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Importance of Dry Deposition Parameterization Choice in Global Simulations of Surface Ozone

Anthony Y.H. Wong[1], Jeffrey A. Geddes[1], Amos P.K. Tai[2,3], Sam J. Silva[4]

[1]Department of Earth and Environment, Boston University, Boston, MA, USA
[2]Earth System Science Programme, Faculty of Science, The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong
[3]Institute of Energy, Environment and Sustainability, and State Key Laboratory of Agrobiotechnology, The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong
[4]Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA, USA

Correspondence to: Jeffrey A. Geddes (jgeddes@bu.edu)

Abstract. Dry deposition is the second largest sink of tropospheric ozone. Increasing evidence has shown that ozone dry deposition actively links meteorology and hydrology with ozone air quality. However, there is little systematic investigation on the performance of different ozone dry deposition parameterizations at the global scale, and how parameterization choice can impact surface ozone simulations. Here we present the results of the first global, multi-decade modelling and evaluation of ozone dry deposition velocity (v_d) using multiple ozone dry deposition parameterizations. We use consistent assimilated meteorology and satellite-derived leaf area index (LAI) to simulate v_d over 1982-2011 driven by four sets of ozone dry deposition parametrization that are representative of the current approaches of global ozone dry deposition modelling, such that the differences in simulated v_d are entirely due to differences in deposition model structures. In addition, we use the surface ozone sensitivity to v_d predicted by a chemical transport model to estimate the impact of mean and variability of ozone dry deposition velocity on surface ozone. Our estimated v_d from four different parameterizations are evaluated against field observations, and while performance varies considerably by land cover types, our results suggest that none of the parameterizations are universally better than the others. Discrepancy in simulated mean v_d among the parameterizations is estimated to cause 2 to 5 ppbv of discrepancy in surface ozone in the Northern Hemisphere (NH) and up to 8 ppbv in tropical rainforest in July, and up to 8 ppbv in tropical rainforests and seasonally dry tropical forests in Indochina in December. Parameterization-specific biases based on individual land cover type and hydroclimate are found to be the two main drivers of such discrepancies. We find statistically significant trends in the multiannual time series of simulated July daytime v_d in all parameterizations, driven by warming and drying (southern Amazonia, southern African savannah and Mongolia) or greening (high latitudes). The trends in July daytime v_d is estimated to be 1 % yr^{-1} and leads to up to 3 ppbv of surface ozone changes over 1982-2011. The interannual coefficient of variation (CV) of July daytime mean v_d in NH is found to be 5%-15%, with spatial distribution that varies with the dry deposition parameterization. Our sensitivity simulations suggest this can contribute between 0.5 to 2 ppbv to interannual variability (IAV) in surface ozone, but all models tend to underestimate interannual CV when compared to long-term ozone flux observations. We also find that IAV in some dry deposition parameterizations are more sensitive to LAI while others are more sensitive to climate. Comparisons with other published estimates of the IAV of

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background ozone confirm that ozone dry deposition can be an important part of natural surface ozone variability. Our results demonstrate the importance of ozone dry deposition parameterization choice on surface ozone modelling, and the impact of IAV of v_d on surface ozone, thus making a strong case for further measurement, evaluation and model-data integration of ozone dry deposition on different spatiotemporal scales.

1 Introduction

Surface ozone (O_3) is one of the major air pollutants that poses serious threats to human health (Jerrett et al., 2009) and plant productivity (Ainsworth et al., 2012; Reich, 1987; Wittig et al., 2007). Ozone exerts additional pressure on global food security and public health by damaging agricultural ecosystems and reducing crop yields (Avnery et al., 2011; McGrath et al., 2015; Tai et al., 2014). Dry deposition, by which atmospheric constituents are removed from the atmosphere and transferred to the Earth's surface through turbulent transport or gravitational settling, is the second-largest and terminal sink of tropospheric O_3 (Wild, 2007). Terrestrial ecosystems are particularly efficient at removing O_3 via dry deposition through stomatal uptake and other non-stomatal pathways (Wesely and Hicks, 2000) (e.g., cuticle, soil, reaction with biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs) (Fares et al., 2010; Wolfe et al., 2011). Meanwhile, stomatal uptake of O_3 inflicts damage on plants by initiating reactions that impair their photosynthetic and stomatal regulatory capacity (Hoshika et al., 2014; Lombardozzi et al., 2012; Reich, 1987). Widespread plant damage has the potential to alter the global water cycle (Lombardozzi et al., 2015) and suppress the land carbon sink (Sitch et al., 2007), as well as to generate a cascade of feedbacks that affect atmospheric composition including ozone itself (Sadiq et al., 2017; Zhou et al., 2018). Ozone dry deposition is therefore key in understanding how meteorology (Kavassalis and Murphy, 2017), climate, and land cover change (Fu and Tai, 2015; Ganzeveld et al., 2010; Geddes et al., 2016; Heald and Geddes, 2016; Sadiq et al., 2017; Sanderson et al., 2007; Young et al., 2013) can affect air quality and atmospheric chemistry at large.

Analogous to other surface-atmosphere exchange processes (e.g., sensible and latent heat flux), O_3 dry deposition flux (F_{O3}) is often expressed as the product of ambient O_3 concentrations at the surface ($[O_3]$) and a transfer coefficient (dry deposition velocity, v_d) that describes the efficiency of transport (and removal) to the surface from the measurement height:

$$F_{O_3} = -[O_3]v_d \quad (1)$$

Also analogous to other surface fluxes, F_{O3}, $[O_3]$, and hence v_d can be directly measured by the eddy covariance (EC) method (e.g. Fares et al., 2014; Gerosa et al., 2005; Lamaud et al., 2002; Munger et al., 1996; Rannik et al., 2012) with random uncertainty of about 20% (Keronen et al., 2003; Muller et al., 2010). Apart from EC, F_{O3} and v_d can also be estimated from the vertical profile of O_3 by exploiting flux-gradient relationship (Foken, 2006) (termed the gradient method, GM) (e.g. Gerosa et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2016, 2015). A recent review (Silva and Heald, 2018) has complied 75 sets of ozone deposition measurement from the EC and GM methods across different seasons and land cover types over the past 30 years.

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At the site level, ozone dry deposition over various terrestrial ecosystems can be simulated comprehensively by 1-D chemical transport models (Ashworth et al., 2015; Wolfe et al., 2011; Zhou et al., 2017), which are able to account for vertical gradients inside the canopy environment, and gas-phase reaction with BVOCs in addition to surface sinks. Regional and global models, which lack the fine-scale information (e.g. vertical structure of canopy, in-canopy BVOCs emissions) and horizontal resolution for resolving the plant canopy in such detail, instead rely on parameterizing v_d as a network of resistances, which account for the effects of turbulent mixing via aerodynamic (R_a), molecular diffusion via quasi-laminar sublayer resistances (R_b), and surface sinks via surface resistance (R_c):

$$v_d = \frac{1}{R_a + R_b + R_c} \quad (2)$$

A diverse set of parameterizations of ozone dry deposition are available and used in different models and monitoring networks. Examples include the Wesely parameterization (1989) and modified versions of it (e.g. Wang et al., 1998), the Zhang et al. parameterization (Zhang et al., 2003), the Deposition of O_3 for Stomatal Exchange model (Emberson et al., 2000; Simpson et al., 2012), and the Clean Air Status and Trends Network (CASTNET) deposition estimates (Meyers et al., 1998). The calculation of R_a and R_b across these parameterizations often follow a standard formulation from micrometeorology (Foken, 2006; Wesely and Hicks, 1977, 2000; Wu et al., 2011) and thus does not vary significantly. The main difference between the ozone dry deposition parameterizations lies on the surface resistance R_c. This resistance includes stomatal resistance (R_s), which can be computed by a Jarvis-type multiplicative algorithm (Jarvis, 1976) where R_s is the product of its minimum value and a series of response functions to individual environmental conditions. Such conditions typically include air temperature (T), photosynthetically available radiation (PAR), vapour pressure deficit (VPD) and soil moisture (θ), with varying complexity and functional forms.

An advance of these efforts includes harmonizing R_s with that computed by land surface models (Ran et al., 2017a; Val Martin et al., 2014), which calculate R_s by coupled photosynthesis-stomatal conductance (A_n-g_s) models (Ball et al., 1987; Collatz et al., 1992, 1991). Such coupling should theoretically give a more realistic account of ecophysiological controls on R_s. Indeed, it has been shown that the above approach may better simulate v_d than the multiplicative algorithms that only considers the effects T and PAR (Val Martin et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2011). The non-stomatal part of R_c often consists of cuticular (R_{cut}), ground (R_g) and other miscellaneous types of resistances (e.g., lower canopy resistance (R_{lc}) in Wesely (1989)). Due to very limited measurements and mechanistic understanding towards non-stomatal deposition, non-stomatal resistances are often constants (e.g., R_g) or simply scaled with leaf area index (LAI) (e.g., R_{cut}) (Simpson et al., 2012; Wang et al., 1998; Wesely, 1989), while some of the parameterizations (Zhang et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2017) incorporate the observation of enhanced cuticular O_3 uptake under leaf surface wetness (Altimir et al., 2006; Potier et al., 2015, 2017; Sun et al., 2016).

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Various efforts have been made to evaluate and assess the uncertainty in modelling ozone dry deposition using field measurements. Hardacre et al. (2015) evaluate the performance of simulated monthly mean v_d and F_{O3} by 15 chemical transport models (CTM) from the Task Force on Hemispheric Transport of Air Pollutant (TF HTAP) against seven long-term site measurements, 15 short-term site measurements, and modelled v_d from 96 CASTNET sites. This work found that the seasonal cycle is well-simulated across models, while demonstrating that the difference in land cover classification is the main source of discrepancy between models. In this case, most of the models in TF HTAP use the same class of dry deposition parameterization (Wang et al., 1998; Wesely, 1989), so a global evaluation of *different* deposition parameterizations was not possible. Also, the focus in this intercomparison study was on seasonal, but not other (e.g. diurnal, daily, interannual) timescales. Using an extended set of measurements, Silva and Heald (2018) evaluate the v_d output from the Wang et al. (1998) parameterization used by the GEOS-Chem chemical transport model. They show that diurnal and seasonal cycles are generally well-captured, while the daily variability is not well-simulated. They find that differences in land type and LAI, rather than meteorology, are the main reason behind model-observation discrepancy at the seasonal scale, and eliminating this model bias results in up to 15% change in surface O_3. This study is also limited to a single parameterization. Using parameterizations that are explicitly sensitive to other environmental variables (e.g. Simpson et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2003) could conceivably lead to different conclusions.

Other efforts have been made to compare the performance of different parameterizations. Centoni (2017) find that two different dry deposition parameterizations, Wesely (1989) versus Zhang et al. (2003), implemented in the same chemistry-aerosol model (United Kingdom Chemistry Aerosol model, UKMA), result in up to a 20% difference in simulated surface O_3 concentration. This study demonstrates that uncertainty in v_d can have large potential effect on surface O_3 simulation. Wu et al. (2018) compare v_d simulated by five North-American dry deposition parametrizations to a long-term observational record at a single mixed forest in southern Canada, and find a large spread between the simulated v_d, with no single parameterization uniformly outperforming others. They further acknowledge that as each parameterization is developed with its own set of limited observations, it is natural that their performance can vary considerably under different environments, and advocate for an "ensemble" approach to dry deposition modelling. This highlights the importance of parameterization choice as a key source of uncertainty in modelling ozone dry deposition. Meanwhile, in another evaluation at a single site, Clifton et al. (2017) show that the GEOS-Chem parameterization largely underestimates the interannual variability (IAV) of v_d in Harvard Forest based on the measurement from 1990 to 2000, although they were unable to conclude how the IAV of v_d may contribute to the IAV of O_3.

These developments have made a substantial contribution to our understanding of the importance of O_3 dry deposition in atmospheric chemistry models. Still, pertinent questions remain about the impact of dry deposition model physics on simulations of the global distribution of ozone and its long-term variability. Here, we build on previous works by posing and answering the following questions:

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1) How does the global distribution of mean v_d vary with different dry deposition parameterizations, and what drives the discrepancies among them? How much might the choice of deposition parameterization affect spatial distribution of surface ozone concentration simulated by a chemical transport model?
2) How are the IAV and long-term trends of v_d different across deposition parameterizations, and what drives the discrepancies among them? Do they potentially contribute different predictions of the long-term temporal variability in surface ozone?

The answers to such question could have important consequences on our ability to predict long-term changes in atmospheric O_3 concentrations as a function of changing climate and land cover characteristics. In general, there is a high computational cost to thorough and large-scale evaluations of different dry deposition parameterizations embedded in CTMs. In this study, we explore these questions using a strategy that combines an offline dry deposition modelling framework incorporating long-term assimilated meteorological and land surface remote sensing data, in combination with a set of CTM sensitivity simulations.

2 Method

2.1 Dry deposition parameterization

A detailed description of the common dry deposition parameterizations we explore can be found in Wu et al. (2018). Here we consider several "big-leaf" models commonly used by global chemical transport models. More complex multilayer models require the vertical profiles of leaf area density for different biomes which are generally not available for regional and global models. From the wide range of literature on dry deposition studies, we observe that R_s is commonly modelled through one of the following approaches:

1) Multiplicative algorithm that considers the effects of LAI, temperature and radiation (Wang et al., 1998).
2) Multiplicative algorithm that considers the effects of LAI, temperature, radiation and water stress (e.g. Meyers et al., 1998; Pleim and Ran, 2011; Simpson et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2003).
3) Coupled A_n-g_s model, which exploit the strong empirical relationship between photosynthesis (A_n) and stomatal conductance (g_s) and to simulate A_n and $g_s = 1/R_s$ simultaneously (e.g. Ran et al., 2017b; Val Martin et al., 2014).

Similarly, their functional dependence of non-stomatal surface resistances can be classified into two classes:

1) Mainly scaling with LAI, with in-canopy aerodynamics parameterized as function of friction velocity (u_*) or radiation (Meyers et al., 1998; Simpson et al., 2012; Wang et al., 1998)
2) Additional dependence of cuticular resistance on relative humidity (Pleim and Ran, 2011; Zhang et al., 2003)

With these considerations, we identify four common parameterizations that are representative of the types of approaches described above:

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1) The version of Wesely (1989) with the modification from Wang et al. (1998) (hereafter referred to as W98), which is used extensively in global CTMs (Hardacre et al., 2015) and comprehensively discussed by Silva and Heald (2018). This represents Type 1 in both stomatal and non-stomatal parametrizations.
2) The Zhang et al. (2003) parameterization (hereafter referred to as Z03), which is used in many North American air quality modelling studies (e.g. Huang et al., 2016; Kharol et al., 2018) and Canadian Air and Precipitation Monitoring Network (CAPMoN) (e.g. Zhang et al., 2009). This represents Type 2 in both stomatal and non-stomatal parameterizations
3) W89 with R_s calculated from a widely-used coupled A_n-g_s model, the Ball-Berry model (hereafter referred to as W98_BB*)* (Ball et al., 1987; Collatz et al., 1992, 1991), which is similar to that proposed by Val Martin et al. (2014). This represents Type 3 in stomatal and Type 1 in non-stomatal parametrization.
4) Z03 with the Ball-Berry model (Z03_BB), which is comparable to the configuration in Centoni (2017). This represents Type 3 in stomatal and Type 2 in non-stomatal parametrization.

Another important consideration in choosing Z03 and W98 is that they both have open-source parameters for all major land types over the globe, making them widely applicable in global modelling. We extract the source code (Wang et al., 1998) and parameters (Baldocchi et al., 1987; Jacob et al., 1992; Jacob and Wofsy, 1990; Wesely, 1989) of W98 from GEOS-Chem CTM (http://wiki.seas.harvard.edu/geos-chem/index.php/Dry_deposition). The source code of Z03 are obtained through personal communication with Zhiyong Wu and Leiming Zhang, which follows the series of papers that described the development and formalism of the parameterization (Brook et al., 1999; Zhang et al., 2001, 2002, 2003). The Ball-Berry A_n-g_s model (Ball et al., 1987; Collatz et al., 1992, 1991; Farquhar et al., 1980) and its solver are largely based on the algorithm of CLM (Community Land Model) version 4.5 (Oleson et al., 2013), which is numerically stable (Sun et al., 2012). Since R_c typically dominates the deposition velocity of O_3 (Fares et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2018), we use identical formulae of R_a and R_b (Paulson, 1970; Wesely and Hicks, 1977) for each individual parameterizations, allowing us to focus our analysis on differences in parameterizations of R_c alone. Table A1 gives a brief description on the formalism of each of the dry deposition parameterizations.

2.2 Dry deposition model configuration, inputs, and simulation

The above parameterizations are re-implemented in R language (R core team, 2017) in the modeling framework of the Terrestrial Ecosystem Model in R (http://www.cuhk.edu.hk/sci/essc/tgabi/tools.html), and driven by gridded surface meteorology and land surface data sets. The meteorological forcing chosen for this study is the Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for Research and Application-2 (MERRA-2) (Gelaro et al., 2017), an assimilated meteorological product at hourly time resolution spanning from 1980 to present day. MERRA-2 contains all the required surface meteorological fields except *VPD* and *RH*, which can be readily computed from *T*, specific humidity (*q*) and surface air pressure (*P*). We use the CLM land surface dataset (Lawrence and Chase, 2007), which contains information for land cover, per-grid cell coverage of each plant

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functional type (PFT), PFT-specific LAI and soil property. CLM land types are mapped to the land type of W98 following Geddes et al. (2016). The mapping between CLM and Z03 land types are given in Table A2. Other relevant vegetation and soil parameters (e.g. leaf physiological and soil hydraulic constants) are also imported from CLM 4.5 (Oleson et al., 2013), while land cover specific z_0 values follow Geddes et al. (2016).

As the IAV of LAI could be an important factor in simulating v_d, the widely-used third generation Global Inventory Modelling and Mapping Studies Leaf Area Index product (GIMMS LAI3g, abbreviated as LAI3g in this paper) (Zhu et al., 2013), which is a global time series of LAI with 15-day temporal frequency and 1/12 degree spatial resolution spanning from late 1981 to 2011, is incorporated in this study. We use this data set to derive interannual scaling factors that can be applied to the baseline CLM-derived LAI (Lawrence and Chase, 2007). All the input data are aggregated into horizontal resolution of 2°×2.5° to align with the CTM sensitivity simulation described in next sub-section. To represent sub-grid land cover heterogeneity, grid cell-level v_d is calculated as the sum of v_d over all sub-grid land types weighted by their percentage coverage in the grid cell (a.k.a tiling or mosaic approach, e.g. Li et al., 2013). This reduces the information loss when land surface data is aggregated to coarser spatial resolution, and allows us to retain PFT-specific results for each grid box in the offline dry deposition simulations.

We run three sets of 30-years (1982-2011) simulations with the deposition parameterizations to investigate the how v_d simulated by different parameterizations responds to different environmental factors over multiple decades. The settings of the simulations are summarized in Table 1. The first set, [Clim], focuses on meteorological variability alone, driven by MERRA-2 meteorology and a multiyear (constant) mean annual cycle of LAI derived from LAI3g. The second set, [Clim+LAI], combines the effects of meteorology and IAV in LAI, driven by the same MERRA-2 meteorology plus the LAI time series from LAI3g. As the increase atmospheric CO_2 level over multidecadal timescales may lead to significant reduction in g_s as plants tend to conserve water (e.g. Franks et al., 2013; Rigden and Salvucci, 2017), we introduce the third set of simulation, [Clim+LAI+CO_2], which is driven by varying meteorology and LAI, plus the annual mean atmospheric CO_2 level measured in Mauna Loa (Keeling et al., 2001) (for the first two sets of simulations, atmospheric CO_2 concentration held constant at 390 ppm). Since W98 and Z03 do not respond to changes in CO_2 level, only W98_BB and Z03_BB are run with [Clim+LAI+CO_2] to evaluate this impact. We focus on the daytime (solar elevation angle > 20°) v_d, as both v_d and surface O_3 concentration typically peak around this time. We calculate monthly means, filtering out the grid cells with monthly total daytime < 100 hours, which would be an indication of dormant biosphere.

In summary, we present for the first time a unique set of global dry deposition velocity predictions over the last 30 years driven by identical meteorology and land cover, so that discrepancies (in space and time) among the predicted v_d are a result specifically of dry deposition parameterizations alone.

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2.3 Chemical transport model sensitivity experiments

We quantify the sensitivity of surface O_3 to variations in v_d using a global 3D CTM, GEOS-Chem version 11.01 (Bey et al., 2001), which includes comprehensive HO_x-NO_x-VOC-O_3-BrO_x chemical mechanisms (Mao et al., 2013) and is widely used to study tropospheric ozone (e.g. Hu et al., 2017; Travis et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2010). The model is driven by the assimilated meteorological data from the GEOS-FP (Forward Processing) Atmospheric Data Assimilation System (GEOS-5 ADAS) (Rienecker et al., 2008), which is jointly developed by National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) and the Global Modelling and Assimilation Office (GMAO). The model is run with a horizontal resolution of 2°×2.5°, and 47 vertical layers. The dry deposition module, which has been discussed above (W98), is driven by the monthly mean LAI retrieved from Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) (Myneni et al., 2002) and the 2001 version of Olson land cover map (Olson et al., 2001). Both of the maps are binned from their native resolutions to 0.25°×0.25°.

We propose to estimate the sensitivity of surface O_3 concentrations to uncertainty/changes in v_d by the following equation:

$$\Delta O_3 = \beta \frac{\Delta v_d}{v_d}$$

where ΔO_3 is the response of monthly mean daytime surface O_3 to fractional change in v_d ($\Delta v_d/v_d$), and β accounts for the sensitivity of surface O_3 concentration in a grid box to the perturbation in v_d within that grid box. To estimate β, we run two simulations for the year 2013, one with default setting and another where we perturb v_d by +30%. Since not every gaseous species deposit with the same functional relationships as O_3, we only adjust the v_d of O_3 to avoid perturbing the chemistry resulting from the deposition of other chemically relevant species (e.g. PAN, HNO_3). Thus, this approach could represent a conservative estimate of O_3 sensitivity to v_d if the impacts on other species result in additional effects on O_3. Nevertheless, we use this sensitivity to estimate the potential impact of v_d simulation on surface O_3 concentration to a first order in subsequent sections. This approach is based on the reasonably linear response of surface O_3 to v_d over comparable range of v_d change (Wong et al., 2018). We limit our analysis to grid cells where the monthly average v_d is greater than 0.25 cm s^{-1} in the baseline simulation, since changes in surface O_3 elsewhere are expected to be attributed more to chemical transport rather than the local perturbation of v_d (Wong et al., 2018).

3. Evaluation of Dry Deposition Parameterizations

We first compare our offline simulations of seasonal mean daytime average v_d that result from the four parameterizations in the [Clim] and [Clim+LAI] scenarios with an observational database largely based on the evaluation presented in Silva and Heald (2018). We use two unbiased and symmetrical statistical metrics, normalized mean bias factor (*NMBF*) and normalized mean absolute error factor (*NMAEF*), to evaluate our parameterizations. Positive *NMBF* indicates that the parameterization overestimates the observations by a factor of 1 + *NMBF* and the absolute gross error is *NMAEF* times the mean observation, while negative *NMBF* implies that the parameterization underestimates the observations by a factor of 1 - *NMBF* and the

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absolute gross error is *NMAEF* times the mean model prediction (Yu et al., 2006). We use the simulated subgrid land type-specific predictions of v_d that correctly match the land type and the averaging window indicated by the observations. We exclude instances where the observed land type does not have a match within the model grid box. While this leads to a reduction of dataset size comparing to Silva and Heald (2018), this means that mismatched land-cover types can be ignored as a factor in model bias.

Figure 1 shows the fractional coverage within each grid cell and the geographic locations of O_3 flux observation sites for each major land type. Nearly all the observations are clustered in Europe and North America, except three sites in the tropical rainforest and one site in tropical deciduous forest in Thailand. The resulting *NMBF* and *NMAEF* for five major land type categories are shown in Table 2, and the list of sites and their descriptions are given in Table A3. In general, the numerical ranges of both *NMBF* and *NMAEF* are similar to that of Silva and Heald (2018), and no single parameterization of the four parameterizations outperforms the others across all five major land types. Here, we focus on describing how our implementation of the dry deposition parameterizations produce consistent comparisons with earlier results.

As summarized in Table 2, each parameterization shows distinct biases over specific land types (we subsequently refer to this as the "land-type specific bias" unique to each parameterization). Comparing the two multiplicative parameterizations (W98 and Z03), we find that W98 performs satisfactorily over deciduous forests and tropical rainforests, while strongly underestimating daytime v_d over coniferous forests. In contrast, Z03 performs better in coniferous forests but worse in tropical rainforests and deciduous forests. The severe underestimation of daytime v_d by Z03 over tropical rainforests has previously been attributed to persistent canopy wetness, and hence stomatal blocking imposed by the parameterization (Centoni, 2017). The simple linear *VPD* response function in Z03 may overestimate the sensitivity of g_s to *VPD* under the high temperature in tropical rainforest. We also note that even for the same location, v_d can vary significantly between seasons (Rummel et al., 2007) and management practices (Fowler et al., 2011), which models may fail to capture due to limited representations of land cover. Given the small sample size (N = 5), diverse environments, and large anthropogenic intervention in the tropics, the disparity in performance metrics may not fully reflect the relative model performance. Baseline cuticular resistances in Z03 under dry and wet canopy are 1.5 and 2 times that of coniferous forests, respectively (Zhang et al., 2003), such that the enhancement of cuticular uptake by wetness may not compensate the reduced g_s over tropical rainforests, and, to a lesser extent, deciduous forests. The higher cuticular uptake may explain the better performance of Z03 over W98 over coniferous forests, where strong non-stomatal (though not necessarily cuticular) ozone sinks are often observed (e.g. Gerosa et al., 2005; Wolfe et al., 2011).

Over grasslands, W98 has higher positive biases, while Z03 has higher absolute errors. This is because for datasets at high latitudes, the dominant grass PFT is arctic grass, which is mapped to "tundra" land type (Geddes et al., 2016). While tundra is parameterized similarly to grasslands in W98, this is not the case in Z03. Combined with the general high biases at other

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sites for these parameterizations, the large low biases for "tundra" sites in Z03 lower the overall high biases but leads to higher absolute errors.

Over croplands, the positive biases and absolute errors are relatively large for both W98 and Z03 (with Z03 performing worse in general than W98). This may be attributed to the lack of response to *VPD* over all crop and grass land types in Z03. The functional and physiological diversity with the "crop" land type also contributes to the general difficulty in simulating v_d over cropland. Even though Z03 has individual parameterizations for 4 specific crop types (rice, sugar, maize and cotton), this advantage is difficult to fully leverage as most global land cover data sets do not resolve croplands into such detail.

Substituting the native g_s in W98 and Z03 by that simulated by Ball-Berry model (the W98_BB and Z03_BB runs) generally, though not universally, leads to improvement in model performance against the observations. W98_BB has considerably smaller biases and absolute errors than W98 over grassland. While having little effect on the absolute error, W98_BB improves the biases over coniferous forest and cropland compared to W98, but worsens the biases over rainforests and deciduous forests. In contrast, Z03_BB is able to improve the model-observation agreement over all 5 land types when compared to Z03. This finding echoes that from Wu et al. (2011), who explicitly show the advantage of replacing the g_s of Wesely (1989) with the Ball-Berry model in simulating v_d over a forest site, and in addition shows the potential of Ball-Berry model in improving spatial distribution of mean v_d.

The minimal impact that results from using LAI that matches the time of observation is not unexpected, since the meteorological and land cover information from a 2°×2.5° grid cell may not be representative of the typical footprint of a site measurement (on the order of 10^{-3} to 10^{1} km^2, e.g. Chen et al., 2009, 2012). This problem has also been highlighted in previous evaluation efforts in global-scale CTMs (Hardacre et al., 2015; Silva and Heald, 2018). Furthermore, the sample sizes for all land types are small ($N \leq 16$) and the evaluation may be further compromised by inherent sampling biases.

In addition to the evaluation against field observation, we find good correlation ($R^2 = 0.94$) between the annual mean v_d from GEOS-Chem at 2013 and the 30-year mean v_d of W98 run with static LAI. Overall, our evaluation shows that the quality of our offline simulation of dry deposition across the four parameterizations in this work is largely consistent with previous global modelling evaluation efforts.

4. Impact of Dry Deposition Parameterization Choice on Long-Term Averages

Here we summarize the impact that the different dry deposition parameterizations may have on simulations of the spatial distribution of v_d and on the inferred surface O_3 concentrations. We begin by comparing the simulated long-term mean v_d across parameterizations, then use a chemical transport model sensitivity experiment to estimate the O_3 impacts.

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325

326 Figure 2 shows the 30-year July daytime average v_d simulated by W98 over vegetated surfaces (defined as the grid cells with
327 >50% plant cover), and Figure 3 shows the difference between the W98 and the W98_BB, Z03, Z03_BB predictions
328 respectively. We first focus on results from July because of the coincidence of high surface O_3 level, biospheric activity and
329 v_d in the Northern Hemisphere (NH), and will subsequently discuss the result for December, when such condition holds for
330 the Southern Hemisphere (SH). W89 simulates the highest July mean daytime v_d in Amazonia (1.2 to 1.4 cm s^{-1}), followed by
331 other major tropical rainforests, and temperate forests in northeastern US. July mean daytime v_d in other temperate regions in
332 North America and Eurasia typically range from 0.5 to 0.8 cm s^{-1}, while in South American and African savannah, and most
333 parts of China, daytime v_d is around 0.4 to 0.6 cm s^{-1}. In India, Australia, western US, and polar tundra Mediterranean region,
334 July mean daytime v_d is low (0.2-0.5 cm s^{-1}) which could be due to either the high temperature or the sparsity of vegetation (or
335 a combination of both).
336
337 The other three parameterizations (W98_BB, Z03, Z03_BB) simulate substantially different spatial distributions of daytime
338 v_d. In North America, we find W98_BB, Z03 and Z03_BB produce lower v_d (by -0.1 to -0.4 cm s^{-1}) compared to W98 in
339 deciduous forest-dominated northeastern US and slightly higher v_d in boreal forest-dominated regions of Canada. Z03 and
340 Z03_BB produce noticeably lower v_d (by up to -0.2 cm s^{-1}) in arctic tundra and grasslands in western US. In southeastern US,
341 W98_BB and Z03_BB simulate a slightly higher v_d (by up to +0.1 cm s^{-1}), while Z03 suggests a slightly lower v_d (by up to -
342 0.1 cm s^{-1}). W98_BB simulates a lower (-0.1 to -0.4 cm s^{-1}) v_d in tropical rainforests, with larger reductions concentrated in
343 southern Amazonia, where July is within the dry season, while the northern Amazonia is not (Malhi et al., 2008). Z03 and
344 Z03_BB simulate much smaller (-0.4 to -0.6 cm s^{-1}) v_d in all tropical rainforests.
345
346 Over the midlatitudes in Eurasia, Australia and South America except Amazonia, W98_BB, Z03 and Z03_BB generally
347 simulate a lower daytime v_d by up to 0.25 cm s^{-1}, possibly due to the dominance of grasslands and deciduous forests, where
348 W98 tends to be more high-biased than other parameterizations when compared to the observations of v_d. In southern African
349 savannah, W98_BB and Z03_BB suggest a much lower daytime v_d (by -0.1 to -0.4 cm s^{-1}) because of explicit consideration of
350 soil moisture limitation to A_n and g_s. Z03_BB simulates a particularly high daytime v_d over the high-latitude coniferous forests
351 (+0.1 to +0.3 cm s^{-1}). W98_BB and Z03_BB produce higher daytime daytime v_d (up to +0.15 cm s^{-1}) in India and South China
352 due to temperature acclimation (Kattge and Knorr, 2007), which allows more stomatal opening under the high temperature
353 that would largely shut down the stomatal deposition in W98 and Z03, as long as the soil does not desiccate. This is guaranteed
354 by the rainfall from summer monsoon in both regions. Low v_d is simulated by Z03 and Z03_BB in the grasslands near Tibetan
355 plateau because the grasslands are mainly mapped to tundra land type, which typically has low v_d as discussed in section 3.
356
357 Our results suggest that the global distribution of simulated mean v_d depends substantially on the choice of dry deposition
358 parameterization, driven primarily by the response to hydroclimate and land type-specific parameters, which could impact the

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spatial distribution of surface ozone predicted by chemical transport models. To estimate the impact on surface ozone of an individual parameterization "*i*" compared to the W98 predictions (which we use as a baseline), we apply the following equation:

$$\Delta O_{3,i} \approx \beta \frac{\overline{v_{d,i}}}{\overline{v_{d_{W98}}}} \quad (3)$$

where $\Delta O_{3,i}$ is the estimated impact on simulated O_3 concentrations in a grid box, $\Delta\overline{v_{d,i}}$ is the difference between parameterization *i* and W98 simulated mean daytime v_d in that grid box, $\overline{v_{d_{W98}}}$ is W98 output mean daytime v_d for that grid box, and β is the sensitivity of surface ozone to v_d calculated by the method outlined in Section 2.3

Figure 4 shows the resulting estimates of ΔO_3 globally. We find ΔO_3 is the largest in tropical rainforests for all the parameterizations (up to 5 to 8 ppbv), which agrees with the result from Centoni (2017). Other hotspots of substantial differences are boreal coniferous forests, eastern US, continental Europe, Eurasian steppe and the grassland in southwestern China, where ΔO_3 is either relatively large or the signs disagree among parameterizations. In India, Indochina and South China, ΔO_3 is relatively small but still reaches up to up to -2 ppbv. We find that ΔO_3 is not negligible (1-4 ppbv) in many regions with relatively high population density, which suggests that the choice of dry deposition parameterization can be relevant to the uncertainty in the study of air quality and its implication on public health. We note that we have not estimated ΔO_3 for some regions with low GEOS-Chem-predicted v_d (< 0.25 cm s^{-1}, as described in section 2.3), but where the disagreement in v_d between parameterizations can be large (e.g., southern African savannah, see Figure 3). Given this limitation, the impacts on O_3 we have summarized may therefore be spatially conservative.

To explore the importance of seasonality in predictions of v_d and their subsequent impact, we repeat the above analyses for December. Figure 5 shows the 1982-2011 mean December daytime v_d predicted by W98, while Figure 6 shows the difference between W98 and the Z03, W98_BB, Z03_BB respectively. High latitudes in the NH are excluded due to the small number of daytime hours. Z03 and Z03_BB simulate substantially lower in daytime v_d at NH midlatitudes because Z03 and Z03_BB allow partial snow cover but W98 and W98_BB only allow total or no snow cover. At midlatitudes, the snow cover is not high enough to trigger the threshold of converting vegetated to snow covered ground in W98 and W98_BB, resulting in lower surface resistance, and hence higher daytime v_d comparing to Z03 and Z03_BB. In Amazonia, the hotspot of difference in daytime v_d shifts from the south to the north, which is in the dry season (Malhi et al., 2008). These results for December, together with our findings from July, suggest that the discrepancy in simulated daytime v_d between W98 and other parameterizations is due to the explicit response to hydroclimate in the former compared to the latter. Given that field observations indicate a large reduction of v_d in dry season in Amazonia (Rummel et al., 2007), the lack of dependence of hydroclimate can be a drawback of W98 in simulating v_d in Amazonia.

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Figure 7 shows the resulting estimates of ΔO_3 globally for December using Equation 3. In all major rainforests, ΔO_3 is smaller in December due to generally lower sensitivity compared to July. A surprising hotspot of both daytime Δv_d and ΔO_3 is the rainforest/tropical deciduous forest in Myanmar and its eastern bordering region, which also has distinct wet and dry season. The proximity of December to the dry season, which starts at January (e.g. Matsuda et al., 2005), indicates that the consistent Δv_d between W98 and other parameterizations is driven by hydroclimate as in Amazonia. Comparison with field measurements (Matsuda et al., 2005) suggests that the W98_BB and Z03_BB capture daytime v_d better than W98, while Z03 may overemphasize the effect of such dryness. The above reasoning also explains some of the Δv_d in India and south China across the three parameterizations. These findings identify hydroclimate as a key driver of process uncertainty of v_d, and therefore its impact on the spatial distribution of surface ozone concentrations, independent of land type-based biases.

Overall, these results demonstrate that the discrepancy in the spatial distribution of simulated mean daytime v_d resulting from choice of dry deposition parameterization can have an important impact on the global distribution of surface O_3 predicted by chemical transport models. We find that the response to hydroclimate by individual parametrization not only affects the mean, but also the seasonality, of predicted surface O_3, which is complementary to the findings of Kavassalis and Murphy (2017) that mainly focus on how shorter-term hydrometeorological variability may modulate surface O_3 through dry deposition.

5. Impact of Dry Deposition Parameterization Choice on Trends and Interannual Variability

Here we explore the impact that different dry deposition parameterizations may have on predictions of IAV and trends in v_d and on the inferred surface O_3 concentrations. We use Theil-Sen method (Sen, 1968) to estimate trends in July daytime v_d (and any underlying meteorological variables), and use p-value < 0.05 to estimate significance.

Figure 8 shows the trend in July mean daytime v_d from 1982-2011 predicted by each of the parameterizations and scenarios ([Clim], [Clim + LAI], and [Clim + LAI + CO_2]). Figure 9 shows the potential impact of these trends in v_d on July daytime surface ozone, which we estimate to a first order using the following equation:

$$\Delta O_{3_{30y,i}} \approx \beta \times (\text{Annual \% change in } v_{d,i}) \times 30\ years \quad (4)$$

where $\Delta O_{3\,30y,i}$ is the absolute change in ozone inferred to a first order as a result of the trend v_d for parameterization i over the 30-years (1982-2011).

In [Clim] simulations (where LAI is held constant), the trend of July daytime v_d is either small or non-significant over the vast majority of the NH. An exception is observed in the region of Mongolia, where significant increasing trend in T (warming) and decreasing trend in RH (drying) detected in the MERRA-2 surface meteorological field in July daytime results in significant decreasing trends using the Z03, W98_BB and Z03_BB parameterizations. This trend is not present in the W98

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parameterization as this formulation does not respond to the long-term drying. We find some decreasing trends in v_d across parts of central Europe and the Mediterranean to varying degrees across the parameterizations. In the SH, we find consistent decreasing trends across all four parameterizations in southern Amazonia and southern African savannah due to warming and drying, which we estimate could produce a concomitant increase in July mean surface ozone of between 1 to 3 ppbv (Figure 9).

In [Clim+LAI] scenario, all four parameterizations simulate a significant increasing trend of v_d over high latitudes, which is consistent with the observed greening trend over the region (Zhu et al., 2016). We estimate this could produce a concomitant increase in July mean surface ozone of between 1 to 3 ppbv. The parameterizations generally agree in terms of the spatial distribution of these trends in O_3. Exceptions include a steeper decreasing trend in most of Siberia predicted by W98, while the trend is more confined in the eastern and western Siberia in the other three parameterizations. Including the effect of CO_2-induced stomatal closure ([Clim+LAI+CO_2] runs) partially offset the increase of v_d in high latitudes, but does not lead to large changes in both the magnitudes and spatial patterns of v_d trend. We find negligible trends in daytime v_d for December in all cases. These results show that across all dry deposition model parameterizations, LAI and climate, more than increasing CO_2, can potentially drive significant long-term changes in v_d and should not be neglected when analyzing the long-term change in air quality over 1982-2011. We note that the importance of the CO_2 effect could grow in the coming decades, since the sensitivity of stomatal conductance to atmospheric CO_2 may increase (Franks et al., 2013).

We go on to explore the impact of parameterization choice in calculations of IAV in v_d. Figure 10 shows the coefficient of variation of linearly detrended July daytime v_d (CV_{vd}). Figure 11 shows the potential impact this has on IAV in surface ozone, which we estimate to a first order by the following equation:

$$\sigma_{O_{3,i}} \approx \beta \times CV_{v_{d,i}} \quad (5)$$

where $\sigma_{O3,i}$ is the estimated interannual standard deviation in surface ozone resulting from IAV in v_d given predicted by dry deposition parameterization i. In both cases, we show only the [Clim] and [Clim+LAI] runs, since IAV in CO_2 has negligible impact on interannual variability in v_d.

Using the W98 parameterization, IAV in predicted v_d and O_3 is considerably smaller in the [Clim] run than that for the [Clim + LAI] run, since both the stomatal and non-stomatal conductance in W98 are strong functions of LAI rather than meteorological conditions. This implies that long-term simulations with W98 and constant LAI can potentially underestimate the IAV of v_d and surface ozone. In contrast, IAV in v_d calculated by the Z03 parameterization is nearly the same for the [Clim] and [Clim+LAI] runs. In Z03, g_s is also directly influenced by *VPD* in addition to temperature and radiation, and non-stomatal conductance in Z03 is much more dependent on meteorology than W98, leading to high sensitivity to climate. Though the Ball-Berry model also responds to meteorological conditions, it considers relatively complicated A_n-g_s regulation and includes temperature acclimation, which could dampen its sensitivity to meteorological variability compared to the direct functional

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457 dependence on meteorology in the Z03 multiplicative algorithm. Thus, the climate sensitivity of W98_BB and Z03_BB is in
458 between Z03 and W98, as is indicated by more moderate difference between $\sigma_{O3,i}$ from [Clim] and [Clim+LAI] runs in Figure
459 11.
460
461 For regional patterns of CV_{vd} and $\sigma_{O3,}$ we focus on the [Clim+LAI] runs (Fig. 10e to 10h and Fig. 11e to 11h) as it allows for
462 a comparison of all 4 parameterizations and contain all the important factors of controlling v_d. In North America, we estimate
463 modest IAV in v_d across all 4 parameterizations (CV_{vd} < 15%) in most places. We find this results in relatively low σ_{O3} in
464 northeastern US, and larger σ_{O3} in central and southeast US (in the range of 0.3 to 2 ppbv). These results are of a similar
465 magnitude to the standard deviation of summer mean background ozone suggested by Fiore et al. (2014) over similar time
466 period, confirming that IAV of dry deposition can be a potentially important component of the natural IAV of surface ozone
467 in summer over North America.
468
469 All parameterizations produce larger CV_{vd} (and therefore larger σ_{O3}) in southern Amazonia compared to northern and central
470 Amazonia, but we find substantial discrepancies across parameterizations. The estimated impact on IAV in O_3 (σ_{O3}) in southern
471 Amazonia ranges from less than 1 ppbv predicted by the W98 and W98_BB parameterizations, to exceeding 1.5 - 2.5 ppbv
472 predicted by the Z03 parameterization. IAV is also relatively large in central Africa. We find that the parameterizations which
473 include a Ball-Berry formulation (W98_BB and Z03_BB) estimate higher IAV in this region (with σ_{O3} varying between 1 to
474 4 ppbv), compared to the W98 and Z03 parameterizations (σ_{O3} up to 2ppbv). We also note that the Ball-Berry formulations
475 show more spatial discontinuities compared to W98 and Z03. In our implementation of the Ball-Berry model, impact of soil
476 moisture on g_s is parameterized as a function of root-zone soil matric potential, which makes g_s very sensitive to variation in
477 soil wetness when the its climatology is near the point that triggers limitation on A_n and g_s. Given the large uncertainty in soil
478 data (Folberth et al., 2016), such sensitivity could be potentially artificial, which should be taken into consideration when
479 implementing Ball-Berry parameterizations in large-scale models despite their relatively good performance in site-level
480 evaluation.
481
482 Across Europe, the magnitude of IAV predicted by all four parameterizations show relatively good spatial consistency.
483 Simulated CV_{vd} is relatively low in western and northern Europe (<10%), which we estimate translates to less than 1 ppbv of
484 σ_{O3}. We find larger CV_{vd} (and therefore large σ_{O3}) over parts of southern Russia and Siberia (σ_{O3} up to 2.5 ppbv) from all
485 parameterizations except W98. The local geographic distribution of CV_{vd} and σ_{O3} also significantly differs among the
486 parameterizations. Z03 and Z03_BB simulate larger CV_{vd} in eastern Siberia than W98_BB, while W98 BB and Z03_BB predict
487 larger CV_{vd} over the southern Russian steppe then Z03. Finally, all four parameterizations estimate relatively low CV_{vd} and σ_{O3}
488 in India, China and Southeast Asia.
489

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We compare the simulated IAV of v_d from all four deposition parameterizations with those recorded by publicly available long-term observations. The IAV predicted by all four parameterizations at Harvard Forest is between 3% to 7.9%, which is 2 to 6 times lower than that presented in the observations (19%) by Clifton et al. (2017). We find similar underestimates by all four parameterizations compared to the long-term observation from Hyytiala (Junninen et al., 2009; Keronen et al., 2003; https://avaa.tdata.fi/web/smart/smear/download), where observed CV_{vd} (11%) is significantly higher than that predicted by the deposition parameterizations (3.5% - 7.1%). In Blodgett Forest, where O_3 uptake is more controlled by gas-phase reactions (Fares et al., 2010; Wolfe et al., 2011), we find that the models underestimate the observed annual CV_{vd} more seriously (~1% – 3% compared to 12% in the observations). This suggest that the IAV of v_d may be underestimated across all deposition parameterizations we investigated (and routinely used in simulations of chemical transport). Clifton et al. (2017) attribute this to the IAV in non-stomatal deposition, while acknowledging the obscurity of the mechanisms driving such variability, implying the difficulty in reproducing the observed IAV by existing parameterizations. The scarcity of long-term ozone flux measurements (Fares et al., 2010, 2017; Munger et al., 1996; Rannik et al., 2012) limits our ability to benchmark the IAV in our model simulations with observational datasets.

In summary, when both the variability in LAI and climate are considered, the IAV in simulated v_d translates to IAV in surface O_3 of 0.5 – 2ppbv in July for most region. Such variability is predicted to be particularly strong in southern Amazonian and central African rainforest, where the predicted IAV in July surface O_3 due to dry deposition can be as high as 4 ppbv. This suggests that IAV of v_d can be an important part of the natural variability of surface O_3. The estimated magnitude of IAV is also dependent of the choice of v_d parameterization, which highlights the importance of v_d parameterization choice on modelling IAV of surface O_3.

6 Discussion and Conclusion

We present the results of multidecadal global modelling of ozone dry deposition using four different ozone deposition parameterizations that are representative of the major types of approaches of gaseous dry deposition modelling used in global chemical transport models. The parameterizations are driven by the same assimilated meteorology and satellite-derived LAI, which minimizes the uncertainty of model input across parameterization and simplifies interpretation of inter-model differences. The output is evaluated against field observations and shows satisfactory performance. One of our main goals was to investigate the impact of dry deposition parameterization choice on long-term averages, trends, and IAV in v_d over a multidecadal timescale, and estimate the potential concomitant impact on surface ozone concentrations to a first order using a sensitivity simulation approach driven by the GEOS-Chem chemical transport model.

We find that the performance of the four dry deposition parameterizations against field observations varies considerably over land types, and these results are consistent with other evaluations, reflecting the potential issue that dry deposition

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parameterizations can often be overfit to a particular set of available observations, requiring caution in their application at global scales. We also find that using more ecophysiologically realistic output g_s predicted by the Ball-Berry model can generally improve model performance, but at the cost of high sensitivity to relatively unreliable soil data. However, the number of available datasets of ozone dry deposition observation are still small and concentrated in North America and Europe. We know of only one multi-season direct observational record in Asia and none in Africa, where air quality can be an important issue. To better constraint regional dry deposition, effort must be made in making new observations of gaseous dry deposition (Fares et al., 2017) especially in the under-sampled regions. We also find that many existing ozone flux measurements are not usable for our evaluation purposes, since only F_{O3} is reported in detail instead of v_d. Evaluation and development of ozone dry deposition parameterizations would be greatly benefited if result of ozone flux measurements is reported in both F_{O3} and v_d, or even have publically available ozone flux and other related micrometeorological variables, which allows both direct evaluation of v_d and solves the mismatch between coarse model grids and the site (e.g. Wu et al., 2011, 2018).

We find substantial disagreement in the spatial distribution between the mean daytime v_d predicted by the different parameterizations we tested. We find that these discrepancies are in general a function of both location and season. In NH summer, v_d simulated by the 4 parameterizations are considerably different in many vegetation-dominated regions over the world. We estimate that this could lead to around 2 to 5 ppbv in uncertainty of surface ozone concentration simulations over a vast majority land in the NH. In tropical rainforests, where leaf wetness is prevalent and the dry-wet season dynamics can have large impact on v_d (Rummel et al., 2007), we estimate the uncertainty due to dry deposition model choice could even lead to an uncertainty in surface ozone of up to 8 ppbv. We also find noticeable impacts in parameterization choice during SH summer, but we note that due to the unreliability of β at low v_d, we have not assessed its impact on surface ozone in many high-latitude regions of the NH. In general, we find hydroclimate to be an important driver of the uncertainty. This demonstrates the potential impact of parameterization choice (or, process uncertainty) of v_d is neither spatiotemporally uniform nor negligible in most vegetated regions over the world. More multi-seasonal observations are especially needed over seasonally dry ecosystems where the role of hydroclimate in deposition parameterizations need to be evaluated. Recently, standard micrometeorological measurements have been used to derive g_s and stomatal deposition of O_3 over North America and Europe (Ducker et al., 2018), highlighting the potential of using global networks of micrometeorological observation (e.g. FLUXNET (Baldocchi et al., 2001)) to benchmark and calibrate g_s of dry deposition parameterizations, which could at least increase the spatiotemporal representativeness, if not the absolute accuracy, of dry deposition parameterizations.

Over the majority of vegetated regions in the NH, we estimate the IAV of mean daytime v_d is generally on the order of 5 to 15% and may contribute between 0.5 to 2 ppbv of IAV in July surface O_3 over the thirty-year period considered here, with each parameterization simulating different geographic distribution of where IAV is highest. The predicted IAV from all four models is smaller than what long-term observations suggest, but is still comparable to the long-term variability of background

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ozone over similar timescales in U.S. summer (Brown-Steiner et al., 2018; Fiore et al., 2014). This would seem to confirm that v_d may be a substantial contributor to natural IAV of O_3 in summer, at least in U.S. In the southern Hemisphere, the IAV mainly concentrates in drier part of tropical rainforests. The Ball-Berry parameterizations simulate large and spatially discontinuous CV_{vd} and σ_{O3} due to their sensitivity to soil wetness. Globally, we find that IAV of v_d in W98 is mostly driven by LAI, while in other parameterizations climate generally plays a more important role. We therefore emphasize that temporal matching of LAI is important for consistency when W98 is used in long-term simulations. The scarcity of long-term ozone deposition measurement poses significant difficulty in evaluating the model predictions over interannual (and in particular multidecadal) timescales. This information is helpful in designing and identifying sources of error in model experiments that involve variability of v_d.

We are also able to detect statistically significant trends in July daytime v_d over several regions. The magnitudes of trend are up to 1% per year and both climate and LAI contribute to the trend. All four deposition parameterizations identify three main hotspots of decreasing July daytime v_d (southern Amazonia, southern African savannah, Mongolia), which we link mainly to increasing surface air temperature and decreasing relative humidity. Meanwhile, extensive areas at high latitudes experience LAI-driven increasing July daytime v_d, consistent with the greening trend in the region (Zhu et al., 2016). We don't find a strong influence of CO_2-induced stomatal closure in the trend over this time period. Over the 30-years we estimate the trend in July daytime v_d could translate approximately to 1 to 3 ppbv of ozone changes in the areas of impact, indicating the potential effect of long-term changes in v_d on surface ozone. This estimate should be considered conservative, since we are unable to reliably test the sensitivity of ozone to regions with low v_d with our approach.

While the approach we have presented here allows us to explore the role of dry deposition parameterization choice on simulations of long-term means, trends, and IAV in ozone dry deposition velocity, there remain some limitations and opportunities for development. First, we only used one LAI and assimilated meteorological product. The geographic distribution of trend and IAV of v_d may vary considerably as the LAI and meteorological products used due to their inherent uncertainty (e.g. Jiang et al., 2017). While we expect the qualitative conclusions about how LAI and climate controls the modelled trend and IAV of v_d to be robust to the choice of data set, the magnitude and spatial variability could be affected. Second, the estimated effects on surface O_3 are a first-order inference based on a linear approximation of the impact that v_d has directly on O_3. We have not applied our analysis to regions with low baseline GEOS-Chem v_d, where other components of parameterization (e.g. definition and treatment of snow cover, difference in ground resistance) may have major impact on v_d prediction (Silva and Heald, 2018), nor accounted for the role that v_d variability can have on other chemical species which would have feedbacks on O_3. Moreover, the sensitivity of surface ozone to dry deposition velocity may be dependent on the choice of chemical transport model (here, the GEOS-Chem model has been used), and possibly the simulation year. Finally, we have neglected the effect of land use and land cover change on global PFT composition at this stage, which can be another source of variability for v_d. Nevertheless, the relatively high *NMAEF* of simulated v_d and the inherent uncertainty in input data

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(land cover, soil property, assimilated meteorology and LAI) are considered as the major source of uncertainty in our predictions of v_d.

The impact of dry deposition parameterization choice may be generalizable to other trace gases with deposition velocity controlled by surface resistance, and for which stomatal resistance is an important control of surface resistance (e.g. NO_2). As v_d has already been recognized as a major source of uncertainty in deriving global dry deposition flux of NO_2 and SO_2 (Nowlan et al., 2014), systematic investigation on the variability and uncertainty of v_d for other relevant chemical species does not only contribute to understanding the of gaseous dry deposition role on air quality, but also biogeochemical cycle. Particularly, gaseous dry deposition has been shown to be a major component in nitrogen deposition (Geddes and Martin, 2017; Zhang et al., 2012), highlighting the potential importance of understanding the role of v_d parameterization in modelling regional and global nitrogen cycle.

Here we have built on the recent investigations of modelled global mean (Hardacre et al., 2015; Silva and Heald, 2018) and observed long-term variability (Clifton et al., 2017) of O_3 v_d. We are able to demonstrate the substantial impact of v_d parameterization on modelling the global mean and IAV of v_d, and their non-trivial potential impact on simulated seasonal mean and IAV of surface ozone. We demonstrate that the parameterizations with explicit dependence on hydroclimatic variables have higher sensitivity to climate variability than those without. Difficulties in evaluating predictions of v_d for many regions of the world (e.g. most of Asia and Africa) persist due to the scarcity of measurement. This makes a strong case for additional measurements (e.g. Kammer et al., 2019; Li et al., 2018; Stella et al., 2011a), empirical studies (e.g. Ducker et al., 2018) and model-observation integrations (e.g. Silva et al., 2019) of ozone dry deposition at different timescales, which would be greatly facilitated by an open data sharing infrastructure (e.g. Baldocchi et al., 2001; Junninen et al., 2009).

Code Availability

The source code and output of the dry deposition parameterizations can be obtained by contacting the corresponding author (jgeddes@bu.edu).

Appendix

	W98	Z03	W98_BB	Z03_BB
R_a	$R_a = \frac{1}{\kappa u_*}\left[\ln(\frac{z}{z_0}) - \Psi\left(\frac{z}{L}\right) + \Psi(\frac{z_0}{L})\right]$ When $\varsigma \geq 0, \Psi(\varsigma) = -5\varsigma$ When $\varsigma < 0, \Psi(\varsigma) = 2\ln(\frac{1+\sqrt{1-16\varsigma}}{2})$			

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R_b	$R_b = \frac{2}{\kappa u_*}(\frac{Sc}{Pr})^{2/3}$			
R_s	$R_s = r_s(PAR, LAI) f_T \frac{D_{H_2O}}{D_{O_3}}$	$R_s = \frac{r_s(PAR, LAI)}{(1-w_{st}) f_T f_{vpd} f_\psi} \frac{D_{H_2O}}{D_{O_3}}$	$g_s = g_0 + m\frac{A_n}{C_s}h_s$ $R_s = \frac{1}{g_s}\frac{D_{H_2O}}{D_{O_3}}$	$g_s = g_0 + m\frac{A_n}{C_s}h_s$ $R_s = \frac{1}{(1-w_{st})g_s}\frac{D_{H_2O}}{D_{O_3}}$
Cuticular Resistance (R_{cut})	$R_{cut} = \frac{R_{cut_0}}{LAI}$	For dry surface, $R_{cut} = \frac{R_{cut_{d0}}}{e^{0.03RH} LAI^{0.25} u_*}$ For wet surface, $R_{cut} = \frac{R_{cut_{w0}}}{LAI^{0.5} u_*}$	Same as W98	Same as Z03
In-canopy aerodynamic resistance (R_{ac})	Prescribed	$R_{ac} = R_{ac_0}\frac{LAI^{0.25}}{u_*}$		
Ground Resistance (R_g)	Prescribed			
Lower-canopy aerodynamic resistance (R_{alc})	$R_{alc} = 100(1 + \frac{1000}{R+10})$	-		
Lower-canopy surface resistance (R_{clc})	Prescribed	-		

Table A1: Brief description of the four dry deposition parameterizations. κ = von Karman constant, u_* = friction velocity, z = reference height, z_0 = roughness length, L = Obukhov length, Sc = Schmidt's number, Pr = Prandtl number for air, LAI = leaf area index, PAR = photosynthetically active radiation, D_x = Diffusivity of species x in air, f_T = temperature (T) stress function, f_{vpd} = vapour pressure deficit (VPD) stress function, f_ψ = leaf water potential (ψ) stress function, w_{st} = stomatal blocking fraction, A_n = Net photosynthetic rate, g_0 = minimum stomatal conductance, m = Ball-Berry slope, C_s = CO_2 concentration on leaf surface, h_s = relative humidity on leaf surface, RH = relative humidity, h = canopy height, R = downward shortwave radiation

CLM PFT	**Z03 surface type**
Needleleaf evergreen tree - temperate	Evergreen needleleaf trees
Needleleaf evergreen tree - boreal	
Needleleaf deciduous tree - boreal	Deciduous needleleaf trees

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Broadleaf evergreen tree - tropical	Tropical broadleaf trees
Broadleaf deciduous tree - tropical	Deciduous broadleaf trees
Broadleaf deciduous tree - temperate	
Broadleaf deciduous tree - boreal	
Broadleaf evergreen shrub - temperate	Thorn shrubs
Broadleaf deciduous shrub - temperate	Deciduous shrubs
Broadleaf deciduous shrub - boreal	
C_3 arctic grass	Tundra
C_3 grass	Short grass
C_4 grass	Corn*
C_3 crop	Crops

Table A2: Mapping between CLM PFT and Z03 surface type.

*C_4 grasses are mapped to corn due to the similarity in photosynthetic pathway, and hence stomatal control

Land Type	Longitude	Latitude	Season	Mean daytime v_d (cm s^{-1})	Citation
Deciduous Forest	-80.9°	44.3°	Summer	0.92	Padro et al., 1991
			Winter	0.28	
	99.7°	18.3°	Spring	0.38	Matsuda et al., 2005
			Summer	0.65	
	-72.2°	42.7°	Summer	0.61	Munger et al., 1996
			Winter	0.28	
	-78.8°	41.6°	Summer	0.83	Finkelstein et al., 2000
	-75.2°	43.6°	Summer	0.82	
Coniferous Forest	-3.4°	55.3°	Spring	0.58	Coe et al., 1995
	-79.1°	36.0°	Spring	0.79	Finkelstein et al., 2000
	-120.6°	38.9°	Spring	0.58	Kurpius et al., 2002
			Summer	0.59	
			Autumn	0.43	
			Winter	0.45	
	-0.7°	44.2°	Summer	0.48	Lamaud et al., 1994
	105.5°	40.0°	Summer	0.39	Turnipseed et al., 2009
	-66.7°	54.8°	Summer	0.26	Munger et al., 1996
	11.1°	60.4°	Spring	0.31	Hole et al., 2004

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			Summer	0.48	
			Autumn	0.20	
			Winter	0.074	
	8.4°	56.3°	Spring	0.68	Mikkelsen et al., 2004
			Summer	0.80	
			Autumn	0.83	
Tropical Rainforest	117.9°	4.9°	Wet	0.5	Fowler et al., 2011[#]
			Wet	1.0	
	-61.8°	-10.1°	Wet	1.1	Rummel et al., 2007
			Dry	0.5	
	-60.0°	3.0°	Wet	1.8	Song-Miao et al., 1990
Grass	-88.2°	40.0°	Summer	0.56	Droppo, 1985
	-3.2°	57.8°	Spring	0.59	Fowler et al., 2001
			Summer	0.56	
			Autumn	0.42	
	-119.8°	37.0°	Summer	0.15	Padro et al., 1994
	-8.6°	40.7°	Summer	0.22	Pio et al., 2000
			Winter	0.38	
	-104.8°	40.5°	Spring	0.22	Stocker et al., 1993
	10.5°	52.4°	Spring	0.44	Ḿeszáros et al., 2009
	-96.4°	39.5°	Summer	0.62	Gao and Wesely, 1995
Crops	-2.8°	55.9°	Not applicable[*]	0.69	Coyle et al., 2009
	-88.4°	40.1°		0.53	Meyers et al., 1998
				0.12	
	-87.0°	36.7°		0.85	
				0.39	
	-86.0°	34.3°		0.40	
	-120.7°	36.8°		0.76	Padro et al., 1994
	8.0°	48.7°		0.41	Pilegaard et al., 1998
	2.0°	48.9°		0.60	Stella et al., 2011
	0.6°	44.4°		0.47	
	1.4°	43.8°		0.37	

Table A3: Information of all the measurement sites included in model evaluation

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626 *Crops are heavily influenced by management practices rather than natural seasonality. Thus, two data sets in the same location
627 generally represent before and after certain a crop phenology or human management event.
628 #The two measurements are taken at a rainforest and an oil palm plantation nearby.
629

630 **Author Contributions**

631 AYHW and JAG developed the ideas behind this study, formulated the methods, and designed the model experiments. AYHW
632 wrote the dry deposition code and ran the chemical transport model simulations. Data analysis was performed by AYHW, with
633 input and feedback from JAG. APKT provided the photosynthesis model code, and co-supervised the dry deposition code
634 development. SJS compiled the dry deposition observations used for evaluation. Manuscript preparation was performed by
635 AYHW, reviewed by JAG, and commented, edited, and approved by all authors.

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641 Center for providing the MERRA-2 data, Ranga Myneni for GIMMS LAI3g product, Petri Keronen and Ivan Mammarella for
642 the flux measurements in Hyytiala, Silvano Fares and Allen Goldstein for the flux measurement in Blodgett Forest, and
643 Leiming Zhang and Zhiyong Wu for the source code of Z03.
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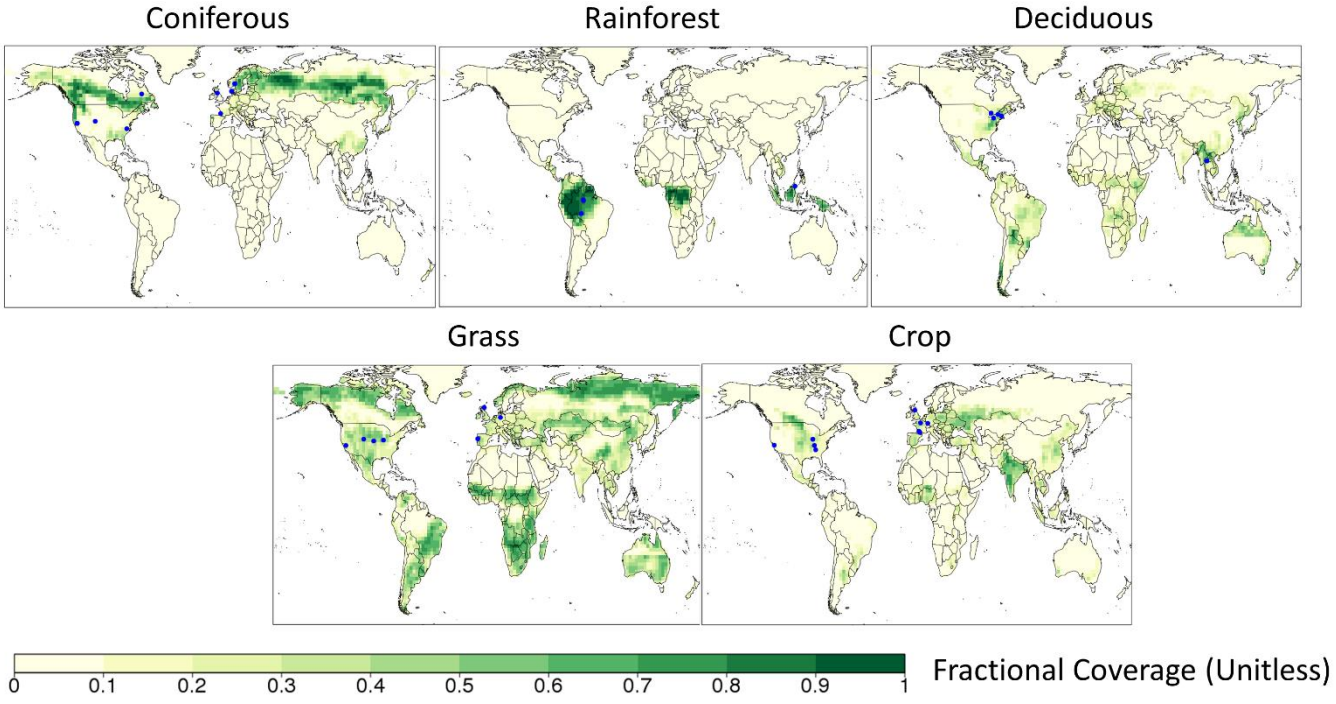

Figure 1: Fractional coverage of each major land type at each grid cell. Blue dots indicate the locations of the observational sites.

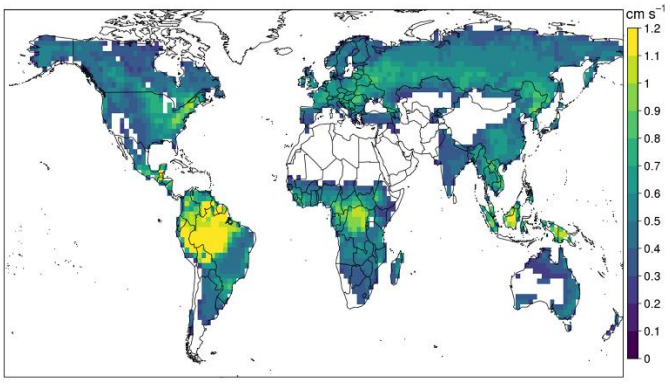

Figure 2: 1982-2011 July mean daytime v_d (solar elevation angle > 20°) over vegetated land surface simulated by W98.

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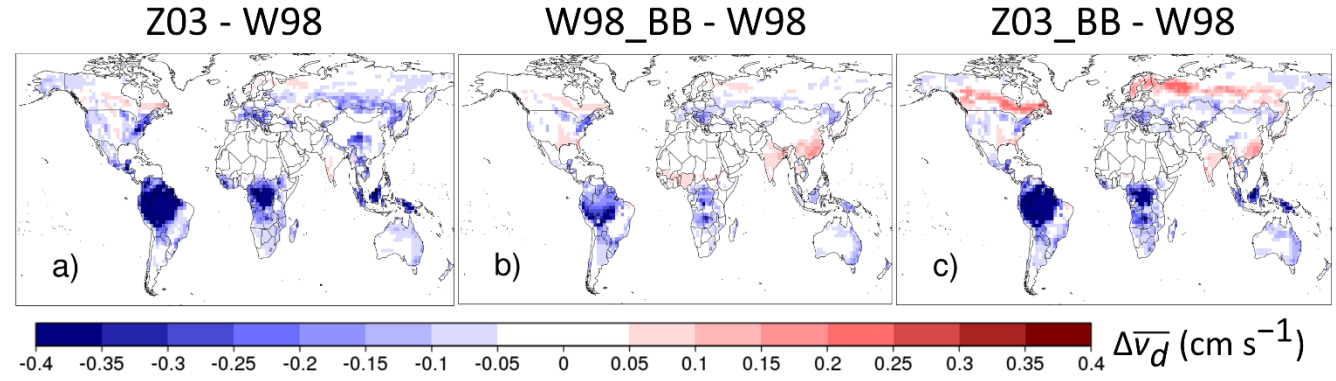

Figure 3: Differences of 1982-2011 July mean daytime v_d ($\Delta\overline{v_d}$) between three other parameterizations (Z03, W98_BB and Z03_BB) and W98 over vegetated land surface.

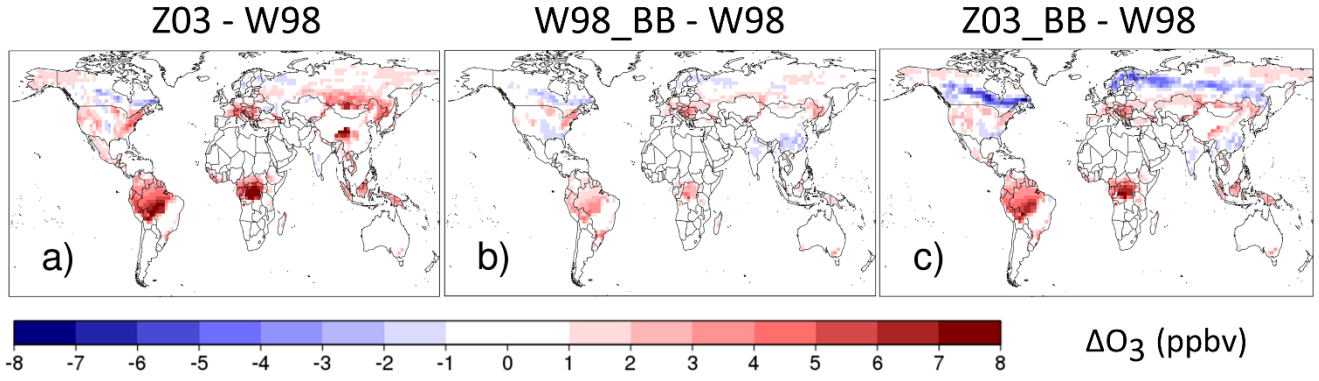

Figure 4: Estimated difference in July mean surface ozone (ΔO_3) due to the discrepancy of simulated July mean daytime v_d among the parameterizations.

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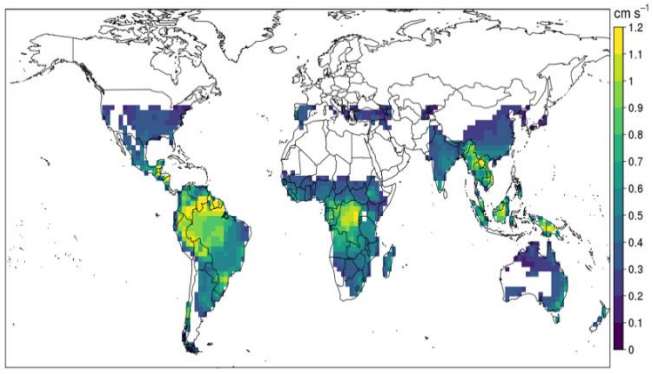

676

677 **Figure 5:** 1982-2011 December mean daytime v_d (solar elevation angle > 20°) over vegetated land surface simulated by
678 W98. The data over high latitudes over Northern Hemisphere is invalid due to insufficient daytime hours over the month (<
679 100 hours month^{-1})

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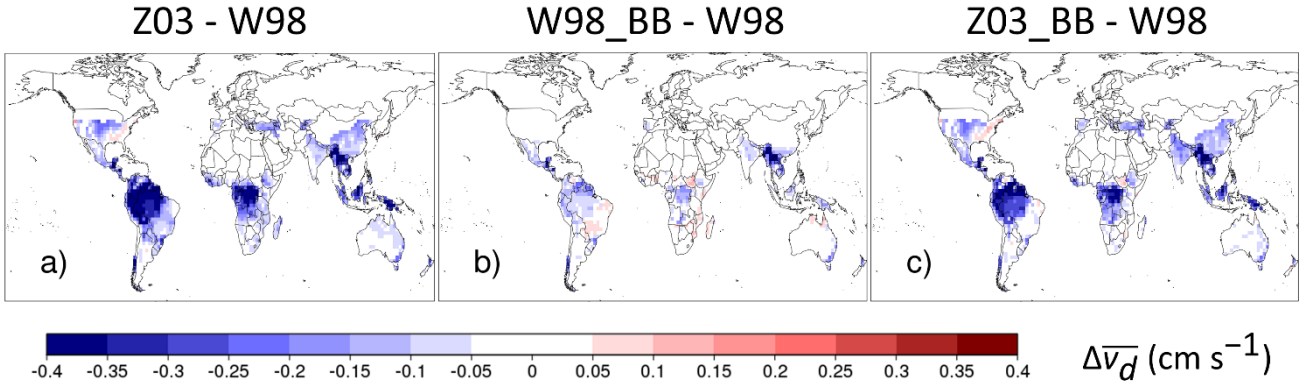

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682 **Figure 6:** Differences of 1982-2011 December mean daytime v_d ($\Delta\overline{v_d}$) between three other parameterizations (Z03, W98_BB
683 and Z03_BB) and W98 over vegetated land surface.

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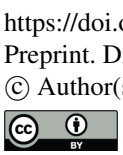

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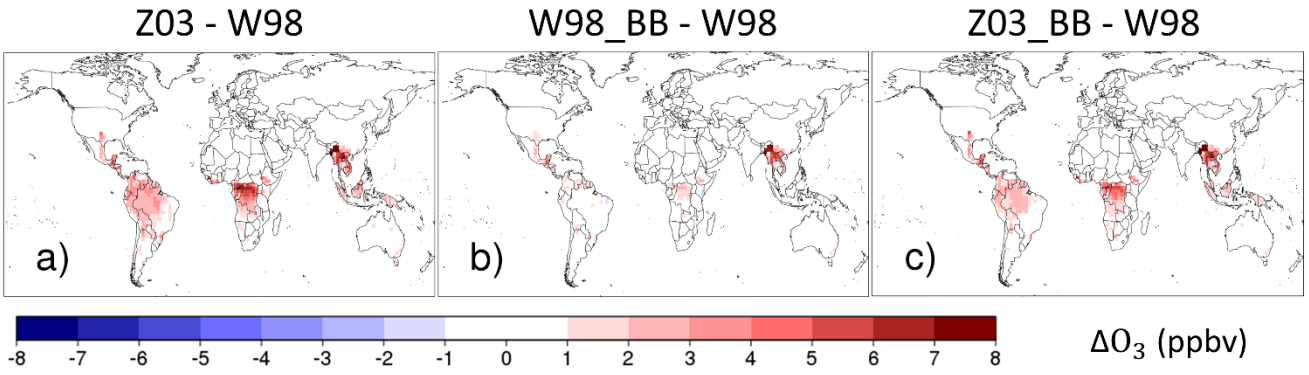

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687 **Figure 7:** Estimated difference in December mean surface ozone (ΔO_3) due to the discrepancy of simulated December mean

688 daytime v_d among the parameterizations.

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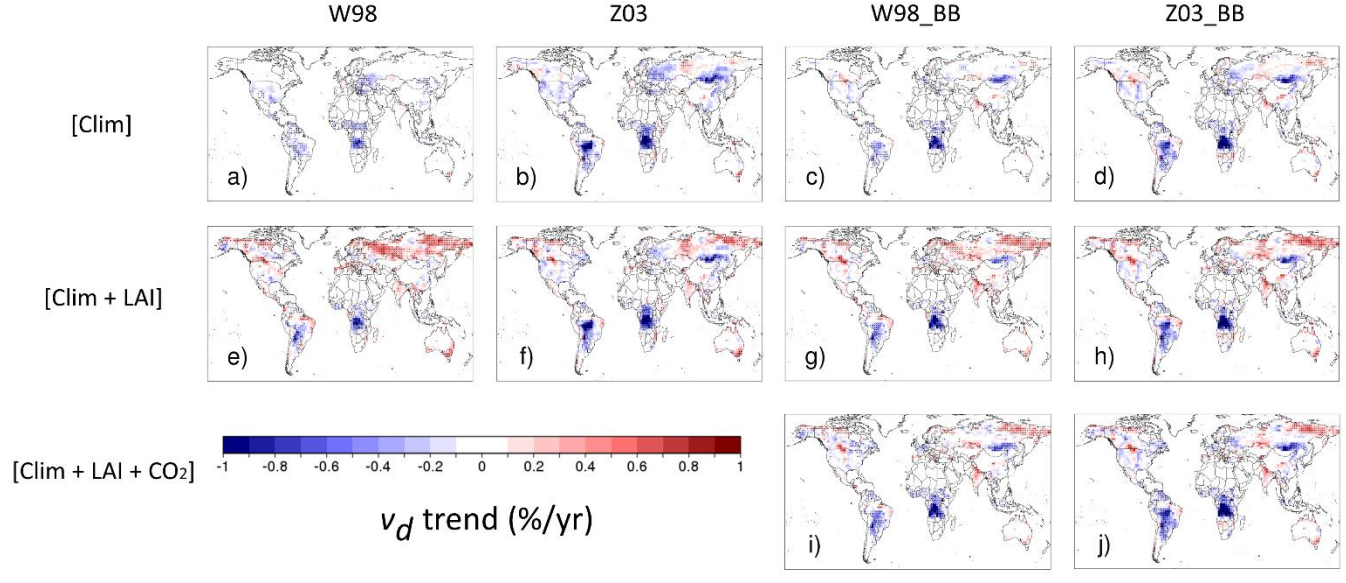

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692 **Figure 8:** Trends of July mean daytime v_d during 1982-2011 over vegetated land surface. Black dots indicate statistically

693 significant trends ($p < 0.05$)

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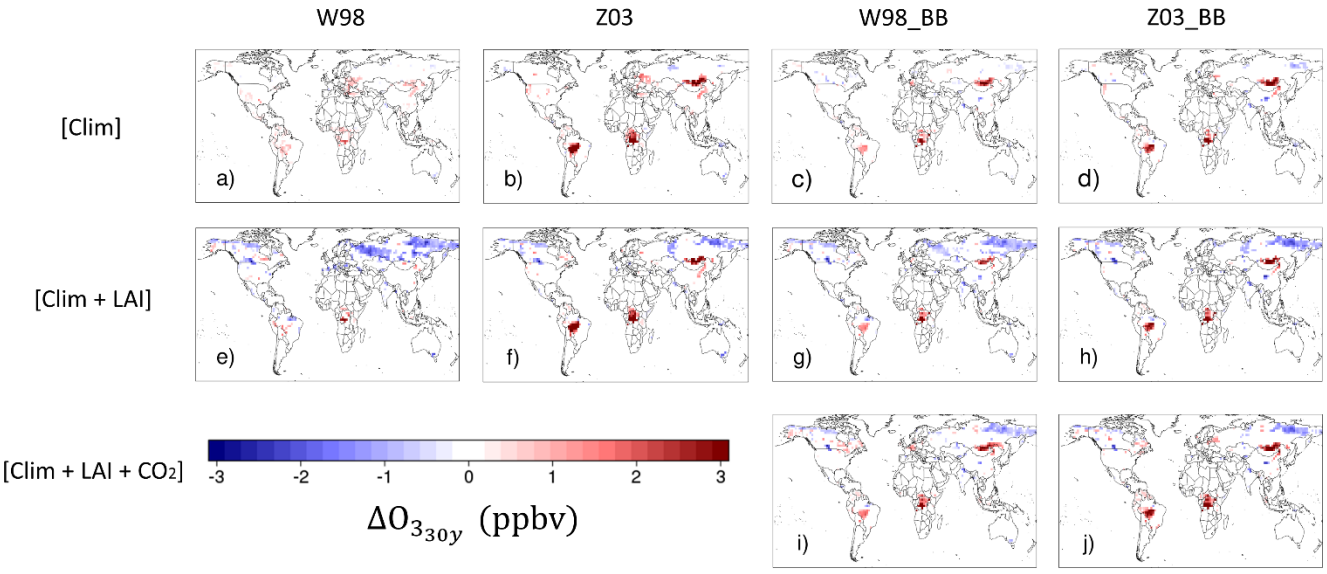

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695 **Figure 9:** Estimated impact of trends of July mean daytime v_d on July mean surface ozone during ($\Delta O_{3\ 30y}$) 1982-2011 over
696 vegetated land surface. Only grid points with statistically significant trends ($p < 0.05$) in July mean daytime v_d are
697 considered.

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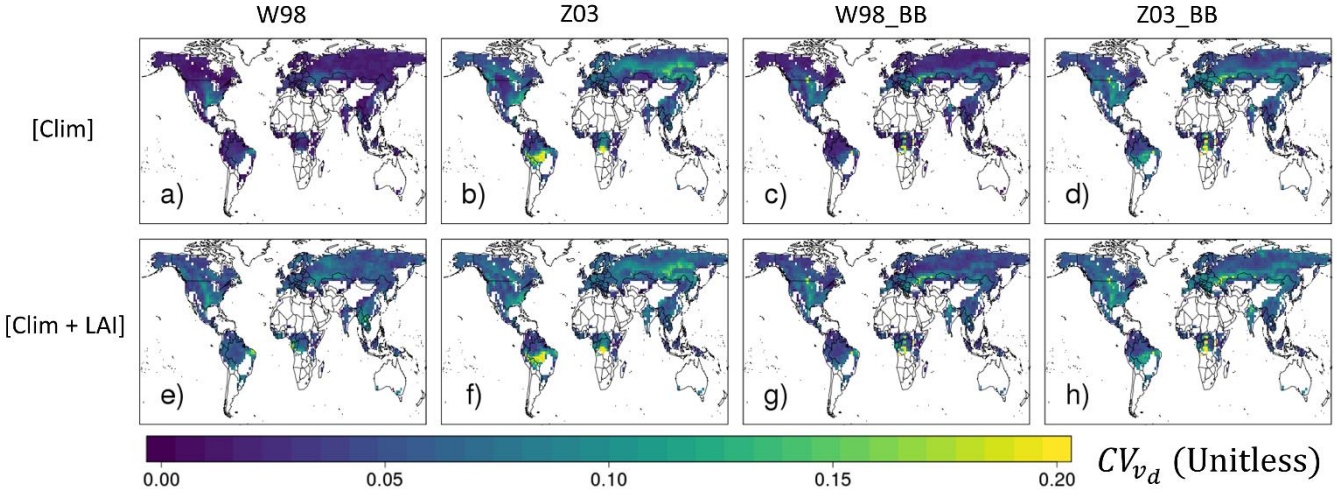

699

700 **Figure 10:** Interannual coefficient of variation of linearly detrended July mean daytime v_d (CV_{vd}) during 1982-2011 over
701 vegetated land surface.

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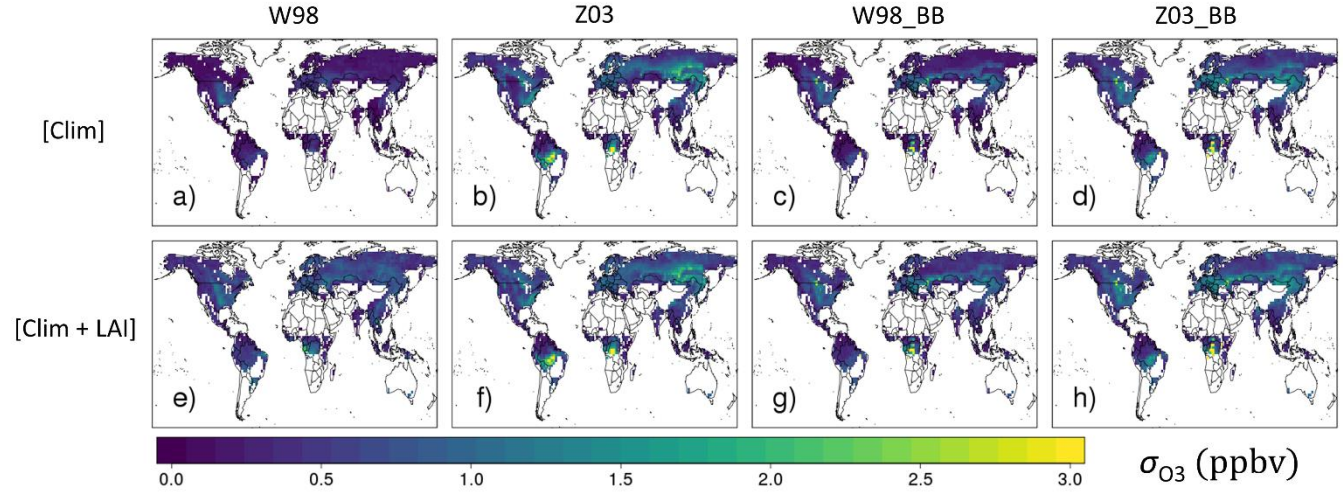

Figure 11: Estimated contribution of IAV in July mean daytime v_d to IAV of July mean surface ozone (σ_{O3}) during 1982-2011 over vegetated land surface.

v_d simulation	**Meteorology**	**LAI**	**Atmospheric CO_2 concentration**
[Clim]	MERRA-2 meteorology	LAI3g monthly climatology	390 ppm
[Clim+LAI]		LAI3g monthly time series	
[Clim+LAI+CO_2]			Manoa Loa time series

Table 1: List of v_d simulations with input data

Land types	Metrics	Static LAI				Dynamic LAI			
		W98	Z03	W89-BB	Z03_BB	W98	Z03	W89-BB	Z03_BB
Dec	*NMBF*	**0.134**	-0.367	-0.287	-0.142	**0.119**	-0.376	-0.299	-0.153
(*N*=8)	*NMAEF*	0.322	0.369	0.305	**0.215**	0.319	0.376	0.321	**0.226**
Con	*NMBF*	-0.362	-0.217	-0.252	**-0.025**	-0.355	-0.209	-0.248	**-0.023**

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(*N*=16)	*NMAEF*	0.448	0.455	0.483	**0.399**	0.427	0.458	0.470	**0.394**
Tro	*NMBF*	**0.080**	-0.808	-0.086	-0.438	**0.075**	-0.813	-0.090	-0.441
(*N*=5)	*NMAEF*	0.423	0.831	**0.404**	0.569	0.422	0.832	**0.399**	0.567
Gra	*NMBF*	0.276	**0.015**	0.175	0.097	0.294	**0.011**	0.186	0.110
(*N*=10)	*NMAEF*	0.392	0.479	**0.307**	0.318	0.396	0.467	**0.302**	0.311
Cro	*NMBF*	0.297	0.360	**0.241**	0.282	0.318	0.371	**0.255**	0.292
(*N*=11)	*NMAEF*	**0.473**	0.541	0.474	0.570	0.485	0.550	**0.480**	0.576

Table 2: Performance metrics (*NMBF* and *NMAEF*) for daytime average v_d simulated by the four dry deposition parameterizations. "Static LAI" is the result from [Clim] run, which uses 1982-2011 AVHRR monthly climatological LAI, while "Dynamic LAI" is the result from [Clim+LAI], which uses 1982-2011 AVHRR LAI time series. Dec = deciduous forest, Con = coniferous forest, Tro = tropical rainforest, Gra = grassland, Cro = cropland. *N* indicates the number of observational datasets involved in that particular land type. The best performing parameterization for each land type has its performance metrics bolded.

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