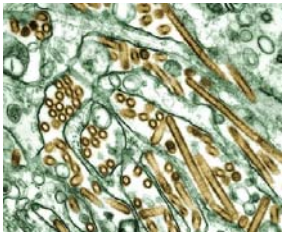


Oklahoma Ecological Observatory: *Its Contribution to the NASA GeoCarb Mission*

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Oklahoma Ecological Observatory

Infrastructure for *In-situ* observatory

iGOS Integrated Grassland Observation Site

CO₂, H₂O, CH₄, & N₂O
Eddy Flux Tower

Weather
Station



Space-borne RS



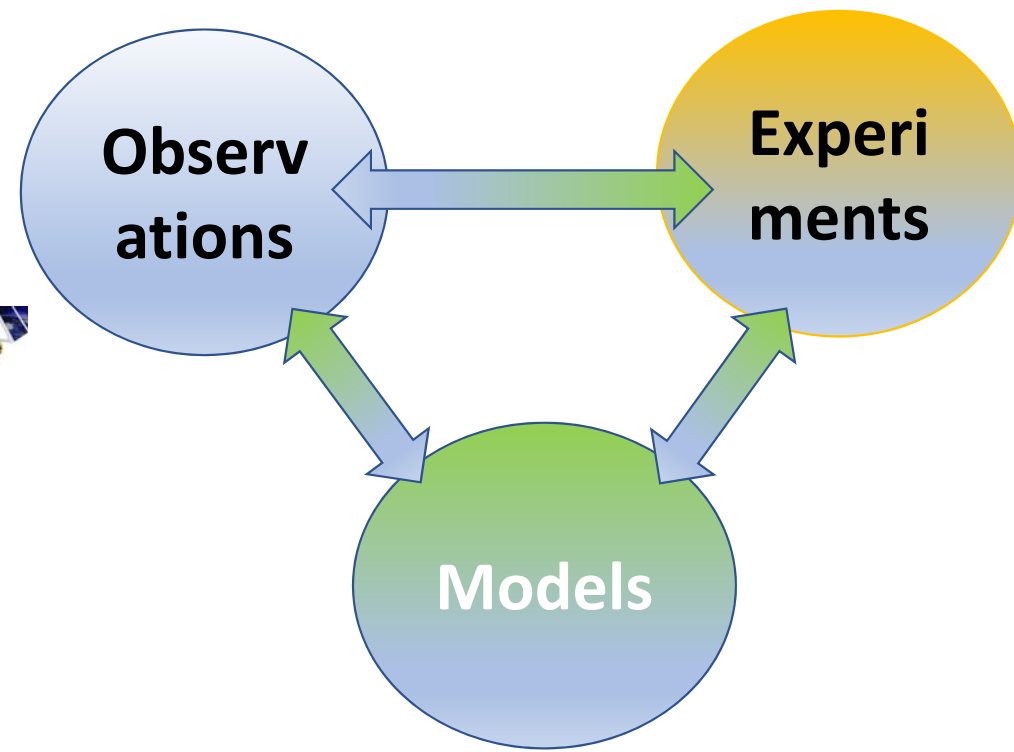
Airborne RS



UAV RS

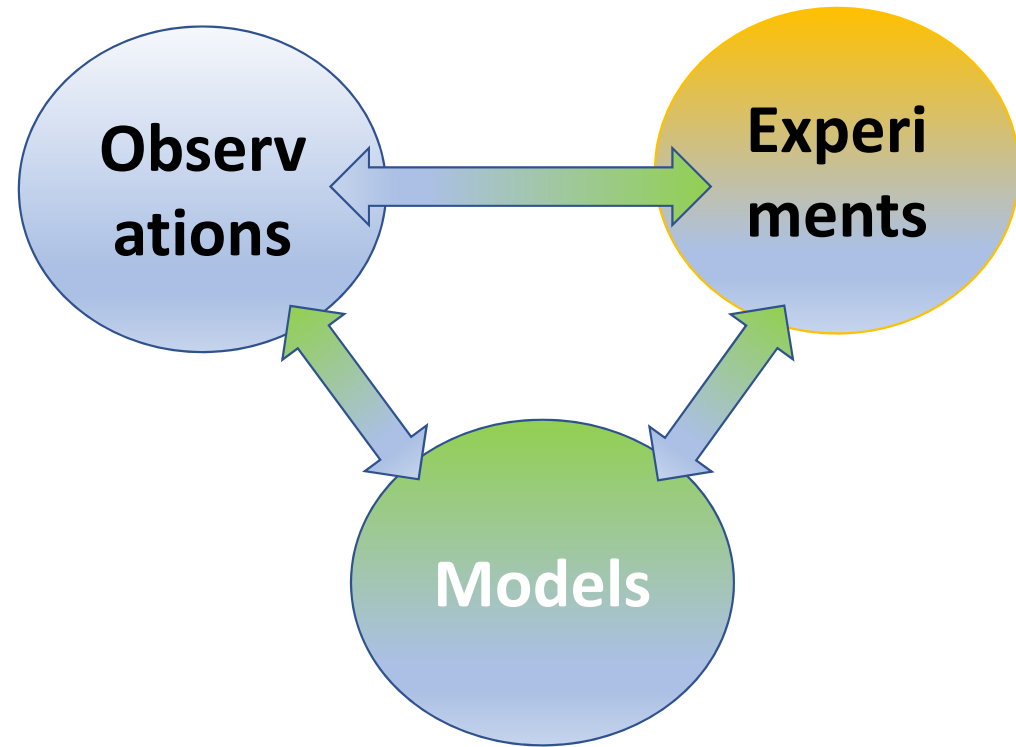
Thermal
Camera

COSMOS
Soil Moisture

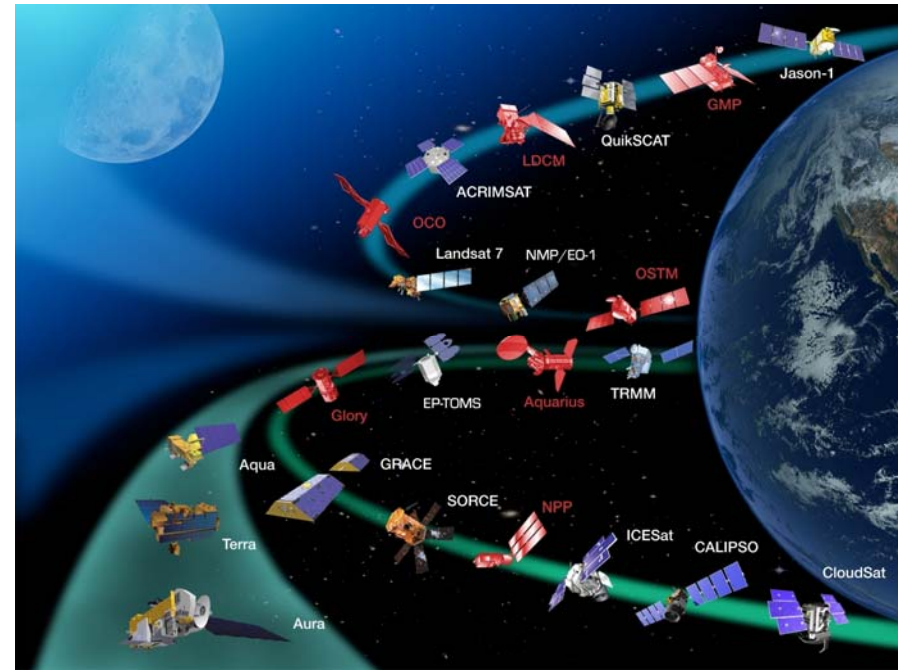
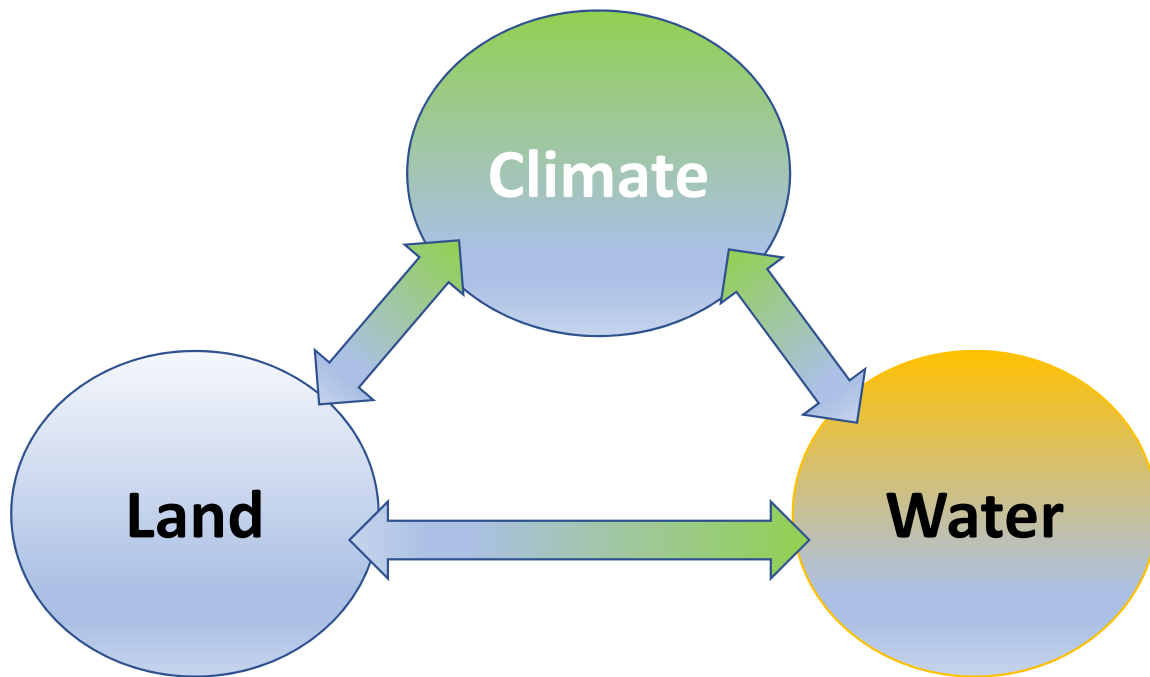


Oklahoma Ecological Observatory

Infrastructure for large-scale mapping and monitoring from space



Oklahoma Ecological Observatory

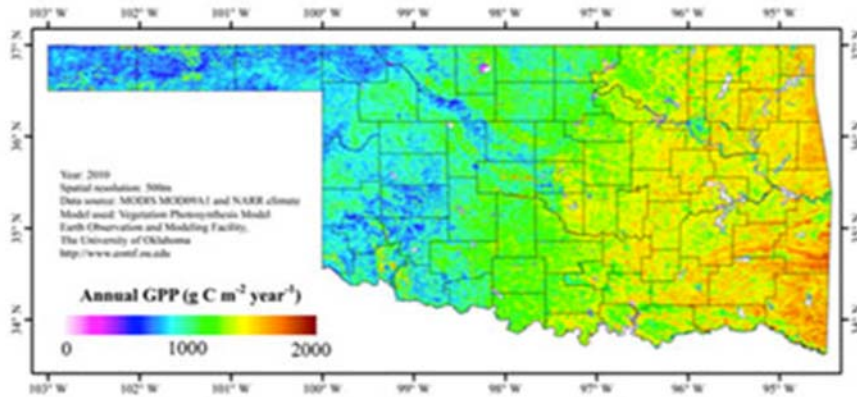


To develop state-wide geospatial data products for natural resources in Oklahoma

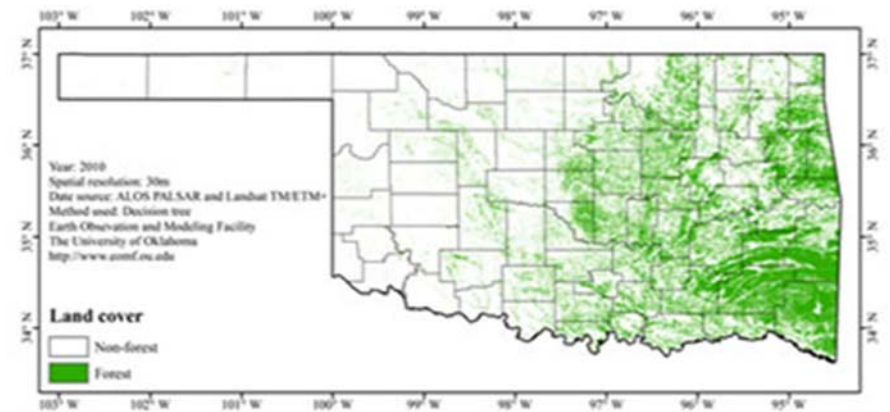
Oklahoma Ecological Observatory

Oklahoma state-wide land and water datasets from remote sensing

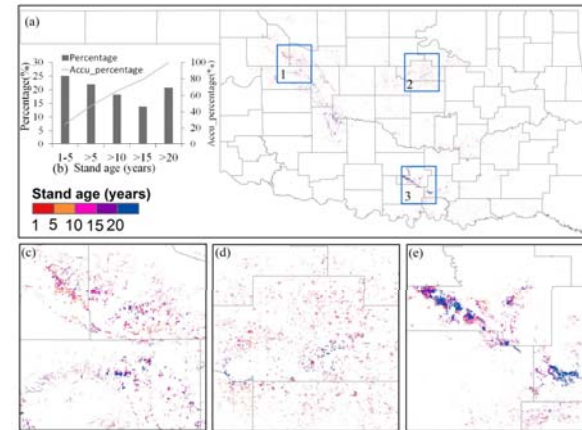
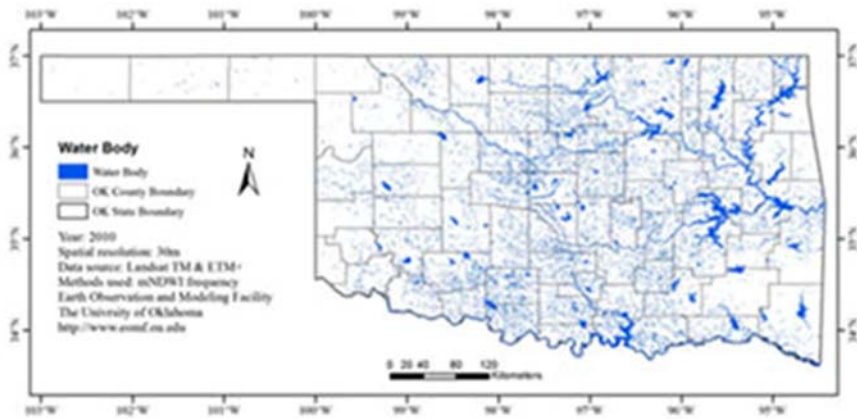
Gross primary production (2000-2015)



Forest cover in 2010 (Landsat, PALSAR)



Open surface water bodies (1984-2015)



Woody plant encroachment (1984-2010)

Open surface water bodies in Oklahoma

Science of the Total Environment xxx (2017) xxx-xxx

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Continued decrease of open surface water body area in Oklahoma during 1984–2015

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ABSTRACT

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Oklahoma contains the largest number of manmade lakes and reservoirs in the United States. Despite the importance of these open surface water bodies to public water supply, agriculture, thermoelectric power, tourism and recreation, it is unclear how these water bodies have responded to climate change and anthropogenic water exploitation in past decades. In this study, we used all available Landsat 5 and 7 images (16,000 scenes) from 1984 through 2015 and a water index- and pixel-based approach to analyze the spatial-temporal variability of open surface water bodies and its relationship with climate and water exploitation. Specifically, the areas and numbers of four water body extents (the maximum, year-long, seasonal, and average extents) were analyzed to capture variations in water body area and number. Statistically significant downward trends were found in the maximum, year-long, and annual average water body areas from 1984 through 2015. Furthermore, these decreases were mainly attributed to the continued shrinking of large water bodies (> 1 km²). There were also significant decreases in maximum and year-long water body numbers, which suggested that some of the water bodies were vanishing year by year. However, remarkable inter-annual variations of water body area and number were also found. Both water body area and number were positively related to precipitation, and negatively related to temperature. Surface water withdrawals mainly influenced the year-long water bodies. The smaller water bodies have a higher risk of drying under a drier climate, which suggests that small water bodies are more vulnerable under climate-warming scenarios.

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1. Introduction

Climate change and increased climate variability can strongly impact surface water resources (Aherne et al., 2006; Ferguson and Maxwell, 2012; Tulbure et al., 2016), causing dramatic intra-annual and inter-annual water variability (Hall et al., 2014; Mercier et al., 2002), which has been shown to have wide-ranging consequences on human societies and ecosystems (Bates et al., 2008; Brown and Lall, 2006). Previous studies using remote sensing approaches have documented strong relationships between water body extent (area and number) with both climate variability and anthropogenic impacts of water resources (Liu et al., 2013; Pekel et al., 2016; Tao et al., 2015; Tulbure and Broich, 2013; Tulbure et al., 2014).

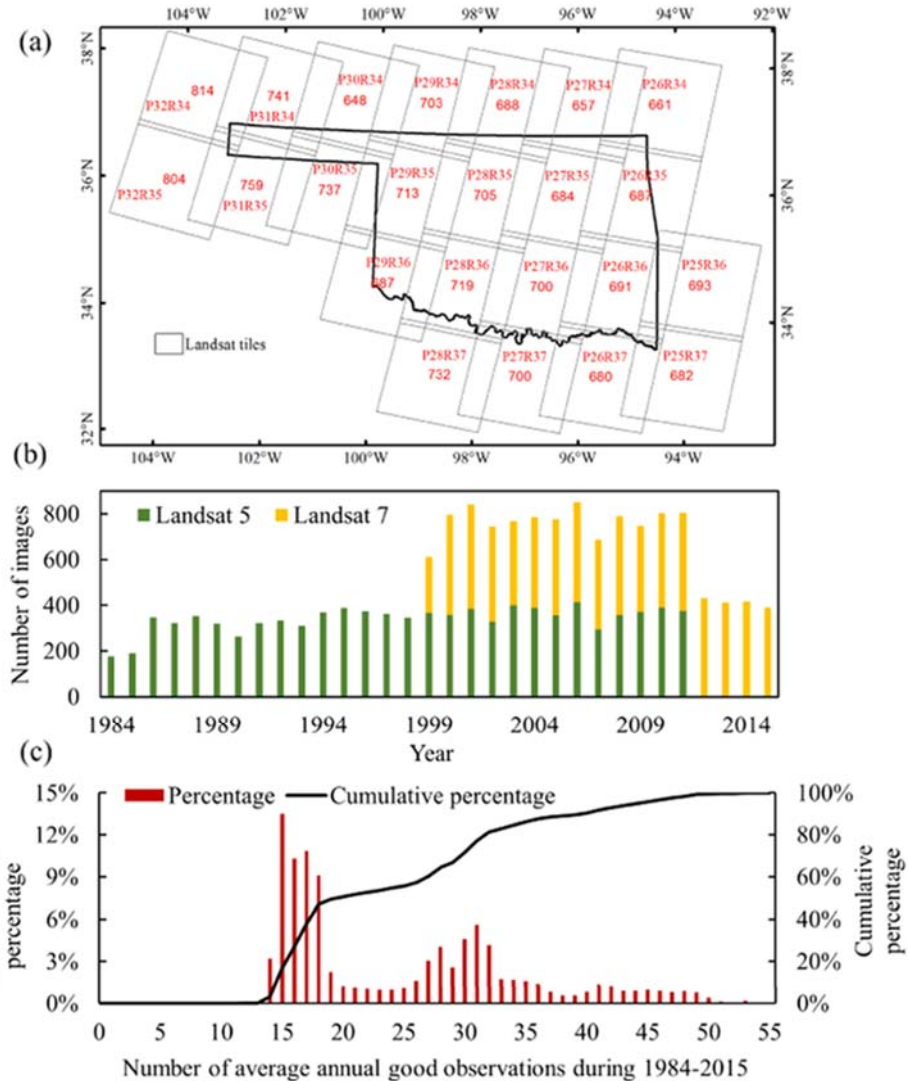
Water body monitoring with remote sensing techniques has advanced along with an increase in freely available, high-resolution satellite data. Many approaches were developed primarily based on Landsat spectral bands, water indices and decision tree classification algorithms (Fisher et al., 2016; Mueller et al., 2016; Tulbure and Broich, 2013). First, many water indices were defined to delineate

water bodies with emphases on different features (Bhagat and Sonawane, 2011; Boland, 1976; Crist, 1985; Gond et al., 2004; McFeeters, 1996; Rouse et al., 1974; Shine and Mesev, 2007; Xiao et al., 2002; Xu, 2006) (see supplementary online material 1 (SOM 1)). For example, McFeeters (1996) defined the Normalized Difference Water Index (NDWI) using green and near infrared band to delineate open water features. Xu (2006) modified the NDWI into mNDWI by replacing the near infrared band with short-wave infrared band to suppress the noise of built-up land. mNDWI is one of the most widely used water indices due to its good performance in water body delineation across diverse landscapes (Du et al., 2012; Feyisa et al., 2014; Hui et al., 2008; Ogilvie et al., 2015; Tao et al., 2015).

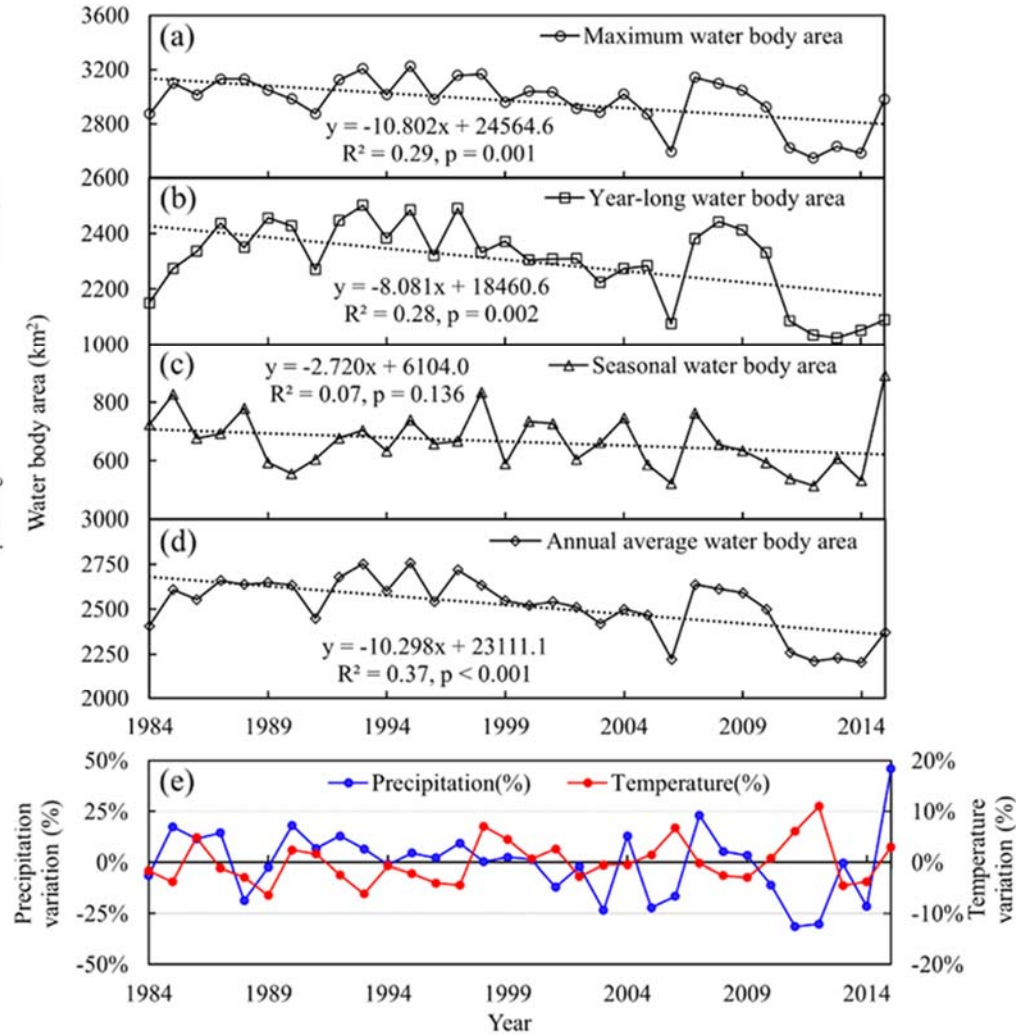
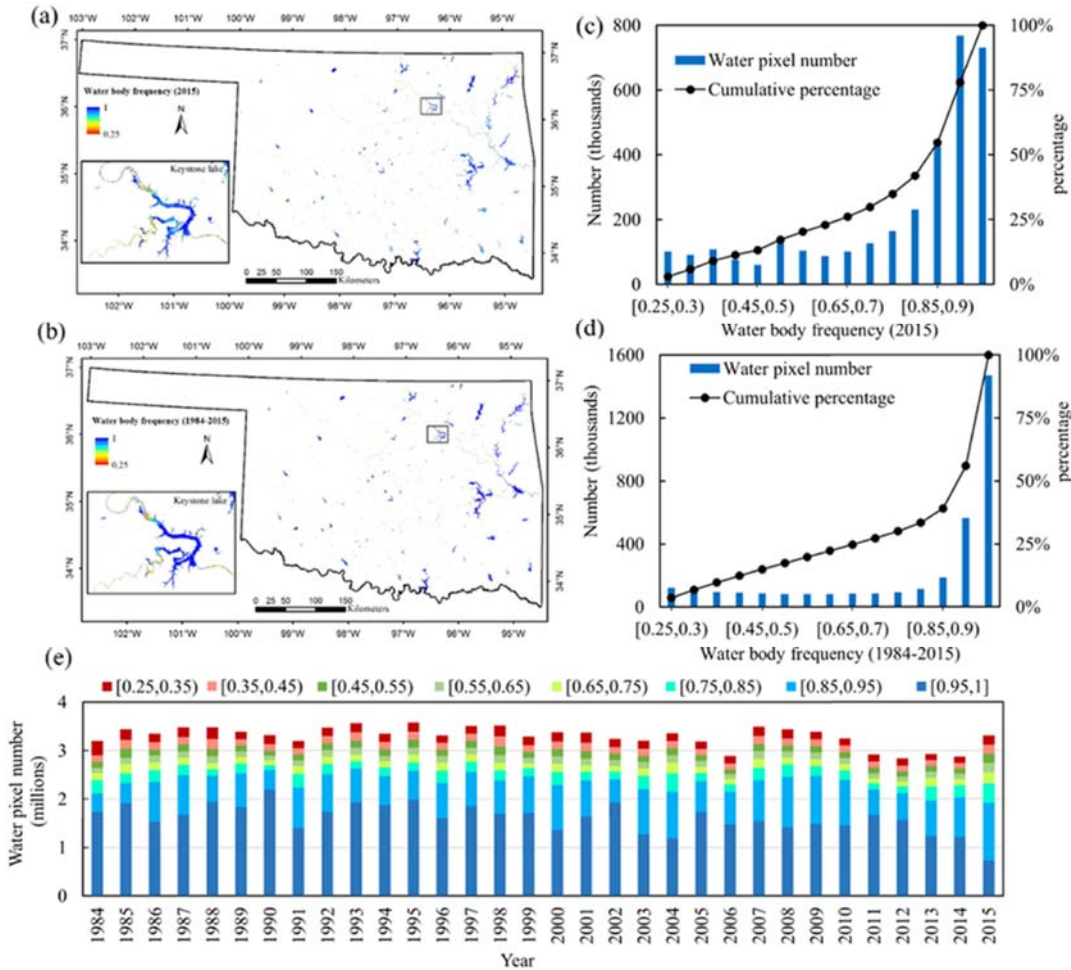
Second, previous remote sensing approaches have inconsistent capabilities of capturing water body variability. Many surface water bodies have strong intra-annual dynamics, during for example, wet and dry seasons (Aldorf et al., 2007; Tulbure and Broich, 2013). But some studies estimated water body extent from satellite images gathered at a single time of the year, typically in the wet season (Feng et al., 2011; Homer et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2013). However, it is difficult to define the proper period due to uncertainties in intra-annual variability of climate and anthropogenic effects. Some studies compared the difference of water body area between the same time of selected years to indicate the increasing or decreasing trends of water body area among those years (Du et al., 2012; Homer et al., 2015;

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16,000 Landsat 5 & 7 images



Annual dynamics of open surface water bodies (areas and numbers) over 1984-2015 in Oklahoma



Annual dynamics of woody plant encroachment in Oklahoma during 2000-2010

Remote Sensing of Environment 190 (2017) 233–246

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Mapping the dynamics of eastern redcedar encroachment into grasslands during 1984–2010 through PALSAR and time series Landsat images



Jie Wang^a, Xiangming Xiao^{a,b,*}, Yuanwei Qin^a, Jinwei Dong^a, George Geissler^c, Geli Zhang^a, Nicholas Cejda^a, Brian Alikhani^a, Russell B. Dougherty^a

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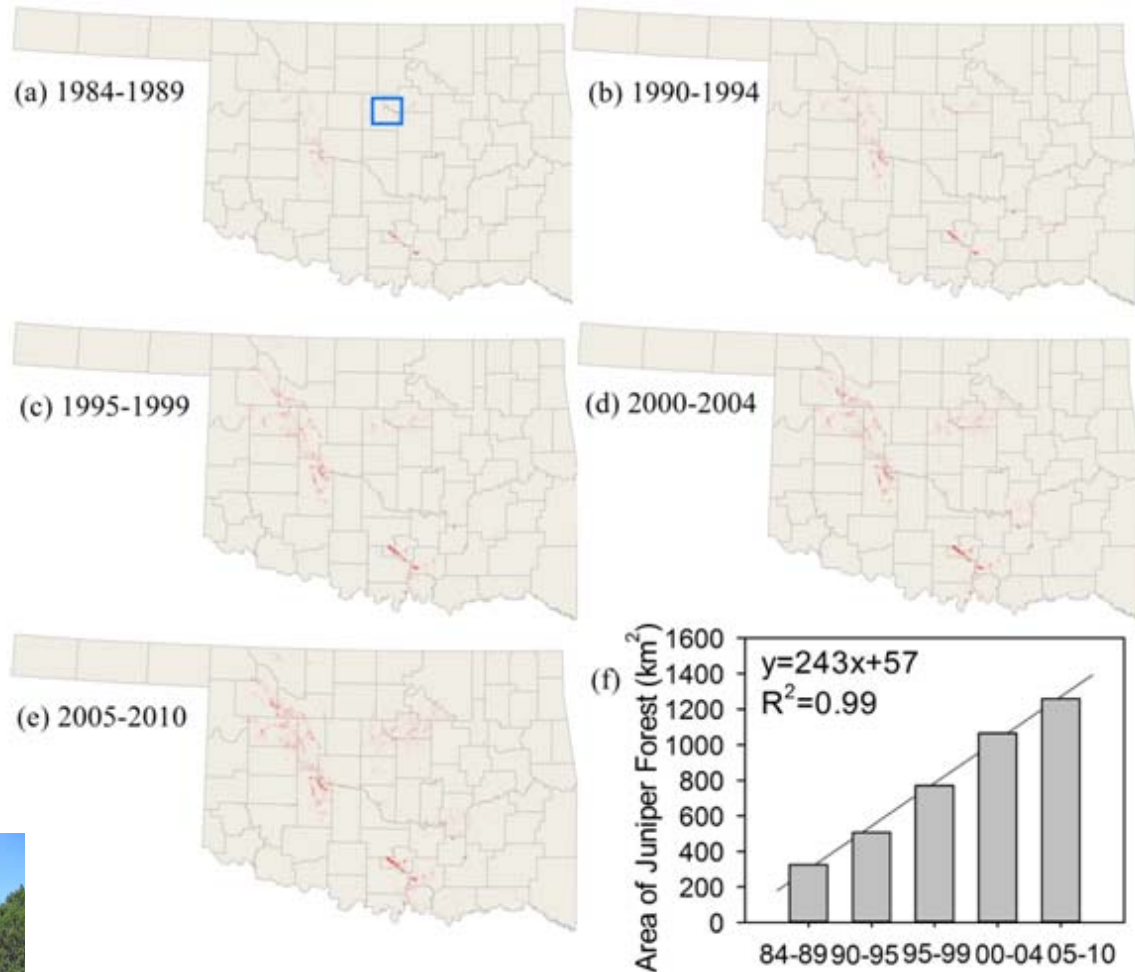
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ABSTRACT

Woody plant encroachment of eastern redcedar (*Juniperus virginiana* L., hereafter referred to as "red cedar") into native grasslands in the U.S. Southern Great Plains has significantly affected the production of forage and livestock wildlife habitats, as well as water, carbon, nutrient and biogeochemical cycles. However, time series of

- Juniper forests in Oklahoma have expanded linearly at an annual rate of ~40 km²/year between 1984 - 2010 with notable spatial clusters in its expansion process.

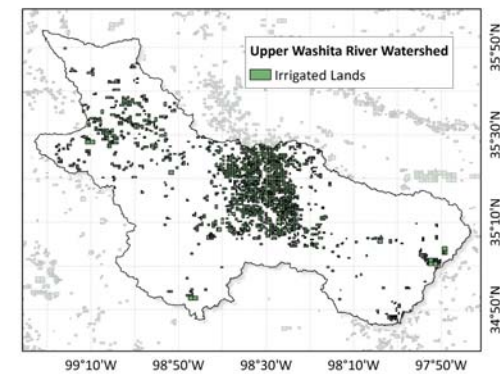
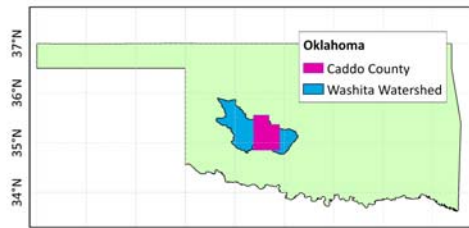


Eastern redcedar and other juniper forests



Annual dynamics of gross and net primary production (GPP and NPP) of croplands and grasslands in Oklahoma during 2000-2015

GPP, NPP --- >> forage biomass and grain yields

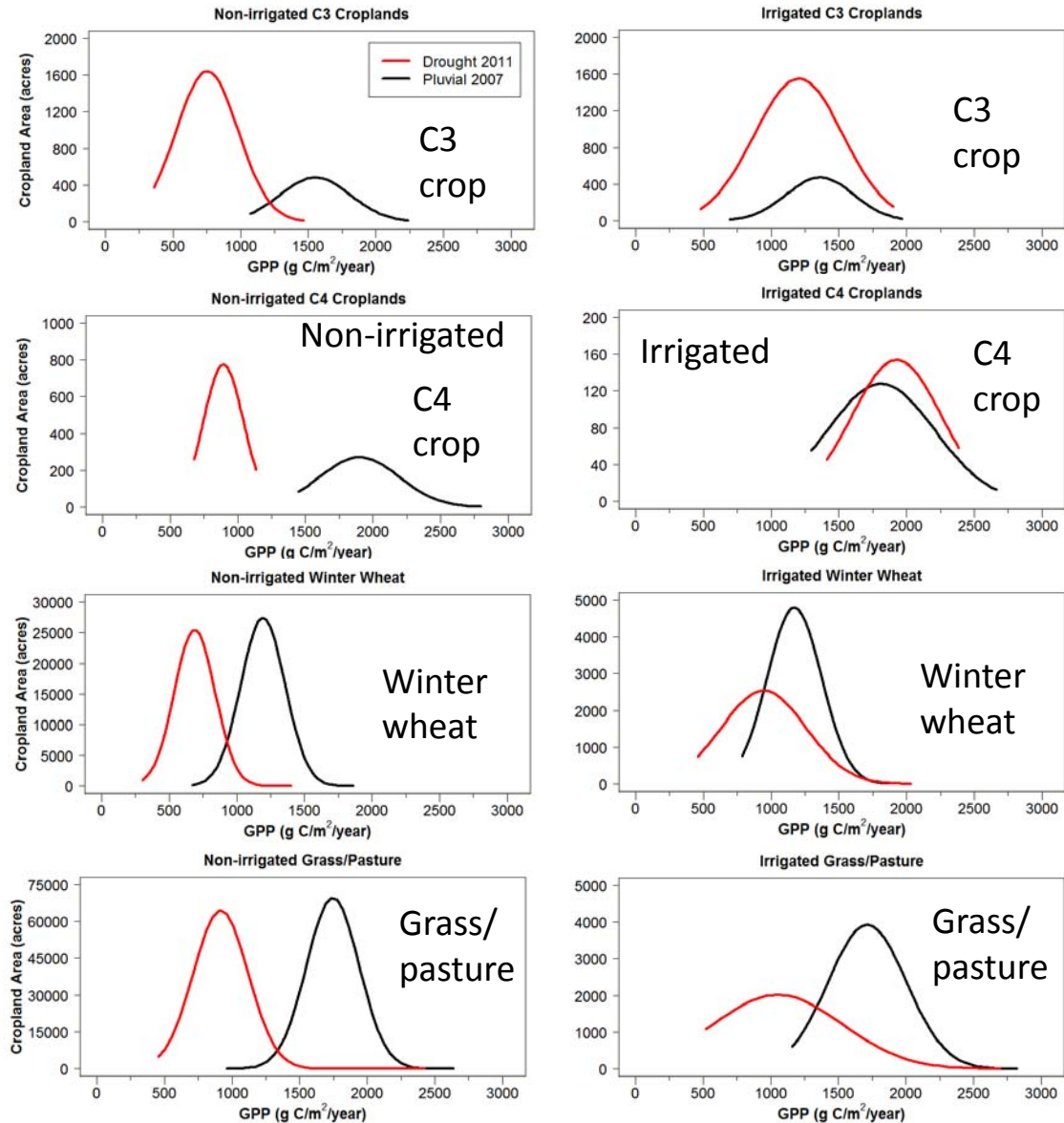


Histogram of annual GPP by crop, grass and pasture fields in Caddo county

Drought year 2011 (red line)

Pluvial year 2007 (black line)

See Doughty et al., Poster#3





geoCARB – Geostationary Carbon Cycle Observatory

Science Goal and Objectives

The **geoCARB Mission Goal** is to provide observations and demonstrate methods to realize a *transformational* advance in our scientific understanding of the global carbon cycle.



Science Objectives. geoCARB significantly improves knowledge of terrestrial fluxes of CO₂ and CH₄ at science and policy relevant scales, addressing 6 hypotheses (and enabling investigation of many more):

1. How do CO₂ emissions from cities scale with population? Do bigger cities emit less CO₂ per capita?
2. How do CO₂ fossil fuel emissions over the CONUS compare with its biotic (biological) uptake?
3. How does variation in (vegetation) productivity control spatial patterns of terrestrial CO₂ uptake?
4. To what extent is Amazonia a CO₂ sink?
5. To what extent is Amazonia a CH₄ source?
6. Are CH₄ emissions estimates over CONUS too low?

Global Carbon Dioxide Balance and Variability



Carbon Dioxide, CO ₂		Methane, CH ₄	
1959	316 ppm	1984	1656 ppb
May 2015	404 ppm	Mar 2015	1827 ppb

Atmospheric CO₂ and CH₄ levels have continued to rise in the industrial era. geoCARB will significantly advance scientific knowledge of CO₂ and CH₄ sources, sinks, and evolution over the Americas.

Importance to NASA:

- Pace-setting science important to society
- Measures both CO₂ and CH₄
- Geostationary complement to OCO-2 at LEO
- Ties to ASCENDS, GEOCAPE, GACM Missions proposed in the 2007 Decadal Survey by measuring CO₂ and CO
- Addresses 4 of the 7 overarching NASA Earth Science goals: 1) Atmospheric Composition, 3) Carbon Cycle and Ecosystems, 5) Climate Variability and Change, and 7) Applied Science

Precision Continental-Scale Measurements of both Carbon Dioxide and Methane



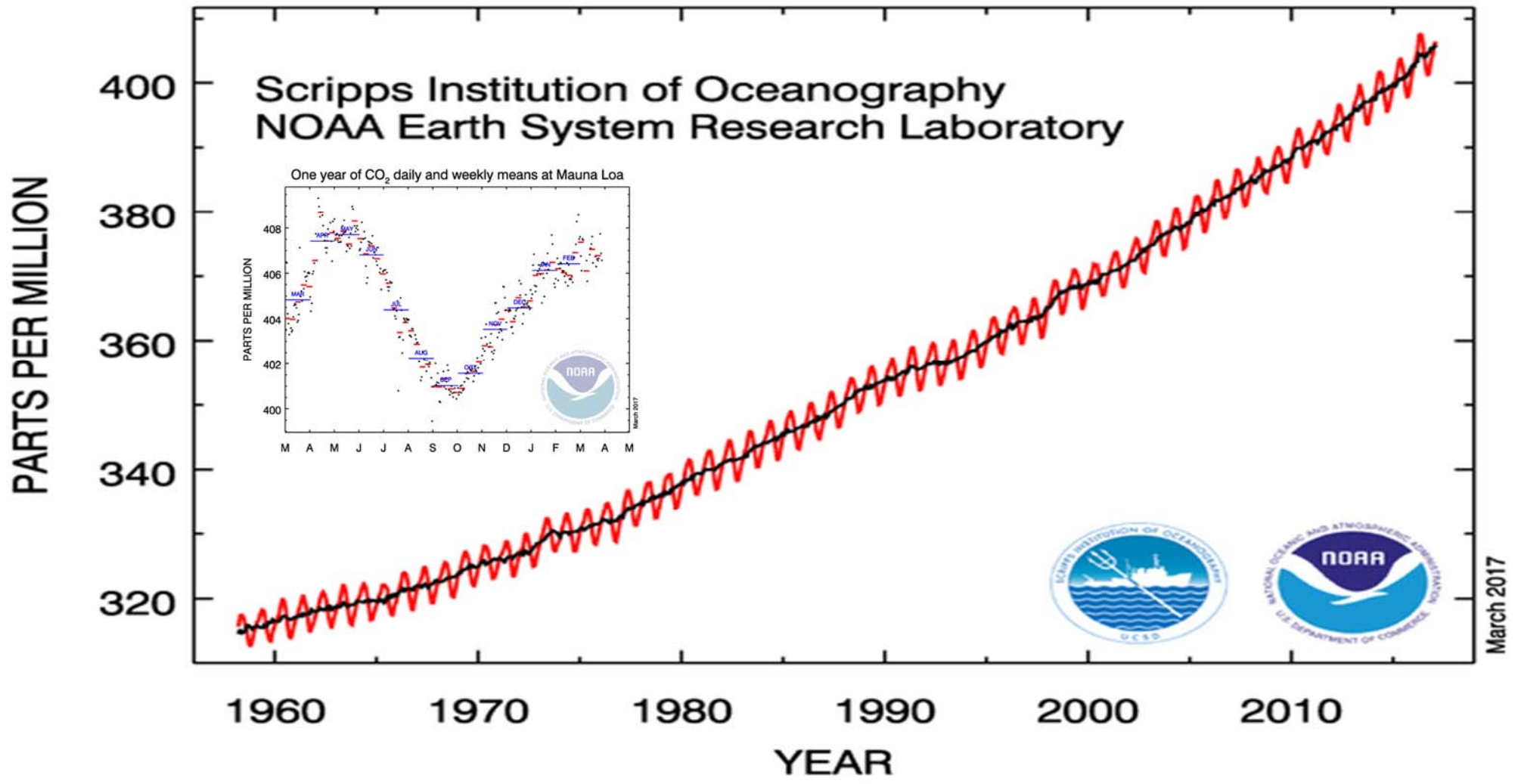
In 12/2016, NASA selected the GeoCarb mission.

It is a 5-year project and the mission is planned to be launched in late 2021 or early 2022.

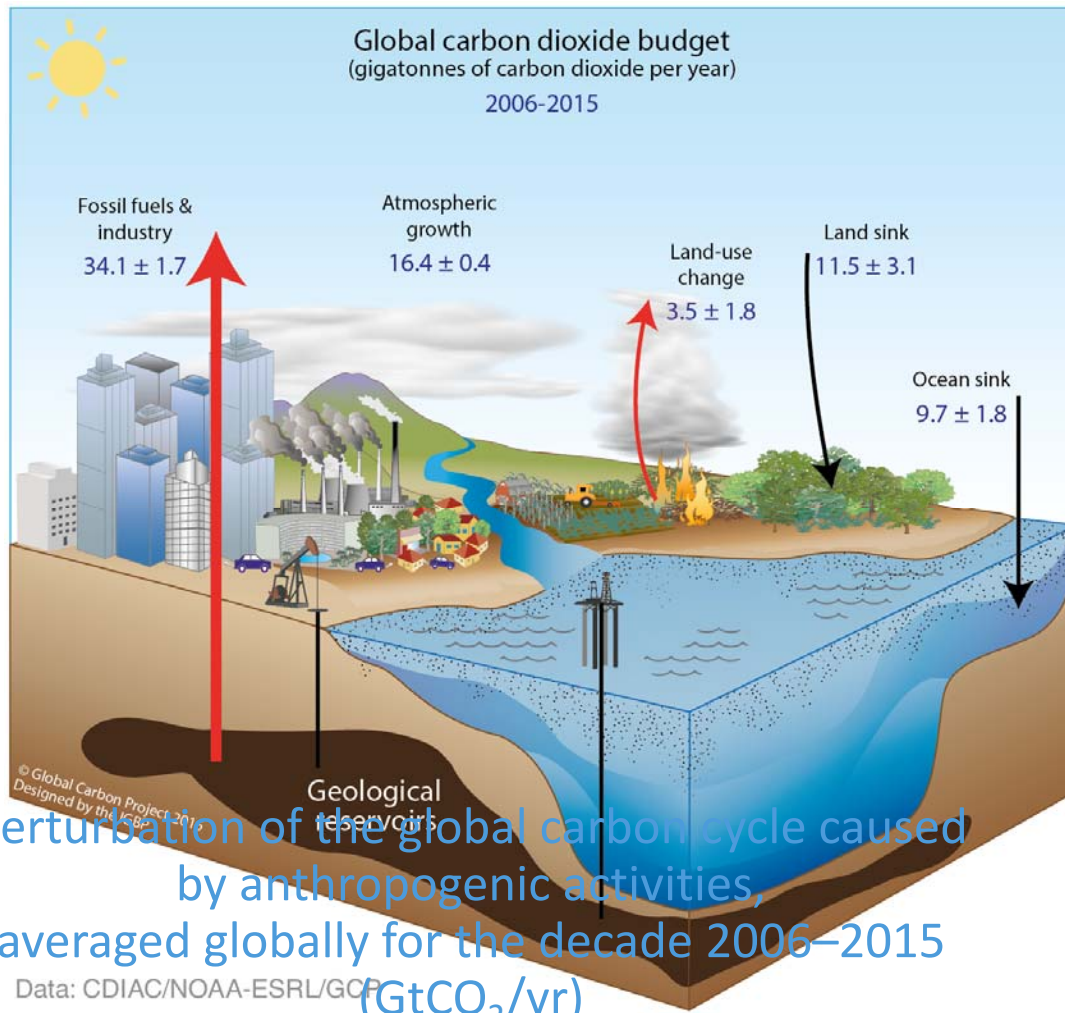
\$166 million investment over 2017-2022.

PI: Berrien Moore

Atmospheric CO₂ at Mauna Loa Observatory

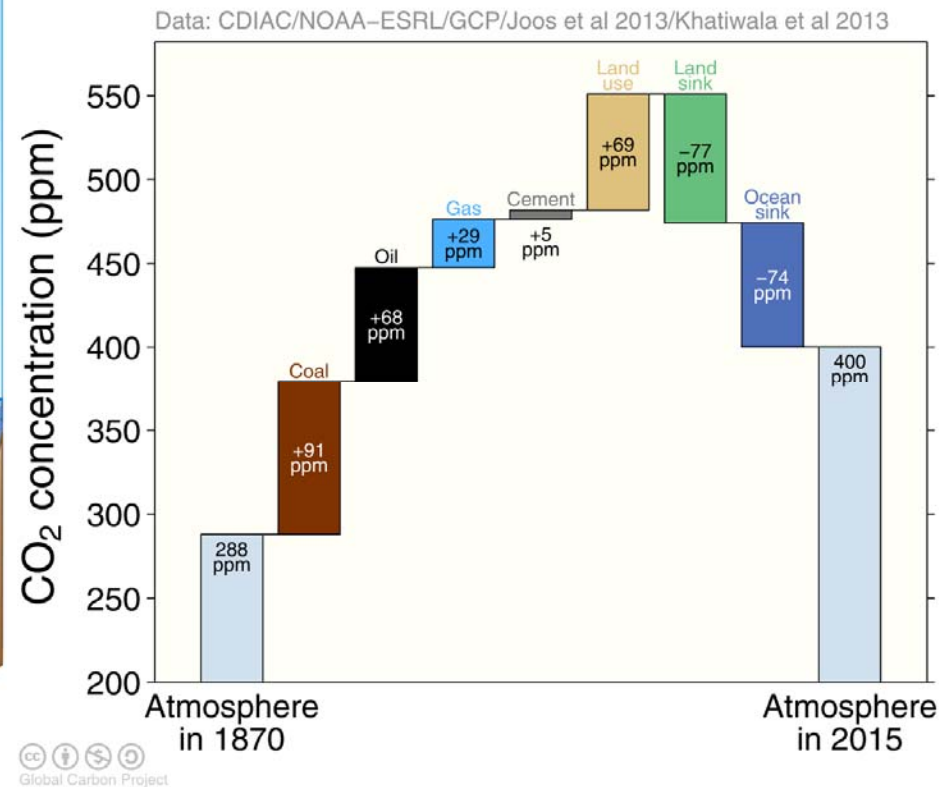


Anthropogenic perturbation of the global carbon cycle



Perturbation of the global carbon cycle caused by anthropogenic activities, averaged globally for the decade 2006–2015 (GtCO₂/yr)

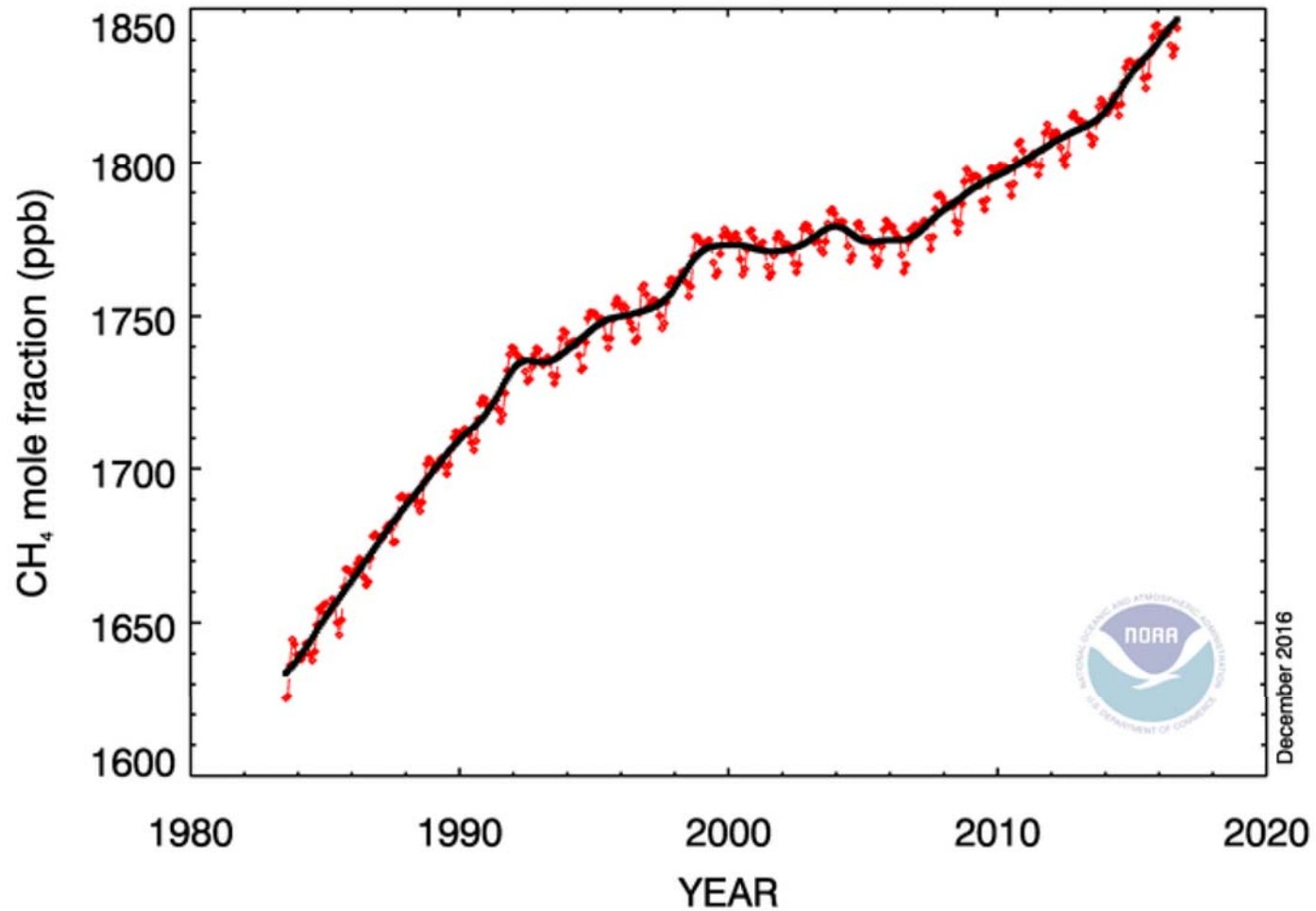
Data: CDIAC/NOAA-ESRL/GCP



CDIAC; NOAA-ESRL; Le Quéré et al 2016; Global Carbon Budget 2016

Atmospheric CH₄ concentration

GLOBAL MONTHLY MEAN CH₄



What factor(s) drove the large increases in atmospheric CH₄ concentration after mid 2000s?

GLOBAL METHANE BUDGET

TOTAL EMISSIONS

558
(540-568)

CH₄ ATMOSPHERIC
GROWTH RATE
10
(9.4-10.6)

TOTAL SINKS

548
(529-555)

105
(77-133)

188
(115-243)

34
(15-53)

167
(127-202)

64
(21-132)

515
(510-583)

33
(28-38)

Fossil fuel
production and use

Agriculture and waste

Biomass
burning

Wetlands

Other natural
emissions

Geological, lakes, termites,
oceans, permafrost

Sink from
chemical reactions
in the atmosphere

Sink in soils

EMISSIONS BY SOURCE

In million-tons of CH₄ per year (Tg CH₄ / yr), average 2003-2012

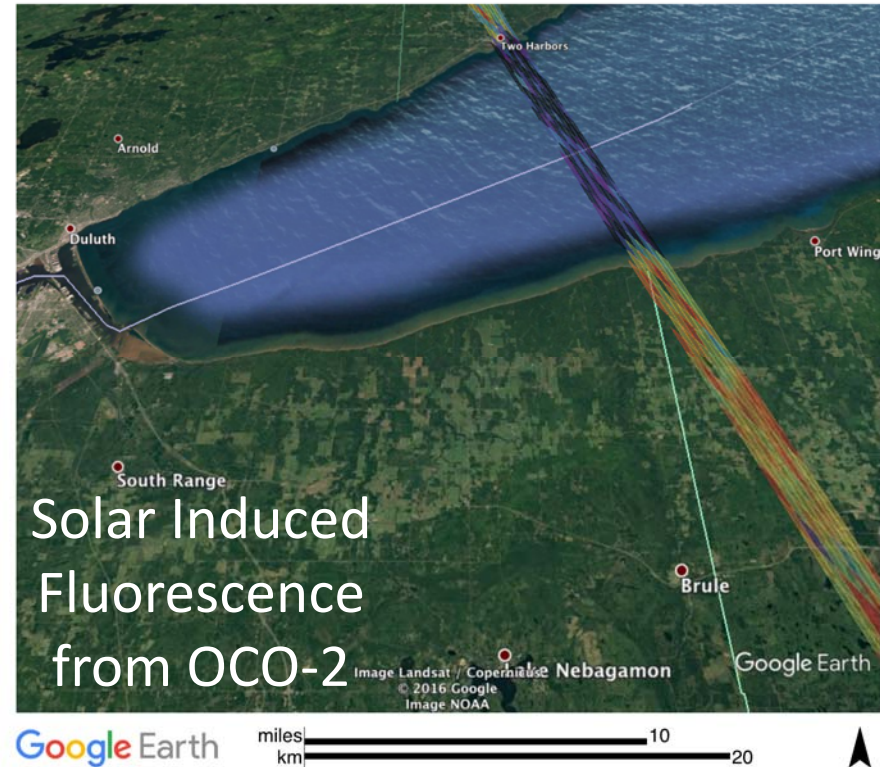
▶ Anthropogenic fluxes
 ▶ Natural fluxes
 ▶ Natural and anthropogenic



Observations from space

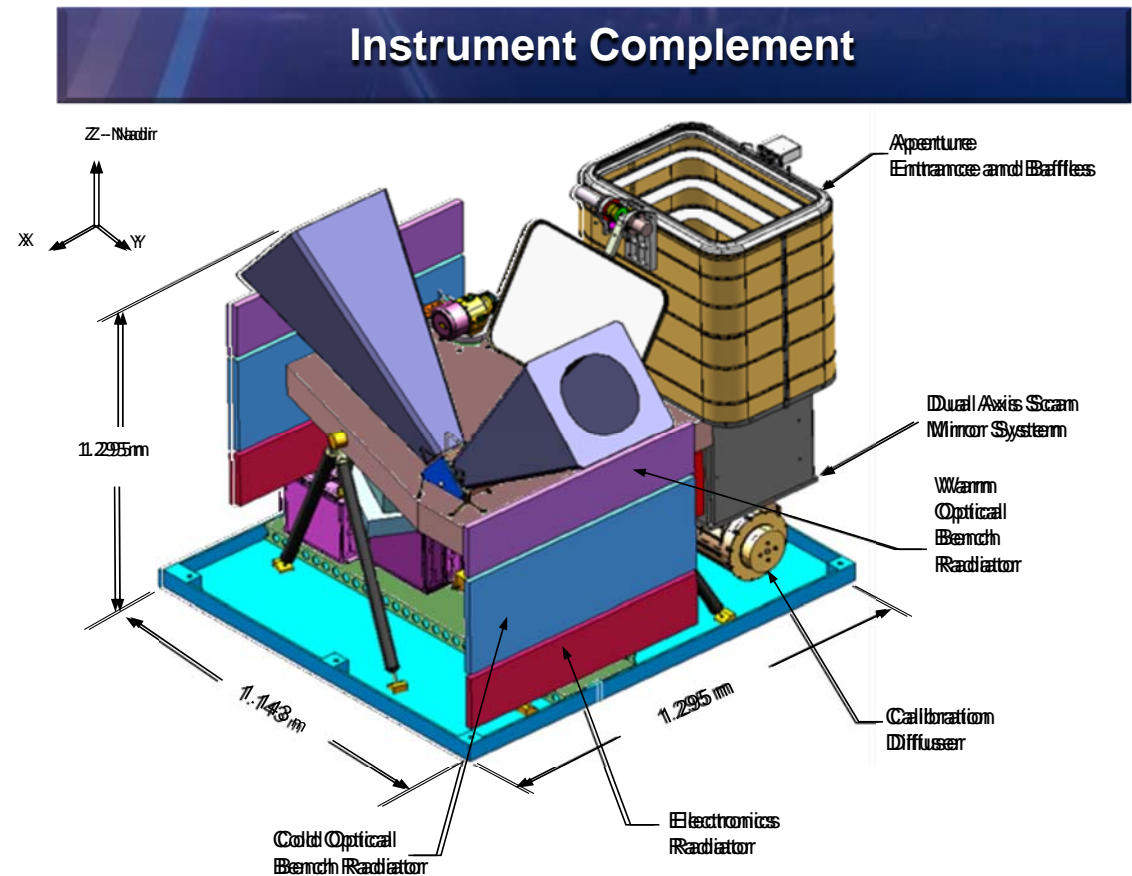
Atmospheric CO₂, CH₄ and SIF data from analyses of satellite images and *in-situ* observations

GOSAT, SCHIMARCH, OCO-2 missions
(*sampling missions*)



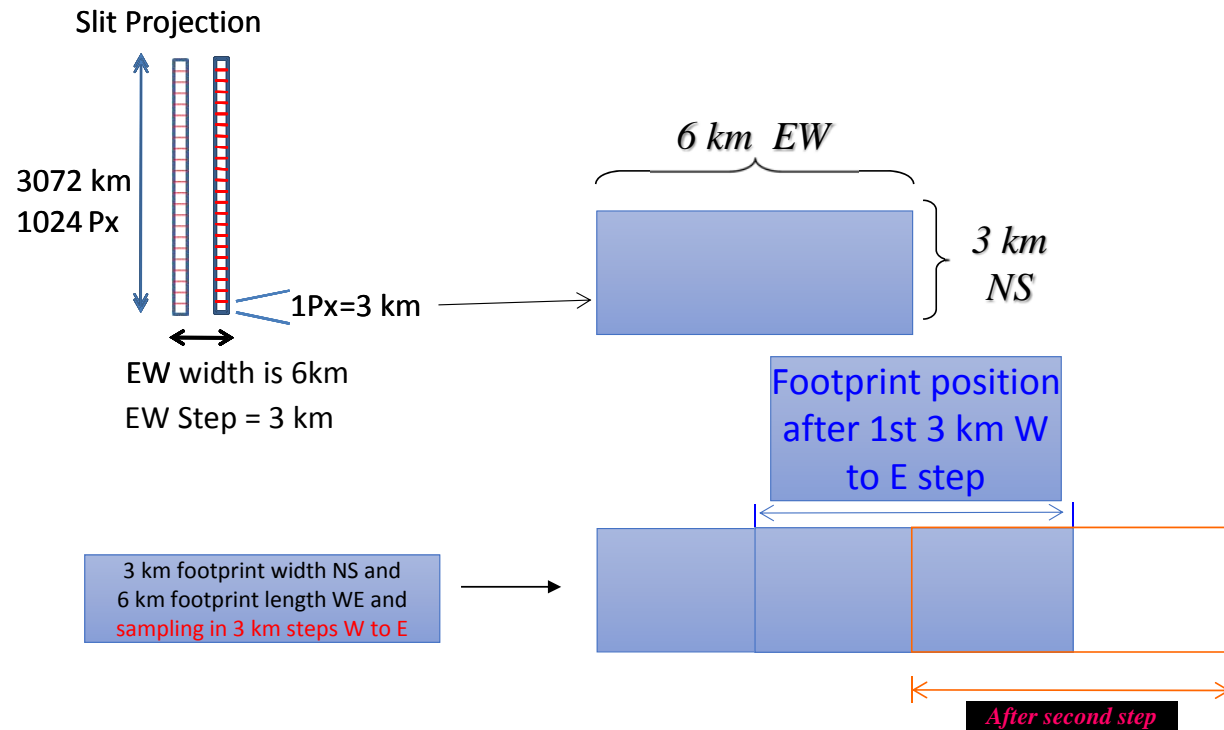
A Geostationary Solution – geoCARB

- Measures CO, CO₂, O₂, CH₄, and SIF
- Scanning IR slit spectrometer:
 - 0.76 μm (O₂ and SIF)
 - 1.61 μm & 2.06 μm (CO₂)
 - 2.32 μm (CH₄ and CO)
- 3 km resolution (at SSP)
- Multiple Scans per day – flexible scanning strategies to meet different goals



NASA GeoCarb mission

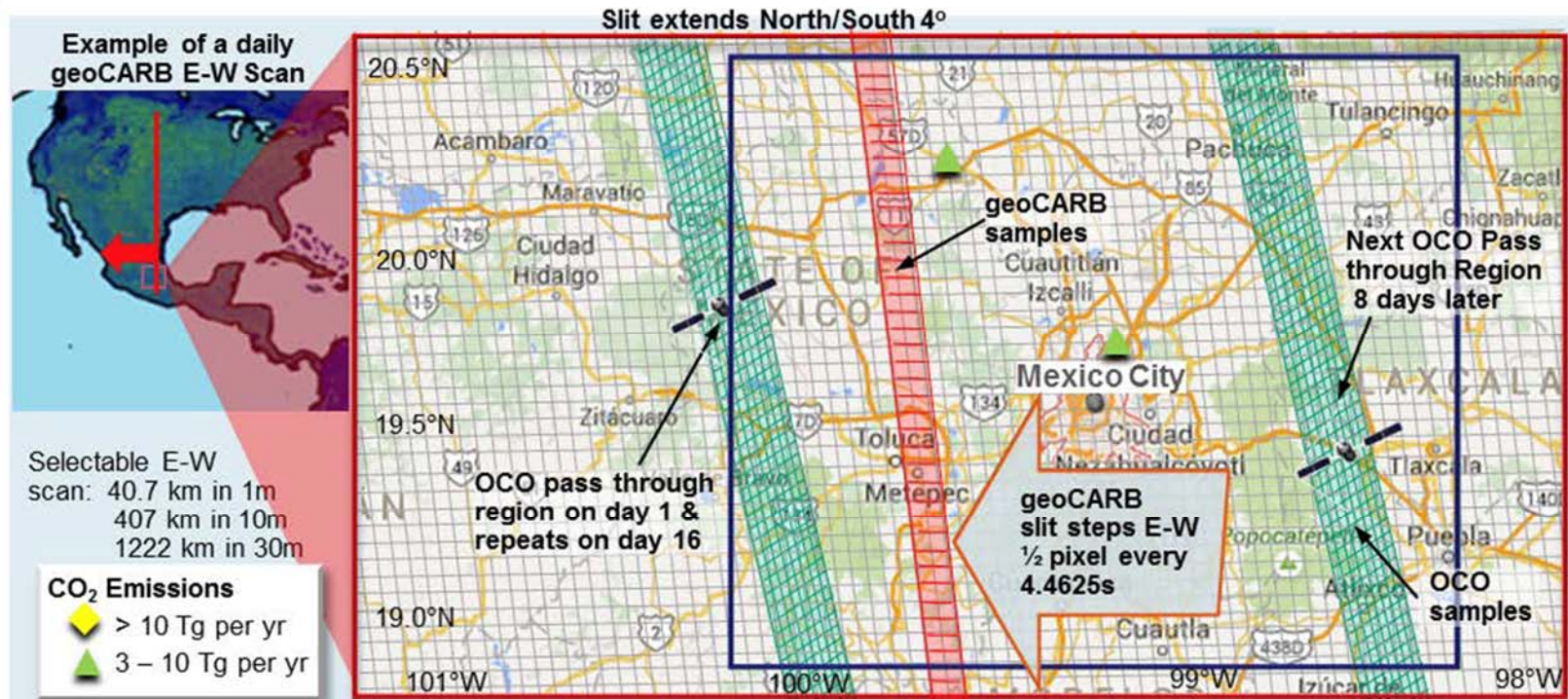
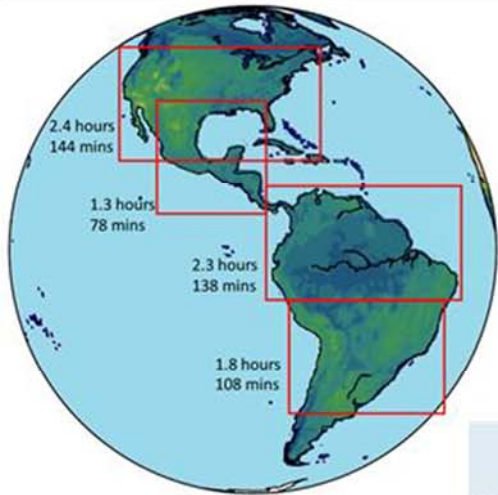
Regional mode 3 km x 6 km footprint
– 3 km E-W sampling
– 4s integration time – 2 hr CONUS revisit



The spectrum of the 3 km x 6 km footprint is one row of pixels in the spectral direction corresponding to each of the 1024 pixels along the slit

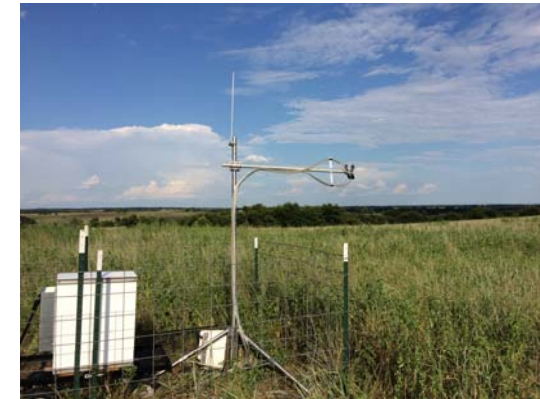
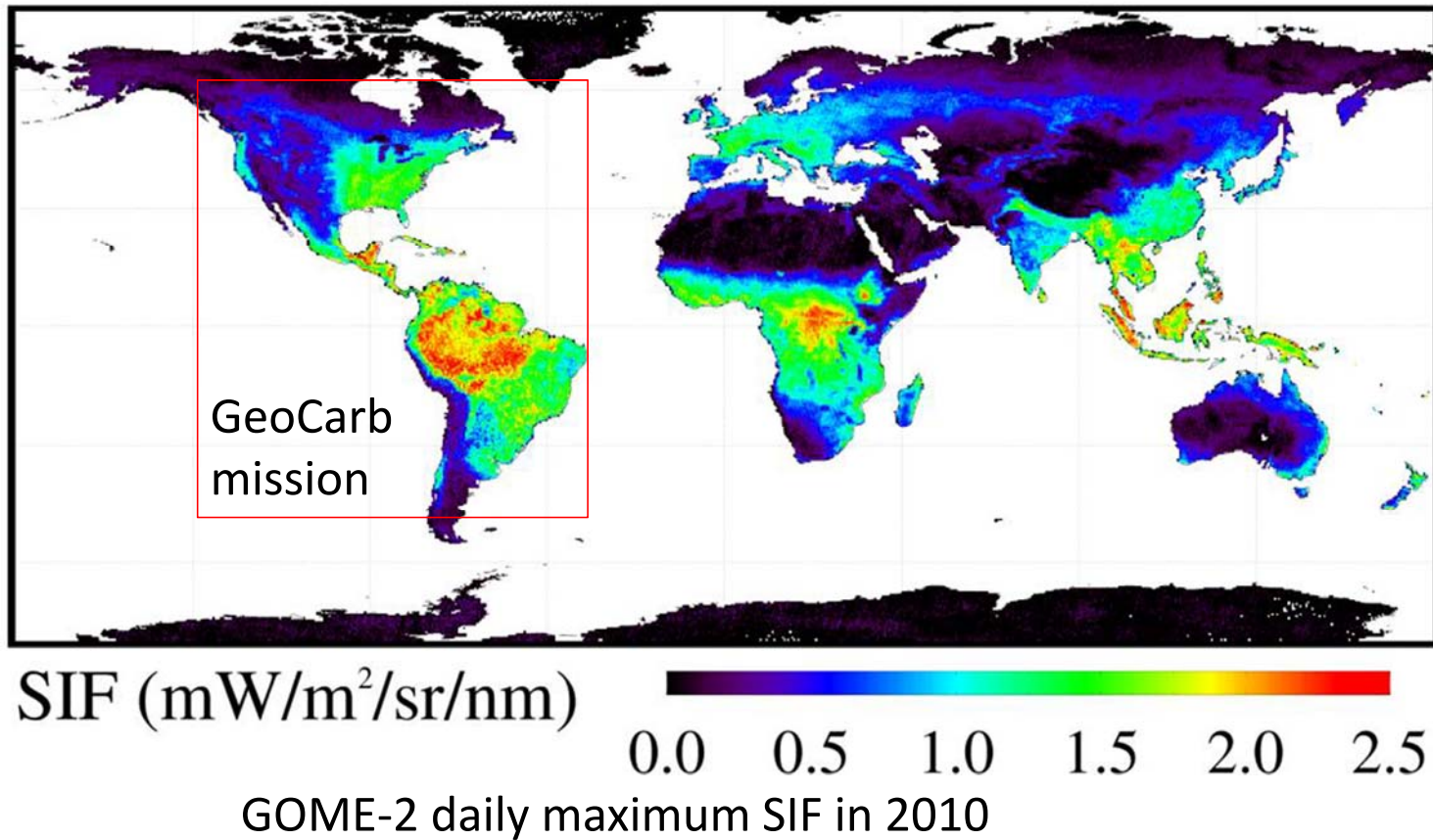
NASA GeoCarb mission

Geostationary Carbon Cycle Observatory



Monitor plant health and vegetation stress in North to South America

It measures solar-induced chlorophyll fluorescence (SIF), which is related to plant health and vegetation stress.



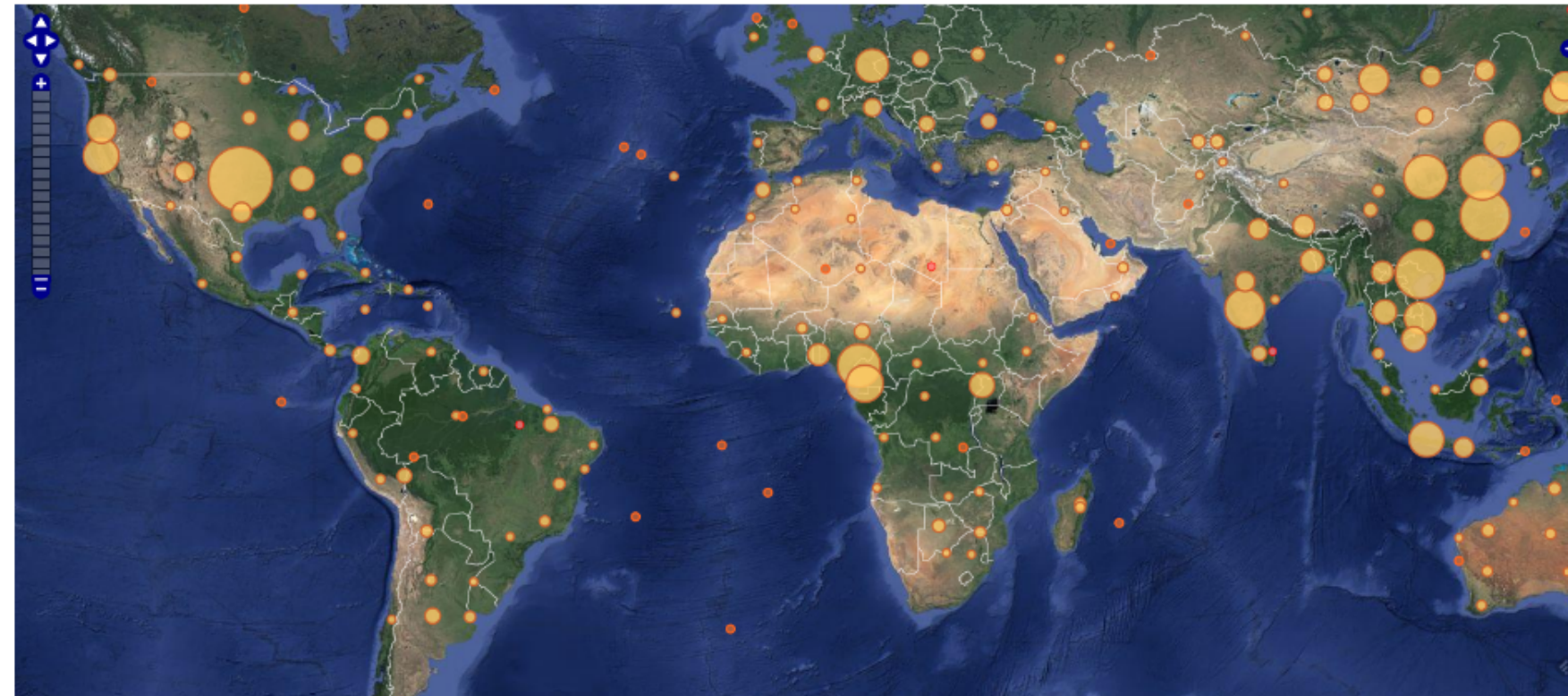
FluoSpec and Eddy Flux Tower sites at KAEFS

Crowdsourcing and citizen science approach for *in-situ* georeferenced field photos

Global Geo-Referenced Field Photo Library

<http://www.eomf.ou.edu/photos/>

142210 photos



Please join thousands of citizen scientists to share your field photos that show your footprint and document our Planet Earth



Earth Observation and Modeling Facility at the University of Oklahoma

A. Remote Sensing Laboratory

B. Spatial Ecology and Epidemiology Laboratory

C. Computation and Visualization Laboratory

iGOS Integrated Grassland
Observation Site

CO₂, H₂O, CH₄, & N₂O
Eddy Flux Tower

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Station



Space-borne RS



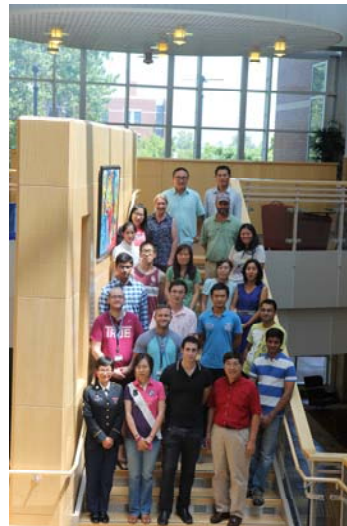
Airborne RS



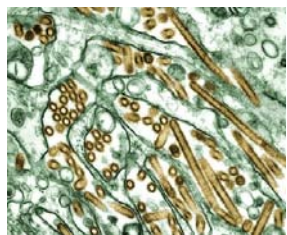
UAV RS

Thermal
Camera

COSMOS
Soil Moisture



Earth Observation and Modeling Facility



H5N1

