

1 **Seasonal and Diurnal Variations in Moisture, Heat and CO_2 Fluxes over a**
2 **Typical Steppe Prairie in Inner Mongolia, China**

3
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11 **Abstract**

12 In order to examine energy partitioning and CO_2 exchange over a steppe prairie in
13 Inner Mongolia, China, fluxes of moisture, heat and CO_2 in the surface layer from June
14 2007 through June 2008 were calculated using the eddy covariance method. The study site
15 was homogenous and approximately 1500 m × 1500 m in size. Seasonal and diurnal
16 variations in radiation components, energy components and CO_2 fluxes are examined.
17 Results show that all four radiation components changed seasonally, resulting in a seasonal
18 variation in net radiation. The radiation components also changed diurnally. Winter surface
19 albedo was higher than summer surface albedo because during winter the snow-covered
surface increased the surface albedo. The seasonal variations in both sensible heat and CO_2
fluxes were stronger than those of latent heat and soil heat fluxes. This implies that both
sensible heat and CO_2 fluxes may be more significant climate signals than latent heat and
soil fluxes. Sensible heat flux was the main consumer of available energy for the entire
experimental period. The energy imbalance problem was encountered and the causes are
analyzed.

1

2 Keywords: turbulent fluxes, eddy covariance, steppe prairie, Inner Mongolia

3

4

5 **1. Introduction**

6

7 The relatively recent increase in atmospheric carbon dioxide (hereinafter, referred to as
8 CO_2) concentration has profound implications for the planet's climate (see, for example,
9 the IPCC report, [1995](#)) as well as on photosynthesis and the structure and function of plant
10 communities, Vegetation therefore plays a crucial role in the global carbon balance
11 (Woodward *et al.*, 1998; Mielnick *et al.*, 2001). The energy budget balance over land
12 surfaces is the most important of all the ecological processes related to carbon sequestration
13 in terrestrial ecosystems (Baldocchi *et al.*, 1997; Dugas *et al.*, 1999; Hao *et al.*, 2007).
14 Surface fluxes of momentum, heat and moisture determine to a large extent the steady state
15 of the atmosphere (Beljaars and Holtslag, 1991). Climate simulations are especially
16 sensitive to the seasonal and diurnal variations in surface partitioning of available energy
17 into sensible and latent heat fluxes (e.g., Rowntree, 1991; Dickinson *et al.*, 1991).

18 In order to evaluate the long-term energy balance and evapotranspiration, a number of
19 experimental studies have been carried out on various terrestrial surfaces such as forest,
20 grasslands and paddy fields throughout the world during the past decade (e.g., Baldocchi
21 and Vogel, 1997; Toda *et al.*, 2002; Gao, *et al.*, 2003; Bi *et al.*, 2006; Hao *et al.*, 2007).

22 Previous work has reported on measurements of the seasonal and/or diurnal variations of

1 heat, water vapor and CO₂ exchanges over different land surfaces in a variety of ecosystems
2 ranging from the tropics to the northern high latitudes (e.g., Hartog, *et al.*, 1994; Delire, *et*
3 *al.*, 1995; Betts, *et al.*, 1995; Campbell, *et al.*, 2001; Vourlitis *et al.*, 2001; Merquiol, *et al.*,
4 2002; Xue *et al.*, 2004; Barros, *et al.*, 2005; Steven, *et al.*, 2005; Bi *et al.*, 2006; ; Hao *et al.*,
5 2007).

6 Grasslands are approximately 32% of the Earth's natural vegetation (Adams *et al.*, 1990)
7 and grassland ecosystems undergo considerable annual fluctuations in gross primary
8 production (Frank and Dugas, 2001); grassland ecosystems also significantly and
9 ~~asymmetrically~~ nonlinearly respond to climate change and pertinent biomass dynamics
10 (Baldocchi *et al.*, 2001; Wever *et al.*, 2002). Prior researchers mainly paid attention to
11 savanna areas and the Central Great Plains of the U.S. (Dugas *et al.*, 1999; Frank and Dugas,
12 2001; Sims and Bradford, 2001; Suyker and Verma, 2001; Novick *et al.*, 2004). In contrast,
13 there are few works focused on measurements of the seasonal and/or diurnal variations of
14 heat, water vapor and CO₂ exchanges in the great steppes of Asia (Li *et al.*, 2006; Hao *et al.*,
15 2007) because much of the data obtained so far is still insufficient.

16 The Eurasian Steppe, within which Inner Mongolia lies, is the largest grassland region
17 in the world. This part of the Steppe lies in a semi-arid temperate continental climate regime
18 (Hao *et al.*, 2007). Climate change will result in a wintertime warming trend and severe
19 springtime drought in this region (Chen *et al.*, 2003). Therefore it is important to understand
20 the seasonal and diurnal variations of water vapor and energy within this grassland
21 ecosystem. Unfortunately, there is currently little detailed information on this in the
22 literature.

23
24 We conducted a micrometeorological experiment over a natural steppe prairie in Inner

1 Mongolia from June 2007 to improve the current understanding of energy partitioning and
2 CO_2 exchange over a typical steppe prairie in Inner Mongolia and to find which surface
3 energy components show the strongest climate signals. The main objective of the present
4 work is therefore to quantify the seasonal and diurnal variations in energy and CO_2
5 exchanges over the above mentioned surface using eddy covariance techniques.

6 **2. Materials and Methods**

7 **2.1 Site**

8 Measurements have been collected at a grassland site (44°08'31"N, 116°18'45"E, 1160.8
9 m above sea level) in the typical steppe prairie in Inner Mongolia since June 1, 2007. The
10 field has maintained ~~reverted to~~ its natural status in the past 50 years. Similar to the site of
11 Hao *et al.*(2007), the xeric rhizomatous grass *Leymus chinensis* is the constructive species,
12 and *Agropyron cristatum*, *Cleistogenes squarrosa*, and *Carex duriuscula* are the dominant
13 species at our site. The heights of grass clumps are about 0.50-0.70 m, and coverage fraction
14 depends on annual precipitation, ranging from 30% to 70%. Soil at the site ~~was~~is
15 predominantly dark chestnut (Mollisol) soil with rapid drainage of water. The Food and
16 Agriculture Organization (FAO) classifies the soil as Kastanozems type
17 (<http://www.fao.org/ag/AGL/agll/dsmw.stm>. It has only a 0.11 m of ~~thin~~-layer of humus (the
18 organic portion of the soil created by partial decomposition of plant or animal matters)
19 which provides vegetation with nutrients.

20 This site is smooth, homogeneous and approximately 1500 m × 1500 m, surrounded by
21 low hills whose heights are lower than 30 m with slopes less than 5°. Unfortunately, the leaf
22 area index (LAI) has not been measured. This site has a semi-arid continental temperate

1 steppe climate with a dry spring, autumn, humid summer and snow-covered winter. The
2 average annual temperature is about 272.5 K, with a growing season of 150-180 days. The
3 annual precipitation range is 320-400 mm, and rainfall is concentrated within the period
4 from June to August (Hao et al., 2007).

5 ***2.2 Micrometeorological measurements***

6 *(i) Fast response measurements.*

7 A three-dimensional sonic anemometer (CSAT3, Campbell Scientific Inc.) was used to
8 measure ~~high frequency the means and standard deviations of~~ wind velocity components
9 (i.e., u , v and w) and air temperature (T), and a LI-7500 (LiCor, USA) gas analyzer was
10 used to ~~measure high frequency signals measure the mean and standard deviations~~ of water
11 vapor density and CO_2 . Means and standard deviations are computed thereafter. The gas
12 analyzer was calibrated before the experiment using three values of standard gases (between
13 300 and 400 ppmv CO_2 in N_2). A periodic (2 months) calibration of the wind velocity
14 components, water vapor density and CO_2 , was performed by Campbell Scientific Inc.
15 These sensors were installed on a mast at 4.0 m above the ground (Figure 1). The sensor
16 outputs were recorded at a sampling rate of 10 Hz and were averaged over 30 min periods.
17 Coordinate rotation (Kaimal and Finnigan, 1994) and planar fit (Wilczak et al., 2001)
18 ~~Appropriate~~ corrections were made for non-zero mean vertical velocity. Following Moore
19 (1986), we corrected eddy covariance values for the effects of path length averaging of the
20 sonic anemometer and the gas analyzer, and for the spatial separation of sensors.
21 Corrections were made for density fluctuations in calculating the fluxes of water vapor and
22 CO_2 (Webb et al., 1980).

1 We eliminated outliers from 30-min measurements of turbulence by using a criterion
2 of $X(t) < (\bar{X} - 4\sigma)$ or $X(t) > (\bar{X} + 4\sigma)$, where $X(t)$ denotes the measurement (i.e., wind
3 speed components, temperature), \bar{X} is the mean over the interval and σ the standard
4 deviation. Data during and after rain events was removed because the sonic anemometer
5 could malfunction in these cases. The gaps shorter than a half hour were filled by linear
6 interpolation (Moffat et al., 2007). Statistically, the gap distribution was random, and the percentage
7 of gaps is less than 0.1% of whole observational period.

8 *(ii) Slow response measurements*

9 Other supporting data were collected during the experiment. Soil heat flux was
10 measured by embedding two heat flux plates (HFT-3, Campbell Scientific Inc.) at a depth of
11 0.01 m. Soil temperature was measured at 6 depths (surface, 0.05 m, 0.10 m, 0.15 m, 0.20 m,
12 and 0.40 m) in the soil. Upward and downward short- and long-wave radiation components
13 were measured with radiometers (model 2AP Tracker, Kipp & Zonen Inc.) mounted at a
14 height of 2.0 m. The data were recorded by a Datalogger (CR5000, Campbell Scientific Inc.)
15 with a PCMCIA memory card. The data were sampled each minute and averages recorded
16 every 10 min.

17 ~~The set of observational data includes the following meteorological quantities:~~
18 ~~horizontal wind speed, air temperature, specific humidity, air pressure and precipitation.~~
19 ~~Figure 2 shows the time series of (a) weekly mean wind vector (WV in $m\ s^{-1}$), (b) weekly~~
20 ~~mean air temperature (T_{air} in K), (c) weekly mean specific humidity (q in $g\ kg^{-1}$), (d) daily~~
21 ~~mean air pressure (P in hpa), and (e) daily precipitation ($Prec.$ in $mm\ day^{-1}$) obtained since~~
22 ~~June 2007. It is obvious that all of these meteorological quantities undergo a marked~~

1 seasonal cycle. In the wet season (June through August), high temperature, high humidity,
2 and low wind speed were coincident with low air pressure and precipitation events were
3 frequent. The reverse occurred during the dry season.—

4 The plots in Figures 2a-2c are derived from the fast response measurements. The
5 composition method is applied for estimation of daily variation for each week and then a
6 weekly average is calculated. The gaps in Figure 2 were caused by power outages at the site.
7 The plots in Figures 2d-2e are derived from the slow response instruments.—

8 Our site is located in a mid-latitude semi-arid continental temperate and westerlies
9 climate zone. During the winter, cold dry air always came from the southwest, significantly
10 influencing the area. Because of the influence of the temperate monsoon climate, the south
11 to southwest wind was maintained through whole experimental period. Although the annual
12 mean wind speed was about 3.0 m s^{-1} (shown in Figure 2a), the maximum hourly mean
13 wind speed reached 8 m s^{-1}

14 The seasonal variation of air temperature (T_{air}) was remarkable dramatic. Monthly
15 mean air temperature reached a maximum (295.0 K) in July and August, and the lowest air
16 temperature (252.0 K) occurred in the middle of December. The difference between the
17 highest air temperature and lowest air temperature was 43 K for the whole experimental
18 period and the annual mean air temperature was 277.5 K. Similar seasonal variation
19 occurred in specific humidity (q), with the correlation coefficient between q and T_{air}
20 reaching 0.82. Specific humidity varied also in response to variations in precipitation
21 (Figure 2c and 2e). Because of the semi-arid continental temperate climate, q is always less
22 than 12 g kg^{-1} , and less than 5 g kg^{-1} during the period from October 2007 to April 2008.

~~Air pressure varied seasonally but in reverse phase to air temperature and specific humidity. Almost all precipitation occurred from June to August 2007 and in June 2008. Snow occurred during the periods: 2-10 December, 2007, 21, 29 January, and 15, 24, 27-30 March, 2008.~~

(iii)2.3 Theoretical Considerations

The surface energy balance over the grass canopy can be approximated by:

$$Rn = H + LE + G_0 + Re, \quad (1)$$

where Rn is the net radiation, H and LE are the sensible heat and latent heat fluxes, respectively, G_0 is the soil heat flux at the surface, and Re is the residual energy involved in various processes, such as photosynthesis and respiration (Harazono *et al.*, 1998, Burba *et al.* 1999). We determine Re from the formula: $Re = Rn - (H + LE + G_0)$. R_n was measured using slow response instruments (described above). Eddy fluxes of sensible heat and latent heat were calculated as (e.g., Kaimal and Finnigan, 1994):

$$H = \bar{\rho} C_p \overline{w'T'}, \quad (2)$$

$$LE = L \overline{\rho w'q'}, \quad (3)$$

where $\bar{\rho}$, C_p and L are the density of air (kg m^{-3}), the specific heat of air ($\text{J kg}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$), and the latent heat of vaporization (J kg^{-1}), respectively. w' , T' and q' are the fluctuations in the vertical wind component (m s^{-1}), air temperature (K) and specific humidity, respectively.

G_0 is estimated by using a combination of soil calorimetry and measurement of the heat flux density at depth of 0.1 m using heat flow transducers. The heat storage of the soil layer above the plate is included as follows,

1
$$G_0 = G_1 + C_g \Delta z \delta T / \delta t, \quad (4)$$

2 where G_1 is the soil heat flux at depth of 0.1 m, C_g the volumetric heat capacity of the soil,
 3 which can be easily derived from soil components (Gao, 2005), Δz the thickness of a thin
 4 layer of the soil, T the mean soil temperature of the thin layer, δT the change in mean
 5 soil temperature during the measurement period, and δt the change in time.

6 Since the 1980s, the development of fast response CO_2 analyzers has enabled us to
 7 directly measure CO_2 fluxes over rice canopies using eddy covariance methods:

8
$$F_c = \overline{w'c'}, \quad (5)$$

9 where F_c is CO_2 flux ($mg\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$) and c' is the fluctuation in the concentration of CO_2
 10 ($mg\ m^{-3}$) (Desai *et al.*, 2008).

11 The ratio of the sum of sensible and latent heat fluxes ($H + LE$) to available energy (the
 12 difference of net radiation and soil heat flux: $Rn - G_0$) is presented to examine the surface
 13 heating rate ε .

14 Horst and Weil (1994) documented the stability dependency of the flux footprint. The
 15 adequacy of the fetch may be confirmed by footprint analysis (e.g. Schuepp *et al.*, 1990, and
 16 Harazono *et al.* 1998). The cumulative normalized contribution to the surface flux from
 17 upwind locations, $C_F(\chi_L)$, can be expressed as

18
$$C_F(\chi_L) = \exp[-U(z-d)/ku_*\chi_L], \quad (6)$$

19 where d is the zero plane displacement, k is von Karman's constant, u_* is the friction
 20 velocity, χ_L is the distance upwind of the measuring point, and U is the average wind
 21 speed between the surface and observation height z . Assuming a logarithmic profile for
 22 horizontal wind speed $u(z)$, with z , U is given by

1 $U = \int_{d+z_0}^z u(z)dz / \int_{d+z_0}^z dz = \frac{u_s[\ln((z-d)/z_0) - 1 + z_0/(z-d)]}{k(1 - z_0/(z-d))}$. The code from Schmid *et al* (1994) is
2 publicly available (http://www.indiana.edu/~climate/SAM/SAM_FSAM.html) and was used
3 in this study.

5 **3. Results and Discussion**

6 The set of observational data includes the following meteorological quantities:
7 horizontal wind speed, air temperature, specific humidity, air pressure and precipitation.
8 Figure 2 shows the time series of (a) weekly mean wind vector (WV in m s⁻¹), (b) weekly
9 mean air temperature (T_{air} in K), (c) weekly mean specific humidity (q in g kg⁻¹), (d) daily
10 mean air pressure (P in hpa), and (e) daily precipitation (Prec. in mm day⁻¹) obtained since
11 June 2007. It is obvious that all of these meteorological quantities undergo a marked
12 seasonal cycle. In the wet season (June through August), high temperature, high humidity,
13 and low wind speed were coincident with low air pressure and precipitation events were
14 frequent. The reverse occurred during the dry season.

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16 data were composited to obtain daily variation for each week and then a weekly average is
17 calculated. The gaps in Figure 2 were caused by power outages at the site. The plots in
18 Figures 2d-2e are derived from the slow response instruments.

19 Our site is located in a mid-latitude semi-arid continental temperate climate zone with
20 prevailing westerly wind. During the winter, cold dry air always came from the southwest,
21 significantly influencing the area. Because of the influence of the temperate monsoon
22 climate, a south to southwest wind was maintained through whole experimental period.

1 Although the annual mean wind speed was about 3 m s^{-1} (shown in Figure 2a), the
2 maximum hourly mean wind speed reached 8 m s^{-1}

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4 temperature reached a maximum (295.0 K) in July and August, and the lowest air
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10 (Figure 2c and 2e). Because of the semi-arid continental temperate climate, q is always less
11 than 12 g kg^{-1} , and less than 5 g kg^{-1} during the period from October 2007 to April 2008.

12 Air pressure varied seasonally but in reverse phase to air temperature and specific
13 humidity. Almost all precipitation occurred from June to August 2007 and in June 2008.
14 Snow occurred during the periods: 2-10 December, 2007, 21, 29 January, and 15, 24, 27-30
15 March, 2008. The snow amounts were not measured.

16 **3.1 Footprint Analysis**

17 Data were collected at 4 m above the ground surface, which is higher than three times
18 of the maximum height (0.6 m) of the grass clumps on the Steppe. Thus the flow assumes
19 the properties of the conventional atmospheric surface layer such as the constant flux region.
20 To estimate the average footprint for the entire experiment, the contributions of the
21 cumulative flux were computed using Equation (6), where $U = 3.98 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, $z = 4.0 \text{ m}$,
22 $d = 0.2 \text{ m}$, and $u_* = 0.30 \text{ m s}^{-1}$. Our analysis (Figure 3) indicates that approximately 90%

1 of the measured flux at the measurement height was expected to come from within the
2 nearest 1100 m of upwind area for neutral stability during the entire period. The footprint
3 flux distribution shows the maximum source weight location is 60 m upwind from the mast.
4

5 **3.2 Seasonal Variations on a Weekly Average Basis**

6 **3.2.1 Radiation Components**

7 Figure 4 shows the seasonal variation of the four radiation components: (a) downward
8 shortwave radiation (hereinafter, referred to as DSR), (b) upward shortwave radiation (USR),
9 (c) downward longwave radiation (DLR), (d) upward longwave radiation (ULR), and (e)
10 albedo of the underlying surface, defined as the ratio of the maximum values of USR and
11 DSR. The seasonal variations of DSR, DLR and ULR were similar. They maintained high
12 values during the summer and low values during the winter. The seasonal variation of USR
13 had not been obvious when ground was not snow-covered and the seasonal variation of
14 albedo was relatively constant at 0.22. After snow occurred, USR increased and the albedo
15 drastically increased.

16 The consistent seasonal variation T_{air} , q , P , $Prec.$, DSR, DLR, and ULR are shown in
17 Figures 2 and 4.

18 **3.2.2 Energy Components and CO_2 flux**

19 Figure 5 shows the seasonal variation of weekly means of (a) net radiation (Rn), (b)
20 sensible heat flux (H), (c) latent heat flux (LE), (d) soil surface heat flux (G_0), and (e)
21 CO_2 flux (F_{CO_2}). Rn was calculated by using the four radiation components (i.e., DSR,
22 USR, DLR, and ULR). H , LE and F_{CO_2} were measured by fast response instruments

1 and calculated using Equations (2, 3 and 5). Gaps occurring in H , LE , G_0 and F_{CO_2}
2 were caused by instrument problems.

3 Rn , H , LE , G_0 , and F_{CO_2} all showed remarkable seasonal variation. The negative sign
4 in F_{CO_2} means that surface vegetation absorbed CO_2 . The variations in Rn , H , LE ,
5 G_0 and F_{CO_2} are generally consistent; however the weekly oscillation in LE was
6 weaker than those in Rn , H , and F_{CO_2} . The sensible heat flux was the main consumer of
7 surface available energy ($Rn - G_0$). The grass grew well in the summer, and the strong
8 photosynthesis led to the larger water vapor release and the larger negative F_{CO_2} . G_0 was
9 about several watts per square meter on average. During December 2007 when ground was
10 covered by snow: (1) Rn was negative; (2) the grass was short and senescent, and CO_2
11 absorption therefore decreased; (3) the snow surface absorbed sensible heat flux from the
12 air; (4) LE was close to zero; and (5) G_0 was almost constant (negative several watts
13 per square meters).

14 ***3.3 Diurnal Variations on Monthly Average Basis***

15 ***3.3.1 Radiation Components***

16 In order to investigate the diurnal variation of the radiation components, the monthly
17 means of the diurnal variation in the radiation components (DSR, USR, DLR, and ULR) are
18 given in Figure 6 where a composite analysis method is used and the short lines are error
19 bars. We find that diurnal variations in DSR, USR and ULR occurred in all months, whereas
20 diurnal variations in DLR were not significant from November 2007 to February, 2008.
21 Diurnal variations in DSR and ULR were large in summer, but weaker in winter. On
22 average, the maximum values of DSR and ULR occurred in June 2007 and reached 804.4 W

1 m^{-2} and 558.1 W m^{-2} respectively. The minimum values of DSR and ULR occurred in
2 December 2007, and reached 354.9 W m^{-2} and 264.7 W m^{-2} respectively. The maximum
3 value of DLR occurred in July 2007, and reached 371.2 W m^{-2} . The maximum value of USR
4 occurred in February 2008 and reached 257.8 W m^{-2} and the minimum value of USR
5 occurred in November 2007 and reached 144.4 W m^{-2} . The large USR occurring from
6 December 2007 through February 2008 were caused by large albedo of the snow-covered
7 surface, resulting in the large surface albedo shown in Figure 6e. It is a clear indication that
8 the albedo of fresh snow was higher than 0.64.

9

10 **3.3.2 Energy Components and CO₂ flux**

11 The monthly mean diurnal variation courses of net radiation (Rn), sensible heat flux
12 (H), latent heat flux (LE), soil heat flux (G_0), and CO_2 flux (F_{CO_2}) for all 334 sunny
13 clear days during this 390-day observation period are given in Figure 7 where a composite
14 analysis method is used and the short lines are error bars. Figure 7a shows that the diurnal
15 variation pattern of Rn is similar to that of DSR, i.e., the diurnal variation was significant
16 in summer and weak in winter. The maximum diurnal variation occurred in July and the
17 peak value of Rn reached 488.8 W m^{-2} . The minimum diurnal variation occurred in
18 January 2008 and the peak value of Rn was 115.3 W m^{-2} .

19 Figure 7b shows that seasonal variations in sensible heat flux were stronger than those
20 in LE . The maximum value of H occurred in May 2008 and reached 302.6 W m^{-2} and
21 the minimum value of H occurred in December 2007 and was 54.4 W m^{-2} .

22 Figure 7c shows that the seasonal variation in latent heat flux was remarkable. Obvious

1 diurnal variation of LE occurred in summertime, with a maximum value of 106.8 W m^{-2}
2 occurring in June 2008. Diurnal variation of LE was not significant in wintertime and the
3 maximum value was 30.0 W m^{-2} which occurred in January 2008. Obvious diurnal variation
4 of LE in summer might be attributed to the following: (1) precipitation frequently
5 occurred (as shown in Figure 2) and steppe grass grew well in summer, and (2) the diurnal
6 variation in net radiation was large in summer (as shown in Figure 7a).

7 Figure 7d shows the seasonal variation of soil surface heat flux (G_0). Hao et al.(2007)
8 estimated soil heat flux by averaging the output of two heat flux plates buried ~~investigated~~
9 ~~the soil heat flux measured~~ at 0.05 m depth and found diurnal variations in their selected
10 four periods (i.e., pre-growth, growth, post-growth, and frozen soil) at their steppe site in
11 Inner Mongolia as shown in their Figure 4. However, these diurnal variations in soil heat
12 flux were weaker than those in sensible and latent heat fluxes. -Our Figure 7d shows that
13 there is significant diurnal variation in G_0 . The difference of our results from those by Hao
14 et al. (2007) can be attributed to two facts: (1) Hao et al. (2007) neglected the soil heat
15 storage in the soil layer extending from the surface to 0.05 m depth. Our analysis shows that
16 the soil heat storage in this shallow surface layer varied diurnally on sunny clear-days; and
17 (2) we selected only clear-sunny days for analysis, but Hao et al. (2007) used all data for
18 their investigation. Soil heat flux is very low or questionable on rainy or cloudy days.

19 Figure 7e shows that the seasonal variation of F_{CO_2} was similar to that of H and
20 LE , but of opposite sign in the reverse phase. The most significant diurnal variation
21 occurred in May 2008 when the steppe grass was luxuriant. The peak value reached -0.69
22 $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Weak diurnal variation occurred in December 2007 when the grass was mostly
23 senescent and the peak value was only $-0.21 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$. This small carbon uptake in the winter
24 was probably the result of some grass still living in the winter.

25 Recently, Aubinet (2008) addressed the problem of the underestimation of F_{CO_2} by

1 eddy covariance measurements in night conditions of atmospheric stability during nocturnal
2 conditions of stable stratification. Although examination of the dependence there is some
3 evidence that of nocturnal F_{CO_2} estimates can be improved by incorporating friction
4 velocity correction based on (u_*) would help understand such underestimation, we did not
5 do that in this paper because we hoped to remain retain as more much F_{CO_2} data as possible.
6 data of F_{CO_2} .

7 In summary, Figures 5 and 7 show that the seasonal and diurnal variations in H and
8 F_{CO_2} are larger than those in LE and G_0 , which implies that both H and F_{CO_2} may be
9 more significant climate indicators (that is, they respond more strongly to climate change)
10 than LE and G_0 . Hao et al.(2007) investigated diurnal variations in H , LE and G_0 ,
11 and found LE was larger than H during growth (in 2003 and 2004) and post-growth
12 seasons (in 2004). The reason is that precipitation was frequent in 2003 and 2004, which can
13 be seen in their Fig. 2, and precipitation caused high surface evaporation in their experiment
14 areas.

15 Bi et al. (2007) examined energy partitioning and CO₂ exchange over grassland in
16 the tropical monsoon environment of southern China by using H , LE , and F_{CO_2} measured
17 in the near-surface layer from May 2004 to July 2005. In contrast to our results, they
18 found that both LE and F_{CO_2} may be more significant climate indicators than H and G_0 in
19 that area. Thus, surface turbulent fluxes in different climate zones in China respond to climate
20 change in different ways.

22 3.4 Energy Partitioning

1 The monthly means of the Bowen ratio ($\beta \equiv H / LE$) were 3.25, 3.25, 3.28, 3.34, 3.44, 3.49,
2 3.56, 3.61, 3.54, 3.41, 3.32, 3.25 and 3.21 from June 2007 to June 2008. It is obvious that
3 the Bowen ratio was almost constant and did not vary monthly, which suggests partitioning surface
4 available energy ($Rn - G_0$) into sensible and latent heat flux by assuming a constant Bowen ratio.
5 ($Rn - G_0$) can be observed by using slow response instruments as mentioned above. It is
6 also obvious that the sensible heat flux was the main consumer of available energy ($Rn - G_0$)
7 for all the year round in this arid and semiarid area. Taking a yearly average, the Bowen
8 ratio was 3.38, $H / Rn = 62\%$, $LE / Rn = 18\%$, $G_0 / Rn = 9\%$, and $Re / Rn = 11\%$. ~~Because the~~
9 ~~site was covered by grass, the residual energy (Re) is mainly the heat storage in the grass.~~
10 The proportion of sensible heat flux in net radiation, H / Rn reached the maximum value
11 (0.63) in June through August 2007 and May through June in 2008 and reached the
12 minimum value of 0.61 in December 2007. H / Rn was lower than 0.62 during the
13 period from October 2007 to February 2008, and was larger than 0.62 during summer 2007.
14 The proportion of latent heat flux in net radiation, LE / Rn , reached a maximum value (0.19)
15 in June 2008, and reached a minimum value (0.17) in January 2008. LE / Rn was less than
16 0.18 during the period from October 2007 through February 2008, and was larger than 0.18
17 for the rest of the time.

18 Figure 8 shows the intercomparison of $H + LE$ and $Rn - G_0$. The surface heating
19 rate ε is 0.93 and the correlation coefficient between $H + LE$ and $Rn - G_0$ is 0.85.
20 Wever et al. (2002) examined the energy balance over a northern temperate grassland near
21 Lethbridge, Alta., Canada, and found that the slope of the relationship between $H + LE$
22 and $Rn - G_0$ ranged from 0.87 to 0.90. Hao et al.(2007) used soil heat flux measured at
23 0.05 m depth rather than soil surface heat flux for energy balance analysis, and found that
24 $H + LE = 0.69(Rn - G) + 17.09$. Their failure to close the energy budget may be partly
25 attributed to neglecting soil and vegetation heat storage.

26 Our analysis of the surface heating rate is focused on the data collected on
27 ~~rain-free~~sunny days, because the sonic anemometer malfunctions during and after rain
28 events.

1 Theoretically, ε should be very close to 1.0. The energy imbalance that occurred for
2 these measurements is unexpected because the experiment was carried out over a relatively
3 flat, homogeneous site with sufficient fetch and the flux calculations are rigorous. Such
4 energy imbalances have also been encountered in other major field campaigns and caused
5 difficulty for their climate applications (e.g. Kahan *et al.*, 2006). Previous researchers
6 (Foken and Oncley, 1995; Panin *et al.*, 1996; Wicke and Bernhofer, 1996; Foken *et al.*, 1999;
7 Kahan *et al.*, 2006; Oncley *et al.*, 2007; Su *et al.*, 2008) concluded that the causes of the
8 imbalance of the energy budget were usually related to the errors/uncertainties in the
9 individual energy component measurements and the influence of different footprints on the
10 individual energy components. For our site, the difference in phases of R_n , H , LE and
11 G_0 (Gao *et al.*, 2009), and the unavoidable uncertainties that occurred in the individual
12 energy component measurements are the main causes of the energy imbalance encountered.

13

14 **3.5 Soil Temperature**

15 Surface radiation and energy budget balances are related to variations in soil
16 temperature and soil water content. Figure 9 shows the seasonal variation of
17 half-hourly-mean soil temperatures at ~~ground soil~~ surface and five depths (0.05 m, 0.10 m,
18 0.15 m, 0.20 m, and 0.40 m), and water content at three depths (0.10 m, 0.20 m, and 0.50 m).
19 The seasonal variation trends of soil temperature and water content are close to that of air
20 temperature. The ~~ground soil~~-surface temperature is derived from ULR where the infrared
21 emissivity is assumed to be 0.98 (Garratt, 1992).

22 As may be expected, the seasonal variations in soil temperature and water content in

1 shallow layers were large. There is evidence of seasonal variation in soil temperature
2 measured at 0.40 m depth. In general the range of seasonal variations measured in the deep
3 layer was much less than those of soil temperature and water content measured in the
4 shallower layers. The high soil temperatures occurred during summer (June - August), and
5 low soil temperature occurred in January and February. The difference between the annual
6 highest and lowest soil temperature ranged from 38 K to 59 K for these depths. Soil water
7 content at 0.10 m depth sensitively-quickly responded to precipitation with the most striking
8 case happening on August 3, 2007, when a thunderstorm made the greatest sudden change
9 of soil wetness.

10 We also examined the diurnal variation of soil temperatures. Results show that soil
11 temperatures diurnally changed in shallow layers, diurnal variation trends weakened with
12 increasing depth and almost no diurnal variation occurred with soil temperature measured at
13 a depth of 0.4 m.

14

15 **3.6 Case Study of Diurnal Cycles**

16 In this section we investigate the diurnal cycle of the radiation components, energy
17 fluxes, CO₂ flux, and energy balance for clear-dayssunny days under specific shortwave
18 radiation environments: (1) on June 7 2008, the daily downward shortwave radiation
19 reached the largest value of our experimental period; and (2) On December 22 2007, the
20 albedo daily upward shortwave radiation reached the largest value of our experimental
21 period. Figure 10 shows the diurnal cycle of radiation components for these two days, and
22 the corresponding daytime surface albedo.

1 ~~The maximum values of downward shortwave radiation and upward shortwave~~
2 ~~radiation were 1020 W m^{-2} and 229 W m^{-2} , respectively, on June 7 2008; 424 W m^{-2} and 304~~
3 ~~W m^{-2} , respectively, on December 22 2007.~~ The corresponding surface albedo values were
4 0.22 and 0.70 on June 7 2008 and December 22, 2007, respectively. The winter surface
5 albedo is higher than the summer surface albedo because of snowfall.

6 The downward longwave radiation components on June 7 2008 were greater than those
7 on December 22 2007, and both of them showed almost no daily change. The upward
8 shortwave radiation component on June 7 2008 diurnally changed in contrast to that on
9 December 22 2007. Similar to Figure 10, the daily cycles of the energy flux components and
10 CO₂ flux for the two days mentioned above were plotted in Figure 11. ~~The maximum values~~
11 ~~of net radiation (R_n), sensible heat (H), latent heat (LE), soil heat (G_0), and CO₂ (F_{CO_2})~~
12 ~~fluxes were 564.0 W m^{-2} , 294.5 W m^{-2} , 141.9 W m^{-2} , 168.1 W m^{-2} and $0.63 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ on~~
13 ~~June 7 2008. The maximum values of R_n , H , LE , G_0 , and F_{CO_2} were 34.0 W m^{-2} ,~~
14 ~~20.2 W m^{-2} , 9.8 W m^{-2} , 19.2 W m^{-2} and $0.07 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ on December 22 2007.~~ On June 7
15 2008, the sensible heat flux was larger than the latent heat flux; and on December 22 2007,
16 the sensible heat flux and latent heat flux were close to zero. On June 7 2008, the daytime
17 CO₂ absorption was significant because of the strong photosynthesis associated with the
18 grass, and on December 22 2007, the daytime CO₂ absorption was close to zero owing to a
19 snow-covered surface.

20 Figure 12 shows the energy partitioning for June 7 2008 and December 22 2007.
21 ~~Sensible heat fluxes were 90.3 W m^{-2} and 17.4 W m^{-2} ; latent heat fluxes were 58.2 W m^{-2}~~
22 ~~and 0.71 W m^{-2} ; soil heat fluxes were 21.9 W m^{-2} and 5.8 W m^{-2} ; and residual heat fluxes~~

1 | ~~were 3.2 W m^{-2} and 12.4 W m^{-2} for June 7 2008 and December 22 2007 respectively.~~

2

3 **4. Summary and Conclusions**

4 In order to investigate energy partitioning and CO_2 exchange over the land surface in
5 a northern arid climate environment and to investigate which surface energy components are
6 strong climate signals, eddy covariance measurements of moisture, heat and CO_2 fluxes
7 over steppe prairie in Inner Mongolia, China were carried out from June 2007 through June
8 2008.

9 All four radiation components seasonally changed, resulting in a seasonal variation in
10 net radiation. The components also changed diurnally. Winter surface albedo was higher
11 than summer surface albedo, because in winter the surface was covered by snow.

12 Appropriate correction was made for turbulent fluxes. The seasonal variations in both
13 sensible heat and CO_2 fluxes were stronger than those in latent heat and soil heat fluxes,
14 which implies that both sensible heat and CO_2 fluxes may be more significant climate
15 signals than latent heat and soil fluxes. Sensible heat flux was the main consumer of
16 available energy for the entire experimental period.

17 Surface energy partitioning was examined and the surface heating rate (ε) was found to
18 be 0.93 during the experiment. The energy imbalance problem was encountered. The main
19 causes of the energy imbalance encountered were thought to be the difference in phases of
20 R_n , H , LE and G_0 (Gao *et al.*, 2009), and the unavoidable uncertainties that occurred in
21 the individual energy component measurements.

22

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14 **Figure Captions**

15 Figure 1. Photo of the setup at the measurement site.

16 Figure 2. Meteorological data collected at the grassland site during the period from June
17 2007 to June 2008 at the steppe prairie site. (a) weekly mean wind vector (WV in m
18 s⁻¹), (b) weekly mean air temperature (T_{air} in K), (c) weekly mean specific humidity
19 (q in g kg⁻¹), (d) daily mean air pressure (P in hpa), and (e) daily precipitation (Prec. in
20 mm day⁻¹).

21 Figure 3 Footprint flux and contributions of the cumulative flux according to Eq. (56) for
22 neutral stability where $U = 3.98 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, $z = 4.0 \text{ m}$, $d = 0.2 \text{ m}$, and $u_* = 0.30 \text{ m}$

1 s⁻¹.

2 Figure 4. Seasonal variations of weekly mean downward shortwave radiation (DSR),
3 upward shortwave radiation (USR), downward longwave radiation (DLR), upward
4 longwave radiation (ULR) and surface albedo during the period from June 2007 to
5 June 2008 at the steppe prairie site.

6 Figure 5. Seasonal variations of weekly mean net radiation (Rn), sensible heat flux (H),
7 latent heat flux (LE), soil heat flux (G_0) and CO_2 flux (F_{CO_2}) during the period
8 from June 2007 to June 2008 at the steppe prairie site.

9 Figure 6. Diurnal variations of weekly mean downward shortwave radiation (DSR), upward
10 shortwave radiation (USR), downward longwave radiation (DLR), upward longwave
11 radiation (ULR) and surface albedo during the period from June 2007 to June 2008 at
12 the steppe prairie site.

13 Figure 7. Diurnal variation of weekly mean net radiation (Rn), sensible heat flux (H),
14 latent heat flux (LE), soil heat flux (G_0) and CO_2 flux (F_{CO_2}) during the period from
15 June 2007 to June 2008 at the steppe prairie site..

16 Figure 8. Inter-comparison of the measured ($H + LE$) against available energy ($Rn - G_0$)
17 during the period from June 2007 to June 2008 at the steppe prairie site.

18 Figure 9. Temporal variations of ~~ground soil~~ surface temperature (K) and at the depths of
19 0.05 m, 0.10 m, 0.15 m, 0.2 m, and 0.4 m, and of soil water content at the depths of
20 0.10 m, 0.20 m, and 0.5 m.

21 Figure 10. Diurnal variation of downward shortwave radiation (DSR), upward shortwave
22 radiation (USR), downward longwave radiation (DLR), upward longwave radiation

1 (ULR) and surface albedo on June 7, 2008, and on December 22, 2007 at the steppe
2 prairie site.

3 Figure 11. Diurnal variations of net radiation (R_n), sensible heat flux (H), latent heat flux
4 (LE), soil heat flux (G_0), and CO_2 flux (F_{CO_2}) on June 7, 2008 and on December 22,
5 2007 at the steppe prairie site.

6 Figure 12. Surface energy partitioning on June 7, 2008 and on December 22, 2007 at the
7 steppe prairie site.

8
9