

Impact of Land Model Calibration on Coupled Land-Atmosphere Prediction

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 Land-atmosphere (L-A) interactions play a critical role in determining the diurnal
3 evolution of both planetary boundary layer (PBL) and land surface heat and moisture budgets, as
4 well as controlling feedbacks with clouds and precipitation that lead to the persistence of dry and
5 wet regimes. Recent efforts to quantify the strength of L-A coupling in prediction models have
6 produced diagnostics that integrate across both the land and PBL components of the system. In
7 this study, we examine the impact of improved specification of land surface states, anomalies,
8 and fluxes on coupled WRF forecasts during the summers of extreme dry (2006) and wet (2007)
9 land surface conditions in the U.S. Southern Great Plains. The improved land initialization and
10 surface flux parameterizations are obtained through calibration of the Noah land surface model
11 using the new optimization and uncertainty estimation subsystem in NASA's Land Information
12 System (LIS-OPT/UE). The impact of the calibration on the a) spinup of the land surface used as
13 initial conditions, and b) the simulated heat and moisture states and fluxes of the coupled WRF
14 simulations is then assessed. Changes in ambient weather and land-atmosphere coupling are
15 evaluated along with measures of uncertainty propagation into the forecasts. In addition, the
16 sensitivity of this approach to the period of calibration (dry, wet, average) is investigated. Results
17 indicate that the offline calibration leads to systematic improvements in land-PBL fluxes and
18 near-surface temperature and humidity, and in the process provide guidance on the questions of
19 what, how, and when to calibrate land surface models for coupled model prediction.

24 **1. Introduction**

25 Despite evidence of the importance of land-atmosphere (L-A) interactions in weather and
26 climate prediction (e.g. Betts 2009; Seneviratne et al. 2010), the systematic impact of land
27 surface parameterizations on coupled mesoscale modeling has proven difficult to quantify in a
28 robust manner. The role of the land in modulating water and energy cycling has been well-
29 documented in terms of land-atmosphere coupling strength and the support of hydrological
30 anomalies and extremes such as flood and drought (van den Hurk et al. 2011; Koster et al. 2010),
31 which includes immediate effects of the land on the temperature and humidity structure in the
32 boundary layer, convective initiation, and mesoscale circulations (Di Giuseppe et al. 2011). In
33 addition, the influence of soil moisture on precipitation has been under community-wide
34 investigation in a range of studies from local (Santanello et al. 2011b) to global (Koster et al.
35 2004) scales. What is less understood is how specific land surface models (LSMs),
36 parameterizations, datasets, and initialization approaches impact coupled mesoscale model
37 predictions on diurnal timescales, and how each could be improved.

38 One confounding factor in quantifying LSM impact on coupled prediction lies in the
39 varying and non-standard approaches to land surface spinup and initialization of mesoscale
40 models. The impetus for the development of offline North American and Global Land Data
41 Assimilation Systems NLDAS (Mitchell et al. 2004) and GLDAS (Rodell et al. 2004) was to be
42 able to provide improved land initial conditions for numerical weather prediction and reanalysis
43 systems. During this time, approaches to land spinup and initialization have diverged
44 significantly among modeling groups and application. Recent studies have demonstrated the
45 importance of a performing LSM spinups for mesoscale prediction (Chen et al. 2007; Kumar et
46 al. 2008; Case et al. 2008, 2011; Wen et al. 2012; Di Giuseppe et al. 2011), and show marginal-

47 to-significant improvements over cruder initialization practices based solely on coarse resolution
48 atmospheric models or reanalysis products. It still remains, though, that a great majority of
49 coupled prediction studies do not make use of rigorous spinup or initialization methods, thereby
50 limiting the potential impact of the land on those simulations before coupled integration even
51 begins.

52 Adding to the non-uniformity in the treatment of the land surface for coupled modeling is
53 that the complexity of LSM physics rely heavily on diverse parameter sets corresponding to soil,
54 vegetation, and other land-specific conditions and are not treated consistently across LSMs or
55 even within the same community. The accuracies of these parameters on regional scales are
56 strongly limited by their coarse resolution datasets and inability to capture local-scale
57 heterogeneity in parameters such as soil hydraulic properties. As a result, attempts have been
58 made to calibrate parameters based on observations of land surface conditions in order to
59 ultimately improve prediction of state variables such as soil moisture (Santanello et al. 2007;
60 Harrison et al. 2012). To date, LSM calibrations have been typically performed offline
61 (uncoupled) and evaluated in terms of offline or 1-D (single-column) model predictions, and
62 have shown promise in improving state and flux prediction based on an array of observed
63 variables (Liu et al. 2003, 2004, 2005; Santanello et al. 2007; Peters-Lidard et al. 2008). The
64 results of these calibration studies are highly specific to the model, resolution, parameter set, and
65 region, however, so applicability and transferability to other offline or coupled models is
66 strongly limited (Hogue et al. 2005).

67 Unifying the LSM spinup and calibration issues is the fact that, in essence, the
68 atmospheric component of a coupled model is connected to the land solely through the fluxes.
69 As a result, the atmosphere only responds and is sensitive to the turbulent (sensible, latent heat

70 and shear stress or momentum flux) and radiative fluxes coming from the land surface at each
71 timestep. From an atmospheric perspective, all the specificity and complexity of an LSM,
72 including its parameters and the spinup approach, are hidden during the execution of a coupled
73 simulation. A key question can therefore be asked: 'What is the potential impact of providing
74 'optimal' fluxes from the land surface to an atmospheric model versus those generated from
75 default or coarse resolution initialization approaches?' The answer would provide insight as to
76 the first-order influence of the land surface on accurate prediction of ambient weather (e.g.
77 temperature, humidity, precipitation) as well as the behavior of particular scheme components
78 (e.g. planetary boundary layer (PBL) height, convective initiation) in response to the optimal
79 partitioning of surface fluxes. It would also provide a methodology to control for the inter and
80 intra-LSM variability in spinup and parameterization approaches by focusing solely on providing
81 the best lower boundary condition to the coupled system.

82 In this study, we address these questions using NASA's Land Information System (LIS;
83 Kumar et al. 2006; Peters-Lidard et al. 2007). LIS supports a suite of LSMs under the
84 generalized modeling framework and facilitates the ability to utilize diverse and high-resolution
85 input data and data assimilation from local to global scales. The sensitivity of land surface
86 spinups to methods and forcing data has already been addressed under this framework (Rodell et
87 al. 2005; Kato et al. 2007). The recently developed LIS optimization and uncertainty estimation
88 subsystem (LIS-OPT/UE) provides the ability to calibrate the LSM parameters (Kumar et al.
89 2012) and evaluate the impact of parameter uncertainties on LSM outputs (Harrison et al. 2012).
90 Finally, the coupling of LIS and the Weather Research and Forecasting model (WRF-ARW;
91 Skamarock et al. 2005) has been demonstrated in a number of land-atmosphere coupling studies

92 (Santanello et al. 2009; 2011a, 2012). For these reasons, LIS is an ideal platform from which to
93 quantify the impact of LSM calibrations on coupled mesoscale prediction.

94 The focus of these experiments will be on LSM calibration over a range of surface
95 conditions (dry to wet) in the U. S. Southern Great Plains (SGP) where the land is known to have
96 a strong modulating impact on the atmosphere (Koster et al. 2004; Dirmeyer et al. 2006). In the
97 process, these experiments will shed light on the following issues: 1) what to calibrate, 2) how
98 to calibrate, and 3) when to calibrate. LIS-WRF will then be evaluated using coupling
99 diagnostics already developed to simultaneously assess the land-PBL system as a whole in terms
100 of water and energy cycling. Section 2 of this paper provides some background on recent land
101 model calibration and spinup studies, as well as the coupling diagnostics developed to assess the
102 land-PBL system. The model, LIS optimization and uncertainty subsystems (LIS-OPT/UE), and
103 experimental design are then described in Section 3. Results are presented in Section 4, with
104 discussion and conclusions on the role of the land surface in coupled prediction following in
105 Section 5.

106 **2. Background**

107 *a. LSM Spinup*

108 Because in-situ and remotely sensed observations of soil temperature and moisture states
109 or fluxes are not available at the resolution of a mesoscale model grid (horizontally or vertically),
110 LSMs are used to produce flux and state estimates based on sound physics and constrained by
111 forcing (based on traditional atmospheric meteorological data such as precipitation) and
112 parameter data (based on static maps of vegetation and soil properties at high spatial resolutions).
113 The practice of long-term spinup of offline LSMs to equilibrate soil moisture and temperature
114 states has been in place for some time. Rodell et al. (2005) looked specifically at the sensitivity

115 (and in turn, requirements) of equilibration to the length of the spinup run, which was found to
116 vary based on climate regime (e.g. cold and dry regions tend to take longer to equilibrate than
117 warm and moist locales) and soil type. They found that spinup time is typically more than 1
118 year, but no more than 3-4 years is required for most locations and conditions.

119 Spinup time has also been shown to be dependent on initial values of soil moisture,
120 atmospheric forcing, and vegetation conditions (Yang et al. 1995; Chen and Mitchell 1999;
121 Cosgrove et al. 2003; de Goncalves et al. 2006). Overall, LSMs use either manual or automated
122 approaches to spinup based on reaching a minimum threshold of memory to the initial condition
123 of the run (which can range from horizontally-uniform to climatologically-distributed). The
124 particular threshold values are rather arbitrary, however, and have produced spinup times varying
125 from a few weeks to over a decade in different studies. Also a factor is whether forcing data is
126 available to run an offline LSM for the period leading up to the coupled simulation of interest, or
127 whether cyclical data from a single annual cycle must be used to equilibrate the states (e.g.
128 Cosgrove et al. 2003). For these reasons, the overall practice of spinup for coupled initialization
129 has typically been inconsistent, leaving unanswered the question of the overall impact of LSM
130 spinup on mesoscale prediction.

131 Recent case studies have been able to shed more light on this question, and, while limited
132 in a quantitative assessment, do indicate specific impacts and improvements in coupled models
133 as a result of improved specification of the land initial condition. Using LIS and LIS-WRF
134 (described in Section 3), Kumar et al. (2008) found significant differences in prediction of
135 fluxes, boundary layer structure, and temperature and humidity versus using default WRF
136 initialization. Their studies also revealed improvements in precipitation forecasts using LIS-
137 WRF due solely to the higher-resolution soil states from a long-term spinup run using LIS.

138 Following this work, Case et al. (2008) used LIS to show that spun-up initial conditions
139 in LIS-WRF led to improved sea-breeze circulation and 2-meter temperature forecasts over
140 Florida, particularly due to drier and more accurate soil moisture conditions generated by a 2-
141 year spinup. Case et al. (2011) also investigated the impact of a LIS spinup on summertime
142 precipitation simulated by LIS-WRF over the southeastern United States. They found that the
143 near-surface soil moisture was improved, and that there was measureable impact and
144 improvement of the spinup on the coupled near-surface and PBL conditions relative to that using
145 the default land initialization via WRF. Small improvements were also seen in hourly
146 precipitation forecasts that were initialized with a LIS spinup, but impact was limited due to the
147 dominance of the atmospheric schemes in controlling these types of airmass-generated events.

148 In a similar vein to LIS, the High-Resolution Land Data Assimilation System (HRLDAS,
149 Chen et al. 2007) was developed to provide improved land initialization for WRF simulations.
150 Holt et al. (2006) and others have likewise demonstrated a large potential impact on coupled
151 forecasts from using high-resolution (and assumed to be improved) representation of soil states
152 and fluxes. They also show how the combined use of a spinup approach and mesoscale
153 modeling can be used to simultaneously test and develop new LSM physics and
154 parameterizations by evaluating both the impact on offline spinups and the coupled forecast.
155 Trier et al. (2008, 2011) also used HRLDAS and WRF to show that the initial soil moisture for a
156 coupled forecast is significantly more important than the evolution of soil moisture during a 1-2
157 week simulation. They also showed that sensitivity to the choice of LSM complexity could be
158 minimized by calibrating the initial soil condition.

159 Using a different combination of land surface and atmospheric models, Di Giuseppe et al.
160 (2011) analyzed three approaches used for initializing soils for mesoscale modeling. Their

161 intercomparison of soil initialization using a) downscaling from a coarse resolution global parent
162 model, b) results from a previous mesoscale coupled run, and c) nudging of soil moisture based
163 on screen-level temperature observations indicate strongly that consistency in the physics and
164 configuration between the offline and coupled models is paramount when choosing a source for
165 initial values of soil moisture and temperature profiles. Therefore, the approach of using a
166 previous run (i.e. spinup) of the same LSM to initialize the coupled forecast produced the best
167 results, while the other two approaches were discouraged in practice. They also highlighted the
168 importance of the soil temperature profile initialization (typically ignored in previous studies).

169 The impact of improved initialization of land surface states in WRF short-term prediction
170 was also demonstrated by Wen et al. (2012). Although a spinup was not used, they updated the
171 initial condition with in-situ observations of soil moisture and temperature and new land cover
172 data measured from satellite and found significant impacts on all coupled components of the
173 WRF simulation across a heterogeneous (dry/wet) region, including the atmospheric circulation
174 enhanced by the surface conditions.

175 Overall, these studies have demonstrated an impact of LSM spinups on coupled
176 prediction and are focused on short-term (diurnal) forecasts over mesoscale domains (1-10 km
177 horizontal resolution), as will be the case performed here using LIS-WRF. Further, the
178 consistent use of the same model and configuration to generate the soil initial conditions in the
179 spinup and the coupled run is specifically what LIS and LIS-WRF has been designed for as a
180 testbed, and follows with what these studies have suggested as best practice for maximizing the
181 positive impact of the land on coupled prediction.

182 *b. Calibration of Offline and Coupled LSMs*

183 As mentioned, the physics of LSMs are highly dependent on specification of a large
184 number of parameter values representing soil, vegetation, and other surface conditions. To
185 simplify things, lookup tables are commonly associated to a particular soil or vegetation type that
186 relates a number of parameters to each classification. Lookup tables are only as accurate as the
187 available soil or vegetation information, however, and attempt to provide a representative value
188 of each parameter for each soil or vegetation type. High-resolution maps that accurately capture
189 the observed heterogeneity in parameter values are difficult to obtain on the scales of land
190 surface and mesoscale models (particularly for regions outside the U. S. and on global scales),
191 and there is little flexibility between soil or vegetation classes (e.g. for mixed crops or soil
192 types). This can be a problem, particularly for soils where larger differences in soil parameters
193 have been observed *within* a soil type than between types (Feddes et al. 1993; Soet and Stricker
194 2003; Gutmann and Small 2005; Santanello et al. 2007).

195 In order to combat these limitations, numerous attempts have been made to calibrate (or
196 'optimize') LSM parameters using observations of state variables such as soil moisture and
197 surface temperature as constraints (Gupta et al. 1999; Hess 2001; Hogue et al. 2005; Liu et al.
198 2003, 2004, 2005; Santanello et al. 2007; Peters-Lidard et al. 2008; Harrison et al. 2012). Such
199 approaches can improve matches of state variables to observations during the calibration period
200 (and beyond), and in the process address LSM systematic biases. However, it remains difficult
201 to derive parameter information that could be evaluated independently as most studies have
202 focused on techniques that derive large sets of 'effective' parameters. Such studies also require a
203 great deal of computational time and limit assessment of larger-scale applicability, and as a result
204 little has been gained in terms of quantifying the effectiveness of calibrated parameters in
205 improving coupled simulations.

206 For example, Hogue et al. (2005) investigated the transferability of large calibrated
207 parameter sets in an offline LSM across varying surface conditions and time periods. They
208 conclude that optimization should be site-specific for best results, and should be recalibrated for
209 changes in seasons or over longer time intervals even if the surface and climatic features of the
210 region remain the same. This suggests that if a spinup is to be used to initialize a coupled model,
211 the calibration performed offline needs to be tailored (e.g. domain, resolution, LSM) specifically
212 for the experiment of interest. In turn, this supports the idea that a testbed such as LIS and LIS-
213 WRF is ideal for such investigations.

214 Liu et al. (2003) extended parameter estimation to coupled systems by examining the
215 pathways by which limitations in the LSM physics impact both offline and 1-D (single-column)
216 model simulations. Their results show that offline calibration is well-constrained due to the
217 realistic forcing applied and is able to identify and correct deficiencies in evaporative physics,
218 but in coupled mode some parameter sets acted to amplify flux errors due to occurrence of land-
219 atmosphere feedbacks. Liu et al. (2004) and (2005) then included atmospheric parameters in the
220 calibration, and highlight the computational difficulty in calibrating large parameter sets in
221 coupled models (which has precluded the calibration of a full 3-D mesoscale model to date). As
222 a result, they suggest a stepwise procedure of offline before coupled calibration as an alternative.
223 Overall, their results found that calibrated parameter values are particularly sensitive to the
224 surface latent heat flux as the lower boundary condition, and all simulations were found to be
225 highly sensitive to the initial soil moisture value (prescribed uniformly in their study rather than
226 spun up), stressing the importance of an accurate LSM spinup for coupled simulations.

227 Overall, these studies have highlighted that the land initialization for coupled models is
228 important, and that the methodology of an offline spinup with calibrated parameters shows

229 promise in providing the most accurate initial condition consistent with best surface physics and
 230 parameterizations. Performing fully coupled (3-D) land surface and atmospheric parameter
 231 calibration remains a daunting task, but we are now in a position to quantify the impact of an
 232 optimal *and* physically meaningful LSM spinup for coupled prediction models.

233 *c. Evaluation of Land-Atmosphere Coupling*

234 The quantification of land-atmosphere interactions in coupled models is a complex task
 235 that involves a great number of processes and feedbacks. For example, in terms of accurately
 236 representing the relationship between soil moisture (*SM*) and precipitation (*P*) in coupled
 237 models, a full understanding will only come by careful examination and quantification of a series
 238 of interactions and feedbacks (i.e. 'links in the chain') that can be summarized as follows (from
 239 Santanello et al. 2011a):

$$240 \quad \Delta SM \rightarrow \Delta EF_{sm} \rightarrow \Delta PBL \rightarrow \Delta ENT \rightarrow \Delta EF_{atm} \blacktriangleright \Delta P/Clouds \quad (1)$$

241 (a) (b) (c) (d)

242 where *EF* is the evaporative fraction, defined as

$$244 \quad EF = \frac{Qle_{sfc}}{Qh_{sfc} + Qle_{sfc}} \quad (2)$$

245 and is a function of the sensible (Qh_{sfc}) and latent (Qle_{sfc}) heat fluxes at the land surface. From
 246 Eq. 1, the impact of soil moisture (ΔSM) on clouds and precipitation (ΔP) is therefore dependent
 247 on the sensitivities of: **a**) the surface fluxes (EF_{sm}) to soil moisture, **b**) PBL evolution to surface
 248 fluxes, **c**) entrainment fluxes at the PBL-top (ENT) to PBL evolution, and **d**) the collective
 249 feedback of the atmosphere (through the PBL) on surface fluxes (EF_{atm}) (Santanello et al. 2007;
 250 van Heerwaarden et al. 2009). As a result, there are numerous pathways composed of positive
 251 and negative feedback loops in this chain, including the influence of additional inherent and
 252 external factors (e.g. canopy interception, large-scale convergence).

253 The initial communication between the land and atmosphere occurs on local scales, and
254 therefore a community effort has been launched to diagnose and quantify local L-A coupling in
255 coupled models, called 'LoCo' (Hurk and Blythe 2008; Santanello et al. 2009, Santanello et al.
256 2011b). The realm of LoCo has been defined by GLASS as "*The temporal and spatial scale of*
257 *all land-surface related processes that have a direct influence on the state of the PBL*".
258 Therefore, the fundamental processes that fall into this realm correspond directly to the question
259 of the role of offline LSM spinup on coupled mesoscale prediction. This research is a core
260 component of the Global Energy and Water Cycle Study (GEWEX) Land Atmosphere System
261 Study (GLASS; Hurk et al. 2011), which coordinates community working groups and
262 intercomparison studies related to offline and coupled land surface modeling. A thorough review
263 of LoCo research and the related diagnostic framework can be found in Santanello et al. (2009,
264 2011a, 2011b, 2012; hereafter referred to as S09, S11a, S11b, S12).

265 LIS and LIS-WRF have served as a core testbed to develop and implement LoCo
266 diagnostics utilizing the range of LSM and PBL scheme options available in each. Under this
267 framework, a methodology that simultaneously addresses the components of Eq. 1 was tested by
268 S09 and extended by S11, and employs the 'mixing diagram' approach as introduced by Betts
269 (1992). This power of this diagnostic lies in its ability to exploit the co-variance of 2-meter
270 potential temperature (θ) and humidity (q) to quantify the components of the LoCo process-
271 chain, and is based only on routine variables that can be applied to any model or observations
272 and across a range of scales. From this analysis, the full PBL budgets of heat and moisture,
273 relationship of EF to PBL height (PBLH), and the evolution of the lifting condensation level
274 (LCL) deficit (PBLH minus LCL) can be derived and used to understand the nature of and

275 sensitivity of a particular land-PBL coupling. For a full description of this approach and
276 implementation for LoCo studies, the reader is again referred to S09 and S11a.

277 The LoCo approach diagnoses the land and PBL fluxes simultaneously, and therefore
278 provide the components of the full budgets of heat and moisture in the coupled system. LoCo
279 diagnostics can therefore be used to quantify the joint evolution of coupled variables, such as
280 those that showed strong sensitivities in earlier studies, but only independently (e.g. θ and q in
281 the work of Trier et al. (2008)). As shown in S09 and S11a, how anomalies and/or errors in the
282 surface fluxes computed by a particular LSM-PBL coupling are then translated into the
283 atmospheric water and energy cycle can then be quantified using this approach. Differences in
284 soil moisture differences strongly impact the signatures of heat and moisture evolution and
285 diagnosis of coupling behavior. For example, results from S12 during dry/wet extremes show
286 that the choice of LSM is critical for dry regimes, but that both PBL and LSM are comparable
287 influences on the coupled behavior during wet regimes. LoCo diagnostics are therefore well-
288 suited to capture the first-order impact of land spinup and specification on the PBL and
289 atmosphere as a whole.

290 **3. Model and Site Description**

291 *a. LIS and LIS-OPT/UE*

292 NASA's Land Information System (LIS) consists of a suite of LSMs under the same
293 software framework and provides a detailed representation of land surface physics and states,
294 which can then be directly coupled to an atmospheric model. More recently, new subsystems
295 have been added to LIS that allow sophisticated optimization and uncertainty estimation (LIS-
296 OPT/UE) algorithms to be applied to the LSMs to exploit further the information content from
297 observations. The algorithms (e.g. Levenberg-Marquardt (Levenberg 1944; Marquardt 1963),

298 Genetic Algorithm (Holland 1975), Shuffled Complex Evolution from University of Arizona
299 (Duan et al. 1993)) calibrate the model parameters to the remote sensing observations, thereby
300 enabling improved model forecasts and enhancing the efficiency of data assimilation approaches
301 (Santanello et al. 2007, Peters-Lidard et al. 2008, Kumar et al. 2012a). The uncertainty
302 estimation subsystem also includes Bayesian approaches based on Markov Chain Monte Carlo
303 (Gilks et al. 1996) to estimate the uncertainty in model parameters given calibration datasets,
304 which enables probabilistic prediction.

305 Overall, the high-performance computing infrastructure in LIS provides an advantage
306 over previous parameter estimation studies which were limited to trial and error, manual, and
307 lower-dimensional (i.e. smaller parameter sets) calibration approaches, and have been
308 demonstrated by Kumar et al. (2012) and Harrison et al. (2012) for offline spinup and data
309 assimilation applications. The evaluation of offline, coupled, and LIS-OPT/UE experiments is
310 performed using a LIS-based tool called the Land surface Verification Toolkit (LVT; Kumar et
311 al. 2012b). LVT provides a standardized platform for intercomparing model output (from LIS or
312 other sources) with observations and offers a range of statistical and benchmarking approaches.

313 *b. NU-WRF*

314 Derived from the Fifth-Generation NCAR/Penn State Mesoscale Model (MM5; Anthes
315 and Warner 1978), WRF-ARW has been designated as the community model for atmospheric
316 research and operational prediction and is ideal for high-resolution (e.g. 1-10 km) regional
317 simulations on the order of 1-10 days. WRF-ARW has a Eulerian mass dynamical core and
318 includes a wide array of radiation, microphysics, and PBL options as well as 2-way nesting and
319 variational data assimilation capabilities.

320 Recently, work has been performed to develop a NASA-Unified WRF (NU-WRF;
321 <https://modelingguru.nasa.gov/community/atmospheric/nuwrf>) modeling system at NASA's
322 Goddard Space Flight Center (GSFC). NU-WRF is built upon the WRF-ARW model, and
323 incorporates and unifies NASA's unique experience and capabilities by fully integrating LIS, the
324 WRF/Chem enabled version of the Goddard Chemistry Aerosols Radiation Transport
325 (GOCART; Chin et al. 2000) model, GSFC radiation and microphysics schemes, and the
326 Goddard Satellite Data Simulation Unit (SDSU; Matsui et al. 2009) into a single modeling
327 framework. In turn, NU-WRF provides the modeling community with an observation-driven
328 integrated modeling system that represents aerosol, cloud, precipitation and land processes at
329 satellite-resolved scales.

330 The land-atmosphere coupling is a core component of NU-WRF, and has been performed
331 through the coupling of LIS and WRF by Kumar et al. (2008). The advantages of coupling LIS
332 and WRF include the ability to spin-up land surface conditions on a common grid from which to
333 initialize the regional model, flexible and high-resolution (satellite-based) soil and vegetation
334 representation, additional choices of LSMs that continue to expand in range and complexity, and
335 direct coupling of the atmospheric model to the LIS subsystems (including LIS-OPT/UE). The
336 work of S09, S11a, and S12 has demonstrated NU-WRF as a testbed for L-A interaction studies
337 and LoCo due to its land-PBL scheme flexibility and high resolution. Hereafter we refer to NU-
338 WRF as the coupled prediction system that includes the LIS-WRF coupling for these
339 experiments.

340 The continuous development and support of NU-WRF ensures that the most recent
341 versions of LIS (currently V 6.2) and WRF-ARW (currently V 3.2) are coupled and tested, and
342 are used in this study. The experiment described below are run on a single 500x500 domain at 1

343 km spatial resolution (see below), and include a 5-second timestep, GSFC microphysics,
344 longwave, and shortwave radiation, and the Monin-Obukhov surface layer scheme. The North
345 American Regional Reanalysis (NARR; Mesinger 2006) data was used for atmospheric
346 initialization and lateral boundary conditions using 3-hourly nudging, and the vertical resolution
347 of NU-WRF was specified as 43 vertical levels, with the lowest model level ~24m above the
348 surface.

349 The LSM employed in LIS for this study is the Noah LSM (Noah; Ek et al. 2003), and
350 was originally developed from the land component of the Oregon State University 1-D PBL
351 model (Troen and Mahrt, 1986). The Noah model employed in this study is Version 3.2 and is
352 identical to the version of Noah packaged in the original version of WRF-ARW Version 3.2.
353 Noah is used operationally by the National Center for Environmental Prediction as the LSM for
354 the North American Mesoscale (NAM) model and the Global Forecasting System (GFS). As
355 such, Noah is a well-supported, developed, and utilized LSM for both offline and coupled
356 applications. Particularly important for the LIS-OPT/UE calibration (see below), the soil type
357 specification in LIS is based on the STATSGO (Miller and White 1998) database over the U. S.,
358 while vegetation type is assigned based on the UMD landcover dataset (Hansen et al. 2000).

359 The PBL scheme chosen in NU-WRF is the Yonsei University (YSU; Hong et al. 2006)
360 PBL, based on non-local K theory and includes explicit treatment of entrainment and counter
361 gradient fluxes. The combination of Noah LSM and YSU PBL is a common selection in WRF,
362 and has served as the default configuration for test cases involving NU-WRF. While some
363 results suggest other PBL schemes in WRF sometimes perform better than YSU under certain
364 conditions (e.g. stable/nighttime periods), a universally-accepted hierarchy of PBL scheme usage

365 has not been developed as of yet and it is beyond the scope of this study to engage in further
366 study of PBL and LSM scheme sensitivities (which can be seen in S12).

367 *c. 2006-7 Dry/Wet Extremes*

368 The SGP region has been identified as a hotspot for land-atmosphere coupling in terms of
369 the strength of interactions and impact of soil moisture anomalies on clouds and precipitation
370 (e.g. Koster et al. 2004). Because of this, and the large record of observational data from the
371 Atmospheric and Radiation Measurement testbed (ARM-SGP), S09, S11a, and S12 have focused
372 WRF studies on the SGP region to develop and test the LoCo diagnostics described in Section
373 2c. In particular, S12 looked at the extreme conditions observed during the 2006-7 period and
374 the impact on LoCo. Low anomalies of clouds and precipitation in 2006 (October-September)
375 were immediately followed by conditions of high cloudiness and rainfall in 2007, with 2006
376 being the second driest and 2007 the seventh wettest year on record. This period was followed
377 by a relatively normal summer season in 2008, with soil moisture conditions in between that of
378 the 2006 and 2007 extremes (as confirmed by ARM-SGP observations and Noah simulations).

379 As described in S12, ideal case studies were chosen for each regime. The 14-20 July
380 2006 experiment consists of a lengthy dry-down period with little synoptic disturbance in which
381 the land was free to interact and evolve with the atmosphere on primarily local scales. The case
382 study of 14-20 June 2007 focuses on a period with scattered precipitation every 1-2 days in
383 portions of the ARM-SGP domain, interspersed with brief dry-downs in which conditions were
384 clear and/or cloudy and culminating in a large mesoscale convective system (MCS) traversing
385 the domain on the final nighttime period.

386 *d. Experimental Design: Default Spinups*

387 Forcing data from the North American Land Data Assimilation System (NLDAS-2; Xia
388 et al. 2012) project was used to drive the spinup simulations. Noah was run offline in LIS
389 beginning 1 January 2003, thus producing a ~3.5-4.5 year spinup prior to the start time of the
390 2006 and 2007 case studies. This is longer than the recommended spinup length based for
391 similar moisture regimes (soil and precipitation), and is consistent with previous studies using
392 this LSM, location, and time period (S09, S11a, S12) in ensuring a fully-equilibrated soil
393 condition that is insensitive to the initial condition of the spinup (horizontally homogeneous in
394 this case).

395 Using the resultant spun-up surface fields as initial conditions for the 2006-7 case studies,
396 NU-WRF simulations were then performed over a single high-resolution 1km domain centered
397 over Oklahoma and Kansas. Figure 1 shows the upper layer (0-10 cm) soil moisture values over
398 the ARM-SGP domain as generated by Noah spinups valid at 00Z on 1 July 2006, 2007, and
399 2008. The advantages of using LIS for this purpose are evident in the high spatial resolution
400 seen in Fig. 1 as a reflection of the inputs of vegetation and soil properties. Soil moisture varies
401 significantly from dry and heterogeneous (generally < 25 percent volumetric) in 2006 to
402 extremely wet (near saturation) and more uniform conditions in 2007, with 2008 showing more
403 moderate soil moisture and heterogeneity.

404 *e. Experimental Design: LIS-OPT/UE Case Studies*

405 The offline calibration experiments were performed using the GA algorithm in LIS-
406 OPT/UE, and applied to a set of 29 parameters describing soil, vegetation, and general
407 characteristics in the Noah model (Table 1). The goals of calibration are to provide the best
408 possible surface fluxes for NU-WRF simulations. Therefore, the observations employed are
409 measurements of sensible (Q_h), latent (Q_{le}), and soil (Q_g) heat fluxes from the ARM-SGP

410 network of sites over the domain, including 6 Energy Balance Bowen Ratio (EBBR; Qh, Qle,
411 and Qg) and 12 Eddy Correlation (ECOR; Qh and Qle only) tower locations. The GA was
412 applied using an objective function that minimizes RMSE with no discrimination of flux type
413 (i.e. Qh, Qle, and Qg flux observations are weighted equally). The calibration was performed
414 over the periods of 1 May – 1 Sept of 2006, 2007, and 2008 to produce separate calibrated
415 parameter sets for the dry, wet, and normal regimes. Having three separate calibration periods
416 allows for the study of the impact of calibration period and varying atmospheric and land surface
417 conditions on the calibration results.

418 The number of observations of Qle, Qh and Qg that used in the GA optimization are
419 comparable, but vary slightly from 2006 (Qle: 48546, Qh: 48822, Qg: 32218) to 2007 (Qle:
420 37936, Qh: 39063, Qg: 30100), and to 2008 (Qle: 45767, Qh: 48353, Qg: 31344). As a result,
421 the objective function is skewed towards the fluxes with the greater number of observations in
422 each case and therefore is weighted more heavily towards Qh and Qle than Qg. The GA
423 integrations use a population size of 50 and employ an elitism strategy to ensure that the current
424 best solution is not overwritten during GA evolution, with a mutation rate of 0.005 and a
425 recombination rate of 0.9. The GA parameters (including the mutation and recombination rates)
426 are chosen largely from experience and the success of the optimization simulations in Kumar et
427 al. (2012). The algorithm was found to converge after approximately 200 generations, when the
428 fitness of the best solution was found not to improve in the last 30 generations.

429 From these simulations, a unique calibrated value of each of the 29 Noah parameters was
430 obtained at each of the 18 grid cells pertaining to the flux sites. In order to obtain calibrated
431 values covering the full model domain, the values from each site then were grouped and
432 averaged by common vegetation and soil types and assigned to the full domain based on the

433 vegetation and soil classification at each grid cell. Note that Noah parameters were designated
434 into soil (15 parameters, 5 classes in the SGP domain), vegetation (11 parameters, 3 classes in
435 the SGP domain), and general (3 parameters, no classification) categories as based on their
436 functionality and most direct impact on the model physics. For example, for a soil-related
437 variable such as porosity, the calibrated values of porosity from each flux site with a 'clay'
438 classification were averaged, and then applied as the porosity value to the remainder of the
439 domain where 'clay' was also the soil type. Also, if a soil/vegetation class occurs in the domain
440 but was not represented at one of the observation sites, default table values are used. General
441 parameters are constant across the domain and do not have a classification, and therefore were
442 averaged across all the sites.

443 Using the calibrated parameters, new soil, vegetation, and general lookup tables for Noah
444 were then generated. Spinup runs (as described in the previous section for the default case) were
445 repeated using the new tables based on the 2006, 2007, and 2008 calibration results, thereby
446 producing spun-up and initial conditions that are optimized for dry, wet, and average conditions,
447 respectively, over this region. To examine the impact of calibrated spinups on coupled forecasts,
448 four targeted NU-WRF case studies were then chosen from the larger 7-day periods described
449 above, with characteristics as follows:

- 450 •14 July 2006: 24 hours, dry regime; NU-WRF test case
- 451 •18-19 July 2006: 48 hours, dry regime; peak of dry-down
- 452 •16-17 June 2007: 48 hours, wet regime; limited/scattered precipitation
- 453 •19-20 June 2007: 48 hours, wet regime; scattered/MCS precipitation

454 NU-WRF was then run for each case study above using four different combinations of
455 parameter values/lookup tables, as shown in Table 2. The array of simulations was designed to

456 capture the impact on NU-WRF forecasts from using a combination of a) default spinup
457 (uncalibrated) and default parameters in the coupled run (DEF), b) default spinup with calibrated
458 parameters in the coupled run (CPL), c) calibrated spinup with default parameters in the coupled
459 run (SPN), and d) calibrated spinup with calibrated parameters in the coupled run (SCP). Note
460 that the focus of the results presented here will be on the differences between the DEF (no
461 calibration) and SCP (fully calibrated) cases, but CPL and SPN offer the ability to parse out the
462 relative impacts of using optimal parameters during the spinup vs. coupled simulation period,
463 and will be included in the discussion when relevant.

464 *f. Observation Data*

465 The ARM-SGP program provides a long-standing record of quality-controlled surface
466 flux, meteorological, and hydrological observations along with atmospheric profiles for a
467 network of sites across the domain shown in Fig. 1. This includes co-located soil moisture, net
468 radiation, sensible, latent, and soil heat, along with co-located surface meteorology data that
469 provide the full set of variables needed to calculate the LoCo diagnostics discussed in Section 2c
470 and evaluate against model results. For the calibration experiments, ARM-SGP data was
471 collected from ECOR and EBBR towers, and the LoCo evaluation was performed using the co-
472 located surface meteorology, flux towers, and available radiosonde profile data.

473 **4. Results**

474 The performance of the offline calibration experiments will be evaluated first, followed by the
475 impact of spinup calibration and initialization on NU-WRF predictions and LoCo, the sensitivity
476 of the coupled results to the period of calibration, and concluding with the uncertainty introduced
477 into the forecasts by different parameter sets.

478 *a. Offline Calibration*

479 Before examining the coupled cases, it is important to quantify the impact of the
480 calibrated parameters on the offline spinup. Figure 2 shows the flux components simulated using
481 default and calibrated Noah parameters during the dry regime (2006) versus observations at each
482 of the ARM-SGP sites and over the full domain. Both Q_h and Q_{le} show improvement at nearly
483 all sites, with RMSE values reduced by up to 25.7 Wm^{-2} (10.5 Wm^{-2} on average) in Q_{le} , and up
484 to 45.3 Wm^{-2} (19.1 Wm^{-2} on average) in Q_h . Note that the 95 percent confidence interval for
485 the domain averages are $\sim 4\text{-}7 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$, so the improvements are statistically significant. The
486 improvement due to the calibration is also clearly evident in the mean diurnal cycle behavior of
487 Q_h and Q_{le} across all sites. Focusing on the daytime when the turbulent fluxes are large and
488 positive, Q_h matches observations almost exactly and improves over the high bias present in the
489 default simulations. Analogously, daytime Q_{le} increases due to calibration and matches
490 observations more closely than when default parameters are used in Noah. The Noah model has
491 often been shown to produce systematic over/underestimation of surface fluxes, and the GA
492 calibration successfully improves upon the biases exhibited for the SGP and study period
493 demonstrated here.

494 Q_g shows more mixed results, with 5 of the 11 EBBR sites showing slight degradation
495 after calibration, but the magnitudes for Q_g are small overall and this does not present a concern
496 for this study. The mixed results are partially a reflection of the reduced number of observations
497 of Q_g available for the GA and the heavier weighting towards Q_h and Q_{le} . In addition, phase
498 errors in Q_g are well documented (Robock et al. 2003, Reichle et al. 2010) and could possibly be
499 corrected if joint calibration approaches including soil temperature and Q_g were conducted.

500 Figure 3 shows the offline calibration results for the wet regime (2007), and once again
501 Q_h and Q_{le} are improved at nearly all ARM-SGP sites (and in the case of Q_h , all sites show

502 improvement). In this calibration, Q_h improvements are more modest than in 2006 (up to 25.9
503 Wm^{-2} and 12.3 Wm^{-2} on average), while Q_{le} improvements are larger than during the dry
504 regime (up to 54.9 Wm^{-2} and 12.3 Wm^{-2} on average). Interestingly, Site E24 shows the largest
505 improvement in this case, opposite of the 2006 calibration. The mean diurnal cycles show
506 marked improvement (decrease) in daytime Q_{le} over the default simulations, while Q_h is only
507 very slightly impacted (and also decreased). This suggests an available energy bias and
508 overestimation in the offline Noah runs in 2007. Once again, Q_g shows mixed results as 5 of 11
509 sites show degradation; though in this case there is a noticeable increase in Q_g after calibration
510 that improves afternoon simulations, but does not impact the phase error where Q_g peaks too
511 early (as in the 2006 case).

512 Overall, the largest impact and improvement due to calibration of Noah is seen in Q_h in
513 2006 and in Q_{le} in 2007. Physically, this can be explained by the fact that during the dry regime,
514 Noah has a dry bias and produces too little evaporation thereby overestimating Q_h . In the wet
515 regime, Noah has a wet bias and produces too much Q_{le} (partially due to too much net
516 radiation). The LIS-OPT/UE calibration has thus adjusted the parameter values accordingly, to
517 correct for the dry bias in 2006 by increasing soil moisture and modifying the efficiency of the
518 evaporative physics in Noah (and vice-versa in 2007) that compliments the new soil moisture
519 levels to produce the optimal fluxes. These results are also consistent in that during a dry regime
520 which is water-limited, the primary adjustment in fluxes would be towards the higher magnitude
521 flux (Q_h), and during a saturated regime the largest impact would be felt in Q_{le} .

522 *b. Coupled Simulations*

523 In order to assess the impact of offline LSM calibration on the coupled system, LoCo
524 diagnostics are used to simultaneously evaluate the land (LSM) and atmospheric (PBL)
525 component evolution and interaction.

526 1) 14 JULY 2006

527 The mixing diagram analysis for the 14 July 2006 case at the ARM-SGP E4 site is shown
528 in Fig. 4. Focusing first on the comparison of the DEF and SCP simulations, it is shown that the
529 default Noah parameters produce the poorest simulation of heat and moisture states and fluxes in
530 NU-WRF. Visually, the DEF curve is drier (and slightly warmer) than observed throughout the
531 daytime period. This is improved significantly in the SCP simulation which matches closely
532 with observed T2 and Q2 throughout. Table 3 provides error statistics of simulated versus
533 observed T2 and Q2 co-evolution, and because mixing diagrams are in energy-space these can be
534 represented in units of J kg⁻¹ and used to describe a total RMSE and MAE of heat and moisture
535 combined (i.e. quantifying the spatial differences between the model and observed curves in Fig.
536 4). These metrics confirm that the DEF run performs worst of all the simulations, while the SCP
537 improves all aspects of the temperature and moisture states (T2 and Q2) by 15-26 percent in
538 RMSE and 8-30 percent in bias.

539 The fluxes in the coupled system can be evaluated via the Bowen and entrainment ratios
540 (as defined by S09 and in Fig. 4). As expected, SCP produces a β_{sfc} ($=Q_{hsfc}/Q_{le_{sfc}}$) nearly
541 identical to that observed due to the calibration to surface fluxes performed, which produced the
542 parameters used in the SCP simulation. DEF overestimates β_{sfc} , consistent with the dry bias
543 observed in the offline spinup and the coupled T2 and Q2 results. The entrainment fluxes (as
544 reflected by Bent) are also impacted by the LSM calibration by ~15 percent and slightly closer to
545 observations. Likewise, the heat and moisture entrainment ratios (A_{le} and A_h) show substantial

546 improvement in SCP over default, where the higher Q_{le} and lower Q_h as a result of correcting
547 the dry bias at the surface produce better ratios of land to PBL fluxes.

548 Focusing on the remaining two simulations, CPL and SPN, indicates how calibrated
549 parameters impact coupled simulations when used in either offline spinups or the coupled run
550 only. It is first evident that SPN does well with T2 and Q2 state estimation, correcting the dry
551 bias of Noah, and producing the best overall error metrics in Table 3. The fluxes of SPN are
552 severely overcompensated, however (e.g. β_{sfc} very low), and produce too much evaporation.
553 Because the calibrated parameters in this simulation are used only for the spinup, these results
554 indicate that the default parameters still employed in the coupled run produce too high of
555 evaporation rates for the given initial soil moisture state. The CPL simulation performs poorly
556 both in terms of T2 and Q2 (with comparable or worse metrics in Table 3 to the DEF simulation)
557 and surface and PBL fluxes, indicating that using calibrated parameters only for the coupled
558 simulation along with a default spinup does not impact or improve the coupled forecast at all.
559 These results are also consistent with those of Trier et al. (2008), who showed that initial soil
560 moisture (i.e. fluxes calibrated in SPN) has a much larger influence on forecasts than the
561 evolution of soil moisture during the coupled run (i.e. fluxes calibrated in CPL).

562 The full heat and moisture budgets of the coupled system can be derived from the mixing
563 diagram analysis and are shown in Fig. 5. The calibration of the surface fluxes to observations in
564 SCP is most evident, as is the overestimation of Q_{le} and Q_h in the SPN and CPL simulations,
565 respectively. Less impact of different calibration approaches is seen in the PBL components of
566 the budget, where all are relatively close to observed. The total budgets do, in turn, directly
567 reflect the improvement of surface fluxes in the SCP and SPN simulations.

568 Another related diagnostic of the coupled system performance is the relationship of
569 evaporative fraction (EF) and PBL height (PBLH), as shown in Fig. 6. Once again, the best
570 combination of land and atmospheric behavior is exhibited by the SCP simulation, which closely
571 matches both the EF (which integrates the land surface condition) and PBLH (which integrates
572 the atmospheric response). SPN and CPL are the extremes in terms of EF and PBLH, while the
573 dry bias in the DEF simulation is evident and leads to slightly higher PBL growth.

574 From the full suite of simulations and diagnostics in Figs. 4-6 and Table 3, it is clear that
575 offline LSM calibration can improve coupled simulation components significantly and in a
576 consistent fashion in terms of correcting a bias and the impact of that correction (e.g. soil
577 moisture) on the coupled components (e.g. T2 and Q2). It is also evident that employing
578 calibrated parameters in both the offline spinup and the coupled run is required to achieve
579 optimal improvement in coupled prediction. It is the combination of a spinup produced with
580 calibrated parameters that support a wetter initial condition along with those same parameters
581 that support lower evaporation rates in the coupled simulation that are actually compensatory.
582 Therefore, if the calibrated parameters are only used in either the spinup or coupled run,
583 significant and overreaching impacts will be seen in the prediction of coupled states and/or
584 fluxes (as seen in SPN and CPL).

585 A robust measure of the impact of LSM spinup and calibration on NU-WRF simulations
586 can be found in the performance of T2 and Q2 across the entire model domain. Figure 7 shows
587 the domain average statistics computed using the Model Evaluation Tools statistical software
588 package (MET; developed by the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR):
589 www.dtcenter.org/met/users/docs/overview.php and incorporating NCEP Automated Data
590 Processing (ADP) atmospheric and surface data), and based on 214 site observations at 6-hourly

591 intervals on 14 July 2006 which provides a true independent evaluation of the model. In
592 particular, the RMSE and Bias statistics are largely improved in SCP versus DEF and are
593 consistent in terms of lowering the dry/warm bias of the default simulation. Also plotted are the
594 results from a NU-WRF simulation that does not use LIS nor a spinup of the Noah LSM (as a
595 true 'off the shelf' WRF-default case comparison). Overall, by introducing a spinup (DEF vs.
596 WRF) there is a definite increment of improvement over a default or coarse atmospheric-based
597 initial condition (e.g. NARR in this case). Performing offline calibration for a spinup then
598 increases the accuracy of the simulation even further (SCP vs. DEF vs. WRF). Likewise, the
599 land surface energy balance (Q_h , Q_{le} , and Q_g) components across the entire suite of 19 ARM-
600 SGP sites are shown in Fig. 8, where improvement is seen across the board in terms of reducing
601 the RMSE and Bias. Overall, these results provide strong evidence that spinup and calibration
602 improves coupled forecasts across the entire NU-WRF domain, as well as the individual site
603 details shown in Figs. 4-6.

604 2) 18-19 JULY 2006

605 The other dry regime case study results are shown in Fig. 9 and Table 4. As the dry-
606 down has progressed over the period, there is a larger diurnal range in 2m temperature observed
607 (~20K) than the 14 July case (~13 K), while the humidity ranges are comparable on 18 July but
608 reach a much drier condition on 19 July as the surface begins nears desiccation. On both days in
609 Fig. 9, the DEF simulation shows a more extreme dry bias now versus observations, as reflected
610 in Q_2 and the surface Bowen ratio. Despite this, the calibration in SCP still produces consistent
611 improvement in heat and moisture states and fluxes, particularly on 18 July. β_{sfc} on 19 July is
612 observed to be much higher than the previous day, and supports a sharp diurnal decrease in Q_2
613 due to lack of surface evaporation (and is similar to the mixing diagram signature seen in the dry

614 soils results of S09 and S11). Overall, the SPN simulation (not shown) produces the lowest T2
615 and Q2 errors, but as was the case for 14 July this occurs for the wrong reasons, as β_{sfc} is vastly
616 underestimated while CPL remains close to the DEF results.

617 That SCP doesn't match or improve B_{sfc} observations as well as the previous cases is
618 because the overall nature of the calibration is to correct the dry bias in Noah thereby increasing
619 the soil moisture and Q_{le}. The calibration works well overall, but for extreme conditions like on
620 19 July the DEF simulation just so happens to produce better β_{sfc} due to its inherent dry bias.
621 The limits of calibrating the spinup are also evident here, as the shift due to higher initial soil
622 moisture is felt in the coupled simulation to the degree of the shift in DEF to SCP curves, and
623 suggests there is still significant uncertainty and limitations in LSM physics that prevent even a
624 detailed calibration of large parameter sets from improving upon.

625 3) 16-17 JUNE 2007

626 The wet regime cases show a vastly different signature in the mixing diagrams that is
627 reflective of much higher evaporation rates at the surface and limited PBL growth and
628 entrainment above. Fig. 10 and Table 5 show that the DEF simulations generally perform well
629 relative to observations in terms of T2 and Q2 evolution, and that there actually is some
630 degradation in results after calibration on 16 June (note that the calibration performed for these
631 cases was appropriately based on the 1 May- 1 September 2007 period). The
632 degradation/improvement seen in T2 and Q2 in the SCP simulation on June 16/17 is due to the
633 DEF simulation being too wet/dry on these days, and due to the dry bias correcting nature of the
634 calibration has a positive impact only on the day when an initial dry bias exists.

635 Overall, there is very little impact of using calibrated vs. default parameters, though the
636 patterns are consistent in that CPL performs worst and SPN performs best in terms of T2 and Q2

637 metrics. The calibration does improve β_{sfc} in SCP over DEF and very close to observations, as
638 designed by the calibration. There is not any translation of this improvement to the PBL fluxes
639 or 2m states, however. This is consistent with the results of S12, who showed that the impact of
640 a particular LSM is dampened during wet regimes when the PBL scheme and atmosphere-
641 dominated regime takes over. It can also be summarized that when the LSM and coupled model
642 perform well (as 16 June MAE, RMSE, Bias, and N-S metric suggest), there is little to be gained
643 in calibrating large sets of parameters because the inherent predictability in the system has
644 already been maximized.

645 4) 19-20 JUNE 2007

646 At the end of the wet regime, much poorer performance is seen in both the DEF and SCP
647 simulations (Fig. 11 and Table 6) in terms of the diurnal evolution of T2 and Q2. Particularly on
648 19 June when DEF has a wet bias in the morning, there is degradation across all metrics (with
649 the exception of the Q2 bias), which is again consistent with the calibration attempt to correct the
650 overall dry bias that is not evident on this particular day. As also evident from the comparisons
651 of all the case studies thus far, there is a noticeable shift on 19 June to a very wet regime (high
652 Q2) that is reflective of frequent precipitation events in the days prior (including the passage of a
653 MCS over the study region).

654 20 June is much similar to 16-17 June in that there is very little impact of calibration on
655 the results. Overall, the wet regime is dominated by low β_{sfc} and relatively high Qle, along with
656 lower net radiation (due to clouds and precipitation), and reduced PBLH, entrainment, and
657 diurnal cycles of T2 and Q2. This makes the potential impact from LSM adjustments (such as
658 calibration, spinup and initialization approaches) on the coupled system much lower than in the
659 dry regime. In addition, the attempt of calibration to systematically reduce inherent LSM biases

660 works least well for the extremes of regimes (e.g. just after frequent rainfall; end of a severe dry-
661 down) as opposed to the more benign, moderate, and transitional periods (as reflected in the
662 overall offline and domain-average results presented above).

663 *c. Period of Calibration*

664 The second part of this analysis addresses the question of ‘what is the impact of the
665 period of calibration on coupled predictions?’. The 2006 case studies above were performed
666 using parameters calibrated during summer 2006 period, and the 2007 cases with parameters
667 calibrated during 2007. For broader applicability of this methodology, it is important to address
668 the impact of data availability and limitations on the calibration. For example, if observed fluxes
669 are only available for a limited time, certain year, or season (as is often the case for field
670 experiments) that does not coincide with the forecast period of interest there likely will not be as
671 optimal results seen in the offline calibration or coupled simulations.

672 Table 7 lists the experiments conducted to determine the impact of having observations
673 only during dry, wet, or average years, or having all three years available. These simulations are
674 each conducted using calibrated parameters in the spinup and during the coupled run, and
675 therefore C06 is identical to SCP in Figs. 4 and 9, C07 is the same as SCP in Figs. 10 and 11, and
676 DEF is the same as in all previous analyses.

677 The land surface energy balance components for the 2008 offline calibration are shown in
678 Fig. 12. Improvement in RMSE of Q_{le} and Q_h is seen at all but 3 and 5 sites, respectively, but to
679 a much lesser degree overall ($\sim 5\text{-}10 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$) than was seen in 2006 and 2007. Likewise, the
680 impact of calibration on the diurnal cycle fluxes is very small, particularly for Q_{le} (which is
681 already simulated quite well by default), although Q_g shows more impact and degradation during
682 daytime than either 2006 or 2007.

683 The results for the offline calibration using all three years of data (2006, 2007, and 2008)
684 combined are then shown in Fig. 13. Once again, the GA algorithm performs well in improving
685 the flux components nearly at nearly all sites (with the exception of only 2 in Qle and Qh), and
686 overall improvement in RMSE is on the order of 15-20 Wm⁻². The diurnal cycles show marked
687 improvement in both Qle and Qh, nearly matching observations in each and lowering the
688 daytime magnitude of each. Some degradation is seen in Qg where it is overestimated during the
689 daytime, therefore compensating somewhat for the reduction in Qh and Qle.

690 The 14 July 2006 case study results for the suite of simulations with different year
691 calibrations are shown in Figs. 14-16 and Table 8. DEF and C06 are the same as in Fig. 4, but
692 what is now evident is the spread in results introduced by different calibration periods. C07
693 performs nearly as well as C06 despite that this is a 2006 case (Fig. 14), with both the T2 and Q2
694 evolution and error metrics almost identical (Table 8). The similarity of C06 and C07 follow in
695 the PBL budget (Fig. 15) and EF vs. PBLH analysis (Fig. 16) as well. The worst performing
696 simulation by far is that with the calibrated parameters from the average year (C08), which is too
697 dry and significantly overestimates β_{sfc} as a result (low Qle, high Qh). This translates into
698 entrainment and total PBL budgets that are too large in Fig. 15, and reflected in low EF and large
699 PBL growth in Fig. 16. The calibration using all three years of data (C678) generally performs
700 well, but less so than either C06 or C07 which is as expected given the performance and
701 weighting of the individual years.

702 These results suggest that calibration using observations that capture the dry and wet
703 sides of the soil moisture distribution is critical to coupled prediction improvement. Similar
704 results are also seen for the 18-19 July 2006 case study (ranked as C06, C07, C678, C08 from
705 most to least improvement), and similar mixed/limited impacts seen in the 2007 cases. This may

706 be due to the calibration correction of the Noah dry bias through the new parameter sets, but only
707 is possible during extreme conditions when the model biases are significant. It is also an
708 important result that using 'average' calibrated parameters (C08) during an extreme condition
709 actually degrades the coupled results due to a now slightly drier soil moisture condition and less
710 evaporative Noah overall (thus enhancing the bias).

711 *d. Uncertainty Propagation*

712 An interesting question that is inherent in parameter estimation studies is how to quantify
713 the sensitivity of LSMs to calibrated parameter sets generated by algorithms such as GA. In a
714 similar vein, tools have been developed for LIS-OPT/UE that can be extended to quantify how
715 uncertainty in LSM spinups and initial conditions is translated to coupled forecasts. To address
716 this issue, an additional suite of simulations was conducted using a simple Monte Carlo
717 simulation (MC-SIM) sampling algorithm implemented in LIS-OPT/UE in order to propagate
718 uncertainty from inputs (e.g. soil, vegetation, and general parameters) to model outputs (e.g.,
719 offline spinup, coupled prediction). As such, this algorithm allows for an assessment of LSM
720 uncertainty, and can be used to gauge the relative sensitivity of the coupled system to LSM
721 inputs. A small sample size (5) was applied given that WRF does not have a true ensemble
722 mode, and essentially requires independent integrations for each set. As in Kumar et al. (2012),
723 uniform distributions were applied to all parameters given the limits of the ranges also based on
724 Kumar et al. (2012). The result is a sense of the spread in simulations prior to calibration.

725 Figure 17 shows the results of the DEF and C06 simulations (as in Fig. 14) for the 14
726 July 2006 case, along with the simulations using the 5 parameter sets sampled with MC-SIM
727 (used in both the spinup and coupled run, as for C06). The large spread in results (shaded area)
728 highlights the importance of LSM parameter sets in the coupled forecast of heat and moisture

729 states and fluxes. That MC-SIM randomly sampled these sets suggests the full spread, using
730 physically reasonable bounds on parameter values as was done here, could actually be much
731 larger than shown here as well. Nearly all of the MC-SIM simulations are on the dry side of
732 observations, an indication of the dry bias in the Noah model that is only circumvented when
733 using the full C06 calibration with observations. The fluxes in MC-SIM vary quite a bit as well,
734 where β_{sfc} ranges from 0.733-4.960 and large errors versus observed are carried into the
735 entrainment and ratio components.

736 Overall, these results show the potential uncertainty in LSM parameter specification and
737 substantial impact on the coupled system. The next phase of this research will further explore
738 uncertainty propagation, and quantify how the spread in predictions is narrowed after
739 incorporating observations into the system via calibration. For this task, LIS-OPT/UE has been
740 augmented to include recent algorithmic advances in Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) and
741 will be used to evaluate trade-offs in observation quality and frequency on reducing uncertainty
742 in coupled forecasts.

743 **5. Discussion**

744 The questions addressed in this study of improving coupled prediction using LSM
745 calibration have shed light on the following issues: 1) what to calibrate, 2) how to calibrate, and
746 3) when to calibrate. Because fluxes are the most important aspect of LSMs for atmospheric
747 models, the largest impact will be seen in calibrating a LSM to Qle and Qh observations. In the
748 approach presented here, in contrast to Santanello et al. 2007, we calibrate only fluxes and
749 therefore, soil states such as moisture and temperature are by-products without observational
750 constraints. Current and future missions such as SMOS and SMAP will provide soil moisture
751 state observations that can be used to calibrate soil hydraulic properties as shown in Santanello et

752 al, etc. However, based on the work presented here, and given the interaction between the soil
753 hydraulics and the canopy conductance, it will be most beneficial to land-atmosphere prediction
754 if both state and flux measurements can be used simultaneously to calibrate LSM parameters.

755 In terms of how to calibrate, it is not so much the algorithm choice (e.g. similar
756 performance has been seen in LIS-OPT/UE intercomparisons of the three methods therein;
757 Harrison et al. 2012) so much as the parameter sets and mapping approach that is employed that
758 is important for coupled prediction. NU-WRF is fully 3-D and communicates horizontally
759 between grid cells through the atmospheric flow. This is in contrast to LIS and most LSMs,
760 which operate in 1-D. This makes it particularly important that parameter calibration and
761 assignment be considered carefully for coupled studies. The approach performed in this study
762 entailed the assignment of soil, vegetation, and general parameter types, followed by averaging
763 across observation sites for like classes of each and assignment to the full domain. With the
764 exception of a few sites in the offline calibration results, this approach seemed to work well
765 overall as evidenced by the independent assessment of 214 locations of T2 and Q2 performance
766 in the coupled run. A next step in this regard is to investigate the classification at those ARM-
767 SGP sites that degraded after calibration to see if the soil type and land cover representation at
768 those flux towers was represented accurately by the datasets (STATSGO and UMD) chosen for
769 this study.

770 The final question of when to calibrate has been addressed directly as well, and found
771 some interesting results that should be taken into account in future studies. That the calibration
772 in the wet regime worked nearly as well as the dry regime parameters suggests that in order to
773 improve simulations during extremes, the calibration should at least include a period of extreme
774 soil moisture conditions. Clearly, this is not a one-size-fits-all approach, and depends on the

775 seasonality of a particular location/climate regime, but also suggests that the model physics be
776 tested outside of 'average' conditions in order to maximize LSM improvement due to calibration.
777 (i.e. to capture wings of the distribution (dry-downs and wet-ups) and model biases). There are
778 many more experiments that could be performed in terms of period sensitivity (e.g. seasonal,
779 application to average condition coupled cases, etc.) that will be a part of future research.

780 Another issue rarely addressed in studies of LSM calibration is that of the physical
781 meaningfulness of the calibrated parameter values. It is important to consider what the
782 calibrated values look like and actually represent, relative to the default lookup tables.
783 Santanello et al. (2007) was successful in achieving both goals of reducing model bias and
784 maintaining parameter realism amongst soil hydraulic properties through the use of pedotransfer
785 functions. Here, the parameter set is large such that it remains difficult to ensure or even
786 evaluate inter-parameter consistency and applicability to real world (or measured) properties, not
787 to mention that not all parameters in Noah LSM are observable. For most calibration studies, the
788 ends (i.e. improved flux output) justify the means (i.e. limited parameter realism). However, we
789 can still take a closer look at the evaporative physics in Noah and two of the commonly modified
790 and 'tuned' parameters in previous studies.

791 The FXEXP parameter is the exponent for bare soil evaporation in Noah, which is a
792 function of soil moisture and vegetation amount. Lower values of FXEXP increase the bare soil
793 component of Q_{le} for a given soil moisture/vegetation amount, and the default value is 2.0.
794 Table 9 shows the calibrated values from the different period experiments, and there is a definite
795 downward shift in FXEXP due to calibration towards 1.0. In fact, Santanello et al. (2007)
796 modified the FXEXP parameter in their study to be 1.0, due to the semi-arid region and inability

797 of Noah to produce enough Q_{le} . The calibration here has acted in the same manner in order to
798 increase Q_{le} to match observations.

799 The other parameter of interest is part of the evaporative/flux calculations in Noah. CZIL
800 is the Zilitinkevich coefficient relating surface fluxes to the roughness length for heat (Z_{oh}) and
801 the exchange coefficient (C_h). There has been recent work in Noah model development to
802 modify this from its default value of 0.1 to something higher or lower dependent on vegetation
803 coverage (e.g. Mitchell et al. 2004, LeMone et al. 2010, Trier et al. 2011). Higher values of
804 CZIL decrease Z_{oh} , C_h , and flux magnitudes overall. Table 9 shows the values of CZIL from
805 DEF lookup table of Noah along with calibrated values from different periods and the prior study
806 estimates. The value has been raised to 0.6 in the calibrations that perform best (C06, C07,
807 C678) versus 0.1 in the DEF and the poor calibration of C08.

808 These results are consistent with tests of the Noah model over the ARM-SGP domain by
809 LeMone et al. (2010) who found that CZIL should be larger in this region. The SPN vs. CPL
810 results here also support those of Trier et al. (2008) in terms of consistency in calibrated
811 parameter sets, and suggest that the results of Trier et al. (2011) would have shown even greater
812 sensitivity of land-PBL coupling to CZIL if the same modified values were used both in the
813 spinup and coupled runs (their CZIL modifications were applied to the coupled run only).
814 Overall, the calibrated values of both CZIL and FXEXP appear to be physically consistent with
815 previous studies' manual tuning of parameters, and while they by no means guarantee the same
816 for the other 27 parameters involved at least suggest some physical consistency and model
817 improvement that produces the right answer for the right reasons.

818 **6. Conclusions**

819 This study examines the impact of LSM spinup and calibration on the land-PBL coupling
820 in regional model forecasts. Sensitivities to dry/wet regimes, period of calibration, and
821 parameter sets were quantified using diagnostics of land-atmosphere coupling and applied to the
822 NU-WRF coupled modeling system. Key findings from this work include the following:

- 823 - Offline calibration using a surface flux network is successful in reducing LSM biases and
824 improving diurnal cycles of Q_{le} and Q_h .
- 825 - Calibrated parameter sets can improve fluxes and states during both dry and wet regimes, and
826 extend their impact to PBL fluxes and ambient weather (T_2 and Q_2).
- 827 - Largest impacts of offline calibration on coupled runs are seen during the dry regime when the
828 turbulent fluxes are larger and atmospheric and precipitation forcing is weak.
- 829 - A calibrated spinup by itself can produce more accurate temperature and humidity forecasts,
830 regardless of the parameter sets used in the coupled simulation; though consistency in parameter
831 sets between spinup and coupled runs is critical to improving performance and maintaining
832 physical consistency in *both* states and fluxes
- 833 - Including periods of dry and/or wet extremes for a particular region in the calibration process
834 leads to better offline and coupled simulations.
- 835 - Significant variability in hydrometeorological prediction can result from LSM parameter
836 uncertainty, but can be reduced using observations and calibration approaches.

837 These experiments were also designed as a prototype testbed for future satellite missions
838 (e.g. SMAP). Using LIS-OPT/UE, the tradeoffs of data availability vs. accuracy and uncertainty
839 in prediction can be quantified systematically. The classification strategy relates to the spatial
840 tradeoffs of satellite sensors, while the period of calibration relates to the satellite overpass return
841 time. In the future, simultaneous development of Earth science technologies (e.g. microwave

842 soil moisture sensors) and methodologies (e.g. thermal evapotranspiration retrievals) will warrant
843 the LIS-OPT/UE approach in assessing the impact of observations on coupled forecasts, for both
844 calibration and data assimilation studies alike.

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848 updated version of the coupled system. The data for the MET analysis are from the Research
849 Data Archive (RDA), which is maintained by the Computational and Information Systems
850 Laboratory (CISL) at the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR). The original data
851 are available from the RDA (<http://dss.ucar.edu>) in dataset number ds337.0.

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Figure 10ab: Mixing diagrams for the a) 16 and b) 17 June 2007 case study showing the DEF and SCP simulations against observations at the E4 site.

Figure 11ab: Mixing diagrams for the a) 19 and b) 20 June 2007 case study showing the DEF and SCP simulations against observations at the E4 site.

Figure 12abc: Same as Fig. 2, but for the 1 May - 1 September 2008 calibration period.

Figure 13abc: Same as Fig. 2, but for the combined 1 May - 1 September 2006, 2007, and 2008 calibration periods.

Figure 14: Mixing diagrams for the 14 July 2006 case study showing the default (DEF) and suite of experiments using parameters calibrated during 2006 (C06), 2007 (C07), 2008 (C08), and all three years combined (C678), along with observations at the ARM-SGP E4 site.

Figure 15: Full PBL budget components of surface, PBL, and total sensible and latent heat flux derived from the mixing diagram analysis in Fig. 14.

Figure 16: Daytime mean evaporative fraction versus PBL height for the simulations in Fig. 14.

Figure 17: Mixing diagrams for the 14 July 2006 case study showing the default and suite of experiments using parameters calibrated during 2006 (C06) and 5 randomly sampled set generated from MC-SIM (MCSIM; shaded), along with observations at the ARM-SGP E4 site.

Noah Parameter	Minimum	Maximum
SMCMAX	0.30	0.50
PSISAT	0.01	0.70
DKSAT (ms-1)	0.05 E-5	3.00 E-5
DWSAT	5.71 E-6	2.33 E-5
BEXP	3	9
QUARTZ	0.10	0.90
RSMIN (m)	40	1000
RGL	30	150
HS	36	55
Z0 (m)	0.01	0.99
LAI	0.05	6.00
CFACTR	0.10	2.00
CMCMAX (m)	1.00 E-4	2.00 E-3
SBETA	-4.00	-1.00
RSMAX (m)	2000	10000
TOPT (K)	293	303
REFDK	5.00 E-7	3.00 E-5
FXEXP	0.20	4.00
REFDT	0.10	10.00
CZIL	0.05	0.80
FRZK	0.10	0.25
SNUP	0.025	0.08
SMCREF	0.00	0.50
SMCDRY	0.00	0.15
SMCWLT	0.00	0.15
F1	-11	0
CSOIL	1.26 E6	3.56 E6
SLOPE	0.00	1.00
EMISS	0.80	1.00

Table 1: Minimum and maximum values of the Noah parameters used in the LIS-OPT experiments.

	Exp.	Description	Spinup Parameters	Coupled Parameters
1	DEF	Default run w/uncalibrated params in LIS & NU-WRF	Default	Default
2	CPL	Impact of calibrated parameters in NU-WRF ONLY	Default	Calibrated
3	SPN	Impact of calibrating LIS spinup (ICs) ONLY	Calibrated	Default
4	SCP	Impact of full calibration (LIS and NU-WRF)	Calibrated	Calibrated

Table 2: Description of calibration approaches and parameter sets used in NU-WRF simulations.

		DEF	CPL	SPN	SCP
Cum RMSE		6288.60	6161.24	4665.10	5314.07
Cum MAE		5231.25	5181.39	4044.50	4541.69
BIAS	Q2	-6022.76	-5743.49	-3159.91	-4196.35
BIAS	T2	4244.72	4458.54	3336.54	3919.27
N-S Efficiency		-1.78	-1.67	-0.53	-0.98

Table 3: Error statistics for Fig.4, where the co-evolution of 2m-specific humidity (Q2) and temperature (T2) are from each simulation is evaluated against observations in time in terms of RMSE, MAE, Bias, and the Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970).

	DEF	CPL	SPN	SCP
Cum RMSE	6018.59	5992.34	3977.58	5086.32
Cum MAE	4921.32	4992.19	3050.16	4129.53
BIAS Q2	-7889.19	-7859.74	-5002.86	-6663.78
BIAS T2	1953.45	2124.63	818.18	1595.27
N-S Efficiency	-0.385	-0.373	0.394	0.011

	DEF	CPL	SPN	SCP
Cum RMSE	5916.36	5464.83	4031.29	5116.14
Cum MAE	4638.54	4450.96	2475.01	3970.43
BIAS Q2	-6905.71	-6541.11	-3709.10	-5976.76
BIAS T2	2371.36	2360.82	416.55	1964.09
N-S Efficiency	-0.128	0.038	0.476	0.157

Table 4ab: Error statistics from a) Fig. 9a and b) Fig. 9b for all four simulations.

		DEF	CPL	SPN	SCP
Cum RMSE		1380.69	1731.27	1539.36	1718.66
Cum MAE		1190.26	1421.29	1280.70	1386.36
BIAS	Q2	436.17	-478.81	1283.31	938.37
BIAS	T2	1412.82	1920.64	1155.18	1485.82
N-S Efficiency		0.809	0.699	0.762	0.704

		DEF	CPL	SPN	SCP
Cum RMSE		1788.06	2480.89	1240.10	1498.29
Cum MAE		1644.65	2280.67	1119.14	1338.25
BIAS	Q2	-1761.03	-2627.25	-977.38	-1164.02
BIAS	T2	1528.27	1934.09	1237.55	1240.91
N-S Efficiency		0.183	-0.573	0.607	0.426

Table 5ab: Error statistics from a) Fig. 10a and b) Fig. 10b for all four simulations.

		DEF	CPL	SPN	SCP
Cum RMSE		4177.31	4963.27	4263.40	4611.42
Cum MAE		3501.51	4383.16	3576.48	3987.41
BIAS	Q2	-257.51	-1412.37	1159.99	142.81
BIAS	T2	2361.73	3213.09	2043.18	2811.18
N-S Efficiency		-1.193	-2.096	-1.285	-1.673

		DEF	CPL	SPN	SCP
Cum RMSE		1598.93	1898.51	2301.55	1632.62
Cum MAE		1412.15	1708.75	2026.01	1497.77
BIAS	Q2	-467.35	-1119.43	2471.04	-195.45
BIAS	T2	1373.55	1948.36	1144.36	1639.91
N-S Efficiency		0.672	0.538	0.321	0.658

Table 6ab: Error statistics from a) Fig. 11a and b) Fig. 11b for all four simulations.

	Exp.	Description	Spinup Parameters	Coupled Parameters
1	DEF	Default run w/uncalibrated params	Default	Default
2	C06	Impact of calibrating during 2006 only	2006	2006
3	C07	Impact of calibrating during 2007 only	2007	2007
4	C08	Impact of calibrating during 2008 only	2008	2008
5	C678	Impact of calibrating to all three years combined	2006-7-8	2006-7-8

Table 7: Description of calibration approaches and parameter sets used in NU-WRF simulations.

	DEF	C07	C08	C06	C678
Cum MAE	5231.25	4538.32	5707.05	4541.69	4630.35
Cum RMSE	6288.60	5371.56	6851.72	5314.07	5490.36
Q2 BIAS	-6022.76	-4249.04	-7044.01	-4196.35	-4492.11
T2 BIAS	4244.73	3977.18	4370.09	3919.27	3998.27
N-S Efficiency	-1.782	-1.030	-2.303	-0.987	-1.121

Table 8: Error statistics from Fig.14 for each of the simulations.

	DEF	C06	C07	C08	C678	LeMone et al. (2008)	Trier et al. (2011)
FXEXP	2	1.06	1.34	0.969	1.19	-	-
CZIL	0.1	0.6	0.6	0.1	0.6	0.5	0.1-1.0

Table 9: Values of the Noah CZIL and FXEXP parameters used in each of the simulations and the CZIL studies of LeMone et al. (2008) and Trier et al. (2011).