1	Modeling sensitivities of BVOCs to different versions of MEGAN
2	emission schemes in WRF-Chem (v3.6) and its impacts over East
3	China
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26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35	 Key points: 1. Modeling performance of BVOC and its impact over East China using different versions (v1.0, v2.0, v3.0) of Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN) in WRF-Chem(v3.6) are examined and documented. 2. Three versions of MEGAN show different sensitivity to vegetation distributions and simulate different seasonal variations of BVOC emissions over East China. 3. Temperature-dependent factor dominates the seasonal change of activity factor in all three versions of MEGAN, while the different response to the change of leaf area index determines the difference among the three versions in seasonal variation of BVOC emissions.
36 37	4. The surface ozone concentration can be significantly affected by BVOC emissions over East China, but the impact is sensitive to the MEGAN versions.

38 Abstract

Biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs) simulated by current air quality and 39 climate models still have large uncertainties, which can influence atmosphere chemistry 40 and secondary pollutant formation. These modeling sensitivities are primarily due to 41 42 two sources. One originates from different treatments in the physical and chemical processes associated with the emission rates of BVOCs. The other is errors in the 43 specification of vegetation types and their distribution over a specific region. In this 44 study, the version of Weather Research and Forecasting model coupled with Chemistry 45 (WRF-Chem) updated by the University of Science and Technology of China (USTC 46 version of WRF-Chem) from the public WRF-Chem(v3.6) is used. The modeling 47 results over East China with different versions (v1.0, v2.0, v3.0) of Model of Emissions 48 49 of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN) in WRF-Chem are examined and documented. Sensitivity experiments with these three versions of MEGAN and two 50 vegetation datasets are conducted to investigate the difference of three MEGAN 51 versions in modeling BVOCs and its dependence on the vegetation distributions. The 52 53 experiments are also conducted for spring (April) and summer (July) to examine the seasonality of the modeling results. The results indicate that MEGANv3.0 simulates the 54 largest amount of biogenic isoprene emissions over East China. The different 55 performance among MEGAN versions is primarily due to their different treatments of 56 applying emission factors and vegetation types. In particular, the results highlight the 57 importance of considering sub-grid vegetation fraction in estimating BVOCs emissions 58 over East China with large area of urbanization. Among all activity factors, 59 temperature-dependent factor dominates the seasonal change of activity factor in all 60 three versions of MEGAN, while the different response to the leaf area index (LAI) 61 change determines the difference among the three versions in seasonal variation of 62 63 BVOC emissions. The simulated surface ozone concentration due to BVOCs can be significantly different (ranging from 1 ppbv to more than 10 ppbv in some regions) 64 among the experiments with three versions of MEGAN, which is mainly due to their 65 impacts on surface VOCs and NOx concentrations. Theoretically MEGANv3.0 that is 66 coupled with the land surface scheme and considers the sub-grid vegetation effect 67 should overcome previous versions of MEGAN in WRF-Chem, However, considering 68 uncertainties of retrievals and anthropogenic emissions over East China, it is still 69 70 difficult to apply satellite retrievals of formaldehyde and/or limited sparse in-situ observations to constrain the uncertain parameters or functions in BVOCs emission 71 schemes and their impacts on photochemistry and ozone production. More accurate 72 73 vegetation distribution and measurements of biogenic emission fluxes and species concentrations are still needed to better evaluate and optimize models. 74

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79 **1. Introduction**

Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) in the atmosphere are from biogenic and 80 anthropogenic sources. Previous studies have indicated that biogenic emission is the 81 dominant source of VOCs, accounting for about 90% of total emissions at global scale 82 (Guenther et al., 1995). Biogenic VOCs (BVOCs) play a critical role in atmosphere 83 84 chemistry because some species such as isoprene and monoterpenes are reactive, and 85 can participate in atmospheric photochemical reactions. Therefore, BVOCs could have significant impact on the formation of ozone and secondary organic aerosol (SOA) and 86 87 ultimately air quality and climate change (Pierce et al., 1998; Carslaw et al., 2000; Poisson et al., 2000; Zhang et al., 2000; Carlton et al., 2009; Brown et al., 2013; Hantson 88 89 et al., 2017). Among the BVOCs species, isoprene is one of the key identified species 90 that dominates the BVOCs emissions. Global estimation also shows that biogenic isoprene emission is approximately half of total BVOCs emissions (Guenther et al., 91 2012). 92

Due to the importance of BVOCs for atmospheric environment, progress has been 93 94 made extensively in modeling BVOCs emission and its impacts regionally and globally 95 over the past several decades (Geron et al., 1994; Guenther et al., 1995; Niinemets et al., 1999; Arneth et al., 2007). BVOCs emissions are normally estimated with numerical 96 schemes, such as the Seasonal Isoprene synthase Model-Biochemical Isoprenoid 97 98 biosynthesis Model (SIM-BIM) (Lehning et al., 2001; Zimmer et al., 2003), the 99 Biogenic Emission Inventory System (BEIS)(Pierce et al., 1998), the Global Biosphere Emissions and Interactions System (GloBEIS3) (Yarwwod et al., 2002), the semi-100 empirical BVOC emission model (seBVOC) (Stewart et al., 2003), and the Model of 101 102 Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN) (Guenther, 2006; Guenther 103 et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2016; Jiang et al., 2018). MEGAN is one of the widely used 104 emission schemes for estimating BVOCs emissions under different environmental 105 conditions, and has been coupled with multiple chemical transport models to include the impact of BVOCs on air pollutants (Levis et al., 2003; Yang et al., 2011; Ghude et 106 al., 2013; Situ et al., 2013; Tie et al., 2013; Li and Xie, 2014; Forkel et al., 2015; Kota 107

et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2020). However, there still remain larger
modeling sensitivities in the estimation of BVOCs emission with MEGAN, due to the
uncertain emission rates of some compounds, the limited knowledge of environmental
activity factors controlling the BVOCs emissions, the accuracy of vegetation
distributions, and etc. (Guenther, 2013).

113 WRF-Chem (Weather Research and Forecasting model coupled with Chemistry) is an online coupled meteorology and chemistry model that can simulate meteorology 114 fields and chemical species simultaneously (Grell et al., 2005; Fast et al., 2006). The 115 MEGAN scheme is widely used for estimating biogenic emissions online with WRF-116 Chem (Jiang et al., 2012a; Wang et al., 2015; Abdi-Oskouei et al., 2018; Wei et al., 2018; 117 Arghavani et al., 2019; Safronov et al., 2019; Visser et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020; Yin et 118 al., 2020). The public versions (v4.2 and older) of WRF-Chem include the first 119 MEGAN version (referred to as MEGANv1.0 hereafter) (Guenther et al., 1995) and the 120 second version (referred to as MEGANv2.0 hereafter) (Guenther, 2006). The first 121 version is an earlier scheme with simple canopy treatment and chemical mechanism, 122 123 considering only the environmental effects from light and temperature on emission flux, and therefore is mainly used in previous studies (e.g., (Guenther et al., 1996; Derognat 124 et al., 2003) but not often in recent studies. Comparatively, MEGANv2.0 is more 125 126 commonly used for calculating the BVOC emissions with WRF-Chem recently (Geng et al., 2011; Jiang et al., 2012b; Zhang et al., 2015; Zhou et al., 2017) due to its treatment 127 of additional chemical compounds and plant types for emissions. It also considers more 128 129 complex environmental controlling processes. MEGANv2.1 (Guenther et al., 2012) 130 was recently coupled with WRF-Chem embedded in the CLM4 land surface scheme 131 (Zhao et al., 2016), so that MEGAN obtains the meteorological fields that are calculated 132 online and the consistent vegetation types from the land surface scheme. Although all these three MEGAN versions were coupled in WRF-Chem and used for estimating 133 134 BVOCs emissions, so far the difference among these MEGAN versions in terms of 135 modeling BVOCs emission and its impacts in WRF-Chem is not examined and documented. 136

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With the rapid increase in economic development during the past several decades,

138 East China has become the most prosperous and developed region of China's economy. More and more air pollutants and precursors are emitted into the atmosphere over the 139 region. Previous studies have found that BVOCs play important roles on air pollutant 140 production over East China (e.g., (Han et al., 2005; Wei et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2008; 141 Fu et al., 2010; Zheng et al., 2010; Li et al., 2015a; Li et al., 2015b). Tie et al. (2013) 142 143 found that the ozone formation was strongly VOC-limited in Shanghai of East China and its production could partly attributed to the biogenic emission of isoprene. Jiang et 144 al. (2012b) investigated the impacts of local biogenic and anthropogenic emissions to 145 the daytime mean ozone mixing ratios over East China using WRF-Chem with 146 MEGANv2.0. Geng et al. (2011) applied WRF-Chem with MEGANv2.0 for studying 147 the effect of isoprene on ozone formation in Shanghai, and they found that the BVOCs 148 from the major forest surrounded have significant impact on ozone production through 149 150 two different mechanisms. Li et al. (2017a) employed WRF-Chem with MEGANv2.0 to estimate the relative contribution of biogenic and anthropogenic sources to ozone 151 concentration over East China, and concluded that the BVOCs contributed significantly 152 153 to the background ozone concentration. Wang et al. (2019) founded that the ozone concentration in south of Shanghai can be enhanced significantly due to the mixing of 154 the emissions of BVOCs from the forest and precursors from the ships. 155

Since the WRF-Chem model with different MEGAN versions has been widely used 156 for studying the impacts of BVOCs on air quality over East China while the 157 performance of different MEGAN versions in WRF-Chem has not been examined, this 158 159 study aims to investigate the difference of MEGAN versions in terms of modeling 160 BVOCs, focusing on biogenic isoprene, and its impact on ozone concentration over 161 East China. This study updates the MEGANv2.1 coupled by Zhao et al. (2016) to the 162 latest version MEGANv3.0 (Jiang et al., 2018) (see details in Section 2.2), and analyzes the difference of WRF-Chem modeling results with MEGANv1.0, MEGANv2.0, and 163 164 MEGANv3.0. Numerical experiments are conducted for April and July of 2015 to 165 reflect the seasonal variation of biogenic isoprene emissions and its potential impacts. In order to examine the different sensitivities of MEGAN versions in WRF-Chem to 166 vegetation distributions, two land-use datasets are adopted in this study, which are 167

USGS24 (United States Geological Survey 24 categories classification) and 168 MODIS2015 (a new dataset derived from the satellite retrievals in this study 169 170 representing the land-use condition of 2015). In summary, this study documents the different performance among different versions of MEGAN and its impacts on ozone 171 and other chemical compounds, which can provide the WRF-Chem community more 172 173 comprehensive analysis to understand the mechanisms of modeling sensitivities in BVOCs among different versions of MEGAN in WRF-Chem and vegetation 174 175 distributions. The different response to seasonal change and vegetation distributions are also quantified. On the other hand, modeling sensitivity analysis also provides more 176 information about what and where to measure for better constraining the modeling of 177 BVOCs over East China. The paper is organized as following. Section 2 describes the 178 numerical experiments and methods. The results and discussions are presented in 179 180 Section 3. A summary is provided in Section 4.

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182 **2. Methodology**

183 2.1.WRF-Chem

The version of WRF-Chem updated by University of Science and Technology of 184 China (USTC version of WRF-Chem) is used in this study. Compared with the publicly 185 released version, this USTC version of WRF-Chem includes some additional functions 186 such as the MEGAN scheme implemented in the land surface model (Zhao et al., 2013a; 187 Zhao et al., 2013b; Zhao et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2016). The configuration of WRF-188 189 Chem in this study is similar to that used by (Zhao et al., 2016). In brief, the CBM-Z photochemical mechanism (Zaveri and Peters, 1999) is selected to simulate the gas-190 191 phase chemistry that contains 55 prognostic species and 134 reactions. The photolysis 192 rates is computed by the Fast-J radiation parameterization (Wild et al., 2000), and the Yonsei University (YSU) scheme (Hong et al., 2006) is for planetary boundary layer 193 (PBL) parameterization. All of the WRF-Chem simulations use the Morrison two-194 moment scheme (Morrison et al., 2009) for cloud physics, the Monin-Obukhov 195 196 similarity theory (Paulson, 1970) for surface layer, the Kain-Fritsch scheme (Kain, 2004) to simulate sub-grid scale clouds and precipitation and the rapid radiative transfer 197

parameterization (RRTMG) for both longwave and shortwave radiation (Iacono et al.,
2008). In order to show the design of experiment clearly, all configurations are listed in
Table 1.

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202 2.2 MEGAN implemented in WRF-Chem

203 MEGAN is a widely used scheme for calculating biogenic emissions from terrestrial system to atmosphere with the impact from different environmental 204 205 conditions, such as radiation, temperature, soil moisture, and leaf area. However, different versions of MEGAN implement different treatments for calculating emission 206 rates and environmental forcing, and therefore, the detailed difference of these versions 207 of MEGAN in WRF-Chem and their impacts on modeling results needs to be quantified. 208 Three versions of MEGAN (MEGANv1.0, MEGANv2.0, and MEGANv3.0) online 209 210 coupled with WRF-Chem are investigated in this study. The details about these three different versions are described below. 211

212 MEGAN in WRF-Chem estimates biogenic emission (F_i) of different chemical 213 compounds (*i*) based on emission factors (ε_i) (µg m⁻²h⁻¹), activity factors (γ_i) that 214 is controlled by environmental conditions, and the loss and production rate within the 215 plant canopy (ρ).

216
$$F_i = \varepsilon_i \times \gamma_i \times \rho \tag{1}$$

217 Where ε_i is a plant function type (PFT) weighted value that is calculated by PFT 218 specific emission factor $\varepsilon_{i,j}$ and grid box area coverage fraction $f_{PFT(j)}$ of PFT(*j*), 219 i.e., $\varepsilon_i = \sum \varepsilon_{i,j} f_{PFT(j)}$ and γ_i is the product of each activity factor such as leaf-level 220 photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD)(γ_P), temperature(γ_t), leaf area index (LAI) 221 (γ_{LAI}) and leaf age(γ_a), i.e., $\gamma_i = \gamma_{LAI} \gamma_P \gamma_t \gamma_a$

MEGANv1.0 is the first model version coupled in WRF-Chem. It considers only the response of emission to radiation and temperature. The mechanism of environmental impact is very simple compared with the later versions. For emission factors, MEGANv1.0 follows the land surface scheme with 24 land use types and prescribes emission factor for each land-use type (Fig. 2). It groups the 24 land-use types into the 6 plant categories (urban or bare soil, agriculture, grassland, deciduous
forest, mixed forest, and other natural land) for calculating biogenic emission activity
factor.

Guenther et al. (2006) introduced MEGANv2.0 that is a major update from the 230 previous version. The emission factor of BVOCs for each grid cell can be prescribed or 231 232 calculated with prescribed vegetation distribution and emission factor for each PFT. For activity factor, the impacts of PPFD, temperature, monthly LAI, leaf age, soil moisture, 233 234 and solar radiation on biogenic emissions are taken into account (Guenther et al., 2006). 235 Different from the released offline MEGANv2.0, after coupled with WRF-Chem, MEGANv2.0 reads emission factor at each grid cell for isoprene and calculate emission 236 factors for other BVOCs based on PFT's and PFT-specified emission factor at each grid 237 238 cell. The vegetation distribution at each grid cell used in MEGANv2.0 in WRF-Chem includes only 4 dominant PFT at each grid cell and is prescribed differently from the 239 one used in the land surface scheme (e.g., 24 land-use types). In addition, the 240 MEGANv2.0 coupled with the publicly released versions of WRF-Chem uses the 241 242 monthly mean surface air temperature, LAI and solar radiation from the climatological database that may not be consistent with the meteorological fields during simulation. 243

The MEGANv3.0 employed in this study is updated from MEGANv2.1 as 244 implemented by Zhao et al. (2016). Zhao et al. (2016) implemented MEGANv2.1 into 245 CLM4.0 in WRF-Chem so that biogenic emission and land surface processes can use 246 consistent distributions of meteorological fields such as land-use type, surface air 247 248 temperature, LAI, and solar radiation, which is significantly different from previous 249 versions (v1.0 and v2.0) in terms of scheme structure because the coupling of previous 250 versions of MEGAN is independent of land surface scheme. Compared to the widely 251 used MEGANv2.0 in WRF-Chem that defines emission factor as the total flux of chemical compounds, MEGANv2.1 defines emission factor as the net primary emission 252 that escaped into the atmosphere and it does not contain the downward flux of 253 254 chemicals from above canopy, as detailed in Zhao et al. (2016). In addition, 255 MEGANv2.1 can also consider sub-grid vegetation distributions, which is different from previous versions that generally apply dominant vegetation type in each grid for 256

BVOC emission calculation. The primary update in MEGANv3.0 from MEGANv2.1 257 is to consider drought activity factor as one of environmental forcing. It is implemented 258 in this study to include the effect of drought on biogenic emissions following the 259 drought feedback mechanism introduced by Jiang et al. (2018) and the technical 260 description of CLM4.0 (Oleson et al., 2010). They presented a more sophisticated 261 262 mechanistic representation of BVOCs emission in MEGAN to simulate the impact of drought on biogenic isoprene emissions. The new drought activity factor $\gamma_{d,isoprene}$ is 263 264 calculated as the following formula:

265 $\gamma_{d,isoprene} = 1$ ($\beta_t > 0.6$)

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$$\gamma_{d,isoprene} = V_{cmax}/\alpha$$
 ($\beta_t < 0.6, \alpha = 37$) (2)

where α is an empirical and regionally applicable value derived from field measurements at observation site in Missouri Ozarks AmeriFlux site (MOFLUX) to limit and modify the isoprene emission due to the drought force. Therefore, the value of α may not be suitable for China. However, due to the lack of observations in China, the default α value is used in this study. V_{cmax} is the photosynthetic enzyme activity, and β_t is the soil water stress function calculated as following:

$$273 \quad \beta_t = \sum w_i r_i \tag{3}$$

where w_i is the wilting factor based on soil water potential at each soil layer, and r_i is the fraction of roots in soil layer. More details can be found in the CLM4.0 technical notes (Oleson et al., 2010). It is noteworthy that the major difference between MEGANv3.0 and previous versions is primarily caused by the difference between MEGANv2.1 and previous versions as discussed above instead of drought effect.

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280 2.3 Vegetation distribution

281 Zhao et al. (2016) suggested that the distributions of vegetation types play an 282 important role in determining regional emissions of BVOCs with MEGAN. Two 283 vegetation datasets are used to examine the sensitivities of BVOCs emissions with 284 different MEGAN versions to vegetation distributions. One is the default land cover 285 dataset (USGS24) used in WRF-Chem (referred to as VEG-USGS hereafter), which 286 generally represents the land cover information for 1990s over East China (Loveland et 287 al., 2000). It is converted to 16-PFT data set in CLM4.0 following the table derived by Bonan (1996) as Zhao et al. (2016). Specific descriptions of legend and class of the land 288 289 cover data are listed in the Table 2. Another land cover dataset is derived from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) retrievals in 2015 (referred 290 to as VEG-2015 hereafter) and converted to 16-PFT data using the same method as 291 292 VEG-USGS, which has the horizontal resolution of 1 km over all of China. VEG-2015 were reclassified on the existing products of 2015, including GFSAD1000 (Cropland 293 294 Extent 1km Crop Dominance, Global Food-Support Analysis Data) (Thenkabail et al., 2012), and MODIS MCD12Q1 (MODIS Land Cover Type Yearly Global 500m) 295 product (Friedl et al., 2002). For MCD12Q1 product, there are six different 296 classification schemes (Gregorio, 2005), in which the two schemes of FAO (Food and 297 Agriculture Organization) LCCS (Land Cover Classification System) land cover and 298 FAO LCCS surface hydrology were used. Theoretically, VEG-2015 should be more 299 representative for the reality in 2015, particularly for East China with intensive urban 300 expansion since 2000s. 301

302 Figure 1 shows the spatial distributions of the dominant PFT within each model grid cell (see details in Section 2.4) over East China from these two vegetation datasets. 303 It is apparent that VEG-2015 is much different from VEG-USGS. The Z-shaped urban 304 belt of Yangtze River Delta region is evident in VEG-2015 but not in VEG-USGS. Not 305 only the dominant PFT but also the sub-grid distributions of PFTs are different between 306 the two datasets (not shown), all these can show that VEG-2015 is more conform with 307 308 the land cover in recent China than VEG-USGS. Table 2 illustrates the percentage of 309 each PFT averaged over the simulated domain from the two vegetation data sets. For 310 example, the fraction of needleleaf evergreen tree that is a major species of biogenic 311 emission range from 7.9% in VEG-USGS to 1.7% in VEG-2015, and the fraction of bare soil is nearly twice that of VEG-USGS. The emissions of BVOCs from MEGAN 312 could be significantly different due to this difference. The sensitivity of estimated 313 314 BVOCs emissions to these two vegetation distributions may also be different due to the different treatment of vegetation type in three versions of MEGAN used in this study. 315

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317 2.4 Numerical experiments

In this study, the simulations are conducted with a horizontal resolution of 12km 318 and 120×100 grid cells (109.3°E~125.6°E,25.4°N~36.4°N; Fig. S1 in the supporting 319 material) over East China. The simulation periods are April and July of 2015 320 representing one month of spring and summer, respectively, to reflect the seasonal 321 variation of biogenic emission. The quasi-global WRF-Chem simulation with 360×145 322 grid cells (180°W~180°E,67.5°S~77.5°N) at the 1°×1° horizontal resolution is used to 323 provide the chemical boundary condition. The meteorological initial and lateral 324 boundary conditions are obtained from the NCEP Final reanalysis (FNL) data with 1°×1° 325 resolution and updated every 6 hours. The modeled u and v component wind and 326 327 temperature in atmosphere above the planetary boundary layer are nudged towards the NCEP Final reanalysis data with a 6-hour timescale (Stauffer and Seaman, 1990). In 328 this way, the simulated key meteorological fields (e.g., surface temperature, 329 330 precipitation, surface net solar radiation, and soil moisture) are close to the FNL reanalysis data (Fig. S2-S5 in the supporting material), which sets the base for further 331 332 investigating the impacts of different MEGAN versions. There are a few days in July 333 when the simulated surface solar radiation fluxes have positive biases, which may be due to the biases of clouds and the ignorance of aerosol radiative impacts in the 334 simulations. The nudged simulations also guarantee that the difference in simulated 335 BVOCs is from the difference in MEGAN versions instead of the meteorological 336 difference. 337

Anthropogenic emissions for these simulations are obtained from the Hemispheric 338 Transport of Air Pollution verison-2 (HTAPv2) at 0.1°×0.1° horizontal resolution and 339 340 monthly temporal resolution for 2010 (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2015), while the Multi-resolutions Emission Inventory for China (MEIC) at 0.1°×0.1° horizontal 341 resolution for 2015 (Li et al., 2017b; Li et al., 2017c) is used to replace the emissions 342 over China within the simulation domain. Biomass burning emissions are obtained from 343 the Fire Inventory from NCAR (FINN) at 1 km horizontal resolution and hourly 344 temporal resolution (Wiedinmyer et al., 2011) and follow the injection heights proposed 345

by Dentener et al. (2006) in the Aerosol Comparison between Observations and Models 346 (AeroCom) and the diurnal variation provided by WRAP (2005). The GOCART dust 347 348 emission scheme (Ginoux et al., 2001) is used to calculated the vertical dust flux, and the dust particles emitted into atmosphere are distributed by the MOSAIC aerosol size 349 bins based on the physics of scale-invariant fragmentation of brittle materials provided 350 351 by Kok (2011). Sea-salt emissions are similar to Zhao et al. (2013a), which corrected particles with radius less than 0.2 µm and considered the dependence of the temperature 352 353 of sea surface. More details about the sea-salt emissions and dust emission scheme coupled with MOSAIC aerosol scheme in WRF-Chem can be found in (Zhao et al., 354 2010). Soil and lightning NOx sources are not included in this study. 355

In order to investigate the sensitivities of simulated biogenic isoprene emissions 356 by different versions of MEGAN to different vegetation distributions, as mentioned 357 above, multiple experiments are conducted with different vegetation datasets and 358 MEGAN versions, as summarized in Table 3. First of all, three experiments are 359 conducted with the USGS vegetation distribution (VEG-USGS) using different 360 361 versions of MEGAN embedded in WRF-Chem as discussed above, i.e., MEGANv1.0 (Mv1-USGS), MEGANv2.0 (Mv2-USGS), and MEGANv3.0 (Mv3-USGS). The 362 sensitivities of biogenic emissions to different versions of MEGAN can be explored by 363 comparing these three experiments. Second, another three experiments are conducted 364 similar to the former ones but the VEG-USGS dataset is replaced by the VEG-2015 365 dataset, i.e., Mv1-2015, Mv2-2015, and Mv3-2015, respectively. By comparing these 366 367 two sets of experiments, the impacts of the two vegetation distributions on the simulated BVOC emissions with each version of MEGAN can be investigated. These six 368 369 experiments are conducted for both April and July. The seasonal variation of the sensitivities of BVOC emissions to different MEGAN versions and vegetation 370 distributions can be explored through the simulations for these two months. 371

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373 **3. Results**

374 **3.1 Biogenic isoprene emission**

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375 **3.1.1 Sensitivity to emission schemes and vegetation distributions**

Figure 3 shows the spatial distributions of biogenic isoprene emission averaged in 376 377 April for six simulations with different vegetation datasets and biogenic emission schemes. First of all, with the same vegetation dataset of USGS, large differences exist 378 among the results from these three versions of emission scheme. In terms of domain 379 380 average, MEGANv2.0 simulates the highest isoprene emission among the three versions, MEGANv3.0 follows, and MEGANv1.0 simulates the lowest, especially over 381 382 the northwest of the simulation domain. It can also be noticed that the spatial distributions of biogenic isoprene emission are different among the versions. To 383 illustrate better the difference, two focused areas (denoted by the red and black boxes 384 in Fig. 3) in the simulation domain are selected for further analysis. Over the southwest 385 region of domain (denoted by the black box), the averaged biogenic isoprene emission 386 in Mv1-USGS is below 0.2 mole/km²/hr, and it is about 1.0 mole/ km²/hr and 3.1 387 mole/km²/hr from the Mv3-USGS and Mv2-USGS simulations, respectively. Over the 388 southeast region of domain (denoted by the red box), similarly, the MEGANv2.0 389 390 simulates the highest biogenic isoprene emission among the three versions and MEGAN v1.0 estimates more emissions than MEGAN v3.0. 391

Over the southwest region of domain, for MEGAN v1.0, irrigated cropland (the 392 3rd land use type in VEG-USGS), cropland with grassland mosaic (the 5th), and 393 savanna (the 10th) are the dominant land use types over the southwest region (Fig. 1), 394 which have low emission factors (as shown in Fig. 2). For MEGAN v3.0, crop and grass 395 are the dominant PFTs over the region, but some temperate needle-leaf evergreen trees 396 that have higher emission factor of about 3 mg isoprene/ m^2 /hr (as shown in Fig. 2) are 397 also included in this area (Fig. 1). The different vegetation distributions lead to the 398 overall emission factors are different between MEGANv1.0 and MEGANv3.0 (Fig. 4). 399 Therefore, MEGAN v3.0 simulated more biogenic isoprene emissions than MEGAN 400 v1.0 (0.88 mole/km²/hr versus 0.42 mole/km²/hr) over this region. Over the southeast 401 region domain, the dominant land use type is cropland with woodland mosaic (the 6^{th}) 402 that has high emission factor of about 2 mg isoprene/ m^2 /hr and irrigated cropland in 403 MEGAN v1.0. By contrast, the PFTs in MEGAN v3.0 is crop and has lower emission 404

factor. This leads to larger overall emission factor in MEGANv1.0 than in MEGANv3.0 405 over this region. Therefore, MEGANv1.0 calculates more biogenic isoprene emissions 406 than MEGANv3.0 (1.08 mole/km²/hr versus 0.65 mole/km²/hr) over the area. In 407 general, the difference between MEGANv1.0 and MEGANv3.0 with the same USGS 408 land-use dataset is mainly due to the conversion of the USGS land-use to PFT that leads 409 410 to different vegetation types with different emission factors in each grid. For MEGANv2.0, the emission factor of isoprene is obtained from the input database 411 412 directly in WRF-Chem, and it is the highest among the three versions of MEGAN (Fig. 4). Therefore, MEGANv2.0 simulates the most biogenic isoprene emissions over the 413 two analyzed regions among the three different versions independent of the vegetation 414 coverage (will be discussed below). 415

In terms of the modeling sensitivities to vegetation distributions (i.e., VEG-416 USGS versus VEG-2015), as discussed above, with prescribed emission factor of 417 isoprene at each grid cell, the isoprene emission from MEGANv2.0 in WRF-Chem does 418 not change much with different vegetation distributions except some small perturbation 419 420 due to the impacts of vegetation distributions on meteorological fields. Over the southwest of domain, the averaged biogenic isoprene emission with VEG-2015 is 421 higher (0.68 mole/km²/hr and 2.25 mole/km²/hr) than that (0.42 mole/km²/hr and 0.88 422 mole/km²/hr) with VEG-USGS for both MEGANv1.0 and MEGANv3.0 due to the 423 increased fraction of needle-leaf evergreen tree and mixed forest over this area (Fig. 1) 424 in VEG-2015, and these land use types have higher emission factors (Fig. 2) than 425 426 croplands in VEG-USGS. Over the southeast, the vegetation coverage is significantly reduced from VEG-2015 to VEG-USGS due to the rapid development in economic and 427 428 urban expansion over the region in last two decades. Therefore, for MEGANv1.0, the averaged isoprene emission from Mv1-2015 is lower (0.39 mole/km²/hr) than that (1.08 429 mole/km²/hr) from Mv1-USGS, consistent with the lower overall emission factor with 430 VEG-2015 compared to VEG-USGS in MEGANv1.0 (Fig. 4). However, it is 431 noteworthy that, for MEGANv3.0, the isoprene emission from Mv3-2015 is higher 432 (1.12 mole/km²/hr) than that (0.65 mole/km²/hr) from Mv3-USGS. The different 433 sensitivities of the two versions to the vegetation changes are mainly due to their 434

different treatments of sub-grid vegetation distribution as discussed in Sect. 2.2, i.e.,
MEGANv3.0 considers sub-grid vegetation distribution besides the dominant
vegetation type at each grid cell when estimating the BVOCs emissions, while
MEGANv1.0 only considers the dominant vegetation type at each grid cell.

To further demonstrate the impact of sub-grid distribution of vegetation in 439 440 MEGANv3.0, Figure 5 shows the difference of major sub-grid fraction of PFT other than the dominant one over the southeast region of domain within the red box between 441 442 VEG-2015 and VEG-USGS. Although the dominant vegetation types are crops, grass, and bare soil over the region (Fig. 1), the sub-grid fractions of needle-leaf evergreen 443 tree, broad-leaf evergreen tree, and broad-leaf deciduous tree that have relatively higher 444 emission factors (Fig. 2) are higher in VEG-2015 than in VEG-USGS. As shown in Fig. 445 4, the overall emission factor $\varepsilon_{i,i}$ weighted by sub-grid PFT fractions is higher with 446 VEG-2015 than with VEG-USGS from MEGANv3.0. It highlights that the sub-grid 447 vegetation distribution is important in terms of estimating BVOC emissions over this 448 region, which results in more biogenic isoprene emission in MEGANv3.0 than 449 450 MEGANv1.0 with the latest vegetation distribution dataset (i.e., VEG-2015).

451

452 **3.1.2 Environmental impacts**

Besides emission factor, biogenic emission is also influenced by activity factor 453 that is largely controlled by environmental conditions. The activity factor mainly 454 accounts for the response of biogenic emission to temperature, leaf age, soil moisture, 455 456 solar radiation, leaf area index, and drought in the three versions of MEGAN in WRF-457 Chem. The seasonal variations (July versus April) of simulated biogenic emissions by 458 different versions of MEGAN with VEG-2015 are investigated to demonstrate the 459 environmental impacts and their difference among MEGAN versions. Please note that emission factors are not dependent on seasons. Figure 6 shows the ratios of monthly 460 461 averaged biogenic isoprene emission and overall activity factor (γ_i) between July and 462 April from three versions of MEGAN with the VEG-2015 vegetation dataset. Only the simulation results with VEG-2015 are analyzed here due to the similar results with 463 VEG-USGS (not shown). It is evident that the ratios are all greater than one, which 464

means much more isoprene is emitted into atmosphere by plant in July than in April.
The seasonal variations of magnitudes and the distributions of activity factors are
consistent with those of emissions. Among different versions, MEGANv3.0 is most
sensitive to environmental conditions, especially over the north of domain between
32°N and 36°N.

470 The overall activity factor is the product of the factors determined by temperature, LAI, solar radiation, leaf age, and drought condition in MEGANv2.0 and MEGANv3.0 471 472 while it is an overall function of temperature and solar radiation in MEGANv1.0 that cannot be separated as isolated factors. Therefore, for MEGAN v2.0 and MEGAN v3.0, 473 the ratios of isolated activity factors responding to temperature, LAI, solar radiation, 474 leaf age, and drought between July and April are further illustrated in Figure 7. The 475 temperature-dependent activity factor (γ_t) plays an important role in the seasonal 476 change of total activity factor, especially in the north of simulation domain, which is 477 about 3.0~4.0 and >4.0 in MEGANv2.0 and MEGANv3.0, respectively, which means 478 that MEGAN predicts higher biogenic isoprene emission in warmer environment. 479 480 Guenther (2006) also point that the temperature-dependent activity factor increases evidently with temperature. 481

There are two activity factors associated with leaves. One is related to the emission 482 dependence of absolute values of LAI (γ_{LAI}) , which has the most different 483 distributions among all activity factors in two versions. The ratio in MEGAN v3.0 is 484 above 4 and < 2 in MEGAN v2.0 over the most part of simulation domain. It is 485 486 noteworthy that the ratio is below 1 in MEGAN v2.0 in the north of the domain while 487 it is more than 4 in MEGAN v3.0, that dominant the difference between July and April. 488 Figure 8 shows the change of activity factor for LAI as a function of LAI value used in 489 MEGAN v2.0 and MEGAN v3.0, respectively. It is evident that the estimated LAI 490 activity factors in both versions increase with the LAI values, but with different 491 increasing rates. In general, MEGANv3.0 has the faster increasing rate. Please note, as 492 discussed previously in Sect. 2.2, MEGAN v3.0 obtains the LAI online from the land surface scheme directly that can capture the seasonal change well, while MEGAN v2.0 493 obtains it from climatological monthly mean input dataset that is different from the one 494

495 used in the land surface scheme in WRF-Chem. Figure 9 shows the distributions of LAI 496 in MEGAN v2.0 and MEGAN v3.0 in different months. For MEGAN v2.0, LAI has 497 almost no change from April to July, particularly over the northern simulation domain, 498 while for MEGAN v3.0, the LAI increases evidently over the whole domain, especially 499 over the north. Therefore, the ratio of γ_{LAI} between July and April is around one in 500 MEGANv2.0, while it is much larger than one in MEGANv3.0.

The second is related to the leaf age (γ_a) that also has quite different distributions 501 502 between MEGANv2.0 and MEGANv3.0. For MEGAN v2.0, the ratio is about 1~3 in the most area while it below 1.0 between 30°N and 34°N, and more than 2 in the 503 northwest of simulation domain. For MEGAN v3.0, the ratio is above 1.0 over the 504 505 whole domain and the distribution has significant regional difference. It is $1 \sim 1.3$ in the south region while more than 2 in the north region. Generally speaking, leaf's ability to 506 507 emit biogenic isoprene is significantly influenced by leaf phenology. Young leaves emit almost no isoprene, mature leaves emit mostly, and old leaves lose ability to produce 508 biogenic isoprene eventually (Guenther et al., 2006). Therefore, plants emit more 509 510 isoprene into atmosphere in July than in April because of more mature leaves due to the plant growth. Activity factor for leaf age is a function of the relative change of emission 511 activity and the fraction of leaves at different phenological stages that are determined 512 by the difference of LAI in current and previous month, introduced by Jiang et al. 513 (2018). In both versions of MEGAN, mature and old foliage have highest relative 514 isoprene emission activity, following by the growing foliage and the new foliage is the 515 516 lowest. Therefore, MEGAN v3.0 produce higher leaf age activity factor in July because 517 of the larger difference of LAI in different month and more mature foliage to emit 518 isoprene (Fig. 9).

The distribution of the ratio of light-dependent activity factor (γ_P) is also different between the two versions. Light-dependent activity factor (γ_P) is a function of PPFD and activity of isoprene synthase, and is dominated by the variation of PPFD. In general, plants often have higher light-dependent activity factor in July than that in April due to the stronger radiation. For MEGAN v2.0, it is about 1~1.5 over the whole domain and has no significant regional difference. For MEGAN v3.0, the ratio is below 1 in the south of the domain while it is about 1.3~1.5 or more than 2 in the north of the
domain. MEGAN v3.0 considered the difference of sunlit and shaded leaves and PPFD
will be low on shaded leaves in dense canopy because of the blocking sunlight.
Therefore, MEGAN v3.0 calculated low light-depend activity factor in the south of the
domain due to the distribution of mixed forest which has dense canopy in summer.

The seasonal variation of drought-dependent activity factor ($\gamma_{d,isoprene}$) is only 530 included in MEGANv3.0 with the ratios of 1~3 over the domain. Previous studies have 531 532 shown that plants emit more isoprene into atmosphere under short-term mild drought stress (e.g., Jiang et al., 2018). The reduction of stomatal conductance is accompanied 533 with the increase in leaf temperature resulting in the more isoprene emissions from 534 plants (Jiang et al., 2018). As mentioned in the methodology, the empirical coefficient 535 536 α of 37 is applied for drought activity factor calculation following Jiang et al. (2018) in 537 this study due to the lack of observation and experiment constraint over China. To examine its potential effect on calculating drought activity factor in China, sensitivity 538 experiments are conducted with different values of α . The results indicate that the value 539 540 of α has small effect on the seasonal variation and the spatial distribution of drought activity factor over East China (Fig. S6 in the supporting material), which is consistent 541 with Jiang et al. (2018) that also stated the drought effect on seasonal change of isoprene 542 emissions in China was not evident. In addition, as discussed in the Section 2.2, 543 drought-dependent activity factor is proportional to photosynthetic enzyme activity, 544 which can be affected by PPFD. Therefore, MEGAN v3.0 estimated more isoprene 545 546 emissions in July especially in the north of domain and the pattern is similar to the 547 distribution of light-depend activity factor.

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- 549 **3.1.3 Comparison with observations**

550 The results discussed above show the difference in modeling biogenic emissions 551 of isoprene. The difference of simulated near-surface isoprene concentrations is similar 552 as their emissions (not shown here). It will be optimal to compare the simulated 553 isoprene emissions and concentrations from different experiments with observations. 554 However, as far as we know, the publicly available in-situ measurements of isoprene emissions and concentrations over East China is extremely sparse. Only limited observations can be collected from published literatures and unpublished data over both rural and urban areas of East China for comparison with the results of different experiments as listed in Table 4.

In general, the simulated isoprene concentrations from MEGANv2.0 and 559 560 MEGANv3.0 are closer to measurements in these four sites listed in Table 4 while MEGANv1.0 generally underestimates the observed values. Compared with the limited 561 562 observations, MEGANv2.0 produces higher isoprene concentrations in most sampling sites except the site of Lishui-District surrounded with the densely vegetation-covered 563 suburb. As discussed above, MEGANv3.0 can simulate higher biogenic isoprene 564 565 emissions in urban area due to its consideration of sub-grid vegetation distributions, At the sampling sites in urban area, such as the sites of Xujiahui, Shanghai, and Nanjing, 566 567 the simulation with MEGANv3.0 produces higher surface concentration of isoprene compared to that with MEGANv1.0. In MEGANv2.0, the prescribed vegetation 568 distributions do not reflect the urbanization over East China. Therefore, the simulated 569 570 isoprene concentrations between these two versions are comparable. Overall, the experiments with MEGANv2.0 and MEGANv3.0 may simulate better surface 571 concentration of isoprene over East China than that with MEGANv1.0. Please note that 572 573 these observations were collected at different sites for different periods. Ideally, the observations at multiple sites or from aircraft for a specific period are needed to 574 evaluate overall model performance of BVOCs over a region (e.g., Zhao et al., 2016). 575 576 It is difficult to evaluate effectively any simulations with those observations listed in 577 Table 4.

Besides in-situ and aircraft measurements, satellite retrieved column integrated formaldehyde is often used for evaluating modeling results of VOCs over a large area. Tropospheric formaldehyde vertical column concentrations have been retrieved from the Ozone Mapping and Profiler Suite (OMPS) (Abad et al., 2016), which is one of the instruments onboard the Suomi National Polar-orbiting Partnership (Suomi-NPP). The satellite flies on a sun-synchronous polar orbit with daily global coverage and measurements are combined into 35 cross-track bins giving a spatial resolution of 50

585 km×50 km. It crosses the equator around 13:30 local solar time in the ascending mode. (Su et al. 2019, Su et al. 2020). Figure 10 shows the monthly mean total tropospheric 586 587 column concentration of formaldehyde from the satellite retrievals and the simulations with different versions of MEGAN in April and July. In general, the simulated 588 tropospheric column concentrations of formaldehyde are consistent with satellite 589 590 retrievals in April, showing high column formaldehyde concentration over the Yangtze River Delta region and South China. The formaldehyde concentrations are contributed 591 592 comparably by both anthropogenic and biogenic sources over these two regions, and the biogenic source contributes about 20% to the total in April (Fig. S7 in the supporting 593 material). Although there are some small differences in formaldehyde column 594 concentrations in April among the simulations with different MEGAN versions, 595 596 consistent with the comparison of biogenic emissions (Fig. 3), it is difficult to apply the satellite retrievals to constrain their small difference if considering the uncertainties of 597 retrievals. In July, the difference among the simulations with different MEGAN 598 versions is much larger. Compared to the satellite retrievals, the simulation with 599 600 MEGANv1.0 (MEGANv3.0) may underestimate (overestimate) tropospheric formaldehyde column concentrations. These biases may reflect their errors in biogenic 601 emissions. The large difference between MEGANv2.0 and MEGANv3.0 in July may 602 indicate that some activity factors controlling seasonal variation of BVOCs emissions 603 is less appropriate in MEGANv3.0 than in MEGANv2.0. However, please note that 604 satellite retrievals of formaldehyde may also have relatively large uncertainties in July 605 606 (e.g., Su et al., 2019; Su et al., 2020) and the uncertainties of anthropogenic emissions 607 of VOCs may also contribute to the modeling biases of formaldehyde.

Through the sensitivity analysis and comparison with satellite retrievals, activity factors corresponding to temperature and LAI are most important for seasonal variation of BVOCs. The different functions of activity factor for LAI in MEGANv2.0 and MEGANv3.0 need to be constrained with observations. The empirical coefficient for calculating drought activity factor also need to be constrained for China with more laboratory and field experiments. Therefore, high-quality direct observations of BVOCs emissions or concentrations for different season at multiple sites or from aircrafts in

both rural and urban areas of East China are definitely needed to evaluate overall model 615 performance of BVOCs over the region. Satellite retrieval of formaldehyde alone is still 616 617 difficult to constrain uncertain parameters or functions in BVOCs emission scheme, particularly over the regions like China. The modeling sensitivity analysis also suggests 618 some specific areas, such as the Anhui and Henan provinces in the north of domain, 619 620 that particularly need more reliable observations of BVOCs to constrain the large modeling sensitivities. 621

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3.2 Impacts on mixing ratio of VOCs and ozone

Difference in emissions of BVOCs from multiple versions of MEGAN can 624 influence the simulated mixing ratio of VOCs over East China that can further 625 significantly affect ozone production through photochemistry (Wei et al., 2007; Bao et 626 al., 2010; Calfapietra et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2018; Lu et al., 2019). 627 The photochemistry is most active in summer, therefore, the simulation results in July 628 with the latest vegetation coverage (VEG-2015) are analyzed here. Figure 11 shows the 629 630 distributions of total VOCs and HCHO concentrations near the surface contributed by the BVOCs emissions simulated by the model with different versions of MEGAN using 631 VEG-2015 in July. The concentrations of species contributed by biogenic emissions are 632 estimated through calculating the difference between the control simulation and the 633 simulation without biogenic emissions. It is evident that BVOCs contribute 634 significantly, 25% and 35% on average, to the amount of total VOCs and formaldehyde, 635 636 respectively, over East China, and the difference among the simulations with the three 637 versions of MEGAN is large (Fig. S8 in the supporting material). The simulation with 638 MEGANv3.0 produces the highest biogenic VOCs concentration (> 20 ppb), followed 639 by MEGANv2.0 (10-20 ppb), and the one with MEGAN v1.0 is the lowest (< 5 ppb), particularly over the northern region. In terms of spatial distribution, the simulation 640 with MEGANv3.0 generates higher biogenic VOCs concentration over the north of 641 domain, while the ones with the other two versions of MEGAN generate higher 642 concentration over the south, which is consistent with the spatial distributions of the 643 total biogenic emissions simulated by different MEGAN versions in WRF-Chem (Fig. 644

S9 in the supporting material). The spatial distributions of simulated biogenic
contribution to the surface formaldehyde concentration are consistent with those of
biogenic VOCs.

The significantly increased amounts of biogenic VOCs may induce the increase of 648 surface ozone concentration over East China (Zhao et al., 2009). Figure 12 649 demonstrates the spatial distribution of monthly mean ozone mixing ratio near the 650 surface contributed by the emissions of BVOCs. The simulation with MEGANv3.0 651 652 produces the largest amount of biogenic ozone over a large area of the simulation domain. The biogenic ozone from the simulation with MEGANv3.0 is estimated over 653 8 ppb while it is 2~5 ppb from the one with MEGAN v2.0 and less than 1 ppb from the 654 one with MEGANv1.0. For MEGANv1.0 and MEGAN v3.0, the distributions of 655 surface biogenic ozone concentration is consistent with those of biogenic VOCs, for 656 657 example, MEGAN v3.0 estimated more biogenic VOCs over the north of the domain while ozone concentration is also simulated higher in the same region. For MEGAN 658 v2.0, it is evident that the ozone formation is not influenced by biogenic VOCs solely. 659 660 The ozone production can be determined by the changes of both VOCs and NOx concentrations, and the production efficiency can be different for NO_x-sensitive region 661 and VOCs-sensitive region (e.g., Zhao et al., 2009). 662

Figure 13 shows the surface concentrations of NO_x due to the biogenic emissions 663 simulated with three versions of MEGAN with VEG-2015. The results are calculated 664 as the difference between simulations with and without biogenic emissions. The 665 666 simulations with MEGANv3.0 estimate the highest BVOCS-contributed concentration change, especially over the north of domain (>2 ppb), followed by MEGAN v2.0 (0.2-667 668 0.4ppb), and MEGAN v1.0 simulated lowest concentration (about 0.1ppb and below 0). 669 The different changes of surface NOx concentrations are mainly caused by the different impacts on NOx lifetime due to biogenic VOCs. The increase of surface NOx 670 concentration is due to the BVOC-induced increase of NOx lifetime reflected by the 671 672 reduction of surface OH concentration (Fig. S10 in the supporting material). Therefore, the increase of ozone contributed by biogenic emissions in the north of the domain 673 (30°N-36°N) simulated with MEGANv2.0 is due to the combined effect of increased 674

NO_x and VOCs surface concentrations. It is also noteworthy that the surface ozone concentrations are simulated lower over the southeast of domain than that in the southwest with the three versions of MEGAN, while the surface concentrations of BVOCs have no significant difference between the two regions. This is mainly due to that the southwest is more sensitive to VOCs in terms of ozone production (Fig. S11 in the supporting material) (e.g., Zhao et al., 2009).

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682 **4. Summary and conclusion**

In this study, three versions of MEGAN in WRF-Chem and their difference in 683 simulating BVOC emissions and impacts on ozone mixing ratio over East China is 684 685 documented in the literature for the first time. The latest version of MEGAN v3.0 is coupled within CLM4 land scheme as a part of WRF-Chem. Specifically, MEGAN v3.0 686 is updated from MEGAN v2.1 as an option in biogenic emission schemes and can share 687 the consistent vegetation map and other variables with CLM4 such as surface 688 689 temperature and leaf area index. What's more, MEGAN v3.0 includes the activity factor 690 for drought and the combination of different versions of MEGAN and CLM4 are 691 employed to investigate the sensitivity of the variation of MEGAN versions. Experiments are conducted for April and July over Eastern China with VEG-USGS and 692 VEG-2015 to study the sensitivities of simulated BVOCs by different MEGAN 693 versions in WRF-Chem to seasonal change and the distributions of vegetation. The 694 main conclusions are summarized below. 695

696 Physical and chemical processes in these three versions of MEGAN implemented in WRF-Chem are different, and the most intuitive distinction is their different 697 698 treatments of emission factor of BVOCs. MEGANv1.0 prescribed constant values for different land use categories at each grid cell, and MEGANv2.0 has a stand-alone PFT 699 700 specific emission factor map. For MEGAN v3.0, the overall emission factor at each 701 grid cell is calculated by PFT-specific emission factor and the fraction of each PFT. Therefore, the biogenic isoprene emissions estimated by three versions of MEGAN are 702 different over the simulation domain. The VEG-USGS and VEG-2015 datasets present 703

quite different distributions of vegetation coverage, which also contributes to the 704 difference of emission factors among different versions. Different versions of MEGAN 705 706 show different sensitivities to the changes of vegetation distributions due to their different treatments of vegetation fraction in estimating emission factors of BVOCs. 707 The results highlight the importance of considering sub-grid vegetation fraction in 708 estimating BVOCs emissions. MEGANv3.0 with sub-grid vegetation distribution 709 simulates higher BVOCs emissions over the urban area of the Yangtze River Delta 710 711 (YRD) region compared to MEGANv2.0 with only the dominant vegetation type at 712 each grid cell.

Activity factor plays an important role in determining the seasonal change of 713 BVOCs emissions. Simulations with different versions of MEGAN show different 714 seasonal variation of activity factors and thus BVOCs emissions. The results indicated 715 716 that overall activity factor in July is higher than the one in April in all versions of MEGAN, and MEGAN v3.0 is most sensitive to the seasonal change especially in the 717 north of simulation domain. In general, among all activity factors, temperature-718 719 dependent factor dominates the seasonal change of activity factor in all three versions of MEGAN, while the different response to the LAI change determines the difference 720 among the three versions in seasonal variation of BVOC emissions. The additional 721 drought-dependent activity factor in MEGANv3.0 can result in a little higher BVOC 722 emission over East China in July than April due to the increasing photosynthetic 723 enzyme activity, i.e., plants emit more biogenic isoprene in July than that in April under 724 725 the short-term mild drought forcing. The overall drought impact on BVOC emissions 726 over East China is small as previous studies (e.g., Jiang et al., 2018).

Different BVOCs simulated with the three versions of MEGAN in WRF-Chem lead to the large difference in ozone production. The simulation with MEGANv3.0 produces the highest BVOCs contributed ozone concentration (> 8 ppbv) over East China among the three versions, followed by the simulations with MEGANv2.0 and MEGAN v1.0. The difference of BVOCs contributed ozone among the simulations with three versions of MEGAN is not only affected by the increased concentration of BVOCs but also influenced by the changes of NOx concentration. The simulations with different versions of MEGAN show different distributions of surface NOx
concentration due to the BVOCs-induced changes of NOx lifetime. The production
efficiency of surface ozone concentration over East China due to BVOCs also depends
on the regions as NO_x-sensitive or VOCs-sensitive regions.

Although the analysis in this study is for one single year, the investigation of 738 simulations for a different year demonstrates similar results (not shown), which indicate 739 the modeling sensitivities with different versions of MEGAN do not change 740 741 significantly with years. This study highlights that the simulated emissions of BVOC over East China is sensitive to vegetation coverage, which has also been found by 742 previous studies (e.g., Klinger et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2007). However, this study 743 further demonstrates that the modeling sensitivity to vegetation coverage could be quite 744 different depending on the BVOC emission schemes. Some studies also showed that 745 BVOC emissions can be more than 50% higher in summer than in other seasons (e.g., 746 Li et al., 2020), which may be also sensitive to the formulas of emission activity factors 747 in different emission algorithms as discussed in this study. Large modeling sensitivities 748 749 in simulating BVOCs emission over East China still exist as reflected by different versions of the MEGAN, consistent with previous studies that found the off-line 750 calculation with different versions of MEGAN led to significantly different BVOC 751 752 emissions over China. Although it is evident that surface ozone concentration can be significantly influenced by BVOC emissions over East China through affecting VOCs, 753 OH, and NOx and the BVOC impact is also region-sensitive as found in this and 754 755 previous works (e.g., Geng et al., 2011; Tie et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2018), this study 756 highlights that the overall impact can be quite sensitive to different algorithms in 757 different MEGAN version.

Theoretically MEGANv3.0 that is coupled with the land surface scheme and considers the sub-grid vegetation effect should overcome previous versions of MEGAN in WRF-Chem, however, considering uncertainties of retrievals and anthropogenic emissions over East China, limited in-situ observations or satellite retrieval of formaldehyde alone is still difficult to constrain uncertain parameters or functions in BVOCs emission schemes applied over East China. High-quality direct observations of

BVOCs emissions or concentrations for different season at multiple sites or from 764 aircrafts in both rural and urban areas of East China are definitely needed to evaluate 765 766 overall model performance of BVOCs over China, particularly over some specific areas with large modeling sensitivities of BVOC emission and activity factors, such as the 767 Anhui and Henan provinces in the north of simulation domain, suggested by this study. 768 769 In addition, direct measurements of biogenic emission fluxes and/or emission factors and activity factors in the laboratory may be also helpful to constrain different activity 770 771 factor functions of MEGAN in atmospheric models. Lastly but not the least, Although, theoretically, VEG-2015 should be more representative for the reality in 2015, 772 particularly for East China with intensive urban expansion since 2000s, it could still 773 have some uncertainties, particularly for the specification of various vegetation types. 774 The survey of more accurate and higher resolution vegetation distribution based on in-775 776 situ survey and investigation should be conducted to support the estimation of BVOC emission over East China. 777

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780 Data availability

781 of WRF-Chem The released version can be downloaded from 782 http://www2.mmm.ucar.edu/wrf/users/download/get_source.html. The code of updated USTC version of WRF-Chem is available at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4663508 or contact 783 784 chunzhao@ustc.edu.cn. Also, the code modifications will be incorporated the release version of 785 WRF-Chem in future.

786

787 Author contributions

Mingshuai Zhang and Chun Zhao designed the experiments, conducted and analyzed the
simulations. All authors contributed to the discussion and final version of the paper.

790

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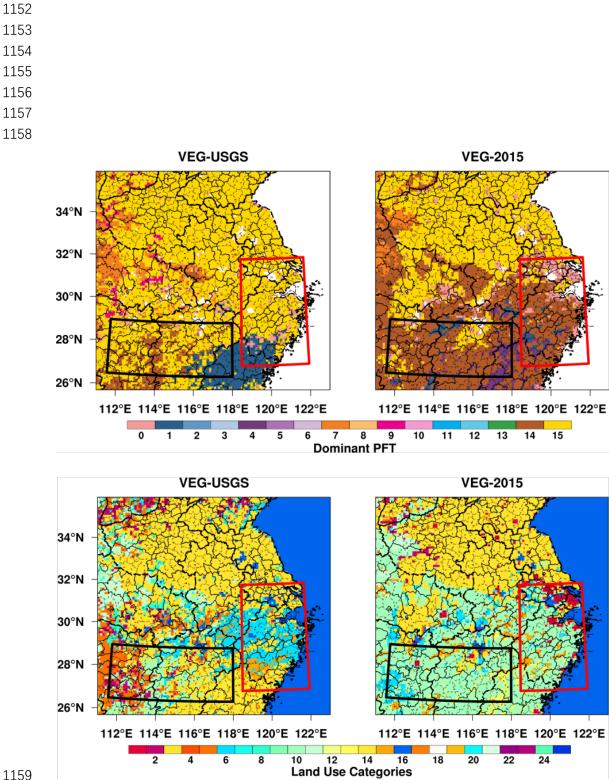
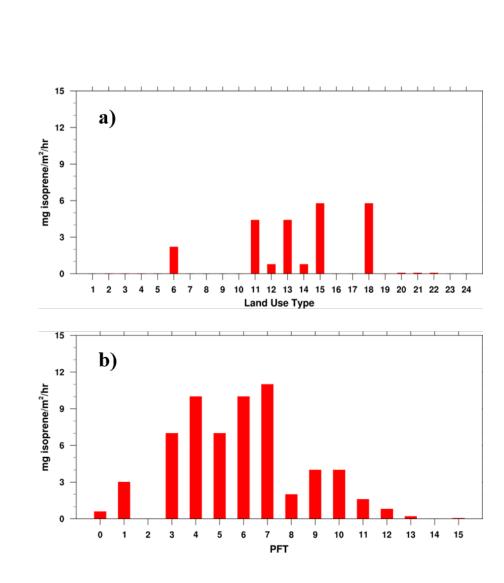
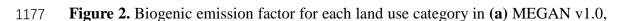


Figure 1. Spatial distribution of two different vegetation data sets (VEG-USGS and VEG-2015) and dominant PFT derived from them in each grid over the simulation domain.





and (**b**) for each PFT in MEGAN v3.0, the PFT number 0-15 are listed in Table 2.

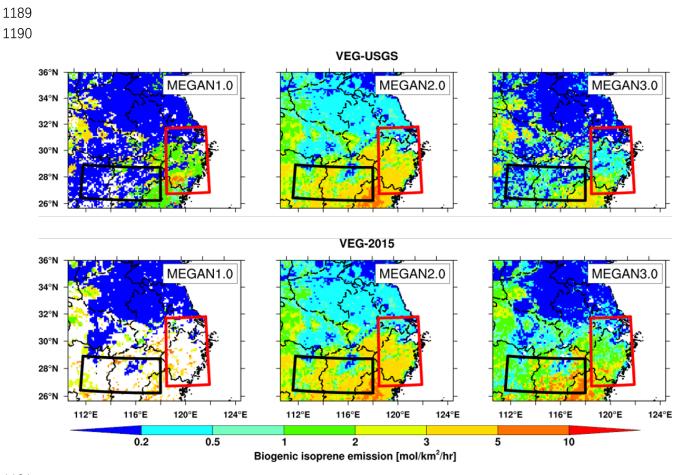
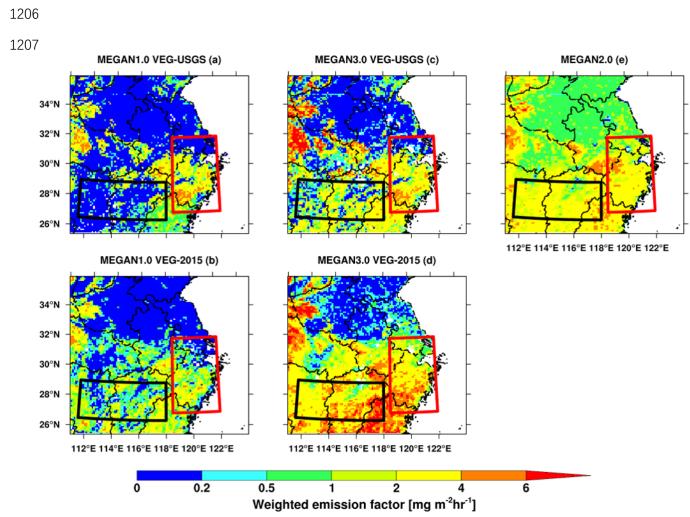


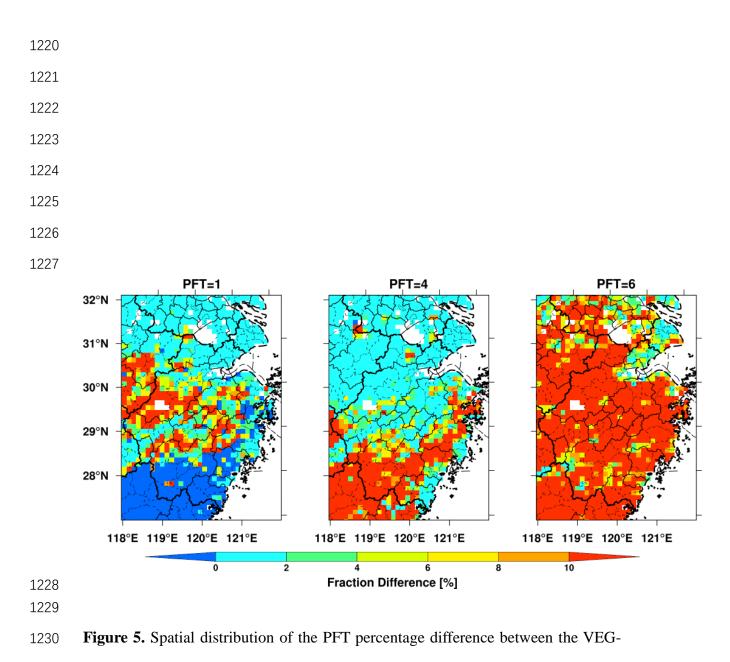
Figure 3. Spatial distributions of biogenic isoprene emissions averaged in April over the simulation domain estimated with different biogenic emission scheme and vegetation data set as listed in Table 2. Two areas are marked by red and black box to discuss the characters in detail.



1208

Figure 4. Spatial distribution of the weighted mean emission factor derived from VEG-USGS and VEG-2015 in MEGAN v1.0 (a)(b) and MEGAN v3.0 (c)(d). Meanwhile, (e) shows the distribution of isoprene emission factor in MEGAN v2.0 database. Please note the emission factors of isoprene are prescribed for MEGANv2.0 in WRF-Chem and therefore are independent on vegetation distributions.

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1231 2015 and VEG-USGS (VEG-2015 minus VEG-USGS) for needle-leaf evergreen tree

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1232 (PFT=1), broadleaf evergreen tree (PFT=4) and broadleaf deciduous tree (PFT=6).
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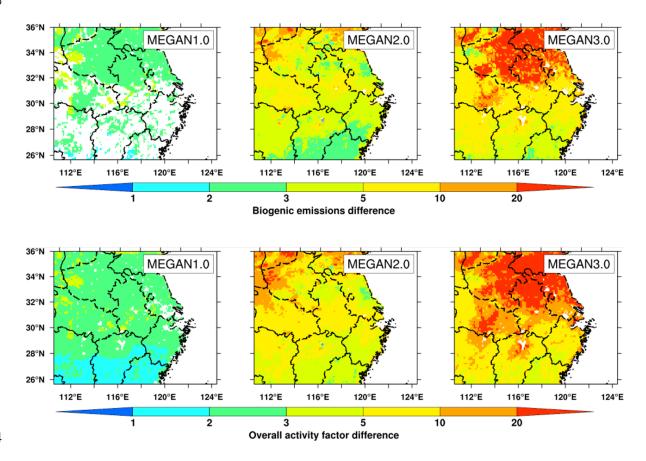


Figure 6. Spatial distribution of the quotient of biogenic isoprene emission and activity factor between simulations in July and that in April, using VEG-2015 vegetation data set coupled with different emission schemes (MEGANv1.0, MEGANv2.0 and MEGANv3.0).



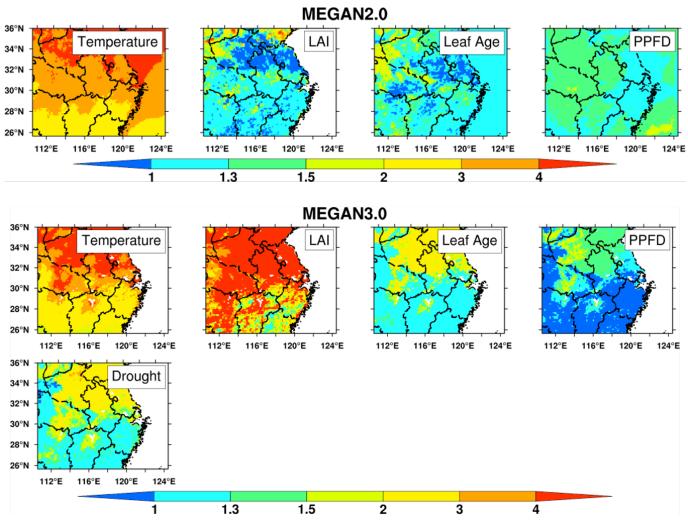


Figure 7. Spatial distribution of the quotient of activity factor related to different environmental variables (such as temperature, LAI, light, leaf age and drought) between simulations in July and that in April (July divided by April) using VEG-2015 vegetation data set coupled with MEGAN v2.0 and MEGAN v3.0.

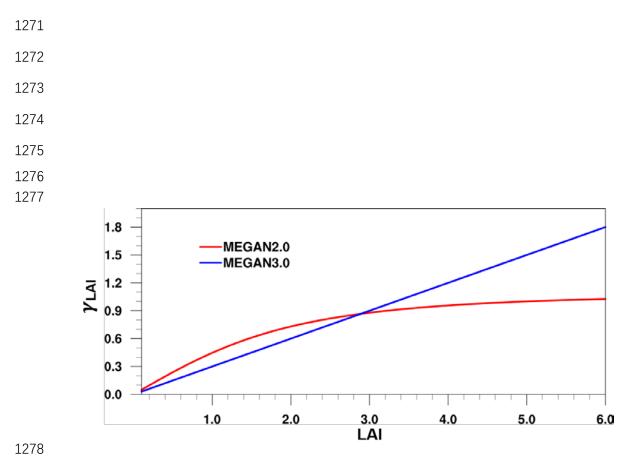
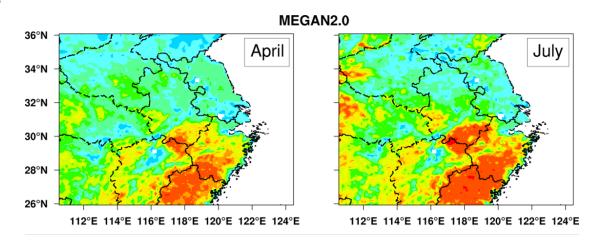


Figure 8. Activity factor for LAI (γ_{LAI}) variation with LAI in different versions of

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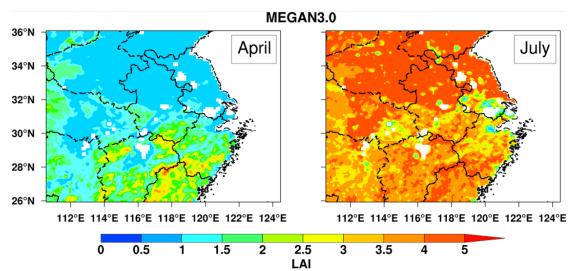
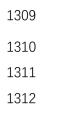


Figure 9. The spatial distribution of monthly leaf area index (LAI) from VEG-2015

- 1302 in the MEGAN v2.0 and MEGAN v3.0.



April

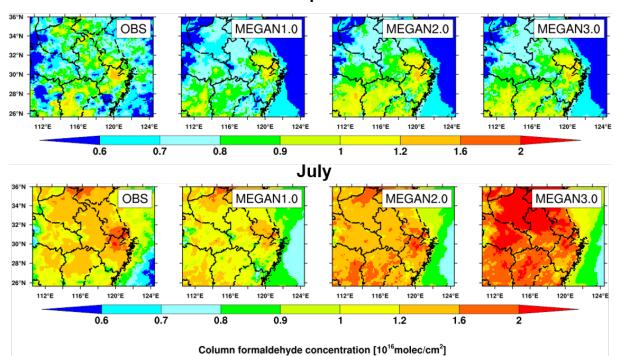


Figure 10. Spatial distributions of total column tropospheric formaldehyde concentration (include biogenic and anthropogenic emissions) in April and July with different versions of MEGAN using the VEG-2015 vegetation date set. The last row is from the satellite retrievals.



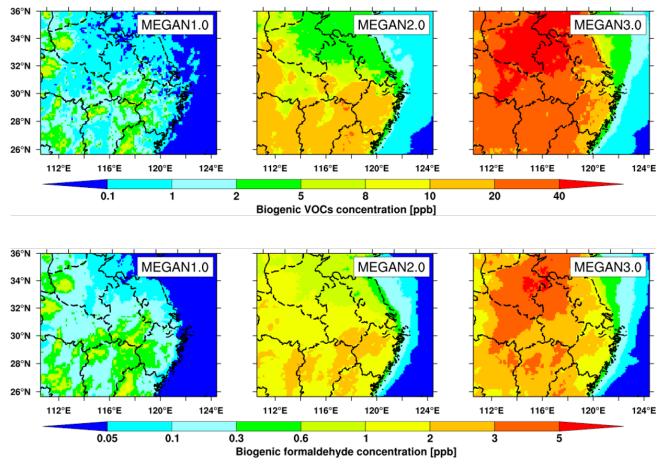
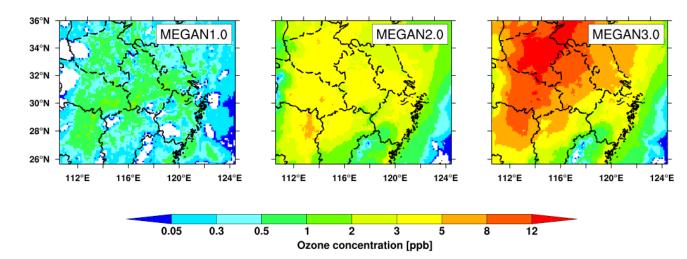


Figure 11. Spatial distribution of VOCs and formaldehyde concentration due to the

1332 biogenic emissions (minus anthropogenic emissions) near the surface in July using

- 1333 the VEG-2015 vegetation date set.





1339 Figure 12. Spatial distribution of ozone concentration due to the biogenic emissions

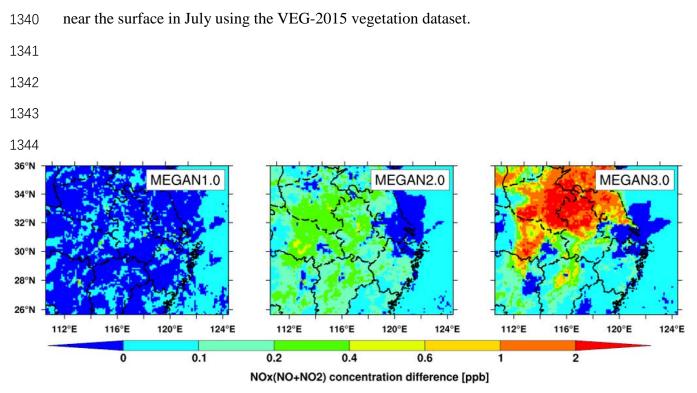


Figure 13. Spatial distribution of NOx concentration due to the biogenic emissions
near the surface (the difference of simulation considered biogenic emissions and the
one without biogenic emissions) in July using the VEG-2015 vegetation date set.

Table 1 WRF-Chem model configuration

Regions	Eastern China 120×100		
Domain size			
Simulation period	April and July of 2015		
Horizontal resolution	12 km		
Gas-phase chemistry scheme	CBM-Z mechanism		
Radiation scheme	Fast-J parameterization		
PBL scheme	YSU scheme		
Microphysics scheme	Morrison two-moment scheme		
Surface layer scheme	Monin-Obukhov scheme		
Cumulus scheme	Kain-Fritsch scheme		
Land-surface scheme	CLM4 scheme		
Longwave radiation scheme			
Shortwave radiation scheme	RRTMG scheme		
Meteorological initial and boundary conditions	NCEP 1°×1° reanalysis data		
Anthropogenic emission inventory	HTAPv2 and MEIC		
Biomass burning emission inventory	FINN		
Biogenic emission inventory	MEGAN scheme		

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PFT number	description	VEG-USGS	VEG-2015	
0	Bare soil	3.7	6.9	
1	Needleleaf evergreen tree-temperature	7.9	1.7	
2	Needleleaf evergreen tree-boreal	0	0	
3	Needleleaf deciduous tree-boreal	0	0	
4	Broadleaf evergreen tree-tropical	0	4.5	
5	Broadleaf evergreen tree-temperature	0	0	
6	Broadleaf deciduous tree-tropical	0	0	
7	Broadleaf deciduous tree-temperature	7.6	4.4	
8	Broadleaf deciduous tree-boreal	0	0	
9	Broadleaf evergreen shrub-temperature	1.8	0	
10	Broadleaf deciduous shrub-temperature	0	0	
11	Broadleaf deciduous shrub-boreal	0	0	
12	C ₃ arctic grass	0	0	
13	C ₃ grass	0	0	
14	C ₄ grass	8.7	41.6	
15	Сгор	70.2	40.8	

Table 2 The domain averaged fraction of PFTs in two vegetation data sets

Table 3 Numerical experiments of WRF-Chem in this study.

			Vegetation distribution				
	Simulation period	BVOC scheme —	VEG-USGS	VEG-2015			
		MEGAN v1.0	Mv1-USGS	Mv1-2015/Mv1-April			
	April	MEGAN v2.0	Mv2-USGS	Mv2-2015/Mv2-April			
WRF-Chem		MEGAN v3.0	Mv3-USGS	Mv3-2015/Mv3-April			
		MEGAN v1.0	-	Mv1-July			
	July	MEGAN v2.0	-	Mv2-July			
		MEGAN v3.0	-	Mv3-July			
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1413 1414 **Table 4** Measured and simulated isoprene concentrations (ppbv) at sampling sites. 1415

	Observation	Simulation (VEG-2015)						
Location and Time	Mean±SD	MEGANv1.0		MEGANv2.0		MEGANv3.0		Source
		April	July	April	July	April	July	
Lishui District, Nanjing (Apr.2019)	0.062	0.216	0.780	0.098	0.518	0.034	0.524	Commercial instrument
Xujiahui commercial center, Shanghai (Jan.2007-Mar. 2010)	0.120±0.09	< 0.001	0.003	0.097	0.450	0.002	0.037	Cai et al. (2010)
Northern suburb, Nanjing (15 May31 Aug. 2013)	0.960 ± 0.56	0.006	0.019	0.114	0.645	0.028	0.367	Shao et al. (2016)
Nanjing University of Information Science&Technology (Sep.2011-Jan.2012)	0.300±0.35	0.009	0.038	0.117	0.517	0.067	0.782	Li et al. (2014)
Hubei Provincial Environmental Monitoring Center,Wuhan (Jul. 2013)	0.390±0.21	0.004	0.032	0.049	0.288	0.025	0.350	Lyu et al. (2016)
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