

Editor Minor comments on Manuscript TC-2019-144
Changes of manuscript are marked in the pages below

You appear to have missed a minor comment from Reviewer 2 on lines 76-78.

Changed “cold region hydrology (Swenson et al., 2012)” to “*hydraulic properties of frozen soils* (Swenson et al., 2012)” to be more specific

- Please check the formulation of the first sentence of the new paragraph starting on line 119. (Perhaps the language is as you intend, but it seems somewhat off to me.)

First sentence now reads: *The PCN model intercomparison uses the output from a single Earth System model climate projection and was motivated by a desire to keep the experimental design simple and computationally tractable.*

- Check the reference on line 151. (Dai et al 2009, should be Dai et al. (2009)?)

Changed as suggested

Most importantly, the main concern of Reviewer 1 has still not been addressed in the manuscript. Please make sure that there is a clear description of how permafrost was defined across models.

We clarified this in the text a bit better by adding a few sentences that address the specific calculations.

Text now reads:

For each model, we define a grid cell as containing near-surface permafrost based on soil temperature where the annual monthly maximum active layer thickness (ALT) is at or less than the 3m depth layer (Figure 1) (McGuire et al., 2016; Slater and Lawrence, 2013). We calculated the depth of max ALT by identifying the underlying annual permafrost table depth of continuous monthly temperatures $<273.15^{\circ}\text{K}$ in the top 3 meters or equivalent soil layer depth (Figure 1). Models with a soil configuration at 3 meters or less (UWVIC, CoLM, JULES, TEM) follow the same calculation with an exemption for their bottom depth, where soil depth temperature threshold of $<273.5^{\circ}\text{K}$ was applied to be considered as permafrost, this was based on soil temperature trends observed for models with deeper soil depths greater than 3 meters and allows models to have a ALT of 3 meters when soil configuration is limiting.

1 Soil Moisture and Hydrology Projections of the Permafrost 2 Region: A Model Intercomparison

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28
29 **Abstract.** This study investigates and compares soil moisture and hydrology projections of broadly-used
30 land models with permafrost processes and highlights the causes and impacts of permafrost zone soil
31 moisture projections. Climate models project warmer temperatures and increases in precipitation (P)
32 which will intensify evapotranspiration (ET) and runoff in land models. However, this study shows that
33 most models project a long-term drying of the surface soil (0-20cm) for the permafrost region despite
34 increases in the net air-surface water flux (P-ET). Drying is generally explained by infiltration of moisture
35 to deeper soil layers as the active layer deepens or permafrost thaws completely. Although most models
36 agree on drying, the projections vary strongly in magnitude and spatial pattern. Land-models tend to agree
37 with decadal runoff trends but underestimate runoff volume when compared to gauge data across the
38 major Arctic river basins, potentially indicating model structural limitations. Coordinated efforts to
39 address the ongoing challenges presented in this study will help reduce uncertainty in our capability to
40 predict the future Arctic hydrological state and associated land-atmosphere biogeochemical processes
41 across spatial and temporal scales.

42 43 1. Introduction

44
45 Hydrology plays a fundamental role in permafrost landscapes by modulating complex interactions among
46 biogeochemical cycling (Frey and McClelland, 2009; Newman et al., 2015; Throckmorton et al., 2015),
47 geomorphology (Grosse et al., 2013; Kanevskiy et al., 2017; Lara et al., 2015; Liljedahl et al., 2016) and
48 ecosystem structure and function (Andresen et al., 2017; Avis et al., 2011; Oberbauer et al., 2007).
49 Permafrost has a strong influence on hydrology by controlling surface and sub-surface distribution,

50 storage, drainage and routing of water. Permafrost prevents vertical water flow which often leads to
51 saturated soil conditions in continuous permafrost while confining subsurface flow through perennially-
52 unfrozen zones (a.k.a. taliks) in discontinuous permafrost (Jafarov et al., 2018; Walvoord and Kurylyk,
53 2016). However, with the observed (Streletskiy et al., 2008) and predicted (Slater and Lawrence, 2013)
54 thawing of permafrost, there is a large uncertainty in the future hydrological state of permafrost
55 landscapes and in the associated responses such as the permafrost carbon-climate feedback.

56 The timing and magnitude of the permafrost carbon-climate feedback is, in part, governed by changes in
57 surface hydrology, through the regulation by soil moisture of the form of carbon emissions from thawing
58 labile soils and microbial decomposition as either CO₂ or CH₄ (Koven et al., 2015; Schädel et al., 2016;
59 Schaefer et al., 2011). The impact of soil moisture changes on the permafrost-carbon feedback could be
60 significant. Lawrence et al. (2015) found that the impact of the soil drying projected in simulations with
61 the Community Land Model decreased the overall Global Warming Potential of the permafrost carbon-
62 climate feedback by 50%. This decrease was attributed to a much slower increase in CH₄ emissions if
63 surface soils dry, which is partially compensated for by a stronger increase in CO₂ emissions under drier
64 soil conditions.

65 Earth System Models project an intensification of the hydrological cycle characterized by a general
66 increase in the magnitude of water fluxes (e.g. precipitation, evapotranspiration and runoff) in northern
67 latitudes (Rawlins et al., 2010; Swenson et al., 2012). In addition, intensification of the hydrological cycle
68 is likely to modify the spatial and temporal patterns of water in the landscape. However, the spatial
69 variability, timing, and reasons for future changes in hydrology in terrestrial landscapes in the Arctic are
70 unclear and variability in projections of these features by current terrestrial hydrology applied in the
71 Arctic have not been well documented. Therefore, there is an urgent need to assess and better understand
72 hydrology simulations in land models and how differences in process representation affect projections of
73 permafrost landscapes.

74 Upgrades in permafrost representation such as freeze and thaw processes in the land component of Earth
75 System Models have improved understanding of the evolution of hydrology in high northern latitudes.
76 Particularly, soil thermal dynamics and active layer hydrology upgrades include the effects of unfrozen
77 water on phase change, insulation by snow (Peng et al., 2015), organic soils (Jafarov, E. and Schaefer,
78 2016; Lawrence et al., 2008) and ~~cold region hydrology~~ [hydraulic properties of frozen soils](#) (Swenson et
79 al., 2012). Nonetheless, large discrepancies in projections remain as the current generation of models
80 substantially differ in soil thermal dynamics (e.g. Peng *et al* 2015, Wang *et al* 2016). In particular,
81 variability among current models' simulations of the impact of permafrost thaw on soil water and
82 hydrological states is not well documented. Therefore, in this study we analyze the output of a collection
83 of widely-used "permafrost-enabled" land models. These models participated in the Permafrost Carbon
84 Network Model Intercomparison Project (PCN-MIP) (McGuire et al., 2018, 2016) and contained the
85 state-of-the art representations of soil thermal dynamics in high latitudes at that time. In particular, we
86 assess how changes in active layer thickness and permafrost thaw influence near-surface soil moisture and
87 hydrology projections under climate change. In addition, we provide comments on the main gaps and
88 challenges in permafrost hydrology simulations and highlight the potential implications for the permafrost
89 carbon-climate feedback.

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94 2. Methods

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96 2.1 Models and Simulation Protocol

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98 This study assesses a collection of terrestrial simulations from models that participated in the PCN-MIP
99 (McGuire et al., 2018, 2016) (Table 1). The analysis presented here is unique as it focuses on the
100 hydrological component of these models. Table 2 describes the main hydrological characteristics for each
101 model. Additional details on participating models regarding soil thermal properties, snow, soil carbon and
102 forcing trends can be found in previous PCN-MIP studies (e.g. McGuire *et al* 2016, Koven *et al* 2015,
103 Wang *et al* 2016, Peng *et al* 2015). It is important to note that the versions of the models presented in this
104 study are from McGuire *et al* (2016, 2018) and some additional improvements to individual models may
105 have been made since then.

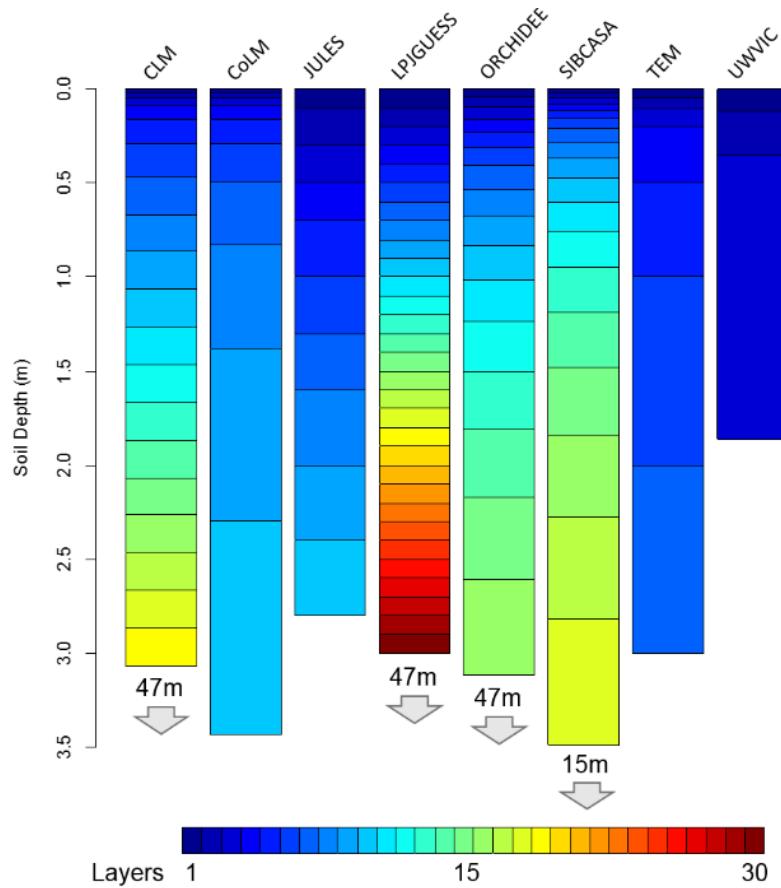
106 The simulation protocol is described in detail in *McGuire et al.*, (2016, 2018). In brief, models'
107 simulations were conducted from 1960 to 2299, partitioned by historic (1960-2009) and future
108 simulations (2010-2299), where future simulations were forced with a common projected climate derived
109 from a fully coupled climate model simulation (CCSM4) (Gent et al., 2011). Historic atmospheric forcing
110 datasets (Table 1) (e.g. climate, atmospheric CO₂, N deposition, disturbance, etc.) and spin-up time were
111 specific to each modeling group. The horizontal resolution (0.5° – 1.25°) and soil hydrological column
112 configurations (depths ranging from 2 to 47m and 3 to 30 soil layers) also vary across models (Figure 1).
113 We focus on results from simulations forced with climate and CO₂ from the Representative Concentration
114 Pathway (RCP) 8.5 scenario, which represents unmitigated, “business as usual” emissions of greenhouse
115 gases. Future simulations were calculated from monthly CCSM4 (Gent et al., 2011) climate anomalies for
116 the Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP 8.5, 2006-2100) and the Extension Concentration
117 Pathway (ECP 8.5, 2101-2299) scenarios, relative to repeating (1996-2005) forcing atmospheric datasets
118 from the different modeling groups (Table 1).

119 The ~~choice of the~~ PCN model intercomparison ~~was to use~~ the output from a single Earth System model
120 climate projection and was motivated by a desire to keep the experimental design simple and
121 computationally tractable. Clearly, using just one climate projection does not allow us to explore the
122 impact of the broad range of potential climate outcomes that are seen across the CMIP5 models. Instead,
123 the PCN suite of simulations allows for a relatively controlled analysis of the spread of model responses
124 to a single representative climate trajectory. The selection of CCSM4 as the climate projection model
125 was motivated partly by convenience and also because it was one of the only models that had been run
126 out to the year 2300 at the time of the PCN experiments. Further, as noted in McGuire et al. (2018),
127 CCSM4 late 20th century climate biases in the Arctic were among the lowest across the CMIP5 model
128 archive. It should be noted that the use of a single climate projection means that the results presented here
129 should be viewed as indicative of just one possible permafrost hydrologic trajectory. As we will show,
130 even under this single climate trajectory, the range of hydrologic responses in the models are broad,
131 indicating high structural uncertainty across models with respect to this particular aspect of the Arctic
132 system response to global climate change.

133 2.2 Permafrost and Hydrology Variables Analyzed

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135 Our analysis focused on the permafrost regions in the Northern Hemisphere north of 45⁰N. This
136 qualitative hydrology comparison was based on the full permafrost domain for each model rather than a
137 common subset among models in order to fully portray the overall changes in permafrost hydrology for
138 participating models. For each model, we define a grid cell as containing near-surface permafrost based
139 on soil temperature where ~~if~~ the annual monthly maximum active layer thickness (ALT) is at or less than
140 the 3m depth layer depending on the model soil configuration (Figure 1) (McGuire et al., 2016; Slater and
141 Lawrence, 2013). We calculated the depth of max ALT by identifying the underlying annual permafrost
142 table depth of continuous monthly temperatures <273.15°k in the top 3 meters or equivalent soil layer
143 depth (Figure 1). Models with a soil configuration at 3 meters or less (UWVIC, CoLM, JULES, TEM)
144 follow the same calculation with an exemption for their bottom depth, where soil depth temperature
145 threshold of <273.5°k was applied to be considered as permafrost, this was based on soil temperature
146 trends observed for models with deeper soil depths greater than 3 meters and allows models to have a
147 ALT of 3 meters when soil configuration is limiting. Participating models represent frozen soil for layers
148 with temperature of <273.15°k, acting as an impermeable layer for liquid water. We assessed how
149 permafrost changes affect near-surface soil moisture, defined here as the soil water content (kg/m²) of the
150 0-20 cm soil layer. We focused on the top 20 cm of the soil column due to its relevance to near-surface
151 biogeochemical processes. We added the weighted fractions for each depth interval to calculate near-
152 surface soil moisture (0-20cm) to account for the differences in the vertical resolution of the soil grid cells
153 among models (Figure 1). To better understand the causes and consequences of changes in soil moisture,
154 we examined several principal hydrology variables including evapotranspiration (ET), runoff (R; surface
155 and sub-surface) and precipitation (P; snow and rain). Representation of ET, R and soil hydrology varies
156 across participating models and are summarized in table 2.
157 We compared model simulations with long-term (1970-1999) mean monthly discharge data from Dai *et al*
158 (2009). We computed model total annual discharge (sum of surface and subsurface runoff) for the main
159 river basins in the permafrost region of North America (Mackenzie, Yukon) and Russia (Yenisei, Lena).
160 In particular, we compared (i) annual runoff anomalies, (ii) correlation coefficients and (iii) distributions
161 of annual discharge between gauge data and models' simulations for the 30-year period of 1970-1999.
162 Gauge stations from major permafrost river basins used for simulation comparison include (i) Arctic Red,
163 Canada (67.46⁰N, 133.74⁰W) for Mackenzie River, (ii) Pilot Station, Alaska (61.93⁰N 162.88⁰W) for
164 Yukon River, (iii) Igarka, Russia (67.43⁰N, 86.48⁰E) for Yenisey River and (iv) Kusur, Russia (70.68⁰N,
165 127.39⁰E) for Lena River.
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Figure 1. Soil hydrologically-active column configuration for each participating model. Numbers and arrows indicate full soil configuration of non-hydrologically active bedrock layers. Colors represent the number of layers.

Table 1. Models description and driving datasets.

Model	Full Name	Climate Forcing Dataset	Model Reference	Short-Wave radiation ^a	Long-Wave Radiation ^a	Vapor Pressure ^a
CLM 4.5	Community Land Model v4.5	CRUNCEP4 ^b	Oleson <i>et al</i> (2013)	Yes	Yes ^c	Yes
CoLM	Common Land Model	Princeton ^d	Dai <i>et al</i> (2003), Ji <i>et al</i> (2014)	Yes	Yes	Yes
JULES	Joint UK Land Environment Simulator model	WATCH (1901-2001) ^e	Best <i>et al</i> (2011)	Yes	Yes	Yes
ORCHIDEE-IPSL	Organising Carbon and Hydrology In Dynamic Ecosystems	WATCH (1901-1978) ^e	Gouttevin, I. <i>et al</i> (2012), Koven <i>et al</i> (2009), Krinner <i>et al</i> (2005)	Yes	Yes	Yes

LPJGUESS	Lund-Postdam-Jena dynamic global veg model	CRU TS 3.1 ^f	Gerten <i>et al</i> (2004), Wania <i>et al</i> (2009b, 2009a)	Yes	No	No
SiBCASA	Simple Biosphere/Carnegie-Ames-Stanford Approach model	CRUNCEP4 ^b	Schaefer <i>et al</i> (2011), Bonan (1996), Jafarov, E. and Schaefer (2016)	Yes	Yes	Yes
TEM604	Terrestrial Ecosystem Model	CRUNCEP4 ^b	Hayes <i>et al</i> (2014, 2011)	Yes	No	No
UW-VIC	Univ. of Washington Variable Infiltration Capacity model	CRU ^f , Udel ^h	Bohn <i>et al</i> (2013)	Internally calculated	Internally calculated	Yes

^aSimulations driven by temporal variability

^bViovy and Ciais (<http://dods.extra.cea.fr/>)

^cLong-wave dataset not from CRUNCEP4

^dSheffield *et al* (2006) (<http://hydrology.princeton.edu/data/pgf.php>)

^ehttp://www.eu-watch.org/gfx_content/documents/README-WFDEI.pdf

^fHarris *et al* (2014), University of East Anglia Climate Research Unit (2013)

^gMitchell and Jones (2005) for temperature

^hWillmott and Matsuura (2001) for wind speed and precipitation with corrections (see Bohn *et al.* 2013).

175 **Table 2. Hydrology and soil thermal characteristics of participating models.**

Model	Hydrology								Soil Thermal Properties			
	Evapotranspiration approach	Root water uptake	Infiltration	Water table	Soil Water Storage and Transmission	Groundwater Dynamics	Soil-ice impact	Snow	Soil thermal dynamics approach	Unfrozen Water effects on Phase Change	Moss insulation	Organic soil insulation
CLM 4.5	Sum of canopy evaporation, transpiration, and soil evaporation	Macroscopic approach	Saturation-excess runoff $F_{sat}=f(z_{wt})$	Niu et al. (2007); perched water table possible if ice layer present	Richard's equation (Clapp Hornberger functions)	Base flow from TOPMODEL concepts, unconfined aquifer (Niu et al. 2007)	Impacts hydrologic properties through power-law ice impedance (Swenson et al., 2012)	Multi-layer dynamic (5 max)	Multi-layer Finite Difference Heat Diffusion	Yes	No	Yes
CoLM	BATS and Philip's (1957)	Macroscopic approach	Saturation-excess runoff $F_{sat}=f(z_{wt})$	Simple TOPMODEL	Richard's equation (Clapp Hornberger functions)	Base flow from TOPMODEL	Impacts hydrologic properties through power-law ice impedance	Multi-layer dynamic (5 max)	Multi-layer Finite Difference Heat Diffusion	No	No	No
JULES	Sum of ET, soil evaporation and moisture storages (e.g. lakes, urban) minus surface resistance	Macroscopic approach	Saturation-excess runoff $F_{sat}=f(z_{wt})$ or $F_{sat}=f(\theta)$	TOPMODEL or Probability Distribution Model	Richard's equation (Clapp Hornberger/van Genuchten functions)	Base flow from TOPMODEL	Hydraulic conductivity and suction determined by unfrozen water content (Brooks and Corey functions)	Multi-layer dynamic (3 max)	Multi-layer Finite Difference Heat Diffusion	Yes	No	No
ORCHIDEE-IPSL	Sum of bare soil, interception loss and plant transpiration for different veg PFTs in grid cell.	Macroscopic approach, water uptake different among cell veg PFTs (de Rosnay and Polcher, 1998)	Saturation-excess runoff $F_{sat}=f(\theta)$	TOPMODEL	Richard's equation (van Genuchten functions)	None	"Drying=Freezing" approximation (Gouttevin et al 2012)	Multi-layer dynamic (7 max)	1D Fourier Solution	Yes	No	Yes
LPJ-GUESS	Sum of Interception loss, plant transpiration and evaporation from soil. Gerten et al (2004)	Fractional water uptake different soil layers according to prescribed root distribution. (Wania et al., 2009a,b)	Depends on soil moisture and layer thickness. Declines exponentially with soil moisture	Uniform, and only for wetland grid cell (Wania et al., 2009a,b)	Analog to Darcy's Law, percolation rate depends on soil texture conductivity and soil wetness (Haxelmeier and Prentice, 1996).	Base flow is based on the exponential function to estimate percolation rate	Impacts hydrologic properties through power-law ice impedance	Multi-layer dynamic (3 max)	Multi-layer Finite Difference Heat Diffusion	No	No	No
SIBCASA	Sum of ground evaporation, surface dew, canopy ET and canopy dew (Bonan, 1996)	Macroscopic approach	Infiltration approach in non-saturated porous media described by Darcy's law	Niu et al. (2007); perched water table possible if ice layer present	Richard's equation (Clapp Hornberger functions)	Base flow from TOPMODEL concepts, unconfined aquifer (Niu et al. 2007)	Impacts hydrologic properties through power-law ice impedance	Multi-layer dynamic (5 max)	Multi-layer Finite Difference Heat Diffusion	Yes	No	Yes
TEM-604	Jenson-Haise potential ET (PET, Jenson and Haise 1963). Actual ET is calculated based on PET, water availability and leaf mass.	Based on the proportion of actual ET to potential ET	Field capacity-excess runoff (Thornthwaite and Mather 1957)	none	one-layer bucket	none	none	Multi-layer dynamic (9 max)	Multi-layer Finite Difference Heat Diffusion	No	Yes	No
UW-VIC	Sum of canopy interception, veg. transpiration and soil evaporation (Liang et al. 1994)	Based on reference ET and soil wilting point	Saturation-excess runoff $F_{sat}=f(\theta)$	Microtopography	From infiltration rate and infiltration shape parameter (Liang et al. 1994). No lateral flow between model grids	Base flow from Arno model conceptualization (Francini and Pacciani 1991)	Impacts hydrologic properties through power-law ice impedance	Bulk-layer dynamic (2 max)	Multi-layer Finite Difference Solution	Yes	No	Yes

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178 2. Results

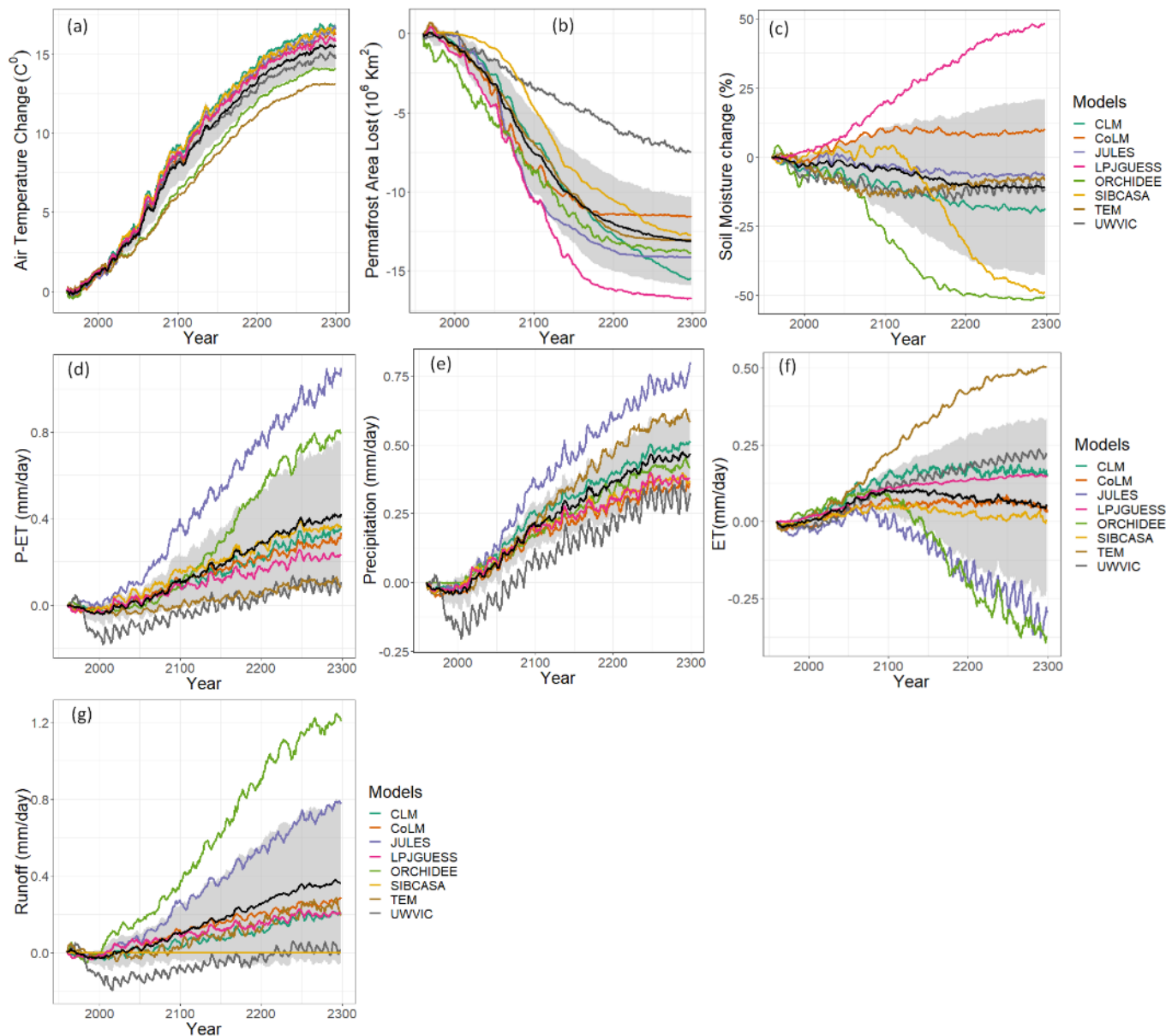
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180 3.1 Soil Moisture

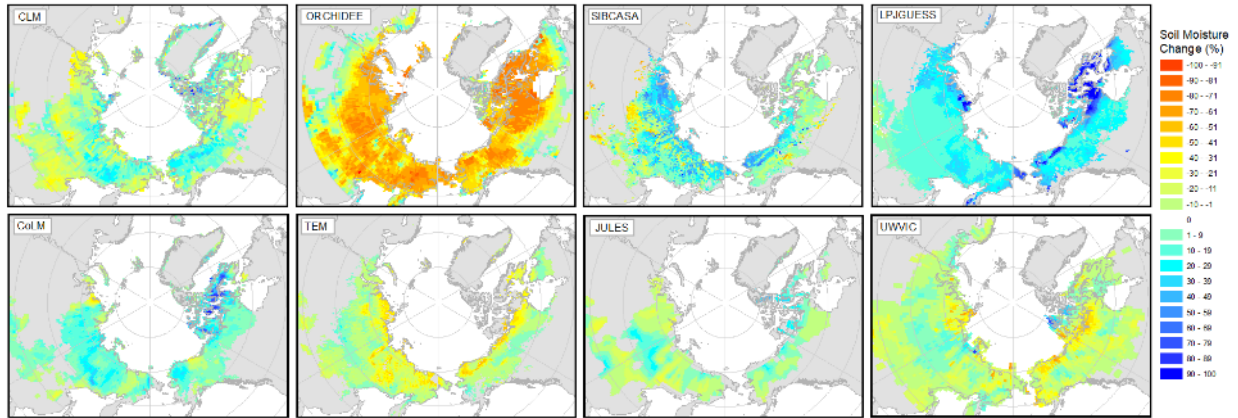
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182 Air temperature forcing from greenhouse-gas emissions shows an increase of $\sim 15^{\circ}\text{C}$ in the permafrost
183 domain over the simulation period (Figure 2a). With increases in air temperature, models project an
184 ensemble mean decrease of ~ 13 million km^2 (91%) of the permafrost domain by 2299 (Figure 2b).
185 Coincident with these changes, most models projected a long-term drying of the near-surface soils when
186 averaged over the permafrost landscape (Figure 2c). However, the simulations diverged greatly with
187 respect to both the permafrost-domain average soil moisture response and their associated spatial patterns
188 (Figure 2c, 3). The models' ensemble mean indicated a change of -10% in near-surface soil moisture for
189 the permafrost region by year 2299, but the spread across models was large. COLM and LPJGUESS
190 simulate an increase in soil moisture of 10% and 48%, respectively. CLM, JULES, TEM6 and UWVIC
191 exhibit qualitatively similar decreasing trends in soil moisture ranging between -5% and -20%. SIBCASA
192 and ORCHIDEE projected a large soil moisture change of approximately -50% by 2299. Spatially,

193 models show diverse wetting and drying patterns and magnitudes across the permafrost zone (Figure 3).
 194 Several models tend to get wetter in the colder northern permafrost zones and are more susceptible to
 195 drying along the southern permafrost margin. Other models, such as TEM6 and UWVIC show the
 196 opposite pattern with drying more common in the northern part of the permafrost domain.
 197



198 **Figure 2. Simulated annual mean changes in air temperature, near-surface permafrost area, near-**
 199 **surface soil moisture and hydrology variables relative to 1960 (RCP 8.5). Annual mean is computed**
 200 **from monthly output values. The black line represents the models' ensemble mean and the gray**
 201 **area is the ensemble standard deviation. Figures d, e, f, and g are represented as change from 1960**
 202 **values. Time series are smoothed with a 7-year running mean for clarity and calculated over the**
 203 **initial permafrost domain of each model in 1960 for latitude >45°N.**
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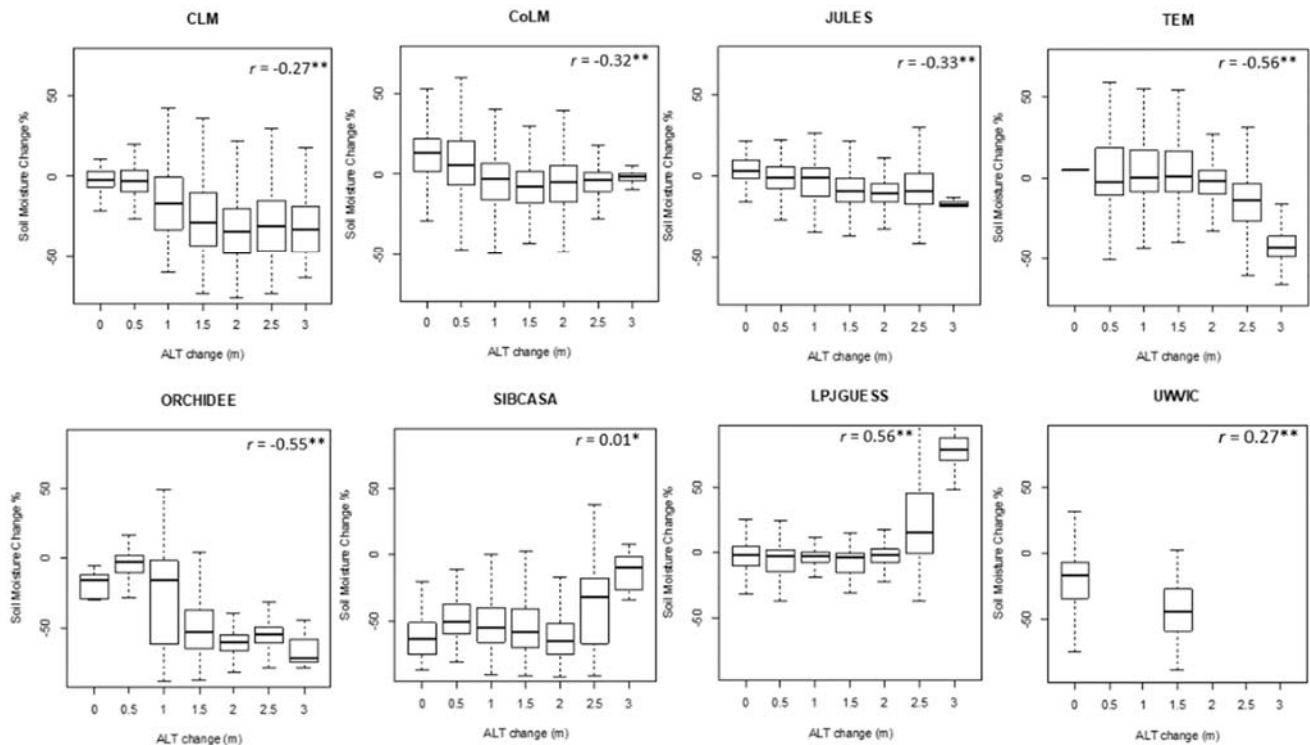
209 **Figure 3. Spatial variability of projected changes in surface soil moisture (%) among models.**
210 **Depicted changes are calculated as the difference between the 2071 to 2100 average and the 1960 to**
211 **1989 average. Colored area represents the initial simulated permafrost domain of 1960 for each**
212 **model.**

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214 3.2 Drivers of Soil Moisture Change

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216 To understand why models projected upper soil drying despite increases in the net precipitation (P-ET)
217 into the soil, we examined whether or not increases in active layer thickness (ALT) and/or complete thaw
218 of near-surface permafrost could be related to surface soil drying of the top 0-20cm ALT. We observed a
219 general significant negative correlation in most models (except SIBCASA, LPJGUESS) where cells with
220 greater increases in active layer thickness have greater drying (decrease) in near-surface soil moisture
221 (Figure 4). However, there is a large spread between soil moisture and ALT changes (Figure 4). This
222 spread may be influenced by many interacting factors that can be difficult to assess directly and are out of
223 the scope of this study. In addition, the coarse soil column discretization in UWWIC limited this analysis
224 for this model (Figure 1). However, most models show some indication that as the active layer deepens,
225 soils tend to get drier at the surface.



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228 **Figure 4. Responses of August near-surface (0-20cm) soil moisture to ALT changes. Each box**
 229 **represents a range of ± 0.25 m of ALT change. ALT and soil moisture change are calculated as the**
 230 **2290-2299 average minus the 1960-1989 average for cells in the initial permafrost domain of 1960.**
 231 **For cells where ALT exceeded 3 meters (no permafrost) during 2270-2299 period, we subtracted**
 232 **the initial active layer thickness (1960-1989 average) to 3 meters. Population Pearson correlations**
 233 **(r) significant at $*p < 0.01$ and $**p < 2e-16$.**
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235 3.3 Precipitation, ET, and Runoff

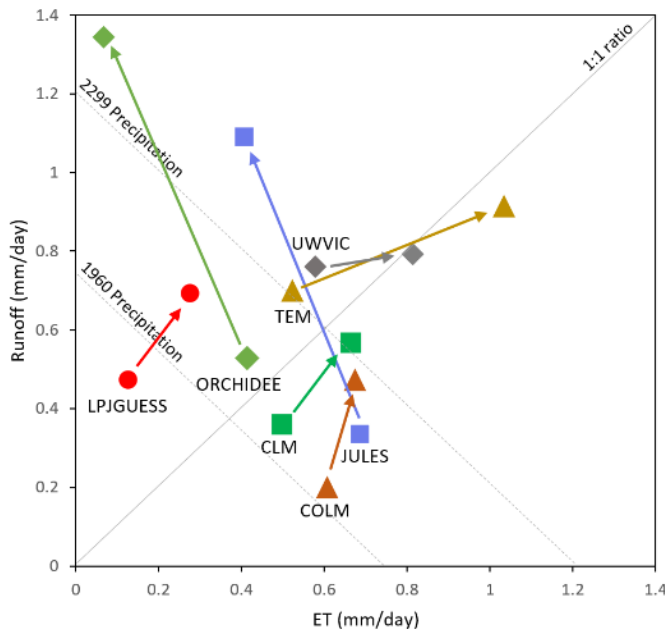
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237 Models may project surface soil drying but the hydrological pathways through which this drying occurs
 238 appears to differ across models. The diversity of precipitation partitioning (Figure 5) demonstrates that
 239 specific representations and parameterizations for ET and runoff are not consistent across models. Though
 240 some models maintain a similar R/P ratio throughout the simulation (e.g., CLM, COLM, LPJGUESS),
 241 others show shifts from an ET-dominated system to a runoff-dominated system (e.g. JULES) and vice
 242 versa (e.g. TEM6 and UWVIC).

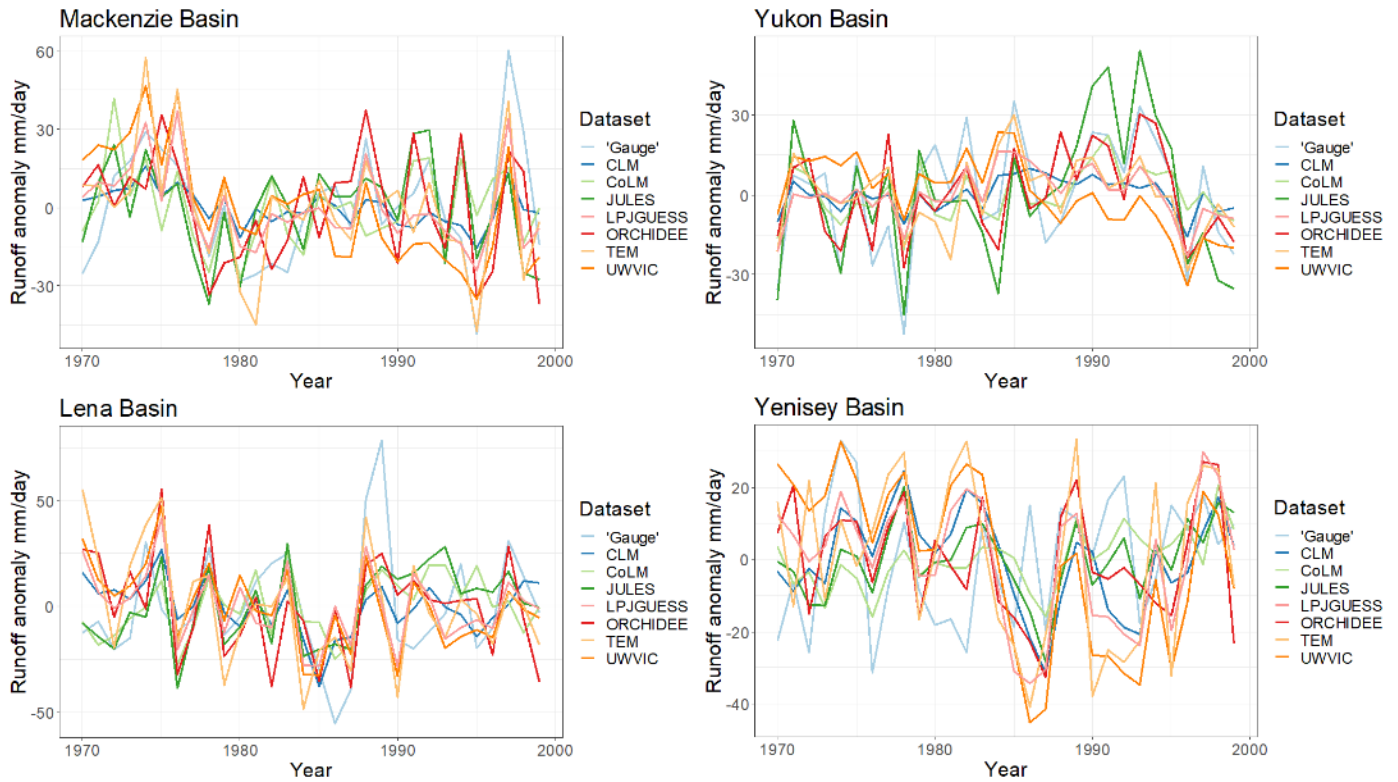
243 Evapotranspiration from the permafrost area is projected to rise in all models driven by warmer air
 244 temperatures and more productive vegetation, but the amplitude of that trend varies widely. The average
 245 projected evapotranspiration increase is 0.1 ± 0.1 mm/day (mean \pm SD, hereafter) by 2100, which
 246 represents about a 25% increase over 20th century levels. Beyond 2100, the ET projections diverge
 247 (Figure 2e).

248 Runoff is also projected to increase with projections across models being highly variable (Figure 2g). The
 249 change in the models' ensemble mean between 1960-2299 was 0.2 ± 0.2 mm/day. CLM, COLM,
 250 LPJGUESS and TEM6 simulated runoff changes of 0.2 to 0.3 mm/day by 2299. UWVIC exhibit small to
 251 null changes in runoff while SIBCASA shows surface runoff only.

252 Comparison between gauge station data and runoff simulations from the major river basins in the
 253 permafrost region shows that most models agree on the long term timing (Figure 6, Table 3) but the
 254 magnitude is generally underestimated (Figure 7). The gauge discharge mean for the four river basins is
 255 219 ± 36 mm/yr compared to the models' ensemble mean of 101 ± 82 mm/yr for the period 1970-1999.
 256 Excluding SIBCASA, the models' ensemble mean is 134 ± 69 mm/yr. However, models show reasonable
 257 correlations between runoff output and observed annual discharge time series (Table 3). SIBCASA
 258 horizontal subsurface runoff was disabled on the simulation because it tended to drain the active layer
 259 completely, resulting in very low and unrealistic soil moisture. Therefore, SIBCASA runoff values shown
 260 in this study are only for surface runoff.
 261 The net water balance (P-ET-R) is projected to increase for most models with precipitation increases
 262 outpacing the sum of ET and runoff changes. All models except TEM6 show an increase in the net water
 263 balance over the simulation period which suggests that models are collecting soil water deeper in the soil
 264 column, presumably in response to increasing ALT, even while the top soil layers dry.
 265
 266



267
 268
 269 **Figure 5. Precipitation partitioning between total runoff and evapotranspiration for participating**
 270 **models. Markers and arrows indicate the change from initial period (1960-1989 average) to final**
 271 **period (2270-2299 average). Diagonal dashed lines represent the ensemble rainfall mean for the**
 272 **initial (0.74 mm/day) and final (1.2 mm/day) simulation years. At any point along the dashed**
 273 **diagonals, runoff and ET sum to precipitation.**
 274
 275
 276

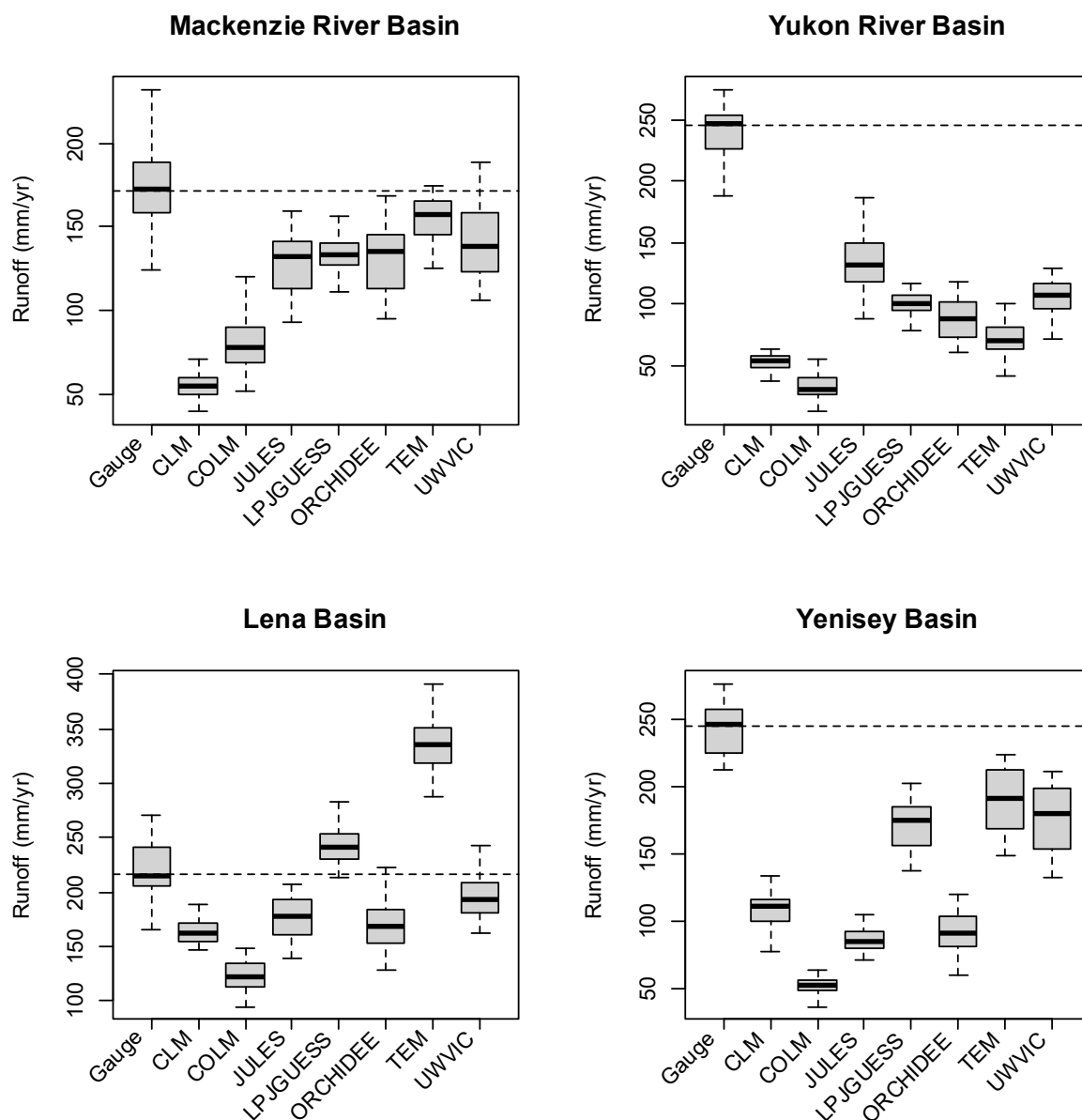


277
 278 **Figure 6. Runoff anomaly comparison between gauge data and models simulations for the period**
 279 **1970-1999.**

280
 281 **Table 3. Correlation coefficients between simulated annual total runoff and gauge mean annual**
 282 **discharge 1970 to 1999. SIBCASA correlations are for surface runoff.**

Model	River Basin				Avg.
	Mackenzie	Yukon	Yenisey	Lena	
CLM	0.70	0.64	0.08	0.46	0.47
ORCHIDEE	0.57	0.69	0.36	0.37	0.50
LPJGGUESS	0.68	0.71	0.14	0.35	0.47
TEM	0.66	0.56	0.16	0.40	0.45
SIBCASA	0.49	0.21	0.08	0.29	0.27
JULES	0.41	0.77	0.34	0.51	0.51
COLM	0.38	0.76	0.27	0.46	0.47
UWVIC	0.44	0.38	0.02	0.31	0.29
Avg.	0.54	0.59	0.18	0.40	

283



284
 285 **Figure 7. Discharge comparison between gauge station data and model output for each river basin.**
 286 **Dashed line indicates mean annual discharge at gauge station. Boxplots derived from mean annual**
 287 **discharge (total runoff) simulations for the period of 1970 to 1999.**

288
 289 **4. Discussion**

290
 291 This study assessed near-surface soil moisture and hydrology projections in the permafrost region using
 292 widely-used land models that represent permafrost. Most models showed near-surface drying despite the
 293 externally-forced intensification of the water cycle driven by climate change. Drying was generally
 294 associated with increases of active layer thickness and permafrost degradation in a warming climate. We
 295 show that the timing and magnitude of projected soil moisture changes vary widely across models,

296 pointing to an uncertain future in permafrost hydrology and associated climatic feedbacks. In this section,
 297 we review the role of projected permafrost loss and active layer thickening on soil moisture changes and
 298 some potential sources of variability among models. In addition, we comment on the potential effects of
 299 soil moisture projections on the permafrost carbon-climate feedback. It is important to note that this study
 300 is more qualitative in nature and does not focus on the detail of magnitude or spatial patterns of model
 301 signatures.

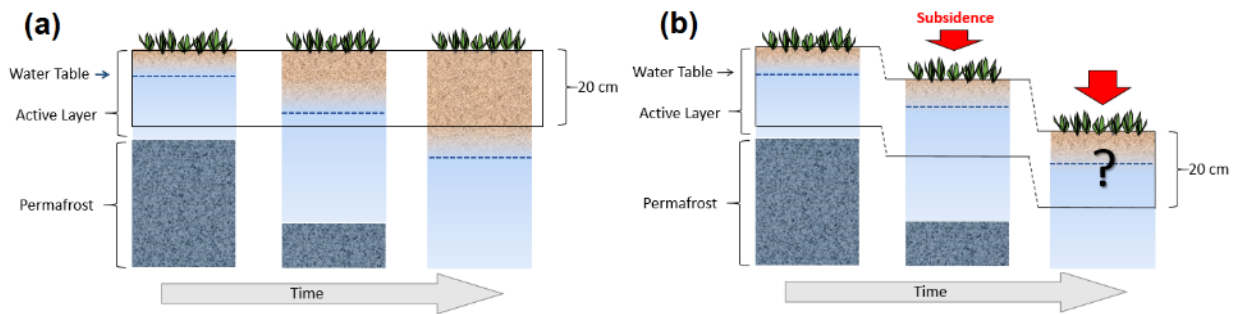
302

303 4.1 Permafrost degradation and drying

304

305 Increases in net precipitation and the counterintuitive drying of the top soil in the permafrost region
 306 suggests that soil column processes such as changes in active layer thickness (ALT) and activation of
 307 subsurface drainage with permafrost thaw are acting to dry the top soil layers (Figure 8a). In general,
 308 models represent impermeable soils when frozen. Then, as soils thaw at progressively depths in the
 309 summer, liquid water infiltrates further into the active layer draining deeper into the thawed soil column
 310 (Avis et al., 2011; Lawrence et al., 2015; Swenson et al., 2012). However, relevant soil column processes
 311 related to thermokarst by thawing of excess ground ice (Lee et al., 2014) are limited in these simulations
 312 despite their significant occurrence in the permafrost region (Olefeldt et al., 2016). As permafrost thaws,
 313 ground ice melts, potentially reducing the volume of the soil column and changing the hydrological
 314 properties of the soil (Aas et al., 2019; Nitzbon et al., 2019). This would occur where soil surface
 315 elevation drops through sudden collapse or slow deformation by an amount equal to or greater than the
 316 increased depth of annual thaw (Figure 8b). This mechanism, not represented in current large-scale
 317 models, could result in projected increases or no change in the water table over time as observed by long-
 318 term studies (Andresen and Loughheed, 2015; Mauritz et al., 2017; Natali et al., 2015). Subsidence of 12-
 319 13 cm has been observed in Northern Alaska over a five year period, which represents a volume loss of
 320 about 25% of the average ALT for that region (~50cm) (Streletskiy et al., 2008). These lines of evidence
 321 may suggest that permafrost thaw may not dry the Arctic as fast as simulated by land models but rather
 322 maintain or enhanced soil water saturation depending on the water balance of the modeled cell column.
 323

323



324

325 **Figure 8. Schematic of changes in the soil column moisture (a) without subsidence (current models)**
 326 **and (b) with subsidence from thawing ice-rich permafrost (not represented by models), a process**
 327 **that may accumulate soil moisture and slow down drying over time.**

328

329 Recent efforts have been made to address the high sub-grid heterogeneity of fine-scale mechanisms
 330 including soil subsidence (Aas et al., 2019), hillslope hydrology, talik and thermokarst development
 331 (Jafarov et al., 2018), ice wedge degradation (Abolt et al., 2018; Liljedahl et al., 2016; Nitzbon et al.,
 332 2019), vertical and lateral heat transfer on permafrost thaw and groundwater flow (Kurylyk et al., 2016)

333 and lateral water fluxes (Nitzbon et al., 2019). These processes are known to have a major role on surface
334 and subsurface hydrology and their implementation in large scale models is needed. Other important
335 challenges in land models' hydrology include representation of the significant area dynamics of the
336 ubiquitous smaller, shallow water bodies observed over recent decades (Andresen and Loughheed, 2015;
337 Jones et al., 2011; Roach et al., 2011; Smith et al., 2005). These systems are either lacking in simulations
338 (polygon ponds and small lakes) or assumed to be static systems in simulations (large lakes). The
339 implementation of surface hydrology dynamics and permafrost processes in large-scale land models will
340 help reduce uncertainty in our ability to predict the future hydrological state of the Arctic and the
341 associated climatic feedbacks. It is important to note that all these processes require data for model
342 calibration, verification and evaluation, that is commonly absent at large scales. Permafrost hydrology
343 will only advance through synergistic efforts between field researchers and modelers.
344

345 **4.2 Uncertainty in soil moisture and hydrology simulations**

346 Differences in representations of soil thermal dynamics can directly affect hydrology through timing of
347 the freezing-thawing cycle and by altering the rates of permafrost loss and subsurface drainage (Finney et
348 al., 2012). McGuire et al. (2016) and Peng et al. (2016) show that these models exhibit considerable
349 differences in permafrost quantities such as active layer thickness, and the mean and trends in near-
350 surface (0-3m) permafrost extent, even though all the models are forced with observed climatology.
351 However, these differences are smaller than those seen across the CMIP5 models (Koven et al., 2013). All
352 models except ORCHIDEE employ a multi-layer finite difference heat diffusion for soil thermal
353 dynamics (Table 2). Organic soil insulation, snow insulation, and unfrozen water effects on phase change
354 are the most common structural differences among models for soil thermal dynamics but do not explain
355 the variability in the simulated changes in ALT and permafrost area as shown by McGuire *et al* (2016).
356 Half of the participating models include organic matter in the soil properties (CLM, ORCHIDEE,
357 SIBCASA, UWVIC) which can significantly impact soil thermal properties and lead to an increase in the
358 hydraulic conductivity of the soil column, thereby enhancing drainage and redistribution of water in the
359 soil column. Soil vertical characterization is another important aspect for soil thermal dynamics and
360 hydrology (Chadburn et al., 2015; Nicolsky et al., 2007). Lawrence et al (2008) indicated that a high-
361 resolution soil column representation is necessary for accurate simulation of long term trends in active
362 layer depth. However, McGuire *et al* (2016) showed that soil column depth did not clearly explain
363 variability of the simulated loss of permafrost area across models.
364 Water table representation can result in a first order effect on soil moisture. Most models (CLM, COLM,
365 SIBCASA and ORCHIDEE) use some version of TOPMODEL (Niu et al., 2007), which employs a
366 prognostic water table where sub-grid scale topography is the main driver of soil moisture variability in
367 the cell. However, water table is not explicitly represented in other models such as LPJGUESS, which has
368 a uniform water table which is only applied for wetland areas. In addition to water table, storage and
369 transmission of water in soils is a fundamental component of an accurate representation of soil moisture
370 (Niu and Yang, 2006). The representation of soil water storage and transmission varies across models
371 from Richards equations based on Clapp Hornberger and/or van Genuchten (1980) functions (e.g CLM,
372 CoLM, SIBCASA, ORCHIDEE) to a simplified one layer bucket (e.g. TEM6). It is also important to
373 note that most models differ in their numerical implementations of processes, such as water movement
374 through frozen soils (Gouttevin, I. et al., 2012; Swenson et al., 2012), and in the use of iterative solutions
375 and vertical discretization of water transmission (De Rosnay et al., 2000).

376 Differences in representation of vertical fluxes through evapotranspiration (ET) are also likely adding to
377 the high variability in soil moisture projections. ET sources (e.g. interception loss, plant transpiration, soil
378 evaporation) were similar across models but had different formulations (Table 2). The diversity of ET
379 implementations (e.g. evaporative resistances from fractional areas, etc.) and of vegetation maps used by
380 the modelling groups (Ottlé et al., 2013) can also contribute to the big spread on the temporal simulations
381 for ET and soil moisture. Along with projected increases in ET, net precipitation (P-ET) is projected to
382 increase for all models suggesting that drying is not attributed only to soil evaporation, and the increasing
383 net water balance (P-ET-R) proposes that models are storing water deeper in the soil column as
384 permafrost near the surface thaws.

385 Despite runoff improvements (Swenson et al., 2012), underestimation of river discharge has been a
386 challenge in previous versions in models (Slater et al., 2007). The differences between models and
387 observations in mean annual discharge may stem from several sources. Particularly, the substantial
388 variation in the precipitation forcing for these models (Figure 2e). This is attributed, in part, to the sparse
389 observational networks in high latitudes. River discharge at high latitudes can differ substantially when
390 different reanalysis forcing datasets are used. For example, river discharge for Arctic rivers differs
391 substantially in CLM4.5 simulations when forced with GSWP3v1 compared to CRUNCEPv7 reanalysis
392 datasets (not shown, runoff for MacKenzie, +32%; Yukon, +78%; Lena, -2%; Yenisey, +22%). Other
393 factors include potential deficiencies in the parameterization and/or implementation of ET and runoff
394 processes as well as vegetation processes.

395

396 **4.3 Implications for the permafrost carbon-climate feedback**

397

398 If drying of the permafrost region occurs, carbon losses from the soil will be dominated by CO₂ as a result
399 of increased heterotrophic respiration rates compared to moist conditions (Elberling et al., 2013;
400 Oberbauer et al., 2007; Schädel et al., 2016). With projected drying, CH₄ flux emissions will slow down
401 by the reduction of soil saturation and inundated areas through lowering the water table in grid cells
402 (Figure 8A). In a sensitivity study using CLM, the slower increase of methane emissions associated with
403 surface drying could potentially lead to a reduction in the Global Warming Potential of permafrost carbon
404 emissions by up to 50% compared to saturated soils (Lawrence et al., 2015). However, we need to also
405 consider that current land models lack representation of important CH₄ sources and pathways in the
406 permafrost region such as lake and wetland dynamics that can counteract the suppression of CH₄ fluxes
407 by projected drying. Seasonal wetland area variation, which is not represented or is poorly represented in
408 current models, can contribute to a third of the annual CH₄ flux in boreal wetlands (Ringeval et al., 2012).
409 Although this manuscript may raise more questions than answers, this study highlights the importance of
410 advancing hydrology and hydrological heterogeneity in land models to help determine the spatial
411 variability, timing, and reasons for changes in hydrology of terrestrial landscapes of the Arctic. These
412 improvements may constrain projections of land-atmosphere carbon exchange and reduce uncertainty on
413 the timing and intensity of the permafrost carbon feedback.

414

415 **Data availability**

416

417 The simulation data analyzed in this manuscript is available through the National Snow and Ice Data
418 Center (NSIDC; <http://nsidc.org>). Inquires please contact Kevin Schaefer (kevin.schaefer@nsidc.org).

419

420 **Author contributions**

421
422 This manuscript is a collective effort of the modeling groups of the Permafrost Carbon Network
423 (<http://www.permafrostcarbon.org>). C.G.A, D.M.L., C.J.W., A.D.M. wrote the initial draft with additional
424 contributions of all authors. Figures prepared by C.G.A.

425
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427
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436
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