# Interannual Variation and Trend of Carbon Budget Observed Over a 28-year Period at Takayama in a Cool-Temperate Deciduous Forest in Central Japan

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#### Abstract

Long-term carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) flux measurements between the atmosphere and the ecosystem have been made since 1993 at a cool-temperate deciduous forest site (Takayama) in Japan influenced by Asian Monsoon, constituting the longest dataset among all the AsiaFlux sites. Interannual variations (IAVs) and trends of the annual carbon budget components and their environmental factors were examined. Annual net ecosystem production (NEP) (mean  $\pm 1\sigma$ ) during the period of eddy covariance measurement in 1999-2021 was  $265 \pm 86$  gC m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, and its IAV was dependent more on gross primary production (GPP) than on ecosystem respiration. IAVs in annual NEP and GPP were correlated with the IAVs of the monthly mean NEP, GPP and leaf area index (LAI) from June to September, as well as with that of the length of the net carbon uptake period. Significant increasing and decreasing trends in the annual NEP and GPP were detected during 2004-2013 and 2013-2021, respectively; the increasing trends were mainly caused by the vegetation recovery from typhoon disturbances while the decreasing trends were partly influenced by recent extreme weather events. Significant positive correlations of the IAVs between the start and the end of the net carbon uptake period, and between the leaf expansion and leaf fall were found. These may be attributed to biological functions and interseasonal relationship of meteorological parameters associated with ENSO events that can also influence IAVs in annual NEP and GPP.

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# 17 Key Points

- 18 Interannual variations and significant trends of carbon budget components at a forest site were
- 19 detected from a long-term observation.
- Environmental factors governing the interannual variations and the trend of the annual carbon
- 21 budget components were investigated.
- Some of the decadal scale phenomena obtained from this study could not be found without the
- 23 long-term observation.

#### 24 Abstract

Long-term carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) flux measurements between the atmosphere and the 25 ecosystem have been made since 1993 at a cool-temperate deciduous forest site (Takayama) in 26 Japan influenced by Asian Monsoon, constituting the longest dataset among all the AsiaFlux 27 28 sites. Interannual variations (IAVs) and trends of the annual carbon budget components and 29 their environmental factors were examined. Annual net ecosystem production (NEP) (mean  $\pm$  $1\sigma$ ) during the period of eddy covariance measurement in 1999-2021 was  $265 \pm 86$  gC m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> 30 <sup>1</sup>, and its IAV was dependent more on gross primary production (GPP) than on ecosystem 31 respiration. IAVs in annual NEP and GPP were correlated with the IAVs of the monthly mean 32 33 NEP, GPP and leaf area index (LAI) from June to September, as well as with that of the length of the net carbon uptake period. Significant increasing and decreasing trends in the annual NEP 34 35 and GPP were detected during 2004-2013 and 2013-2021, respectively; the increasing trends 36 were mainly caused by the vegetation recovery from typhoon disturbances while the decreasing 37 trends were partly influenced by recent extreme weather events. Significant positive correlations of the IAVs between the start and the end of the net carbon uptake period, and 38 between the leaf expansion and leaf fall were found. These may be attributed to biological 39 40 functions and interseasonal relationship of meteorological parameters associated with ENSO 41 events that can also influence IAVs in annual NEP and GPP.

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#### 43 Plain Language Summary

Forest ecosystems play an important role in the global carbon cycle. However, time 44 45 variations in the ecosystem carbon budget and its responses to climate change are not well 46 understood. Although long-term observational data are useful for a better understanding, >20year observations are limited, especially in the Asian monsoon region. In this study, long-term 47 48 measurements of carbon budget made at a cool-temperate deciduous forest in Japan were 49 analyzed for interannual variation (IAV), long-term trends, and offered plausible causes for these changes. The IAV in annual net carbon uptake (NEP) was associated with the variation in 50 51 summertime NEP, as well as with the variation in the length of the net carbon uptake period 52 (NGP). The IAV in summertime NEP was associated with the variations in solar radiation (SR) 53 and leaf density during the season, while the IAV in NGP length depended on the variations in spring temperature and early-fall SR. Decadal increasing and decreasing trends of annual NEP 54 were also detected. The former was mainly caused by recovery from typhoons, while the latter 55 56 was likely related to recent extreme weather events. Longer-term ecosystem observations are 57 certainly needed for more accurate predictions of forest ecosystems response to climate change. 58

#### 59 1. Introduction

Terrestrial biosphere is one of the most important reservoirs in the global carbon cycle.
 Various changes in terrestrial biosphere caused by climate change and atmospheric carbon

dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) increase have been discussed in many recent studies (e.g., Friedlingstein et al. 62 2022; Piao et al. 2019a; Reichstein et al. 2013). Extension of the growing season due to warmer 63 64 climate and enhanced fertilization effects have caused increase in CO<sub>2</sub> uptake by the terrestrial 65 ecosystems, while enhancement of respiration and decomposition of organic matters due to warmer climate have resulted in an increase in CO2 release (IPCC, 2021). On a shorter and local 66 scale, disturbance of ecosystem functions due to increase in frequency of extreme weather 67 accompanied by climate change can affect the carbon budget (e.g., Reichstein et al. 2013). 68 69 Given that East Asia is strongly influenced by the Asian Monsoon, any change in the 70 temperature and precipitation amount, along with the length of the rainy season, associated with 71 the monsoon can have a major impact on the terrestrial carbon budget. The present research 72 addresses some of these issues.

73 Various networks of CO<sub>2</sub> flux measurements between the atmosphere and the terrestrial 74 ecosystems have been developed since 1990's (e.g., Wofsy et al., 1993; Baldocchi et al., 2001). 75 Understanding of the environmental factors causing carbon flux changes and the development of terrestrial carbon cycle models all benefited from the measurements obtained from these 76 networks (e.g., Musavi et al., 2017). In particular, long-term data are employed to contribute to 77 78 the reduction of uncertainty in statistical analyses of the interannual variations (IAV) and the 79 secular trend (Baldocchi et al., 2018). Thus, decadal-scale study should be conducted by 80 combining micro-meteorological observation and ecological research (Ito et al. 2015; Muraoka 81 et al. 2015). However, the long-term measurements of >20 years are still limited, especially in 82 the Asian monsoon region.

83 Long-term measurements of CO<sub>2</sub> flux between the atmosphere and the forest ecosystem, 84 and the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio in and above the canopy have been made since September 1993 at Takayama site (TKY) in a cool-temperate deciduous forest in central Japan (Yamamoto 85 86 et al., 1999; Saigusa et al., 2002; Murayama et al., 2003). TKY has the longest flux data among the AsiaFlux sites (https://www.asiaflux.net/). Also, the continuous measurement of the 87 atmospheric O<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> ratio, along with the measurement of the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> isotopic ratios 88 89 using a flask sampling method have been conducted at the site (Ishidoya et al., 2015; Murayama 90 et al., 2010). Various analyses of the data have been conducted to obtain a better understanding 91 of the IAV in annual carbon budget related to Asian Monsoon and ENSO events (Saigusa et al., 92 2005, 2008; Yamamoto et al., 1999).

In this study, the longer-term data between 1994 and 2021 (mainly between 1999 and 2021) are reanalyzed to investigate the decadal changes in the IAV and the trend of annual carbon budget associated with observed climatic and ecological mechanisms. We will examine the relationship of the IAV in the annual carbon budget with those in the summertime carbon uptake (Subsection 4.1) and the net carbon uptake period (Subsection 4.2), on the assumption that the annual carbon budget is largely affected by these parameters. We will further examine the trend of the annual carbon budget and its causes, such as disturbances of the forest and meteorological 100 trends (Subsection 4.3). We will also examine the impact of recent extreme weather on the

101 carbon budget. Based on these results, climatic and ecological mechanisms governing the IAV

102 (Subsection 5.1) and the trend (Subsection 5.2) of the annual carbon budget will be discussed

103 by comparing with the previous studies of other forest sites, as well as TKY. We will also discuss

- 104 influences of interseasonal factors and El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) on the IAV and a
- 105 decadal trend of the annual carbon budget (Subsection 5.3).
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# 107 **2. Method**

# 108 **2.1. Site descriptions**

109 Detailed descriptions of our observation site have already been given in our previous papers (Yamamoto et al., 1999; Saigusa et al., 2005; Murayama et al., 2010). Our observation site, 110 111 TKY is located in a mountainous area in the central part of the main island of Japan (36°09'N, 112 137°25'E, 1420 m a.s.l.) and is situated about 15 km east of a local city, Takayama. TKY is part of observation networks such as AsiaFlux (http://asiaflux.net/index.php?page id=112) and 113 Japan Long-Term Ecological Research network (JaLTER: http://www.jalter.org/en/). 114Vegetation at the site is a 60 to 70-year-old secondary deciduous broadleaf forest primarily 115 116 dominated by birch (Betula ermanii Cham and B. platyphylla Sukatchev var. japonica Hara) 117 and oak (Quercus crisplula Blume). The canopy height is about 15-20 m. The forest understory is dominated by an evergreen dwarf bamboo (Sasa senanensis Rehd.) (Muraoka & Koizumi, 118 2005; Ohtsuka et al., 2007). Leaf expansion and leaf fall of broadleaf trees occur in May and in 119 October or November, respectively, and the ground surface is usually covered with snow from 120 121 December to April. Annual mean temperature and precipitation amount averaged over 1994-122 2021 are about 6.7°C and 2200 mm, respectively. The rainy season is strongly influenced by the Asian Monsoon and usually occurs in early summer (June – July). Possible effects of nearby 123 124 anthropogenic sources on the data observed at our site were estimated by Kondo et al. (2001) 125 using a numerical model and were found to be relatively minimal.

# 126 **2.2. Observation**

Since detailed descriptions of our  $CO_2$  flux and atmospheric  $CO_2$  mixing ratio measurements have been given in our previous papers (Yamamoto et al., 1999; Saigusa et al., 2002, 2005; Murayama et al., 2003, 2010), only a brief and supplemental explanation will be presented here.

The continuous measurements of the CO<sub>2</sub> flux and the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio have been made using a 27-m height tower located on the top of a small hill. Meteorological parameters such as downward and upward shortwave and longwave radiations, air temperature, relative humidity, wind speed, and its direction were also measured on the tower. Photosynthetic active radiation (PAR) was measured above and below the tree canopy (but above the canopy of dwarf bamboo) using quantum sensors (IKS-27, KOITO and/or SQ-110, APOGEE). The daily LAI of the tree canopy not including the dwarf bamboo was estimated as follows:

$$LAI = -\frac{1}{K} \left( ln \frac{PAR_b}{PAR_a} - ln \frac{PAR_{b0}}{PAR_{a0}} \right), \quad (1)$$

139 where PAR<sub>b</sub> and PAR<sub>a</sub> denote daily summed values of the downward PAR measured below and 140 above the canopy, PAR<sub>b0</sub> and PAR<sub>a0</sub> denote those averaged for the period of DOY (day of the 141 year) 100-120 before starting leaf expansion, and K denotes the extinction coefficient. Here, we set K to a constant value (0.46) based on the estimation for TKY (Muraoka et al., 2010; see 142 also Nasahara et al. 2008, Saitoh et al. 2012). The obtained LAI values were often scattered day 143 144 by day. Therefore, we used their 10-day running mean values for the further analyses in relation to the CO<sub>2</sub> flux. Since some problems with the PAR measurement below the tree canopy 145 occurred in 2019, the LAI data for the year were not used for analyses in this paper. Precipitation 146 was measured at a site located about 400 m from the tower by the River Basin Research Center 147 148 (RBRC), Gifu University.

149 The CO<sub>2</sub> flux measurement started by an aerodynamic (AD) method and an eddy covariance (EC) method in September 1993 and July 1998, respectively. The hourly CO<sub>2</sub> flux by AD 150 method was estimated from the vertical gradient of the hourly mean CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio between 151 two heights above the canopy (27 and 18 m). The CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio was measured by a non-152 153 dispersive infrared (NDIR) analyzer (Model 880, Rosemount or LI-6252, Li-Cor) with 154precision of better than 0.1 ppm. The CO<sub>2</sub> flux data by the AD method were intensively compared with those by the EC method between July 1998 and December 2000 (Saigusa et al., 155 156 2005). The relationship between both methods was obtained from the comparison of the daily 157 values. The daily CO<sub>2</sub> flux data by the AD method were adjusted to those by the EC method using the relationship during the period before the start of the EC measurement. 158

The CO<sub>2</sub> flux measurement by the EC method at 25 m on the tower was made using a threedimensional ultrasonic anemometer (DAT-600, Kaijo) and a closed-path NDIR (LI-6262, Li-Cor). Detailed descriptions of the eddy covariance method were given in Saigusa et al. (2002). The net ecosystem CO<sub>2</sub> exchange (NEE) was calculated every half-hour taking account of the CO<sub>2</sub> storage in the canopy. Small data gaps of up to 2-3 h were filled by linear interpolation. Large gaps were filled by empirical equations expressing the relationship among NEE, air temperature and incident PAR above the tree canopy shown in Saigusa et al. (2002, 2005).

Drainage flow along the slope often occurred in calm nights at TKY, and the NEE measured 166 by the EC method was likely underestimated during the nighttime under the stable atmospheric 167 conditions. To avoid the flux underestimation, the NEE values at the stable nights had been 168 169 replaced by an empirical exponential formula throughout the year obtained from the 170 relationship between the air temperature at 25-m height and the ecosystem respiration (Rec) at the site measured by the eddy covariance method under nearly neutral atmospheric stability 171conditions in Saigusa et al. (2002, 2005). In this study, the relationship between the air 172 temperature (T (°C)) at 25-m height and Rec (µmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) was reanalyzed using the long-term 173 174data. Because its seasonal difference of the relationship was found from the reanalysis, the

following empirical formulas were used to estimate Rec (nighttime NEE) under the stable 175176 atmospheric conditions (friction velocity  $(u^*) < 0.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) for each period of the year:  $Rec = 2.37 \times 3.42^{\frac{T-10}{10}}$  (T < 15), Rec = 4.39 (T  $\ge$  15), for April and May, (2) 177 Rec = 0.0821T + 2.74, for June and July, (3) 178 Rec = 0.110T + 1.59, for August and September, (4) 179  $Rec = 2.11 \times 1.87^{\frac{T-10}{10}}$  (T < 16), Rec = 3.06 (T  $\ge 16$ ), for October and November, (5) 180 Rec = 0.0232T + 0.667, for December to March. (6) 181 182 In this study, we assumed that the temperature dependence of daytime Rec was the same as that 183 of nighttime Rec, though problems with the assumption have been pointed out in some studies (e.g., Reichstein et al., 2005; Wehr et al., 2016). 184 185 In the following analyses, daily (24 h) carbon budget components were calculated as 186 follows. The daily net ecosystem production (NEP) was assumed to be the negative quantity of 187 the daily NEE: 188 NEP = -NEE. (7) The daily gross primary production (GPP) was derived from NEP and Rec: 189 190 GPP = NEP + Rec. (8) 191 192 3. Data analyses 193 In order to examine the IAV in the seasonal cycle of NEP, we obtained the best fit curve to 194 the daily NEP data by employing the curve fitting technique described in Nakazawa et al. (1997). In this iterative procedure, the fundamental and its first to third harmonics (a four-harmonic fit) 195 196 were used. The occurrences of the NEP growing start (NGS) and end (NGE) were defined by the 197 intersections of the above-mentioned best fit curve and the zero line from the negative value to 198 199 the positive one (net CO<sub>2</sub> release to uptake) and from the positive value to the negative one (net 200 CO<sub>2</sub> uptake to release), respectively. The interval between the NGS and the NGE, which is the 201 net carbon uptake period, was also defined as the NEP growing period (NGP). 202 203 4. Results 204 In Fig. 1a, the daily NEP and the best fit curve to these data are shown for 1994-2021. Although day-to-day NEP is largely scattered, the NEP often shows positive values (CO<sub>2</sub> 205 uptake) and negative values (CO2 release) from late spring to early fall and the remaining period, 206207 respectively. Obvious positive peaks in summer and large IAV in the peak height are seen from 208 the fitting curve. On the other hand, relatively weak CO<sub>2</sub> release is seen from late fall to early

spring, and the IAV in the CO<sub>2</sub> release during these periods is very smaller than that in the CO<sub>2</sub>
uptake peak.

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Figure 1b shows temporal variations of monthly mean of the estimated carbon budget components. The monthly mean data are also given in the Supporting Information (Tables S1-S3). Each component has sharp peaks in summer and broad troughs in cold seasons, though small sharp troughs are seen late in fall and/or in early spring in some years. The IAV in the summer peak height of GPP is larger than that of Rec. Therefore, the IAV in the summer peak height of NEP is mainly due to that of GPP.



**Figure 1.** a) Temporal variation in daily NEP (dot) and the best fit curve to the data (red line) for 1994-2021. b) Temporal variations in monthly mean daily NEP (red line), Rec (black line) and GPP (blue line) for the same period.

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**Figure 2.** Temporal variations in annual NEP, Rec and GPP. The data were obtained by using an aerodynamic (AD) method and an eddy-covariance (EC) method until July 1998 and after that, respectively.

Figure 2 shows variations of the estimated annual carbon budget components. The data of 218 219 the annual carbon budget components are also given in the Supporting Information (Table S1-220 S3). The IAV is much larger for annual NEP and GPP than for annual Rec. The average values 221 and the standard deviations (1 $\sigma$ ) of annual NEP, GPP and Rec for 1994-2021 were 265 ± 86,  $1066 \pm 91$ , and  $801 \pm 21$  gC m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. For the EC observation period of 1999-2021, 222 they were  $279 \pm 83$ ,  $1083 \pm 82$ , and  $804 \pm 14$  gC m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The fact that the IAV 223 224 pattern of the annual NEP is similar to that of the annual GPP suggests that the IAV in the annual NEP depends largely on the IAV in the annual GPP at TKY. The annual NEP and GPP both 225 226 show increases from the late 1990s to early 2000s, rapid decreases in 2004, gradual increases 227 from 2004 to the early 2010s, and then gradual decreases in the late 2010s. The rapid decreases of the annual NEP and GPP in 2004 were related to disturbances of the forest ecosystem due to 228 229 typhoon strikes, as suggested by fairly lower LAI values from June to October in 2004 230 compared to the averaged values (Fig. S1). Ten typhoons landed in the Japanese Islands from 231 June to October in that year (Ito, 2010a), which were more than three times the average annual 232 landfalls Japan 1991-2020 in over the period (https://ds.data.jma.go.jp/gmd/cpd/longfcst/en/tourist tc.html). 233

The IAVs of the maximum NEP during the summertime and the length of the NGP can strongly influence the IAV of the annual NEP, as illustrated in Fig. 3. In the following sections, factors governing IAVs and trends of annual carbon budget components will be analyzed based on this concept. To avoid systematic difference between AD and EC measurements, the following statistical analyses of the carbon budgets will mainly employ the EC data obtained during the period of 1999-2021. Some statistical analyses will be limited to 1999-2017 to



**Figure 3.** Schematic diagram showing factors governing the IAV in annual NEP; a) the IAV in the magnitude of the NEP during the summertime, and b) that in the length of the period (NGP) showing positive NEP values (between the NGS and the NGE).

exclude possible impacts of increase in the frequency of recent extreme weather eventsdescribed later.



Figure 4. Correlation coefficients (R) of the IAV between annual NEP and monthly mean NEP for each month for 1999-2021 (green and black vertical bars), and the averages of monthly mean NEP for each month over 1999-2021 (red closed circles) along with the standard deviation ( $1\sigma$ ) from the average values (red vertical lines). The green bars represent significant correlations at >99% confident levels.

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4.1. Influence of summertime IAV in carbon uptake on annual NEP and GPP variability

244Since photosynthetic activities are largely enhanced during the summertime, it can be 245 hypothesized that the IAV in strength of carbon uptake in summer contributes to the IAVs of the annual NEP and GPP. To examine this hypothesis, correlations of the IAV between the 246 annual NEP and monthly mean NEP for each month were analyzed for the period 1999-2021. 247 248 In Fig. 4, the correlation coefficients (R) for each month are shown. The average values of 249 monthly mean NEP, along with the standard deviation  $(1\sigma)$  from the average values, are also 250shown in this figure. With the exception of December, statistically significant positive 251 correlations of the IAV between the annual NEP and monthly mean NEP for each month from June to October are found (P < 0.01). Especially from June to September, the average values 252 of the monthly mean NEP show large net CO<sub>2</sub> uptake (> 2 gC m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) and IAV ( $\sigma$  > 0.8 gC m<sup>-2</sup> 253 254 $d^{-1}$ ). Similar significant correlations (P < 0.01) of the IAV were found between annual GPP and monthly mean GPP for each month from June to September, when the average values of the 255

- monthly mean GPP (>5 gC m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) and the IAVs ( $\sigma$  > 0.8 gC m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) were large. These results
- suggest that the IAVs in NEP and GPP from June to September make significant contributionsto the IAVs observed in annual NEP and GPP.

**Table 1.** Correlation coefficient of IAVs of monthly mean SR in June, July, August andSeptember with those of monthly mean NEP and GPP for the respective months in1999-2021 and 1999-2017 except for 2004.

	June	July	August	September
NEP 1999-2021	0.22	0.67***	0.46**	0.64***
1999-2017	0.31	0.62***	0.68***	0.58**
GPP 1999-2021	0.22	0.71***	0.51**	0.59***
1999-2017	0.30	0.65***	0.70***	0.50**

Note: \*\* and \*\*\* represent statistical significance of correlations for  $0.05 < P \le 0.01$  and P < 0.01, respectively.

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Table 1 shows correlation coefficients (R) with the IAVs in monthly mean solar radiation (SR) for each month in 1999-2021 and 1999-2017. In this analysis, the data for 2004 were not included since the forest ecosystem around our site was disturbed by typhoons from June to October. The correlations are also shown in Fig. S2. Significant positive correlations are found for each month from July to September for 1999-2021 and 1999-2017, while significant correlations are not found for June. With respect to August, the R values for 1999-2021 decrease by almost 0.2, compared to those for the period 1999-2017.

268 Next, we carried out correlational analyses of the IAVs in NEP and GPP with LAI. In addition to the analyses of the IAVs in monthly mean LAI for each month from June to 269 September with the IAVs of the monthly mean NEP and GPP for respective months, we also 270 271 conducted the same analysis with the IAVs of the annual NEP and GPP of the corresponding 272 year. In this analysis, the data for 2019 were excluded due to the problem with the PAR 273 measurement during the year, as mentioned above. The results are shown in Table 2 and Fig. 274 S3. The correlations of the IAVs in monthly mean LAI with those of monthly mean NEP and GPP from June to September of 1999-2017 and for June, August and September of 1999-2021 275are significantly positive for each month. The statistical significance for June-August of 1999-276 277 2021 are less compared to those of 1999-2017. The IAVs in the monthly mean LAI for the 278 respective months of June to September also show significantly positive correlations with those in the annual NEP and GPP, and each of the correlations shows larger significance in 1999-279 280 2017 than in 1999-2021.

**Table 2.** Correlation coefficients (R) of IAV in monthly mean LAI for each of June, July, August and September with those in monthly mean NEP and GPP for the respective months and with those in annual NEP and GPP in the same year in 1999-2021 except for 2019 and in 1999-2017.

	June	July	August	September
Monthly NEP				
1999-2021	0.58***	0.31	0.44**	0.78****
1999-2017	0.79****	0.58***	0.64***	0.82****
Monthly GPP				
1999-2021	0.59***	0.30	0.45**	0.77****
1999-2017	0.77****	0.56**	0.63***	$0.80^{****}$
Annual NEP				
1999-2021	0.36*	0.55***	0.61***	0.61***
1999-2017	0.66***	0.77****	0.83****	0.82****
Annual GPP				
1999-2021	0.46**	0.59***	0.64***	0.58***
1999-2017	0.72****	0.78****	0.84****	0.80****

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Note: \*, \*\*, \*\*\* and \*\*\*\* represent statistical significance of correlations for  $0.1 < P \le 0.05$ ,  $0.05 < P \le 0.01$ ,  $0.01 < P \le 0.001$  and P < 0.001, respectively.

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#### 4.2. Influence of IAV in NGP on those in annual NEP and GPP

284 The IAV in the NGP can also contribute to the IAVs in the annual NEP and GPP. Earlier 285 occurrence of the NGS and/or later occurrence of the NGE can result in a longer NGP, and it can cause increase in annual NEP. In Table 3, the R values of the IAVs in annual NEP and GPP 286287 with those of the NGS and NGE and the length of the NGP of the respective years in 1999-2021 288and 1999-2017 are shown. In the analysis, the data of 2004 are not included due to the above 289 mentioned reason. The correlations of IAVs in NGS, NGE and NGP with those in annual NEP 290 and GPP are also shown in Fig. S4. The IAVs in the annual NEP and GPP show significant positive correlation with the IAV in NGP for both 1999-2021 and 1999-2017 though the 291 292 correlations are much more significant in 1999-2017 than in 1999-2021 periods. Significant 293 negative correlations of IAV in NGS with that in annual GPP for both periods and significant positive correlations of IAV in NGE with those in annual NEP and GPP for 1999-2017 are also 294 295 shown.

	Parameter	F	L
		1999-2021	1999-2017
NGS	Annual NEP	-0.34	-0.38
	Annual GPP	-0.45**	-0.46*
	T_spring	-0.75****	-0.81****
	LELAI	0.83****	0.80****
	LECET	0.81****	0.80****
NGE	Annual NEP	0.30	0.57**
	Annual GPP	0.20	0.46*
	SR_SEP	0.70****	0.68***
	LAI_SEP	0.38*	0.29
	LFLAI	0.58***	0.51**
	LFCET	0.30	0.24
NGP	Annual NEP	0.57***	0.75****
	Annual GPP	0.58***	0.72****
	T_spring	0.39*	0.40*
	SR_SEP	0.44**	0.56**
	LAI_SEP	0.45**	0.61***

**Table 3.** Correlation coefficient (R) of IAVs in NGS, NGE and NGP with those of annual NEP and GPP and environmental factors for 1999-2021 and 1999-2017.

Note: T\_spring is mean T from March to May. SR\_September and LAI\_September are monthly mean SR and LAI in September, respectively. The data of 2004 are excluded in this analysis. The data of LELAI, LFLAI and LAI\_September for 2019 are also excluded in this analysis. \*, \*\*, \*\*\* and \*\*\*\* represent statistical significance of correlations for  $0.1 < P \le 0.05$ ,  $0.05 < P \le 0.01$ ,  $0.01 < P \le 0.001$  and P < 0.001, respectively.

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298 We then proceeded to examine the possible impacts of the plant phenological events such 299 as leaf expansion (LE) and leaf fall (LF) of canopy trees and environmental factors on NGS, 300 NGE and NGP. In this study, the first day of the year that LAI exceeded 50% of the average value of LAI over DOY 180-240 (i.e., local summer) of the year, when the LAI values were 301 fairly stable and the maximum of the year appeared, was defined as an indicator (LELAI) of the 302 303 occurrence of LE. Such simplified indicator allows us to examine the IAV in forest canopy 304 phenology and its impacts on CO<sub>2</sub> flux. Similarly, the first day of the year that LAI fell below 50% of the average value of the LAI over DOY 180-240 of the year was defined as an indicator 305 (LFLAI) of the occurrence of LF. Furthermore, we also calculated the occurrences of LE and LF 306 of canopy trees of each year using a degree-day model of vegetation phenology by Nagai et al. 307 (2021). In the model optimized to reproduce the phonology events at TKY, the LE date (LECET) 308 309 was defined as the first day when the cumulative effect temperature (CET) was greater than 310 255.4°C. The CET<sub>st</sub> was calculated with Eq. (9), where  $T_i$  is the daily mean air temperature (°C) 311 at 25-m height, and we set the start date to be January 1st and the threshold temperature for the 312 CET to be 2°C.

313 
$$CET_{st} = \sum_{i=Jamuary \ 1}^{LE_{CET}} \max(T_i - 2, 0), \quad (9)$$

The LF date (LF<sub>CET</sub>) was also defined as the first day when the CET was less than  $-375.1^{\circ}$ C. The CET<sub>en</sub> was calculated with Eq (10), where we set the start date to be August 1st and the threshold temperature for the CET to be 18°C.

317 
$$CET_{en} = \sum_{i=August \ 1}^{LF_{CET}} \min(T_i - 18, 0), \ (10)$$

Note that the occurrences of LECET and LFCET are earlier and later than those of LELAI and LFLAI, 318 319 respectively since the LECET and the LFCET are the parameters to estimate the start of leaf 320 expansion and the end of leaf fall, respectively (Nagai et al., 2013). Also, factors other than air 321 temperature such as impacts of disturbances of the forest ecosystem are not considered in the model. The correlations of the IAVs in NGS, NGE and NGP with those in the LECET and the 322 323 LFCET were also examined. The IAVs in the occurrences of LELAI, LFLAI, LECET and LFCET thus 324 obtained along with those of NGS and NGE are shown in Fig. 5. As described above, the 325 occurrences of LELAI and LFCET are later than those of LECET and LFLAI, respectively. It can also be seen in the figure that the occurrences of NGS and NGE are closer to those of LECET 326 327 and LFLAI than those of LELAI and LFCET, respectively in most of the years during the 1999-328 2021 period. In 2004 when the disturbances due to typhoons occurred, NGE occurred very 329 earlier than the other years.



**Figure 5.** IAVs in occurrences of NGS, NGE, LE<sub>LAI</sub>, LF<sub>LAI</sub>, LE<sub>CET</sub> and LF<sub>CET</sub>. LE<sub>LAI</sub> and LF<sub>LAI</sub> for 2019 are not plotted because of no available LAI data.

Correlations of the IAV in NGS, NGE and NGP with those in environmental factors are 330 also shown in Table 3 and Fig. S5. The IAV in the occurrence of NGS is significantly negatively 331 and positively correlated with those in the mean air temperature from March to May (T spring) 332 and the occurrences of LE (LELAI and LECET), respectively. Significantly positive correlations 333 334 of the IAV in the occurrence of the NGE are also found with those in the occurrence of LFLAI and the monthly mean SR (SR SEP) and LAI (LAI SEP) in September though the correlations 335 with LAI SEP for 1999-2017 and the occurrence of LF<sub>CET</sub> are not significant. With respect to 336 337 the NGP, its IAV shows significantly positive correlations with those in T spring, SR SEP and 338 LAI SEP.

339

# **4.3. Trends of annual carbon budget components and their environmental factors**

341 Figure 2 shows a linear increasing trend in the annual Rec during the period of 1994-2021  $(0.90 \pm 0.47 (1\sigma) \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}, \text{ R} = 0.35, P < 0.1)$  based on both the EC and AD data. This 342 trend may be partly attributed to a significant increasing trend of annual mean air temperature 343 observed at TKY during the period (+0.045  $\pm$  0.012 (1 $\sigma$ ) °C yr<sup>-1</sup>, R = 0.59, P < 0.01). However, 344no significant linear trends were found in annual NEP and GPP IAVs over the same period. 345 346 Also, no significant linear trends were found in IAVs of annual NEP, GPP and Rec for the EC 347 observation period of 1999-2021. On the other hand, significantly increasing trends in annual NEP  $(31.9 \pm 4.5 (1\sigma) \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}, \text{ R} = 0.94, P < 0.001)$  and GPP  $(31.8 \pm 4.0 (1\sigma) \text{ gC m}^{-2})$ 348  $vr^{-1} vr^{-1}$ , R = 0.94, P < 0.001) in 2004-2013 were found, while significantly decreasing trends 349 were detected in annual NEP (-28.8 ± 4.2 (1 $\sigma$ ) gC m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, R = 0.93, P < 0.001) and in GPP 350  $(-27.4 \pm 5.2 (1\sigma) \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}, \text{ R} = 0.89, P < 0.01)$  for the period 2013-2021. 351

Figure 6 shows IAVs in the monthly mean NEP and GPP of each month from June to 352 September, as well as NGS, NGE and NGP. The monthly mean NEP (Fig. 6a) and GPP (Fig. 353 354 6b) values of June and from July to September show significantly increasing trends during 2004-2016 and 2004-2013, respectively, while significantly decreasing trends are found from 355 June to September in 2013-2021. Figure 6c shows a significant trend pointing to an ever earlier 356 occurrence of NGS (2004-2018), as well as to an ever later occurrence of NGE (2005-2013). 357 358 As a result, a significantly increasing trend of NGP is also seen (2005-2013). It is interesting to 359 note that the NGE trend reverses from 2013 to 2018, indicating an earlier occurrence each year.



**Figure 6.** IAVs and significant trends of a) the monthly mean NEP, b) the monthly mean GPP of June-September, and c) the occurrences of the NGS (blue) and the NGE (red) and the length of the NGP (black).

360 Figure 7 shows IAVs in monthly mean LAI, SR and daytime (11:00-17:00 local time) vaper

361 pressure deficit (VPD) from June to September, together with spring (from March to May) and

362 August mean air temperatures. The LAI decreased from 2003 to 2004 due to the typhoons in

363 2004 (Fig. 7a). After this, while showing some fluctuations, the LAI gradually increased as the

364 forest canopy recovered, and showed significantly increasing trends for each month of July to

September in 2004-2013 and for June in 2004-2016; the significant increase in the NEP and GPP trends were also observed for 2004-2013, as described above. During the period of 2013-2021, when significant decrease in the NEP and GPP trends were observed, the mean LAI for July and August maintained high values. The low LAI value in September 2018 was caused by a typhoon; however, the September value showed a significantly decreasing trend for September during 2013-2018.



Figure 7. IAVs and significant trends in a) the monthly mean LAI, b) the monthly mean solar radiation, c) the monthly mean daytime (11:00-17:00) VPD of June-September, and d) the spring (from March to May) mean and the August monthly mean air temperatures.

The monthly mean SR in September and the mean air temperature in spring (from March 371 372 to May) also showed significantly increasing trends in 2005-2013 and in 2004-2018 (also in 1999-2021), respectively (Figs. 7b and d), while the decreasing trends of the monthly mean SR 373 and daytime VPD in June were found in 2004-2016 (Figs. 7b and c). Using the F-test, the IAVs 374375  $(1\sigma)$  in the monthly mean SR were found to be significantly larger in 2014-2021 than in 2005-2013 for August (P < 0.01) and for July and September (P < 0.05) (Fig. 7b). The monthly mean 376 air temperature in August also showed a significantly increasing trend in 1999-2021 (Fig. 7d) 377 378 and a rapidly increasing trend especially in 2013-2020, accompanied by significantly increasing trends of the monthly mean SR and daytime VPD for the month (Figs. 7b and c). 379

380

#### 381 5. Discussion

# 382 **5. 1. IAV in annual carbon budget**

383 Baldocchi et al. (2018) reported in their review paper that the average of the IAV  $(1\sigma)$  in the annual NEE was close to 100 gC m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> for long-term EC observations at temperate 384 deciduous forest sites. There are various factors governing the IAV calculated from long-term 385 observations (e.g., Froelich et al., 2015; Urbanski, et al., 2007). Among them, Baldocchi et al. 386 387 (2018) identified the IAV in the length of the growing season to be a dominant factor affecting 388 the IAV in annual NEP across much of the deciduous forests influenced by drastic changes in 389 meteorological conditions that influence phenology of plant photosynthesis (e.g., Wilson et al. 390 2000; Muraoka et al. 2010).

For the TKY deciduous forest site, the IAV  $(1\sigma)$  in the annual NEP in 1999-2021 (83 gC 391 392  $m^{-2} yr^{-1}$ ) was found to be within range of the published results. The IAV in annual NEP largely depended on the IAV in annual GPP (Fig. 2). Furthermore, the concept developed from Fig. 3 393 is supported by the significantly positive correlations of the IAVs in annual NEP and GPP with 394 395 the IAVs in monthly mean NEP and GPP of each month from June to September (Subsection 396 4.1, Fig. 4) and the length of NGP (Subsection 4.2, Table 3). The significantly positive 397 correlations with the IAVs in the monthly mean LAI of each month from June to September 398 also suggested that the IAV in LAI during the growing season also had much influence on the 399 IAVs in annual NEP and GPP (Subsection 4.1, Table 2). Although some significant correlations 400 of the IAVs in NGS and NGE were found with those in annual NEP and GPP, each of the IAVs 401 in NGS and NGE did not so strongly govern those in annual NEP and GPP as that in NGP.

With respect to the IAVs in the monthly mean NEP and GPP from June to September, it was found from significant correlations for most of these months (Tables 1 and 2) that the IAVs in the monthly mean SR and LAI from summer to early fall were likely to be important factors governing the CO<sub>2</sub> uptake variability by the forest ecosystem for the corresponding months. However, for the monthly mean SR of June, the correlations were not very significant with the monthly NEP and GPP. In June, LAI rapidly increases and does not yet reach the annual maximum value as shown in Fig. S1. The coefficient of variation (CV; the ratio of the standard deviation to the average) of the monthly mean SR for June is smaller than those for July, August
and September (Fig. 8b). This may result in the relatively weak correlations of the IAVs in the
monthly mean NEP and GPP with that in the monthly mean SR for June (Table 1).

412 Significance of the correlations of the IAVs in annual NEP and GPP with those in monthly 413 mean LAI of each month from June to September (Table 2), NGP and NGE (Table 3) were 414 largely diminished for 1999-2021 compared to 1999-2017. Also, significance of the correlations 415 of the IAVs in corresponding monthly mean NEP and GPP with those in monthly mean SR in 416 August (Table 1) and LAI for each month from June to August (Table 2) were even lower for 417 1999-2021 than for 1999-2017. These will be discussed in Subsection 5.2.

The significant correlations shown in Table 3 indicate that the IAVs in the mean air 418 temperature in spring (March-May) and the occurrence of LECET are dominant environmental 419 420 drivers for the IAV in NGS; the IAV in LELAI was not considered to be the driver since the 421 occurrence of NGS was earlier than that of LELAI in most of the years for 1999-2021 (Fig. 5), 422 though a significant correlation in IAV was also shown between NGS and that of LELAI. Warmer spring leads to an earlier LE of canopy trees and an earlier start of enhancement of 423 photosynthetic activities including understory dwarf bamboo, resulting in an earlier occurrence 424 425 of NGS. On the other hand, since higher SR and LAI in early fall (September) and later 426 occurrence of LFLAI maintain higher photosynthetic activities of the ecosystem in the growing 427 season, these factors lead to a later occurrence of NGE. Since photosynthesis was fairly 428 suppressed around the time of LF<sub>CET</sub>, the correlation is considered to be weak. Thus, warmer 429 spring and higher SR and LAI in early fall (September) expanded the length of NGP, resulting 430 in significant correlations of the IAV in NGP with these factors.

Saigusa et al. (2005) demonstrated that the IAV in annual NEP was positively correlated 431 with the IAV in monthly mean air temperature in April in 1994-2002 at TKY, suggesting that a 432 433 warmer spring causes earlier LE, resulting in increased annual NEP. However, no significant correlation (R = 0.04) was found in this study using a longer dataset of 1999-2021, though the 434IAV in spring mean air temperature was indirectly correlated with that in the annual NEP via 435 436 significant correlation with the IAVs in the NGS and NGP. However, a significant positive 437 correlation of the IAV in annual NEP was found with that in monthly mean SR in September (R = 0.46, P < 0.05 for 1999-2021 and R = 0.59, P < 0.01 for 1999-2017) from our long-term 438 data (Figs. 2, 7 and S6). The result was consistent with the fact that the IAV in monthly mean 439 SR in September was significantly positive correlated with those in monthly mean NEP in 440441 September and NGP, each of which showed a significantly positive correlation with that of 442 annual NEP, as described in Subsections 4.1 and 4.2. Different results between our study and Saigusa et al. (2005) highlight the possibility that the degree of importance of identified 443 ecosystem processes contributing to the IAV in the annual carbon budget can be a function of 444445 the length and data period of analysis. Therefore, it is important to identify any "unusual" 446 environmental event in an analysis, particularly for an analysis of a short dataset.

#### 447 **5.2. Trend of annual carbon budget**

An increasing trend of annual NEP has been observed at some forest sites (e.g., Urbanski 448 449 et al., 2007; Froelich et al., 2015). For the TKY site, no significant trend of annual NEP was detected over the observed period. However, significant increasing trends were observed for 450451 annual NEP and GPP and monthly mean NEP and GPP of each month from July to September for 2004-2013 and June monthly mean NEP and GPP for 2004-2016, while significant 452 decreasing trends of annual NEP and GPP and monthly mean NEP and GPP of each month from 453 454 June to September were detected for 2013-2021 (Figs. 2, 7a and b; subsection 4.3). From 455 comparative analyses (Figs. 7 and 8), the following observations can be drawn: (1) The abovementioned increasing trends nearly synchronized with the increasing trend of LAI associated 456 with the recovery from typhoon strikes in 2004. In addition to this, the increasing trends were 457 458 also probably influenced by the NGP trend related to increasing trends of mean air temperature 459 in spring (March-May) and monthly mean SR in September; they lead to a significant trend towards earlier occurrence of NGS and a delayed trend of NGE, respectively, which are 460 consistent with the relationship of these meteorological parameters with NGS, NGE and NGP 461 described in Subsection 4.2. (2) Although what factors caused the latter decreasing trends was 462 463 not so clearly identified, the decreasing trends may be partly attributed to a significant trend 464towards earlier occurrence of NGE and a significantly decreasing trend of monthly mean LAI in September in 2013-2018 and fairly low SR observed in some months from summer to early 465 fall for 2014-2020 such as in August 2014, September 2018 and July 2020 (significant larger 466 IAV in SR in 2014-2021 than in 2005-2013 as described above). 467

Since the variability patterns of the monthly mean NEP and GPP were very similar, we further investigated the decreasing trends of the monthly mean GPP for 2013-2021. For the analysis, we simply obtained the following linear functions of the observed monthly mean SR (x) and LAI (y) which simulate the monthly mean GPP (z) for each month from June to September using a multiple regression analysis for the observed data in 1999-2013 when the decreasing trends had not yet appeared:

474  $z = a_i + b_i \cdot x + c_i \cdot y$ 

 $b_i \cdot x + c_i \cdot y \qquad ,(11)$ 

475 where a, b and c are constants and the subscript i denotes each month from June to September. The reason why Eq. 11 is a function of monthly mean SR and LAI is that the IAVs in monthly 476 mean GPP were highly correlated with the IAVs in these parameters in many of the months, as 477 shown in Tables 1 and 2. We simulated the monthly mean GPP of each of the months from 1999 478479 to 2021 except for 2019 (because of no available LAI data), and compared with the observed 480 GPP. The result is given in Fig. 8. Since RMSE values of the simulation for June, July, August and September of 1999-2017 (0.39, 0.51, 0.38 and 0.55 gC m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively) were close to 481 those of 1999-2013 (0.37, 0.50, 0.39 and 0.57 gC m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively), the relationship 482 483 obtained from the 1999-2013 data are considered to be applicable up to 2017. However, the 484 observed GPP values were noticeably smaller than the simulated values from 2018 to 2021,

especially for June to August. The result suggests that the prior relationship between the IAV in 485 GPP and its causative factors changed after 2017. This result may also be related to the facts 486 that the significance of some of the correlations for 1999-2021 shown in Tables 1-3 was largely 487 diminished compared to 1999-2017, as described in Subsection 5.1. High monthly mean 488 temperatures in July 2018 and August of 2018-2020 (the highest monthly average temperatures 489 in the top six for 1994-2021 were observed in these months), high monthly mean daytime VPD 490 during the same months and the record low monthly SR and high monthly precipitation (>1000 491 492 mm) in July 2020 were observed. The record-breaking heatwave also dominated over Japan 493 and Korea from mid-July to early August 2018, and it has been pointed out that it may have 494 decreased GPP in the area during the period (Yamamoto et al., 2023). The area around TKY has 495 humid and cool summer due to Asian Monsoon and high altitude. Therefore, a decrease in GPP 496 due to hot and dry weather had barely been observed at TKY. However, such recently frequent 497 occurrences of extreme weather may suppress photosynthetic activities and have altered the 498 past relationship. To clarify the mechanism of the recent decreasing trends, further analyses and

- 499 data accumulation are necessary, which probably contribute to better understanding of the
- 500 impacts of climate change on the forest ecosystem at TKY.



**Figure 8.** a) Comparison of IAVs in the monthly mean GPP of June-September between the observation and the simulation based on a multiple regression analysis, and b) IAVs in difference of the monthly mean GPP between the observation and the simulation.

501

# 502 5.3. Influence of interseasonal factors on IAV in carbon budget components

We further examined relationships between the variations in some of the factors, especially 503 504 between those in phenomena occurring in different seasons, and their influences on the IAV in 505 the carbon budget components at TKY. A significantly positive correlation was found between 506 IAVs of NGS and NGE in 1999-2021 (Table 4, Fig. S7a), which indicates that NGE tends to 507 occur early in the same year of early occurrence of NGS and vice versa. It is interesting to note that such a significant correlation of the IAVs can be seen in different seasons. As described in 508 509 Subsections 4.2 and 5.1, the IAVs in NGS and NGE showed significantly positive correlations 510 with those in LE (LE<sub>LAI</sub> and LE<sub>CET</sub>) and LF<sub>LAI</sub>, respectively, suggesting that the IAVs in NGS and NGE are influenced by variability in the forest canopy phenology. The IAVs in LELAI and 511 512 LECET were also positively correlated with those in LFLAI and LFCET, respectively (Table 4, Figs.

513 S7b and c), showing that LF tends to occur early in the same year of early occurrence of LE 514 and vice versa. Therefore, the positive correlation between NGS and NGE observed at TKY 515 may be attributed to such interseasonal-phenological characteristics at the site. Some recent 516 studies also found that earlier/later LF is associated with earlier/later LE at some temperate 517 deciduous forests, and pointed out that winter-spring warming due to climate change will not 518 always lead to extension of the growing season into the future (Fu et al., 2014; Keenan & 519 Richardson, 2015; Piao et al., 2019b; Zani et al., 2020).

520

**Table 4.** Correlation coefficients (R) of IAVs between interseasonal parameters for each period.

Interseasonal parameter	Period	R
NGS vs. NGE	1999-2021	0.37*
LELAI vs. LFLAI	1999-2021	0.50**
LECET <b>vs.</b> LFCET	1999-2021	0.39*
T_Spring vs. SR_September	1994-2021	-0.33*

Note: T\_Spring and SR\_September represent mean T from March to May and monthly mean SR in September, respectively. The data for 2004 are excluded for the analysis of NGS vs. NGE, LELAI vs. LFLAI and LECET vs. LFCET. The data for 2019 are also excluded for the analysis of LELAI vs. LFLAI. \* and \*\* represent statistical significance of correlations for 0.1  $< P \le 0.05$  and  $0.05 < P \le 0.01$ , respectively.

521 On the other hand, significant correlations in the IAV were also found between meteorological parameters observed in different seasons at TKY. A negative correlation of the 522 IAV in the mean air temperature in spring (March-May) was seen with the IAV in the monthly 523 524 mean SR in September (Table 4, Fig. S7d). The relationships of the IAVs in these meteorological parameters with those in NGS, NGE and NGP were described in Subsection 4.2. 525 526 From these relationships, it is suggested that early/late occurrence of NGS and long/short NGP 527 related to high/low temperature in spring tend to be accompanied with early/late occurrence of 528 NGE and short/long NGP related to low/high SR in early fall in the same year. Therefore, the 529 positive correlation between NGS and NGE observed at TKY may also be influenced by such 530 an interseasonal relationship of the meteorological parameters at the site. Whichever process caused the positive correlation between NGS and NGE, these opposite effects on the length of 531 532 NGP of the year partly offset each other and the difference between the two effects may cause 533 the IAV in NGP. Such a mechanism of the IAV in NGP probably affects those in annual NEP and GPP at TKY. 534



**Figure 9.** IAVs in mean air temperature from March to May (black) and solar radiation in September (red). Pink-shades represent El Niño periods.

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High temperature anomaly from winter to spring and low temperature and low SR anomaly 536 537 from summer to fall tend to be observed during the El Niño period in Japan (Saigusa et al., 2005; https://ds.data.jma.go.jp/tcc/tcc/products/climate/ENSO/elnino.html). Figure 9 shows 538 the IAVs in the mean air temperature in spring and the monthly mean SR in September observed 539 540 TKY, with the recent El Niño at along periods (https://www.data.jma.go.jp/tcc/tcc/products/elnino/ensoevents.html). The IAVs in these 541 542 parameters seem to reflect such meteorological characteristics in Japan during the El Niño 543 period, except for a few cases. Therefore, the above-mentioned interseasonal relationship of the meteorological parameters observed at TKY is considered to be likely influenced by the ENSO 544545 events. Using an earlier observational data, Saigusa et al. (2005) pointed out the influence of El Niño on the canopy phenology and the carbon budget of the forest ecosystem at TKY. The 546 present study also suggests that the IAVs in the phenology and the carbon budget obtained from 547548 our long-term observation were influenced by ENSO events. Many studies reported that hot 549 and dry weather conditions associated with El Niño events often cause drought and forest fires 550in wide areas such as Southeast Asia and South America, leading to enhancement of CO<sub>2</sub> release from global terrestrial biosphere (e.g., IPCC, 2021; Rödenbeck et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2017; 551 552 Goto et al., 2017). However, this is not the case for TKY, since different weather conditions 553 such as wet and cloudy summer-early fall and warm winter-spring tend to be observed around 554 our site during the El Niño period.

555

#### 556 **6. Summary**

We initiated a long-term measurement of CO<sub>2</sub> flux between the atmosphere and the forest ecosystem in September of 1993 at TKY in a cool-temperate deciduous forest in central Japan. In this paper, we reanalyzed the long-term data mainly obtained from the EC measurements obtained during 1999-2021. The IAVs and the trends of annual carbon budget components were examined, and then their environmental factors were investigated.

562 The main results obtained from the analyses are as follows:

563 (1) The annual NEP, GPP and Rec (mean  $\pm 1\sigma$ ) for the EC measurement period were  $265 \pm 86$ , 564  $1066 \pm 91$ , and  $801 \pm 21$  gC m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The IAV in the annual NEP strongly depended 565 on the IAV of annual GPP.

(2) Based on the significant correlations with the IAVs in monthly mean NEP, GPP and LAI for each month from June to September, the IAVs in annual NEP and GPP largely depended on those in NEP, GPP and LAI from summer to early fall. The IAVs in the monthly mean NEP and GPP were attributed to those in the monthly mean SR from July to September and those in the monthly mean LAI from June to September for the respective months.

(3) The IAVs in the annual NEP and GPP were governed by the IAV in NGP. Early/late
occurrence of NGS was attributed to warm/cold spring and early/late occurrence of LE<sub>CET</sub>,
while late/early occurrence of NGE was associated with high/low monthly mean SR in
September and late/early LE<sub>LAI</sub>. Early NGS and/or late NGE led to long NGP.

(4) Significant increasing and decreasing trends of annual NEP and GPP were detected in 20042013 and 2013-2021, respectively. The former increasing trends were highly linked to recovery
from the ecosystem disturbances due to typhoon strikes in 2004, and partly related to trends of

- some meteorological parameters. On the other hand, the cause of the latter decreasing trendswas not clearly identified though the decreasing trend of the monthly mean LAI in September
- and the trend towards earlier occurrence of NGE for 2013-2018 may partly be related to them.
- 581 (5) The above-mentioned decreasing trends of annual NEP and GPP and the noticeably
- diminished significance seen in the correlations of the IAVs in carbon budget components with those in some environmental factors for 1999-2021 compared to 1999-2017 may have been influenced by the recent extreme weather conditions, such as high temperatures in August for
- 585 2018-2020 and the record high monthly precipitation and low monthly SR in July 2020.

(6) Some intercorrelations of IAV between the events occurring in different seasons, such as the
occurrences of NGS and NGE and the occurrences of LE and LF, were found. It was suggested
that they may be attributed not only to some biological functions but also to meteorological
parameters associated with ENSO events, which could have influence on annual carbon budget
at TKY.

591 Some of the results obtained from the long-term measurement were found to be different 592 from those shown in the previous studies that were based on shorter observation. Also, decadal 593 scale phenomena such as increasing and decreasing trends of annual NEP and GPP could not 594 be detected without the long-term observation. Therefore, long-term observations are very 595 important for better understanding of the carbon cycle in forest ecosystems. Collaboration with 596 studies using various approaches such as biometric measurements (Ohtsuka et al., 2009) and 597 model simulations (Ito et al., 2010b; Higuchi et al., 2005) should be further developed. Such 598 multidisciplinary studies based on long-term observations are essential to precisely predict 599 responses of the terrestrial biosphere to climate change.

600

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#### 615 Data Availability Statement

The dataset of the carbon budget at TKY presented in the manuscript has been made publically available at <u>https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8300684</u>.

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Supporting Information for

# Interannual Variation and Trend of Carbon Budget in a Cool-Temperate Deciduous Forest in Central Japan at Takayama Detected from 28-year Observation

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**Figure S1.** Temporal variation in LAI from April to November averaged over 1999-2021 except for 2019 (black) and in 2004 (blue). Vertical lines represent the range of the standard deviation  $(1\sigma)$  from the average.



**Figure S2.** Correlation of IAVs in monthly mean SR in June, July, August and September with those of monthly mean NEP a) and GPP b) for the respective months. ●, × and ▲ represent the data for 1999-2017 except 2004, 2004 and 2018-2021, respectively.



Figure S3. Correlation of IAV in monthly mean LAI in June, July, August and September with those of annual NEP a) and GPP b) and with those of monthly mean NEP c) and GPP d) for the respective months. ●and ▲ represent the data for 1999-2017 and 2018-2021 except 2019, respectively.



Figure S4. Correlations of IAVs in NGS (blue), NGE (red) and NGP (black) with those in annual NEP a) and GPP b). ●, × and ▲ represent the data for 1999-2017 except 2004, 2004 and 2018-2021 except 2019, respectively.



**Figure S5.** Correlations of IAV in NGS with those in mean air temperature in spring (T\_spring) (blue), LE<sub>LAI</sub> (red) and LE<sub>CET</sub> (black) a), that in NGE with those in monthly mean SR in September (SR\_SEP) (blue), LF<sub>LAI</sub> (red) and LF<sub>CET</sub> (black) b), that in NGP with those in T\_spring (blue) and SR\_SEP (red) c), and those in NGE (red) and NGP (black) with that in monthly mean LAI in September (LAI\_SEP).  $\bullet$ ,  $\times$  and  $\blacktriangle$  represent the data for 1999-2017 except 2004, 2004 and 2018-2021 except 2019, respectively.



**Figure S6.** Correlation of the IAV in the monthly mean SR in September with that in the annual NEP. ●and ▲ represent the data for 1999-2017 and 2018-2021, respectively.



**Figure S7.** Correlations of IAVs in occurrence between NGS and NGE a), between LE<sub>LAI</sub> and LF<sub>LAI</sub> b) and between LE<sub>CET</sub> and LF<sub>CET</sub> c) for 1999-2021. The data for 2019 are not included in b) and c).  $\times$  and  $\bullet$  represent the data for 2004 and the other years, respectively. Correlations of IAVs between mean air temperature in spring (T\_spring) and monthly mean SR in September (SR\_SEP) for 1994-2021 d).

Year	Monthly mean NEP (gC m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )												$\frac{\text{NEP}}{(\text{gC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1})}$
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	Annual
1994	-0.7	-0.8	-0.7	-0.4	0.9	2.6	3.2	2.7	1.9	0.6	-0.4	-0.7	256
1995	-0.7	-0.7	-0.6	-0.7	-0.3	0.9	1.9	2.2	1.6	0.1	-0.7	-0.5	73
1996	-0.4	-0.3	-0.4	-0.8	0.1	2.4	3.5	3.0	1.8	0.1	-0.9	-0.6	230
1997	-0.3	-0.4	-0.7	-0.9	0.1	1.8	2.9	3.4	2.3	0.2	-0.7	-0.5	217
1998	-0.6	-0.4	-0.6	-0.7	1.6	4.3	3.5	1.8	0.5	-1.0	-0.9	-0.5	222
1999	-0.6	-0.6	-0.6	-0.6	-0.6	1.7	3.4	2.9	2.0	0.3	-0.7	-0.4	188
2000	-0.6	-0.5	-0.7	-0.7	-0.7	2.6	4.9	4.6	2.5	0.5	-1.2	-0.5	313
2001	-0.5	-0.6	-0.7	-0.6	-0.3	3.1	5.1	3.8	2.4	-0.2	-0.8	-0.5	310
2002	-0.7	-0.7	-0.6	-1.1	-0.1	4.9	4.1	4.7	2.3	0.2	-0.9	-0.6	358
2003	-0.6	-0.7	-0.7	-1.2	-0.5	3.7	4.4	3.8	2.4	-0.1	-1.1	-0.4	276
2004	-0.4	-0.5	-0.6	-0.7	-0.7	2.5	3.5	3.2	-1.4	-0.6	-0.8	-0.4	96
2005	-0.5	-0.5	-0.6	-0.6	-0.6	2.8	4.1	2.9	1.3	0.0	-0.7	-0.5	225
2006	-0.5	-0.6	-0.5	-0.6	-0.8	2.4	2.5	4.6	2.8	-0.1	-0.8	-0.5	242
2007	-0.6	-0.6	-0.6	-0.8	-0.8	2.3	2.9	4.1	2.9	0.3	-0.9	-0.6	239
2008	-0.5	-0.5	-0.6	-0.6	-0.4	3.2	4.4	3.0	1.6	0.1	-0.8	-0.5	252
2009	-0.7	-0.6	-0.6	-0.7	-0.3	4.4	3.7	4.4	2.7	0.1	-0.8	-0.5	333
2010	-0.5	-0.6	-0.5	-0.5	-0.7	3.0	4.9	4.8	2.4	0.6	-0.7	-0.5	360
2011	-0.4	-0.6	-0.6	-0.5	-0.9	3.1	4.7	4.4	2.4	0.3	-1.4	-0.5	308
2012	-0.5	-0.5	-0.6	-0.7	-0.3	3.9	4.9	5.2	3.4	1.0	-0.8	-0.5	444
2013	-0.5	-0.5	-0.6	-0.5	-0.6	3.8	5.1	5.2	3.1	0.7	-0.7	-0.5	424
2014	-0.5	-0.5	-0.6	-0.5	-0.6	4.3	4.4	3.1	3.1	0.1	-0.9	-0.5	330
2015	-0.5	-0.5	-0.6	-0.9	0.2	3.8	3.6	3.8	2.5	0.1	-1.1	-0.5	305
2016	-0.5	-0.5	-0.5	-0.8	0.1	4.3	4.6	4.0	1.7	-0.3	-0.9	-0.5	325
2017	-0.5	-0.5	-0.6	-0.6	-0.6	3.7	4.3	3.5	1.9	-0.1	-0.8	-0.5	283
2018	-0.5	-0.6	-0.5	-0.8	0.5	3.8	3.9	3.2	0.9	-0.1	-0.8	-0.5	264
2019	-0.6	-0.6	-0.5	-0.6	-0.6	2.5	3.4	2.5	1.8	0.2	-0.7	-0.5	197
2020	-0.5	-0.5	-0.4	-0.3	-0.6	1.8	1.6	3.1	1.7	0.2	-0.8	-0.4	146
2021	-0.5	-0.5	-0.5	-0.4	-0.6	2.7	3.0	2.2	1.8	0.4	-0.7	-0.4	200

**Table S1.** Monthly mean and annual net ecosystem production (NEP).

Note: Plain, bold, and italic values were data obtained using an aerodynamic method, an eddy covariance method, and both methods due to a transition period, respectively.

Year	Monthly mean GPP (gC m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )											GPP (gC m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> )	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	Annual
1994	-0.2	-0.2	-0.1	1.4	3.5	6.5	7.7	6.7	5.4	2.8	1.1	0.0	1060
1995	-0.2	-0.1	0.1	0.6	2.2	4.7	6.2	6.1	4.7	2.2	0.5	0.0	831
1996	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	2.6	6.5	7.9	6.6	4.9	2.1	0.6	0.1	984
1997	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.6	2.8	5.8	7.2	7.1	5.5	2.0	0.9	0.2	990
1998	0.0	0.2	0.1	1.8	5.0	8.3	7.9	5.6	4.0	1.4	0.6	0.1	1073
1999	0.0	-0.1	0.1	0.8	2.2	5.8	7.8	6.7	5.6	2.5	0.8	0.2	990
2000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	2.1	6.7	9.4	8.4	6.1	2.7	0.4	0.1	1115
2001	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.1	2.6	7.2	9.5	7.5	5.7	2.0	0.7	0.1	1113
2002	0.0	-0.1	0.1	0.7	2.6	9.0	8.6	8.5	5.6	2.3	0.3	0.1	1157
2003	-0.1	-0.1	0.0	0.6	2.3	7.8	8.5	7.6	5.8	1.8	0.7	0.2	1081
2004	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.1	2.3	6.7	8.0	6.9	2.1	1.6	0.8	0.3	918
2005	0.0	0.0	0.1	1.1	1.8	7.0	8.6	6.6	4.8	2.1	0.7	0.0	1011
2006	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.6	1.9	6.4	6.7	8.5	6.2	2.2	0.7	0.2	1028
2007	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.4	1.7	6.3	7.2	8.0	6.5	2.4	0.6	0.1	1023
2008	0.0	0.0	0.1	1.0	2.5	7.2	8.8	6.8	5.0	2.3	0.6	0.2	1055
2009	-0.1	0.0	0.1	1.0	2.8	8.5	8.2	8.1	5.9	2.3	0.8	0.2	1153
2010	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.8	2.0	7.1	9.4	8.8	6.0	2.8	0.8	0.2	1166
2011	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.7	1.9	7.3	9.2	8.2	5.9	2.5	0.4	0.1	1109
2012	0.0	0.1	0.1	1.0	2.3	7.9	9.4	9.0	6.9	3.1	0.5	0.1	1235
2013	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.8	2.3	7.9	9.5	9.0	6.5	3.1	0.7	0.1	1224
2014	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	2.2	8.3	8.7	6.8	6.2	2.3	0.7	0.1	1117
2015	0.0	0.1	0.1	1.0	3.5	7.7	8.0	7.6	5.7	2.2	0.6	0.2	1122
2016	0.1	0.0	0.2	1.1	3.5	8.3	8.9	7.9	5.2	2.0	0.6	0.1	1158
2017	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.8	2.4	7.7	8.8	7.3	5.2	2.1	0.7	0.1	1073
2018	0.0	0.0	0.2	1.4	3.7	7.9	8.4	7.1	4.2	2.1	0.8	0.1	1100
2019	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.8	2.4	6.5	7.8	6.4	5.3	2.6	0.8	0.2	1012
2020	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.8	2.5	6.0	5.8	7.1	5.2	2.2	0.8	0.2	952
2021	0.1	0.1	0.3	1.1	2.4	6.9	7.4	5.9	5.1	2.6	0.7	0.2	1006

Table S2. Same as Table S1, but for gross primary production (GPP).

Year	Monthly mean Rec (gC m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )												Rec (gC m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> )
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	Annual
1994	0.6	0.5	0.6	1.8	2.6	3.9	4.5	3.9	3.5	2.1	1.6	0.6	804
1995	0.5	0.5	0.6	1.4	2.6	3.9	4.3	3.9	3.1	2.2	1.2	0.6	758
1996	0.5	0.5	0.6	1.2	2.5	4.0	4.4	3.7	3.1	2.0	1.5	0.6	755
1997	0.5	0.6	0.7	1.5	2.7	4.0	4.3	3.7	3.2	1.9	1.6	0.7	773
1998	0.6	0.6	0.7	2.5	3.3	4.1	4.3	3.7	3.5	2.4	1.5	0.7	851
1999	0.6	0.6	0.7	1.5	2.8	4.1	4.4	3.8	3.6	2.2	1.5	0.6	802
2000	0.6	0.5	0.6	1.2	2.8	4.1	4.5	3.9	3.6	2.2	1.7	0.7	803
2001	0.6	0.6	0.7	1.7	2.9	4.1	4.5	3.7	3.3	2.2	1.5	0.6	804
2002	0.6	0.6	0.8	1.8	2.7	4.0	4.5	3.8	3.3	2.1	1.2	0.6	799
2003	0.6	0.6	0.7	1.8	2.9	4.1	4.2	3.9	3.4	1.9	1.7	0.6	805
2004	0.5	0.6	0.7	1.8	3.0	4.2	4.5	3.7	3.5	2.2	1.6	0.7	822
2005	0.6	0.6	0.6	1.7	2.4	4.2	4.4	3.7	3.4	2.2	1.4	0.5	785
2006	0.5	0.6	0.6	1.2	2.7	4.1	4.2	3.9	3.4	2.3	1.5	0.7	786
2007	0.6	0.6	0.7	1.2	2.5	4.0	4.3	3.9	3.6	2.1	1.4	0.7	784
2008	0.6	0.5	0.7	1.6	2.9	4.0	4.4	3.8	3.3	2.2	1.5	0.7	803
2009	0.6	0.7	0.7	1.7	3.1	4.1	4.5	3.7	3.2	2.2	1.6	0.7	820
2010	0.6	0.6	0.7	1.3	2.7	4.2	4.5	4.0	3.5	2.3	1.4	0.7	806
2011	0.5	0.6	0.6	1.3	2.8	4.2	4.5	3.8	3.5	2.2	1.7	0.6	800
2012	0.5	0.6	0.7	1.7	2.6	4.0	4.4	3.8	3.5	2.1	1.3	0.6	791
2013	0.5	0.5	0.7	1.3	2.9	4.1	4.4	3.8	3.4	2.4	1.4	0.6	800
2014	0.6	0.6	0.7	1.5	2.7	4.1	4.4	3.7	3.2	2.2	1.6	0.6	786
2015	0.6	0.6	0.7	1.9	3.3	4.0	4.4	3.8	3.2	2.0	1.7	0.7	817
2016	0.6	0.6	0.7	1.9	3.4	4.0	4.4	3.8	3.5	2.3	1.5	0.6	833
2017	0.6	0.5	0.6	1.4	3.0	3.9	4.5	3.8	3.3	2.2	1.4	0.6	790
2018	0.5	0.6	0.7	2.1	3.2	4.1	4.6	3.9	3.3	2.1	1.6	0.7	836
2019	0.6	0.6	0.7	1.4	3.0	4.0	4.3	3.9	3.5	2.4	1.6	0.7	814
2020	0.6	0.6	0.7	1.1	3.1	4.1	4.2	4.0	3.5	2.1	1.6	0.6	807
2021	0.6	0.6	0.8	1.5	2.9	4.1	4.4	3.8	3.4	2.2	1.5	0.6	806

**Table S3.** Same as Table S1, but for ecosystem respiration (Rec).