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4-6-2016

Global parameterization and validation of a twoleaf light use efficiency model for predicting gross primary production across FLUXNET sites

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Recommended Citation

Zhou, Y., et al. (2016), Global parameterization and validation of a two-leaf light use efficiency model for predicting gross primary production across FLUXNET sites, J. Geophys. Res. Biogeosci., 121, 1045–1072, doi:10.1002/2014JG002876.

This material is based upon work supported by the National Science Foundation through the Florida Coastal Everglades Long-Term Ecological Research program under Cooperative Agreements [#DBI-0620409](http://www.nsf.gov/awardsearch/showAward.do?AwardNumber=0620409) and [#DEB-9910514](http://www.nsf.gov/awardsearch/showAward.do?AwardNumber=9910514). Any opinions, findings, conclusions, or recommendations expressed in the material are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily reflect the views of the National Science Foundation. This work is brought to you for free and open access by the FCE LTER at FIU Digital Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in FCE LTER Journal Articles by an authorized administrator of FIU Digital Commons. For more information, please contact [dcc@fiu.edu, jkrefft@fiu.edu.](mailto:dcc@fiu.edu,%20jkrefft@fiu.edu)

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[Journal of Geophysical Research: Biogeosciences](http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/journal/10.1002/(ISSN)2169-8961)

RESEARCH ARTICLE

[10.1002/2014JG002876](http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/2014JG002876)

Key Points:

- TL-LUE performed in general better than commonly used MOD17 algorithm
- Tight relationships between LUE of sunlit and shaded leaves with LUE of MOD17
- Lower sensitivity of TL-LUE to PAR input data than that of MOD17

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Citation:

Zhou, Y., et al. (2016), Global parameterization and validation of a two-leaf light use efficiency model for predicting gross primary production across FLUXNET sites, J. Geophys. Res. Biogeosci., 121, 1045–1072, doi:10.1002/ 2014JG002876.

Received 9 DEC 2014 Accepted 2 DEC 2015 Accepted article online 7 DEC 2015 Published online 6 APR 2016

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Global parameterization and validation of a two-leaf light use efficiency model for predicting gross primary production across FLUXNET sites

JGR

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Abstract Light use efficiency (LUE) models are widely used to simulate gross primary production (GPP). However, the treatment of the plant canopy as a big leaf by these models can introduce large uncertainties in simulated GPP. Recently, a two-leaf light use efficiency (TL-LUE) model was developed to simulate GPP separately for sunlit and shaded leaves and has been shown to outperform the big-leaf MOD17 model at six FLUX sites in China. In this study we investigated the performance of the TL-LUE model for a wider range of biomes. For this we optimized the parameters and tested the TL-LUE model using data from 98 FLUXNET sites which are distributed across the globe. The results showed that the TL-LUE model performed in general better than the MOD17 model in simulating 8 day GPP. Optimized maximum light use efficiency of shaded leaves $(\varepsilon_{\rm msh})$ was 2.63 to 4.59 times that of sunlit leaves ($\varepsilon_{\rm msh}$). Generally, the relationships of $\varepsilon_{\rm msh}$ and $\varepsilon_{\rm msh}$ with $\varepsilon_{\rm max}$

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were well described by linear equations, indicating the existence of general patterns across biomes. GPP simulated by the TL-LUE model was much less sensitive to biases in the photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) input than the MOD17 model. The results of this study suggest that the proposed TL-LUE model has the potential for simulating regional and global GPP of terrestrial ecosystems, and it is more robust with regard to usual biases in input data than existing approaches which neglect the bimodal within-canopy distribution of PAR.

1. Introduction

Gross primary productivity (GPP) is a key component of the terrestrial carbon cycle and a principal indicator for biosphere carbon fluxes [Zhang et al., 2009; Yuan et al., 2010]. The reliable estimation of GPP is a prerequisite for accurately determining carbon sequestration rates by terrestrial ecosystems [Sakamoto et al., 2011]. GPP at the ecosystem level can be estimated with good accuracy from measurements of $CO₂$ fluxes at eddy covariance towers [Baldocchi, 2003]. At regional and global scales, GPP can be calculated by a number of ecosystem models [Foley et al., 1996; Liu et al., 1997; Beer et al., 2010; Ryu et al., 2011]. The application of process-based ecosystem models is constrained by the requirements of many model drivers and parameters. In contrast, light use efficiency (LUE) models, which calculate GPP as the product of absorbed photosynthetically active radiation (APAR) and LUE, require fewer inputs and are computationally less demanding and easy to parameterize [Prince and Goward, 1995; Running et al., 2004; Yuan et al., 2007]. Therefore, these models have been more and more widely used to calculate regional and global GPP. For example, through combining remotely sensed leaf area index (LAI) and distributed climate data, the MOD17 model is able to produce the global GPP product (MOD17A2) in near real time.

Most widely used LUE models, such as Carnegie-Ames-Stanford approach [Potter et al., 1993], the MOD17 algorithm [Running et al., 2004], Vegetation Photosynthesis Model [Xiao et al., 2004], eddy covariance (EC)-LUE [Yuan et al., 2007], and Greenness and Radiation models [Gitelson et al., 2006; Wu et al., 2011], treat the vegetation canopy as a big leaf with a simple mathematical form assuming that GPP linearly increases with incoming photosynthetically active radiation (PAR). However, in fact, GPP is not always linearly increasing with incoming PAR. Different groups of leaves (sunlit and shaded) within the plant canopy have different levels of exposure to direct sunlight and consequently different LUE values [De Pury and Farquhar, 1997; Wang and Leuning, 1998; Chen et al., 1999; Friend, 2001]. Sunlit leaves (which simultaneously absorb both direct and diffuse radiation) are easily light saturated, leading to low LUE ($\varepsilon_{\rm msu}$) values [Gu et al., 2002]. In contrast, photosynthesis of shaded leaves (which only absorb diffuse radiation) is normally limited by low radiation and increases linearly with increasing absorbed PAR. As a consequence, the LUE of shaded leaves ($\varepsilon_{\rm msh}$) is relatively high [De Pury and Farquhar, 1997; Wang and Leuning, 1998; Chen et al., 1999; Friend, 2001]. However, the currently most widely used LUE models do not explicitly account for the difference in APAR and LUE of sunlit and shaded leaves within the canopy, which has been recently shown to result in biased values of estimated GPP [Zhang et al., 2011; Propastin et al., 2012; He et al., 2013].

One, so far, unconsidered reason that leads to variation in LUE is that diffuse and direct radiation affect canopy LUE in different ways. LUE is shown to increase with the diffuse fraction through model simulations [Sinclair and Shiraiwa, 1993; de Pury and Farquhar, 1997; Cohan et al., 2002; Ibrom et al., 2006] and observations [Rochette et al., 1996; Roderick et al., 2001; Choudhury, 2001; Gu et al., 2002; Alton et al., 2007; Alton, 2008]. Therefore, an increase in diffuse radiation results in increase of carbon uptake [e.g., Gu et al., 2003; Cai et al., 2009]. For example, Hollinger et al. [1994] found that carbon uptake in a New Zealand beach forest increased by 50% on cloudy days relative to the value on clear days. Gu et al. [2003] detected a 20% increase in forest photosynthesis after the Pinatubo Volcano eruption in 1991, which increased diffuse radiation through scattering by atmospheric particles. Similar increases of LUE under diffuse sunlight were also reported in other studies [e.g., Niyogi et al., 2004; Urban et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2011]. So a modification of the traditional LUE approach which considers the variation of LUE at the canopy scale by allowing for the variation of LUE under different conditions of radiation was suggested [*lbrom et al.*, 2008].

To overcome the weakness of LUE models, He et al. [2013] developed a two-leaf LUE model (TL-LUE) that stemmed from the MOD17 model [e.g., Running et al., 2004; Turner et al., 2006] and the approach of the process-based boreal ecosystem productivity simulator (BEPS) [Chen et al., 1999] and tested it against GPP measured at six ChinaFLUX sites. The TL-LUE model considers the difference in LUE and absorbed radiation of sunlit and shaded leaves. The composition and function of ecosystems vary greatly across different locations on the globe, and thus, the TL-LUE model needs to be tested and validated at other biomes. Moreover, the LUE of sunlit and shaded leaves varies with ecosystem types [Rochette et al., 1996; Lamaud et al., 1997; Gu et al., 2002; He et al., 2013]. However, the values of ε_{msu} and ε_{msh} and their variation among different ecosystems are not known. Therefore, $\varepsilon_{\rm msu}$ and $\varepsilon_{\rm msh}$ in the TL-LUE model need to be calibrated rigorously for accurate estimation of GPP. Globally, the network of eddy covariance (EC) towers (FLUXNET) now covers a wide range of ecosystems across different climate zones [Falge et al., 2002; Law et al., 2002; Baldocchi, 2014]. EC-derived GPP (GPP_EC) values provide a unique opportunity for validating models and calibrating or optimizing model parameters [Running et al., 1999; King et al., 2011; Baldocchi, 2014].

The TL-LUE model is driven by meteorological data (vapor pressure deficit (VPD), PAR, and air temperature (T_a)) and remotely sensed data (fPAR or LAI). When it is used for simulating GPP over large areas, the errors of simulated GPP are partially caused by uncertainties in the input data, which are the same as those of the most widely used LUE models, such as the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) GPP algorithm [Zhao et al., 2005; Leuning et al., 2005]. VPD and T_a have the same impacts on the MOD17 and TL-LUE models, while PAR and LAI (or fPAR) have different impacts, due to the differing representations of within-canopy radiative transfer. Moreover, incoming shortwave radiation or PAR from regularly gridded reanalysis data sets (such as reanalysis data provided by European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts and National Centers for Environmental Prediction/National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCEP/NCAR)) and remotely sensed LAI data sets might have systematic errors >20% [Zhao and Running, 2006; Fang et al., 2012; Jia et al., 2013]. Thus, there is need to assess the sensitivity of TL-LUE and MOD17 models to PAR and LAI in estimating GPP.

The overarching objective of this study is to examine the robustness of the TL-LUE model using GPP derived from eddy covariance CO₂ flux measurements at 98 globally distributed flux towers. Specific objectives are to (1) evaluate the performance of the TL-LUE model for simulating GPP in different ecosystem types, (2) determine the maximum light use efficiency of sunlit and shaded leaves for different ecosystems, and (3) analyze the sensitivity of the TL-LUE model to uncertainties in the PAR and LAI input data.

2. Data and Methods

2.1. Data Used

2.1.1. Global Land Cover (30 m) (GlobeLand30) Data Set

In order to constrain the influences of land cover heterogeneity around towers GPP on model calibration and validation, the GlobeLand30 data sets in 2000 and 2010 with a spatial resolution of 30 m were used for selecting towers with relatively homogenous land cover. These data sets were produced by the National Geomatics Center of China. They both cover land area from 80°N to 80°S and include 10 land cover types, namely, cultivated land (crop), forest, grassland, shrubland, wetland, water bodies, tundra, artificial surfaces, bareland, permanent snow, and ice. These data sets were donated to the United Nations with the aim of contributing to research on sustainable development and climate change [Jun et al., 2014] and have been widely used in many studies [Cao et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2015; Manakos et al., 2014; Brovelli et al., 2015]. More detailed information on these data sets was described on the website of<http://glc30.tianditu.com>.

2.1.2. Eddy Covariance and Meteorological Data

Eddy covariance data from the LaThuile FLUXNET database were used to parameterize and validate the TL-LUE model. Sites were first selected on the basis of data availability of daily GPP, VPD, T_a , and PAR. Sites with missing data of more than 20% during the growing seasons were excluded from this analysis. Then, the GlobeLand30 in 2000 and 2010 was employed in conjunction with Google maps to exclude some flux sites with very heterogeneous vegetation types to minimize the impact of land cover heterogeneity on optimized model parameters. The sites were selected in following steps. For each flux site, we extracted the area proportions of 10 different land cover types over the central 1 km \times 1 km (for crop, grass, savannas, open shrub, and woody savannas) or 3 km × 3 km (for forests) area around the tower in years of 2000 and 2010 and then averaged the area proportions in the 2 years. For sites of forests indicated by the site description in the LaThuile FLUXNET database, shrubland was merged into forest in calculating the area proportions of forests based on the GlobeLand30 and Google maps, as forest was often misclassified as shrubland using remote sensing data. There are a few sites labeled as grass in the site description. The calculated area proportion of grassland was less than 0.1, while the proportion of cultivated land was above 0.8. For these sites, cultivated land was

Table 1. Model Parameters Used for Different Vegetation Types

a
DBF: deciduous broadleaf forest; ENF: evergreen needleleaf forest; EBF: evergreen broadleaf forest; MF: mixed forest;

Grass: grass; Crop: crop; Savannas: savannas; OS: open shrub; WS: woody savannas.
Bunning et al. [2000]. The values were default values used in the MOD17 model for calculating MODIS GPP product. $\text{T}_{\text{amin_min}}$, $\text{T}_{\text{amin_min}}$, VPD_{max}, and VPD_{min}were used in both the MOD17 algorithm and TL-LUE model.

 T ang et al. [2007] Clumping index (Ω) was only used in the TL-LUE model.

merged into grass land in calculating area proportion of grassland based on the GlobeLand30 and Google maps. The flux sites were selected according to two conditions: the area proportion of the dominant cover type is larger than a threshold and the dominant cover type is the same as that extracted from the LaThuile FLUXNET database. In order to balance the number of flux sites and their land cover homogeneity, the area proportion threshold of the dominant cover type was set as 0.5. As there were limited deciduous broadleaf forests (DBF) and mixed forests (MF) sites, five sites with area proportions of dominant cover types less than 0.5 were kept, including two DBF sites (FR-Fon and FR-Hes with area proportions of dominant cover types equal to 0.45 and 0.37, respectively) and three MF sites (BE-Bra, CA-TP4, and DE-Har with area proportions of dominant cover types equal to 0.34, 0.47, and 0.31, respectively). Open shrub (OS), savannas (S), and woody savannas (WS) were not differentiated in the GlobeLand30 data sets. In calculating the area proportions of OS, S, and WS sites, shrubland was accordingly treated as OS, S, and WS following the cover types extracted from the LaThuile FLUXNET database, and the highest area proportion among 10 types was considered as the proportion of OS, S, and WS. The area proportions of different cover types for each site were shown in Table A1 in Appendix A.

In total, measurements of 268 site years from 98 sites were used in this study, including 32 evergreen needleleaf forests (ENF), 6 evergreen broadleaf forests (EBF), 10 deciduous broadleaf forests (DBF), 16 mixed forests (MF), 14 crop (Crop), 12 grass (Grass), 2 savannas (S), 4 open shrub (OS), and 2 woody savannas (WS) sites. Out of these 98 flux sites, 78 sites (79.6%) have area proportions of dominant vegetation types higher than 0.7, in which 60 sites (61.2%) have area proportions of dominant vegetation types above 0.8. These sites are distributed over East Asia, United States, Canada, and Europe. Detailed information on these sites is given in Table A2 in Appendix A. Measured GPP values from 195 randomly selected site years representing different vegetation types (VTs) were used to estimate the optimal parameter (maximum light use efficiencies) values, and the remaining 73 site years of measurements were used for model validation.

All flux data were processed in a consistent manner within the FLUXNET project [Baldocchi et al., 2001; Baldocchi, 2008] as described by Papale and Valentini [2003], Reichstein et al. [2005], and Papale et al. [2006]. GPP data were derived from the net ecosystem $CO₂$ exchange (NEE) measured using the eddy covariance

Figure 1. Comparison between measured and modeled (a) direct PAR and (b) diffuse PAR.

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Figure 2. Comparison of 8 day GPP calculated using the MOD17 (GPP_MOD) and TL-LUE (GPP_TL) models with corresponding tower measurements (GPP_EC) for the site years used in the optimization. Both the MOD17 and TL-LUE models were driven using optimized parameters, smoothed LAI, and tower-based meteorological data.

Figure 3. Validation of 8 day GPP calculated using the MOD17 (GPP_MOD) and TL-LUE (GPP_TL) models with corresponding tower measurements (GPP_EC) at the validation site years. Both the MOD17 and TL-LUE models were driven using average optimized parameters for the different vegetation types, smoothed LAI, and tower-based meteorological data.

Table 2. R^2 , RMSE, and AIC for MOD17 and TL-LUE Models in Calibration and Validation Site Years

ΔR² means R² of GPP_TL minus that of GPP_MOD; ΔRMSE means RMSE of GPP_TL minus that of GPP_MOD; ΔAIC means AIC of GPP_TL minus that of GPP_MOD. DBF: deciduous broadleaf forest; ENF: evergreen needleleaf forest; EBF: evergreen broadleaf forest; MF: mixed forest; Crop: crop; Grass: grass; S: savannas; OS: open shrub; WS: woody savannas.

> technique and ecosystem respiration (Re) estimated using the Lloyd-Taylor equation [Lloyd and Taylor, 1994], which was fitted with the nighttime NEE data measured under turbulent conditions, i.e.,

$$
R_e = R_{\text{ref}} e^{E_0 \left(\frac{1}{(T_{\text{ref}} - T_0)} \frac{1}{(T - T_0)} \right)}
$$
(1)

where R_{ref} represents the ecosystem respiration rate at a reference temperature (T_{ref}, 10°C); E₀ is the parameter that determines the temperature sensitivity of ecosystem respiration; T_0 is a constant and set to -46.02° C; and T is the air temperature or soil temperature (°C).

GPP is calculated as follows:

$$
GPP = R_e - NEE \tag{2}
$$

2.1.3. Leaf Area Index Data

The LAI was retrieved from the MODIS database and used to drive the two models. For each site, this database contains 8 day composite LAI values of pixels covering a 7 km × 7 km grid centered around the flux tower. Previous studies extracted LAI values averaged over the central 1 km \times 1 km [Yuan et al., 2007], 3 km \times 3 km [Xiao et al., 2008; Schmid, 2002], and 7 km \times 7 km [Groenendijk et al., 2011] areas within the 7 km \times 7 km cutouts to cover the flux tower footprint. Footprint modeling studiesindicate that the area which contributes to the flux measured at eddy covariance flux towers varies from tens of meters to several kilometers [Schmid, 1997; Chen et al., 2012], normally about 20 to 100 times of the measurement heights. Therefore, in this study, as for crop, grass, savannas, open shrub, and woody savannas sites, LAI from the central 1 km \times 1 km area was used since the corresponding measurement heights are mostly lower than 10 m. At the forest sites, LAI values averaged over the central 3 km × 3 km area were extracted since their measurement heights are mostly higher than 20 m. The resulting LAI time series for each site were further smoothed using the locally adjusted cubic-spline capping method [Chen et al., 2006] to remove unrealistically abrupt short-term changes in LAI due to the contamination of the measurements by clouds or the presence of ground snow or ice.

2.1.4. Albedo Data

The standard 8 day composite MODIS black-sky albedo product (MCD43A3) at 500m gridded resolution [Lucht et al., 2000; Schaaf et al., 2002] was downloaded from the MODIS database [\(ftp://daac.ornl.gov/data/modis_ascii_subsets](http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/TAC.1974.1100705)). Albedo averaged over the central 1 km \times 1 km (for crop, grass, savannas, open shrub, and woody savannas) or

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Figure 4. Seasonal dynamics of ΔRMSE over nine vegetation types. ΔRMSE means 8 day RMSE values of 8 day GPP_MOD against GPP_EC minus the corresponding values of GPP_TL against GPP_EC.

3 km × 3 km (for forests) area was used to drive the model. Outliers of MODIS albedo caused by clouds or the presence of ground snow or ice were filled using annual means.

2.2. The MOD17 GPP and TL-LUE Models

2.2.1. MODIS GPP Model

The MOD17 model is based on the radiation conversion efficiency concept of Monteith [1972] and the details are described in Running et al. [2000].

$$
GPP = \varepsilon_{\text{max}} \times f(VPD) \times g(T_{\text{amin}}) \times PAR \times fPAR \tag{3}
$$

where ε_{max} is the maximum light use efficiency and needs to be optimized; f(VPD) and $q(T_{\text{amin}})$ are the scalars of VPD and minimum air temperature, respectively. fPAR is the fraction of PAR absorbed by the canopy and calculated as follows:

$$
fPAR = 1 - e^{-k \times LAI}
$$
 (4)

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Figure 5. Seasonal dynamics of ΔAIC over nine vegetation types. ΔAIC means 8 day AIC values of 8 day GPP_MOD against GPP_EC minus the corresponding values of GPP_TL against GPP_EC.

In equation (3), $f(VPD)$ and $g(T_{\text{amin}})$ are calculated as follows:

$$
f(VPD) = \begin{cases} 0 & VPD \ge VPD_{max} \\ \frac{VPD_{max} - VPD}{VPD_{max} - VPD_{min}} & VPD \ge VPD_{max} \\ 1 & VPD \le VPD_{min} \end{cases}
$$
(5)

$$
g(T_{amin}) = \begin{cases} 0 & T_{amin} \le T_{amin \text{ min}} \\ \frac{T_{amin} - T_{amin \text{ min}}}{T_{amin \text{ max}} - T_{amin \text{ min}}} & T_{amin \text{ min}} & < T_{amin} & < T_{amin \text{ max}} \\ 1 & T_{amin \ge T_{amin \text{ max}}} \end{cases}
$$
(6)

where VPD_{max}, VPD_{min}, T_{amin, max}, and T_{amin, min} are parameters determined according to literature (Table 1).

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Figure 6. Mean annual values of optimized (a) maximum light use efficiency (ε_{max}), maximum light use efficiency of sunlit (ε_{max}), and shaded (ε_{max}) leaves, (b) LAI for sunlit and shaded leaves, (c) APAR for sunlit and shade leaves, and (d) simulated GPP for sunlit and shaded leaves for different vegetation types.

2.2.2. TL-LUE Model

The TL-LUE model developed by He et al. [2013] is stemmed from the MOD17 and BEPS models and calculates GPP of a plant canopy as follows:

$$
GPP = (\varepsilon_{msu} \times APAR_{su} + \varepsilon_{msh} \times APAR_{sh}) \times f(VPD) \times g(T_{\text{amin}})
$$
\n(7)

where $\varepsilon_{\rm msu}$ and $\varepsilon_{\rm msh}$ are the maximum light use efficiency of sunlit and shaded leaves (which need to be optimized), respectively; APAR_{su} and APAR_{sh} are the PAR absorbed by sunlit and shaded leaves; f(VPD) and $g(T_{\text{amin}})$ are the scalars of VPD and minimum temperature, respectively, and also calculated using equations (5) and (6).

Table 3. Means, Standard Deviations (STDEV), and Coefficients of Variation (CV = STDEV/Means × 100%) of Optimized Maximum Light Use Efficiency ($\varepsilon_{\rm max}$), Maximum Light Use Efficiency of Sunlit (ε_{msu}), and Shaded (ε_{msh}) Leaves for Different Vegetation Types

	Mean $(g CMJ^{-1})$			Standard Deviation (g C MJ ⁻¹)			CV(%)		
Vegetation Type ^a	ε_{max}	ε msh	ε _{msu}	$\varepsilon_{\textsf{max}}$	ε msh	ε_{msu}	$\varepsilon_{\textsf{max}}$	ε msh	ε _{msu}
DBF	1.3	2.17	0.62	0.3	0.53	0.23	22.9	24.4	36.8
EBF	1.12	1.92	0.73	0.28	0.26	0.45	25.0	13.5	61.6
ENF	1.11	1.91	0.61	0.42	0.74	0.38	37.8	38.7	62.3
MF	1.18	1.84	0.66	0.26	0.44	0.38	22.0	23.9	57.6
Crop	2.58	4.81	1.19	1.02	2.05	0.49	39.4	42.7	41.2
Grass	1.52	2.82	0.89	0.44	0.9	0.43	28.9	31.9	48.3
Savannas	0.83	1.53	0.5	0.12	0.72	0.1	13.9	47.2	20
OS	0.93	2.11	0.46	0.42	1.13	0.21	45.6	53.5	45.3
WS	0.85	1.7	0.48	0.18	0.74	0.13	20.7	43.4	27.5

a
DBF: deciduous broadleaf forest; ENF: evergreen needleleaf forest; EBF: evergreen broadleaf forest; MF: mixed forest; Crop: crop; Grass: grass; Savannas: savannas; OS: open shrub; WS: woody savannas.

Figure 7. The linear relationships between $\varepsilon_{\sf max}$ and $\varepsilon_{\sf msh}$ and between $\varepsilon_{\sf max}$ and $\varepsilon_{\sf msu}$.

 $APAR_{su}$ and $APAR_{sh}$ in equation (7) are calculated as follows:

$$
APAR_{su} = (1 - \alpha) \times [PAR_{dir} \times \cos(\beta)/\cos(\theta) + (PAR_{dif} - PAR_{dif,u})/LAI + C] \times LAI_{su}
$$
 (8)

and

$$
APAR_{sh} = (1 - \alpha) \times \left[\left(PAR_{dif} - PAR_{dif,u} \right) / LAI + C \right] \times LAI_{sh}
$$
\n(9)

where α is the canopy albedo retrieved from the MODIS product; PAR_{dif} and PAR_{dir} are the diffuse and direct components of incoming PAR, respectively, and partitioned according to the clearness index [Chen et al., 1999]; PAR_{difu} is the diffuse PAR under the canopy and calculated following Chen et al. [1999]; (PAR_{dif-} PAR_{dif-u})/LAI represents the diffuse PAR per unit leaf area within the canopy; C quantifies the contribution of multiple scattering of the total PAR to the diffuse irradiance per unit leaf area within the canopy; β is the mean leaf-sun angle and set as 60° for a canopy with a spherical leaf angle distribution; θ is the solar zenith angle[Chen et al., 1999]; and LAI_{su} and LAI_{sh} are the LAI of sunlit and shaded leaves and are partitioned on the basis of LAI.

Diffuse and direct PAR can be empirically separated [Chen et al., 1999; Kathilankal et al., 2014]. In this study, they were partitioned following Chen et al. [1999] and with parameters calibrated using measured daily diffuse and total incoming radiation data [He et al., 2013], i.e.,

$$
PAR_{\text{dif}} = PAR(0.7527 + 3.8453R \cdot 16.316R^2 + 18.962R^3 \cdot 7.0802R^4)
$$
\n(10)

$$
PAR_{dir} = PAR - PAR_{dif} \tag{11}
$$

where PAR_{dif} represents the diffuse PAR; PAR is the total incoming photosynthetically active radiation, and *R* is the sky clearness index and equals PAR/(0.5S₀cos θ); S₀ is the solar constant (1367 W m $^{-2}$). A constant

0.5 is used to convert incoming solar radiation into PAR [Weiss and Norman, 1985; Tsubo and Walker, 2005; Bosch et al., 2009].

Direct and diffuse radiation measured simultaneously without continuous gaps in 37 sites years, including 22 sites and 7 vegetation types (Crop, DBF, EBF, ENF, MF, grass, and savannas), were used to validate the direct and diffuse radiation estimated using equations (10) and (11) (Table A3 in Appendix A). The estimated direct and diffuse PAR values were in good agreement with measurements with slopes of 0.98 and 0.97 and R^2 values

Figure 8. Sensitivity of GPP simulated by the MOD17 and TL-LUE models to PAR.

a
^aDBF: deciduous broadleaf forest; ENF: evergreen needleleaf forest; EBF: evergreen broadleaf forest; MF: mixed forest; Grass: grass; Crop: crop; Savannas: Savannas; OS: open shrub; WS: woody savannas.

> of 0.94 and 0.84, respectively. The root-mean-square error (RMSE) of estimated daily direct and diffused PAR against observed values were 0.64 and 0.61 MJ m $^{-2}$ d $^{-1}$, respectively (Figure 1).

 LAI_{su} and LAI_{sh} were partitioned as follows:

$$
LAI_{sum} = 2 \times \cos(\theta) \times \left(1 - \exp\left(-0.5 \times \Omega \times \frac{LA}{\cos(\theta)}\right)\right)
$$
(12)

$$
LAI_{sh} = LAI - LAI_{su}
$$
(13)

Figure 9. Sensitivity of GPP simulated by the MOD17 and TL-LUE models to LAI.

where θ is the solar zenith angle [Chen et al., 1999]; LAI is the total leaf area index of the canopy; and Ω was the clumping index according to Table 1.

2.3. Model Parameterization and Validation

Maximum LUE for the whole canopy in the MOD17 algorithm (ε_{max}) and for sunlit leaves (ε_{msu}) and shaded leaves (ε_{msh}) in the TL-LUE model was optimized using measured GPP values in 195 site years. The optimization was implemented using the shuffled complex evolution-University of Arizona method [Duan et al., 1992]. Both MODIS and TL-LUE models were driven by 8 day VPD, T_{a} , PAR, and LAI. The $\varepsilon_{\mathsf{max}}$, $\varepsilon_{\mathsf{msu}}$, and $\varepsilon_{\mathsf{msh}}$ were annually optimized for each site year. In the optimization, model performance was evaluated using the agreement index (d), which is defined as follows:

$$
d = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^{n} (P_k - O_k)^2 / \sum_{k=1}^{n} (|P_k - \overline{O}| + |O_k - \overline{O}|)^2
$$
 (14)

where *n* is the total number of measurements; P_k and Q_k represent the kth predicted and observed 8 day GPP values, respectively, and Ō is the annual mean of observed GPP values.

The relationship of d with the root-mean-square error (RMSE) and the correlation coefficient (R) is as follows:

$$
d = 1 - \frac{\left(\text{RMSE}\right)^2}{\sigma_{\text{OP}}^2 + \sigma_{\text{P}}^2 + 2|R\sigma_{\text{OP}}\sigma_{\text{P}}|}
$$
(15)

where
$$
\sigma_{\text{OP}}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (P_i - \overline{O})^2
$$
, $\sigma_{\text{P}}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (O_i - \overline{O})^2$.

The index d can synthesize the information contained in RMSE, R^2 , $σ_{OP}$, and $σ_P$. It has the advantage of being both relative, as opposed to R^2 , and bounded in the range from 0 (no agreement) to 1 (complete agreement), as opposed to RMSE [Willmott, 1981, 1982]. This index has been widely utilized in model parameter optimization [Wang et al., 2001; Gu et al., 2002].

2.4. Model Performance Assessment

The performance of TL-LUE and MOD17 was assessed using the rootmean-square error (RMSE), the coefficient of determination (R^2) , and the Akaike information criterion (AIC). AIC has the advantage of testing the significance of the differences between the functions of different model specifications [Wang and Liu, 2006] and measuring the parameters of a model [Akaike, 1974]. It is defined as follows:

$$
AIC(p) = N \log E(p) + 2p \tag{16}
$$

where p is the order of model, N the number of data, and $E(p)$ innovation variance. The AIC best model has the smallest AIC value [Inouye et al., 1995; Harada et al., 2010].

3. Results

3.1. Performance of MOD17 and TL-LUE

Figure 2 shows the comparison of GPP simulated using the MOD17 model (GPP_MOD) and TL-LUE model (GPP_TL) against GPP_EC in 195 calibration site years for all nine VTs. Both simulated GPP_MOD and GPP_TL were in good agreement with GPP_EC. When the data

savannas.

savannas

from the 195 site years were lumped together, R^2 and RMSE values for GPP_MOD were 0.83 and 12.84 gC m⁻² (8d) $^{-1}$, respectively, and the corresponding values for GPP_TL were 0.86 and 11.79 gC m $^{-2}$ (8d) $^{-1}$. When analyzed for individual VTs, the R^2 and RMSE for GPP_MOD versus GPP_EC ranged from 0.64 for savannas to 0.88 for deciduous broadleaf forests and from 5.02 gC m⁻² (8d)⁻¹ for open shrub vegetation to 20.19 gC m⁻² $(8d)^{-1}$ for crops, respectively. The corresponding values of GPP_TL were in the range from 0.72 for savannas to 0.90 for deciduous broadleaf forests and from 4.48 gC m $^{-2}$ (8d) $^{-1}$ for open shrub to 19.69 gC m $^{-2}$ (8d) $^{-1}$ for crops, respectively.

Using optimized ε_{\max} , ε_{\max} and ε_{\min} values, simulated and measured GPP values for the 73 validation site years are compared for individual VTs in Figure 3. When all VTs were lumped together, variations of 8 day GPP explained by the MOD17 and TL-LUE models were 72.7% and 76.1%, respectively. The corresponding RMSE values were 16.77 gC m $^{-2}$ (8d) $^{-1}$ and 15.69 gC m $^{-2}$ (8d) $^{-1}$. The TL-LUE model produced higher R^{2} and lower RMSE values than the MOD17 model for all VTs. The improvement of GPP estimated with TL-LUE over that estimated with the MOD17 model was most significant for grass and ENF, with R^2 increased from 0.70 to 0.75 for grass and from 0.75 to 0.80 for ENF. The corresponding RMSE decreased from 18.55 gC m⁻² (8d)⁻¹ to 15.95 gC m⁻² (8d)⁻¹ for the former and from 13.80 gC m⁻² (8d)⁻¹ to 12.41 gC m⁻² (8d)⁻¹ for the latter.

Out of the total of 195 calibration years, R^2 values of GPP_TL against measurements were higher than those of GPP_MOD in 172 (88%) site years. The RMSE values of GPP_TL were smaller than those of GPP_MOD in 184 (94%) site years. The AIC values of GPP_TL were lower than those of GPP_MOD for all VTs, especially for ENF, grass, and MF (Table 2). Out of the total of 73 validation years, the TL-LUE model outperformed the MOD17 model in 67 (92%) of site years according to R^2 of simulated GPP and in 61 (84%) site years according to RMSE of simulated GPP. The AIC values of GPP_TL were lower than those of GPP_MOD for all vegetation types but woody savannas (Table 2).

Figure 4 presents the seasonal variations of RMSEs of 8 day GPP_TL and GPP_MOD against GPP_EC. The RMSE values of GPP_TL were almost smaller than those of GPP_MOD in all seasons for all vegetation types. The decrease of RMSE of GPP_TL relative to that of GPP_MOD was more obvious during the growing season for all vegetation types but savannas and woody savanna. As to DBF, MF, crop, and grass, the AIC values of 8 day GPP_TL were lower than those of the 8 day GPP_MOD product during the growing season with high GPP, indicating the robust outperformance of the TL-LUE model over the MOD17 model (Figure 5). During off-season periods with low GPP, the AIC values of GPP_TL were slightly higher than those of GPP_MOD. As to ENF and EBF, the TL-LUE model performed better than the MOD17 model in all seasons, which is confirmed by the lower AIC values of the former. As indicated by slightly higher AIC values, the outperformance of TL-LUE over MOD17 was not significant for open shrub, savannas, and woody savannas.

3.2. Optimized Maximum Light Use Efficiency

Figure 6a and Table 3 show the averages of the optimized $\varepsilon_{\rm max}$ values in the MOD17 model, as well as $\varepsilon_{\rm msu}$ and $\varepsilon_{\rm msh}$ in the TL-LUE model for nine VTs. The values of these parameters varied substantially among the different vegetation types. For all VTs, values of $\varepsilon_{\rm msh}$ were always the highest and those of $\varepsilon_{\rm msh}$ were the lowest with the values of ε_{max} in between. As expected, crop had the highest ε_{max} , ε_{msh} , and ε_{max} values, which were 2.58, 4.81, and 1.19 gCMJ⁻¹, respectively. The $\varepsilon_{\sf max}$ $\varepsilon_{\sf mshr}$ and $\varepsilon_{\sf msu}$ values of savannas were only 0.83, 1.53, and 0.50 gC MJ⁻¹ and were lower than those of all other VTs. For a given plant function type, $\varepsilon_{\rm max}$, $\varepsilon_{\rm max}$, and $\varepsilon_{\rm max}$ all exhibited considerable variations among different site years. The coefficients of variations (CV = standard deviation/mean \times 100%) for $\varepsilon_{\sf max}$, $\varepsilon_{\sf msh}$, and $\varepsilon_{\sf msu}$ ranged from 13.9% for savannas to 45.6% for open shrub, from 13.5% for EBF to 53.5% for open shrub, and from 20.0% for savannas to 62.3% for ENF, respectively. Figure 7 shows that there were tight linear relationships between $\varepsilon_{\sf max}$ (denoted as x, gCMJ $^{-1}$) with $\varepsilon_{\sf msh}$ (denoted as y₁, gCMJ $^{-1}$) and between $\varepsilon_{\sf max}$ with $\varepsilon_{\sf msu}$ (denoted as y₂, gCMJ $^{-1}$), which were described as y₁ = 1.70x + 0.06 $(R^2 = 0.79, p < 0.0001)$ and $y_2 = 0.46x + 0.09$ $(R^2 = 0.51, p < 0.0001)$. ε_{msh} was 2.63 to 4.59 times ε_{msu} .

Figures 6b–6d show the averages and standard deviations of LAI, APAR, and GPP of sunlit and shaded leaves calculated by the TL-LUE model for the nine vegetation types. The values varied distinctively among the different vegetation types. The ratio of shaded LAI to sunlit LAI ranged from 1.06 for open shrub to 3.22 for DBF. As expected, the APAR of shaded leaves was much lower than that of sunlit leaves. The ratio of the former to the latter ranged from 0.28 for open shrub and to 0.84 for DBF. The GPP of shaded leaves was much higher than that of sunlit leaves for most vegetation types with the exception of savannas and open shrub. The

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Figure 10. Effects of varying PAR on GPP simulated using the TL-LUE and MOD17 models.

ratio of GPP of shaded leaves to and that of sunlit leaves ranged from 0.75 for savannas to 2.22 for DBF. The higher GPP of shaded leaves results mainly from their higher maximum light use efficiency ($\varepsilon_{\rm{msh}}$) and larger LAI.

3.3. Sensitivity of GPP Simulation to PAR and LAI Driving MOD17 and TL-LUE Models

The sensitivity of simulated GPP to PAR and LAI was assessed through artificial variations of these two variables by ±30%, ±20%, and ±10%. The variations of PAR were partitioned into the variations of direct and diffuse components according to the sky clearness index (R) using equations (10) and (11), and LAI variations were partitioned into variations of sunlit and shaded LAI according to solar zenith angle using equations (12) and (13). GPP_TL showed a weaker sensitivity to variations in PAR than GPP_MOD (Figure 8 and Table 4). An increase in PAR by 10%, 20%, and 30% resulted in an overestimate of GPP_TL in the range from 4.1%, 8.0% for OS, and 11.4% for MF to 5.9%, 11.4%, and 16.7% for grass, respectively. A decrease in PAR by 10%, 20%, and 30% resulted in an underestimate of GPP_TL in the range from 4.6%, 9.9%, and 16.2% for WS to 6.5%, 13.7%, and 21.9% for grass, respectively. In contrast, the change in GPP simulated by the MOD17

Figure 11. Changes of (a) R^2 and (b) RMSE of GPP_TL versus GPP_EC minus the corresponding values of GPP_MOD with LAI.

model was equal to the change in PAR. The sensitivity of simulated GPP_TL to LAI was slightly higher (no more than 2%) than that of GPP_MOD (Figure 9 and Table 5).

In order to further analyze the sensitivity of simulated GPP to PAR for different vegetation types under different conditions of incoming PAR, observed and simulated GPP were averaged over 1 MJ m⁻² d⁻¹ bins of PAR. Both the TL-LUE and MOD17 models tended to underestimate GPP when PAR was low and overestimate GPP when PAR was high (Figure 10). GPP_TL deviated less from GPP_EC than GPP_MOD. With the increase of PAR, the departure of GPP_TL from GPP_EC became much smaller than that of GPP_MOD.

Figure 11 shows the changes of R^2 , RMSE, and AIC of GPP_TL against GPP_EC minus the corresponding values of GPP_MOD with LAI. The higher the LAI, the higher values of ΔR^2 and absolute ΔR MSE and ΔA IC. It means that with the increase of LAI, the TL-LUE model outperformed the MOD17 model more significantly. This would be one of the reasons that in both calibration and validation, the RMSE values of GPP_TL were lower than that of GPP_MOD in growing seasons than in nongrowing seasons (Figure 4). LAI is much higher in growing seasons than in nongrowing seasons. The result is consistent with the findings of Knohl and Baldocchi [2008] and Wohlfahrt et al. [2008].

4. Discussions

4.1. Improvement of the TL-LUE Model Over the MOD17 Model

The comparison of RMSE and AIC of GPP_TL against GPP_EC with those of GPP_MOD indicates that the improvement of TL-LUE model over the MOD17 model is more significant during the growing season compared to off-season periods (Figures 4 and 5). One factor resulting in the seasonal change in the improvement of TL-LUE model over the MOD17 model is the seasonal variations of LAI, especially for nonevergreen vegetation. When LAI is low, the canopy consists dominantly of sunlit leaves, which are the main contributor to the canopy GPP. So the TL-LUE and MOD17 model perform similarly. With the increase of LAI, shaded leaves make a large contribution to canopy GPP. As a consequence, the outperformance of TL-LUE over MOD17 became considerable. The ΔR^2 (R^2 of GPP_TL against GPP_EC minus the corresponding value of GPP_MOD) increased significantly, while ΔRMSE and ΔAIC (RMSE and AIC of GPP_TL against GPP_EC minus the corresponding values of GPP_MOD) decreased significantly (Figure 11). Similar findings were also reported in Wohlfahrt et al. [2008].

During the growing season, incoming PAR varied across a wider range. When incoming PAR is high, direct PAR is dominant and absorbed by sunlit leaves, which are commonly light saturated. Consequently, the LUE of the whole canopy is low [Gu et al., 2002; Ibrom et al., 2008]. Under the condition of low PAR, the fraction of diffuse PAR is high and uniformly distributed within the canopy. A larger part of the incoming PAR will be absorbed by shaded leaves. Their photosynthesis is commonly light limited and might be significantly enhanced by increasing PAR. Therefore, the LUE of whole canopy is high [Zhang et al., 2011]. The MOD17 model ignores the change of LUE with incoming PAR and definitely overestimates/underestimates GPP when incoming PAR is high/low. The TL-LUE model differentiates $\varepsilon_{\rm msu}$ and $\varepsilon_{\rm msh}$ and properly captures the change in fraction of incoming PAR absorbed by sunlit and shaded leaves [He et al., 2013]. It is able to alleviate the bias in GPP simulated by the MOD17 model.

Observed incoming PAR data are very limited. Currently, PAR used to simulate regional and global GPP is generated from model simulations, remote sensing, and data assimilation. Many studies have indicated that large uncertainties exist in these data sets. For example, Zhao and Running [2006] pointed out that the average bias of NCEP area-weighted radiation was about 20%. Also, based on field measurements, Betts et al. [1996] and Brotzge [2004] showed that shortwave solar radiation was consistently overestimated by 17–27% in the NCEP-NCAR data set. With a data set of daily and monthly solar radiation from ground observations at 122 stations over China using thermopile pyranometers, Jia et al. [2013] found that in the reanalyzed data (NCEP-DOE), shortwave solar radiation was greatly overestimated in China, especially in north and south regions, with mean bias errors of 32.1% and 31.9%, respectively. GPP_TL exhibited a much lower sensitivity to PAR than GPP_MOD (Figure 8). An overestimate of 30% in incoming PAR resulted in an averaged overestimation of GPP_TL in the range from 13.3% (grass) to 18.6% (MF), much smaller that the overestimation of 30% in GPP_MOD. Similarity, the underestimation of GPP_TL caused by a negative bias of incoming PAR was also smaller than that of GPP_MOD. If incoming PAR consisted solely of direct or diffuse beams, the sensitivity of GPP_TL to incoming PAR would be the same as that of GPP_MOD.

In the TL-LUE model, PAR is partitioned into direct and diffuse components. The former is absorbed only by sunlit leaves, while the latter can be utilized by both sunlit and shaded leaves. Owing to large difference between $\varepsilon_{\rm msu}$ and $\varepsilon_{\rm msh}$, the errors in the partitioning of direct and diffuse PAR will definitely propagate into simulated GPP. The validation in 37 sites years showed that the RMSE of estimated diffused PAR against observations was 0.61 MJ m $^{-2}$ d $^{-1}$. In the case of extreme underestimation of diffuse PAR, the relative error of GPP_TL would be 6.2%. The extreme overestimation of diffuse PAR would induce an overestimation of 10.9% in GPP_TL. Compared with the MOD17 model, the requirement for partitioning PAR into direct and diffuse components is a disadvantage of the TL-LUE model. However, this shortcoming is overwhelmed by the advantage of the low sensitivity of the TL-LUE model to uncertainties in incoming PAR. The average 6.2%/10.9% underestimation/overestimation in GPP_TL caused by an extreme underestimation/overestimation of diffuse PAR was smaller than the average 8.1% (=30% 21.9%) /13.3% (=30% 16.7%) reduction of underestimation/overestimation in GPP_TL relative to GPP_MOD caused by a 30% underestimation/overestimation of PAR (Table 4).

4.2. The Optimized Maximum Light Use Efficiency

The optimized ε_{msh} was much higher than ε_{max} and ε_{msu} . Open shrub had the highest ratio of ε_{msh} to ε_{msu} (4.59) and EBF the lowest (2.63). Higher $\varepsilon_{\rm msh}$ can be attributed to the fact that shaded leaves only have the opportunity to absorb diffuse light (including the incoming diffuse sunlight reaching to the canopy and the multi-scattered direct sunlight in the canopy), which enters the plant canopy from all directions and reaches leaves more evenly than direct light [Sinclair et al., 1992; Hammer and Wright, 1994]. The intensity of light absorbed by shaded leaves varies normally in the almost linear part of the light response curve that lies between the light compensation point and the light saturation point, which is the reason for their higher light use efficiency compared to sunlit leaves. The differentiation of $\varepsilon_{\rm msh}$ and $\varepsilon_{\rm msu}$ enables the TL-LUE model to simulate the enhanced effect of diffuse radiation on LUE [He et al., 2013], which has been previously reported for crop and grass [Sinclair et al., 1992; Sinclair and Shiraiwa, 1993; Rochette et al., 1996; Gu et al., 2002; Wohlfahrt et al., 2008] and coniferous and deciduous forests [Price and Black, 1990; Hollinger et al., 1994; Baldocchi, 1997; Goulden et al., 1997; Lamaud et al., 1997; Freedman et al., 2001; Ibrom et al., 2006]. Globally, irradiance over land surfaces declined by an average of 20 Wm⁻² over the past 50 years [Stanhill and Cohen, 2001], especially during 1960–1999 [Mercado et al., 2009], while aerosol concentrations and cloudiness might result in increase of diffuse radiation. With the consideration of the enhancing effect of diffuse irradiance on GPP, the TL-LUE model might be used to simulate the impact of the changes in diffuse to global radiation ratio on GPP.

The average optimized $\varepsilon_{\sf max}$ was close to the default values used in the MOD17 model (Table 1) for all VTs with the exception of crop and grass, which exhibited much higher optimized ε_{max} values than the default $(0.604 \text{ gC} \text{ MJ}^{-1}$ PAR). Many studies indicated that the underestimation of GPP for crop by the MOD17 model is mainly due to using a too low value of ε_{max} [Turner et al., 2006]. It has been reported that the mean LUE of crop can approach 2.80 gC MJ⁻¹ PAR [Garbulsky et al., 2010; Xiao et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2011], which is slightly higher than the average value of 2.58 gCMJ⁻¹ PAR optimized here. The optimized $\varepsilon_{\rm max}$ of grass averaged 1.52 g C MJ $^{-1}$ (from 1.0 gC MJ $^{-1}$ to 2.5 gC MJ $^{-1}$), much higher than the value of 0.604 gC MJ $^{-1}$ used in MOD17 model. Sjöström et al. [2013] also found a significant improvement in simulating GPP of grass if $\varepsilon_{\rm max}$

was set to 1.7 gC MJ $^{-1}$. The higher $\varepsilon_{\sf max}$ for crop and grass is probably related to fertilization and the increased use of productive and C_4 plants with higher water use efficiencies, respectively.

There were tight linear relationships of $\varepsilon_{\rm msh}$ and $\varepsilon_{\rm msu}$ with $\varepsilon_{\rm max}$, e.g., $\varepsilon_{\rm msh}$ was about 1.70 times $\varepsilon_{\rm max}$, and $\varepsilon_{\rm msu}$ only about 0.46 times ε_{max} (Figure 7). These relationships are relatively strict and may be used for a quick estimation of $\varepsilon_{\rm msh}$ and $\varepsilon_{\rm msu}$ values from existing $\varepsilon_{\rm max}$ values. These robust and relatively constant relationships between the different LUE estimators indicate that there is a similar functional pattern across different biomes in the way how diffuse and direct radiation are used for GPP. The empirical, functional parameter estimation approach does however not distinguish between the different reasons for the observed patterns, which can be caused by shade modification of leaf physiology but as well by differences in PAR absorptivity, leaf angle distributions, canopy structure, and the distribution of shade and sunlit leaves across the plant canopy. The results show similarities in the ways canopies utilize diffuse and direct radiation, not how they achieve this.

Some LUE models apply a universally invariant LUE values for various ecosystems. For example, the C-Fix model assumed a value of 1.1 $q \text{C} \text{m}^{-2} \text{MJ}^{-1}$ APAR for all vegetation types [Veroustraete et al., 2002]. In the EC-LUE model, LUE equals 2.14 g C m⁻² MJ⁻¹ APAR without biome-dependent variations across biomes [Yuan et al., 2007]. This study found out that ε_{\max} , ε_{\max} , and ε_{\max} varied considerably not only among different VTs but also across different sites within a specific VT. Such variation has been previously reported in many studies [Russell et al., 1989; Groenendijk et al., 2011]. The variations of $\varepsilon_{\rm max}$, $\varepsilon_{\rm msh}$ and $\varepsilon_{\rm msu}$ across different sites might be caused by a number of factors, including plant species, forest age, nitrogen content of leaves, and fraction of diffuse radiation. These factors have not been included yet in MOD17 and TL-LUE models, suggesting the necessity of further improving their parameterization for a better simulation of GPP. The inclusion of the changes in LUE with the above mentioned factors will further improve the ability of LUE models to simulate GPP.

4.3. Uncertainties

LAI is an input into the MOD17 and TL-LUE models. Simulated GPP is affected by the quality of LAI, which might be extracted from literature for these sites used in this study. However, only average or maximum LAI values are typically reported [Heinsch et al., 2006]. In reality, LAI varies seasonally, even for evergreen forests. Therefore, MODIS LAI rather than measured LAI was used in this study to drive the models for optimizing ε_{\max} , ε_{\max} , and ε_{\max} . Such simple application of MODIS LAI might induce some uncertainties in optimized parameters and GPP validation. First, MODIS LAI usually has an error of about 20% [Fang et al., 2012], which definitely propagate into optimized parameters and estimated GPP. Sensitivity analysis showed that 20% of error in LAI may cause detectable errors in calculated GPP (Figure 9), ranging from 5.3% to 7.7% for forest and 9.4% to 13.4% for other VTs for the MOD17 model and 3.8% to 9.2% for forests and from 9.2% to 14.6% for other VTs for the TL-LUE model. Additionally, the mismatch of the spatial resolution of MODIS LAI with the footprints of eddy covariance flux towers might also bring some uncertainties in parameter parameterization and GPP simulation. Furthermore, the vegetation type around many FLUXNET towers is not completely homogenous. MODIS LAI from pixels around towers might not actually represent the LAI of various types of vegetation with different maximum light use efficiency, namely, even the 1 km MODIS pixel does not represent what the flux tower measured. Román et al. [2009] developed a method to quantify the representativeness of MODIS pixels for tower comparisons. Unfortunately, their analysis has not been conducted for all FLUXNET sites used in this study. In future, high spatial and temporal resolution LAI data should be used in conjunction with footprint models to constrain uncertainties in parameter optimization and GPP estimation caused vegetation heterogeneity.

Generally, VPD and T_a have been used to represent the environmental controls on GPP. VPD represents part of the atmospheric evaporative demand and its effect on photosynthesis and was shown to be one of the key factors reducing LUE [Gu et al., 2002; Lloyd et al., 2002; Yuan et al., 2007; Ibrom et al., 2008]. Some previous studies have also outlined the important role of soil moisture in regulating LUE and GPP [Jarvis and Linder, 2000; Xu and Baldocchi, 2004; Baldocchi et al., 2005; Yuan et al., 2007]. The exclusion of soil moisture in the TL-LUE and MOD17 models may have induced some uncertainties in optimized parameters and calculated GPP, as is evident in the somewhat poor agreement of observed and simulated GPP for open shrub, savannas, and woody savannas, in which soil water stress is likely to occur frequently. Soil moisture maybe included into the TL-LUE models via the Soil Moisture Active and Passive and Soil Moisture and Ocean Salinity satellite data in the future.

As sunlit leaves received both direct and diffuse radiation, they are supposed to have higher temperature than shaded leaves, which may lead to greater temperature gradients between sunlit leaves and the surrounding air. It means that the scalars (equations (5) and (6)) should be calculated using different temperatures for sunlit and shaded leaves. The TL-LUE model presently takes the same air temperature to calculate temperature scalars for sunlit and shaded leaves. Additionally, differences in leaf temperature can also result in different VPD of sunlit and shaded leaves. In the TL-LUE and MOD17 models, the application of same temperature and VPD for entire canopy might be also a source of uncertainties in simulated GPP and optimized parameters. In addition, flux data from a limited number of savannas, open shrubs, and woody savannas were used to optimize parameters and assess model performance, which makes conclusions more uncertain.

5. Conclusions

In this study, the TL-LUE model was optimized and validated using global FLUXNET CO₂ flux measurements. The performance of the model was compared with that of the widely used MOD17 model. The main conclusions are as follows:

- 1. The TL-LUE model outperformed the MOD17 model in simulating 8 day GPP. The improvement of the TL-LUE model over the MOD17 model became more apparent at higher LAI.
- 2. Optimized ε_{max} , ε_{msu} , and ε_{msh} varied considerably among VTs and across different sites for a specific VT. Values of $\varepsilon_{\rm msh}$ and $\varepsilon_{\rm msu}$ were linearly correlated with the values of $\varepsilon_{\rm max}$. $\varepsilon_{\rm msh}$ was about 1.70 times $\varepsilon_{\rm max}$, and ε_{msu} about 0.46 times ε_{max} . The average values of optimized ε_{max} were close to the default values used in the MOD17 algorithm for all VTs except crop and grass. For the latter two VTs, optimized $\varepsilon_{\rm max}$ values were much larger than the default values used in the MOD17 algorithm.
- 3. GPP simulated by the TL-LUE and the MOD17 models showed a similar sensitivity to LAI. However, GPP simulated by the TL-LUE model exhibited a lower sensitivity to errors in PAR input data than the MOD17 model, indicating its robustness for simulating regional and global GPP using radiation data sets with large uncertainties.

Appendix A

Table A1 described the area proportions of different land cover types calculated from the Global Land Cover Data Set for each site over the central 1 km \times 1 km or 3 km \times 3 km around the flux tower. Area proportions of dominant vegetation types were highlighted in the table. Sites in this table were used to calibrate and validate TL-LUE and MOD17 models in this study.

Table A1. Area Proportions of Different Land Cover Types Calculated From the Global Land Cover Data Set for 98 Sites Over the Central 1 km × 1 km (for Crop, Grass, Savannas, Open Shrub, and Woody Savannas) or 3 km \times 3 km (for Forests) Around the Tower^a

Table A1. (continued)

Table A1. (continued)

^aThe highlighted table entries mean the area proportions of dominant vegetation types.

Table A2 described site years used for calibrating and validating TL-LUE and MOD17 models, as well as the basic characteristics of each site, including abbreviated name, country, latitude, longitude, vegetation types, and related references.

 $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Table A2. Characteristics of the FLUXNET Sites Used in This Study^a

Table A2. (continued)

Table A2. (continued)

^aThe site name codes are a composition of country (first two letters) and site name (last three letters). Investigator-provided vegetation types are deciduous broadleaf forest (DBF), evergreen broadleaf forest (EBF), evergreen needleleaf forest (ENF), mixed forest (MF), Crop (crop), Grass(grass), open shrub (OS), savanna (Savannas) and woody savanna (WS).

> Table A3 described the basic characteristics of the flux sites used for validating direct and diffuse radiation calculated in this study in Figure 1, including abbreviated name, country, latitude, longitude, vegetation types, and related references.

^aThe site name codes are a composition of country (first two letters) and site name (last three letters). Investigator-provided vegetation types are deciduous broadleaf forest (DBF), evergreen broadleaf forest (EBF), evergreen needleleaf forest (ENF), mixed forest (MF), Crop (crop), Grass(grass), and savanna (Savannas).

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by National Natural Science Foundation of China (41371070), Special climate change fund (CCSF201412), and Chinese Academy of Sciences (XDA05050602-1). This research is based in part on support from the Department of Energy's (DOE) National Institute for Climate Change Research (NICCR) (07-SC-NICCR-1059), the National Science Foundation(NSF) Division of Atmospheric and Geospace Sciences (AGS), Atmospheric Chemistry program (1233006), NSF award EF1137306/MIT subaward 5710003122 to the University of California, Davis and NSF through the Florida Coastal Everglades Long Term Ecological Research program (DBI-0620409 and DEB-9910514). The data for this paper are available at FLUXNET data set [\(http://](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2008.05.014) www.fl[uxdata.org/DataInfo\)](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2008.05.014). Data set: LaThuile. The data acquired by the FLUXNET community as part of the La Thuile collection and in particular by the following networks: AmeriFlux (U.S. Department of Energy, Biological and Environmental Research, Terrestrial Carbon Program (DE-FG02-04ER63917 and DE-FG02-04ER63911)), AfriFlux, AsiaFlux, CarboAfrica, CarboEuropeIP, CarboItaly, CarboMont, ChinaFlux, Fluxnet-Canada (supported by CFCAS, NSERC, BIOCAP, Environment Canada, and NRCan), GreenGrass, KoFlux, LBA, NECC, OzFlux, TCOS-Siberia, and USCCC. We appreciate the financial support to the eddy covariance data harmonization provided by CarboEuropeIP, FAO-GTOS-TCO, iLEAPS, Max Planck Institute for Biogeochemistry, National Science Foundation, University of Tuscia, Université Laval and Environment Canada, and U.S. Department of Energy and the database development and technical support from Bekeley Water Center, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Microsoft Research eScience, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, University of California-Berkeley, University of Virginia.

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