



1	A simplified system to quantify storage of carbon dioxide, water vapor and heat within a
2	maize canopy
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30 Highlights

- 1. A new multiport profile system simplifies examining the CO₂ and H₂O storage terms.
- 32 2. Neglecting canopy storage terms leads to inaccuracies in crop energy balance closure.
- 33 3. Energy closure is improved if canopy storage is considered.
- 34 4. The multiport system is necessary for eddy covariance-derived fluxes over maize canopy.

35 Abstract

The significance of canopy storage of CO₂, latent energy and sensible heat within agricultural 36 37 crops has not been fully examined. Reported canopy storage terms are consistently smaller than 38 found for a forest ecosystem, such that they are often neglected. A novel multiport profile system has been developed to examine these storage terms. The system sequentially samples air from 39 40 four heights to a single non-dispersive Infrared Gas Analyzer (IRGA). Following extensive laboratory testing, the system was used to measure CO₂ and H₂O within an eastern Tennessee 41 maize canopy in 2023. The storage of latent and sensible heat was large enough to merit 42 incorporation with conventional field measurements. The new system will enable profile 43 measurements of CO₂ sufficient to quantify canopy storage terms as are needed in agricultural 44 45 field campaigns.

Keywords: Multi-port system, vertical canopy profile, storage terms, energy balance closure,
 maize, carbon sequestration

48 1 Introduction

49 In the last few decades, significant work has been conducted to improve understanding of gaseous exchanges between soils, plants, and the atmosphere. These improvements have been 50 51 rapidly incorporated into land-surface models and numerical-based weather prediction as well as assessment of atmospheric fluxes of carbon dioxide (Lamas Galdo et al., 2021), water vapor 52 (Wang et al., 2023), and heat over vegetated landscapes (e.g., Tilden and Steven, 2004). Eddy 53 54 covariance (EC) is a widely accepted method to measure the fluxes of CO₂, H₂O, and heat in the 55 ecosystem (Nicolini et al., 2018). Routine EC measurements are now made at more than 650 locations, distributed globally (Fluxnet; Baldocchi, 2003). 56

57 At most forest experimental sites, the measured energy budget is not always close to the balance 58 calculated by the conventional method expressed by Eq. (1) (Wilson et al., 2002). An important





factor emerging from forest ecosystem studies is that storage terms contribute substantially to the energy closure of forests and to the quantification of evapotranspiration (McCaughy and Saxton, 1988). In most forest studies, storage terms are ignored in consideration of the energy balance equation:

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$R_n - G = H + LE \tag{1}$

Here, R_n is net radiation, G is soil heat flux, H is sensible heat flux and LE is latent heat flux.

65 Storage measurement is challenging due to temporal changes in CO₂, H₂O, and heat (Yang et al., 1999). Globally, only a few sites (less than 30 %) apply a profile measurement system to 66 67 calculate the temporal variations and storage terms (Papale, 2006). Many studies have reported that energy balance closure is an unsolved problem for a variety of vegetation types: the sum of 68 sensible and latent heat flux is found to be 10-30% lower than the available energy (Wilson et 69 70 al.,2002; Twine et al.,2000; Leuning et al. 2012; Russell et al. 2015; Liu et al. 2017; Raza et al., 71 2023a). There are several possible reasons for energy closure errors resulting from EC experimentation, such as neglecting the canopy and soil storage terms, loss of low- or high-72 73 frequency flux components, and the use of inappropriate averaging times, etc. (Massman, 2000; 74 Meyers and Hollinger, 2004). Measurement procedures to test energy balance closure vary by 75 researchers and there is no standardized way to address the issues that arise.

In the case of agricultural cropping systems, storage terms are considered small and are often ignored (Raza et al., 2024; Nicolini et al., 2018). Studies on the assessment of storage terms within agricultural ecosystems are few, but the matter is well documented by researchers in the case of forest ecosystems studies (Mayocchi and Bristow, 1995; Wilson et al., 2002).

Storage terms quantification is challenging because of its requirement for measurements both within and above the canopy (Yang et al., 1999). Finnigan (2006) reported that the storage term is underestimated when the average sampling time is large. Neglecting canopy storage terms in studies of Net Ecosystem Exchange (NEE) can also cause substantial errors (Raza et al., 2023b). To understand the role of the storage terms in energy balance closure and NEE, new measurement and analysis approaches are required (Irmak et al, 2014).

In the most recent series of field experiments conducted by the present research team,
 as now reported, the emphasis has also been on fluxes of carbon dioxide (CO₂). The field site is

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large enough to warrant the use of EC measurement systems without fears of fetch and/or footprint limitations (q.v., Foken et al., 2017). Measurement procedures followed the recommendations of FLUXNET (Wilson et al., 2002) and ICOS (Montagnani et al., 2018). A key aspect of the research program was the requirement for CO₂ concentration measurements at several heights within the plant canopy, to permit examination of (1) flux interactions with pooled CO₂ at night; (2) the CO₂ storage term derived from EC observations; and (3) sub-canopy mixing.

The purpose of the present paper is to describe a measurement system specifically designed to provide observations for assessing the quantities contributing to the diurnal heat cycle, including the various storage terms and net ecosystem exchange. The instrumentation now described will be used to extend the analysis into the inter-canopy airspace, using eddy covariance observations as a basis for assessing storage terms. The protocols recommended by the ICOS community (e.g., Montagnani et al., 2018) have been used as guidance.

100 2 Methodology/Configuration

101 **2.1** Apparatus design, operation, and measurement

Field experiments have repeatedly shown that the need for an uninterrupted series of 102 observations of difficult-to-measure variables impose technical requirements that are often 103 104 difficult to satisfy. In practice, the more complicated a measurement system, the more likely the 105 desired continuous records will be interrupted by instrumentation malfunctions or by a variety 106 of other unanticipated issues. Such interruptions have been a challenge in the many studies of 107 maize crops conducted by the University of Tennessee (O'Dell et al, 2014; Hicks et al., 2020) in 108 their series of field experiments These field experiments (in Lesotho and Zimbabwe as well as in 109 Tennessee and Ohio in the USA) have demonstrated the need for a reliable yet technically simple measurement system to measure profiles of the quantities of interest, within and above a 110 growing crop. To satisfy the basic requirements for time continuity and reliability of the data 111 112 record, a multi-port sampling system has been developed. The intent is to facilitate the routine 113 acquisition of temperature, humidity, and carbon dioxide data within and above a maize canopy.

Analysis of the recorded observations requires attention to gradients of the variables measured and well as to the variables themselves. To minimize consequences of individual sensor offsets when gradients are computed, the new system is designed to use a single detection system (an





117 IRGA -LI-COR-850, CO₂/H₂O gas analyzer). In the application considered here, the system was 118 used to measure four heights, two within a maize canopy and two above.

Figure 1 presents a schematic description of the apparatus. The system is designed to maintain 119 continuous airflow through all intake tubes, to cycle through all heights of measurement every 120 121 minute and to minimize the switching time between samplings. The system consists of two small pumps [Model TD-3LSA, Brailsford & CO., INC. Antrium. NH, USA], one pump (purge pump) draws 122 123 in the sampling air to maintain constant flow to minimize hygroscopic interactions along the tube 124 wall while the other pump pushes the drawn air to the IRGA. The sampling pump is mounted 125 close to the IRGA so that air smoothly enters the IRGA at ambient pressure. The airflow rate through the sampling tubes is regulated by a flow meter [LZQ-7 flowmeter, 101.3 KPa, Hilitland] 126 127 at 700 ml/min; the flow rate through the IRGA is maintained 1000 ml/min. The switching between heights is controlled by four three-way solenoid valves [231Y-6, Ronkonkoma, NY, USA]. The body 128 129 material of the solenoid is brass, and the internal component material is stainless steel as is required when water vapor is present. 130

Each sampling tube is 10.5 m long to ensure each sampling height has the same transit time. The purge pump manifold and all sampling tubes are of the same kind of urethane [BEV-A-LINE, Polyethylene material, Cole Parmer]. Before passing through the analyzer, the air is passed through a 1-µm pore filter [LI-6262, LI-COR NE, USA] to avoid the drifting of the analyzer and pumps during the time of measurement due to the accumulation of debris, dirt, particulates, etc., that can cause blockage in the analyzer optical cells. The air outlet of the purge pump and IRGA are open directly to the atmosphere.

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Figure 1abc (a) Schematic diagram of the manifold for profile sampling of CO₂, water vapor (H₂O), (b) analyzer, pump, and manifold system, (c) data logger for data collection

146 **2.2 Sampling time**

To determine the sampling time of the multiport system for accurate measurement of CO_2 and H₂O, the system was first evaluated in the laboratory. The apparatus was first flushed with nitrogen (N₂) gas to create a zero-carbon dioxide (O ppm) environment. Subsequently, a known





concentration of CO_2 (430 ppm) at ambient pressure was fed through the intake tubes and system outputs were measured, with results as shown in Table 1 and Fig. 2. This process allowed

152 determination of the minimum amount of time reach a stable measurement reading.

153 To derive a continuous record of concentrations at each of the heights of interest (in the present 154 experiment, four of them) switching between heights was set at every 7.5 seconds allowing each 155 of the heights to be sampled twice a minute. Figure 2 shows the delays associated with the 156 switching; these are confirmed by consideration of the known travel length and flow rate in the tubes. The delay (3.2 seconds) in reading by the IRGA was due to the presence of residual air in 157 158 the previous sampling tube and other components of the apparatus, including the solenoid and manifold (refer to Fig. 1). This delay indicates how much time the system takes to purge the 159 160 shared air in the manifold system. The sampling pump has a flow rate of 1 L/min, optimized to 161 maximize cycling time and minimize any water vapor surface interaction in the urethane tubes. 3.2 seconds were ignored, and the remaining 4.3 seconds were recorded by the datalogger. 162

The laboratory tests showed that as the IRGA received known [CO₂], it took approximately 1.8 seconds to achieve a steady output. During the laboratory evaluation period, the recorded error was less than 0.5% in [CO₂] between sampling heights as shown in Table 1. An accuracy error of less than 1% is well within the acceptable range for the IRGA now used, according to the specifications provided by the manufacturer. Montagnani et al. (2012) found 11% error for a set of measurements when estimating CO₂ storage flux using the ICOS method.

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170 **Table 1** IRGA output for multiport air sampling system for CO₂ conc. (430 ppm) fed through the

- Sampling tube Mean CO₂ SD No. of samples Error % concentration (ppm) Intake 1 0.474 23 0.00 430 Intake 2 431 0.196 15 0.20 Intake 3 431 0.167 16 0.20 432 Intake 4 0.119 13 0.46
- 171 sampling manifold at ambient pressure.



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Figure 2 The time-dependent relationship between the infrared gas analyzer (IRGA) in the 176 multiport air sampling apparatus for a gas concentration of 430 ppm CO_2 flowing at <1 L/min. 177 178 The switching between the intakes occurs every 7.5 seconds. Blue corresponds to sampling intake 179 height 1, green to height 2, black to height 3, and red to height 4. The vertical lines demarcate 180 the stable, equilibrium regions where the measurements were suitable to be recorded. Here the lines were at 4.9 seconds but were further improved to 3.2 seconds. 181

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      3 Field measurement setup
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183 Following laboratory testing, the system was deployed in a field study conducted at Loudon, Tennessee, in 2023. In this study, four intake sampling tubes were positioned at heights (m) of 184 185 0.11, 0.5h, 1+h, and 2+h, where h is maize canopy height above the soil surface. Note that one 186 height was permanently set at 0.11 m and three of these heights were adjusted as the crop grew. Sampling intakes were positioned on a 10 m steel mast at the respective positions. 187 188 Thermocouples at the same height were used to measure temperature within and above the



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- 189 canopy; these thermocouples were aspirated within a white PVC pipe of 1.9 cm diameter (Figure
- 190 3) that also served as a radiation shield.



Figure 3ab Aspiration of CO₂ intake tubes and thermocouples and their application in the maizecanopy.

To provide the measurements necessary to interpret the gradient observations, a tripod tower was used to support an eddy covariance system and supporting micrometeorological variables — an IRGASON [CO₂/H₂O] open path gas analyzer system, [Campbell Scientific, Logan, Utah], a net radiometer [Kipp & Zonen SR# 103660, OTT HydroMet B.V. Delft, Netherland], infrared radiometers [IRs-S1-111-SS, Apogee Instruments Inc, USA], and type T thermocouples [Omega, USA]. A schematic diagram of the system is shown in Fig. 1. The system was visually inspected every week for any leakage, condensation, and contamination.

201 **3.1 Experimental site**

The field study was conducted near Philadelphia, in Loudon County Tennessee (35.6729° N, 84.4651° W). The study area is twenty-three hectares of agricultural farmland cultivated with a maize cropping system. The red point on the map represents the location of the site where the system was installed. The mean annual temperature and precipitation of the site are 12-15 °C and 132-142 cm respectively. The elevation and slope of the site are 280 m (Figure 4A) and 2-5%





- 207 (Figure 4B) respectively. The soil was classified as Alcoa Loam (Rhodic Paleudult) according to the
- 208 USDA classification scheme (Soil Taxonomy, 1976).



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Figure 4 Soil elevation and slop overview of the test site in rural Philadelphia Tennessee, USA.

A) The red point on the map shows the instrumentation location.

212 **3.2 Calculation of storage terms**

213 In accordance with other studies of the surface energy budget using EC systems, storage terms refer to

- 214 depletion or accumulation of scalar quantities (CO₂, H₂O, etc.) in a hypothetical control volume beneath
- the height of EC flux measurement. A storage flux is defined as the rate of change of dry molar
- 216 concentrations of the same variables within the same control volume. Both concepts relate most directly
- 217 to the conditions of "perfect" micrometeorology. In practice, natural complexities of surroundings and





exposures interfere to the extent that will necessarily be site-specific. Moreover, the covariances that are central in related deliberations are statistical quantities, with well-recognized error margins associated with every quantification of them. During this study, the storage fluxes of scalar quantities (CO₂, water vapor, etc.) were calculated using the ICOS methodology (Montagnani et al., 2018). For the case of CO₂,

$$J_{c} = \overline{\rho_{d}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\frac{\Delta c}{\Delta t} \right)_{i} \Delta z_{i}.$$
 (2)

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Here, J_c is the storage term of CO₂ within the i_{th} layer over which Δc is measured, Δz_i is the thickness of this layer and Δt is the measurement time step; ρ_{d} is dry air density, and N is the number of layers.

229 4 Results and discussion

230 4.1 Vertical profile of CO₂ within a maize canopy

Previous experiments revealed the ubiquity of nocturnal pooling of CO₂ because the presence of 231 the maize canopy and the development of a strongly stable atmospheric surface layer that 232 233 permits CO₂ emitted by the soil biota to accumulate overnight. Fig. 5 presents average diurnal cycles of CO₂ concentrations measured at four heights, two within the canopy and two above. 234 235 The concentrations of CO₂ observed low in the canopy exceed those elsewhere. Moreover, note 236 that the increasing concentrations within the pool closely parallel each other, providing support 237 for the assumptions made elsewhere about CO_2 profile linearity within the pools. The fact that 238 concentrations drop below ambient (~425 ppm) suggests that photosynthesis is ongoing which 239 rapidly reduces the canopy concentrations.

Following dawn (or sunrise as indicated in Fig. 5) the accumulated concentrations of CO₂ drop rapidly as convection starts to mix surface air with that aloft and as photosynthesis commences. Concentrations decrease to about 350 ppm, due to the maize photosynthetic requirement for CO₂ from the air. After sunset, concentrations of CO₂ rise uniformly with little evidence of a separation between sub-canopy and upper-canopy concentration regimes. Note, however, that there is evidence of early effects of soil emissions, such that the 11–cm trend departs from the others soon after solar noon.





247 Furthermore, at all four heights, CO₂ concentrations were greatest during late night and early morning until 0600 local time (LT), after which concentrations declined rapidly and reached a 248 relatively constant level of approximately 350 ppm in the afternoon (1200 to 1800 LT). The 350 249 250 ppm observation is 70 ppm less than current ambient CO₂ due to photosynthetic demand. 251 Subsequently, CO_2 concentrations increased again, with a more pronounced increase during late night. Soil respiration, photosynthesis, and temperature contribute to this trend. During the late 252 253 night, the surface atmosphere stabilizes and wind speeds decrease allowing emitted CO2 to 254 accumulate. Moreover, in many climatic regions like our experimental site, nighttime soil 255 temperatures remain high enough to sustain microbial and soil respiration activities, resulting in 256 CO2 accumulation in the stratified air above the ground. As the sun rises, increased light availability increases stomatal activities, leading to higher photosynthesis rates. 257



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Figure 5 Average diurnal vertical cycle of CO_2 for over two months of maize canopy growth/monitoring. Times of sunrise and sunset are shown.

261 **4.2 Vertical profile of H₂O in a maize canopy**

As in Fig. 5, Fig. 6 shows 15-minute H₂O concentration observations have been used to construct

263 an average diurnal cycle for the two-month period exemplified shown here. During daytime, H₂O





- 264 concentrations were significantly higher when compared to nighttime, peaking between 1200 LT 265 and 1400 LT and then gradually decreasing. Notably, after 2000 LT, we recorded a rapid decline in H_2O concentration. At 0600 LT, the H_2O reached its minimum concentration throughout the 266 267 cycle, followed by a sharp increase in the first hour. The H₂O concentration decreased as the 268 height increased for both day and nighttime because at both times a source of water vapor is the soil surface, with crop evapotranspiration adding in the daytime. 269 270 A comparison of the diurnal cycles shown in Figs. 5 and 6 indicates considerably different cycles of CO₂ and H₂O cases. At night, Fig. 5 shows that the CO₂ profile appears to be stronger than in 271 the daytime. The opposite is seen, for H_2O , in Fig. 6. The reason is presumed to be that CO_2 272 273 continues to be emitted from the soil at night, whereas there is no parallel process influencing the H₂O concentrations. This is a feature made apparent by the profile sampling system. 274 275 The processes of evaporation from the soil surface and evapotranspiration from leaves are linked with solar radiation. Overall, the study highlights the vertical distribution of water vapor 276 concentration and its temporal variability, indicating that factors such as height and diurnal 277 278 variations significantly influence the profile/gradient and temporal patterns of water vapor in the 279 canopy profile.
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Figure 6 Diurnal vertical profile pattern of water vapor averaged over two months as in Fig. 5.

4.3 Latent heat, sensible heat and CO₂ storage fluxes of maize profile

285 The vertical profile data were also used to investigate how various storage fluxes influence the energy balance closure of the maize crop. The diurnal average behavior of these storage 286 287 fluxes is shown in Fig. 7. CO₂ storage (Fig. 7a) exhibited higher values at nighttime as compared to daytime, due to the CO_2 pooling effect. During both early morning and late night, CO_2 storage 288 increased at a rate of approximately 1 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹, after which it gradually decreased until 0730-289 0800 LT when it became negative. CO₂ storage started to increase again, remaining close to zero 290 291 until the following day. This trend indicates that CO₂ storage was significantly higher during early 292 morning and late night as compared to daytime when photosynthesis processes actively utilized CO₂ within the canopy. During nighttime and morning, these processes were reversed, leading to 293 294 CO₂ storage.

295 Sensible heat energy storage (Fig. 7b) was found lower than latent energy storage (Fig. 7c).





The diurnal patterns of sensible (Fig. 7b) and latent energy storage (Fig. 7c) show similar characteristics. Sensible heat storage remained zero until after sunrise, eventually rising to a maximum value (around 2.5 W m⁻²) recorded between 1200 LT and 1230 LT. After that, this sensible energy storage rate declined, reaching negative values until 2400 LT and returning to zero until 0700 LT the following day.

Latent energy storage (Fig. 7c) exhibited a pattern like sensible energy storage but with 301 302 comparatively higher values. The maximum latent energy storage (> 4 W m⁻²) occurred between 0700 LT and 0730 LT, followed by a rapid decrease and negative storage until 2000 UTC. After a 303 brief increase (presently unexplained, about 4 W m⁻²) for thirty minutes, rapid decline ensued, 304 leading to negligible values during the late nighttime until the next morning. The diurnal 305 variations in sensible and latent energy storage are influenced by several factors, including solar 306 radiation, temperature fluctuations, and plant physiological processes. The variation in canopy 307 density, structure, and microclimate within the canopy significantly changes the canopy storage 308 which directly influences the daily integrated fluxes. Forest studies reported that the exchange 309 310 of CO2 and H2O between plant and atmosphere is regulated by canopy density (e.g. LAI), surface conductance, etc. and these canopy characteristics change seasonally which influences the 311 312 estimation of flux (Renchon et al., 2024; Chen et al., 2019). Therefore, consideration of canopy 313 storage into our analysis can improve the accurate estimation of flux.

The results provide valuable insights into the energy dynamics within the maize canopy and contribute to a deeper understanding of its environmental response to plants during different periods of the day. Latent and sensible heat storage are the two most important components of the energy balance of maize crops and are primarily influenced by important environmental conditions such as temperature, humidity, solar radiation, and wind.

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Figure 7abc Diurnal pattern of CO₂ storge (μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹), sensible energy storage (J m⁻²s⁻¹) ¹) and latent energy storage (J m⁻²s⁻¹) of a mature maize crop, averaged over a two month period.

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Note that the definition of the heat storage used here (as in Eq. (2)) omits warming of the 327 biomass. This omission accounts for the differences between the storage terms now computed 328 and those published previously (e.g. Hicks et al., 2020), based on infrared measurements of 329





- 330 biomass temperature in addition to changes in air temperature and humidity below the level of
- 331 atmospheric measurement.

332 5 Conclusions and summary

- The new multi-port profile system demonstrated its effectiveness in the measurement of CO₂ and H₂O concentrations at different heights. Its development significantly aids in understanding CO₂ and H₂O concentration variations in the vertical profile of a rapidly growing maize crop, thereby facilitating precise assessments of their exchanges, storage, and overall balance within agricultural ecosystems. The new system is designed to provide the capability to change measurement heights simply, as crops grow in height, while relying on a single measurement device and thereby minimizing level-to-level biases.
- The 2023 field experience with the new system indicates that canopy data obtained from the vertical profile observations hold potential for many applications in future studies such as evaluation of soil-plant-atmospheric models that rely on the precise estimation of CO₂, heat, and
- H_2O concentrations as well as future assessment of canopy nitrous oxide concentration.

344 Author contribution statement

- 345 TR: Data curation, Formal analysis, Methodology, Visualization, Writing original draft. NSE: Supervising,
- 346 Funding acquisition, Project administration, Writing review & editing. JNO: Formal analysis, writing and
- 347 reviewing. **BBH:** Supervision, Writing review & editing.
- 348 Funding
- 349 This work was supported by DuPont Tate & Lyle Bio Products Company.
- 350 **Declaration of computation intertest**
- 351 Authors declare no competing interest associated with this submission.
- 352 Acknowledgment
- 353 This work was supported by the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. The authors are very thankful
- to David R Smith (Senior Technical Specialist, BESS, UTK), Wesley C Wright (Senior Research
- Associate, BESS, UTK), Scott Karas Trucker (Senior Technical Specialist, BESS, UTK) and Josh
- 356 Watson (Farmer) for their continuous support during this work.
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