

1 Response to referee and other comments, for manuscript bg-2015-21:
2 Title: Representing northern peatland microtopography and hydrology within the
3 Community Land Model
4 Author(s): X. Shi et al.

5
6 (Editor and Referee comments in italics)
7

8
9 **Associate Editor Decision: Publish subject to minor revisions (Editor review) (03 Aug**
10 **2015) by Mathew Williams**

11 Comments to the Author:

12 Dear Authors

13
14 *I have now looked over two reviews of your revised manuscript. Both acknowledge the*
15 *competence of the work, and the reviewer who has commented on the earlier ms*
16 *recognises the improvements made to the text. However, both reviewers question the*
17 *balance of the paper between model development and scientific novelty. I agree with*
18 *them that the paper will have greater impact if the discussion is focused more towards*
19 *new process understanding and less on future model developments. I think more could be*
20 *done to use the modelling to reveal insights into the SPRUCE data.*

21
22 *I would request therefore a further revision of the manuscript, which I will then read and*
23 *make a final decision upon.*

24
25 *In this new text please*

26 *1. Focus the discussion on improvements in understanding of peatland processes*
27 *generated from model simulations and SPRUCE data, and less on future directions for*
28 *model development.*

29 *2. Include an evaluation of modelled peatland ET against independent data, as requested*
30 *by report 2.*

31 *3. Address the other comments in report 2.*
32

33
34 **Response:** We very much appreciate the supportive assessment of our revised
35 manuscript. Based on the concerns raised above, we firstly have reorganized and
36 rewritten the discussion section to focus more on the understanding of peatland processes
37 from our model simulations and experimental data. Secondly, we have added an
38 evaluation of our modeled ET against the best available observation-based estimate of ET
39 from a nearby bog environment. We also have addressed the other reviewer comments.

40
41
42 Referee #2

43 =====

44
45 *The authors should be commended for their willingness to take on board the referees'*

46 comments and to make extensive revisions to the technical aspects of their manuscript.
47 The descriptions of the model's equations and the justifications for their selection are
48 now much clearer.

49
50 The discussion has also been largely rewritten in an attempt to convey more clearly the
51 importance and implications of the findings. Again, the authors should be commended for
52 their willingness to dissect their manuscript. It is now clearer that the study provides an
53 improvement to the hydrological representation of peatlands within a particular land
54 surface model, which will be of interest to some readers. However, there is still a keen
55 focus on future work, meaning that the analysis and interpretation of the current study's
56 results are still very brief.

57
58 **Response:** Thank you for your good suggestions. We have followed your suggestion to
59 further reorganize and revise the discussion section to highlight the importance and
60 implications of our current model activities, and what insights of our preliminary results
61 can provide for field manipulation experiments.

62
63
64 Referee #3: B.N. Sulman

65
66 This manuscript presents a new formulation of peatland hydrology implemented within
67 the CLM land model. The model is parameterized to simulate the hydrology of a bog
68 peatland in Minnesota that is part of the SPRUCE manipulation experiment. The model
69 appears to do an excellent job of simulating water table fluctuations at the site, which
70 closely match observed fluctuations. The model was then applied in a series of warming
71 simulations with different levels of atmospheric humidity.

72
73 **Response:** We appreciate the positive comments.

74
75
76 I have read the comments from the two referees who reviewed the previous version of this
77 manuscript, and I will try to place my comments in the context of those reviews. I agree
78 with both other reviewers that the goal of improving the representation of peatland
79 processes in earth system models is very important, given the large carbon pools
80 contained in peatlands and the current poor representation of these ecosystems in global
81 models. In that sense, this is important work and I am happy to see these processes being
82 integrated into a widely-used, large-scale land model like CLM. However, as Reviewer
83 #2 pointed out, the fact that this hydrological functionality was implemented into CLM
84 does not necessarily make it novel or interesting to the broader community (outside of the
85 CLM development community), if similar models already existed independently of CLM.
86 As I see it, the real benefit of implementing functionality like this into a global model is
87 that it allows the site-level simulations that are possible with smaller-scale models to be
88 scaled up to the larger scales supported by the global modeling infrastructure of an earth
89 system model component like CLM. Since this study did not attempt to scale the results up
90 in that way, I'm not convinced that the model development portion is novel with respect
91 to the broader biogeochemistry community, although it is a useful advance that scientists

92 in the earth system modeling community will no doubt be very excited about.

93
94 **Response:** We agree that scaling up from the site-level simulation to global scale is very
95 important, and that is our ultimate goal. The site-level evaluation of this study is the first
96 step to the global scale goal.

97
98 Apart from the question of whether the model itself is a significant scientific advance, I
99 think the actual model experiment and results are quite interesting. I think placing this
100 modeling exercise in the context of a real-world warming experiment was a smart choice,
101 and I appreciate the portion of the Discussion that points out specific areas where the
102 model results may inform the interpretation of that experiment. If the simulated response
103 of water table depth to warming holds true, it seems that there could be dramatic
104 hydrological consequences to increasing temperature, and these results are certainly
105 worth reporting. I do have some concerns about the validation of these results, however.
106 The parameterization and validation of the model was focused on three years of water
107 table depth measurements. The model does an excellent job predicting short-term
108 variations in water table depth. However, I'm not convinced that the processes driving
109 these short-term variations are the same processes that will drive the simulated response
110 to rising temperature. I suspect that these short-term variations are primarily showing
111 that the model can reproduce responses to precipitation events and subsequent drainage.
112

113 **Response:** While precipitation events are clearly driving the observed (and modeled)
114 short-term increases in water table height, losses due to ET are as important as lateral
115 drainage in driving modeled declines in water table height through the warm season. We
116 have added information in the Results section describing the relative importance of these
117 terms.

118
119 Looking at the temperature time series, it does not appear that there were strong enough
120 variations in temperature (outside of summer/winter seasonal variations) in the observed
121 time period in order to separate out temperature effects on water table, and so it's hard
122 to say if the temperature response of the model was validated by this set of
123 measurements. The model predicts very strong responses of evapotranspiration (ET) to
124 warming, and these appear to be the main driver of the water table responses.
125

126 **Response:** We agree that the primary influence of experimental warming on water table
127 depth in the model simulations is due to increases in both the transpiration and soil
128 evaporation terms of ET. It is true that the time period for which we have observed water
129 table depth is too short to make a strong analysis of the influence of temperature variation
130 on ET. Additional data and analysis are required to make this assessment.

131
132 In my opinion, the temperature response of the model has not really been validated for
133 this site, and as a result it's hard to have much confidence in the simulated warming
134 responses. I think the results would be much more solid if they could be compared to
135 some relevant measurements. Ideally, eddy covariance measurements of ET as a function
136 of temperature or vapor pressure deficit (VPD) could be compared to similar response
137 functions calculated from the model simulations, to see if the strong modeled ET response

138 is consistent with observations in peatlands — i.e., is the percent response of ET to
139 warming the same as the percent response that has been observed at other peatland
140 sites? The manuscript does state that “previous studies have shown good correspondence
141 between CLM predictions of latent heat flux and eddy covariance measurements”, but
142 it’s not clear whether those previous measurements included peatlands. There is reason
143 to believe that peatland measurements should be used here, since the high water table
144 and prevalence of mosses would likely lead to different responses than forests or other
145 ecosystems. In their response to reviewers, the authors say that eddy covariance
146 measurements are not available for the SPRUCE site. I’m aware of a flux tower operated
147 by the US Forest Service Northern Research Station in a northern Minnesota peatland in
148 Marcell Experimental Forest close to where the SPRUCE experiment is being conducted,
149 and it may be worth contacting that group to see if any data are available for comparison
150 with model results. Someone connected with that tower tells me that it has been running
151 since 2006. The contact people for that site would be Randy Kolka, who works for the US
152 Forest Service, and Tim Griffis, who is a professor at the University of Minnesota. If data
153 from that site are not available, I think it might be worth doing a comparison with some
154 of the longer-running peatland eddy covariance sites in the Ameriflux or Fluxnet
155 networks. The Mer Bleue site in Ontario and the Lost Creek site in Wisconsin have fairly
156 long records of evapotranspiration that probably contain enough temperature variations
157 to compare with the model results (Lost Creek is a fen rather than a bog, but does have a
158 hummock/hollow topography and a high water table). While every site is different, it
159 should be possible to at least compare the percent change in ET with temperature
160 between the model simulations and these other peatlands. At the very least, I think the
161 dramatic simulated changes in ET should be placed in the context of previous
162 measurements in the literature.

163
164 **Response:** We agree with the central point here - that our model results need to be
165 evaluated against observations of ET from a relevant biophysical setting in order to
166 establish confidence in the behavior in the context of current environmental conditions,
167 which may also provide some measure of confidence in our projections of behavior under
168 conditions of warming and altered humidity. After assessing the comparability of our site
169 with the available eddy covariance sites, we determined that the most relevant
170 observational basis for assessing the modeled ET response to temperature variation was a
171 multi-year water budget analysis performed for the nearby S2 bog (Nichols and Very,
172 2001). A 21-year observational record was available (1979-1999), and we extended our
173 simulation protocol to perform simulations for these same years. As described in our
174 revised Results section, we compared the slopes of the measured and modeled annual ET
175 vs. temperature relationships, and found that they are nearly identical. While
176 encouraging, that analysis on its own does not fully address the concerns raised about
177 predicted ET response to temperature under experimental warming conditions. We
178 therefor include in our results a similar assessment of the response of modeled ET to
179 interannual and long-term temperature variation. We found that the interannual
180 relationships are quite similar to observed variation over the range of warming
181 treatments, and that the long-term warming response over the range of treatments retains
182 a similar trend (we have added a new figure 8). While we agree that there is value in an
183 expanded comparison to observed results at other wetland sites, we don’t feel that

184 comparison to other sites could produce a more rigorous assessment of the model
185 behavior at the S1 bog site than is now provided. We hope to expand our modeling and
186 observational analyses to a broader range of sites and biophysical settings in future work.

187
188 Given how central the ET and water table responses to temperature are to the paper's
189 main scientific results, I think it would make sense to add a section to the Discussion
190 placing these results in the context of previous observations. The part of the Discussion
191 that addresses the temperature responses barely cites any literature at all, and there are
192 certainly papers out there with measurements and analysis of ET and water table
193 responses to temperature that could be used to improve confidence in the model results.

194
195 **Response:** We have expanded the Discussion to include the points made above, and have
196 attempted to place our current results in the context of broader observations. We also now
197 comment on the extension of our modeling efforts to a broader range of sites, looking
198 toward the goal of a global-scale application, as suggested by other reviewers.

199
200 Here are a few suggestions of papers that presented evapotranspiration data from
201 peatlands:

202
203 Wu, J., Kutzbach, L., Jager, D., Wille, C., & Wilmking, M. (2010). Evapotranspiration
204 dynamics in a boreal peatland and its impact on the water and energy balance. *Journal*
205 *of Geophysical Research*, 115(G4). doi:10.1029/2009JG001075
206 Lafleur, P. M., Hember, R., Admiral, S. W., & Roulet, N. (2005). Annual and seasonal
207 variability in evapotranspiration and water table at a shrub-covered bog in southern
208 Ontario, Canada. *Hydrological Processes*, 19(18), 3533–3550.
209 Mackay, D. S., Ewers, B. E., Cook, B. D., & Davis, K. J. (2007). Environmental drivers of
210 evapotranspiration in a shrub wetland and an upland forest in northern Wisconsin.
211 *Water Resources Research*, 43(3), W03442. doi:10.1029/2006WR005149
212 Kellner, E. (2001). Surface energy fluxes and control of evapotranspiration from a
213 Swedish Sphagnum mire. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 110(2), 101–123.
214 Sulman, B. N., Desai, A. R., Cook, B. D., Saliendra, N. Z., & Mackay, D. S. (2009).
215 Contrasting carbon dioxide fluxes between a drying shrub wetland in Northern
216 Wisconsin, USA, and nearby forests. *Biogeosciences*, 6, 1115–1126.
217 Humphreys, E. R., Lafleur, P. M., Flanagan, L. B., Hedstrom, N., Syed, K. H., Glenn, A.
218 J., & Granger, R. (2006). Summer carbon dioxide and water vapor fluxes across a range
219 of northern peatlands. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 111(G04011).
220 doi:10.1029/2005JG000111
221 Sonnentag, O., Kamp, G. V. D., Barr, A. G., & Chen, J. M. (2009). On the relationship
222 between water table depth and water vapor and carbon dioxide fluxes in a minerotrophic
223 fen. *Global Change Biology*, 16(6), 1762–1776. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2486.2009.02032.x

224
225 **Response:** Thank you for providing these papers. They are very useful for us to know
226 more about the peatland ET. We have included some of them in our discussion of
227 previous observational work in similar environments.

228
229 I think the introduction is very well written and contains a very clear and useful summary

230 *of previously published peatland models.*
231 *Some other more minor comments:*
232 *Sonnentag et al (2008) is cited in the text but not listed in the references. The reference*
233 *list needs to be checked against the text.*
234 *Lines 122-123: Ecosys has been applied in bog environments as well as fen environments*
235 *(Dimitrov et al 2010, 2011) — actually, Dimitrov is also cited in the manuscript but not*
236 *in the reference list.*

237
238 **Response:** Thank you for pointing out, we have added Sonnentag et al (2008) and
239 Dimitrov et al 2011 to references. We have cited Dimitrov et al 2010.

240
241 *Line 263-266: “subsurface drainage term becomes zero when the water table level drops*
242 *to the local elevation of z_{lagg}”: There should be some mechanistic explanation included*
243 *for this. In the response to previous reviews the authors provided an interpretation*
244 *having to do with the permeability of the glacial till layer: “The underlying assumption is*
245 *that the glacial till acts as a barrier to drainage when the water table is lower than the*
246 *lagg.” That explanation should be included in the actual manuscript.*

247
248 **Response:** We have added this information at the relevant location in the model
249 description section.

250
251 *Also, the elevation of the lagg as a parameter seems to be very specific to the*
252 *topography of this bog. It would really help make these results and the model more*
253 *widely applicable if there were some discussion of whether this number is typical of bogs,*
254 *or if these details of topography could be predicted in the context of larger-scale*
255 *simulations.*

256
257 **Response:** Consideration of the height of the bog surface above the lagg (z_{lagg}), or in
258 more general terms the height of the dome in this raised-dome bog, has been added to the
259 site description. To summarize: the height of the S1-Bog is not unusual for raised-dome
260 bogs. A small section has been added to the discussion addressing potential to predict
261 raised-bog height in large-scale simulations.

262
263 *Equation 2: Unless I’m interpreting this incorrectly, I think the equation should use*
264 *“z_w>z_{lagg}”, not “z_w<z_{lagg}”. That is, q_{drai} varies when the water level (z_w) is above*
265 *(greater than) the z_{lagg} level, and is zero when z_w is below that level.*

266
267 **Response:** Thank you for pointing out this error. For the sake of consistency among the
268 first three equations, the definition of z_w for equation 2 was changed to water table depth
269 instead of elevation. Similarly, the definition of z_{lagg} is now lagg depth. Q_{drai} is 0
270 when the water table depth is greater than the lagg depth, so that the original form of
271 equation 2 is now correct.

272

273

274 Representing northern peatland microtopography and
275 hydrology within the Community Land Model

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287

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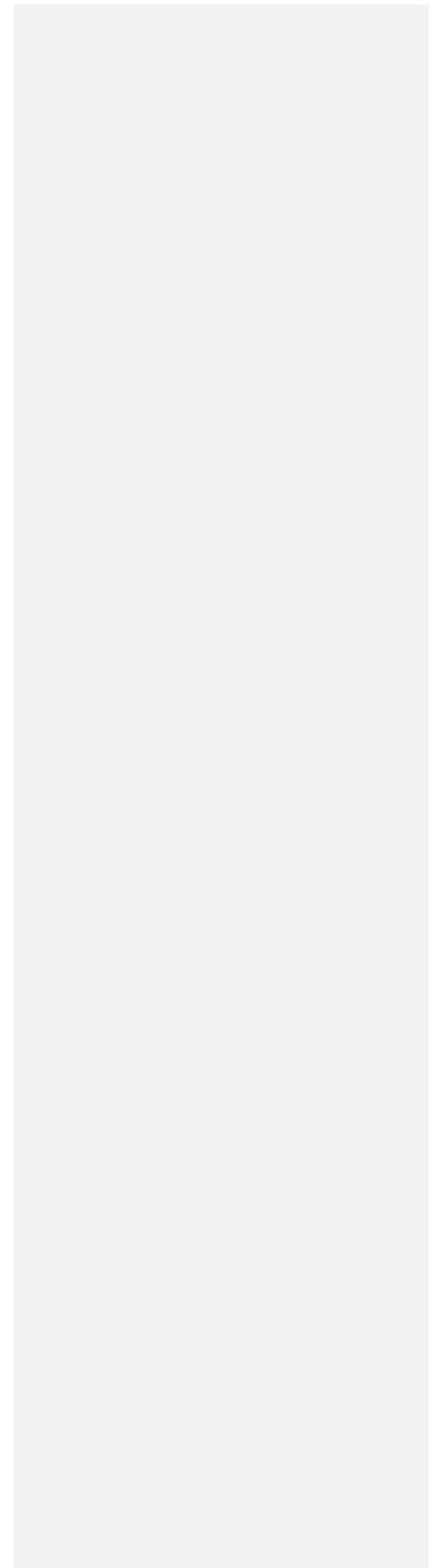
298 **Abstract**

299 Predictive understanding of northern peatland hydrology is a necessary
300 precursor to understanding the fate of massive carbon stores in these systems
301 under the influence of present and future climate change. Current models have
302 begun to address microtopographic controls on peatland hydrology, but none have
303 included a prognostic calculation of peatland water table depth for a vegetated
304 wetland, independent of prescribed regional water tables. We introduce here a new
305 configuration of the Community Land Model (CLM) which includes a fully prognostic
306 water table calculation for a vegetated peatland. Our structural and process changes
307 to CLM focus on modifications needed to represent the hydrologic cycle of bogs
308 environment with perched water tables, as well as distinct hydrologic dynamics and
309 vegetation communities of the raised hummock and sunken hollow
310 microtopography characteristic of peatland bogs. The modified model was
311 parameterized and independently evaluated against observations from an
312 ombrotrophic raised-dome bog in northern Minnesota (S1-Bog), the site for the
313 Spruce and Peatland Responses Under Climatic and Environmental Change
314 experiment (SPRUCE). Simulated water table levels compared well with site-level
315 observations. The new model predicts hydrologic changes in response to planned
316 warming at the SPRUCE site. At present, standing water is commonly observed in
317 bog hollows after large rainfall events during the growing season, but simulations
318 suggest a sharp decrease in water table levels due to increased evapotranspiration
319 under the most extreme warming level, nearly eliminating the occurrence of
320 standing water in the growing season. Simulated soil energy balance was strongly

321 influenced by reduced winter snowpack under warming simulations, with the
322 warming influence on soil temperature partly offset by the loss of insulating
323 snowpack in early and late winter. The new model provides improved predictive
324 capacity for seasonal hydrological dynamics in northern peatlands, and provides a
325 useful foundation for investigation of northern peatland carbon exchange.

326

327



328 **1. Introduction**

329 Peatlands contain about 30% of global soil carbon, despite covering only 3%
330 of the Earth's land surface (Gorham, 1991; Bridgham et al., 2006; Tarnocai, 2009).
331 Northern peatlands play an important role in global carbon balance due to their
332 capacity to store carbon and to exchange both CO₂ and methane with the
333 atmosphere. Carbon accumulated over thousands of years in these systems is
334 projected to be vulnerable to climate warming (Wu et al., 2013). Manipulative
335 experiments and process-resolving models are needed to make defensible
336 projections of the net carbon balance of the northern peatlands in the face of a
337 warming global environment.

338 In this paper we focus on hydrological dynamics of peatlands, as the water
339 balance of peatlands plays a critical role in their carbon balance (Lafleur et al.,
340 2003). Kettridge et al. (2013) showed the importance of peatland hydrology as a
341 regulatory control on carbon dynamics and the future stability of peatland carbon
342 stocks and regional water dynamics. Seasonal and interannual fluctuations in water
343 table elevation can affect peatland net CO₂ exchange through complex effects on soil
344 processes (Mezbahuddin et al., 2013). Modeling by Grant et al. (2012) suggested
345 that the productivity of wetlands is strongly affected by changes in water table level,
346 and that the effects are complex and site-specific. Hydrologic dynamics can affect
347 tree growth, and modify the density, size, and species distribution in peatlands
348 (MacDonald and Yin, 1999; Robreck et al., 2009). Wu et al. (2013) showed that an
349 increase of water table level by 15cm could decrease net ecosystem production by
350 up to 200% and switch peatlands from a net sink to a net source of carbon. As

351 hydrology and biogeochemical cycling are tightly linked in peatlands (Waddington
352 et al., 2001; Silvola et al., 1996; Dise et al., 2011), the accuracy of predicted peatland
353 water table dynamics is likely to affect the accuracy of the predicted peatland
354 carbon exchange. To the extent they are used to evaluate carbon cycle – climate
355 system feedbacks, a reasonable requirement for land surface models operating
356 within global climate models should therefore be that they make reliable
357 predictions of peatland hydrology and hydrologic processes.

358 Peatland surfaces are often characterized by distinct micro-topography
359 (hollows and hummocks) (Nungesser, 2003). The existence of hummock-hollow
360 microtopography has important impacts on hydrological dynamics (Lindholm and
361 Markkula 1984; Verry et al., 2011b), nutrient availability (Chapin et al., 1979;
362 Damman, 1978), plant species distribution and productivity (Andrus et al. 1983;
363 Moore 1989), and decomposition rates (Johnson and Damman 1991). Many
364 wetland ecosystem models drive biogeochemical simulations using observed water
365 table depth as an input variable (St-Hilaire et al., 2010; Frolking et al., 2002; Hilbert
366 et al., 2000). Even though such models include water table effects, the models have
367 not simulated observed variation for hummock/hollow microtopography common
368 to raised-dome bog peatlands. The absence of this important detail may limit the
369 predictive capabilities of existing peatland models. Other ecohydrological models
370 couple hydrology and carbon cycles in peatlands, but differ with respect to their
371 hydrological schemes and the way they treat (or ignore) topography (Dimitrov et al,
372 2011). Some models, such as Biome-BGC (Bond-Lamberty et al., 2007), and
373 Wetland-DNDC (Zhang et al., 2002) only simulate vertical soil water flow, neglecting

374 lateral flow components (Dimitrov et al, 2011) within peatlands. Wania et al.
375 (2010) describe a model of wetland hydrology and biogeochemistry (LPJ-WHyMe),
376 but do not include consideration of microtopography or lateral flows. Others, such
377 as BEPS (Chen et al., 2005, 2007) and InTEC v3.0 (Ju et al., 2006) include
378 sophisticated ecohydrological and biogeochemical sub-models capable of simulating
379 three-dimensional hydrology (for large scale topography) coupled to peatland
380 carbon dynamics. Sonnentag et al. (2008) further adapted BEPS to model the effects
381 of mesoscale (site level) topography on hydrology, and hence on CO₂ exchange at
382 Mer Bleue bog. Some advanced theoretical wetland models have included
383 ecohydrological feedbacks for the patterning on peatlands (Frolking et al., 2010; Mirris,
384 2013). Additionally, some cellular landscape models described by Swanson and Grigal
385 (1988), Couwenberg and Joosten (2005), Eppinga et al. (2009) and Morris et al. (2013),
386 dealing explicitly with fine-scale variability of peatland hydrology, have also been
387 applied to explore peat development. The model presented by Bohn et al. (2013) includes
388 fractional area representations for ridge and hollow in a wetland, but does not consider
389 explicit lateral fluxes between these microtopographic units. To the best of our
390 knowledge, only one ecosystem model currently includes representation of
391 microtopographic variability (hummock-hollow topography) with lateral
392 connection, that being the “ecosys” model (Grant et al., 2012). Ecosys tracks
393 horizontal exchange between hummock and hollow elements, but its prediction of
394 water table dynamics is constrained by specifying a regional water table at a fixed
395 height and a fixed distance from the site of interest (mainly applied for a fen
396 environment). Here we explore an extension of that approach, with lateral

397 connections between hummock and hollow elements, and with a more mechanistic
398 simulation of water table dynamics. Rather than specifying an external water table
399 height, we predict bog water table dynamics in part as a function of bog geometry,
400 including height of the bog's raised-dome center relative to a bog-scale drainage
401 element (lagg), relative surface height differences between hummock and hollow,
402 and fractional area contributions from hummocks and hollows. We implement this
403 new capability within the Community Land Model (CLM), with the aim of expanding
404 our simulations to large-scale bog simulations in subsequent studies.

405 The Community Land Model (CLM) (Oleson et al., 2013), the land component
406 of the Community Earth System Model (CESM), couples water, carbon, nitrogen, and
407 energy cycles together for the study of ecosystems. CLM does not currently
408 represent vegetated peatlands (or vegetated wetlands of any type), nor does it
409 represent lateral flow pathways common to surficial peats (Verry et al., 2011a, b).
410 To realistically represent the hydrological dynamics of raised-dome bog
411 microtopography in CLM, we incorporated structural and process changes
412 characteristic of vegetated peatlands. CLM without and with our new modifications
413 is hereafter referred to as CLM_Default and CLM_SPRUCE, respectively. A key
414 objective for this effort was to produce an enhanced CLM_SPRUCE capable of being
415 used for accurate simulations of high-carbon wetland hydrologic and carbon cycle
416 responses for application to plausible future climate conditions. SPRUCE, the
417 Spruce and Peatland Responses Under Climatic and Environmental Change
418 experiment, is a 10-year warming by elevated CO₂ manipulation of a high-carbon
419 forested peatland in northern Minnesota designed to provide information on

420 ecosystem changes under unique future warming and atmospheric conditions
421 (<http://mnspruce.ornl.gov>). The modified CLM model is parameterized from, and
422 independently evaluated against, observations from pre-treatment data sets for the
423 SPRUCE experiment and long-term peatland hydrology studies on the Marcell
424 Experimental Forest (MEF). The model improvements reported here represent the
425 first time that the isolated hydrologic cycle of an ombrotrophic bog, with its
426 characteristic raised hummocks and sunken hollows, has been represented in the
427 land surface component of an Earth system model. Hummock-hollow functionality
428 within CLM_SPRUCE allows for the simulation of defensible estimates of peatland
429 water table dynamics, necessary to predict dynamic CO₂ and CH₄ flux components
430 for peatland carbon cycle predictions.

431 **2. Site description and measurement**

432 Our study focuses on an ombrotrophic bog (a raised-dome peat bog in which
433 water and nutrient inputs originate from atmospheric sources). The specific study
434 site is a high-carbon, boreal peatland, which is located approximately 40 km north
435 of Grand Rapids, Minnesota, USA (N 47° 30.476'; W 93° 27.162' and 412 m above
436 mean sea level). The site is designated the S1-Bog and is situated within the S1
437 watershed (Fig. 1). The S1-Bog and watershed have been part of a long-term
438 research program of the USDA Forest Service Northern Research Station at the MEF
439 for over 50 years (Verry et al., 2011c).

440 The S1-Bog is an 8.1-ha *Picea-Sphagnum* bog that was harvested in two
441 successive strip cuts 5 years apart (1969 and 1974) (Sebestyen et al., 2011a). The
442 bog surface has a hummock/hollow microtopography with a typical relief of 10 to

443 30 cm between the tops of the hummocks and the bottoms of the hollows (Nichols
444 1998). The elevation of the hollows is fairly consistent throughout the S1-Bog, but
445 increases along a gentle slope to the highest point of the raised-dome near the
446 center of the bog (Verry, 1984; Richardson et al., 2010). The vegetation, climate,
447 hydrology, long-term monitoring, and post-European settlement site history are
448 described in Sebestyen et al. (2011a). Briefly, vegetation within the S1-Bog is
449 dominated by the tree species *Picea mariana* (Mill.) B.S.P and *Larix laricina* (Du Roi)
450 K. Koch, a variety of ericaceous shrubs, and *Sphagnum* sp. moss. Mean annual air
451 temperature is 3.4°C, and the average annual precipitation is 780 mm (Verry et al.,
452 2011d), with 75% of the precipitation occurring in the snow-free period from mid-
453 April to early November. Mean annual air temperatures have increased about 0.4°C
454 per decade over the last 40 years.

455 Peatlands at the MEF formed as ice-block depressions infilled over the past
456 11,000 years (Verry et al., 2011d). The peatlands are surrounded by gently sloping
457 upland mineral soils that drain toward the peatland. The peat deposit in the S1-Bog
458 is generally 2 to 4 m deep with maximum depths of 11 m (Parsekian et al., 2012). In
459 a typical year, the peatland water table fluctuates within the top 30-cm of peat
460 (Sebestyen et al., 2011b), which corresponds to peats that are least decomposed and
461 have the highest hydraulic conductivities (Verry et al., 2011a). As such, water flows
462 laterally through these highly conductive peats when water tables are near the peat
463 surface and the peatland water table is above the elevation of the peatland outlet.
464 The peatland has two hydrologically and vegetationally distinct zones: the bog and
465 the surrounding lag zone (Verry et al, 2011b). The central raised-dome bog radially

466 drains to the peatland perimeter (the lagg zone) when water tables are near the
467 peat surface (Fig. 2). Water flows into the peatland lagg from both the upland and
468 bog soils and the lagg coalesces into an outlet stream (Fig. 2). Streamflow is
469 intermittent, with flow occurring during snowmelt and after large rainfall events.
470 Some water does exit the peatland through lateral subsurface flow through a sand
471 berm that forms the southern boundary of the peatland, and through the bottom of
472 the ancient lake bed. [The broadly-domed surface of the bog is characterized by a
473 microtopography of raised hummocks and sunken hollows. The mean height of the
474 bog surface above the level of the lagg is estimated as 0.7m to the hummock
475 surfaces, and 0.4m to the hollow surfaces, which is typical of raised-dome bog
476 structure in general.](#)

477 Evapotranspiration ([ET](#)) is ~65% of annual precipitation in peatlands at the
478 MEF (Brooks et al., 2011). As a part of SPRUCE pretreatment measurement
479 protocols, water table levels have been measured every 30-minutes at the
480 meteorological stations (EM1 and EM2) that are approximately 3 m apart in the S1-
481 Bog (data and metadata are available at
482 ftp://mnspruce.ornl.gov/SPRUCE_EM_DATA_2010_2011/). Water levels were
483 recorded from TruTrack WT-VO water level sensors ($\pm\sim 2$ mm resolution,
484 <http://www.trustrack.com/WT-VO.html>) using Campbell Scientific CR1000
485 dataloggers. The two water level sensors were placed in hollows at EM1 and EM2.
486 Water table levels have been recorded since 2011 with the exception of periods of
487 frozen peat when the sensors are nonfunctional. In this study, water table height is
488 referenced to zero at the hollow surface. Positive values indicate standing water in

489 the hollows, and negative values indicate that water table is below hollow surfaces.

490 [While measurements of ET are not available for the S1-Bog, annual ET](#)
491 [estimated on the basis of water budget measurements is available for a 21-year](#)
492 [period of record \(1979-1999\) at the nearby S2-Bog \(Nichols and Very, 2001\). The](#)
493 [physical setting, vegetation types and water table dynamics of the S1 and S2 Bogs](#)
494 [are similar, except the S2-Bog did not undergo the strip cuts,](#)

495 3. Model description and experiment design

496 3.1 Model description

497 We used the Community Land Model version 4.5 (CLM4.5) as the starting point
498 for our model development and evaluation. The new features of CLM4.5 (Oleson et
499 al., 2013) compared to its predecessor CLM4 include improved canopy processes,
500 soil hydrology updates, a new lake model, a vertically resolved soil biogeochemistry
501 scheme (Koven et al. 2013), a new fire model, a methane production, oxidation, and
502 emissions model (Riley et al. 2011) and an optional runoff generation scheme (Li et
503 al. 2011). Hydrology improvements in CLM4.5 include introduction of an ice
504 impedance function, surface water and other corrections that increase the
505 consistency between soil water saturated state and water table position, allowing
506 for the maintenance of a perched water table above permafrost layers (Swenson et
507 al., 2012).

508 The default CLM4.5 hydrology parameterizes interception, throughfall, canopy
509 drip, snow accumulation and melt, water transfer between snow layers, infiltration,

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514 evaporation, surface runoff, sub surface drainage, vertical transport through the
515 vadose zone, and groundwater discharge and recharge (Fig. 7.1 in Oleson et. al,
516 2013). CLM4.5 also includes hydrologic and thermal properties for organic-rich
517 peat in addition to mineral soils. CLM4.5 does not include interactions between
518 horizontally variable soil columns, so no lateral flows are represented. The default
519 CLM4.5 parameterization for subsurface drainage produces an unrealistically deep
520 water table relative to observations in wetlands (Oleson et al., 2008). For this study
521 we use the thermal and hydraulic properties of peat as defined globally in CLM 4.5
522 (Lawrence and Slater, 2007) with the exception of the maximum subsurface
523 drainage rate, which is calibrated for the site (q_{dria} , see next section).

524 **3.2 New formulation for raised-dome bog hydrology**

525 Microtopography is simulated in CLM_SPRUCE by two interconnected soil
526 profiles representing the hummock and hollow areas, with the hollow surface set
527 0.3 m lower than that of the hummock, and with otherwise identical physical
528 properties with depth. The bog area is assumed to be 75% hummock and 25%
529 hollow, an approximation based on site measurements. We added several new
530 structure and process representations to CLM4.5 to improve correspondence with
531 observed features of the S1-Bog (Fig. 2, inset). Modifications include 1)
532 reformulation of the subsurface drainage term to represent horizontal subsurface
533 flow from the bog to the lagg which then drains to the outlet stream; 2) introduction
534 of a two-column structure to represent hummock/hollow microtopography; 3)
535 addition of lateral transport to represent saturated equilibration between the
536 hummock and hollow columns; 4) introduction of surface runoff from hummocks to

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538 hollows; and 5) drainage of surface water in the hollows to the lagg. Our intent with
 539 this particular set of modifications was to capture the physical and hydrological
 540 processes that distinguish an ombrotrophic bog from the more general soil
 541 hydrology representation in the original model.

542 The original formulation for subsurface runoff uses a TOPMODEL-based
 543 approach for surface and subsurface runoff (Niu et al., 2005). Subsurface drainage
 544 rate q_{drai} exponentially decays with water table depth:

$$q_{drai} = q_{drai,0} \exp(-f_{drai} (z_w)) \quad (1)$$

545 Here, $q_{drai,0}$ is the maximum subsurface drainage rate ($\text{Kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), which occurs
 546 when the water table is at the surface. f_{drai} is the exponential decay factor (m^{-1}), and
 547 z_w is the depth of the water table below the surface (m). For our new model we use
 548 the default global value $f_{drai} = 2.5 \text{ m}^{-1}$ from CLM4.5 (Oleson et al. 2013), but we
 549 modify equation (1) such that the subsurface drainage term becomes zero when the
 550 water table depth drops to the local depth of the lagg z_{lagg} (0.4m relative to the
 551 hollow surface and 0.7m relative to the hummock surface as a mean value for the
 552 S1-Bog):

$$q_{drai} = q_{drai,0} \left(\exp(-f_{drai} (z_w)) - \exp(-f_{drai} (z_{lagg})) \right), z_w < z_{lagg}$$

$$q_{drai} = 0, \text{ otherwise} \quad (2)$$

553 [This model parameterization represents an assumed barrier to lateral and vertical](#)
 554 [drainage imposed by the glacial till layer when the water table is below the level of](#)
 555 [the lagg](#). At the S1-Bog, there is an observed small but persistent “deep seepage”

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561 term representing vertical subsurface drainage from the perched bog water table
562 (included in Fig. 2, but set to zero for simulations here, due to lack of adequate data
563 for parameterization). For this study, the maximum subsurface drainage rate $q_{\text{drai},0}$
564 is calibrated against site water table observations.

565 For modification (3), the simulated lateral transport of water, $q_{\text{lat},\text{aqu}}$ (mms^{-1}),
566 is a function of the difference in simulated water table level between the
567 hummock and hollow columns, the specific yield of the soil layer in question, the
568 average hydraulic conductivity and the average horizontal distance between
569 columns:

$$q_{\text{lat},\text{aqu}} = \frac{\left(\frac{k_{\text{hum}} + k_{\text{hol}}}{2} (z_{\text{w},\text{hum}} - z_{\text{w},\text{hol}}^*) \right)}{\Delta x} \quad (3)$$

570 k_{hum} (mm s^{-1}) is the weighted mean saturated hydraulic conductivity of the
571 hummock layers containing the aquifer, and k_{hol} (mm s^{-1}) is the weighted mean
572 saturated hydraulic conductivity hollow layers containing the aquifer. We used
573 CLM4.5 default peatland saturated hydraulic conductivity values, which decrease as
574 a function of depth (Oleson et al. 2013) and fall in the observed range for bogs in the
575 region (Verry et al. 2011a). Δx is the horizontal separation between the hummock
576 and hollow columns, which is assumed to be 1 meter. Variables $z_{\text{w},\text{hum}}$ and $z_{\text{w},\text{hol}}^*$
577 represent the hummock and adjusted hollow water table depths (meters) relative to
578 the hollow surface. The adjusted hollow water table depth $z_{\text{w},\text{hol}}^*$ reflects a reduction
579 in water table depth by the height of surface water that is present on the hollow
580 surface. To transport water laterally between hummock and hollow, we first use

581 CLM's calculation of specific yield for the soil layer containing the water table and
582 determine the difference in water table height resulting from the lateral flux. If the
583 magnitude of the lateral flux is larger than the capacity of that layer, the water table
584 may move into higher or lower layers using the same relationship between specific
585 yield of those layers and water table height. Transport from hollow surface water
586 into the hummock soil column may also occur.

587 Modification (4) involves directing the surface runoff term calculated on the
588 hummock as an input term to the hollow surface. Because of the large infiltration
589 capacity of peat, this term is most relevant when the upper peat layers of the
590 hummock are frozen.

591 The implementation of surface water storage and runoff in CLM 4.5
592 considers microtopography across an entire grid cell rather than within the wetland
593 portion of a grid cell, and does not account for the effects of peatland
594 microtopography (Oleson et al., 2013). Here we assume that the hollows are
595 interconnected, and the surface water runoff from the hollows is determined by the
596 slope of the raised dome bog and the surface water height. Therefore for
597 modification (5), we replace the formulation of surface water runoff using the
598 formulation for wetland flow by Kadlec and Knight (2009) that includes a vertical
599 stem density gradient and a bottom slope, modified by Kazezyilmaz-Alhan et al.
600 (2007):

$$q_{h2o,sfc} = r_{h2osfc} z_{h2osfc}^2 \quad (4)$$

601 Here, $q_{h2o,sfc}$ is the surface water drainage rate ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) and z_{h2osfc} is the surface
602 water height in the hollow (m). The parameter r_{h2osfc} is an aggregated coefficient
603 that includes both vegetation-induced friction and the bottom slope of the hollows
604 in the raised dome bog. This parameter is calibrated against observations to
605 improve model performance at the S1-Bog (results in Table 1).

606 Our current implementation of CLM_SPRUCE does not include a unique
607 biophysical parameterization for Sphagnum moss, which is a recognized
608 shortcoming. Other efforts are underway to quantify the unique hydraulic and
609 physiological properties of moss, including field studies in the S1-Bog and
610 laboratory studies based on S1-Bog samples. Introduction of lateral connectivity and
611 bog geometry and microtopography are first-order steps toward improved
612 representation of peatland hydrology. We intend to include new parameterizations
613 emerging from observational and experimental efforts in subsequent work with
614 CLM_SPRUCE.

615 **3.3 Simulation experiment setup**

616 Picea, Larix, and shrubs are represented by the corresponding CLM plant
617 functional types. Because Sphagnum moss physiology is not represented in CLM, we
618 use the C3 grass plant functional type to represent both sedges and Sphagnum moss.
619 Both hummock and hollows include the same vegetation distributions. Simulations
620 were conducted using CLM_Default and CLM_SPRUCE with prescribed vegetation
621 canopy phenology. To capture site evapotranspiration from vegetation, the
622 maximum leaf area indices were based on site observations. Several model

623 parameters were set to match site observations, including leaf C:N ratios, rooting
624 depth profiles and specific leaf area (Table 1). Since this study focuses on the site
625 hydrology, biogeochemistry is turned off in the model to avoid computationally
626 costly carbon pool spinups, and carbon fluxes have not been tracked for these
627 annual hydrologic simulations.

628 Half-hour SPRUCE environmental driver data are being collected and are
629 available since 2011, but a longer data sequence was needed for model simulations.

630 The model is driven by 35-year (1979-2013) environmental reanalysis data from
631 NCEP2 (Kanamitsu et al., 2002) including temperature, precipitation, specific
632 humidity, solar radiation, wind speed, pressure and long wave radiation at a 6-hour
633 time step and extracted for the gridcell containing the S1-Bog. NCEP precipitation
634 was rescaled using daily precipitation data from a recording rain gage in the nearby
635 South Meteorological Station at the MEF (Sebestyen et al., 2011a).

636 The 10-year long SPRUCE climate change field experiment at the S1-Bog will
637 consist of combined manipulations of temperature (various differentials up to 9K
638 above ambient) and CO₂ concentration (ambient and 800-900 ppm). To investigate
639 how the bog water table levels in hummock/hollow microtopography may respond
640 to different warming scenarios, we performed 8 simulations from the same starting
641 point in year 2000, designed to reflect the warming treatments being implemented
642 in the field. The model simulations include a control simulation (CTL), and six
643 simulations with increasing air temperature (+3K, +6K, and +9K above ambient,
644 respectively) under two humidity conditions. Three of these six simulations used
645 the same specific humidity (Q) as CTL, which will be referred to here as 'warming

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648 and constant Q'. The other three simulations used the same relative humidity (RH)
649 as CTL, (and hence, due to warmer air temperatures, higher Q), denoted here as
650 'warming and constant RH'. The final simulation increased air temperature by +9K
651 and specific humidity by 30%, which is lower than the constant RH scenario. This
652 final humidity setting is based on the projection of CESM under RCP8.5 scenario at
653 the end of 21st century (Moore et al., 2013). We note that the warming and
654 constant Q scenario most closely represents the planned experimental manipulation
655 at SPRUCE, since there will be no water vapor additions. The treatments for the
656 SPRUCE field experiment will include belowground soil warming achieved with
657 vertical heating elements (Hanson et al., 2011). The purpose of the belowground
658 heating is to compensate for subsurface heat loss around the edges of the
659 aboveground enclosures. Since CLM_SPRUCE does not account for lateral heat flow,
660 the planned SPRUCE active belowground heat manipulations are not included in the
661 current simulations. To estimate incoming longwave radiation under the warming
662 scenarios, we use clear-sky assumptions about atmospheric temperature, humidity,
663 and emissivity (Idso et al. 1981)

664 Parameter calibrations for q_{drai} and r_{h2osfc} are performed jointly using a
665 genetic algorithm (Thomas and Yao, 2000) requiring 1000 simulations, and
666 optimizes the model against the daily observed water table level from 2011 and
667 2012. Observations from the year 2013 are used for evaluation. The calibrated
668 model with our new modifications is then compared with the observations and used
669 to predict future scenarios.

670 [As an independent evaluation of the modeled relationship between annual](#)

671 [evapotranspiration \(ET\) and annual air temperature \(T\), we compared model](#)
672 [results for the 21-year period 1979-1999 with observations of ET from the nearby](#)
673 [S2-Bog. We further explored the ET vs. T relationship over the range of warming](#)
674 [treatments, in an effort to place some confidence bounds on our model findings](#)
675 [regarding changes in bog hydrology under experimental warming.](#)

676

677 **4. Results**

678 **4.1. Simulated water table level**

679 Simulations with (CLM_SPRUCE) and without (CLM_Default) our new
680 hydrological treatment are used to test the influence of new model representations
681 of hydrological processes at the microtopographic level of peatland hummocks and
682 hollows. CLM_Default produces a water table depth of 3-4 m (Fig. 3a), which can be
683 considered representative of the regional water table in the upland and below the
684 bog (Verry et al. 2011b), but is not realistic of the perched water table in the bog
685 itself. Reformulating lateral drainage flow from the bog to the lagg as a function of
686 the height difference between the simulated bog water table and the lagg outlet,
687 CLM_SPRUCE simulates a water table depth of <1m (a perched water table, Fig. 3a).
688 CLM_SPRUCE simulates independent water tables for the hummock and hollow bog
689 elements, but by parameterizing near-surface and sub-surface hydraulic
690 connectivity between hummock and hollow, the water tables in these two elements
691 track each other on short time scales (Fig. 3b). The small differences between
692 hummock and hollow water tables occur during large precipitation events.
693 CLM_SPRUCE simulates standing water in the hollow during snowmelt and after

694 large precipitation events, with drying of the hollows due to drainage to the lagg and
695 evapotranspiration. In the summer of 2012 a prolonged period of low precipitation
696 resulted in a simulated water table decline to approximately 30 cm below the
697 surface of the hollow. [Mean annual water budget predicted by the model has ET as](#)
698 [57.48% of annual precipitation, in reasonable agreement with the observed value of](#)
699 [65% \(Fig.8\).](#)

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700 Time series observations of water table height from two sensors (EM1 and
701 EM2) located within the S1-Bog and separated by ~3 m were available for parts of
702 calendar years 2011, 2012, and 2013. The water table depth data from these
703 sensors are in good agreement with water table data from 10 additional sensors
704 distributed across the S1-Bog in 2014. Data from 2011 and 2012 were used to
705 parameterize the new lateral drainage terms in CLM_SPRUCE (Table 1), with
706 observations from 2013 used for evaluation. The model CLM_SPRUCE captures the
707 timing and magnitude of observed water table dynamics in 2011 and 2012, with
708 some periods of underestimation in 2011 and overestimation in 2012, but no clear
709 indication of a consistent prediction bias. Water table height predictions for the
710 evaluation year, 2013, are in good agreement with observations ($R^2 = 0.51$) for both
711 timing and magnitude (Fig. 4).

712 4.2 Simulated hydrologic response to climate warming

713 4.2.1 Influence of warming and humidity changes on simulated water table 714 heights

716 Simulated warming of the bog through an imposed increase in near-surface
717 air temperature results in model prediction of drying and a deeper water table (Fig.
718 5). The magnitude of warming effects on water table height is influenced strongly by
719 assumptions regarding changes in humidity. For the case where absolute humidity
720 (Q , kg H₂O/kg dry air) is unchanged (in comparison to control), all warming
721 treatments (+3, +6, and +9 K) cause a deepening of water table level (Table 2), with
722 deepening of ~15cm year-round for the +9K scenario (Figure 5a). Under this
723 scenario the system shifts from frequent periods of standing water in the hollows in
724 spring and following large precipitation events (CTL), to an almost complete
725 absence of standing water periods (+9K). The mean state of the water table in
726 summer months for the +9K case with constant Q is lower than the deepest water
727 table exhibited in the control scenario under dry conditions in the summer of 2012.
728 Under the alternative assumption for humidity changes, in which relative humidity
729 is maintained as in the control (requiring progressive increases in absolute
730 humidity under +3, +6, and +9K warming scenarios), water table height is lowered
731 only on average by ~5cm, with some evidence of slower recovery from deeper
732 water table at the end of the summer 2012 dry period (Fig. 5b). The planned
733 experimental manipulations for the SPRUCE chambers will consist of increased air
734 temperature but no additions of water vapor (due to cost constraint), so the
735 eventual experimental conditions will be close to the assumptions shown here for
736 the constant Q case (Fig. 5a). Earth system model predictions for future climate
737 change actually fall somewhere between the two end-point cases illustrated in
738 Figure 6. Based on results from the CESM for a future radiative forcing of 8.5 W/m²,

739 which generates a regional near-surface air temperature increase of almost 9K by
740 year 2100 and so seems a reasonable candidate global simulation for this purpose,
741 the regional specific humidity increased by 30%, corresponding to a 14% decrease
742 in relative humidity. Evaluating CLM_SPRUCE results when forced with this example
743 climate model projection, we find that the projected response for the end of the
744 century falls between the two endpoint simulations already shown, and is generally
745 closer to our constant Q case than to our constant RH case (Fig. 6).

746 **4.2.2 Influence of warming on simulated evapotranspiration**

747 Since the constant Q scenarios most closely follow the planned experimental
748 treatment, we explore evapotranspiration (ET) and its components response to the
749 warming with only these simulations. ET in CLM_SPRUCE is the sum of three
750 components: transpiration (TR), canopy evaporation (E_c) and soil evaporation (E_s).
751 These modeled water budget terms include tree, shrub, and herbaceous vegetation.
752 ET and its components increase with air temperature for both hummock and
753 hollow under air temperature increased by +3K, +6K and +9K warming scenarios,
754 whose magnitudes scale with the increases of temperature (Table 2). ET is
755 predicted to increase by 53.24%, 76.7% and 87.61% for the hummock under the
756 three warming scenarios (by 61.25%, 91.5% and 116.35% for hollow), respectively.
757 Soil evaporation shows the biggest [percentage](#) increase with warming, especially
758 soil evaporation from the hollows. For example, evaporation from hollows increased
759 by about 132%, 198%, and 256% when the air temperature increased by +3K, +6K
760 and +9K, respectively. Canopy evaporation shows the smallest changes with the
761 three different increases of air temperature (Table 2). The seasonal pattern of

762 transpiration shows that warming causes higher simulated transpiration
763 throughout the growing season, with the largest absolute increases in mid-summer
764 (Fig. 7, top row). Three year averaged time evolution of canopy evaporation
765 demonstrates that E_c is little affected by warming in these simulations, indicating
766 that temperatures and incident radiation are adequate to evaporate most of the
767 canopy intercepted precipitation even in the control simulation (Fig. 7, middle row).
768 Evaporation from the bog surface (E_s) in these simulations is increased under the
769 warming treatments throughout the year, with the largest increases in late winter
770 and spring (Fig. 7, bottom row). At the highest levels of warming, simulated E_s is
771 sometimes reduced compared to moderate warming in the late summer, due to
772 reduced hydraulic conductivity for the dried upper layers of the soil. While
773 observations of ET are not available for the S1-Bog site, a 21-year record of ET
774 based on water budget observations at the nearby S2-Bog provides a valuable basis
775 for evaluation of our simulation results. Comparing the predicted and observed
776 relationship of interannual ET to air temperature for a pre-warming simulation, we
777 find that the simulated and observed slopes are nearly identical for the period 1979-
778 1999, although the mean ET predicted at the S1-bog is about 15% lower than the
779 mean observed at the S2-Bog (Fig. 8). Examining the same relationship for a 14-year
780 record of simulated warming at multiple warming levels, we find that the slope of
781 the interannual relationship is consistent across the warming treatments and
782 similar to the control period, although the strength of the interannual relationship
783 weakens with higher levels of warming. Taken together, the control and warming
784 experiments define a broad and approximately linear relationship between ET and

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788 [T with a slope that does not depart dramatically from the observed or modeled](#)
789 [interannual relationships \(Fig. 8\). The current model does not consider Sphagnum](#)
790 [physiology, which may help to explain the underestimation of ET since Sphagnum](#)
791 [lack stomata while the model includes stomatal regulation. The S2 bog estimates of](#)
792 [ET also include some contribution from upland vegetation, which could further](#)
793 [contribute to bias in the model-data comparison. The model predicted summertime](#)
794 [\(June-August\) ET rate is 2.4 mm/d, well within the range of values reported from](#)
795 [other peatlands in the northern latitudes \(Moore et al., 1994; Lafleur et al., 1997;](#)
796 [Wu et al., 2010\)](#)

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797 **4.3 Influence of warming on simulated snow dynamics and soil temperature**

798 The S1-Bog (and surrounding region) is subject to snowpack accumulation,
799 with a persistent snowpack commonly observed for the period November to April.
800 Our control simulation reproduces this observed behavior (results not shown).
801 Since snow is a good thermal insulator (e.g. Ge and Gong, 2010), and since a thick
802 snowpack occurs during the coldest part of the year, the observed average soil
803 temperature in the bog is warmer than average air temperature, a pattern also
804 reproduced by our control simulation.

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805 In our warming simulations, higher air temperatures lead to a reduced
806 snowfall amount (some precipitation that [falls](#) as snow in the control simulation
807 [falls](#) as rain in the +9K warming simulation) and increased snow melt, both of which
808 contribute to a reduced [snowpack depth](#), with the effect concentrated during the
809 period of typical highest snowpack accumulation in the late winter and spring (Fig.
810 [9](#)). The simulated influence on near-surface soil temperature of this modification of

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821 snowpack is dramatic, with very little difference between control and +9K
822 treatment for the period January – February, warming effects increasing to a
823 maximum over the period March – April, then declining to an intermediate level of
824 warming which persists through the summer and into fall (Fig. 9). Reduced
825 insulating effect of the thinner and more intermittent snowpack in the +9K
826 simulation allows more cooling of the soil during very cold periods, negating the
827 effect of increased air temperature. The influence of warming on deeper soil
828 temperature (shown in Fig. 9 for a layer averaging 3.0 m deep) is much more
829 consistent through the seasons: it is this deep soil temperature offset which sets the
830 thermal baseline toward which shallower soil layers are drawn in the snow-free
831 season, resulting in summer and fall near-surface soil temperatures that are less
832 than the imposed warming of air temperature. The loss of insulation also results in
833 more variability and more extremes in soil temperature.

834 5. Discussion

835 The current study moves us closer to our long-term goal by improving the
836 prediction of peatland water table depth in CLM, and by advancing the state of
837 peatland ecosystem modeling within land surface models by introducing a
838 formulation for the prediction of bog water table depth that does not depend on an
839 externally forced regional water table. Our laterally-coupled two-column hydrology
840 scheme is a first-order approximation of the real bog's undulating hummock-hollow
841 microtopography, and provides a basis for evaluating differences in vegetation
842 distribution or function and differences in sub-surface biogeochemical processes as
843 they exist pre-treatment and as they may evolve under experimental manipulation.

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Deleted: 5.1 Impacts of peatland water table dynamics

848 Simulations presented here suggest that the hydrologic cycle within the S1-
849 bog will respond to increased air temperature under the planned warming
850 experiment and expected under projected climate change. Specifically, water table
851 levels are expected to drop with increased air temperature as a result of increased
852 evapotranspiration. However, the predicted reduction in water table level depends
853 strongly on the level of warming and on the details of humidity modification. The
854 warming influence on water table depth is expected to be larger for the anticipated
855 experimental manipulation (close to constant Q) than would be the case if the
856 experimental manipulation included injection of water vapor with heating of near-
857 surface air (maintaining constant RH).

858 The predicted influence of warming on ET under as assumption of constant
859 specific humidity is quite dramatic at the higher warming levels, producing a
860 significant drop in the simulated water table. Our evaluation of predicted ET and its
861 sensitivity to air temperature indicates that the model produces a very realistic
862 response of ET to temperature variation on interannual to decadal timescales. While
863 we do not yet have any observations from the experimental warming treatments,
864 we are able to show that the simulated response under those warming treatments
865 follows an approximately linear extension of the response in the control period.
866 Based on these preliminary evaluations, we do not have any particular reason to
867 suspect that the simulated response of ET to warming is departing in an unrealistic
868 way from the behavior of the real system. It is remarkable to note that at the highest
869 warming levels nearly all of the annual precipitation is being evaporated, with only a
870 few percent leaving as runoff. This suggests a fundamental shift in the character of

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917 [the bog under levels of warming approximating “business-as-usual” climate change](#)
918 [scenarios. Perched water tables would likely decline under long-term exposure to](#)
919 [these environmental conditions, if our model predictions are correct. Evaluations](#)
920 [against observations at other bog sites, in particular for sites instrumented for eddy](#)
921 [covariance estimates of ET, will be an important next step in our model evaluation](#)
922 [efforts.](#)

923 The interactions of air warming with snowpack and soil temperature
924 simulated by CLM_SPRUCE raise some interesting challenges for the eventual
925 interpretation of results from the SPRUCE warming experiment. Based on results
926 presented here, we expect soil warming to be less than near-surface air warming in
927 systems with consistent over-winter snowpack, under a scenario of radiatively-
928 forced climate change. Since the experimental protocol for warming at the SPRUCE
929 field site includes active below-ground heating elements and the maintenance of
930 differential set points for below-ground temperature that match the air-warming
931 differentials, the differences between soil warming and near-surface air warming
932 expected in nature will be attenuated in the experimental plots. Our modeling
933 results suggest that extra energy will be added by the belowground control system
934 to offset the effect of reduced thermal insulation due to smaller and shorter duration
935 snowpack. This energy source belowground could drive additional interactions with
936 snowpack and other aspects of hydrologic cycle in the heated plots.

937 [In addition to simulations aimed at improved understanding of bog response](#)
938 [to experimental manipulations at the plot-scale, we are also pursuing model](#)
939 [implementations at larger spatial scales. By extending our simulation framework to](#)

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Deleted: As part of our ongoing model development efforts, we are developing more sophisticated simulation approaches which will allow us to specify belowground heat sources controlled in the same manner as the control systems in the real warming experiment. This is an example of how new knowledge can be generated and system-level understanding refined through iteration between process-based simulation and carefully-designed experimentation.

951 include the entire bog domain, we will be able to evaluate large-scale hydrology
952 against streamflow measurements from S1 and nearby bogs. We are already
953 exploring the use of high-resolution gridded domains with explicit vertical and
954 lateral flows as a foundation for more highly parameterized simulations that could
955 allow us to estimate water, energy, and greenhouse gas fluxes for large landscapes
956 in which peatland bogs are an important component. High-resolution elevation and
957 remote sensing information could be incorporated into these simulations to derive
958 model parameters associated with microtopography, surface runoff and subsurface
959 drainage such as lagg elevation. Since the CLM framework is already well suited to
960 simulations in the upland regions of these domains, our current progress on
961 simulating bog hydrology places this large-scale simulation goal within reach.

962 The success demonstrated here with a two-column parameterization of
963 vertical and lateral hydrologic connectivity in a landscape characterized by small-
964 scale topographic variation suggests that similar approaches may be useful in
965 simulations of other similar landscapes. For example, our team is actively exploring
966 multi-scale simulation approaches for representing geophysical, hydrological,
967 biogeochemical, and botanical dynamics in Arctic polygonal tundra underlain by
968 permafrost (e.g. Painter et al., 2013). With a modest increase in complexity we
969 expect to be able to represent water table dynamics over regions of hundreds of m²
970 by tracking the vertical and lateral connectivity of a small number of columns
971 representing, for example, polygon edges and centers. Parameterization for such
972 coarse representations is being developed through very fine-scale process-resolving
973 thermal-hydrology simulation (e.g. Painter and Karra, 2014).

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Deleted: 5.3 Application in other landscapes and scaling .

976 Simulating hydrological dynamics for microtopography of hummocks and
977 hollows in the raised-dome bog environment is a necessary step toward more
978 complete process representation that connects hydrology with vegetation dynamics,
979 soil biogeochemistry, and estimation of greenhouse gas fluxes under changing
980 climate conditions. Our initial efforts have focused on improvements in the
981 modeling of peatland hydrology, but our ultimate goal is to integrate new modeling
982 tools with observed ecosystem characteristics and results from experimental
983 manipulations to understand the interactions of climate, hydrology, vegetation
984 physiology, and biogeochemical cycling in these carbon-rich systems. Warming
985 temperatures and shifting precipitation patterns have the potential to alter all
986 aspects of these interactions, including the possibility of shifting peatland systems
987 from net sinks to net sources of carbon (Limpens et al., 2008; Ise et al., 2008).

988 It has been suggested that the *Sphagnum* layer contributes significantly to
989 total ecosystem CO₂ flux (Oechel and Van Cleve, 1986), and thus plays an important
990 role in the functioning of peatland ecosystem. Our current model work does not
991 include a moss plant functional type and instead uses C3 grass as a proxy, which
992 introduces potential biases. Mosses lack stomata, and the conductance to CO₂
993 diffusion is controlled by a passively variable water layer (Silvola, 1990; Williams
994 and Flanagan, 1996). Work is underway to introduce a new moss plant functional
995 type in CLM_SPRUCE, and we will use observations being gathered from the S1-Bog
996 to parameterize the influence of water content on *Sphagnum* photosynthesis, and to
997 better understand the influence of moss on hydrological and biogeochemical
998 conditions in peatland bogs. Previous efforts at synthesizing and modeling moss

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1042 [physiology and physical properties are informing our progress in this area \(St-](#)
1043 [Hilaire et al., 2010; Turetsky et al., 2012\)](#)

1044

1045 **6. Conclusions**

1046 In this study, the CLM model (Oleson et al., 2013) was modified to explicitly
1047 simulate hydrological dynamics for the microtopography of hummocks and hollows
1048 in a raised bog environment (CLM_SPRUCE). The model was evaluated against half-
1049 hourly measurements of daily water table levels for 3 years. CLM_SPRUCE captures
1050 annual mean and seasonal dynamics in water table levels reasonably well, and
1051 eliminates deep water table and exaggerated seasonal dynamics biases associated
1052 with the default version of CLM4.5. [The model reproduces the relationship between](#)
1053 [interannual ET and air temperature as observed at a nearby site.](#) We used the new
1054 model CLM_SPRUCE to investigate the hydrological responses to different warming
1055 and humidity scenarios. Based on those simulations, we predict a deepening of the
1056 bog water table for the highest warming treatment (+9K) planned in the SPRUCE
1057 experiment, greatly reducing the occurrence of standing water in the hollows. [We](#)
1058 [estimate that the observed relationship between ET and air temperature will hold](#)
1059 [under conditions of experimental warming at levels out to +9K.](#) We also predict a
1060 strong interaction between the air heating treatment and the thickness and duration
1061 of snowpack, with consequences for subsurface temperatures that depend on
1062 snowfall amounts and mean winter temperature. These modeling results have
1063 helped raise awareness of the influence of operational decisions regarding over-
1064 winter heating of the sub-surface in the experimental design.

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1076

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1083

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Table 1. Model parameter values which were modified from default values to reflect site-level measurements or optimized parameters. All measured parameters were used to define vegetation physiology, and were applied separately to each of the dominant species or plant functional types (PFTs) included in the simulations. Optimized parameters were generated at the level of the soil column. For the case of the vegetation physiological parameter (mp), this means that the same value was applied for all vegetation types. Optimized hydrologic parameters were applied to both hummock and hollow columns. ENFB = evergreen needleleaf forest – boreal; DNFB = deciduous needleleaf forest – boreal. Units: dim = dimensionless.

parameter	description	units	Black Spruce (ENFB)	Larch (DNFB)	Shrub	Grass
<i>Measured parameter</i>						
pct_pft	Percentage of PFT in gridcell	%	35	15	20	30
leafcn	leaf carbon:nitrogen ratio	gC/gN	67	24	40	38
SLA _{top}	specific leaf area at canopy top	m ² /gC	0.0075	0.022	0.012	0.03
<i>Optimized parameter</i>						
			Column-level			
mp	Ball-Berry stomatal conductance slope	dim	6.4			
r _{h2osfc}	surface water runoff	kg m ⁻⁴ s ⁻¹	8.40E-08			
Q _{drai,0}	maximum subsurface drainage rate	kg m ⁻² s ⁻¹	9.20E-06			

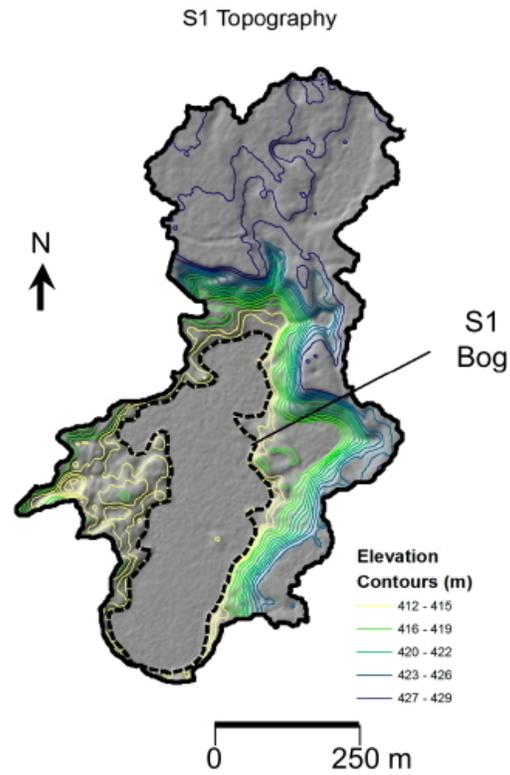
1375 Table 2. The relative changes (as compared to the control) in annual ET and its components, and water table levels (WT) (averaged over the period of
 1376 2011 to 2013) in the hummock (Hum) and hollow (Hol) under different warming scenarios with constant Q experiments (TR, E_c and E_s are canopy
 1377 transpiration, canopy evaporation and soil evaporation, respectively).
 1378

Warming scenario	Effects on ET (%)		Effects on TR(%)		Effects on E_c (%)		Effects on E_s (%)		Effects on WT(cm)	
	Hum	Hol	Hum	Hol	Hum	Hol	Hum	Hol	Hum	Hol
+3K	53.24	61.25	30.6	32.29	45.11	39.86	97.89	131.83	-7.32	-7.12
+6K	76.7	91.51	48.45	51.30	50.22	47.60	137.82	197.97	-12.84	-12.61
+9K	87.61	116.35	65.42	66.75	51.76	48.87	147.21	255.58	-14.60	-14.32

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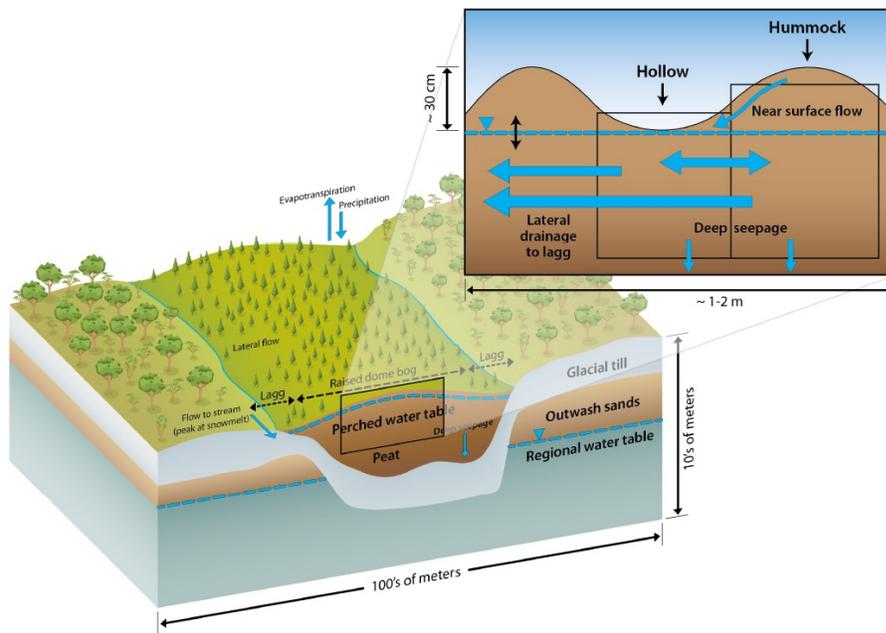


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1388 Figure 1. The topography of the S1 Watershed on the Marcell Experimental Forest,
1389 which contains the S1-Bog peatland.

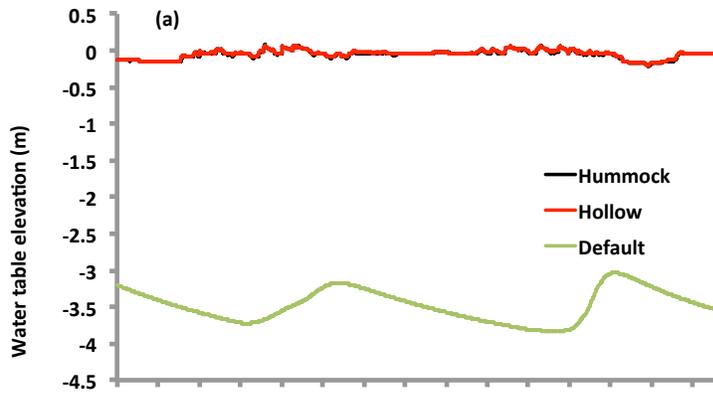
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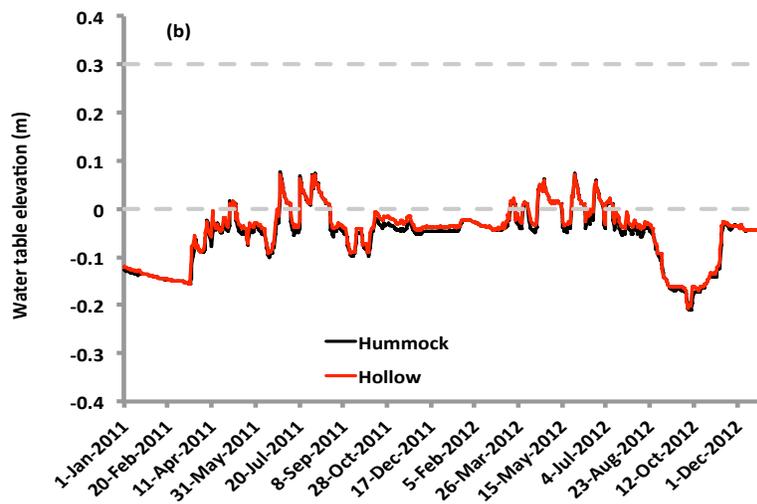


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1394 Figure2. Conceptualization of hummock/hollow microtopography within raised-
1395 dome bog ecosystem. The broad view shows the bog water table perched above
1396 regional water table, due to hydrologic isolation of the bog by underlying glacial till.
1397 The inset shows an idealized cross-section view of microtopography, with model
1398 representation of hummock and hollow columns (black outlines) and water fluxes
1399 (solid blue arrows) between columns and from columns to the bog-scale drainage
1400 feature (lagg). Bog water table is shown as dashed blue line.



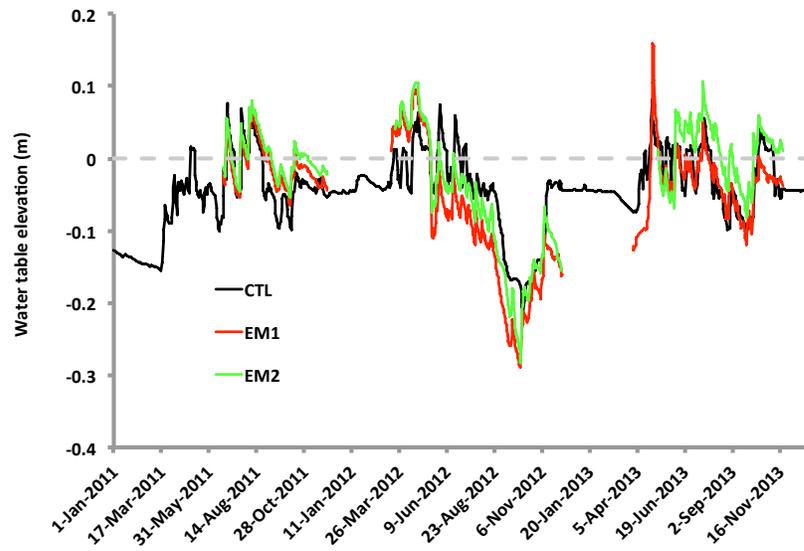
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1403 Figure 3. CLM_Default and CLM_SPRUCE simulated hummock and hollow water
 1404 table levels (a), and CLM_SPRUCE predicted water table dynamics (b) for years 2011
 1405 and 2012. Dashed lines show the height of the surface of the hummock (0.3m) and
 1406 hollow (0m).

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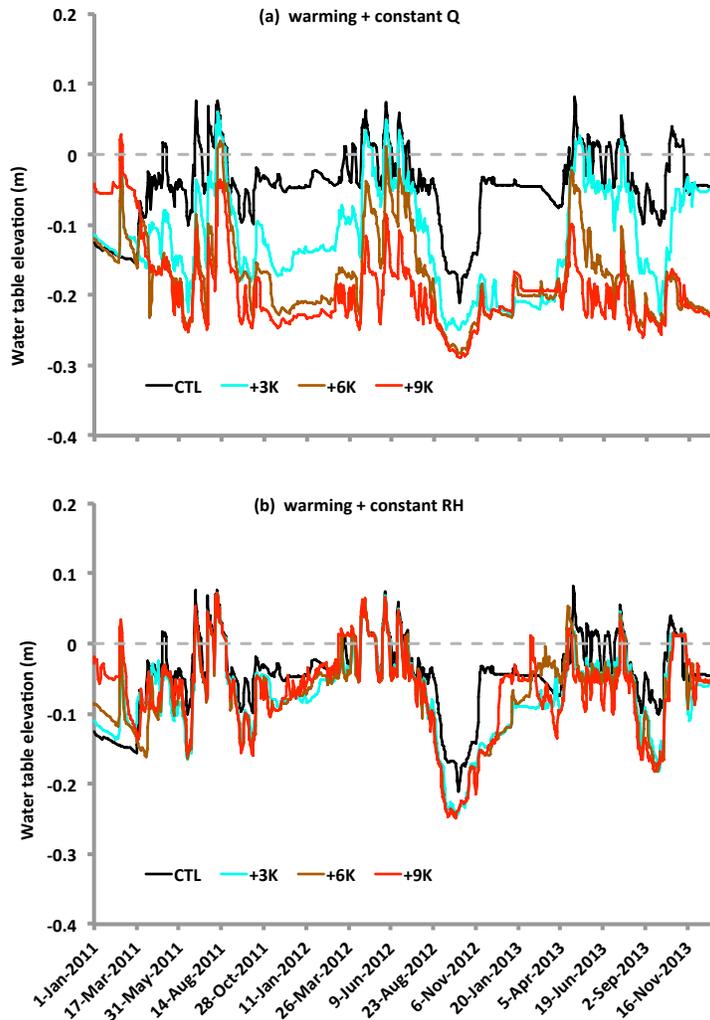
1409 Figure 4. The comparison of CLM_SPRUCE simulated (CTL) and observed water
 1410 table levels (EM1 and EM2) for hummocks for the years 2011 to 2013. Zero line
 1411 indicates the surface of the hollow. For clarity, model results are shown only for the
 1412 simulated hummock: simulated water table heights are nearly identical for
 1413 hummock and hollow (Data are missing from EM1 and EM2 during winter when the
 1414 bog surface is frozen and the water table sensors are not collecting data).

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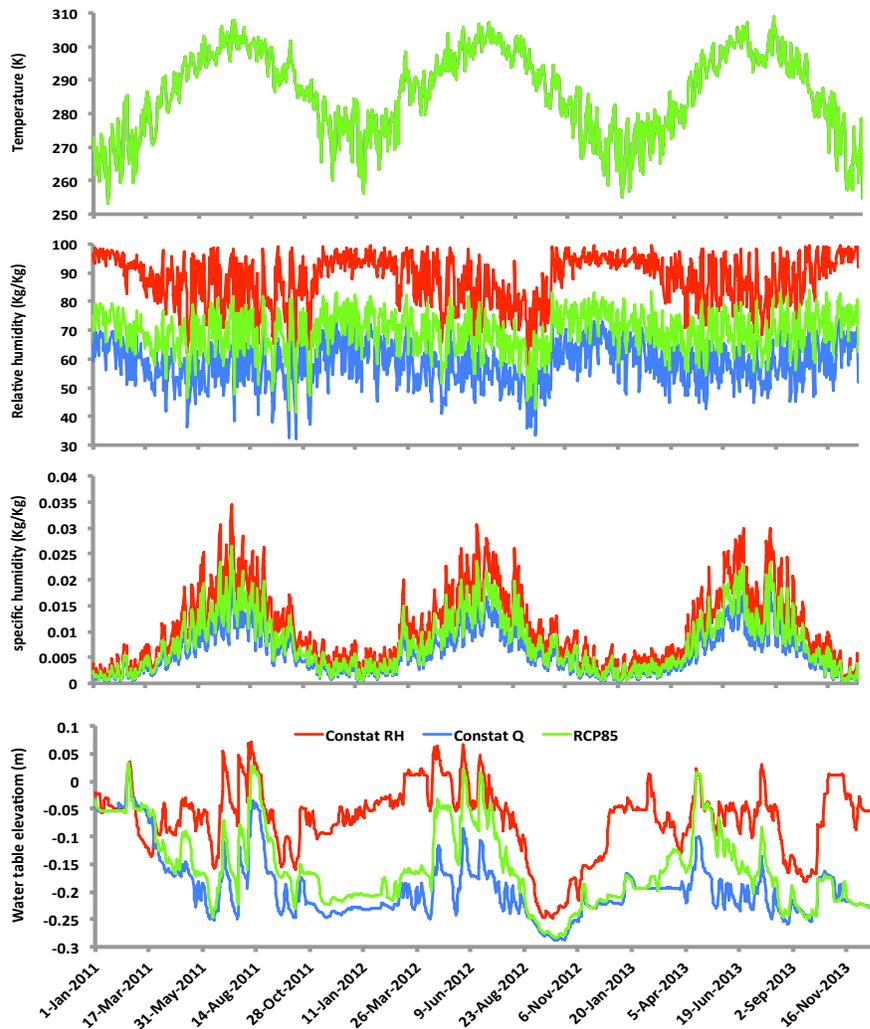
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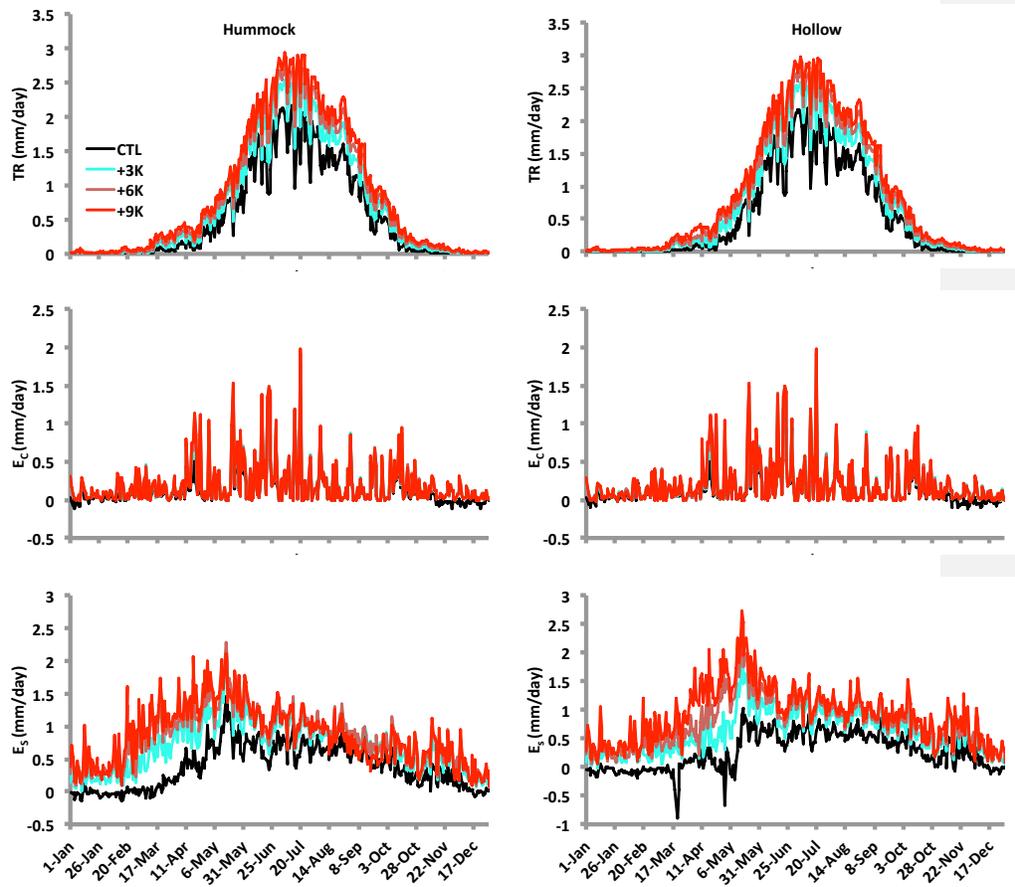
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1423 Figure 5. The simulated water table levels for years 2011-2013 for control
 1424 (ambient) and warming scenarios (+3K, +6K, +9K above ambient) based on two
 1425 humidity conditions: a) the same specific humidity for all 4 simulations (constant
 1426 Q); and b) the same relative humidity for all 4 simulations (constant RH). Zero line
 1427 indicates the surface of the hollow



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 1429 Figure 6. The evolution of temperature, relative humidity (RH), specific humidity
 1430 (Q), and water table levels for warming (+9K) scenarios with three different
 1431 humidity conditions: red lines designate constant RH; blue lines designate constant
 1432 Q; green lines are for increasing Q 30% and decreasing RH 14% (RCP8.5 scenario)
 1433 for years 2011-2013.



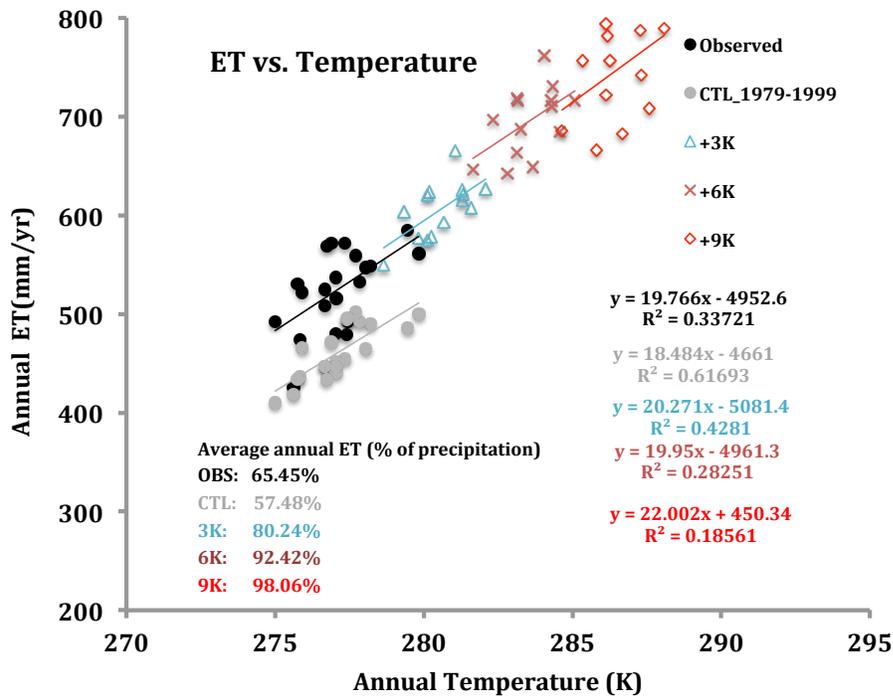
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1435 Figure 7. Seasonal dynamics (averaged over the 2011-2013 period) of three
 1436 components of evapotranspiration, for control and 3 warming scenarios under the
 1437 constant Q assumption for humidity. TR, E_c and E_s are canopy transpiration, canopy
 1438 evaporation and soil evaporation, respectively.

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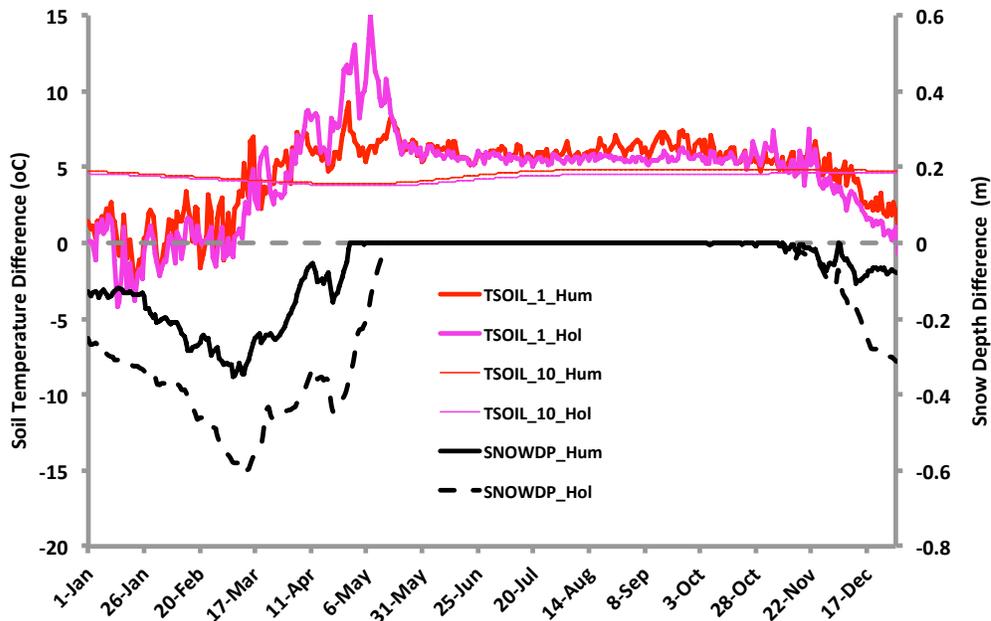
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Figure 8. Annual total ET vs. annual mean air temperature. Observed values from the period 1979-1999 at the S2-Bog. Model values for pre-treatment control simulation using weather data for the period 1979-1999, and for three levels of imposed warming (+3K, +6K, and +9K) based on weather data for the period 2000-2013. Regression lines are shown for interannual variation within each of these five categories.

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1026 Figure 9. Differences (9K -control) in soil temperature for first (TSOIL_1) and tenth
 1027 (TSOIL_10) soil layers as predicted by CLM_SPRUCE under constant Q assumptions
 1028 for humidity. Also shown (right x-axis) is the difference in snowdepth (SNOWDP)
 1029 over the hummock (Hum) and hollow (Hol) for the same pair of experiments. Model
 1030 results are shown as the average seasonal cycle over the 2011 to 2013 period.

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