

Theory and the future of land-climate science

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1 **Climate over land—where humans live and the vast majority of food is produced—is chang-**
2 **ing rapidly, driving severe impacts through extreme heat, wildfires, drought, and flooding.**
3 **Our ability to monitor and model this changing climate is being transformed through new**
4 **observational systems and increasingly complex Earth System Models (ESMs). But funda-**
5 **mental understanding of the processes governing land climate has not kept pace, weakening**
6 **our ability to interpret and utilise data from these advanced tools. Here we argue that for**
7 **land-climate science to accelerate forward, a new approach is needed. We advocate for a**
8 **parallel scientific effort, one emphasising robust theories, that aims to inspire current and**
9 **future land-climate scientists to better comprehend the processes governing land climate, its**
10 **variability and extremes, and its sensitivity to global warming. Such an effort, we believe,**
11 **is essential to better understand the risks people face, where they live, in an era of climate**
12 **change.**

13 Knowledge of some aspects of continental climate and their responses to global warming are
14 well established. For example, we broadly understand why land warms more rapidly than oceans¹
15 (Fig. 1), the intensification of extreme precipitation in a warmer atmosphere², and how surface
16 runoff is influenced by loss of snowpack³. However, knowledge of many other aspects of land
17 climate is underdeveloped. The “wet get wetter, dry get drier” paradigm predicts an amplification
18 of wet/dry contrasts as climate warms^{4,5}. But this paradigm does not generally apply to land
19 regions⁶ nor does the poleward expansion of the Hadley cells⁷. Adding to this list is uncertainty
20 over how evapotranspiration (ET) and soil moisture^{8,9}—both critical for humans and ecosystems—
21 will be altered by a changing climate. Knowledge of numerous other facets of land climate is

22 similarly unsettled, from basic questions of what governs its mean state, variability, and extremes,
23 to how these facets might change with warming. Why are simulated land temperature changes
24 more uncertain and more diverse, across space and climate models, compared to ocean regions
25 (Fig. 1a,b)? Why are the tropical rainbelts broader and more mobile over land¹⁰? And how
26 will land humidity evolve as climate warms^{11,12}? Longstanding challenges in simulating land
27 climate—including the diurnal cycle of convection¹³—further highlight shortcomings in our basic
28 understanding.

29 **The challenge of complexity**

30 The climate over land is a complex system shaped by an array of diverse factors, from local surface
31 conditions including soil moisture and plants^{14,15} to large-scale atmospheric circulations that con-
32 nect continents to oceans through the transport of water, heat, and momentum^{16–18}. Many of the key
33 processes influencing land climate are spatially heterogeneous, difficult to simulate, and/or poorly
34 observed. For example, land surface models have longstanding problems in simulating turbulent
35 fluxes of heat and water^{19,20}, for reasons that are not well understood²¹. Sparse and time-limited
36 observational records of important land-climate variables, including root-zone soil moisture²² and
37 near-surface humidity²³, further impede efforts to advance knowledge of the land-climate system.
38 The role of humanity presents another challenge, with large uncertainties in modelling the influ-
39 ences of land use and management on fluxes of carbon, energy, and water in the past, present, and
40 future²⁴. Confronted with such a complex system it can appear a daunting task to develop a deep,
41 mechanistic, conceptual understanding of the kind we would want to read in future textbooks on

42 land climate. But as the field of climate science evolves, we argue that many of the most fascinating
43 and pressing questions relate to land²⁵.

44 Given the complexity and importance of land climate, how can the research community ac-
45 celerate progress? In the atmospheric and ocean sciences, notable advances are being made by in-
46 creasing the spatial resolution of state-of-the-art ESMs²⁶. But unlike in the atmosphere and oceans,
47 where higher resolutions allow for explicit simulation of key processes including deep convection
48 and mesoscale eddies, the case for transitioning to finer resolution models to drive new conceptual
49 breakthroughs in land-climate science is less clear-cut²⁷. Land climate is undoubtedly influenced
50 by small-scale processes, so there are potential benefits to incorporating into models more sophis-
51 ticated representations of, for example, hillslope hydrology²⁸, groundwater processes²⁹, and land
52 management³⁰. However, absent a comprehensive understanding of these processes and how to
53 accurately represent them in models^{31,32}, it is possible that such complexity obfuscates more than
54 it clarifies¹⁹. Persistent and poorly constrained deficiencies in land surface models—highlighted by
55 the PLUMBER project^{19–21}—suggest that model development alone, though necessary, is unlikely
56 to answer the key questions about land climate highlighted above. Similarly, machine learning
57 tools are increasingly being applied to climate science for developing ESMs³³, parameterising
58 surface fluxes³⁴, and constructing statistical emulators of land models³⁵. Indeed recent successes
59 highlight the potential of machine learning to build physical insight in the atmospheric and ocean
60 sciences^{36,37}. But it remains to be seen whether the tools of machine learning are capable of trans-
61 forming scientific understanding of land climate³⁸.

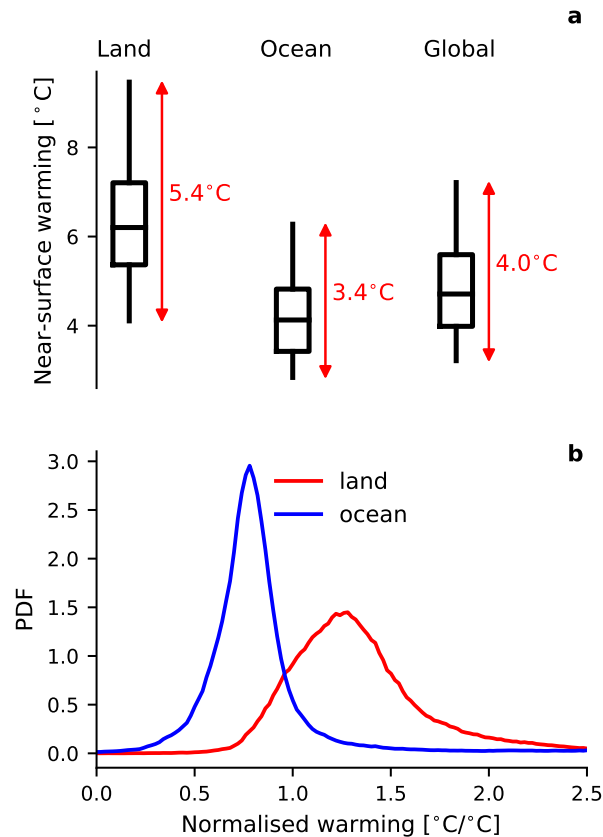


Figure 1: **Simulated climate warming is larger and more uncertain over land.** (a) Boxplots of simulated warming averaged over land (left), ocean (centre), and globally (right) calculated using pre-industrial control and abrupt 4xCO₂ simulations performed by 45 climate models participating in the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6³⁹. Horizontal lines show the median model values, boxes show the interquartile ranges, and whiskers show the full model ranges. Warming for each model is computed as the time- and area-averaged near-surface temperature change between the final 20 years of the pre-industrial control simulation and years 40-59 of the abrupt 4xCO₂ simulation. Uncertainty across models is indicated by the red arrows and text, with the full model range taken as a simple measure of uncertainty. (b) Multimodel-mean probability density functions (PDFs) of area-weighted near-surface warming over land (red) and ocean (blue), normalised by the global-mean warming in each model. The same⁶ models, simulations, and averaging periods are used as in panel (a). The wider land PDF in panel (b) suggests larger differences in near-surface warming, across space and models, relative to oceans.

62 **A renewed focus on theory**

63 Here we argue that for land-climate science to move forward, we must step back and reassess our
64 approach. Our philosophy—borne in an era of explosive growth in model complexity and demand-
65 ing simulation timetables, and shaped by a 2022 workshop at the University of St Andrews—is to
66 redouble efforts to build robust physical understanding of land climate through the development of
67 powerful new theories and refinement of existing conceptual frameworks. Previous work exempli-
68 fies this approach, notably the development of theories and simple ‘toy’ models to understand the
69 land boundary layer^{40,41}, land-atmosphere coupling^{42,43}, and moist convection over land^{44,45}. To
70 anchor and inspire the next decade of research, we argue that now is the time to position this phi-
71 losophy at the centre of land-climate science and re-balance our activities such that theory, model
72 development, and observations are prioritised equally.

73 Development of theory can, and should, proceed in parallel with the imperative to build
74 progressively more sophisticated ESMs. Indeed the gap in climate science between theory and
75 actionable information, particularly at regional scales, is typically filled by state-of-the-art mod-
76 els, which are also invaluable tools for testing and refining the theories advocated for here. But
77 theories that distill conceptual understanding need to be at the core of land-climate science, to en-
78 able the research community to compare proposed mechanisms, understand the competing roles of
79 different processes in a coupled system, and make predictions without running complex models.
80 Advances in theory can have practical as well as conceptual benefits, for example making ET easier
81 to estimate⁴⁶, increasing confidence in model projections (for example of runoff⁴⁷), and underpin-

82 ning physically-based emergent constraints to narrow uncertainties in future climate change⁴⁸.

83 So, what constitutes a successful theory in land-climate science? The answer depends on
84 the problem being considered, but we believe a successful theory should: explain an emergent
85 property of the climate system; be underpinned by robust process understanding; and provide
86 clear mechanistic insights that hold across a hierarchy of numerical model complexity. Theories
87 should also, where possible, be predictive and quantitative (i.e., formulated as an equation or set
88 of equations). Finally, and crucially, a successful theory should be tested against and supported by
89 observational data. Below we highlight three recent advances in land-climate science that showcase
90 the power of theory, before outlining our view on how a renewed focus on theory is needed to
91 accelerate progress in land-climate science:

92 **1. Land temperature and humidity changes constrained by tropical atmospheric dynam-**

93 **ics:** The role of convection and large-scale atmospheric dynamics in shaping tropical land
94 temperature and humidity has been an important conceptual advance over recent decades^{1,49-51}.

95 This framework emerged from efforts to understand why, under climate change, warming is
96 stronger over land; the so-called land-ocean warming contrast⁴⁹. Early explanations of this
97 phenomenon were based on the surface energy budget⁵². Radiative forcing at the surface
98 (e.g., due to increases in atmospheric CO₂) are largely balanced in ocean regions by in-
99 creases in evaporation, resulting in a relatively small increase in surface temperature. In
100 land regions, however, which are often water-limited, radiative forcing is primarily balanced
101 through increases in sensible heat and longwave fluxes, requiring a larger increase in sur-

102 face temperature relative to oceans. Though physically intuitive, using this argument to
103 construct a quantitative theory for land temperature change is challenging because surface
104 fluxes depend on multiple factors aside from temperature, including windspeed, soil mois-
105 ture, vegetation, and the air-surface temperature and humidity disequilibriums. To build a
106 theory for land temperature change based on the surface energy budget, multiple additional
107 theories for how the other factors (e.g., soil moisture) respond to climate change would also
108 be needed.

109 An alternative framework, inspired by Joshi et al¹, cuts through the complexity of land sur-
110 faces to reveal a strong constraint on the bulk response of tropical land to climate change.
111 Not only has this framework transformed understanding of the tropical land-ocean warm-
112 ing contrast, it has also led to broader insights into large-scale atmospheric controls on
113 near-surface temperature and humidity. In the tropical atmosphere, strong vertical coupling
114 by convection between the boundary layer and free troposphere described by convective
115 quasi-equilibrium⁵³—together with horizontal coupling by gravity waves above the bound-
116 ary layer, resulting in weak free-tropospheric temperature gradients⁵⁴—imply that climatic
117 changes in adiabatically conserved quantities such as moist static energy, a function of tem-
118 perature and specific humidity near the surface, are tightly coupled between different regions
119 and therefore approximately uniform on large scales^{55–57} (Fig. 2). This mechanism, a form
120 of ‘downward control’ exerted by the overlying atmosphere on near-surface tropical climate,
121 has important implications: Though temperature and specific humidity individually may re-
122 spond differently to climate change in different regions, for example in tropical savannas

123 versus in rainforests, the combined change (encoded in the near-surface moist static energy)
124 is more spatially homogeneous. Local processes, including soil moisture and aridity^{56,58}, are
125 crucial for controlling how temperature versus humidity changes contribute to the change in
126 moist static energy imposed by the atmosphere. This physical theory—developed using a
127 hierarchy of numerical models and observational data—underpins advances in understand-
128 ing the land-ocean warming contrast^{1,59,60}, aridity and land relative humidity in a changing
129 climate^{50,56,61}, and extreme heat^{57,62–64}, and establishes a simple yet quantitative framework
130 for interpreting models, observations, and the roles of local versus large-scale processes in
131 shaping tropical land climate.

132 **2. Evapotranspiration predicted by simple theory:** ET is central to regulating the water, en-
133 ergy, and carbon budgets of land regions⁶⁵, and affects societies and ecosystems through its
134 influence on hydrology and temperature variability⁶⁶. But ET is directly measured only at a
135 limited number of sites⁶⁷, necessitating models of various kinds to estimate ET elsewhere.
136 These models are typically complex, requiring numerous poorly constrained land-surface
137 parameters as inputs, and are imperfect at replicating direct measurements⁶⁸. However, a
138 new theory to predict present-day ET in inland continental regions using minimal input data
139 provides a conceptual advance in understanding and presents an opportunity to greatly ex-
140 pand the database of ET measurements across space and time⁴⁶. The theory is based on the
141 concept of ‘surface flux equilibrium’ (SFE), which assumes an approximate balance between
142 the surface moistening and heating effects on near-surface relative humidity⁶⁹. This strong
143 coupling between the land surface and overlying atmosphere imprints, in the air properties,

144 information about the land-surface fluxes (i.e., the Bowen ratio) at daily to longer timescales,
145 and appears to dominate alternative atmospheric mechanisms that also contribute to deter-
146 mining the near-surface atmospheric state (e.g., wind-driven moisture and heat convergence).
147 Specifically, the SFE theory permits relatively accurate estimates of ET knowing only the net
148 radiative flux into the surface and the near-surface temperature and specific humidity^{46,70},
149 the latter two which reflect the Bowen ratio (Fig. 3). Importantly, these quantities are more
150 widely available from weather stations than direct ET measurements. The theory reveals an
151 emergent simplicity in ET⁴⁶, despite the heterogeneity and complexity of land surfaces.

152 **3. Leaf physiology incorporated into classical runoff theories:** Runoff from land supplies
153 almost all the water used by humans. In contrast to the time-varying ET estimated by SFE
154 and described above, long-term mean runoff and ET fluxes have long been predicted and
155 understood using the simple theory of Budyko⁷¹, in which the fraction of precipitation that
156 becomes runoff decreases as the ratio of atmospheric evaporative demand to precipitation
157 increases. Budyko quantified evaporative demand using surface net radiation only, but more
158 comprehensive evaporative theories⁷² generally also include a well-understood positive tem-
159 perature dependence⁷³. When these more modern methods are used in the Budyko theory,
160 they predict substantial increases in evaporative demand with global warming and systematic
161 decreases in natural runoff⁷⁴ (i.e., the component of runoff controlled by natural processes
162 rather than by human activities), which would imply water shortages. Yet such widespread
163 runoff declines are neither observed⁷⁵ nor simulated by more comprehensive models⁷⁴, lead-
164 ing to the impression of a theoretical deficiency. Yang et al⁷⁶ recently resolved this tension

165 by incorporating the ET-reducing closure of leaf stomata by CO₂ into a revised theoretic-
166 cal framework (Fig. 4). The inclusion of this important and well-studied process brought
167 the Budyko-predicted trends in natural runoff much closer to observations and state-of-the-
168 art ESMS, and clarified our understanding of the drivers of runoff in a changing climate.
169 Looking forward, incorporating human activities (e.g., water management) and the effects
170 of wildfire⁷⁷ into runoff theories is a priority for future work.

171 **Opportunities for progress**

172 A greater emphasis on developing theories for land climate and its changes is essential for building
173 confidence in future projections, identifying directions for model improvement⁷⁸, validating *in*
174 *situ* and remote sensing data, and interpreting the dynamics of key processes as new models and
175 observational systems come online. The examples highlighted above demonstrate the potential for
176 theory to further fundamental understanding of land climate. But the next set of advances is now
177 needed. Below we present three areas of land-climate science primed for theory to provide new
178 insights:

179 **1. Atmospheric circulation and land:** The atmospheric circulation strongly shapes the land
180 climate, from extreme temperatures⁷⁹ to the regional water cycle⁸⁰. However, much of our
181 understanding of the atmospheric circulation and its sensitivity to climate change has been
182 developed using aquaplanet models without land surfaces^{81,82}. Over recent years, focus has
183 begun to shift towards incorporating land into conceptual frameworks for the atmospheric

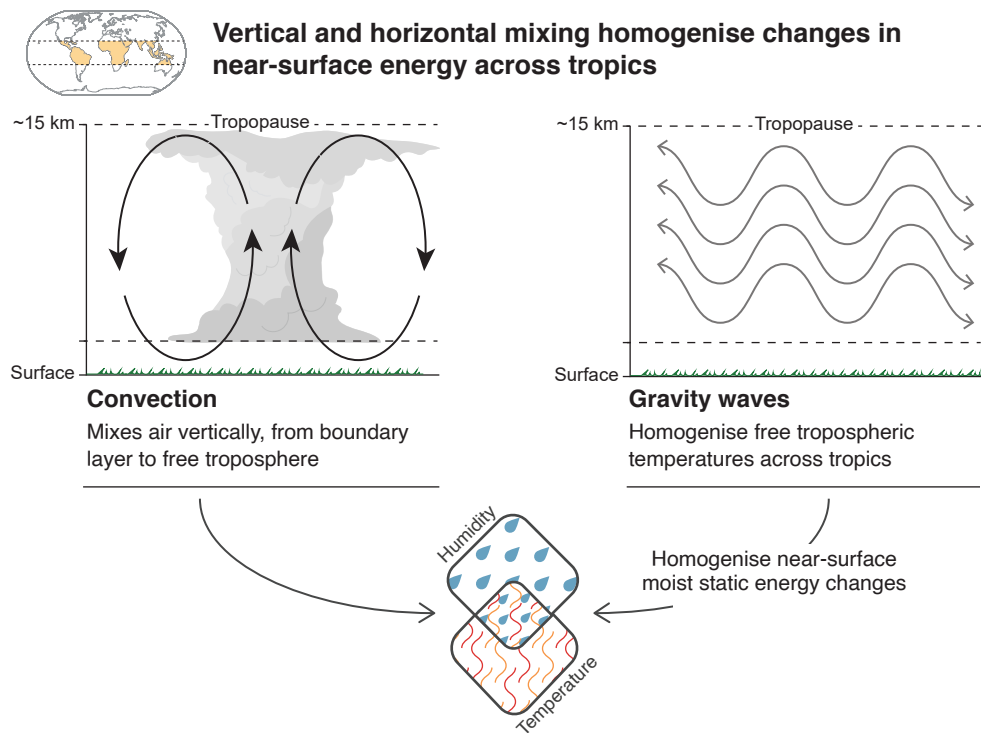


Figure 2: Schematic illustrating how convection and gravity waves in the tropical atmosphere spatially homogenise climatic changes in near-surface moist static energy. The development of this large-scale atmospheric constraint on tropical land climate has been an important conceptual advance over recent years. Here and in Figures 3 and 4, the title maps highlight where the mechanism is broadly expected to be applicable.

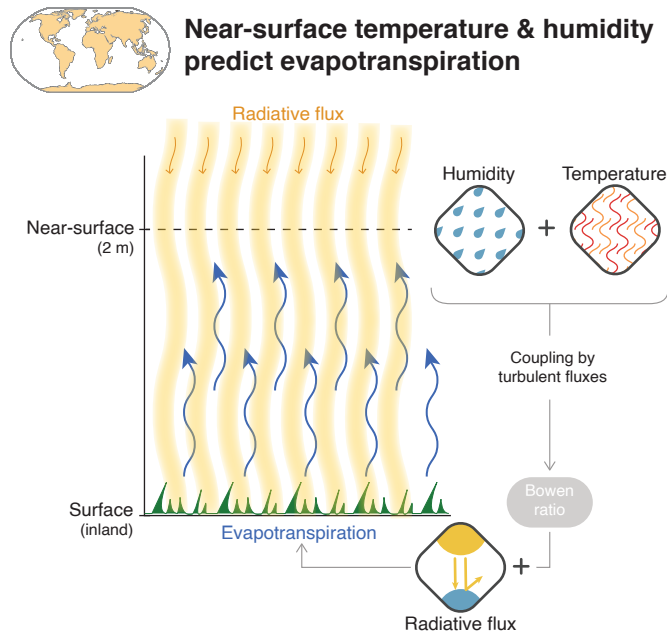


Figure 3: Schematic highlighting how, following recent theoretical developments, inland ET can be predicted as a simple function of near-surface temperature and humidity along with the net radiative flux into the surface. Note that the grey arrows represent the series of inferences used by the SFE-based theory to make estimates of ET^{46} , whereas the blue and orange arrows denote, respectively, the turbulent fluxes of heat and water coupling the surface to the near-surface air and the radiative energy fluxes.

 **As CO₂ rises, plants limit evapotranspiration and boost river runoff**

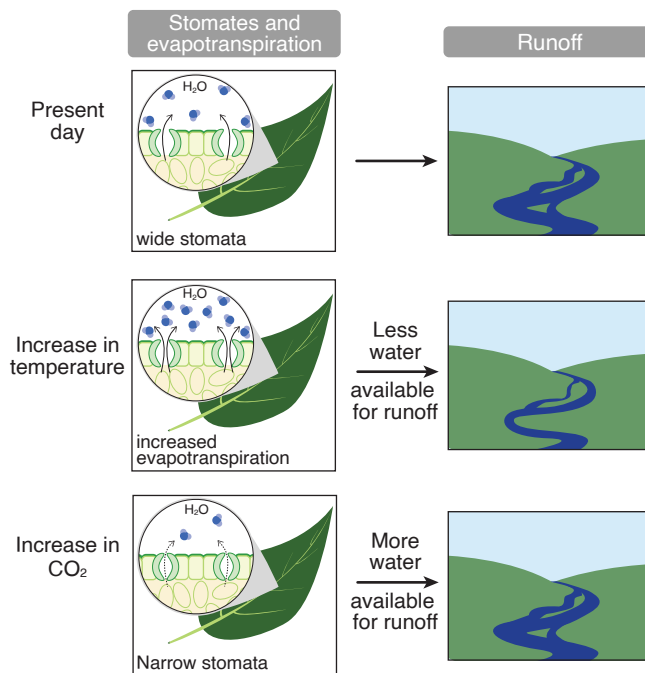


Figure 4: Schematic depicting the competing effects of temperature versus CO₂ on ET from leaves and on river runoff. The recent incorporation of the CO₂ effect into classical theories has clarified understanding of runoff in a changing climate.

184 state and circulation^{83–85}. But numerous basic questions persist, including: Why is the tropi-
185 cal rainbelt wider over continents¹⁰? How can ingredients of the land surface be incorporated
186 into modern theories for monsoons⁸⁶? Why is the poleward expansion of the atmospheric
187 circulation under global warming much weaker over land⁷? How will blocks, often the cause
188 of extreme weather over land, change with warming⁸⁷? And what processes control updraft
189 velocities—and hence influence extreme precipitation—over land²? These important ques-
190 tions are ready to be tackled with novel theories.

191 **2. Water and land:** Beyond a broad tendency for mean relative humidity over land to decrease
192 with warming^{50,61,88}, basic properties of the land water cycle and its response to climate
193 change remain unexplained. For example, what are the mechanisms determining the spatial
194 and temporal distribution of soil moisture in the current climate^{89,90}? Why do climate mod-
195 els project drier surface soils in most regions⁹? And why do future trajectories for surface
196 and column soil moisture differ⁹¹? Detailed understanding of near-surface humidity over
197 land is another priority^{11,12}, given the strong coupling to trends in extreme temperatures^{64,92},
198 extreme precipitation⁹³, and runoff⁹⁴. The coupling between plants and water has major
199 implications for drought and terrestrial ecosystems, yet its response to climate change is
200 highly uncertain⁹⁵. For example, the effects of plant changes on runoff beyond the simple
201 CO₂-stomatal dependence⁷⁶ are likely very large⁹⁶ but poorly understood. Finally the phe-
202 nomenon of ‘flash droughts’, whose dynamics and predictability are only beginning to be
203 explored⁹⁷, is an emerging topic where creative new theories are needed.

204 **3. Carbon and land:** Carbon uptake and release by terrestrial ecosystems both affects and re-

205 sponds to climate variability and long-term change. The field of carbon-water-climate feed-
206 backs is already rich with examples of simple concepts, theories, and emergent constraints^{98–100},
207 providing a way to synthesise or contrast the behaviours emerging from complex ESMs¹⁰¹.
208 The carbon-concentration and carbon-climate feedback parameters, for example, encapsu-
209 late the overall response of land carbon stocks to changes in atmospheric CO₂ and to global
210 warming, respectively¹⁰². This global-scale conceptual framework can be used to diagnose
211 and compare complex simulations¹⁰³, but is also transferable to climate emulators or models
212 of reduced complexity¹⁰⁴. However, similarly simple and adaptable concepts are lacking in
213 other areas of carbon cycle research. There is, for instance, large uncertainty on the extent to
214 which tipping points at regional scales could impact some of the world’s largest carbon pools,
215 like permafrost carbon, the Amazon rainforest ecosystem, and global forests^{105–109}. To some
216 extent this is because we lack theories, metrics, and frameworks to explain and reconcile the
217 contradicting results obtained from different models and approaches. However, the existing
218 literature on dynamical systems theory is rich with concepts that may be transferable to un-
219 derstand potential tipping points in the carbon cycle if they can be adequately constrained by
220 observations, similar to what has been done to study transitions between stable system states
221 or attractors in ecology and population dynamics^{110,111}.

222 **Outlook**

223 To discover, test, and refine the powerful theories for land climate advocated for in this perspective,
224 and to maximise benefits for the wider climate community, technical tools and scientific talent are

225 needed. On the tools side, we have at our disposal a range of models spanning idealised^{112,113} to
226 state-of-the-art ESMs³⁹, alongside the emerging generation of ‘global storm resolving’ models²⁶
227 and flexible, process-based hydrologic models¹¹⁴. This model hierarchy is well positioned for
228 building new understanding of land climate, and initiatives like ESMvalTool¹¹⁵ are enabling more
229 straightforward benchmarking of new theories against ESMs. However, a lack of observations
230 presents a major challenge¹¹⁶: Despite recent progress, for example in remote sensing of surface
231 soil moisture¹¹⁷, we simply do not have long-term datasets with wide spatial coverage for many
232 important land-climate quantities, including root-zone soil moisture and ET. Thus, to parallel the
233 development of models and efforts to construct theories for land climate, new instrumental ob-
234 servations of essential land surface fluxes and reservoirs are required. Opportunities to further
235 leverage existing observational datasets, with the goal of improving models and testing theories,
236 should also be exploited. Beyond observational uncertainty, whenever we ground new theory in
237 observations we also have to contend with the complicating influence of internal climate variabil-
238 ity. Separating the forced response from internal variability at regional scales is still challenging
239 and can harbour surprises that can influence our theories¹¹⁸. Empirical-statistical methods to iso-
240 late the forced response, and new theory on internal variability itself, will thus need to accompany
241 our endeavour to refine understanding of land climate and its changes with warming.

242 On the talent side, to tackle the important questions in land-climate science we need to con-
243 tinually inspire, recruit, and resource diverse cohorts of researchers from a range of primary disci-
244 plines spanning hydrology, ecology, atmospheric science, physics, mathematics, computer science,
245 and beyond. Engaging scientists from the broader climate community—those working primar-

246 ily on atmospheric dynamics, for example—also has the potential to bring new ideas and drive
247 progress in land-climate science. Through this perspective, alongside a series of workshops and
248 summer schools we aim to coordinate over coming years, our goal is to engage these current and
249 future generations of researchers—as well as major funding bodies and established land-focused
250 initiatives (e.g., iLEAPS and the GEWEX GLASS Panel)—in our vision to place theory at the core
251 of land-climate science.

252 State-of-the-art models, observational systems, and machine learning are transforming our
253 ability to simulate, monitor, and emulate many aspects of land climate. But our scientific under-
254 standing has not kept pace, and we now lack robust theories to comprehend the rich complexity
255 being revealed by these advanced tools. Now is the time to change course and underpin models,
256 observations, and machine-learning techniques with new theories so that we maintain and advance
257 the deep, mechanistic understanding of land climate needed to meet the challenges of an uncertain
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546 **Data Availability** The model data used to produce Figure 1 are provided by the World Climate Research
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548 **Code Availability** The code used to produce Figure 1 is available from the corresponding author on re-
549 quest.