



Can a satellite-derived estimate of the fraction of PAR absorbed by chlorophyll (FAPAR_{chl}) improve predictions of light-use efficiency and ecosystem photosynthesis for a boreal aspen forest?

Qingyuan Zhang^{a,b,*}, Elizabeth M. Middleton^b, Hank A. Margolis^c, Guillaume G. Drolet^c, Alan A. Barr^d, T. Andrew Black^e

^a Goddard Earth Sciences & Technology Center, University of Maryland, Baltimore County, Baltimore, Maryland 21228, USA

^b Biospheric Sciences Branch, Code 614.4, NASA/Goddard Space Flight Center, Greenbelt, Maryland 20771, USA

^c Centre d'Étude de la Forêt (CEF), Faculté de Foresterie et de Géomatique, Pavillon Abitibi-Price, Université Laval, Québec City, Québec, Canada G1K 7P4

^d Atmospheric Sciences and Technology Directorate, Meteorological Service of Canada, Saskatoon, Saskatchewan S7N 3H5 Canada

^e Biometeorology and Soil Physics Group, 121-2357 Main Mall, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC, Canada V6T1Z4

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 27 March 2008

Received in revised form 9 January 2009

Accepted 16 January 2009

Keywords:

MODIS

Aspen

Chlorophyll

Ecosystem flux

Gross primary production

Gross ecosystem production

Light use efficiency (LUE)

LUE_{chl}

FAPAR_{chl}

NDVI

LUE_{tower}

ABSTRACT

We used daily MODerate resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) imagery obtained over a five-year period to analyze the seasonal and inter-annual variability of the fraction of absorbed photosynthetically active radiation (FAPAR) and photosynthetic light use efficiency (LUE) for the Southern Old Aspen (SOA) flux tower site located near the southern limit of the boreal forest in Saskatchewan, Canada. To obtain the spectral characteristics of a standardized land area to compare with tower measurements, we scaled up the nominal 500 m MODIS products to a 2.5 km × 2.5 km area (5 × 5 MODIS 500 m grid cells). We then used the scaled-up MODIS products in a coupled canopy-leaf radiative transfer model, PROSAIL-2, to estimate the fraction of absorbed photosynthetically active radiation (APAR) by the part of the canopy dominated by chlorophyll (FAPAR_{chl}) versus that by the whole canopy (FAPAR_{canopy}). Using the additional information provided by flux tower-based measurements of gross ecosystem production (GEP) and incident PAR, we determined 90-minute averages for APAR and LUE (slope of GEP:APAR) for both the physiologically active foliage (APAR_{chl}, LUE_{chl}) and for the entire canopy (APAR_{canopy}, LUE_{canopy}).

The flux tower measurements of GEP were strongly related to the MODIS-derived estimates of APAR_{chl} ($r^2 = 0.78$) but only weakly related to APAR_{canopy} ($r^2 = 0.33$). Gross LUE between 2001 and 2005 for LUE_{chl} was 0.0241 $\mu\text{mol C } \mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ PPF whereas LUE_{canopy} was 36% lower. Time series of the 5-year normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) were used to estimate the average length of the core growing season as days of year 152–259. Inter-annual variability in the core growing season LUE_{chl} ($\mu\text{mol C } \mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ PPF) ranged from 0.0225 in 2003 to 0.0310 in 2004. The five-year time series of LUE_{chl} corresponded well with both the seasonal phase and amplitude of LUE from the tower measurements but this was not the case for LUE_{canopy}. We conclude that LUE_{chl} derived from MODIS observations could provide a more physiologically realistic parameter than the more commonly used LUE_{canopy} as an input to large-scale photosynthesis models.

© 2009 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

1.1. Using light use efficiency to estimate ecosystem photosynthesis

Realistic models of plant canopy photosynthesis are necessary for obtaining accurate estimates of the carbon cycle for use in land surface models (LSMs) and atmospheric general circulation models (GCMs) (Sellers et al., 1996a,b). In vegetative canopies, photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) is absorbed from sunlight by photosynthetic pigments, primarily chlorophyll *a* and its accessory pigments (chlorophyll *b*, carotenoids). When ecosystem photosynthesis is calculated with a process model, it is referred to as Gross Primary Production (GPP). When it is calculated from flux tower data, it is referred to as Gross Ecosystem Production, designated here as GEP_{tower}.

Abbreviations: BERMS, Boreal Ecosystem Research and Monitoring Sites; BOREAS, Boreal Ecosystem–Atmosphere Study; BRDF, bidirectional reflectance distribution function; chl, chlorophyll; EVI, enhanced vegetation index; FAPAR, fraction of absorbed photosynthetically active radiation; FCRN, Fluxnet–Canada Research Network; LSWI, land surface water index; LUE, light use efficiency; MCMC, Markov Chain Monte Carlo; MODIS, MODerate resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer; NDVI, normalized difference vegetation index; SOA, the Southern Old Aspen tower site.

* Corresponding author. Building 33, Room G321, Biospheric Sciences Branch, Code 614.4, NASA/Goddard Space Flight Center, Greenbelt, Maryland 20771, USA. Tel.: +1 301 614 6672.

E-mail address: qyz72@yahoo.com (Q. Zhang).

Plant production efficiency models (PEMs) have been developed to estimate GPP at canopy, landscape, regional and global scales, utilizing optical remote sensing to provide the fraction of absorbed PAR (FAPAR). Examples include GLO-PEM (Prince et al., 1995, 2000; Prince and Goward 1995, 1996), TURC (Ruimy et al., 1994, 1996a,b), 3-PG (Landsberg and Waring 1997; Law et al., 2000) and PSN (Running et al., 1994, 1999a,b, 2000, 2004). This latter model is a satellite-based global photosynthesis product derived from the MODerate resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) on the Terra and Aqua platforms.

All of these models estimate GPP as the product of three terms: (1) the light use efficiency of the canopy (LUE_{canopy}), which is a measure of the PAR conversion efficiency into photosynthetically fixed CO_2 ; (2) the FAPAR of the canopy ($FAPAR_{canopy}$), which is estimated using radiative transfer models and remote sensing data or using empirical relationship between $FAPAR_{canopy}$ and the normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI, Tucker, 1979); and (3) the incident PAR where:

$$GPP = LUE_{canopy} * FAPAR_{canopy} * PAR. \quad (1)$$

Consequently, accurate estimates of FAPAR and LUE for ecosystems are essential for obtaining accurate GPP.

The LUE concept was initially developed for agricultural crops at harvest to determine the conversion efficiency of available light into biomass (g C dry mass) over a full growing season and is typically expressed in units such as g C MJ⁻¹ PAR (Monteith 1972, 1977). This seasonal crop-level LUE represents a direct measure of the average conversion efficiency of all above ground plant material (Gower et al., 1999), which is dominated by foliage for agricultural crops. Eddy covariance flux towers have the capability to provide near-continuous measurements of GEP – denoted as GEP_{tower} , and absorbed PAR – denoted as $APAR_{tower}$ (see Section 3.2.3 for more details, also see Krishnan et al., 2006), for an entire ecosystem for time periods as short as 30 min. Consequently, these instrumented flux towers also provide near-continuous measurements of LUE, denoted as LUE_{tower} over these same time periods as:

$$LUE_{tower} = \frac{GEP_{tower}}{FAPAR_{tower} * PAR_{tower}} = \frac{GEP_{tower}}{APAR_{tower}}. \quad (2)$$

The LUE_{tower} is typically expressed as $\mu mol CO_2 \mu mol^{-1} PAR$ or $\mu mol C \mu mol^{-1} PPF$, where PPF is the photosynthetic photon flux density. For these tower-based calculations, incident PAR is measured directly by radiometers attached to the flux tower and the FAPAR estimate is based both on detailed canopy structural measurements and on the radiometer measurements (Barr et al., 2007). An underlying assumption supporting the LUE retrieval through the MODIS modeling approach is that the LUE_{canopy} used in the models is a good approximation of LUE_{tower} , at least when the measurement footprint of the tower is roughly equivalent to the area of the remote sensing pixel. Apparent ecosystem LUE obtained from flux tower measurements (i.e., LUE_{tower}) directly describes the integrated response of the whole ecosystem to the prevailing environmental conditions, as do remotely acquired spectral snapshots although these latter are limited to specific acquisition times and viewing configurations.

On a canopy or ecosystem scale, GEP and APAR are typically linearly related (e.g., Waring et al., 1995), so that LUE can be determined from the slope of this relationship. This apparent linearity results from multiple scattering within the canopy, which involves 3-D contributions from foliage of multiple species and illumination conditions, as well as non-photosynthetic material (e.g., limbs, trunks, cones, litter). On the other hand, comparable light response curves for individual leaves of selected species yield non-linear responses for which the initial slope of the linear portion of the curve describes the quantum efficiency (Mohr et al., 1995). The quantum efficiency of individual leaves can also serve as an input to carbon cycle models but a means of scaling it to the canopy level is still required.

A common modeling approach is to set a maximum LUE for optimal environmental conditions (i.e., unstressed vegetation) and to simulate ecosystem responses when unfavorable environmental conditions occur (e.g., limitations of temperature, humidity, soil moisture, etc.) through down-regulation of the maximum LUE to achieve an apparent LUE (Medlyn, 1998). This is the approach used for the MODIS GPP product, an output of the PSN model. This GPP product has been compared with measurements made at flux towers by several research groups. For instance, Turner et al. (2003, 2004, 2006) found that the annual MODIS GPP totals calculated using MODIS standard photosynthesis products for a deciduous forest in Massachusetts, USA, matched well with the annual GEP totals from the flux tower. However, the seasonal time course of MODIS GPP dynamics differed significantly from the GEP measured by the flux tower (GEP_{tower}) suggesting that a more physiologically realistic method of estimating GPP could be useful.

1.2. Chlorophyll-based LUE (LUE_{chl})

Even though maximum leaf LUE can be strongly influenced by leaf chlorophyll concentration (e.g., Waring et al., 1995), it is less clear how canopy chlorophyll concentration might influence apparent LUE at the ecosystem scale. Laboratory studies (Yoder and Waring, 1994) have shown that variation in canopy total chlorophyll content of miniature Douglas fir canopies was significantly correlated with their photosynthesis, although the correlation was higher for canopies exposed to full sun. Several other studies have shown a relationship between leaf or canopy nitrogen concentration and light use efficiency at the ecosystem scale (Kergoat et al., 2008; Ollinger et al., 2008), we believe that remote sensing techniques that evaluate chlorophyll rather than nitrogen could have even greater potential for estimating ecosystem light use efficiency and GPP.

From a biochemical perspective, only the PAR absorbed by photosynthetic pigments (designated as $APAR_{chl}$) enables photosynthetic processes, whereas the PAR absorbed by non-photosynthetic components such as boles, branches, stems, and litter is not used for CO_2 fixation. We designate chlorophyll-based FAPAR here as $FAPAR_{chl}$. By definition, $APAR_{canopy}$ (the product of $FAPAR_{canopy}$ and PAR) is greater than $APAR_{chl}$ (the product of $FAPAR_{chl}$ and PAR). For linking to remote sensing applications, estimates of $APAR_{chl}$ should provide more realistic GEP_{tower} and LUE_{tower} values than similar estimates using $APAR_{canopy}$. We define LUE based on $APAR_{chl}$ versus $APAR_{canopy}$ as follows:

$$LUE_{chl} = \frac{GEP_{tower}}{FAPAR_{chl} * PAR} = \frac{GEP_{tower}}{APAR_{chl}}. \quad (3)$$

$$LUE_{canopy} = \frac{GEP_{tower}}{FAPAR_{canopy} * PAR} = \frac{GEP_{tower}}{APAR_{canopy}}. \quad (4)$$

In earlier studies (Zhang et al., 2005, 2006), an approach to estimate $FAPAR_{chl}$ was proposed using daily MODIS data. Since then, we have refined our algorithm to retrieve $FAPAR_{chl}$ from MODIS imagery using the modified PROSPECT-SAIL2 model, PROSAIL-2 (Zhang et al., 2005, 2006). The new version of this algorithm provides a statistical distribution of likely $FAPAR_{chl}$ values for each cloud-free MODIS observation.

In this article, we combine five years of flux, meteorological, and remote sensing data from a boreal aspen flux site to attain the following four objectives: (1) to present a method for estimating $FAPAR_{chl}$ and $FAPAR_{canopy}$ using single-date, scaled-up MODIS observations; (2) to apply the $FAPAR_{chl}$ and $FAPAR_{canopy}$ algorithms to MODIS data acquired for 2001–2005 over this aspen flux site in Saskatchewan; (3) to link our estimates of MODIS $FAPAR_{chl}$ and $FAPAR_{canopy}$ to the tower-based observations of PAR and GEP so as to derive LUE on both a unit chlorophyll area basis (LUE_{chl} , Eq. (3) above)

and for the whole canopy (LUE_{canopy} , Eq. (4) above); and (4) to compare our LUE_{chl} , LUE_{canopy} and tower-based LUE estimates (i.e., LUE_{tower}) to see if the LUE_{chl} could provide a more physiologically realistic input to land surface process models. For this latter objective, we test the hypotheses that: (i) $LUE_{canopy} = LUE_{chl}$; (ii) $LUE_{chl} = LUE_{tower}$; and (iii) $LUE_{canopy} = LUE_{tower}$.

2. Data and site descriptions

2.1. Southern Old Aspen

The Southern Old Aspen forest (SOA) was established in 1919 after a forest fire in Prince Albert National Park at the southern edge of the Canadian boreal forest (Barr et al., 2007). The eddy flux tower site (53.7°N, 106.2°W, 600 m elevation) is located ~50 km northwest of Prince Albert, Saskatchewan. SOA originated as part of the BOREal Ecosystem Atmosphere Study (BOREAS), and has continued operations under the Boreal Ecosystem Research and Monitoring Sites (BERMS) project and the Canadian Carbon Program, formerly the Fluxnet-Canada Research Network (FCRN). The vegetation around the tower site is primarily deciduous forest dominated 90% by aspen (*Populus tremuloides* Michx.) with 10% balsam poplar (*Populus balsamifera* L.) and a dense understory approximately 2 m tall of hazelnut (*Corylus cornuta* Marsh) interspersed with green alder (*Alnus crispa* Porsch). The aspen stand extends for at least 3 km in all directions from the tower. The soil is mainly an orthic grey luvisol with a ~9 cm surface organic layer. The terrain is basically level. Core growing season leaf area index (LAI) under the tower varied from ~3.5 to 5.5. The climate is warm in summer (av. 17.5 °C in July) and cold in winter (av. -19.1 °C in January). Average annual precipitation was 412 mm during 2001–2005, whereas the long-term 1951–1980 average annual precipitation was higher at 484 mm (Griffis et al., 2003). A detailed analysis of the inter-annual variability of climatic factors at this site is presented in Barr et al. (2007).

2.2. GEP data

GEP at SOA was estimated as the sum of Net Ecosystem Production (NEP) and ecosystem respiration. Respiration was modeled from night time and cold season NEP using soil temperature. Details on CO₂ flux measurement methodology and obtaining estimates of GEP including gap filling can be found in Krishnan et al. (2006) and Barr et al. (2007).

2.3. Daily MODIS data

Four MODIS daily products (v004) were used in this study: [1] surface reflectance (MOD09GHK and MYD09GHK); [2] observation viewing and illumination geometry (MODMGAD and MYDMGAD); [3] observation pointer information (MODPTHKM and MYDPTHKM); and [4] reflectance data quality descriptors (MOD09GST and MYD09GST). The MODIS imagery is nominally acquired with 500 m × 500 m spatial resolution at nadir, and >500 m spatial resolution for off-nadir views. The MODIS daily land surface reflectance product provides seven (of 36) spectral bands: red (620–670 nm, band 1), blue (459–479 nm, band 3), green (545–565 nm, band 4), near infrared (NIR₁, 841–875 nm, band 2; NIR₂, 1230–1250 nm, band 5), and short-wave infrared (SWIR₁, 1628–1652 nm, band 6; SWIR₂, 2105–2155 nm, band 7).

The MODIS daily observation viewing geometry product provides viewing and illumination geometry information (view zenith angle, VZA; view azimuth angle; sun zenith angle; and sun azimuth angle) at a nominal 1-km scale. The MODIS daily observation pointer product provides a reference, at a nominal 500 m scale, linking observations that intersect each pixel in the daily surface reflectance product to those given in the daily observation viewing geometry product. The MODIS daily reflectance data quality product provides summary quality information about MODIS daily surface reflectance conditions,

including clouds, cloud shadow, land and water designations, aerosols, fire, snow, ice and bidirectional reflectance distribution function (BRDF) corrections, etc. All the MODIS data products are freely available at USGS Earth Observing System Data Gateway (<http://edcimswww.cr.usgs.gov/pub/imswelcome/>), and are delivered to users in a tile fashion, where each tile covers an area of 10° (latitude) by 10° (longitude). The software developed by the MODIS land team (MODLAND Tile Calculator <http://modland.nascom.nasa.gov/cgi-bin/developer/tilemap.cgi>) was utilized to determine the location of the SOA tower site in the MODIS products, including tile, row and column numbers.

3. Methods

3.1. Spatial integration of MODIS data

A possible source of discrepancy between tower-based photosynthesis and the MODIS standard GPP is the way the MODIS reflectance products are used to calculate $FAPAR_{canopy}$ and the MODIS standard GPP (Justice et al., 1998; Wolfe et al., 1998). This occurs because the areal coverage of the MODIS products used in the GPP calculations are not constant over the growing season and may not match the footprint of the flux tower site. The MODIS observations made at multiple times over a target actually cover somewhat different ground areas due to shifts in the ground track of the satellite, but are gridded into single, fixed grid cells. Footprints for off-nadir observations are increasingly larger and oblong in shape as VZAs increase. For example, areas associated with ground targets for imagery acquired with VZAs greater than 65° are at least nine times larger than those viewed by nadir observations (Wolfe et al., 1998). Consequently, both the standard MODIS $FAPAR_{canopy}$ and GPP products represent somewhat different, though overlapping or adjacent, areas when viewed frequently over time with different geometries.

For the current analysis, we developed a method to scale-up the MODIS land band observations to 2500 m × 2500 m regions. We assumed that the scaled-up satellite 2500 m data and tower flux-based data should follow a similar pattern, although they are not necessarily identical. This is a reasonable assumption since the flux footprint for the site described in the current study extends for at least 3 km in all directions from the flux tower.

We acquired daily MODIS data (tile H11V04) for 2001–2005. An example is given (Fig. 1) for MODIS daily NIR₁ reflectances across the 5 × 5 grid area (where each grid cell is nominally 500 m) for nadir data

0.2112	0.2614	0.271	0.3094	0.2589
0.2916	0.3198	0.3079	0.3292	0.3335
0.3198	0.3294	0.338	0.3382	0.2982
0.3342	0.3318	0.2683	0.2982	0.2738
0.3211	0.2683	0.301	0.2784	0.1331

Fig. 1. Nadir MODIS NIR₁ reflectances ($VZA < 5^\circ$) for the 5 × 5 area (2.5 km × 2.5 km) on DOY 224 in 2001. The central grid cell covers the Southern Old Aspen [SOA] tower site in Canada.

on day of year (DOY) 224 in 2001. The MODIS relative reflectance data quality descriptor indicates that the reflectances were of high quality.

We used 5×5 scaled up MODIS observations to produce similar ground sectors within the 2.5 km×2.5 km block area of the aspen forest (as in Fig. 1). A time series for the 5×5 block was created from MODIS daily data using the following criteria: (i) only observations that fell within the block were selected; (ii) an observation was excluded from consideration if the reflectance quality product indicated any quality problem; (iii) observations were averaged only if their geometries for view and illumination angles differed by less than five degrees; (iv) observations from different swaths were not mixed; and (v) the inclusion of at least 18 of the 25 grid cells were required to produce a scaled-up average observation for use in the subsequent analysis (Table 1).

The NDVI time series (Tucker, 1979, Eq. (5) below) over five years (2001–2005) were used to determine average core growing season length where:

$$NDVI = \frac{\rho_{NIR_1} - \rho_{red}}{\rho_{NIR_1} + \rho_{red}} \quad (5)$$

Other remote sensing indices were explored, e.g. the enhanced vegetation index (EVI; Huete et al., 1994) and the land surface water index (LSWI, Xiao et al., 2005), but NDVI gave more coherent seasonal results (data not shown). Degree 6 polynomials were used to fit average seasonal curves to the five-year data collections for the MODIS NDVI and the mid-day tower GEP, respectively. Derivative analyses were applied to the fitted curves. We used the first, second, and third derivatives to identify transition points in continuous data curves (Vina et al., 2004) to retrieve the DOY in the five-year collections when seasonal changes occurred. We defined the beginning date of the core growing season as the date when the second derivative reached its first local extreme value during the spring green-up period. We defined the end date for the core growing season as that date when either the first or third derivatives attained a local extreme value at the end of summer (DOY>255 at this site), initiating autumn senescence. Based on these analyses, we used NDVI for examining LUE and FAPAR dynamics for the photosynthetically active period, defined as occurring between DOY 152–259. We also defined the earlier and later dates for a second category representing periods of lower physiological activity (DOY between 121 and 151 and DOY between 260 and 287).

3.2. Estimating vegetation canopy characteristics

3.2.1. Description of the PROSAIL-2 model

The canopy-leaf-stem-background coupled radiative transfer model, PROSAIL-2, is an updated version of the model used in earlier studies (Zhang et al., 2005, 2006). PROSAIL-2 resulted from the combination of the PROSPECT model used to describe leaf character-

Table 1
Days of useable daily 5×5 MODIS observations over the Southern Old Aspen site (SOA) during 2001–2005 (n=76)

Year	Day of year (DOY)
2001 n=22	144, 153, 155, 185, 189, 190, 215, 216, 218, 222, 224, 228, 233, 236, 245, 247, 249, 258, 261, 265, 272, 278
2002 n=16	156, 174, 177, 179, 188, 190, 193, 197, 216, 232, 235, 236, 239, 241, 261, 268
2003 n=12	139, 145, 148, 155, 166, 168, 197, 214, 226, 230, 237, 246
2004 n=9	182, 199, 206, 207, 208, 212, 217, 226, 247
2005 n=17	121, 122, 123, 128, 132, 150, 160, 173, 196, 219, 233, 244, 245, 247, 249, 285, 287

Table 2
A list of variables in the PROSAIL-2 model and the search ranges used for inversion

	Variable	Description	Unit	Search range
Biophysical/ biochemical variables	PAI	Plant area index, i.e., leaf+stem area index	m ² /m ²	1–7.5
	SFRAC	Stem fraction		0–1
	CF	Cover fraction: area of land covered by vegetation/total area of land		0.5–1
	C _{ab}	Leaf photosynthetic pigments including chlorophyll a+b and carotenoids	µg/cm ²	0–150
	N	Leaf structure variable: measure of the internal structure of the leaf		1.0–4.5
	C _w	Leaf equivalent water thickness	cm	0.001–0.15
	C _m	Leaf dry matter content	g/cm ²	0.001–0.04
	C _{brown}	Leaf brown pigment content		0.00001–8
	LFINC	Mean leaf inclination angle	°	10–89
	STINC	Mean stem inclination angle	°	10–89
	LFHOT	Leaf BRDF variable: length of leaf/height of vegetation canopy		0–0.9
	STHOT	Stem BRDF variable: length of stem/height of vegetation canopy		0–0.9
	STEM _A	Stem reflectance variable		0.0–1.0
	BACK _A	Background reflectance variable		0.0–1.0

istics in the canopy model, and the radiative transfer model, SAIL2. In the current version of SAIL2, we revised the expression for background and stem characteristics. Eqs. 5 and 6 in Zhang et al. (2006) were used to simulate soil and stem reflectance. In the present study, we used *in situ* measurements from the Oak Ridge National Laboratory website: (http://www.daac.ornl.gov/BOREAS/boreas_home_page.html) to provide the “search ranges” for background (referred to as “back”) and stem spectral reflectance (referred to as “stem”).

$$\rho_{back}(\lambda) = \rho_{back,min}(\lambda) + BACK_A(\rho_{back,max}(\lambda) - \rho_{back,min}(\lambda)) \quad (6)$$

$$\rho_{stem}(\lambda) = \rho_{stem,min}(\lambda) + STEM_A(\rho_{stem,max}(\lambda) - \rho_{stem,min}(\lambda)), \quad (7)$$

where λ is the spectral wavelength, ρ is reflectance, BACK_A and STEM_A are variables describing reflectance values for background and stem. We used the maximum and minimum reflectance values of background and stem as their upper and lower value limits. The fourteen free variables used in the PROSAIL-2 for this study are summarized in Table 2. Five variables were used to describe leaf characteristics: a leaf internal structure variable (N), leaf total photosynthetic pigment content (C_{ab}), leaf dry matter content (C_m), leaf water thickness (C_w), and leaf brown pigment content (C_{brown}). The top of canopy reflectance was composed of leaf, stem and background contributions. Stem fraction (SFRAC) and cover fraction (CF) were used to decompose leaf, stem and background components. Refer to Zhang et al. (2005, 2006) for more details on PROSAIL-2.

3.2.2. Description of the FAPAR_{chl} and FAPAR_{canopy} algorithm

The variables in Table 2 have to be estimated to calculate FAPAR_{chl} and FAPAR_{canopy} using PROSAIL-2. The Metropolis algorithm, a Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) method, was adopted to find solutions expressed as posterior distributions of the variables. The posterior distributions of the variables are the product of their prior distributions and the likelihood calculated with a Bayesian analysis (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Posterior_probability). The prior distributions of the input variables were assumed to be uniform ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Uniform_distribution_\(continuous\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Uniform_distribution_(continuous))). Each MODIS reflectance observation [ρ_{obs}] for the seven land bands (red, NIR₁, blue, green, NIR₂, SWIR₁ and SWIR₂), and associated VZA [θ_v, in degrees], relative view azimuth angle [φ, in degrees], and solar zenith angle [θ_s, in degrees] contains some noise, although small differences in angles

may be ignored. We treat each SOA reflectance observation as a sample of the following distribution:

$$\rho \sim \{\rho_{\text{obs}}(\lambda, \theta_v(1 + 3N(0, 1)), \theta_s(1 + 3N(0, 1)), \phi(1 + 3N(0, 1)))\} \cdot (1 + 0.05N(0, 1)) \quad (8)$$

where $N(0,1)$ is the normal distribution with a mean of zero and SD=1.

We may use as many samples from the distribution (from Eq. (8)) as we desire. For five of the spectral bands (red, green, NIR₁, NIR₂ and SWIR₁), we calculated the log-likelihood [using Eqs. 1 and 2 from Zhang et al., 2005] and then performed an acceptance test [using Eq. 3 from Zhang et al., 2005]. A new randomly generated “proposed” value was accepted only if it passed acceptance tests conducted on all five bands. The same adaptive algorithm [using Eq. 4 from Zhang et al., 2005] was used to accelerate the speed of convergence of the MCMC algorithm. With the posterior distributions of the variables (Table 2) now calculated, we forward-simulated the fractions of APAR for canopy, leaf, and photosynthetic pigments (Zhang et al., 2005, 2006) for each MODIS 5×5 scaled-up observation that met our quality rules during the five-year period, using the PROSAIL-2 model. The product of LAI, CF, and leaf photosynthetic pigment ($\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$) describes the average photosynthetic pigment content for each 5×5 MODIS aspen forest observation. Similarly, the product of LAI, CF and leaf water content (cm) describes the average water content of vegetation and, the product of LAI, CF and leaf dry matter (g/cm^2) provides the average dry matter content of vegetation in each MODIS observation.

3.2.3. Calculation of APAR_{chl} , $\text{APAR}_{\text{canopy}}$, LUE_{chl} , $\text{LUE}_{\text{canopy}}$ and $\text{LUE}_{\text{tower}}$

The PAR absorbed by the whole SOA canopy ($\text{APAR}_{\text{canopy}}$) was determined as the product of PAR and the median value of the MODIS-derived $\text{FAPAR}_{\text{canopy}}$ distribution (see section above). Likewise, APAR_{chl} for only the photosynthetic pigments of the foliage component was determined as the product of PAR and the median value of the MODIS-derived $\text{FAPAR}_{\text{chl}}$ distribution. For these calculations, we used the GEP and average incident canopy photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD) measured with Li-190SA PAR sensors (Licor Inc., Lincoln, NE) over the SOA tower site at 90-minute intervals centered on the satellite overpass time. LUE for the foliage component of the forest at SOA (LUE_{chl} , Eq. (3)) was computed as the ratio of GEP to APAR_{chl} . LUE for the whole SOA forest canopy ($\text{LUE}_{\text{canopy}}$, Eq. (4)) was computed as the ratio of GEP to $\text{APAR}_{\text{canopy}}$. The $\text{LUE}_{\text{tower}}$ (Eq. (2) above) data used in this paper are cited from Krishnan et al. (2006) where they defined $\text{LUE}_{\text{tower}}$ as the ratio $\text{GEP}_{\text{tower}}/\text{APAR}_{\text{tower}}$ where $\text{APAR}_{\text{tower}}$ was estimated using Eq. (1) in Barr et al. (2007) that was based on measured downwelling and upwelling PAR, overstory and understory clumping indices, measured stem area indices, and the estimated daily LAI. Therefore, $\text{LUE}_{\text{canopy}}$ and LUE_{chl} use MODIS-derived FAPARs whereas $\text{LUE}_{\text{tower}}$ derives its FAPAR equivalent from site-based radiometer and structural measurements. The GEP and PAR variables, on the other hand, are the same for the three LUE calculations.

The REGRESS function in MATLAB was used to statistically analyze regression relationships between: (i) GEP and APAR_{chl} ; (ii) GEP and $\text{APAR}_{\text{canopy}}$; (iii) annual average LUE_{chl} and annual average $\text{LUE}_{\text{canopy}}$ over the five-year core growing season period; and (iv) annual average $\text{LUE}_{\text{tower}}$ and annual average LUE_{chl} . We also used the Student *t*-test function in MATLAB to test if the slope between GEP and APAR_{chl} and the slope between GEP and $\text{APAR}_{\text{canopy}}$ were significantly different. The same *t*-test function was also applied to test if the annual average LUE_{chl} , $\text{LUE}_{\text{canopy}}$ and $\text{LUE}_{\text{tower}}$ time series over the entire five-year period were significantly different.

3.2.4. Controls on inter-annual LUE_{chl} and $\text{LUE}_{\text{canopy}}$

To determine the controls on the inter-annual variation of LUE, we analyzed the relationship between LUE_{chl} , $\text{LUE}_{\text{canopy}}$, soil water content (SWC), and precipitation as well as the three factors that determine canopy chlorophyll concentration, i.e., average leaf chlorophyll concen-

tration, leaf area index (LAI), and cover fraction (CF). Soil water content was measured with eight time domain reflectometry (TDR) probes (Moisture Point type B, Gabel Corp., Victoria, Canada) placed at 10 m intervals with measurements at depths of 0–15, 15–30, 30–60, 60–90, and 90–120 cm, although SWC values were used only for the 0–30 cm zone because this is where 90% of the roots are found (Barr et al., 2007). Rain precipitation was measured with a Geonor T200 accumulation rain gauge (Geonor Inc, Milford, PA) supplemented by a CS700 tipping bucket rain gauge (Campbell Scientific Inc, Edmonton, AB). The half-hourly precipitation measurements at the SOA tower site in 2001–2005 were summed into monthly rain precipitation totals, from which annual values were 235 mm, 285.8 mm, 261 mm, 667 mm and 614 mm for 2001–2005, respectively.

4. Results

4.1. PROSAIL-2 derived canopy variables including APAR_{chl} and $\text{APAR}_{\text{canopy}}$

The posterior distributions of SOA canopy variables from the PROSAIL-2 model display seasonal variation, as shown for nine of the seventeen MODIS daily 5×5 observations in 2005 (Table 3). The other observations had similar distributions as those shown in Table 3 so they are not presented. Several canopy variables are shown: LAI, CF, total photosynthetic pigment content, water content, dry matter content, $\text{FAPAR}_{\text{canopy}}$, and $\text{FAPAR}_{\text{chl}}$. Differences in total chlorophyll concentration were related to changes in all three of the factors used in its calculation, i.e., average leaf chlorophyll concentration, LAI, and CF. The considerably higher $\text{FAPAR}_{\text{canopy}}$ (0.47–0.87), as compared to $\text{FAPAR}_{\text{chl}}$ (0.03–0.70), results from PAR absorption primarily by non-photosynthetic canopy components. The average APAR_{chl} at SOA over the five-year period was roughly 65% of $\text{APAR}_{\text{canopy}}$ (slope of the all-data relationship in Fig. 2). We also found that the average ratios for APAR_{chl} : $\text{APAR}_{\text{canopy}}$ were different between the core growing season, DOY 152–259 (◆, slope=0.71); and the combined early and late periods of the season, DOY <152 and DOY >259 (△, slope=0.34) (Fig. 2). The correlation between APAR_{chl} and $\text{APAR}_{\text{canopy}}$ was highest ($r=0.87$) during the core growing season, DOY 152–259 (Fig. 2).

4.2. LUE_{chl} and $\text{LUE}_{\text{canopy}}$ over the five-year period

Average values for $\text{LUE}_{\text{canopy}}$ and LUE_{chl} over the five-year period (2001–2005) were 0.0155 and 0.0241 $\mu\text{mol C } \mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ PPFD, respectively, as determined from the slopes of the GEP:APAR relationships (Fig. 3 for $\text{APAR}_{\text{canopy}}$; Fig. 4 for APAR_{chl} , $p<0.0001$). For the entire study period (DOY ranging from 121 to 287), there was a stronger correlation between GEP and APAR_{chl} (Fig. 4, $r^2=0.78$) compared to GEP:APAR_{canopy} (Fig. 3, $r^2=0.33$). The 95% confidence intervals for the five-year average $\text{LUE}_{\text{canopy}}$ and LUE_{chl} did not overlap, i.e., they ranged from 0.0141 to 0.0169 and from 0.0229 to 0.0253, respectively.

Table 3

Median values for photosynthetic pigments, water content, and dry matter at the grid cell level. LAI, CF, $\text{FAPAR}_{\text{canopy}}$ and $\text{FAPAR}_{\text{chl}}$ were estimated using PROSAIL-2 from daily 5×5 MODIS observations over the Southern Old Aspen site (SOA) in 2005

DOY in 2005	LAI	CF	Photosynthetic pigment ($\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$)	Water content (cm)	Dry matter (g/cm^2)	$\text{FAPAR}_{\text{canopy}}$ 0–1	$\text{FAPAR}_{\text{chl}}$ 0–1
132	0.27	0.60	3.75	0.0005	0.0004	0.470	0.030
150	1.45	1.00	45.19	0.0050	0.0107	0.627	0.363
160	3.30	1.00	103.07	0.0311	0.0454	0.796	0.529
173	2.87	0.96	159.73	0.0326	0.0365	0.775	0.674
196	3.41	0.95	188.30	0.0345	0.0381	0.805	0.703
219	3.89	0.94	170.32	0.0385	0.0459	0.816	0.659
233	3.83	0.97	148.91	0.0417	0.0472	0.872	0.601
247	2.73	0.99	121.08	0.0450	0.0548	0.853	0.497
285	0.10	0.86	2.55	0.0005	0.0004	0.650	0.034

Note that the grid cell estimate=leaf level estimate* LAI*CF (where “estimate” refers to either photosynthetic pigments, water content, or dry matter, respectively).

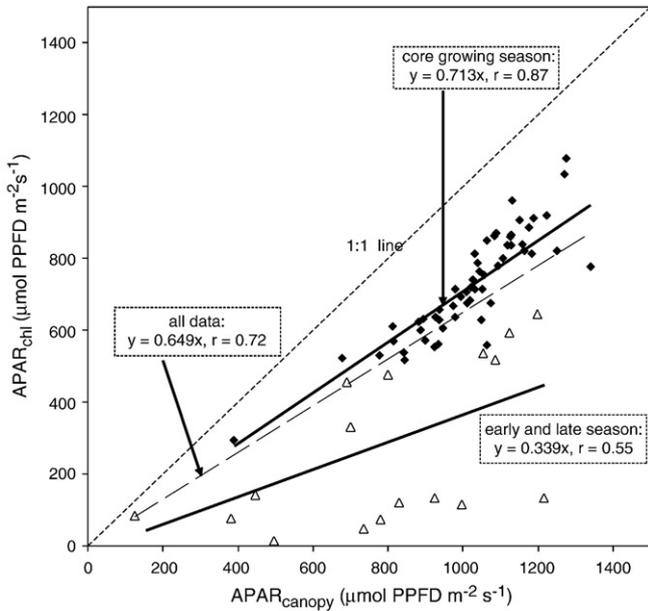


Fig. 2. The relationship of $APAR_{chl} = [(90 \text{ min PPFD}) * FAPAR_{chl}]$ to $APAR_{canopy} = [(90 \text{ min PPFD}) * FAPAR_{canopy}]$ for 2001–2005. Solid diamonds (\blacklozenge) indicate values retrieved during the core growing season (DOY:152–259; $r = 0.87$; $APAR_{chl} = 0.713 * APAR_{canopy}$). Early (DOY < 152) and late (DOY > 259) season values were combined and are indicated with open triangles (Δ) ($r = 0.55$; $APAR_{chl} = 0.339 * APAR_{canopy}$). For all values (dashed line), $r = 0.72$ and $APAR_{chl} = 0.649 * APAR_{canopy}$.

For the core growing season only (DOY 152–259), the five-year average values of LUE_{canopy} and LUE_{chl} were 0.0173 and 0.0243 $\mu\text{mol C } \mu\text{mol}^{-1} \text{ PPFD}$, respectively (Fig. 3 for $APAR_{canopy}$; Fig. 4 for $APAR_{chl}$, $p < 0.0006$). Once again, the 95% confidence intervals for the five-year average LUE_{canopy} and LUE_{chl} did not overlap, i.e., they ranged from 0.0163 to 0.0183 and from 0.0230 to 0.0256, respectively.

$APAR_{chl}$ and LUE_{chl} captured more seasonal variation than their whole canopy counterparts ($APAR_{canopy}$, LUE_{canopy}) (Figs. 3 and 4). For

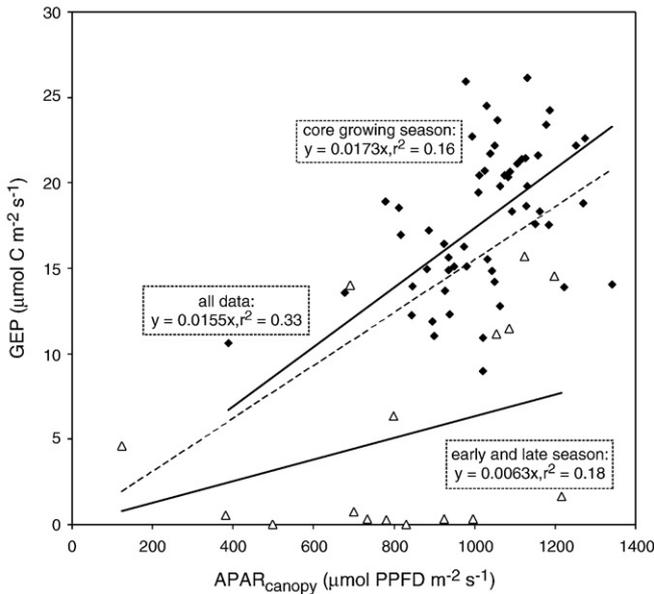


Fig. 3. The relationship of GEP to $APAR_{canopy} = [(90 \text{ min PPFD}) * FAPAR_{canopy}]$ in 2001–2005. Solid diamonds (\blacklozenge) are data from during the core growing season (DOY 152–259). Open triangles (Δ) indicate values obtained before (DOY < 152) or after (DOY > 259). The apparent LUE_{canopy} , the slope of the relationship (0.0155 $\mu\text{mol C } \mu\text{mol}^{-1} \text{ PPFD}$, $r^2 = 0.33$), is similar to the core growing season value (0.0173) but is considerably higher than for days having low GEP in the spring and fall.

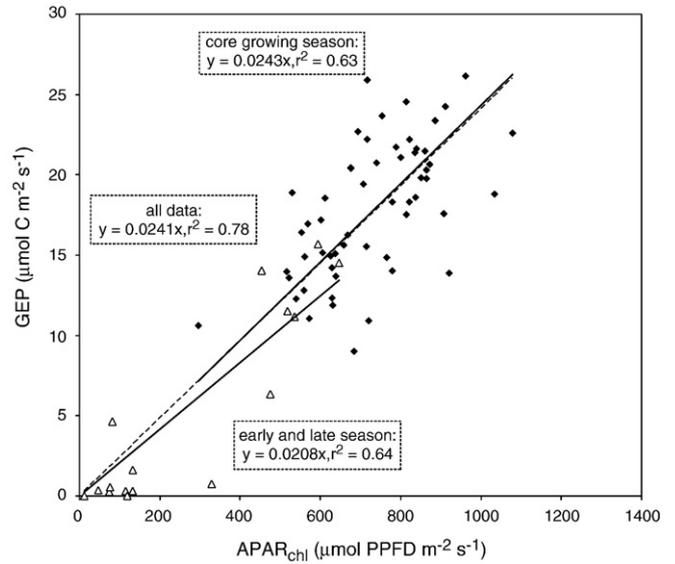


Fig. 4. The relationship of GEP to $APAR_{chl} = [(90 \text{ min PPFD}) * FAPAR_{chl}]$ in 2001–2005. Solid diamonds (\blacklozenge) are data from during the core growing season (DOY 152–259, $GEP = 0.0243 * APAR_{chl}$, $r^2 = 0.63$). Open triangles (Δ) indicate values obtained before (DOY < 152) or after (DOY > 259) ($GEP = 0.0208 * APAR_{chl}$, $r^2 = 0.64$). The apparent LUE_{chl} , i.e., the slope of the relationship for all values, is 0.0241 $\mu\text{mol C } \mu\text{mol}^{-1} \text{ PPFD}$ ($r^2 = 0.78$).

example, during the early and late growing season, average LUE_{chl} over five years was 0.0208 $\mu\text{mol C } \mu\text{mol}^{-1} \text{ PPFD}$ which was lower than the core growing season value of 0.0243 $\mu\text{mol C } \mu\text{mol}^{-1} \text{ PPFD}$ (Fig. 4).

4.3. Inter-annual variability in LUE

There were also inter-annual variations for $APAR_{chl}$ and $APAR_{canopy}$ with consistently and significantly lower values for $APAR_{chl}$ compared to $APAR_{canopy}$ during the core growing season (Fig. 5) ($p < 0.005$). Consequently, LUE_{chl} was consistently and significantly higher than LUE_{canopy} (Fig. 6) ($p < 0.005$) and LUE_{chl} in 2004–2005 was higher than for the three earlier years during the core growing season. The effect of the 2003 drought was apparent, such that the average LUE_{chl} and LUE_{canopy} in 2004 were much higher than in 2003. The annual means

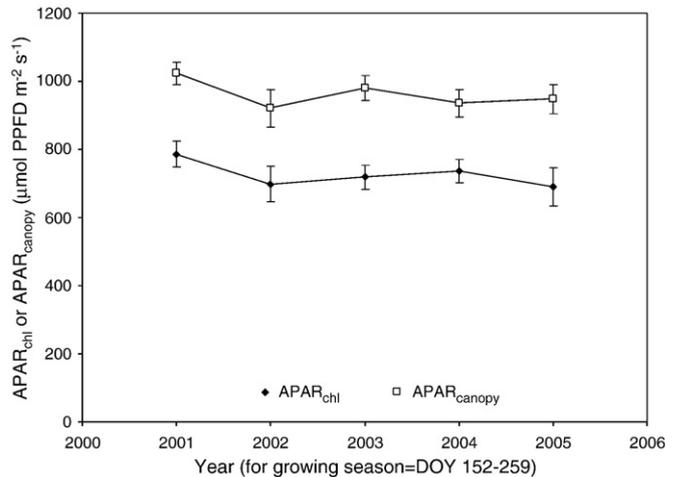


Fig. 5. Comparison of the annual means \pm SE for $APAR_{chl}$ (\blacklozenge) and $APAR_{canopy}$ (\square) during the five-year period (2001–2005) for the core growing season between DOY = 152–259. $APAR_{chl}$ was significantly lower than $APAR_{canopy}$ in every year, averaging 235 $\mu\text{mol PPFD } \text{m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ less than $APAR_{canopy}$. $APAR_{lower}$ is not included in this figure because unlike $APAR_{chl}$ and $APAR_{canopy}$, it was obtained under all sky conditions, i.e., both clear and cloudy.

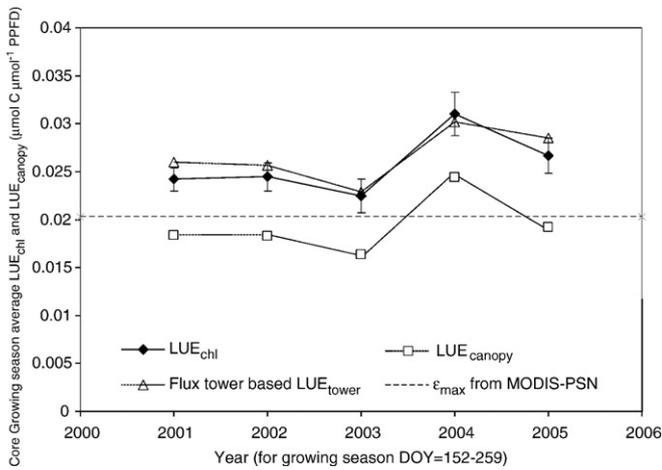


Fig. 6. Comparison of the annual means \pm SE for MODIS-derived LUE_{chl} (\blacklozenge) and LUE_{canopy} (\square) during the five-year period (2001–2005) for the core growing season between DOY = 152–259. LUE_{chl} was significantly higher than LUE_{canopy} in every year, averaging $0.007 \mu\text{mol C } \mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ PPFD higher. Annual LUE_{tower} values (Krishnan et al., 2006) (Δ) agree well with our LUE_{chl} , falling within the SE range in 4 of 5 years. The maximum LUE (ϵ_{max}) for broadleaf forests used by the MODIS PSN model is shown as a horizontal dashed line (---).

of core growing season LUE_{chl} ($\mu\text{mol C } \mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ PPFD) (\pm SE) were: 0.0242 ± 0.0012 (2001), 0.0245 ± 0.0015 (2002); 0.0225 ± 0.0018 (2003); 0.0310 ± 0.0022 (2004); and 0.0267 ± 0.0019 (2005) (Table 4). The maximum LUE (ϵ_{max}) value for broadleaf deciduous forests set by the biome look-up table of the MODIS photosynthesis model is $0.0203 \mu\text{mol C } \mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ PPFD (Heinsch et al., 2003). Four of the five annual LUE_{canopy} values that we calculated were lower than ϵ_{max} . However, the 2004 LUE_{canopy} was much higher than the MODIS ϵ_{max} value (Fig. 6).

Average LAI, CF, canopy chlorophyll concentration, $FAPAR_{canopy}$, $FAPAR_{chl}$, LUE_{canopy} and LUE_{chl} during core growing season ($152 \leq \text{DOY} \leq 259$) for each individual year are shown in Table 4. Inter-annual variations of canopy chlorophyll concentration were influenced by all the three factors ($r^2=0.91$ for leaf chlorophyll concentration; $r^2=0.32$ for LAI; and $r^2=0.49$ for CF). Average annual canopy chlorophyll concentrations were correlated with both $FAPAR_{chl}$ ($r^2=0.81$) and $APAR_{chl}$ ($r^2=0.63$).

4.4. Comparisons with LUE_{tower}

Whereas LUE_{canopy} differed significantly from LUE_{tower} for each of the five years ($p \leq 0.001$), LUE_{chl} was essentially the same as LUE_{tower} ($p > 0.47$, Fig. 6).

5. Discussion

LUE_{chl} captured more seasonal (Table 3) and inter-annual variation than LUE_{canopy} and provided an improved overall relationship to GEP (Figs. 3 and 4). Krishnan et al. (2006) reported that the annual average

Table 4

Annual averages ($152 < \text{DOY} \leq 259$) of the median grid cell values of LAI, CF, photosynthetic pigment concentration, $FAPAR_{canopy}$, $FAPAR_{chl}$, LUE_{canopy} and LUE_{chl} for the area around the Old Aspen flux site

Year	LAI	CF	Photosynthetic pigment ($\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$)	$FAPAR_{canopy}$ 0–1	$FAPAR_{chl}$ 0–1	LUE_{canopy} ($\mu\text{mol C } \mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ PPFD)	LUE_{chl} ($\mu\text{mol C } \mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ PPFD)
2001	3.49	0.98	175.73	0.856	0.652	0.0183	0.0242
2002	3.35	0.96	161.32	0.815	0.617	0.0183	0.0245
2003	3.23	0.94	123.68	0.794	0.582	0.0163	0.0225
2004	3.54	0.96	140.32	0.811	0.623	0.0244	0.0310
2005	3.14	0.97	135.56	0.820	0.589	0.0192	0.0267

LUE_{tower} at the SOA tower for 2001–2005 was 0.0229 – $0.0302 \mu\text{mol C } \mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ PPFD. Their *in situ* average LUE_{tower} estimate matched well with our average MODIS-derived LUE_{chl} (0.0229 – 0.0302 versus 0.0225 – $0.0310 \mu\text{mol C } \mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ PPFD from Fig. 4) but not with the MODIS-derived LUE_{canopy} over five core growing seasons. Furthermore, the *in situ* tower-based LUE_{tower} and the MODIS-derived LUE_{chl} were also similar in each of the five years, exhibiting their highest values in 2004–2005 (Fig. 6).

The annual LUE_{canopy} values substantially underestimated the tower-based estimates (Krishnan et al., 2006) (Fig. 6). It is interesting to note that the five-year average LUE_{canopy} for the core growing season period was higher than LUE_{canopy} for the early and late season periods (Fig. 3). In comparison, the five-year average LUE_{chl} for all data was consistent with LUE_{chl} for the core growing season period, and also close to LUE_{chl} for the early and late season periods (Fig. 4). Additionally, the maximum LUE value (ϵ_{max}) from the MODIS biome look-up table for broadleaf deciduous forests (Heinsch et al., 2003) tended to be significantly lower than both LUE_{chl} and LUE_{tower} (Fig. 6). This study has demonstrated that (1) LUE_{chl} values are more comparable to ground-based observations of LUE_{tower} than LUE_{canopy} ; (2) $APAR_{chl}$ values are more comparable to ground-based observations of $APAR_{tower}$ when the sky is clear than $APAR_{canopy}$; (3) $FAPAR_{chl}$ values derived from MODIS observations are more realistic and useful for estimating of $APAR_{tower}$ when the sky is clear than $FAPAR_{canopy}$ values. The conclusions are supported by measurements and simulations of photosynthetic versus non-photosynthetic vegetation by Chen et al. (2006) at other flux sites in the region. Consequently, we accept the hypothesis that $LUE_{chl} = LUE_{tower}$, whereas we reject the other two hypotheses that $LUE_{canopy} = LUE_{chl}$ or that $LUE_{canopy} = LUE_{tower}$.

A prolonged three-year drought began in late summer of 2001 and the most severe conditions occurred in 2003 (Barr et al., 2007), which also produced the lowest LUE_{chl} (Fig. 6). There were eleven consecutive months prior to August 2003 when precipitation was < 50 mm per month. The water table depth decreased from 3 m in 2001 to 4 m in 2003 (Barr et al., 2007). Low precipitation in 2001 through 2003 caused soil water content in the shallow layer (0–0.15 m) to begin to drop in August 2001 and it kept dropping through 2002 and 2003. The lowest soil water content occurred in 2003 and was one-third lower than the pre-drought mean value and was close to the permanent wilting point. Surface conductance declined during the drought years and reached its lowest value in 2003 (Krishnan et al., 2006). Fig. 7 compares the average LUE_{chl} and LUE_{canopy} during DOY 152–259 of each year (2001–2005) with the cumulative rain precipitation during that time period. This analysis suggests that the cumulative precipitation during 2001–2005 may have had a significant influence on LUE. Increased rain precipitation in 2004 and 2005 recharged the soil and increased LUE

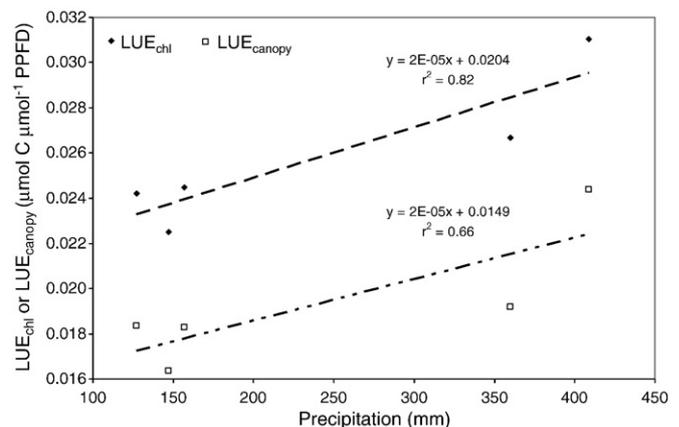


Fig. 7. Linear relationship between annual average LUE as a function of the cumulative precipitation for the core growing season (DOY = 152–259) in 2001–2005.

and our MODIS-based LUE_{chl} estimates were sensitive to this phenomenon.

FAPAR_{chl} and LUE_{chl} are more physiologically realistic ways of quantifying the PAR absorbed and used for photosynthesis. These are integrative measures that inherently account for some of the impacts of mid- to long-term stresses since they also reflect changes in leaf area and cover fraction. For example, inter-annual variability of total canopy chlorophyll concentration was influenced by changes in average leaf chlorophyll concentration, LAI and CF (Table 4). The 2003 drought lowered all three of these factors at our study area relative to 2001 and 2002. Thus, chlorophyll-based measures of APAR and LUE have the potential to more directly account for environmental limitations and thus reduce the impact of the uncertainty in estimating temperature, vapor pressure deficit, and soil moisture for specific pixels. Waring et al. (1995) found a strong correlation between upper canopy leaf chlorophyll concentration of the major hardwood species and maximum light use efficiency at the primarily deciduous Harvard Forest flux site. Their finding supports the idea of a direct link between pigment concentration and LUE_{power} for deciduous forests. Ollinger et al. (2008) and Kergoat et al. (2008) showed a significant positive relationship between whole canopy nitrogen concentration and canopy maximum LUE but the relationship between canopy nitrogen and chlorophyll was not described and they did not examine inter-annual or seasonal variability at any of their sites. Their results lead us to believe that an inter-site analysis based on canopy chlorophyll concentration, maximum LUE_{chl} and GEP using our methodology would yield even stronger relationships.

Chlorophyll-based measures of APAR and LUE, however, will not account for limitations due to short-term environmental extremes so modulation of light use efficiency by environmental stresses will still need to be considered. Furthermore, photosynthesis of evergreen conifer forests are less sensitive to changes in chlorophyll than are broadleaf forests as evidenced by the continuous green color of conifer forests even during the coldest periods of winter. As well, forests that have attained maximum height are subject to significant hydraulic and stomatal limitations (Ryan et al., 2004, 1997) that may or may not be reflected in their total canopy chlorophyll concentration. Brodrribb and Feild (2000) demonstrated a highly significant correlation between hydraulic conductivity, maximum photosynthetic capacity, and quantum yield 23 rain forest species.

To our knowledge, our study represents the first time that LUE_{chl} has been estimated by linking tower flux data, a biophysical radiative transfer model, and satellite spectral observations. Our predicted values for LUE_{chl} agree well with *in situ* data in respect to both amplitude and seasonal phase; and our modeled LUE_{chl} successfully described the actual dynamics captured by tower fluxes. We believe that it could be useful to couple this type of FAPAR_{chl} approach into regional/global carbon cycle models, land surface process models and general circulation models.

This paper has demonstrated some of the possible benefits of using FAPAR_{chl} as an operational data product for carbon cycle modeling. The hyperspectral satellite sensors that are in orbit (e.g., EO-1/Hyperion) or currently under development (e.g., HypsIRI) could help us obtain even more robust estimates of FAPAR_{chl} due to the greater sensitivity of these sensors to pigment concentrations and other biochemical properties of foliage (Coops et al., 2002). A narrower field of view could also be helpful for resolving chlorophyll dynamics at scales more representative (e.g., <100 m) of the spatial structure typical of most forest stands.

Acknowledgments

This project was supported by the NASA Carbon Cycle Science Program (Dr. Diane Wickland, Program Manager) under the auspices of the North American Carbon Program. Support was provided to the FCRN and BERMS programs through several Canadian funding sources

(Environment Canada, the Canadian Forest Service, NSERC, CFCAS, BIOCAP, Action Plan 2000 and PERD).

References

- Barr, A. G., Black, T. A., Hogg, E. H., Griffis, T. J., Morgenstern, K., Kljun, N., et al. (2007). Climatic controls on the carbon and water balances of a boreal aspen forest, 1994–2003. *Global Change Biology*, 13, 561–576.
- Brodrribb, T. J., & Feild, T. S. (2000). Stem hydraulic supply is linked to leaf photosynthetic capacity: Evidence from New Caledonian and Tasmanian rainforests. *Plant, Cell and Environment*, 23, 1381–1388.
- Chen, J. M., Govind, A., Sonnentag, O., Zhang, Y., Barr, A., & Amiro, B. (2006). Leaf area index measurements at Fluxnet-Canada forest sites. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 140, 257–268.
- Coops, N. C., Smith, M. -L., Martin, M. E., Ollinger, S. V., & Held, A. (2002). Predicting eucalypt biochemistry from HYPERION and HYMAP imagery. *IGARSS'02*, 2, 790–792.
- Gower, S. T., Kucharik, C. J., & Norman, J. M. (1999). Direct and indirect estimation of leaf area index, FAPAR and net primary production of terrestrial ecosystems. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 70, 29–51.
- Griffis, T. J., Black, T. A., Morgenstern, K., Barr, A. G., Nescic, Z., Drewitt, G. B., et al. (2003). Ecophysiological controls on the carbon balances of three southern boreal forests. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 117, 53–71.
- Heinsch, F. A., Reeves, M., Votava, P., Kang, S., Milesi, C., Zhao, M., et al. (2003). User's Guide: GPP and NPP (MOD17A2/A3) Products. NASA MODIS Land Algorithm. Version 2.0. *NASA Algorithm Theoretical Basis Document (ATBD)*.
- Huete, A., Justice, C., & Liu, H. (1994). Development of vegetation and soil indexes for Modis-Eos. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 49, 224–234.
- Justice, C. O., Vermote, E., Townshend, J. R. G., Defries, R., Roy, D. P., Hall, D. K., et al. (1998). The Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS): Land remote sensing for global change research. *IEEE Transactions on Geoscience and Remote Sensing*, 36, 1228–1249.
- Kergoat, L., Lafont, S., Arneith, A., Le Dantec, V., & Saugier, B. (2008). Nitrogen controls plant canopy light-use efficiency in temperate and boreal ecosystems. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 113, G04017. doi:10.1029/2007JG000676
- Krishnan, P., Black, T. A., Grant, N. J., Barr, A. G., Hogg, E. H., Jassal, R. S., et al. (2006). Impact of changing soil moisture distribution on net ecosystem productivity of a boreal aspen forest during and following drought. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 139, 208–233.
- Landsberg, J. J., & Waring, R. H. (1997). A generalized model of forest productivity using simplified concepts of radiation-use efficiency, carbon balance and partitioning. *Forest Ecology and Management*, 95, 209–228.
- Law, B. E., Waring, R. H., Anthoni, P. M., & Aber, J. D. (2000). Measurements of gross and net ecosystem productivity and water vapour exchange of a *Pinus ponderosa* ecosystem, and an evaluation of two generalized models. *Global Change Biology*, 6, 155–168.
- Medlyn, B. E. (1998). Physiological basis of the light use efficiency model. *Tree Physiology*, 18, 167–176.
- Mohr, H., Schopfer, P., Lawlor, G., & Lawlor, D. W. (Eds.). (1995). *Plant physiology*: Springer.
- Monteith, J. L. (1972). Solar-radiation and productivity in tropical ecosystems. *Journal of Applied Ecology*, 9, 747–766.
- Monteith, J. L. (1977). Climate and efficiency of crop production in Britain. *Philosophical Transaction of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences*, 281, 271–294.
- Ollinger, S. V., Richardson, A. D., Martin, M. E., Hollinger, D. Y., Frolking, S. E., Reich, P. B., et al. (2008). Canopy nitrogen, carbon assimilation, and albedo in temperate and boreal forests: Functional relations and potential climate feedbacks. *Proceedings, National Academy of Sciences*, 105, 19336–19341.
- Prince, S. D., & Goward, S. N. (1995). Global primary production: A remote sensing approach. *Journal of Biogeography*, 22, 815–835.
- Prince, S. D., & Goward, S. N. (1996). Evaluation of the NOAA/NASA Pathfinder AVHRR Land Data Set for global primary production modelling. *International Journal of Remote Sensing*, 17, 217–221.
- Prince, S. D., Goetz, S. J., & Goward, S. N. (1995). Monitoring primary production from Earth observing satellites. *Water Air and Soil Pollution*, 82, 509–522.
- Prince, S. D., Goward, S. N., Goetz, S., & Czajkowski, K. (2000). Interannual atmosphere-biosphere variation: Implications for observation and modeling. *Journal of Geophysical Research-Atmospheres*, 105, 20055–20063.
- Ruimy, A., Saugier, B., & Dedieu, G. (1994). Methodology for estimation of terrestrial net primary production from remotely sensed data. *Journal of Geophysical Research - Atmospheres*, 99, 5263–5283.
- Ruimy, A., Dedieu, G., & Saugier, B. (1996). TURC: A diagnostic model of continental gross primary productivity and net primary productivity. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, 10, 269–285.
- Ruimy, A., Kergoat, L., Field, C. B., & Saugier, B. (1996). The use of CO₂ flux measurements in models of the global terrestrial carbon budget. *Global Change Biology*, 2, 287–296.
- Running, S. W., Justice, C. O., Salomonson, V., Hall, D., Barker, J., Kaufmann, Y. J., et al. (1994). Terrestrial remote-sensing science and algorithms planned for Eos Modis. *International Journal of Remote Sensing*, 15, 3587–3620.
- Running, S. W., Baldocchi, D. D., Turner, D. P., Gower, S. T., Bakwin, P. S., & Hibbard, K. A. (1999). A global terrestrial monitoring network integrating tower fluxes, flask sampling, ecosystem modeling and EOS satellite data. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 70, 108–127.
- Running, S. W., Nemani, R., Glassy, J. M., & Thornton, P. E. (1999). MODIS daily photosynthesis (PSN) and annual net primary production (NPP) product (MOD17). *Algorithm Theoretical Basis Document, Version 3.0*.

- Running, S. W., Thornton, P. E., Nemani, R., & Glassy, J. M. (2000). Global terrestrial gross and net primary productivity from the Earth Observing System. In O. E. Sala, R. B. Jackson, H. A. Mooney & R. W. Howarth (Eds.), *Methods in ecosystem science* (pp. 44–57). New York: Springer Verlag.
- Running, S., Nemani, R., Heinsch, F., Zhao, M., Reeves, M., & Hashimoto, H. (2004). A continuous satellite-derived measure of global terrestrial primary production. *BioScience*, 54, 547–560.
- Ryan, M. G., Binkley, D., & Fownes, J. H. (1997). Age-related decline in forest productivity: Pattern and process. *Advances in Ecological Research*, 27, 213–262.
- Ryan, M. G., Binkley, D., Fownes, J. H., Giardina, C. P., & Senock, R. S. (2004). An experimental test of the causes of forest growth decline with stand age. *Ecological Monographs*, 74, 393–414.
- Sellers, P. J., Los, S. O., Tucker, C. J., Justice, C. O., Dazlich, D. A., Collatz, G. J., et al. (1996). A revised land surface parameterization (SiB2) for atmospheric GCMs. 2. The generation of global fields of terrestrial biophysical parameters from satellite data. *Journal of Climate*, 9, 706–737.
- Sellers, P. J., Randall, D. A., Collatz, G. J., Berry, J. A., Field, C. B., Dazlich, D. A., et al. (1996). A revised land surface parameterization (SiB2) for atmospheric GCMs. 1. Model formulation. *Journal of Climate*, 9, 676–705.
- Tucker, C. J. (1979). Red and photographic infrared linear combinations for monitoring vegetation. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 8, 127–150.
- Turner, D. P., Ritts, W. D., Cohen, W. B., Gower, S. T., Zhao, M. S., Running, S. W., et al. (2003). Scaling Gross Primary Production (GPP) over boreal and deciduous forest landscapes in support of MODIS GPP product validation. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 88, 256–270.
- Turner, D. P., Ollinger, S., Smith, M. L., Krankina, O., & Gregory, M. (2004). Scaling net primary production to a MODIS footprint in support of Earth observing system product validation. *International Journal of Remote Sensing*, 25, 1961–1979.
- Turner, D. P., Ritts, W. D., Zhao, M., Kurc, S. A., Dunn, A. L., Wofsy, S., et al. (2006). Assessing interannual variation in MODIS-based estimates of gross primary production. *Ieee Computational Science & Engineering*, 44, 1899–1907.
- Vina, A., Gitelson, A., Rundquist, D., Keydan, G., Leavitt, B., & Schepers, J. (2004). Monitoring maize (*Zea mays* L.) phenology with remote sensing. *Agronomy Journal*, 96, 1139–1147.
- Waring, R. H., Law, B. E., Goulden, M. L., Bassow, S. L., McCreight, R. W., Wofsy, S. C., et al. (1995). Scaling gross ecosystem production at Harvard Forest with remote sensing: A comparison of estimates from a constrained quantum-use efficiency model and eddy correlation. *Plant, Cell, Environment*, 18, 1201–1213.
- Wolfe, R., Roy, D., & Vermote, E. (1998). The MODIS land data storage, gridding and compositing methodology: Level 2 Grid. *IEEE Transactions on Geosciences and Remote Sensing*, 36, 1324–1338.
- Xiao, X. M., Zhang, Q. Y., Hollinger, D., Aber, J., & Moore, B. (2005). Modeling gross primary production of an evergreen needleleaf forest using modis and climate data. *Ecological Applications*, 15, 954–969.
- Yoder, B. J., & Waring, R. H. (1994). The normalized difference vegetation index of small Douglas-fir canopies with varying chlorophyll concentrations. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 49, 81–91.
- Zhang, Q. Y., Xiao, X. M., Braswell, B., Linder, E., Baret, F., & Moore, B. (2005). Estimating light absorption by chlorophyll, leaf and canopy in a deciduous broadleaf forest using MODIS data and a radiative transfer model. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 99, 357–371.
- Zhang, Q., Xiao, X., Braswell, B., Linder, E., Ollinger, S., Smith, M. L., et al. (2006). Characterization of seasonal variation of forest canopy in a temperate deciduous broadleaf forest, using daily MODIS data. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 105, 189–203.