Nonlinearity of Land Carbon Sensitivities in Climate Change Simulations

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Abstract

In the climate-carbon cycle system, the terrestrial ecosystem feedback is significant. In studies on feedback analysis, the ecosystem feedback is divided into the sensitivity of carbon storage to atmospheric CO2 concentration ($\beta_L$), and temperature change ($\gamma_L$). Although ecosystems include many nonlinear processes, the scenario- and time-dependency of $\beta_L$ and $\gamma_L$ have not been explicitly discussed. To check the validity of this simplification and its robustness, we carried out two, 1% per year (p.a.) increase and RCP4.5 scenario, experiments, using a process-based terrestrial ecosystem model forced by an existing GCM output, combined with an energy moisture balance model for the latter experiment, with 300 ensemble members perturbing twelve important and a priori unconstrained parameters. In the 1% p.a. experiment, $\beta_L$ peaked around 500 ppm and then gradually decreased with increasing CO2 level, while $\gamma_L$ decreased with some inter-annual variability as temperature increases. The time-dependency of $\beta_L$ was small (at least for CO2 level > 550 ppm), but that of $\gamma_L$ was significant, and the effect of this was larger than that of the nonlinear term (i.e., combined effect of CO2 and temperature change). The scenario-dependency is also significant, but the effect in the estimated carbon uptake was smaller than that by the time-dependency. By investigating the background of this effect, we found that in the 1% p.a. CO2 increase scenario, the maximum photosynthesis rate and specific leaf area (SLA, leaf area per unit dry mass) had the most significant contribution to both of $\beta_L$ and $\gamma_L$, and the contributions are dependent on the climate state (i.e., temperature and atmospheric CO2 level). For carbon uptake in both experiments, SLA and coefficient of plant respiration were most significant. We also attempted to constrain the ensemble members, and found that for net primary production, soil carbon and soil respiration, the default parameter set was already well-tuned, while observations of leaf area index (LAI) strongly constrains $\beta_L$, $\gamma_L$, airborne fraction and ecosystem carbon balance as the default model overestimated the LAI.

1. Introduction

The carbon cycle will have a significant impact on the future climate. The contribution of carbon cycle to the uncertainty in transient climate response is reported as about 40% of that of physical component (Huntingford et al. 2009). The positive feedback of carbon cycle to warming climate was first reported by Cox et al. (2000); by comparing
The ocean CO2 uptake, in addition to the ocean CO2 uptake, is the difference in vegetation and soil carbon responses, in addition to the ocean CO2 uptake controlled by HadCM3LC model. Friedlingstein et al. (2001) agreed with the sign of the feedback, but with significantly smaller magnitude (less than half) for the IPSL model. Friedlingstein et al. (2003) concluded that the reason for this difference is the difference in vegetation and soil carbon responses, in addition to the ocean CO2 uptake controlled by the Southern Ocean circulation.

For the source of the terrestrial feedback, in Cox et al.’s (2000) study, soil carbon rather than vegetation carbon is the principal mechanism of positive climate-carbon cycle feedback. Jones et al. (2008) attempted to vary the temperature dependency of the soil respiration in the same model as Cox et al. (2000) and found that 25% of the uncertainty in climate-carbon cycle feedback was explained by this process. Dufresne et al. (2002) concluded that the discrepancy between Hadley and IPSL models are caused by difference of carbon allocation to vegetation and soil, and faster atmospheric warming in the Hadley model. Also, Matthews et al. (2005), by running an earth system model of intermediate complexity with four parameters for upper temperature constrain of photosynthesis, showed that varying photosynthesis parameter can significantly affect the soil carbon budget.

Given this background, Friedlingstein et al. (2006), summarizing the Coupled-Climate-Carbon Cycle Model Intercomparison Project (C4MIP), concluded that all models simulated a positive climate-carbon cycle feedback, but there is large uncertainty among models, and the terrestrial ecosystem has larger values than marine ecosystem both in magnitude and uncertainty in the feedback. Friedlingstein et al. (2006) also proposed that the response of the climate-carbon cycle system to carbon emission can be described by three properties: linearized transient climate response (which they call x, in K ppm⁻¹), land and ocean carbon sensitivities to atmospheric CO2 concentration (β, PgC ppm⁻¹), and land and ocean carbon sensitivities to temperature change (γ, PgC K⁻¹). Note that as well as being linearised, the use of a transient climate (temperature) response is somewhat scenario-specific and does not necessarily coincide with the IPCC definition of the temperature response after 70 years of a 1% per year (p.a.) rise in atmospheric CO2. Similarly, as ecosystem models have many nonlinear processes, their responses to changing climate should be nonlinear, thus using single value for β and γ is contestable.

Matthews et al. (2007), by carrying out five runs varying some parameters related to photosynthesis and soil respiration, reported that the largest source of uncertainty in feedback strength of the terrestrial ecosystem to the climate change is photosynthesis-temperature response, and the difference in this property leads different γ, and then different magnitude of the total feedback.

Gregory et al. (2009) calculated the carbon cycle feedback, by doing full coupled, biogeochemically coupled (i.e., uncoupled) and radiatively coupled (CO2 works as a greenhouse gas and induces climate change, but ecosystems feel a constant CO2 concentration) runs for 1% p.a. concentration scenario. In that study, the airborne fraction, the ratio of the increase in airborne carbon to the accumulated carbon emission, is introduced as an important metric of total feedbacks. This is, combined with transient climate response, closely related to the discovery of a quasi-constant ratio of the temperature rise and the cumulative carbon emission (e.g., Allen et al. 2009; Matthews et al. 2009; Meinshausen et al. 2009).

In this study, by perturbing important parameters, we assess the validity of the linearisation in β and γ, and the range of uncertainty in sensitivity of the terrestrial ecosystem to changing CO2 concentration and to climate change. We use the terrestrial ecosystem component (Sim-CYCLE, Ito and Okiwawa 2002) of MIROC3.2-ESM, a state of the art earth system model (ESM) which participated in C4MIP with the name of “FRGC”. Unlike existing studies which have used at most only a handful of runs, we run 300 ensemble members to widely cover the possible parameter space. We achieve this by use of a “loosely coupled” (coupled only in the end of each year) earth system model emulator (JUMP-LCM, Tachiiri et al. 2010), in which a simplified physical model (MIROC-lite, Oka et al. 2010) is combined with a vegetation model, driven by output from a precalculated GCM run, thus emulating a full Atmosphere-Ocean-vegetation General Circulation Model at much greater computational speed. To check the universality of the magnitude of the feedbacks, we applied two concentration scenarios, 1% p.a. incremental atmospheric CO2 concentration increase and Representative Concentration Pathways (RCP, Moss et al. 2010) 4.5. The first experiment, inputting a steadily increasing CO2 concentration to reach over
1200 ppm, is designed to investigate the model’s basic characteristics, and the second experiment is for more practical purpose, i.e., to know what will likely happen in the near future.

The first objective of the study is to check the validity of the linearisation in $\beta$ and $\gamma$. The second objective is to identify the important parameters that determine the magnitude of feedback of terrestrial ecosystem models (and natural terrestrial ecosystems). Once identified, future research may be focused on better evaluating these parameters, and thus projections of climate change may be better constrained.

2. Method

2.1 Models

a. Sim-CYCLE

In this study, the terrestrial vegetation model considered is Sim-CYCLE, a process based terrestrial carbon cycle model. As the detail of the model is described by Ito and Oikawa (2002), here we will put brief explanation focusing on our choice of perturbed parameters (listed as p1–p12 in Table 1).

The single-leaf photosynthetic rate ($PC$, mol CO$_2$ m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) is formulated as a Michaelis-type function of the incident Photosynthetic Photon Flux Density ($PPFD_{in}$, mol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$):

$$PC = \frac{PC_{sat} \cdot QE \cdot PPFD_{in}}{(PC_{sat} + QE \cdot PPFD_{in})},$$

where $PC_{sat}$ is $PC$ for the light saturation condition; $QE$ (mol CO$_2$ mol photon$^{-1}$) is light-use efficiency. $PC_{sat}$ and $QE$ are formulated as (maximum value) $\times$ (stress function), where the stresses are based on temperature, CO$_2$ level, air humidity and soil water (the parameters are different for C3, C4, crop plants) as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Label</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Default</th>
<th>Perturbation range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>p1</td>
<td>Maximum photosynthesis rate</td>
<td>$PC_{sat}$</td>
<td>$\mu$molCO$_2$ m$^{-2}$s$^{-1}$</td>
<td>8.0~13.5$^{*}$</td>
<td>$-20\sim+100%$ (of the default)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p2</td>
<td>Specific leaf area</td>
<td>$SLA$</td>
<td>cm$^2$ (g drymatter)$^{-1}$</td>
<td>110~170$^{*}$</td>
<td>$-50\sim+50%$ (of the default)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p3</td>
<td>Maximum light use efficiency</td>
<td>$QE_0$</td>
<td>molCO$_2$ (mol photon)$^{-1}$</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.047<del>0.057 (C3, crop), 0.047</del>0.071 (C4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p4</td>
<td>Minimum temperature for photosynthesis</td>
<td>$T_{MIN}$</td>
<td>°C</td>
<td>$-5.0\sim11.0^{*}$</td>
<td>$-3\sim+3$°C (of the default)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p5</td>
<td>Dependence of photosynthesis on intercellular CO$_2$ concentration</td>
<td>$KM_C$</td>
<td>ppmv</td>
<td>10.0~40.0$^{*}$</td>
<td>$-20\sim+20%$ (of the default)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p6</td>
<td>Coefficient for specific maintenance respiration rate at 15°C</td>
<td>$SARM$</td>
<td>mgC (gC)$^{-1}$ day$^{-1}$</td>
<td>1.25~1.62$^{*}$</td>
<td>$-30\sim+70%$ (of the default)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p7</td>
<td>Coefficient of leaf life expectancy</td>
<td>$SLF$</td>
<td>Fraction day$^{-1}$</td>
<td>1.23~3.20 × 10$^{-3}$$^{*}$</td>
<td>$-50\sim+50%$ (of the default)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p8</td>
<td>Coefficient for allocation of assimilation</td>
<td>alloc_ass</td>
<td>(Dimensionless)</td>
<td>0.19~0.30$^{*}$</td>
<td>$-50\sim+50%$ (of the default)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p9</td>
<td>Coefficient for allocation of aboveground biomass</td>
<td>aloc_abg</td>
<td>(Dimensionless)</td>
<td>0.07~0.52$^{*}$</td>
<td>$-50\sim+50%$ (of the default)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p10</td>
<td>Coefficient for temperature dependency of plant’s respiration</td>
<td>$QT_0$</td>
<td>(Dimensionless)</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.5~3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p11</td>
<td>The 1st parameter for the temperature-dependency of soil decomposition</td>
<td>soil1</td>
<td>K</td>
<td>308.56</td>
<td>200~340$^{**}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p12</td>
<td>The 2nd parameter for the temperature-dependency of soil decomposition</td>
<td>soil2</td>
<td>K</td>
<td>46.02</td>
<td>40~60$^{**}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*: vegetation-type dependent; **: corresponding to Q10 of 1.5–3.0.
\( PC_{\text{sat}} = PC_{\text{so}} \times F_{pc}(T) \times F_{pc}(CD_{\text{ICL}}) \times F_{pc}(SW) \) \hspace{1cm} (2)

and

\( QE = QE_0 \times F_{QE}(T) \times F_{QE}(CD_{\text{ICL}}). \) \hspace{1cm} (3)

Here \( PC_{\text{so}} \) and \( QE_0 \) are the potential maximum values for photosynthetic rate and light-use efficiency, which are perturbed in our experiments and listed as p1 and p3 in Table 1. \( F_{pc}(T), F_{QE}(T), F_{pc}(CD_{\text{ICL}}), F_{QE}(CD_{\text{ICL}}), F_{pc}(SW) \) are functions which constrain photosynthetic activity using temperature, intercellular CO2 concentration, and soil water condition. From PC, the instantaneous Gross Primary Production rate \( (GPP_{\text{ins}}, \text{MgC ha}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}) \) is calculated under an assumption of exponential attenuation of photosynthetically active irradiance due to leaves’ mutual shading.

\[ GPP_{\text{ins}} = \int_{0}^{LAI} PC \cdot dLAI, \] \hspace{1cm} (4)

where \( LAI \) is Leaf Area Index calculated in Eq. (5):

\[ LAI = 0.5 \times SLA \times W_F, \] \hspace{1cm} (5)

where \( SLA \), the Specific Leaf Area (ha MgC\(^{-1}\)), is perturbed parameter p2, and \( W_F \) (MgC ha\(^{-1}\)) is leaf biomass.

In Eq. (2), \( F_{pc}(T) \) and \( F_{pc}(CD_{\text{ICL}}) \) are formulated as Eqs. (6) and (7):

\[ F_{pc}(T) = \frac{(T - T_{\text{MAX}})(T - T_{\text{MIN}})}{(T - T_{\text{MAX}})(T - T_{\text{MIN}}) - (T - T_{\text{OPT}})^2} \] \hspace{1cm} (6)

and

\[ F_{pc}(CD_{\text{ICL}}) = \frac{CD_{\text{ICL}} - CD_{\text{CMP}}}{KM_{CD} + CD_{\text{ICL}}}, \] \hspace{1cm} (7)

where in Eq. (6), \( T_{\text{MAX}}, T_{\text{MIN}}, \) and \( T_{\text{OPT}} \) (°C for all) are the maximum, minimum, and optimum temperatures for photosynthesis, respectively, and among these \( T_{\text{MIN}} \) is the fourth parameter perturbed (p4). On the other hand, in Eq. (7), \( KM_{CD} \) (ppmv) is a parameter of CO2 sensitivity perturbed as p5, and \( CD_{\text{ICL}} \) and \( CD_{\text{CMP}} \) (ppmv for both) are the intercellular CO2 concentration and CO2 compensation point (at which the rate of photosynthesis equals the rate of respiration).

Autotrophic plant respiration consists of two components: the maintenance respiration, and the growth respiration. The amount of the maintenance respiration per unit existing carbon is an exponential function of temperature (°C) with a coefficient of so called \( Q10, \) while the growth respiration is proportional to a net biomass gain. Thus maintenance respiration \( (ARM, \text{MgC ha}^{-1}\text{month}^{-1}) \) is calculated as below:

\[ ARM = SARM \cdot QT^{(T - 15)/10} \cdot WP, \] \hspace{1cm} (8)

\[ QT = QT_0 \cdot e^{(0.009(T - 15))}, \] \hspace{1cm} (9)

where \( T, \) \( QT \) and \( QT_0 \) are temperature, \( Q10 \) for \( ARM, \) and a coefficient to determine the temperature-dependency of plant respiration, of which the latter is p10. \( SARM \) (MgC ha\(^{-1}\)s\(^{-1}\)), a function of the biomass, is the specific respiration rate perturbed by using a coefficient (p6). \( WP \) (MgC ha\(^{-1}\)) is the biomass of each of foliage, stem and root.

The seventh parameter p7 is a constant mortality or turnover rate \( (SLF, \text{MgC MgC}^{-1}\text{day}^{-1}) \) in the following equation for litterfall \( (LF, \text{MgC ha}^{-1}\text{day}^{-1}). \)

\[ LF = SLF \cdot WP, \] \hspace{1cm} (10)

p8 and p9 are parameters related to the allocation of the produced carbon, which is distributed such that the fixed carbon is utilised by the plants most profitably to survive. Photosyntheate is allocated first to foliage so that it becomes close to the optimal leaf area index maximizing daily net carbon uptake calculated from the daily GPP (Kuroiwa 1966). The rate of allocation to foliage is parameterised and perturbed as p8. After the carbon allocated to foliage is removed, a constant ratio (p9) of residual carbon is allocated to stem, and finally the remained part is distributed to root.

Soil organic carbon is divided into two components: the labile part of litter which circulates once in several months or a year, and the passive part in mineral soil which remains for decades or centuries. Thus, heterotrophic soil respiration \( (HR, \text{MgC ha}^{-1}\text{day}^{-1}) \) is composed of two components corresponding to these two. For both, temperature and soil moisture conditions are influential. For temperature dependency, an Arrhenius type function (Lloyd and Taylor 1994) of soil temperature \( (TS, \text{°C}) \) is used:

\[ F_{HR}(TS) = e^{0.01 \times (1/\text{soil2} - 1/(TS + 46.02))}, \] \hspace{1cm} (11)

where values of soil1 and soil2 are 308.56 and 56.02 in the default model, and perturbed as p11 and p12 in the ensemble experiments. Equation (11) results in a temperature-dependent Q10, unlike TRIFFID.
with a fixed Q10 value, used in Cox et al. (2000) and Jones et al. (2003).

In this study, the spatial resolution is T42 (128 × 64 grids to cover the globe), and effect of human land use is not considered.

b. JUMP-LCM

For the RCP4.5 scenario experiment, JUMP-LCM (Tachiiri et al. 2010), a system which couples a simplified atmosphere-ocean model (MIROC-lite, Oka et al. 2010) and a terrestrial ecosystem model (Sim-CYCLE, Ito and Oikawa 2002) by shell-scripting, is used. The system was designed to cover the limitation of MIROC-lite having a two dimension atmosphere in representing spatial distribution of some important variables for vegetation (e.g., precipitation and radiation). In this system the coupling process is organised as follows.

(1) MIROC-lite runs one year with a given CO2 concentration (as a concentration scenario is used). As the marine carbon cycle is also included, the amount of CO2 which is absorbed (or released) by the ocean is also calculated and stored for later analysis.

(2) The value of the global mean surface air temperature in MIROC-lite is used to pick a year from the preperformed MIROC3.2 GCM 1% per year increasing CO2 run. In order to choose the year, a quadratic curve is used to smooth the annual mean temperature time series from the GCM data set. Thus the actual year chosen will have a mean temperature that differs from the smoothed value due to inter annual variability. For the appropriate year, daily climatic fields are extracted from the archive.

(3) The year’s worth of daily climatic data from (2) and the CO2 level of (1) are used to run Sim-CYCLE for one year, and we calculate the change in the total terrestrial ecosystem carbon storage. Then, return to (1).

In the current version of JUMP-LCM, the effect of the carbon budget is the only feedback from the ecosystems to the climate system. Other kinds of feedbacks, including effects of changed surface albedo and evaporation, are not considered. In JUMP-LCM, the MIROC-lite’s resolution is 6° × 6° (60 × 30 grids), with 15 ocean layers. The times step was 36 hours.

2.2 Ensemble experiments

Taking in account both the literature and the expert opinion of the Sim-CYCLE model developer (one of the co-authors of this study), we varied the parameters in Sim-CYCLE which have significant effects on the modelled terrestrial carbon cycle, and their ranges, as presented in Table 1. We used a Latin Hypercube to select 300 parameter sets uniformly across the whole parameter space.

Before the experiments, Sim-CYCLE was spun-up at 1850 with atmospheric CO2 concentration of 285 ppm, using 25 years output of a MIROC3.2’s control run for 2000 years (i.e., 80 repeats of the 25 years of forcing data), while MIROC-lite was spun-up at 1850 for 3000 years.

Using the equilibrated spin-up as the initial condition, we carried out the following two experiments, both of which are included in the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5) protocol. One is an ideal case considering only the CO2 forcing increasing at a fixed rate for time designed to assess the model’s basic behavior, and the other one is designed to assess the possible response of the earth system by giving a more realistic scenario. From the RCP scenarios, we chose RCP4.5 as this relatively eco-friendly but, perhaps, not unattainably extreme. This scenario is one of the two core RCP scenarios, and called a medium mitigation scenario in CMIP5 (Taylor et al. 2009)—another core scenario is RCP8.5, a high emissions scenario. By comparing the results from these scenarios, we can assess how the magnitude of feedback is different for different scenarios.

In the first experiment, for all ensemble members, daily output of the 1% incremental CO2 increase concentration run of a GCM (an integration of the MIROC3.2 medium resolution version model) is input from 1st to 150th year (thus this is an offline experiment). For this scenario we carried out three experiments: fully coupled, biogeochemically (BGC) coupled, and radiatively coupled cases. In a fully coupled run both of temperature and CO2 concentration is increased. In the BGC coupled case, CO2 concentration increases but that does not work as a green house gas (i.e., the air temperature does not increase). In the third case, on the other hand, temperature increases but the CO2 concentration that the ecosystem senses is kept as 285 ppm. By comparing the results of these three experiments, we can calculate $\beta$ and $\gamma$ for land, and their variation in time.

For the second experiment we ran the model, JUMP-LCM, for the RCP4.5 concentration scenario (http://www.pik-potsdam.de/~mmalte/rcps/). The non-CO2 forcing, including the effects of other
greenhouse gases, tropospheric/stratospheric aerosols and the variation of the solar activity, is considered as radiative forcing. By comparing the results from the two experiments we can assess the scenario-dependency of the feedback of the terrestrial ecosystem.

Atmospheric CO2 concentration and change in the global mean surface air temperature for the two experiments are presented in Fig. 1.

2.3 Metrics of feedbacks

Among $x$, $\beta$, $\gamma$, the first one is a physical characteristic determined by the equilibrium climate sensitivity and ocean heat uptake efficiency, and other two are characteristics of biogeochemical cycles. There are two, terrestrial and marine, carbon-cycle components, so $\beta$ and $\gamma$ can be subdivided to those of land and ocean, and labeled $\beta_L$, $\beta_O$, $\gamma_L$ and $\gamma_O$.

To get $x$, $\beta$, $\gamma$, Friedlingstein et al. (2006) compiled all participant models’ outputs for two experiments using SRES A2 emission scenario: “coupled” (fully coupled) run and “uncoupled” (BGC coupled in this study) run. Then from these two runs they calculated $x$, $\beta$, $\gamma$ with an assumption that $\beta$ and $\gamma$ work linearly (i.e., independently and additively). Rather than emission scenarios, Gregory et al. (2009) recommended concentration scenario experiments to simplify the feedback analyses. The accumulated total carbon uptake by ecosystem ($C_u$) can be written as follows:

$$C_u = C_\beta + C_\gamma = \beta C + \gamma T,$$

where $C$, $T$ are change in airborne carbon and in temperature. $C_\beta$ and $C_\gamma$ are changes in ecosystem carbon storage due to changing CO2 concentration, and temperature, respectively. For biogeochemically coupled (or “uncoupled”) run the carbon uptake ($C'_u$) is as follows:

$$C'_u = \beta C.$$

And in Friedlingstein et al.’s (2006) approach, we have:

$$C''_u = C_u - C'_u = \gamma T,$$

where $C''_u$ is carbon uptake in the radiatively coupled run. Equations (12)–(14) hold for the land subcomponent:

$$C_{ul} = \beta_L C + \gamma_L T,$$

$$C'_{ul} = \beta_L C,$$

$$C''_{ul} = \gamma_L T.$$

Gregory et al. (2009) showed that, although an approximately linear relationship was found for the temperature rise, the linear relationship ($C_u = C'_u + C''_u$) is not met for carbon uptake, and recommended to do three experiments including radiatively coupled run, so that $\beta$ can be obtained from the biogeochemically coupled run, and $\gamma$ can be from radiatively coupled run. Gregory et al. (2009) also showed the non-constancy of $\beta$, which depends on the rate of increase in CO2 concentration.

An important metric to evaluate the combined effect of concentration-carbon (i.e., $\beta$) and the climate-carbon ($\gamma$) feedbacks is the cumulative airborne fraction, that is the ratio of increase in carbon in the atmosphere to the cumulative carbon emission, which for concentration scenario runs is
equal to the integrated allowable carbon emission (sum of carbon increases in atmosphere, land ecosystem, and marine ecosystem) (e.g., Gregory et al. 2009). By using this metric we attempt to combine $b$ and $g$ to the change in the total carbon for RCP4.5 scenario, through the airborne fraction ($A$, Gregory et al. (2009)): 

$$A = \frac{1}{1 + \beta + x\gamma},$$

where $\phi = \frac{dF_r}{dC_A}$ ($F_r$ and $C_A$ are radiative forcing (W m$^{-2}$) and change in the atmospheric carbon content (PgC) relative to the pre-industrial state, $\rho$ (W m$^{-2}$K$^{-1}$)) is climate resistance, the sum of the climate feedback parameter and the ocean heat uptake efficiency. There is a relation between $A$, $C_u$ and $C_E$ (emitted carbon) by Eq. (19):

$$C_u = C_E - C_A = C_E \cdot (1 - A).$$

Also, using $A$, the ratio of the temperature rise to the cumulative carbon emission is calculated. This ratio was named carbon climate response (CCR) by Matthews et al. (2009).

$$CCR = \frac{dT}{dC_E} dC_A \cdot \frac{dC_A}{dC_E} = \frac{dT}{dC_A} A = \frac{\phi}{\rho} \cdot A.$$  

In this study, we first calculate the variation in time of $\beta$ and $\gamma$, by evaluating them throughout a 1% p.a. experiment. Next, to assess the scenario-dependency of $\beta$ and $\gamma$ we attempted to estimate $C_u$ for RCP4.5 using Eq. (12) by using $b$ and $g$ calculated from 1% p.a. scenario. $A$ and CCR are only used to check if our LCM could represent the basic characteristic of the existing ESMs.

The metrics mentioned in this sub-section are summarised in Table 2.

### Table 2. Metrics of feedback.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metrics</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Note</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>(Concentration-carbon feedback)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbon sensitivities to atmospheric</td>
<td>PgC ppm$^{-1}$ (or PgC PgC$^{-1}$)</td>
<td>Friedlingstein et al. (2006)</td>
<td>$\beta_L$ ($\beta_O$) for land (ocean)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO$_2$ concentration ($\beta$)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>(Climate-carbon feedback)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbon sensitivities to temperature</td>
<td>PgC K$^{-1}$</td>
<td>Friedlingstein et al. (2006)</td>
<td>$\gamma_L$ ($\gamma_O$) for land (ocean)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>change ($\gamma$)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>(Overall feedback)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accumulated total carbon uptake by</td>
<td>PgC</td>
<td>Friedlingstein et al. (2006)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ecosystem ($C_u$)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Airborne Fraction (ratio of increase</td>
<td>dimensionless</td>
<td>Gregory et al. (2009) etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in airborne carbon to total carbon</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>increase in air, ocean and land, $A$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Carbon Climate Response</strong></td>
<td>K PgC$^{-1}$</td>
<td>Matthews et al. (2009) etc.</td>
<td>Allen et al. (2009) defined Cumulative Warming Commitment (CWC) for the peak warming.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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between $\gamma_L^{\text{full-BGC}}$ and $\gamma_L^{\text{rad}}$ is the existence of the combined effect of temperature and CO$_2$ concentration in photosynthesis (Eqs. 2 and 3). Also, in Sim-CYCLE the optimum temperature for photosynthesis is dependent on CO$_2$ concentration. Another possible reason is that when temperature is increased, other climatic conditions including precipitation and humidity are changed and have an effect on the vegetation’s activity. Moreover, soil respiration, proportional to soil carbon storage, is reduced in the radiatively coupled run and thus causes less carbon to be released.

Regarding the assessment of temperature rise using the cumulative emission, Fig. 2 presents the airborne fraction ($A$), the ratio of the temperature change to the airborne carbon (K PgC$^{-1}$), and CCR. Figure 2 shows non-equilibrium behavior in the 20th century, due to non-CO$_2$ (in particular aerosol) forcing, and equilibration after that. The nearly constant CCR is consistent with existing studies (e.g., Matthews et al. 2009), confirming that JUMP-LCM can represent some of the basic behavior of ESMs.

As indicated by the carbon uptake curve in Friedlingstein et al. (2006) and Gregory et al. (2009), there are some nonlinearities in $\beta_L$ and $\gamma_L$, but $\beta$ and $\gamma$ are often presented as if they are model specific constants independent of scenarios and time. For careful analyses of ecosystem’s feedback we must understand this nonlinearity, as the applicability of the linear approximation is the key to discussing general feedbacks by using $\beta_L$ and $\gamma_L$ determined by a certain level of CO$_2$ concentration in one scenario.

The change in $\beta_L$ and $\gamma_L$ for varying CO$_2$ concentration (for $\beta_L$) or temperature (for $\gamma_L$) for 1% p.a. scenario is presented in Fig. 3. Figure 3a and 3e present the relationship of land carbon to changing atmospheric CO$_2$ concentration for the biogeochemically coupled run (Fig. 3a) and to changing temperature for the radiatively coupled run (Fig. 3e).

Figures 3b and 3f show that, except for $\beta_L$ in a low CO$_2$ concentration (< 400 ppm), both $\beta_L$ and $\gamma_L$ decrease with increasing CO$_2$ concentration or temperature. The processes causing this non-constancy are as follows. For $\beta_L$, the shape of the function $F_{PC}(CDICL)$ (Eq. 7) is saturating for high CO$_2$ concentration, and leaf area is also saturated for high NPP situation. For $\gamma_L$, the exponential functions of respiration on temperature (Eqs. 8 and 11) appear to be the principal reasons for the non-constancy.

Another result apparent from Fig. 3f is that the standard deviation of $\gamma_L$ increases with temperature. One of the reasons for this may be the spatial variation in the magnitude of the warming. On the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>This study</th>
<th>C4MIP</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha$</td>
<td>K ppm$^{-1}$</td>
<td>0.0066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\beta_L$</td>
<td>PgC ppm$^{-1}$</td>
<td>1.0 ± 0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\gamma_L^{\text{full-BGC}}$</td>
<td>PgC K$^{-1}$</td>
<td>$-79 ± 47$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\gamma_L^{\text{rad}}$</td>
<td>PgC K$^{-1}$</td>
<td>$-88 ± 42$</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Calculated up to 116th year (about 900 ppm). Values of C4MIP is for SRES A2 scenario (Friedlingstein et al. 2006). Presented are average ± standard deviation (of ensemble members for this study, and of models for C4MIP).
other hand, the standard deviation of $\beta_L$ does not show the same effect (Fig. 3b), and we note that, in our experiments, the CO$_2$ concentration is spatially uniform.

Figures 3c and 3g show the relationship between the values at the 66th and the 116th years for $\beta_L$ (c) and $\gamma_L$ (g). It is clear that $\beta_L$ is more similar at the two time-slices than $\gamma_L$. On average $\beta_{L,116}$ is 13% smaller than $\beta_{L,66}$, while $\gamma_{L,116}$ is, on average around 50% smaller (larger negative) than $\gamma_{L,66}$, with a wider spread at large $\gamma_L$. The coefficients of determination for the linear regression in Figs. 3c and 3g are high for both $\beta_L$ (0.95) and $\gamma_L$ (0.98), but Fig. 3c shows some nonlinearity in $\beta_L$.

Figures 3d and 3h show the relationship between the values at the 116th and the 150th years for $\beta_L$ (c) and $\gamma_L$ (g). It is apparent that in comparison to below 900 ppm condition $\beta_L$ is less constant for the higher CO$_2$ concentration condition, while $\gamma_L$ is more constant. However, according to the coefficients of the regression line, $\beta_L$ still has slightly more constancy than $\gamma_L$ for the high CO$_2$ concentration condition. As in Fig. 3c, weak nonlinearity is apparent in Fig. 3d.

Another nonlinearity, the difference between $\gamma_L$ calculated by the radiatively coupled run ($\gamma_L$ (rad)), and that by the difference of full coupled and biogeochemically coupled runs ($\gamma_L$ (full-BGC)), is shown in Fig. 4. Figures 4a and 4c show the relationship between the values obtained by two different methods, and Figs. 4b and 4d show the relative difference of these two values. For many ensemble members, the difference between the two values is around 20% of $\gamma_L$ (rad), but the sign is opposite for the 66th and 116th years. For the 66th year, $\gamma_L$ (rad) > $\gamma_L$ (full-BGC), while for the 116th year $\gamma_L$ (rad) < $\gamma_L$ (full-BGC), indicating that the sign of the nonlinear term, determined by the combination of the above-mentioned reasons for the difference of $\gamma_L$ (rad) and $\gamma_L$ (full-BGC) can change for different CO$_2$ concentration and temperature.

From these results, it is concluded that a first order linearity may be assumed, although for more careful assessments it may be necessary to consider the effect of the nonlinearity.

In order to estimate the magnitude of scenario-dependency in $\beta_L$ and $\gamma_L$, we assessed the land carbon uptake by using Eq. (15) to compare three kinds of nonlinearities in $\beta_L$ and $\gamma_L$ (Fig. 5): effect of combined term by CO$_2$ and temperature-dependency (black marks in Fig. 5a), time-dependency of $\beta_L$ and $\gamma_L$ (red marks in Fig. 5a),
and scenario-dependency of $\beta_L$ and $\gamma_L$ (Fig. 5b). The RMSEs for the three plots are, 32, 76, and 55 PgC. As the first nonlinearity is included in the latter two plots, the RMSEs for time- and scenario-dependencies are calculated as 69 and 45 PgC by taking the square root of the MSE after subtracting the MSE of the first nonlinearity. From this result, for this case we can say that the scenario-dependency is larger than effect of nonlinear term, but smaller than the time-dependency, although the clear underestimation by $\beta'_L$ and $\gamma'_L$ calculated from the result of 1% p.a. CO2 increase experiment presented in Fig. 5b is more striking than the dispersion of the red marks in Fig. 5a.

3.2 What controls feedbacks?

Table 4 depicts the coefficients of correlation between the perturbation in each of twelve parameters and $\beta_L$ (or $\gamma_L$) for the 1% p.a. scenario. As presented in the Table, the maximum photosynthetic rate ($PC_{sat}$) and specific leaf area ($SLA$) have the most significant effects on both of $\beta_L$ and $\gamma_L$, and their effects have the same sign (i.e., positive and negative correlations to $\beta_L$ and $\gamma_L$, respectively). In addition, the minimum temperature for photosynthesis ($T_{MIN}$) and the second parameter for the temperature-dependency of soil decomposition ($soil/2$) have strong impacts with <1% level significance on both of $\beta_L$ and $\gamma_L$. The coefficients of leaf
life expectancy (SLF) and coefficient for temperature dependency of plant respiration ($Q_T$) also have strong effects on $\gamma_L$, while there are some other parameters which affect $\beta_L$ at the 5% significance level. The reason why $PC_{sat0}$ and SLA have most impact on $\beta_L$ and $\gamma_L$ may be because they explicitly appear in Eq. (4), while other parameters’ effects on GPP are through relatively moderate cost functions. The change in photosynthesis affects soil carbon storage, and then soil respiration which is in proportion to the amount of soil carbon. This process also affects $\beta_L$ and $\gamma_L$.

Table 5 shows the coefficients of correlations between the values of the perturbed parameters and the changes in the total terrestrial ecosystem carbon storage ($C_{ul}$) for 1% p.a. (up to the 66th year)
and RCP4.5 (1850–2100) scenarios (i.e., around 550 ppm for both experiments). The results are mostly consistent between the two experiments, but some differences are found for \( PC_{sat0} \) (p1), \( SLA \) (p2) and \( QT_0 \) (p10). The contribution of \( \beta_L \) and \( \gamma_L \) to the total terrestrial carbon storage (through Eq. 15) is different for different scenarios, so this may explain the difference found.

It appears in Table 5 that \( SLA \) and \( QT_0 \) have the most contribution to \( CuL \) for both scenarios. The strong correlation coefficients of \( QT_0 \) in Table 5 are a result of the same signs of coefficients between this parameter and \( \beta_L \) and \( \gamma_L \), found in Table 4. Basically, the correlation presented to \( CuL \) in Table 5 can be understood as combination of relationship of parameter values to \( \beta_L \) and to \( \gamma_L \) in Table 4, as formulated as Eq. (15). However, coefficients of correlation for some parameters in Table 5 are not explained by those in Table 4. Figure 6a presents the change in the coefficient of correlation between parameter values and change in total land carbon in the 1% p.a. scenario. (a) To the total land carbon, (b) to \( \beta_L \), (c) to \( \gamma_L \). In all figures, black/red/blue lines are p1–4/p5–8/p9–12, solid/dotted/dashed/dash-dot lines are p1,5,9/p2,6,10/p3,7,11/p4,8,12.

In order to investigate the reason for the non-linear contribution of \( PC_{sat0} \) to \( CuL \), we carried out a small (of 11 members) ensemble only varying \( PC_{sat0} \) from 0.8 to 2.0 with a step of 0.12 for 1% p.a. concentration scenario. The relationships observed in Figs. 7b and 7c are observed for all of LAI, soil carbon, plant carbon, GPP, and NPP, as well as \( CuL \). By checking all related variables, we concluded that the parabolic curve apparent in Figs. 7b and 7c is originated from the \( CO_2 \) dependency of light use efficiency \( (FQE(CDICL)) \) in Eq. 3). This constrains the photosynthetic rate and reduces the optimum LAI, leading to a reduced GPP for high \( PC_{sat0} \) condition.

Similarly, we also carried out a small experiment only perturbing \( SLA \), another parameter showing non-equilibrated behavior in Figs. 6a and 6b, but in that case the coefficient of correlation between \( SLA \) and \( CuL \) is not decreased in later years of the 1% p.a. experiment. From this result it is indicated that the \( SLA \)'s behaviour in Figs. 6a and 6b is an influence through other parameters’ (principally the \( PC_{sat0} \)') effects.

### 3.3 Constraint by observation data

In the end of the analysis we consider the feasibility of constraining the parameters \( \beta_L \), \( \gamma_L \), the change in total land carbon storage, airborne fraction and the twelve perturbed parameters by using observation data for the carbon cycle, including LAI, net primary production (NPP), soil carbon
storage, and soil respiration. The sources of the observation data are: 0.25 × 0.25 degree MODIS/ LAI dataset (MCD15A2, https://ltdaac.usgs.gov/ ltpdaac/products/modis_products_table/leaf_area _index_fraction_of_photosynthetically_active_ radiation/8_day_l4_global_1km/mcd15a), 0.5 × 0.5 degree grid cell NPP data by NPP multi-biome: Gridded estimates for selected regions worldwide, 1989–2001, R2 (Zheng et al. 2003), Global Soil Profile Data (ISRIC-WISE, Batjes 2000), and Global Annual Soil Respiration Data (Raich and Schlesinger 1992).

Except for the remotely sensed LAI data, the other three data sets are compiled from field-based data not covering the whole global land surface. We first resampled the data on to the model grid to use for validation (by taking the average if a grid contained multiple observation sites). For LAI data, average for each of four seasons (Dec–Feb, Mar–May, Jun–Aug, Sep–Nov) of 2003–2008 was calculated before being compared with model output, so that all data has only seasonal change and spatial variability (i.e., no inter-annual changes are considered here). They are resampled on to the T42

Fig. 7. Relationship between $P_{C_{\text{soil}}}$ and the change in total carbon in the 1% p.a. experiment. (a) At the 5th year (about 300 ppm), (b) at the 66th year (about 550 ppm), (c) at the 116th year (about 900 ppm), (d) at the 150th year (about 1270 ppm). Red lines are linear regression.
grid before being compared to the model output. The information of these data is summarised in Table 6.

As weighting function, we used one designed along similar principles to the one used by Murphy et al. (2004). That is, we first calculated the ratio of the mean square error of each ensemble member to the spatial variance of the observed data, and using this ratio (called CPI* here, due to the similarity to Climate Prediction Index (CPI) in Murphy et al. (2004), the weight ($W$) is calculated as $W = \exp(-\text{CPI}/2)$. For LAI, the weights are calculated for every season and then product of them was used as the weight for LAI. The weight is multiplied to $\beta$, $\gamma$, $C_{ul}$ (1850–2100), $A$ (1850–2100), and the twelve parameters of each ensemble member, to calculate the average and the standard deviation for comparing with the prior (i.e., unweighted).

Table 7 shows the result of the constraint of $\beta$, $\gamma$, $C_{ul}$ (1850–2100), $A$ (1850–2100), and the twelve parameters. The effect of LAI data gave relatively large impacts on some values. By LAI, the absolute values of $\beta_L$ and $\gamma_L$ are shifted smaller by around 45% and $C_{ul}$ is shifted smaller by 35%. Among the parameters, not surprisingly SLA is most effectively constrained by LAI to smaller values than the default value by around 30%. Other variables have limited effects, except for some effect of the soil res-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data</th>
<th>Year of observation</th>
<th>No. of obs. points</th>
<th>No. of grids in T42-1</th>
<th>Model years compared</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>


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Table 7. Prior and posterior distributions of $\beta_L$, $\gamma_L$ (1% p.a. up to 900 ppm), change in total carbon ($C_{ul}$) and air-borne fraction ($A$), and the twelve parameters for 1850–2100 in RCP4.5 scenario.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Prior</th>
<th>Posterior (LAI)</th>
<th>Posterior (NPP)</th>
<th>Posterior (SoilC)</th>
<th>Posterior (SoilIR)</th>
<th>Posterior (All)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\beta_L$</td>
<td>1.046 ± 0.472</td>
<td>0.576 ± 0.302</td>
<td>1.018 ± 0.409</td>
<td>1.061 ± 0.457</td>
<td>1.122 ± 0.430</td>
<td>0.653 ± 0.268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\gamma_L$</td>
<td>-88.1 ± 41.9</td>
<td>-49.0 ± 24.3</td>
<td>-87.1 ± 38.3</td>
<td>-89.2 ± 40.6</td>
<td>-93.5 ± 39.4</td>
<td>-50.9 ± 20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_{ul}$</td>
<td>200.1 ± 107.2</td>
<td>129.2 ± 81.67</td>
<td>201.9 ± 101.3</td>
<td>204.9 ± 106.5</td>
<td>217.5 ± 102.8</td>
<td>162.3 ± 80.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$A$</td>
<td>0.484 ± 0.050</td>
<td>0.517 ± 0.042</td>
<td>0.483 ± 0.047</td>
<td>0.482 ± 0.050</td>
<td>0.476 ± 0.047</td>
<td>0.500 ± 0.040</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Prior
PC
SLA
QE0(C3, crop)
QE0(C4)
T(min)
KMC
SARM
SLF
alloc_ass
aloc_abg
QT0
soil1
soil2

Constrained by data of LAI, NPP, soil carbon (SoilC), and soil respiration (SoilIR). Presented are average ± standard deviation.
expiration data on $\gamma_L$, $C_{sl}$ and a soil parameter ($p12$).

We also attempted a simple overall constraint by multiplying the weights of four variables, and the result is weakened effects of the above-mentioned constraints by individual variables. The LAI’s effect on $\beta_L$, $\gamma_L$, $C_{sl}$ and $A$ also still remained in the overall constraint.

The result presented in Table 7 does not necessarily mean that LAI provides the best constraint on the model. That is, the almost unchanged posteriors for NPP, soil carbon and soil respiration suggest that the model was well-tuned for those variables. For LAI, however, significant overestimation was found for low to medium LAI value areas, and this overestimation is common for all seasons. The potential reasons for the overestimation are, effect of land use, effect of fire, and the subgrid-scale heterogeneity, all of which are not considered in this study.

4. Summary and conclusions

By carrying out a large (300 member) ensemble experiment, we assessed the validity of the linearisation in the sensitivity of land carbon storage to atmospheric CO$_2$ concentration ($\beta_L$), and to temperature change ($\gamma_L$).

The time-dependency of $\beta_L$ was small (at least for CO$_2$ higher than 550 ppm), but that of $\gamma_L$ was significant, and the effect of this was larger than that of the nonlinear term (i.e., combined effect of CO$_2$ and temperature change). It is indicated that the effect of scenario-dependency is also significant, although the error in the estimated carbon uptake was smaller than that by the time-dependency in $\beta_L$ and $\gamma_L$.

In an idealised 1% p.a. CO$_2$ increase experiment, the maximum photosynthesis rate and specific leaf area, followed by the minimum temperature for photosynthesis, and a parameter on temperature dependency of the soil decomposition, are identified as significant parameters that influence the climate- and concentration-carbon cycle feedbacks. In this experiment we also found that the maximum photosynthesis rate and specific leaf area have unequilibrated contribution to $\beta_L$ (and then $C_{sl}$) for the changing CO$_2$ concentration.

For $C_{sl}$ up to 550 ppm, both for 1% p.a. and RCP4.5 scenarios, the specific leaf area and the temperature dependency of the plant respiration are the most significant parameters affecting the carbon budget.

From these results, in order to constrain the future temperature rise, we suggest to particularly reinforce observation on plant and soil respiration, maximum photosynthesis rate, specific leaf area, and the minimum temperature for photosynthesis. In addition, for maximum photosynthesis rate and specific leaf area, their dependency on temperature and CO$_2$ level should also be of interest.

Our attempt to constrain the model using observation data revealed that for NPP, soil carbon and soil respiration the model was well-tuned and the posterior probabilistic function is not significantly different from the prior distribution. But for LAI, significant overestimation by the model was found for wide low to medium LAI value regions.

The results obtained in this study are highly relevant to the problem of reducing the uncertainty in projecting the amount of CO$_2$ absorbed (or released) by the land ecosystem, and thus directly related to the socially critical question of how much carbon we can emit for a given CO$_2$ concentration pathway.

Acknowledgements

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References


