

Year-long carbon dioxide exchange above a broadleaf deciduous forest in Sapporo, Northern Japan

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ABSTRACT

This paper reports the results of a full year (2000) of measurements of CO₂ flux at a successional forest of mature birch and growing oak with Sasa-bamboo in Sapporo, Japan. Eddy covariance fluxes of CO₂ were obtained using a closed-path infrared gas analyzer. Changes in CO₂ storage under the eddy-flux measurement level were quantified using vertical profiles of the CO₂ concentration. Seasonal variations in net CO₂ exchange between the forest and the atmosphere are discussed in terms of both phenological developments of the forest canopy and micrometeorological variables. To estimate the annual exchange of CO₂, the net CO₂ exchange data both during periods of poor turbulence and during periods of missing data were replaced by simple parametric models based on measurements of soil temperatures and photosynthetically active radiation. The corrected annual carbon sequestration estimate was 260 g C m⁻². The estimates of annual gross carbon gain and loss at the forest were 1120 and 860 g C m⁻².

1. Introduction

It is necessary to understand the influence of forests on the global carbon cycle and their response to the increase in atmospheric CO₂ concentration, in order to estimate the possible global warming potential. However, variations in the carbon sequestration capacities of various forest ecosystems depending on climate, species, site productivity, topography and human activities are not well known.

In order to enhance our empirical and theoretical understanding of soil–forest–atmosphere exchanges of carbon dioxide and energy in Japan, a research network, “FFPRI (Forestry and Forest Products Research Institute) FluxNet” was initiated, in which six forest sites were set up from north to south of the Japan islands (Ohtani et al., 2001). The network introduced micrometeorological flux measurement methods, which provide a direct measure of net fluxes between the

surface and the atmosphere on an ecosystem scale and with time scales from hours to years (Baldocchi et al., 2001). The network aims to characterize and analyze CO₂, energy and water vapor fluxes over various forest sites in Japan with climate, vegetative species and canopy structure, and to provide parameters and sub-models for global models. Another aim is to quantify the sink strength of these forests for CO₂ and its spatial and temporal variations. This paper presents the results of measurements in made 2000 in a hardwood forest which is the northernmost site of the FFPRI FluxNet.

2. Site and instrumentation

2.1. Site description

The measurement site is located in Sapporo Hitsujigaoka Experimental Forest (SHEF). SHEF (42°59'N, 141°23'E, 180 m a.s.l.) is a natural forest with an area of 1.5 km² that has regenerated after a fire. The site provides a maximum fetch of 1200 m in the S-SE direction and a minimum of 500 m in the NW direction.

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The dominant wind direction is SE. Since the site is situated in a suburban area of Sapporo, it must be influenced by industrial and residential activities.

The terrain slopes 6.5° on average to the NW. It has a cool-temperate climate with an annual mean temperature of 6.5 °C and an annual precipitation of 1100 mm. Snow-cover reaches 1 m in depth and remains over 130 or more days a year from December to mid-April. The soil is loamy, originating from volcanic ashes. The area is covered with a broadleaf forest on the transitional time stage from mature birch (*Betula platyphylla*) to subclimax species consisting of Mizunara oak (*Quercus mongolica*), painted maple (*Acer mono*), castor aralia (*Kalopanax pictus*), Japanese linden (*Tilia japonica*), Japanese elm (*Ulmus davidiana* var. *japonica*) and 22 other species. The mean canopy height is 20 m. An understory consists of evergreen *Sasa* bamboo (*Sasa kurilensis* and *Sasa senanensis*) which densely covers the ground and has a height of 0.5–2 m. The mean nitrogen content of the leaves of the birch and the oak in late June 2000 ranged between 1.9 and 2.6% dry matter.

2.2. Instrumentation

A 41 m high tower was installed in SHEF. A shelter at the tower base houses the data-acquisition equipment, the gas flow controllers and infrared gas analyzers (IRGAs, Li-6262, LiCor). The instrumentation is organized into three parts: (1) an eddy covariance system at a height of 28.5 m, (2) micrometeorological profile measurements and (3) hydrological and soil physical measurements. At each of two levels (41 and 4 m) the radiation balance and photosynthetically active radiation (*PAR*) are measured. Absorbed *PAR* (*APAR*) is estimated by subtracting the reflected *PAR* from the incident *PAR* at 41 m. To quantify the storage of CO₂ under the eddy measurement level, profile measurements of CO₂ concentration were carried out by cycling through five levels (2.7, 11.0, 16.7, 20.5 and 30.0 m above the ground) of air intake tubes, using a computer-controlled solenoid-valve manifold in conjunction with an IRGA.

2.3. Eddy-covariance data acquisition and processing

The major sensors of the eddy-covariance system are a three-dimensional (3-D) sonic anemothermometer (SAT) and an IRGA. Sample air is absorbed from the intake near the SAT to the IRGA through 40-m long

Teflon tubing (6.0 mm i.d.) at a rate of 9.5 L min⁻¹. Sample air is dehumidified in a membrane tube (MD-110-48F, Perma Pure Inc.), which can percolate only water vapor but not CO₂, before the IRGA intake. The transit time for the tubing is determined dynamically during the growing periods by maximizing the covariance between the vertical wind velocity and the CO₂ density, but is manually fixed during the non-foliation periods and is of the order of 11–13 s.

Calibration of the IRGAs against standard gases is done automatically every 24 h. The raw voltages from the IRGA, the SAT and a thermo-hygrometer go through analogue low-pass filters with a cut-off frequency of 24 Hz, and are recorded by a digital recorder at a rate of 5 Hz. Eddy-covariance fluxes are obtained via post-processing. The 3-D rotation of the coordinate axis for the wind field, linear trend removal and the correction for the effects of heat and vapor on CO₂ fluxes (WPL correction, Webb et al., 1980) are included in the processing. The effect of WPL correction on the CO₂ fluxes is small because of dehumidification of the sample air and thermal mixing through the tubing (Yasuda et al., 1998). Throughout the paper, upward CO₂ fluxes and/or loss of CO₂ from forest are assigned positive and downward fluxes negative.

To correct flux measurements for the tube attenuations, various methods have been developed (e.g. Eugster and Senn, 1995; Massman, 2000; Yasuda and Watanabe, 2001) with assumptions of the cospectrum similarity. However, the attenuations in the CO₂ fluxes measured with the closed-path IRGA were not considerable, comparing the cospectra with an open-path IRGA (E-009A, Advantec Inc.) in operation during a few days in August 2000. In addition, the similarity should be carefully examined for each site or measurement system. Thus, we make no corrections for the attenuations in high-frequency regions to the measurements of CO₂ fluxes. The lack of energy closure was about 25% of net radiation, using the data of August 2001 and assuming that the total heat storage below the measurement level is negligible.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Seasonal trends in canopy architecture and micrometeorological variables

The daily albedo from 10 to 14 h at the site was determined using up- and down-looking pyranometers at 41 m height. During the initial period of foliage

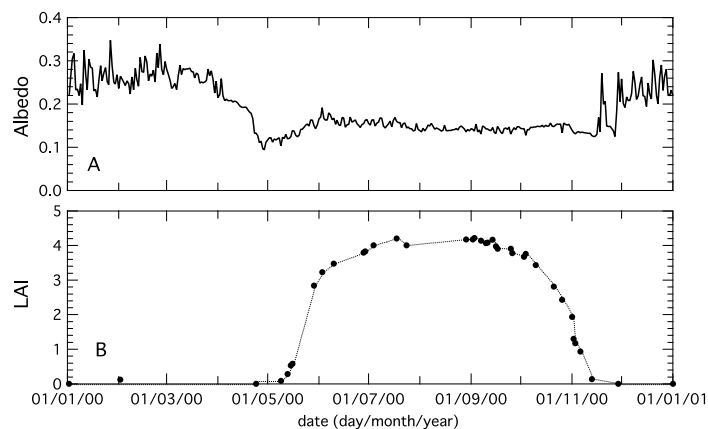


Fig. 1. Seasonal variations in (A) daily mean albedo during the mid-day periods between 10 and 14 h (JST), and (B) leaf area index (LAI) above the understory of *Sasa* bamboo.

development from the end of April to early June, the albedo increased quickly from 0.10 to 0.17, and then from early June to early September it decreased gradually as shown in Fig. 1A. This decrease could be attributed to increased leaf darkness with senescence and to trapping more radiation via multiple reflection inside the forest during the foliating period. Similar variations in the albedo above the canopy of temperate deciduous and mixed forests were reported by Watanabe et al. (2001) and Schmid et al. (2000).

Seasonal variations in leaf area index (LAI) were derived from the absorption of global solar radiation by the canopy, using the Beer–Lambert law, where the extinction coefficients were determined based on the measurements of leaf-litter collection in 1999 by Suzuki et al. (2001). The onset of budding was visually observed to be about 2–3 wk earlier in 2000 than in average years. As shown in Fig. 1B, the initial foliating period was completed by end of June, and then the LAI remained approximately constant around 4.0 until mid-September. The evolution pattern of the LAI at SHEF is similar to that for other deciduous forests in temperate climate over the world (Greco and Baldocchi, 1996; Yasuda et al., 1998; Granier et al., 2000; Schmid et al., 2000; etc.).

Seasonal variations both in air temperature at the height of 41 m (T_a) and in soil temperature at 0.05 m depth (T_s) are shown in Fig. 2A. Despite T_a being below 0 °C during the winter period between December and March, T_s was stable and above 2 °C. This is due to an insulation function of snow-cover, the depth of which is shown in Fig. 2B. The daily maximum of T_a frequently exceeded 25 °C during mid-summer.

The matric potential at a depth of 0.4 m, as shown in Fig. 2C, was approximately steady at –4.5 kPa during the winter period. During the active snowmelt period in April, the matric potential was near zero, which means that the surface layer of the soil was nearly saturated. After saturation, the matric potential sometimes decreased to –40 or –50 kPa at minimum. These values of the matric potential mean that the trees were never water-stressed through the year at the study site.

3.2. Seasonal variations in net ecosystem exchange of CO₂

Net CO₂ exchange between the forest ecosystem and the atmosphere (NEE) was defined as the sum of the eddy covariance fluxes at 28.5 m height above the canopy, F_c , and the change of CO₂ storage in the volume from the ground to the height of the eddy covariance system, F_s . In an annual course of half-hourly NEE (Fig. 3), small negative values and episodic ones of large magnitude were obtained even during the leaf-off periods. This finding is consistent with the experience of other observation sites over deciduous forests (Goulden et al., 1996a; Schmid et al., 2000; Pilegaard et al., 2001). These negative fluxes and episodic ones might be attributed not only to instrument error. For this reason, they were not rejected in our estimates of NEE . Daily F_s ranged between –55 and 48 (mmol m^{–2} d^{–1}), the standard deviation of the daily F_s was 14.8 (mmol m^{–2} d^{–1}), and the annual sum of F_s was –5.8 (mmol m^{–2} yr^{–1}). Thus, F_s could be neglected on yearly NEE but not on daily NEE .

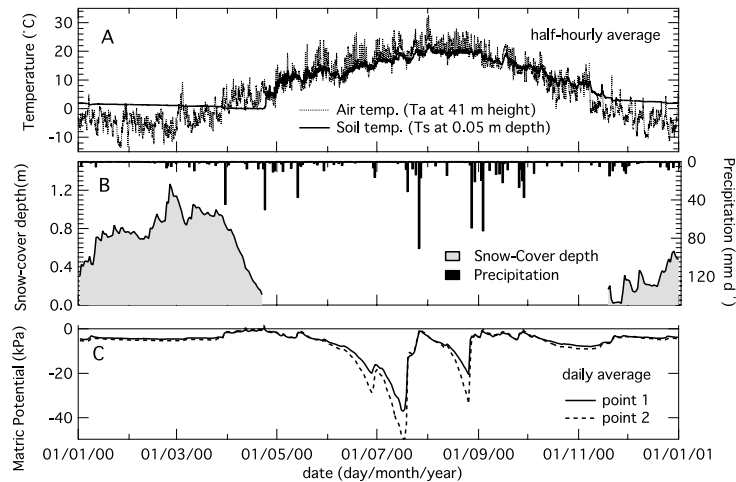


Fig. 2. Annual courses of (A) air and soil temperature, (B) snow-cover depth and precipitation and (C) matric potential pressure in the soil at a depth of 0.4 m.

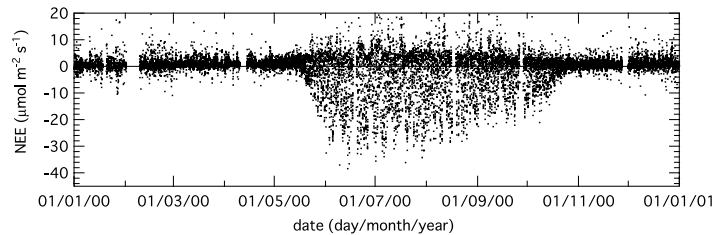


Fig. 3. Scatter plot of half-hourly *NEE* (net ecosystem exchange of CO_2) measurements in 2000.

Net uptake of CO_2 began in middle of May and increased rapidly to a maximum in late June. This change in *NEE* is consistent with the quick increase in *LAI* (Figs. 1B and 3). The sequestration continued until mid-October, when *LAI* was around 3 and the bright fall coloration of the foliage was seen overall. The minimum of half-hourly *NEE* reached nearly $-40 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. This magnitude of net uptake can be seen in other temperate deciduous and mixed forests (Schmid et al., 2000; Pilegaard et al., 2001). The average of minimum *NEE* during mid-day in the month with the highest uptake (June) was $-24 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. The annual course of *NEE* could clearly be related to the seasonal variation in *LAI*. This finding has been recognized in temperate deciduous forest worldwide.

During the leaf-off period of 20 d just after the end of the snowmelt, diurnal patterns in *NEE*, indicating photosynthetic activities, were seen, as well as during the leaf-off period of 20 d in autumn (not shown in figures). These diurnal patterns in *NEE* must be the

result of photosynthesis by *Sasa* bamboo, which is an evergreen understory with dense biomass in eastern Asia. Note that the *LAI* shown in Fig. 1B does not include *Sasa* bamboo.

3.3. Estimation of ecosystem respiration and gross ecosystem exchange

NEE can be defined as the balance between the gross ecosystem exchange by primary photosynthesis (*GEE*) and the total ecosystem respiration (*RE*):

$$NEE = GEE + RE. \quad (1)$$

An empirical model of total dark respiration was established by adjusting the night-time and leaf-off *NEE* (e.g. Wofsy et al., 1993) to a relevant temperature and extrapolating this model to the daytime respiration. *GEE* can then be estimated using eq. (1). In this report the soil temperature at the depth of 0.05 m (T_s) is

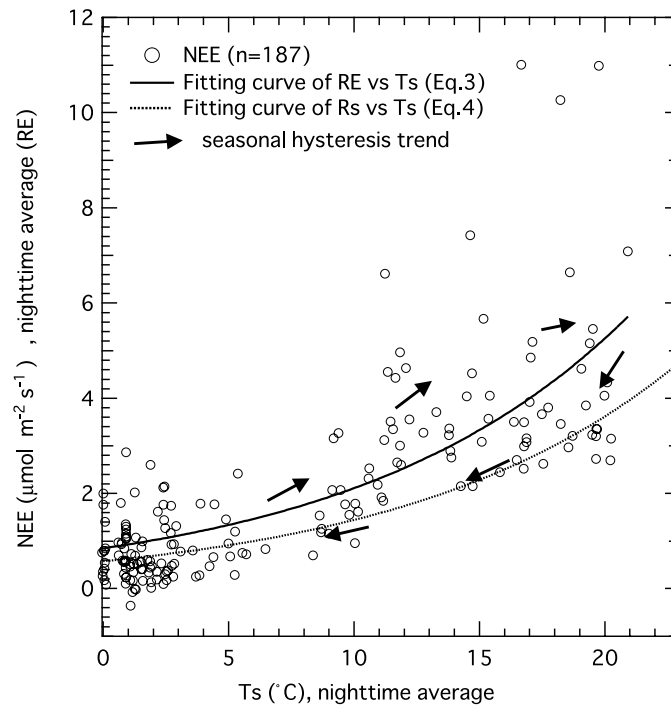


Fig. 4. Night-time-averaged *NEE* as a function of soil temperature at the depth of 0.05 m (T_s). The solid line represents eq. (3). The dotted line represents the soil respiration (R_s) as a function of T_s [eq. (4)].

chosen as a temperature parameter, and it is assumed that *RE* for the whole period could be estimated from *NEE* during night-time and leaf-off periods.

NEE is probably underestimated during the night-time periods of stably stratified conditions when CO₂ storage drains down the sloped terrain below the eddy-flux measurement level as this study site. To exclude *NEE* data under such calm night conditions, we screened the night-time average of *NEE*, using a criterion expressed by inequality (2):

$$T_{a41} - T_{a25} < 0.1 \quad (2)$$

where T_{a41} and T_{a25} are T_a (°C) at 41.0 and 25.5 m above the ground, respectively. Both T_{a41} and T_{a25} are night-time averages. Although a large deviation in the relationship between *RE* and T_s is shown in Fig. 4, *RE* was fitted to T_s using a simple exponential function that is widely used to assess *RE* (e.g. Greco and Baldocchi, 1996; Lindroth et al., 1998; Falge et al., 2001). The fitting provided the following equation:

$$RE = 0.85 \exp(0.091T_s) \quad (3)$$

where *RE* is in $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ and T_s is in °C. The corresponding Q_{10} coefficient from eq. (3) is 2.49. This value lies within those reported by various authors for broadleaf deciduous forests (e.g. Valentini et al., 1996; 2000). Another feature in the relationship between *RE* and T_s is a trend of seasonal hysteresis as illustrated in Fig. 4. This hysteresis pattern can be explained by leaf senescence, as young leaves respire at a higher rate than old leaves. However, Lee et al. (1999) reported anticlockwise hysteresis reversed to that presented in Fig. 4. Several researchers have screened night-time half-hourly or hourly data on the basis of a friction velocity u^* threshold (e.g. Goulden et al., 1996a; Lindroth et al., 1998). Suzuki et al. (2001) parameterized our night-time *NEE* to T_s using half-hourly data with a u^* threshold of 0.4 m s^{-1} , and obtained a fitting curve similar to eq. (3).

Ishizuka and Tanaka (2000) measured soil respiration (R_s) using the closed chambers at SHEF, and obtained the following relationship between R_s and T_s :

$$R_s = 0.96 \exp(0.092T_s - 0.52). \quad (4)$$

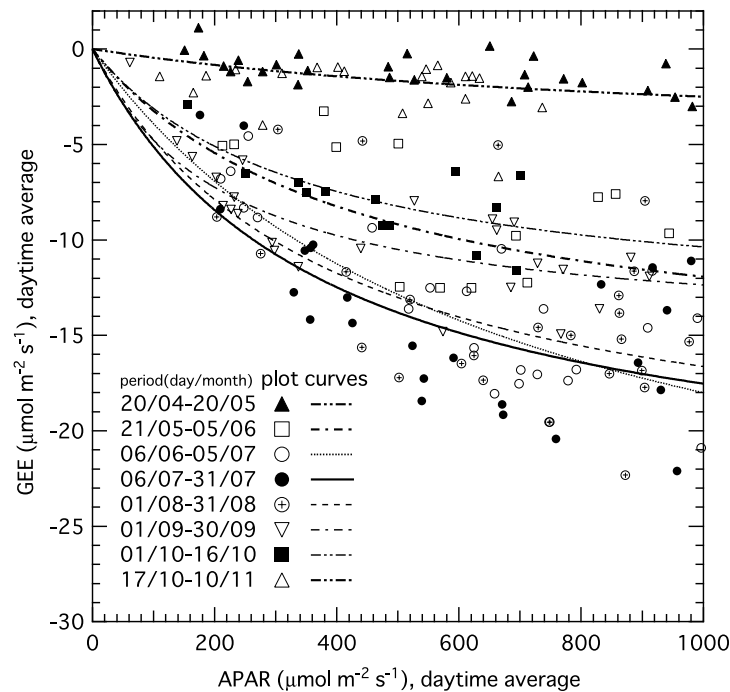


Fig. 5. Plot of the daily gross ecosystem exchange (GEE) versus absorbed photosynthetically active radiation (APAR) for each of several periods. The lines represent equation (5) fitted to the data.

Comparing eq. (3) with eq. (4), R_s is approximately 70% of RE , and R_s is the lower envelope for the scatter of RE at SHEF as shown in Fig. 4. This result seems reasonable, and the ratio $R_s = 0.7RE$, is close to the ratio $R_s = 0.65RE$ at the Euroflux sites (Berbigier et al., 2001). If no criteria are used for screening RE (night-time NEE) here, the fitted RE mostly overlies eq. (4) (R_s). This result is unrealistic. Thus, the criterion of inequality (2) or the u^* threshold is necessary to parameterize night-time NEE to temperature factors at the site. However, the data screening with these kinds of criterion has unsolved problems. For example, CO_2 storage during the calm nights is double-counted when it flushes out up to the eddy measurement level in the morning and when NEE is replaced by the temperature function from windy-night conditions as a correction (e.g. Aubinet et al., 2000). We cannot say how large a portion of CO_2 storage is drained out horizontally from the ecosystem at the study site. To begin with, it is unclear that the RE vs. T relationship from windy nights is applicable to all nights.

GEE was determined using eqs. (1) and (2) for daytime over the growing period. By analogy with the light-photosynthesis curve in the field of plant phys-

iology, eq. (5) was fitted to each separate periods as shown in Fig. 5:

$$GEE = -P_{\max} \times APAR / (-P_{\max}/K_p + APAR) \quad (5)$$

where the coefficient P_{\max} is the saturated photosynthesis rate and the coefficient K_p is the initial slope of the curve. The values of P_{\max} largely varied seasonally. This suggests that leaf senescence plays a role in GEE . For an understanding of carbon cycling in forest ecosystems, the senescence process should be universally modeled using measurable parameters in the future. It should be noted that this P_{\max} is the integral photosynthesis ability of vegetative species in the site.

RE given by eq. (3) was used to correct NEE during the night-time and leaf-off periods of stably stratified conditions. A combination of eqs. (1), (3) and (5) was used to estimate RE and GEE , and to fill the missing data in the time series of NEE over the entire year. The year sums of GEE , RE and NEE are summarized in Table 1. NEE estimates are within the level reported for other deciduous broadleaf forests in the literature ($100\text{--}600 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$; e.g. Wofsy et al., 1993;

Table 1. Annual GEE, RE and NEE in carbon (g C m^{-2})

	GEE	RE	NEE	RE (night)
Raw data (observed)			-285	351
Gap-filling and corrected	-1118	857	-261	429

Goulden et al., 1996b; Granier et al., 2000; Schmid et al., 2000; Aubinet et al., 2001; Pilegaard et al., 2001; Berbigier et al., 2001). When the night-time *NEE* is replaced by a temperature-*RE* relationship for windy nights, similar to eq. (3), both the estimates from the iterative and our own are usually reduced.

The measurements of *NEE* ($=RE$) during snow-cover periods fluctuated despite the constant and stable soil temperature. This fluctuation is attributed to factors other than the soil temperature. Exchange of CO₂ between snow and atmosphere during winter is important at heavy snowfall regions such as SHEF because deep snow-cover plays a role in maintaining a warm and humid environment in the soil and for holding soil respiration at a significant value. Additionally, release of CO₂ from above-snowcover biomass might play a role, because stems and branches in the leaf-off forest directly absorb global radiation and become warmer than ambient air during the mid-daytime. *RE* during winter with snow-cover amounted to 140 g C m^{-2} , which compensates approximately as much as a half of the annual sums of *NEE*.

4. Conclusions

Based on the full year measurements in 2000 of net ecosystem exchange of CO₂ between the forest and the atmosphere and of micrometeorology at the northern-

most site of FFPRI FluxNet in Japan, the following conclusions are drawn. The annual sequestration of atmospheric carbon by the deciduous forest in 2000 is preliminarily determined to be 2.6 t C ha^{-1} as the result of gap-filling and correction for total ecosystem respiration. This estimate is based on both eddy-covariance and storage change measurements, with a correction scheme based on soil temperature and absorbed *PAR*. The relationship between ecosystem respiration and soil temperature has a large uncertainty, and is weakest point in this estimate.

A quantitative evaluation of the precision of long-term mass exchange estimates over tall vegetation involves unknown flow phenomena induced by topography or mesoscale inhomogeneity. It also requires the strict refinement of eddy covariance data and the development of new methodologies of experimental design to account for the entire mass balance in a soil-vegetation-atmosphere volume. Solutions to these problems are among the most exciting challenges that land-atmosphere exchange research faces today.

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