Improvement of stomatal resistance and photosynthesis mechanism of Noah-MP-WDDM (v1.42) in simulation of NO$_2$ dry deposition velocity in forests

Ming Chang[1,*], Jiachen Cao[1,*], Qi Zhang[2], Weihua Chen[1], Guotong Wu[1], Liping Wu[1], Weiwen Wang[1], and Xuemei Wang[1]

[1]Guangdong-Hongkong-Macau Joint Laboratory of Collaborative Innovation for Environmental Quality, Institute for Environmental and Climate Research, Jinan University, China
[2]School of Atmospheric Sciences, Sun Yat-sen University, China
[*]These authors contributed equally to this work.

Correspondence: Xuemei Wang (eciwxm@jnu.edu.cn)

Abstract.

The rapid urbanization and economic development of China has led to a dramatic increase in nitrogen oxide (NO$_2$) emissions, causing serious atmospheric nitrogen pollution and relatively high levels of nitrogen deposition. However, despite the importance of nitrogen deposition, dry deposition processes in forested areas are still insufficiently represented in current

5 global and regional atmospheric chemistry models, which constrains our understanding and prediction of spatial and temporal patterns of nitrogen transport in forest ecosystems in South China. The offline 1-D community Noah land surface model with multi-parameterization options (Noah-MP) is coupled with the WRF-Chem dry deposition module (WDDM) and is applied to further understand and identify the key processes that affect forest canopy dry deposition. The canopy stomatal resistance mechanism and the nitrogen-limitings scheme for photosynthesis in Noah-MP-WDDM are modified to improve the simulation

10 of reactive nitrogen oxide dry deposition velocity. This study finds that the combined improved stomatal resistance mechanism and nitrogen-limitings scheme for photosynthesis (BN-23) agrees better with the observed NO$_2$ dry deposition velocity, with mean bias reduced by 50.1%, respectively. At the same time, by comparing the different mechanisms of the two processes of canopy stoma resistance and leaf nitrogen-limiting factors, this study also finds that the diurnal changes in dry deposition velocity simulated by each regional model present four sets of distributions. This is mainly due to the different ways that each

15 integrated mechanism handles the opening and closing of stomata at noon and the way the nitrogen-limiting factor acts.

1 Introduction

Transport and deposition of nitrogen-containing compounds is one of the most critical processes in the study of biogeochemical cycles (Gruber and Galloway, 2008). Atmospheric nitrogen deposition is not only the main way that atmospheric reactive

20   nitrogen is removed, but is also an important source of nitrogen for ecosystems (Jefferies and Maron, 1997; Horii et al., 2005). Nitrogen deposition affects changes in the carbon sink in forest ecosystems by affecting plant growth and death (De Vries et al., 2009; Bernhard, 2012). An increase in nitrogen deposition will cause an increase in litter and a decrease in soil decomposition, which will increase the carbon fixation of the soil (Stevens et al., 2004; Liang et al., 2020). Meanwhile, soil acidification caused by nitrogen deposition will reduce the number of microorganisms in the soil, reduce the production of methane, cause

25   the degradation of peatland, and jointly affect the balance of greenhouse gases and the climate (Xu et al., 2009; Cui et al., 2010; Seinfeld and Pandis, 2012; Erisman et al., 2014). At present, studies have shown that there has been a sharp rise in global and regional atmospheric nitrogen deposition, which exceeds the critical load of local ecosystems in many regions (Liu et al., 2013; Yu et al., 2019).

In order to evaluate the impact of atmospheric nitrogen dry deposition on ecosystems, it is important to accurately estimate

30   the dry deposition fluxes of nitrogen components (Wu et al., 2011, 2012; Tian et al., 2018). Scholars calculate the dry deposition velocity of nitrogen-containing components or estimate the effect of variation on dry deposition flux based on the global or regional numerical models (Phillips et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2017; Han et al., 2017; Zhong et al., 2020). The biased results of nitrogen deposition from modelling compared to those from observations range from -70% to 800% (Chang et al., 2020a). Part of the estimated deviation comes from the nitrogen emission inventory input bias in the model simulation. For example,

35   Galloway et al. (1994) predicted the nitrogen deposition pattern for 2020, and a large deflection area appeared in an area where emissions did not increase as expected. Another part of the deviation comes from the inaccurate simulation of nitrogen concentration. In this situation, the simulated concentration can be verified and nudged by measuring stable oxygen and nitrogen isotope ratios (Guerrieri et al., 2020). At the same time, the simplification and biases from the deposition mechanism in the models can not be ignored compared with satellite retrievals (Liu et al., 2020). Deposition velocity is difficult to measure and

40   is affected by many coupled physical, chemical and biological processes occurring at the deposition interface.

Therefore, the resistance-velocity method, which is similar to Ohm's law, is used to calculate the dry deposition velocity of various species between the surface and the atmosphere(Szinyei, 2015). In this method, the dry deposition velocity (V_d) of gaseous matter is expressed as the reciprocal of the total resistance (R_t) of the process of atmospheric pollutant deposition to the surface. The total resistance is determined by aerodynamic resistance(R_a), quasi-laminar boundary layer resistance (R_b),

45   and canopy resistance (R_c). Their relationship is generally characterized by Equ. 1.

$$V_d = \frac{1}{R_t} = \frac{1}{R_a + R_b + R_c} \tag{1}$$

Here, R_a is calculated by the micrometeorological parameters, which depend mainly on local atmospheric turbulence intensity while R_b is driven by the diffusion coefficient and air viscosity of gaseous matter. The calculation of these two resistances is basically similar in different deposition resistance mechanisms (Finnigan, 2000). At present, the treatment of dry deposition

50   processes affected by turbulent diffusion in numerical models includes two parts: one is the turbulent diffusion process from the bottom of the atmospheric boundary layer to the canopy, and the other is the turbulent exchange process inside the canopy (Flechard et al., 2011, 2013).

The calculation of R_a is usually based on the turbulent transport part of the land surface model. Most current models are based on the near-surface-layer similarity theory, which first calculates the surface roughness and zero plane displacement, and then calculates the turbulent transport coefficient according to the flux gradient relationship under different stratifications (Makar et al., 2017). The calculation of turbulent exchange inside the canopy is more complex, and is highly related to the structure of the vegetation canopy and other local properties (Finnigan et al., 2009). Some forest fire models are based on the measured empirical wind speed profiles in the canopy, and other models use the assumption of neutral stratification to solve the turbulent flow fields of the canopy, such as SSiB, SVAT, and BATS, etc (Yongjiu and Qingcun, 1997; Yang and Friedl, 2003; Falge et al., 2005; Moon et al., 2019).

Furthermore, the calculation of R_c is more complicated and diverse than that of R_a, because R_c is closely related to difference in the underlying surface, vegetation, soil, and other conditions (Wu et al., 2018). Due to different considerations of the underlying surface, R_c is usually further decomposed based on canopy structure, surface properties of deposition receptors, biochemical reactions of deposition materials, and other canopy processes (Massad et al., 2020). For the surface of the vegetation canopy, models are refined to consider the resistance of the stomata, mesophyll, epidermis, soil, and other canopy surface factors (Dai et al., 2004; Massad et al., 2020). For example, the multi-layer forest canopy model is used to calculate the canopy stomatal resistance layer by layer at monitoring sites in the Clean Air Status and Trends Network (CASTNET) (Li et al., 2016). As a counterexample, the ocean, which was thought to be a relatively simple surface, has evolved from consideration of smooth levels to sea surface fragmentation, different particle humidities, and other factors (Schulz et al., 2012). However, our current understanding of the exchange of nitrogen oxides between the atmosphere and biosphere remains incomplete (Delaria and Cohen, 2020). For instance, the possible existence of a NO_2 compensation point toward the leaf surface in forests has been controversial as a result of experimental comparison (Wang et al., 2020). The coupling of canopy photosynthesis, nutrient stress, the impact of mesophyllic processes, and other plant physiological processes is still poorly resolved in the field of dry deposition model improvement (Massad et al., 2020).

In this study, we apply different improved stomatal resistance mechanisms and nitrogen limitations on photosynthesis mechanisms to the Noah-MP model coupled with dry deposition schemes to explore changes in nutrient stress in stomatal conductance and evaluate the consequences of these changes on NO_2 dry deposition velocity. This paper is organized as follows: besides this introductory Sect. 1, Sect. 2 presents a full description of the improved stomatal resistance mechanisms and different schemes of nitrogen limitation of photosynthesis. Sect. 3 includes model evaluation and discussion about the influence on NO_2 dry deposition velocity simulation, the respective path of canopy stomatal and photosynthesis processes and sensitivity of major parameters. Finally, a conclusion and a future research plan for the Noah-MP-WDDM framework are summarized in Sect. 4.

2 Model Description and Configuration

2.1 Base Model Setup

85 This study uses the coupled single-point Noah-MP model and the WRF-Chem dry deposition module (WDDM) as the base model (Noah-MP-WDDM) which was developed by Zhang et al. (2017). In order to reduce the effect of meteorological simulation biases on V_d simulation, the micro-meteorological observation test datasets of Zhang et al. (2017) are used to drive this dry deposition single-point model and all improvements. The observation data were obtained at the Dinghushan Forest Ecosystem Research Station (Fluxnet Site Code: CN-Din, $23°10'24''$N,$112°32'10''$E, altitude 300m).

90 Physical processes related to snow, permafrost, and other factors—like Supercoiled Liquid Water in Frozen Soil (FRZ), Frozen Soil Permeability (INF), Snow Surface Albedo (ALB), Partitioning Precipitation into Rainfall and Snowfall (SNF), Lower Boundary of Soil Temperature (TBOT), and Snow/Soil Temperature Time Scheme (STC) have only play a small effect on V_d because Dinghushan is located in the subtropics. So these physical parameterization schemes all use option 1. In contrast, the other six physical parameterization schemes—Dynamic Vegetation Model (DVEG); Canopy Stomatal Resistance (CRS);

95 Soil moisture factor for stomatal resistance, β Factor (BTR), Runoff and Groundwater (RUN); Surface Exchange Coefficient for Heat, C_H (SFC); and Radiation Transfer (RAD)—have a great influence on V_d simulation. Their respective options are 2, 1, 3, 3, 2, and 2 in the above physical parameterization schemes (Chang et al., 2020b).

2.2 Coupling of Stomatal Resistance Schemes

Previous studies have generally used the Jarvis stomatal conductance model, which is based on environmental factors such

100 as photosynthetic effective radiation, temperature, humidity, and soil water to calculate canopy stomatal resistance (Jarvis, 1976). Compared with Jarvis, the Ball-Berry stomatal conductance model (Ball et al., 1987) is a better mechanism for the stomatal resistance of the canopy; it calculates the stomatal resistance based on the through-canopy photosynthesis rate, CO_2 concentration, and humidity on the leaf surface as shown in (2). This type of mechanism requires a coupled photosynthesis model to calculate or observe the photosynthesis rate of the canopy, and the photosynthesis model depends on the setting

105 of many key plant physiological parameters (such as optimal photosynthesis efficiency, catalytic enzyme activity parameter Q10, etc.). The Noah-MP model sets the stomatal conductance slope of the Ball-Berry mechanism as a constant, which is not suitable and will cause a large simulation bias. Therefore, we integrate observational experimental results, statistical fitting or plant physiological model equations in photosynthesis, stomatal conductance and other aspects of plant physiology in this study, writing the equation as a subroutine in the coupled single-point model.

110 The calculation equation is Ball et al. (1987) as follows:

$$\frac{1}{R_s} = m \times \frac{A}{C_{air}} \times \frac{e_{air}}{e_{sat}(T_v)} \times P_{air} + g_{min} \tag{2}$$

Where m is the slope of the stomatal conductance, A is the photosynthetic rate, C_{air} is the CO_2 concentration on the leaf surface, e_{air} is the vapor pressure on the leaf surface, $sat(T_v)$ is the saturated vapor pressure of the leaves at the canopy temperature, P_{air} is the surface pressure, and g_{min} is the minimum stomatal conductance.

115   In addition, the R_{ns} calculated in Noah-MP is according to (Zhang et al., 2003):

$$\frac{1}{R_{ns}} = \frac{1}{R_{ac} + R_g} + \frac{1}{R_{cut}} \tag{3}$$

where R_{ac} is the in-canopy aerodynamic resistance, which is common to all gases and R_g and R_{cut} are the resistances for the uptake by the ground/soil and canopy cuticle. Similar to the work of Wesely (1989), R_g and R_{cut} are parameterized for O_3 from look-up tables.

120   The equations integrated into the single-point mechanism model are shown in Table 1, where

- MBM-1 (Modified Ball-Berry Mechanism, MBM) is the stomatal conductance equation of the default Ball-Berry equation , and the main parameter used is the slope of the Ball-Berry conductance relationship and the minimum stomatal conductance (g_{min});

- Leuning (1990) introduced a CO_2 compensation point Γ to improve the Ball-Berry equation so that it can simulate

125   the net photosynthetic rate and stomatal conductance when the CO_2 concentration on the blade surface is equal to the compensation point (Table 1, MBM-2). Later, the method of Lohammar et al. (1980) was adopted to replace RH with the water vapor saturation function $f(D)$ (Table 1, MBM-4). These equations have been applied to a variety of plant physiological models (Leuning, 1995);

- Aphalo and Jarvis (1993) separated the effects of temperature and water vapor difference D, which more directly re-

130   flected the effect of temperature on stomatal conductance than the original Ball-Berry equation (Table 1, MBM-3);

- Yu et al. (2004) measured stomatal conductance of wheat under normal atmospheric and artificially increased CO_2 concentration, as well as the response curve of photosynthesis to light and CO_2 concentration. Based on this, researchers constructed an equation reflecting the physiological response of plants, which could reflect the relationship between stomatal conductance and photosynthesis rate (Table 1, MBM-5);

135   - Ye and Yu (2008) derived a model of leaf stomatal mechanism based on experimental observation of light response and stomatal conductance data, which can better simulate the relationship between stomatal conductance and photosynthetic rate (Table 1, MBM-6);

- Medlyn et al. (2011) introduced the optical contract rate coefficient g_1 (Table 1, MBM-7), which led to better simulation results in models such as CABLE (De Kauwe et al., 2014).

2.3 Improvements in Nitrogen-Limiting Schemes for Photosynthesis

The combination of the DVEG mechanism and the Ball-Berry model can comprehensively consider the interaction between photosynthesis rate and canopy stomatal impedance. This is physiologically significant in that it balances the supply and demand of CO_2 in the chemical reaction of photosynthesis, so as to maintain a reasonable concentration of CO_2 in the mesophyll tissue. However, at the vegetation canopy scale, the photosynthetic rate is also related to the nitrogen content of leaves. Currently, the commonly used biogeochemical models usually express the effect of nitrogen on the photosynthetic process based on the relevant theory of nitrogen limitation, but they often simplify it (Li et al., 2013).

In this study, the original DVEG mechanism of Noah-MP set the nitrogen limitation factor of leaves $f(N)$ as a function of leaf nitrogen concentration (C_N^{leaf}) and the maximum nitrogen concentration parameters (FOLNMX) of this vegetation type ($f(N) = C_N^{leaf} \cdot FOLNMX^{-1}$). However, C_N^{leaf} and FOLNMX were set as two constants which is obviously an over-simplification for land surface simulation in a large area (Bonan, 1995). For different types of plants, the nitrogen content in leaves should make a significant difference in photosynthetic nitrogen utilization efficiency (Zheng and Shangguan, 2007). For regional nitrogen deposition simulation, it is obviously inappropriate to simplify the nitrogen-limiting process in leaves, so a more accurate description of the effect of nitrogen on plant photosynthesis and a more accurate estimation of the effect of nitrogen deposition on the whole forest ecosystem are needed.

According to whether the nitrogen content of plant tissues is directly taken as the variable in the equation, the current expressions of how nitrogen affects photosynthesis (as shown in Table 2) can be divided into implicit and explicit expressions:

- Implicit

  For the photosynthetic rate model calculated by the Farquhar Model (Farquhar et al., 1980), the photosynthetic rate is determined by the minimum value of carboxylation efficiency (W_c), carboxylation efficiency (W_j) and organophosphorus carboxylation efficiency (W_e), which is limited by the concentration of chlorophyll photoenzyme (Rubisco), in which W_c and W_e are proportional to the maximum carboxylation rate (V_{cmax}).

  Therefore, the effect of nitrogen on photosynthesis, V_{cmax}, is reflected mainly in the limitation of $f(N)$. As mentioned above, $f(N)$ was set by two constants in the DVEG dynamic vegetation process mechanism. In addition, models such as AVIM (Ji, 1995), CLM4.0 (Oleson et al., 2010) and Noah–LSM (Bonan, 1995) also directly take $f(N)$ as a parameter, ranging from 0.5 to 1(Table 2, MNM-1, (Modified Nitrogen Mechanism, MNM)).

  However, BEPS (Liu et al., 1999), DLEM (Tian et al., 2010), IBIS (Liu et al., 2005), InTEC (Chen et al., 2000) and other models use the ratio of the optimal carbon-nitrogen ratio ($B_V max$) to the simulated actual carbon-nitrogen ratio (B_L) to represent $f(N)$ (Table 2, MNM-2).

  Models that calculate photosynthesis based on empirical functions (such as CASA (Friedlingstein et al., 1999), Lin(Lin et al., 2000), PnET(Aber and Federer, 1992), TEM(McGuire et al., 1997), TRIPLEX (Peng et al., 2002) and 3-PG (Landsberg and Waring, 1997), etc.) use mostly the form of vegetation productivity, which is proportional to light interception, to calculate the primary productivity (NPP) or total primary productivity (GPP) (Monteith, 1972; Monteith and

Moss, 1977) of vegetation. Such models generally use implicit methods to limit GPP or NPP, so as to implicitly limit the calculation of photosynthesis rate, thus affecting canopy stomatal conductance (Table 2, MNM-3, MNM-4).

175   – Explicit

The explicit method is in direct accordance with plant physiology experiments to establish the relation between the V_{cm} and c_N functions, and leaf nitrogen content can be measured more directly in the plant physiology sense in relation to photosynthesis. Different researchers get different function relations, so there is no unified explicit expression of the equation:

180   For example, in Biome-BGC (Thornton et al., 2002), V_{cm} is calculated by the carbon and nitrogen ratio ($C : N_{leaf}$), the ratio of the Rubisco enzyme middle nitrogen content to total leaf nitrogen content (f_{nr}), specific leaf area index (SLA), etc. (Table 2, MNM-5);

Doly and CEVSA established a functional relationship between light saturation rate (A_b) and leaf nitrogen absorption rate (n) (Woodward et al., 1995; Cao and Woodward, 1998)(Table 2, MNM-6).

185 ## 2.4 Mechanism Comparison Experiment Setup

After integrating all the improved equations of the canopy stomatal resistance mechanism and the nitrogen-limiting schemes for photosynthesis into the single-point model in the form of subroutines, an orthogonal experimental scheme (Table 3) was adopted to simulate them, and all the experimental schemes were driven by the same meteorological forcing data. Since all the mechanisms can be combined into 42 combinations, the current version number is set at v1.42 in this study.

190 # 3   Results and Discussion

3.1   Model Validation

To evaluate the applicability of the single-point Noah-MP-WDDM dry deposition model and all its improvements, we compared the base model results (BN-11) to the observations of latent heat (LH) and sensible heat (SH) fluxes. Detailed statistics of the comparison are shown in Table 4. It can be seen that the simulation of average SH is overestimated by about $20\ W \cdot m^2$

195 while the average LH is underestimated by about $0.1\ W \cdot m^2$ compared with observations. The models perform reasonably well for most simulations with uncertainties within a factor of $0.5 \sim 2$ (Fig. 1).

3.2   Performance of Vd Simulation with Different Mechanisms

The model simulation show obvious underestimation of V_d. The simulated average V_d is about a quarter of the observed results. And the correlation coefficient is very low and basically cannot reflect the trend characteristics (Fig. 2). On the one hand, the

200 Noah-MP-WDDM model itself has a poor ability to simulate the change trend of deposition. On the other hand, it is also affected by too much precipitation in subtropical regions, poor quality control of dry deposition observation data and many missing values (Zhang et al., 2017).

It can be seen from Fig. 2 that the simulation effect of each model mechanism is relatively poor, especially for all the combinations corresponding to the MBM-5, MBM-6, MBM-7, and MNM-5 series; the simulated V_d in these series is basically

205   concentrated around 0.05 cms. This indicates that the stability of the parameterization of these series of mechanisms is relatively high, and the disturbance caused by different schemes in other processes is suppressed.

There is a magnitude difference between the results of the simulation and the observed V_d, which may be because these mechanisms are not supported with some coniferous species because conifers have little direct stomatal response to elevated CO_2 (Medlyn et al., 2011; Katul et al., 2012). The overall underestimation under MNM-5 may be because the default param-

210   eters of the leaf carbon-nitrogen ratio ($C : N_{leaf}$) in the Biome-BGC model and single-point Noah-MP-WDDM model do not match the situation of subtropical forests.

However, from the statistical results(Fig. 3), we can still see the variation of the simulation bias caused by different mechanisms. Most of the simulated combinations underestimate the average dry deposition velocity, but only three mechanism combinations—BN-16, BN-26, and BN-36—overestimate it. It can be seen that the average simulation deviation of BN-23 is

215   the lowest among all mechanism combinations. Compared with the default BN-11 mechanism, its average deviation is reduced from -0.0371cm/s to -0.0185cm/s, which reduces the relative deviation about 50.1%.

3.3   Implications for NO$_2$ Dry Deposition Velocity Diurnal Simulation

Although the trend simulation ability of the models is statistically weak, and the absolute difference in the average deposition velocity obtained from simultaneous results is small, we can still see that the model captures certain dry deposition

220   characteristics from the daily cycle changes. Fig. 4 uses a daily variation curve to show the simulation results of the effects of each mechanism combination on the dry deposition velocity. It can be seen that for the daily variation of NO_2 dry deposition velocity, different mechanisms still show considerable pattern differences.

The red line in Fig. 4 is the daily change in the observed value. Note the large fluctuation of its standard deviation, indicating a large fluctuation during the V_d observation period. This is because of the turbulent exchange caused by the fragmentation of

225   the boundary layer inside and outside the mountain forest canopy and the effect that the change in atmospheric stability has on the turbulence (Zhang et al., 2017). The black line in Fig. 4 is BN-11 and the green line is BN-23. It can be seen that compared to the original BN-11, BN-23 shifts the V_d simulation upward mainly during the day. At the same time, it can be seen that the standard deviation of the observations basically covers all the standard deviations of the simulation results. This reflects the stability of the models, which means that these improved mechanisms should show similar performance when transplanted to

230   other, similar types of underlying surfaces.

In addition, it is worth noting that some deposition observation studies believe that the V_d value at midday is the most noteworthy (Kavassalis and Murphy, 2017; Ke et al., 2020). Therefore, we also pay attention to the mechanism with the smallest simulation deviation at midday, which is BN-46. It can be seen that the simulated value of BN-46 is basically consistent with the V_d observation, with a bias of about 0.001cm/s.

235   Overall, the simulation of the daily variation of V_d presents four groups: the greatly underestimated group (represented by BN-55), the greatly overestimated group (represented by BN-26), the morning-higher and afternoon-lower pattern group

(represented by BN-23), and the accurate-at-noon group (represented by BN-46). The original Noah-MP-WDDM (BN-11) belongs to the same group as BN-23 because their theoretical assumptions are consistent. The appearance of this grouping is quite interesting, because it illustrates that there are relative differences in theoretical assumptions about stomatal resistance

240 and nitrogen limits for photosynthesis. Therefore, in the next section we will try from the perspective of canopy deposition resistances with the four representative combinations and the Noah-MP-WDDM default combination (BN-11), to discuss the effects of these improved scheme groups.

3.4 Comparison of Modeled Resistance Components

3.4.1 Aerodynamic and Quasi-laminar Boundary Layer Resistance

245 Since the improved mechanisms are concentrated in the canopy layer, disturbances to aerodynamic resistance (R_a) and quasi-laminar boundary layer resistance (R_b) are relatively minor. It can be seen from Fig. 5 and 6 that the other four combinations are basically the same except for BN-55. The differences in R_a between BN-55 and the other four combinations are mainly reflected during the night, about 30 s/m while the differences in R_b occur during both day and night and range about 5~10 s/m.

The disturbance to R_a is indirectly caused by the calculation of Mourning Obukhov's length (L) and friction velocity (u^*) in

250 the calculation of turbulence by the sensible and latent heat flux exchange controlled by the canopy stomata mechanism. The disturbance of R_b is only indirectly affected by the calculation of u^*.

In addition, it is worth noting that the diurnal variation of R_b is more consistent with the observed V_d, which echoes the hypothesis of turbulence exchange caused by the breakage of the inner and outer boundary layers of the mountain forest canopy and changes in atmospheric stability proposed by Zhang et al. (2017). For this reason, we hope that in the future, the model

255 will be able to express these situations by accurately expressing the forest structure.

3.4.2 Canopy Resistance

The difference in the simulation of the canopy resistance (R_c) of each improvement scheme is the main source of the difference in the simulations of the dry deposition process, as shown in Fig. 7. It can be seen that for the consistently underestimated group represented by BN-55, the underestimation of deposition velocity comes from a large overestimation of R_c, indicating that the

260 assumptions of these mechanisms are not suitable for subtropical forests as a whole. It is possible to draw inappropriate conclusions on such underlying surfaces from the source model results.

For BN-11 and BN-23, it can be seen that their theoretical hypotheses are the same, which can effectively reflect the physiological process of the increase in stomatal resistance caused by the closure of stomata at noon. The degree of stomata reopening in the afternoon is slightly weaker, which makes the diurnal dry deposition velocity curve high in the morning and low in the

265 afternoon. This is correct in a general sense, but there is a certain mismatch between the simulation and the observed results (low in the morning and high in the afternoon). We estimate that because the sample site where the flux tower of Dinghushan is located on a westward slope, the physiological activity of the vegetation canopy is weaker in the morning and stronger in the

afternoon. This indicates that for model improvement, the parameterization of the difference between sunlit and shaded leaves should be strengthened; otherwise it will be difficult to express this phenomenon.

270   It can be seen that the theoretical hypotheses for BN-26 and BN-46 are also the same, but neither can reflect the closure of stomata at noon. The difference is reflected mainly in the intensity of the decrease in R_c during the day, and the amplitude of the disturbance to the deposition velocity is greatly enhanced when the deposition resistance is lower than 1000 s/m. It can be seen from Fig. 4 and Fig. 7 that the difference in the deposition velocity curves obtained by the simulation of BN-26 and BN-46 is not yet apparent at 07:00 in the morning. At 12:00, the difference in canopy resistance, which is only about 200 s/m

275   lower, causes the BN-26 group to greatly overestimate deposition velocity. Under this series of mechanisms, the misestimation or disturbance of key parameters is likely to change the expected results.

4   Conclusions

In using Noah-MP-WDDM to study dry deposition processes, we implemented new features and applied several corrections to the code. Compared to Noah-MP-WDDM v1, the improvement of the canopy stomatal resistance mechanism and the nitrogen-

280   limiting schemes in Noah-MP-WDDM v1.42 result in much improved agreement with measurements from nitrogen dry deposition results. Our tests for Dinghushan show that Noah-MP-WDDM v1.42 now gives a better deposition velocity simulation due to modification of the canopy stomatal resistance mechanism and the nitrogen-limiting schemes for photosynthesis.

Our results emphasize the importance of the canopy stomatal carbon dioxide compensation mechanism (Leuning, 1990) and the GPP-controlled leaf nitrogen-limiting factor (Lin et al., 2000) for the simulation of nitrogen deposition. Considering

285   the combination of these two mechanisms (BN-23 schemes in Noah-MP-WDDM v1.42 instead of Noah-MP-WDDM v1), the average simulation bias is reduced about 50.1%.

Our discussion shows that the canopy stomata and leaf nitrogen-limiting mechanisms from various classic models cannot well express the diurnal changes in leaf canopy resistance, especially the underestimation in the daytime, by the combination of the (Yu et al., 2004) and (Thornton et al., 2002) mechanisms (BN-55) and the effect of the (Cao and Woodward, 1998)

290   mechanism on stomatal closure (MNM-6) at noon. This may be a source of bias in the simulation of nitrogen deposition flux by these mechanisms' source models.

Our future work will focus on applying the combination of these mechanisms to the simulation of dry deposition for other underlying surface types and other components. We hope to gain a deeper understanding of simulation performance of canopy stomata and leaf nitrogen-limiting mechanisms for dry deposition to learn more about the response and feedback of ecosystems

295   and nitrogen deposition.

Code and data availability.   The current version of model is available from the project website: https://zenodo.org/record/4756246 under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International licence. The exact version of the model used to produce the results used in this paper is archived on Zenodo (10.5281/zenodo.4756246), as all the simulation results presented on Zenodo (10.5281/zenodo.4756316).

Author contributions. MC designed the research, conducted the model development, and drafted the paper. JC performed the model simu-
lation and drafted the paper. QZ and WC did the Noah-MP-WDDM code review. GW and LW did the model output analysis. WW did the
polish work. MC was supervised directly by XW during the model development work. All authors contributed to the interpretation of the
results.

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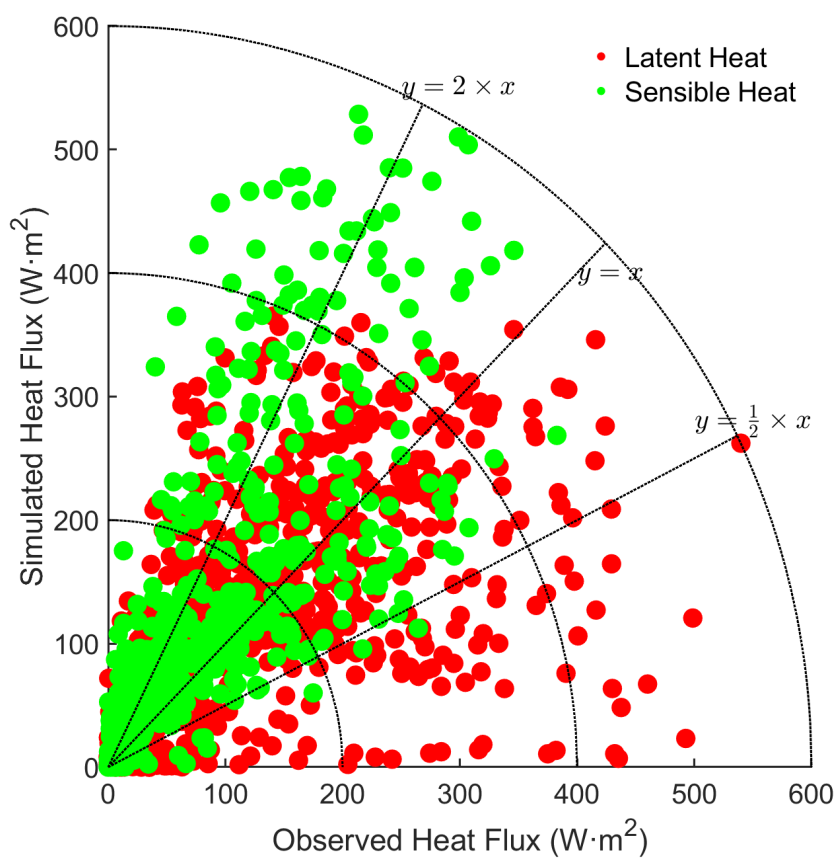
Figure 1. Comparison of observed and simulated fluxes of latent heat and sensible heat
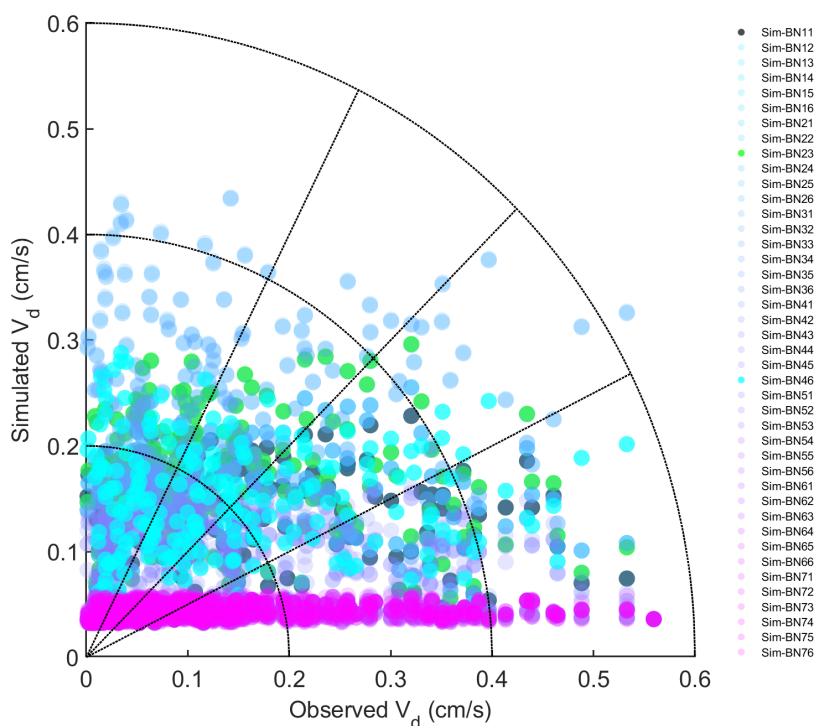
Figure 2. Comparison of observed and simulated V_d of NO_2

Table 1. The coupled stomatal conductance and resistance equation lists

Experiment code	Mechanism equation*	Reference
MBM-1	$g_s = \dfrac{1}{R_s} = m \times \dfrac{A}{C_{air}} \times \dfrac{e_{air}}{e_{sat}(T_v)} \times P_{air} + g_{min}$	Ball et al. (1987)
MBM-2	$g_s = g_0 + a \cdot A_n \dfrac{RH}{C_s - \Gamma^*}$	Leuning (1990)
MBM-3	$g_s = \dfrac{A_n \times RH}{C_s} [k_0 + k_1 \times D + k_2 \times T_1 + k_3 \times T_1 \times D]$	Aphalo and Jarvis (1993)
MBM-4	$g_s = g_0 + a \cdot \dfrac{An}{(1 + \dfrac{D}{D_0}) \cdot (C_s - \Gamma^*)}$	Leuning (1995)
MBM-5	$g_s = a \cdot \dfrac{V_{cmax} \alpha Q \eta}{V_{cmax} \alpha Q + V_{cmax} \eta C_a + \alpha Q \eta C_a} \cdot \dfrac{1}{1 + D/D_0} \cdot \dfrac{\psi - \psi_0}{\psi_m - \psi_0}$	Yu et al. (2004)
MBM-6	$g_s = g_0 + \dfrac{1}{4\eta} \cdot \dfrac{A_{net}}{C_a - C_i} \cdot f(RH, T_L)$	Ye and Yu (2008)
MBM-7	$g_s = g_0 + 1.6 \cdot (1 + \dfrac{g_1 \beta}{\sqrt{D}}) \dfrac{A}{C_s}$	Medlyn et al. (2011)

*, For the symbols in the mechanism equations, please refer to the source literature
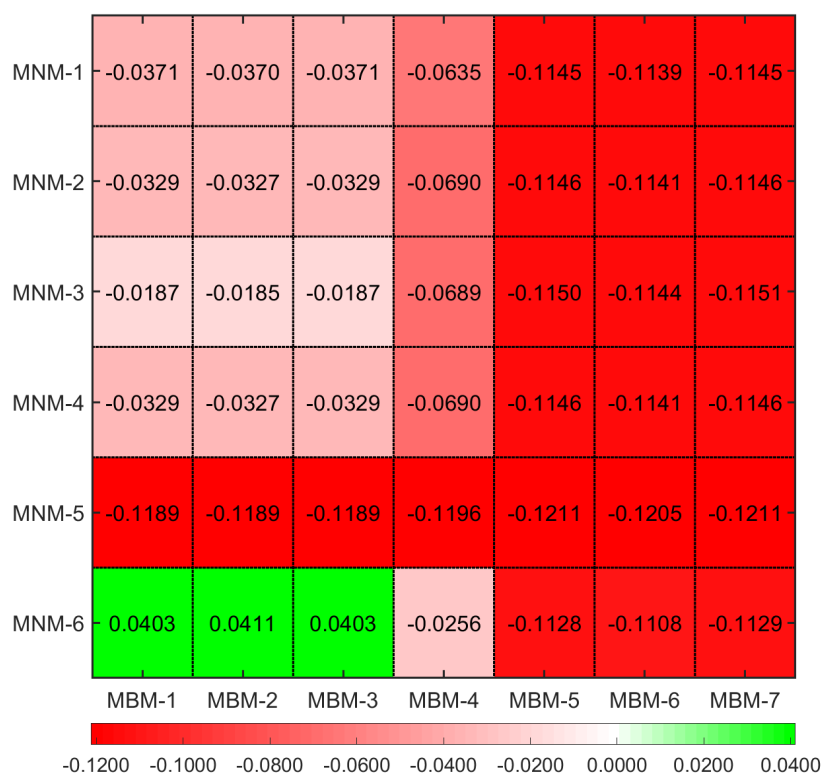
Figure 3. Mean bias of observed and simulated V_d
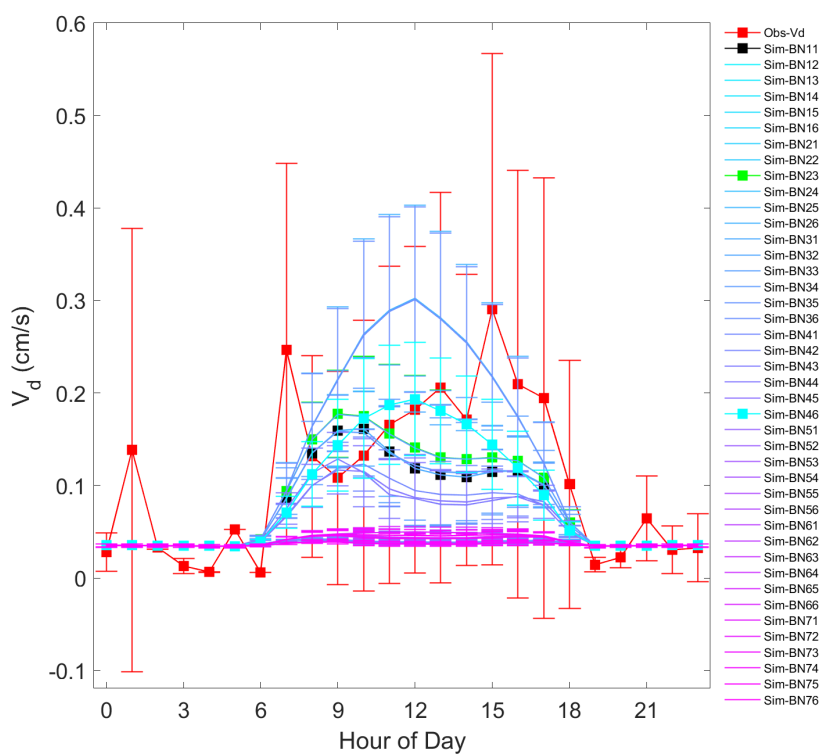
Figure 4. Diurnal variation of observed and simulated V_d
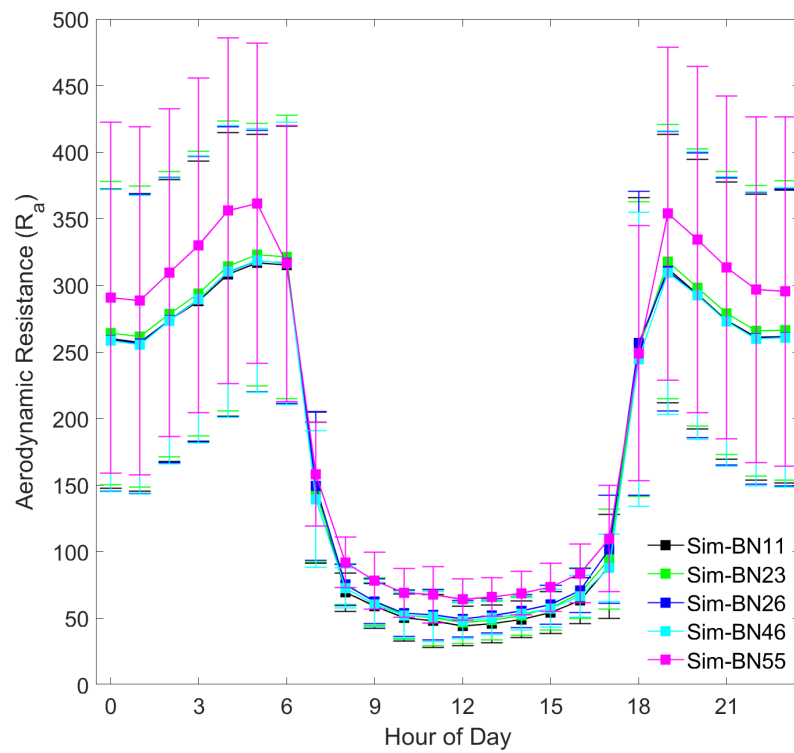
Figure 5. Diurnal variation of simulated R_a
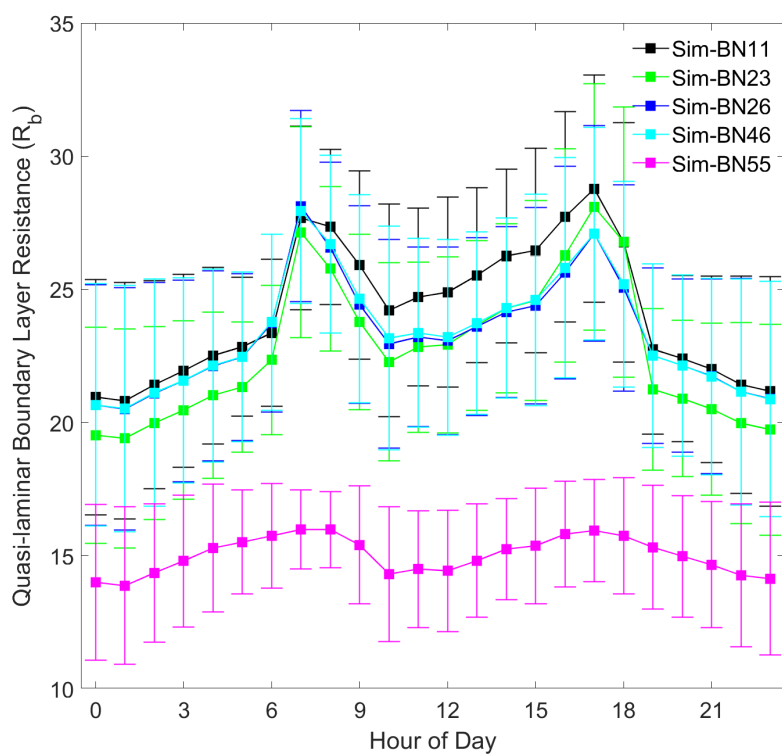
Figure 6. Diurnal variation of simulated R_b
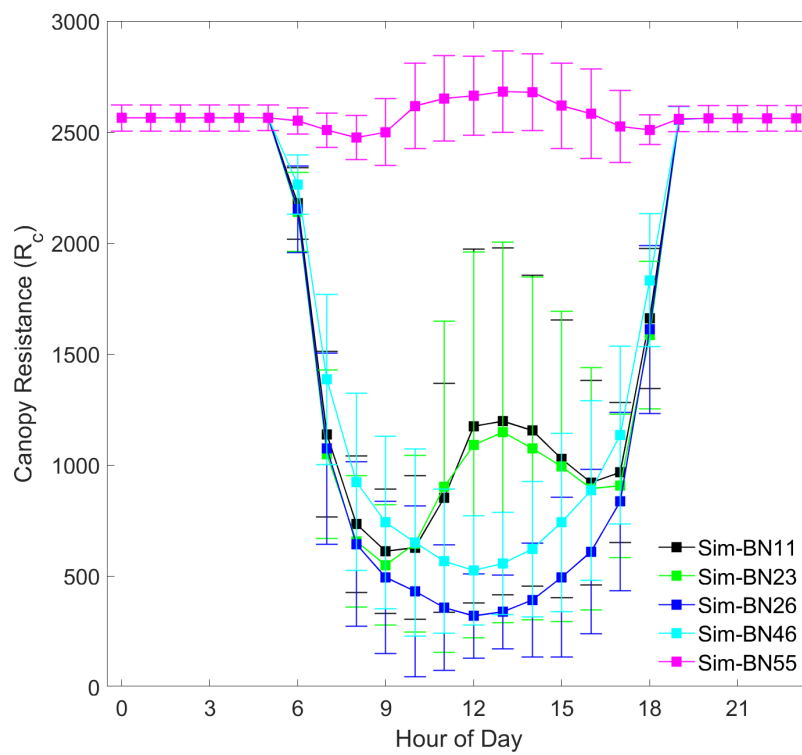
Figure 7. Diurnal variation of simulated R_c

Table 2. Nitrogen limits schemes for the photosynthesis mechanism

Experiment code	Classify	Mechanism equation*	Source models
MNM-1	Implicit	$v_{cm} = f(N) \cdot V_{cmax}$ $f(N) \in [0,1]$	Noah-MP, Noah-LSM CLM4.0, AVMIN
MNM-2	Implicit	$v_{cm} = f(N) \cdot V_{cmax}$ $f(N) = B_L \cdot B_{Vmax}$	IBIS, InTEC BEPS, DLEM
MNM-3	Implicit	$GPP = f_{GPP,N} \cdot f_{GPP,others} \cdot GPP_{max}$ $f(GPP,N) = \frac{N_{av}}{k+N_{av}}$	Lin et al. (2000)
MNM-4	Implicit	$GPP = f_{GPP,N} \cdot f_{GPP,others} \cdot GPP_{max}$ $f(GPP,N) = min(1.0, \frac{N_{av}}{\frac{NPP_{max}}{B_{max}}})$	TRIRLEX, 3-PG
MNM-5	Explicit	$v_{cm} = \frac{act \cdot f_{lnr}}{f_{inr} \cdot SLA \cdot C:N_{leaf}}$	Biome-BGC
MNM-6	Explicit	$v_{cm} = \frac{(A_b + R_d[P_c + K_c(1+\frac{P_0}{K_0})])}{P_c - 0.5P_0/\tau}$ $A_b = \frac{190 \cdot n}{360+n}$	CEVSA, Doly

*, For the symbols in the mechanism equations, please refer to the source literature

Table 3. Improved mechanism evaluation experiment scheme design

	MNM-1	MNM-2	MNM-3	MNM-4	MNM-5	MNM-6
MBM-1	BN-11*	BN-12	BN-13	BN-14	BN-15	BN-16
MBM-2	BN-21	BN-22	BN-23	BN-24	BN-25	BN-26
MBM-3	BN-31	BN-32	BN-33	BN-34	BN-35	BN-36
MBM-4	BN-41	BN-42	BN-43	BN-44	BN-45	BN-46
MBM-5	BN-51	BN-52	BN-53	BN-54	BN-55	BN-56
MBM-6	BN-61	BN-62	BN-63	BN-64	BN-65	BN-66
MBM-7	BN-71	BN-72	BN-73	BN-74	BN-75	BN-76

* Original Noah-MP-WDDM model from Zhang et al. (2017)

Table 4. Statistical results of original simulated values and observed values

Evaluation criteria	Latent heat flux	Sensible heat flux
Mean Observation	66.42	29.81
Mean Simulation	65.20	48.55
Mean Bias	-0.14	20.18
Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE)	2.36	3.12
Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)	82.29	60.64
Correlation Coefficient (R)	0.68	0.84