

## 1. Reviewer 1 Comments

### General

This paper on Intercomparison of wetland methane emissions models, using the West Siberian Lowlands as a test area. It is a very useful evaluation of the performance of models and wetland data sets used for modeling, and it clarifies the sources of the strong variability of wetland methane emission estimates produced by models. It shows the large effects of input data, in particular wetland or soil moisture/inundation mapping products, and of model structure. The choice of the West Siberian Lowland as a model test area is a very appropriate one because of the availability of test data sets and the large contribution of this area to northern wetland methane emissions. To simulate northern wetlands accurately, it is crucial to determine model features that are required, and to which parameters and input data these models are most sensitive. The conclusions which are drawn in this paper, can be considered as guidelines for improvement of methane emission models for northern wetlands.

A minor drawback of the paper is, that there is hardly discussion on what actually defines a wetland, although the word 'wetland' is used throughout the paper. This is not just a matter of theory. Each of the wetland data sets used as model input, and each of the models, implicitly contain a certain definition of wetland. To understand the differences between the model outputs properly, it is important to know what these implicit definitions of wetlands look like. For instance, do the "Sheng2004" and "Peregon2008" include smaller lakes, and if so, to which size limit, and what determines the delineation of wetlands from non-wetland areas? Likewise, from the description of the models it is clear, that some models define wetlands based on hydrological modeling (e.g. TOPMODEL), and some require input of external wetland data sets. Some of these data sets (e.g. GIEMS) appear to map only inundation, while methane emission is not necessarily restricted to inundated soils (as also concluded in the paper). Again, 'inundation' is an implicit definition of wetlands. Elsewhere (p 16) it is suggested that wetlands always imply the presence of peat soils, which is not always the case. I suggest the authors to pay some attention to definition of wetlands, and their relation to methane emission, soil type and the delineation of wetlands. It would be useful to list these implicit wetland definitions in the input data sets.

### Specific remarks (numbering added by author)

1. Page 6, line 16-18: "The vast majority of these wetlands are peatlands, with peat depths ranging from a few cm to over 5 m, comprising a total soil carbon pool of 70 Pg C (Sheng et al., 2004)." Note that in most soil classification systems, soils with less than a few decimeters of peat would not classify as peat soil but as mineral soil.
2. Page 7, line 15-23: Please provide some more information on the remote sensing inundation products. Do they contain information on the seasonal variation of inundation, if so, what is the temporal resolution?
3. Page 8, line 26-27: "In both cases, monthly coefficients (uniform in space over a region) were derived for each of 11 large regions of the globe." It is difficult to understand immediately what is meant here. Try to reformulate.
4. Page 16, line 27-32: This is not very clear. Are wetland soils taken as synonymous to peat soils, and if a wetland data set indicates the absence of wetlands, the soil is automatically assumed to be a mineral soil? Please explain.

5. Page 21, 13-27. This demonstrates my point about wetland definition, explained above. Again, could there be overlap between the inundation data sets and lakes, of which the carbon cycling and methane emission processes may indeed differ from those in terrestrial wetlands?
6. Page 23 1-2: You could add here also, realistic soil freezing and thawing, for proper simulation of permafrost wetlands.
7. Page 23 5-12: This effectively means that realistic soil hydrology is necessary, calculating water table depth independent of wetland delineation.
8. Tables 2 and 3: These tables suffer from too short and non-informative captions. For instance the 'code' should not be described in the text only, but also at least an indication of what it means should be given in the caption

## **2. Author Response**

### **General**

We agree with the reviewer that wetlands, and other terms that we use, need to be clearly defined. Therefore, we have created a new section (2.2) to define this and other terms used throughout the manuscript. To be consistent with these definitions, we have changed the terms we use in referring to various components throughout the paper. As requested, in section 2.3 (previously section 2.2), we have added descriptions of which components (e.g., surface water, or wetlands excluding large lakes) are included in each observational dataset. In section 2.4 (previously section 2.3), we have added descriptions of which components are handled in the various models. We also moved the text in section 2.5 (previously section 2.4) dealing with different models' definitions of wetland area (now CH<sub>4</sub>-producing area) into the parts of section 2.4 describing those models' hydrologic schemes, since these two discussions were so closely related. Hopefully this reorganization makes it clearer which wetland components are handled in each model, which components produce CH<sub>4</sub>, and how accurately the CH<sub>4</sub>-producing areas reported by the models reflect their true CH<sub>4</sub>-producing areas. For details, please see the "Author's Changes in Manuscript" section.

### **Specific**

1. We apologize; this was a mistake. The peat depths from Sheng et al. 2004 ranged from 50 cm to over 5 m. We have corrected this statement.
2. The final sentence of the paragraph states that we aggregated these products from daily to monthly temporal resolution. We thought it would be clear from that statement that the original temporal resolution of these products was daily. Table 1 (referred to in the first sentence of this section) also describes all of these datasets, including their spatial and temporal resolution. However, to make this clearer and more convenient for the reader, we have also inserted the adjective "time-varying" in our description of the 2 global inundation products.
3. We have reformulated the text to make this clearer.
4. We apologize; we should have worded this entire section more clearly. We have edited it to make it clearer.

5. Again, we apologize for our poor wording. In fact, we were trying to make the same point you make here, that lakes are erroneously included in remote sensing datasets. We have edited the passage to make it clearer.
6. We have added “including freeze-thaw dynamics” to that bullet.
7. We have changed the first sentence to read: “Realistic representations of unsaturated (non-inundated) peatlands, including the dependence of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions on water table depth.”
8. We agree, these tables were poorly documented. We have added footnotes explaining the meanings of the column headings and values. If the editor prefers, we can move the information into the captions.

### **3. Author’s Changes in Manuscript**

#### **General**

We have added section 2.2, “Terminology” as follows:

Estimating wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emissions over large scales requires accurately delineating the wetland area over which CH<sub>4</sub> emissions can occur. Unfortunately, “wetland” definitions vary within the scientific community (Mitsch and Gosselink, 2000). For the purposes of estimating CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, the key characteristics include anoxia and available labile carbon substrate; therefore we will adopt the definition proposed by Canada’s National Wetlands Working Group (Tarnocai et al., 1988): land that is saturated with water long enough to promote wetland or aquatic processes as indicated by poorly drained soils, hydrophytic vegetation, and various kinds of biological activity which are adapted to a wet environment. Because permanent, deep (> 2m) open water bodies are subject to additional processes (e.g., allochthonous carbon inputs, wind-driven mixing of the water column; Pace et al., 2004), we will exclude them from our definition. Unfortunately, explicit observations of lake depths are lacking for all but the deepest lakes; therefore we will instead use an area threshold (1 km<sup>2</sup>) to identify permanent lakes. This definition of wetlands therefore includes all peatlands (inundated or not), seasonally-inundated non-peatland soils (e.g., river floodplains), and small ponds or lakes; but excludes rivers and large lakes.

We define “surface water” as all fresh water above the soil surface; i.e., the superset of inundation, lakes, and rivers. We define “inundation” as temporary (present for less than 1 year) standing water above the soil surface; “lakes” as permanent water bodies (present for more than 1 year) exceeding 1 km<sup>2</sup> in area; and “rivers” as channels that carry turbulent water. Surface water therefore includes areas that do not emit large amounts of CH<sub>4</sub>, such as rivers, and also excludes some CH<sub>4</sub>-emitting areas such as non-inundated peatlands.

For models, we will use the term “CH<sub>4</sub>-producing area” to refer to the area over which CH<sub>4</sub> production is simulated, which might not coincide exactly with the areas of actual or simulated wetlands.

To be consistent with these definitions, we have therefore replaced instances of “inundation” with “surface water” or “Fw” when referring to the remote sensing products GIEMS and SWAMPS. Similarly, we have replaced instances of “wetland area” with “CH<sub>4</sub>-producing area” when referring to the areas over which models simulate CH<sub>4</sub> dynamics. The “I” code in table 2 and Figures 5 and 12 has been changed to “S” to denote the use of “surface water” products instead of “inundation” products. These changes occur in too many places to list them here. However, this did require new versions of Figures 3, 7, and 10, in order to update the axis labels to use the correct terms.

In section 2.3 (previously section 2.2), we have added descriptions of which components (e.g., surface water, or wetlands excluding large lakes) are included in each observational dataset (page 8, lines 3-12).

In section 2.4 (previously section 2.3), we have added descriptions of which components are handled in the various models (page 11, lines 16-30; page 12, lines 6-13 and lines 21-26). The new text on page 11, lines 16-30 was moved there from section 2.5 (previously section 2.4), page 14, lines 9-22. Hopefully this reorganization makes it clearer which wetland components are handled in each model, which components produce CH<sub>4</sub>, and how accurately the CH<sub>4</sub>-producing areas reported by the models reflect their true CH<sub>4</sub>-producing areas.

We also added a citation of Mitsch and Gosselink (2000) on page 41, lines 19-20, and of Tarnocai et al. (1988) on page 46, lines 23-28.

## **Specific**

(page and line numbers refer to the Word document *with markup shown*)

1. Page 6, line 17: replaced “a few cm” with “50 cm”.
2. Page 8, line 15: inserted “time-varying”.
3. Page 9, lines 27-32: we have modified the text as follows:

“In both cases, a single, spatially uniform set of monthly coefficients was derived for each of 11 large regions of the globe. The region containing the WSL was Boreal Asia (in which the WSL makes up the majority of the wetlands). Consequently, spatial patterns in estimated emissions at the scale of  $1 \times 1^\circ$  were identical to those of the prior emissions; only the regional total emissions were constrained by the inversions.”

4. Page 18, line 28 – page 19, line 8: here is the new wording:

“Similarly, the low emissions of LPJ-WHyMe and LPJ-Bern in the South can be explained by their use of the NCSCD map, which only considered peatlands (histels and histosols) within the circumpolar permafrost zones (which only occur north of  $60^\circ$  N). For LPJ-WHyMe, these permafrost peatlands were the only type of wetland modeled (i.e., the model domain only included the circumpolar permafrost zones), so LPJ-WHyMe’s emissions were almost nonexistent in the South. LPJ-Bern also used the

NCSCD's histels and histosols to delineate peatlands, but additionally simulated methane dynamics in wet or inundated mineral soils outside the permafrost zone. While this allowed LPJ-Bern to make emissions estimates in the South, the much lower porosities of mineral soils resulted in larger drops in water table levels than would occur in peat soils for a given evaporative loss. These drier soils led to net methane oxidation in much of the South."

5. Page 24, lines 14-27: The new wording of this section is (note that we have replaced "inundation" with "surface water" when referring to satellite products):

"The most striking finding, in terms of long-term means and spatial distributions, was the substantial bias in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions that resulted from using satellite surface water products or inaccurate wetland maps to delineate wetlands. Surface water is an important component of wetland models, but it clearly is a poor proxy for wetland extent at high latitudes, because it both excludes the large expanses of strongly-emitting non-inundated peatlands that exist there (Section 2.1) that were missed by GIEMS and underrepresented by SWAMPS; and erroneously includes the high concentrations of large lakes there (e.g., Lehner and Döll, 2004), which do not necessarily emit methane at the same rates or via the same carbon cycling processes as wetlands (e.g., Walter et al., 2006; Pace et al., 2004). The practical difficulties in detecting inundation under forest canopies with visible or high-frequency microwave sensors (e.g., Sippel and Hamilton, 1994) compound these problems. In the case of the WSL, equating wetlands with surface water not only caused underestimation of total CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, but also led to attribution of the majority of the region's emissions to the permafrost zone in the North."

6. Page 26, line 3: We have inserted ", including freeze-thaw dynamics".
7. Page 26, line 9: We have changed the first sentence to read: "Realistic representations of unsaturated (non-inundated) peatlands, including the dependence of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions on water table depth."
8. Pages 52-58, tables 2-3: We have added footnotes underneath the tables to explain the column headings (in addition to changing the wording of the column headings to be more consistent with our terminology).

## 1. Reviewer 2 Comments

This manuscript presents the results of a multi-model intercomparison of methane emissions from the West Siberia Lowlands. The West Siberia Lowlands are a good choice for this study – big and important, some good data (but not enough to know the answer), and important climate gradients, particularly non-permafrost to permafrost. The intercomparison includes inverse and forward models of varying complexity and emphasis, and thus represents a diversity of approaches. Overall, it represents the state-of-the-art in regional/global methane modeling, and should be of interest to readers of Biogeosciences.

The paper is very clearly written and the tables and figures are also clear (a few comments on the figures below). I recommend minor revisions before final publication.

### GENERAL COMMENT

The concluding recommendations are not unexpected, but it is useful to have them spelled out and backed up by the analysis of multiple models of multiple types. It would be interesting to read any conclusions/recommendations you reached at this stage about model representation(s) of biogeochemistry?

### SPECIFIC COMMENTS (numbering added by author)

1. p. 1915, 15-7. Why aggregated from 25-km to 0.5°? There is probably a good reason, which you should provide.
2. p. 1926, 15-7. Comparing soil moisture content between mineral and peat soils – what do you mean by ‘content’? by mass or volume, or by degree of saturation? This needs a more careful explanation.
3. p. 1931, 13-4: this is true for UW-VIC (GEIMS) in the north only.
4. p. 1934, 11-3. This isn’t clear, and as I try to interpret it, it doesn’t seem like a general conclusion in keeping with points above.
5. p. 1934, 14-21. Would an interactive N cycle also be a longer-term influence? Did the N-cycle (stocks and/or fluxes) change substantially over the 10 year simulations for those models that included it?
6. p. 1934, 122-28. This paragraph may be more specific to a limited set of models than should be included in the paper.
7. p.1935, 15. ‘larger’ or ‘large’?
8. p. 1937, 117-19. Well, really, from a climate change point of view, CH<sub>4</sub> is well-mixed in the atmosphere and has a c.10-year lifetime, so to first order (which is where we are with this collection of models) long-term mean emissions is probably good enough. Not satisfactory, and not a goal, certainly, but not necessarily any worse than the other results at this point. Until we have more confidence in the models, this is probably still as good as any of them.
9. Refs missing – at least Walter et al. 2006; Pace et al. 2004 (I didn’t do a thorough check, but you should).
10. Table 2. A footnote should define I, M, M+, and T.
11. Fig. 5. Interesting figure! I suggest moving I, T, M and gray symbols to upper right (above legend (and adding that to figure 12 upper right), and then either reduce area in upper left to 800 (all match), or reduce all areas to use more of the graph.

12. Fig. 5 & 8 & 12 (in particular). Increase font size in legends (there is space in upper right). As many model names are similar, it is difficult to tell them apart when the font is small.
13. Fig 12. Explain ‘Tair-dominated’ and ‘Finund-dominated’ and associated lines at 0.7 in caption, for the benefit of most of your ‘readers’.

## 2. Author Response

### General

Unfortunately, as indicated on page 1935, line 5, the scatter in model results arising from other differences (differences in how methane-contributing areas are delineated and differences in soil thermal physics) was so large that it prevented us from seeing clearly the effects of biogeochemical representations across all models. Those cases in which a single model was run with different biogeochemical configurations did illuminate some potential effects of biogeochemical representations (e.g., page 1934, lines 22-28). In response to your question on N cycle and C stocks (specific comment #5), we have added some information about the LPX-BERN simulations in this regard to the results and discussion. But we feel that point (e) in the abstract sums up our biogeochemical findings: they had relatively smaller effects than the large errors due to poor wetland area constraints and inaccurate soil thermal physics schemes (or, in the case of nitrogen limitation, the factor was only examined in a single model, preventing us from separating out artifacts of model implementation). To discriminate among biogeochemical schemes would require another model intercomparison focusing on models that use similar (accurate) wetland areas and soil thermal physics, to eliminate these sources of noise.

### Specific

1. This was for consistency with model results. We have added a few words to that effect.
2. Thank you for catching this. We have replaced “reductions in soil moisture content” with “larger sensitivities of water table depth to evaporative loss”.
3. We have qualified our statement with “in the North”.
4. We agree; the use of poorly constrained model features can lead to poor performance in any application and is not unique to the modeling of high latitude wetland methane emissions. We have removed this point.
5. Nitrogen limitation had substantial effects on mean CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and minor effects on carbon stocks in the LPX-BERN simulations. While the effects on mean CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were large, we cannot separate out the effects of model implementation due to only LPX-BERN simulating this effect. The effects on carbon stocks and trends in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were small over the 12-year period, again calling attention to the need for longer study periods (although this topic need not be limited by the observational record). We have added a few sentences describing these effects to the results and discussion sections.
6. We would prefer to keep this paragraph. While the features discussed here only applied to a small number of models, they nonetheless gave us some idea of the sizes of uncertainties due to these features (small) relative to uncertainties due to other features such as soil thermal physics (large). The features discussed here are biogeochemical in nature, addressing the reviewer’s general comment. In addition, we have incorporated our answer to the reviewer’s previous comment (#5) into this paragraph.
7. Thanks for catching this; we have changed this to “large”.

8. We have rephrased the final sentence of the paragraph to have a less critical tone towards the Bloom et al (2010) product.
9. In fact, Pace et al. (2004) was not missing. But yes, Walter et al. (2006) was missing, as well as Tarnocai et al. (2009), and we have added those references. There also was a typo in our citation of Berrittella and van Huissteden (2011), which we have fixed. Thank you for catching that.
10. We agree, and have added footnotes explaining these codes (and other aspects of the table). If the editor prefers, we can move this information into the table caption.
11. We agree, the symbol definitions are better in the upper right, next to the legend box. We have moved them there. We can't give the panels all the same x limits since the areas in the WSL panel (upper left) are the sum of the areas in the south and north (lower left and right, respectively). In addition, data points fall very near the x- and y-limits of the WSL panel, so we cannot shrink it without losing those points. However, we reduced the maximum x value in the south and north panels to 700 (from 800). In addition, we removed some of the intensity lines, and we labeled all panels with letters (a, b, c) and moved the labels to the upper left of each panel.
12. We agree, the legends were quite small in these figures. We have expanded them.
13. We are not sure that we understand this request. The caption of Figure 12 already contains the following text:

“F<sub>inund</sub>-Dominated” and “T<sub>air</sub>-Dominated” denote correlation thresholds above which inundated area or air temperature, respectively, explain more than 50% of the variance of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions.

We think that this text addresses your question. Could you clarify your request? Perhaps you were referring to the symbol definitions for circles, triangles, squares? Just in case, we have also copied the text describing these from the caption of Figure 5 and pasted it here. However, this makes the caption rather lengthy – perhaps the editor can give us some guidance here?

### **3. Author's Changes in Manuscript**

#### **General**

(page and line numbers refer to the Word document *with markup shown*)

To address the reviewer's questions about biogeochemical formulations here and in specific comment #5, we added the following text to page 19, line 19 – page 20, line 3:

Nitrogen limitation influenced intensity in LPX-BERN, the one model that included it. Although we did not plot results from the two LPX-BERN configurations that lacked nitrogen-carbon interactions in Figure 5, we compare results from all four LPX-BERN configurations in Table 6. In LPX-BERN (N) and LPX-BERN (DYPTOP-N), the nitrogen limitation imposed by nitrogen-carbon interactions substantially reduced NPP, relative to LPX-BERN and LPX-BERN (DYPTOP), leading to a reduction of mean annual CH<sub>4</sub> emissions of approximately 20% over the entire WSL over the period 1993-2010. This reduction was slightly larger than the difference in emissions between



simulations using the Sheng2004 map to prescribe peatland area (LPX-BERN and LPX-BERN (N)) and simulations using the DYPTOP method to determine peatland extent dynamically (LPX-BERN (DYPTOP) and LPX-BERN (DYPTOP-N)). In addition, the reduction in emissions due to nitrogen limitation was concentrated in the northern half of the domain, in contrast to the reduction due to dynamic peatland extent, which was concentrated in the southern half of the domain. Nitrogen limitation also reduced trends in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions over the entire WSL over the period 1993-2010, through reductions in soil carbon accumulation rates. However, both these trends and their reductions were very small (< 0.5% per year in most cases) and statistically insignificant over the study period.

We also added a table (Table 6) summarizing these results from LPX-BERN.

### Specific

1. Page 8, lines 21-24: these lines now read:

“For both products, surface water area fractions ( $F_w$ ) were aggregated from their native 25 km equal-area grids to a  $0.5 \times 0.5^\circ$  geographic grid and from daily to monthly temporal resolution, for consistency with model results.”

2. Page 19, lines 4-8: these lines now read:

“While this allowed LPJ-Bern to make emissions estimates in the South, the much lower porosities of mineral soils resulted in larger sensitivities of water table depth to evaporative loss than those of peat soils. These drier soils led to net CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation in much of the South.”

3. Page 24, lines 1-2: we inserted “in the North”.

4. Page 26, lines 19-21: we removed these lines.

5. As mentioned in our response to the general comment, we have added a paragraph discussing the effects of nitrogen limitation in LPX-BERN, page 19, line 19 – page 20, line 3:

“Nitrogen limitation influenced intensity in LPX-BERN, the one model that included it. Although we did not plot results from the two LPX-BERN configurations that lacked nitrogen-carbon interactions in Figure 5, we compare results from all four LPX-BERN configurations in Table 6. In LPX-BERN (N) and LPX-BERN (DYPTOP-N), the nitrogen limitation imposed by nitrogen-carbon interactions substantially reduced NPP, relative to LPX-BERN and LPX-BERN (DYPTOP), leading to a reduction of mean annual CH<sub>4</sub> emissions of approximately 20% over the entire WSL over the period 1993-2010. This reduction was slightly larger than the difference in emissions between simulations using the Sheng2004 map to prescribe peatland area (LPX-BERN and LPX-BERN (N)) and simulations using the DYPTOP method to determine peatland extent dynamically (LPX-BERN (DYPTOP) and LPX-BERN (DYPTOP-N)). In addition, the

reduction in emissions due to nitrogen limitation was concentrated in the northern half of the domain, in contrast to the reduction due to dynamic peatland extent, which was concentrated in the southern half of the domain. Nitrogen limitation also reduced trends in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions over the entire WSL over the period 1993-2010, through reductions in soil carbon accumulation rates. However, both these trends and their reductions were very small (< 0.5% per year in most cases) and statistically insignificant over the study period.”

We also added a table (Table 6) summarizing these results from LPX-BERN.

We also added the following lines to the discussion section (page 27, lines 14-19):

“Similarly, nitrogen-carbon interaction had a substantial latitude-dependent effect on mean CH<sub>4</sub> emissions for LPX-BERN (Table 6). Again, the size of the effect could be model-dependent, and potential impacts on sensitivities to climate change might become more apparent over a longer analysis period.”

6. There were no edits specifically related to this comment, but we edited this paragraph in response to comment #5, above.
7. Page 27, line 24: changed “larger” to “large”.
8. Page 29, lines 28-31: the text now reads:

“Thus, while Bloom2010 provided a useful estimate of long-term mean emissions, it was less helpful in constraining model responses to climate drivers.”

9. Page 27, line 22: fixed spelling error in citation of Berrittella and van Huissteden (2011); page 38, lines 16-19: removed citation of Hauglestaine et al (2004); page 40, line 23: added doi for Liu et al. (2013); page 47, lines 1-3: inserted citation for Tarnocai et al. (2009); page 48, lines 11-14: inserted citation for Walter et al. (2006).
10. Pages 52-58, tables 2-3: We have added footnotes underneath the tables to explain the column headings (in addition to changing the wording of the column headings to be more consistent with our terminology).
11. Figure 5: updated the figure accordingly.
12. Figures 5, 8, and 12: updated these figures (primarily in the legends, but also in symbol codes and in replacing “Finund” with “Fw”).
13. Page 73, lines 9-14: added the following text to the caption:

“Circles denote models that used satellite surface water products alone (corresponding to code “S” in Table 2) to delineate wetlands. Triangles denote models that used topographic information, with or without surface water products (corresponding to code “T” in Table 2). Squares denote models that used wetland maps with or without topography or surface water products (corresponding to code “M” in Table 2).”

# 1 **WETCHIMP-WSL: Intercomparison of wetland methane** 2 **emissions models over West Siberia**

3  
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12

### 13 **Abstract**

14 Wetlands are the world's largest natural source of methane, a powerful greenhouse gas. The  
15 strong sensitivity of methane emissions to environmental factors such as soil temperature and  
16 moisture has led to concerns about potential positive feedbacks to climate change. This risk is  
17 particularly relevant at high latitudes, which have experienced pronounced warming and  
18 where thawing permafrost could potentially liberate large amounts of labile carbon over the  
19 next 100 years. However, global models disagree as to the magnitude and spatial distribution  
20 of emissions, due to uncertainties in wetland area and emissions per unit area and a scarcity of  
21 in situ observations. Recent intensive field campaigns across the West Siberian Lowland  
22 (WSL) make this an ideal region over which to assess the performance of large-scale process-  
23 based wetland models in a high-latitude environment. Here we present the results of a follow-  
24 up to the Wetland and Wetland CH<sub>4</sub> Intercomparison of Models Project (WETCHIMP),  
25 focused on the West Siberian Lowland (WETCHIMP-WSL). We assessed 21 models and 5  
26 inversions over this domain in terms of total CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, simulated wetland areas, and  
27 CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes per unit wetland area and compared these results to an intensive in situ CH<sub>4</sub> flux  
28 dataset, several wetland maps, and two satellite ~~inundation~~ surface water products. We found  
29 that: a) despite the large scatter of individual estimates, 12-year mean estimates of annual

1 total emissions over the WSL from forward models ( $5.34 \pm 0.54 \text{ Tg CH}_4 \text{ y}^{-1}$ ), inversions ( $6.06$   
2  $\pm 1.22 \text{ Tg CH}_4 \text{ y}^{-1}$ ), and in situ observations ( $3.91 \pm 1.29 \text{ Tg CH}_4 \text{ y}^{-1}$ ) largely agreed; b)  
3 forward models using ~~inundation~~surface water products alone to estimate wetland areas  
4 suffered from severe biases in  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions; c) the interannual timeseries of models that  
5 lacked either soil thermal physics appropriate to the high latitudes or realistic emissions from  
6 unsaturated peatlands tended to be dominated by a single environmental driver (inundation or  
7 air temperature), unlike those of inversions and more sophisticated forward models; d)  
8 differences in biogeochemical schemes across models had relatively smaller influence over  
9 performance; and e) multi-year or multi-decade observational records are crucial for  
10 evaluating models' responses to long-term climate change.

11

## 12 **1 Introduction**

13 Methane ( $\text{CH}_4$ ) emissions from high-latitude wetlands are an important component of the  
14 global climate system.  $\text{CH}_4$  is an important greenhouse gas, with approximately 34 times the  
15 global warming potential of carbon dioxide ( $\text{CO}_2$ ) over a century time horizon (IPCC, 2013).  
16 Globally, wetlands are the largest natural source of  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions to the atmosphere (IPCC,  
17 2013). Because wetland  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions are highly sensitive to soil temperature and moisture  
18 conditions (Saarnio et al., 1997; Friberg et al., 2003; Christensen et al., 2003; Moore et al.,  
19 2011; Glagolev et al., 2011; Sabrekov et al., 2014), there is concern that they will provide a  
20 positive feedback to future climate warming (Gedney et al., 2004; Eliseev et al., 2008;  
21 Ringeval et al., 2011). This risk is particularly important in the world's high latitudes, because  
22 they contain nearly half of the world's wetlands (Lehner and Döll, 2004) and because the high  
23 latitudes have been and are forecast to continue experiencing more rapid warming than  
24 elsewhere (Serreze et al., 2000; IPCC, 2013). Adding to these concerns is the potential  
25 liberation (and possible conversion to  $\text{CH}_4$ ) of previously-frozen, labile soil carbon from  
26 thawing permafrost over the next century (Christensen et al., 2004; Schuur et al., 2008; Koven  
27 et al., 2011; Schaefer et al., 2011).

28 Process-based models are crucial for increasing our understanding of the response of wetland  
29  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions to climate change. Large-scale biogeochemical models, especially those  
30 embedded within earth system models, are particularly important for estimating the  
31 magnitudes of feedbacks to climate change (e.g., Gedney et al., 2004; Eliseev et al., 2008;  
32 Koven et al., 2011). However, as shown in the global Wetland and Wetland  $\text{CH}_4$ Methane

1 Intercomparison of Models Project (WETCHIMP; Melton et al., 2013; Wania et al., 2013),  
2 there was wide disagreement among large-scale models as to the magnitude of global and  
3 regional wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, in terms of both wetland areas and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions per unit  
4 wetland area. These discrepancies were due in part to the large variety of schemes used for  
5 representing hydrological and biogeochemical processes, in part to uncertainties in model  
6 parameterizations, and in part to the sparseness of in situ observations with which to evaluate  
7 model performance (Melton et al., 2013).

8 In addition to these challenges at the global scale, the unique characteristics of high-latitude  
9 environments pose further problems for biogeochemical models. For example, much of the  
10 northern land surface is underlain by permafrost, which impedes drainage (Smith et al., 2005)  
11 and stores ancient carbon (Koven et al., 2011) via temperature-dependent constraints on  
12 carbon cycling (Schuur et al., 2008). Similarly, peat soils and winter snowpack can  
13 thermally insulate soils (Zhang, 2005; Lawrence and Slater, 2008, 2010), dampening their  
14 sensitivities to interannual variability in climate. Several commonly-used global  
15 biogeochemical models (e.g., Tian et al., 2010; Hopcroft et al., 2011; Hodson et al., 2011;  
16 Kleinen et al., 2012) lack representations of some or all of these processes.

17 The prevalence of peatlands in the high-latitudes poses further challenges to modeling  
18 (Frolking et al., 2009). Peatlands are a type of wetland containing deep deposits of highly  
19 porous, organic-rich soil, formed over thousands of years under waterlogged and anoxic  
20 conditions, which inhibit decomposition (Gorham, 1991; Frolking et al., 2011). Within the  
21 porous soil, the water table is often only a few centimeters below the surface, leading to  
22 anoxic conditions and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions even when no surface water is present (Saarnio et al.,  
23 1997; Friborg et al 2003; Glagolev et al 2011). This condition can lead to an underestimation  
24 of wetland area when using satellite ~~inundation~~ surface water products as inputs to wetland  
25 methane emissions models. In addition, trees and shrubs are found with varying frequency in  
26 peatlands (e.g., Shimoyama et al., 2003; Efremova et al., 2014), interfering with detection of  
27 inundation. Furthermore, the water table depth within a peatland is typically heterogeneous,  
28 varying on the scale of tens of centimeters as a function of microtopography (hummocks,  
29 hollows, ridges, and pools; Eppinga et al., 2008). Models vary widely in their representations  
30 of wetland soil moisture conditions, ranging from schemes that do not explicitly consider the  
31 water table position (e.g., Hodson et al., 2011), to a single uniform water table depth for each  
32 grid cell (e.g., Zhuang et al., 2004), to more sophisticated schemes that allow for sub-grid

1 heterogeneity in the water table (e.g., Bohn et al., 2007; Ringeval et al., 2010; Riley et al.,  
2 2011; Kleinen et al., 2012; Bohn et al., 2013; Stocker et al., 2014; Subin et al., 2014). Finally,  
3 peatland soils can be highly acidic and nutrient-poor, and much of the available carbon  
4 substrate can be recalcitrant (Clymo et al., 1984; Dorrepaal et al., 2009). While some models  
5 attempt to account for the effects of soil chemical conditions such as pH, redox potential, and  
6 nutrient limitation (e.g., Zhuang et al., 2004; Riley et al., 2011; Sabrekov et al., 2013; Spahni  
7 et al., 2013), not all do.

8 Given the potential problems of parameter uncertainty and equifinality (Tang and Zhuang,  
9 2008; van Huissteden et al., 2009) and computational limitations when wetland components  
10 are embedded within global climate models, it is important to determine which model features  
11 are necessary to simulate high-latitude peatlands accurately, and to constrain parameter values  
12 with observations. Until recently, evaluation of large-scale wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emissions models  
13 has been difficult, due to the sparseness of in situ and atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> observations.  
14 However, observations from the West Siberian Lowland (WSL) now offer the opportunity to  
15 assess model performance, thanks to recent intensive field campaigns (Glagolev et al., 2011),  
16 aircraft profiles (Umezawa et al., 2012), tall tower observations (Sasakawa et al., 2010;  
17 Winderlich et al., 2010), and high-resolution wetland inventories (Sheng et al., 2004; Peregon  
18 et al., 2008; Peregon et al., 2009).

19 Our primary goal in this study is to determine how well current global large-scale models  
20 capture the dynamics of high-latitude wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. To this end, we assess the  
21 performance of 21 large-scale wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emissions models over West Siberia, relative to in  
22 situ and remotely-sensed observations as well as inverse models. We examine both spatial  
23 and temporal accuracy, including seasonal and interannual variability, and estimate the  
24 relative influences of environmental drivers on model behaviors. We identify the dominant  
25 sources of error and the model features that may have caused them. Finally, we make  
26 recommendations as to which model features are necessary for accurate simulations of high-  
27 latitude wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, and which types of observations would help improve future  
28 efforts to constrain model behaviors.

29

## 1 2 Methods

### 2 2.1 Spatial Domain

3 The West Siberian Lowland (WSL) occupies approximately 2.5 million km<sup>2</sup> in North-Central  
4 Eurasia, spanning from 50 to 75° N and 60 to 95° E (Figure 1a). This region is bounded on  
5 the West by the Ural Mountains; on the East by the Yenisei River and the Central Siberian  
6 Plateau; on the North by the Arctic Ocean; and on the South by the Altai Mountains and the  
7 grasslands of the Eurasian Steppe (Sheng et al., 2004). The WSL contains most of the  
8 drainage areas of the Ob' and Irtysh Rivers, as well as the western tributaries of the Yenisei  
9 River, all of which drain into the Arctic Ocean. Permafrost in various forms (continuous,  
10 discontinuous, isolated, and sporadic) covers more than half of the area of the WSL, from the  
11 Arctic Ocean south to approximately 60° N, with continuous permafrost occurring north of  
12 67° N (Kremenetski et al., 2003). The region's major biomes (Figure 1b) consist of the  
13 treeless Tundra north of 66° N, approximately coincident with continuous permafrost; the  
14 Taiga forest belt between 55 and 66° N; and the grasslands of the Steppe south of 55° N.

15 Wetlands occupy 600,000 km<sup>2</sup>, or about 25% of the land area of the WSL, primarily in the  
16 Taiga and Tundra zones (Sheng et al., 2004). The vast majority of these wetlands are  
17 | peatlands, with peat depths ranging from ~~a-few~~50 cm to over 5 m, comprising a total soil  
18 | carbon pool of 70 Pg C (Sheng et al., 2004). Numerous field studies have documented strong  
19 methane emissions from these peatlands, particularly those south of the southern limit of  
20 permafrost (e.g., Sabrekov et al., 2014; Sasakawa et al., 2012; Glagolev et al., 2012; Glagolev  
21 et al., 2011; Friborg et al., 2003; Shimoyama et al., 2003; Panikov and Dedysh, 2000).  
22 | Permanent water bodies, ranging in size from lakes 100 km<sup>2</sup> in area to ~~bog~~-pools only a few  
23 | meters across, are comingled with wetlands throughout the domain (Lehner and Döll, 2004;  
24 Repo et al., 2007; Eppinga et al., 2008). Notable concentrations of lakes are found: a) north  
25 of the Ob' River between 61 and 64° N and 68 and 80° E; b) west of the confluence of the  
26 Ob' and Irtysh Rivers between 59 and 61° N and 64 and 70° E; and c) on the Yamal Peninsula  
27 north of 68° N.

28 Because the vegetative and soil conditions vary substantially across the domain, we have  
29 divided it into two halves of approximately equal size along 61° N latitude. The region north  
30 of this line contains permafrost, while the region south of the line is essentially permafrost-  
31 free.



## **2.2 Terminology**

Estimating wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emissions over large scales requires accurately delineating the wetland area over which CH<sub>4</sub> emissions can occur. Unfortunately, “wetland” definitions vary within the scientific community (Mitsch and Gosselink, 2000). For the purposes of estimating CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, the key characteristics include anoxia and available labile carbon substrate; therefore we will adopt the definition proposed by Canada’s National Wetlands Working Group (Tarnocai et al., 1988): land that is saturated with water long enough to promote wetland or aquatic processes as indicated by poorly drained soils, hydrophytic vegetation, and various kinds of biological activity which are adapted to a wet environment. Because permanent, deep (> 2m) open water bodies are subject to additional processes (e.g., allocthonous carbon inputs, wind-driven mixing of the water column; Pace et al., 2004), we will exclude them from our definition. Unfortunately, explicit observations of lake depths are lacking for all but the deepest lakes; therefore we will instead use an area threshold (1 km<sup>2</sup>) to identify permanent lakes. This definition of wetlands therefore includes all peatlands (inundated or not), seasonally-inundated non-peatland soils (e.g., river floodplains), and small ponds or lakes; but excludes rivers and large lakes.

We define “surface water” as all fresh water above the soil surface; i.e., the superset of inundation, lakes, and rivers. We define “inundation” as temporary (present for less than 1 year) standing water above the soil surface; “lakes” as permanent water bodies (present for more than 1 year) exceeding 1 km<sup>2</sup> in area; and “rivers” as channels that carry turbulent water. Surface water therefore includes areas that do not emit large amounts of CH<sub>4</sub>, such as rivers, and also excludes some CH<sub>4</sub>-emitting areas such as non-inundated peatlands.

For models, we will use the term “CH<sub>4</sub>-producing area” to refer to the area over which CH<sub>4</sub> production is simulated, which might not coincide exactly with the areas of actual or simulated wetlands.

### **2.2.2.3 Observations and Inversions**

Table 1 lists the various observations and inversions that we used in this study. We considered four wetland map products over the WSL, all of which have been used in high-latitude wetland carbon studies. Two of them are regional maps specific to the WSL: Sheng et al. (2004), denoted by “Sheng2004”; and Peregon et al. (2008), denoted by “Peregon2008”. Both Sheng 2004 and Peregon2008 used the 1:2,500,000-scale map of Romanova (1977):

1 Peregon2008 was entirely based on the Romanova map, while Sheng2004 used the  
2 Romanova map north of 65° N and used the 1:100,000-scale maps of Markov (1971) and  
3 Matukhin and Danilov (2000) elsewhere. Both of these maps delineate the extents of  
4 peatlands, including ponds and lakes smaller than 1km<sup>2</sup> in area. The Sheng2004 product  
5 additionally includes a separate layer delineating lakes larger than 1km<sup>2</sup>. The Peregon2008  
6 product ~~additionally delineates the extents of~~ distinguishes between various wetland sub-types  
7 (e.g., sphagnum- or sedge-dominated bogs, high palsa mires, etc.). The third map is the  
8 Northern Circumpolar Soil Carbon Database (“NCSCD”; Tarnocai et al., 2009), an inventory  
9 of carbon-rich soils, including peatlands, within the Arctic permafrost region. Models that  
10 have used this database have taken the histel and histosol delineations to be synonymous with  
11 peatlands. The fourth map is the wetland layer (GLWD-3, excluding the rivers and lakes of  
12 area > 1km<sup>2</sup> of layers GLWD-1 and GLWD-2) of the Global Lake and Wetland Database  
13 (“GLWD”; Lehner and Döll, 2004), in which wetland extents are the union of polygons from  
14 four different global databases.

15 Two global time-varying inundation-surface water products derived from remote sensing  
16 observations were also examined in this study: the Global Inundation Extent from Multi-  
17 Satellites (“GIEMS”; Prigent et al., 2007; Papa et al., 2010), derived from visible/near-  
18 infrared (AVHRR) and active (SSM/I) and passive (ERS) microwave sensors over the period  
19 1993-2004; and the Surface Water Microwave Product Series (“SWAMPS”; Schroeder et al.,  
20 2010), derived from active (SeaWinds-on-QuikSCAT, ERS, and ASCAT) and passive  
21 (SSM/I, SSMI/S, AMSR-E) microwave sensors over the period 1992-2013. For both  
22 products, ~~inundated-surface water~~ area fractions ( $F_w$ ) were aggregated from their native 25 km  
23 equal-area grids to a 0.5x05x0.5° degree-geographic grid spatial-resolution and from daily to  
24 monthly temporal resolution, for consistency with model results.

25 For CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, our primary reference for in situ observations was the estimate of  
26 Glagolev et al. (2011), which we will refer to as “Glagolev2011”. The Glagolev2011 product  
27 consists of both a database of over 2000 individual chamber observations from representative  
28 landforms at each of 36 major sites over the period 2006-2010 (Figure 1a) and a map of long-  
29 term average emissions created by applying the mean observed emissions to the wetlands of  
30 the Peregon2008 map as a function of wetland type. It is worth noting that the Glagolev2011  
31 product is currently undergoing a revision based on higher-resolution maps, which will lead to  
32 a substantial increase in annual emissions from the Taiga zone, due to a larger spatial extent

1 of high-emitting wetland types (Glagolev et al., 2013). Possible changes to emissions in the  
2 Tundra zone (in the northern half of the WSL) are not yet known. We consider this product's  
3 large uncertainty in our evaluation of model predictions.

4 We also considered emissions estimates from five inversions. Two of them were regional:  
5 "Kim2011" (Kim et al., 2011) and "Winderlich2012" (Winderlich, 2012; Schuldt et al.,  
6 2013). Kim et al. (2011) used an earlier version of Glagolev2011 (Glagolev et al., 2010) at  
7  $1 \times 1^\circ$  ~~degree~~-resolution as their prior distribution for wetland emissions within the atmospheric  
8 transport model NIES-TM (Maksyutov et al., 2008) over the period 2002-2007. Kim et al.  
9 (2011) derived 12 climatological average monthly (spatially uniform) coefficients for wetland  
10 emissions to optimize atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations over the WSL relative to observed  
11 CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations obtained by aircraft sampling at two locations in the WSL. Winderlich  
12 (2012) used the Kaplan (2002) wetland inventory for prior wetland emissions, within the  
13 global inversion system TM3-STILT (Rödenbeck et al., 2009; Trusilova et al., 2010) for the  
14 year 2009. Winderlich (2012) derived 12 monthly coefficients for wetland emissions,  
15 uniquely for each point in a  $1 \times 1^\circ$  ~~degree~~-grid, to optimize atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations  
16 over the WSL relative to the concentrations measured at the Zotino Tall Tower Observatory  
17 and three other CH<sub>4</sub> tower observation sites (Demyanskoe, Igrim, and Karasevoe) located  
18 between 58 and 63°N.

19 The other inversions we considered were global: The "Reference" and "Kaplan" versions of  
20 the Bousquet et al. (2011) inversion, denoted by "Bousquet2011R" and "Bousquet2011K",  
21 respectively; and the estimate of Bloom et al. (2010), denoted by "Bloom2010". Bousquet et  
22 al. (2011) used the LMDZ (Li, 1999) atmospheric transport model on a  $3.75 \times 2.5^\circ$  ~~degree~~ grid  
23 to estimate monthly CH<sub>4</sub> emissions at  $1 \times 1^\circ$  resolution for the period 1993-2009, optimizing  
24 atmospheric concentrations of several gases including CH<sub>4</sub> relative to global surface  
25 observation networks, for both inversions. The Matthews and Fung (1987) emissions  
26 inventory was the prior for wetland emissions in the Bousquet2011R inversion, while the  
27 Kaplan (2002) emissions were the prior for the Bousquet2011K inversion. In both cases, a  
28 single, spatially uniform set of monthly coefficients (~~uniform in space over a region~~) ~~were~~was  
29 derived for each of 11 large regions of the globe. The region containing the WSL was Boreal  
30 Asia (in which the WSL makes up the majority of the wetlands). Consequently, spatial  
31 patterns in estimated emissions at the scale of  $1 \times 1^\circ$  were identical to those of the prior  
32 emissions; only the regional total emissions were constrained by the inversions. The 17-year

1 record length of the Bousquet2011 inversions made them appealing candidates for  
2 investigating the sensitivities of emissions to interannual variability in environmental drivers.  
3 Bloom et al. (2010) did not use an atmospheric transport model, but rather optimized the  
4 parameters in a simple model relating observed atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations from the  
5 Scanning Imaging Absorption Spectrometer for Atmospheric Chemistry (SCIAMACHY;  
6 Bovensmann et al., 1999) on the Envisat satellite to observed surface temperatures from the  
7 National Center for Environmental Prediction/National Center for Atmospheric Research  
8 (NCEP/NCAR) weather analyses (Kalnay et al., 1996) and gravity anomalies from the  
9 Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment satellite (GRACE; Tapley et al., 2004), under the  
10 assumption that gravity anomalies are indicative of large-scale surface and near-surface water  
11 anomalies. The Bloom2010 inversion covered the period 2003-2007, at 3×3 degree  
12 resolution.

### 13 **2.32.4 Models**

14 Among the participating models (Table 2) were those of the WETCHIMP study (Melton et  
15 al., 2013; Wania et al., 2013) that contributed CH<sub>4</sub> emissions estimates: CLM4Me (Riley et  
16 al., 2011), DLEM (Tian et al., 2010, 2011a,b, 2012), IAP-RAS (Mokhov et al., 2007; Eliseev  
17 et al., 2008), LPJ-Bern (Spahni et al., 2011, Zürcher et al., 2013), LPJ-WHyMe (Wania et al.,  
18 2009a,b; Wania et al., 2010), LPJ-WSL (Hodson et al., 2011), ORCHIDEE (Ringeval et al.,  
19 2010), SDGVM (Hopcroft et al., 2011), and UW-VIC (denoted by “UW-VIC (GIEMS)”;  
20 Bohn et al., 2013). In addition, we analyzed several other models. “UW-VIC (SWAMPS)” is  
21 another instance of UW-VIC with surface water calibrated to match the SWAMPS product.  
22 VISIT (Ito and Inatomi, 2012), contributed four configurations using different combinations  
23 of wetland maps and methane models: “VISIT (GLWD)” and “VISIT (Sheng)” used the Cao  
24 (1996) methane model with the GLWD and Sheng2004 wetland maps, respectively, and  
25 “VISIT (GLWD-WH)” and “VISIT (Sheng-WH)” replaced the Cao model with the Walter  
26 and Heimann (2000) model. LPX-BERN (Spahni et al., 2013; Stocker et al., 2013, 2014) is a  
27 newer version of LPJ-Bern that also contributed four configurations: “LPX-BERN”, which  
28 prescribed peatland extent using Peregon2008 and inundation extent using GIEMS; “LPX-  
29 BERN (DYPTOP)”, which dynamically predicted the extents of peatlands and inundation;  
30 and “LPX-BERN (N)” and “LPX-BERN (DYPTOP-N)”, which additionally simulated  
31 interactions between the carbon and nitrogen cycles. DLEM2 is a newer version of DLEM  
32 that includes soil thermal physics and lateral matter fluxes (Liu et al. 2013, Pan et al. 2014).

1 LPJ-MPI (Kleinen et al., 2012) is a version of the LPJ model that contains a dynamic peatland  
2 model with methane transport by the model of Walter and Heimann (2000). Finally, VIC-  
3 TEM-TOPMODEL (Zhu et al., 2014) is a hybrid of UW-VIC (Liang et al., 1994), TEM  
4 (Zhuang et al., 2004), and TOPMODEL (Beven and Kirkby, 1979).

5 The relevant hydrologic and biogeochemical features of these models are listed in Tables 2  
6 and 3, respectively. The models used a variety of approaches to define ~~(potential)~~  
7 ~~methane~~CH<sub>4</sub>-emitting-producing areas ~~(which we will refer to as “wetland” areas)~~. To have  
8 some consistency across models, the original WETCHIMP study asked participating modelers  
9 to use the GIEMS product ~~as an input if possible~~if their model required wetland extent to be  
10 prescribed. Accordingly, some models (DLEM, DLEM2, and LPJ-WSL) used the GIEMS  
11 surface water product exclusively to prescribe (time-varying) ~~wetland-CH<sub>4</sub>-producing~~ areas;  
12 these are denoted with the code “IS” in Table 2.

13 ~~Several~~ models (CLM4Me, LPJ-MPI, LPX-BERN (DYPTOP), LPX-BERN (DYPTOP-N),  
14 ORCHIDEE, SDGVM, and VIC-TEM-TOPMODEL) predicted ~~wetland-surface water and~~  
15 CH<sub>4</sub>-producing areas dynamically using topographic information and the TOPMODEL  
16 (Beven and Kirkby, 1979) distributed water table approach (in which the area over which the  
17 water table is at or above the soil surface can be interpreted to correspond to surface water  
18 extent); these models are denoted with a “T” in Table 2. For these models, the CH<sub>4</sub>-  
19 producing area is the area in which labile soil carbon is sufficiently warm and anoxic for  
20 methanogenesis to occur, including both surface water and any non-inundated land with  
21 sufficiently shallow water table depths. LPJ-MPI and LPX-BERN (DYPTOP and DYPTOP-  
22 N) prognostically determined peatland area as a function of long-term soil moisture  
23 conditions; their CH<sub>4</sub>-producing areas thus included peatlands (inundated or not) as well as  
24 completely saturated or inundated mineral soils. Because the other “T” models’ CH<sub>4</sub>-  
25 producing areas had no explicit limits, those teams reported approximations of the models’  
26 true CH<sub>4</sub>-producing areas: CLM4Me, ORCHIDEE, and VIC-TEM-TOPMODEL reported  
27 their surface water areas; and SDGVM reported the area for which the water table was above  
28 a threshold depth, with the threshold chosen to minimize the global RMS error between this  
29 area and GIEMS. HoweverAdditionally, both CLM4Me and ORCHIDEE tied their ~~inundated~~  
30 surface water areas to the long-term mean of GIEMS: CLM4Me did so by calibration and  
31 ORCHIDEE did so by rescaling its ~~inundated-surface water~~ areas. Thus, we have placed  
32 ~~them~~these two models in the “IS” category in Table 2.

1 –Finally, the remaining models (IAP-RAS, LPJ-Bern, LPJ-WHyMe, LPX-BERN, LPX-  
2 BERN (N), both UW-VIC configurations, and all four VISIT configurations) used wetland  
3 maps, either alone or in combination with topography and ~~inundation surface water~~ products,  
4 to inform their wetland schemes; these are denoted with “M” in Table 2. In most cases, the  
5 wetland maps were used to determine the maximum extent of ~~wetlands~~the CH<sub>4</sub>-producing  
6 area, within which inundated area and water table depths would vary in time. In contrast,  
7 LPJ-Bern, LPX-BERN, and LPX-BERN (N) allowed inundated area (specified by GIEMS) to  
8 sometimes exceed the ~~considered both a~~ static map-based peatland area; in such cases, it was  
9 assumed that the excess inundation occurred in mineral soils. Thus, the CH<sub>4</sub>-producing area  
10 included peatlands and inundated mineral soils. ~~and a time-varying inundated mineral soil~~  
11 area wherever the GIEMS inundated area exceeded the peatland area. LPJ-Bern additionally  
12 allowed CH<sub>4</sub> production in areas of “wet mineral soil” (in which soil moisture content was  
13 greater than 95% of water holding capacity) and included this in the total CH<sub>4</sub>-producing area.

14 Models’ hydrologic approaches varied in other ways as well. Some (IAP-RAS and LPJ-  
15 WSL) did not include explicit water table depth formulations for estimating emissions in  
16 unsaturated (non-inundated) wetlands; IAP-RAS assumed all wetlands were completely  
17 saturated and LPJ-WSL only considered unsaturated wetlands implicitly, using soil moisture  
18 as a proxy. Most of the other models used a TOPMODEL approach to relate the distribution  
19 of water table depths across the grid cell to topography (generally at 1-km scale). However,  
20 LPJ-WHyMe, UW-VIC (GIEMS) and UW-VIC (SWAMPS) determined water table depth  
21 distributions within peatlands from assumed proportions of microtopographic landforms (e.g.,  
22 hummocks and lawns) at the (horizontal) scale of meters. UW-VIC explicitly handled lakes  
23 by treating lakes and peatlands as a single system, spanning the total area of lakes and  
24 peatlands given by the Sheng et al. (2004) dataset and within which surface water area varied  
25 dynamically. Areas of permanent surface water over the period 1949-2010 were considered  
26 to be lakes, and excluded from methane emissions estimates.

27 Models also varied in their soil thermal physics schemes. Most models used a 1-dimensional  
28 heat diffusion scheme to determine the vertical profile of soil temperatures, but VISIT used a  
29 linear interpolation between current air temperature (at the soil surface) and annual average  
30 air temperature (at the bottom of the soil column). Several models (DLEM, LPJ-MPI, LPJ-  
31 WSL, and SDGVM) did not consider the water-ice phase change and therefore did not model  
32 permafrost. While IAP-RAS contained a permafrost scheme, it was driven by seasonal and

1 annual summaries of meteorological forcings and used simple analytic functions to estimate  
2 the seasonal evolution and vertical profile of soil temperatures. Additionally, DLEM and  
3 LPJ-WSL did not consider the insulating effects of organic (peat) soil. In contrast, UW-VIC  
4 modeled permafrost, peat soils, and the dynamics of surface water, including lake ice cover  
5 and evaporation, thereby adding another factor that influences soil temperatures.

6 Models also varied in their biogeochemical schemes (Table 3). Most represented methane  
7 production as a function of soil temperature, water table depth (except for IAP-RAS and LPJ-  
8 WSL), and the availability of carbon substrate. Most (except for IAP-RAS and LPJ-WSL)  
9 explicitly accounted for oxidation of methane above the water table; and most accounted for  
10 some degree of plant-aided transport. Some models (LPJ-Bern, LPJ-MPI, LPJ-WHyMe, and  
11 LPX-BERN) represented methane production as either a constant or soil-moisture-dependent  
12 fraction of aerobic respiration. Some models (DLEM, DLEM2, and VIC-TEM-  
13 TOPMODEL) imposed additional dependences on soil pH and oxidation state. Models  
14 differed in the pathways and availability of carbon substrate: some models (UW-VIC, VIC-  
15 TEM-TOPMODEL, VISIT (GLWD-WH) and VISIT (Sheng-WH)) related carbon substrate  
16 availability to net primary productivity (NPP) as a proxy for root exudates; others (CLM4Me,  
17 IAP-RAS, LPJ-MPI, LPJ-WSL, ORCHIDEE, SDGVM, VISIT (GLWD) and VISIT (Sheng))  
18 related carbon substrate to the content and residence times of various soil carbon reservoirs;  
19 and others (DLEM, DLEM2, LPJ-Bern, LPJ-WHyMe, all four LPX-BERN configurations)  
20 drew carbon substrate from a combination of both root exudates and soil carbon (or dissolved  
21 organic carbon, in the case of DLEM and DLEM2). CLM4Me and two configurations of  
22 LPX-BERN simulated interactions between the carbon and nitrogen cycles. Several models  
23 (all versions of LPJ and LPX, ORCHIDEE, and SDGVM) included dynamic vegetation  
24 components. Some models (LPJ-Bern, LPJ-MPI, LPJ-WHyMe, LPX-BERN, and UW-VIC)  
25 accounted for inhibition of NPP of some plant species under saturated soil moisture  
26 conditions. Finally, models employed a variety of methods, alone or in combination (Table  
27 3), to select parameter values, including: taking the median of literature values; optimizing  
28 emissions to match in situ observations from representative sites regionally (e.g., UW-VIC  
29 optimized parameter values to match the Glagolev2011 dataset in the WSL) or globally; or  
30 optimizing global total emissions to match various estimates from inversions.

## 2.4.2.5 Model Simulations

To be consistent with WETCHIMP's transient simulation ("Experiment 2-trans", Wania et al., 2013), we focused our analysis on the period 1993-2004, although several non-WETCHIMP models provided data from 1993 to 2010. All models used the CRUNCEP gridded meteorological forcings (Viovy and Ciais, 2011) as a common input. Model-specific inputs are described in Wania et al. (2013).

Model outputs (monthly CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (average g CH<sub>4</sub> month<sup>-1</sup> m<sup>-2</sup> over the grid cell area) and monthly CH<sub>4</sub>-producing wetland-area (km<sup>2</sup>)) were analyzed at 0.5×0.5 degree spatial resolution (resampled from native resolution as necessary). ~~Wetland area definitions varied, complicating comparison among the models. For those that delineated a maximal wetland extent, either from the GIEMS product or a map, wetland area was straightforward to interpret. For several of the models that computed wetland area dynamically (CLM4Me, LPJ-Bern, LPX-BERN (DYPTOP), LPX-BERN (DYPTOP-N), LPJ-MPI, ORCHIDEE, SDGVM, and VIC-TEM-TOPMODEL), any portion of any grid cell could potentially emit methane. To provide meaningful estimates of their methane emitting areas, CLM4Me, ORCHIDEE, and VIC-TEM-TOPMODEL defined wetland area as their inundated areas; LPX-BERN (DYPTOP), LPX-BERN (DYPTOP-N), and LPJ-MPI reported the sum of peatland area and inundated mineral soil area; LPJ-Bern reported the sum of peatland, inundated mineral soil, and "wet mineral soil" (in which soil moisture content was greater than 95% of water holding capacity) areas; and SDGVM reported the area for which the water table was above a threshold depth, with the threshold chosen to minimize the global RMS error between this area and GIEMS.~~

Due to large seasonal variations in CH<sub>4</sub>-producing wetland-areas, our analysis focused on June-July-August (JJA) averages of area and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, since it is during these months that the majority of the year's methane is emitted, across all models (areas from other seasons would not be representative of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions). ~~Thus, JJA wetland area is the most representative methane emitting area.~~ Similarly, in analyzing interannual variability in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, we focused on JJA CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, which dominate the annual total and have stronger correlations with JJA environmental factors (such as air temperature, precipitation, or inundation) than annual CH<sub>4</sub> emissions have with annual average environmental factors. We also computed growing season CH<sub>4</sub> "intensities" (average JJA CH<sub>4</sub> emissions per unit JJA



~~CH<sub>4</sub>-producing area of wetland) as the ratio of average JJA CH<sub>4</sub> emissions to average JJA wetland area (in m<sup>2</sup>).~~

## **2.52.6 Data Access**

All data used in this study, including observational products, inversions, and forward model results, are available from WETCHIMP-WSL (2015).

## **3 Results**

### **3.1 Average Annual Total Emissions**

As shown in Figure 2 and Table S1, 12-year mean estimates ( $\pm$  standard error on the mean) of annual total emissions over the WSL from forward models ( $5.34 \pm 0.54$  Tg CH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>), inversions ( $6.06 \pm 1.22$  Tg CH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>), and observations ( $3.91 \pm 1.29$  Tg CH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>) largely agreed, despite large scatter in individual estimates. Model estimates ranged from 2.42 Tg CH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup> (LPX-BERN (DYPTOP-N)) to 11.19 Tg CH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup> (IAP-RAS). The Glagolev2011 estimate was substantially lower than the mean of the models, corresponding to the 36<sup>th</sup> percentile of the distribution of model estimates. However, the potential upward revision of Glagolev2011 (Section 2.2) would move it to a substantially higher percentile of their distribution. Inversions yielded a similarly large range of estimates, 3.08 Tg CH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup> (Kim2011) to 9.80 Tg CH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup> (Winderlich2012). Despite their large spread, 15 out of the 17 forward models fell within the range of inversion estimates. Here we have excluded the “WH” configurations of VISIT and the configurations of LPX-BERN for which nitrogen-carbon interaction was turned off, due to their similarities to their counterparts that were included. The wide variety in the relative proportions of CH<sub>4</sub> emitted from the South and North halves of the domain, with the Southern contribution ranging from 13% to 69% (right-hand column in Figure 2), indicates lack of agreement on which types of wetlands and climate conditions are producing the bulk of the region’s CH<sub>4</sub>.

### **3.2 Differences Among Observational Datasets**

The large degree of disagreement among observational datasets is worth addressing before using them to evaluate the models. Important differences are evident among wetland maps (Figure 3). Sheng2004 and Peregon2008 are extremely similar, in part because they both

1 used the map of Romanova (1977) north of 65° N. Both of these datasets show wetlands  
2 distributed across most of the WSL, with large concentrations south of the Ob' River (55-61°  
3 N, 70-85° E), east of the confluence of the Ob' and Irtysh Rivers (57-62° N, 65-70° E) and  
4 north of the Ob' River (61-66° N, 70-80° E). In comparison, the GLWD map entirely lacks  
5 wetlands in the tundra region north of 67° N and shows additional wetland area in the north-  
6 east (64-67° N, 70-90° E). The NCSCD is substantially different from the other three maps.  
7 Owing to its focus on permafrost soils, it completely excludes the extensive wetlands south of  
8 the southern limit of permafrost (approximately 60° N). Given the numerous field studies  
9 documenting these productive southern wetlands (Section 2.1), the NCSCD seems to be  
10 inappropriate for ~~modeling non-permafrost wetlands~~ studies that extend beyond permafrost.

11 The two ~~inundation surface water~~ products (GIEMS and SWAMPS) also exhibit large  
12 differences. While they both agree that ~~inundation the surface water area fraction ( $F_w$ )~~ is most  
13 extensive in the central region north of the Ob' River (61-64° N), GIEMS gives areal extents  
14 that are 3-6 times those of SWAMPS. Outside of this central peak, GIEMS ~~inundation  $F_w$~~   
15 drops off rapidly to nearly 0 in most places (particularly in the forested region south of the  
16 Ob' River, which may be due to difficulties in detecting inundation under vegetative canopy  
17 and/or reduced sensitivity where open water fraction is less than 10 %; Prigent et al. 2007),  
18 while SWAMPS maintains low levels of  ~~$F_w$  inundation~~ throughout most of the WSL. Along  
19 the Arctic coastline, SWAMPS ~~additionally~~ shows high  ~~$F_w$  inundation along the Arctic Ocean~~  
20 ~~coastline~~, which may indicate contamination of the signal by the ocean. In both datasets,  ~~$F_w$~~   
21 ~~inundated areas~~ exhibits some similarity with the distribution of lakes and rivers (Figure 1),  
22 illustrating the inclusion of non-wetlands in these surface water products.

23 Among the CH<sub>4</sub> datasets (Figure 4), a clear difference can be seen between the spatial  
24 distributions of Glagolev2011 and Kim2011; (both of which assign the majority of emissions  
25 to the region south of the Ob' River, between 55 and 60° N); and Winderlich2012 and  
26 Bousquet2011K; (both of which assign the majority of emissions to the central region north of  
27 the Ob' River, between 60 and 65° N). We discuss possible reasons for this discrepancy in  
28 Section 4.3. The global inversions (Bousquet2011R and K, and Bloom2010) have coarser  
29 spatial resolution than the regional inversions of Kim2011 and Winderlich2012.  
30 Bousquet2011R and K have similar distributions between 60 and 65° N, but Bousquet2011R  
31 has relatively stronger emissions between 57 and 60° N and weaker emissions between 65 and  
32 67° N; in this respect, Bousquet2011R is intermediate between Glagolev2011 and

1 Winderlich2012. Finally, Bloom2010 exhibits relatively little spatial variability in emissions,  
2 likely due to its use of GRACE observations as a proxy for wetlandswetland inundation and  
3 water table conditions.

### 4 **3.3 Primary Drivers of Model Spatial Uncertainty**

5 The wide disagreement among models is plainly evident in Figure 5, which plots average JJA  
6 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions versus average JJA CH<sub>4</sub>-producing wetland-areas for the WSL as a whole (top  
7 left), the South (bottom left), and the North (bottom right). A series of lines (“spokes”)  
8 passing through the origin, with slopes of integer multiples of 1 g CH<sub>4</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> mon<sup>-1</sup>, allows  
9 comparison of spatial average intensities (CH<sub>4</sub> emissions per unit CH<sub>4</sub>-producing wetland  
10 area). All points along a given line have the same intensity but different CH<sub>4</sub>-producing  
11 wetland-areas. We have included the Glagolev2011/Peregon2008 CH<sub>4</sub> /area estimate  
12 (denoted by a black star) and the mean of the inversions (denoted by a grey star) for reference.  
13 We set the area coordinate for the inversions to Peregon2008, because a) the wetland area was  
14 not available for all inversions, and b) Peregon2008 is a relatively accurate estimate of  
15 wetland area. JJA CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, JJA wetland or CH<sub>4</sub>-producing areas, and JJA intensities,  
16 for all models, observations, and inversions, are listed in Table S1. Over the entire WSL  
17 (Figure 5, top left), the scatter in model estimates of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions results from scatter in  
18 both area (ranging from 200,000 to 1,200,000 km<sup>2</sup>) and intensity (ranging from 1 to 8 g CH<sub>4</sub>  
19 m<sup>-2</sup> mon<sup>-1</sup>), with no clear relationship between the two.

20 However, a strong area-driven bias is evident in the South (Figure 5, bottom left). Although  
21 the mean modeled CH<sub>4</sub> distribution-emission rate (~~mean-of~~ 0.58 Tg CH<sub>4</sub> mon<sup>-1</sup>) is fairly close  
22 to both Glagolev2011 (0.67 TgCH<sub>4</sub> mon<sup>-1</sup>) and the mean of inversions (0.60 Tg CH<sub>4</sub> mon<sup>-1</sup>),  
23 the distribution of model estimates is substantially skewed, with most models’ estimates  
24 falling well below both Glagolev2011 and the mean of the inversions. Glagolev2011’s  
25 estimate corresponds to the 81<sup>st</sup> percentile of the model CH<sub>4</sub> distribution; the expected upward  
26 revision of Glagolev2011 (Section 2.2; exact JJA amount not yet known) would only raise  
27 that percentile. The mean of the inversions corresponds to the 76<sup>th</sup> percentile. Similarly, the  
28 models substantially underestimate CH<sub>4</sub>-producing wetland-area, with Peregon2008  
29 occupying the 83<sup>rd</sup> percentile of the model distribution. On the other hand, the model  
30 intensity distribution is much less biased, with Glagolev2011 corresponding to the 47<sup>th</sup>  
31 percentile. Even a doubling of Glagolev2011’s intensity would place it at only the 69<sup>th</sup>

1 percentile of the model distribution, a smaller bias than for area. Thus, the area bias is the  
2 major driver of CH<sub>4</sub> bias in the South. In comparison, the North (Figure 5, bottom right) is  
3 relatively unbiased.

4 Model inputs and formulations played a key role in determining CH<sub>4</sub>-producing wetland-area  
5 biases. Statistics of model performance relative to Glagolev2011/Peregon2008, categorized  
6 by the wetland codes in Table 2, are listed in Table 4. The models that used satellite  
7 inundation-surface water products alone (denoted with circles in Figure 5 and the code “IS” in  
8 Table 2) estimated the lowest CH<sub>4</sub>-producing wetland-areas in the southSouth, with a bias of -  
9 270,000 km<sup>2</sup> and standard deviation of 31,000 km<sup>2</sup>. Additionally, two models (LPJ-Bern and  
10 LPJ-WHyMe) from the “M” group (denoted by squares in Figure 5 and the code “M” in Table  
11 2) also yielded low areas, due to their use of the NCSCD map, which omitted non-permafrost  
12 wetlands. The “M+” group, consisting of all “M” models except those two, exhibited the  
13 smallest bias and second-smallest standard deviation (-31,000 km<sup>2</sup> and 34,000km<sup>2</sup>,  
14 respectively). Models that determined CH<sub>4</sub>-producing wetland-area dynamically using  
15 topographic data, but without the additional input of wetland maps (denoted by triangles in  
16 Figure 5 and the code “T” in Table 2) yielded nearly as small a bias as the “M+” group (-  
17 42,000 km<sup>2</sup>), but had the largest scatter (standard deviation of 173,000 km<sup>2</sup>) of the groups.  
18 The fact that two of the “IS” models (CLM4Me and ORCHIDEE) supplied CH<sub>4</sub>-producing  
19 wetland-areas that excluded non-inundated methane-emitting wetlands had little effect on the  
20 results, since their total CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (which included non-inundated emissions) also  
21 suffered from a large negative bias (-0.45 Tg CH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>, or -67%).

22 Examining the spatial distributions of annual CH<sub>4</sub> (Figure 6) and JJA CH<sub>4</sub>-producing wetland  
23 areas (Figure 7) shows why the use of inundation-surface water data alone results in poor  
24 model performance. Among the models from the “IS” group (CLM4Me, DLEM, DLEM2,  
25 LPJ-WSL, and ORCHIDEE), the spatial distributions of both CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and CH<sub>4</sub>-  
26 producing wetland-area tend to be strongly correlated with GIEMS (See Table 5 for  
27 correlations), which exhibits very low inundated-surface water areas south of the Ob’ River,  
28 despite the large expanses of wetlands there (section 3.2). Similarly, the low emissions of  
29 LPJ-WHyMe and LPJ-Bern in the South can be explained by their use of the NCSCD wetland  
30 map, which only considered peatlands (histels and histosols) within the circumpolar  
31 permafrost peatlands-zones (which only occur north of 60° N). For LPJ-WHyMe, these  
32 permafrost peatlands were the only type of wetland modeled, (i.e., the model domain only

1 included the circumpolar permafrost zones), so LPJ-WHyMe's emissions were almost  
2 nonexistent in the South. LPJ-Bern also used the NCSCD's histels and histosols to delineate  
3 peatlands, but additionally simulated methane dynamics in wet or inundated mineral soils  
4 outside the permafrost zone. While this allowed LPJ-Bern to make emissions estimates in the  
5 South, the much lower porosities of mineral soils resulted in larger ~~reductions in soil moisture~~  
6 ~~content than would occur in peat soils for a given~~sensitivities of water table depth to  
7 evaporative loss than those of peat soils. These drier soils led to net CH<sub>4</sub> methane-oxidation  
8 in much of the South.

9 Aside from area-driven biases, a large degree of intensity-driven scatter is evident in both the  
10 South and North. Indeed, the underestimation of areas in the South, accompanied by resulting  
11 reductions in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, partially compensated for some of the intensity-driven scatter  
12 there. However, some of the more extreme intensities were arguably the result of area biases,  
13 in that some of the global wetland models (CLM4Me, IAP-RAS, LPJ-Bern, and LPJ-  
14 WHyMe) scaled their intensities to match their global total emissions with those of global  
15 inversions, which could result in local biases if their wetland maps suffered from either global  
16 or local bias (which was true of these models). Interestingly, several models yielded  
17 estimates similar to those of the two regionally-optimized UW-VIC simulations, implying that  
18 the regional optimization did not confer a distinct advantage on UW-VIC.

19 Nitrogen limitation influenced intensity in LPX-BERN, the one model that included it.  
20 Although we did not plot results from the two LPX-BERN configurations that lacked  
21 nitrogen-carbon interactions in Figure 5, we compare results from all four LPX-BERN  
22 configurations in Table 6. In LPX-BERN (N) and LPX-BERN (DYPTOP-N), the nitrogen  
23 limitation imposed by nitrogen-carbon interactions substantially reduced NPP, relative to  
24 LPX-BERN and LPX-BERN (DYPTOP), leading to a reduction of mean annual CH<sub>4</sub>  
25 emissions of approximately 20% over the entire WSL over the period 1993-2010. This  
26 reduction was slightly larger than the difference in emissions between simulations using the  
27 Sheng2004 map to prescribe peatland area (LPX-BERN and LPX-BERN (N)) and  
28 simulations using the DYPTOP method to determine peatland extent dynamically (LPX-  
29 BERN (DYPTOP) and LPX-BERN (DYPTOP-N)). In addition, the reduction in emissions  
30 due to nitrogen limitation was concentrated in the northern half of the domain, in contrast to  
31 the reduction due to dynamic peatland extent, which was concentrated in the southern half of  
32 the domain. Nitrogen limitation also reduced trends in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions over the entire WSL

1 | over the period 1993-2010, through reductions in soil carbon accumulation rates. However,  
2 | both these trends and their reductions were very small (< 0.5% per year in most cases) and  
3 | statistically insignificant over the study period.

## 4 5 | **3.4 Model Temporal Uncertainty and Major Environmental Drivers**

### 6 | **3.4.1 Average Seasonal Cycles**

7 | Models ~~and inversions~~ demonstrated general agreement on the shape of the seasonal cycle of  
8 | emissions (Figure 8, top left) and intensities (Figure 8, bottom right), despite wide  
9 | disagreement on the shape and timing of the seasonal cycle of CH<sub>4</sub>-producing wetland-area  
10 | (Figure 8, bottom left). The regional inversions (Kim2011 and Winderlich2012) agreed on a  
11 | July peak for CH<sub>4</sub>, although Winderlich2012 suggested a noticeably larger contribution from  
12 | cold season months than the others (which is plausible, given reports of non-zero winter  
13 | emissions; Rinne et al., 2007; Kim et al., 2007; Panikov and Dedysh, 2000). In contrast, both  
14 | Bousquet inversions peaked in August. Unlike the other three inversions, the Bousquet2011R  
15 | inversion had negative emissions (net oxidation) in either May or June of almost every year of  
16 | its record. These negative emissions were widespread, throughout not only the WSL but the  
17 | entire Boreal Asia region, and cast doubt on the accuracy of their seasonal cycle. Turning to  
18 | the ~~inundation-surface water~~ products (Figure 8, bottom left), GIEMS and SWAMPS  
19 | displayed quite different shapes in their seasonal cycles of ~~inundationsurface water extent~~:  
20 | GIEMS exhibited a sharp peak in June and SWAMPS displayed a broad, flat maximum from  
21 | June through September. In fact, SWAMPS had a similar shape to GIEMS south of about 64°  
22 | N; the broad peak for the WSL as a whole was the result of late-season peaks further north.

23 | Most models' CH<sub>4</sub> emissions peaked in July, in agreement with the regional inversions. A  
24 | few models peaked in June: CLM4Me, DLEM2, LPJ-MPI, VISIT (GLWD) and VISIT  
25 | (Sheng). Correspondingly early peaks in intensity can explain the early peaks in the DLEM2  
26 | and the VISIT simulations, indicating either early availability of carbon substrate in the soil or  
27 | rapid soil warming (the latter is likely for VISIT, given its linearly-interpolated soil  
28 | temperatures). In contrast, LPJ-MPI's early peak in emissions was the result of an early  
29 | (May) peak in CH<sub>4</sub>-producing wetland-area, which, in turn, was the result of early snow melt.  
30 | Two models (LPJ-BERN and UW-VIC (GIEMS)) peaked in August. LPJ-Bern's late peak



1 | resulted from a late peak in wet mineral soil -intensity, despite an exceptionally late (October)  
2 | peak in ~~CH<sub>4</sub>-producing wetland~~-area. The late peak of UW-VIC (GIEMS) corresponded to a  
3 | late peak in intensity, implying either late availability of carbon substrate (due to inhibition of  
4 | NPP under inundation) or delayed warming of the soil (due to excessive insulation by peat or  
5 | surface water).

6 | Aside from the above cases, the relative agreement among models on a July peak in CH<sub>4</sub>  
7 | emissions comes despite wide variation in seasonal cycles of ~~CH<sub>4</sub>-producing wetland~~-area.  
8 | For example, DLEM's ~~CH<sub>4</sub>-producing wetland~~-area held steady at its maximum extent from  
9 | April through November; and VIC-TEM-TOPMODEL's ~~CH<sub>4</sub>-producing wetland~~-area peaked  
10 | in August, possibly due to low evapotranspiration or runoff rates. Some of the discrepancies  
11 | in ~~CH<sub>4</sub>-producing wetland~~-area seasonality arose from several models' using static maps to  
12 | define some or all wetland areas (Sections 2.3 and 2.4). These differences matter little to the  
13 | seasonal cycle of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, in part because of the similarity between the seasonal cycles  
14 | of inundated area and water table depths within the static ~~CH<sub>4</sub>-producing areas~~wetlands, and  
15 | in part because of the nearly universal strong correlation at seasonal time scales between  
16 | simulated intensities and near-surface air temperature (so that cold-season ~~CH<sub>4</sub>-producing~~  
17 | ~~wetland~~-areas have little influence over emissions).

### 18 | **3.4.2 Interannual Variability**

19 | At multi-year time scales (shown for the period 1993-2010 in Figure 9), models' and  
20 | inversions' total annual CH<sub>4</sub> emissions displayed a wide range of interannual variability, even  
21 | after accounting for the effects of differences in intensity. Values of the coefficient of  
22 | variation (CV) for models over the period 1993-2004 ranged from 0.069 (LPX-BERN (N)) to  
23 | 0.338 (UW-VIC (GIEMS)) with a mean of 0.169 (Table 76). While Bousquet2011K's CV of  
24 | 0.160 fell near the mean model CV, Bousquet2011R's CV of 0.446 was 25% larger than the  
25 | largest model CV, and over twice the second-largest model CV. Bousquet2011R's high  
26 | variability was due in part to a peak in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in 2002 followed by a large drop in  
27 | emissions between 2002 and 2004, actually becoming negative (net CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation) in 2004  
28 | before continuing at a much lower mean value from 2005 to 2009. This peak and decline  
29 | coincide with a similar peak and decline in ~~inundation~~- $F_w$  (Figure 10) and precipitation  
30 | (Figure 11). Several models (notably LPJ-MPI, LPJ-WHyMe, LPJ-WSL, DLEM, and VIC-  
31 | TEM-TOPMODEL), as well as Bousquet2011K, mirrored this drop to varying degrees, but  
32 | none dropped as much in proportion to their means or became negative. In contrast,

1 Bloom2010, spanning only the period 2003-2007, exhibited extremely little interannual  
2 | variability, perhaps due to its use of GRACE as a proxy for ~~wetland area~~inundated area and  
3 water table depth.

4 To investigate the influence of various climate drivers on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, we computed the  
5 individual correlations between the JJA CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and the following JJA drivers: CRU  
6 | air temperature (T<sub>air</sub>), CRU precipitation (P), GIEMS ~~F<sub>w</sub> fractional inundated area~~ (F<sub>inund</sub>), and  
7 | SWAMPS ~~F<sub>w</sub>~~F<sub>inund</sub>, for forward models and the two Bousquet2011 inversions, over the period  
8 1993-2004 (Table S2). Here we included four additional model configurations that we did  
9 not show in previous sections: VISIT (GIEMS-WH), VISIT (SHENG-WH), LPX-BERN, and  
10 LPX-BERN-DYPTOP. The two drivers yielding the highest correlations with JJA CH<sub>4</sub>  
11 | emissions were JJA CRU T<sub>air</sub> and JJA GIEMS ~~F<sub>w</sub>~~F<sub>inund</sub>. These two drivers also exhibited  
12 nearly zero correlation with each other over the WSL and the South and North halves (Table  
13 87). Because variations in water table position are driven by the same hydrologic factors  
14 (snowmelt, rainfall, evapotranspiration, and drainage) that drive variations in ~~F<sub>inund</sub>~~F<sub>w</sub>,  
15 correlation with ~~F<sub>inund</sub>~~F<sub>w</sub> should serve as a general measure of the influence of both surface  
16 and subsurface moisture conditions on methane emissions, even for models that were not  
17 | explicitly driven by ~~F<sub>inund</sub>~~F<sub>w</sub>. Therefore, we chose to examine model behavior in terms of  
18 correlations with JJA CRU T<sub>air</sub> and JJA GIEMS ~~F<sub>inund</sub>~~F<sub>w</sub>. As an aside, this choice was not an  
19 endorsement of GIEMS over SWAMPS (which yielded qualitatively similar results to  
20 GIEMS); it simply resulted in better separation among models.

21 The relative strengths of the correlations between models' CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and drivers varied  
22 widely, as shown in the scatter plots in Figure 12. Over the entire WSL (top left) as well as  
23 | the South and North halves (bottom left and right), the low correlation between T<sub>air</sub> and ~~F<sub>inund</sub>~~  
24 ~~F<sub>w</sub>~~ led to consistent trade-offs in the correlations between simulated emissions and T<sub>air</sub> (x-  
25 axis) or ~~F<sub>inund</sub>~~F<sub>w</sub> (y-axis). Some models (all four LPX-BERN simulations, all four VISIT  
26 | simulations, ~~and, in either the South or the North,~~ IAP-RAS, ORCHIDEE, and SDGVM) had  
27 correlations with T<sub>air</sub> that were greater than 0.7 in one or both halves of the domain; since this  
28 means that T<sub>air</sub> would explain the majority of CH<sub>4</sub> variance in a linear model, we have  
29 denoted them as “T<sub>air</sub>-dominated”. Other models (DLEM, LPJ-WSL, ~~and, in either the South~~  
30 ~~or the North,~~ DLEM2 and LPJ-MPI) were “~~F<sub>inund</sub>~~F<sub>w</sub>-dominated” in one or both halves of the  
31 domain. For the other models and inversions, no driver explained the majority of the  
32 variance. A few models -had small enough contributions from one or the other driver that the



1 resulting correlations were negative, due to the small negative correlation between  $T_{\text{air}}$  and  
2  $F_{\text{inund}}F_w$ . Neither of the two Bousquet2011 inversions exhibited strong correlations with  
3 either  $F_{\text{inund}}F_w$  or  $T_{\text{air}}$ . ~~Given the high interannual variability of the Bousquet2011 inversions,~~  
4 ~~we hesitate to treat them as an accurate depiction of wetland behavior in the WSL. However,~~  
5 ~~their lack of strong correlations with either driver~~ which might imply that models also should  
6 not exhibit strong correlations with one driver.

7 Indeed, the overarching pattern in the model correlations was that models that lacked physical  
8 and biochemical formulations appropriate to the high latitudes exhibited stronger correlations  
9 with inundation or air temperature than either the inversions or more sophisticated models.  
10 One characteristic that most of the  $F_{\text{inund}}F_w$ -dominated models (except for DLEM2) have in  
11 common is that they lack soil thermal formulations that account for soil freeze/thaw  
12 processes; conversely, most of the non-  $F_{\text{inund}}F_w$ -dominated models do have such  
13 formulations. In addition, ~~inundated~~ fractions of DLEM, DLEM2, and LPJ-WSL were  
14 explicitly driven by GIEMS  $F_w$ . Unlike the other three models, LPJ-MPI does account for the  
15 thermal effects of peat soils, which might explain LPJ-MPI's low (slightly negative)  
16 correlation with air temperature.

17 Some of the  $T_{\text{air}}$ -dominated models also lack sophisticated soil thermal physics. VISIT's  
18 strong correlation with  $T_{\text{air}}$  can be explained by the fact that its soil temperature scheme is a  
19 simple linear interpolation between current air temperature at the surface and annual average  
20 air temperature at the bottom of the soil column; as a result, VISIT's soil temperature has a  
21 1.0 correlation with air temperature. Comparing the "WH" configurations of VISIT to the  
22 default configurations, the model of Walter and Heimann (2000) had a lower correlation with  
23 air temperature than the Cao (1996) model. SDGVM also lacks soil freeze-thaw dynamics.  
24 IAP-RAS assumes all wetlands are completely saturated and holds their areas constant in  
25 time; as a result, its  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions have no dependence on soil moisture or ~~inundation~~ $F_w$ , and  
26 but strong dependence on air temperature. LPX-BERN's high correlation with air  
27 temperature is the result of a relative insensitivity of  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions to water table depth, but  
28 at present there are too few sites with multi-year observations in the region to determine  
29 whether this low sensitivity is reasonable. Nitrogen-carbon interaction (LPX-BERN (N) and  
30 LPX-BERN (DYPTOP-N)) appeared to have only a minor effect on LPX-BERN's temporal  
31 interannual variability in the North but led to a slight reduction in correlation with  $T_{\text{air}}$  in the  
32 South.

1 Finally, UW-VIC (GIEMS) had small negative correlations with both  $T_{\text{air}}$  and  $F_{\text{inund}}F_w$ , in the  
2 North, likely the result of its surface water formulation. UW-VIC's surface water dynamics  
3 had been initially calibrated using the SWAMPS product; the much larger inundated-surface  
4 water extents of GIEMS in the North resulted in substantially deeper surface water, with  
5 corresponding insulating effects, greater evaporative cooling, and longer residence times, thus  
6 lowering correlations with both observed inundation- $F_w$  and air-temperature $T_{\text{air}}$ . The large  
7 difference in behavior between UW-VIC (GIEMS) and UW-VIC (SWAMPS) implies that the  
8 differences arising from optimizing surface water dynamics to different products far  
9 outweighed the differences between UW-VIC and other models in their selection of  
10 biogeochemical parameters.

11

## 12 **4 Discussion**

### 13 **4.1 Long-Term Means and Spatial Distributions**

14 The most striking finding, in terms of long-term means and spatial distributions, was the  
15 substantial bias in  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions that resulted from using satellite inundation-surface water  
16 products or inaccurate wetland maps to delineate wetlands. Inundation-Surface water is an  
17 important component of wetland models, but it clearly is a poor proxy for wetland extent at  
18 high latitudes, given both because it both excludes the large expanses of strongly-emitting  
19 partiallynon-inundated peatlands that exist there (Section 2.1) that were missed by GIEMS  
20 and underrepresented by SWAMPS; and erroneously includes the high concentrations of large  
21 lakes there (e.g., Lehner and Döll, 2004), which do not necessarily emit methane at the same  
22 rates or via the same carbon cycling processes as wetlands (e.g., Walter et al., 2006; Pace et  
23 al., 2004). The practical difficulties in detecting inundation under forest canopies with visible  
24 or high-frequency microwave sensors (e.g., Sippel and Hamilton, 1994) compound these  
25 problems. In the case of the WSL, equating wetlands with inundation-surface water not only  
26 caused underestimation of total  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions, but also led to attribution of the majority of  
27 the region's emissions to the permafrost zone in the North. This issue is not unique to the  
28 WSL, as the collocation of permafrost, lakes, and inundation is present throughout the high  
29 latitudes (Tarnocai et al., 2009; Lehner and Döll, 2004; Brown et al., 1998). Indeed, in their  
30 analysis of the Hudson Bay Lowland (HBL), Melton et al. (2013) found that three of the four  
31 lowest emissions estimates were from "IS" models (CLM4Me, DLEM, and LPJ-WSL),

1 although whether this was due to a bias in area was not examined. Given present concerns  
2 over the potential liberation of labile carbon from thawing permafrost over the next century  
3 (Koven et al., 2011), it is crucial to avoid under- or over-estimating emissions from  
4 permafrost wetlands.

5 It is therefore important for modelers – both forward and inverse - to use accurate wetland  
6 maps such as Peregon et al. (2008), Sheng et al. (2004), or Lehner and Döll (2004) in their  
7 model development, whether as a static input parameter or as a reference for evaluating  
8 prognostically-computed ~~wetland-CH<sub>4</sub>-producing~~ areas; and to account for the existence of  
9 non-inundated portions within these wetlands in which methane emissions have a dependence  
10 on water table depth. Maps such as Tarnocai et al. (2009) may be inappropriate unless  
11 restricting simulations to permafrost wetlands. Ideally, modelers would be able to draw on a  
12 global version of the high-resolution map of Peregon et al (2008) that not only delineates  
13 wetlands, but also identifies the major sub-types (e.g., sphagnum-dominated or sedge-  
14 dominated, as in Lupascu et al., 2012) to which different methane emissions parameters could  
15 potentially be applied. When using ~~inundation-surface water~~ products to constrain simulated  
16 inundated extents, modelers must be sure either to mask out permanent lakes and large rivers,  
17 using a dataset such as GLWD (Lehner and Döll, 2004) or MOD44W (Carroll et al. 2009); or  
18 better, to implement carbon cycling processes that are appropriate to these forms of surface  
19 water.

## 20 **4.2 Temporal Variability, Environmental Drivers, and Model Features**

21 Another notable finding was that models that lacked physical and biochemical formulations  
22 appropriate to the high latitudes exhibited more extreme correlations with ~~inundation-F<sub>w</sub>~~ or air  
23 temperature than either inversions or more sophisticated models. In other words, high-  
24 latitude biogeophysical processes - specifically, soil freeze/thaw, the insulating effects of  
25 snow and peat, and relationships between emissions and water table depth in peatlands - make  
26 a substantial difference to the sensitivities of emissions to environmental drivers, at least over  
27 the 12-year period of this study. Even if we do not fully trust the Bousquet2011 inversions, it  
28 seems reasonable to assume that the models that simulate high-latitude-specific processes are  
29 more likely to be correct in this regard than the other models. These sensitivities have a  
30 bearing on models' responses to potential future climate change (e.g., Riley et al., 2011;  
31 Koven et al., 2011).

1 Thus, it appears that the following model features are desirable for reliable simulations of  
2 boreal wetlands:

- 3     ▪ Realistic soil thermal physics, including freeze-thaw dynamics. Most of the models  
4     that were highly correlated with one driver (LPJ-WSL, DLEM, LPJ-MPI, VISIT, and  
5     SDGVM) lacked this feature.
- 6     ▪ Accurate representations of peat soils. Again, many of the models with high  
7     correlations with one driver (LPJ-WSL, DLEM, VISIT, and SDGVM) lacked this  
8     feature.
- 9     ▪ Realistic ~~CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from~~ representations of unsaturated (non-inundated)  
10     peatlands, including the dependence of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions on water table depth. LPJ-  
11     WSL, an  $F_{inund}F_w$ -dominated model, effectively set non-inundated CH<sub>4</sub> emissions to  
12     zero because it did not simulate wetlands outside of the time-varying GIEMS  
13     inundated-surface water area. At the other extreme, IAP-RAS, a  $T_{air}$ -dominated  
14     model, treated all wetlands in their static map as if they were inundated saturated,  
15     thereby eliminating the contribution of soil moisture variability. The relative  
16     insensitivity of LPX-BERN's emissions to water table position similarly reduced the  
17     contribution of soil moisture variability, although there are too few observations to say  
18     whether this is unreasonable.
- 19     ▪ ~~No additional features that are poorly constrained. The dynamic surface water storage in  
20     UW-VIC was optimized for the SWAMPS inundation product, and therefore performed poorly  
21     in the UW-VIC (GIEMS) configuration.~~

22 Other model features either made relatively little difference in this study or were severely  
23 underrepresented, but warrant further investigation. This is especially true of biogeochemical  
24 processes. For example, whether models contained dynamic vegetation (phenology and/or  
25 community composition) or dynamic peatland (peat accumulation and loss) components did  
26 not affect performance. However, our 12-year study period was likely too short to see the  
27 effects of these features. Changes in vegetation community composition may become more  
28 important in end-of-century projections (e.g., Alo and Wang, 2008; Kaplan and New, 2006).  
29 In particular, recent studies (Koven et al., 2011; Ringeval et al., 2011; Riley et al., 2011) have  
30 found a “wetland feedback”, in which vegetation growth in response to future climate change

1 can lower water tables and reduce inundated extents via increased evapotranspiration. This  
2 drying effect reduces end-of-century CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from an approximate doubling of current  
3 rates without the feedback to only a 20-30% increase with the feedback. Similarly,  
4 hydrologic and chemical changes in peat soils, in response to disturbances such as permafrost  
5 thaw or drainage for mining or agricultural purposes, may be important in end-of-century  
6 projections (e.g., Strack et al., 2004). However, to properly assess the accuracy of dynamic  
7 vegetation or peatland schemes and their effects on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, a longer historical study  
8 period, along with longer observational records (including observations of species  
9 compositions and soil carbon densities), would be necessary.

10 Other features may warrant further study. Replacing the Cao (1996) model with the model of  
11 Walter and Heimann (2000) modestly lowered VISIT's otherwise extreme correlation with  
12 T<sub>air</sub>. It is not clear if this is an inherent difference between the two formulations or just an  
13 artifact of their parameter values in VISIT, but it might imply that the Walter and Heimann  
14 model is more appropriate for applications at high latitudes. Similarly, nitrogen-carbon  
15 interaction had a ~~small-substantial latitude-dependent~~ effect on mean CH<sub>4</sub> emissions for LPX-  
16 BERN (Table 6) in the South. Again, the size of the effect might vary with model  
17 implementation. Again, the size of the effect could be model-dependent, and potential  
18 impacts on sensitivities to climate change might become more apparent over a longer analysis  
19 period.

20 Some of the scatter in model sensitivities to drivers may come from differences in the values  
21 of parameters related to methane production, methane oxidation, and plant-aided transport,  
22 which recent studies (Riley et al., 2011; Berrittella and van Huissteden, 2011) have found to  
23 be particularly influential over wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Investigation of these parameters  
24 over the WSL in a model intercomparison can be difficult due to the many ~~larger-large~~  
25 differences among model formulations. As shown in Sections 3.3 and 3.4.2, the methods of  
26 biogeochemical parameter selection had far less influence over the model results than the  
27 presence or absence of major features such as sophisticated soil thermal physics. Such a  
28 comparison would require examination of a subset of the models that have sufficiently similar  
29 snow, soil, and water table formulations in order to isolate the effects of microbial and  
30 vegetative parameters.

1 Other features that were not investigated here could have potentially large impacts on the  
2 response of high-latitude wetlands to future climate change. One such feature is  
3 acclimatization, in which soil microbial communities gradually adapt to the long-term mean  
4 soil temperature. This feature has been explored in the ORCHIDEE model (Koven et al.,  
5 2011; Ringeval et al., 2010), where it greatly reduced the response of wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emissions  
6 to long-term temperature changes. Unfortunately, the version of ORCHIDEE used in this  
7 study and in the original WETCHIMP study (Melton et al., 2013; Wania et al., 2013) did not  
8 use acclimatization. Acclimatization likely would lower ORCHIDEE's correlation with T<sub>air</sub>  
9 over time scales long enough for changes in the long-term mean to be as large as interannual  
10 anomalies. Another feature explored by Koven et al. (2011) is the liberation of ancient labile  
11 carbon stored in permafrost. As with dynamic vegetation, a robust evaluation of these effects  
12 would require a much longer study period.

### 13 **4.3 Future Needs for Observations and Inversions**

14 The wide disagreement among estimates from observations and inversions hampers our  
15 ability to assess model performance. Given the large influence that wetland maps can have on  
16 emissions estimates (not only in the WSL, but over larger areas, as shown by Petrescu et al.,  
17 2010), care must be taken to select appropriate maps. Ideally, global satellite or map products  
18 such as the GLWD (which omitted the northernmost wetlands in the WSL) should be  
19 validated against more intensively ground-truthed regional maps such as Sheng2004 and  
20 Peregon2008 where such maps exist. Similarly, resolving the discrepancies between the  
21 GIEMS and SWAMPS remote sensing ~~inundation~~surface water products would require  
22 verification against independent observations.

23 The large discrepancy between the spatial distributions of emissions from Glagolev2011 and  
24 Kim2011 (concentrated in the South) and Winderlich2012 and Bousquet2011K (concentrated  
25 in the North) may be due to several reasons. First, the inversions' posterior estimates reflect  
26 their prior distributions: Kim2011 used an earlier version of Glagolev2011 (Glagolev et al.,  
27 2010) as its prior, while Winderlich2012 and Bousquet2011K both used the Kaplan (2002)  
28 distribution as their prior. Second, different types and locations of observations were used:  
29 Glagolev2011 was based on in situ chamber measurements of CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes, 80% of which were  
30 obtained south of the Ob' River; while Winderlich2012 was based on atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub>  
31 concentrations observed at towers near or north of the Ob' River. Third, observations were  
32 not taken from the same years. Finally, the Winderlich2012 wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emissions may have

1 been influenced by assumed emission rates from fossil fuel extraction and biomass burning,  
2 which were not adjusted during the inversion. Efforts like the revision of Glagolev2011 will  
3 certainly help in resolving some discrepancies, but all estimates would benefit from  
4 incorporating observations over long time periods and wider areas to reduce uncertainties in  
5 their long-term means.

6 The global inversions were also subject to uncertainties. For example, while the  
7 Bousquet2011 inversions imply that wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in the WSL are not strongly  
8 correlated with either ~~inundation- $E_w$~~  or air temperature, the Bousquet2011 inversions'  
9 temporal behaviors must be evaluated with caution. The reference inversion's coefficient of  
10 variability (CV), which resulted in net negative annual emissions over the WSL in 2004, was  
11 substantially higher than the highest model CV. Bousquet et al (2006) noted that their  
12 inversions were more sensitive to the interannual variability of wetland emissions than to their  
13 mean; accordingly, it is possible that the Bousquet2011 inversions underestimated the long-  
14 term mean, thereby raising the CV. Another possibility is that the monthly coefficients that  
15 optimized total emissions over all of boreal Asia were not optimal over the WSL alone, since  
16 the environmental drivers interacting with wetlands elsewhere may not have been in phase  
17 with those in the WSL. A further possibility, given credence by the reference inversion's  
18 consistent net negative emissions over all of Boreal Asia in May and June, is that errors in  
19 other components of the inversion (e.g., atmospheric OH concentrations, methane oxidation  
20 rates, background methane concentrations advected from elsewhere) influenced wetland  
21 emissions. Finally, other methane sources that were not accounted for in the inversion might  
22 have been attributed to wetlands; for example: geological CH<sub>4</sub> seeps (Etiope et al., 2008),  
23 leaks from gas pipelines (Ulmishek, 2003), or lakes (Walter et al., 2006).

24 At the other extreme, the Bloom2010 ~~inversion-product~~ exhibited almost no spatial or  
25 temporal variability. This might be an artifact of using GRACE data as a proxy for wetland  
26 inundation and water table levels. The spatio-temporal accuracy of ~~this inversion~~Bloom2010  
27 must also be questioned, given that it did not use an atmospheric transport model or account  
28 for methane oxidation in the atmosphere. ~~When combined with the inversion's coarse~~  
29 ~~resolution, these characteristics prevented~~Thus, while Bloom2010 ~~from being useful in our~~  
30 ~~study for anything other than comparing~~provided a useful estimate of long-term mean  
31 emissions, it was less helpful in constraining model responses to climate drivers.



1 Another general limitation of inversions and observations, distinct from estimates of long-  
2 term mean emissions, is the lack of sufficiently long periods of record to assess model  
3 sensitivities to environmental drivers and climate change. The Bousquet2011 inversions and  
4 the SWAMPS ~~inundation-surface water~~ product are long enough to begin to address this issue  
5 at the global scale, but the Bousquet2011 inversions are not optimized for the WSL. Regional  
6 inversions such as Kim2011 and Winderlich2012, which might offer more spatially accurate  
7 estimates for the WSL than the Bousquet2011 inversions, only offer a single year of posterior  
8 emissions. Long records of in situ observations of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, and the factors that most  
9 directly influence these emissions (e.g., soil temperature and water table depth) only exist in a  
10 handful of locations (e.g., the Plotnikovo/Bakchar Bog in the WSL; Panikov and Dedysh,  
11 2000; Friberg et al., 2003; Glagolev et al., 2011). Indeed, the paucity of long in situ records  
12 limited our ability to evaluate LPX-BERN's relatively low sensitivity to water table depth.  
13 Year-round observations would also be helpful, as winter emissions are sparsely sampled  
14 (Rinne et al., 2007; Kim et al., 2007; Panikov and Dedysh, 2000) and inversions disagree as  
15 to the magnitude of winter emissions (Figure 8). The recent implementation of tower  
16 networks in the WSL (Sasakawa et al., 2010; Winderlich et al., 2010) show some promise in  
17 this regard, as their observations are both multi-year and year-round. More comprehensive  
18 observations of emissions from non-wetland methane sources such as seeps, pipe leaks, and  
19 lakes, most of which have so far not been accounted for in inversions (although pipe leaks are  
20 now being considered; Berchet et al., 2014), would be beneficial in increasing the accuracy of  
21 inversions.

22

## 23 **5 Conclusion**

24 We compared CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from 21 large-scale wetland models, including the models from  
25 the WETCHIMP project, to 5 inversions and several observational datasets of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions,  
26 ~~inundated-surface water~~ area, and total ~~CH<sub>4</sub>-producing-wetland~~ area over the West Siberian  
27 Lowland (WSL), over the period 1993-2004. Despite the large scatter of individual estimates,  
28 mean estimates of annual total emissions over the WSL from forward models ( $5.34 \pm 0.54$  Tg  
29 CH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>), inversions ( $6.06 \pm 1.22$  Tg CH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>), and observations ( $3.91 \pm 1.29$  Tg CH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>)  
30 largely agreed. However, it was clear that reliance on satellite ~~inundation-surface water~~  
31 products alone to delineate wetlands caused substantial biases in long-term mean CH<sub>4</sub>  
32 emissions over the region. Models and inversions largely agreed on the timing of the seasonal



1 cycle of emissions over the WSL, but some outliers in the timing of peaks in simulated  
2 inundated area indicated potential inaccuracies in simulating the timing of snow melt and  
3 drainage rates. Models and inversions also displayed a wide range of interannual variability:  
4 the CV of the Bousquet2011 reference inversion was more than twice the CVs of all but one  
5 model, while the CV of the Bloom2010 inversion was essentially zero. Summer CH<sub>4</sub>  
6 emissions from the Bousquet2011 inversions exhibited only weak correlations with summer  
7 air temperature or inundation. Models that accounted for soil thermal physics and realistic  
8 methane-soil moisture relationships similarly tended to have low to moderate correlations  
9 with both inundation and air temperature, due in part to the competing influences of  
10 temperature and moisture, and in part to the insulating effects of snow and peat soils. In  
11 contrast, models lacking these formulations tended to be either inundation- or temperature-  
12 dominated (either inundation or temperature accounted for more than 50% of the variance).

13 Based on our findings, we have the following recommendations for simulating CH<sub>4</sub> emissions  
14 from high-latitude wetlands:

- 15 • Forward and inverse models should use the best available wetland maps, either as  
16 inputs or as targets for optimization of dynamic wetland schemes. Satellite-derived  
17 ~~inundation~~ surface water products are a poor proxy for wetland extent, due to a)  
18 misclassifying large areas of high-latitude peatlands that can emit methane when the  
19 water table is below the surface; b) often including permanent water bodies, whose  
20 carbon cycling dynamics can be substantially different from those of wetlands; and c)  
21 difficulties in detecting inundation under forest canopies. To improve the accuracy of  
22 global wetland map products may require combining information from satellite  
23 products and canonical maps.
- 24 • Models must account for emissions from non-inundated wetlands, with realistic  
25 relationships between emissions and water table depth.
- 26 • Models should implement realistic soil thermal physics and snow schemes, and  
27 account for the presence of peat soils at high latitudes.
- 28 • Multi-year and multi-decade observational and inversion products are crucial for  
29 assessing whether model simulations capture the correct sensitivities of wetland CH<sub>4</sub>  
30 emissions to environmental drivers.

31

## 1 **Author Contributions**

2 T. J. Bohn and J. R. Melton jointly conceived and designed this study with input from J. O.  
3 Kaplan. J. R. Melton provided the results from the original WETCHIMP models. T. J. Bohn,  
4 A. Ito, T. Kleinen, R. Spahni, B. D. Stocker, B. Zhang, and X. Zhu provided results for the  
5 other non-WETCHIMP models. R. Schroeder and K. C. McDonald provided the SWAMPS  
6 dataset. M. V. Glagolev provided the Glagolev et al. (2011) dataset and information on fossil  
7 methane seeps. S. Maksyutov provided the Kim et al. (2011) inversion and the Peregon et al.  
8 (2008) wetland map. V. Brovkin provided the Winderlich (2012) inversion. T. J. Bohn  
9 processed and reformatted results of all models, observations, and inversions; and analyzed  
10 the results. T. J. Bohn and J. R. Melton collaborated on all figures. T. J. Bohn prepared the  
11 manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

12

## 13 **Acknowledgements**

14 The WETCHIMP project received support for collaboration from the COST Action  
15 TERRABITES (ES0804). We thank Dr. Dennis P. Lettenmaier at the University of  
16 Washington and NASA grant NNX11AR16G from the Northern Eurasian Earth Science  
17 Partnership Initiative (NEESPI) for the use of computational resources. T. J. Bohn was  
18 supported by grant 1216037 from the U.S. National Science Foundation (NSF) Science,  
19 Engineering and Education for Sustainability (SEES) Post-Doctoral Fellowship program. J.  
20 R. Melton was supported by a National Science and Engineering Research Council of Canada  
21 (NSERC) visiting Post-Doctoral Fellowship. T. Kleinen was supported by the German  
22 Ministry of Education and Research (CarboPerm-Project, BMBF Grant No. 03G0836C). R.  
23 Spahni was supported by the Swiss National Science Foundation and by the European  
24 Commission through the FP7 project Past4Future (grant No. 243908). B. D. Stocker was  
25 supported by ERC FP7 project EMBRACE (grant No. 282672). H. Tian and B. Zhang were  
26 supported by US National Science Foundation (EaSM: AGS-1243220). Q. Zhuang and X.  
27 Zhu were supported by the US Department of Energy with project No. DE-SC0007007. M.  
28 V. Glagolev was supported by a grant in accordance with the Tomsk State University  
29 Competitiveness Improvement Program. S. Maksyutov was supported by Grant A-1202 of  
30 Environment Research and Technology Development Fund (ERTDF), Ministry of  
31 Environment Japan. S. N. Denisov and A. V. Eliseev were supported by the Russian  
32 President grant NSh-3894.2014.5 and by the Russian Foundation for Basic Research grant 15-

1 05-02457. A. Gallego-Sala was supported by a Natural Environment Research Council grant  
2 (NERC Standard grant NE/I012915/1). W. J. Riley and Z. M. Subin were supported by the  
3 US Department of Energy contract No. DE-AC02-05CH11231 under the Regional and Global  
4 Climate Modeling (RGCM) Program and the Next-Generation Ecosystem Experiments  
5 (NGEE Arctic) project. We thank Dr. Ben Poulter, at Montana State University, and Dr. Elke  
6 Hodson, at the U.S. Department of Energy, for the results of LPJ-WSL. We thank Dr. Rita  
7 Wania for the results of LPJ-WhyMe. We thank Dr. Bruno Ringeval, at the Institut National  
8 de la Recherche Agronomique, France, for the results of ORCHIDEE. We thank Dr. Peter  
9 Hopcroft and Dr. Joy Singarayer, at University of Bristol, U.K., for the results of SDGVM.  
10 We thank Dr. A. Anthony Bloom, at the University of Edinburgh, U.K., for the Bloom et al.  
11 (2010) inversion. We thank Dr. Philippe Bousquet, at the Laboratoire des Sciences du Climat  
12 et de l'Environnement, France, for the Reference and Kaplan inversions from Bousquet et al.  
13 (2011). We thank Dr. Catherine Prigent, at the Observatoire de Paris, France, and Dr. Fabrice  
14 Papa, at the Laboratoire d'Etudes en Géophysique et Oceanographie Spatiales, France, for the  
15 GIEMS dataset. We thank Dr. Laurence Smith at the University of California, Los Angeles,  
16 for the Sheng et al. (2004) dataset. We thank Dr. Anna Peregon, at Laboratoire des Sciences  
17 du Climat et de l'Environnement, France, for the Peregon et al. (2008) dataset. We thank Dr.  
18 Elaine Matthews, at NASA/Goddard Institute for Space Studies, for valuable feedback.  
19

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# 1 Tables

2 Table 1. Observations and inversions used in this study.

Name	Reference	Description	Temporal Domain	Temporal Resolution	Spatial Domain	Spatial Resolution
Wetland Maps						
Sheng2004	Sheng et al. (2004)	Wetland map of WSL based on digitization of regional maps of Markov (1971), Matukhin and Danilov (2000), and Romanova et al (1977). Supplemented with peat cores.	2 <sup>nd</sup> half of 20 <sup>th</sup> Century	Static map	West Siberia	1:2,500,000 north of 65° N, 1:1,000,000 south of 65° N
Peregon2008	Peregon et al. (2008)	Wetland map of WSL based on digitization of regional map of Romanova et al (1977). Wetland types identified by remote sensing and field validation.	2 <sup>nd</sup> half of 20 <sup>th</sup> Century	Static map	West Siberia	1:2,500,000
Northern Circumpolar Soil Carbon Database (NCSCD)	Tarnocai et al. (2009)	Map of <del>wetlands</del> <u>soil types</u> across the northern circumpolar permafrost region. Over the WSL, based on maps of Fridland (1988) and Naumov (1993).	2 <sup>nd</sup> half of 20 <sup>th</sup> Century	Static map	Northern circumpolar permafrost region	1:2,500,000
Global Lake and Wetland Database (GLWD)	Lehner and Döll (2004)	Global lake and wetland map. Wetlands were the union of four global datasets.	2 <sup>nd</sup> half of 20 <sup>th</sup> Century	Static map	Global	1:1,000,000
<del>Inundation Extent</del> <u>Surface Water</u>						
Global Inundation Extent from Mult-Satellites (GIEMS)	Papa et al. (2010)	Remote sensing <del>inundation</del> <u>surface water</u> product based on visible/ <del>near-infrared</del> (AVHRR) and active (SSM/I) and passive (ERS) microwave sensors.	1993-2004	Daily, aggregated to monthly	Global	25km equal area grid, aggregated to 0.5 × 0.5° <del>degree</del>
Surface Water Microwave Product	Schroeder et al. (2010)	Remote sensing <del>inundation</del> <u>surface water</u> product based on active (SeaWinds-on-QuikSCAT, ERS, and ASCAT) and passive (SSM/I,	1992-2013	Daily, aggregated to	Global	25km equal area grid, aggregated to 0.5 × 0.5°

Series (SWAMPS)		SSM/I(S) microwave sensors.			monthly		degree
CH <sub>4</sub> Inventory							
Glagolev2011	Glagolev et al. (2011)	In situ flux sampling along transect spanning West Siberia, 2006-2010; statistical model of fluxes as function of wetland type applied to map of Peregon et al. (2008).	2006-2010	Monthly climatology	West Siberia		0.5 × 0.5°-degree
CH <sub>4</sub> Inversions							
Bloom2010	Bloom et al. (2010)	Global optimization of relationship between atmospheric CH <sub>4</sub> concentrations (Bovensmann et al., 1999), NCEP/NCAR surface temperatures (Kalnay et al., 1996), and GRACE gravity anomalies (Tapley et al., 2004)	2003-2007	Annual	Global		3 × 3°-degree
Bousquet2011R	Bousquet et al. (2011), Bousquet et al. (2006)	Global inversion using LMDZ with Matthews and Fung (1987) inventory as the wetland prior.	1993-2009	Monthly	Global		1×1°-degree resolution for prior, multiplied by single coefficient for all of Boreal Asia
Bousquet2011K	Bousquet et al. (2011), Bousquet et al. (2006)	Global inversion using LMDZ with emissions from Kaplan (2002) as the wetland prior.	1993-2009	Monthly	Global		1×1°-degree resolution for prior, multiplied by single coefficient for all of Boreal Asia
Kim2011	Kim et al. (2011)	Global inversion, with Glagolev et al (2010) as prior in WSL, Fung et al. (1991) elsewhere	2002-2007	Monthly climatology	Regional		1 × 1°-degree resolution for prior, multiplied by single coefficient for all of WSL
Winderlich2012	Winderlich (2012), Schuldt et al. (2013)	Regional inversion over West Siberia, with Kaplan (2002) as the wetland prior	2009	Monthly climatology	Regional		1 × 1°-degree resolution for both prior and coefficients over WSL

1 Table 2. Participating models and their relevant hydrologic features.

Model	Reference	Configuration <sup>1</sup>	Period	<del>Observational Constraints on Contributing-CH<sub>4</sub>-Producing Areas</del> Observational-Constraints	Unsaturated Emissions <sup>6</sup>	Water Table <sup>4</sup>	Organic Soil <sup>7</sup>	Soil Freeze/Thaw <sup>8</sup>			
				Inundation Surface Water <sup>2</sup>	Topography <sup>3</sup>	Maps <sup>4</sup>	Code <sup>5</sup>				
CLM4ME	Riley et al. (2011)	CLM4ME	1993-2004	GIEMS	-	-	FS <sup>a</sup>	Yes	Uniform	Yes	Yes
DLEM	Tian et al. (2010, 2011a,b, 2012)	DLEM	1993-2004	GIEMS	-	-	FS	Yes	Uniform	No	No
DLEM2	Tian et al. (2010, 2011a,b, 2012)	DLEM2	1993-2004	GIEMS	-	-	FS	Yes	Uniform	Yes	Yes
IAP-RAS	Mokhov et al. (2007), Eliseev et al. (2008)	IAP-RAS	1993-2004	-	-	CDIAC NDP017 <sup>b</sup>	M,M+	No	n/a	Yes	Yes
LPJ-Bern	Spahni et al. (2011), Zürcher et al. (2013)	LPJ-Bern	1993-2004	GIEMS	-	NCSCD	M	Yes	Uniform	Yes	Yes

LPJ-MPI	Kleinen et al. (2012)	LPJ-MPI	1993-2010	-	Hydro1K <sup>c</sup>	-	T	Yes	TOPMODEL	Yes	No
LPJ-WHyMe	Wania et al. (2009a,b; 2010)	LPJ-WHyMe	1993-2004	-	-	NCSCD	M	Yes	Microtopography	Yes	Yes
LPJ-WSL	Hodson et al. (2011)	LPJ-WSL	1993-2004	GIEMS	-	-	<del>S</del>	No	n/a	No	No
LPX-BERN	Spahni et al. (2013), Stocker et al. (2013),	LPX-BERN	1993-2010	GIEMS for inundated non-peatland wetlands	-	Peregon2008 for peatland fraction	M,M+	Yes	Uniform	Yes	Yes
		LPX-BERN (N)	1993-2010	GIEMS for inundated non-peatland wetlands	-	Peregon2008 for peatland fraction	M,M+	Yes	Uniform	Yes	Yes
ORCHIDEE	Ringeval et al. (2010)	ORCHIDEE	1993-2004	GIEMS	Hydro1K <sup>c</sup>	-	<del>S</del> <sup>a</sup>	Yes	TOPMODEL	Yes	Yes
SDGVM	Hopcroft et al. (2011)	SDGVM	1993-2004	-	ETOPO 2v2 <sup>e</sup>	-	T	Yes	Uniform	No	No
UW-VIC	Bohn et al. (2013)	UW-VIC (GIEMS)	1993-2004	GIEMS	SRTM <sup>f</sup> , ASTER <sup>g</sup>	Sheng2004	M,M+	Yes	Microtopography	Yes	Yes

		UW-VIC (SWAMPS)	1993-2010	SWAMPS	SRTM <sup>f</sup> , ASTER <sup>g</sup>	Sheng2004	M,M+	Yes	Microtopography	Yes	Yes
VIC-TEM- TOPMODEL	Zhu et al. (2014)	VIC-TEM- TOPMODEL	1993-2004	GIEMS	Hydro1K <sup>c</sup>		T	Yes	TOPMODEL	No	Yes
VISIT	Ito and Inatomi (2012)	VISIT (GLWD)	1993-2010	-	-	GLWD	M,M+	Yes	Uniform	No	No
		VISIT (SHENG)	1993-2010	-	-	Sheng2004	M,M+	Yes	Uniform	No	No
		VISIT (GLWD- WH)	1993-2010	-	-	GLWD	M,M+	Yes	Uniform	No	No
		VISIT (SHENG- WH)	1993-2010	-	-	Sheng2004	M,M+	Yes	Uniform	No	No

1

2 <sup>1</sup>Configuration: Short name identifying both the model and the parameter/feature settings for a particular simulation; for models that  
3 contributed only a single simulation, the configuration equals the model name

4 <sup>2</sup>Surface Water: Name of time-varying surface water product (if any) used as a constraint on CH<sub>4</sub>-contributing area

5 <sup>3</sup>Topography: Name of topographic product (if any) used as a constraint on CH<sub>4</sub>-contributing area

6 <sup>4</sup>Map: Name of static wetland map product (if any) used as a constraint on CH<sub>4</sub>-contributing area



1 <sup>5</sup>Code: Single-letter code summarizing the types of CH<sub>4</sub>-contributing area constraints used (“S” = surface water only; “T” = topography with  
2 or without surface water constraint; “M” = static wetland map with or without surface water or topography constraints; “M+” = subset of M  
3 that excludes the NCSCD)

4 <sup>6</sup>Water Table: approach used to account for water table depths (“uniform” = water table depth is the same at all wetland points within the grid  
5 cell; “TOPMODEL” = water table depth varies spatially within the grid cell as a function of topography, following a TOPMODEL approach  
6 (Beven and Kirkby, 1979); “microtopography” = water table depth varies spatially within the grid cell as a function of assumed  
7 microtopography; “n/a” = not applicable)

8 <sup>7</sup>Soil Freeze/Thaw: “Yes” or “No” indicates whether the model accounts for the freezing and thawing of water within the soil column

9 <sup>a</sup>CLM4Me and ORCHIDEE are listed as “IS” due to tuning/rescaling of inundated areas to match GIEMS, thus destroying contribution of  
10 topography.

11 <sup>b</sup><http://cdiac.esd.ornl.gov/ndps/ndp017.html>

12 <sup>c</sup>Hydro1K (2013)

13 <sup>d</sup>Amante and Eakins (2009)

14 <sup>e</sup>ETOPO (2006)

15 <sup>f</sup>Farr et al. (2007)

16 <sup>g</sup>NASA (2001)

17

1 Table 3. Participating models and their relevant biogeochemical features.

Model	$R_{anaerobic}/R_{aerobic}$ <sup>1</sup>	C Substrate Source <sup>1</sup> Source <sup>2</sup>	pH <sup>3</sup>	Redox State <sup>4</sup>	Dynamic Vegetation <sup>5</sup>	Nitrogen-Carbon Cycle Interaction <sup>6</sup>	Saturated NPP Inhibition <sup>7</sup>	Parameter Selection <sup>8</sup>
CLM4Me	Variable	Cpool	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Optimized to various sites
DLEM	Variable	NPP & Cpool	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Optimized to various sites
DLEM2	Variable	NPP & Cpool	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Optimized to various sites
IAP-RAS	n/a	Cpool	No	No	No	No	No	Literature; Scaled to global total
LPJ-Bern	Constant	NPP & Cpool	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	Optimized to various sites; Scaled to global total
LPJ-MPI	Constant	Cpool	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	Literature
LPJ-WHyMe	Constant	NPP & Cpool	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	Literature; Scaled to global total
LPJ-WSL	Constant	Cpool	No	No	Yes	No	No	Literature
LPX-BERN	Constant	NPP & Cpool	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	Optimized to various sites; Scaled to global total
LPX-BERN (DYPTOP)	Constant	NPP & Cpool	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	Optimized to various sites; Scaled to global total
LPX-BERN (N)	Constant	NPP & Cpool	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Optimized to various sites; Scaled to global total
LPX-BERN (DYPTOP-N)	Constant	NPP & Cpool	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Optimized to various sites; Scaled to global total
ORCHIDEE	Variable	Cpool	No	No	Yes	No	No	Literature and Optimized to various sites
SDGVM	Variable	Cpool	No	No	Yes	No	No	Literature

UW-VIC(GIEMS)	Variable	NPP	No	No	No	No	Yes	Optimized to sites in Glagolev2011
UW-VIC(SWAMPS)	Variable	NPP	No	No	No	No	Yes	Optimized to sites in Glagolev2011
VIC-TEM- TOPMODEL	Variable	NPP	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Optimized to various sites
VISIT(GLWD)	Variable	Cpool	No	No	No	Yes (only affects upland CH4 oxidation)	No	Literature
VISIT(GLWD-WH)	Variable	NPP	No	No	No	Yes (only affects upland CH4 oxidation)	No	Literature
VISIT(Sheng)	Variable	Cpool	No	No	No	Yes (only affects upland CH4 oxidation)	No	Literature
VISIT(Sheng-WH)	Variable	NPP	No	No	No	Yes (only affects upland CH4 oxidation)	No	Literature

1 <sup>1</sup>R<sub>anaerobic</sub>/R<sub>aerobic</sub>: How the ratio of anaerobic to aerobic respiration is handled in the model (“Constant” = ratio is held constant; “Variable” =  
2 ratio varies either as an explicit function of environmental conditions or as the result of separate governing equations for aerobic and  
3 anaerobic respiration; “n/a” = not applicable)

4 <sup>a</sup>Sources<sup>2</sup>Carbon Substrate Source: “Cpool” = soil carbon pool; “NPP” = root exudates, in proportion to net primary productivity

5 <sup>3</sup>pH: indicates whether soil pH influences CH<sub>4</sub> emissions

6 <sup>4</sup>Redox State: indicates whether soil redox state influences CH<sub>4</sub> emissions

7 <sup>5</sup>Dynamic Vegetation: indicates whether vegetation species abundances change in response to environmental conditions

8 <sup>6</sup>Nitrogen-Carbon Cycle Interaction: indicates whether interactions between the nitrogen and carbon cycles influence CH<sub>4</sub> emissions

<sup>7</sup>Saturated NPP Inhibition: indicates whether NPP decreases under wet soil conditions for any plant species

<sup>8</sup>Parameter Selection: method of choosing parameter values (“Literature” = values chosen from ranges reported in literature; “Optimized” = values chosen to minimize the difference between simulated and observed values, either of CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes at selected sites or of global atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations)

Table 4. Estimates of June-July-August CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from subsets of the participating models, over the entire WSL and its Southern (< 61° N) and Northern halves, for the period 1993-2004. Biases were computed with respect to the Glagolev2011/Peregon2008 estimates.

Subset	Average June-July-August CH <sub>4</sub> (Tg CH <sub>4</sub> mon <sup>-1</sup> )									Average June-July-August <u>Contributing-CH<sub>4</sub>-Producing</u> Area (10 <sup>3</sup> km <sup>2</sup> )								
	WSL			South			North			WSL			South			North		
	Mean	Bias	Std. Dev.	Mean	Bias	Std. Dev.	Mean	Bias	Std. Dev.	Mean	Bias	Std. Dev.	Mean	Bias	Std. Dev.	Mean	Bias	Std. Dev.
I	1.10	0.14	0.37	0.22	-0.45	0.16	0.89	0.59	0.24	388	-291	136	66	-270	31	321	-21	112
T	1.42	0.46	0.82	0.81	0.14	0.46	0.61	0.31	0.39	682	4	325	294	-42	173	389	46	153
M	1.32	0.36	1.01	0.69	0.02	0.97	0.64	0.34	0.40	605	-74	113	250	-87	109	355	12	105
M+	1.30	0.34	1.17	0.85	0.18	1.10	0.45	0.16	0.15	633	-46	93	306	-30	34	327	-15	95

1 Table 5. Spatial correlations between simulated average annual CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and GIEMS  
 2 inundated surface water area fraction (F<sub>w</sub>).

Model	Correlation	Model	Correlation	Model	Correlation
CLM4Me	0.69	LPJ-WHyMe	0.45	UW-VIC (GIEMS)	0.44
DLEM	0.70	LPJ-WSL	0.97	UW-VIC (SWAMPS)	0.11
DLEM2	0.21	LPX-BERN (N)	0.41	VIC-TEM-TOPMODEL	0.41
IAP-RAS	-0.03	LPX-BERN (DYPTOP-N)	0.28	VISIT (GLWD)	0.62
LPJ-Bern	0.56	ORCHIDEE	0.61	VISIT (Sheng)	0.65
LPJ-MPI	0.01	SDGVM	0.09		

3  
 4 Table 6. Mean CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from LPX-BERN, 1993-2010, for the entire WSL and the  
 5 South and North halves of the domain.

<u>Configuration</u>	<u>Mean [TgCH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>]</u>		
	<u>WSL</u>	<u>South</u>	<u>North</u>
<u>LPX-BERN</u>	<u>3.81</u>	<u>1.98</u>	<u>1.83</u>
<u>LPX-BERN (DYPTOP)</u>	<u>3.17</u>	<u>1.38</u>	<u>1.79</u>
<u>LPX-BERN (N)</u>	<u>3.08</u>	<u>1.92</u>	<u>1.17</u>
<u>LPX-BERN (DYPTOP-N)</u>	<u>2.44</u>	<u>1.37</u>	<u>1.08</u>
<u>Differences</u>			
<u>LPX-BERN (N) – LPX-BERN</u>	<u>-0.73</u>	<u>-0.06</u>	<u>-0.66</u>
<u>LPX-BERN (DYPTOP-N)</u>			
<u>– LPX_BERN (DYPTOP)</u>	<u>-0.73</u>	<u>-0.02</u>	<u>-0.71</u>
<u>LPX-BERN (DYPTOP)</u>			
<u>– LPX-BERN</u>	<u>-0.64</u>	<u>-0.60</u>	<u>-0.04</u>
<u>LPX-BERN (DYPTOP-N)</u>			
<u>– LPX-BERN (N)</u>	<u>-0.64</u>	<u>-0.55</u>	<u>-0.09</u>

6  
 7 Table 67. Temporal Coefficients of Variation (CV) of annual CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, 1993-2004

<b>Model</b>	<b>CV</b>	<b>Model</b>	<b>CV</b>	<b>Model</b>	<b>CV</b>
CLM4Me	0.115	LPJ-WSL	0.208	VIC-TEM-TOPMODEL	0.149
DLEM	0.242	LPX-BERN (N)	0.069	VISIT (GLWD)	0.171
DLEM2	0.140	LPX-BERN (DYPTOP-N)	0.076	VISIT (Sheng)	0.163
IAP-RAS	0.091	ORCHIDEE	0.113	Bousquet2011K	0.160
LPJ-Bern	0.087	SDGVM	0.118	Bousquet2011R	0.446
LPJ-MPI	0.195	UW-VIC (GIEMS)	0.338		
LPJ-WHyMe	0.127	UW-VIC (SWAMPS)	0.197		

1

2

Table 78. Temporal correlations among environmental drivers, 1993-2004

<b>WSL</b>	<b>CRU T JJA</b>	<b>CRU P JJA</b>	<b>SWAMPS JJA</b>	<b>GIEMS JJA</b>
<b>CRU T JJA</b>	1.00			
<b>CRU P JJA</b>	-0.10	1.00		
<b>SWAMPS JJA</b>	0.14	0.66	1.00	
<b>GIEMS JJA</b>	-0.11	0.44	0.68	1.00

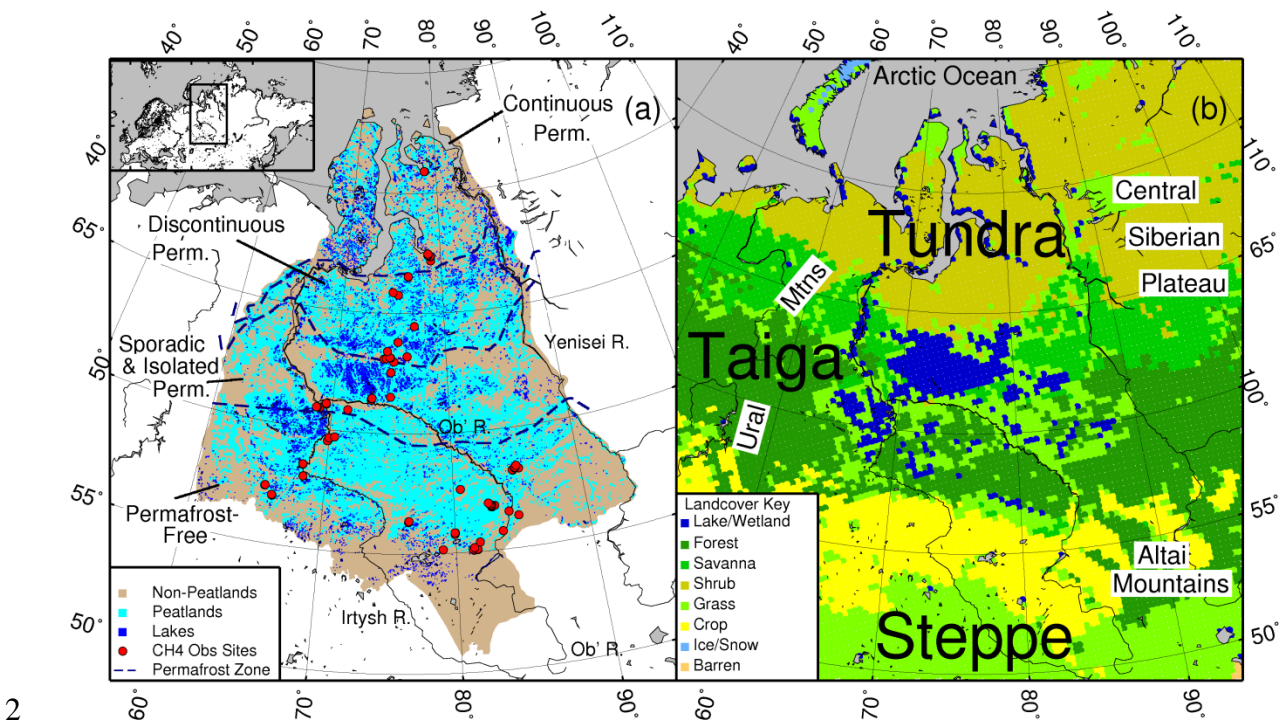
<b>S</b>	<b>CRU T JJA</b>	<b>CRU P JJA</b>	<b>SWAMPS JJA</b>	<b>GIEMS JJA</b>
<b>CRU T JJA</b>	1.00			
<b>CRU P JJA</b>	-0.28	1.00		
<b>SWAMPS JJA</b>	-0.12	0.44	1.00	
<b>GIEMS JJA</b>	-0.10	0.22	0.87	1.00

<b>N</b>	<b>CRU T JJA</b>	<b>CRU P JJA</b>	<b>SWAMPS JJA</b>	<b>GIEMS JJA</b>
<b>CRU T JJA</b>	1.00			
<b>CRU P JJA</b>	-0.06	1.00		
<b>SWAMPS JJA</b>	0.32	0.60	1.00	
<b>GIEMS JJA</b>	-0.05	0.34	0.61	1.00

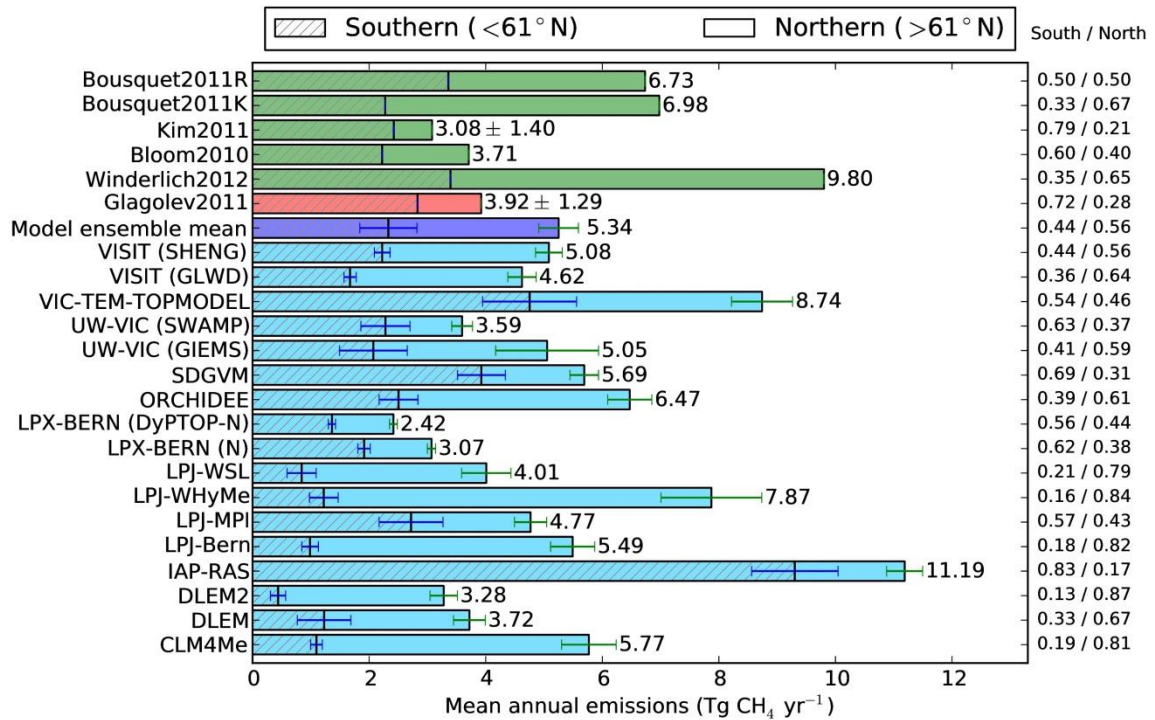
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# 1 Figures

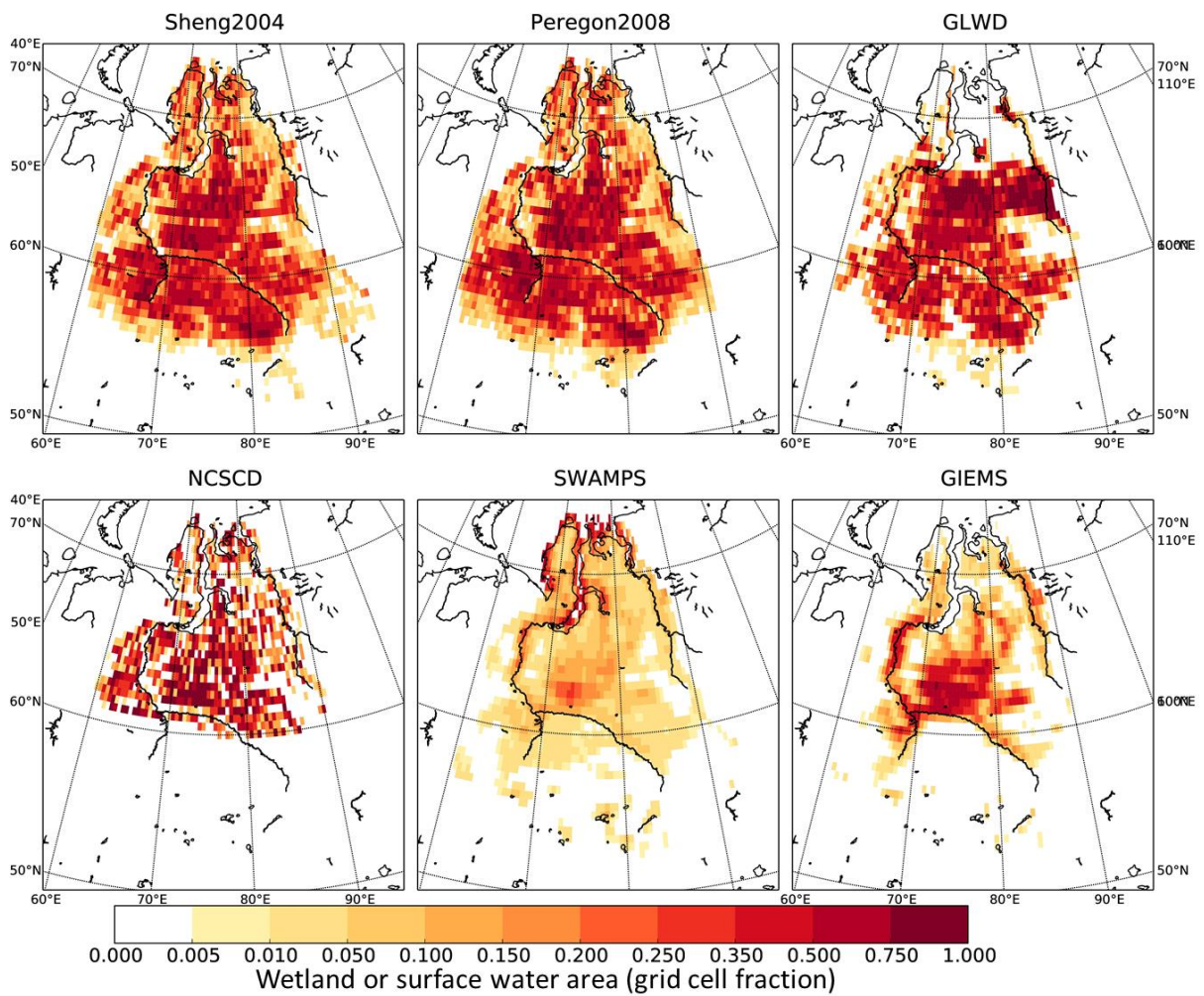


2  
3 Figure 1. Map of the West Siberian Lowland (WSL). Panel (a) Limits of domain (brown) and  
4 peatland distribution (cyan), taken from Sheng et al. (2004); lakes of area > 1km<sup>2</sup> taken  
5 from Lehner and Döll (2004); permafrost zone boundaries after Kremenetski et al. (2003);  
6 CH<sub>4</sub> sampling sites from Glagolev et al. (2011) denoted with red circles. Panel (b) Dominant  
7 land cover at 25km derived from MODIS-MOD12Q1 500m land cover classification (Friedl  
8 et al., 2010).

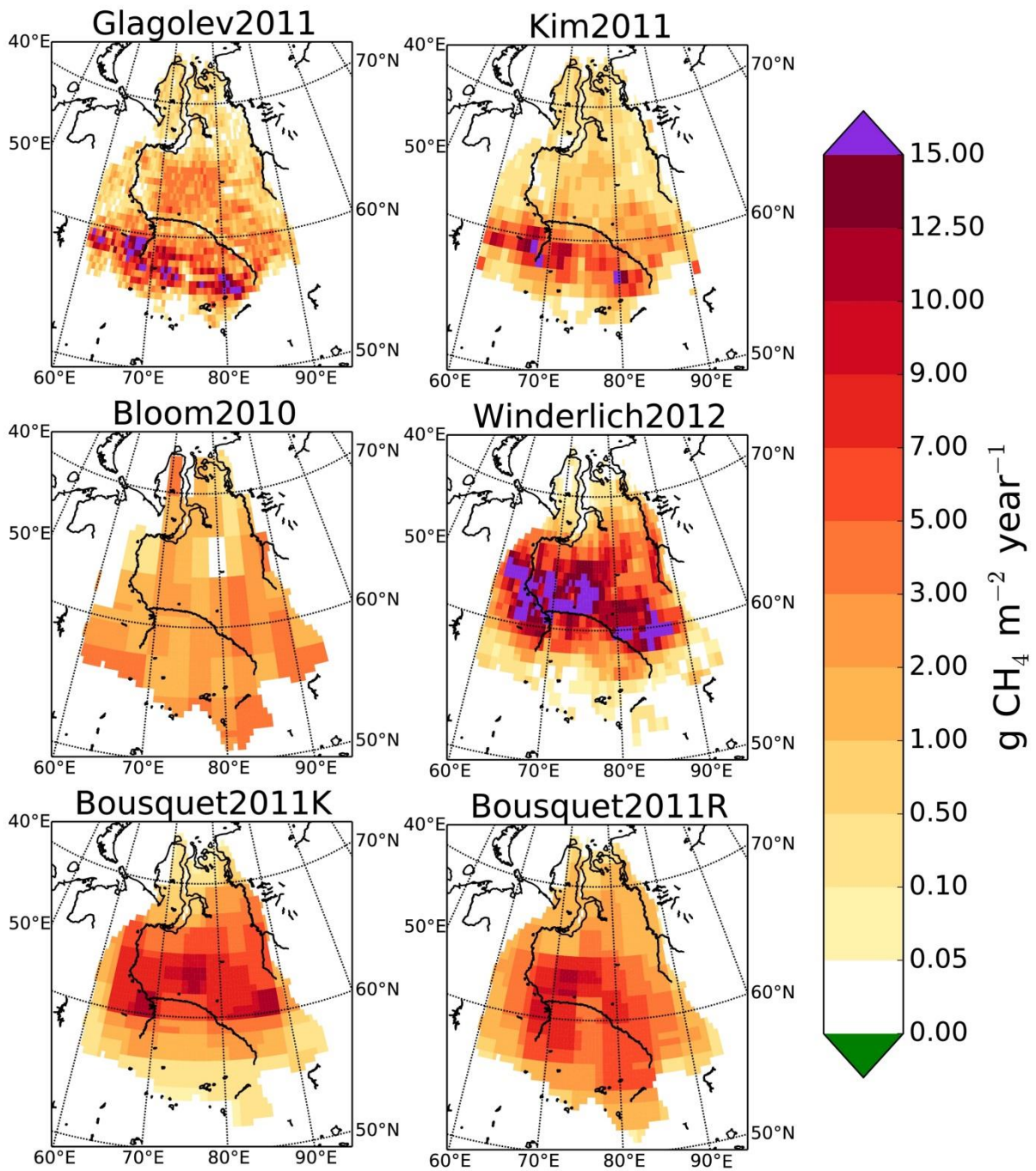




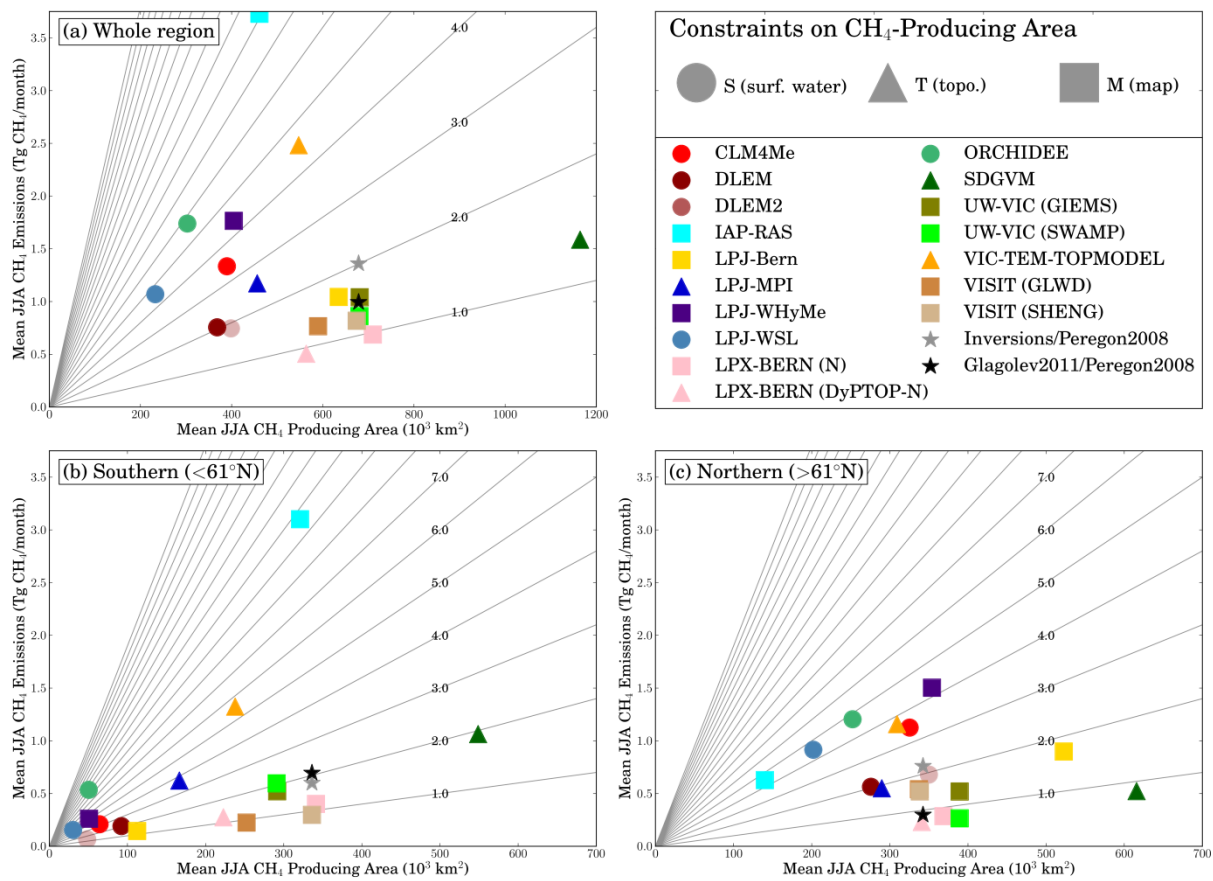
1  
 2 Figure 2. Mean annual emissions from the WSL, from inversions (green), observation-based  
 3 estimates (red), and forward models (blue). The hatched portions of the bars indicate the  
 4 emissions from the southern half of the domain (latitude < 61° N). Error bars on the model  
 5 results indicate the interannual standard deviations of the southern and northern emissions.  
 6 Error bars on the inversions and observational estimates indicate the uncertainty given in  
 7 those studies. Numeric fractions of the total emissions contributed by the southern and  
 8 northern halves of the domain are displayed in the right-hand column.



1  
 2 Figure 3. Observational datasets related to wetland areas. For SWAMPS and GIEMS, areas  
 3 shown are the June-July-August (JJA) average inundated surface water area fraction over the  
 4 period 1993-2004.

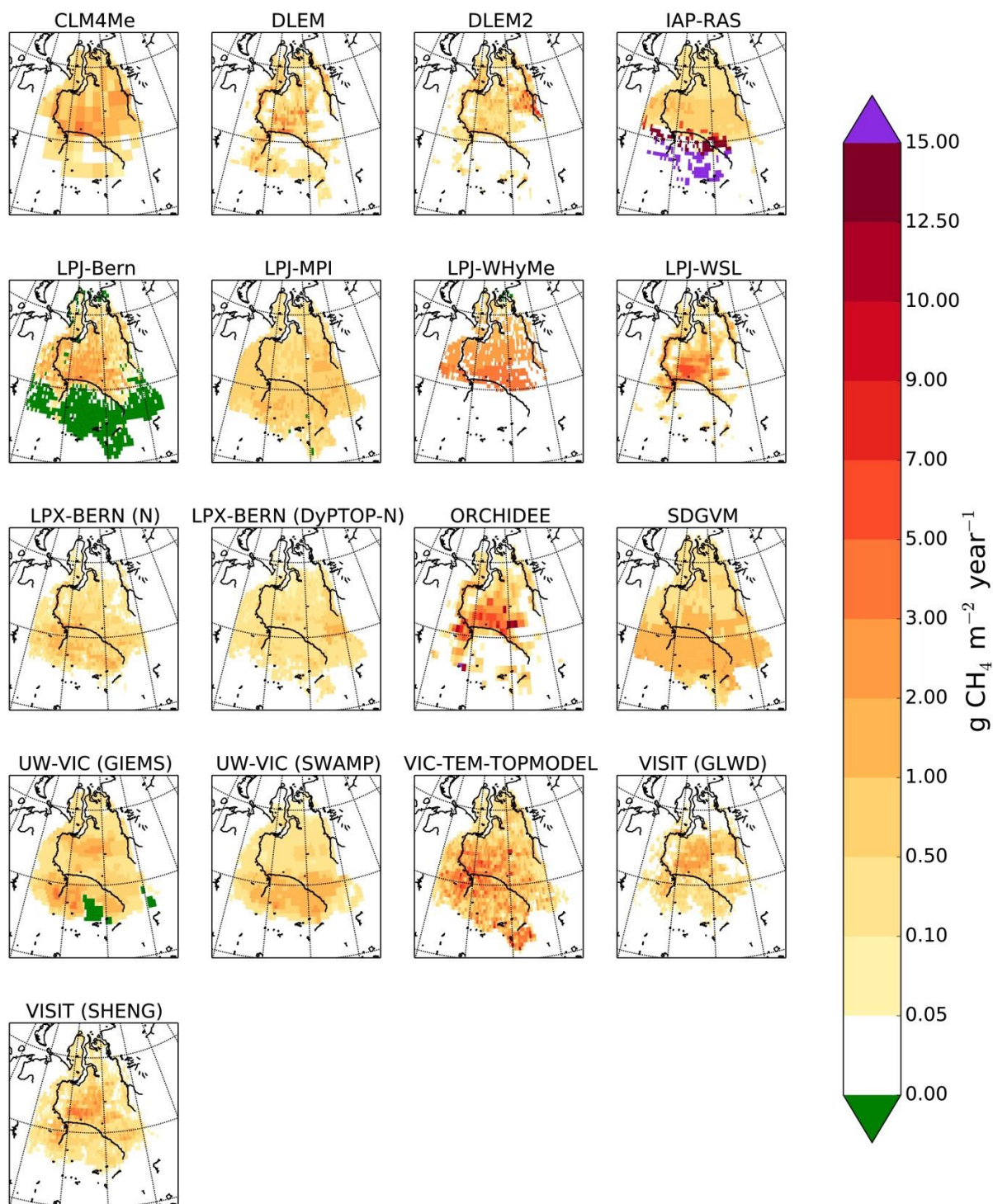


1  
 2 Figure 4. Observation- and inversion-based estimates of annual CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (g CH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup> per  
 3 m<sup>2</sup> of grid cell area). For inversions, averages are over the following periods: 2002-2007  
 4 (Kim2011), 2003-2007 (Bloom2010), 2009 (Winderlich2012), and 1993-2004  
 5 (Bousquet2011K and R).

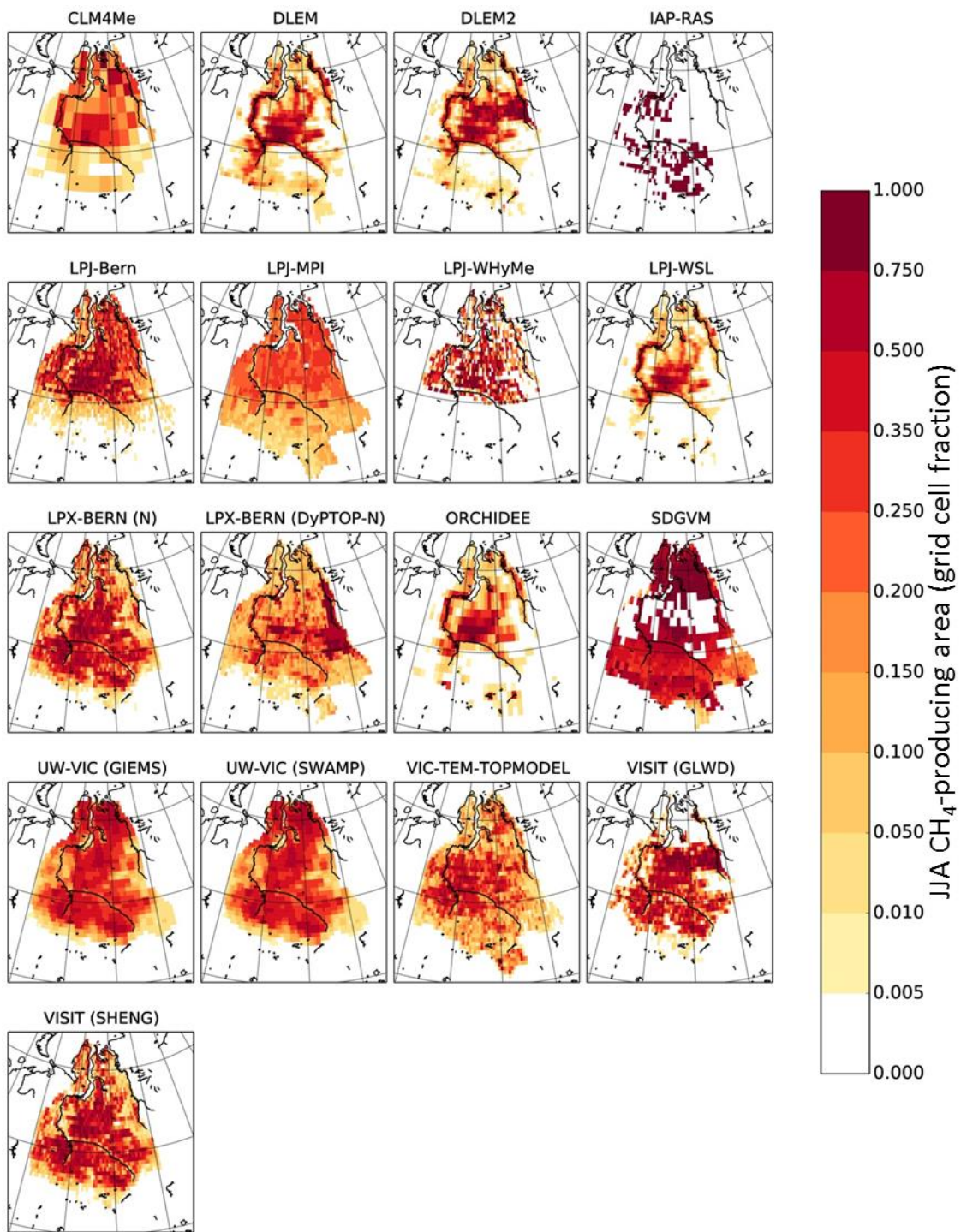


1  
2 Figure 5. Model estimates of JJA CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Tg CH<sub>4</sub> mon<sup>-1</sup>) and JJA wetland or CH<sub>4</sub>-  
3 producing area (10<sup>3</sup> km<sup>2</sup>), for the entire WSL (top left) and the Southern (bottom left) and  
4 Northern (bottom right) halves, for the period 1993-2004. Lines passing through the origin,  
5 with slopes of integer multiples of 1 g CH<sub>4</sub> ~~mon<sup>-1</sup>~~-m<sup>-2</sup> mon<sup>-1</sup>, allow comparison of spatial  
6 average intensities (CH<sub>4</sub> emissions per unit CH<sub>4</sub>-producing wetland-area). Circles denote  
7 models that used satellite inundation-surface water products alone (corresponding to code  
8 “IS” in Table 2) to delineate wetlands. Triangles denote models that used topographic  
9 information, with or without inundation-surface water products (corresponding to code “T” in  
10 Table 2). Squares denote models that used wetland maps with or without topography or  
11 inundation-surface water products (corresponding to code “M” in Table 2).

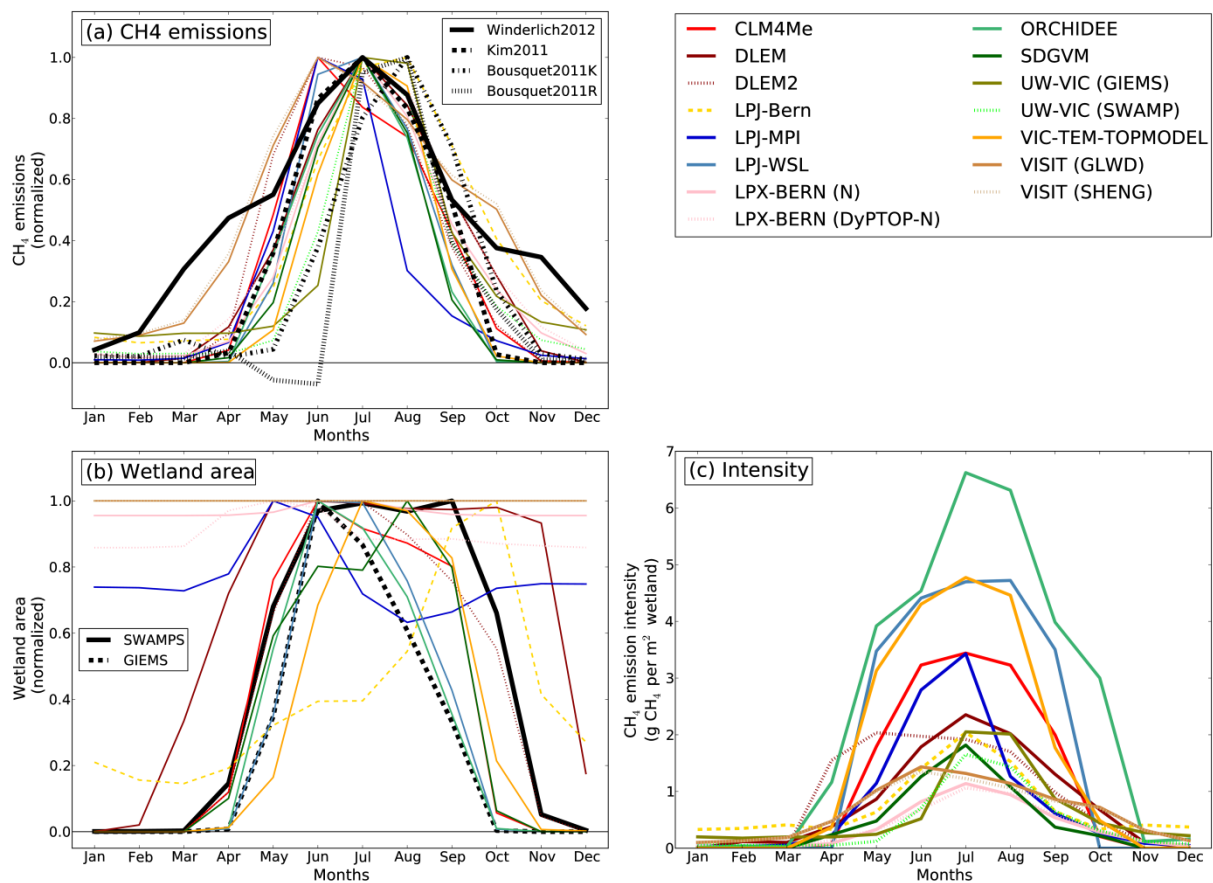




1  
2 Figure 6. Maps of simulated average annual CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (g CH<sub>4</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup> of grid cell area).

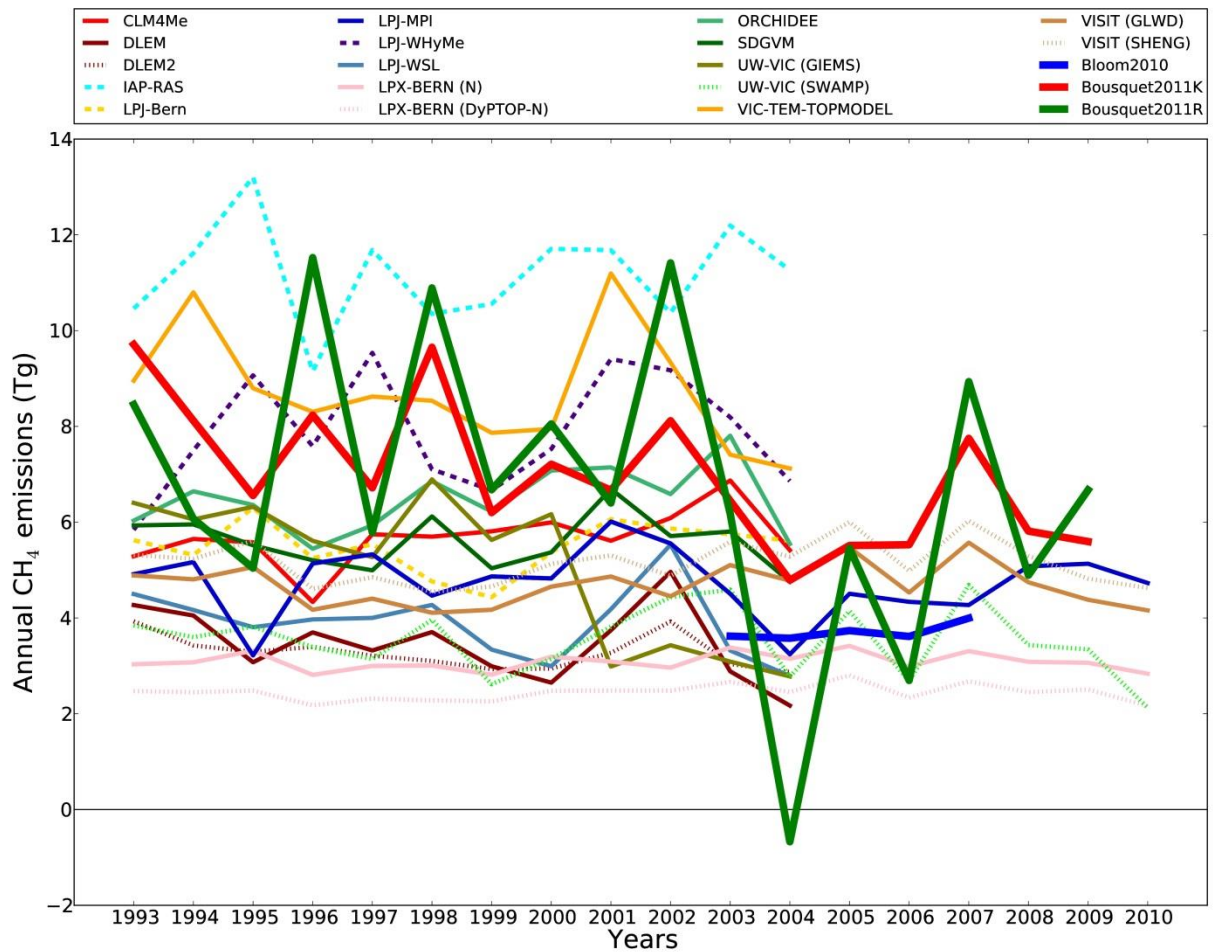


1  
 2 Figure 7. Maps of average JJA wetland-CH<sub>4</sub>-producing area (fraction of grid cell area) from  
 3 participating models.



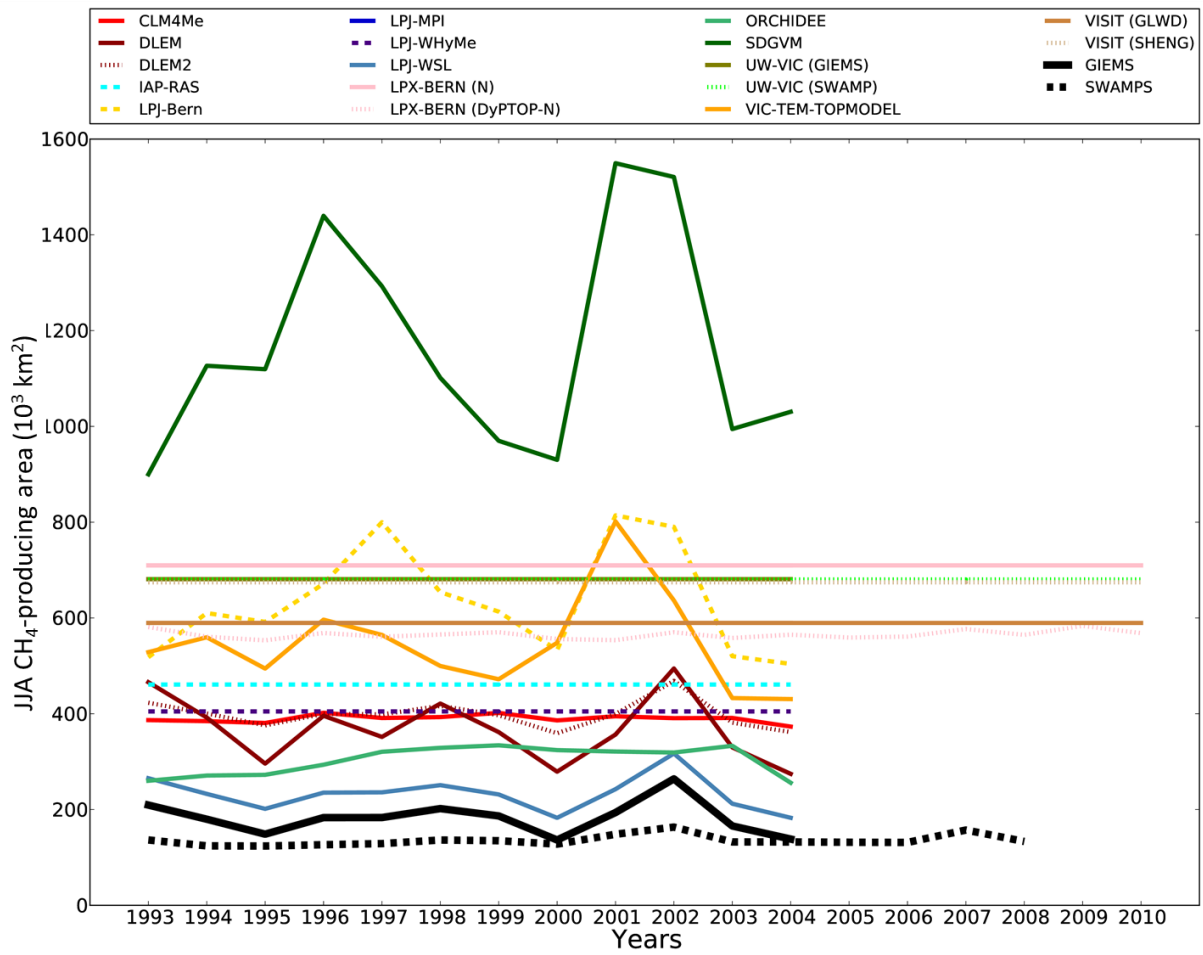
1  
2 Figure 8. Average whole-domain seasonal cycles (1993-2004) of normalized monthly CH<sub>4</sub>  
3 emissions (top), normalized monthly ~~wetland-CH<sub>4</sub>-producing or surface water~~ areas (lower  
4 left), and monthly intensities (g CH<sub>4</sub> per m<sup>2</sup> of wetland area; lower right), with satellite  
5 ~~inundation-surface water~~ products and inversions for reference. CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and ~~wetland~~  
6 areas have been normalized relative to their peak values.



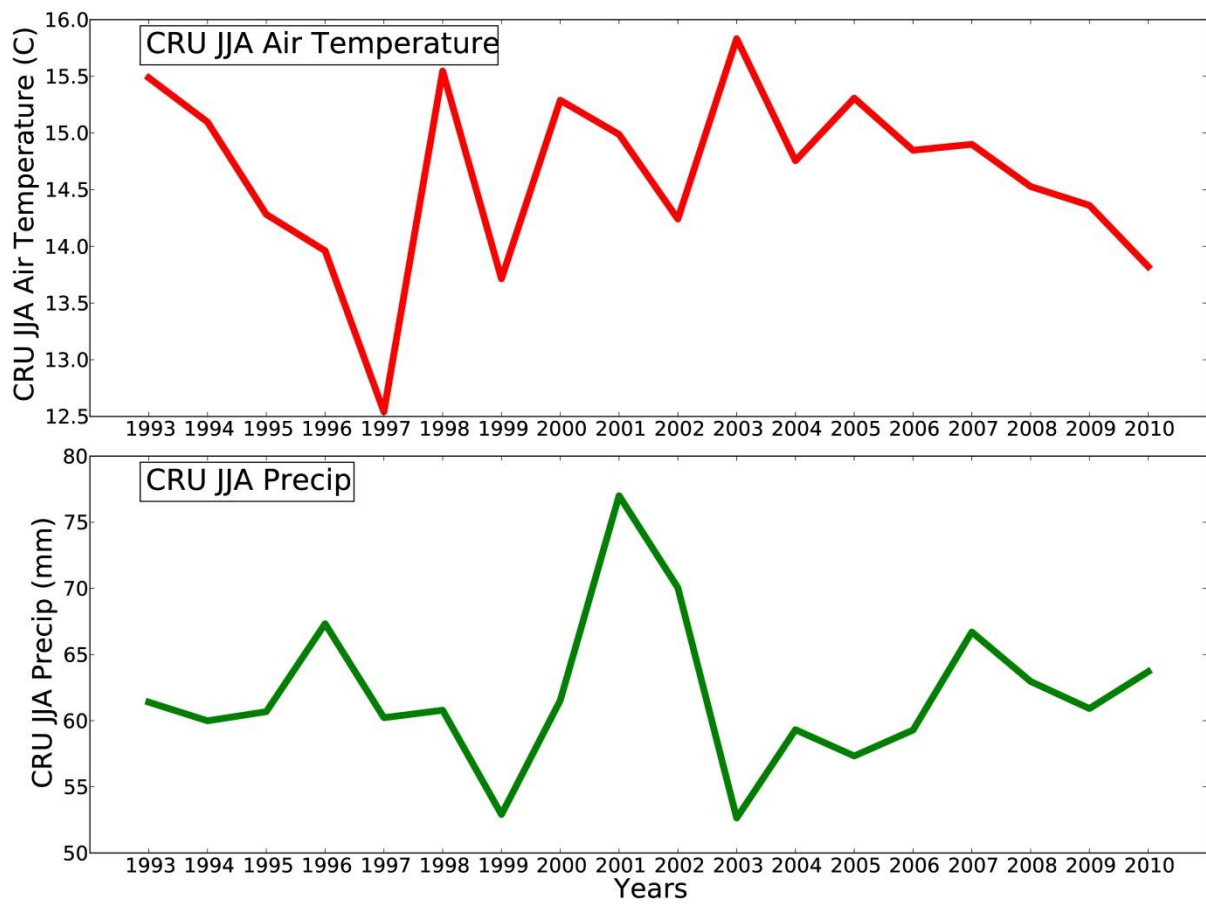


1  
 2 Figure 9. Timeseries of simulated annual total CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Tg CH<sub>4</sub>) from participating  
 3 models, the Reference and Kaplan inversions from Bousquet et al. (2011), and the Bloom  
 4 (2010) inversion.



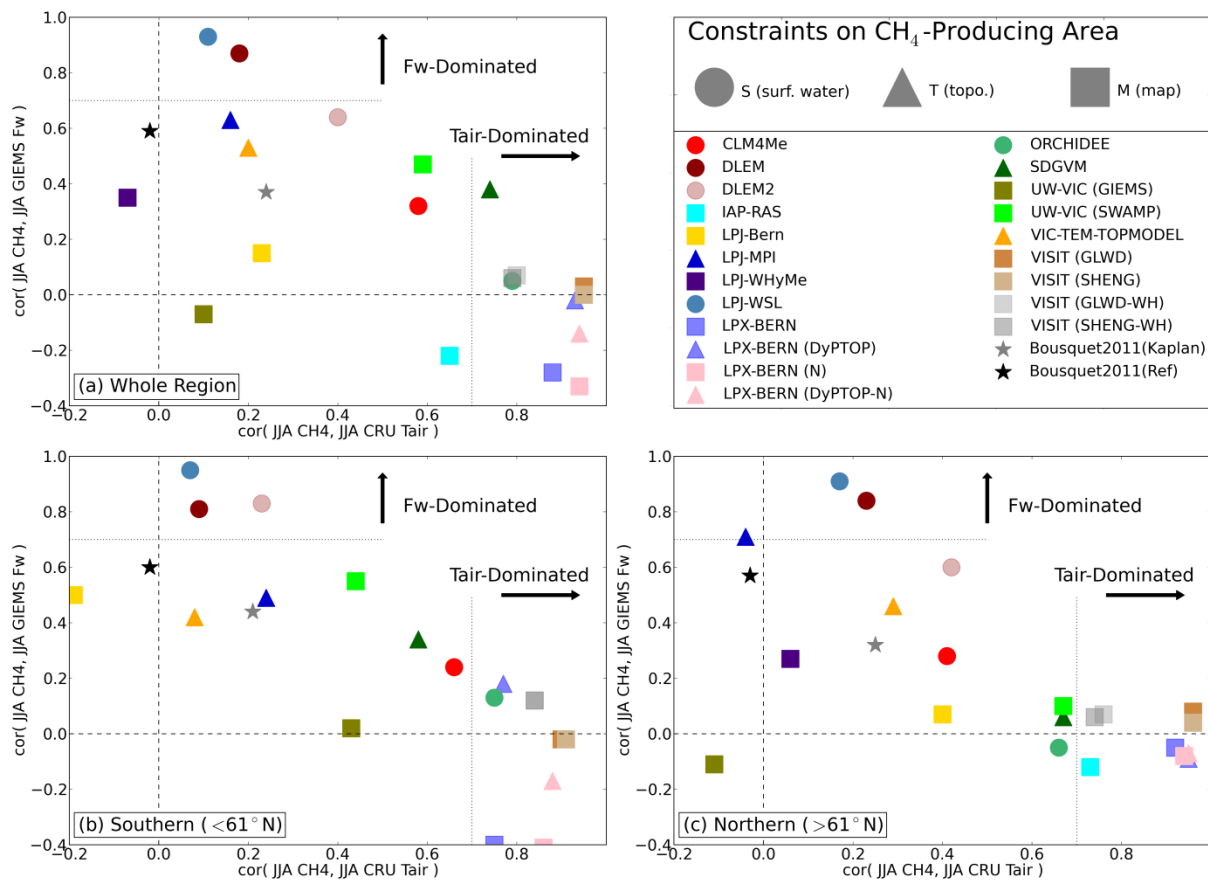


1  
 2 Figure 10. Timeseries of simulated JJA ~~wetland-CH<sub>4</sub>-producing~~ areas ( $10^3 \text{ km}^2$ ), with JJA  
 3 ~~inundated surface water~~ areas from GIEMS and SWAMPS products for reference.



1  
2

Figure 11. Timeseries of CRU JJA air temperature (°C) and precipitation (mm).



1  
2 Figure 12. Influence of interannual variations in inundation surface water area fraction ( $F_w$ )  
3 on model  $CH_4$  emissions (expressed as correlation between JJA GIEMS ~~inundated area~~  $F_w$   
4 and JJA  $CH_4$ ) vs influence of air temperature ( $T_{air}$ ) on model  $CH_4$  emissions (expressed as  
5 correlation between JJA CRU  ~~$T_{air}$  air temperature~~ and JJA  $CH_4$ ), for the entire WSL (top) and  
6 the Southern and Northern halves of the domain (bottom). “ ~~$F_{inund}$   $F_w$ -Dominated~~” and “ ~~$T_{air}$ -~~  
7 ~~Dominated~~” denote correlation thresholds above which ~~inundated surface water~~ area or air  
8 temperature, respectively, explain more than 50% of the variance of  $CH_4$  emissions. ~~Symbol~~  
9 ~~shapes and colors are the same as in Figure 5.~~ Circles denote models that used satellite  
10 surface water products alone (corresponding to code “S” in Table 2) to delineate wetlands.  
11 Triangles denote models that used topographic information, with or without surface water  
12 products (corresponding to code “T” in Table 2). Squares denote models that used wetland  
13 maps with or without topography or surface water products (corresponding to code “M” in  
14 Table 2).