

# A process-based model of conifer forest structure and function with special emphasis on leaf lifespan

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**Abstract.** We describe the University of Sheffield Conifer Model (USCM), a process-based approach for simulating conifer forest carbon, nitrogen, and water fluxes by up-scaling widely applicable relationships between leaf lifespan and function. The USCM is designed to predict and analyze the biogeochemistry and biophysics of conifer forests that dominated the ice-free high-latitude regions under the high  $p\text{CO}_2$  ‘greenhouse’ world 290 to 50 Myr ago. It will be of use in future research investigating controls on the contrasting distribution of ancient evergreen and deciduous forests between hemispheres, and their differential feedbacks on polar climate through the exchange of energy and materials with the atmosphere. Emphasis is placed on leaf lifespan because this trait can be determined from the anatomical characteristics of fossil conifer woods and influences a range of ecosystem processes. Extensive testing of simulated net primary production and partitioning, leaf area index, evapotranspiration, nitrogen uptake and land surface energy partitioning showed close agreement with observations from sites across a wide climatic gradient. This indicates the generic utility of our model, and adequate representation of the key processes involved in forest function using only information on leaf lifespan, climate, and soils.

## 1. Introduction

The current situation of glaciated polar regions surrounded by sparse, low-stature tundra is unusual in the geologic history of vascular land plants [Frakes *et al.*, 1992]. The plant fossil record demonstrates that tall, productive, conifer forests covered the high latitude landmasses between the Permian and the Eocene, 290 to 50 million years (Myr) ago [Jefferson, 1982; Spicer and Parrish, 1986, 1990; Spicer and Chapman, 1990; Taylor *et al.*, 1992]. These ancient polar forests provide tangible evidence for a major poleward advancement of the tree line, and flourished under a high  $p\text{CO}_2$  [Crowley and Berner, 2001] and a warm, ice-free climate [Frakes *et al.*, 1992], despite extended periods of continuous summer daylight and winter darkness [Read and Francis, 1992; Beerling and Osborne, 2002]. One of the most intriguing features of these ecosystems was the distinctive biogeography of their leaf habit, with a mixture of evergreen and deciduous species in Arctic forests, and evergreens predominating on Antarctica [Falcon-Lang, 2000a,b; Falcon-Lang and Cantrill, 2000, 2001]. Contemporary evergreen and deciduous forests alter the seasonal course of vegetation-climate feedbacks, particularly at the regional scale [Bonan *et al.*, 1992; Sellers *et al.*, 1996; Betts *et al.*, 1997; Levis *et al.*, 1999; Douville *et al.*, 2000]. The action of forest feedbacks on climate, through changes in land surface energy, moisture and momentum fluxes, are especially strong in the mid- to high-latitude regions, and presumably operated in the distant past [Otto-Bliesner and Upchurch, 1997]. However, paleoclimate

modeling studies have tended to uncouple land-atmosphere energy exchanges from physiological processes and their responses to the global environment.

Just how the polar climate influenced the biogeography of these ancient forests [Axelrod, 1966, 1984; Douglas and Williams, 1982; Creber and Chaloner, 1985] and how, in turn, the forests affected regional climates, continues to remain uncertain. Conifer forests are optically darker than other vegetation types, allowing them to absorb more solar radiation, with a greater potential for evaporating water and heating the air and soil [Jarvis *et al.*, 1976]. They are also aerodynamically rougher, enhancing the transfer of mass and energy through increased turbulence. These feedback characteristics therefore represent a 'missing link' in palaeoclimate modeling studies [Otto-Bliesner and Upchurch, 1997; Beerling, 2000], which consistently produce high-latitude winter temperatures far below freezing [Markwick, 1994; Greenwood and Wing, 1995]. This result is incompatible with corresponding biotic indicators of climate that suggest the existence of mild high-latitude winters [*e.g.* Markwick, 1994; Greenwood and Wing, 1995].

New techniques in paleobotany [Falcon-Lang, 2000a,b], and novel observations from global-scale plant physiological studies [Reich *et al.*, 1992, 1997, 1998a,b, 1999], now offer the potential to develop a new mechanistic approach for investigating these issues. In the paleobotanical realm, Falcon-Lang [2000a, b] has established an important quantitative technique for determining leaf lifespan from cellular analyses of fossil conifer woods. His approach utilizes the inverse correlation between growth ring markedness (defined as the percentage of late wood and decline in cell size within a given ring) and leaf lifespan across a wide range of contemporary northern and southern hemisphere conifer taxa. Initial studies on tropical (2-13 °S) Carboniferous gymnosperm woods and high latitude (72 °S) early-Cretaceous fossil conifer woods indicate evergreen forests in both cases, in agreement with more traditional palaeobotanical approaches [Falcon-Lang and Cantrill, 2001]. Interestingly, leaf retention times of the Antarctic species were estimated to be 5-13 years, values approaching the upper limit in modern conifers [Chabot and Hicks, 1982].

Alongside these developments in paleobotany, Reich *et al.* [1992, 1997, 1998a,b, 1999] reported, from a global set of observations, that leaf lifespan was strongly related to carbon uptake (by photosynthesis) and loss (by respiration), transpiration and nutrient content. The relationships between leaf form, function, chemistry, and longevity are remarkably robust and hold for terrestrial plants with contrasting evolutionary and climatic histories [Reich *et al.*, 1997]. In general, longer-lived leaves are mechanically tougher [Coley, 1988], have a lower nitrogen content, stomatal conductance, and rates of photosynthesis and respiration than their shorter-lived counterparts (Figure 1) [Reich *et al.*, 1992, 1998a, b, 1999]. These traits slow ecosystem cycling of carbon and nutrients by leading to high biomass canopies with longer residence times, and by retarding rates of soil nutrient release by litter decomposition (Figure 1) [Schlesinger, 1997]. Collectively, the functional interactions between leaf lifespan

and key plant traits govern major components of conifer forest ecology and biogeochemistry, and offer great scope for numerically modeling these processes.

Building on this research, we describe a generic process-based model of conifer forest structure and function (University of Sheffield Conifer model, USCM), which emphasizes leaf lifespan through the fundamental relationships reported by *Reich et al.* [1992, 1998a, b, 1999]. The objective of this paper is to examine the hypothesis that a conifer model, using leaf lifespan as the driving physiological variable, can explain large-scale distribution patterns of leaf area index and net primary productivity. The work is developed with the long-term research objective of reconstructing high-latitude forests that existed 290-50 Myr ago, and their interactions with the greenhouse climate that prevailed at the time.

## 2. Model Description

Our model focuses on the large-scale implications of variation in leaf lifespan (Figure 1), and is designed for application at scales ranging from local to global, both in the present and geologic past. Four important aspects of forest function and their coupling are considered in relation to leaf lifespan: carbon exchange with the atmosphere, fluxes of water through the soil-plant-atmosphere continuum, limitation of growth by nitrogen, and land surface-atmosphere energy exchange (Figure 2, Table 1). Leaf lifespan is a key input to the model and is integrated so that its impacts on the carbon, nitrogen, water and energy budgets cascade to progressively larger scales (Figure 1, Table 1). Inclusion of leaf lifespan and conifer-specific environment responses provide a more direct means of scaling from fossil wood analyses [*Falcon-Lang*, 2000a,b; *Falcon-Lang and Cantrill*, 2000, 2001] than might be achieved using generic global vegetation models [e.g. *Cramer et al.*, 2001; *McGuire et al.*, 2001].

### 2.1. Carbon Balance

The net primary productivity of vegetation  $P_n$  is the annual balance between net canopy photosynthesis  $A_c$  and respiration  $R$ . Respiration produces the energy for two main groups of processes, and these are divided for the purposes of modeling, although they share a number of biochemical pathways [*Amthor*, 2000]: first, the maintenance of existing plant tissues via the processes of repair, turnover, acclimation and active transport  $R_M$ ; secondly the growth of leaf bud, root tip and woody cambium meristems, accounting for energy expended in the nutrient uptake and transport required to supply these processes [*Lambers et al.*, 1983]. Growth respiration is expressed as the efficiency of dry matter production from fixed carbon  $Y_G$  [*Thornley*, 1970], giving

$$P_n = m_c Y_G \sum_{m=1}^{12} (A_c - R_M) , \quad (1)$$

where  $A_c$  and  $R_M$  are calculated for each month  $m$  to give an annual net carbon balance, and  $m_c$  converts moles of fixed carbon to mass of sugars.

Net canopy photosynthesis  $A_c$  is simulated using a biochemical model of leaf photosynthesis, by treating sunlit and shaded fractions of the canopy as a ‘big-leaf’ [Farquhar *et al.*, 1980; de Pury and Farquhar, 1997]. Photosynthesis is sensitive to canopy temperature, incident solar radiation, and the diffusion of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> into leaves. It is therefore closely coupled with both canopy energy balance and resistance to gaseous diffusion imposed by stomata (Figure 2). The impacts of leaf lifespan on these canopy processes are exerted through its relationship with photosynthetic capacity, respiration rate, stomatal conductance and the mass: area ratio (Figure 1). The control of photosynthesis and respiration by leaf lifespan operates through its relationship with nitrogen content (Figure 1).

Canopy photosynthesis is the sum of rates for sunlit  $A_s$  and shaded  $A_{sh}$  populations of leaves [de Pury and Farquhar, 1997], calculated for each hour of the day  $h$ , and summed for the days in each month  $d$ :

$$A_c = d \sum_{h=1}^{24} 3600(A_s + A_{sh}). \quad (2)$$

The 3600 term integrates  $A_c$  from seconds to hours. Both  $A_s$  and  $A_{sh}$  depend on the balance between respiration  $R_d$ , and CO<sub>2</sub> fixation, which is determined by either regeneration of the CO<sub>2</sub>-accepting molecule Ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate (RubP)  $A_j$ , or activity of the primary carboxylating enzyme RubP carboxylase / oxygenase (Rubisco)  $A_v$  [Farquhar *et al.*, 1980]:

$$A = \min\{A_v, A_j\} - R_d, \quad (3)$$

where ‘min’ denotes ‘the minimum of’. Rubisco-limited photosynthesis is governed by: the partial pressures of CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> within the leaf,  $C_i$  and  $O_i$  respectively; the enzyme’s temperature-sensitive affinities for these gases,  $K_c$  and  $K_o$  respectively [Bernacchi *et al.*, 2001]; and its carboxylation capacity  $V_{c,max}$ , such that

$$A_v = V_{c,max} \frac{C_i - C_p}{C_i + K_c(1 + O_i/K_o)}, \quad (4)$$

where  $C_p$  is the CO<sub>2</sub> compensation point [von Caemmerer, 2000]. Regeneration of RubP in the Calvin Cycle is limited by light-dependent electron transport  $J$ , so that

$$A_j = \frac{J(C_i - C_p)}{4C_i + 8C_p}, \text{ where} \quad (5)$$

$$J = \frac{\phi Q}{\sqrt{1 + \phi^2 Q^2 / J_{max}^2}}. \quad (6)$$

The latter is an empirical function of the electron transport capacity  $J_{max}$ , the quantum flux  $Q$ , of photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) absorbed by canopy leaves, and the quantum efficiency of electron transport  $\phi$ . Values of  $V_{c,max}$  and  $J_{max}$  are closely coordinated [de Pury and Farquhar, 1997]

$$J_{\max} = 2.1V_{c,\max} \quad (7)$$

but each responds independently to canopy temperature [Harley *et al.*, 1992; Walcroft *et al.*, 1997]. In addition to CO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub> and climate data, calculation of  $A_c$  therefore requires only an estimate of  $Q$ ,  $V_{c,\max}$  and  $R_d$  for each of the sunlit and shaded portions of the canopy.

Canopy absorption of PAR is strongly influenced by the positioning of leaves, which are aggregated into whorls or clumps in conifers. This aggregation can be represented with a foliage-clumping index  $\Omega$  (Table 2), to estimate the canopy leaf area that is effective in intercepting radiation  $L_e$  [Chen and Black, 1992] from the actual leaf area index  $L_a$ :

$$L_e = \frac{\Omega L_a}{\chi} \quad (8)$$

The mean  $\Omega$  for ten species (Table 2) is defined as the ratio of  $L_e$  to  $L_a$ , assessed experimentally using a combination of optical and destructive methods [Chen, 1996]. Vegetation cover  $\chi$  allows for incomplete coverage of the land surface by trees, and is calculated following Betts *et al.* [1997]. Using  $L_e$  and  $\chi$ , absorption of PAR by the whole canopy  $Q_c$ , and its sunlit  $Q_s$  and shaded  $Q_{sh}$  fractions, each may be calculated on a land area basis after *de Pury and Farquhar* [1997]:

$$Q_c = \chi \int_0^{L_e} Q_b k_{bs} (1 - \rho_b) \exp(-k_{bs} L) dL + \chi \int_0^{L_e} Q_d k_{ds} (1 - \rho_d) \exp(-k_{ds} L) dL \quad (9)$$

$$Q_s = \chi \int_0^{L_e} Q_b k_b \alpha_p \exp(-k_b L) dL + \chi \int_0^{L_e} Q_d k_{ds} (1 - \rho_d) \exp\{-L(k_b + k_{ds})\} dL + \chi \int_0^{L_e} Q_b [k_{bs} (1 - \rho_b) \exp\{-L(k_b + k_{bs})\} - \alpha_p k_b \exp(-2k_b L)] dL \quad (10)$$

$$\text{and } Q_{sh} = Q_c - Q_s \quad (11)$$

The canopy extinction coefficients for beam and scattered PAR  $k_{bs}$ , diffuse and scattered PAR  $k_{ds}$ , and beam PAR  $k_b$ , vary with the solar zenith angle  $\theta$  [de Pury and Farquhar, 1997]. Similarly, the canopy reflection coefficients for beam PAR  $\rho_b$  and diffuse PAR  $\rho_d$  depend on  $\theta$  and leaf PAR absorptance  $\alpha_p$  (Table 2) [de Pury and Farquhar, 1997]. We estimate the incident beam  $Q_b$  and diffuse  $Q_d$  PAR using solar geometry and the empirical formulae of Weiss and Norman [1985], by assuming a well-broken low cloud cover [Lumb, 1964].

The vertical canopy profile of leaf physiological properties is derived from the area-based decline in nitrogen content  $N_a$  with depth in the canopy, and integrated to obtain  $V_{c,\max}$  for

sunlit  $V_s$  and shaded  $V_{sh}$  canopy fractions [de Pury and Farquhar, 1997]. In a number of contrasting woody species, including conifers, the bulk of the decrease in  $N_a$  is attributable to a reduction in the leaf mass-to-area ratio, rather than any significant change in nitrogen concentration  $N_l$  [Hollinger, 1989; Ellsworth and Reich, 1993; Rambal et al., 1996; Bond et al., 1999]. The leaf mass-to-area ratio  $M$  declines at a constant rate with depth in the canopy (Figure 3), from a value in the uppermost leaf positions  $M_0$  that correlates with  $Z_l$  [Reich et al., 1999]:

$$M_L = M_0 - k_M L, \quad (12)$$

$$\log(1/M_0) = 2.43 - 0.46 \log Z_l, \quad (13)$$

where  $M_L$  is the value of  $M$  beneath a leaf area index of  $L$ , and  $k_M$  is the rate of decrease, derived from observations of three conifer species with contrasting shade tolerance (Figure 3). Equation 12 was fitted by setting  $M_0$  to the observed mean value of each species. The canopy profile of  $V_{c,max}$  tracks  $M_L$

$$V_{c,max} = \sigma_v V_m (M_0 - k_M L), \quad (14)$$

where  $V_m$  is the Rubisco carboxylation capacity on a foliage mass basis, and  $\sigma_v$  accounts for the decline in  $V_{c,max}$  with leaf age. Field evidence from a wide range of conifer species demonstrates a decline in photosynthetic capacity with leaf age, from a maximum shortly after full leaf expansion to a minimum of around zero at leaf abscission [Reich et al., 1995]. This decline may be mechanistically linked with seasonal variation in soil nitrogen availability [Thornley, 1998]. However, it occurs continuously over several growing seasons in the case of an evergreen leaf [Reich et al., 1995], and is poorly correlated with nitrogen in some deciduous species [Wilson et al., 2000a], highlighting important uncertainty in the underlying mechanism. We therefore use the empirical factor  $\sigma_v$ , and integrate this important effect to the canopy scale by simulating a single cohort of leaves each year, which emerges from buds located throughout the canopy. For deciduous trees, the canopy  $V_{c,max}$  declines from its maximum value to zero within a single growing season, giving:

$$\sigma_v = \frac{(Z_l - t)}{Z_l}, \quad (15a)$$

where  $t$  is the time elapsed since leaf budburst. The average canopy value of  $\sigma_v$  for evergreens must account for multiple cohorts of leaves, each separated by a year in age:

$$\sigma_v = (1 - \sigma_{min}) \frac{(Z_l - t)}{Z_l} + \sigma_{min}, \quad (15b)$$

where  $\sigma_{min}$  is the minimum canopy value of  $\sigma_v$ , immediately before the flush growth of new leaves, given by

$$\sigma_{\min} = \frac{Z_l - 12}{Z_l} . \quad (16)$$

The values of  $V_s$  and  $V_{sh}$  are obtained by integrating 14 for sunlit and shaded canopy fractions after *de Pury and Farquhar* [1997]:

$$V_c = \chi \sigma_v \int_0^{L_e} [V_m (M_0 - k_M L)] dL , \quad (17)$$

$$V_s = \chi \sigma_v \int_0^{L_e} [V_m (M_0 - k_M L) \exp(-k_b L)] dL , \quad (18)$$

$$V_{sh} = V_c - V_s . \quad (19)$$

The value of  $V_m$  is calculated from  $N_l$  (Figure 3):

$$\log V_m = 2.22 \log N_l - 3.28 . \quad (20)$$

The close correlation between these variables (Figure 3) was obtained using paired observations of mean photosynthesis and leaf nitrogen for eight diverse biomes [*Reich et al.*, 1999], with  $V_m$  calculated following *Berling and Quick* [1995]. Since  $N_l$  is also correlated with leaf lifespan  $Z_l$  [*Reich et al.*, 1998a], canopy photosynthesis ultimately depends on this trait (Figure 1):

$$\log N_l = 1.57 - 0.34 \log Z_l . \quad (21)$$

Leaf respiration is sensitive to temperature and strongly inhibited by light [*Atkin et al.* 2000]. Although some evidence points to a direct repression of activity in key respiratory enzymes by elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$ , this remains controversial, and is not considered at present [*Drake et al.*, 1999]. Leaf respiration is thus

$$R_d = r_T r_Q R_a , \quad (22)$$

where  $R_a$  is  $R_d$  under standard conditions of temperature and light. The response of  $R_d$  to absorbed PAR  $r_Q$  follows *Amthor* [1994], and its temperature sensitivity  $r_T$  is described by an Arrhenius response with an activation energy  $H_r$  (Table 2) [*Walcroft et al.*, 1997]. Values of  $R_a$  for sunlit and shaded portions of the canopy are obtained by substituting  $V_m$  with mass-based canopy dark respiration  $R_m$  in 17-19. The relationship between  $R_m$  and  $N_l$  is similar to the correlation between  $V_m$  and  $N_l$  (20), because the turnover of nitrogen-rich proteins such as Rubisco is metabolically expensive [*Reich et al.*, 1998b; *Amthor*, 2000]. Without compelling evidence for a shift in the balance between photosynthesis and respiration with leaf lifespan [*D.S. Ellsworth*, personal communication; *Reich et al.*, 1998b, 1999], we adopted a direct relationship between  $R_m$  and  $V_m$  derived from mean observations for eight diverse biomes [*Reich et al.*, 1999] (Figure 3):

$$R_m = 0.022 V_m + 3.1 . \quad (23)$$

This method is supported by a mechanistic link between the energy requirements of Rubisco turnover and respiratory activity [Penning de Vries, 1975].

Maintenance respiration of non-photosynthetic organs  $R_M$  occurs largely in the roots  $R_r$ , and living cells of the sapwood  $R_s$ :

$$R_M = d(R_r + R_s). \quad (24)$$

Root respiration is sensitive to temperature and closely correlated with the nitrogen concentration in coarse  $N_{cr}$  and ephemeral  $N_{er}$  roots (Table 2), because of a tight coupling between nitrogen, protein content and metabolic activity [Ryan *et al.*, 1996]:

$$R_r = 24 \times 3600 \times r_T r_N [N_{er} \phi_r + N_{cr} (1 - \phi_r)] W_r \times 10^{-9}, \quad (25)$$

where  $r_N$  is the sensitivity of respiration to root nitrogen content,  $W_r$  is the total root mass, and  $\phi_r$  is the fraction of  $W_r$  comprised of ephemeral roots (Table 2). The temperature-sensitivity of root respiration follows an Arrhenius response (Table 2). Field evidence suggests that root respiration is negligible during the period of winter dormancy [Striegl and Wickland, 1998], when physiological activity approaches a minimum. We therefore consider fine root respiration to be zero during leafless periods in deciduous trees.

The maintenance respiration of sapwood is more closely related to its volume  $v_s$  than nitrogen concentration  $N_s$  [Ryan *et al.*, 1995], giving

$$R_s = r_T r_V v_s, \quad (26)$$

where  $r_V$  is the respiration rate per unit sapwood volume (Table 2). The value of  $v_s$  is estimated from tree height and the cross-sectional area of sapwood [Osborne and Beerling, 2002].

The growth efficiency  $Y_G$  is insensitive to environmental conditions, but differs between different plant tissue types according to their chemical composition (Table 2). It is weighted by  $P_n$ :

$$Y_G = \sum_i \left[ \frac{P_i}{P_n} Y_{Gi} \right], \quad (27)$$

where the subscript  $i$  denotes leaves, roots or sapwood, for  $P_n$  or  $Y_G$ . The cost of leaf growth increases on an area basis because  $M$  rises with lifespan (13), but the mass-based  $Y_G$  remains unchanged [reviewed by Poorter and Villar, 1997]. Field evidence demonstrates that this occurs because a decline in energetically expensive proteins with lifespan is paralleled by a decrease in energetically cheap minerals [Poorter and de Jong, 1999].

## 2.2. Energy and Water Budgets



Net radiation at the canopy  $\Phi_n$  and soil  $\Phi_s$  surfaces is dissipated by latent  $\lambda E$ , sensible  $H$ , and soil  $G_s$  heat fluxes [Monteith and Unsworth, 1990]

$$\Phi_n + \Phi_s = \lambda E + H + G_s. \quad (28)$$

The influx of energy to the canopy from absorbed PAR  $P_c$  and near infrared radiation (NIR)  $N_c$  is calculated using 9, with appropriate values for leaf absorptance (Table 1). Downward flux of longwave radiation from the sky  $L_d$  is an additional energy source, which varies with air and cloud temperature [Jones, 1992], and the cloud cover (assumed to be 50%). Longwave radiation is also emitted upward and downward  $L_c$  from the canopy, and upward from the soil  $L_s$ , tracking the temperature of each according to Stefan's Law [Monteith and Unsworth, 1990]. Net canopy radiation is thus

$$\Phi_n = P_c + N_c + L_d - 2L_c + L_s. \quad (29)$$

The value of  $\Phi_s$  depends on PAR and NIR penetration of the canopy, and the extent to which this energy is absorbed by the soil and woody parts of trees, described by the absorptance of each,  $\alpha_s$  and  $\alpha_w$ , respectively:

$$\Phi_s = \alpha_s [\chi(1 - \alpha_w) + (1 - \chi)] (P_I - P_c + N_I - N_c) + L_c - L_s. \quad (30)$$

The soil warms during summer, and cools over the winter following observations [Williams *et al.*, 1992], and we therefore approximate  $G_s$  as 10% of  $\Phi_s$  [Clothier *et al.*, 1986], as an influx in summer and efflux in winter.

Latent heat flux from a forest is comprised of transpiration by vegetation  $\lambda E_t$ , evaporation of rainfall intercepted by the leaf canopy  $\lambda E_i$ , and evaporation from the soil surface  $\lambda E_e$ . These are governed by physical properties of the atmosphere and water, aerodynamic characteristics of the vegetation and stomatal conductance of the canopy [Penman, 1948; Monteith, 1965]

$$\lambda E_i = \frac{s\Phi_n + \rho_a c_p g_a D_a}{s + \gamma}, \text{ for } I > 0, \quad (31)$$

$$\lambda E_t = \frac{s\Phi_n + \rho_a c_p g_a D_a}{s + \gamma g_a / g_w}, \text{ for } I = 0, \quad (32)$$

$$\lambda E_e = \beta \left[ \frac{s\Phi_s + \rho_a c_p g_f D_a}{s + \gamma} \right], \quad (33)$$

where  $I$  is the quantity of precipitation  $p$  intercepted by the canopy [Woodward, 1987] and  $\beta$  is the ratio of actual to potential  $\lambda E_e$ , which increases with soil water content and wind speed [Chanzy and Bruckler, 1993], although the latter tends to be very low at the forest floor [Wilson *et al.*, 2000b]. The aerodynamic conductance for evaporation from the forest floor

$g_f$  [Jones, 1992] is estimated by assuming a roughness length of 0.01m [Shuttleworth and Wallace, 1985] and wind speed of  $0.4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  at 1m above the ground [Woodward, 1987]. The temperature dependences of  $s$ , the rate of change of saturation vapor pressure with temperature;  $\gamma$ , the psychrometer constant;  $\rho_a$ , the density of dry air; and  $D_a$  are accounted for following Jones [1992].

Total canopy conductance to water vapor flux  $g_W$  is comprised of aerodynamic  $g_a$  and stomatal  $g_s$  conductance in series, by analogy with Ohm's Law [Jones, 1992]. Aerodynamic properties of the canopy depend on: tree height; the density of foliage, as represented by  $L_a$ ; the characteristic dimension of leaves; and wind speed, assumed to be  $20 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  at 200m above the ground [Shaw and Pereira, 1982; Jones, 1992; Woodward et al., 1995]. Stomatal conductance is correlated with photosynthetic rate and leaf lifespan [Reich et al., 1999], and regulated in response to atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  partial pressure  $C_a$ ,  $D_a$  and soil water availability  $w_a$  [Leuning, 1995]:

$$g_{sM} = g_{cut} + \frac{36.5 - C_p}{C_a - C_p} f(D_a) f(w_a) a_1 A, \quad (34)$$

where  $g_{sM}$  is  $g_s$  on a molar basis [Woodward et al., 1995],  $g_{cut}$  is the cuticular conductance and  $a_1$  the stomatal sensitivity to photosynthesis (Table 2; Figure 3). The latter was fitted to paired values of  $A$  and  $g_s$  obtained from published measurements for thirteen species of conifer in four biomes (Figure 3) [Reich et al., 1999]. The stomatal conductance in tree canopies declines with increasing  $D_a$ , following a well-conserved relationship across a range of diverse species [Leuning, 1995; Granier et al., 1996]. This relationship (Figure 3) was fitted to observed values of stomatal conductance [Granier et al., 1996], obtained from sapflow measurements of water flux in two conifer species:

$$f(D_a) = \frac{d_1}{d_2 + D_a}, \quad (35)$$

where  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  are fitted constants (Table 2). Chemical and hydraulic signals from the root system also induce stomatal closure in response to soil drying (Figure 3):

$$f(w_a) = 1 - s_1 \exp[s_2 w_a] + s_{\min}, \quad (36)$$

where  $s_{\min}$  is the minimum value of  $f(w_a)$  in the field, while  $s_1$  and  $s_2$  are fitted constants (Table 2). The relationship describes the model of Granier and Loustau [1994], developed using sapflow measurements of the seasonal changes in canopy water fluxes during drought (Figure 3). Values of  $g_{sM}$  are calculated independently for sunlit and shaded populations of leaves by coupling with the photosynthesis model, and summed to obtain a whole-canopy conductance for the transpiration model.

The balance between atmospheric  $p\text{CO}_2$ , photosynthetic  $\text{CO}_2$  demand and canopy conductance to the gas gives a value of  $C_i$  for sunlit and shaded populations of canopy leaves:

$$C_i = C_a - P \left( \frac{1.6 A}{10^3 g_{sM}} \right), \quad (37)$$

where  $P$  is the atmospheric pressure. Air temperature  $T_a$  and the canopy exchange of sensible heat  $H$  governs  $T_c$  in an analogous manner [Monteith and Unsworth, 1990]:

$$T_c = T_a + \frac{H}{\rho_a c_p g_a}, \quad (38)$$

where  $H$  is obtained by re-arranging 28

$$H = \Phi_n + \Phi_s - \lambda E - G_s. \quad (39)$$

These calculations of  $T_c$  and  $C_i$  allow the coupling of carbon, water and energy flux models following a well-established approach [Collatz *et al.*, 1991]. Briefly:  $A_s$  and  $A_{sh}$  depend on  $C_i$  and  $T_c$ ;  $g_s$  is sensitive to  $A_s$  and  $A_{sh}$ ;  $\Phi_n$  is a function of  $T_c$ ;  $E_t$  is regulated by  $\Phi_n$  and  $g_s$ ;  $T_c$  is determined by  $\Phi_n$  and  $E_t$ ; and  $C_i$  by  $A_s$ ,  $A_{sh}$  and  $g_s$ . Osborne *et al.* [2000] describe this canopy-scale coupling in more detail.

### 2.3. Nitrogen Cycling

The annual demand for nitrogen by vegetation  $N_p$  is

$$N_p = 10^3 \sum_i N_i P_i, \quad (40)$$

where the subscript  $i$  denotes values for leaves, roots and sapwood. Re-translocation of the nutrient from senescing leaves to the meristems  $N_r$  meets part of this demand, but the remainder must be extracted from the soil by root uptake  $N_u$ :

$$N_p \leq (N_u + N_r). \quad (41)$$

Mineral nitrogen availability is a primary limitation on plant growth in natural ecosystems because soil reservoirs are highly mobile, and regulated by the biological mineralization of organic matter [Vitousek and Howarth, 1991]. Increasing reliance on organic nitrogen in mineral-poor soils [Näsholm *et al.*, 1998] reduces rates of plant nitrogen uptake and growth, requiring tighter symbiotic root associations with mycorrhizas [Read, 1990].  $N_u$  is therefore regulated by soil availability of the nutrient, and calculated by using soil carbon  $s_C$  and nitrogen  $s_N$  as indicators of soil organic matter and plant mycorrhizal status [Woodward and Smith, 1994a,b]

$$N_u = \sum_{m=1}^{12} \left[ 20d \min\{1, s_N/600\} \exp(-8 \times 10^{-5} s_C) \right] \phi_r W_r, \quad (42)$$

$$W_r = \frac{P_r}{Z_r}, \quad (43)$$

where  $P_r$  is the net annual production of fine roots, and  $Z_r$  their lifespan. We adopt the approach of Woodward *et al.* [1995] in

accounting for the temperature-limitation of  $N_u$ , and the immobilization of organic matter by freezing.

Re-translocation of nitrogen occurs principally from leaves, and this nitrogen recovery is correlated strongly with  $N_l$  in both evergreen (44a) and deciduous (44b) species [Reich *et al.*, 1992]

$$N_t = \frac{12W_l}{Z_l} [0.585N_l - 0.30], \quad (44a)$$

$$N_t = W_l [0.585N_l - 0.30], \quad (44b)$$

where  $W_l$  is the total leaf mass, obtained by integrating  $M_L$  for the canopy  $M_c$ :

$$M_c = \int_0^{L_a} [M_0 - k_M L] dL. \quad (45)$$

Thus the dependence of  $N_t$  on  $Z_l$  may be both direct (44a) and indirect, via its relationship with  $M_L$  (13). Current evidence on the recovery of nutrients from senescent roots is conflicting [Ferrier & Alexander, 1991; Gordon and Jackson, 2000], and we have therefore adopted a conservative approach, with no significant root re-translocation [Gordon and Jackson, 2000].

#### 2.4. Vegetation Structure

The leaf area index  $L_a$  is constrained by carbon, water and nitrogen. First,  $L_a$  must allow shaded leaves at the base of the canopy to maintain a positive annual carbon balance, after accounting for  $Y_{G_l}$  [Woodward *et al.*, 1995]. This carbon limitation of  $L_a$  is thus dictated by canopy light penetration, leaf photosynthetic and respiratory capacities. Secondly,  $L_a$  is regulated so that the annual water consumption by plants matches the recharge of soil water by precipitation [Woodward, 1987]:

$$E_{tot} \leq \sum_{m=1}^{12} (p - I). \quad (46)$$

Long-lived leaves are more conservative in their water-use than short-lived leaves, having lower  $g_s$  (Figure 1), with the potential to develop larger leaf canopies given the same water availability. Finally, the nitrogen required to produce new foliage must be met by root uptake (41-43); if not,  $P_l$  is reduced and  $P_r$  increased until this condition is satisfied. As with water-use,  $L_a$  tends to increase with leaf lifespan because both  $N_l$  and the fraction of the canopy replaced each year decline with  $Z_l$ , lowering canopy nitrogen requirements. Additionally,  $L_a$  is constrained by  $P_n$ , which must be sufficient to meet  $P_l$  after deductions for roots (48). Annual leaf production  $P_l$  in evergreen (47a) and deciduous (47b) species is

$$P_l = \frac{12}{Z_l} L_a M_L, \quad (47a)$$

$$P_l = L_a M_L. \quad (47b)$$

An initial value for net root production  $P_r$  is set using a functional approach [Givnish, 1986; Woodward and Osborne, 2000], by correlation with annual water use by vegetation  $E_{tot}$  using global observations of a range of forest biomes [Lee, 1997]:

$$P_r = \frac{E_{tot}}{6.03}, \quad (48)$$

and assuming that roots turn over annually, i.e. root lifespan  $Z_r$  equals unity, in agreement with observations summarized for the world's needle-leaved temperate and boreal forests [Vogt *et al.*, 1986]. Since  $N_u$  is critically dependent on  $W_r$  (42) and therefore  $P_r$  (43), the latter must also be sufficient to meet vegetation demand for nitrogen  $N_p$ , and is increased from its initial value at the expense of  $P_l$  until 41 is satisfied. This increase in  $P_r$  relative to  $P_l$  (the ratio of root: shoot production) alters the primary limitation of vegetation structure from water supply (46 and 48) to nitrogen availability and uptake (41 and 42).

Net sapwood production  $P_s$  is the remainder of  $P_n$  (1) after the growth of roots  $P_r$  (43 and 48) and leaves  $P_l$  (47),

$$P_n = P_l + P_r + P_s, \quad (49)$$

although a minimum quantity of wood must be produced as twigs to support new foliage. If  $P_s$  cannot meet this twig production, forest growth is limited by the availability of fixed carbon, and  $P_l$  and  $P_r$  are reduced accordingly.

### 3. Model Tests

#### 3.1. Leaf Area Index ( $L_a$ )

We compiled a database of observations from 23 conifer forests, encompassing a diverse set of climatic regimes and leaf lifespans (4 to 138 months, Table 3), to assess the accuracy of simulated  $L_a$  and  $P_n$ . The dataset represents a gradient from boreal conifer sites, where mean annual temperatures are extremely low and the growing season is short, through to warm sub-tropical sites in Florida with year-round warmth and high precipitation. It also includes forests in the Pacific Northwest and southern France where rainfall is highly seasonal, being greatest during the winter and limiting in the summer [Müller, 1982]. At each site, equilibrium model solutions were obtained using inputs of leaf lifespan for the dominant tree species, and soil carbon and nitrogen data (Table 3). To enable accurate simulations of  $L_a$ , we used site-average climatologies (1961-1990) [New *et al.*, 1999, 2000], since leaves at the majority of our test sites are retained for several years (Table 3), and canopy structure reflects the cumulative effect of interannual climatic variability.

Simulations of  $L_a$  by the USCM for 16 sites generally show close agreement with observations (Figure 4,  $r^2 = 0.63$ ). The

model overestimates  $L_a$  for boreal forests dominated by *Pinus* species on nutrient-poor, free-draining sandy soils in Siberia and Canada (Figure 4; Table 3). Here, forest stand density is regularly thinned by wildfires, which limit aboveground biomass and cover [Wirth *et al.*, 1999]. Without an explicit consideration of disturbance regimes, we would therefore expect to overestimate  $L_a$  in these ecosystems. By contrast, we underestimate  $L_a$  for sites dominated by a mixture of *Pseudotsuga menziesii* and *Tsuga heterophylla* in the Pacific Northwest (Figure 4). Field observations reveal that foliage in these deep forest canopies is more highly aggregated than in other conifers, with measurements yielding a clumping-index  $\Omega$  of 0.40, compared with the 0.55 used here (Table 2). Simulations with  $\Omega = 0.40$  for these sites increase  $L_a$  in line with observations (Figure 4), markedly improving the regression between simulated and observed  $L_a$  (Figure 4,  $r^2 = 0.88$ ). This suggests that greater accuracy in USCM simulations of  $L_a$  for the geologic past might be obtained by estimating  $\Omega$  from fossil plant remains, particularly its needle-to-shoot area ratio component [Chen, 1996].

### 3.2. Net Primary Productivity ( $P_n$ )

Simulations for  $P_n$  used the same leaf lifespan and soils data as the test for  $L_a$ , but a climatology for the year matching observations. Across 19 sites, these showed a good correlation ( $r^2 = 0.91$ ) with observations (Figure 5), with no major systematic bias apparent across geographical regions or leaf lifespan (Figure 5). Agreement between observations and predictions indicates that the USCM realistically reproduces the interspecific and geographical variation in conifer productivity using only climatic, soil and leaf lifespan information. We recognize that field observations, especially those of belowground productivity, are subject to significant uncertainty and so this test of our model is imperfect. Nevertheless, the observed errors are comparable to those of process-based vegetation models designed to predict the terrestrial biosphere response to future changes in  $p\text{CO}_2$ , climate, atmospheric nitrogen deposition and land use [Cramer *et al.*, 2001; McGuire *et al.*, 2001]. For these models, the published correlations between observed and predicted  $P_n$  are:  $r^2 = 0.95$ ,  $n = 15$  sites for the Sheffield Dynamic Global Vegetation Model described by Woodward *et al.* [1995];  $r^2 = 0.72$ ,  $n = 19$  sites for the Integrated Biosphere Simulator, IBIS version 1.1 [Foley *et al.*, 1996]; and  $r^2 = 0.74$ ,  $n = 61$  sites for Biome3 [Haxeltine and Prentice, 1996].

### 3.3. Carbon Partitioning, Transpiration and Nitrogen Budgets

Four intensively studied reference sites in our database, indicated by asterisks in Table 3, were selected for testing plant carbon allocation between leaves, stems and roots, leaf area index ( $L_a$ ), transpiration and nitrogen uptake. These represent a diversity of leaf lifespans and climatic regimes, including boreal sites in Siberia and Canada, a southern US swamp forest and a site in the maritime Pacific Northwest (Table 3). All data were extracted directly from the sources given in Table 3, except annual ecosystem evapotranspiration

which was compiled either from half-hourly average water vapor fluxes measured using eddy covariance [Chen *et al.*, 2001; A. L. Dunn, S.C. Wofsy, M.L. Goulden and J.W. Munger, unpublished data] or annual estimates [Kelliher *et al.*, 1997; Liu *et al.*, 1998].

Simulated partitioning of  $P_n$  between leaves ( $P_l$ ) and wood ( $P_s$ ) closely matches observations at all four sites (Figure 6). Predictions of root production ( $P_r$ ) show some discrepancies with observations for sites in Siberia and the Pacific Northwest (Figure 6). For the Siberian site, overestimation of  $P_r$  may arise because we assume a complete annual turnover, whereas observations suggest root lifespans exceeding 20 years [Kajimoto *et al.*, 1999]. In the case of the Pacific Northwest forests,  $P_r$  was determined [Raich and Nadelhoffer, 1989; Runyon *et al.*, 1994] by correlation with aboveground litter production for other vegetation types, a procedure likely to introduce some error into the estimate.

We acknowledge that the physiological mechanisms underpinning carbon allocation in plants are inadequately understood at present [Woodward *et al.*, 1995; Woodward and Osborne, 2000]. However this model test, undertaken at the four reference sites, demonstrates that our scheme of medium complexity, based on the functional requirements of leaves and roots [Givnish, 1986], provides a realistic approximation to observations in forests (Figure 6). A similar scheme successfully describes shoot and root allocation for forests along productivity gradients at the global scale [Friedlingstein *et al.*, 1999]. We therefore regard it as adequate for our modeling purposes.

At the canopy scale, simulations of  $L_a$  for each forest type closely reproduce observations (Figure 6), supporting the general applicability of the relationships between canopy productivity and leaf area (12-13). Accurate representation of  $L_a$  in the USCM is important in simulations of vegetation-climate feedbacks in high-latitudes, because it influences albedo, surface roughness and the partitioning of energy fluxes at the land surface. Evapotranspiration is also important in this context, integrating the effects of canopy structure, climate, and stomatal physiology. For this variable, simulated values for all sites fall within the 20% range of uncertainty inherent in eddy covariance measurements (Figure 6), arising from missing data, instrument error, variation in the terrain and meteorological conditions [Goulden *et al.*, 1996; Moncrieff *et al.*, 1996].

Nitrogen availability for growth, the sum of root uptake and retranslocation from senescing tissues, is well described by the USCM (Figure 6), and important because it frequently limits productivity in conifer forests [Bonan and van Cleve, 1992; Schulze *et al.*, 1999]. Some of the small differences between predicted and observed nitrogen fluxes may be associated with the assumption of constant nitrogen concentrations for roots and sapwood ( $N_r$  and  $N_s$ , Table 2). It is possible that errors in observations, caused by the difficulty in estimating nitrogen retranslocation from long-lived foliage, also contribute to this discrepancy [Gower *et al.*, 2000].

### 3.4. Partitioning of Energy Fluxes

Realistic representation of energy exchange between the forested land surface and the surrounding atmosphere is an essential component of the biogeophysical effects of vegetation on climate [Bonan *et al.*, 1995], and therefore an important element of the model to examine. We tested predictions of the land surface energy balance over the boreal landscape, and its partitioning between fluxes associated with evapotranspiration (latent heat), sensible heat, net radiation and soil heat flux, with data reported from the Boreal Ecosystem-Atmosphere Study [Sellers *et al.*, 1995; A. L. Dunn, S.C. Wofsy, M.L. Goulden and J.W. Munger, unpublished data]. Although other sites have also been subject to similar intensive measurement campaigns, these data are not yet available. For this test, the USCM was forced with observations of monthly climate (temperature, precipitation and humidity). It reproduces with reasonable accuracy the seasonal course of net radiation, latent and sensible heat fluxes shown by field measurements for the Canadian boreal forest (Figure 7). Moreover, the magnitude of all three terms is in general agreement with observations, indicating a suitable treatment of the land surface energy balance. Since we have independently validated predictions of canopy structure and transpiration (Figure 6), this result supports our scheme for energy balance, canopy aerodynamics and conductance.

## 4. Model Sensitivity Analyses

### 4.1. Northern Hemisphere Simulations of Leaf Area Index ( $L_a$ ) and Productivity ( $P_n$ )

We evaluated the effects of leaf lifespan on northern hemisphere patterns of  $L_a$  and  $P_n$  to assess the sensitivity of the USCM to large-scale variation in climate and soil properties. Analyses were restricted to the northern hemisphere because it encompasses the most extensive distributions of contemporary conifers [Olson *et al.*, 1983]. Simulations were performed with leaf lifespans of 6 months (deciduous habit) and 120 months (evergreen habit), representing the extremes shown by modern conifers (Table 3). The results are not intended to reflect actual or potential contemporary vegetation patterns, which are determined by climatic extremes and competition between life forms [Woodward, 1987]. Instead they allow assessment of model sensitivity for contrasting lifespans to a wider range of climate and edaphic conditions than represented by the reference sites (Table 3). We forced the model with interpolated sets of global climate observations averaged for the period 1961 – 1990 [New *et al.*, 1999, 2000], an atmospheric  $p\text{CO}_2$  of 35 Pa and soil carbon and nitrogen contents from an interpolated global dataset [Global Soil Data Task, 2000].

Plate 1 displays the broad-scale geographical patterns of  $P_n$  and  $L_a$  resulting from the prescription of two leaf lifespans throughout the Northern Hemisphere. These reflect climatic variations (precipitation, humidity and land surface temperature) and differences in soil nutrient availability, and are in general agreement with the simulations of global vegetation models [Woodward *et al.*, 1995; Foley *et al.*, 1996; Cramer *et al.*, 1999], indicating consistency between the alternative approaches.



Trees with short-lived leaves show greater variability in  $L_a$  than those with longer-lived leaves (Plate 1), because they have a higher nitrogen and carbon cost of annual canopy replacement (41 and 47), making  $L_a$  more sensitive to climate and soil nutrient uptake. Despite this, the deciduous habit leads to a marginally greater  $L_a$  (by 1 - 1.5 m<sup>2</sup> m<sup>-2</sup>), by achieving higher photosynthetic rates under temperate conditions with adequate water and soil nutrients. Two exceptions to this general trend are apparent. First, in high-latitudes, where low temperatures limit soil nutrient supply and the length of the growing season. Secondly, in the dry tropics typical of modern savannahs and steppe vegetation [Müller, 1982], where the long leaf lifespan achieves a higher  $L_a$  than its shorter-lived counterpart because its rates of stomatal conductance to water vapor are lower (Figure 1) and water-use is more efficient.

Simulated spatial patterns of  $P_n$  for leaf lifespans of 6 and 120 months are similar and tend to track those of  $L_a$  (Plate 1). The shorter lifespan results in a higher  $P_n$  (by up to 2 t C ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) because higher leaf nitrogen contents (21) lead to higher maximum photosynthetic rates (20), when soil nitrogen content is adequate for the annual demand. As for  $L_a$ , the exception to these trends occurs in the high latitudes, but is more extensive in low latitude areas throughout equatorial South America and Africa, as well as southern and southeast Asia (Plate 1). Evergreen vegetation is more productive in these aseasonal, moist tropical regions because the capacity of deciduous trees to exploit the environment is constrained by a short leaf lifespan. All of these differences follow the well-characterized global ecological contrasts between evergreen and deciduous trees [Chabot and Hicks, 1982; Schulze, 1982; Hollinger, 1992], indicating that the USCM may be of use for investigating the climatic and edaphic controls on the leaf habit of modern vegetation.

#### **4.2. Sensitivity to Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, Climate Warming and Solar Energy**

Our model has been designed for analyzing polar forest biogeography and biogeochemistry between 290 and 50 Myr ago. It should therefore include appropriate sensitivity to a variety of past environmental conditions. Critical among these are CO<sub>2</sub>, climate and solar energy, which influence plant processes from the scale of individual leaves to whole ecosystems [Beerling, 1994, 1997, 2000]. Long-term carbon cycle models [Bernier and Kothavala, 2001] and isotopic evidence from fossil soils [Ekart et al., 1999] indicate  $p\text{CO}_2$  levels several times higher than current ambient during past greenhouse episodes [Crowley and Bernier, 2001]. Additionally, many of these episodes are characterized by intense volcanic activity resulting from continental rifting. Volcanism itself exerts an influence on atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, in the short-term [McElwain et al., 1999; Jones and Cox, 2001; Beerling, 2002], and the quality of incoming solar radiation, as seen following the ejection of aerosols by the eruptions of El Chichon in 1882 and Mount Pinatubo in 1991 [Olmo et al., 1999]. Instrumental records showed attenuation of direct, and enhancement of diffuse, solar radiation, and a peak global cooling of 0.4 K after the Pinatubo eruption [McCormick et al.,

1995]. Coupled ocean-atmosphere climate simulations of this event, with an interactive carbon cycle, indicate an impact of the cooling on the terrestrial biosphere, with significant net uptake of carbon by ecosystems in the tropics, but no major variations in oceanic carbon cycling [Jones and Cox, 2001].

We therefore performed a series of model experiments assessing the sensitivity of  $P_n$  at our four reference sites (Table 3) to a rise in atmospheric  $p\text{CO}_2$  from 30 to 100 Pa, a range representing variations over the past 100 Myr [Ekar et al., 1999; Berner and Kothavala, 2001]. At each site, three experiments were performed to simulate episodes of global warming and volcanism: ‘control’, using unmodified climate; ‘warming’, with a 4.8 K rise in mean monthly temperature; ‘warming’ + an ‘aerosol’ term, defined from observations [Olmo et al., 1999] as a 10% reduction in direct and 33% enhancement of diffuse solar radiation. This change in the quality of solar radiation has little impact on total radiation, which changes by less than  $\pm 5\%$  depending on  $\theta$ . The 4.8 K warming is equivalent to the radiative forcing effect from an increase in  $p\text{CO}_2$  to 100 Pa, calculated after Kothavala et al. [1999]. Reductions in temperature following volcanic eruptions have not been investigated in this sensitivity analysis because they are within the range of uncertainty for paleotemperature proxies [Crowley and North, 1991].

A rise in atmospheric  $p\text{CO}_2$  increases  $P_n$  in an asymptotic manner at all sites (Figure 8). However, the asymptote differs between sites, with stimulation of  $P_n$  between 35 and 60 Pa  $p\text{CO}_2$  of 28% in the southern US forest, 38% in Siberia, 45% in the Pacific Northwest and 56% in Canada (Figure 8). In support of the predicted  $P_n$  increase for the southern US forest, we note that DeLucia et al. [1999] reported a 25 % stimulation in a young *Pinus taeda* plantation in the Duke Forest after two years’ free-air  $\text{CO}_2$  enrichment to 56 Pa. With a warming,  $P_n$  increased further for any given  $p\text{CO}_2$  at all sites (Figure 8). As yet, no information has been reported from similar experiments with  $\text{CO}_2$  enrichment and warming applied together, but other vegetation modeling studies support our findings for boreal conifer forests [Beerling et al., 1997; White et al., 2000].

In the USCM, the  $\text{CO}_2$  response of  $P_n$  is mediated by the net effect of several interacting factors. Rising  $p\text{CO}_2$  competitively inhibits the oxygenase activity of Rubisco and relieves substrate limitation of photosynthesis [Drake et al., 1997]. The stronger increase of  $P_n$  with  $p\text{CO}_2$  at higher temperatures results from the synergistic interaction of these environmental variables on the photosynthetic system [Long, 1991]. A feedback also operates between the stimulation of  $P_n$  by  $p\text{CO}_2$  and carbon allocation to roots. As  $P_n$  increases, there is an associated rise in the demand for nitrogen, which is met by a proportional increase in root growth (42-43). This allocation of carbon to roots, away from leaves and wood, offsets the  $\text{CO}_2$  enhancement of  $P_n$ , because of their high maintenance respiration costs and turnover.

$\text{CO}_2$ -saturated  $P_n$  values for all but the southern US site are constrained by the mean annual temperature (Figure 9), highlighting the significance of synergism between  $p\text{CO}_2$  and temperature. Imposition of warming in our model simulations shifts the  $\text{CO}_2$ -saturated  $P_n$  so that all follow a common trajectory given the prescribed soil characteristics, matching

experimental evidence [Rustad et al., 2001]. At the southern US swamp forest site, annual demand by the deciduous canopy for nitrogen in high  $p\text{CO}_2$  outstrips the rate of uptake from the carbon-rich soil, where the decomposition of organic matter is retarded by a high water table [Schlesinger, 1978]. When this constraint is alleviated,  $\text{CO}_2$ -saturated  $P_n$  rises to conform with the temperature-limited rates of other sites (Figure 9), demonstrating the importance of coupling the above- and below-ground nitrogen cycles [cf. Bonan and van Cleve, 1992].

The simulated effect of an increase in diffuse relative to direct radiation was typically an enhancement of  $P_n$  ('warming + aerosols', Figure 8), due to enhanced and more uniform light penetration into the leaf canopy, resulting in more efficient photosynthetic  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake [Roderick et al., 2001]. This increase in  $P_n$  could strengthen the terrestrial carbon sink following volcanic eruptions, with an effect on the atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  record [Roderick et al., 2001], and occurs in addition to the large decline in global respiration and smaller decrease in tropical gross primary production induced by surface cooling [Jones and Cox, 2001; Rustad et al., 2001]. For the Pacific Northwest site, enhancement of diffuse radiation increases  $L_a$  by  $1 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2}$  across all  $p\text{CO}_2$  values, leading to higher maintenance respiration costs of this already deep canopy under the mild winter climate of the region, and a net decrease in  $P_n$  ('warming + aerosols', Figure 8).

At present, the simulated response of  $P_n$  to these environmental perturbations excludes any feedback between plant litter and soil nutrient status [Bonan and van Cleve, 1992], a feature shown to be important in  $\text{CO}_2$ -enrichment experiments with conifer forests [Oren et al., 2001]. Changes in  $P_n$  and leaf lifespan affect the quantity and quality of surface litter and roots, key controls over rates of nutrient cycling through their effects on soil organic matter dynamics [Raich et al., 1991; Schlesinger, 1997; Parton et al., 1998]. Leaf lifespan is strongly linked with the rate of decomposition because trees with long-lived foliage produce recalcitrant litter, slowly releasing nutrients over long periods and ultimately generating a nutrient-poor soil. Leaves with a long lifespan are well adapted for such a soil, and their persistence is encouraged via this positive feedback [Aerts, 1995]. A major future development of our model will therefore be its coupling with a model of soil carbon and nitrogen dynamics [e.g. Raich et al., 1991; Parton et al., 1998].

## 5. Conclusions

Ever since the important recognition, nearly a century ago, that the polar regions were once covered by forests [Halle, 1913; Nathorst, 1914; Seward, 1914] debate has continued regarding the nature of their interaction with climate, especially survival during the mild, dark polar winters of the Mesozoic [Douglas and Williams, 1982; Chaloner and Creber, 1989]. Furthermore, the question of how the biogeochemical and biophysical characteristics of these unusual forests influenced regional climate in an ancient high  $\text{CO}_2$  'greenhouse' world remains uncertain. To address these issues in a predictive, quantitative manner, we designed a process-

based model of conifer function and structure, emphasizing the influence of leaf lifespan and its interactions with the environment.

Overall, a wide range of simulated vegetation properties validated well against observations from different taxonomic groups (*Abies*, *Larix*, *Picea*, *Pinus*, *Pseudotsuga*, *Taxodium*, *Tsuga*) with varying geographical ranges [Olson *et al.*, 1983], indicating adequate representation of conifer functioning. We recognize that uncertainty exists regarding whether the plant-environment relationships seen in modern conifers are applicable to those growing in the distant past. However, the discovery of general leaf trait relationships across diverse terrestrial ecosystems, for plants with different evolutionary histories [Reich *et al.*, 1997], provides the most secure basis yet for dealing with this issue.

The model can be used in a stand-alone mode to reconstruct polar forest properties at specific sites, based on leaf lifespan estimates from fossil woods [Falcon-Lang and Cantrill, 2000, 2001] and paleoclimatic information from climate model simulations. Some aspects of these simulations, such as  $P_n$  or the calculation of tree height from hydraulic considerations [Osborne and Beerling, 2002], can be compared with detailed studies of exceptionally well-preserved *in situ* fossil forests [Francis, 1986, 1988]. More significantly, the next stage of development will be the coupling of above- and below-ground carbon and nitrogen cycles and the production of a conifer forest dynamics scheme using the simulated structure and function of trees with different leaf lifespans [Shugart, 2000]. The fully coupled USCM will then allow us to resolve detailed distributions of ancient high-latitude forests, and investigate the underlying climatic and biogeochemical controls on their biogeography, as well as their influence on regional climates.

## Notation

$A_c$	net canopy photosynthesis, mol C m <sup>-2</sup> month <sup>-1</sup> .
$A_j$	rate of CO <sub>2</sub> fixation permitted by RuBP-regeneration, μmol CO <sub>2</sub> m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> .
$A$	net photosynthesis, μmol CO <sub>2</sub> m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> .
$A_s$	$A$ for the sunlit population of leaves in the canopy, μmol CO <sub>2</sub> m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> .
$A_{sh}$	$A$ for the shaded population of leaves in the canopy, μmol CO <sub>2</sub> m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> .
$A_j$	rate of CO <sub>2</sub> fixation allowed by the activity of Rubisco, μmol CO <sub>2</sub> m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> .
$a_l$	sensitivity of $g_{sM}$ to $A$ , mol H <sub>2</sub> O mmol <sup>-1</sup> CO <sub>2</sub> (Table 2).
$C_a$	atmospheric partial pressure of CO <sub>2</sub> , Pa.
$C_i$	partial pressure of CO <sub>2</sub> in leaf intercellular air spaces, Pa.
$C_p$	CO <sub>2</sub> compensation point for photosynthesis, Pa.
$c_p$	the specific heat capacity of water, 1012, J kg <sup>-1</sup> K <sup>-1</sup> .
$D_a$	atmospheric vapor pressure deficit, Pa.
DM	dry matter.
$d$	number of days in the month.
$d_1, d_2$	empirical descriptors of the response of $g_{sM}$ to $D_a$ , Pa (Table 2).
$E_e$	evaporation of water from the soil surface, mm.

$E_t$	transpiration of water from the leaf canopy, mm.
$E_{tot}$	annual water-use by vegetation, mm yr <sup>-1</sup> .
$G_s$	soil heat flux, W m <sup>-2</sup> .
$g_a$	canopy aerodynamic conductance to water vapor flux,
	m s <sup>-1</sup> .
$g_{cut}$	cuticular conductance to water vapor flux, mmol H <sub>2</sub> O m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> .
$g_f$	aerodynamic conductance to water vapor flux at the forest floor, m s <sup>-1</sup> .
$g_s$	canopy stomatal conductance to water vapor flux, m s <sup>-1</sup> .
$g_{sM}$	$g_s$ on a molar basis, mmol H <sub>2</sub> O m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> .
$g_w$	total canopy conductance to water vapor flux, m s <sup>-1</sup> .
$H$	sensible heat flux, W m <sup>-2</sup> .
$H_r$	activation energy for respiration, J mol <sup>-1</sup> (Table 2).
$h$	hour of the day.
$I$	interception of rainfall by the leaf canopy, mm.
$J$	light-dependent rate of electron transport, μmol electrons m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> .
$J_{max}$	electron transport capacity, μmol electrons m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> .
$K_c$	Michaelis-Menton affinity of Rubisco for CO <sub>2</sub> , Pa.
$K_o$	Michaelis-Menton affinity of Rubisco for O <sub>2</sub> , kPa.
$k_b$	canopy extinction coefficient for beam PAR.
$k_{bs}$	canopy extinction coefficient for beam and scattered PAR.
$k_{ds}$	canopy extinction coefficient for diffuse and scattered PAR.
$k_M$	the rate of decline in $M$ with cumulative leaf area index (Table 2).
$L$	leaf area index, m <sup>2</sup> leaf area m <sup>-2</sup> ground area.
$L_a$	actual canopy $L$ , m <sup>2</sup> leaf area m <sup>-2</sup> ground area.
$L_c$	upward or downward flux of longwave radiation from the canopy, W m <sup>-2</sup> .
$L_d$	downward flux of longwave radiation from the sky, W m <sup>-2</sup> .
$L_e$	the canopy $L$ effective in absorbing radiation, m <sup>2</sup> leaf area m <sup>-2</sup> ground area.
$L_s$	upward flux of longwave radiation from the soil, W m <sup>-2</sup> .
$M$	leaf mass: area ratio, g DM m <sup>-2</sup> .
$M_0$	$M$ in the uppermost leaves of the canopy, g DM m <sup>-2</sup> .
$M_c$	value of $M$ for the whole leaf canopy, g DM m <sup>-2</sup> .
$M_L$	$M$ in leaves beneath a leaf area index of $L$ , g DM m <sup>-2</sup> .
$M_{min}$	minimum viable value of $M$ in shaded leaves at the bottom of the canopy, g DM m <sup>-2</sup> (Table 2).
$m$	month of the year.
$m_C$	molecular mass associated with each carbon atom in carbohydrates [CH <sub>2</sub> O] <sub>n</sub> , 30, dimensionless.
$N_a$	area-based leaf nitrogen content, g m <sup>-2</sup> .
$N_c$	NIR absorbed by the leaf canopy, W m <sup>-2</sup> .
$N_{cr}$	coarse root nitrogen concentration, mg N g <sup>-1</sup> DM (Table 2).
$N_{er}$	ephemeral root nitrogen concentration, mg N g <sup>-1</sup> DM (Table 2).
$N_l$	leaf nitrogen concentration, mg N g <sup>-1</sup> DM.
$N_i$	nitrogen concentration in plant partition $i$

	$(N_l, N_s, N_{cr}$ or $N_{er})$ , mg N g <sup>-1</sup> DM.
$N_I$	incident flux of NIR, W m <sup>-2</sup> .
$N_p$	plant nitrogen demand, g N m <sup>-2</sup> ground area yr <sup>-1</sup> .
$N_s$	sapwood nitrogen concentration, mg N g <sup>-1</sup> DM (Table 2).
$N_t$	re-translocation of nitrogen from senescing leaves, g N m <sup>-2</sup> ground area yr <sup>-1</sup> .
$N_u$	root uptake of nitrogen from the soil, g N m <sup>-2</sup> ground area yr <sup>-1</sup> .
NIR	near infrared radiation.
$O_i$	partial pressure of O <sub>2</sub> within the leaf, 21 kPa.
$P$	atmospheric pressure, Pa.
$P_c$	PAR absorbed by the leaf canopy, W m <sup>-2</sup> .
$P_I$	incident flux of PAR, W m <sup>-2</sup> .
$P_i$	$P_n$ partitioned to plant part $i$ ( $P_l$ , $P_s$ , or $P_r$ ), g DM m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> .
$P_l$	$P_n$ partitioned to leaves, g DM m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> .
$P_n$	net primary productivity, g DM m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> .
$P_r$	$P_n$ partitioned to roots, g DM m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> .
$P_s$	$P_n$ partitioned to sapwood, g DM m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> .
$p$	precipitation, mm month <sup>-1</sup> .
PAR	photosynthetically active radiation.
$Q$	absorption of photosynthetically active quanta, μmol quanta m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> .
$Q_c$	$Q$ for the whole canopy, μmol quanta m <sup>-2</sup> ground area s <sup>-1</sup> .
$Q_s$	$Q$ for the sunlit population of canopy leaves, μmol quanta m <sup>-2</sup> ground area s <sup>-1</sup> .
$Q_{sh}$	$Q$ for the shaded population of canopy leaves, μmol quanta m <sup>-2</sup> ground area s <sup>-1</sup> .
$R_a$	$R_d$ at 293 K in the dark, μmol CO <sub>2</sub> m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> .
$R_d$	canopy respiration rate on an area basis, excluding photorespiration, μmol CO <sub>2</sub> m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> .
$R_M$	maintenance respiration, mol C m <sup>-2</sup> month <sup>-1</sup> .
$R_m$	canopy respiration rate on a mass basis, excluding photorespiration, μmol CO <sub>2</sub> g <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> .
$R_r$	root maintenance respiration rate, μmol CO <sub>2</sub> m <sup>-2</sup> ground area s <sup>-1</sup> .
$R_s$	sapwood maintenance respiration rate, μmol CO <sub>2</sub> m <sup>-2</sup> ground area s <sup>-1</sup> .
$r_Q$	sensitivity of respiration to $Q$ , dimensionless.
$r_N$	sensitivity of root respiration to nitrogen, μmol CO <sub>2</sub> g <sup>-1</sup> N s <sup>-1</sup> (Table 2).
$r_T$	temperature sensitivity of respiration, dimensionless.
$r_v$	rate of sapwood respiration on a volume basis, μmol CO <sub>2</sub> m <sup>-3</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> (Table 2).
$s$	the rate of change in saturation vapor pressure with temperature, Pa K <sup>-1</sup> .
$s_C$	soil nitrogen content, g N m <sup>-2</sup> ground area.
$s_N$	soil carbon content, g C m <sup>-2</sup> ground area.
$s_{min}$	minimum relative value of $g_{sM}$ normally occurring under drought conditions in the field, dimensionless (Table 2).
$s_1, s_2$	empirical descriptors of the response of $g_{sM}$ to $w_a$ , dimensionless (Table 2).
$T_a$	air temperature, K.
$T_c$	canopy temperature, K.
$t$	time since leaf budburst, months.

$V_{c,max}$	carboxylation capacity for Rubisco on an area basis, $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ .
$V_m$	carboxylation capacity for Rubisco on a mass basis, $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ .
$V_s$	$V_{c,max}$ for the sunlit population of canopy leaves, $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ .
$V_{sh}$	$V_{c,max}$ for the shaded population of canopy leaves, $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ .
$v_s$	sapwood volume, $\text{m}^3 \text{ m}^{-2}$ ground area.
$W_r$	root biomass, $\text{g DM m}^{-2}$ .
$w_a$	soil water availability between the field capacity and permanent wilting point, expressed as a dimensionless fraction.
$Y_G$	efficiency of dry matter production from fixed carbon (additional subscripts $l$ , $s$ or $r$ denote leaves, sapwood or roots, respectively), $\text{g DM g}^{-1}$ glucose (Table 2).
$Z_l$	leaf lifespan, months.
$Z_r$	root lifespan, yr.
$\alpha_p$	leaf NIR absorptance, dimensionless (Table 2).
$\alpha_p$	leaf PAR absorptance, dimensionless (Table 2).
$\alpha_s$	soil absorptance, 0.88, dimensionless [Campbell and Norman, 1998].
$\alpha_w$	absorptance of shortwave radiation by tree trunks and branches, 0.80, dimensionless [Tamai et al. 1998; Wilson et al., 2000b].
$\beta$	ratio of actual to potential $\lambda E_e$ , dimensionless.
$\chi$	fraction of the land surface covered by tree canopies, dimensionless.
$\Phi_n$	net radiation at the canopy surface, $\text{W m}^{-2}$ .
$\Phi_s$	net radiation at the soil surface, $\text{W m}^{-2}$ .
$\phi$	quantum efficiency of electron transport, 0.24, mol electrons $\text{mol}^{-1}$ quanta [Harley et al., 1992].
$\gamma$	psychrometer constant, $\text{Pa K}^{-1}$ .
$\phi_r$	fraction of $W_r$ comprised of ephemeral roots (Table 2).
$\lambda E$	latent heat flux, $\text{W m}^{-2}$ .
$\lambda E_e$	$\lambda E$ attributable to the evaporation of water from the soil surface, $\text{W m}^{-2}$ .
$\lambda E_i$	$\lambda E$ attributable to the evaporation of rainfall wetting the canopy, $\text{W m}^{-2}$ .
$\lambda E_t$	$\lambda E$ attributable to transpiration from the leaf canopy, $\text{W m}^{-2}$ .
$\theta$	solar zenith angle (rad).
$\rho_a$	the density of dry air, $1.204, \text{kg m}^{-3}$ .
$\rho_b$	canopy reflection coefficient for beam PAR, dimensionless.
$\rho_d$	canopy reflection coefficient for diffuse PAR, dimensionless.
$\sigma_v$	age-related relative decline in $V_{c,max}$ and $R_d$ , dimensionless.
$\sigma_{\min}$	minimum annual value of $\sigma_v$ , dimensionless.
$\Omega$	foliage clumping index, dimensionless (Table 2).

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OSBORNE AND BEERLING: MODELING POLAR CONIFER FORESTS

**Figure 1.** The functional consequences of an increase in leaf lifespan from the leaf to the ecosystem scale, as represented by the model. Numbers indicate the model equations describing leaf-scale relationships. Arrows linking boxes indicate interactions between processes at progressively larger scales. Arrows within boxes denote the direction of change in a process generally resulting from an increase ( $\uparrow$ ) in leaf lifespan.

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**Figure 2.** Schematic of the principal processes represented by the model, and their key interactions. Boxes show biological processes, ovals distinguish data inputs, solid arrows denote matter fluxes, and dotted lines indicate the coupling between processes, with arrowheads showing the direction of influence. The input of solar energy to the system and its important effects are indicated by 'energy balance'.

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**Figure 3.** New model functions, based on field observations of contemporary species. The plotted line in each panel was obtained by fitting model equations to the published data shown as symbols. Equation numbers used in the text and the  $r^2$  for fits are indicated for each. Upper left panel, the dependence of leaf *in vivo* carboxylation capacity  $V_m$  on nitrogen content  $N_l$  (20) using mean biome observations from *Beerling and Quick* [1995] and *Reich et al.* [1999]. Upper middle panel, the relationship between leaf dark respiration  $R_m$  and  $V_m$  (23), with mean biome observations from *Reich et al.* [1999]. Upper right panel, the decline in the leaf mass: area ratio  $M_L$  with depth into the leaf canopy, as indicated by the overlying leaf area index  $L$  (12): circles, *Pinus ponderosa*; squares, *Pseudotsuga menziesii*; triangles, *Tsuga heterophylla* [*Bond et al.*, 1999]. Lower left panel, the correlation between stomatal conductance  $g_s$  and net leaf photosynthesis  $A$  (34) in thirteen conifer species [*Reich et al.*, 1999]. Lower middle panel, the relative decline in canopy stomatal conductance  $f(D_a)$  with atmospheric vapour pressure deficit  $D_a$  (35) resulting from stomatal closure in *Pinus pinaster* (triangles) and *Picea abies* (circles) canopies [*Granier et al.*, 1996]. Lower right panel, the relative sensitivity of canopy stomatal conductance  $f(w_a)$  to soil moisture availability  $w_a$  (36), from the model of *Granier and Loustau* [1994], developed for *Pinus pinaster*.

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**Figure 4.** Leaf area index  $L_a$ . Upper panel, simulated values are compared to observations in conifer forests from a range of geographical regions, distinguished by different symbols (Table 3). The solid line shows exact agreement, while the dashed line is a regression of simulated values against observations with  $r^2 = 0.63$ . Lower panel, as upper panel, using a clumping factor value of 0.40 for sites where dominant vegetation is a mixture of *Pseudotsuga menziesii* and *Tsuga heterophylla* (see text for details). Regression is improved so that  $r^2 = 0.88$ .

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**Figure 5.** Net primary productivity  $P_n$ . Upper panel, simulated values are compared to observations in conifer forests from a range of geographical regions, distinguished by different symbols (Table 3). The solid line shows exact agreement, while the dashed line is a regression of simulated values against observations with  $r^2 = 0.91$ . Lower panel, difference between simulated and observed  $P_n$  values by region. Positive values indicate overestimation by the model.

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**Figure 6.** Upper left, middle and right panels, carbon partitioning to leaves  $P_l$ , sapwood  $P_s$  and roots  $P_r$ , respectively. Lower left, middle and right panels, leaf area index  $L_a$ ; evapotranspiration  $E$ ; and plant nitrogen consumption, the sum of root nitrogen uptake  $N_u$  and re-translocation from senescing leaves  $N_t$ , respectively. For each forest type, the simulated and observed (mean  $\pm$  s.e.) properties are shown for the same, or closely located, sites indicated by asterisks in Table 3.

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**Figure 7.** Season course of observed (points) and simulated (broken lines) energy partitioning for a boreal forest landscape, dominated by *Picea mariana* in Canada (\* site in Table 3).

Observations from *A. L. Dunn, S.C. Wofsy, M.L. Goulden and J.W. Munger [unpublished data]*.

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**Figure 8.** Sensitivity of simulated net primary productivity  $P_n$  to  $p\text{CO}_2$ , elevated air temperature and a change in solar energy flux. Results are shown for the four sites used in Figure 6 and three scenarios: ‘control’, using unmodified climate and soil data inputs; ‘warming’, with a 4.8°C warming, equivalent to the radiative forcing effect from a rise in  $C_a$  from 35 to 100 Pa; ‘warming + aerosol’, with a 4.8°C warming, 10% reduction in direct and 33% enhancement of diffuse solar radiation. See text for further details.

**Figure 8.** Sensitivity of simulated net primary productivity  $P_n$  to  $p\text{CO}_2$ , elevated air temperature and a change in solar energy flux. Results are shown for the four sites used in Figure 6 and three scenarios: ‘control’, using unmodified climate and soil data inputs; ‘warming’, with a 4.8°C warming, equivalent to the radiative forcing effect from a rise in  $C_a$  from 35 to 100 Pa; ‘warming + aerosol’, with a 4.8°C warming, 10% reduction in direct and 33% enhancement of diffuse solar radiation. See text for further details.

**Figure 9.** Relationship between  $\text{CO}_2$ -saturated net primary productivity  $P_n$  determined from the ‘control’ and ‘warming’ scenarios (Figure 8) and mean annual temperature for the four reference sites. Arrows to broken lines indicate the effects of alleviating constraints on nitrogen uptake rate by decomposition at the Southern US swamp site (see text for details). Values in brackets are leaf lifespan for the dominant species (Table 3).

**Figure 9.** Relationship between  $\text{CO}_2$ -saturated net primary productivity  $P_n$  determined from the ‘control’ and ‘warming’ scenarios (Figure 8) and mean annual temperature for the four reference sites. Arrows to broken lines indicate the effects of alleviating constraints on nitrogen uptake rate by decomposition at the Southern US swamp site (see text for details). Values in brackets are leaf lifespan for the dominant species (Table 3).

**Plate 1.** Sensitivity of simulated leaf area index ( $L_a$ ) and net primary productivity ( $P_n$ ) to leaf lifespan and the geographical variations in climate and soils. Maps are polar projections of model simulations for the northern hemisphere made using climatic data from *New et al. [1999, 2000]* and soils from the *Global Soil Data Task [2000]*. Upper left panel,  $L_a$  for a leaf lifespan of 6 months; upper right panel,  $P_n$  for a leaf lifespan of 6 months; middle left panel,  $L_a$  for a leaf lifespan of 120 months; middle right panel,  $P_n$  for a leaf lifespan of 120 months; lower left panel, the difference in  $L_a$  between simulations for 6 and 120 months; lower right panel, the difference in  $P_n$  between simulations for 6 and 120 months. In the lower panels, positive numbers indicate higher values for the 6 than the 120 month leaf lifespan simulation, while negative numbers indicate lower values.

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**Table 1.** Treatment of ecosystem physiology in the University of Sheffield Conifer Model (USCM)

Physiology	Treatment
Shortest time step	1 hour
Photosynthesis	enzyme-based [Farquhar et al., 1980], dependent on leaf lifespan
N uptake by vegetation	dependent on soil carbon and nitrogen status, and air temperature [Woodward et al., 1995]
Stomatal conductance	dependent on photosynthesis, leaf-to-air vapor pressure deficit, atmospheric CO <sub>2</sub> , soil moisture [Leuning, 1995; Woodward et al., 1995]
Radiation	Sunlit and shaded ‘big-leaf’ canopy absorption of near-infrared and photosynthetically active fractions [de Pury and Farquhar, 1997]
Canopy temperature	canopy energy balance [Monteith and Unsworth, 1990]
Aerodynamics	dependent on leaf area index and height [Shaw and Pereira, 1982]
Sapwood respiration	dependent on sapwood volume and temperature [Ryan et al., 1995]
Fine root respiration	dependent on nitrogen and temperature [Ryan et al., 1996].
Leaf area index	has to satisfy carbon, nitrogen and water constraints
C allocation	annual using functional relationships with carbon, nitrogen and water requirements
N allocation	dependent on leaf lifespan and fixed concentrations for wood and roots
Evapotranspiration	transpiration [Penman, 1948; Monteith, 1965] + interception [Woodward, 1987] + soil evaporation [Chanzy and Bruckler, 1993]
Water balance	bucket model with one soil layer
N-mineralization	not explicitly simulated

**Table 2.** Core constants distinguishing conifers from other woody species. Notation: CH<sub>2</sub>O, carbohydrate; DM, dry matter

Constant	Value	Units	Sources
$a_l$ , sensitivity of stomatal conductance to photosynthesis	28	m	see Figure 3
$d_1, d_2$ , empirical descriptors of the stomatal response to atmospheric vapor pressure	1199, 566	d'less	see Figure 3
$g_{cut}$ , leaf cuticular conductance	3	mmol H <sub>2</sub> O m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	Körner [1994]
$H_r$ , activation energy for respiration at 293 K ( $l$ , leaves; $s$ , sapwood; $r$ , coarse and ephemeral roots)	$l = 9593$ $s = 42850$ $r = 54110$	J mol <sup>-1</sup>	Walcroft <i>et al.</i> [1997] Ryan <i>et al.</i> [1995] Murty <i>et al.</i> [1996]
$k_M$ , rate of decrease in leaf mass-to-area with canopy area	9.65	-	see Figure 3
$N_s$ , sapwood nitrogen content	1.8	mg g <sup>-1</sup> DM	Ryan [1991]
$N_{ers}$ , ephemeral root nitrogen content	10.0		Gordon and Jackson [2000]
$N_{ers}$ , coarse root nitrogen content	3.0		
$r_N$ , nitrogen-based root maintenance respiration rate	0.8	nmol CO <sub>2</sub> mg <sup>-1</sup> N s <sup>-1</sup>	Ryan <i>et al.</i> [1996]
$r_v$ , volume-based sapwood maintenance respiration rate	15.6	μmol CO <sub>2</sub> m <sup>-3</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	Ryan <i>et al.</i> [1996]
$s_1, s_2$ , empirical descriptors of the stomatal response to soil drying	0.016, -4.27	d'less	see Figure 3
$s_{min}$ , relative stomatal conductance in a dry soil	0.05	d'less	Körner [1994]
$Y_G$ , growth efficiency ( $l$ , leaves; $s$ , sapwood; $r$ , coarse and ephemeral roots)	$l = 0.63$ $s = 0.68$ $r = 0.66$	g DM g <sup>-1</sup> CH <sub>2</sub> O	Chung and Barnes [1977] Carey <i>et al.</i> [1997] Szaniawski [1981]
$\alpha_p$ , leaf PAR absorptance	0.90	d'less	Gates [1979]
$\alpha_n$ , leaf NIR absorptance	0.10	d'less	Gates [1979]
$\phi_r$ , ephemeral fraction of roots	0.25	d'less	Vogt <i>et al.</i> [1996]
$\Omega$ , canopy clumping factor	0.55	d'less	Chen [1996] Chen and Black [1991] Chen <i>et al.</i> [1991] Fassnacht <i>et al.</i> [1994] Weiss [2000]

**Table 3.** Sites used in model testing, with details for each of its geographical location, latitude, forest type, dominant species, leaf lifespan ( $Z_l$ ), and observations of leaf area index ( $L_a$ ) and net primary productivity ( $P_n$ ) with literature sources. Climatic and soils data inputs are summarized by mean annual temperature (MAT), mean annual precipitation (MAP), soil carbon and nitrogen contents for each. n/a = data not available

Location	Lat. Lon.	Climate regime	Dominant species	$Z_l$ (mths)	MAT (°C)	MAP (mm)	Soil C <sup>b</sup> (g m <sup>-2</sup> )	Soil N <sup>b</sup> (g m <sup>-2</sup> )	$P_n^c$ (g C m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> )	$L_a^d$ (m <sup>2</sup> m <sup>-2</sup> )	Literature sources
Siberia <sup>a</sup>	64°N 100°E	boreal	<i>Larix gmelinii</i>	4	-7.3	443	10900	638	83 <sup>T</sup>	n/a	Kajimoto et al. [1999]
Siberia <sup>a</sup>	61°N 128°E	boreal	<i>L. gmelinii</i>	4	-8.9	399	10900	638	104 <sup>A</sup>	2.0 <sup>A</sup>	Schulze et al. [1995]; Kelliher et al. [1997]
Siberia	61°N 128°E	boreal	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>	84	-3.7	493	2000	150	149 <sup>T</sup>	2.4 <sup>A</sup>	Schulze et al. [1999]; Wirth et al. [1999]
Alaska	65°N 148°W	boreal	<i>Picea mariana</i>	132	-2.4	304	11000	735	220 <sup>T</sup>	n/a	McGuire et al. [1992]
Alaska	64°N 148°W	boreal	<i>P. mariana</i>	132	-5.4	283	11000	735	49 <sup>A</sup>	n/a	van Cleve et al. [1981]
Canada <sup>a</sup>	56°N 98°W	boreal	<i>P. mariana</i>	138	-1.9	501	15000	980	243 <sup>T</sup>	4.1 <sup>A</sup>	Gower et al. [1997]; Steele et al. [1997]; Dunn et al. [unpublished data]
Canada	56°N 99°W	boreal	<i>Pinus banksiana</i>	90	-1.7	479	2000	150	293 <sup>T</sup>	2.2 <sup>A</sup>	Gower et al. [1997]; Steele et al. [1997]
Canada	54°N 105°W	boreal	<i>P. mariana</i>	132	0.3	432	15000	980	218 <sup>T</sup>	4.5 <sup>A</sup>	Gower et al. [1997]; Steele et al. [1997]
Canada	54°N 105°W	boreal	<i>P. banksiana</i>	66	0.4	424	2000	150	237 <sup>T</sup>	2.5 <sup>A</sup>	Gower et al. [1997]; Steele et al. [1997]
Germany	50°N 12°E	cool temperate	<i>Picea abies</i>	132	9.1	671	12100	626	518 <sup>T</sup>	5.0 <sup>A</sup>	Schulze et al. [1999]
Pacific NW	45°N 124°W	cool temperate	<i>Picea sitchensis</i>	48	10.2	1581	24000	1210	669 <sup>T</sup>	5.3 <sup>A</sup>	Gholz [1982]; Runyon et al. [1994]
Pacific NW <sup>a</sup>	45°N 123°W	cool temperate	<i>Pseudotsuga menziesii</i>	36	11.2	1095	24000	1210	737 <sup>T</sup>	6.0 <sup>A</sup>	Gholz [1982]; Runyon et al. [1994]
Pacific NW <sup>a</sup>	45°N 122°W	cool temperate	<i>P. menziesii</i>	36	9.0	2300	24000	1210	n/a	8.6 <sup>A</sup>	Thomas and Winner [2000]; Chen et al. [2001]
Pacific NW <sup>a</sup>	44°N 122°W	cool temperate	<i>P. menziesii</i>	36	7.3	1604	24000	1210	530 <sup>T</sup>	n/a	Grier and Logan [1977]; Sollins et al. [1980]
Pacific NW	45°N 123°W	cool temperate	<i>Tsuga heterophylla</i>	36	11.0	1411	24000	1210	1077 <sup>T</sup>	8.7 <sup>A</sup>	Runyon et al. [1994]
France	45°N 1°W	mediterranean	<i>Pinus pinaster</i>	48	12.8	955	8300	645	n/a	6.0 <sup>A</sup>	Granier and Loustou [1994]
France	44°N 1°W	mediterranean	<i>P. pinaster</i>	48	13.1	902	8300	645	n/a	3.5 <sup>E</sup>	Bruniquel-Pinel and Gatellu-Etchegorry [1998]
France	43°N 5°E	mediterranean	<i>Pinus pinea</i>	24	14.1	931	4150	322	688 <sup>T</sup>	n/a	Rapp and Cabanettes [1981]
Israel	32°N 35°E	mediterranean	<i>Pinus halepensis</i>	36	19.4	576	8300	645	n/a	2.5 <sup>E</sup>	Schiller and Cohen [1995]
Southern US	36°N 79°W	warm temperate	<i>Pinus taeda</i>	30	15.7	1247	2558	147	1521 <sup>T</sup>	3.7 <sup>E</sup>	Kinerson et al. [1977]; Katul et al. [1999]
Southern US <sup>a</sup>	36°N 76°W	warm temperate	<i>Taxodium distichum</i>	6	15.8	1279	15000	1600	999 <sup>T</sup>	n/a	Megonigal and Day [1988]
Southern US <sup>a</sup>	31°N 82°W	warm temperate	<i>T. distichum</i>	6	20.0	1260	15000	1600	269 <sup>A</sup>	2.4 <sup>E</sup>	Schlesinger [1978]; Liu et al. [1998]
Southern US	30°N 90°W	warm temperate	<i>T. distichum</i>	6	20.4	1561	15000	1600	539 <sup>A</sup>	n/a	Connor and Day [1976]

<sup>a</sup>reference sites used in Figures 6-9. Where more than one location is listed for a given type of forest, we used data from the additional sources given for nearby sites.

<sup>b</sup>soil carbon and nitrogen data from Woodward and Smith [1994b] or Gower et al. [1997, 2000].

<sup>c</sup>productivity values either: <sup>A</sup> above-ground growth; or <sup>T</sup> total production.

<sup>d</sup>leaf area indices either: <sup>A</sup> actual ( $L_a$ ) determined by destructive or allometric methods; or <sup>E</sup> effective ( $L_e$ ) determined by an optical method.





figure 1

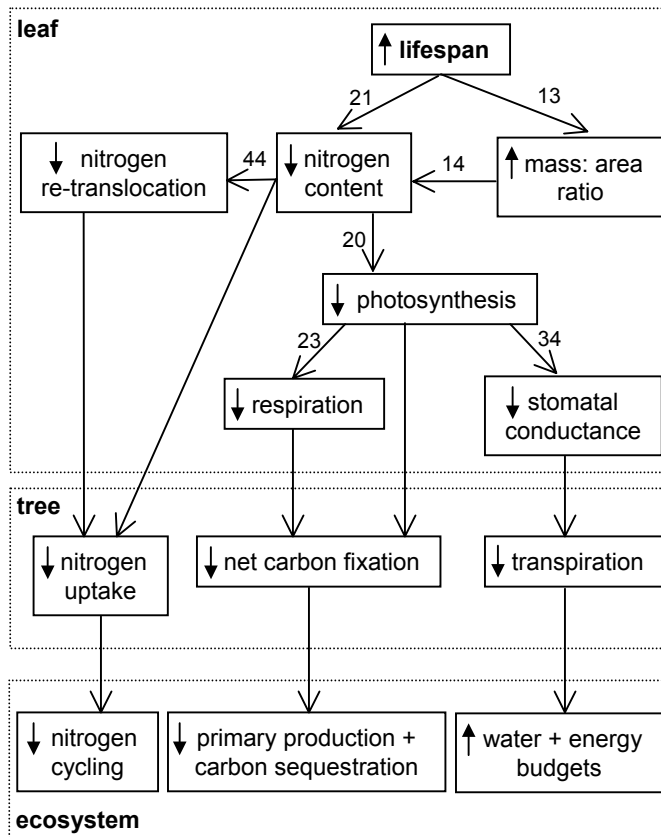
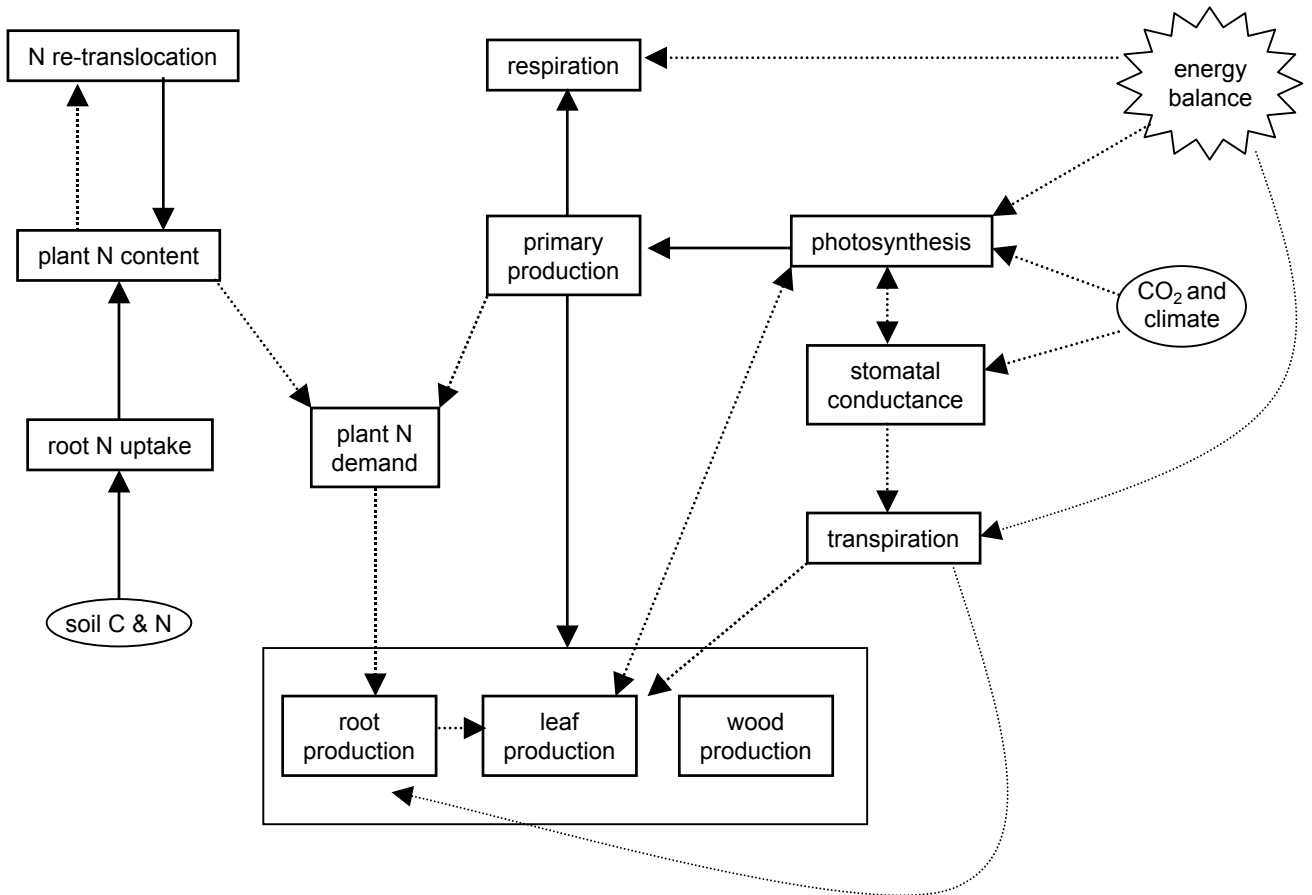


figure 2



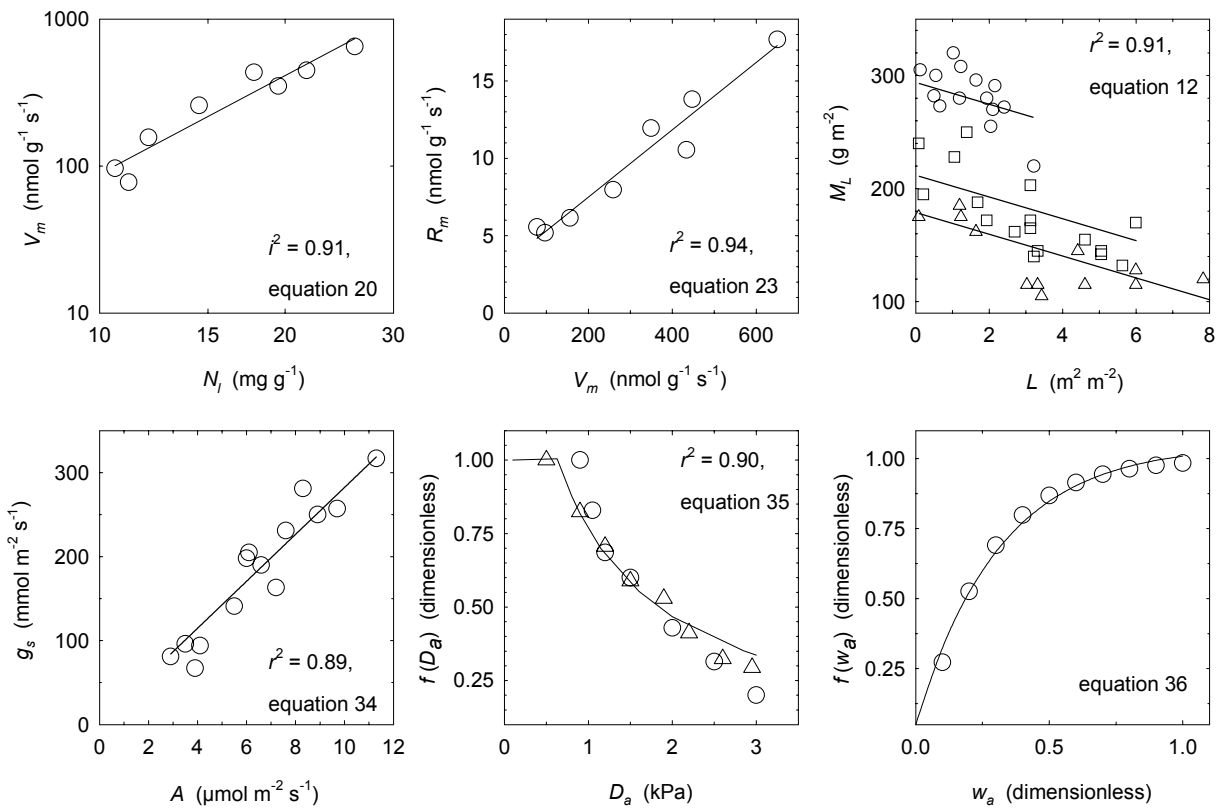


figure 4

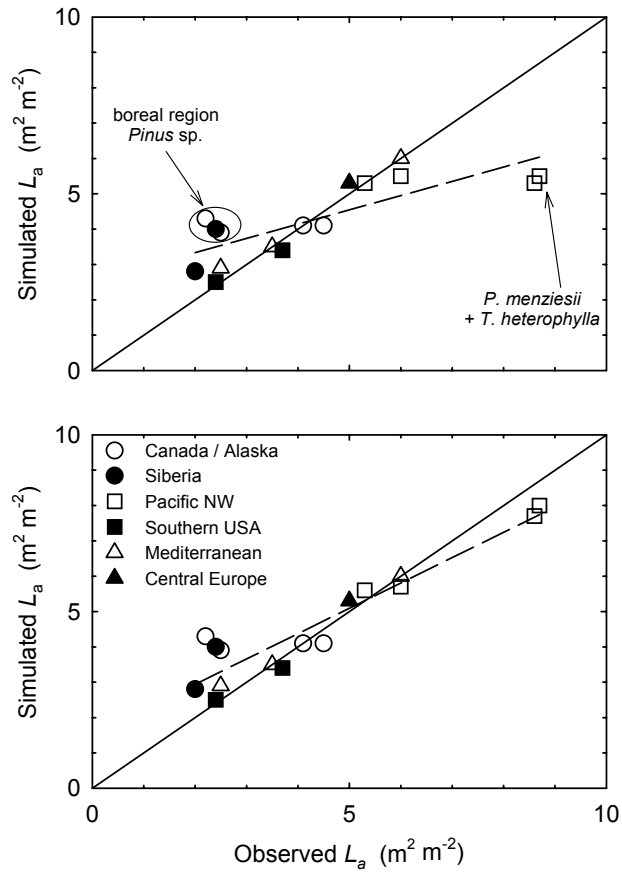


figure 5

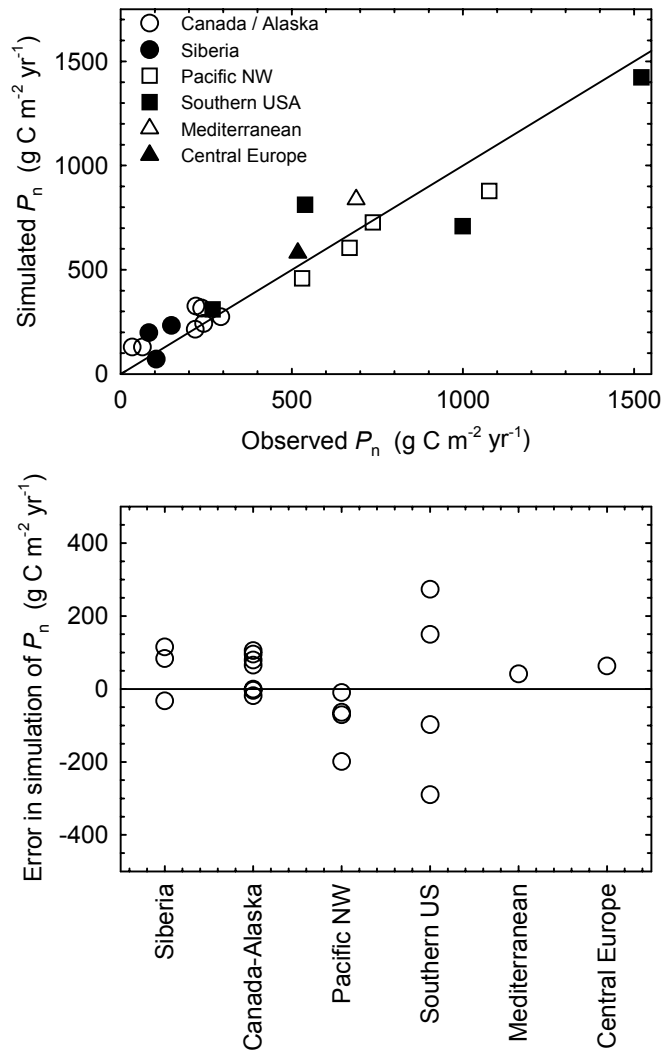


figure 6

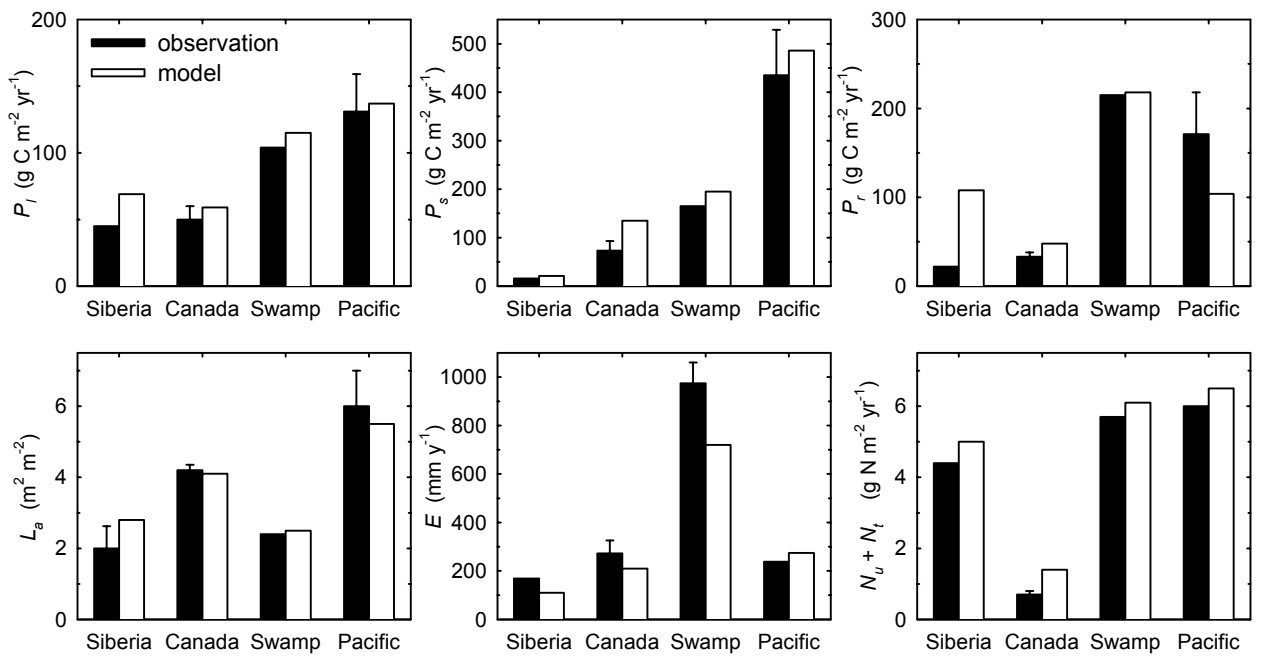
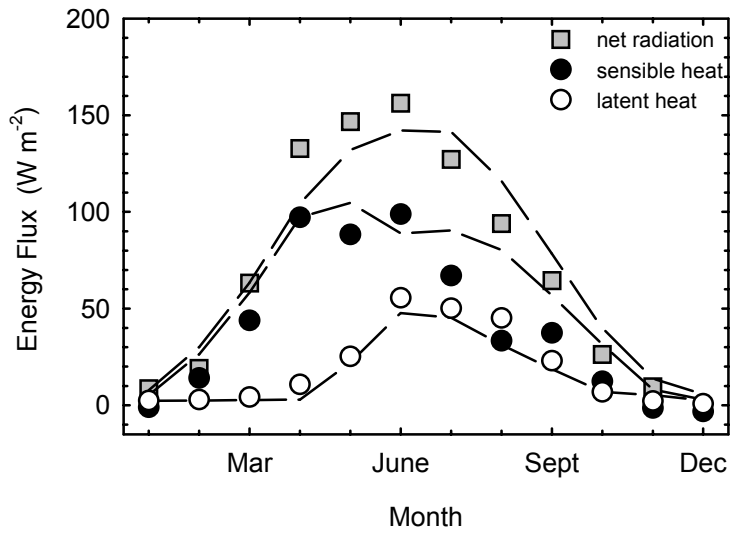


figure 7



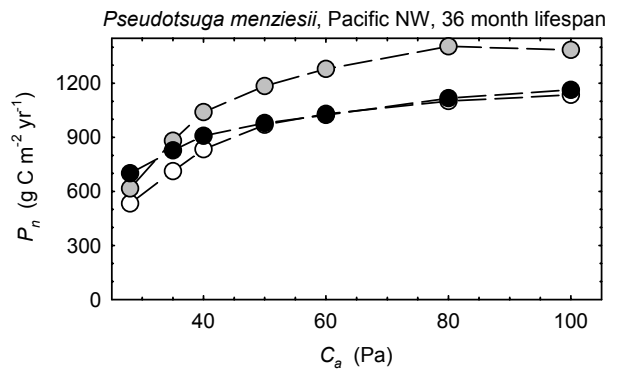
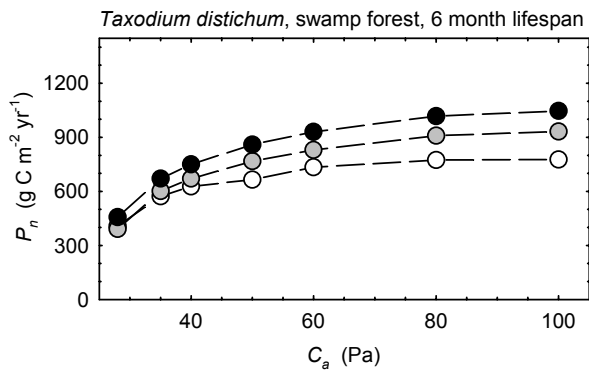
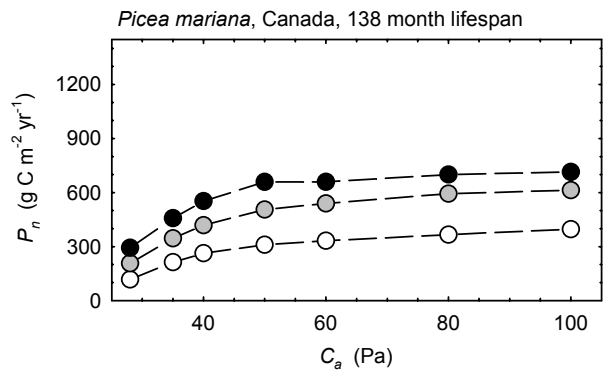
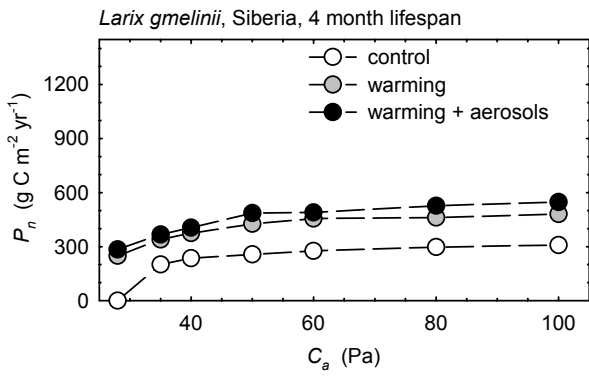
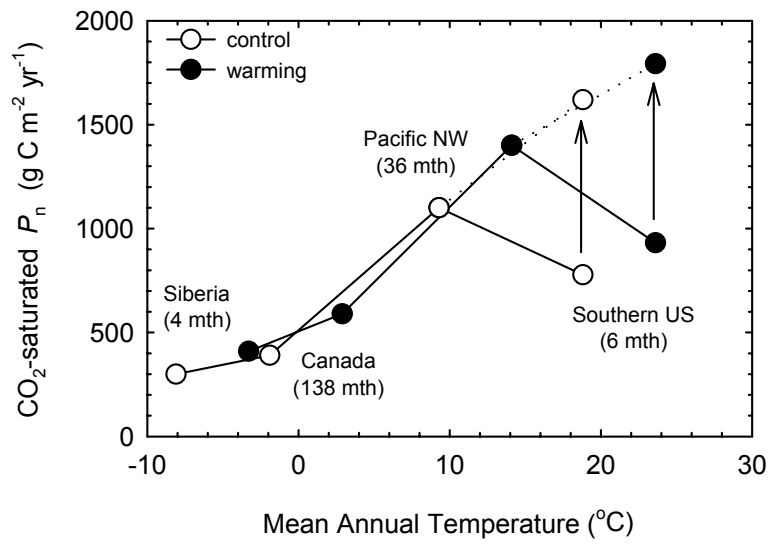




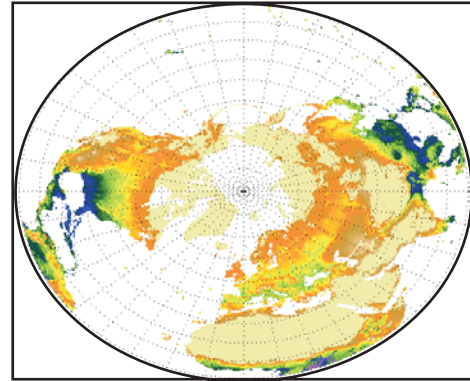
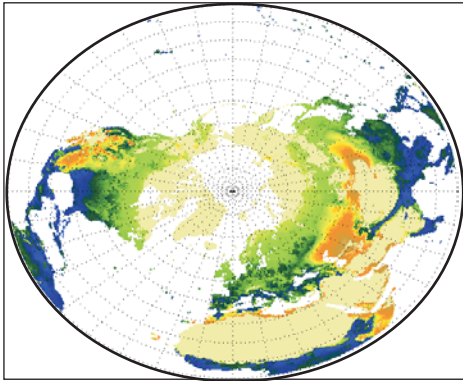
figure 9



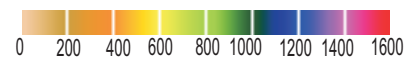
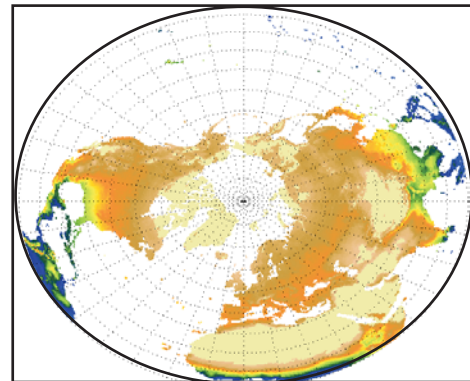
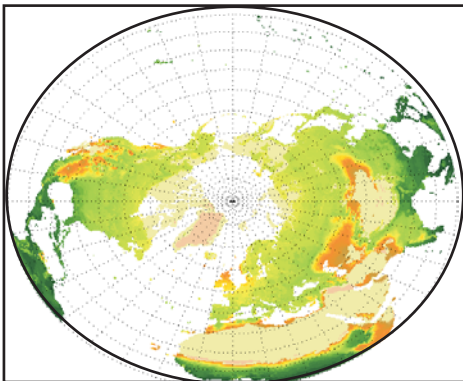
**Leaf area index**  
( $\text{m}^2 \text{m}^{-2}$ )

**Net primary productivity**  
( $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ )

Lifespan = 6 months



Lifespan = 120 months



Difference (6 months - 120 months)

