$  is the eddy diffusivity for the gas, and  $dC/dz$  is the vertical concentration gradient of the gas. Two of the more popular methods for calculating  $K_c$  are the aerodynamic gradient method (AGM) and the modified Bowen-Ratio approach (MBR).

The AGM method assumes that heat and mass are transported in a similar way within a well-developed surface layer (Erisman and Draaijers, 1995).  $K_c$  is related to the interstitial aerodynamic resistance ( $R_a$ ) (Baldocchi, 1988) as

$$R_a(z_1 : z_2) = \int_{z_2}^{z_1} dz / K_c(z) \quad (3)$$

where  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  indicate the heights of adjacent levels above canopy ( $z_1 > z_2$ ).

Using Eqs. (2) and (3), the deposition flux ( $F$ ) is determined as:

$$F = -\frac{\Delta C}{R_a(z_1 : z_2)} = -\frac{C_1 - C_2}{R_a(z_1 : z_2)} \quad (4)$$

where  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  indicate the gas concentrations at  $z_1$  and  $z_2$ , respectively.

$R_a$  is calculated as

$$R_a(z_1 : z_2) = (\kappa u_*)^{-1} \left[ \ln \frac{z_1 - d}{z_2 - d} + \psi_h \left( \frac{z_1 - d}{L} \right) - \psi_h \left( \frac{z_2 - d}{L} \right) \right] \quad (5)$$

where  $\kappa$  is the von Karman's constant (0.4),  $u_*$  the friction velocity ( $u_* \equiv \left( -\overline{u'w'} \right)^{1/2}$ ) measured at the reference height,  $d$  the zero-plane displacement height,  $L$  the Obukhov length, and  $\Psi_h$  the integrated stability correction function for heat using

those proposed by Businger et al. (1971) and modified by Högström (1988).

### 2.3. Modified Bowen-Ratio method (MBR)

The MBR method is also based on the flux-gradient theory (Eq. 2), but the eddy diffusivity ( $K_c$ ) is derived from flux and gradient measurements of another scalar (e.g., sensible heat, CO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O) and assumes it is equal to  $K_c$  of the gas of interest. In this study, the flux and gradient measurements of CO<sub>2</sub> are available at the same heights of O<sub>3</sub>, so  $K_c$  of O<sub>3</sub> was calculated from the CO<sub>2</sub> measurements as follows:

$$K_c = K_{co_2} = -F_{co_2} \Delta z / \Delta C(CO_2) \quad (6)$$

where  $K_{co_2}$  is the eddy diffusivity of CO<sub>2</sub>,  $F_{co_2}$  is the eddy-covariance flux of CO<sub>2</sub>,  $\Delta C(CO_2)$  is the concentration gradient of CO<sub>2</sub> over the same height interval as  $\Delta C(O_3)$ , and  $\Delta z$  is the height interval of concentration measurements.

Using Eqs. (2) and (6), the O<sub>3</sub> flux ( $F$ ) is calculated as:

$$F = F_{co_2} \Delta C(O_3) / \Delta C(CO_2) \quad (7)$$

### 2.4. Modified gradient method (MGM)

The newly proposed MGM method is also based on the flux-gradient theory (Eq. 2). It is noted that the flux-gradient theory has been long questioned within plant canopy environment due to infrequent but predominant large eddies within canopy (Wilson, 1989; Raupach, 1989). For example, Bache (1986) suggested that the flux-gradient theory was a reasonable assumption estimating wind profiles in the upper portion of canopy, but failed to reproduce the secondary wind maximum that was often observed

within the trunk space of forests. It should also be noted that most of the O<sub>3</sub> uptake occurs in the upper layers of the canopy where most canopy leaves grow. Within these upper layers the vertical length scales of turbulence are probably smaller than the distance associated with changes in concentration and wind speed gradients (Baldocchi, 1988). Thus, the flux-gradient theory is likely applicable for estimating vertical flux distribution of air pollutants within a plant canopy, as has been used in previous studies (e.g., Baldocchi, 1988; Bash et al., 2010; Wolfe and Thornton, 2011).

Applying the flux-gradient theory within the canopy, a height-dependent flux ( $F(z)$ ) can then be calculated as:

$$F(z) = -K_c(z) \frac{dC}{dz} \quad (8)$$

where  $z \leq h$ , and  $K_c(z)$  is the vertical eddy diffusivity. Based on Eq. (8), the O<sub>3</sub> flux at canopy top ( $F(h)$ ) is defined as

$$F(h) = -\frac{C_h - C_3}{R_a(h : z_3)} \quad (9)$$

where  $C_h$  and  $C_3$  are the concentrations at canopy top ( $h$ ) and the height of  $z_3$  ( $z_3 < h$ ), respectively.  $R_a(h : z_3)$  is related to  $K_c$  as

$$R_a(h : z_3) = \int_{z_3}^h dz / K_c(z) \quad (10)$$

According to the aerodynamic gradient method (Eq. 4), the O<sub>3</sub> flux above canopy can be calculated from the concentration gradient between the reference height  $z_1$  and the canopy top  $h$  ( $z_1 > h$ ) as follows:

$$F = -\frac{C_1 - C_h}{R_a(z_1 : h)} \quad (11)$$

And based on the assumption of a constant flux layer above the canopy, the O<sub>3</sub> flux



1 above the canopy calculated in Eq. (11) should be equal to the  $O_3$  flux at the canopy  
 2 top derived from Eq. (9). Using Eqs. (9) and (11), we can derive that:

$$3 \quad F = -\frac{C_1 - C_3}{R_a(z_1:h) + R_a(h:z_3)} \quad (12)$$

4  $R_a(z_1:h)$  is calculated using Eq. (5).  $R_a(h:z_3)$  is integrated vertically between  
 5 the two heights within the canopy using Eq. (10).

6  $K_c(z)$  is assumed to equal  $0.8K_m(z)$ , which is the within canopy eddy diffusivity  
 7 for momentum transfer (Halldin and Lindroth, 1986). As described in Baldocchi  
 8 (1988),  $K_m(z)$  is determined as

$$9 \quad K_m(z) = \frac{\int_0^z C_m(z) a(z) u(z)^2 dz}{du(z)/dz} \quad (13)$$

10 where  $a(z)$  is the leaf area density at height  $z$ , and  $u(z)$  is the horizontal wind speed  
 11 within canopy. Similar to Baldocchi (1988),  $K_m(z)$  is assumed to be constant below  
 12 crown closure (about  $0.7h$ ) and equal to  $K_m$  at  $0.7h$ . Thus we suggest here that the  
 13 level of concentration measurement below canopy ( $z_3$ ) should not be lower than the  
 14 crown closure of canopy.

15 The effective drag coefficient ( $C_m(z)$ ) is assumed to be constant with height (see  
 16 Thom, 1975) following Baldocchi (1988):

$$17 \quad C_m(z) = \frac{C_{am}}{LAI [u_m/u(z_1)]^2} \quad (14)$$

18 where  $LAI$  is the canopy leaf area index,  $u_m$  the mean wind speed within canopy, and  
 19  $u(z_1)$  the wind speed at the reference height  $z_1$ . The bulk canopy drag coefficient ( $C_{am}$ )  
 20 is computed as

$$21 \quad C_{am} = u_*^2 / u(z_1)^2 \quad (15)$$

The mean within canopy wind speed ( $u_m$ ) is calculated as

$$u_m = (1/h) \int_0^h u(z) dz \quad (16)$$

Within canopy wind speed profile ( $u(z)$ ) follows Cionco (1972):

$$u(z) = u_h e^{-\alpha(1-z/h)} \quad (17)$$

where  $u_h$  is wind speed at the canopy top, and  $\alpha$  is wind speed attenuation coefficient.

The above canopy logarithmic wind profile is used to scale the wind speed measured at the reference height  $z_1$  to the canopy height  $h$ :

$$u_h = u(z_1) \frac{\ln(h-d) - \ln(z_0) + \psi_m[(h-d)/L] - \psi_m[z_0/L]}{\ln(z_1-d) - \ln(z_0) + \psi_m[(z_1-d)/L] - \psi_m[z_0/L]} \quad (18)$$

where  $z_0$  is the roughness length for momentum, and  $\psi_m$  is the integrated stability correction function for momentum as proposed by Businger et al. (1971) and modified by Högström (1988).

Assuming a zero concentration on the absorbing surface, the dry deposition velocity ( $V_d$ ) of  $O_3$  can be determined as

$$V_d = -F / C(z_1) \quad (19)$$

where  $C(z_1)$  is the  $O_3$  concentration measured at the reference height  $z_1$ .

### 3. Field measurements used in this study

#### 3.1. Site description

The Harvard Forest Environmental Measurement Site (HFEMS) (42.54 N, 72.18 W) is located in central Massachusetts at an elevation of 340 m above sea level. The forest is 80-year-old on average, which consists of red maple (*Acer rubrum*) and red

1 oak (*Quercus rubra*) with scattered stands of Eastern hemlock (*Tsuga canadensis*), red  
2 pine (*Pinus resinosa*) and white pine (*Pinus strobus*). The canopy height near the  
3 observation tower is up to 23 m with a peak leaf area index (*LAI*) of  $\sim 5.0 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2}$   
4 during summer. The nearest sources of significant pollution are a secondary road  
5 about 2 km to the west of the site and a main highway about 5 km to the north.

6 A permanent 30-m Rohn 25G tower has been utilized at HFEMS to measure  
7 eddy-covariance fluxes of sensible heat,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , momentum,  $\text{CO}_2$ , and  $\text{O}_3$ , along with  
8 vertical profiles of  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{O}_3$  since 1990 (Fig. 1). Eddy-covariance fluxes were  
9 measured at a height of 29 m above the ground. For the profile measurements air was  
10 continuously sampled from heights of 29, 24.1, 18.3, 12.7, 7.5, 4.5, 0.8, and 0.3 m  
11 AGL to determine the concentrations of  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{O}_3$ . In this study, the upper three  
12 levels were used to derive the gradients. Details on the site and the instrumental  
13 methods can be found in Munger et al. (1996). Data used in this study are available  
14 online at <http://atmos.seas.harvard.edu/lab/data/nigec-data.html>.

15 Zhao et al. (2011) retrieved the vertical profile of leaf area density at Harvard  
16 Forest from a ground-based lidar scanning. Two tree species groups (i.e. Hardwood  
17 and Conifer) were chosen. According to the species composition around the  
18 measurement tower, the average leaf area density used in this study was calculated as  
19 75% of that of Hardwood and 25% of that of Conifer from Zhao et al. (2011), as  
20 shown in Fig. 1.

21 The monthly averaged leaf area index (*LAI*) at HFEMS was derived from the  
22 ground-based measurements for most years between 1998 and 2013 using the LICOR

1 LAI-2000 system at 30-40 plots around the tower (Urbanski et al., 2007). As the  
 2 measurements during January and February were not available, these values were  
 3 obtained based on extrapolation (Fig. 2). The roughness length ( $z_0$ ) and displacement  
 4 height ( $d$ ) were calculated as a function of canopy height ( $h$ ) and  $LAI$ , following  
 5 Meyers et al. (1998) (see Fig. 2):

$$6 \quad z_0 = h(0.215 - LAI^{0.25} / 10) \quad (20)$$

$$7 \quad d = h(0.1 + LAI^{0.2} / 2) \quad (21)$$

8

### 9 *3.2. Data selection*

10 A total of 10,252 hourly measuring points, recorded at HFEMS during 1993-2000,  
 11 were screened to eliminate the influence of periods associated with instrumental and  
 12 measurement problems and violation of the use of the flux-gradient theory.

13 In order to reduce the random measurement error in the concentration gradient,  
 14  $O_3$  concentrations below 1 ppbv were rejected, resulting in approximately 0.1% of the  
 15 data being omitted. In addition, periods with  $[O_3] < [NO_y]$  (1.9%) were excluded to  
 16 avoid periods when  $O_3$  chemical reactions may exceed  $O_3$  deposition (Munger et al.,  
 17 1996). Wind speed below  $1.0 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  (1.2%) and drag coefficient below 0.02 (6.6%)  
 18 were removed because of probable invalid flux-gradient relationships (Feliciano et al.,  
 19 2001). Outliers in the data (2.9%) were removed, omitting any deposition velocity  
 20 exceeding the maximum achievable deposition velocity  $V_{d,\max}$  ( $V_{d,\max} = 1/(R_a + R_b)$ ),  
 21 by more than a factor of 1.5 (Matsuda et al., 2006). Periods with counter-gradient  
 22 profiles (69.8%) which represent a downward flux (from EC measurement) while

1 with a negative gradient (upper level minus lower level) or vice versa were rejected  
2 (Park et al., 2014). The counter-gradient transport should be mainly due to the  
3 non-local nature of turbulent transport within canopies. Large sweep-ejection air  
4 motions associated with coherent structures that can deeply penetrate into the canopy  
5 are believed to be largely responsible for the exchange of momentum, heat and mass  
6 between air above- and within-canopy (e.g, Shaw et al., 1983; Thomas and Foken,  
7 2007). A total of 74.0% of the data was omitted in the following analysis. This  
8 percentage value is slightly smaller than the sum of those from all the criteria due to  
9 the overlap of some data points between the criteria.

10 Fig. 3 shows the mean diurnal cycles of  $O_3$  concentration at different heights  
11 derived from the original dataset and from the data after selection. The  $O_3$   
12 concentration increased during the early morning to reach a daily maximum of over  
13 40 ppbv in the early afternoon and then decreased to ~30 ppbv at night. As shown in  
14 Fig. 3a, the gradient between the two heights above canopy (i.e. 29 and 24.1 m) was  
15 only about 0.4 ppbv on average, smaller than that between the levels above canopy  
16 (24.1 m) and inside canopy (18.3 m) (~0.8 ppbv). The gradients were relatively small  
17 during the morning (e.g., 0.1 ppbv at 11 LST) compared to the other periods of the  
18 day. In the morning, the most effective turbulent exchange between the air above- and  
19 within-canopy would substantially reduce the gradients (Sörgel et al., 2011). It is  
20 worth to mention that many earlier studies suggested that the effects of chemistry on  
21  $O_3$  flux divergence in the near surface were generally small, likely because the  
22 chemical reactions for  $O_3$  have larger time scales than the turbulent transport (e.g.,

1 Gao et al., 1991; De Arellano and Duynkerke, 1992; Duyzer et al., 1997; Padro et al.,  
2 1998; Stella et al., 2012). After screening the data with the criteria, the gradients  
3 among these three levels were significantly larger, reaching up to 1.0 ppbv and 1.6  
4 ppbv, respectively (see Fig. 3b).

5

## 6 **4. Results and Discussion**

### 7 *4.1 Comparison of $V_d(O_3)$ by the eddy-covariance and gradient methods*

8  $O_3$  dry deposition velocity ( $V_d(O_3)$ ) measured by the eddy-covariance (EC) technique  
9 at Harvard Forest typically ranged from 0.14-0.53  $\text{cm s}^{-1}$ , with a median value of 0.30  
10  $\text{cm s}^{-1}$  during the study period (Table 1). Since the screened deposition velocities still  
11 include certain outlying data, the mean value was calculated using data between 10<sup>th</sup>  
12 and 90<sup>th</sup> percentiles in order to reduce the influence of the outlying data. Following  
13 this approach, the mean  $V_d(O_3)$  by the EC technique was 0.34  $\text{cm s}^{-1}$ , which was  
14 significantly smaller than those by the gradient methods (Table 1). The ratios of mean  
15  $V_d(O_3)$  by the modified gradient (MGM), modified Bowen-Ratio (MBR), and  
16 aerodynamic gradient (AGM) methods to that by the EC technique were 1.18, 1.45  
17 and 2.28, respectively. Previous studies on the inter-comparisons of these methods for  
18  $O_3$  are few and the results varied. Muller et al. (2009) found that the mean  $V_d(O_3)$  by  
19 the AGM method was 1.60-3.47 times those by the EC technique at a grassland in  
20 Southern Scotland. Loubet et al. (2013) showed that the AGM method gave 40%  
21 larger  $V_d(O_3)$  than the EC technique over a mature maize field in Paris. Keronen et al.  
22 (2003) found that  $V_d(O_3)$  by the AGM and EC methods generally agreed well at a

1 Nordic pine forest, and so did Stella et al. (2012) over a bare soil in Paris. Droppo  
2 (1985) found close  $V_d(O_3)$  values with the MBR and EC methods at a Northeastern  
3 U.S. grassland site.

4 Fig. 4 shows the diurnal cycles of  $V_d(O_3)$  by the EC and gradient methods.  
5 Although the trends were similar, the MBR and AGM  $V_d(O_3)$  were consistently larger  
6 than the EC  $V_d(O_3)$ . The EC  $V_d(O_3)$  was about  $0.2 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  on average during night and  
7 reached a daily maximum of  $0.5 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  around noon. The  $V_d(O_3)$  by the MBR and  
8 AGM methods reached around  $0.8$  and  $1.3 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  during the daytime, respectively and  
9 remained about  $0.4 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  during night. The MGM  $V_d(O_3)$  agreed well with the EC  
10  $V_d(O_3)$  during the daytime but was slightly larger at night. This discrepancy has been  
11 identified in previous studies (Keronen et al., 2003; Stella et al., 2012) and could be  
12 due to the fact that nocturnal conditions affect both EC and gradient measurements.  
13 The EC technique is found to underestimate flux during calm night-time periods at  
14 Harvard Forest (Goulden et al., 1996). The stability correction functions used in the  
15 gradient methods (AGM and MGM) are subject to large uncertainties under stable  
16 conditions (Högström, 1988).

17 The very large differences in  $V_d(O_3)$  between the AGM and EC methods should  
18 be caused by a combination of various factors. As can be seen from Eq. (4), any  
19 underestimation in the calculation of aerodynamic resistance ( $R_a$ ) would directly  
20 transfer to the overestimation of  $V_d$ . Uncertainties in  $R_a$  from using different formulas  
21 are generally on the order of 30% over a whole canopy (Zhang et al., 2003). In the  
22 case of Eq. (4), uncertainties can be larger than 30% if other uncertainties from the

related parameters are larger. The potential underestimation in  $R_a$  (Eq. 4) also explains the small overestimation in  $V_d$  from the MGM method, in which the same  $R_a$  formula is used, although plays a second role. Measurement uncertainties in concentration gradients could also cause big discrepancies between the AGM and EC methods, especially under small gradient conditions. This is supported by the finding that the MBR method also overestimated  $V_d$  when compared with the EC measurements.

As shown in Fig. 5, the EC  $V_d(O_3)$  exhibited a significant seasonal pattern with peak values in summer ( $\sim 0.5 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ ) and small values in winter ( $0.15\text{-}0.28 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ ). Both the MGM and MBR methods captured this seasonal cycle, but the MGM method produced a higher  $V_d(O_3)$  than the EC technique during winter (December-February) and the MBR method gave a significant overestimation in summer (June-September). The monthly AGM  $V_d(O_3)$  was consistently larger than the EC  $V_d(O_3)$  and exhibited a less clear seasonal pattern with alternating increases and decreases in the  $V_d(O_3)$ .

#### *4.2 Sensitivity of $V_d(O_3)$ by the modified gradient method to the key parameters/formulas*

As shown in Section 4.1, the MGM method performed better than the MBR and AGM methods. This improvement should mainly be attributed to reductions in errors of  $O_3$  concentration gradients. However, the MGM method increased the complexity in the algorithm and added more model parameters, which may in turn increase the uncertainty in the estimated  $V_d(O_3)$ .

To test the sensitivity of the estimated  $V_d(O_3)$  by the MGM method to the key



1 parameters/formulas, calculations were conducted by changing the  
2 parameters/formulas within a reasonable range. For some single-value parameters (i.e.  
3 roughness length, displacement height, wind speed attenuation coefficient, and leaf  
4 area index), sensitivity tests were conducted by increasing or decreasing the value by  
5 10%.

6 As shown in Fig. 6 and Table 2, the MGM  $V_d(O_3)$  was highly sensitive to the  
7 changes in wind speed attenuation coefficient and displacement height. Higher wind  
8 speed attenuation coefficient could result in lower within-canopy wind speed (Eq. 17)  
9 and thus lower eddy exchange coefficient and  $V_d(O_3)$  (Table 2). Based on a  
10 least-square fitting of within-canopy wind profiles measured at Harvard Forest for  
11 noon-periods in summer, the attenuation coefficient was estimated to be ~10.6 at  
12 Harvard Forest. Cionco (1972) suggested that the attenuation coefficient varies with  
13 leaf area. Therefore, the application of this value throughout the whole year could  
14 produce a certain uncertainty in the estimated  $V_d(O_3)$ .

15 The MGM  $V_d(O_3)$  increased when the displacement height increased or vice  
16 versa (Fig. 6, Table 2). Sakai et al. (2001) calculated the displacement height at  
17 Harvard Forest using noon-period measurements and indicated the ratio of  
18 displacement height to canopy height was 0.77 in summer with foliated canopy and  
19 0.6 in winter with leafless canopy. In this study, we estimated a close value in summer  
20 (0.79) and a slightly higher value in winter (0.66) using the method proposed by  
21 Meyers et al. (1998) (Fig. 2). The overestimation of the displacement height could  
22 partly explain the overestimation of  $V_d(O_3)$  by the MGM method during December to

1 February (Fig. 5).

2 Fig. 6 shows that the MGM  $V_d(O_3)$  was less sensitive to the changes of  
3 roughness length and leaf area index. The relative differences in the estimated  $V_d(O_3)$   
4 were less than 2% when roughness length and leaf area index varied by 10% (Table  
5 2).

6 Meyers et al. (1998) provided three typical types of leaf area density profiles,  
7 which are significantly different in shape from the profile in Harvard Forest used in  
8 this study (see Fig. 7). We conducted sensitivity experiments by replacing the Harvard  
9 Forest profile with those in Meyers et al. (1998) to assess the impact of vertical profile  
10 of leaf area density on the determination of  $V_d(O_3)$ . As shown in Fig. 6 and Table 2,  
11 the vertical profile of leaf area density impacted the estimated  $V_d(O_3)$  greatly, with a  
12 relative difference in  $V_d(O_3)$  of above 50%. The profile with higher leaf density in the  
13 upper canopy (profile 3) resulted in a higher  $V_d(O_3)$  while the profile with abundant  
14 understory plants (profile 1) led to a lower  $V_d(O_3)$ .

15 In this study, the stability correction functions proposed by Businger et al. (1971)  
16 and modified by Högström (1988) were used, but several others exist, such as those  
17 by Dyer (1974), Paulson (1970), and Webb (1970). Fig. 6 indicated that uncertainties  
18 in the stability correction functions for heat ( $\Psi_h$ ) and momentum ( $\Psi_m$ ) had little  
19 impact on the MGM  $V_d(O_3)$  values. The relative difference of  $V_d$  was less than 4% for  
20 different  $\Psi_h$  and less than 1% for different  $\Psi_m$ . Stella et al. (2012) found that the  
21 variation of  $V_d(O_3)$  on different  $\Psi_h$  was roughly 10% on average when using the AGM  
22 method.  $\Psi_h$  influences the estimation of  $V_d$  due to the impact on the calculation of

1 turbulent transfer above the canopy. As the MGM method considered both the above-  
2 and within- canopy turbulence transfer, the MGM  $V_d(O_3)$  values were thus less  
3 sensitive to the choice of  $\Psi_h$ .

## 5 **5. Conclusions and Recommendations**

6 A modified micrometeorological gradient method was developed to quantify  $O_3$  dry  
7 deposition over a forest canopy making use of concentration gradients between levels  
8 above and below the canopy top. The MGM method produced close  $V_d(O_3)$  to the  
9 eddy-covariance measurements at Harvard Forest during daytime, although slightly  
10 overestimated the measurements at night. The modified method seemed to be an  
11 improvement compared to the two existing flux-gradient methods (AGM and MBR)  
12 in terms of predicted long-term mean, diurnal and seasonal cycles of  $V_d(O_3)$ .  
13 Sensitivity tests show that model parameters for MGM including wind speed  
14 attenuation coefficient, canopy displacement height and vertical distribution of leaf  
15 density were first-order parameters affecting the estimated  $V_d(O_3)$ . Model results were  
16 less sensitive to roughness length, leaf area index, and stability function for heat and  
17 momentum.

18 The newly-developed MGM method has potential to be applied routinely to  
19 monitor/estimate long-term deposition fluxes of  $O_3$  and other similar pollutants over  
20 tall canopies. The within-canopy measurement should be close to but not lower than  
21 the canopy closure height where most of the flux exchange occurs. Key model  
22 parameters mentioned above need to be characterized as accurate as possible. For

example, seasonal profiles of vertical distribution of leaf area density, canopy displacement height, and vertical wind profile related parameters are needed.

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## Figure Captions

Fig. 1. Schematic of flux and concentration gradient measurements at Harvard Forest Environmental Measurement Site.

Fig. 2. Monthly variation of leaf area index ( $LAI$ ), the displacement height( $d$ ) to canopy height ( $h$ ) ratio, and the roughness length ( $z_0$ ) to canopy height ratio at Harvard Forest.

Fig. 3. Mean diurnal cycles of  $O_3$  concentration at heights of 29, 24.1, and 18.3 m above ground level at Harvard Forest during 1993-2000. (a) was derived from the original data, and (b) was from the data after selection.

Fig. 4. (a) The box-plot of hourly  $V_d(O_3)$ , and (b) diurnal average cycles of  $V_d(O_3)$  at Harvard Forest during 1993-2000 as measured by the eddy-covariance (EC) and three gradient methods (MGM: the modified gradient method; MBR: the modified Bowen-Ratio method; AGM: the aerodynamic gradient method). In each box, the central mark is the median, and the edges of the box are the 10<sup>th</sup> and 90<sup>th</sup> percentiles. Note that the average is the arithmetical mean of data between 10<sup>th</sup> and 90<sup>th</sup> percentiles.

Fig. 5. Monthly average of  $V_d(O_3)$  at Harvard Forest during 1993-2000 as measured by the eddy-covariance (EC) and three gradient methods (MGM: the modified gradient method; MBR: the modified Bowen-Ratio method; AGM: the aerodynamic gradient method). Note that the average is the arithmetical mean of data between 10<sup>th</sup>

1 and 90<sup>th</sup> percentiles.

2

3 Fig. 6. Diurnal average cycles of  $V_d(O_3)$  over Harvard Forest during 1993-2000 by the  
4 modified gradient method (MGM) with different parameter/formula changes and  
5 compared with that by the eddy-covariance (EC) technique: (a) roughness length, (b)  
6 displacement height, (c) wind speed attenuation coefficient, (d) leaf area index, (e)  
7 vertical profile of leaf area density, (f) stability correction functions for heat, and (g)  
8 stability correction functions for momentum.

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10 Fig. 7. Vertical profiles of leaf area density in Harvard Forest and those used in  
11 sensitivity experiments.

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Table 1. Statistics on hourly  $V_d(O_3)$  ( $\text{cm s}^{-1}$ ) at Harvard Forest during 1993-2000 as measured by the eddy-covariance (EC) and three gradient methods (MGM: the modified gradient method; MBR: the modified Bowen-Ratio method; AGM: the aerodynamic gradient method).

	EC	MGM	MBR	AGM
10 <sup>th</sup> Percentile	0.05	0.09	0.03	0.11
25 <sup>th</sup> Percentile	0.14	0.19	0.12	0.26
Median	0.30	0.35	0.35	0.62
75 <sup>th</sup> Percentile	0.53	0.61	0.85	1.27
90 <sup>th</sup> Percentile	0.83	0.96	1.86	2.28
Mean <sup>a</sup>	0.34	0.40	0.49	0.77

<sup>a</sup> the arithmetical mean of data between 10<sup>th</sup> and 90<sup>th</sup> percentiles

Table 2. Relative difference between  $V_d(O_3)$  determined by the modified gradient method with different parameters/formulas (%)<sup>a</sup>

	$z_0$		$d$		$\alpha$		LAI		LAD <sup>b</sup>			$\Psi_h^c$			$\Psi_m^c$		
	-10%	+10%	-10%	+10%	-10%	+10%	-10%	+10%	Prf 1	Prf 2	Prf 3	D74	P70	W70	D74	P70	W70
Median	-1.1	1.1	-4.8	10.8	10.1	-9.3	-0.6	0.5	-34.4	8.4	57.4	3.1	1.7	0.5	0.2	0.08	0.06
Mean <sup>d</sup>	-1.0	1.1	-4.7	10.4	10.2	-9.6	-0.6	0.5	-34.5	8.4	58.5	3.1	1.4	-0.01	0.1	0.02	-0.01

<sup>a</sup> Relative difference = (Sensitivity – Base) / Base  $\times$  100%

<sup>b</sup> Vertical profile of leaf area density from Meyers et al. (1998) as shown in Fig. 7

<sup>c</sup> D74: Dyer (1974); P70: Paulson (1970); W70: Webb (1970)

<sup>d</sup> the arithmetical mean of data between 10<sup>th</sup> and 90<sup>th</sup> percentiles

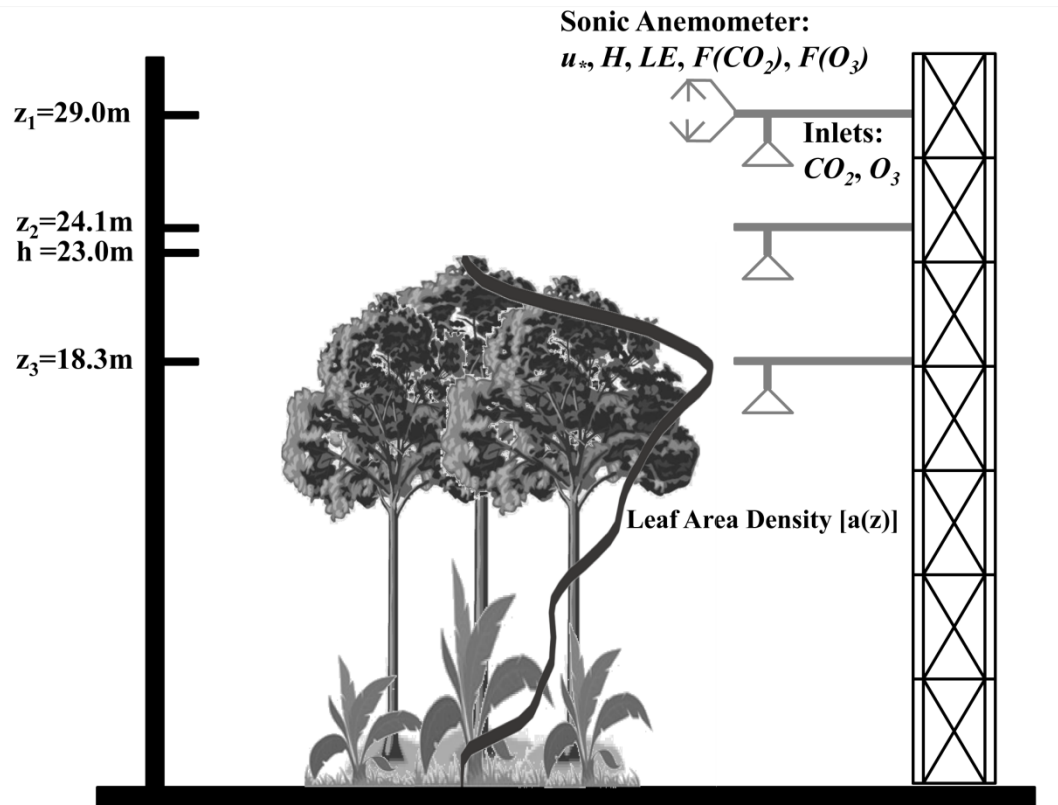


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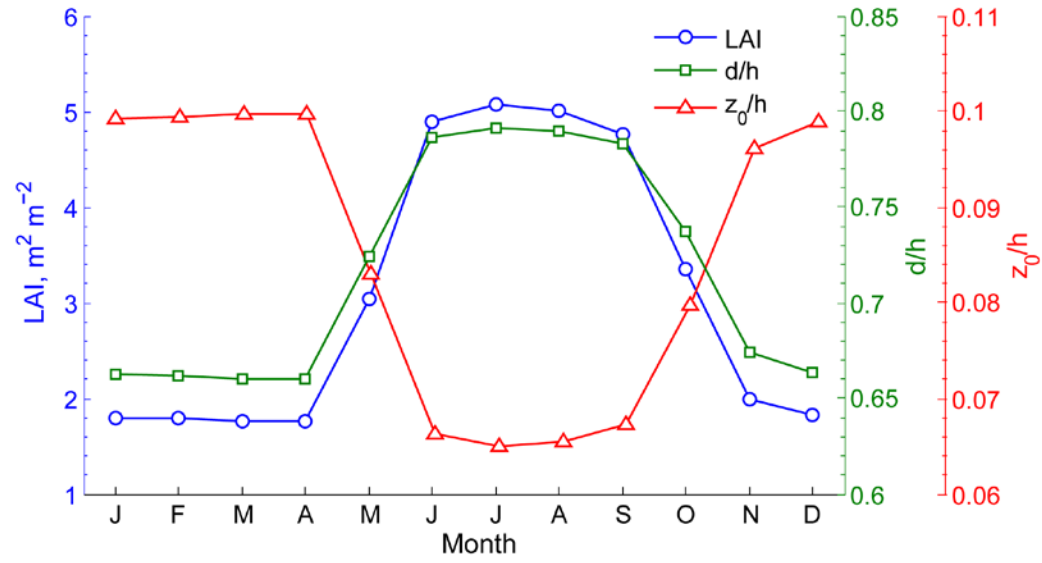


Fig. 2. Monthly variation of leaf area index ( $LAI$ ), the displacement height( $d$ ) to canopy height ( $h$ ) ratio, and the roughness length ( $z_0$ ) to canopy height ratio at Harvard Forest.



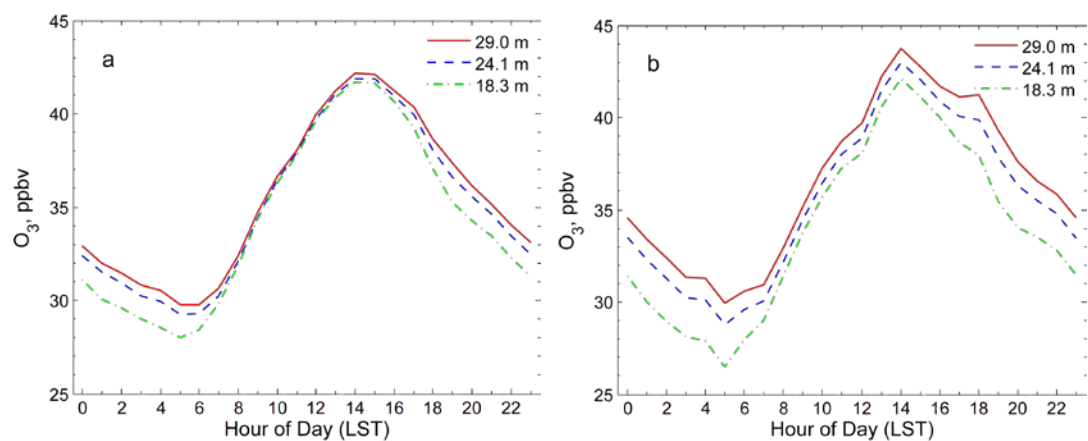


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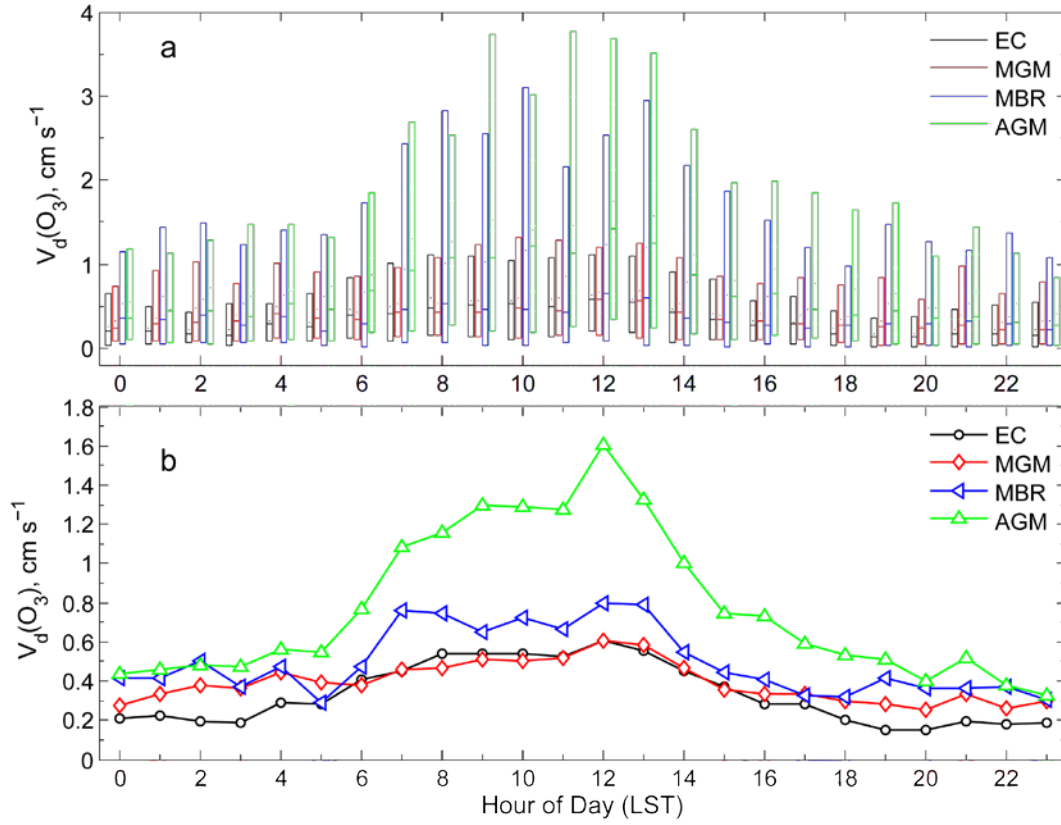


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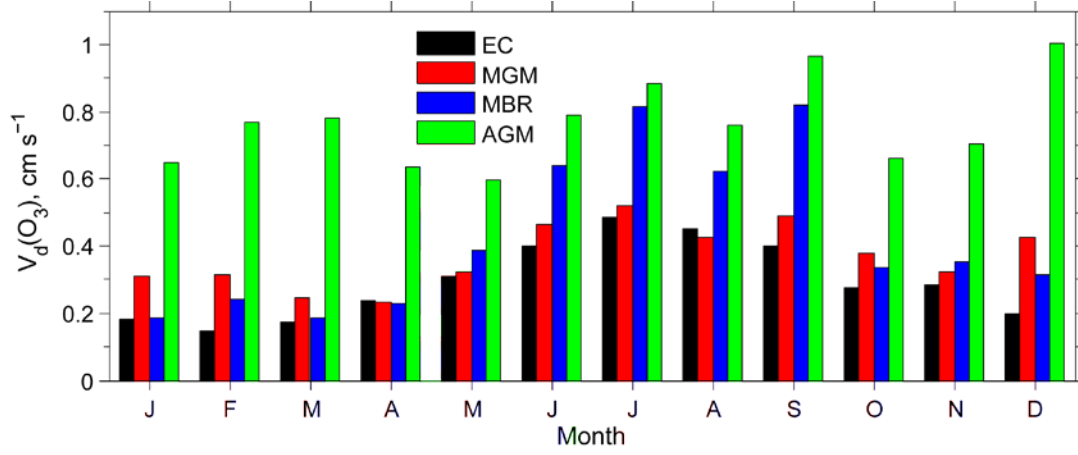


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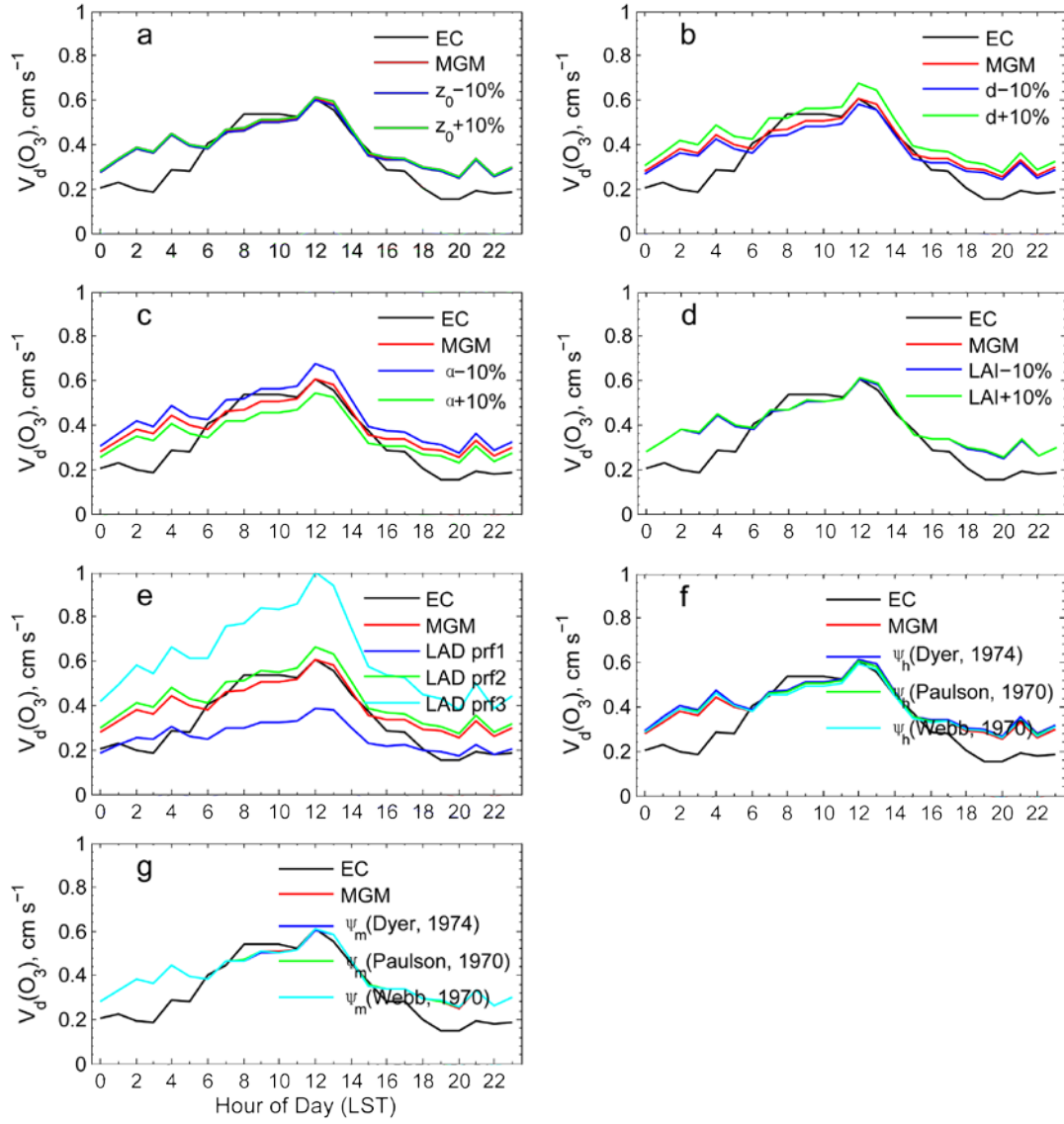


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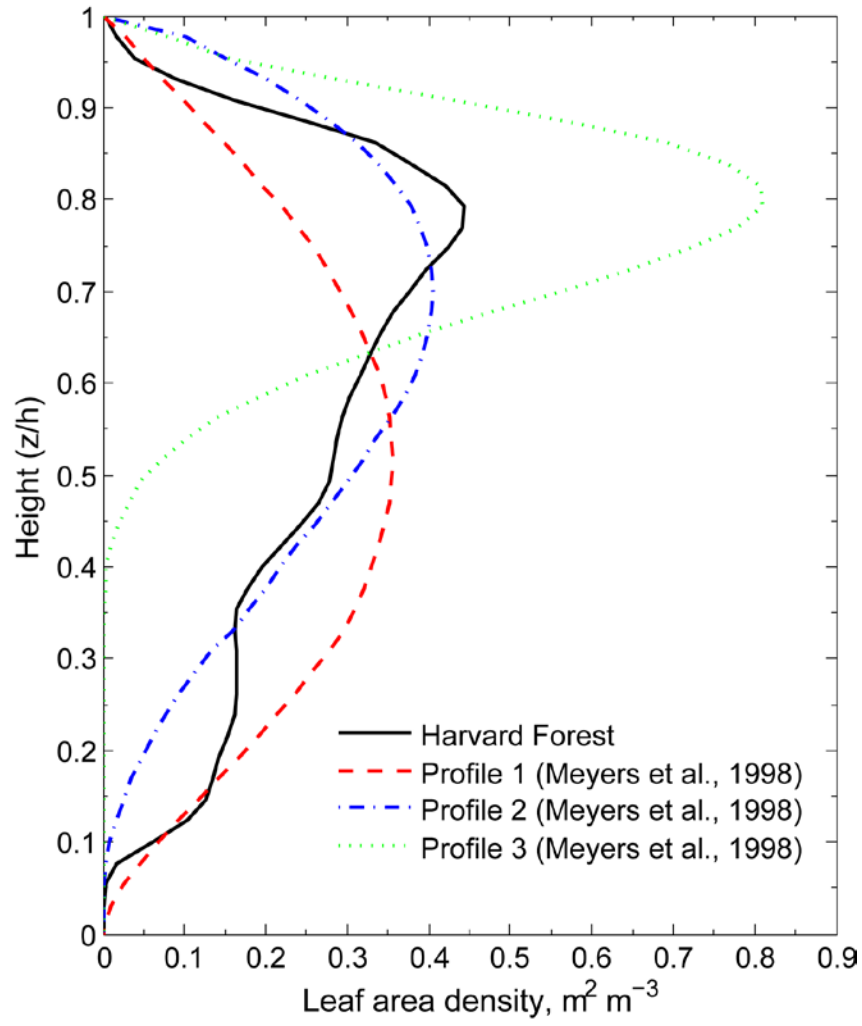


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