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Indirect contributions of global fires to surface ozone through ozone-vegetation feedback

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Abstract: Fire is an important source of surface ozone (O_3), which causes damage to vegetation and reduces stomatal conductance. Such processes can feed back to inhibit dry deposition and indirectly enhance surface O_3. Here, we apply a fully coupled chemistry-vegetation model to estimate the indirect contributions of global fires to surface O_3 through O_3-vegetation feedback during 2005-2012. Fire emissions directly increase the global mean annual O_3 by 1.2 ppbv (5.0%) with a maximum of 5.9 ppbv (24.4%) averaged over central Africa by emitting substantial number of precursors. Considering O_3-vegetation feedback, fires additionally increase surface O_3 by 0.5 ppbv averaged over the Amazon in October, 0.3 ppbv averaged over southern Asia in April, and 0.2 ppbv averaged over central Africa in April. During extreme O_3-vegetation interactions, such feedback can rise to >0.6 ppbv in these fire-prone areas. Moreover, large ratios of indirect-to-direct fire O_3 are found in eastern China (3.7%) and the eastern U.S. (2.0%), where the high ambient O_3 causes strong O_3-vegetation interactions. With likelihood of increasing fire risks in a warming climate, fires may promote surface O_3 through both direct emissions and indirect chemistry-vegetation feedbacks. Such indirect enhancement will cause additional threats to public health and ecosystem productivity.

Keywords: fires, surface ozone, dry deposition, ozone-vegetation feedback

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1 Introduction

Fire plays an important role in disturbing the terrestrial carbon budget (Bond-Lamberty et al., 2007; Amiro et al., 2009; Turetsky et al., 2011; Yue and Unger, 2018). Global fires directly emit 2-3 Pg (1 Pg = 10^{15} g) carbon into the atmosphere every year (van der Werf et al., 2010). Moreover, fires contribute to the production of tropospheric ozone (O_3) by emitting substantial number of precursors (Cheng et al., 1998; Kita et al., 2000; Oltmans et al., 2010; Jaffe et al., 2013; Lu et al., 2016). Globally, fires account for 3-5% of the total tropospheric O_3 (Bey et al., 2001; Ziemke et al., 2009; Jaffe and Wigder, 2012). Regionally, the influence of fires on O_3 production is dependent on mixing with urban emissions (Jaffe et al., 2004; Singh et al., 2010). In some areas, fires can enhance surface O_3 by 10-30 ppbv through emissions of NO_x and VOCs (McKeen et al., 2002; Pfister et al., 2008; Yue and Unger, 2018). Model simulations project that future wildfire activity will likely increase due to global warming, suggesting an increased risk of surface O_3 from wildfires (Amiro et al., 2009; Balshi et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2016; Yue et al., 2017).

Tropospheric O_3 is a toxic air pollutant with detrimental effects on vegetation (Yue and Unger, 2014). Plant stomatal uptake of O_3 decreases both chlorophyll and Rubisco contents and increases the deformity rate of chloroplasts (Booker et al., 2007; Akhtar et al., 2010; Inada et al., 2012), which further reduces the leaf area index (LAI) and gross primary productivity (GPP) of ecosystems (Karnosky et al., 2007; Ainsworth et al., 2012). Modeling studies estimated that fire-induced O_3 reduces

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global GPP by 0.7% with regional maximum reductions of >4.0% over central Africa (Yue and Unger, 2018). In turn, vegetation influences both the sources and sinks of O_3 through biogeochemical and biogeophysical feedbacks (Curci et al., 2009; Heald and Geddes, 2016; Fitzky et al., 2019). Emissions from biomass burning generate a large amount of O_3 precursors (Jaffe and Wigder, 2012; Lu et al., 2016). Moreover, vegetation acts as an important sink for tropospheric O_3 through stomatal uptake (Wesely and Hicks, 2000; Val Martin et al., 2014). Globally, stomatal uptake contributes to 40-60% of the canopy total O_3 deposition (Fowler et al., 2009).

Interactions between air pollution and terrestrial ecosystems remain challenging due to limited process-based knowledge and the separate development of chemistry and vegetation models (He et al., 2020). At present, the feedbacks from O_3-damaging vegetation on O_3 have only been examined by three papers. By implementing steady-state O_3-induced LAI changes into a chemical transport model, Zhou et al. (2018) quantified the influences of O_3-vegetation feedback and found that O_3-induced damage to LAI can enhance O_3 by up to 3 ppbv in the tropics, eastern North America, and southern China. Moreover, plant stomatal conductance may decrease to prevent excessive O_3 from entering plants (Manninen et al., 2003; Wittig et al., 2009). Consequently, surface O_3 may increase due to reduced dry deposition (Val Martin et al., 2014; Lin et al., 2019). Sadiq et al. (2017) implemented a parameterization of O_3 vegetation damage into a climate model and quantified online O_3-vegetation coupling. Simulation results showed that surface O_3 can be enhanced by up to 4-6 ppbv over

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Europe, North America, and China mainly because of reduced dry deposition velocity following O_3 damage. Similarly, Gong et al. (2020) used a fully coupled chemistry-carbon-climate global model and found that O_3-induced inhibition of stomatal conductance can increase surface O_3 by 1.4-2.1 ppbv in eastern China and 1.0-1.3 ppbv in western Europe. All studies revealed strong positive O_3-vegetation feedback to surface O_3, although the magnitudes are different due to discrepancies in O_3 damaging schemes, as well as differences in the climate models.

Many studies have quantified the direct contributions of fires to tropospheric O_3 (Martin et al., 2006; Pfister et al., 2006; Ziemke et al., 2009; Yokelson et al., 2011; Jaffe and Wigder, 2012; Larsen et al., 2018; Yue and Unger, 2018). However, the feedback of fire-induced O_3 vegetation damage to surface O_3 remain unquantified. Here, we apply a fully coupled chemistry-vegetation model (GEOS-Chem-YIBs, hereafter referred to as GC-YIBs) to examine the indirect contributions of fires to surface O_3. Fire-induced O_3 affects plant photosynthesis and stomatal conductance. In turn, predicted changes in LAI and canopy stomatal conductance influence both the sources and sinks of tropospheric O_3. Such O_3-vegetation interactions result in additional enhancement in surface O_3 caused by fire emissions (Fig. 1). Section 2 describes the GC-YIBs model and sensitivity experiments conducted in this study. Section 3 quantifies the feedbacks of fire-induced O_3 vegetation damage on surface O_3 concentrations. The last section summarizes the findings and discusses the uncertainties.

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2 Materials and Methods

2.1 The GC-YIBs model

GC-YIBs is a coupled chemistry-vegetation model developed by implementing the Yale Interactive terrestrial Biosphere (YIBs) model into GEOS-Chem version 12.0.0 (Lei et al., 2020). GEOS-Chem is a widely used global 3-D chemical transport model (CTM) for simulating atmospheric composition and air quality (Yue et al., 2015; Yan et al., 2018; David et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2019). This model uses a detailed HO_x-NO_x-VOC-O_3-halogen-aerosol tropospheric chemistry to simulate tropospheric O_3 fluxes (Barret et al., 2016; Gong and Liao, 2019), while a simplified linearized Linoz chemistry mechanism is applied to simulate stratospheric O_3 (McLinden et al., 2000). Aerosols simulated in GEOS-Chem include secondary inorganic aerosols, secondary organic aerosols, primary organic aerosols, black carbon, dust, and sea salt (Dang and Liao, 2019; Li et al., 2019). The gas-aerosol partitioning of the sulfate–nitrate–ammonium system is computed by the ISORROPIA v2.0 thermodynamic equilibrium model (Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007). The atmospheric emissions from different sources, regions, and species on a user-defined grid are calculated through the online Harvard NASA Emissions Component (HEMCO) module (Keller et al., 2014). HEMCO is highly customizable in that it can automatically combinate, overlay, and update emission inventories and scale factors specified by the users. In general, the GEOS-Chem model overestimates summer surface O_3 concentrations in the eastern U.S. and China (Zhang et al., 2011; Travis et

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al., 2016; Schiferl and Heald, 2018).

YIBs is a vegetation model designed to dynamically simulate the changes in LAI and tree height based on carbon assimilation, respiration, and allocation processes (Yue and Unger, 2015). The model computes carbon uptake for 9 vegetation types, including evergreen needleleaf forest, deciduous broadleaf forest, evergreen broadleaf forest, shrubland, tundra, C_3/C_4 grasses, and C_3/C_4 crops. The YIBs model applies a well-established Michaelis–Menten enzyme kinetics scheme to compute the leaf photosynthesis for C_3 and C_4 plants (Farquhar et al., 1980; Von Caemmerer and Farquhar, 1981). The leaf stomatal conductance was calculated based on the model of Ball and Berry (Baldocchi et al., 1987). The Spitters (1986) canopy radiative transfer scheme is used to separate light use processes for sunlit and shaded leaves. The LAI and carbon allocation schemes are from the TRIFFID model (Clark et al., 2011). Previous studies have shown that the YIBs model has good performance in simulating the spatial pattern and temporal variability of GPP and LAI based on site observations and satellite products (Yue and Unger, 2015, 2018).

The GC-YIBs model links atmospheric chemistry and vegetation in a two-way coupling. As a result, changes in chemical components or vegetation will simultaneously feed back to influence the other systems. In this study, the GC-YIBs model is driven with the meteorological fields from the Modern-Era Retrospective analysis for Research and Applications, version 2 (MERRA2) with a horizontal

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resolution of 4° latitude by 5° longitude, as well as 47 vertical layers from the surface to 0.01 hPa. Within GC-YIBs, the online-simulated surface O_3 in GEOS-Chem affects photosynthesis and canopy stomatal conductance; in turn, the online-simulated vegetation parameters, such as LAI and stomatal conductance, in YIBs, affect both the sources and sinks of O_3 by altering precursor emissions and dry deposition at the 1-hour integration time step. An earlier study evaluated the GC-YIBs model and showed good performance in simulating surface O_3, GPP, LAI, and O_3 dry deposition (Lei et al., 2020).

2.2 Scheme of O_3 vegetation damage

The GC-YIBs model calculates the impacts of O_3 exposure on photosynthesis based on a semi-mechanistic scheme (Sitch et al., 2007):

$$A' = \alpha \cdot A \quad (1)$$

where A' and A represent the O_3-damaging and original leaf photosynthesis, respectively. The O_3 damage factor is represented by α; O_3 can cause damage to photosynthesis only if $\alpha < 1$. The factor α is calculated as a function of excessive O_3 flux and damaging sensitivity coefficient (β):

$$\alpha = \ -\beta \cdot max(F_{O_3} - T_{O_3}, 0) \quad (2)$$

The coefficient β can have two values for each vegetation type (Table S1), indicating low to high O_3 damaging sensitivities (Sitch et al., 2007). T_{O_3} represents the O_3 flux threshold, reflecting the O_3 tolerance of different vegetation types. F_{O_3} represents the stomatal O_3 flux and is calculated based on ambient $[O_3]$, aerodynamic resistance

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(r_a), boundary layer resistance (r_b) and stomatal resistance (r_s):

$$F_{O_3} = \frac{[O_3]}{r_a + r_b + k \cdot r_s'} \tag{3}$$

Here k represents the ratio of leaf resistance for O_3 to leaf resistance for water vapor. Parameters r_a and r_b are calculated by the GEOS-Chem model. O_3-damaging leaf photosynthesis (A') is then integrated over all canopy layers to generate O_3-damaging GPP:

$$GPP' = \int_0^{LAI} A' \, dL$$

The O_3-damaging stomatal resistance (r_s') is calculated based on the model of Ball and Berry (Baldocchi et al., 1987):

$$\frac{1}{r_s'} = g_s' = m \frac{A_{net}' \cdot RH}{c_s} + b \tag{4}$$

where m and b represent the slope and intercept of empirical fitting to the Ball-Berry stomatal conductance equation, respectively. A_{net}' represents O_3-damaging net leaf photosynthesis, RH represents the relative humidity and c_s is the ambient CO_2 concentration. Previous studies have shown that this scheme within the framework of YIBs can reasonably capture the response of GPP and stomatal conductance to surface [O_3] based on hundreds of global observations (Yue et al., 2016; Yue and Unger, 2018).

2.3 Fire emissions

Fire Inventory from NCAR (FINN) version 1.5 is used by GC-YIBs to simulate fire-induced perturbations in O_3. FINN provides daily global emissions of many chemical species from open biomass burning at a resolution of 1 km^2 (Wiedinmyer et al., 2011). The inventory estimates fire locations and biomass burned using satellite observations of active fires and land cover, together with emission factors and fuel loadings. For each land type, emission factors for different gaseous and particulate species are taken from measurements (Andreae and Merlet, 2001; Andreae and Rosenfeld, 2008; Akagi et al., 2011). Daily fire emissions for 2002-2012 are available at http://bai.acom.ucar.edu/Data/fire/. In GC-YIBs, all biomass burning emissions are emitted into the atmospheric boundary layer. The FINN inventory has been widely used in regional and global chemical transport models (e.g., WRF-Chem and GEOS-Chem) to quantify the impacts of fires on air quality and weather (Jiang et al., 2012; Nuryanto, 2015; Vongruang et al., 2017; Brey et al., 2018; Watson et al., 2019).

2.4 Site-level measurements

Measurements of surface [O_3] in the U.S. are provided by Air Quality System (AQS, https://www.epa.gov/aqs), those over Europe are provided by European Monitoring and Evaluation Programme (EMEP, https://emep.int). The observed [O_3] at Manaus, Tg Malim, and Welgegund sites are from earlier studies (Ahamad et al., 2014; Laban et al., 2018; Pope et al., 2020).

2.5 Model simulations

In this study, eight simulations (Table 1) are performed to examine both the direct and indirect contributions of fires to surface O_3. These simulations can be divided into two main groups:

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1. CTRL_FIRE and CTRL_NOFIRE are the control runs using the same emissions except that the latter omits fire emissions. These runs calculate and output offline O_3 damage, which decreases instantaneous leaf photosynthesis but does not feed back to affect plant growth and O_3 dry deposition.
2. O3CPL_FIRE and O3CPL_NOFIRE are the sensitive experiments that consider online coupling between O_3 and vegetation. These runs include online O_3 damage to plant photosynthesis, which feeds back to affect both vegetation and air pollution. The two simulations apply the same emissions, except that the latter omits fire emissions.

For each of these four configurations, two runs are conducted with either high (HS) or low (LS) O_3 damaging sensitivities. All simulations are performed from 2002-2012 using the GC-YIBs model driven by MERRA2 meteorological fields. The first 3 years are used as spin up, and the results of the last 8 years are analyzed. For the same configurations, the results from low and high O_3 damaging sensitivities are averaged. The differences between CTRL_NOFIRE and O3CPL_NOFIRE represent the surface O_3 enhancements through O_3-vegetation feedback without fire emissions. The differences between CTRL_FIRE and CTRL_NOFIRE, named O3OFF, represent the direct contributions of fires to surface O_3. The differences between O3CPL_FIRE and O3CPL_NOFIRE, named O3CPL, represent both direct and indirect contributions of fires to surface O_3. The differences between O3CPL and O3OFF represent the indirect contributions of fires to surface O_3 through O_3-vegetation interactions.

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3 Results

3.1 Model validation

Simulated surface daily maximum 8-hour average O_3 concentrations (MDA8 [O_3], short for [O_3] hereafter) are evaluated using measurements from the AQS and EMEP datasets over the period of 2005-2012 (Fig 2). The model well captures the observed spatial distribution of annual [O_3] in the U.S. and Europe, with a high correlation coefficient of 0.51 ($p<0.01$). Although GC-YIBs overestimates the [O_3] in the eastern U.S. while underestimating it in western Europe, the normalized mean bias (NMB) is only 4.0%, with a root mean square error (RMSE) of 5.4 ppbv. Therefore, the simulated O_3 vegetation damage in our study is slightly overestimated in the eastern U.S. but underestimated in western Europe.

3.2 Direct contributions of fires to O_3

Without fire emissions, the simulated global mean annual [O_3] is 23.9 ppbv, with a grid maximum of 63.7 ppbv over the Beijing–Tianjin–Hebei region averaged for 2005-2012 (Fig. 3a). Most high [O_3] is distributed in the Northern Hemisphere, where anthropogenic emissions make the dominant contributions. The inclusion of fire emissions increases global annual [O_3] by an average of 1.2 ppbv (5.0%). Regionally, the largest enhancement of [O_3] by 5.9 ppbv (24.4%) is averaged over central Africa, with smaller enhancements of 5.7 ppbv (38.2%) averaged over the Amazon, and 3.8 ppbv (10.2%) averaged over southern Asia. Smaller enhancements of 1.1 ppbv (2.2%),

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0.9 ppbv (2.1%), and 0.8 ppbv (2.2%) are averaged respectively over eastern China, western Europe, and the eastern U.S. (Fig. 3b). The predicted fire-induced enhancements in [O_3] agree well with the simulations using the same model but with fire emissions from the Global Fire Emission Database (GFED) version 3 (Yue and Unger, 2018).

We further evaluated the model performance in simulating fire-induced Δ[O_3] at three sites across biomass burning regions (Fig. S1). Without fire emissions, the [O_3] is obviously underestimated, with NMBs of -25.5% at Tg Malim, -53.6% at Manaus, and -21.3% at Welgegund. As a comparison, simulations with fire emissions show NMBs in fire seasons of -8.7% at Tg Malim, -1.4% at Manaus, and -15.1% at Welgegund, suggesting improved O_3 simulations by including fire emissions.

3.3 Fire-induced O_3 damages to GPP

Surface O_3 causes strong damage to ecosystem productivity (Fig. 4). Without fire emissions, surface O_3 reduces global annual GPP by 1.7% (3899.8 Tg C yr^{-1}, Figs. 4a and 4c). Regional maximum reductions of 10.9% (372.0 Tg C yr^{-1}), 6.1% (366.1 Tg C yr^{-1}), and 4.9% (323.8 Tg C yr^{-1}) are averaged respectively over eastern China, the eastern U.S., and western Europe; these reductions are attributed to the high ambient [O_3] level and the large stomatal conductance over these regions. The patterns of O_3-induced GPP reductions agree with previous estimates using different models (Sitch et al., 2007; Yue and Unger, 2015). The inclusion of fire emissions causes

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additional GPP reductions. Globally, fire-induced ΔO_3 decreases annual GPP by 0.4% (1312.0 Tg C yr^{-1}, Figs. 4b and 4d). Regionally, the largest GPP reduction of 1.4% (370.3 Tg C yr^{-1}) is averaged over the Amazon due to the largest enhancement of $[O_3]$ caused by fires. Furthermore, fire $\Delta[O_3]$ causes additional annual GPP reductions of 1.3% (358.0 Tg C yr^{-1}), averaged over central Africa, and 1.0% (77.1 Tg C yr^{-1}), averaged over southern Asia. In contrast, limited damage is found in eastern China, western Europe, and the eastern U.S. due to low fire $\Delta[O_3]$. Following the changes in GPP, fire-induced O_3 damage to LAI shows a regional maximum of 0.3-0.7% in central Africa and a global reduction of 0.02-0.5% (Fig. S2).

3.4 Indirect contributions of fires to O_3

Vegetation parameters such as LAI and stomatal conductance play important roles in modulating surface $[O_3]$. The O_3-induced changes in these variables interactively feed back to alter local $[O_3]$ (Fig. 5). Without fire emissions, the annual $\Delta[O_3]$ from O_3-vegetation interactions is limited to eastern China by 0.5 ppbv, the eastern U.S. by 0.3 ppbv, and western Europe by 0.2 ppbv. The largest grid positive feedback of up to 0.8 ppbv is found in the eastern U.S. (Figs. 5a and 5c). Sensitivity experiments further show that such enhancement of surface $[O_3]$ mainly results from the inhibition of stomatal conductance by O_3 stomatal uptake (Fig. S3a), which reduces the O_3 dry deposition velocity (Fig. S4). Consequently, large $\Delta[O_3]$ (Figs. 5a and 5c) are collocated with areas enduring high levels of O_3 vegetation damage (Figs. 4a and 4c). As a comparison, the feedback of LAI changes is generally small (Fig. S3b), which is

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mainly attributed to limited O_3 damage on LAI (Fig. S2). The enhancement of [O_3] from fires causes additional feedback to the surface [O_3]. The largest annual Δ[O_3] of 0.13 ppbv due to O_3-vegetation feedback is averaged on over the Amazon (Figs. 5b and 5d), where the highest GPP reductions by fire-induced O_3 are predicted (Figs. 4b and 4d). Such feedback additionally enhances local [O_3] by 0.12 ppbv, averaged over central Africa, and 0.09 ppbv, averaged over southern Asia. However, limited O_3-vegetation feedback is found in the eastern U.S., eastern China, and western Europe, either because of low fire-induced Δ[O_3] (Fig. 3b) or low ΔGPP (Figs. 4b and 4d). The changes in O_3 dry deposition velocity broadly match the pattern of O_3-vegetation feedback (Fig. S4), suggesting that reduced dry deposition velocity due to O_3-induced inhibition of stomatal conductance is the dominant driver for the enhanced surface [O_3].

Fig. 6 shows seasonal variations in O_3-vegetation feedback. Without fire emissions, O_3-vegetation feedback in eastern China, the eastern U.S., and western Europe shows similar seasonal variations, increasing from January to July and then decreasing (Fig. 6a). For these regions, surface [O_3] and stomatal conductance reach maximums during the growth season (May-October), resulting in instantaneous O_3 uptake. Therefore, O_3-vegetation interactions are expected to be stronger during the growth season in the Northern Hemisphere. However, O_3-vegetation feedback driven by fires in the Amazon and Southern Asia reaches a maximum during August-December and February-June, respectively. Moreover, double peaks are shown in central Africa, with

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maximums during February-April and July-September (Fig. 6b). The distinct seasonal variations in biomass burning regions are attributed to fire emissions. At low latitudes, stomatal conductance shows limited seasonal variations. Therefore, O_3-vegetation feedback driven by fires is mainly dependent on fire-induced $\Delta[O_3]$.

Fire-induced O_3 shows stronger interactions with vegetation under favorable meteorological conditions. We sort daily $\Delta[O_3]$ from O_3-vegetation feedback and calculate the average of $\Delta[O_3]$ above the 95^{th} percentile (Fig. S5). The spatial pattern of $\Delta[O_3]$ during extreme O_3-vegetation feedback is broadly consistent with that of the annual average, albeit with much stronger O_3-vegetation feedback. Without fire emissions, O_3-vegetation feedback enhances $[O_3]$ by 2.0 ppbv averaged over eastern China, 1.8 ppbv averaged over the eastern U.S., and 1.1 ppbv averaged over western Europe (Figs. S5a and S5c). Fire emissions alone enhance $[O_3]$ through O_3-vegetation interactions by 1.1 ppbv averaged over the Amazon, 0.8 ppbv averaged over southern Asia, and 0.6 ppbv averaged over central Africa during extreme O_3-vegetation feedback (Figs. S5b and S5d).

3.5 Indirect vs. direct contributions of fires to O_3

We further compare the indirect and direct contributions of fire emissions to surface $[O_3]$. Here, the direct contributions indicate $\Delta[O_3]$ caused by fire emissions of chemical precursors, while the indirect contributions represent additional $\Delta[O_3]$ from O_3-vegetation interactions caused by fire-induced O_3. Without fire emissions,

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O_3-vegetation interactions cause enhancement of [O_3] by 1.0% averaged over eastern China, 0.8% averaged over the eastern U.S., and 0.5% averaged over western Europe (Figs. 7a and 7c). Compared to nonfire sources, fire emissions cause larger perturbations in surface [O_3] through O_3-vegetation interactions (Figs. 7b and 7d). The ratios of indirect to direct annual Δ[O_3] are 3.7% averaged over eastern China, 2.0% averaged over the eastern U.S., and 1.6% averaged over western Europe. For these regions, the absolute Δ[O_3] from direct fire emissions is usually lower than 1 ppbv (Fig. 3b). However, the high level of ambient [O_3] (Fig. 3a) provides a sensitive environment in which moderate increases in [O_3] from fires can cause large indirect contributions to regional [O_3] through vegetation damage. For fire-prone regions, the ratios of indirect to direct annual Δ[O_3] are 2.6% averaged over southern Asia, 1.9% averaged over the eastern U.S., and 1.4% averaged over central Africa.

3.6 Aggravated O_3 damage to GPP through O_3-vegetation feedback

The additional O_3 enhancement can exacerbate the damaging effects on vegetation. Without fire emissions, online O_3 causes a global annual GPP reduction of 0.2% (299.6 Tg C yr^{-1}, Figs. S6a and S6c) from the offline O_3. Regionally, additional reductions are mainly found in eastern China, the eastern U.S., and western Europe, where GPP is further decreased by 27.1 Tg C yr^{-1}, 40.8 Tg C yr^{-1} and 28.4 Tg C yr^{-1}, respectively. For fire emissions, the online fire-induced ΔO_3 results in a higher GPP reduction by 25.0 Tg C yr^{-1} averaged over the Amazon, and 24.3 Tg C yr^{-1} averaged over central Africa, and 7.1 Tg C yr^{-1} averaged over southern Asia compared to the

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offline fire-induced ΔO_3 (Figs. S6b and S6d). Such spatial patterns are broadly consistent with $\Delta[O_3]$ induced by O_3-vegetation feedback (Fig. 5).

4 Conclusions and discussion

Many studies have explored the direct contributions to surface O_3 by fire emissions. However, the feedback of fire-induced O_3 vegetation damage to surface $[O_3]$ remains unquantified. In this study, we find that fire-induced O_3 causes a positive feedback to surface $[O_3]$ mainly because of the inhibition effects on stomatal conductance. Regionally, O_3-vegetation feedback driven by fires enhances surface annual $[O_3]$ by 0.13 ppbv averaged over the Amazon, 0.12 ppbv averaged over central Africa, and 0.09 ppbv averaged over southern Asia. Such feedback exhibit large seasonal variations, with the maximums of 0.5 ppbv averaged over the Amazon in October, 0.3 ppbv averaged over southern Asia in April, and 0.2 ppbv averaged over central Africa in April. During extreme O_3-vegetation interactions, the feedback can rise to >0.6 ppbv in these fire-prone areas. Although direct formations of O_3 from fires are limited in eastern China and the eastern U.S., the feedback of O_3-vegetation coupling results in additional enhancement of surface $[O_3]$ by 3.7% and 2.0% upon the fire-induced $\Delta[O_3]$. Such large ratios in these regions are attributed to the high level of ambient $[O_3]$ that provides a sensitive environment in which moderate increases in $[O_3]$ from fires can cause large indirect contributions to regional $[O_3]$ through vegetation damage.

Some uncertainties may affect the conclusions of this study. First, we employed a

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model resolution of 4°×5° due to the limitations in computational resources. We performed a one-year sensitivity simulation at a 2°×2.5° resolution. The comparisons show that fire-induced direct O_3 enhancement is very similar between the simulations with low and high resolutions, although the former runs predict slightly higher changes in [O_3] than the latter (Fig. S7). Second, different biomass burning datasets may affect the estimated O_3-vegetation feedback in our study. At present, the FINNv1.5 and GFEDv4.1 inventories are available in the public-release of GEOS-Chem v12.0.0. Compared with the FINNv1.5 inventory, simulations using the GFEDv4.1 inventory predict a lower O_3-vegetation feedback in the Amazon (Fig. S8a) and southern Asia (Fig. S8c) but a higher O_3-vegetation feedback in central Africa (Fig. S8b). Finally, fires can decrease VOC emissions from biogenic sources by burning vegetation. However, compared to the VOCs emitted by fires, the VOC loss from burned vegetation is generally smaller (Fig. S9). Therefore, the influence of reduced VOCs from vegetation loss on surface [O_3] can be ignored.

Despite these uncertainties, we present the first estimate of O_3 enhancement by fire emissions through O_3-vegetation interactions. Such enhancement is not limited to fire-prone regions, but is also significant over downwind areas with high ambient [O_3] levels. Although the absolute perturbations may be moderate for the whole fire season, O_3-vegetation interactions can largely increase surface O_3 during extreme O_3-vegetation interactions, leading to additional threats to public health and ecosystem productivity.

Data availability

The site-level [O_3] in the U.S. can be download from AQS (https://www.epa.gov/aqs). The site-level [O_3] in the Europe can be download from EMEP (https://emep.int). The observed [O_3] at Manaus, Tg Malim, and Welgegund sites are from earlier studies (Ahamad et al., 2014; Laban et al., 2018; Pope et al., 2020). The GC-YIBs simulation results are available from the corresponding authors on request.

Competing interests. The authors declare no competing financial interests.

Author Contributions. XY conceived the study. YL conducted the model simulations. YL and XY were responsible for results analysis. HL, LZ, and YY revised and improved the manuscript. HZ, CT, and CG helped prepare model input. YM, LG, and YC helped prepare observation dataset.

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Table 1 Summary of simulations using the GC-YIBs model

Name	Emissions	O_3 damaging	O_3 sensitivities
CTRL_FIRE_HS	All including fires	Offline	High
CTRL_FIRE_LS	All including fires	Offline	Low
CTRL_NOFIRE_HS	All but without fires	Offline	High
CTRL_NOFIRE_LS	All but without fires	Offline	Low
O3CPL_FIRE_HS	All including fires	Online	High
O3CPL_FIRE_LS	All including fires	Online	Low
O3CPL_NOFIRE_HS	All but without fires	Online	High
O3CPL_NOFIRE_LS	All but without fires	Online	Low

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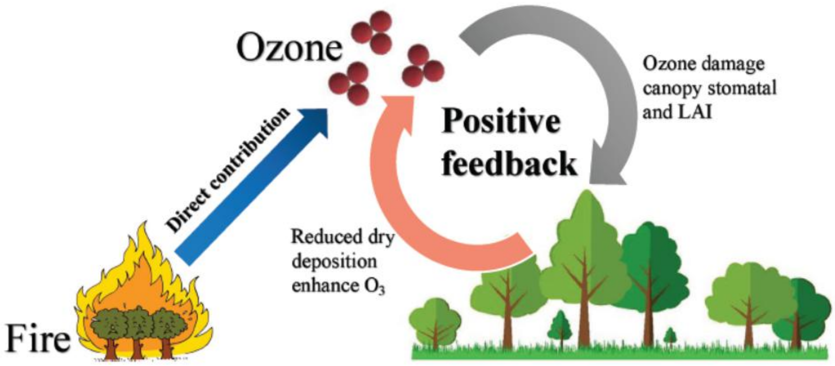

Figure 1 Diagram of the impacts of fires on surface O_3 through direct emissions and O_3-vegetation feedback.

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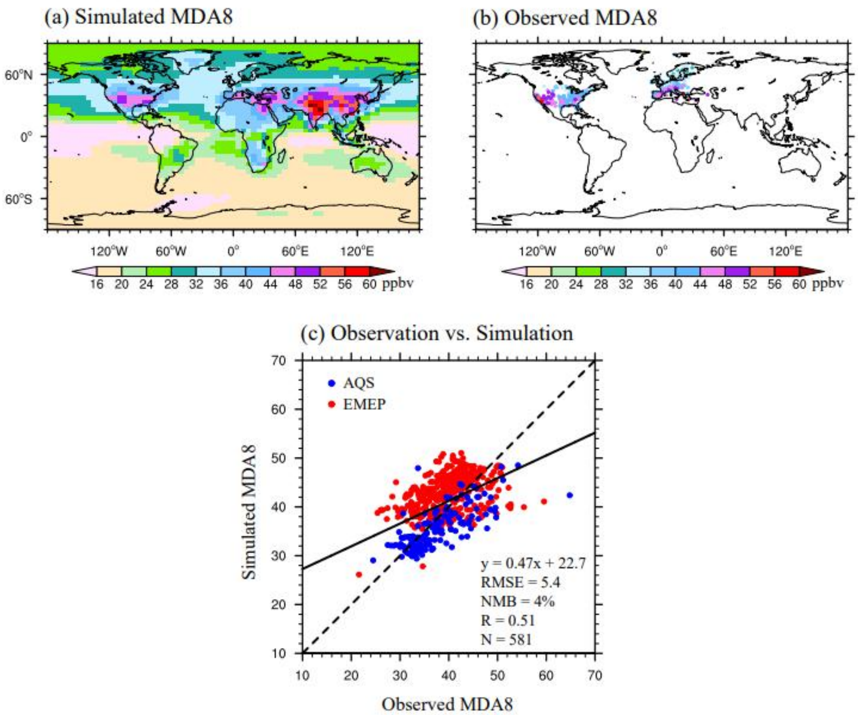

Figure 2 Spatial pattern of (a) simulated and (b) observed surface [O_3]. (c) Scatter plot of surface [O_3] over measurements in two regions. The black line shows the linear regression between the observed and simulated [O_3]. The regression fit, correlation coefficient (R), root mean square error (RMSE), and normalized mean bias (NMB) are shown in the bottom panel with an indication of site numbers (N) used for statistics.

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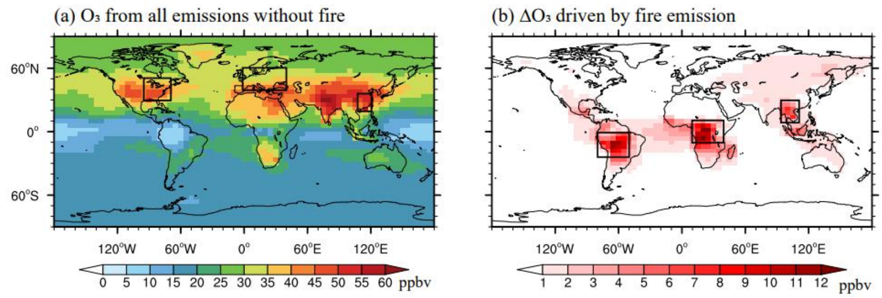

Figure 3 Annual surface [O_3] from (a) nonfire and (b) fire-alone sources. The six subregions are marked with black boxes: Eastern U.S. (EUS, 30°N-50°N, 95°W-70°W), Western Europe (WEU, 40°N-60°N, 0°-40°E), Eastern China (ECH, 20°N-35°N, 108°E-120°E), Amazon (AMZ, 25°S-0°, 80°W-50°W), Central Africa (CAF, 10°S-10°N, 10°E-40°E), and Southern Asia (SAS, 10°N-30°N, 95°E-110°E).

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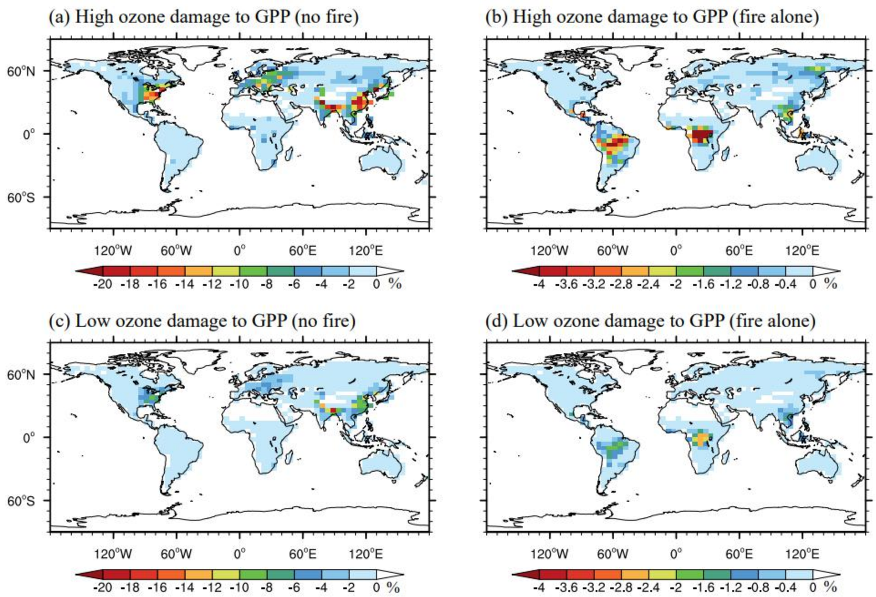

Figure 4 Annual percentage of reductions in GPP caused by O_3 from (a, c) nonfire and (b, d) fire alone sources with (a, b) high and (c, d) low O_3 sensitivities. Please note the differences in color scales.

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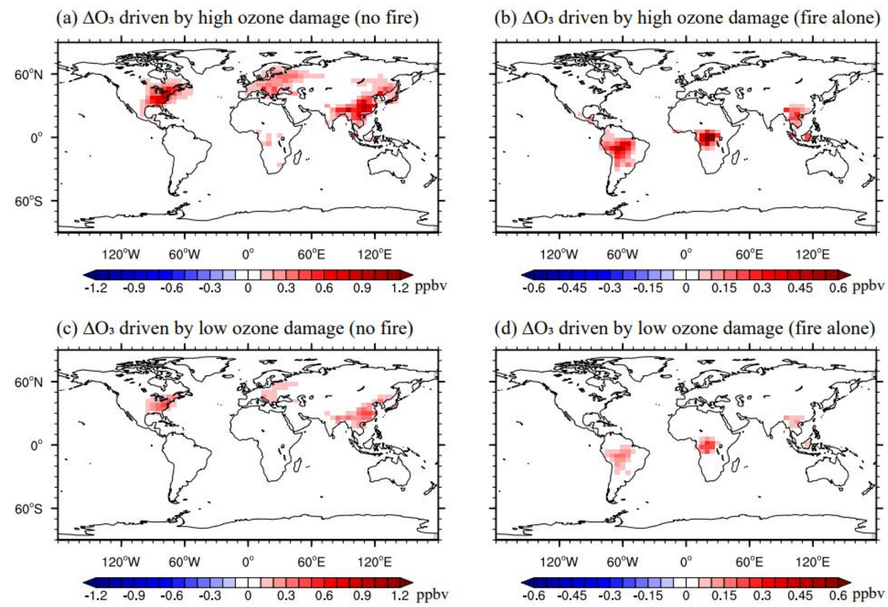

Figure 5 Annual feedback to surface O_3 caused by O_3 vegetation damage with (a, b) high and (c, d) low O_3 sensitivities. (a) and (c) represent feedback by O_3 from nonfire sources; (b) and (d) represent feedback by O_3 from fire emissions alone. Please note the differences in color scales.

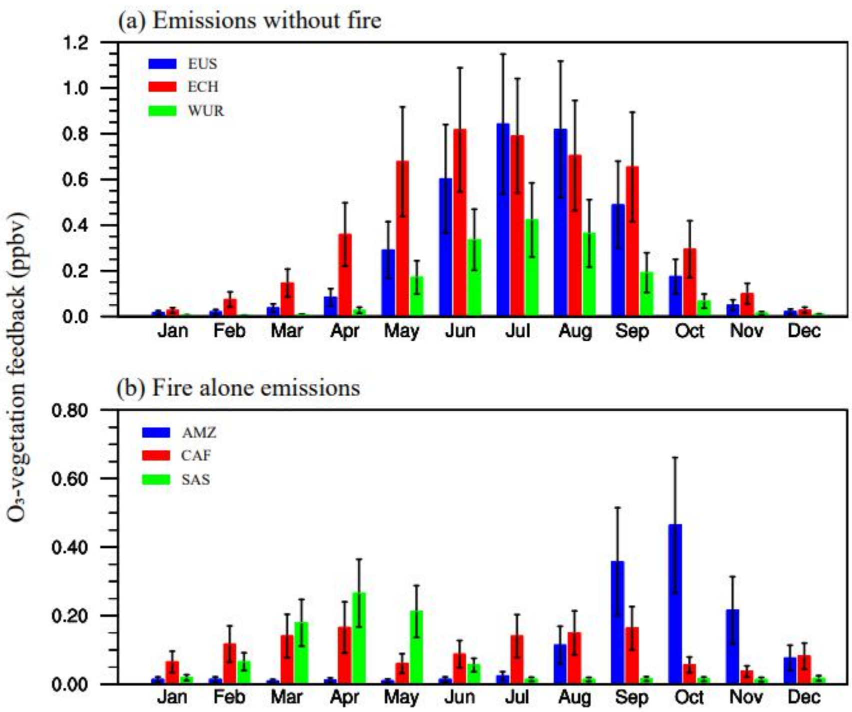

Figure 6 Seasonal variations in O_3-vegetation feedback driven by (a) nonfire and (b) fire-alone sources. The error bars represent low to high O_3 damaging sensitivities.

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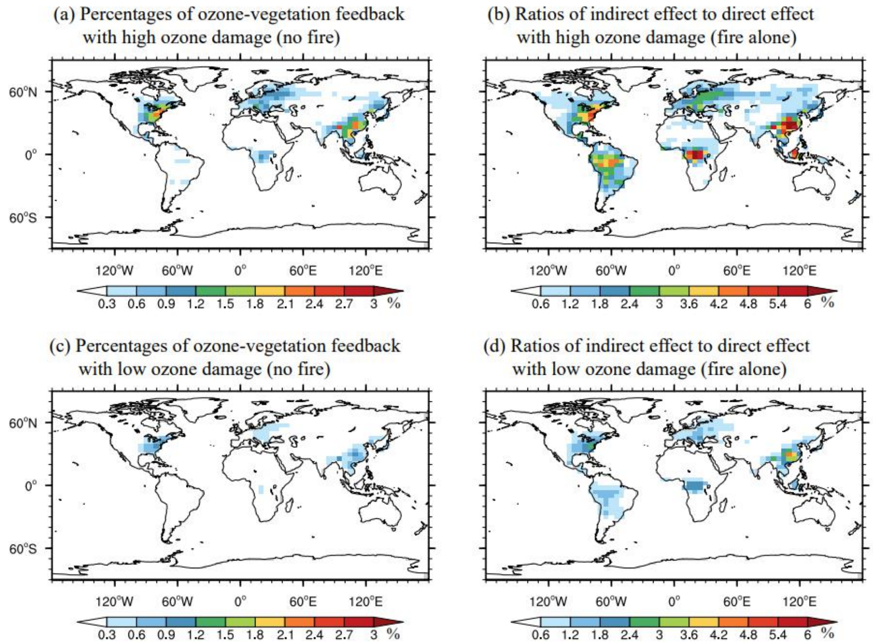

Figure 7 Annal ratios of indirect Δ[O_3] to ambient [O_3] from (a, c) nonfire emissions and the ratios of indirect to direct Δ[O_3] from (b, d) fire emissions alone with (a, b) high and (c, d) low O_3 damaging sensitivities. Please note the differences in color scales.