

Development of Land-River Two-Way Coupling in the Energy Exascale Earth System Model

Donghui Xu^{1,1}, Gautam Bisht¹, Tian Zhou¹, Ruby Leung¹, and Ming Pan²

¹Pacific Northwest National Laboratory

²Scripps Institution of Oceanography

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Abstract

Floodplain inundation links river and land systems through significant water, sediment, and nutrient exchanges. However, these two-way interactions between land and river are currently missing in most Earth System Models. In this study, we introduced the two-way hydrological coupling between the land component, ELM, and the river component, MOSART, in Energy Exascale Earth System Model (E3SM) to study the impacts of floodplain inundation on land and river processes. We calibrated the river channel geometry and developed a new data-driven inundation scheme to improve the simulation of inundation dynamics in E3SM. The new inundation scheme captures 96% of the spatial variation of inundation area in a satellite inundation product at global scale, in contrast with 7% when the default inundation scheme of E3SM was used. Global simulations including the new inundation scheme performed at resolution with and without two-way land-river coupling were used to quantify the impact of coupling. Comparisons show that two-way coupling modifies the water and energy cycle in 20% of the global land cells. Specifically, riverine inundation is reduced by two-way coupling, but inland inundation is intensified. Wetter periods are more impacted by the two-way coupling at the global scale, while regions with different climates exhibit different sensitivities. The two-way exchange of water between the land and river components of E3SM provides the foundation for enabling two-way coupling of land-river sediment and biogeochemical fluxes. These capabilities will be used to improve understanding of the interactions between water and biogeochemical cycles and their response to human perturbations.

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Development of Land-River Two-Way Coupling in the Energy Exascale Earth System Model

Donghui Xu¹, Gautam Bisht¹, Tian Zhou¹, L. Ruby Leung¹, Ming Pan²

¹Atmospheric Sciences and Global Change Division, Pacific Northwest National Laboratory, Richland, WA, USA

²Center for Western Weather and Water Extremes, Scripps Institution of Oceanography, University of California San Diego, La Jolla, California, USA

Corresponding author: Donghui Xu (donghui.xu@pnnl.gov)

Key Points:

- A novel inundation scheme trained against satellite inundation data demonstrates excellent skill in simulating global inundation dynamics.
- A new land river two-way coupling in an Earth System Model is used to study the impacts of floodplain inundations on land/river processes.
- Water cycle processes are more sensitive to land river two-way coupling in relatively drier regions and during wetter periods.

1 **Abstract**

2 Floodplain inundation links river and land systems through significant water, sediment,
3 and nutrient exchanges. However, these two-way interactions between land and river are
4 currently missing in most Earth System Models. In this study, we introduced the two-way
5 hydrological coupling between the land component, ELM, and the river component, MOSART,
6 in Energy Exascale Earth System Model (E3SM) to study the impacts of floodplain inundation
7 on land and river processes. We calibrated the river channel geometry and developed a new data-
8 driven inundation scheme to improve the simulation of inundation dynamics in E3SM. The new
9 inundation scheme captures 96% of the spatial variation of inundation area in a satellite
10 inundation product at global scale, in contrast with 7% when the default inundation scheme of
11 E3SM was used. Global simulations including the new inundation scheme performed at
12 $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ resolution with and without two-way land-river coupling were used to quantify the
13 impact of coupling. Comparisons show that two-way coupling modifies the water and energy
14 cycle in 20% of the global land cells. Specifically, riverine inundation is reduced by two-way
15 coupling, but inland inundation is intensified. Wetter periods are more impacted by the two-way
16 coupling at the global scale, while regions with different climates exhibit different sensitivities.
17 The two-way exchange of water between the land and river components of E3SM provides the
18 foundation for enabling two-way coupling of land-river sediment and biogeochemical fluxes.
19 These capabilities will be used to improve understanding of the interactions between water and
20 biogeochemical cycles and their response to human perturbations.

21 **Plain Language Summary**

22 Floodplains are inundated when the river channel capacity cannot accommodate the flood
23 water. A significant volume of inundated water can infiltrate into the soil in the floodplain during

24 flooding periods, which may have impacts on the land hydrological processes. However, the land
25 components of current Earth System Models (ESMs) do not include the infiltration of inundated
26 water in the floodplain during flooding. In this study, we developed a new inundation scheme
27 that allows for the infiltration of inundated water in the floodplain. The new scheme shows good
28 performance when compared with a satellite-based inundation product. Our results show that
29 both water and energy cycle in the land surface are impacted at global scale when inundated
30 water is allowed to infiltrate in the floodplain. Such impacts are larger during wetter periods and
31 show clear regional pattern. This study highlights the critical role of floodplain in Earth system,
32 which should be included in ESMs to represent land-river interactions.

33 **Keywords: Floodplain inundation dynamics; Earth System Model; Land-river**
34 **interactions; Surface-subsurface interactions; Satellite data**

35

36

37 **1. Introduction**

38 Floodplain inundation is a critical process controlling water and biogeochemical cycles at
39 the land-river interface (*Scott et al.*, 2019; *Talbot et al.*, 2018; *Tockner and Stanford*, 2002).

40 During flood periods, there exist significant exchanges of water (*Decharme et al.*, 2012),
41 sediments (*Rudorff et al.*, 2018), and nutrients (*Tockner et al.*, 1999) between river and land.

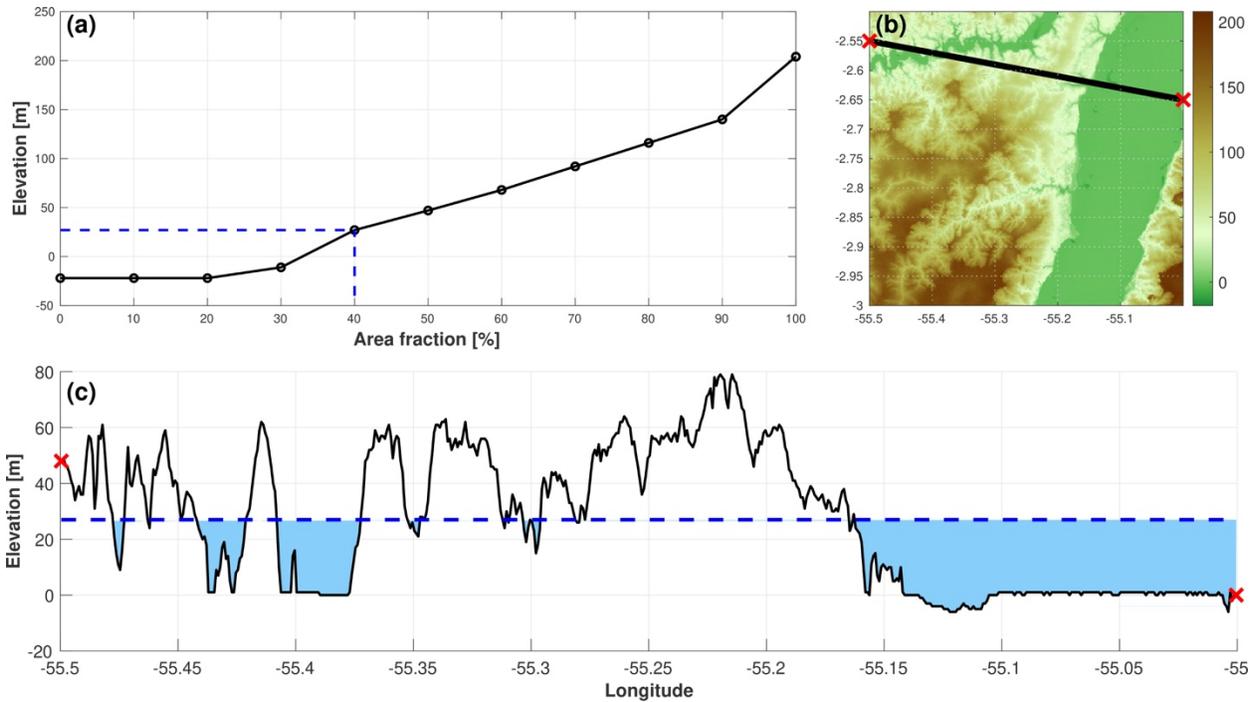
42 Specifically, periodic flooding replenishes the soil on the floodplain, provides nutrients for
43 vegetation, and creates habitats for animals. In the coastal areas, flooding in tidal rivers can add
44 saline water to the floodplain and regional groundwater due to the seawater and freshwater
45 interactions (*Yabusaki et al.*, 2020).

46 Two-way coupling of land and river components in Earth System Models (ESMs) is
47 necessary to accurately simulate the impacts of floodplain inundation on water and
48 biogeochemical cycles. Simple macroscale inundation schemes have been coupled to global river
49 routing models to simulate floodplain inundation dynamics (*de Paiva et al.*, 2013; *Decharme et*
50 *al.*, 2008; *Getirana et al.*, 2012; *Luo et al.*, 2017; *Yamazaki et al.*, 2011), and including such
51 schemes has improved skill in predicting streamflow (*Decharme et al.*, 2012; *Yamazaki et al.*,
52 2011). Macroscale inundation schemes model floodplain as an impervious reservoir that stores
53 the inundated water when water in the river exceeds the channel capacity. The inundated water
54 stored in the floodplain is released back to the river when the volume of water in the river is
55 below channel capacity. However, the land, river, and ocean components of most ESMs are one-
56 way coupled such that the runoff generated by the land model is transported to oceans through
57 river network (*Golaz et al.*, 2019; *Jolley and Wheeler*, 1997) and the floodplain inundation does
58 not influence the land surface processes. Recently, two-way land-river coupling at global
59 (*Decharme et al.*, 2012) and regional scales (*Dadson et al.*, 2010; *Getirana et al.*, 2021) has

60 shown significant impacts of floodplain inundation on land processes. *Decharme et al.* (2012)
61 coupled a floodplain inundation scheme (*Decharme et al.*, 2008) with a Land Surface Model
62 (LSM), and their simulations at global scale showed that two-way coupling increased
63 evapotranspiration (ET) and improved the streamflow simulation. *Decharme et al.* (2019) further
64 reported higher ET with a drop of global inundation extents and an increase of soil moisture due
65 to two-way coupling. *Dadson et al.* (2010) evaluated the effects of two-way coupling on ET at
66 the Niger inland delta. Although infiltration on the floodplain is not implemented in their study,
67 ET was found to increase significantly due to the open water ET from the inundation water,
68 suggesting the importance of including two-way coupling for understanding land-atmosphere
69 coupling. Simulation by *Getirana et al.* (2021) that included infiltration of floodplain water
70 showed a significant increase of soil moisture and ET, a decrease in surface temperature, and
71 improved simulated streamflow, which are consistent with the global study of *Decharme et al.*
72 (2019). Over the tropical regions, including the water exchange on floodplain through infiltration
73 was found to be critical to improve the water cycle and land surface flux simulation (*Miguez-*
74 *Macho and Fan*, 2012; *Schrapffer et al.*, 2020). Additionally, *Chaney et al.* (2020) showed an
75 increase in the spatial heterogeneity of ET and soil moisture in a two-way coupled simulation at
76 high spatial resolution (~1km).

77 The simulation of floodplain inundation in the coarse-scale (~100km) river component of
78 current generation ESMs requires parameterization of fine-scale topography. To simulate the
79 dynamics of the inundated area, a relationship between flood water volume and inundated area is
80 required. In current large scale land models (*Luo et al.*, 2017; *Yamazaki et al.*, 2011), this
81 relationship is usually represented by a simple 2-D elevation profile (Figure 1a) based on sub-
82 kilometer topography data (Figure 1b) by assuming that inundation always occurs from lower to

83 higher elevation. Although some studies have demonstrated satisfactory performance of the sub-
84 grid topography schemes in capturing basin-averaged inundation dynamics (*Decharme et al.*,
85 2012; *Getirana et al.*, 2012; *Mao et al.*, 2019; *Yamazaki et al.*, 2011), the simulated spatial
86 variation of inundated area at global scale remains highly uncertain (*Mao et al.*, 2019). This is
87 because by ignoring the hydrologic connectivity, the use of elevation profile in coarse resolution
88 ESMs with structured mesh can result in unrealistic inundated areas that comprise of spatially
89 disconnected flooded regions within a grid cell (see an example in Figure 1c). Another scheme to
90 predict inundation area is the Height Above Nearest Drainage (HAND) methodology (*Afshari et*
91 *al.*, 2018; *Maidment*, 2017; *Zheng et al.*, 2018). The HAND data, which is typically derived from
92 high-resolution (e.g., 10m) DEM, aims to capture the role of river network (*Liu et al.*, 2018).
93 While the HAND approaches accurately capture the hydraulic connectivity for regional scale
94 simulations in which multiple rivers are resolved in a grid cell, it may not be suitable for coarse-
95 scale ESM simulations as only one single major river is resolved within a grid cell (*Wu et al.*,
96 2011).



97
 98 **Figure 1.** (a) The 2-D elevation profile of a grid cell (2.75°S, 55.25°W) in the Amazon basin
 99 used in *Luo et al. (2017)* derived from the cumulative density function of 90m HydroSHEDS
 100 DEM shown in (b). The blue dashed line in (a) denotes the elevation of water needed to inundate
 101 40% of the grid cell. (c) Elevation profiles along the transect shown by the black line between
 102 two red cross signs in (b), and the blue shaded areas represent areas below the inundated
 103 elevation (blue dashed line) in (b).

104

105 In this work, we implemented two-way hydrological coupling for the land and river
 106 components of the Energy Exascale Earth System Model (E3SM; *Golaz et al., 2019*) to address
 107 the following questions:

- 108 1. How does two-way coupling impact water and energy cycle compared to one-way
 109 coupling?
 110 2. What are the spatial and temporal patterns of the impacts of two-way coupling?

111 Specifically, which regions and periods are more sensitive to two-way coupling?

112 The default inundation scheme of the river component of E3SM, Model for Scale Adaptive River
 113 Transport in (MOSART), uses the elevation profile approach. We developed a novel inundation
 114 scheme for MOSART based on a log-linear relationship between the river flow volume and

115 floodplain inundation area. Satellite-based inundation products can be used for model calibration
116 and validation for inundation dynamics due to their growing availability and global coverage (*Di*
117 *Baldassarre et al.*, 2011; *Huang et al.*, 2014; *Papa et al.*, 2010; *Pekel et al.*, 2016; *Prigent et al.*,
118 2001; *Prigent et al.*, 2007; *Schroeder et al.*, 2015; *Wu et al.*, 2019).

119 In section 2, we present a brief description of the land and river components of E3SM,
120 the two-way hydrological coupling scheme, simulation setup, evaluation datasets, model
121 calibration procedure, and the novel inundation scheme. The calibration of river geometry and
122 parameter estimation for the novel inundation scheme are presented in Section 3. Evaluation of
123 the simulated river discharge and inundation fraction is presented in Section 4. In Section 5, the
124 impacts of two-way coupling on land water and energy cycle are presented, followed by the
125 discussion and conclusion in section 6.

126

127 **2. Methods and data**

128 **2.1 Hydrologic processes in E3SM land and river components**

129 E3SM is a fully coupled ESM that includes models for the atmosphere, land, ocean, land
130 ice, sea ice, and river components. A detailed description of the hydrologic and biogeochemical
131 models in E3SM version 1 are provided in *Golaz et al.* (2019) and *Burrows et al.* (2020),
132 respectively. In this study, only the E3SM Land Model (ELM) and the river model (MOSART)
133 are used.

134 ELM-v1 (*Bisht et al.*, 2018; *Drewniak*, 2019; *Liang et al.*, 2019) was developed based on
135 the Community Land Model 4.5 (CLM4.5; *Oleson et al.*, 2013). The hydrology part of ELM is
136 equivalent to CLM4.5 that parameterizes canopy water, snow, surface and sub-surface runoff,

137 soil water dynamics. Readers are referred to *Oleson et al. (2013)* for a detailed technical
 138 description of the hydrological processes in ELM.

139 MOSART is a physically-based river routing model that simulates transport of water
 140 from hillslopes to the river outlet through a subnetwork and a main channel (*Li et al., 2013*). The
 141 current one-way coupled macroscale inundation scheme in MOSART predicts floodplain
 142 inundation when the total water volume exceeds the channel storage capacity, and the excess
 143 water is transferred from the channel to inundate the floodplain. When the total water volume is
 144 less than the main channel storage capacity, there is an exchange of water from the floodplain
 145 back to the channel. Given this scheme is one-way coupled, the floodplain water is not lost to the
 146 atmosphere through evaporation or to the land through infiltration. The inundation fraction, f_{fp} ,
 147 is given by:

$$f_{fp} = F(V_{ex}), \quad \text{Eq.(1)}$$

148 where V_{ex} denotes the volume of water that is in excess of the main channel capacity and F
 149 represents the relationship between V_{ex} and f_{fp} derived from the sub-grid topography (SGT), for
 150 example, with the elevation profile (Figure 1a). A detailed description of the default inundation
 151 scheme in E3SM, hereafter referred as MOSART-SGT, is provided in *Luo et al. (2017)*.

152

153 **2.2 Two-way hydrological coupling scheme**

154 Similar to the one-way coupling of ELM-MOSART, in the new two-way coupling
 155 MOSART receives total runoff from ELM, routes the runoff in the river channel, and simulates
 156 floodplain inundation. Unlike the one-way coupling scheme, in the two-way coupling scheme
 157 MOSART sends the fraction and volume of inundated water to ELM, which then simulates the
 158 infiltration of the inundated water into the soil column. The maximum soil infiltration capacity

159 ($q_{infl,max}$) is used to estimated floodplain infiltration in the two-way coupling scheme, which is
 160 formulated as:

$$q_{infl,max} = (1 - f_{sat})\Theta_{ice}k_{sat}, \quad \text{Eq.(2)}$$

161 where f_{sat} is the fractional saturated area, Θ_{ice} is an ice impedance factor, and k_{sat} represents
 162 the saturated hydraulic conductivity. ELM calculates the infiltration of inundated water using an
 163 approach similar to the infiltration of surface water storage in the soil column (*Oleson et al.*
 164 (2013)) that is given as

$$q_{infl,fp} = \min\left(f_{fp} \times q_{infl,max}, \frac{V_{fp}}{\Delta t}, \frac{S_a}{\Delta t}\right) \quad \text{Eq.(3a)}$$

$$S_a = f_{fp} \times (\theta_{sat} - \theta_{cur}) \quad \text{Eq.(3b)}$$

165 where V_{fp} represents floodplain inundation volume, $q_{infl,max}$ is the maximum soil infiltration
 166 capacity described in Eq (2), S_a is the available capacity in the soil for infiltration in the
 167 floodplain, Δt is the time step, θ_{sat} is the saturated soil moisture in the topsoil layer, and θ_{cur} is
 168 the soil moisture. The coupling scheme does not allow floodwater to infiltrate when the soil is
 169 saturated. The use of f_{fp} in Eq (3b) ensures floodplain infiltration only occurs in the fraction of
 170 soil that is inundated. The total volume of infiltration on the floodplain over the model coupling
 171 timestep is sent to MOSART to update the inundation volume at the beginning of the next
 172 MOSART time step.

173

174 **2.3 Model setup**

175 ELM and MOSART global simulations were performed at a spatial resolution of
 176 $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ for 1981-2010. The simulations used the 3-hourly $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ Global Soil Wetness
 177 Project version 1 (GSWP3v1) atmospheric forcing dataset, which has been dynamically
 178 downscaled and bias-corrected based on the reanalysis data (*Compo et al., 2011*). *Lawrence et al.*

179 (2019) found better model performance in GSWP3v1-based simulations than simulations driven
180 by other atmospheric forcing datasets. The time step for ELM and MOSART is 30 min and 60
181 min, respectively, and the model coupling time step is 180 min. MOSART uses sub-cycling and
182 the local time step size is chosen to ensure numerical stability. The default $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ ELM
183 surface dataset was used in this study. The topographic parameters (i.e., flow direction, river
184 length, slope, etc.) of MOSART were generated using the Dominant River Tracing (DRT)
185 algorithm (*Wu et al.*, 2012). Land cover and water depth were used to estimate Manning's
186 roughness coefficients for the hillslope, subnetwork, and main channel (*Getirana et al.*, 2012).
187 The elevation profile for the default inundation scheme in MOSART was developed from the
188 90m-resolution DEM from Hydrological Data and Maps Based on Shuttle Elevation Derivatives
189 at Multiple Scales (HydroSHEDS; *Lehner et al.*, 2008).

190 Four sets of simulations were performed in this study, as listed in Table 1, to evaluate the
191 impact of coupling scheme as well as the new inundation scheme. First, a MOSART-only
192 simulation forced by a pre-built 3-hourly 0.05° runoff dataset (DLND-MOSART-1way) was
193 performed to calibrate the river geometry (i.e., channel depth and channel width, see section 2.5).
194 The pre-built runoff dataset was developed for a long-term global flood analysis called Global
195 Reach-level Flood Reanalysis (*Yang et al.*, 2021) using the Variable Infiltration Capacity Model
196 (VIC) land surface model that is calibrated and bias-corrected (*Lin et al.*, 2019) against machine-
197 learning derived global runoff characteristics (*Beck et al.*, 2015). The GRFR runoff dataset was
198 very well validated against $>14,000$ river gauges globally (*Yang et al.*, 2021). The calibrated
199 river channel geometry was then used in the next two ELM-MOSART simulations with two-way
200 and one-way coupling, respectively. These simulations used the newly developed inundation
201 scheme (described in section 2.6) to investigate the impact of model coupling on the simulated

202 water and energy cycles. A fourth configuration, ELM-MOSART-SGT-1way, was performed
 203 with one-way coupling using the elevation profile based inundation scheme of Luo et al. (2017)
 204 and the calibrated parameters of *Mao et al.* (2019). The fourth simulation was used as a
 205 benchmark for evaluating the new inundation scheme.

206 **Table 1. Simulation configurations.**

#	Configurations	Coupling scheme	Inundation scheme
1	DLND-MOSART-1way	One-way	No inundation
2	ELM-MOSART-LLR-2way	Two-way	Log-Linear Regression
3	ELM-MOSART-LLR-1way	One-way	Log-Linear Regression
4	ELM-MOSART-SGT-1way	One-way	Sub-Grid Topography

207

208 2.4 Evaluation data

209 In this study, we calibrated and validated the simulated streamflow and inundation using
 210 the Global Stream Indices and Metadata (GSIM; *Do et al.*, 2018; *Gudmundsson et al.*, 2018) and
 211 the Global Inundation Extent from Multi-Satellites (GIEMS; *Papa et al.*, 2010; *Prigent et al.*,
 212 2001; *Prigent et al.*, 2007; *Prigent et al.*, 2012), respectively. The GSIM dataset includes
 213 monthly, seasonal, and yearly streamflow estimated from daily streamflow measurements of
 214 ~35,000 gauges worldwide. In this study, we only used the monthly streamflow GSIM data. The
 215 GSIM gauges had different temporal coverages within the simulation period. We used the first
 216 two-third of the available data during the simulation period at each gauge for model calibration
 217 and the remaining one-third of the data for model validation.

218 GIEMS is a $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ monthly inundation dataset based on multiple satellite
 219 observations that does not separately identify lakes, reservoirs, and irrigated agriculture from the
 220 river inundated areas. The modified GIEMS data (*Mao et al.*, 2019) for only river inundation
 221 areas was developed by excluding the water bodies that were identified by the Global Lakes and
 222 Wetland Database (GLWD; *Lehner and Döll*, 2004) and the Monthly Irrigated and Rainfed Crop

223 Areas (MIRCA2000) products (*Portmann et al.*, 2010). The modified GIEMS dataset was
224 upscaled to $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ for model calibration and evaluation. Monthly GIEMS from 1993-2002
225 was selected for model training, and 2003-2007 was used for model evaluation.

226 We evaluated our model at both global and basin scale. Three basins with different
227 climate characteristics were used in this study to perform evaluation at basin scale: Mackenzie
228 (cold region), Mississippi (subtropical region), and Amazon (tropical region).

229

230 **2.5 Channel geometry calibration**

231 River geometry is a critical factor in river routing models (*Yamazaki et al.*, 2014) and
232 inundation schemes (*Decharme et al.*, 2012). In this study, river channel geometry was calibrated
233 by minimizing errors in the simulated streamflow compared against observed streamflow at the
234 basin scale for 268 major river basins using level 3 basins dataset of *Linke et al.* (2019). Due to
235 the coarse resolution of MOSART, basins that only have GSIM gauges with contributing area
236 less than 100,000 km² were not chosen for use in calibration. Based on this criterion, 59 of 268
237 basins have at least one qualified GSIM gauge, which in total covers 45% of the land surface,
238 excluding antarctica. When multiple GSIM gauges are present within a basin, the gauge with the
239 largest contributing area was selected. The shape of the river channel cross-section is assumed to
240 be rectangular, and the channel width and depth were calibrated with the following equation as
241 proposed in *Andreadis et al.* (2013):

$$w = a_w Q^{0.5}, \quad \text{Eq.(4)}$$

$$d = a_d Q^{0.3}, \quad \text{Eq.(5)}$$

242 where Q represents the 2-year return period daily streamflow, and a_w and a_d are curve fitting
243 parameters. The 95% confidence intervals for the parameters a_w and a_d are [2.6, 20.2] and

244 [0.12, 0.63], respectively. The Q for each grid cell is estimated by aggregating daily runoff from
 245 the corresponding upstream cells. A set of 5 values for both a_w and a_d were sampled uniformly
 246 based on the suggested 95% confidence interval for each parameter, which resulted in a total of
 247 25 parameter sets of river width and depth for the calibration simulations.

248 The metric of Normalized Root Mean Square Error (NRMSE) was used to evaluate the
 249 performance of the model during calibration and is given as

$$NRMSE = \frac{1}{\bar{y}} \times \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{n}}, \quad \text{Eq.(6)}$$

250 where y_i and \hat{y}_i denote the observed and simulated streamflow in the i -th month, \bar{y} is the
 251 averaged observed streamflow, and n is the total number of months used for model calibration.
 252 The values of a_w and a_d for each basin were selected from the set of 25 parameters that
 253 produced the smallest streamflow NRMSE during the calibration period. Basins without a gauge
 254 for model calibration were assigned median parameters values ($a_w = 7.2$ and $a_d = 0.27$) as
 255 proposed by *Andreadis et al.* (2013).

256

257 **2.6 A novel inundation scheme**

258 Uncertainties and biases in the inundation scheme may lead to larger uncertainties in simulating
 259 both land and river processes in the two-way coupled land-river model. A novel inundation
 260 scheme is implemented in E3SM to simulate floodplain inundation dynamics more accurately as
 261 compared to the default inundation scheme of E3SM. Specifically, there exists a log-linear
 262 relationship between the satellite-based inundation fraction and simulated total volume according
 263 to our preliminary results (see Text S1). Therefore, we developed a new inundation scheme that

264 estimates the floodplain inundation fraction (f_{fp}) using the log-linear regression (LLR) when the
 265 total volume exceeds the channel capacity (S_{ch}) and the relationship is given by

$$f_{fp} = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } V_{ex} = 0 \\ a \times \log(V_{ex} + S_{ch}) + b, & \text{if } V_{ex} > 0 \end{cases} \quad \text{Eq.(7)}$$

266 where V_{ex} represents the excess volume in the river channel, and a and b are parameters.

267 MOSART with the new inundation scheme is hereafter referred as MOSART-LLR. Once the

268 inundation fraction is calculated from Eq (7), the excess height (h_e) can be estimated by

269 assuming water depths in the floodplain and over the channel bank top are the same (see Figure

270 2):

$$h_e = \frac{V_{ex}}{f_{fp} + f_{ch}}, \quad \text{Eq. (8)}$$

$$f_{ch} = \frac{w \times l}{A}, \quad \text{Eq. (9)}$$

271 where f_{ch} is the channel fractional area, w is the river width, l is the river length, and A

272 represents the grid cell area. Next, the floodplain inundation volume (V_{fp}) can be separated from

273 the excess volume with following equation:

$$V_{fp} = h_e \times (f_{fp} - f_{ch}), \quad \text{Eq. (10)}$$

274 And the channel volume (V_{ch}) is updated by:

$$V_{ch} = h_e \times f_{ch} + S_{ch}, \quad \text{Eq. (11)}$$

275 The procedures to calibrate the slope and intercept parameters a and b in the log-linear

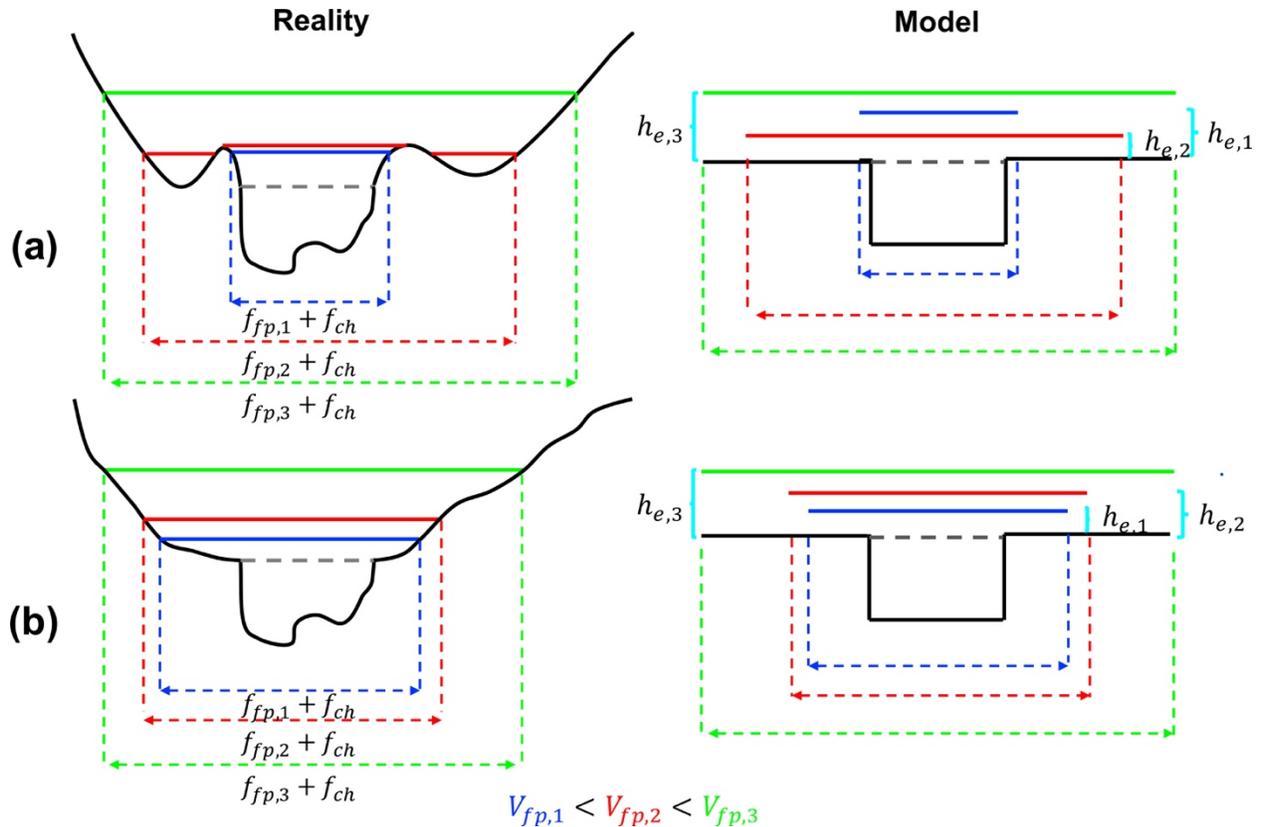
276 relationship of Eq. (7) are described below:

277 1. Estimate the LLR parameters a and b at each grid cell using the DLND-MOSART-1way

278 simulated total volume and the GIEMS inundation fraction. The estimated LLR

- 279 parameters are used as initial guess for subsequent ELM-MOSART-LLR-2way
 280 simulations.
- 281 2. Perform ELM-MOSART-LLR-2way simulation using the LLR parameter values
 282 obtained from the i -th iteration.
- 283 3. Estimate the $i+1$ -th LLR parameter values using the total volume from the i -th ELM-
 284 MOSART-LLR-2way simulation and the GIEMS inundation fraction.
- 285 4. Perform ELM-MOSART-LLR-2way with the $i+1$ -th LLR parameter values. If the
 286 averaged NRMSE of the global inundation fraction between the $i+1$ -th and the i -th
 287 simulations is greater than 0.01, repeat step 2 to step 4.

288 The LLR parameter values obtained after the above procedures were also used in the ELM-
 289 MOSART-LLR-1way simulation to exclude the impacts of parameter values when evaluating
 290 differences between the two-way coupled and one-way coupled simulations.



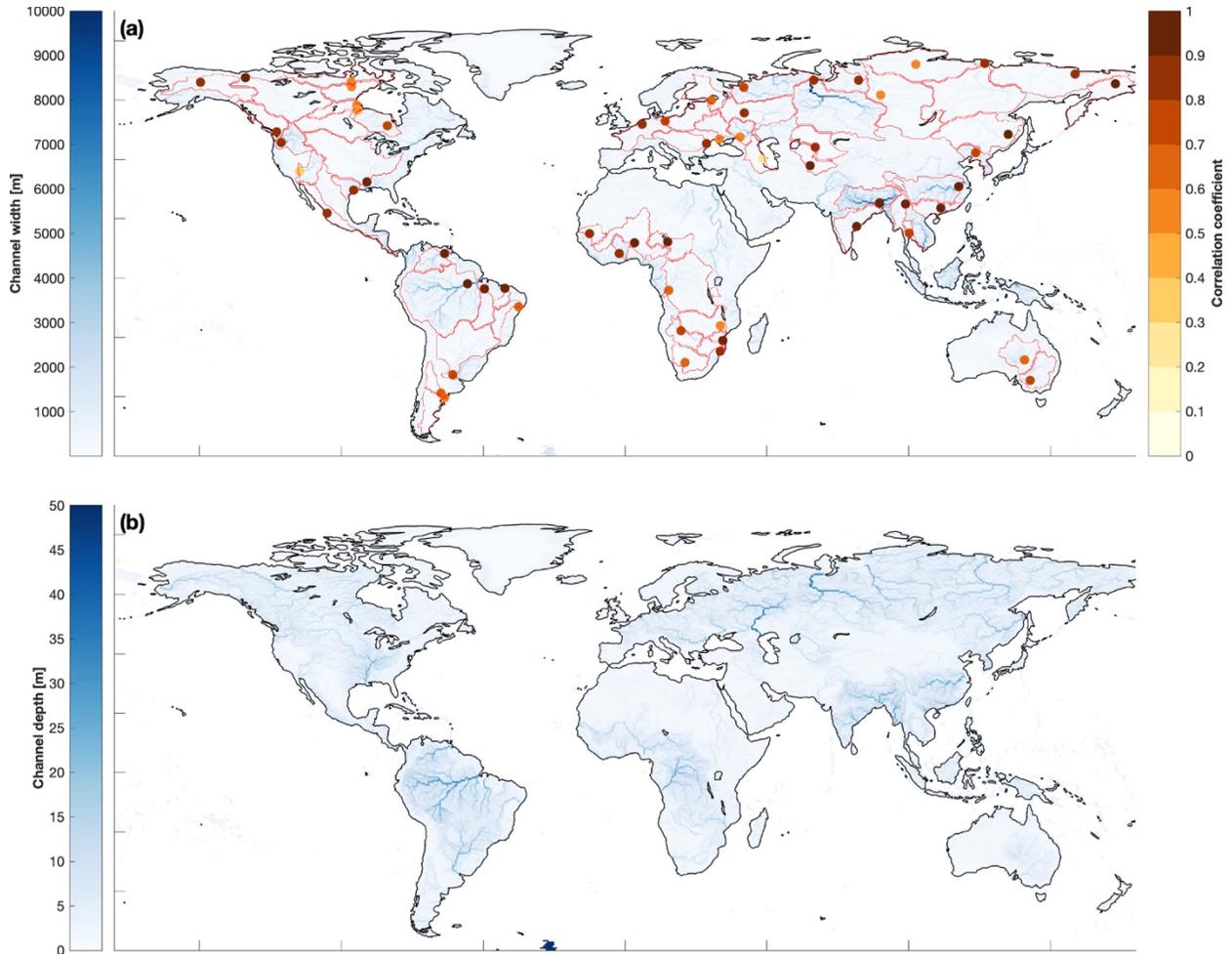
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292
293 **Figure 2.** Conceptual examples of excess height (h_e) on floodplain in log-linear inundation
294 scheme. Subplot (a) represents a channel with depressions nearby, and subplot (b) represents a
295 channel with smooth floodplain. The left panels show the reality, while the right panels show
296 how the inundation volume and excess height are modelled in the log-linear inundation scheme.
297 The blue, red, and green solid lines denote the water levels in different flooding scenarios, which
298 result in inundation fraction $f_{fp,1}$, $f_{fp,2}$, and $f_{fp,2}$, respectively. $V_{fp,1}$, $V_{fp,2}$, and $V_{fp,3}$ are the
299 associated inundation volume in the floodplain, and $h_{e,1}$, $h_{e,2}$, and $h_{e,3}$ are the corresponding
300 excess height based on the log-linear inundation scheme.
301

302 3. Model calibration

303 3.1 River channel geometry

304 The monthly scale correlation coefficients between the simulated and observed
305 streamflow at the GSIM stations are greater than 0.6 for all the calibrated basins (Figure 3a),
306 suggesting a satisfactory performance of MOSART in simulating streamflow after river channel
307 geometry calibration. Over some major basins (e.g., Amazon, Mississippi, Yangtze, Mackenzie,
308 etc.), the skill of MOSART is excellent with correlation coefficient greater than 0.9. The
309 calibrated river width (Figure 3a) and depth (Figure 3b) shows similar spatial variability as
310 compared to other global studies (*Decharme et al., 2012; Yamazaki et al., 2011*). Note that Mao
311 et al. (2019) calibrated the river channel geometry for MOSART-SGT by minimizing errors in
312 the simulated basin averaged inundation fraction, resulting in unrealistic shallow river depths for
313 the Amazon and Yangtze River basins, and low spatial variability at global scale (Figure S3). By
314 separating the calibration of river channel geometry from the calibration of the inundation
315 process, we estimate a more realistic river width and depth (Figure 3).



316
 317 **Figure 3.** River channel geometry for (a) river width and (b) river depth calibrated using
 318 observed streamflow. The color of the circles in subplot (a) shows the correlation coefficient
 319 between the best calibrated simulated streamflow and the observed streamflow from GSIM at
 320 each gauge for the validation period. The location of the circle denotes the GSIM gauge location,
 321 and the red line delineates the corresponding basin boundary.
 322

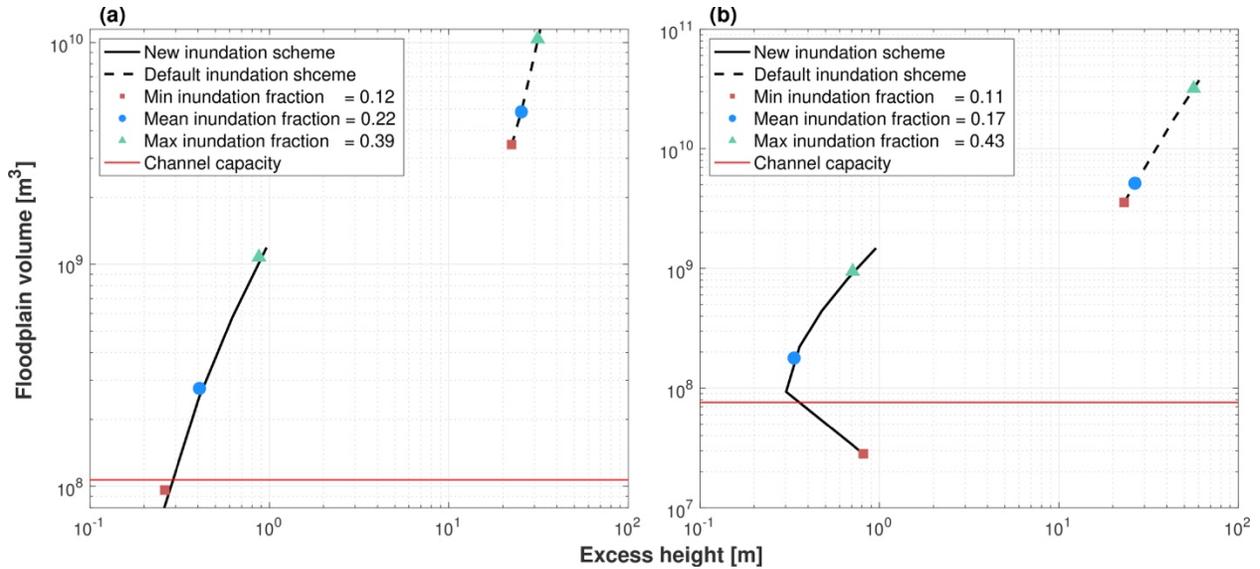
323 3.2 Log-linear inundation parameters

324 Estimation of the LLR parameters for ELM-MOSART-LLR-2way required four
 325 calibration iterations for the NRMSE of average inundation fraction to change by less than 0.01
 326 between the last two iterations. The LLR yielded correlation coefficients between the simulated
 327 total volume and observed inundation fraction greater than 0.8 during the calibration period over
 328 the wet regions, such as the Amazon basin, lower Mississippi basin, Southern Asia (Figure S2).

329 The performance of LLR is satisfactory, with correlation coefficients around 0.5 over the high
330 latitude of the Northern Hemisphere.

331 The default inundation scheme for some grid cells requires unrealistically large
332 floodplain volume that is 1-2 orders of magnitude larger than the channel capacity to yield even
333 the minimum observed inundation fraction of GIEMS (Figure 4). This unrealistic volume-area
334 relationship results from the assumption of elevation profile approach that assumes all the lower
335 elevation locations need to be filled before a higher elevation location is inundated. However, a
336 higher elevation location can be inundated before all lower elevation locations are flooded due to
337 the flow path connectivity in a grid cell at coarse resolution (Figure 1c). The new inundation
338 scheme requires that the floodplain volume needed to produce the minimum observed inundation
339 fraction is of the same magnitude as the channel capacity (Figure 4), implying a more realistic
340 relationship. The excess height in Figure 4 is related to the inundation fraction through Eq (8) in
341 LLR scheme. For the default inundation scheme, the excess height can be estimated by inserting
342 the inundation fraction in the elevation profile.

343 The floodplain volume and excess height relationship is not always monotonic in LLR
344 scheme (Figure 4b). For example, an increase in the inundation volume can lead to an initial
345 decrease of excess height when the inundation volume flood water spills over the bank to fill the
346 depression or natural levee (from blue line to red line in Figure 2a). This is because a small
347 volume increase leads to a significant increase of inundation fraction. After the inundation
348 volume exceeds the threshold (e.g., the depression is filled up), the excess height increases as the
349 inundation volume increases (red line to green line in Figure 2a). However, the use of elevation
350 profile in the default inundation scheme ignores flow path connectivity, leading to a
351 monotonically increasing relationship between excess height and inundation volume.



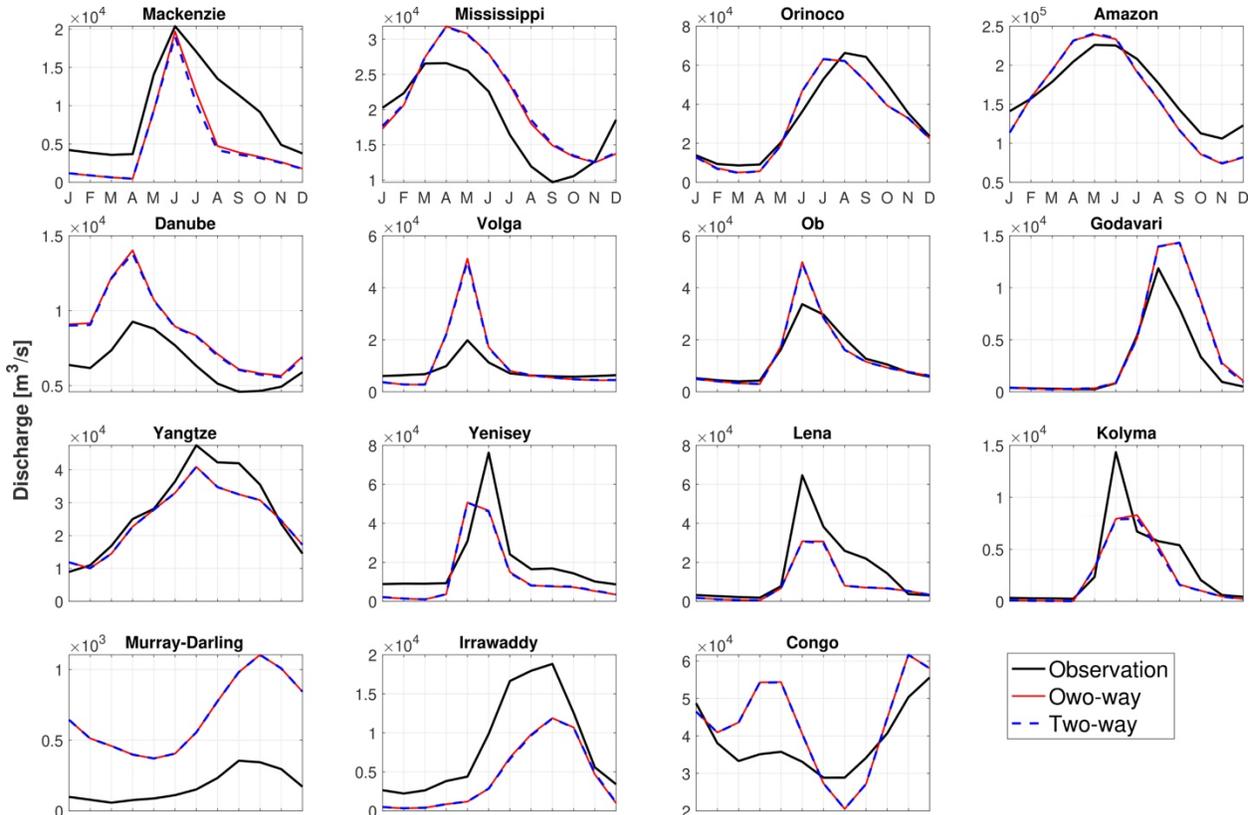
352
 353 **Figure 4.** The relationship between the floodplain excess height and floodplain inundation
 354 volume. Subplot (a) and (b) show the relationships from two example grid cells located at
 355 (3.75°S, 104.75°E) and (3.75°N, 51.75°W), respectively. Excess height is estimated from the
 356 inundation volume and inundation fraction using Eq (8) for the new inundation scheme (solid
 357 line), and the elevation profile for the default inundation scheme (dashed line). The red squares,
 358 blue circles, and green triangles represent the minimum, mean and maximum inundation fraction
 359 from the GIEMS dataset, respectively.
 360

361 4. Model evaluation

362 4.1 Discharge

363 Using the calibrated river channel geometry and calibrated LLR inundation scheme,
 364 ELM-MOSART-LLR-2way shows a reasonably good skill of simulating streamflow seasonality
 365 (Figure 5) and interannual variability for 15 selected major basins, with correlation coefficients
 366 larger than 0.8 (Table 2). The Congo River basin is an exception showing a lower, but still a
 367 satisfactory model performance with correlation coefficient equal to 0.6. The simulated
 368 streamflow captures the observed seasonal cycle, but model biases still exist in a few basins
 369 (Figure 5). Table 2 summarizes the location of the GSIM stations that were used for evaluation
 370 along with other model evaluation metrics. The lower Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency (NSE) that less
 371 than 0.5 for Mackenzie, Volga, Lena, Kolyma, Murray-Darling, Irrawaddy, and Congo basin

372 indicate larger biases in the simulated streamflow. Those biases can result from uncertainty in
 373 the ELM-generated runoff because of 1) a lack of accounting for water management (*Voisin et*
 374 *al.*, 2013); 2) atmosphere forcing uncertainty (*Li et al.*, 2015); 3) surface and subsurface runoff
 375 parameters uncertainty (*Huang et al.*, 2013); and 4) poor representation of snowmelt dynamics
 376 (*Toure et al.*, 2018).



377 **Figure 5.** Comparison of observed and simulated river streamflow seasonality at 15 selected
 378 major basins. Streamflow simulated using one-way and two-way coupling are shown in solid red
 379 and dashed blue lines.
 380
 381

382 ELM-MOSART-LLR-1way simulated streamflow seasonality at the 15 major basins is
 383 essentially identical to that of ELM-MOSART-LLR-2way (Figure 5), suggesting that two-way
 384 coupling does not impact the long-term streamflow seasonality of large basins. While the mean
 385 relative change for all months between two-way coupling and one-way coupling is small, the

386 variability of the relative change for certain months in several basins can be large (Figure S4),
 387 for example, winter periods for Mackenzie and Godavari.

388
 389 **Table 2. Evaluation of streamflow over 15 selected major basins.**

Basin	Lon	Lat	Area (km^2)	Period	ρ	NSE	NRMSE
Mackenzie	-133.75	67.46	1636728	1981-2010	0.88	0.45	0.57
Mississippi	-90.913	32.32	2913233	1981-2008	0.83	0.64	0.31
Orinoco	-63.60	8.15	829958	1981-1989	0.94	0.87	0.25
Amazon	-55.51	-1.95	4681666	1981-1998	0.93	0.8	0.18
Danube	28.72	45.22	762765	1981-2010	0.85	0.54	0.44
Volga	44.59	48.81	1360000	1981-2010	0.88	0.46	1.33
Ob	66.53	66.57	3041498	1981-2010	0.88	0.76	0.53
Godavari	81.66	17.25	305764	1981-2010	0.90	0.76	1.07
Yangtze	117.62	30.77	1694590	1981-1988	0.93	0.75	0.21
Yenisey	86.5	67.48	2440000	1981-2010	0.81	0.49	0.68
Lena	126.80	72.37	2442336	1981-2002	0.89	-0.06	0.83
Kolyma	158.72	68.73	418515	1981-2008	0.81	0.38	0.86
Murray	142.76	-34.60	242715	1981-2010	0.85	0.28	3.4
Irrawaddy	96.10	21.98	117900	1981-1988	0.89	0.21	0.63
Congo	15.30	-4.30	3631314	1981-2010	0.59	0.32	0.35

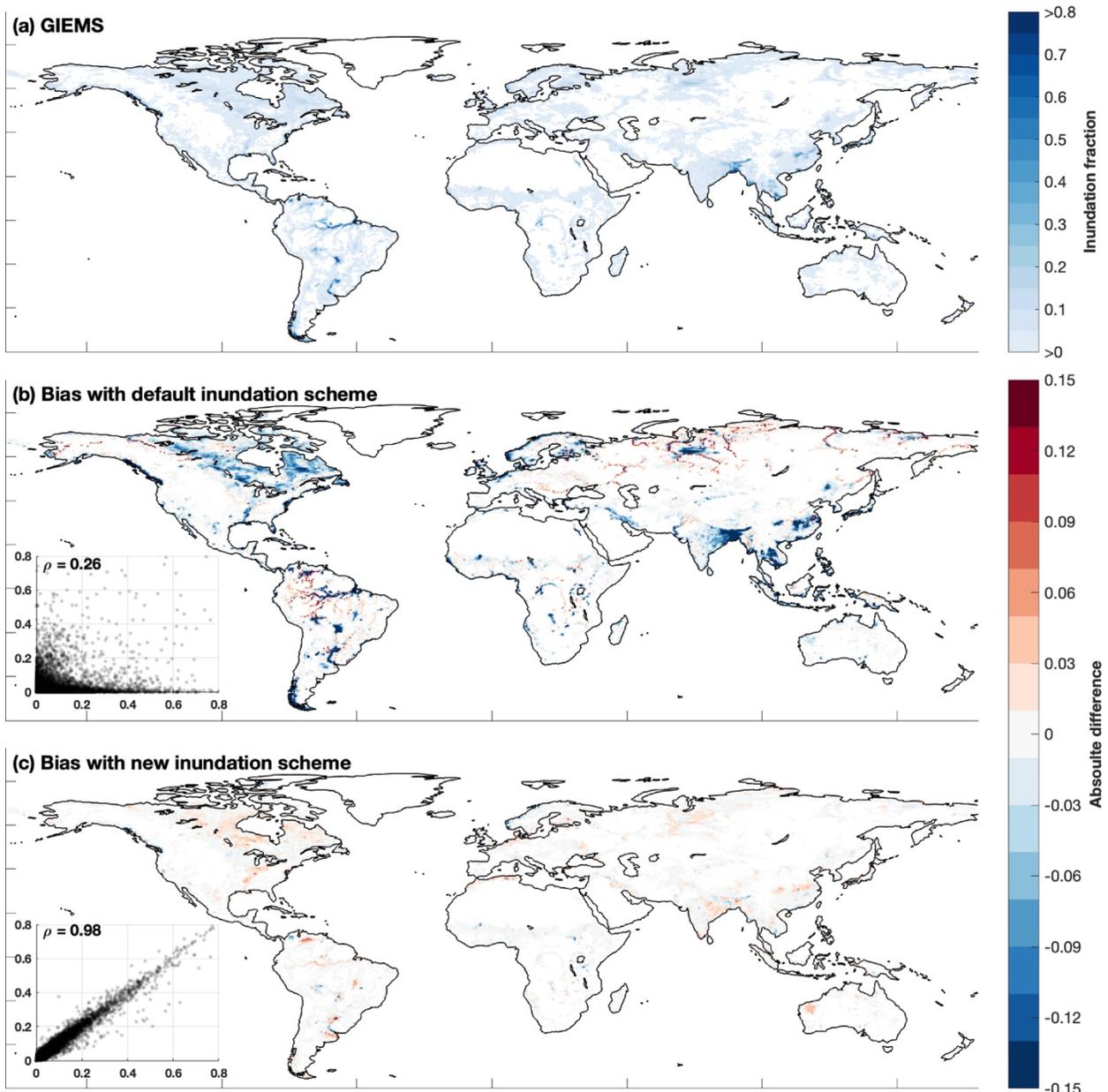
Note: ρ is correlation coefficient, NSE represents Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency, and NRMSE is the normalized root mean square error.

390

391 4.2 Inundation

392 Compared to the default SGT inundation scheme, the new LLR inundation scheme in
 393 MOSART significantly improves the simulated inundation dynamics at global scales (Figure 6).
 394 The ELM-MOSART-LLR-2way simulated inundation explains about 96% of the spatial
 395 variation of GIEMS during the validation period ($R^2 = 0.96$ in Figure 6c inset), which is
 396 substantially superior to that of the default inundation scheme used in ELM-MOSART-SGT-
 397 1way ($R^2 = 0.07$ in Figure 6b inset). Furthermore, the new inundation scheme is able to capture
 398 the temporal variation of the GIEMS inundation with global spatial correlation coefficient larger
 399 than 0.7 for each month during the validation period (Figure S5). We acknowledge that *Mao et*
 400 *al.* (2019) performed model calibration using atmospheric forcing of *Qian et al.* (2006) instead of

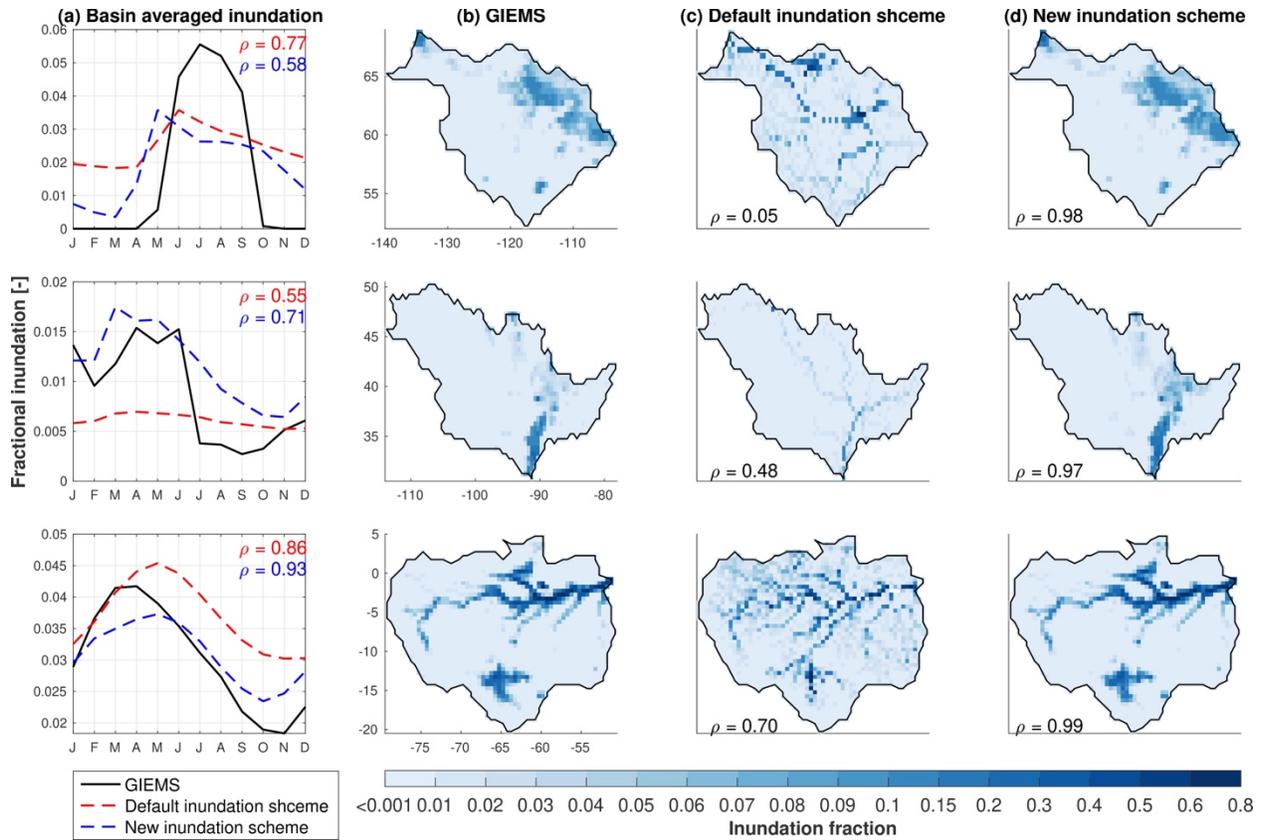
401 GSWP3 that is used in ELM-MOSART-SGT-1way. However, the biases of simulated inundation
 402 fraction remains significant when the atmospheric forcing of *Qian et al. (2006)* is used in ELM-
 403 MOSART-SGT-1way (Figure S6).



404 **Figure 6.** (a) Monthly average GIEMS inundated fraction from 2003 to 2007. (b) and (c) are the
 405 model biases (simulation - GIEMS) for ELM-MOSART-SGT-1way and ELM-MOSART-LLR-
 406 2way, respectively. The insets in (b) and (c) are the cell-to-cell comparison of simulated
 407 inundated fraction (X-axis) with the GIEMS inundated fraction (Y-axis).
 408
 409

410 The default inundation scheme underestimates the observed inundation significantly even
411 with an unrealistically shallow river depths, especially over the Amazon rainforest, South and
412 Southeast Asia, and partial high latitude of the Northern Hemisphere (Figure 6b). The model
413 biases are reduced with the new inundation scheme (Figure 5c), though some regions show a
414 slightly overestimation of the inundation. Overall, the averaged global inundated area during the
415 validation period for GIEMS, ELM-MOSART-LLR-2way, and ELM-MOSART-SGT-1way are
416 $2.31 \times 10^6 [km^2]$, $2.46 \times 10^6 [km^2]$, and $1.54 \times 10^6 [km^2]$, respectively.

417 The new inundation scheme captures the seasonal variation of the basin-averaged
418 inundation fraction better than the default inundation scheme over the Mississippi and Amazon
419 basin (higher correlation in Figure 7a). Although the default inundation scheme shows a better
420 correlation with the GIEMS data at Mackenzie, it underestimates the temporal variance.
421 Additionally, the default inundation scheme fails to capture the spatial distribution of inundation
422 fraction for Mackenzie, with a low spatial correlation coefficient of 0.05 (Figure 7c). The
423 performance of the default inundation scheme is relatively better for Mississippi and Amazon
424 with spatial correlation coefficients of 0.48 and 0.70, respectively (Figure 7c). The spatial
425 distribution of the inundation fraction is improved with the new inundation scheme significantly,
426 with spatial correlation coefficients higher than 0.97 for all three presented basins (Figure 7d).



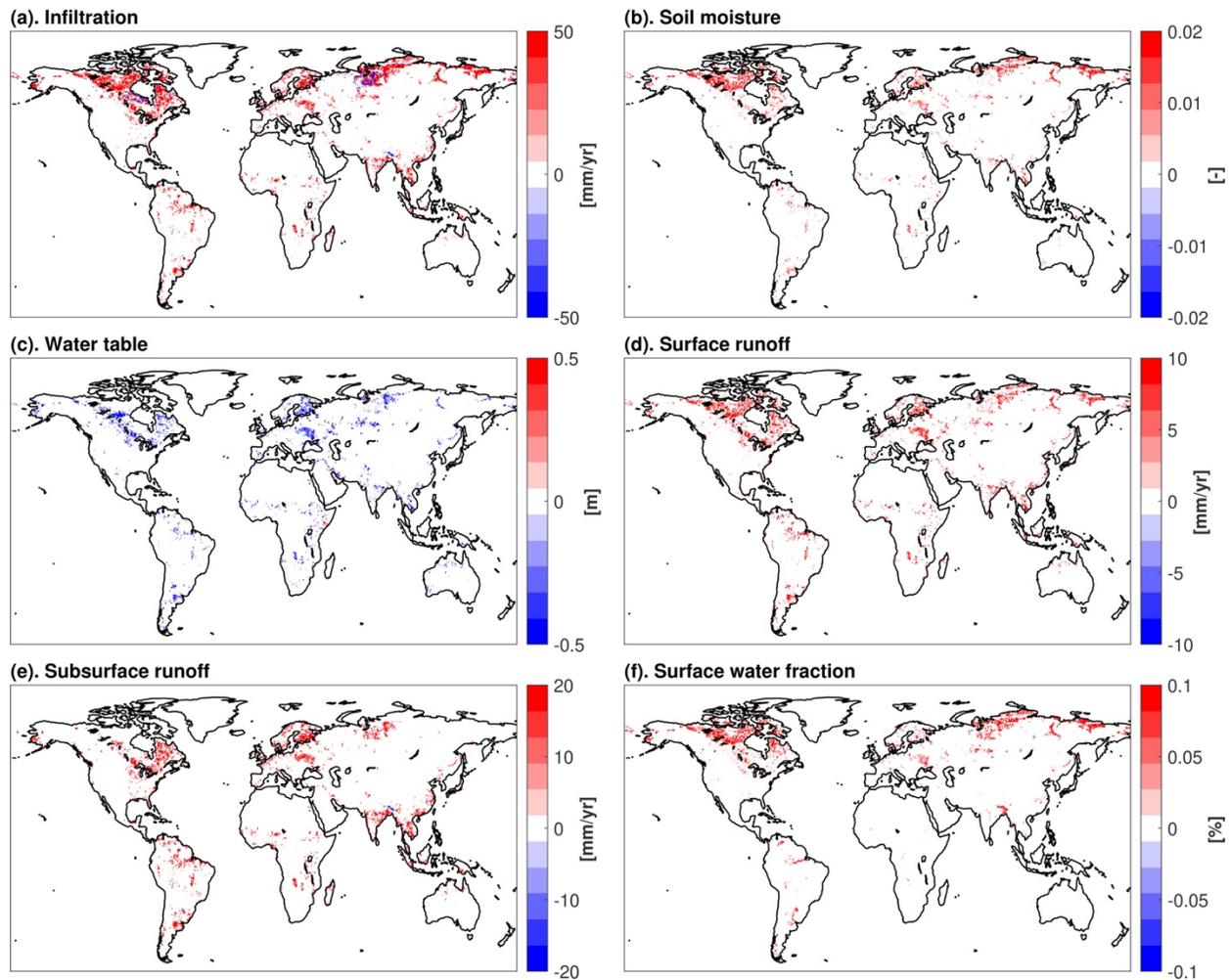
427
 428 **Figure 7.** Simulated inundation fraction for Mackenzie (top row), Mississippi (middle row), and
 429 Amazon (bottom row) basins. (a) Monthly basin average fractional inundation for the validation
 430 period (2003 – 2007). (b), (c), and (d) show the spatial distribution of mean inundation fraction
 431 for GIEMS, default inundation scheme, and new inundation scheme, respectively.
 432

433 5. Impacts of two-way coupling on land and river processes

434 5.1 Impacts on the water cycle

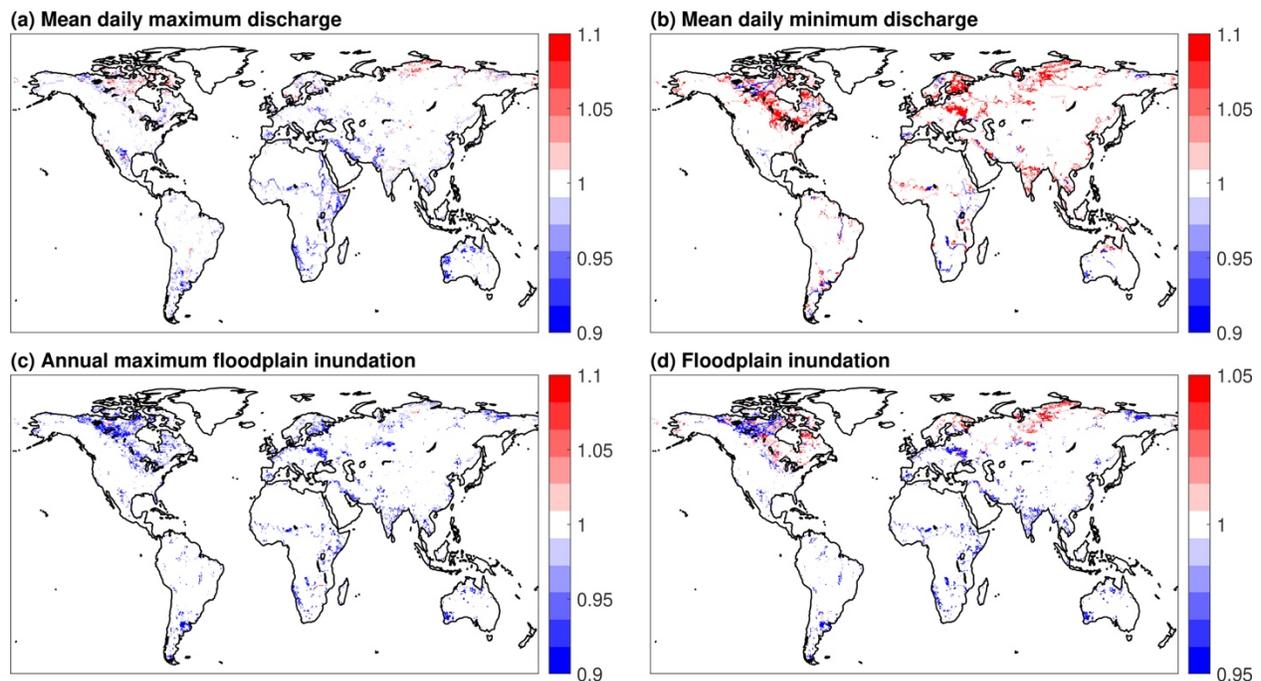
435 The two-way hydrological coupling of ELM and MOSART affects the global water
 436 cycle. In the two-way coupled simulation, the total infiltration increases as the floodplain
 437 inundated water infiltrates in the land during the flooding period (Figure 8a), representing the
 438 driver for the changes of other processes. Since the high latitude of the Northern Hemisphere has
 439 broader inundation extents (Figure 6a) due to wetter soil (Figure S7), more areas can be affected
 440 by two-way coupling through the infiltration from the inundated water. For example, 50% of the
 441 inundated cells (i.e., $f_{fp} > 0.01$) distributed above 40°N based on GIEMS inundation dataset.

442 The increased infiltration leads to an increase in soil moisture (Figure 8b) and a shallower water
 443 table (Figure 8c) through soil water movements over the affected areas. The higher soil moisture
 444 in the two-way coupled simulations causes larger surface runoff (Figure 8d) as precipitation and
 445 snowmelt have less available pore space to infiltrate in the soil. Higher water table also leads to
 446 an increased subsurface runoff (Figure 8e). Additionally, the surface water fraction increases
 447 with the two-way coupling (Figure 8f) and the increase is mainly distributed in the high latitude
 448 of the Northern Hemisphere, where the surface water area is more sensitive to the change of
 449 surface hydrological processes due to frozen soil (*Avis et al., 2011; Woo and Winter, 1993*).



450
 451 **Figure 8.** Absolute mean 30-year difference between the ELM-MOSART-LLR-2way simulation
 452 and the ELM-MOSART-LLR-1way simulation of (a) infiltration, (b) top layer soil moisture, (c)
 453 water table, (d) surface runoff, (e) subsurface runoff, and (d) surface water fraction.

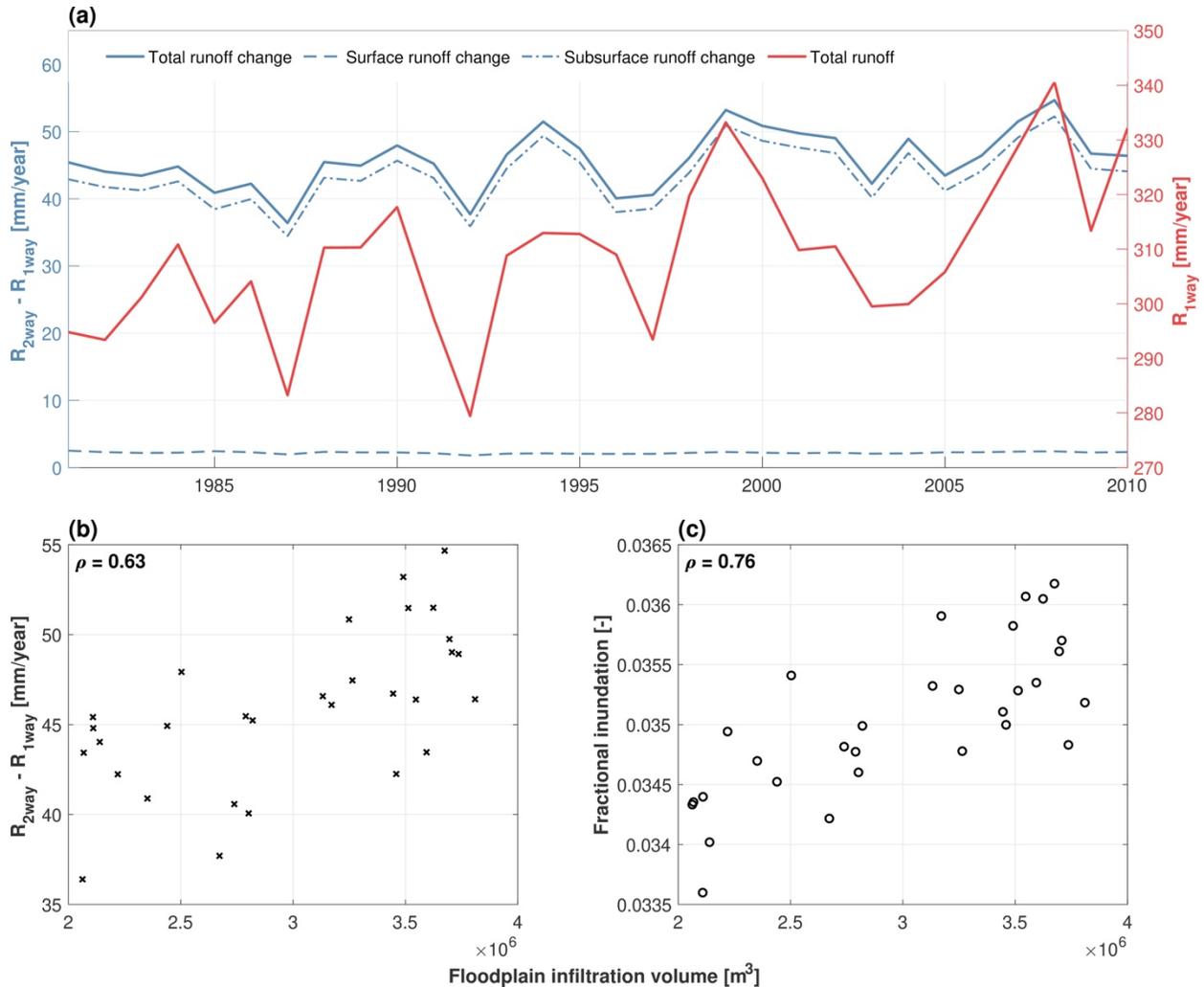
454 In the two-way coupled simulation, the river loses water to land through the floodplain
 455 infiltration, but it also receives more runoff (Figure 8d and e), which results in a change of
 456 streamflow dynamics. Specifically, two-way coupling reduces the variability of daily discharge
 457 by decreasing the maximum daily discharge (Figure 9a), while simultaneously increasing the
 458 minimum daily discharge (Figure 9b). The reduction in daily streamflow variability implies that
 459 floodplain plays a critical role in mitigating extreme events like flooding. For example, the 30-
 460 year averaged annual maximum floodplain inundation is lowered in the two-way coupling
 461 simulation (Figure 9c). The averaged floodplain inundation also decreases, except in some areas
 462 over the Northern high latitude (Figure 9d). On average, the global total floodplain inundation
 463 area decreased by 3.3% during our simulation period due to two-way coupling. Table 3 provides
 464 a summary of the number of affected cells at the global scale for various variables of interest.



465 **Figure 9.** Ratio of the 30-year mean between the ELM-MOSART-LLR-2way simulation and the
 466 ELM-MOSART-LLR-1way simulation of (a) daily maximum discharge, (b) daily minimum
 467 discharge, (c) daily maximum floodplain inundation, (d) floodplain inundation.

469

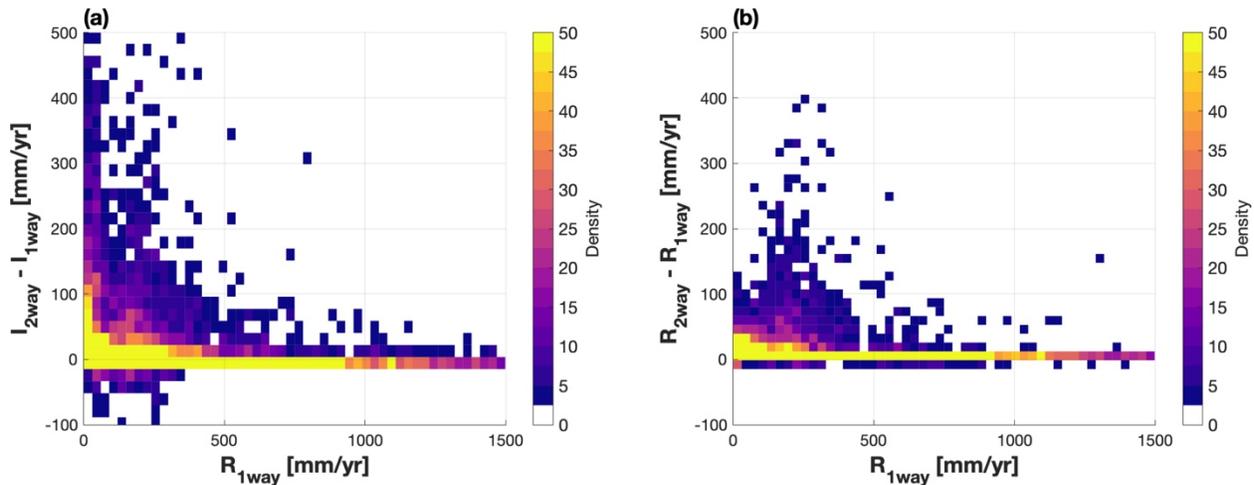
470 At global scale, changes in annual runoff averaged over the grid cells affected by two-
471 way coupling are greater during years with higher annual total runoff (Figure 10a), suggesting an
472 increase of interannual variability. The larger changes of total runoff in two-way coupling
473 simulations are caused by higher infiltration on the floodplain (Figure 10b) due to larger
474 inundation during wetter years (Figure 10c). Indeed, the more inundation water infiltrated into
475 the soil, the more runoff will be generated attributed to a shallower water table depth and higher
476 soil wetness. Additionally, the changes in total runoff are dominated by the changes in
477 subsurface runoff, which account for ~92% of the changes in total runoff. Although a similar
478 pattern for the impacts of two-way coupling on total runoff are found at basin scale (Figure S8),
479 regional differences in the changes of surface and subsurface runoff due to different climate
480 characteristics are noticeable (Figure S9). For example, both the Mississippi River basin and the
481 Amazon River basin have negligible changes of the surface runoff, whereas the Mackenzie River
482 Basin has comparable changes of surface and subsurface runoff (Figure S8). The difference in
483 Mackenzie River Basin is because of high latitude basins are characterized with lower baseflow
484 index (*Beck et al.*, 2013), hence, the surface runoff can be more sensitive to two-way coupling
485 than other areas.



486
 487 **Figure 10.** (a) Annual time series of total runoff, surface runoff changes, subsurface runoff
 488 changes, and total runoff changes between the ELM-MOSART-LLR-2way simulation (R_{2way})
 489 and the ELM-MOSART-LLR-1way simulation (R_{1way}) averaged over the affected cells at global
 490 scale. Annual total runoff is from the ELM-MOSART-LLR-1way simulation. Subplot (b) shows
 491 relationship between floodplain infiltration volume and change of total runoff, and (c) shows the
 492 relationship between floodplain infiltration volume and fractional inundation from ELM-
 493 MOSART-LLR-2way simulation. ρ is the corresponding correlation coefficient.
 494

495 Two-way coupling reduces daily streamflow variability but increases the interannual
 496 runoff variability globally (Figure 9 and 10). The effects of two-way coupling may also differ
 497 spatially. Here we find that areas with lower annual runoff (e.g., less than 500 [mm/yr]) have
 498 larger changes in infiltration due to two-way coupling (Figure 11a), resulting in larger changes in
 499 total runoff (Figure 11b). Although the wetter regions tend to have larger inundation extents than

500 the drier regions, the infiltration capacity may constrain the floodplain infiltration such that the
 501 inundated water cannot infiltrate when the top layer soil is saturated (Eq (3b)). Both the number
 502 of affected cells and the change of infiltration and runoff decrease along with the increase of
 503 annual total runoff. This suggests that relatively drier regions are more sensitive to two-way
 504 coupling than wetter regions in terms of the water cycle, therefore, land-river interactions
 505 through the floodplain reduces spatial variability of runoff over the inundated areas.



506
 507
 508 **Figure 11.** Relationship between the average annual total runoff and (a) change of average
 509 annual infiltration, and (b) change of average annual total runoff between the ELM-MOSART-
 510 LLR-2way simulation (I_{2way} and R_{2way}) and the ELM-MOSART-LLR-1way simulation (I_{1way} and
 511 R_{1way}). Only grid cells that are impacted by the inundation are presented in the density scatter
 512 plot.

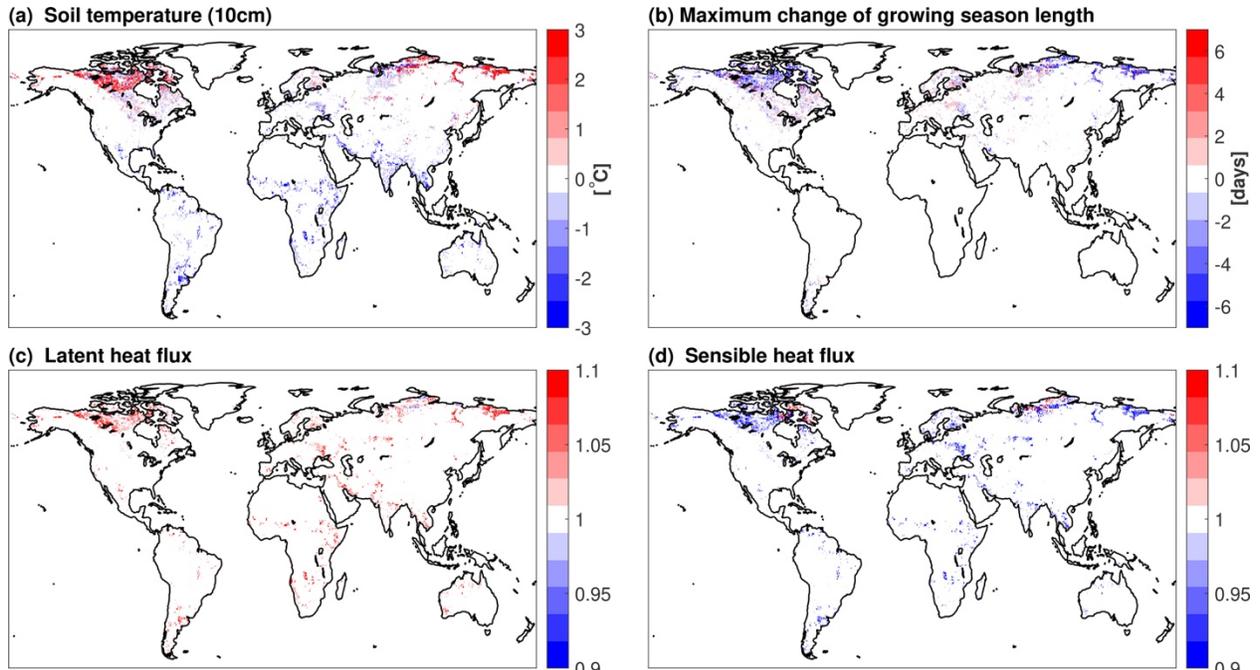
513

514 5.2 Impacts on energy cycle

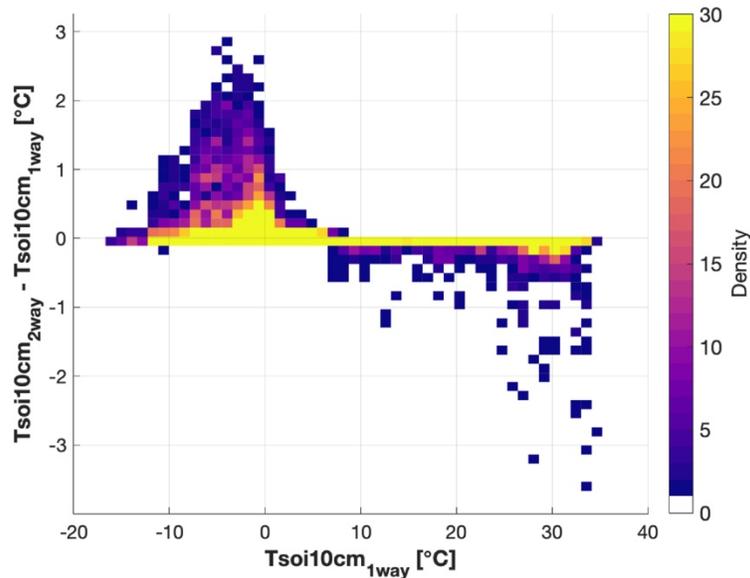
515 The subsurface thermal dynamics in ELM are impacted due to the changes of soil
 516 moisture in the two-way coupled simulations. Increased soil moisture with two-way coupling
 517 leads to a higher soil heat capacity that consequently modifies the soil temperature (Figure 12a).
 518 The Northern high latitudes show an increase in soil temperature, while other regions with
 519 changes in soil temperature show a decrease trend as compared to the one-way coupled
 520 simulation. The spatial pattern of surface soil temperature change is attributed to the changes in

521 the annual average soil temperature (Figure 13). Specifically, floodplain inundation results in
522 warmer soil for grid cells with annual soil temperature lower than about 8 °C; otherwise, the soil
523 becomes cooler on average. Changes of surface temperature affect the growing season length
524 (GSL), which is defined as the number of days between the first 5-day period with average
525 temperatures above 5°C to the first 5-day period with temperatures below 5°C here. While the
526 average annual soil temperature is warmer in the two-way coupling simulation in cold regions
527 (Figure S10), the GSL can be shorter (Figure 12b). The reason for the shorter GSL with two-way
528 coupling is that more energy is needed to heat up the wetter soil with higher heat capacity during
529 the transition from the freezing season to the thawing season (see May to June of 2001 in Figure
530 14a). However, the GSL of warmer areas is not affected by two-way coupling as only the hot
531 months are cooled (Figure 14b).

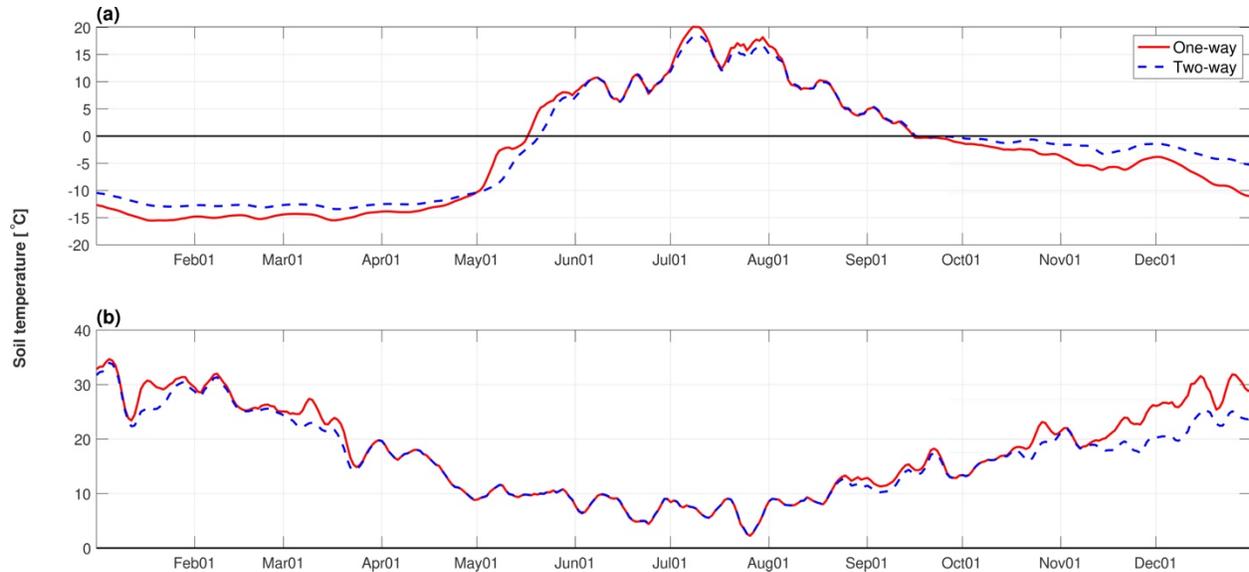
532 The partitioning of net radiation is modified by two-way coupling as well, with a higher
533 latent heat flux (Figure 12c) and lower sensible heat flux (Figure 12d) compared to the one-way
534 simulation. However, many modifications on energy cycle due to two-way coupling are currently
535 omitted in our implementation, such as energy exchange between land and river, estimating
536 surface albedo with floodplain inundation, and including ET from inundated water. Thus, all the
537 changes in the surface heat fluxes are driven by the changes in soil moisture. Notably, the latent
538 heat fluxes over the tropical regions are not sensitive to the change of soil moisture (Figure 12c)
539 because ET is not water limited for these regions (*Brum et al.*, 2018; *Xu et al.*, 2019).



540
 541 **Figure 12.** Impacts of land river two-way coupling on (a) soil temperature at 10 cm, (b) growing
 542 season length, (c) latent heat flux, and (d) sensible heat flux in ELM. Subplots (a) and (b) show
 543 the maximum changes of soil temperature and growing season length from 30 years for each grid
 544 cell, respectively, between ELM-MOSART-LLR-2way and ELM-MOSART-LLR-1way. For
 545 subplots (c) and (d), the ratio of 30-year means between the ELM-MOSART-LLR-2way
 546 simulation and the ELM-MOSART-LLR-1way simulation is used.
 547



548
 549 **Figure 13.** Relationship between the annual soil temperature at 10cm and the changes of annual
 550 soil temperature at 10cm between the ELM-MOSART-LLR-2way simulation and the ELM-
 551 MOSART-LLR-1way simulation. Only grid cells that are impacted by the inundation are
 552 presented in the density scatter plot.
 553



554
 555 **Figure 14.** Daily temperature comparison between the ELM-MOSART-LLR-2way simulation
 556 and the ELM-MOSART-LLR-1way simulation for 2001 at two grid cells. The black solid line
 557 denotes the freezing temperature, i.e., 0°C. Subplot (a) is from Lat: 66.75, Lon: 150.25, and
 558 subplot (b) is from Lat: -37.25, Lon: -66.75.
 559

560 **Table 3. Percentage of global cells that are affected by two-way coupling.**

Variable	% of cells affected	% of cells with significant increase	% of cells with significant decrease
Infiltration	23.7	6.9	0.2
Soil moisture	16.2	2.9	0.0
Water table	14.1	2.8	0.1
Surface runoff	20.5	4.7	0.1
Subsurface runoff	21.72	6.6	1.5
Surface water fraction	27.6	8.0	0.2
Max daily discharge	25.4	0.7	2.4
Min daily discharge	20.5	5.0	1.4
Soil temperature	11.4	1.7	1.8
Latent heat flux	10.1	1.2	0.0
Sensible heat flux	10.8	0.2	1.5

Note: A cell with relative change larger than 0.1% or less than -0.1% are counted as affected. The relative change larger than 5% are counted as significant increase, and less than -5% are counted as significant decrease. For the soil temperature, absolute change is used instead. The cells with absolute change larger than 0.1°C or less than -0.1°C are counted as affected. 1°C and -1°C are used as criteria for significant increase and decrease for the soil temperature, respectively.

561

562 **6. Conclusion and discussion**

563 In this study, we developed two-way hydrological coupling between the land and river

564 components of E3SM. The default inundation scheme in the river component of E3SM was

565 inadequate in capturing the observed spatial variability of floodplain inundation, thus, we
566 developed a novel data-driven inundation scheme that is able to capture 96% of the spatial
567 variance of a satellite-based observational dataset. We calibrated river geometry parameters for
568 MOSART and parameters for the new inundation scheme and performed ELM-MOSART
569 coupled simulations with one-way and two-way model coupling to investigate the sensitivity of
570 land/river processes to land-river coupling. Our comparisons reveal significant changes in the
571 land processes at the global scale, with two-way coupling producing wetter soil, more runoff,
572 and higher surface water fraction. Two-way coupling also has impacts on river processes, as
573 evidenced by the lower peak annual streamflow and the higher minimum annual streamflow
574 because of the infiltration of flood water into the floodplain soil and hence, the influence on
575 runoff. While riverine inundation is mitigated by two-way coupling during flooding periods,
576 inland inundation is more extensive. Overall, the water cycle at about 20% of the global areas are
577 influenced by the two-way hydrological coupling.

578 The water cycle shows different sensitivities to two-way coupling in regions with
579 different climate characteristics. At global scale, our results suggest that wetter periods (e.g.,
580 years with runoff higher than the long-term annual runoff) and relatively drier regions (e.g.,
581 annual runoff less than 500 [mm/yr]) exhibit higher sensitivity to land river two-way coupling.
582 Larger changes in runoff are observed during wetter periods because the water table and soil
583 moisture are more affected by the infiltration of inundation water, which is larger in the wetter
584 periods than in the drier periods. However, the relatively drier regions are more affected by two-
585 way coupling than wetter regions, where the inundation infiltration may be constrained by the
586 lower infiltration capacity of the soil (Eq (3b)). In contrast, the floodplain soil of relatively drier

587 regions is capable of absorbing most of the inundation water, therefore, leading to larger changes
588 in the water cycle by modifying the daily and interannual variability of streamflow and runoff.

589 The energy cycle is modified by the land river two-way hydrological coupling as well.
590 Since only hydrological exchange is implemented between land and river in our implementation,
591 two-way coupling has negligible effect on the surface net radiation (not shown here).
592 Nonetheless, partitioning of the surface net radiation is different in the two-way coupling
593 simulation with higher latent heat flux and lower sensible heat flux. The higher latent heat flux is
594 mainly driven by the change of soil moisture (*Hou et al.*, 2012), which has an important control
595 on ET in water-limited regions (*Jung et al.*, 2010). We note that ET from open water in river and
596 floodplain inundation, which will lead to more changes in the surface heat fluxes (*Dadson et al.*,
597 2010), are not included in the current two-way coupling implementation. A future study will
598 include ELM-MOSART simulations with an active atmosphere model to investigate of the
599 impacts of floodplain on land-atmosphere interaction.

600 The newly developed inundation scheme and land river two-way hydrological coupling
601 are not without shortcomings and limitations. First, the new inundation scheme is not process-
602 based but data driven that relies on accurate flood inundation satellite dataset for training.
603 Satellite inundation data products have considerable uncertainty associated with detection of
604 small flooded areas (*Prigent et al.*, 2007), presence of clouds (*Policelli et al.*, 2017; *Revilla-
605 Romero et al.*, 2015), and densely vegetated areas (*Wu et al.*, 2019). Second, given that
606 inundation only occurs along the main river channels in MOSART, it is critical to accurately
607 represent the river networks for inundation simulations. Thus, using a single main channel river
608 network (*Wu et al.* (2011) at relatively coarse resolution (e.g. 0.5 degree) would introduce
609 additional source of uncertainty for inundation estimation in this study. Third, the current

610 coupling scheme adds the floodplain infiltrated water within the entire coarse-scale grid cell,
611 which can be unrealistic as the inundated area usually occupies only a very small fraction of the
612 grid cell area. However, infiltration of the inundated water only within a soil column of
613 floodplain is not supported by the current version of ELM, as hydrological processes are
614 represented by a single soil column within each grid cell. A more realistic surface and subsurface
615 interactions in two-way coupling scheme are warranted with the subgrid topographic land unit
616 model setup that will be available in a future version of ELM (*Tesfa et al., 2020*). Lastly, ELM
617 and MOSART separately estimate inland inundation (i.e., wetland inundation) and floodplain
618 inundation with different inundation schemes. Therefore, it remains challenging to evaluate the
619 total inundations with different components (e.g., land, river), as different inundations often
620 occur concurrently.

621 In summary, we implemented a land river two-way hydrological coupling scheme in
622 E3SM to understand changes in the land and river processes due to riverine inundation. Our
623 results show considerable impacts of riverine inundation on land and river hydrological
624 processes as well as partitioning of surface energy fluxes, which may have further impacts on the
625 water and energy cycle through land-atmosphere interactions. River and land hydrological
626 processes could be more resilient to climate change as two-way land-river interactions in the
627 floodplains tend to reduce the variability of hydrological processes at global scale, but future
628 investigations are needed using fully coupled E3SM simulations. Lastly, this study provides the
629 necessary first step for representing thermal, sediments, salinity, nutrients exchanges between
630 river and land to better understand the impacts of floodplain inundation on the biogeochemical
631 cycle.

632

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