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# Controls on seasonal patterns of maximum ecosystem carbon uptake and canopy-scale photosynthetic light response: contributions from both temperature and photoperiod

Paul C. Stoy · Amy M. Trowbridge ·  
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**Abstract** Most models of photosynthetic activity assume that temperature is the dominant control over physiological processes. Recent studies have found, however, that photoperiod is a better descriptor than temperature of the seasonal variability of photosynthetic physiology at the leaf scale. Incorporating photoperiodic control into global models consequently improves their representation of the seasonality and magnitude of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration. The role of photoperiod versus that of temperature in controlling the seasonal variability of photosynthetic function at the canopy scale remains unexplored. We quantified the seasonal variability of ecosystem-level light response curves using nearly 400 site years of eddy covariance data from over eighty Free Fair-Use sites in the FLUXNET database. Model parameters describing maximum canopy CO<sub>2</sub> uptake and the initial slope of the light response curve peaked after peak temperature in about 2/3 of site years examined, emphasizing the important role of temperature in controlling seasonal photosynthetic function. Akaike's Information Criterion analyses indicated that photoperiod should be included in models of seasonal parameter variability in over 90 % of the site years investigated here, demonstrating that photoperiod also plays an important role

in controlling seasonal photosynthetic function. We also performed a Granger causality analysis on both gross ecosystem productivity (GEP) and GEP normalized by photosynthetic photon flux density (GEP<sub>n</sub>). While photoperiod Granger-caused GEP and GEP<sub>n</sub> in 99 and 92 % of all site years, respectively, air temperature Granger-caused GEP in a mere 32 % of site years but Granger-caused GEP<sub>n</sub> in 81 % of all site years. Results demonstrate that incorporating photoperiod may be a logical step toward improving models of ecosystem carbon uptake, but not at the expense of including enzyme kinetic-based temperature constraints on canopy-scale photosynthesis.

**Keywords** Eddy covariance · Granger causality · Gross ecosystem productivity · Light response curve · Net ecosystem exchange · Seasonal variability

## Abbreviations

AIC	Akaike's Information Criterion
C-LAMP	Carbon Land Model Intercomparison Project
CLM	Community Land Model
DOY	Day of year
GEP	Gross ecosystem productivity
GPP <sub>n</sub>	Gross ecosystem productivity normalized by photosynthetic photon flux density
GPP	Gross primary productivity
HSD	(Tukey's) Honestly Significant Difference test
$J_{\max}$	Rate of photosynthetic electron flow at light saturation
$L$	Maximum value of the likelihood function
$L_{\text{Day}}$	Day length
$M$	Linear model
$N$	Number of parameters
$N$	Number of instances
NEE	Net ecosystem exchange

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PPFD	Photosynthetic photon flux density
RE	Ecosystem respiration
$T_a$	Air temperature
$V_{c,max}$	Maximum carboxylation capacity
$\alpha$	Initial slope of the light response curve
$\beta$	Net ecosystem exchange at light saturation
$\gamma$	Ecosystem respiration calculated as the intercept of the light response curve
$\theta_N$	Degree of curvature of the non-rectangular hyperbola
$M$	Referring to the Mitscherlich model
$m_{max}$	Referring to the maximum seasonal value calculated using a second-order polynomial
$N$	Referring to the non-rectangular hyperbola
$p$	Referring to a light response curve parameter or combination of parameters

## Introduction

Chemical reactions, including those mediated by biological processes, are dependent on temperature. At the same time, organisms exhibit control over temporal aspects of reaction rates, the most familiar of which are the ca. 24 h periodicities known as circadian rhythms that were described for stomatal conductance as early as Darwin (1898) and for photosynthesis as early as Hastings et al. (1961) (see Webb 2003). Recent studies have even found evidence of circadian patterns in carbon uptake at the ecosystem scale (de Dios et al. 2012), suggesting that models of canopy photosynthesis may benefit by simply including time as an independent variable.

The broader study of temporal changes in organismal function is known as chronobiology, and botanical examples include the seasonal variability in carbon and nutrient uptake and allocation. Despite chronobiological control over many aspects of plant function, the most common models of photosynthesis include parameters that are constant or are a function of temperature, leaf nitrogen concentration, and other factors (Farquhar et al. 1980), rather than photoperiod. These formulations follow from the fundamental rate laws of enzyme kinetics, but may be incomplete descriptions of the seasonality of photosynthesis if chronobiological factors are also at play.

Recent research has shown that photoperiod (here abbreviated  $L_{Day}$  for day length) is a better descriptor of the seasonal patterns of leaf-level photosynthetic activity than is temperature (Bauerle et al. 2012). Applying these findings to the CLM global-scale terrestrial carbon cycle model improved its ability to replicate the observed global seasonal pattern and magnitude of atmospheric  $CO_2$

concentration (Bauerle et al. 2012; Bonan et al. 2011). These results suggest that  $L_{Day}$  may improve models of gross ecosystem productivity (GEP) at the canopy scale (Groenendijk et al. 2011). However, controls over the seasonal pattern of GEP remain unclear because of the multiple mechanisms that determine canopy photosynthesis. For example, leaf area index varies over the course of the season, even in tropical canopies (van Schaik et al. 1993; Wright and van Schaik 1994). Longer photoperiods correspond to smaller minimum zenith angles and greater canopy penetration of direct solar radiation (Song et al. 2009). Leaf age and  $N$  allocation also influence the seasonal pattern of photosynthetic parameters and photosynthetic rates (Wilson et al. 2000; Reich et al. 1991), and incorporating this information into ecosystem models improves their ability to capture the seasonal dynamics and magnitude of photosynthetic uptake (Wilson et al. 2001). A number of mechanisms are thus responsible for seasonal variability of canopy photosynthesis, and it is unclear if simply adding  $L_{Day}$  as an independent variable will improve model skill.

Incorporating canopy structure and nutrient allocation into models of canopy photosynthesis remains a challenge because it is difficult to observe the timing and magnitude of canopy development and photosynthetic capacity at plot, regional, and global scales (Fisher et al. 2007; Grace et al. 2007; Tian et al. 2002). These challenges remain despite recent improvements in our ability to apply remote sensing observations to quantify canopy function (Ryu et al. 2011; Asner 1998), and remote sensing observations, like all observations, contain important uncertainties (Foody and Atkinson 2006). Uncertainties in the independent variables of an ecological model introduce the well-known “errors in  $x$ ” problem (Chesher 1991; Fuller 1987) (also known as “regression dilution” or “attenuation”), which add bias error to the dependent variable, in our case GEP. Time, for all intents and purposes, is without uncertainty for ecological applications, excluding human error in timekeeping. If  $L_{Day}$  can be used as an explanatory variable for photosynthesis models at the canopy scale, following the findings of Bauerle et al. (2012) at the leaf and global scales, a variable that is uniquely nearly error-free (at least for the purposes of ecological studies) can be used to improve ecosystem models.

To explore the role of  $L_{Day}$  in controlling seasonal variability in GEP and canopy-scale photosynthetic function, we adopt a data-intensive approach (Gray 2009) to explore patterns in large ecological datasets (Hunt et al. 2009). We examined 385 site years of eddy covariance-measured net ecosystem exchange (NEE) and estimated GEP from 81 research sites to test if adding time via  $L_{Day}$  in addition to temperature improves model prediction of maximum ecosystem-scale carbon uptake and the initial slope of the light response curve. We chose to investigate the parameters of simple light response curves to avoid introducing

uncertainties from other variables (e.g., leaf area index) used to infer Farquhar et al. (1980) model parameters (e.g.,  $V_{c,max}$ ) from eddy covariance data. Maximum ecosystem-scale carbon uptake was chosen for this analysis because of its importance in determining the magnitude of GEP across ecosystem types (Desai et al. 2008a). Seasonality of the initial slope of the light response curve was explored because the GEP–light response relationship was identified by a recent multi-site and multi-model synthesis as a primary source of model bias (Schaefer et al. 2012). Specifically, we model carbon uptake as a function of photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD) for over 140,000 days of half-hourly (or hourly) eddy covariance data and use information criteria analyses and a well-established econometric analysis, Granger Causality (Granger 1969; Detto et al. 2012), to determine if information in  $L_{Day}$ , air temperature ( $T_a$ ), or a combination of both better explain seasonal patterns of GEP and canopy light response curve parameters. We also test if the day of year (DOY) on which photosynthetic parameters reach their seasonal maximum ( $DOY_{max,p}$ ) occurs before or after that of temperature ( $DOY_{max,T_a}$ ) and  $L_{Day}$  (i.e., the summer solstice, DOY 172 during non leap-years) to explore how environmental variables contribute causal

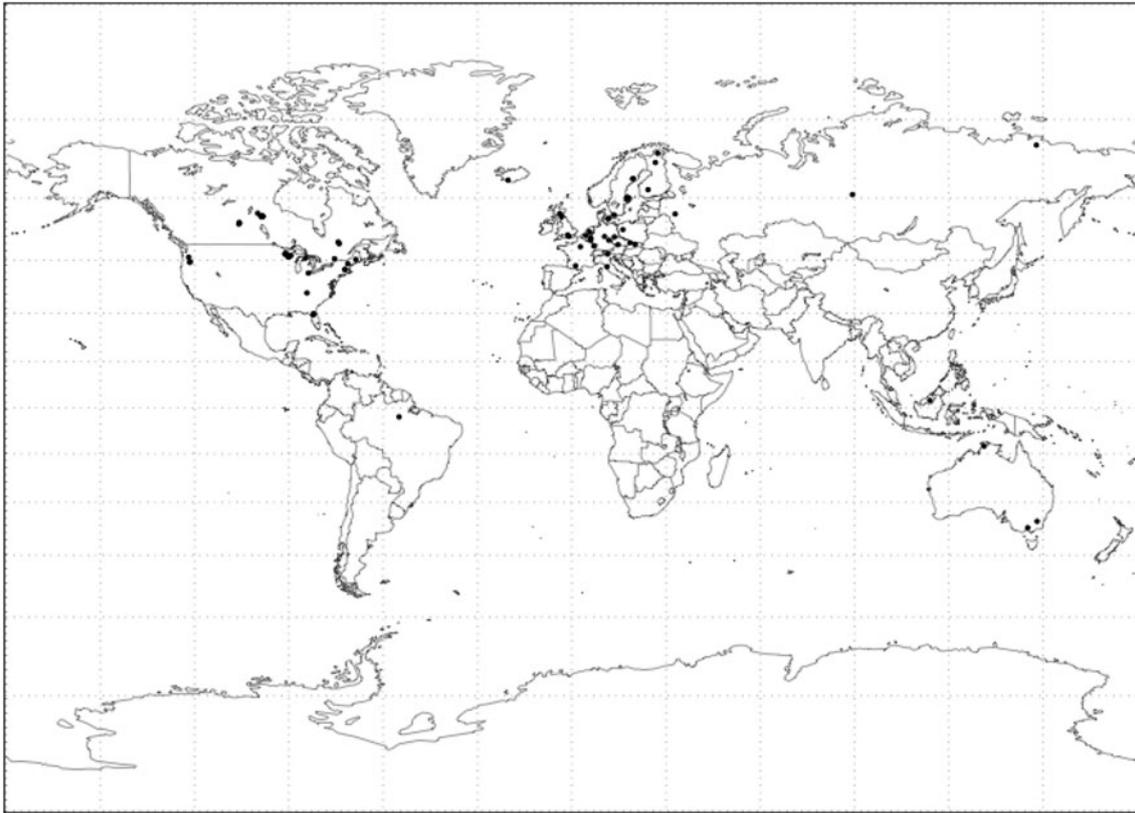
information to seasonal patterns of parameter variability. We further explore how climate zones and vegetation classes impact  $DOY_{max,p}$ . We hypothesize that there is information in the  $L_{Day}$  time series that helps explain seasonal variability in canopy-level photosynthetic function following Bauerle et al. (2012).

## Methods

We first describe the eddy covariance and meteorological data used here, followed by a description of the light response curve analysis including the calculation of the seasonal maxima of light response curve parameters. We then describe the statistical analyses, information criteria analyses, and Granger causality.

### Eddy covariance

We analyzed patterns of NEE, GEP,  $T_a$ , and  $L_{Day}$  using 385 site years of eddy covariance flux observations from 81 forest and shrub-dominated sites designated as Free Fair-Use in the FLUXNET database (Fig. 1; Tables 1, 2). Grasslands and



**Fig. 1** A global map of the Free Fair-Use eddy covariance research sites in the FLUXNET database, excluding sites in Dry (Semi-Arid and Arid) and Mediterranean climates where water availability is likely a dominant control over seasonal patterns of canopy

photosynthesis, and grassland and crop ecosystems where ecosystem management is likely a dominant control over seasonal patterns of canopy photosynthesis (see Table 1)

**Table 1** Vegetation (*Veg.*), climate (*Clim.*), years of available data (*Years*), latitude (*Lat.*), and longitude (*Long.*) for the 81 FLUXNET sites and 385 site years in the Free Fair-Use database analyzed here

Site	Veg. <sup>a</sup>	Clim. <sup>b</sup>	Years	Lat.	Long.	Reference
AUFog	WET	TR	2006–2007	–12.5425	131.307	Guerschman et al. (2009)
AUTum	EBF	T	2001–2006	–35.6557	148.152	Finnigan and Leuning (2000)
AUWac	EBF	T	2005–2006	–37.429	145.187	Beringer et al. (2006)
BEBra	MF	T	1997–2006 [1999, 2003]	51.3092	4.52056	de Pury and Ceulemans (1997)
BEJal	MF	T	2006	50.5639	6.07333	–
BEVie	MF	T	1996–2006	50.3055	5.99683	Aubinet et al. (2001)
BRsSa3	EBF	TR	2000–2003	–3.01803	–54.9714	Saleska et al. (2003)
CAMan	ENF	B	1994–2003 [1996]	55.8796	–98.4808	Sellers et al. (1995)
CAMer	WET	TC	1998–2005	45.4094	–75.5186	Lafleur et al. (2003)
CANS1	ENF	B	2002–2005	55.8792	–98.4839	Goulden et al. (2006)
CANS2	ENF	B	2001–2005	55.9058	–98.5247	Goulden et al. (2006)
CANS3	ENF	B	2001–2005	55.9117	–98.3822	Goulden et al. (2006)
CANS4	ENF	B	2002–2004	55.9117	–98.3822	Goulden et al. (2006)
CANS5	ENF	B	2001–2005	55.8631	–98.4850	Goulden et al. (2006)
CANS6	OSH	B	2001–2005	55.9167	–98.9644	Goulden et al. (2006)
CANS7	OSH	B	2002–2005	56.6358	–99.9483	Goulden et al. (2006)
CAQcu	ENF	B	2001–2006	49.2671	–74.0365	Giasson et al. (2006)
CAQfo	ENF	B	2003–2006	49.6925	–74.3421	Bergeron et al. (2007)
CASF1	ENF	B	2003–2005	54.4850	–105.818	Amiro et al. (2006)
CASF2	ENF	B	2003–2005	54.2539	–105.878	Rayment and Jarvis (1999)
CASF3	ENF	B	2003–2005	54.0916	–106.005	Rayment and Jarvis (1999)
CZBK1	ENF	TC	2000–2006	49.5026	18.5384	Havrankova and Sedlak (2004)
CZwet	WET	T	2006	49.0250	14.7720	Dušek et al. (2009)
DEBay	ENF	T	1997–1999	50.1419	11.8669	Valentini et al. (2000)
DEHai	DBF	T	2001–2006	51.0793	10.452	Knohl et al. (2003)
DETha	ENF	T	1996–2006	50.9636	13.5669	Bernhofer et al. (2003)
DEWet	ENF	T	2002–2006	50.4535	11.4575	Anthoni et al. (2004)
DKSor	DBF	T	1996–2006	55.4869	11.6458	Pilegaard et al. (2001)
FIHyy	ENF	B	1996–2006	61.8474	24.2948	Suni et al. (2003)
FIKaa	WET	B	2000–2006	69.1407	27.295	Aurela et al. (2002)
FISod	ENF	B	2000–2006	67.3619	26.6378	Thum et al. (2007)
FRFon	DBF	T	2005–2006	48.4763	2.7801	Le Maire et al. (2005)
FRHes	DBF	T	1997–2006	48.6742	7.06462	Granier et al. (2000)
FRLBr	ENF	T	1996–2006 [1999]	44.7171	–0.7693	Berbigier et al. (2001)
IDPag	EBF	TR	2002–2003	2.3450	114.0360	Hirano et al. (2007)
ISGun	DBF	T	1996–1998	63.8333	–20.2167	Aradóttir et al. (1997)
ITLav	ENF	T	2000–2006 [2003, 2005]	45.9553	11.2812	Cescatti and Marcolla (2004)
ITRen	ENF	T	1999–2006	46.5878	11.4347	Marcolla et al. (2003)
NLLoo	ENF	T	1996–2006	52.1679	5.74396	Dolman et al. (2002)
PLWet	WET	T	2004–2005	52.7622	16.3094	Chojnicki et al. (2007)
RUCok	OSH	A	2003–2005	70.6167	147.8830	van der Molen et al. (2007)
RUFyo	ENF	TC	1998–2004	56.46167	32.92389	Kurbatova et al. (2008)
RUZot	ENF	B	2002–2004	60.8008	89.3508	Kurbatova et al. (2002)
SEDeg	WET	B	2001–2005	64.1833	19.5500	Sagerfors et al. (2008)
SEFaj	WET	T	2005–2006	56.2655	13.5535	Lund et al. (2007)
SEFla	ENF	B	1996–2002 [1999]	64.1128	19.4569	Valentini et al. (2000)
SENor	ENF	TC	1996–2005 [2000–02, 2004]	60.0865	17.4795	Lagergren et al. (2008)
SESk1	ENF	TC	2005	60.125	17.9181	Gioli et al. (2004)

**Table 1** continued

Site	Veg. <sup>a</sup>	Clim. <sup>b</sup>	Years	Lat.	Long.	Reference
SESk2	ENF	TC	2004–2005	60.12967	17.8401	Lindroth et al. (2008b)
SKTat	ENF	TC	2005	49.1208	20.1635	Matese et al. (2008)
UKAMo	WET	T	2005	55.7917	−3.23889	Hargreaves et al. (2003)
UKGri	ENF	T	1997–2006 [1999, 2002–2004]	56.60722	−3.79806	Medlyn et al. (2005)
UKHam	DBF	T	2004–2005	51.1208	−0.8608	Wilkinson et al. (2012)
UKPL3	DBF	T	2005–2006	51.4500	−1.26667	Herbst et al. (2008)
USBar	DBF	TC	2004–2005	44.0646	−71.2881	Richardson et al. (2007a)
USHa1	DBF	TC	1991–2006	42.5378	−72.1715	Wofsy et al. (1993)
USHo1	ENF	TC	1996–2004	45.2041	−68.7402	Hollinger et al. (1999)
USHo2	ENF	TC	1999–2004	45.2091	−68.7470	Thornton et al. (2002)
USLos	DBF	TC	2001–2005	46.0827	−89.9792	Desai et al. (2008b)
USMMS	DBF	T	2001–2005	39.3231	−86.4131	Schmid et al. (2000)
USMOz	DBF	T	2004–2006	38.7441	−92.2000	Gu et al. (2006)
USOho	DBF	TC	2004–2005	41.5545	−83.8438	DeForest et al. (2006)
USPFa	MF	TC	1996–2003 [1998, 2001–2002]	45.9459	−90.2723	Berger et al. (2001)
USSP1	ENF	S	2000–2001, 2005	29.7381	−82.2188	Clark et al. (1999)
USSP2	ENF	S	1998–2004	29.7648	−82.2448	Clark et al. (1999)
USSP3	ENF	S	1999–2004	29.7548	−82.1633	Clark et al. (1999)
USSP4	ENF	S	1998	29.8028	−82.2031	Fang et al. (1998)
USSyv	MF	TC	2002–2006	46.242	−89.3477	Desai et al. (2005)
USUMB	DBF	TC	1999–2003	45.5598	−84.7138	Curtis et al. (2002)
USWBW	DBF	S	1995–1999	35.9588	−84.2874	Verma et al. (1986)
USWCr	DBF	TC	1999–2006	45.8059	−90.0799	Cook et al. (2004)
USWi0	ENF	TC	2002	46.6188	−91.0814	Desai et al. (2008a)
USWi1	DBF	TC	2003	46.7305	−91.2329	Noormets et al. (2007)
USWi2	ENF	TC	2003	46.6869	−91.1528	Noormets et al. (2007)
USWi4	ENF	TC	2002–2005	46.7393	−91.1663	Noormets et al. (2007)
USWi5	ENF	TC	2004	46.6531	−91.0858	Noormets et al. (2007)
USWi6	OSH	TC	2002	46.6249	−91.2982	Noormets et al. (2007)
USWi7	OSH	TC	2005	46.6491	−91.0693	Noormets et al. (2007)
USWi8	DBF	TC	2002	46.7223	−91.2524	Noormets et al. (2007)
USWi9	ENF	TC	2004–2005	46.6188	−91.0813	Noormets et al. (2007)
USWrc	ENF	T	1998–2006 [2003]	45.8205	−121.952	Chen et al. (2002)

Square brackets indicate years of observations that were not available for analysis

<sup>a</sup> Veg. vegetation following the International Geosphere-Biosphere Programme (IGBP) classification. *DBF* deciduous broadleaf forest, *ENF* evergreen needleleaf forest, *MF* mixed forest, *OSH* open shrubland, *WET* wetland

<sup>b</sup> Climate group following the Köppen–Geiger classification scheme. *A* arctic, *B* boreal, *S* subtropical, *T* temperate, *TC* temperate continental, *TR* tropical

croplands that are likely to experience substantial anthropogenic management were excluded from the analysis, as were ecosystems from Mediterranean and dry (arid and semi-arid) climate classifications whose seasonal patterns of ecological function are likely constrained by water availability (Ryu et al. 2008).

Eddy covariance is a standard methodology for measuring ecosystem-level fluxes of carbon, water, and energy (Baldocchi et al. 2001; Aubinet et al. 2000). Briefly, the eddy covariance technique measures the turbulent

exchange of sensible heat, latent heat (i.e., evapotranspiration), and trace gases including CO<sub>2</sub> between the biosphere and atmosphere. It does so by coupling high frequency (usually 10 to 20 Hz) measurements of the three-dimensional wind velocity with trace gas and water vapor concentration measurements from a fast-response infrared gas analyzer. Surface-atmosphere exchange of mass and energy is well-represented by the turbulent flux across a plane in the boundary layer above the surface plus any changes in mass and energy storage underneath the

**Table 2** Summary table of the number of site years of eddy covariance data available per vegetation and climate class in the Free Air-CO<sub>2</sub> Enrichment (FACE) FLUXNET database, excluding Dry climate classes and Crop, Grassland, and Savanna vegetation classes

	T	TC	TR	B	A	S	Sum
DBF	46	40	0	0	0	5	91
EBF	9	0	6	0	0	0	15
ENF	65	48	0	76	0	17	206
MF	20	10	0	0	0	0	30
OSH	0	2	0	9	3	0	14
WET	7	8	1	13	0	0	29
Sum	148	108	7	98	3	22	385

Vegetation following the International Geosphere-Biosphere Programme (IGBP) classification. *DBF* deciduous broadleaf forest, *ENF* evergreen needleleaf forest, *MF* mixed forest, *OSH* open shrubland, *WET* wetland

Climate group following the Köppen–Geiger classification scheme. *A* arctic, *B* boreal, *S* subtropical, *T* temperate, *TC* temperate continental, *TR* tropical

sensor system during conditions of near-neutral atmospheric stability (Aubinet et al. 2000; Foken et al. 2012). The magnitude and direction of surface-atmosphere mass and energy exchange is typically calculated over a half-hourly or hourly time step, and eddy covariance measurement systems are often run for multiple years or decades (e.g., Urbanski et al. 2007; Baldocchi 2008) such that patterns of ecosystem metabolism across diurnal, seasonal, annual, and interannual time scales can be quantified (Richardson et al. 2007b; Stoy et al. 2009; Desai 2010).

Eddy covariance measures NEE rather than GEP (see Goulden et al. 1997, for a discussion of the distinction between GEP and gross primary productivity, GPP). GEP is often estimated as the difference between NEE and a model for ecosystem respiration (RE) that is parameterized using observations of NEE at night when GEP is negligible in C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub>-dominated ecosystems following the definition equation:

$$NEE = GEP + RE \quad (1)$$

Carbon uptake by the biosphere is denoted as negative following the atmospheric convention used by most eddy covariance studies. Here we adopt the biological convention and denote ecosystem carbon uptake as positive such that GEP is defined as positive for consistency with studies of plant physiology.

### Light response curves

Most RE models used for the purposes of estimating GEP from EC observations use  $T_a$  (or soil temperature) as an independent variable (Reichstein et al. 2005; Reichstein et al. 2012), which would add a temperature-based model into our estimate of GEP (Eq. 1). To avoid contaminating

our GEP estimates with an uncertain temperature signal, we used measured (i.e., not gap-filled) eddy covariance data collected during both day time and night time and estimated RE as the zero intercept of a light response curve (Lasslop et al. 2010; Lee et al. 1999), an approach that was found to better-match biometric estimates of ecosystem carbon uptake across different ecosystem types than models based on the night time  $T_a$ –RE relationship (Stoy et al. 2006). We explore parameters from the Mitscherlich model (Lindroth et al. 2008a; Aubinet et al. 2001):

$$NEE = (\beta_M + \gamma_M) \left( 1 - \exp\left(\frac{-\alpha_M \text{PPFD}}{\beta_M + \gamma_M}\right) \right) - \gamma_M \quad (2)$$

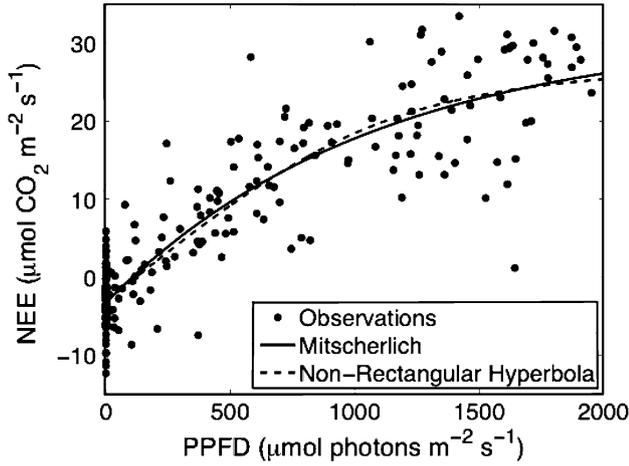
and the non-rectangular hyperbola (Gilmanov et al. 2003; Lambers et al. 2000):

$$NEE = \frac{1}{2\theta_N} \alpha_N \text{PPFD} + \beta_N - \sqrt{(\alpha_N \text{PPFD} + \beta_N)^2 - 4\alpha_N \beta_N \theta_N \text{PPFD}} \quad (3)$$

where  $\alpha$  is the initial slope of the light response curve (also called apparent quantum yield),  $\beta$  is NEE at light saturation,  $\gamma$  represents RE, and  $\theta$  is the degree of curvature in the non-rectangular hyperbola. Following equation 1,  $\beta + \gamma$  represents GEP at light saturation, and we also examine  $\beta$  (i.e., NEE at light saturation) for completeness.  $\beta$  is related to the rate of photosynthetic electron flow at light saturation,  $J_{\max}$ , of the Farquhar et al. (1980) photosynthesis model (Lambers et al. 2000).

Mitscherlich model parameters were chosen to avoid overestimates of  $\beta$  that can result from parameterizing the simple rectangular hyperbola (Reichstein et al. 2012). The non-rectangular hyperbola (Eq. 3) can further improve estimates of  $\beta$  and also  $\alpha$  (Gilmanov et al. 2003), but parameter optimization routines often suffer from lack of convergence when fitting the four-parameter non-rectangular hyperbola to eddy covariance data (Stoy et al. 2006). By exploring both models, we constrain our estimates of  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\beta + \gamma$  for a more conservative interpretation of their variability.

To quantify seasonal patterns of  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\beta + \gamma$  from hundreds of site years of observations, we fit the parameters of Eqs. 2 and 3 with a nonlinear least squares algorithm (MATLAB, Mathworks, Natick MA) using data from a seven-day moving window centered about each DOY for each site year as demonstrated in Fig. 2. Corresponding parameter values for the models in Fig. 2 are listed in Table 3. The seven-day window was chosen to obtain a sufficient number of data points to fit the parameters of Eqs. 2 and 3. Periods for which the parameter estimation routine did not converge were excluded from the analysis,



**Fig. 2** Eddy covariance-measured NEE using the physiological convention in which flux from atmosphere to biosphere is denoted as positive as a function of photosynthetic photon flux density (*PPFD*) for the period between day of year (*DOY*) 185 and 191 (i.e., July 4–10), 1999, at the Walker Branch Watershed (US-WBW) site in eastern TN (Table 1). Corresponding parameters for the Mitscherlich (Eq. 2) and non-rectangular hyperbola (Eq. 3) are presented in Table 3

**Table 3** Parameter values with 95 % confidence intervals (*CI*) for the light response curves (Eqs. 2, 3) demonstrated in Fig. 2, corresponding to the period between day of year (*DOY*) 185 and 191 (i.e., July 4–10), 1999, at the Walker Branch Watershed (US-WBW) site in eastern Tennessee, USA (Table 1)

Parameter	Value ± CI	Units
$\alpha_M$	$0.032 \pm 0.0073$	$\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \mu\text{mol photons}^{-1}$
$\beta_M$	$31.6 \pm 6.7$	$\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$
$\gamma_M$	$3.3 \pm 1.1$	$\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$
$\alpha_N$	$0.026 \pm 0.0081$	$\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \mu\text{mol photons}^{-1}$
$\beta_N$	$32.0 \pm 11$	$\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$
$\theta_N$	$0.90 \pm 0.30$	
$\gamma_N$	$3.1 \pm 1.1$	$\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$

as were days for which the estimated  $\beta$  or  $\gamma$  parameters exceeded  $50 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , and for which the estimated  $\alpha$  parameter exceeded  $0.2 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \mu\text{mol photons}^{-1}$ . NEE observations whose magnitude exceeded  $50 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  occurred very infrequently in the dataset, and likely represent erroneous observations that eluded standard filters (Papale et al. 2006).

#### Seasonal variability of light response curve parameters

We also used nonlinear least squares to fit the parameters of a second-order polynomial with associated uncertainty estimates in order to calculate the *DOY* for which  $T_a$ ,  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\beta + \gamma$  are at their seasonal maximum using:

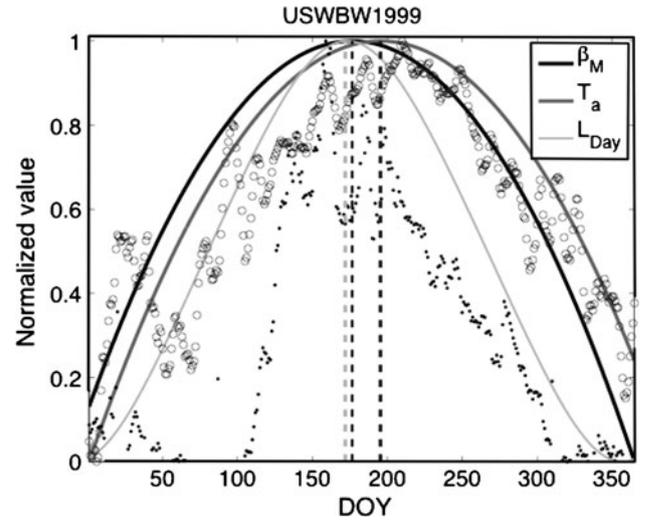
$$p_1 \text{DOY}^2 + p_2 \text{DOY} + p_3 \quad (4)$$

where the *DOY* associated with the maximum parameter values ( $\text{DOY}_{\max,p}$ ) and temperature ( $\text{DOY}_{\max,T_a}$ ) is equal to the vertical axis of symmetry for a parabola,  $-p_2/2p_1$ .

Site years for which less than 300 days of data were measured were excluded from the analysis. An example of the seasonal variability of  $L_{\text{Day}}$ ,  $T_a$ , and  $\beta_M$  for a single site year is demonstrated in Fig. 3.  $L_{\text{Day}}$  was calculated following Campbell and Norman (1998) for each site year using eddy covariance tower coordinates.

#### Statistical analysis

To quantify if  $\text{DOY}_{\max,p}$  was significantly different among vegetation and climate classes, we performed individual one-way ANOVAs for the seasonal patterns of  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\beta + \gamma$  parameters of the Mitscherlich model. Mitscherlich model parameters were chosen for this analysis because parameter convergence occurred more frequently, which resulted in more site years with sensible  $\text{DOY}_{\max,p}$  estimates (see Table 4). Arctic, Subtropical, and Tropical climate classes are poorly represented in the Free/Fair-Use dataset (Tables 1, 2; Fig. 1), but Boreal, Temperate, and Temperate Continental classes all contain at least 82 site years of data with which to interpret variability by vegetation type. To explore differences among vegetation types within Boreal,



**Fig. 3** The seasonal pattern of maximum eddy covariance-measured net ecosystem exchange (NEE) calculated by the Mitscherlich model ( $\beta_M$ , black dots) and the seasonal pattern of air temperature ( $T_a$ , gray circles) for the Walker Branch Watershed study site (US-WBW, Table 1) in 1999 with second-order polynomials as solid lines and corresponding vertical dashed lines at the vertical axes of symmetry. The data series and parabolas have been all scaled between 0 and 1 in the vertical direction to simplify the visual display. Normalized day length ( $L_{\text{Day}}$ ) is shown in the light gray line and the summer solstice [day of year (*DOY*) 172] is indicated by the light gray vertical dashed line

**Table 4** The mean and standard deviation of the day of year (*DOY*) at which air temperature ( $T_a$ ) and light response curve parameters (collectively abbreviated “*p*”) reach their maximum value ( $DOY_{max}$ ) for 385 site years of eddy covariance-measured net ecosystem exchange (NEE)

	$DOY_{max}$	$N$ $DOY_{max,p}$ $< DOY_{max,T_a}$	$N$ $DOY_{max,p}$ $> DOY_{max,T_a}$	$N$ for which $DOY_{max,p}$ exceeded logical bounds
$T_a$	$194 \pm 29$	–	–	–
$\alpha_M$	$207 \pm 47$	105	230	13
$\beta_M$	$201 \pm 39$	129	218	19
$\beta_M + \gamma_M$	$204 \pm 32$	113	231	20
$\alpha_N$	$214 \pm 48$	71	209	72
$\beta_N$	$201 \pm 26$	106	192	71
$\beta_N + \gamma_N$	$202 \pm 25$	102	196	73

$N$  number of site years of occurrence

Temperate, and Temperate Continental climate zones, we performed a one-way ANOVA on  $DOY_{max,p}$  using vegetation class as the independent variable. If a main effect was significant, pairwise comparisons within vegetation types and climate classes were analyzed using Tukey’s Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) post hoc test. All statistical analyses were performed using R (R Development Core Team 2011) or MATLAB.

#### Information criteria analyses

We fit a suite of linear models to every site year of data to examine if incorporating  $L_{Day}$  improves simple models of ecosystem-level photosynthetic parameter seasonality. Model 1 (M1) includes only  $T_a$  (i.e., daily values of the photosynthetic parameters are modeled as a function of a fitted slope, the independent variable in this case  $T_a$ , and a fitted intercept parameter), M2 includes only  $L_{Day}$ , M3 is a function of  $T_a$  plus  $L_{Day}$ , and M4 is equal to M3 plus an interaction term between  $T_a$  and  $L_{Day}$ . We fit every model to every site year of available data and selected the model with the minimum Akaike’s Information Criterion (AIC) value (Akaike 1974). Briefly, AIC measures the relative amount of information lost (via information entropy) for a given model, and, therefore, the model with the minimum AIC value is preferred when discriminating amongst models. AIC penalizes against the number of parameters  $n$  and favors models with greater likelihood via:

$$AIC = 2n - 2 \ln(L)$$

where  $L$  is the maximum value of the likelihood function of the model in question calculated using the output of the *lm* command in R.

#### Granger causality

We performed a Granger causality analysis, a method based on the understanding that causes precede effects (Granger 1969), on daily GEP from the Free Fair-Use FLUXNET database (Table 1). Briefly, Granger causality employs a series of  $t$  tests and  $F$  tests on lagged time series to quantify if there is information in time series X that contributes to the variability of an independent time series Y.  $T_a$  and  $L_{Day}$  were investigated as causal variables for GEP and GEP normalized by PPFD ( $GEP_n$ ).  $GEP_n$  was chosen for analysis to account for the expectation that longer days that likely have greater PPFD will also likely have greater GEP.

Daily data with a quality control value below 0.90 for GEP (indicating a 90 % acceptance rate of half-hourly flux measurements) and 0.95 for  $T_a$  were omitted from the Granger causality calculation, as were site years that contained less than 2/3 of potential data. FLUXNET quality control criteria are described in Reichstein et al. (2005) and Papale et al. (2006). Granger causality was determined to be significant if the Granger F-statistic exceeded the critical value from the F-distribution at the 95 % level. Site years were considered statistically independent such that inference during years in which  $L_{Day}$  or  $T_a$  did not Granger-cause GEP or  $GEP_n$  were not confounded by years during which  $L_{Day}$  or  $T_a$  Granger-caused GEP (i.e., we selected a more conservative implementation of Granger causality). The maximum lag time considered in the Granger causality calculation was varied between one and 10 weeks to calculate the uncertainty of the fraction of site years in which a Granger causal relationship was observed.

## Results

#### Seasonality of photosynthetic parameters

The 95 % confidence intervals about  $DOY_{max,T_a}$  exceeded 1 day in only five instances out of 385 site years, and the 95 % confidence interval about  $DOY_{max,p}$  did not exceed 1 day across all site years and parameters examined. Subsequently, we focus our statistical analysis on patterns among site years rather than uncertainty within site years.  $DOY_{max,p}$  occasionally fell outside of the logical range of 0–365 (or 366), often due to incomplete measurements across the site year. These site years were excluded from further analyses.

As anticipated, the  $DOY_{max,p}$  for parameters of the non-rectangular hyperbola could not be calculated for many (>70) site years due to difficulties in fitting the non-rectangular hyperbola to noisy eddy covariance data (Table 4). We focus on parameters of the Mitscherlich model in subsequent analyses to avoid excluding site years for this

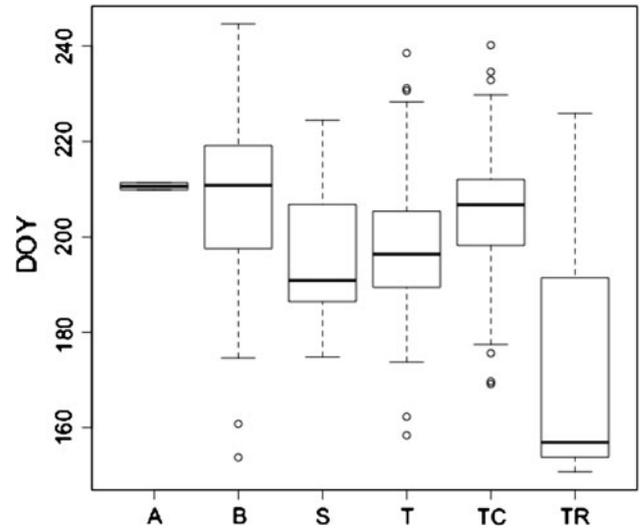
reason. The mean  $DOY_{\max, T_a}$  across all site years occurred on average before the mean  $DOY_{\max, p}$  for all parameter combinations examined here (two-tailed  $t$  test,  $P < 0.05$ ; Table 4). Maximum values of  $\beta_M$  and  $\beta_M + \gamma_M$  occurred on average 7–10 days after  $DOY_{\max, T_a}$ , and maximum values of  $\alpha_M$  occurred on average 2 weeks after  $DOY_{\max, T_a}$ . Despite statistically significant differences in mean  $DOY_{\max, T_a}$  and  $DOY_{\max, p}$  across all site years,  $DOY_{\max, p}$  occurred earlier than  $DOY_{\max, T_a}$  in 31–37 % of all instances, depending on the parameter chosen (Table 4).

#### Analysis of variance of parameter seasonality by climate and vegetation type

$DOY_{\max, p}$  values below 150 and above 250 were identified as outliers in an interquartile analysis, and excluding these values resulted in a normal distribution of values for each parameter as identified by Komolgorov–Smirnov tests. Thus, we focus our statistical analysis of seasonal parameter variability by climate and vegetation type on site years with  $DOY_{\max, p}$  between 150 and 250.  $DOY_{\max, p}$  for the alpha parameter of the Mitscherlich model ( $\alpha_M$ ) was significantly different by vegetation type ( $F_{5,278} = 3.1$ ;  $P < 0.01$ ), but correcting for multiple comparisons using Tukey’s HSD resulted in no pairwise comparisons that were significantly different.  $DOY_{\max, p}$  for both  $\beta_M$  and  $\beta_M + \gamma_M$  did not differ by vegetation type, but were significantly different by climate type ( $\beta_M$ :  $F_{5,311} = 8.1$ ;  $P < 0.0001$ ,  $\beta_M + \gamma_M$ :  $F_{5,319} = 13.6$ ;  $P < 0.0001$ ). Namely,  $DOY_{\max, p}$  for  $\beta_M$  in the Temperate climate zone occurred nearly 11 days earlier than in the Boreal zone ( $P < 0.00001$ ) and over 1 week earlier than in the Temperate Continental zone ( $P < 0.005$ ; Fig. 4).  $DOY_{\max, p}$  for  $\beta_M$  in the Tropical climate zone occurred nearly 1 month earlier than in the Boreal zone and nearly 3 weeks earlier than in the Temperate Continental zone ( $P < 0.00001$  in both cases).  $DOY_{\max, p}$  for  $\beta_M + \gamma_M$  was lower in the Tropical zone than in all other climate zones investigated by an average of 39 days ( $P < 0.05$  in all cases).  $DOY_{\max, p}$  for  $\beta_M + \gamma_M$  occurred ca. 2 weeks earlier in the Subtropical and Temperate zones than the Boreal climate zone ( $P < 0.01$ ).  $DOY_{\max, p}$  for  $\beta_M + \gamma_M$  occurred ca. 1 week earlier in the Temperate zone than the Temperate Continental zone ( $P < 0.0005$ ).  $DOY_{\max, p}$  for  $\beta_M + \gamma_M$  also occurred 10 days earlier in wetland vegetation than in evergreen needleleaf forests in the Boreal zone ( $P < 0.05$ ).

#### Minimal models for explaining the seasonal variability of photosynthetic parameters

We were unable to calculate AIC values for only five of the 385 site years due to insufficient data. Results of the AIC



**Fig. 4** A box-and-whisker plot for the day of year ( $DOY$ ) of maximum seasonal parameter values for the maximum ecosystem  $CO_2$  uptake ( $\beta_M$ ) parameter for the Mitscherlich model grouped by climate class. Climate group following the Köppen–Geiger classification scheme. A arctic, B boreal, S subtropical, T temperate, TC temperate continental, TR tropical

analysis for the  $\alpha_M$ ,  $\beta_M$ , and  $\beta_M + \gamma_M$  parameters were similar (Table 5), and we discuss only  $\beta_M$  parameter results for simplicity. For  $\beta_M$ , M1 had the lowest AIC value for 32 (of 380) site years, M2 had the lowest AIC value for 17 site years, and M3 and M4 were the lowest for 51 and 280 site years, respectively (Table 5). In other words, the preferred model with the lowest AIC value included  $L_{Day}$  (i.e., M2, M3, and M4) in over 90 % (348/380) of all site years examined here. On the other hand, excluding  $T_a$  (i.e., M2) resulted in a preferred model less than 5 % of the time. When considering only M1 and M2 (i.e., univariate linear models of  $T_a$  and  $L_{Day}$ , respectively), M1 had a lower AIC value than M2 on 236 occasions (62 % of all site years) and the opposite held on 144 occasions. The proportion of sites for which the AIC value of M2 was less than the AIC

**Table 5** The number of site years for which linear models ( $M$ ) of the seasonal variability different Mitscherlich model parameters (Eq. 2) had the lowest value of Akaike’s Information Criterion (AIC), including the number of site years for which the AIC value of model M1 (i.e., a model that included only air temperature,  $T_a$ ) was less than M2 (a model with only day length,  $L_{Day}$ )

Model	Independent variables	$\alpha_M$	$\beta_M$	$\beta_M + \gamma_M$
M1	$T_a$	32	32	26
M2	$L_{Day}$	23	17	15
M3	$T_a + L_{Day}$	68	51	68
M4	$T_a + L_{Day} + T_a \times L_{Day}$	258	280	271
M1 < M2	–	272	236	257
M2 < M1	–	113	144	128

value of M1 (i.e., instances in which a model including only  $L_{\text{Day}}$  is preferred over a model including only  $T_a$ ) is significantly greater in the Temperate zone than in the Temperate Continental zone (0.50 vs 0.26,  $P < 0.0005$ ) or in the Boreal zone (0.50 vs 0.32,  $P < 0.005$ ).

Whereas simple linear models with only  $T_a$  (M1) explained nearly 30 % of the variability of  $\beta_M$  on average and a model with only  $L_{\text{Day}}$  (M2) explained 23 % of the variability of  $\beta_M$ , the model that included both  $T_a$ ,  $L_{\text{Day}}$ , and an interaction term between the two (M4) explained an average of 40 %, and up to 95 %, of the variability of  $\beta_M$ . The simple linear models explored here explained more of the variability of  $\beta_M + \gamma_M$  than  $\beta_M$  or  $\alpha_M$  (which was similar to  $\beta_M$ ); M1 and M2 explained over 40 % and nearly 30 % of the variability of  $\beta_M + \gamma_M$ , respectively. The model that included  $T_a$ ,  $L_{\text{Day}}$ , and an interaction term between the two (M4) explained 53 % of the variability of  $\beta_M + \gamma_M$ , on average.

### Granger causality

$L_{\text{Day}}$  always Granger-caused  $T_a$ , as anticipated (Table 6).  $L_{\text{Day}}$  Granger-caused GEP ( $\text{GEP}_n$ ) in 99 % (92 %) of the site years, and while temperature Granger-caused GEP in a mere 32 % of site years, it Granger-caused  $\text{GEP}_n$  in 81 % of site years (Table 6). The proportion of site years in which  $T_a$  Granger-caused GEP and  $\text{GEP}_n$  are significantly less than the percent of cases in which  $L_{\text{Day}}$  Granger-caused GEP and  $\text{GEP}_n$  ( $P < 0.05$ , Student's t-test). We analyzed opposite cases for completeness; GEP ( $\text{GEP}_n$ ) Granger-caused  $L_{\text{Day}}$  in 51 % (41 %) of all site years, but Granger-caused  $T_a$  in 85 % (35 %) of all site years (Table 6).  $T_a$  Granger-caused  $L_{\text{Day}}$  in 40 % of site years.

**Table 6** The fraction of 385 site years of eddy covariance measurements for which the explanatory variable ( $X$ ) Granger-caused causal variable ( $Y$ ), considering all comparisons of day length ( $L_{\text{Day}}$ , as a surrogate for photoperiod), air temperature ( $T_a$ ), gross ecosystem productivity ( $\text{GEP}$ ), and GEP normalized by photosynthetically active radiation ( $\text{GEP}_n$ )

X	Y	Fraction of site years for which X Granger-caused Y
$L_{\text{Day}}$	GEP	$0.99 \pm 0.000$
$T_a$	GEP	$0.32 \pm 0.002$
$L_{\text{Day}}$	$\text{GEP}_n$	$0.92 \pm 0.006$
$T_a$	$\text{GEP}_n$	$0.81 \pm 0.007$
GEP	$L_{\text{Day}}$	$0.51 \pm 0.05$
GEP	$T_a$	$0.85 \pm 0.006$
$\text{GEP}_n$	$L_{\text{Day}}$	$0.41 \pm 0.05$
$\text{GEP}_n$	$T_a$	$0.35 \pm 0.01$
$L_{\text{Day}}$	$T_a$	$1.00 \pm 0$
$T_a$	$L_{\text{Day}}$	$0.40 \pm 0.03$

## Discussion

### Photoperiod and temperature controls on canopy photosynthetic function

Our results confirm that  $L_{\text{Day}}$  improves our understanding of the seasonal variability of maximum  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake, as also demonstrated by studies at the leaf scale (Bauerle et al. 2012) and ecosystem scale (Thum et al. 2007) using Farquhar et al. (1980) model parameters. Results also demonstrate that  $L_{\text{Day}}$  should not be excluded from minimal models of parameter variability in most cases (Table 5), offering support for our experimental hypothesis. However,  $T_a$  tends to be a better descriptor of the seasonal variability of canopy-scale photosynthetic parameters than  $L_{\text{Day}}$ ; for example, peak seasonal values of  $\alpha_M$ ,  $\beta_M$ , and  $\beta_M + \gamma_M$  usually occur after the seasonal peak of  $T_a$  (Table 4) and models with only  $T_a$  have lower AIC values more often than models with only  $L_{\text{Day}}$  (Table 5). The best results occurred when  $T_a$  and  $L_{\text{Day}}$  were used in concert; M4 explained over 50 % of the variability of  $\beta_M + \gamma_M$ , on average, before even considering hydrologic stress (Yuan et al. 2007), leaf area index (Groenendijk et al. 2011), or other variables that are critical for explaining canopy photosynthesis. In other words, results demonstrate that most of the variability in maximum ecosystem-scale carbon uptake can be explained using  $T_a$  and  $L_{\text{Day}}$  in combination without any other variables in the sites explored here.

The Granger causality analysis also demonstrates that  $L_{\text{Day}}$  helps to explain the seasonal variability in GEP;  $L_{\text{Day}}$  Granger-caused GEP in almost all instances, even after normalizing by PPFD (i.e.,  $\text{GEP}_n$ ) to account for its role in driving GEP.  $T_a$  Granger-caused  $\text{GEP}_n$  in most instances as well, but not as frequently as  $L_{\text{Day}}$  (Table 6). Both the AIC and Granger causality analyses substantiate that  $L_{\text{Day}}$  contributes to the seasonality of  $\text{GEP}_n$  and the parameters that determine the relationship between GEP and PPFD, suggesting that the inclusion of  $L_{\text{Day}}$  in photosynthesis models at the ecosystem scale is likely to result in model improvement, particularly in Temperate, Temperate Continental, and Boreal climate zones.

### The role of ecosystem and climate type

Tropical, Subtropical, and Arctic climate zones had fewer available site years for analysis, and we caution against extrapolating our results beyond the Temperate, Temperate Continental, and Boreal climate zones for which more data were available. Results of the AIC analysis demonstrate that univariate linear models with only  $L_{\text{Day}}$  are preferred more often in the Temperate zone than the Temperate Continental or Boreal zone, where temperature variability and constraints on photosynthesis are likely to be more pronounced.

$\alpha_M$  differed by vegetation type rather than climate type, but without distinct differences among specific vegetation types and we note that it is often treated as a near constant (albeit dependent on temperature, Ehleringer and Björkman 1977) in leaf-level studies (Lambers et al. 2000). Maximum seasonal values of  $\beta_M$  and  $\beta_M + \gamma_M$  (i.e.,  $\text{DOY}_{\max,p}$ ) often peaked earlier in warmer regions like subtropical and tropical climate zones as might be expected. Interestingly, vegetation type itself rarely explained differences in  $\text{DOY}_{\max,p}$ , for  $\beta_M$  and  $\beta_M + \gamma_M$ , except for wetland ecosystems and evergreen needleleaf forests in the Boreal zone. These results highlight the important role of climate on controlling the seasonal variability of photosynthetic physiology, and point to the emerging finding that plant functional type schemes may not be the best way to partition vegetation functioning in global models (Pavlick et al. 2012; Harrison et al. 2010) because they may not effectively capture the variability of vegetation functioning within and among vegetation classes (e.g., Kattge et al. 2011).

#### Results from different light response parameters

Both  $\beta_M$  and  $\beta_M + \gamma_M$  are related to  $J_{\max}$  inasmuch as they are related to the maximum electron transport rate at high irradiance.  $J_{\max}$  is known to be a function of temperature, as is  $\alpha_M$  (Ehleringer and Björkman 1977). However, M2 (the model with only  $L_{\text{Day}}$ ) was a better descriptor of  $\beta_M$  and  $\beta_M + \gamma_M$  more often than  $\alpha_M$  (Table 5), likely because  $\alpha_M$  tends to be less-seasonal (Groenendijk et al. 2011). Results also point to important differences between leaf-scale and canopy-scale results; Bauerle et al. (2012) noted a decline in  $J_{\max}$  and  $V_{c,\max}$  in late June at the leaf scale across tree species with average seasonal peaks around DOY 167–170 near the summer solstice on DOY 172 (during most years). Our estimated peaks in  $\alpha_M$ ,  $\beta_M$ , and  $\beta_M + \gamma_M$  occurred on average over 1 month later, for reasons that remain unclear. We note that our ecosystem-scale results inherently include photosynthetic contributions from shaded leaves and understory species, when present, and fewer studies on photosynthetic seasonality have been conducted on shaded and understory leaves (Herrick and Thomas 2003). Care was taken to avoid choosing models and approaches that drift extensively above observed flux values when modeling light response (Fig. 3). We chose multiple models to foster a conservative interpretation of results, although we note that fitting light response curves under conditions that are not light limiting remains an ongoing challenge (Lasslop et al. 2010; Reichstein et al. 2012).

#### The “errors in x” problem and modeling implications

Our objective was to explore hundreds of site years of eddy covariance data to uncover the role of  $L_{\text{Day}}$  and  $T_a$  in

determining seasonal patterns of ecosystem-scale photosynthetic light response and GEP. We anticipate that incorporating  $L_{\text{Day}}$  into ecosystem-scale models will improve their ability to simulate seasonal patterns in GEP, but the steps that one might take to incorporate this information depends on the type of model at hand. For example, Schwalm et al. (2010) characterized GPP models for the North American Carbon Program synthesis effort as following either enzyme kinetic, stomatal conductance, or light-use efficiency-based formulations, and noted that more complicated model formulations need not lead to improvement in performance. Light-use efficiency-based models are arguably the simplest to modify, for example by adding a multiplier based on  $L_{\text{Day}}$ . Adjusting parameters of enzyme kinetic-based models, for example  $J_{\max}$ , may also improve model simulation estimates of the seasonal variability of photosynthetic function (Bauerle et al. 2012) as demonstrated for the CLM (Bonan et al. 2011). Whether these suggested improvements to photosynthetic subroutines represent an improvement across different ecosystem models for different biome types remains to be seen, but large intercomparison efforts have demonstrated pronounced model-data misfit (Schaefer et al. 2012; Schwalm et al. 2010) at diurnal to interannual time scales (Dietze et al. 2011), including models that used model-data fusion schemes (Ricciuto et al. 2008). These observations suggest that models still require mechanistic improvements to capture the variability and magnitude of observed canopy-scale  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake (Williams et al. 2009).

Our data-driven analysis does not suggest that simply adding  $L_{\text{Day}}$  to models of canopy photosynthesis should take the place of mechanistic modifications to models of ecosystem-scale  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake (Ryu et al. 2011; Groenendijk et al. 2011; Krinner et al. 2005; Sitch et al. 2003; Baldocchi et al. 2002). Rather, adding  $L_{\text{Day}}$  as an independent variable may help to explain the variability of light response curve parameters and thereby photosynthetic physiology. An ongoing challenge with ecosystem-scale photosynthesis models centers around uncertainties in model input variables like leaf area index, canopy  $N$ , water status, and sunlit/shaded leaf fraction. Since  $L_{\text{Day}}$  can be computed with accuracy at any point on the globe, and changes on timescales that are longer than those explored by most land surface models [i.e., thousands of years (Hays et al. 1976), incorporating  $L_{\text{Day}}$  as an independent model variable will likely improve models of canopy photosynthesis. It is important to note that including  $L_{\text{Day}}$  can only aid a model of photosynthesis at the time scales that  $L_{\text{Day}}$  varies, in this case over the course of seasons.  $T_a$ , on the other hand, varies across turbulent to geologic time scales, and incorporating this rich, multi-scale behavior into photosynthesis models can improve their frequency response. We caution against extrapolating our results, dominated by temperate and boreal ecosystems, to

portions of the globe where seasonal  $L_{\text{Day}}$  fluctuations are small; the percent of variability in  $\beta_M$  and  $\beta_M + \gamma_M$  explained by M4 rarely exceeded 40 % in sites at latitudes below the 29th parallel. The amount of variability in  $\beta_M$  or  $\beta_M + \gamma_M$  explained by  $L_{\text{Day}}$  alone (i.e., M2) at latitudes less than 29° tended to be less than 10 % (but up to 40 %). In fact, there was a significant relationship between latitude and the amount of variability explained by M1, M3, and M4 for  $\alpha_M$  and  $\beta_M + \gamma_M$  ( $P < 0.05$ ); results improve as one moves away from the tropics and into ecosystems dominated by seasonality in temperature. We also note that variability in temperature tends to dominate the seasonality of photosynthesis in these ecosystems, which furthermore do not experience substantial anthropogenic management to the degree of managed crops. We note that incorporating photoperiodic control into the CLM improved Carbon Land Model Intercomparison Project (C-LAMP) metrics (Randerson et al. 2009), mostly in mid-to-high latitude flux stations (Bauerle et al. 2012), further highlighting important geographic distinctions in our findings. Ideal approaches for incorporating  $L_{\text{Day}}$  into models of canopy photosynthesis remains an important topic for future research. Detailed studies at well-characterized flux sites that include seasonal observations of leaf area index and distribution, canopy  $N$ , canopy light penetration, and water status are needed to ascertain the degree of improvement that  $L_{\text{Day}}$  may add in models of canopy photosynthesis.

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