

## Letter of Response

Dear Dr. Tomomichi Kato

We are re-submitting the manuscript entitled “Evaluating the E3SM Land Model at a temperate forest site using flux and soil water measurements” to be considered for publication in *Geoscientific Model Development*. We greatly appreciate the constructive comments from the two knowledgeable reviewers. We are also grateful to you for offering the opportunity to us to re-submit the manuscript, which has been thoroughly revised based on the reviewers’ comments. We have made the following major changes:

1. We have conducted more analyses on the interannual variability and added more discussion in Section 4.2.
2. We have discussed in further detail on the future directions for the model improvement of water limitation to biogeochemical processes.
3. We have improved the presentations of figures and results by following the reviewers’ suggestions.

We are submitting a letter of point-by-point responses to reviewers’ comments, as well as a marked-up revision. We hope you will find our revision thorough and satisfactory.

Sincerely,  
Junyi Liang

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**Author Note: The reviewers’ comments are in black and the responses follow in blue. Page numbers and line numbers in the responses are those in the marked-up revision following the response letter.**

Reviewer 1 (Dr. Will Wieder)

Liang and co-authors have done a nice job revising their manuscript. At its core, this is a paper about soil moisture, productivity and respiration. This is a hard problem, and one which could be handled more thoughtfully in the discussion.

**Response: We appreciate the positive comments.**

While I appreciate the qualifiers to text explaining to how “improving SWP directly improved soil respiration estimates” (top of page 8 & section 4.1), I would contend that the direct effects of SWP on respiration rates are overstated or unclear. It seems the improvements in soil respiration rates are driven by change in productivity (Fig. S1) which builds larger SOM pool. Specifically, it looks like at annual (Fig 2a, e.g. 2012) and seasonal (4c, shoulder seasons) scales the model shows a relatively low sensitivity to the modeled soil moisture scalar ( $x_{i,w}$ ). I think this is OK, E3SM is in good company (see Carvalhais et al 2014)!

Response: We agree that the change in productivity is an important driving factor for the improvements in soil respiration, which is highlighted in the manuscript. As shown in the manuscript, improving SWP resulted in better GPP simulations, which improved soil respiration simulations in two aspects. On the one hand, GPP can directly affect the magnitude of root respiration. On the other hand, increased GPP can build larger SOM pools as the reviewer mentioned and shown in Fig. S3. In addition to GPP, we would argue that the change in SWP also has a direct impact on soil respiration as the soil moisture scalar ( $\xi_w$ ) controls the magnitude of heterotrophic respiration.

We revised the manuscript to incorporate the reviewer's comment as (Page 12, line 3 – 12):

*“Constraining the SWP-VWC relationship with site-specific data and using the Hanson model instead of the ELMv0 default model (Fig. 1) significantly improved the model representation of SWP (Fig. 3) and annual SR (Fig. 2a). The improvements in model fits could be due to the following reasons. First, the Hanson model significantly increased GPP. The default ELMv0 underestimated GPP (Fig. 2b), as in a recent study where CLM4.5 significantly underestimated GPP at a coniferous forest in northeastern United States (Duarte et al., 2017). GPP can directly affect the magnitude of root respiration as shown in many previous studies (Craine et al., 1999; Höglberg et al., 2001; Wan and Luo, 2003; Verburg et al., 2004; Gu et al., 2008). Additionally, increased GPP can build a larger SOC pool, the substrate for heterotrophic respiration (Fig. S3). Second, the changed soil moisture scheme increased the moisture modifier ( $\xi_w$ ) on heterotrophic respiration during the peak-growing season, and decreased it during the non-growing season (Fig. S2), which is consistent with the trend of changes in SWP (Fig. 3). These changes together resulted in the improvement of simulated SR.”*

The topic of soil moisture sensitivities is introduced again at the bottom of page 12 (section 4.2), but the discussion quickly moves onto temperature sensitivities and  $q_{10}$  before drifting off into soil microbes and fauna. As stated above, this is a paper about soil moisture, productivity and respiration. I'd argue ELM and other land models do fine with temperature, but really struggle with the soil moisture at seasonal and inter annual time scales. The changes to soil physics (the Hansen model) seem to improve dynamics of soil moisture stress, but without appropriate effects on the biogeochemistry. What modification could be made to the formulation of  $b_{tran}$  and  $\xi_w$ ? Are these functions that need new parameterizations, new forms, or that should be replaced in future generations of the model. I'm not asking for the simulations in the paper, but can these ideas be explored more in the discussion?

Response: The reviewer provided a great suggestion. We agree that after improving the simulation of SWP, the moisture scalars ( $b_{tran}$  and  $\xi_w$ ) may also influence the biogeochemical processes. For example, no matter which SWP simulations were used, the ELMv0 had smaller interannual variability than the observations (Fig. 2). Specifically, the model was not able to capture the steep decreases in GPP and SR in the extreme drought year (i.e., 2012). These results indicate that the current model structure is not sensitive enough to environmental changes.

Thanks to the reviewer's comments, we have added more discussion of the possible influences of moisture scalars and possible improvements in the revision (Page 14, line 10 – 18):

*“The calculation of the moisture scalars (e.g.,  $b_{tran}$  and  $\xi_w$ ) using empirical equations from SWP may be another potential reason for the insensitivity. For example, observational results have shown that there may be an optimal moisture point at which soil respiration peaks with significant reductions in*

*decomposition towards both dryer and wetter conditions (Linn and Doran, 1984; Franzluebbers, 1999; Monard et al., 2012; Sierra et al., 2017). In the ELMv0, however, the moisture scalar increases from 0 to 1 with the increase in soil moisture and does not decrease afterwards (Eq. 9). Thus, the ELMv0 may not be sensitive to extreme wet conditions. The linear empirical equation between the lower and upper thresholds ( $\Psi_{\min}$  and  $\Psi_{\max}$ ) may not capture non-linear moisture behaviours, leading to insensitive responses of biogeochemical processes to moisture change. Incorporating more mechanistic moisture scalars may improve the sensitivity of the model in response to moisture changes (Ghezzehei et al.; Yan et al., 2018)."*

Towards this end, it's still a little confusing what the most tractable way will be to parameterize soil hydrology in ELM. The authors discuss why the current approximation is sub-optimal (page 11-12), but can Hansen be applied in the global model? I'm assuming part of the motivation for this paper is to document the Hansen parameterization for work moving forward. If so, can the discussion more explicitly state how existing data can inform the global scale parameterization, application, and evaluation of the Hansen model? The current text seems somewhat vague.

Response: The reviewer asked an insightful question "*can the Hanson model be applied in the global model?*" and suggested to "*more explicitly state how existing data can inform the global scale parameterization, application and evaluation of the Hanson model*". We appreciate these suggestions.

The answer to the question is not a simple "yes" or "no". As the reviewer stated in an earlier comment, the ELM and other global models "*struggle with the soil moisture*" simulation. To improve the global simulations of SWP and SOC, two important aspects, an updated database and a well parameterized SWP-VWC relationship, are needed.

On the global scale, the ELMv0 used a SWP-VWC relationship which was parameterized by grouping over 1,000 soil samples into 11 USDA soil textural classes. The midpoints of sand and clay content in the 11 textural classes were used to extrapolate the relationship into the global scale. One potential issue is that soil samples in the same textural classes can have different sand and clay contents and SWP-VWC relationships, which may not be fully represented when they are grouped together. To address this issue, an updated SWP-VWC database with actual sand and clay content measurements (e.g., the UNSaturated SOil hydraulic Database, UNSODA), may enable improved relationships between model parameters and soil texture in the water retention models.

Meanwhile, different empirical models have been developed to describe the SWP-VWC relationship as shown in Table 1 and Fig. 1. These models could be evaluated with the UNSODA database, and the selected best-fit model(s) could be used to calculate SWP in the field from continuously monitored VWC (e.g., from the AmeriFlux network) on different spatial and temporal scales. Additionally, the database could also be used as a benchmark to evaluate simulations of soil water and biogeochemical processes in ESMs.

In the manuscript, we have discussed these points in Page 13 line 1 – 16:

*"Parameters in the default Clapp & Hornberger model used in the ELMv0 were derived from synthesizing data across soil textural classes (Clapp and Hornberger, 1978; Cosby et al., 1984; Lawrence and Slater, 2008). The data were derived from over 1,000 soil samples from 11 USDA soil*

*textural classes (Holtan et al., 1968; Rawls et al., 1976). The dependence of model parameters on soil texture were derived from a regression of these 11 data points, i.e., the mean parameter values of 11 soil textural classes against the sand or clay fractions (Cosby et al., 1984). Because no actual sand or clay content of soil samples was reported in the original databases (i.e., only the soil textural classes were reported), the sand and clay fractions used for the regression were obtained from midpoint values of each textural class (Clapp and Hornberger, 1978; Cosby et al., 1984). One potential issue is that soil samples in the same textural classes can have different sand and clay contents and SWP-VWC relationships, which may not be fully represented when they are grouped together. An updated SWP-VWC database with actual sand and clay content measurements could provide improved empirical relationships between model parameters and soil texture in the water retention model.*

*In addition, different empirical models have been developed to describe the SWP-VWC relationship (Brooks and Corey, 1964; Clapp and Hornberger, 1978; van Genuchten, 1980; Fredlund and Xing, 1994; Hanson et al., 2003). These models could be evaluated against data, and the selected best-fit model(s) could be used to calculate SWP in the field from continuously monitored VWC (e.g., from the AmeriFlux network) on different spatial and temporal scales. The database could also be used as a benchmark to evaluate simulations of soil water and biogeochemical processes in ESMS.”*

It seems like ‘fixing’ a soil moisture bias in ELM exposed a compensating bias in the canopy photosynthesis (red lines in Fig. 4). I wonder if the proposed modifications to plant physiological parameters are also consistent with observations? Specifically, the add-hoc tuning (Table 2) of SLA (to reduce LAI) and FLRN (to modify  $V_{\text{cmax}}$  and maintain GPP with a less leafy canopy) certainly worked (Fig. 4). I wonder if the modifications are at all consistent with leaf physiology measurements from the site or from similar plants in the TRY database?

Response: The parameter adjustments followed a surrogate-based global optimization using measurements of C and energy fluxes at the site (Lu et al., 2018). The TRY database showed that the SLA for broadleaved deciduous forest ranges from  $< 0.005$  to  $> 0.05 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ C}$ , with mean values of  $0.015 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ C}$  (Kattge et al., 2011), which is similar to our modification (i.e.,  $0.01 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ C}$ ). Similarly, the adjustment of the parameter *flnr* fell within the range of observations in the TRY database.

Minor and technical concerns:

In general, I'm not a fan of introducing new analyses / results at the end of the discussion (Fig. 5). As such, I'd encourage moving this display item into the results (section 3) and mentioning the experiment in the methods (section 2), but leave this up to the authors & editor to decide.

Response: We appreciate the suggestion for the manuscript presentation. We have added descriptions of Fig. 5 in Methods and moved Fig.5 to Results:

Page 6 line 21 – 22: *“The contributions and autotrophic and heterotrophic respiration to total SR were also calculated.”*

Page 10 line 13 – 15: *“The contributions of autotrophic and heterotrophic respiration to total SR had a seasonal cycle (Fig. 5). The contribution of heterotrophic respiration to total SR ranged from 60% to 90%.”*

Why not put the uncertainty bands on both parts of Fig. S5 (and other bar charts in the manuscript)?

Response: We have added the uncertainty bands in Fig. S5 and other bar charts in the revision.

References:

Carvalhais, N., Forkel, M., Khomik, M., Bellarby, J., Jung, M., Migliavacca, M., et al. (2014). Global covariation of carbon turnover times with climate in terrestrial ecosystems. *Nature*, 514(7521), 213-217. doi: 10.1038/nature13731.

Response: Thanks for the information.

Reviewer 2

Review: Evaluating the E3SM Land Model Version 0 (ELMv0) at a temperate forest site using flux and soil water measurements

Authors: Liang, Wang, Ricciuto, Gu, Hanson, Wood, Mayes

Synopsis: The authors run an out-of-the-box simulation of E3SM (which is the same as CLM4.5-CN; I'm not sure what makes E3SM distinct) and compare results to Eddy Covariance (EC) fluxes and soil moisture observations. The default model is found to have Gross Primary Productivity (GPP) and Soil Respiration (SR) that are too low when compared to observations. Near-surface Soil Water Potential (SWP), calculated using relationships that determine SWP from Volumetric Water Content (VWC) based on Clapp&Hornberger result in potentials that are too high during the winter, and too low in the summer. Overall, SWP is too low at low moisture in the near- surface soil, and was slightly high at depth when moisture content was higher. Five different treatments for relating VWC-SWP were tested, and the model of Hanson was found to have the smallest errors when compared to observations. However, when C&H was replaced with Hanson GPP was slightly low and SR slightly high when compared to observations, and the model did not reproduce either the amplitude or sign of interannual variability. Therefore, coefficients influencing Specific Leaf Area (SLA), fractional leaf N used in Rubisco and several coefficients controlling leaf senescence were changed, and results were improved in evaluation of mean seasonal cycles of LAI, GPP and SR.

Finally, there was speculation about which mechanisms and processes might be responsible for model-data mismatch after the aforementioned tuning was complete. These include model Q10 for heterotrophic respiration, microbial biomass and seasonality, and macroinvertebrate (earthworm) influence on carbon cycle processes, and root exudates. The authors exhort the community to pay particular attention to SWP in simulations, and to consider inclusion of these added processes in models.

Response: We appreciate the precise summary.

Review: One could consider this a model-tuning paper. A default model was run, deficiencies were noted, and changes were made to parameters and model physics. This is fine, and has been done many times previously (e.g. Sellers et al. 1989), but I'm not sure that the present paper really tells me anything about how the world works. I work with models that simulate land-atmosphere interaction, and there is nothing in this paper that makes me want to look at my model code and start performing tests and making changes. Hanson worked better, but it worked better at one place on the planet, at a particular deciduous forest (DBF) in the North American midwest. I suspect that if we were to perform evaluations like this at multiple EC sites (across

multiple DBF sites and across multiple PFTs), I expect that we would find that each of the VWC-SWP treatments would come out on top at least one or more times. We would also likely find that the SLA, Nitrogen and senescence parameters could take multiple values as well.

Response: We agree that the performance of the five SWP-VWC relationships may vary across different ecosystems. We chose the Hanson model because it performed the best at the study site. The purpose of this manuscript was to evaluate the ELMv0 using long-term site-level observations. As the reviewer mentioned, similar works have been widely done to improve the model performance.

We are sorry that the manuscript did not excite the reviewer. We are not sure which models the reviewer works with, but previous model evaluation papers show that the hydrological modification on biogeochemical cycles is a big issue in current land models (Todd-Brown et al., 2013; Carvalhais et al., 2014). In our manuscript, we have attempted to explore this issue with the ELMv0 and the long-term observations at the MOFLUX site. One of the most important points is that the ELMv0 is not able to simulate SWP well, and a better representation of SWP, using site-specific data if available, can significantly improve the mean annual simulations of biogeochemical processes. Because many current efforts involving soil carbon cycle modeling are focused on better modeling the effects of changes in temperature, and whether or not to include explicit microbes, we felt it was important to point out the role of soil moisture on model performance. We also agree with the reviewer that the SLA, nitrogen and senescence parameters may change across sites. Common parameter values based on biome and/or soil types would be a better choice if modeling larger spatial scales.

My main complaint now levied, I will also say that just because this paper does not particularly excite me, there is nothing wrong with the analysis. The paper follows a logical progression, and the analysis and presentation of results is done professionally and is easy to follow. I think there is value in the paper, and my official recommendation is to accept this manuscript with minor revisions.

Response: We appreciate the positive comments on the manuscript.

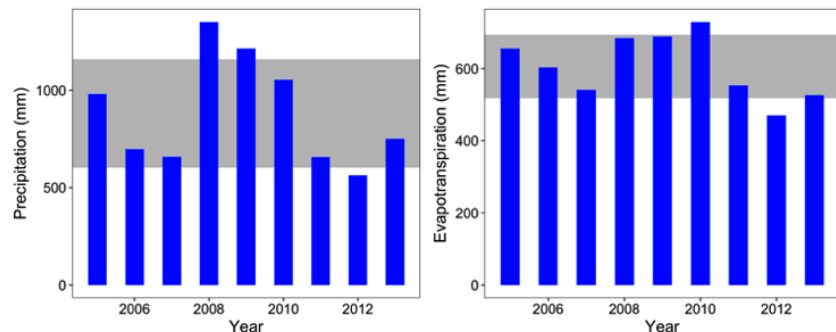
The paper is quite short (14 pages), which is nice, but I think there might be some expansion of analysis and explanation that would add value to the research.

Merely stating that the model was unable to capture observed response to the 2012 drought is extremely unsatisfying. This is an opportunity to explore model behavior, and perhaps gain valuable insight into processes and mechanisms. I find it interesting that observed near-surface (10cm) SWP (Fig 3b) was not exceptionally low in 2012; the year did not look much different from 2011 or 2013, and in fact looked wetter than 2005-2007. That is interesting; what was deep soil SWP doing in those years? From Figure 2, we see that observed SR oscillated up and down between 2005-2007, while GPP dropped from 2005 to 2007. What was the model doing? What did BTRAN look like in 2012, as compared to other years? How about LAI? Is there a near-surface water table in the simulations that prevents root stress? Are there constraints on stomatal conductance due to high VPD or unfavorable temperature? What did they do in 2012? In fact, simulated SR and GPP both increased from 2011 to 2012, while there were dramatic drops in the

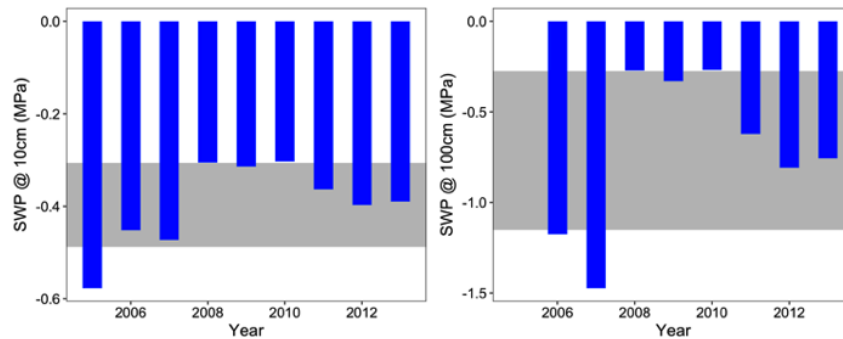
observations of both. If the model does not respond to the drought, you should be able to tell your reader why, and speculate whether that behavior is realistic or not, and how that behavior might impact model performance in other years. I would like to see some exploration of IAV, and explanation of why Hanson provides an upgrade from C&H in this regard.

Response: We appreciate the valuable comments, especially the suggestion of explorations of 2012 drought and interannual variability. In the manuscript, we have an entire section (i.e., section 4.2) to discuss the representation of seasonal and interannual variabilities in the ELMv0. We explored the interannual variability from several aspects.

First, to answer the reviewer’s questions, we have conducted more analyses. It was an extremely dry year in 2012, with much lower precipitation than other years (Fig. S9 and also see below). However, neither the upper nor the deeper layer SWP in 2012 was extremely low as well (Fig. S10 and also see below). This could be because that the severe drought-pathogen interactions in 2012 resulted in a significant stem mortality of tree species (Wood et al., 2017). Thus, the observed steep decreases in GPP and SR are likely because of the species mortality. In addition, the stem mortality led to lower moisture loss through evapotranspiration (Fig. S9), resulting in no soil moisture decrease. In the model, however, the water limitation to biogeochemical cycles is primarily controlled by soil water stress. In other words, the ELMv0 had moisture modifications at the physiological level, but not at the plant community level. As a result, although the better presentation of SWP improved the mean annual simulations of biogeochemical processes, the model was not able to capture the mortality and the interannual variability of GPP and SR.



**Figure S9. Mean annual precipitation and evapotranspiration at the MOFLUX site from 2005 to 2013.** Both precipitation and evapotranspiration were lower in 2012 than other years. The grey bars show the multi-year standard deviation.



**Figure S10. Mean annual soil water potential (SWP) at 10 cm and 100cm at the MOFLUX site.** The grey bars show the multi-year standard deviation.

Second, the calculation of the moisture scalars (e.g.,  $b_{tran}$  and  $\xi_w$ ) using empirical equations from SWP may be another potential reason for the insensitivity. For example, observational results have shown that there may be an optimal moisture point at which soil respiration peaks with significant reductions in decomposition towards both dryer and wetter conditions (Linn and Doran, 1984; Franzluebbers, 1999; Monard et al., 2012; Sierra et al., 2017). In the ELMv0, however, the moisture scalar increases from 0 to 1 with the increase in soil moisture and does not decrease afterwards (Eq. 9). Thus, the ELMv0 may not be sensitive to extreme wet conditions. The linear empirical equation between the lower and upper SWP thresholds ( $\Psi_{min}$  and  $\Psi_{max}$ ) may not capture non-linear moisture behaviours, leading to insensitive responses of biogeochemical processes to moisture change. Incorporating more mechanistic moisture scalars may improve the sensitivity of the model in response to moisture changes (Ghezzehei et al.; Yan et al., 2018).

Additionally, lacking representations of microbial and macroinvertebrate dynamics may also be potential reasons for the low seasonal and interannual variability in the model. We also discussed that the temperature sensitivity was unlikely a reason.

Please see Section 4.2 for more details. We have made revision in the Abstract and Conclusions.

Related to the above is the fact that in 2007 there was a significant drop in observed SR and GPP when compared to 2006. The default model (C&H) showed drops that are more similar to the amplitude of the observed reduction, even if there is an offset or bias. In fact, the Hanson model shows almost no interannual variability (IAV) in SR and GPP at all. Is this really an improvement? One might make the case that you would have a better simulation of the observed flux by increasing  $V_{cmax}$  (and perhaps SLA and the senescence parameters) in CLM without changing the soil; your GPP would go up, which would translate into larger carbon pools and subsequent increased RS. You would also retain a more realistic comparison with observed IAV. Is there a reason to suspect that this would not work?

Response: The study site experienced drought in 2007, which also resulted in an increased tree mortality though it was milder than that in 2012 (Wood et al., 2017). As discussed above, the model was not able to capture the mortality and the interannual variability without vegetation and microbial dynamics. Therefore, although the default model showed drops that were more similar to the amplitude of the observed reduction in 2007, it was because of the wrong reason (i.e., wrong SWP).

The reviewer asked “*is this really an improvement*”. The default model did not simulate SWP, GPP and SR well. We improved the modeled SWP by better representing the SWP-VWC relationship in the model. The better representation of SWP further improved the mean annual simulations of GPP and SR. We think this is an improvement because the changes in GPP and SR were because of the right SWP simulation.



The reviewer also asked if we suspect changing  $V_{cmax}$  would not work. We changed the SWP because we found the model was not able to simulate it properly when comparing with observations. For  $V_{cmax}$ , we do not have any observational evidence that it is wrong in the model.

Although the model did not match the observed interannual variability, the appropriate simulation of SWP led to improved mean annual simulations of GPP and SR. Based on that, we think better representations of vegetation dynamics, moisture function, and microbial activity may address the issue of interannual variability. We have added more discussion in the revision, thanks to the reviewer's comments.

In section 4.1 two paragraphs (lines 30-33 on page 11, continued in lines 1-7 on page 12; lines 8-13 on page 12) describe how C&H was developed from textural classes and not sand/clay fractions, and how models might make use of near-continuous SWP observations. I'm not sure what these 2 paragraphs bring to the analysis, since neither has been done. Do they merit this much attention?

Response: We think these two paragraphs are necessary. The default Clapp & Hornberger model failed to simulate the SWP in the ELM. An obvious question to ask was why it failed and how to improve. We have used these two paragraphs to discuss this issue. The default Clapp & Hornberger model's parameters were dependent on soil sand/clay fractions. However, it used data without actual measurements of soil sand/clay fractions, leading to inaccurate simulations. As a result, we propose that an updated SWP-VWC database with actual sand and clay content measurements may enable improved relationships between model parameters and soil texture in the water retention model.

Different empirical models have been developed to describe the SWP-VWC relationship (Brooks and Corey, 1964; Clapp and Hornberger, 1978; van Genuchten, 1980; Fredlund and Xing, 1994; Hanson et al., 2003). As the reviewer mentioned above, the performance of different SWP-VWC relationships may vary across different ecosystems, which we totally agree. Thus, it may ultimately be necessary to evaluate these models using a global database and select the best-fit model(s) on the global scale.

In summary, we think these two paragraphs are needed from the perspective of model evaluation and improvement.

The authors state that "SWP in simulations in ESMs should be calibrated carefully with observations...", but this is clearly impossible and unrealistic in global simulations. If the ultimate goal is correct simulations of global biogeophysical behavior, then we have a disconnect between what the authors are doing here (tuning at a single site) and what we are told is the ultimate goal (accurate representation of global carbon cycle). This is a persistent and real problem. We calibrate our models on site-level data and then extend that behavior to the globe. I'd be interested in some discussion of how we might use site-level studies to improve global simulations.

Response: We appreciate the suggestion of discussing how to improve global simulations using site-level studies. It is true that there is no global grid-based SWP database. However, the research community has collected paired measurements of VWC and SWP, as well as soil characteristics, in a variety of soil types and ecosystems (e.g., the UNSODA database). These data can be used to calibrate SWP-VWC relationships and SWP simulations in models. There are many sites, such as the MOFLUX site in this study, collecting long-term hydrological and biogeochemical data. These data are very useful to evaluate whether improving the SWP simulation is one of the right reasons for model improvement.

Thanks to the reviewer’s suggestion, we have added more discussion in the revision (Page 12 line 20 – 27):

*“Our analyses in this study indicate that improving the modelled SWP can significantly improve mean annual GPP and SR simulations. Thus, we propose that the SWP simulation in ESMs should be calibrated carefully with observations, and/or by using different model representations of the SWP-VWC relationship. Because there is no global grid-based SWP database, paired measurements of VWC and SWP are needed along with soil characteristics in a variety of soil types and ecosystems. These data can be used to calibrate SWP-VWC relationships and SWP simulations in models. Besides, there are many sites, such as the MOFLUX site in this study, collecting long-term hydrological and biogeochemical data. These data are useful to evaluate whether better SWP simulation will improve biogeochemical cycling simulations.”*

Specific Comments:

- Equation 4: The subscript should be liveCroot, should it not?

Response: Yes. We have corrected it.

- Page 4, line 9: coarse

Response: Revised (Page 4, line 9).

- Page 5: is ‘residual’ water content the same as wilt point?

Response: The residual water content is not exactly the same as the wilting point. The wilting point, by definition, is the minimal point of soil moisture the plant requires not to wilt. It is the water content at -1.5MPa of suction pressure. On the other hand, the residual water content is a parameter to determine the shape of the SWP-VWC relationships. As summarized by Vanapalli et al. (1998), the definition of residual water content varies depending on the SWP-VWC model, but it can exceed the wilting point (i.e., at -1.5MPa of suction pressure).

- Table 1: I’m not sure what AIC is: shouldn’t it be explained, even if briefly?

Response: The Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) is an estimator of the relative quality of models for a given set of data. The smaller AIC value, the better. It was calculated by

$$AIC = a \ln \left( \frac{\sum(\hat{\epsilon})^2}{a} \right) + 2b$$

We have added the AIC equation in the Method section (Page 6, line 7 – 11).

- Page 8, line3: I know what ‘btran’ is, but some of your readers may not. You should explain this variable.

Response: We have added explanation in the revision (Page 8, line 12 – 14):

*“The btran is the transpiration beta factor, which controls the soil water limitation to transpiration and photosynthesis, while  $\xi_w$  is the soil moisture modifier for heterotrophic respiration as shown in Eq. (9).”*

- Figure 4, Figures S6-S7: Make lines darker, shading lighter. Hard to discern individual simulations.

Response: Revised as suggested.

- I might have missed this, but what is the porosity and sand/clay content of the soil at the MOFLUX site? If VWC at depth regularly drops to between 15-20% (Fig 1b) then it must have considerable sand content. My recollection of more clayey soils is that wilt point will be much higher. Is this soil representative of the region and/or PFT?

Response: The dominant soils are the Weller silt loam and the Clinkenbeard very flaggy clay loam (Young et al., 2001). This soil is representative of the region. The sand and clay contents in the lower layer (Fig. 1b) are 8.66% and 39.89%, respectively. According to its definition (i.e., at -1.5MPa of suction pressure), the VWC at the wilting point of the lower layer is approximate 23% (Fig. 1b). The values shown in Fig. 1 were not measured in the field. Instead, to derive the soil water retention curves, soil samples were collected in the area of the flux tower base at two depths: 0 to 30 cm and below 30 cm. Samples were evaluated periodically for soil water potential using a dewpoint potentiometer (Decagon Devices, Model WP4C) as they dried over time (Hanson et al., 2003). Thus, the measurements went beyond the wilting point.

- Equation 9: It appears that the environmental modifier for water has value of 0 and low water (conditions too dry for microbial activity), varies between 0-1 for moisture up to (PSI)<sub>max</sub>. What is the difference between (PSI)<sub>max</sub> and (PSI)<sub>s</sub>? Are they the same? Most models I am familiar with will have an ‘optimum’ soil water content or potential for respiration, the idea being that either too dry or too wet (anaerobic) conditions are unfavorable for microbial decomposition of carbon stocks. The ‘too wet’ does not seem to be the case here. Why is that?

Response: We apologize for the typo.  $\Psi_s$  should be  $\Psi_{max}$ , which is the matric water potential under saturated conditions. The issue has been fixed in the revision (Page 4, Eq. 9 and line 20).

The reviewer asked a very interesting question why the moisture modifier ( $\xi_w$ ) did not decrease under “too wet” conditions. In the ELM, the moisture modifier was based on observational data (Orchard and Cook, 1983; Andren and Paustian, 1987). These data were produced a few decades ago. However, as the reviewer mentioned, more recent data showed there might be an optimal moisture point at which soil respiration peaks with significant reductions in decomposition towards both dryer and wetter conditions (Linn and Doran, 1984; Franzluebbers, 1999; Monard et al., 2012; Sierra et al., 2017). As a result, the calculation of the moisture scalars may be a

potential reason for the unrealistic simulated interannual variability, which we discussed in the revision (Page 14, line 10 – 18):

*“The calculation of the moisture scalars (e.g.,  $b_{tran}$  and  $x_W$ ) using empirical equations from SWP may be another potential reason for the insensitivity. For example, observational results have shown that there may be an optimal moisture point at which soil respiration peaks with significant reductions in decomposition towards both dryer and wetter conditions (Linn and Doran, 1984; Franzluebbers, 1999; Monard et al., 2012; Sierra et al., 2017). In the ELMv0, however, the moisture scalar increases from 0 to 1 with the increase in soil moisture and does not decrease afterwards (Eq. 9). Thus, the ELMv0 may not be sensitive to extreme wet conditions. The linear empirical equation between the lower and upper thresholds ( $\Psi_{min}$  and  $\Psi_{max}$ ) may not capture non-linear moisture behaviours, leading to insensitive responses of biogeochemical processes to moisture change. Incorporating more mechanistic moisture scalars may improve the sensitivity of the model in response to moisture changes (Ghezzehei et al.; Yan et al., 2018).”*

• Using 10 years of tower forcing to perform a 200-year spinup of carbon pools concerns me. I understand that this might be all the tower data available, but, especially for carbon pools, I'm concerned that anomalies in the 10-year meteorology may be aliased onto pool size. Did you consider using a reanalysis product (CRU, NCEP, ECMWF) for spinup and then use the tower data for the transient run?

Response: We used preindustrial atmospheric forcing (e.g., CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and nitrogen deposition) and site-specific meteorological measurements to perform the spinup. We hope the reviewer would agree that both tower measurements and reanalyzed products will produce biases and uncertainties when they are used for the spinup. The resolution mismatch and algorithm uncertainty of reanalyzed products may significantly influence the site-level results. In addition, using the reanalyzed data first followed by tower data may produce abrupt changes in the model simulation. For the site-level study, the *in situ* measurements were our first choice. Using site-specific meteorological measurements to perform spinup has been applied in many studies (e.g., Mao et al., 2016; Duarte et al., 2017). Thus, we chose to use the site-specific meteorological measurements to perform both the spinup and transient simulations.

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Response: Thanks for the information.

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# Evaluating the E3SM Land Model version 0 (ELMv0) at a temperate forest site using flux and soil water measurements

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15 **Abstract.** Accurate simulations of soil respiration and carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) fluxes are critical to project global biogeochemical cycles and the magnitude of carbon (C) feedbacks to climate change in Earth system models (ESMs). Currently, soil respiration is not represented well in ESMs, and few studies have attempted to address this deficiency. In this study, we evaluated the simulation of soil respiration in the Energy Exascale Earth System Model (E3SM) Land Model version 0 (ELMv0) using long-term observations from the Missouri Ozark AmeriFlux (MOFLUX) forest site in the central  
20 U.S. Simulations using the default model parameters significantly underestimated annual soil respiration and gross primary production, while underestimating soil water potential during peak growing seasons and overestimating it during non-growing seasons. A site-specific soil water retention curve significantly improved modelled soil water potential, mean annual gross primary production and soil respiration. However, the model continued to underestimate the seasonal and interannual variabilities and the impact of the extreme drought in 2012. Potential reasons may include inadequate  
25 representations of vegetation mortality, moisture function, and the dynamics of microbial organisms and soil macroinvertebrates. Our results indicate that the simulations of mean annual gross primary production and soil respiration can be significantly improved by better model representations of the soil water retention curve.

## 1 Introduction

30 Globally, soils store over twice as much carbon (C) as the atmosphere (Chapin III et al., 2011). Soil respiration (SR) is the second largest C flux between terrestrial ecosystems and the atmosphere (Luo and Zhou, 2006). An accurate simulation of SR is critical for projecting terrestrial C status, and therefore climate change, in Earth system models (ESMs) (IPCC, 2013).

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Despite significant experimental data accumulation and model development during the past decades, simulations of soil CO<sub>2</sub> efflux to the atmosphere still have a high degree of uncertainty (Friedlingstein et al., 2006; Jones et al., 2013; Todd-Brown et al., 2013; Todd-Brown et al., 2014; Tian et al., 2015), calling for comprehensive assessments of model performance against observational data.

5 To assess the performance of ESMs, different types of data can be used. For example, using atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> observations, eddy covariance measurements and remote sensing images, Randerson et al. (2009) found that two ESMs underestimated net C uptake during the growing season in temperate and boreal forest ecosystems, primarily due to the delays in the timing of maximum leaf area in the models. By comparing remote sensing estimations from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer and flux tower datasets, Xia et al. (2017) found that better representations of  
10 processes controlling monthly maximum gross primary productivity (GPP) and vegetation C use efficiency (CUE) improved the ability of models to predict the C cycle in permafrost regions.

Despite the significance of large global SR fluxes, SR has rarely been evaluated in ESMs using long-term observations. Among the factors that influence SR, soil water potential (SWP) provides a unified measure of the energy state of soil water that limits the growth and respiration of plants and microbes. Unlike soil temperature (ST) or soil volumetric water content  
15 (VWC), however, SWP is difficult to directly monitor in the field. Accurate estimation of SWP largely relies on the soil water retention curve (i.e., the relationship between VWC and SWP), which is highly specific to soil properties (Childs, 1940; Clapp and Hornberger, 1978; Cosby et al., 1984; Tuller and Or, 2004; Moyano et al., 2013). Site-level data have been used to evaluate model representations of other processes, such as phenology, net primary production (NPP), transpiration, leaf area index (LAI), water use efficiency, and nitrogen use efficiency (Richardson et al., 2012; De Kauwe et al., 2013;  
20 Walker et al., 2014; Zaehle et al., 2014; Mao et al., 2016; Duarte et al., 2017; Montané et al., 2017). In Powell et al. (2013), the only aspect influencing the modelling of SR was the sensitivity of SR to VWC in an Amazon forest, but the study resulted in no improvements to simulated SR. Here, we focus on improving simulations by using site-specific measurements to assess multiple factors influencing SR.

We will evaluate the simulation of SR step by step. We assessed underlying mechanisms in the Energy Exascale Earth  
25 System Model (E3SM) Land Model version 0 (ELMv0) by using intensive observations at the Missouri Ozark AmeriFlux (MOFLUX) forest site in the central U.S. We first evaluated the effects of two abiotic factors, ST and SWP, on the simulation of SR. Then we evaluated the effects of biotic factors, such as GPP, LAI and Q<sub>10</sub> of heterotrophic respiration, on the simulation of surface CO<sub>2</sub> efflux to the atmosphere.

## 2 Materials and Methods

### 30 2.1 Study site and measurements

The MOFLUX site is located in the University of Missouri's Thomas H. Baskett Wildlife Research and Education Area (latitude 38°44'39"N, longitude 92°12'W). The mean annual precipitation is 1083 mm, while minimum and maximum



monthly mean temperatures are  $-1.3$  °C (January) and  $25.2$  °C (July), respectively. The site is a temperate, upland oak-hickory forest, with major tree species consisting of white oak (*Quercus alba* L.), black oak (*Q. velutina* Lam.), shagbark hickory (*Carya ovata* (Mill.) K. Koch), sugar maple (*Acer saccharum* Marsh.), and eastern red cedar (*Juniperus virginiana* L.) (Gu et al., 2016; Wood et al., 2017). The dominant soils are the Weller silt loam and the Clinkenbeard very flaggy clay loam (Young et al., 2001).

Ecosystem C, water and energy fluxes, SR, LAI and supporting meteorological measurements were initiated in June 2004 (Gu et al., 2016). Soil respiration was measured within the ecosystem flux tower footprint using non-flow through non-steady state auto-chambers. From 2004 through 2013, SR was measured using eight automated, custom-built chambers (ED system; Edwards and Riggs, 2003; Gu et al., 2008) coupled with an infrared gas analyzer (LI-820 Li-Cor Inc., Lincoln, Nebraska). In 2013, this system was replaced with 16 auto-chambers operated using the closed-path system (model LI-8100; Li-Cor Inc., Lincoln, Nebraska). The two systems (ED and Li-8100) were operated side-by-side for several weeks in 2010 and found to produce comparable responses (Paul Hanson, personal communication). Half-hourly SR time series were generated to coincide with the ecosystem flux data set by averaging those chambers sampled in the corresponding averaging period. Net ecosystem CO<sub>2</sub> exchange (NEE) was measured on a 32-m walk-up scaffold tower (Gu et al., 2016). A soil temperature profile sensor (model STP01, HuksefluxUSA, Inc., Center Moriches, NY) measured at 5 depths down to 0.5 m. Soil WVC was measured using water content reflectometers (model CS616, Campbell Scientific Inc., Logan UT) installed beneath each soil chamber. All the data were recorded at half-hourly intervals, which were integrated over time to obtain daily and annual fluxes.

## 2.2 Ecosystem C flux partitioning

Flux-tower GPP was estimated from measured NEE. To reduce biases resulting from individual methods, three NEE-partitioning approaches were employed. The average and variation of the three methods were used to evaluate the model-simulated GPP. In the first two methods, ecosystem respiration (ER) was estimated from nighttime NEE and extrapolated to daytime, and daytime GPP was calculated from NEE and the extrapolated ER (Reichstein et al., 2005). The only difference between the two methods was whether to exclude night-time data under non-turbulent conditions. In the third method, GPP was estimated by fitting the light-response curve between NEE and radiation (Lasslop et al., 2010). All the partitioning calculations were conducted using the R package *REddyProc* (Reichstein et al., 2017).

## 2.3 Model description

The ELMv0 used in this study is structurally equivalent to the Community Land Model 4.5 (CLM 4.5), which includes coupled carbon and nitrogen cycles (Oleson et al., 2013). In ELMv0, the soil biogeochemistry can be simulated with one-layer or multi-layer converging trophic cascade (CTC, i.e., CLM-CN) decomposition model. We used the vertically-resolved CTC decomposition in this study. In the model, SR was calculated by different CO<sub>2</sub> emission components (Oleson et al., 2013):

$$SR = R_A + R_H \quad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

$$R_A = R_M + R_G \quad \text{Eq. (2)}$$

$$R_M = R_{livecroot} + R_{froot} \quad \text{Eq. (3)}$$

$$R_{livecroot} = [N]_{livecroot} R_{base} R_{q10}^{(T_{2m}-20)/10} \quad \text{Eq. (4)}$$

$$R_{froot} = \sum_{j=1}^{10} [N]_{froot} r_{fj} R_{base} R_{q10}^{(T_{2m}-20)/10} \quad \text{Eq. (5)}$$

$$R_G = 0.3 C_{new\_root} \quad \text{Eq. (6)}$$

$$R_H = \sum_{j=1}^{10} \sum_{l=1}^4 SOC_{lj} k_l r_{fl} \xi_T \xi_W \xi_O \xi_D \xi_N \quad \text{Eq. (7)}$$

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where  $R_A$  and  $R_H$  are belowground autotrophic and heterotrophic respiration, respectively.  $R_A$  is the sum of root maintenance ( $R_M$ ) and growth respiration ( $R_G$ ).  $R_{livecroot}$  and  $R_{froot}$  are maintenance respiration of live coarse root and fine root.  $[N]_{livecroot}$  and  $[N]_{froot}$  are nitrogen content of live coarse and fine roots.  $R_{base}$  is the base maintenance respiration at 20 °C.  $R_{q10}$  which equals 2, is the temperature sensitivity of maintenance respiration.  $T_{2m}$  is the air temperature at 2 m.  $C_{new\_root}$  is the new root growth C.  $R_H$  is the sum of heterotrophic respiration of four SOC pools with different turnover rates (Oleson et al., 2013) in the 10 soil layers. The parameters  $k_l$  and  $r_{fl}$  are the turnover rate and respiration fraction of the  $l^{th}$  pool.  $\xi_T$ ,  $\xi_W$ ,  $\xi_O$ ,  $\xi_D$ ,  $\xi_N$  are environmental modifiers of soil temperature, soil water content, oxygen, depth and nitrogen for each layer, respectively. A detailed description of the environmental modification can be found in Oleson et al. (2013). Briefly, the temperature and water modifiers were:

$$\xi_T = Q_{10}^{\left(\frac{T_{soil}-T_{ref}}{10}\right)} \quad \text{Eq. (8)}$$

$$\xi_W = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } \Psi < \Psi_{min} \\ \frac{\log(\Psi_{min}/\Psi_m)}{\log(\Psi_{min}/\Psi_{max})} & \text{for } \Psi_{min} \leq \Psi \leq \Psi_{max} \\ 1 & \text{for } \Psi > \Psi_{max} \end{cases} \quad \text{Eq. (9)}$$

where  $Q_{10}$  is the temperature sensitivity (the default value is 1.5),  $T_{ref}$  is the reference temperature (25 °C).  $\Psi_m$  is the matric water potential,  $\Psi_{min}$  is the lower limit for matric potential, and  $\Psi_{max}$  is the matric water potential under saturated conditions.

The ELMv0 is a grid-based model. To assess it using site-level observations, we used a point-run framework which allows the model to simulate individual sites (Mao et al., 2016). Single-point runs forced with site-level measurements have a long history to evaluate model representations of phenology, NPP, transpiration, LAI, water use efficiency, and nitrogen use efficiency (Richardson et al., 2012; De Kauwe et al., 2013; Walker et al., 2014; Zaehle et al., 2014; Mao et al., 2016; Duarte et al., 2017; Montané et al., 2017). With site-specific forcing, a 200-year accelerated decomposition spin-up was performed, followed by a 200-year normal spin-up, before the transient simulation was performed from 1850 to 2013. The vegetation was set as 100% temperate deciduous forest.

## 2.4 Soil water retention curve

Soil water potential values for the Weller soils ([https://soilseries.sc.egov.usda.gov/OSD\\_Docs/W/WELLER.html](https://soilseries.sc.egov.usda.gov/OSD_Docs/W/WELLER.html)) were estimated from observed VWC and soil water retention curves that were developed for the site. To derive the soil water retention curves, soil samples were collected in the area of the flux tower base at two depths: 0 to 30 cm and below 30 cm.

5 Samples were evaluated periodically for soil water potential using a dewpoint potentiometer (Decagon Devices, Model WP4C) as they dried over time (Hanson et al., 2003).

In the ELMv0, the SWP was calculated from VWC based on the Clapp & Hornberger model (Clapp and Hornberger, 1978), in which the SWP-VWC relationship was expressed as

$$\Psi_m = \Psi_s \left( \frac{\theta}{\theta_s} \right)^{-B} \quad \text{Eq. (10)}$$

10 where  $\theta$  and  $\Psi_m$  are the VWC and matric potential (MPa); and  $\theta_s$  and  $\Psi_s$  are VWC and matric potential under saturated conditions, and  $B$  is a parameter to determine the shape of the SWP-VWC relationship. In the ELMv0, all parameters were calculated from the fraction of organic matter ( $f_{om}$ ), clay content ( $f_{clay}$ , %) and sand content ( $f_{sand}$ , %) (Cosby et al., 1984; Lawrence and Slater, 2008), where

$$\Psi_s = - \left( (1 - f_{om}) \times 10 \times 10^{1.88 - 0.0131f_{sand}} + 10.3f_{om} \right) \quad \text{Eq. (11)}$$

$$15 \quad \theta_s = ((1 - f_{om}) \times (0.489 - 0.00126f_{sand}) + 0.9f_{om}) \quad \text{Eq. (12)}$$

$$B = (1 - f_{om}) \times (2.91 + 0.159f_{clay}) + 2.7f_{om} \quad \text{Eq. (13)}$$

In addition to the Clapp & Hornberger model, four other empirical models (Brooks and Corey, 1964; van Genuchten, 1980; Fredlund and Xing, 1994; Hanson et al., 2003) were also used to fit the SWP curve against VWC (Table 1, Figure 1).

In the Brooks & Corey model, the SWP-VWC relationship was expressed as

$$20 \quad \frac{\theta - \theta_r}{\theta_s - \theta_r} = \begin{cases} \left( \frac{\Psi_b}{\Psi_m} \right)^\lambda & \Psi_m > \Psi_b \\ 1 & \Psi_m \leq \Psi_b \end{cases} \quad \text{Eq. (14)}$$

where  $\theta_r$  and  $\theta_s$  are the residual and saturated water contents, respectively,  $\theta$  and  $\Psi_m$  are measured VWC and matric potential (MPa),  $\Psi_b$  is a parameter related to the soil matric potential at air entry, and  $\lambda$  is related to the soil pore size distribution (Brooks and Corey, 1964).

In the Fredlund & Xing model, the SWP-VWC relationship was described as

$$25 \quad \frac{\theta - \theta_r}{\theta_s - \theta_r} = \left[ \frac{1}{\ln(e + (\Psi_m/a)^n)} \right]^m \quad \text{Eq. (15)}$$

where  $a$ ,  $n$  and  $m$  are parameters determining the shape of the soil water characteristic curve (Fredlund and Xing, 1994).

In the Hanson model (Hanson et al., 2003), soil matric potential was modelled by a double exponential function:

$$\Psi_m = -a^{b\theta^c} - d \quad \text{Eq. (16)}$$

where  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$  and  $d$  are fitted parameters.

In the van Genuchten model, the SWP-VWC relationship was described as

$$\frac{\theta - \theta_r}{\theta_s - \theta_r} = \left[ \frac{1}{1 + (\alpha \Psi_m)^n} \right]^{(1-1/n)} \quad \text{Eq. (17)}$$

where  $\alpha$  (MPa<sup>-1</sup>) and  $n$  are parameters that determine the shape of the soil-water curve (van Genuchten, 1980).

In addition to the default SWP-VWC relationship in the ELMv0, all the five empirical models were parameterized using non-linear fitting against measured VWC and SWP data from the study site. For the calibration of the Clapp & Hornberger model, instead of using the hard-coded parameters in Eq. 11-13, we calibrated the three parameters (i.e.,  $\Psi_m$ ,  $\theta_s$  and  $\Psi_s$ ) in the Clapp & Hornberger model (Eq. 10). The root-mean-square error (RMSE) and Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) were used to select the best model representing the SWP-VWC relationship. The AIC value was calculated by:

$$AIC = a \ln \left( \frac{\sum (\hat{\epsilon})^2}{a} \right) + 2b \quad \text{Eq. (18)}$$

where  $a$  is the number of data points,  $\hat{\epsilon}$  is the estimated residual of each data point, and  $b$  is the total number of estimated model parameters. Smaller RMSE and AIC values imply a better fit to observational data. The best-fit model was used in two ways. First, it was used to calculate the “observed” SWP from monitored VWC in the field. Second, it was implemented in the ELMv0 to replace the default SWP model in order to improve the SWP simulation.

## 2.5 Evaluation of SR in the model

The evaluation of SR was conducted step by step. We first compared observations with the model default output of SR and related factors, including ST, SWP, GPP, and LAI. Thereafter, we attempted to improve the simulation of these factors in order to improve the overall SR simulation by (i) implementing the best-fit SWP-VWC relationship, and (ii) modifying model parameters related to GPP, LAI and SR. GPP-related parameters included the specific leaf area (SLA) at the top of canopy and the fraction of leaf nitrogen in the RuBisCO enzyme. LAI-related parameters included the number of days to complete leaf fall during the end of growing season, the critical day length for senescence (i.e., the length of the day when leaves start to senesce), and a parameter  $\alpha$  that was used to produce a linearly-increasing rate of litterfall. The contributions and autotrophic and heterotrophic respiration to total SR were also calculated. In addition, the  $Q_{10}$  of heterotrophic respiration was also modified. Because the parameter modification was dependent on the evaluation steps, how the parameters were modified is presented in the Results section.

## 3 Results

For the upper 30 cm of soil, the ELMv0 simulations using the default Clapp and Hornberger model tended to underestimate the SWP when VWC was less than 15% (Fig. 1a), while SWP rapidly approached zero when VWC was greater than 25% (Fig. 1a). For soil below 30 cm, the ELMv0 showed a consistent overestimation of SWP when VWC exceeded 15% (Fig.

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1b). The default ELMv0 showed relatively high RMSE for both soil layers, indicating that the SWP-VWC relationship was not well simulated in the ELMv0 (Table 1). Although the Clapp & Hornberger model performed better by using parameters from non-linear fitting, its performance was not as good as the Hanson and the van Genuchten models (Table 1, Fig. 1). The Hanson model was the best-fit model for the MOFLUX site, showing the smallest RMSE and AIC values for both soil layers (Table 1, Fig. 1), and was therefore implemented in ELMv0 to calculate SWP from measured VWC.

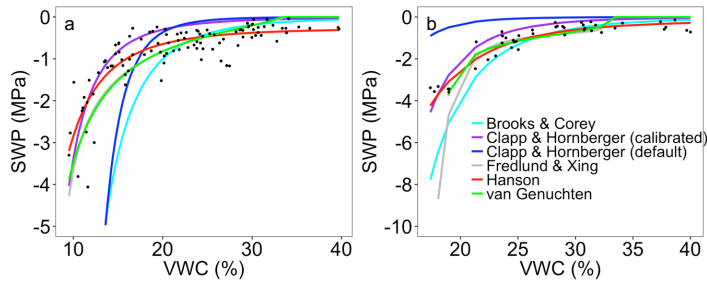


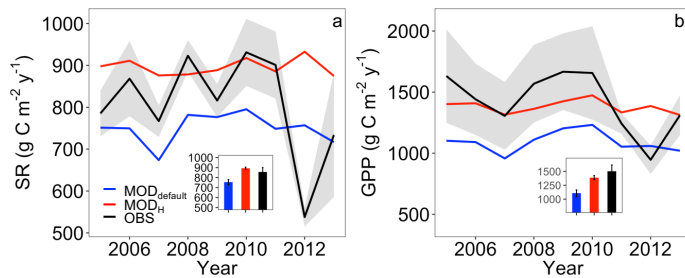
Figure 1: Observed (black dots) and simulated relationship between soil water potential (SWP) and volumetric water content (VWC) by the different models at two soil layers: (a) 0 to 30 cm and (b) below 30 cm.

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Table 1. Root-mean-square-error (RMSE) and Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) of different models in simulating the SWP-VWC relationship for the soil in the MOFLUX site at two depths: 0 to 30 cm and below 30 cm.

Model	< 30 cm		> 30 cm	
	RMSE	AIC	RMSE	AIC
Clapp & Hornberger (default ELMv0)	4.25	157.82	1.33	18.51
Brooks & Corey	3.91	151.05	1.13	13.51
Clapp & Hornberger (calibrated)	0.53	-61.03	0.51	-23.43
Fredlund & Xing	0.51	-63.15	2.43	47.13
Hanson	0.41	-86.07	0.34	-38.98
van Genuchten	0.50	-65.53	0.36	-36.61

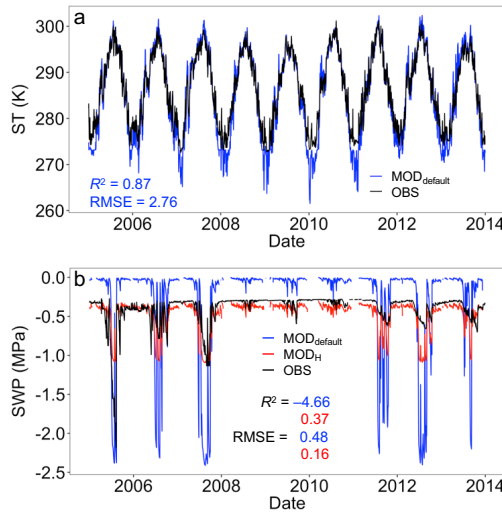
The ELMv0 default run significantly underestimated both annual SR and GPP (Fig. 2). In addition, the simulated SR had smaller interannual variability compared to the observations. The model was not able to simulate the steep drop of SR or GPP during the extreme drought in 2012. The simulations of ST and SWP were isolated to analyse their contributions to model performance. Whereas the model simulated ST well at 10 cm depth (Fig. 3a), it tended to underestimate SWP when water is limiting and to overestimate SWP otherwise (Fig. 3b). Implementing the data-constrained Hanson model significantly improved the simulation of SWP, showing a greater  $R^2$  and a much smaller RMSE than that of the default run (Fig. 3b). After improving the simulation of SWP, the model better matched the observed annual SR and GPP (Fig. 2). The mean annual simulations of SR and GPP fell into the 1 sigma (i.e., standard deviation) of observations (inserted plot in Fig. 2). The changes in annual SR and GPP (i.e., the differences between before and after the improved SWP simulation using the Hanson model) showed a linear relationship (Fig. S1). In addition, the improved soil water scheme using the Hanson model increased both the moisture modifiers of GPP and heterotrophic respiration (i.e.,  $b_{tran}$  and  $\xi_w$ ) during the peak growing season, and reduced  $\xi_w$  during the non-growing season (Fig. S2). The  $b_{tran}$  is the transpiration beta factor, which controls the soil water limitation to transpiration and photosynthesis, while  $\xi_w$  is the soil moisture modifier for heterotrophic respiration as shown in Eq. (9). While SOC when simulated by the model with different soil water schemes generally fell within the wide range of observations, the improved SWP simulations using the Hanson model increased SOC stocks (Fig. S3).



20 **Figure 2: Annual soil respiration (SR) and gross primary production (GPP).** Blue and red lines are model outputs before (MOD<sub>default</sub>) and after (MOD<sub>H</sub>) soil water potential improvement, respectively. Black lines and grey area are the observed (OBS) mean and 1 sigma (i.e., standard deviation) range, which were calculated from eight field replications for SR, and from three different net ecosystem exchange partitioning methods for GPP. The inserted bar plots are mean annual average  $\pm$  1 sigma across 2005-2011.

25 Despite the improved simulation of SR, the model still underestimated SR and GPP during peak growing seasons when SR and GPP were high, and overestimated them during non-growing seasons (Figs. 4, S4). In other words, though the

improved simulation of SWP increased SR and GPP during peak growing seasons, the model still showed systematic errors. We attempted to improve the seasonal simulations of SR, GPP and LAI by modifying several related parameters (Table 2). Using measurements of C and energy fluxes from the MOFLUX site, Lu et al. (2018) calibrated a polynomial surrogate model of the ELMv0. Based on their results, we modified two parameters, i.e., the SLA at the canopy top from 0.03 to 0.01, and the fraction of leaf nitrogen in the RuBisCO enzyme from 0.1007 to 0.12.



**Figure 3: Daily soil temperature (ST) and soil water potential (SWP) at 10 cm.** Blue and red lines/dots are model outputs before ( $MOD_{default}$ ) and after ( $MOD_H$ ) soil water potential improvement, respectively.  $R^2$  and RMSE are shown in corresponding colours.

10 Extremely low SWP values due to frozen soil water are not shown.

Comparing the simulated LAI with the observations (Fig. 4), we found that the parameter  $ndays\_off$  (number of days to complete leaf offset) in the ELMv0 was too short (default value = 15 days) for the MOFLUX site. Thus, we reset the value of  $ndays\_off$  to 45 days. We also modified the values of two additional parameters, i.e.,  $crit\_dayl$  and  $\alpha$  correspondingly (Table 2). Parameter  $crit\_dayl$  (the critical day length for senescence, units: second) triggers the leaf falling during the end of the growing season. Parameter ( $\alpha$ ) is used to produce a linearly-increasing litterfall rate. Results showed that the ELMv0 with both the default and improved SWP by the Hanson model overestimated the maximum LAI (Fig. 4a). The adjustment of the aforementioned five parameters (Table 2) significantly reduced the LAI to within a more reasonable range (Fig. 4a).

The parameter changes further increased the simulated GPP and SR during the peak growing season, in addition to the improvement by the adjusted SWP (Fig. 4b, c). However, all modifications of the ELMv0 still overestimated SR during the non-growing season, resulting in significant overestimation of annual SR fluxes (Fig. S5a). After the parameter adjustments, the annual GPP flux was still within the observed range (Fig. S5b). The contributions of autotrophic and heterotrophic respiration to total SR had a seasonal cycle (Fig. 5). The contribution of heterotrophic respiration to total SR ranged from 60% to 90%.

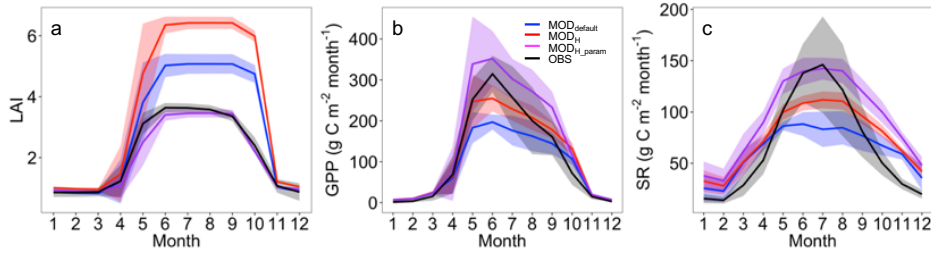
**Table 2.** Modified parameters to better simulate gross primary production (GPP) and leaf area index (LAI) at the MOFLUX site in the ELMv0.

Parameter (unit <sup>*</sup> )	name	Parameter description	Default value	model	Tuned values
<i>slatop</i>		Specific leaf area at top of canopy	0.03		0.01
<i>flnr</i>		Fraction of leaf nitrogen in RuBisCO enzyme	0.1007		0.12
<i>ndays_off</i> (d)		Number of days to complete leaf offset	15		45
<i>Crit_dayl</i> (s)		Critical day length for senescence	39300		43200
$\alpha$		To control the rate coefficient $\Gamma_{\text{liter\_off}}$ to produce a linearly-increasing litterfall rate	2		10

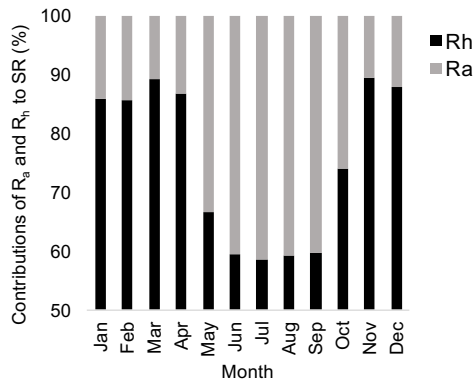
10 \**slatop*, *flnr* and  $\alpha$  are unitless

In addition, we analyzed changes in simulated evapotranspiration (ET), runoff, photosynthesis, net primary production, C allocations to fine roots, leaf and woody tissue in response to the changes in the soil water scheme and parameters (Fig. S6, S7). The change in soil moisture scheme and parameter adjustments slightly increased ET and decreased runoff. Despite these slight changes, the model simulated ET generally fell within the observed range, with or without changes in soil water scheme and parameters (Fig. S6). The improved SWP and parameter adjustments generally increased all photosynthesis, NPP and carbon allocations to different tissues during the growing season (Fig. S7).





**Figure 4** The annual mean cycles of leaf area index (LAI), gross primary production (GPP) and soil respiration (SR). OBS: observation; MOD<sub>default</sub>: model output before soil water potential improvement; MOD<sub>H</sub>: model output after soil water potential improvement by the Hanson model; MOD<sub>H\_param</sub>: model output after soil water potential improvement by the Hanson model and parameter adjustments.



**Figure 5:** Modelled contributions of autotrophic (R<sub>a</sub>) and heterotrophic (R<sub>h</sub>) respiration to total soil respiration (SR).

## 4 Discussion

### 4.1 Effect of SWP on annual SR

Constraining the SWP-VWC relationship with site-specific data and using the Hanson model instead of the ELMv0 default model (Fig. 1) significantly improved the model representation of SWP (Fig. 3) and annual SR (Fig. 2a). The improvements in model fits could be due to the following reasons. First, the Hanson model significantly increased GPP. The default ELMv0 underestimated GPP (Fig. 2b), as in a recent study where CLM4.5 significantly underestimated GPP at a coniferous forest in northeastern United States (Duarte et al., 2017). GPP can directly affect the magnitude of root respiration as shown in many previous studies (Craine et al., 1999; Högberg et al., 2001; Wan and Luo, 2003; Verburg et al., 2004; Gu et al., 2008). Additionally, increased GPP can build a larger SOC pool, the substrate for heterotrophic respiration (Fig. S3). Second, the changed soil moisture scheme increased the moisture modifier ( $\xi_w$ ) on heterotrophic respiration during the peak-growing season, and decreased it during the non-growing season (Fig. S2), which is consistent with the trend of changes in SWP (Fig. 3). These changes together resulted in the improvement of simulated SR.

The simulation of SWP in the default ELMv0 was poor compared with that of ST (Fig. 2), which may be a common issue in ESMs. For example, using a reduced-complexity model, Todd-Brown et al. (2013) demonstrated that the spatial variation in soil C in most ESMs is primarily dependent on C input (i.e., NPP) and ST, showing  $R^2$  values between 0.62 and 0.93 for 9 of 11 ESMs. However, the same reduced-complexity model, driven by observed NPP and ST, can only explain 10% of the variation in the Harmonized World Soil Database observational database (Todd-Brown et al., 2013). These previous results indicate that other important factors affecting soil C dynamics, in addition to NPP and ST, are inadequately simulated in ESMs (Powell et al., 2013; Reyes et al., 2017). Powell et al. (2013) showed that differential sensitivity of SR to VWC in several ESMs using observations in two Amazon forests. Our analyses in this study indicate that improving the modelled SWP can significantly improve mean annual GPP and SR simulations. Thus, we propose that the SWP simulation in ESMs should be calibrated carefully with observations, and/or by using different model representations of the SWP-VWC relationship. Because there is no global grid-based SWP database, paired measurements of VWC and SWP are needed along with soil characteristics in a variety of soil types and ecosystems. These data can be used to calibrate SWP-VWC relationships and SWP simulations in models. Besides, there are many sites, such as the MOFLUX site in this study, collecting long-term hydrological and biogeochemical data. These data are useful to evaluate whether better SWP simulation will improve biogeochemical cycling simulations.

In this study, we derived better SWP-VWC relationship by using non-linear fitting, primarily because of the availability of soil moisture retention curve data. It is an efficient method when site-level data is available, but it is not realistic to calibrate the water retention curve for every site. The SWP-VWC relationship is dependent on soil texture (Clapp and Hornberger, 1978; Cosby et al., 1984; Tuller and Or, 2004), so building relationships between model parameters and soil texture may allow efficient extrapolations of site-level measurements to regional and global scales.

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Parameters in the default Clapp & Hornberger model used in the ELMv0 were derived from synthesizing data across soil textural classes (Clapp and Hornberger, 1978; Cosby et al., 1984; Lawrence and Slater, 2008). The data were derived from over 1,000 soil samples from 11 USDA soil textural classes (Holtan et al., 1968; Rawls et al., 1976). The dependence of model parameters on soil texture were derived from a regression of these 11 data points, i.e., the mean parameter values of 11 soil textural classes against the sand or clay fractions (Cosby et al., 1984). Because no actual sand or clay content of soil samples was reported in the original databases (i.e., only the soil textural classes were reported), the sand and clay fractions used for the regression were obtained from midpoint values of each textural class (Clapp and Hornberger, 1978; Cosby et al., 1984). One potential issue is that soil samples in the same textural classes can have different sand and clay contents and SWP-VWC relationships, which may not be fully represented when they are grouped together. An updated SWP-VWC database with actual sand and clay content measurements could provide improved empirical relationships between model parameters and soil texture in the water retention model.

In addition, different empirical models have been developed to describe the SWP-VWC relationship (Brooks and Corey, 1964; Clapp and Hornberger, 1978; van Genuchten, 1980; Fredlund and Xing, 1994; Hanson et al., 2003). These models could be evaluated against data, and the selected best-fit model(s) could be used to calculate SWP in the field from continuously monitored VWC (e.g., from the AmeriFlux network) on different spatial and temporal scales. The database could also be used as a benchmark to evaluate simulations of soil water and biogeochemical processes in ESMs.

Moreover, we also explored whether the calibrated Clapp & Hornberger model can lead to similar improvements with the Hanson model (Fig. S8). Generally, both the Hanson model and the calibrated Clapp & Hornberger model improved the simulation of GPP and SR in the ELM, in comparison with the default run (Fig. S8). The ELMv0 with the Hanson model consistently produced higher GPP and SR than that with the calibrated Clapp & Hornberger model. In comparison with the observations, the modelled SR generally fell within the 1 sigma (i.e., standard deviation) range of observations, by using both the Hanson model and the calibrated Clapp & Hornberger model. However, the modelled GPP with the calibrated Clapp & Hornberger model was still lower than the observations. Given the order of the goodness-of-fit of the SWP-VWC relationship was default Clapp & Hornberger model < calibrated Clapp & Hornberger model < calibrated Hanson model (Table 1), these results further support the conclusion that better representations of SWP can improve the simulations of carbon processes. Therefore, throughout the remainder of this manuscript, we used the Hanson model to represent the SWP-VWC relationship.

#### 4.2 Representation of seasonal and interannual variabilities in the ELMv0

Although the simulation of the SWP using the Hanson model improved the representation of both annual SR and GPP, the model continued to overestimate SR during the non-growing season (Figs. 4), resulting in significant overestimations of the annual SR fluxes (Fig. S5). In addition, no matter which SWP simulations were used, the ELMv0 had smaller interannual variability than the observations (Fig. 2). Specifically, the model was not able to capture the steep decreases in GPP and SR in the extreme drought year (i.e., 2012; Fig. S9). These results indicate that the current model structure is not sensitive

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enough to environmental changes. Several potential reasons may contribute to the underestimated seasonal and interannual variability. For example, field inventory data at the study site showed that the severe drought-pathogen interactions in 2012 resulted in a significant stem mortality of tree species (Wood et al., 2017). Thus, the observed steep decreases in GPP and SR could be because of the species mortality. In addition, the stem mortality led to lower moisture loss through evapotranspiration (Fig. S9), resulting in no soil moisture decrease (Fig. S10). In the model, however, the water limitation to biogeochemical cycles is primarily controlled by soil water stress. In other words, the ELMv0 had moisture modifications at the physiological level, but not at the plant community level. As a result, although the better presentation of SWP improved the mean annual simulations of biogeochemical processes, the model was not able to capture the mortality and the interannual variability of GPP and SR.

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The calculation of the moisture scalars (e.g.  $\theta_{tr}$  and  $\xi_w$ ) using empirical equations from SWP may be another potential reason for the insensitivity. For example, observational results have shown that there may be an optimal moisture point at which soil respiration peaks with significant reductions in decomposition towards both dryer and wetter conditions (Linn and Doran, 1984; Franzluebbers, 1999; Monard et al., 2012; Sierra et al., 2017). In the ELMv0, however, the moisture scalar increases from 0 to 1 with the increase in soil moisture and does not decrease afterwards (Eq. 9). Thus, the ELMv0 may not be sensitive to extreme wet conditions. The linear empirical equation between the lower and upper thresholds ( $\Psi_{min}$  and  $\Psi_{max}$ ) may not capture non-linear moisture behaviours, leading to insensitive responses of biogeochemical processes to moisture change. Incorporating more mechanistic moisture scalars may improve the sensitivity of the model in response to moisture changes (Ghezzehei et al.; Yan et al., 2018).

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In the ELMv0, heterotrophic respiration contributed a majority proportion (i.e., over 85%) to total SR during non-growing seasons (Fig. 5), suggesting that the overestimation of SR during these seasons was primarily due to the biased heterotrophic respiration simulation. A potential reason for the biased heterotrophic respiration simulation may be related to the temperature sensitivity ( $Q_{10}$ ). Theoretically, a higher  $Q_{10}$  can result in greater seasonal variability of SR (Fig. S11). Compared to relatively small  $Q_{10}$  values, a larger  $Q_{10}$  can lead to lower heterotrophic respiration when temperature is below the reference temperature, and greater heterotrophic respiration when temperature is above the reference (Fig. S11). In the ELMv0, the reference temperature is 25 °C and the  $Q_{10}$  of heterotrophic respiration is 1.5 (Oleson et al., 2013). A previous study derived a much greater  $Q_{10}$  value (i.e., 2.83) when the parameters were calibrated with data from another temperate forest (Mao et al., 2016). We hypothesized that the  $Q_{10}$  value of 1.5 may be too small for the MOFLUX site. We arbitrarily increased  $Q_{10}$  from 1.5 to 2.5, but there were minimal effects on the SR simulation (Fig. S12). This indicates that modifying the temperature sensitivity of heterotrophic respiration may not improve the modelled representation of seasonality of SR in the ELMv0.

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Another potential reason for the biased heterotrophic respiration simulation may be that the seasonality of microbial organisms was not adequately represented in the model. Like most ESMs, the ELMv0 represents soil C dynamics using linear differential equations and assumes that SR is a substrate-limited process in the model. However, producers of CO<sub>2</sub> in soils, microbial organisms, have a significant seasonal cycle (Lennon and Jones, 2011). These organisms usually have very

high biomass and activity during growing season peaks with favourable conditions of temperature, moisture and substrate supply, and tend to be dormant under stressful conditions (Lennon and Jones, 2011; Stolpovsky et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2015). The seasonality of microbial biomass and activity, in addition to that of GPP and ST, may contribute to the seasonal variability of SR.

5 Additionally, lacking representation of macroinvertebrate and other forest floor and soil fauna in the ELMv0 may be another reason. There is a high density of earthworms at the MOFLUX site (Wenk et al., 2016). Earthworms can shred and redistribute soil C and change soil aggregation structure, which may alter soil C dynamics and CO<sub>2</sub> efflux to the atmosphere (Verhoef and Brussaard, 1990; Brussaard et al., 2007; Coleman, 2008). Like microbial organisms, earthworms usually have a significant seasonal cycle, showing high biomass and high activity during peak growing seasons and tending to be dormant  
10 during non-growing seasons (Wenk et al., 2016). However, a recent review suggests that current experimental evidence and conceptual understanding remains insufficient to support the development of explicit representation of fauna in ESMs (Grandy et al., 2016). Therefore, data collection focused on seasonal variations in fauna and microbial biomass and activity might enable further improvements in the representation of seasonal variation in SR.

Our analyses also showed that the modelled SR was not able to reach the observed peak in many years during the peak  
15 growing season, even when the modelled GPP exceeded the observation. In addition, the parameter modification increased GPP during both peak and non-growing seasons, resulting in an even greater overestimation of SR during non-growing seasons. These results suggest that simply increasing GPP may not be adequate to increase the seasonal variability of the simulated SR. A potential reason may be that the current model does not include root exudates. Root exudates are labile C substrates that are important for SR (Kelting et al., 1998; Kuzyakov, 2002; Sun et al., 2017). The root exudate rate is  
20 primarily dependent on root growth, showing a seasonal cycle in temperate forests (Kelting et al., 1998; Kuzyakov, 2002). Thus, including root exudates in the model may further increase the model simulated SR during the peak growing season without needing to increase GPP.

## 5 Conclusions

In this study, we used temporally extensive and spatially distributed site observations of SR to assess the capabilities of  
25 ELMv0. These results indicated that an improved representation of SWP within the model provided better simulations of annual SR. This underscores the need to calibrate SWP in ESMs for more accurate projections of coupled climate and biogeochemical cycles. Notwithstanding this improvement, however, the ELMv0 still underestimated seasonal and interannual variabilities. It may be that inadequate model representation of vegetation dynamics, moisture function, and the dynamics of microbial organisms and soil macroinvertebrates could be explored as means to achieve better fit. Future  
30 incorporation of explicit microbial processes with relevant data collection activities may therefore enable improved model simulations.

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*Code availability.* The code for ELMv0 is available at <https://climatemodeling.science.energy.gov/projects/energy-exascale-earth-system-model>.

*Data availability.* The data for this paper are available upon request to the corresponding author.

*Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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