

# The impact of forest architecture parameterization on GPP simulations

Ana Firanj · Branislava Lalic · Zorica Podrascanin

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**Abstract** The presence of a forest strongly affects ecosystem fluxes by acting as a source or sink of mass and energy. The objective of this study was to investigate the influence of the vertical forest heterogeneity parameterization on gross primary production (GPP) simulations. To introduce a heterogeneity effect, a new method for the upscaling of the leaf level GPP is proposed. This upscaling method is based on the relationship between the leaf area index (*LAI*) and the leaf area density (*LAD*) profiles and the standard sun/shade leaf separation method. The effect of the crown shape and foliage distribution parameterization on the simulated GPP is confirmed in a comparison study between the proposed method and the standard sun/shade upscaling method. The observed values used in the comparison study are assimilated during the vegetation period on three distinguished forest eddy-covariance (EC) measurement sites chosen for the diversity of their morphological characteristics. The obtained results show (a) the sensitivity of the simulated GPP to the leaf area density profile, (b) the capability of the proposed scaling method to calculate the contribution of the different canopy layers to the entire canopy GPP, and (c) a better agreement with the observations of the simulated GPP with the proposed upscaling method compared with the standard sun/shade method.

## 1 Introduction

Forests play an important role in the terrestrial carbon cycle because they are major reserves of terrestrial carbon and major components of the global photosynthetic accumulation of carbon, also known as the gross primary production (GPP) (Malhi et al. 1999; Pan et al. 2011). Studies have shown that a physical model of tall vegetation with defined morphological, kinematic, aerodynamic, and thermal characteristics has a strong impact on the accuracy of the parameterization of all of the surface vertical fluxes (Ellsworth and Reich 1993; Mix et al. 1994; Zeng and Takahashi 2000). Therefore, a detailed description of the forest structure in atmospheric and environmental models of different spatial and time scales can result in a better estimation of GPP, energy, and momentum exchange (Sprintsin et al. 2012). The part of the numerical weather prediction model or climate model responsible for parameterization of the processes describing land-air interaction is the soil-vegetation-atmosphere transfer (SVAT) scheme.

Traditionally, the GPP of a forest canopy has been calculated as the photosynthesis rate per unit of leaf surface, which is then upscaled to the canopy level. A biochemical model that became the standard for quantifying the leaf level carbon assimilation was developed by Farquhar et al. (1980) and was later expanded by von Caemmerer and Farquhar (1981) and Collatz et al. (1991, 1992). This model is based on the realistic description of two photosynthetic processes: the Rubisco-limited rate of ribulose biphosphate (RuBP) carboxylation and the electron transport-limited rate of RuBP regeneration. Gross photosynthesis (*A*) is determined by the most limiting photosynthetic process. To predict the photosynthetic rate from the external carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) concentration, Farquhar's model requires coupling with a stomatal conductance model. The Jarvis (Jarvis 1976) or Ball-Berry (Ball et al. 1987) types of stomatal conductance/resistance models are often used.

A. Firanj (✉) · Z. Podrascanin  
Faculty of Sciences, Department of Physics, University of Novi Sad,  
Dositej Obradovic Sq. 4, Novi Sad 21000, Serbia  
e-mail: ana.firanj@df.uns.ac.rs

B. Lalic  
Faculty of Agriculture, Department for Field and Vegetable Crops,  
University of Novi Sad, Dositej Obradovic Sq. 8, Novi Sad 21000,  
Serbia

The accuracy of the biophysical model depends on the upscaling method used to transfer information from the leaf level to the entire canopy and ecosystem (Schaefer et al. 2012). The upscaling method is always a product of the parameterization of the canopy architecture. The model description of the canopy structure is used in a simplified form and represented as, for example, the “big-leaf” (Sellers et al. 1997a) model, especially in the SVAT models developed for numerical weather prediction and climate models. This approach is based on an assumption of the horizontally and vertically homogeneous canopy in which the vertical profile of the absorbed irradiance is described with the Lambert-Beer’s law relationship. Assuming that the distribution of the photosynthetic capacity among the leaves in a canopy is proportional to the profile of the absorbed irradiance, then the GPP calculated for a single leaf at the top of the canopy can be upscaled to the entire canopy.

The development of more sophisticated measurements has raised questions about the physical accuracy of the big-leaf upscaling method (Harley and Baldocchi 1995; Leuning et al. 1995; de Pury and Farquhar 1997; Jarvis 1995; Mercado et al. 2006; Sprintsin et al. 2012). Observations have shown that the photosynthetic rate of leaves exposed to direct radiation differs from the photosynthetic rate of leaves in shadows (Givnish 1988). To introduce this effect, a “two-leaf” upscaling method has been developed and is referred to in this study as the sun/shade method or SS (Norman 1993; de Pury and Farquhar 1997). The vegetation is partitioned on two big leaves: one leaf for direct, diffuse, and scattered radiation absorption and a second leaf in shadow for the absorption of diffuse and scattered radiation (de Pury and Farquhar 1997; Chen et al. 1999; Mercado et al. 2006). Replacement of the big-leaf with the two-leaf method produced a significant improvement in the weather and climate simulations for all of the scales (Mercado et al. 2006; Sprintsin et al. 2012). The basic assumption of the “two-leaf” approximation is that the canopy can be represented as a block of constant density porous material without a difference between the overstory and the understory vegetation. Multilayer models have been developed to offer more sophisticated information about the canopy structure. Of these models, those that are broadly used are as follows: (a) complex three-dimensional vegetation models with a one-dimensional array (Baldocchi and Harley 1995), (b) two-dimensional arrays (Chen et al. 2008) and (c) three-dimensional arrays (Kobayashi et al. 2012; Good et al. 2013). These models are difficult to introduce into different spatial scale simulations because of their demanding parameterization and computation; however, they produce more accurate simulations of the mass and energy exchange than big-leaf or two-leaf models (Baldocchi et al. 2002).

Ecosystem fluxes result from the complex interaction between the forest canopy (represented by forest micrometeorological conditions and morphological characteristics) and the

atmosphere (represented by meteorological conditions on the reference level). Therefore, a physically more realistic parameterization of the distribution of the leaf area density as a function of height,  $LAD(z)$ , and short-wave radiation absorption as the driving force of the most important physical processes representing the air-canopy interaction can reduce errors in the biophysical functionality of the model (Drewry et al. 2010; Chen et al. 2012; Lalic et al. 2013). The level of complexity of the  $LAD$  parameterization is closely related to the complexity of the vegetation parameterization that can produce the  $LAD$ -related GPP upscaling method.

The primary goal of this study is to design a new upscaling method based on the improved parameterization of the forest structure and canopy air space micrometeorology to amend the modeling of the forest canopy-atmosphere gas exchange. The basis for the new upscaling method, sun/shade/lad (SSL), is a simple SS approach developed by de Pury and Farquhar (1997). The relationship between the leaf area index ( $LAI$ ) and  $LAD(z)$  was used to overcome the assumption of a constant  $LAI$  evenly distributed throughout the forest canopy layers. Therefore,  $LAD(z)$  introduces an influence on the crown shape, density of the foliage, and partitioning of the contributions of every separate canopy layer to the canopy level GPP. For this purpose, we choose the empirical  $LAD(z)$  function developed by Lalic and Mihailovic (2004). The primary advantage of this formulation is the realistic representation of the vegetation structural complexity with minimal use of empirical parameters (Lalic et al. 2013). The forest canopy is described only by the following standard nondemanding input vegetation parameters of atmospheric models: forest height,  $LAI$ , and the height of the maximum  $LAD$ . The vertical profiles of the sunlit and shaded leaf distribution, photosynthesis parameters, and radiation as a part of the standard SS scaling approach are described as functions of  $LAD(z)$ . The total canopy level GPP was obtained with numerical integration over the depth of the canopy.

To test the primary features of the new upscaling method, both the SS and the SSL methods are applied to the calculated GPP using a SVAT scheme, i.e., the land-air parameterization scheme (LAPS). This scheme was chosen because it is freely available and was tested as the stand-alone version as well as coupled with the Eta numerical weather prediction model in both long-term and short-term simulations (Mihailovic 1996). There is a fair amount of literature explaining the functionality of LAPS (Mihailovic and Kallos 1997; Mihailovic et al. 2000; Mihailovic et al. 2002; Mihailovic et al. 2010). A comparison study was conducted with data collected during the vegetation period on three forest eddy-covariance sites (section 2.1). The sites were chosen to include a high diversity of forest types and structures. LAPS with the photosynthesis rate calculation is presented in section 2.2. Details of the standard SS and proposed SSL upscaling methods are presented in sections 2.3 and 2.4, respectively. The sensitivity of the GPP simulations

to the changes in  $LAD(z)$  is presented in section 2.5. The comparison study between the SS and SSL upscaling methods and their use in ecosystem modeling is presented in section 3. Section 4 includes our conclusions with a brief elaboration of our future plans of study.

## 2 Methods

### 2.1 Datasets

Calibration of the land surface scheme and validation of the proposed upscaling method was performed in the case of three contrasted eddy-covariance (EC) forest sites. The study sites are in the framework of the following two projects: (1) the BOREAS project Northern Study Area Old Black Spruce site (NSA-OBS) and the South Study Area Old Aspen site (SSA-OA) (Sellers et al. 1997b) and (2) the Harvard Forest Environmental Measurement Site (HF-EMS) (Munger and Wofsy 1999), which are presented in Table 1. The datasets used consist of continuous hourly (HF-EMS) and half-hourly (NSA-OBS, SSA-OA) measurements of air temperature, short-wave radiation, humidity, wind speed, precipitation, and  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration. These variables were selected because they represent a full set of meteorological input data for LAPS and for the calculation of GPP. Validation of the scheme was performed on EC measurements of latent heat, sensible heat, and  $\text{CO}_2$  flux, and the results are presented in section 3.1.

The EC measuring technique provides long-term continuous monitoring of  $\text{CO}_2$  transfer in the form of the net ecosystem exchange (NEE). NEE is a balance between the carbon uptake (GPP) and its release through ecosystem autotrophic and heterotrophic respiration, ( $R_{\text{eco}}$ ). To estimate GPP for the model validation, it is necessary to estimate the  $R_{\text{eco}}$  value. Because the respiration rate is mostly controlled by the temperature and the nighttime  $\text{CO}_2$  flux originates only from  $R_{\text{eco}}$ , the standard procedure for estimating  $R_{\text{eco}}$  is to use the

temperature dependence of the nighttime NEE under daytime conditions. The Lloyd and Taylor (1994) function (Eq. 1) was fitted to the nighttime NEE data to gain the relationship between the ecosystem respiration rate and the temperature, according to the following equation:

$$R_{\text{eco}} = R_{\text{ref}} e^{E_0 \left( \frac{1}{T_{\text{ref}} - T_0} - \frac{1}{T_{\text{obs}} - T_0} \right)}, \quad (1)$$

where  $R_{\text{ref}}$  ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) represents the base respiration at the reference temperature  $T_{\text{ref}}$  set to 10 °C,  $E_0$  (°C) is temperature sensitivity,  $T_{\text{obs}}$  (°C) is the observed temperature, and the parameter  $T_0$  is set to -46.02 °C. During the night, the turbulence is very low, and errors in the measurements of fluxes are common. To overcome this uncertainty, the data used for the nonlinear optimization are the data measured when the friction velocity ( $u_*$ ) was above 0.25  $\text{m s}^{-1}$  (Baldocchi 2003). The GPP from the observation site was calculated as the sum of the measured NEE and the estimated  $R_{\text{eco}}$  (Yuan et al. 2007).

### 2.2 Ecosystem modeling

GPP is a measure of the  $\text{CO}_2$  exchange between the forest canopy and the atmosphere. This exchange is strongly influenced by plant characteristics and the mass, energy, and momentum transfer between the land surface and the overlying air. In this study, LAPS was used to simulate the land-canopy-atmosphere radiation exchanges, bare soil evaporation, and evapotranspiration (Mihailovic 1996). LAPS includes 12 vegetation types with 16 morphological and physiological plant characteristics and 11 soil textural classes (Mihailovic et al. 2002; Mihailovic 2003). Using seven prognostic equations, this scheme calculates three temperature variables (foliage, soil surface, and deep soil), one interception storage variable, and three soil moisture storage variables. The atmospheric boundary conditions at the reference level include the air temperature, water vapor pressure, wind speed, short-wave and long-wave radiation, precipitation, and  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration.

**Table 1** Characteristics of the forest EC measurement sites

| Dataset   | NSA-OBS  | SSA-OA              | HF-EMS  |
|---|--|---------------------|---|
| Latitude  | 55.88° N   | 53.63° N            | 42.54° N  |
| Longitude   | 98.48° W   | 106.20° W           | 72. 17° W   |
| Data (month/year)   | 06/1996  | 08/1996             | 07/2006   |
| Forest type   | Evergreen coniferous                                       | Deciduous broadleaf | Deciduous broadleaf   |
| Average canopy height (m)   | 10   | 21.5                | 24  |
| Average $LAI$ in vegetation period ( $\text{m}^2 \text{m}^{-2}$ ) | 1.9  | 2.7                 | 4   |
| Mean temperature (°C)   | -3.9   | 0.4                 | 8.1   |
| Annual precipitation (mm)   | 590  | 467                 | 1,100   |
| References  | Gower et al. 1997; Kimball et al. 1997; Misson et al. 2007 |                     | Munger and Wofsy 1999; Urbanski et al. 2007; Hadley et al. 2009 |

Energy fluxes are calculated following the resistance representation. The net radiation absorbed by the canopy and the soil is assumed to be partitioned into sensible heat, latent heat, and storage terms, as expressed in the following equations:

$$R_{nf} = \lambda E_f + H_f + C_f \partial T_f / \partial t, \quad (2)$$

$$R_{ng} = \lambda E_g + H_g + C_g \partial T_g / \partial t, \quad (3)$$

where the subscripts  $f$  and  $g$  refer to the foliage and soil, respectively,  $R_n$  is the net radiation ( $\text{W m}^{-2}$ ),  $\lambda$  is the latent heat of vaporization ( $\text{J kg}^{-1}$ ),  $\lambda E$  is the evapotranspiration flux ( $\text{W m}^{-2}$ ),  $H$  is the sensible heat flux ( $\text{W m}^{-2}$ ),  $C$  is the heat capacity per unit area ( $\text{J K}^{-1} \text{m}^{-2}$ ), and  $T$  is the surface temperature (K) (Sellers et al. 1986; Mihailovic 1996). The sensible and latent heat fluxes in Eqs. 2 and 3 are calculated as the sum of the following: (a) fluxes from the leaf level to the canopy air space (Eqs. A.1 and A.2), (b) fluxes from the ground to the canopy air space (Eqs. A.3 and A.4), and (c) fluxes from the canopy air space to the reference level above the vegetation (Eqs. A.5 and A.6), as presented in Appendix A.

Meteorological drivers, which are essential for running the biochemical photosynthesis model, the temperature, and humidity inside the canopy air space ( $T_a$  and  $e_a$  in Eqs. A.1–A.6) are calculated diagnostically (Sellers et al. 1986; Mihailovic 1996). The numerical procedure for calculating the leaf temperature ( $T_f$ ) and the ground surface temperature ( $T_{gs}$ ) (Eqs. A.1–A.6) based on an implicit backward method is presented in Mihailovic and Eitzinger (2007).

The leaf level photosynthesis rate of the canopy is calculated using a standard mechanistic model developed by Farquhar et al. (1980) and later expanded by von Caemmerer and Farquhar (1981) and Collatz et al. (1991, 1992). The rate of  $\text{CO}_2$  assimilation is the sum of the net photosynthesis ( $A_n$ ) and the leaf dark respiration ( $R_d$ ) (Eq. 4). The net photosynthesis is defined as the minimum of the Rubisco-limited rate of ribulose biphosphate (RuBP) carboxylation,  $A_c$  (Eq. 6), and the electron transport-limited rate of RuBP regeneration,  $A_j$  (Eq. 7), according to the following equations:

$$A = A_n - R_d, \quad (4)$$

$$A_n = \min(A_c, A_j), \quad (5)$$

$$A_c = V_m \frac{C_i - \Gamma^*}{C_i + K_c(1 + P_o/K_o)}, \quad (6)$$

$$A_j = J \frac{C_i - \Gamma^*}{4(C_i + 2\Gamma^*)}, \quad (7)$$

where  $C_i$  is the internal  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration (Pa),  $K_c = 30 \times 2.1^{Q/10}$  and  $K_o = 30,000 \times 1.2^{Q/10}$  are the Michaelis-Menten

constants (Pa) for  $\text{CO}_2$  and oxygen ( $\text{O}_2$ ), respectively,  $Q_{10} = 0.1(T_c - 298.16)$  is the functional dependency of the leaf temperature  $T_c$ ,  $\Gamma^* = 0.105 \times K_c P_o K_o^{-1}$  is the  $\text{CO}_2$  compensation point (Pa),  $P_o$  is the partial pressure of  $\text{O}_2$  in air,  $J$  is the electron transport rate of the leaf area ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ),  $V_m$  is the photosynthetic Rubisco capacity per unit of leaf area ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), and  $R_d = 0.0089 V_m$  is the daytime leaf dark respiration rate. The values of the biochemical parameters ( $V_m$ ,  $J$ ) have been calculated based on the vertical profiles of the leaf nitrogen content as explained in detail later in this paper.

GPP is calculated using Farquhar's model for the photosynthesis rate per unit of leaf surface, as given in Eqs. 4–7, and scaled up to the canopy level with one of two upscaling techniques, which are presented later in this paper. The input data for the GPP module are the following: the  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration and incoming radiation and micrometeorological elements inside the canopy air space calculated by LAPS (leaf temperature, humidity, stomatal and bulk canopy boundary layer resistance). The stomatal resistance is assumed to be a function of atmospheric factors (solar radiation, temperature, and water vapor pressure deficit) and water stress, as proposed by Jarvis (1976) and described in Mihailovic (1996).

### 2.3 Description of the simple SS upscaling method

The primary goal of upscaling in the context of the vegetation-atmosphere interaction is to provide a reliable procedure to calculate the variable of interest on the canopy level using data obtained on the leaf level. In the simple SS upscaling method, vegetation is considered as a homogenous layer of sunlit and shaded leaves evenly distributed with height. This assumption allows the integration of functions of photosynthetic parameters and equations of radiation absorption over the entire canopy layer with respect to the cumulated  $LAI$ . However, the forest canopy structure is far more complex than a single homogenous layer. Hence, the SS approach cannot consider, for example, the vertical distribution of leaves, thereby differentiating between deciduous and coniferous trees. To test the primary features of the SS upscaling method, Farquhar's model, presented in section 2.2, is used to calculate the leaf level photosynthesis with respect to the sunlit and shaded leaf fractions ( $f_{sun}$  and  $f_{sha}$ , respectively), according to the following equations:

$$f_{sun} = e^{-k_b LAI}, \quad (8)$$

$$f_{sha} = 1 - f_{sun}, \quad (9)$$

where  $k_b$  represents the beam radiation extinction coefficient taken as  $0.5/\cos\theta$  ( $\theta$  is the zenith angle).



A vast number of papers have been offered (Ingestad and Lund 1986; Norman 1993; Niu et al. 2005; Kimball et al. 1997) that show that  $V_m$  is linear with the leaf nitrogen content. Therefore, the decay of the nitrogen ( $N$ ) and leaf photosynthetic capacity ( $V_0$ ) can be expressed similar to that of the irradiance decay with the canopy layer depth, according to the following equation:

$$N = N_0 e^{-k_n LAI}, \tag{10}$$

where  $N_0$  is the concentration of nitrogen at the top of the canopy, and  $k_n$  is the leaf nitrogen content decay rate with canopy depth taken as 0.3, in accordance with de Pury and Farquhar (1997).

The leaf photosynthetic capacity  $V_0$  is a function of the ratio of the photosynthetic capacity to the leaf nitrogen  $\chi_n$  ( $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ), according to the following equation:

$$V_0 = \chi_n N. \tag{11}$$

With respect to Eqs. 8–9 and the sun and shaded fractions of the leaf area, we can write Eq. 11 in the form of the following equation:

$$\begin{aligned} V_{m,\text{sun}} &= \int_0^{L_c} V_0(L) f_{\text{sun}}(L) dL \\ &= L_c \chi_n N_0 \left[ \frac{1 - e^{-(k_n - k_b L_c)}}{k_n + k_b L_c} \right]. \end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

Integration is performed with respect to the cumulative  $LAI$  ( $L_c$ ), which is taken as a description of the canopy depth. Analogous to Eqs. 8–9, we can express the following:

$$V_{m,\text{sha}} = 1 - V_{m,\text{sun}}, \tag{13}$$

where  $V_{m,\text{sun}}$  and  $V_{m,\text{sha}}$  represent the photosynthetic Rubisco capacity of the sunlit and shaded fractions of the leaf area, respectively ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ).

The electron transport rate of the sunlit and shaded fractions of the leaf area ( $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) is also a function of the vertical nitrogen gradient, according to the following equation:

$$J_{m,\text{sun/sha}} = 29.1 + 1.6 V_{m,\text{sun/sha}}. \tag{14}$$

The radiation absorbed by the sun and shaded leaf fractions and integrated over the entire canopy is described in detail in de Pury and Farquhar (1997).

Finally, photosynthesis of both fractions is calculated with the corresponding parameters, according to the following equation:

$$A_{SS/\text{sun,sun}} = [\min(A_{c,\text{sun}}, A_{j,\text{sun}}) - R_{d,\text{sun}}] + [\min(A_{c,\text{sha}}, A_{j,\text{sha}}) - R_{d,\text{sha}}]. \tag{15}$$

## 2.4 Description of the SSL upscaling method

The SSL upscaling method is based on the combination of the SS upscaling method with a multilayer approach that considers the canopy structure. As a result, we can obtain the positive effects of both methods, which are the efficiency of the SS method and the physical accuracy of the multilayer canopy model. Application of the multilayer approach in the GPP calculation requires very detailed knowledge about the vegetation structure, the parameterization of photosynthesis and the vertical distribution of the photosynthetic active radiation (PAR) (Kotchenova et al. 2004). The  $\text{CO}_2$  and air temperature can be considered constant within the whole canopy layer (Calvet et al. 1998).

The forest canopy structure in environmental models is often described using the amount of leaves and stems, and their spatial distribution is represented by  $LAI$  and  $LAD$ , respectively. The relationship between  $LAI$  and  $LAD$  can be expressed in the following way:

$$LAI = \int_0^h LAD(z) dz. \tag{16}$$

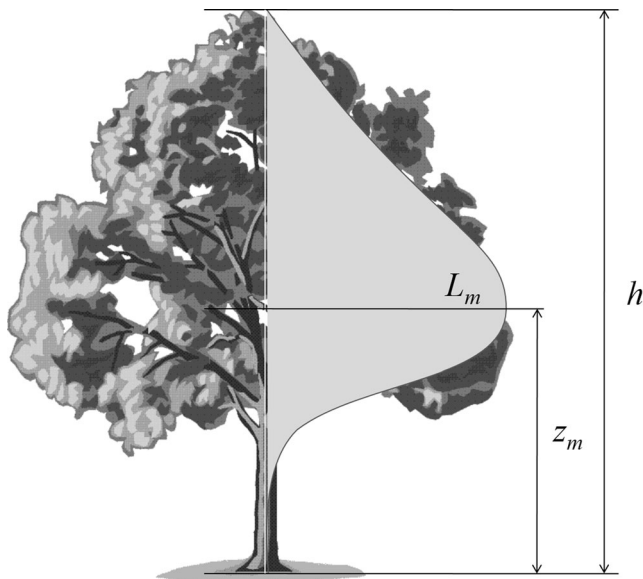
This formulation provides layers of integration as separate canopy layers, and  $LAD(z)$  provides a structural parameter that can express the vertical heterogeneity of the forest canopy.

The leaf area density profile is typically obtained from field observations (Kotchenova et al. 2004; Treuhart et al. 2002). This procedure made its use in SVAT schemes of different scales difficult. To avoid this problem, we used an empirical relation for  $LAD(z)$ , proposed by Lalic and Mihailovic (2004), in the form of the following equation:

$$LAD(z) = L_m \left( \frac{h - z_m}{h - z} \right)^n e^{n(1 - (h - z_m)/(h - z))}, \tag{17}$$

$$\text{where } n = \begin{cases} 6 & 0 \leq z < z_m \\ \frac{1}{2} & z_m \leq z \leq h \end{cases}.$$

The suggested relationship is based on the following primary forest canopy structural characteristics: tree height  $h$ , maximum value of  $LAD$   $L_m$ , and the corresponding height  $z_m$  (Mix et al. 1994; Law et al. 2001; Lalic and Mihailovic 2004) presented in Fig. 1. This formula can be applied over a broad range of forest canopies. The classification is based on the ratio between the  $z_m$  and  $h$  parameters as follows: (a)  $z_m/h=0.2$  for oak and silver birch, (b)  $0.2 < z_m/h < 0.4$  for common maple, and (c)  $z_m/h=0.4$  for pine (Kolic 1978).



**Fig. 1** Graphical presentation of  $LAD(z)$  with corresponding values used in Eqs. 16 and 17

The combination of the standard Lambert-Beer’s law describing radiation penetration through tall vegetation  $I(z) = I_0 \exp(-kLAI)$  and the leaf area density described in Eq. 15 provides a new radiation profile according to the following equation:

$$I(z) = I_0 e^{-k \int_h^z LAD(z) dz}, \tag{18}$$

where  $I(z)$  represents the PAR that reaches height  $z$  inside the canopy air space, and  $k = k' / \cos\theta$  where  $k'$  is the extinction coefficient depending on the forest type, and  $\theta$  is the zenith angle. A physically realistic radiation profile provides information about the forest canopy structure that can be used in further calculations (Bodin and Franklin 2012). The radiation profile from Eq. 18 was tested against 615 profiles of the PAR observed between 0800 and 1800 local mean time for 72 days at two locations in the Amazon forest, and the results are presented in Lalic et al. 2013.

In the SS upscaling method, the relationships representing the vertical fractions of the sunlit leaves and shaded leaves (Eqs. 8 and 9) are written as the exponential part of the Lambert-Beer’s law; therefore, they can be expressed as a function of  $LAD(z)$  according to the following equations:

$$f_{\text{sun}}(z) = e^{-k \int_h^z LAD(z) dz}, \tag{19}$$

$$f_{\text{sha}}(z) = 1 - f_{\text{sun}}(z). \tag{20}$$

If we know the relationships for the fractions of the sunlit and shaded leaves, we can easily determine the sunlit and shaded leaf area indices as a function of  $LAD(z)$  according to the following equations:

$$LAI_{\text{sun}} = \int_0^{L_c} f_{\text{sun}}(L) dL = \int_0^{L_c} e^{-k \int_h^z LAD(z) dz} dL, \tag{21}$$

and

$$LAI_{\text{sha}} = LAI - LAI_{\text{sun}}. \tag{22}$$

The radiation profiles of the sunlit ( $I_{\text{sun}}$ ) and shaded ( $I_{\text{sha}}$ ) leaf irradiance values used in the SS model developed by de Pury and Farquhar (1997), which are based on the multilayer radiation model, are expressed in this study according to the following equations:

$$I_{\text{sun}} = \int_0^{L_c} I_{\text{beam}} e^{-k_b \int_h^z LAD(z) dz} dL + \int_0^{L_c} I_{\text{diff}} e^{-k_d \int_h^z LAD(z) dz} dL + \int_0^{L_c} I_{\text{sca}} e^{-k_s \int_h^z LAD(z) dz} dL, \tag{23}$$

and

$$I_{\text{sha}} = \int_0^{L_c} I_{\text{diff}} e^{-k_d \int_h^z LAD(z) dz} dL + \int_0^{L_c} I_{\text{sca}} e^{-k_s \int_h^z LAD(z) dz} dL, \tag{24}$$

where  $I_{\text{beam}}$ ,  $I_{\text{diff}}$ , and  $I_{\text{sca}}$  are the radiation profiles of beam, diffuse, and scattered radiation, respectively. The radiation profiles are calculated using Eq. 19, with parameter  $k$  associated with a certain type of radiation according to de Pury and Farquhar (1997).

The set of equations present in the SS scaling method representing the vertical profiles of the photosynthetic parameters are defined with the relationship in the form of Eq. 15. The leaf nitrogen profile,  $N(z)$ , can be written according to the following equation:

$$N(z) = N_0 e^{-k_n LAI} = N_0 e^{-k_n \int_h^z LAD(z) dz}. \tag{25}$$

Using the relationship between  $N(z)$  and  $V_m$  present in the SS method, the following expression can be written:

$$V_m(z) = \chi_n N(z). \tag{26}$$

where  $V_{m,\text{sun}}$  and  $V_{m,\text{sha}}$  are functions of the crown shape defined by  $LAD(z)$  according to the following equations:

$$V_{m,\text{sun}} = \int_0^{L_c} V_m(L) f_{\text{sun}}(L) dL$$

$$= \int_0^{L_c} \chi_n N_0 e^{-k_n \int_h^z LAD(z) dz} e^{-k \int_h^z LAD(z) dz} dL, \tag{27}$$

$$V_{m,\text{sha}} = 1 - V_{m,\text{sun}}. \tag{28}$$

The SSL upscaling method is based on the use of profiles of the sun and shade fractions of irradiance ( $I_{\text{sun}}$  and  $I_{\text{sha}}$ , respectively), the profile of nitrogen ( $N(z)$ ), and the photosynthetic capacity ( $V_{m,\text{sun}}$  and  $V_{m,\text{sha}}$ ) in numerical integrations to calculate the assimilation of the leaf surface in the volume having a height of  $h_i$ . The contribution of every integration layer, incorporating the tree crown shape into the upscaling process, can be written according to the following equation:

$$A_{\text{SSL}} / \text{sum, sun} = \sum_{i=1}^N \{ [\min(A_{c,\text{sun}}, A_{j,\text{sun}}) - R_{d,\text{sun}}] + [\min(A_{c,\text{sha}}, A_{j,\text{sha}}) - R_{d,\text{sha}}] \}_{\text{layer}}(h_i). \tag{29}$$

## 2.5 Sensitivity tests

### 2.5.1 The impact of the forest canopy structure on the GPP

To examine the impact of the forest canopy structure on the GPP upscaled by the SSL scaling method, a sensitivity test with different  $LAD(z)$  values was performed; the GPP is calculated using a set of meteorological data specific for midday without clouds on the HF-EMS site. Photosynthetically active radiation is set to be  $1,500 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , the temperature is set to  $20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , the partial pressure of  $\text{CO}_2$  in the canopy air space is set to  $38 \text{ Pa}$ , the relative humidity is set to  $65 \%$ , the atmospheric pressure is set to  $10^5 \text{ Pa}$ , and the  $LAI$  is set to  $3.5 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^2$ . To include different vertical structures of the forest canopy, parameter  $z_m$  is changed from  $0.1 h$  to  $0.9 h$  in steps of  $0.1$  in which  $h$  is the forest height set to  $25 \text{ m}$ . Figure 2 shows the GPP values calculated using the SSL upscaling technique for different sun and shaded irradiance profiles (the sun fraction is on the left panel) and  $LAD$  profiles (right panel). This figure shows that changes in  $LAD(z)$  (varying  $z_m$  from  $0.1 h$  to  $0.9 h$ ) result in GPP changes by  $7 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , indicating that small changes in the canopy structure can produce noticeable changes in the upscaled GPP using the SSL method.

Therefore, it is accurate to assume that when used in environmental and land-atmosphere gas exchange models, the SSL upscaling method can make a difference in the case of long-term simulations by avoiding systematic errors, such as the overestimation or underestimation

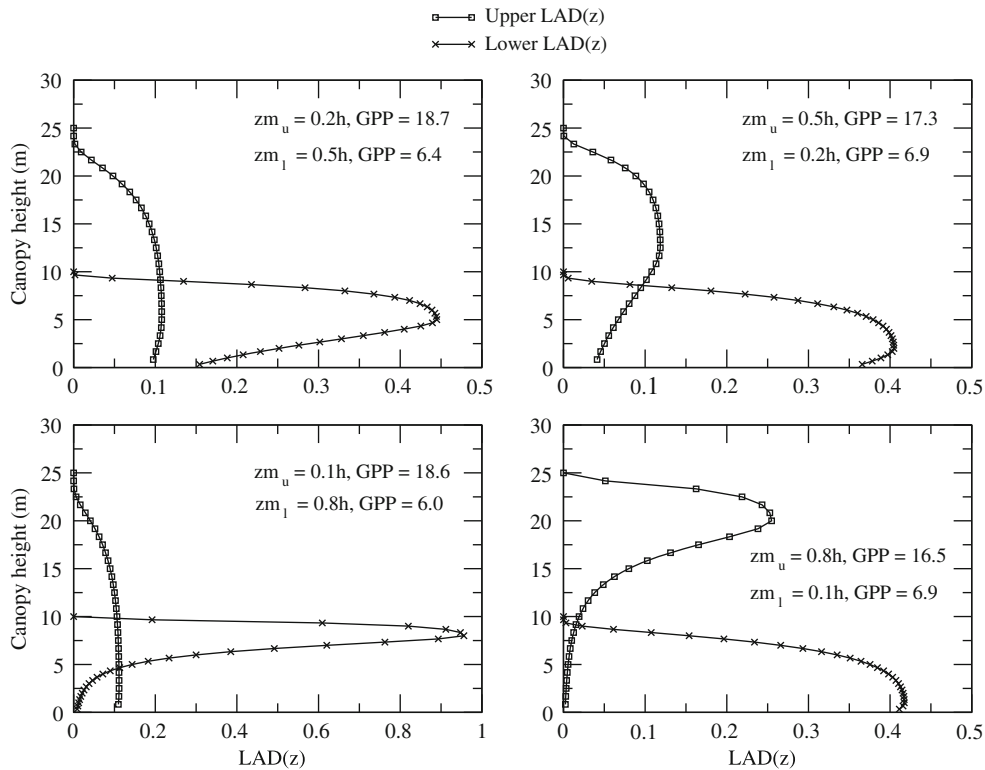
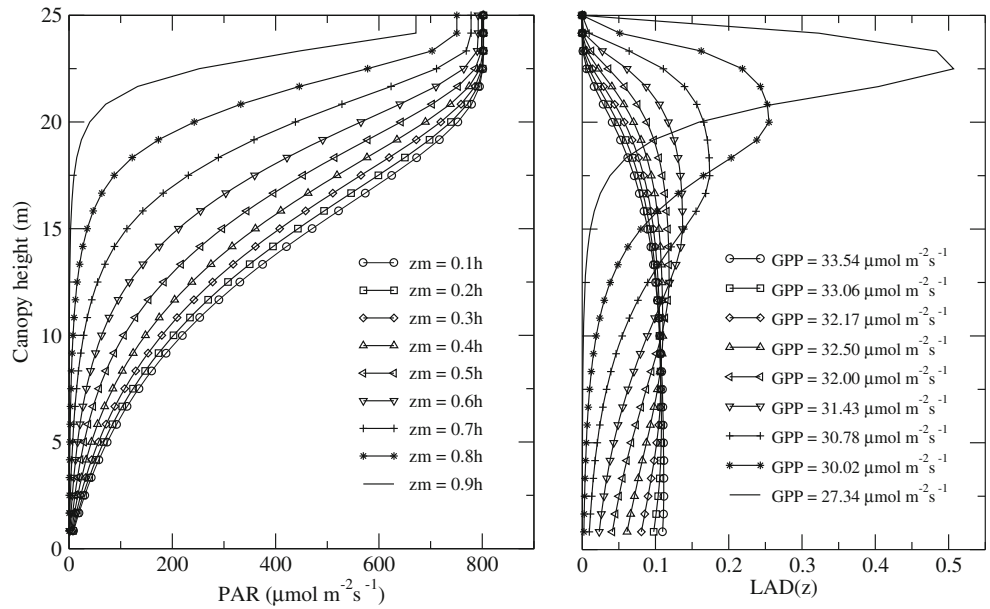
of the GPP. For short-term simulations, changes in forest foliage density, presented with different vertical profiles of  $LAD(z)$ , can represent different forest management practices, such as the thinning of the forest. This procedure can change the amount of irradiance penetrating the forest canopy layer and result in an increasing GPP. From a modeler’s viewpoint, the consequent changes can be easily performed by changing the parameter  $z_m$ .

### 2.5.2 Impact of the forest canopy structure on GPP partitioning

The vertical distribution of  $LAI$  described with the  $LAD(z)$  function provides the opportunity to simulate the canopy vertical heterogeneity in terms of different species dominating the upper and lower parts of the forest. The SSL upscaling method was tested for its capability to partition the GPP on the upper and lower forest floor. A sensitivity test was performed according to settings from the 2.5.1 sensitivity tests. For the upperstory ( $LAI_{\text{upper}}$ ) and understory ( $LAI_{\text{under}}$ ), we used different values of  $LAI$  set at 2 and 3, respectively. We assumed a constant temperature and  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration inside the canopy air space.

Figure 3 depicts the impact of upperstory and lowerstory partitioning on the calculated GPP. A uniformly distributed leaf area produces a larger GPP in both the upper and lower stories, whereas flux partitioning related to the canopy architecture provides a positive answer to

**Fig. 2** Beam PAR vertical profiles (left panel) with the corresponding  $LAD(z)$  profiles and the calculated GPP (right panel) for the different  $z_m$  values



**Fig. 3**  $LAD(z)$  profiles for the upperstory and understorey vegetation with the corresponding GPP ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ )



the question: “Is there optimal canopy architecture for the maximization of the CO<sub>2</sub> uptake?” (Song et al. 2012). The SSL upscaling method demonstrated that the optimal architecture is characterized by a uniform distribution of canopy leaves. Figure 3 shows that a denser vegetation in the overstory does not have a significant influence on the understory GPP, which can be up to 40 % of the total GPP; this result has also been observed by Misson et al. (2007).

### 3 Results and discussion

#### 3.1 Validation of the LAPS and GPP simulations

To investigate the performance of LAPS in calculating meteorological drivers for GPP simulations, the scheme was coupled with the basic Farquhar’s GPP module scaled up with the SS approach. The coupled model was validated using 1 month of hourly data collected during the vegetation period from the HF-EMS site (Table 1). An important feature of the HF-EMS site is the uniform distribution of the homogenous forest canopy, making it ideal for the application of the SS scaling method. This location is chosen to avoid errors in simulations caused because of the vertical heterogeneity of vegetation.

The computed values of the temperature, relative humidity, sensible heat flux, latent heat flux, and GPP are plotted against the observed values from the EC tower (Fig. 4). The comparison showed a small dispersion and a large correlation coefficient for all of the presented values. However, a slight deviation can be identified in the calculation of the latent heat flux,  $\lambda E$  (Fig. 4d), in which the calculated values are systematically higher than the observed values. Micrometeorological variables calculated using LAPS along with the concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> and PAR were used for the calculation of GPP, as presented in sections 2.2, 2.3, and 2.4 (Fig. 4e). The vegetation parameters used in the simulations can be found in Table 2. The GPP comparison study (Fig. 4e) demonstrates a high performance of the SS upscaling method and justifies the rationale for using the SS approach as a theoretical basis for the development of the SSL upscaling method.

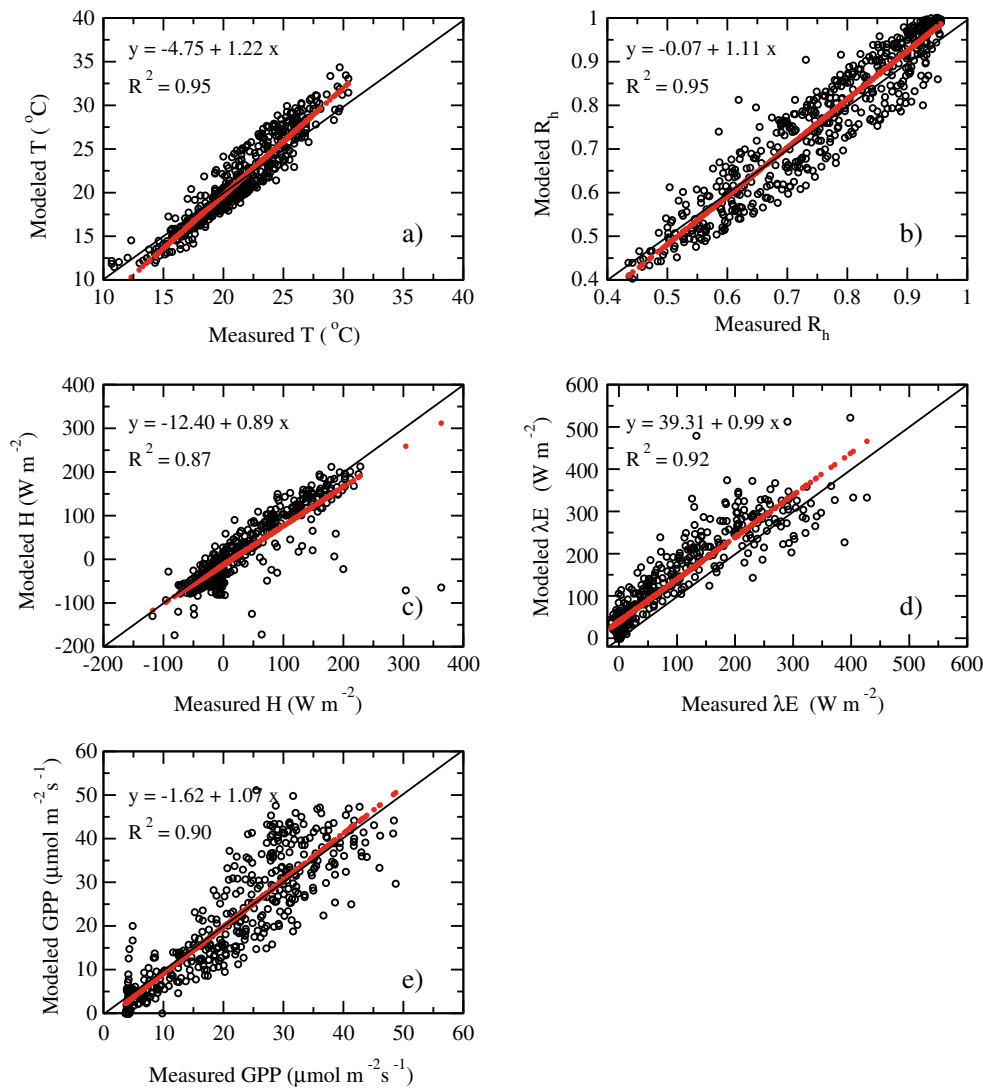
#### 3.2 Comparison of the SS and SSL upscaling methods

The impact of the proposed SSL method for upscaling the leaf level photosynthesis rate to the forest level was tested against the standard SS approach on three forest EC sites, as presented in section 2.1. The site characteristics are

given in Table 1; the morphological and biophysical characteristics used in the calculations are given in Table 2. To quantify the validity of the GPP calculation and the impact of the upscaling method on the calculated GPP values, we performed an error analysis based on the methodology employed by Pielke (1984) and Mahfouf (1990). This error analysis employs the calculation of the root-mean squared error (RMSE,  $\nu$ ) of the daily values of the GPP for the SS ( $\nu_{SS}$ ) and SSL ( $\nu_{SSL}$ ) upscaling methods along with the standard deviations (SD,  $\sigma$ ) of the observed ( $\sigma_o$ ) and simulated data ( $\sigma_{SS}$ ,  $\sigma_{SSL}$ ). According to the abovementioned authors, the simulation is performed more realistically if the following conditions are met: (a)  $\nu$  is less than  $\sigma_o$  and (b)  $\sigma$  is close to  $\sigma_o$ . The results of the comparison between the calculated GPP scaled up with the SS and SSL methods, and the observed values along with the error analysis of the daily values for the three sites are presented in Figs 5, 6, and 7.

From the HF-EMS site, we used a continuous set of data from the 152 to the 181 days of year (DOY) (Munger and Wofsy 1999). The results presented in Fig. 5 show small differences in the GPP upscaled value using the SS and SSL methods. This result is primarily because the homogenous vegetation layer is dominated by red oak (*Quercus rubra*). The parameter  $z_m$ , which defines the forest structure in the  $LAD(z)$  profile, is set to 0.7 h for this site. In this case, the impact of the canopy structure on the GPP calculation is unclear. Differences can be identified when the radiation inside the vegetation layer is overestimated using the SS approach, causing an overestimation in the GPP calculation. The reason for the overestimation of the Beer’s law-based irradiance profiles has been described in detail by Lalic et al. 2013. Additionally, special attention should be devoted to the small values of the GPP measured at the end of the period of interest (the last 7 days). During these days, we can observe that both approaches failed to accurately reproduce the GPP values. The error analysis performed for this site shows the following: (a)  $\nu_{SSL}$  was greater than  $\nu_{SS}$  for only 3 days, (b)  $\sigma_{SSL}$  was closer to  $\sigma_o$  than  $\sigma_{SS}$  in 50 % of the cases, and (c)  $\nu_{SSL}$  was greater than  $\sigma_o$  in only three cases. The range of errors, the maximal values of RMSE and SD, and the corresponding DOY are given in Table 3.

We used a continuous set of data collected from the 196 to 218 DOY to exclude the days without data from the NSA-OBS site (Newcomer et al. 2000). The difficulty in using the SS approach at this site originates from the nonhomogeneous vertical structure of the



**Fig. 4** The measured and modeled values of **a** temperature T, **b** relative humidity  $R_h$ , **c** sensible heat flux H, **d** latent heat flux  $\lambda E$ , and **e** GPP for the HF-EMS site

evergreen conifers forest dominated with old black spruce (*Picea mariana*). Parameter  $z_m$ , which describes the forest structure in the  $LAD(z)$  profile, is set to 0.8 h for this site. The high density of the vegetation and the emphasized vertical canopy structure has a significant impact on the results obtained using the SSL upscaling method. The results of the error analysis presented in Fig. 6 show the following: (a)  $\nu_{SSL}$  was greater than  $\nu_{SS}$  for only 7 days, (b)  $\sigma_{SSL}$  was closer to  $\sigma_o$  than  $\sigma_{SS}$  in 70 % of the cases, and (c)  $\nu_{SSL}$  was greater than  $\sigma_o$  for only four cases. We also noted that the use of the SS method produces overestimated values of the GPP, which can be explained by the omitted impact of the forest structure on the GPP calculation. This impact is

less evident in cases in which there is a sudden shift in the measured values (i.e., days 205 and 216) when the error of the SS approach is smaller because of overestimation. In the case of the NSA-OBS site, the range of errors, the maximal values of RMSE and SD, and the corresponding DOY are given in Table 3.

From the SSA-OA site, we used a continuous set of data collected from the 213 to 243 DOY (Newcomer et al. 2000). This site is characterized by strong understory vegetation. The overstory is predominantly aspen (*Populus tremuloides* Michx), whereas the understory is primarily composed of hazelnut (*Corylus cornuta* Marsh) that is approximately 2 m tall. Parameter  $z_m$  for this forest is set to 0.85 h because of the dense

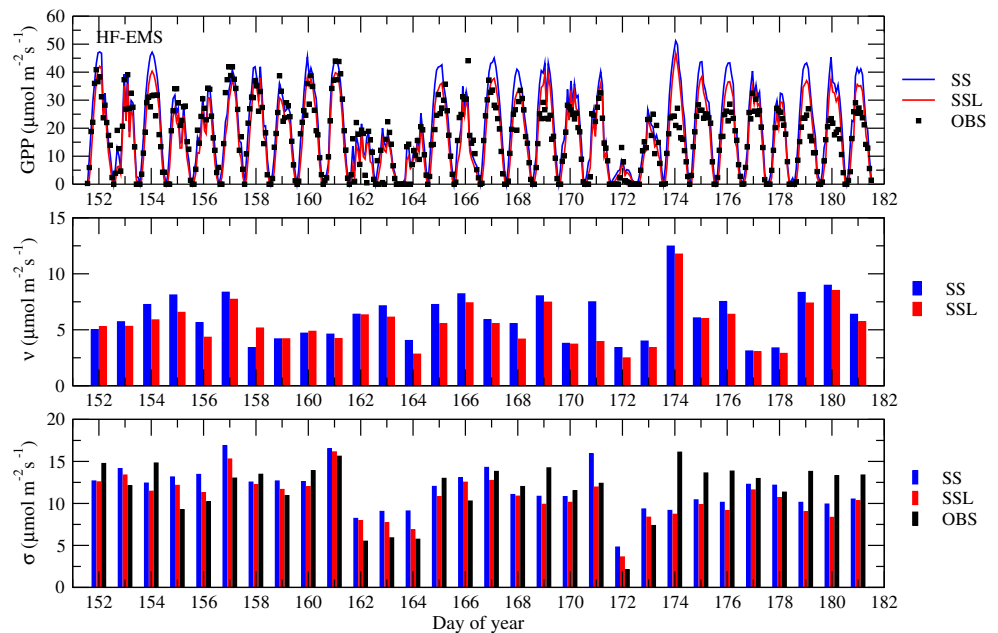
**Table 2** The values of the biochemical, morphological, and aerodynamic characteristics used in the numerical experiments for the two land cover types in this study

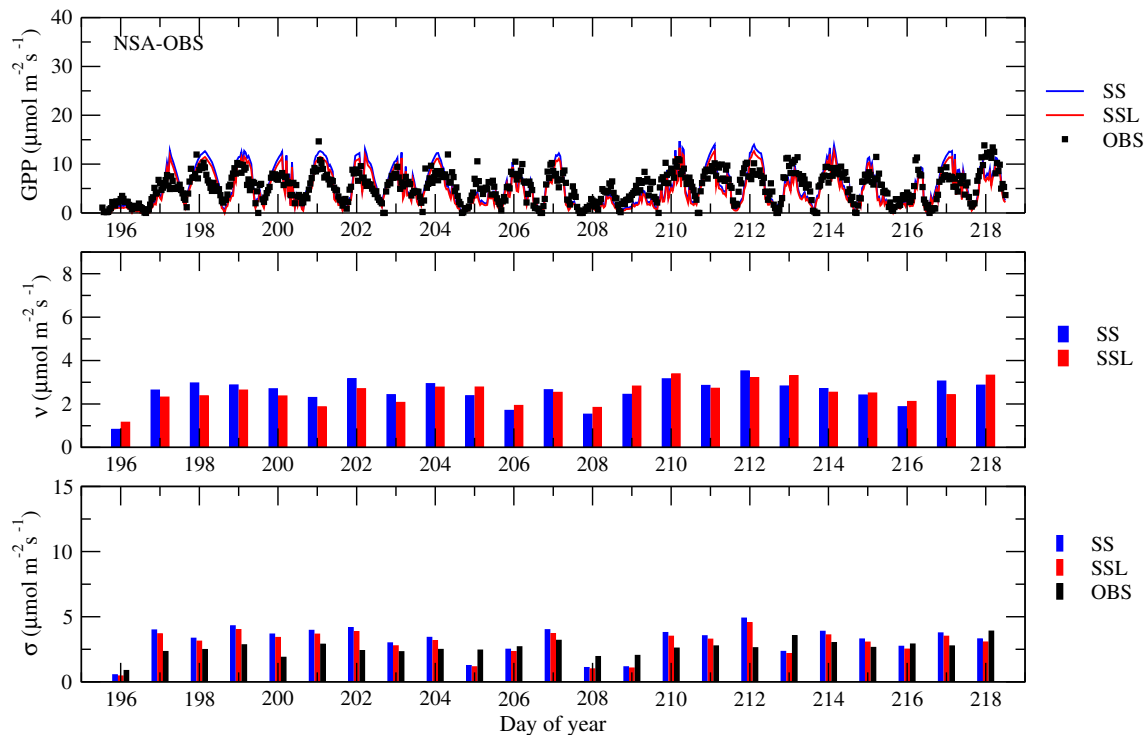
| Parameters  | Broadleaf deciduous | Evergreen conifers | References   |
|---|---------------------|--------------------|--|
| <b>Biochemical parameters</b>   |                     |                    |  |
| Maximal carboxylation capacity, $V_{\text{cmax}}$ ( $\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ at 25 °C) | 57.7±21.2           | 62.5±24.7          | Wullschleger 1993; Medlyn et al. 1999; Niu et al. 2005; Kattge et al. 2009 |
| Leaf nitrogen content, $N_0$ ( $\text{g m}^{-2}$ )  | 1.74+0.71           | 3.10+1.35          | Kattge et al. 2009   |
| Ratio of photosynthetic capacity to leaf nitrogen, $\chi_n$ ( $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$ )      | 0.59                | 0.33               |  |
| <b>Morphological and aerodynamic characteristics</b>  |                     |                    |  |
| Canopy bottom height, $h_b$ (m)   | 6                   | 5                  | LAPS vegetation parameters   |
| Foliage emissivity $\epsilon_f$   | 0.95                | 0.97               | Campbell and Norman 1998   |
| Displacement height, $d$ (m)  | 0.8                 | 0.6                | LAPS vegetation parameters   |
| Fractional cover, $\sigma_{fc}$   | 0.8                 | 0.9                | LAPS vegetation parameters   |
| Effective roughness length, $z_g$ (m)   | 0.005               | 0.005              | LAPS vegetation parameters   |
| Roughness length, $z_0$ (m)   | 0.8                 | 1.1                | Campbell and Norman 1998   |

understory, which does not allow the radiation to penetrate to the soil surface. In this case, the forest architecture strongly influences the surface fluxes and the GPP. The results of the error analysis are presented in Fig. 7. Compared with the HF-EMS and NSA-OBS sites, the results obtained are strongly influenced by the canopy architecture and layers. Figure 7 shows the following: (a) for seven out of 30 days, the  $\nu_{\text{SSL}}$  was greater than the  $\nu_{\text{SS}}$ , (b)  $\sigma_{\text{SSL}}$  was closer to  $\sigma_o$  than  $\sigma_{\text{SS}}$  in 75 % of the cases, and (c)  $\nu_{\text{SSL}}$  was greater than  $\sigma_o$  for only 1 day (Table 3).

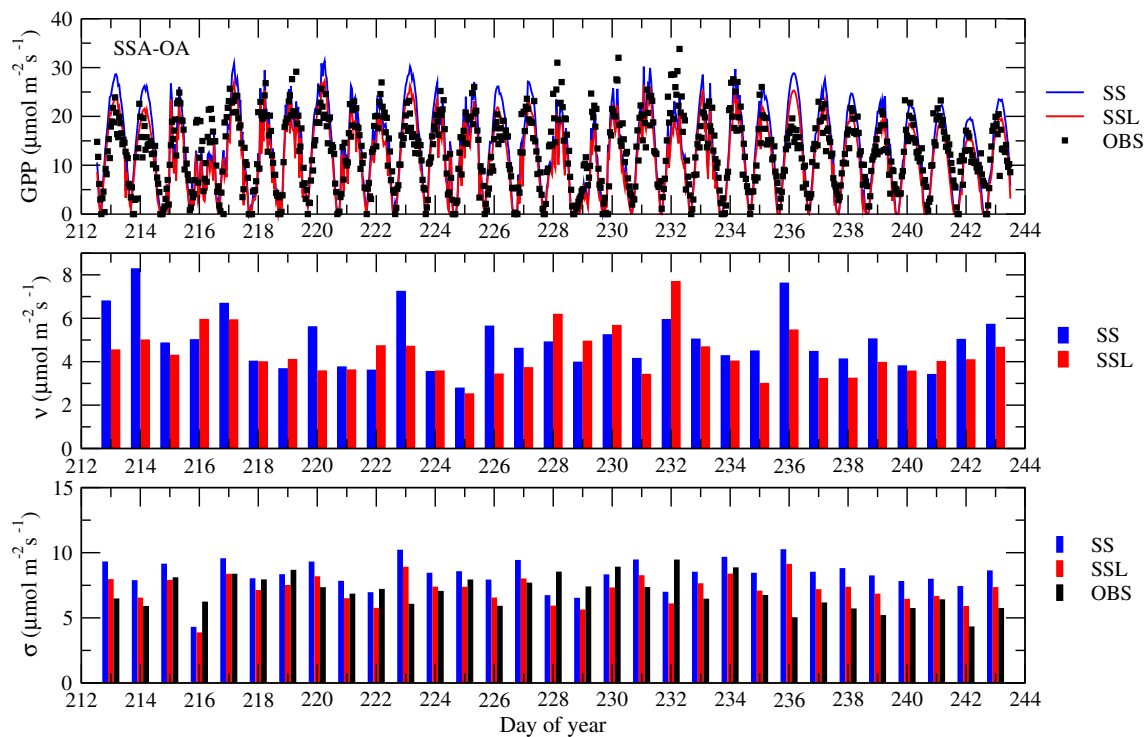
The calculations for the SSA-OA site demonstrated the SSL scaling efficiency in calculating the GPP of the highly heterogeneous forest canopy with different layers. From a structural viewpoint, the GPP at the SSA-OA site can be represented as the sum of the GPP gained with the upper vegetation and the contribution of the lower vegetation. The problem of canopy flux partitioning is easily solved with the SSL type of upscaling, as presented in section 2.5, which explains why the SS upscaling method produces an overestimation of the GPP on all three sites.

**Fig. 5** The GPP ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) observed (OBS) and upscaled using the SS and SSL methods (first plot), followed by the error analysis with RMSE ( $\nu_{\text{SS}}$  and  $\nu_{\text{SSL}}$ ) (second plot) and the standard deviation of the simulated ( $\sigma_{\text{SS}}$ ,  $\sigma_{\text{SSL}}$ ) and observed ( $\sigma_o$ ) data (third plot) for the HF-EMS site





**Fig. 6** The GPP ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) observed (*OBS*) and upscaled using the SS and SSL methods (*first plot*), followed by the error analysis with RMSE ( $\nu_{\text{SS}}$  and  $\nu_{\text{SSL}}$ ) (*second plot*) and the standard deviation of the simulated ( $\sigma_{\text{SS}}$ ,  $\sigma_{\text{SSL}}$ ) and observed ( $\sigma_o$ ) data (*third plot*) for the NSA-OBS site



**Fig. 7** The GPP ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) observed (*OBS*) and upscaled using the SS and SSL methods (*first plot*), followed by the error analysis with RMSE ( $\nu_{\text{SS}}$  and  $\nu_{\text{SSL}}$ ) (*second plot*) and the standard deviation of the simulated ( $\sigma_{\text{SS}}$ ,  $\sigma_{\text{SSL}}$ ) and observed ( $\sigma_o$ ) data (*third plot*) for the SSA-OA site

**Table 3** Statistical parameters (RMSE in  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , SD in  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ), their range, and the corresponding DOY

| Statistical parameters | HF-EMS   |          | NSA-OBS |         | SSA-OA  |         |
|------------------------|----------|----------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Upscaling method       | SS       | SSL      | SS      | SSL     | SS      | SSL     |
| Range of RMSE          | 3.1–9.0  | 4.2–10.0 | 0.8–3.2 | 1.2–3.3 | 2.8–7.6 | 2.5–6.2 |
| Maximal RMSE           | 12.5     | 11.1     | 3.5     | 3.4     | 8.3     | 7.7     |
| Day of max RMSE        | 174      | 174      | 212     | 210     | 214     | 236     |
| Range of SD            | 4.8–16.5 | 3.6–15.4 | 0.5–4.3 | 0.4–4.0 | 4.3–9.6 | 3.8–8.8 |
| Maximal SD             | 16.9     | 16.3     | 4.9     | 4.5     | 10.2    | 9.0     |
| Day of max SD          | 157      | 161      | 212     | 212     | 236     | 236     |
| Range of SD observed   | 2.4–16.7 |          | 0.9–3.5 |         | 4.6–9.4 |         |
| Maximal SD observed    | 16.8     |          | 3.9     |         | 9.5     |         |
| Day of max SD observed | 161      |          | 218     |         | 215     |         |

#### 4 Conclusions and discussions

The primary goal of this study was to improve the actual SS upscaling method for the GPP calculation on the canopy level by introducing vertical heterogeneity of the forest canopy and the appropriate vertical profile of solar radiation. We considered and discussed the profiles of the solar radiation and leaf area density distribution and their impact on the parameterization of the  $\text{CO}_2$  exchange between the forest canopy and the atmosphere in coupled land-atmosphere schemes for environmental modeling. Improvement of the actual SS upscaling method is achieved by the introduction of vertical heterogeneity of the forest canopy and the appropriate vertical profile of the solar radiation. This goal was implemented through the following steps:

1. The existing SVAT scheme, LAPS, was coupled with Farquhar's biophysical model to calculate the leaf level photosynthesis rate;
2. The canopy GPP was calculated using the SS and SSL upscaling methods. The SSL method is designed based on the SS method and is upgraded by the introduction of the more realistic physical profiles of  $\text{PAR}(z)$  and  $\text{LAD}(z)$  to account for the vertical heterogeneity of the forest canopy structure;
3. The calculated GPP is compared with observations to test the introduced assumptions.

The obtained results indicate the following:

1. For all of the sites, the SSL approach produced smaller errors in the GPP calculation with smaller maximal errors.
2. The standard deviation of the data gain with the SSL approach was closer to the standard deviation of the observed data for all of the sites.

These results imply that the suggested SSL upscaling method is quite realistic in simulating GPP and the canopy

structure impact on the simulated GPP. The simplicity behind the SSL method enables its general use, particularly because it includes the standard SS approach to parameterization. These characteristics of the SSL approach make it suitable for long-term climatic simulations or short-term ecological or forest management simulations. This approach also provides insight into the influence of the different canopy structures, flooring, densities, and disturbance to the total ecosystem GPP simulations.

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#### Appendix A

##### Flux partitioning in LAPS

1. Fluxes from the leaf level to the canopy air space are represented in the following equations:

$$H_c = \rho c_p \frac{2(T_c - T_a)}{r_b}, \quad (\text{A.1})$$

$$\lambda E_c = (e_*(T_c) - e_a) \frac{\rho c_p}{\gamma} \left( \frac{W_c}{r_b} + \frac{1 - W_c}{r_b + r_c} \right), \quad (\text{A.2})$$

where  $c$  refers to the canopy, and the other values are  $\rho$ , air density ( $\text{kg m}^{-3}$ );  $C_p$ , specific heat of the air at constant pressure ( $\text{J kg}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$ );  $\gamma$ , the psychrometric constant ( $\text{hPa K}^{-1}$ );  $T_c$ , leaf temperature (K);  $T_a$ , temperature of the canopy air space (K);  $r_b$ , bulk canopy boundary layer resistance ( $\text{s m}^{-1}$ ); and  $r_c$  is the bulk canopy stomatal resistance ( $\text{s m}^{-1}$ );  $e_*(T_c)$  saturated vapor pressure for the



canopy temperature (hPa);  $e_a$ , vapor pressure inside the canopy air space (hPa);  $W_c$ , part of the vegetation wet surface; and  $\lambda$  is the latent heat of evaporation.

2. Fluxes from the ground to the canopy air space are represented in the following equations:

$$H_{gs} = \rho c_p \frac{2(T_{gs} - T_a)}{r_d}, \quad (\text{A.3})$$

$$\lambda E_{gs} = \frac{(\alpha_s e_s(T_{gs}) - e_a) \rho c_p}{r_b + r_d} \frac{1}{\gamma}, \quad (\text{A.4})$$

where  $gs$  refers to the ground surface; the other values are  $T_{gs}$ , ground surface temperature;  $e_s(T_{gs})$ , saturated vapor pressure for the ground surface temperature;  $r_d$  is the aerodynamic resistance between the soil surface and the canopy air space ( $\text{s m}^{-1}$ ); and  $\alpha_s$  is the soil wetness factor (Mihailovic et al. 1995).

3. Fluxes from the canopy air space to the reference level above vegetation are represented in the following equations:

$$H_r = H_c + H_{gs} = \rho c_p \frac{(T_a - T_r)}{r_a}, \quad (\text{A.5})$$

$$\lambda E_r = \lambda E_c + \lambda E_{gs} = \frac{\rho c_p}{\gamma} \frac{(e_a - e_r)}{r_a}, \quad (\text{A.6})$$

where  $r$  is the reference level; the other values are  $T_r$ , air temperature at the reference level;  $e_r$ , vapor pressure at the reference level above the vegetation; and  $r_a$  is the aerodynamic resistance ( $\text{s m}^{-1}$ ).

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