Long-Term Carbon Dioxide Fluxes from a Very Tall Tower in a Northern Forest: 
Flux Measurement Methodology

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Manuscript received 6 January 2000, in final form 28 June 2000)

ABSTRACT

Methodology for determining fluxes of CO₂ and H₂O vapor with the eddy-covariance method using data from instruments on a 447-m tower in the forest of northern Wisconsin is addressed. The primary goal of this study is the validation of the methods used to determine the net ecosystem exchange of CO₂. Two-day least squares fits coupled with 30-day running averages limit calibration error of infrared gas analyzers for CO₂ and H₂O signals to ≈2%–3%. Sonic anemometers are aligned with local streamlines by fitting a sine function to tilt and wind direction averages, and fitting a third-order polynomial to the residual. Lag times are determined by selecting the peak in lagged covariance with an error of ≈1.5%–2% for CO₂ and ≈1% for H₂O vapor. Theory and a spectral fit method allow determination of the underestimation in CO₂ flux (≈5% daytime, <12% nighttime) and H₂O vapor flux (<21%), which is due to spectral degradation induced by long air-sampling tubes. Scale analysis finds 0.5-h flux averaging periods are sufficient to measure all flux scales at 30-m height, but 1 h is necessary at higher levels, and random errors in the flux measurements due to limited sampling of atmospheric turbulence are fairly large (≈15%–20% for CO₂ and ≈20%–40% for H₂O vapor at lower levels for a 1-h period).

1. Introduction

Determination of the amount and distribution of carbon sequestration or release by terrestrial ecosystems is essential to understanding the global carbon budget. Global CO₂ mixing ratios measured at sites that are minimally affected by local sources and sinks are lower than that expected for atmospheric accumulation of the total anthropogenic CO₂ emissions, implying the existence of a large carbon sink (Conway et al. 1994). Models, isotopic tracer studies, and measurements of atmospheric O₂/N₂ suggest that a very large portion of this sink is land based and located in the Northern Hemisphere (e.g., Tans et al. 1990; Denning et al. 1995; Ciais et al. 1995a, b; Francey et al. 1995; Keeling et al. 1996). To assess the role that the forests of the north-central United States and south-central Canada play in this scenario, a 447-m television tower located in northern Wisconsin (45.95°N, 90.27°W, 472 m above sea level) has been instrumented to measure mean CO₂ mixing ratio profiles; and fluxes of CO₂, latent heat, and sensible heat using the eddy-covariance method. These measurements provide the opportunity to study the seasonal and diurnal processes of the forest in this region. Uses of the tower measurements include determining accurate values of net ecosystem exchange (NEE) of CO₂ for a large footprint of the forest, calculation of boundary layer CO₂ mixing ratios, estimation of CO₂ entrainment at the top of the boundary layer, validation and constraint of carbon cycle models, testing boundary-layer flux gradient relationships, and extrapolation of upper tropospheric CO₂ mixing ratios.

Measurement of CO₂ fluxes using the eddy-covariance method from towers is not a new concept and has been described in some detail (e.g., Baldocchi et al. ...
Fig. 1. Schematic of instrument configuration. WLEF-TV tower is located in the Chequamegon National Forest, about 15 km east of Park Falls, Wisconsin. High-rate flux measurements are made at 30, 122, and 396 m. Slow-rate profile measurements are made at 11, 30, 76, 122, 244, and 396 m. Instrument housing at base of tower not shown.

2. Description of instrumentation

The television tower (WLEF-TV) is located in the Park Falls Ranger District of the Chequamegon National Forest, about 15 km east of Park Falls, Wisconsin. The tower instrumentation configuration is shown schematically in Fig. 1. The system can be divided into two parts: a "flux" system where data are stored at 5 Hz and are suitable for obtaining fluxes using the eddy-covariance method; and a "profiler" system where data are stored at a slower rate and can be used to determine mean mixing ratio profiles of CO₂ for calculation of the CO₂ rate of change of storage term in the NEE budget, and for calibrating the CO₂ signal from the flux system. Flux data are collected at 30, 122, and 396 m above the ground; and profile data are collected at 11, 30, 76, 122, 244, and 396 m.

The flux instrumentation for each level consists of a sonic anemometer (Applied Technologies Inc., Boulder, Colorado, model SAT-11/3K; or Campbell Scientific, Inc., Logan, Utah, model CSAT3, depending on date) to measure wind and sonic virtual temperature, and an infrared gas analyzer (IRGA) (Li-Cor, Incorporated, Lincoln, Nebraska, model LI-6262) to measure CO₂ and H₂O vapor mixing ratios. Additional instrumentation at the flux levels includes a platinum resistance temperature probe packaged together with a capacitive sensor.
for relative humidity (Vaisala model HMP45C). Data from the temperature/humidity probes are used for calibration of the IRGA which will be discussed in section 3a. The anemometers and temperature/humidity probes are attached to booms projecting $\approx 3$ m from the south-facing side of the tower, and the IRGAs are located in a temperature-controlled room of a mobile truck trailer at the base of the tower. Air sampled within 1 m of each sonic anemometer is continuously supplied to the “trailer” IRGAs via a 0.009-m inner diameter tube (DuPont sonic anemometer is continuously supplied to the “trail-

mixing ratios do not require correction by the heat flux

$H_2O$ in terms of mixing ratios. Fluxes calculated with calibration method results in flux signals of $CO_2$ and $H_2O$ vapor are calibrated using data from the pro-

3. Data processing

a. Flux IRGA calibration

The flux IRGA output voltages corresponding to $CO_2$ and $H_2O$ vapor are calibrated using data from the pro-

fer a linear fit of the function that represents the $CO_2$ or $H_2O$ vapor mixing ratio in terms of the IRGA pa-


terms (voltage, pressure, temperature, and in the case of $CO_2$, the $H_2O$ vapor mixing ratio—all known at 5 Hz) versus the $CO_2$ or $H_2O$ mixing ratios from the profiler system or the temperature/humidity probes, respectively, for every 2 days of data.

A second step is to perform a weighted running av-

erage of the slopes and intercepts over a period longer than 2 days (we are currently using 30 days). The weights are based on the statistical properties of the 2-day fits, with better fits receiving higher weight. Daily slope and intercept values determined by the weighted running average are used to convert the 5-Hz IRGA voltages for that day into mixing ratios for $CO_2$ and $H_2O$ vapor. These high-rate time series are used to calculate the fluxes.

The IRGA contains an infrared source and detector that are used to monitor the absorbance of infrared radiation by a known reference gas and the gas to be sampled as they are pumped continuously through a reference cell and sample cell, respectively. The IRGA output voltage is proportional to the difference between the detector signals from each cell (Li-Cor 1996). The detector signal is proportional to the photon flux transmitted through the cell and thus is proportional to the density of the gas in the cell. Therefore, the voltage can be expressed as

$$V \propto \rho_r - \rho_s,$$

where $\rho$ is the gas density and the subscripts $r$ and $s$ refer to the reference and sample cell, respectively.

If the dry air $CO_2$ mixing ratio is defined as $r_c = \rho_r / \rho_d$, where $\rho_r$ is the $CO_2$ density and $\rho_d$ is the dry air density, the voltage $V_c$ can be rewritten as

$$V_c \propto r_c \rho_{dc} - r_c \rho_{ds}.$$

Our goal is to find $r_c$, in terms of the quantities we know, such as the voltage and cell temperature and pressure. Note that $\rho_{dc} \neq \rho_{ds}$.

Since the partial density of $CO_2$ is negligible compared to that of dry air and $H_2O$ vapor, we can use the ideal gas law to obtain

$$\rho_d = \frac{p M_d}{T_v R} - \frac{e M_w}{T R},$$

where $p$ is the total pressure; $M_d$ and $M_w$ are the mo-

lecular weights of dry air and water, respectively; $T_v$ is the virtual temperature, $R$ is the universal gas constant; $e$ is the $H_2O$ vapor pressure; and $T$ is the air temperature.

By connecting the reference and sample cell output tubes immediately after the cells, and because the input tubes are in the same temperature environment, we assume that $p_r = p_s = p$ and $T_r = T_s = T$, respectively. These conditions are estimated to hold within less than 1 hPa for the pressure and 0.5°C for temperature, resulting in less than 0.6% combined error in the flux of $CO_2$ when the system is running in “differential” mode.

### Table 1. Typical flux IRGA system physical dimensions and operating characteristics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level (m)</th>
<th>IRGA position</th>
<th>Tube length (m)</th>
<th>Lag time (s)</th>
<th>Tube inner diameter (m)</th>
<th>Flow rate (L min$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>Reynolds number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>396</td>
<td>Trailer</td>
<td>406</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>2640</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>122</td>
<td>Trailer</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>3250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Trailer</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>1420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>396</td>
<td>Tower</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>0.0032</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>592</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>122</td>
<td>Tower</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.0032</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>915</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(i.e., \( r_{cs} \neq 0 \)). The system was converted to “absolute” mode \( (r_{cs} = 0) \) in mid-1998, which eliminates the issue of unequal pressure and temperature between the reference and sample cell. Also, \( e_i = 0 \) because the reference gas is dry. Thus, if we use standard relationships for H\textsubscript{2}O vapor pressure and virtual temperature, we can rewrite (2) as

\[
V_c \approx \frac{M_c T_0}{R} \left[ \frac{r_{cs} - r_c}{T} \left( \frac{e}{e + r_{qs}} \right) \right].
\]

The quantity \( r_{cs} \) is the H\textsubscript{2}O vapor mixing ratio in the sample cell (obtained below) and \( e = M_o/M_d = 0.622 \). The quantities \( T_0 \) and \( p_0 \) are arbitrary reference values for temperature and pressure, respectively, that have been introduced to normalize the temperature and pressure. We have chosen \( T_0 = 273.15 \) K and \( p_0 = 1000 \) hPa.

We assume that (4) has a linear functional form over a narrow range of CO\textsubscript{2} so that

\[
\hat{m}_c \left[ r_{cs} \left( \frac{e}{e + r_{qs}} \right) - r_c \right] + \hat{b}_c = \frac{p_0}{p} V_c,
\]

where \( R \) and \( M_d \) are absorbed into the slope \( \hat{m}_c \). We determine the values of the coefficients \( \hat{m}_c \) and \( \hat{b}_c \) by performing a linear regression with the unknown sample cell CO\textsubscript{2} mixing ratio, \( r_{cs} \), replaced by the value measured simultaneously by the profiler system.

Finally, we rearrange (5) to yield the mixing ratio for CO\textsubscript{2} as

\[
r_{cs} = \left( m_c \frac{p_0}{p} V_c + \hat{b}_c \right) \frac{T_0}{T} + r_c \left( 1 + \frac{r_c}{e} \right).
\]

with the slope \( m_c = 1/\hat{m}_c \) and intercept \( \hat{b}_c = -\hat{b}_c / \hat{m}_c \). The statistics from the regressions used to find the hatted coefficients provide a straightforward way to determine weights for an averaging procedure that smooths variation in the coefficients over periods longer than that over which the fit is performed.

Similarly, the H\textsubscript{2}O vapor mixing ratio calculated from the relative humidity and temperature obtained from the temperature/humidity probes and atmospheric pressure measured at the base with an analog barometer (Atmospheric Instrumentation Research, Inc., model AB-2A) and extrapolated to the tower level using the altimeter equation (2.35) of Wallace and Hobbs (1977) should match the H\textsubscript{2}O vapor mixing ratio from the flux IRGA. Since the reference cell gas contains no H\textsubscript{2}O vapor, the calibration equation for H\textsubscript{2}O vapor mixing ratio can be written as

\[
r_{qs} = \frac{\left( m_q \frac{p_0}{p} V_q + \hat{b}_q \right) T_0}{1 - \frac{1}{e} \left( m_q \frac{p_0}{p} V_q + \hat{b}_q \right) T_0},
\]

It may be noted that, excluding the water vapor correction, (4) has the same form as presented in the IRGA operation manual [Li-Cor 1996, Eq. (3±4)]. Because the IRGA response is nearly linear in the range encountered over the 2-day fit period, we find it only necessary to calibrate using a linear function instead of the higher-order calibration polynomial function suggested by the manufacturer. A 2-day interval has been found to be long enough to capture sufficient variation in the mixing ratios to determine a fit, and short enough to allow the instrument to be locally calibrated within a linear range and to track instrument drift. Seasonal variability of the range (and thus the fit slope) is most prominent for H\textsubscript{2}O vapor.

The slopes \( m_c \) and \( m_q \) in (6) and (7) are nearly proportional to the variances of \( r_{cs} \) and \( r_{qs} \), respectively. This is because most of the variance is contained in the voltage while the IRGA pressure and temperature are fairly stable. Thus, to accurately calculate fluxes of CO\textsubscript{2} and H\textsubscript{2}O vapor, it is more important to accurately determine the slope than the intercept of the fits.

The precision of the CO\textsubscript{2} measurement from the profiler that is used to calibrate the fast IRGA should be better than 0.1 ppm (Bakwin et al. 1998). The precision of the humidity probe has been estimated to be approximately \( \pm 0.15\% \) RH (Ivan Bogoev 2000, personal communication), or in terms of the tower environment \( \pm 0.08 \text{ g kg}^{-1} \) in the worst case. Since these errors should be random and the calibration is performed with 2-min averages over 2 days, the slope error due to the precision has been estimated to be less than 0.1% for H\textsubscript{2}O, and even smaller for CO\textsubscript{2}. The 2-min averaging time for each data point should also minimize error due to hysteresis of the humidity probe.

The motivation for the calibration method described derives from the availability of the high precision CO\textsubscript{2} and H\textsubscript{2}O vapor values used for determining the slopes. The cost and complexity of running calibration gases through the fast IRGAs were felt to be unnecessary since the CO\textsubscript{2} profile system was already in place and the temperature/humidity probes are relatively inexpensive.

Figures 2a,b show typical 2-day fits (15±16 May 1998) of data used for finding the slopes and intercepts. During the growing season, when fluctuations in CO\textsubscript{2} and H\textsubscript{2}O vapor are large, the correlation coefficients \( (r^2) \) for the fits are usually near unity. The \( r^2 \) values drop somewhat during the winter months when the fluctuations are smaller. Figures 2c,d show the slopes from the 2-day fits superimposed on the 30-day weighted running average for CO\textsubscript{2} and H\textsubscript{2}O, respectively. The seasonal change in the H\textsubscript{2}O calibration coefficients due to the IRGA response can be clearly seen.

The uncertainty in calculated CO\textsubscript{2} and H\textsubscript{2}O fluxes due to random error in the calibration is estimated to be approximately 2%–3%. This is a standard error based on the distribution of the 2-day fits about the weighted running average and assuming that this distribution is
steady over the year. Slightly less scatter is observed in the fits during the growing season, therefore the uncertainty should be less during the portion of the year when fluxes are largest. The uncertainty may be larger during the winter months, but fluxes are small at this time. The uncertainty will increase if the number of usable 2-day fits in the running average window decreases.

b. Sonic anemometer rotation correction

Wind velocities from the sonic anemometers are rotated into a coordinate system aligned with the local mean streamlines. McMillen (1988) and Baldocchi et al. (1988) discuss these rotations in detail.

The rotation is defined by two angles. Using 1-h of data, the mean wind direction \( \phi \) is found with the horizontal wind components \( u \) and \( v \), then a tilt angle \( \theta \) is found by rotating about the mean cross-wind direction to where the average vertical velocity \( w \) becomes zero. A misaligned sonic anemometer in a uniform flow would exhibit a perfect sinusoid to describe tilt angle versus wind direction. Therefore, a sine function is first fitted to the hourly wind direction and tilt angle data. To account for curvature in the streamlines due to local topography and the tower, the sine function is then subtracted from the data and a third-order polynomial function is fitted to the residual. The sine function and polynomial are added to obtain the complete rotation fit, which is then used to align each hour of sonic anemometer data with the local mean streamlines. This procedure results in a finite average vertical wind velocity, \( \overline{w} \). Preliminary analysis shows that although hourly values may not have enough accuracy (\( \sigma_w = 0.1 \text{ m s}^{-1} \)) for determining synoptic-scale lifting or subsidence at that hour, averages over 1–2 days should be suitably accurate (\( \sigma_w = 0.01 \text{ m s}^{-1} \)) to detect synoptic motions and may provide insight into vertical advection issues in the computation of NEE of CO\(_2\) (Yi et al. 2000).

Figure 3 shows an example of the resulting fits for several months of data. When the wind blows from the

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**Fig. 2.** Trailer IRGA calibration, 122-m tower level. Typical 2-day fits of 2-min averaged data (from 15–16 May 1998) used to determine slope and intercept values for (a) CO\(_2\) and (b) H\(_2\)O vapor. Long-term calibration slope from 1998 data for (c) CO\(_2\) and (d) H\(_2\)O vapor where “--” is from 2-day fits and solid line is the 30-day weighted running average used to calibrate signals for flux calculations.
FIG. 3. Sonic anemometer rotation correction for 28 Jul–31 Dec 1998 (1897 usable hours), 396-m level. Tilt angle $\theta$ vs wind direction $\phi$. Fit is $\theta = 3.82 \times 10^{-2} \sin(\phi + 2.68) + 2.23 \times 10^{-4} \phi^3 + 5.58 \times 10^{-4} \phi^2 - 1.75 \times 10^{-3} \phi - 3.42 \times 10^{-3}$ rad. Wind from the north is blocked by the tower.

FIG. 4. Hourly CO$_2$ lag times (s) for trailer IRGA from 30-m level for 1998. Points are from periods where a discernable peak was found in the lagged covariance within a window of lag times expected for that level. Lag times include the dis-synchronization time (approximately 10-s maximum) described in section 3c.

north, the tower impedes the flow. This is the most likely reason for the larger variance of hourly $\theta$ values for wind in this direction; however, the influence of the tower is not observed at the 30- and 122-m levels. The distortion at 396 m may be due to a broadcast antenna mounted to the tower near the instrumentation only at that level.

c. Lag times

Calculating eddy covariance fluxes requires simultaneous measurements of wind and scalar quantities. The long tubes from the air sample inlets to the IRGAs at the base of the tower induce substantial delay in the signals used for calculating the CO$_2$ and H$_2$O fluxes. This delay can be determined by lagging the rotated wind signal until maximum covariance is obtained (Fan et al. 1990). However, this delay may change slightly due to changing flow rates in the tubes from factors such as pumping variation or density and viscosity changes. Lag times may also change in our case, due to poor synchronization of the remote computer that acquires the sonic anemometer data and the main data acquisition computer that acquires the trailer IRGA data and stores all of the data. However, this synchronization error only results in a fixed lag time between the start time of a particular hour-long data file for the sonic and the start time of an hour file of IRGA data. The dis-synchronization can vary from hour to hour up to approximately 10-s maximum. Although the synchronization-induced lag variation is not ideal, it is not considered to be a serious problem since the lag time can be determined. The computer synchronization has recently been improved.

The separation distance from the air sample inlet to the sonic anemometer is approximately 1 m. Lag times resulting from this displacement should be <0–2 s depending on wind speed and direction, but this lag will be included in the lag time determined with the maximum covariance method. Because the turbulence scales contributing to the covariance are much larger than 1 m (see section 3e), the separation will have a minimal effect on the estimation of fluxes.

Figure 4 shows a typical example of the variation in the lag time between the vertical velocity signal and the CO$_2$ signal from the trailer IRGA for the 30-m level. The lag times include the computer dis-synchronization time. All points in Fig. 4 are from periods where the lagged covariances were considered to be unambiguous, that is, a discernable peak was found within a window of lag times expected for that level. It is important to keep track of these lags on an hourly basis to ensure correctly calculated fluxes; one fixed lag time is insufficient. If a flux is not large enough to allow detection of the lag time, as sometimes occurs at night due to low turbulence levels, adjacent hours are used to estimate the lag.

When the lagged covariance shows a clearly detectable peak, a lag time can be determined within approximately $\pm 1$ s for CO$_2$ and $\pm 3$ s for H$_2$O. These times correspond to variation in the calculated flux of 1.5%–2% and 1% for CO$_2$ and H$_2$O, respectively. The variation in CO$_2$ flux is proportionally larger because the CO$_2$ lagged covariance typically has a sharper peak than H$_2$O.

d. CO$_2$ and H$_2$O signal spectral corrections

Spectral degradation of the CO$_2$ and H$_2$O flux signals is expected due to the long tubes that carry sample air to the trailer IRGAs. This problem can be attributed
Figures 5a,b show typical spectra for CO₂ and H₂O from the trailer IRGAs for all levels. In order to match the levels of the spectra at low frequency, each spectrum is normalized by dividing every value in the spectrum by the variance contributed by the lowest frequencies. We chose $f \approx 6 \times 10^{-3}$ Hz as the upper limit for computing this “partial” variance. The CO₂ spectra in Fig. 5a show no relative degradation, at least up to frequencies greater than 0.2 Hz where the signal becomes dominated by instrumental noise. The H₂O spectra in Fig. 5b, however, clearly show increasing attenuation with increasing tower height (i.e., tubing length). Comparison of the low-frequency portion of CO₂ and H₂O nonnormalized spectra from the trailer IRGAs with that from the tower IRGAs found no difference in spectral power (not shown) confirming that there is little low-frequency degradation.

Fig. 5. Spectra normalized by the partial variance (see description in text) for (a) CO₂ and (b) H₂O vapor from trailer IRGA for the 30- (solid), 122- (dashed), and 396-m (dotted) level. The CO₂ spectra show little relative degradation at least up to where noise becomes apparent at approximately 0.2 Hz. The H₂O vapor spectra show relative degradation that increases with height. Solid line of $-5/3$ slope shown for comparison.

Fig. 6 compares the CO₂ and H₂O spectra to the temperature spectrum at the 396-m level and is representative of the other levels. Spectral degradation due to line averaging error (the effect of measuring the temperature over the distance between the sonic transducers and discussed by Moore (1986)) has been estimated to be less than 2% at 0.3 Hz (the typical highest frequency of scales contributing to the fluxes at the lowest level, see section 3e), and far less at lower frequencies.

Fig. 6. Spectra normalized by the partial variance (see description in text) for temperature (dotted), CO₂ (solid), and H₂O vapor (dashed) from trailer IRGA for the 396-m level. The CO₂ and temperature spectra match shape at least up to where noise becomes apparent in the CO₂ spectrum. H₂O vapor shows significant degradation that increases with increasing frequency. All spectra are well matched for frequencies below 0.02 Hz. Solid line of $-5/3$ slope shown for comparison.
pling tubes in order to determine the transfer function \( \phi(f) \) that gives the attenuation at each frequency \( f \) such that

\[
G \phi^2(f) = G_d, 
\]

where \( G \) is the perfectly measured spectrum of some scalar quantity and \( G_d \) is the degraded spectrum. Using Taylor’s representation of the diffusion in the tube for turbulent flow, \( \phi \) is found to be

\[
\phi(f) = \exp(-K f^2),
\]

with

\[
K = \frac{79.7 a L}{\text{Re}^{0.8} U^2},
\]

for laminar flow in the tube, and

\[
K = \frac{0.41 \text{ReScal} L}{U^2},
\]

for turbulent flow. Here \( K \) is a function of the tubing radius \( a \); tubing length \( L \); mean flow velocity \( U \); the Reynolds number \( \text{Re} = 2 a U / v \), where \( v \) is the molecular viscosity; and in the case of turbulent flow, the Schmidt number \( \text{Sc} = v / \nu_0 \), where \( \nu_0 \) is the coefficient of molecular diffusion.

Massman (1991) presents a numerical analysis of spectral attenuation including tabulated values that may be used to calculate the value of \( K \) in (9). He describes an attenuation coefficient based on Reynolds number that differs for particular scalars to take into account differing Schmidt number.

Goulden et al. (1996b) discuss an alternative method for correction of the CO\(_2\) fluxes. Assuming that the temperature signal is nearly perfect, they empirically determine the time constant for a low-pass filter that allows them to mathematically degrade the temperature signal to mimic the degradation of the CO\(_2\) signal by the IRGA and tubes as a system. Then the ratio of the nondegraded to degraded heat flux should match the ratio of the corrected to uncorrected CO\(_2\) flux such that

\[
\frac{w' c'_{\text{corrected}}}{w' c'_{\text{uncorrected}}} = \frac{w' T'_{\text{corrected}}}{w' T'_{\text{uncorrected}}},
\]

where \( w' \), \( c' \), \( T' \), and \( T'_{d} \) are the fluctuating components of the vertical velocity, the CO\(_2\) mixing ratio, the temperature and degraded temperature, respectively, and the overbar denotes time averaging. This presents a simple and effective way to repair CO\(_2\) and H\(_2\)O fluxes if the appropriate filter can be found.

Goulden et al. model the degradation process as a recursive low-pass digital filter described by McMillen (1988) and Moore (1986) as

\[
T_d = \alpha T_{d-1} + (1 - \alpha) T_i,
\]

where \( T_d \) is the degraded temperature \( T_i \) at time \( t_i \), \( T_{d-1} \) denotes a value at the previous time step \( t_{i-1} \), \( T_i \) is the nondegraded temperature at time \( t_i \), and \( \alpha = \exp[-\delta / \tau] \) where \( \delta = t_i - t_{i-1} \) (the time step between points), and \( \tau \) is an empirically determined time constant (J. W. Munger 1998, personal communication). Goulden et al. find \( \tau \) based on an exponential fit to the relaxation of the CO\(_2\) signal after an addition of CO\(_2\) calibration gas at the inlet is shut off. If the selected \( \tau \) is correct, the spectrum of the degraded temperature will have the same shape as the spectrum of the uncorrected CO\(_2\) or H\(_2\)O signal. At our site, it is not practical to determine \( \tau \) using the method above, and therefore it can only be found iteratively by choosing a \( \tau \) and seeing if the resulting degraded temperature spectrum matches the spectrum of the uncorrected CO\(_2\) or H\(_2\)O signal. This is very inefficient computationally and so a more direct method of finding the degraded temperature signal was desired.

One possible method is to degrade the temperature spectrum using a transfer function \( \phi \) calculated from the Taylor-based theory of Lenschow and Raupach or from the numerical results of Massman. Then the degraded temperature time series \( T_d \) can be found by taking the inverse Fourier transform of the degraded spectrum. The combination of these steps can be written as

\[
T_d = \text{Real} \left( \text{IFT} \left( \phi \left( \text{FFT} \left( T \right) \right) \right) \right),
\]

where IFT and FFT denote the inverse Fourier transform and the Fourier transform, respectively, and where \( \phi \) is \( \phi \) and its mirror image so that \( \phi \) corresponds to the double-sided frequency values obtained from the FFT of \( T \). The real part of the IFT gives \( T_d \).

Based on typical values of flow through the sample tubes, the range of \( K \) for all tower levels is estimated to be between 0.7 and 2.7 s\(^2\) based on the Lenschow and Raupach formulation. Using the tabulation of Massman, \( K \) is estimated to be between 4.6 and 20.9 s\(^2\) for H\(_2\)O and 6.1 and 28.8 s\(^2\) for CO\(_2\). Figure 7 shows \( T \) and H\(_2\)O spectra for a typical midday hour at the 122-m level. Also shown is the theoretical curve of the degraded temperature generated using \( K = 14.2 \) s\(^2\), the maximum attenuation for that level based on the tabulation of H\(_2\)O of Massman for \( \text{Re} = 2300 \). For the case shown, the actual \( \text{Re} = 2850 \) so the curve should overestimate the degradation, but it is clear that even when \( \phi \) is overestimated the theory does not capture the attenuation actually seen in the H\(_2\)O spectrum for our instrumentation. However, it is possible to determine a \( \phi \) based directly on the spectra. Fits of the normalized spectra give \( \phi^2 \) as

\[
\frac{G_{\phi}}{\sigma^2_{\phi} \text{FIT}} = \frac{G_{TT}}{\sigma^2_{TT} \text{FIT}},
\]

where \( G \) represents the one-sided spectrum of H\(_2\)O vapor (denoted by \( q \)) or temperature \( (T) \), \( \sigma^2 \) is the partial variance for H\(_2\)O or temperature, and the FIT subscript
denotes that the quantity is a curve fit to the data by least squares. The coefficients for a second-order polynomial fit of the H2O spectrum are found by fitting the spectrum from the minimum frequency ($f_{\text{min}}$ in Fig. 7) up to the frequency where the noise becomes apparent ($f_{\text{knee}}$). Finding $f_{\text{knee}}$ is done using a wavelet edge detector similar to that described by Davis et al. (2000). The fitted H2O spectrum is then generated across the full frequency band ($f_{\text{min}}$ to $f_{\text{max}}$ where $f_{\text{max}}$ is the Nyquist frequency) and used in (15). The full frequency band is used to find the coefficients for a second-order fit of the temperature. Below the highest frequency where the fits of the spectra are equal ($f_{\text{lo}}$), $f$ is assumed to be unity. Once $\phi$ is determined, the degraded temperature can be found with (14) and the corrected latent heat flux found with an equation analogous to (12).

Although suitable for correcting the H2O fluxes, the spectral fit method of finding $\phi$ outlined above cannot be used for CO2 because any degradation to the CO2 signal is hidden in high-frequency noise. Fluxes for CO2 are currently being corrected by using $\phi$ calculated with the theory of Lenschow and Raupach (1991) using (9)–(11).

In addition to spectral attenuation, phase shift (dispersion) may occur due to the tubes. The lag time mentioned in section 3c (a fixed time delay) imparts a linear phase shift with frequency, but if the lag is removed by shifting the time series, phase shift from other mechanisms may remain. Shaw et al. (1998) discuss this issue for a system modeled by a time constant $\tau$. For the recursive low-pass digital filter given by (13) the phase relation is

$$\omega_s(f) = \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{-\alpha \sin(2\pi f \delta)}{1 - \alpha \cos(2\pi f \delta)} \right).$$

Although not mentioned explicitly in Goulden et al. (1996b), according to S. C. Wofsy and J. W. Munger (2000, personal communication), they use a subtle variation to (12) where the vertical velocity is degraded similarly to $T$ using (13) ($w$) and it is substituted into the degraded heat flux $w^'T^'_s$ and the uncorrected CO2 flux $\bar{w}^{{\text{uncorrected}}}_s$. This keeps the signals in phase and maximizes the degraded flux correlations. Although this changes the nondegraded to degraded flux ratios, the corrected CO2 (or H2O) flux should be the same as that given by (12) on average.

We have found that the phase between the velocity and scalar quantities is minimally altered by our system. This implies that degrading the temperature signal using the spectral fit method (which does not alter the phase) and then using (12) to determine the correction is appropriate. Figure 8 shows phase spectra from a typical midday hour between temperature and H2O, -CO2 (which provides a more clear plot since -CO2 is 180° out of phase with temperature at this time period), the temperature degraded using (13) with $\tau = 6$ s (the $\tau$ value necessary to make the degraded temperature spec-
Fig. 8. Phase spectra from a typical mid-day hour for temperature compared with CO$_2$ (dashed), H$_2$O vapor (dotted), and degraded temperature $T_d$ from the recursive low-pass digital filter given by Eq. (13) with $\tau = 6$ (solid) for the 122-m level. Theoretical curve of phase given by Eq. (16) for the filter (smooth solid) matches phase between temperature and degraded temperature. Phase spectra for CO$_2$ and H$_2$O vapor have been truncated at higher frequency for clarity.

It is clear that H$_2$O and CO$_2$ are not appreciably degraded in phase up to at least 0.1 Hz where the calculated phase passes from $\pm 180^\circ$ to $\mp 180^\circ$ (“wrapping”), and that our system is not modeled well by the filtered signal. For the case shown, the flux contributed by scales corresponding to $f > 0.1$ Hz is approximately 4% of the total. Additionally, the heat flux calculated from the degraded temperature obtained by the spectral fit method (no phase shift) differs from the flux using the filter method [phase shifted by (13)] by only 2%. This indicates that the error due to phase degradation is minimal. Additional justification for neglecting the phase is given by Leuning and Moncrieff (1990) and Leuning and King (1992), who discuss dispersion effects studied by Philip (1963), concluding that the speeds of different scales through a tube are nearly equal if $\Omega < 10$ with $\Omega = 2\pi f a^2 / \nu_p$. For our system we have estimated $\Omega \approx 4.0$ for $f < 1$ Hz.

Figures 9a,b show a comparison of spectrally corrected and uncorrected diurnally averaged fluxes for CO$_2$ and H$_2$O vapor from both the trailer and tower IRGA signals at the 122-m level. Note that H$_2$O presents good agreement between the corrected fluxes, with the uncorrected flux from the trailer IRGA signal being the most degraded. For the CO$_2$ flux, the corrected and uncorrected curves are virtually identical. However, the trailer and tower show some disagreement. Calibration error may account for some of this discrepancy. Table 2 lists the approximate underestimation of CO$_2$ and H$_2$O fluxes for the trailer and tower IRGAs from examination of long-term spectral corrections. The $\phi$ of Lenschow and Raupach strongly attenuates small turbulence scales, thus the night values for CO$_2$ flux correction are larger due to smaller turbulence scales typically dominating at night. The correction to H$_2$O, however, is influenced by much larger scales and has been found to have little diurnal sensitivity. The reduction in flux underestimation with increasing height is also due to scales, where scale size increases with height. The trailer IRGAs consistently require more correction than those on the tower, although the underestimation of H$_2$O flux from the tower IRGAs is not negligible ($\approx 12\%$).

e. Scale and random error analysis of fluxes

The eddy covariance method requires that the flow be stationary and that all flux-carrying eddies are sampled for an accurate estimation of the flux. Provided that the flow is stationary, an ogive provides a check on the necessary condition of sampling all flux-carrying scales (Desjardins et al. 1989; Friehe et al. 1991). An ogive is defined as the cumulative sum of a cospectrum from high to low frequency and thus has a value equal to the covariance or flux at the lowest frequency. Ogives that have an asymptotic shape toward the highest and lowest frequencies suggest that all flux-carrying scales are contained in the sample period. Figure 10 presents ogives
from all tower levels for sensible heat flux based on 2-h sample periods centered at every hour of a day except 0000 and 2400 UTC. Daytime heat fluxes are large and positive, and are the result of the contribution of a wide range of scale sizes. Nighttime heat fluxes are small and negative, and the range of flux-contributing scale sizes is decreased. Flux-carrying scale size also increases with altitude. These observations are consistent with buoyancy dominating the daytime convective regime, shear dominating at night, and scales decreasing in size closer to the surface. Dashed lines denoting 2-, 1-, and 0.5-h sample times show that although 0.5 h may be an acceptable period for flux calculations at the lowest level, at least 1 h is necessary to allow the ogives to converge at the highest level. This supports the choice of 1 h as the period for flux calculations at all tower levels at WLEF. It also adds confidence to fluxes calculated over 0.5 h at the many canopy-level flux towers being used throughout the world. Additionally, Fig. 10 makes it clear that the sample frequency of 5 Hz is adequate for resolving the high-frequency scales contributing to the flux.

Based on theory developed by Lenschow and Stankov (1986), the relative error, $a$, of a flux value can be estimated using the integral length scale of the flux, the cross-correlation coefficient for the flux variables, and the length over which the flux measurement is made. The relative error of flux $F$ is defined as $a = \sigma_F / \langle F \rangle$, where $\langle F \rangle$ is the ensemble average. Figures 11a,b show how $a$ varies with height normalized by the boundary-layer height, $z/z_i$, for sensible heat flux and CO$_2$ flux determined over hourly periods during the convective times of 10–11 May 1998. Especially at higher levels in the boundary layer, the relative error can be quite large, on the order of the flux value itself. This result is not unexpected, Lenschow and Stankov show that large averaging times are necessary to reach low relative error levels, with momentum flux requiring the longest averaging length. At the lower levels, relative error for heat flux is less than 20%; however, for CO$_2$ flux, the relative error can be up to 40%–50%. These relative error values should be similar for measurements over any forest canopy. The only way to reduce the relative error is to increase the length over which the turbulence is averaged; however, care must be taken to avoid averaging times that exceed the time over which the flow is stationary, such as the transition from evening to daytime regimes. It should be noted, however, that even though the relative error may be fairly large for a single flux measurement, the long-term average of the flux will

<table>
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<th>Level (m)</th>
<th>IRGA position</th>
<th>CO$_2$ Day</th>
<th>CO$_2$ Night</th>
<th>H$_2$O Day</th>
<th>H$_2$O Night</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>396</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>Trailer</td>
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<td>9</td>
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<tr>
<td>30</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>396</td>
<td>Tower</td>
<td>&lt;0.1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>122</td>
<td>Tower</td>
<td>&lt;0.1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fig. 10. Hourly ogives based on 2-h periods 11 May 1998 for sensible heat flux at the (a) 396-, (b) 122-, and (c) 30-m levels. Nighttime fluxes are negative due to surface cooling. Flux-carrying scale size increases with altitude and decreases at night, which is consistent with buoyancy dominating the daytime convective regime and shear dominating at night. Dashed vertical lines correspond to time periods of 2, 1, and 0.5 h.

Fig. 11. Relative error $a$, with height normalized by the boundary-layer height, $z/\delta_z$, for (a) sensible heat flux and (b) CO$_2$ flux, based on the theory of Lenschow and Stankov (1986). Errors were calculated from 1-h periods during the convective times of 10–11 May 1998.
have significantly less error because the relative errors are random (Moncrieff et al. 1996). Another important aspect of the relative error with respect to our site, where multiple levels are used, is that the measurements at different levels are not completely independent; the relative error in the difference between the fluxes from two different levels should be less than that implied by the independent relative error of each measurement. The relative error of the difference will depend on the coherence of the turbulence between the levels. This discussion is beyond the scope of this paper.

4. Conclusions

The methodology and instrumentation to measure fluxes at three levels on a very tall tower in northern Wisconsin have been described. The primary steps necessary for processing the data from the tower are calibration of the IRGAs measuring the CO$_2$ and H$_2$O vapor mixing ratios, obtaining long-term fits of the angles required to rotate the sonic anemometer data into a defined reference frame, and the determination of lag times and spectral corrections necessitated by the long tubes that carry sample air to the IRGAs. Uncertainty in the flux related to calibration and lag determination were found to be minimal (<3%). Underestimation of the flux due to spectral degradation is small to moderate for CO$_2$ (<5% during the day, <12% at night), and moderate for H$_2$O (<21%), but these underestimations are correctable. The largest uncertainty in estimating eddy covariance fluxes is from the random nature of turbulence where relative uncertainties of the order of the flux itself may occur when scale sizes are large and the averaging times are short, but is generally <15%-40% for 1-h averaging periods at the lower levels. These uncertainties are inherent in the eddy covariance method itself, but long-term flux averages will have far less error. Assuming that spectral degradation can be corrected and excluding random uncertainty in the flux measurements the total flux measurement uncertainty is estimated to be ≈2%-4%.

Acknowledgments. This research was funded in part by the National Institute for Global Environmental Change through the U.S. Department of Energy (Cooperative Agreement DEFC03-90ER61010). Any opinions, findings, and conclusions or recommendations expressed herein are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of DOE. From the University of California, Irvine, we thank Scott Miller for help with the phase analysis, and thanks is given to Peter Fuehrer and Djemal Khelif for helpful discussions related to mathematical details of the spectral fit method. We are grateful to Ron Teclaw and Aaron Berger of the Rhi- neland, Wisconsin, office of the U.S. Department of Agriculture Forest Service (USDAFS) for their assistance in maintaining the tower instrumentation. We also thank William Massman at the USDAFS Rocky Mountain Research Station, and the reviewers, for help with the phase formulation. We express gratitude to the State of Wisconsin Educational Communications Board and Roger Strand (chief engineer for WLEF-TV). The carbon dioxide mixing ratio measurements and site infrastructure and maintenance were supported by the Atmospheric Chemistry Project of the Climate and Global Change Program of the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration.

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