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1 **Integrating parameter uncertainty of a process-based model in assessments of**
2 **climate change effects on forest productivity**

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25 Abstract

26 The parameter uncertainty of process-based models has received little attention in
27 climate change impact studies. This paper aims to integrate parameter uncertainty
28 into simulations of climate change impacts on forest net primary productivity (NPP).
29 We used either prior (uncalibrated) or posterior (calibrated using Bayesian
30 calibration) parameter variations to express parameter uncertainty. We assessed the
31 effect of parameter uncertainty on projections of the process-based model 4C in Scots
32 pine (*Pinus sylvestris*) stands under climate change. We compared the uncertainty
33 induced by differences between climate models with the uncertainty induced by
34 parameter variability and climate models together. This paper shows that the
35 uncertainty of simulated changes in NPP induced by climate model and parameter
36 uncertainty is substantially higher than the uncertainty of NPP changes induced by
37 climate model uncertainty alone. It however also highlights that the direction of NPP
38 change is mostly consistent between the simulations using the standard parameter
39 setting of 4C and the majority of the simulations including parameter uncertainty.
40 Climate change impact studies that do not consider parameter uncertainty may be
41 appropriate for projecting directions of change but not for quantifying the exact
42 degree of change. Moreover, models that were calibrated to data may not much show
43 reduced output uncertainty under climate change if parameter combinations are
44 selected that are particularly climate sensitive. Our findings are highly relevant
45 because most climate change impact studies do not integrate parameter uncertainty

46 and may thus be over- or underestimating climate change impacts on forest

47 ecosystems.

48

49 Keywords: 4C; Bayesian calibration; climate models; Europe; Monte Carlo analysis;

50 National Forest Inventory data

51

52 1. Introduction

53 Process-based models are widely used to assess the impacts of climate change on
54 forest ecosystems because they are constructed to represent forest processes under
55 non-analogues conditions such as the ones expected under future climate change
56 (Fontes et al. 2010; Reyer 2015). However, their results depend on the reliability of
57 the input data (*input uncertainty*), the representation or the lacking of processes
58 (*structural uncertainty*) and the uncertainty about model parameter values (*parameter*
59 *uncertainty*). All these uncertainties need to be accounted for when interpreting the
60 results of model simulations (Lindner et al. 2014).

61 In many cases parameter values of process-based models are uncertain since they are
62 derived from few and very specific ecophysiological measurements and observations
63 (Mäkelä et al. 2000). This leads to considerable parameter uncertainty especially if a
64 model is applied to sites across the distribution range of a tree species in which
65 phenotypic and genotypic variation prevail. For example, carbon balance models
66 from stand-scale forest growth models (e.g. Mäkelä 1986) to dynamic global
67 vegetation models (e.g. Sitch et al. 2003) often include the pipe model (Shinozaki et
68 al. 1964). These models assume that the leaf to sapwood area ratio is constant for a
69 particular species or plant functional type. However, empirical studies show that this
70 ratio varies with climate (Mencuccini and Grace 1995), stand density and site fertility
71 (Berninger et al. 2005; Espinosa-Bancalari et al. 1987; Long and Smith 1988; Pothier
72 and Margolis 1991). If this variation is included in a model, it influences the model
73 results by altering the allocation of net primary productivity to the stem (Berninger

74 and Nikinmaa 1997). While the effects of input uncertainty and of structural
75 uncertainty have been partly addressed elsewhere (e.g. Medlyn et al. 2011; Reyer et
76 al. 2014) and although there are methods that use widely available data sources to
77 address uncertain parameter values (Hartig et al. 2012; van Oijen et al. 2005; van
78 Oijen & Thompson 2010; van Oijen et al. 2013), so far parameter uncertainty has
79 received less attention in climate change impact studies.

80 Therefore, the objectives of this paper are (1) to combine an analysis of parameter
81 uncertainty with simulations of climate change impacts on forest productivity and (2)
82 to compare the effects of input uncertainty arising from several climate models with
83 the combined effects of both climate model input uncertainty and parameter
84 uncertainty. We used Bayesian calibration with a Markov Chain Monte Carlo
85 algorithm to assess the effects of parameter uncertainty on the projections of the
86 process-based forest model 4C in Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris*) stands under climate
87 change in Austria, Belgium, Estonia and Finland. More specifically, we calibrated the
88 model parameters of 4C in two different ways: for each country separately and for all
89 countries simultaneously. Thereby two types of parameter distribution were derived:
90 country-specific (calibrated on the stands available in the country) and generic
91 (calibrated on the stands available from all four countries). These distributions were
92 used to test whether calibration improved the model predictions in comparison to the
93 standard, uncalibrated parameter set. We assessed the prior (before calibration) and
94 posterior (after calibration) model output uncertainty for past conditions. Finally, we
95 compared the uncertainty of net primary productivity (NPP), height and diameter at

96 breast height (DBH) projections induced by using climate data from several climate
97 models including the uncertainty induced by parameter variations with the
98 uncertainty of NPP projections under climate change excluding parameter variations.
99

100 2. Material and Methods

101 a. Overview of methodology

102 This study builds upon a model comparison study where national forest inventory
103 (NFI) data were used to calibrate forest models of different complexity (van Oijen et
104 al. 2013). Van Oijen et al. (2013) calibrated parameter distributions of six models
105 with Bayesian calibration techniques. They used either country-specific data from
106 two NFI plots in each country (thus generating country-specific posterior parameter
107 distributions) or a generic dataset consisting of the data of all the available NFI plots
108 for that study (i.e. eight plots from four countries, leading to a generic posterior
109 parameter distribution). Including also uncalibrated (i.e. prior) parameter
110 distributions, they aimed to determine whether the models predicted the data of a
111 third plot (a permanent sampling plot, PSP) in each country better without calibration
112 or with the country-specific or the generic calibration. For more details on and formal
113 descriptions of Bayesian calibration and applications with forest process-based
114 models see van Oijen et al. (2005; 2013).

115 Here, we first compared the simulation results of the prior, the country-specific
116 posterior and the generic posterior parameter distributions of the 4C model with the
117 PSP data of van Oijen et al. (2013) to assess the influence of the country-specific and
118 generic calibration datasets in more detail. Secondly, we ran the 4C model with its
119 standard parameters and with climate change pathways from three regional climate
120 models to assess the uncertainty of NPP projections induced by different climate
121 models. Thirdly, we compared this climate model-induced uncertainty in NPP

122 projections with the uncertainty induced by climate model and parameter
123 uncertainties together. For the climate change simulations, we also studied the
124 influence of continuous CO₂-fertilization as (i.e. increasing CO₂-concentraions
125 according to the A1B emission pathway) opposed to an acclimation of photosynthesis
126 to 20th century CO₂-levels (i.e. fixed at 350ppm). Fig. 1 provides a schematic
127 overview of the methodology.

128

129 b. Data

130 We used data from four European countries where Scots pine is part of commercial
131 forestry, namely Austria (A), Belgium (B), Estonia (E) and Finland (F) (Table 1). In
132 each country, we used two plots from national forest inventories (NFI, e.g. referred to
133 as A1 and A2) and one PSP (e.g. referred to as A3) (Table 1). NFIs are usually
134 carried out to assess forest resources over large spatial scales by systematic sampling
135 and only measuring a few key variables while PSP are typically established in a few
136 typical forests only but therefore monitored with much greater effort. In Estonia, no
137 NFI plots but three PSPs were available. Hence for the first two of them the data were
138 prepared as if originating from NFI to assure consistency with the other countries. For
139 each stand, we initialized the forest model 4C (see below) with the stand data of the
140 first available observation. The management of all stands was mimicked in 4C by
141 removing trees following a thinning-from-above management strategy until the
142 measured tree number was reached. Further descriptions of the stand, climate and soil

143 data we used for the validation and calibration runs can be found in van Oijen et al.
144 (2013).
145 For the climate change simulations we used the same soil and stand data but also
146 modeled past climate data to ensure compatibility between past and future model
147 simulations. We prepared data from three Regional Climate Models (RCMs) driven
148 by three different General Circulation Models (GCMs) using the A1B emission
149 scenario (Nakicenovic et al. 2000). The RCM/GCM combinations were
150 CCLM/ECHAM5, HadRM3/HadCM3 and HIRHAM3/Arpège. The data of the latter
151 two RCM/GCM combinations originated from the ENSEMBLES project (van der
152 Linden and Mitchell 2009) while the CCLM/ECHAM5 data were from
153 Lautenschlager et al. (2009) (henceforth we refer to the RCM/GCM combinations
154 simply as RCMs). We bias-corrected and interpolated the simulated climate data to
155 the sites by calculating a monthly mean model bias (absolute difference for
156 temperature and relative for precipitation), adding (for temperature) or multiplying
157 (for precipitation) this bias to/with daily simulated climate of past and future and
158 interpolating the climate to the plots accounting for altitudinal dependencies of the
159 climatic variables using a digital elevation model and external-drift-Kriging as
160 described in Reyer et al. (2014). Table 2 shows the changes in temperature and
161 precipitation featured in each climate model and at each plot.

162
163 c. The model 4C

164 The model 4C ('FORESEE' - Forest Ecosystems in a Changing Environment;
165 <http://www.pik-potsdam.de/4c/>) describes forest development under changing
166 environmental conditions (Bugmann et al. 1997; Lasch et al. 2005). Processes are
167 modeled on the tree- and stand-level describing ecosystem carbon and water
168 balances, leaf area index and forest structure. Establishment, growth, competition for
169 light, water and nutrients and mortality of tree cohorts are modeled spatially implicit
170 on a patch on which horizontal homogeneity is assumed. The soil sub-model
171 describes temperature and water, carbon and nitrogen dynamics in different soil
172 layers.

173 Photosynthesis is modelled as a function of environmental influences (temperature,
174 water and nitrogen availability, radiation and CO₂) modified from Haxeltine and
175 Prentice (1996). Elevated CO₂ increases the internal partial pressure of CO₂ which
176 increases light-use efficiency and gross assimilation and reduces stomatal
177 conductance and the potential transpiration water demand thus increasing water-use
178 efficiency. Water stress (described in Reyer et al. 2010) and nutrient limitations
179 reduce assimilation. Respiration is a constant fraction of annual GPP (Landsberg and
180 Waring 1997). The resulting NPP is allocated to different tree organs according to the
181 pipe model (Shinozaki et al. 1964), the functional balance (Davidson 1969), height
182 growth depending on foliage mass and light availability and a rise in bole height if
183 the photosynthetic production of the lowermost branches drops below compensation
184 of the sum their respiratory losses and senescence fluxes.

185 Temperature affects photosynthesis, growing season length, evapotranspiration which
186 determines water demand and thus drought stress, and mineralization/decomposition
187 and hence nutrient availability. Precipitation determines the soil water content and
188 hence the water availability for uptake by trees.

189 The water balance is calculated from potential evapotranspiration depending on
190 temperature, relative humidity, solar radiation according to Turc/Ivanov (Dyck and
191 Peschke 1995), interception and percolation transport of water in the multi-layered
192 soil is calculated (Grote and Suckow 1998). Root uptake is determined by the
193 transpiration demand of all trees and the plant available water.

194 4C requires meteorological driving forces at daily resolution as well as a soil and a
195 forest stand description for the model initialization. During initialization, the
196 observed basal area and age of the stand are matched. Each of its currently 13 tree
197 species, is represented by a set of 45 species-specific parameter values. These
198 parameter values originate from literature, aggregated datasets and expert assessment
199 and are henceforth referred to as the ‘standard parameter’ values (Table ESM1). A
200 more detailed description of 4C, recent model applications as well as a model
201 validation can be found in Reyer et al. (2010; 2014).

202 For all the Bayesian calibration and Monte Carlo simulation experiments, we
203 interfaced 4C to the generic and model-independent simulation environment SimEnv
204 (Flechsigt et al. 2013).

205

206 d. Evaluation and comparison of calibration datasets

207 We constructed two different prior (i.e. uncalibrated) parameter distributions from
208 independent marginal distributions for the individual model parameters. In the first
209 one, each parameter was assumed to be uniformly distributed between 50% and
210 150% of its standard value in 4C (Table ESM1). This $\pm 50\%$ range of parameter
211 values reflects a large uncertainty about parameter values across the broad variety of
212 geographic distribution, stands, sites and climates considered in this study. In the
213 second one, each parameter was assumed to be normally distributed with the
214 distributions being truncated based on the literature and data that was used to define
215 the standard parameters (Table ESM2). This second prior parameter distribution
216 reflects the ‘most plausible prior’ and was introduced to test the influence of the more
217 arbitrary $\pm 50\%$ range of parameter values of a uniform prior on model output
218 uncertainty.

219 Using Monte Carlo simulations with Latin hypercube sampling, we then sampled
220 1000 parameter vectors from the prior parameter distributions and ran 4C for each
221 parameter vector with the measured soil, stand, management and climate data for
222 each PSP-site (codes A3, B3, E3, F3 in Table 1). The simulations were run for the
223 time period between the first and the last available data point. This yielded 1000
224 simulation results that express the prior model output uncertainty under current
225 climate.

226 The prior parameter distributions were then updated during the country-specific and
227 generic calibrations using NFI data (codes A1, A2, B1, B2, E1, E2, F1, F2 in Table 1)
228 and Bayesian calibration using a Markov-Chain Monte Carlo algorithm (see ESM2

229 for details). This resulted in four country-specific and one generic posterior parameter
230 distribution. For the ‘most plausible prior’ we only performed the generic calibration
231 and the country-specific calibration for F3 (referred to as F3*) but not for the other
232 sites because the F3 site has the longest record of test data. From each of the posterior
233 parameter distributions we sampled another 1000 parameter vectors and ran 4C with
234 each parameter vector with the measured soil, stand, management and climate data of
235 each PSP (codes A3, B3, E3, F3 in Table 1) which had not been used for calibration
236 for a period from the first to the last available data point.

237 The results of these 1000 simulations express the country-specific and generic
238 posterior model output uncertainty respectively under current climate. From the
239 country-specific and generic posterior parameter distribution, we also derived the
240 maximum a posteriori estimate (MAP), which is the most probable parameter vector
241 (van Oijen et al. 2005).

242 To assess how the simulations fitted the observed stand data and which calibration
243 dataset improved the predictions the most, we compared observed and simulated
244 mean tree height and DBH for each plot. DBH and mean height were chosen since
245 these are commonly reported variables in forest science. We calculated the
246 Normalized Root Mean Square Error (NMRSE, see ESM1), based on the whole
247 distribution (i.e. calculated as an average across the samples from the probability
248 distributions) (van Oijen et al. 2013).

249

250 e. Influence of climate model and parameter uncertainty

251 For the climate change simulations, we ran 4C with the 1000 prior, country-specific
252 posterior and generic posterior parameter vectors as well as with the standard
253 parameter values (in case of the prior) and the MAPs (in case of the posterior
254 simulations) at each of the four PSPs in the four countries using the measured stand,
255 management and soil data for 30 years of climatic data from the three climate models
256 for the periods 1971-2000 and 2061-2090. We calculated the change in the mean NPP
257 and the height and DBH of the last simulation year for the period 2061-2090
258 compared to the period 1971-2000. To test the sensitivity of our results to the choice
259 of the parameter uncertainty range of $\pm 50\%$, we also repeated the prior simulations
260 assuming a smaller uncertainty of initial parameter values of $\pm 25\%$ variation.
261 Although the changes in climate are driven by an increase in atmospheric CO₂
262 according to the A1B storyline (see section ‘data’), the long-term effect of increasing
263 CO₂ concentrations on forests is unclear (Körner 2006; Reyer et al. 2015). Therefore,
264 in our simulations we made two assumptions about CO₂ concentrations and the
265 persistence of its effects on photosynthesis: Firstly, we ran all simulations with
266 increasing CO₂ concentrations according to the A1B emission scenario (i.e. persisting
267 stimulation of photosynthesis by CO₂, hence the upper margin of CO₂-effects) and
268 secondly we kept CO₂ concentration constant at 350ppm (i.e. an acclimation of
269 photosynthesis to CO₂ at 350ppm, hence the lower margin of CO₂-effects) (see Reyer
270 et al. (2014) or Medlyn et al. 2011 for a more thorough discussion of CO₂-effects in
271 forest models).

272 Our simulation design resulted in a total of 192 192 simulation runs (three RCMs x
273 two time periods x four stands x two assumptions about CO₂ x four parameter
274 distributions based on two priors and two posteriors x 1001 parameter vectors). To
275 assess the uncertainties induced by the ensemble of climate models and by parameter
276 uncertainty, we considered the results of the simulations with standard parameter
277 values, the MAPs and of the full range of simulations with prior, country-specific
278 posterior and generic posterior parameter distributions.

279

280 3. Results

281 a. Bayesian calibration

282 Table 3 shows that even without calibration, 4C simulates height and DBH with
283 reasonably low NRSME except for site F3. As expected, the calibration improves the
284 model results as expressed by a lower NRMSE at all sites and for both diameter and
285 height. The results of the generic calibration fit the data best (with the exception of
286 height at E3) but generally the NRMSE for both calibration datasets are similar. The
287 Bayesian calibration also reduced output uncertainty for both the country-specific and
288 generic calibration. In most cases both the posterior mean as well as the MAP provide
289 better fit to the data than the standard parameter run and the output range is much
290 smaller than for prior simulations (see Fig. 2 and Fig ESM1 for an example for F3
291 and F3* respectively). Interestingly, the output uncertainty for height is smaller when
292 considering F3 compared to F3* while the opposite is true for DBH. For F3*, the
293 maximum values for height and DBH are also further reduced in comparison to F3

294 but some of the parameter combinations found for F3* lead to a die-off of trees while
295 this is not the case under F3. For most marginal parameter distributions the posterior
296 standard deviation was 1-2% less than the prior standard deviation. Parameter
297 correlations were small and exceeded correlations of 0.4 in only one case. A full list
298 of all prior and posterior parameter estimates is available in Table ESM2-3.

299

300 b. Influence of climate change on NPP projections

301 Across the four plots used in this study and across the three climate models, climate
302 change leads to NPP changes ranging from -9 to 29% during the period 2061-2090
303 relative to 1971-2000 under an acclimation of CO₂-effects (Fig. ESM2). In the two
304 Central European locations (Austria and Belgium) the responses are mostly small but
305 negative, while in the two Northern European locations (Estonia and Finland) the
306 responses are positive. Under persistent CO₂-effects, climate change always leads to
307 positive NPP changes ranging from 11 to 78% across the four plots (Fig. ESM2).

308

309 c. Influence of climate change and parameter uncertainty on NPP

310 projections

311 When parameter uncertainty is included in the climate change simulations under an
312 acclimation of CO₂-effects, the range of possible NPP changes increases across all
313 sites, varying from -21 to 62% for the prior assuming $\pm 25\%$ uncertainty ranges, from
314 -48 to 136% for the prior assuming $\pm 50\%$ uncertainty ranges and from -46 to 141%
315 and -45 to 231% for the posterior generic and the posterior country-specific model

316 output distribution respectively, but the median changes remain comparable (Fig.
317 ESM2). The F3* simulations show very similar ranges of results but slightly less
318 negative NPP changes. The two different assumptions about parameter uncertainty,
319 namely $\pm 50\%$ and $\pm 25\%$, do not lead to large differences in median and the lower and
320 the upper quartiles of NPP change. However, fewer extreme NPP changes are found
321 under a parameter uncertainty of $\pm 25\%$. There is no large difference between
322 calibrated and uncalibrated (assuming $\pm 50\%$ parameter uncertainty) model output
323 distributions but overall, the posterior model output uncertainty is slightly larger than
324 the prior model output uncertainty.

325 Under persistent CO₂-effects, the range of possible NPP changes is much larger and
326 mostly positive, varying from 0 to 147% for the prior assuming $\pm 25\%$ uncertainty
327 ranges, from -35 to 478% for the prior assuming $\pm 50\%$ uncertainty ranges and from -
328 36 to 489% and -15 to 539% for the posterior generic and the posterior country-
329 specific model output distribution respectively, but again the median changes and the
330 lower and upper quartiles remain comparable (Fig. ESM2). The F3* simulations
331 show very similar ranges of results but slightly less negative NPP changes. Under
332 persistent CO₂-effects, also the difference between $\pm 50\%$ and $\pm 25\%$ prior parameter
333 uncertainty is less pronounced for E3 and F3.

334 Fig. 3 and 4 show the relative NPP changes at each of the four plots used in this study
335 split up per regional climate model. In most cases, the NPP change induced by the
336 standard parameter vector is close to the median and the MAP of the distribution of
337 NPP change induced by parameter uncertainty. The largest deviations of the medians

338 and MAPs of NPP change compared to the NPP change of the standard parameter
339 simulations occur under persistent CO₂-effects at the E3 site. The medians, lower and
340 upper quartiles and interquartile ranges of the prior assuming 50% uncertainty ranges
341 and the posterior model output distributions are similar for the same RCM. They
342 differ however between the different RCMs. While the median of the prior assuming
343 25% uncertainty ranges is similar to the medians of the other output distributions, its
344 lower and upper quartiles and interquartile ranges are, with the exception of E3, much
345 smaller than for the other output distributions. These general patterns are consistent
346 between the simulations featuring different assumptions about CO₂ although
347 persistent CO₂-effects lead to much larger values and ranges.
348 The results for height and DBH mainly mirror the NPP results but are characterized
349 by slightly lower negative relative changes for the CCLM RCM (Fig. ESM3-8).

350

351 4. Discussion

352 a. Evaluation and comparison of calibration datasets

353 This paper shows that calibration of model parameters with even small amounts of
354 NFI data helped to reduce the NRMSE of height and diameter predictions of a
355 parameter-rich, process-based forest model driven with observed climate (Table 3). In
356 a recent model comparison study using the same data, 4C was identified as the most
357 plausible model for simulating height and DBH after calibration (van Oijen et al.
358 2013). Despite the low number of data points used for calibration and our
359 assumptions about the prior parameter distribution (see discussion below), our

360 findings supports evidence from other studies that Bayesian methods combined with
361 NFI data improve model parameterizations (Mäkelä et al. 2012; van Oijen et al.
362 2013). Although the generic posterior parameter distribution yielded mostly lower
363 NRMSE values than the country-specific posterior parameter distribution, there were
364 no large differences between the two methods. This is noteworthy since the country-
365 specific posterior parameter distribution included fewer data points. Thus, the
366 advantage of having more data points in the generic calibration was partly
367 compensated for by having only country-specific data points in the country-specific
368 calibration. This shows that process-based models can actually be calibrated to
369 represent local conditions but as well for larger regions if enough calibration data is
370 available. Given that process-based models are increasingly designed for the latter
371 and that more and more data for model calibration is becoming available, we see
372 good prospect for further improving our understanding of parameter uncertainty at
373 larger scales. Further studies are needed to determine at which level of data
374 availability a generic calibration would perform better than a country-specific
375 calibration and should consider testing the difference of using regional prior
376 parameter information as opposed to generic priors used here.

377

378 b. Influence of climate model and parameter uncertainty

379 This paper highlights that the uncertainty about changes in NPP induced by climate
380 model and parameter uncertainty can be substantially higher than the uncertainty
381 about NPP changes induced by climate models alone. While this is a trivial statement

382 as such, it means that model-based projections of climate change-induced changes in
383 NPP and their implications for carbon cycling and forest growth may be more
384 uncertain than previously thought. Our findings partly rely on the assumption that the
385 climate change uncertainty induced by the three climate models and the prior
386 parameter uncertainty are realistic and hence can be compared.

387 It is also important to note that some parameter values may in reality be more, others
388 less variable than the parameter variations we assumed here. Especially, the
389 truncation of the normally distributed parameters (for the F3*) simulations seems to
390 be too wide given that certain parameter combinations lead to stand decline (Figure
391 ESM1). Similarly, the higher NRSME values for height in the F3* simulations as
392 opposed to the F3 simulations (Table 3) are possibly related to the larger parameter
393 ranges assumed for key parameters governing carbon allocation to height growth and
394 light extinction in the F3* simulations (pfext and pnus in Table ESM2). Also, the
395 distribution of the prior may differ from a uniform or normal distribution. While
396 using another distribution may decrease uncertainty (Wramneby et al. 2008), here we
397 took examples of assuming 1) a simple uniform distribution and the same relative
398 uncertainty for each parameter and 2) a normal distribution with parameter mean and
399 truncation derived from the original literature and data used to parameterize 4C as a
400 first attempt to account for parameter uncertainty. The variation around the standard
401 parameter as well as the shape of the prior parameter distribution could be further
402 refined in future studies by gathering information of possible parameter values from
403 traits-databases (e.g. Kattge et al. 2011).

404 The large prior uncertainties however also mean that, if several species would be
405 considered, as is usually done in climate change impact studies (e.g. Reyer et al.
406 2014), species-specific parameter uncertainty ranges may overlap. This may
407 complicate risk assessments for individual tree species or for the competition of tree
408 species (Wramneby et al. 2008) and highlights the need for the use of existing data
409 assimilation techniques such as in this study or in van Oijen et al. (2013) with more
410 data (i.e. longer time series, more sites) to improve species-specific parameterizations
411 of process-based models, handle more complex forest structures and/or even derive
412 regional, sub-species level parameterizations. Especially, data from a wider array of
413 sources could help to directly constrain the wider range of processes encapsulated in
414 process-based models.

415 To test how sensitive our prior model output uncertainties are to the assumption of
416 $\pm 50\%$ parameter variation, we included results from the Monte Carlo simulations
417 without calibration assuming only $\pm 25\%$ variation around the standard value and the
418 calibrations including ‘the most plausible prior’ using normally distributed parameter
419 ranges taken from the literature and data available for model parametrization. In the
420 former case, the uncertainties about the NPP changes due to the choice of climate
421 model and parameter uncertainty were reduced (Fig. ESM2). However, they were still
422 considerably larger than the variability in NPP changes induced by the climate
423 models alone. When considering the simulations with the ‘most plausible prior’,
424 model output uncertainty was not much different from the $\pm 50\%$ parameter
425 uncertainty runs. This result is not surprising given that the ‘most plausible prior’

426 contains ranges larger than $\pm 50\%$ for some parameters or information availability was
427 low so that values had to be kept at a $\pm 50\%$ range (Table ESM2). Thus, our results
428 are qualitatively robust across a large range of assumed parameter uncertainties.
429 A restriction of our study is that we build the prior from independent marginal
430 distributions. While this is a natural starting point when information is scarce it is
431 likely that some of the parameter combinations which lead to very extreme results in
432 our simulations may not be realistic (c.f. Wramneby et al. 2008), but without
433 additional data no parameter combinations could be excluded at this stage. Moreover,
434 our study was not very dependent on the prior since we analyzed output uncertainty
435 by posterior distributions. Even our simulations using the posterior parameter
436 distributions (hence after including data) show a wide range of possible productivity
437 changes despite very unrealistic parameter combinations having been eliminated by
438 the calibration procedure. It is however important to note that the calibration was
439 done for past climates measured at the specific study sites and that the climate model
440 data differ from measured data even for the past and after a bias correction and
441 interpolation (c.f. Reyer et al. 2014). Thus, calibrated parameters are not necessarily
442 fully realistic under climate change.
443 Another important assumption of our study is that the climate models we have chosen
444 adequately represent uncertainty about possible climate change. The projections of
445 the RCMs used here range from 1.5 to 4.5°C warming and from -16 to 15% changes
446 in precipitation between the different stands (Table 2) which is well in line with the
447 range of projections by the IPCC for Europe for a similar period (IPCC 2007). Even

448 though using a wider range of climate scenarios would certainly encapsulate stronger
449 climate changes and hence lead to stronger NPP changes, a recent study with the 4C
450 model found that these are rarely larger than 45% or smaller than -15% in the
451 countries covered here (Reyer et al. 2014). Even though these results were found for a
452 different set of forest in the respective countries, the changes seem substantially
453 smaller than the changes induced by parameter uncertainty and climate change in our
454 study. Thus uncertainty in climate input introduced by the three RCMs seems wide
455 enough to be compared with the uncertainty induced by the variation of parameter
456 values. It is noteworthy that the input uncertainty induced by the different climate
457 models alone already leads to a variation in NPP changes from 3 to 29% in the most
458 extreme case of E3.

459 The influence of model structural uncertainty can also increase the range of climate
460 model-induced uncertainty (but also in the simulations including parameter
461 uncertainty) as exemplified by our two different but very influential assumptions
462 about the persistence of CO₂-effects on photosynthesis and water use. While this is an
463 attempt to assess model structural uncertainty regarding the influence of CO₂, it does
464 not fully account for the true range of structural uncertainty since the actual model
465 formulation of how CO₂ affects photosynthesis in 4C remains unchanged. This can be
466 better tested by driving structurally diverse models with the same data (e.g.
467 Warszawski et al. 2013).

468 Our results reveal one more interesting particularity: Figures 3 and 4 show that the
469 posterior model output uncertainty (of both the generic and country-specific posterior

470 parameter distributions) is sometimes larger than the prior model output uncertainty.
471 This is counterintuitive since for the simulations using measured climate in the first
472 part of our analysis, the posterior model output NRMSE was reduced in comparison
473 to the prior model output NRMSE values. The posterior parameter uncertainty was
474 slightly reduced as well. This means that forward propagation of posterior parameter
475 uncertainty to model output uncertainty (of NPP change) leads to increased
476 uncertainty when comparing the effects of multiple climate models. This could be
477 because our comparably small calibration dataset might have led to parameter
478 combinations that were coming from inappropriate regions of the parameter space.
479 While we cannot fully rule out this possibility, we think that the reduction in posterior
480 output uncertainty for past conditions, even though not a substantial one, rather points
481 towards another explanation: the posterior parameter distribution assigns higher
482 probability to a subregion of parameter space where climate sensitivity is high and
483 varies much. This is possible because in 4C, NPP is nonlinearly related to the model
484 parameters and therefore parameter combinations that may not seem to have much
485 effect under current climatic conditions, may lead to larger output variation under
486 different climates. We speculate that especially those parameters related to the
487 photosynthesis model would be particularly sensitive to such effects, because in 4C
488 NPP is strongly linked to photosynthesis which is itself sensitive to temperatures.
489 This also means that when calibration reduces a model's output uncertainty for
490 present-day conditions, it does not guarantee that the model's output uncertainty for
491 future, climatically changed conditions is reduced too.

492

493 c. Implications for climate change impact studies

494 This paper shows that – while the absolute magnitude of climate change-induced NPP
495 changes is highly uncertain if considering parameter uncertainties – the direction of
496 NPP change is mostly consistent between the simulations using the standard
497 parameter setting of 4C and the majority of the simulations using the parameter
498 variation induced by prior or posterior parameter uncertainties (as expressed by the
499 boxes in Figs 3 and 4 which include 50% of the values). Figs 3 and 4 show that
500 typically the median of the NPP change due to climate change and parameter
501 uncertainty mirrors the NPP change induced by climate change alone. Although
502 projections using the standard parameters of 4C do not take into account parameter
503 uncertainty, the direction and quality of change (i.e. small or large) are met quite
504 well. Thus, the standard parameters may be appropriate for projecting directions of
505 climate change impacts, especially if including some information on input
506 uncertainty, but not their exact magnitude. This increases the confidence in the
507 overall pattern of NPP change under climate change found in recent applications of
508 4C at the European scale (Reyer et al. 2014). However, it is important that for
509 quantitative assessments of climate change impacts on forests using complex process-
510 based models, parameter uncertainty is considered more thoroughly as it adds
511 significantly to input uncertainty induced by climate models. Our study also shows
512 that this can be done either using country-level calibrations or more generic
513 calibrations as the climate sensitivity of NPP is rather similar for these two different

514 calibrations in our study. Given that process-based modelling is often focused on
515 finding general parameter values that are applicable across the range of a species or
516 plant functional type , generic calibrations may be favored but further research is
517 needed to determine when a more localized calibration is to be preferred to a more
518 generic one. Finally, our findings are highly relevant for climate change impact
519 assessment because most such studies do not yet integrate parameter uncertainty and
520 may thus be over- or underestimating impacts on forest ecosystems and may not
521 provide the full range of uncertainties to decision makers. Integrating more thorough
522 assessments of different kinds of uncertainties would allow increasing the robustness
523 of climate change impact studies.

524

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533

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682 7. Tables

683 Table 1 Forest stands used in this study. The data refer to the last measurement at each plot. For more information see van
 684 Oijen et al. (2013). NFI = National Forest Inventory; PSP = Permanent Sampling Plot; DBH = Diameter at Breast Height.
 685 “N observations” indicates how many data points for both height and diameter combined were available from each site and
 686 in brackets the years of the first and last measurement. The first data point was always used for model initialization.

Site code	Data type	Lat.	Long.	Age (y)	Stem number (ha ⁻¹)	Height (m)	DBH (cm)	N observations
A1	NFI	48.31°	14.79°	~64	526	18.5	32.4	4 (1987-2000)
A2	NFI	48.51°	15.70°	~66	1363	17.7	20.7	4 (1989-2002)
A3	PSP	48.51°	15.70°	59	690	18.1	23.9	4 (1980-1995)
B1	NFI	51.28°	5.52°	67	380	18.4	27.1	4 (2000-2004)
B2	NFI	51.28°	5.52°	66	393	23.2	29.3	4 (2000-2008)
B3	PSP	51.3°	4.52°	79	362	21.3	31.9	6 (1994-2007)
E1	PSP*	57.85°	25.92°	70	402	25.0	27.4	6 (2000-2010)
E2	PSP*	57.98°	25.63°	67	692	24.9	23.7	6 (2000-2010)
E3	PSP	57.58°	25.28°	73	667	25.6	24.5	6 (2000-2010)
F1	NFI	61.97°	27.67°	75	899	17.8	19.1	4 (1985-1995)
F2	NFI	63.83°	24.65°	55	1067	10.1	14.6	4 (1985-1995)
F3	PSP	61.33°	25.03°	79	1710	21.8	17.0	14 (1948-1997)

*PSP-data but presented in the format of and used as if originating from NFI data

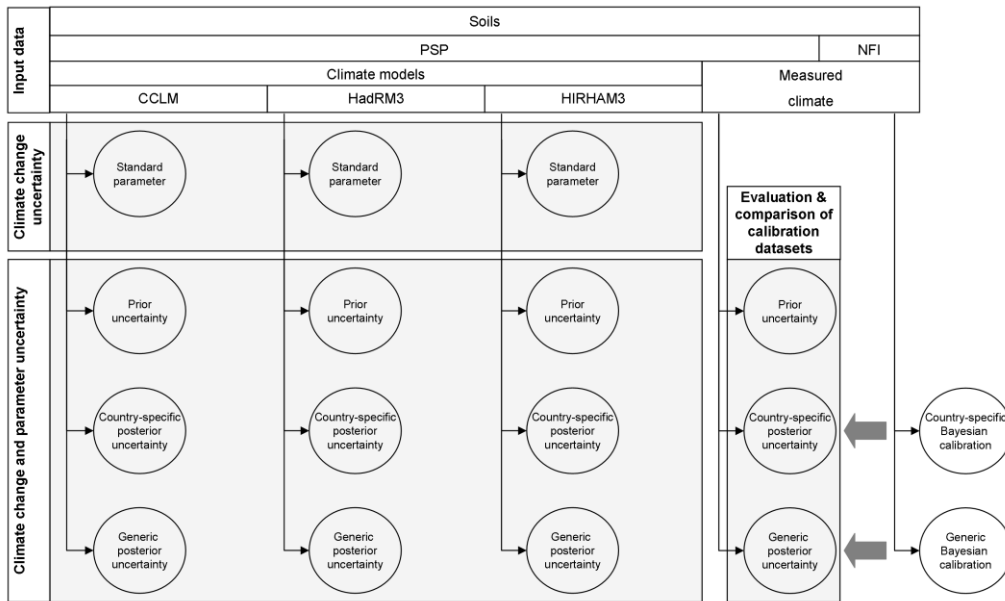
687 Table 2 Mean annual temperature (T; degree Celsius) and mean annual precipitation sum (P; mm) of the periods 1971-
688 2000 and 2061-2090 for climate models considered in this study. They result from three RCMs forced with the A1B
689 emission scenario at the four permanent sampling plots (A3, B3, E3, F3) used in this study.

RCM	Period	T [°C]	P [mm]	T [°C]	P [mm]	T [°C]	P [mm]	T [°C]	P [mm]
		A3		B3		E3		F3	
CCLM	1971-2000	10.0	607	10.5	806	6.1	684	4.4	638
HadRM3	1971-2000	10.0	643	10.3	873	5.9	729	4.0	689
HIRHAM3	1971-2000	10.2	584	10.4	832	6.2	713	4.5	675
CCLM	2061-2090	12.9	605	13.0	852	9.2	787	7.8	718
HadRM3	2061-2090	14.0	635	13.6	809	10.4	734	8.4	739
HIRHAM3	2061-2090	11.7	647	12.1	700	8.9	642	8.1	670

690 Table 3 Normalized Root Mean Square Error (NRMSE, c.f. ESM1) from simulations
 691 compared to measured heights and DBHs (Diameter at Breast Height) at four
 692 permanent sampling plots in four European countries without calibration and with
 693 country-specific and generic calibration.

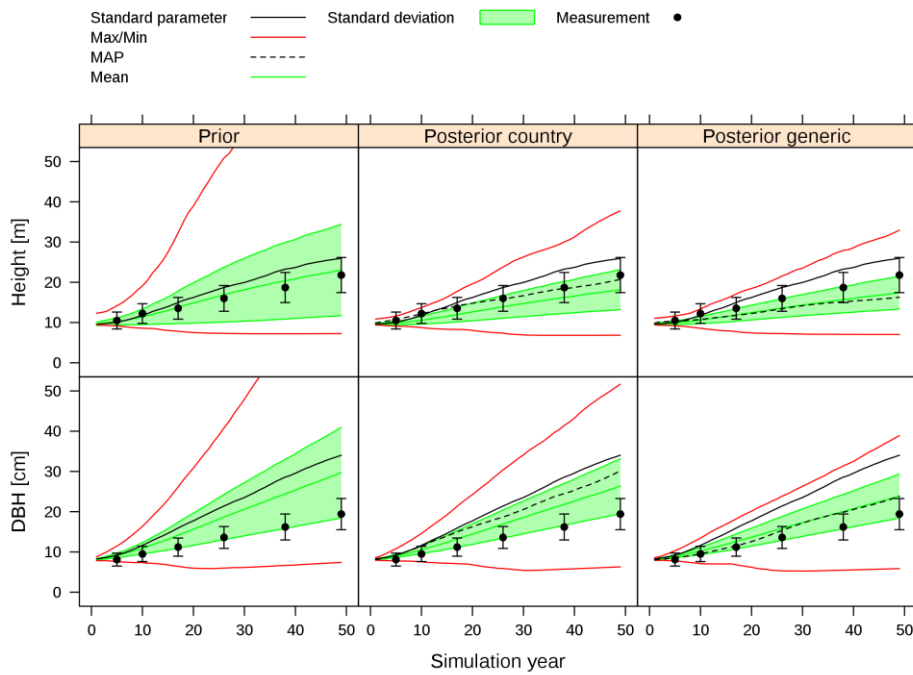
Site	Uncalibrated	Country-specific calibration	Generic calibration
<i>Height</i>			
A3	0.29	0.15	0.12
B3	0.23	0.15	0.09
E3	0.13	0.12	0.14
F3	0.52	0.28	0.27
F3*	0.47	0.43	0.38
<i>DBH</i>			
A3	0.23	0.16	0.13
B3	0.14	0.13	0.08
E3	0.06	0.06	0.05
F3	1.00	0.68	0.52
F3*	0.76	0.57	0.46

694 8. Figures



695

696 **Fig. 1** Schematic overview of the methodology and the steps of the analysis (PSP =
 697 Permanent sampling plot; NFI = National Forest Inventory). The grey shaded areas
 698 represent aspects analyzed in this paper

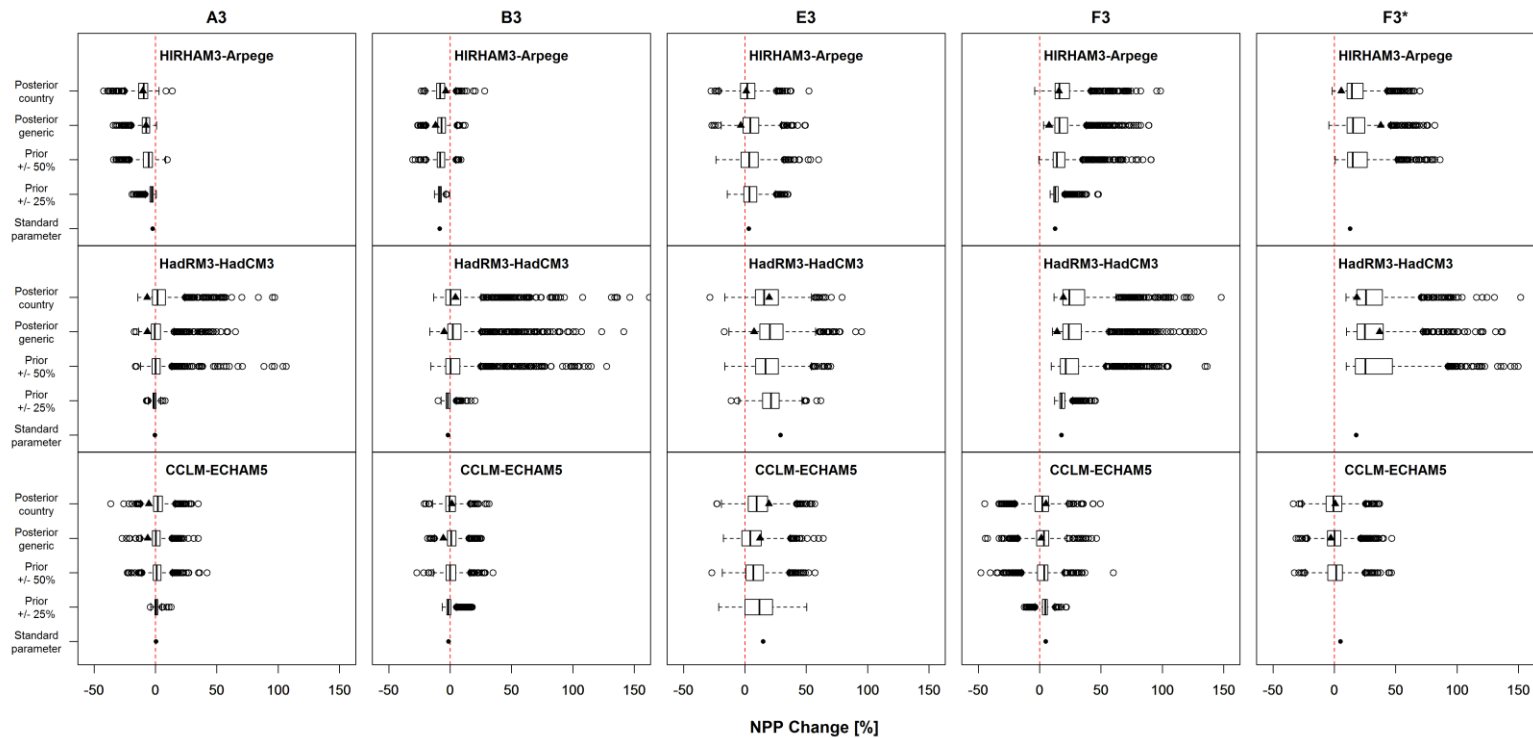


699

700 **Fig. 2** Prior and posterior output uncertainty for height and DBH of the F3 plot.

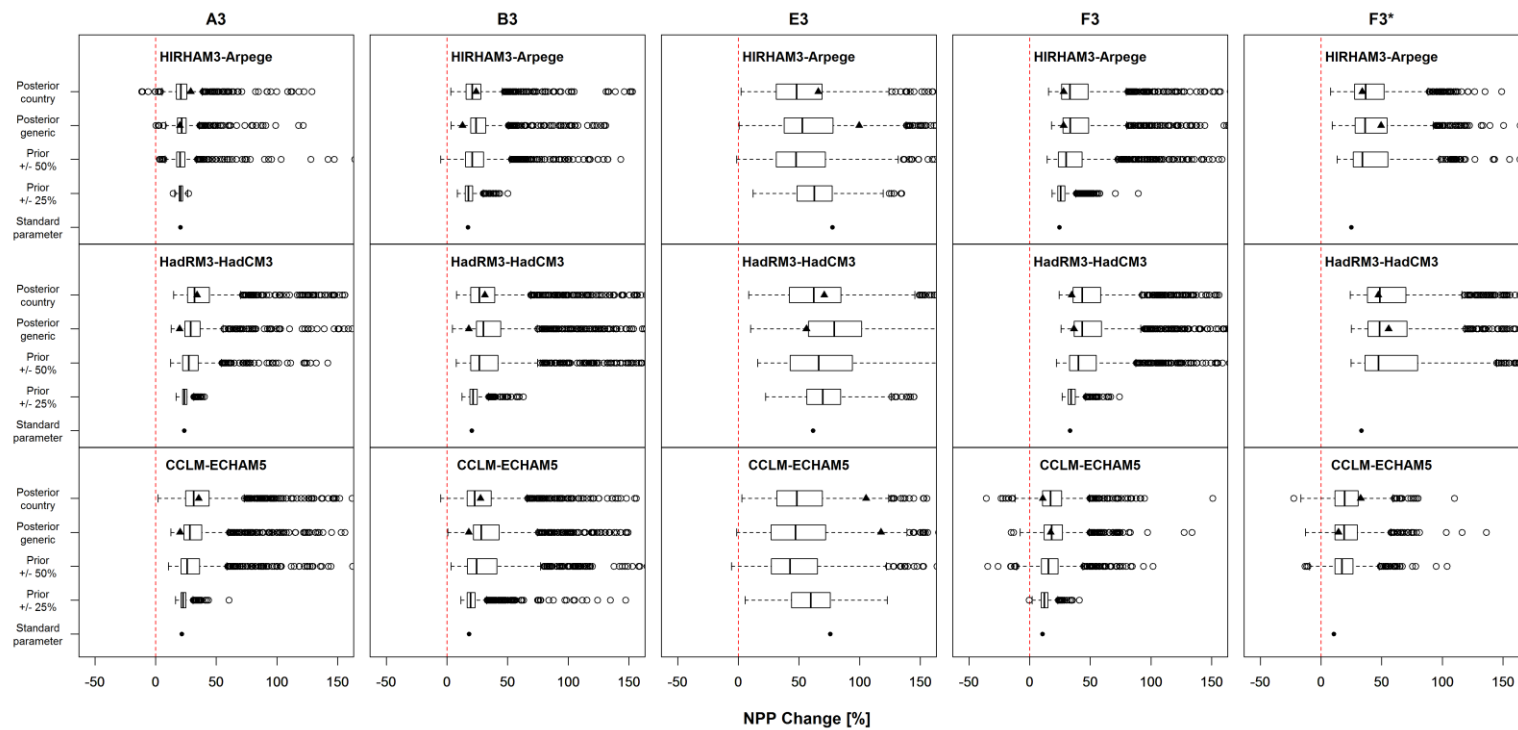
701 Posterior output uncertainty is depicted once for the country-specific (“posterior

702 country”) and generic (“posterior generic”) calibration.



703
 704 **Fig. 3** Change in net primary productivity (NPP) under climate change for individual climate models under the assumption
 705 of an acclimation of photosynthesis to CO₂-effects for four plots in Austria, Belgium, Estonia and Finland (A3-F3, see
 706 Table 1). F3* denotes the simulations assuming the most plausible prior parameter distribution. The data are sorted
 707 according to climate model uncertainty alone (Label ‘Standard parameter’ (i.e. using 4C’s standard parameter set)) and due
 708 to climate model and parameter uncertainty of uncalibrated (two degrees of prior parameter uncertainty, ‘Prior ±50%’ or

709 'Prior $\pm 25\%$ ', respectively) or calibrated ('Posterior generic' or 'Posterior country') parameter distributions. Please note
710 that for F3*, 'Prior $\pm 50\%$ ' actually designates the simulations with the updated prior parameter ranges as described in
711 Table ESM2. The responses are split up for each climate model. The triangles represent the simulations using the MAP.
712 See the text for further explanation. The x-axis is cut at 150% for better legibility. The boxplots show the following
713 information: thick line= median, bottom and top of the box = lower and upper quartiles, whiskers = maximum value or 1.5
714 times the interquartile range of the data depending on which is smaller. Points = outliers larger than 1.5 times interquartile
715 range. The dotted line indicates no change



716

717 **Fig. 4** Same as Fig. 3 but under the assumption of persistent CO₂-effects