



# Implementation of trait-based ozone plant sensitivity in the Yale Interactive terrestrial Biosphere model v1.0 to assess global vegetation damage

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## Abstract

A major limitation in modeling global ozone ( $O_3$ ) vegetation damage has long been the reliance on empirical  $O_3$  sensitivity parameters derived from a limited number of species and applied at the level of plant functional types (PFTs), which ignore the large interspecific variations within the same PFT. Here, we present a major advance in large-scale assessments of  $O_3$  plant injury by linking the trait leaf mass per area (LMA) and plant  $O_3$  sensitivity in a broad and global perspective. Application of the new approach and a global LMA map in a dynamic global vegetation model reasonably represents the observed interspecific responses to  $O_3$  with a unified sensitivity parameter for all plant species. Simulations suggest a contemporary global mean reduction of 4.8% in gross primary productivity by  $O_3$ , with a range of 1.1%-12.6% for varied PFTs. Hotspots with damages  $> 10\%$  are found in agricultural areas in the eastern U.S., western Europe, eastern China, and India, accompanied by moderate to high levels of surface  $O_3$ . Furthermore, we simulate the distribution of plant sensitivity to  $O_3$ , which is highly linked with the inherent leaf trait trade-off strategies of plants, revealing high risks for fast-growing species with low LMA, such as crops, grasses and deciduous trees.



## 53 1. Introduction

54 Tropospheric ozone ( $O_3$ ) has long been recognized as a hazardous pollutant for plants (Reich and  
55 Amundson, 1985; Richards et al., 1958). As a strong oxidant,  $O_3$  can cause damage to leaf cells and  
56 modulate the carbon balance of ecosystems through both direct and indirect impacts on plant function  
57 (Ainsworth et al., 2012; Feng et al., 2014; Wittig et al., 2009). To date,  $O_3$  fumigation experiments have  
58 revealed a large variation in  $O_3$  sensitivities among and within plant functional types (PFTs) (Buker et al.,  
59 2015; Mills et al., 2018a) (Table S1). Generally, needleleaf trees, deciduous woody plants, and crop  
60 species show ascending sensitivities to  $O_3$  (Buker et al., 2015; Davison and Barnes, 1998; Reich and  
61 Amundson, 1985). The cause of such variation is not fully understood and thus has not been uniformly  
62 described in vegetation models (Massman et al., 2000; Tiwari et al., 2016). As a result, large-scale  
63 assessments of  $O_3$  vegetation damage have to rely on a PFT-based range of sensitivity parameters derived  
64 from a limited number of plant species (Felzer et al., 2009; Lombardozzi et al., 2015; Sitch et al., 2007).  
65 For example, Sitch et al. (2007) (hereafter S2007) attempted to envelop the range of  $O_3$  impacts by  
66 assuming all species within a PFT are either “high” or “low” sensitive to  $O_3$ , which cannot resolve intra-  
67 PFT variations and thus may cause large uncertainties in regional to global assessments.

68  
69 Recent observations revealed a uniform plant sensitivity to  $O_3$  if stomatal  $O_3$  flux is expressed based on  
70 leaf mass rather than leaf area (Feng et al., 2018; Li et al., 2016; Li et al., 2022). The trait of leaf mass per  
71 area (LMA) is an important metric linking leaf area to mass. In a comparative study with 21 woody  
72 species (Li et al., 2016) and a meta-analysis of available experimental data (Feng et al., 2018), the dose-  
73 response relationship (DRR) shows convergent  $O_3$  sensitivities for conifer and broadleaf trees if the area-  
74 based stomatal uptake was converted to the mass-based flux with LMA. Meanwhile, a large number of  
75 trait observations were synthesized by global networks in recent decades (Gallagher et al., 2020). The  
76 TRY initiative (Kattge et al., 2011) is one of the most influential datasets with 2.3 billion trait data by the  
77 year 2021. Based on the TRY dataset, global LMA was estimated with upscaling techniques such as  
78 Bayesian modeling (Butler et al., 2017) (thereafter B2017) or the random forest model (Moreno-Martinez  
79 et al., 2018) (thereafter M2018). These advances in the retrieval of LMA provide the possibility to depict  
80 more accurate  $O_3$  vegetation damage at the global scale.



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82 Here, we present a major advance in large-scale assessments of O<sub>3</sub> plant damage using a trait-based  
 83 approach. We implement LMA into a stomatal flux-based O<sub>3</sub> damage framework aiming at a unified  
 84 representation of plant O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities over the global grids. We couple this new approach to the Yale  
 85 Interactive terrestrial Biosphere (YIBs) model (Yue and Unger, 2015) and evaluate the derived O<sub>3</sub>  
 86 sensitivities against observations. We further assess contemporary O<sub>3</sub> impacts on global gross primary  
 87 productivity (GPP) in combination with the recently developed LMA datasets (Butler et al., 2017;  
 88 Gallagher et al., 2020; Moreno-Martinez et al., 2018) (Fig. S1a) and the multi-model ensemble mean  
 89 surface O<sub>3</sub> concentrations (Fig. S1b). The updated risk map for O<sub>3</sub> vegetation damage is used to identify  
 90 the regions and species with the largest sensitivity to O<sub>3</sub> threats.

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## 92 2. Scheme development and calibration

### 93 2.1 The trait-based O<sub>3</sub> vegetation damage scheme

94 We develop the new scheme based on the S2007 framework for transient O<sub>3</sub> damage calculation. In the  
 95 original S2007 scheme, the undamaged fraction  $F$  for net photosynthetic rate is dependent on the  
 96 excessive area-based stomatal O<sub>3</sub> flux, which is calculated as the difference between  $f_{O_3}$  and PFT-specific  
 97 area-based threshold  $y$ , and modulated by the sensitivity parameter  $a_{PFT}$ :

$$98 F = 1 - a_{PFT} \times \max\{f_{O_3} - y, 0\} \quad (1)$$

99 where  $a_{PFT}$  is calibrated and varies among PFTs with a typical range from “low” to “high” values  
 100 indicating uncertainties of plant species within the same PFT in Sitch et al. (2007). The stomatal O<sub>3</sub> flux  
 101  $f_{O_3}$  is calculated as:

$$102 f_{O_3} = \frac{[O_3]}{r + \left[ \frac{k_{O_3}}{g_p \times F} \right]} \quad (2)$$

103 where  $[O_3]$  is the O<sub>3</sub> concentration at the reference level (nmol m<sup>-3</sup>),  $r$  is the aerodynamic and boundary  
 104 layer resistance between leaf surface and reference level (s m<sup>-1</sup>).  $k_{O_3}$  setting to 1.67 represents the ratio of



leaf resistance for  $O_3$  to that for water vapor.  $g_p$  represents potential stomata conductance for  $H_2O$  ( $m\ s^{-1}$ ).

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Studies suggested that LMA could be used to unify the area-based plant sensitivities to  $O_3$  (Feng et al., 2018; Li et al., 2016), resulting in a constant mass-based parameter  $a$  independent of plant species and PFTs:

$$a = a_{PFT} \times LMA \quad (3)$$

Here, we convert the area-based  $O_3$  stomatal flux expression in Equation (1) to a mass-based flux as follows:

$$F = 1 - a \times \max \left\{ \frac{f_{O_3}}{LMA} - x, 0 \right\} \quad (4)$$

where the new sensitivity parameter  $a$  is a cross-species constant ( $nmol^{-1}\ s\ g$ );  $LMA$  is leaf mass per area ( $g\ m^{-2}$ ); the flux threshold is replaced by a mass-based value of  $x$  ( $nmol\ g^{-1}\ s^{-1}$ ) (Feng et al., 2018). This equation is applied at the timestep of photosynthesis calculation in the YIBs model (i.e. hourly). The updated LMA-based framework (YIBs-LMA) reduces the number of  $O_3$  sensitivity parameters from three for each PFT (Sitch et al., 2007) in S2007 to a single parameter  $a$  for all PFTs. For YIBs-LMA framework, the default value of the  $x$  threshold in Equation (4) is set to  $0.019\ nmol\ g^{-1}\ s^{-1}$  as recommended by Feng et al. (2018).

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## 2.2 Dose-response relationship (DRR)

We compare the simulated and observed sensitivities to  $O_3$  so as to calibrate the LMA-based scheme. In field experiments, DRR is used to quantify species-specific damage by  $O_3$  with a generic format as follows:

$$R = 100 + S_O \times \phi_{O_3} \quad (5)$$

where  $R$  (%) is the relative percentage of a bio-indicator (such as biomass or yield) after and before  $O_3$  damage;  $\phi_{O_3}$  is an area-based  $O_3$  metric (e.g.,  $POD_y$  measured in sunlit leaves at the top of canopy);  $S_O$  (usually negative) is the observed sensitivity derived as the slope of linear relationship between  $R$  and  $\phi_{O_3}$ . We collected  $S_O$  from DRRs with conventional criteria (typically  $POD_{y=1}$  for natural PFTs and  $POD_{y=6}$  for crops as dose metrics (CLRTAP, 2017); the bio-indicators include the relative biomass for natural PFTs and relative yield for crops) among plant species from International Cooperative Programme



on Effects of Air Pollution on Natural Vegetation and Crops (CLRTAP) (CLRTAP, 2017) and multiple literature sources (Table S1). Such observations are used to calibrate the LMA-based scheme.

As a comparison with observations, we calculate annual relative GPP percentage ( $R_{GPP}$ , %) and  $POD_y$  of sunlit leaves in first canopy layer ( $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$ , based on per leaf area) from the vegetation model to derive the slopes ( $S_S$ ) of simulated DRRs. Here,  $POD_y$  is a diagnostic variable calculated as:

$$POD_y = \int (f_{O_3} - y) \quad (6)$$

where  $f_{O_3}$  represents the stomatal  $O_3$  flux under instant  $O_3$  stimulus at each timestep, which can be calculated following Equation (2) on the leaf level;  $y$  is the prescribed critical level ( $1 \text{ nmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  for natural or  $6 \text{ nmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  for crop species (CLRTAP, 2017)). Excessive  $O_3$  flux above  $y$  is accumulated for the top canopy layer and over the growing season to derive the  $POD_y$ . Simulated  $S_S$  is calculated as the slope of regression between simulated  $R_{GPP}$  (%) and  $POD_y$  at the PFT level. Only the dominant PFT in each grid is considered for the estimate of  $S_S$  at both PFT-level or gridded analyses.

Similarly, mass-based  $POD_x$  is derived from  $O_3$  impacted  $f_{O_3}$  ( $\text{nmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) in Equation (2), together with gridded LMA ( $\text{g m}^{-2}$ ) and mass-based threshold  $x$  ( $\text{nmol g}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) as:

$$POD_x = \int \left( \frac{f_{O_3}}{LMA} - x \right) \quad (7)$$

## 2.3 Simulations and calibrations

We perform two groups of supporting experiments (Table 1). The first group explores modeling uncertainties associated with the mass-based framework: (1) YIBs-LMA\_B2017 replaces the default LMA map of M2018 (Moreno-Martinez et al., 2018) with B2017 (Butler et al., 2017). (2) YIBs-LMA\_PFT applies PFT-specific LMA values (Table S2) for each PFT without considering global LMA geo-gradient. (3) YIBs-LMA\_T replaces the default threshold of  $x=0.019 \text{ nmol g}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  with  $x=0.006 \text{ nmol g}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , which is an alternative parameter suggested by observations (Feng et al., 2018). The second group of supporting experiments explores the differences between mass-based and S2007 area-based



frameworks. Typically, S2007 has a “low to high”  $a_{PFT}$  range for each PFT. Here, a mean sensitivity parameterization of S2007 (YIBs-S2007\_adj) is re-calibrated according to  $S_O$  in Table S1.

For all supporting experiments, the parameter  $a$  for YIBs-LMA or the eight mean  $a_{PFT}$  for YIBs-S2007\_adj are derived with the optimal 1:1 fitting between  $S_S$  and  $S_O$  to minimize the possible biases (Tables S3-S7). Since  $S_O$  are available only for six out of the eight YIBs PFTs, including EBF, NF, DBF, C<sub>3</sub> grass, C<sub>4</sub> grass, and crop (Table S1),  $S_O$  of these PFTs are used for calibration.

## 2.4 YIBs model and forcing data

In this study, all O<sub>3</sub> vegetation damage schemes are implemented in the YIBs model (Yue and Unger, 2015). The YIBs is a process-based dynamic global vegetation model incorporated with well-established carbon, energy, and water interactive schemes. The model applies the same PFT classifications as the Community Land Model (Bonan et al., 2003) (Fig. S2). Eight PFTs are employed including evergreen broadleaf forest (EBF), needleleaf forest (NF), deciduous broadleaf forest (DBF), cold shrub (C\_SHR), arid shrubland (A\_SHR), C<sub>3</sub> grassland (C3\_GRA), C<sub>4</sub> grassland (C4\_GRA), and cropland (CRO) (Fig. S2). For each PFT, phenology is well-evaluated (Yue and Unger, 2015) to generate a reliable growing season, which is crucial for the simulation of stomatal O<sub>3</sub> uptake (Anav et al., 2018). Photosynthesis and stomatal processes are calculated using Farquhar et al. and Ball-Berry algorithms (Ball et al., 1987; Farquhar et al., 1980), respectively. Leaf area index (LAI) and tree height are predicted dynamically based on vegetation carbon allocation. The YIBs model has joined the multi-model ensemble project TRENDY and showed reasonable performance in the simulations of global biomass, GPP, LAI, net ecosystem exchange, and soil carbon relative to observations (Friedlingstein et al., 2020). Key plant biogeochemical parameters of the YIBs model are adjusted for this research (Table S8).

The hourly modern-era retrospective analysis for research and applications version 2 (MERRA2) climate reanalyses (Gelaro et al., 2017) are used to drive the YIBs model. The gridded LMA required for the main mass-based simulation is derived from Moreno-Martinez et al. (2018) (M2018), which shows the highest value of >150 g m<sup>-2</sup> for needleleaf forest at high latitudes while low values of ~40 g m<sup>-2</sup> for grassland and





cropland (Fig. S1a and Fig. S2). Grids with missing LMA data are filled with the mean of the corresponding PFT. Contemporary O<sub>3</sub> concentration fields in the year of 2010 from the multi-model mean in Task Force on Hemispheric Transport of Air Pollutants (TF-HTAP) experiments (Turnock et al., 2018) (Fig. S1b) are used as forcing data. The original monthly O<sub>3</sub> data are downscaled to hourly using the diurnal cycle predicted by the chemistry-climate-carbon fully coupled model ModelE2-YIBs (Yue and Unger, 2015). All data are interpolated to the spatial resolution of 1°×1°.

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### 194 3. Results

#### 195 3.1 Comparison of simulated sensitivities with observations

Simulated relative GPP percentage ( $R_{GPP}$ ) at global grids were sorted by dominant PFTs (Fig. S2) and plotted against area-based accumulated phytotoxic O<sub>3</sub> dose above a threshold  $y$  nmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> ( $POD_{y=1}$ ) at the corresponding grids (Fig. 1). The DRR shows varied slopes among different PFTs, resulting in a coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) around 0.54 for all PFTs (Figs 1a-1c). We further calculated the mass-based accumulated phytotoxic O<sub>3</sub> dose above a threshold of 0.019 nmol g s<sup>-1</sup> ( $POD_{x=0.019}$ ) and compared it with  $R_{GPP}$ . The updated DRR showed convergent slopes and reached a high  $R^2$  of 0.77 across all PFTs (Figs 1d-1f), suggesting that the mass-based scheme could better unify O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities among different PFTs.

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We then calibrated the single, best-fit  $a$  value for YIBs-LMA framework by minimizing the absolute difference between simulated ( $S_S$ ) and observed ( $S_O$ ) slopes of O<sub>3</sub> DRR for all PFTs. With different  $a$  parameters, the YIBs-LMA framework yielded considerably high  $R^2$  of ~1.0 but varied biases between simulated and observed O<sub>3</sub> impacts across PFTs (Fig. 2). Both the 1:1 fitting and the lowest bias between  $S_S$  and  $S_O$  were achieved with an optimal  $a = 3.5$  nmol<sup>-1</sup> s g (Fig. 2c). Consistent with observations, YIBs-LMA with this optimal  $a$  parameter simulated low  $S_S$  of -0.18% and -0.36% per mmol m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> of  $POD_{y=1}$  for evergreen broadleaf forest and needleleaf forest, respectively (Figs 3a, b), median  $S_S$  from -0.53% per mmol m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> for arid shrubland (Fig. 3e), and high  $S_S$  from -0.64% to -1.04% per mmol m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> for deciduous broadleaf forest, C<sub>3</sub>/C<sub>4</sub> grassland, cropland and cold shrubland (-3.28% for crops with  $POD_{y=6}$ , Figs 3c-d, 3f-h).





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### 216 **3.2 Global map of O<sub>3</sub> vegetation damage**

217 We estimated contemporary GPP reductions induced by O<sub>3</sub> with the global concentrations of surface O<sub>3</sub>  
 218 (Fig. S1b) in the year of 2010. The YIBs-LMA framework using an increase of  $a$  parameter yielded an  
 219 almost linearly enhancement of global GPP reduction (Fig. S3) with consistent spatial distributions (Fig.  
 220 S4). The simulation with the optimal  $a = 3.5 \text{ nmol}^{-1} \text{ s g}$  predicted a global GPP reduction of 4.8% (Fig.  
 221 4a), which was similar to the value estimated with the area-based S2007 scheme (YIBs-S2007\_adj, Table  
 222 1). Large reductions of >10% were predicted over eastern U.S., western Europe, eastern China, and India  
 223 (Fig. 4a). Hotspots were mainly located in cropland and agricultural areas mixed with deciduous broadleaf  
 224 forest or grassland, accompanied with moderate to high levels of surface O<sub>3</sub>. Few discrepancies between  
 225 the damage maps of YIBs-LMA and YIBs-S007\_adj were found (Fig. 4b), even though the number of  
 226 parameters was greatly reduced in YIBs-LMA scheme.

227

228 For YIBs-LMA, PFTs with low LMA such as cropland, grassland, and deciduous broadleaf forest account  
 229 for 73.3 Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup> (50.0%) of the global GPP (Table S9). However, these PFTs contributed to a total GPP  
 230 reduction of 5.4 Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup> (75.5% of total GPP loss) by O<sub>3</sub> damage. In contrast, evergreen broadleaf and  
 231 needleleaf forests with high LMA accounted for 48.8 Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup> (33.0%) of total GPP but yielded only a  
 232 reduction of 0.75 Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup> (10.5% of total GPP loss). Differences in GPP percentage losses were in part  
 233 associated with the global pattern of O<sub>3</sub> concentrations, which were usually higher over mid-latitudes with  
 234 populated cities and dense crop plantations (Fig. S1b). However, the differences in LMA and simulated  
 235 O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities of these PFTs were the main cause of discrepancies in GPP damage at the large scale.

236

### 237 **3.3 Uncertainties of the LMA-based scheme**

238 We quantified the uncertainties of LMA-based scheme by comparing simulated GPP damages among  
 239 different experiments (Table 1). The experiment with the alternative LMA map of B2017 (Fig. S5)  
 240 showed a slightly enhanced GPP reduction of 5.3% (Fig. 5a) but similar spatial patterns compared with  
 241 YIBs-LMA using M2018 (Fig. 4a). However, B2017 has a much less source of LMA data than M2018  
 242 (~40%), leading to some unexpected areas with high O<sub>3</sub> threats such as the tundra in Arctic region (Fig.



S6). The experiment with PFT-specific LMA estimated a global GPP reduction of 4.6% (Fig. 5b) with consistent spatial pattern as the prediction with YIBs-LMA, suggesting the reasonable application of PFT-level LMA at the lack of global LMA data. The experiment with an alternative threshold flux (Feng et al., 2018) of  $0.006 \text{ nmol g}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  estimated a higher GPP reduction of 6.5% by global  $\text{O}_3$  (Fig. 5c) with overestimations of  $\text{O}_3$  sensitivities for some tree PFTs (Fig. 6). The YIBs-S2007\_adj run using recalibrated PFT-level sensitivities predicts a similar global GPP damage of 4.8% as the YIBs-LMA run with a high spatial correlation coefficient of 0.98 (Fig. 5d). All sensitivity experiments achieve consistent results as the YIBs-LMA simulation with an uncertainty range from -0.2% to 1.7% and spatial correlation coefficients larger than 0.94.

## 4. Discussion

### 4.1 Mechanisms behind the LMA-based approach

In recent decades, the plant science community examined how traits could be used to differentiate and predict the functions of plant species (Reich et al., 1999; Reich et al., 1997). LMA, related to leaf density and thickness, is a key trait reflecting many aspects of leaf function (Reich et al., 1998). In the field of  $\text{O}_3$  phytotoxicology, experiments have revealed plants with high LMA usually have thick leaves with physical and chemical defenses (Poorter et al., 2009), which can strengthen their resistance to  $\text{O}_3$  (Feng et al., 2018; Li et al., 2016). On the contrary, plants with low LMA normally have thin leaves which are likely to be less  $\text{O}_3$ -tolerant (Feng et al., 2018; Li et al., 2016). Moreover, it seems plausible that the oxidative stress caused by a given amount of stomatal  $\text{O}_3$  flux per unit leaf area would be distributed over a larger leaf mass, and hence diluted, in a leaf with high LMA. Such a LMA- $\text{O}_3$  sensitivity relationship can be well reproduced by our LMA-based model (Figs 7a and 7b). Below we explore the linkage between  $\text{O}_3$  plant sensitivities and the mutual adaptation of growth strategies and leaf morphology with plant leaf trade-off theory (Reich et al., 1999; Shipley et al., 2006).

In the natural world, plants often adapt to maximize carbon uptake under prevailing conditions (Reich et al., 1998; Shipley et al., 2006). To make full use of resources in the growing season, leaves under varied living conditions choose either fast photosynthetic rates (fast-growing deciduous types) or long



271 photosynthesis duration (slow-growing evergreen types) with compatible leaf structures (Diaz et al., 2016;  
 272 Reich, 2014). The former species expand leaf area (low LMA) to maximize light interception while the  
 273 latter species produce thick and mechanically strong leaves (high LMA) with ample resistant substances  
 274 for durable utilization (Poorter et al., 2009) in resource-limited and/or environment-stressed habitats  
 275 (Wright et al., 2002). As a side effect of such leaf trade-offs, deciduous plants with their high rates of  
 276 photosynthesis, associated large stomatal conductance (Davison and Barnes, 1998; Henry et al., 2019),  
 277 and less total defense capacity through the leaf profile (Poorter et al., 2009), are highly O<sub>3</sub> sensitive  
 278 (Model in Fig. 8). In contrast, the moderate photosynthesis, relatively low maximum stomatal  
 279 conductance (Davison and Barnes, 1998; Henry et al., 2019), and reinforced dense leaves (Poorter et al.,  
 280 2009) lead to low sensitivity for evergreen plants (Mode2 in Fig. 8). Therefore, in our modelling practice,  
 281 the mass-based O<sub>3</sub> gas exchange algorithm can be regarded as taking into account several interrelated  
 282 factors such as growth-driven gas exchange requirements, gas path length and biochemical reserves, in a  
 283 unified, simplified and effective manner via LMA.

284

#### 285 **4.2 Implication of potential risks for fast-growing plants**

286 Our new approach reflected the general experimental findings that deciduous plants are much more  
 287 vulnerable to O<sub>3</sub> than evergreen species (Feng et al., 2018; Li et al., 2017), and in turn within a PFT,  
 288 early-successional/pioneers with low LMA are likely more vulnerable than late-successional/canopy trees  
 289 with high LMA (Fyllas et al., 2012). This law has been neglected in previous modeling studies due to the  
 290 dependence on the limited observed data used for PFT-specific tuning. Our LMA-based approach bridges  
 291 this gap through grid-based parameterization, and in addition, our data-model integration specifically  
 292 emphasizes the broad high risks for fast-growing plants, especially for crops. Among PFTs, crops may  
 293 endure the largest O<sub>3</sub> threats (Davison and Barnes, 1998; Feng et al., 2021; Mukherjee et al., 2021)  
 294 because they are artificially bred with high photosynthetic capacities (Richards, 2000), stomatal  
 295 conductance, generally low LMA (Bertin and Gary, 1998; Li et al., 2018; Wang and Shangguan, 2010;  
 296 Wu et al., 2018) (roughly 30-60 g m<sup>-2</sup>), and cultivated in populated regions with high ambient O<sub>3</sub>  
 297 concentrations. Modern technology aims to promote crop yield (Herdt, 2005), but this can potentially  
 298 elevate crop sensitivities to O<sub>3</sub> (Biswas et al., 2013; Biswas et al., 2008). This study estimated the highest



annual mean GPP damage for crop, 12.6%, which is at the high end of the 4.4-12.4% of the O<sub>3</sub>-induced yield loss estimated for global modeling of soybean, wheat, rice, and maize (Mills et al., 2018b). Furthermore, human-induced land use activities may also increase O<sub>3</sub> damage risks. The global demand for food and commodities leads to the conversion of natural forests to irrigated croplands, grazing pastures, and economical-tree plantations (Curtis et al., 2018; Zalles et al., 2021). Meanwhile, the urgent actions to combat climate change promote large-scale afforestation and reforestation (Cook-Patton et al., 2020). These land use changes with fast-growing plant species may increase the risks of terrestrial ecosystems to surface O<sub>3</sub>.

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### 308 **4.3 Advances in the global O<sub>3</sub> damage assessment**

For the first time, we implemented plant trait LMA into a process-based O<sub>3</sub> impact modeling scheme and obtained reasonable interspecific and inter-PFT O<sub>3</sub> responses supported by observations. This LMA-based approach indicates an important advance in global O<sub>3</sub> damage assessments. First, it significantly reduces the number of required key parameters. To account for interspecific sensitivities, many schemes have to define PFT-level parameters to cap the ranges of plant responses (Felzer et al., 2009; Lombardozzi et al., 2015; Sitch et al., 2007). As a result, those schemes rely on dozens of parameters which increase the uncertainties of modeling and the difficulties for model calibration. The LMA-based approach requires the calibration of one single parameter  $a$ , largely facilitating its application across different vegetation models. Second, the new approach accounts for the continuous spectrum of O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities. Previous studies usually categorized species into groups of low or high O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity, depending on very limited data from O<sub>3</sub> exposure experiments. As a result, gridcells for a specific PFT share the same sensitivities regardless of their geographic locations and ecosystem characteristics. In reality, there are hundreds and thousands of plant species in each PFT and they usually have large variation in biophysical parameters including LMA and O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities. The LMA-based approach takes advantage of the newly revealed unifying concept in O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity (Feng et al., 2018; Li et al., 2016; Li et al., 2022) and the recent development in a trait-based LMA global map (Fig. S1a). Such configurations present a spectrum of gridded O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities (Fig. 7a) following the variations of LMA and bring the possibility of capturing spatiotemporal variation in vegetation O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity through time-sensitive LMA products in the future.



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## 328 **Code availability**

329 The codes of YIBs model with LMA-based O<sub>3</sub> damaging scheme are shared at  
330 <https://zenodo.org/record/6348731>.

331

## 332 **Data availability**

333 Results of all simulations (listed in Table 1) are available upon request. Data for Figures in the main  
334 article are shared at <https://zenodo.org/record/6348731>. The global maps of specific leaf area (SLA) to  
335 derive LMA for M2018 and B2017 are from <https://www.try-db.org/TryWeb/Data.php#59> and  
336 [https://github.com/abhirupdatta/global\\_maps\\_of\\_plant\\_traits](https://github.com/abhirupdatta/global_maps_of_plant_traits), respectively. Monthly O<sub>3</sub> data is from  
337 <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-18-8953-2018>. Calibration data are summarized in Table S1.

338

## 339 **Author Contributions**

340 X.Y., S.S. and N.U. designed the research, Y.M.M. performed modeling, data analyses, virtualization and  
341 wrote the draft. J.U, L.M., Z.Z.F, and A.W.C advised on concepts and methods. C.G. helped write draft.  
342 H.Y.Y., M.C.D.R helped with coding. H.Z., C.G.T., Y.C., Y.D.L., and Y.S.X. helped with data collection.  
343 All authors commented and revised the manuscript.

344

## 345 **Competing interests**

346 The authors declare no conflict of interests.

347

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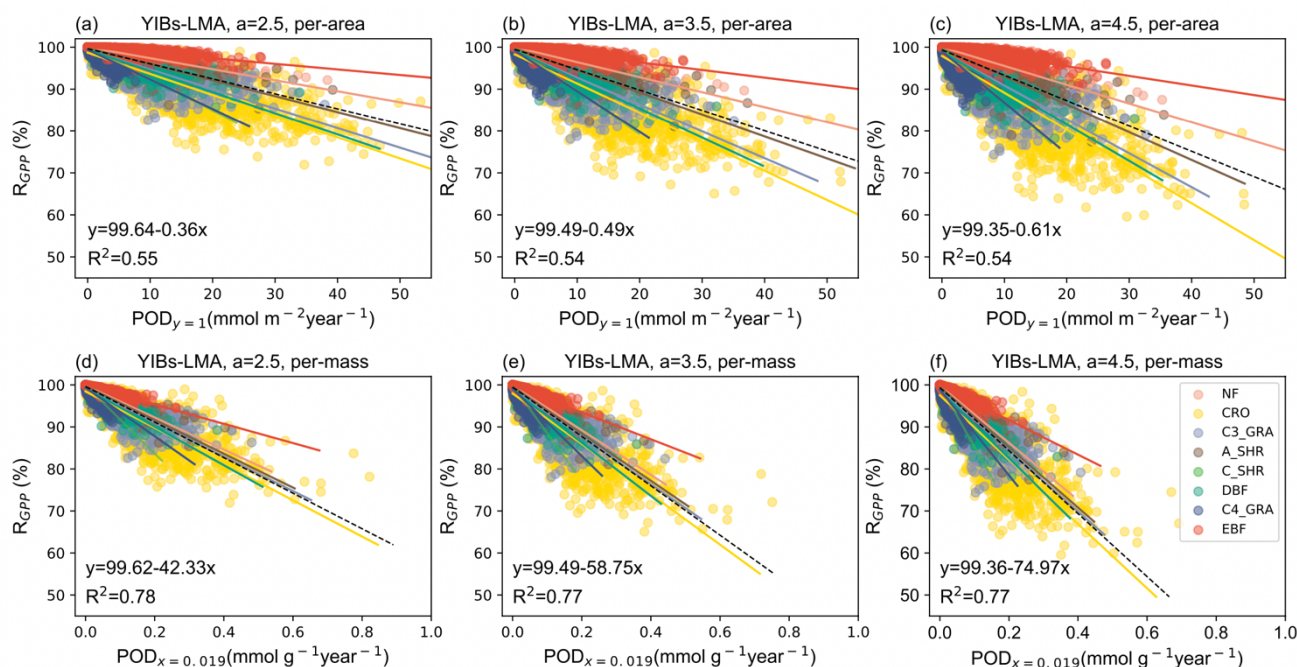


**Table 1.** Summary of simulations.

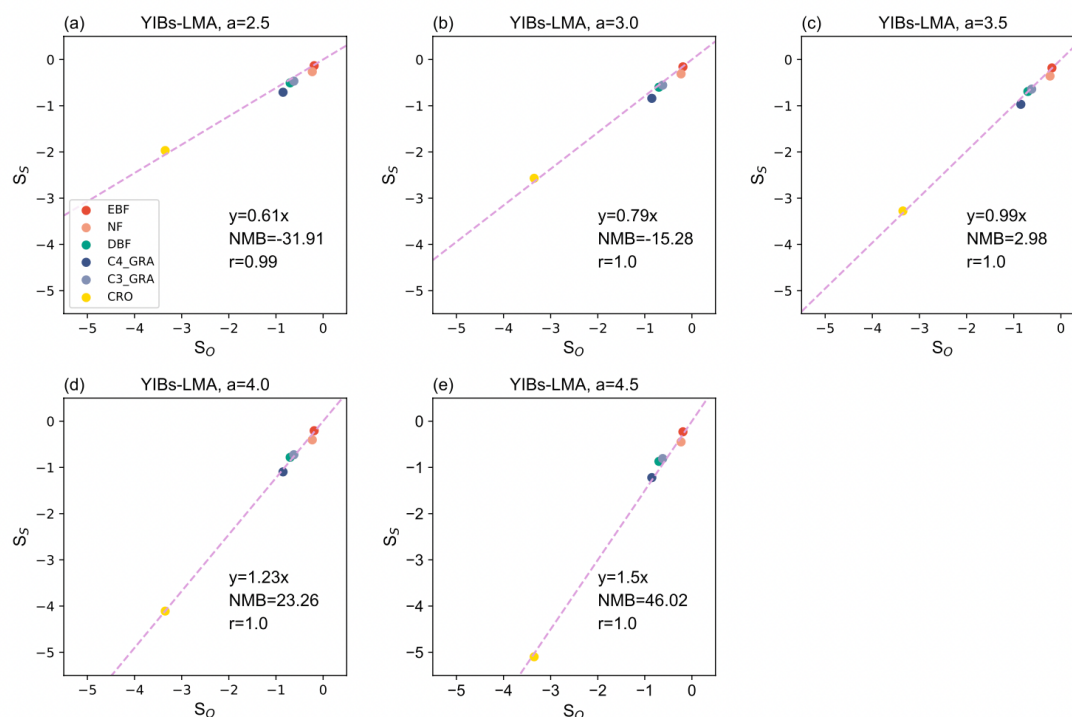
Experiment <sup>a</sup>	Method	Thresholds <sup>a</sup> ( $x$ or $y$ )	LMA format	LMA map	Optimal ( $a$ or $a_{PFT}$ )	Tests ( $a$ or $a_{PFT}$ )
YIBs-LMA	Mass- based	$x=0.019$	gridded	M2018	$a=3.5$ (Table S3)	five tests ( $a=2.5, 3, 3.5, 4, 4.5$ )
YIBs-LMA_PFT		$x=0.019$	PFT- specific	M2018	$a=2.0$ (Table S4)	five tests ( $a=2, 2.5, 3, 3.5, 4$ )
YIBs-LMA_T		$x=0.006$	gridded	M2018	$a=3.0$ (Table S5)	five tests ( $a=2, 2.5, 3, 3.5, 4$ )
YIBs-LMA_B2017		$x=0.019$	gridded	B2017	$a=2.8$ (Table S6)	five tests ( $a=2, 2.5, 2.8, 3, 3.5$ )
YIBs-S2007_adj	Area- based	8 values for $y$ (Table S7)	/	/	8 values for $a_{PFT}$ (Table S7)	40 tests (five each for 8 PFTs)

<sup>a</sup> Units of thresholds are  $\text{nmol g}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$  for  $x$  and  $\text{nmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  for  $y$

<sup>b</sup> Units of key parameters are  $\text{nmol}^{-1} \text{s g}$  for  $a$  and  $\text{nmol}^{-1} \text{m}^2 \text{s}$  for  $a_{PFT}$



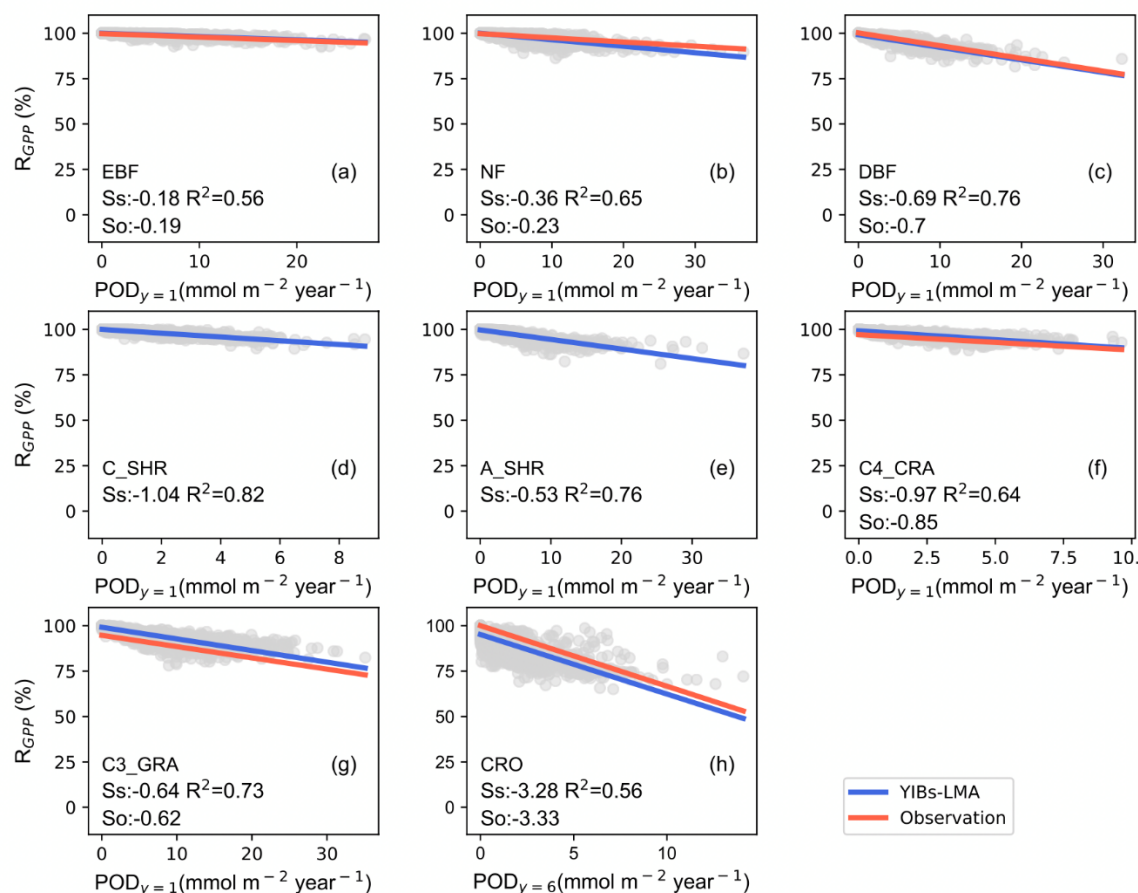
**Figure 1.** Area-based (top) or mass-based (bottom) DRRs for the YIBs-LMA experiment. Three tests from the YIBs-LMA experiment all adopt  $x=0.019$  nmol g<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and gridded LMA from M2018 with parameter  $a=2.5, 3.5, 4.5$  nmol<sup>-1</sup> s g, respectively. Each dot represents estimated POD- $R_{GPP}$  ( $POD_{y=1}$  for (a)-(c),  $POD_{x=0.019}$  for (d)-(e)) at a grid with corresponding PFT. The PFT-specific regressions between area- or mass- based POD and  $R_{GPP}$  are displayed with solid lines shown in legend. Regression relationships of all PFTs are displayed in black dash line with coefficients of determination ( $R^2$ ) denoted on each panel. Note the differences of ranges in x axis among PFTs. The YIBs-LMA experiment is summarized in Table 1.



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532 **Figure 2.** Comparison between  $S_O$  (% per mmol m<sup>-2</sup>) and  $S_S$  (% per mmol m<sup>-2</sup>) for the YIBs-LMA  
 533 experiment. Five tests from the YIBs-LMA experiment all adopt  $\chi=0.019$  nmol g<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and gridded LMA  
 534 from M2018 but with varied parameter  $a$  from (a) 2.5 to (e) 4.5 nmol<sup>-1</sup> s g.  $S_O$  are from Table S1.  $S_S$  are  
 535 derived as the slope between  $R_{GPP}$  and  $POD_y$ . The linear regression (dashed lines), normalized mean  
 536 biases (NMB), and correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) between  $S_S$  and  $S_O$  for varied PFTs are shown on each panel.  
 537 The  $S_S$  and  $S_O$  of CRO are derived using  $POD_{y=6}$  while other PFTs use  $POD_{y=1}$ . The YIBs-LMA  
 538 experiment is described in Table 1.

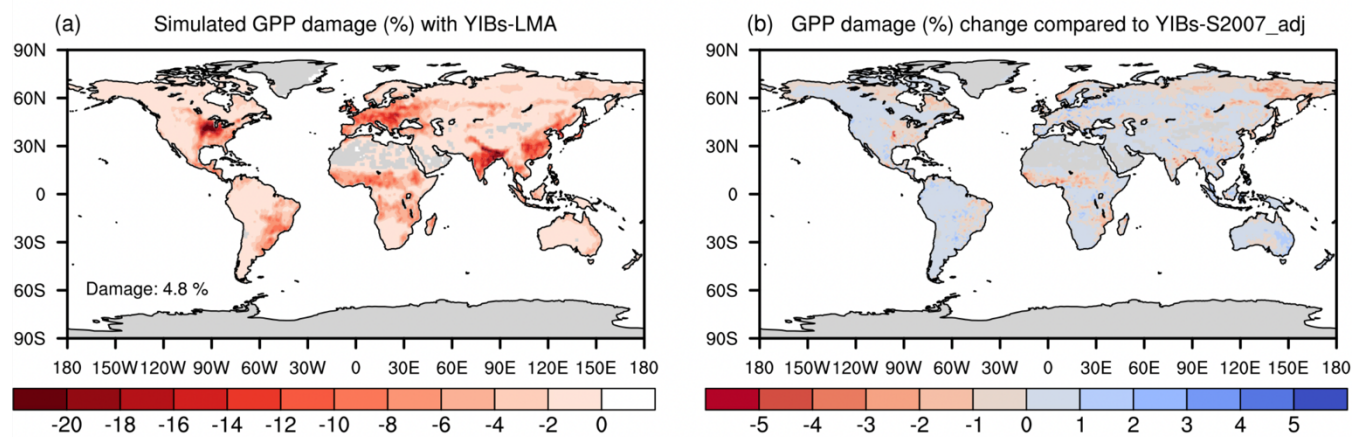
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541 **Figure 3.** Comparisons of observed and simulated dose-response relationships. Simulated PFT-specific  
542 DRRs are derived from YIBs-LMA with gridded LMA from M2018,  $x=0.019$  nmol g<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, and  $a=3.5$   
543 nmol<sup>-1</sup> s g. Each dot represents results from a gridcell with corresponding PFT. The regressions between  
544 relative GPP percentage ( $R_{GPP}$ ) and leaf area-based stomatal  $O_3$  uptake fluxes ( $POD_{y=1}$  for natural PFTs  
545 and  $POD_{y=6}$  for crops) are shown for observations (red, see Table S1) and simulations (blue) with slopes  
546 of DRRs denoted as  $So$  and  $Ss$ , respectively.  $So$  are missing for (d) cold and (e) arid shrubs. Coefficients  
547 of determination ( $R^2$ ) of simulations are displayed in each panel. Note the differences of ranges in x axis  
548 among PFTs (PFTs are shown in Fig. S2).

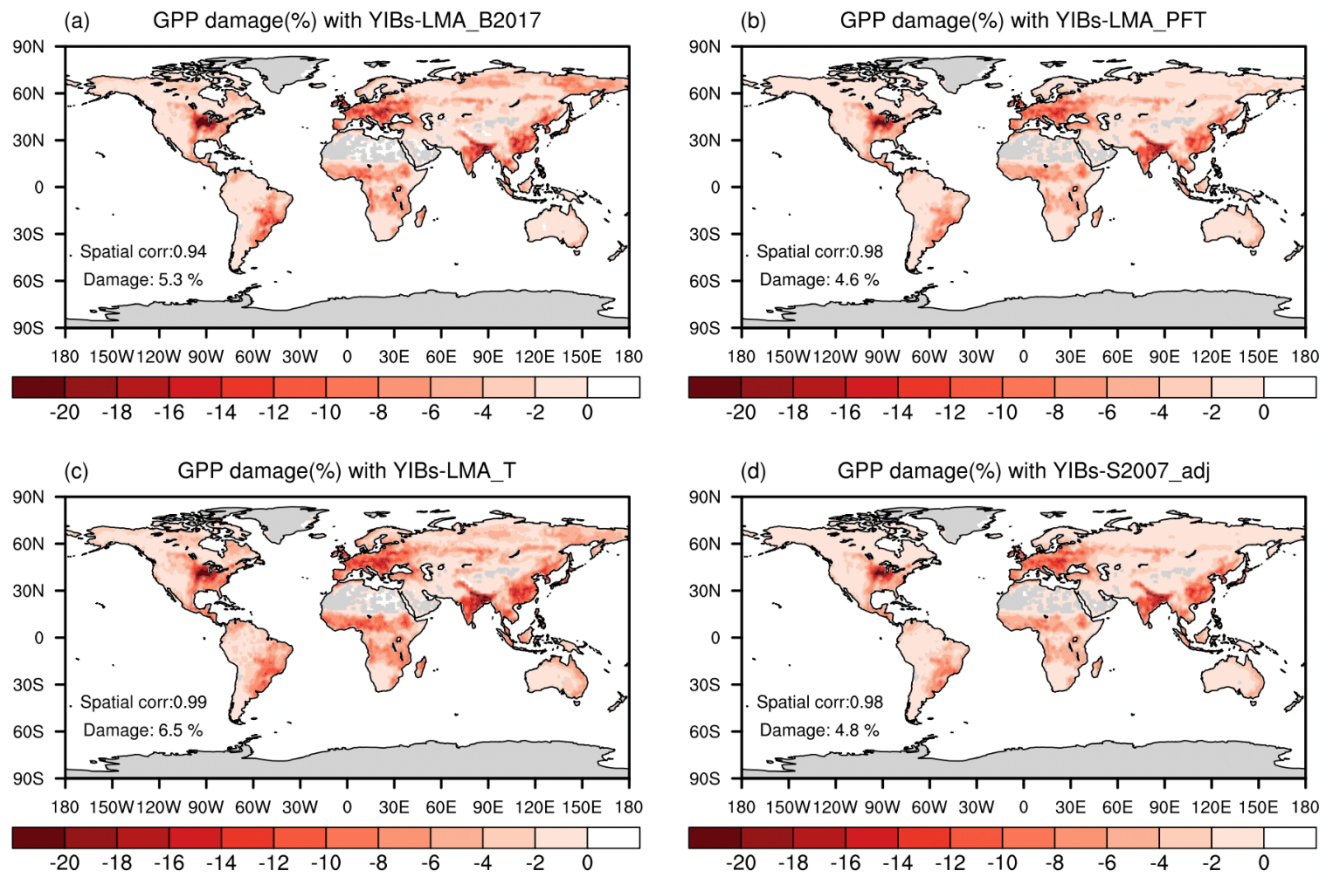




549 **Figure 4.** Global O<sub>3</sub> vegetation damage simulated with the LMA-based scheme. Results shown are the  
 550 (a) GPP reduction percentages by O<sub>3</sub> simulated with the YIBs-LMA framework (gridded LMA from  
 551 M2018,  $\chi=0.019 \text{ nmol g}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , and  $a=3.5 \text{ nmol}^{-1} \text{ s g}$ ), and (b) their differences compared to the predictions  
 552 from YIBs-S2007\_adj simulation. Blue (red) patches indicate the regions where damages predicted in  
 553 YIBs-LMA are lower (higher) than those in YIBs-S2007\_adj.  
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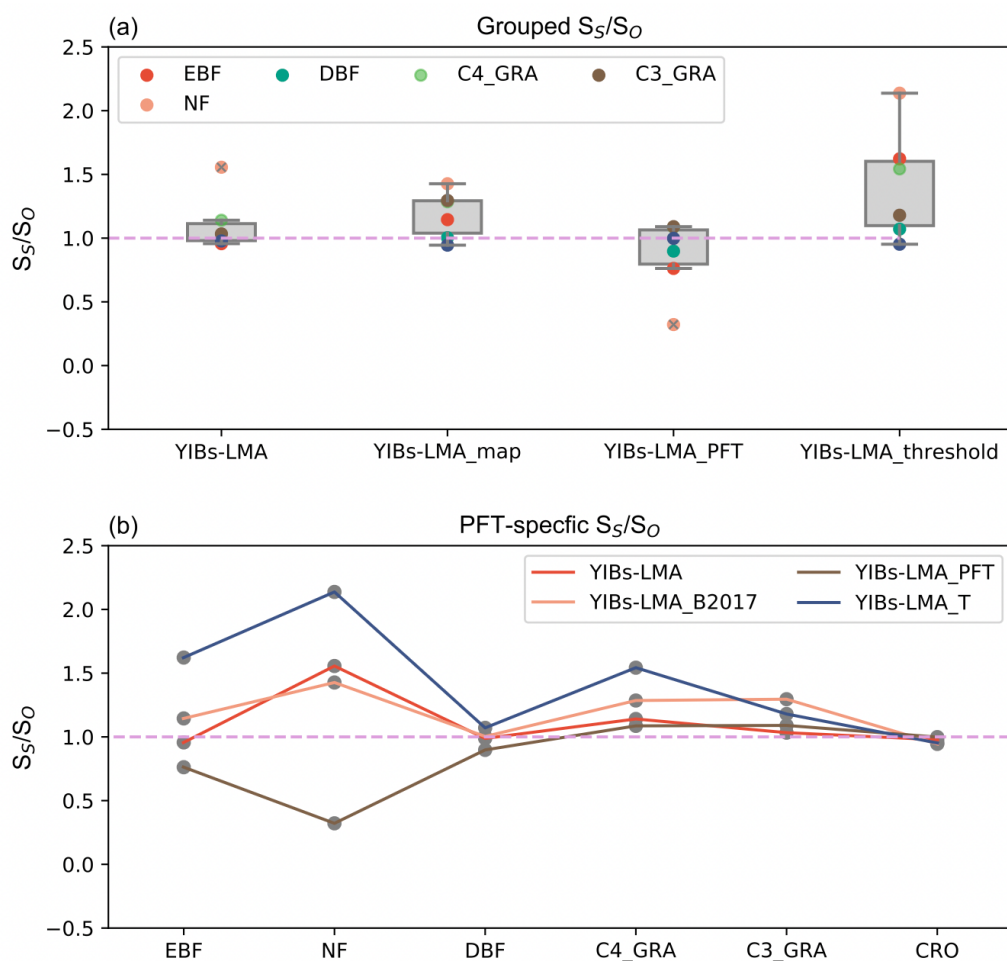


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558 **Figure 5.** Global O<sub>3</sub>-induced GPP reductions simulated in four supporting experiments. All damage  
559 maps are based on optimal parameters shown in Table 1. The spatial correlation coefficients between  
560 YIBs-LMA and these supporting simulations are shown on each panel as well as the global average  
561 damage percentage of each map. Simulations are described in Table 1.

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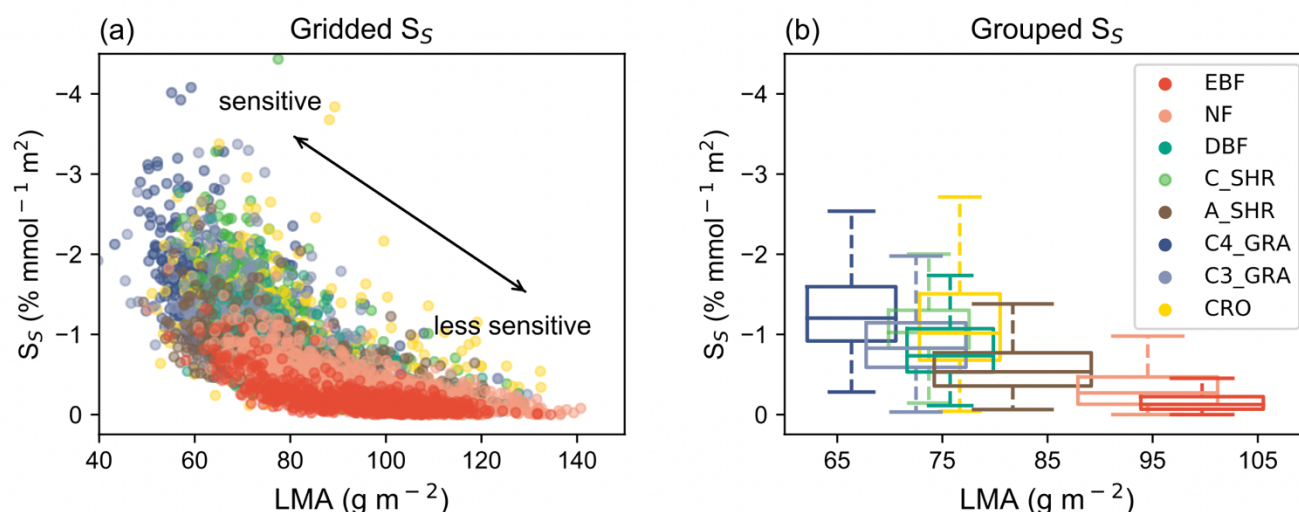




**Figure 6.** Comparison of  $S_S/S_O$  among supporting experiments. Individual ratios for (b) different PFTs are grouped to the boxplot in (a). All experiments adopt optimal parameters shown in Table 1.



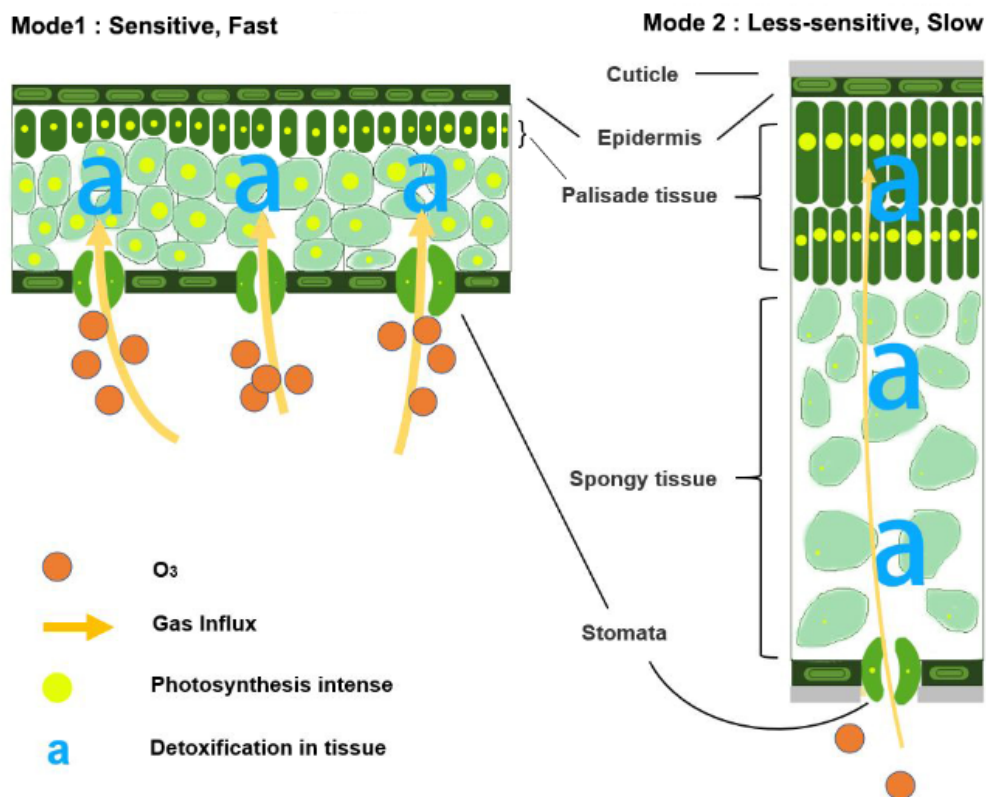
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**Figure 7.** Relationships between  $\text{O}_3$  sensitivity and LMA. (a) Simulated  $\text{O}_3$  sensitivity ( $S_5$ ) at each grid is compared with LMA for different PFTs. Gridded  $S_5$  is derived as GPP change per unit  $\text{POD}_{y=1}$  from the YIBs-LMA simulation. Each point represents the value in a grid cell with a dominant PFT. (b) The PFT-level relationships between LMA and  $\text{O}_3$  sensitivity are grouped as boxplots, which indicate the median, 25<sup>th</sup> percentile, and 75<sup>th</sup> percentile of y-axis variables within the same PFT. The width of boxplots represents one standard deviation of LMA for a specific PFT.

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577 **Figure 8.** Illustration of the relationships between leaf trade-off strategy and its sensitivity to  $O_3$

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