

A multi-scale comparison of modeled and observed seasonal methane emissions in northern wetlands

Xiyan Xu¹, William J. Riley¹, Charles D. Koven¹, Dave P. Billesbach², Rachel Y.-W. Chang^{3, 4}, Róisín Commane³, Eugénie S. Euskirchen⁵, Sean Hartery⁴, Yoshinobu Harazono^{6, 7}, Hiroki Iwata^{6, 8}, Kyle C. McDonald^{9, 10}, Charles E. Miller¹⁰, Walter C. Oechel^{11, 12}, Benjamin Poulter¹³, Naama Raz-Yaseef¹, Colm Sweeney^{14, 15}, Margaret Torn^{1, 16}, Steven C. Wofsy³, Zhen Zhang^{15, 17}, Donatella Zona^{11, 18}

¹Earth Sciences Division, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, California, USA;

²Biological System Engineering Department, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska;

³School of Engineering and Applied Sciences, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts, USA;

⁴Department of Physics and Atmospheric Science, Dalhousie University, Halifax, Nova Scotia, Canada;

⁵Institute of Arctic Biology, University of Alaska Fairbanks, Fairbanks, Alaska, USA;

⁶International Arctic Research Center, University of Alaska Fairbanks, Fairbanks, Alaska, USA;

⁷Graduate School of Life and Environmental Sciences, Osaka Prefecture University, Sakai, Osaka, Japan;

⁸Department of Environmental Sciences, Faculty of Science, Shinshu University, Matsumoto, Nagano, Japan;

⁹Department of Earth and Atmospheric Sciences, CUNY Environmental Crossroads Initiative and NOAA-CREST Institute, The City College of New York, City University of New York, New York

¹⁰Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, California, USA;

¹¹Global Change Research Group, Department of Biology, San Diego State University, San Diego, California, USA;

¹²Department of Environment, Earth and Ecosystems, The Open University, Milton Keynes, U. K. MK7 6AA;

¹³Department of Ecology, Montana State University, Bozeman, MT 59717, USA

¹⁴Cooperative Institute for Research in Environmental Sciences, University of Colorado, Boulder, CO, 80304

¹⁵NOAA Earth System Research Laboratory, Global Monitoring Division, Boulder, CO, USA

¹⁶Energy and Resources Group, University of California-Berkeley, Berkeley, California, USA;

¹⁷Swiss Federal Research Institute WSL, Birmensdorf 8059, Switzerland

¹⁸Department of Animal and Plant Sciences, University of Sheffield, Sheffield S102TN, United Kingdom.

Correspondence to : Xiyan Xu (xxu@lbl.gov)

47 **Abstract:**

48 Wetlands are the largest global natural methane (CH₄) source, and emissions between
49 50°N and 70°N latitude contribute 10-30% to this source. Predictive capability of land
50 models for northern wetland CH₄ emissions is still low due to limited site measurements,
51 strong spatial and temporal variability in emissions, and complex hydrological and
52 biogeochemical dynamics. To explore this issue, we compare wetland CH₄ emission
53 predictions from the Community Land Model 4.5 (CLM4.5-BGC) with site to regional
54 scale observations. A comparison of the CH₄ fluxes with eddy flux data highlighted
55 needed changes to the model's estimate of aerenchyma area, which we implemented and
56 tested. The model modification substantially reduced biases in CH₄ emissions when
57 compared with CarbonTracker CH₄ predictions. CLM4.5 CH₄ emission predictions agree
58 well with growing season (May-September) CarbonTracker Alaskan regional-level CH₄
59 predictions and site-level observations. However, CLM4.5 underestimated CH₄ emissions
60 in the cold season (October-April). The monthly atmospheric CH₄ mole fraction
61 enhancements due to wetland emissions are also assessed using the WRF-STILT
62 Lagrangian transport model coupled with daily emissions from CLM4.5 and compared
63 with aircraft CH₄ mole fraction measurements from the Carbon in Arctic Reservoirs
64 Vulnerability Experiment (CARVE) campaign. Both the tower and aircraft analyses
65 confirm the underestimate of cold season CH₄ emissions by CLM4.5. The greatest
66 uncertainties in predicting the seasonal CH₄ cycle are from the wetland extent, cold
67 season CH₄ production and CH₄ transport processes. We recommend more cold-season
68 experimental studies in high latitude systems, which could improve understanding and
69 parameterization of ecosystem structure and function during this period. Predicted CH₄
70 emissions remain uncertain, but we show here that benchmarking against observations
71 across spatial scales can inform model structural and parameter improvements.
72

73 **1 Introduction**

74 Natural wetlands are the largest natural methane (CH₄) source, contributing up to
75 34% of global CH₄ emissions (Kirschke et al., 2013). Between 1980 and 2009, estimated
76 global annual CH₄ emissions from wetlands varied from 115 to 231 Tg CH₄ in top-down
77 atmospheric inversion models and 169 to 284 Tg CH₄ in bottom-up process-based land
78 models (Kirschke et al., 2013). Peat-rich bogs and fens lying between 50°N and 70°N
79 constitute about half of the global wetland area, and release 10-30% of the total wetland
80 CH₄ (Wania et al., 2010; Zhuang et al., 2004; Bergamaschi et al., 2009; Riley et al.,
81 2011). Much of the northern wetland area is in the permafrost zone, which stores
82 1035±150 Pg soil organic carbon for the 0-3m soil depth (Hugelius et al., 2014). When
83 permafrost soils thaw, CH₄ is produced under anaerobic conditions by methanogenic
84 archaea. Once CH₄ is produced, it can be oxidized by methanotrophic archaea. CH₄
85 surface emissions occur through several transport pathways: aqueous and gaseous
86 diffusion, ebullition, and aerenchyma diffusion and advection. At any point in the soil,
87 the CH₄ concentration is governed by the balance between CH₄ production in anoxic
88 zones, CH₄ consumption in oxic zones, transport, and atmospheric CH₄ diffusion at the
89 soil-atmosphere interface.

90 Many interacting factors (e.g., temperature, thaw depth, soil moisture, depth of
91 the water table, vegetation type) affect CH₄ production and emission. CH₄ production has
92 a positive response to temperature increase (Van Hulzen et al., 1999; van Winden et al.,
93 2012; Hommeltenberg et al., 2014) and laboratory incubations of soil samples from the
94 active layer show that large variability of Q₁₀ values for CH₄ production (1.5 to 28,
95 Segers et al., 1998) is related to site-specific peatland type and organic matter quality
96 (Lupascu et al., 2012). CH₄ emissions also show positive temperature dependence above
97 freezing. The temperature dependence of surface CH₄ emission is much stronger than that
98 of respiration and photosynthesis, which indicates increases in both CH₄ emissions and
99 the ratio of CH₄ to CO₂ emissions with seasonal increases in temperature (Yvon-
100 Durocher et al., 2014). The positive temperature dependence of CH₄ emissions may only
101 be valid when CH₄ oxidation is less sensitive to temperature (van Winden et al., 2012).
102 The Q₁₀ value for CH₄ oxidation was reported to be 1.4 to 2.1 in northern peat soils
103 (Dunfield et al., 1993). Strong oxidation temperature sensitivity can lead to decreased
104 CH₄ surface emissions with rising temperature (Wang et al., 2014). The positive
105 dependence of CH₄ emissions on soil temperature can be most significant in areas with
106 sufficient soil moisture or a shallow water table (Roulet et al., 1992; Moosavi et al., 1996;
107 Wickland et al., 1999). The dependency of CH₄ emissions on temperature can vanish at
108 high temperature and low water table (Hommeltenberg et al., 2014). At low water table
109 levels, large CH₄ oxidation can mask the CH₄ production temperature sensitivity in the
110 net emissions. CH₄ production under sub-zero temperatures was reported in incubation
111 experiments (Clein and Schimel, 1995; Brouchkov et al., 2003), however, the
112 mechanisms that regulate CH₄ production under cold temperatures have not been
113 clarified.

114 Soil water content exerts strong control on CH₄ emissions by affecting
115 belowground carbon decomposition and root growth (Iversen et al., 2015). A lowered
116 water table typically reduces CH₄ production and emission, because of a higher aerobic to
117 anaerobic respiration ratio in the soil column and CH₄ oxidation during diffusive

118 transport through the oxygen-rich surface layer (Whalen and Reeburgh, 1990). If CH₄
119 produced in anoxic zones (e.g., below the water table) is transported to the atmosphere
120 through aerenchyma, the impact of methanotrophy on net CH₄ emissions is diminished
121 (Bartlett et al., 1992; Torn and Chapin, 1993; King et al., 1998; Juutinen et al., 2003;
122 McEwing et al., 2015). The reduced methanotrophic impacts vary with vascular species
123 cover and root density and are more common in tall vegetation, because taller plants have
124 more extensive root systems that enable more methanogenesis and pore water CH₄ to
125 escape to the atmosphere (van Fischer et al., 2010). The correlation between water table
126 depth and CH₄ emission can be very weak if the water table drops in an already oxic
127 surface layer (Sturtevant et al., 2012).

128 The seasonal cycle of CH₄ emissions and their physical controls are strongly
129 controlled by the freeze-thaw cycle in northern wetlands, and its regulation of wetland
130 extent. The northern wetland area retrieved from the 19- and 37-GHz passive microwave
131 Special Sensor Microwave/Image (SSM/I) brightness temperature database shows that
132 maximum inundation is usually observed during July, August, and September in north
133 America (48°N-68°N) and between June and September in northern Eurasia (Mialon et
134 al., 2005). The inundation dynamics retrieved from SSM/I and ISCCP observations, ERS
135 scatterometer responses, and AVHRR visible and near-infrared reflectance also show that
136 maximum inundation occurs in July and August in northern boreal regions (55°N-70°N)
137 (Prigent et al., 2007). The inferred wetland extent increases rapidly during the spring
138 thaw period and shrinks again during the fall freeze period; though it is unclear at large
139 scales how much of this seasonal cycle is due to changes in the areal fraction of land in
140 which water ponds at the surface versus changes in the phase of that water. The
141 interannual variability of high-latitude summer wetland extent is very small. Larger
142 interannual variability during the intermediate seasons arises from the large variability of
143 the timing and extent of snowmelt and accumulation (Mialon et al., 2005). For boreal
144 bogs north to 50°N, the variation in wetland area contributed about 30% to the annual
145 emissions and can explain the interannual variation in regional CH₄ emissions (Ringeval
146 et al., 2010).

147 Site measurements have shown great variability in seasonal CH₄ emissions
148 (Wilson et al., 1989; Mastepanov et al., 2008; 2013; Zona et al., 2016). In the late fall to
149 winter, the surface water or shallow peat zone are frozen, and CH₄ produced below the
150 frozen layer can be trapped. Only a small portion of the trapped CH₄ is oxidized because
151 of low oxygen concentrations below the frozen layer (Mastepanov et al., 2008). Observed
152 CH₄ emissions during spring thaw are highly variable and contribute substantially to total
153 annual emissions. CH₄ fluxes during the spring thaw period contributed 11% to the
154 annual budget over an aapa mire in Finnish Lapland (Hargreaves et al., 2001). The
155 emission amounts can be 24% of the total annual emissions during the spring period after
156 snowmelt next to an open pool in Caribou Bog, Maine, while the proportion can be as
157 high as 77% in the adjacent upland area (Comas et al., 2008). In the non-inundated
158 upland tundra, the cold season (September to May) emissions account for more than 50%
159 of the annual CH₄ emissions (Zona et al., 2016). Although wetlands can contribute a
160 large proportion of annual CH₄ emissions during the cold season, the seasonal peak of
161 CH₄ emissions is usually observed in the summer (Pickett-Heaps et al., 2011; Zona et al.,
162 2016). A transport model combined with flight measurements showed the peak CH₄
163 emission to be in July-August in the Hudson Bay Lowlands (Pickett-Heaps et al., 2011).

164 Although the recorded emission pulses during spring thaw and late fall (Song et al., 2012;
165 Tokida et al., 2007; Rinne et al., 2007; Mastepanov et al., 2008; 2013) may be more
166 localized and of minor importance to annual emissions (Chang et al., 2014; Rinne et al.,
167 2007), the pulses indicates the complexity and heterogeneity in the seasonal CH₄ cycle.

168 Many modeling studies have shown that there is large uncertainty in predictions
169 of spatial patterns of CH₄ emissions from natural wetlands at the regional and global
170 scales (Melton et al., 2013; Bohn et al., 2015). This uncertainty can be roughly split into
171 poor knowledge of water table and soil moisture dynamics versus poor knowledge of
172 CH₄ fluxes per unit area of land with a given water table depth or soil moisture state; both
173 contribute substantially to the overall uncertainty. One approach to reducing this overall
174 uncertainty is to focus on the seasonal cycles of CH₄ emissions at the site scale (where
175 inundation dynamics can be more easily constrained) versus at larger scales to ask
176 whether model predictions and errors are consistent across these scales. The temporal
177 dynamics of CH₄ emissions over the season cannot be ignored when calculating long-
178 term CH₄ budgets (Morin et al., 2014). To investigate the seasonal cycle of CH₄
179 emissions in northern wetlands and the underlying processes in a climate model context,
180 we evaluated and modified the CH₄ biogeochemistry module in the Community Land
181 Model (CLM 4.5). Seasonal cycles of CH₄ emissions in Alaskan wetlands are analyzed
182 based on the modified model predictions, CH₄ emission measurements at high-latitude
183 sites, CarbonTracker CH₄ emission estimates, and atmospheric inversion estimates of
184 surface CH₄ emissions from data collected in the Carbon in Arctic Reservoirs
185 Vulnerability Experiment (CARVE). The models and data are described in section 2.
186 Multi-scale comparison results and discussions are given in section 3, and concluding
187 remarks in section 4.

188 **2 Data and Methods**

189 **2.1 Models description**

190 **2.1.1 CH₄ model in CLM4.5-BGC**

191 The CH₄ biogeochemistry model used here (CLM4Me; Riley et al. (2011)) has
192 been coupled to the revised land model CLM4.5, which includes numerous changes to
193 vegetation, soil biogeochemistry, and hydrology from the CLM4.0 in which CLM4Me
194 was originally developed. CLM4Me includes representation of CH₄ production,
195 oxidation, and transport through the soil column. Transport includes multiple pathways:
196 aerenchyma transport, ebullition, and aqueous and gaseous diffusion. Aerenchyma is the
197 most efficient pathway for gas exchange between the soil and atmosphere in wetlands or
198 aquatic environments, through which atmosphere O₂ is supplied to roots and the
199 rhizosphere while CH₄ is removed from the soil to shoots and the atmosphere. In
200 CLM4Me, aerenchyma transport (A) is parameterized as gaseous diffusion in response to
201 a concentration gradient between the soil layer (z) and the atmosphere (a) as:

202

$$203 \quad A = \frac{C(z) - C_a}{\frac{r_L z}{D_p T \rho_r} + r_a}, \quad (1)$$

204

205 where D ($\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$) is the free-air gas diffusion coefficient, $C(z)$ (mol m^{-3}) is the gaseous
206 concentration at depth z , dimensionless r_L is the ratio of total root length to root depth, p
207 (-) is tiller porosity; T ($\text{m}^2 \text{m}^{-2}$) is specific aerenchyma area, r_a (s m^{-1}) is the aerodynamic
208 resistance between the surface and the atmospheric reference height, and r_r (-) is the root
209 mass fraction in the soil layer. The aerenchyma area T is seasonally varying with
210 phenology S (described below):

211

$$212 \quad T = \frac{f_N N_a S}{0.22} \pi R^2, \quad (2)$$

213

214 where N_a (gC m^{-2}) is annual net primary production (NPP), R ($2.9 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}$) is the
215 aerenchyma radius, f_N is the belowground fraction of current NPP, and the factor 0.22
216 (gC) is the mass of C per tiller. The dimensionless term S is included in CLM4Me to
217 capture seasonal cycles of aerenchymous tissues. In the absence of data on phenology of
218 aerenchyma, S was originally taken as the leaf area index (LAI).

219 The default method for calculating inundation fraction (F_{def}) remains the same as
220 described in Riley et al. (2011), which applied a simple inversion model to represent the
221 spatial inundation:

222

$$223 \quad F_{def} = p_1 e^{-z_w/p_2} + p_3 Q_r, \quad (3)$$

224

225 The three parameters (p_1, p_2, p_3) are optimized with the inundation map by Prigent et al.
226 (2007). z_w is simulated water table depth (m) and Q_r is surface runoff (mm s^{-1}). We also
227 applied an estimate of inundation fraction F_{S+G} (Poulter et al., In Review) derived from
228 seasonal cycle of inundation fraction from the Surface Water Microwave Product Series
229 Version 2.0 (SWAMPS, Schroeder et al., 2015) developed at the NASA Jet Propulsion
230 Laboratory with the Global Lakes and Wetlands Dataset (GLWD, Lehner and Doll, 2004)
231 to discuss the potential uncertainties in CH_4 emissions caused by wetland area.

232 Our model is driven by half-degree CRUNCEP V5 6-Hourly Atmospheric
233 Forcing dataset (1901-2013) (<http://dods.extra.cea.fr/data/p529viov/cruncep/readme.htm>).
234 Monthly wetland CH_4 emissions are simulated between the year 2000 and 2012 during
235 which F_{S+G} is available. The monthly CH_4 emissions in half-degree resolution are
236 regridded to $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ and averaged longitudinally to compare with CarbonTracker predicted
237 CH_4 fluxes. Daily wetland CH_4 emissions are simulated for year 2012 and 2013 to
238 calculate the atmospheric enhancements of CH_4 due to modeled surface emissions.

239

240 **2.1.2 WRF-STILT modeling of CH_4 transport**

241 We simulate the atmospheric CH₄ mole fraction enhancements due to wetland
242 emissions by combining the CLM4.5 predicted daily surface emissions with the land
243 surface influences (“footprint”) calculated by the Weather Research and Forecasting-
244 Stochastic Time-Inverted Lagrangian Transport (WRF-STILT) model (Henderson et al.;
245 2015). WRF-STILT estimates the upwind surface influence along the flight track of the
246 CARVE aircraft by releasing 500 particles at the point of flight measurement and
247 allowing them to stochastically disperse in reverse time over 10 days (Henderson et al.,
248 2015). The resolution of the resulting footprint sensitivity used in this study
249 is 0.5 °×0.5°, covering 30-90°N, circumpolar. However, we assume that CH₄
250 transported from areas outside of Alaska are most likely mixed thoroughly in the
251 atmosphere before they reach Alaska, and therefore only contribute to the background
252 abundance of CH₄.

253 **2.2 Measurements of CH₄**

254 **2.2.1 Site-Scale Observations**

255 We compare CLM4.5 CH₄ emission predictions with data obtained from
256 published studies and recent measurements of northern hemisphere static chamber (SC)
257 measurements at 10 sites and eddy covariance (EC) measurements at 10 sites, of which 8
258 are in Alaska (Supplement Table S1). The eddy covariance measurements in Alaska (Fig.
259 S2) are obtained at the Barrow Environmental Observatory (BEO1) tower operated by the
260 Next Generation Ecosystem Experiment (NGEE)-Arctic group; Barrow Environmental
261 Observatory tower (BEO2), Biocomplexity Experiment South (BES) tower, Climate
262 Monitoring and Diagnostics Laboratory (CMDL) tower, Atqasuk (ATQ) tower and
263 Ivotuk (IVO) tower operated by Global Change Research Group at San Diego State
264 University (Zona et al., 2016); tower in Fairbanks (FAI, Iwata et al., 2015) operated by
265 International Arctic Research Center, the University of Alaska Fairbanks; and tower at
266 the Imnavait Creek watershed (IMN, Euskirchen et al., 2012). Monthly means are
267 calculated across each observational record to compare to predicted mean seasonal CH₄
268 cycle. We discarded the monthly mean if the number of valid measurement days is less
269 than half a month.

270 **2.2.2 Comparisons to Airborne Measurements**

271 The regionally integrated CH₄ mole fraction enhancements over Alaska were
272 calculated from the CH₄ mole fractions measured by NOAA and Harvard Picarro
273 spectrometers aboard a NASA C-23B aircraft (N430NA) during CARVE aircraft flights
274 (Chang et al., 2014). The Harvard CH₄ measurements were gap filled with the NOAA
275 CH₄ measurements to create a continuous 5-s time series. The flight measurements were
276 conducted on selected days from May to September in 2012 and April to October in 2013
277 during the Carbon in Arctic Reservoirs Vulnerability Experiment (CARVE) campaign,
278 for a total of 31 flight days in 2012 and 43 flight days in 2013 (Fig. S1 and Table S2).
279 The measurements of CH₄ with concurrent CO mole fractions above 150 ppb are
280 excluded to remove possible CH₄ production from biomass burning. In Alaska,
281 atmospheric boundary layer depth is in the range of 1100-1600 m above ground level
282 (agl) during April and October according to COSMIC satellite and Radiosonde data

283 (Chan and Wood, 2013). We assume that the observed concentration fluctuations below
284 500m agl can be used to infer the variation of surface CH₄ fluxes; the measurements
285 above 1600 m agl are used to infer background mole fraction of CH₄. The monthly mean
286 enhancements in observed atmospheric CH₄ mole fraction is compared to that estimated
287 from the CLM4.5 CH₄ enhancements.

288 **2.2.3 Comparisons to Global-Scale Inversions**

289 To compare our methane emissions with global and regional scale inversions, we
290 use monthly regional CH₄ emissions predicted by CarbonTracker (Peters et al., 2007;
291 Bruhwiler et al., 2014) at 1°×1° resolution. In CarbonTracker estimates, the natural CH₄
292 emissions correspond to wetlands, soils, oceans, insects, and wild animals. To examine
293 the land CH₄ emissions only, we apply the CLM land mask to exclude the inferred
294 CarbonTracker CH₄ emission from the ocean surface. CarbonTracker CH₄ estimates are
295 available from January 2000 through December 2010; we therefore limit comparisons
296 against the CLM4.5 predictions to this period.

297 **3 Results and Discussion**

298 **3.1 Model constraints and comparison with observations**

299 We performed sensitivity analyses of all the parameters affecting seasonal CH₄
300 production, oxidation, and emission pathways and found that the parameterization of
301 aerenchyma transport has the greatest impact on the seasonal CH₄ emissions in saturated
302 areas. The CH₄ surface flux sensitivity to aerenchyma is most sensitive to aerenchyma
303 area in saturated conditions, and decreases with increasing aerenchyma area, because
304 increased O₂ fluxes through aerenchyma cause more CH₄ oxidation in the rhizosphere
305 (Riley et al., 2011). Meng et al. (2012) tested plant functional type (pft)-specific fine root
306 carbon (C_{FR}) as a proxy of aerenchyma area and found that aerenchyma area dependence
307 on C_{FR} leads to about 39% increases in global annual CH₄ emissions. In that study, an
308 early spring spike in CH₄ emission through aerenchyma transport was shown at a
309 Michigan site in both LAI and C_{FR} based aerenchyma area. Our analysis shows that the
310 simulated CH₄ burst through aerenchyma transport during spring thaw is very common in
311 areas experiencing winter dormancy. In CLM4.5, CH₄ production in a given volume of
312 soil is proportional to heterotrophic respiration (HR) in that soil volume, adjusted by soil
313 temperature, pH, redox potential, and variation of seasonal inundation fraction. In the
314 model, CH₄ production starts when the soil temperature is above the freezing point.
315 However, CLM4.5 LAI lags behind the primary thaw day, which, because the original
316 representation of aerenchyma in CLM4.5 is tied directly to LAI, results in a very low
317 aerenchyma area and thus low aerenchyma transport of O₂ into the soil during spring
318 thaw period. Only a very small portion of the CH₄ produced in the soil column is
319 oxidized, allowing a large fraction of CH₄ to be transported to the surface by aerenchyma.
320 The low oxidation rate also occurs when aerenchyma area is calculated with C_{FR} .

321 The uncertainty in representing the seasonality of aerenchyma area is due to (1)
322 poor current understanding of root dynamics and their control on aerenchyma area and (2)
323 scant relevant observations. In tundra, the aboveground production is often not a good

324 proxy for belowground production, because the soil temperature peaks later in the
325 growing season than solar irradiance (Sullivan and Welker, 2005; Sloan, 2011). Further,
326 root dynamics are strongly species dependent. Root growth of *Eriophorum angustifolium*
327 may not be delayed when soil temperature is near 0°C (Chapin, 1974; Billing et al., 1977),
328 while *Dupontia Fischeri* produces many fewer root tips at these low temperatures. In
329 *Eriophorum vaginatum*, fine root growth is lagged significantly behind the aboveground
330 spring growth flush (Kummerow and Russell, 1980).

331 To eliminate the possible bias in the seasonal variation of roots and the extremely
332 low oxidation rate which caused CLM4.5 to predict a large CH₄ burst from inundated
333 areas during the spring thaw, we modified the model parameter S to be constant, which is
334 used in the aerenchyma area estimation. We constrained S using global total CH₄
335 emissions estimated by top-down and bottom-up simulations during 2000-2009 (Kirschke
336 et al., 2013) and site-level measurements. We exclude the CH₄ emission from non-
337 inundated areas for the analysis of seasonal dynamics because the model shows very
338 small seasonal contribution of CH₄ emissions from non-inundated areas globally (Fig. 1).
339 This CH₄ emission pulse from non-inundated areas, which may be related to soil moisture
340 anomalies during spring thaw, has not been experimentally validated, but can lead to
341 large biases in simulated CH₄ emissions from northern high latitudes (>50°N) in May and
342 June (Fig. 1a and 1b). This simplification of the model produced seasonal cycles that did
343 not contain the large springtime CH₄ emission bursts, and we therefore used this modified
344 version for all experiments here.

345 We assessed the sensitivity of the modeled CH₄ fluxes to parametric uncertainty
346 in the constant dimensionless factor S , as described above. S has a direct effect on the
347 magnitude of modeled CH₄ emissions via its control of oxygen diffusion through the soil
348 column and thus CH₄ oxidation. When $S = LAI$, the very low LAI in the spring thaw
349 period leads to low oxidation and consequently overestimated CH₄ net emissions
350 compared to CarbonTracker predictions. During the growing season, the model
351 overestimates LAI at high latitude (Tian et al., 2004) leading to high oxidation and
352 consequently underestimated net CH₄ emissions (Fig. 1e and f). However, few
353 observations of aerenchymous tissue biomass are available to provide an *a priori*
354 constraint to this value. Our goal here is to use a reasonable value of this parameter, not
355 to fully characterize the uncertainty of the parameter choice on CH₄ emissions.

356 Based on a comparison of the globally integrated CH₄ flux with other global
357 estimates, we choose $S=4$, which resulted in an estimated annual total CH₄ emission of
358 228 [Inter-annual Variability (IAV): 221- 239] Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ with F_{def} and 206 [IAV: 200-
359 217] Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ with F_{S+G} during the period 2000 - 2009. The top-down and bottom-up
360 models provide estimates of CH₄ emissions from natural wetlands of 175 [IAV: 142-208]
361 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ and 217 [IAV: 177-284] Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹, respectively, during the same period
362 (Kirschke et al., 2013). The mean CH₄ emission predicted by CLM4.5 is about 42 Tg
363 CH₄ yr⁻¹ lower than the original CLM4Me prediction (annual mean of 270 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹
364 from 1948 to 1972), but slightly larger than the mean value from other bottom-up and
365 top-down models. The disagreement between studies with different models is as large as
366 66% (Kirschke et al., 2013), hence our estimate is well within the range of values from
367 top-down constraints and underscores the uncertainty involved in using such a constraint
368 in inferring model parameters.

369 Compared with CarbonTracker predictions, CLM's biases of underestimated
370 growing-season CH₄ emissions north of 56°N and biases of overestimated CH₄ emissions
371 in 2-53°N and 34-56°S are reduced when using $S = 4$ compared to the default
372 parameterization (Fig. 1d and f). For the global zonal mean, the CLM CH₄ prediction
373 biases are reduced with F_{S+G} (RMSE=2.5 mg CH₄ m⁻² day⁻¹) compared with F_{def} (RMSE
374 = 3.1 mg CH₄ m⁻² day⁻¹). With F_{S+G} , the biases are much reduced in 2-50°N and 30-58°S.
375 However, negative CH₄ emission biases in the tropics remain (Fig. 1c and 1e). The
376 differences in CH₄ emissions using SWAMPS-GLWD and CLM4.5 predicted inundation
377 fraction implies that the prediction uncertainties are not only from the biogeochemical
378 parameterization but also from the wetland extent, consistent with several recent model
379 inter-comparison analyses (Melton et al., 2013; Bohn et al., 2015). In Alaska, the
380 predicted annual CH₄ emissions between 2000 and 2010 are 1.47±0.20, 1.58±0.07, and
381 1.12±0.05 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ for CarbonTracker, CLM4.5 with F_{S+G} , and CLM4.5 with F_{def} ,
382 respectively. Although our predicted annual emissions are reasonable compared with
383 most land surface model predictions, the May to September predictions are about 50-70%
384 of the emissions estimated using an atmospheric inversion based on CARVE
385 observations of 2.1± 0.5 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ (Chang et al., 2014).

386 **3.2 Seasonal CH₄ emissions**

387 **3.2.1 Site level comparison**

388 The mean seasonal cycle of predicted CH₄ emissions is calculated from the 2000-
389 2012 monthly mean in a 0.5°×0.5° grid cell where site measurements exist, while the
390 seasonal cycle of site measurements is calculated for the measurement years. If multiple
391 measurement sites and multiple measurement years with the same measurement method
392 (SC or EC) exist within a given grid cell, the observations are averaged to create a grid
393 cell mean value that can be directly compared with the modeled value for that grid cell.
394 In the 10 site-level static chamber measurements at saturated sites (Fig. 2a-l), the
395 seasonality is well predicted by the revised CLM4.5 CH₄ model at most sites.
396 Measurements and predictions show the peak emission month to be July or August at
397 most sites, except the site in Michigan, USA (Fig. 2f) where the model successfully
398 predicted the peak emissions in May. However, the model misrepresents the seasonality
399 at the Stordalen (Sweden) (Fig. 2a and k) and the Boreas NSA (Canada) (Fig. 2i) site. At
400 the Ruorgai (China) (Fig. 2j), the model does not show a strong seasonal variation from
401 April to September, and notably underestimates the growing season CH₄ emissions. The
402 underestimation of growing season emissions is also found in the Minnesota (USA),
403 Michigan (USA), and Boreas NSA (Canada) sites (Fig. 2d, 2e, 2f and 2h). The sites
404 experiencing soil frost with valid measurements in the cold season demonstrate the
405 CLM4.5 underestimation of CH₄ emissions during this period (Fig. 2a, 2d, 2e and 2i).

406 The eddy covariance measurements from four sites, the BEO1, BEO2, BES, and
407 CMDL sites are in the same model grid cell, therefore, the measurements in these four
408 sites are aggregated to the same grid cell as that of Alaska (Fig. 2m). As the footprints of
409 the measurement towers were not estimated, all the modeled CH₄ emissions at eddy
410 covariance sites are weighted with an observationally estimated seasonal-invariant range
411 of inundation fraction: Stordalen: 80-100%; Boreas SSA: 50-90%; Barrow: 60-100%;

412 Atqasuk: 10-30%; Ivotuk: 5-25%; Fairbanks: 0.5-2.5% and IMN: 5-25%. Measurements
413 at the Stordalen site (Fig. 2a and k) show very different CH₄ emission patterns in
414 seasonality and magnitude for different years and measurement methods. The model
415 significantly underestimates CH₄ emissions even with the maximum fraction of
416 inundation in Stordalen (Fig. 2k). In comparison with the static chamber measurements at
417 Alaska (Fig. 2h), the model predicts a much shorter CH₄ emission season at the non-
418 inundated sites (Fig. 2m-q). The estimated CH₄ emissions begin in April at Ivotuk,
419 Fairbank, and Imnavait. At the northern sites, Barrow and Atqasuk, the estimated CH₄
420 emissions begin in May. In the short emission season, the model underestimates CH₄
421 emissions in June and July at Barrow and Atqasuk and in July at Imnavait, even with the
422 maximum inundation estimation. While the cold-season measurements at Barrow,
423 Atqasuk, and Ivotuk show large CH₄ emissions from October to April in agreement with
424 the static chamber measurements at the sites with cold season soil frost, predicted CH₄
425 emissions end in October at all the Alaskan sites. The largest monthly mean emissions in
426 Alaska cold season are 24.8±9.0 mg CH₄ m⁻² day⁻¹ measured in October at Ivotuk.

427 A number of factors affect the correspondence between site-level CH₄ emission
428 observations and CLM4.5 predictions (Fig. 2), including: (1) we used reanalysis climate
429 forcing data which may lead to some of the differences with the site observations; (2) we
430 used the model's default surface characterization, which is unlikely to exactly match the
431 actual vegetation and soil properties; (3) the spatial and temporal coverage of the site data
432 are sparse; (4) the inter-annual variation of wetland CH₄ emission can be significant; (5)
433 the method of measuring CH₄ fluxes varied from site to site and (6) the seasonal fraction
434 of inundation in eddy covariance tower footprint is unknown. We also expect differences
435 between our CLM4.5 predictions and those reported in Riley et al., (2011) at the site-
436 level comparison, because: (1) simulations in this study were done at higher resolution
437 (0.5°x0.5°) than those in Riley et al. (2011) (1.9° x2.5°); (2) the current simulations are
438 forced by CRUNCEP climate, while Riley et al., (2011) simulations were forced with
439 Qian et al., (2006) climate; (3) the *S* parameter is changed, as discussed above; and (4)
440 the overall water and carbon cycles of CLM changed substantially between CLM4.0 and
441 CLM4.5 (Koven et al., 2013). The site-level discrepancies occur because of the
442 uncertainties discussed above and those arising from other parameters (Riley et al., 2011),
443 including: Q₁₀ of CH₄ production and oxidation, CH₄ half-saturation oxidation coefficient,
444 O₂ half-saturation oxidation coefficient, maximum oxidation rate of CH₄ oxidation, and
445 impact of pH and redox potential on CH₄ production.

446 3.2.2 Regional CH₄ emissions comparison

447 The biases between CLM4.5 and CarbonTracker CH₄ emissions vary with latitude
448 (Fig. 3). The aggregated F_{S+G} led to larger CH₄ emission biases in Alaska (RMSE = 4 mg
449 CH₄ m⁻² day⁻¹) compared to the CH₄ prediction with F_{def} (RMSE = 3 mg CH₄ m⁻² day⁻¹),
450 although it led to smaller global CH₄ emission biases. In Alaska between 58-66°N during
451 the growing season, CLM4.5 using F_{def} has good agreement with CarbonTracker
452 predictions. In this region, CH₄ emissions begin in May, peak in July and August, and
453 end in October (Fig. 4). In May and June, CarbonTracker shows a weak CH₄ sink (~O[10⁻²-
454 10⁻¹] mg CH₄ m⁻² day⁻¹) in contrast to a CLM4.5 predicted weak CH₄ source (~O[10⁻¹]
455 mg CH₄ m⁻² day⁻¹) with F_{def} and stronger CH₄ source (~O[1] mg CH₄ m⁻² day⁻¹) with

456 F_{S+G} in the interior region of Alaska (Interior Alaska) between 63°N-66°N . We
457 hypothesize that this discrepancy occurs because of the difference in the two wetland
458 datasets and the accounting of CH₄ emissions from the non-inundated areas in
459 CarbonTracker. Net CH₄ consumption occurs at dry sites where oxygen is available in the
460 top soil layers (Wickland et al., 1999); however, CH₄ fluxes from the non-inundated areas
461 which could be substantial (Zona et al., 2016) are excluded in CLM4.5 predictions shown
462 in Fig. 3, as described in Methods. Interior Alaska has a highly continental climate with
463 warm and relatively dry summers and extremely cold winters. The weak CH₄ source in
464 the dry summer is thus caused by a reduced wetland extent in Interior Alaska. Interior
465 Alaska experiences the most rain events in autumn, mainly in August and September
466 (Hinzman et al., 2006), which restores some of the extent of wetlands and leads to
467 increases in CH₄ emissions in August and early September. CarbonTracker successfully
468 represented the restored wetland in August and September but not CLM4.5 (Fig. 3 and 4).
469 The autumn emission period is very short and ends with the onset of winter, resulting in a
470 strong drop in CH₄ emissions in October.

471 The CLM4.5 underestimation of northern (> 68°N) Alaska site-level CH₄
472 emissions during the growing season at some sites is confirmed with comparison to
473 CarbonTracker inversions (Fig. 3b). In southern and northern coastal Alaska, CLM4.5
474 predicts a much shorter CH₄ emission season and a smaller magnitude of CH₄ emissions
475 than CarbonTracker. The period of the largest underestimation by CLM4.5 is from May
476 to July with the maximum underestimation of about 9.2 mg CH₄ m⁻² day⁻¹ in June. The
477 underestimated CH₄ emissions occur with both F_{S+G} and F_{def} in the north of 68°N.
478 During the cold season from October to April, CLM4.5 predictions with F_{S+G} or F_{def} are
479 consistently smaller than CarbonTracker estimates across all the latitudes. The mean
480 underestimation of cold season CH₄ emission is less than 1 mg CH₄ m⁻² day⁻¹, which is
481 much smaller than the underestimation we found compared to site level measurements.
482 In comparison with CarbonTracker, CLM4.5 predicted 0.46±0.07Tg and 0.39±0.08Tg
483 less Alaska wide CH₄ emissions in cold season (October to April) with F_{S+G} and F_{def} ,
484 respectively.

485 The CarbonTracker inversions suggest 21.9±3.2% of the annual Alaska CH₄
486 emissions occur during the cold season, while CLM4.5 predicts only 3.5±1.3% and
487 8.3±3.0% (with F_{def} and F_{S+G} , respectively) occur during the cold season. When
488 September and April are included in the “cold season”, the contribution is increased to
489 45.3±4.5% by CarbonTracker, which is slightly smaller than the cold season contribution
490 (50±9%) inferred from site-level (BEO2, BES, CMDL, ATQ and IVO) measurements
491 (Zona et al., 2016). The September-April contributions to annual emissions predicted by
492 CLM4.5 are 32.1±8.1% and 40.1±14.7% of the predicted annual emissions with F_{S+G} and
493 F_{def} , respectively. Although CH₄ fluxes from the ocean surface are excluded, we cannot
494 exclude some influence of coastal grid cells on the CarbonTracker estimates.

495 The atmospheric CH₄ mole fraction enhancements calculated from CLM4.5
496 predicted CH₄ emissions are lower than the CARVE measured CH₄ mole fraction
497 enhancements (Fig. 5). However, in contrast to the emission underestimations that only
498 occur from May to July, the monthly atmospheric CH₄ mole fraction enhancements are
499 underestimated throughout the year, with a maximum underestimation in August (Fig.
500 5a). The CARVE measured peak mole fraction enhancement due to surface CH₄

501 emissions is in August for both 2012 and 2013. Although CLM4.5 predicted the peak
502 CH₄ mole fraction enhancement in August, 2012, predicted seasonal CH₄ mole fraction
503 enhancements are much smaller in 2013 and peaks in September. The underestimation of
504 cold season mole fraction CH₄ enhancements by CLM4.5 leads to 24.0±9.2 ppb and
505 18.9±17.3 ppb lower CH₄ mole fraction enhancements in April and October 2013,
506 respectively. From April to October, the two-year mean monthly atmospheric CH₄ mole
507 fraction enhancements are underestimated by 15 ppb in WRF-STILT-CLM model
508 predictions. The underestimation may not be attributed to anthropogenic CH₄ source and
509 agricultural waste because: (1) we excluded both observed and modeled CH₄ mole
510 fraction enhancements when [CO]>150 ppb, given that anthropogenic CH₄ mole fraction
511 enhancements are consistently correlated to CO mole fraction enhancements (Zona et al.,
512 2016) and (2) The CH₄ emissions from agricultural waste does not show strong seasonal
513 variation according to CarbonTracker estimates. The large standard deviation of CARVE
514 observed CH₄ mole fraction enhancements implies that the CH₄ emissions have large
515 spatial and temporal variability. The CLM4.5 predictions are generally within the
516 observed range of variation except in April and May in 2013.

517 The very low cold season CH₄ emission predictions at site and regional scales
518 occurs because of the assumed temperature sensitivity for CH₄ production when the soil
519 temperature of a given layer is at or below freezing (i.e., no CH₄ production occurs in that
520 soil layer). The multi-layer structure of CLM4.5 can in principle generate CH₄ emissions
521 deeper in the soil after the surface has frozen, though even then, modeled diffusion rates
522 through frozen surface layers are low. Although the measurements show winter CH₄
523 emissions, it remains uncertain whether these emissions are from production at low
524 temperature or residual CH₄ from the end of the growing season. Understanding which of
525 these is occurring is important for diagnosing how to improve model representation of the
526 processes responsible for the wintertime fluxes. The cold season underestimation by
527 CLM4.5 is also partly attributed to the low wetland area during this period at high
528 latitudes (currently, F_{def} is set to zero when snow is present). Given the current
529 observations of CH₄ emissions during the cold season, we believe these two factors need
530 to be re-evaluated in CLM4.5.

531 **3.3 Interannual variation of CH₄ cycle**

532 The CLM4.5 simulated Alaska CH₄ emissions using F_{def} are in very good
533 agreement with CarbonTracker-CH₄ emission in the growing season but biased in the
534 cold season (Fig. 6). The largest growing season discrepancies occur in 2006 and 2007.
535 Bruhwiler et al. (2014) attributed the CarbonTracker 2007 CH₄ emission anomaly to
536 warmer temperatures and higher than normal precipitation. However, the CRUNCEP
537 reanalysis data we used to force CLM4.5 do not have a positive precipitation anomaly in
538 either 2006 or 2007 (Fig. 7a). In contrast, there is a strong negative precipitation
539 anomaly in 2007. The obvious wet years (2000, 2005, 2008, 2011 and 2012) in the
540 CRUNCEP reanalysis data are not directly related to the predicted and measured wetland
541 area anomaly or CH₄ emission anomaly. The mean air temperature in 2007 is only
542 slightly higher than 2000-2012 mean air temperature (Fig. 7b). The correlation analysis
543 implies that the model predicted interannual CH₄ variation is mainly explained by
544 temperature variation (Fig. 8a, $r=0.86$, $P=0.0007$), followed by the default wetland extent
545 (F_{def}) variation (Fig. 8b, $r=0.65$, $P=0.03$), but weakly explained by SWAMPS-GLWD

546 wetland extent (F_{S+G}) variation ($r=0.44$, $P=0.17$) and precipitation variation ($r=0.18$,
547 $P=0.58$). When the CH_4 predictions are calculated with F_{S+G} , correlation between the
548 interannual variation of CH_4 and variation in F_{S+G} ($r=0.18$, $P=0.59$), precipitation ($r=0.36$,
549 $P=0.29$), and temperature ($r=0.32$, $P=0.33$) are substantially reduced. Interannual
550 variation of CH_4 emissions by CarbonTracker are not well correlated to SWAMPS-
551 GLWD wetland extent variation ($r=0.33$, $P=0.32$), variations in CRUNCEP temperature
552 ($r=-0.23$, $P=0.49$), or precipitation ($r=-0.06$, $P=0.86$).

553 **4 Concluding remarks**

554 We implemented and tested needed changes to the estimate of aerenchyma area in
555 CLM4.5. The modeled and measured CH_4 emissions and enhancements in atmospheric
556 mole fractions of CH_4 are used to analyze the seasonal wetland CH_4 emission cycle in
557 Alaska. Both the measurements and model predictions show large latitudinal variability
558 of CH_4 seasonal cycles. At the site level, CLM4.5 generally captures the seasonality in
559 growing season CH_4 emissions. However, comparing eddy covariance CH_4 observations
560 with the model predictions is complicated by the unknown fraction of inundation in the
561 footprint of the measurement tower, which may cause large variations in CH_4 emission
562 predictions. Measurements from the sites experiencing wintertime soil frost imply that
563 CH_4 emissions continue in the cold season (October to April). The likely incorrect
564 treatment of CH_4 production under soil frost in CLM4.5 leads to underestimates of the
565 wintertime emissions. This conclusion is confirmed by the discrepancies between
566 CLM4.5 and CarbonTracker predictions, although the cold season discrepancies between
567 CLM4.5 and CarbonTracker are much smaller than the discrepancies between CLM4.5
568 and site-level measurements. The differences between the seasonality predicted by
569 CLM4.5 and CarbonTracker vary with time and latitude, although the Alaska area-
570 integrated CH_4 emissions agree well. Besides the strength of wintertime CH_4 emissions,
571 the main discrepancies between CLM4.5 and CarbonTracker estimates are northern and
572 southern coastal area CH_4 emissions. The inundation area leads to uncertainties in
573 predictions of seasonal and interannual variability of CH_4 emissions. Compared with the
574 CLM4.5 predicted inundation area, the aggregated F_{S+G} inundation led to smaller global
575 CH_4 emission biases than F_{def} (RMSE dropped from $3.1 \text{ mg CH}_4 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ to 2.5 mg CH_4
576 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$) between CLM4.5 and CarbonTracker. In contrast, the F_{S+G} inundation area
577 increased seasonal emission biases in Alaska by increasing RMSE from 3 to 4 mg CH_4
578 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ compared with the CLM4.5 predicted inundation. The larger SWAMPS-GLWD
579 inundation area leads to much stronger Alaska wide annual CH_4 emissions compared to
580 those calculated from the default predicted inundation area. CLM4.5 predictions show
581 that the interannual variations of CH_4 emissions are correlated with the reanalysis air
582 temperature and wetland extent variation. In contrast, interannual variation in
583 CarbonTracker CH_4 emissions is weakly related to interannual variation in SWAMPS-
584 GLWD wetland area and reanalysis precipitation and temperature.

585 The CLM4.5 CH_4 module constrained from global total annual CH_4 emissions
586 does not accurately represent the seasonal cycles at the regional and site scale seasonal
587 cycles due to large temporal and spatial heterogeneity in surface CH_4 emissions and
588 wetland extent. Further improving the CH_4 biogeochemical model at the seasonal and
589 annual time scales requires further extensive experiments to better understand climate
590 controls on above- and below-ground physiological processes and how vegetation

591 controls gaseous transport (e.g. CH₄ production under low temperatures). Although cold
592 season site-level measurements are rare, the large discrepancies in winter emissions
593 between CLM4.5 and CarbonTracker predictions and site measurements indicate that
594 studies on winter ecosystem activities and wetland evolution in high latitude would be
595 valuable.

596

597

598 **Acknowledgements:** Funding for this study was provided by the US Department of
599 Energy, BER, under the RGCM program and NGEA-Arctic project under contract # DE-
600 AC02-05CH11231. We thank the CARVE flight group for efforts on CARVE science
601 flights. CarbonTracker CH₄ results provided by NOAA ESRL, Boulder, Colorado, USA
602 from the website at <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov>. The eddy covariance tower data used in
603 this study were supported by the Division of Polar Programs of the National Science
604 Foundation (NSF) (Award 1204263); Carbon in Arctic Reservoirs Vulnerability
605 Experiment (CARVE), an Earth Ventures (EV-1) investigation, under contract with the
606 National Aeronautics and Space Administration; and Department of Energy (DOE) Grant
607 DE-SC005160. Logistical support was funded by the NSF Division of Polar Programs.
608

609

References

- 610 Alavala, P. C. and Kirchoff, V. W. J. H.: Methane fluxes from the Pantanal floodplain in
611 Brazil: Seasonal variation, in: *Non-CO₂ Greenhouse Gases: Scientific understanding,*
612 *control and implementation*, edited by: Goossens, A., De Visscher, A., Boeckx, P., and
613 Van Cleemput, O., Kluwer Academic Publishers, Netherlands, 95–99, 2000.
- 614 Bartlett, K. B., Crill, P. M., Sass, R. L., Harriss, R. C., Dise, N. B.: Methane emissions
615 from tundra environments in the Yukon-Kuskokwim delta, Alaska, *J. Geophys. Res.*,
616 97D, 16645–16660, 1992.
- 617 Bergamaschi, P., Frankenberg, C., Meirink, J. F., Krol, M., Villani, M. G., Houweling, S.,
618 Dentener, F., Dlugokencky, E. J., Miller, J. B., Gatti, L. V., Engel, A., and Levin, I.:
619 Inverse modeling of global and regional CH₄ emissions using SCIAMACHY satellite
620 retrievals, *J. Geophys. Res.-Atmos.*, 114, D22301, doi:10.1029/2009JD012287, 2009.
- 621 Billings, W. D., Peterson, K. M., Shaver, G. R., Trent, A. W.: Root growth, respiration,
622 and carbon dioxide evolution in an Arctic tundra soil. *Arctic Alpine Res.*, 9, 129–137,
623 1977.
- 624 Bohn, T. J., Melton, J. R., Ito, A., Kleinen, T., Spahni, R., Stocker, B. D., Zhang, B., Zhu,
625 X., Schroeder, R., Glagolev, M. V., Maksyutov, S., Chen, G., Denisov, S. N., Eliseev,
626 A. V., Gallego-Sala, A., McDonald, K. C., Rawlins, M. A., Subin, Z. M., Tian, H.,
627 Zhuang, Q., Kaplan, J. O.: WETCHIMP-WSL:intercomparison of wetland methane
628 emissions models over West Siveria, *Biogeosciences*, 12, 3321-3349, 2015.
- 629 Brouchkov, A., Fukuda, M., Tomita, F., Asano, K., Tanaka, M.: Microbiology and gas
630 emission at low temperatures: some field and experimental results. *Tōhoku Geophys.*
631 *Journ.*, 36, 452-455, 2003.
- 632 Bruhwiler, L., Dlugokencky, E., Masarie, K., Ishizawa, M., Andrews, A., Miller, J.,
633 Sweeney, C., Tans, P., Worthy, D.: CarbonTracker-CH₄: an assimilation system for
634 estimating emissions of atmospheric methane, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 14, 8269-8293,
635 2014.
- 636 Bubier, J. L., Crill, P. M., Varner, R. K., and Moore, T. R.: BOREAS TGB-01/TGB-03
637 CH₄ chamber flux data: NSA Fen. Data set, available at: <http://www.daac.ornl.gov>,
638 Oak Ridge, TN, USA, 1998.
- 639 Chan, K. M., Wood, R.: The seasonal cycle of planetary boundary layer depth determined
640 using COSMIC radio occultation data, *J. Geophys. Res.-Atmos.*, 118, 12,422-12,434,
641 doi:10.1002/2013JD020147, 2013.
- 642 Chang, R. Y. W, Miller, C. E., Dinardo, S. J., Karion, A., Sweeney, C., Daube, B.,
643 Henderson, J. M., Mountain, M. E., Eluszkiewicz, J., Miller, J. B., Bruhwiler, L. M. P.,
644 Wofsy, S. C.: Methane emissions from Alaska in 2012 from CARVE airborne
645 observations. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.*, 111, 16694-16699, 2014.
- 646 Chapin, F. S.: Morphological and physiological mechanisms of temperature
647 compensation in phosphate absorption along a latitudinal gradient, *Ecology*, 55, 1180-
648 1198, 1974.
- 649 Clein, J. S., Schimel, J. P.: Microbial activity of tundra and taiga soils at sub-zero
650 temperatures. *Soil. Biol. Biochem.*, 29(9), 1231-1234, 1995.
- 651 Clement, R. J., Verma, S. B., and Verry, E. S.: Relating Chamber Measurements to Eddy-
652 Correlation Measurements of Methane Flux, *J. Geophys. Res.-Atmos.*, 100, 21047–
653 21056, 1995.
- 654 Comas, X., Slater, L., Reeve, A.: Seasonal geophysical monitoring of biogenic gases in a
655 northern peatland: implications for temporal and spatial variability in free phase gas

656 production rates, *J. Geophys. Res. Biogeosci.* 113, G01012,
657 doi:10.1029/2007JG000575, 2008.

658 Ding, W. X., Cai, Z. C., and Wang, D. X.: Preliminary budget of methane emissions from
659 natural wetlands in China, *Atmos. Environ.*, 38, 751–759,
660 doi:10.1016/J.Atmosenv.2003.10.016, 2004.

661 Dise, N. B.: Methane Emission from Minnesota Peatlands-Spatial and Seasonal
662 Variability, *Global Biogeochem. Cy.*, 7, 123–142, 1993.

663 Dunfield P, Knowles R, Dumont R, Moore TR. Methane production and consumption in
664 temperate and subarctic peat soils: Response to temperature and pH. *Soil Biol*
665 *Biochem* 1993; 25: 321–326.

666 Euskirchen, E. S., Bret-Harte, M. S., Scott, G. J., Edgar, C., Shaver, G. R.: Seasonal
667 patterns of carbon dioxide and water fluxes in three representative tundra ecosystems
668 in northern Alaska, *Ecosphere*, 1-19, 2012.

669 Granberg, G., Ottosson-Lofvenius, M., Grip, H., Sundh, I., and Nilsson, M.: Effect of
670 climatic variability from 1980 to 1997 on simulated methane emission from a boreal
671 mixed mire in northern Sweden, *Global Biogeochem. Cycles*, 15, 977–991, 2001.

672 Harazono, Y., Mano, M., Miyata, A., Yoshimoto, M., Zulueta, R. C., Vourlitis, G.L.,
673 Kwon, H., Oechel, W.: Temporal and spatial differences of methane flux at arctic
674 tundra in Alaska, *Natl Inst. Polar Res, Spec. Issue*, 59:79–95, 2006.

675 Hargreaves, K. J., Fowler, D., Pitcairn, C. E. R. and Aurela, M.: Annual methane
676 emission from Finnish mires estimated from eddy covariance campaign
677 measurements, *Theor. Appl. Climatol.* 70, 203–213, 2001.

678 Henderson, J. M., Eluszkiewicz, J., Mountain, M. E., Nehr Korn, T., Chang, R. Y.-W.,
679 Karion, A., Miller, J. B., Sweeney, C., Steiner, N., Wofsy, S. C., Miller, C. E.,
680 Atmospheric transport simulations in support of the Carve in Arctic Reservoirs
681 Vulnerability Experiment (CARVE), *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 15,4093-4116, 2015.

682 Hinzman, L.D., L. A. Viereck, P. Adams, V. E. Romanovsky, and K. Yoshikawa, 2006.
683 Climate and permafrost dynamics of the Alaskan boreal forest. In *Alaska's changing*
684 *boreal forest*. Edited by F.S. Chapin III, M.W. Oswood, K Van Cleve, L.A. Viereck,
685 and D.L. Verbyla. Oxford University Press, New York. pp. 39-61.

686 Hommeltenberg, J., Mauder, M., Drösler, M., Heidbach, K., Werle, P., Schmid, H. P.:
687 Ecosystem scale methane fluxes in a natural temperature bog-pine forest in southern
688 Germany, *Biogeosciences*, 11, 3477-3493, 2014.

689 Hugelius, G., Strauss, J., Zubrzycki, S., Harden, J. W., Schuur, E. A. G., Ping, C.-L.,
690 Schirmermeister, L., Grosse, G., Michaelson, G. J., Koven, C. D., O'Donnell, J. A.,
691 Elberling, B., Mishra, U., Camill, P., Yu, Z., Palmtag, J., Kuhry, P.: Estimated stocks
692 of circumpolar permafrost carbon with quantified uncertainty ranges and identified
693 data gaps, *Biogeosciences*, 11, 6573-6593, 2014.

694 IPCC: *Climate Change 2007: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working*
695 *Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report of the IPCC*, edited by: Solomon, S., Qin, D.,
696 Manning, M., Chen, Z., Marquis, M., Averyt, K. B., Tignor, M., and Miller, H. L.,
697 Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, 2007.

698 Iversen, C. M., Sloan, V. L., Sullivan, P. F., Euskirchen, E. S., McGuire, A. D., Norby, R.
699 J., Walker, A. P., Warren, J. M., Wullschleger, S. D.:The unseen iceberg: plant roots
700 in arctic tundra, *New Phytologist*, 205, 34-59, doi: 10.1111/nph.13003, 2015.

701 Iwata, H., Harazono, Y., Ueyama, M., Sakabe, A., Nagano, H., Kosugi, Y., Takahashi, K.,

702 Kim, Y.: Methane exchange in a poorly-drained black spruce forest over permafrost
703 observed using the eddy covariance technique, *Agric. For. Meteorol.*, 214-215, 157-
704 168 2015.

705 Jackowicz-Korczyński, M., Christensen, T. R., Bäckstrand, K., Crill, P., Friborg, T.,
706 Mastepanov, M., Ström, L.: Annual cycle of methane emission from a subarctic
707 peatland, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 115, G02009, doi:10.1029/2008JG000913, 2010.

708 Juutinen, S., Alm, J., Larmola, T., Huttunen, J. T., Morero, M., Martikainen, P. J.,
709 Silvola, J.: Major implication of the littoral zone for methane release from boreal
710 lakes, *Global Biogeochem. Cycles*, 17, 1117.10.1029/2003GB002105, 2003.

711 Karl, D. M., Tilbrook, B. D.: Production and transport of methane in oceanic particulate
712 organic matter, *Nature*, 368, 732-734, 1994.

713 Keller, M. M.: Biological sources and sinks of methane in tropical habitats and tropical
714 atmospheric chemistry, Princeton University, 1990.

715 King, J. Y., William, S. R., Shannon K. R.: Methane emission and transport by arctic
716 sedges in Alaska: results of a vegetation removal experiment, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 103,
717 29083-29092.

718 Kirschke, S., Bousquet, P., Ciais, P., Saunois, M., Canadell, J. G., Dlugokencky, E. J.,
719 Bergamaschi, P., Bergmann, D., Blake, D. R., Bruhwiler, L., Cameron Smith, P.,
720 Castaldi, S., Chevallier, F., Feng, L., Fraser, A., Heimann, M., Hodson, E. L.,
721 Houweling, S., Josse, B., Fraser, P. J., Krummel, P. B., Lamarque, J., Langenfelds, R.
722 L., Le Quéré, C., Naik, V., O'Doherty, S., Palmer, P. I., Pison, I., Plummer, D.,
723 Poulter, B., Prinn, R. G., Rigby, M., Ringeval, B., Santini, M., Schmidt, M., Shindell,
724 D. T., Simpson, I. J., Spahni, R., Steele, L. P., Strode, S. A., Sudo, K., Szopa, S., van
725 der Werf, G. R., Voulgarakis, A., van Weele, M., Weiss, R. F., Williams, J. E., and
726 Zeng, G.: Three decades of global methane sources and sinks, *Nat. Geosci.*, 6, 813–
727 823, doi: 10.1038/ngeo1955, 2013.

728 Koh, H. S., Ochs, C. A., and Yu, K. W.: Hydrologic gradient and vegetation controls on
729 CH₄ and CO₂ fluxes in a spring-fed forested wetland, *Hydrobiologia*, 630, 271–286,
730 doi:10.1007/S10750-009-9821-X, 2009.

731 Koven, C. D., Riley, W. J., Subin, Z. M., Tang, J. Y., Torn, M. S., Collins, W. D., Bonan,
732 G. B., Lawrence, D. M., Swenson, S. C.: The effects of vertically resolved soil
733 biogeochemistry and alternate soil C and N models on C dynamics of CLM4,
734 *Biogeosciences*, 10, 7109-7131, 2013.

735 Kummerow, J., Russell, M.: Seasonal root growth in the Arctic tussock tundra, *Oecologia*,
736 47: 196–199, 1980.

737 Lupascu, M., Wadham, J. L., Hornibrook, E. R. C., Pancost, R. D.: Temperature
738 sensitivity of methane production in the permafrost active layer at Stordalen, Sweden:
739 A comparison with non-permafrost northern wetlands, *Arct., Antarc., Alp. Res.*, 44(4),
740 469-482, 2012.

741 Mastepanov, M., Sigsgaard, C., Tagesson, T., Ström, L., Tamstorf, M. P., Lund, M.,
742 Christensen, T. R.: Revisiting factors controlling methane emissions from high-arctic
743 tundra, *Biogeosciences*, 10, 5139-5158, 2013.

744 Mastepanov, M., Sigsgaard, C., Dlugokencky, E. J., Houweling, S., Ström L., Tamstorf,
745 M. P., and Christensen, T. R.: Large tundra methane burst during onset of freezing,
746 *Nature*, 456, 628–631, 2008.

747 Mao, J., Shi, X., Thornton, P. E., Hoffman, F. M., Zhu, Z., Myneni, R. B., Global
748 latitudinal-asymmetric vegetation growth trends and their driving mechanisms:2982-
749 2009, *Remote Sens.*, 5 1484-1497, 2013.

750 McEwing, K. R., Fisher, J. P., Zona, D.: Environmental and vegetation controls on the
751 spatial variability of CH₄ emission from wet-sedge and tussock tundra ecosystem in
752 the Arctic, *Plant Soil*, 388, 37-52, 2015.

753 Melton, J. R., Wania, R., Hodson, E. L., Poulter, B., Ringeval, B., Spahni, R., Bohn, T.,
754 Avis, C. A., Beerling, D. J., Eliseev, A. V., Denisov, S. N., Hopcroft, P. O.,
755 Lettenmaier, D. P., Riley, W. J., Singarayer, J. S., Subin, Z. M., Tian, H., Zürcher,
756 Brovkin, V., van Bodegom, P. M., Kleinen, T., Yu, Z. C., Kaplan, J. O., Present state
757 of global wetland extent and wetland methane modeling: conclusions from a model
758 inter-comparison project (WETCHIMP), *Biogeosciences*, 10, 753–788,2013.

759 Meng, L., Hess, P. G. M., Mahowald, N. M., Yavitt, J. B., Riley, W. J., Subin, Z. M.,
760 Lawrence, D. M., Swenson, S. C., Jauhiainen, J., and Fuka, D. R.: Sensitivity of
761 wetland methane emissions to model assumptions: application and model testing
762 against site observations, *Biogeosciences*, 9, 2793–2819, doi:10.5194/bg-9-2793-
763 2012, 2012.

764 Mialon, A., Royer, A., Fily, M.: Wetland seasonal dynamics and interannual variability
765 over northern high latitudes, derived from microwave satellite data, *J. Geophys. Res.*,
766 110, D17102, doi:10.1029/2004JD005697, 2005.

767 Moosavi, S. C., Crill, P. M., Pullman, E. R., Funk, D. W., Peterson, K. M.: Controls on
768 CH₄ flux from an Alaskan boreal wetland, *Global Biogeochem. Cycles*, 10, 287-296,
769 1996.

770 Morin, T. H., Bohrer, G., Naor-Azrieli, L., Mesi, S., Kenny, W. T., Mitsch, W. J.,
771 Schäfer, K. V. R.: The seasonal and diurnal dynamics of methane flux at a created
772 urban wetland. *Ecol. Engin.*, 72, 74-83, 2014.

773 Nakano, T., Kuniyoshi, S., Fukuda, M.: Temporal variation in methane emission from
774 tundra wetlands in a permafrost area, northeastern Siberia. *Atmos. Environ.*, 34, 1205–
775 1213, 2000.

776 Olivas, P. C., Oberbauer, S. F., Tweedie, C., Oechel, W. C., Lin, D., Kuchy, A.: Effects
777 of Fine-Scale Topography on CO₂ Flux Components of Alaskan Coastal Plain Tundra:
778 Response to Contracting Growing Seasons, *Arct. Antarct. Alpine Res.*, 43, 256–266,
779 doi: 10.1657/1938-4246-43.2.256, 2011.

780 Peters, W., Jacobson, A. R., Sweeney, C., Andrews, A. E., Conway, T. J., Masarie, K.,
781 Miller, J. B., Bruhwiler, L. M. P., Petron, G., Hirsch, A., Worthy, D. E. J., van der
782 Werf G. R., Randerson, J. T., Wennberg, P. O., Krol, M. C., Tans, P. P.: An
783 Atmospheric perspective on north American carbon dioxide exchange:
784 CarbonTracker, *PNAS*, 18925-18930, 2007.

785 Pickett-Heaps, C. A., Jacob, D. J., Wecht, K. J., Kort, E. A., Wofsy, S. C., Diskin, G. S.,
786 Worthy, D. E. J., Kaplan, J. O., Drevet, J.: Magnitude and seasonality of wetland
787 methane emissions from the Hudson Bay Lowlands (Canada), *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*,
788 11, 3773-3779, 2011.

789 Prigent, C., F. Papa, F. Aires, W. B. Rossow, E. Matthews.: Global inundation dynamics
790 inferred from multiple satellite observations, 1993-2000, *J. Geophys. Res.-Atmos.*,
791 112, D12107, doi:10.1029/2006JD007847, 2007.

792 Qian, T. T., Dai, A., Trenberth, K. E., and Oleson, K. W.: Simulation of global land

793 surface conditions from 1948 to 2004. Part I: Forcing data and evaluations, J.
794 Hydrometeorol., 7, 953–975, 2006.

795 Riley, W. J., Subin, Z. M., Lawrence, D. M., Swenson, S. C., Torn, M. S., Meng, L.,
796 Mahowald, N. M., Hess, P.: Barriers to predicting changes in global terrestrial
797 methane fluxes: analyses using CLM4Me, a methane biogeochemistry model
798 integrated in CESM, Biogeosciences, 8, 1025-1953, 2011.

799 Ringeval, B., de Noblet-Ducoudré, N., Ciais, P., Bousquet, P., Prigent, C., Papa, F.,
800 Rossow, W. B.: An attempt to quantify the impact of changes in wetland extent on
801 methane emissions on the seasonal and interannual time scales, Global Biogeochem.
802 Cycles, 24, GB2003, doi:10.1029/2008GB003354, 2010.

803 Rinne, J., Riutta, T., Pihlatie, M., Aurela, M., Haapanala, S., Tuovinen, J., Tuittila, E.:
804 Annual cycle of methane emission from a boreal fen measured by the eddy Covance
805 technique., Tellus, 59B, 449-457, 2007.

806 Roulet, N. T., Ash, R., Moore, T.R.: Low boreal wetlands as a source of atmospheric
807 methane, J. Geophys. Res., 97 (D4), 3739-3749, 1992.

808 Saarnio, S., Alm, J., Silvola, J., Lohila, A., Nykanen, H., and Martikainen, P. J.: Seasonal
809 variation in CH₄ emissions and production and oxidation potentials at microsites on an
810 oligotrophic pine fen, Oecologia, 110, 414–422, 1997.

811 Schroeder, R., McDonald K. C., Champan, B.D., Jensen, K., Podest, E., Tessler, Z. D.,
812 Bohn, T. J., Zimmermann, R.: Development and evaluation of a multi-year fractional
813 surface water data set derived from active/passive microwave remote sensing data, 7,
814 16688-16732, 2015.

815 Schütz, H., Seiler, W., Conrad, R.: Influence of soil-temperature on methane emission
816 from rice paddy fields, Biogeochemistry, 11, 77–95, 1990.

817 Segers, R.: Methane production and methane consumption: a review of process
818 underlying wetland methane fluxes, Biogeochemistry, 41, 23-51, 1998.

819 Shannon, R. D. and White, J. R.: 3-Year Study of Controls on Methane Emissions from 2
820 Michigan Peatlands, Biogeochemistry, 27, 35–60, 1994.

821 Siavoshi, M., Dastan, S., Yassari, E., Laware, S. L.: Role of organic fertilizers on
822 morphological and yield parameters in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.), Intl. J. Agron. Plant
823 Prod., 4, 1220-1225, 2013.

824 Sloan, V.: Plant roots in Arctic ecosystems: stocks and dynamics and their coupling to
825 aboverground parameters, *PhD Thesis. University of Sheffield*, Sheffield, UK, 2011.

826 Smith, L. K., Lewis, W. M., Chanton, J. P., Cronin, G., and Hamilton, S. K.: Methane
827 emissions from the Orinoco River floodplain, Venezuela, Biogeochemistry, 51, 113–
828 140, 2000.

829 Song, C., Xu, X., Sun, X., Tian, H., Sun, L., Miao, Y., Wang, X., Guo, Y.: Large
830 methane emission upon spring thaw from natural wetlands in the northern permafrost
831 region, Environ. Res. Lett., 7, 034009, doi:10.1088/1748-9326/7/3/034009, 2012.

832 Starr, G., Oberbauer, S., Ahlquist, L.: The photosynthetic response of Alaskan tundra
833 plants to increased season length and soil warming, Arct. Antarct. Alp. Res. 40(1),
834 181–191, 2008.

835 Sturtevant, C. S., Oechel, W. C., Zona, D., Kim, Y., and Emerson, C. E.: Soil moisture
836 control over autumn season methane flux, arctic coastal plain of Alaska,
837 Biogeosciences, 9, 1423–1440, 2012.

838 Sullivan, P. F., Welker, J. M.: Warming chambers stimulate early season growth of an
839 arctic sedge: results of a minirhizotron field study, *Oecologia*, 142, 616-626, 2005.

840 Svensson, B. H., Christensen, T. R., Johansson, E., and Oquist, M.: Interdecadal changes
841 in CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes of a subarctic mire: Stordalen revisited after 20 years, *Oikos*, 85,
842 22–30, 1999.

843 Tian, Y., Dickinson, R. E., Zhou, L., Zeng, X., Dai, Y., Myneni, R. B., Knyazikhin, Y.,
844 Zhang, X., Friedl, M., Yu, H., Wu, W., Shaikh, M.: Comparison of seasonal and
845 spatial variations of leaf area index and fraction of absorbed photosynthetically active
846 radiation from Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) and
847 Common Land Model, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 109, D01103, doi:10.1029/2003JD003777,
848 2004.

849 Tokida, T., Mizoguchi, M., Miyazaki, T., Kagemoto, A., Nagata, O., Hatano, R.:
850 Episodic release of methane bubbles from peatland during spring thaw, *Chemosphere*,
851 70, 165-171, 2007.

852 Torn, M. S., and Chapin III, F. S.: Environmental and biotic controls over methane flux
853 from arctic tundra, *Atmos. Environ.*, 32, 3201–3218, 1993.

854 van Fischer, J. C., Rhew, R. C., Ames, G. M., Fosdick, B. K., von Fischer, P. E.:
855 Vegetation height and other controls of spatial variability in methane emissions from
856 the Arctic coastal tundra at Barrow, Alaska, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 115, G00I03,
857 doi:10.1029/2009JG001283, 2010

858 van Hulzen J.B., Segers, R., van Bodegom, P. M., Leffelaar, P.A.: Temperature effects on
859 soil methane production: and explanation for observed variability, *Soil Biol. and*
860 *Biochem.*, 31, 1919-1929, 1999.

861 van Winden, J. F., Reichart, G.-J., McNamara, N. P., Benthien, A., Damsté, J. S. S.:
862 Temperature-induced increase in methane release from peat bogs: a mesocosm
863 experiment, *PLoS ONE* 7(6): e39614. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0039614, 2012.

864 Verma, A., Arkebauer, T. J., and Valentine, D.: BOREAS TF-11 CO₂ and CH₄ flux data
865 from the SSA-Fen. Data set, available at: <http://www.daac.ornl.gov>, Oak Ridge, TN,
866 USA, 1998.

867 Wang, C., Xiao, S., Li, Y., Zhong, H., Li, X., Peng, P.: Methane formation and
868 consumption processes in Xiangxi Bay of the Three Gorges Reservoir, *Sci. Rep.* 4,
869 444, doi:10.1038/srep04449, 2014.

870 Wania, R., Ross, I., and Prentice, I. C.: Implementation and evaluation of a new methane
871 model within a dynamic global vegetation model: LPJ-WHyMe v1.3.1, *Geosci. Model*
872 *Dev.*, 3, 565–584, doi:10.5194/gmd-3-565-2010, 2010.

873 Wassmann, R., Thein, U. G., Whiticar, M. J., Rennenberg, H., Seiler, W., and Junk, W. J.:
874 Methane emissions from the Amazon floodplain: Characterization of production and
875 transport, *Global Biogeochem. Cy.*, 6, 3–13, 1992.

876 Whalen, S. C., Reeburgh, W. S.: Consumption of atmospheric methane by tundra soils,
877 *Nature*, 342, 160–162, 1990.

878 Whalen, S. C. and Reeburgh, W. S.: Interannual variations in tundra methane emission: a
879 4-year time series at fixed sites., *Global Biogeochem. Cy.*, 6, 139–159, 1992.

880 Whiting, G. J., Chanton, J. P.: Greenhouse carbon balance of wetlands: Methane
881 emission versus carbon sequestration, *Tellus*, 53B, 521-528, 2001.

882 Wickland, K. P., Striegl, R. G., Schmidt, S. K., Mast, M. A.: Methane flux in subalpine
883 wetland and unsaturated soils in the southern Rocky Mountains, *Global Biogeochem.*
884 *Cycles*, 13, 101–113, 1999.

885 Wilson, J. O., Crill, P. M., Bartlett, K. B., Sebacher, D. I., Harriss, R. C., Sass, R. L.:
886 Seasonal variation of methane emissions from a temperate swamp, *Biogeochemistry*,
887 8, 55-71, 1998.

888 Yvon-Durocher, G., Montoya, J. M., Woodward, G., Jones, J. I., Trimmer, M.: Warming
889 increases the proportion of primary production emitted as methane from freshwater
890 mesocosms, *Global Chang. Biol.*, 17, 1225-1234, 2011.

891 Yvon-Durocher, G., Allen, A. P., Bastviken, D., Conrad, R., Gudas, C., St-Pierre, A.,
892 Thanh-Duc, N., del Giorgio, P. A.: Methane fluxes show consistent temperature
893 dependence across microbial to ecosystem scale, *Nature*, 507, 488-491, 2014.

894 Zhuang, Q., Melillo, J. M., Kicklighter, D. W., Prinn, R. G., McGuire, A. D., Steudler, P.
895 A., Felzer, B. S., and Hu, S.: Methane fluxes between terrestrial ecosystems and the
896 atmosphere at northern high latitudes during the past century: A retrospective analysis
897 with a process based biogeochemistry model, *Glob. Biogeochem. Cycles*, 18,
898 GB3010, doi:3010.1029/2004GB002239, 2004.

899 Zona, D., Oechel, W. C., Kochendorfer, J., Paw U, Salyuk, A. N., Olivas, P. C.,
900 Oberbauer, S. F., Lipson, D. A.: Methane fluxes during the initiation of a large-scale
901 water table manipulation experiment in the Alaskan Arctic tundra, *Global*
902 *Biogeochem. Cycle* 23, GB2013, doi:10.1029/2009GB003487, 2009.

903 Zona, D., Gioli, B., Commane, R., Lindaas, J., Wofsy, S. C., Miller, C. E., Dinardo, S. J.,
904 Dengel, S., Sweeney, C., Karion, A., Chang, R.Y.-W., Henderson, J. M., Murphy, P.
905 C., Goodrich, J. P., Moreaux, V., Liljedahl, A., Watts, J. D., Kimball, J. S., Lipson, D.
906 A., Oechel, W. C.: Cold season emissions dominate the Arctic tundra methane budget,
907 *PNAS*, 113,40-45, 2016.

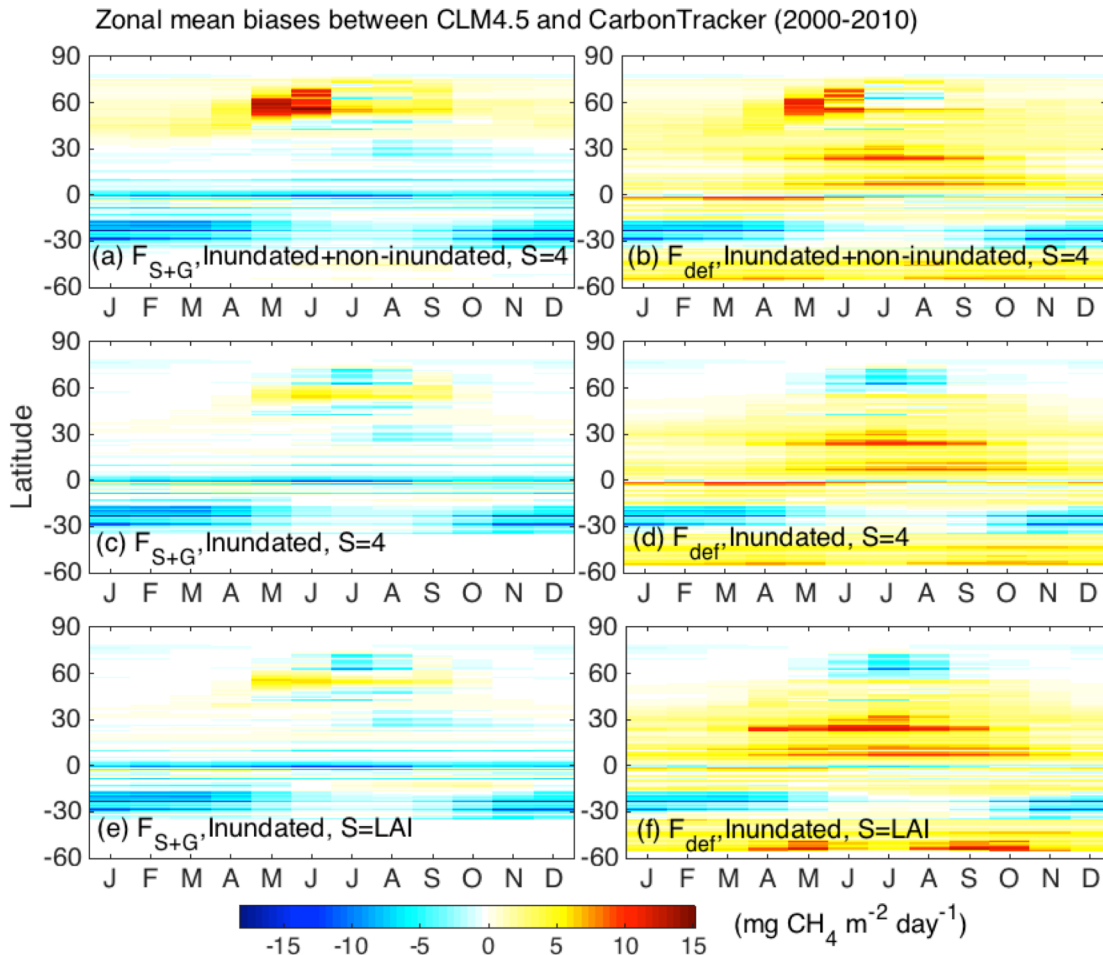


Fig. 1. Zonal mean biases of CH₄ emissions between CLM4.5 predictions and CarbonTracker ($\text{CH}_4_{\text{CLM4.5}} - \text{CH}_4_{\text{CarbonTracker}}$) with SWAMPS-GLWD (F_{S+G}) and CLM4.5 predicted (F_{def}) inundation fraction: CLM4.5 predictions of both inundated and noninundated emissions with F_{S+G} (a) and F_{def} (b), while aerechyma area is corrected with $S=4$; CLM4.5 predictions of inundated emissions only with F_{S+G} (c) and F_{def} (d), while aerechyma area is corrected with $S=4$; CLM4.5 predictions of inundated emissions only with F_{S+G} (e) and F_{def} (f), while aerechyma area is parameterized by default $S=LAI$.

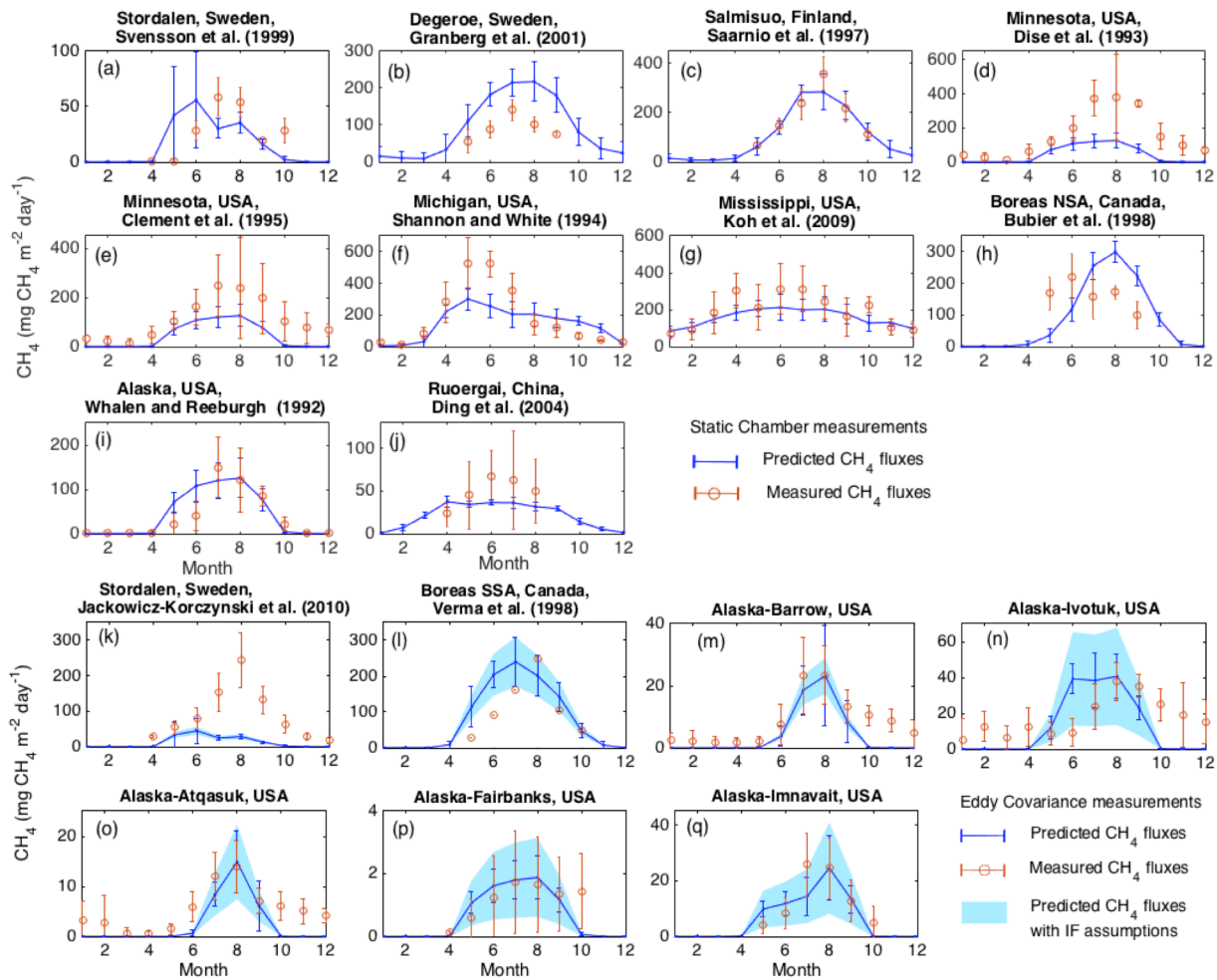


Fig. 2. Comparison of monthly mean simulated net CH₄ flux between 2000 and 2012 and observed monthly mean net CH₄ emissions in measurement year(s). The site measurements with static chamber are shown in (a-j) and measurements with eddy covariance (EC) towers are shown in (k-q). The error bars are standard deviation of monthly mean. The measurements with EC tower are weighted with a range of Inundation Fraction (IF) based on best estimates available: Stordalen: 80-100%; Boreas SSA: 50-90%; Alaska-Barrow: 60-100%, Alaska-Atqasuk: 10-30%; Alaska-Ivotuk: 5-25%; Alaska-Fairbanks:0.5-2.5%, Alaska-IMN:5-25%. Detailed description of the sites and measurements are shown in Table S1.

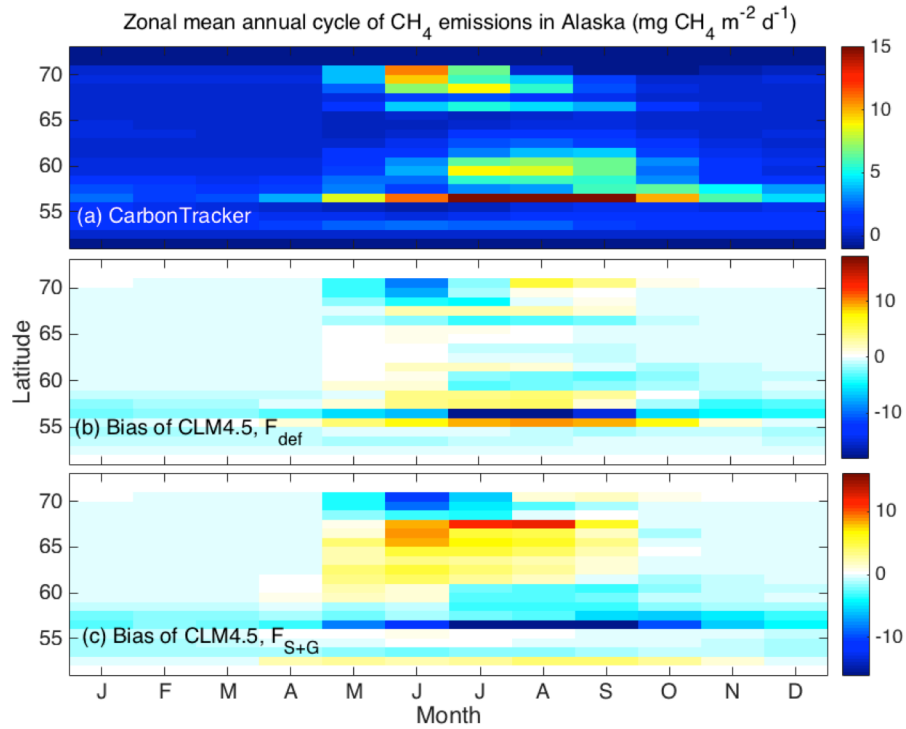


Fig. 3. The 2000-2010 zonal mean annual cycle of CH₄ emission (mg CH₄ m⁻² day⁻¹) across Alaska predicted by CarbonTracker (a), and biases of CLM4.5 with CLM4.5 predicted inundation fraction (F_{def}) (b) and SWAMPS-GLWD inundation fraction (F_{S+G}) (c). The 0.5°×0.5° CLM4.5 is regridded to 1°×1° to be consistent with CarbonTracker.

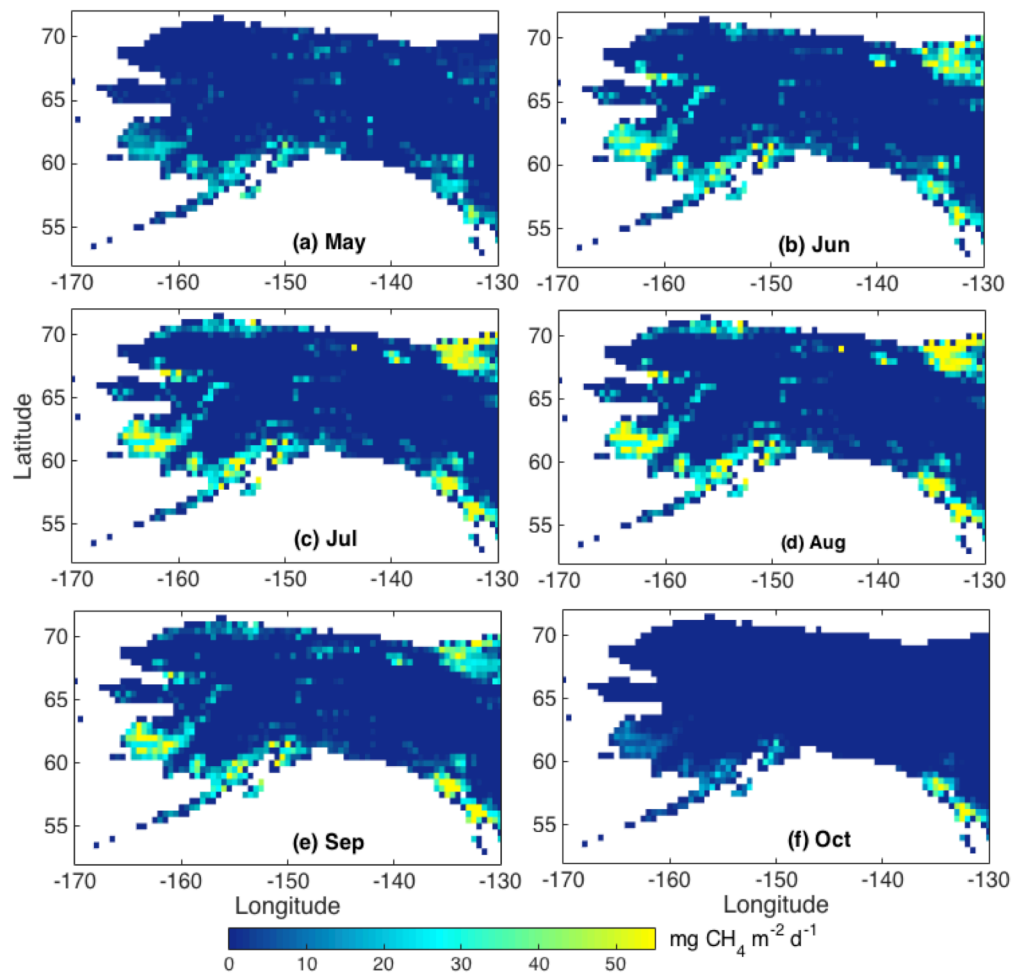


Fig. 4. CLM4.5 simulated mean monthly CH₄ emissions with F_{def} across years 2000-2012.

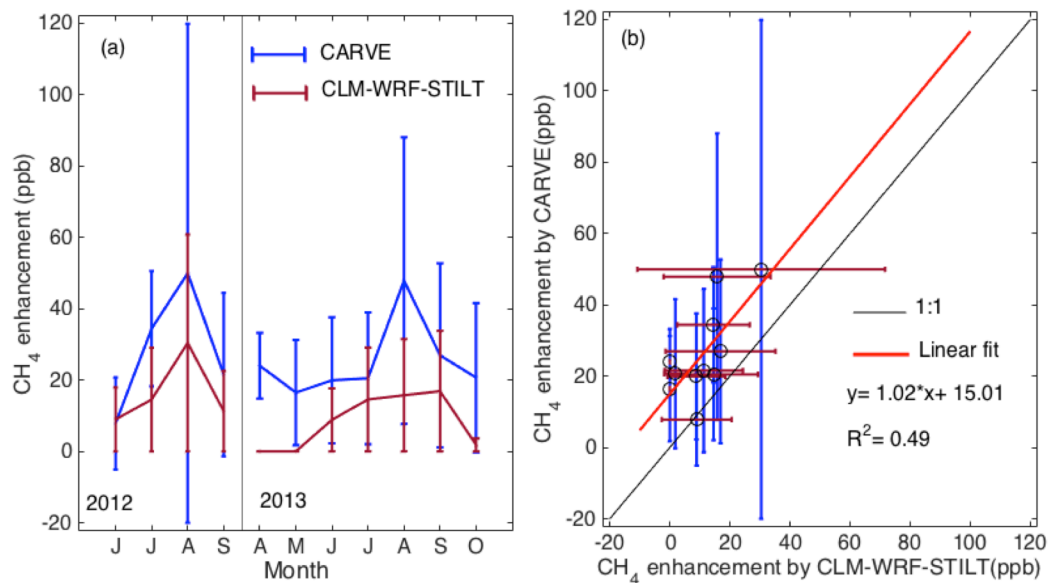


Fig. 5. The monthly mean atmospheric mole fraction enhancements in CH₄ estimated by WRF-STILT-CLM4.5 and CARVE measurements. (a) Observed and simulated monthly CH₄ mole fraction enhancements in 2012 and 2013; (b) Linear regression of measured versus modeled CH₄ mole fraction enhancements. The error bars are standard deviation of monthly mean.

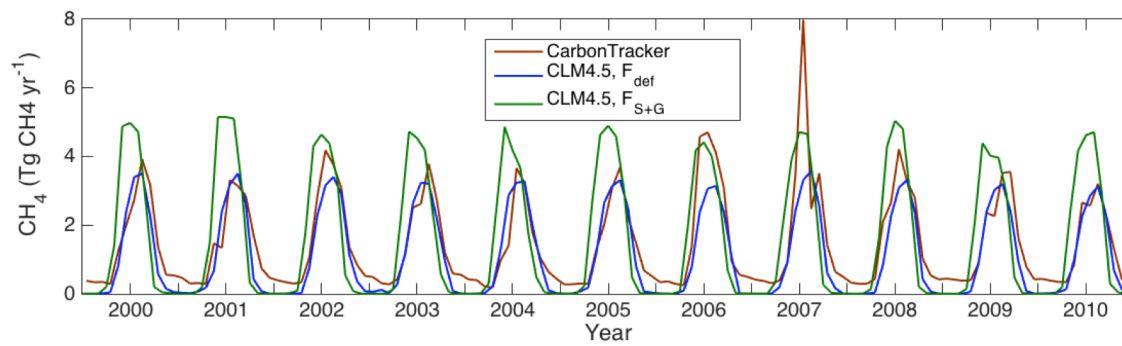


Fig. 6. Time variation of integrated CH₄ (Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹) emissions from Alaska by CarbonTracker (brown), CLM4.5 with internally-predicted fraction of inundation F_{def} (blue) and CLM4.5 SWAMPS-GLWD fraction of inundation F_{S+G} (green).

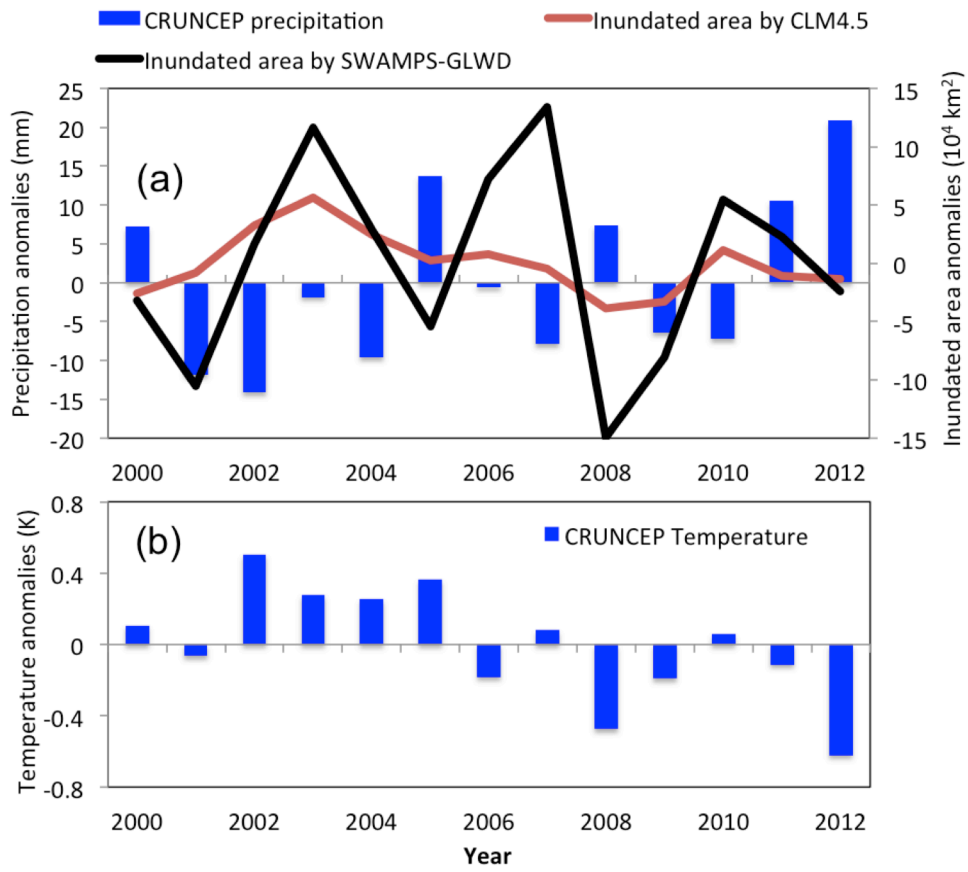


Fig. 7. The anomalies of annual precipitation and inundated area in Alaska (a) and the anomalies of annual mean temperature (b). The anomalies are calculated by subtracting the average between 2000-2012.

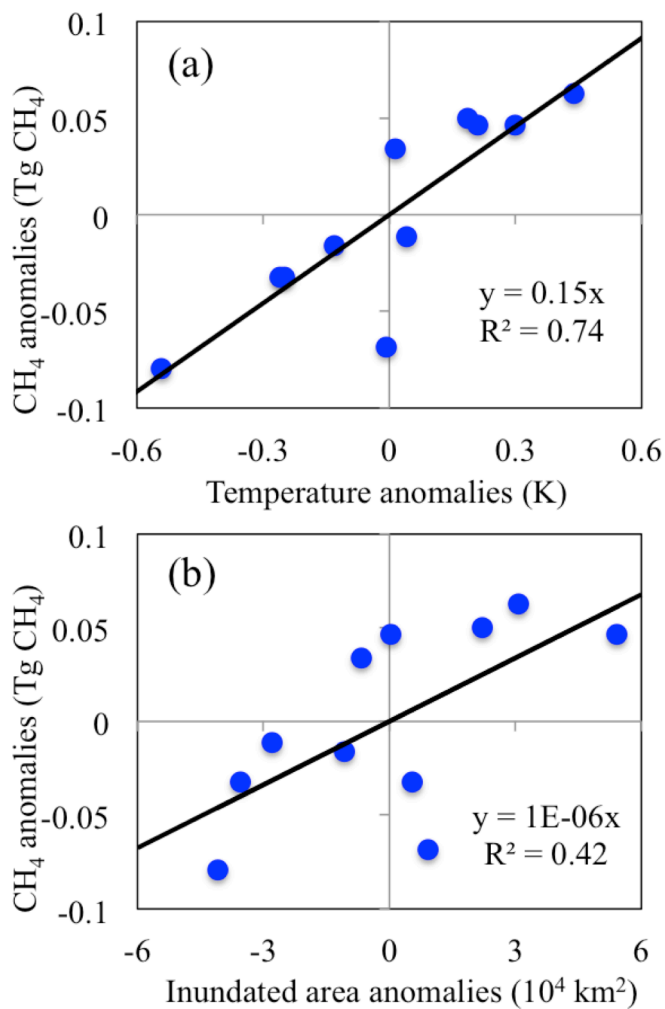


Fig. 8. The correlation between CLM-predicted annual CH₄ emission anomalies and mean annual temperature anomalies (a) and correlation between annual CH₄ emission anomalies and predicted inundated area anomalies during 2000-2010. The anomalies are calculated by subtracting the average between 2000-2010.