| 1 | Improved Runoff Simulations for a Highly Varying Soil Depth and Complex Terrain |
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| 2 | Watershed in the Loess Plateau with Community Land Model Version 5 |
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Abstract. This study aimed to improve runoff simulations and explore deep soil 17 18 hydrological processes for a watershed in the center of the Loess Plateau (LP), China. This watershed, the Wuding River Basin (WRB), has very complex topography, with 19 soil depths ranging from 0 to 197 m. The hydrological model used for our simulations 20 was Community Land Model version 5 (CLM5) developed by the National Center for 21 22 Atmospheric Research. Actual soil depths and river channels were incorporated into 23 CLM5 to realistically represent the physical features of the WRB. Through sensitivity 24 tests, CLM5 with 150 soil layers with the observed variable soil depths produced the most reasonable results and was adopted for this study. Our results showed that CLM5 25 with actual soil depths significantly suppressed unrealistic variations of the simulated 26 27 sub-surface runoff when compared to the default simulations. In addition, when compared with the default version with 20 soil layers, CLM5 with 150 soil layers 28 slightly improved runoff simulations, but generated simulations with much smoother 29 vertical water flows that were consistent with the uniform distribution of soil textures 30 in our study watershed. The runoff simulations were further improved by the addition 31 of river channels to CLM5, where the seasonal variability of the simulated runoff was 32 33 reasonably captured. Moreover, the magnitude of the simulated runoff remarkably decreased with increased soil evaporation by lowering the soil water content threshold, 34 which triggers surface resistance. The lowered threshold was consistent with the loess 35 soil, which has a high sand component. Such soils often generate stronger soil 36 evaporation than soils dominated by clay. Finally, with the above changes in CLM5, 37 the simulated total runoff matched very closely with observations. When compared with 38 those for the default runoff simulations, the correlation coefficient, root-mean-square 39 40 error, and Nash Sutcliffe coefficient for the improved simulations changed dramatically from 0.02, 10.37 mm, and -12.34 to 0.62, 1.8 mm, and 0.61. The results in this study 41

42 provide strong physical insight for further investigation of hydrological processes in
43 complex terrain with deep soils.

44 Key words: CLM5, complex terrain, soil depth, river channels, runoff

45

46 1 Introduction

Understanding runoff processes in regions with very complex topography is important 47 to managing and predicting water resources. Such an understanding can assist in 48 quantifying the allocation of water resources (Chen et al., 2013; Camacho et al., 2015), 49 evaluating surface and groundwater vulnerability to natural and anthropogenic 50 51 processes (Uhlenbrook et al., 2002), improving drought and flood management 52 (Camacho et al., 2015), and predicting the amount and spatiotemporal distribution of water resources (Saraiva Okello et al., 2018). However, complex topography leads to 53 intricate runoff processes (Jencso et al., 2011), causing uncertain estimation of water 54 resources. Therefore, it is crucial to investigate runoff processes for the well-being of 55 topographically complex regions. 56

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58 As the largest area covered by continuous loess soils in the world (Fu et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2018), the Loess Plateau (LP) in China has complicated hydrological processes 59 60 because of its extremely complex topography and unique soil types. Due to an arid and semi-arid climate and a population of more than 100 million (Zhang et al., 2018), this 61 region experiences severe water shortages (Xiao et al., 2019). It is essential to 62 63 accurately estimate the spatiotemporal distribution of water resources in this region of complex terrain. Soil depth in the LP can reach 350 m (Zhu et al., 2018; Li et al., 2019), 64 65 making it difficult to measure deep soil hydrological processes and understand runoff generation (Shao et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2012). In addition, terrain in the LP includes 66

67 loess tablelands, ridges, hills, gullies, and river channels (Fu, 1989), all of which have 68 quite different runoff generation processes (Liu et al., 2012). In loess tablelands with deep water tables (Huang et al., 2013; Shao et al., 2018), the soils store most infiltrated 69 70 water, generate insignificant surface runoff, and remarkably delay sub-surface runoff. 71 Areas in the LP with gullies and river channels usually have high water tables (Liu et 72 al., 2012) and can easily be saturated during precipitation events, generating a large 73 amount of surface runoff. Especially, extreme rainfall events that mostly occur over the 74 summer monsoon season (Tian et al. 2020) produce strong soil erosion and a large amount of fast infiltration-excess surface runoff to the river channels in hillslope areas, 75 76 sometimes causing severe flooding. In the meantime, the loess soils that dominate the 77 LP have a large capillary porosity, with loose and homogeneous textures due to a high 78 sand component, often resulting in high evaporation (Li et al., 1985; Lei, 1987; Han et al., 1990; Wang and Shao, 2013). A better understanding of the hydrological processes 79 within the complex terrain and special soil types of the LP is vital to improving the 80 prediction of water resources in this region. 81

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83 Numerical hydrological models are essential tools to investigate runoff processes in the LP. Field measurements such as those from tracer techniques (Huang et al., 2011; Li et 84 al., 2017; Huang et al., 2017; Huang et al., 2019; Xiang et al., 2019) have been made to 85 quantify the hydrological processes in the LP, but these measurements have significant 86 limitations, including short temporal and small spatial coverage, which cannot account 87 88 for the processes at watershed scales. Hydrological models based on mass and energy equations are effective in simulating the long-term spatiotemporal variability of runoff 89 at watershed scales (Döll and Fiedler, 2007; Turkeltaub et al., 2015; Shao et al., 2018). 90 91 Hydrological models can also simulate the quantity of different components in the

water budget (e.g., surface runoff, subsurface, etc.) that are difficult or impossible to be 92 93 measured directly. Based on detailed soil information at a depth of 98 m at a research site on the Changwu tableland in the LP, Shao et al. (2018) used a hydrological model 94 95 to generate reasonable simulations for deep soil percolation and groundwater level. Their study provides important clues (e.g., high-resolution soil layering) for exploring 96 deep soil hydrological processes and producing reliable runoff simulations at a 97 watershed scale in the LP. Therefore, it is apparent that hydrological models can 98 99 overcome the drawbacks of field experiments.

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101 However, in hydrological models, soil depth and river channels are very important in 102 simulating soil water movement and storage and runoff processes, especially in regions with complex topography (Tesfa et al., 2009; Fu et al., 2011). Soil depth is set to a 103 constant in most hydrological models (Shangguan et al., 2017). For example, the Noah 104 (Ek et al., 2003) and Noah MP (Niu et al., 2011) models have a fixed soil depth of 2 m, 105 which cannot represent the realistic spatial distribution of soil depth in the LP, which 106 ranges from 0 to 350 m. In addition, soil depth in most river channels with exposed 107 bedrock in the LP is close to zero (Jing and Cheng, 1983; Li et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 108 2018), and areas dominated by these channels are very important in generating runoff. 109 110 Some hydrological models such as CLM5 and the Soil and Water Assessment Tool (Neitsch et al., 2011) have embedded river routing schemes. In these schemes, the river 111 channels described based on elevation differences still have the same soil depth as other 112 113 places without these channels, which cannot reflect the actual conditions in the LP and many other regions where soil depth changes significantly across rivers. Thus, soil 114 depth variations and river channels need to be considered in hydrological models for 115 better soil water flow and runoff simulations. 116

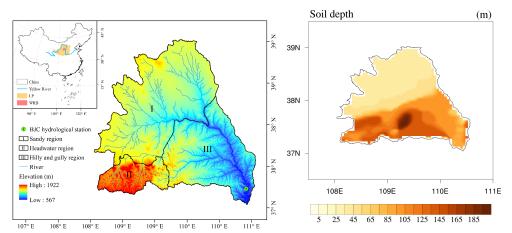
The objective of this study was to use CLM5 to improve runoff simulations and better 117 understand the hydrological processes with varying soil depths for a very complex 118 topography watershed in the LP. To achieve this objective, the highly varying soil 119 120 depths and river channels were incorporated into CLM5 to realistically represent the features of the watershed. In fact, Brunke et al. (2016) have conducted a study with 121 CLM version 4.5 by including varying soil depths at a global scale where the runoff 122 simulations are focused at grid cell scales, which cannot be evaluated with actual 123 124 streamflow data. However, evaluating hydrological simulations at watershed scales is essential to improving our understanding of runoff processes. In this study, the most 125 126 important finding was that river channels where the soil depth is often equal or close to 127 zero played a vital role in runoff simulations especially in complex topography areas. According to our extensive literature search, river channels are not configured in most 128 of existing land surface and hydrological models. In addition, although this study 129 focused on a relatively small watershed, our runoff simulation methods and science 130 ideas can be easily transferred to investigate the hydrological processes in other 131 watersheds across the world with observed soil depth and river channel information. 132 The text is laid out as follows: Sections 2 and 3 introduce the study area and data, 133 respectively, Section 4 provides the model description, Section 5 describes the 134 methodology, Section 6 includes the results, and the conclusions are in Section 7. 135

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137 2 Study Area

The Wuding River Basin (WRB) was selected as the study area. This basin, with an area of about 30,261 km², is in the center of the LP (Figure 1a), which is the largest continuous loess area in the world (~640,000 km²) (Fu et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2018).
The WRB shows complex geomorphic characteristics including tablelands, ridges, hills,

gullies, and river channels (Liu et al., 2012). The main land use types in the WRB are 142 bare ground, grassland, and sparse forest. Across the basin, soil thickness generally 143 ranges from 0 to 200 m (Liu, 2016), and the loess, consisting mainly of silt and sand 144 145 (Li et al., 1985), is relatively homogeneous in the vertical direction (Huang et al., 2013; Xiang et al., 2019). The WRB has a continental monsoon climate with mean annual 146 precipitation of around 400 mm, about 70% of which falls during the flood season from 147 June through September, based on observations over the period of 1956-2010 148 149 (http://data.cma.cn/). Figure 1b shows the geographic distribution of the observed soil depth for the WRB, which is discussed again in Section 3.2. 150



151 10⁶ E 10⁸ E 10⁸ E 10⁹ E 10⁹ E 10⁹ E 110⁶ E 110⁶ E 110⁶ E 110⁶ E
152 Figure 1. a) Location of the Loess Plateau (LP) and WRB in China; b) The geographic distribution of the observed soil depth for the WRB.
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- 155 3 Data
- 156 3.1 Meteorological and runoff data

High-quality meteorological and runoff data for the WRB were used to force and evaluate CLM5, respectively. The Global Soil Wetness Project phase 3 (GSWP3) meteorological dataset (<u>http://hydro.iis.u-tokyo.ac.jp/GSWP3/index.html</u>) was selected to drive the model for this study. The GSWP3 dataset contains seven climate forcing variables, including precipitation, air temperature, downward shortwave and longwave

162 radiation, specific humidity, surface pressure, and wind speed. These data cover the

period of 1901-2010 with a spatial resolution of 0.5 ° at a 3-hour time step. Meanwhile, 163 we obtained the observed monthly runoff data of the Baijiachuan (BJC) hydrological 164 from the Data Sharing Network Earth 165 station of System Science (http://loess.geodata.cn/index.html). The BJC station is located at the WRB outlet and 166 its drainage area covers ~98% of the basin. These runoff data were used to assess CLM5 167 output. 168

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170 3.2 Soil data

Soil depth data for the WRB as shown in Figure 1b were obtained from different sources. 171 172 We first collected and recorded 61 soil depths for the WRB and nearby areas from ~15 173 published papers and books (not cited here). In addition, two soil depth maps for the WRB were obtained from Qi et al. (1991) and Wang (2016) and were digitized. Soil 174 depth data for model grids with gullies and rivers were derived based on digital 175 elevation model (DEM) data. Soil depth in gullies and rivers was assumed to be 0 due 176 to the exposure of bedrock (Jing and Cheng, 1983; Li et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2018). 177 178 The elevations of these gully and river channels were retrieved from a DEM at a resolution of 90 m. The differences between these elevations and those at a 5 km 179 180 resolution were used to represent the soil depth in model grids with gullies and rivers. 181 This is different from river routing that is based only on one DEM. The proportion of the total gully and river area to the entire WRB area (defined as Pgr hereafter) was 182 determined with the Cressman method (Cressman, 1959). A value of 0.3 is suggested 183 by Qi et al. (1991) for the LP. In this study, we identified the optimal P_{gr} value through 184 sensitivity tests by setting different interpolation radii in the Cressman method. The soil 185 depth data from these sources were then combined and interpolated into a 5 km 186 resolution, still based on the Cressman method. 187

Soil texture data for the WRB were necessary input into CLM5. These data were derived from a soil type map for the LP (<u>http://loess.geodata.cn</u>) and included three soil layers: 0-20, 20-76, and 76-180 cm. For soil layers deeper than 180 cm, the texture data for the 76-180 cm layer were applied.

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193 4 Model description

CLM5 was used in this study for runoff simulations. This model was developed by the 194 195 National Center for Atmospheric Research. The CLM5 includes one vegetation layer, up to five snow layers, and 20 soil layers. In the model, each grid cell is split into 196 different land units including vegetated surface, lake, urban, glacier, and cropland. The 197 198 spatial distribution and seasonal climatology of the plant functional types for CLM5 are 199 derived from MODIS satellite land-surface data products (Lawrence and Chase, 2007). CLM5 uses the simplified TOPMODEL (Niu et al., 2005) to parameterize runoff, which 200 201 is partitioned into surface and sub-surface runoff. Surface runoff is calculated based on the saturation-excess mechanism. Sub-surface runoff is produced when saturated 202 conditions occur within the soil column. CLM5 is attached with a river routing module 203 for runoff simulations. However, in this study, we focused our simulations on a monthly 204 time scale at which the river flow should be able to travel from the farthest point to the 205 outlet of the WRB with an area of 30,261 km² that can easily fit into a 200 km by 200 206 km box. Thus, we turned off the river routing module during our simulations and used 207 the total runoff over the entire watershed to compare with observations. 208

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In CLM5, soil evaporation is affected by soil resistance, which is associated with a dry surface layer (DSL) (Swenson and Lawrence, 2014). A DSL forms near the soil surface in the model when the soil water content in the top layer is below a threshold value (SWC_{th}), which is set to 80% of the soil porosity of the top layer (SWC_{sat,1}). The formation of the DSL generates soil resistance, limiting soil evaporation. Meanwhile, CLM5 uses Richard's equation and Darcy's law to describe changes in soil water content (SWC) and soil water flux. The soil hydraulic conductivity and retention used in these equations are determined by the soil texture and the SWC of the previous time step, based on Clapp and Hornberger (1978), Cosby et al. (1984), and Lawrence and Slater (2007).

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221 5 Methodology

5.1 Soil layering

223 As aforementioned, actual soil depth in the WRB is strongly variable, with a range of ~0-197 m (Figure 1b). In our default run, the soil depth in CLM5 was set to a constant 224 of 8.6 m (see Table 2.2.3 in Lawrence et al. 2018) and is discretized into 20 layers 225 defined as hydrological active layers (HALs) to distinguish them from the five bedrock 226 layers set in the model. In this study, we compared the simulations with a default fixed 227 soil depth to those with the observed variable soil depths for the WRB based on the soil 228 depth data shown in Figure 1b. Eight sensitivity tests were conducted with soil layer 229 numbers (SLNs) of 20, 50, 75, 100, 125, 150, 175, and 200 to determine the optimal 230 soil layering method for runoff simulations in the WRB (Tables 1a and 1b). In each 231 sensitivity test, the SLN is the same for the entire WRB, and the HAL number is 232 identified based on the input soil depth for each soil column. Layers that are not HALs 233 are treated as bedrock layers and are not used in the hydrology calculations in the model. 234 These sensitivity simulations were compared to those with the default options of CLM 235 236 to examine how the vertical resolution with observed variable soil depths affected the runoff simulations for the WRB. 237

| Saguaraa | SLN | | | | Saguaraa | SLN | | | |
|----------|-------|------|------|------|------------|-------|-------|------|------|
| Sequence | 20 | 50 | 75 | 100 | - Sequence | 20 | 50 | 75 | 100 |
| 1 | 0.02 | 0.02 | 0.02 | 0.02 | 18-20 | 40.00 | 2.00 | 1.00 | 0.64 |
| 2 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 21-25 | | 4.00 | 1.00 | 0.84 |
| 3 | 0.06 | 0.06 | 0.06 | 0.06 | 26-35 | | 4.00 | 2.00 | 1.04 |
| 4 | 0.08 | 0.08 | 0.08 | 0.08 | 36-40 | | 6.00 | 2.00 | 1.04 |
| 5 | 0.12 | 0.12 | 0.12 | 0.12 | 41-45 | | 8.00 | 2.50 | 1.44 |
| 6 | 0.16 | 0.16 | 0.16 | 0.16 | 46-50 | | 10.00 | 3.00 | 1.44 |
| 7 | 0.20 | 0.20 | 0.20 | 0.20 | 51-55 | | | 3.00 | 1.44 |
| 8 | 0.24 | 0.24 | 0.24 | 0.24 | 56-65 | | | 4.00 | 2.00 |
| 9 | 0.28 | 0.28 | 0.28 | 0.28 | 66 | | | 5.14 | 2.40 |
| 10 | 0.32 | 0.32 | 0.32 | 0.32 | 67-70 | | | 6.00 | 2.40 |
| 11 | 0.64 | 0.64 | 0.64 | 0.64 | 71-75 | | | 8.00 | 2.40 |
| 12 | 2.00 | 1.00 | 0.80 | 0.64 | 76-85 | | | | 2.80 |
| 13 | 4.84 | 1.00 | 0.80 | 0.64 | 86-89 | | | | 4.00 |
| 14 | 12.00 | 1.04 | 0.80 | 0.64 | 90 | | | | 4.68 |
| 15 | 16.00 | 1.80 | 0.80 | 0.64 | 91-95 | | | | 5.00 |
| 16-17 | 20.00 | 2.00 | 1.00 | 0.64 | 96-100 | | | | 6.00 |

238 Table 1a. Thickness (m) of each soil layer for different SLNs (20, 50, 75, and 100)

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Table 1b. Thickness (m) of each soil layer for different SLNs (125, 150, 175, and 200)

| Saguanaa | | SI | LN | | - Sequence | SLN | | | |
|----------|------|------|------|------|------------|------|------|------|------|
| Sequence | 125 | 150 | 175 | 200 | | 125 | 150 | 175 | 200 |
| 1 | 0.02 | 0.02 | 0.02 | 0.02 | 51-70 | 1.14 | 1.14 | 1.14 | 1.04 |
| 2 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 71 | 1.58 | 1.40 | 1.20 | 1.04 |
| 3 | 0.06 | 0.06 | 0.06 | 0.06 | 72-79 | 2.00 | 1.40 | 1.20 | 1.04 |
| 4 | 0.08 | 0.08 | 0.08 | 0.08 | 80-85 | 2.00 | 1.50 | 1.20 | 1.04 |
| 5 | 0.12 | 0.12 | 0.12 | 0.12 | 86-100 | 2.40 | 1.60 | 1.20 | 1.04 |
| 6 | 0.16 | 0.16 | 0.16 | 0.16 | 101 | 2.40 | 1.60 | 1.20 | 1.02 |
| 7 | 0.20 | 0.20 | 0.20 | 0.20 | 102-104 | 2.40 | 1.60 | 1.20 | 1.14 |
| 8 | 0.24 | 0.24 | 0.24 | 0.24 | 105 | 2.40 | 1.60 | 1.28 | 1.14 |
| 9 | 0.28 | 0.28 | 0.28 | 0.28 | 106-120 | 2.80 | 1.80 | 1.30 | 1.14 |
| 10 | 0.32 | 0.32 | 0.32 | 0.32 | 121-125 | 4.00 | 1.80 | 1.30 | 1.14 |
| 11-25 | 0.64 | 0.64 | 0.64 | 0.64 | 126-130 | | 2.00 | 1.30 | 1.14 |
| 26-30 | 0.84 | 0.84 | 0.84 | 0.64 | 131-150 | | 2.00 | 1.40 | 1.14 |
| 31-40 | 0.84 | 0.84 | 0.84 | 0.84 | 151-155 | | | 1.40 | 1.14 |
| 41 | 1.04 | 1.02 | 1.04 | 0.84 | 156-175 | | | 1.50 | 1.14 |
| 42-45 | 1.04 | 1.04 | 1.04 | 0.84 | 176-200 | | | | 1.14 |
| 46-50 | 1.14 | 1.14 | 1.14 | 0.84 | | | | | |

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243 5.2 Model spin-up and simulations

244 All runs in this study needed model spin-up to ensure that the soil moisture of each

HAL reached equilibrium. We found that the spin-up period could last for more than 50

years for different initial SWC conditions and soil depths in the WRB. The initial SWC 246 was set to 0.2 mm³/mm³, and we performed two cycles of continuous simulations over 247 the period of 1901-2010. The first cycle was discarded as spin-up, and the second cycle 248 was retained for analysis. Through these spin-up runs, the SWC at all model grids can 249 reach the equilibrium state (an example given in Figure 5 where the soil has the deepest 250 depth of 197 m in our simulation domain). In this study, each sensitivity run had its own 251 252 spin-up cycles.

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6 Results and Analysis 254

6.1 Default runoff simulation 255

256 We conducted a default run to evaluate the performance of the original CLM5 in simulating runoff in the WRB. The model remarkably overestimated monthly total and 257 sub-surface runoff when compared with observations from the BJC hydrological station 258 over 1956-1969, a period with minimal human activity (Jiao et al., 2017). The 259 correlation coefficient (R²), root mean square error (RMSE), and Nash Sutcliffe 260 efficiency (NSE) were 0.02, 10.37 mm, and -12.34, respectively. We can see that the 261 overestimation was due mainly to the unrealistic simulations of sub-surface runoff. The 262 reasons for these erroneous simulations are discussed in detail in the following sections. 263

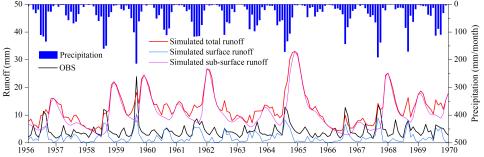


Figure 2. Observed monthly precipitation and runoff (black line) and simulated total 265 runoff, surface runoff, and sub-surface runoff in the default run from 1956 to 1969. The 266 267 observed monthly precipitation is for the entire WRB, and the OBS and simulations are for the BJC hydrological station. 268 269

271 6.2 Effects of soil depth on runoff simulations

We examined how the simulated runoff for the WRB was affected by the actual soil 272 273 depths (40-197 m) that were inputted into CLM5 with a default SLN of 20. As shown in Figure 3, CLM5 with deep soils greatly suppressed the seasonal variability of sub-274 surface runoff and reduced the magnitude of surface runoff when compared with the 275 CLM5 simulations with a uniform soil depth of 8 m. The R², RMSE, and NSE between 276 277 observations and the simulations with actual soil depths were 0.04, 9.8 mm, and -10.96, respectively. Although the actual soil depth data for the WRB were included in CLM5, 278 the runoff simulations were still remarkably different from observations in both 279 280 variability and magnitude. Hence, the runoff simulations for the WRB need to be further explored and understood. 281

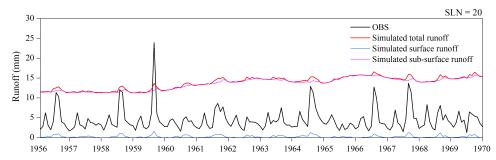
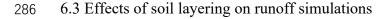


Figure 3. Observed and simulated total runoff, surface runoff, and sub-surface runoff from 1956 to 1969 by the run with actual soil depths. The SLN was set to 20.

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The eight soil layering methods mentioned in Section 3.2 were applied to CLM5 with the actual soil depths for the WRB to investigate the effects of soil layering on the runoff simulations. We can see that all the CLM5 runs generated similar temporal patterns of simulated total runoff, as shown in Figure 4a. Obviously, the soil layering methods had almost no effect on the surface runoff simulations (Figure 4b), while these methods did affect the sub-surface runoff simulations to some extent (Figure 4c). When the vertical spatial resolution increased from 20 to 200 soil layers, the RMSE of the simulated total runoff decreased until the SLN was equal to 75, and then the errors reached a minimum for SLN ranging from 100 to 200 (Figure 4d). Although the model with 75 soil layers seemed to be an efficient case, the soil layering method was further examined with vertical soil moisture profile simulations.

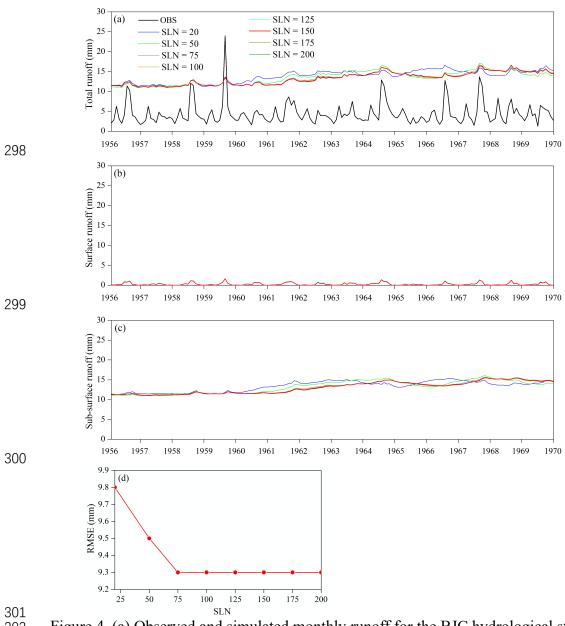


Figure 4. (a) Observed and simulated monthly runoff for the BJC hydrological station;
(b) simulated surface runoff; (c) simulated sub-surface runoff; (d) RMSEs of the
simulated total runoff. All simulations were produced with different SLN values.

306 We selected a point (37.53 °N, 109.33 °E) with the deepest soil depth of 197 m in the

| 307 | WRB to study the soil layering method based on vertical soil moisture profile |
|-----|---|
| 308 | simulations. As shown in Figure 5, the coarser-resolution simulations (SLN \leq 125) |
| 309 | resulted in alternating persistent wet-dry layers throughout our study period, and this |
| 310 | alternation gradually weakened with increasing SLN. When the SLN was equal to 150, |
| 311 | the wet-dry alternation almost disappeared. We examined the model numerical method |
| 312 | and found that the coarser resolution numerically caused smaller soil matric potential |
| 313 | (SMP) gradients between the soil layers, leading to the wet-dry alternation. These |
| 314 | vertical soil moisture simulations indicated that CLM5 could produce smooth soil water |
| 315 | flow simulations with at least 150 soil layers at a soil depth of 197 m to avoid these |
| 316 | numerical issues, although the RMSE of the simulated total runoff reached the |
| 317 | minimum value with SLN equal to 75. Therefore, in the following simulations, we set |
| 318 | the model soil layers to 150. With this soil layering, the R ² , RMSE, and NSE for the |
| 319 | total runoff simulations were 0.07, 9.3 mm, and -9.71, respectively. |
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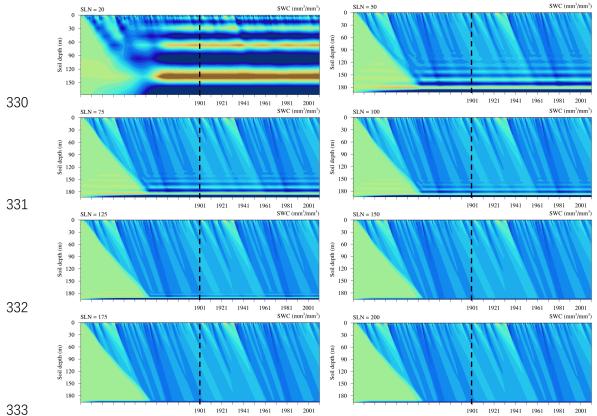


Figure 5. Simulated vertical monthly SWC profiles for the selected point in the WRB during both the spin-up (left of the black dashed line) and simulation (right of the black dashed line) periods. All simulations were conducted with different SLN values.

$338 \quad 6.4 \text{ Effects of } P_{gr} \text{ on runoff simulations}$

339 In addition to the actual soil depth and high-resolution soil layering, we prescribed the river channels for the WRB in CLM5 to explore the effects of those channels on runoff 340 341 simulations. Figure 6 shows the spatial distribution of the river channels for the WRB with different values of Pgr, a proportion of the total river channel area to the entire 342 WRB area, as previously defined. The larger the P_{gr}, the denser the river channels. Our 343 344 results showed that CLM5 dramatically improved the simulations of the seasonal variability of total runoff (Figure 7a), and the R² increased to 0.41-0.56 from 0.07 for 345 the previous simulations. These improvements resulted mainly from the surface runoff 346 347 simulations with a much higher seasonal variability (Figure 7b). The sub-surface runoff simulations did not show significant changes with the addition of the river channels to 348 CLM5 (Figure 7c). We can see that CLM5 with Pgr equal to 0.15 produced the lowest 349

- 350 RMSE (9.3 mm) and the highest NSE (-9.78), although the R^2 was not the highest (0.52)
- 351 with this P_{gr} value. Moreover, we found that the seasonal peak values of the simulated
- surface runoff with P_{gr} values of 0.22 and 0.26 were higher than the observed peak
- values (Figure not shown), which was not realistic. Thus, we selected 0.15 for $P_{\rm gr}$ for
- 354 the rest of our simulations.

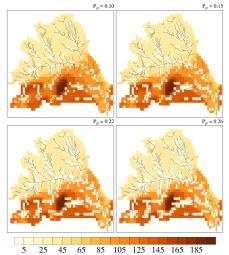


Figure 6. Spatial distributions of river channels (black lines) and soil depths for the WRB with different values of P_{gr} .

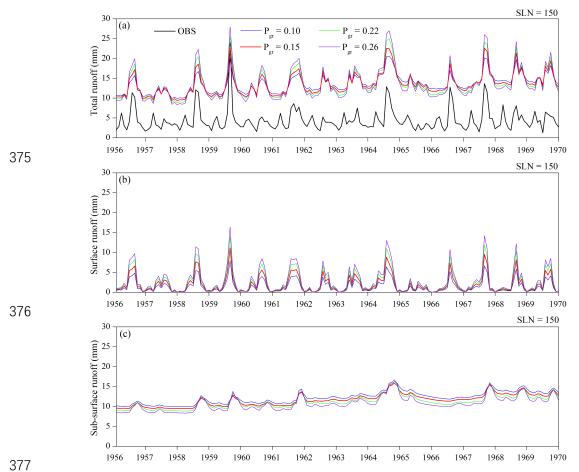


Figure 7. (a) Observed and simulated monthly runoff for the BJC hydrological station; (b) simulated surface runoff; (c) simulated sub-surface runoff. All simulations were produced with different P_{gr} values.

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|---|---|---|
| | | |

Table 2. R^2 , RMSE, and NSE for total runoff simulations with different P_{gr} values

| , , | | | | |
|----------------------------|-------|-------|--------|--------|
| \mathbf{P}_{gr} | 0.10 | 0.15 | 0.22 | 0.26 |
| R ² | 0.41 | 0.52 | 0.54 | 0.56 |
| RMSE (mm) | 9.4 | 9.3 | 9.4 | 9.5 |
| NSE | -9.90 | -9.78 | -10.06 | -10.23 |

384 6.5 Water balance analysis

We looked into the water balance for the WRB and attempted to further reduce the biases of the runoff simulations. In the previous sections, the more realistic conditions of the WRB (actual soil depths, high-resolution soil layering, and river channels) were incorporated into CLM5 to improve the runoff simulations, but the simulations were still far away from observations. Tian et al. (2018) indicated that the change in water

storage in the WRB approached zero over a period of 13 years. Our study focused on a period of 14 years (1956-1969). Thus, we estimated the mean evapotranspiration (ET) with observed precipitation and runoff over our study period by assuming a water storage change of zero in the WRB as follows:

394

$$ET_{\rm avg} = P_{\rm avg} - R_{\rm avg} \tag{1}$$

where ET_{avg} , P_{avg} , and R_{avg} are mean ET (mm), precipitation (mm), and runoff (mm) 395 over 1956-1969, respectively. Here, Pavg is 454.7 mm, Ravg is 53.2 mm, and the 396 397 estimated ET_{avg} is 401.5 mm. However, the simulated mean ET over the study period was 267.8 mm, which was far below the estimated value. According to the soil 398 evaporation parameterization in CLM5, when the SWC of the top soil layer (SWC₁) 399 400 was less than SWC_{th}, a DSL formed to resist soil evaporation. In CLM5, the SWC_{th} is defined as 80% of SWCsat,1. However, previous studies (Lee and Pielke, 1992; 401 402 Sakaguchi and Zeng, 2009; Flammini et al., 2018) found that soil evaporation starts to decrease significantly when the surface SWC is less than the field capacity. Yang et al. 403 (1985) also found that soil evaporation in the LP slows down when the surface SWC 404 405 becomes lower than a stable capacity that is close to the field capacity. Thus, in this study, we changed the SWCth to the SWCfc,1 to conduct one additional simulation. With 406 this modification, the simulated annual ET fluctuated around the estimated mean ET 407 408 for our study period (401.5 mm), and the simulated 14-year mean value was 392.5 mm, which was close to the estimated mean. Very importantly, the simulated total runoff 409 drastically reduced to match observations by increasing ET (Figure 8). When compared 410 411 with those for the simulations in the last section, R² increased from 0.52 to 0.62, RMSE decreased from 9.3 to 1.8 mm, and NSE increased dramatically from -9.78 to 0.61. 412 Therefore, we remarkably improved runoff simulations with more accurate ET 413 simulations in addition to the more realistic WRB features. 414

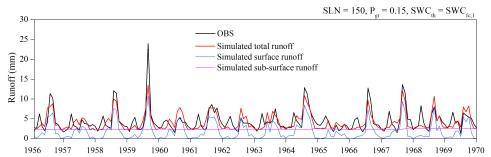


Figure 8. Time series of observed monthly runoff (black line) for the BJC hydrological station and simulated monthly total (red line), surface (blue line), and sub-surface runoff (pink line).

420 7 Conclusions and discussion

421 This study was intended to improve runoff simulations with CLM5 for the complex topography of the WRB and to improve our understanding of deep soil hydrological 422 processes. In CLM5, we included actual soil depths for the WRB ranging from 0 to 197 423 m and added the river channels for this watershed. We tested eight soil layering methods 424 and found that CLM5 with at least 150 soil layers could produce rational simulations 425 for both runoff and the vertical soil moisture profile. Different values of river channel 426 density were examined with CLM5, showing that a ratio of 15% of the total river 427 428 channel area to the entire WRB area generated the most reasonable results.

429

With the above model settings, our simulations showed that CLM5 with actual soil 430 depths greatly suppressed the seasonal variability of simulated sub-surface runoff and 431 432 reduced the simulated surface runoff when compared with the default simulations with a uniform soil depth of 8 m. In addition, CLM5 with finer-resolution soil layering (SLN 433 \geq 150) led to more accurate runoff and smoother vertical soil water flow simulations 434 than that with coarser-resolution layering, and the latter was consistent with the 435 homogeneous distribution of vertical soil texture in the WRB. The addition of river 436 channels for the WRB to CLM5 significantly increased the seasonal variability of 437 simulated surface runoff, remarkably improving the seasonal variability of simulated 438

total runoff. Moreover, more accurate simulations of soil evaporation in the WRB
dramatically reduced the simulated sub-surface runoff and improved the total runoff
simulations.

442

Limitations still exist in this study. We used atmospheric forcing data at a 5 km 443 resolution to drive CLM5, but for our study region with very complex terrain, this 444 resolution may not be sufficient and could potentially have generated errors in our 445 simulations. In the meantime, it is very important to expand this study to a larger or 446 even global scale, and accurate soil depth and detailed soil texture data would be vital 447 448 to such an expanded study. In addition, soil hydraulic properties may change with depth, 449 but this study did not consider such changes, and this needs to be tested in future studies. Despite these limitations, it is clear that our final runoff simulations with an improved 450 CLM5 were highly accurate, and our understanding of deep soil hydrological processes 451 has advanced. 452

453

454 Author contributions. JJ and LW designed the research; LW conducted the simulations; 455 LW and JY collected the soil depth data; JJ and LW analyzed the data; JY was involved 456 in several sensitivity simulation tests; JJ and LW wrote the paper; BS and GN edited 457 the paper and provided substantial comments for scientific clarification.

458 Code and data availability. Our improved model and data are available at 459 https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5044541.

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

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