D&B and TCCAS User Manual



T. Kaminski, M. Voßbeck, W. Knorr, T. Quaife, M. Scholze et al.

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# **Contents**





E Meteorological forcing for Majadas de Tietar at site-level derived from in-situ observations

- F Template file used in preprocessing step to generate dimensions.f90 [105](#page-104-0)
- G Initial lines of observational data file for assimilation (SIF, Sodankylä) [106](#page-105-0)

# <span id="page-5-0"></span>1 Executive summary

This manual describes the D&B terrestrial biosphere model and the variational Terrestrial Carbon Community Assimilation System (TCCAS) built around that model. It presents the underlying equations and concepts and their implementation. It describes the installation of the code, the operation of D&B and TCCDAS and presents a set of typical use cases with reference output. This document constitutes Deliverable 7 of the TCCAS study. An update of this document is planned as Deliverable 8.

PFT#	Short name	Description	
1	TrEV	Tropical broadleaf evergreen tree	
2	TrDD	Tropical broadleaf deciduous tree	
3	TmEv	Temperate broadleaf evergreen tree	
4	TmSg	Temperate broadleaf deciduous tree	
5	EvCn	Evergreen coniferous tree	
6	SgCn	Deciduous coniferous tree	
7	EShr	Evergreen shrub	
8	<b>DShr</b>	Deciduous shrub	
9	C <sub>3</sub> Gr	$C3$ grass	
10	C <sub>4</sub> Gr	C4 grass	
11	TunV	Tundra	
12	WetV	Wetland	
13	ArbC	Arable crop	

<span id="page-6-1"></span>Table 1: Parameter combinations are available for the following plant functional types in D&B:

## <span id="page-6-0"></span>2 D&B

The D&B model is comprised of three interconnected components: (i) photosynthesis and autotrophic respiration, (ii) energy and water balance, and (iii) carbon allocation and cycling, including heterotrophic respiration (Figure [1\)](#page-7-0). The first comprises processes that lead to the uptake of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  via plant photosynthetic activity (gross primary production, GPP), influenced by temperature, light absorption across the canopy, and stomatal control, as well as carbon loss from the respiration of live vegetation  $(R_A,$  autotrophic respiration). The remaining carbon flux is then passed as net primary production (NPP  $=$  GPP -  $R_A$ ) into the Carbon Allocation and Cycling component. The Energy and Water Balance determines the energy input to and output from the canopy in the form of radiative heat, latent and sensible heat transport, taking into account the water balance of the canopy and soil, as well as the rate of water uptake from the roots. Historically, components (i) and (ii) are based on the Biosphere Energy-Transfer HYdrology scheme (BETHY, [Knorr, 2000\)](#page-58-0), and component (iii) on the Data Assimilation Linked Ecosystem Carbon (DALEC [Williams et al., 2005;](#page-63-0) [Bloom and Williams, 2015\)](#page-55-0) model.

Depending on the domain for which the model is set up, D&B distinguishes up to 13 Plant Functional Types (PFTs) as shown in Table [1.](#page-6-1) Each PFT is characterised by a unique set of parameter values. All PFTs use the C3 photosynthetic pathway, except for PFT 10, for which a separate module for C4 photosynthesis is used (see Section [B.1.1\)](#page-65-2). Management of arable crops is represented by appropriate parameters for leaf onset and fall, as well as assumptions about a minimum level to which soil moisture is allowed to fall, as an approximation of irrigation (see Section [B.2.5\)](#page-79-0).

The fundamental model time step is 1 hour. The following components are, however, simulated at a daily time step in order to decrease the computational effort:

- soil water balance
- canopy water balance



<span id="page-7-0"></span>Figure 1: Structure of the DALEC-BETHY coupled model. State variables are in filled boxes; green for carbon, pale blue for water, orange for canopy states of stomatal conductance  $(g_s)$  and leaf temperature  $(T_v)$ . Drivers are shown with white text in dark blue boxes (T: air temperature,  $T_{ds}$ : deep-soil temperature,  $R_{sw}$ : downwelling shortwave radiation,  $R_{L\downarrow}$ : downwelling longwave radiation;  $P_{tot}$ : total precipitation,  $C_a$ : CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in air). Fluxes are shown as solid arrows and annotated by open boxes; coloured green for C fluxes and pale blue for water. GPP is gross primary production; NPP is net primary production;  $R_A$  is autotrophic respiration;  $R_H$  is heterotrophic respiration;  $E_t$ is evapotranspiration. Dashed arrows show influences – for example T and  $R_{sw}$  influence the modelling of phenology.

- snow module
- the observation operators for VOD, ASCAT slope and surface soil moisture

The model simulates several PFTs in sub-grid tiles. Each PFT is simulated separately as if it would cover the full grid cell, with the results re-scaled by multiplying them with the grid-cell fraction occupied by the specific tile. Inter-PFT competition for light or water are neglected. A given grid

cell can thus comprise several PFTs each with its specific cover fraction.

### <span id="page-8-0"></span>2.1 Photosynthesis and Autotrophic Respiration

The C3 photosynthesis module (Section [B.1.1\)](#page-65-2) is based on the biochemical model of photosynthesis by [Farquhar et al.](#page-55-1) [\(1980\)](#page-55-1). It determines light absorption, light-limited electron transport,  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ -limited carboxylation rate and the resulting gas exchange of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ . Light absorption in the photosynthetically active spectrum is calculated within a two-flux approximation (Section [B.1.1\)](#page-65-2), following [Sellers](#page-61-0) [\(1985\)](#page-61-0). D&B divides the canopy into several vertical layers of equal LAI, the sum of which constitutes the total canopy LAI. In the standard configuration, the number of layers is three. The amount of light absorbed and thus available for photosynthesis is dependent on LAI, statistical leaf orientation (assumed to be isotropic) and leaf single-scattering albedo. Photosynthetic capacity decreases from top to bottom of the canopy, assuming that decreasing levels of daily-average solar radiation drives decreases in leaf nitrogen content and maximum rates of light-limited photosynthesis.

The photosynthesis module further divides GPP into NPP and  $R_{A}$  (Section [B.1.2\)](#page-70-0)  $R_{A}$  is modelled as the sum of maintenance and growth respiration [\(Knorr, 1997\)](#page-58-1). While maintenance respiration is proportional to photosynthetic capacity, growth respiration is proportional to NPP, and zero when NPP is negative. Both continually increase with temperature. Negative NPP is also passed on to the C Allocation and Cycling component, where it leads to the depletion of the labile C pool.

The rate of photosynthesis is first computed under standard conditions without limitation by water availability. This potential photosynthesis rate is translated into an equivalent stomatal conductance, i.e. the stomatal conductance necessary to provide the flow of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  to the leaf interior. This value for stomatal conductance without water limitation is reduced depending on the vapour pressure deficit of the surrounding air, and available soil moisture. This modified stomatal conductance, or "actual stomatal conductance", then determines actual photosynthesis and, using information from the Energy and Water Balance component, the rate of transpiration.

### <span id="page-8-1"></span>2.2 Energy and Water Balance

The Energy and Water Balance component requires the rate of transpiration from the photosynthesis module, due to the tight coupling between water loss through transpiration and  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  uptake by leaves. Transpiration (Section [B.2.4\)](#page-75-1) is subsequently combined with other evaporative fluxes, namely of intercepted water (evaporation from intercepted skin reservoir, Figure [2,](#page-9-0) Section [B.2.3\)](#page-75-0), and from the soil surface (soil evaporation, Section [B.2.5\)](#page-79-0), including snow sublimation (Section [B.2.7\)](#page-85-0), to arrive at total evapotranspiration and latent heat flux. Latent heat flux is constrained by the available net radiative energy input, which the model computes separately for the vegetation canopy and the soil (Section [B.2.6\)](#page-84-0). Sensible heat flux is computed from the assumption of energy closure from net radiation, latent and soil heat flux. The model uses incoming shortwave (solar) and longwave (thermal) radiation as input, but simulates both outgoing radiation components internally, using information on the albedo of the soil background and vegetation (Section [B.2.8\)](#page-86-0).

Soil evaporation proceeds at the equilibrium rate driven by the soil net radiation from a thin surface layer, with depth of 4 cm unless that value exceeds the depth of the soil. This corresponds



<span id="page-9-0"></span>Figure 2: Energy and water balance of the D&B model with symbols for fluxes (normal) and reservoirs (italics).  $a_s$ : soil absorption of shortwave radiation,  $a_v$ : canopy absorption of shortwave radiation,  $E_i$ : intercepted-water (canopy) evaporation,  $E_s$ : soil evaporation;  $E_{sn}$ : snow evaporation,  $E_t$ : transpiration,  $G$ : ground heat flux,  $P_i$ : intercepted rainfall;  $P_r$ : rainfall;  $P_s$  rainfall on soil;  $P_{sn}$ : snowfall,  $P_{tot}$ : total precipitation;  $P_v$ : throughfall,  $Q_b$ : baseflow,  $Q_d$ : horizontal drainage,  $Q_s$ : surface runoff,  $R_{L,\uparrow}$ : upwelling longwave radiation,  $R_{L,\downarrow}$ : downwelling longwave radiation,  $R_{sw}$ : downwelling shortwave radiation,  $t_{l,v}$ : longwave canopy transmission,  $W_i$ : intercepted water amount,  $W_r$ : root-zone soil moisture,  $W_s$ : surface-layer soil moisture,  $W_{sn}$ : snow amount,  $\rho_S$ : surface reflectance.

to a typical depth for which microwave remote sensing can provide soil moisture estimates [\(Babaeian](#page-55-2) [et al., 2019\)](#page-55-2). Evapotranspiration from the canopy happens as either canopy evaporation from leaf surfaces at the equilibrium rate  $(E_i,$  [Jarvis and McNaughton, 1986\)](#page-57-0), or as transpiration through leaf pores  $(E_t)$ . Precipitation enters either the leaf interception pool  $(W_i)$ , or the soil pool  $(W_r$  and

 $W_s$ , see Section [B.2.1\)](#page-73-1). Precipitation happens as either snow  $(P_{sn}$ , Section [B.2.7\)](#page-85-0), or rainfall  $(P_r)$ , partitioned into a canopy-interception part  $(E_i)$ , soil infiltration  $(P_s)$ , and surface runoff  $(Q_s)$ . Soil water drains as sub-surface runoff  $(Q_d)$ , or base flow  $(Q_b)$ . Infiltration into the soil (Section [B.2.2\)](#page-74-0), runoff, drainage and baseflow (Section [B.2.5\)](#page-79-0) are simulated following a new implementation of the variable infiltration capacity approach [\(Wood et al., 1992\)](#page-63-1), where a thin surface layer has been added to a single root-zone layer, [\(Scholze et al., 2016\)](#page-60-0). The surface soil moisture layer overlaps with the root zone layer, so that the near-surface soil water pool  $(W_s)$  forms part of the root-zone soil water pool  $(W_r, F_{\text{square}})$ . The former has a nominal depth of 4 cm, the latter a depth equal to a PFT-specific root depth,  $d_r$  (Table [11\)](#page-66-0). Both depths are limited by depth to bedrock. Soil water exiting the root zone downwards is considered subsurface drainage, while there is no upward water movement from below the root zone. The root zone soil moisture pool contains all simulated soil water, while the surface layer is added in order to be able to calculate soil evaporation, as well as for diagnostic purposes taking account of the impact of surface soil moisture on microwave remote sensing.

Once per day around the time of maximum evaporative demand, assumed to be at the hourly time step closest to 13:00 hours local solar time [\(Knorr, 1997\)](#page-58-1), the parameters determining actual stomatal conductance are reset to reflect soil water status. To do this, transpiration is simulated as the minimum of a root water supply rate, which increases linearly as soon as soil water exceeds the permanent wilting point, and the demand for transpiration. This rate of demand is determined by the potential rate of photosynthesis without water stress. Potential photosynthesis is assumed as the rate at a fixed ratio of leaf to atmospheric  $CO_2$  content (0.87 for C3 and 0.67 for C4 photosynthesis). Actual photosynthesis and stomatal conductance are then set such that transpiration is capped at the root supply rate. A supply-demand calculation then determines the rate at which leaf stomata close in response to the water vapour deficit of the surrounding air.

Finally, the surface reflectance, or background albedo  $(\rho_S)$  is affected by soil brightness, surface soil water content, and the presence of snow. Vegetation albedo as a function of absorption in the photosynthetically active spectrum, computed in the photosynthesis module, and snow albedo is modelled depending on snow age [\(Loth and Graf, 1996;](#page-59-0) [Knorr, 1997\)](#page-58-1).

### <span id="page-10-0"></span>2.3 Carbon Allocation and Cycling

The carbon cycle in D&B is expressed as a series of six equations describing the dynamics of six carbon pools. Other than the original DALEC model, D&B employs an hourly time step for allocation, the same as the time step used by the photosynthesis module. There are four live C pools, for foliage (fol), wood (wd) and fine roots  $(fr)$ , a labile (lab) pool which supports foliage expansion, and two dead organic matter pools, namely litter (*lit*) and soil organic matter (*SOM*). The state equations describe the change over time in pool sizes on the basis of C fluxes in and out. Carbon inputs all derive originally from NPP. NPP is allocated to each of the four live biomass pools based on fixed fractions.

The labile C pool in D&B represents the stored C used to initiate accelerated leaf development at the start of the growing season (Section [B.3.1\)](#page-92-1). The phenology scheme parameterises timing of local bud burst via allocation to leaves from the labile pool based on calibrated climate sensitivity.

Leaf development thus depends on the allocation of labile carbon, replenished from NPP, to the leaf carbon pool in addition to direct allocation from NPP. The leaf area index is determined by the conversion of leaf carbon pool size to leaf area by way of fixed values of leaf mass per area.

The fine root (fr) and wood pools (wd) are determined by first-order differential equations, using a decay constant combined with an fractional input, again from NPP (Section [B.3.2\)](#page-93-0). Thus, a fraction of the fine root pool replenishes the litter pool, added by strongly periodic inputs linked to leaf senescence, while wood directly feeds SOM. The litter pool decays either to  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  via heterotrophic respiration, or is transferred to the SOM pool. Mineralisation of both SOM and litter C pools by heterotrophic respiration thus results in further  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  fluxes. Total ecosystem respiration (TER) is determined by the sum of autotrophic growth and maintenance respiration, and mineralisation of dead organic matter (lit or som), creating a flux of heterotrophic respiration. Following the procedure used for DALEC, the prior parameters of the Carbon Allocation and Cycling are set through a regional-scale calibration procedure, as described in Section [B.3.3.](#page-94-0)

## <span id="page-11-0"></span>3 Observation Operators

The task of an observation operator is to simulate the equivalent of an observation from the model's state variables. This includes the simulation of the variable that is retrieved at the time when it was observed and over the footprint of the observations [\(Kaminski and Mathieu, 2017\)](#page-57-1). In the following, we will present the simulation of five data streams, namely FAPAR, SIF, L-band VOD, ASCAT slope, and near-surface soil moisture. Of the five data streams, FAPAR and surface soil moisture are internally calculated. Figure [3](#page-12-0) shows the flow of information in the forward sense through D&B and the observation operators.

### <span id="page-11-1"></span>3.1 Fraction of absorbed photosynthetically active radiation (FAPAR)

FAPAR is a measure of the capacity of terrestrial vegetation to absorb sunlight in the visible spectrum, i.e. that part that can be utilised as photosynthesis. It is defined as the amount of photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) absorbed by green, functioning leaves divided by the total incoming PAR. FAPAR is calculated within the two-flux canopy radiative transfer scheme (Section [B.1.1\)](#page-65-2) required for the calculation of GPP (Section [2.1\)](#page-8-0). However, due to the dependence of FAPAR on solar zenith angle, it is necessary to take into account the solar zenith angle at time of observation. Therefore, the observation operator for FAPAR needs to ensure that either a separate calculation of FAPAR at the correct solar zenith angle is performed, or it utilizes FAPAR calculations from the model run at the times and dates where model and observations solar zenith angles match.

### <span id="page-11-2"></span>3.2 Solar Induced Fluorescence (SIF)

Strictly speaking, the canopy level solar-induced chlorophyll fluorescence, or SIF, is a measure not of the photosynthetic rate as such, but of the amount of radiation absorbed by the leaf and not used for the purpose of photosynthesis. Some of that surplus radiation is re-emitted as fluorescent light as



<span id="page-12-0"></span>Figure 3: A flow diagram showing the connection between the biogeochemical model and the data streams to be assimilated. The D&B model is forced with meteorological data, and takes soil parameter inputs. Key outputs of the model – the canopy state and the vegetation state – are used as inputs to observation operators. These observation operators generate observation equivalents for five different remote sensing data streams. The data assimilation system determines the parameters of the model and the observation operators that minimise the misfit between observation equivalents and observations at pixel scale over the period of monitoring. fluxes (normal) and reservoirs (italics).

part of a copying mechanism of the photosynthetic system. Under normal field conditions, however, SIF can often be used as an indication of photosynthetic activity, as opposed to FAPAR, which only characterises the photosynthetically active light that is potentially available [\(Porcar-Castell et al.,](#page-60-1) [2014;](#page-60-1) [Mohammed et al., 2019\)](#page-59-1).

To calculate SIF for individual canopy layers, we offer the formulations of [Gu et al.](#page-56-0) [\(2019\)](#page-56-0), [Van der Tol et al.](#page-62-0) [\(2014\)](#page-62-0) and [Li et al.](#page-58-2) [\(2022\)](#page-58-2). These choices are motivated by the direct link to the photosynthesis routines and the relatively parsimonious implementation, which fits with the modelling strategy adopted here.

### <span id="page-13-0"></span>3.2.1 Gu model

The SIF for a single canopy layer,  $S_n$ , is given by:

$$
S_n = s_{SIF} J_n \frac{1 - \psi_{PSIImax}}{q_L \psi_{PSIImax} (1 + k_{DF})},\tag{1}
$$

where  $J_n$  is the electron transport in layer n (Equ. [35\)](#page-66-1),  $\psi_{PSIImax}$  is the maximum photochemical quantum yield of photosystem II,  $q_L$  is the fraction of open photosystem II reaction centres and  $k_{DF}$  the ratio of the first order rate constants for heat dissipation and fluorescence. We take the values prescribed by [Gu et al.](#page-56-0) [\(2019\)](#page-56-0). Note that the original equation in that paper also has a term for the photon escape probability from the canopy. In D&B, this is calculated explicitly by the layered 2-stream model (Section [C\)](#page-97-0) and hence is not required here. As an extension to the model by [Gu et al.](#page-56-0) [\(2019\)](#page-56-0) in view of the anticipated calibration in a data assimilation scheme, we further introduce the scaling factor  $s_{SIF}$ , which compensates for large uncertainties in (1) the values of the three constants  $\psi_{PSIImax}$ ,  $q_L$ , and  $k_{DF}$  and (2) the spectral conversion that is described below. We set the prior value of  $s_{SIF}$  to 1.

### <span id="page-13-1"></span>3.2.2 Van der Tol model

The emission of SIF from a canopy layer is given by:

$$
S_n = s_{SIF}APAR_n \left(1 - \frac{J_n}{APAR_n}\right) \phi'_m \tag{2}
$$

where  $J_n$  is the electron transport and  $APAR_n$  is the absorbed photosynthetic active radiation in layer n.  $\,\phi_m'$  is the proportion of the remaining photons that are fluoresced:

$$
\phi'_{m} = K_{F}/\left(K_{F} + K_{D} + K_{N}\right),\tag{3}
$$

where  $K_F$ ,  $K_D$  and  $K_N$  are rate constants for fluorescence, thermal dissipation and energy-dependent heat dissipation respectively. The value for  $K_F$  is set to 0.05 and the value of  $K_D$  is 0.95.  $K_N$  is given by:

$$
K_N = K_{N0} x^{\alpha} \left( 1 + \beta \right) / \left( \beta + x^{\alpha} \right), \tag{4}
$$

where,  $\alpha = 2.83$ ,  $K_{N0} = 2.48$ ,  $\beta = 0.114$  and the non-photochemical quenching (NPQ) parameter  $x$  is given by:

$$
x = 1 - \frac{J_n}{J_{pot,n}},\tag{5}
$$

where,  $J_{pot,n}$  is the potential rate of photosynthesis from the light limited regime.

### <span id="page-14-0"></span>3.2.3 Li model

The Li model is a variant on the Van der Tol model, but differs in that  $K_{N0} = 5.01$ ,  $\beta = 10$ . which results in a more rapid decline  $\phi_m'$  with  $x.$  In addition it contains a dynamic formulation for  $K_D$  as a function of leaf temperature  $(T_v)$ :

$$
K_D = \max(0.8738, 0.0301 \cdot T_v + 0.0773) \tag{6}
$$

### <span id="page-14-1"></span>3.2.4 Scaling to the canopy

Canopy level SIF is calculated via the layered 2-stream model (L2SM) described in Section [C,](#page-97-0) which is physically consistent with the Sellers two-stream model, but permits internal canopy emissions. When coupled to the above leaf level models, it has native units of  $mol \times m^{-2} s^{-1}.$  It represents the total flux of photons into the hemisphere above the canopy for all wavelengths. Satellite measurements and in situ observations, however, are typically recorded in energy flux units per steradian, per nanometre of the SIF spectra, e.g.  $\mathsf{Wm^{-2}s^{-1}nm^{-1}sr^{-1}}$ . To convert from molar, to energy units we apply the molar form of the Planck equation:

$$
e = ahc/\lambda_{\phi},\tag{7}
$$

where  $a$  is Avogadro's number  $(6.023\times 10^{23})$ ,  $h$  is the Planck constant  $(6.626\times 10^{-34}~m^2kg\cdot s^{-1})$ ,  $c$  is the speed of light  $(3.0\times 10^8\;m\cdot s^{-1})$ ,  $\lambda_\phi$  is the wavelength of the SIF photons in metres and  $e$ is the energy per mole of photons at that wavelength.

We convert to steradians by using a constant factor of  $\frac{1}{2\pi}$ , which assumes that the emittance of SIF from the top of the canopy is isotropic, and finally weight by the relative strength of emissions at  $\lambda_{\phi}$  compared to a reference SIF spectrum, i.e.:

$$
w = \frac{E(\lambda_{\phi})}{\sum_{i} E(\lambda_{\phi,i})},\tag{8}
$$

where  $E$  is the SIF emission spectrum of arbitrary units. Hence:

<span id="page-14-2"></span>
$$
SIF' = SIF \frac{ew}{2\pi},\tag{9}
$$

Where SIF has units of  $mol\cdot m^{-2}s^{-1}$  and  $SIF'$  has units of  $Wm^{-2}s^{-1}sr^{-1}nm^{-1}.$ 

The package contains two different SIF emission spectra, which are both provided by [Magney](#page-59-2) [et al.](#page-59-2) [\(2019\)](#page-59-2). The first was measured at an oak tree (Quercus robur) in Pasadena and the other one at the Hyytiälä site in Finland at four Scots pine trees at light level of 1200  $\mu mol \cdot m^{-2} s^{-1}$ and then averaged. The respective conversion factors in Equ. [\(9\)](#page-14-2) to the 743 nm band in which the <code>TROPOMI</code> instrument provides observations are  $139.71531 \cdot 10^3$   $W \cdot sr^{-1} \cdot nm^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$  for oak and  $360.528344 \cdot 10^3 W \cdot sr^{-1} \cdot nm^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$  for pine.

## <span id="page-15-0"></span>3.3 Vegetation optical depth (VOD)

Vegetation optical depth (VOD) is essentially a variable describing the attenuation of microwave radiation at some wavelength due to the presence of vegetation. It depends on the dielectric properties (due to water content, temperature and chemical composition) as well as the structure and geometry of the vegetation, and sensor properties (e.g. wavelength, polarization). Due to the relatively static nature of structure, dynamics of VOD are generally attributed to changes in above ground biomass and water content [\(Ulaby and Wilson, 1985;](#page-62-1) [Konings et al., 2019\)](#page-58-3). It is measured within the microwave spectrum with passive instruments, using the black body radiation of the surface in the microwave domain, or active instruments such as scatterometers or synthetic aperture radars.

Common retrieval methods may extract both the surface soil moisture and VOD simultaneously from satellite remote sensing data, provided enough measurements are performed. For example the SMOS [\(Kerr et al., 2010\)](#page-58-4) retrieval algorithm [\(Kerr et al., 2012\)](#page-58-5) is based on the so-called  $\tau - \omega$  formulation for the vegetation contribution [\(Kirdiashev et al., 1979;](#page-58-6) [Mo et al., 1982\)](#page-59-3) of the microwave signal, where VOD is denoted by  $\tau$ , the perpendicular vegetation optical depth [\(Wigneron](#page-62-2) [et al., 2007,](#page-62-2) [2010\)](#page-62-3).

We use a semi-empirical formulation for L-band VOD, expressed as:

<span id="page-15-1"></span>
$$
\tau_{\lambda} = f(T)(l_{wd}C_{wd} + l_{fol}C_{fol})(l_{sfsoil} + l_{f}f_{E} + l_{0}),
$$
\n(10)

where the subscript  $\lambda$  denotes its wavelength dependence,  $C_{fol}$  and  $C_{wd}$  are the leaf and woody biomass pools, respectively (see Section [2.3\)](#page-10-0),  $f_{soul}$  (Equ. [119\)](#page-84-1) is fractional plant-available soil water content, and

$$
f_E = E_t / E_{t,max} \tag{11}
$$

i.e. the ratio of actual to potential transpiration (see Equs. [89](#page-76-0) and [92\)](#page-77-0).  $f_{soil}$  describes slow changes in the plant's hydrological status, hence multiplied by parameter  $l_{hs}$ , and  $f_E$  fast changes, multiplied by parameter  $l_{hf}$ . The other empirical parameters are  $l_0$ ,  $l_{wd}$  for dependence on woody biomass, and  $l_{fol}$  for dependence on leaf biomass. Following [Schwank et al.](#page-61-1) [\(2021\)](#page-61-1), we include an explicit temperature dependency in the form of:

$$
f(T) = 0.25 + 0.75/(1 + e^{-0.5(T+3)}),
$$
\n(12)

which approximates theoretically derived behaviour around the freezing point, with  $T$  being 2-m air temperature. This formulation can be used across a range of microwave wavelengths, using different parameter values in each case. The second multiplicative factor in Equ. [\(10\)](#page-15-1) is an empirical, linear expression using both woody and foliar biomass with the assumption that VOD will be zero if no biomass is present. The third multiplicative factor describes how the water status of the vegetation modifies this expression. This last one also contains a constant factor,  $l_0 > 0$ , because we expect positive VOD even if vegetation water stress is at its maximum.

In TCCAS, we apply it to passive L-band microwave measurements. The parameters for the empirical VOD observation operator, shown in Table [2,](#page-16-2) were chosen to reproduce a reasonable fit to L-band observations from SMOS over the Sodankylä and the Majadas del Tietar sites prior to any systematic assimilation.

<span id="page-16-2"></span>

Parameter	Unit	Value	
$l_{wd}$	$\overline{m^2/gC}$	$2.0 \times 10^{-4}$	
$l_{fol}$		$m^2/gC$ 2.0 $\times 10^{-4}$	
$l_s$		1.20	
		4.0	
		በ 4	

Table 2: Parameters for empirical observation operator for L-VOD.

### <span id="page-16-0"></span>3.4 Near-surface soil moisture

In the D&B model, near-surface soil moisture is represented by an explicitly modelled thin surface soil moisture layer, with a depth of 4 cm, unless depth-to-bedrock indicates a lower value. It is therefore a state variable in the model's soil water component, and is described in detail in Section [2.2.](#page-8-1) This surface layer therefore here serves a dual purpose, to diagnose a variable that can potentially be used as an assimilated data stream, and to simulate soil evaporation.

Near-surface soil moisture data is usually available from passive data when retrieved simultaneously with VOD. These retrieval algorithms explicitly separate the contributions to the microwave signal that come either from the vegetation (VOD) or from the soil (surface soil moisture).

### <span id="page-16-1"></span>3.5 ASCAT slope

The unique viewing geometry of the Advanced Scatterometer (ASCAT) on the Metop series of satellites provides observations of backscatter at a range of incidence angles. The incidence angle  $(\theta)$  dependence of backscatter can be described with a second order Taylor polynomial as follows:

$$
\sigma^{\circ}(\theta) = \sigma^{\circ}(\theta_r) + \sigma'(\theta) \cdot (\theta - \theta_r) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \sigma''(\theta r) \cdot (\theta - \theta_r)^2 \qquad [dB] \qquad (13)
$$

where  $\sigma^{\circ}(\theta_r)$ ,  $\sigma'(\theta_r)$  and  $\sigma''(\theta_r)$  are the normalized backscatter, slope and curvature at some reference angle  $\theta_r$ . In the TU Wien soil moisture retrieval approach, this expression is used to normalize backscatter acquisitions at different incident angles to a reference angle  $(\theta_r)$ . It is also used to account for the influence of vegetation on backscatter as the incidence angle behaviour of  $\sigma^\circ$  depends on whether total backscatter is dominated by surface scattering from the soil, volume scattering from the vegetation, or multiple scattering [\(Wagner et al., 1999;](#page-62-4) [Naeimi et al., 2009;](#page-59-4) [Hahn](#page-57-2) [et al., 2017\)](#page-57-2). [Vreugdenhil et al.](#page-62-5) [\(2016\)](#page-62-5) developed an approach to determine the vegetation optical depth  $\tau$  from the changing sensitivity to surface soil moisture encapsulated in the slope and curvature. Recent studies have demonstrated that the slope contains information on vegetation phenology and water status, precisely the information required from VOD [\(Steele-Dunne et al., 2019;](#page-61-2) [Petchiappan](#page-60-2) [et al., 2022\)](#page-60-2). However, using the slope directly avoids the additional assumptions required in the soil moisture and VOD retrieval algorithms [\(Shan et al., 2022\)](#page-61-3). Given that the slope contains information on both vegetation biomass accumulation and vegetation water status, the observation operator is uses the same input variables as the observation operator for L-VOD (Equ. [\(10\)](#page-15-1)):



<span id="page-17-1"></span>

<span id="page-17-2"></span>
$$
\sigma' = a_0 + a_{wd}C_{wd} + a_s f_{soil} + a_{fol}C_{fol} + a_f f_E
$$
\n(14)

where  $C_{fol}, C_{wd}, f_{soil}, f_E$  are the D&B model outputs described in Section [3.3.](#page-15-0) The coefficients  $a_0, a_{wd}, a_s, a_{fol}, a_f$  are empirical constants to be optimized. For Sodankyla the parameters for the empirical observation operator are estimated based on linear regression analysis using a training and testing dataset of varying D&B model outputs and observed slope over the period 2010-2021 (see Table [3\)](#page-17-1). Data was randomly split in 80% training and 20% test data. One important difference between Equations [14](#page-17-2) and [10](#page-15-1) is that the observation operator for ASCAT slope does not require any term to account for temperature effects. Microwave observations, including backscatter, are affected by the dielectric properties, geometry and roughness of the land surface which includes soil, vegetation but also snow. Furthermore, it is reasonable to assume that this sensitivity to snow is particularly relevant when freezing conditions increase the transmissivity of the forest. To avoid any ambiguity, the ASCAT slope data used in the project do not contain any observations acquired that might be affected by frozen soil, or the presence of snow. Therefore the temperature correction is not necessary. The ASCAT slope is obtained by aggregating so-called "local slope" values using an Epanechnikov kernel with a half-width of 14 days (see [Hahn et al.](#page-57-2) [\(2017\)](#page-57-2) for details). Therefore the ASCAT slope value on a given day is influenced by all local slope values, and therefore all land surface states, within this window. To take this into account, the same Epanechnikov kernel is applied to the D&B model outputs. -0.10708, ahf: 0.0369540, abl: 0.00005786, ahs: -0.0005770, abw: 0.0000007

## <span id="page-17-0"></span>4 Assimilation Methodology

The method is based on the joint inversion approach of [Tarantola](#page-61-4) [\(2005\)](#page-61-4) (discussed as Bayesian inversion by [Rayner et al.](#page-60-3) [\(2019\)](#page-60-3)). It estimates the parameter vector from a given set of observations and the available prior information. The a priori state of information is quantified by a probability density function (PDF) in parameter space, the observational information by a PDF in observation space, and the information from the model by a PDF in the joint space, i.e. the Cartesian product of parameter and observation spaces. The inversion combines all three sources of information and yields a posterior PDF in the joint space.

Prior and observational PDFs are difficult to specify. Here we use Gaussian shapes with respective mean values denoted by  $x_0$  and d and respective covariance matrices denoted by B (prior parameter uncertainty) and R (data uncertainty). The data uncertainty is the sum of uncertainties due to

errors in the observational process,  $R_{obs}$  and errors in our ability to correctly model the observations,  $R_{\text{mod}}$ :

<span id="page-18-3"></span>
$$
R = R_{\text{obs}} + R_{\text{mod}} \tag{15}
$$

 $R_{\text{mod}}$  captures all sources of uncertainty that are not explicitly resolved through specification of the parameter vector (parametric uncertainty). Such sources of residual uncertainty include those resulting from uncertainties in driving data, from potential errors in the formulation of the process models (structural uncertainty), and from parameters and initial conditions not included in the parameter vector. For each of the observational data streams, 1-sigma uncertainty ranges were estimated for each observation (Rodríguez-Fernández et al., 2021). The corresponding variances are used to populate the diagonal of  $R_{obs}$ ; the off-diagonal is set to zero. For the model uncertainty,  $R_{\text{mod}}$ , we developed an approach that is described in Section [5.1.](#page-20-0)

By target quantities we understand quantities of particular interest that we simulate with the model. For later use it is convenient to have two separate notations for the model depending on whether we use it to simulate a vector of counterparts of our observations,  $d_{obs}$ , or to simulate a vector of target quantities,  $y$ , from a given parameter vector  $x$ . For simulation of the observation vector we use M and for the simulation of the target vector we use  $N$ , i.e. we have

<span id="page-18-2"></span>
$$
d_{\text{obs}} = M(x) \quad \text{and} \tag{16}
$$

$$
y = N(x) . \t(17)
$$

We approximate the posterior PDF by a Gaussian PDF. The corresponding marginal PDF in parameter space is thus also Gaussian, with mean value x and covariance A. The mean  $x_{\text{opt}}$  is approximated by the maximum likelihood point, i.e. the minimum of the misfit function (or cost function):

<span id="page-18-0"></span>
$$
J(x) = \frac{1}{2} [(M(x) - d)^T R^{-1} (M(x) - d) + (x - x_0)^T B^{-1} (x - x_0)]
$$
\n(18)

We perform the minimisation of  $J$  over a single long assimilation window, to have all observational constraints act simultaneously.

The posterior parameter uncertainty A is approximated by the inverse of the misfit function's Hessian, H, evaluated at the minimum,  $x_{\text{opt}}$ , i.e.:

$$
A \approx H(x_{\rm opt})^{-1} \tag{19}
$$

To compute  $H$  we use the approximation of a linear model (denoted by  $M'$ ), for which differentiating  $J(x)$  (equation [18\)](#page-18-0) twice yields

<span id="page-18-1"></span>
$$
H(x_{\rm opt}) \approx M^{\prime T} R^{-1} M^{\prime} + B^{-1} \quad . \tag{20}
$$

The Hessian is the sum of two terms, one reflecting the strength of the constraint from the prior information, and the other reflecting the observational constraint. Typically adding the observational constraint increases the curvature of the cost function which via equation [20](#page-18-1) translates to a reduction in uncertainty compared to the prior.

From the optimal parameter set we can simulate (see equation [17\)](#page-18-2) a vector target quantities,  $y$ . To assess the strength of the observational constraint on a simulated target quantity, we use  $N^{\prime}$ , the first derivative of  $N$  to propagate the posterior parameter uncertainties forward to the uncertainty in the simulated vector of target quantities,  $C(y)$ :

<span id="page-19-1"></span>
$$
C(y) = N' A N'^T \tag{21}
$$

Evaluating [21](#page-19-1) for the prior uncertainty B instead of the posterior uncertainty A, i.e. for a case without observational constraint, yields a prior uncertainty for the target quantities:

$$
C(y_0) = N' B N'^T \tag{22}
$$

For any component of the target vector we can quantify the added value/impact of the observations by the uncertainty reduction (often also termed knowledge gain) relative to the prior.

$$
\frac{\sigma(y_{i,0}) - \sigma(y_i)}{\sigma(y_{i,0})} = 1 - \frac{\sigma(y_i)}{\sigma(y_{i,0})},\tag{23}
$$

where,  $\sigma(y_i)$  and  $\sigma(y_{i,0})$  respectively denote the 1-sigma uncertainty ranges, the squares of which populate the diagonals of  $C(y)$  and  $C(y_0)$ . For example, if  $\sigma(y_i)$  is 90% of  $\sigma(y_{i,0})$ , then the uncertainty reduction is 10%; i.e. we have increased our knowledge on y by 10%.

## <span id="page-19-0"></span>5 Code Components

The main TCCAS directory comprises the following subdirectories, over which the components of the system are distributed:





The following subsections provide a description of the system's components. We note that some of the settings presented here are relatively ad hoc, we invite the user to play with alternative settings.

### <span id="page-20-0"></span>5.1 Model and Observation Operators

D&B is described in Section [2](#page-6-0) here we focus on the handling of the observations and of the parameters.

The task of an observation operator is to simulate the equivalent of an observation from the model's state variables [\(Kaminski and Mathieu, 2017\)](#page-57-1). This includes the simulation of the variable that is observed (observable) at the time when it was observed and over the footprint of the observations. We have prepared five different EO data streams for assimilation (Figure [3\)](#page-12-0):

- Surface layer soil moisture
- Fraction of Photosynthetically Active Radiation (FAPAR)
- Solar-Induced Fluorescence (SIF)
- L-Band Vegetation Optical Depth (L-VOD)
- Slope of ASCATbackscatter–incidence angle relationship

As described in Section [3,](#page-11-0) the first two of these observables are available in the core of D&B, more specifically within in the model's water balance (Section [2.2\)](#page-8-1) and photosynthesis (Section [2.1\)](#page-8-0) modules. By contrast, to compute the other three variables dedicated observation operators were developed and coupled to the core of D&B (see also Section [3\)](#page-11-0).

### <span id="page-20-1"></span>5.1.1 Simulation on Footprint

The observation operators for all five variables in addition need to simulate the equivalent of an observation on the observational footprint, if known. For the regional simulations, the model is set up to run with meteorological forcing data from ERA5 on a 0.25  $^{\circ} \times$  0.25  $^{\circ}$  regular grid. At site scale, the model can alternatively be run with locally observed meteorological forcing data.

For each grid cell or site, the model is run for all plant functional types (PFTs) that are present in the respective grid cell or site. Model output is provided separately for each PFT included in the simulation. Using this model output we can provide all simulation results at sub-grid scale by using the appropriate PFT mix at that scale. At the local scale (scale of the field observation footprints) the respective PFT fractions are derived from the actual vegetation cover provided by the field data, while at regional scale we use a high-resolution PFT map.



<span id="page-21-0"></span>Figure 4: SMOS footprint (ellipse) along with the primary (left) and secondary (right) PFT over the grid defined by the meteorological driving data, with the location of the LM1 site indicated by a cross.

Matching the footprint of an observation is done by computing the model equivalent of the respective variable based on the PFT distribution present within the observational footprint. This is illustrated in Figure [4.](#page-21-0) It shows a SMOS footprint (ellipse) along with the primary (left) and secondary (right) PFT over the grid defined by the meteorological driving data around the Majadas de Tietar (LM1) site, with the location of the LM1 site indicated by a cross. The PFT map was derived from the landcover specification provided by the Copernicus Global Land Service at 100 m resolution [\(Buchhorn et al., 2019\)](#page-55-3).

If a grid cell is covered by n PFT types with fractions  $f_1$  to  $f_n$  and the observed variable is, for example, a pool size or flux,  $y$ , then the simulated equivalent is

<span id="page-21-1"></span>
$$
y = \sum_{i=1,n} f_i y_i,\tag{24}
$$

where  $y_i$  is the simulation for <code>PFT</code> type  $i.$  <code>Equ. [\(24\)](#page-21-1)</code> is also used for the slope of the <code>ASCAT</code> backscatter–incidence angle relationship, implicitly assuming that the footprint-scale slope is a linear weighted combination of contributions from the individual PFTs.

If the observed variable is VOD, denoted by  $\tau$ , we apply Equ. [\(24\)](#page-21-1) to the transmitted flux

$$
\tau = -\ln\left(\sum_{i=1,n} f_i e^{-\tau_i}\right),\tag{25}
$$

where the fractional cover is

$$
f_c = \sum_{i=1,n} f_i \tag{26}
$$

### <span id="page-22-0"></span>5.1.2 Uncertainty contribution reflecting model error

We also included a simple model of the model uncertainty,  $R_{\text{mod}}$ . The model determines for each of the data streams to be assimilated a model uncertainty component,  $\sigma_{mod}$ , that is specific to that data stream and constant in time:

$$
\sigma_{\text{mod}} = f \cdot \bar{d},\tag{27}
$$

where  $d$  is the average of all observations of that data stream and  $f$  a factor that is specific to that data stream. The factor is the sum of two terms,  $f_{mq}$  and  $f_{fp}$ .  $f_{mq}$  is intended to quantify our capability to simulate the observed variable (with calibrated model parameters). We assign a value of 0.1 to our biophysical models for SIF, FAPAR, and surface layer soil moisture and a value of 0.5 for our empirical models for L-VOD and ASCAT slope. The second term,  $f_{fp}$ , is intended to capture our uncertainty in simulating the observed footprint with correct driving data, including the PFT map. For the simulation at site level with the site-specific driving data we use 0.1 for the optical observations (which have small footprints), 0.5 for the two data streams derived from SMOS (surface layer soil moisture and L-VOD) with its large footprint, and 0.25 for ASCAT with its footprint size in between that of the optical instruments and that of SMOS. We use the square of the respective  $\sigma_{\text{mod}}$  to populate the diagonal of  $R_{\text{mod}}$  and set the off-diagonal to zero. Table [4](#page-22-2) provides the values of  $f_{mq}$  and  $f_{fp}$  we specified for our site-scale experiment that use a single set of meteorological driving data and a single PFT distribution for simulation of all five data streams. These values can be adapted in the file src/obs.f90. In the same file the user can also specify (parameter nhourspin) the length of the spinup period. The spinup period precedes the assimilation window and allows the model to move towards a balanced state, in particular for pools of which the initial states are not included in the parameter vector (soil moisture). The parameter mmax in file src/obs.f90 limits the length of the observation vector.

<span id="page-22-2"></span>Table 4: Values of the individual factors for determining the model uncertainty per observable.

Observable	$f_{mq}$	$f_{fp}$
<b>ASCAT</b> slope	0.5	0.25
SMOS L-VOD	0.5	0.5
SMOS SM	0.1	0.5
<b>SIF</b>	0.1	0.1
<b>FAPAR</b>	0.1	0.1

### <span id="page-22-1"></span>5.1.3 Parameter Vector

The parameter vector,  $x$ , is specified through a set of parameter tables, which reside in subdirectory parameters and include:

- 1. parameter number,
- 2. the name of the variable,

- 3. the PFT it applies to (a value of "-1" indicates that it applies to all PFTs),
- 4. whether the parameter is active, i.e. whether it should be adapted by the optimisation (value of "1") or not (value of "0"), currently this column takes no effect, i.e. all parameters are active,
- 5. the prior value,
- 6. the 1-sigma range corresponding to its prior uncertainty,
- 7. its minimum reasonable value,
- 8. its maximum reasonable value,
- 9. whether these minimum (value of "1"), maximum (value of "3"), or both (value of "2") values should be used as bounds or not (value of "0"),
- 10. the process the parameter belongs to,
- 11. a description of the parameter's role

As examples, Table [5](#page-24-0) shows the parameters of the core model for the Sodankylä site (file parameters/FI-Sod-core-params.csv) and Table [6](#page-25-0) for Majadas de Tietar (file parameters/ES-LM1-core-params.csv). We note that there are four parameters that have no effect on the simulation. These are the DALEC parameters 2 and 11 for both PFTs, i.e. parameters 6, 15, 23, 32, which relate to autotrophic respiration and photosynthesis, two processes now modelled outside the carbon balance component. They will be removed from the parameter list. Parameters for the observation operators for L-VOD, SIF, and ASCAT slope are specified in sepa-rate files, to keep the system modular. These are shown in Table [7](#page-25-1) (ES-LM1-lvod-params.csv), Table [8](#page-26-0) (ES-LM1-slope-params.csv), and Table [9](#page-26-1) (ES-LM1-sif-params.csv). The role of the individual parameters is described in Section [2.](#page-6-0)

### <span id="page-23-0"></span>5.1.4 Model output

The output of a model run is stored in two NetCDF files, which are placed in subdirectory diagout and with names like

- diagout/dalec-bethy daily-output 20150101-20211231.nc
- diagout/dalec-bethy hourly-output 20150101-20211231.nc

The first one contains daily averages of several variables while the second file contains variables which are written at the hourly time step of the model. Both file names include start and end dates of the simulation. The output variables include carbon and water pools and fluxes and the five observational data streams. They are provided for the combined space-pft dimension nsp, which counts all active PFT over all grid cells. During the development phase, we were rather generous in the selection of output variables needed for various tests.

The Fortran code of D&B and its observation operators is distributed over a number of Fortran subroutines provided in subdirectory src and a main program provided in subdirectory driver.

## <span id="page-24-0"></span>Table 5: Core model parameters for Sodankylä.



Ħ <b><i><u>Mamame</u></i></b>	PFT active prior		siama	min	max	nbound process	description (don't use commas!)
1 <sub>l</sub> vmax		0.000041	0.0000082	0.00001	0.00008	2 photosynthesis	maximum carboxylation rate at ref. Temperature [mol(CO2) / m^2 s]
2 <sub>l</sub> vmax	91	0.000042	0.0000084	0.00001	0.00008	2 photosynthesis	maximum carboxylation rate at ref. Temperature [mol(CO2) / m^2 s]
3 root depth scale	$-11$			0.2 0.		soilwater	"root depth scale"
4 soil theta scale	$-11$		$\overline{0.2}$ lo			soilwater	'soil theta scale'
<b>5DALEC P1</b>			0.0003038811 0.00006077622	0.00001	0.012		cbalance+pheno fractional turnover rate of litter to soil organic matter at 0oC
<b>6DALEC P2</b>		0.4016085	0.0803217	0.2	0.82		cbalance+pheno fraction of gross primary productivity allocated to autotrophic respiration
7DALEC <sub>P3</sub>		0.04980515	0.00996103	0.01	$\overline{0.5}$		cbalance+pheno fraction of gpp-ra allocated to leaves
8DALEC <sub>P4</sub>		0.3553572	0.07107144	0.1	0.82		cbalance+pheno fraction of gpp-ra-alloc_fol-alloc_lab allocated to fine roots
9DALEC <sub>P5</sub>		1.104317	0.2208634	1.001	82		cbalance+pheno maximum leaf lifespan
10 DALEC P6			$0.00006646695$ $0.00001329339$	0.000009	$0.001$ <sub>2</sub>		cbalance+pheno fractional daily turnover of the wood pool
11 DALEC P7		0.005876034		0.0011752068 0.001368925	0.022		cbalance+pheno fractional daily turnover of the fine root pool
12 DALEC P8		0.006875432	0.0013750864	0.0001141	0.022		cbalance+pheno fractional daily turnover of the litter pool to heterotrophic respiration
13 DALEC P9			0.00002478762 0.000004957524	1.37E-06	9.13E-052		cbalance+pheno [fractional daily turnover of the soil organic matter pool to heterotrophic respiration
14 DALEC P10		0.05102073	0.010204146	0.019	0.082		cbalance+pheno coefficient for exponential temperature sensitivity for litter decomposition and litter and som turnover to heterotrophic respiration
15 DALEC P11		22.29913	4.459826	1.64	422		cbalance+pheno Canopy photosynthetic efficiency parameter
16 DALEC P12		74.3057	14.86114	$\overline{10}$	3502		cbalance+pheno Day of year for maximum labile turnover to foliage (i.e. bud burst)
17 DALEC P13		0.2200071	0.04400142	0.01	0.52		cbalance+pheno [fraction of gpp-ra-alloc_fol allocated to labile pool (which supports seasonal leaf growth)
18 DALEC P14		74.18161	14.836322	10	1002		chalance+pheno Number of days over which labile turnover to leaves occurs
19 DALEC P15		157,3799	31.47598	10	350 <sub>2</sub>		cbalance+pheno Day of year for maximum leaf turnover to litter (i.e. leaf senesence)
20 DALEC P16		54.62658	10.925316	$\overline{20}$	150		cbalance+pheno Number of days over which leaf turnover to litter occurs
21 DALEC P17		67.66937	13.533874	$\overline{20}$	1802		cbalance+pheno Leaf carbon per unit leaf area
22 DALEC P1	豇	0.002584829	0.0005169658	0.00001	0.012		cbalance+pheno fractional turnover rate of litter to soil organic matter at 0oC
23 DALEC P2	91	0.5392843	0.10785686	0.2	0.82		cbalance+pheno fraction of gross primary productivity allocated to autotrophic respiration
24 DALEC P3	91	0.3613487	0.07226974	0.01	$\overline{0.5}$		cbalance+pheno fraction of gpp-ra allocated to leaves
25 DALEC P4	豇	0.7058508	0.14117016	0.1	$0.8$ 2		cbalance+pheno fraction of gpp-ra-alloc_fol-alloc_lab allocated to fine roots
26 DALEC P5	91	1.008241	0.2016482	1.001	82		cbalance+pheno maximum leaf lifespan
27 DALEC P6	豇		0.0007320861 0.00014641722	0.000009	$0.001$ <sub>2</sub>		cbalance+pheno fractional daily turnover of the wood pool
28 DALEC P7	91	0.008705515		0.001741103 0.001368925	0.022		cbalance+pheno fractional daily turnover of the fine root pool
29 DALEC P8	91		0.0005506519 0.00011013038	0.0001141	0.022		chalance+pheno fractional daily turnover of the litter pool to heterotrophic respiration
30 DALEC P9	91		0.00003957299 0.000007914598	1.37E-06	9.13E-052		cbalance+pheno fractional daily turnover of the soil organic matter pool to heterotrophic respiration
31 DALEC P10	91	0.03424815	0.00684963	0.019	0.082		cbalance+pheno coefficient for exponential temperature sensitivity for litter decomposition and litter and som tumover to heterotrophic respiration
32 DALEC P11	91	14.25688	2.851376	1.64	422		cbalance+pheno Canopy photosynthetic efficiency parameter
33 DALEC P12	91	77.34133	15.468266	10	3502		cbalance+pheno Day of year for maximum labile turnover to foliage (i.e. bud burst)
34 DALEC P13	91	0.4192669	0.08385338	0.01	$0.5$ <sub>2</sub>		chalance+pheno fraction of gpp-ra-alloc fol allocated to labile pool (which supports seasonal leaf growth)
35 DALEC P14	91	28.08799	5.617598	10	1002		
36 DALEC P15	91	121.9728	24.39456	10	350 <sub>2</sub>		cbalance+pheno Number of days over which labile turnover to leaves occurs cbalance+pheno Day of year for maximum leaf turnover to litter (i.e. leaf senesence)
37 DALEC P16	91	65.04758	13.009516	20	1502		
	91				1802		cbalance+pheno Number of days over which leaf turnover to litter occurs
38 DALEC P17 39 DALEC IC P18		46.94364 34.5735	9.388728 6.9147	$\overline{20}$	20002		cbalance+pheno Leaf carbon per unit leaf area
40 DALEC IC P19		36.33911	7.267822		20002		cbalance+pheno linitial size of the labile pool
							cbalance+pheno   Initial size of the foliage pool
41 DALEC IC P20		34.91805	6.98361		20002		cbalance+pheno Initial size of the fine root pool
42 DALEC IC P21		6737.396	1347.4792		30000 2		cbalance+pheno linitial size of the wood pool
43 DALEC IC P22		12.89959	2.579918		20002		cbalance+pheno   Initial size of the litter pool (NOTE: this is for foliage and fine root only)
44 DALEC IC P23	n	11818.84	2363.768	200	2500002		cbalance+pheno  Initial size of the soil organic matter pool (NOTE: this is the soil plus wood litter)
45 DALEC IC P18	豇	60.98822	12.197644		20002		cbalance+pheno   Initial size of the labile pool
46 DALEC IC P19	91	24.8358	4.96716		20002		cbalance+pheno   Initial size of the foliage pool
47 DALEC IC P20	亦	10.63674	2.127348		20002		cbalance+pheno Initial size of the fine root pool
48 DALEC IC P21	91	89.56923	17.913846		30000 2		cbalance+pheno linitial size of the wood pool
49 DALEC IC P22	91	16.35128	3.270256		20002		cbalance+pheno   Initial size of the litter pool (NOTE: this is for foliage and fine root only)
<b>EQIDALECTO D23</b>	olf	15460.60	3003 038	200	asomnia		chalance inhano. Initial size of the soil organic matter pool (NOTE: this is the soil plus wood litter).

<span id="page-25-0"></span>Table 6: Core model parameters for Majadas de Tietar.

<span id="page-25-1"></span>Table 7: Parameters of L-VOD observation operator.

# varname PFT active		prior				sigma min max nbound process description (don't use commas!)
1 <sub>cbw</sub>	-1 1	0.0002	$0.0001$ $0.$			1 Ivodemp multiplier of woody carbon pool
$2$ <sub>chs</sub>	-1 1	1.2	0.6	10		1 Ivodemp multiplier of slowly changing wetting status
$3$ <sub>cbl</sub>	$-1 1$	0.0002	$0.0001$ $0.$			1 Ivodemp multiplier of leaf carbon pool
$4$ chf	-1 1			100		1  Ivodemp   multiplier of rapidly changing wetting status
5 <sub>CD</sub>	$-1 1$	0.4	0.2		1 Ivodemp offset	



<span id="page-26-0"></span>Table 8: Parameters of ASCAT slope observation operator.

<span id="page-26-1"></span>Table 9: Parameters of SIF observation operator.



### <span id="page-27-0"></span>5.2 Minimisation algorithm

The minimisation of Equ. [\(18\)](#page-18-0) uses a numerical library routine [\(Zhu et al., 1997\)](#page-63-2) that efficiently searches the parameter space and relies on the capability to evaluate  $J$  and its gradient for any given parameter vector. This library is written in Fortran and resides in subdirectory mini. The algorithm can be further guided by restricting the parameter space through specification of upper and lower bounds for each parameter, see Section [5.1.](#page-20-0)

### <span id="page-27-1"></span>5.3 Derivative code

The code for evaluation of the gradient of  $J$  is provided by a procedure called automatic differentia-tion (AD [Griewank, 1989\)](#page-56-1) from the code for evaluation of  $J$ . In essence, the code that evaluates  $J$ is decomposed into elementary functions (such as  $+,-,\sin(\cdot)$ ), for which the derivative (local Jacobian) is straightforward to derive. The derivative of the composite function is then constructed via the chain rule as the product of all local Jacobians. According to the associative law, this multiple matrix product can be evaluated in arbitrary order without changing the result. The tangent linear code (or just *tangent* code) does this evaluation in the same order as the function is evaluated, which is called forward mode of AD. The *adjoint* code uses exactly the opposite order, which is called reverse mode of AD. Even though both modes yield the same derivative, depending on the dimensions of the function to be differentiated, there may be large differences in their computational efficiency: The CPU time required by tangent code is proportional to the number of the function's input variables (in our case the dimension of the parameter space) but independent of the number of output variables. By contrast, the CPU time required by the adjoint code is proportional to the number of output variables and independent of the number of input variables. Being an application of the chain rule, AD provides derivatives that are accurate up to rounding error. Tangent and adjoint versions of D&B and of the observation operators were generated by the automatic differentiation tool TAPE-NADE (Hascoët and Pascual, 2013) in Fortran. They are provided in files  $src/cost_t1.f90$  and src/cost ad.f90, respectively. The derivative code is modular. Each derivative routine belongs to a specific routine in D&B including its observation operators. Subdirectory adstack provides code for a library that arranges storing of intermediate values required for execution of the adjoint.

## <span id="page-28-0"></span>5.4 Preprocessing

A number of preprocessing steps are performed by python scripts, because they are easier to implement in python than in Fortran and computational speed is not critical for these steps.

They are:

- preparation of driving data
- configuration of model setup
- preparation of observational data

In the following we briefly describe each of these tasks.

As outlined in the D&B model description Section [2](#page-6-0) running the model requires surface temperature, incoming solar short-wave radiation, incoming long-wave radiation, precipitation, and soil temperature as time-dependent meteorological forcing data as well as some static fields (PFT map, soil texture class, soil depth, soil hyraulic shape parameter, and soil brightness class). These input data must be provided in NetCDF format where the names of the datasets and the spatio-temporal structure must follow the conventions shown in Section [D](#page-101-0) (static forcing) and Section [E](#page-103-0) (dynamic forcing). In particular, for the dynamic forcing the temporal information must be provided as calendar variable yyyymmddhh so that the model can access temporal information straight away which is favourable in terms of computational efficiency. Complete forcing data for site-level simulations at two study sites (Sodankylä and the Majadas del Tietar) as well as static forcing for regional simulations are provided in subdirectory forcing of the TCCAS package:

```
ES-LM1_dynforcing-era5_20090101-20211231_with-lwdown.nc
ES-LM1_dynforcing-insitu_20140401-20220930_with-insitu-lwdown.nc
ES-LM1_staticforcing.nc
FI-Sod_dynforcing-era5_20090101-20211231_with-lwdown.nc
FI-Sod_dynforcing-insitu_20090101-20211231_with-insitu-lwdown.nc
FI-Sod_staticforcing.nc
majadas-region_cgls-pft-moli2bare_staticforcing.nc
majadas-region_staticforcing.nc
sodankyla-region_cgls-pft-crops-redistributed_staticforcing.nc
sodankyla-region_staticforcing.nc
```
At site-level a user may switch between meteorological forcing data extracted from ERA5 or extracted from in-situ data collected within the LCC study. For both study regions all model forcing data including ERA5 derived meteorological forcing for regional simulations is also available in the LCC model data base (Finnish region: https://lcc.inversion-lab.com/do/view/LCCWeb/Sodankyla, Iberian region: https://lcc.inversion-lab.com/do/view/LCCWeb/Majadas).

The D&B model is designed to run on different spatial scales and on temporal periods selected by the user, which means that the spatio-temporal dimensions are in principle known only at runtime. The respective configuration is performed in a pre-processing step by the python script util/model setup.py, which generates the (Fortran) module file dimensions.f90. Its arguments can be listed with the command:

util/model\_setup.py dimensions\_setup -h

The static forcing file for the simulation is mandatory input to this script; and the first and last day of the simulation period must also be provided to the script but are preset to default values of 20150101 and 20201231 respectively. Optionally the user may specify whether D&B shall be run in time with the standard Gregorian calendar or with fixed 365 days per year. Note that the user needs to ensure that the meteorological forcing data for the simulation covers the selected temporal range. Internally the script uses a template (Section [F\)](#page-104-0), into which the case-dependent dimensions are then inserted according to the user input.

The TCCAS package contains EO data files with observations covering the location of the two study sites and the following data streams:

- TROPOMI SIF at 743nm wavelength
- SMOS-L2 L-VOD
- SMOS-L2 soil moisture
- ASCAT slope
- FAPAR derived from JRC-TIP

All data files are in ASCII format and reside in the subdirectory observations. They are suitable as input for data assimilation experiments and allow easy and fast reading into the Fortran system using the fixed format '(i10,2e16.8,2(i16,e16.8))' while the first line denotes the 7 columns:

- (1) index of hour of observation in the D&B time loop
- (2) observational data
- (3) observational data uncertainty
- (4) integer number of first PFT
- (5) fraction of first PFT
- (6) integer number of second PFT
- (7) fraction of second PFT

An exemplary extract of such a data file is shown in Section [G.](#page-105-0) For each combination of site and data stream the actual observed value and its uncertainty have been extracted from the regional EO data files in the data base produced by the LCC study, taking into account only the footprint around the site with centre closest to the site for each particular point in time. For all data streams filtering as recommended by the EO team of the LCC study has been applied (Rodríguez-Fernández [et al., 2021\)](#page-60-4). The index of the hour of observation in column 1 is suitable for data assimilation experiments with a simulation starting on Januray 1, 2015.

# <span id="page-30-0"></span>6 Controlling TCCAS

The operation of the system is controlled via a Makefile and two Fortran namelist files, obs.nml and opt.nml. While the first specifies the observational configuration and the formulation used for the SIF source (Section [3.2\)](#page-11-2), the latter allows to perturb the prior parameter vector, a feature that we use for assimilation of synthetic observations (see Section [9.3.](#page-34-0) The file mk. compile contains settings that are specific to the user's computing platform and is included by the main Makefile. Subdirectory mk.compile contains a template for such an include file.

# <span id="page-30-1"></span>7 TCCAS Output

The essential output of a minimisation is the posterior parameter vector. It is used as input to a subsequent run of D&B, which produces from the posterior parameter vector the regular set of D&B outputs.

## <span id="page-30-2"></span>8 Repository and Installation

### <span id="page-30-3"></span>8.1 Requirements

For the operation of the model on a given computing platform a basic environment of standard software needs to be available:

- Operating system: A Unix-type environment, including the standard utilities 'make' and 'git'
- Fortran compiler: The kernel of the model is implemented in Fortran, and was tested with the gfortran compiler (versions 9.3.1, 13.2.1), which is available under the GNU license and usually provided by default by every Linux distribution. The model kernel was also tested with the Intel<sup>®</sup> oneAPI Fortran compiler (versions 2021.7.0, 2021.10.0, 2021.11.1).
- Python: The preprocessor of the model and a basic postprocessing environment are implemented in python. Development and testing was performed with python version 3.6.15, and have subsequently also tested with python version 3.11.8. In addition to libraries already provided by a standard python installation the pre- and postprocessing software requires further libraries, all of which are freely available:
	- netcdf4-python (https://github.com/Unidata/netcdf4-python)
	- numpy (https://numpy.org)
	- xarray (https://xarray.dev)
	- pandas (https://pandas.pydata.org)
	- pyproj (https://github.com/pyproj4/pyproj)
	- matplotlib (https://matplotlib.org)

– cartopy (https://scitools.org.uk/cartopy/docs/latest)

• NetCDF: The I/O of the model core makes use of the NetCDF library (https://www.unidata.ucar.edu/downloads/netcdf/index.jsp). It was developed with NetCDF-C version 4.7.4 and NetCDF-Fortran versions 4.5.2. and 4.6.1. (Note that, since major version number 4, the NetCDF library in turn requires the HDF5 library to be installed on the system.)

## <span id="page-31-0"></span>8.2 Repository

The TCCAS code is hosted by the GitLab repository server of the GWDG, which is the computing and IT competence centre for the Max Planck Society and the university computing centre for the Georg-August-Universität Göttingen.

## <span id="page-31-1"></span>8.3 Installation

The system code can be cloned from the GitLab repository server, which is typically achieved by the command below:

git clone git@gitlab.gwdg.de:tccas-team/TCCAS.git [TARGETDIR]

Specifying a (local) target directory is optional, by default a directory TCCAS will be created on your disk. The GWDG GitLab system alternatively offers cloning via http

https://gitlab.gwdg.de/tccas-team/TCCAS.git

or the download as an archive (tar or zip format). The system does not require any installation, but compiling and running the system requires an initial adaptation to the new platform, described in the steps outlined below.

- 1. Change to the generated directory: cd TCCAS
- 2. A file mk.compile with the user and platform specific compiler and library settings must be created first. The package contains the file  $\text{config/mk}$ .compile-gfortran as an example. Since gfortran is generally available on any Linux distribution activating this template should be a good starting point which can be done using the command

ln -fs config/mk.compile-gfortran mk.compile.

This template file makes use of the nf-config utility shipped with the NetCDF Fortran library to determine the settings for compilation and linking. However, since the NetCDF Fortran library is not a standard package in many Linux distributions it might be necessary to adapt the macro NFCONFIG in this file. When <NETCDF-FORTRAN-INSTALLDIR> points to the toplevel directory of a custom NetCDF Fortran library installation, setting

NFCONFIG = <NETCDF-FORTRAN-INSTALLDIR>/bin/nf-config

should normally be the proper workaround. To also assure that the library is being found at run-time the options for the linker which are defined with macro LDFLAGS in the template likely need to be extended as well in this case. This should usually be achieved by adding the flag -Wl,-rpath=<NETCDF-FORTRAN-INSTALLDIR>/lib64.

- 3. Check that the model driver can be built successfully. The command make runmodel.x must have generated an executable file runmodel.x in the current work directory.
- 4. If the model driver was built successfully the system is prepared to run test experiments as described in Section [9.](#page-32-0)

## <span id="page-32-0"></span>9 Preconfigured Examples

This section explains how to run the system. We focus on the demonstration of the technical functionality and deliberately refrain from a scientific discussion of the exemplary results shown. We also note that we may refine several details in the configuration of the experiments, for example the prior uncertainty ranges or the input to the calculation of model uncertainty. As a consequence, the preliminary results and outputs presented here are likely to change as the model develops.

### <span id="page-32-1"></span>9.1 Makefile

The Makefile provides initial guidance on the main things to do with the system. After success-full installation (Section [8.3\)](#page-31-1) running make from the command line will list the targets for some preconfigured examples and give an output similar to the one listed below.

```
==================================================
List of Makefile targets:
Execution targets:
 make xmodel : Perform model forward run and generate model output.
 make xcost : Perform model forward run and evaluate cost function.
 make xassi \qquad \qquad : Perform assimilation experiment.
Miscellaneous targets:
 make clean : remove many reconstructable files (e.g. object files,...)
 make scratch : remove (hopefully) all reconstructable files
 To indicate the site you want to run at, use the macro DOMAIN (default: ES-LM1),
 e.g. to run at Sodankyla site the commandline would be make xmodel DOMAIN=FI-Sod
 Before switching to another domain use 'make scratch' to delete the previous configuration.
```
==

## <span id="page-32-2"></span>9.2 A forward run

We first perform a forward run at  $ES-LM1$ , using the following settings in the namelist file obs.nml that controls the observational configuration and selects the SIF source model and the spectral conversion factor (see Section [3.2\)](#page-11-2):

```
&obs
asssif=.true.
asslvod=.true.
asssm=.true.
assslope=.false.
assfapar=.true.
synthetic=.true.
sifsrc='gu '
conv743=360.528344
/
```
With these settings the forward run produces synthetic observations of four data streams, at all points in time where there are real observations. At this point, the value of the variable synthetic has no effect. The observation operator for SIF uses the source term according to [Gu et al.](#page-56-0) [\(2019\)](#page-56-0), see [3.2.1.](#page-13-0)

We now execute the command:

make scratch xmodel DOMAIN=ES-LM1

where the scratch target makes sure that the configuration previously used is removed and the target xmodel produces the following output:

```
Reading observational configuration from obs.nml
&OBS
ASSSIF=T,
ASSLVOD=T,
ASSSM=T,
ASSSLOPE=F,
ASSFAPAR=T,
SYNTHETIC=T,
SIFSRC="gu ",
CONV743= 360.528344000000000 ,
 /
nmaxobssif, nmaxobsfapar, nmaxobssm, nmaxobslvod = 4835057 65998427 1858085 2284136
nobssif, nobsfapar, nobssm, nobslvod = 726 179 1397 1327
spinup period [hours]: 17520
reading input/obssif.dat
observational records read : 726
 #obs : 726
 average relative obs. uncertainty [%] : 51.413
average relative total data uncertainty [%] : 55.227
reading input/obslvod.dat
observational records read : 1327
 #obs : 1327
 average relative obs. uncertainty [%] : 14.611
average relative total data uncertainty [%] : 101.318
reading input/obssm.dat
observational records read : 1397
 #obs : 1397
average relative obs. uncertainty [%] : 10.068
average relative total data uncertainty [%] : 61.299
```


The system reports how many data points it reads in for each data stream, and what the average relative observational uncertainty  $R_{obs}$  (Equ. [\(15\)](#page-18-3)) is for each data stream. It further shows the average total data uncertainty  $R$  for each data stream, which also takes into account the model uncertainty  $R_{\text{mod}}$  that is derived as described in Section [5.1.](#page-20-0)

The system has also stored a vector of synthetic observations in binary format in the file obs.b that it placed in the main directory. Section [9.3](#page-34-0) demonstrates its use in the assimilation system. In subdirectory diagout it has produced the files with output of daily and hourly variables (Section [5.1.4\)](#page-23-0).

## <span id="page-34-0"></span>9.3 Assimilation of Synthetic Observations

The forward run described in Section [9.2](#page-32-2) has written the file obs.b, which contains synthetic observations that have been generated from prior parameter values. Our task now is to recover this prior parameter vector from the synthetic observations. The assimilation starts from a first guess of the parameter vector. It then iteratively varies that parameter vector to minimise the misfit to the synthetic data. As first guess we add a perturbation of 1 sigma to each of the parameters. We specify this through the variable pert in the namelist file opt.nml:

```
&config
! comment
pert = 10.e-1! pert = 0
itmax = 1000/
```
itmax specifies the maximum number of iterations allowed. To run the assimilation we execute the command:

make xassi DOMAIN=ES-LM1

...

where the clean target removes object files produced from the previous run and the target xassi produces the following output:

```
&CONFIG
PERT= 1.0000000000000000
ITMAX=1000 ,
IFIX = 56*0/
RUNNING THE L-BFGS-B CODE
         * * *
Machine precision = 2.220D-16
N = 56 M = 30
The initial X is infeasible. Restart with its projection.
At X0 2 variables are exactly at the bounds
At iterate 0 f= 1.91172D+05 |proj g|= 3.79344D+05
At iterate 1 f= 2.29009D+02 |proj g|= 2.58887D+03
At iterate 2 f= 2.20137D+02 |proj g|= 5.95963D+01
...
At iterate 110 f= 7.62935D-05 |proj g|= 9.10235D-02
At iterate 111 f= 7.21773D-05 |proj g|= 3.01991D-01
At iterate 112 f= 7.09811D-05 |proj g|= 2.75662D-02
         * * *
Tit = total number of iterations
Tnf = total number of function evaluations
Tnint = total number of segments explored during Cauchy searches
Skip = number of BFGS updates skipped
Nact = number of active bounds at final generalized Cauchy point
Projg = norm of the final projected gradient
F = final function value
         * * *
  N Tit Tnf Tnint Skip Nact Projg F
  56 112 125 137 0 0 2.757D-02 7.098D-05
 F = 7.0981056958280706E-005
...
```
We have omitted the top lines, because they are identical to those from the model run described
in Section [9.2,](#page-32-0) and also the summary output of iterations 3 to 109. In essence we see that the value of the cost function was reduced by about 9 orders of magnitude and that of its gradient (projected into the parameter domain inside the bounds) by about 7.

Finally it also returns the final parameter set that it identified as the cost function function minimum in binary (xopt.b) and ascii formats:





The order of the parameters is:

- D&B core parameters
- L-VOD observation operator parameters (included if asslvod=.true.)
- ASCAT slope observation operator parameters (included if assslope=.true.)
- SIF observation operator parameters (included if asssif=.true.)

Here we run with L-VOD and SIF observation operators. In the above list, parameters 1-50 belong to the core model, parameters 51-55 to the L-VOD observation operator, and parameter 56 to the SIF observation operator.

We see that the experiment was successful in that the final parameter value differs from the true minimum  $(x_0)$  by less than 0.01  $\sigma$  for each parameter (last column). We note that the exact path of the iterative minimisation procedure through parameter space is impacted by the interplay of the algorithm's branches with the program's rounding properties, so it will depend on the selected platform, compiler, and compiler flags

### 9.4 Assimilation of Real Observations

### <span id="page-37-0"></span>9.4.1 Assimilation of multiple data streams

The next example demonstrates the assimilation with real rather than synthetic observations. For this experiment, we would like to start with the best possible first guess of the parameter vector, which is the prior. So, our opt.nml needs to specify a perturbation of 0. Further, in our opt.nml we need to deactivate the use of synthetic observations.

To run the corresponding assimilation experiment we execute the command:

make xassi DOMAIN=ES-LM1

This produces the following output:

```
Reading observational configuration from obs.nml
&OBS
ASSSIF=T,
ASSLVOD=T,
ASSSM=T,
ASSSLOPE=F,
ASSFAPAR=T,
SYNTHETIC=F,
SIFSRC="gu ",
CONV743= 360.52834400000000 ,
/
...
Reading test configuration from opt.nml
&CONFIG
PERT= 0.0000000000000000
ITMAX=1000 ,
IFIX= 56*0 ,
/
RUNNING THE L-BFGS-B CODE
         * * *
Machine precision = 2.220D-16
N = 56 M = 30
At X0 0 variables are exactly at the bounds
At iterate 0 f= 2.26054D+03 |proj g|= 1.40691D+04
At iterate 1 f= 1.60956D+03 |proj g|= 1.59998D+02
At iterate 2 f= 1.57185D+03 |proj g|= 9.69965D+02
...
At iterate 49 f= 1.28424D+03 |proj g|= 6.14503D+01
At iterate 50 f= 1.28423D+03 |proj g|= 6.07353D+01
At iterate 51 f= 1.28423D+03 |proj g|= 6.07191D+01
         * * *
Tit = total number of iterations
Tnf = total number of function evaluations
Tnint = total number of segments explored during Cauchy searches
Skip = number of BFGS updates skipped
Nact = number of active bounds at final generalized Cauchy point
Projg = norm of the final projected gradient
F = final function value
```
\* \* \*

N Tit Tnf Tnint Skip Nact Projg F 56 51 116 62 0 0 6.072D+01 1.284D+03  $F = 1284.2343168190544$ 

...

Again, we have omitted the top lines, because they are identical to those from the model run described in Section [9.2,](#page-32-0) and also the summary output of iterations 3 to 48. The value of the cost function is reduced by about a factor of two and that of its gradient by about a factor of about 200 in 51 iterations with 116 model runs.

The changes of the D&B core parameters (number 1 to 50) are generally moderate. Only parameter 36, which indicates the day of leaf senescence for the grass PFT, experiences a somewhat stronger change of  $\sim$  -28%:





Before further discussion of parameter changes, we perform a forward run from the posterior parameter vector in order to analyse the changes in simulated variables. We do this by

- 1. copying the posterior vector xopt.b to the file x.b that, if present, the model uses to overwrite the prior parameter settings and
- 2. executing the command:

```
make clean xmodel DOMAIN=ES-LM1
```
Figure [5](#page-41-0) shows prior (red) and posterior (blue) model results and observations (green) at Majadas de Tietar for the four EO data streams that were assimilated. The fit to SIF has very much improved through adjustment of a single scaling factor (parameter 61) which has been increased by a factor of 11.2. Changes to FAPAR and surface layer soil moisture were due to changes in the D&B core parameters: FAPAR was improved by reducing the amplitude of the seasonal cycle. Changes to surface layer soil moisture were small, the RMSE improved by  $\sim 10\%$ . Changes for two of the parameters of the observation operator for L-VOD (numbers 51 and 55) are larger than that of core model parameter 36 in absolute terms, but smaller when quantified as a fraction of the prior uncertainty. This is because we assigned a higher relative prior uncertainty to them. With the posterior parameter values (of the core model and the L-VOD observation operator) the fit is strongly improved.

Figure [5](#page-41-0) shows prior (red) and posterior (blue) model runs and observations (green) at Majadas de Tietar for three independent data streams: NEE and GPP and ASCAT slope. We note that the NEE data set is based on eddy covariance observations, while the GPP data set is derived from



<span id="page-41-0"></span>Figure 5: Prior (red) and posterior (blue) model runs and observations (green) at Majadas de Tietar for the four EO data streams that were assimilated: SIF (top left), FAPAR (top right), soil moisture (bottom left), L-VOD (bottom right).

these NEE observations. The fit to NEE is considerably improved through the assimilation. We note, however, that there are parameters affecting heterotrophic respiration (e.g. the initial sizes of the soil organic matter pools), which are not constrained by the data streams we assimilated. The match to GPP is also considerably improved. By contrast, the model has difficulty matching the seasonal cycle of the ASCAT slope data set. We note that the observation operator for that data set is still very experimental.



Figure 6: Prior (red) and posterior (blue) model runs and observations (green) at Majadas de Tietar for NEE observations (left) and derived GPP (right) and ASCAT slope (bottom) .

### 9.4.2 Changing the observation operator for SIF

Now we repeat the same experiment, but use a different model for the SIF leaf level source and change to the spectral conversion factor for oak. We do this by specifying sifsrc='vdt' instead of sifsrc='gu ' and conv743=139.71531 instead of conv743=360.528344 in the namelist file obs.nml:

```
kobs
asssif=.true.
asslvod=.true.
asssm=.true.
assslope=.false.
assfapar=.true.
synthetic=.false.
sifsrc='vdt'
conv743=139.71531
/
```
Executing the command:

make xassi DOMAIN=ES-LM1

produces the following output:

```
Reading observational configuration from obs.nml
&OBS
ASSSIF=T,
ASSLVOD=T,
ASSSM=T,
ASSSLOPE=F,
ASSFAPAR=T,
SYNTHETIC=F,
SIFSRC="vdt",
CONV743= 139.715309999999999 ,
/
...
At X0 0 variables are exactly at the bounds
At iterate 0 f= 1.98709D+03 |proj g|= 1.47163D+05
At iterate 1 f= 1.70113D+03 |proj g|= 1.60850D+02
At iterate 2 f= 1.69286D+03 |proj g|= 2.21646D+03
...
At iterate 18 f= 1.53120D+03 |proj g|= 3.98454D+02
At iterate 19 f= 1.53119D+03 |proj g|= 3.28830D+02
```
At iterate 20 f= 1.53119D+03 |proj g|= 1.05321D+02 \* \* \* Tit = total number of iterations Tnf = total number of function evaluations Tnint = total number of segments explored during Cauchy searches Skip = number of BFGS updates skipped Nact = number of active bounds at final generalized Cauchy point Projg = norm of the final projected gradient F = final function value \* \* \* N Tit Tnf Tnint Skip Nact Projg F 56 20 29 36 0 0 1.053D+02 1.531D+03  $F = 1531.1890311474717$ CONVERGENCE: REL\_REDUCTION\_OF\_F\_<=\_FACTR\*EPSMCH Cauchy time 2.180E-04 seconds. Subspace minimization time 3.420E-04 seconds. Line search time 6.433E+01 seconds. Total User time 6.678E+01 seconds. i Prior Posterior Chg [% of x0] Chg [% of sx0] 1 0.410000E-04 0.407435E-04 -0.62560 -3.12799 2 0.420000E-04 0.416211E-04 -0.90210 -4.51050 3 0.100000E+01 0.100874E+01 0.87373 4.36863





writing prior uncertainty to sx.b

Here we left out the bits that are identical to the previous experiment and the summary output of iterations 3 to 17. The most remarkable difference to the previous experiment that used the [Gu et al.](#page-56-0) [\(2019\)](#page-56-0) formulation for the SIF source term is in the posterior value of the scaling factor (parameter 56). While it was 11.2 for the [Gu et al.](#page-56-0) [\(2019\)](#page-56-0) formulation with the spectral conversion factor for pine, it is now 0.539 for the [Van der Tol et al.](#page-62-0) [\(2014\)](#page-62-0) formulation and the spectral conversion factor for oak. Some other posterior parameter values changed as well with the formulation of the of the SIF source term and the spectral conversion factor. Overall the formulation of [Gu et al.](#page-56-0) [\(2019\)](#page-56-0) achieved a lower value of the final cost function than the one by [Van der Tol et al.](#page-62-0) [\(2014\)](#page-62-0). The fit to the observations that were assimilated (Figure [7\)](#page-46-0) is still much better than for the prior:

Regarding the fit to observations used for validation (Figure [8\)](#page-47-0), it has remained similar for NEP, was improved for GPP, and was degraded for ASCAT slope.



<span id="page-46-0"></span>Figure 7: Prior (red) and posterior (blue) model runs and observations (green) at Majadas de Tietar the four EO data streams that were assimilated: SIF (top left), FAPAR (top right), soil moisture (bottom left), L-VOD (bottom right), using the [van der Tol et al.](#page-62-1) [\(2014\)](#page-62-1) formulation for the SIF source and the spectral conversion for oak.



<span id="page-47-0"></span>Figure 8: Prior (red) and posterior (blue) model runs and observations (green) at Majadas de Tietar for NEE observations (left) and derived GPP (right) and ASCAT slope (bottom) .

## 9.4.3 Changing the site

Now we conduct the same experiment at Sodankylä. We use the same settings in the namelist files opt.nml and obs.nml as at Majadas de Tietar (with the initially chose settings for SIF source and spectral conversion, see Section [9.4.1\)](#page-37-0) and execute the command:

```
make scratch xassi DOMAIN=FI-Sod
```
This produces the following output:



```
Simulation vector length : 3250
Reading test configuration from opt.nml
&CONFIG
PERT= 0.0000000000000000
ITMAX=1000 ,
IFIX = 56*0/
RUNNING THE L-BFGS-B CODE
         * * *
Machine precision = 2.220D-16
N = 56 M = 30
At X0 0 variables are exactly at the bounds
At iterate 0 f= 2.07086D+03 |proj g|= 8.07013D+03
At iterate 1 f= 1.91702D+03 |proj g|= 1.07075D+02
At iterate 2 f= 1.73416D+03 |proj g|= 1.16244D+02
...
At iterate 96 f= 8.15383D+02 |proj g|= 5.25509D+00
At iterate 97 f= 8.15380D+02 |proj g|= 8.67038D-01
At iterate 98 f= 8.15379D+02 |proj g|= 1.69329D+00
         * * *
Tit = total number of iterations
Tnf = total number of function evaluations
Tnint = total number of segments explored during Cauchy searches
Skip = number of BFGS updates skipped
Nact = number of active bounds at final generalized Cauchy point
Projg = norm of the final projected gradient
F = final function value* * *
  N Tit Tnf Tnint Skip Nact Projg F
  56 98 121 124 1 2 1.693D+00 8.154D+02
 F = 815.37948114441417
```
Here we left in the top lines reporting the properties of the observational data, but again left out the summary output of iterations 3 to 95. The value of the cost function is reduced by  $\sim 60\%$  and that of its gradient by about a factor of 5000 in 98 iterations with 121 model runs.

The changes of the D&B core parameters (number 1 to 50) are moderate, as for Majadas de Tietar, with the exception of parameters 2 (the maximum carboxylation rate at  $25^{\circ}$ C of the

understorey), 4 (a simultaneous scaling coefficient for volumetric soil moisture at saturation, field capacity, and wilting point) and 39 (initial size of the labile carbon pool):





Before we continue the discussion of parameter changes, we perform a forward run from the posterior parameter vector in order to analyse the changes in simulated variables. We do this again by

- 1. copying the posterior vector xopt.b to the file x.b that, if present, the model uses to overwrite the prior parameter settings and
- 2. executing the command:

make clean xmodel DOMAIN=FI-Sod

Figure [9](#page-52-0) shows prior (red) and posterior (blue) model results and observations (green) at Sodankylä for the four EO data streams that were assimilated. The large change in the soil properties (together with changes in the other parameters of the core of D&B) moved the simulated surface layer soil moisture much closer to the observations. As for Majadas de Tietar, the fit to SIF has very much improved through adjustment of a single scaling factor (parameter 61) by a factor of about 9.8. FAPAR was reduced, which improved the fit by a factor of three. Out of the parameters of the observation operator for L-VOD (number 51 to 55) the largest change was for parameter 54, the scaling factor  $l_f$  for the ratio of actual to potential transpiration. The posterior value of  $l_f$  is 0, i.e. at the lower boundary that we had specified. This means the assimilation eliminated the impact of the ratio of actual to potential transpiration on simulated L-VOD.

Figure [9](#page-52-0) shows prior (red) and posterior (blue) model runs and observations (green) at Sodankylä for the same three independent data streams as for Majadas de Tietar: NEE, GPP, and ASCAT slope. The fit to NEE has improved by a factor of two and the fit to GPP by a factor of three. As in Majadas de Tietar, the model has difficulty matching the seasonal cycle of the ASCAT slope data set. We note again that the observation operator for that data set is still very experimental.



<span id="page-52-0"></span>Figure 9: Prior (red) and posterior (blue) model runs and observations (green) at Sodankylä for the four EO data streams that were assimilated: SIF (top left), FAPAR (top right), soil moisture (bottom left), L-VOD (bottom right).



Figure 10: Prior (red) and posterior (blue) model runs and observations (green) at Sodankylä for NEE observations (left) and derived GPP (right) and ASCAT slope (bottom).

# 10 Code Size and Computational Performance

D&B (including observation operators), its tangent and adjoint codes respectively comprise 8,600, 8,500, and 9,500 lines of Fortran code of which are 6,100, 5,500, and 6,500 without comments.

The computational performance of the system has not been systematically assessed, but was tested exemplarily. As an example we provide timing information for a 7 year (2015 to 2021) run of the model and its adjoint (derivative) at one of the study sites (Sodankylä) with two PFTs on a hardware platform equipped with Intel $\overline{R}$ ) Core<sup>TM</sup> i9-7940X processor (19.25M Cache, up to 4.30 GHz), 128GB RAM, and NVMe SSD using a Linux operating system. The model code was compiled with the gfortran compiler (GNU Fortran (SUSE Linux) 13.2.1 20240206 [revision 67ac78caf31f7cb3202177e6428a46d829b70f23]) using some optimising options (-O3 -funroll-loops -floop-block -ftree-loop-distribution):



To estimate how the code performance scales when running on larger domains a similar test for the Iberian region (432 grid cells with up to 6 PFTs) was conducted which confirms the good efficiency of the model and its adjoint:



As another example, an assimilation run at Sodankylä of all five data streams with 19 iterations and 70 model evaluations took 160.54 CPUs on a notebook with Intel $\circledR$  Core™ i7-8550U processor (base frequency 1.8GHz, maximal turbo frequency 4GHz, and 8MB cache), 16GB RAM, and NVMe SSD.

# 11 Acknowledgements

Sections [2,](#page-6-0) [B,](#page-65-0) [C](#page-97-0) and much of [3](#page-11-0) are taken from [Knorr et al.](#page-58-0) [\(2024\)](#page-58-0), to which many more authors contributed than those listed as authors of the present document. Development and D&B and TCCAS is funded by ESA through contracts 4000131497 (LCC study) and 4000141232 (TCCAS study) within the Carbon Science Cluster.

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Appendix

# A Variables





# <span id="page-65-0"></span>B Detailed Process Description of D&B Model

### B.1 Photosynthesis and Autotrophic Respiration

### <span id="page-65-1"></span>B.1.1 The photosynthesis model

Photosynthesis is computed in two steps. The first is the calculation of the non-water-limited photosynthetic rate,  $A_{c,0}$ , at a fixed intracellular  $CO_2$  concentration,  $C_{i,0}$ . Calculation of the actual assimilation rate,  $A$ , at the leaf level as a function of the actual intracellular CO $_2$  concentration,  $C_i$ , is here explained for both the C3 and C4 pathway. For C3 plants, following [Farquhar et al.](#page-55-0) [\(1980\)](#page-55-0), A is formulated as the minimum of an electron transport limited rate,  $J_E$ , and a rate,  $J_C$ , limited by the carboxylating enzyme Rubisco (in molar units, i.e. mol $(\mathsf{CO}_2) \mathsf{m}^{-2} \mathsf{s}^{-1})$ :

<span id="page-65-2"></span>
$$
A = \min\{J_C; J_E\} - R_d \tag{28}
$$

with

<span id="page-65-5"></span>
$$
J_C = V_m \frac{C_i - \Gamma_\star}{C_i + K_C(1 + O_x/K_O)}\tag{29}
$$

$$
J_E = J \frac{C_i - \Gamma_\star}{4(C_i - 2\Gamma_\star)} \tag{30}
$$

 $R_d$  is the leaf or "dark" respiration (see Section [B.1.2\)](#page-70-0), and J the potential maximum electron transport rate. See Table [12](#page-67-0) for oxygen concentration,  $O_x$ , and the Michaelis-Mention constants  $K_C$  and  $K_O$ .

J depends on the rate of PAR absorption, I, in mol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> in the following way:

$$
J = \frac{\alpha I J_m}{\sqrt{J_m^2 + \alpha^2 I^2}}\tag{31}
$$

where  $I\,=\,I_{PAR}/E_{PAR}$ , with the <code>PAR</code> absorption rate  $I_{PAR}$  in W m $^{-2}$  and  $E_{PAR}$  the energy content of PAR quanta, (220 kJ/mol, [Jones, 1983,](#page-57-0) p. 160). The temperature dependence of the maximum electron transport rate,  $J_m$ , is calculated according to [Farquhar](#page-56-1) [\(1988\)](#page-56-1) from the canopy temperature,  $T_v$ , in <sup>o</sup>C and the respective rate at 25<sup>o</sup>C :

<span id="page-65-4"></span>
$$
J_m(T_v) = J_m(25^{\circ}\text{C}) \times T_v/25 \tag{32}
$$

The latter is computed from a PFT-specific  $V_m(25\textdegree C)$  provided in Table [11](#page-66-0) and the average of the ratios provided by [Kattge and Knorr](#page-57-1) [\(2007\)](#page-57-1) for a range of plants:

<span id="page-65-3"></span>
$$
J_m(25^{\circ}\mathrm{C}) = 1.97 \cdot V_m(25^{\circ}\mathrm{C}).\tag{33}
$$

For the  $\mathsf{CO}_2$  compensation point without leaf respiration,  $\Gamma_\star$  (in  $\mu$ mol $(\mathsf{CO}_2)$ mol $(\mathsf{air})^{-1}$ ), a linear dependence on vegetation temperature (in  ${}^{\circ}$ C) is assumed, again following [Farquhar](#page-56-1) [\(1988\)](#page-56-1):

$$
\Gamma_{\star} = 1.7T_v \tag{34}
$$

<span id="page-66-0"></span>

, , PFT	C4	$d_r$	$h_v$	$V_m(25^{\circ} \text{C})$
Tropical broadleaf evergreen tree	C <sub>3</sub>	3.0	30	60
Tropical broadleaf deciduous tree	C3	3.0	15	90
Temperate broadleaf evergreen tree	C3	1.5	15	41
Temperate broadleaf deciduous tree	C <sub>3</sub>	1.5	15	35
Evergreen coniferous tree	C <sub>3</sub>	1.0	15	29
Deciduous coniferous tree	C <sub>3</sub>	1.0	15	53
Evergreen shrub	C <sub>3</sub>	1.5	1	52
Deciduous shrub	C <sub>3</sub>	1.5	1	160
C <sub>3</sub> grass	C <sub>3</sub>	0.5	1	42
C <sub>4</sub> grass	C <sub>4</sub>	0.5	1	8
Tundra	C <sub>3</sub>	0.3	0.3	20
Wetland	C <sub>3</sub>	0.3	0.3	20
Arable crop	C <sub>3</sub>	0.3	0.6	117

Table 11: D&B vegetation parameters.  $d_r$  maximum rooting depth,  $h_v$  vegetation height, both in m,  $V_m$  maximum carboxylation rate in  $\mu$ mol $(\textsf{CO2})/\textsf{m}^2$ s.

The actual electron transport rate,  $J_n$ , required for the SIF observation operator, is limited by  $J_C$ , and can computed from

$$
J_n = \min\{J_C; J_E\} \frac{4(C_i - 2\Gamma_\star)}{C_i - \Gamma_\star} \tag{35}
$$

At sufficient light, the rate of photosynthesis is limited by  $V_m$ , the maximum turnover rate of the primary  $CO_2$  fixating enzyme, Rubisco, while at low light levels,  $J_m$  is limiting the assimilation rate. Following [Farquhar et al.](#page-55-0) [\(1980\)](#page-55-0) and in accordance with [Beerling and Quick](#page-55-1) [\(1995\)](#page-55-1), a sharp transition from Rubisco to light limited photosynthesis is assumed. In nature, this so-called 'Blackman' curve is observed with a certain transition zone, where both rates are simultaneously limiting. The argument used by [Farquhar et al.](#page-55-0) [\(1980\)](#page-55-0) is that this co-limitation is a suboptimal behaviour that tends to be minimised [\(Collatz et al., 1990\)](#page-55-2). Nonetheless, a certain co-limitation is often introduced by a curve parameter (e.g [Farquhar et al., 1980;](#page-55-0) [Collatz et al., 1991\)](#page-55-3). Because its actual size is difficult to determine for a global simulation, and because the result does not deviate much from that according to Equ. [28,](#page-65-2) this parameter is not used here.

The values for  $V_m$  and  $J_m$  are PFT specific for the standard temperature of 25°C (Table [11\)](#page-66-0).  $\alpha$  is assigned a value related to incoming light taken from [Beerling and Quick](#page-55-1) [\(1995\)](#page-55-1) divided by a leaf absorption of 0.86 according to [Collatz et al.](#page-55-3) [\(1991\)](#page-55-3). The temperature dependence of  $V_m$  and all other rates with an activation energy given in Table [12](#page-67-0) is computed from the following equation (with  $T_v$  in  ${}^{\circ}$ C):

<span id="page-66-1"></span>
$$
k(T_v) = k(25^{\circ}\text{C}) \exp\left\{\frac{(T_v - 25)E}{298R(T_v + 273)}\right\}
$$
\n(36)

where k stands for the rate in question. Rates and constants that do not depend on vegetation type are also listed in Table [12.](#page-67-0)

In closed canopies, the light-saturated assimilation rate is normally differentiated according to light availability. Therefore, in accordance with [Sellers et al.](#page-61-0) [\(1996\)](#page-61-0), an exponential reduction in  $V_m$ 

<span id="page-67-0"></span>Table 12: Values of the kinetic parameters and constants for the calculation of the C3 photosynthetic rate with the Farquhar model; lower part: additional constants for C4 photosynthesis.  $E$  is the activation energy in J/mol; s.t.: see text, const.: no temperature dependence, F&a: [Farquhar et al.](#page-55-0) [\(1980\)](#page-55-0), C: [Collatz et al.](#page-55-4) [\(1992\)](#page-55-4), F: [Farquhar](#page-56-1) [\(1988\)](#page-56-1), BQ: [Beerling and Quick](#page-55-1) [\(1995\)](#page-55-1)

symbol	description	value at $25^oC$	unit	E	reference
$\alpha$	efficiency of photon capture	0.28		(const.)	BQ
$\Gamma_{\star}$	$CO2$ compensation point	42.5	$\mu$ mol m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	s.t.	F
$O_x$	$O2$ partial pressure	0.21	mol/mol	35948	F&a
$K_C$	Michaelis-Menten constant for $CO2$	460	$\mu$ mol/mol	59356	F&a
$K_O$	Michaelis-Menten constant for $O_2$	0.33	mol/mol	35948	F&a
$V_m$	carboxylation capacity	s.t.	$\mu$ mol m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	see Table 11	BQ F&a
$J_m$	electron transport capacity	s.t.	$\mu$ mol m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	see Equ. 33	BQ F
$R_d$	leaf or dark respiration	s.t.	$\mu$ mol m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	50967	
$\alpha_i$	integrated C4 quantum efficiency	0.04	mol/mol	(const.)	
$\boldsymbol{k}$	PEPcase $CO2$ specificity	s.t.	mmol m <sup><math>-2</math></sup> s <sup><math>-1</math></sup>	50967	
$\theta$	curve parameter for $J_e$	0.83			

and  $J_m$  from top to bottom is assumed for LAI greater than three  $(\Lambda > 3)$ :

$$
V_m(l) = V_m \times K_{12} e^{-K_{12}l} \tag{37}
$$

$$
J_m(l) = J_m \times K_{12} e^{-K_{12}l} \tag{38}
$$

where  $V_m$  and  $J_m$  are the temperature dependent values according to Equs. [36](#page-66-1) and [32,](#page-65-4) and  $K_{12}$ the extinction coefficient at noon, according to  $K = \frac{1}{2d}$  $\frac{1}{2\mu}$  with  $\mu\,=\,\mu(12\text{:}00\text{h})$ . This scaling of photosynthetic capacity is applied to trees, shrubs and crops, not to grasses or tundra vegetation.

The non-limited or potential photosynthesis rate,  $A_0$ , is first calculated from Equ. [28](#page-65-2) to [30](#page-65-5) with  $C_i = C_{i,0}$ ; then the canopy rate is formed as an integral over the leaf area (cf. Equ. [42\)](#page-68-0):

$$
A_{c,0} = \int_0^{\Lambda} A_0 (I_{PAR}(l)) dl
$$
 (39)

This integral is solved approximately by summing over several (usually 3) layers, each with PAR absorption,  $I_{PAR}$ , calculated separately.

The photosynthetic rate,  $A$ , can also be expressed by the following diffusion equation (in mol(CO $_2)$ m $^{-2}$ s $^{-1}$ , e.g. [Jones, 1983\)](#page-57-0):

$$
A = 0.625g_s(C_a - C_i)\frac{p}{RT_K},
$$
\n(40)

with air pressure  $p$  (from Equ. [151,](#page-88-0) Section [B.2.8\)](#page-86-0), the ideal gas constant  $R$  (8.314 J K $^{-1}$ mol $^{-1}$ ), and air temperature in Kelvin  $T_K$  ( $T_K = T + 273$ ). The factor 0.625 takes the lower diffusivity of  $CO_2$  against water vapour into account.  $C_a$  and  $C_i$  are the  $CO_2$  concentrations of free air and of air within the intracellular air spaces in mol $(\text{CO}_2)/\text{mol}$  air). The factor behind the brackets is given for the conversion into units of mol $(\mathsf{CO}_2)/\mathsf{m}^3$ (air) (= 40.9 mol(air)/ $\mathsf{m}^3$ (air) at 25°C and standard pressure). This equation can now be used to derive the value of stomatal conductance under conditions without moisture stress.

Assuming a typical value for the intracellular  $CO_2$  concentration under such conditions,  $C_{i,0}$ , the non-water-limited stomatal conductance yields (assuming  $g_s = g_{s,0}$ ):

$$
g_{s,0} = \frac{1.6A_0}{C_a - C_{i,0}} \frac{RT_K}{p},\tag{41}
$$

and after integration across the canopy to obtain canopy conductance:

<span id="page-68-0"></span>
$$
G_{c,0} = \frac{1.6}{C_a - C_{i,0}} \int_0^{\Lambda} A_0(l) dl \frac{RT_K}{p}
$$
  
= 
$$
\frac{1.6 A_{c,0}}{C_a - C_{i,0}} \frac{RT_K}{p}
$$
 (42)

A dependence of  $g_s$  on the following external factors is known [\(Farquhar and Sharkey, 1982\)](#page-56-2): Light [\(Sharkey and Ogawa, 1987\)](#page-61-1), intracellular  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  concentration [\(Morison, 1987\)](#page-59-0), potential evapotranspiration, i.e. leaf-to-air gradient of vapour pressure [\(Fischer and Turner, 1978;](#page-56-3) [Schulze, 1986;](#page-61-2) [Schulze et al., 1987\)](#page-61-3) and soil water content [\(Schulze, 1986;](#page-61-2) [Turner, 1986;](#page-62-2) [Schulze et al., 1987\)](#page-61-3). According to [Schulze et al.](#page-61-4) [\(1994\)](#page-61-4), its maximum value,  $g_{s,max}$ , i.e. the value at sufficient light and water supply, increases with leaf nitrogen content. Since maximum photosynthetic rate,  $A_{max}$ , also increases with leaf nitrogen [\(Field and Mooney, 1986\)](#page-56-4), there is a close relationship between  $g_{s,max}$ and  $A_{max}$ .

There are two important assumptions contained in this last equation: First, the integrated conductance of a canopy does not, as assumed by [Woodward](#page-63-0) [\(1987\)](#page-63-0) in a modelling study on water limited LAI, increase linearly with the leaf area index,  $\Lambda$ . In fact, like  $A_{c,0}$ ,  $G_{c,0}$  saturates at high values of LAI, reaching approximately three times the maximum stomatal conductance,  $g_{s,0}$ . This is the result of a literature review on field measurements by [Kelliher et al.](#page-58-1) [\(1995\)](#page-58-1). If soil evaporation is also included, the total surface conductance appears to be largely independent of the LAI. The consequence is, that evapotranspiration from vegetated areas is not controlled by LAI, but by the net radiation,  $R_n$ . Therefore, a comprehensive description of the energy balance is a prerequisite for mechanistic modelling of the coupled system of evapotranspiration and photosynthesis.

Second, the Equ. [42](#page-68-0) suggests a linear relationship between maximum photosynthetic rate and maximum canopy conductance. Such a relationship is the result of an overview by [Schulze et al.](#page-61-4) [\(1994\)](#page-61-4). Equating the terms "maximum surface conductance" and "maximum canopy  $CO_2$  assimilation" with  $G_{c,0}$  and  $A_{c,0}$ , respectively, the values for C3 plants cited in [Schulze et al.](#page-61-4) [\(1994\)](#page-61-4) yield

$$
G_{c,0} = 0.883 A_{c,0} \tag{43}
$$

with  $G_{c,0}$  in mm/s and  $A_{c,0}$  in  $\mu$ mol $(\mathsf{CO}_2)$ m $^{-2}$ s $^{-1}.$  Inserting this into Equ. [42](#page-68-0) yields  $C_a-C_{i,0}=$ 45 ppm or  $C_{i,0}/C_a = 0.87$  (at  $C_a = 355$  ppm, 25°C and standard pressure), as assumed by the photosynthesis model for conditions without water stress. This is also supported by the common observation that the ratio of leaf internal to external  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  concentration stays nearly constant when incident light intensity or external  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  concentration changes [\(Morison, 1987\)](#page-59-0). Therefore,  $C<sub>i,0</sub>$  is set to a uniform value of  $C_{i,0} = 0.87C_a$  for all C3 plants. For C4 plants, this ratio is set to 0.67,

based on the relationship for tropical grasses. A lower value for C4 against C3 plants also follows from the different enzyme kinetics of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  uptake, and has been measured regularly, cf. [Morison](#page-59-0) [\(1987\)](#page-59-0).

Since the leaf or canopy temperature,  $T_v$ , depends on the actual rate of transpiration, which in this step has not yet been determined, calculation of  $A_{c,0}$  and  $G_{c,0}$  up to this point uses the approximation  $T_v = T$ . A self-consistent calculation, where  $T_v$  has to be reinserted iteratively into the equation for  $A_{c,0}$ , is not carried out here. Since the calculation of  $A_{c,0}$  and  $G_{c,0}$  at a uniform  $C_{i,0}$ has mainly the purpose of formulating a generally applicable dependence of the stomatal conductance on incident light, the error involved is comparatively small, except under significant water stress.

For the second step, the stomatal conductance is modified using the empirical multiplier  $1/(1 +$  $b_e\Delta e$ ), which is constant across the canopy and therefore applies equally also to  $G_{c,0}$  (Equ. [42\)](#page-68-0).  $\Delta e$  is the vapour pressure deficit in the surrounding air (see Section [B.2.9\)](#page-91-0), and  $b_e$  an empirical parameter that is set once a day in a way explained in Section [B.2.4.](#page-75-0) Using this multiplier and the inversion of the diffusion equation for  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ , we can now determine actual stomatal conductance as

$$
g_s(l) = g_{s,0}(l) \frac{1}{1 + b_e \Delta e}
$$
  
= 
$$
\frac{1.6A_0(l)}{C_a - C_{i,0}} \frac{RT_K}{p} \frac{1}{1 + b_e \Delta e}
$$
 (44)

and actual canopy conductance as:

$$
G_c = G_{c,0} \frac{1}{1 + b_e \Delta e}.\tag{45}
$$

Once this is known, the water balance of the soil and canopy can be computed as described in Section [B.2.4,](#page-75-0) and with it the rate of transpiration,  $E_t$  (according to Equ. [85\)](#page-76-1) and also the canopy temperature,  $T_v$ , as

$$
T_v = T + \frac{R_{n,v} - \lambda E_t}{\rho_a c_p G_a},\tag{46}
$$

where  $R_{n,v}$  is the net radiation of the canopy (Equ. [153\)](#page-89-0),  $\lambda$  the latent heat of evaporation (Equ. [91\)](#page-77-1),  $G_a$  aerodynamic conductance (Equ. [90\)](#page-76-2), and  $c_p$  the specific heat of air at constant pressure  $(\approx 1005$  J kg $^{-1}$ K $^{-1})$ . The density of air,  $\rho_{a}$   $(\approx 1.29$  kg m $^{-3})$ , follows

$$
\rho_a = \frac{M_a p}{RT_K} \tag{47}
$$

with the molar mass of air ( $M_a=28.964\times 10^{-3}$  kg mol $^{-1}$ ).

The influence of skin reservoir evaporation  $(E_i)$  on  $T_v$  is neglected here (i.e.  $E_v = E_t$ ).

The actual assimilation rate,  $A$ , is eventually computed at a fixed stomatal resistance,  $g_s$ , and at a canopy temperature,  $T_v$ , computed as described above. The relevant equations are on the one hand Equ. [28](#page-65-2) to [30](#page-65-5) of the Farquhar model, on the other hand the diffusion equation for  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ :

<span id="page-69-0"></span>
$$
A(l) = 0.625 g_s(l)(C_a - C_i) \frac{p}{RT_{K,v}},
$$
\n(48)

where  $T_{K,v}$  is canopy temperature in Kelvin.

Besides  $A$ , the undetermined variable is  $C_i.$  Equ. [48](#page-69-0) is therefore solved for  $C_i$  and inserted into Equ. [29](#page-65-5) and [30.](#page-65-5) The results are quadratic equations for  $J_C$  and  $J_E$ ; the minimum of the respective lesser solutions of those quadratic equations yields  $A(l)$ . Finally, the canopy photosynthesis,  $A_c$  in mol $(\mathsf{CO}_2)$ m $^{-2}$ s $^{-1}$ , is taken as the integral over the leaf area:

$$
A_c = \int_0^{\Lambda} A(l)dl = \frac{0.625p}{RT_K} \int_0^{\Lambda} g_s(l) (C_a - C_i(l)) dl
$$
 (49)

For C4 photosynthesis, Equ. [28](#page-65-2) to [30](#page-65-5) are replaced according to Collatz et al. (1992) by the following:

$$
A = \min\{J_c; \quad J_e\} - R_d \tag{50}
$$

$$
J_c = kC_i \tag{51}
$$

$$
J_e = \frac{1}{2\theta_s} \left[ V_m + J_i - \sqrt{(V_m + J_i)^2 - 4\theta_s V_m J_i} \right]
$$
(52)

$$
J_i = \alpha_i \frac{I_{PAR}}{E_{PAR}} \tag{53}
$$

As with C3 photosynthesis, a gradual onset of light limitation is assumed, with a sudden transition from  $J_c$  to  $J_e$  limitation at rising  $C_i.$  Another reason for not using a curve parameter for this transition is mathematical: thus, after calculation of  $g_s(l)$  as above,  $A(l)$  can be derived from:

$$
A(l) = \min\left\{J_e; \quad \frac{C_a + R_d/g_s'(l)}{1/k + 1/g_s'(l)}\right\} - R_d
$$
\n(54)

with  $g'_{s} = 0.625 g_{s} p / (RT_{K,v}).$ 

### <span id="page-70-0"></span>B.1.2 Autotrophic respiration

Following [Farquhar et al.](#page-55-0) [\(1980\)](#page-55-0), leaf or dark respiration,  $R_d$ , per leaf area at 25°C is assumed proportional to  $V_m$ , also at 25°C. The constant of proportionality depends on photosynthetic pathway and is 0.011 for C3 plants [\(Farquhar et al., 1980;](#page-55-0) [Collatz et al., 1991\)](#page-55-3). For C4 plants we expect a higher value owing to the more complex two-step photosynthetic system. Therefore, the value for C4 grasses is chosen such as that simulated GPP and NPP for C3 and C4 grasses are equal in areas where they were found to be equally abundant. C3 and C4 grass GPP, NPP and abundance were calculated by [Knorr](#page-58-2) [\(1997\)](#page-58-2), with abundances based on [Paruelo and Lauenroth](#page-60-0) [\(1996\)](#page-60-0).

The resulting formulation for leaf respiration used here is:

<span id="page-70-1"></span>
$$
R_d(25^o\mathsf{C}) = \begin{cases} 0.011V_m(25^o\mathsf{C}) & \text{(C3)}\\ 0.042V_m(25^o\mathsf{C}) & \text{(C4)} \end{cases}
$$
(55)

The temperature dependence of  $R_d$  is again given by Equ. [36](#page-66-1) with an activation energy according to Table [12.](#page-67-0)

Following [Ryan](#page-60-1) [\(1991a\)](#page-60-1), total plant or autotrophic respiration,  $R_A$ , is divided into two parts, maintenance  $(R_M)$  and growth respiration  $(R_G)$ :

$$
R_A = R_M + R_G. \tag{56}
$$

The difference between the two is that the so-called growth respiration occurs only when  $\text{NPP} > 0$ .  $R_{d,c}$  is the integral of  $R_d$  over the differential leaf area index, l:

$$
R_{d,c} = \int_0^\Lambda R_d(l)dl
$$
\n(57)

and is assumed to constitute a large part of  $R_M$ . A is the total leaf area index (LAI). As explained in Section [B.1.3,](#page-72-0) the integral is approximated by a fixed number of discrete layers.

[Ryan](#page-60-1) [\(1991a\)](#page-60-1) stresses that  $R_M$  and the nitrogen content of vegetation,  $N_{tot}$ , are usually much better correlated than  $R_M$  and biomass, with  $R_M$  approximately 0.30 $\mu$ mol(CO $_2$ )m $^{-2}$ s $^{-1}$  per gN at 25<sup>o</sup>C, if we assume the same temperature dependence as for  $R_d$ . Since  $V_m$  is nearly proportional to the nitrogen content of leaves [\(Farquhar et al., 1980\)](#page-55-0) with around 45 $\mu$ mol $(\mathsf{CO}_2)$ m $^{-2}$ s $^{-1}$  per gN (at 25 °C, with 20% of N in Rubisco), it follows from Equ. [55](#page-70-1) for C3 plants that  $R_d$  is approximately 0.5 $\mu$ mol $(\mathsf{CO}_2)$ m $^{-2}$ s $^{-1}$  per gN, somewhat more than  $R_M$ . It seems that leaves, in terms of their nitrogen content, take up a higher proportion of total plant respiration than the remaining plant parts. Further, from the data by [Ryan](#page-60-2) [\(1991b\)](#page-60-2) it follows that typically 40% of maintenance respiration takes place in the leaves. For this reason, the following equation is used:

<span id="page-71-0"></span>
$$
R_M = M_c R_{d,c} / f_{R,leaf} = 1.67 M_c R_{d,c} / f_{N,leaf}
$$
\n(58)

 $f_{R,leaf}$  is the leaf fraction of the plant-total maintenance respiration, and  $f_{N,leaf}$  the leaf fraction of total nitrogen. The factor 1.67 accounts for the higher respiration rates per N in leaves, while the factor  $M_c = 12$  gC/mol(CO<sub>2</sub>) is used because photosynthesis is expressed in molar units of carbon.

In a subtropical dry forest in Puerto Rico [\(Lugo and Murphy, 1986\)](#page-59-1), leaf nitrogen was 189 kg/ha of a total of 916 kg/ha, i.e. 21%, whereas in an equatorial moist forest in Zaïre (a 28-year-old secondary forest) 143 kg/ha were found in leaves for a 593 kg/ha total [\(Greenland and Kowal,](#page-56-5) [1960\)](#page-56-5), this is a portion of 24%. (With Equ. [58,](#page-71-0) this would mean  $f_{R,leaf} \approx 0.4$ ). The similarity contrasts with the fact that with 25%, the root fraction of total nitrogen was significantly lower in the moist than in the dry forest, where it amounted to as much as 60%. It appears that the value of  $f_{N,leaf}$  is a conservative quantity compared to the distribution of biomass between leaves, stem and roots. A possible explanation is that trees, because of competition with other trees, accumulate woody biomass until a certain critical value of  $f_{N,leaf}$  around 20 to 25% is reached, from where on a reduction in NPP prevents further reduction of the relative leaf fraction. This might also be true for grasses, which increase root biomass under arid conditions until a similar value of  $f_{N,leaf}$  is reached. This would explain why respiration costs relative to GPP are remarkably similar for grasses and trees [\(Ryan, 1991a\)](#page-60-1). Therefore, in this study a uniform value of  $f_{N,leaf}=0.14$  will be used, or  $f_{R,leaf} = 0.40$ .

A mean value for growth respiration according to [Ryan](#page-60-1) [\(1991a\)](#page-60-1), which will be used here, is 0.25 gC per gC biomass produced, or  $f_{R,G} = 0.25$ . Using

$$
NPP = GPP - R_M - R_G \tag{59}
$$
We can thus derive an implicit equation for

$$
R_G = f_{R,G} \cdot \text{NPP} = f_{R,G}(\text{GPP} - R_M - R_G),\tag{60}
$$

which yields the following explicit form:

$$
R_G = \frac{f_{R,G}}{1 + f_{R,G}} (\text{GPP} - R_M)
$$
\n(61)

The equation for net primary productivity thus becomes:

$$
\text{NPP} = \frac{1}{1 + f_{R,G}} (\text{GPP} - R_M). \tag{62}
$$

### <span id="page-72-1"></span>B.1.3 Light absorption

Light absorption in the photosynthetically active spectrum is calculated within the two-flux approximation, following [Sellers](#page-61-0) [\(1985\)](#page-61-0), expressed by the following equations (with the cumulative leaf area index, l, as the vertical coordinate, where  $l = 0$  at the top, and  $l = \Lambda$  at the bottom of the canopy):

<span id="page-72-0"></span>
$$
\bar{\mu} \frac{dR_{\downarrow}}{dl} + [1 - (1 - \beta)\omega]R_{\downarrow} - \omega\beta R_{\uparrow} = \omega\bar{\mu}K(1 - \beta_0)R(l) \n- \bar{\mu} \frac{dR_{\uparrow}}{dl} + [1 - (1 - \beta)\omega]R_{\uparrow} - \omega\beta R_{\downarrow} = \omega\bar{\mu}K\beta_0R(l)
$$
\n(63)

 $R_{\downarrow}$  and  $R_{\uparrow}$  are the diffuse fluxes downward and upward, respectively, and  $R(l)$  is the direct flux with  $R(0) = d_{PAR} R_{PAR}$  (Equ. [138](#page-87-0) and [149\)](#page-88-0):

$$
R(l) = R(0)e^{-Kl}
$$
\n
$$
(64)
$$

Further,  $\omega$  is the leaf single scattering albedo,  $\beta$  the forward scatter fraction for the diffuse flux,  $\beta_0$ the same for the direct flux, K the extinction coefficient for the direct flux and  $\bar{\mu}$  the mean of  $K^{-1}$ over the downward hemisphere  $(\int_0^1 K^{-1}(\mu)d\mu).$ 

The following simplifications are used: (1) There is no preferred leaf orientation, i.e. distribution of leaf angles is isotropic; (2) leaf reflectivity and transmissivity are equal (the sum of the two is  $\omega$ ). These assumptions yield:

<span id="page-72-2"></span>
$$
\beta = \frac{1}{2} \tag{65}
$$

$$
\beta_0 = \frac{1}{2} \tag{66}
$$

$$
K = \frac{1}{2\mu} \tag{67}
$$

$$
\bar{\mu} = 1 \tag{68}
$$

where  $\mu$  is the cosine of the solar zenith angle (cf. Equ. [136\)](#page-87-1).

The following boundary conditions are also needed for the solution of Equ. [63:](#page-72-0) (1)  $R_{\perp}(0)$  equals diffuse incoming radiation; (2) the reflection at the lower boundary is given by the soil reflectivity in the PAR region,  $\rho_s^{PAR}$ :

<span id="page-73-0"></span>
$$
R_{\downarrow}(0) = (1 - d_{PAR})R_{PAR} \tag{69}
$$

$$
R_{\uparrow}(\Lambda) = \rho_s^{PAR} (R(\Lambda) + R_{\downarrow}(\Lambda)) \tag{70}
$$

The standard value for the single scattering albedo for PAR is set to  $\omega=0.12$ , while  $\rho_s^{PAR}$  is computed from the soil albedo in the total solar spectrum,  $\rho_s$ :

$$
\rho_s^{PAR} = 0.92\rho_s - 0.015\tag{71}
$$

This dependence has been derived from the "soil line" by [Price and Bausch](#page-60-0) [\(1995\)](#page-60-0), a linear relationship between PAR and NIR (near infrared) reflectivity for moist soils, with the assumption  $\rho_s = (\rho_s^{PAR} + \rho_s^{NIR})/2$  (cf. Section 4.5).

The rate of PAR absorption per leaf area of layer  $k$ ,  $I_{k}^{PAR}$ , is calculated, to be used for the light limited photosynthetic rate (Equ. [30\)](#page-65-0), as the sum over  $N_l$  layers of equal distance in  $\it l$ -coordinates, going from  $l = l_{k-1}$  to  $l = l_k$  with  $l_0 = 0$  and  $l_{N_l} = \Lambda$ :

$$
I_{k}^{PAR} = \frac{1}{l_{k} - l_{k-1}} \int_{l_{k-1}}^{l_{k}} \left\{ -\frac{d}{dl} (R + R_{\downarrow} + R_{\uparrow}) \right\} dl
$$
  
= {[R(l\_{k-1}) + R\_{\downarrow}(l\_{k-1}) - R\_{\uparrow}(l\_{k-1})] ...  
... - [R(l\_{k}) + R\_{\downarrow}(l\_{k}) - R\_{\uparrow}(l\_{k})]} / (l\_{k} - l\_{k-1}) \qquad (72)

where R,  $R_{\downarrow}$  and  $R_{\uparrow}$  are the solutions to the Equ. [63,](#page-72-0) [69](#page-73-0) and [70](#page-73-0) with LAI  $\Lambda$ . The canopy photosynthesis is then N<sup>l</sup>

<span id="page-73-1"></span>
$$
A_c = f_c \sum_{k=0}^{N_l} A(I_k^{PAR}) \quad (l_k - l_{k-1})
$$
\n(73)

and FAPAR can be calculated from

<span id="page-73-2"></span>
$$
f_{PAR} = \{ [R(0) + R_{\downarrow}(0) - R_{\uparrow}(0)] - [R(\Lambda) + R_{\downarrow}(\Lambda) - R_{\uparrow}(\Lambda)] \} / (R(0) + R_{\downarrow}(0))
$$
  
= 
$$
1 - \frac{R_{\uparrow}(0) + (1 - \rho_s^{PAR})(R(\Lambda) + R_{\downarrow}(\Lambda))}{R(0) + R_{\downarrow}(0)}
$$
(74)

Equ. [73](#page-73-1) is the approximation used for the integrals of Equ. [39](#page-67-0) and [49.](#page-70-0) Following the arguments by [Sellers](#page-61-0) [\(1985\)](#page-61-0), no separate layer for sunlit leaves is introduced.

### B.2 Energy and Water Cycle

### B.2.1 Water balance overview

The model considers a total of three water pools: soil water  $(W_s)$ , a skin or intercepted reservoir on leaves and other plant parts  $(W_i)$  and snow  $(W_{sn})$ . The total amount of water at the surface,

 $W_{tot}$ , from Equ. [78,](#page-74-0) is thus partitioned into three components (cf. Equ. [79,](#page-74-1) [80](#page-75-0) and [125\)](#page-85-0):

$$
W_{tot} = W_s + W_i + W_{sn} \tag{75}
$$

The largest part by far is  $W_r$ , the root-zone soil moisture. There is also an additional thin soil layer at the surface,  $W_s$ , which, however, overlaps with the root-zone soil moisture layer. The other two components are the intercept pool  $(W_i)$ , and the snow pool  $(W_{sn})$ . The precipitation rate,  $P_{tot}$ , and the rate of evapotranspiration,  $E_{tot}$ , are also divided into further quantities:

$$
P_{tot} = P_s + P_i + P_{sn} \tag{76}
$$

and

<span id="page-74-2"></span>
$$
E_{tot} = E_s + E_{sn} + E_i + E_t \tag{77}
$$

Here,  $P_s$  is the amount of rain falling directly on the soil,  $P_i$  the part intercepted by vegetation and  $P_{sn}$  the rate of snowfall. The partitioning of total precipitation,  $P_{tot}$ , into snow  $(P_{sn})$  and rain  $(P_r = P_s + P_i)$  is calculated from Equ. [126](#page-85-1) (see Section [B.2.7\)](#page-85-2) and the interception rate,  $P_i$ , according to Equ. [81](#page-75-1) (see Section [B.2.3\)](#page-75-2). There is also an indirect "rain" rate,  $P_v$ , of water that overflows from the leaf surfaces and drips down to the floor (Equ. [82\)](#page-75-3). The components of total evapotranspiration are  $E_s$  (soil evaporation, Equ. [110\)](#page-82-0),  $E_{sn}$  (snow evaporation, Equ. [130\)](#page-85-3),  $E_i$ (evaporation from the intercepted skin reservoir, Equ. [87\)](#page-76-0), and  $E_t$  (transpiration, Equ. [89\)](#page-76-1).

The water balance can be described by the following equation:

<span id="page-74-0"></span>
$$
P_{tot} - E_{tot} - Q_d - Q_b = \dot{W}_{tot} \tag{78}
$$

 $P_{tot}$  is the total precipitation rate,  $E_{tot}$  the total evapotranspiration from soil, leaf surfaces, through leaf pores and from snow (including sublimation),  $W_{tot}$  the total amount of water stored in the soil, on the vegetation and on the ground as snow,  $Q_d$  is direct runoff, and  $Q_b$  base flow.

### B.2.2 Root-zone soil water balance

The root-zone soil water balance can be expressed as

<span id="page-74-1"></span>
$$
W_r(t) - W_r(t - \Delta t) = (P_s(t) + P_v(t) + S_m(t) - E_t(t) - E_s(t) - Q_b(t))\Delta t
$$
 (79)

with a time step  $\Delta t$  of one day. The flux terms on the right hand side of the equation are therefore daily averages in kg m $^{-2}$ s $^{-1}$ .  $\,P_{s}$  and  $P_{v}$  are, respectively, the precipitation rates arriving at the soil directly, or being intercepted by vegetation first and then dripping through to the ground.  $P_s$ is calculated from  $P_s = P - P_{sn} - P_i$  with  $P_{sn}$  from Equ. [126](#page-85-1) and  $P_i$  from Equ. [81;](#page-75-1)  $P_v$  is given by Equ. [82](#page-75-3) (Section [B.2.3\)](#page-75-2),  $S_m$ , the rate of snow melt, by Equ. [127](#page-85-4) (Section [B.2.7\)](#page-85-2),  $E_t$  by Equ. [89](#page-76-1) (transpiration, Section [B.2.4\)](#page-75-4) and  $E_s$  by Equ. [110](#page-82-0) (soil evaporation, Section [B.2.5\)](#page-79-0).  $Q_b(t)$  is the base flow, which is proportional to the root-zone soil moisture and capped to zero when the root-zone soil moisture is less than the field capacity.

### <span id="page-75-2"></span>B.2.3 Skin water balance

The balance equation of the skin or intercepted reservoir,  $W_i$ , is

<span id="page-75-0"></span>
$$
W_i(t) - W_i(t - \Delta t) = (P_i(t) - E_i(t) - P_v(t))\Delta t
$$
\n(80)

If rain falls on dense vegetation (approx.  $LAI > 3$ ), most of it falls on leaves and branches. A considerable fraction initially remains as a thin film on the vegetation, while another fraction, depending on the size of raindrops and the interception capacity of the canopy, reaches the ground. While rainfall continues, the skin reservoir,  $W_i$ , reaches a maximum and the water begins to drip through to the ground. A good approximation for the LAI dependence of interception is the vertical projection of the leaf area divided by the ground area. When this value approaches 1, it is assumed that 100% of rainfall is intercepted by the vegetation canopy:

<span id="page-75-1"></span>
$$
P_i = f_c \left( 1 - e^{-0.5\Lambda/f_c} \right) P_r \tag{81}
$$

 $f_c$  is the fractional cover of vegetation and  $\Lambda$  the LAI of the total area (vegetated and non-vegetated). Finally, the daily throughfall of rain through the canopy,  $P_v\Delta t$ , is calculated according to:

<span id="page-75-3"></span>
$$
P_v \Delta t = \max \left\{ W_i(t - \Delta t) + P_i \Delta t - W_{i,max}; \quad 0 \right\} \tag{82}
$$

Thereby it is assumed that the skin reservoir fills up to a capacity of  $W_{i,max}$  and that no evaporation happens during rain. The interception capacity of the vegetation,  $W_{i,max}$ , is assumed proportional to LAI as in the BATS model [\(Dickinson et al., 1993\)](#page-55-0)

$$
W_{i,max} = w_{i,max} \Lambda \tag{83}
$$

with an area-specific capacity,  $w_{i,max}$ , of 0.1 kg m $^{-2}.$  Because of  $W_i(t) \geq 0$ , the daily evaporation from the skin reservoir is limited by the sum of the rain input and the size of the reservoir:

$$
E_i \Delta t \le (P_i - P_v)\Delta t + W(t - \Delta t)
$$

This is taken into account in Equ. [87](#page-76-0) when computing  $E_i.$ 

### <span id="page-75-4"></span>B.2.4 Evaporation from vegetation

Total evapotranspiration from vegetation  $(E_v = E_t + E_i)$  is primarily driven by the net radiative balance of the vegetation  $(R_{n,v},$  Equ. [153\)](#page-89-0) and is limited by the available amount of soil  $(W_s,$ Equ. [79\)](#page-74-1) and skin water  $(W_i,$  Equ. [80\)](#page-75-0). If the vegetation surfaces are wet  $(W_i>0),$  the canopy conductance is infinite  $(G_c \to \infty)$  so that evaporation follows its maximum rate,  $E_{v,max}$ , with the evaporated water coming from the skin reservoir:

$$
E_v = E_i = E_{v,max} = \frac{sR_{n,v} + \rho_a c_p (e_s(T) - e_a) G_a}{s + \gamma} \qquad (W_i > 0)
$$
\n(84)

Here,  $E_i$  is allowed to assume negative values during dew formation. When the vegetation is dry  $(W_i = 0)$ , evapotranspiration is determined by  $G_c$ , which is the combined conductance of all stomata

within the plant canopy. The transpiration rate is then calculated from the Penman-Monteith formula [\(Monteith, 1965\)](#page-59-0):

<span id="page-76-2"></span>
$$
E_v = E_t = \frac{sR_{n,v} + \rho_a c_p (e_s(T) - e_a) G_a}{s + \gamma (1 + G_a / G_c)} \qquad (W_i = 0)
$$
\n(85)

An additional condition is given by  $E_t \geq 0$ , i.e. transpiration is only allowed from the vegetation to the atmosphere.

Here,  $\gamma$  is the psychrometric constant ( $\approx 65$  Pa K $^{-1}$ ), defined as

<span id="page-76-3"></span>
$$
\gamma = \frac{pc_p}{0.622\lambda}.\tag{86}
$$

 $e_a$  is vapour pressure of air (see Equ. [168\)](#page-92-0),  $e_s$  saturated vapour pressure, and s the strongly temperature dependent slope of the vapour pressure curve,  $\partial e_s(T)/\partial T$  (see Equ. [171,](#page-92-1) for  $rho_a$  see Equ. [47\)](#page-69-0).

The daily integral of the evaporation rate  $E_i$  also depends on the size of the skin reservoir,  $W_i$ , and the rain input:

<span id="page-76-0"></span>
$$
E_i(t)\Delta t = \min\left\{\int\limits_{\text{1 day}} E_{v, max}(t')dt'; \quad W_i(t - \Delta t) + (P_i(t) - P_v(t))\Delta t\right\}
$$
(87)

with a one-day time step  $\Delta t$ . In the model, this and all other daily integrals are approximated by summing up hourly values of the instantaneous rates.

According to Equ. [85,](#page-76-2) transpiration can only happen when the vegetation is dry. To account for this fact when calculating the daily rate  $E_v\Delta t$ , a time average wetness fraction is defined:

$$
\mathcal{F}_i = \frac{E_i(t)\Delta t}{\int_{1}^{t} E_{v,max}(t')dt'}
$$
\n(88)

and daily transpiration is reduced accordingly:

<span id="page-76-1"></span>
$$
E_t(t)\Delta t = (1 - \mathcal{F}_i) \int \frac{sR_{n,v} + \rho_a c_p \Delta eG_a}{s + \gamma (1 + G_a/G_c)} dt
$$
\n(89)

The canopy conductance,  $G_c$ , is computed from Equs. [42](#page-68-0) and [45](#page-69-1) as described in Section [B.1.1.](#page-65-1) The aerodynamic conductance,  $G_a$ , between the canopy and a reference height of 10 m is estimated from vegetation height,  $h_v$  (from Table [11\)](#page-66-0):

$$
G_a = \frac{\kappa u}{\left[\ln\left(\frac{10}{0.1h_v} + 1\right)\right]^2} \tag{90}
$$

<span id="page-77-1"></span>

with  $h_v$  in metres, a roughness length of  $0.1h_v$  and a wind speed, u, 10 m above the canopy. u is set to a uniform value of 2 m/s, and  $\kappa$  is the von Karmann constant (0.41). For temperate broadleaf and coniferous forests  $(h_v = 15 \text{ m})$ , this amounts to a value for  $G_a$  of 0.198 m/s, while for short grass ( $h_v = 0.3$  m, Table [11\)](#page-66-0) it is 0.024 m/s, in good agreement with the average observed values in [Kelliher et al.](#page-58-0) [\(1993\)](#page-58-0).

Further, , and  $\lambda$  the latent heat of evaporation (2.45 MJ kg<sup>-1</sup>at 20°C). Since snow sublimation is also modelled,  $e_s$ , s and  $\lambda$  are calculated differently for temperatures above or below 0°C,  $e_s$  and  $s$  according to Equ. [171,](#page-92-1) and  $\lambda$  (in J kg $^{-1}$ , with  $T$  in  $^o$ C) from

<span id="page-77-3"></span>
$$
\lambda = \begin{cases} 2.501 \times 10^6 - 2.38 \times 10^3 T & \text{for} \quad T > 0^{\circ} \text{C} \\ 2.834 \times 10^6 & \text{for} \quad T < 0^{\circ} \text{C} \end{cases}
$$
(91)

with a slightly temperature dependent evaporation heat [\(Jones, 1983\)](#page-57-0) and a fixed sublimation heat [\(Anderson, 1976\)](#page-54-0).

With Equ. [42,](#page-68-0) the potential transpiration rate is now defined:

<span id="page-77-0"></span>
$$
\lambda E_{t,max} = \frac{sR_{n,v} + \rho_a c_p \Delta eG_a}{s + \gamma (1 + G_a/G_{c,0})}
$$
\n(92)

This value is called "demand" by [Federer](#page-56-0) [\(1979\)](#page-56-0) and is equal to the transpiration rate without water limitation (see above, Equ. [92\)](#page-77-0).

Calculation of the actual canopy conductance,  $G_c$ , and the actual transpiration rate,  $E_t$ , follows a combination of the approaches by [Jarvis](#page-57-1) [\(1976\)](#page-57-1) and [Federer](#page-56-1) [\(1982\)](#page-56-1). There is only one empirical multiplicative factor depending on vapour pressure deficit,  $\Delta e = e_s(T) - e_a$ , and with a functional form proposed by [Lindroth and Halldin](#page-59-1) [\(1986\)](#page-59-1) (see also Section [B.1.1\)](#page-65-1):

<span id="page-77-2"></span>
$$
G_c = G_{c,0} \frac{1}{1 + b_e \Delta e} \tag{93}
$$

A test of this form with measurements by [Turner et al.](#page-62-0) [\(1984\)](#page-62-0) is shown in Table [13.](#page-77-1) A curve described by  $g_s = g_0/(1 + b_e \Delta e)$  with two free parameters is fitted by minimising the root mean squared (r.m.s.) deviation from the measurement. The success of the test is documented by the fact that the deviation is always much smaller than  $q_0$ .

Studies by [Turner et al.](#page-62-0) [\(1984\)](#page-62-0) and [Schulze et al.](#page-61-1) [\(1987\)](#page-61-1) suggest that a signal transmitted by hormones from the roots is responsible for the closing of stomata under water limitation. To account for this effect, another multiplicative factor could be added to Equ. [93,](#page-77-2) as in the Jarvis approach. This would mean that stomata close even under sufficient water supply as a reaction to rising vapour pressure deficit. However, stomata do not react directly to vapour pressure deficit of the surrounding air, but to a rise in the evaporative demand [\(Schulze et al., 1987\)](#page-61-1); as long as the supply of soil water is sufficient, stomata tend to remain open even under high atmospheric drought.

A different approach is therefore chosen here, following Federer's model: The empirical constant  $b_e$  is redefined at each daily integration such that at the time of the highest transpirational demand,  $E_{t,max}$ , assumed at 13:00 hours in the model, the transpiration rate from Equ. [85](#page-76-2) is less or equal to a supply rate,  $S$ . This rate is constant over a day and depends on soil water content and root density. Without detailed knowledge of soil hydrology and root distribution, a reasonable approximation according to [Federer](#page-56-1) [\(1982\)](#page-56-1) is

$$
S = c_w \frac{W_s^{eff}}{W_{s,max}}
$$
 (94)

with values for  $c_w$  in the range of 0.5 to 2.0 mm/hour and an effective soil water content,  $W_s^{eff}$ (Equ. [95\)](#page-78-0). In particular,  $b_e = 0$  if demand,  $E_{t,max}$ , is less than S throughout the day.

Thus, the only remaining free parameter of the stomatal model is the rate  $c_w$ . This is justified by the fact that this parameter represents the root system that is not described explicitly. All other elements of the model are based on general principles of stomatal control or on empirical findings. An empirical approach is chosen in Equ. [93](#page-77-2) instead of a mechanistic description of stomatal response to atmospheric demand [\(Schulze et al., 1987;](#page-61-1) [Friend, 1995\)](#page-56-2), because designing a global model of detailed soil hydraulic processes appears to be unfeasible. Sensitivity tests by [Knorr](#page-58-1) [\(1997\)](#page-58-1) have shown that global carbon and water fluxes are rather insensitive to the choice of  $c_w$ , which are mostly contrained by the available soil water and atmospheric  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  content.

The last point described in this subsection is the dependence of stomatal conductance on soil and air temperature as assumed in the model: On the one hand, the temperature dependence of  $G_c$  is given by the temperature dependence of  $A_{c,0}$  through Equ. [42.](#page-68-0) Also,  $A_{c,0} = 0$  if the daily average of air temperature,  $\bar{T}$ , is zero degrees or less, and thus  $G_c = 0$  and  $E_t = 0$ . On the other hand, if the soil is partly frozen while the air is already warmer than  $0^{\circ}$ C, there is a dependence on soil temperature through the effective plant available soil water fraction,  $f_{soil}^{eff}$  (cf.  $f_{soil}$  Equ. [119\)](#page-84-0)

<span id="page-78-0"></span>
$$
f_{soil}^{eff} = \begin{cases} \max \left\{ f_{soil} \left( 1 - \frac{d_{fr}}{_{dr}} \right) ; 0 \right\} & \text{if } \bar{T} > 0 \text{ and } \bar{T} > \bar{T}_{ds} \\ 0 & \text{if } \bar{T} < 0 \\ f_{soil} & \text{else.} \end{cases} \tag{95}
$$

 $d_r$  is the rooting depth (Table [11\)](#page-66-0),  $\bar{T}_{ds}$  the daily mean soil temperature (subscript "ds" for deep soil) at depth  $d_{ds}$ , and  $d_{fr}$  the frost penetration depth.

To determine the frost depth,  $d_{fr}$ , a linear temperature course is assumed up to the surface.

With this assumption,  $d_{fr}$  can be computed for the first case in Equ. [95:](#page-78-0)

$$
d_{fr} = \frac{d_{ds}\bar{T}}{\bar{T} - \bar{T}_{ds}}
$$
\n(96)

 $\bar{T}_{ds}$  is one of the driving variables, see Section [B.4.](#page-94-0) The depth for which soil temperatures are available varies by driving data set, but should be similar to rooting depth. In the current model implementation we assume  $d_{ds}=1.50$  m.

The following effect is neglected in the model described here: When calculating net radiation of vegetation,  $R_{n,v}$ , or soil,  $R_{n,s}$ , longwave upward radiation after Equ. [156](#page-89-1) is calculated from air instead of skin temperature. For example, the skin temperature of vegetation,  $T_v$ , depends itself on the sensible heat flux  $H_v = R_{n,v} - \lambda E_v$ . To a linear approximation, this can be accounted for by the concept of isothermal conductivity,  $G_i$  (e.g. [Jones, 1983\)](#page-57-0), that has to be added to the surface conductivity. Its value can be calculated from  $G_i = 4\sigma T^4 t_{l,v}/(pc_pM_a)$ , which is 3.5 mm/s at 0°C and 6.0 mm/s at 40°C,  $p = p_0$  and  $t_{l,v} = 1$ . This is an order of magnitude smaller than  $G_a$  for a typical grassland and even two orders of magnitude for coniferous forests [\(Kelliher et al., 1993\)](#page-58-0), so that  $G_i$  can generally be neglect in large-scale studies.

To close the energy balance given by Equ. [123](#page-84-1) and [124,](#page-84-2) the calculation of the sensible heat flux,  $H$ , is also explained:

$$
H = H_v + H_s
$$
  
=  $R_n - G - \lambda E_{tot}$   
=  $R_{n,v} + R_{n,s} - G - \lambda (E_t + E_i + E_s + E_{sn})$  (97)

### <span id="page-79-0"></span>B.2.5 Soil water module

The following description of the soil water balance is taken to a large extent from [Scholze et al.](#page-60-1) [\(2016\)](#page-60-1). Soil evaporative demand is assumed according to equilibrium evapotranspiration calculated using the net radiation of the soil (Equ. [124\)](#page-84-2). Actual soil evaporation and the balance of soil water inputs and outputs follow the 1-layer version of the Variable Infiltration Capacity (VIC-1L) model [\(Wood et al., 1992\)](#page-63-0).

The assumptions made by VIC-1L are as follows:

- The total soil water column that can be stored at a given place within a grid cell until the soil is saturated, denoted i, has some statistical distribution  $f(i)$  between the values 0 and  $i_m$ .
- The present soil water content at some location within the grid cell is either at saturation, or assumes a value  $i_0$  that is uniform for all locations accept those that are saturated, i.e. where  $i_m$  is reached.
- Rain falls uniformly onto the grid cell.

We denote by  $A$  the fraction of the grid cell that is saturated before rainfall begins. The dependence

of A on  $i_0$  can be computed from the statistical distribution  $f(i)$  via:

$$
A(i_0) = \int_0^{i_0} f(i) \, di. \tag{98}
$$

Based on these assumptions, for an infinitesimal rain input  $dP$ , the state variable  $i_0$  increases by exactly the amount dP, unless  $i_0 + dP > i_m$ , in which case  $i_0$  increases to its maximum  $i_m$ . The increase in total soil water content after the infinitesimal rainfall is

<span id="page-80-0"></span>
$$
dW = [1 - A(i_0)]dP,\t\t(99)
$$

because only the unsaturated fraction of the grid cell stores additional water. The saturated fraction A will create surface runoff of the amount  $dP \times A$ . Presuming that this runoff is completely absorbed by the unsaturated fraction of the same grid cell, increases  $A$  by the amount

<span id="page-80-1"></span>
$$
dA = \frac{dA}{di_0}dP = f(i_0) dP.
$$
\n(100)

Integration of Equ. [\(99\)](#page-80-0) yields an expression of the more commonly used state variable total soil water content,  $W_0$ , which can be used to substitute  $i_0$ :

<span id="page-80-2"></span>
$$
W_0(i_0) = i_0 - \int_0^{i_0} A(i) \, di. \tag{101}
$$

In this integration, the soil is filled from fully dry by a series of infinitesimal amounts  $di$  until the amount stored locally in the soil reaches either  $i_0$  or its local saturation level. The soil is filled up in the same way as when adding rain, so that  $dP$  in Equ. [\(100\)](#page-80-1) can be substituted by  $di$ , and the modified equation be integrated from 0 to  $i_0$ . Equ. [\(101\)](#page-80-2) is valid for  $i_0 < i_m$ , and  $i_0$  the total amount of water added. The integral over  $A(i)$  on the r.h.s. of Equ. [\(101\)](#page-80-2) is the amount of water lossed when local parts of the soil become saturated.

Similar to the use of  $W_0(i_0)$  instead of  $i_0$ ,  $i_m$  does not have to be defined explicitly as a model parameter, but can be derived using the definition  $W_c = W_0(i_m)$ , with  $W_c$ , the moisture storage capacity of the soil at the grid-cell scale, used as the primary model parameter.

Using Equ. [\(101\)](#page-80-2), we derive direct runoff  $Q_d$  for a finite amount of rainfall,  $P_s$ , as long as the sum of  $i_0$  and this value is not more than  $i_m$ , considering that  $i_0$  increases to  $i_0 + P_s$ :

$$
Q_d = P_s - W_0(i_0 + P_s) + W_0(i_0) = \int_{i_0}^{i_0 + P_s} A(i) \, di. \tag{102}
$$

Otherwise, the maximum infiltration of the grid cell determines direct runoff:

$$
Q_d = P_s - W_0(i_m) + W_0(i_0) = P_s - W_c + W_0.
$$
\n(103)

VIC-1L uses the following functional form of the cumulative sub-gridscale distribution of infiltration capacity:

<span id="page-80-3"></span>
$$
A(i) = 1 - (1 - i/i_m)^B
$$
 (104)

June 11, 2024 15:27 **DRAFT** DRAGE D&B and TCCAS manual Version 1

With this, we obtain

<span id="page-81-2"></span>
$$
Q_d = P_s - W_c + W_0 + W_c \max\left\{1 - \frac{i_0 + P_s}{i_m}; 0\right\}^{1+B}
$$
 (105)

with

and

$$
i_m = (1 + B)W_c \tag{106}
$$

$$
i_0 = i_m \left[ 1 - \left( 1 - \frac{W_0}{W_c} \right)^{\frac{1}{1+B}} \right].
$$
 (107)

This yields the following expression for infiltration  $(I = P_s - Q_d)$ :

<span id="page-81-0"></span>
$$
I = W_c \left( 1 - \max \left\{ 1 - \frac{i_0 + P_s}{i_m}; 0 \right\}^{1+B} \right) - W_0.
$$
 (108)

The VIC-1L model is applied to  $W_r$ , i.e. the entirety of the plant-available soil moisture, with the following exceptions:

- Soil evaporation is computed similar to VIC-3L [\(Liang et al., 1996\)](#page-58-2), where the saturated fraction of the grid cell,  $A(i_0)$ , evaporates at the potential rate, and the remaining fraction as a function of the surface layer soil moisture. Different to VIC, the surface layer soil moisture of the unsaturated fraction is represented by its average volumetric soil moisture.
- Base flow is computed such that the soil can only drain to  $W_f$  instead of 0.
- There is a further thin surface layer containing  $W_s$  of water, and with a maximum water storage capacity of  $W_{s.c.}$

The base flow equation used by D&B can therefore be written as

<span id="page-81-1"></span>
$$
Q_b = k_b \max\{W_r - W_{r,f}; 0\},\tag{109}
$$

where  $W_r$  is the root-zone soil moisture, and  $W_{r,f}$  its value at field capacity.  $W_{s,c}$  is computed based on the depth of the surface soil layer,  $d_s$ , and volumetric soil moisture at saturation (Table [14\)](#page-83-0) via  $W_{s,c} = d_s \theta_s$ .  $d_s$  is set to 4 cm, but limited (in rare cases) to the depth of the soil to bedrock.

It is further assumed that the infiltration capacity of the surface layer varies spatially following Equ. [\(104\)](#page-80-3), but with B replaced by  $B_s$ , i.e. has a different statistical distribution from the root-zone. However, an important, simplifying assumption is that this variation is statistically independent of the spatial variation of infiltration capacity of the root-zone layer. It is thus assumed that if  $A(i_0)$ is fractional grid cell area where the soil is saturated, the same fraction  $A(i_0)$  of the surface layer is also saturated, but the remaining fraction always has the same statistical distribution, and its average saturated per-area water content is always  $W_{s,c}$ , independent of  $A(i_0)$ .

Soil evaporation,  $E_s$ , is computed such the actual rate is equal to the potential rate times the ratio between actual and saturated surface-layer soil moisture. Different to VIC-3L, this ratio is

based not on the point-wise soil water content, but on the average per-area soil water content of the unsaturated grid cell fraction, i.e.  $W_{s,u} = \frac{W_s-A(i_0)W_{s,c}}{1-A(i_0)}$  $\frac{-A(i_0) W_{s,c}}{1-A(i_0)}$ . This assumption leads to the following simple expression:

<span id="page-82-0"></span>
$$
E_s/E_p = A(i_0) + [1 - A(i_0)] \frac{W_{s,u}}{W_{s,c}} = \frac{W_s}{W_{s,c}}.
$$
\n(110)

where the potential evaporation rate is assumed as  $E_p = E_{eq}$  with the equilibrium evapotranspiration,  $E_{eq}$ , according to [Jarvis and McNaughton](#page-57-2) [\(1986\)](#page-57-2):

<span id="page-82-4"></span>
$$
\lambda E_{eq} = \frac{s(R_n - G)}{s + \gamma} \tag{111}
$$

with s from Equ. [171](#page-92-1) with  $s(T) = \frac{\partial e_s}{\partial T}$  and  $\gamma$  from Equ. [86.](#page-76-3)

Infiltration, I, is first computed for the root-zone layer, which overlaps with the surface layer and is therefore the infiltration for the entire simulated soil water pool. The same concept of variable infiltration capacity is used to determine how much of  $I$  remains in the surface layer, building on the equivalent expression for the root-zone layer (Equ. [\(108\)](#page-81-0)), but where  $P_s$  is replaced by I, B by the specific parameter for the surface layer,  $B_s$ , and the resultant values yields the part of infiltration that remains in the surface layer.

Surface soil moisture is updated to the next time steps following the same procedure as for the root-zone layer, which is executed first to compute infiltration. After that,  $W_s$  is updated to an intermediate value  $W^+_s$  by subtracting soil evaporation (Equ. [\(110\)](#page-82-0)) and a term for drainage to below the surface layer, formulated in a similar way to the base flow:

<span id="page-82-1"></span>
$$
W_s^+ = W_s - E_s - Q_s \tag{112}
$$

with

<span id="page-82-2"></span>
$$
Q_s = k_s \max\{W_s^+ - W_{s,f}; 0\}.
$$
\n(113)

After that, infiltration into the surface layer is calculated based on  $W^+_{s}$ , which is then added to  $W^+_{s}$ to obtain surface soil moisture at the beginning of the following time step:

<span id="page-82-3"></span>
$$
W_s(t + \Delta t) = W_s^+ + I_s = W_{s,c} \left( 1 - \max \left\{ 1 - \frac{i_{s,0}^+ + I}{(1 + B_s)W_{s,c}}; 0 \right\}^{1 + B_s} \right),\tag{114}
$$

with

$$
i_{s,0}^{+} = (1 + B_s)W_{s,c}[1 - (1 - W_s^{+}/W_{s,c})^{1/(1 + B_s)}].
$$
\n(115)

All fluxes, i.e  $P_s$ ,  $Q_d$ ,  $Q_b$ ,  $Q_s$ , are fluxes integrated over the time step of 1 day.

This hydrology scheme has two state variables – surface soil moisture,  $W_s$ , and total or rootzone soil moisture,  $W_r$ , where  $W_s$  is part of  $W_r$  – and the following parameters: volumetric soil moisture at saturation,  $\Theta_s$  and field capacity  $\Theta_f$  differentiated by soil texture class (Table [14,](#page-83-0) the same texture class is assumed for both layers), the base flow parameter  $k_b$ , the surface drainage parameter  $k_s$ , and the shape parameters for the root-zone, B, and for the surface layer,  $B_s$ .

Table 14: Assumed volumetric soil moisture at saturation  $(\Theta_s)$ , field capacity  $(\Theta_f)$  and wilting point  $(\Theta_w)$  differentiated by texture class.

<span id="page-83-0"></span>

	Coarse	Medium/Coarse	Medium	Fine/Medium Fine		Organic
$\Theta$ .	0.410000   0.435000			0.451000 0.420000	0.476000 0.451000	
	$\Theta_f$ 0.193706 0.245704			0.298119 0.303402	0.377204 0.298119	
	$\Theta_{w}$ 0.071982 0.110032		0.149533 0.170485		0.244554 0.149533	

Using the depth of the corresponding layer,  $d_i$  ( $d_s$  for surface,  $d_r$  for root-zone layer),  $W_{c,i}$  and  $W_{f,i}$  of layer i is determined from:

$$
W_{c,i} = \Theta_s d_i,\tag{116}
$$

for the moisture storage capacity, and

$$
W_{f,i} = \Theta_f d_i. \tag{117}
$$

for the field capacity.

 $k<sub>s</sub>$  is simulated from spatially constant base flow drainage rates for 150 mm and 320 mm of  $kb_{150} = 0.095/d$ ay and  $kb_{320} = 0.032/d$ ay taken from [Wood et al.](#page-63-0) [\(1992\)](#page-63-0):

$$
k_s = (kb_{150} - (150. - W_{c,s}) * (kb_{320} - kb_{150})/(320. - 150.)) * 2.1
$$
\n(118)

We used  $k_b = 0.2$ /day, and  $B_s = 10$ , while a spatially-varying  $B$  is provided by [Gao et al.](#page-56-3) [\(2009\)](#page-56-3).

A time step for the entire scheme is executed following the procedure described in [Wood et al.](#page-63-0) [\(1992\)](#page-63-0), first for the root-zone, then for the surface layer:

- 1. Base flow from the entire soil moisture store is computed according to Equ. [\(109\)](#page-81-1).
- 2. Soil evaporation,  $E_s$ , is computed from Equ. [\(110\)](#page-82-0), based on  $W_s$  of the previous time step.
- 3. From  $W_r$ , base flow, soil evaporation and transpiration are subtracted.
- 4. Direct runoff,  $Q_d$ , is computed from Equ. [\(105\)](#page-81-2) using the intermediate value of  $W_r$  from the previous sub-step replacing  $W_0$ . The value of  $P_{tot}$  (Equ. [78\)](#page-74-0) is computed as the sum of non-intercepted precipitation, throughfall from the canopy water pool, and snow melt.
- 5. The value of  $W_r$  from the intermediate step is updated by adding  $P_s$  and subtracting  $Q_d$  to obtain the value of the surface soil moisture at the end of the time step.
- 6. The value of  $W_s$  from the previous step is updated to an the intermediate value  $W_s^+$  (Equ. [\(112\)](#page-82-1)) by subtracting soil evaporation,  $E_s$ , and drainage from the surface layer  $(Q_s,$  Equ. [\(113\)](#page-82-2)).
- 7. The part of infiltration remaining in the surface layer is is added to  $W^+_{s}$  to obtain the surface soil moisture at the next time step (Equ. [\(114\)](#page-82-3)).

The information used by the model's photosynthesis module is the ratio between the total plantavailable soil moisture and its value at field capacity,  $W_{r,f}$ , where plant-available soil moisture equals

actual root-zone soil moisture,  $W_r$  minus root-zone soil moisture at wilting point,  $W_{rw}$ . This value is cut off at both 0 and 1 according to:

<span id="page-84-0"></span>
$$
f_{soil} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if} \quad W_r \le W_{r,w} \\ \frac{W_r - W_{r,w}}{W_{r,f} - W_{r,w}} & \text{if} \quad W_{r,w} < W_r < W_{r,f} \\ 1 & \text{if} \quad W_r \ge W_{r,f} \end{cases} \tag{119}
$$

The wilting point soil moisture content is computed using  $\Theta_w$  from Table [14:](#page-83-0)

$$
W_{w,r} = \Theta_w d_r. \tag{120}
$$

In order to simulate the effect of irrigation on cropland soil water balance, we applied a lower threshold for  $W_r$  according to of 0.3 to

$$
W_r \ge 0.3(W_{r,f} - W_{r,w}) + W_{r,w}.\tag{121}
$$

Similarly, for surface layer soil moisture,  $W_s$  we applied a threshold of 30% of the field capacity:

$$
W_s \ge 0.3 W_{s,f}.\tag{122}
$$

### B.2.6 Energy balance

Through the energy balance (Equ. [123](#page-84-1) and [124\)](#page-84-2), surface temperature and thereby evaporation and transpiration rates are highly dependent upon net radiation,  $R_n$ . Consequently, it is in the interest of the plant to absorb sunlight as effectively as possible, while at the same time keeping the absorbed radiative energy,  $R_n$ , as small as possible. In fact, plants absorb photosynthetically active light to almost 90% while they reflect or scatter around 90% of the light in the near infrared, which is of no value for photosynthesis. Besides this, through "clumping" and keeping leaves in an erect position, vegetation can reduce light absorption during midday, while increasing it in the morning and the evening when atmospheric demand for transpiration is lowest. To simulate such effects, net radiation and with it the entire energy balance is split into a vegetation,  $R_{n,v}$ , and a soil part,  $R_{n,s}$ . The energy balance for both parts can be written as:

<span id="page-84-1"></span>
$$
R_{n,v} = H_v + \lambda (E_t + E_i) \tag{123}
$$

and

<span id="page-84-2"></span>
$$
R_{n,s} - G = H_s + \lambda (E_s + E_{sn})
$$
\n
$$
(124)
$$

where H is the sensible heat flux and  $\lambda$  the latent heat of evaporation (see Equ. [91\)](#page-77-3). There are two evaporation fluxes controlled by  $R_{n,v}$  (transpiration and skin reservoir evaporation) and two controlled by  $R_{n,s}$  (soil and snow evaporation), while both subsystems are linked by a common reservoir,  $W_s$ , for the two dominant fluxes,  $E_t$  and  $E_s$ .

### <span id="page-85-2"></span>B.2.7 Snow module

The effect of snowfall on the energy and water balance is twofold: On the one hand, snow increases the maximum amount of water that can be stored at the land surfaces; on the other hand, snow, and fresh snow in particular, has a very low albedo, decreasing net radiation at the surface (Equ. [152\)](#page-88-1) and thereby evaporation (Equ. [130\)](#page-85-3). Since snow height enters the calculation of the snow albedo, a simple formulation is included for this variable.

The snow balance is described by the following equation:

<span id="page-85-0"></span>
$$
W_{sn}(t) - W_{sn}(t - \Delta t) = (P_{sn}(t) - S_m(t) - E_{sn}(t))\Delta t
$$
\n(125)

The snowfall rate,  $P_{sn}$ , depends on the daily average temperature,  $\bar{T}$ , and the precipitation rate,  $P_{tot}$  [\(Wigmosta et al., 1994\)](#page-62-1):

<span id="page-85-1"></span>
$$
P_{sn} = \begin{cases} P_{tot} & \text{for } \bar{T} \leq -1.1^{\circ}\text{C} \\ \frac{3.3 - \bar{T}}{4.4} P_{tot} & \text{for } -1.1^{\circ}\text{C} < \bar{T} < 3.3^{\circ}\text{C} \\ 0 & \text{for } 3.3^{\circ}\text{C} \leq \bar{T} \end{cases}
$$
(126)

For snow melt, a simple function of temperature is chosen (in kg m<sup>-2</sup>day<sup>-1</sup> Hagemann and Dümenil, [1996\)](#page-56-4):

<span id="page-85-4"></span>
$$
S_m = 3.22 \max\{\bar{T}; 0\} \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{day}^{-1}
$$
 (127)

with T in <sup>o</sup>C. Since  $W_{sn}(t)$  in Equ. [125](#page-85-0) is not allowed to assume negative values, the maximum for  $S_m$  is given by

<span id="page-85-5"></span>
$$
S_m(t)\Delta t \le W_{sn}(t - \Delta t) + (P_{sn}(t) - E_{sn}(t))\Delta t \tag{128}
$$

Equilibrium evaporation (cf. Equ. [111\)](#page-82-4) is taken for the potential snow evaporation rate,  $E_{sn,max}$ , derived from the energy input to the ground,  $R_{n,s} - G$  (Equs. [154](#page-89-2) and [155,](#page-89-3) cf. Equ. [124\)](#page-84-2), with the latent heat of sublimation ( $\lambda$ , Equ. [91\)](#page-77-3) and the slope of the vapour pressure curve above ice (s, see Equ. [171,](#page-92-1) for  $\gamma$  see Equ. [86\)](#page-76-3):

<span id="page-85-6"></span>
$$
\lambda E_{sn,max} = \frac{s(R_{n,s} - G)}{s + \gamma} \tag{129}
$$

 $E_{sn,max}$  is thus determined primarily by net radiation,  $R_{n,s}$ , and depends to a large extent on snow albedo. The daily snow evaporation cannot exceed the amount of snow on the ground plus the snowfall:

<span id="page-85-3"></span>
$$
E_{sn}(t)\Delta t = \min\{E_{sn,max}(t)\Delta t; \quad W_{sn}(t-\Delta t) + P_{sn}(t)\Delta t\}
$$
\n(130)

with a time step  $\Delta t$  of one day. We assume snow sublimation at the equilibrium rate, which results from the Penman-Monteith equation (Equ. [85\)](#page-76-2) in the limit  $G_a \rightarrow 0$ .

When calculating the snow balance, the snowfall rate is first determined  $(P_{sn}$ , Equ. [126\)](#page-85-1), then the evaporation rate  $E_{sn}$  from Equ. [130.](#page-85-3) Once these two variables are known, the limitation of the rate of snow melt,  $S_m$  (Equ. [127\)](#page-85-4), can be determined from the relationship [128.](#page-85-5) Finally, the updated value for the snow pool size,  $W_{sn}$ , is calculated from Equ. [125.](#page-85-0)

Snow height,  $h_{sn}$ , is calculated from old-snow,  $\xi_{sn}$ , and fresh-snow density,  $\xi^n_{sn}$ :

June 11, 2024 15:27 **DRAFT** DRAGE D&B and TCCAS manual Version 1

<span id="page-86-0"></span>
$$
h_{sn} = \frac{max\{W_{sn} - P_{sn} + E_{sn}, 0\}}{\xi_{sn}} + \frac{max\{P_{sn} - E_{sn}, 0\}}{\xi_{sn}}
$$
(131)

with  $\xi_{sn}^n$  in kg m $^{-3}$  [\(Loth and Graf, 1996\)](#page-59-2):

<span id="page-86-1"></span>
$$
\xi_{sn}^{n} = \begin{cases}\n30 & \text{for } \bar{T} \le -22.5^{\circ}\text{C} \\
10 + \frac{8}{3}(\bar{T} + 30) & \text{for } -22.5^{\circ}\text{C} < \bar{T} \le -15^{\circ}\text{C} \\
50 + 1.7(\bar{T} + 15)^{1.5} & \text{for } \bar{T} > -15^{\circ}\text{C}\n\end{cases}
$$
\n(132)

and daily average temperature,  $\bar{T}$ , in <sup>o</sup>C.

Assuming vertically uniform density, i.e.

$$
\xi_{sn}(t - \Delta t) = \frac{W_{sn}(t - \Delta t)}{h_{sn}(t - \Delta t)}
$$
\n(133)

density of old snow is computed with a compaction rate by [Anderson](#page-54-0) [\(1976\)](#page-54-0) as follows:

$$
\xi_{sn}(t) = \xi_{sn}(t - \Delta t) \left( 1 + \frac{g}{\eta_c^0} \exp\left[ -a_c \xi_{sn}(t - \Delta t) + b_c T \right] \frac{W_{sn}(t - \Delta t) \Delta t}{2} \right) \tag{134}
$$

The constants are set according to the recommendations of [Anderson](#page-54-0) [\(1976\)](#page-54-0):  $\eta_c^0 = 3.7{\times}10^7~$  kg  $\rm m^{-1}$  s $^{-1}$ ,  $a_c=2.1\times10^{-2}$ m  $^3$  kg $^{-1}$  and  $b_c=8\times10^{-2}$  K $^{-1}$ . In Equ. [131](#page-86-0) a floor value of  $10^{-9}$  kg m $^{-3}$ is used for the densities of old and new snow.

### B.2.8 Radiation balance

The radiative balance at the surface is computed in five steps:

- 1. Actual shortwave (solar) incoming radiation,  $R_{sw}$  is used as input.
- 2. Solar elevation, earth-sun distance, solar flux and height above sea level are computed from geographical position, Julian day and hour (UTC) and taken as input to the computation of potential solar incoming radiation in both the photosynthetically active (PAR) and near-infrared (NIR) domains.
- 3. Potential NIR  $(R^{pot}_{NIR})$  and photosynthetically active incoming radiation  $(R^{pot}_{PAR})$  in combination with actual solar incoming radiation are used to calculate actual incoming PAR,  $R_{PAR}$ .
- 4. The ratio  $r_{sw}$  of potential to actual incoming solar radiation is used to calculate the direct fraction of incoming PAR, as opposed to diffuse incoming PAR clouds and atmospheric scattering.
- 5. The radiative balance at both vegetated and bare-soil surfaces are calculated using incoming shortwave radiation  $(R_{sw})$ , LAI  $(\Lambda)$ , fractional cover  $(f_c)$  and air temperature  $(T)$ .

The second step begins with the computation of the inverse squared earth-sun distance in astronomical units,  $r_{\odot}^{-2}$  (ie. in units of the average distance) according to [Paltridge and Platt](#page-60-2) [\(1976\)](#page-60-2):

$$
r_{\odot}^{-2} = 1.00011 + 0.034221 \cos(\alpha_0) + \dots
$$
  
0.0128 sin( $\alpha_0$ )0.000719 cos(2 $\alpha_0$ ) + ...  
0.000077 sin(2 $\alpha_0$ ) (135)

with  $\alpha_0 = 2\pi(d-1)/365$  and the Julian day d (1: January 1st; 365: December 31st). Solar elevation,  $\mu$ , defined as the cosine of the angle between zenith and the position of the sun (i.e.  $\mu = 1$  if the sun stands at zenith and  $\mu = 0$  if the sun is at the horizon), is computed in the following way:

<span id="page-87-1"></span>
$$
\mu = \sin(\phi)\sin(\delta) - \cos(\phi)\cos(\delta)\cos(t\pi/12) \tag{136}
$$

 $\phi$  is the latitude,  $\delta = -23.4(\pi/180) \cos(2\pi (d+10)/365)$  is the position of the sun within the ecliptic, and  $t$  local solar time in hours. The solar flux above the atmosphere through a plane parallel to the earth's surface,  $R_{OA}$ , is given by

$$
R_{OA} = S_0 r_{\odot}^{-2} \mu \tag{137}
$$

with the solar constant  $S_0=1360$   $\mathsf{Wm}^2.$  If  $\mu < 10^{-3},$  incoming radiation is neglected and treated as zero.

In the second step, PAR at the surface,  $R_{PAR}$ , is first calculated following [Weiss and Norman](#page-62-2) [\(1985\)](#page-62-2):

<span id="page-87-0"></span>
$$
R_{PAR} = R_{sw} \frac{R_{PAR}^{pot}}{R_{PAR}^{pot} + R_{NIR}^{pot}}
$$
\n
$$
\tag{138}
$$

with  $R_{sw}$  incoming shortwave radiation (a driving variable). Potential PAR is computed as

$$
R_{PAR}^{pot} = t_{PAR} S_{0,PAR} r_{\odot}^{-2} \mu \tag{139}
$$

with the total PAR transmittance

$$
t_{PAR} = 0.4 + (1 - 0.4\mu)t_{PAR,D}
$$
\n(140)

and the PAR transmittance for direct radiation under clear skies

$$
t_{PAR,D} = \exp\left(\frac{0.185}{\mu} \frac{p}{p_0}\right).
$$
 (141)

The transmittance for diffuse incoming PAR is

$$
t_{PAR,d} = t_{PAR} - t_{PAR,D} = 0.4 - 0.4\mu t_{PAR,D}.
$$
\n(142)

Potential near infrared radiation (NIR) is computed as

$$
R_{NIR}^{pot} = t_{NIR} S_{0,NIR} r_{\odot}^{-2} \mu \tag{143}
$$

with the total NIR transmittance

$$
t_{NIR} = t_{NIR,D} + 0.6 \left( 1 - t_{NIR,D}\mu - \frac{w_{NIR}}{S_{0,NIR}} \right), \tag{144}
$$

and the direction NIR transmittance

$$
t_{NIR,D} = \exp\left(-\frac{0.06}{\mu} \frac{p}{p_0}\right) - \frac{w_{NIR}}{S_{0,NIR}}
$$
(145)

Diffuse NIR transmittance is again defined as the remainder:

$$
t_{NIR,d} = t_{NIR} - t_{NIR,D},\tag{146}
$$

and  $w_{NIR}$  is the water absorption in the NIR for 10 mm of precipitable water:

$$
w_{NIR} = S_0 \times 10^{-1.1950 + 0.4459 \log_{10}(1/\mu) - 0.0345 [\log_{10}(1/\mu)]^2}, \tag{147}
$$

where  $S_0 = S_{0,PAR} + S_{0,NIR}$ .  $w_{NIR}$  is further limited by

$$
w_{NIR} \leq S_{0,NIR} \exp\left(-\frac{0.06 \ p}{\mu \ p_0}\right). \tag{148}
$$

The fraction of direct radiation in PAR,  $d_{PAR}$ , is also calculated according to [Weiss and Norman](#page-62-2) [\(1985\)](#page-62-2):

<span id="page-88-0"></span>
$$
d_{PAR} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } r_{sw} < 0.2\\ \left(1 - \left(\frac{0.9 - r_{sw}}{0.7}\right)^{2/3}\right) \frac{t_{PAR,D}}{t_{PAR}} & \text{for } 0.2 < r_{sw} < 0.9\\ 1 & \text{for } r_{sw} > 0.9 \end{cases},
$$
(149)

where

<span id="page-88-2"></span>
$$
r_{sw} = \frac{R_{sw}}{R_{PAR}^{pot} + R_{NIR}^{pot}}
$$
\n
$$
\tag{150}
$$

is the ratio of actual to potential incoming shortwave radiation.

Further, we have p, the surface air pressure and  $p_0 = 1.01325 \times 10^5$  Pa, the reference surface air pressure. p is computed from elevation, h, in m and daily mean temperature,  $\bar{T}$ , in K with the lapse rate of the standard atmosphere,  $\mathcal{L}$  (6 × 10<sup>-3</sup> K/m, [Houghton, 1986\)](#page-57-3):

<span id="page-88-3"></span>
$$
p = p_0 \left(\frac{1}{1 + hl/\overline{T}}\right)^{gM_a/(R\mathcal{L})} \tag{151}
$$

with the standard surface gravity,  $g$   $(9.81\,$  m s $^{-1})$ , and  $M_a$ , the molar mass of dry air  $(28.964\, \times$  $10^{-3}$  kg/mol).

The final step consists of calculating the radiative balance at the surface:

<span id="page-88-1"></span>
$$
R_n = R_{L\downarrow} - R_{L\uparrow} + (1 - \rho_S)R_{sw} \tag{152}
$$

where  $\rho_S$  stands for surface albedo,  $R_{L\downarrow}$  for longwave thermal radiation from the atmosphere to the surface and  $R_{L\uparrow}$  for long wave radiation back from the surface. As explained above, net radiation is divided into a vegetation and a soil part  $(R_n = R_{n,v} + R_{n,s})$ :

<span id="page-89-0"></span>
$$
R_{n,v} = (1 - t_{l,v})(R_{L\downarrow} - R_{L\uparrow} - G) + a_v R_{sw}
$$
\n(153)

and

<span id="page-89-2"></span>
$$
R_{n,s} = t_{l,v}(R_{L\downarrow} - R_{L\uparrow}) + (1 - t_{l,v})G + a_s R_{sw}
$$
\n(154)

 $t_{l,v}$  is the longwave (thermal) transmissivity of vegetation,  $a_v$  and  $a_s$  the shortwave (solar) effective absorptivity of vegetation and soil, respectively (see Equ. [164\)](#page-90-0), and  $G$  the soil heat flux.  $G$  must be subtracted from  $R_{n,s}$  to obtain the total available energy for evapotranspiration and latent heat loss from the soil (see Equ. [124\)](#page-84-2). According to [Verma et al.](#page-62-3) [\(1986\)](#page-62-3),  $G$  is assumed to be a constant fraction of net radiation (cf. also [Rosenberg, 1974,](#page-60-3) p. 179ff):

<span id="page-89-3"></span>
$$
G = 0.036R_n \tag{155}
$$

It is assumed that the fraction  $(1-t_{l,v})$  of the soil heat flux is equal to the thermal radiation from the vegetation to the soil, so that this amount enters the radiative balances of both vegetation and soil.

Thermal upward radiation from the surface,  $R_{L\uparrow}$ , is computed from air temperature with a single value for surface emissivity,  $\varepsilon_O$ , of 0.97 (average for land surfaces, [Brutsaert, 1982,](#page-55-1) p. 137):

<span id="page-89-1"></span>
$$
R_{L\uparrow} = \varepsilon_O \sigma T_K^4 \tag{156}
$$

with the Stefan-Boltzmann constant  $\sigma$   $(5.6703{\times}10^{-8}$   $\mathsf{W} \mathsf{m}^{-2} \mathsf{K}^{-4})$  an the air temperature in Kelvin  $(T_K = T + 273.16)$ , where T is air temperature in degrees Celsius.

Downward thermal radiation,  $R_{L\downarrow}$ , is computed with a temperature and humidity dependent emissivity of the cloudless atmosphere,  $\varepsilon_A$ , and a correction term depending on cloudiness,  $r_{\varepsilon A}$ :

$$
R_{L\downarrow} = \varepsilon_A r_{\varepsilon A} \sigma T_K^4 \tag{157}
$$

with

$$
\varepsilon_A = \varepsilon_{A0} \left( \frac{e_a}{T_K} \right)^{\frac{1}{7}}
$$
\n(158)

according to [Brutsaert](#page-55-1) [\(1982,](#page-55-1) p. 139), where  $e_a$  is given in Pa and  $T_K$  in K, with a standard value for  $\varepsilon_{A0}$  of 0.64, and an average correction from [Bolz](#page-55-2) [\(1949\)](#page-55-2),

$$
r_{\varepsilon A} = 1 + 0.22 n_c^2 \tag{159}
$$

Here, cloud fraction,  $n_c$ , is estimated from  $r_{sw}$  (Equ. [150\)](#page-88-2) following

$$
n_c = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } r_{sw} < 0.5\\ (0.9 - r_{sw})/0.4 & \text{for } 0.5 < r_{sw} < 0.9\\ 0 & \text{for } r_{sw} > 0.9 \end{cases}
$$
(160)

According to [Brutsaert,](#page-55-1) the standard value for  $\varepsilon_{A0}$  is 0.64. Since  $r_{sw}$  is unknown during nighttime, we use the average of the ratio of actual to potential incoming solar radiation during the preceding day. In this particular case, we define daytime as those hours, where the sun zenith angle is less than 85 degrees. This substitution is applied for all times steps where the sun zenith angle is greater than 85 degrees.

Since thermal radiation is computed from air temperature,  $T$ , the effect of warming or cooling of both vegetation and soil surfaces is neglected. This effect can be accounted for by the concept of isothermal conductivity, which is discussed below (Section [B.2.4\)](#page-75-4).

Transmission of radiation through the vegetation canopy is computed from the two-flux equation with zero single-scattering albedo ( $\omega = 0$ , cf. Section [B.1.3\)](#page-72-1), which is equivalent to Beer's Law of radiation absorption:

$$
t_{l,v} = f_c \exp(-\bar{\mu}\Lambda/f_c) + (1 - f_c) \tag{161}
$$

with  $\bar{\mu} = 1$  and  $f_c$  the fractional vegetation cover. In order to insure radiative balance between vegetation and soil, it is further assumed that the fraction  $(1-t_{l,v})$  of the soil heat flux comes from the net radiation of the vegetation canopy (see above).

Absorptivity of vegetation and soil,  $a_v$  and  $a_s$ , depends in a complex fashion on structure and distribution of the leaves, and on the optical properties of leaves and the soil. Here, both values are estimated on the basis of  $f_{PAR}$ , the fraction of absorbed PAR computed in the photosynthesis part of the model (see Equ. [74\)](#page-73-2):

$$
a_s = (1 - \rho_s) - (1 - \rho_s - a_{s,0})f_{PAR}
$$
\n(162)

where  $a_{s,0} = 0.05$  is the fraction absorbed by the soil under a closed canopy, and

$$
a_v = (1 - \rho_v - a_{s,0}) f_{PAR} \tag{163}
$$

 $\rho_v$  is the albedo of dense vegetation (standard value: 0.15, Brutsaert 1982, p. 136). With these two equations, surface albedo,  $\rho_S$ , can be expressed as

<span id="page-90-0"></span>
$$
\rho_S = 1 - a_v - a_s = \rho_s + (\rho_v b - \rho_s) f_{PAR} \tag{164}
$$

The given value for  $a_{s,0}$  has been found with the two-flux equations for PAR and NIR at medium soil brightness (0.15 and 0.25) and a LAI of 3 (cf. Section [B.1.3\)](#page-72-1). Since the required accuracy for net radiation is lower than for absorption of PAR for photosynthesis calculations, this mode of estimate should be sufficient for the complete range of  $f_{PAR}$ . The necessity to solve the two-flux equations for both PAR and NIR is thus avoided.

The value for the soil albedo,  $\rho_s$ , depends either on soil water content of the surface layer,  $W_s$ , and the brightness class of the soil, or, in the presence of snow  $(h_{sn}>0$ , Equ. [131\)](#page-86-0), on snow albedo,  $\rho_{sn}$ . In the absence of snow, we have

$$
\rho_s = x_w \rho_{s,w} + (1 - x_w) \rho_{s,d} \tag{165}
$$

where  $x_w$  reflects the wetting status of the surface soil layer. If surface-layer water content is at field capacity or above (i.e.  $W_s \geq W_{s,f}$ ), the wet-soil value is assumed  $(x_w = 1)$ . If the surface soil

<span id="page-91-0"></span>Table 15: Values for the soil albedo of three different brightness classes according to [Wilson and Henderson-Sellers](#page-63-1) [\(1985\)](#page-63-1), for both wet  $(\rho_{s,w})$  and dry  $(\rho_{s,d})$  soils.



has dried out completely, the value for dry soils is taken  $(x_w = 0)$ , while for intermediate values of the soil water content, the albedo is linearly interpolated between the two values, with weight

$$
x_w = \min\{W_s/W_{s,f}, 1\}.
$$
\n(166)

The albedo for wet and dry soils,  $\rho_{s,w}$  and  $\rho_{s,d}$ , listed in Table [15,](#page-91-0) is determined by the brightness classification by [Wilson and Henderson-Sellers](#page-63-1) [\(1985\)](#page-63-1), which is part of the input data (see Section [B.4.](#page-94-0)

If snow is present  $(h_{sn} > 0)$ ,  $\rho_s$  follows the snow albedo,  $\rho_{sn}$ , calculated as in the snow model by [Loth and Graf](#page-59-2) [\(1996\)](#page-59-2). In this case, the equation is modified according to:

$$
\rho_s = (1 - f_{sn}) \left( x_w \rho_{s,w} + (1 - x_w) \rho_{s,d} \right) + f_{sn} * \rho_{sn} \tag{167}
$$

with  $f_{sn} = \min(h_{sn}/0.1, 1)$ , the snow albedo  $\rho_{sn}$ , and snow height  $h_{sn}$ .

 $\rho_{sn}$  is a state variable set to the value of wet soil,  $\rho_{s,w}$ , at the start of a model run. Each time there is snowfall (see Section [B.2.7\)](#page-85-2),  $\rho_{sn}$  is increased by  $P_{sn}/\xi^n_{sn}\times 10$  m $^{-1}$  after a time step of one day, where  $P_{sn}$  is daily snowfall in kg m $^{-2}$  and  $\xi^n_{sn}$  the density of fresh snow from Equ. [132.](#page-86-1)  $\rho_{sn}$  is allowed to reach a maximum of 0.8, the albedo of fresh snow. In order to simulate the decrease in snow albedo during aging, its value is decreased after each one-day time step, at a rate depending on daily average temperature, T. If  $T < 0$ , a constant rate of 0.006 per day is assumed, while for temperatures above freezing the decrease in albedo is also affected by melting and thus depends on snow height,  $h_{sn}$ . If  $h_{sn}$  lies above a critical value of 25 cm, daily decrease is  $0.107 - 0.214 \rho_{sn}$ , while below that value the daily decrease is 0.071. In addition, it is assured that  $\rho_{sn}$  does not fall below the value of the snow-free soil.

### B.2.9 Atmospheric humidity

Since no reliable data of near-surface air humidity exist for purposes of global modelling, this quantity has to be estimated. In such cases (e.g. [Running et al., 1987\)](#page-60-4) it is often assumed that the daily mean of the vapour pressure is equal to the saturation vapour pressure at the daily minimum temperature. [Friend](#page-56-5) [\(1998\)](#page-56-5) has investigated this assumption with climate data by Müller [\(1982\)](#page-59-3) and has found a good agreement for Europe and North America. For weather stations in arid regions, however, agreement is much less satisfactory, resulting in an overall correlation coefficient of  $r^2=0.87$  for 805 stations. An overestimate of the vapour pressure occurs, when the air is not saturated at the minimum temperature,  $T_{min}$ , as under severe drought [\(Running et al., 1987\)](#page-60-4), and an underestimate,

when the vapour pressure rises during the day because of evapotranspiration [\(Rosenberg, 1974,](#page-60-3) p. 132ff).

In order to account for such findings, the daily course of the vapour pressure,  $e_a(t)$ , is calculated from instantaneous saturation vapour pressure,  $e_s(T)$ , saturation vapour pressure at sunrise,  $e_s(T_{min})$ , and the ratio  $f_e$  of daily mean evapotranspiration and daily mean evaporative demand. Variation of the dependence is achieved through the parameters  $h_0$  (relative humidity at sunrise, when  $T = T_{min}$ , and total drought, i.e.  $f_e = 0$ ) and  $\tilde{h}$  (daily amplitude of the vapour pressure under moist conditions, i.e.  $f_e = 1$ , as a fraction of the amplitude at constant saturation):

<span id="page-92-0"></span>
$$
e_a = e_{a0} + f_e \hat{h} \left( e_s(T) - e_{a0} \right) \tag{168}
$$

where

$$
e_{a0} = (h_0 + (1 - h_0)f_e) e_s(T_{min})
$$
\n(169)

and

$$
f_e(t) = \frac{E_{tot}(t - \Delta t)}{E_{t,max}(t - \Delta t) + E_{s,max}(t - \Delta t)}
$$
(170)

 $f_e$  is defined as the ratio of actual evapotranspiration (Equ. [77\)](#page-74-2) to potential evapotranspiration from vegetation (Equ. [92\)](#page-77-0) and soil (Equ. [129\)](#page-85-6). For the computation of  $e_a$ , the value of the preceding time step  $\Delta t$  of one day is taken. The saturation vapour pressure over water or ice,  $e_s(T)$ , is calculated from [Murray](#page-59-4) [\(1967\)](#page-59-4):

<span id="page-92-1"></span>
$$
e_s(T) = \begin{cases} 610.78 \exp(17.269T/(237.3 + T)) & \text{for} \quad T > 0\\ 610.78 \exp(22.33T/(271.15 + T)) & \text{for} \quad T < 0 \end{cases}
$$
(171)

 $e_s$  is given in units of Pa and T in  ${}^o \mathsf{C}$ .

Instead of a dependence on actual evapotranspiration, [Friend](#page-56-5) [\(1998\)](#page-56-5) has chosen a formulation for the daily mean vapour pressure depending on precipitation rate and daily minimum temperature. The formulation uses separate regression constants for 704 weather stations. The parameters  $h_0$ and  $h$  area therefore set such that the results with the parametrisation of this model agree with the formulations found by [Friend](#page-56-5) [\(1998\)](#page-56-5), i.e.  $\overline{e_a} = (a + bP)e_s(T_{min})$ .

### B.3 Carbon Allocation and Cycling

The overall driver of the carbon cycling module is  $F^t_{NPP}$ , the NPP flux into the system at time  $t$ , which is partitioned into fraction described by factor  $f_i$ , where  $i$  is the corresponding pool.

### B.3.1 Leaf dynamics and phenology

Leaf dynamics is controlled by the leaf onset function  $\Phi_{onset}$ , which determines flows from the labile to the leaf carbon pool, according to:

$$
C_{lab}^{t+1} = (1 - \Phi_{onset}(t, d_{onset}, c_{onset})) C_{lab}^t + f_{lab} F_{NPP}^t
$$
\n(172)

Changes in the labile pool depend on a fractional input from NPP and losses determined during the period of leaf flushing defined by parameters for the day of leaf onset  $(d_{onset})$  and period of labile release  $(c_{\text{const}})$ .

$$
\Phi_{onset}(t, d_{onset}, c_{ronset}) = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{\pi}} \cdot \left(\frac{6.9088}{c_{ronset}}\right) \cdot e^{-(sin(\frac{t-d_{onset} - 0.6425C_{ronset}}{s}) \cdot \frac{\sqrt{2s}}{c_{ronset}})^2}
$$
(173)

where  $s = 365.25/\pi$ . For more details on the phenology equations see [Bloom and Williams](#page-55-3) [\(2015\)](#page-55-3) Appendix A.

The dynamics of leaf area are determined in D&B from the change in leaf mass  $(C_{fol})$ . Leaf mass change is a dynamic outcome of allocation to leaves from the labile C pool, causing bud burst, direct allocation from a fraction of current NPP, and timed losses from leaf senescence using the leaf fall function  $\Phi_{fall}$ .

$$
C_{fol}^{t+1} = (1 - \Phi_{fall}(t, d_{fall}, c_{rfall}, c_{lf})) C_{fol}^t + \Phi_{onset}(t, d_{onset}, c_{ronset})) C_{lab}^t + f_{fol} F_{NPP}^t \tag{174}
$$

Losses from the foliar pool are linked to specific periods in the annual cycle through parameters for the day of leaf fall  $(d_{fall})$  and period of labile release  $(c_{rfall})$ :

$$
\Phi_{fall}(t, d_{fall}, c_{rfall}, c_{lf}) = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{\pi}} \cdot \left( \frac{-\log(1 - c_{lf})}{c_{rfall}} \right) \cdot e^{-(\sin(\frac{t - c_{rfall} + \psi_f}{s}) \cdot \frac{\sqrt{2s}}{c_{rfall}})^2}
$$
(175)

 $c_{lf}$  is the annual leaf loss fraction, related to leaf life span.  $\psi_f$  is a fixed offset term (see Bloom and Williams (2015) Appendix A.).

Leaf area index is determined from foliar C and a parameter for leaf mass per area in C units  $(c_{LMA}, gCm^{-2}$  leaf area)

$$
LAI^t = C_{fol}^t / c_{LMA} \tag{176}
$$

### B.3.2 Plant and soil carbon turnover

Dynamics of the fine root (fr) and wood pools (wd) are similarly determined by allocation of NPP and by first order turnover:

$$
C_{fr}^{t+1} = (1 - \theta_{fr})C_{fr}^t + f_{fr}F_{NPP}^t \tag{177}
$$

$$
C_{wd}^{t+1} = (1 - \theta_{wd})C_{wd}^t + f_{wd}F_{NPP}^t
$$
\n(178)

Allocation to wood  $(f_{wd})$  is determined by difference once allocation to labile, foliage and fine roots are complete.

Litter turnover is driven by both mineralisation to  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  and conversion to SOM by decomposition:

$$
C_{lit}^{t+1} = (\Phi_{fall}(t, d_{fall}, c_{rfall}, c_{lf})) C_{fol}^t + \theta_{fr} C_{fr}^t + (1 - (\theta_{lit} + \theta_{decomp}) e^{\Theta T^t}) C_{lit}^t
$$
(179)

where  $T^t$  is air temperature at time  $t.$  Litter fall from the foliar and fine root C pools are input to the litter pool, which has a faster turnover than the SOM pool. The litter pool has strongly periodic inputs linked to leaf senescence plus a continuous input from fine root mortality.

Dynamics of SOM are determined by inputs from turnover of the woody and litter pools, and by mineralisation linked to air temperature:

$$
C_{SOM}^{t+1} = (1 - \theta_{SOM} e^{\Theta T^t}) C_{SOM}^t + \theta_{wd} C_{wd}^t + \theta_{decomp} e^{\Theta T^t} C_{lit}^t
$$
\n(180)

Total ecosystem respiration defined as the sum of autotrophic respiration,  $R_a$ , using inputs from Equ. [56,](#page-71-0) and heterotrophic respiration,  $R<sub>h</sub>$ , which depends on the rate of mineralisation of dead organic matter, litter and soil organic material:

$$
R_{reco}^t = R_A^t + R_H^t \tag{181}
$$

with

$$
R_H^t = (\theta_{lit} C_{lit}^t + \theta_{SOM} C_{SOM}^t) e^{\Theta T^t}.
$$
\n(182)

### B.3.3 Parameter priors

Prior values for the PFT specific parameters related to carbon allocation and cycling were created using the CARDAMOM model-data fusion system [\(Bloom et al., 2016\)](#page-55-4) for the Finland (Table [16\)](#page-95-0) and Spain sites (Table [17\)](#page-95-1). CARDAMOM was used to calibrate a previous version of DALEC coupled to a water cycle model [\(Bloom and Williams, 2015;](#page-55-3) [Smallman and Williams, 2019\)](#page-61-2) at the site scale and across two domains of around 500 by 500 km surrounding those sites, at  $0.25 \times 0.25$  degrees spatial resolution and with a monthly time step for the years 2001 to 2018, inclusive.

This version of DALEC used the Aggregrated Canopy Model (ACM [\(Williams et al., 1997\)](#page-63-2)) to provide canopy flux inputs rather than BETHY. The analyses were driven with CRU-JRAv2.1 meteorology [\(Harris, 2019\)](#page-57-4), MODIS burned area [\(Giglio et al., 2018\)](#page-56-6) and Global Forest Watch forest cover loss [\(Hansen et al., 2013\)](#page-57-5). The parameters were retrieved based on calibration against time series of leaf area index (Copernicus Service Information (2020)), woody biomass stock information [\(Santoro, 2021\)](#page-60-5) and an initial soil C stock [\(Hengl et al., 2017\)](#page-57-6). Due to the availability of field data for specific PFTs, three site-level analyses were further carried out to provide more constrained diagnostics. These sites included an evergreen coniferous (EvCn) forest using field observations from Hyytiälä, Finland (FLUXNET2015 database (<http://fluxnet.fluxdata.org/>, accessed 01/11/2016); [Heiskanen et al., 2012\)](#page-57-7), and both C3 grasslands (C3Gr) and evergreen coniferous forest (EvCn) using observations at Majadas de Tietar. These three analyses took advantage of in-situ estimates of NEE data from eddy covariance and field inventories of LAI and biomass. All other PFT parameter priors were selected based on CARDAMOM grid points which had the largest coverage of each target PFT and realistic parameter retrievals (e.g. evergreen PFTs had leaf life spans,  $c_{lf}$ ,  $>1$  year).

### <span id="page-94-0"></span>B.4 Model setup

The model requires the following driving variables at an hourly time step over the integration period:

- 2m air temperature  $(T)$
- $\bullet\,$  soil temperature, used as daily mean  $(\bar{T}_{ds})$

Table 16: D&B parameters relating to carbon balance and phenology used for Sodankylä site, by plant functional type (PFT; Columns 2, 3). Columns 3-8: same D&B parameters, but applicable for the entire northern Scandinavian study region ( $18^{\circ}$ E - 32°E, 65°N - 69°N).

<span id="page-95-0"></span>

PFT $(\#)$ parameter	EvCn $(5)$	EShr(7)	$\overline{TmSg}$ (4)	EvCn $(5)$	C3Gr(9)	Tundra (11)	WetV $(12)$
$\theta_{decomp}$	$4.60\times10^{-4}$	$3.30\times10^{-4}$	$5.20\times10^{-4}$	$6.80\times10^{-4}$	$2.65 \times 10^{-4}$	$2.57\times10^{-4}$	$3.20 \times 10^{-4}$
$f_{fol}$	0.118	0.167	0.184	0.090	0.171	0.181	0.156
$f_{fr}$	0.277	0.32	0.307	0.276	0.44	0.40	0.34
$c_{l,f}$	1.19	1.52	1.09	1.17	1.21	1.19	1.03
$\theta_{wd}$	$1.25\times10^{-4}$	$1.32\times10^{-4}$	$1.81\times10^{-4}$	$9.70\times10^{-5}$	$3.03\times10^{-4}$	$3.40\times10^{-4}$	$1.78\times10^{-4}$
$\theta_{fr}$	0.0072	0.0043	0.0091	0.0064	0.0067	0.0062	0.0073
$\theta_{lit}$	0.0059	0.00132	0.0039	0.0045	0.00126	0.00123	0.00087
$\theta_{SOM}$	$1.57\times10^{-5}$	$3.60\times10^{-6}$	$2.33\times10^{-5}$	$2.08\times10^{-5}$	$7.70\times10^{-6}$	$6.90\times10^{-6}$	$4.00\times10^{-6}$
$\Theta$	0.048	0.040	0.041	0.042	0.040	0.040	0.039
$d_{onset}$	156.13	69.18	162.31	136.88	178.69	177.78	149.81
$f_{lab}$	0.136	0.093	0.129	0.146	0.187	0.151	0.258
$c_{ronset}$	29.28	33.29	31.04	43.76	20.53	23.00	22.28
$d_{fall}$	230.32	258.47	239.75	232.19	252.41	253.59	249.68
$c_{rfall}$	50.86	40.57	48.55	58.18	34.74	34.54	45.88
$c_{LMA}$	36.11	69.86	45.80	41.99	57.28	50.24	62.69
Initial $C_{lab}$	30.48	3.75	41.87	37.89	27.32	17.06	22.60
Initial $C_{fol}$	29.29	16.16	34.72	27.04	27.12	20.66	2.82
Initial $C_{fr}$	17.86	7.72	29.09	31.40	16.85	14.89	8.09
Initial $C_{wd}$	3072.24	500.70	3992.10	4689.19	613.07	371.10	743.32
Initial $C_{lit}$	60.24	41.04	153.42	76.40	158.34	101.35	92.53
Initial $C_{SOM}$	40910.35	34888.61	37511.67	34302.16	44359.82	35311.00	40989.89

Table 17: D&B parameters relating to carbon balance and phenology used for Majadas del Tietar site, by plant functional type (PFT; Columns 2, 3). Columns 4-9: same D&B parameters, but applicable for the entire Iberian study region (8.5 $^{\circ}$ W - 2.5 $^{\circ}$ W, 38.5 $^{\circ}$ N - 43 $^{\circ}$ N).

<span id="page-95-1"></span>

PFT $(\#)$ parameter /	TmEv(3)	C3Gr(9)	TmSg(4)	EvCn $(5)$	EShr(7)	$\overline{C3Gr}(9)$	WetV $(12)$	ArbC $(13)$
$\theta_{decomp}$	$3.04 \times 10^{-4}$	$2.58 \times 10^{-3}$	$5.30 \times 10^{-4}$	$4.80 \times 10^{-4}$	$5.90 \times 10^{-4}$	$9.60\times10^{-4}$	$9.10\times10^{-4}$	$7.40\times10^{-4}$
$f_{fol}$	0.050	0.36	0.163	0.139	0.193	0.45	0.163	0.278
$f_{fr}$	0.36	0.71	0.35	0.51	0.62	0.79	0.53	0.74
$c_{l,f}$	1.10	1.01	1.18	1.79	1.23	1.00	1.17	1.00
$\theta_{wd}$	$6.60\times10^{-5}$	$7.30\times10^{-4}$	$1.94\times10^{-4}$	$2.08\times10^{-4}$	$4.90\times10^{-4}$	$9.60\times10^{-4}$	$5.00\times10^{-4}$	$7.80\times10^{-4}$
$\theta_{fr}$	0.0059	0.0087	0.0076	0.0050	0.0099	0.0126	0.0084	0.0117
$\theta_{lit}$	0.0069	0.00055	0.0043	0.0040	0.0042	0.0058	0.0038	0.0042
$\theta_{SOM}$	$2.48\times10^{-5}$	$4.00\times10^{-5}$	$3.04\times10^{-5}$	$2.55\times10^{-5}$	$1.83 \times 10^{-5}$	$1.04\times10^{-5}$	$2.03\times10^{-5}$	$1.55\times10^{-5}$
$\Theta$	0.051	0.034	0.043	0.042	0.042	0.060	0.045	0.042
$d_{onset}$	74.31	77.34	139.84	145.00	82.33	104.50	329.86	106.80
$f_{lab}$	0.220	0.42	0.148	0.107	0.139	0.0308	0.188	0.215
$c_{ronset}$	74.18	28.09	20.33	20.64	44.56	26.08	38.56	30.95
$d_{fall}$	157.38	121.97	260.15	268.05	176.29	129.66	151.99	163.70
$c_{rfall}$	54.63	65.05	96.93	113.03	67.99	63.26	41.56	71.49
$c_{LMA}$	67.67	46.94	60.25	104.96	104.66	56.52	107.23	45.11
Initial $C_{lab}$	34.57	60.99	80.62	30.77	32.41	5.16	5.51	40.37
Initial $C_{fol}$	36.34	24.84	64.07	139.71	73.05	57.56	128.16	11.35
Initial $C_{fr}$	34.92	10.64	67.02	97.49	30.30	49.35	29.74	18.86
Initial $C_{wd}$	6737.40	89.57	5962.44	2227.35	415.67	140.53	874.43	127.46
Initial $C_{lit}$	12.90	16.35	205.51	146.72	51.40	4.17	21.50	49.60
Initial $C_{SOM}$	11818.84	15469.69	26847.23	19030.57	13952.27	13573.13	12117.49	12847.95

- incoming shortwave (solar) radiation  $(R_{sw})$
- $\bullet$  incoming longwave (thermal) radiation  $(R_{L\downarrow})$
- precipitation  $(P_{tot})$

Additional inputs are:

- $\bullet\,$  molar ratio of  $\mathsf{CO}_2$  in air  $\left(C_a\right)$
- soil texture class
- PFT distribution
- fractional vegetation cover  $(f_c)$
- $\bullet$  elevation ( $h$ , to computer air pressure, Equ. [151\)](#page-88-3).

## C The Layered 2-Stream Model

The layered 2-stream model runs in parallel to the two-flux scheme of the photosynthesis part, but being based on the same equations reproduces identical results. It is part of the observation operator for solar-induced fluorescence (SIF).

To simulate the SIF leaving the top of the canopy, we take the [Meador and Weaver](#page-59-5) [\(1980\)](#page-59-5) solutions to the radiative transfer problem given for the reflectance  $(\mathcal{R}_d)$  and transmittance  $(\mathcal{T}_d)$  of discrete canopy layers given diffuse incident light, which in this case, will be the SIF emission from within the layer, to give:

$$
\mathcal{R}_d = \frac{\gamma_2 [1 - e^{-2k\tau}]}{\tilde{k} + \gamma_1 + (\tilde{k} - \gamma_1)e^{-2k\tau}}
$$
\n(183)

$$
\mathcal{T}_d = \frac{2e^{-2k\tau}}{\tilde{k} + \gamma_1 + (\tilde{k} - \gamma_1)e^{-2k\tau}}
$$
\n(184)

with:

$$
\tau = \frac{LAI}{2} \tag{185}
$$

$$
\tilde{k} = \sqrt{\gamma_1^2 - \gamma_2^2} \tag{186}
$$

$$
\gamma_1 = 2\left(1 - \omega(1 - \beta)\right),\tag{187}
$$

$$
\gamma_2 = 2\omega\beta. \tag{188}
$$

where  $\beta$  in D&B is always 0.5 (see Equ. [65\)](#page-72-2). These equations are physically consistent with the canopy radiative transfer elsewhere in D&B, but allow for the inclusion of arbitrary emission sources from within canopy layers.

To test the physical consistency we compare the FAPAR calculated by D&B with the same quantity constructed from the L2SM equations. For the case of a black soil the FAPAR is given, trivially, by:

$$
\mathsf{FAPAR}_{bs} = 1 - \mathcal{R}_d - \mathcal{T}_d,\tag{189}
$$

and for a soil with reflectance  $\rho_s$ :

$$
\mathcal{R}_d(\rho_s) = \mathcal{R}_d + \frac{\mathcal{T}_d^2 \rho_s}{1 - \mathcal{R}_d \rho_s},\tag{190}
$$

$$
\mathcal{T}_d(\rho_s) = \frac{\mathcal{T}_d}{1 - \mathcal{R}_d \rho_s},\tag{191}
$$



<span id="page-98-0"></span>Figure 11: FAPAR predicted by the L2SM and the twoflux scheme of D&B for the case of  $\rho_s = 0$  and  $\rho_s > 0$ . In both cases 100 simulations have been used.

$$
\mathsf{FAPAR} = 1 - \mathcal{R}_d(\rho_s) - \mathcal{T}_d(\rho_s)(1 - \rho_s),\tag{192}
$$

We can then compare the FAPAR predicted by the two-flux scheme of D&B to these equations. While D&B uses a value of 0.12 for  $\omega$ , we use a random sample of values between zero and one, as shown in Table [18,](#page-99-0) 100 times for both soil cases, leads to the scatter plot given in Figure [11.](#page-98-0) The near-perfect straight line relationship between the two models indicates that the physics and assumptions in the two models is, for all purposes, the same. We chose a log transform of the uniform distribution  $(U)$  to sample LAI as this produces an approximately linear distribution in the resulting FAPAR.

The SIF emitted from each layer that escapes the top of the canopy can be computed as:

<span id="page-99-0"></span>



$$
\mathcal{E}_n = \frac{S_n \mathcal{T}_{d,n}^+ \left(1 + \mathcal{R}_{d,n}^{\prime -} \right)}{1 - \mathcal{R}_{d,n}^{\prime -} \mathcal{R}_{d,n}^+},\tag{193}
$$

where  $S_n$  is the SIF emitted from layer n, assuming it occurs at the mid-point of the layer. The superscript + and - are used to refer the optical properties of the canopy level above (+) and below  $(-)$  the mid-point of layer  $n.$  For example,  $\mathcal{T}^+_{d,n}$  is the transmittance of the canopy above the middle of layer  $n$ ,  $\mathcal{R}^-_{d,n}$  is the reflectance of the canopy below the middle of layer  $n$ , and includes the reflectance of the soil. The total canopy leaving SIF is then given by:

$$
\mathcal{E} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{E}_n \tag{194}
$$

where  $N$  is the number of layers. This formulation explicitly accounts for all levels of SIF photon scattering between the canopy layers and the soil below the canopy, as well as re-absorption within the canopy.

The assumption that the emitted SIF comes from the middle of each layer is valid if the layers are optically thin (i.e. optical properties change proportionally with changes in optical depth) and that SIF is generated uniformly throughout the layer (which is consistent with the photosynthesis routines in D&B, which assume all leaves in a layer are photosynthesising at the same rate). To test the impact of the optically thin assumption we generate 50 different canopies with optical properties sampled according to Table [18](#page-99-0) and calculated the total canopy leaving emissions for each canopy dividing it into all possible numbers of layers from 1 to 50. Results are shown in Figure [12](#page-100-0) and show the percentage difference from the simulation with 50 layers. Even in the most extreme case, with a single layer, the difference is less that 1% from the 50 layer calculation. For three layers (as in D&B) the difference is always less than 0.5% and almost always less the 0.05%. Consequently we can be confident that only very small levels of uncertainty are introduced by this specific assumption.



<span id="page-100-0"></span>Figure 12: % difference in emissions from 50 random canopies with 1 to 50 layers.

## D Static forcing for Majadas de Tietar at site-level

netcdf ES-LM1\_staticforcing { dimensions: ng = 1 ; nmaxpft = 14 ; variables: double lon(ng) ; lon:long\_name = "longitude" ; lon:units = "degrees\_east" ; lon:comment = "longitude of selected pixel" ; double lat(ng) ;<br>
lat:long\_name = "latitude" ;<br>
lat:units = "degrees\_north" ;<br>
lat:comment = "latitude of selected pixel" ; int pft(ng, nmaxpft) ;<br>
pft:[FillValue = -1 ;<br>
pft:long\_name = "Plant Functional Type" ;<br>
pft:wnin = 0 ;<br>
pft:wnax = 13 ;<br>
pft:wnax = 13 ; pft:values = "0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13" ; pft:meanings = "NoVeg,TrEv,TrDD,TmEv,TmSg,EvCn,SgCn,EShr,DShr,C3Gr,C4Gr,Tun,VSwamp,ArbC";<br>pft:info = "value(s) provided by local information/measurement.";<br>double pft\_fraction(ng, maxryft);<br>pft.fraction:\_FillValue = -1.;<br>p pft\_fraction:vmin = 0. ; pft\_fraction:vmax = 1. ;<br>pft\_fraction:comment = "area fraction is the fraction of the vegetated part of the location/grid-cell covered by the specific PFT. The sum of the PFT fractions equals 1." ;<br>pft\_fraction:info = "val double vegetation\_fraction(ng) ;<br>vegetation\_fraction:long\_name = "fraction of gridcell covered by vegetation" ;<br>vegetation\_fraction:units = "" ;<br>vegetation\_fraction:units = 0. ;<br>vegetation\_fraction:vmin = 0. ; vegetation\_fraction:vmax = 1. ;<br>vegetation\_fraction:info = "value(s) provided by local information/measurement." ;<br>double soil\_depth(ng) ;<br>soil\_depth:\_FillValue = -99999. ; soil\_depth:long\_name = "soil profile depth" ; soil\_depth:units = "mm" ; soil\_depth:info = "value(s) provided by local information/measurement." ; int soil\_texture\_class(ng) ; soil\_texture\_class:\_FillValue = -1 ; soil\_texture\_class:long\_name = "Dominant\_Soil\_Texture" ; soil\_texture\_class:units = "" ; soil\_texture\_class:vmin = 0 ;<br>soil\_texture\_class:vmax = 7 ;<br>soil\_texture\_class:values = "0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7" ;<br>soil\_texture\_class:meanings = "Ocean/Water,Coarse,Medium/Coarse,Medium,Fine/Medium,Fine,Organic,Ice" ; int soil\_brightness\_class(ng) ; soil\_brightness\_class:\_FillValue = -9999 ; soil\_brightness\_class:units = "-" ; soil\_brightness\_class:vmin = 1 ; soil\_brightness\_class:vmax = 5 ; soil\_brightness\_class:values = "1,2,3,4,5" ; soil\_brightness\_class:meanings = "dark,medium,light,ice,water" ; int elevation(ng) ; elevation:\_FillValue = -9999 ;<br>elevation:long\_name = "elevation\_above\_sea\_level" ;<br>elevation:units = "m" ; elevation:info = "value(s) provided by local information/measurement." ; double B\_r(ng) ;<br>B\_r:\_FillValue = -1. ;<br>B\_r:long\_name = "shape parameter of root-zone infiltration subgrid distribution" ;<br>B\_r:units = "" ; byte condition\_simulate(ng) ; condition\_simulate:\_FillValue = 127b ; condition\_simulate:long\_name = "Flag indicating whether location is suitable for simulation." ; condition\_simulate:units = "" ; condition\_simulate:vmin = 0b ; condition\_simulate:vmax = 1b ; condition\_simulate:comment = "primary-pft!=NoVeg, 1<=soil\_texture\_class<=6, soil\_depth!=fill-value, 1<=soil\_brightness\_class<=4, elevation!=fill-value, B\_r!=fill-value" ; // global attributes: :creator\_email = "Michael.Vossbeck(at)Inversion-Lab.com" ; :region = "majadas" ; :nsp = 2 ;<br>:location\_name = "ES-LM1" ;<br>:comment = "static forcing for single location/site. Values for the data sets pft, pft\_fraction, fc, soil\_depth, elevation are coming from in-situ/local information or measurements. V :geospatial\_lon\_max = -5.75 ; :geospatial\_lon\_resolution = 0.25 ; :geospatial\_lon\_units = "degrees\_east" ; :geospatial\_lat\_min = 39.75 ; :geospatial\_lat\_max = 40. ; :geospatial\_lat\_resolution = 0.25 ; :geospatial\_lat\_units = "degrees\_north" ;<br>:input\_file\_1 = "/srv/data/lcc/model\_input/staticinput\_qd\_majadas.nc" ;<br>:input\_file\_1\_swriables = "soil\_texture,brightness\_class,b" ;<br>:input\_file\_1\_sha512 = "60f20723fbc39de28eeba9

:soil\_texture\_class\_\_\_reference = "Randal D. Koster NASA/GSFC, Norman B. Bliss Principal Scientist Science and Applications Branch, Saud A. Amer ECS DAAC Scientist EROS Data Center, Soroosh Sorooshian Professor and<br>:soil\_t

}

:soil\_texture\_class\_\_\_version = "April 5, 1995" ;<br>:history = "util/lcc\_prepare.py forcing4model\_static --site=ES-LM1 --outname forcing/ES-LM1\_staticforcing.nc" ;<br>:date\_created = "2024-02-26T11:29:20.943679" ;

## E Meteorological forcing for Majadas de Tietar at site-level derived from in-situ observations

```
netcdf ES-LM1_dynforcing-insitu_20140401-20220930_with-insitu-lwdown {
dimensions:
ng = 1 ;
time = 74520 ;
            ntc = 4 ;
variables:
   double time(time) ;
       time:standard_name = "time" ;
time:long_name = "time" ;
time:units = "hours since 1900-01-01 00:00:00.0" ;
   int yyyymmddhh(ntc, time) ;<br>
yyyymmddhh:_FillValue = -1 ;
       yyyymmddhh:_FillValue = -1 ;<br>yyyymmddhh:long_name = "year/mon/day/hour_as_integer_values" ;<br>yyyymmddhh:units = "" ;
    yyyymmddhh:comment = "time values are provided in UTC time, 1<=hour<=24" ;<br>
loouble lon(ng) ;<br>
lon:standard_name = "longitude" ;<br>
lon:standard_name = "longitude" ;<br>
lon:units = "degrees_east" ;<br>
lon:units = "degrees_east" 
       lat:long_name = "latitude" ;<br>lat:units = "degrees_north" ;<br>lat:axis = "Y" ;<br>lat:comment = "latitude of single point" ;
    double temperature(ng, time) ;<br>
temperature:_FillValue = -99999. ;<br>
temperature:long_name = "2meter air temperature" ;<br>
temperature:units = "Celsius" ;
       temperature:comment = "averaged in-situ temperature from values on hour ending at actual time-stamp and the hour thereafter." ;
   double swrad(ng, time) ;
     swrad:_FillValue = -99999.
       swrad:long_name = "incoming solar radiation" ;<br>swrad:units = "W/m2" ;<br>swrad:comment = "averaged in-situ radiation from values on hour ending at actual time-stamp and the hour thereafter." ;
    double ludovn(ng, time) ;<br>- ludown:_FillValue = -99999. ;<br>- ludown:units = "W/m2" ;<br>- ludown:units = "W/m2" ;<br>- ludown:comment = "averaged in-situ long-vave radiation from values on hour ending at actual time-stamp and the
    double precipitation(ng, time) ;<br>precipitation:_FillValue = -99999. ;<br>precipitation:long_name = "precipitation" ;<br>precipitation:comment = "waveraged in-situ precipitation from values on hour ending at actual time-stamp and
       soil_temperature:_FillValue = -99999. ;<br>soil_temperature:ung_name = "soil temperature" ;<br>soil_temperature:units = "Celsius" ;<br>soil_temperature:comment = "soil-temperature averaged from STaO80, SToO80, STdO80, averaged in-s
// global attributes:
      :comment = "forcing data prepared at pixel level" ;
       :pixel_longitude = -5.778625 ;
:pixel_latitude = 39.942628 ;
       :pixel_identifier = "ES-LM" ;<br>:insitu_input_file = "/srv/data/lcc/insitu/majadas-20221109/ES-LM1_LCC_2014_2022_60min_20221109.csv" ;<br>:insitu_input_file_sha512 = "08da52912d07a41105d1028a033e852c204bf374dc1410c96a48ece93765
```
}

## F Template file used in preprocessing step to generate dimensions.f90

```
! D&B spatio-temporal settings
! 09/20 - 04/23 Vossbeck, Knorr, Kaminski (all ilab)
!
!
! This program is free software: you can redistribute it and/or modify
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! along with this program. If not, see <http://www.gnu.org/licenses/>.
!
! Contact: Thomas.Kaminski@Inversion-Lab.com
!
module dimensions
 implicit none
 !-- spatial settings
 integer, parameter :: nsp = NSP !-- number of sample points (differentiates by combinations of spatial locations and
  integer, parameter :: ng = NG !-- number of spatially different grid cells or simulation locations
  character(len=*), parameter :: domain = DOMAIN !-- domain descriptor
  !-- temporal settings
  ! - D&B currently does not support simulations on sub-daily time intervals,
  ! but runs from selected day of start to day of end.
  ! - the simulation period ranges from yyyymmdd_startT01:00:00 to yyyymmdd_endT24:00:00
  ! where time is specified in UTC.
  character(len=8), parameter :: yyyymmdd_start = YYYYMMDD_START
  character(len=8), parameter :: yyyymmdd_end = YYYYMMDD_END
  character(len=*), parameter :: calendar_type = CALENDAR !-- 'gregorian' or '365_days'<br>integer, parameter :: nmon = NMON
  integer, parameter :: mmoninteger, parameter :: nday = NDAY
  integer, parameter :: \n  <i>shown</i> = <math>nday*24</math>integer, parameter :: npft = 13 ! number of plant functional types (PFTs) available to the model
  integer, parameter :: napft = NAPFT ! number of active biomes (PFT types)
  integer, parameter :: apft(napft) = (/APFT_LST/) ! list of active biome identifiers in ascending order
  integer, parameter :: ntxture = 6 ! number of texture classes
  integer, parameter :: nlayer = 3 ! number of canopy layers
end module dimensions
```
# G Initial lines of observational data file for assimilation (SIF, Sodankylä)

