

1 **NCA-LDAS: Overview and Analysis of Hydrologic Trends**
2 **for the National Climate Assessment**

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46 **Abstract**

47 Terrestrial hydrologic trends over the conterminous United States are estimated for 1980-
48 2015 using the National Climate Assessment-Land Data Assimilation System (NCA-LDAS)
49 reanalysis. NCA-LDAS employs the uncoupled Noah Version 3.3 land surface model at
50 $0.125^{\circ} \times 0.125^{\circ}$ forced with NLDAS-2 meteorology, rescaled Climate Prediction Center
51 precipitation, and assimilated satellite-based soil moisture, snow depth and irrigation
52 products. Mean annual trends are reported using the nonparametric Mann-Kendall test at
53 $p < 0.1$ significance. Results illustrate the interrelationship between regional gradients in
54 forcing trends, and trends in other land energy and water stores and fluxes. Mean
55 precipitation trends range from +3 to +9 mm/yr in the Upper Great Plains and Northeast to -1
56 to -9 in the West and South; net radiation flux trends range from +0.05 to +0.20 W/m²/yr in
57 the East to -0.05 to -0.20 in the West; U.S.-wide temperature trends average about +0.03K/yr.
58 Trends in soil moisture, snow cover, latent and sensible heat fluxes and runoff are consistent
59 with forcings, contributing to increasing evaporative fraction trends from West to East.
60 Evaluation of NCA-LDAS trends compared to independent data indicates mixed results. The
61 RMSE of U.S.-wide trends in number of snow cover days improved from 3.13 to 2.89
62 days/yr while trend detection increased 11%; Trends in latent heat flux were hardly affected,
63 RMSE decreasing only 0.17 to 0.16 W/m²/yr, while trend detection increased 2%; NCA-
64 LDAS runoff trends degraded significantly from 2.6 to 16.1 mm/yr while trend detection was
65 unaffected. Analysis also indicated that NCA-LDAS exhibits relatively more skill in low
66 precipitation station density areas, suggesting there are limits to the effectiveness of satellite
67 data assimilation in densely gaged regions. Overall, NCA-LDAS demonstrates capability for
68 quantifying physically consistent, U.S. hydrologic climate trends over the satellite era.

69 **1. Introduction and Background**

70 Numerous reports confirm that the climate of the conterminous United States (CONUS)
71 has been changing over the past several decades (Melillo et al., 2014; USEPA, 2016;
72 USGCRP, 2017b) consistent with overall North American trends (Blunden and Arndt Eds.,
73 2013). Analyses of in situ temperature data indicate that current summers are longer and
74 warmer compared to anytime in the past U.S. record, and that this trend has been accelerating
75 over the past several decades (USGCRP, 2017b). Trends in annual means and extremes have
76 been detected, with minimum temperatures increasing more than maximum temperatures
77 (E.g. Lee et al., 2014; Peterson et al, 2008). Such warming is manifested in most
78 components of the terrestrial hydrologic cycle, linked through land and atmospheric energy
79 and water conservation dynamics. For instance, national trend summaries (USEPA, 2016;
80 Melillo et al., 2014; USGCRP, 2017b) indicate increased annual precipitation (P) and
81 streamflow throughout the Northeast and upper Midwest, and increasing flooding in rivers
82 near inland cities (Walsh et al, 2014). Heavy precipitation events have increased (Melillo et
83 al., 2014; Zhang 2011), especially in its eastern half. Decreasing snow trends have been
84 identified in the Intermountain West (Harpold et al., 2012) and Southwest while increasing in
85 the North (Kunkel et al., 2009, 2016). Between 1972 and 2015, the extent of North
86 American snow cover decreased on average about 9,000 km²/yr, largely in spring and
87 summer, and the snow cover season has shortened by about two weeks (USEPA, 2016).

88 Assessments of national climate are coordinated by the U.S. Global Change Research
89 Program (USGCRP) through the National Climate Assessment (NCA) (USGCRP, 2012;
90 USGCRP, 2017a; USGCRP, 2017b; Melillo et al., 2014). The Global Change Research Act
91 of 1990 calls for an NCA report to be produced on a quadrennial basis. The Third and

92 Fourth NCA had a significant focus on climate impacts in regions of the U.S. and sectors of
93 the U.S. economy (Melillo et al., 2014; USGCRP, 2017b). Chapters reviewed climate
94 change science and discussed adaptation (Bierbaum et al., 2014), mitigation (Jacoby et al,
95 2014), and decision support (Moss et al., 2014). USGCRP’s NCA efforts fall under the
96 “Conduct Sustained Assessment” goal identified in the USGCRP Strategic Plan (USGCRP
97 2012, 2017b); the focus is to “build sustained assessment capacity that improves the Nation’s
98 ability to understand, anticipate, and respond to global change impacts and vulnerabilities”.

99 A specifically identified need of the NCA’s Sustained Assessment is to develop
100 consistent trend indicators that track and communicate the causes and effects of climate
101 change, as well as the tools to analyze them (USGCRP, 2017a). Successful indicators
102 provide a basic understanding of the physical system, quantify a state that can be tracked
103 over time (USEPA, 2016) including its uncertainties, are easily interpreted by technical and
104 non-technical users (Janetos et al., 2012), and are publicly accessible and documented.

105 Unfortunately, to date there has been limited capability in providing the above
106 requirements at the nation-wide scale. Most trend studies rely on in situ data, and are usually
107 focused on a specific region. Studies also differ over the time period of the analyses, or the
108 reference period to which a particular trend is being compared (Melillo et al., 2014; USEPA,
109 2016; USGCRP, 2017b; Blunden and Arndt Eds., 2013; Lee et al., 2014; Peterson et al,
110 2008; Walsh et al, 2014), complicating their comparison with other studies. Further lacking
111 is a publicly available, spatially consistent, database of the full suite of terrestrial energy and
112 water related variables with analysis tools. This would facilitate comprehensive indicator
113 analyses over all components of the land water and energy balance, while serving potential
114 users in other related physical, biological and socioeconomic sciences.

115 In developing trends, there is also need to optimally merge all relevant data (Dee et al,
116 2011; 2014) including in situ and remotely sensed data products. For instance, despite a
117 wealth of quality in situ point observations throughout the U.S., sparse in situ observations
118 may not capture the complexity and spatial variability of a region. Further, time series
119 observations can possess non-climatic jumps due to changes in station relocation or
120 instrumentation (Aguilar et al., 2003), making it difficult to separate the natural climate
121 variability from observation inhomogeneity (Kunkel et al., 2007).

122 Space-based observations offer spatially consistent environmental data records (EDRs),
123 but present their own challenges for trend analysis. For example, optical multispectral
124 sensors that observe land, water, and atmospheric properties, such as the Sentinel-2 mission,
125 have daily to weekly coverage and pixels from 10 to 60m. SWE and soil moisture from
126 microwave sensors such as the Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometers (AMSR-E and
127 AMSR-2) have daily to weekly coverage with 625 km² pixels. The Gravity Recovery and
128 Climate Experiment mission sensors (GRACE and GRACE-FO) observe at about 250,000
129 km² resolution. Of additional concern are time series discontinuities associated with the
130 short record length of individual missions usually designed for a 3 to 5-year lifecycle, bias
131 between in situ and satellite observations (Dee et al., 2014), and data inhomogeneities
132 associated with replacement and intercalibration between old and new sensors (Su et al.,
133 2016).

134 Over the past decade, land reanalysis through satellite data assimilation has improved the
135 estimation of gridded hydrologic time series, including variables not routinely measured,
136 mainly by constraining stores and fluxes (Boni et al., 2001; Reichle et al., 2002). To date,
137 most studies have focused on univariate satellite assimilation addressing soil moisture

138 (Galantowicz, 1999; De Lannoy et al., 2015), surface temperature (T) (Reichle et al., 2010),
139 runoff (R) (Chen et al, 2014; Brocca et al., 2012), terrestrial water storage (Zaitchik et al.,
140 2008; Forman and Reichle, 2013; Girotto et al., 2016), evapotranspiration or latent heat flux
141 (ET) (Park and Choi, 2015; Peters-Lidard et al., 2011), snow cover and water equivalent
142 (Slater and Clark, 2006; Zaitchik and Rodell, 2009), and vegetation (Barbu et al., 2014;
143 Sawada and Koike, 2014; Sawada et al., 2015). Land data assimilation systems (LDAS)
144 have further enabled regional to global reanalysis by imbedding simulations within
145 sophisticated modeling environments. Examples include the North American LDAS
146 (NLDAS-2) (Mitchell et al., 2004; Xia et al., 2012), the Global LDAS (GLDAS) (Rodell et
147 al., 2004), the Famine Early Warning Systems Network LDAS (FLDAS) (McNally et al.,
148 2017) which run within the NASA Land Information System (LIS) (Kumar et al., 2006).
149 Other examples include LDAS-Monde (Albergel et al., 2017) and the Coupled Land and
150 Vegetation DAS (CLVDAS) (Sawada and Koike, 2014; Sawada et al., 2015).

151 Although there has been considerable discussion on the value of satellite data
152 assimilation within atmospheric models for climate analysis (Bengtsson et al., 2004; Dee et
153 al, 2011; Albergel et al., 2013; Thorne and Vose, 2010; Grotjahn et al., 2018; Simmons et al.,
154 2010; Dorigo et al., 2012), there have been comparatively few trend studies using land data
155 assimilation (Girotto et al., 2017; Khaki et al., 2018; Khaki and Awange, 2019). Girotto et
156 al. (2017) reported mixed results from GRACE assimilation within the Catchment model due
157 to unmodeled processes, while Khaki and Awange (2019) reported improved ground water
158 trends by assimilating GRACE and satellite soil moisture within the World Wide Water
159 Resources Assessment model. Both studies identified the need for improved modeling of
160 groundwater withdrawals.

161 NCA-LDAS was recently developed as a particular instance of LIS that includes a first-
162 of its-kind assimilation of multi-sensor Earth observations of soil moisture, snow cover and
163 depth, and irrigation simulation over the continental U.S. (Kumar et al., 2018). The long-
164 term vision, shown in Figure 1, is to optimally combine the full suite of past and future Earth
165 observations of all relevant land EDRs observations to provide high quality, publicly
166 available data products and analyses that support the USGCRP's goals for sustained climate
167 assessment (Jasinski et al., 2014; 2015).

168 NCA-LDAS's current products (<https://ldas.gsfc.nasa.gov/NCA-LDAS>) demonstrated
169 high skills for soil moisture, snow depth, R and ET when compared to eight other land
170 surface models (Kumar et al., 2018). NCA-LDAS time series of 42 land products thus offer
171 one of the most compelling databases for constructing consistent, gridded national hydrologic
172 trends. Example trends of the principal terrestrial components described herein demonstrate
173 NCA-LDAS's flexibility as an enabling tool for investigating terrestrial hydrologic climate
174 science and decision support.

175 **2. Approach**

176 *a. Model Setup Summary*

177 NCA-LDAS, summarized in Table 1 and Figure 2, employs the uncoupled Noah version
178 3.3 (Ek et al., 2003) at $0.125^{\circ} \times 0.125^{\circ}$ spatial resolution over the continental U.S., with a 36-
179 year (1979-2015) record of NLDAS-2 forcings and satellite-based products. The
180 precipitation field is derived from gauge-only Climate Prediction Center (CPC) analysis of
181 daily precipitation (Higgins et al., 2000; Chen et al., 2008), with orographic adjustment (Daly
182 et al., 1994). The meteorology forcing fields including surface temperature, radiation, wind,

183 and humidity are derived primarily from the North American Regional Reanalysis (Mesinger
 184 et al., 2006). The current NCA-LDAS Version 2.0 simultaneously ingests satellite-based
 185 EDRs of soil moisture, snow depth and cover, and irrigation intensity. Assimilation employs
 186 a 1-D ensemble Kalman Filter (Reichle et al.; 2002) with concurrent, sequential assimilation
 187 of satellite EDRs, while irrigation is simulated using a demand driven approach based on a
 188 MODIS classification scheme (Ozdogan et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2018). Specific satellite
 189 platforms and corresponding EDRs assimilated into NCA-LDAS are listed in Table 2.

190 ***b. Trend Development and Assessment***

191 Mean annual trend indicators of the principal terrestrial water cycle components for
 192 October 1979 through September 2015 (or water years 1980-2015) were computed using
 193 NCA-LDAS. Trends were constructed from NCA-LDAS daily data products and mapped
 194 for each grid cell in the domain. Analyses focused on monotonic trends in annual mean and
 195 standard deviation, and annual high and low multi-day averages using the nonparametric
 196 Mann-Kendall test (Mann, 1945; Kendall 1975; Helsel and Hirsch, 2002). For ease of
 197 comparison, the results were mapped at a common 10 percent significance level ($p < 0.10$)
 198 except where noted. Grid cell values that did not pass the significance test were left blank.
 199 Trends were qualitatively compared to other published values, and also statistically evaluated
 200 for each NCA region with independent data for three land components (ET, number of snow-
 201 covered days (SCD) and R) using root mean square error (RMSE), or,

$$202 \quad RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (Trend_{EVAL,i} - Trend_{NCA_LDAS,i})^2}{n}}$$

203 where $Trend_{NCA_LDAS,i}$ is the estimated significant NCA_LDAS trend value a of grid cell i,
 204 $Trend_{EVAL,i}$ is the corresponding significant independent evaluation data trend in cell i, and n

205 is the total number of significant grid cell pairs. If either the NCA_LDAS or EVAL trend
206 value was not significant for a given cell, the pair was not included in the RMSE calculation.

207 **3. U.S. Terrestrial Hydrology Trend Indicators**

208 *a. Data assimilation impact vs. precipitation station density*

209 Prior to computation of the indicators, an analysis was conducted to determine how well
210 NCA-LDAS improves forecasts as a function of CPC precipitation station density.
211 Precipitation is arguably the most important forcing in land surface models. Despite high
212 quality gage observations, sparse sampling can impact the quality of the daily grid-cell
213 estimate (Wilson et al., 1979; St-Hilaire et al, 2003; Krajewski et al., 2003; Villarini, 2008).
214 CPC grid-box precipitation is estimated from the four reporting gages that are closest to the
215 center of the cell using optimal interpolation. While there are typically about 8000 daily
216 reporting stations over the continental U.S. (Chen et al., 2008), station density is not equally
217 distributed as shown in Figure 3a (from Higgins et al., 2000). Average daily gage density for
218 the NCA-LDAS grid cell is about 0.16 gages/cell, although the actual daily reporting density
219 can be as low as zero. Lowest densities generally occur in the Southwest and Midwest.

220 The analysis was conducted by stratifying soil moisture, snow depth and streamflow
221 skill as a function of the station density. Skill was estimated in terms of anomaly correlation,
222 RMSE, and the Nash Sutcliffe Efficiency (NSE) normalized information contribution (NIC;
223 Kumar et al., 2009) as compared to the open loop (OL) or non-data assimilation case, as
224 reported in Kumar et al., 2018. While the number of stations reporting can vary overtime,
225 only the average station density was used in the analyses. The range of station densities
226 varied for each variable due to the availability of *in situ* data. Results are shown in Figures

227 3b, c and d for soil moisture, snow depth and streamflow, respectively. For soil moisture,
228 anomaly correlations of NCA-LDAS compared to *in situ* data are generally higher than for
229 the OL for all densities in the range of 0.0 to 1.0, except 0.8. Streamflow comparisons using
230 NIC indicate that improvement is generally better where station density is lower than 0.8 but
231 about the same for larger densities. In the case of snow depth, the RMSE is lower for NCA-
232 LDAS compared to OL for all densities 0.8 or lower, but mixed for larger densities. These
233 results suggest overall that NCA-LDAS improves skill and value when precipitation station
234 density is low. They further suggest that there are possible limits to the effectiveness of data
235 assimilation in regions with dense gage networks.

236 ***b. Precipitation***

237 Given that NCA-LDAS is not dynamically coupled to an atmospheric model, trends
238 were first derived for the P, net radiation (Rnet) and T forcing variables to understand their
239 variability. For mean annual P, the trend is shown in Figure 4a for NCA-LDAS's full output,
240 and also in Figure 4b for only $p < 0.10$ significance. The results reveal that significance
241 testing eliminates most of the coverage in Figure 4b, indicating that less than about one-third
242 of the U.S. exhibits a non-zero P trend for $p < 0.10$. Significant regions indicate increasing
243 trends of 3 to 9 mm/yr for most of the Northeast stretching down into Ohio, Indiana, Illinois,
244 and also in North Dakota and Montana. Decreasing trends of a similar magnitude are shown
245 in Minnesota, while decreasing trends of -1 to -9 mm/yr are exhibited throughout the West
246 and Southwest including Arizona, New Mexico, Nevada, southern Colorado and California.
247 Decreasing trends of up to -10 mm/yr were computed for Oregon and Washington.

248 The above patterns and magnitudes from the NCA-LDAS trends are generally consistent
249 with other published sources including the National Center for Environmental Information

250 (<https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/temp-and-precip/us-trends>), and the USGCRP Fourth
251 Assessment annual precipitation change, computed as the difference between the average
252 annual present-day period (1986-2015) and the average annual baseline period (1901-1960)
253 (See NOAA NCEI Figure 7.1, p. 209 in Easterling et al., 2017; analysis based on Peterson et
254 al., 2013). However, exact comparison is problematic as: each analysis employs a different
255 precipitation database (CPC vs Global Historical Climatology Network (GHCN)-Daily
256 station data), different significance ($p=0.1$ vs 0.05) and reporting analysis (trends in mm/yr
257 vs. change in percent); the NCA-LDAS time period does not extend prior to 1979; and the
258 USGCRP does not report significance. Despite these differences, the NCA-LDAS, NCEI,
259 and USGCRP show an increase in P of about 5-10% in the Northeast and Midwest and -5 to -
260 10% in the Southwest over a 30-year period. The one exception is Northwest where NCA-
261 LDAS shows decreasing trends while NOAA/NCEI change is increasing.

262 Several indicators representing precipitation variability also were developed. Figures 5a
263 and 5b indicate trends in the annual mean number of days of heavy (> 10 mm) and very
264 heavy precipitation (> 20 mm) at $p<0.10$, respectively, as described by Zhang et al. (2011).
265 Trends in heavy precipitation range from about +1 to over +4 days per decade in the eastern
266 U.S. with the greatest amounts in the northeast, to -1 to -4 days/decade in the southwestern
267 and western states. Trends in very heavy precipitation cover a greater percentage of area but
268 show slightly fewer number of days. Also plotted in Figure 5c and 5d are the annual trends
269 in precipitation variance and in annual 5-day high precipitation, respectively. Trends in
270 precipitation variance somewhat mirror those of heavy and very heavy precipitation; all three
271 of which have a similar pattern with some regional differences. Indicators capturing the
272 more extreme precipitation trends, including very heavy precipitation, variance, and 5-day

273 high, show increased trends along the Atlantic coast.

274 When comparing the annual and extreme trends, several features are noted. First, areas
275 of increasing heavy precipitation and precipitation variance coincide with the regions of
276 increasing annual P, as seen in the upper Great Plains, the Ohio River basin and the
277 Northeast. Perhaps more noteworthy is that the area covered by the extreme indicators
278 exhibiting increasing trends (Figures 5a,b,c,d) is much larger than that of the annual P trend
279 in Figure 4b. The coverage of heavy precipitation also extends further into the southern U.S.
280 Western U.S. areas of decreasing annual trends in P also show decreasing trends in extremes.
281 These results suggest that while in many parts of the U.S. there is no significant trend in
282 annual mean P as determined by the Mann-Kendall test, the distribution of the annual P is
283 changing, with more intense individual rainfall events. More extreme P is evident along the
284 U.S. Gulf and Atlantic Coasts, extending from Texas to Maine. These findings show overall
285 good consistency with previous assessments (USEPA, 2016; Melillo et al., 2014; Karl et al.,
286 2009).

287 *c. Temperature*

288 The NCA-LDAS mean annual T trend is shown in Figure 6a. Most of the trends
289 computed over the northern Great Plains, northern Rockies and Intermountain West, and
290 northwestern U.S. do not pass the significance test. The results show that for the period 1979
291 to 2015, the trend in annual mean T for most of the U.S. has been increasing at a CONUS-
292 wide average of about 0.28 K/decade, while regionally ranging from -0.1 to +1.0 K/decade.
293 The largest increases of 0.25 to 0.50 K/decade occur in the northern Midwest in upper
294 Michigan and northern Wisconsin. T trends in the Southeast show a smaller increase of only
295 0.1 to 0.25 K/decade, with only slight changes along the Atlantic and Gulf Coasts, except for

296 Florida that exhibits negligible significant trend. Parts of the Southwest including Arizona,
297 New Mexico and California also show an increasing trend of 0.1 to 0.5 K/decade. These
298 NCA-LDAS results are generally consistent with NOAA NCDC changes between average
299 present-day temperatures (1986-2016) and reference period averages (1901-1960) (Melillo et
300 al., 2014), although NOAA shows a decreasing average T change in Alabama and
301 Mississippi (Hausfather et al., 2016; Rohde et al., 2013) that is not supported by NCA-
302 LDAS. NCEI national trends (<https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/temp-and-precip/us-trends>),
303 reported at $p < 0.05$, are also consistent with NCA-LDAS with no significant trends reported
304 in the Northwest and Northern Great Plains. The NCDC results also exhibit mostly
305 increasing trends throughout the western U.S., although their significance levels were not
306 reported.

307 *d. Net Radiation*

308 The trend in annual net downward radiation (Rnet) is often not reported, but it is
309 nonetheless an important energy forcing as it impacts on trends in ET and other components
310 of the land surface energy and water balance. Global Rnet trends over the past several
311 decades have been analyzed with respect to trends in aerosols, cloud cover, and surface
312 albedo. Analyses based on International Satellite Cloud Climatology Project data (Wild,
313 2012; Wild et al., 2008) indicate non-linear trends since the 1950s ranging from -1.0 to over
314 $+2.0 \text{ W/m}^2/\text{decade}$ (E.g. Cohen and Stanhill, 2016).

315 The NCA-LDAS indicator for annual trend in Rnet is shown in Figure 6b. Results
316 indicate a strong regional pattern with a distinct east-west trend gradient stretching across the
317 U.S. A positive annual Rnet trend of about $+0.05$ to $0.20 \text{ W/m}^2/\text{yr}$ is estimated throughout
318 most of the eastern half of the U.S., with greatest magnitude in the Southeast, ranging up to

319 0.25 W/m²/yr. The Rnet trend gradient decreases to the West, with a low -0.05 to -0.20
320 W/m²/yr in the West and Southwest. A unique North-South swath through the Great Plains,
321 where the Rnet transitions from positive to negative, exhibits no significant trend. A notable
322 sharp decrease in Rnet in Wyoming is likely due to a disproportionately greater number of
323 precipitation stations in the mountainous areas compared to lower elevations. A slight
324 increase in Rnet is also shown in the Northwest, especially the coastal region of Oregon and
325 Washington. The above trends in the East are consistent with published results using a
326 combination of satellite data, reanalysis, modeling and GEWEX/SRB analyses (Cohen and
327 Stanhill, 2016; Ma et al, 2017; Niu et al, 2011) except for NCA-LDAS western decreasing
328 trends that are not supported.

329 *e. Soil Moisture*

330 The indicator for NCA-LDAS annual soil moisture trends, shown in Figure 7, was
331 computed based on the total column moisture content within the four NCA-LDAS soil layers.
332 The results show consistency with annual P trends where significance is reported. That is,
333 there are positive soil moisture trends in the Northeast and upper Great Plains and northern
334 Rocky Mountains averaging up to 3 mm/yr. Decreasing trends in soil moisture cover most of
335 the remaining U.S., especially the Northwest, Southwest and upper Midwest, ranging from -1
336 to -9 mm/yr. Decreasing trends down to -3 mm/yr appear in Louisiana and Florida. The
337 overall NCA-LDAS U.S. drying trend in the West and Southwest is generally consistent with
338 trends developed from the merged global microwave-based surface soil moisture dataset of
339 the European Space Agency (ESA) Climate Change Initiative (CCI) (Feng and Zhang, 2015;
340 Dorigo et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2012). NCA-LDAS also shows drying across the southern
341 U.S. which is not generally supported in the SM-MW product.

342 *f. Latent Heat Flux*

343 The NCA-LDAS indicator for mean annual ET for 1980-2015 is shown in Figure 8a.
344 Results show increasing trends throughout the eastern half of the U.S. and upper Midwest,
345 with greatest magnitude in the South stretching from eastern Texas to northern Florida. The
346 positive annual trends in the East are similar in distribution as Rnet trends previously shown
347 in Figure 6b. There is also additional positive response to the increased P (Figure 4b) and
348 Rnet throughout most of the northern U.S. Notable exceptions are southeast Texas, which
349 exhibits a negative trend in ET compared to Rnet, while Florida exhibits mixed increasing
350 and decreasing trends. Overall, from a climate standpoint, the East and North behave as
351 energy limited systems.

352 In stark contrast to the eastern U.S., negative trends in ET extend throughout most of the
353 West and Southwest. Trends ranging from -0.05 to -0.25 W/m²/yr are exhibited in nearly the
354 same regions as the negative P (Figure 4b), Rnet (Figure 6b) and soil moisture trends (Figure
355 7). The strong decreasing ET trend with similar negative trends in soil moisture and P
356 indicate a climatically moisture limited system. These results are consistent with previous
357 NLDAS-2 analyses over the Missouri Basin, California, and Mexico, (Parr et al., 2016) that
358 showed a strong positive correlation between ET, P and soil moisture, and a negative
359 correlation with Rnet. However, NCA-LDAS trends differ to the Parr study by also
360 exhibiting ET trends in the same direction as Rnet and T, where additional factors including
361 soil moisture, land cover type, aerosols and cloud cover come into play.

362 The NCA-LDAS ET trends were statistically evaluated against the FLUXNET_MTE
363 multi-tree ensemble (Jung et al., 2009) data product trends using RMSE. FLUXNET-MTE
364 provides monthly, 0.5°x0.5° gridded ET, independently derived from upscaling eddy

365 covariance measurements from the FLUXNET global network (Baldocchi et al, 2001).
366 While not ground truth, it has been successfully used for benchmarking gridded surface
367 fluxes (E.g., Bonan et al., 2011; Alemohammad et al., 2017). The analysis was conducted
368 only for the period of overlap of the NCA-LDAS and FLUXNET-MTE data products, or
369 1983-2008, where grid cells from both datasets exhibited significance, as shown in Figures
370 8b and 8c. Visual inspection indicates generally good agreement between the NCA-LDAS
371 and FLUXNET trends throughout the U.S., except in the upper Midwest states of Illinois,
372 Wisconsin, Iowa and Minnesota, where the trends are opposed. Statistical results, aggregated
373 to each NCA region, are shown in Table 3. They indicate RMSE errors ranging from 0.05
374 $\text{W/m}^2/\text{yr}$ in the Northeast to 0.21 $\text{W/m}^2/\text{yr}$ in the Midwest, with a CONUS wide error of 0.16
375 $\text{W/m}^2/\text{yr}$.

376 ***g. Sensible Heat and Evaporative Fraction***

377 Trends were also developed for 1980-2015 for the mean summer, or June-July-August
378 (JJA), ET, the sensible heat flux (H), and mean evaporative fraction (EF), shown in Figures
379 9a, b and c, respectively. Overall, for this period, H trends are about one-third to one-fourth
380 the magnitude of the ET trends. There are decreasing trends from the Upper Great Plains to
381 the Intermountain West, and increasing trends in the Southeast and Northwest.

382 Trends in the mean JJA EF, where EF is the ratio of ET to total available energy flux or
383 $\text{EF}=\text{ET}/(\text{H} + \text{ET})$, are also computed, demonstrating low but positive values throughout the
384 entire East, then extending with increasing EF trend gradient toward the Upper Great Plains.
385 The NCA-LDAS estimated trends for the significant grid cells are greatest in the upper Great
386 Plains and upper Midwest about 0.03 EF/decade or 10.8% over the 36-year period. For these
387 regions, EF trends favor the production of ET, or an increase in ET. Trends become negative

388 moving into the Southwest decreasing down to 0.04 EF/decade or -14% in some regions.
389 The implication is that the Southwest is trending to increasingly drier conditions, while the
390 upper Great Plains are trending toward more temperate conditions.

391 *h. Snow-Covered Days*

392 Several studies and reports have indicated that the number of annual SCD is decreasing
393 in the U.S. and North America (USEPA, 2016; Rutgers University Global Snow Lab, 2016;
394 Mote and Sharp, 2016). An NCA-LDAS indicator that depicts the trend in annual SCD is
395 shown in Figures 10a for the full 1980-2015 period. Results indicate decreasing trends
396 ($p < 0.1$) across nearly the entire the U.S. ranging between 0 to over 2 days/yr, with the largest
397 decrease occurring in the West and Intermountain West. The mean annual CONUS-wide
398 trend is -1.2 days/yr, over twice published values (Hori et al., 2017; USEPA, 2016; Knowles,
399 2015; Burakowski et al., 2008) although there is high uncertainty due to varying methods and
400 data records. Possible reasons for this discrepancy are discussed in Section 4.a.

401 Also plotted in Figures 10b and c are a comparison of annual SCD trends estimated from
402 both NCA-LDAS and the gridded CMC snow depth product (Brown et al, 2010),
403 respectively, but only the period for which the CMC data are available or 1999-2015. During
404 these more recent 15 years, both figures indicate a strong decrease in SCD of more than 2
405 days per year especially in the central and northern Rocky Mountains. There is also some
406 agreement that during 1999-2015 the number of SCD has actually increased slightly in the
407 central U.S. However, area covered by significant trends for this abbreviated period is only
408 about one-third of the US, most likely due to the statistical effect of comparing the shorter
409 available 16-year record.

410 Two analyses were carried out to evaluate NCA-LDAS trends. First, the NCA-LDAS

411 SCD indicator was compared to earlier analyses by Harpold et al. (2012) over nine
412 watersheds covering a majority of the Intermountain West region shown in Figure 10a. They
413 analyzed trends in snow cover duration using SNOTEL data collected between 1984 and
414 2009, applying the regional Mann-Kendall test at $p < 0.05$. Their results for each basin, shown
415 in Figure 10a, yielded significant negative trends ranging from 0.3 days per year in the upper
416 Colorado, to 0.9 days per year in southeast Utah. Also plotted on the same graph are the
417 NCA-LDAS SCD trends of only the model grid cells covering each watershed, adjusted for
418 the same period and $p < 0.05$ value as the Harpold analysis. Results show very good
419 agreement in negative trend direction in 10 out of 13 basins analyzed, especially the Upper
420 Colorado. Of the three remaining watersheds, no comparison could be made as significance
421 was met in neither the NCA-LDAS nor Harpold analyses. NCA-LDAS trends generally
422 exhibited greater magnitude compared to Harpold's study by a factor of about 2. Potential
423 reasons for this Bias are discussed in Section 4a.

424 Second, similar to the above ET analyses, the RMSE was evaluated for NCA-LDAS
425 SCD trends, compared to the trends of an independent dataset, in this case the CMC snow
426 cover product or the overlapping period 1999-2015. Only those grid cells possessing a
427 significant trend in all three data products were used in the computation ($p < 0.10$) as shown in
428 figure 10b and c. Analyses were conducted for each NCA region and for CONUS shown in
429 Table 3. They indicate RMSE errors ranging from 1.15 days in the Northeast to 2.51 days in
430 the Midwest, with a CONUS wide error of 2.9 days.

431 *i. Snow Water Equivalent*

432 Trends in annual CONUS-wide snow water equivalent (SWE) based solely on
433 observations are difficult to estimate as the quantities available from station data are

434 primarily snow depth, precipitation, and temperature. Satellite-based SWE can be unreliable
435 in complex terrain, forested areas, and in deep snow (Luoju et al, 2016) although regional
436 evaluations exist (E.g. Mote and Sharp, 2016). This is due in large part to lack of knowledge
437 of snow density, that needs to be estimated from snowfall and temperature (Knowles et al,
438 2015; Sturm et al, 2016). By merging both *in situ* snow data and satellite snow observations,
439 NCA-LDAS is able to provide an estimate of CONUS-wide SWE at the grid cell resolution.

440 An indicator consisting of mean SWE for the snow season months of October through
441 June at $p < 0.1$ was developed as shown in Figure 12a. Results show a clearly defined region
442 of decreasing trends in SWE over much of the southern and western U.S. Trends in the south
443 are negative, but not hydrologically relevant. Increasing trends in SWE are identified in parts
444 of the Northeast and in the northern to central Rocky Mountains.

445 The NCA-LDAS mean SWE indicator can be qualitatively compared to the trend in the
446 National Operational Hydrologic Remote Sensing Center (NOHRSC) SNOW Data
447 Assimilation System (SNODAS) data product for 2004-2015 which became available in
448 2003 (NOHRSC, 2004; Barrett, 2003). Recognizing the limitations of trend estimation over
449 such a short period, the two data bases compare favorably as shown in Figures 12b and c,
450 respectively. The significant areas are predominantly the West and Northwest where the
451 estimated SWE annual trend ranges to -0.5 mm/yr. Computed significant trends for NCA-
452 LDAS are also evident in the northern Rockies, upper Midwest and Northeast.

453 ***j. Runoff***

454 The trend in annual R arises from the integrated interactions and trends of other
455 terrestrial storage and fluxes components. Figure 13a shows the mean annual trend in total
456 R, estimated as the sum of the NCA-LDAS surface and subsurface R variables. Mean annual

457 R is consistent with increasing mean annual P trends (Figure 4b), with increased R in the
458 Northeast, Midwest, and upper Great Plains. Decreasing trends in R are observed throughout
459 the Northwest, Southwest, and sporadically in the Southeast, also similar to the mean annual
460 P trend. One notable exception is the region of the central and southern Great Plains, where a
461 positive trend in R is observed. For Nebraska and Kansas, this can be explained mostly by
462 the increase trend in P shown in Figure 4b, although for Texas, the increased streamflow is
463 also consistent with the reduced ET trend previously shown in Figure 8a. Evaluating the
464 NCA-LDAS R trend is difficult due to the lack of observed natural streamflow, unimpacted
465 by anthropogenic impoundments and withdrawals. As a surrogate, the statistical comparisons
466 of NCA-LDAS annual R trends were conducted, each against trends estimated from the
467 monthly USGS HUC8 (4 km) R product (<https://waterwatch.usgs.gov/>) shown in Figure 13b.
468 HUC8 R, estimated by merging historical streamflow data, stream gauge drainage areas, and
469 watershed boundaries, has been successfully used in previous grid-based evaluations (Xia et
470 al., 2016; Velpuri et al., 2013). Results are shown in Table 3. They indicate RMSE errors
471 ranging from 2.42 mm in the Midwest to 22.2 mm in the Southwest, with a CONUS wide
472 RMSE error of 16.1 mm.

473 An additional indicator that highlights how R distribution has changed is the trend in
474 annual variance of daily R is shown in Figure 15a. The results are consistent with the annual
475 precipitation extreme indicators shown in Figures 5a, b, c and d. Overall, results indicate
476 increasing variance in annual runoff in the eastern half of the U.S, except along the southern
477 Appalachian Mountains. Decreasing trends are predominant in the western states, with
478 mixed trends for the Rocky Mountain region. The results are generally consistent with the
479 precipitation variance plot shown in Figure 5c.

480 Two other indicators related to extreme runoff are the maximum and minimum runoff
481 events in a year. Figures 15b and c depict trends in annual 7-day low and 3-day high total
482 runoff, respectively (USEPA, 2016). Trends in annual low flows are not significant at $p < 0.1$
483 in much of the US. Positive trends are evident along the East coast, while negative trends are
484 observed in Florida and along the Gulf Coast. The lack of any significant trend in the West
485 may be associated with the low end constraint of zero discharge. Increased trends in annual
486 3-day high flows, however, are significant across much of the Great Plains, upper Midwest,
487 and in the East, except for the Appalachians. Results indicate positive trends in annual low
488 and high flows along the East Coast, except for Florida, where low flows are decreasing and
489 high flows are increasing. The NCA-LDAS trend patterns demonstrate consistency with
490 those previously reported by Peterson et al., (2013) and Georgakakos et al. (2014).

491 ***k. Reference Period Using Thiel-Sen Estimator***

492 The above results were presented in terms of absolute units that, while useful for
493 scientific analyses, may be less apparent for certain users. To more readily show the trend
494 over the period of analysis, absolute changes are often compared to an earlier reference
495 period (Melillo et al., 2014). Here the intercept of the Thiel-Sen estimator (Sen, 1968) is
496 employed that avoids having to decide which reference period is most appropriate. The
497 Thiel-Sen estimator (Sen, 1968) is based on a least-squares fit over the median that
498 minimizes the impact of outliers. Use of the intercept as the reference database effectively
499 bases the trend on the entire 36-year period, and avoids having to choose an arbitrary single
500 year or average number of years that might be anomalous. It further averts having to
501 compare to years prior to 1979 that are outside the simulation period.

502 Figures 16a and 16b show two examples, the percent change in mean annual

503 precipitation and latent heat flux over NCA-LDAS's entire 36-year satellite period,
504 respectively. These are similar to Figures 4b and 8a, except that each grid cell has been
505 normalized by the Theil-Sen intercept and multiplied by 100 to express as a percent. Only
506 significant trends are reported. The images more clearly highlight the change over the 1980-
507 2015 satellite era. For instance, annual P in the Southwest has decreased from 0.9 to 1.2
508 %/yr compared to the median trend of that region, while the Upper Great Plains have
509 experienced an increase in P of about that same magnitude. Portions of the Northeast and
510 Midwest have experienced an increase in P of about 0.6 to 0.9 %/yr. Similarly, the Southwest
511 has experienced a decrease in ET of 0.9 to 1.2 %/yr, while the eastern half of the U.S. shows
512 increases in ET throughout, ranging up to 0.6 %/yr along the eastern states, and up to 0.9
513 %/yr percent in the Upper Great Plains, Midwest and South.

514 **4. Discussion**

515 *a) Assessment of NCA-LDAS Trends*

516 Overall, the NCA-LDAS mean annual hydrology trends demonstrate good consistency
517 between the forcing variables and other land surface components. For instance, increasing
518 trends in P and heavy precipitation in the Northern Great Plains, Midwest, and Northeast, are
519 reflected in increased trends in R and flooding in the Upper Missouri, and Ohio Rivers, and
520 major northeast rivers (E.g. Connecticut, Hudson, Susquehanna), respectively, consistent
521 with Peterson et al. (2013). Large positive trends in Rnet throughout the eastern US and
522 negative trends throughout the Southwest, are largely reflected by corresponding trends in
523 ET and EF in those same respective regions. Decreasing P further decreases ET in the
524 moisture limited Southwest. The decreasing trend in SCD throughout the US is impacted by

525 severe decreasing trends in P in the Southwest and increasing T and Rnet in the East.

526 Table 3 summarizes the NCA-LDAS RMSE for ET, SCD and R for each NCA region.
527 For instance, the RMSE for mean annual ET trend ranged from a low of 0.05 W/m²/yr in the
528 Northeast to a high of 0.21 W/m²/yr in the Midwest. This range is in fact about the same
529 magnitude as the domain-wide ET trend from (Figure 8a) that ranged +/- 0.05 to 0.25
530 W/m²/yr and yields an overall 36-year change of +/- 1.8 to 9.0 W/m². These two measures
531 arise from two separate sources; RMSE a comparison with independent data, and Mann-
532 Kendall trend from an analysis of time series variability without comparison to ground truth.
533 Similarly, the NCA-LDAS mean annual SCD trend RMSE ranged from a low of 1.15 days/yr
534 in the Northeast to a high of 3.85 days/yr in the Great Plains. The domain wide SCD trend
535 range of +/- 0.4 to 2.0 days/yr shown in Figure 10a yields an overall 36-year change of +/-
536 14.4 to 72.0 days. For R, the RMSE was about 3 mm/yr for the Northeast, Southeast and
537 Midwest. For these regions, the R trends range from 3 to 12 mm/yr or 108 to 432 mm over
538 36 years. For the Great Plains and Southwest regions, a high RMSE of 12.3 to 22.0 mm is
539 observed.

540 At the regional level, the ET trends from NCA-LDAS and FLUXNET showed good
541 agreement over the overlapping 1983-2008 period. One major exception was the upper
542 Midwest states of Illinois, Wisconsin, Iowa and Minnesota, where Figures 8a and b exhibited
543 contrasting trends for NCA-LDAS and FLUXNET, respectively. While many factors
544 contribute to ET, the difference is most likely due to NCA-LDAS's use of monthly
545 climatological vegetation parameters, including greenness fraction, that preclude landcover
546 change trends. Recent analyses of the AVHRR based Normalized Difference Vegetation
547 Index (NDVI) by Scheftic et al. (2014) for 1982-2008 show a positive trend in duration of

548 growing season throughout much of the US, except in the Midwest Corn Belt that exhibits a
549 negative trend. They attribute the decreasing growing season to the expansion of agriculture
550 that has a shorter growing period compared to natural vegetation.

551 The SCD trends compared favorably in direction with Harpold's analyses in 10 of 13
552 basins of the intermountain west region as shown in Figure 11. These basins represent about
553 half of the entire U.S. Rocky Mountains. Despite the excellent statistics, the NCA-LDAS
554 trends were about twice as large as Harpold's trends. The mean annual nationwide average
555 of 1.2 days/yr was also as high. Possible reasons for this are: inaccurate calibration of the
556 0.125° grid cell values over complex terrain; diminished satellite sensitivity at high snow
557 depth, due to microwave sensor saturation (Luoju et al., 2016); and elevation bias of the
558 SNOTEL stations. There also may be underestimation of the in-situ analysis due to unequal
559 distribution of the station locations, most of which are in non-mountainous areas.

560 R trend errors are reasonable except in the Great Plains and Southwest. This is
561 attributed to the large impact of the NCA-LDAS irrigation scheme which occurs without any
562 consideration of irrigation source, be it groundwater or streamflow. As implemented, NCA-
563 LDAS adds substantial "forcing", unaccounted in the modeled water balance. For example,
564 NCA-LDAS irrigation simulation in several states shown in Figure 14, such as California's
565 Central Valley (~300 mm/yr), Nebraska (100 mm/yr), and northwest Texas (100 mm/yr),
566 represent 50%, 17% and 14% of average annual P, respectively. California, whose irrigation
567 withdrawals are greater than all other Southwest NCA regions combined, takes about one-
568 third of its supply from groundwater (Maupin et al., 2014). In the Great Plains, the
569 groundwater withdrawals in Kansas, Nebraska, and Texas are about 80%, 60%, and 31%,
570 respectively of total irrigation. For other areas such as Texas that rely also on surface water

571 withdrawals from lakes and rivers, streamflow is greatly reduced.

572 Further, the current analysis illustrates that trends computed over a shorter record tend to
573 produce less significant coverage. This is particularly evident in the ET analyses in Figures
574 8a and 8b where the period of analyses reduced from 36 to 24 years, the SCD analyses in
575 Figures 10a and b where the period of analysis reduced from 36 to 17 years, and in the SWE
576 analyses in Figures 12a and b, where the period of analysis changed from 36 to 12 years.

577 ***b) Effect of Multivariate Assimilation on RMSE and Trend Detection***

578 The effect of NCA-LDAS data assimilation is examined two ways. First, a comparison
579 is made between the RMSE evaluations of the NCA-LDAS for ET, SCD, and R against
580 independent data, to OL evaluations using the same approach, as shown in Table 3. For ET,
581 when compared against independent FLUXNET-MTE data, NCA-LDAS showed mixed
582 results. NCA-LDAS RMSE for ET, when compared to OL, showed only slight improvement
583 in the Northwest and Southwest; no impact in the Northeast and Midwest: and slight
584 degradations for Great Plains and Southeast. NCA-LDAS also exhibited only very slight
585 improvement in CONUS-wide (RMSE from 0.17 to 0.16 W/m²/yr). NCA-LDAS SCD
586 trends provided a more robust result. When evaluated against CMC data, NCA-LDAS
587 RMSE demonstrated improvement in 3 of 4 reporting regions. For CONUS, NCA-LDAS
588 reduced RMSE from 3.13 to 2.89 days/yr. Comparison was not possible for the Southeast
589 and Midwest due to insufficient significant CMC record. For streamflow the NCA-LDAS
590 RMSE degraded in 4 of 5 regions. These degradations were greatest in the Great Plains and
591 Southwest where the irrigation scheme (Kumar et al., 2018; Ozdogan et al., 2010) was
592 applied the most, as shown in Figure 14, affecting the natural water balance.

593 Second, the impact of multivariate assimilation was evaluated with respect to “trend

594 detection” based on the change in significant trend area between NCA-LDAS and OL.
595 Table 4 indicates that trend detection slightly improved for ET in 4 of 6 NCA regions. For
596 SCD, NCA-LDAS had a large effect as significant area increased in all areas ranging from 9
597 to 13%. For R, trend detection was unaltered. CONUS-wide, the NCA-LDAS-OL
598 significant areas for ET, SCD and R increased by 2%, 11% and 0%, respectively. While not
599 indicating an improvement in trend accuracy, the positive changes imply a decrease in
600 uncertainty for those grid cells, and arguably a measure of the impact of data assimilation.

601 While the overall effect of satellite assimilation is small, several factors contribute to the
602 impact of NCA-LDAS on model trends and improved significant area. First, land surface
603 energy and water balance processes constitute an integrated non-linear system. Although
604 bias is removed from the two assimilated state variables (satellite SM and SD), it is still
605 theoretically possible that small differences can arise between DA and OL modeled land
606 variables due to their non-linear linkages with the above two state variables, leading to small
607 differences between the OL and DA trends. Second, since the model forcing time series (P,
608 incoming radiation, wind speed, atmospheric water vapor deficits) as well as the prescribed
609 vegetation and soil type parameters are not altered, any difference between the original and
610 corrected states during assimilation will have a corresponding effect on other processes such
611 as ET, R, infiltration, that are link to those states. For instance, SM is assimilated only at the
612 surface soil layer (top 5 cm), but its impact is propagated by infiltration physics into the
613 deeper subsurface soil layers. Also, ET is a non-linear function not only of root zone soil
614 moisture, but also the model forcings that affect moisture transport through the root zone. At
615 the same time, non-linear R generation is occurring related to SM and snowmelt. That is, a
616 unit of rainfall on dry soil may provide no R, while the same amount rain or snowmelt on

617 saturated soil will completely run off. Other contributing factors include the influence of the
618 snow cover area satellite (SCA) constraint within the DA scheme can also impact on trend
619 detection. Another factor is that the SD observations are assimilated only if the Interactive
620 Multisensor Snow and Ice Mapping System (IMS) and the MODIS SCA observations both
621 indicate non-zero snow values. Consequently, the non-linear relationship with modeled
622 flux and store variables can theoretically induce some impact of DA on trends. Finally, since
623 data assimilation systems including EnKF are designed to correct the random error in the
624 model background, while not altering the trend direction, the reduced variance in the time
625 series can promote an improvement in trend “detection” as manifested in the increased
626 significant area shown in Table 4 at $p < 0.1$ used in this study. For NCA-LDAS, this can be
627 attributed to both the theoretical reduction in random error associated with the snow depth
628 bias reduction within EnKF, as well as the implementation of the IMS/MODIS snow cover
629 detection algorithm. Finally, unlike the OL, NCA-LDAS employs a demand-driven,
630 sprinkler irrigation scheme that affects soil moisture content (Ozdogan et al; 2010).
631 Although not DA per se, the implementation in NCA-LDAS affects ET and R which can
632 further lead to divergence of the trend as the irrigation scheme is not at all included in the
633 OL.

634 . 5. Conclusions

635 There is pressing need to develop consistent trend indicators to facilitate scientific
636 understanding of national climate change. Land reanalysis has evolved as an effective tool to
637 achieve this goal, by merging disparate datasets of multiscale, multisensor, in situ and
638 satellite data within a data assimilation modeling environment. NCA-LDAS has shown high
639 skill when compared to other land surface models, offering a compelling database for

640 constructing regional-scale national hydrologic trends.

641 Analyses of annual mean hydrologic trends using NCA-LDAS demonstrate the
642 interrelationship between regional gradients in forcing trends, and trends in other land energy
643 and water stores and fluxes. Mean annual precipitation trends range from +3 to +9 mm/yr in
644 the Upper Great Plains and Northeast to -1 to -9 in the West and South; net radiation flux
645 trends range from +0.05 to +0.20 W/m²/yr in the East to -0.05 to -0.20 in the West; U.S.-
646 wide temperature trends average about +0.03K/yr.

647 Trends in the response water balance components, including annual mean soil moisture,
648 snow cover, latent and sensible heat fluxes and runoff are consistent with forcings. For
649 instance, increasing trends in P and heavy precipitation in the Northern Great Plains,
650 Midwest, and Northeast, are reflected, respectively, in increased trends in R in the Upper
651 Missouri and Ohio Rivers, as well as major northeast rivers, consistent with previous reports.
652 Large positive trends in Rnet and P throughout the eastern US and negative trends throughout
653 the Southwest, are largely reflected by corresponding trends in ET, and an increasing
654 evaporative fraction trend from West to East. The decreasing trend in SCD throughout the
655 US is impacted by severe decreasing trends in P in the Southwest, increasing Rnet in the
656 East, and elevated T throughout the US.

657 Evaluation of NCA-LDAS trends compared to independent data at the regional scale
658 indicates mixed results. The RMSE of CONUS-wide trends in number of snow cover days
659 improved from 3.13 to 2.89 days/yr while trend detection increased 11%; Trends in latent
660 heat flux were hardly affected, RMSE decreasing only 0.17 to 0.16 W/m²/yr, while trend
661 detection increased 2%; NCA-LDAS runoff trends degraded significantly from 2.6 to 16.1
662 mm/yr while trend detection was unaffected.

663 The implication for the current analyses is that the West and Southwest are trending to
664 increasingly drier conditions under a climatically moisture-limited system, while the East and
665 North behave as energy-limited systems, trending toward more temperate conditions.
666 Regions of sparse significant forcing trends often result in reduced significant trends in other
667 hydrologic components, as evidenced by the central Great Plains.

668 At the regional level, the ET trends from NCA-LDAS and FLUXNET demonstrated
669 good agreement for the overlapping 1983-2008 period. One major exception was the upper
670 Midwest states where NCA-LDAS's use of monthly climatological vegetation parameters for
671 this area are not consistent with the decreasing growing season due to the expansion of
672 agriculture.

673 The SCD trends compared favorably in direction with Harpold's analyses using in situ
674 data in 10 of the 13 basins of the intermountain west region as shown in Figure 11. These
675 basins represent about half of the entire U.S. Intermountain West. Despite the excellent
676 statistics, the NCA-LDAS trends were about twice as large as Harpold's trends while the
677 mean annual nationwide average of 1.2 days/yr was also high. Possible reasons for this may
678 be inaccurate calibration of the 0.125° grid cells over this complex terrain; diminished
679 satellite sensitivity at high snow depth, and non-representative distribution of the station
680 locations, most of which appear in non-mountainous areas. R trend errors are reasonable
681 except in the Great Plains and Southwest where the impact of NCA-LDAS irrigation is high.
682 As currently implemented, NCA-LDAS adds substantial "forcing", unaccounted in the
683 modeled water balance that needs to be addressed in future NCA-LDAS versions.

684 Precipitation station density analysis showed that satellite data assimilation improves
685 skill for soil moisture, streamflow and snow depth when precipitation station density is low,

686 while providing mixed results for higher precipitation station densities. This suggests that
687 there are possible limits to the effectiveness of data assimilation in regions with dense gage
688 networks.

689 Use of the Theil-Sen Estimator as a reference level offers an effective normalizing
690 method for comparing trends over a given period, and avoids having to choose an arbitrary
691 single year or average number of years that might be anomalous. For satellite-based
692 reanalysis, it further averts having to compare to databases that are outside the simulation
693 period.

694 The overall results demonstrate NCA-LDAS's capability as an effective enabling tool
695 for merging diverse satellite data products that can quantify physically consistent terrestrial
696 climate trends for scientific understanding and decision support. Data products are produced
697 not only for the principal hydrology components, but for a total of 42 variables as shown in
698 Table 5, and available for formulation of other indicators.

699 NCA-LDAS's long-term goal is to optimally combine the full suite of past and future
700 Earth observations of all relevant land EDRs. Future work will include observations
701 associated with terrestrial water storage, vegetation and altimetry. At the same time, the
702 results herein implicitly illustrate that employing the highest quality forcing dataset is still of
703 paramount importance to producing good hydrologic indicators. This notion provides
704 impetus for improving capability both in the accuracy and resolution of current satellite state
705 observations, and also for expanding space observations to include other fluxes such as
706 surface winds, H and ET.

707

708 ***Data Archive***

709 Details of NCA-LDAS documentation, data products, and visualization tools, several access
710 methods and other information are available on the NCA-LDAS Data Product Landing Page
711 or; http://disc.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/datacollection/NCALDAS_NOAH0125_D_001.html.

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1049 **Tables**

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Table 1. Basic characteristics of NCA-LDAS

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| | |
|------------------------|--|
| Latitude extent | 25°N to 53°N |
| Longitude extent | -125° to -67° |
| Spatial resolution | 1/8 th degree |
| Temporal resolution | Daily |
| Time step | 15 min |
| Dimension | 224 (lat) x 464 (lon) |
| Grid box center points | Lower left: 25.0626°N, -124.9375°E Upper right: 52.9375°N, -67.0625°E |
| Land surface model | Noah Version 3.3 |
| Format | NetCDF-4 |
| Forcing data | NLDAS Phase-2 |

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Table 2. Satellite datasets that are assimilated in NCA-LDAS

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| Name | Variable / Data | Platform(s) | Years |
|---------------|------------------------|--------------------|--------------|
| ESA CCI | Surface soil moisture | Various | 1979-2002 |
| LPRM (AMSR-E) | Surface soil moisture | Aqua | 2002-2011 |
| SMOPS (ASCAT) | Surface soil moisture | Metop-A/B | 2007-2015 |
| SMOPS (SMOS) | Surface soil moisture | SMOS | 2010-2015 |
| SMAP (NSIDC) | Surface soil moisture | SMAP | 2015 |
| SMM/I | Snow depth | Various | 1987-2002 |
| AMSR-E | Snow depth | Aqua | 2002-2011 |
| AMSR2 | Snow depth | GCOM-W1 | 2012-2015 |
| IMS | Snow-covered area | Various | 1997-2015 |
| MODIS | Snow-covered area | Terra | 2000-2015 |
| MODIS | Irrigated area | Terra | 1979-2015 |

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Table 3. RMSE comparison of NCA-LDAS (DA) and Open Loop (OL), each evaluated against independent data (FLUXNET-MTE for ET; CMC for SCD; HUC8 for runoff)

| Region | ET (W/m²/yr) | SCD (days/yr) | Runoff (mm/yr) |
|---------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|
| <i>Northeast</i> | | | |
| OL | 0.05 | 1.59 | 2.11 |
| DA | 0.05 | 1.15 | 2.70 |
| <i>Southeast</i> | | | |
| OL | 0.125 | - | 3.36 |
| DA | 0.14 | - | 3.17 |
| <i>Midwest</i> | | | |
| OL | 0.21 | - | 1.72 |
| DA | 0.21 | - | 2.42 |
| <i>Great Plains</i> | | | |
| OL | 0.15 | 3.71 | 2.20 |
| DA | 0.16 | 3.85 | 12.33 |
| <i>Northwest</i> | | | |
| OL | 0.15 | 2.28 | 7.55 |
| DA | 0.11 | 2.04 | 9.00 |
| <i>Southwest</i> | | | |
| OL | 0.20 | 4.05 | 2.243 |
| DA | 0.15 | 3.49 | 22.184 |
| <i>CONUS</i> | | | |
| OL | 0.17 | 3.13 | 2.55 |
| DA | 0.16 | 2.89 | 16.05 |

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Table 4. Comparison of percent significant area ($p < 0.1$) of trends in ET, SCD and Runoff for NCA-LDAS (DA) and Open Loop (OL), and their differences (DA-OL)

| NCA Region | | ET | SCD | Runoff |
|---------------------|--------------|-----------|------------|---------------|
| <i>Northeast</i> | <i>OL</i> | 88 | 76 | 34 |
| | <i>DA</i> | 88 | 88 | 40 |
| | <i>DA-OL</i> | 0 | 12 | 6 |
| <i>Southeast</i> | <i>OL</i> | 76 | 59 | 8 |
| | <i>DA</i> | 78 | 72 | 8 |
| | <i>DA-OL</i> | 2 | 13 | 0 |
| <i>Midwest</i> | <i>OL</i> | 77 | 78 | 16 |
| | <i>DA</i> | 78 | 90 | 16 |
| | <i>DA-OL</i> | 1 | 12 | 0 |
| <i>Great Plains</i> | <i>OL</i> | 38 | 58 | 35 |
| | <i>DA</i> | 35 | 67 | 32 |
| | <i>DA-OL</i> | -3 | 9 | -3 |
| <i>Northwest</i> | <i>OL</i> | 42 | 61 | 23 |
| | <i>DA</i> | 47 | 72 | 23 |
| | <i>DA-OL</i> | 5 | 11 | 0 |
| <i>Southwest</i> | <i>OL</i> | 58 | 71 | 43 |
| | <i>DA</i> | 66 | 84 | 44 |
| | <i>DA-OL</i> | 8 | 13 | 1 |
| <i>CONUS</i> | <i>OL</i> | 58 | 66 | 28 |
| | <i>DA</i> | 60 | 77 | 28 |
| | <i>DA-OL</i> | 2 | 11 | 0 |

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Table 5. NCA-LDAS variables available on GES-DISC.

| Short Name | Long Name | Unit |
|--------------------|-----------------------------------|--------------------|
| Swnet | Net shortwave radiation flux | W m-2 |
| Lwnet | Net longwave radiation flux | W m-2 |
| Qle | Latent heat net flux | W m-2 |
| Qh | Sensible heat net flux | W m-2 |
| Qg | Heat flux | W m-2 |
| Snowf | Snow precipitation rate | kg m-2 s-1 |
| Rainf | Rain precipitation rate | kg m-2 s-1 |
| Evap | Evapotranspiration | kg m-2 s-1 |
| Qs | Storm surface runoff | kg m-2 s-1 |
| Qsb | Baseflow-groundwater runoff | kg m-2 s-1 |
| Qsm | Snow melt | kg m-2 s-1 |
| RadT | Average radiative temperature | K |
| SWE | Snow depth water equivalent | kg m-2 |
| SnowDepth | Snow depth | m |
| SnowFrac | Snow covered fraction | fraction |
| SoilMoist0_10cm | Soil moisture (0 - 10 cm) | m ³ m-3 |
| SoilMoist10_40cm | Soil moisture (10 - 40 cm) | m ³ m-3 |
| SoilMoist40_100cm | Soil moisture (40 - 100 cm) | m ³ m-3 |
| SoilMoist100_200cm | Soil moisture (100 - 200 cm) | m ³ m-3 |
| SoilTemp0_10cm | Soil temperature (0 -10 cm) | K |
| SoilTemp10_40cm | Soil temperature (10 - 40 cm) | K |
| SoilTemp40_100cm | Soil temperature (40 - 100 cm) | K |
| SoilTemp100_200cm | Soil temperature (100 -200 cm) | K |
| PotEvap | Potential evaporation rate | kg m-2 s-1 |
| ECanop | Canopy water evaporation rate | kg m-2 s-1 |
| TVeg | Transpiration rate | kg m-2 s-1 |
| ESoil | Direct evaporation from bare soil | kg m-2 s-1 |
| SubSnow | Snow sublimation rate | kg m-2 s-1 |
| CanopInt | Plant canopy surface water | kg m-2 |
| Streamflow | Streamflow | m ³ s-1 |
| FloodedFrac | Flooded fraction | fraction |
| FloodedArea | Flooded area | m ² |
| IrrigatedWater | Irrigated water rate | kg m-2 s-1 |
| Wind_f | Wind speed | m s-1 |
| Rainf_f | Total precipitation rate | kg m-2 s-1 |
| Tair_f | Temperature | K |
| Tair_f_min | Daily minimum temperature | K |
| Tair_f_max | Daily maximum temperature | K |
| Qair_f | Specific humidity | kg kg-1 |
| Psurf_f | Pressure | Pa |
| SWdown_f | Downward shortwave radiation | W m-2 |
| LWdown_f | Downward longwave radiation flux | W m-2 |

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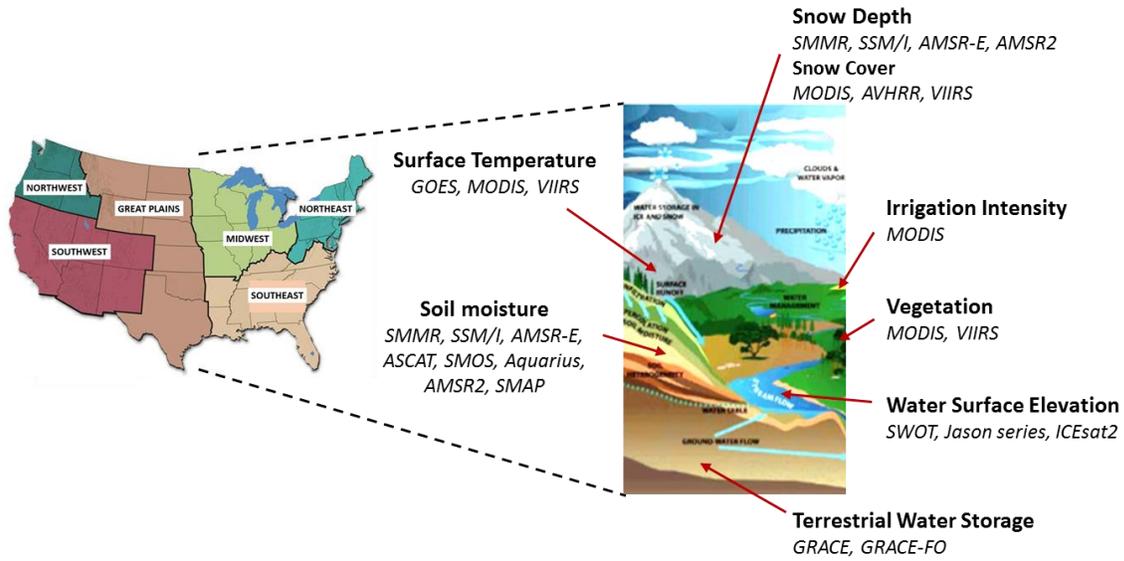
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| 1155 | <i>flux, over the period 1980-2015, expressed with respect to intercept of the Theil-Sen</i> | |
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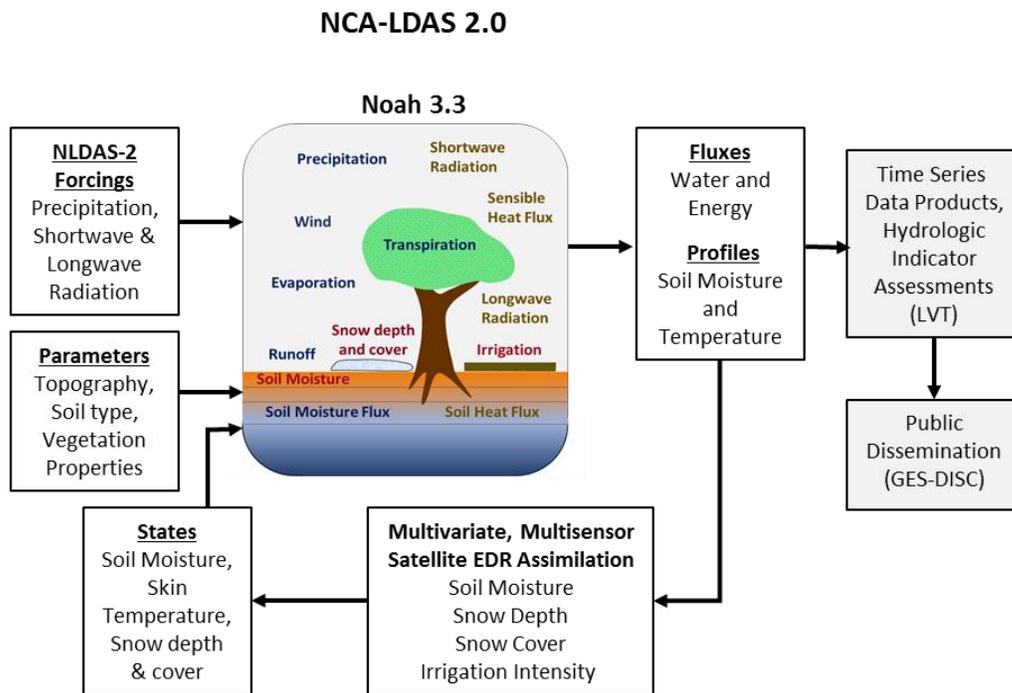
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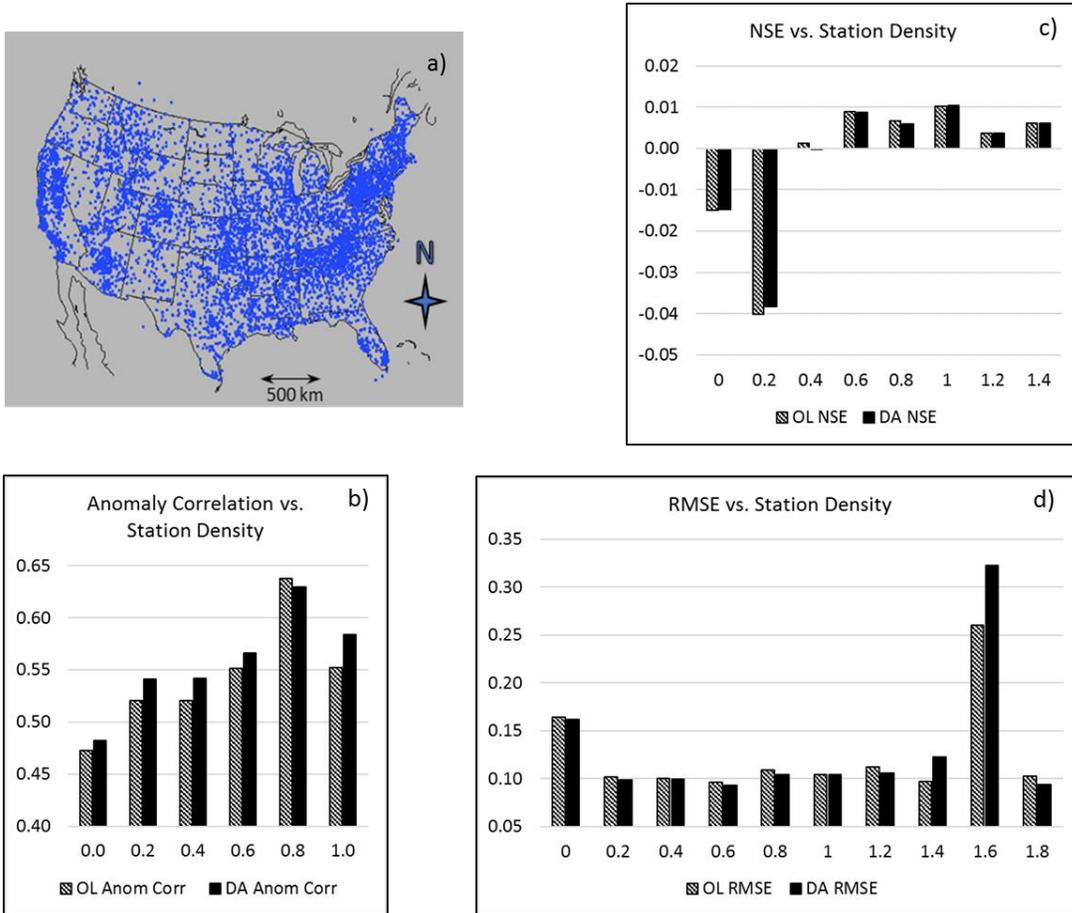
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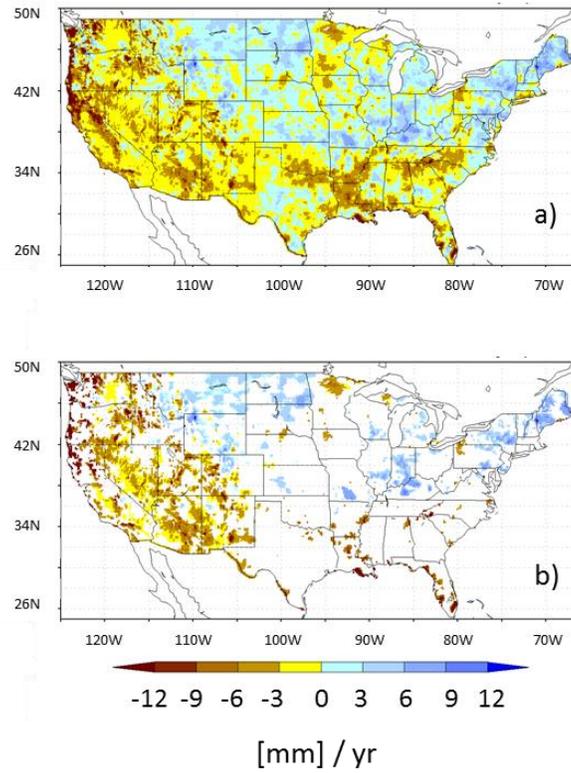
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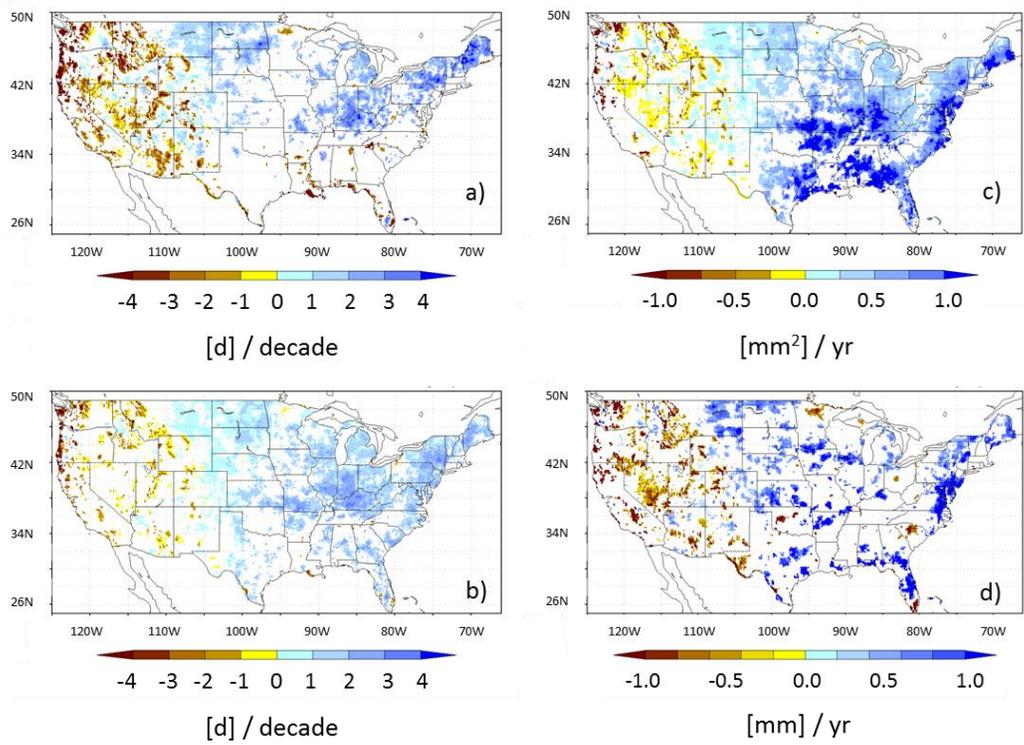
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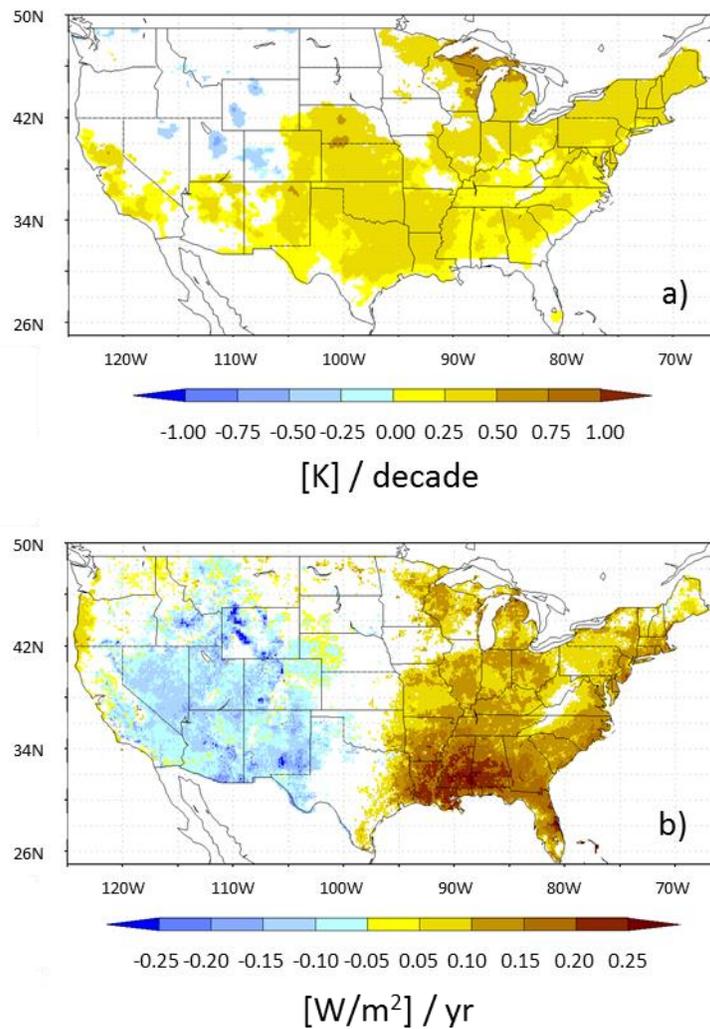
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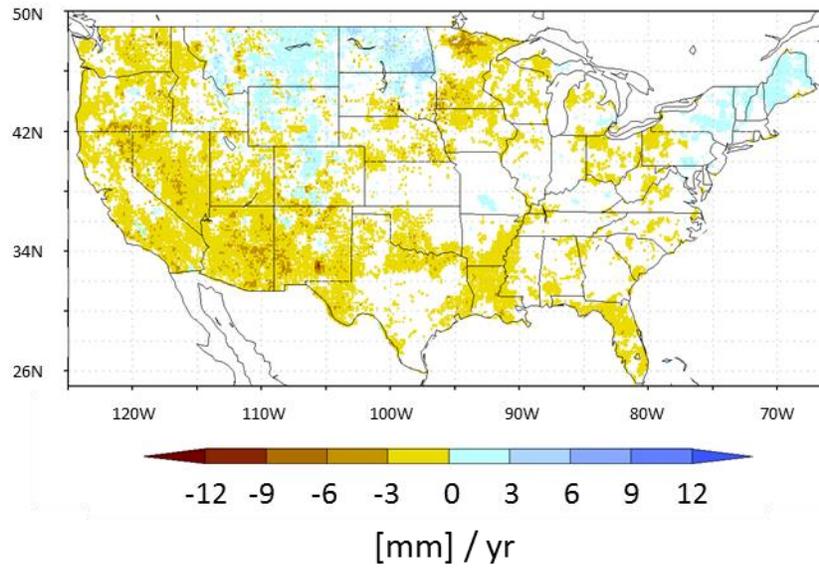
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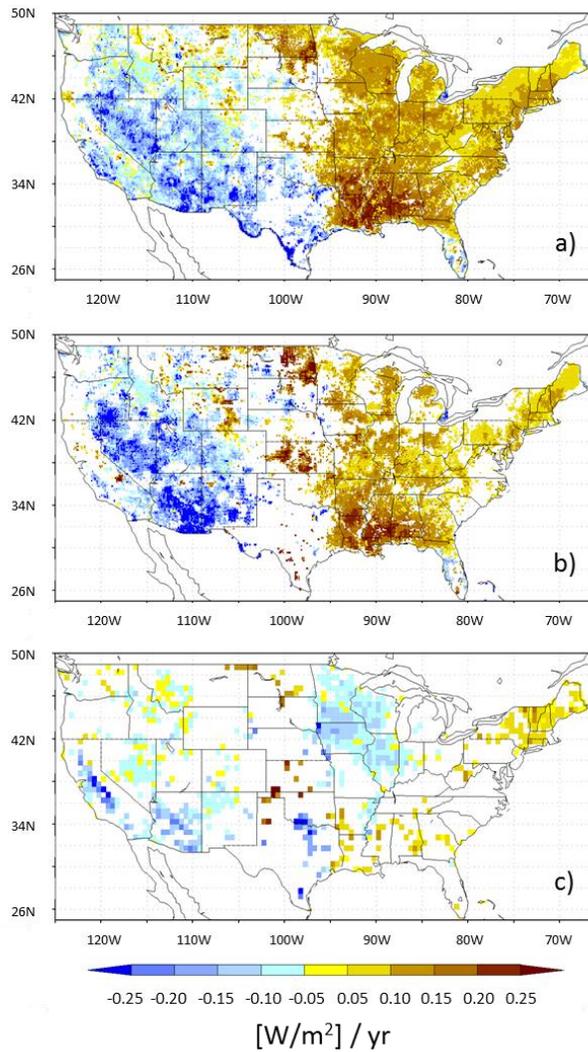
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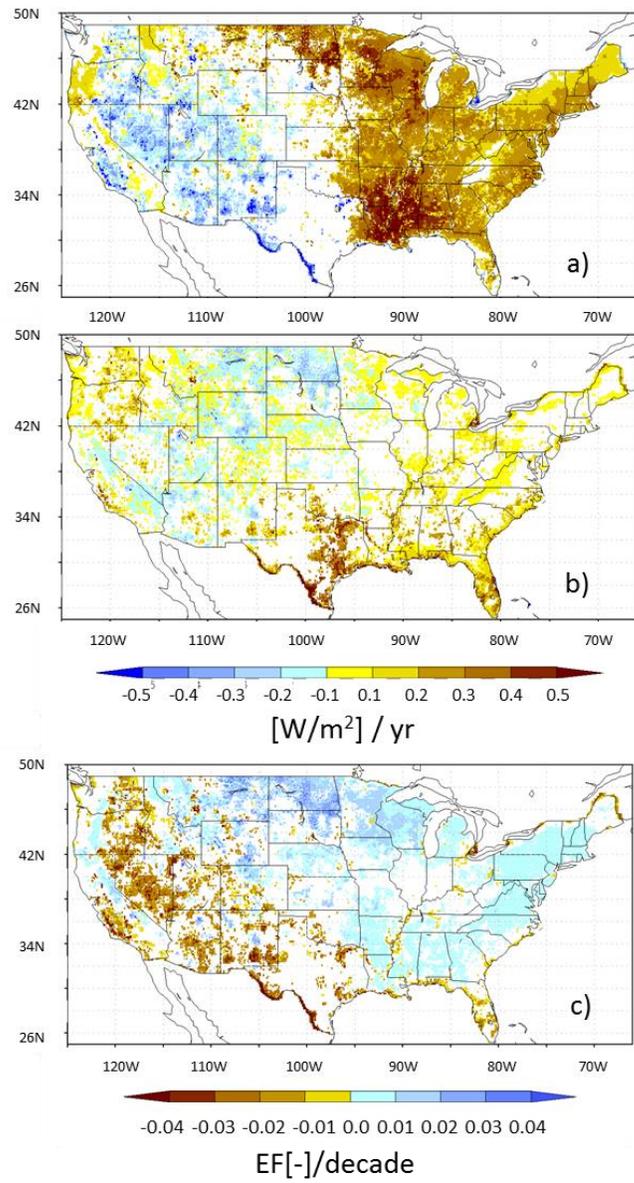
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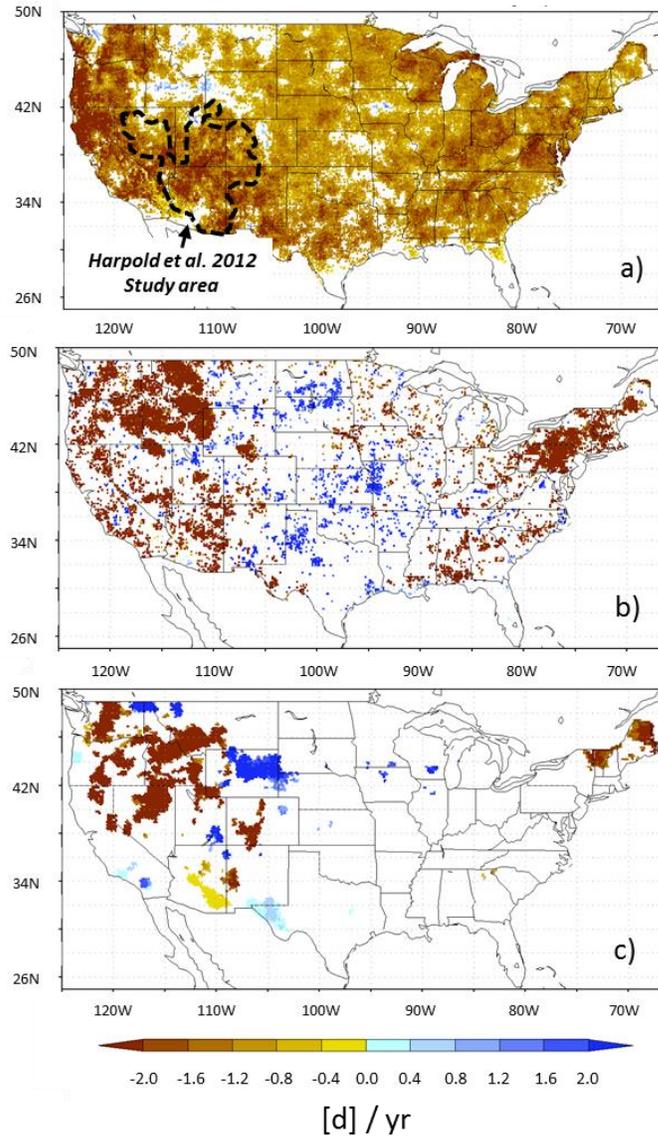
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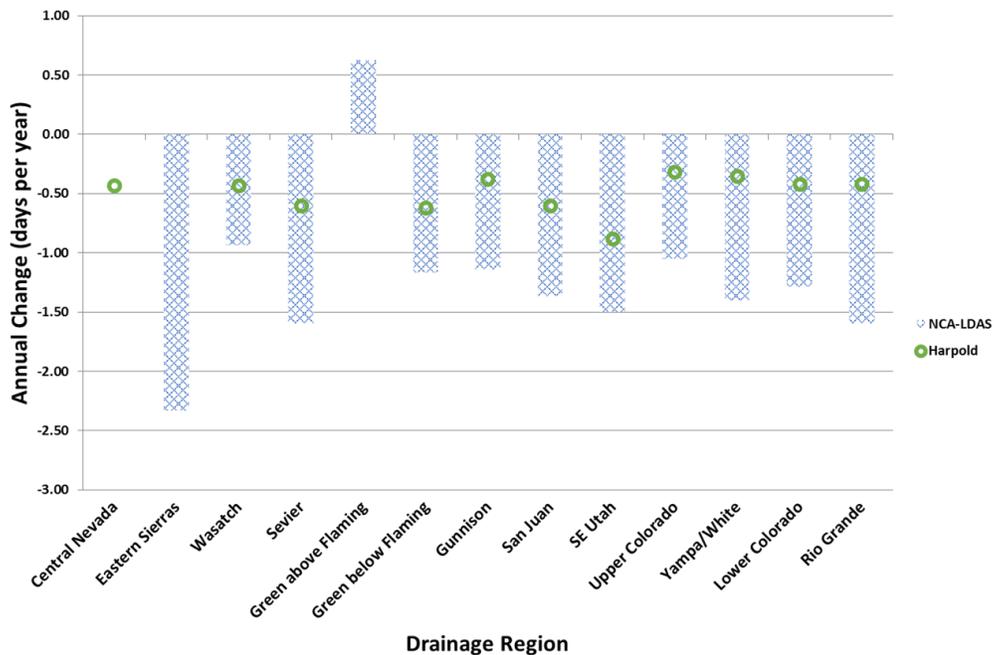
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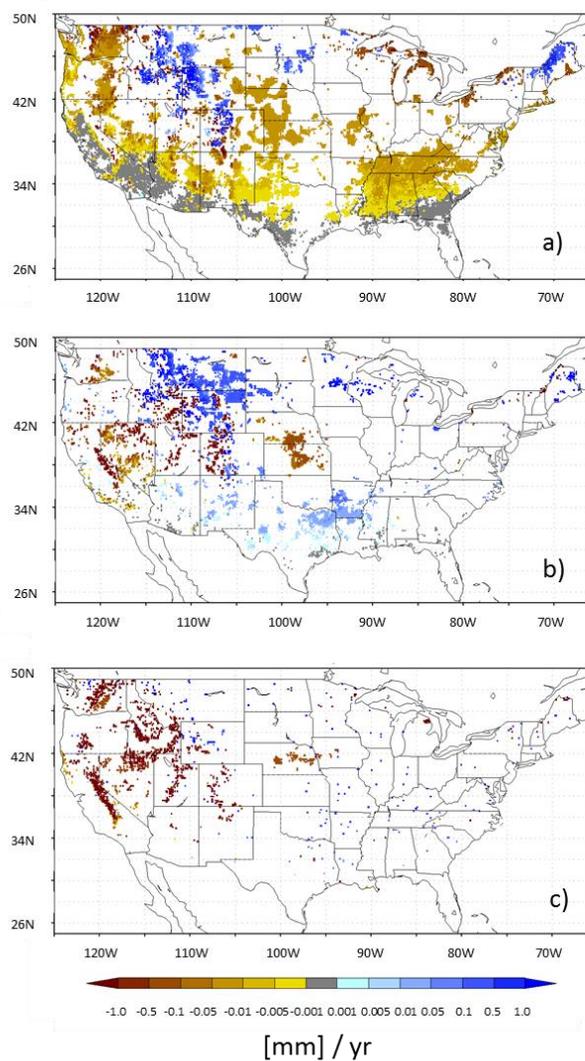
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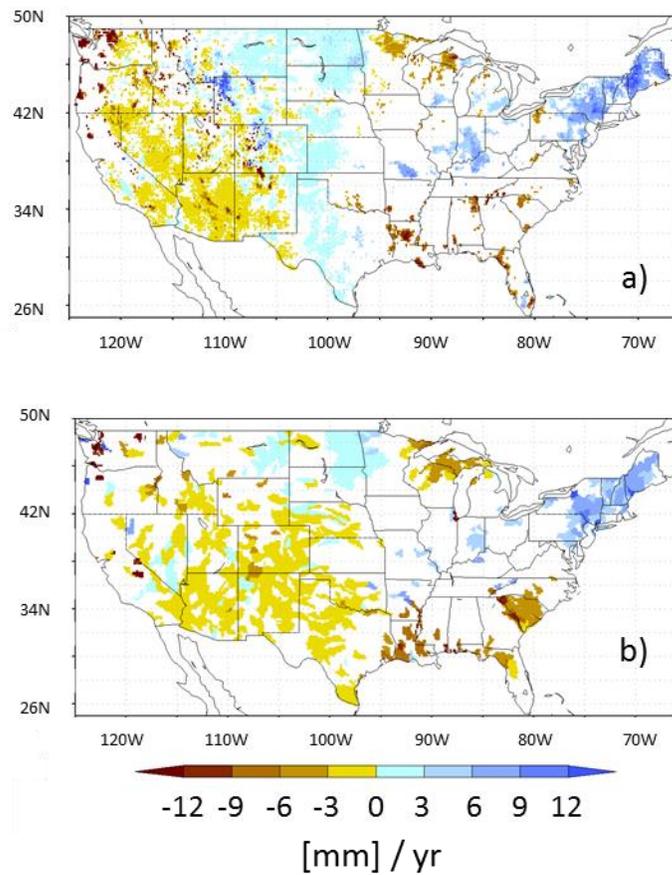
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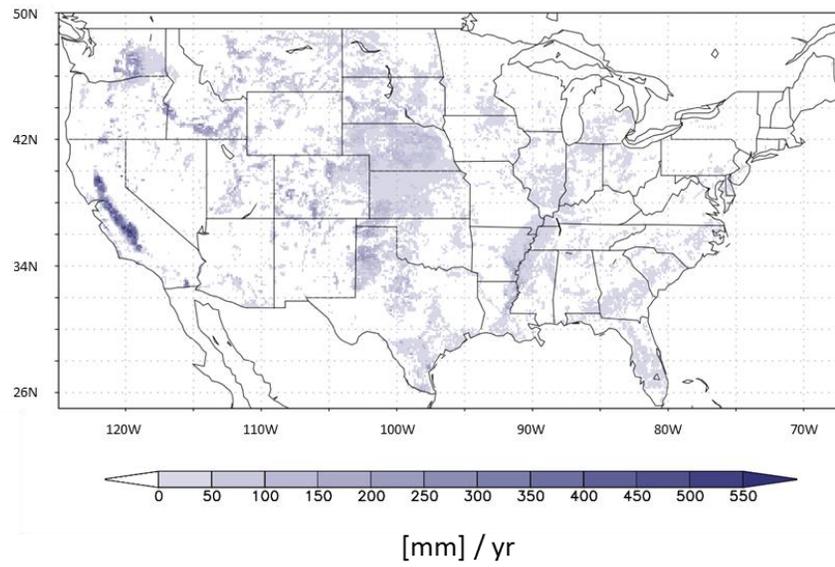
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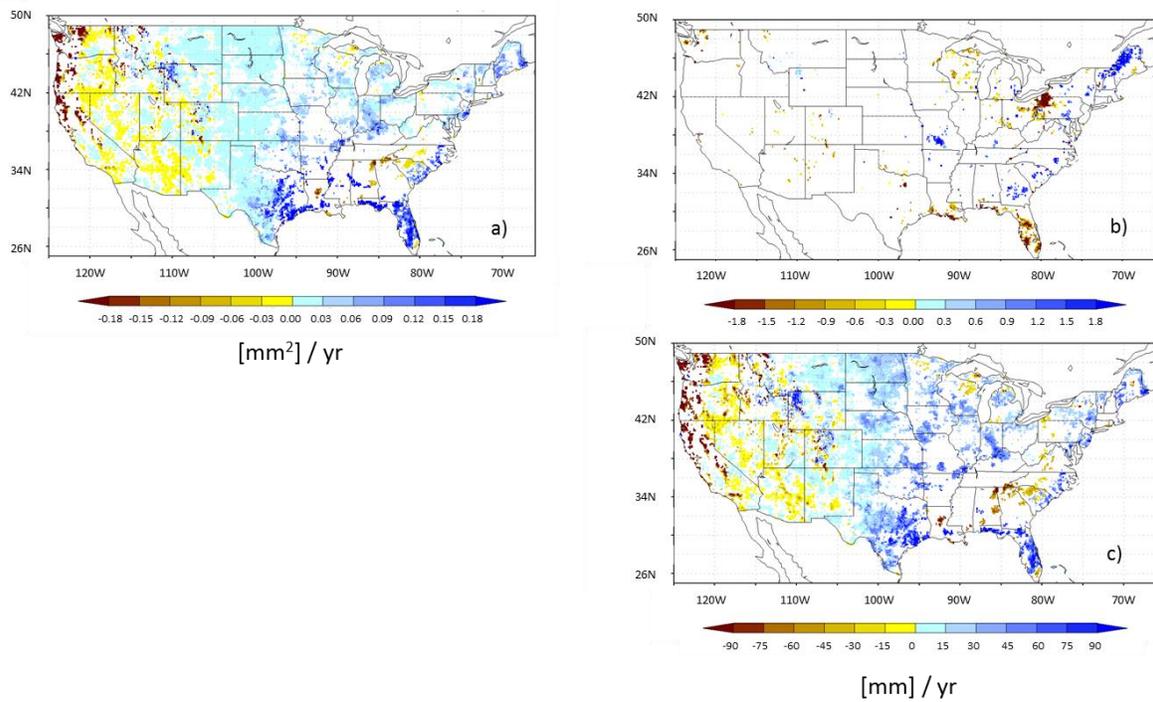
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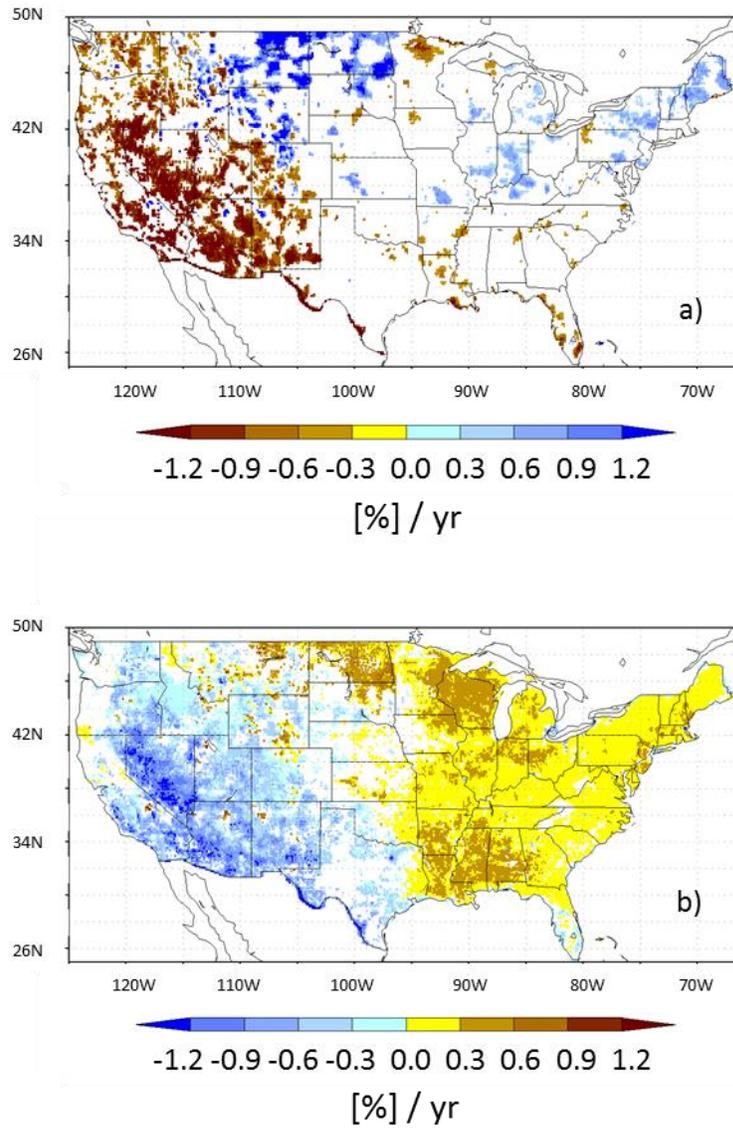


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