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Sensitivities of the Australian terrestrial water and carbon balances to climate change and variability $\dot{\mathbb{r}}$

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a b s t r a c t

To assess both past and future responses of the coupled terrestrial water and carbon cycles to climate change and variability, it is important to characterise the sensitivities of water and carbon fluxes and stores to long-term changes in drivers such as precipitation (P) , temperature (T) and $CO₂$ concentration. Here we quantify observed sensitivities using a well-calibrated terrestrial biosphere model and data for the Australian continent, and thereby infer likely changes to the water and carbon cycles under specified scenarios for future changes in the drivers. We find: (1) evapotranspiration (ET) has a large positive sensitivity to P, a positive sensitivity to T, and a negative sensitivity to $CO₂$ through increased plant water use efficiency with rising $CO₂$. Consequently, likely changes in T and $CO₂$ over the next half century will have opposite and nearly cancelling effects on ET. (2) Runoff has a large sensitivity to P (positive) and significant sensitivities to T (negative) and $CO₂$ (positive). These sensitivities are largest in cool temperate regions, where major contributors to likely long-term changes in runoff are decreased P (where a 5%) rainfall reduction would lead to a 12% decrease in runoff), increased T (with a warming of 1.5K leading to an additional 6% decrease in runoff), and response to $CO₂$ (with an increase of 100 ppm causing an offsetting 6% increase in runoff). (3) Sensitivities of soil moisture to P , T and $CO₂$ have similar signs and spatial patterns to those for runoff, but are smaller in magnitude by a factor of 5–10. (4) In the terrestrial carbon cycle, net ecosystem production (NEP) is increased by rising $CO₂$ but simultaneously reduced (and nearly cancelled in likely scenarios) by warming.

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1. Introduction

The terrestrial water and carbon cycles respond to climate change and variability through a set of coupled physical and physiological processes. Prominent among these are (1) the joint control of transpiration and $CO₂$ assimilation by plant stomata ([Wang](#page--1-0) [and](#page--1-0) [Leuning,](#page--1-0) [1998;](#page--1-0) [Leuning](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [1998;](#page--1-0) [Tuzet](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2003\);](#page--1-0) (2) feedbacks between surface temperature, evaporation and $CO₂$ assimilation [\(Raupach,](#page--1-0) [1998\);](#page--1-0) (3) effects of temperature and moisture on soil evaporation [\(Haverd](#page--1-0) [and](#page--1-0) [Cuntz,](#page--1-0) [2010\);](#page--1-0) and (4) effects of temperature and moisture on soil respiration of $CO₂$ [\(Lloyd](#page--1-0) [and](#page--1-0) [Taylor,](#page--1-0) [1994\).](#page--1-0) The main physical drivers of these interacting processes – precipitation, light, temperature, humidity and $CO₂$ concentration - are all affected by climate change, leading to a range of coupled responses in water and carbon cycles.

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For the terrestrial water cycle, a major hypothesised response to anthropogenic climate change is an increase in runoff, caused both by a global intensification of the water cycle in response to warming ([Labat](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2004\)](#page--1-0) and also by local-scale increases in plant water use efficiency in response to rising $CO₂$ ([Gedney](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2006;](#page--1-0) [Betts](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2007\).](#page--1-0) While there is observational evidence for such an increase in globally aggregated terrestrial runoff [\(Labat](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2004\),](#page--1-0) regional changes in runoff are expected to be strongly heterogeneous because of regional differences in precipitation changes. In particular, drying trends are both expected and observed in subtropical regions such as Southern Australia ([Larsen](#page--1-0) [and](#page--1-0) [Nicholls,](#page--1-0) [2009;](#page--1-0) [Ummenhofer](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2011\),](#page--1-0) leading to runoff reductions ([Chiew](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2009b\).](#page--1-0)

For the terrestrial carbon cycle, a major response to anthropogenic forcing is the existence of a global terrestrial carbon sink that removes over a quarter of total anthropogenic $CO₂$ emissions from the atmosphere (with the oceans removing another quarter) [\(Le](#page--1-0) [Quéré](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2009\).](#page--1-0)Among severalmechanisms, amajor contributor in all attributions is $CO₂$ fertilisation, the effect of rising $CO₂$ on terrestrial gross primary production (GPP) and net primary production (NPP = GPP − plant respiration). Heterotrophic soil respiration (RH) is also affected by climate change through both soil temperature and moisture, leading to complex regional patterns for net

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ecosystem production (NEP = NPP − RH) and net biome production (NBP = NEP − disturbance fluxes).

In the past, it has been usual to undertake separate assessments ofthe responses ofthe terrestrial water and carbon cycles to climate change and variability, respectively in the hydrological literature (for instance, [Chiew](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2009b\)](#page--1-0) and biogeochemical literature (for instance, [Friedlingstein](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2006;](#page--1-0) [Sitch](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2008\).](#page--1-0) However, there are both modelling and observational reasons for considering the water and carbon cycles together. From a modelling perspective, numerous process interactions between the water and carbon cycles must be considered in order to model either cycle reliably, as sketched in the opening paragraph. From an observational perspective, these interactions mean that observations of each cycle constrain the other, with the aid of model-data fusion approaches ([Raupach](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2005;](#page--1-0) [Haverd](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2013a\).](#page--1-0)

In this paper we undertake such a coupled investigation of the sensitivities of the major fluxes and stores in the terrestrial water and carbon cycles to driving variables, primarily precipitation (P), temperature (T) and $CO₂$ concentration ($CO₂$), but also solar irradiance and wind speed, together with leaf area index (LAI), an endogenous variable that is directly observable.

The study is motivated by four related questions:

- 1. There is controversy over whether warming leads to increased ET in southeast Australia, as maintained by some on simple heuristic grounds ([Karoly](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2003;](#page--1-0) [Nicholls,](#page--1-0) [2004\)](#page--1-0) but disputed elsewhere ([Lockart](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2009\).](#page--1-0) What is the sign and space–time pattern of the sensitivity of ET to temperature, and how does this sensitivity compare with the sensitivity of ET to other major drivers, including precipitation and $CO₂$?
- 2. It is already well known that runoff is highly sensitive to precipitation and that projected declines in precipitation in southeast Australia will proportionally reduce runoff by about three times as much as the decline in precipitation ([Chiew](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2009b\),](#page--1-0) an effect that has been termed the "rainfall-runoff amplifier" [\(Raupach,](#page--1-0) [2010\).](#page--1-0) How much do other drivers (especially but not only temperature and $CO₂$) affect the gain of the amplifier?
- 3. What are the effects of changes in all drivers on soil moisture? In particular, how much does warming exacerbate soil-moisturerelated drought – substantially ([Dai](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2004\)](#page--1-0) or insignificantly [\(Sheffield](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2012\)?](#page--1-0)
- 4. How do the major climatic drivers affect NEP and its component fluxes, NPP and RH, across the Australian continent (and by extension in similar semi-arid regions elsewhere), and what are the consequences for rates of carbon accumulation in the Australian biosphere?

The first three of these questions focus on the water cycle, respectively through evapotranspiration (ET), runoff and soil moisture. The last focuses on the carbon cycle, through NEP and the total terrestrial carbon store.

The paper is structured as follows: after this introduction, Section 2 outlines theory and the model and observations used here. Sections [3](#page--1-0) [and](#page--1-0) [4](#page--1-0) respectively present results for the water cycle, with foci on ET, runoff and soil moisture, and for the carbon cycle, with foci on NEP and the soil carbon store. Sections [5](#page--1-0) [and](#page--1-0) [6](#page--1-0) respectively discuss results and summarise conclusions.

2. Theory, model and data

2.1. Mass balances for water and carbon

A simplified mass balance for terrestrial water is

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}w}{\mathrm{d}t} = p - e - q = p - (e_{\text{Trans}} + e_{\text{Soil}}) - q \tag{1}
$$

where w is total column soil moisture store, and p , e and q are respectively the water fluxes due to precipitation, total evaporation or evapotranspiration (ET), and total runoff or outflow from the soil column. Total runoff includes surface runoff, deep drainage to groundwater, and the divergence of lateral water flows in the soil. ET is the sum $e = e_{Trans} + e_{Soil}$ of transpiration and soil evaporation. All stores and fluxes are functions of space and time, resolving landscape heterogeneity and the diurnal cycle. Throughout, lowercase letters denote space–time-resolved variables; corresponding upper-case letters will later denote temporal and spatial averages.

At a similar simplified level, the mass balance for terrestrial carbon is

$$
\frac{d(c_{\text{Plant}} + c_{\text{Soil}})}{dt} = f_{\text{NPP}} - f_{\text{RH}} - f_{\text{Disturb}} = f_{\text{NEP}} - f_{\text{Disturb}} = f_{\text{NBP}} \tag{2}
$$

where the total terrestrial carbon store is the sum $(c_{\text{plant}} + c_{\text{Soil}})$ of
plant and soil C stores, and carbon fluxes (denoted by f) arise from plant and soil C stores, and carbon fluxes (denoted by f) arise from net primary production (NPP), heterotrophic respiration (RH) and disturbance, with net ecosystem production NEP = NPP − RH and net biome production NBP = NEP – disturbance. Disturbance fluxes include fire, harvest offtakes, waterborne and windborne transport flux divergences, and fluxes from land use change.

2.2. Model and data

The fluxes and stores in the coupled carbon and water cycles, Eqs. (1) and (2) , were simulated using a modified version of the CABLE land surface model in the BIOS2 modelling environment, following [Haverd](#page--1-0) et [al.](#page--1-0) [\(2013a,b\)](#page--1-0) where full details are given. BIOS2 is an offline environment for modelling the coupled energy, water and carbon balances of the Australian continent, at fine spatial (0.05◦, ∼5 km) and temporal (hourly) resolutions. The land surface model in BIOS2 is CABLE v1.4 ([Wang](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2011\),](#page--1-0) modified by replacement of the default CABLE soil and carbon modules ([Wang](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2011\)](#page--1-0) by the SLI soil model ([Haverd](#page--1-0) [and](#page--1-0) [Cuntz,](#page--1-0) [2010\)](#page--1-0) and the CASA-CNP biogeochemical model [\(Wang](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2010\).](#page--1-0) Only the carbon dynamics in CASA-CNP are used in this work; nutrient (N and P) dynamics are not considered. CABLE includes vertical resolution of soil heat and water stores into multiple layers to depth 10 m and CASA-CNP resolves three carbon stores that differ by turnover time; for simplicity, Eqs. (1) and (2) aggregate these stores into total soilcolumn stores. The BIOS2 environment provides CABLE with (1) efficient infrastructure for the treatment of inputs (gridded vegetation data, meteorological data and parameters) and outputs at fine space–time resolution, based on developments for the Aus-tralian Water Availability Project (AWAP) ([Raupach](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2009\);](#page--1-0) (2) a weather generator for downscaling of daily meteorological data to the hourly model time step; and (3) model-data fusion capability.

Model parameters were estimated by constraints from multiple data sets on fluxes and stores in both the water and carbon cycles [\(Haverd](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2013a\):](#page--1-0)(1) streamflow from416 gauged catchments; (2) measurements of ET and NEP from 12 eddy-flux sites; (3) litterfall data, and (4) data on carbon pools. This use of multiple constraints provides safeguards against bias from any single data type. With parameters estimated in this way, evaluation of BIOS2 against a wide range of data on water and carbon fluxes and stores (extending far beyond the data sets used for parameter estimation) yields satisfactory model-measurement agreement [\(Haverd](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2013a\).](#page--1-0)

The reference run of BIOS2 for this work is a 213-year run from 1799 to 2011, at full spatial and temporal resolution, as in [Haverd](#page--1-0) et [al.](#page--1-0) [\(2013b\).](#page--1-0) Specifically:

• Forcing meteorological data for precipitation (p) , temperature (τ)
and solar radiation (c) were from AWAR (longs et al. 2009), with and solar radiation (s) were from AWAP ([Jones](#page--1-0) et [al.,](#page--1-0) [2009\),](#page--1-0) with downscaling from daily to hourly (see above). Observed p and Download English Version:

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