Water recycling by Amazonian vegetation: coupled versus uncoupled vegetation–climate interactions

S. A. Cowling1,*, Y. Shin1, E. Pinto2 and C. D. Jones3

1 Department of Geography, University of Toronto, 100 St George Street, Toronto, Ontario, Canada M5S 3G3
2 Faculty of Forestry, University of Toronto, 33 Wilcocks Street, Toronto, Ontario, Canada M5S 3B3
3 Met Office, Hadley Centre for Climate Prediction and Research, Fitzroy Road, Exeter, Devon EX1 3PB, UK

To demonstrate the relationship between Amazonian vegetation and surface water dynamics, specifically, the recycling of water via evapotranspiration (ET), we compare two general circulation model experiments; one that couples the IS92a scenario of future CO2 emissions to a land-surface scheme with dynamic vegetation (coupled) and the other to fixed vegetation (uncoupled). Because the only difference between simulations involves vegetation coupling, any alterations to surface energy and water balance must be due to vegetation feedbacks. The proportion of water recycled back to the atmosphere is relatively conserved through time for both experiments. Absolute value of recycled water is lower in our coupled relative to our uncoupled simulation as a result of increasing atmospheric CO2 that in turn promotes lowering of stomatal conductance and increase in water-use efficiency. Bowen ratio increases with decreasing per cent broadleaf cover, with the greatest rate of change occurring at high vegetation cover (above 70% broadleaf cover). Over the duration of the climate change simulation, precipitation is reduced by an extra 30% in the coupled relative to the uncoupled simulations. Lifting condensation level (proxy for base height of cumulus cloud formation) is 520 m higher in our coupled relative to uncoupled simulations.

Keywords: Amazon Basin; water recycling; evapotranspiration

1. INTRODUCTION

Over the past decade, the role of vegetation in modifying atmospheric processes has become increasingly the focus of Earth science investigations; incorporating methods involving modelling of land-use change and vegetation–climate feedbacks, remote sensing and observations (measurements) of atmospheric and land-surface variables (Crucifix et al. 2005; Gedney et al. 2006; Henderson-Sellers 2006; Salmun & Molod 2006; Pitman & Hesse 2007). Without debate, the terrestrial biosphere is an integral component of the Earth system; only now we are realizing the extent to which terrestrial vegetation can alter the exchange of carbon, water and energy within the active boundary layer. The structure of vegetation, for example, can alter the reflectivity of the Earth’s surface (albedo), thereby modifying surface radiation balance (Da Silva & Avissar 2006). The physiology of plant canopies (i.e. stomata) influences canopy water exchange (Roberts 2007). Stomata are also critical for carbon exchange between the biosphere and the atmosphere and are influenced by both external forces such as microclimate and internal factors such as plant stress hormones.

Owing to the increasing awareness of vegetation feedbacks on climate (in particular, the consequence of deforestation for regional climate) (Pielke et al. 1998), Amazonia has become a popular region for study. The LBA project (Avissar et al. 2002) has provided a girth of observational (eddy-flux) data on canopy–atmosphere gas exchange. One area of popular interest, owing to its continuing uncertainty, is the degree to which canopies (i.e. cumulative plant stomata) can alter surface water balance that in turn may influence larger-scale processes, such as lifting condensation level (LCL; cloud base height) and rate of precipitation.

It was the objective of our research to evaluate pre-existing model simulations of coupled and uncoupled vegetation feedbacks on climate for insights into the potential role that plant physiology has in modifying surface water balance. Physiological alterations to surface water may arise from two plant-based responses: (i) increases (decreases) in leaf surface area that concurrently increase (decrease) rates of transpiration and (ii) decreases (increases) in stomatal conductance that modify pore openings and therefore control the amount of transpired water. We evaluate simulated results including per cent broadleaf cover, evapotranspiration (ET), precipitation and surface energy balance (Bowen ratio) from two simulations with HadCM3LC, a climate–carbon cycle configuration of the Met Office Unified Model. The first simulation was conducted using the IS92a CO2 emission scenario, incorporating a...
2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

(a) Model description
HadCM3LC is the Hadley Centre’s fully coupled atmosphere–ocean GCM. It consists of HadCM3 (Gordon et al. 2000) coupled to an ocean carbon cycle model HadOCC (Palmer & Totterdell 2001) and a dynamic global vegetation model, TRIFFID (Cox 2001). HadCM3LC has a resolution of 2.5° latitude by 3.75° longitude, 19 vertical atmospheric levels (employing a hybrid vertical coordinate system) and a computational time step of 30 min. The model was developed over a decade ago; hence has undergone rigorous testing of its parametrizations and mechanistic algorithms, as well as been employed in numerous Earth system applications (Betts et al. 2004; Jones et al. 2005; Toniazzo 2006; Grist et al. 2007; Kuttel et al. 2007; Lachlan-Cope et al. 2007). To avoid unnecessary repetition, we direct the reader to refer to one of these aforementioned studies to obtain more detailed information about the Hadley GCM.

(b) Model simulation protocols
Climate boundary conditions were similar for both scenarios and based on IPCC’s IS92a CO2 emission scenario (coupled simulation) and (b) precipitation (mm d$^{-1}$) versus simulation time (years AD) for our coupled and uncoupled simulations. Per cent broadleaf cover remains fixed (approx. 84%) throughout our uncoupled simulation. Filled circles, time versus P-coupled stimulation; open circles, time versus P-uncoupled stimulation.

fixed biosphere (uncoupled), while the other simulation was conducted with the same climate forcing variables but incorporating a dynamic biosphere module (coupled).

We can insightfully compare these simulations because the only difference between simulations is whether or not the biosphere feedbacks onto climate-modifying variables. The same experiment could be run with one (uncoupled) GCM model simulated with different fixed vegetation fractions (i.e. 100, 80, 60% broadleaf cover, etc.). We chose our methodological approach for two reasons: (i) simulation results already existed from previous simulation experiments (Cox et al. 2004) and (ii) we are able to evaluate transient vegetation–climate interactions through time, thus avoiding ‘snap shot’ assessments.

Understanding the consequences of changing vegetation cover for surface water budget is important for better understanding the role that vegetation feedbacks have on larger-scale processes such as cumulus cloud formation and rates of precipitation (Eltahir & Bras 1996). Therefore, we also compare the effects of coupled and uncoupled vegetation feedbacks on LCL and the parameters that underlie cumulus cloud formation (i.e. specific humidity, surface temperature and surface pressure).

\[ \text{Figure 1. Response of (a) broadleaf cover (percentage of surface area) to changes in climate defined by IPCC’s IS92a CO2 emission scenario (coupled simulation) and (b) precipitation (mm d}^{-1}\text{) versus simulation time (years AD) for our coupled and uncoupled simulations. Per cent broadleaf cover remains fixed (approx. 84%) throughout our uncoupled simulation. Filled circles, time versus P-coupled stimulation; open circles, time versus P-uncoupled stimulation.}\]
data were retrieved from a compilation study by Hahn & Warren (2002) that contained three-month-averaged cumulus cloud base heights measured between 1971 and 1996 (at a resolution of 5° latitude by 5° longitude). Our GCM-derived LCL values are annual means therefore a direct comparison between observed and calculated LCL was not possible.

To provide a useful indirect model-data comparison, however, we define a region within lowland Amazonia, removing highland grid cells so that elevation does not become a confounding variable in our LCL analysis. Removing highland grid cells however, we define a region within lowland Amazonia, consistent with Hahn & Warren (2002) that contained three-month-averaged cumulus cloud base heights measured between 1971 and 1996 (at a resolution of 5° latitude by 5° longitude). Our GCM-derived LCL values are annual means therefore a direct comparison between observed and calculated LCL was not possible.

To provide a useful indirect model-data comparison, however, we define a region within lowland Amazonia, removing highland grid cells so that elevation does not become a confounding variable in our LCL analysis. Consistent with Hahn & Warren (2002), we excluded all highland regions located along the eastern flank of the Andes Mountains (i.e. grid cells where mean annual temperature less than 21°C) and all oceanic grid points. Because the observational data exhibited very little seasonal variation (statistically not significant), we used the four 3-month averages to generate annual averages for comparison against our calculated annual LCL values.

Table 1. Summary of field-based observations of mean annual evapotranspiration (ET, mm yr⁻¹) and precipitation (P, mm yr⁻¹) for Neotropical forests including both undisturbed rainforest and plantations. Calculated ET/P for listed studies equals 0.52±0.11.

| P (mm yr⁻¹) | ET (mm yr⁻¹) | ET/P | site location | reference |
|------------|---------------|------|---------------|-----------|
| 2200       | 1300          | 0.59 | Tapajos, Brazil | da Rocha et al. (2004) |
| 2089       | 1124          | 0.53 | Caeiras, Brazil | Malhi et al. (2002) |
| 2892       | 1481          | 0.51 | Janlappa, Java  | Calder et al. (1986) |
| 4620       | 2172          | 0.47 | La Selva, Costa Rica (old growth) | Loescher et al. (2005) |
| 3156       | 1318−1509     | 0.42−0.48 | La Selva, Costa Rica (plantation) | Bigelow (2001) |
| 3495       | 1892          | 0.54 | Costa Rica (1998) | Loescher et al. (2005) |
| 3575       | 2294          | 0.64 | Costa Rica (1999) | Loescher et al. (2005) |
| 4127       | 2239          | 0.54 | Costa Rica (2000) | Loescher et al. (2005) |

Table 2. Latent heat flux (W m⁻²), sensible heat flux (W m⁻²), surface temperature (°C), specific humidity (g kg⁻¹) and surface pressure (mbar) for both coupled (CPL) and uncoupled (UNC) simulations.

| time (AD) | latent heat flux (W m⁻²) | sensible heat flux (W m⁻²) | temperature (°C) | sp. humidity (g kg⁻¹) | surface pressure (mbar) |
|-----------|--------------------------|----------------------------|------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
|           | CPL | UNC | CPL | UNC | CPL | UNC | CPL | UNC | CPL | UNC | CPL | UNC |
| 2000      | 104 | 98  | 40.8| 59.0| 30  | 31  | 17.3| 17.4| 1115.2| 1115.8 |
| 2010      | 100 | 96  | 45.2| 61.1| 31  | 31  | 17.4| 17.4| 1114.8| 1115.7 |
| 2020      | 97  | 95  | 49.3| 63.8| 32  | 32  | 17.4| 17.5| 1114.8| 1115.7 |
| 2030      | 89  | 92  | 57.6| 67.5| 33  | 32  | 17.3| 7.7 | 1114.5| 1115.5 |
| 2040      | 84  | 91  | 62.3| 68.2| 34  | 33  | 17.4| 17.8| 1114.3| 1115.4 |
| 2050      | 79  | 89  | 65.1| 71.0| 35  | 33  | 17.3| 18.0| 1114.3| 1115.4 |
| 2060      | 73  | 87  | 69.5| 73.7| 36  | 34  | 17.3| 17.9| 1114.1| 1115.3 |
| 2070      | 64  | 80  | 77.4| 82.3| 38  | 35  | 17.4| 18.2| 1113.6| 1114.8 |
| 2080      | 56  | 79  | 80.9| 83.1| 39  | 35  | 17.2| 18.0| 1113.6| 1114.8 |
| 2090      | 50  | 71  | 82.0| 92.7| 40  | 37  | 17.4| 18.1| 1113.4| 1114.5 |

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

(a) Data-model comparisons

The majority of our lowland area has model-calculated LCL values that vary between 650 and 850 m (Pinto et al. in press). While the observed LCL is 771±28 m, our model-predicted LCL for the lowland region is 832±20 m, a difference of approximately 61 m. Two-tailed z-statistics show that the means between datasets do not significantly differ (p = 0.3734, α = 0.05). When we consider both the uncertainty associated with modelling cloud formation at GCM scales (Still et al. 1999; Henderson-Sellers 2006) as well as the typical margin of error of more than 500 m in estimating cloud base height in meteorological observations (Craven et al. 2002), our simulated LCL closely approximates observations.

Model-predicted value of vegetation WRE near the start of our simulation (i.e. AD 2000) is 0.65 in our coupled scenario. Comparison against calculated recycling efficiencies from eddy-flux data from predominantly old-growth tropical rainforest in the neotropics (table 1) indicates similar values, however our GCM-based values are nearer to the higher end of the calculated range (range: 0.64−0.42, mean = 0.52±0.07).

(b) Water-recycling efficiency in Amazonia

Decreased broadleaf cover from 85 to 50% leads to a 33% decrease in the rate of P in our coupled relative to uncoupled simulation (figure 1b). At the end of the modelling experiment (i.e. simulation year AD 2090), the overall difference in P between simulations is approximately 1 mm d⁻¹. ET is over 50% lower by the end of the modelling experiment in the coupled scenario, yet only 30% reduced in the uncoupled simulation (table 2).

Considerable literature focuses on the degree to which highly productive rainforests can return water to the atmosphere via transpiration, including the evaporation of water pooling on leaf canopy surfaces (Kleidon & Heimann 2000; Notaro et al. 2007). Estimates have ranged from as low as 25% (Brubaker et al. 1993) to more than 50% (Leopoldo et al. 1987).
Discrepancies between the estimates primarily stem from difficulties in estimating ET in the field, which in turn are limited by our inability to fully understand the complex network of underlying climatic and physiological mechanisms influencing ET.

Calculated WRE (ET/P) of Amazonian vegetation reveals a mean value of $0.65 \pm 0.01$ for our coupled simulation and $0.69 \pm 0.01$ for uncoupled simulation. The coupled simulation shows a lower WRE because the inclusion of stomatal physiology results in a proportionally greater ET decline relative to P as a result of regional warming. Consequently, WRE does not show an over trend through time (figure 2). WRE in the year 2000 is already lower in the coupled relative to P, resulting in a trend towards stomatal closure (i.e. improved plant water-use efficiency).

Dekker et al. (2007) employ models of varying scales to show that micro-scale vegetation feedbacks on climate (i.e. increased P promoting increased vegetation, leading to increased soil infiltration that in turn causes greater vegetative growth) are as important as macro-scale vegetation feedbacks on climate like ET-P coupling. In addition, our results indicate that the WRE of tropical rainforests such as the Amazon Basin may remain relatively constant despite a change in climate. This trend probably arises from the tight relationship between vegetative surface area (i.e. per cent broadleaf cover) and rate of ET (figure 3a; $r^2=0.95$) together with the close relationship between ET and P (figure 3b; $r^2=0.997$ for coupled and $r^2=0.984$ for uncoupled simulations). As ET decreases with declining broadleaf cover in response to warming climate, so does P, yielding a relatively constant ratio of ET to P over time.

(e) Vegetation feedbacks on surface energy balance: implications for cumulus cloud formation

Between the start and the end of our simulation, sensible heat ($Q_h$) increases by more than 100% and by less than 60% in the coupled and uncoupled simulations, respectively (table 2). Bowen ratio increases monotonically with increasing time (i.e. future climate warming and drying) for both our coupled and uncoupled simulations, although the rate of change is much steeper in the coupled scenario (figure 4b). Similarly, the slope of the plot of coupled per cent broadleaf cover versus Bowen ratio ($Q_h/Q_e$) shows that the rate of change of Bowen ratio calculated when per cent broadleaf cover is high is twice as much as that calculated for lower values of per cent broadleaf cover (slope=0.040 and 0.017 respectively; figure 4a). The threshold defining these responses lies somewhere around 70% broadleaf cover.

The effect of decreasing vegetation cover on surface energy and water exchange has been the focus of several modelling experiments (Freedman et al. 2001; Ray et al. 2003; Crucifix et al. 2005; Simon et al. 2005; Sogalla et al. 2006; Betts et al. 2007; Dekker et al. 2007). A recent study by Crucifix et al. (2005) show that dynamic vegetation in a fully coupled GCM substantially increases the variability of surface $Q_h$ and $Q_e$ fluxes at the global scale, and that increased vegetation cover always increases ET; the latter conclusion supported by our simulations (figure 3a). We postulate two trends in response of surface energy–water balance to variations in forest cover: (i) above a vegetation fraction threshold (in our case, approx.

Figure 2. Plotted relationship for the ratio of evapotranspiration (ET, mm d$^{-1}$) to total precipitation (P, mm d$^{-1}$) versus simulation time (years AD).

Figure 3. Plotted graph of (a) rate of ET (mm d$^{-1}$) versus per cent broadleaf cover for our coupled simulation ($r^2 = 0.95$) and (b) rate of ET (mm d$^{-1}$) versus precipitation (mm d$^{-1}$) for both coupled ($r^2 = 0.997$; filled circles, P versus ET-coupled) and uncoupled ($r^2 = 0.984$; open circles, P versus ET-uncoupled) simulations. Solid lines, regression plot.
70% broadleaf cover), physiological factors like the effects of stomatal conductance on rate of ET play an important role in modifying Bowen ratio and (ii) below this threshold (i.e. progressively less forest cover), other factors like surface albedo begin to dominate the partitioning of surface energy.

As expected, both coupled and uncoupled simulations show tight correlations between LCL and ET (figure 5a). However, at the end of our simulation experiment (ca AD 2100), LCL is over 520 m higher in the coupled relative to uncoupled simulation (figure 5b), clearly demonstrating vegetation feedbacks on cumulus cloud formation. Any change in LCL between simulations must be due to the fact that vegetation is either fixed or dynamic as no other variable is different between simulations. In support, the statistical correlation between LCL and per cent broadleaf cover yields a correlation coefficient that is relatively high ($r^2 = 0.94$; figure 5c). Modifications to LCL in our

![Figure 4](image4.png)

Figure 4. Graphed relationship between (a) Bowen ratio and per cent broadleaf cover for our coupled simulation ($r^2 = 0.978$) and (b) Bowen ratio and simulation time (years AD) for both coupled ($r^2 = 0.946$; filled circles) and uncoupled ($r^2 = 0.886$; open circles) simulations. Filled circles, time versus B-coupled simulations; open circles, time versus B-uncoupled simulations; solid lines, regression plot.

![Figure 5](image5.png)

Figure 5. Plotted relationship for (a) LCL (m) versus ET (mm d$^{-1}$) for both coupled (filled circles, ET-coupled versus LCL-coupled) and uncoupled (open circles, ET-uncoupled versus LCL-uncoupled) simulations; solid lines, plot 1 regression, (b) LCL (m) versus simulation time (years AD) for both coupled (filled circles, time versus LCL-coupled) and uncoupled (open circles, time versus LCL-uncoupled) simulations; and (c) LCL (m) versus per cent broadleaf cover for our coupled simulation.
coupled simulation probably results from two bio-
physical–physiological processes: (i) the amount of
moisture that lowland Amazonia recycles back to
the atmosphere via ET (figure 3a) and (ii) the amount
of warming that is promoted when decreasing vegeta-
tion cover partitions more incoming solar energy into
Q_H relative to Q_E energy (i.e. in increasing Bowen ratio
with decreasing per cent broadleaf cover; figure 4a).
Both of these plant-based processes (decreased rate of
ET, increasing Bowen ratio) promote an upward dis-
placement of LCL.

Although this study does not directly address factors
related to canopy height and architecture, called rough-
ess length (i.e. the degree of landscape heterogeneity),
they can also strongly modify regional cloud formation
(Salmun & Molod 2006). Our modelling simulations
include feedbacks from surface roughness on the depth
of convective boundary layer (i.e. described in Hadley’s
land-surface model, MOSES). This means that our
simulated (calculated) LCL results from changes in
roughness element, in addition to surface temperature,
surface pressure and specific humidity (table 2).

The role of vegetation feedbacks on LCL has been
shown by others (O’Neal 1996; Emori 1998; Still et al.
1999; Ray et al. 2003; Ek & Holtslag 2004). Using a
regional land-surface model, Emori (1998) and Ek &
Holtslag (2004) show that changes in surface tempera-
ture arising from variations in evaporation cause large
contrasts in soil moisture that in turn strongly influence
thermally induced cumulus convection. MODIS data
between 1999 and 2000 for southwest Australia reveal
a higher frequency of cumulus clouds and a greater optical
density of clouds over native vegetation relative to
agricultural fields during the dry summer (Ray et al.
2003). Satellite data between latitudes 35 and 55° N over
eastern North America show greater convective cloud
cover over forests in Ontario and the Appalachians
relative to areas over the Great Lakes (O’Neal 1996).

4. SUMMARY
We present a very basic, yet statistically direct, analysis of
the effects of Amazonian vegetation in influencing WRE
that in turn modify both LCL and regional rates of
precipitation. The simplicity in our modelling experi-
ments stems from the fact that the only difference
between simulations is the presence or the absence of
dynamic vegetation feedbacks onto climate. We show
that WRE in Amazonia remains relatively conserved
over changing climate primarily owing to the tight
correlation between ET and per cent broadleaf cover
and between ET and P. The rate of change of Bowen
ratio with per cent broadleaf cover is the greatest at high
fractional coverage (i.e. above 70% broadleaf cover).
Over the duration of our modelling experiment, P is
reduced and LCL increased by 52 and 55% (respect-
ively) in our coupled simulation, whereas in our
uncoupled simulation P decreases and LCL increases
by only 28 and 37% (respectively).

The authors would like to express their appreciation
for the guidance provided to them from their subject
editor, Richard Betts, and for constructive comments made by
two anonymous reviewers. S.A.C. would like to acknowledge
financial support from the Canadian Institute for Advanced
Research (CIFAR). The contribution of C.D.J. was supported
by the UK Department for Environment, Food and Rural
Affairs Climate Prediction Programme, under contract
PECD 7/12/37.

REFERENCES
Avisrar, R., Dias, P. L. S., Dias, M. A. F. S. & Nobre, C. 2002
The large-scale biosphere–atmosphere experiment in
Amazonia (LBA): insights and future research needs.
J. Geophys. Res. Atmos. 107, 8086. (doi:10.1029/2002JD002704)
Betts, R. A., Cox, P. M., Collins, M., Harris, P. P.,
Huntingford, C. & Jones, C. D. 2004 The role of
ecosystem–atmosphere interactions in simulated Amazo-
nian precipitation decrease and forest dieback under
global climate warming. Theor. Appl. Climatol. 78,
157–175. ( doi:10.1007/s00704-004-0050-y)
Betts, R. A., Falloon, P. D., Goldewijk, K. K. & Ramankutty,
N. 2007 Biogeophysical effects of land use on climate:
model simulations of radiative forcing and large-scale
temperature change. Agric. For Meteorol. 142, 216–233.
(doi:10.1016/j.agrformet.2006.08.021)
Bigelow, S. 2001 Evapotranspiration modeled from stands
of three broad-leaved tropical trees in Costa Rica.
Hydrol. Processes 15, 2779–2796. (doi:10.1002/hyp.268)
Brubaker, K. L., Entekhabi, D. & Eagleson, P. S. 1993
Estimation of continental precipitation recycling. J. Climate
6, 1077–1089. (doi:10.1175/1520-0442(1993)006<1077:EOCPR>2.0.CO;2)
Calder, I. R., Wright, I. R. & Murdiyarso, D. 1986 A study of
evaporation from tropical rainforest—West Java. J. Hydrol.
89, 13–31. (doi:10.1016/0022-1694(86)90139-3)
Cox, P. M. 2001 Description of the TRIPID dynamics
global vegetation model. Technical note 24, Hadley
Centre, Met Office, Exeter, UK.
Cox, P. M., Betts, R. A., Jones, C. D., Spall, S. A.
& Totterdell, I. J. 2000 Acceleration of global warming due
to carbon-cycle feedbacks in a coupled climate model.
Nature 408, 184–187. ( doi:10.1038/35041539)
Cox, P. M., Betts, R. A., Collins, M., Harris, P. P.,
Huntingford, C. & Jones, C. D. 2004 Amazonian forest
dieback under climate-carbon cycle projections for the
21st century. Theor. Appl. Climatol. 78, 137–156.
(doi:10.1007/s00704-004-0049-4)
Craven, J. P., Jewell, R. E. & Brooks, H. E. 2002 Comparison
between observed convective cloud base heights and lifting
condensation level for two different lifted parcels. Weather
Forecast. 17, 885–890. (doi:10.1175/1520-0434(2002)
017<0885:CBOCBB>2.0.CO;2)
Crucifix, M., Betts, R. A. & Cox, P. M. 2005 Vegetation and
climate variability: a GCM modelling study. Clim. Dyn.
24, 457–467. (doi:10.1007/s00382-004-0054-z)
da Rocha, H. R., Goulden, M. L., Miller, S. D., Menton,
M. C., Pinto, L. D. V. O., de Freitas, H. C. & Silva
Figueira, A. M. e. 1986 Seasonality of water and heat
fluxes over a tropical forest in eastern Amazonia. Ecol.
Appl. 14, S22–S32. ( doi:10.1890/02-6001)
Da Silva, R. R. & Avisrar, R. 2006 The hydrometeorology of a
deforested region of the Amazon Basin. J. Hydrometeorol.
7, 1028–1042. ( doi:10.1175/JHM537.1)
Dekker, S. C., Rietkerk, M. & Bierkens, M. F. P. 2007
Coupling macroscale vegetation–soil water and macro-
scale vegetation–precipitation feedbacks in semi-arid ecosys-
tems. Global Change Biol. 13, 671–678. ( doi:10.1111/
j.1365-2486.2007.01327.x)
Elk, M. B. & Holtslag, A. A. M. 2004 Influence of soil moisture
on boundary layer cloud development. J. Hydrometeorol.
5, 86–99. (doi:10.1175/1525-7541(2004)005<0086:
IOMOB>2.0.CO;2)
Eltahir, E. A. B. & Bras, R. L. 1996 Precipitation recycling.
Rev. Geophys. 34, 367–378. ( doi:10.1029/96RG01927)
Emori, S. 1998 The interaction of cumulus convection with soil moisture distribution: an idealized simulation. J. Geophys. Res. Atmos. 103, 8873–8884. (doi:10.1029/98JD00426)

Freedman, J. M., Fitzjarrald, D. R., Moore, K. E. & Sakai, R. K. T. 2001 Boundary layer clouds and vegetation-atmosphere feedbacks. J. Clim. 14, 180–197. (doi:10.1175/1520-0442(2001)013<0180:BLCAVE>2.0.CO;2)

Gedney, N., Cox, P. M., Betts, R. A., Boucher, O., Huntingford, C. & Stott, P. A. 2006 Detection of a direct carbon dioxide effect in continental river runoff records. Nature 439, 835–838. (doi:10.1038/nature04504)

Gordon, C., Cooper, C., Senior, C. A., Banks, H., Gregory, J. M., Johns, T. C., Mitchell, J. F. B. & Wood, R. A. 2000 The simulation of SST, sea ice extents and ocean heat transports in a version of the Hadley Centre coupled model without flux adjustments. Clim. Dyn. 16, 147–168. (doi:10.1007/s003820050010)

Grist, J. P., Josey, S. A. & Sinha, B. 2007 Impact on the ocean of extreme Greenland Sea heat loss in the HadCM3 coupled ocean–atmosphere model. J. Geophys. Res. Oceans 112, C04014. (doi:10.1029/2006JC003629)

Hahn, C. J. & Warren, S. G. 2002 Cloud climatology for land stations worldwide, 1971–1996. Numeric data package NDP-026D. Oak Ridge, TN: Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center (CDIAC), Department of Energy.

Henderson-Sellers, A. 2006 Improving land–surface parameterization schemes using stable water isotopes: introducing the ‘PIILPS’ initiative. Glob. Planet. Change 51, 3–24. (doi:10.1016/j.gloplacha.2005.12.009)

Jones, C., McConnell, C., Coleman, K., Cox, P., Falloon, P., Jenkins, D. & Powlson, D. 2005 Global climate change and soil carbon stocks: predictions from two contrasting models for the turnover of organic carbon in soil. Global Change Biol. 11, 154–166. (doi:10.1111/j.1365-2486.2004.00885.x)

Kleidon, A. & Heinmann, M. 2000 Assessing the role of deep rooted vegetation in the climate system with model simulations: mechanism, comparison to observations and implications for Amazonian deforestation. Clim. Dyn. 16, 183–199. (doi:10.1007/s003820050012)

Küttel, M., Luterbacher, J., Zorita, E., Xoplaki, E., Riedwyl, N. & Wanner, H. 2007 Testing a European winter surface temperature reconstruction in a surrogate climate. Geophys. Res. Lett. 34, L07710. (doi:10.1029/2006GL027907)

Lachlan-Cope, T. A., Connolley, W. M. & Turner, J. 2007 Effects of tropical sea surface temperature (SST) errors on the Antarctic atmospheric circulation of HadCM3. Geophys. Res. Lett. 34, L05809. (doi:10.1029/2006GL029067)

Leopoldo, P. R., Franken, W., Salati, E. & Ribeiro, M. N. 1987 Towards a water balance in the Central Amazonian region. Experientia 43, 222–233. (doi:10.1007/BF01945545)

Loesch, H. W., Gholz, H. L., Jacobs, J. M. & Oberbauer, S. F. 2005 Energy dynamics and modeled evapotranspiration from a wet tropical forest in Costa Rica. J. Hydrol. 315, 274–294. (doi:10.1016/j.jhydrol.2005.03.040)

Malhi, Y., Pegoraro, E., Nobre, A. D., Pereira, M. G. P., Grace, J., Culf, A. D. & Clement, R. 2002 Energy and water dynamics of a central Amazonian rain forest. J. Geophys. Res. Atmos. 107, 8061. (doi:10.1029/2001JD000623)

Notaro, M., Vavrus, S. & Liu, Z. 2007 Global vegetation and climate change due to future increases in CO2 as projected by a fully coupled model with dynamic vegetation. J. Climate 20, 70–90. (doi:10.1175/JCLI3989.1)

O’Neal, M. 1996 Interactions between land cover and convective cloud cover over mid-western North America detected from GOES satellite data. Int. J. Remote Sens. 17, 1149–1181. (doi:10.1080/01431169608949075)

Palmer, J. R. & Trotter, J. 1996 Production and export in a global ocean ecosystem model. Deep Sea Res. 43, 1169–1198. (doi:10.1016/S0967-0637(00)00080-7)

Pielke Sr, R. A., Avisar, R., Raupach, M., Dolman, A. J., Zeng, X. & Denning, A. C. 1998 Interactions between the atmosphere and terrestrial ecosystems: influence on weather and climate. Global Change Biol. 4, 461–475. (doi:10.1046/j.1365-2486.1998.001-00176.x)

Pinto, E., Shin, Y., Jones, C. D. & Cowling, S. A. In press. Coupling cloud base height and land surface processes in lowland Amazonia. Clim. Dyn.

Pitman, A. J. & Hesse, P. P. 2007 The significance of large-scale land cover change on the Australian palaeomonsoon. Quat. Sci. Rev. 26, 189–200. (doi:10.1016/j.quascirev.2006.06.014)

Ray, D. K., Nair, U. S., Welch, R. M., Han, Q., Zeng, J., Su, W., Kikuchi, T. & Lyons, T. J. 2003 Effects of land use in Southwest Australia: I. Observations of cumulus cloudiness and energy fluxes. J. Geophys. Res. Atmos. 108, 4414. (doi:10.1029/2002JD002654)

Roberts, J. 2007 The role of plant physiology in hydrology: looking backwards and forwards. Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci. 11, 256–269.

Salmun, H. & Molod, A. 2006 Progress in modeling the impact of land cover change on the global climate. Prog. Phys. Geogr. 30, 737–749. (doi:10.1177/0309133306071956)

Simon, E., Meixner, F. X., Ganzeveld, L. & Kesselmeier, J. 2005 Coupled carbon–water exchange of the Amazon rain forest. I. Model description, parameterization and sensitivity analysis. Biogeosciences 2, 231–253.

Sogalla, M., Kruger, A. & Kerschgens, M. 2006 Mesoscale modelling of interactions between rainfall and the land surface in West Africa. Meteorol. Atmos. Phys. 91, 211–221. (doi:10.1007/s00703-005-0109-z)

Still, C. J., Foster, P. N. & Schneider, S. H. 1999 Simulating the effects of climate change on tropical montane cloud forests. Nature 398, 608–610. (doi:10.1038/19293)

Tonazetto, T. 2006 Properties of El Niño–Southern Oscillation in different equilibrium climates with HadCM3. J. Clim. 19, 4854–4876. (doi:10.1175/JCLI3853.1)