

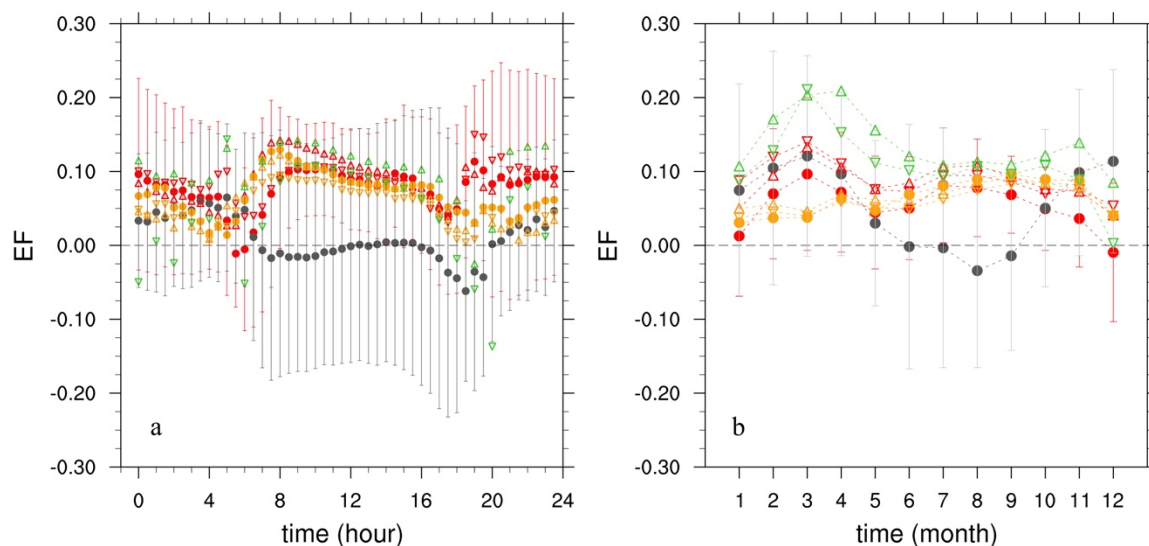
## RESPONSES TO THE REVIEW'S COMMENTS

### Reviewer #1

This is such a useful study and I would hope that we could eventually expand the analysis to include more models. To make it even better I would like to suggest the following: I am unhappy with the emphasis on the uncorrected flux data (e.g. page 12, lines 264 to 267). Since we know the fluxes are generally (and variably) underestimated by the flux-observation system, I think it is more useful to consider the evaporative fraction ( $LE/(LE+H)$ ) rather even than the 'corrected' fluxes which depends on yet more uncertain data ( $R_n$  and  $G$ ). In my paper (Blyth et al, 2010, <https://doi.org/10.1175/2009JHM1183.1>) I scale the observed evaporation with the ratio of observed sum  $LE+H$  and modelled sum  $LE+H$ .

You state in the introduction that the greatest uncertainties of change between forest and open come from the flux partition rather than the total absorbed radiation. So a focus on that would be helpful - hence the reliance on the evaporative fraction makes sense. Then separately consider  $R_n$  and  $G$ .

We thank the reviewer for the insightful assessment of the FLUXNET data and our manuscript. We have added one figure about the change in evaporative fraction ( $EF = LE/(LE+H)$ ) in the revised manuscript (Figure 7, R1).  $EF$  has advantages as noted by the reviewer, but also disadvantages; particularly in a budget assessment as it is not itself a term in the energy or water budgets. During summer, there is little change in observed daytime  $EF$  (Figure 7a) because of the observed decreases in both  $LE$  and  $H$  (Figure 2,5). However, the models show increased daytime  $EF$  due to the decreased  $H$  and slightly increased  $LE$  after deforestation. Seasonally, the models suggest year-around increased  $EF$ , however, which is not shown in the observations during summer (P14, L295-307).



**Figure R1.** Change in the summer diurnal (a) and seasonal (b) cycle of  $EF$  (unitless) due to LULCC from forest to open land (open – forest).

Secondly - I wonder if you can do the single-site simulations with the one-soil and two soils options. Give the single-site off-line run a 50% fraction of 'tree' and 'open' and compare them - even include a bit of modelled soil moisture to show how it is affecting it. I found that getting the PFT and PFTCOL into the analysis of this paper tends to confuse the issues especially when one is so wayward, while the point about whether or not to have separate soils for each PFT seems essential!

Sorry for the confusion and thank you for the suggestion. The single-site off-line run with 50% "tree" and 50% "open" is actually analogous to the PFT and PFTCOL runs.

No matter what percentage of a grid box (or single site) is covered by a tree (or grass) PFT, or if there are any other PFTs involved in the grid box, the PFT-level open-versus-tree comparisons in a single-site off-line run can be the same as our comparison from the global PFT runs. Within the same grid box, the two PFTs receive the exactly same meteorological forcings. In CLM, biogeophysical and biogeochemical processes are simulated for each PFT independently, and all fluxes to and from the land surface are calculated at the PFT level (Oleson et al. 2013).

The percentage of individual PFTs only matters when aggregating the PFT level properties to the column/grid level, however, which is beyond the scope of this study. We have added more explanation about the PFT-level comparison in the revised manuscript (P8, L168-171).

Oleson, K. W., and co-authors, 2013: Technical Description of version 4.5 of the Community Land Model (CLM), NCAR Technical Note, TN-503+STR, National Center for Atmospheric Research, Boulder, CO, USA, 434pp., [Available at [http://www.cesm.ucar.edu/models/cesm1.2/clm/CLM45\\_Tech\\_Note.pdf](http://www.cesm.ucar.edu/models/cesm1.2/clm/CLM45_Tech_Note.pdf)].

## RESPONSES TO THE REVIEWER COMMENTS

### Reviewer #2

This manuscript by Chen et al. "Pairing FLUXNET sites to validate model representations of land use/land cover change" aims at evaluating the performance of CLM and Noah-MP LSMs in simulating the impacts of LULCC on surface energy balance. Authors rely on observations from paired FLUXNET sites for model validation. The manuscript contains new and significant research, especially efforts to utilize the FLUXNET observation in a paired scheme for LULCC analysis. Also, the choice of the LSMs are very well justified and results could potentially help inform future model improvement. Writing, especially methods and results, could be improved by adding sufficient details for an unfamiliar audience. In its current form the manuscript is very hard to follow, especially, if the reader is not familiar with all the LSM lingo. Also, excessive referring of key information by pointing the readers to tables does not help either.

To an extent figures should be self-explanatory, especially when not restricted by page limit. I am not a big fan of figure caption stating: "same as figure x", this caption is no better than a figure w/o caption.

Thank you for your thorough evaluation and thoughtful suggestion. Below we specifically respond to each of the individual comments, which have greatly improved our manuscript. And we are sorry for the confusion. We have changed the figure captions.

Major comments:

1) Provide some details on how point-scale models were implemented as this directly relates to foot print at which FLUXNET towers and model operate. Based on the limited information, it is hard to make sense of the differences between model and observation shown in Figure 2. FLUXNET towers are typically have bigger footprint, in some stances > 1 km, that may vary between open and closed canopies. Were these differences in spatial scale between model and observation accounted? Figure 2c suggests otherwise and diverging patterns could be driven by the scale. See Desjardins et al., 1992; Baker et al. 2003, and Griebel et al., for details.

That is a good point. We do admit that the tower footprints may bias the comparison of surface fluxes between the open and forest sites. In other words, the observed difference between the paired sites can only be partially attributed to land cover change because their environmental conditions may be different. However, it is relatively difficult to eliminate its effects on observed surface fluxes.

As most of current studies using paired sites to represent LULCC, we have assumed that the paired sites share the similar background atmospheric conditions, and any differences in surface climate conditions can be attributed to the the LULCC (e.g., Teuling et al. 2010; Luysaert et al. 2014; Vanden Broucke et al 2015; Lejeune et al. 2017).

Meanwhile, we run the single-point simulations with two types of meteorological forcings for each site (measurements at this site and measurement at the neighboring paired site), which can generate three types of simulated flux difference (difference derived from individual forcings, difference from identical "forest forcings", and difference from identical "open forcings"). Because meteorological measurements at individual FLUXNET towers can be influenced by

their local environment, our experimental design (by switching the forcings) can effectively examine the effects of tower footprints in simulating surface fluxes and their difference. In figure 2a-b, the simulated latent heat fluxes are consistent between the two types of forcings (solid red/orange circles vs. triangles). Figure 2c also shows consistent signals from the three types of simulated differences. Therefore, our comparisons are robust and can effectively represent the LULCC-induced climate change, and the impacts of footprints at individual sites are probably trivial.

We have added more explanation and discussion to clarify this in the revised manuscript (P21-22, L471-482).

2) The inclusion of CLM-PFT and CLM-PFTCOL with CRUNCEP forcing makes no sense to me as you cannot directly compare the diurnal energy fluxes with other simulations and attribute the differences to LULCC. For direct comparison, all model simulations should be forced with similar climate forcings. At least, I will not try to use these simulations to explore mechanism as shown in Figure 3 and discussed between Line 231:248.

Sorry for the confusion. The CLM-PFT and CLM-PFTCOL simulations are included because the final goal of evaluating the LSMs at point scale is to using them to investigate the LULCC-induced climate change at global scale. Therefore, it is worthwhile to examine if the sub-grid results from global simulations are comparable and consistent with the single-point simulations.

First, the PFT-level comparison from CLM-PFT or CLM-PFTCOL can be considered as the impacts of LULCC. The PFTs in a single grid box share the exactly same meteorological forcings, but biogeophysical and biogeochemical processes are calculated for each PFT independently. It is analogous to the comparison between the paired-site simulations.

Second, we definitely agree that it would be better if the direct comparison can have all the simulations with the same forcings. However, it is impossible to have single-point and global simulations with identical forcings because of their scales are different. The climatological simulations (CLM-PFT and CLM-PFTCOL) are forced with CRUNCEP forcings in 1991-2010, which covers the observational period of most of the paired sites. Meanwhile, the PFT-level results are extracted based on the geographical location of the paired sites, to ensure the single-point and global simulations have the similar climate. Based on the results, we can also find that the single-point and global simulations are comparable and consistent in most of the cases, especially when the shared-soil-column issue is fixed (CLM-PFTCOL).

To clarify this, we have added to the revised manuscript: *“The paired PFTs are identified based on the locations and land cover types of the FLUXNET paired sites, to ensure the single-point and global simulations comparable.”* (P8, L175-176).

3) I do not see the point of including the FLUXNET data with energy balance closure correction when it is not being discussed after Figure 2. This only makes the figures crowded and confusing. Suggest comparing the uncorrected and corrected observations in the beginning, or may in the supplemental, and then using one of the two as a reference for further comparisons with model simulations [which you have already done for some figures].

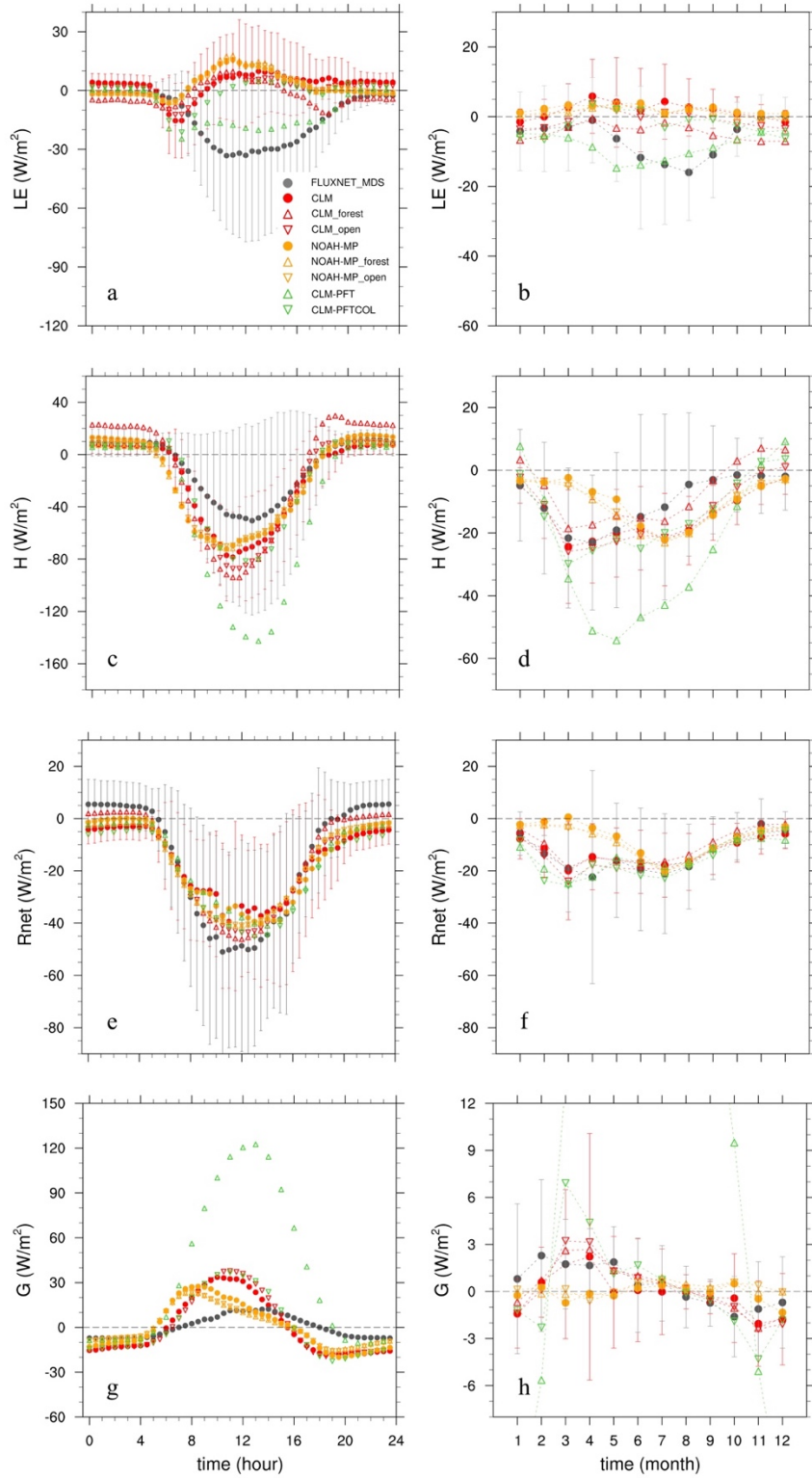
Thank you for the suggestion. We have removed the balance-closure corrected fluxes from Figure 4~6. A supplementary figure is added to compare the corrected and uncorrected observations (Figure S2 and P13, L275-276).

4) Considering the large difference in LE between some of the paired sites (in particular 3, 7, 12, and 15) I would suggest setting a threshold for inclusion. These differences in LE and H within paired sites are comparable to the corresponding changes under deforestation and cannot be overlooked.

That is a good point. Figure R2 (below) shows the changes in  $LE$ ,  $H$ ,  $G$ , and  $R_{net}$  from forest to open (open – forest) land excluding the pairs 3, 7, 12, and 15. The exclusion of these pairs shows very consistent patterns with the results including all sites (Figure 2-9), even though there is a slight influence on the magnitude of changes in fluxes (e.g., daytime  $LE$ ). Therefore, large changes in surface fluxes within some pairs (or “outliers”) do not affect the robustness of our results. We have included this figure in the supplementary information (Figure S1), and added some discussion in the revised manuscript (P10, L204-206).

5) As of now the analysis is mostly focused on validation with very little emphasis on the sources of over- and under-estimation in energy fluxes. The discussion section is very speculative and mostly hand waving. Authors should put more emphasis on mechanistic model diagnosis that goes beyond forcing.

The step from validation to diagnosis is large. For CLM in particular, there is a mechanism through the NCAR Land Model Working Group (LMWG) to illuminate and contribute to model development. The authors actively participate in the LMWG and collaborate with colleagues at NCAR to mechanistically diagnose and improve the model. We do have some discussion about the possible reason for the biases (L416-426; L439-464), but taking the next step to systematic diagnosis will be part of our collaborative project with NCAR colleagues.



**Figure R2.** Change in the diurnal (left) and seasonal (right) cycle of LE ( $W/m^2$ , a-b), H ( $W/m^2$ , c-d), Rnet ( $W/m^2$ , e-f), and G ( $W/m^2$ , g-h) from forest to open (open – forest) land excluding the pairs 3, 7, 12, and 15.

Minor Points:

L35: what do you mean by deficiencies over forest land-cover type?

It means greater bias over the forest land-cover types. The models show greater biases in estimating the *LE* and *H* over forest, thus cannot capture the observed decrease in *LE* after deforestation. We have changed this sentence to make our statement clearer: “*These deficiencies are mainly associated with models’ greater biases over forest land-cover types and the parameterization of soil evaporation*” (P2, L34-35).

L58 which were associated?

Sorry for the confusion. It indicates “the different climatic responses”. We have reframed this sentence: “... *Brovkin et al. (2013) also found different climatic responses to LULCC among the participating models, and the diverse responses are associated with different parameterizations ...*” (P3, L58).

L130-133: I do not think this statement is supported by data, at least for some sites.

True, we have revised the sentence: “*Below we show that the differences in meteorology are usually small and not likely a dominant factor in simulated surface flux differences in most of the pairs*” (P6, L133).

L165-166 do PFT in CLM are the same as the land cover reported for FLUXNET sites?

Yes. For a grid cell in CLM, the sub-grid heterogeneity is described as the percentage of each PFT (totally 15 PFTs are potentially available). The two paired sites are close enough spatially that we can consider them as two different PFTs within a single climate model grid cell. Because the surface fluxes are calculated at the individual PFT level, we can extract the output of the corresponding PFT based on the reported land cover type of each flux site. We have added more explanation in the revised manuscript (P8, L165, L168-171).

Figure 1: source of land cover?

The land cover type of each site is based on the reported land cover in FLUXNET database. We have added this information in the revised manuscript (P35, L696-697).

Figure 2: label each panel with “a”, “b”, and “c”. Also, in caption Table reference is missing. Note that the difference is calculated as closed-open canopy?

Thank you for the suggestion. We have added the panel labels for these figures. Also, we have added the note that the difference is calculated as “*open-forest*” in the figure captions (Figure 2).

Figures 5-10: DO NOT USE SAME AS. It is very difficult to flip pages back and forth in order to understand the figure.

Agree. We have changes the captions for those figures.

Figures 11 and 13 are very difficult to follow. Not sure what you mean observations or model also the arrows showing LC conversion. Also, instead of 1-7, why not directly label using actual simulation type?

Thank you for the suggestion. The source “observations or models” just means how each column is calculated (based on observations or model simulations). Yes, the arrows just show the land cover change (from a forest type to an open type). We have replaced the numbers with actual observation or simulations types (Figure 10 and 12).

Reference:

- Lejeune, Q., S. I. Seneviratne, and E. L. Davin, 2017: Historical Land-Cover Change Impacts on Climate: Comparative Assessment of LUCID and CMIP5 Multimodel Experiments. *J. Climate*, 30, 1439-1459, doi:10.1175/JCLI-D-16-0213.1.
- Luyssaert, S. and Coauthors, 2014: Land management and land-cover change have impacts of similar magnitude on surface temperature. *Nature Climate Change*, 4, 389-393, doi:10.1038/nclimate2196.
- Teuling, A. J. and Coauthors, 2010: Contrasting response of European forest and grassland energy exchange to heatwaves. *Nature Geoscience*, 3, 722-727, doi:10.1038/ngeo950.
- Vanden Broucke, S., S. Luyssaert, E. L. Davin, I. Janssens, and N. van Lipzig, 2015: New insights in the capability of climate models to simulate the impact of LUC based on temperature decomposition of paired site observations. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 120, 5417-5436, doi:10.1002/2015JD023095.



1 **Pairing FLUXNET Sites to Validate Model Representations of Land**  
2 **Use/Land Cover Change**

3  
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23 **Abstract**

24 Land surface energy and water fluxes play an important role in land-atmosphere interactions,  
25 especially for the climatic feedback effects driven by land use/land cover change (LULCC).  
26 These have long been documented in model-based studies, but the performance of land surface  
27 models in representing LULCC-induced responses has not been well investigated. In this study,  
28 measurements from proximate paired (open versus forest) flux tower sites are used to represent  
29 observed deforestation-induced changes in surface fluxes, which are compared with simulations  
30 from the Community Land Model (CLM) and the Noah Multi-Parameterization (Noah-MP) land  
31 model. Point-scale simulations suggest CLM can represent the observed diurnal and seasonal  
32 changes in net radiation ( $R_{net}$ ) and ground heat flux ( $G$ ), but difficulties remain in the energy  
33 partitioning between latent ( $LE$ ) and sensible ( $H$ ) heat flux. CLM does not capture the observed  
34 decreased daytime  $LE$ , and overestimates the increased  $H$  during summer. These deficiencies are  
35 mainly associated with models' greater biases over forest land-cover types and the  
36 parameterization of soil evaporation. Global gridded simulations with CLM show uncertainties  
37 in the estimation of  $LE$  and  $H$  at the grid level for regional and global simulations. Noah-MP  
38 exhibits a similar ability to simulate the surface flux changes, but with larger biases in  $H$ ,  $G$ , and  
39  $R_{net}$  change during late winter and early spring, which are related to a deficiency in estimating  
40 albedo. Differences in meteorological conditions between paired sites is not a factor in these  
41 results. Attention needs to be devoted to improving the representation of surface heat flux  
42 processes in land models to increase confidence in LULCC simulations.

43

44

45 **1. Introduction**

46

47 Earth system models (ESMs) have long been used to investigate the climatic impacts of land  
48 use/land cover change (LULCC) (cf. Pielke et al. 2011; Mahmood et al. 2014). Results from  
49 sensitivity studies largely depend on the land surface model (LSM) that is coupled to the  
50 atmospheric model within ESMs. In the context of the Land-Use and Climate, Identification of  
51 Robust Impacts (LUCID) project, Pitman et al. (2009) found disagreement among the LSMs in  
52 simulating the LULCC-induced changes in summer latent heat flux over the Northern  
53 Hemisphere. de Noblet-Ducoudré et al. (2012) and Boiser et al. (2012) argued that the inter-  
54 model spread of LULCC sensitivity (especially regarding the partitioning of available energy  
55 between latent and sensible heat fluxes within the different land-cover types) highlights an  
56 urgent need for a rigorous evaluation of LSMs. From Phase 5 of the Coupled Model Inter-  
57 comparison Project (CMIP5), Brovkin et al. (2013) also found different climatic responses to  
58 LULCC among the participating models, and the diverse responses are associated with different  
59 parameterizations of land surface processes among ESMs. To deal with the uncertainties in  
60 LULCC sensitivity among models, the Land Use Model Inter-comparison Project (LUMIP) has  
61 been planned, with a goal to develop metrics and diagnostic protocols that quantify LSM  
62 performance and related sensitivities with respect to LULCC (Lawrence et al. 2016).

63

64 However, a paucity of useful observations has hindered the assessment of the simulated impacts  
65 of LULCC and limited the understanding of the discrepancies among models. In-situ and satellite  
66 observations make it possible to quantify the impacts of LULCC on land surface variables.  
67 Satellite-derived datasets have been used to explore the albedo, evapotranspiration (ET), and

68 land surface temperature changes due to historical LULCC (Boisier et al. 2013, 2014) and the  
69 climatic effects of forest (Li et al. 2015).  
70  
71 Meanwhile, the development of FLUXNET (Baldocchi et al. 2001) enables the study of land  
72 surface responses to different land-cover types based on paired field observations from  
73 neighboring flux towers over forest and open land (Juang et al. 2007; Lee et al. 2011; Luyssaert  
74 et al. 2014; Teuling et al. 2010; Williams et al. 2012). In terms of LSM evaluation, the paired site  
75 observations have been mainly used to simulated impacts of LULCC on land surface temperature  
76 (Chen and Dirmeyer 2016; Lejeune et al. 2016; Vanden Broucke et al. 2015). However, a more  
77 fundamental question, “whether a model can well represent the observed LULCC-induced  
78 changes in surface energy fluxes”, has not been thoroughly investigated, even though we know  
79 that the turbulent fluxes are tightly associated with both energy and water exchange between the  
80 land surface and atmosphere.

81  
82 In this study, we evaluate the performance of the Community Land Model (CLM) version 4.5  
83 and the Noah Multi-Parameterization (Noah-MP) LSM in simulating the impacts of LULCC on  
84 surface energy fluxes based on observations from FLUXNET sites. CLM and Noah-MP  
85 represent perhaps the two most readily available and widely used state-of-the-art community  
86 land models developed in the U.S. CLM is chosen because, as the land component for  
87 Community Earth System Model (CESM), it prioritizes the simulation of biogeophysical and  
88 biogeochemical processes for climate applications (Oleson et al. 2013). Much effort has gone  
89 into improving the representation of the land-atmosphere interactions among different biomes  
90 (Bonan et al. 2011), and the model itself has been used for many LULCC sensitivity studies

91 (e.g., Chen and Dirmeyer 2016, 2017; Schultz et al. 2016; Lejeune et al. 2017; Lawrence et al.  
92 2012). Noah-MP has found use mainly in shorter time-scale, limited area applications, such as  
93 weather and hydrologic forecasting, and as a LSM run at very high resolution coupled to  
94 mesoscale models (e.g., WRF-Hydro, Gochis et al. 2015). It is planned to become the LSM used  
95 in global weather and seasonal forecasting applications at the National Centers for  
96 Environmental Prediction (NCEP). Its performance over varying land cover types has direct  
97 consequences for its use in forecast models.

98

99 The rest of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 describes the datasets used in the study  
100 and experimental design. Section 3 presents comparison between observations and model  
101 simulations in surface latent and sensible heat flux, ground heat flux, and net radiation. Section 4  
102 shows the uncertainties within the FLUXNET pairs and model simulations. Sections 5 and 6  
103 include discussion and conclusions, respectively.

104

## 105 **2. Methodology**

106

### 107 *2.1 Observational data*

108

109 We use half-hourly observations from 24 selected pairs of flux sites from the FLUXNET2015  
110 Tier 1 dataset (<http://fluxnet.fluxdata.org/data/fluxnet2015-dataset>) and 4 pairs from the  
111 AmeriFlux dataset (Baldocchi et al. 2001). These observations include meteorological forcings  
112 for the LSM, and surface flux measurements for model validation, which include latent heat flux  
113 ( $LE$ ), sensible heat flux ( $H$ ), ground heat flux ( $G$ ), and net radiation ( $R_{net}$ ). All of these variables

114 have been gap-filled (Reichstein et al. 2005; Vuichard and Papale 2015). Table 1 shows the  
115 variable names and gap-filling algorithms used in FLUXNET2015. Because there is no directly  
116 measured humidity variable reported, which is needed as a meteorological forcing for the LSMs,  
117 relative humidity is calculated based on the reported vapor pressure deficit and surface air  
118 temperature (Equation 1-2).

$$e_s = 6.11 \exp\left(17.26938818 \frac{T_a}{237.3 + T_a}\right) \quad (1)$$

$$RH = \left(1 - \frac{VPD}{e_s}\right) \times 100 \quad (2)$$

119 in which  $T_a$  is air temperature (°C),  $e_s$  is saturation vapor pressure (hPa),  $VPD$  is vapor pressure  
120 deficit (hPa), and  $RH$  is relative humidity (%). Additionally, for the turbulent flux measurements  
121 over 18 pairs, FLUXNET2015 provides “corrected” fluxes based on an energy balance closure  
122 correction factor, which is calculated for each half-hour as  $(R_{net} - G) / (H + LE)$ . More details  
123 about the data processing can be found on the FLUXNET2015 website  
124 (<http://fluxnet.fluxdata.org/data/fluxnet2015-dataset/data-processing/>).

125  
126 To simulate local land cover change for each pair, one flux tower is located in forest (deciduous,  
127 evergreen or mixed; broadleaf or needleleaf) and the other is in a nearby open land cover type  
128 (grassland, cropland or open shrub). Figure 1 shows the locations of the paired sites. Their  
129 general characteristics are listed in Table S1. The median linear distance between the paired sites  
130 is 21.6 km, and the median elevation difference is 20.0 m. Because of their proximities, the  
131 paired sites share similar atmospheric background conditions, however they are not identical  
132 (Chen and Dirmeyer 2016). Below we show that **the differences in meteorology are usually small**  
133 **and not likely a dominant factor in simulated surface flux differences in most of the pairs.** We

134 consider the differences (open minus forest) in observed surface fluxes to be representative of the  
135 effects of LULCC (deforestation in this case).

136

## 137 *2.2 Model simulations*

138

139 We have run the offline version of CLM 4.5 and Noah-MP at the point-scale for individual sites.

140 The forcing data, described below, includes downwelling long-wave radiation ( $W/m^2$ ),

141 downwelling short-wave radiation ( $W/m^2$ ), air temperature (K), precipitation (mm/s), relative

142 humidity (%), surface pressure (Pa), and wind speed (m/s) at half-hourly time steps. The plant

143 functional type (PFT) in CLM for each site is identified based on its reported land cover type

144 (Table S1) with prescribed climatological satellite phenology (Lawrence and Chase, 2010).

145 Because of the focus on biogeophysical impacts of LULCC in this study, the biogeochemistry

146 Carbon-Nitrogen module has been disabled in our simulations. The initial conditions for each

147 site are generated by cycling through available atmospheric forcings for about 40 years until soil

148 moisture and temperature reach quasi-equilibrium.

149

150 The differences in simulated surface fluxes between the paired sites are compared against the

151 observations, so that the performance of CLM in representing LULCC-induced surface flux

152 changes can be evaluated. In the single-point simulations, two types of forcing data are used for

153 each site: 1) measurements at this site; 2) measurements at the neighboring paired site.

154 Consequently, three types of differences in simulated surface fluxes can be calculated: 1) the

155 difference derived from individual forcings; 2) the difference from identical “forest forcings”

156 (both of the paired sites use the same forcings measured at the forest site); 3) the difference from

157 identical “open forcings” (both of the paired sites use the same forcings measured at the open  
158 sites). Such an experimental design can well eliminate the influence from the uncertainties of  
159 forcing data and the difference in atmospheric background of the paired sites.

160

161 The ultimate goal of evaluating CLM’s performance at single-point scale is to assess its  
162 capability to be used in global LULCC sensitivity simulations in both offline and coupled modes.

163 The paired sites are close enough that they are typically located within a single grid cell of  
164 CESM. Moreover, the sub-grid heterogeneity of CLM allows the biogeophysical processes to be  
165 calculated at the individual PFT level (15 PFTs available), and makes it possible to output  
166 surface fluxes for individual land cover types. The paired sites can be presented as paired PFTs  
167 within a single grid of CESM. They then share the same atmospheric forcings, and their  
168 differences can be considered as the impacts of LULCC. It should be noted that the PFT-level  
169 calculation is independent of the percentage of individual PFTs in the grid cell. Therefore, the  
170 coverage of the PFTs in the shared grid cell does not influence the flux difference between the  
171 paired PFTs in the global simulations.

172

173 We run CLM offline, globally driven by the CRUNCEP forcings from 1991 to 2010 (Viovy  
174 2011) and present land cover conditions (Lawrence et al. 2012) at a horizontal resolution of  
175  $0.9^{\circ} \times 1.25^{\circ}$ . The paired PFTs are identified based on the locations and land cover types of the  
176 FLUXNET paired sites, to ensure the single-point and global simulations are comparable.

177 Schultz et al. (2016) found the shared-soil-column configuration for vegetated land units in CLM  
178 caused issues with PFT-level ground heat fluxes. They propose an individual-soil-column  
179 scheme (PFTCOL) to better represent the PFT-level energy fluxes, so we also extract and



180 examine the output for the paired PFTs from the PFTCOL model configuration. Details about the  
181 PFTCOL simulations can be found in Schultz et al. (2016). Additionally, a coupled simulation  
182 with Community Atmosphere Model (CAM) has also been conducted. It shows very similar  
183 results to the offline simulations, because the paired PFTs in a single model grid box always  
184 share the same atmospheric forcings no matter if CLM is run offline or coupled with CAM.  
185 Therefore, results from the coupled simulation are not included in this study.

186

187 Furthermore, we compare the performance of CLM with Noah-MP (Niu et al. 2011), which  
188 serves as a participant model in Land Data Assimilation Systems (LDAS, Cai et al. 2014).  
189 Single-point Noah-MP simulations are conducted in the same way as CLM simulations to ensure  
190 their comparability. The monthly leaf area index (LAI) of each site is identical to the prescribed  
191 satellite-based LAI in the corresponding CLM simulation. Table S2 shows selected options for  
192 various physical processes in Noah-MP. Information about all model simulations is summarized  
193 in Table 2.

194

### 195 **3. Surface energy fluxes and their changes**

196

197 First, we analyze the diurnal and seasonal cycles of surface energy fluxes and the LULCC-  
198 induced changes. The diurnal cycle analysis is primarily focused on summer (DJF for the two  
199 austral sites and JJA for the other sites). The seasonal cycle for the austral sites is shifted by 6  
200 months to keep summer in the middle of the time series when comparing or compositing with the  
201 Northern Hemisphere sites. The results shown below are composites averaged over all open (or  
202 forest) sites or open-forest pairs. Not all sites have energy-balance corrected fluxes available;

203 exclusion of those sites shows very similar results for uncorrected fluxes to the average over all  
204 sites (or pairs, not shown). There are also some pairs with relatively large changes in surface  
205 fluxes. Exclusion of those pairs shows very consistent patterns with the results including all sites,  
206 even though there is a slight influence on the magnitude of the changes (Figure S1). Therefore,  
207 all sites are included in our analyses for each variable.

208

### 209 3.1 Latent heat flux (*LE*)

210

211 Figure 2a-b shows the diurnal cycle of *LE* averaged over all the open sites and forest sites during  
212 summer. Compared with the observations without energy-balance correction, single-point CLM  
213 simulations overestimate *LE* for the open sites with both their actual meteorological forcings and  
214 the nearby forest forcings, but underestimate *LE* over the forest sites. The extracted PFT-level  
215 output from the global simulations also exhibit similar biases. Relative to CLM, Noah-MP  
216 simulations show better agreement with observations over the open sites, but a greater  
217 underestimation over forest. The energy-balance correction tends to increase the values of *LE*.  
218 Therefore, both CLM and Noah-MP have negative biases compared to the corrected fluxes  
219 (except *LE\_CORR\_25* over the open sites).

220

221 Figure 2c shows the difference in the diurnal cycle of *LE* due to LULCC (deforestation). It  
222 should be noted that there is a substantial spread among the pairs in model simulations and  
223 especially observations, indicating the diverse geographical backgrounds and specific vegetation  
224 changes of these paired sites. The observations suggest an overall lower summer daytime *LE*  
225 over the open land compared to forest. In spite of the considerable spread among the energy-

226 balance corrected *LE* observations (Figure 2ab), the differences between the forest and open  
227 lands show consistent signals. However, both CLM and Noah-MP single-point simulations fail to  
228 represent the observed decreased daytime *LE* as a result of deforestation. The simulated *LE* over  
229 the open land is usually slightly greater than the forest from 10:00 to 16:00 at local time. Such a  
230 discrepancy may be attributed to the large underestimation of daytime forest *LE* in the models.  
231 Meanwhile, simulations by different forcings of the paired sites show robust signals, implying  
232 that the bias of the simulated *LE* sensitivity should not be attributed to the uncertainties of the  
233 forcing data. For the CLM global simulations, the PFTCOL case exhibits a similar diurnal  
234 pattern to the single-point simulations, while decreased daytime *LE* is found consistently only in  
235 the PFT simulations. As CLM-PFT is less physically realistic than CLM-PFTCOL from a soil  
236 hydrologic perspective, its superior performance is curious.

237

238 To explore the mechanism of the *LE* changes within CLM, we examine the changes in the three  
239 components of evapotranspiration; namely canopy evaporation, canopy transpiration, and ground  
240 evaporation (Figure 3). Unfortunately, these separate components are not measured and cannot  
241 be directly validated. The CLM, PFT and PFTCOL simulations show an agreement in decreased  
242 canopy evaporation after deforestation with the greatest decrease during the early morning.

243 There also is an agreement in an overall decreased canopy transpiration, but CLM simulations do  
244 not exhibit an obvious change during the morning when greatly decreased canopy transpiration  
245 can be found in the PFT and PFTCOL simulations. The main discrepancy among model versions  
246 is found in ground evaporation, which increases after deforestation in the CLM and PFTCOL  
247 simulations. The increased ground evaporation has exceeded the decreased canopy evaporation  
248 and transpiration, resulting in slightly increased *LE* (Figure 2c). Interestingly, the PFT

249 simulations, which have known issues with PFT-level ground heat flux (Schultz et al. 2016),  
250 show decreased daytime ground evaporation. Along with decreased canopy evaporation,  
251 transpiration, and ground evaporation, the total  $LE$  decreases sharply after deforestation in the  
252 PFT simulations, which agrees better with the observations than other simulations (Figure 2c).  
253 However, the decreased ground evaporation may be associated with a problematic soil-column  
254 scheme at sub-grid scale, which undermines the credibility of the agreement between the  
255 observations and PFT simulations.

256

257 Figure 4 shows the changes in monthly  $LE$  after deforestation across the annual cycle. There is  
258 clear and consistent seasonality in the  $LE$  changes from the observations. The four types of  
259 observations show decreased  $LE$  (up to  $-24.0 \text{ W/m}^2$ ) during local summer. There is little change  
260 in  $LE$  in the uncorrected observations during the winter season. However, there is significantly  
261 increased  $LE$  (up to  $+17.9 \text{ W/m}^2$ ) in the energy-balance corrected observations in late winter and  
262 early spring. Neither CLM nor Noah-MP capture the observed seasonality of  $LE$  change. As  
263 found in the change in the diurnal cycle of the  $LE$ , the PFTCOL simulations exhibit a similar  
264 pattern to the single-point simulations, while the PFT simulations show decreased  $LE$  throughout  
265 the year with the maximum from May to August, and the best correlation ( $R = 0.81$ ,  $P < 0.01$ )  
266 with observations.

267

### 268 *3.2 Sensible heat flux ( $H$ )*

269

270 Figure 5a-b shows the diurnal cycle of  $H$  averaged over all open and forest sites during local  
271 summer. Generally, the models overestimate  $H$  throughout the day, with the largest positive bias

272 during midday. Compared with the observations without energy-balance correction, the  
273 overestimation can be up to  $86.5 \text{ W/m}^2$  from CLM over the forest during noon and  $46.4 \text{ W/m}^2$   
274 over the open sites. The difference in  $H$  between the forest and open sites is shown in Figure 5c.  
275 Robust signals are found among the four types of observations, so results from the energy-  
276 balance corrected observations are not included hereafter, but are shown in Figure S2. Both  
277 observations and models exhibit a clear diurnal pattern of change in  $H$  after deforestation – a  
278 small nighttime increase and a large daytime decrease. Observations show a large spread among  
279 the 28 pairs, which is much greater than that from the CLM simulations, indicating uncertainties  
280 and variability among the observed fluxes and the robustness of simulated  $H$  sensitivity to  
281 LULCC in the LSM. Compared with the observations, CLM shows a greater  $H$  decrease, which  
282 is twice as much as in the observations. The overestimated  $H$  decrease may be related to the large  
283 positive bias in  $H$  over the forest sites (Figure 5b). Additionally, the PFT simulations show the  
284 largest  $H$  decrease, which may be associated with the ground heat issues in the shared-soil-  
285 column scheme.

286

287 Seasonally, decreased  $H$  is found throughout the year after deforestation in both observations and  
288 models (except for the same-forest-forcing CLM simulations in winter, Figure 6). The greatest  
289 decrease is observed during spring, when both of the single-point CLM and PFTCOL  
290 simulations show good agreement. However, CLM and Noah-MP simulations also show a large  
291 decrease during summer, which has not been observed in the FLUXNET dataset. Again, the PFT  
292 simulations show the greatest  $H$  decrease among the simulations and the largest bias compared  
293 with the observations during the warm season.

294

295 Additionally, evaporative fraction ( $EF$ ), which is defined as the ratio of  $LE$  to the available  
296 energy ( $LE+H$ ), is a useful diagnostic of the surface energy balance (Gentine et al. 2011).  
297 Meanwhile, most of the correction methods to solve the imbalance issue of surface energy  
298 budget assume the Bowen ratio for small- and large-scale eddies are similar or even equal  
299 (Wilson et al. 2002; Foken 2008; Zhou and Wang 2016). Under such an assumption,  $EF$  can be  
300 independent of energy closure issue, because  $EF$  is related to the Bowen ratio ( $B$ ) as:

$$EF = (1 + B)^{-1} \quad (3)$$

301 Figure 7 shows the change in the diurnal (summer only) and seasonal cycle of  $EF$  due to LULCC  
302 from forest to open land. During summer, there are small changes in observed daytime  $EF$   
303 (Figure 7a) because of the decreases in both  $LE$  and  $H$ . However, both CLM and Noah-MP show  
304 increased daytime  $EF$  due to the decreased  $H$  and slightly increased  $LE$  after deforestation.  
305 Seasonally, the models show year-around increased  $EF$ , however, which is not observed in  
306 FLUXNET from June to September, further demonstrating the models' deficiencies in  
307 representing energy partitioning during summer.

308

### 309 3.3 Diurnal and seasonal cycle of ground heat flux ( $G$ ) and net radiation ( $R_{net}$ )

310

311 Figure 8a shows the change in the diurnal cycle of  $G$  after deforestation. Both the observations  
312 and models exhibit increased  $G$  during the day and decreased  $G$  during the night. However,  
313 models overestimate the magnitude of the  $G$  change, and discrepancies also exist in the timing of  
314 maximum change. The greatest increase in  $G$  is observed during early afternoon, while the  
315 greatest increase in simulated  $G$  occurs at noon in CLM (single-point and PFTCOL) and during  
316 morning in Noah-MP. Because  $G$  is strongly correlated with  $R_{net}$  (Santanello and Friedl 2003),

317 we examine the timing of maximum observed  $G$  and  $R_{net}$  during summer. There are some sites  
318 showing about a 1-hour lag between maximum  $R_{net}$  and  $G$  (not shown). Therefore, the lag  
319 between simulated and observed peaks in  $G$  change can be partially attributed to the uncertainties  
320 in  $G$  measurements that are commonly estimated with heat flux plates installed at some depth  
321 (e.g., 5~10 cm) below the surface (Wang and Bou-Zeid 2012), while the LSM simulated  $G$  is  
322 calculated at the surface. Meanwhile, the  $G$  changes (in both the diurnal and seasonal cycle) in  
323 the PFT simulations are further from the observations than the other simulations. Such  
324 disagreement further confirms the issues with the sub-grid soil column scheme in CLM, which is  
325 discussed in the following section. The changes in observed  $G$  also have a clear seasonal pattern  
326 – an increase during the warm season and a decrease during the cold season (Figure 8b). This  
327 seasonality is well captured by the CLM simulations (especially the simulations with identical  
328 forcings for the paired sites) in both magnitude and timing, but not evident in Noah-MP  
329 simulations.

330

331 After exploring the three flux components of the surface energy balance, it is worthwhile to  
332 examine the change in  $R_{net}$  after deforestation. During summer, the observations show that  $R_{net}$   
333 slightly increases during the night, and decreases considerably (up to  $-65.7 \text{ W/m}^2$ ) during the  
334 day, which can be attributed to the increased albedo after deforestation (Figure 9a). Decreased  
335 daytime  $R_{net}$  is also found in the CLM simulations, but with a slightly smaller magnitude.  
336 Seasonally, there is a good agreement between the observations and CLM simulations, showing  
337 a large  $R_{net}$  decrease during spring and summer but a relatively small decrease during autumn and  
338 winter (Figure 9b). The Noah-MP simulations are comparable to CLM, but with a notable  
339 deficiency in simulating the  $R_{net}$  change during late winter and early spring.

340

## 341 4. Uncertainty Analysis

342

### 343 4.1 Uncertainties among the FLUXNET pairs

344

345 The results discussed above are based on composites averaged over all forest and open sites. It is  
346 worthwhile to examine the uncertainties in surface flux changes among different paired sites.

347 Figure 10a shows the changes in summer daytime (8:00 ~ 16:00)  $LE$  from the observations and  
348 model simulations across the 28 pairs. This time period is chosen because it is the time of  
349 greatest differences in surface energy fluxes (Figure 2c, 5c, 7a, 8a). The observations show  
350 decreased  $LE$  associated with deforestation over 23 pairs, among which the pairs of evergreen  
351 needleleaf forest and open shrub (No. 16~25) exhibit consistent decreases and the pairs of  
352 deciduous broadleaf forest and crops (No. 1~4) show the overall greatest decrease. However,  
353 both CLM and Noah-MP show relatively weak increases over most of the pairs, which further  
354 demonstrate their deficiency in simulating  $LE$  change. Additionally, for both CLM or Noah, the  
355 choice of forcings does not exert much influence on the simulated change in summer daytime  
356  $LE$ .

357

358 The changes in  $R_{net}$  over individual pairs are shown in Figure 10b. There are 27 pairs (all except  
359 number 21) showing decreased  $R_{net}$  after deforestation, with the greatest decreases over the pairs  
360 of evergreen needleleaf forest and grassland. Both CLM and Noah-MP well captures the  
361 observed decreases in  $R_{net}$  over most of the pairs.

362



363 It should be noted that pair 15 shows large  $LE$  and  $R_{net}$  changes in Figure 10. This pair consists of  
364 a site over valley grassland and the other site over mountain evergreen needleleaf forest with  
365 60.29 km separation and 1186 m elevation difference. There are significantly different air  
366 temperature and downwelling longwave radiation measurements between the sites (Figure S3).  
367 Such large differences in  $LE$  and  $R_{net}$  here are likely associated with the distinct although  
368 proximate geographical sites. Even though the exclusion of this site does not make a significant  
369 change to the composite analysis in section 3 (not shown), it may raise another question if the  
370 simulated sensitivity of surface energy fluxes is associated with the inconsistencies of  
371 atmospheric forcings of LSMs at the single pair level.

372

#### 373 *4.2 Uncertainties within the forcings for LSMs*

374

375 Based on the composite analysis in section 3, we have found that the simulated changes in  
376 surface energy fluxes with identical forcings (either from forest or open sites) are consistent with  
377 the simulations with individual forcings, demonstrating that the overall sensitivities of surface  
378 energy fluxes are robust among the choices of different forcings. In this sub-section, we explore  
379 the uncertainties of the simulated surface flux changes due to the different forcings for individual  
380 pairs, especially with the focus on the roles of separation and elevation difference in the  
381 simulated sensitivity of surface energy fluxes.

382

383 Since we have simulations with identical forcings for the paired sites, the difference in surface  
384 flux changes between “forest forcings” and “open forcings” can be considered as the simulated  
385 sensitivity of surface energy fluxes to variation in the atmospheric forcings. Figure 11 shows the

386 relationship with separation and elevation difference for individual pairs. Overall, the flux  
387 changes are not associated with the separation and elevation difference between the paired sites,  
388 further confirming the robustness of simulated signals from paired-site simulations.  
389 Nevertheless, some “outliers” are identified. In the CLM simulations, only pair 15 shows large  
390 differences in  $LE$  and  $H$  change. However, pairs 3, 7, and 12 also exhibit large differences in  
391 Noah-MP simulations. The uncertainties in pairs 12 and 15 may be attributed to their large  
392 elevation differences. For pair 7 in Australia, Noah-MP shows greater sensitivity of  $H$  and  $R_{net}$  to  
393 atmospheric forcings over the evergreen broadleaf forest than grassland (not shown), leading to  
394 large differences in the surface flux changes. However, this is the only pair with evergreen  
395 broadleaf forest, and its behavior in Noah-MP needs further investigation. Even though the pair 3  
396 sites are close with small elevation difference, we found considerably different downwelling  
397 shortwave and longwave radiation between the two sites (not shown), which may explain the  
398 uncertainties in the Noah-MP simulations.

399

## 400 **5. Discussion**

401

402 This study has examined simulated changes in the surface energy budget in response to local  
403 land cover change based on paired proximate FLUXNET sites with differing land cover. Our  
404 results suggest that CLM well represents the observed changes in  $R_{net}$  and  $G$ ; but there remain  
405 issues in simulating the energy partitioning between  $LE$  and  $H$ , which also further confirms the  
406 large uncertainties in simulated ET responses to LULCC revealed in several recent studies (e.g.,  
407 Pitman et al. 2009; Boisier et al. 2012, 2014; de Noblet-Ducoudré et al. 2012; Vanden Broucke  
408 et al. 2015). Based on the observations, deforestation generally leads to a decrease in summer

409 daytime  $R_{net}$ , accompanied by decreased  $LE$  and  $H$ . On one hand, CLM captures the observed  
410 signal of  $H$  change, but overestimates the decrease due to its large overestimation of  $H$  over the  
411 forest. On the other hand, the model underestimates the  $LE$  over the forest, leading to an opposite  
412 signal (a slight increase) of  $LE$  change comparing to the observations. Simulations in Noah-MP  
413 show similar biases. Therefore, uncertainties in current LULCC sensitivity studies may persist  
414 specifically in the representation of turbulent fluxes over forest land-cover types.

415

416 Scrutinizing the three components of ET suggests that the simulated increase in summer daytime  
417  $LE$  is mainly attributable to a large increase in ground evaporation, which counteracts the  
418 decreased canopy evaporation and transpiration. This may raise another issue about the soil  
419 resistance parameterization in CLM4.5. Previous studies indicate that the model generates  
420 excessive ground evaporation when the canopy is sparse or absent (Swenson and Lawrence  
421 2014; Tang et al. 2015). If there is overestimated ground evaporation over the open land, such a  
422 bias can also contribute to the disagreement in the LULCC-induced ET changes. Swenson and  
423 Lawrence (2014) have implemented a dry surface layer for the soil resistance parameterization to  
424 solve this issue for the upcoming CLM5. An extension of the evaluation with CLM5 would be  
425 useful to examine if the issue within the soil resistance parameterization is responsible for the  
426 uncertainties in ET changes.

427

428 Besides the uncertainties in estimating turbulent fluxes over different land cover types, the  
429 simulations show that differences in the meteorological forcings between nearby paired sites  
430 seem to have little impact on the simulation of surface flux changes due to LULCC. Many  
431 LSMs besides CLM employ a sub-grid tiling parameterization where multiple land surface types

432 exist within a single grid box, each maintaining a separate set of surface balances and returning a  
433 weighted average set of fluxes to the atmosphere based on areal coverage of each surface type.  
434 In this arrangement, each land surface type within a grid box receives the same meteorological  
435 forcing from the overlying atmospheric model. It appears from our forcing-sensitivity studies  
436 that this arrangement does not significantly impact the simulation of surface flux changes  
437 associated with LULCC on the grid scale.

438

439 That said, the sub-grid comparison between different land cover types may yet be problematic  
440 due to the shared soil column issue for vegetated land units in CLM (Schultz et al. 2016). Both  
441 the single-point observations and simulations show significant differences in surface soil  
442 moisture between most of the paired sites, even though no clear drying or wetting pattern is  
443 found (Figure S4). The differences between the paired sites suggests that the shared soil column  
444 for vegetated land in CLM may not well represent soil moisture and temperature at the sub-grid  
445 scale, which may influence the simulations of land surface energy and water fluxes. We find an  
446 unreasonably large change in PFT-level  $G$  between forest and open land especially for the  
447 seasonal cycle in PFT simulations, while both observations, single-point and PFTCOL  
448 simulations show a seasonal change with a very small range (within  $\pm 3\text{W/m}^2$ ). As  $G$  is the  
449 calculated as the residual of the surface energy budget in CLM (Oleson et al. 2013), this sub-grid  
450  $G$  issue may cast even more uncertainties on the calculation of  $LE$  and  $H$  at the PFT level, as well  
451 as their aggregated values at the grid level for regional or global simulations. Therefore, caution  
452 should be taken when examining the LULCC sensitivity which involves sub-grid PFT changes.

453

454 Compared with CLM, Noah-MP exhibits a similar ability to simulate surface flux changes,  
455 except for a deficiency in simulating  $H$  and  $R_{net}$  changes during late winter and early spring. We  
456 have examined the daytime albedo change after deforestation, calculated from available  
457 shortwave radiation terms, from observations and model simulations during local late  
458 winter/early spring (February ~ April, FMA) and summer (Figure 12). Both CLM and Noah-MP  
459 agree with the observations during summer. However, Noah-MP does not capture the observed  
460 albedo increase over nearly half of the pairs during late winter/early spring. Greater disagreement  
461 is also found during the local winter season (DJF, not shown), suggesting a deficiency in  
462 snowmelt timing or snow albedo sensitivity to LULCC, despite improvement in the snow surface  
463 albedo simulations by implementation of the Canadian Land Surface Scheme (CLASS;  
464 Verseghy, 1991) in Noah-MP (Niu et al. 2011).

465

466 Finally, it should be recognized that the observational data are not perfect. In particular, there  
467 may be systematic biases or even trends in specific instruments that contribute to the perceived  
468 differences between paired sites (e.g., site 3). Ideally, redundant instrumentation at sites, or in  
469 this case the rotation of an extra set of instruments among nearby paired sites, could be used to  
470 identify, quantify and account for significant systematic biases in measurements for suspicious  
471 variables. Furthermore, footprints of the flux towers may bias the comparison of surface fluxes  
472 between the open and forest sites (Baker et al. 2003; Griebel et al. 2016). In other words, the  
473 observed differences between sites can only be partially attributed to LULCC because their  
474 environmental conditions may also be different. As most of current studies using paired sites to  
475 represent LULCC, we have assumed that the paired sites share the similar background  
476 atmospheric conditions, and any observed differences in surface climate conditions can be

477 attributed to LULCC (e.g., Lejeune et al. 2017; Luysaert et al. 2014; Teuling et al. 2010;  
478 Vanden Broucke et al 2015). Meanwhile, model simulations with the different forcings can  
479 effectively examine the effects of the local environment of individual sites, because their  
480 footprints can also be taken by the meteorological measurements. Our results show robust signals  
481 of LULCC-induced changes in surface fluxes, implying that impacts of footprints at individual  
482 sites are probably trivial.

483

## 484 **6. Conclusions**

485

486 This study has evaluated the performance of two state-of-the-art LSMs in simulating the  
487 LULCC-induced changes in surface energy fluxes. Observations from 28 FLUXNET pairs (open  
488 versus forest) are used to represent the observed flux changes following deforestation, which are  
489 compared with the LSM simulations forced with meteorological data from the observation sites.  
490 Diurnal and seasonal cycles of the flux changes have been investigated.

491

492 The single-point simulations in CLM and Noah-MP show the greatest bias in simulating *LE*  
493 change. Significantly decreased daytime *LE* is observed during local summer, but not captured  
494 by the models. The observed *LE* changes also exhibit an evident seasonality, which is not  
495 represented in the model. The energy partitioning between *LE* and *H* might be a common issue  
496 within the LSMs. Other studies have noted problems in the simulation of surface fluxes by  
497 LSMs, including poor performance relative to non-physical statistical models (Best et al. 2015,  
498 Haughton et al. 2016).

499

500 The sub-grid comparison from the global simulations in CLM yields unrealistic changes in  $G$  and  
501  $H$  when the soil column is shared among vegetated land units, even though there is a better  
502 agreement in  $LE$  change with the observations. The individual-soil-column scheme improves the  
503 representation of the PFT-level energy flux changes, but uncertainties still remain as with the  
504 point-scale simulations. Therefore, these uncertainties must be considered when interpreting  
505 global experiments of LULCC sensitivity studies with current LSMs.

506

507 Consistent aggregate performance across many paired sites suggests the problems in these LSMs  
508 may not lie primarily with parameter selection at individual sites, but with more fundamental  
509 issues of the representation of physical processes in LSMs. The simulation of LULCC may or  
510 may not have become more consistent among models since LUCID (de Noblet-Ducoudré et al.  
511 2012), but consistency with observed biophysical responses appears to be lacking. LUMIP  
512 (Lawrence et al. 2016) will be a step toward better LSM simulation of LULCC responses, and  
513 ultimately better simulations of the response of climate to LULCC.

514

515

516

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530

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685



686 **Table 1.** Information about the variables used from FLUXNET2015. The marginal distribution  
687 sampling (MDS) filling method is based on Reichstein et al. (2005); and the ERA-interim filling  
688 method can be found in Vuichard and Papale (2015).

Name	Gap-filling	Description
SW_IN_F	MDS and ERA-interim	downwelling shortwave radiation
LW_IN_F	MDS and ERA-interim	downwelling longwave radiation
PA_F	MDS and ERA-interim	atmospheric pressure
TA_F	MDS and ERA-interim	air temperature
VPD_F	MDS and ERA-interim	vapor pressure deficit
P_F	ERA-interim	precipitation
WS_F	ERA-interim	wind speed
LE_F_MDS	MDS	latent heat flux
H_F_MDS	MDS	sensible heat flux
G_F_MDS	MDS	ground heat flux
NETRAD	n/a	net radiation
LE_CORR	n/a	corrected LE_F_MDS by energy balance closure correction factors. LE_CORR_25, LE_CORR, and LE_CORR_75 are calculated based on 25, 50, and 75th percentiles of the factors, respectively.
H_CORR	n/a	corrected H_F_MDS by energy balance closure correction factors. H_CORR_25, H_CORR, and H_CORR_75 are calculated based on 25, 50, and 75th percentiles of the factors, respectively.

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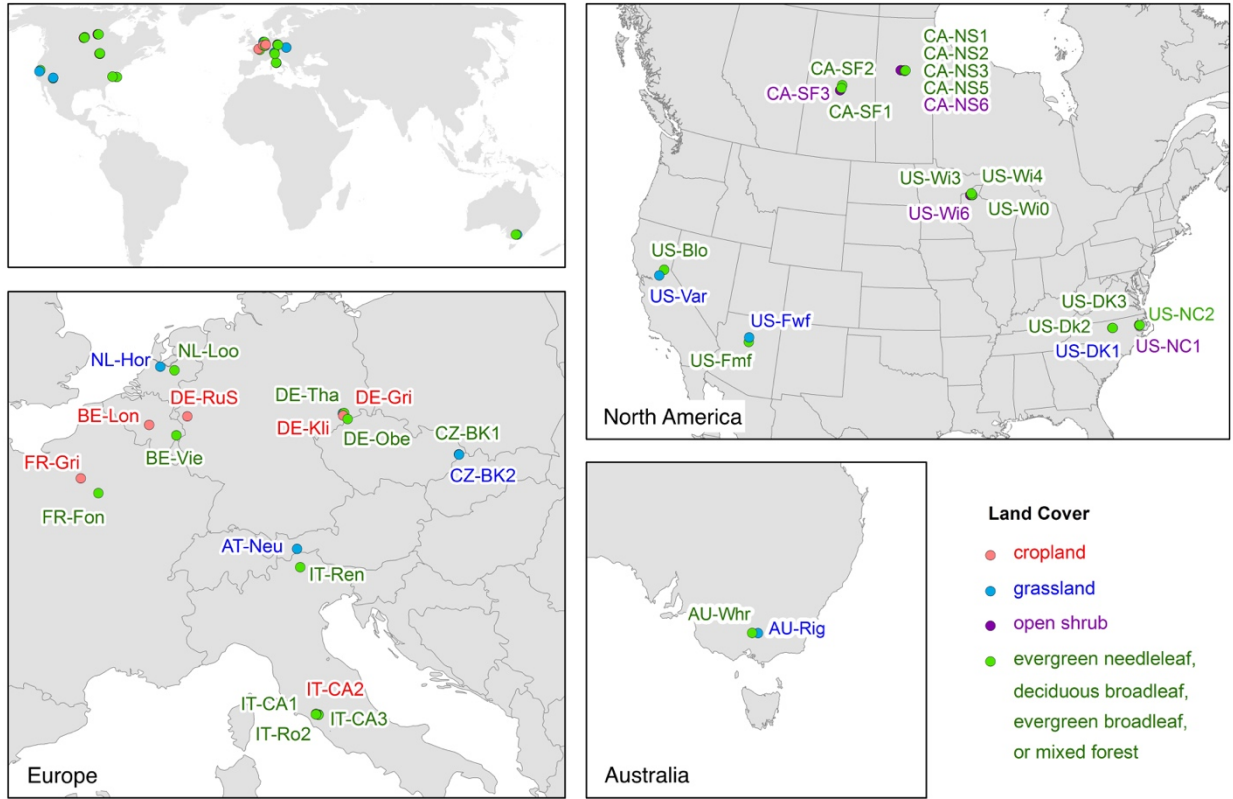
690

691 **Table 2.** Information about model simulations. “Nearby” observations indicate that the paired  
 692 sites have the identical forcings either from the companion forest or open sites.

<b>Name</b>	<b>Forcings</b>	<b>Description</b>
CLM	observations from individual sites	single-point CLM simulations with its own observations
CLM_forest	observations only from forest sites	single-point CLM simulations with the (nearby) forest observations
CLM_open	observations only from open sites	single-point CLM simulations with the (nearby) open land observations
CLM-PFT	CRUNCEP	global CLM simulations with default soil-column scheme with PFT-level output
CLM-PFTCOL	CRUNCEP	global CLM simulations with default individual-soil-column scheme with PFT-level output
NOAH-MP	observations from individual sites	single-point NOAH-MP simulations with its own observations
NOAH-MP_forest	observations only from forest sites	single-point NOAH-MP simulations with the (nearby) forest observations
NOAH-MP_open	observations only from open sites	single-point NOAH-MP simulations with the (nearby) open land observations

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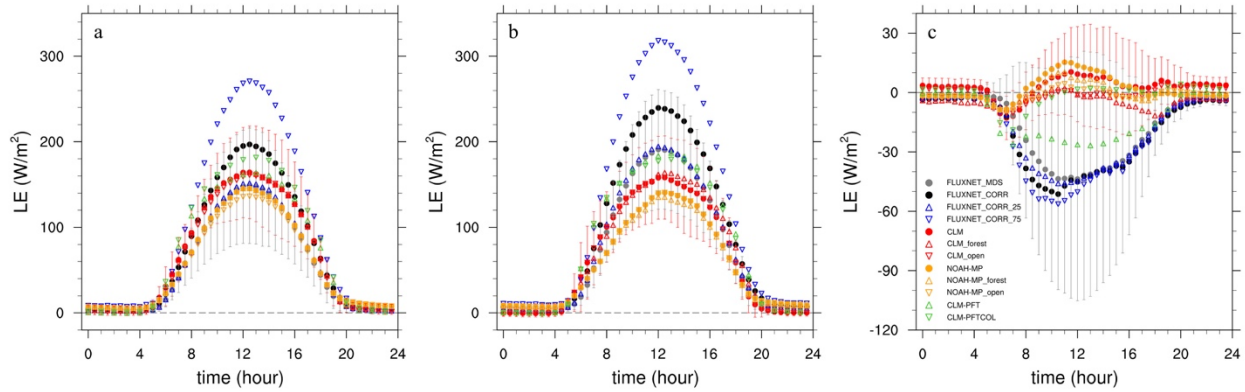


695

696 **Figure 1.** Location and land cover type of the paired sites. The land cover type of each site is

697 based on the reported land cover in FLUXNET database.

698



699

700 **Figure 2.** The diurnal cycle of  $LE$  ( $W/m^2$ ) averaged over all the open sites (a) and forest sites (b)

701 and their difference (open – forest, c) during the summer. The gray error bars indicate the

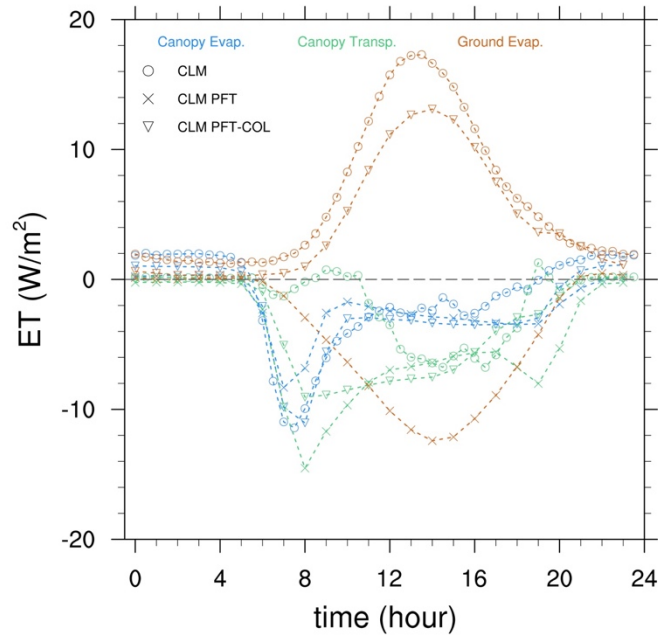
702 standard deviation of the observed  $LE$  (MDS) among the sites; the red error bars are for the

703 simulated  $LE$  in the CLM case. Details about the four types of FLUXNET observations can be

704 found in Table 1. Information about model simulations in CLM and Noah is described in Table

705 2.

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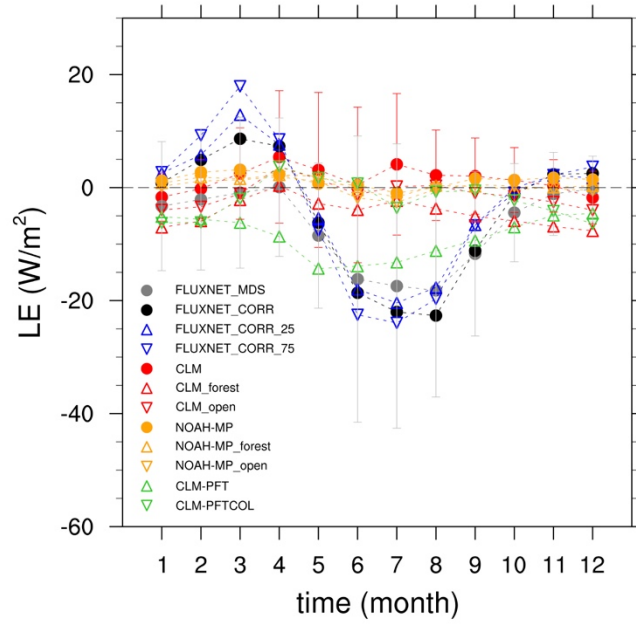


707

708 **Figure 3.** Change in the diurnal cycle of components (colors) of evapotranspiration (canopy  
 709 evaporation, canopy transpiration, and ground evaporation) due to LULCC from forest to open  
 710 land (open – forest).

711

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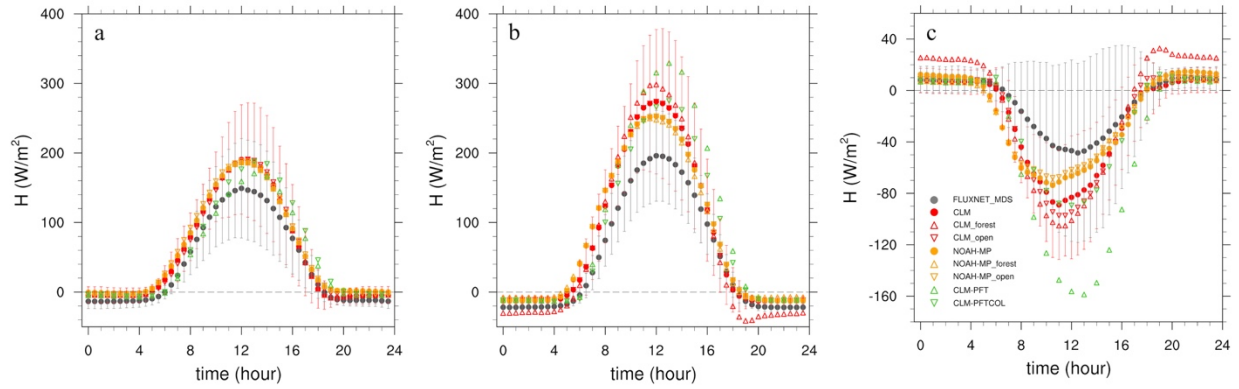


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714 **Figure 4.** Change in the seasonal cycle of  $LE$  ( $W/m^2$ ) due to LULCC from forest to open land

715 (open – forest).

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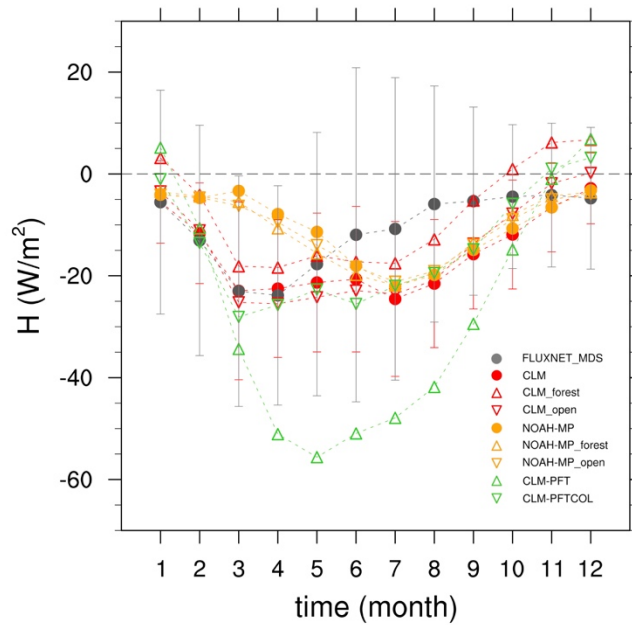
718 **Figure 5.** The diurnal cycle of  $H$  ( $\text{W}/\text{m}^2$ ) averaged over all the open sites (a) and forest sites (b)

719 and their difference (open – forest, c) during the summer. The gray error bars indicate the

720 standard deviation of the observed  $H$  among the sites; the red error bars are for the simulated  $H$

721 in the CLM case.

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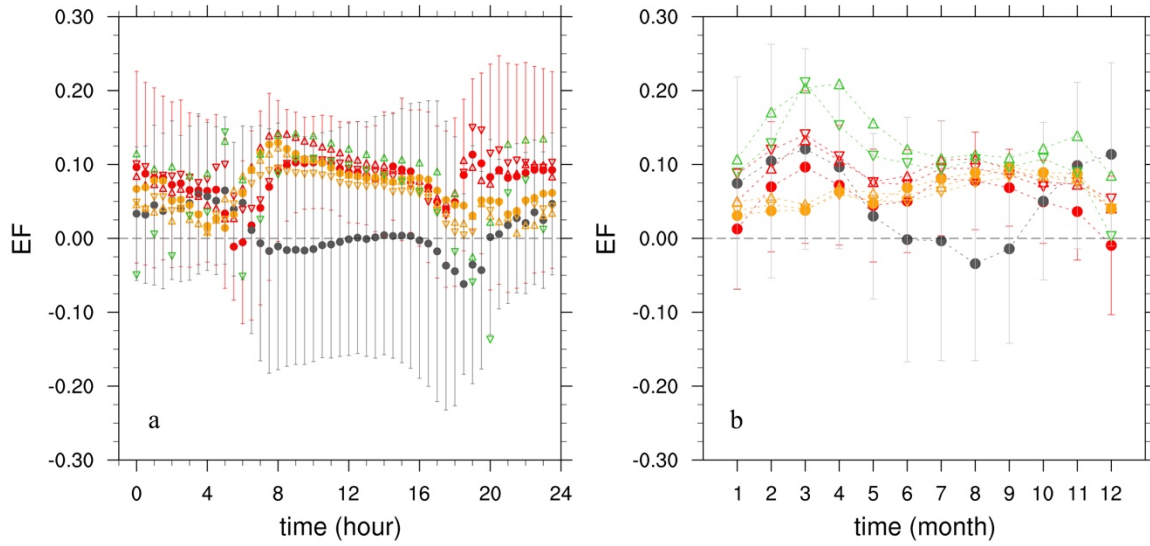
723

724 **Figure 6.** Change in the seasonal cycle of  $H$  ( $\text{W}/\text{m}^2$ ) due to LULCC from forest to open land

725 (open – forest).

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728

729 **Figure 7.** Change in the summer diurnal (a) and seasonal (b) cycle of *EF* (unitless) due to

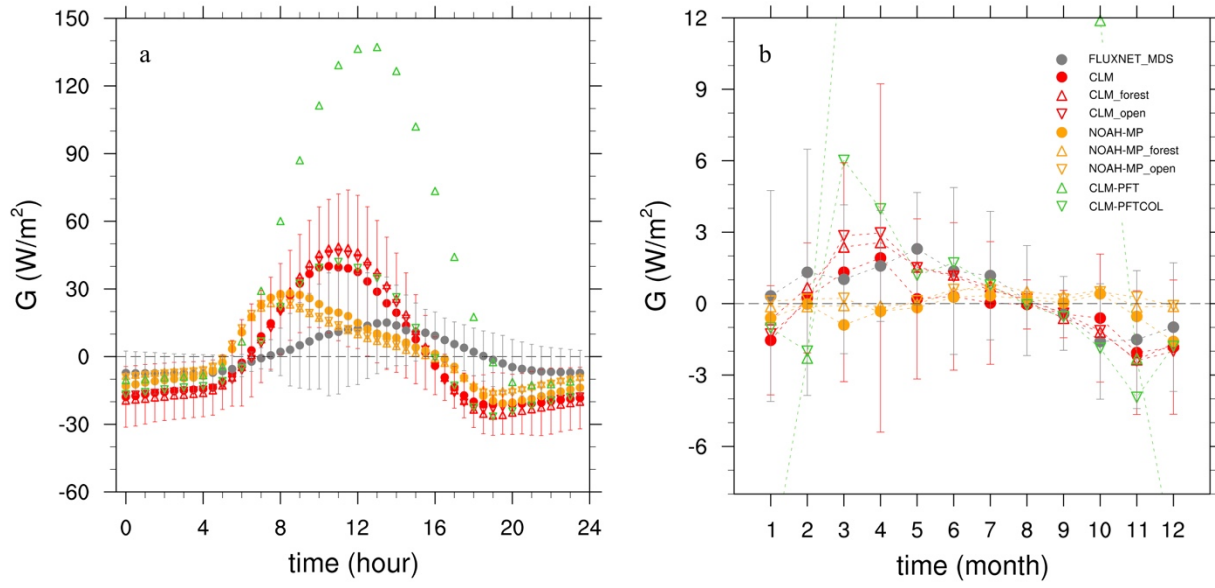
730

**LULCC from forest to open land (open – forest).**

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732





733

734 **Figure 8.** Change in the summer diurnal (a) and seasonal (b) cycle of  $G$  ( $\text{W/m}^2$ ) due to LULCC

735 from forest to open land (open – forest). It should be noted that the changes in the CLM-PFT

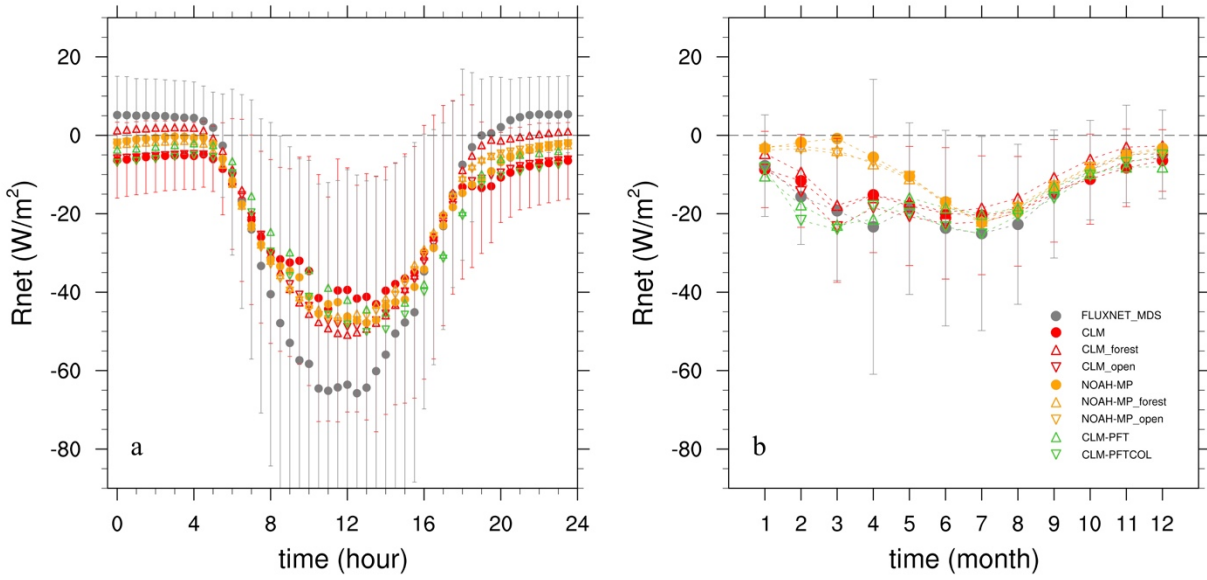
736 simulation are much further from the observations than the other simulations. Some of its values

737 are beyond the limit of the figure (b). The smallest value is  $-11.2 \text{ W/m}^2$  in January; while the

738 largest value is  $52.9 \text{ W/m}^2$  in May.

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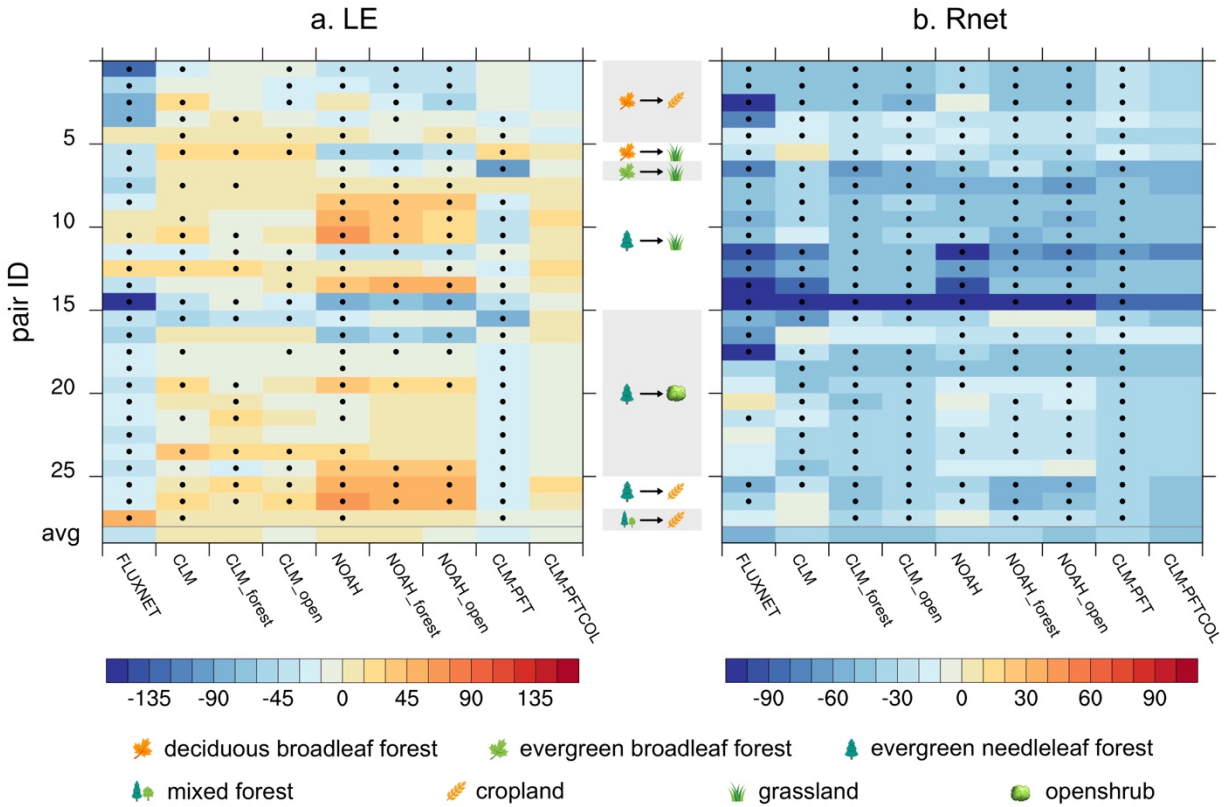
741

742 **Figure 9.** Change in the summer diurnal (a) and seasonal (b) cycle of  $R_{net}$  ( $W/m^2$ ) due to LULCC

743 from forest to open land (open – forest).

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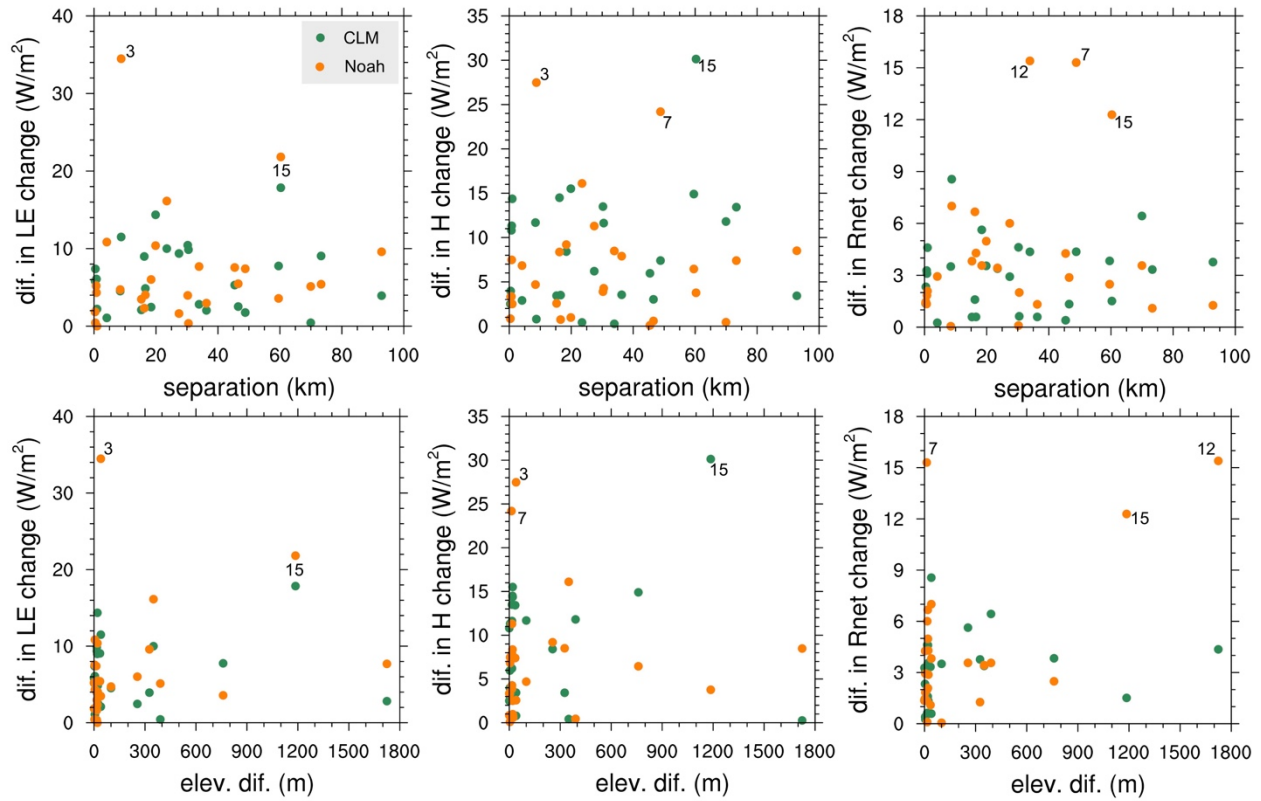


746

747 **Figure 10.** Change (open – forest) in observed and simulated  $LE$  (a) and  $R_{net}$  (b) during summer  
 748 daytime (averaged during the period 08:00 ~ 16:00) over individual pairs and their averages. The  
 749 vertical labels show the pair ID from 1 to 28 based on Table S1. The pairs are grouped based on  
 750 the type of LULCC (shown as the icons in the middle). The bottom row is the average over all  
 751 pairs. The Student's t-test is performed on the daily (daytime average) time series for each pair.  
 752 Dots indicate statistically significant changes at the 95% confidence level. No significant test is  
 753 carried out for the CLM-PFTCOL simulation (the last column), because we only have long-term  
 754 averaged hourly output for each month.

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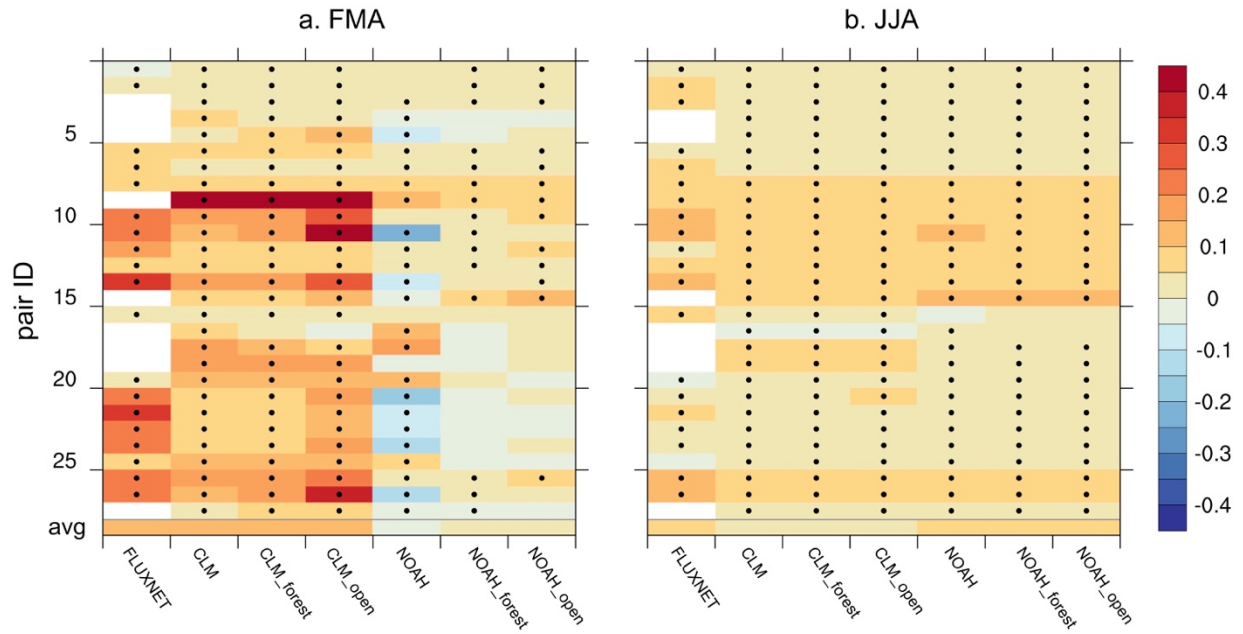
757

758 **Figure 11.** Sensitivity of differences in simulated surface energy flux changes (left column:  $LE$ ,  
 759 middle:  $H$ , and right:  $R_{net}$ ) between “forest forcing” and “open forcing” simulations to site  
 760 separation (top) and elevation difference (bottom) between the forest and open sites in individual  
 761 pairs. The pairs No. 3, 7, 12 and 15 are labeled because of the greatest differences in surface  
 762 fluxes changes.

763

764

765



766

767 **Figure 12.** Change (open – forest) in observed and simulated daytime albedo during late  
 768 winter/early spring (FMA, a) and summer (JJA, b). White areas indicate missing observations.

769