Connecting Land-Atmosphere Interactions to Surface Heterogeneity in CHEESEHEAD 2019

Brian J. Butterworth¹, Ankur R. Desai², Stefan Metzger³, Philip A. Townsend⁴, Mark D. Schwartz⁵, Grant W. Petty², Matthias Mauder⁶, Hannes Vogelmann⁷, Christian G. Andresen⁸, Travis J. Augustine⁹, Timothy H. Bertram¹⁰, William O.J. Brown¹¹, Michael Buban¹², Patricia Cleary¹³, David J. Durden¹⁴, Christopher R. Florian¹⁴, Eliceo Ruiz Guzman¹⁵, Trevor J. Iglinski⁵, Eric L. Kruger¹⁶, Kathleen Lantz¹⁷, Temple R. Lee¹², Tilden P. Meyers¹⁸, James K. Mineau², Erik R. Olson¹⁹, Steven P. Oncley¹¹, Sreenath Paleri², Rosalyn A. Pertzborn²⁰, Claire Pettersen¹⁹, David M. Plummer²¹, Laura Riihimaki²², Joseph Sedlar¹⁷, Elizabeth N. Smith²³, Johannes Speidel⁶, Paul C. Stoy²⁴, Matthias Sühring²⁵, Jonathan E. Thom¹⁹, David D. Turner²⁶, Michael P. Vermeuel¹⁰, Timothy J. Wagner¹⁹, Zhien Wang²⁷, Luise Wanner⁶, Loren D. White²⁸, James M. Wilczak²⁹, Daniel B. Wright³⁰, and Ting Zheng¹⁶

¹Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences

²Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences, University of Wisconsin-Madison ³National Ecological Observatory Network Program, Battelle, and Department of

Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences, University of Wisconsin-Madison

⁴Department of Forest and Wildlife Ecology

⁵Department of Geography, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee

⁶Institute of Meteorology and Climate Research - Atmospheric Environmental Research, Karlsruhe Institute of Technology

⁷Institute of Meteorology and Climate Research - Atmospheric Environmental Research ⁸Department of Geography, University of Wisconsin-Madison

⁹Class ACT Charter School, Chequamegon School District, Park Falls, WI

¹⁰Department of Chemistry, University of Wisconsin-Madison

¹¹National Center for Atmospheric Research, Earth Observing Laboratory

¹²Cooperative Institute for Mesoscale Meteorological Studies and NOAA Air Resources Laboratory Atmospheric Turbulence and Diffusion Division

¹³Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire

¹⁴National Ecological Observatory Network Program, Battelle

¹⁵Department of Forest Production, University of Guadalajara

¹⁶Department of Forest and Wildlife Ecology, University of Wisconsin-Madison

¹⁷Cooperative Institute for Research in Environmental Sciences, University of Colorado Boulder, and National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration

¹⁸Atmospheric Turbulence and Diffusion Division, Air Resources Laboratory, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA)

¹⁹Space Science And Engineering Center, University of Wisconsin-Madison

²⁰Center for Climate Research, Nelson Institute for Environmental Studies, University of WisconsinW-Madison ²¹Department of Atmospheric Science, University of Wyoming
²²Cooperative Institute for Research in Environmental Sciences
²³National Severe Storms Laboratory, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
²⁴Department of Biological Systems Engineering, University of Wisconsin–Madison
²⁵Institute of Meteorology and Climatology, Leibniz University of Hannover
²⁶Global Systems Laboratory, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
²⁷University of Colorado Boulder, Laboratory for Atmospheric and Space Physics and Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences
²⁸Department of Chemistry, Physics, and Atmospheric Science, Jackson State University

²⁹Physical Sciences Laboratory, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
 ³⁰Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of Wisconsin-Madison

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Abstract

The Chequamegon Heterogeneous Ecosystem Energy-balance Study Enabled by a High-density Extensive Array of Detectors 2019 (CHEESEHEAD19) is an ongoing National Science Foundation project based on an intensive field campaign that occurred from June-October 2019. The purpose of the study is to examine how the atmospheric boundary layer responds to spatial heterogeneity in surface energy fluxes. One of the main objectives is to test whether lack of energy balance closure measured by eddy covariance (EC) towers is related to mesoscale atmospheric processes. Finally, the project evaluates data-driven methods for scaling surface energy fluxes, with the aim to improve model-data comparison and integration. To address these questions, an extensive suite of ground, tower, profiling, and airborne instrumentation was deployed over a 10×10 km domain of a heterogeneous forest ecosystem in the Chequamegon-Nicolet National Forest in northern Wisconsin USA, centered on the existing Park Falls 447-m tower that anchors an Ameriflux/NOAA supersite (US-PFa / WLEF). The project deployed one of the world's highest-density networks of above-canopy EC measurements of surface energy fluxes. This tower EC network was coupled with spatial measurements of EC fluxes from aircraft, maps of leaf and canopy properties derived from airborne spectroscopy, ground-based measurements of plant productivity, phenology, and physiology, and atmospheric profiles of wind, water vapor, and temperature using radar, sodar, lidar, microwave radiometers, infrared interferometers, and radiosondes. These observations are being used with large eddy simulation and scaling experiments to better understand sub-mesoscale processes and improve formulations of sub-grid scale processes in numerical weather and climate models.

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5 BRIAN J. BUTTERWORTH, ANKUR R. DESAI, STEFAN METZGER, PHILIP A. TOWNSEND, MARK D. SCHWARTZ, 6 GRANT W. PETTY, MATTHIAS MAUDER, HANNES VOGELMANN, CHRISTIAN G. ANDRESEN, TRAVIS J. 7 AUGUSTINE, TIMOTHY H. BERTRAM, WILLIAM O.J. BROWN, MICHAEL BUBAN, PATRICIA CLEARLY, DAVID J. 8 DURDEN, CHRISTOPHER R. FLORIAN, ELICEO RUIZ GUZMAN, TREVOR J. IGLINSKI, ERIC L. KRUGER, KATHLEEN 9 LANTZ, TEMPLE R. LEE, TILDEN P. MEYERS, JAMES K. MINEAU, ERIK R. OLSON, STEVEN P. ONCLEY, SREENATH 10 PALERI, ROSALYN A. PERTZBORN, CLAIRE PETTERSEN, DAVID M. PLUMMER, LAURA RIIHIMAKI, JOSEPH SEDLAR, 11 ELIZABETH N. SMITH, JOHANNES SPEIDEL, PAUL C. STOY, MATTHIAS SÜHRING, JONATHAN E. THOM, DAVID D. 12 TURNER, MICHAEL P. VERMEUEL, TIMOTHY J. WAGNER, ZHIEN WANG, LUISE WANNER, LOREN D. WHITE, 13 JAMES M. WILCZAK, DANIEL B. WRIGHT, TING ZHENG

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15 16 AFFILIATIONS: BUTTERWORTH, DESAI, METZGER, PETTY, MINEAU, AND PALERI - Department of 17 Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, Wisconsin; 18 TOWNSEND, KRUGER, AND ZHENG – Department of Forest and Wildlife Ecology, University of 19 Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, Wisconsin; METZGER, DURDEN, AND FLORIAN – National Ecological 20 Observatory Network Program, Battelle, Boulder, Colorado; SCHWARTZ AND IGLINSKI – Department 21 of Geography, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Milwaukee, Wisconsin; MAUDER, VOGELMANN, 22 SPEIDEL, AND WANNER – Institute of Meteorology and Climate Research - Atmospheric 23 Environmental Research, Karlsruhe Institute of Technology, Garmisch-Partenkirchen, Germany; 24 ANDRESEN – Department of Geography, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, Wisconsin; 25 AUGUSTINE – Class ACT Charter School, Chequamegon School District, Park Falls, WI; BERTRAM AND 26 VERMEUEL – Department of Chemistry, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, Wisconsin; 27 BROWN, ONCLEY – National Center for Atmospheric Research, Earth Observing Laboratory, 28 Boulder Colorado; BUBAN AND LEE – Cooperative Institute for Mesoscale Meteorological Studies 29 and NOAA Air Resources Laboratory Atmospheric Turbulence and Diffusion Division, Oak Ridge, 30 Tennessee; CLEARLY – Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, University of Wisconsin-Eau 31 Claire, Eau Claire, Wisconsin; LANTZ, RIIHIMAKI, AND SEDLAR – Cooperative Institute for Research in 32 Environmental Sciences (CIRES), University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado and National 33 Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), Boulder, Colorado; MEYERS – Atmospheric 34 Turbulence and Diffusion Division, Air Resources Laboratory, National Oceanic and Atmospheric 35 Administration (NOAA), Oak Ridge, Tennessee; Olson, Pettersen, Thom, and Wagner – Space 36 Science and Engineering Center (SSEC), University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, Wisconsin; 37 PERTZBORN – Center for Climate Research, Nelson Institute for Environmental Studies, UW-38 Madison, Madison, Wisconsin; PLUMMER – Department of Atmospheric Science, University of 39 Wyoming, Laramie, Wyoming; GUZMAN – Department of Forest Production, University of 40 Guadalajara, Guadalajara, Jalisco, Mexico; SMITH – National Severe Storms Laboratory, National 41 Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), Norman, Oklahoma; STOY – Department of

- 42 Biological Systems Engineering, University of Wisconsin–Madison, Madison, Wisconsin; SÜHRING
- 43 Institute of Meteorology and Climatology, Leibniz University of Hannover, Germany; TURNER –
- 44 Global Systems Laboratory, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), Boulder,
- 45 Colorado; WANG Laboratory for Atmospheric and Space Physics and Department of
- 46 Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences, University of Colorado Boulder, Boulder, Colorado; WHITE –
- 47 Department of Chemistry, Physics, and Atmospheric Science, Jackson State University, Jackson,
- 48 Mississippi; WILCZAK Physical Sciences Laboratory, National Oceanic and Atmospheric
- 49 Administration (NOAA), Boulder, Colorado; WRIGHT Civil and Environmental Engineering,
- 50 University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, Wisconsin
- 51
- 52
- 53 **CORRESPONDING AUTHOR**: Brian J. Butterworth, bbutterworth@wisc.edu
- 54

55 ABSTRACT

56

57 The Chequamegon Heterogeneous Ecosystem Energy-balance Study Enabled by a High-density

58 Extensive Array of Detectors 2019 (CHEESEHEAD19) is an ongoing National Science

59 Foundation project based on an intensive field campaign that occurred from June-October 2019.

60 The purpose of the study is to examine how the atmospheric boundary layer responds to spatial

- 61 heterogeneity in surface energy fluxes. One of the main objectives is to test whether lack of
- 62 energy balance closure measured by eddy covariance (EC) towers is related to mesoscale
- atmospheric processes. Finally, the project evaluates data-driven methods for scaling surface
- 64 energy fluxes, with the aim to improve model-data comparison and integration.
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66 To address these questions, an extensive suite of ground, tower, profiling, and airborne

- 67 instrumentation was deployed over a 10×10 km domain of a heterogeneous forest ecosystem in
- 68 the Chequamegon-Nicolet National Forest in northern Wisconsin USA, centered on the existing
- 69 Park Falls 447-m tower that anchors an Ameriflux/NOAA supersite (US-PFa / WLEF). The
- 70 project deployed one of the world's highest-density networks of above-canopy EC measurements
- of surface energy fluxes. This tower EC network was coupled with spatial measurements of EC
- 72 fluxes from aircraft, maps of leaf and canopy properties derived from airborne spectroscopy,

73 ground-based measurements of plant productivity, phenology, and physiology, and atmospheric

74 profiles of wind, water vapor, and temperature using radar, sodar, lidar, microwave radiometers,

75 infrared interferometers, and radiosondes. These observations are being used with large eddy

simulation and scaling experiments to better understand sub-mesoscale processes and improve
 formulations of sub-grid scale processes in numerical weather and climate models.

7879 CAPSULE SUMMARY

79 80

81 A regional-scale observational experiment designed to address how the atmospheric boundary

- 82 layer responds to spatial heterogeneity in surface energy fluxes.
- 83

84 INTRODUCTION

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86 Land-atmosphere exchanges of energy, water, and carbon influence weather and climate. The 87 biological processes that mediate these exchanges with the atmosphere occur at multiple spatial 88 and temporal scales, necessitating a variety of cross-scale observational platforms. Accurate 89 accounting of land-atmosphere interactions is critical for improving the predictive performance 90 of numerical weather and climate models. Unfortunately, there is a persistent mismatch between 91 the scales of observations and models. This scale mismatch is problematic because natural 92 environments exhibit substantial heterogeneity in their surface characteristics, which means that 93 observations are not always accurate reflections of the entire model grid cell. Furthermore, the 94 atmosphere is strongly influenced by nonlinear two-way interactions with radiation, land cover, 95 and soil, so that the spatial and temporal scaling of surface fluxes is fundamental to assessing the 96 parameterizations used in atmospheric models to represent land-atmospheric interactions.

97

98 The notion that land surface heterogeneity influences the surface energy balance, and the

- 99 resulting atmospheric responses, emerged from early model simulations showing the importance
- 100 of soil moisture, vegetation, albedo, roughness, and heating on the atmosphere (Garratt 1993;
- 101 Mahrt 2000; Betts et al. 1996; Charney 1975; Avissar 1995; Pielke et al. 1998). Theories on how 102 land surface variations drive atmospheric boundary layer (ABL) growth vary (e.g., Desai et al.
- 2006; Reen et al. 2014; Platis et al. 2017; Gantner et al. 2017), with no consensus on whether
- responses scale linearly or non-linearly and whether they differ for dry versus moist dynamics
- 105 (Raupach and Finnigan 1995). Modeling studies on this topic have been developed from limited
- sets of observations of prior field experiments and from specialized modeling domains using
- 107 simplified boundary conditions (e.g., Kang et al., 2007; Hill et al., 2008, 2011; Zhu et al., 2016).
- 108 From these previous studies, scaling laws have been derived based on numerical simulations
- 109 (van Heerwaarden et al. 2014; Rihani et al. 2015), but a systematic regional-scale observational
- experiment that quantifies the multi-scale nature of sub-grid scaling and patterning has neverbeen fully realized (Steinfeld et al. 2007).
- 112

113 An issue related to how heterogeneity influences transport processes in the ABL is the energy

balance closure problem. This refers to an observed tendency in eddy covariance (EC) flux

115 measurements, where the sum of incoming available energy (net radiation [R_N] minus ground

heat flux [G]) exceeds surface turbulent sensible and latent heat fluxes (H_s and H_L) over sub-

117 hourly time scales (Foken et al. 2011). Systematic studies have ruled out instrument errors as the

118 primary cause (Twine et al. 2000; Frank et al. 2013; Liu et al. 2011). Incomplete observation of

119 sub-measurement height storage flux accounts for only some of this lack of closure (Leuning et

- 120 al. 2012; Xu et al. 2018). Advection terms are not expected to have a systematic direction that 121 would always lead to lack of closure (e.g., Aubinet et al. 2010; Barr et al. 2013; Nakai et al.
- 2014; Zitouna-Chebbi et al. 2012), while topography contributes mostly in extreme cases
- 123 (Mcgloin et al. 2018).
- 124

EC sites with more variable land cover tend to have larger closure imbalances (Stoy et al. 2013; Xu et al. 2017b). One proposed hypothesis for lack of closure in the energy budget is that surface heterogeneity generates mesoscale features not adequately resolved by traditional EC methods

128 (e.g., Charuchittipan et al. 2014; Gao et al. 2016; Foken et al. 2011; Mauder et al. 2007b). An

- 129 intensive suite of energy flux measurements between surface and atmosphere at the mesoscale
- 130 (on the order of tens of kilometers) can help address this key uncertainty in land-atmosphere

131 exchange (Xu et al. 2020).

132

133 EXPERIMENTAL GOALS

- 134
- 135 CHEESEHEAD19 was designed to provide a new level of observation density and
- 136 instrumentation reliability to test hypotheses on spatial heterogeneity and atmospheric feedbacks.
- 137 The two main research objectives for the CHEESEHEAD19 experiment were to 1) investigate
- 138 causes of energy balance non-closure over heterogeneous ecosystems and 2) to address the
- 139 problem of scaling surface energy fluxes.
- 140

141 There is currently no definitive answer as to what is responsible for energy balance non-closure.

142 The project was designed specifically to test the hypothesis that heterogeneity is responsible for

- 143 generating organized (sub-)mesoscale structures that are not resolved by traditional EC methods.
- 144

145 Various theories suggest that "spatial" EC, where multiple towers are combined to estimate the 146 mesoscale contribution to the total flux, could be used to analyze this contribution and "close" 147 the energy balance (Steinfeld et al. 2007; Mauder et al. 2008b). To calculate spatial fluxes, 148 CHEESEHEAD19 deployed an EC tower network and airborne EC measurements. These 149 measurements provide spatial patterns of surface energy fluxes across various vegetation and 150 surface types in the heterogeneous landscape. Alongside this EC flux network, multiple 151 platforms were deployed to characterize the atmospheric environment by profiling relevant 152 atmospheric characteristics across a range of scales. This allows us to determine the existence 153 and to characterize the nature of organized mesoscale structures. We can investigate the degree 154 to which mesoscale eddies are responsible for energy balance non-closure in EC measurements, 155 and whether land surface energy partitioning and atmospheric responses differ from the sum of

156 their individual components.

157

158 To systematically address surface energy balance variability in the heterogeneous forested

159 landscape, a pre-campaign large eddy simulation (LES) analysis of the study domain was

160 conducted. It was found that, while 12 flux towers would be sufficient to adequately sample land

161 cover variation, >15 flux towers are required to sample mesoscale eddy structures and close the

162 energy budget (a similar result to Steinfeld et al., 2007). Therefore, the CHEESEHEAD19 field

163 campaign deployed 20 flux towers, a marked increase over many previous experiments.

164

165 CHEESEHEAD19 asks how we can optimally observe and simulate the terms of the surface

166 energy balance and the corresponding atmospheric responses to heterogeneous surface forcings.

167 The objective is to evaluate methods for scaling surface energy fluxes, with the aim of improving

168 model-data comparisons. To this end, we conduct LES and machine-learning scaling

169 experiments to simulate sub-mesoscale responses. These will be compared to measured 170 quantities to test existing theoretical concepts and to improve our understanding of how scale-

170 quantities to test existing theoretical concepts and to improve our understanding of now scale 171 dependent transport processes in the lower atmosphere respond to surface heterogeneity.

172 The dataset collected during this study will help test multiple scaling methodologies across

heterogeneous land cover. Specifically, it aims to test the *environmental response function* -

virtual control volume (ERF-VCV) approach (Metzger 2018; Xu et al. 2018), which combines

175 the strengths of both data-driven and mechanistic strategies.

176

177 Several additional research objectives are addressed by using the unique data resources of

178 CHEESEHEAD19. These include a separately funded study to use CO₂ fluxes of Integrated

179 Surface Flux System (ISFS) towers and hyperspectral imagery of canopy functional traits to

180 determine the principal drivers of variation in NPP and carbon use efficiency across a broad

array of forest ecosystems. Additionally, concurrent measurements of ozone (O_3) mixing ratios at

- 182 30- and 122-m on the tall tower were made using a chemical ionization time-of-flight mass
- spectrometer (CI-ToFMS; TOFWERK AG and Aerodyne Research Inc.) and a photometric
- analyzer (Model 49i; Thermo Fisher) to obtain vertical O₃ profiles above the forest canopy

This work has been submitted to the Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society.

- 185 (Bertram et al. 2011; Novak et al. 2020). These measurements were accompanied by flights of a
- 186 sUAS-mounted lightweight O₃ monitor (POM; 2B) that obtained vertical concentration
- 187 gradients. These measurements are being used to determine the relative contributions of stomatal
- 188 uptake and other nonstomatal loss pathways to O₃ deposition within a mixed forest canopy.
- 189

191**THE EXPERIMENT**

192

193 Overview

194

195 CHEESEHEAD19 investigators deployed an extensive suite of ground, tower, profiling, and

airborne instrumentation over a 10×10 km domain in a forested and aquatic landscape in

- 197 northern Wisconsin USA (Fig. 1; Table 1), centered on the existing Park Falls 447-m tower
- 198 Ameriflux/NOAA supersite (US-PFa / WLEF). The main components of the CHEESEHEAD19
- 199 field campaign were:
- a) ground-based fluxes and meteorology
- 201 b) airborne fluxes and meteorology
- 202 c) atmospheric profiling
- 203 d) surface environment characterization
- 204



Fig. 1. Map and schematic diagram of CHEESEHEAD19 domain. Map shows the location of all measurements made during the field campaign. Insets show

- 208 Lakeland and Prentice airports where SURFRAD (in addition to the one in ISS
- field), radar wind profilers with RASS, and CLAMPS systems were installed.
- 210 Schematic diagram shows instrument location and a conceptual model of airborne
- 211 data collection. (Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources 2019)

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- 212
- 213 The EC tower network consisted of 17 towers from the NSF Lower Atmosphere Observing
- Facility (LAOF) ISFS, two additional towers, and the central tall Ameriflux tower. Ground-
- based measurement of vegetation occurred at 41 plots in the domain, plus an additional 10 plots
- 216 for measuring phenology. Airborne spectroscopy imaging was used to map leaf chemistry and
- 217 canopy properties.
- 218

219 The suite of atmospheric profiling instruments included the LAOF Integrated Sounding System 220 (ISS; Fig. 2c) and the UW SPARC system (Fig. 2a). Additional instrument systems were brought 221 by collaborators, including the combined ATMONSYS lidar for measuring aerosol, T, and H₂O 222 profiles and two Doppler wind lidars brought by Karlsruhe Institute of Technology (KIT), two 223 Collaborative Lower Atmospheric Profiling Systems (CLAMPS - NOAA NSSL), two 915 MHz 224 radar wind profilers with radio acoustic sounding systems (RASS) with MWRs (NOAA PSL), 225 and the Surface Radiation Budget Network (SURFRAD - NOAA GML) systems for measuring 226 incoming and outgoing radiation and cloud properties. While many of these instruments were 227 located within the 10 ×10 km CHEESEHEAD19 domain, some instruments were located at the 228 Prentice and Lakeland airports, located approximately 45 km south and east of the WLEF tower 229 respectively, to provide information on the spatial variability of boundary layer structure and 230 cloud and radiation fields.

231

Three seven-day intensive observation periods (IOP) occurred on July 7 - 13, August 18 - 24,

and September 22 – 28. During these IOPs the University of Wyoming King Air (UWKA) flew

- transects over an extended 30×30 km domain to measure EC fluxes, ABL depth, and
- atmospheric profiles of water vapor and temperature. These observations will be used to test flux
- tower scaling, observe atmospheric mesoscale patterning, and evaluate large eddy simulations
- 237 (LES). Also, during the IOPs, a team from NOAA ARL ATDD brought multiple sUASs for
- 238 measuring profiles of meteorological variables (T, H_2O , U, P see appendix for a list of 220 measuring his this energy and has the set of the set
- variables used in this paper) and land surface temperature. Additional information on the spatial
- variations of surface meteorology was obtained using mobile observing systems operated inpedestrian, boat, and car modes.
- 242

The four-month deployment spanned the summer to fall transition, capturing the shift in surface energy balance from a more uniform evapotranspiration (latent heat flux) dominated landscape to a patchy sensible heat flux dominated landscape. These energy balance shifts arise from seasonal changes in plant phenological phases, ecosystem water use for photosynthesis, and available net radiation. These shifts also provide a "natural experiment" with which to test hypotheses on how heterogeneity influences energy balance closure and spatial scaling.

249

250 The study domain was partly chosen due to the history of atmospheric science research in the

- region. Since 1995, University and NOAA investigators have sampled greenhouse gas profiles,
- meteorology, and EC flux measurements (energy, carbon, momentum) at 30 m, 122 m, and 396
- 253 m above ground level (AGL; Fig. 2b) on the WLEF tall tower (Bakwin et al. 1998; Davis et al.
- 254 2003). The site also includes an FTIR solar-pointing spectrometer (TCCON) for total greenhouse
- column observations operated by CalTech and NASA JPL. Two additional EC towers (US-WCr,

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- 256 30 m in mature forest, and US-Los, 10 m in shrub fen wetland) have been operating for 20 years,
- approximately 20 km from the tall tower (Cook et al. 2004; Desai et al. 2005; Sulman et al.2009).
- 258 2 259
- 260 CHEESEHEAD19 builds upon previous tower mesonet experiments, including BOREAS
- 261 (Sellers et al. 1995), CASES99 (Poulos et al. 2002), SGP97 (Desai et al. 2006), IHOP (Kang et
- 262 al. 2007), LITFASS-2003 (Beyrich et al. 2006), EBEX (Oncley et al. 2007), BEAREX
- 263 (Anderson et al. 2012), HiWATER-MUSOEXE (Wang et al. 2015), SCALE-X (Wolf et al.
- 264 2017), that were aimed at understanding scaling of non-linear land-atmosphere interaction.
- 265





Fig. 2. (a) HSRL beam next to WLEF tall tower, (b) EC instruments at 396 m AGL on the WLEF tall tower, and (c) the ISS field with modular wind profiler, sodar-RASS, ceilometer, SURFRAD, EC and meteorological towers with UWKA flying

270 $\,$ overhead and WLEF tall tower in the distance.

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271 Instrumentation & Measurements

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Table I. List of instruments and data collected during CHEESEHEADI9. Forexplanation of the variable abbreviations please see the appendix.Data sourceData providerLocation(s)Measured VariablesPeriod

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Data source	Data provider	Location(S)		Fellou			
Ground-based Measurements							
Ameriflux/NOAA tall tower (US- PFa/WLEF)	UW AOS	WLEF	H_s , H_L , F_{CO2} , τ , R_n , meteorology	Continuous			
ChEAS Ameriflux towers: US- WCr / US-Los / US-Syv / US- Alq	UW AOS	Ameriflux sites (4)	$H_{s}, H_{L}, F_{CO2}, \tau, R_{n}, meteorology$	Continuous			
ISFS Eddy covariance towers	NCAR EOL ISFS	10x10 km (17 sites)	H _s , H _L , F _{CO2} , τ , R _n , meteorology, soil G, Q, Cv, T profile, precip (5 sites)	June-Oct			
MSU Eddy covariance towers	Montana State U & UW BSE	NW5 (ISS) and SE1	Hs, H _L , F _{CO2} , τ, R _n , soil G, meteorology	June-Oct			
Surface meteorology	NCAR EOL ISS	ISS field	T, RH, P, precip, wind, sky images	July-Oct			
SURFRAD & TWST	NOAA GML	ISS field ¹ Prentice Airport ² Lakeland Airport ² Downwelling SW/LW ^{1,2} , direct SW ^{1,2} , diffuse SW ^{1,2} , upwelling SW/LW ¹ , PAR ¹ , sky images ¹ , cloud optical depth ¹ , cloud fraction ^{1,2} , cloud base height ² , mixed layer depth ² , meteorology ¹		July-Oct (TWST: Sep-Oct)			
Vehicle/ Pedestrian/ Boat transects	Jackson State U	10x10 km – Roads/ Trails / Hay Lake	T, RH, P, total downwelling SW, IR brightness temperature, water T	IOP 1, 2, 3			
Chemical ionization mass spec & ozone photometric analyzer	UW Chem	WLEF	Ozone concentration and flux	IOP 1			
Tall tower greenhouse gases	NOAA GML	WLEF	CO2, CH4 concentration & CO2, CH4 profiles	Continuous & Biweekly			
Tree temperature	Chequamegon HS	5 sites, 10 trees	T at breast height (1.37 m AGL)	Oct			
		Atmospheric Profiling					
449 MHz modular wind profiler	NCAR EOL ISS	ISS field	3D wind profiles	July-Oct			
Sodar / RASS	NCAR EOL ISS	ISS field	3D wind, T_v and θ_v profiles	July-Oct			
Ceilometer	NCAR EOL ISS	ISS field	Attenuated backscatter profiles, cloud base height, ABL height	July-Oct			
Daily radiosonde	NCAR EOL ISS	ISS field	18Z (1pm local)	July-Oct			
3-hourly daytime radiosondes	NCAR EOL ISS	ISS field	4-5 per day for 5 days per IOP	IOP 1, 2, 3			
AERI	UW SSEC SPARC	WLEF	Downwelling IR radiance, profiles of T, H ₂ O, and cloud properties				
HALO Lidar (1) – vertical stare	HALO Lidar (1) – vertical stare UW SSEC WLE		Profiles of 3D wind (virtual tower)	July-Oct			
HSRL	UW SSEC SPARC WLEF Backscatter, depolarization		Backscatter, depolarization	July-Oct			
Micro Rain Radar (MRR)	UW SSEC	WLEF	Precipitation rate, reflectivity, particle size distribution (PSD)	July-Oct			
Precipitation Imaging Package	UW SSEC	WLEF	PSD, fall speed, rain rate	July-Oct			
ATMONSYS: Backscatter, Raman, and Differential Absorption Lidar	KIT IMK-IFU	WLEF	Vertical profiles of aerosol backscatter, T, H ₂ O	July-Sep			
HALO Lidars (2,3) – RHI scans	KIT IMK-IFU	WLEF	Profiles of 3D wind (virtual tower)	July-Sep			
915 MHz radar wind profiler w/ radio acoustic sounding system	NOAA PSL	Prentice Airport, Lakeland Airport	Profiles of U, T _v , Convective ABL height	July-Oct			
MWR	NOAA PSL	ISS field ¹ Prentice Airport ² Lakeland Airport ³	Downwelling microwave radiance, profiles of T, H ₂ O, and liquid water path	July-Oct ³ July-Sep ² Sep-Oct ¹			
CLAMPS (MWR, AERI, Doppler wind lidar)	NOAA NSSL	Prentice Airport, Lakeland Airport	Profiles of U, T, H ₂ O	Sep-Oct			
Airborne Measurements							
Airborne eddy covariance	UWKA	30x30km, 24 flights	3D wind, T, H2O, CO2 (25 Hz; ~3 m)	IOP 1, 2, 3			
Airborne met. and radiation	UWKA	30x30km, 24 flights	Meteorology (1 Hz; ~80 m)	IOP 1, 2, 3			

Compact Raman Lidar (CRL)	UWKA	30x30km, 24 flights	H2O and T cross sections	IOP 1, 2, 3				
Wyoming Cloud Lidar (WCL)	UWKA	30x30km, 24 flights	ABL height	IOP 1, 2, 3				
Meteodrone SSE sUAS	NOAA ARL ATDD	WLEF and SW2	T, H2O, U	IOP 1, 2, 3				
Ozone sUAS	UWEC	WLEF O ₃ profiles		IOP 1				
	Surface Environment							
HySpex	UW FWE	10x10 km, 4 flights	hyperspectral imagery (474 bands), foliar functional traits	June-Aug				
DJI S-1000 (sUAS)	NOAA ARL ATDD	WLEF and SW2	LST, Hs	IOP 1, 2				
sUAS leaf-on canopy LiDAR	UW Geog	11 tower sites	Ground and canopy height	June				
QL2 leaf-off LiDAR	USFS	30x30 km	Ground and canopy height	Fall 2018				
Vegetation/phenology sampling	UWM Geog	10x10 km (10 plots)	Leaf color / fall level	Sep-Oct				
Vegetation Sampling	UW FWE	10x10 km (41 plots)	inventory, root growth, NPP, biometry, leaf spectra, foliar tissue chemistry, LMA	June-Oct				
Soil bulk density and heat capacity	NCAR EOL	17 tower sites	Q _{soil} , p _{soil}	July-Oct				
Soil samples	UW AOS	16 tower sites	Soil carbon, nitrogen	Oct				
Soil samples	Butternut Schools	7 sites	Soil and water chemistry	July				
ECOSTRESS, GEDI, OCO3	NASA JPL	30x30 km	LST, emissivity, evapotranspiration	Oct 8				

274 Ground-based Measurements

275

276 Towers sampled three-dimensional wind velocity, temperature, moisture, and CO₂ at 20 Hz to 277 measure land-atmosphere fluxes (τ , H_s, H_L, F_{CO2}). Each tower also measured net radiation, soil 278 heat flux at 5 cm depth (and soil temperature profile, heat capacity, and moisture to determine 279 soil heat storage), and a 3-level air temperature and humidity profile to estimate canopy heat 280 storage. A majority of the sites were forested and had flux instruments mounted 33 m AGL (Fig. 281 3; Table S1). Instruments for wetland, grass, and lake sites were mounted between 1 - 3 m AGL to maintain consistent vegetation within the flux footprint. Tower placement within the 10×10 282 283 km study domain followed a stratified random grid pattern, taking into account practical 284 considerations including distance to road, suitable gap in trees for a tower, USFS-owned land, etc. Individual towers were an average of 1.4 km from their nearest neighboring tower and an 285 286 average of 3.5 km from the tall tower. This meant that under certain conditions (e.g., high wind 287 speeds, stable stratification) several of the towers shared overlapping flux footprints; a favorable 288 condition for applying some of the data-driven scaling methods used in the project. Additionally, 289 the semi-random placement meant that the towers were not chosen by distributing the towers in 290 the centers of the most homogeneous areas of the various land cover types. Thus, within the 291 individual footprint of each tower there was often spatial variability in vegetation height and type 292 (deciduous vs. evergreen). While this can complicate analyses of flux measurements, it generates 293 more representative data from these types of mixed forests. Furthermore, we expect it will 294 enhance the ability of the data-driven methods for estimating domain-wide fluxes.



295 296

Fig. 3. (a) EC tower SWI – an example of the 33 m AGL telescoping towers
deployed by NCAR ISFS and (b) EC instruments mounted at the top of tower
SW2.

299 300 A suite of high-quality radiation sensors was deployed in the ISS field as a complement to the 301 net radiometers installed on each flux tower. The full suite included high-quality upwelling and 302 downwelling broadband surface radiation measurements to determine the surface radiation 303 budget, as well as ancillary measurements of meteorological parameters, photosynthetically 304 active radiation (PAR), and clouds as described in Table S2. Radiation measurements are 305 manually screened and then processed through an automated data quality procedure (Long and 306 Shi 2008). Clear sky radiation fluxes are estimated using the Radiative Flux Analysis method 307 (Long and Ackerman 2000; Long and Turner 2008), from which derivation of cloud radiative 308 effects as well as other data products such as fractional sky cover (Long et al. 2006; Dürr and 309 Philipona 2004) and cloud optical depth (Barnard and Long 2004; Niple et al. 2016) are 310 calculated. Measurements of cloud properties will allow us to quantify their impacts on the radiative and turbulent heat fluxes to better understand the two-way coupling between cloud-311 312 radiative interactions and boundary layer evolution, and to investigate the effect on EC non-313 closure.

314

315 A smaller suite of radiation, cloud, and surface meteorological measurements were deployed at

the Prentice and Lakeland Airports, approximately 45 km south and east from the ISS field,

317 respectively (Fig. 1), to characterize the larger spatial scale inhomogeneities. These

318 measurements include downwelling shortwave and longwave irradiance as well as diffuse and

direct components of shortwave irradiance (Table S2); sufficient information to derive cloud

- radiative effects and fractional sky cover using the Radiative Flux Analysis method described
- 321 above. Ceilometers deployed at the two airport sites provided additional cloud and boundary
- 322 layer information.
- 323

324 Airborne Measurements

325

During each IOP the UWKA flew over the study area to measure spatial EC fluxes of heat, water
 vapor, and CO₂. The purpose of the observations was to test flux tower scaling and observe
 atmospheric mesoscale patterning. The UWKA also measured cross-sectional profiles of water

329 vapor and temperature below the flight level using a downward pointing Compact Raman Lidar

330 (CRL, Wu et al. 2016) and ABL depth with the upward looking Wyoming Cloud Lidar (WCL,

- 331 Wang et al. 2009).
- 332

Flights over the domain occurred on four days during each of the three IOPs (Table S3). On each day there were two three-hour flights, one in the morning (1400 – 1700 UTC) and one in the

afternoon (1900 – 2200 UTC). Flights consisted of ten 30-km down-and-back transects across

the domain. The first leg of each transect was flown at 400 m AGL, while the return leg was

flown at 100 m AGL. Flight transects alternated between straight and diagonal passes.

338

339 Three different flight patterns were determined prior to the experiment (oriented SE \rightarrow NW,

340 SW \rightarrow NE, and W \rightarrow E). Flying them either in forward or reverse order resulted in six distinct

341 flight sequences that maximize data coverage under different wind conditions (see sidebar

342 Continuity through Environmental Response Functions). The main objectives were to maximize

343 1) the number of independent atmospheric eddies and 2) surface flux footprint observed by the

344 aircraft EC measurements, while 3) ensuring crew safety. This was achieved by designing a

345 parsimonious set of only three flight patterns that allowed the UWKA to fly perpendicular to the

346 prevailing winds within a range of $\pm 45^{\circ}$ on any given day (Metzger et al., in preparation). The

347 30-km flight legs extended an average of 10 km beyond the domain to compute a robust
 348 mesoscale eddy flux (Mauder et al. 2007a, 2008a) by capturing enough eddies and mesoscale

variation to properly compute statistics for fluxes using the wavelet decomposition method.

350

The low-altitude legs were primarily used to measure EC fluxes. The altitude 100 m AGL was chosen to ensure flux measurements were made in the surface layer, as well as to minimize flux

footprint errors over the 10×10 km sampling domain. It was also the lowest altitude deemed

354 safe to fly, as canopy height extended up to 35 m. The low-altitude legs were also used to

identify ABL depth with the upward pointing 355 nm WCL. The primary purpose of the high-

altitude legs (400 m AGL) was to map temperature and moisture profiles of the atmosphere with

357 the CRL. These data were collected to estimate mesoscale development and calculate flux

- 358 divergence and storage terms.
- 359



Fig. 4. The location (superimposed) of all 480 flight legs completed during the
 CHEESEHEAD19 field campaign. The yellow square represents the study domain
 and the red dots indicate the flux tower locations.

364

365 Atmospheric Profiling

366

Characterizing the mesoscale environment over the study domain was accomplished with a range
of platforms and instruments to measure profiles of wind, water vapor, temperature, aerosols,
and gases at different temporal and spatial scales (Fig. 1; Table 1).

370

The NCAR ISS was located in a field 1.6 km west of the tall tower (45.946°N, 90.294°W). It

deployed a radar wind profiler, sodar-RASS, ceilometer, all-sky camera, and a surface

373 meteorology station to measure ABL depth, winds, water vapor, and temperature. The 449 MHz

374 modular wind profiler measured 30-minute wind profiles with 150 m vertical resolution up to

- 375 several km AGL, while the sodar-RASS was capable of higher resolution (20 m; 10-minute), but
- 376 only penetrated to ~400 m AGL. Meteorological profiles were also measured with 172
- 377 radiosonde launches (daily 18Z soundings and 3 4 additional soundings on IOP days). These
- instruments characterized the ABL from nocturnal boundary layer (sunrise sounding), through
- 379 ABL development (mid-morning and afternoon), to peak ABL (late afternoon sounding). In
- 380 mid-September, one of the MWRs located at the Prentice Airport was relocated to this location,
- due to the failure of the AERI at the tall tower site in early September.
- 382

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- 383 Several profiling systems were deployed at the base of the tall tower. SPARC (Wagner et al.
- 384 2019) was located 50 m north of the WLEF tower and was equipped with an Atmospheric
- 385 Emitted Radiance Interferometer (AERI, a zenith-pointing infrared radiometer [Knuteson et al.
- 386 2004]), a High-Spectral Resolution Lidar (HSRL [Eloranta 2005]), and a ceilometer. Profiles of
- boundary layer temperature and humidity were retrieved from the AERI radiance observations
- 388 (Turner and Löhnert 2014; Turner and Blumberg 2019). The HSRL sampled ABL aerosol
- backscatter and depolarization ratio at 532 nm and 1064 nm. The ceilometer provided an
- additional measure of ABL depth.
- 391

392 The ATMONSYS system was placed beside the SPARC system, measuring atmospheric water 393 vapor, temperature, and aerosol. The primary light source of the ATMONSYS lidar is a 100 Hz 394 diode pumped Nd:Yag laser with the harmonic generation of 532 nm and 355 nm. The 532 nm 395 light (P $\simeq 27$ W) is used for optical pumping a Ti:Sapphire laser, generating 817 nm (P $\simeq 2$ W) 396 for water vapor profiling with the high resolving DIAL (Differential Absorption Lidar) method 397 as well as for profiling aerosol backscatter. The 355 nm light is used for temperature profiling 398 from rotational Raman backscatter. The system setup as installed during CHEESEHEAD19 399 (Vogelmann et al. 2020) allows for spatial sampling of 7.5 m and integration times of 20 s for 400 aerosols and water vapor measurements and 300 s for temperature profiling.

401

402 In the field to the east of the trailers were three Doppler wind lidars. One lidar (LVS) measured

- 403 in vertical stare mode throughout the measurement campaign. The other two lidars (LA, LB)
- 404 were placed 90 meters away from the LVS and made range-height indicator (RHI) scans (66° -
- 405 87° elevation angle) pointing towards the LVS. This setup constitutes a virtual tower that
- 406 provides vertical wind speed measurements and calculates average horizontal wind speed at
- multiple height levels above the LVS (Calhoun et al. 2006; Klein et al. 2015; Wulfmeyer et al.
 2018). Additionally, the collocation of lidars for measuring 3D winds, temperature, and water
- 408 2018). Additionary, the conocation of fluars for measuring 5D winds, temperature, and wat 409 vapor facilitates calculation of flux profiles of τ , H_s, and H_L, as well as flux divergence
- 410 (Wulfmeyer et al. 2016).
- 411

Two precipitation instruments (a Precipitation Imaging Package [PIP] and a Micro Rain Radar
Pro [MRRPro; Metek GmbH]) were installed at WLEF. The PIP is a video disdrometer system

- that records information about hydrometers and produces end user products such as particle size
- 415 distributions, fall speeds, and rain rate at one-minute resolution (Newman et al., 2009; Pettersen
- 416 et al., 2020a; Pettersen et al., 2020b). The MRRPro is a 24-GHz, frequency modulated
- 417 continuous wave, vertically profiling Doppler radar (Klugmann et al. 1996) that is used for
- 418 observations of both rain (i.e., Peters et al. 2002) and snow (Kneifel et al. 2011).
- 419
- 420 Additional thermodynamic profiling systems were operated at the Prentice and Lakeland airports
- 421 throughout the experiment to characterize the boundary layer variability and evolution around
- 422 the CHEESEHEAD19 domain. The primary motivation of these two profiling sites was to
- 423 characterize the mesoscale transport and role of advection on the ABL mass balance of the
- 424 CHEESEHEAD19 domain. At each location, a 915 MHz wind profiler with radio acoustic
- 425 sounding system was deployed together with a multi-channel MWR. These instruments

426 provided profiles of horizontal wind and temperature, and low vertical resolution profiles of

- 427 water vapor.
- 428
- 429 Prior to IOP3, two mobile CLAMPS facilities (Wagner et al. 2019) were deployed at Prentice
- 430 and Lakeland. The systems contained a Doppler lidar wind profiler, an AERI, and a microwave
- 431 radiometer (MWR). The information content in the AERI observations is higher than in the
- 432 MWR, and thus the retrieved water vapor and temperature profiles have better vertical resolution
- 433 and accuracy (Löhnert et al 2009; Blumberg et al. 2015). The Doppler lidars complemented the
- radar wind profilers by providing higher temporal and vertical resolution measurements than the
- radars, but the radars were able to profile winds several km higher than the lidars.
- 436
- 437 Two small unoccupied aircraft systems (sUAS) were flown to characterize surface and near-
- 438 surface conditions (Fig. S1). During IOP1 (IOP2), a DJI S-1000 (e.g., Lee et al. 2019) was flown
- 439 adjacent to the SW2 tower (WLEF tall tower) to quantify the variability in surface sensible heat
- 440 flux (e.g., Lee et al. 2017). During all three IOPs, the Meteomatics Meteodrone SSE sUAS was
- 441 used to sample the evolution of near-surface profiles of temperature, moisture, and wind up to
- 442 213 m AGL, which was the maximum altitude to which we could operate our sUAS per our
- 443 cooperative agreement with the FAA. Additionally, the Meteodrone SSE was used to sample the
- 444 horizontal variability in temperature, moisture, and wind fields over a $\sim 100 \times 100$ m box
- surrounding the SW2 and WLEF towers. Over all IOPs, 26 (103) flights were conducted with the
- 446 DJI S-1000 (Meteodrone SSE).
- 447

448 Surface Environment

- 449
- 450 Data on the ecological environment were collected to provide the boundary conditions of canopy
- 451 type, activity, and stress, needed for estimating scaling properties. This was done with a variety
- 452 of methods, including airborne imaging spectroscopy, ground-based phenological
- 453 characterization, and tree growth measurements.
- 454
- 455 Foliar functional traits such as leaf mass per area (LMA) and nitrogen concentration strongly
- 456 influence photosynthetic capacity and plant growth (i.e., net primary production, NPP)
- 457 (Niinemets 2001; Kattge et al. 2009), and can be mapped using imaging spectroscopy (aka
- 458 hyperspectral remote sensing, Singh et al. 2015). To map foliar functional traits across the
- domain a full-range imaging spectroscopy system comprising two co-aligned imagers (VNIR-
- 460 1800 and SWIR-384; HySpex, Skedsmokorset, Norway) was operated from a Cessna 210 at
- 461 1400 m AGL on four days (6/26, 7/11, 8/4, 8/30), producing images with 1 m spatial resolution.
- 462 The HySpex collects 474 bands with a spectral resolution of 3.26 nm in the VNIR (400-1000
- 463 nm) and 5.45 nm in the SWIR (1000-2500 nm).
- 464
- 465 Extensive ground-based vegetation samples were collected to support the hyperspectral image
- analyses. These included 41 plots in the domain for measuring tree species (400+ trees), root
- 467 growth, tree height, diameter at breast height (DBH), net primary production (NPP), biometry,
- 468 leaf area index (LAI). This also included 122 top-of-canopy foliar samples to estimate leaf level
- 469 function traits following the protocol from Serbin et al. (2014).

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- 471 In combination with an existing extensive database of foliar traits and image spectra (Wang et al.
- in press), we will use the 122 foliar samples to develop and validate 1 m resolution maps for all
- 473 four dates of numerous foliar functional traits hypothesized to influence NPP, including LMA,
- 474 nitrogen concentration, chlorophyll and other pigments, phosphorus, non-structural
- 475 carbohydrates, fiber and lignin, and phenolics). From this, we will test the relationship between
- 476 functional traits and GPP (as derived from towers) and peak-season integrated NPP (early-July to
- 477 early-September, derived from the 41 plots). We will generate 1 m maps of NPP and GPP, and
- 478 identify the foliar factors that most influence each.
- 479
- 480 Additional plots were used to measure vegetation phenology as it changed through the season,
- 481 building upon several years of previous phenological observations collected in the domain.
- 482 Autumn tree leaf color and fall phenology levels were visually observed and recorded at least
- twice weekly over six weeks during the senescence period (Sep 1 to Oct 25) for a group of 214
- 484 individual trees (at ten sites distributed over the 10×10 km area) that were representative of the 485 major species.
- 485 486
- 487 Forest canopy structure was characterized using an sUAS-based lidar system (Routescene;
- 488 Edinburgh, Scotland) acquiring high density point clouds (500 pts m^{-2}) within footprints from 11
- 489 CHEESEHEAD19 flux tower sites including aspen, pine, poplar, larch, cedar, and hardwood
- 490 forests. Areas surveyed ranged between $0.25 1 \text{ km}^2$ per site. Additional canopy information for
- 491 the entire domain came from leaf-off LiDAR from USFS sampling (1 m^2 resolution) conducted
- 492 for the three counties that comprise the study area between 2014 and 2017.
- 493

Land surface temperature (LST) is a key environmental driver of the surface energy balance (e.g., Metzger et al., 2013; Xu et al. 2017a). Spatially explicit LST can be acquired from satellite remote sensing (Fig. 5). However, there are tradeoffs in space and time resolutions such that no single sensor provides sufficient resolution for use as a land surface driver to map heat fluxes across space at sub-kilometer and hourly time steps required for the hypotheses here. Also,

- 499 remote sensing methods may not be able to distinguish between true surface temperature and
- 500 upper canopy temperature. Here, we are investigating multi-sensor fusion using a combination of
- 501 in situ thermal drone and infrared camera imagery, ECOSTRESS, Landsat, VIIRS and/or GOES
- 502 (Wu et al. 2013).
- 503
- 504



506 Fig. 5. Land surface temperature on June 15, 2019 from (a) ERA5 reanalysis and

(b) derived from Landsat 8, where sub-grid spatial resolution is present, but
 temporal resolution is low (Gerace et al. 2020; Landsat 8 data courtesy of the U.S.
 Geological Survey; ERA5 data generated using Copernicus Climate Change Service

509 Geological Survey; ERA5 data genera 510 Information 2020).

511

512

513 Data Analysis & Modeling

514

515 Two analytical methods have been proposed to test the hypotheses of this study. The first is the

516 application of ERF-VCV – a data driven approach that can be used to account for the dispersive 517 fluxes missed by single-tower EC measurements, and to upscale fluxes across the

fluxes missed by single-tower EC measurements, and to upscale fluxes across the
CHEESEHEAD19 domain (Metzger, 2018, Xu et al., 2018, Xu et al., 2020). ERF-VCV uses a

519 machine learning algorithm to find relationships between measured fluxes and their

520 meteorological and surface drivers within the flux footprints (see sidebar).

521

522 We will perform LES for the IOP days using the Parallelized LES Model PALM (Raasch and 523 Schröter 2001; Maronga et al. 2015; 2020). In the LES we will emulate airborne- and tower-524 mounted flux observations to compare them against the 'real-world' observations with the ability 525 to also evaluate flux footprints using Lagrangian particle modelling, radiation footprints, storage 526 fluxes at various locations and points in time. To accurately simulate the physical processes as 527 observed during the IOPs of the field experiment as realistically as possible, we will assume 528 realistic topography for the experiment site, and apply a Land Surface Model (LSM) with a coupled soil and radiation model, as well as a Plant Canopy Model (PCM). The use of the LSM 529 530 and PCM runs instead of prescribed surface fluxes will allow us to study land-atmosphere 531 feedbacks such as self-reinforcement of mesoscale circulations over the heterogeneous study

532 domain. The LSM will be set up for each IOP test case, with land use classes, soil, and

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533 vegetation data as observed during the field experiment. Further, in order to account for

- 534 synoptic-scale processes during the IOPs (e.g., advection of air masses with different
- 535 characteristics) we will nest the LES domain into a larger-scale model.
- 536

537 One proposed goal is to derive a parametric heterogeneity correction of dispersive fluxes

538 by setting up virtual towers within the LES, applying it to CHEESEHEAD19 tower flux field

539 data, and evaluating it with ERF-VCV flux grids. Therefore, tower-level turbulence

540 characteristics will be simulated as observed during the field campaign to investigate the energy

balance non-closure problem. Additionally, by emulating 'real-world' measurements we intend to

help interpret the observations – such as giving hints where secondary circulations occur or how
 far heterogeneity signals extend downwind.

- 543
- 544

545 546

547 SIDEBAR: CONTINUITY THROUGH ENVIRONMENTAL RESPONSE FUNCTIONS

548

549 CHEESEHEAD19 disentangles how land surface heterogeneity relates to atmospheric transport in mesoscale eddies, which contributes to the discrepancy between EC flux observations and 550 551 model predictions. We strive to create a new class of observational flux data product that 552 reconciles resulting biases on orders of 10% (Chen et al. 2011; Foken et al. 2011) and reveals 553 actual surface emissions. For non-uniform exchange surfaces such as in CHEESEHEAD19, this 554 requires us to evaluate the conservation of mass and energy continuously in time and space throughout the study domain (e.g., Finnigan 2008). However, even intensive field 555 instrumentation campaigns such as CHEESEHEAD19 cannot produce observations everywhere, 556 557 all the time. Here, Environmental Response Functions (ERF; Metzger et al. 2013; Metzger 2018) 558 can help attain the necessary information continuum from individual observation plots to model 559 grid scale. To achieve this, ERFs complement information across disciplines and observation 560 types by using a machine learning algorithm to find relationships between measured fluxes and their meteorological and surface drivers within the flux footprints (Fig. 6A). This provides a 561 powerful approach not only for post-field data synthesis, but already in the experiment planning 562 563 stage e.g. in combination with Large Eddy Simulations (Fig. 6B). Maximizing scientific return 564 on experimental investment (Fig. 6C; Metzger et al., in preparation) is one example of how ERFs 565 can help close the circle among obtaining "knowledge from data" and "data from knowledge" 566 (Reichstein et al. 2019).

567



Fig. 6. Panel A: Environmental Response Functions (ERFs) augment sparse 569 570 response observations (e.g., tower and aircraft EC) with abundant driver 571 observations (e.g., meteorological stations and satellites). High-rate time-frequency 572 decomposition and source area modeling facilitate data joins among these 573 response and driver observations at minute- and meter-scale. Machine learning 574 then extracts a driver-response process model from the resulting space- and timealigned dataset. Ultimately, this driver-response process model complements the 575 576 properties of response and driver observations in the response data product. In the 577 present example these are meter-scale sensible heat flux maps, which can be used 578 to more reliably evaluate the conservation of energy across the non-uniform 579 CHEESEHEAD19 experiment domain. 580 581 Panel B: During the experiment planning stage we used Large Eddy Simulations 582 (LES) to create synthetic atmospheres over the CHEESEHEAD19 domain for

583 different synoptic conditions. We simultaneously sampled the synthetic

584 atmospheres as observed by different virtual experiment designs. Each experiment

585 design resulted in a separate set of virtual observations which we independently

- 586 processed through the ERFs in Panel A.
- 587

588 Panel C: We benchmarked the different experiment designs against their ability to 589 reproduce the LES reference in the form of flux grids that ERF reconstructed from 590 the virtual observations alone. Identifying the optimal experiment design not only 591 allowed us to double the scientific return on experimental investment, but also to 592 simplify flight plans and increase crew safety. For additional detail see the full study 593 by Metzger et al. (in preparation).

594

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595 **PRELIMINARY RESULTS**

596

597 Over the course of the four-month study period the region exhibited light winds (diurnal means

- from $1 4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) from all directions, with the most prevalent direction being southwesterly (Fig.
- 599 7). Air and soil temperatures decreased over the period, while soil moisture increased (Fig. 7b,c).
- 600 Daily mean net radiation decreased over the course of the study, which showed a direct
- 601 relationship with ABL height (measured as the height of the inversion on the diurnal radiosonde
- 602 launches [Fig. 7d]). One of the most relevant seasonal changes with respect to energy balance
- 603 was the change in the daytime Bowen Ratio (H_S / H_L) which averaged 0.5 in the summer and 1.0
- 604 in the fall, with the latter period having more variability than the former. Diurnal cycles of 605 sensible and latent heat flux show that latent heat flux is much larger in the summer when the
- sensible and latent heat flux show that latent heat flux is much larger in the summer when the canopy is fully evapotranspiring compared to the fall, when senescence of broadleaf trees
- reduces H_L , allowing H_S to comprise a larger share of the total heat flux over the region (Fig. 7f
- 608 i).

609









616 Continuous data collection throughout the campaign linked the energy balance components to 617 the remotely sensed atmospheric environment (Fig. 8). As is typical for EC measurements, we 618 observed energy fluxes that were lower in magnitude than the net incoming energy $(R_N - G)$, 619 when averaged across all sites. The magnitudes of the energy balance residual (C_{EB}) was largest during the daytime, when incoming solar radiation was highest. The opposite sign of C_{EB} from 620 621 day to night in part can be attributed to heat storage in the canopy. However, the magnitudes of 622 the daytime values are larger than the nighttime values, which results in a daily mean imbalance. 623





625 Fig. 8. (a) Stacked energy balance components: net radiation minus ground heat flux ($R_N - G$), sensible and latent heat flux (H_s and H_L), and energy balance residual 626 (C_{EB}) on Sep 24, 2019; (b) radiosonde profiles of potential temperature (ϑ) ; and (c) 627 628 time series of wind speed profile with overlaid ABL height from ceilometer (black 629 dots) and radiosondes (colored diamonds and dashed lines correspond to

630 radiosonde launches in (b)).

631

632 The energy balance residual peaked under conditions of low turbulence (Fig. 9). It is during such periods of calm wind and strongly unstable stratification in which thermally-induced mesoscale 633

634 eddies resulting from landscape-scale heterogeneity are expected (Steinfeld et al. 2007). This

635 lends support to the hypothesis that mesoscale eddies are responsible for the energy balance nonclosure.

- 636
- 637



638
 639 Fig. 9. Daily mean energy balance residuals (C_{EB}) normalized by net radiation minus

640 ground heat flux (R_N - G) plotted against friction velocity (u_*) for all ISFS EC towers

641 for the entire CHEESEHEAD19 dataset (excludes individual towers on days

642 without complete quality-controlled data).

643

Tower measurements, combined with in-situ measurements of air temperature and land surface temperature from the DJI S-1000, were used to quantify variability in surface H_s following Lee et al. [2017], as shown in an example from 12 Jul 2019 (Fig. 10). On this day, as well as others, there was significant temperature and H_s variability; temperature (H_s) differences were $\sim 10^{\circ}$ C

648 (100 W m⁻²) over the ~ 500 × 500 m area surrounding the SW2 tower. Fig. 10 illustrates even

649 finer scale resolution of surface temperature than the measures shown in Fig. 5. Such spatial

650 variation is directly related to underlying surface characteristics.

651





Fig. 10. Surface temperature (a) and H_s (b) from a downward-pointing infrared camera flown on the DJI S-1000 sUAS surrounding the SW2 tower between 1504 and 1518 UTC 12 Jul 2019. Same for panels (c) and (d), but between 1614 and 1628 UTC 12 Jul 2019. H_s computed following Lee et al. (2017). As the technique requires an initial H_s to derive the variability in H_s and H_s was unavailable from SW2 on 12 Jul, H_s at SW2 was estimated using a linear regression with data from nearby towers. Mean ± 1 standard deviation shown at the bottom of each panel.

660

Landscape heterogeneity was observed for a range of environmental variables, including 661 662 vegetation spectral characteristics and canopy height captured from downward-looking airborne 663 remote sensing instruments (Fig. 11). False color HySpex imagery is being used to differentiate 664 plant functional types at 1 m² resolution. Additional information on leaf-on canopy structure, obtained from the Routescene LiDAR at 11 flux sites and across the entire domain from the State 665 of Wisconsin leaf-off LiDAR dataset, are being used to identify surface roughness in the flux 666 667 footprints of the EC towers. In addition, these spatial data are being used as input drivers within 668 the ERF-VCV machine learning approach.

669



671 Fig. 11. Surface maps showing spatial variation around tower site SW2 in (a)

surface temperature measured by the DJI S-1000 (same as Fig. 10a), (b) vegetation

673 spectral characteristics measured by the HySpex shown as a false color image (849

674 nm – red, 1650 nm – green, 2217 nm – blue), and (c) surface/canopy height

675 measured by the sUAS Routescene lidar.

676

677 There is also spatial variation in the energy balance components across the domain on a typical

678 day (Fig. 12a). This variability includes the relative weighting of latent and sensible heat fluxes,

679 as well as the magnitude of the energy balance residual. The mean energy balance closure

680 (calculated as $[H_S + H_L]/[R_N - G]$) across all the sites over the entire study period was 0.8 This is

typical for EC towers and supports the need for the advanced methods put forth by this study.

682



Fig. 12. Average daily mean energy balance pie charts for the flux towers over the 684 entire study period. The pie chart with the cyan outline (bottom center) was a 685 686 buoy EC system deployed on a small lake.

687

688 To address this spatial and temporal variability we are testing different types of spatial EC 689 techniques, which have been suggested as a means of mitigating errors arising from single-site 690 EC (Steinfeld et al. 2007; Mauder et al. 2008b). Using LES, Xu et al. (2020) found that standard spatial EC improved closure over standard temporal EC, while a combined spatio-temporal 691 692 method performed better still. Further, by applying the ERF-VCV approach, the energy balance 693 was found to be almost completely closed.

694

695 Here we had the ability to calculate spatial fluxes from two different sources. First, the spatial 696

- fluxes were calculated using a wavelet decomposition on the aircraft EC datasets. This dataset
- 697 has good spatial coverage but limited temporal resolution, though, with 72 flight hours spread 698 across 12 days, it is one of the largest airborne EC datasets ever collected.
- 699
- 700 The second data source for spatial EC was the set of 20 flux towers spread across the domain.
- 701 Calculations for flux footprints on Sep 26, 2019 (Fig. 13) show that spatial coverage of the
- 702 towers (including WLEF) covered roughly 8% of the domain (using Kljun et al. [2015]). This is
- 703 a significant increase compared to a single tower set up (typically $\ll 1\%$ of a 10×10 km area).
- 704 An additional benefit from the experiment design is that the towers cover a range of physical
- 705 environments. These data are being used to confirm the LES model results for improvements to

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706 energy balance closure. By combining the tower and aircraft EC datasets we have excellent

coverage (~80%) of the study domain on flight days (Fig. 13).

708



709

710 Fig. 13. Flux footprint climatologies from the 20 flux towers and aircraft on the

711 morning of September 26, 2019. Tower footprints extend to the 90% footprint with

712 10% contour lines shown down to 10% (calculated based on Kljun et al. [2015]). The

713 heat map shows aircraft flux footprints with areas of strongest flux contribution in

red, grading to blue where there was no contribution (calculated based on Metzger

715 et al. [2013]). UWKA flight tracks shown as dashed black lines.

716

717 The characterization of the ABL and identification of mesoscale eddies will be performed using 718 lidar measurements of wind, water vapor, temperature, and backscatter. Figure 14 shows an 719 example of this on September 24. Increasing water vapor through the day is representative of a 720 large-scale warm, wet airmass entering the domain (Fig. 14c,d; Fig. S2a). This characterizes the 721 variation in water vapor throughout the collection of the morning UWKA CRL dataset (Fig. 722 14a). The afternoon CRL dataset (Fig. 14b) shows a more evenly mixed ABL, with variation in 723 water vapor due to local pockets of relatively moist and dry air. These two examples show the 724 varying applications of the CRL data depending on the atmospheric environment, with the

afternoon flight illustrating the potential of the dataset for determining the degree of ABL

- heterogeneity arising from surface heterogeneity. Further analysis will investigate relationships
- 727 with underlying vegetation and LST.

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- Around 1200 UTC (7am local time) net radiation becomes positive (Fig. 8a) and soon after we
- results the breakup of the surface inversion (Fig. 14d). Around 1400 1500 UTC we see the ABL
- 731 grow (Fig. 8c) followed by development of large-scale structures revealed by strong oscillations
- in vertical wind speed ($\pm 2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$; Fig. 14e). During peak hours the angle of attack of the wind
- 733 vectors oscillate between roughly -30° to 50° degrees on time scales of 10 minutes to an hour.
- These angles far exceed those of the underlying terrain, suggesting that these periodic updrafts
- and downdrafts are the result of mesoscale eddies.
- 736
- Around 1900 UTC the domain clouds over, seen in R_N and backscatter (Fig. 8a; Fig. 14f; Fig.
- 738 S2b). This causes the strength of the oscillation in vertical wind to decrease (Fig. 14e), which
- coincides with a change in the relative weighting of the different energy balance components,
- with both R_N and H_S decreasing strongly, while H_L decreases only slightly (Fig. 8a). An increase
- 741 in R_N around 2000 UTC corresponds to strengthening vertical wind speed oscillations. Further
- analyses will investigate the prevalence of this result across the entire dataset and examine
- specific drivers and possible implications for EC energy balance closure. These datasets show
- that changes in ABL development are closely tied to changes in the surface energy fluxes,
- highlighting the potential research applications of the CHEESEHEAD19 data.
- 746





Fig. 14. (a) and (b) show CRL cross sections of H₂O mixing ratio (cut to domain
size; panel c colorbar represents panels a - c) for each of 10 legs on Research Flights
17 and 18 (Sep 24 at 13:51 - 16:26 and 19:11 - 21:31 UTC); time series profiles of

- 751 (c) H₂O mixing ratio and (d) T measured by the ground-based MWR, (e) vertical
- 752 wind speed calculated using the ground-based RHI scanning wind lidars (L_A , L_B) for
- 753 the column above L_{vs} , and (f) 532 nm backscatter from the ground-based HSRL at
- 754 WLEF tall tower on Sep 24, 2019.

755 EDUCATIONAL OUTREACH

756

757 Several public events were conducted to introduce and communicate the science goals and

objectives of the project. These include a pre-experiment community-wide public presentation at

the Park Falls Public Library and a summer open house at several sites, enabling members of the

- community to visit data collection locations, meet CHEESEHEAD19 team members, and
 participate in demonstrations of the instruments. CHEESEHEAD19 team members also
- participate in demonstrations of the instruments. CHEESEHEAD19 team members also
 participated in surveys and in training on fieldwork bullying and sexual harassment prevention
- 763 (Fischer et al. in review).
- 764

765 The project also worked with two local school groups, one from Butternut, Wisconsin K-12

School and another from Chequamegon High School of Park Falls, WI, to include them as

- supporting data collectors. The GLOBE (Global Learning and Observations to Benefit the
- 768 Environment) program trained Butternut K-12 students and a teacher to collect land cover
- classification data, soil properties, and atmospheric data at seven of the tower sites at multiple
- times throughout the summer. The high school group installed ten tree temperature sensors at
- five of the forest flux tower sites, which are being used to estimate biomass heat storage. We
- also hosted two undergraduate university field classes (UW-Madison and U-South Carolina),
- which conducted independent research projects on micrometeorology and carbon cycling.
- 774



775

Fig. 15. Bill Brown (just right of the radiosonde balloon) describing the capabilities
 of the ISS facility during the community open house.

778

779 DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY

780

781 The database of observations and models is currently online and freely available to the

782 community and public for general use or for further scientific investigation. The datasets and

supporting information have been gathered together in the NCAR Earth Observatory Laboratory

784 (EOL) data repository which can be accessed through the project web page at

- 785 <u>https://www.eol.ucar.edu/field_projects/cheesehead</u>. The project has open data and code policies,
- in which other researchers are encouraged to use CHEESEHEAD19 resources for their own
- research. The policies can be accessed through the above web page.
- 788

Additionally, data are stored and are being used for in-depth analysis and modeling purposes on

the NSF-funded cloud computing platform CyVerse, with the goal of having a central location

- for users to bring their code to the data in a way that maintains data and code provenance for
- collaborative, multi-user projects. Additional information about the project, including
- descriptions of the sites, photographs, and data plots can be found on the CHEESEHEAD19
- 794 website, located at <u>www.cheesehead19.org</u>.
- 795

796 CONCLUSIONS

797

The data collected during the CHEESEHEAD19 field campaign show a distinct seasonal shift in

surface energy fluxes, as well as spatial patterning that appears to be directly related to the

800 characteristics of the underlying surface environment. Consequently, the imbalance in the energy 801 budget displays both temporal and spatial variability, with the imbalance becoming larger under

801 budget displays both temporal and spatial variability, with the imbalance becoming larger under 802 periods of low turbulence. The broad coverage of the measured fluxes using the 20-tower

network and airborne EC, combined with the collection of spatial data of surface characteristics

804 like LST, vegetation type, and canopy structure, will enable thorough investigation of the causes

- 805 of energy balance non-closure. Additionally, the suite of atmospheric profiling instrumentation
- 806 characterizes the mesoscale structure of atmospheric flows over the study domain to an
- 807 unprecedented degree, helping to determine how mesoscale eddies contribute to measured
- 808 imbalances. The observational dataset provided by CHEESEHEAD19 will also enable the use of
- 809 machine-learning approaches and LES for testing hypotheses on scaling and parameterization of
- 810 sub-grid processes in mesoscale meteorological models. Findings emerging from this project are
- 811 expected to have broad implications for heterogeneous terrestrial regions beyond the specific
- 812 study domain.
- 813
- 814

815 APPENDIX: LIST OF ACRONYMS

- 816 AGL above ground level
- 817 ARL Air Resources Laboratory (NOAA)
- 818 ATDD Atmospheric Turbulence and Diffusion Division (NOAA)

819 CHEESEHEAD19 – Chequamegon Heterogeneous Ecosystem Energy-balance Study Enabled

- 820 by a High-density Extensive Array of Detectors 2019
- 821 CLAMPS Collaborative Lower Atmospheric Mobile Profiling System (NOAA NSSL)
- 822 CRL Compact Raman Lidar

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- 823 EC Eddy Covariance
- 824 GML Global Monitoring Laboratory (NOAA)
- 825 IOP Intensive Observation Period
- 826 LES Large Eddy Simulation
- 827 lidar light detection and ranging
- 828 LSM Land Surface Model
- 829 NCAR National Center for Atmospheric Research
- 830 NOAA National Atmospheric and Oceanic Administration
- 831 NSF National Science Foundation
- 832 NSSL National Severe Storms Laboratory (NOAA)
- 833 PALM Parallelized LES Model
- 834 PSL Physical Sciences Laboratory (NOAA)
- 835 radar radio detection and ranging
- 836 RASS Radio Acoustic Sounding System
- 837 sodar sonic detection and ranging
- 838 sUAS small Unmanned Aircraft System
- 839 SURFRAD Surface Radiation Budget Network
- 840 UWKA University of Wyoming King Air

841842 APPENDIX: LIST OF VARIABLES

- 843 $F_{CO2} CO_2 \text{ flux } (\mu mol \ m^{-2} \ s^{-1})$
- 844 G Ground heat flux (W m^{-2})
- 845 H_2O water vapor mixing ratio (g kg⁻¹)
- 846 H_S sensible heat flux (W m⁻²)
- 847 H_L latent heat flux (W m⁻²)
- 848 LST land surface temperature (C)
- 849 P Pressure (mbar)
- $850 \qquad R_N-Net \ surface \ radiation \ (W \ m^{-2})$
- 851 T temperature (C)
- 852 T_v virtual temperature (C)
- 853 U horizontal wind speed (m s^{-1})
- 854 u*- friction velocity (m s⁻¹)
- 855 w vertical wind speed (m s⁻¹)
- 856 θ potential temperature (C)
- 857 θ_v virtual potential temperature (C)
- $858 \qquad \tau-momentum \ flux \ (N \ m^{-2})$
- 859

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1251 Fig. SI. The (a) DJI S-1000 and (b) Meteodrone SSE.

Table S1. List of the flux towers in operation during the CHEESEHEAD19 field campaign.								
Site #	Site Name	Ameriflu x ID	Latitude (° N)	Longitud e (° W)	Tower height (m)	Canopy height (m)	Vegetation	Contact
1	NW1	US-PFb	45.97200	90.32317	32	25	pine	Oncley
2	NW2	US-PFc	45.96773	90.30878	12	3	aspen	Oncley
3	NW3	US-PFd	45.96892	90.30103	3	0.3	wetland	Oncley
4	NW4	US-PFe	45.97925	90.30042	32	20.1	lake	Oncley
5	NW5	US-PFf	45.94583	90.29437	2	0	grass	Stoy
6	NE1	US-PFg	45.97348	90.27230	32	33.2	pine	Oncley
7	NE2	US-PFh	45.95573	90.24060	32	19.2	pine	Oncley
8	NE3	US-PFi	45.97490	90.23273	32	18.3	hardwood	Oncley
9	NE4	US-PFj	45.96187	90.22703	32	18.3	maple	Oncley
10	SW1	US-PFk	45.91490	90.34250	32	24.4	aspen	Oncley
11	SW2	US-PFI	45.94090	90.31773	25	19.2	aspen	Oncley
12	SW3	US-PFm	45.92067	90.30990	32	15	hardwood	Oncley
13	SW4	US-PFn	45.93922	90.28232	32	25.9	hardwood	Oncley
14	SE1	US-PFo	45.92288	90.27283	1.5	0	lake	Stoy
15	SE2	US-PFp	45.93652	90.26408	32	24.4	hardwood	Oncley
16	SE3	US-PFq	45.92715	90.24750	32	14.3	aspen	Oncley
17	SE4	US-PFr	45.92448	90.24745	3	0.3	wetland	Oncley
18	SE5	US-PFs	45.93808	90.23818	12	3.1	aspen	Oncley
19	SE6	US-PFt	45.91973	90.22883	32	21.6	pine	Oncley
20	WLEF	US-PFa	45.94590	90.27230	396	n/a	mixed	Desai
21	WCR	US-WCr	45.80600	90.07980	30	24	hardwood	Desai
22	LOS	US-Los	46.08270	89.97920	10	2	wetland	Desai

1256Table S2. Instrumentation deployed at the CHEESEHEAD19 campaign by the NOAA Global1257Monitoring Laboratory

Instrument	ment Measurement		Resolution			
Central ISS Station						
Eppley Pyrgeometer	↓↑ LW broadband hemispheric irradiance	06/29 - 10/22	1 min avg.			
Eppley Precision Spectral Pyranometer (PSP)	↓↑ SW broadband hemispheric irradiance	06/29 - 10/22	1 min avg.			
Shaded Eppley Black and White Pyranometer	Diffuse hemispheric broadband SW irradiance	06/29 - 10/22	1 min avg.			
Eppley Normal Incidence Pyrheliometer (NIP)	Direct normal broadband SW irradiance	06/29 - 10/22	1 min avg.			
Total Sky Imager (TSI)	Images/movies of sky cover, fractional sky cover	07/05 - 10/22	15 sec			
Vaisala CL51 Ceilometer	Cloud base height, boundary layer height	06/29 - 10/22	16 sec			
Multi Filter Rotating Shadowband Radiometer (MFRSR)	ulti Filter Rotating adowband Radiometer IFRSR) ↓ hemispheric total and diffuse spectral irradiance at 6 bands: 415, 500, 670, 868, 940, 1625 nm; retrievals of aerosol optical depth		20 sec			
Multi Filter Radiometer (MFR)	 ↑ hemispheric total spectral irradiance at 6 bands: 415, 500, 670, 868, 940, 1625 nm. Spectral surface albedo and NDVI (with MFRSR). 	06/29 - 10/22	20 sec			
LICOR Quantum 190R	Photosynthetically Active Radiation	06/29 - 10/22	1 min avg.			
Aerodyne Three-Waveband Spectrally-agile Technique (TWST)	Cloud optical depth, spectral SW zenith radiance (350-1000 nm, ~2.5 nm resolution)	09/20 - 10/22	1 sec			
Vaisala HMP60	aisala HMP60 Temperature and Relative Humidity		1 min avg.			
RM Young, Model 05103	Wind direction and speed at 10 m	06/29 - 10/22	1 min avg.			
Prentice and Lakeland Airports						
Eppley Pyrgeometer	↓ LW broadband hemispheric irradiance	06/28 - 10/23	1 min avg.			
Kipp & Zonen CMP11 Pyranometer	& Zonen CMP11 someter SW broadband hemispheric irradiance		1 min avg.			
Delta-T SPN-1 Radiometer	↓ SW diffuse and total broadband hemispheric irradiance	06/28 - 10/23	1 min avg.			
Vaisala HMP60	Temperature and Relative Humidity	06/28 - 10/23	1 min avg.			
Vaisala CL-51 Ceilometer	Cloud Base Height (CBH)	06/28 - 10/23	16 sec			

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125	59

Table S3. The dates, times, and flight patterns of the UWKA flights.						
				Entered		
	Flight	Takeoff	Landing	Domain	Exited	Flight
Date	Number	(UTC)	(UTC)	(UTC)	Domain (UTC)	Pattern
7/9/19	RF01	13:57	16:47	14:06	16:16	WE2
7/9/19	RF02	19:02	21:32	19:11	21:22	WE2
7/11/19	RF03	14:10	17:00	14:22	16:36	WE1
7/11/19	RF04	19:00	21:40	19:15	21:28	WE1
7/12/19	RF05	13:40	16:45	13:49	16:06	WE2
7/12/19	RF06	17:52	21:00	18:04	20:46	WE2
7/13/19	RF07	14:05	16:52	14:22	16:32	SE2
7/13/19	RF08	18:56	21:30	19:12	21:16	SW1
8/20/19	RF09	13:40	16:23	13:51	16:12	SE1
8/20/19	RF10	19:12	22:22	19:23	21:51	SE1
8/21/19	RF11	13:54	16:50	14:08	16:36	SW1
8/21/19	RF12	18:55	21:50	19:11	21:38	SW1
8/22/19	RF13	13:57	17:15	14:11	16:55	SW2
8/22/19	RF14	19:00	22:01	19:13	21:46	SW2
8/23/19	RF15	13:57	16:48	14:07	16:38	WE2
8/23/19	RF16	19:07	22:03	19:17	21:46	WE2
9/24/19	RF17	13:37	17:00	13:53	16:24	SE1
9/24/19	RF18	18:57	21:49	19:10	21:39	SE1
9/25/19	RF19	14:20	17:22	14:41	17:09	SW1
9/25/19	RF20	19:12	22:06	19:29	21:53	SW1
9/26/19	RF21	13:52	16:46	14:05	16:35	SE1
9/26/19	RF22	18:31	21:40	18:45	21:14	SE1
9/28/19	RF23	14:14	17:30	14:37	17:17	WE1
9/28/19	RF24	18:50	21:50	19:07	21:36	WE1



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Fig S2. Preliminary profiles of (a) H₂O and (b) backscatter measured by the ATMONSYS lidar. These are complementary, collocated datasets with the HSRL, AERI, and MWR at 1265 WLEF. The high resolution data (vertical resolution of 110 m and 7.5 m for H₂O and 1266 backscatter, respectively; 20 second temporal resolution for both) are capable of being 1267 combined with collocated Doppler wind lidar data to calculate flux profiles. 1268

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