

1 Improved Runoff Simulations for a Highly Varying Soil Depth and Complex Terrain  
2 Watershed in the Loess Plateau with Community Land Model Version 5

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

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

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

47

## 48 1 Introduction

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

59

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

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

84

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

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

102

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

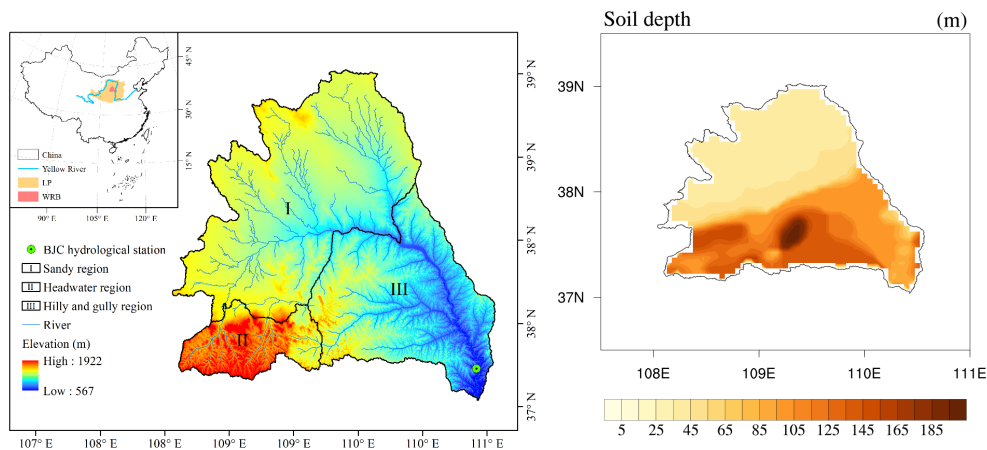
119 The objective of this study was to use CLM5 to improve runoff simulations and better  
120 understand the hydrological processes with varying soil depths for a very complex  
121 topography watershed in the LP. To achieve this objective, the highly varying soil  
122 depths and river channels were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

138

## 139 2 Study Area

140 The Wuding River Basin (WRB) was selected as the study area. This basin, with an  
141 area of about 30,261 km<sup>2</sup>, is in the center of the LP (Figure 1a), which is the largest  
142 continuous loess area in the world (~640,000 km<sup>2</sup>) (Fu et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2018).  
143 The WRB shows complex geomorphic characteristics including tablelands, ridges, hills,

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



153 Figure 1. a) Location of the Loess Plateau (LP) and WRB in China; b) The geographic  
 154 distribution of the observed soil depth for the WRB.  
 155  
 156

### 157 3 Data

#### 158 3.1 Meteorological and runoff data

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

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

171

### 172 3.2 Soil data

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



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

194

#### 195 4 Model description

196 CLM5 was used in this study for runoff simulations. This model was developed by the  
197 National Center for Atmospheric Research. The CLM5 includes one vegetation layer,  
198 up to five snow layers, and 20 soil layers. In the model, each grid cell is split into  
199 different land units including vegetated surface, lake, urban, glacier, and cropland. The  
200 spatial distribution and seasonal climatology of the plant functional types for CLM5 are  
201 derived from MODIS satellite land-surface data products (Lawrence and Chase, 2007).  
202 CLM5 uses the simplified TOPMODEL (Niu et al., 2005) to parameterize runoff, which  
203 is partitioned into surface and sub-surface runoff. Surface runoff is calculated based on  
204 the saturation-excess mechanism. Sub-surface runoff is produced when saturated  
205 conditions occur within the soil column. CLM5 is attached with a river routing module  
206 for runoff simulations. However, in this study, we focused our simulations on a monthly  
207 time scale at which the river flow should be able to travel from the farthest point to the  
208 outlet of the WRB with an area of 30,261 km<sup>2</sup> that can easily fit into a 200 km by 200  
209 km box. Thus, we turned off the river routing module during our simulations and used  
210 the total runoff over the entire watershed to compare with observations.

211

212 In CLM5, soil evaporation is affected by soil resistance, which is associated with a dry  
213 surface layer (DSL) (Swenson and Lawrence, 2014). A DSL forms near the soil surface  
214 in the model when the soil water content in the top layer is below a threshold value

215 (SWC<sub>th</sub>), which is set to 80% of the soil porosity of the top layer (SWC<sub>sat,1</sub>). The  
216 formation of the DSL generates soil resistance, limiting soil evaporation. Meanwhile,  
217 CLM5 uses Richard's equation and Darcy's law to describe changes in soil water  
218 content (SWC) and soil water flux. The soil hydraulic conductivity and retention used  
219 in these equations are determined by the soil texture and the SWC of the previous time  
220 step, based on Clapp and Hornberger (1978), Cosby et al. (1984), and Lawrence and  
221 Slater (2007).

222

## 223 5 Methodology

### 224 5.1 Soil layering

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

240

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

Sequence	SLN				Sequence	SLN			
	20	50	75	100		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

241

242

243

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

Sequence	SLN				Sequence	SLN			
	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					

244

## 245 5.2 Model spin-up and simulations

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

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

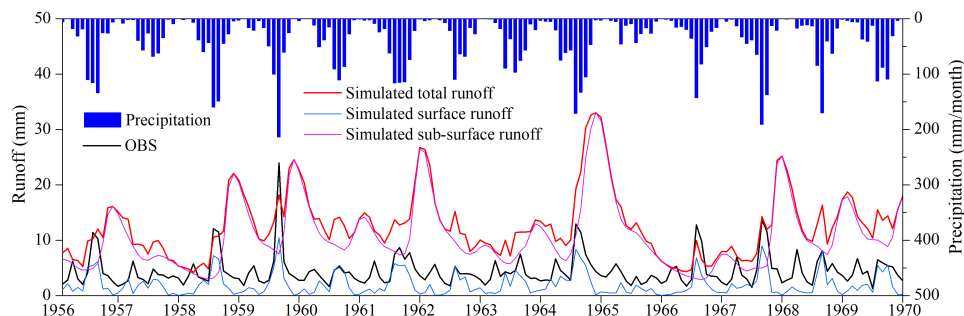
248 years for different initial SWC conditions and soil depths in the WRB. The initial SWC  
249 was set to  $0.2 \text{ mm}^3/\text{mm}^3$ , and we performed two cycles of continuous simulations over  
250 the period of 1901-2010. The first cycle was discarded as spin-up, and the second cycle  
251 was retained for analysis. Through these spin-up runs, the SWC at all model grids can  
252 reach the equilibrium state (an example given in Figure 5 where the soil has the deepest  
253 depth of 197 m in our simulation domain). In this study, each sensitivity run had its own  
254 spin-up cycles.

255

## 256 6 Results and Analysis

### 257 6.1 Default runoff simulation

258 We conducted a default run to evaluate the performance of the original CLM5 in  
259 simulating runoff in the WRB. The model remarkably overestimated monthly total and  
260 sub-surface runoff when compared with observations from the BJC hydrological station  
261 over 1956-1969, a period with minimal human activity (Jiao et al., 2017). The  
262 correlation coefficient ( $R^2$ ), root mean square error (RMSE), and Nash Sutcliffe  
263 efficiency (NSE) were 0.02, 10.37 mm, and -12.34, respectively. We can see that the  
264 overestimation was due mainly to the unrealistic simulations of sub-surface runoff. The  
265 reasons for these erroneous simulations are discussed in detail in the following sections.



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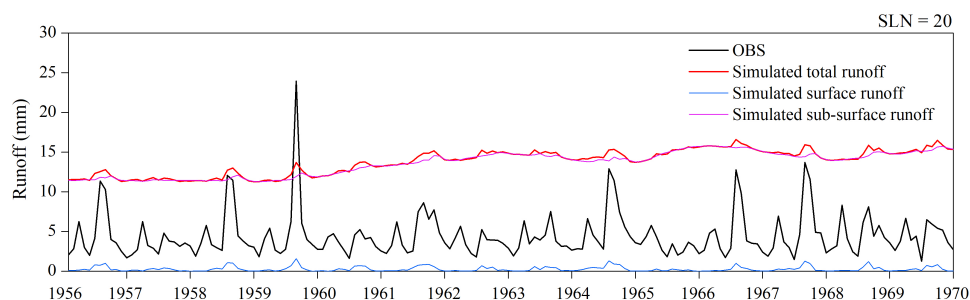
267 Figure 2. Observed monthly precipitation and runoff (black line) and simulated total  
268 runoff, surface runoff, and sub-surface runoff in the default run from 1956 to 1969. The  
269 observed monthly precipitation is for the entire WRB, and the OBS and simulations are  
270 for the BJC hydrological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

271

272

## 273 6.2 Effects of soil depth on runoff simulations

274 We examined how the simulated runoff for the WRB was affected by the actual soil  
275 depths (40-197 m) that were inputted into CLM5 with a default SLN of 20. As shown  
276 in Figure 3, CLM5 with deep soils greatly suppressed the seasonal variability of sub-  
277 surface runoff and reduced the magnitude of surface runoff when compared with the  
278 CLM5 simulations with a uniform soil depth of 8 m. The  $R^2$ , RMSE, and NSE between  
279 observations and the simulations with actual soil depths were 0.04, 9.8 mm, and -10.96,  
280 respectively. Although the actual soil depth data for the WRB were included in CLM5,  
281 the runoff simulations were still remarkably different from observations in both  
282 variability and magnitude. Hence, the runoff simulations for the WRB need to be further  
283 explored and understood.



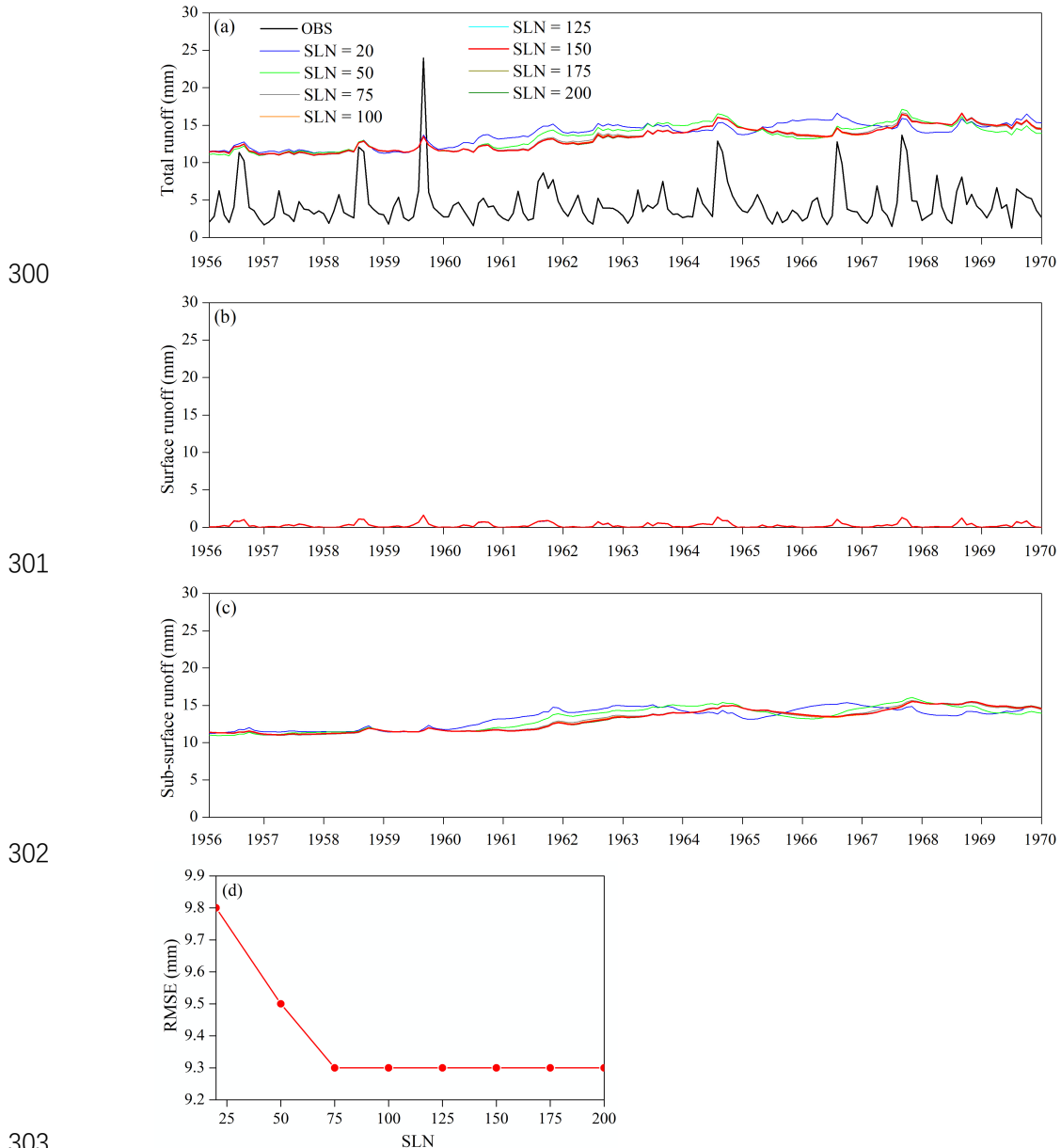
284  
285 Figure 3. Observed and simulated total runoff, surface runoff, and sub-surface runoff  
286 from 1956 to 1969 by the run with actual soil depths. The SLN was set to 20.

287

## 288 6.3 Effects of soil layering on runoff simulations

289 The eight soil layering methods mentioned in Section 3.2 were applied to CLM5 with  
290 the actual soil depths for the WRB to investigate the effects of soil layering on the runoff  
291 simulations. We can see that all the CLM5 runs generated similar temporal patterns of  
292 simulated total runoff, as shown in Figure 4a. Obviously, the soil layering methods had  
293 almost no effect on the surface runoff simulations (Figure 4b), while these methods did  
294 affect the sub-surface runoff simulations to some extent (Figure 4c). When the vertical

295 spatial resolution increased from 20 to 200 soil layers, the RMSE of the simulated total  
 296 runoff decreased until the SLN was equal to 75, and then the errors reached a minimum  
 297 for SLN ranging from 100 to 200 (Figure 4d). Although the model with 75 soil layers  
 298 seemed to be an efficient case, the soil layering method was further examined with  
 299 vertical soil moisture profile simulations.



303 Figure 4. (a) Observed and simulated monthly runoff for the BJC hydrological station;  
 304 (b) simulated surface runoff; (c) simulated sub-surface runoff; (d) RMSEs of the  
 305 simulated total runoff. All simulations were produced with different SLN values.  
 306  
 307

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

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

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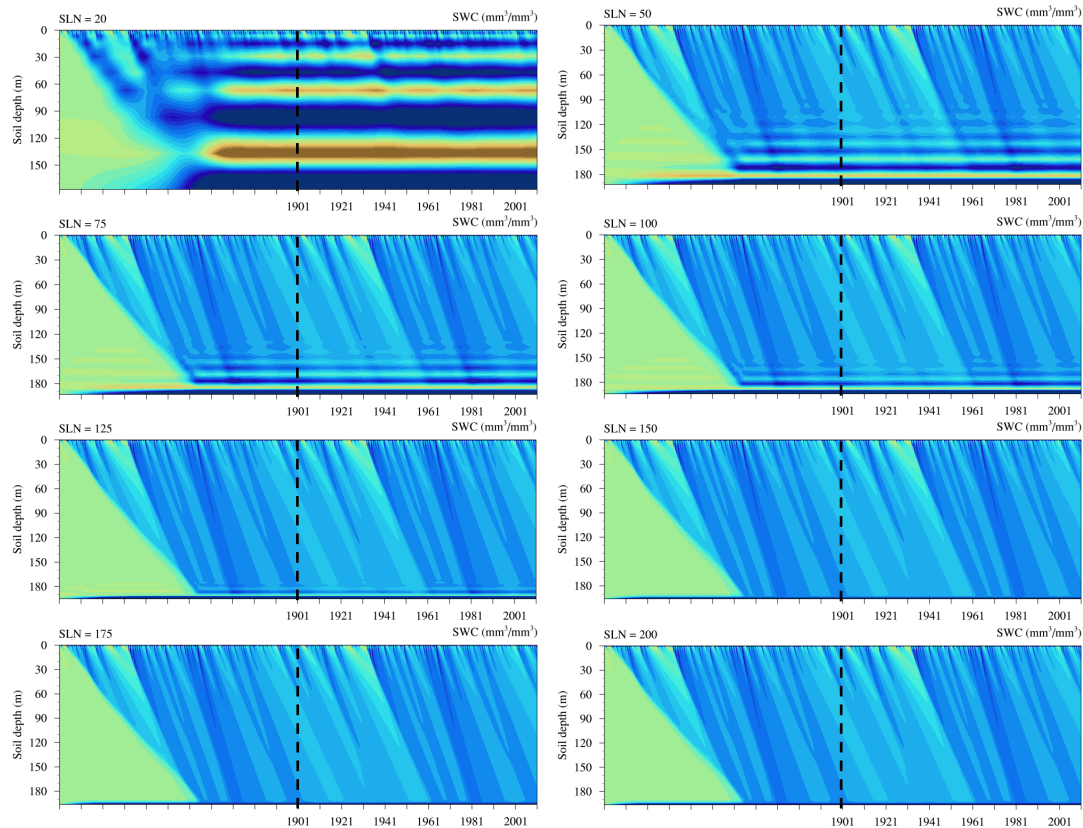
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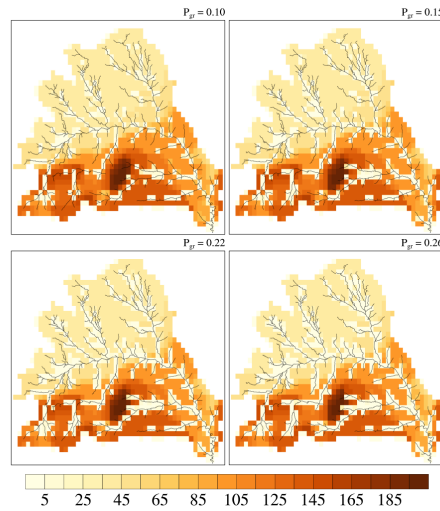
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336 Figure 5. Simulated vertical monthly SWC profiles for the selected point in the WRB  
337 during both the spin-up (left of the black dashed line) and simulation (right of the black  
338 dashed line) periods. All simulations were conducted with different SLN values.  
339

#### 340 6.4 Effects of $P_{gr}$ on runoff simulations

341 In addition to the actual soil depth and high-resolution soil layering, we prescribed the  
342 river channels for the WRB in CLM5 to explore the effects of those channels on runoff  
343 simulations. Figure 6 shows the spatial distribution of the river channels for the WRB  
344 with different values of  $P_{gr}$ , a proportion of the total river channel area to the entire  
345 WRB area, as previously defined. The larger the  $P_{gr}$ , the denser the river channels. Our  
346 results showed that CLM5 dramatically improved the simulations of the seasonal  
347 variability of total runoff (Figure 7a), and the  $R^2$  increased to 0.41-0.56 from 0.07 for  
348 the previous simulations. These improvements resulted mainly from the surface runoff  
349 simulations with a much higher seasonal variability (Figure 7b). The sub-surface runoff  
350 simulations did not show significant changes with the addition of the river channels to  
351 CLM5 (Figure 7c). We can see that CLM5 with  $P_{gr}$  equal to 0.15 produced the lowest

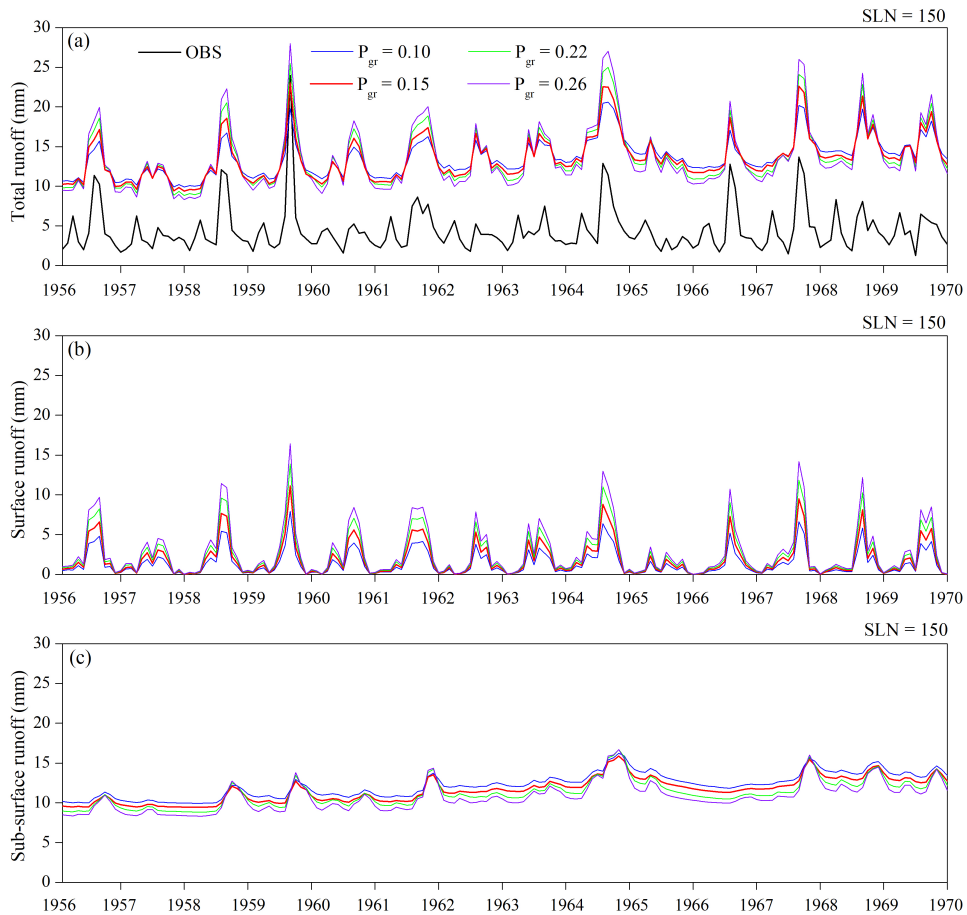


352 RMSE (9.3 mm) and the highest NSE (-9.78), although the  $R^2$  was not the highest (0.52)  
353 with this  $P_{gr}$  value. Moreover, we found that the seasonal peak values of the simulated  
354 surface runoff with  $P_{gr}$  values of 0.22 and 0.26 were higher than the observed peak  
355 values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



357  
358 Figure 6. Spatial distributions of river channels (black lines) and soil depths for the  
359 WRB with different values of  $P_{gr}$ .

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380 Figure 7. (a) Observed and simulated monthly runoff for the BJC hydrological station;  
 381 (b) simulated surface runoff; (c) simulated sub-surface runoff. All simulations were  
 382 produced with different  $P_{gr}$  values.  
 383

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

$P_{gr}$	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

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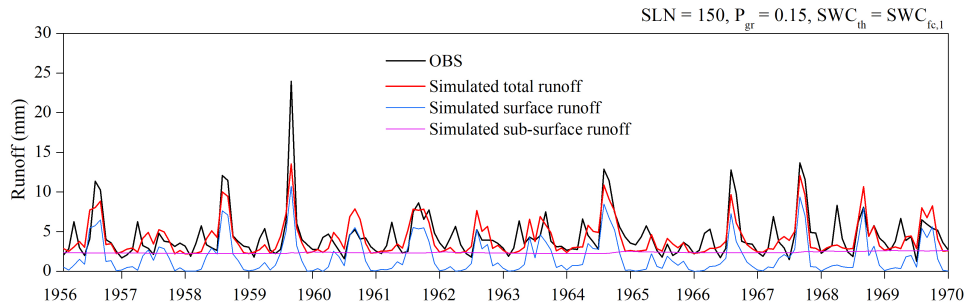
### 386 6.5 Water balance analysis

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

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

$$396 \quad ET_{avg} = P_{avg} - R_{avg} \quad (1)$$

397 where  $ET_{avg}$ ,  $P_{avg}$ , and  $R_{avg}$  are mean ET (mm), precipitation (mm), and runoff (mm)  
398 over 1956-1969, respectively. Here,  $P_{avg}$  is 454.7 mm,  $R_{avg}$  is 53.2 mm, and the  
399 estimated  $ET_{avg}$  is 401.5 mm. However, the simulated mean ET over the study period  
400 was 267.8 mm, which was far below the estimated value. According to the soil  
401 evaporation parameterization in CLM5, when the SWC of the top soil layer ( $SWC_1$ )  
402 was less than  $SWC_{th}$ , a DSL formed to resist soil evaporation. In CLM5, the  $SWC_{th}$  is  
403 defined as 80% of  $SWC_{sat,1}$ . However, previous studies (Lee and Pielke, 1992;  
404 Sakaguchi and Zeng, 2009; Flammini et al., 2018) found that soil evaporation starts to  
405 decrease significantly when the surface SWC is less than the field capacity. Yang et al.  
406 (1985) also found that soil evaporation in the LP slows down when the surface SWC  
407 becomes lower than a stable capacity that is close to the field capacity. Thus, in this  
408 study, we changed the  $SWC_{th}$  to the  $SWC_{fc,1}$  to conduct one additional simulation. With  
409 this modification, the simulated annual ET fluctuated around the estimated mean ET  
410 for our study period (401.5 mm), and the simulated 14-year mean value was 392.5 mm,  
411 which was close to the estimated mean. Very importantly, the simulated total runoff  
412 drastically reduced to match observations by increasing ET (Figure 8). When compared  
413 with those for the simulations in the last section,  $R^2$  increased from 0.52 to 0.62, RMSE  
414 decreased from 9.3 to 1.8 mm, and NSE increased dramatically from -9.78 to 0.61.  
415 Therefore, we remarkably improved runoff simulations with more accurate ET  
416 simulations in addition to the more realistic WRB features.



417  
 418 Figure 8. Time series of observed monthly runoff (black line) for the BJC hydrological  
 419 station and simulated monthly total (red line), surface (blue line), and sub-surface  
 420 runoff (pink line).  
 421

422 7 Conclusions and discussion

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

431

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

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

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

452 Despite these limitations, it is clear that our final runoff simulations with an improved  
453 CLM5 were highly accurate, and our understanding of deep soil hydrological processes  
454 has advanced.

455

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

460 Code and data availability. Our improved model and data are available at  
461 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5044541>.

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

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