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# Dry deposition of reactive nitrogen to European ecosystems

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**C.R. Flechard<sup>1</sup>, E. Nemitz<sup>2</sup>, R.I. Smith<sup>2</sup>, D. Fowler<sup>2</sup>,  
A.T. Vermeulen<sup>3</sup>, A. Bleeker<sup>3</sup>, J.W. Erisman<sup>3</sup>, D. Simpson<sup>4,5</sup>,  
L. Zhang<sup>6</sup>, Y.S. Tang<sup>2</sup> and M.A. Sutton<sup>2</sup>**

<sup>1</sup>INRA, Agrocampus Ouest, UMR1069 Sol Agro et hydrosystème Spatialisation, Rennes, France

<sup>2</sup>Center for Ecology and Hydrology (CEH) Edinburgh, Penicuik, UK

<sup>3</sup>ECN, Netherlands Energy Research Foundation, Petten, The Netherlands

<sup>4</sup>EMEP MSC-W, Norwegian Meteorological Institute, Norway

<sup>5</sup>Dept. Earth and Space Sciences, Chalmers University of Technology, Gothenburg, Sweden

<sup>6</sup>Environment Canada, Toronto, Canada

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## **Dry deposition of reactive nitrogen to European ecosystems: a comparison of inferential models across the NitroEurope network**

**C. R. Flechard<sup>1</sup>, E. Nemitz<sup>2</sup>, R. I. Smith<sup>2</sup>, D. Fowler<sup>2</sup>, A. T. Vermeulen<sup>3</sup>, A. Bleeker<sup>3</sup>, J. W. Erisman<sup>3</sup>, D. Simpson<sup>4,5</sup>, L. Zhang<sup>6</sup>, Y. S. Tang<sup>2</sup>, and M. A. Sutton<sup>2</sup>**

<sup>1</sup>INRA, Agrocampus Ouest, UMR1069 Sol Agro et hydrosystème Spatialisation, 65, Rue de Saint-Brieuc, 35042 Rennes, France

<sup>2</sup>Center for Ecology and Hydrology (CEH) Edinburgh, Penicuik, UK

<sup>3</sup>ECN, Netherlands Energy Research Foundation, Petten, The Netherlands

<sup>4</sup>EMEP MSC-W, Norwegian Meteorological Institute, Norway

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<sup>5</sup>Dept. Earth and Space Sciences, Chalmers University of Technology, Gothenburg, Sweden

<sup>6</sup>Environment Canada, Toronto, Canada

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Correspondence to: C. R. Flechard (chris.flechard@rennes.inra.fr)

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deposition depends on atmospheric gas and aerosol  $N_r$  concentrations, weather patterns as well as land use/vegetation characteristics such as surface roughness, canopy leaf surface area and vegetation wetness. Unlike wet deposition, which is widely monitored in regional networks of wet-only or bulk precipitation collectors, measurements of dry (turbulent)  $N_r$  exchange fluxes have largely remained experimental and limited to selected research sites and to measurement campaigns of typically a few days to a few months, due to technical complexity and to the large equipment and operational costs involved.  $N_r$  concentration detectors that are reliable, sturdy, interference-free, fast and precise have proved elusive so far, at least as far as long-term micrometeorological flux measurements are concerned. Additional issues concerning inlet design, sampling losses and air column chemical reactions for highly reactive and soluble  $N_r$  species further indicate that large-scale dry deposition monitoring networks remain as yet impracticable.

Inferential modelling has been used extensively as an operational tool to obviate the absence of measured dry deposition data at regional scales (Baumgardner et al., 2002; Sickles and Shadwick, 2007; Erisman et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2009). The method was originally developed to assess ecosystem damage in areas subjected to acid (sulphur) deposition and to compute regional pollutant mass balances (e.g. Wesely and Hicks, 1977; Garland, 1977).

Dry deposition, or bi-directional surface/atmosphere exchange, may be inferred from the knowledge of (measured) atmospheric gaseous or particulate pollutant concentration above vegetation (or any roughness element at the Earth's surface), using various assumptions regarding transfer rates through the air and the surface. A number of increasingly complex inferential schemes have been implemented in atmospheric transport chemical models (Meyers et al., 1998; Wesely and Hicks, 2000; Wu et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2003), or are being proposed for implementation (Wu et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2010; Massad et al., 2010 in the case of  $NH_3$ ), and these can also be used to interpret micrometeorological field flux measurements. These models have been parameterised on the basis of measured field flux data, but specific exchange processes

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and pathways are still poorly understood and their parameterisations remain crude and largely empirical. Also, model development has taken place in different countries with different pollution climates, so that parameterisations derived from field data may not be universally valid. Thus, much variation in dry deposition estimates may be expected between models, hinting that uncertainties remain rather large.

In 2006 the EU-sponsored NitroEurope Integrated Project (NEU for short) established a continent-wide network of 55 sites to monitor monthly ambient inorganic  $N_r$  concentrations over a large range of ecosystems and to estimate dry deposition fluxes using inferential techniques (Sutton et al., 2007; Tang et al., 2009), with the final aim to interpret  $CO_2$  and greenhouse gas exchange across the network in relation to atmospheric  $N_r$  inputs. The primary objective of this paper is to provide an ensemble average estimate of  $N_r$  deposition for monitoring sites across the network, based on measured concentration data from the first two years of the project (2007–2008), and obtained by running four existing dry deposition schemes at the ecosystem scale. The wide range of vegetation types, meteorological conditions and pollution climates described by all monitoring sites provide a comprehensive dataset, with which to explore the differences in model responses to input data. The four routines are described and compared with a view to point out the similarities and the major differences in the approaches adopted by each model, to identify priority areas for potential improvement, and to assess current uncertainties in dry deposition estimates from inferential networks.

## 2 Materials and methods

### 2.1 Dry deposition models

The four dry deposition routines implemented in this study, which are currently used as modules within chemical transport models (CTMs) at national or continental scales in Europe and N. America, include the UK CBED scheme (Smith et al., 2000), the Dutch

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resistances, as well as non foliage terms, e.g. the soil or ground surface resistance ( $R_{gr}$ ). Most models (EMEP-03, IDEM, CDRY) also include an in-canopy aerodynamic resistance ( $R_{ac}$ ), acting between the assumed big-leaf and ground surface, while the CBED approach is strictly single-layered. The main sub-resistances of  $R_c$  are briefly presented here; for details the reader is referred to the original publications. Note that all resistances are expressed in  $s\ m^{-1}$  by default throughout this paper.

### Gaseous transfer through stomata

Stomatal resistances to gaseous transfer are typically derived in the different models using a light-response function of the generic type (Jarvis, 1976):

$$R_s = R_{s,\min} \left[ 1 + \frac{b'}{I_p} \right] / (f_e f_w f_T f_s) \quad (3)$$

Here  $I_p$  is light intensity taken either as the photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) or global radiation ( $S_t$ ) as its proxy;  $b'$  is an empirical constant,  $R_{s,\min}$  is a minimum value of the stomatal resistance to water vapour, with  $b'$  and  $R_{s,\min}$  taking characteristic values for each vegetation type or land use; the correction factors  $f_e$ ,  $f_w$  and  $f_T$  account for the effects of increasing vapour pressure deficit (vpd), plant water stress and temperature, respectively (Jarvis, 1976). The last factor  $f_s$  is a scaling factor to account for the difference in molecular diffusivity between water vapour and the trace gas considered. For the EMEP-03 model a further factor for phenology is also included (Emberson et al., 2001; Simpson et al., 2003).

Note that  $R_s$  in Eq. (3) is expressed on a unit leaf area (projected) basis, or equivalent to a unity leaf area index (LAI). All models except IDEM split PAR into its direct and diffuse fractions and compute the sunlit and shaded components of LAI, such that total (or bulk) stomatal resistance is calculated from sunlit and shaded resistances weighted by their respective LAI fractions (Baldochi et al., 1987). Thus in CBED, CDRY and EMEP-03, the bulk stomatal conductance  $G_s (= R_s^{-1})$  does not increase linearly with

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total LAI but tends to saturate for larger LAI levels. By contrast, IDEM uses by default a simplified version, in which LAI is not split into sunlit and shaded fractions, but where  $G_s$  is proportional to total LAI. The  $R_s$  routine by Wesely et al. (1989), which only requires global radiation and surface temperature as input, may be used as an option in IDEM when land use and vegetation characteristics are not well known.

### Non-stomatal resistances

Although non-stomatal pathways, either on leaf cuticles or other non-foliar surfaces (stems, bark, ground, etc), provide an important, and often dominant, sink for atmospheric gases on an annual basis (Fowler et al., 2001, 2009; Flechard et al., 1998), there are as yet no consensual, generic and fully mechanistic parameterisations for non-stomatal resistances, which are variously termed  $R_{ns}$ ,  $R_{ext}$ ,  $R_w$ ,  $R_{cut}$ ,  $R_{gr}$  in different models. This is partly due to the much greater technical and methodological difficulties, and larger uncertainties, involved in measuring trace  $N_r$  gas (e.g.  $NH_3$ ,  $HNO_3$ , HONO, PAN) fluxes, let alone non-stomatal resistances, and also due to the resulting relative scarcity of reliable field observations, as compared with water vapour fluxes and  $R_s$ . Also, in addition to the many environmental factors that have been shown or surmised to be involved in the control of non-stomatal resistances (e.g. wetness, temperature, vegetation type, pollution climate, soil pH, leaf surface chemistry), it appears that hysteresis or “memory” effects control the rate of charge or discharge of the surface  $N_r$  pool, especially in the case of  $NH_3$  (Sutton et al., 1998; Flechard et al., 1999; Neiryneck and Ceulemans, 2008; Burkhardt et al., 2009; Wichink Kruit et al., 2010), challenging the applicability of a (static) resistance approach.

For  $NH_3$ , the four models use widely different empirical schemes for non-stomatal resistances, reflecting the spread in mean values and functional relationships found in the literature. This is consistent with the different ecosystems and pollution climates in which the original  $NH_3$  flux measurements were made (Nemitz et al., 2001; Massad et al., 2010). CBED actually uses a constant  $R_c$  of  $20\ s\ m^{-1}$  for forests and moorland, while for grasslands and crops the following  $R_w$  function is implemented (Smith et al.,

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where  $\varepsilon_0$  is an empirical constant and  $R_1$  the fraction of particles that stick to the surface. Parameters used to calculate aerosol collection efficiencies  $E_B$  (Brownian diffusion),  $E_{IN}$  (interception) and  $E_{IM}$  (impaction) are land-use and season-dependent.

In IDEM, the deposition velocity for particulate  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  is calculated according to Wesely et al. (1985) for short vegetation and other areas with a momentum roughness length smaller than 0.5 m. For forests and other areas with  $z_0 > 0.5$  m, the scheme by Ruijgrok et al. (1997) is used, such that:

$$V_d(z_{\text{ref}}) = \frac{1}{R_a(z_{\text{ref}}) + V_{\text{ds}}^{-1}} + V_g \quad (15)$$

$$V_{\text{ds}} = E \frac{u_*^2}{U_{hc}} \quad (16)$$

with  $V_{\text{ds}}$  the surface deposition velocity,  $E$  the overall collection efficiency and  $U_{hc}$  the wind speed at canopy height ( $h_c$ ). It can readily be seen that  $V_{\text{ds}}$  is equivalent to  $R_{\text{surf}}^{-1}$  of CDRY (Eq. 13), but Ruijgrok et al. (1997) derived simplified relationships for the overall collection efficiency  $E$  and  $V_{\text{ds}}$  for the chemical species  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  and other base cations under various conditions. For  $\text{RH} < 80\%$   $E$  is of the form:

$$E = \alpha u_*^\beta \quad (17)$$

where the empirical constants  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are chemical species- and surface wetness-dependent. For relative humidity above 80% they introduce a dependence on relative humidity to account for the observed increased  $V_{\text{ds}}$  with growing particle diameter ( $D_p$ ). In IDEM, the calculation scheme for the settling velocity  $V_g$  (implemented for large particles only) is similarly simplified. Note that gravitational settling is included conceptually in Eqs. (13), (14) and (16), although it is negligible for the fine aerosol fraction (aerodynamic diameter  $< 1 \mu\text{m}$ ), where most of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  mass is likely found, and only becomes relevant for coarse particles.

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The CBED model currently calculates  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  aerosol deposition velocities using a simple, empirically-derived scheme, whereby  $V_d$  is the product of  $u_*$  times a tabulated land use- and chemical species-specific constant ( $\alpha$ ). The parameter  $\alpha$  is of the order of 0.005 for grassland and semi-natural vegetation, of 0.01 for arable land, and of 0.02–0.03 for forests (for  $u_*$  and  $V_d$  expressed in the same unit e.g.  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ); also,  $\alpha(\text{NO}_3^-)$  is 49%, 36% and 60% larger than  $\alpha(\text{NH}_4^+)$  for grassland/semi-natural, arable land and forests, respectively (Smith and Nemitz, CEH Edinburgh, unpublished). These  $\alpha$  values were derived by weighting measured curves of  $V_d(D_p)/u_*$  over different ecosystems (Gallagher et al., 1997; Nemitz et al., 2002; Joutsenoja, 1992) with typical size-distributions of nitrate and ammonium.

## 2.2 NitroEurope inferential network sites

Reactive nitrogen dry deposition was estimated by field-scale inferential modelling at the 55 monitoring sites of the NitroEurope network (Sutton et al., 2007; Tang et al., 2009) where all necessary input data, including  $\text{N}_t$  atmospheric concentrations, meteorological and/or micrometeorological data, were available for the two years 2007–2008, or at least one full year. The network included 29 forest (F) stations; 9 semi-natural short vegetation ecosystems (SN) e.g. semi-arid steppe, alpine or upland grasslands, moorlands and fens; 8 fertilised, productive grasslands (G); and 9 cropland (C) sites (Table 1). All NEU inferential sites, with the exception of DE-Hoe, FI-Lom, NL-Spe and UA-Pet, were also  $\text{CO}_2$  flux monitoring stations of the EU-funded CarboEurope Integrated Project (<http://www.carboeurope.org/>), which aimed at an assessment of the European terrestrial carbon balance (Dolman et al., 2008). Sites locations and vegetation characteristics are summarised in Table 1, and details and photographs may be obtained from the CarboEurope-IP database (<http://gaia.agraria.unitus.it/database/carboeuropeip/>), or from the list of selected references provided in Table A1 in the online Supplement to this article. The study sites were distributed across Europe from Ireland to Russia and from Finland to Portugal,

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with mean annual temperatures ranging from  $-0.1^{\circ}\text{C}$  (FI-Lom) to  $17.8^{\circ}\text{C}$  (ES-ES1), and mean annual rainfall ranging from 464 mm (UA-Pet) to 1450 mm (IE-Dri). Sites elevations range from  $-2\text{ m a.m.s.l.}$  (NL-Hor) to  $1765\text{ m a.m.s.l.}$  (ES-VDA). Measured maximum canopy heights ( $h_c$ ) and LAI are on average  $20.2\text{ m}/4.9\text{ m}^2\text{ m}^{-2}$  for forests,  $0.8\text{ m}/3.2\text{ m}^2\text{ m}^{-2}$  for semi-natural vegetation,  $0.4\text{ m}/5.5\text{ m}^2\text{ m}^{-2}$  for grasslands and  $1.8\text{ m}/7.0\text{ m}^2\text{ m}^{-2}$  for crops.

## 2.3 Input data and model implementation

### 2.3.1 Ecosystem and micrometeorological data

For a detailed description of the management of input data and model implementation at the ecosystem scale for all NEU monitoring sites, the reader is referred to the online Supplement. Briefly, the model base runs used measured values of  $h_c$  as inputs, whereas for LAI inputs the model default values were used preferentially, due to the uncertainties in measured estimates of LAI. A comparison of model default values of LAI and  $h_c$  with actual measurements is shown in Fig. 1c and d.

For  $u_*$  and sensible heat flux ( $H$ ), actual measurements from EC datasets at each site were used whenever possible, and data were otherwise gap-filled from standard meteorological data (cf. Sect. A3 in Supplement). Measurements of canopy wetness were available at very few sites, and thus a dynamic surface wetness energy balance model was coupled to the modelling framework for most sites; a comparison with actual measurements is shown in Sect. A5 of Supplement.

Alternative model runs were computed to investigate the sensitivity of annual fluxes to input values of  $h_c$  and LAI and to surface temperature and relative humidity, as detailed in Sects. A2 and A4 of the Supplement, with the characteristics of the base and sensitivity runs being summarised in Table A2 therein.

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### 2.3.2 Atmospheric $\text{N}_r$ concentration data

#### Pollutant monitoring by denuder and filter sampling

Ambient  $\text{N}_r$  concentrations of gaseous  $\text{NH}_3$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$  and HONO and aerosol  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  were monitored monthly at the 55 sites of the inferential network from early 2007 onwards using DELTA systems (DENuder for Long-Term Atmospheric sampling, described in detail in Sutton et al., 2001 and Tang et al., 2009) (Table 2). Briefly, the DELTA sampling “train” consists of two coated borosilicate glass denuder tubes in series for scrubbing acidic trace gases ( $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{SO}_2$ ,  $\text{HCl}$ , HONO), followed by two denuders for  $\text{NH}_3$  and finally by a filter-pack assembly with a first impregnated filter to capture aerosol phase anions ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$ ) as well as base cations ( $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ), and a second filter to collect the evolved particulate  $\text{NH}_4^+$ . Air is sampled at a rate of  $0.3\text{--}0.4\text{ l min}^{-1}$  and directly into the first denuder with no inlet line to avoid sampling losses. Denuders for acid gases and filters for aerosol anions and base cations are coated/impregnated with potassium carbonate/glycerol, while for gaseous  $\text{NH}_3$  and aerosol  $\text{NH}_4^+$  citric acid or phosphorous acid is used. The empirically determined effective size cut-off for aerosol sampling is of the order of  $4.5\text{ }\mu\text{m}$  (Nemitz, unpublished data).

The DELTA sampling trains were prepared and assembled in seven coordinator laboratories (CEAM, Spain; CEH, United Kingdom; FAL/vTI, Germany; INRA, France; MHSC, Croatia; NILU, Norway; and SHMU, Slovakia), sent out to the inferential sites for monthly field exposure, then sent back to the laboratories for denuder/filter extraction and analysis. The DELTA systems thus provided monthly mean ambient  $\text{N}_r$  concentrations for each site of the network; this paper deals, unless otherwise stated, with the data collected during the first two years (2007–2008) of the whole monitoring period (2007–2010).

To ensure comparability of data provided by the different laboratories, DELTA inter-comparison campaigns were carried out at yearly intervals at selected sites as part of a

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defined QA/QC programme, whereby seven sample trains (one provided by each laboratory) were exposed side by side for a month and then extracted and analysed by each laboratory (Tang et al., 2009). In addition to this full intercomparison exercise, in which the whole sample train management (preparation, coating, impregnation, assembly, 5 dispatching, exposure, field handling, extraction, analysis) was tested, each laboratory also regularly received synthetic solutions for “blind” analysis from three chemical intercomparison centres: CEH, Scotland; EMEP/NILU, Norway; and the Global Atmospheric Watch program (GAW) of the WMO. The results of the first DELTA intercomparisons were presented in Tang et al. (2009); an in-depth analysis of the full concentration 10 dataset will be published in a companion paper (Tang et al., 2011).

In addition to the monthly denuder and filter  $N_f$  concentration data provided by DELTA systems, ambient  $NO_2$  concentrations were monitored by chemiluminescence on an hourly or half-hourly basis at a number of sites (BE-Bra, FI-Hyy, IT-Ren, NL-Spe, FI-Lom, HU-Bug, UK-AMo, CH-Oe1, UK-EBu, FR-Gri, IT-Cas). Although  $NO_2$  concentration 15 were not measured at all sites, the available data are useful to assess the likely magnitude of ecosystem  $NO_2$  uptake relative to total  $N_f$  dry deposition and the variability between model predictions for  $NO_2$  deposition. For the remaining sites, mean modelled  $NO_2$  concentrations from the EMEP 50 km  $\times$  50 km model output for the year 2004 were used.

## 20 Aerosol size distribution

The extraction of DELTA filters yielded total aerosol concentrations, as the fractions of fine vs. coarse aerosols could not be determined for each of  $NH_4^+$ ,  $NO_3^-$  or other chemical species. For the two aerosol  $V_d$  schemes (CBED, IDEM) that do not explicitly model aerosol size-dependent deposition velocities, but instead calculate a species- 25 specific mean  $V_d$  across the aerosol size range, this was not an issue. However, in both the EMEP-03 and CDRY models, aerosol  $V_d$  is a function of particle diameter  $D_p$ . In EMEP-03 two deposition velocities are calculated, one for each of fine ( $D_p = 0.3 \mu m$ ) and coarse ( $D_p = 4 \mu m$ ) aerosols, independent of the chemical species considered. In

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CDRY, species-specific values of the geometric mean mass diameter (DG) and geometric standard deviation (GSD) are attributed to both fine and coarse aerosol modes, and two log-normal particle size distributions are generated on the basis of DG and GSD, one for each mode. In both models, therefore, the fine and coarse fractions of 5 the total aerosol loading measured on the DELTA filters need to be estimated, so that modelled  $V_d$  is applied to the concentration in the appropriate size range. In the CTM versions of EMEP-03 and CDRY, fine and coarse fractions are calculated dynamically within the regional chemical model, but in the present local-scale application such data are not available. By default, and in a first approximation, fine aerosol was assumed 10 to account for 94% of total  $NH_4^+$ , 81% of total  $NO_3^-$  and 90% of total  $SO_4^{2-}$  following Ruijgrok et al. (1997), realising that in reality this ratio will be site specific, especially for  $NO_3^-$ , which has a larger contribution from coarse  $NaNO_3$  at coastal sites.

## Corrections for within-canopy concentration data

At most sites of the NEU network, air sampling by DELTA systems provided concentrations at least 1 m above the canopy. However, at 10 forest sites (BE-Vie, DE-Hai, DE-Tha, ES-ES1, ES-LMa, FI-Sod, IT-Ren, PT-Mi1, SE-Nor, SE-Sk2), the DELTA system was actually set up in a clearing or in the trunk space, typically 1.5 to 2 m above the forest floor. This was for practical reasons, mostly to facilitate the safe exchange of sampling trains in challenging winter conditions or windy weather. The inferential method requires atmospheric concentrations and turbulence intensity *above* the canopy to predict rates of dry deposition to the forest, and thus the validity of clearing or below-crown concentrations as proxies of above-canopy concentrations can be questioned and needs to be examined (Zhang et al., 2009; Tuovinen et al., 2009). There are very few published within-canopy (vertical)  $NH_3$  and  $HNO_3$  concentration profiles in the literature for forests. Within-canopy profile data for  $NH_3$  have been obtained mostly in 25 grasslands (Nemitz et al., 2009) and crops such as oilseed rape (Nemitz et al., 2000b) and maize (Bash et al., 2010). These data showed consistently larger concentrations near the ground and below canopy, compared with above the canopy, indicative of  $NH_3$

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sources in the ground and in the leaf litter as well as within the canopy itself, especially following fertilisation. In forests, however, soil and leaf litter are less likely to be strong  $\text{NH}_3$  emitters due to a generally smaller pH and/or N limitations compared with fertilised systems, and we assume in this study that deposition to the forest floor pre-  
5 vails. We consequently surmise that  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations measured in clearings and below canopy are consistently smaller than above treetops, in a similar fashion to the  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{HNO}_3$  data obtained at the Oak Ridge site of the U.S. AIRMoN inferential network (Hicks, 2006). There, the tower/clearing concentration ratio was on average  
10 1.26 for  $\text{SO}_2$ , 1.34 for  $\text{HNO}_3$  and 1.07 for particulate  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ . There were seasonal variations in the tower/clearing ratio, especially for  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{HNO}_3$ , with generally larger values (up to 1.4–1.5) in the second half of the year and annual lows (1.1–1.2) in late winter, which were attributed to changes in LAI of the mixed forest, although it was concluded that not enough data were available as yet to derive robust corrections based on LAI. In a first approximation we thus applied a constant correction factor of 1.3 to  $\text{NH}_3$   
15 and  $\text{HNO}_3$  concentrations measured in clearings or below trees at the aforementioned sites; for particulate  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  we used a correction factor identical to the mean  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  tower/clearing ratio of 1.07 reported by Hicks (2006).

### 2.3.3 Modelling and integrating annual fluxes

The inferential models were run on a half-hourly time step, which was the frequency of  
20 input micrometeorological data in the CarboEurope IP database. The atmospheric and surface resistance terms, the  $\text{NH}_3$  compensation points (where applicable), and the aerosol deposition velocities, were computed whenever all necessary input data were available for the 2-year period 2007-2008. Half-hourly fluxes were calculated from half-hourly exchange parameters ( $V_d$ ,  $\chi_c$ ) and monthly gas/aerosol DELTA concentrations,  
25 or hourly data in the case of measured  $\text{NO}_2$ . Note that for the monthly DELTA data, none of the diurnal or day-to-day variations in concentrations were known, except at very few sites where intensive, high resolution measurements were made; potential

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correlations on daily time scales between concentration and  $V_d$  could lead to significant systematic bias in the modelled fluxes at some sites, but this was not investigated here.

For cases when all input data were available throughout the 2-year measurement period, the monthly and annual fluxes can simply be obtained by adding up all modelled half-hourly fluxes. In practise, however, there were at most sites periods of a  
5 few hours to a few days or weeks during which at least one key variable (such as windspeed, temperature or relative humidity) was missing, e.g. due to instrument malfunction, breakdown, power cuts or theft/vandalism, such that mechanistic gap-filling for fluxes was precluded. A simple upscaling procedure based on the arithmetic mean  
10 of all modelled fluxes multiplied by the total number of 30-min time intervals in the year potentially leads to a statistical bias. Thus, the approach adopted here consists of computing for each month the arithmetic mean diurnal cycle from all modelled half-hourly flux data, then scaling up to the whole month, and adding up 12 monthly fluxes for the annual total.

15 At intensively managed grassland and cropland sites of the NEU network, fertilisation occurred once to several times a year, in which net  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions typically ensued over one or several weeks, and where elevated ambient  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations occurred as a result (e.g. Flechard et al., 2010). Here the modelled (inferential)  $\text{NH}_3$  flux data from the fertilisation months were not included in the annual deposition total, the reason being  
20 twofold; first, inferential models are primarily deposition models and are not suited to situations with large  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions e.g. from applied fertiliser, but to background conditions (Flechard et al., 2010); the special case of fertiliser- or manure-induced  $\text{NH}_3$  losses requires a different kind of modelling approach (e.g. Genermont and Cellier, 1997) and is not considered here. Second, applying an inferential model to months  
25 when fertilisation occurred would result in a large deposition flux (due to the elevated  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration) when net emission actually occurred, thus over-estimating annual deposition.

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deposition to forests was derived for The Netherlands (NL-Loo, NL-Spe) and Belgium (BE-Bra), while remote boreal forests (FI-Hyy, FI-Sod, SE-Nor) received the smallest inputs. Similar differences occurred in SN ecosystems, with less than  $1 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  at FI-Lom compared with about  $15\text{--}25 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  at NL-Hor. Dry deposition of  $\text{N}_r$  to short semi-natural vegetation was dominated by  $\text{NH}_3$ , except in CDRY, contributing typically 50–75% of total dry deposition inputs, depending on the model (Fig. 5). Despite similar concentrations overall (Table 2), the relative contribution of  $\text{NH}_3$  was less over F than over SN, typically only 30–40%, either because aerosol deposition rates were larger, especially in CBED and IDEM (Fig. 3), or because  $\text{HNO}_3$  fluxes were large, being of the same order as  $\text{NH}_3$  over forests in the CDRY and EMEP-03 models (Fig. 5).

Although the deposition velocity of  $\text{NO}_2$  was small compared with that of  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{HNO}_3$  (Fig. 3), the comparatively large ambient  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations at a few sites (BE-Bra, FI-Hyy, IT-Ren, NL-Spe, CH-Oe1, FR-Gri) resulted in  $\text{NO}_2$  contributing a large – and sometimes dominant – fraction of total  $\text{N}_r$  dry deposition at some sites (Fig. 5), especially with CDRY. In a scoping study of 14 short-term inferential campaigns over 8 CAPMoN sites in Eastern and Central Canada, Zhang et al. (2009) estimated that the combined dry deposition of  $\text{NO}_2$ , PAN and other  $\text{NO}_y$  species contributed between 4% and 18% of total (dry + wet)  $\text{N}_r$  deposition. Most sites of the NEU network, however, were located in remote or rural landscapes, and although  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations were not measured everywhere, it may be assumed that  $\text{NO}_2$  generally contributed less than 10–15% of dry  $\text{N}_r$  deposition, as observed at e.g. IT-Col, FI-Lom, UK-AMo, HU-Bug (Fig. 5). The estimated  $\text{NO}_2$  contribution was especially small, and often even nought, with the EMEP-03 routine due to the implementation of the 4 ppb threshold (Sect. 2.1.1). HONO was generally not detectable except at roadside (e.g. CH-Oe1) and suburban sites (FR-Gri, FR-Fon), but concentrations were very small and may partly have resulted from a sampling artefact, and HONO deposition is neglected here, also given that inferential modelling of HONO is very uncertain due to the possibility of heterogeneous production at surfaces.

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Over managed grassland and crops, the compensation point approach in CBED allowed a few sites to be net annual emitters of  $\text{NH}_3$  and even of  $\text{N}_r$  (e.g. DE-Gri, IT-Cas), while the other models consistently predicted a net  $\text{N}_r$  sink of the order of  $5\text{--}15 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ . The two agricultural sites with the largest (monthly mean and maximum) ambient  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations, at NL-Ca1 and IT-BCi (Table 2), are also the sites where modelled annual dry deposition is largest, possibly in excess of  $20 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ . This is logical from an inferential modelling point of view, but it is quite possible that at such sites the large concentration background observed in the surface layer may result, in part, from emissions by the underlying vegetation, leaf litter and soil in crops at IT-BCi (Nemitz et al., 2000b; Bash et al., 2010), or grazing animals in the case of NL-Ca1. If this were the case, net ecosystem emission could actually prevail at these sites, even outside periods following fertilisation events. The inadequacy of  $R_c$  inferential approaches for  $\text{NH}_3$  (CDRY, EMEP-03, IDEM), or even of single layer ( $\chi_s/R_w$ ) compensation point modelling (CBED), in the case of fertilised and managed agricultural systems, has long been recognized (Sutton et al., 1993; Fowler et al., 2009), and new parameterisations for  $\text{NH}_3$  in CTMs are emerging (Zhang et al., 2010; Massad et al., 2010), which seek to relate the  $\text{NH}_3$  emission potential to plant N status and fertilisation level or atmospheric N deposition. For such systems the challenge does not actually reside in the determination of atmospheric  $\text{N}_r$  inputs, since these represent typically less than 10% of added fertiliser, but rather in the quantification of field  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions and their contribution to regional atmospheric  $\text{N}_r$  budgets (Flechar et al., 2010).

It should be noted that concentration levels of organic  $\text{N}_r$  compounds, which were not considered in the present study, can be significant in the troposphere, although their sources, sinks and concentrations are not well known. Water-soluble organic N (WSON) contributed typically 20–25% of total gas and particulate  $\text{N}_r$  in rural air in Scotland (González Benítez et al., 2010), but WSON speciation and deposition velocities remain uncertain. Published dry deposition measurements of PAN point to  $V_d$  values of the order of  $1\text{--}2 \text{ mm s}^{-1}$  over grass (Doskey et al., 2004), and up to

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10–15 mm s<sup>-1</sup> over coniferous forest in daytime, equivalent to a canopy resistance of the order of 100 s m<sup>-1</sup> (Turnipseed et al., 2006; Wolfe et al., 2009), suggesting that PAN deposition to forests may be much faster than predicted by current algorithms (e.g. Zhang et al., 2009). With typical PAN concentrations of 0.1–1 ppb, Turnipseed et al. (2006) calculated that PAN contributed about 20% of daytime NO<sub>y</sub> (NO + NO<sub>2</sub> + HNO<sub>3</sub> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> + PAN) dry deposition at their forest site. However, considering the strong control of PAN deposition by stomatal opening and uptake (Doskey et al., 2004), and the consequently reduced V<sub>d</sub> at night and in winter, the contribution of PAN and other atmospheric organic nitrates to total N<sub>r</sub> inputs must be minor on the annual time scale.

### 3.3 Comparison with flux monitoring datasets

The surface/atmosphere exchange of reactive nitrogen has been investigated and measured at numerous sites in Europe and elsewhere, yet this has been done most often campaign-wise, with measurements lasting typically a few days to a few weeks. The data thus obtained are invaluable for understanding exchange processes and developing parameterisations for atmospheric models, but they typically cover only a limited range of meteorological conditions, atmospheric concentrations and vegetation development stages. The validation of inferential models at the ecosystem scale benefits much from comparisons with long-term flux measurement datasets, as the wide range of environmental conditions covered is useful for highlighting deficiencies in process understanding and for comparing scaled-up, annual estimates with actual, measured dry deposition. Such long-term flux datasets are rare in the case of NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub>, and almost non-existent for HNO<sub>3</sub> and aerosol NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>.

Many forest sites of the NEU network have been monitoring wet-only or bulk deposition and throughfall as part of national or international initiatives (e.g. the ICP-Forests programme of the CLRTAP; <http://www.icp-forests.org/>), which, by difference between above- and below-canopy fluxes, may provide estimates of dry deposition,

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though uncertainties are large due to canopy interactions (Lovett and Lindberg, 1993; Zimmermann et al., 2006; Neiryck et al., 2007; Simpson et al., 2006b). Only two forest sites (BE-Bra, NL-Spe) within the NEU network have actually monitored annual NH<sub>3</sub> dry deposition in the past using the flux-gradient technique (Fig. 6). The measurements by Neiryck et al. (2007) at BE-Bra suggested an annual deposition input of nearly -20 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, which is larger than the output of any of the four models in the present study (Table 3), whose ensemble average is only of the order of -10 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 6). Only part of the difference may be explained by the larger mean NH<sub>3</sub> concentration (3.0 μg m<sup>-3</sup>) at the time of the flux measurements in 1999–2001 (Neiryck et al., 2007) than in the NEU DELTA dataset (2.3 μg m<sup>-3</sup>) in 2007–2008. A clear indication that especially CDRY and EMEP-03 both largely under-estimated NH<sub>x</sub> (NH<sub>3</sub> + NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) dry deposition at BE-Bra, with annual fluxes of the order of -6 to -8 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (Table 3), is provided by a comparison with throughfall data. Measured wet deposition of NH<sub>x</sub> was 7 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> at BE-Bra, which together with dry deposition from CDRY or EMEP-03, would total around 15 kg NH<sub>x</sub>-N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, while the measured throughfall was actually 18 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> over the same time period (J. Neiryck, personal communication, 2010).

The comparison is more favourable at NL-Spe, where the measured total deposition in 1994–1995 of -17.9 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (Erismann et al., 1996) is well in the range of the four model estimates in the NEU dataset and close to the ensemble mean (-16.9 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) (Fig. 6), with the difference in mean concentrations between the two periods being consistent with the model/measurement difference. A striking element in the comparison of BE-Bra with NL-Spe is the roughly equal measured annual NH<sub>3</sub> dry deposition at the two sites (-19.6 vs. -17.9 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) while the mean concentration was about 50% larger at NL-Spe, pointing to a much smaller R<sub>c</sub> at BE-Bra, since the annual mean u<sub>\*</sub> was identical (0.51 m s<sup>-1</sup>) at the two sites. The much smaller mean NH<sub>3</sub>/SO<sub>2</sub> molar ratio at BE-Bra (2.9) than at NL-Spe (11.1) has been held responsible for the difference in measured R<sub>c</sub> for NH<sub>3</sub> (Neiryck et al., 2005), but the effect of leaf surface chemistry on deposition rates is not adequately reflected in most

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dry deposition models. Flux measurements at BE-Bra during 1999–2001 showed a reduced  $R_c$  for  $\text{NH}_3$  and larger  $R_c$  for  $\text{SO}_2$  during winter when the  $\text{NH}_3/\text{SO}_2$  molar ratio was below 1; in summer this ratio was larger than 3 and  $R_c$  for  $\text{SO}_2$  was correspondingly smaller, while  $R_c$  for  $\text{NH}_3$  was increased (J. Neyrinck, personal communication, 2010). Because in Europe the total acid concentration is not necessarily dominated by  $\text{SO}_2$ , the molar ratio of  $\text{NH}_3$  to the sum of the main atmospheric strong acids ( $\text{SO}_2$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{HCl}$ ) is actually a better proxy for linking surface resistance to the pollution climate (Flechard et al., 1999); this ratio was almost a factor of 3 smaller at BE-Bra (1.6) than at NL-Spe (4.5), with BE-Bra being the second most acidic site of the NEU network, after CZ-BK1.

At the only NEU semi-natural site with a long-term  $\text{NH}_3$  flux dataset (UK-AMo) (Flechard, 1998), measured annual dry deposition in 1995 ( $-2.5 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) is compatible with the range of model estimates in NEU for the 2007–2008 reference period and within 10% of the models ensemble mean ( $-2.2 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ). For agricultural systems in the NEU network, comparisons can only be made at the managed grasslands CH-Oe1 and UK-EBu. For these fertilised, cut and/or grazed systems, a comparison of measurements with inferential models is only meaningful in conditions of background  $\text{NH}_3$  exchange, i.e. discarding measured  $\text{NH}_3$  emission fluxes that follow the application of manure, slurry or mineral fertilisers, as these processes are not currently considered nor implemented in inferential routines. At CH-Oe1, the overall net measured  $\text{NH}_3$  budget was  $+17 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  and driven by a gross annual  $\text{NH}_3$  emission by applied cattle slurry of  $+20 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , but during most of the year background exchange amounted to a deposition of  $-3 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (Flechard et al., 2010), which is in the range of model predictions within NEU of  $-3.2$  to  $+0.1 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (Table 3). Equally, at UK-EBu, the overall annual measured  $\text{NH}_3$  flux was a net emission of  $+1.9 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  but, discarding the gross  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions of  $+4.2 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  mostly due to mineral fertiliser and urea applications (Milford et al., 2004), one may calculate a background annual dry deposition of  $-2.3 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , also within the range of the four model estimates based on NEU 2007–2008 data ( $-2.6$  to

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$-0.2 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , Table 3).

### 3.4 Reducing uncertainties in $N_r$ dry deposition

The uncertainty of modelled  $N_r$  dry deposition at the regional scale results from the combined uncertainties in concentrations of  $N_r$  species and in their respective deposition (or exchange) velocities. Establishing a monitoring network for  $\text{NH}_3$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ , HONO and aerosol  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations at the continental scale in Europe has been a significant step forward, even if the basic setup did not include  $\text{NO}_x$  and other  $N_r$  species except at a few more intensive measurement stations. Continent-scale networks of a similar size, e.g. EMEP (EMEP, 2009; Torseth et al., 2001), CASTNet (Sickles and Shadwick, 2007; Baumgardner et al., 2002) and CAPMoN (Zhang et al., 2009), have long placed the emphasis on acidifying gases ( $\text{SO}_2$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NO}_x$ ) deposition and aerosol-phase  $N_r$  ( $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ), but have not included the gas/particle partitioning of  $\text{NH}_x$ . This has been measured at selected sites as part of research projects (Erisman et al., 1996; Zimmermann et al., 2006; Neiryneck et al., 2007) and has been used to evaluate the output of regional atmospheric models at selected sites (Zhang et al., 2009), but data on speciated  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations at regional scales have been sparse and irregular outside of a few national initiatives (Bleeker et al., 2009). High time-resolution measurements with aerosol mass spectrometer measurements are also becoming available (Laj et al., 2009), although one limitation is that to date only (ultra-) fine particles can be captured: coarse nitrate is not typically measured at the same sites. The monitoring data gathered as part of NEU allow a large-scale investigation of the relative contributions of  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  as well as  $\text{HNO}_3$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  to total dry deposition, despite the large uncertainties and discrepancies associated with inferential models, and they also provide important ground validation data for CTMs.

The differences in deposition velocities between models (Fig. 3) results from both the natural variability in surface resistances found in existing  $N_r$  flux datasets, leading to different parameterisations, and from the rarity and complexities of flux datasets. The

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physical, biological and chemical exchange mechanisms involved are too complex to model explicitly and completely from first principles, so that parameterisations tend to be empirical but dependent on few datasets, without the confidence that the statistics of large or robust numbers afford. The recent efforts by Zhang et al. (2010) and Massad et al. (2010) to bring together the existing  $\text{NH}_3$  flux and compensation point datasets into coherent and comprehensive exchange schemes for the main ecosystem types point in the right direction. Significant gaps in knowledge remain, especially with respect to surface chemistry, canopy cycling, soil/litter/vegetation interactions, management practices for agricultural systems, which will not be bridged without a more extensive coverage of  $\text{NH}_3$  fluxes. Within the NitroEurope IP, intensive  $\text{N}_r$  flux measurements to improve process understanding at a few core sites of the network have been complemented at other sites by low-cost methods for  $\text{N}_r$  concentrations (DELTA) and also for fluxes (COTAG, or COnditional Time-Averaged Gradient; Famulari et al., 2010); this could serve as a blueprint for a future European  $\text{N}_r$  monitoring and modelling strategy.

#### 4 Conclusions

Inferential modelling with four dry deposition routines was applied to estimate annual  $\text{N}_r$  fluxes at the ecosystem scale across the NitroEurope inferential network. Differences between models were reviewed in terms of canopy characteristics for the main land use types, of derived friction velocity, of stomatal conductance, and of deposition velocities and exchange rates for five dominant inorganic  $\text{N}_r$  chemical species in the atmosphere ( $\text{NH}_3$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NO}_2$ , and aerosol  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ). Differences in stomatal conductances between models are large, but this is only decisive for  $\text{NO}_2$ , which is assumed to be mainly deposited through stomata. However, these models are also routinely used for other pollutant gases such as  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{O}_3$ , for which the stomatal share in the total deposition is also large (see Fowler et al., 2009, and references therein). For water-soluble gases such as  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{HNO}_3$ , parameterisations of non-stomatal resistances are the main sources of inter-model discrepancies in deposition velocities, which can

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reach a factor of 3 between models for  $\text{NH}_3$ . For aerosol  $\text{N}_r$  deposition to forests, empirical and measurement-oriented parameterisations predict deposition rates that are a factor 5–10 larger than theoretical models. As a result, both the total modelled  $\text{N}_r$  fluxes and the shares of individual  $\text{N}_r$  species in the overall  $\text{N}_r$  dry deposition are extremely model-dependent. The few  $\text{NH}_3$  flux datasets available for comparison within this study were within the range of models and broadly comparable with the ensemble average, but model validation generally suffers from a serious lack of long-term  $\text{N}_r$  flux monitoring data over different vegetation types.

Inferential modelling was originally based on the concept of uni-directional exchange (deposition from the atmosphere), and has traditionally viewed vegetation elements and soil more or less as physical receptors with a given surface roughness, chemical sink strength and aerosol capture efficiency, with little regard to underlying biological and biochemical processes. The discipline is currently undergoing a paradigm shift, recognising the need to increasingly couple ecosystem modelling, including soil/litter/vegetation cycling, as well as crop/grass management and fertilisation, to surface/atmosphere bi-directional exchange frameworks, especially with respect to  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{NO}_x$ . Here, compensation points need to be made dependent on the N status of the ecosystem, whether fertilised or unfertilised, characterising emission potentials that interact with advected air masses. Major developments are also needed to better deal with in-canopy air chemistry and phase partitioning that affect the net exchange of  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{HNO}_3$  versus  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$  aerosol. Similarly, the roles of  $\text{O}_3$  deposition and emission of biogenic volatile organic compounds on net  $\text{NO}_x$  fluxes in ecosystems need to be better understood. Although not considered in this study, uncertainties in wet deposition estimates add to the total uncertainty in the  $\text{N}_r$  deposition predicted by CTMs.

Supplementary material related to this article is available online at:  
<http://www.atmos-chem-phys-discuss.net/10/29291/2010/acpd-10-29291-2010-supplement.pdf>.

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**Table 3.** Summary of modelled annual dry deposition fluxes to the sites of the NEU inferential network (unit:  $\text{kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ), averaged over the two years 2007–2008. A minus “-” sign denotes net deposition; positive numbers for  $\text{NH}_3$  in CBED indicate a net emission.

Site	CBED				CDRY				EMEP-03				IDEM							
	$\text{NH}_3$	$\text{HNO}_3$	$\text{NO}_2$	$\text{NH}_4^+$	$\text{NO}_3^-$	$\text{NH}_3$	$\text{HNO}_3$	$\text{NO}_2$	$\text{NH}_4^+$	$\text{NO}_3^-$	$\text{NH}_3$	$\text{HNO}_3$	$\text{NO}_2$	$\text{NH}_4^+$	$\text{NO}_3^-$	$\text{NH}_3$	$\text{HNO}_3$	$\text{NO}_2$	$\text{NH}_4^+$	$\text{NO}_3^-$
BE-Bra	-16.7	-6.6	-2.5	-4.2	-4.3	-5.3	-3.6	-8.0	-1.0	-0.7	-7.4	-6.5	-2.7	-1.0	-1.5	-12.6	-4.3	-7.9	-6.6	-5.3
BE-Vie	-3.7	-2.4	-1.3	-2.2	-3.0	-1.5	-1.4	-4.6	-0.5	-0.4	-2.1	-2.2	-0.4	-0.4	-0.3	-3.2	-1.6	-1.3	-3.9	-4.3
CH-Lae	-7.9	-4.3	-0.9	-2.6	-2.6	-3.1	-2.4	-2.9	-0.6	-0.4	-3.5	-3.7	-0.1	-0.5	-0.6	-6.3	-2.9	-0.9	-6.1	-4.8
CZ-BK1	-3.4	-4.2	-1.0	-2.2	-1.6	-1.3	-2.8	-2.9	-0.5	-0.2	-2.6	-3.2	-0.3	-0.6	-0.6	-3.2	-3.0	-2.4	-3.9	-2.1
DE-Hai	-4.8	-4.6	-1.0	-4.3	-3.2	-1.4	-2.3	-2.4	-0.9	-0.4	-2.4	-4.2	-0.1	-0.5	-0.4	-4.4	-3.0	-1.1	-5.7	-3.4
DE-Hoe	-14.8	-4.4	-1.3	-3.3	-2.6	-5.4	-2.6	-3.2	-0.8	-0.4	-5.5	-4.3	-0.3	-1.0	-1.2	-9.6	-3.0	-3.2	-4.5	-2.5
DE-Tha	-5.6	-4.3	-1.2	-2.9	-2.2	-2.2	-2.7	-3.1	-0.7	-0.4	-3.2	-4.0	-0.2	-0.7	-0.8	-4.5	-3.0	-2.8	-3.6	-2.0
DE-Wet	-3.7	-4.5	-0.9	-3.2	-2.8	-1.7	-2.7	-4.2	-0.8	-0.5	-2.5	-3.6	-0.1	-0.9	-1.3	-3.9	-2.8	-2.4	-5.3	-3.7
DK-Sor	-9.8	-3.5	-1.0	-3.1	-5.3	-3.3	-1.8	-2.3	-0.7	-0.6	-4.5	-3.3	0.0	-0.3	-0.4	-7.1	-2.2	-1.0	-3.4	-4.7
ES-ES1	-12.6	-4.5	-1.3	-2.5	-4.3	-4.3	-3.0	-1.8	-0.6	-0.6	-4.9	-4.5	0.0	-0.7	-1.8	-8.0	-3.3	-1.8	-3.1	-3.8
ES-LMa	-6.2	-1.9	-0.2	-0.8	-1.1	-1.1	-0.6	-0.2	-0.2	-0.1	-2.2	-1.9	0.0	-0.2	-0.4	-2.5	-1.4	-0.3	-0.7	-0.6
FI-Hyy	-0.8	-1.1	-0.4	-0.6	-0.3	-0.3	-0.7	-2.8	-0.1	-0.1	-0.4	-0.8	-1.0	-0.1	-0.1	-0.7	-1.6	-1.1	-0.4	-0.4
FI-Sod	-1.0	-0.5	-0.1	-0.3	-0.1	-0.4	-0.4	-0.2	-0.1	0.0	-0.5	-0.2	0.0	-0.1	0.0	-1.0	-0.3	-0.2	-0.5	-0.1
FR-Fon	-6.0	-4.3	-1.0	-2.8	-3.2	-1.7	-2.2	-1.6	-0.6	-0.4	-2.7	-4.2	0.0	-0.3	-0.5	-4.4	-3.1	-1.0	-3.8	-3.2
FR-Hes	-5.8	-3.7	-0.8	-2.2	-2.1	-1.6	-1.8	-1.3	-0.5	-0.3	-2.4	-3.5	0.0	-0.2	-0.3	-4.4	-2.6	-1.0	-3.2	-2.3
FR-LBr	-7.9	-3.0	-0.5	-1.4	-1.8	-3.2	-1.9	-1.2	-0.3	-0.3	-3.1	-3.0	0.0	-0.4	-0.7	-5.9	-2.1	-1.0	-2.7	-2.6
FR-Pue	-2.7	-2.3	-0.5	-1.1	-1.2	-0.6	-0.9	-0.6	-0.3	-0.1	-0.9	-2.3	0.0	-0.3	-0.5	-1.8	-1.6	-0.6	-1.5	-1.1
IT-Col	-2.8	-1.4	-0.5	-1.2	-1.0	-0.8	-0.6	-0.7	-0.3	-0.1	-1.1	-1.2	0.0	-0.4	-0.6	-2.0	-1.0	-0.5	-2.9	-1.9
IT-Ren	-2.2	-1.2	-0.3	-1.3	-1.0	-0.8	-0.7	-0.9	-0.3	-0.2	-1.0	-0.9	0.0	-0.5	-0.5	-1.6	-0.8	-1.0	-2.4	-1.4
IT-Ro2	-12.3	-2.5	-0.5	-2.0	-1.8	-2.9	-1.0	-0.5	-0.5	-0.2	-4.4	-2.5	0.0	-0.7	-0.9	-6.8	-1.7	-0.7	-3.7	-2.4
IT-SRo	-5.6	-3.2	-0.6	-2.1	-2.2	-1.8	-1.9	-1.0	-0.5	-0.3	-2.2	-3.2	0.0	-0.6	-1.0	-4.0	-2.2	-1.0	-3.8	-3.0
NL-Loo	-25.7	-3.6	-3.1	-5.1	-4.1	-11.5	-2.4	-9.4	-1.2	-0.7	-11.1	-3.5	-2.3	-1.2	-1.5	-20.6	-2.4	-7.6	-8.0	-4.6
NL-Spe	-28.4	-4.6	-1.5	-4.4	-5.0	-9.9	-2.6	-5.2	-1.0	-0.6	-10.0	-4.5	-1.7	-1.0	-1.7	-19.2	-3.1	-4.3	-5.7	-4.7
PT-Esp	-6.9	-1.9	-1.2	-1.3	-1.3	-1.2	-0.5	-1.0	-0.3	-0.2	-2.3	-1.9	-0.1	-0.3	-0.4	-2.8	-1.5	-1.8	-1.0	-0.7
PT-MI1	-5.2	-2.0	-0.4	-1.3	-1.2	-1.5	-0.8	-0.5	-0.3	-0.2	-2.1	-2.2	0.0	-0.4	-0.5	-3.0	-1.6	-0.6	-2.0	-1.2
RU-Fyo	-2.2	-2.0	-0.2	-1.4	-0.7	-0.8	-1.2	-0.6	-0.3	-0.1	-1.2	-1.3	0.0	-0.3	-0.3	-2.3	-1.2	-0.4	-2.7	-1.0
SE-Nor	-2.1	-0.9	-0.3	-0.8	-0.5	-0.9	-0.6	-0.8	-0.2	-0.1	-0.9	-0.7	0.0	-0.2	-0.2	-1.5	-0.6	-0.6	-1.2	-0.6
SE-Sk2	-1.5	-1.1	-0.2	-0.7	-0.5	-0.5	-0.7	-0.7	-0.2	-0.1	-0.7	-0.9	0.0	-0.1	-0.2	-1.0	-0.8	-0.6	-1.2	-0.7
UK-Gri	-2.1	-1.6	-0.2	-1.0	-1.3	-0.7	-0.9	-0.4	-0.2	-0.2	-1.0	-1.5	0.0	-0.2	-0.5	-2.2	-0.9	-0.4	-2.1	-2.1
DE-Meh	-5.6	-1.3	-0.8	-0.4	-0.3	-2.6	-1.2	-2.5	-0.5	-0.2	-2.4	-1.3	-0.1	-0.4	-0.5	-5.6	-1.1	-2.1	-0.6	-0.3
ES-VDA	-1.9	-0.3	-0.2	-0.2	0.1	-0.7	-0.3	-0.5	-0.2	0.1	-0.9	-0.3	0.0	-0.2	-0.2	-2.0	-0.3	-0.5	-0.4	-0.2
FI-Lom	-0.3	-0.1	0.0	-0.1	0.0	-0.1	0.0	-0.1	0.0	-0.1	0.0	-0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	-0.1	-0.1	0.0	-0.1	0.0
HU-Bug	-5.8	-0.9	-0.5	-0.3	-0.2	-2.1	-0.7	-1.1	-0.4	-0.1	-2.6	-0.9	-0.1	-0.3	-0.2	-5.7	-0.8	-1.3	-0.7	-0.2
IT-Amp	-1.1	-0.3	-0.4	-0.1	0.0	-0.4	-0.2	-0.4	-0.1	0.0	-0.5	-0.3	0.0	-0.2	-0.1	-1.1	-0.3	-0.8	-0.5	-0.2
IT-MBo	-2.1	-0.6	-0.4	-0.1	-0.1	-0.7	-0.5	-0.7	-0.2	-0.1	-1.1	-0.6	0.0	-0.3	-0.3	-2.4	-0.5	-1.1	-0.6	-0.4
NL-Hor	-13.9	-2.6	-3.7	-0.7	-6.0	-2.2	-2.2	-9.7	-0.8	-0.5	-8.0	-2.6	-1.7	-0.6	-1.0	-16.9	-2.0	-10.1	-1.2	-0.9
PL-wet	-4.5	-1.2	-0.4	-0.4	-0.2	-1.4	-0.8	-0.9	-0.5	-0.2	-2.1	-1.1	0.0	-0.4	-0.3	-4.0	-1.0	-1.2	-0.9	-0.4
UK-AMo	-2.9	-0.6	-0.5	-0.2	-0.2	-1.2	-0.5	-1.1	-0.2	-0.1	-1.5	-0.5	0.0	-0.1	-0.2	-3.2	-0.4	-1.1	-0.2	-0.1

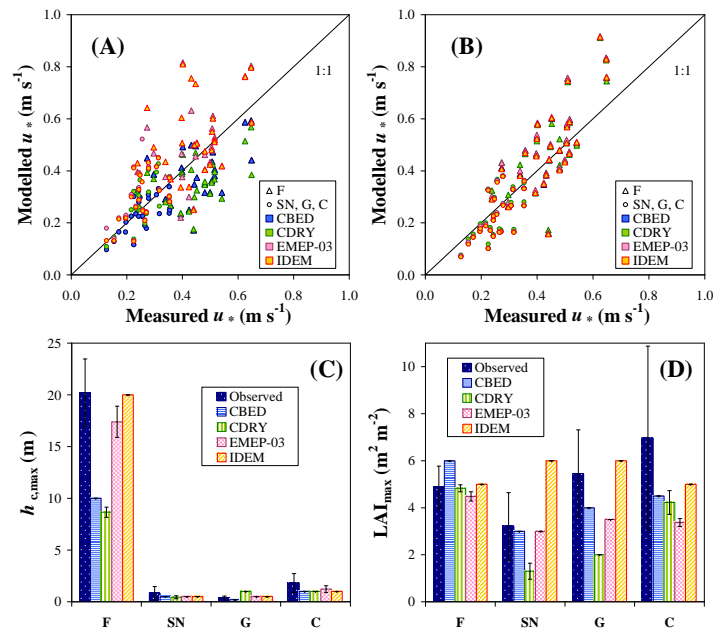
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**Table 3.** Continued.

Site	CBED				CDRY				EMEP-03				IDEM							
	$\text{NH}_3$	$\text{HNO}_3$	$\text{NO}_2$	$\text{NH}_4^+$	$\text{NO}_3^-$	$\text{NH}_3$	$\text{HNO}_3$	$\text{NO}_2$	$\text{NH}_4^+$	$\text{NO}_3^-$	$\text{NH}_3$	$\text{HNO}_3$	$\text{NO}_2$	$\text{NH}_4^+$	$\text{NO}_3^-$	$\text{NH}_3$	$\text{HNO}_3$	$\text{NO}_2$	$\text{NH}_4^+$	$\text{NO}_3^-$
CH-Oe1	0.1	-1.0	-3.8	-0.2	-0.2	-1.4	-0.9	-5.9	-0.3	-0.2	-1.9	-1.0	-2.7	-0.2	-0.3	-3.2	-0.9	-6.6	-0.8	-0.5
DE-Gri	5.6	-1.1	-1.1	-0.2	-0.2	-0.9	-1.0	-2.0	-0.2	-0.1	-1.3	-1.1	-0.2	-0.2	-0.2	-1.8	-1.0	-1.8	-0.4	-0.2
DK-Lva	1.9	-0.9	-1.0	-0.2	-0.5	-2.1	-0.8	-2.2	-0.2	-0.3	-2.1	-0.9	0.0	-0.2	-0.4	-4.5	-0.8	-2.0	-0.3	-0.2
FR-Lq2	-0.2	-0.7	-0.2	-0.2	-0.2	-1.3	-0.6	-0.6	-0.2	-0.1	-1.5	-0.6	0.0	-0.1	-0.2	-2.9	-0.6	-0.4	-0.2	-0.1
IE-Ca2	1.3	-0.4	-0.3	-0.2	-0.1	-1.8	-0.3	-0.6	-0.2	-0.1	-1.8	-0.4	0.0	-0.1	-0.2	-4.3	-0.3	-0.5	-0.3	-0.2
IE-Dri	-2.2	-0.4	-0.2	-0.2	-0.2	-3.5	-0.4	-0.5	-0.2	-0.1	-3.8	-0.4	0.0	-0.2	-0.3	-9.3	-0.4	-0.4	-0.3	-0.1
NL-Ca1	-5.8	-1.6	-4.0	-0.6	-0.6	-9.5	-1.5	-8.3	-0.6	-0.4	-9.8	-1.6	-2.2	-0.4	-0.6	-19.1	-1.4	-7.0	-0.7	-0.5
UK-EBu	-0.2	-0.5	-0.3	-0.1	-0.1	-1.2	-0.5	-0.7	-0.2	-0.1	-1.1	-0.5	0.0	-0.1	-0.2	-2.6	-0.4	-0.6	-0.2	-0.1
BE-Lon	0.5	-1.1	-1.4	-0.7	-0.6	-3.0	-0.9	-3.6	-0.4	-0.3	-3.1	-1.1	-0.4	-0.2	-0.1	-6.1	-0.9	-3.0	-0.7	-0.4
DE-Geb	1.5	-0.9	-0.9	-0.8	-0.4	-2.5	-0.7	-1.9	-0.5	-0.2	-2.2	-0.9	-0.1	-0.2	-0.1	-5.5	-0.7	-1.8	-0.8	-0.3
DE-Kil	1.9	-1.2	-0.9	-0.8	-0.5	-1.7	-1.0	-2.4	-0.4	-0.2	-2.0	-1.2	-0.1	-0.2	-0.1	-3.6	-1.0	-1.9	-0.6	-0.3
DK-Ris	-1.9	-0.3	-0.7	-0.3	-0.3	-3.7	-0.3	-1.6	-0.2	-0.1	-4.1	-0.3	0.0	-0.2	-0.1	-6.7	-0.3	-1.5	-0.7	-0.3
FR-Gri	1.0	-1.5	-0.8	-0.6	-0.6	-2.9	-1.2	-2.8	-0.3	-0.3	-2.9	-1.5	-0.6	-0.1	-0.2	-6.2	-1.3	-2.0	-0.4	-0.4
IT-BCI	1.6	-1.8	-0.5	-2.3	-0.7	-6.2	-1.3	-1.1	-1.3	-0.3	-5.7	-1.8	0.0	-0.5	-0.2	-16.3	-1.5	-1.1	-2.0	-0.4
IT-Cas	4.1	-0.8	-0.6	-0.5	-0.4	-1.9	-0.6	-0.6	-0.3	-0.3	-2.1	-0.8	0.0	-0.5	-0.4	-3.9	-0.7	-1.0	-2.9	-1.8
UA-Pet	-0.2	-0.8	-0.2	-0.7	-0.3	-1.4	-0.6	-0.6	-0.4	-0.1	-1.9	-0.7	0.0	-0.4	-0.1	-2.9	-0.7	-0.5	-1.4	-0.4
UK-ESa	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na

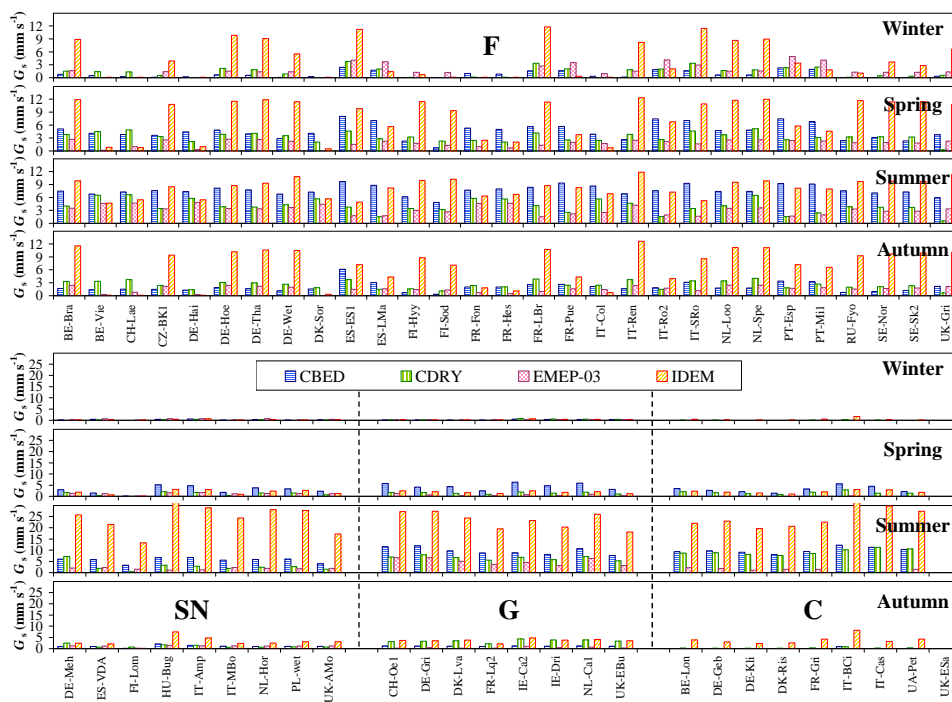
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**Fig. 1.** Comparison of measured  $u_*$  (long-term means at each observation site) with inferential model estimates, using as input either model default values of  $h_c$  (A) or measured  $h_c$  at each site (B). Panels (C) and (D): comparison of mean observations and model default values of  $h_c$  and LAI for the different land use types (F: forests; SN: semi-natural; G: grasslands; C: croplands). Note that the CDRY model uses tabulated ecosystem-specific values of  $z_0$ , and does not require  $h_c$  as a predictor of  $z_0$ ; thus, for comparability's sake, the  $h_c$  values presented for CDRY in C were actually calculated by multiplying model  $z_0$  by 10, since the other three models all use  $z_0 = h_c/10$ .

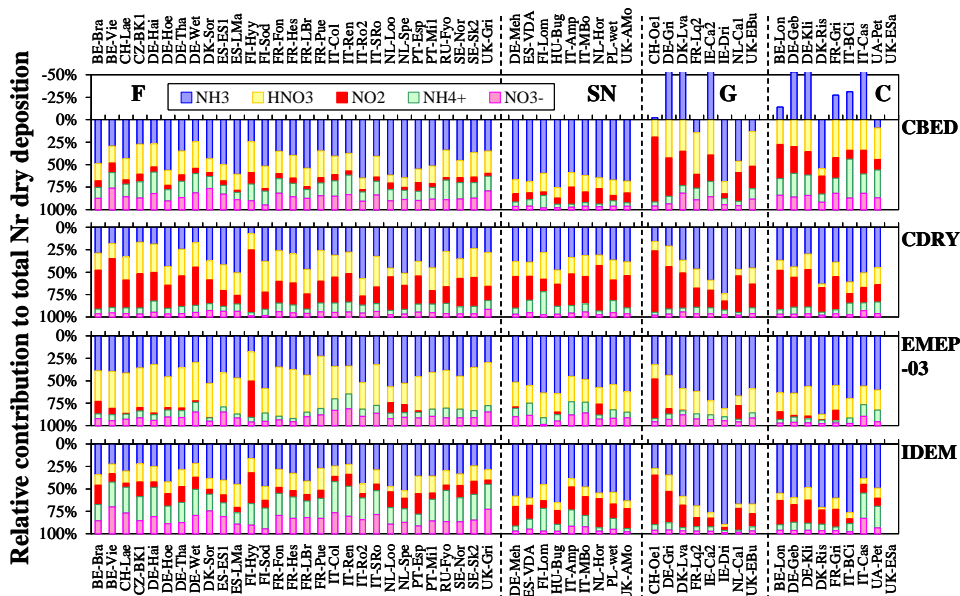
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**Fig. 2.** Comparison of mean modelled daytime bulk stomatal conductances from the four inferential schemes.

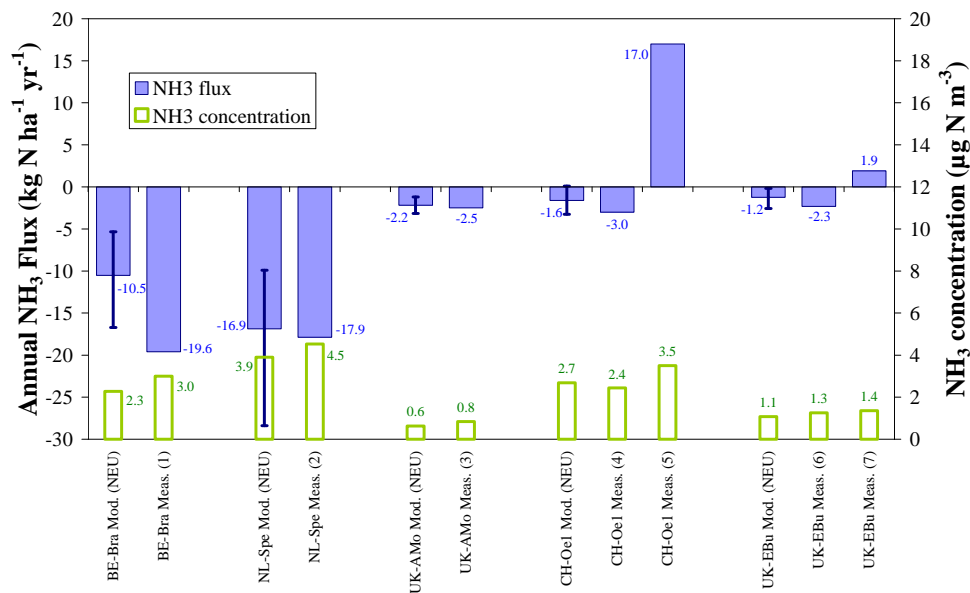
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**Fig. 5.** Relative contributions of  $N_r$  species to total inorganic N dry deposition. For G and C data in CBED (top panel), negative percentages for  $NH_3$  denote net  $NH_3$  emissions, which are expressed relative to the sum of dry deposition fluxes for the other four  $N_r$  species.

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**Fig. 6.** Comparison of modelled annual  $NH_3$  exchange from NEU network DELTA data with measured estimates from historical long-term micrometeorological flux datasets. For five monitoring sites, the ensemble average of CBED, CDRY, EMEP-03 and IDEM is shown with error bars showing the range (min, max) of model estimates. (1): Neirynek et al., 2007; (2): Erisman et al. (1996); (3): Flechard (1998); (4) and (5): data from Flechard et al. (2010), showing (4) the annual  $NH_3$  flux for background conditions (outside fertilisation events) and (5) the net emission flux from the whole dataset; (6) and (7): data from Milford (2004), with (6) the annual dry deposition, calculated from the net overall flux (7) minus the gross annual emission of  $4.2 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  due to grassland management activities (fertilisation, cuts). The secondary axis shows the mean concentrations during the NEU reference period (2007–2008) as well as during the flux monitoring periods.

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