

## **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 ( $\Delta SM$ ) on clouds and precipitation ( $\Delta P$ ) 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 ( $\theta$ ) 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.  $\theta$  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<sub>h</sub>), latent (Q<sub>le</sub>), and soil (Q<sub>g</sub>) 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  $25.7 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  ( $10.5 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  on average) in  $Q_{le}$ , and up  
484 to  $45.3 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  ( $19.1 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  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<sup>-1</sup> 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  $\beta_{sfc}$  ( $=Q_{hsfc}/Q_{le_{sfc}}$ ) 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  $\beta_{sfc}$ , 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.  $\beta_{sfc}$  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](http://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.  $\beta_{sfc}$  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  $\beta_{\text{sfc}}$  is vastly  
616 underestimated while CPL remains close to the DEF results.

617 That SCP doesn't match or improve B<sub>sfc</sub> 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<sub>le</sub>. The calibration works well overall, but for extreme conditions like on  
620 19 July the DEF simulation just so happens to produce better  $\beta_{\text{sfc}}$  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  $\beta_{\text{sfc}}$  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  $\beta_{\text{sfc}}$  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 ( $\sim 5-10 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ ) 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<sup>-2</sup>. 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  $\beta_{\text{sfc}}$  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  $\beta_{\text{sfc}}$  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  $Q_{\text{le}}$  and  $Q_{\text{h}}$  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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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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<b>Noah Parameter</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>
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.

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

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

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

**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).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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



	<b>DEF</b>	<b>C06</b>	<b>C07</b>	<b>C08</b>	<b>C678</b>	<b>LeMone et al. (2008)</b>	<b>Trier et al. (2011)</b>
<b>FXEXP</b>	2	1.06	1.34	0.969	1.19	-	-
<b>CZIL</b>	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).