

Large amplitude spatial and temporal gradients in atmospheric boundary layer CO₂ mole fractions detected with a tower-based network in the U.S. upper Midwest

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[1] This study presents observations of atmospheric boundary layer CO₂ mole fraction from a nine-tower regional network deployed during the North American Carbon Program's Mid-Continent Intensive (MCI) during 2007–2009. The MCI region is largely agricultural, with well-documented carbon exchange available via agricultural inventories. By combining vegetation maps and tower footprints, we show the fractional influence of corn, soy, grass, and forest biomes varies widely across the MCI. Differences in the magnitude of CO₂ flux from each of these biomes lead to large spatial gradients in the monthly averaged CO₂ mole fraction observed in the MCI. In other words, the monthly averaged gradients are tied to regional patterns in net ecosystem exchange (NEE). The daily scale gradients are more weakly connected to regional NEE, instead being governed by local weather and large-scale weather patterns. With this network of tower-based mole fraction measurements, we detect climate-driven interannual changes in crop growth that are confirmed by satellite and inventory methods. These observations show that regional-scale CO₂ mole fraction networks yield large, coherent signals governed largely by regional sources and sinks of CO₂.

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1. Introduction

[2] Interest in quantifying carbon dioxide (CO₂) sources and sinks, both biogenic and anthropogenic, is growing with the increasing interest in monitoring and verifying CO₂ emissions [*Committee on Methods for Estimating Greenhouse Gas Emissions*, 2010]. The continuous tower-based CO₂ mole fraction measurement density is increasing in the United States and Europe, with the goal of using the data in inversion models to diagnose CO₂ fluxes. In North America, 6–8 towers within an area of 10⁷ km² were available to past continental-scale studies [*Peylin et al.*, 2005; *Peters et al.*, 2007; *Schuh et al.*, 2010]. Other studies focused on regional scales, using CO₂ mole fractions measured at one tower in addition to aircraft [*Matross et al.*, 2006] and meteorological [*Tolk et al.*, 2009] data. *Lauvaux et al.* [2009], using data observed during the CarboEurope Regional

Experiment [*Dolman et al.*, 2006], determined regional-scale fluxes using two towers within a 10⁵ km² domain, representing an order of magnitude improvement in tower density. Still, the scarcity and limited time frame of tower-based measurements have hindered the determination of regional-scale fluxes [*Matross et al.*, 2006]. Uncertainties in the flux estimates remain large, but can be reduced by including additional towers [*Butler et al.*, 2010].

[3] The Mid-Continent Intensive (MCI) is the first targeted experimental campaign of the North American Carbon Program (NACP) [*Wofsy and Harriss*, 2002; *Denning*, 2005]. The primary objective of the MCI [*Ogle et al.*, 2006] is to compare regional-scale CO₂ fluxes derived from inventory data and biogeochemical models [*King et al.*, 2007; *Xiao et al.*, 2008; *West et al.*, 2008; *Gurney et al.*, 2009; *Ogle et al.*, 2010] to fluxes inferred from tower-based CO₂ measurements via inversion models [*Tans et al.*, 1990; *Peters et al.*, 2007; *Lauvaux et al.*, 2009; *Schuh et al.*, 2010]. The MCI campaign incorporates tower CO₂ mole fraction measurements at nine sites, USDA National Agricultural Statistics inventory data, ongoing eddy-covariance flux measurements from AmeriFlux towers in the region, other inventory data such as the Vulcan fossil fuel emissions product [*Gurney et al.*, 2009], USDA National Resources Inventory, USDA Forest Inventory and Analysis data, and airborne trace gas measurements [*Martins et al.*, 2009; *Crevoisier et al.*, 2010].

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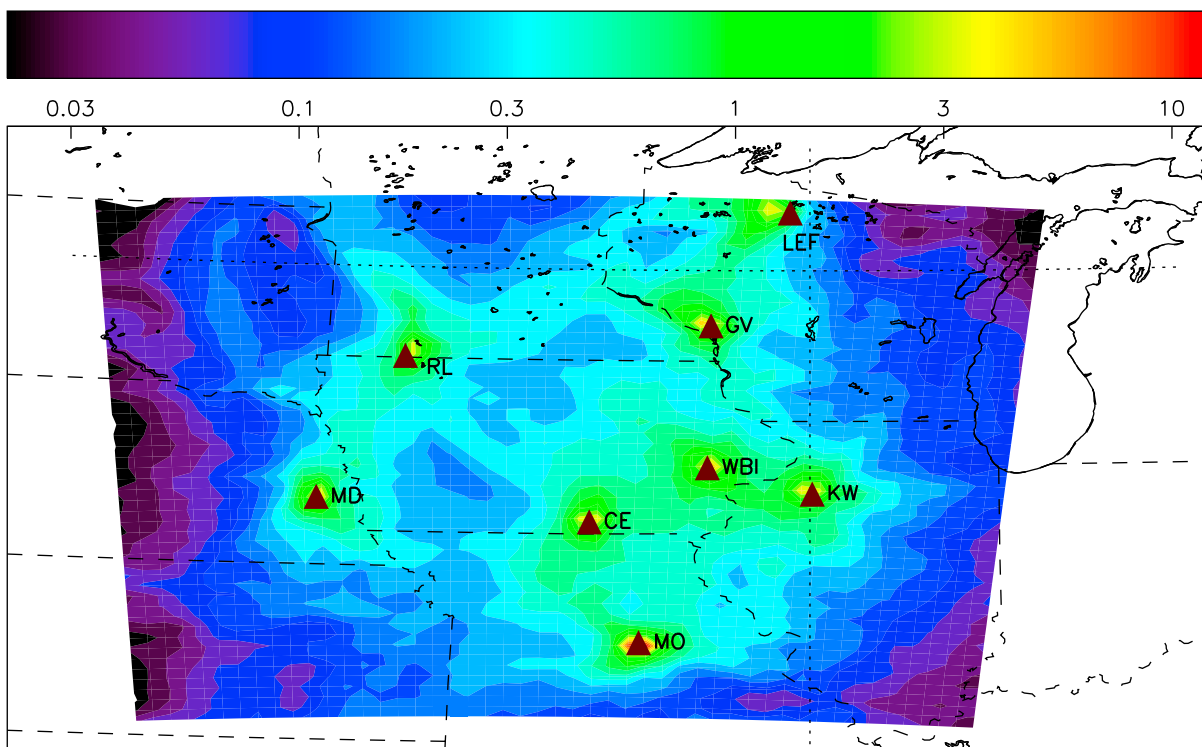


Figure 1. Footprint of the CO₂ mixing ratio tower network plotted on a natural logarithmic scale. The footprints ($\text{ppm/g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$) are normalized such that the total is 100% times the number of towers; the color bar indicates the approximate percentage of the contribution (within the MCI domain) arising from each particular $20 \text{ km} \times 20 \text{ km}$ pixel. The time frame is July–August 2007.

[4] Modeling results for the MCI region show the importance of vegetation type. Simulation of corn and soybean explicitly using crop-specific physiology and phenology results in improved modeled NEE [Lokupitiya *et al.*, 2009] and forward modeled CO₂ mole fractions [Corbin *et al.*, 2010]. While Lauvaux *et al.* [2011] present the regional CO₂ fluxes for June–December 2007 and explore model uncertainties resulting from inverse system assumptions, in this paper we focus on the CO₂ mole fraction measurements.

[5] Understanding of the characteristics (amplitudes, temporal persistence, and attribution to vegetation, weather, and climate) of atmospheric CO₂ is critical to the design of observational networks [Committee on Methods for Estimating Greenhouse Gas Emissions, 2010; Nisbet and Weiss, 2010]. Documenting the characteristics and causes of transient, weather-related regional mole fraction gradients has not, however, been possible to date because of very limited spatial sampling. Seasonal-scale characteristics have been previously reported at single sites [Davis *et al.*, 2003; Haszpra *et al.*, 2008] but not for a regional network. Previous studies of daily scale gradients have largely been limited to temporal analyses at single sites [Hurwitz *et al.*, 2004], modeling [Wang *et al.*, 2007] and aircraft studies [Chan *et al.*, 2004; Gerbig *et al.*, 2003]. While there are numerous satellite remote sensing design studies [Houweling *et al.*, 2010], real data to inform these studies are scarce [Lin *et al.*, 2004].

[6] The purposes of this paper are (1) to document the seasonal cycle of CO₂ mole fraction at several sites in a largely agricultural region; (2) to document the spatial CO₂

mole fraction gradients in the region on seasonal, daily, and interannual time scales; (3) to ascertain the degree to which regional-scale CO₂ mole fraction networks can yield coherent signals governed largely by regional sources and sinks of CO₂; and (4) to determine if signals in the tower-based CO₂ mole fraction data are correlated with both ground-based inventory data and estimates from satellite remote sensing.

2. Methods

2.1. Mid-Continent Intensive Region

[7] The U.S. upper Midwest (Figure 1) was the region selected for the Mid-Continent Intensive (MCI) because of its uncomplicated terrain and because the dominant crop ecosystems are extensively documented. The region is primarily agricultural, with cropland and grassland being the dominant vegetation types, but has forest cover in the southern and especially northern portions of the region (U.S. Geological Survey Land Cover Institute, 2010; see <http://landcover.usgs.gov>). Corn and soybeans are the dominant crops; in Iowa, the area planted with these crops is 52% and 41% of the total agricultural area, respectively [U.S. Department of Agriculture National Agricultural Statistics Service (USDA-NASS), 2010].

2.2. Tower CO₂ Measurements

[8] A total of nine communication tower-based CO₂ sensors were located within a $500 \times 800 \text{ km}^2$ area within the MCI study region from May 2007 through November 2009

Table 1. Site Latitudes, Longitudes, Measurement Dates, and Sampling Level Used

	Centerville	Galesville	Kewanee	Mead	Missouri Ozarks	Round Lake	Rosemount	West Branch	Park Falls
Latitude (deg N)	40.7919	44.0910	41.2762	41.1386	38.7441	43.5263	44.6886	41.725	45.9459
Longitude (deg W)	92.8775	91.3382	89.9724	96.4559	92.2000	95.4137	93.0728	91.353	90.2723
Measurement dates	Apr 2007 to Nov 2009	Jun 2007 to Nov 2009	Apr 2007 to Nov 2009	Apr 2007 to Nov 2009	Sep 2006 to current	May 2007 to Nov 2009	Nov 2007 to current	Jul 2007 to current	1995 to current
Sampling level used (m AGL)	110	122	140	122	30	110	100	99	122

(see Table 1 and Figure 1). The mean distance of each tower to the closest neighboring tower is 188 km (Table 2). The National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA)'s Earth System Research Laboratory (ESRL) maintains measurements of CO₂ mole fractions at two long-term tall towers in the study region (LEF, Park Falls, Wisconsin, and WBI, West Branch, Iowa). These sites are part of the NACP's continental backbone observing network and serve as foci for the MCI experiment. LEF (Park Falls, Wisconsin) and WBI (West Branch, Iowa) are instrumented

with NOAA-ESRL tall tower nondispersive infrared (NDIR) systems [Bakwin *et al.*, 1995; Zhao *et al.*, 1997]. With the goal of oversampling the MCI region, The Pennsylvania State University deployed instruments at five towers: Centerville (Iowa), Galesville (Wisconsin), Kewanee (Illinois), Mead (Nebraska), and Round Lake (Minnesota). These sites were instrumented with wavelength-scanned cavity ring-down spectroscopy (WS-CRDS) systems (Picarro, Inc., Santa Clara, California, model CADS) [Crosson, 2008]. Chen *et al.* [2010] document the accuracy and precision of a

Table 2. Distances Between Site Pairs, Magnitudes of the Median Intersite Differences and Gradients in Daily Daytime CO₂ Mole Fraction^a

	Centerville	Galesville	Kewanee	Mead	Missouri Ozarks	Round Lake	Rosemount	West Branch	Park Falls
<i>Centerville</i>									
Distance (km)		388	250	303	235	369	437	164	611
Median difference (ppm)		0.58	5.13	0.88	1.50	6.04	4.08	5.12	0.15
Median gradient (ppm/100 km)		0.2	2.1	0.3	0.6	1.6	0.9	3.1	0.0
<i>Galesville</i>									
Distance (km)			332	532	600	333	156	263	223
Median difference (ppm)			4.45	0.51	2.84	5.43	0.60	3.96	1.43
Median gradient (ppm/100 km)			1.4	0.1	0.5	1.6	0.4	1.5	0.6
<i>Kewanee</i>									
Distance (km)				543	340	512	459	125	520
Median difference (ppm)				5.37	7.42	0.48	3.04	0.97	6.43
Median gradient (ppm/100 km)				1.0	2.2	0.1	0.7	0.8	1.2
<i>Mead</i>									
Distance (km)					450	279	483	430	730
Median difference (ppm)					0.17	5.14	1.36	4.73	0.11
Median gradient (ppm/100 km)					0.0	1.8	0.3	1.1	0.0
<i>Missouri Ozarks</i>									
Distance (km)						597	669	340	817
Median difference (ppm)						9.02	5.89	8.44	4.13
Median gradient (ppm/100 km)						1.5	0.9	2.5	0.5
<i>Round Lake</i>									
Distance (km)							228	388	487
Median difference (ppm)							4.72	1.22	6.47
Median gradient (ppm/100 km)							2.1	0.3	1.3
<i>Rosemount</i>									
Distance (km)								361	260
Median difference (ppm)								1.84	0.67
Median gradient (ppm/100 km)								0.5	0.3
<i>West Branch</i>									
Distance (km)									477
Median difference (ppm)									6.02
Median gradient (ppm/100 km)									1.3

^aTime period is 2007–2009 growing season (July and August). Sites are classified as either corn dominated (Kewanee, Round Lake, and West Branch), or non-corn dominated.

WS-CRDS (Picarro, Inc.) in laboratory testing and an aircraft deployment. *Richardson et al.* [2012] document the quality assessment of the instruments during the MCI; 8 months of testing against a NOAA-ESRL NDIR system in West Branch, Iowa, yielded median daytime-only differences of -0.13 ± 0.63 ppm. Two additional long-term sites measuring well-calibrated CO₂ mole fraction (University of Minnesota KCMP, Rosemount, Minnesota, and Pennsylvania State University (PSU)/Oak Ridge National Laboratory (ORNL, Missouri Ozarks, Missouri) are located within the region and used in this study. At the University of Minnesota Rosemount tower, CO₂ mole fraction is measured using a tunable diode laser [Griffis *et al.*, 2010]. The Missouri Ozarks CO₂ measurement site is colocated with an ongoing AmeriFlux site [Gu *et al.*, 2008] and employs a well-calibrated system based on a NDIR instrument (Licor, Inc., Lincoln, Nebraska, model LI-820). The system is dried using Nafion (Perma Pure, LLC, Toms River, New Jersey, model MD-070-96P-4) driers, calibrated every 4 h using four real-air standards (with hourly target and daily archive tests as well), temperature and pressure controlled, and automatically leak tested. Residuals from known tank values tested daily at the site are -0.11 ± 0.21 ppm [Stephens *et al.*, 2011].

[9] Although nighttime mole fractions provide useful information about respiration, in this study we focus on only the daytime (12:00–17:00 LST) average CO₂ mole fractions. Although these hours extend into the evening transition as defined by *Davis et al.* [2003], composited diurnal cycles of CO₂ in July are well mixed during these hours [Bakwin *et al.*, 1998, Figure 1]. During the daytime, the CO₂ mole fraction from the levels used in this study (100–140 m AGL for all sites except for Missouri Ozarks, which is 30 m AGL) is a reasonable approximation of the mixed layer value [Bakwin *et al.*, 1998; Chan *et al.*, 2004]. At West Branch during daytime in the peak growing seasons 2007–2009, the median difference between the 99 and 379 m AGL values is 1.0 ± 2.2 ppm and between the 31 and 99 m AGL values is 1.1 ± 1.5 ppm.

[10] To investigate seasonal-scale variability, we used a 31 day running mean to smooth the CO₂ mole fraction daily daytime average data. We required 60% of the days within each window to be good data. To avoid extending the smoothed product over areas with prolonged missing data, we also required that there be good data within 2 days of each smoothed point.

2.3. Tower Mole Fraction Footprints

[11] We simulated the tower mole fraction footprints using the nonhydrostatic mesoscale model WRF-Chem v3.1 [Skamarock *et al.*, 2008] at 10 km resolution. The WRF simulations used are described in more detail in the work of *Lauvaux et al.* [2011], but here we summarize the description of the main schemes, driver data, and resolution. The atmospheric boundary layer scheme used is the Mellor–Yamada–Nakanishi–Niino (MYNN) 2.5 scheme coupled to the Monin–Obukhov (Jancic Eta) scheme for the surface physics. The atmospheric vertical column is described by 60 levels, with 40 levels in the lower 2 km. We used the NOAA land surface model to describe the surface energy balance, and the NCEP Eta/NAM model output at 40 km resolution for the initial conditions and nudged over four

pixels (40 km) to provide boundary conditions around our simulation domain. We simulated the influence functions with the Lagrangian Particle Dispersion Model [Uliasz, 1994]. We used the mean three-dimensional winds, potential temperature, and turbulent kinetic energy as input variables each 30 min to drive the particle motions from the receptor locations to the sources, as described in the work of *Lauvaux et al.* [2008]. We computed the footprints for each observation hour, at each tower location, by counting particles over a 20 km resolution grid. We then averaged the footprints corresponding to daytime hours only (06:00–18:00 LST) at a weekly time step, and summed over July–August 2007 to represent the area of influence at the surface during the growing season. The resulting summer time aggregated footprint represents the contribution of each surface pixel within the MCI domain to the summer drawdown observed in the daily daytime mole fractions. In addition, we quantified the influence of the boundaries (CO₂ mole fraction inflow) by counting particles at the boundaries. The boundary influence is a separate contribution, given by a global-scale model, in this case, CarbonTracker 2009 [Peters *et al.*, 2007]. We thus computed the fractional influence from outside the MCI domain, as well as the distribution of the influence within it.

2.4. Vegetation Map

[12] The vegetation map we used in calculating the biome fractional influence is similar to that described in the work of *Schuh et al.* [2010]. We obtained biomes from the Terra MODIS 12 Landcover 1 km product and mapped them to SiB biome classes, with corrections for C4 grasses. We disaggregated corn, soy, and wheat biomes from the original grassland/agriculture biome using county-level estimates of land use from the USDA National Agriculture Statistics Service. The new grassland/agriculture (C3) category thus includes crops such as alfalfa hay and oats as well as the more predominant pastureland. Tallgrass (C4) prairie and wheat are not predominant in the MCI region, and are included in the “other” category. Forested biomes were combined. The final vegetation map includes the fractional coverage of the four most represented biomes in the MCI region with an additional category for all other biomes (forest, soy, grassland, corn, and other) at 1 km resolution. In section 3.1 this map is combined with 20 km resolution footprints to represent the fractional influence at the towers for each of the five categories.

2.5. NDVI Time Series Crop Phenology Curves

[13] The Normalized Difference Vegetative Index (NDVI) was estimated using 250 m spatial resolution, 8 day composite, collection-5 reflectance data (MOD09Q1) from NASA’s Terra Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) sensor. MODIS reflectance data is corrected for atmospheric gases and aerosols [Vermote *et al.*, 2002], and has high subpixel geolocation accuracy [Wolfe *et al.*, 2002]. MOD09Q1 reflectance data consists of observations that are selected on the basis of quality, view angle, and absence of clouds [Vermote *et al.*, 2011]. MOD09Q1 also includes binary quality control flags that provide information on pixel quality. We used the quality control information to select high-quality, cloud-free data from days

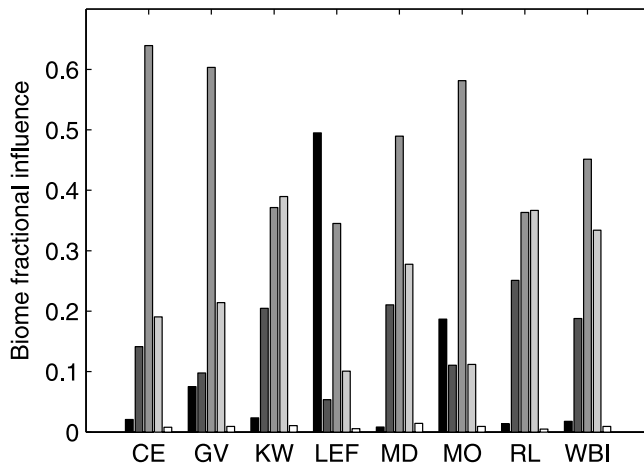


Figure 2. Biome fractional influence, averaged over July–August 2007, for the daytime only (not available for Rosemount). The biomes include, from left to right: forest, soy, grassland, corn, and other.

81–321 for years 2007–2009. The tiled reflectance data was mosaicked and then reprojected from Sinusoidal to Albers Equal-Area Conic Projection using the MODIS Reprojection Tool (MRT) [Dwyer and Schmidt, 2006]. The Cropland Data Layer (CDL), an annual crop-specific land cover data set based on satellite data [Johnson and Mueller, 2010], was used to retrieve reflectance data from MOD09Q1 for corn and soybean crops. NDVI was calculated for each composited day and for each crop, and then combined to generate time series crop phenology curves for years 2007–2009. Positive and negative changes in the slope of the phenology curves represent plant emergence and senescence, while plant maturity occurs at peak NDVI.

3. Results

3.1. Atmospheric- and Inventory-Based Detection of CO₂ Flux Spatial Variability

[14] Before examining the CO₂ mole fraction measured in the MCI, we first consider the spatial areas that contribute to the signal measured at each tower. Mole fraction footprints, when combined with the spatially varying flux, indicate the relative influence of a location at the surface to the mole fraction measured at a tower. July–August 2007 averaged, daytime-only footprints are shown in Figure 1 for the MCI towers. About 39% of the total signal ($\Delta\text{CO}_2/\text{flux}$) originates with a 150 km radius of each tower. Conversely, 28% originates outside of the MCI domain. The signal per unit area decreases quickly with distance from the towers: pixels surrounding each of the towers each contribute 1–3% of the total signal, while pixels on the edge of the domain each contribute two orders of magnitude less per pixel to the total signal (Figure 1).

[15] We now couple the footprints with the vegetation map described in section 2.4 to determine the biome fractional influence (Figure 2), a measure of the fractional time that an air parcel arriving at each tower has spent influenced by each biome. The contribution of each biome varies considerably among the sites. Grassland, which includes alfalfa and oats as

well as the more predominant pastureland, is the biome most influencing Centerville, Galesville, and Mead. Park Falls (LEF) and Missouri Ozarks are influenced primarily by forest and grassland biomes. Although corn influences each site, the contribution is largest at Kewanee, Round Lake, and West Branch. Soybeans, while common in the region, do not dominate the influence of any of the sites. Wheat and tallgrass prairie are not common in the MCI region.

[16] The variability in the predominant vegetation types of the region affects the regional patterns in CO₂ flux because of the variability of carbon uptake per unit area of each vegetation type. Shown in Figure 3 is the weekly averaged daytime (12:00–17:00 LST) net ecosystem exchange (NEE) measured at four corn (Rosemount-G19 in Minnesota; see Griffis *et al.* [2010] and Mead-rain, Mead-irrigated, and Mead-irrigated/rotated in Nebraska; see Verma *et al.* [2005]), two grassland (Brookings and Fermi prairie in Illinois; see Matamala *et al.* 2008]), two forest (LEF in Wisconsin; see Davis *et al.* [2003] and Missouri Ozarks in Missouri; see Gu *et al.* [2008]), and one soy (Fermi agriculture in Illinois; see Matamala *et al.* [2008]) eddy-covariance flux sites in the MCI region. The peak daytime NEE of corn during the growing season is significantly larger than that of each of the other vegetation types. The peak daytime NEE over the year for the corn sites occurs in mid-July, averaging $-51 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ for the four corn sites. The average of the Mead corn sites in 2001/2003 is $-63 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ [Verma *et al.*, 2005]. In 2002, two of the Mead sites were planted with soybean and their peak CO₂ uptake averages $-37 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ [Verma *et al.*, 2005]. In summary, using the peak daytime weekly averaged NEE for site-years shown in Figure 3 in addition to the results in the work of Verma *et al.* [2005], the corn/soy peak NEE ratio varies between 1.4 and 3.2, the corn/grassland peak NEE ratio varies between

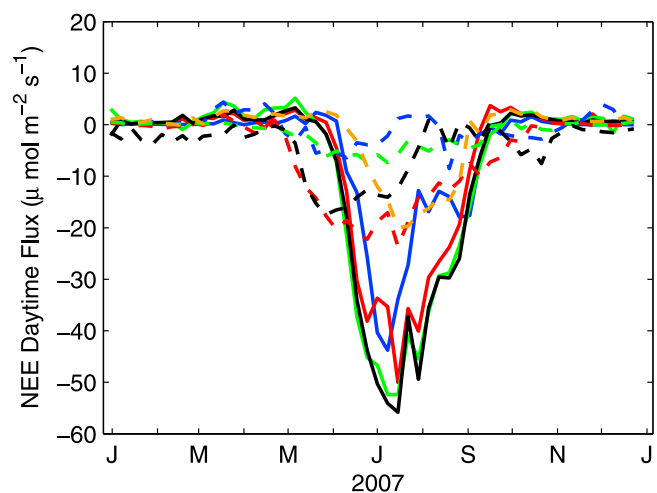


Figure 3. Weekly averaged daytime (12:00–17:00 LST) net ecosystem exchange measured at corn-dominated eddy flux sites Rosemount-G19 (blue solid line), Mead-rain (red solid line), Mead-irrigated (green solid line), and Mead-irrigated/rotated (black solid line); grassland-dominated sites Brookings (blue dotted line) and Fermi-prairie (red dotted line); forested sites LEF (green dotted line) and Missouri Ozarks (black dotted line); and soy site Fermi-agriculture (orange dotted line).

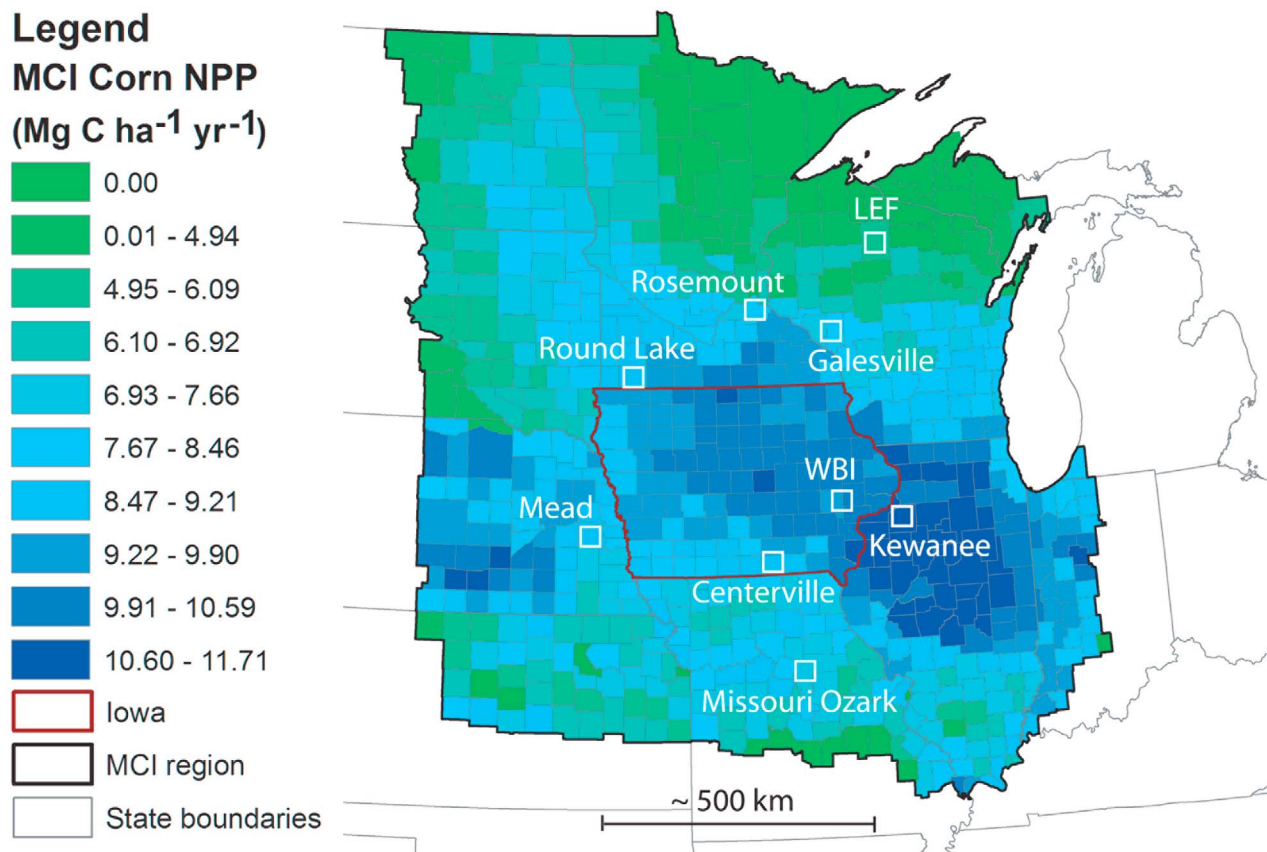


Figure 4. Inventory-based corn flux (corn NPP) in the MCI region for 2007, including corn grain and corn silage. Tower-based CO₂ mixing ratio measurement site locations in the MCI region are shown (open squares). Map resolution is the county geopolitical unit.

2.3 and 7.0, and the corn/forest peak NEE ratio varies between 3.0 and 9.0. The large difference in NEE between corn and noncorn sites when the plants are growing contributes to the important role that corn plays in the carbon budget of this largely agricultural region.

[17] We now consider the net primary production (NPP) for corn in the MCI region, derived from USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service inventory data based on methods described by *West et al.* [2010]. Areas of highest corn flux per unit area are in Nebraska, southern Minnesota, Iowa, and northern and central Illinois (Figure 4). The corn NPP within the MCI region varies from about 5 to 10 Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, nearly doubling carbon uptake when moving from southeast Iowa to northwest Iowa. We describe the three sites with corn fractional influence greater than 0.30 (Kewanee, Round Lake, and West Branch) as “corn dominated” and the remaining six as “non-corn dominated” to reflect the differences in corn fractional influence and corn NPP per unit area. The threshold of 0.30 was chosen to minimize the sum of the standard deviations of the corn fractional influence within the two groups, requiring each group to have at least three members.

[18] From the above results, we have inferred regional patterns in ecosystem NEE. We now determine whether these patterns are apparent in the CO₂ mole fractions measured at the towers, or if, instead, atmospheric mixing equilibrates the gradients. In the smoothed time series of CO₂ mole fraction

(Figure 5), the corn-dominated sites in fact exhibit extremely low growing season minima, in the range of 358–364 ppm. These low values are near those last observed in the globally averaged marine surface annual CO₂ mole fractions 10–13 years prior to the beginning of this study (see <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/cgg/trends>). The growing season minima are correlated with the relative influence of corn, with the corn-dominated minima average 6–8 ppm lower than the non-corn-dominated average (Table 3). Similarly, the seasonal drawdown (the difference between dormant season maxima and growing season minima for each year) also varies within the MCI region. The seasonal drawdown averages 35 ppm for corn-dominated sites (Table 3), which is significantly larger than that measured at non-corn belt sites (27 ppm), and is 5 times larger than the tropospheric “background” as represented by Mauna Loa (7 ppm). Aircraft-measured free tropospheric CO₂ mole fractions at WBI also exhibit a 7 ppm drawdown (see <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/cgg/trends>). The corn-dominated seasonal drawdown is larger than that previously observed at continental boundary layer sites, for example, 26 ppm at Hegyhátsál [*Haszpra et al.*, 2008] and 23 ppm at LEF [*Davis et al.*, 2003]. Although Centerville, Galesville, Mead, and Rosemount have a large influence from crops, the CO₂ seasonal pattern of those sites is more similar to the forested sites LEF and Missouri Ozarks (Figure 5).

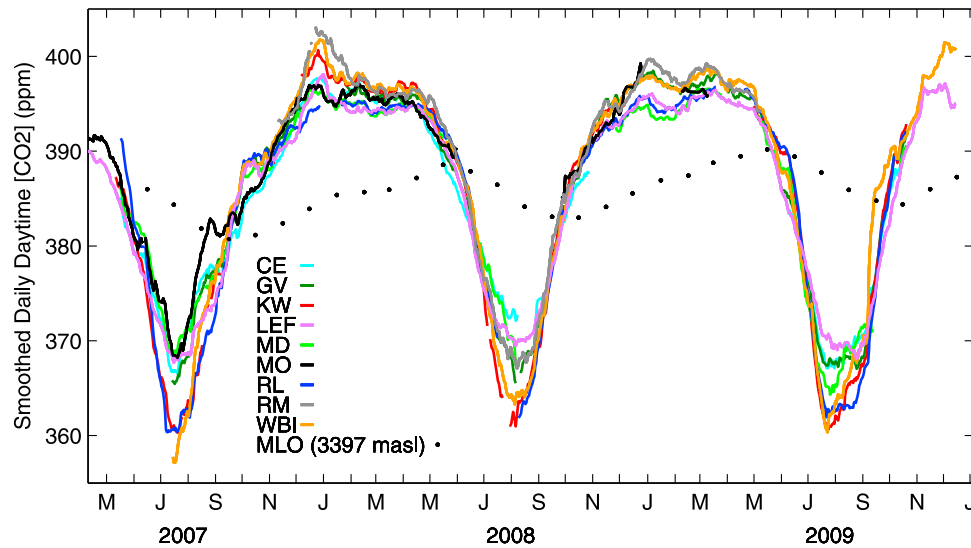


Figure 5. Smoothed CO₂ mole fraction for each site in the MCI region. Data for Mauna Loa (MLO), representing the tropospheric “background,” are shown for reference (data courtesy of NOAA-ESRL; see <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/cgg/trends>). Rosemount data are courtesy of T. Griffis (University of Minnesota).

[19] We now consider the magnitude of the seasonal drawdown expected because of the differing NEE from each biome. As a first-order estimate, the magnitude expected is proportional to the sum of the fractional influence of each biome multiplied by the average biome flux. The average corn, soy, grass, and forest fractional influence for corn-dominated sites is 0.36, 0.21, 0.39, and 0.02, respectively, whereas for non-corn-dominated sites the fractional influence is 0.18, 0.12, 0.53, and 0.16 (Figure 2). Using a range of values for each corn/noncorn biome NEE ratio (Figure 3), the expected ratio between the average seasonal drawdown of the corn-dominated versus the non-corn-dominated sites is 1.29–1.56. The actual ratio is 1.26 (Table 3). Since our estimate excludes the effects of atmospheric mixing, it is not

surprising that the actual ratio is near the lower extreme of the estimate. A more precise analysis is prohibited by lack of knowledge of the exact corn/noncorn flux ratios.

[20] As is apparent in Figure 5, on a seasonal timescale, gradients observed across the region are strongly dependent on local vegetation type. We consider spatial differences and gradients of two different groups of site pairs: similar vegetation site pairs (either both corn dominated or both non-corn dominated), and cross-vegetation site pairs (one corn-dominated site paired with one non-corn-dominated site). Distributions of the differences and gradients for two similar vegetation site pairs and two cross-vegetation site pairs are shown in Figure 6. The magnitude of the median intersite difference for pairs including only similar vegetation types

Table 3. Dormant Season Maxima, Growing Season Minima, and Seasonal Drawdown of the Smoothed CO₂ Mole Fraction for Each Site Compared to Reference Values of 395 and 360 ppm^a

Site	Rank in Terms of Corn Biome Influence	2007			2008			2009		
		Dormant Season Maxima	Growing Season Minima (ppm)	Seasonal Drawdown ^b	Dormant Season Maxima	Growing Season Minima (ppm)	Seasonal Drawdown ^b	Dormant Season Maxima	Growing Season Minima (ppm)	Seasonal Drawdown ^b
Park Falls	9	–	8	25 ^c	–1	10	24	1	9	27
Missouri Ozarks	8	–	8	26 ^c	0	–	–	1	–	–
Centerville	7	–	7	27 ^c	0	13	22	–	7	29 ^c
Galesville	6	–	6	29 ^c	1	7	29	2	7	30
Rosemount	5	–	–	–	1	8	28	–	–	–
Mead	4	–	9	24 ^c	–1	7	27	1	4	32
West Branch	3	–	–2	38 ^c	2	4	33	3	0	38
Round Lake	2	–	1	32 ^c	–1	3	31	1	3	33
Kewanee	1	–	1	34 ^c	1	2	34	–	1	36 ^c
Reference value		–	360	–	395	360	–	395	360	–

^aFor example, the actual dormant season maxima for Park Falls is $395 + (-1) = 394$ ppm. The sites are ordered according to corn biome influence (Figure 2). Although the values are higher in January for 2007, we consistently use April values for the dormant season maxima for comparability.

^bSeasonal drawdown is calculated by subtracting the growing season minima from each year’s dormant season maxima.

^cIn site-years with missing dormant season maxima; the value was estimated by adding (subtracting) the difference between the 2008 and 2009 site-averaged dormant season maximum to (from) the site’s 2008 dormant season maximum.

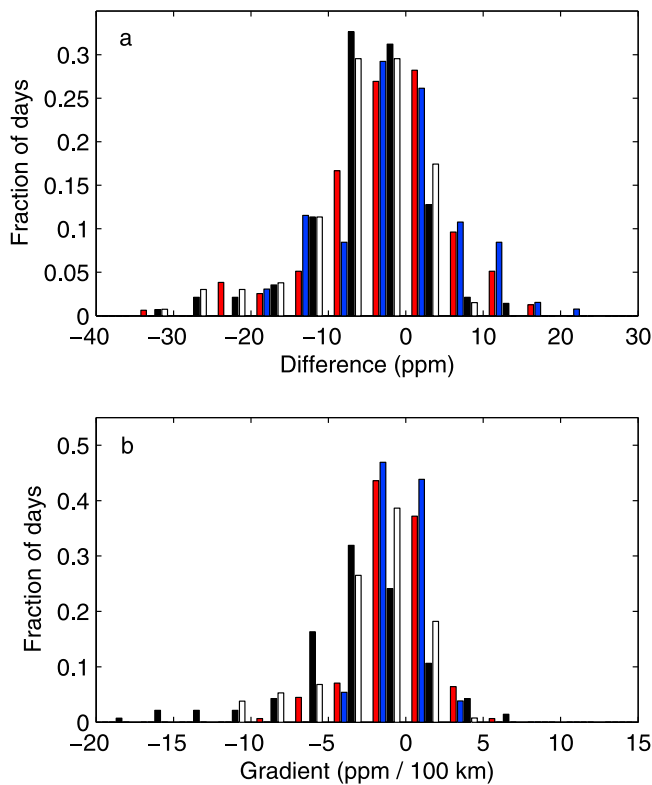


Figure 6. (a) The 2007–2009 averaged peak growing season (July–August) distribution of daily daytime average CO₂ mole fraction differences between Galesville and Centerville (red), Round Lake and Kewanee (blue), West Branch and Centerville (black), and Kewanee and Centerville (white). The bin size is 5 ppm. (b) As in Figure 6a but for gradients rather than differences. The bin size is 2.5 ppm/100 km. For both Figures 6a and 6b, colored bars represent distributions of similar vegetation site pairs, and black and white bars represent distributions of cross-vegetation site pairs.

is 0.9 ppm (see Figure 7a and Table 2) during the peak growing season (July–August), whereas the median of the intersite differences for cross-vegetation pairs is 5.2 ppm, with clear separation between the two groups. The pattern is similar for the gradients (see Figure 7b and Table 2) with the median magnitude of similar vegetation site pairs being 0.3 ppm/100 km, and that of cross-vegetation pairs being 1.5 ppm/100 km. West Branch (corn dominated) and Centerville (non-corn dominated), sites separated by only 164 km, exhibited the largest median intersite peak growing season gradient, 3.1 ppm/100 km, with a median intersite difference magnitude of 5.1 ppm (Table 2).

[21] Although the categorization of corn-dominated and non-corn-dominated groups simplifies the discussion, the relationship holds for the individual sites as well. The biome fractional influence for corn, or the average amount of time air parcels eventually arriving at each tower spent above land planted with corn, is shown as a function of the seasonal drawdown for each site in Figure 8. Sites most influenced by corn have larger seasonal drawdown, with a coefficient of determination (r^2) of 0.59.

[22] Another explanation for the observed differences in seasonal drawdown could be meteorological differences if

corn were preferentially planted in areas with larger than average temperatures (enhancing plant growth and thus CO₂ uptake) or lower winds (thus lower mixing). However, analysis of July–August 2007 NCEP Reanalysis Products air temperature and wind speed (see <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/reanalysis/>) revealed no correlation of average temperature at each site with its seasonal drawdown ($r^2 = 0.01$) and only a slight correlation of the average wind speed ($r^2 = 0.1$).

3.2. Daily Scale Variability of CO₂ Fluxes

[23] In the previous discussion, we focused on the seasonal-scale patterns of CO₂ mole fraction in the MCI region. We now consider the large day-to-day weather-related variability (shown for WBI in Figure 9a). As an example of a corn-dominated and a non-corn-dominated site, we examine the histograms of CO₂ mole fraction for WBI and LEF for July–August 2007 (Figure 9b). While there is considerable overlap between the histograms, the median CO₂ mole fraction for WBI is 365.1 ppm, compared to 371.1 ppm for LEF. The standard deviation of the distribution is larger at WBI (11.7 ppm) compared to LEF (6.3 ppm), and there are several days during the growing seasons of 2007–2009 in which the daytime average CO₂ mole fraction measured at WBI is in the range 340–350 ppm.

[24] Both local weather and the overall weather patterns affect the daily CO₂ mole fraction measured at a tower. As local weather conditions change from one day to the next,

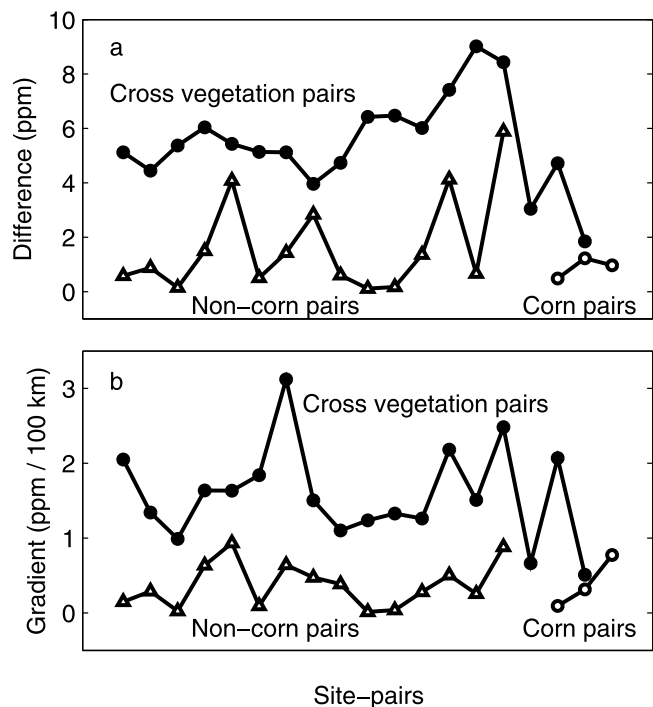


Figure 7. CO₂ mole fraction spatial differences and gradients. (a) Magnitude of the median intersite difference CO₂ mole fraction during the peak growing season (July–August 2007 to 2009) for pairs including only non-corn-dominated sites (triangles), pairs including only corn-dominated sites (open circles), and cross-vegetation pairs (solid circles). (b) Corresponding magnitude of the median intersite gradients.

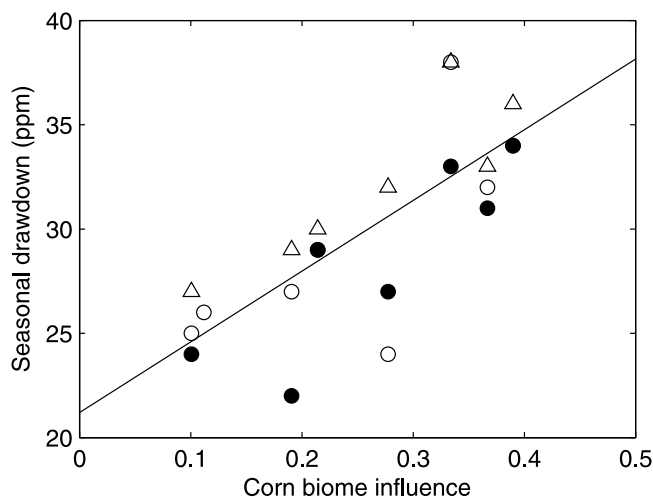


Figure 8. Fractional biome influence attributable to corn (as in Figure 2) as a function of seasonal drawdown (as in Table 3) in 2007 (open circles), 2008 (solid circles), and 2009 (triangles).

the fluxes are scaled accordingly, leading to daily changes in the CO₂ mole fractions. For example, *Chan et al.* [2004] showed that cloud cover in frontal regions reduces photosynthetic uptake, resulting in CO₂ mole fraction gradients across frontal regions. The CO₂ mole fractions of the air masses entering the region are dependent on their source region. A large-scale N–S gradient in near-surface CO₂ mole fractions exists between the largely agricultural MCI region and the relatively unproductive south-central United States (Texas/Louisiana/Oklahoma/Arkansas); the regional pattern of CO₂ mole fraction is thus dependent on large-scale wind direction [*Corbin et al.*, 2010].

[25] During the peak growing season (July–August), 5% of the day-to-day changes at individual sites are greater than 20 ppm and a few are greater than 30 ppm (Figure 10). While the day-to-day changes are large, they depend only weakly on local vegetation type: the mean magnitude is 7.3 ppm for corn-dominated sites, compared to 6.2 ppm for non-corn-dominated sites. Temporal changes and spatial gradients are inherently linked; the range of intersite gradients on a daily timescale is similarly only weakly dependent on local vegetation type. For similar vegetation site pairs, 9% of the gradients are larger than 5.5 ppm/100 km, and for cross-vegetation sites pairs 10% are. The contribution of the local flux to the CO₂ mole fraction spatial variability is thus dependent on timescale. While the daily scale CO₂ mole fraction depends most strongly on regional-scale weather conditions and air mass origin, when these daily values are averaged to a seasonal scale, we see the strong effects of the local flux as we showed in section 3.1.

3.3. Interannual Variability in CO₂ Fluxes

[26] The majority of sites exhibited relatively little change in their growing season minima from year to year. Some sites, however, showed interannual variability related to climate variability (Table 3). Flooding occurred in the mid-western United States during the first half of June 2008 (see <http://www.ncdc.noaa.gov>), although it was not uniform over the region. While Missouri Ozarks, Centerville, and

West Branch recorded cumulative precipitation exceeding 30% above normal over the months of March–September, Round Lake, Rosemount, and Park Falls (LEF) experienced lower than normal precipitation during that time period. Two of the three sites experiencing the most flooding (Centerville and West Branch) exhibited decreased seasonal CO₂ drawdown (by 4–6 ppm) in 2008 as compared to 2007 and 2009. The vegetation of the flood-affected site that did not, Missouri Ozarks, includes a higher percentage of forest, which perhaps mitigated the flooding effects.

[27] Agriculture within the region was considerably affected by the 2008 flooding. Considering corn and soybeans together, the total harvested volume (grain production) of these crops decreased by 7% for the state of Iowa, compared to 2007 and 2009 [USDA-NASS, 2010]. The total estimated NPP of corn, using the method documented in the work of *West et al.* [2010], was 221.57, 207.33, and

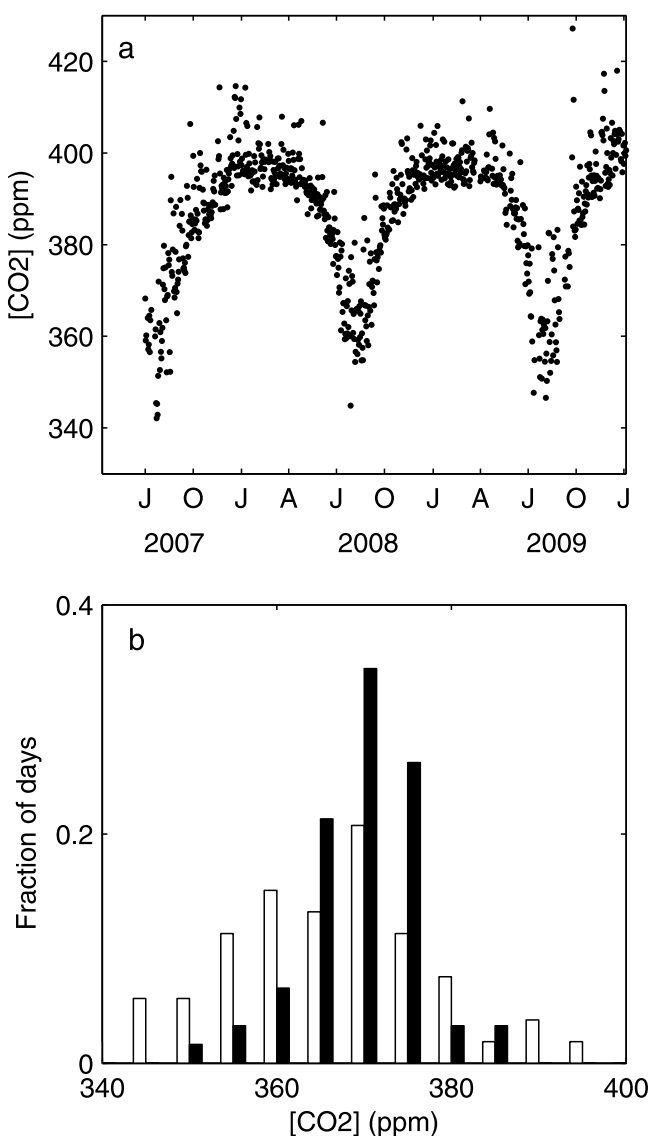


Figure 9. (a) Daily daytime CO₂ mole fraction for WBI. (b) Histogram of CO₂ mole fraction, for July–August 2007 only for WBI (white bars) and LEF (black bars). The bin size is 5 ppm.

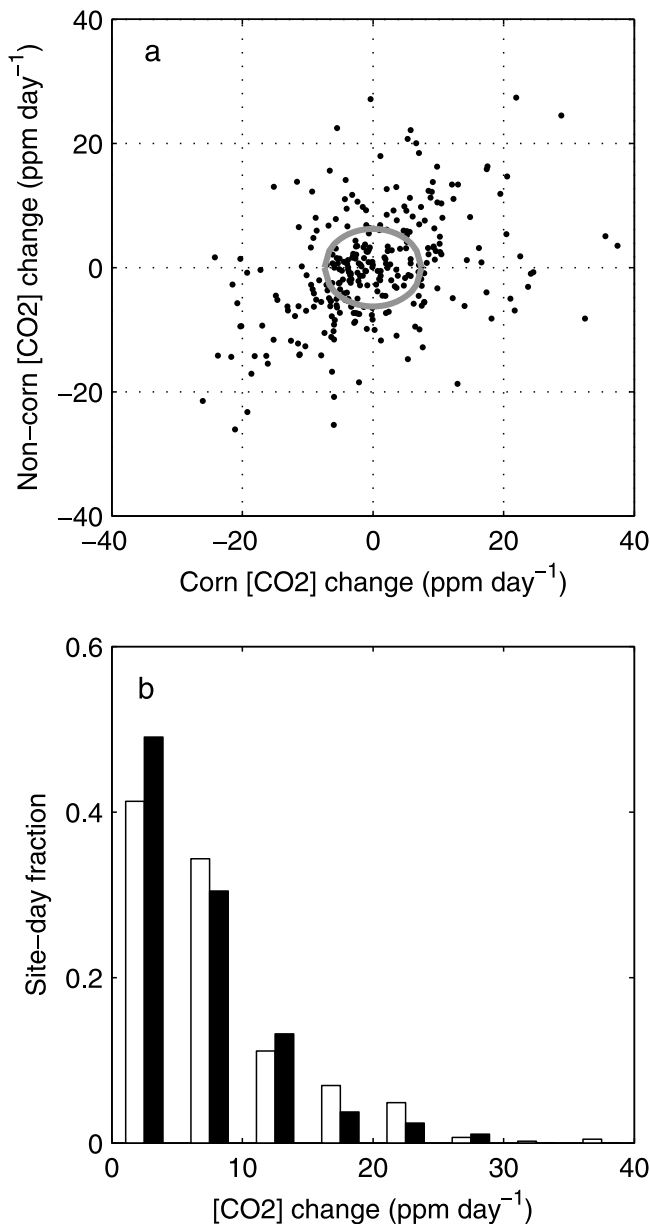


Figure 10. (a) The 2007–2009 peak growing season day-to-day change in daily daytime average CO₂ mole fraction observed at corn-dominated sites (WBI, KW, and RL) versus three of the non-corn-dominated sites (LEF, MO, and CE). Each point represents one day-to-day change for a cross-vegetation pair. The axes of the ellipse indicate the mean magnitude of the day-to-day change for the corn-dominated sites (7.3 ppm) and non-corn-dominated sites (6.2 ppm). (b) Histogram of the magnitude of the day-to-day changes in Figure 10a for corn-dominated sites (white bars) and non-corn-dominated sites (black bars).

222.52 Tg C in 2007, 2008, and 2009, respectively. Agricultural areas surrounding the Centerville site were most affected by the flooding of 2008, with corn harvested volume down by 18% compared to the 2007–2009 average, and soybean harvested volume down by 10% [USDA-NASS, 2010]. Other sites were affected by varying degrees. The total regional flux, of course includes contributions from

natural ecosystems as well; they may be less affected by flooding.

[28] In addition to detecting effects of the 2008 flooding, we also see more subtle climate-based interannual variability, particularly in the timing of the crop growth. The onset of the growing season, as evidenced by the onset of the seasonal drawdown in CO₂, was 2–3 weeks early in 2007, compared to 2008 and 2009 (Figure 11a). Similarly, interannual differences are observed in the normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) time series curves for corn and soybean fields in the State of Iowa. The emergence, maturity, and senescence of both corn and soy were late by 1–2 weeks in 2008 compared to 2007 (Figures 11b and 11c). Except for mid-June to mid-July, the 2009 corn NDVI followed that of 2008; soy NDVI for 2009 was similar to that of 2007 through August and then more similar to 2008. The coefficient of determination (r^2) between corn NDVI and smoothed atmospheric CO₂ mole fraction at Kewanee in 2007, 2008, and 2009 was 0.66, 0.85, and 0.75, respectively.

[29] Agricultural inventory statistics, based on farmer surveys [USDA-NASS, 2010], also indicate considerable interannual variability: corn in Iowa reached maturity about the same time in 2008 and 2009, but 3–4 weeks earlier in 2007. The spring of 2007 was particularly warm for the state

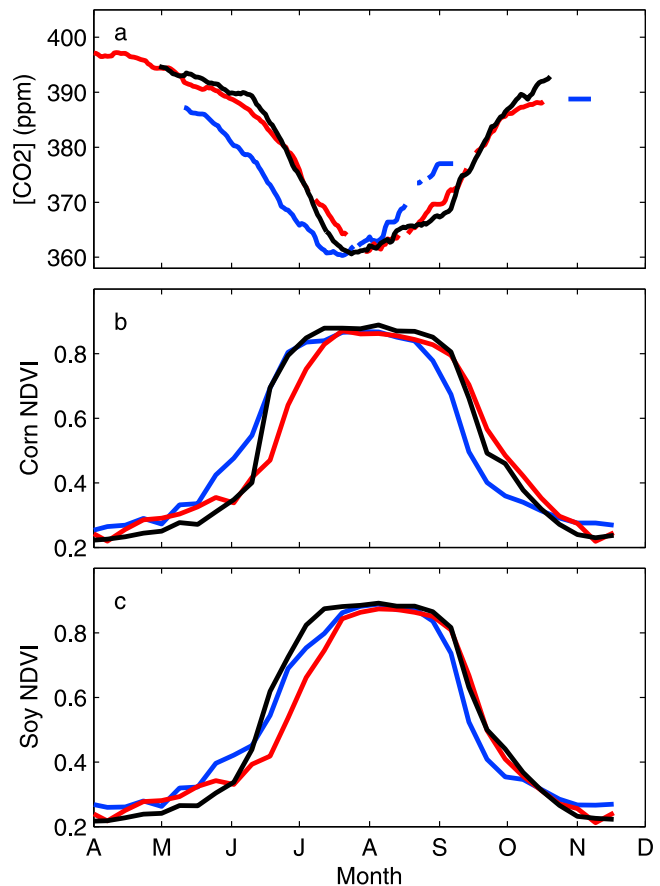


Figure 11. (a) Smoothed daily daytime average CO₂ mole fraction at Kewanee for 2007 (blue), 2008 (red), and 2009 (black). (b) Normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) for corn averaged for the state of Iowa. (c) Same as Figure 11b but for soybeans.

of Iowa (above the 90th percentile for the period 1895–2009), whereas the springs of 2008 and 2009 were slightly below and near normal in temperature, respectively (see <http://www.ncdc.noaa.gov>). The summer of 2007 was near normal, 2008 was slightly below normal, and 2009 was below the 10th percentile in temperature. The warm spring of 2007, the flooding of 2008, and the cool summer of 2009 appear to have contributed to an early growing season with high NPP in 2007, a late growing season with low NPP in 2008, and a late growing season with high NPP in 2009, relative to each other. Thus, with a tower-based network of mole fraction measurements, we detect climate-driven interannual changes in crop growth timing that are confirmed via satellite and inventory methods.

[30] The separation between corn-dominated and non-corn-dominated sites in CO₂ mole fraction minima (Figure 5), while apparent in all three years, is most pronounced in 2007. This phenomenon, while possibly related to climate-induced variability, may also be related to crop management induced changes in the carbon flux. The acreage of corn planted in Iowa in 2007 increased in response to demand for ethanol production; the ratio of the area of corn planted to that of soy in 2007 was 1.61 compared to 1.33 and 1.46 in 2008 and 2009, respectively [USDA-NASS, 2010]. Additionally, Griffis *et al.* [2010] found a 10% increase in the contribution of corn to regional flux in the Rosemount area in 2007 compared to 2008. The increased separation between the CO₂ mole fraction minima could be explained if the footprints of the corn-dominated sites specifically included increased corn influence relative to the non-corn-dominated sites in 2007 compared to 2008 and 2009.

4. Implications for Atmospheric Verification of CO₂ Fluxes

[31] These observations show that, instead of being dominated by white noise, regional-scale CO₂ mole fraction networks obtain large, coherent signals. These signals are linked to both local vegetation and weather, and can be used in designing future observational networks. To put in perspective the magnitude of the spatial gradients observed in the MCI, we compare to ocean-continent values and to inter-hemispheric values, the mean annual spatial gradients that have been the traditional focus of atmospheric inversion studies. The ocean-continent gradient during the continental peak growing season [GLOBALVIEW-CO₂, 2011] based on LEF is about 0.4 ppm/100 km. The annual interhemispheric mean difference for 2007–2009 is about 3.6 ppm [GLOBALVIEW-CO₂, 2011]. The corresponding gradient is 0.036 ppm/100 km. The median gradient measured in the MCI region between cross-vegetation site pairs (1.5 ppm/100 km) is thus a factor of 4 times as large as the ocean-continent gradient and a factor of 40 times as large as the interhemispheric gradient. The atmosphere does not “mix out” these persistent and strong seasonal differences and gradients in the MCI region. It is therefore particularly important for regional, subseasonal inversion models to use accurate transport fields in areas like the MCI.

[32] The seasonal pattern in mole fractions across the region show persistent spatial structure that appears to be strongly dependent upon the dominance of corn, with implications for the footprint size, as well as for network

design. The strong dependence of growing season median gradients on local vegetation type is consistent with the calculated footprint extents. Similarly, recent studies [Lauvaux *et al.*, 2008; Gerbig *et al.*, 2009] have documented the importance of the near field. Using synthetic data, Lauvaux *et al.* [2008] found significant error reduction in only about half of their 300 km × 300 km domain by including two towers. If the influence functions are integrated over the fluxes, the near-field effects can be stronger or weaker, depending on the surrounding vegetation. Gerbig *et al.* [2009], for August 2002 measurements at Harvard Forest, reported that the fluxes in the nearest 20–60 km contribute about half of the total, representing a larger near-field influence than shown in the current study. Centerville and West Branch, towers separated by only 164 km, differed in terms of seasonal-scale CO₂ patterns, with a median intersite peak growing season gradient of 3.1 ppm/100 km. These large gradients corroborate the importance of the near field. The implication of the two distinct groups (corn dominated and non-corn dominated) in the current study for network design is that tower locations should be distributed on the basis of prior ground-based fluxes, rather than homogeneously distributed on the basis of statistical footprints.

[33] Links among observed CO₂ mole fraction, satellite-derived measures of plant growth, and agricultural inventory statistics corroborate the ability of the mole fraction to record crop management- and climate-induced changes in carbon flux. We are able to detect both regional-scale flooding effects and more subtle climate-induced changes in the timing of plant growth.

[34] From a monitoring perspective, it is the spatially and time-dependent regional flux determined from CO₂ mole fraction measurements and inversion models that is necessary to evaluate inventory methods. The uptake of CO₂ of corn and other crops compared to natural ecosystems during the growing season leads to a large-scale minimum of CO₂ mole fraction in the MCI region [Corbin *et al.*, 2010]. The NEE over the course of the year (on the larger, national scale) is almost zero, since crops are harvested, transported, and used for food and livestock feed, and the crop residues decompose during the dormant season [West *et al.*, 2011]. Assessing the ability of inversion models to determine the regional flux is the focus of current research [e.g., Lauvaux *et al.*, 2011].

[35] In summary, these results suggest that a limited number of samples across the corn belt of the U.S. upper Midwest captured the dominant spatial patterns in CO₂ mole fraction. In this region with extensively documented inventory data, spatial and temporal variability in CO₂ fluxes was concurrently recorded in tower, inventory, and satellite data. Similar regional networks, deployed in other parts of the globe, are therefore highly likely to capture strong regional signals characteristic of CO₂ fluxes. Relatively simple, moderate-cost, ground-based networks, combined with mesoscale inverse modeling systems, could be an effective means of providing atmospheric verification of regional CO₂ emissions inventories.

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