

## 2 Boreal ecosystems sequestered more carbon in warmer years

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[1] A 13-year (1990–1996, 1999–2004), hourly air CO<sub>2</sub> record measured on a 40 m tower in northern Canada is analyzed against interpolated marine boundary layer CO<sub>2</sub> data representing the free troposphere above the tower. In warmer years, the planetary boundary layer was more depleted with CO<sub>2</sub>, suggesting that the land area (10<sup>3</sup>–10<sup>4</sup> km<sup>2</sup>) upwind of the tower sequestered more carbon. After using a novel approach to derive the photosynthetic flux from the air CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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]. CO<sub>2</sub> 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 km<sup>2</sup>. We seek ways to retrieve carbon cycle information from atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration measurements, which have much larger footprints (10<sup>3</sup>–10<sup>4</sup> km<sup>2</sup>) [Lin *et al.*, 2003] than flux towers.

### 2. Data and Site

[3] A 13-year (1990–1996, 1999–2004), hourly averaged air CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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 km<sup>2</sup> 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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CO<sub>2</sub> data, we used a model to simulate both ecosystem and atmospheric processes. The model consists of two components: (1) Boreal Ecosystem

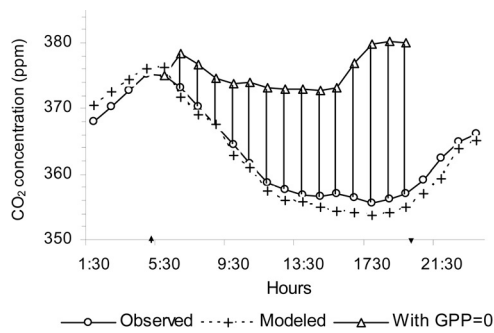
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**Figure 1.** An example of modeled and measured hourly values of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> on 11 July 1996 at 40 m at Fraserdale. The agreement indicates that both ecosystem metabolism (photosynthesis and respiration) and atmospheric diffusion are 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) CO<sub>2</sub>, that is,  $\Delta C_i$  used for estimating the cumulative difference resulting from GPP since sunrise.

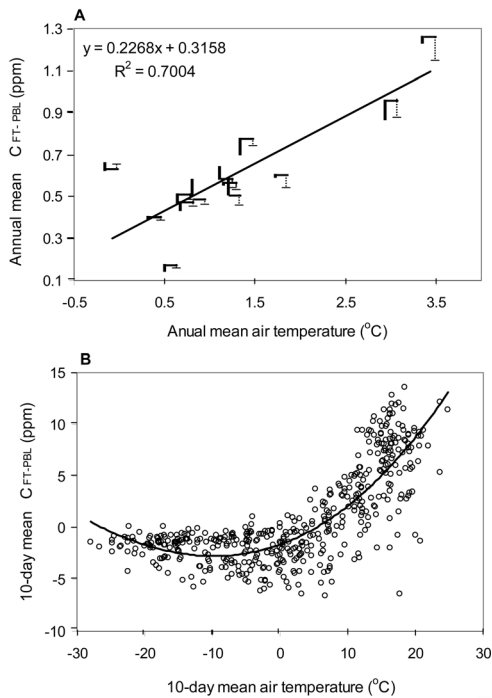
99 Productivity Simulator (BEPS) [Liu *et al.*, 2002], which  
 100 simulates ecosystem processes including water balance,  
 101 photosynthesis [Farquhar *et al.*, 1980], and autotrophic  
 102 and heterotrophic respiration, and radiation and energy  
 103 balances of the canopy and the soil surface; and (2) the  
 104 Vertical Diffusion Scheme (VDS) [Chen *et al.*, 2004], which  
 105 simulates CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion within the planetary boundary layer  
 106 (PBL) under both stable and unstable atmospheric condi-  
 107 tions. The combined BEPS-VDS model simulated well the  
 108 measured hourly CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CO<sub>2</sub>  
 121 concentration measurements. Figure 1 shows an example of  
 122 measured and simulated hourly CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CO<sub>2</sub>, we turned off the gross primary productivity  
 127 (GPP) in BEPS from sunrise to sunset. As shown in  
 128 Figure 1, the simulated CO<sub>2</sub> with GPP = 0 increases  
 129 considerably from the measured CO<sub>2</sub>. 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 CO<sub>2</sub>, 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 CO<sub>2</sub> time  
 series. Physically, the hourly average difference in CO<sub>2</sub>  
 ( $\Delta C_i$ , in ppm) between the measured and simulated (with  
 GPP = 0) cases reflects the accumulating reduction of CO<sub>2</sub>  
 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 ( $\rho_{\text{air}}$ ) 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<sup>-2</sup>). As the air moves across the  
 landscape, this effect of GPP on air CO<sub>2</sub> 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<sup>-2</sup>). 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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>,  $n = 186$ ).

#### 4. Results and Discussion

[6] A simple analysis of the CO<sub>2</sub> record against FT data  
 reveals important temperature-dependent ecosystem signals  
 (Figure 2a): the annual mean difference in CO<sub>2</sub> ( $\Delta C_{\text{FT-PBL}}$ )  
 between FT and the daily minimum measured at 40 m  
 increased with the annual mean air temperature. The daily  
 minimum CO<sub>2</sub> 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 Faserdale) 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 CO<sub>2</sub>  
 concentration than the northerly flows by  $\sim 1$  ppm in the  
 growing season (largest in the year), the flow direction had



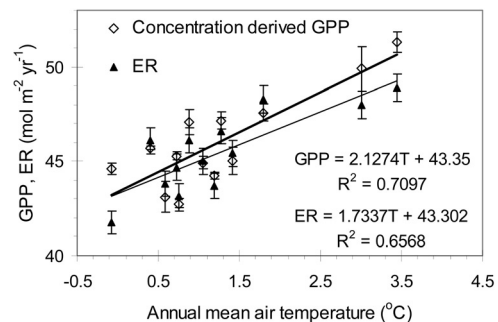
**Figure 2.** Interannual and seasonal temperature dependencies of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> over a boreal region. (a) The annually-averaged difference in CO<sub>2</sub> ( $\Delta C_{FT-PBL}$ ) between the daily minimum in the planetary boundary layer (PBL) and the free troposphere (FT) increased with 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  $\Delta C_{FT-PBL}$  suggests that the PBL is more depleted with CO<sub>2</sub> in warmer years. The slope of  $\Delta C_{FT-PBL}$  against temperature is highly significant ( $p < 0.0008$  in the  $t$  test). (b) 10-day mean  $\Delta C_{FT-PBL}$  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 CO<sub>2</sub> depletion.

195 small impacts on  $\Delta C_{FT-PBL}$  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  $\Delta C_{FT-PBL}$  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  $\Delta C_{FT-PBL}$  (Figure 2b) reveal  
 210 the reason for its large temperature sensitivity. In winters,  
 211 marked by daily mean temperature ( $T$ ) below  $-5^\circ\text{C}$ ,  
 212  $\Delta C_{FT-PBL}$  was negative and decreased slowly with increas-  
 213 ing  $T$ , indicating a small increase of ER with temperature.  
 214 At  $T > 0^\circ$ ,  $\Delta C_{FT-PBL}$  increased rapidly, suggesting that the  
 215 net uptake of CO<sub>2</sub> 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  $\Delta C_{FT-PBL}$  (in ppm 221  
 $\text{t}^{-1}$  or  $44.64 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol C m}^{-3} \text{t}^{-1}$  at the sea level and  $T =$  222  
 $273^\circ\text{K}$ ) 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 CO<sub>2</sub> concentra- 246  
 tion measurements, as the nighttime CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CO<sub>2</sub> at  $40$  m. Consistent with the 253  
 finding that the net uptake of CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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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