Heterogeneity in warm-season land-atmosphere coupling over the U.S. Southern Great Plains *Qi Tang¹*, Shaocheng Xie¹, Yunyan Zhang¹, Thomas J. Phillips¹, Joseph A. Santanello², David R. *Cook³*, Laura D. Riihimaki⁴, and Krista L. Gaustad⁴
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- 9 Abstract

10 Heterogeneity in warm-season (May-August) land-atmosphere (LA) coupling is quantified with the 11 long-time, multiple-station measurements from the U.S. Department of Energy Atmospheric Radiation 12 Measurement (ARM) program and the moderate-resolution imaging spectroradiometer (MODIS) 13 satellite remote sensing at the Southern Great Plains (SGP). We examine the coupling strength at 7 additional locations with the same surface type (i.e., pasture/grassland) as the ARM SGP central facility 14 15(CF). To simultaneously consider multiple factors and consistently quantify their relative contributions, 16 we apply a multiple linear regression method to correlate the surface evaporative fraction (EF) with 17 near-surface soil moisture (SM) and leaf area index (LAI). The observations show moderate to weak 18 terrestrial segment LA coupling with large heterogeneity across the ARM SGP domain in warm-season. 19 Large spatial variabilities in the contributions from SM and LAI to the EF changes are also found. The 20 coupling heterogeneities appear to be associated with differences in land use, anthropogenic activities, 21 rooting depth, and soil type at different stations. Therefore, the complex LA interactions at the SGP 22 cannot be well represented by those at the CF/E13 based on the metrics applied here. Overall, the LAI 23 exerts more influence on the EF than does the SM due to its overwhelming impacts on the latent heat 24 flux. This study complements previous studies based on measurements only from the CF and has

25 important implications for modeling LA coupling in weather and climate models. The multiple linear 26 regression provides a more comprehensive measure of the integrated impacts on LA coupling from 27 several different factors.

28

29 **1. Introduction**

30 Land-atmosphere (LA) coupling has been identified to play an important role in both current (Betts, 31 2004, 2009; Ferguson et al., 2012; Koster et al., 2004; Taylor, de Jeu, et al., 2012) and future climate 32 (Dirmeyer et al., 2012, 2013; Seneviratne et al., 2006) through its impacts on the energy and water 33 cycles (Seneviratne et al., 2010 and references therein) in the Earth climate system. Numerous studies 34 aim to evaluate and quantify the overall strength or the degree of LA coupling (e.g., Koster et al., 2002, 2006) as well as its individual interactions and feedback components (e.g., Dirmeyer, 2011; Wei & 35 36 Dirmeyer, 2010) using numerical models (e.g., general circulation models, land surface models, and 37 single column models) and observations (in situ, ground and satellite remote sensing). However, the driving mechanisms of how the land states (e.g., soil wetness and vegetation) impact the surface 38 39 turbulent fluxes (i.e., latent and sensible heat fluxes) to the atmosphere are not well understood. 40 Classical hydrology (Budyko, 1974) provides conceptual first-order definitions of evapotranspiration 41 (ET) regimes and predicts strong coupling at dry-wet transitional zones due to soil moisture-limited 42 conditions. These coupling "hot spots" are confirmed by multiple-model experiments in an ensemble-43 mean sense (Koster et al., 2004; Seneviratne et al., 2006). The United States (US) Southern Great 44 Plains (SGP) is identified as one of these coupling hot spots in terms of the relationship between soil 45 moisture (SM) and precipitation. Note that large inter-model differences exist for individual model 46 results (e.g., Fig. 1 in Koster et al., 2004) and suggest large uncertainties in the simulated SM-47 precipitation interactions.

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49 Observational constraints are required to evaluate how well these SM-precipitation coupling hot spots 50 are represented in the model and to provide insights to reduce modeling uncertainties in the coupling. Land-atmosphere coupling is recognized as a two-segment process: land states link to surface fluxes 51 52 (the terrestrial leg); and surface fluxes connect to atmosphere states (the atmospheric leg) (Guo et al., 53 2006; Santanello et al., 2011). The terrestrial leg is a critically important part of the larger SM-54 precipitation loop. Several recent studies focus on establishing observational evidence of the terrestrial 55 coupling strength at the SGP with daily average data collected by the US Department of Energy 56 Atmospheric Radiation Measurement (ARM) program. This observational evidence of the terrestrial 57 component of LA coupling, especially the relative contributions from different factors, is largely 58 confined to the SGP central facility (CF) due to the paucity of coincident land/soil and atmosphere 59 observations. Based on long-term (1997-2008) ARM program observations at the SGP CF site near 60 Lamont, Oklahoma, Phillips & Klein (2014) found that during the May-August warm season, the coupling between the top-layer (10 cm) SM and the surface evaporative fraction (EF, the ratio of latent 61 62 heat (LH) flux to the sum of latent and sensible heat (SH) fluxes) is modest, as measured by the 63 contemporary covariance (r = 0.48). Using observations at two adjacent sites (near the CF), however, 64 Williams & Torn (2015) estimated much stronger (r = 0.81) LA coupling at the SGP by replacing SM 65 with the leaf area index (LAI) in the conventional r(SM, EF) metric, thus highlighting the significant 66 impact of vegetation. More recently Bagley et al. (2017) demonstrated with the ARM data that the 67 surface energy partitioning was greatly influenced by the green leaf area on the two major SGP land 68 covers (grassland and winter wheat). Their statistical analysis at the CF identified the LAI as the most 69 important driver of the EF among various factors, including the near-surface SM. Phillips et al. (2017) 70 reported substantial variabilities in the LA coupling with the r(SM, EF) metric when extending their 71 analysis from the SGP CF site to multiple nearby (up to 150 km) ARM extended sites.

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73 All the above observational studies emphasize the daily mean EF, which has great implications for 74 different SGP cloud regimes (Zhang & Klein, 2013). The long-standing SGP summertime warm and dry biases in climate models are related to the surface energy biases and the LA coupling (Klein et al., 75 76 2006). Recent research (Ma et al., 2018) separated the land (EF) vs. atmosphere (radiation) 77 contributions to the surface temperature biases, and found larger land contributions in most of the 78 Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5) (Taylor, Stouffer, et al., 2012) Atmospheric 79 Model Intercomparison Project (AMIP) simulations. The studies by Ma et al. (2018) and 80 Van Weverberg et al. (2018) highlight the critical role that the terrestrial coupling segment plays in this 81 climate modeling puzzle.

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83 In the present work, we extend the CF-centric observational studies in literature to multiple ARM SGP 84 sites. The goal is to provide more robust and comprehensive, observationally based warm-season estimates of the terrestrial segment LA coupling strength at the SGP, and to determine how well the 85 ARM SGP-CF measurements represent the coupling over the SGP domain. This study is motivated by 86 87 the need to improve current knowledge of the driving mechanisms of daily mean EF variations, and to 88 provide novel observational constraints on modeling physical processes of the terrestrial coupling 89 segment at the SGP. In Section 2, we describe the sites, data, as well as the methods used in this study. 90 In Section 3, we first show the spatial variations in the analyzed coupling variables, then quantify the 91 strength of coupling with the EF and the turbulent fluxes at different locations, as well as the relative 92 contributions of the SM and the LAI. Section 4 provides further discussions on the enhanced LA 93 coupling metric, followed by sensitivity analysis of LA coupling to flux fetch, temporal averaging 94 scale, and dry vs. wet years in Section 5. The discussions and conclusions are summarized in Section 6. 95

96 **2.** Sites, data, and methods

97 **2.1 Sites**

98 The ARM Climate Research Facility provides comprehensive observations of important atmosphere, 99 surface, and land/soil variables to the climate research community. At the SGP, ARM deploys a dense 100 surface network with multiple observational stations within a 3.5°x3.5° domain centered at the central 101 facility (CF). The site locations reflect heterogeneity in land cover, vegetation types, soil types etc. 102 More importantly, many of these ARM sites provide coincident measurements of soil moisture, LH and 103 SH fluxes, which offer a unique opportunity to study the terrestrial component of LA coupling. To 104 minimize the number of impacting factors and enhance the robustness of analyses, we opted to use 8 105 sites (see Fig. 1 and Table 1), including the CF (i.e., E13), located on the same land cover 106 (pasture/grassland) with relatively complete long-time, coincident measurements from the same 107 instruments (i.e., Energy Balance Bowen Ratio (EBBR) systems). Differences among the 8 sites (see 108 Table 1) include grass species, human activities (e.g., grazed vs ungrazed), and soil types.

109

110 **2.2 Data**

- In this study, we use the hourly averaged SM (at 2.5-cm depth), surface LH and SH fluxes in the warm
 season (May—August) of years 2004-2011 from the ARM Best Estimate (ARMBE) (Xie et al., 2010)
- 113 station-based surface data (ARMBESTNS) (Tang & Xie, 2015b)
- 114 (https://www.arm.gov/capabilities/vaps/armbestns, doi: 10.5439/1178332). Soil moisture, LH and SH
- 115 fluxes are measured by EBBR systems (Cook, 2018). Following Betts (2009) and Phillips & Klein
- 116 (2014), our analyses emphasize daily averages, but also include the sensitivity to different temporal
- 117 averaging intervals. The daily mean SM is calculated from 00:00 to 23:00 UTC, and the daily daytime
- mean of the EF from 12:00 to 23:00 UTC (6:00 to 17:00 LST). Leaf area index (LAI) is from the
- 119 MCD15A3H (version 6) data product (Myneni, 2015)

120 (https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/dataset discovery/modis/modis products table/mcd15a3h v006, doi: 121 10.5067/MODIS/MCD15A3H.006), which combines the measurements from the two moderate-122 resolution imaging spectroradiometer (MODIS) instruments on NASA satellites Terra and Aqua to 123 create a 4-day composite data set at a 500 m horizontal resolution. The LAI of the pixels closest to the 124 ARM stations (see Fig. 1) are used in our site-specific analyses. Ideally, we need the LAI that matches 125the footprint (about 100 m x 100 m) of EBBR flux measurements. Such high-resolution LAI data 126 require ground-based measurements, which are not available. Figure 1 also shows the mean warm-127 season geographic patterns of EBBR SM and MODIS LAI for the years 2004–2011. The latitude-128 longitude SM data are taken from the ARMBE 2-dimensional Gridded Surface data (ARMBE2DGRID) 129 (Tang & Xie, 2015a) (https://www.arm.gov/capabilities/vaps/armbe2dgrid, doi: 10.5439/1178331), which interpolates the station-based ARMBESTNS data to a 0.25° x 0.25° grid over the SGP domain 130 131 (35°N—38.5°N and 95.5°W—99.5°W) with the Barnes scheme (Barnes, 1964). Both patterns in Fig. 1 132 display a general increasing gradient from northwest to southeast.

133

134 **2.3 An enhanced land-atmosphere coupling metric**

135 For the terrestrial segment, the correlation between top-layer soil water content and the EF focuses on 136 the influence of bare soil evaporation, whereas the correlation between the LAI and the EF emphasizes 137 the impact of evapotranspiration (ET) from vegetation, which is largely controlled by the soil moisture 138 in the root zone rather than near the surface. Since on a daily or longer scale surface net radiation is 139 roughly balanced by the sum of LH and SH fluxes (neglecting ground heat storage), we can focus on 140 the LH flux and infer the SH flux from the surface energy balance. The surface LH flux consists of two 141 major components: evaporation from bare soil, and ET by plants (Seneviratne et al., 2010). A robust 142 coupling metric is expected to simultaneously capture the contributions from multiple factors, as the 143 coupling processes occur at the same time in reality. However, the traditional simple correlation metrics 144 examine interactions between pairs of variables, such as SM-EF, SM-SH flux, SM-lifting condensation 145 level, SM-planetary boundary layer height, LAI-EF, etc. (Betts, 2009; Ford et al., 2014; Phillips & 146 Klein, 2014; Santanello et al., 2007; Williams & Torn, 2015), and hence are only able to quantify the 147 influence from one factor at a time, in a partial derivative sense. In this study, we instead employ a 148 multiple linear regression method to study the integrated impact of top-layer SM and vegetation to the 149 surface energy partitioning. Although it would be desirable to incorporate in root-zone SM due to its 150 obvious connection to the transpiration, root-zone SM measurements are not available at the selected 8 151 sites. Williams & Torn (2015) examined the soil-depth dependency of the SM coupling with EF at an 152SGP grass site, and only found a slight increase in the SM-EF correlation with increasing depth. It is 153reasonable to assume that similar soil-depth dependency in r(SM, EF) applies to the 8 SGP grassland 154 sites analyzed here, and that the SM dependency is largely captured by our multiple linear regression 155model.

156

Multiple linear regression reveals the relationship between two or more explanatory or predictor variables and a response variable by fitting a line through data points in a least squares sense. Previous studies (e.g., Betts et al., 2015) applied multiple linear regression to study the coupled LA system on daily timescales. The novelties of the present work are the application to the relationships between EF or the turbulent fluxes and SM and LAI, and to quantify the relative importance of SM versus LAI coupling (see details below). To account for the impacts of soil moisture and vegetation on the partition of surface turbulent fluxes simultaneously, we construct the following multiple linear regression:

164
$$EF = b(0) + b(1) * SM + b(2) * LAI$$
 (1)

where b is the partial regression coefficient. It should be noted that while not a mathematical precondition, it is important to use independent or weakly correlated predictor variables in the regression model to ensure that the multiple linear regression is applied in a physically meaningful way. To this end, it is necessary to examine the dependencies between predictor variables before applying the
 multiple linear regression metric. The LA coupling strength is defined as the multiple correlation
 coefficient (Kutner et al., 2004)

171
$$R = \frac{\sqrt{r^2(EF,SM) + r^2(EF,LAI) - 2*r(EF,SM)*r(EF,LAI)*r(SM,LAI)}}{\sqrt{1 - r^2(SM,LAI)}}$$
(2)

in which r denotes the Pearson's correlation coefficient between two variables. The multiple regression
Eq. 1 can be extended to more than two predictor variables (see Supporting Information), and hence
can include other potentially important variables. By adding more variables to the regression, no matter
whether significantly correlated with the EF or not, R will always increase by definition. Therefore, one
cannot determine the importance of a newly added variable, based merely on an enhanced R value.
This limitation is addressed by examining the standardized regression coefficient and its significance

test, as follows.

179

180 The multiple regression and correlation quantify the combined effects of the SM and LAI to the EF.

181 Moreover, these tools allow us to disentangle and examine their separate influence on the EF (see

182 Section 3.2.2 for more details). The standardized regression coefficients

183
$$B_i = b_i * \sigma_{x_i} / \sigma_y \tag{3}$$

can be used to evaluate the sensitivity of the variability in the EF (i.e., σ_y in Eq. 3) to the variation in the SM or the LAI (i.e., σ_{xi} in Eq. 3), respectively, where σ denotes the standard deviation. For simple regression (i.e., only one predictor variable), the standardized regression coefficient is identical to the correlation coefficient r. It is also helpful to define the sensitivity index (I = b* σ_x) to quantify the potential of soil moisture oscillations to cause variations in surface fluxes (Dirmeyer, 2011). For multiple regression, the sensitivity index (I) can still be used to assess the relative influence from different predictors at the same location, but it cannot be applied across different locations because the 191 least squares fitting depends on the EF observations, which change with location. The standardized 192 regression coefficient (B) breaks this limitation of I by considering the standard deviations in both the 193 predictor and response variables, and thus it can be directly compared among different variables at 194 different locations to quantify the spatial variability of their relative importance to the EF fluctuation. 195

The soil moisture index (SMI) [SMI = (SM - SM_{min})/(SM_{max} - SM_{min})] is useful to study the correlation with the EF (Betts, 2009; Phillips & Klein, 2014), facilitating comparisons between sites with different soil and vegetation types, and hence different field wetness capacity and wilting point. In this study, because years 2004—2011 cover a wide range of wet and dry conditions, we approximate the SMI at each station using the multiyear local maximum (SM_{max}) and minimum (SM_{min}) for field capacity and wilting point, respectively. Note that the correlation coefficients remain the same no matter whether SM or SMI is used.

203

204 The statistical significance of the multiple regression is assessed using the variance analysis together 205 with the two-tailed F-test. The significance of partial regression coefficients is examined by the twotailed t-test. The significance of the difference between two correlation coefficients is tested with the 206 207 Fisher's r to z transformation (Fisher, 1921) and the null hypothesis of p1 - p2 = 0. In all cases, a 208 significance level of p = 0.05 (95% confidence level) is used. The degrees of freedom are assumed as 209 (N-2) in the t-test and as (N-3) in the F-test and the Z-test. These degrees of freedom take into account 210 the possible serial correlation in the time series of observations in a similar way as in previous studies 211 (Dirmeyer et al., 2012; Phillips & Klein, 2014), for example the N numbers in Table 1 pertain to 212 sampling once every four days. (Missing values in coincident measurements of SM or turbulent fluxes 213 will lower the sampling frequency.)

214

215 **3. Results**

216 **3.1 Spatial variabilities in LA coupling related variables**

Figure 2 shows the Taylor diagrams (Taylor, 2001), a concise summary of how closely one dataset 217 218 matches the other, for observations of important LA coupling variables (i.e., LH, SH, EF, SM, and LAI) 219 at the extended SGP sites relative to the CF. The mean biases in the Taylor diagrams are denoted by the 220 size and shape of the symbols in addition to the three statistics – the temporal correlation (angle), the 221 normalized standard deviation (radius, normalized by that of the CF), and the normalized centered root-222 mean-square (RMS) difference (distance to the (1, 0) reference point, also normalized by the 223 corresponding CF value). The more similar the extended observations are to those at the CF, the closer 224 their symbols are to the (1, 0) point. The spread of SGP sites on the same Taylor diagram reveals the 225 spatial heterogeneity at those locations.

226

227 In general, these important LA coupling variables at most of the ARM extended sites have a rather 228 weak correlation (< 0.6) and large RMS differences from those measured at the CF. Large RMS 229 differences are indicated by the large distances between the data points and the reference point in Fig. 230 2. The variance of these variables also shows large differences from that measured at the CF. All the 231 sites show a smaller standard deviation in SH and EF than at CF. Among these variables, the LAI (Fig. 232 2e) shows the least similarities to that at the CF: weak correlations (statistically insignificant at E4 and 233 E7) and large variances (off the chart at E7 and E12), suggest that the LAI is the most localized 234 property. There also are quite large differences in these statistics across different sites.

235

236 **3.2 Heterogeneity in LA coupling strength**

237 Large spatial heterogeneities in the individual measurement of the coupling variables do not

automatically translate to great spatial variations in the coupling strength among these variables. In this

section, we examine the terrestrial segment of the LA coupling strength at the 8 SGP stations, as

estimated by the traditional simple regression metrics and by the multiple regression metric. The results

241 of simple regression methods facilitate comparisons with previous studies, whereas the multiple

regression metric provides new insights by overcoming some limitations of the conventional metrics(see Section 2.3 for details).

244

245 **3.2.1** Strength of coupling with the evaporative fraction at different SGP sites

The evaporative fraction (EF) plays a crucially important connection role between the land surface 246 247 properties and the atmospheric states. It has great impacts on the atmospheric boundary layer 248 conditions (Findell et al., 2011; Williams & Torn, 2015), and hence processes (e.g., convection, clouds, 249 and precipitation) in the free atmosphere (Findell & Eltahir, 2003; Gentine et al., 2013). We first 250 compare the summertime coupling strength with the EF at 8 ARM SGP stations assessed with 3 251 different metrics (see Fig. 3). To make consistent comparisons, we use only the data when 252 measurements of all 3 variables (i.e., EF, SMI, and LAI) are available. The surface and soil types of 253 these 8 stations are summarized in Table 1. The LA coupling strength is examined by using the daily 254 anomalies of EF, SMI, and LAI relative to the climatological monthly means of years 2004--2011. We, 255therefore, minimize the impact of seasonal covariations, such as that between the EF and the LAI, on 256 these temporal correlation-based coupling estimations. The daily to sub-monthly and inter-annual 257 variabilities are retained by this process. As a result, variables in Fig. 3 have both positive and negative 258 values. Note that from a physical point of view, it is important to use independent or weakly correlated 259predictor variables (i.e., right side variables of Eq. 1 and S1) in the multiple linear regression method. 260 The fourth column of Table 1 verifies that the correlations between the top-layer SM and the LAI at 8 261 SGP stations are generally very weak (mostly below r = 0.20, three of which are not statistically 262 significant). This suggests that the application of the multiple linear regression method is justified.

264	First, focusing on the CF site, our result confirms that there is only a moderate correlation between the
265	EF and the SMI plotted as a scatter diagram in Fig. 3a. A positive correlation indicates an SM-limited
266	regime. However, our correlation coefficient ($r = 0.41$) is smaller than those estimated in previous
267	studies, such as 0.48 in Fig. 5a of Phillips & Klein (2014) and 0.46 in Fig. 1a of Williams & Torn
268	(2015). Such small differences in the correlation coefficients are not statistically significant. There are
269	three major reasons for these differences: 1) Whether or not the climatological monthly means are
270	removed; 2) Data measured by different instruments at different depths (e.g., 2.5-cm EBBR in the
271	present study vs. 10-cm Soil Water And Temperature System (SWATS) SM in Phillips & Klein (2014)
272	and Williams & Torn (2015)); and 3) Analysis of different time periods, during which large inter-annual
273	variations exist in r(EF, SMI) (Ford et al., 2014). The moderate SM-EF correlations suggest that the
274	top-layer (2-10 cm below the surface) SM only partly drives the changes in the EF at the CF. In
275	addition, retaining the monthly climatological means weakens the correlation to $r = 0.37$ in our
276	calculation. Similar slight correlation reductions (mostly statistically insignificant) are generally found
277	at other extended sites by retaining the monthly means, implying weaker EF-SM covariations on the
278	seasonal scale than on the daily scale.

279

Substituting LAI for SMI in the correlation with the EF, Fig. 3b illustrates a slightly enhanced correlation (r = 0.42) at the CF. This result is consistent with the conclusion of Williams & Torn (2015) that vegetation plays an important role in the LA coupling at the CF. It is worth noting that the r(EF, LAI) is much smaller with the satellite LAI in Fig. 3b than with the ground-based LAI (r > 0.7 found by Williams & Torn (2015) and Phillips et al. (2017). This difference suggests that the uncertainties in the coarse satellite-retrieved LAI can cause an uncertainty of ±0.3 in r(EF, LAI). We then employ the new application of multiple linear regression (Eq. 1) to quantify the integrated influence of SM and 287 LAI on the EF (see Fig. 3c). The multiple correlation coefficient (R = 0.51) is larger than both simple 288 correlations. In addition, both partial regression coefficients (b(1) and b(2) in Eq. 1) are statistically 289 significant at the 95% level. These results suggest that both SM and vegetation are important factors in 290 the LA coupling at the CF and their combined impact is greater than individual ones. Existing metrics, 291 e.g., r(EF, SMI) and r(EF, LAI), only consider parts of the processes involved in the coupled system, 292 and hence both underestimate the coupling strength. Applying the sensitivity index (I) with the partial 293 regression coefficients of SMI and LAI, respectively, we find that vegetation plays a slightly more 294 important role than the SM in affecting the partition of surface turbulent fluxes at the CF.

295

296 Next, we expand our analysis to the ARM extended facilities (see Fig. 3d-x) to examine the spatial 297 variability of LA interactions across the SGP region. These extended stations are in the mesoscale 298 vicinity (60--167 km) of the CF. Large spatial variabilities are found across the small SGP domain in all 299 3 metrics. The correlations range from insignificantly small (E9, Fig. 3j and E12, Fig. 3m) to 0.55 300 (E20, Fig. 3v) for r(EF, SMI), 0.19 (E9, Fig. 3k) to 0.51 (E20, Fig. 3w) for r(EF, LAI), and 0.23 (E9, 301 Fig. 31) to 0.70 (E20, Fig. 3x) for R(EF; SMI, LAI). It is noted that the coupling strength at the CF is 302 modest among these stations by all three metrics. These results suggest that generally the coupling 303 strengths assessed with different correlation coefficients qualitatively agree with each other. Note that 304 the grass at the CF has been ungrazed for a long time (23 years) and has been mowed, resulting in 305 denser and healthier vegetation than at other grassland locations, except E12. At E12, the EF-SMI 306 coupling is insignificant, and thus the coupling at E12 is insensitive to the 2.5-cm SM. EF and LAI are 307 marginally correlated at E12, however, because the tall grass prairie vegetation has much deeper roots 308 than the grazed or ungrazed pasture cover that are common at other stations. Other factors, such as 309 human activity (whether to graze or not) and soil type, may also contribute to the differences between 310 different stations. In summary, the LA coupling across the SGP region is quite heterogeneous, with

311 moderate coupling at the CF. These results suggest that the LA coupling at CF may not be

312 representative of that across the SGP domain.

313

314 **3.2.2** Relative contributions from SM and LAI to EF at different SGP locations

Besides the coupling strength, it is important to identify the relative contributions from various factors, such as the SM and the LAI, based on observations. Such information provides critical guidance to improve the representation of the LA coupling in weather and climate models. As described in Sect. 2.3, the multiple regression metric calculates the standardized regression coefficients (B) for the SMI and the LAI, respectively. The importance of the SMI vs. the LAI to the coupling with EF is diagnosed by the relative magnitudes of these B coefficients.

321

322 The B_{SMI} and B_{LAI} values at different stations are labeled in the third column of Fig. 3. Surprisingly 323 different from the traditional view, but consistent with the recent studies of Williams & Torn (2015) and 324 Bagley et al. (2017), the EF of the majority (6 out of 8) of these stations show stronger correlations 325 with LAI than with SM. These results emphasize the importance of vegetation impacts on the EF via 326 stomatal controls on transpiration at these grassland SGP stations. These results also suggest that bare 327 soil evaporation (tightly correlated to the top-layer SM) contributes less to the LH flux than does ET by 328 vegetation, which is more controlled by the root zone SM. There is apparent association between the 329 root zone and the top-layer soil wetness, but the degree may vary depending on the soil and vegetation 330 types. Moreover, photosynthesis is not only controlled by the root zone SM. Other factors, such as leaf 331 temperature, solar radiation, relative humidity, and carbon dioxide concentration, also influence 332 photosynthesis (Govindjee, 2012), and hence the ET through plants. Due to these additional factors, our 333 results imply different degrees of decoupling between top-layer vs. root-zone SM controls on the EF at 334 stations surrounding the CF.

336 The two stations (E7 and E20) where the EF is more strongly coupled to SM than LAI are located on 337 pasture and silty loam soil. With the same soil type (silty loam), but ungrazed pasture vegetation, the 338 LA coupling is more influenced by the LAI than by the SM at E19, or is influenced nearly the same by 339 both factors at the CF. It is expected that bare soil evaporation becomes more important than ET by 340 plants after grazing occurs. These results suggest that anthropogenic activities might play an important 341 role in affecting the LA coupling. Additionally, at E7 the sensitivity of the EF to the SM ($I_{SMI} = 0.04$) is 342 2 times larger than that of the LAI ($I_{LAI} = 0.02$). This sensitivity difference would be underestimated as 343 1.3 times if simple correlations were used, because the regression slopes change with the regression 344 model when the explanatory variables (SMI and LAI in this case) are not totally independent of each other. Therefore, the multiple regression metric shows advantages over the single-variable metric in 345 346 assessing the sensitivities of EF to either SM or LAI by taking into account the weak correlations 347 between SM and LAI.

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335

349 More importantly, the standardized regression coefficient can be used to compare the sensitivities of the 350 EF to the SM or the LAI at different places, and therefore to evaluate the spatial variability of the SM 351 and the LAI contributions. For example, it is interesting to compare the SM sensitivities at the extended 352 facilities to that at the CF. Both the single and multiple variable metrics (see Fig. 3, first and third 353 columns) reveal qualitatively consistent results of modest SM sensitivity at the CF amongst the 354 analyzed ARM stations. Overall, the third column of Fig. 3 exhibits a wide spatial range of 355 contributions of the SM and the LAI: from statistically insignificant B_{SMI} at E9 and E12 to a maximum 356 of $B_{SMI} = 0.49$ at E20. The CF numbers fall within the ranges of both B_{SMI} and B_{LAI} over the other 357 ARM SGP stations.

358

359 **3.2.3** Strength of domain-mean coupling with evaporative fraction

360 Given the large spatial variability in LA coupling strength across the ARM SGP domain, information 361 from a single station may not be suitable for evaluating global climate models because model results 362 represent means over a model grid box with a typical scale of 100 km. The single point measurement 363 will be more useful when parameterization schemes can better represent the sub-grid variability in 364 models in the future. To examine the coupling strength over the SGP domain, we repeat the same 365 analysis on the domain-mean values of EF for the 8 stations (see Fig. 4). The points are less dispersed 366 on the EF-LAI scatter plot (Fig. 4b) than on the EF-SMI plot (Fig. 4a). Consequently, the mean EF is 367 correlated more with the mean LAI (r(EF, LAI) = 0.52) than with the mean SMI (r(EF, SMI) = 0.39). 368 The correlation further increases to R=0.60 with the multiple variable regression. In other words, 36% 369 (\mathbb{R}^2) of the mean EF variance can be explained by the mean SM and LAI together. As for the 370 sensitivities, the mean EF is more responsive to the mean changes in the LAI than in the SM, no matter 371 which metric is used. As shown in Figs. 3 and 4, it is evident that the measurements at the CF cannot 372 well represent the domain-mean LA coupling over the SGP region, due to the great spatial 373 heterogeneity. Given the important role that vegetation plays in the domain-mean LA interactions, it is 374 critical for models to better simulate the vegetation impacts on LA coupling.

375

376 **3.2.4 Coupling with turbulent fluxes**

Understanding which factor (LH or SH) dominates the EF variances can provide valuable information on the surface energy partitioning and some guidance for model development. Although the driving processes of LH and SH fluxes are largely connected, the physical processes are often represented by different parameters or parameterizations in the model (Moene & van Dam, 2014; Oleson et al., 2013). Observational evidence separating the impacts on these two fluxes on the LA interactions will be more likely to shed light on how to improve the LA coupling in the model. In this section, we replace EF

with LH and SH in the multiple regression model (Eq. 1) to examine how the SM and the LAI interact
with each of these two turbulent fluxes respectively.

385

386 The multiple regression results for the LH and the SH are shown in Figs. 5 and 6. As the SGP is a SM-387 limited area in summer, the slopes of the LH fitting line are positive and thus negative for the SH fitting 388 lines. The coupling strength generally decreases when switching from the EF (see Fig. 3 third column) 389 to turbulent fluxes, except for the E9 site. The coupling strengths with the LH and the SH both vary 390 from statistically insignificant to R = 0.57, but the weakest and strongest interactions occur at different 391 locations: E7 and E20 for the LH, and E9 and E19 for the SH. The minimum and maximum coupling 392 locations are also different from those for the EF: E9 and E20, resulting from the competing 393 relationship between the LH and the SH in determining the EF.

394

395 All the sites (except for E7 with insignificant statistics) and the domain mean (Fig. 5i) show larger 396 contribution from the LAI than from the SM to the LH variance (see Fig. 5). Moreover, only 2 sites (E4 397 and E20) have statistically significant SM contributions to the LH. Over SGP grassland, it is obvious 398 that the impact on EF by ET dominates over bare-soil evaporation. As for the SH (see Fig. 6), the SM 399 and the LAI show comparable impacts: almost half the sites are SM-dominant and the remaining are 400 LAI-dominant. The SM exerts stronger control on the SH domain average than does the LAI. 401 Therefore, the overall greater control of the LAI on the EF is largely through its overwhelming 402 influence on the LH. Regarding the spatial patterns, Figures 5 and 6 demonstrate similarly large 403 variations in the strength of the coupling with turbulent fluxes compared to that with EF (refer to Fig. 404 3). The coupling strength at the CF is also moderate relative to other analyzed SGP locations. 405

406 **4. Further discussion of the enhanced LA coupling metric**

407 We have demonstrated a new application of multiple linear regression to enrich the current arsenal of 408 land-atmosphere (LA) coupling metrics. Since the LA coupling strength reflects the integrated effect of 409 interactions between the surface and the atmospheric boundary layer (Ek & Holtslag, 2004), compared 410 to traditional single-variable metrics, one obvious advantage of this new application is that it provides a 411 more comprehensive measure of the integrated impacts of multiple factors such as soil moisture or 412 vegetation on variables such as EF or turbulent fluxes. By taking into account the standard deviations 413 in both the predictor and response variables, the standardized regression coefficient (B) exceeds the 414 sensitivity index (I) as a means to separate the impacts of each individual driver, and quantify the 415 spatial patterns of their relative contributions to the overall coupling strength. We argue that the 416 standardized regression coefficient is closer to reality since it reflects multiple impacts, and thus is a 417 better measure than the conventional simple regression-based sensitivity. By examining the cumulative 418 influences from all factors, we could renew or confirm our current understanding of the controlling 419 mechanisms of the coupling for different locations and times. Since the new multiple linear regression 420 application evaluates different mechanisms in a consistent manner, it overcomes the possible 421 inconsistency that would otherwise arise in the application of single-variable regression, due to the 422 dependencies among the explanatory variables. Moreover, besides near-surface SM and LAI, we can 423 include more predictor variables (e.g., root-zone SM or other atmosphere variables) in the regression 424 model. The left side of the regression model is also flexible. The general matrix forms of Eq. 1, the 425 regression coefficients, and the multiple correlation coefficient are given in the Supporting Information. 426 While here we demonstrate the application of multiple linear regression to the terrestrial segment of LA 427 coupling, it is worth noting that this method can also be applied to the atmospheric segment, or to both 428 the terrestrial and atmospheric segments.

429

430 5. Coupling sensitivity to flux fetch, temporal averaging scale, and dry vs. wet years

The terrestrial component of LA coupling strength assessed from observations is expected to be sensitive to a number of factors, such as the turbulent flux fetch, the temporal averaging length, and dry vs. wet years (Qian et al., 2013). It is useful to demonstrate the sensitivity of multiple linear regression metrics to these factors. More importantly, we would like to verify the robustness of large heterogeneities in LA coupling over pasture/grassland revealed in previous sections by incorporating these factors.

437

438 The accuracy of EBBR flux measurements depends on wind direction, because the fetch can be 439 insufficient for some directions at most sites (Cook, 2018). Table 1 last column lists the wind directions 440 for which there is sufficient grassland to ensure high quality flux measurements. The multiple linear 441 regression coefficients R(EF; SMI, LAI) calculated without and with the wind direction filter are 442 plotted in the first and second columns in Fig. 7a. Both columns use the daily means on the days when 443 the data for all 3 quantities are available. It should be noted that to make consistent comparisons with 444 other columns for longer averaging intervals, here we do not remove the climatological monthly 445 averages as in previous sections. The impacts of applying the wind direction filter on the correlations 446 are small at all locations with the largest change from R=0.67 to R=0.54 at E4. Although there are some 447 subtle changes in the relative magnitude at different sites, the overall spatial variation of the LA 448 coupling as indicated by the spread of R values remains almost the same after filtering out the degraded 449 flux data. The corresponding standardized regression coefficients (B_{SMI} and B_{LAI}) of 1-day averaging 450 length are shown in Fig. 7b. Color symbols represent results with the wind direction filter, while black 451 symbols indicate those without the wind direction filter. Since the sign of B values can be arbitrary 452 when they are statistically insignificant, we plot their absolute values in Fig. 7b. Similar to R values, 453 the B values are not sensitive to the wind filter. The vegetation still shows stronger influence than the 454 SM on the LA coupling strength at all sites except E7 and E20. At E20, the relative importance of the

LAI and SM to the coupling changes whether surface fluxes are filtered with wind directions (Fig. 7b)
or whether the climatological monthly averages are removed (see Fig. 3x and Fig. 7b).

457

458	The terrestrial segment of LA coupling occurs at various time scales. The second to fifth columns of
459	Fig. 7a illustrate the dependence of EF coupling with LAI and SM on different temporal averaging
460	lengths. Since the MODIS LAI data are reported at a 4-day interval, we calculate the correlations from
461	EF, LAI, and SMI running means of 8, 16, and 32 days centered on the day when LAI data are
462	available. As expected the correlation increases with averaging length. Nevertheless, the R range stays
463	almost as a constant, suggesting that the heterogeneity in coupling strength does not change with
464	different averaging scales. As to their relative contributions, the vegetation plays a more important role
465	than the SM in the coupling to the EF at most locations at different time scales (Fig. 7b-e). Both R and
466	B values are generally more insensitive when the averaging length exceeds the weekly scale.
467	
468	Figure 8 shows the results of 16-day averages for dry vs. wet years. Results for other averaging
469	intervals (not shown) are similar to those in Fig. 8. Based on the Palmer Hydrological Drought Index
470	(Heim, 2002) data from NOAA's National Centers for Environmental Information
471	(https://www7.ncdc.noaa.gov/CDO/CDODivisionalSelect.jsp), the warm season of years 2006 and
472	2011 are relatively dry, while 2007 and 2008 are relatively wet. Stronger coupling strength to the EF
473	can be found at all stations except for E9 during dry years than wet years (Fig. 8a). This result confirms
474	the expectation that coupling strength enhances under drier SM condition in the SM-limited regime.

- 475 However, the SM contribution (B_{SMI}) displays nonmonotonic changes between dry and wet conditions
- 476 (Fig. 8b). For instance, B_{SMI} is larger at the CF and E20, but is smaller at E7 and for the domain mean
- 477 during the wet years. Nonetheless, most sites show greater contribution from LAI than from SM
- 478 regardless of wetness conditions.

Parallel results of coupling with individual turbulent flux (not shown) are similar to those of coupling with the EF. Overall, the main conclusions regarding the large LA coupling heterogeneities and the greater vegetation impact on the coupling over the same surface type (i.e., pasture/grassland) are still valid when taking into account additional factors, such as turbulent flux fetch, temporal averaging scale, and wetness condition.

485

486 **6.** Conclusions

487 Heterogeneity in the terrestrial segment of land-atmosphere (LA) coupling in the warm season (May— 488 August) at SGP is studied with multi-year (2004-2011) observations of the near-surface soil moisture 489 (SM) and surface turbulent fluxes from the DOE ARM program and the leaf area index (LAI) from the 490 NASA MODIS instruments. The LA coupling strength is quantified with a new application of multiple 491 linear regression that correlates the surface EF with near-surface SM and LAI. Theoretically, our 492 enhanced LA coupling metric is based on the multidimensional nature of EF-SM relationship, which is 493 consistent with a new framework for differentiating SM-limited and energy-limited evaporation 494 regimes (Haghighi et al., 2018). Our analysis focuses on the daily mean anomalies relative to the 495 climatological monthly averages. This study complements the observational LA coupling database of 496 the traditional SM-EF relationship (Ford et al., 2014; Phillips & Klein, 2014; Phillips et al., 2017) and 497 the recently established LAI-EF relationship (Williams & Torn, 2015; Bagley et al., 2017). Relying on 498 the measurements over the same land type of pasture/grassland, we quantify large spatial variabilities 499 in key coupling variables (e.g., LH, SH, EF, SM, and LAI), in the interaction strength between these 500 variables, and in the relative contributions from the SM and the LAI to the coupling. These large 501 heterogeneities exhibited in various aspects of the LA coupling over the same land type suggest that it 502 may not be appropriate to assume the same LA coupling behaviors over the same land cover at the

503 SGP. More importantly, these results highlight the challenges in accurately representing surface 504 heterogeneity and LA coupling in regional and global models, as it requires accurate, high resolution, 505 and timely information on soil texture (hydraulic parameters; SM and evapotranspiration (ET)), land 506 cover type, and vegetation health (e.g., LAI) that are difficult to obtain (particularly soils). If any of 507 these are incorrect, it will result in deficiencies in SM-LAI-ET relationships as will be the coupling 508 deduced from the model. Additionally, it is also important to keep in mind the large spatial variabilities 509 in the LA coupling when evaluating global or regional models against domain-mean observations. 510

511 This study reveals moderate to weak LA coupling strengths at the analyzed SGP locations. Stronger LA 512 coupling strength is found at all locations by the multi-variable method than by the individual 513 correlations between EF and SM or LAI. Most of their individual regression coefficients of the multi-514 variable method also are statistically significant, suggesting that both SM and LAI are important factors 515 for the coupling with EF. The relative importance of these two factors, however, varies at different SGP 516 sites due to differences in land use, anthropogenic activities, rooting depth, and soil type. Most sites (6 517 out of 8) show stronger influence of vegetation than of near-surface SM on the EF. Furthermore, when 518 we examine the impacts on the LH and the SH separately, the LAI dominates the control on the LH 519 oscillations, while the SM and the LAI exert comparable influence on the SH fluctuations. Therefore, 520 the overall greater LAI control on the surface energy partitioning at the SGP is mainly obtained through 521 the LH pathway. This observational evidence implies that better vegetation controls on the EF should be reflected in climate models, and such modifications may contribute to reducing the longstanding LA 522 523 coupling associated model biases over the SGP (Phillips et al., 2017). An attempt in this direction by 524 Williams et al. (2016) enhances the modeled ET by plants and suppresses the near-surface bare soil 525 evaporation in the off-line Community Land Model 4.5 and the Community Earth System Model 1.2.2 526 single-column model. Introducing such model changes shows encouraging results (more realistic SM-

527 EF and LAI-EF relationships as well as smaller surface temperature and precipitation biases) and might 528 also be effective in a global or regional modeling framework.

529

530 At the CF, we find moderate coupling strength, and LAI is indeed an important factor besides SM in 531 affecting EF, which is consistent with previous studies (Williams & Torn, 2015; Bagley et al., 2017) in 532 highlighting the vegetation controls in the terrestrial leg of the LA coupling. However, the coupling at 533 the CF cannot represent the range of the SGP sites well due to their great heterogeneity (R: 0.23--0.70). 534 We should note that large uncertainties may exist due to the coarse MODIS LAI data used in the 535 calculation. These findings are insensitive to the wind direction-based flux fetch filter, temporal 536 averaging scale (1 day to 32 days), and dry vs. wet year conditions. Our result emphasizes the pressing 537 need for a better, denser observational network, including point observations of LAI and Normalized 538 Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI), for evaluation of the terrestrial LA coupling in models. 539 Furthermore, the denser network will greatly reduce the risk of sampling biases, which could exist for 540 single-point measurements, due to the naturally large heterogeneities in LA interactions. 541 542 It remains largely unclear what mechanisms drive this spatial variability. The differences in the 543 vegetation and soil types, soil depth (surface vs. root zone), and anthropogenic activities can partly 544 explain the variability in coupling. The mesoscale circulation also might be a potentially important 545 factor, as implied by the transition in climate from warmer and drier at the southwest corner of the 546 ARM SGP domain to cooler and moister at the northeast corner. The nonlinear relationship in the LA 547 coupling pathways remains an issue for the multiple linear regression, which may be partly solved by

549

548

conditional sampling (Ford et al., 2014).

550 This assessment focused on the terrestrial leg (SM-EF) of LA coupling at the SGP. The metrics

- established here can be readily applied to measurements at other locations, such as the FLUXNET
- network (http://www.fluxdata.org), to study LA coupling globally. The statistical approach and metrics
- 553 demonstrated here are likely to be even more useful for extended LA coupling studies that include the
- atmosphere and PBL feedback, entrainment, ambient temperature and humidity, and clouds and
- 555 precipitation, and their relationship with the land surface (SM-EF-LAI) variables of interest. Finally,
- although the new multiple linear regression application is illustrated here with observational data, it can
- also be applied readily to model simulations.
- 558
- 559

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Figure 1. Mean warm-season (May—August) geographic patterns of years 2004—2011 for (a) EBBR soilmoisture (unit: volumetric m³/m³) at 0.25° x 0.25° resolution and (b) MODIS LAI (unit: m²/m²) at 500m x 500mresolution. Site locations used in the study are marked by circles. See Table 1 for site names.



726	Figure 2. Taylor diagrams for key LA coupling variables: (a) latent heat (LH) flux, (b) sensible heat (SH) flux, (c)
727	evaporative fraction (EF), (d) soil moisture index (SMI), and (e) leaf area index (LAI) at different SGP sites
728	compared to the CF, which is denoted by the reference point (1, 0). Standard deviations are normalized by
729	that of the CF. Biases are indicated by the size and shape of the markers (top left of each panel). All the
730	correlations pass the two-tailed t-test at a 95% confidence level except for the LAI at sites E4 and E7. The
731	normalized standard deviations of LAI at E7 and E12 are off the charts, and hence their numbers are
732	labeled on the bottom of panel (e) .









Figure 4. Same as Fig. 3, but for domain means averaged over the 8 ARM SGP sites.



Figure 5. Same as Fig. 3, but for scatter plots of latent heat (LH) vs. SMI and LAI for the 8 stations as well as the domain averages. The domain-mean results are shown on panel (i).



Figure 6. Same as Fig. 5, but for scatter plots of sensible heat (SH) flux vs. SMI and LAI. Note that the I and B

numbers with larger absolute values are in blue.

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function of averaging intervals. All columns show results with wind direction filter except for the first column.

557 Scatter plots of absolute values of standardized regression coefficients BLAI vs. B_{SMI} with a (b) 1-day, (c) 8-day,

(d) 16-day, and (e) 32-day averaging length. Color symbols represent results with the wind direction filter,

while black symbols indicate those without the wind direction filter. The black lines denote the 1:1 line.



Figure 8. Same as Fig. 7ab, but for comparisons of 16-day averaging results between dry (2006 and 2011) and
 wet (2007 and 2008) years. In panel (b), results from dry years are in red, whereas those from wet years in
 blue.

Table 1. Summary of correlation coefficients between SMI and LAI denoted by r(SMI, LAI), number of data
 points denoted by N, surface vegetation, soil types, and wind directions for better EBBR flux measurements at
 different locations. Data point numbers in Figs. 3--6 are the same as shown here because we apply the same
 screening algorithm for all methods. Statistically insignificant numbers at a 95% confidence level are in red.

Sites		NI	r(SMI,	Surf Tupo		Wind direction (degree)
Abbr.	Location	- IN	LAI) Sun Type Son Ty	Soli Type	(Cook, 2018)	
CF/E13	Lamont, OK	208	0.30	Pasture (ungrazed)	Silty Loam	0—52, 142—194, 328—360
E4	Plevna, KS	228	0.15	Rangeland (ungrazed)	Fine Sandy Loam	0—158, 202—360
E7	Elk Falls, KS	179	0.21	Pasture	Silty Loam	0—244, 296—360
E9	Ashton, KS	215	0.07	Pasture	Loam	0—360
E12	Pawhuska, OK	208	0.03	Native Tallgrass Prairie	Sandy Loam	0—360
E15	Ringwood, OK	216	0.28	Pasture	Sandy Loam	133—360
E19	El Reno, OK	174	0.08	Pasture (ungrazed)	Silty Loam	0—133, 151—360
E20	Meeker, OK	221	0.15	Pasture	Silty Loam	0—230, 310—360
Mean		246	0.18			