

2 Boreal ecosystems sequestered more carbon in warmer years

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[1] A 13-year (1990–1996, 1999–2004), hourly air CO₂ record measured on a 40 m tower in northern Canada is analyzed against interpolated marine boundary layer CO₂ data representing the free troposphere above the tower. In warmer years, the planetary boundary layer was more depleted with CO₂, suggesting that the land area (10³–10⁴ km²) upwind of the tower sequestered more carbon. After using a novel approach to derive the photosynthetic flux from the air CO₂ diurnal variation pattern, it is confirmed that boreal ecosystem photosynthesis increased more than ecosystem respiration in warmer years.
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1. Introduction

[2] Atmospheric measurements, as interpreted using atmospheric transport models [Tans *et al.*, 1990; Denning *et al.*, 1995; Gurney *et al.*, 2002; Rodenbeck *et al.*, 2003] and global carbon budgets based on land use history [Houghton *et al.*, 1999] suggest the existence of a strong carbon sink on land, but the mechanisms are still uncertain [Pacala *et al.*, 2001; Caspersen *et al.*, 2001; Field and Fung, 1999]. At high latitudes, the impacts of temperature change on ecosystems are of great concern [Braswell *et al.*, 1997; Oechel *et al.*, 2000]. Greater biospheric activities at higher temperatures were inferred from remote sensing [Myneni *et al.*, 1997] and atmospheric CO₂ measurements [Keeling *et al.*, 1996]. From micrometeorological measurements at the stand level, some studies [e.g., Goulden *et al.*, 1998] found that warming increased carbon release more than uptake in a boreal forest, while others [e.g., Black *et al.*, 2000] showed the opposite. The effect of temperature on the forest carbon cycle is highly variable depending on species, age and stand history [Chen *et al.*, 2003], and the boreal landscape consists of fragmented forest patches of various ages on variable soils and mixed with grassland and tundra due to frequent fire and insect disturbances as well as human activities. How these ecosystems collectively respond to climate change is, therefore, important in understanding the mechanisms controlling regional and global carbon cycles, as boreal forests globally store 13% of carbon in above-

ground biomass and 43% in soil organic matter [Schlesinger, 1991; Jarvis *et al.*, 2000]. CO₂ fluxes measured on micrometeorological towers in many flux networks worldwide [Baldocchi *et al.*, 2001] have provided useful information on how various ecosystems behave under different climates. However, such towers can only sample a very small fraction of the land surface as each can only represent a footprint area of about 1 km². We seek ways to retrieve carbon cycle information from atmospheric CO₂ concentration measurements, which have much larger footprints (10³–10⁴ km²) [Lin *et al.*, 2003] than flux towers.

2. Data and Site

[3] A 13-year (1990–1996, 1999–2004), hourly averaged air CO₂ concentration record measured on a 40-m tower at Fraserdale, northern Ontario, Canada (49°52′29.9″N, 81°34′12.3″W), is used for this purpose (no data were collected from January 1997 to June 1998). The measurements were made according to the WMO (Global Atmospheric Watch) guidelines, with an accuracy of 0.1 ppm [Higuchi *et al.*, 2003]. Temperature, humidity and wind speed at 20 m and 40 m and precipitation were also measured, allowing for accurate vertical mixing simulations under various atmospheric stability conditions. The interannual variation in air temperature was very similar to that at the weather station Kapuskasing, 87 km southwest of Fraserdale. The Globalview CO₂ matrix data in 41 latitudinal bands based on weekly flask samples in the marine boundary layer (MBL) for the 13 years [Conway *et al.*, 1994] were linearly interpolated to represent CO₂ concentration in the free troposphere (FT) at the site as the top boundary condition of the planetary boundary layer (PBL). According to a Landsat TM image at a 30 m resolution acquired in 1998, the landscape (3600 km² around the tower) consists of 66% of black spruce (*Picea mariana*) and Jack pine (*Pinus banksiana*), 20% open land after forest fires and logging, 11% aspen (*Populus tremuloides*) and paper birch (*Betula papyrifera*), and 3% open water. In the prevailing northwest wind direction, the forests are predominantly undisturbed.

3. Modeling Methodology

[4] The diurnal variation in CO₂ concentration above vegetation depends on the magnitudes of nighttime ecosystem respiration and daytime net photosynthesis. Atmospheric diffusion also contributes to the diurnal variation because the strength of vertical mixing varies greatly from nighttime to daytime. For the purpose of retrieving ecosystem information from atmospheric CO₂ data, we used a model to simulate both ecosystem and atmospheric processes. The model consists of two components: (1) Boreal Ecosystem

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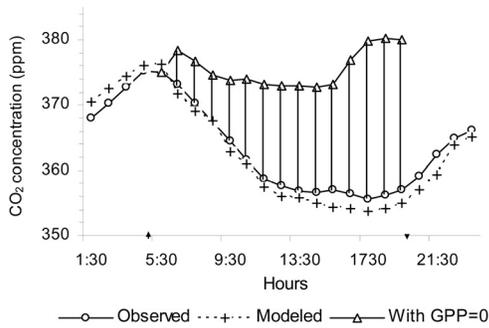


Figure 1. An example of modeled and measured hourly values of atmospheric CO₂ on 11 July 1996 at 40 m at Fraserdale. The agreement indicates that both ecosystem metabolism (photosynthesis and respiration) and atmospheric diffusion are well modeled. A new series is obtained from sunrise to sunset (indicated by triangles) after turning off the gross primary productivity (GPP) in the model. In the absence of GPP, the concentration remained higher than the corresponding measured values. The vertical line is the difference between measured and simulated (with GPP = 0) CO₂, that is, ΔC_i used for estimating the cumulative difference resulting from GPP since sunrise.

99 Productivity Simulator (BEPS) [Liu *et al.*, 2002], which
 100 simulates ecosystem processes including water balance,
 101 photosynthesis [Farquhar *et al.*, 1980], and autotrophic
 102 and heterotrophic respiration, and radiation and energy
 103 balances of the canopy and the soil surface; and (2) the
 104 Vertical Diffusion Scheme (VDS) [Chen *et al.*, 2004], which
 105 simulates CO₂ diffusion within the planetary boundary layer
 106 (PBL) under both stable and unstable atmospheric con-
 107 ditions. The combined BEPS-VDS model simulated well the
 108 measured hourly CO₂ concentration at 40 m for the 13 years
 109 ($r^2 = 0.71$, the root mean square error, RMSE, = 5.32 ppm,
 110 $n = 103858$). For 10-day averaged hourly values, the
 111 agreement between measurements and the model is signifi-
 112 cantly improved ($r^2 = 0.84$, RMSE = 1.06 ppm, $n = 11306$)
 113 as the effects of horizontal advection and infrequent strong
 114 vertical diffusion associated with synoptic events become
 115 less significant in longer time periods. The 10-day averaged
 116 diurnal amplitudes of measured and modeled CO₂ agree
 117 very well ($r^2 = 0.96$) over the 13 years.

118 [5] In order to gain information on ecosystem behavior, a
 119 methodology is developed to separate the effects of atmo-
 120 spheric diffusion and ecosystem metabolism on the CO₂
 121 concentration measurements. Figure 1 shows an example of
 122 measured and simulated hourly CO₂ concentrations on a
 123 typical day (11 July 1996). The simulated values generally
 124 follow closely the measured values in the diurnal cycle. To
 125 investigate the effect of daytime photosynthesis on the
 126 measured CO₂, we turned off the gross primary productivity
 127 (GPP) in BEPS from sunrise to sunset. As shown in
 128 Figure 1, the simulated CO₂ with GPP = 0 increases
 129 considerably from the measured CO₂. This increase is
 130 expected as the carbon uptake by photosynthesis is arti-
 131 ficially terminated while the total ecosystem respiration (both
 132 heterotrophic and autotrophic) remains unchanged. As at-
 133 mospheric diffusion is unchanged in both simulations and
 134 has the same effect on the measured and modeled CO₂, the
 135 difference between the simulated and measured values is

therefore solely due to photosynthesis. In this way, the
 signal of photosynthesis is extracted from the CO₂ time
 series. Physically, the hourly average difference in CO₂
 (ΔC_i , in ppm) between the measured and simulated (with
 GPP = 0) cases reflects the accumulating reduction of CO₂
 by GPP. Assuming that this reduction is uniform in the
 mixed layer, the simulated mixed layer height (z_i) and
 the average dry air density (ρ_{air}) can then be used to estimate
 the time-integrated (since sunrise) GPP per unit surface area
 as $\Delta C_i \rho_{\text{air}} z_i$ (mol m⁻²). As the air moves across the
 landscape, this effect of GPP on air CO₂ gradually accu-
 mulates. For hour i after sunrise, the total accumulated
 effect is $\Delta C_i \rho_{\text{air}} z_i$ and GPP in this hour is $(\Delta C_i \rho_{\text{air}} z_i -$
 $\Delta C_{i-1} \rho_{\text{air}} z_{i-1})$, in mol m⁻²). The daily total GPP then
 equals $\sum_{i=\text{SR}+1}^{\text{SS}} (\Delta C_i z_i - \Delta C_{i-1} z_{i-1}) \rho_{\text{air}}$, where SR is the hour
 of sunrise and SS is sunset. The accumulation of this
 photosynthesis effect starts at sunrise and moves with the
 air from sunrise to sunset, and the tower CO₂ measurements
 therefore integrate the influence of the land surface of daily
 air travel length upwind of the tower. This simple method-
 ology makes no assumptions related to horizontal homoge-
 neity. Since no flux measurements were made at the
 Fraserdale site, this methodology was validated at a tower
 flux site in a black spruce forest in Saskatchewan, where the
 upwind area is covered by forests of similar density. Half
 hourly carbon fluxes in 1999 were converted into GPP
 using an existing method developed at the Saskatchewan
 site [Griffis *et al.*, 2003], and the concentration-derived
 daily GPP was highly correlated with that derived from
 eddy covariance flux measurements ($r^2 = 0.82$, RMSE =
 0.11 g C m⁻² d⁻¹, $n = 186$).

4. Results and Discussion

[6] A simple analysis of the CO₂ record against FT data
 reveals important temperature-dependent ecosystem signals
 (Figure 2a): the annual mean difference in CO₂ ($\Delta C_{\text{FT-PBL}}$)
 between FT and the daily minimum measured at 40 m
 increased with the annual mean air temperature. The daily
 minimum CO₂ value represented closely the mean value in
 the well mixed PBL [Chen *et al.*, 2004, 2005], and the daily
 $\Delta C_{\text{FT-PBL}}$ resulted from the net difference between gross
 primary productivity (GPP) in daytime and ecosystem
 respiration (ER) in both nighttime and daytime, as well as
 the mixing between FT and PBL [Bakwin *et al.*, 1998]. The
 increase in the annual mean $\Delta C_{\text{FT-PBL}}$ with temperature
 suggests that GPP increased considerably faster with tem-
 perature than did ER. Daily balloon temperature soundings
 at Moosonee (200 km N from Fraserdale) and Maniwaki
 (540 km SE) weather stations in the same years were used
 to determine the very weak correlations between the annual
 PBL height and the annual mean temperature ($r^2 = 0.12$ and
 0.19, respectively). The PBL height increased 2% and 5%
 from the coldest to warmest year at these two locations,
 respectively, and bias estimates in Figure 2a are based on
 the 5% increase. The difference in the frequency of south-
 erly or northerly airflows was about 4% between two
 coldest (1992 and 1993) and two warmest (1999 and
 2001) years. Since southerly flows had a lower CO₂
 concentration than the northerly flows by ~ 1 ppm in the
 growing season (largest in the year), the flow direction had

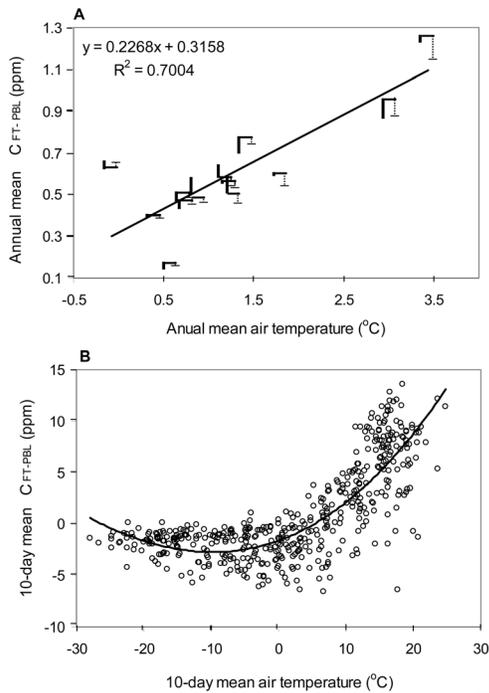


Figure 2. Interannual and seasonal temperature dependencies of atmospheric CO₂ over a boreal region. (a) The annually-averaged difference in CO₂ (ΔC_{FT-PBL}) between the daily minimum in the planetary boundary layer (PBL) and the free troposphere (FT) increased with air temperature. The vertical bars indicate bias errors due to temperature dependencies of the mixed layer height (left of each data point) and the wind direction (right of each data point). This increase in ΔC_{FT-PBL} suggests that the PBL is more depleted with CO₂ in warmer years. The slope of ΔC_{FT-PBL} against temperature is highly significant ($p < 0.0008$ in the t test). (b) 10-day mean ΔC_{FT-PBL} values vs. temperature (T), indicating that in the growing season ($T > 0^\circ\text{C}$) an increase in air temperature generally induced an increase in the PBL CO₂ depletion.

195 small impacts on ΔC_{FT-PBL} on a yearly basis depending on
 196 the frequency. The total bias error from these two largest
 197 sources would only decrease, to the largest extent possible,
 198 the slope of ΔC_{FT-PBL} against temperature (Figure 2a) by
 199 $\sim 15\%$. The annual mean air pressure and temperature were
 200 uncorrelated at Fraserdale for the 13 years and Kapuskasing
 201 for 20 years ($r^2 = 0.14$ and 0.0003 , respectively), suggesting
 202 that the frequency of low and high pressure systems
 203 affecting the vertical mixing regime had only very small
 204 interannual variations. The coldest year of 1992 after the
 205 Pinatubo volcano eruption is an outlier possibly because of
 206 the positive effect of the increased diffuse radiation on
 207 photosynthesis. Without the 1992 data point, the r^2 value
 208 increases to 0.87.

209 [7] Seasonal variations in ΔC_{FT-PBL} (Figure 2b) reveal
 210 the reason for its large temperature sensitivity. In winters,
 211 marked by daily mean temperature (T) below -5°C ,
 212 ΔC_{FT-PBL} was negative and decreased slowly with increas-
 213 ing T , indicating a small increase of ER with temperature.
 214 At $T > 0^\circ$, ΔC_{FT-PBL} increased rapidly, suggesting that the
 215 net uptake of CO₂ by the surface, that is GPP-ER, increased
 216 rapidly with T . As the T increase in the growing season

(May-August) was only slightly less than the annual T 217
 increase (65–85%), an increase in the annual T resulted 218
 in an increase in the net carbon uptake. The actual amount 219
 of the net carbon uptake (in $\text{mol C m}^{-2} \text{t}^{-1}$, where t is a time 220
 period of interest) equals the change in ΔC_{FT-PBL} (in ppm 221
 t^{-1} or $44.64 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol C m}^{-3} \text{t}^{-1}$ at the sea level and $T =$ 222
 273°K) times the mixed layer height (m). Since the mixed 223
 layer height in summers was about 50% higher than that in 224
 winters, we expect that the difference in the temperature 225
 sensitivity of (GPP – ER) between summers and winters 226
 was also about 50% larger than what is indicated as the 227
 slope in Figure 2b. This also confirms the importance of the 228
 timing of spring warming in ecosystem carbon cycling. 229

[8] Using the methodology described in Section 2, daily 230
 GPP values are derived and summed to annual values. A 231
 strong linear relationship is found between the annual 232
 concentration-derived GPP and annual mean air temperature 233
 ($r^2 = 0.71$, or 0.69 for active growing season mean tempera- 234
 ture) (Figure 3). Other meteorological factors were weakly 235
 correlated with GPP ($r^2 = 0.04$ and 0.13 for precipitation 236
 and radiation, respectively). The ratio of annual evapotrans- 237
 piration modeled by BEPS to precipitation ranged from 0.40 238
 to 0.73 in these 13 years, suggesting that water was not a 239
 limiting factor for growth in this area. Also shown in 240
 Figure 3 is the annual ER modeled with consideration of 241
 both temperature and moisture effects [Lloyd and Taylor, 242
 1994; Potter, 1997] using a multiple layer soil model. The 243
 actual modeled ER has an equivalent Q_{10} value of 2.4 244
 because of the increase in the active layer in summers. The 245
 ER modeling is constrained (to $<4\%$) by the CO₂ concentra- 246
 tion measurements, as the nighttime CO₂ increase to the 247
 maximum was highly sensitive to ER, especially in calm 248
 nights with a large T inversion, when a 4% increase in ER 249
 caused a 1.0 ppm increase in modeled CO₂ concentration at 250
 40 m. An optimization method was used to find ER model 251
 parameters that produce the minimum RMSE between 252
 modeled and measured CO₂ at 40 m. Consistent with the 253
 finding that the net uptake of CO₂ by ecosystems increased 254
 with T (Figure 2), the concentration-derived GPP had a 255
 larger T sensitivity than that of ER (Figure 3). 256

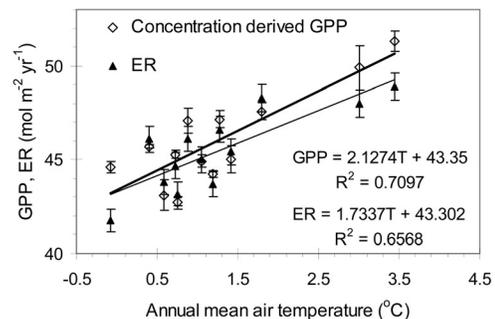


Figure 3. Sensitivities of gross primary productivity (GPP) and ecosystem respiration (ER) to temperature in boreal ecosystems. The vertical bars indicate their errors. The concentration-derived GPP increased more with temperature than did ER, providing a reason for the larger PBL CO₂ depletion in warmer years (Figure 2). The standard error in the slope against temperature is 0.1184 and $0.1091 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{y}^{-1} \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$ for GPP and ER, respectively, and these two slopes are significantly different in the t test ($p < 0.017$).

[9] We used the same model to explore the possible reasons for the difference in the T sensitivity between GPP and ER. The large T sensitivity of GPP shown in Figure 3 could not be captured by the model ($r^2 = 0.54$, $RMSE = 20.5 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$) when the nutrient availability was kept constant, but was well simulated ($r^2 = 0.79$, $RMSE = 8.3 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$) when coupled carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) dynamics in soil and vegetation were included [Chen et al., 2003] based on C:N ratios of vegetation and soil [Dickinson et al., 2002]. At higher T, the decomposition of soil organic matter is faster, producing more mineralized N available for immediate uptake by plant roots [Braswell et al., 1997; Jarvis et al., 2000]. As boreal ecosystems are nutrient limited and plant growth is sensitive to the amount of available nitrogen, more mineralized N at higher T leads to higher productivity. These model experiments, though explorative, suggest that nutrient conditions in the soil played an important role in the response of boreal ecosystems to T changes [Jarvis et al., 2000], in agreement with N mineralization data from a 10-year soil heating experiment in a temperate forest [Melillo et al., 2002]. Our result is in general agreement with the finding from a 5-year, 5°C soil warming experiment inducing an accumulated increase of about 80% in growth in a boreal forest [Jarvis et al., 2000]. This suggests that in global carbon cycle modeling, it is important to consider coupled carbon and nutrient dynamics.

[10] The retrieved GPP and ER values constrained by the concentration measurements suggest that boreal ecosystems in the vicinity of the Fraserdale tower were collectively a carbon sink of $10.8 \pm 14.2 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ in these 13 years, which is in agreement with previous work based on remote sensing [Chen et al., 2003]. However, the uncertainties in the absolute values of GPP and ER are still of the same order of magnitude as the difference between them. As the record gets longer, these uncertainties would become smaller. Tower flux measurements allow immediate assessments of carbon balance within a small footprint, while concentration measurements can provide reliable information on the ecosystem response to climate change for much larger areas. The fact that the temperature sensitivity of GPP is larger than that of ER suggests that global warming could lead to increased carbon sequestration in boreal ecosystems.

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