

Reviews and syntheses: Four Decades of Modeling Methane Cycling in Terrestrial Ecosystems

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Abstract

Over the past four decades, a number of numerical models have been developed to quantify the magnitude, investigate the spatial and temporal variations, and understand the underlying mechanisms and environmental controls of methane (CH₄) fluxes within terrestrial ecosystems. These CH₄ models
20 are also used for integrating multi-scale CH₄ data, such as laboratory-based incubation and molecular analysis, field observational experiments, remote sensing, and aircraft-based measurements across a variety of terrestrial ecosystems. Here we summarize 40 terrestrial CH₄ models to characterize their strengths and weaknesses and to suggest a roadmap for future model improvement and application. Our key findings are that: (1) the focus of CH₄ models has shifted from theoretical to site- and regional-level
25 applications over the past four decades, (2) large discrepancies exist among models in terms of representing CH₄ processes and their environmental controls, and (3) significant data-model and model-model mismatches are partially attributed to different representations of landscape characterization and inundation dynamics. Three areas for future improvements and applications of terrestrial CH₄ models are: (1) CH₄ models should more explicitly represent the mechanisms underlying land-atmosphere CH₄

30 exchange, with an emphasis on improving and validating individual CH₄ processes over depth and
horizontal space, (2) models should be developed that are capable of simulating CH₄ emissions across
highly heterogeneous spatial and temporal scales, particularly hot moments and hot spots, and (3)
efforts should be invested to develop model benchmarking frameworks that can easily be used for
model improvement, evaluation, and integration with data from molecular to global scales. These
35 improvements on CH₄ models would be beneficial for the Earth system models and further simulation
of climate-carbon cycle feedbacks.

1. Introduction

Methane (CH₄) is the second most important anthropogenic greenhouse gas, accounting for
40 ~15% of anthropogenic forcing to climate change (Forster et al., 2007; IPCC, 2013; Rodhe, 1990).
Therefore, an accurate estimate of CH₄ exchange between land and the atmosphere is fundamental for
understanding climate change (Bridgham et al., 2013; Nazaries et al., 2013; Spahni et al., 2011). The
ecosystem modeling approach has been one of the most broadly used integrative tools for examining
mechanistic processes, quantifying the budget of CH₄ flux across spatial and temporal scales (Arah and
45 Stephen, 1998; Riley et al., 2011; Walter et al., 1996; Zhuang et al., 2004), and predicting future flux
(Anisimov, 2007). Specifically, many CH₄ models have been developed to integrate data, improve
process understanding, quantify budgets, and project exchange with the atmosphere under a changing
climate (Cao et al., 1995; Grant, 1998; Huang et al., 1998a; Potter, 1997). In addition, model sensitivity
analyses help to design field and laboratory experiments by identifying the most uncertain processes
50 and parameters in the models (Massman et al., 1997; Xu, 2010).

Based on the complexity of the CH₄ processes represented, CH₄ models fall into two broad
categories: (1) empirical models that are used to estimate and extrapolate measured methanogenesis,
methanotrophy, or CH₄ emission at plot, country, or continental scales (Christensen et al., 1996; Eliseev
et al., 2008; Mokhov et al., 2007; Wania et al., 2010, 2009); and (2) process-based models that are used
55 for prognostic understanding of individual CH₄ processes in response to multiple environmental drivers
and budget quantification (reviewed below). This separation emphasizes the high-level model structure

rather than the specific processes represented, therefore, models with many processes represented with empirical functions are still classified as process-based models if they represent many key processes of CH₄ production, oxidation, and transport. Although this separation is rather arbitrary, it helps
60 understand the characteristics and purpose of models in a systems perspective.

Over the past decades, many empirical and process-based models have been developed, for example CASA (Potter, 1997), CH₄MOD (Huang et al., 1998b), CLM4Me (Riley et al., 2011), DAYCENT (Del Grosso et al., 2000), DLEM (Tian et al., 2010; Xu and Tian, 2012), DNDC (Li, 2000a), *ecosys* (Grant, 1998), HH (Cresto-Aleina et al., 2015), MEM (Cao et al., 1995), TEM (Zhuang
65 et al., 2004), etc. However, recent analyses and model inter-comparisons have shown that most of these models poorly reproduce regional- to global-scale observations (Bohn and Lettenmaier, 2010; Bohn et al., 2015; Melton et al., 2013; Wania et al., 2013). A comprehensive synthesis and evaluation of the mechanisms incorporated into these models is lacking. This review focuses on primary processes of CH₄ cycling in the terrestrial ecosystems and their representation in the models. The critical CH₄
70 processes include substrate cycling, methanogenesis, methanotrophy, and transport in the soil profile, and their environmental controls. Emphasis is given to how these mechanisms were simulated in various models and how they were categorized in terms of complexity and ecosystem function. The review focuses on CH₄ models developed for terrestrial ecosystems, which is defined as ecosystems on land and wetlands with less than 2 m standing water. This classification is used to distinguish from pure
75 aquatic ecosystems and considering the important role of wetlands on CH₄ cycling. Therefore, models for understanding reactions in bioreactors (Bhadra et al., 1984; Pareek et al., 1999), mining plots (De Visscher and Van Cleemput, 2003), aquatic ecosystems, and marine systems (Elliott et al., 2011) were excluded. An early pioneering effort of multiplying wetland area by average CH₄ flux to estimate global CH₄ budget was excluded from this review as well (Matthews and Fungi, 1987). This review further
80 excludes the CH₄ emission from biomass burning, termites and ruminants, because this paper primarily focuses on soil biogeochemical processes represented in ecosystem models. The model names are determined by two criteria: (1) if the model has been named in the original publication, it will be used to represent the model; (2) if the model has not been named, the last name of the first author will be used

to name the model; for example, “Segers model”, “Gong model”. In this paper we first provide an
85 overview of the range of processes that have been considered in CH₄ models over the past four decades,
and then further classify existing models as determined by the range of processes considered. We
finished with several suggested research topics, which would be beneficial for better developing and
applying CH₄ model for either understanding CH₄ cycling or quantifying CH₄ budget at various scales.

2. Primary CH₄ Processes

90 Biological CH₄ production in sediments was first noted in the late 18th century (Volta 1777), and
the microbial oxidation of CH₄ was proposed at the beginning of the 20th century (Söhngen 1906). Since
then, CH₄ cycling processes have been intensively studied and documented (Christensen et al., 1996;
Hakemian and Rosenzweig, 2007; Lai, 2009; Melloh and Crill, 1996; Mer and Roger, 2001), and most
95 have been described mathematically and incorporated into ecosystem models (Table 1). Herein, we do
not attempt to review all CH₄ processes, as a number of reviews have been published on this topic
(Barlett and Harriss, 1993; Blodau, 2002; Bridgham et al., 2013; Cai, 2012; Chen et al., 2012; Conrad,
1995; Conrad, 1996; Hakemian and Rosenzweig, 2007; Higgins et al., 1981; Lai, 2009; Monechi et al.,
2007; Segers, 1998; Wahlen, 1993). Rather, we focus on primary CH₄ processes in terrestrial
ecosystems, and their environmental controls from a modeling perspective. In this context there exist
00 three major methanogenesis mechanisms, two CH₄ methanotrophy mechanisms, and three aggregated
CH₄ transport pathways in plants and soils. We note that most models do not explicitly represent all of
these transport pathways, and that the relative importance of these pathways varies substantially in time,
space, and with ecosystem types. We also pay attention to several other modeling features including
capability for plot- or regional-level simulations, vertical representation of biogeochemical processes,
05 and whether the model is embedded in an Earth System Model (ESM).

The published literature concludes that two processes dominate biological CH₄ production
(Conrad, 1999; Krüger et al., 2001): acetoclastic methanogenesis -- CH₄ production from acetate, and
hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis – CH₄ production from hydrogen (H₂) and carbon dioxide (CO₂).
Acetoclastic and hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis account for ~50% - 90% and ~10% - 43% of global
10 annual CH₄ produced, respectively (Conrad and Klose, 1999; Kotsyurbenko et al., 2004; Mer and

Roger, 2001; Summons et al., 1998). Methylophilic methanogenesis (producing CH₄ from methanol, methylamines, or dimethylsulfide) is usually considered a minor contributor of CH₄, but may be significant in marine systems (Summons et al., 1998). The proportion of CH₄ produced via any of these pathways varies widely in time, space, and across ecosystem types.

15 Methanotrophy occurs under aerobic (Gerard and Chanton 1993) and anaerobic (Smemo and Yavitt 2011) conditions. These oxidative processes can occur in several locations in soil and plants (Frenzel and Rudolph 1998, Heilman and Carlton 2001, Ström et al. 2005) and using CH₄ either produced in the soil column or transported from the atmosphere (Mau et al. 2013). Large variation in the relative magnitudes of these pathways as a percentage of total methanotrophy has been observed:
20 aerobic oxidation of CH₄ in soil contributes 1% - 90% (King, 1996; Ström et al., 2005), anaerobic oxidation of CH₄ within the soil profile contributes 0.3% - 5% (Blazewicz et al., 2012; Murase and Kimura, 1996), oxidation of CH₄ during transport in plant aerenchyma contributes <1% (Frenzel and Karofeld, 2000; Frenzel and Rudolph, 1998), and oxidation of atmospheric CH₄ contributes ~10 – 100% (ranging from ~10% for wetland to ~100% for upland) (Gulledge and Schimel, 1998a; Gulledge and Schimel, 1998b; Topp and Pattey, 1997) to total methanotrophy in the ecosystem. CH₄ is transported from the soil profile to the atmosphere in typical open-water wetlands by seven pathways which could be aggregated into three: plant-mediated transport accounts for 12~98% (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 1997; Mer and Roger, 2001; Morrissey and Livingston, 1992), diffusion accounts for ~5% for wetlands and > 90% for upland systems (Barber et al., 1988; Mer and Roger, 2001), and ebullition accounts for
25 10~60% (Chanton et al., 1989; Tokida et al., 2007) of the CH₄ produced in the soil that is emitted to the atmosphere. The plant-mediated transport includes diffusive and advective (associated with gas or liquid flow) transports, soil diffusion includes soil gaseous diffusion and advection and aqueous diffusion and advection.

35 Environmental factors affecting CH₄ processes have many direct and indirect controls. The dominant direct factors controlling methanogenesis and methanotrophy in most ecosystems include oxygen availability, dissolved organic carbon concentration, soil pH, soil temperature, soil moisture, nitrate and other reducers, ferric iron, microbial community structure, active microbial biomass, wind

speed (Askaer et al. 2011), plant root structure (Nouchi et al. 1990), etc. Indirect factors include soil texture and mineralogy, vegetation, air temperature, soil fauna, nitrogen input, irrigation, agricultural practices, sulfate reduction, and carbon quality, etc. (Banger et al., 2012; Bridgham et al., 2013; Hanson and Hanson, 1996; Higgins et al., 1981; Mer and Roger, 2001). The complicated effects induced by a few key factors on CH₄ processes have been mathematically described and incorporated in many CH₄ models; for example, direct factors such as soil temperature, moisture, oxygen availability, soil pH, and soil redox potential (Grant, 1998; Riley et al., 2011; Tian et al., 2010; Zhuang et al., 2004). The indirect factors such as nitrogen input (Banger et al., 2012), irrigation (Wassmann et al., 2000), and agricultural practices were not reviewed in this study as their impacts are indirect and were modeled through impacts on vegetation and hydrology (Li, 2000a; Ren et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2010).

3. Model Representation of CH₄ Processes

[Insert Figure 1 here]

[Insert Figure 2 here]

We reviewed 40 CH₄ models (Fig. 1 & Table 1), which were developed for a variety of purposes. The first CH₄ model was published in 1986 by Lovley & Klug (1986) to simulate *methanogenesis* in freshwater sediments, and since then a number of CH₄ models have been developed and applied at numerous scales (Table 1). For example, Cao et al. developed the Methane Emission Model (MEM) and applied it to quantify the global CH₄ source in rice paddies and the sensitivity of the global CH₄ budget's response to climate change (Cao et al., 1995; Cao et al., 1998). Grant et al (1998) developed the *ecosys* model, which is currently the ecosystem-scale model that most mechanistically represents the many kinetic processes and microbial mechanisms for methanogenesis, methanotrophy, and CH₄ emission (Grant and Roulet, 2002). Riley et al (2011) developed CLM4Me, a CH₄ module for the Community Land Model, which is incorporated in the Community Earth System Model. The family of LPJ models (LPJ-Bern, LPJ-WHyMe, LPJ-WSL) was developed under the LPJ framework to simulate CH₄ processes, but with different modules for CH₄ cycling; for example, LPJ-Bern and LPJ-WHyMe incorporate Walter CH₄ module (Walter and Heimann, 2000; Walter et al., 1996; Wania et al., 2009) while LPJ-WSL incorporates the CH₄ module from Christensen et al (Christensen et al., 1996).

65 The number of CH₄ models has steadily increased since the 1980s (Fig. 1): 1 in the 1980s, 11 in the
1990s, 14 in the 2000s, and 14 for 2010-2015. This increase in model developments is driven by many
factors, including a desire to understand the contribution of CH₄ processes to regional CH₄ budget (Fig.
1). For instance, the Lovley's model was built to understand the CH₄ production and sulfate reduction in
freshwater sediment (Lovley and Klug, 1986); while all models published in the 2010s are applicable
70 for CH₄ budget quantification, particularly at regional scale. This rapid increase in CH₄ model
development indicates a growing effort to analyze CH₄ cycling and quantify CH₄ budgets across spatial
scales. Meanwhile, the key mechanisms represented in the models have increased at a slower pace (Fig.
2). The most important changes are representation of vertically-resolved processes within the soil and
regional model simulation. For example, the percentage of the newly developed models with vertically-
75 resolved CH₄ biogeochemistry has increased from 54% before 2000 to ~79% in the recent decade
(2010-2015). The proportion of models with regional simulation capability (producing spatial map of
CH₄ fluxes with inputs of spatial map of driving forces) has doubled from ~50% before the 2010s to
almost 100% afterwards (Fig. 2).

[Insert Tables 1, 2, and 3 here]

80 The majority of these models were designed to simulate land-surface exchange in saturated
ecosystems (primarily natural wetlands and rice paddies) (Huang et al., 1998b; Li, 2000a; Walter et al.,
1996) (Table 1). Not all of the models explicitly represented the belowground mechanistic processes for
CH₄ production and consumption and the primary carbon biogeochemical processes (Christensen et al.,
1996; Ding and Wang, 1996). The land-atmosphere CH₄ exchange is a net balance of many processes
85 including production, oxidation, and transport, which are represented in models with different
complexities (Table 2). Some models are quite complicated, while some are relatively simple. The
obvious tradeoff in modeling CH₄ cycling is to represent mechanisms as accurately as possible while
managing complexity (Evans et al., 2013), and ensuring that additional complexity enhances
predictability (Tang and Zhuang, 2008).

90 **3.1. CH₄ Model Classification**

[Insert Figure 3 here]

[Insert Figure 4 here]

Based on a cluster analysis that considers model characteristics including acetoclastic methanogenesis, hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis, methanotrophy, different CH₄ transport pathways, multiple soil layer, oxygen availability, current CH₄ models can be classified into three groups (Fig. 3 & 4). The first group of CH₄ models uses a very simple framework for land-surface CH₄ flux, and most were developed before the 2000s (e.g., Christensen's model, CASA, etc.) (Fig 4A). These models treated land-surface CH₄ flux as an empirical function and link it to environmental controls, or soil organic carbon. This group of models ignored the mechanistic processes of methanogenesis, methanotrophy, and CH₄ transport. The second group of CH₄ models considers processes in a relatively simple manner (e.g., one or two primary CH₄ transport pathways, methanogenesis as a function of DOC, oxidation of atmospheric CH₄, etc.); however, the methanogenesis and methanotrophy mechanisms are still not mechanistically represented (Fig. 4B). For example, DLEM simulate CH₄ production with a Michaelis-Menten equation with DOC concentration as substrate (Tian et al., 2010); Walter's model simulates CH₄ production with a simple multiplier between substrate availability and environmental scalars and CH₄ oxidation with a Michaelis-Menten equation (Walter et al., 1996). The third group of CH₄ models explicitly simulates the processes for methanogenesis, methanotrophy, and CH₄ transport as well as their environmental controls, which allows comprehensive investigation of physical, chemical, or biological processes' contribution to land-surface CH₄ flux (Fig. 4C). Of the models in the third group, none fully represent all these processes (although some have most of the features described); for example, the *ecosys* model is one of the few models to represent most of the CH₄ cycling processes shown in Fig. 4C, although it has not been embedded in an Earth System Model.

3.2. Methanogenesis

Models make use of four types of modeling frameworks (Table 3) to relate methanogenesis to substrate requirements. Similar to Eqs (1) – (4) in Table 3, there are four model algorithms to represent methanogenesis: (1) empirical association between methanogenesis and environmental condition, including temperature and water table; (2) empirical correlation of methanogenesis with biological variables (particularly heterotrophic respiration and soil organic matter); (3) methanogenesis as a

function of concentration of substrate (DOC); and (4) a suite of mechanistic processes simulated for
20 methanogenesis.

Representation of the substrate for methanogenesis may be a key aspect of simulating CH₄
cycling in terrestrial ecosystems (Bellisario et al., 1999); however, more than half of the models
examined do not explicitly simulate substrates for methanogenesis. We note, however, that explicit
25 representation of substrates and their effects on methanogenesis requires additional model parameters,
and therefore degrees of freedom in the model, which can lead to increased equifinality (Tang and
Zhuang, 2008). The optimum complexity level for methanogenesis and consumption models remains to
be determined.

The first model algorithm correlates methanogenesis with environmental factors and ignores
substrate production and its influence on methanogenesis [Eq. (1)] (Table 3). This group includes
30 Christensen's model (Christensen et al., 1996), which simulates the net flux of CH₄ based on fraction of
saturated soil column and soil temperature, and the IAP-RAS model (Mokhov et al., 2007), which
calculates methanogenesis as an empirical equation of soil temperature. This group has a role in site-
specific interpolation of observations for scaling over time at a given site, but does not explicitly
represent carbon or acetate substrate. The second model algorithm directly links methanogenesis with
35 heterotrophic respiration or soil organic matter content, but does not explicitly represent carbon or
acetate substrate availability [Eq. (2)]; examples are the LPJ model family (Hodson et al., 2011; Spahni
et al., 2011; Wania et al., 2010, 2009) and CLM4Me (Riley et al., 2011). The third model algorithm
simulates dissolved organic carbon (DOC) or different pools of soil organic carbon, which are treated as
a substrate pool influencing CH₄ production [Eq. (3)]; examples are the MEM model (Cao et al., 1995;
40 Cao et al., 1998) and DLEM (Tian et al., 2010). The fourth model algorithm considers the primary
substrates for methanogenesis, that is, acetate and single-carbon compounds [Eq. (4)]; examples are
Kettunen's model (Kettunen, 2003), Segers' model (Segers and Kengen, 1998; Segers and Leffelaar,
2001a, b; Segers et al., 2001), van Bodegom's model (van Bodegom et al., 2000; van Bodegom et al.,
2001), and the *ecosys* model (Grant, 1998).

45 Methanogenesis is a fundamental process for CH₄ cycling, and a majority of models simulate
methanogenesis in either implicit or explicit ways (Tables 2 & 3). For example, 32 models (i.e. Cartoon
model, CASA, CH4MOD, Christensen model, CLM4Me, Ding model, DLEM, DNDC, DOS-TEM,
ecosys, Gong model, HH model, IAP-RAS, Kettunen model, Lovley model, LPJ-Brn, LPJ-WHyMe,
LPJ-WSL, Martens model, MEM, MERES, ORCHIDEE, SDGVM, Segers model, TCF, TEM,
50 TRIPLEX-GHG, UW-VIC, van Bodegom model, VISIT, Walter model, and Xu model) simulate
methanogenesis as one individual process. As a comparison, only three out of 40 CH₄ models reviewed
explicitly simulate two methanogenesis pathways (acetoclastic methanogenesis and hydrogenotrophic
methanogenesis) (Table 3). As mentioned earlier, it is well-recognized that there are two dominant
methanogenesis pathways and their relative combination changes significantly across environmental
55 gradients, for example, along the soil profile (Falz et al., 1999) and across landscape types (McCalley et
al., 2014). This lack of representation of two methanogenesis mechanisms might have caused dramatic
bias in simulating CH₄ flux temporally and spatially and needs to be addressed in future model
improvements.

Michaelis-Menten-like equations, widely used for simulating CH₄ production and oxidation,
60 consider substrates limiting factors (Segers and Kengen, 1998). A few CH₄ models in the third category
of methanogenesis models (linking methanogenesis with a substrate) use the Michaelis-Menten-like
equation to compute methanogenesis and methanotrophy rates (Eqs. 3, 5, & 6). For example, DLEM
simulates methanogenesis as a function of DOC concentration and other environmental controls, and
Michaelis-Menten-like functions were used to compute methanogenesis on the basis of DOC as
65 substrate.

3.3. Methanotrophy

Methanotrophy is another important process for simulating the land-atmosphere exchange of
CH₄ (Table 2). Aerobic and anaerobic methanotrophy occurs in different locations in the soil profile,
and affect both methanogenesis in the profile and CH₄ diffusing in from the atmosphere. For example,
70 the oxidation of atmospheric CH₄, rhizosphere and bulk soil oxidation, and oxidation during CH₄
transport from soil to the atmosphere have been measured and modeled (Tables 1 & 2). Anaerobic CH₄

oxidation has been measured (Blazewicz et al., 2012) and has been proposed to be incorporated into ecosystem models (Gauthier et al., 2015).

75 It has been confirmed that the aerobic oxidation of CH₄ produced in the soil profile and aerobic
oxidation of atmospheric CH₄ play a major role in CH₄ consumption in the system, and that anaerobic
oxidation of CH₄ is a minor contributor. Currently, no models explicitly simulate the anaerobic
oxidation of CH₄ in soil, although a few recent studies highlighted the importance of this process
(Blazewicz et al., 2012; Caldwell et al., 2008; Conrad, 2009; Smemo and Yavitt, 2011; Valentine and
80 Reeburgh, 2000). The key reasons for this omission are that the process has not been mathematically
described, the key parameters are uncertain (Gauthier et al., 2015), and the biochemical mechanism is
not fully understood.

Methanotrophy has been simulated with dual Monod Michaelis-Menten-like equations with CH₄
and oxygen as limiting factors (Table 3). Recent work has shown that the Michaelis-Menten approach
may be inaccurate when representing multi-substrate, multi-consumer networks, and that a new
85 approach (called Equilibrium Chemistry Approximation, ECA) can ameliorate this problem (Tang and
Riley 2013, 2015; Zhu et al., 2016). Although the ECA approach has not been applied for simulations
of CH₄ emissions, CH₄ dynamics are inherently multi-consumer, including transformations associated
with methanogens, heterotrophs, ebullition, advection, diffusion, and aerenchyma transport, even if only
one substrate is considered.

90 **3.4. CH₄ within the Soil/Water Profile**

CH₄ produced in the soil profile or below the water table is not transported immediately into the
atmosphere. The time required for CH₄ to migrate from deep soil profile to the atmosphere ranges from
minutes to days (depending on temperature, water, soil texture, and emissivity of plant roots), or even a
season if the surface is frozen. The majority of current CH₄ models assume that CH₄ transport to the
95 atmosphere occurs immediately after CH₄ is produced, and a portion is oxidized (Tian et al., 2010; Fan
et al., 2013); for models simulating CH₄ flux over minutes to days, the lack of modeled transport may
produce unrealistic simulations.

Some models do simulate CH₄ dynamics within the soil and water profile (e.g., *ecosys*, CLM4Me), which produces a lag between methanogenesis and emission, allowing for oxidation to be explicitly represented during transport, and is valuable for simulating the seasonality of CH₄ flux (Table 2). For example, the recently observed CH₄ burst in the spring season in some field experiments confirms that the storage of CH₄ produced in winter can produce a strong emission outburst (Song et al., 2012). Without understanding the mechanism of CH₄ storage beneath the soil surface, this phenomenon will be difficult to simulate. In most of the models considering CH₄ storage, the CH₄ is treated as a simple gas pool, under the water table, which will be transported to the atmosphere through several transport pathways.

3.5. CH₄ Transport from Soil to the Atmosphere

The transport of CH₄ produced and stored in soil column is the bottleneck for CH₄ leaving the system; therefore, this process is an important control on the instantaneous land-surface CH₄ flux. Several important pathways of CH₄ transport to the atmosphere are identified: plant-mediated diffusive and advective transport, aqueous and gaseous diffusion, and ebullition (Beckett et al., 2001; Chanton, 2005; Mer and Roger, 2001; Whiting and Chanton, 1996). Model simulation of these transport pathways uses direct control of simulated land surface CH₄ flux, with CH₄ transport simulation considered in a manner similar to Eq. (7) (Table 3).

The majority (83%) of the current models simulate at least one transport pathway. Specifically, 70% of the models simulate CH₄ transport via aerenchyma, 80% simulate gaseous diffusive transport, and 60% simulate ebullition transport (Table 1). More than 50% of models simulated these three transport pathways. Some models simulate explicitly the aqueous and gaseous diffusion of CH₄ (Riley et al., 2011), while most models do not simulate advective transport. Many models simulate diffusion and plant-mediated transport in very simple ways. For model improvement in this area, three issues remain as challenges:

- (1) Most models treat transport implicitly; for example, the diffusion processes is treated simply as an excessive release of CH₄ when its concentration exceeds a threshold (Tian et al., 2010). This treatment prevents the model from simulating the lag between methanogenesis and

25 its final release to the atmosphere, which has been confirmed to be the key mechanism for hot-
moment and hot-spot of CH₄ flux (Song et al., 2012) and for oxidation during transport.

(2) The parameters for plant species capable of transporting gas (i.e., *aerenchyma*) are
poorly constrained (Riley et al. 2011), although plant-mediated transport has been identified as
the dominant pathway for CH₄ emission in some natural wetlands (Aulakh et al., 2000; Colmer,
30 2003).

(3) Simultaneously representing aqueous and gaseous phases of CH₄ is one potentially
important issue for simulating CH₄ transport from soil to the atmosphere (Tang and Riley,
2014). However, these processes are only explicitly represented in a few extant CH₄ models
(Riley et al., 2011; Grant et al., 1998).

35 **3.6. Environmental Controls on CH₄ Processes**

Although a suite of environmental factors affects various CH₄ processes, many of these factors
are not explicitly simulated in many models. These factors include soil temperature, soil moisture,
substrate, soil pH, soil redox potential, and oxygen availability. Many other factors not incorporated in
the models, could indirectly affect CH₄ cycling. For example, nitrogen fertilizer affects methanogenesis
40 through its stimulating impacts on ecosystem productivity, which in turn affects DOC, soil moisture and
soil temperature (Xu et al., 2010). The CLM4Me model simulates permafrost and its effects on CH₄
dynamics, and has a simple relationship for soil pH impacts on methanogenesis (Riley et al., 2011).
Wania et al. (2013) reviewed a number of active CH₄ models for their representation of CH₄ production
area. In this review, we specifically focus on temperature, moisture, and pH because these factors
45 directly affect CH₄ processes in all environments, and they have been explicitly simulated in the many
of the models.

Three types of mathematical functions have been used to simulate the temperature dependence
of CH₄ processes: (1) linear functions of air or soil temperature (Eq. 9 in Table 3), (2) Q₁₀ function (Eq.
10 in Table 4), and (3) Arrhenius type function (Eq. 11 in Table 3). Of these three model
50 representations of temperature dependence, the Q₁₀ equation is the most common mathematical
description. However, the parameters for these empirical functions vary widely across the models

(Table 4). Actual temperature responses may diverge significantly from the models at low temperatures, close to the freezing point of water, and high temperatures, close to the denaturation point of enzymes.

[Insert Table 4 here]

55 Soil moisture is an important factor controlling CH₄ processes, because water limits O₂ diffusion from the air through the soil column and because microbes can become stressed at low matric potential. CH₄ is produced typically under conditions with a low reduction potential, which is normally associated with long-term inundation. Although methanogenesis occurs solely under reducing conditions (methanogenesis within plant biomass under aerobic condition has never been simulated although it has
60 been reported in experiments (Keppler et al., 2006)), methanotrophy occurs under drier, aerobic conditions. A low water content can also limit microbial activity in frozen soils or soils with high osmolarity (Watanabe and Ito, 2008). Therefore, soil moisture has different impacts on different CH₄ processes. Four types of model representation are used to simulate moisture effects on CH₄ processes (Eqs. 13-16 in Table 3).

- 65 (1) Methanogenesis occurs only in the saturated zone and an exponential function for soil moisture is used to control methanotrophy (e.g., CLM4Me);
- (2) Linear function for moisture impacts (e.g., CLASS use linear function for moisture impact on methanotrophy) (Curry, 2007);
- (3) Reciprocal responsive curves for moisture impacts on methanogenesis and methanotrophy
70 (e.g., DLEM) (Tian et al., 2010);
- (4) A bell-shaped curve for methanogenesis (e.g., TEM uses a function similar to Eq. (16) for moisture impacts) (Zhuang et al., 2004).

Soil pH has been included in a number of CH₄ models (Cao et al., 1995; Zhuang et al., 2004). Methanogens and methanotrophs depend on proton and sodium ion translocation for energy
75 conservation, thus they are directly affected by pH. The pH impacts on CH₄ processes are simulated as a bell-shaped curve although the mathematical functions used to describe pH impacts are different (Eq. 17a, 17b, and 17c). Moreover, even when the same functions were used in different models, they were associated with different parameter values, indicating slightly different response functions; for example,

80 the MEM model sets pH_{min} (minimum pH value for CH₄ processes being active), pH_{opt} (optimal pH
value for CH₄ processes being most active), and pH_{max} (minimum pH value for CH₄ processes being
active) values of 5.5, 7.5, and 9 (Cao et al., 1995). This set of parameter values was adopted in the TEM
model (Zhuang et al., 2004), whereas the DLEM model uses values of 4, 7, and 10 (Tian et al., 2010).
The CLM4Me model uses a different function while keeping the impact curve at the same shape, but its
85 peak has an optimal pH of 6.2 (Meng et al., 2012). It should be noted that while pH has been confirmed
to significantly affect CH₄ production (Xu et al., 2015), the simulation of pH dynamics caused by
organic acid in soils remains a key challenge for the incorporation of this phenomenon.

For the other environmental factors, model representation is still in its infancy; however, several
models consider oxygen availability as an electron acceptor for methanotrophy (e.g., Beckett model,
Cartoon model, CLM4Me, *ecosys*, Kettunen model, MERES, Segers model, van Bodegom model, De
90 Visscher model, and Xu model). In addition, only a few models simulate the impacts of the electron
acceptor (i.e. nitrate, sulfate, etc.) on CH₄ processes (Table 2). For example, the van Bodegom model
simulates iron biogeochemistry, and the Lovley model, Marten model, and van Bodegom model all
simulate sulfate as the electron acceptor and its impacts on methanogenesis and methanotrophy (Lovley
and Klug, 1986; Martens et al., 1998; van Bodegom et al., 2001). Explicitly representing these
95 processes enables future coupling of CH₄ cycling to processes that are regionally significant, such as
iron reduction on the Alaskan North Slope (Miller et al., 2015). These models have the potential
advantage of more accurately simulating biogeochemical processes of carbon and ions, although large
uncertainties still exist because of the lack of data for constraining model parameters.

3.7. CH₄ implementation in ESMs

00 The importance of CH₄ flux in simulating climate dynamics has been well recognized (IPCC
2013; Ringeval et al., 2011); yet few ESMs have implemented a CH₄ module (Ringeval et al., 2011;
Riley et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2014; Hopcroft et al., 2011; Eliseev et al., 2008). While these models have
been claimed to be coupled within ESMs, truly fully coupled simulations within ESMs to evaluate CH₄
dynamic impacts on global climate system are rare (Eliseev et al., 2008; Hopcroft et al., 2011). For
05 example, the SDGVM has been coupled within Fast Met Office UK Universities Simulator

(FAMOUS), a coupled general circulation model, to study the association between terrestrial CH₄ fluxes with rapid climate fluctuation during the last glacial period (Hopcroft et al., 2011). The IAP-RAP model was used to simulate terrestrial CH₄ flux and its contributions to atmospheric CH₄ concentrations and further on climate change. The quasi-coupling between ORCHIDEE_WET with an ocean-atmosphere general circulation model was used to theoretically evaluate terrestrial CH₄ dynamics on climate system (Ringeval et al., 2011). The CLM application within CESM framework has both CLM4Me and CLM-Microbe module for CH₄ dynamics, but none of them have been applied for a fully coupled simulation to evaluate CH₄-climate feedback. It should be a key research effort for CLM community in next five years to complete this coupling. All previous coupled ESM simulations have concluded that changes in terrestrial CH₄ flux have small impacts on climate change, while they also pointed out that large uncertainties exist. Given the importance of CH₄ as a greenhouse gas and uncertainties in current ESMs in simulating permafrost carbon and CH₄ flux, more efforts should be invested to implement CH₄ module in ESMs and further evaluate the CH₄-climate feedback under different climate scenarios.

20 **3.8. Summary**

Through the four decades of modeling CH₄ cycling in terrestrial ecosystems, consensus has been reached on several fronts. First, CH₄ cycling includes a suite of complicated processes, and both the simple and complex models are able to estimate land-surface CH₄ flux to a certain level of confidence, although models of different complexity do provide different results (Tang et al., 2010). Second, although a number of CH₄ models have been developed, several gaps remain that need new model representations (e.g., dynamic linkage between inundation dynamics and the CH₄ module (Melton et al., 2013), and anaerobic oxidation of CH₄ (Gauthier et al., 2015)).

Two recent CH₄ model-model inter-comparison projects raised several important points (Bohn et al., 2015; Melton et al., 2013): (1) the distribution of the inundation area is important for accurately simulating global CH₄ emissions, but was poorly represented in CH₄ models; (2) the modeled response of land-surface CH₄ emission to elevated CO₂ is likely biased as a number of global change factors were missing, which indicates the need for modeling with multiple global environmental factors; and

(3) the need for comparison with high-frequency observational data is identified as an important task for future model-model inter-comparison. These lessons will be helpful for, and likely addressed during, model improvements and applications of more mechanistic CH₄ models.

Although the primary individual CH₄ processes have been studied and quantified at a certain level of confidence, only a few modeling studies have reported these individual processes as previously discussed. For example three pathways of CH₄ transports were represented in Kettunen, 2003 and Walter et al., 1996, but none of those modeled results have been evaluated against observational results for those individual processes. One reason is that measurements rarely distinguish among individual processes; another reason is that the majority of CH₄ models do not explicitly represent all processes (Table 2). However, a number of studies report significant shifts in the processes contributing to the surface CH₄ flux along environmental gradients or across biomes (Conrad, 2009; Krumholz et al., 1995; McCalley et al., 2014). Projecting CH₄ fluxes into future changing climate conditions requires not only accurate simulations of CH₄ processes, but also shifts among the various processes. In addition, CO₂ flux has been evaluated within the Earth System Modeling framework, but only a few studies have evaluated the CH₄ flux and its contribution to climate dynamics. Given the much higher warming potential and relatively faster rate of increase of atmospheric CH₄, fully coupled simulations are needed to represent the feedbacks between terrestrial CH₄ exchanges and climate. We note that a few recent studies reported a relatively small climate warming-methane feedback from global wetlands and permafrost (Gao et al., 2013; Gedney et al., 2004; Riley et al., 2011). A fully mechanistic CH₄ model that accounts for all the important features is critically needed. In addition, a modeling framework to integrate multiple sources of data, such as microbial community structure and functional activities, ecosystem-level measurements, and global scale satellite measurements of gas concentration and flux is needed with these mechanistic CH₄ models.

4. Needs for Mechanistic CH₄ Models

During the last few years, the scientific community has continued to improve and optimize models to better simulate methanogenesis, methanotrophy, CH₄ transport, and their environmental and biological controls (Xu et al., 2015; Zhu. Q. et al., 2014). A number of emerging tasks have been

60 identified, and progress in these directions is expected. First, linking genomic data with large-scale CH₄
flux measurements will be an important, while challenging, task for the entire community; for example,
some work has been carried out in this direction (De Haas et al., 2011; Larsen et al., 2012). An effort
has been initialized to develop a new microbial functional group-based CH₄ model, which has the
advantages of linking genomic information for each individual process with the four microbial
65 functional groups (Xu et al., 2015). Second, data-data and model-model comparisons are another
important effort for model comparison and improvement. One ongoing encouraging feature that all
recently developed CH₄ models possess is the capability for regional simulations as well as the
possibility to be run at the site level (Riley et al., 2011; Zhu. Q. et al., 2014).

Third, microbial processes need to be considered for incorporation into ecosystem models for
70 simulating carbon cycling and CH₄ processes (DeLong et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2014). Although a few
models explicitly simulate the microbial mechanisms of CH₄ cycling (Arah and Stephen, 1998; Grant,
1998; Li, 2000a; Segers and Kengen, 1998), none of them have been used for regional- or global-scale
estimation of microbial contributions to the CH₄ budget. A reasonable experimental design and a well-
validated microbial functional group-based CH₄ model should be combined to enhance our capability to
75 apply models to estimate a regional CH₄ budget and to investigate the combination of microbial and
environmental contributions to the land surface CH₄ flux (DeLong et al., 2011). Fourth, incorporating
well-validated CH₄ modules into Earth System Modeling frameworks will allow a fully coupled
simulation that provides a holistic understanding of the CH₄ processes, with its connections to many
other processes and mechanisms in the atmosphere. Several recently developed models fall in the
80 framework of Earth System Models (Riley et al., 2011; Ringeval et al., 2010), which provide a
foundation for this application in a relatively easy way. This effort will likely contribute not only to the
CH₄ modeling community, but also to the entire global change science community (Koven et al., 2011).
Iron and sulfate biogeochemistry has so far been modeled implicitly by only few models (Table 2), as
mechanisms are as yet poorly understood, and there is a paucity of data. Accordingly, these processes
85 have not been incorporated into recently developed models, and a more explicit inclusion, based on
improved biogeochemistry understanding, will hopefully be achieved in the long term.

[Insert Figure 5 here]

Based on the above-mentioned needs and model features as well as the mechanisms for the CH₄ models, the next generation of CH₄ models will likely include several important features (Fig. 5). The models should (1) be embedded in an Earth System Model, (2) consider the vertical distribution of thermal, hydrological, and biogeochemical transport and processes, (3) represent mechanistic processes for microbial CH₄ production, consumption, and transport, and (4) support data assimilation and a model benchmarking system as auxiliary components.

5. Challenges for Developing Mechanistic CH₄ Models

5.1. Knowledge Gaps

Modeling CH₄ cycling is a dynamic process. As new mechanisms are identified, the modeling community should ensure that the mechanisms are well studied and mathematically described, as has occurred over the past decades (Conrad, 1989; McCalley et al., 2014; Schütz et al., 1989; Xu et al., 2015). However, a number of knowledge gaps need to be filled before a full modeling framework of CH₄ processes within terrestrial ecosystems can be achieved. The first gap is either confirmation or rejection of a few recently observed CH₄ mechanisms; these mechanisms need to be fully vetted before being considered for incorporation into a model. One well-known mechanism still under debate is aerobic CH₄ production within plant tissue (Beerling et al., 2008; Keppler et al., 2006). Since its first report in 2006 (Keppler et al., 2006), a few studies have confirmed the mechanism in multiple plant species (Wang et al., 2007). While its existence in nature is still under debate (Dueck et al., 2007), this mechanism will likely not be incorporated into an ecosystem model before solid evidence is presented and consensus is reached. The second new mechanism is CH₄ production by fungi (Lenhart et al., 2012). More field- or lab-based experiments are needed to investigate this mechanism and its contribution to the global CH₄ budget, probably through a data model integration approach. Third, the aerobic production of CH₄ from the cleavage of methylphosphonate has been demonstrated in marine systems (Karl et al., 2008), but the significance of this process in terrestrial systems is unknown. Fourth, the large CH₄ emission from rivers and small ponds are still not fully understood (Holgerson and Raymond, 2016; Martinson et al., 2010), which will likely be a direction for future model improvement.

Another knowledge gap is the missing comprehensive understanding of spatial and temporal variations in CH₄ flux; particularly, the “hot spots” and “hot moments” of observed CH₄ flux are still not completely understood (Becker et al., 2008; Mastepanov et al., 2008; Song et al., 2012). The traditional static chamber method of measuring CH₄ emissions could underestimate the CH₄ flux because sparse sampling is unlikely to detect these foci or pulses of unusually high emissions. Better methods are also needed to measure CH₄ cycling during the shoulder seasons in the Arctic and subarctic when fluxes may be most variable (Zona et al. 2016). These knowledge gaps are key hurdles for CH₄ model development efforts. No model has yet been tested for simulating hot spots or hot moments over large spatial or long temporal scales. However, the high range (usually of factor 1-10) of the observed CH₄ flux might cause regional budgets to vary substantially (Song et al., 2012); therefore, mechanistic model representations of these mechanisms are highly needed.

25 **5.2. Modeling Challenges**

Better simulation of CH₄ cycling in terrestrial ecosystems requires improvement in the model structure to represent mechanistic CH₄ processes. First is the challenge to simulate the vertical profile of soil biogeochemical processes and validate such models with observational results. Although some models have a capability for vertical distribution of carbon and nitrogen (Koven et al., 2013; Tang et al. 2013; Mau et al., 2013), a better framework for CH₄ and extension to cover the majority of CH₄ models are needed. This vertical distribution of biogeochemistry is necessary for simulating the vertical distribution of CH₄ processes and CH₄ transport through the soil profile before reaching the atmosphere. A second challenge is incorporating tracer capability. Isotopic tracers (¹³C, ¹⁴C) have been widely used for quantifying the carbon flow and partitioning among individual CH₄ processes (Conrad, 2005; Conrad and Claus, 2005), but for ecosystem models this capability has not been represented even though it is very important to understanding CH₄ processes and integrating field observational data. A third challenge is to simulate microbial functional groups. Microbial processes are carried out by different functional groups of microbes (Lenhart et al., 2012; McCalley et al., 2014). Therefore, model comparison with individual processes requires representing the microbial population sizes (or active biomass) for specific functional groups (Tveit et al., 2015). This goal has proved more difficult than

representing plant functional types or traits in models, because not all microbial taxonomic groups have ecologically coherent functions (Philippot et al., 2010). A fourth challenge is to simulate the lateral transport of dissolved and particulate biogeochemical variables that are necessary to better simulate the storage and transport of CH₄ within heterogeneous landscapes (Weller et al., 1995). A fifth challenge is modeling CH₄ flux across spatial scales. Although a few studies have been used to demonstrate the approach for simulating CH₄ budget at plot scale and eddy covariance domain scale (Zhang et al., 2012), a mechanistic framework to link CH₄ processes at distinct scales is still lacking while highly valuable. Finally, a sixth challenge is accurate simulation of CH₄ within human-managed ecosystems. Human management practices are always hard to simulate and predict, and their impacts on CH₄ processes are challenging (Li et al., 2005).

5.3. Data Needs

First, a comprehensive dataset of field measurements of CH₄ fluxes across various landscape types is needed to effectively validate the CH₄ models. Although a number of datasets have been compiled (Aronson and Helliker, 2010; Chen et al., 2012; Liu and Greaver, 2009; Mosier et al., 1997; Yvon-Durocher et al., 2014), some landscape types are still not fully covered. Meanwhile, high-frequency field observational data are also needed, particularly long-term observational data in some less-studied ecosystems; for example Arctic tundra ecosystems have been considered as an important contributor to global CH₄ budget in the changing climate (IPCC, 2013; Koven et al., 2011), however, long-term dataset of CH₄ flux is lacking. It is well-known that inter-annual variation of climate may turn an ecosystem from a CH₄ sink to a CH₄ source (Nauta et al., 2015; Shoemaker et al., 2014); therefore, a long-term observational dataset that covers these temporal shifts in CH₄ flux and its associated ecosystem information would improve our understanding of the processes and our representation of them in CH₄ models. Second, microbial community shifts and their role in CH₄ processes are important, although information is incomplete for model representation of this mechanism (McCalley et al., 2014; Schimel and Gullledge, 1998). Although a number of studies have reported the microbial community structure and its potential association with changes in CH₄ processes (Monday et

al., 2014; Schimel, 1995; Wagner et al., 2005), none of this progress has been documented in a mathematical manner suitable for a modeling representation.

70 Third, a comprehensive dataset of all primary CH₄ processes within an individual ecosystem would be valuable for model optimization and validation. Although some datasets exist, no study has investigated all primary individual CH₄ processes within the same plot over the long term. Given the substantial spatial heterogeneity of CH₄ processes, this lack of process representation may cause bias in CH₄ simulations at regional scale. It should be noted that land surface net CH₄ flux is a measurable ecosystem-level process, whereas many individual CH₄ processes are difficult to accurately measure. 75 Therefore, designing field- or lab-based-experiments suitable for measuring these processes is a fundamental need. For example, the anaerobic oxidation of CH₄ has been identified as a critical process for some ecosystem types, but no comprehensive dataset on it is available for model development or improvement.

Last but not least, high quality spatial data as driving forces and validation data for CH₄ models 80 are critical for model development as well (Melton et al., 2013; Wania et al., 2013). Spatial distribution and dynamics of wetland area probably are the most important data need for CH₄ models (Wania et al., 2013). Spatial distribution of soil temperature, moisture, and texture are fundamental information because they serve as direct or indirectly environmental control on CH₄ processes. Recently launched Soil Moisture Active Passive (SMAP) satellite could be used as an important data source for soil 85 moisture for driving CH₄ model (Entekhabi et al., 2010). It has been identified that soil texture and pH are important for simulating CH₄ processes (Xu et al., 2015). In addition, the atmospheric CH₄ concentration data from satellite could be used as important benchmark for model validation purposes, for example Scanning Imaging Absorption spectrometer for Atmospheric ChartographY (SCIAMACHY) (Frankenberg et al., 2005) and Greenhouse gas Observing SATellite (GOSAT) 90 (Yokota et al., 2009).

5.4. Data-Model Integration

Model development and data collection are two important, but historically independent scientific approaches; the integration between model development and data collection is much stronger for

95 advancing science (De Kauwe et al., 2014; Luo et al., 2012; Peng et al., 2011). Although data-model
integration is recognized as very important for understanding and predicting CH₄ processes and some
progress has been made, integrating experiments and models presents multiple challenges, particularly,
1) the methods for integrating data with the models are not well developed for CH₄ cycling; 2) the
metrics for evaluating data-model integration are not consistent in the scientific community; and 3) the
regular communication between data scientists and modelers on various aspects of CH₄ processes and
00 their model representation is lacking.

Methods for data-model integration have been recently created, for example, Kalman Filter (Gao
et al., 2011), Bayesian (Ogle and Barber, 2008; Ricciuto et al., 2008; Schleip et al., 2009; Van Oijen et
al., 2005), and Markov Chain Monte Carlo (Casella and Robert, 2005). However, no studies have
evaluated these methods for integrating CH₄ data with models. In addition, the metric for evaluating the
05 data-model integration is still not well developed. A very helpful strategy for data-model integration is
to solicit timely input from modelers when designing a field experiment. A good example of this is the
U.S. Department of Energy-sponsored project Next Generation Ecosystem Experiments - Arctic (ngee-
arctic.ornl.gov), which was planned with inputs from field scientists, data scientists, and modelers.
Another successful example is the U.S. DOE-sponsored project, Spruce and Peatland Responses Under
10 Climatic and Environmental Change (SPRUCE) (mnspruce.ornl.gov), in which the experiment design
for data-model integration created an opportunity for modeling needs to be adopted by the field
scientists. A modeling framework that focuses on model parameterization and validation ability is under
development at Oak Ridge National Laboratory; building model optimization algorithm into an ESM
framework will enable more effective parameterization of newly developed CH₄ modules within CLM
15 at site, regional, and global scales (Ricciuto et al, pers.).

6. Concluding Remarks

CH₄ dynamics in terrestrial ecosystems have been intensively studied, and model representation
of CH₄ cycling has evolved as new knowledge becomes available. This is inherently a slow process.
Currently, the primary mechanisms for CH₄ processes in terrestrial ecosystems are implicitly
20 represented in many, but not all, terrestrial ecosystem models. Development of CH₄ models began in the

late 1980s, and the pace of growth has been fast since the 1990s. Model development shifted from theoretical analysis in the 1980s and 1990s to being more applied in the 2000s and 2010s, expressed as being more focused on regional CH₄ budget quantification and integration with multiple sources of observational data. Although some current CH₄ models consider most of the relevant mechanisms, none
25 of them consider all the processes for methanogenesis, methanotrophy, CH₄ transport, and their primary environmental controls. Further, evidence demonstrating that incorporating all of these processes would lead to more accurate prediction is needed. Incorporating sophisticated parameter assimilation, uncertainty quantification, equifinality quantification, and metrics of the benefits associated with increased model complexity would also facilitate scientific discovery.

30 The CH₄ models for accurate projection of land-climate feedback in the next few decades should: (1) use mechanistic formulations for primary CH₄ processes, (2) be embedded in Earth System Models for the global evaluation of terrestrial-climate feedback associated with CH₄ fluxes, (3) have the capacity to integrate multiple sources of data, which makes the model not only a prediction tool but also an integrative tool, and (4) be developed in association with model benchmarking frameworks. These
35 four characteristics pave the way for examining CH₄ processes and flux in the context of global change. These improvements for CH₄ modeling would be beneficial for ESMs and further simulation of climate-carbon cycle feedbacks.

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Table 1. Terrestrial ecosystem models for CH₄ cycling and the model representation of three pathways of CH₄ transport (models are in alphabetical order; author's last name is used if the model name is not available)

Model	Aerenchynma	Diffusion	Ebullition	References
Beckett model	Yes	Yes	No	(Beckett et al., 2001)
Cartoon model	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Arah and Stephen, 1998; Arah and Kirk, 2000)
CASA	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Potter, 1997; Potter et al., 1996)
CH4MOD	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Huang et al., 1998b; Huang et al., 2004; Li et al., 2012)
Christensen model	No	No	No	(Christensen et al., 1996)
CLASS	No	Yes	No	(Curry, 2009; Curry, 2007)
CLM4Me	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Riley et al., 2011)
CLM-Microbe	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Xu et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2014)
DAYCENT	No	Yes	No	(Del Grosso et al., 2002; Del Grosso et al., 2009; Del Grosso et al., 2000)
Ding model	Yes	No	No	(Ding and Wang, 1996)
DLEM	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Tian et al., 2010; Xu and Tian, 2012)
DNDC	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Li, 2000b)
DOS-TEM	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Fan et al., 2013)
<i>ecosys</i>	No	Yes	Yes	(Grant, 2001, 1998)
Gong model	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Gong et al., 2013)
HH model	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Cresto-Aleina et al., 2015)
IAP-RAS	No	No	No	(Eliseev et al., 2008; Mokhov et al., 2007)

Kettunen model	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Kettunen, 2003)
Lovley model	No	No	No	(Lovley and Klug, 1986)
LPJ-Bern	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Spahni et al., 2011)
LPJ-WHyMe	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Wania et al., 2010, 2009)
LPJ-WSL	No	No	No	(Hodson et al., 2011)
Martens model	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Martens et al., 1998)
MEM	No	No	No	(Cao et al., 1995; Cao et al., 1998)
MERES	Yes	Yes	No	(Matthews et al., 2000)
Nouchi model	Yes	Yes	No	(Hosono and Nouchi, 1997; Nouchi et al., 1994)
ORCHIDEE	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Ringer et al., 2010; Ringer et al., 2011)
Ridgwell model	No	Yes	No	(Ridgwell et al., 1999)
SDGVM	No	No	No	(Hopcroft et al., 2011)
Segers model	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Segers and Kengen, 1998; Segers and Leffelaar, 2001a, b; Segers et al., 2001)
Tagesson model	No	No	No	(Tagesson et al., 2013)
TCF	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Watts et al., 2014)
TEM	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Zhuang et al., 2004)
TRIPLEX-GHG	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Zhu Q. et al., 2014)
UW-VIC	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Bohn and Lettenmaier, 2010; Bohn et al., 2007)
van Bodegom model	Yes	Yes	Yes	(van Bodegom et al., 2000; Van Bodegom et al., 2001)
VISIT	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Inatomi et al., 2010; Ito and Inatomi, 2012)

De Visscher model	No	Yes	No	(De Visscher and Van Cleemput, 2003)
Walter model	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Walter and Heimann, 2000; Walter et al., 1996)
Xu model	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Xu et al., 2007)

Table 2. Key mechanisms/features of CH₄ processes and their representations in CH₄ models

Key mechanisms	Models
Methanogenesis	Cartoon model, CASA, CH4MOD, Christensen model, CLM4Me, CLM-Microbe, Ding model, DLEM, DNDC, DOS-TEM, <i>ecosys</i> , Gong model, IAP-RAS, Kettunen model, Lovley model, LPJ-Brn, LPJ-WHyMe, LPJ-WSL, Martens model, MEM, MERES, ORCHIDEE, SDGVM, Segers model, TCF, TEM, TRIPLEX-GHG, UW-VIC, van Bodegom's model, VISIT, Walter's model, Xu's model
Methanotrophy	Cartoon model, CASA, CLASS, CLM4Me, CLM- Microbe, DAYCENT, DLEM, DNDC, DOS-TEM, <i>ecosys</i> , Gong model, Kettunen model, LPJ-Bern, LPJ-WHyMe, Martens model, MEM, MERES, ORCHIDEE, Ridgwells model, SDGVM, Segers model, TCF, TEM, TRIPLEX-GHG, UW-VIC, van Bodegom's model, VISIT, De Visscher model, Walter model, Xu model
Anaerobic oxidation of CH ₄	CLM-Microbe, Martens model
Substrate (Acetate/DOC)	CH4MOD, CLM-Microbe, DLEM, DNDC, <i>ecosys</i> , Gong model, Kettunen model, Lovley model, Martens model, MEM, MERES, SDGVM, Segers model, TCF, van Bodegom model, Xu model
Microbial functional groups	CLM-Microbe, , <i>ecosys</i> , Segers model
CH ₄ storage in soil profile	Beckett model, Cartoon model, CLM4Me, CLM-Microbe, <i>ecosys</i> , Kettunen model, Martens model, MERES, Nouchi model, ORCHIDEE, Segers model, UW-VIC, van Bodegom model, VISIT, De Visscher model, Walter model
O ₂ availability for CH ₄ oxidation	Beckett model, Cartoon model, CLM4Me, CLM-Microbe, <i>ecosys</i> , Kettunen model, MERES, Segers model, van Bodegom model, De Visscher model, Xu model
Iron biogeochemistry	van Bodegom model
Sulfate biogeochemistry	Lovley model, Martens model, van Bodegom model
Frozen trapped CH ₄	None
Embedded in Earth System Model	CLASS, CLM4Me, CLM-Microbe, IAP-RAS, ORCHIDEE, SDGVM
Vertical resolved	Beckett model, Cartoon model, CLASS, CLM4Me, CLM-Microbe, DNDC,

biogeochemistry	DOS-TEM, <i>ecosys</i> , Gong model, HH model, IAP-RAS, Kettunen model, Lovley model, LPJ-Bern, LPJ-WHyMe, LPJ-WSL, Martens model, MERES, ORCHIDEE, Ridgwell model, SDGVM, Seger model, TRIPLEX-GHG, UW-VIC, VISIT, De Visscher model, Walter model, Xu model
Regional-scale, capacity for up-scaling	CASA, CH4MOD, Christensen model, CLASS, CLM4Me, CLM-Microbe, DAYCENT, DLEM, <i>ecosys</i> , Gong model, HH model, IAP-RAS, LPJ-Bern, LPJ-WHyMe, LPJ-WSL, Martens model, MEM, MERES, ORCHIDEE, Ridgwell model, SDGVM, Tagesson model, TCF, TEM, TRIPLEX-GHG, UW-VIC, VISIT, Walter model

Table 3. The mathematical equations used to describe the CH₄ processes used in representative models (P_{CH_4} is the CH₄ production rate; $Oxid_{CH_4}$ is the CH₄ oxidation rate; T_{CH_4} is the CH₄ transport rate; D_{CH_4} is the CH₄ diffusion rate; some parameter may have been changed from original publication to keep relatively consistent in this table)

CH ₄ processes	Equations	Ecological description	Model examples	
CH ₄ substrate and CH ₄ production	1	$P_{CH_4} = f(T, W)$	A function of temperature (T) and moisture (W)	Christensen model, IAP-RAS, DAYCENT
	2a	$P_{CH_4} = r \times HR \times f(T, W)$	A portion of heterotrophic respiration, affected by temperature (T) and moisture (W)	LPJ family, CLM4Me, Ding model, MERES, TRIPLEX-GHG
	2b	$P_{CH_4} = r \times SOM \times f(T, W)$	A portion of soil organic matter (SOM), affected by temperature (T) and moisture (W); Walter's model use indirect association with NPP	CH4MOD, DOS-Tem, Gong model, HH model, Walter model
	3	$P_{CH_4} = V \times \frac{[DOC]}{K_{DOC} + [DOC]} \times f(T, W)$	A portion of dissolved organic carbon (DOC), affected by temperature (T) and moisture (W)	MEM, DLEM
	4	$P_{CH_4} = f(DOC, Acetate, CO_2) \times f(T, W)$	Mechanistic processes for CH ₄ production are considered, affected by temperature (T) and moisture (W)	Kettunen model, Segers model, van Bodegoms model, and <i>ecosys</i>
CH ₄ oxidation	5	$Oxid_{CH_4} = V \times \left(\frac{[CH_4]}{K_{CH_4} + [CH_4]} \right) \times f(T, W)$	Oxidation as a function of CH ₄ concentration and temperature and moisture	DLEM, TRIPLEX-GHG, VISIT

	6	$Oxid_{CH_4} = V \times \left(\frac{[CH_4]}{K_{CH_4} + [CH_4]} \right) \left(\frac{[O_2]}{K_{O_2} + [O_2]} \right) \times f(T, W)$	Oxidation as a function of CH ₄ and O ₂ concentration, temperature and moisture	Cartoon model, CLM4Me, CLM-Microbe, Kettunen model
CH ₄ transport	7	$T_{CH_4} = V * ([CH_4] - \overline{[CH_4]})$	V is the parameter for distance, diffusion coefficient, etc.; [CH ₄] is the concentration of CH ₄ in the soil/water profile (dissolvability for DLEM, 0 for DNDC); and $\overline{[CH_4]}$ is the threshold of CH ₄ concentration above which CH ₄ will be transported to the atmosphere via either of the three transport pathways	DLEM, DNDC, Walter model
	8a	$A = \frac{C(z) - C_a}{r_L z / D + r_a} p T \rho_r$	<i>Aerenchyma transport</i>	CLM4Me
	8b	Moves to first unsaturated layer and then released to gaseous phase	<i>Ebullition</i>	CLM4Me
	8c	$D_{CH_4} = D \times \frac{\Delta[CH_4]}{\Delta z}$	Diffusion of CH ₄ was simulated following Fick's law; CLM4Me separate aqueous and gaseous diffusion	CLM4Me, CLM-Microbe, <i>ecosys</i> , Ridgwell model, TRIPLEX-GHG; Sergers model
Temperature effects	9	$f(T) = a \times T + b$ $f(T) = a \times T^2 + b \times T + c$ $f(T) = b \times e^{0.2424 \times T}$	Linear regression on temperature or degree days; DNDC simulate temperature impact on production not on oxidation	DAYCENT, DNDC, IAP-RAS, LPJ family
	10	$f(T) = Q_{10}^{\frac{(T-T_{ref})}{10}}$	Q ₁₀ equations; T _{ref} is the reference temperature	CH4MOD, CLM-Microbe,

				CLM4Me, DLEM, VISIT, Kettunen model
	11a	$V_T = V^0 \times \exp\left(\frac{\Delta E}{R} \left[\frac{1}{T^0} - \frac{1}{T}\right]\right)$	Arrhenius equation	Cartoon model, Ding model
	11 b	$f_T = \frac{T_s \times \exp\left(A - \frac{H_a}{R \times T_s}\right)}{\left[1 + \exp\left(\frac{H_{dl} - S \times T_s}{R \times T_s}\right) + \exp\left(\frac{S \times T_s}{R \times T_s}\right)\right]}$	Modified Arrhenius equation; T_s is soil temperature at K ; A is the parameter for $f_T = 1.0$ at $T_s = 303.16$ K; H_a is the energy of activation (J mol^{-1}); R is universal gas constant ($\text{J mol}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$); H_{dl} and H_{dh} are energy of low and high temperature deactivation (J mol^{-1})	<i>ecosys</i>
Moisture effects on methanogenesis and methanotrophy	12	No moisture effect is simulated, rather inundation area is simulated	No equation, while a temporal and spatial variation of inundation and saturation impacts	CASA
	13	$F_\phi = e^{-P/P_c}$	Water stress for oxidation, where P is soil moisture and $P_c = -2.4 \times 10^5$ mm	CLM4Me
	14	$f(SM) = \begin{cases} 1, \\ \left[1 - \frac{\log_{10}\phi - \log_{10}(0.2)}{\log_{10}(100) - \log_{10}(0.2)}\right]^\beta \\ 0, \end{cases}$	β is an arbitrary constant, ϕ is the soil water potential	CLASS
	15	$f_{prod}(SM) = \left(\frac{SM - SM_{fc}}{SM_{sat} - SM_{fc}}\right)^2 \times 0.368 \times e^{\frac{SM - SM_{fc}}{SM_{sat} - SM_{fc}}}$ $f_{oxid}(SM) = 1 - f_{prod}(SM)$	Different impacts on CH_4 production and consumption; SM : soil moisture; SM_{fc} : field capacity; SM_{sat} : saturation soil moisture	DLEM

	16	$f(SM) = \frac{(M_V - M_{min}) \times (M - M_{min})}{(M_V - M_{min}) \times (M_V - M_{max}) - (M - M_{min})^2}$	Bell-shape curve	TEM
pH effects	17a	$f(pH) = \frac{(pH - pH_{min}) \times (pH - pH_{max})}{(pH - pH_{min}) \times (pH - pH_{max}) - (pH - pH_{opt})^2}$	Bell-shape curve	CLM-Microbe, MEM, TEM,
	17b	$f(pH) = 10^{-0.2335 \times pH^2 + 2.7727 \times pH - 8.6}$	Bell-shape curve	CLM4Me
	17c	$f(pH) = \begin{cases} 0 & pH \leq 4 \\ \frac{1.02}{1 + 1000000 \times e^{(-2.5 \times pH)}} & 4 < pH < 7 \\ \frac{1.02}{1 + 1000000 \times e^{(-2.5 \times (14 - pH))}} & pH \geq 7 \end{cases}$	Bell-shape curve	DLEM

Table 4. Temperature dependence of CH₄ processes in various models (blank indicates the Q₁₀ function is not used; all temperatures are expressed as °C, 273.15 was used for unit conversion)

Model	Q ₁₀	Reference temperature (°C)	Note	Sources
CASA			Based on a linear equation with temperature	(Potter, 1997)
DAYCENT			Linear equation $y = 0.209 * T + 0.845$	(Del Grosso et al., 2000)
LPJ family LPJ-Bern LPJ-WHyMe LPJ-WSL			Linear function was used for temperature impacts on diffusion	(Hodson et al., 2011; Spahni et al., 2011; Wania, 2007)
Christensen's model	2	2	For temperature > 0, the temperature impact is set to zero when < 0	(Christensen and Cox, 1995)
CH4MOD	3	30	T=30 for 30 < T ≤ 40	(Huang et al., 1998b)
CLM4Me	2	2	Parameters for baseline simulation	(Riley et al., 2011)
CLM-Microbe	1.5	13.5		(Xu et al., 2015)
DLEM	2.5	30	For a temperature range of [-5, 30]; temperature impact is set to zero when < -5 or > 30	(Tian et al., 2010)
Kettunen's model	4.0 for production, 2.0 for oxidation	10	Standard Q ₁₀ function	(Kettunen, 2003)
ORCHIDEE	Abisko site, 2.6; Michigan site, 3.2; Panama site, 1.2	Mean annual temperature	Q ₁₀ function with different parameters across biomes	(Ringer et al., 2010)

TEM	Alpine tundra: wetland, 3.5; upland, 0.8. Wet tundra: wetland, 2.2; upland, 1.1. Boreal forest: wetland, 1.9; upland, 1.5	Alpine tundra: wetland, -3.0; upland, 8.0. Wet tundra: wetland, -5.5; upland, 8.0. Boreal forest: wetland, 1.0; upland, 7.0	Q ₁₀ function with different parameters across biomes	(Zhuang et al., 2004)
TRIPLEX-GHG	1.7-16 for production, 1.4-2.4 for oxidation	25 for optimal, 45 for highest temperature	Modified Q ₁₀ equation	(Zhu et al., 2014a)
VISIT		Mean annual temperature		(Ito and Inatomi, 2012)
Walter's model	2	Ombrotrophic bog, 12; poor fen, 6.5; oligotrophic pine fen, 3.5; Arctic tundra, 0; swamp, 27	Q ₁₀ function with different parameters across biomes	(Walter and Heimann, 2000)
Cartoon model		10	Arrhenius equation	(Arah and Stephen, 1998)
<i>ecosys</i>		30	Modified Arrhenius equation	(Grant et al., 1993)

10 **Figure legend**

Figure 1. Published CH₄ models and modeling trends in terms of applicability and mechanistic representation of CH₄ cycling processes over recent decades the envisioned CH₄ model capability

15 Figure 2. Percentage of CH₄ models with consideration of some key CH₄ mechanisms. The percentage was calculated as the number of models considering each mechanisms divided by the total number of published models in each time period

Figure 3. Cluster analysis showing three groups of CH₄ models based on model characteristics (lines with same color indicate CH₄ models in same group; green lines represent relatively simple model structure, red lines represent relatively mechanistic models, blue lines represent mechanistic models)

20 Figure 4. Three types of models with key mechanisms for CH₄ production and oxidation (*SOM*: Soil organic matter; *NPP*: net primary production; *DOC*: dissolved organic carbon; *O_{atm}*: oxidation of atmospheric CH₄; *P*: plant-mediated transport; *D*: diffusion transport; *E*: ebullition transport; *O_{xid}*: oxidation; *O_{trans}*: oxidation of CH₄ during transport)

25 Figure 5. Key features of future mechanistic CH₄ models with a full representation of primary CH₄ processes in the terrestrial ecosystems. The data assimilation system and model benchmarking system are also shown as auxiliary components to the future CH₄ models

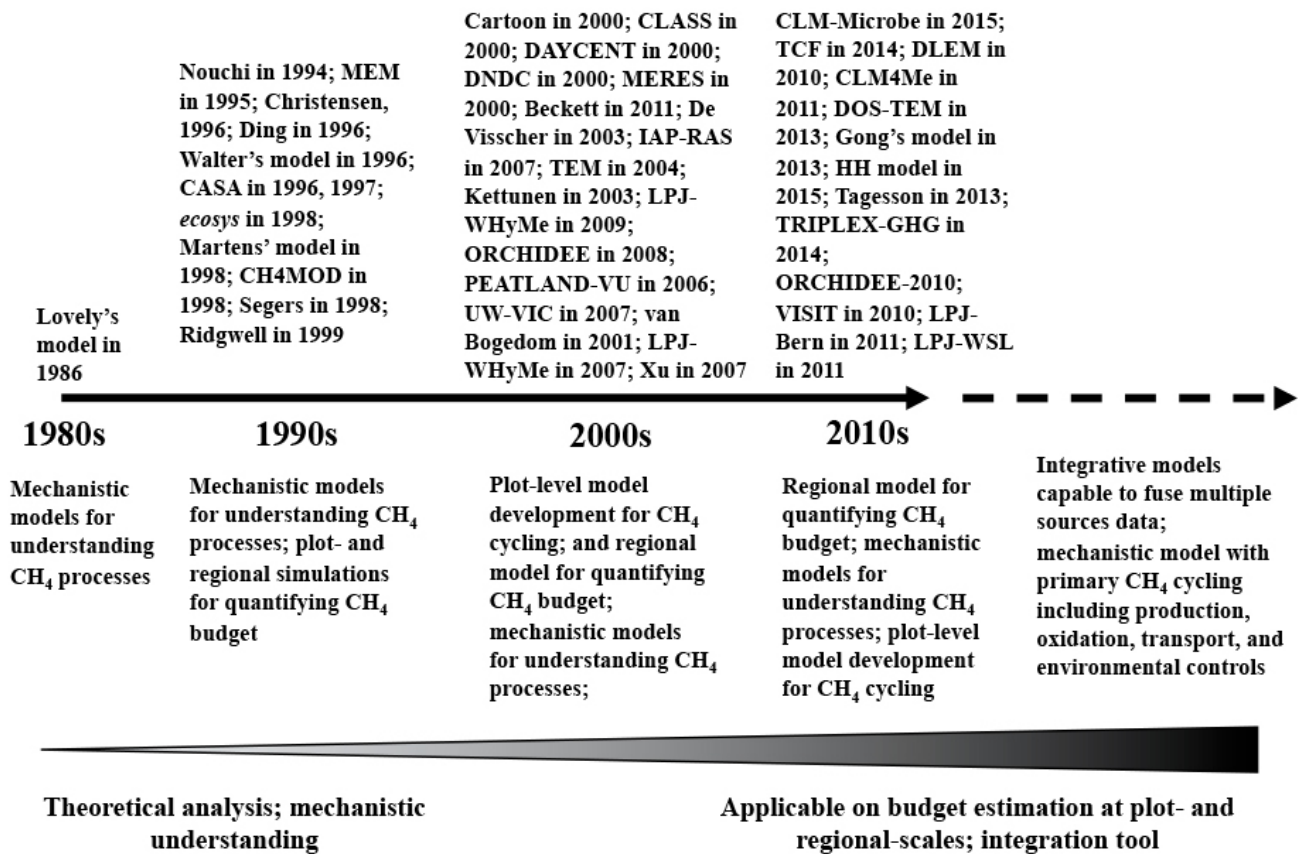


Fig. 1.

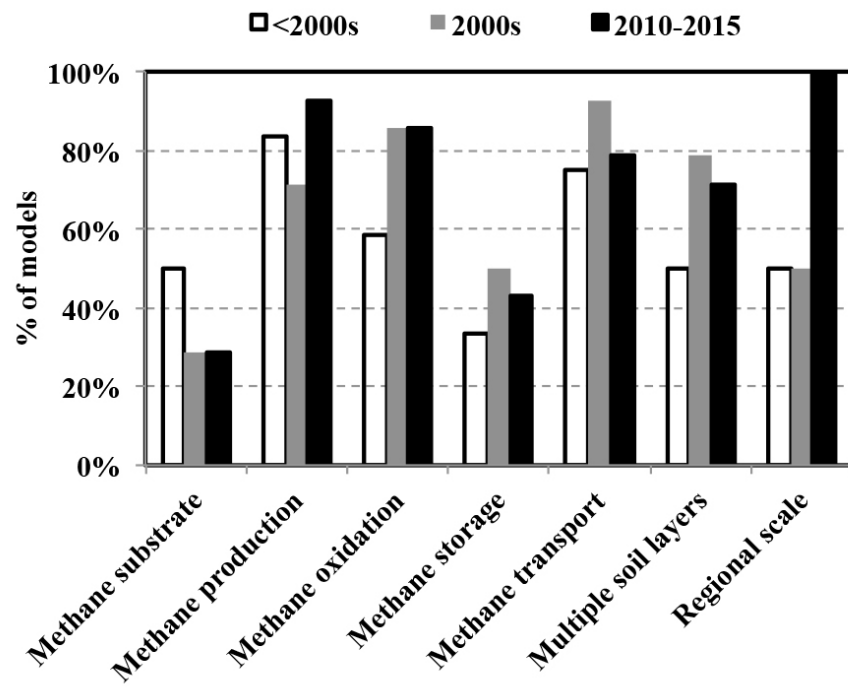


Fig. 2.

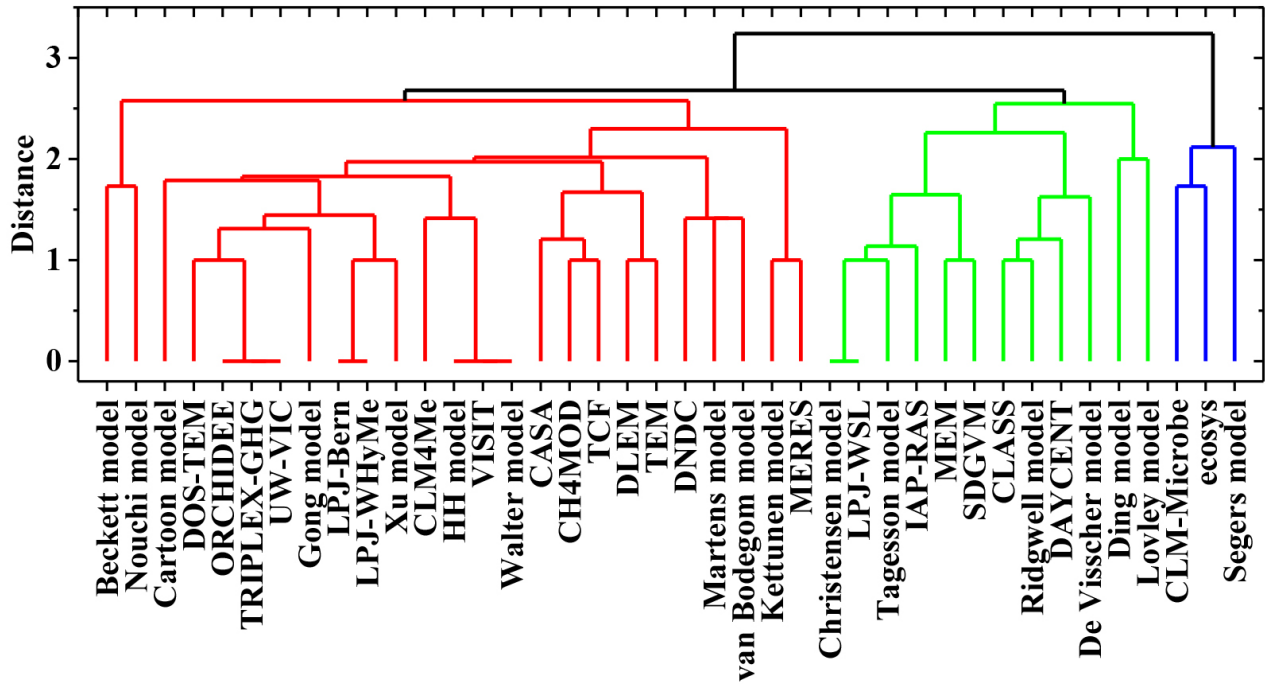


Fig. 3

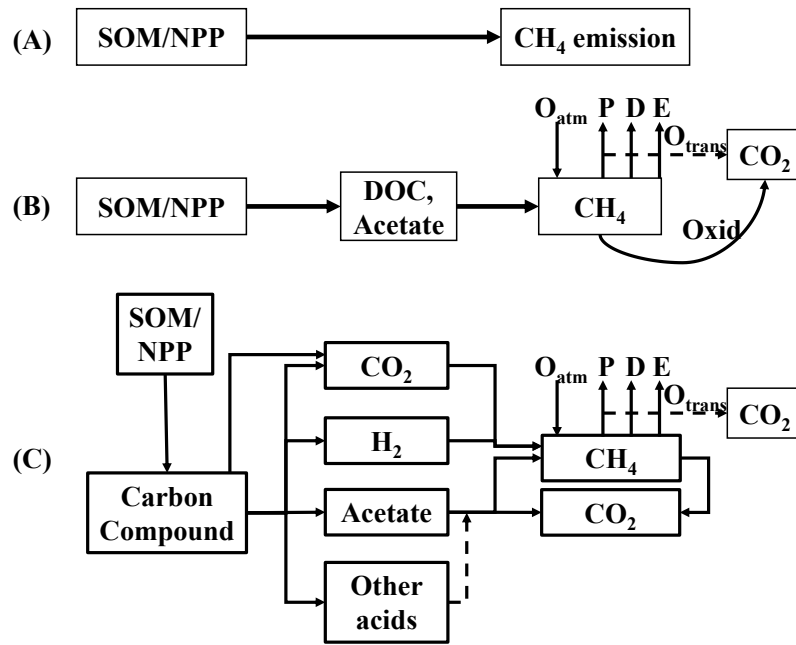


Fig. 4.

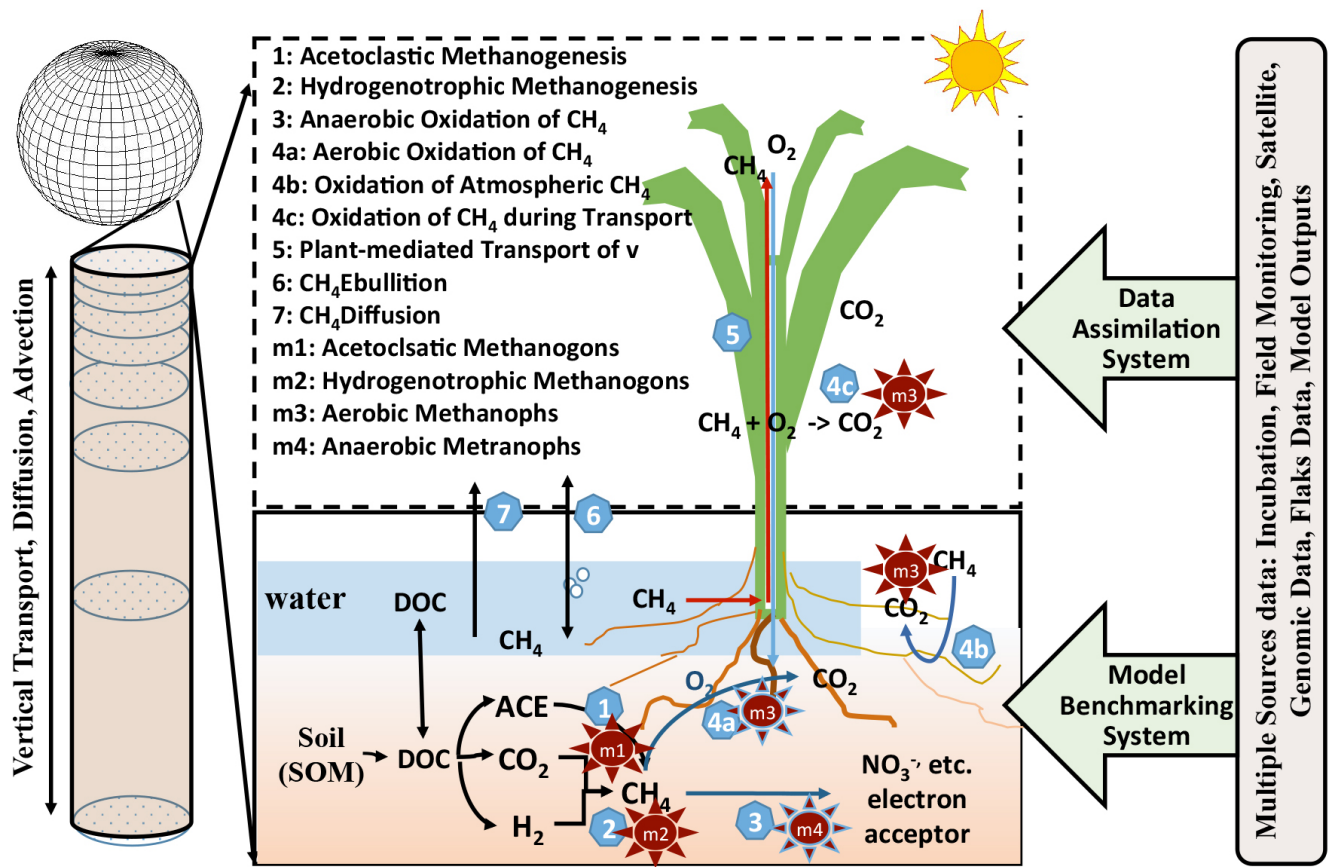


Fig. 5