

Influence of C₄ vegetation on ¹³CO₂ discrimination and isoforcing in the upper Midwest, United States

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[1] Agricultural crops with a C₄ photosynthetic pathway rapidly expanded across North America as early as 800 A.D. Their distribution continues to expand globally as demands for food and biofuel production increase. These systems are highly productive, having a significant impact on carbon and water exchange between the land and atmosphere. Here, we investigate the relative impact of agricultural C₄ vegetation on the ¹³CO₂ photosynthetic discrimination and atmospheric isotopic forcing in the upper Midwest, United States. We address three questions: (1) What is the relative importance of C₃ and C₄ species to the CO₂ budget? (2) How do these different photosynthetic pathways influence the photosynthetic discrimination within this heterogeneous landscape? (3) To what extent does land use change (i.e., a change in C₄ crops) impact atmospheric isotopic forcing and the isotopic signature of the atmosphere? These questions are addressed using measurements obtained from the University of Minnesota tall tower (244 m) trace gas observatory (TGO) over the growing seasons of 2007 and 2008 and are supported with scaled-up values of discrimination and isotopic forcing based on ecosystem-scale eddy flux observations and high-resolution land use data. Our land use analyses indicate that local and regional C₄ production was higher by 10% in 2007 due to increased demand for biofuel. The 2007 growing season was also characterized by moderate drought as a consequence of low antecedent soil water content. Isotopic flux ratio measurements from TGO provide evidence that the increase in C₄ land use and drier soil conditions of 2007 had a significant impact on the growing season ¹³CO₂ photosynthetic discrimination, which ranged from 11.5 to 14.8 in 2007 and 12.4‰ to 17.4‰ in 2008. Isotopic partitioning indicated that C₄ species accounted for about 20 to 40% of the growing season gross photosynthetic CO₂ exchange. The isoforcing analysis revealed that C₃ discrimination dominated the atmospheric δ_a¹³ budget, especially during spring and fall. Estimates of ¹³CO₂ photosynthetic discrimination for this region support recently published isotope modeling studies that explicitly accounted for increases in C₄ cropland, which has significant implications for estimating the terrestrial carbon sink strength based on inverse modeling techniques.

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1. Introduction

[2] The stable carbon isotope ratio, ¹³CO₂/¹²CO₂, is a powerful tracer for examining questions related to impacts of land use changes on carbon cycling because it contains information about short-term (hours/days) and long-term

(seasonal/interannual) dynamics. At hourly time scales, photosynthetic discrimination against the heavier ¹³CO₂ molecule causes photosynthetically fixed CO₂ to become relatively depleted in ¹³C while the atmosphere becomes relatively enriched in ¹³C [Farquhar *et al.*, 1989]. The amount of discrimination is strongly dependent on photosynthetic pathway (Calvin Cycle, C₃ versus Hatch-Slack Cycle, C₄) and is also influenced by other environmental factors such as precipitation, canopy conductance, vapor pressure deficit, and the ratio of stomatal to atmospheric CO₂ concentration [Farquhar *et al.*, 1989; Yakir and Sternberg, 2000; Bowling *et al.*, 2002; Suets *et al.*, 2005]. The isotopic composition of recently fixed photosynthate

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(δ_P) is to some extent modulated by subsequent biochemical reactions during the formation of plant tissues, etc. [Ghashghaie et al., 2001; Tcherkez et al., 2003; Badeck et al., 2005; Bathellier et al., 2008]. This photosynthetic isotope signal is continuously recorded in the standing biomass and soil organic matter providing a tracer of environmental change over longer time scales.

[3] C₃ plants discriminate more strongly against ¹³CO₂ than C₄ plants. Carbon isotope composition of C₃ and C₄ leaves typically vary from about −28 to −26‰ and −15 to −13‰, respectively [Farquhar, 1983; Farquhar et al., 1989; Cerling et al., 1997]. These isotopic differences provide a unique opportunity to examine how C₃ and C₄ vegetation contribute to the local, regional, and global carbon budget. Variations in the relative abundance of C₃ and C₄ species can be linked to changes in climate, atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, and disturbance factors such as increased fire and fragmentation of forests [Cerling et al., 1997; Ehleringer et al., 1997; Keeley and Rundel, 2005; Osborne and Beerling, 2006; Edwards and Still, 2008]. Today, C₄ grasses are most dominant in warmer semiarid climates with moderate to high light levels [Sage, 2001]. In North America, the natural distribution of C₄ species in prairies has been significantly impacted by human disturbance and the development of an agricultural economy. The introduction of C₄ corn into Eastern North America likely occurred as early as A.D. 200 and rapidly expanded between A.D. 800 and 1100 as indicated from the carbon isotope ratio analysis of human bone collagen [Smith, 1989].

[4] Temporal and spatial variations in the relative C₃/C₄ contributions have significant implications for our understanding of the global carbon and water cycles [Lloyd and Farquhar, 1994; Ehleringer et al., 1997; Still et al., 2003a; Suits et al., 2005]. C₄ species are estimated to account for about 17% to 23% of global gross primary productivity [Wittenberg and Esser, 1997; Lloyd and Farquhar, 1994; Still et al., 2003a; Ito, 2003]. Determining the global distribution of the C₃ and C₄ photosynthetic pathways is essential for estimating the atmospheric budget of ¹³CO₂, ¹²CO₂ and $\delta^{13}\text{C-CO}_2$ (isoforcing) and constraining the regional carbon sink/source strength using the double deconvolution inverse method [Lloyd and Farquhar, 1994; Still et al., 2003a; Lai et al., 2004, 2006; Scholze et al., 2008]. Still et al. [2003a] estimated the global coverage of C₄ and C₃ vegetation to be 18.8 million km² and 87.4 million km², respectively. Using SiB2, they modeled a gross primary production of 35.3 Pg C yr^{−1} and 114.7 Pg C yr^{−1}, for the C₄ and C₃ pathways and estimated photosynthetically weighted global terrestrial plant discrimination to be about 16.5‰. Using an isotopic mass balance approach they then estimated a net land uptake of 2.4 Pg C yr^{−1} and 1.4 Pg C yr^{−1} by the ocean. Such estimates are highly sensitive to the relative distribution of C₃/C₄ species and their influence on the photosynthetic discrimination. Scholze et al. [2008] recently noted that state-of-the-art inverse methods have ignored the effects of C₄ crops, which can cause the partitioning between oceanic and terrestrial carbon fluxes to change significantly. They demonstrated that ignoring the effects of C₄ crops caused the partitioning between oceanic and terrestrial carbon fluxes to shift by

about 1 Pg C yr^{−1}, with the terrestrial sink becoming smaller. Such a large change is significant and it exceeds the uncertainties in the inverse methodology [Scholze et al., 2008].

[5] Globally, C₄ crops are grown on approximately 3.2 million km², representing 24% of all harvested land and 17% of C₄ vegetation [Monfreda et al., 2008]. In the upper Midwest, United States, C₄ and C₃ rotation ecosystems (i.e., corn and soybean, respectively) dominate the landscape, covering about 150 million hectares. Changing demands for agriculture and biofuel can cause significant perturbations in land use and management. For example, in 2007 corn production was increased (relative to the average over the period 2000 to 2006) by ≈0.5 and 6 million hectares in Minnesota and the United States, respectively [USDA-NASS, 2007b] to satisfy rising ethanol demands [Donner and Kucharik, 2008]. Recent model simulations by Donner and Kucharik [2008] indicate that an increase in corn acreage of more than 60% will be required to meet the 36 billion gallon biofuel goal by the year 2022 as outlined by the United States Energy Policy Act. A perturbation in land use (via photosynthetic pathway or environmental conditions) can change the isotopic composition of photosynthesis (δ_P), ecosystem respiration (δ_R) or the land isotopic disequilibrium ($D_L = \delta_R - \delta_P$). These key parameters are used by the inverse modeling community to help constrain the partitioning of carbon sink/source strength of the ocean and land [Ciais et al., 1995; Fung et al., 1997; Rayner et al., 1999; Ito, 2003; Scholze et al., 2008; Rayner et al., 2008]. Further, a perturbation in land use is expected to have a significant influence on the isotopic forcing of the atmosphere [Lee et al., 2009].

[6] Detection and interpretation of such changes, however, requires that state-of-the-art models [Fung et al., 1997; Ito, 2003; Riley et al., 2002] be constrained by routine and direct measurement of the relevant isotopic fluxes at the appropriate temporal and spatial scales. At the present time we do not have a network of isotopic flux measurement sites, analogous to Global Fluxnet, that can provide detailed information on isotopic CO₂ exchange and key discrimination parameters. Traditionally, these types of isotope data have been collected weekly or during short intensive campaigns by collecting air samples in flasks and using isotope ratio mass spectrometry analysis [Keeling, 1958; Flanagan and Ehleringer, 1998; Bakwin et al., 1998; Buchmann and Ehleringer, 1998; Pataki et al., 2003; Miller et al., 2003; Lai et al., 2004, 2006]. Advances in laser technologies [Bowling et al., 2003; Griffis et al., 2004; Lee et al., 2005; Griffis et al., 2008] are providing new capacity for near-continuous measurement of isotopic mixing ratios and fluxes that should provide better constraints on isotopic fluxes, discrimination, and data sets for model development and verification [McDowell et al., 2008].

[7] The objectives of this paper are to (1) Examine the influence of C₄ vegetation on biosphere-atmosphere CO₂ exchange and ¹³C discrimination at the mesoscale (≈5 km) within the upper Midwest, United States; (2) Assess the relative importance of C₄ species to the mesoscale carbon budget; and (3) Evaluate the potential influence of land use change on ¹³CO₂ discrimination and isoforcing. These objectives are addressed through analysis of carbon iso-

tope concentration and flux measurements obtained during the 2007/2008 growing seasons from the University of Minnesota tall tower (244 m) Trace Gas Observatory (TGO) located within an agricultural landscape near St. Paul, Minnesota, United States.

2. Theory

2.1. Biosphere-Atmosphere Isotopic CO₂ Exchange

[8] Concentration and flux measurements from tall towers can provide greater spatial information regarding the influence of land use and land surface heterogeneity on regional carbon budgets and isotopic discrimination [Bakwin *et al.*, 1998; Yi *et al.*, 2000; Berger *et al.*, 2001; Davis *et al.*, 2003; Haszpra *et al.*, 2005; Marquis and Tans, 2008; Barcza *et al.*, 2009], but the methodology presents a number of challenges that can make the interpretation of tall tower data difficult. Here we provide a brief overview of the eddy covariance (EC) approach and isotopic mass balance for CO₂ in order to discuss the methodological issues that are of particular interest to tall tower applications in heterogeneous terrain and to give appropriate background for the flux-based (EC and flux-gradient) approach to determining isotopic composition and isoforcing.

[9] Yi *et al.* [2000] reexamined the conservation equation of a scalar (c^i) for the application of tall tower flux measurements where horizontal and vertical advection can be significant. They argued that in convective conditions the horizontal turbulent flux divergence is small compared to the vertical flux divergence and noted that when the flux footprint is large relative to the spatial scale of the heterogeneity (for instance, if eddy scale is large compared to the dimensions of typical field crops) the horizontal flux divergence can be ignored. Following Reynolds decomposition and averaging, and ignoring molecular diffusivity and horizontal flux divergence, the conservation equation for c^i can be written as,

$$\frac{\partial \bar{c}^i}{\partial t} + \bar{u} \frac{\partial \bar{c}^i}{\partial x} + \bar{w} \frac{\partial \bar{c}^i}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial \overline{w'c^i}}{\partial z} = \bar{s}_{ci} \quad (1)$$

where, t is time, x is direction aligned with the horizontal mean wind, z is the direction perpendicular to the typical streamlines, w is the vertical wind velocity, c^i is the CO₂ concentration and superscript i indicates the isotopologue of interest (¹³CO₂ or ¹²CO₂), the primes indicate the differences between instantaneous and mean values and the overbar indicates an averaging operation (60 min integration period). $\overline{w'c^i}$ is the covariance of w and c^i . The left-hand-side terms represent the change in scalar concentration per unit time, horizontal advection, vertical advection, and turbulent vertical flux, respectively, and \bar{s}_{ci} represents the sink/source term.

[10] The net ecosystem exchange of isotopic CO₂ (F_N^i) can be obtained from integration of equation (1) over the specified control volume,

$$F_N^i = \int_0^{z_r} \frac{\partial \bar{c}^i}{\partial t} dz + \left(\overline{w'c^i} \right)_{z_r} + \int_0^{z_r} \left\{ \bar{u} \frac{\partial \bar{c}^i}{\partial x} + \bar{w} \frac{\partial \bar{c}^i}{\partial z} \right\} dz \quad (2)$$

where the terms on the right-hand side represent the rate of change in storage between the ground and EC measurement height (F_S^i), eddy flux (F_E^i), and the combination of horizontal and vertical advection (F_A^i),

$$F_N^i = F_S^i + F_E^i + F_A^i \quad (3)$$

[11] A number of studies have shown that the advective terms can be important especially when turbulence is weakly developed at night; at towers located within complex terrain; and on tall towers where top down diffusion can cause flux divergence [Lee, 1998; Yi *et al.*, 2000; Finnigan, 1999; Wyngaard and Brost, 1984; Huang *et al.*, 2008]. However, it has also been assumed that the advection terms are negligible over the long term (i.e., when ensemble averaged over a few synoptic cycles or phenological windows) [Davis *et al.*, 2003]. The importance of advection at TGO and other methodological details are provided in the auxiliary material.¹

2.2. Isotopic Flux Ratio and Isotopic Forcing

[12] The isotopic signature of the net flux can be obtained from the flux ratio of equation (3) [Griffis *et al.*, 2004],

$$R_N = \frac{F_N^{13}}{F_N^{12}} \quad (4)$$

where the molar ratio R_N is computed from the ratio of the heavy to light isotopic fluxes and can be expressed in delta notation,

$$\delta_N = 1000 \left(\frac{R_N}{R_{VPDB}} - 1 \right) \quad (5)$$

where R_{VPDB} is the standard molar ratio based on the Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite scale.

[13] The flux ratio can also be obtained from the flux-gradient approach [He and Smith, 1999; Griffis *et al.*, 2004, 2007; Drewitt *et al.*, 2009]. In the case of taller towers, gradient measurements are susceptible to counter-gradient transport from large scales of motion and can result in an underestimate of the flux. Further, the large height differences between inlets results in different source/sink footprint functions. While these are legitimate concerns, we demonstrate later that both the EC and flux-gradient techniques produce similar results and that the flux-gradient approach yields significantly lower uncertainty. We believe that the relatively good agreement resulted from the fact that the inlets are located well above the roughness sublayer and that the land surface heterogeneity is consistent (self similarity) across spatial scales ranging from about 5 to 100 km from the tower (see details below).

[14] Equation (3) can also be written as an isoflux ($F_N \delta_N$, the product of the flux and its isotopic composition) [Bowling *et al.*, 2001],

$$F_N \delta_N = (\delta_a^{13} - \Delta) F_P + \delta_R F_R \quad (6)$$

¹Auxiliary materials are available with the HTML. doi:10.1029/2009GB003768.

where δ_a^{13} is the isotopic composition of the boundary layer air. Δ and δ_R are the flux-weighted photosynthetic discrimination and isotope composition of respiration, respectively. F_P and F_R represent photosynthetic and respiratory fluxes. Here, we measured the isotopic flux ratio directly at the tall tower and we used equation (6) with observations at the ecosystem scale to calculate δ_N .

[15] Finally, the influence of biosphere-atmosphere CO₂ exchange on the atmospheric δ_a^{13} budget can be evaluated from the isotopic forcing (I_F) perspective [Tans, 1980; Yakir, 2003],

$$I_F = \frac{F_N}{C_a} (\delta_N - \delta_a^{13}) \quad (7)$$

where, C_a is the molar concentration of CO₂. Starting from equation (1), Lee *et al.* [2009] demonstrated that the covariance term, $w'\delta'$, is mathematically identical to equation (7). $w'\delta'$ represents the correct flux boundary condition driving the temporal variations in atmospheric δ_a^{13} and can be measured directly using eddy covariance and laser spectroscopy [Griffis *et al.*, 2008; Lee *et al.*, 2009]. Field-scale measurements of isotopic CO₂ exchange over C₃ and C₄ systems [Griffis *et al.*, 2005, 2007; Zhang *et al.*, 2006], within close proximity to the tall tower, were used to provide estimates of the isoforcing for the individual C₃ and C₄ components,

$$I_F = \gamma_3 \overline{w'\delta'_3} + \gamma_4 \overline{w'\delta'_4} = \frac{\gamma_3 F_{N_3}}{C_a} (\delta_{N_3} - \delta_a^{13}) + \frac{\gamma_4 F_{N_4}}{C_a} (\delta_{N_4} - \delta_a^{13}) \quad (8)$$

where γ_3 and γ_4 represent weighting factors determined from a flux footprint climatology (described in the auxiliary material). Further, we make use of traditional micrometeorological estimates of F_P (i.e., $F_P = F_N - F_R$) and canopy conductance (g_c) of CO₂ using the Penman-Monteith equation to help constrain the C₃ (g_{c3}) and C₄ (g_{c4}) photosynthetic discrimination factors,

$$\Delta_3 = b_3 + (b_3 - \epsilon_k^{13}) \frac{F_{P_3}}{g_{c3} C_a} \quad (9)$$

$$\Delta_4 = \epsilon_k^{13} + b' + \frac{F_{P_4} b'}{g_{c4} C_a} \quad (10)$$

where ϵ_k^{13} is the kinetic fractionation and b' is the enzymatic fractionation associated with the C₄ photosynthetic pathway,

$$b' = b_4 + b_3 \phi - \epsilon_k^{13} \quad (11)$$

where b_3 , b_4 , and ϕ , are the enzymatic fractionation of Rubisco (27‰) and PEP carboxylase (−5.7‰) and the bundle sheath leakage parameter, respectively. ϕ was estimated by Zhang *et al.* [2006] to be 0.3 at this study site in 2003.

[16] Using equations (6) through (11), we provide estimates of ¹³CO₂ isotopic composition and isotopic forcing and compare these estimates with the tall tower observations. Together, these estimates are used to constrain the

impact of land use on the ¹³CO₂ budget of the atmosphere and photosynthetic discrimination.

3. Materials and Methods

3.1. Research Site and Land Use History

[17] The tall tower (Minnesota Public Radio communications tower, KCMP 89.3 FM) is located approximately 25 km to the south of Minneapolis/St. Paul (44°41'19"N, 93°4'22"W; 290 m ASL) at the University of Minnesota, Rosemount Research and Outreach Center (RROC) (Figure 1). The tower was instrumented with two eddy covariance systems and one tunable diode laser in April 2007. Here we focus our analysis on the growing seasons of 2007 and 2008 from approximately DOY 152 (1 June) to DOY 274 (1 October). Two field-scale micrometeorological stations are also located at RROC within about 3 km of TGO and have been part of the AmeriFlux network since 2004 [Baker and Griffis, 2005]. These sites are currently in corn and soybean production and are used in this analysis for comparative purposes and to provide independent estimates of isotopic composition and isoforcing.

[18] Presettlement vegetation history within the tall tower flux footprint is upland dry prairie, consisting of C₃ and C₄ plant species with dominant species consisting of big bluestem (*Andropogon gerardii* Vitman), and Indian grass (*Sorghastrum nutans*) [Marschner, 1974]. Significant production of wheat, oats, corn and potato within the region occurred as early as 1860 according to the Minnesota State Agricultural Census Data, Dakota County Historical Society.

3.2. Land Cover Data and Analyses

[19] Regional land cover data products included the 2007/2008 USDA-NASS Crop Data Layer (CDL). The CDL product has a 56 m spatial resolution and was validated using ground reference data for agricultural areas including traditional data from the Farm Service Agency (FSA) Common Land Unit (CLU) program [USDA-NASS, 2007a; Homer *et al.*, 2007]. In addition, a hybrid supervised/unsupervised land use classification scheme was developed using a combination of air photos, ground reference data near the tall tower, and Landsat TM images in 2007/2008 to develop 30 m resolution land use maps for flux footprint analyses [Corcoran, 2009]. The hybrid classification scheme was found to have a level 2 (i.e., corn, soybean, other crop land use) accuracy of 71% [Corcoran, 2009]. Flux footprint/land use analysis and estimation of the normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) for the region was performed using geographical information system software (IDRISI, Clark Labs). To exclude impacts from the Minneapolis–St. Paul metropolitan area we restricted the land use and flux data analysis from 15 to 345 degrees from north. Based on the CDL classification, the 2007 land use consisted of ≈32% corn, 11% soybean, 23% grassland, 12% woodland, 10% wetland and 9% developed land within a 5 km radius. Within a 15 km radius the land use consisted of 36% corn, 12% soybean, 22% grassland, 8% woodland, 10% wetland and 9% developed

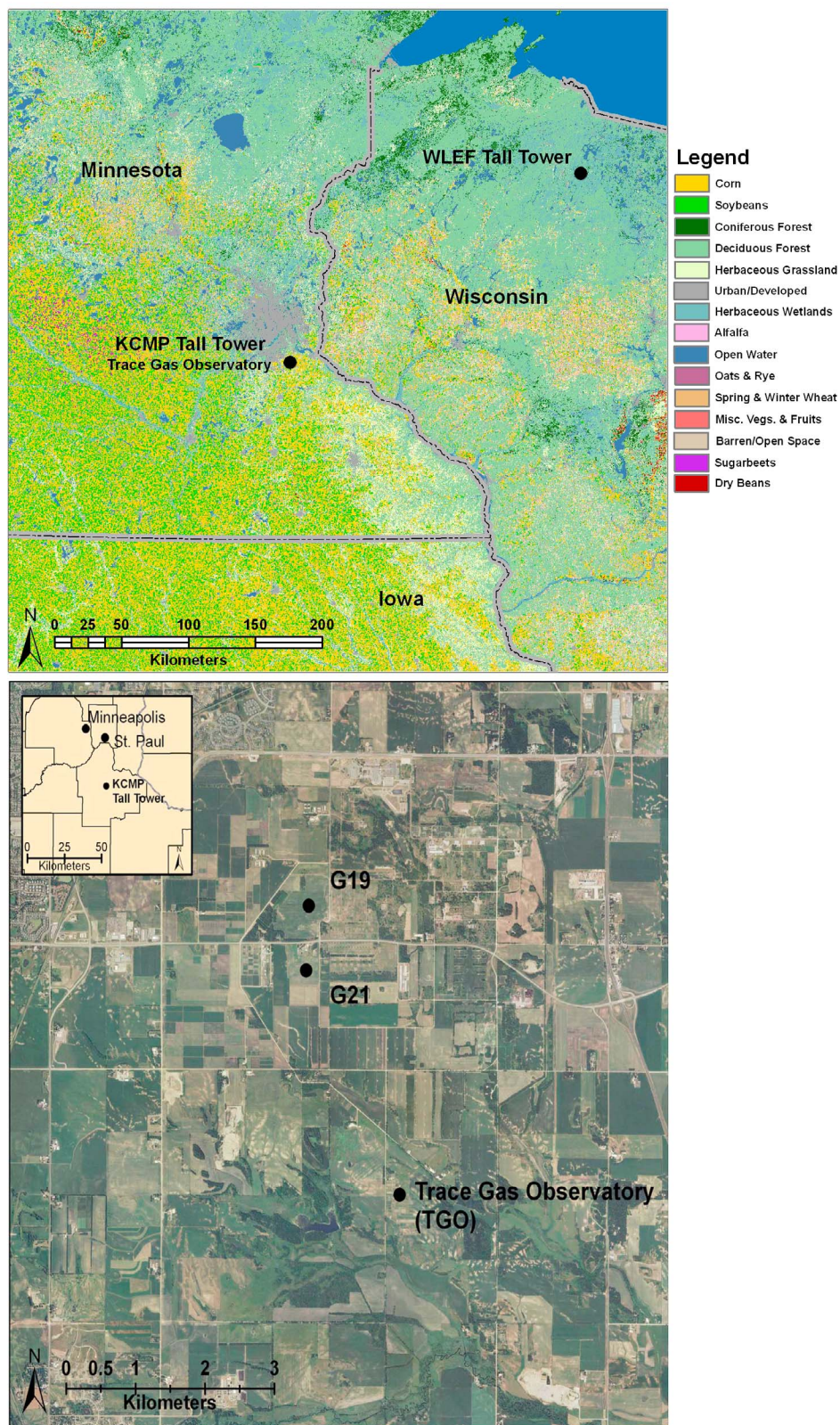


Figure 1. (top) Research site and land use within the vicinity of the tall tower Trace Gas Observatory (TGO) near St. Paul, Minnesota, United States. (bottom) Air photo illustrating the location of TGO in relation to the field-scale AmeriFlux eddy covariance tower sites including G21 and G19 that were used to support the tall tower analyses.

land. Similarity in land use heterogeneity persisted out to approximately 100 km [USDA-NASS, 2007a; Corcoran, 2009]. The 2008 USDA classification revealed similar patterns, but one noticeable difference was significantly less corn ($\approx 24\%$ contribution) at each scale. Based on the hybrid classification scheme, Corcoran [2009] estimated that corn accounted for 41% and 31% of the land use within a 5 km radius of the tall tower in 2007 and 2008, respectively. The land surface heterogeneity is clearly complex, but surprisingly consistent, exhibiting self similarity/scale independence. Flux measurements from the tall tower, should therefore, be representative of the broader region (i.e., 10s of kilometers).

3.3. Carbon Isotope and Micrometeorological Measurements

[20] The carbon isotope molar mixing ratios ¹²CO₂ and ¹³CO₂ were measured *in situ* using TDL spectroscopy (TGA100A, Campbell Scientific, Incorporated, Logan, Utah, United States) [Bowling *et al.*, 2003; Griffis *et al.*, 2005]. The TDL was maintained within an air conditioned communications building located at the base of the tower. This TDL system was evaluated for making continuous carbon isotope EC flux measurements over a short homogeneous soybean canopy [Griffis *et al.*, 2008]. The air profile system consisted of 4 sample inlets installed at ≈ 32 , 56, 100, and 200 m which were used to compute F_S^i and concentration gradients. The top two levels were instrumented with sonic anemometer-thermometers (CSAT3, Campbell Scientific, Incorporated) for EC flux measurements. The eddy flux for each isotopologue was obtained using 60 min block averaging. In addition, water vapor fluxes were measured using an infrared gas analyzer (IRGA, LI7000, Licor, Incorporated, Lincoln Nebraska, United States). In the analyses presented here we have focused our attention on the 100 m EC data and concentration gradients calculated from the 100 m and 32 m inlets. Flux footprint estimates were derived using the parameterized version of the three-dimensional Lagrangian stochastic model LPDM-B of Kljun *et al.* [2002, 2004]. Here X_{\max} is defined as the distance to which the tower measurements are most sensitive. X_{90} is the 90% isopleth, defining the distance from the tower that represents 90% of the source contribution. A detailed discussion of the isotope calibration procedure, data processing, data quality control, EC-TDL precision, and flux footprint analyses are provided in the auxiliary material.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Climate and Phenology

[21] The summer of 2007 can be considered a tale of two seasons. Over the duration of the main study period (DOY 152 to DOY 274) the mean air temperature was 20.7°C (33.8°C maximum and -1.7°C minimum). Cumulative precipitation during this period was ≈ 518 mm. Mean air temperature exceeded the most recent 30 year climate normal (+1.5°C) and precipitation was significantly above normal (140 mm). However, antecedent soil moisture conditions were very dry and June and July 2007 were both warmer and significantly drier than normal (+1.7°C, +1.2°C

and -63 mm and -19 mm, respectively). The U.S. Drought Monitor classified much of the region in the moderate drought category. August and September were significantly wetter than normal (+132 mm and +84mm, respectively). Photosynthetically active radiation and relative humidity were both slightly lower during 2007 compared to 2008. In general, Bowen ratio values were slightly higher in 2007 compared to 2008 (0.51 versus 0.48 for the main study period).

[22] Summer 2008 was slightly cooler and significantly drier compared to 2007 measurement period. Mean, minimum, and maximum air temperatures were 19.7°C, 3.2°C and 32.0°C, respectively. Cumulative precipitation for the growing period was 249 mm, approximately 129 mm below normal. Precipitation in each month was below normal. However, according to the U.S. Drought Monitor much of the region was classified as abnormally dry, but no significant drought occurred because of adequate stored soil water prior to the growing season. Cool spring temperatures in 2008 delayed the onset of leaf emergence relative to 2007.

[23] In 2007 field-scale LAI, measured at the G21 AmeriFlux site (corn phase of the rotation) ranged from 0.3 on DOY 164 to 4.0 on DOY 206. The crop canopy had senesced by DOY 260 and was harvested on DOY 284. Estimates of regional NDVI (derived from clear sky Landsat TM images) ranged from about 0.10 in April 2007 to a maximum of 0.49 in August 2007. Values decreased to 0.39 by 16 September 2007. In 2008 LAI at the field scale ranged from 0.1 (0.2) on DOY 169 to 2.3 (3.0) on DOY 220 at the soybean (corn) sites, respectively. The crop canopies had senesced by about DOY 262 and were harvested on DOY 280 (308), respectively. Regional NDVI ranged from about 0.37 in mid-June 2008 to a maximum of 0.54 in early August 2008. Values decreased to 0.40 by 18 September 2008. Regional NDVI values were relatively high into late September and early October despite crop senescence, indicating that nonagricultural lands, such as grasslands/pasture, are an important feature on the landscape.

4.2. Temporal Variability of F_N , λE , CO₂, and δ_a^{13}

[24] Figure 2 shows the hourly values of F_N , λE , CO₂ mixing ratio, and δ_a^{13} measured over the 2007/2008 study period. Close examination of F_N and λE in 2008 indicate that the growing season length was approximately 155 days with detectable photosynthetic activity occurring from about DOY 130 (9 May) to DOY 285 (11 October). Midsummer maximum uptake of CO₂ was approximately 60 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ and maximum nighttime losses reached 20 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. λE values peaked at about 15 $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. The range of these hourly flux values is characteristic of agricultural crops growing within the footprint of the tall tower (Figure 3). Notice, however, that nonagricultural lands play an important role in the carbon budget as evidenced by the significant uptake of CO₂ during June at TGO compared to the local agricultural sites (Figure 3). The period of detectable photosynthesis for corn and soybean is only about 100 (90) days, so the nonagricultural portions of the landscape lengthen the CO₂ uptake season by approximately 8 weeks. Mean daily F_N indicated similar CO₂ uptake in 2007 compared to 2008 (2.8 vs 3.1 g C m⁻² d⁻¹).

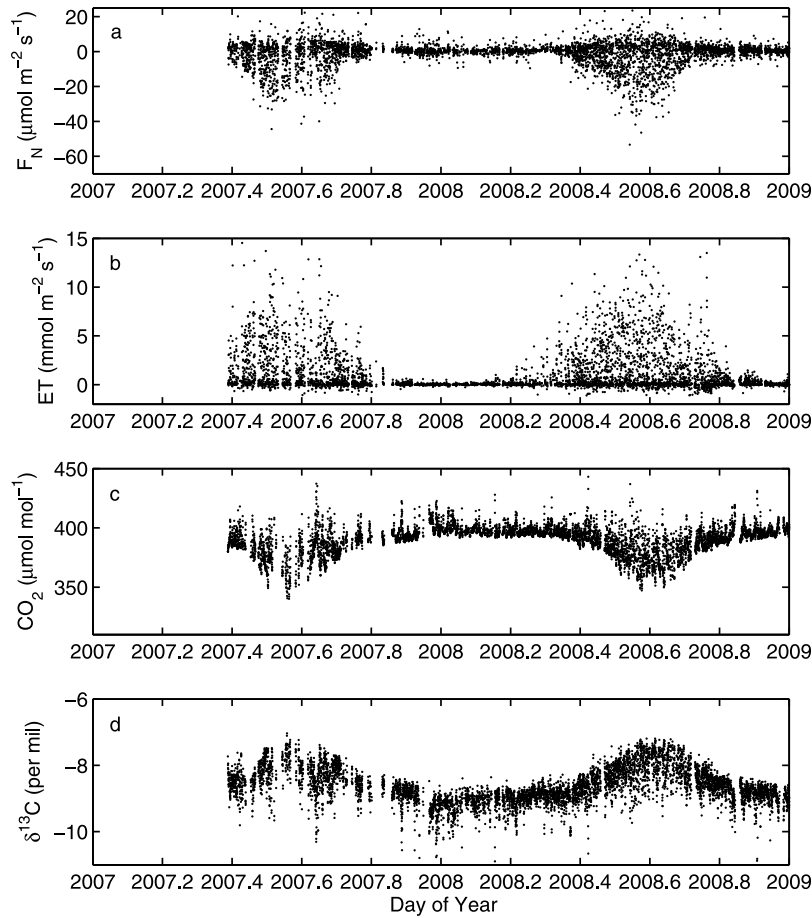


Figure 2. Tall tower time series of (a) net ecosystem CO₂ exchange; (b) evapotranspiration; (c) CO₂ mixing ratio; and (d) carbon isotope composition of CO₂. All values represent hourly averages measured at the 100 m level.

[25] The maximum drawdown in boundary layer CO₂ mixing ratio to about 346 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ occurred on DOY 211 approximately 10 days after the observed maximum in the net uptake of CO₂. Growing season δ_a^{13} values reached a maximum of about -7.2‰ on DOY 201 and corresponded closely with F_N . CO₂ mixing ratios reached a maximum of 443 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ with δ_a^{13} value of -10.7‰ . These values were correlated with northerly flow and associated urban plumes. We applied a harmonic curve fit to the midday (1000 to 1600 LST) CO₂ mixing ratio values (100 m level) in 2008 and determined a seasonal amplitude (one half the peak-to-peak variation) of 9.7 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$. The same analysis was applied to δ_a^{13} and yielded an amplitude of 0.39‰. The seasonal amplitude of CO₂ mixing ratio at TGO is in excellent agreement with other tall tower observations from within the upper Midwest, United States [Miles *et al.*, 2009; Corbin *et al.*, 2010].

[26] Analysis of mixing ratio and isotope ratio data from the WLEF tall tower (located in the Chequamegon National Forest (45.9459°N, 90.2723°W, 472 m ASL) in Wisconsin, approximately 260 km to the northeast of the KCMP TGO tall tower (Figure 1)) and the marine boundary layer, at the same latitude, indicate an amplitude of 7.4 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ and

4.8 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ and 0.39 and 0.30‰, respectively (data source: Globalview-CO₂, 2009, http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/globalview/co2/co2_intro.html). The larger amplitudes observed at TGO can partially be attributed to the lower measurement height (100 m at TGO versus 400 m at WLEF), but are also likely explained by the stronger CO₂ fluxes within this agricultural region [Miles *et al.*, 2009; Corbin *et al.*, 2010].

[27] Diurnal patterns (100 m level) of CO₂ mixing ratio and δ_a^{13} are shown for June, July, August, and September 2008 in Figure 4. These patterns reveal a diurnal amplitude of approximately 8.3, 11.9, 10.4, and 6.3 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ for CO₂ and 0.28, 0.38, 0.37, and 0.22‰, for δ_a^{13} for the respective months and indicate that regional-scale CO₂ fluxes and photosynthetic discrimination peaked during July and August. As discussed in more detail below, the diurnal patterns and amplitude of δ_a^{13} can be related directly to the isotopic forcing.

4.2.1. C₄ Flux Footprint Contribution

[28] In general, growing season midday X_{max} and X_{90} were approximately 600 and 1600 m, respectively (Figure 5). Nighttime (stable conditions) values were 750 and 2000 m. Very similar results have been reported for the tall tower

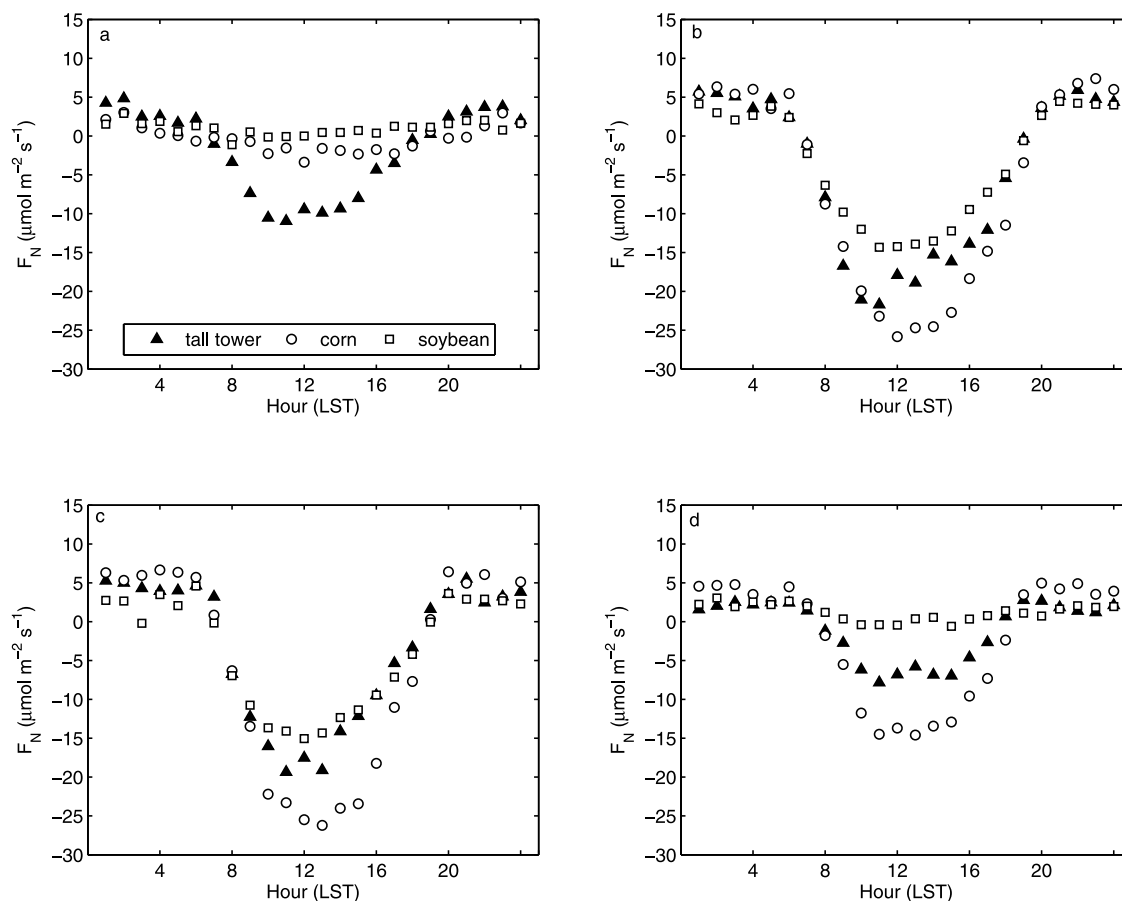


Figure 3. Ensemble diurnal patterns of net ecosystem CO₂ exchange measured during 2008 for (a) June, (b) July, (c) August, and (d) September at the tall tower Trace Gas Observatory and simultaneously at the G19 (corn phase) and G21 (soybean phase) AmeriFlux sites. Approximately 70% of the hourly flux data are presented in each panel (i.e., 30% of the observations are either missing due to instrument failure or were filtered from the analyses based on the quality control criteria).

site in Hungary [Barcza *et al.*, 2009]. Combination of the daytime flux footprint and GIS analyses revealed that 27% of the footprint had a C₄ “origin” during the 2007 and 2008 growing seasons. Surprisingly, the flux footprint analyses between the two growing seasons was less than 1% despite the absolute 10% difference in C₄ land use between the years. This might be an artifact of using a footprint model that does not consider the cross wind contribution or a subtle difference in meteorology between the years (i.e., differences in wind direction or atmospheric stability). Nighttime analyses revealed that 30% of the flux footprint had a C₄ origin. The nighttime stable atmospheric conditions resulted in extended footprints with a slightly stronger C₄ contribution. Therefore, a small land use bias results from differences between daytime and nighttime flux footprints. The differences among June, July, August, and September were insignificant, presumably because of averaging over a relatively long period. Significant differences, however, could be observed for individual days. For example, on DOY 243, 2007 the daytime C₄ contribution was less than 10%.

4.2.2. Flux Ratio Analysis and C₃/C₄ Isotope Partitioning

[29] The isotopic flux ratio analysis, using the EC and flux-gradient methods, is shown in Figure 6 for daytime growing season conditions. Here, the flux ratio analysis was performed with all valid data collected over for the main growing period (June through September or DOY 152 to DOY 274) in order to improve the signal-to-noise ratio and to get a growing season perspective on the relative influence of C₃ versus C₄ vegetation. The data in Figure 6 illustrate excellent agreement between both methods and that the precision of the flux-gradient method is significantly better (<0.2‰) indicating that the EC isotopic flux data have significantly lower signal-to-noise ratio because the fluctuations in the scalars are relatively small at 100 m. Higher precision on the flux-gradient method is a direct result of the very large (70 m) separation distance between inlets. The concentration gradients, therefore, are relatively large, more easily resolved by the TDL, and more reliable for evaluating the differences between months and growing seasons.

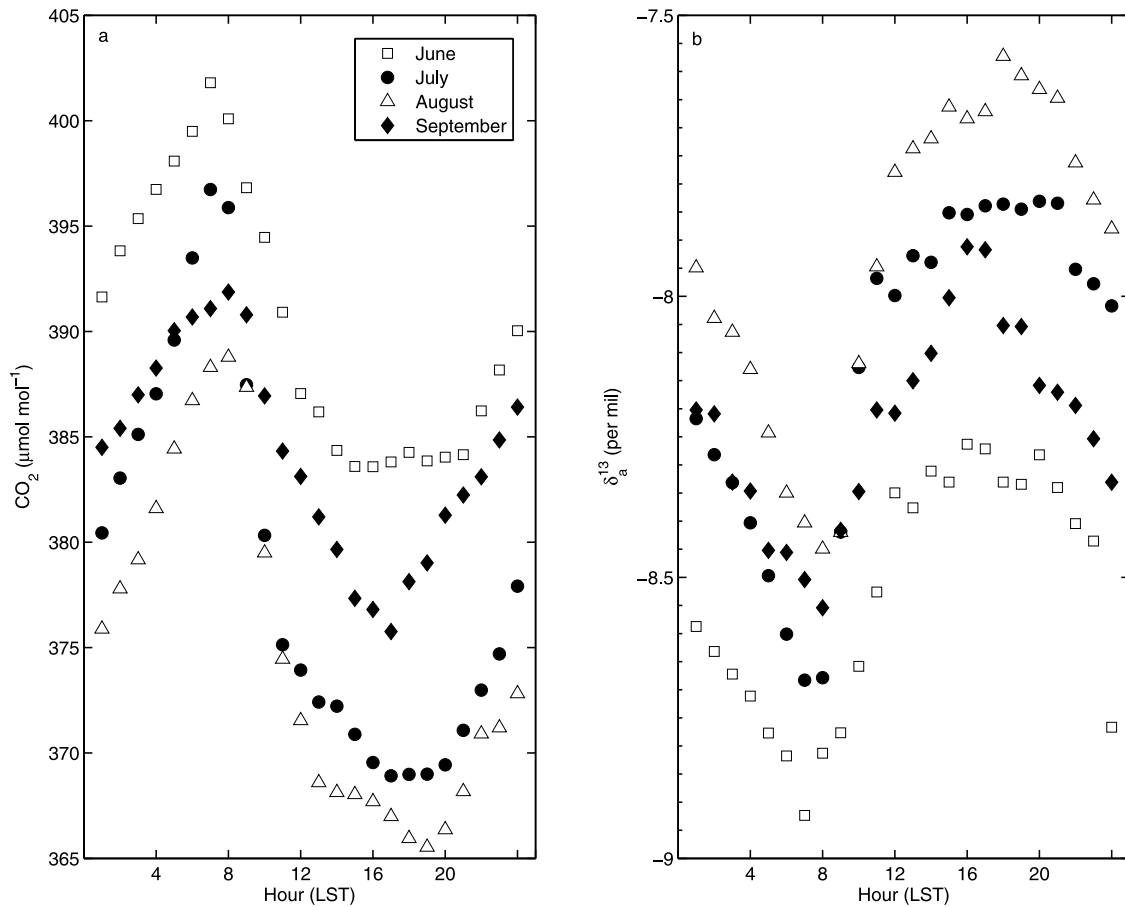


Figure 4. Ensemble diurnal patterns of (a) CO₂ mixing ratio and (b) carbon isotope composition of CO₂. Mean hourly values, measured at the 100 m level of the tall tower Trace Gas Observatory, are shown for June through September 2008. Approximately 75% of the hourly concentration and isotope ratio data are presented in each panel (i.e., 25% of the observations are either missing due to instrument failure or were filtered from the analyses based on the quality control criteria).

[30] We estimated daytime δ_N (isotope composition of F_N) values of $-19.3 \pm 0.18\text{‰}$ and $-22.5 \pm 0.14\text{‰}$ for 2007 and 2008, respectively (Table 1). Nighttime analyses showed that δ_N (i.e., δ_R) was $-20.2 \pm 0.06\text{‰}$ and $-22.1 \pm 0.06\text{‰}$ for 2007 and 2008, respectively. Based on the conservation of mass (using equation (6)), with photosynthesis estimated by subtracting nighttime respiration from daytime F_N , we estimated δ_P (Δ , photosynthetic discrimination) values of -19.8 (11.8‰) and -22.3 (14.3‰) for 2007 and 2008. This same flux ratio analysis was performed using monthly phenological windows for June, July, August and September (Table 1). Daytime Δ values were 14.2, 11.5, 12.1, 12.5‰ in 2007 and 14.7, 12.4, 14.8, and 17.4‰ in 2008. In general, the photosynthetic discrimination appears to be stronger in 2008. Both the USDA and hybrid land use classification indicate a C₄ reduction of up to 10% in 2008. Assuming that variation in photosynthetic discrimination is mainly driven by changes in C₄ land use, a back-of-the-envelope calculation indicates that the flux-weighted discrimination would likely increase by about 2 to 3‰, which supports our tall tower flux ratio observations. However, it is also possible that the drought-like conditions of spring and early summer

of 2007 lowered photosynthetic discrimination across the region due to an increase in stomatal resistance. In general, C₃ photosynthetic discrimination has been shown to decrease with increasing atmospheric vapor pressure deficit [Bowling *et al.*, 2002] and has been shown to increase with increasing precipitation [Pataki *et al.*, 2003; Suits *et al.*, 2005; Diefendorf *et al.*, 2010]. The challenge of resolving the interannual variability in the isotope composition of F_N and its cause has also been recognized by Miller *et al.* [2003].

[31] Based on a two end member mixing model,

$$f_3 = \frac{\delta_P - \delta_4}{\delta_3 - \delta_4} \quad (12)$$

and using the same end members (for reference) as Bakwin *et al.* [1995], $\delta_3 = -26\text{‰}$ and $\delta_4 = -11\text{‰}$, we estimated the relative contribution of C₃ vegetation (f_3) to the total F_P for the entire growing period and June, July, August, and September. This analysis assumes that the variation in Δ is driven predominantly by changes in land use. Further, this mixing model yields a partitioning sensitivity of about 7% for a 1‰ change in photosynthetic discrimination. During

Table 1. Photosynthetic ¹³CO₂ Discrimination and C₃/C₄ Flux Partitioning

	δ_N (‰)	r^2	n	δ_R (‰)	r^2	n	Δ^a (‰)	f_3
<i>Year 2007</i>								
June to Sept	-19.3 ± 0.18	0.9999	470	-20.2 ± 0.06	0.9999	685	11.8 ± 0.30	0.59 ± 0.05
June ^b	-19.5 ± 4.2	0.9992	14	-24.6 ± 0.40	0.9999	13	14.2 ± 2.1	0.75 ± 0.15
July ^b	-19.6 ± 0.61	0.9998	168	-19.4 ± 0.21	0.9999	137	11.5 ± 0.43	0.57 ± 0.06
August	-19.7 ± 0.25	0.9999	228	-20.1 ± 0.08	0.9999	296	12.1 ± 0.30	0.61 ± 0.05
September	-20.5 ± 0.62	0.9997	212	-20.5 ± 0.22	0.9999	356	12.5 ± 0.34	0.63 ± 0.05
Median	-19.6 ± 0.61			-20.2 ± 0.21			12.1 ± 0.34	0.61 ± 0.05
<i>Year 2008</i>								
June to Sept	-22.5 ± 0.14	0.9999	1124	-22.1 ± 0.06	0.9999	1173	14.3 ± 0.38	0.75 ± 0.06
June	-24.9 ± 0.71	0.9994	276	-21.1 ± 0.24	0.9999	264	14.7 ± 0.74	0.78 ± 0.08
July	-20.2 ± 0.54	0.9996	338	-20.7 ± 0.13	0.9999	301	12.4 ± 0.43	0.63 ± 0.06
August	-22.6 ± 0.18	0.9999	284	-23.0 ± 0.10	0.9999	290	14.8 ± 0.29	0.79 ± 0.06
September	-26.0 ± 0.75	0.9995	210	-23.8 ± 0.17	0.9999	305	17.4 ± 0.65	0.96 ± 0.08
Median	-22.6 ± 0.54			-22.1 ± 0.13			14.7 ± 0.43	0.78 ± 0.06

^aFlux-weighted photosynthetic discrimination (Δ) was calculated from mass balance using measurements of daytime and nighttime net ecosystem CO₂ exchange and the daytime and nighttime discrimination values shown above. All δ_N and δ_R values were derived from geometric type II regression analysis of tall tower isotopic gradients weighted by net ecosystem CO₂ exchange measured using the eddy covariance technique (flux ratio approach). Their uncertainty values represent the standard error of the regression parameter. f_3 represents the relative C₃ gross photosynthetic partitioning. The uncertainty in Δ and f_3 was propagated from the individual measurement contributions and is described in the auxiliary material.

^bNote these calculations were derived from gradient measurements using the 100 m and 200 m levels. All other calculations were based on gradients derived using the 100 m and 32 m levels on the tall tower.

the mid-to-late growing period (July to August) C₄ plants (corn and some grassland species) had their maximum influence on the carbon budget and the isotopic composition of the atmosphere. Table 1 illustrates that the late growing season CO₂ flux had a strong C₄ composition, suggesting that 40 to 45% of the gross photosynthetic flux had a C₄ origin. Over the entire growing period the C₄ contribution was $\approx 40\%$ in 2007 and 20% in 2008. Using end members measured directly at our site with $\delta_3 = -26\text{‰}$ and $\delta_4 = -12\text{‰}$ [Griffis *et al.*, 2007], the f_3 partitioning described above decreased by less than 3%.

[32] At WLEF air samples are collected routinely by ESRL-NOAA in flasks for carbon isotope ratio analyses [Bakwin *et al.*, 1998]. Keeling mixing model analyses indicate that Δ (in this case an approximation based on $\delta_a^{13} - \delta_R$) was about 16.8‰ during the midgrowing season. Bakwin *et al.* [1998] noted that the WLEF isotope signal was strongly influenced by agricultural ecosystems (C₄) in the upper Midwest. The regional-scale estimate of C₄ influence based on the WLEF data indicate a contribution of about 10% at peak growth. At TGO, located about 260 km to the southwest of WLEF, Δ varied by 3 to 5‰ over the growing season and δ_N was 2 to 5‰ more enriched in ¹³C relative to at WLEF. Based on observations from the North Carolina tall tower site (35.37°N, 77.39°W, May–October 1992–1994), located about 1700 km southeast of TGO, Bakwin *et al.* [1995] estimated a regional C₄ contribution (mainly corn) in the Southeastern United States of $\approx 23\%$. Finally, Miller *et al.* [2003] reported a δ_N value of -20.2‰ for a tall tower in Utah (39.90°N, 113.72°W, May–October 1993–2001), indicating a similar C₄ contribution as at the Minnesota TGO site.

[33] Lai *et al.* [2003] also used a micrometeorological/isotope approach to determine the relative importance of C₄

species to F_N in a tall grass prairie (Rannells Flint Hills prairie) near Manhattan, Kansas. Their data showed that C₄ species accounted for $\approx 68\%$ of the flux during early spring to nearly 100% by late summer. Further, based on a novel boundary layer budget approach, Lai *et al.* [2006] estimated the regional biosphere-atmosphere discrimination near the same site and found that it ranged from about 6 to 1‰ during the growing season, indicating a late-season transition where CO₂ exchange was dominated by C₄ species. Still *et al.* [2003b] investigated the relative contribution of C₄ species to F_N at a grassland pasture site in Oklahoma over a 2 year period. The C₄ contribution increased from $\approx 38\%$ in spring (April 1999) to nearly 90% in early fall (September 1999). In 2000 the seasonal variation in the relative C₄ flux contribution was significantly less, ranging from 67% in spring (early May) to 77% in midsummer (late July).

[34] The recent modeling study by Scholze *et al.* [2008] accounted for the influence of C₄ crops on the global photosynthetic discrimination averaged over the period 1985 to 1995. Their analyses indicate that inclusion of C₄ crops significantly lowered the global flux-weighted annual Δ value. For a latitudinal band from 15 to 50°N (including the North American Corn Belt), the addition of C₄ cropland lowered Δ by 1.5‰. In the vicinity of the TGO, simulated Δ values ranged from 12 to 16‰ and 16 to 18‰ with and without C₄ crops prescribed. The former range of values are in excellent agreement with our tall tower observations and help substantiate the conclusions of Scholze *et al.* [2008].

[35] Miller *et al.* [2003] provided a broader perspective of ¹³CO₂ discrimination based on the NOAA/CMDL Cooperative Air Sampling Network from tall tower sites throughout North America, Europe, and Asia. Their analyses revealed that there was not a significant latitudinal gradient in pho-

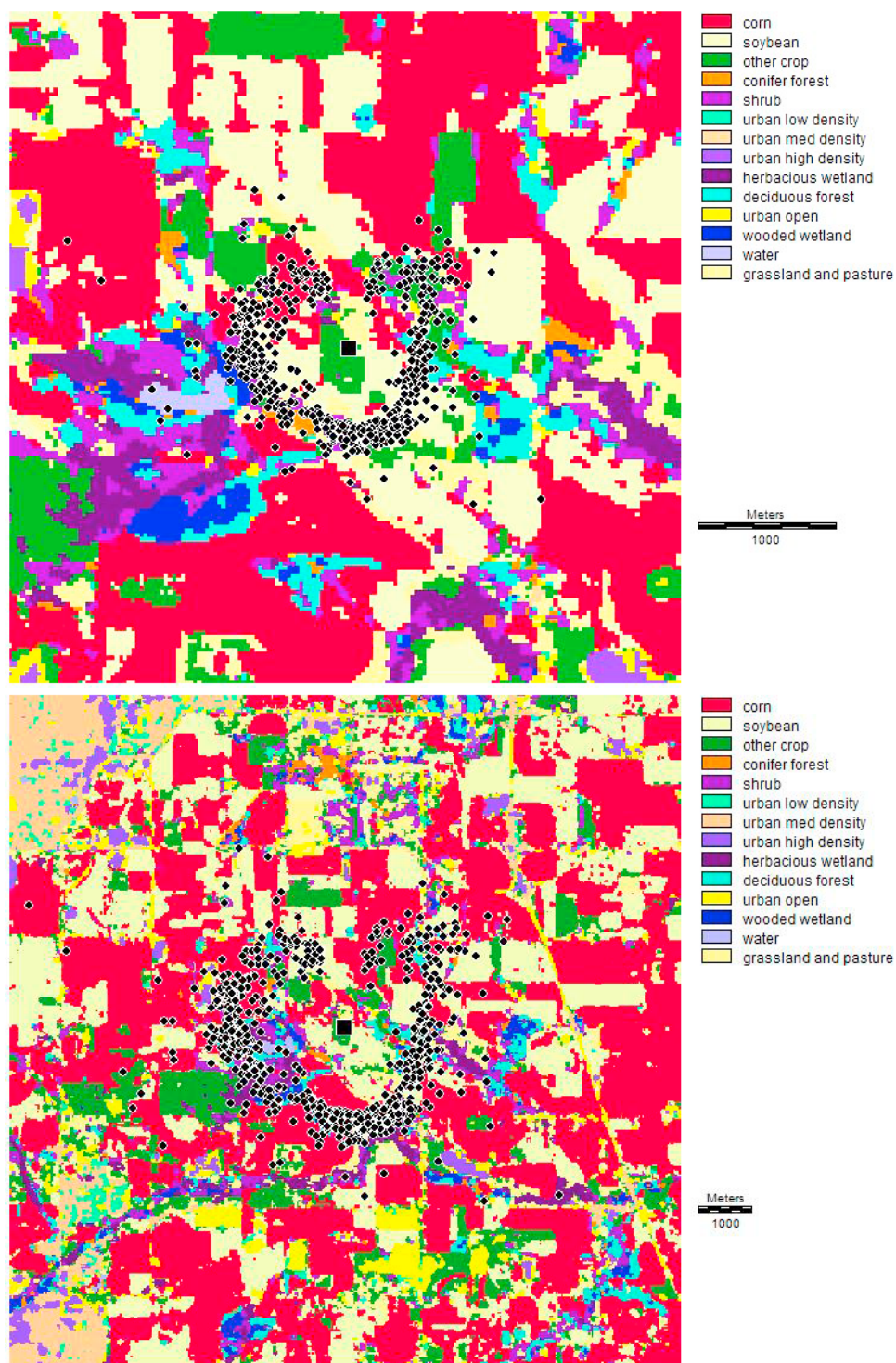


Figure 5. Flux footprint climatology for the tall tower Trace Gas Observatory. Flux footprints were estimated using the parameterized version of the three-dimensional Lagrangian stochastic model LPDM-B. The distance to which the flux is most sensitive (X_{\max}) is plotted in the upper panel on a land use map that was derived using a combination of air photos, ground reference data obtained within a 5 km radius of the tall tower, and Landsat TM images at 30 m resolution. The 90% isopleth is plotted in the lower panel. The flux footprint data shown are for the daytime 2007 growing season.

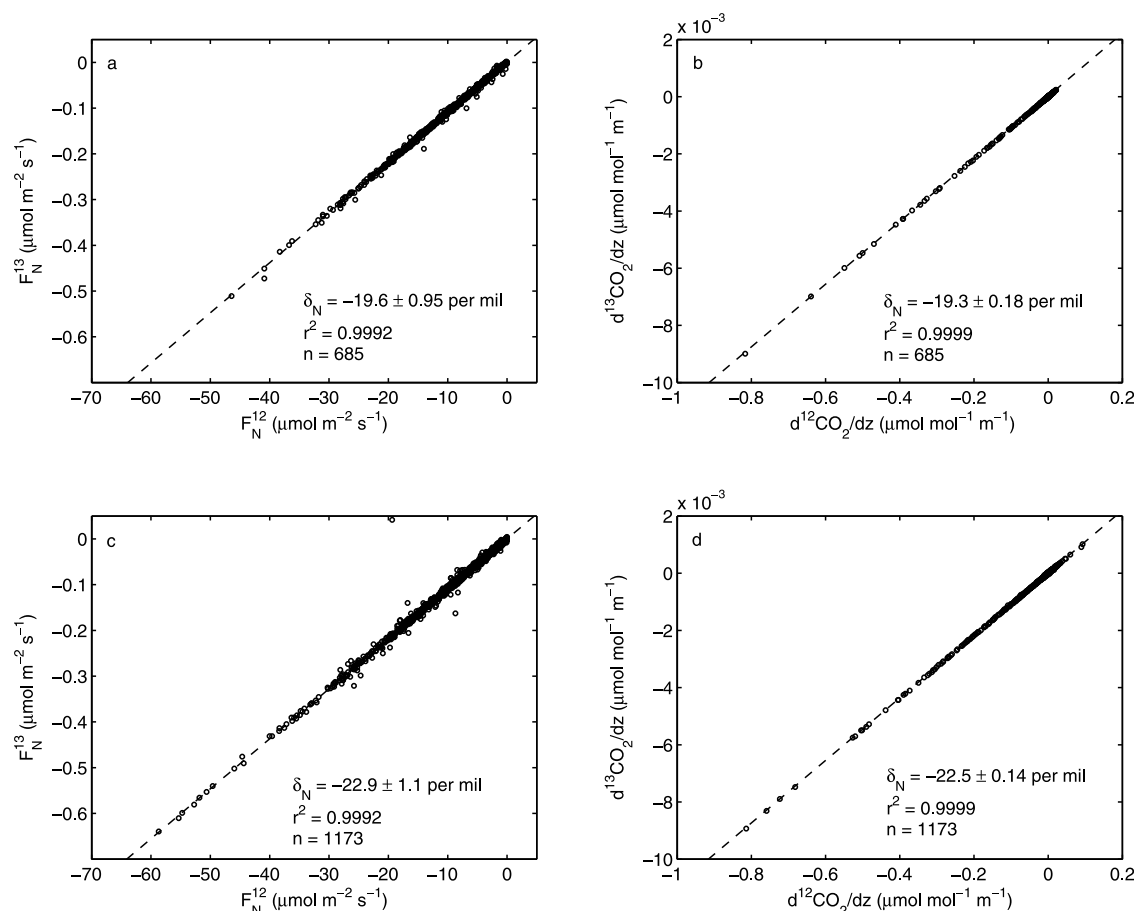


Figure 6. Isotope flux ratio analysis for (a) daytime growing season 2007 based on the eddy covariance approach; (b) daytime growing season 2007 based on the flux-gradient approach; (c) daytime growing season 2008 based on the eddy covariance approach; and (d) daytime growing season 2008 based on the flux-gradient approach. Data points represent hourly isotopic CO₂ eddy covariance flux measurements from the 100 m level at the tall tower Trace Gas Observatory. The gradients (Figures 6b and 6d) were determined as the difference in isotopic mixing ratios between the 100 m and 32 m levels. These gradients were then weighted by the total CO₂ flux for each hour. Dashed lines represent the best fit type II regression analysis.

tosynthetic discrimination as indicated by model simulations [Fung *et al.*, 1997]. However, they concluded that North America had a lower discrimination value compared to Asia and Europe, because of the significant contribution of C₄ vegetation to photosynthesis. We expect that these differences will be exacerbated if C₄ (corn) agricultural production is increased to meet future biofuel demands outlined in the United States Energy Policy Act.

4.2.3. Isotopic Forcing on the Atmosphere

[36] Tall tower EC measurements of the isotopic forcing (I_F) are shown in Figure 7 as ensemble diurnal patterns for June, July, August, and September. The simulated/scaled-up I_F (from equations (6) through (11)) are also presented for the C₃ and C₄ contributions to help verify the above C₃/C₄ partitioning results. The measured I_F from the tall tower indicates that the midday maximum ranged from about 0.012 to 0.018 m/s ‰ in June. The isoforcing observed at the tall tower in June was significantly larger than the

scaled-up estimate from the ecosystem-scale data. In fact, given the phenological stage of the C₄ canopy, with daytime respiration slightly exceeding photosynthesis, resulted in a small negative isoforcing over the entire diurnal period. These observations further support the importance of non-agricultural lands contributing to the regional carbon and atmospheric ¹³CO₂ budget prior to crop maturity. In order to force better agreement between the June tall tower observations and the simulated values, an increase in the field-scale photosynthetic CO₂ flux by nearly threefold was required.

[37] The amplitude of the observed tall tower isoforcing for June was 0.006 m/s ‰. Assuming a typical planetary boundary layer (PBL) depth ranging from about 200 m to 1500 m over the diurnal period, based on the analysis of Holzworth [1964] and using data from the European Center for Medium Range Weather Forecasting, ERA-40, suggests that the amplitude in δ_a^{13} should be about 0.20‰. This

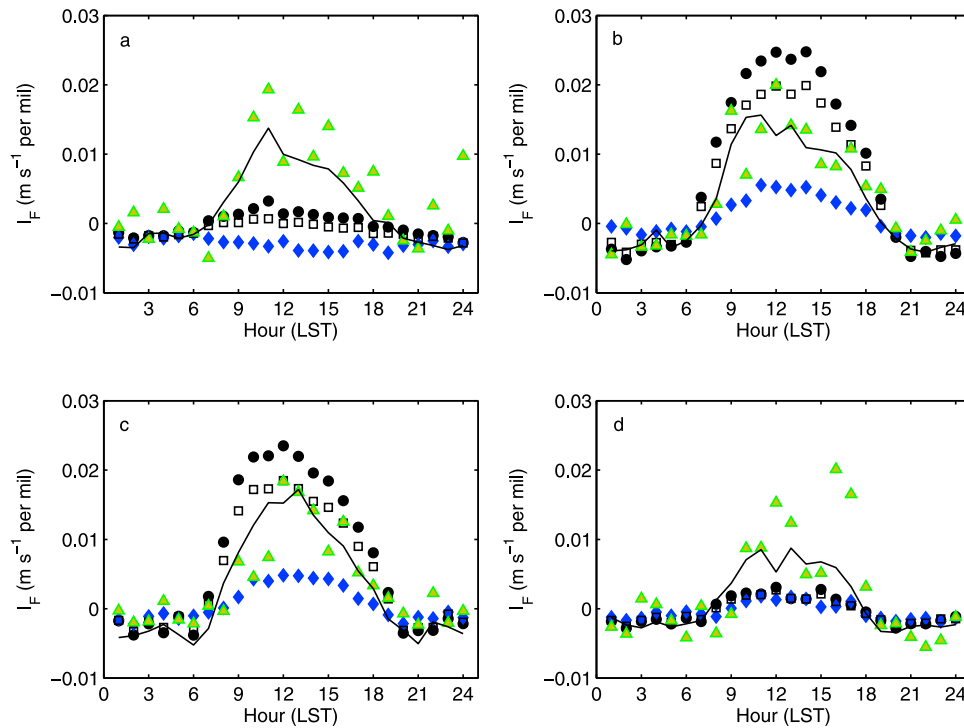


Figure 7. Isotopic forcing analysis for (a) June, (b) July, (c) August, and (d) September 2008. Black circles represent the hourly values of isotopic forcing simulated for a C₃ canopy using field-scale data from the Ameri-Flux site G21. Equations (6) to (11) were used to determine the isoforcing values. A similar analysis is shown for the C₄ (corn) canopy (blue diamonds). These data were obtained from the AmeriFlux site G19. The ecosystem-scale isotopic forcing (squares) represents the scaled-up values of the C₃ and C₄ contributions based on the tall tower flux footprint analysis. The isotopic forcing was also measured directly at the tall tower using the eddy covariance approach (i.e., $w'\delta'$, green triangles) and was also calculated (black line) using the monthly flux ratio (gradient) analysis (Table 1) in combination with equation (7).

agrees reasonably well with the observed δ_a^{13} amplitude for June (0.28‰). Although it is a rough estimate, it provides an independent check on the tall tower isoforcing calculation and measurement. The diurnal variation in δ_a^{13} is not only dependent on the surface flux, but is influenced by boundary layer dynamics and rectification [Chen *et al.*, 2006]. Chen *et al.* [2006] showed that the diurnal and seasonal variation of δ_a^{13} due to rectification was ≈ 0.07 and 0.2‰ above a boreal forest.

[38] Figure 7 also reveals that the observed I_F was greatest during July (0.020 m/s ‰) and August (0.018 m/s ‰). Agreement between tall tower measurements and scaled-up values was relatively good for July and August. Maximum I_F values measured with the EC technique over a soybean canopy within close proximity to the tall tower were typically 0.03 m/s ‰ at midday [Lee *et al.*, 2009]. The amplitude of the tall tower I_F observations at peak growth ranged from 0.007 to 0.009 m/s ‰. Assuming a diurnal range in PBL depth from 200 to 1500 m suggests that the amplitude in δ_a^{13} should be about 0.30‰, which agrees reasonably well with observations (0.37 to 0.38‰ for July and August). The simulated I_F values indicate that the C₄ influence is relatively small primarily because of the small photosynthetic

discrimination. While the analysis above shows a strong C₄ influence on the total CO₂ exchange, the relatively small isoforcing illustrates the dominant role of C₃ photosynthetic discrimination on the atmospheric budget of δ_a^{13} and its seasonal and diurnal variability.

[39] A change in land use and its impact on the atmospheric isotopic budget is difficult to assess directly. It requires the use of coupled land surface and atmospheric models that can account for the feedback between the land surface and PBL [Chen *et al.*, 2006; Barr and Betts, 1997; Betts *et al.*, 2007]. However, if we consider a simple scenario of increasing corn acreage in the upper Midwest from the current distribution of about 30% to 60% (i.e., trading C₃ crop for C₄ crop as indicated in the United States new Energy Policy Act), we expect that the peak growing season (July/August) midday isoforcing would likely decrease from 0.018 m/s ‰ to 0.012 m/s ‰ (33%) and that the flux-weighted regional discrimination would decrease by about 6‰. The amplitude of the diurnal isoforcing would also decrease by 0.004 m/s ‰ and would cause a decrease in the amplitude of δ_a^{13} . Our analyses suggest the change would be subtle (≈ 0.13 ‰), but this would depend on the influence of the changing land surface characteristics and their impact on

PBL depth, entrainment, surface layer humidity, etc. These mechanisms and feedbacks are the subject of ongoing modeling research.

5. Conclusions

[40] Isotopic CO₂ mixing ratios and flux measurements were made from the tall tower Trace Gas Observatory (TGO) located south of St. Paul, Minnesota, in the upper midwestern United States. The data examined here extend from 1 June 2007 to 1 October 2008 and represent the first near-continuous and direct measurements of isotopic CO₂ exchange from a tall tower. In this study we have explored some potential new ways of assessing and tracking the influence of land use change on carbon cycling and their impact on the isotopic composition of the atmosphere. We found that the local and regional land use varied considerably between 2007 and 2008 with significantly more corn (C₄) production in 2007 due to increased demand for bio-fuel. The 2007 growing season was also strongly influenced by dry antecedent soil moisture conditions and experienced moderate drought over much of the growing period. The isotope composition of net ecosystem CO₂ exchange and photosynthetic ¹³CO₂ discrimination was estimated using a combination of eddy covariance and flux-gradient techniques. The photosynthetic discrimination values generally ranged from 11.5 to 14.2‰ in 2007 and 12.4 to 17.4‰ in 2008. These results reveal the potential importance of land use and climate impacts and the effect of C₄ vegetation on ¹³CO₂ discrimination. Isotopic partitioning showed that C₄ species accounted for as much as 45% of the gross photosynthetic flux during peak growth in 2007, but generally accounted for about 20 to 40% of the growing season photosynthetic CO₂ exchange. The isoforcing analysis presented here revealed that C₃ discrimination dominated the atmospheric δ_a¹³ budget, especially during spring and fall. A modeling investigation is ongoing to help better understand the impact of land use versus climate variations on photosynthetic discrimination within this heterogeneous landscape.

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