

UNIVERSIDADE ESTADUAL PAULISTA - UNESP
CÂMPUS DE JABOTICABAL

**CARBON DIOXIDE DYNAMICS THROUGH ORBITAL AND
TERRESTRIAL MEASUREMENTS ON AMAZONIAN CROP
AND FOREST LANDS**

Fernando Saragosa Rossi

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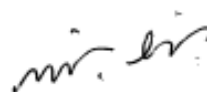
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“You can look at a mistake as bullshit to be forgotten or as a result that points
you in a new direction.”

Steve Jobs

I DEDICATE

To my father **Oswaldo Saragosa Rossi** and my mother **Ana Aparecida Bandini Rossi** for their unconditional support in all the difficult moments of my life. This work is dedicated to them. Eternal gratitude.

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DINÂMICA DO DIÓXIDO DE CARBONO ATRAVÉS DE MEDIÇÕES ORBITAIS E TERRESTRES EM TERRAS DE CULTIVO E FLORESTAS AMAZÔNICAS

ABSTRACT - A emissão de dióxido de carbono (CO_2) do solo é reconhecida como o segundo maior fluxo de carbono (C) entre os ecossistemas terrestres e a atmosfera. Nas áreas agrícolas, é um processo resultante da interação de diferentes fatores, tais como clima, condições do solo e investimento tecnológico. Assim, estudos capazes de caracterizar a dinâmica do CO_2 são importantes na busca da compreensão das relações entre os atributos do solo em diferentes sistemas de produção. O trabalho foi realizado em quatro capítulos, desenvolvidos no estado de Mato Grosso e Mato Grosso do Sul. No capítulo 1, foram apresentadas as considerações gerais do estudo. No capítulo 2, avaliamos a variabilidade temporal da emissão de CO_2 do solo e sua relação com variáveis relacionadas como fluxo de CO_2 (CO_2Flux) derivado de processos fotossintéticos, Índice de Vegetação Melhorada (EVI), Produtividade Primária Bruta (GPP), Índice de Área Foliar (LAI), Temperatura do Solo (T_s) e Umidade do Solo (U_s), no ano safra 2020/2021 na Fazenda Aurora, que está localizada no município de Cláudia no Estado do Mato Grosso com os diferentes usos e ocupação do solo: soja de baixo potencial de rendimento (SB); floresta nativa (FN); soja de alto potencial de rendimento (SA); bom pasto (PB) e pasto degradado (PD). Influência significativa ($p < 0,01$) foi encontrada neste capítulo para todas as variáveis analisadas e entre os diferentes usos do solo e cobertura da terra. Os valores FCO_2 para SA e SB com os valores mais baixos e para FN com os valores mais altos sendo o oposto para CO_2Flux . No capítulo 3, foi avaliada a relação entre o fluxo de dióxido de carbono no solo e os índices multiespectrais da vegetação em um sistema de monocultura de espécies de eucalipto, no campo experimental da Universidade Federal de Mato Grosso do Sul, Campus de Chapadão do Sul onde a área é composta por cinco espécies de eucalipto: *E. camaldulensis*, *E. urophylla*, *E. saligna*, *E. grandis* e *E. urograndis* e *Corymbria citriodora*. No capítulo 3, a umidade do solo apresenta uma correlação negativa entre FCO_2 e significativa ($p < 0,05$), provou ser um dos fatores importantes no controle da respiração do solo. Os índices de vegetação NDRE (Normalized Difference Red-Edge Index), NDVI (Normalized Difference Vegetation Index), SAVI (Soil-Adjusted Vegetation Index) e MSAVI (Modified Soil-Adjusted Vegetation Index) mostraram maior correlação negativa com FCO_2 , e uma influência significativa de $p < 0,001$ para as espécies *E. camaldulensis*, *E. saligna* e *E. urophylla*. No capítulo 4, a detecção remota foi usada para avaliar a dinâmica espaço-temporal do CO_2 de 2015 a 2018 no estado de Mato Grosso, que é a principal fronteira agrícola do Brasil. Os resultados do capítulo 4 mostraram que a variabilidade temporal do fluxo de CO_2 está positivamente correlacionada com a precipitação, enquanto que o X_{CO_2} está negativamente correlacionado com a precipitação. Portanto, não somente o X_{CO_2} , mas também o fluxo de CO_2 estão diretamente relacionados ao uso da terra e à mudança de cobertura do solo (LULCC) em sistemas complexos que são afetados por variáveis e processos climáticos, como a fotossíntese e a respiração do solo.

Keywords: Fluxo de CO_2 , Uso da terra e cobertura da terra, Agricultura, Gases de efeito estufa

CARBON DIOXIDE DYNAMICS THROUGH ORBITAL AND TERRESTRIAL MEASUREMENTS ON AMAZONIAN CROP AND FOREST LANDS

ABSTRACT - The soil carbon dioxide (CO₂) emission, is recognized as the second largest carbon (C) flux between terrestrial ecosystems and the atmosphere. In agricultural areas it is a process resulting from the interaction of different factors, such as climate, soil conditions and technological investment. Thus, studies capable of characterizing the dynamics of CO₂ are important in the search for understanding the relationships between soil attributes in different production systems. The work was conducted in four chapters, developed in the state of Mato Grosso and Mato Grosso do Sul. In chapter 1, the general considerations of the study were presented. In chapter 2, we evaluated the temporal variability of CO₂ emission from soil and its relation with related variables as CO₂ flux (CO₂Flux) derived from photosynthetic processes, Enhanced vegetation index (EVI), Gross Primary Productivity (GPP), Leaf Area Index (LAI), Soil Temperature (Ts) and Soil Moisture (Ms), in the crop year 2020/2021 in Aurora Farm, which is located in the municipality of Cláudia in the State of Mato Grosso with the different land uses and occupation: low yield potential soybean (SB); native forest (FN); high yield potential soybean (SA); good pasture (PB) and degraded pasture (PD). Significant influence ($p < 0.01$) was found in this chapter for all variables analyzed and between the different land uses and land cover. The FCO₂ values for SA and SB with the lowest values and for FN with the highest values being the opposite for CO₂Flux. In chapter 3, were evaluated the relation between the flux of carbon dioxide from soil and multispectral indices of vegetation in a monoculture system of eucalypt species, in the experimental field of the Federal University of Mato Grosso do Sul, Campus de Chapadão do Sul where the area is composed of five species of eucalyptus: *E. camaldulensis*, *E. urophylla*, *E. saligna*, *E. grandis* and *E. urograndis* and *Corymbria citriodora*. In chapter 3 soil moisture has a negative correlation between FCO₂ and significant ($p < 0.05$), proved to be one of the important factors in controlling soil respiration. The vegetation indices NDRE (Normalized Difference Red-Edge Index), NDVI (Normalized Difference Vegetation Index), SAVI (Soil-Adjusted Vegetation Index) and MSAVI (Modified Soil Adjusted Vegetation Index) showed higher negative correlation with FCO₂, and a significant influence of $p < 0.001$ for *E. camaldulensis*, *E. saligna* and *E. urophylla* species. In chapter 4, remote sensing was used to evaluate the spatio-temporal dynamics of CO₂ from 2015 to 2018 in the state of Mato Grosso, which is the main agricultural frontier in Brazil. The results of chapter 4 showed that the temporal variability of CO₂ flux is positively correlated with precipitation, while X_{CO2} is negatively correlated with precipitation. Therefore, not only X_{CO2}, but also CO₂flux are directly related to land use and land cover change (LULCC) in complex systems that are affected by climatic variables and processes, such as photosynthesis and soil respiration.

Keywords: CO₂ flux, Land use and land cover, Agriculture, Greenhouse Gas

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

Al	- Aluminum
ANOVA	- Analysis of Variance
APAR	- Absorbed Photosynthetically Active Radiation
ARVI2	- Atmospherically Resistant Vegetation Index 2
ATSAVI	- Ajusted Transformed Soil-Ajusted VI
BWDRVI	- Blue-Wide Dynamic Range Vegetation Index
CCCI	- Canopy Chlorophyll Content Index
CHIRPS	- Climate Hazards Group Infrared Precipitation with Station
Clgreen	- Chlorophyll Index Green
Cirededge	- Chlorophyll Index RedEdge
CVI	- Chlorophyll Vegetation Index
DFOV	- Diagonal Field of View
DVI	- Difference Vegetation Index
ESA	- European Space Agency
EVEI2	- Enhanced Vegetation Index 2
EVI	- Enhanced vegetation index
EVI	- Improved Vegetation Index
fAPAR	- Fraction of photosynthetically active radiation absorbed by vegetation
FCO₂	- Soil CO ₂ emission
FN	- Native Forest
GCP	- Ground Control Points
GDVI	- Difference NIR/Green Difference Vegetation Index
GEMI	- Global Environment Monitoring Index
GHG	- Greenhouse Gas
GNDVI	- Green Normalized Difference Vegetation Index
GPP	- Gross Primary Productivity
GRNDVI	- Green-Red NDVI
GRVI	- Green-Red Vegetation Index)
GSAVI	- Green Soil Adjusted Vegetation Index
GTVI	- Green Triangle Vegetation Index
HFOV	- Horizontal Field of View

HV - Healthy Vegetation

IBGE - Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics

INMET - National Institute of Meteorology

IPCC - Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change

IPVI - Infrared Percentage Vegetation Index

LAI - Leaf Area Index

LAPIG - Image Processing and Geoprocessing Laboratory

LogR - Log Ratio

LSMM - Linear Spectral Mixture Model

LULC - Land Use and Land Cover

MODIS - Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer

MSAVI - Modified Soil Adjusted Vegetation Index

MSRNir_Red - Modified Simple Ratio NIR/RED

NASA/POWER - National Aeronautics and Space Administration / Prediction of Worldwide Energy Resources

NDFI - Normalized Difference Fraction Index

NDRE - Normalized Difference Red-Edge Index

NDVI - Normalized difference vegetation index

NGRDI - Normalized Green-Red Difference Index

NIR - Near-infrared

NOAA - National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration

NormR1 - Normalized G

NormR2 - Normalized NIR

NormR3 - Normalized R

OCO-2 - Orbiting Carbon Observatory-2

PAR - Photosynthetically Active Radiation

PB - Productive Pasture

PCA - Principal Component Analysis

PD - Degraded Pasture

PDF - Probability Density Function

PRI - Photosynthetic Vegetation Index

PVC - Polyvinyl Chloride

RGR - Red Green Ratio Index
RI - Redness Index
RTK - Real Time Kinematic
SA - High-Yield Potential Soybean
SAVI - Soil Adjusted Vegetation Index
SB - Low-Yield Potential Soybean
SM - Soil moisture
SMAP - Soil Moisture Active Passive
SMT - State of Mato Grosso
SPI - Standardized Precipitation Index
sPRI - Scaled Value Of PRI
ST - Soil temperature
TDR - Time Domain Reflectometry
TES - Tropospheric Emission Spectrometer
VFOV - Vertical Field of View
Vis - Vegetation Indices
VPD_{scalar} - Water Vapor Pressure Deficit
WDRVI - Wide Dynamic Range Vegetation Index
ε - Light-Use Efficiency

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¹ This chapter corresponds to the scientific article submitted to the Environmental Research, Volume 220, 01 March 2023, 8.431 Impact Factor.

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³ This chapter corresponds to the scientific article submitted to the Environmental Research, Volume 220, 01 March 2023, 8.431 Impact Factor.

CHAPTER 1 – GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

1 INTRODUCTION

The conversion of land use and land cover is currently one of the main impacts to the environment, and as consequence of the loss of local biodiversity and carbon emissions. This data survey is essential to report on the fulfillment of the goals signed with the civil society and international organizations, besides being important in the elaboration of strategies for the improvement of public policies. While the preservation and conservation of vegetation is necessary for CO₂ recycling, there is a need for large-scale food production, relative to the world population increase.

The expansion and modernization of agriculture implies on socio-environmental impacts such as the different areas occupied by soybean cultivation and thus, forest areas were replaced by agriculture, promoting intensification of the forest fragmentation process (ITAQUI, 2002; SILVA; LIMA, 2018b). However, the factors favorable to soybean farming and the support of the Federal Government were fundamental for its rapid expansion in the country (BATISTA FARIAS, 2018; SOARES; SPOLADOR; OTHERS, 2016).

The soil is an important carbon pool, and its quantity variation has direct interference in CO₂ concentrations, and can signal low or high concentrations of this important greenhouse gas (GHG) in the system. Therefore, soil CO₂ emission rates (FCO₂) is directly related to loss or gain of soil organic carbon, arising from the complex dynamics among soil attributes and the climatic conditions (LAL; NEGASSA; LORENZ, 2015; SILVA-OLAYA et al., 2013b) related to emissions variations, due to its great variability in time and space (DE BORTOLI TEIXEIRA et al., 2011; EPRON et al., 2006).

For better estimates of soil respiration, it is first necessary to describe its temporal variability and the relation among soil respiration and environmental variables, such as soil temperature and soil moisture (SILVA et al., 2019; XAVIER et al., 2020), both with orbital and in situ sensors. In this context, several studies seek the comprehension of agricultural practices and their respective productivities effects on increasing atmospheric concentrations of GHGs, particularly CO₂ (LA SCALA; BOLONHEZI; PEREIRA, 2006; MOITINHO et al., 2015; SILVA et al., 2019).

Thus, few works have sought to compare environmental variables assessed via remote sensing techniques against those obtained in situ with the flux chamber, and

especially to compare CO₂ emission data in areas of different levels of soybean crop productivity. Understanding the spatial variability of CO₂ emission at different levels of data acquisition in agricultural areas becomes important for the conduction of a controlled and sustainable management of the culture for the preservation of carbon in the soil, thus contributing to the reduction of the greenhouse effect and the agility in measurement with orbital data.

Sensors onboard land monitoring satellites obtain data that assist in understanding the global distribution of vegetation types, agricultural crops, as well as their biophysical and structural properties in spatial-temporal variations (DIDAN et al., 2015). Vegetation indices allow monitoring seasonal, interannual and long-term variations in vegetation structure, phenological and biophysical parameters (HUETE et al., 2002), as well as changes in climatic variables.

The hypothesis of this study is that changes in land use affects either the soil CO₂ emission (FCO₂) or the CO₂ flux model (CO₂Flux) and those could be related to vegetative aspects like Enhanced Vegetation Index (EVI) and Leaf Area Index (LAI), resulting from modifications of the land use and land cover (LULC) system and environmental factors, which exhibit spatial and temporal variability.

Thus, the objective of the study is to evaluate the spatial and temporal characteristics of FCO₂ and CO₂Flux as function of climate and multispectral vegetation indexes in contrasting land uses in crop and forest lands of the state of Mato Grosso and Mato Grosso do Sul, Brazil.

1.3 LITERATURE REVIEW

1.3.1 Greenhouse Gases (GHGs)

In recent decades, climate change results from increasing concentrations of the carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), nitrous oxide (N₂O) and the Chlorofluorocarbons (CFC's) among others in the atmosphere (IPCC, 2020). The rates of CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O concentrations in 2019 reached levels of 409.9 (±0.4) parts per million (ppm), 1866.3 (±3.3) parts per billion (ppb) and 332.1 (±0.4) ppb respectively with an increase from 1750 to 2019 of 131, 6 ± 2.9 ppm (47.3%), 1137 ± 10 ppb (156%) and 62 ± 6 ppb (23.0%) and an effective radiative forcing (ERF) of halogenated components in 2019 was 0.4 W m⁻², an increase of 3.5 % since 2011 (BYERS et al., 2022). The increase of these gases concentration in the atmosphere has been significant (IPCC; OTHERS, 2013; ZHENG et al., 2019), where Earth's global

temperature has increased by 0.5 to 1 °C in the last 100 years (CHEN; XIN, 2017; MIKHAYLOV et al., 2020).

Anthropic actions such as fossil fuel burning, agriculture and land use change are the main sources of GHGs with 66%, 20% and 14% respectively of CO₂ emissions to the atmosphere (BRUHWILER et al., 2021; SHUKLA et al., 2019). In Brazil, the fires from deforestation account for 180 to 200 Mt C year⁻¹ (megatons of carbon per year) being higher than the burning of fossil fuel in the country of 70 to 90 Mt C year⁻¹, making Brazil the 5th largest emitter of the world (SANQUETTA et al., 2022; SANTILLI et al., 2005). The contributions of total CO₂ emissions in Brazil by agriculture is represented by 20 to 25% for global warming (HOUGHTON et al., 2001).

Soil tillage by plowing and harrowing leads to a decrease in organic material and an increase in the oxidation of organic carbon into CO₂ by breaking up soil aggregates. The dynamics of N in the soil is intrinsically related to the emission of N₂O, which is influenced by the presence of nitrogen-fixing plants and additions of mineral nitrogen fertilizer. The degradation process by agriculture soil management causes the microbiota under anaerobic conditions to oxidize CO₂ to CH₄ (GUENET et al., 2021; TIWARI; SINGH; SINGH, 2020).

Terrestrial ecosystems composed of vegetation and soil are currently considered important carbon sinks, particularly soils. There are several ways in which proper management of the earth's biosphere, particularly soils, can significantly reduce the increase in GHGs.

1.3.2 Carbon in soil

Soil is an important carbon reservoir, in the first 100 cm depth, globally between 1,300 - 2,000 Pg (petagram) of carbon are stored, corresponding to twice the concentration of atmospheric carbon (LAL, 2003; MAYER et al., 2019). Changes in land use and land cover can have significant impacts on the concentration of carbon dioxide (ROSSI et al., 2022) and other GHGs in the atmosphere (SCHUMAN; JANZEN; HERRICK, 2002; SCHWANDNER et al., 2017).

Recently, research has pointed out that soil management is a decisive factor in the soil organic carbon sequestration, such as the no-till farming system, which allows crop rotation, straw maintenance on the soil surface with the use of cover crops and sowing without soil disturbance, providing a significant increase in soil C stock (TONELLO; AZEREDO, 2021).

Tropical soils store 506 Pg of carbon (MARÍN-SPIOTTA; SHARMA, 2013) of which 66 Pg of carbon are in soils of the Amazon (BATJES, 1999), and 47 Pg of carbon in the Brazilian legal Amazon (BATJES, 1999). Considering the first 30 cm of depth, the soils of the Brazilian territory, store around 36,4 Pg of carbon (BERNOUX et al., 2002). However, assessing changes in soil C stocks still has its barriers, due to the difficulties in detecting small modifications (OLIVEIRA, 2018).

Soil carbon is present in living organic matter, which accounts for less than 4 percent of total soil organic carbon, and in dead organic matter, which returns most of the total soil organic carbon (about 98 percent) (REGO et al., 2013; SIQUEIRA et al., 2021).

The soil organic C stock is determined by the annual balance of the addition of photosynthesized C and the loss of organic C due to its oxidation to CO₂ by heterotrophic microorganisms. Decomposition processes and transformation rates are strongly influenced by climate, type and quality of organic matter, chemical and physicochemical associations of organic matter with soil mineral components, and the location of organic matter in the soil (ALMEIDA; SANCHES, 2014; MÜTZENBERG, 2020).

The three main processes responsible for carbon sequestration in soils are humification, aggregation and sedimentation. At the same time, the processes responsible for carbon losses in the soil are erosion, decomposition, volatilization and leaching (LAL, 1997; RUFINO et al., 2022). The physical protection of soil organic matter by the mineral fraction of the soil during the process of aggregate formation has been a fundamental process for the increase of soil C stocks (DE M. SÁ et al., 2001).

The conversion of a natural ecosystem into agriculture and/or pasture may have an important influence on the fate of the C stored in the soil (FERNANDES; FERNANDES, 2008; NEILL et al., 1997; RODRIGUES, 2021). In soils under natural vegetation, the preservation of organic matter tends to be maximum, because soil disturbance is minimal, and the contribution of carbon in forests is higher than in cultivated areas. In cultivated areas, the levels of organic matter, as a rule, decrease, since the organic fractions are more exposed to attack by microorganisms, due to greater soil disturbance and de-structuring (CHRISTENSEN, 2020).

However, several factors such as soil and climatic conditions can lead to an increase or decrease in soil C contents. Thus, studies in broad scenarios are essential,

in order to help reduce the variability of results and promote the homogeneity of information (CIDIN, 2016).

1.3.3 Land use and land cover change

Forest ecosystems, collaborate through their functions in reducing climate change, mainly by absorbing a significant part of carbon dioxide emissions and storing large amounts of carbon in biomass and soils (COLLALTI et al., 2019; LE QUÉRÉ et al., 2018), in addition to the importance for watershed protection, soil, climate regulation and biodiversity conservation (BONAN, 2008; ROY; RAVAN, 1996).

Forests store up to about 45% of terrestrial carbon (YAO et al., 2018). Approximately 2.4 ± 0.4 Pg of Carbon per year is absorbed by the global forest ecosystem, reaching the equivalent of 60% of the cumulative carbon emissions from global fossil consumption (FU et al., 2015). The Amazon presents itself as one of the great potentialities to capture carbon, since it is estimated as the largest tropical forest in the world, and responsible for sequestering 14% of the planet's carbon (BRIENEN et al., 2015).

During the development process, trees absorb CO₂ and release O₂ in photosynthesis, on the contrary, in respiration, they release carbon dioxide, in reduced amounts in relation to that absorbed (BARBOSA, 2015; PIRES, 2019). Thus, one can consider the practices for climate change mitigation, reforestation, restoration of degraded forests and forest protection (BERENGUER et al., 2014; HOUGHTON; UNRUH; LEFEBVRE, 1993; ZHANG; XU, 2003).

Forestry and agribusiness have driven the production of soybean and eucalyptus monocultures in Brazil (SANTOS, 2019). The increase in soybean and eucalyptus planting is as a result of the demand for the spread of this activity largely influenced by the Brazilian state (LAMEIRA et al., 2017).

The expansion of soybean cultivation in Brazil in the last two decades has reached large proportions, bringing important changes to the model of territorial occupation and the development of the national economy. Soybean expansion differs from other crops in relation to its impact on land use change, especially in the Amazon and Cerrado biomes (VALE; CARVALHO; ABDALA, 2021). Second largest world soybean producer and largest exporter since 2003, Brazil has increased its production following the global trend of growth in demand and supply of soybeans (LIMA, 2006).

Soybean (*Glycine max* (L.) Merr.) is one of the commodities that presents the greatest prominence in the national and international market, being one of the most consumed and produced grains in the world (FAOSTAT, [s.d.]). In Brazil it has a significant socioeconomic importance, thus becoming one of the main vehicles of development and the main product of agriculture in the country (HIRAKURI; LAZZAROTTO, 2014).

In addition to soybeans, Brazil also stands out as one of the largest producers of eucalyptus (*Eucalyptus* spp.), with high levels of productivity due to favorable soil conditions, climate, and land availability (ABREU; FEIO, 2021; IBÁ, 2020). The increase in forest plantations in Brazilian territory reaches approximately 8.7 million hectares, with eucalyptus plantations predominantly occupying 7.47 million hectares, corresponding to 33% of the total area of eucalyptus plantations in the world (ALMEIDA; VIEIRA, 2022; MAPBIOMAS, 2021; ZHANG; WANG, 2021). Strengthening the production of paper, pulp, furniture and biofuels (LIMA et al., 2020).

However, one of the main concerns about GHG's has been the conversion of natural vegetation for agriculture and cattle ranching (MCTI, 2014; SILVA; LIMA, 2018a; SILVA et al., 2018), which result in significant amounts of CO₂ emissions to the atmosphere, either by burning the aerial biomass or subsequent loss in soil carbon stocks (IPCC, 2014). This influence still seems to be indirect, since it is being established over degraded pasture areas from failed cattle ranching projects, in most cases.

Carbon loss is faster in the conversion from native vegetation to an agricultural system located in the tropics, due to the combination of high humidity and temperature throughout the season (SCHOLES; VAN BREEMEN, 1997). The main losses of soil organic matter are stimulated by soil disturbance, greater variations in soil temperature and moisture, breakdown of aggregates, and the decrease in soil cover. The reduction of the most active fraction of soil organic matter affects several functions in the soil, being composed of humic substances of low molecular weight, as well as plant and animal residues and their primary decomposition products.

1.3.4 Remote Sensing

Remote sensing is a technique that is becoming prominent in agricultural activities, in plant evaluations through biophysical parameters, and in several other fields of science through ground, airborne or orbital sensors that act actively or

passively, recording the interaction of electromagnetic energy with the environment (DA SILVA JUNIOR et al., 2018; XU et al., 2020). The phenomena of absorption, reflection and transmission relies on the interaction of electromagnetic energy with the targets of interest (LIU, 2015). The ability of an object to absorb, reflect, and transmit electromagnetic radiation is referred to as absorptance, reflectance, and transmittance, respectively (XUE; SU, 2017). Transmission is done through the components that make up the leaf, when the radiation is reflected by the leaves (TSAI et al., 2019). Among the three phenomena, the energy reflected by objects is the most used in studies by most researchers using orbital and sub-orbital sensors (DENG et al., 2019).

In photosynthesis, plants have higher absorbance in the wavelength corresponding to the blue and red bands and higher reflectance in the near infrared range (NIR) (GITELSON et al., 2021). Much of this absorbed radiation and made by the pigments of chlorophylls "a" (430 - 660 nm) and "b" (450 - 650 nm) existing in chloroplasts, with high absorption in the blue and red bands (GITELSON et al., 2006). One of the major factors of the low absorption and reflectance of incident energy is the pigmentation contained in the leaves. With the loss of chlorophyll from a plant indicates that it is in the senescence stage, thus having a reflectance in the red range (MERZLYAK et al., 1999; MURAOKA et al., 2010).

In remote sensing, the vegetation is a complex target, since it presents leaf manifestations non-uniformity of structure inter and intra vegetation in the same plant, besides the soil spectral interference. The variability of the red and near infrared energy reflected by the vegetation that reaches the sensor will vary with solar irradiance, atmospheric conditions, substrate type, canopy structure and composition. The radiance is received by the optical components and then converted into electrical signals, then transformed into a digital numerical value associated with the pixels of the satellite images at the time of imaging.

By using satellite images, we can perform analysis by means of vegetation indices (IR) to highlight the spectral behavior of biomass in relation to the soil and other targets of the earth's surface, in order to assess natural resources and monitor vegetation cover. Commonly, vegetations indices rely on the arithmetic operations combination by using two or more spectral bands, in order to provide stable information about the surface compared to reflectance measurements (DA SILVA et al., 2017). Studies use this combination of spectral bands to analyze biomass and carbon stock

over coffee plantation areas by using the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI), the Photosynthetic Vegetation Index (PRI) and the CO₂flux model, which is based on the NDVI and PRI by means of Landsat images (COLTRI et al., 2009).

The discrimination between deficient and adequate boron levels in *Eucalyptus* spp. juveniles can be based on the wavelengths of the MSI/Sentinel-2 sensor system with the data from this sensor support the method of discrimination of adequate B nutrition in areas with planting of the species (DAMASCENO et al., 2023). In other studies used structural equation modeling (SEM) and factor analysis on corn varieties allowed to identify which agronomic variables and which NDVI, NDRE and SAVI indices are most associated with crop grain yield (SANTANA et al., 2022).

Nowadays, there are several vegetation indices developed for different applications and research assessment abroad the science. This proves that the use of remote sensing techniques is capable of supplying research on spatial and temporal scales of vegetation, both locally and globally.

CHAPTER 2 – VARIATIONS OF CO₂ EMISSIONS ON DIFFERENT VEGETATIONS COVERS IN THE BRAZILIAN AMAZON⁴

ABSTRACT: Soil carbon dioxide (CO₂) emission in agricultural areas is a process resulting from the interaction of several factors, such as climate, soil and management conditions. Agricultural practices directly affect the carbon dynamics between soil and atmosphere. Here, we evaluated the temporal variability (2020/2021 crop season) of soil CO₂ emission and its relationship with related variables as CO₂ flux model, Enhanced vegetation index (EVI), Gross Primary Productivity (GPP), Leaf Area Index (LAI) from orbital data and soil temperature, soil moisture and soil CO₂ emission in situ collection, over native forest, productive pasture, degraded pasture, high-yield potential soybean and low-yield potential soybean areas. Significant influence ($p < 0.01$) was observed for all variables and between the different land uses and land occupation. September and October presented lower soil CO₂ emission, recording low means of soil moisture and soil temperature, and no differences were observed among treatments. On the other hand, there was a significant effect of CO₂ flux model in the areas of productive pasture, high-yield potential soybean and low-yield potential soybean. The months with the highest CO₂ flux model values, regardless the land use and land cover, were October and November, the beginning of the rainy season. There were positive correlations between soil CO₂ emission and GPP (0.208), LAI (0.354), EVI (0.363) and soil moisture (0.280), and negative correlations between soil CO₂ emission and soil temperature (-0.240) and CO₂ flux model (-0.314). The land uses and land covers showed negative correlations between these variables, except for the CO₂ flux model variable. Soil CO₂ emission values were lower for high-yield potential soybean (averages from 0.834 to 6.835 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) and low-yield potential soybean (from 0.943 to 5.686 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) and higher for native forest (from 2.279 to 8.131 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), whereas for CO₂ flux model the opposite behavior was observed.

Keywords: Land use and land cover; Sustainability; climate change; greenhouse gases

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2.1 INTRODUCTION

Climate change is one of the main challenges for society and is probably the most widespread threat to humanity due to the earth's growing population and the resulting increased concentration of carbon dioxide (CO₂) released into the atmosphere (NASROLLAHI et al., 2020; RIBEIRO; RYBSKI; KROPP, 2019). As the world's population increases, the need for large-scale food production arises, agricultural expansion and increased food production have been among the major impacts of humanity on the environment that include climate change, greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions (AWUCHI et al., 2020; REHMAN et al., 2021a, 2021b, 2022). Land use and land cover change for commodity production is one of Brazil's main sources of GHGs, making the country responsible for 2.8% of global emissions (DE AREA LEÃO PEREIRA et al., 2020).

Soybean (*Glycine max* (L.) Merr.) is one of the most important commodities in the national and international market, being one of the most consumed and produced grains in the world (FAOSTAT, [s.d.]). In Brazil it has an expressive socioeconomic importance, thus becoming one of the main vehicles of development and the main agricultural product of the country (HIRAKURI; LAZZAROTTO, 2014). However, one of the main concerns about GHG's has been the conversion of natural vegetation for agriculture and cattle ranching (MCTI, 2014; SILVA; LIMA, 2018a; SILVA et al., 2018), that result in significant amounts of CO₂ emissions to the atmosphere, either by burning the above-ground biomass or subsequent loss in soil carbon stocks (IPCC, 2014).

Soil CO₂ emission in agricultural areas has proven to be a complex phenomenon, as it has great spatial and temporal variability due to its relationship with various soil properties (LA SCALA; BOLONHEZI; PEREIRA, 2006; SILVA et al., 2019, 2020). For better estimates of soil respiration, it is first necessary to describe its temporal variability and the relationships with environmental variables that can be continuously monitored, such as temperature and humidity (SILVA et al., 2019; XAVIER et al., 2020), both with orbital sensors and *in loco*, which makes it possible to monitor other related parameters.

In this context, several studies have elucidated the effects of agricultural practices and their respective productivity on the increasing atmospheric concentrations of GHGs, particularly CO₂ (LA SCALA; BOLONHEZI; PEREIRA, 2006;

MOITINHO et al., 2015; SILVA et al., 2019). In the soil, CO₂ is produced through biochemical reactions directly related to the biological activity of microorganisms and root respiration, which are mainly influenced by soil temperature and humidity (BOND-LAMBERTY; THOMSON, 2010; OERTEL et al., 2016; PRIES et al., 2017).

According to Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (2014), Inadequate agricultural land management practices are responsible for approximately a quarter of global GHG emissions, including deforestation, agricultural methane emissions, and nitrous oxide emissions in fertilized soils. In this context, soil carbon accumulation in agricultural systems is a promising strategy to mitigate the atmospheric increment of CO₂ (DOSSOU-YOVO et al., 2016), thus reducing the greenhouse gas balance and the carbon footprint associated with agricultural production, as examples in meat and sugarcane production respectively (DE FIGUEIREDO et al., 2017).

Nevertheless, environmental variables that tangent to this prospect demand comparison, where *in loco* data obtained with the soil respiration chamber can be related to carbon sequestration efficiency estimates related to vegetation in agricultural areas. Understanding the spatial and temporal variability of CO₂ at different levels of data acquisition in farming lands becomes important for conducting controlled and sustainable crop management for soil carbon preservation, thus contributing to the mitigation of the extended greenhouse effect.

For the generation of objective information in near-real-time, remote sensing is a tool that provides and contributes to the distinction and characterization of forests, agriculture, climate, among others (ALMEIDA et al., 2019; LIU et al., 2020b). On-board sensors from ground monitoring satellites obtain data that assist in understanding the global distribution of vegetation types, agricultural crops, as well as their biophysical and structural properties in spatio-temporal variations (DIDAN, 2015). For example, one of the products generated by Moderate-Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) sensor are the vegetation indices (VIs), which perform spectral transformations of two or more bands and enable the visualization of vegetation properties and temporal inter-comparisons of terrestrial photosynthetic activity and canopy structural variations, enabling for example the monitoring of areas with soybean (DA SILVA et al., 2017). The VIs allow monitoring of seasonal, inter-annual and long-term variations in vegetation structure, phenological and biophysical parameters (HUETE et al., 2002), besides changes in climatic variables, such as precipitation (GOUVEIA et al., 2008). Furthermore, it is also possible to acquire and

estimate other variables through spectral bands, such as Gross Primary Productivity (GPP) (ROSSI; SANTOS, 2020) and carbon dioxide flux (CO₂Flux) through photosynthesis and respiration (DELLA-SILVA et al., 2022; ROSSI et al., 2022; SILVA JUNIOR et al., 2019).

In view of the biogeochemical carbon cycle and its great relation to climate, the observation of soil CO₂ emission, moisture and soil temperature dynamics, as well as the relation of variables obtained by means of remote orbital sensing techniques related to the emission and/or absorption of atmospheric carbon in the biotic carbon pool are potentially associated to the type of land use and occupation.

Thus, our objective was to verify the relation of soil carbon emission with remotely sensed variables of CO₂ flux model (CO₂Flux), GPP, vegetation indices and leaf area index, as well as in situ metrics of soil moisture and temperature, conditioned to different land uses and land covers of an agricultural area in northern Mato Grosso.

2.2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.2.1 Studied area

The study was carried out in the 2020/2021 crop season at Aurora Farm, located in the municipality of Cláudia, Midwest region of Brazil (Figure 1) southern Amazon ecoregion, with a total area of 3.843,561 km² (IBGE, 2021). According to Köppen's classification, the region's climate is type Aw (tropical climate, with dry winter) (ALVARES et al., 2013), with a rainy period from October to April and a dry period from May to September. Annual rainfall is approximately 1970 mm, and average monthly temperatures range between 24 and 27 °C (SOUZA et al., 2013a). The soil of the area was classified as yellow latosol, according to the Brazilian Soil Classification System (SIBCS) (EMBRAPA_SOLOS, 2020; EMBRAPA, 2018).

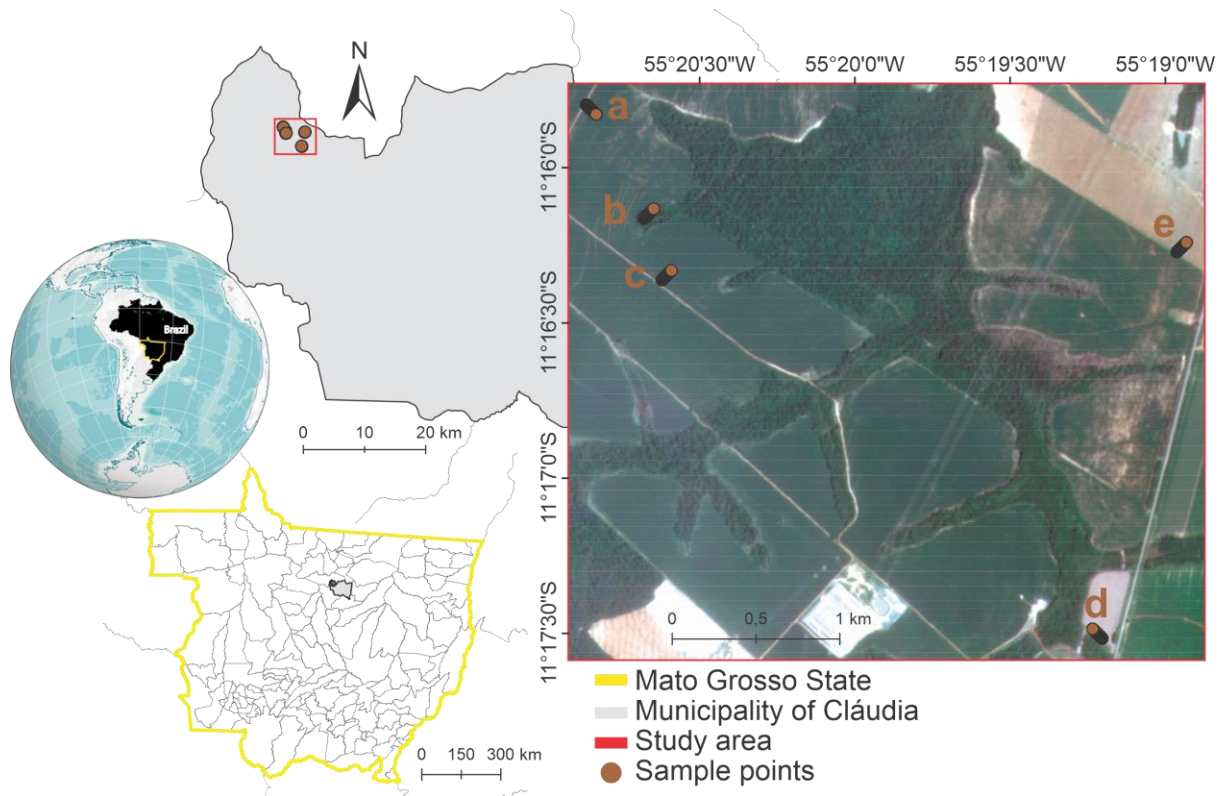


Figure 1. Study area located in the State of Mato Grosso with the different land uses and occupation in the Amazon ecoregion: a) low-yield potential soybean (SB); b) native forest (FN); c) high-yield potential soybean (SA); d) productive pasture (PB) and e) degraded pasture (PD) in the municipality of Cláudia.

Five areas with distinct uses were chosen according to availability and ease of access. The native forest is in an initial regeneration stage due to environmental intervention, such as clear-cutting, agricultural cultivation, or fire/burning that has occurred in the last 10 years. The pasture areas are in the process of changing to rice in the first crop grown on the site, and the later to soybean and corn crops. Previously, there was pasture in the area, and farming on the site began in 2015.

2.2.2 Vegetation Indices

Vegetation indices (VIs) have been developed to highlight the combinations of surface reflectance at two or more wavelengths designed to highlight a particular property of vegetation in order to exclude soil and other terrestrial targets. The numerical values of these indices can vary between -1 and 1, in which vegetation is commonly indicated by positive values, as there is greater reflectance in the near-infrared wavelength than in the red (HUETE et al., 2002; SOLANO et al., 2010). Some targets, such as water and snow, exhibit higher reflectance at the red (600 – 750 nm)

wavelength region, as compared with the near-infrared (750 – 1100 nm) region. With the emergence of the Moderate-Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) sensor, Huete et al. (1997) proposed an Enhanced Vegetation Index (EVI) (Equation 1) that minimizes the effects of soil and atmosphere by considering the blue spectral band.

$$EVI = g \frac{\rho_{NIR} - \rho_{RED}}{\rho_{NIR} + (c_1 \cdot \rho_{RED}) - (c_2 \cdot \rho_{BLUE}) + L} \quad (1)$$

where ρ_{NIR} , ρ_{RED} , and ρ_{BLUE} are the reflectances in the near-infrared, red, and blue spectral ranges, respectively; g is the gain factor (2.5); c_1 and c_2 are the correction coefficients for red (6) and blue (7.5) atmospheric effects, respectively; and L is the correction factor for soil interference (1). The coefficients adopted in the EVI equation according to Huete et al. (1994, 1997).

The Soil Adjusted Vegetation Index (SAVI) (Equation 2), takes into account the effects of exposed soil in the analyzed images (that is, when the surface is not completely covered by vegetation) to adjust Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI).

$$SAVI = \frac{(1 + L_s)(\rho_{NIR} - \rho_{RED})}{(L_s + \rho_{NIR} + \rho_{RED})} \quad (2)$$

where L_s is a constant called the adjustment factor of SAVI and can assume values of 0.25–1 depending on the soil cover. According to Huete (1988), a value for L_s of 0.25 is indicated for dense vegetation, of 0.5 for intermediate density, and of 1 for low density vegetation. When L_s is equal to 0, the assigned SAVI value is equal to the NDVI. Huete (1988) suggested an optimal value of $L_s = 0.5$ to account for first-order soil background variations.

Leaf Area Index (LAI) (Equation 3) is a biophysical index defined by the ratio between the leaf area of a vegetation per unit area used by this vegetation, being an indicator of the biomass of each image pixel, as computed by the following empirical equation (ALLEN et al., 2002). Surface Energy Balance Algorithm for Land (SEBAL)

was designed to calculate the components that make up the energy balance locally and regionally, from limited surface data, by using empirical relationships and physical parametrization (BASTIAANSEN et al., 1998a, 1998b; MARTINS; GALVANI, 2020).

$$LAI = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{0.69 - SAVI}{0.59}\right)}{0.91} \quad (3)$$

The constants used in equation 3 are assigned according to (ALLEN et al., 2002).

2.2.3 Planet® Images

Planet® is a California-based company that has manufactured and launched several nano-satellites such as "Doves" or PlanetScope that constitute the largest constellation of orbital imaging satellites on the earth. PlanetScope can image any part of the earth and provides data in four spectral bands between 454 and 860 nm with a 3-meter spatial resolution. Atmospheric corrections of the PlanetScope images were carried out at the stage of preliminary processing and correction factors for each spectral band are present in the metadata of each scene.

Planet platform (<https://www.planet.com/products/platform>) is a fully automated cloud-based platform for downloading, processing, and managing images online. The images acquired by the platform were needed to run the CO₂Flux, EVI, and LAI models, where NDVI is based on red and NIR, and PRI is based on blue and green bands.

2.2.4 Gross primary production (GPP)

The MOD and MYD17A2H products related to gross primary production is a cumulative composite of GPP (kg C m⁻² d⁻⁸) values based on the concept of the solar radiation-use efficiency by vegetation (ϵ). By this logic, primary production is linearly related to absorbed photosynthetically active radiation (APAR) (RUNNING et al., 1999; RUNNING; ZHAO, 2019). APAR can be calculated as the product of the incident photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) in the visible spectral range 0.4 μ m - 0.7 μ m, assumed as 45% of the total incident solar radiation, and the fraction of

photosynthetically active radiation absorbed by the vegetation cover (FPAR) (HEINSCH, 2003).

One of the major challenges in using such models is to obtain the light-use efficiency ϵ over a large area, due to its dependence on environmental factors and the vegetation itself. One solution is to relate ϵ according to its maximum value ($\epsilon_{\max}$) plus the environmental contributions synthesized by the minimum air temperature ($T_{\min\text{scalar}}$) and the water status of the vegetation (VPD_{scalar} - water vapor pressure deficit) (FIELD; RANDERSON; MALMSTRÖM, 1995).

In this study, MODIS GPP (Gross Primary Productivity), version 6 was used with the 8-day average. Pixel values referring to digital numbers from MODIS images were converted into biophysical values from kg (kilogram) to g (gram) by multiplying 0.0001 and transformed to daily by dividing by 8 (8-day), at the end we have the transformed GPP measurement unit from $\text{kg C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-8}$ to $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{day}^{-1}$ (Equation 4).

$$GPP = \frac{GPP \cdot 0.0001}{8} \quad (4)$$

2.2.5 CO₂ Model Data

The CO₂Flux model was used (RAHMAN et al., 2001) to estimate the efficiency of the vegetation-related carbon sequestration process, which is the photosynthesis rate derived from photosynthetic processes. For this, the photochemical reflectance index (PRI) (Equation 5) was calculated (GAMON; SERRANO; SURFUS, 1997) using the green and blue spectral bands. The PRI is related to the amount of carotenoid pigments in leaves, which indicates the CO₂ storage rate (BARNES et al., 2017; DELLA-SILVA et al., 2022; RAHMAN et al., 2001).

$$PRI = \frac{\rho_{BLUE} - \rho_{GREEN}}{\rho_{BLUE} + \rho_{GREEN}} \quad (5)$$

where ρ_{BLUE} is the blue spectral band reflectance and ρ_{GREEN} is the green spectral band reflectance.

Since our goal was to use PRI as an efficiency factor, we derived a scaled value of PRI (sPRI) to represent an adjusted range of 0 to 1. Therefore, it is necessary to generate the sPRI (Equation 6) (MARTINS; BAPTISTA, 2013).

$$sPRI = \frac{PRI + 1}{2} \quad (6)$$

Hence, the CO₂Flux (μmol m⁻² s⁻¹) is the multiplied result of the NDVI and sPRI. There is a relationship where it may be possible to capture the carbon sequestration absorptions using the PRI index, which indicates the efficient use of light during photosynthesis, and the NDVI, which demonstrates the vigor of the photosynthetically active vegetation (RAHMAN et al., 2001). For more coherent estimates of CO₂Flux in Brazil, the fitting of flux data associated with the CO₂Flux model with direct measurement of CO₂ fluxes by Turbulent Vortex Covariance (Eddy Covariance) (GOULDEN et al., 1996) was applied. Santos, (2017) determined a coefficient of R² = 0, 8185 and the regression model $y = -66.207x + 13.63$ between the direct measurement of CO₂ fluxes and the CO₂Flux model, the best correlation is given in Equation (7).

$$CO_2Flux = 13.63 - (66.207 \cdot (NDVI \cdot sPRI)) \quad (7)$$

In this model, the linear and angular coefficients are presented as NDVI and PRI vegetation models and should be fitted according to environmental characteristics. The CO₂Flux model expressed in Equation (7) was fitted to Amazonian standards, where negative values (-) indicate net absorption of carbon (photosynthesis) by the surface and positive values (+) indicate loss of carbon to the atmosphere (respiration).

2.2.6 Assessing soil CO₂ emission, temperature, and moisture

For the assessments of soil CO₂ emission (FCO₂), we used the LI-COR portable system, model LI-8100 (LI-COR Bioscience, Nebraska, USA) (Figure 2a), which monitors the CO₂ concentration variations inside the soil respiration chamber (Figure 2b) by means of optical absorption spectroscopy in the infrared spectral region. The soil respiration chamber is a closed system with an internal volume of 854.2 cm³ and

a circular contact area of 83.7 cm² and is coupled over PVC collars that were previously inserted into the soil 24 hours before collection.



Figure 2. LI-COR model LI-8100 portable system (a) connected to the soil chamber (b), soil moisture sensor (c) and soil temperature sensor (d).

The *on-site* measurements were performed in a 100-meter transect with 20 sample points for each land use and land cover (LULC) (Figure 3), with seven collections comprising before sowing, during the phenological stage, and after soybean harvest (Table 1), carried out in the morning from 8 am to 10 am in each LULC. The spatial distribution of the *in situ* collection points were distributed every five meters, so that each point could be represented in a different pixel.



Figure 3. Locations of the land uses and land cover of the experiment. a) native forest; b) productive pasture; c) degraded pasture; d) high-yield potential soybean; e) low-yield potential soybean.

Table 1. Collection dates for each land use and land cover and soybean soil preparation, sowing, and harvesting periods.

Collection date	Julian Day	Period
09/26/2020	270	Before soybean sowing
10/08/2020	282	During the soybean phenological stage
11/05/2020	310	During the soybean phenological stage
11/26/2020	331	During the soybean phenological stage
01/21/2021	21	During the soybean phenological stage
03/06/2021	65	During the soybean phenological stage
03/24/2021	83	After soybean harvesting

The FCO₂ was evaluated at each point by a fit of the CO₂ air concentration inside the chamber as a function of a polynomial regression over time after its closure. The measurement mode for determining the soil CO₂ emission took 90 seconds at each sampling point, and the CO₂ concentration inside the chamber was determined every 2.5 seconds, approximately (SÁ et al., 2019).

The Soil temperature (Ts) was monitored using a Digital Spit-Type Thermometer (DELLT DT-625) (Figure 2d). It consists of a 20 cm rod inserted into the soil at 5 cm from where the PVC collars were previously installed for the evaluation of soil CO₂ emission. Similarly, the Soil Moisture (Ms) was recorded using a TDR – Time Domain Reflectometry (Hydrosense TM, Campbell Scientific, Australia) (Figure 2c), consisting of a probe with two 12-cm rods inserted inside the soil, perpendicular to the surface at 5 cm from the PVC collars. The soil moisture value is derived from the time it takes for an electric current to travel the distance of 32 mm from one rod to the other. The soil temperature and moisture evaluations were performed concurrently with the soil CO₂ emission evaluations.

2.2.7 Statistical analysis

Data were submitted to analysis of variance (ANOVA) for comparison of land use and land cover (LULC) at each evaluation date. Means were grouped by the Scott-Knott test at 5% probability. Subsequently, to verify the interrelationship between the variables and LULC of each experiment, data were analyzed by principal component analysis (PCA), and a biplot was generated with the first two components due to the straightforward interpretation of these results. In this biplot, confidence ellipses were constructed for each LULC evaluated. Additionally, Pearson's correlation was applied to verify the relationship between the studied variables, and then a plot was generated to analyze the results. All analyses were performed on the R 3.6.3 (R CORE TEAM, 2022) software using the packages "FactoMineR" (LÉ; JOSSE; HUSSON, 2008), "factoextra" (KASSAMBARA; MUNDT, 2020), "ExpDes.pt" (FERREIRA; CAVALCANTI; NOGUEIRA, 2021) and "GGally" (SCHLOERKE et al., 2021).

2.3 RESULTS

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was the statistical test used to determine the difference between the means of land use and land cover and observed days. The analysis of variance revealed significance level ($p < 0.01$) for the variables atmospheric (FCO_2 and CO_2Flux), vegetative (LAI, EVI and GPP), and physical (Ms) variables. The physical variable T_s differed from the others by presenting significance at 5% probability level ($p < 0.05$). On the other hand, all variables analyzed showed the same significance level ($p < 0.01$) among the different LULC (FN, PB, PD, SA and SB) and for the evaluations from sowing to soybean harvesting, besides a significant interaction between these effects (LULC and Date) for the variables analyzed (Table 2). Factor analysis was used to describe the variability among the independent and possibly correlated variables. The analysis showed that land use and land cover (LULC) and time series dates showed a maximum significant value for all variables atmospheric, vegetative, and physical as described in the Table 2. Therefore, the pattern of temporal variation of the variables differs depending on the soil cover on the days evaluated according to the significant F-test, rejecting the hypothesis of H_0 , and applying the test for comparison of means.

Table 2. Analysis of variance for the seven variables among the five land uses and land cover (LULC) for the dates.

Source of variation [†]	DF	Mean Square						
		Ms	Ts	FCO ₂	CO ₂ Flux	LAI	EVI	GPP
Date	6	1396.358**	529.818*	132.437**	645.805**	60.200**	1.584**	0.040686**
LULC	4	59.345**	514.757**	44.044**	961.383**	71.224**	1.254**	0.005449**
LULC x Date	24	50.474**	185.559**	25.581**	142.735**	12.318**	0.386**	0.002095**
Residual	665	8.905	0.671	8.309	0.426	0.024	0.001	0.000002
Mean		8.519	27.443	3.884	1.623	2.267	0.380	0.035

[†] Statistical significances of $p \leq 0.05$ and $p < 0.01$ are represented by * and **, respectively.

The mean soil moisture (Ms), regardless of the LULC and Julian days evaluated, was 8.52% (Table 2). The Ms presented significant differences throughout the days studied especially after November 5th, and the highest difference between the LULC is noted for March 6th. This differentiation was not observed for Julian days 270 (September 26th), 282 (October 08th) and 83 (March 24th) (Figure 4a). For the different LULC among the Julian days (lowercase letters) with SA (high-yield potential soybean), the highest Ms values was observed in January and March (Julian days 21 and 83) (Figure 4a), unlike SB (low-yield potential soybean) and PD (degraded pasture), which maintained higher Ms between November, January and March (Julian days 310, 21, 65, and 83). The highest Ms for FN (native forest) was recorded in March (Julian days 65 and 83), as well as for PB (productive pasture).

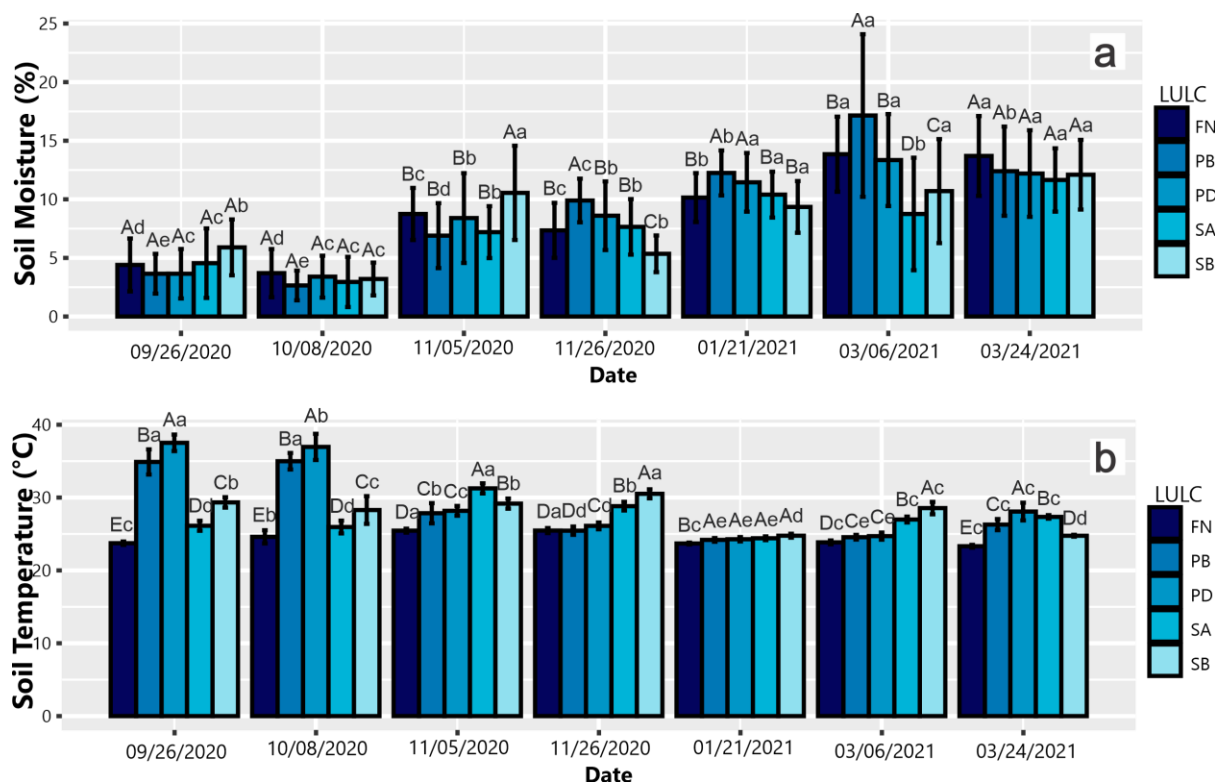


Figure 4. Grouping of means and the standard deviation of the variables a) Soil Moisture (Ms) and b) Soil Temperature (Ts) evaluated on different dates in the land uses and land cover (LULC) of native forest (FN), productive pasture (PB), degraded pasture (PD), high-yield soybean (SA) and low-yield soybean (SB). Means followed by uppercase letters do not differ in land use and land cover within each day and lowercase letters do not differ for the dates by Scott-Knott test at 5% probability.

For the periods evaluated (near sowing, during profiling, and post-harvest), the mean Soil Temperature (Ts) obtained in the LULC was 27.44 °C. In Ts there were differences between the days observed for all types of LULC (Figure 4b). In September, October and March (Julian day 270, 282 and 83), the Ts were higher for the PD soil and lower for FN. SA obtained the highest records on Julian day 310 (05/November) relative to FN, PB, PD and SB, and SB on 331 and 65 (26/November and 06/March) relative to FN, PB, PD and SA. For Julian day 21 (21/January), the lowest Ts record was observed for FN, while there was no difference among the other LULC. This means that Ts were high for the other environments.

When evaluating the Ts of each LULC within the observed days, FN recorded higher Ts on Julian days 310 and 331 (November 05th and November 26th), unlike PB, which was on Julian days 270 and 282 (September 26th and October 08th). The PD, SA, and SB recorded only a single day of high Ts (Julian days 270, 310, and 331, respectively).

Figure 5 shows the grouping of Ms and Ts for the different days and LULC studied. The mean soil moisture was significantly higher for Julian days 65 and 83 (Figure 5), with no difference between the LULC regardless of the days observed, but in the overall mean, the highest moisture was obtained for PB (Figure 5).

The lowest mean Ts were recorded from Julian day 21 onwards, corresponding with the highest mean humidity recorded. On the other hand, the highest mean Ts (30.3 °C and 30.2 °C) were on Julian days 270 and 282, which is probably related to the end of the dry season and beginning of the rainy season, as well as the lowest mean Ms.

The highest Ts was for PD (29.4 °C), followed by PB and SB (28.3 °C and 27.9 °C, respectively). The FN soil had the lowest temperature (24.3 °C), allowing it to maintain good Ms.

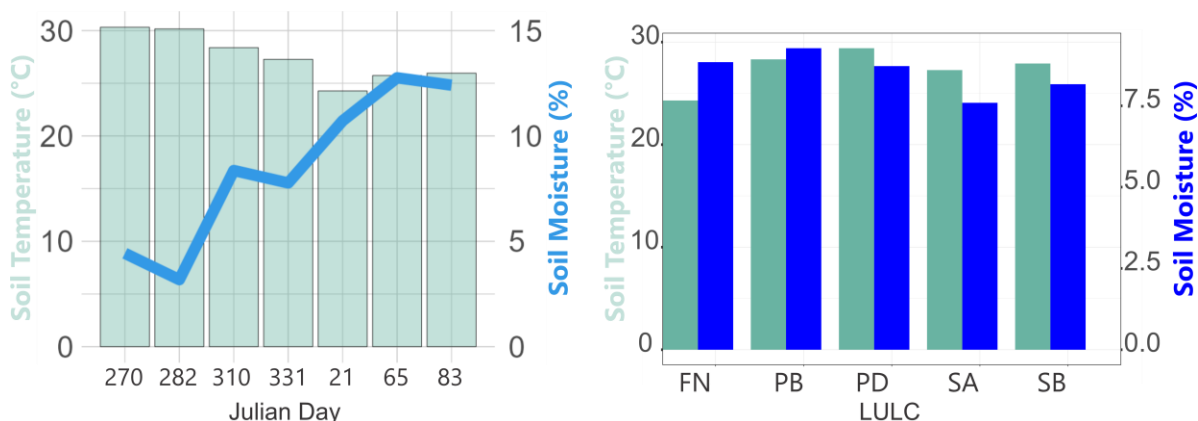


Figure 5. Grouping of means and the standard deviation of the variable Soil Temperature (Ts) and Soil Moisture (Ms) evaluated on different dates in the land uses and land cover (LULC) of native forest (FN), productive pasture (PB), degraded pasture (PD), high-yield soybean (SA) and low-yield soybean (SB). Means followed by uppercase letters do not differ in land use and land cover within each day and lowercase letters do not differ for the dates by Scott-Knott test at 5% probability.

Regarding the variable FCO₂, the mean value recorded during the time series considering all treatments was 3.88 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (Table 2). On Julian days 270 (September 26th) and 310 (November 05th), FCO₂ was highest for FN, on Julian days 282 (October 08th) and 331 (November 26th) for FN, PB and PD had the highest values of FCO₂ and lowest for SA and SB. PD, SA and SB treatments recorded the highest FCO₂ on Julian day 21 (January 21st) and the lowest for FN and PB. As for Julian days 65 (March 06th) and 83 (March 24th), FN and SA and PB and SA, respectively, corroborated for higher FCO₂ emissions (Figure 4a).

When we analyze the LULC, the FN had the highest emissions recorded on Julian days 310 and 65, while for PB the highest emission days were recorded on four Julian days 310, 331, 65, and 83. In PD and SB, the highest emission was observed on Julian day 21, different from what was observed for SA, with the highest emissions on Julian days 21, 65 and 83 (Figure 4a).

In general, total soil CO₂ emission (FCO₂) over time was higher in the FN area and in the SA and SB land uses, a lower amount than the other environments when compared to the overall means. However, when compared statistically, there is no significant difference among LULC for FCO₂ emission under the conditions established in this study.

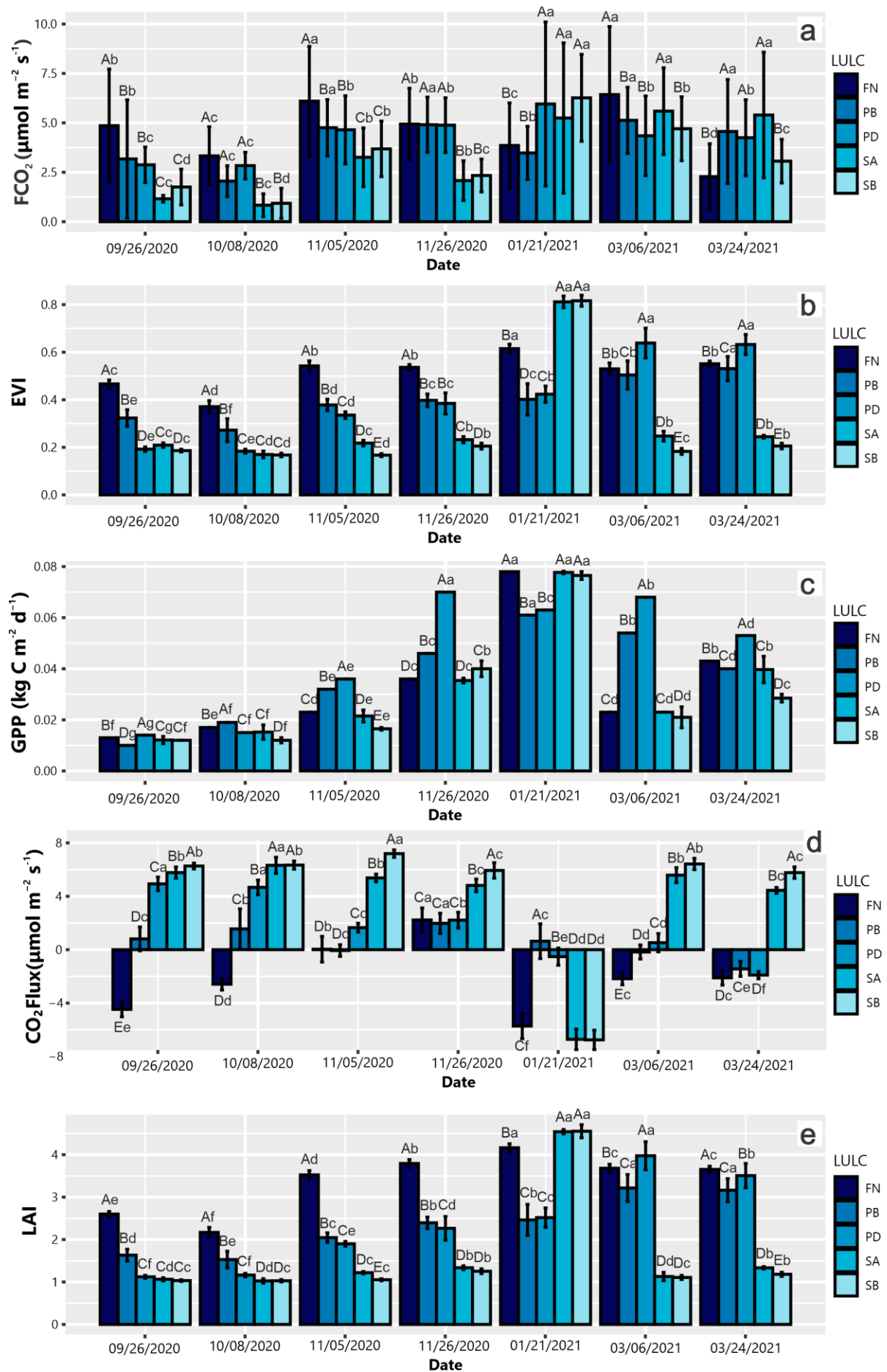


Figure 6. Grouping of means and the standard deviation of the variables a) FCO₂, b) EVI, c) GPP, d) CO₂Flux and e) LAI evaluated on different dates in the land uses and land cover (LULC) of native forest (FN), productive pasture (PB), degraded pasture (PD), high-yield soybean (SA) and low-yield soybean (SB). Means followed by uppercase letters do not differ in land use and land cover within each day and lowercase letters do not differ for the dates by Scott-Knott test at 5% probability.

The EVI data show a mean of 0.38, with the highest EVI recorded for FN (0.52). Subsequently, PB, PD, SA and SB showed an EVI of 0.40, 0.40, 0.31 and 0.28, respectively.

Analyzing the LULCs for the time series, the EVI index for FN was higher from Julian days 270 to 331 compared to the other LULCs (Figure 6b). There was variation among the LULCs from Julian day 21, in which SA and SB obtained higher EVI in this period, while for PD, the EVI was higher on Julian days 65 and 83. When observed the days within the LULCs, FN, SA and SB had highest EVI on Julian day 21, contrary to PD (Julian days 65 and 83) and PB (Julian day 83).

The mean GPP was 0.036, with the LULC averaging from 0.029 to 0.046 (SB and PD). In FN, PB and SB, the GPP was 0.033, 0.037 and 0.032, respectively. GPP values were higher for PD on five Julian days of the seven evaluated compared to FN, PB, SA and SB (Figure 6c). The other LULCs had higher averages on Julian day 282 (PB) and 21 (FN, SA and SB). When relating each LULC to the observed days, it can be seen that Julian day 21 had the highest mean GPP for FN, PB, SA, and SB, while PD had the highest mean GPP on Julian day 331.

The variability of CO₂Flux for each LULC is presented in Figure 6d. The mean CO₂Flux for all LULCs in the time series was 1.62 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. SB had the highest CO₂Flux storage on six of the seven Julian days, with the highest mean recorded on Julian day 310, corresponding to November. However, on Julian day 282, the SB did not differ from the SA, i.e., both showed equal means for CO₂Flux. The PB has the highest CO₂Flux storage only on Julian day 21.

Observing the different LULC for the seven days, the FN and PB recorded CO₂Flux in larger amounts on Julian day 331, different from PD, which showed higher means on Julian days 270 and 282. For SA and SB, the highest values were on Julian days 282 and 310, respectively. Overall, FN and PB were the LULCs with the lowest CO₂Flux values, with the lowest concentration occurring in January.

The results found through the LAI in the different LULCs show a variation from 0.90 to 4.70, with an mean of 2.27. The FN stands out with the highest mean in the

different days observed (3.37) (Figure 6e). Only on Julian days 21 and 65, the means were higher for SA, SB and PD. When we analyze the LAI for each LULC, there is a significant difference between the days observed, with the highest values verified on days 21 (FN, SA and SB), 65 (PB and PD) and 83 (PB).

Through PCA, we observed that the ordering of variables in each principal component (PC) of the axes was influenced by the degree of vegetation cover and moisture of land uses and land cover (Figure 7). Thus, PC1 contributed more to the variability of variables related to photosynthesis and LULC. Therefore, in PC2, the climatic factors affecting LULC influenced the variables humidity and temperature.

The first two PCs accumulated at least 67.3% of the total data variance across all dates (Figure 7). The first principal component (PC1) accounted for at least 50.4% of the total variance, while the second principal component (PC2) accounted for at least 16.1% of the total variance across collection days.

For Julian day 270 (September 26th), FN and PB were associated with the variables FCO₂, LAI and EVI. The other LULC were close to the variables GPP, CO₂Flux, Ms and ST with emphasis on soybean with high productive potential, which showed great variability among the points collected. The variable CO₂Flux had the highest positive contribution, and the variables EVI and LAI had the highest negative contribution for PC1. On Julian day 282 (October 8th), FN and PB were associated with the variables EVI, GPP, FCO₂ and Ms. The other LULC were close to the variables ST and CO₂Flux with emphasis on native forest (FN) and high yield potential soybean (SA), which showed great variability among the points collected. CO₂Flux had the highest positive contribution, and the EVI had the highest negative contribution for PC1.

For Julian day 310 (November 5th), the FN, PB and PD were associated with the variables FCO₂, LAI, EVI and GPP. The other LULC were close to the variables CO₂Flux, Ms and ST with emphasis on the low-yield potential soybean (SB), which showed great variability between the points collected. The CO₂Flux had the highest positive contribution, and the variables EVI and LAI the highest negative contribution for PC1. On Julian day 331 (November 26th), FN, PB and PD were associated with the variables FCO₂, GPP, Ms, EVI and LAI. The other LULC were close to the variables CO₂Flux and Ts with emphasis on SA, which showed high variability among the points collected. The EVI and LAI had the highest positive contribution, and the CO₂Flux and Ts variables had the highest negative contribution for PC1.

For Julian day 21 (January 21st), the PB and PD were associated with the variables CO₂Flux and Ms. The other LULC were close to the variables GPP, LAI, EVI, FCO₂ and Ts with emphasis on the degraded pasture (PD), which showed high variability among the points collected. The CO₂Flux had the highest positive contribution and the variables GPP, EVI and LAI the highest negative contribution for PC1. On Julian day 65 (March 6th), SA and SB were associated with the variables CO₂Flux and Ts. The other LULC were close to the variables FCO₂, GPP, Ms, EVI and LAI with emphasis on the native forest, which showed great variability among the points collected. The CO₂Flux and Ts had the highest positive contribution and the variables EVI and LAI the highest negative contribution for PC1. On Julian day 83 (March 24th), FN, PB and PD were associated with the variables LAI, EVI, GPP, Ts, and Ms. The other LULC were close to the variables CO₂Flux and FCO₂ with emphasis on SA, which showed high variability among the points collected. The variable EVI and LAI had the highest positive contribution and the CO₂Flux the highest negative contribution for PC1.

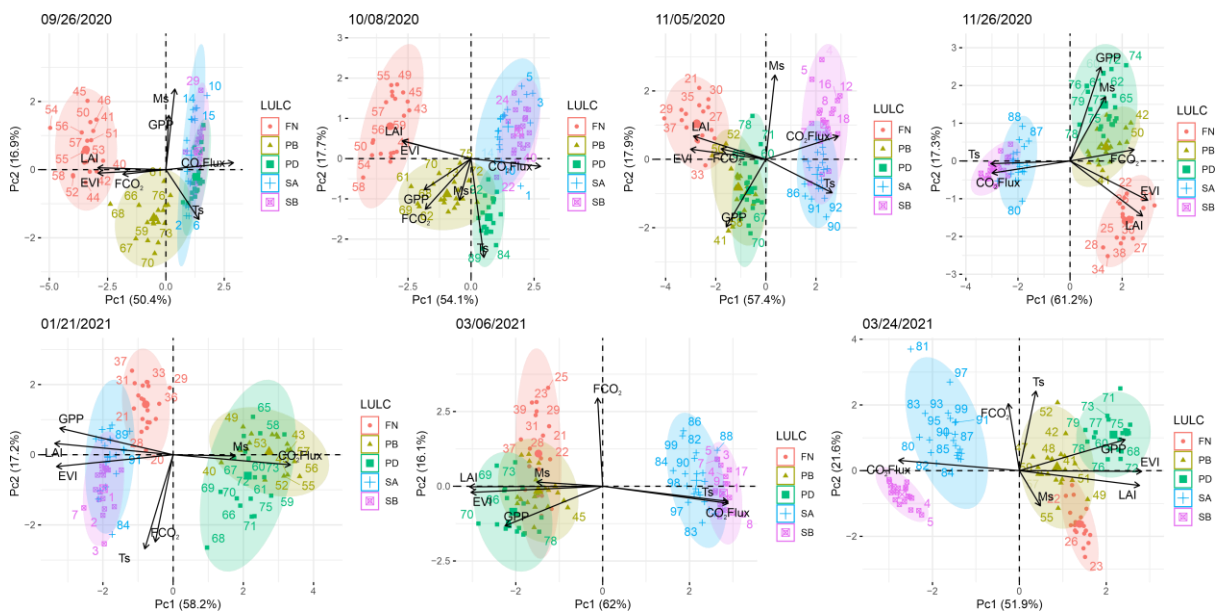


Figure 7. Principal component analysis for the variables FCO₂, Ms, Ts, CO₂Flux, EVI, LAI and GPP evaluated at different dates in the land uses and land cover (LULC) of native forest (FN), productive pasture (PB), degraded pasture (PD), high-yield soybean (SA) and low-yield soybean (SB).

For Ms, there was low-magnitude correlations between the variables GPP (0.477), LAI (0.414), EVI (0.381), FCO₂ (0.280), Ts (-0.444), and CO₂Flux (-0.243) (Figure 8). The LULCs showed positive correlations between these variables, except

for Ts and CO₂Flux variables. The boxplot shows that Ms values are clustered in the first and the second quartiles for all LULC, as shown in the histogram and density plot of the continuous variables. The correlation between Ts and GPP (-0.491), LAI (-0.561), EVI (-0.533), Ms (-0.444) and FCO₂ (-0.240) were negative, while for CO₂Flux (0.459) were positive, but of low magnitude. LULC showed negative correlations between these variables, except for moisture and CO₂Flux variables. The boxplot shows low Ts values for FN, while PD and PB have the highest values, which clustered in the third quartile, as shown in the histogram and density plot of the continuous variables.

There were low magnitude correlations between FCO₂ and GPP (0.208), LAI (0.354), EVI (0.363) Ms (0.280), Ts (-0.240), and CO₂Flux (-0.314). The LULC showed negative correlations between these variables, except for the CO₂Flux variable. From the boxplot, it can be seen that the FCO₂ values were lowest for SA and SB and highest for FN. There were low magnitude correlations between CO₂Flux and GPP (-0.582), LAI (-0.857), EVI (-0.890), FCO₂ (-0.314), Ms (-0.243), and Ts (0.459). From the boxplot, it can be seen that the CO₂Flux values were lowest for FN and highest for SA and SB.

There were positive correlations between EVI and GPP (0.715), LAI (0.979), FCO₂ (0.363) and Ms (0.381) and negative correlations between EVI and CO₂Flux (-0.890) and Ts (-0.533), with high magnitude for GPP, LAI and CO₂Flux. LULC showed positive correlations between these variables, except for Ts and CO₂Flux. From the boxplot, it can be seen that EVI values were lower for SA and SB and higher for FN, as shown in the histogram and density plot of the continuous variables.

The overall correlation between LAI and GPP was positive and significant (0.70). All LULC showed positive correlations between these variables. The boxplot shows that the LAI values were lower for SA and SB and higher for FN, as evidenced in the histogram and density plot of the continuous variables.

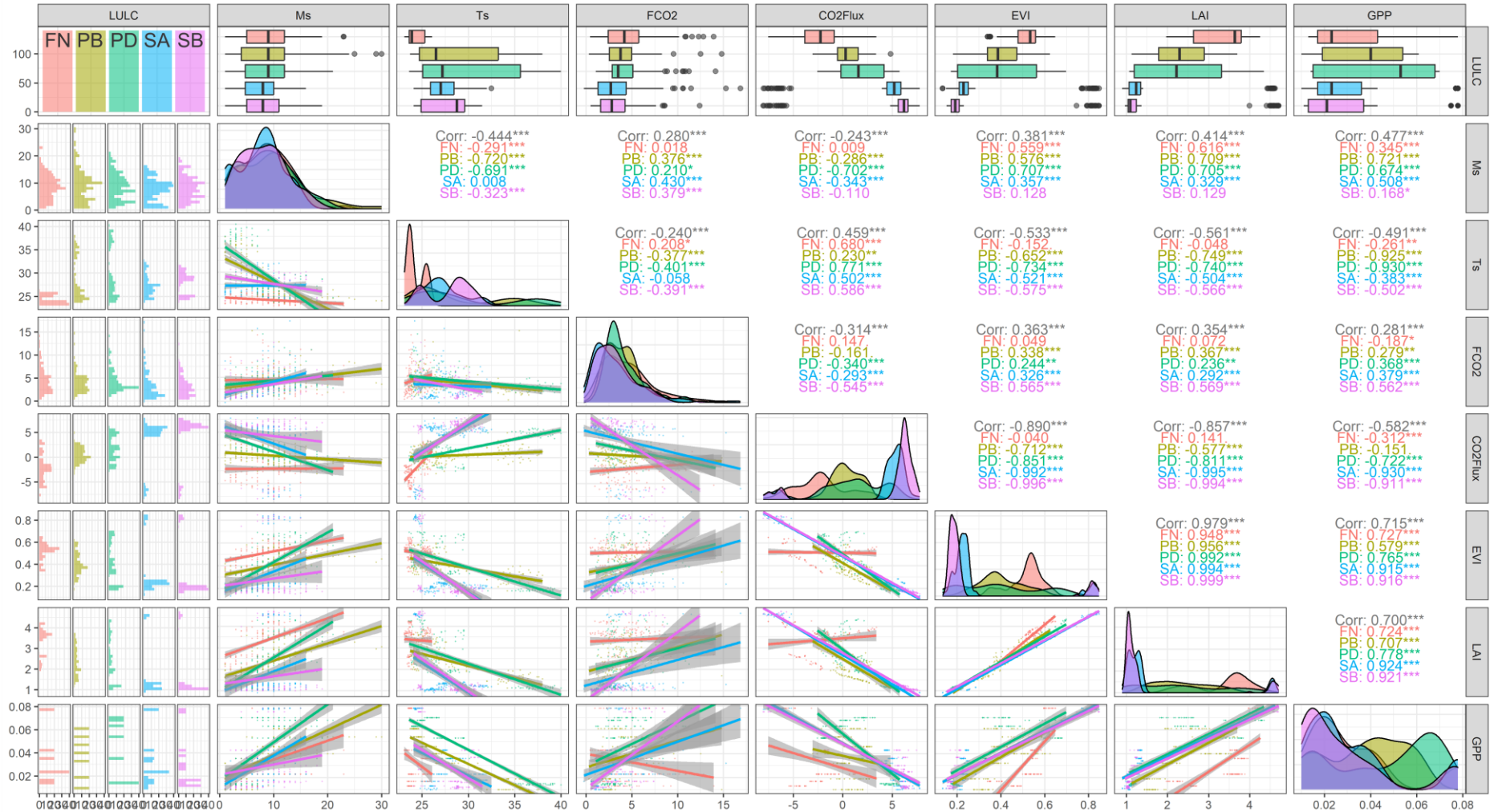


Figure 8. Pearson correlations for the variables FCO₂, Ms, Ts, CO₂Flux, EVI, LAI and GPP evaluated at different dates in the land uses and land cover (LULC) of native forest (FN), productive pasture (PB), degraded pasture (PD), high-yield soybean (SA) and low-yield soybean (SB).

2.4 DISCUSSION

Climate change worldwide is caused by anthropogenic actions such as land occupation (HE; ZHANG, 2022; HOUGHTON et al., 2012), ecosystem degradation (TCHOBSALA et al., 2021), urbanization and exploitation of natural resources (DANISH; ULUCAK; KHAN, 2020), which are enhanced by the growing world population (FRONTISTIS, 2021). This entire scenario goes through the carbon cycle dynamics, where solutions for reducing the concentrations of this element in the atmosphere are required.

The mean values of Soil Moisture (Ms) and Soil Temperature (Ts) were higher and lower, respectively, in the native forest than in the other land use and land cover (Figure 8). This fact was already expected since the native forest provides a higher volume of vegetation cover. No difference was found for the Ms variable between the first Julian days 270 and 282 (September and October), as well as the last Julian day 83 (March), which may be related to the previous dry period and the end of the rainy period. However, it can be seen a greater influence of the dry-rainy transition period on the degraded pasture area since the mean temperatures were higher than the other environments (Figure 8).

In our study, September and October (Julian days 270 and 282) had the lowest FCO₂ emission, recording low average humidity and high soil temperatures. Therefore, we found that the variable soil CO₂ emission (FCO₂) showed no difference for the LULCs, but did show a difference between the days observed. Throughout the days, there was a tendency to increase the FCO₂. This can be explained after the rainfall events during the observed days, increasing the FCO₂ flux. Soil temperature and soil moisture are influencing factors in the CO₂ (carbon dioxide) emission variability in soils and can be altered after a rainfall (PANOSSO et al., 2007). This occurs because the water drains into the soil and causes the FCO₂ found in the pores to escape, making a barrier that prevents the FCO₂ emission (ZANCHI et al., 2003).

Taking into account that the higher the values obtained for the Leaf Area Index (LAI), the better the ability of the vegetation to develop by absorbing sunlight and, therefore, the higher the CO₂ storage capacity, we highlight that the native forest (FN) was the environment with the highest LAI and, in a general way, the environment with the highest CO₂ concentration, regardless of the days observed. Castro Pereira et al. (2020) found that areas with high LAI values are sites where much of the vegetation

is developing, absorbing a higher flux of energy radiation and a higher amount of carbon in the biomass.

Thus, the CO₂flux index (CO₂ flux) allows the estimation of carbon absorbed by the vegetation (DELLA-SILVA et al., 2022). Vegetated areas have high CO₂flux because the plants retain more carbon dioxide (TEOBALDO; BAPTISTA, 2016), allowing better development conditions for the vegetation. Thus, we verified in this study a difference in the CO₂ flux values between PB (productive pasture), SA (high-yield potential soybean) and SB (low-yield potential soybean). The months with the highest CO₂flux values, regardless the LULC, were recorded in October and November (Julian days 282 and 310), a transition period from dry to rainy season.

The interaction between land cover and atmosphere is weighted by the type of land cover, that is, its litter stock and organic matter. Principal component analysis allowed relating all LULCs and variables simultaneously (Figure 7). Overall, all LULCs during the time series were allocated to different quadrants, except native forest, which remained almost always in the same quadrant due to its high correlation with LAI and EVI. Similar results were reported by Jardim et al. (2022), who observed similarity in the occurrence of increased vegetative vigor in the forest canopy. According to these authors, such findings can be explained, in general, by climatic conditions, where the rainfall rate directly influences the vegetation cover in the area.

The dynamics of the variables shown in Figure 7 are strongly influenced by the seasonality of rainfall and, hence by soil moisture conditions, which is a determining factor for the seasonality of leaf cover for each land use and land cover. Over the time-series, we observed a marked positive trend in CO₂Flux for the areas where the soil was exposed or in vegetation senescence. This positive trend is due to the vegetation's efficiency of the carbon sequestration process, as already evidenced in previous studies (DELLA-SILVA et al., 2022; ROSSI et al., 2022). Rainfall and soil moisture dynamics in the study area affect phenology, stomatal conductance seasonality, and photosynthesis (MARQUES et al., 2020; MENDES et al., 2017). It is essential to point out that photosynthesis decreases with the closing of the stomas due to the reduction of CO₂ absorption in the dry season (BAI et al., 2017; PINHO-PESSOA et al., 2018; ZHANG et al., 2014), which leads to leaf loss (senescence) under drought stress conditions. Besides the senescence of leaf tissue, there is a severe reduction of remaining leaves due to soil moisture deficits or soybean

defoliation, resulting in lower EVI and LAI values. These findings indicate different plant-environment interactions affecting the variables in the study areas.

The variables Ms and Ts are important for the CO₂ emission process during the time-series, directly influencing the decomposition of organic matter and the microbial and root activities (SILVA-OLAYA et al., 2013a). Ms and Ts are always on opposite axes of the PCA (Figure 7) and are, therefore, negatively correlated (Figure 8). On the other hand, no high-magnitude correlation was found between Ts and Ms with FCO₂, CO₂Flux, and the LULCs, possibly due to the low variation over the time-series period (MOITINHO et al., 2021). The effect of Ms may partially hide the effects of Ts on FCO₂, as these are interdependent variables and commonly change simultaneously (DING et al., 2010).

The contribution of soil FCO₂ obtained during the experimental period will increase, due to the increased activity of the soil microbiota (CHEN et al., 2014; STRUECKER; DYCKMANS; JOERGENSEN, 2017) and *priming* effect (SHAHBAZ et al., 2018). The concentration of FCO₂ values for the LULC are different. For the native forest, the high values come from the higher amount of roots (NICHOLS et al., 2016) and the intense rotation of soil organic matter (CHEN et al., 2016; CRAIG et al., 2022). The increased soil FCO₂ occurs as a function of carbon inputs into the soil, either from roots of cover crops, autotrophic respiration (FERREIRA et al., 2018; HU et al., 2018; WENCHEN et al., 2017) or by the decomposition of residues deposited on the soil surface. Aerobic conditions favor the decomposition of soil organic carbon (JAIN et al., 2016).

2.5 CONCLUSIONS

The link among land use and land cover to soil CO₂ emissions were high in our assessment, and closely related to biotic pool of carbon. In descending order, in the native forest, degraded pasture, productive pasture, high-yield potential soybean, and low-yield potential soybean areas are listed in order of greatest FCO₂ value, which means that these values may have been affected by the increased stock of soil organic matter and roots within the chamber.

The positive values of CO₂ flux model suggest carbon loss towards atmosphere due to plant respiration in the soybean areas and lower in the native forest area, even in a landscape with abrupt changes of phytophysiology, i.e., land use and land

cover. Thus, areas with large forest areas had lower concentrations of carbon dioxide, mitigating climate change. Furthermore, future works comparing the variables considered in our study for other landscapes may contribute to the carbon dynamics comprehension.

CHAPTER 3 – RELATION BETWEEN SOIL RESPIRATION AND MULTIPLE VARIABLES ON EUCALYPTUS SPECIES CROP IN SOUTHWESTERN BRAZILIAN CERRADO

ABSTRACT – Vegetation indices (VIs) are spectral models that allow the measurement of chlorophyll content, crop health, predict dry biomass, allowing a priori decision making. An important factor in planted areas is the soil CO₂ emission, also known as soil respiration, which is the result of the decay of labile organic matter and root respiration and is related to species, temperature, and soil moisture. This study aims to verify if soil carbon dioxide (CO₂) flux (FCO₂) and VIs obtained via airborne remote sensor over a eucalyptus species area (*E. camaldulensis*, *E. urophylla*, *E. saligna*, *E. grandis*, *E. urograndis* and *Corymbria citriodora*). A multispectral imagery based the VIs estimation (green, red-edge and near infrared) from the Parrot Sequoia sensor, and on the same day FCO₂, soil moisture and temperature were collected. The six species of eucalyptus were randomly arranged in blocks with four repetitions and each block repetition divided into four zones, totaling 96 samples that were compared by statistical metrics to the data estimated by the. Soil moisture has a negative and significant correlation compared to FCO₂ ($p < 0.05$), proved to be one of the main factors that controls soil respiration. The vegetation indices NDRE (Normalized Difference Red-Edge Index), NDVI (Normalized Difference Vegetation Index), SAVI (Soil-Adjusted Vegetation Index) and MSAVI (Modified Soil Adjusted Vegetation Index) showed higher negative correlation to FCO₂, for *E. camaldulensis*, *E. saligna* and *E. urophylla* species. Multivariate Analysis of Variance showed significance ($p < 0.01$) for the species factor, which indicates there are differences when considering all variables simultaneously. Results achieved in this study allow us to differentiate FCO₂ among eucalyptus species using sensors attached to remotely piloted aircraft. This relation relies on the contribution of roots, soil organic matter, plant residues, canopy spectral response and the chlorophyll content of eucalyptus species.

Keywords: Carbon Dioxide; Remote Sensor; Sustainability

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The increasing demand for timber over the last few years has led to land use for the rapid growth of tree crops. (VIERA; RODRÍGUEZ-SOALLEIRO, 2019). In Brazil, the total forestry area is about 9.5 million of hectares (ha), of which 76.9% are eucalyptus (*Eucalyptus* spp.) cash crops (IBGE, 2022). This genus is distinguished for cultivars availability adapted to the different Brazilian biomes and edaphoclimatic conditions (COSTA; CAMPANHA; GONTIJO NETO, 2022). Eucalyptus monoculture fields are distributed over tropics and subtropics, notably in Brazil (BOOTH, 2013). Mato Grosso do Sul state has been the eucalyptus expansion head, presenting a significant increase of cellulose production in the last five years, making this state as the leading exporter in the first four months of 2020 (MACHADO; RAYMUNDO, 2021).

According to La Scala et al. (2012), eucalyptus has the potential to stock atmospheric carbon as aboveground biomass and in the soil, mostly when combined with pasture and agricultural land cover. Thus, forest crops plays an important role on global carbon cycle, especially on greenhouse effect reduction as well as stocking atmospheric CO₂ (DU et al., 2015). The monitoring of CO₂ amount emitted from soil over forest areas may dispose important data for cultivation, in view of forest management and taking the human action affects the carbon emission, as well as climatic variation, since soil had the second biggest CO₂ efflux source (FCO₂) (DARENOVA; ČATER, 2020). Drake et al. (2018) suggests that soil FCO₂ on eucalyptus crops are affected by environmental factors, such as soil temperature, water content and precipitation variations.

Throughout the carbon cycle, CO₂ is based on plant (autotrophic) and microbial respiration (heterotrophic). Soil respiration is the sum of autotrophic respiration below the soil surface, where plant roots are the main responsible for it, and heterotrophic respiration of microorganisms during the decomposition of organic matter (GUTIÉRREZ DEL ARROYO; WOOD, 2021; MA et al., 2019; ZENG et al., 2016).

The challenges of forest management are related to reliable, accurate, and cost-effective methods for properly dating forest dynamics, seeking the growing carbon market (e.g., reducing emissions from deforestation and forest degradation) determines this need (SHI et al., 2022). In this sense, mechanisms generated by remote sensing may assist the carbon dynamics comprehension, taking the role of greenhouse gases (GHGs) in the soil-atmosphere interface, through multispectral image analysis that enables in loco measurements, monitoring, mapping, and

application of vegetation cover (HATFIELD et al., 2008; MARCELINO DO NASCIMENTO et al., 2022).

Considering the advancement on big data, geoprocessing, and informatics technologies (DE OLIVEIRA et al., 2021), significant changes have occurred in forestry activities management, as the use of remotely piloted aircrafts that use images for crop mapping, evaluation of cultivated areas, disease detection, and soil mapping (Zás et al., 2017). Thus, image analysis tools through spectral indices are presented as alternatives for further research and decision-making in a more objective way.

It can be stated that there is a relationship between the amount of cumulative CO₂ efflux (FCO₂) and the growth of eucalyptus trees, since these plants need the nutrients released into the soil after decomposition of the existing organic material (VERSINI et al., 2013). Vegetation indices are also related to several factors related to eucalyptus plants, such as the amount of water in the leaf (VILLACRÉS et al., 2021), provide information about the plant's leaf area index (HIRIGOYEN et al., 2022), and recognize different species by reflectance and growth (DE OLIVEIRA et al., 2021).

Given this, the hypothesis of this study was that eucalyptus species have differences in FCO₂ and spectral variables. This research objective is to evaluate the relation between soil carbon dioxide flux and multispectral indices of vegetation in a monoculture system of eucalyptus species.

3.2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

3.2.1 Study area

This study is based in the experimental field of eucalyptus crop at Universidade Federal de Mato Grosso do Sul, Chapadão do Sul campus. The municipality of Chapadão do Sul has an area 3,252.327 km² of area and an estimated population of 26,499 (IBGE, 2021) (Figure 1). According to Köppen, the region is classified as tropical monsoon climate (Am), with two well defined seasons, being the dry season from April to September and other wet season from October to March (ALVARES et al., 2013). The annual temperature varies from 13°C to 28°C and presents pluviometric precipitation varying from 750 to 1,850 mm (CUNHA; MAGALHÃES; CASTRO, 2013). The soil in this region is classified as dystrophic red oxisol (SANTOS et al., 2011).

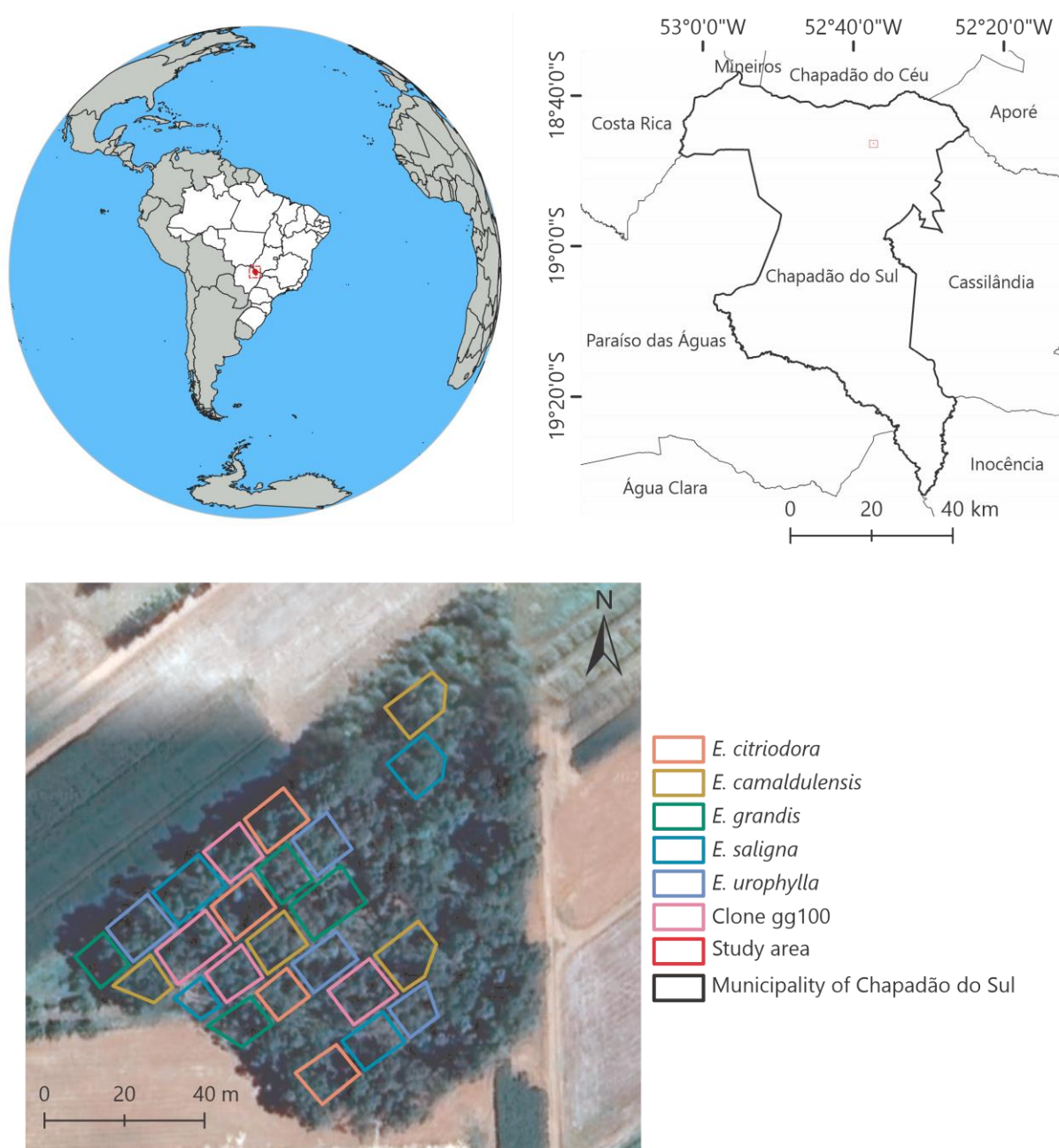


Figure 1. Study area at the Universidade Federal de Mato Grosso do Sul, Chapadão do Sul campus. An area composed by five eucalyptus species: *E. camaldulensis*, *E. urophylla*, *E. saligna*, *E. grandis*, *E. urograndis* and *Corymbria citriodora*.

3.2.2 *In loco* performance of experiment

The experiment was conducted in January 2014, and every fertilization requirement was determined from the chemical analysis of the soil. The following results were found: pH (CaCl₂): 4.9; organic matter: 31.5 g dm⁻³; phosphor: 13.6 mg dm⁻³; hydrogen + aluminum (H + Al): 5.4; potassium: 0.29 cmol_c dm⁻³; calcium: 2.8 cmol_c dm⁻³; magnesium: 0.5 cmol_c dm⁻³; cation exchange capacity (CEC): 9.0 cmol_c dm⁻³; base saturation: 39.9%. The proportions of clay, sand and silt were 46%, 46%

and 8%, respectively. Crowning, weeding, ant control and herbicide application (glyphosate) were performed when necessary.

The experimental design consisted of randomized blocks with four replications, with 20 plants in each experimental plot. The treatments consisted of six species of eucalyptus: *E. camaldulensis*, *E. urophylla*, *E. saligna*, *E. grandis* e *E. urograndis* e *Corymbria citriodora* (Figure 2).

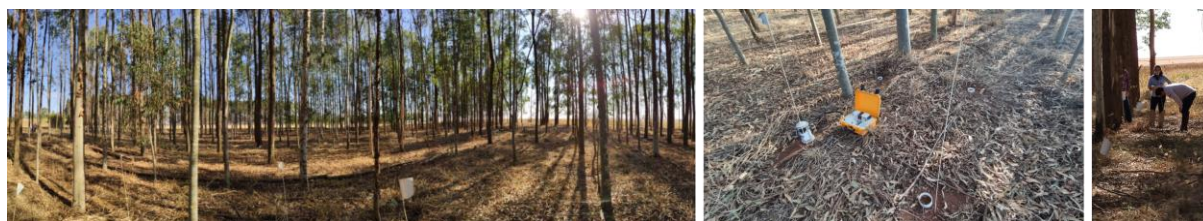


Figure 9. Experimental local of the six eucalyptus species.

To evaluate the carbon dioxide (CO₂) efflux from the soil (FCO₂), we used the LI-COR portable system, model LI-8100 (Figure 3a), which monitors the CO₂ concentration variations inside the soil respiration chamber (Figure 3b) using optical absorption spectroscopy in the infrared spectral region. The soil breathing chamber is a closed system with internal volume of 854.2 cm³ and circular contact area of 83.7 cm², being coupled over the PVC collars that were previously inserted into the soil 24 h before collection. This procedure results from the fact that the direct insertion of the chamber over the soil can cause disturbances causing additional CO₂ emissions from the soil.



Figure 3. LI-COR model LI-8100 portable system (a) connected to the soil chamber (b), soil moisture sensor (c) and soil temperature sensor (d).

In loco measurements were performed in each block of the repetitions of the eucalyptus species and each block of repetitions was divided into four zones, for installation of PVC in the centroid of each zone, thus having four measurements in each block, taken in the morning period, from 8 am to 10 am in each species of eucalyptus. The FCO_2 was evaluated at each point by an adjustment of the CO_2 concentration of the air inside the chamber as a function of a parabolic regression in the time after its closure. The measurement mode for the determination of soil CO_2 emission took 90 seconds at each of the sample points and the CO_2 concentration inside the chamber was determined every 2.5 seconds, approximately (SÁ et al., 2019).

The soil temperature (T_s) was monitored using a Digital Spit-Type Thermometer (DELLT DT-625) (Figure 3d). It consists of a 20 cm rod that is inserted into the soil at 5 cm from the location where the PVC collars were previously installed for the evaluation of soil CO_2 emission. Similarly, the Soil Moisture (M_s) was recorded

using a TDR – Time Domain Reflectometry (Hydrosense TM, Campbell Scientific, Australia) (Figure 3c) device, consisting of a probe with two 12 cm rods that were inserted inside the soil, perpendicular to the surface, also at 5 cm from the PVC collars. The soil moisture value is derived from the time it takes for an electric current to travel the distance of 32 mm from one rod to the other. The soil temperature and soil moisture assessments were carried out concomitantly with the assessments of soil CO₂ emission.

3.2.3 Multispectral airborne images acquisition and vegetation indices

The characteristics related to high-throughput phenotyping were obtained on the same dates. In addition, flights were conducted with remotely piloted fixed-wing aircraft Sensefly eBee RTK, with autonomous flight control (Figure 4). The eBee airborned the Parrot Sequoia multispectral sensor. This sensor is a multispectral camera for agricultural applications which uses the sunlight sensor and an additional 16 Mpx RGB camera for recognition. Yet, the sensor has horizontal field of view (HFOV) of 61.9°, vertical field of view (VFOV) of 48.5° and diagonal field of view (DFOV) of 73.7°. The multispectral images were acquired over the green (550 nm ± 40 nm), red (660 nm ± 40 nm), red-edge (735 nm ± 10 nm) and near-infrared (790 nm ± 40 nm) wavelengths (λ). The flight altitude over the study site was 100 m, involving a spatial resolution of 0.10 m.



Figure 4. Remotely Piloted Fixed-Wing Aircraft Sensefly eBee RTK loaded with Sensefly Sequoia sensor.

Overflights were performed with an image overlap of 80% lateral and 85% longitudinal, and the same area was imaged twice using perpendicular flight lines. The increase in overlap between images was necessary to obtain a greater number of scenes containing the same control points, enabling greater accuracy in the mosaicing of images using Pix4Dmapper software. This need occurs because of the height of the eucalyptus plants, which are at the mercy of stem oscillations due to the winds, because no matter how small their speed may be, they interfere in the mosaicing process. The overflights were performed near the zenith in order to minimize shadows on the trees, at 11 am local time, because the multispectral sensor is of the passive type, i.e., dependent on sunlight.

The data from these wavelengths (λ) allowed the calculation of the vegetation indices, as shown in Table 1. The aerial survey was carried out by using RTK (Real Time Kinematics) technology, which in turn allows the estimation of the camera position in making it possible to estimate the position of the camera at the instant of image collection with an accuracy of 2.5 cm. The images were mosaic and orthorectified in the computer program Pix4Dmapper. This reflectance calibration plate

is individualized for each device. It contains information about reflectance ratios for each wavelength measured by the multispectral sensor. The field calibration procedure is carried out immediately before the flight is carried out. The procedure to take the reference photo for field calibration is carried out by e-Motion software. As the flight had a maximum duration of 15 minutes, there was no need to repeat the calibration after the field flight. The positional accuracy of the orthoimages was verified with ground control points (GCP), based on GNSS RTK Emilid Reach.

Table 1. Vegetation indices over Parrot Sequoia imagery.

Index	Equation
ARVI2 (Atmospherically Resistant Vegetation Index 2)	$-0.18 + 1.17 \cdot \left(\frac{R\lambda_{nir} - R\lambda_{red}}{R\lambda_{nir} + R\lambda_{red}} \right)$
ATSAVI (Ajusted Transformed soil-ajusted VI)	$1.22 \cdot \left(\frac{R\lambda_{nir} - 1.22 \cdot - R\lambda_{red} - 0.03}{1.22 \times R\lambda_{nir} + R\lambda_{red} - 0.03 + 0.08(1 + 1.22^2)} \right)$
BWDRVI (Blue-wide dynamic range vegetation index)	$0.1 \times (R\lambda_{nir} + R\lambda_{red})$
CCCI (Canopy Chlorophyll Content Index)	$\frac{(R\lambda_{nir} - R\lambda_{rededge}) / (R\lambda_{nir} + R\lambda_{rededge})}{(R\lambda_{nir} - R\lambda_{red}) / (R\lambda_{nir} + R\lambda_{red})}$
Clgreen (Chlorophyll Index Green)	$(R\lambda_{nir} / R\lambda_{green}) - 1$
Cirededge (Chlorophyll Index RedEdge)	$(R\lambda_{nir} / R\lambda_{rededge}) - 1$
CVI (Chlorophyll Vegetation Index)	$R\lambda_{nir} \cdot (R\lambda_{red} / R\lambda_{green}^2)$
DVI (Difference Vegetation Index)	$R\lambda_{nir} / R\lambda_{red}$
EVEI2 (Enhanced Vegetation Index 2)	$2.5 \cdot (R\lambda_{nir} - R\lambda_{red}) / (R\lambda_{nir} + 2.4 \cdot R\lambda_{red} + 1)$
GDVI (Difference NIR/Green Difference Vegetation Index)	$R\lambda_{nir} - R\lambda_{green}$
GEMI (Global Environment Monitoring Index)	$2 \cdot (1 - 0.25 \cdot 2) - ((R\lambda_{red} - 0.125) / (1 - R\lambda_{red}))$
GNDVI (Green Normalized Difference Vegetation Index)	$(R\lambda_{nir} - R\lambda_{green}) / (R\lambda_{nir} + R\lambda_{green})$
GRNDVI (Green-Red NDVI)	$(R\lambda_{nir} - (R\lambda_{green} + R\lambda_{red})) / (R\lambda_{nir} + (R\lambda_{green} + R\lambda_{red}))$

GRVI (Green-Red Vegetation Index)	$(R\lambda_{green} - R\lambda_{red}) / (R\lambda_{green} + R\lambda_{red})$
GSAVI (Green Soil Adjusted Vegetation Index)	$((R\lambda_{nir} - R\lambda_{green}) / (R\lambda_{nir} + R\lambda_{green} + 0.5)) \cdot 1.5$
GTVI (Green Triangle Vegetation Index)	$(NDVI + 0.5) / (NDVI + 0.5) \cdot (\sqrt{NDVI} + 0.5)$
IPVI (Infrared Percentage Vegetation Index)	$R\lambda_{nir} / ((R\lambda_{nir} + R\lambda_{red}) / 2) \cdot (NDVI + 1)$
LogR (Log Ratio)	$\log(R\lambda_{nir} / R\lambda_{red})$
MSAVI (Modified Soil Adjusted Vegetation Index)	$(2 \cdot R\lambda_{nir} + 1 - \sqrt{(2 \cdot R\lambda_{nir} + 1)^2 - 8 \cdot (R\lambda_{nir} - R\lambda_{red})}) / 2$
MSRNir_Red (Modified Simple Ratio NIR/RED)	$(R\lambda_{nir} / R\lambda_{red} - 1) / \sqrt{R\lambda_{nir} / R\lambda_{red} + 1}$
NDRE (Normalized Difference Red-Edge Index)	$(R\lambda_{nir} - R\lambda_{rededge}) / (R\lambda_{nir} + R\lambda_{rededge})$
NDVI (Normalized Difference Vegetation Index)	$(R\lambda_{nir} - R\lambda_{red}) / (R\lambda_{nir} + R\lambda_{red})$
NGRDI (Normalized Green-Red Difference Index)	$(R\lambda_{green} - R\lambda_{red}) / R\lambda_{green} / (R\lambda_{nir} + R\lambda_{red} + R\lambda_{green})$
NormR1 (Normalized G)	$R\lambda_{green} / (R\lambda_{nir} + R\lambda_{red} + R\lambda_{green})$
NormR2 (Normalized NIR)	$R\lambda_{nir} / (R\lambda_{nir} + R\lambda_{red} + R\lambda_{green})$
NormR3 (Normalized R)	$R\lambda_{red} / (R\lambda_{nir} + R\lambda_{red} + R\lambda_{green})$
RGR (Red Green Ratio Index)	$R\lambda_{red} / R\lambda_{green}$
RI (Redness Index)	$R\lambda_{red} - R\lambda_{green} / R\lambda_{red} + R\lambda_{green}$
RRI 1	$R\lambda_{nir} / R\lambda_{rededge}$
SAVI (Soil-Adjusted Vegetation Index) II	$(1 + 0.5) \cdot (R\lambda_{nir} - R\lambda_{red}) / (R\lambda_{nir} + R\lambda_{red} + 0.5)$
SRQT_IR_R	$\sqrt{R\lambda_{nir} / R\lambda_{red}}$
SRed_NIR	$R\lambda_{red} / R\lambda_{nir}$
WDRVI (Wide Dynamic Range Vegetation Index)	$(0.1 \cdot R\lambda_{nir} - R\lambda_{red}) / (0.1 \cdot R\lambda_{nir} + R\lambda_{red})$

For each vegetation index derived from the spectral bands, the average of the total pixels in each zone of the repetition blocks of eucalyptus species was calculated. In order to remove the border effect between the repetition blocks, an internal buffer of one meter was removed from the borders of each block.

3.2.4 Statistical analysis

First, a Pearson correlation network was constructed owing to the large number of variables. Variables with positive correlations presents green connection lines, meanwhile negative correlations among variables are red lines. The line thickness is proportional to the correlation magnitude. The analyses were based on “qgraph” pack (EPSKAMP et al., 2012), on R 3.6.3 (R CORE TEAM, 2022) software.

Thereafter, the main spectral indices results were based on multivariate analysis of variance and canonical variables analysis, in view of the interrelation among eucalyptus species. For this purpose, the “candisc” package was used (FRIENDLY; FOX, 2021).

Finally, a further examination of the main spectral and CO₂ flux-related variables was performed using Pearson correlation (by using “GGally” package) (SCHLOERKE et al., 2021), in order to construct a scatterplot and dispersion of variables related to eucalyptus species.

3.3 RESULTS

The correlation network (Figure 5) was high and positive between the features derived from the aggregated photosynthetic processes. The *green*, *red-edge* and NIR (near infrared) spectral bands had a negative linear correlation with carbon dioxide efflux (CO₂) of soil (FCO₂). The NDRE (Normalized Difference Red-Edge Index), NDVI (Normalized Difference Vegetation Index), SAVI (Soil-Adjusted Vegetation Index) e MSAVI (Modified Soil Adjusted Vegetation Index) indices showed the highest correlation with the characteristics soil CO₂ efflux (FCO₂). The FCO₂ variable showed links with all variables, but no variable was clearly associated.

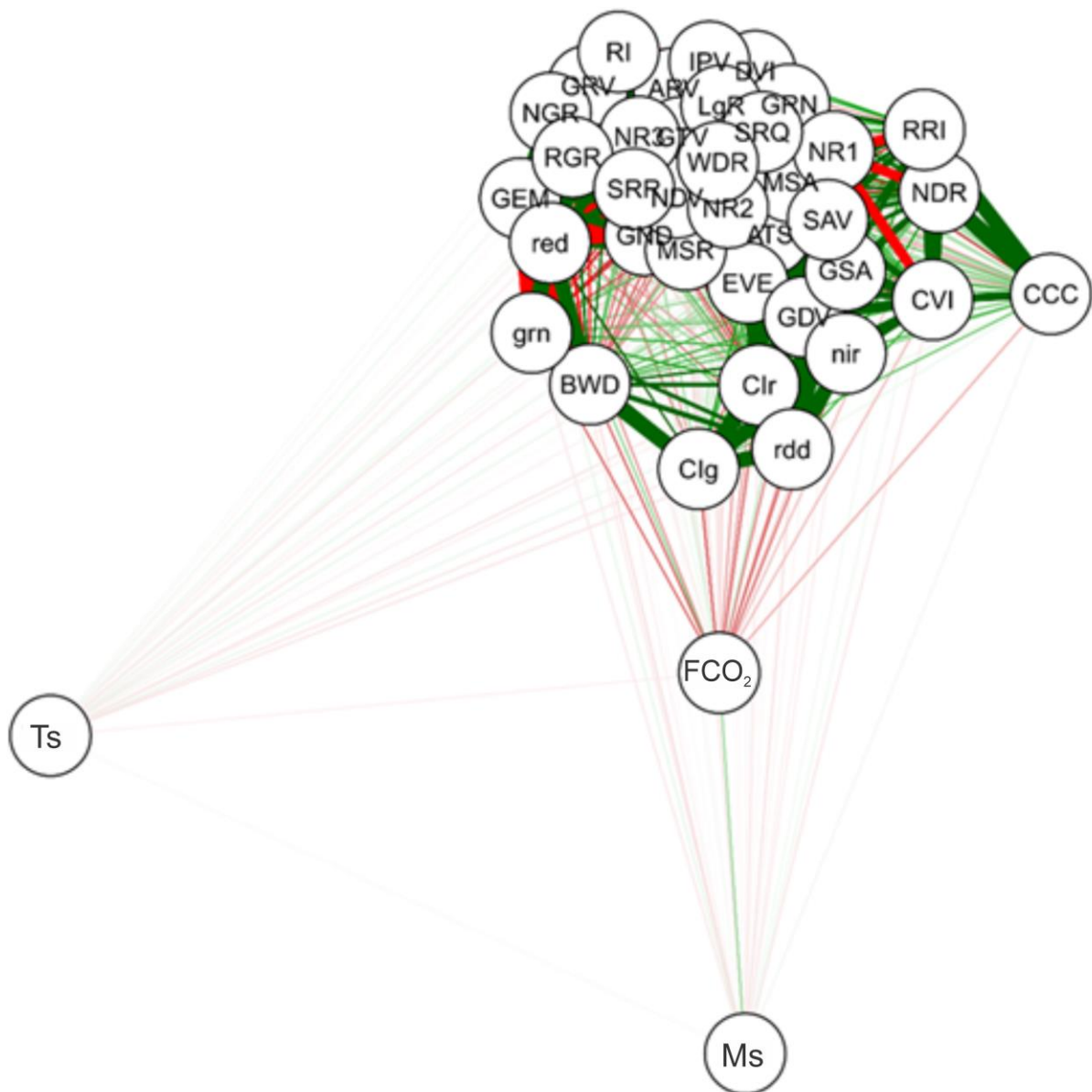


Figure 5. Pearson correlation network among the analyzed variables. Each point represents an index and the lines between the points are correlations between the indices, with thicker lines indicating a correlation greater than 0.6 and the red and green color indicating negative and positive correlation respectively.

Considering the large number of variables acquired via remote sensing and assigned in loco to the eucalyptus species applied in the Pearson correlation network, the variables NDRE, NDVI, SAVI, and MSAVI were selected, which had the highest correlations with soil CO₂ efflux (FCO₂).

Table 2 shows the multivariate analysis of variance for eucalyptus species. The variables soil moisture, soil temperature, the spectral bands (green, red, infrared and red edge) and vegetation indices (NDRE, NDVI, SAVI and MSAVI) were used to test

the hypothesis of the difference between the eucalypt species in relation to the variable FCO₂. The significance level for the species in the test was $p = < 0.00$ for Pillai's test, showing that the null hypothesis is rejected, as there are differences between eucalypt species considering all variables simultaneously.

Table 2. Multivariate analysis of variance considering eucalyptus species and the variables FCO₂, soil temperature and moisture, spectral bands (green, red, infrared, and red edge), and vegetation indices (NDRE, NDVI, SAVI, and MSAVI).

Source of variation [†]	Degrees of freedom	Pillai's test	p-value
Intercepto	1	1.00	<0.00***
Espécies	5	0.91	<0.00**
Resíduos	90		

[†] Considered statistical significance of $p \leq 0.05$ by * e $p \leq 0.01$ by **

The canonical analysis considering the eucalyptus species and the variables with a higher correlation to FCO₂ is shown in Figure 5. The ratio of the variance accumulated in the first two canonical variables was higher than 65%. The variables NDRE, FCO₂, Soil moisture, red-edge, NIR, SAVI, NDVI, and MSAVI were most important in distinguishing between eucalypt species in Can1, while part red, green and soil temperature ratio were the most relevant variables in Can2. This finding reveals that a significant portion of the variability of the eucalypt species in relation to the variables evaluated in each species can be summarized in two linear combinations, named Can1 and Can2.

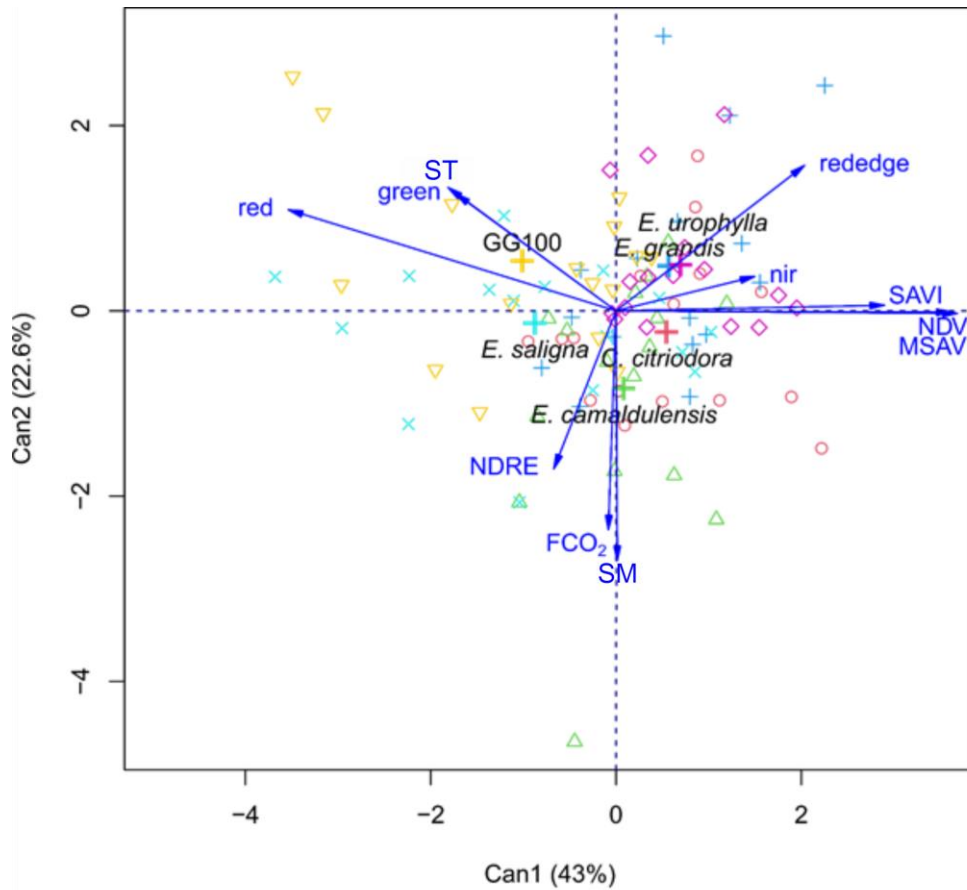


Figure 6. Canonical variable analysis considering eucalyptus species and FCO₂, soil moisture (Ms) and temperature (Ts), spectral bands (green, red, NIR, and red-edge), and vegetation indices (NDRE, NDVI, SAVI, and MSAVI).

From the analyzed variables in Figure 6, it can be observed that red, Soil Moisture (Ms), NDVI, and MSAVI presented the greatest variability, which can be proven by the module of their vectors. The variables NDRE, FCO₂ and Soil Moisture were those that contributed most to the discrimination of the species *E. camaldulensis* and the variables red, green and Soil temperature were those that contributed most to the discrimination of the clone GG100. On the other hand, the species *E. urophylla* and *E. grandis* were more similar in the canonical variables analysis.

The spatialization of NDRE, NDVI, SAVI, and MSAVI variables is presented in Figure 5, considering that the canonical variable analysis among the eucalyptus species correlated significantly with FCO₂. Maximum values of 0.45, 0.88, 0.70, 0.99 and minimum values of -0.24, 0.31, 0.13 and -0.24 were observed for NDRE, NDVI, SAVI and MSAVI, respectively, among *E. camaldulensis*, *E. urophylla* and *E. saligna*.

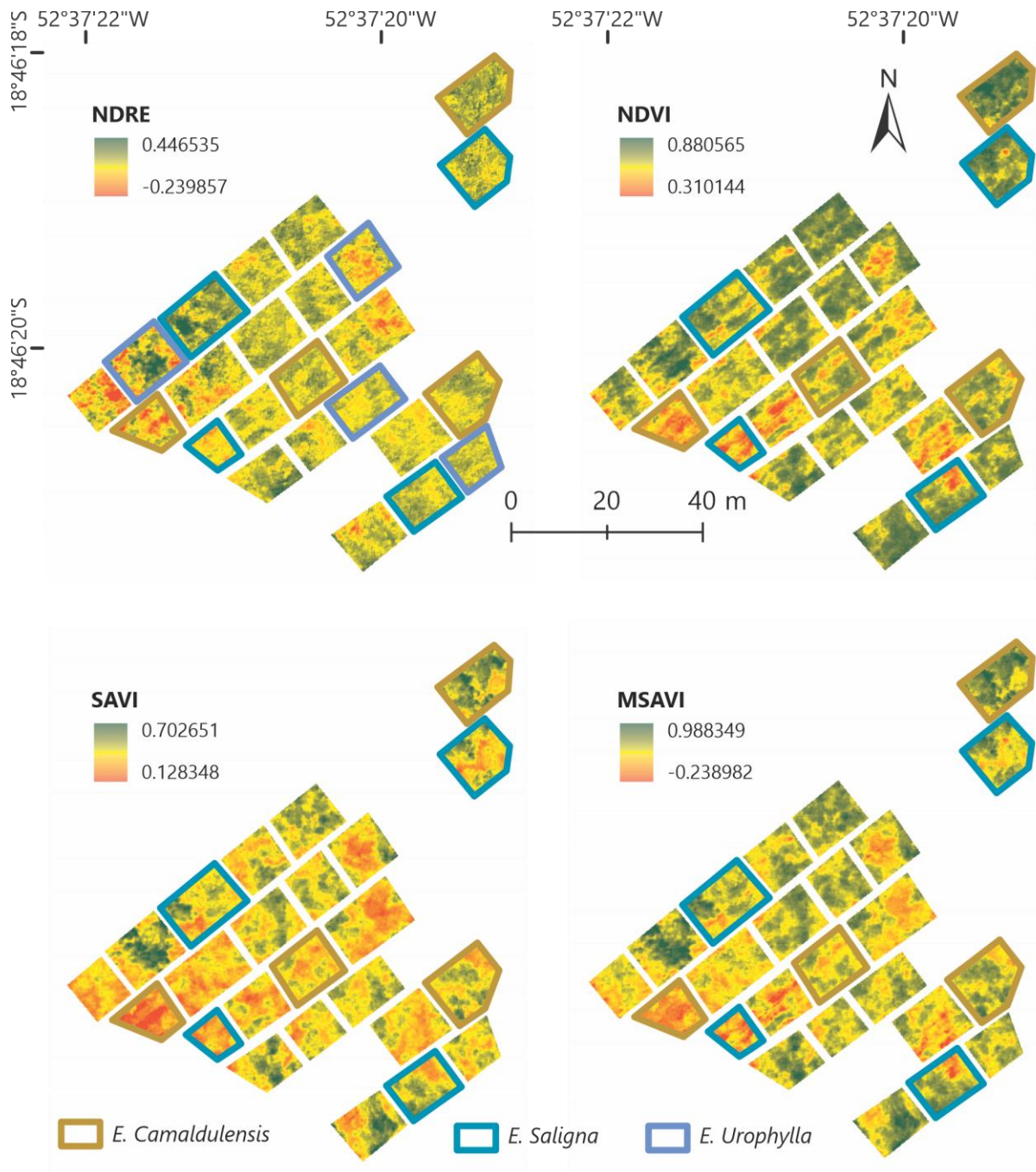


Figure 7. The spatialization of the vegetation indices that best correlated significantly with FCO_2 among the eucalyptus species, NDRE, NDVI, SAVI, and MSAVI.

In Figure 6, it can be seen that not only the correlation between the variables but also that the eucalyptus species showed specific correlations with FCO_2 . The FCO_2 correlation to soil moisture (0.243*), red (-0.260*) and SAVI (-0.233*) were significant at 95%, with correlation among *E. camaldulensis* (0.514*) and *E. grandis* (0.487*); *E. saligna* (-0.861***), *E. urophylla* (-0.514*) and GG100 clone (-0.638**); *E. camaldulensis* (-0.736**) and *E. saligna* (0.723**) respectively. For the variables green

(-0.374***), nir (-0.335***) and red-edge (-0.352***) had significance >99%, with correlation among *E. saligna* (-0.885***), *E. uroplylla* (-0.505*) and GG100 clone (-0.676**); *E. camaldulensis* (-0.636**), *E. uroplylla* (-0.517*) and GG100 clone (-0.697**); *E. camaldulensis* (-0.506*), *E. saligna* (0.528*) and GG100 clone (-0.674**) respectively.

Soil temperature (-0.032), NDRE (-0.148), NDVI (-0.067) and MSAVI (-0.150) presented showed a negligible and non-significant correlation, though among *E. camaldulensis* (-0.526*) and *E. grandis* (-0.477*); *E. camaldulensis* (-0.774***), *E. saligna* (-0.736**) and *E. uroplylla* (-0.632**); *E. camaldulensis* (-0.727**) and *E. saligna* (-0.836***); *E. camaldulensis* (-0.736**) and *E. saligna* (-0.723**) respectively, had significant correlation.

C. citriodora had no significance for the correlation to FCO₂ in the entire set of variables. The species most often correlated significantly with FCO₂ were *E. camaldulensis* and *E. saligna*.

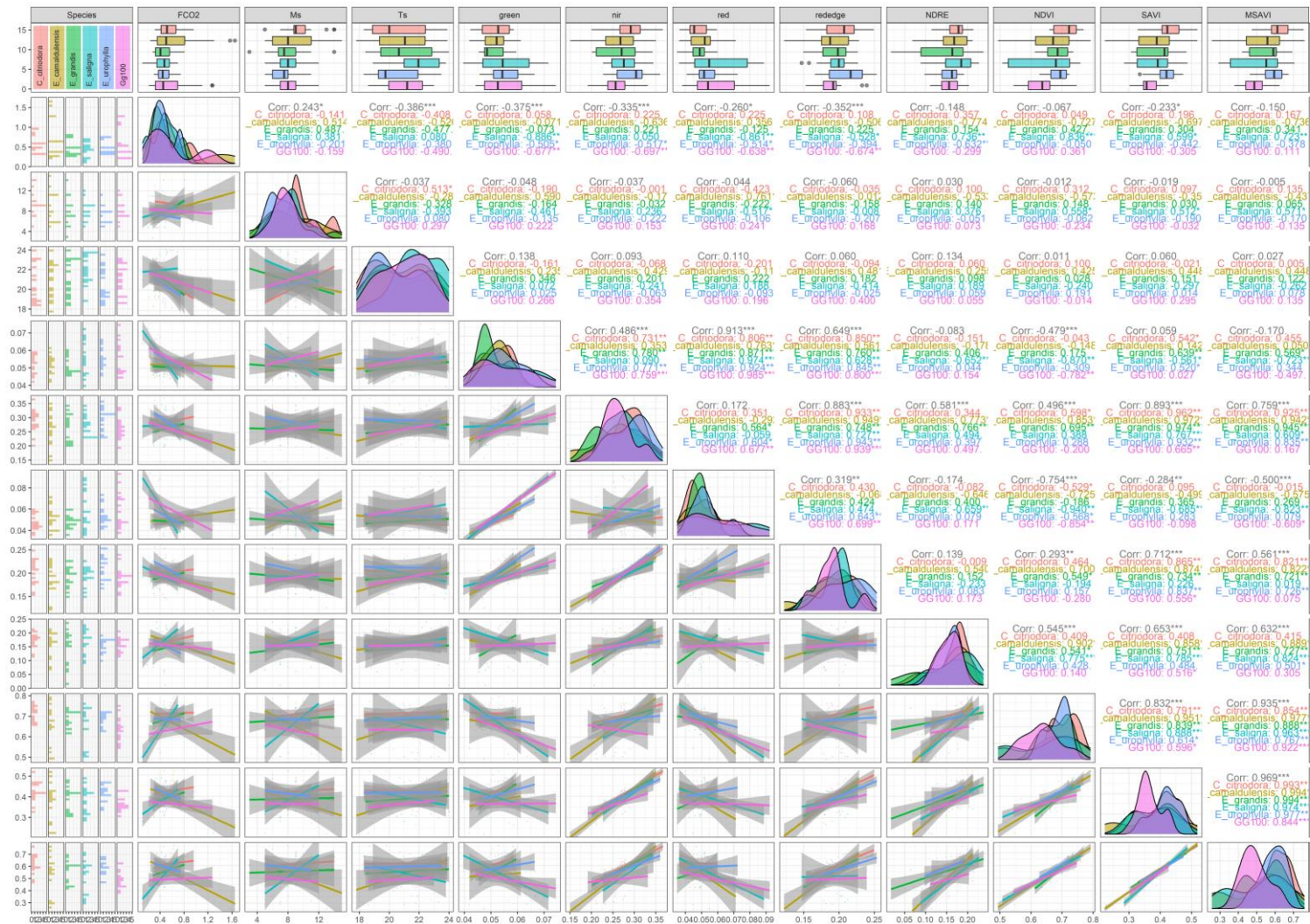


Figure 8. Scatterplot of Pearson correlations and variables (FCO₂, soil temperature and moisture, spectral bands, and vegetation indices) and the distribution of variables according to the canonical variable analysis modeling considering the eucalyptus species.

3.4 DISCUSSION

This study showed an absence of strong and significant correlations between soil CO₂ emission (FCO₂) and the rest of the variables in a general set with eucalyptus species (Figure 5). However, differences were identified among the Eucalyptus species while simultaneously considering the soil variables with the main VIs (Table 2). Total soil respiration comprises autotrophic and heterotrophic respiration (BOND-LAMBERTY; WANG; GOWER, 2004; SUN et al., 2014), which are directly and indirectly related to biotic and abiotic factors (REN et al., 2016; WANG et al., 2014) for components regulation.

The behavior of autotrophic respiration is strongly correlated with photosynthesis (FERNÁNDEZ-MARTÍNEZ et al., 2014; PEÑUELAS et al., 2013) and is mediated by phenological dynamics throughout the plant cycle (JANSSENS et al., 2010; MO et al., 2008). Heterotrophic respiration from the mineralization of organic matter by the decomposer community is highly affected by soil carbon availability, moisture and temperature (LI et al., 2013; PENG et al., 2017).

Soil moisture (Ms) and temperature (Ts) are important for the respiration process of soils and directly influence the decomposition of organic matter and microbial and root activities (SILVA-OLAYA et al., 2013a; WANG et al., 2015). Thus, Ms showed a positive correlation and Ts showed a negative correlation with FCO₂. However, this low-magnitude correlation between Ms and Ts with FCO₂ can be explained by the low variation over the time series period (MOITINHO et al., 2021). The effects of Ts on FCO₂ may be partially hidden by the effect of Ms, because these are interdependent variables and commonly change simultaneously (DING et al., 2010).

The results obtained by Almeida et al. (2018), Dossou-Yovo et al. (2016) and Pires et al. (2017), show showed the transport of carbon dioxide (CO₂) and among gases from soil the atmosphere here is dependent on porosity, moisture content, and the conditions for all soil biota. These conditions in the ecosystem are at the same time very favorable for the activity of microorganisms, which can positively influence respiration rates (GONZÁLEZ-UBIERNA; LAI, 2019). In addition, management practices will influence the behavior of carbon storage capacity and the loss of CO₂ from the soil to the atmosphere (BASHAR; ZHOU, 2015).

In the case of data obtained via passive remote sensors, the spectral bands green, nir, red, and red were negatively correlated and of low magnitude with FCO₂, but with significance in *E. camaldulensis*, *E. saligna*, and *C. citriodora* (Figure 6). The low association between spectral bands and FCO₂ is directly associated with the green vegetative canopy and also related to the stage of development of the eucalypt species that influences leaf thickness, water content and response of leaf chlorophyll contents. The chlorophyll a and b pigmentations are the ones that most influence the electromagnetic radiation in the visible region, with two absorption peaks, the higher in the red band and the lower in the blue band, respectively (LIMA et al., 2011; SILVA JUNIOR et al., 2021), favoring a better result for the classifier that used the red (R) and blue (B) spectral bands. From Silva et al. (2014), the green wavelength response is entirely associated with the potential of photosynthetic activity, and this relation is directly related to the utilization of available radiation by these chlorophyll pigments. The process of CO₂ absorption from the atmosphere by the leaves occurs when the pores of the stomas open, allowing the carbon dioxide to enter the leaf, mainly located in the lower epidermis (BUNCE, 2004; FAN et al., 2020).

The use of the red and near-infrared (NIR) spectral bands in the composition of vegetation indices is because these wavelengths are inversely proportional to leaf reflectance, with greater than 90% sensitivity on the spectral behavior of a vegetation canopy (BARET; GUYOT; MAJOR, 1989). The NDVI uses red and NIR spectral reflectance to measure the density and greenness of vegetation, showing a specific negative and positive correlation with *E. camaldulensis* and *E. saligna*, respectively. The red spectral band is strongly absorbed by the top of the plant canopy, the lower levels of the canopy do not contribute to reflectance and scattering of electromagnetic radiation, which impairs the correlation of NDVI with FCO₂.

The absorption of the red radiation is by the photosynthesizing pigments of the leaves, which are the chlorophyll "a", while in the near infrared the absorption is almost zero, and the reflectance and transmittance are high, due to the internal cellular structures of the leaves and the effect of the multiple reflectances (PONZONI; DISPERATI, 2001). To capture variations in the amount of chlorophyll not only in the upper canopy but also throughout the foliage, the NDRE index was calculated using a combination of the NIR and red-edge bands. A negative, positive, and specific negative

correlation with *E. camaldulensis*, *E. saligna*, and *E. uroplylla*, respectively, differed from the correlations of the NDVI index, which can be explained by the low values of chlorophyll content.

SAVI and MSAVI use a soil brightness correction factor (L) applied to maximize the reduction of soil effects on the vegetation signal and showed negative and positive correlations with FCO₂ for *E. camaldulensis* and *E. saligna*, respectively. However, the presence of straw on the soil surface decreased the effect of precipitation on FCO₂ since straw forms a physical barrier against the abrupt entry of water into the soil.

The results of the present study allow the management of differentiation among eucalyptus species using sensors coupled to remotely piloted aircraft and FCO₂, thus integrating new assumptions in this line of research. The reflectance of eucalyptus species acquired by remotely piloted aircraft makes it possible to obtain data about them in a fast, non-destructive, and accurate way. Measuring CO₂ provides important information about the carbon emissions in areas of eucalyptus. Both pieces of information contribute to the improvement of forest management. It is important to emphasize that the study was conducted in places with different soil and climate conditions than the current research.

3.5 CONCLUSIONS

The results obtained in this study present that there is a good correlation between the spectral response of the canopy and the chlorophyll content in eucalyptus species, with the most important spectral regions being green (550 nm $\pm$ 40 nm), red-edge (735 nm $\pm$ 10 nm), and near-infrared (790 nm $\pm$ 40 nm).

There was a specific correlation between the soil carbon dioxide efflux data and the eucalyptus species, providing a distinction of values among the species in the statistical data. Based on different combinations of bands and vegetation indices from remotely sensed multispectral cameras, it is possible to distinguish between eucalyptus species.

Further research should consider the seasonality of eucalyptus species, since this may affect the contribution of autotrophic and heterotrophic respiration to total soil respiration.

CHAPTER 4 – CARBON DIOXIDE SPATIAL VARIABILITY AND DYNAMICS FOR CONTRASTING LAND USES IN CENTRAL BRAZIL AGRICULTURAL FRONTIER FROM REMOTE SENSING DATA⁵

ABSTRACT - Greenhouse gas (GHG) sources and sinks are an important global concern. Monitoring the spatiotemporal variations of GHG concentrations, particularly carbon dioxide (CO₂), is crucial for identifying potential sources and sinks and moving toward a sustainable future. Therefore, via a time-series of remote data and multispectral images, this study evaluates the CO₂ spatiotemporal dynamics and related factors during 2015 – 2018 in one of the world's main agricultural frontier areas, the state of Mato Grosso (SMT), Brazil, which is both experiencing continued deforestation and attempting to achieve sustainable food production. In this study, data was obtained from the measurement of column-averaged carbon dioxide (CO₂) dry air mole fraction in the atmosphere, set as X_{CO2} from Orbiting Carbon Observatory-2 satellite from January 2015 to December 2018. The enhanced vegetation index data were obtained from the Moderate-Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) sensor, and rainfall data were obtained from the Climate Hazards Group InfraRed Precipitation with Station dataset. From a series of Landsat-8 satellite images, it was possible to distinguish land use and land cover classes and estimate the CO₂ flux in the SMT. The results showed that the temporal variability of CO₂ flux is correlated positively with rainfall, while X_{CO2} is negatively correlated with rainfall. Regarding spatial variability, we observed that forest areas that were converted to other land uses resulted in higher values that characterize with sources, and that the highest and lowest average concentrations of CO₂ occurred in the dry and rainy months, respectively, for X_{CO2}, which might be the result of differences in the vertical resolution of the CO₂ column and scale. In contrast, areas with large continuous forest areas tended to have lower values and contribute positively to the carbon balance as sinks, thereby mitigating climate change impacts. Therefore, not only X_{CO2} but also CO₂ flux are directly related to changes in land use and land cover (LULC) in complex systems that are affected by climatic variables and processes, such as photosynthesis and soil respiration.

Keywords: Environmental degradation; emission; climate change; orbital sensor

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4.1 INTRODUCTION

The sustainable expansion of the world economy is directly linked to greenhouse gas (GHG) sources and sinks in production systems (WASTI; ZAIDI, 2020). Agricultural activities areas respond to 24% of total global emissions (WAHEED et al., 2018). In particular, the agricultural sector accounts for 20% of carbon dioxide (CO₂), 70% of methane (CH₄), and 90% of nitrogen oxide (N₂O) of global emissions (The World Bank, 2016; Luo et al. 2017). The high rates of GHG emissions related to agriculture result from the inappropriate use of soil and water resources, the excessive use of agrochemicals, such as fertilizers (ISMAEL; SROUJI; BOUTABBA, 2018), deforestation, and the use of fire for pasture management, renewal and expansion of areas, and farming activities (BACCINI et al., 2012; CAÚLA et al., 2015). Changes in land use and land cover (LULC) due to anthropogenic activity affect both the global carbon cycle and the climate (QUESADA et al., 2018). Specifically, the atmospheric CO₂ concentration has increased by more than 30 ppm in the last 17 years (LINDSEY R, 2020). In 2018, the average CO₂ was approximately 407 ppm (Lindsey R, 2020), for which the CO₂ released from LULC was estimated to be approximately 1 Pg C year⁻¹ (ARNETH et al., 2017; HOUGHTON et al., 2012; LE QUÉRÉ et al., 2015; PAN et al., 2011). LULC is rising as the world's demand for food, biofuels, and fibers increases, especially the increase in global demand for animal protein, which requires increases in livestock growth (FEARNSIDE, 2001; NAYLOR et al., 2005; NEPSTAD; STICKLER; ALMEIDA, 2006).

LULC for commodity production is one of Brazil's main GHG sources, making the country responsible for 2.8% of global emissions (Pereira et al. 2020). Among its producing regions, the state of Mato Grosso (SMT), which is located in the western center of the country, is the country's leading agricultural frontier as its largest producer of commodities (KASTENS et al., 2017; PICOLI et al., 2018). In particular, the SMT leads national production in soybeans and beef, which are main drivers of

Greenhouse gas, GHG; state of Mato Grosso, SMT; land use and land cover, LULC; enhanced vegetation index, EVI; linear spectral mixture model, LSMM; normalized difference fraction index, NDFI; healthy vegetation, HV; standardized precipitation index, SPI; probability density function, PDF; Climate Hazards Group InfraRed Precipitation with Station, CHIRPS; photosynthetic vegetation index, PRI.

deforestation, accounting for 22 Mha of pastures and 10.2 Mha of areas cultivated with soybean in 2018 (Silva Junior and Lima 2018).

Although there has been a 2.30 km² increase in soybean cultivation area in the last two harvest years in the SMT (SojaMaps 2020), deforestation has increased in recent years, increasing from 757 km² (the lowest level) in 2012 to 1,702 km² in 2019 (INPE, 2020). Further, certain measures, such as the Soy Moratorium (Gibbs H K et al. 2015) and Cattle Agreement (Gibbs et al. 2016; Alix-Garcia and Gibbs 2017), have not been sufficient to contain deforestation, contributing significant GHG emissions to the atmosphere, especially CO₂, that does not return to the atmosphere at the production site because of export or consumption in another region. Since 2013, approximately 1 Mha of land has been deforested in the SMT (INPE, 2020), which is contradictory to the efforts of those in the soybean chain, who desire sustainable soybean production, as per programs such as the Soy Moratorium and Soja Plus (ABIMILHO, 2021). This deforestation is attributed to the degradation of pastures caused by the "Sudden Death of Pastures" syndrome (SILVA et al., 2018), in which an increasing atmospheric CO₂ concentration has forced cattle ranchers to renew their pastures. Renewed pastures imply an increase in the stocking rate, a decrease in the age at which cattle can be slaughtered, a lower carbon cost/kg of meat produced, mitigation of gas emissions in degraded pastures, and, theoretically, lower pressure on the forest to open new areas (Silva et al. 2018; Eri et al. 2020).

Given this fact, it is interesting to highlight the importance of estimating biophysical parameters of vegetations and correlating CO₂ concentrations through geotechnologies. For the generation of objective information in near-real time, remote sensing is a tool that provides and contributes to the distinction and characterization of forests, agriculture, climate, among others (ALMEIDA et al., 2019; LIU et al., 2020a; WEST; QUINN; HORSWELL, 2019). The use of this tool through various sensors has enabled studies on understanding carbon dynamics (GAO et al., 2020; HE et al., 2020).

The hypothesis of this research is that remote sensing responds the dynamics of CO₂ dry air mole fraction (X_{CO_2}) in the atmosphere and CO₂ fluxes are related to the seasonality of climate variables and LULC classes. Therefore, the objective of this study was to use remote sensing to evaluate the spatiotemporal dynamics of CO₂ from 2015 to 2018 in the SMT, which is the main agricultural frontier of Brazil.

4.2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

4.2.1 Study area

The study area comprises the SMT, located in the central-western region of Brazil (Figure 1), with a territorial area of 903,207.047 km², and an estimated population of 3,567,234 people (IBGE, 2021). The SMT has a predominantly tropical climate, with air temperatures between 24 °C and 40 °C and an annual average rainfall of 1500 mm (ALVARES et al., 2013). Its conversion from natural forest to agriculture (annual crops and pasture) been intense since the 2000s, making it the basis of studies considering the alteration of ecotones in ecoregions (da Silva Junior et al. 2019; Santos et al. 2015). In addition, the SMT is the largest producer of soybeans in Brazil (SOJAMAPS 2020).

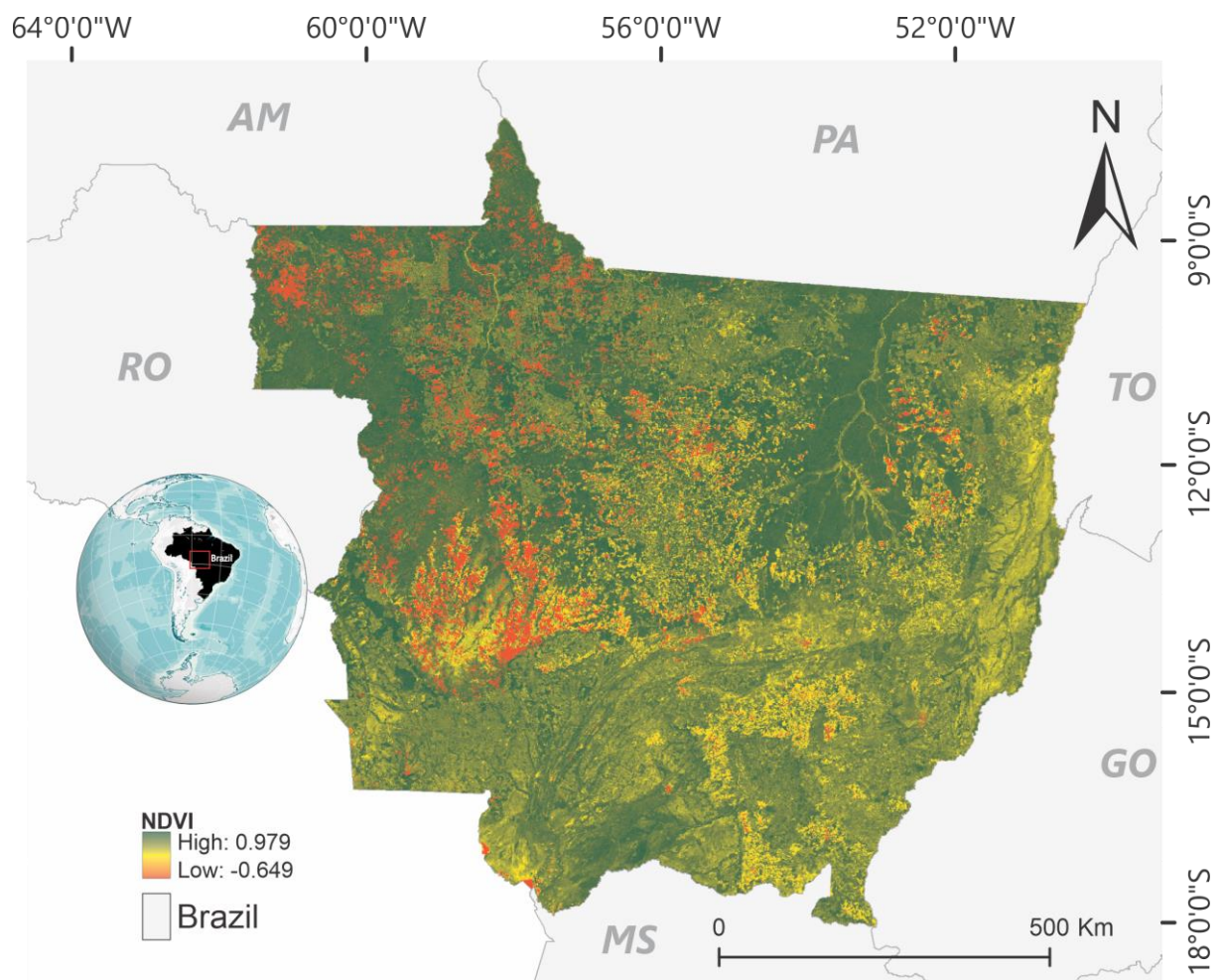


Figure 1. Location of study area in central-western Brazil, Mato Grosso State based on the average Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) for March 2018.

4.2.2 Orbiting Carbon Observatory-2

The primary product delivered by the Orbiting Carbon Observatory-2 (OCO-2) consists of spatially resolved estimates of the column-averaged dry air mole fraction. This quantity, called X_{CO_2} by members of the atmospheric carbon science community, quantifies the average concentration of CO_2 in a column of dry air extending from the Earth's surface to the top of the atmosphere. The values of X_{CO_2} are estimate of are derived by taking the ratios of path-integrated O_2 and CO_2 densities between the Sun, surface footprint, and OCO-2 satellite, followed by multiplication by of mole fraction of oxygen of 0.20935 and near uniform globally (ELDERING et al., 2015).

Quantification is made by a high-resolution three-band spectrometer which measures the absorption by CO_2 and O_2 in reflected sunlight in three independent wavelength bands: the O_2 A-band at around 0.765 μm , the weak CO_2 band at around 1.61 μm , and the strong CO_2 band at around 2.06 μm . OCO-2 it has a precision of $<0.3\%$ (1 ppm) (WUNCH et al., 2017) and spatial resolution ($\leq 1.29 \times 2.25 \text{ km}^2$) observations at nadir with a 16-day repeat cycle along a swath width of $\leq 10 \text{ km}$ (CRISP et al., 2017). The OCO-2 mission provides four different levels of data products for the user community, supplying comprehensive mission data results (CRISP et al., 2012).

We obtained X_{CO_2} data from the OCO-2 Lite version (V8r), which has a spatial grid resolution from the OCO-2 data archive that is maintained at National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) (<https://co2.jpl.nasa.gov/#mission=OCO-2>). Data with an alert level less than or equal to 11, and data that passed through the cloud screens and converged ($xco2_quality_flag = 0$) (WUNCH et al., 2017). Alerts above 12 for nadir and glint modes, may contain significantly larger errors than the a posteriori uncertainty stated about the X_{CO_2} values (MANDRAKE et al., 2015). A temporal trend adjustment of the X_{CO_2} data was made using the regression method ($y = 00000.7x + 394.9$) (Gujarati and Porter 2011).

4.2.3 Enhanced Vegetation Index time-series

Vegetation indices have been developed to highlight the combinations of surface reflectance at two or more wavelengths designed to highlight a particular property of vegetation in order to exclude soil and other terrestrial targets. The

numerical values of these indices can vary between -1 and 1, in which vegetation is commonly indicated by positive values, as there is greater reflectance in the near-infrared wavelength than in the red (HUETE et al., 2002; SOLANO et al., 2010). Some targets, such as water and snow, exhibit higher reflectance at the red (600 – 750 nm) wavelength region, as compared with the near-infrared (750 – 1100 nm) region, and present negative NDVI values. With the emergence of the Moderate-Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) sensor, Huete et al. (1997) proposed an enhanced vegetation index (EVI) that minimizes the effects of soil and atmosphere by considering the blue spectral band.

In this study, MODIS sensor images were used and applied a tolerable cloud mask of maximum 20% percent clouds per pixel, in which the EVI values (Equation 1) of the MOD13Q1 product collection 6.0 of the 16-day MODIS images (HUETE et al., 2002) from the TERRA orbital platform with a spatial resolution of 250 m were obtained from the Google Earth Engine derived from a temporal series from January 1, 2015 to December, 31, 2018 via ee.ImageCollection ("MODIS/006/MOD13Q1").

$$EVI = g \frac{\rho_{IVP} - \rho_V}{\rho_{IVP} + (c_1 \cdot \rho_V) - (c_2 \cdot \rho_A) + L} \quad (1)$$

where ρ_{IVP} , ρ_V , and ρ_A are the reflectances in the spectral ranges of near-infrared, red, and blue, respectively; g is the gain factor (2.5); c_1 and c_2 are the correction coefficients for red (6) and blue (7.5) atmospheric effects, respectively; and L is the correction factor for soil interference (1). The coefficients adopted in the EVI equation according to (HUETE; JUSTICE; LIU, 1994; HUETE et al., 1997).

4.2.4 Detection of Land Use via Normalized Difference Fraction Index

To evaluate the potential of the spectro-temporal information derived from the Landsat-8 series (OLI sensor) and to distinguish the LULC classes in the SMT, 53 scenarios were used each year, totaling 212 scenes. The images were converted to top of atmosphere reflectance using metadata values by converting the digital level values to reflectance factor (0 and 1) and a tolerable cloud mask of maximum 20% percent clouds per pixel was applied.

After treatments in the images were performed on the images, the linear spectral mixture model (LSMM) was applied (Equation 2). This model aims to estimate the proportion of components, such as soil, vegetation, and shade, of each pixel based on the spectral responses in several Operational Land Imager (OLI) sensor bands in order to generate fraction images (SHIMABUKURO; SMITH, 1991). These image components were extracted from the reference reflectance image. Shade was assigned zero percent reflectance at all wavelengths (SOUZA; ROBERTS; COCHRANE, 2005; SOUZA; ROBERTS; MONTEIRO, 2005).

$$ri = a_{1i} \cdot V + a_{2i} \cdot P + a_{3i} \cdot C + ei \quad (2)$$

where ri is the spectral response of the pixel in the i -th band, a_{1i} is the response of the V *endmember* in the i -th band, a_{2i} is the response of the P *endmember* in the i -th band, a_{3i} is the response of the C *endmember* in the i -th band, V is the estimated proportion of the V component in the pixel, P is the estimated proportion of the P component in the pixel, C is the estimated proportion of the C component in the pixel, and ei is the error associated with the i -th spectral band in the pixel.

The model was then applied to each image of each spectral band according to the sensor bands, as well as the selected endmembers in the images themselves. Fraction images were obtained to calculate the normalized difference fraction index (NDFI).

The NDFI improves canopy damage detection, as compared with existing techniques, and can be used in combination with other algorithms to unambiguously map forest canopy damage caused by selective cutting and burning (SOUZA; ROBERTS; COCHRANE, 2005). Further, this index can be integrated into existing image processing methods to classify damaged forest cover areas into degradation subclasses.

Thus, the LSMM was applied both to each image in each spectral band using the aforementioned sensor bands and the selected endmembers in the images (Equation 3), as described by Souza Jr et al. (2005). The results were used as a basis for interpreting the orbital images.

$$NDFI = \frac{HV_{Shade} - (PNV + Soil)}{HV_{Shade} + PNV + Soil} \quad (3)$$

where PNV is the photosynthetically inactive vegetation and HV_{Shade} is the fraction of healthy vegetation (HV) normalized by the shade given by Equation 4.

$$HV_{Shade} = \frac{HV}{100 - Shade} \quad (4)$$

NDFI values range from -1 to 1 and variable was rescaled to 0–200 to classifying regions deforestation and forest degradation (SOUZA et al., 2013b), wherein intact forests have high values (close to 1) because of their high HV (i.e., high HV content and canopy shade) and low PNV and soil values. As the forest is degraded, the PNV and soil fractions increase because of a decrease in canopy cover, thereby producing low NDFI values (SOUZA et al., 2013b). Based on the thresholds proposed by Souza Jr et al. (2005), the uses of forest, anthropic action, exposed soil, and watercourses were mapped.

4.2.5 Rainfall data and Standardized Precipitation index

We used a spatial and temporal dynamics analysis to compare the observed rainfall dataset Climate Hazards Group InfraRed Precipitation with Station (CHIRPS) with the other study variables. This methodology has been widely used in assessing rainfall estimated by remote sensing (BAEZ-VILLANUEVA et al., 2018; CAVALCANTE et al., 2020; DE OLIVEIRA-JÚNIOR et al., 2021; PAREDES-TREJO; BARBOSA; LAKSHMI KUMAR, 2017).

For classification, a CHIRPS dataset developed by the U.S. Geological Survey and the Climate Hazards Group at the University of California, Santa Barbara, was used. This dataset combines pentadal precipitation climatology, near-global geostationary TIR satellite observations from the CPC and National Climatic Data Center (Knapp et al., 2011), precipitation fields from the NOAA Climate Forecast System (CFSv2) atmospheric model (Saha et al., 2010), and in situ rainfall observations (Toté et al., 2015). These products were used because of the lack of temporal data from in situ stations in the SMT (de Oliveira-Júnior et al., 2021). Further,

the data are available from 1981 to the present at a spatial resolution of 0.05° (± 5.3 km), providing monthly, pentadal, and decadal temporal global resolutions (Funk et al., 2014).

The standardized precipitation index (SPI) was developed by McKee et al. (1993), and quantifies the rainfall deficit or excess at different time scales. The SPI was calculated on the annual (SPI-12) and monthly (SPI-1) scales for the SMT from 2015 to 2018 to identify dry and wet periods. The SPI calculation is determined from the total accumulated rainfall records over 20 years fitted to a probability distribution function, which is then transformed into a normal probability distribution function, allowing users to adjust the average SPI for a given location and period to zero (McKee, et al., 1993; Teodoro et al., 2015).

To determine the SPI, we initially calculated the gamma distribution, which is defined by the probability density function (PDF) as follows:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(a)\beta^a} x^{a-1} e^{-\frac{x}{\beta}} \quad (5)$$

where α is the shape parameter (dimensionless), β is the scale parameter (mm), x is the total rainfall (mm), and $\Gamma(a) = \int_0^\infty x^{a-1} e^{-x} dx$.

All the parameters and the gamma PDF were fitted to the frequency distribution of accumulated rainfall using remote sensing data at the cited scale. Using the maximum likelihood method, α and β were estimated, which is the most appropriate approach, according to Gois et al. (2015). To determine the cumulative probability of an observed rainfall event for the adopted scale, the α and β parameters were calculated. The cumulative probability is given by Equation 6.

$$F(x) = \int_0^x f(x) dx = \frac{1}{\Gamma(a)\beta^a} \int_0^x x^{a-1} e^{-\frac{x}{\beta}} dx \quad (6)$$

According to the annual SPI values for the SMT, the SPI was classified according to (McKee et al. (1993) the wet and dry periods as follows: extremely wet (≥ 2.00), very wet (1.5 to 1.99), moderately wet (1.00 to 1.49), close to normal (0.99 to -

0.99), moderately dry (-1.00 to -1.49), very dry (-1.50 to -1.99), and extremely dry (≤ -2.00).

4.2.6 CO₂ Model Data

The OLI/Landsat-8 sensor system was used to monitor land use efficiencies and CO₂ flux in the SMT. For this, we used the corrected orbital reflectance images and the best composition mosaic with at most 20% percent clouds per pixel tiles using the Google Earth Engine platform (GORELICK et al., 2017) over the study period.

The CO₂ flux index was used (RAHMAN et al., 2001) to measure the efficiency of the vegetation-related carbon sequestration process, which is the photosynthesis rate derived from photosynthetic processes. For this, the photochemical reflectance index (PRI) (Equation 7) was calculated (GAMON; SERRANO; SURFUS, 1997) using the green and blue spectral bands. The PRI estimates the amount of carotenoid pigments in leaves, which indicate the CO₂ storage rate in the leaves (BARNES et al., 2017; RAHMAN et al., 2001).

$$PRI = \frac{A - Ve}{A + Ve} \quad (7)$$

where A is the blue spectral band reflectance and Ve is the green spectral band reflectance.

However, the PRI results must be repeated for reliability, resulting in positive values. Therefore, it is necessary to generate the sPRI (Equation 8) (MARTINS; BAPTISTA, 2013).

$$sPRI = \frac{PRI + 1}{2} \quad (8)$$

Thus, the CO₂ flux ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) is the multiplied result of the NDVI and sPRI. There is a relationship where it may be possible to capture the carbon sequestration absorptions using the PRI index, which indicates the efficient use of light during photosynthesis, and the NDVI, which demonstrates the vigor of the photosynthetically

active vegetation (RAHMAN et al., 2001). For more coherent estimates of CO₂Flux in Brazil, the fitting of flux data associated with the CO₂Flux model with direct measurement of CO₂ fluxes by Turbulent Vortex Covariance (Eddy Covariance) (Goulden et al., 1996) was applied. Santos, (2017) determined a coefficient of $R^2 = 0,8182$ and the regression model $y = -66.207x + 11.406$ between the direct measurement of CO₂ fluxes and the CO₂Flux model, the best correlation is given in Equation (9).

$$CO_2FLUX = 13.63 - (66.207 \cdot (NDVI \cdot sPRI)) \quad (9)$$

4.2.7 Statistical analysis

To study the temporal variation of the variables, scatter plots and boxplots were constructed for the time series evaluated. Furthermore, a heat-map containing Pearson's correlations between variables was constructed. The analyses were performed using R software (SOMANATHAN et al., 2004).

4.3 RESULTS

4.3.1 Temporal Dynamics

The temporal dynamics of X_{CO_2} are shown in Figure 2. Overall, the daily and monthly observations of X_{CO_2} (Figure 2 A, C) presented significant temporal variability, with an increasing CO₂ concentration in the dry season, from May to October, followed by lower values in other months. For the evaluated period (2015 – 2018), the highest averages (maximum values) were observed in October 2015 (395.76 ± 0.20 ppm), 2016 (396.63 ± 0.17 ppm), 2017 (396.44 ± 0.17 ppm), and September 2018 (398.98 ± 0.10 ppm). Meanwhile, the lowest means varied over the study period, especially from December to March, which is the rainy season. Differences of 4.87% (2015), 4.89% (2016), 2.98% (2017), and 5.76% (2018) between the maximum and minimum values were observed.

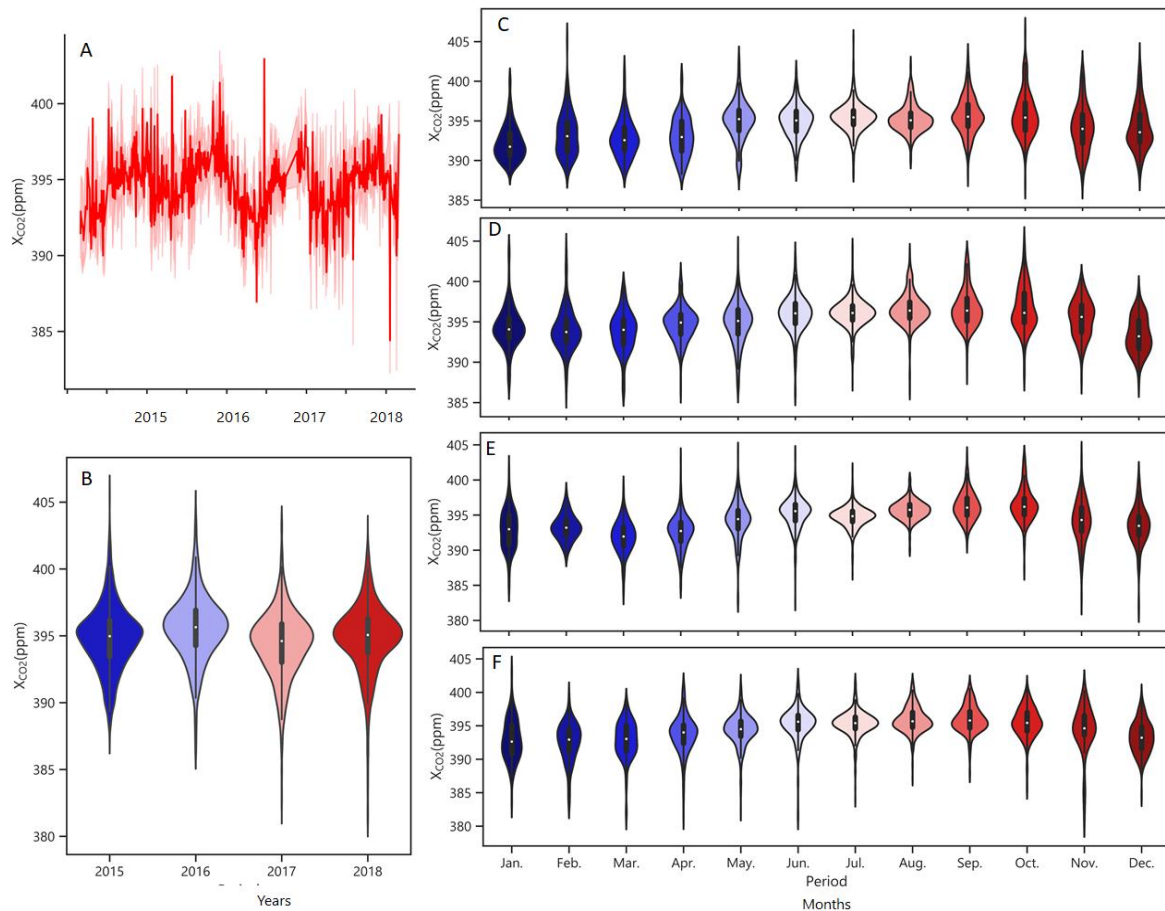


Figure 2. Temporal series of X_{CO_2} (ppm), including (A) daily observations, (B) annual averages, and monthly averages for (C) 2015, (D) 2016, (E) 2017, and (F) 2018 for the State of Mato Grosso, Brazil.

Despite the seasonality observed for one year, when analyzing different years, the mean values revealed small differences, in which there was only a 1.2 ppm different among the year with the highest mean (2016; 395.57 ± 0.04 ppm) and that with the lowest (2017; 394.37 ± 0.04 ppm). On this basis, a monthly scale temporal variability analysis of X_{CO_2} was performed and the results were compared with the SPI (SPI-1), rainfall, CO_2 flux, and the EVI for each year studied (Figure 3). Note that all the studied variables presented annual variability with a quasi-parabolic shape, revealing either a maximum or a minimum value throughout the year. The SPI is widely used to characterize dry and wet periods for time scales ranging from 1 to 24 months. In this study, the maximum value for SPI-1 was 1.91, occurring in February 2018, and a minimum value of -2.2 was observed in both July 2016 and July 2017. The highest rainfall volumes occurred between November and March, whereas June and July had

the lowest accumulated rainfall values. Moreover, the highest and lowest rainfall values were observed in February 2018 (362.60 mm) and July 2017 (1.90 mm), respectively, which is consistent with the SPI results.

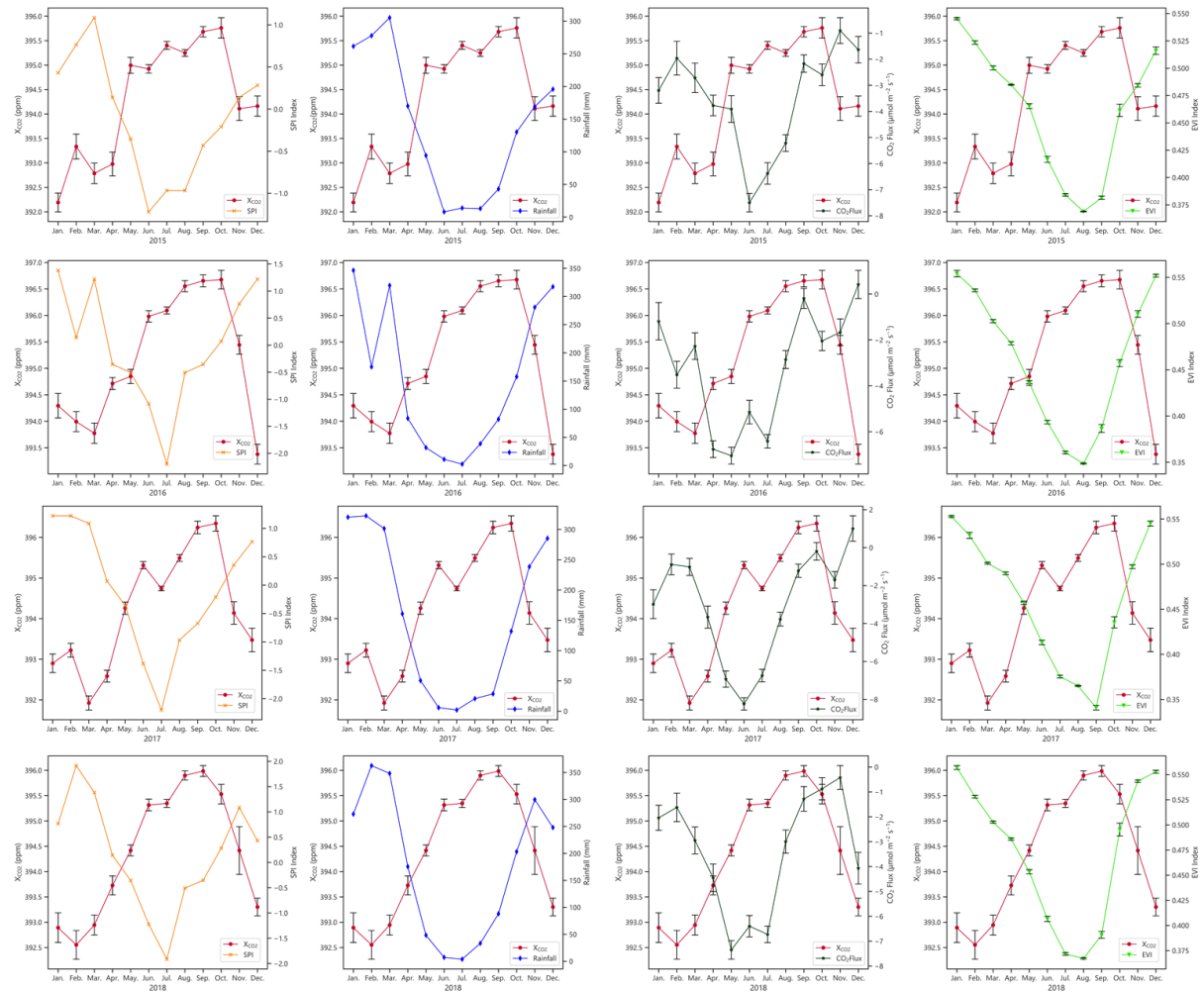


Figure 3. Seasonal variability of atmospheric X_{CO_2} with (a,b,c,d) the standardized precipitation index (SPI), (e,f,g,h) rainfall (i,j,k,l) CO_2 flux, and (m,n,o,p) the enhanced vegetation index (EVI) for the State of Mato Grosso, Brazil.

Regarding CO_2 flux, December ($1 \pm 0.67 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) and June ($-8.23 \pm 0.32 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) of 2017 achieved the highest and lowest averages among the studied years, respectively. Specifically, negative values of CO_2 flux were estimated from May and June, and positive values were estimated between November and December. The EVI generally showed lower values in August, and the months with the highest positive values were December and January. Further, CO_2 flux was directly related to the highest and lowest means for the EVI, which were observed in January 2018 ($0.55 \pm$

0.001) and September 2016 (0.38 ± 0.004), respectively. The monthly average CO₂ flux shown in Figure 3 (i, j, k, and l) for the SMT in the dry season indicates a net absorption of carbon and, for the rainy season, a net loss of carbon to the atmosphere.

The seasonal variation of X_{CO2} has an inflection between the months of February/March and September/October that is clear for each study year. An increase in X_{CO2} and a decrease in the SPI-1 were consistently observed from June to July, whereas an increase in the SPI and a decrease in X_{CO2} occurred around October. Specifically, the intercept between the decrease in X_{CO2} and the increase in SPI-1 was observed in November. For rainfall, these intercepts were concentrated in April and November, respectively, and for CO₂ flux and the EVI, the intercepts were observed between April and May, whereas November, as is consistent for the other studies variables, was the predominant month in the intercept between the decrease in X_{CO2} and increases in CO₂ flux and EVI.

The EVI had the highest negative correlation with X_{CO2} (Figure 5), and was also significantly correlated with CO₂ flux. Hence, the EVI was used as a proxy in the temporal variation analysis to compare LULC in the SMT (Figure 4). The results show that land use directly influences temporal EVI dynamics, which are inversely correlated with X_{CO2} and directly correlated with CO₂ flux. A smaller variability in the EVI values was observed in forested areas, whereas in areas of anthropic use, a significant reduction in the EVI was observed. In forest areas, the critical period was concentrated between May and August, whereas for areas with anthropic use, the critical period occurred between June and October. In areas with watercourses, the critical period was between February and September.

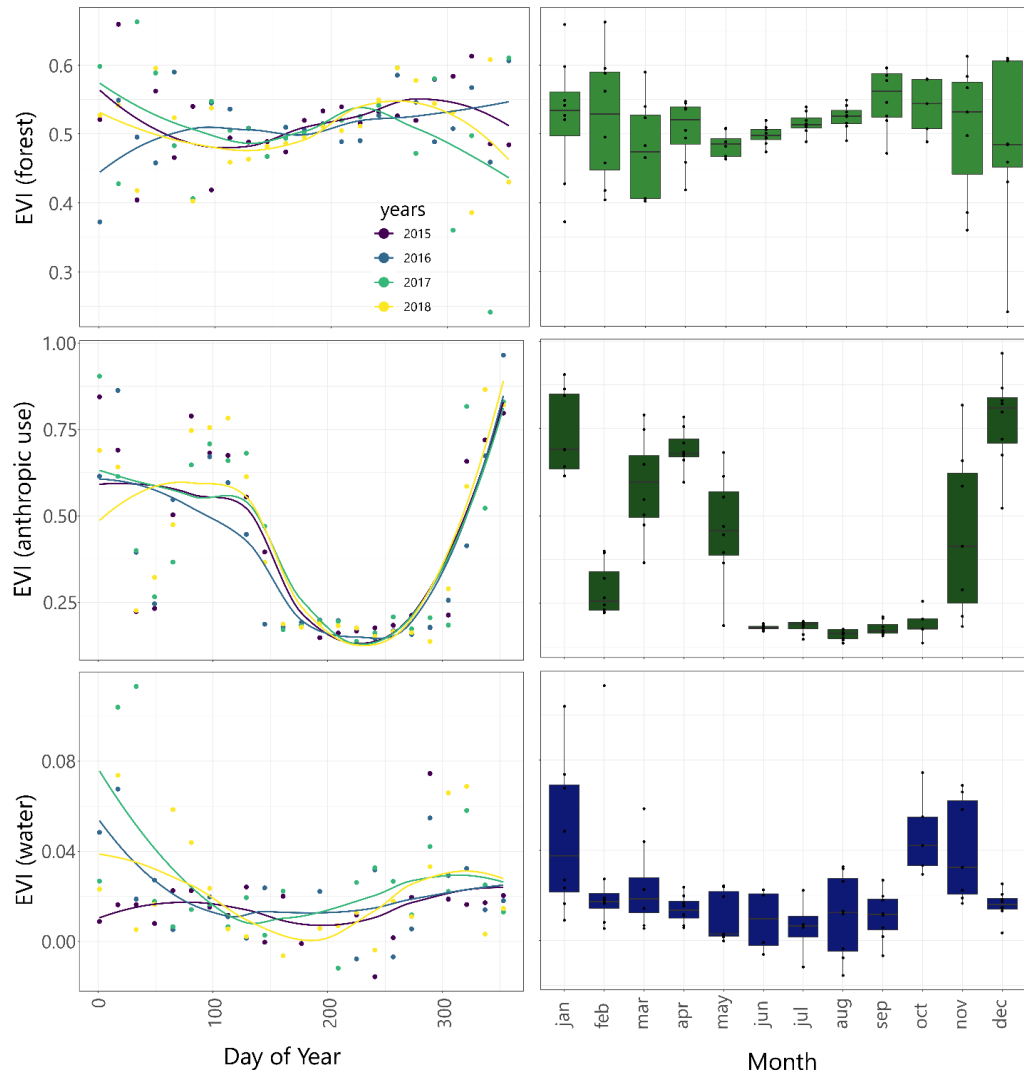


Figure 4. Temporal series of land use according to the enhanced vegetation index (EVI) for the State of Mato Grosso, Brazil.

A Pearson's correlation analysis was applied to relate X_{CO_2} to the other variables (Figure 5). As expected, X_{CO_2} showed a significant negative linear relationship ($p < 0.05$) with rainfall, SPI-12, and the EVI. The correlation coefficients between X_{CO_2} and these variables were -0.71, -0.65, and -0.76, respectively.

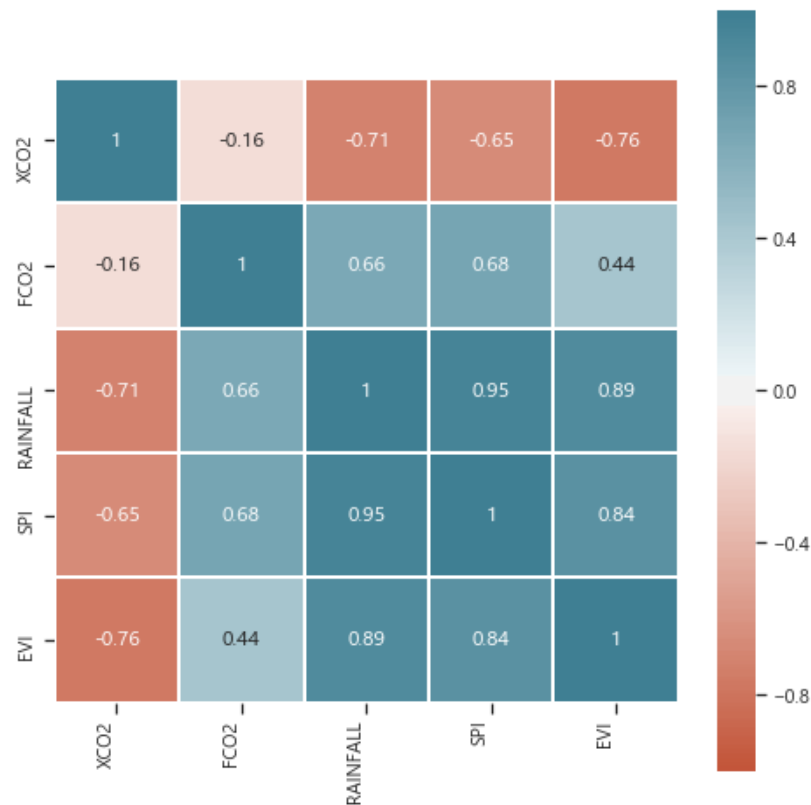


Figure 5. Heat-map of Pearson's correlation matrix for X_{CO_2} with CO_2 flux (FCO_2), rainfall, and standardized precipitation index (SPI-12) for the State of Mato Grosso, Brazil.

The CO_2 flux (Figure 5) exhibited positive correlations ($r = 0.66$, 0.68 , and 0.44 , respectively) with rainfall, SPI, and the EVI, which may be because it demonstrates the vigor of photosynthetically active vegetation, allowing it to capture the absorption from carbon sequestration in the process of photosynthesis and loss through respiration.

4.3.2. Spatial dynamics

The NDFI (Figure 6) showed an expansion in variations in land cover from the exposed soil area (bare soil) to the anthropization area in the southeastern region of the SMT between 2016 and 2017. Meanwhile, in the northeastern region, soybean crop areas were replaced with exposed soil.

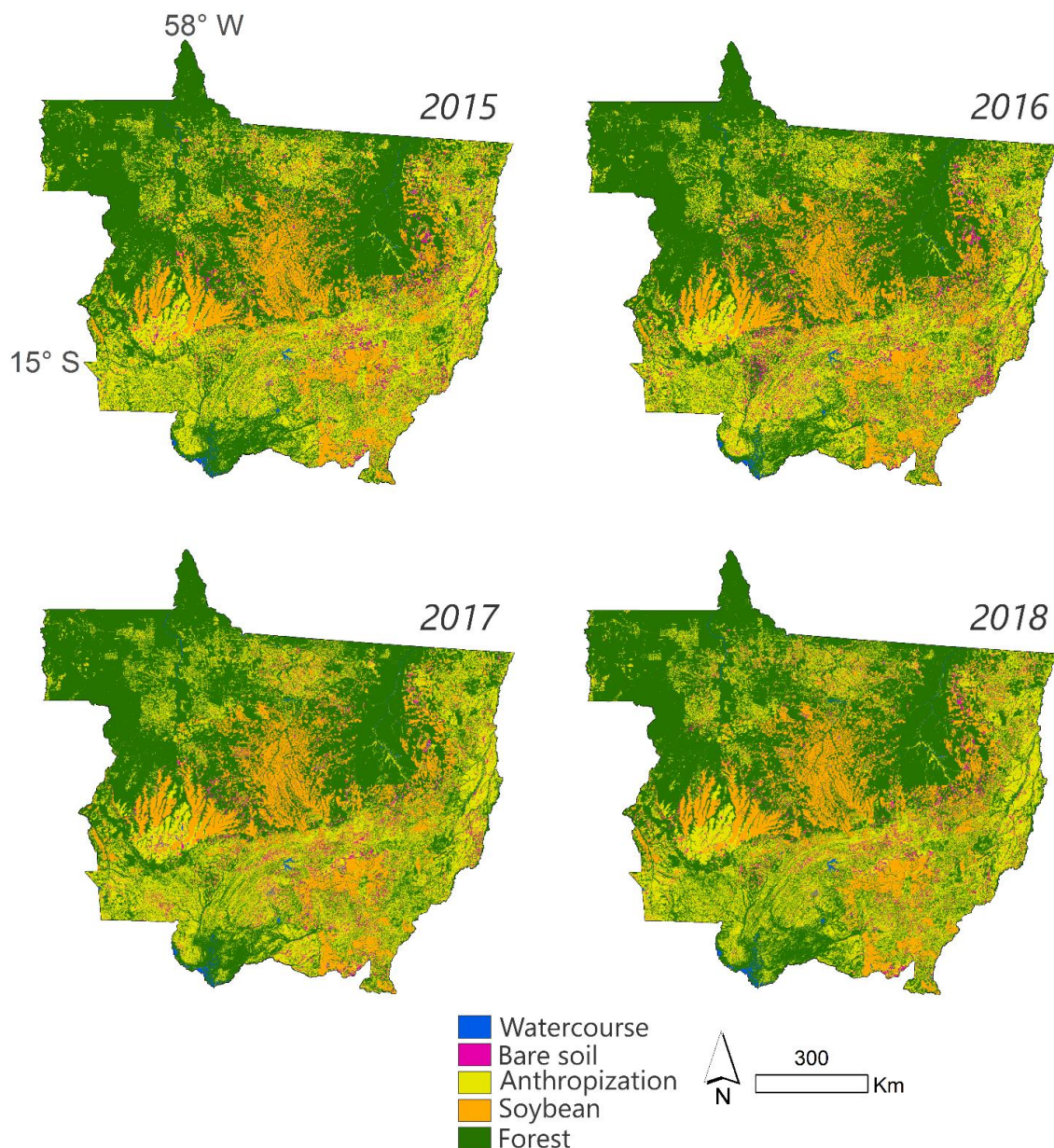


Figure 6. Land use in the State of Mato Grosso, Brazil during 2015, 2016, 2017, and 2018.

In addition, the forest areas underwent significant changes in the southern part of the state, wherein 2015 and 2017 showed a more concentrated distribution of forest than 2016 and 2018. In the northern part of the state, there was an increase in soybean production areas (Figure 6) as a result of direct forest replacement and forest/grassland succession.

The annual average rainfall in 2015 (Figure 7) was the highest in the northwest region, but gradually shifted to the center and north by 2018. According to the rainfall

spatialization throughout the SMT, 2015 had the worst distribution, 2016 and 2018 had an equal distribution, and 2018 had the highest distribution and volume of rainfall.

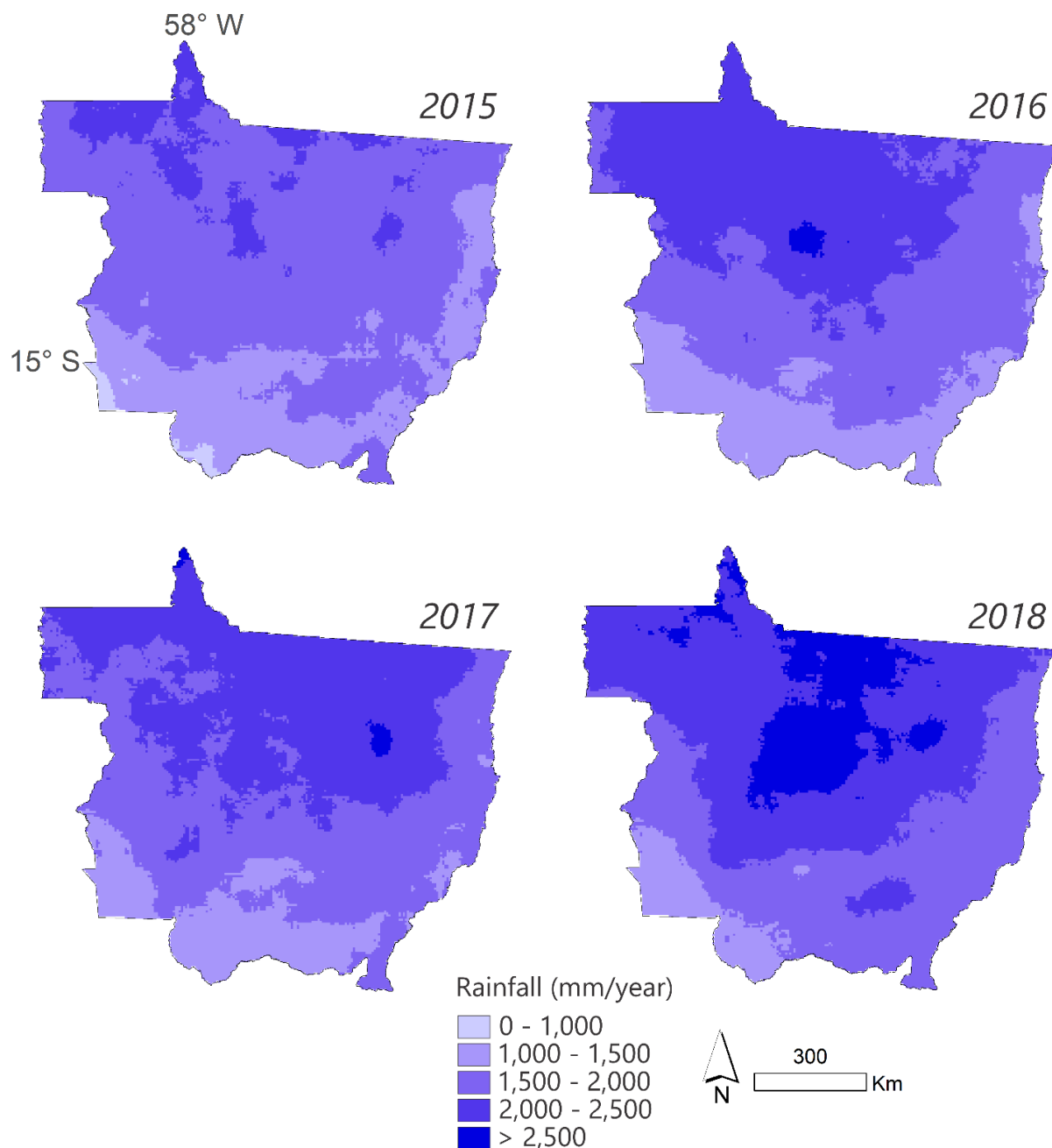


Figure 7. Average annual rainfall for the State of Mato Grosso, Brazil via Climate Hazards Group InfraRed Precipitation with Station (CHIRPS) data for 2015, 2016, 2017, and 2018.

The SPI-12 shows varying drought conditions in the SMT during the study period (Figure 8). In particular, the average annual results showed that among the

years evaluated, 2015 experienced the most severe drought, while 2018 was the wettest year. The northeast, north, northwest, west, and southwest regions (Figure 8) in 2015 presented drought records associated with extreme to moderate droughts, revealing the highest annual drought spatialization, as compared with 2016, 2017, and 2018. Further, 2018 had the lowest total average annual drought.

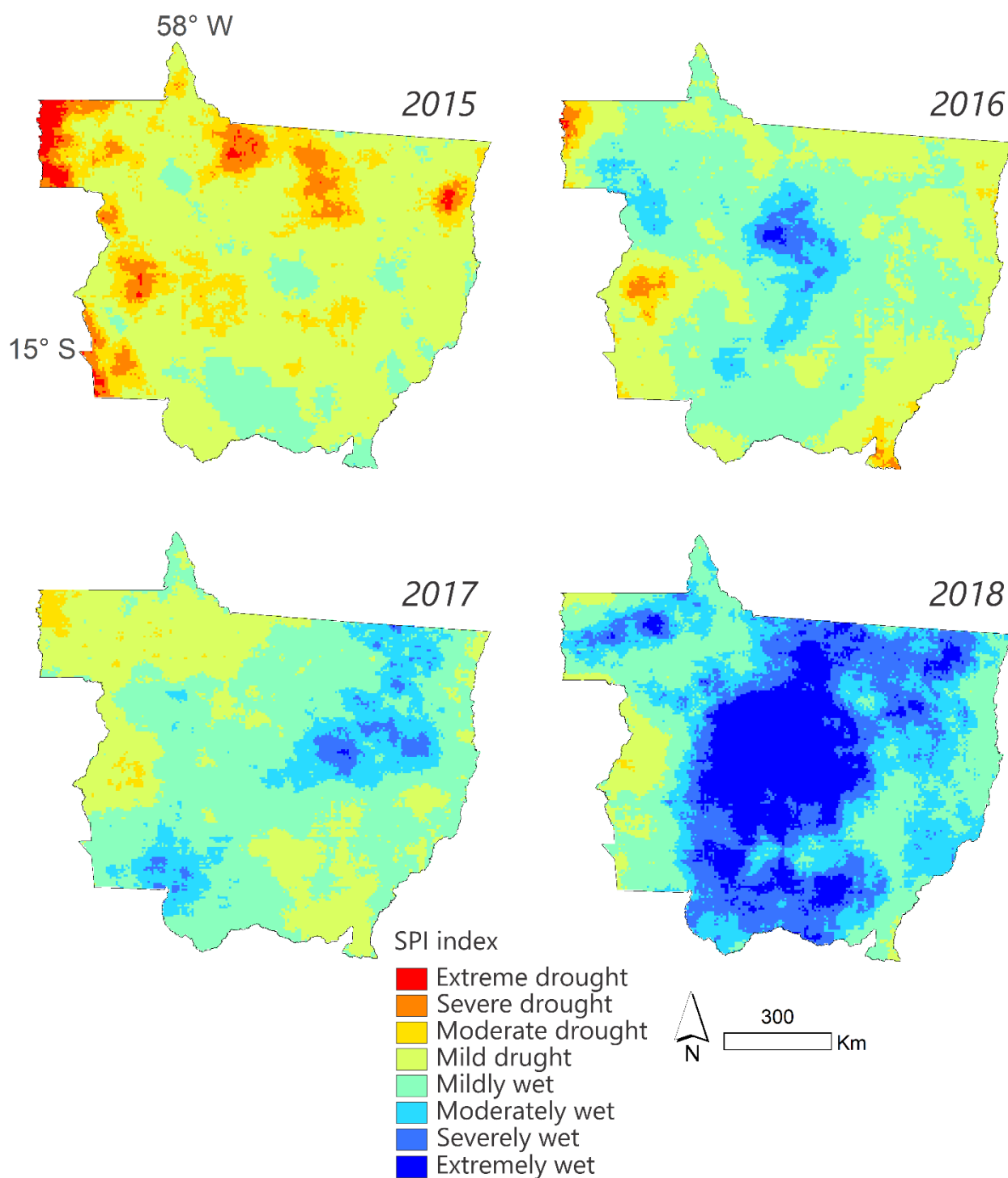


Figure 8. Standardized precipitation index (SPI-12) values for the State of Mato Grosso, Brazil via Climate Hazards Group InfraRed Precipitation with Station (CHIRPS) data for 2015, 2016, 2017, and 2018.

The CO₂ flux results showed that the amount of CO₂ was minimal in the northwest and northeast regions, which was consistent for all study years. Note that these regions are characterized by the highest percentages of forest vegetation areas

(Figure 9). Conversely, in the mid-north regions, the CO₂ flux exhibited opposite behavior, revealing higher amounts and positive values for CO₂. Note that this region is a major soybean producing area in the state, consisting of municipalities such as Sorriso, Sapezal, and Sinop (Figure 9).

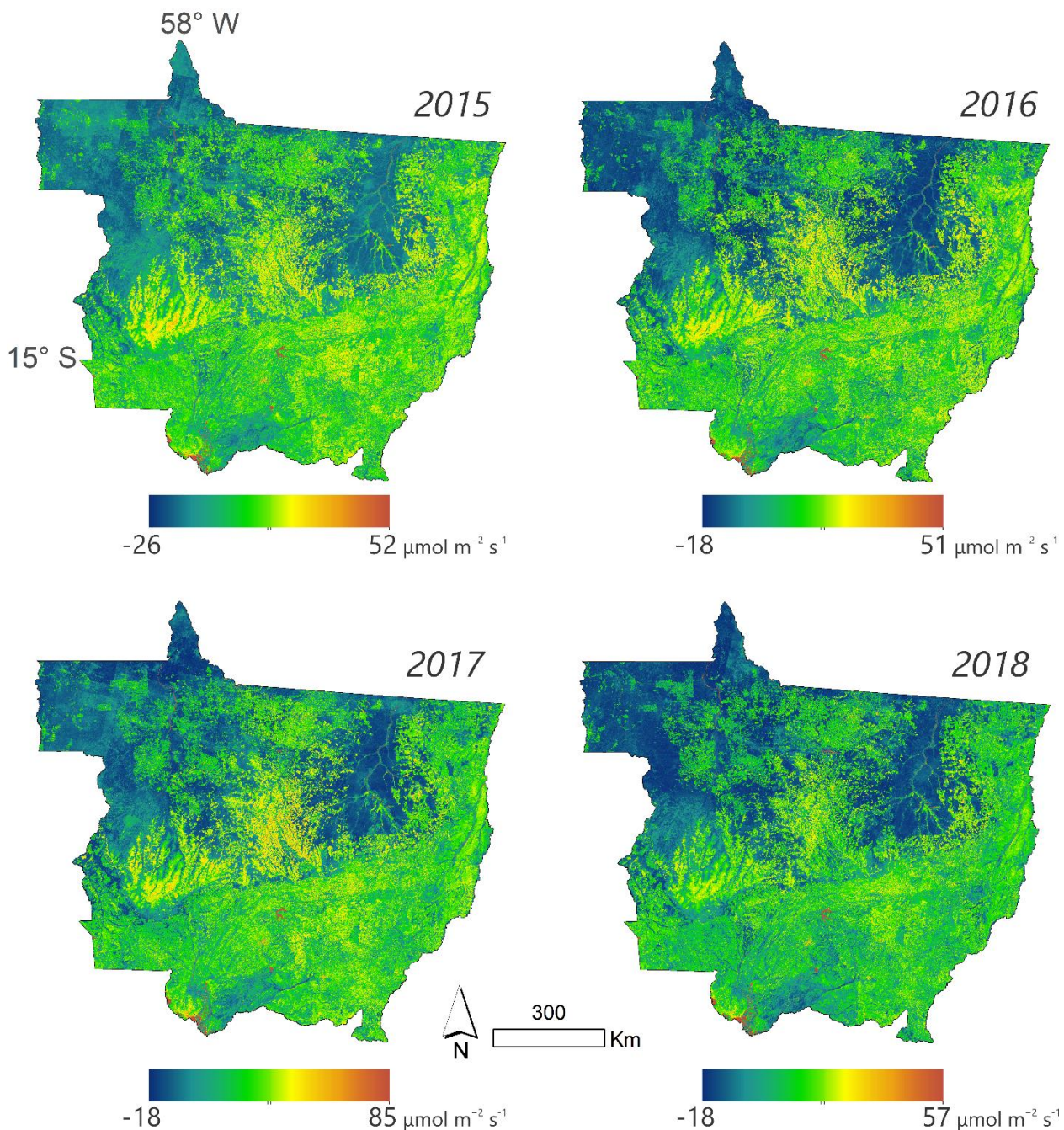


Figure 9. CO₂ flux for the State of Mato Grosso, Brazil for 2015, 2016, 2017, and 2018.

The spatial pattern results of the atmospheric concentration of annual averages of X_{CO₂} revealed that the maximum observed values were 402 ppm to 405 ppm over

the study period (Figure 10). In the mid-north regions, hotspots were observed in 2015 and 2016. Note that 2015 and 2016 had higher atmospheric spatial patterns of X_{CO_2} concentration (ppm) than 2017 and 2018. Further, in the northwest and northeast regions, we observed higher atmospheric spatial concentrations of X_{CO_2} . Therefore, the hotspots had lower values in 2018 than the other years, showing a 0.7% reduction in the annual averages of X_{CO_2} concentration (ppm), as compared with that of 2015 (Figure 10).

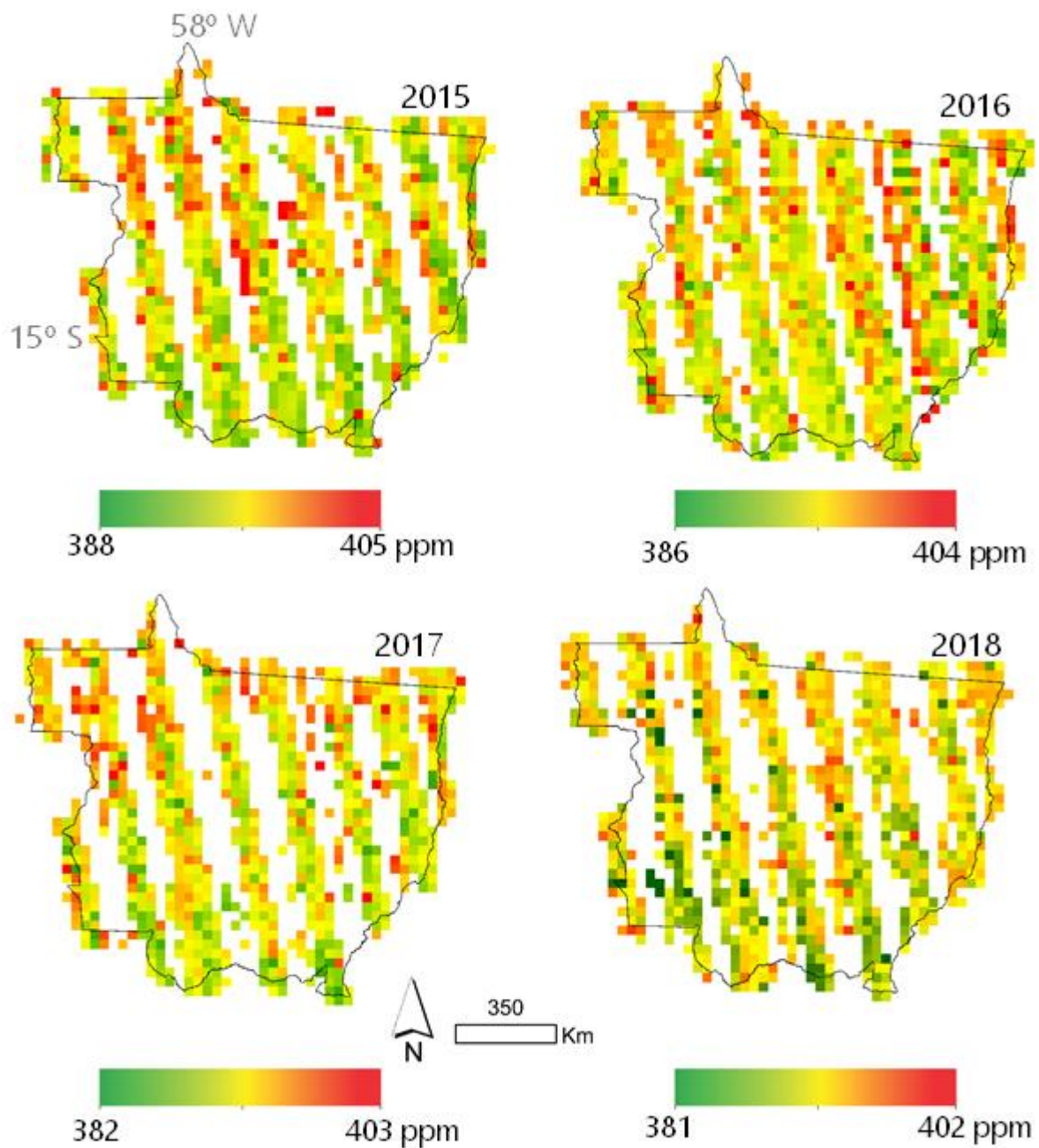


Figure 10. Spatial patterns of atmospheric XCO₂ concentration for the State of Mato Grosso, Brazil for 2015, 2016, 2017, and 2018.

4.4 DISCUSSION

4.4.1 Temporal Dynamics

The regional oscillating atmospheric CO₂ concentrations presented in the Keeling Curve (KEELING; BACASTOW; BAINBRIDGE, 1976) from observations at Mauna Loa, Hawaii, USA, which are directly related to seasonal fluctuations, are similar to those observed in this study (Figure 3) (PILI; VIOLANDA, 2020). Jiang and

Yung (2019) found that the temporal variability of atmospheric CO₂ may present, in addition to annual and semiannual cycles, inter-seasonal and inter-annual cycles.

In this study, we observed the annual variability of the carbon cycle in the SMT, in which there were smaller X_{CO_2} values in the rainy season (from November to March), which coincides with the results of Parazoo et al. (2013) and de Oliveira-Júnior et al. (2021). Rossi and Santos (2020) also observed that the variation in carbon assimilation (gross primary production) by biomes in the SMT is strongly seasonal and related to rainfall. Specifically, in the rainy season, the CO₂ flux showed positive average values, indicating a transfer of carbon to the atmosphere in the form of CO₂, because the values analyzed were not classified for different land uses, such as pasture, forest, agriculture, city, and exposed soil.

The interaction between the biosphere and atmosphere in contrasting biomas has been presented in several studies as a critical aspect in determining the inter-annual variability of atmospheric CO₂ (BUERMANN et al., 2007; SHIA et al., 2006). However, several factors regulate this relationship. Jiang and Yung (2019) identified that the Madden-Julian Oscillation, sudden stratospheric warming, the El Niño-Southern Oscillation, the tropospheric biennial oscillation, annular modes, and regional aspects, such as severe droughts, are potential drivers of atmospheric CO₂ oscillations.

Some studies have shown the effects of El Niño (CHATTERJEE et al., 2017; ELDERING et al., 2017; FAN et al., 2019) and severe droughts (LIU et al., 2018; NOGUEIRA et al., 2015) on the atmospheric CO₂ concentration in the southern hemisphere. For example, Morais Filho et al. (2021) evaluated the temporal variability of X_{CO_2} over three main agricultural crops (soy, pasture, and sugarcane) in Brazil, and observed an increase in X_{CO_2} in the rainy seasons and a reduction in the dry period. Other researches, shows that the low rate of photosynthesis and the gradual increase in temperature, along with the increase in the rate of decomposition and respiratory activity we have the increases the atmospheric CO₂ concentration (FALAHATKAR; MOUSAVI; FARAJZADEH, 2017; SCRIPPS OCEANOGRAPHY, 2022; SIABI; FALAHATKAR; ALAVI, 2019). Our results showed a strong correlation of X_{CO_2} with the drought index (SPI), rainfall, and vegetation, which were the main factors controlling the temporal variability of X_{CO_2} over the SMT.

The EVI detects vegetation conditions by isolating the soil effect (HUETE et al., 2002). In this study, our results revealed strong correlations between the EVI and the SPI and rainfall in regard to their effect on atmospheric CO₂ concentration. Overall, these correlations express the sensitivity of X_{CO2} to land cover and photosynthesis processes.

A negative relationship between X_{CO2} and rainfall was also observed by Chhabra and Gohel (2020) and Golkar et al. (2020). Note that the relationship between atmospheric CO₂ concentration and rainfall will always be negative, as reported by Wang, Zeng, and Wang (2016), because the sensitivity of the vegetation cover to rainfall affects the dynamics of CO₂ in the atmosphere by increasing capture via photosynthesis.

The positive or negative correlations of X_{CO2} with the other variables may be directly correlated to combination effects, such as spatial and temporal resolutions.

4.4.2 Spatial Dynamics

LULC changes are driving factors of the carbon cycle. Specifically, different land uses influence CO₂ absorption and CO₂ flux to the atmosphere (SIABI; FALAHATKAR; ALAVI, 2019). For example, forested areas tend to sequester CO₂ from the atmosphere (CASTRO-MAGNANI et al., 2021; MARCOS-MARTINEZ et al., 2019), incorporate carbon into their biomass, and split it into the soil. Studies have shown that the carbon sinks of intact African and Amazonian rainforests have peaked (BRIENEN et al., 2015; GATTI et al., 2014; HUBAU et al., 2020). Chhabra and Gohel (2020) highlighted the importance of vegetation and ground cover in controlling atmospheric CO₂ emissions, as supported by the lower CO₂ fluxes observed in the northwestern and northeastern regions of the SMT.

Note that the areas in the mid-north of the SMT had a concentration of positive values of the highest annual averages of CO₂ flux, indicating carbon loss to the atmosphere via respiration. Also note that this region has intense farming (Silva Junior et al. 2020). Land use change (BACCINI et al., 2017; BRANDT et al., 2018) can explain the higher observations of CO₂ fluxes in these areas. In particular, net carbon fluxes from LULC changes accounted for 12.5% of anthropogenic carbon emissions over the last decade (HOUGHTON et al., 2012).

Increase of 3 ppm and 2 ppm in 2015 and 2016, respectively, in the observed maximum annual atmospheric X_{CO_2} concentration, as compared with that of 2018, can be attributed to influence of El Niño (CHATTERJEE et al., 2017; DE OLIVEIRA-JÚNIOR et al., 2018; GATTI et al., 2014; LIU et al., 2017), which contributes to a global increase in atmospheric CO_2 as a response of the terrestrial carbon cycle induced by changing weather patterns (CHHABRA; GOHEL, 2019). Based on the observations from the OCO-2 satellite, an increase in atmospheric CO_2 concentrations over the tropical Pacific Ocean was observed during 2015 – 2016, confirming the influence of El Niño (CHATTERJEE et al., 2017).

The severe drought observed in 2015 was also the result of El Niño events (DE OLIVEIRA-JÚNIOR et al., 2018). Meanwhile, 2018 was an extremely wet year in the central region of the SMT, which ultimately resulted in lower X_{CO_2} values. Chhabra and Gohel (2020) mentioned that high rainfall contributes to vegetation growth and development and increases photosynthetic activity, thus reducing the atmospheric CO_2 concentration. Thus, monthly CO_2 concentration fluctuations can be linked to water vapor content, rainfall, and vegetation cover (TIWARI; REVADEKAR; RAVI KUMAR, 2013; WANG; ZENG; WANG, 2016).

Figure 8 and 9 show the direct links between changes in atmospheric radiative forcing and the distribution of atmospheric heating by maintaining heat concentration, which causes changes in the hydrologic cycle and atmospheric moisture content (RICHTER; XIE, 2008), ultimately affecting rainfall (HELD; SODEN, 2006).

4.5 CONCLUSIONS

The temporal variability of X_{CO_2} is inversely related to rainfall events, with peak concentrations occurring in drier periods, from May to October, throughout the SMT. Variations in land surface temperature related to land-use changes increase CO_2 concentrations and result in more CO_2 in the atmosphere, especially in years of low rainfall.

Regarding spatial variability, converting forests into other land uses caused increased CO_2 concentrations in the SMT. Similarly, areas with large forest ranges presented lower CO_2 concentrations, mitigating climate change.

Therefore, not only X_{CO_2} but also CO_2 concentrations are directly related to LULC in complex systems that are affected by climatic variables and processes, such as photosynthesis and soil respiration.

Thus, we conclude that, Remote Sensing is an important resource in monitoring the spatio-temporal dynamics of CO_2 and detecting possible changes with time series in the SMT.

CHAPTER 5 – GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

Monitoring the Earth's surface and the dynamics of its vegetation studies using remote sensing techniques are essential to the environment. With the advent of automatics and programming technologies, it is possible to monitor the entire Brazilian territory using remote sensing techniques. These tools provide and contribute to the distinction and characterization of forests, agriculture, weather, and CO₂ flow. Sensors on board environmental satellites provide data that help to understand the global distribution of vegetation types, as well as their biophysical and structural properties and spatial-temporal variations.

Land use and land cover change is currently one of the biggest impacts caused to the environment and having several consequences, as the loss of local biodiversity and C (carbon) emission. This data survey is essential to report on the achievement of the targets signed with the civil society and international organizations, besides being important in the elaboration of strategies for the improvement of public policies. Thus, the land use and cover change survey in a timely and objective way contribute to action strategies for commercialization establishment, regulation of strategic stocks, and growth of new areas in a controlled manner, which makes it economically and environmentally important for a country.

The results found in this study present an important contribution to a better understanding of greenhouse gases dynamics in the states of Mato Grosso and Mato Grosso do Sul. Thus, in this study the total soil respiration and the multispectral vegetation indices used to evaluate the spatial-temporal dynamics in areas with contrasting land use with soybean cultivation in the state of Mato Grosso and in a monoculture system of eucalyptus species in the state of Mato Grosso do Sul, show that in areas of native forest there are higher emissions of FCO₂ and lower values for CO₂Flux compared to soybean areas in the northern region of the state of Mato Grosso. When we applied remote sensing to assess the spatial-temporal dynamics of CO₂ across the state of Mato Grosso, we detected that not only X_{CO2}, but also CO₂ flux are directly related to land use and land cover change (LULC) in complex systems that are affected by climatic variables and processes, such as photosynthesis and soil respiration. For the state of Mato Grosso do Sul the results show that there is a strong correlation between canopy spectral response and chlorophyll content in eucalypt

species, with the most important spectral regions being green and near infrared. The results make it possible to differentiate FCO₂ among eucalypt species using sensors airborne to unmanned aerial vehicle. This relation depends on the contribution of roots, soil organic matter, plant residues, canopy spectral response, and chlorophyll content of the eucalypt species.

Therefore, in order to collaborate with sustainable production, reduction of C emissions and contribute to the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), to take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts, we suggest that the information obtained in this work can be used to support new research in decision making by society, over the effects of climate change through technical strategies, but also for agencies seeking solid strategies for environmental conservation and sustainable development.

In this sense, strategies such as agricultural inventories considering CO₂ emissions from the soil estimates over integrated agricultural systems, which include arboreal plants as an element of the agroecosystems, soil management, such as no-till farming practices, and crop rotation, can and should play an important role in mitigating deforestation and CO₂ emissions at the soil-atmosphere interface.

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