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1 Coupling of ecosystem-scale plant water storage and foliar phenology observed by satellite

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17 Introductory paragraph

18 Plant water storage is fundamental to the functioning of terrestrial ecosystems by participating in plant metabolism, nutrient and carbohydrates transport, and maintenance of the plant hydraulic system's integrity. However, global 19 observations of the size and dynamics of the water pools stored in plant tissues do not exist. Here we reveal the 20 global patterns of seasonal variations in ecosystem-scale plant water storage and their relationship with foliar 21 22 phenology, based on the novel space-borne measurements of L-band vegetation optical depth (L-VOD). We find 23 that seasonal variation in plant water storage is highly synchronous with foliar phenology for the boreal and temperate forests, but asynchronous with a time lag of up to 180 days for the tropical dry woodlands. Contrasting 24 25 patterns of the time lag between plant water storage and terrestrial groundwater storage anomaly are also presented amongst these ecosystems. Comparison of the water-cycle components in seasonally-dry tropical woodlands 26 suggests a buffering effect of plant water storage on the seasonal dynamics of water supply and demand. Our 27 28 results offer new insights into ecosystem-scale plant water relations globally and provide a basis for an improved parameterization of process-based eco-hydrological and earth system modelling. 29

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Water stored in plant tissues participates in the physiological and biochemical processes (e.g. metabolism 31 and nutrient/sugar transport) and sustains the integrity of the plant hydraulic system through buffering the 32 imbalance between transpirational water loss and root-soil water uptake^{1,2}. Water movement in plants is a passive 33 34 process, following a gradient of water potential (from higher to lower) generated by transpirational demand (regulated by stomata)³ and different solute concentrations between cells (osmosis)⁴. In response to changes in 35 36 environmental conditions and metabolic activities, plant water storage varies from diurnal to seasonal timescales 37 as a function of plant structure and hydraulic strategies⁵⁻⁷. Studies on the dynamics of plant water storage typically 38 use measurements of sap flow hysteresis and leaf water potential on individual trees over relatively limited periods⁷⁻¹⁰. Scaling up tree-level data to the ecosystem scale is challenging due to the high spatial heterogeneity of 39 40 plant composition and soil properties, thus precluding large-scale (continental or global) estimates of the dynamics of plant water storage. 41

42 Satellite passive microwave radiometers sense the natural earth surface thermal emission at wavelengths of 0.1-30cm from both the soil and vegetation layers, quantified as brightness temperature. The vegetation layer is semi-43 44 transparent, attenuating the microwave radiations passing through and creating a vegetation optical depth (VOD) proportionally linked to the vegetation water content $(kg/m^{-2})^{11,12}$. The higher the microwave frequency, the 45 stronger the vegetation attenuation effect. The low frequency L-band (1.4 GHz) VOD (L-VOD) can detect changes 46 in plant water storage even for dense forest canopies¹³⁻¹⁵, where the woody tissues of stems and branches hold the 47 majority of the plant water¹⁶. This detection was not possible from VOD products at higher frequencies (>6 GHz), 48 because their signals were dominated by the water status of canopy leaves^{13,14,17-19}. Satellite-based VOD retrievals 49 50 from X-band (10.7 GHz) observations over day-time and night-time have recently been used to map ecosystemscale anisohydricity, an indicator of stomatal and xylem regulation^{20,21}. Since 2010, the first satellite-based L-band 51 52 radiometer carried by the Soil Moisture and Ocean Salinity (SMOS) mission²² further enables global scale 53 monitoring of the dynamics in forest plant capacitive water storage, which is another key functional trait in 54 ecohydrological processes.

Here, we used the SMOS L-VOD product^{23,24} as a proxy for time and space variations in ecosystem-scale plant water storage and examined its seasonal dynamics globally over the period 2011-2016. Since leaf area scales the 57 transpirational flux and photosynthetic productivity, we also examined the coupling between seasonal variations

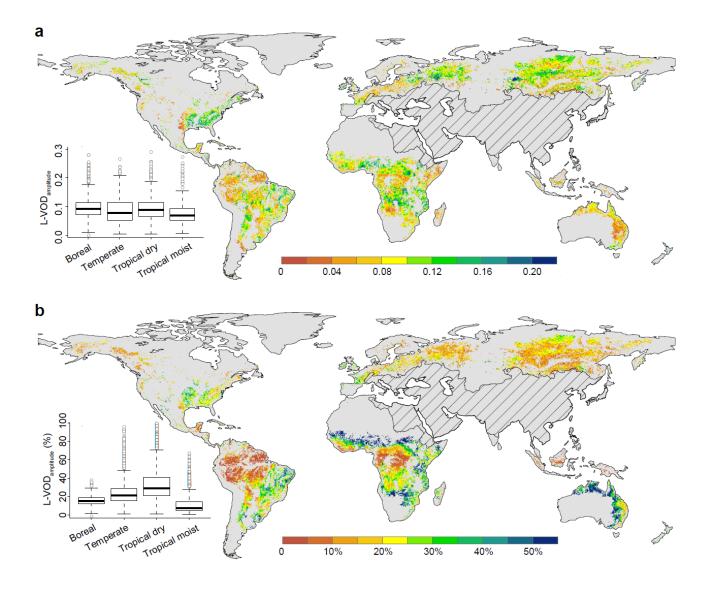
in L-VOD and foliar phenology (defined as the seasonality of satellite observed Leaf Area Index; LAI).

59 **Results and discussion**

60 Seasonal amplitude of L-VOD

We analysed the seasonal dynamics of ecosystem-scale plant water storage by concatenating six-year 61 62 (2011-2016) SMOS L-VOD data into a mean yearly daily time series at a spatial resolution of 0.25° (Methods; Extended Data Fig. 1). Large land regions had substantial data gaps due to the influence of radio frequency 63 interference (RFI) on the SMOS signal²⁵ (mainly in Asia; Extended Data Fig. 2), open water bodies, and lack of 64 data retrievals from frozen soil in the northern latitudes during the cold season. We therefore restricted our analysis 65 to pixels with continuous L-VOD data over 120 days and focused on four regions representing various biomes of 66 contrasting ecosystem functioning: boreal, temperate, tropical dry, and tropical moist, based on a map of terrestrial 67 ecoregions²⁶ (Extended Data Fig. 3). To ensure a high accuracy of the L-VOD seasonal patterns, we excluded 68 areas with sparse vegetation cover where the tree cover fraction is below 5%²⁷ (Extended Data Fig. 4) and areas 69 that were seasonally inundated²⁸, i.e. >5% area covered by flooding within an L-VOD pixel (Extended Data Fig. 70 71 5).

Globally, the annual maximum L-VOD was highly correlated with the distribution of tree cover fraction and tree height (Extended Data Fig. 6)^{29,30}. The absolute peak-to-peak seasonal amplitude of the mean L-VOD time series was similar (within 0.3 L-VOD units) amongst the four regions (Fig. 1a), even though plant productivity in these regions is limited by different climatic variables (e.g. temperature, water and radiation) and by different nutrient availability. The L-VOD seasonal amplitude *relative* to the annual maxima, however, differed significantly amongst regions (Fig. 1b), and were largest in the tropical dry region (>30% on average) and smallest in the tropical moist region (<10% on average), with temperate and boreal regions having intermediate values.



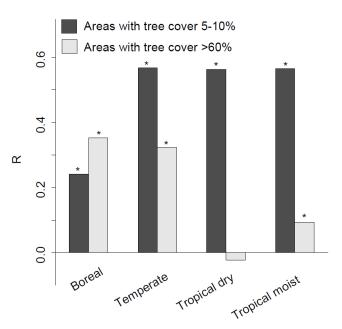
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Figure 1: Seasonal amplitude of L-VOD. a, Absolute seasonal amplitude of L-VOD. b, Relative seasonal amplitude of LVOD normalized by the annual maxima. The inserted whisker plots are calculated for unfiltered pixels in four regions, i.e.
boreal (n = 12 880), temperate (n = 6 775), tropical dry (n = 14152), and tropical moist (n = 7 737). Areas with substantial
data gaps, seasonal inundation, or eco-regions not considered in this study were filtered out and are shown in grey (see
Extended Data Figures 2-5). Areas influenced by RFI are marked with hatching.

85 Seasonal coupling of L-VOD and LAI

Water stored in plant tissues and its seasonal dynamics differ substantially across vegetation lifeforms (e.g. woody vs. herbaceous plants). Herbaceous plants are usually annuals, so the seasonal amplitude of herbaceous water storage is determined primarily by the amount of foliage in the growing season. In contrast, trees store the majority of their water in woody tissues, with water-holding capacities varying amongst functioning tissues^{16,31}. Also,

determining the dynamics of water storage is more complex for woody than herbaceous plants, because trees may 90 access deep soil water and have more sophisticated hydraulic strategies³²⁻³⁴. We examined the spatial relationships 91 between the absolute seasonal amplitudes of L-VOD and LAI in each of the four regions. As expected, linear 92 93 correlations between the two signals were higher in areas with limited tree cover (5-10%) ($R \approx 0.56$, P < 0.05; Fig. 94 2), except in the boreal region (R = 0.24, P < 0.05) where data gaps in winter may cause a partial loss of information 95 in the transitional period between winter and spring/fall. The seasonal amplitudes of L-VOD, however, were 96 positively correlated with LAI across space for areas with high tree cover (>60%) in the boreal (R = 0.35, P < 0.05) 97 and temperate (R = 0.32, P < 0.05) regions, but the relationship was much lower in the tropical moist (R = 0.09, P 98 < 0.05) region and not significant (R = -0.02, P > 0.05) in the tropical dry region. These findings suggest a lower 99 influence of foliar fluctuations on the seasonal amplitude of plant water storage in tropical than boreal or temperate 100 forests.



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Figure 2: Relationship between seasonal amplitude of L-VOD and LAI. The Pearson correlation coefficients (R) for areas with tree covers of 5-10% and >60% within the four regions: boreal (n = 699 and 4 193, respectively), temperate (n = 1 010 and 1 236, respectively), tropical dry (n = 1 804 and 1 704, respectively), and tropical moist (n = 237 and 5 493, respectively). Significant correlations (P < 0.05) are labelled with asterisks. The scatterplots for each comparison are shown in Extended Data Fig. 7.

We then examined the seasonal synchronicity of plant water storage and foliar phenology by calculating the time 107 lag that characterizes the maximum Spearman rank correlation coefficient between L-VOD and LAI time series 108 (for pixels with a clear seasonality in both indices; see Methods). The seasonal variations in L-VOD were highly 109 110 synchronous with LAI in boreal and temperate regions (R > 0.9, P < 0.05), with time lags ranging from -30 to +60 111 days (Fig. 3a; positive values represent L-VOD peaks succeeding LAI). In contrast, the relationship was clearly asynchronous in tropical woodlands (e.g. the woodlands around rainforests in the Congo basin), with time lags up 112 to 180 days (Fig. 3a). This time lag was found to follow a gradient in L-VOD and tree cover in two African 113 114 savannah and woodland regions (regions i and ii in Fig. 3a, b), but not in two other contrasted regions with wet 115 summer in southeastern USA (region iii in Fig. 3a, b) and dry summer in central Siberia (iv in Fig. 3a, b), 116 respectively. This suggests different strategies of the coupling between plant water storage and leaf phenology of 117 certain tree species in the dry tropical woodlands as compared to temperate and boreal forests.

118 The average seasonality of L-VOD and LAI are shown in Fig. 3c for pixels with equivalent tree cover fractions (60-65%) from each selected region. The long L-VOD/LAI time lags in tropical woodlands caused an almost 119 120 reversed seasonal pattern between the two signals (Fig. 3c-i, -ii). We further included the seasonality of a highfrequency X-band VOD (X-VOD)³⁵, which is more related to the water content of the upper canopy since X-band 121 microwaves penetrate less than L-band microwaves. The seasonal curves of X-VOD were between L-VOD and 122 LAI (Fig. 3c), indicating a high consistency amongst the independent satellite observations. Moreover, we 123 performed a series of sensitivity analyses on the algorithm used to retrieve L-VOD to verify the robustness of the 124 observed seasonal patterns in the tropical dry region (Fig. 3a-i; see Methods and Extended Data Figs. 8-10). 125

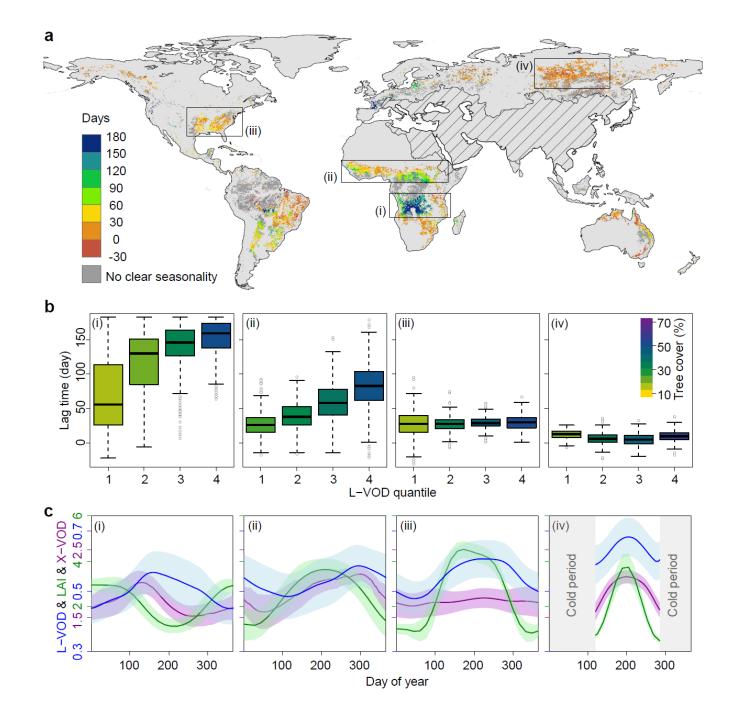
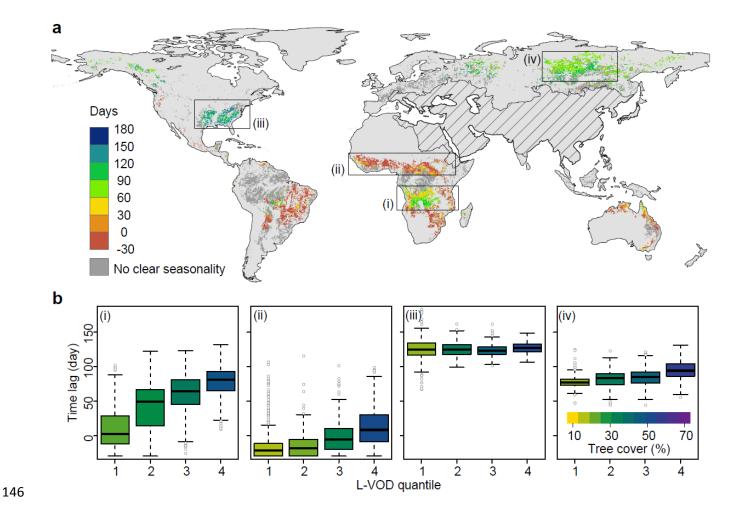




Figure 3: Temporal coupling between L-VOD and LAI seasonality. a, Lag time for L-VOD to obtain the highest correlation with LAI for pixels with a clear seasonality. Areas influenced by RFI are marked with hatching. b, Spatial relationships between L-VOD/LAI lag time, annual maximum L-VOD, and tree cover fraction for the four selected areas indicated in a by black rectangles. c, Seasonal curves of mean L-VOD, LAI, and X-VOD for the pixels with a tree cover of 60-65% for the four selected areas (n = 152, 79, 124, and 212, respectively). The shaded curves represent the standard deviations. No VOD values were retrieved during winter periods with frozen soils.

133 Seasonal water balance

134 Plants regulate water exchange between sub-soil layers and the atmosphere through soil water uptake and 135 transpiration. We evaluated the role of plant water storage on the seasonal water balance at ecosystem scale by analysing the development of various components of the water cycle, including plant water storage (L-VOD), 136 terrestrial groundwater storage anomaly (TWS), surface soil moisture (SM), rainfall, and estimates of transpiration. 137 The TWS integrates the ground water from the soil surface to deep ground³⁶. Seasonal variations in TWS indicate 138 139 the net balance between soil water replenishment (e.g., by rainfall) and consumption (e.g., by evapotranspiration)³⁷. We calculated the seasonal time lag between L-VOD and TWS as it was done for L-VOD 140 141 and LAI. Large time lags of about 120 and 90 days were obtained in the entire regions of southeastern US and central Siberia, respectively (Fig. 4). By contrast, a time lag varying from 0 to around 90 days was found in the 142 central south African savannah/woodland region (the Miombo region), following the gradient of vegetation density 143 144 (L-VOD and tree cover; Fig. 4) thus suggesting the unique role of certain tree species in the eco-hydrological processes as compare to the herbaceous vegetation. 145



147 Figure 4: Temporal coupling between L-VOD and TWS seasonality. a, Lag time for L-VOD to obtain the highest 148 correlation with TWS for pixels with a clear seasonality. Areas influenced by RFI are marked with hatching. b, Spatial 149 relationships between L-VOD/TWS lag time, annual maximum L-VOD, and tree cover fraction for the four selected areas 150 indicated by black rectangles.

151 To better illustrate the seasonal variation in relevant water cycle components, we studied two sites with a $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ spatial extent (16 L-VOD pixels) in the period 2011-2012 (Fig. 5): one in the US temperate forests (region iii of 152 Figs. 3-4, centred at 33.5°N, 85.5°W) and one in the African Miombo woodlands (region i of Figs. 3-4, centred at 153 11.5°S, 18.5°E). For the US temperate forests, rainfall and SM were relatively homogenous throughout the year, 154 155 whereas TWS exhibited clear seasonal fluctuations. TWS reached the lowest level by the end of growing season, then increased and peaked around the start of growing season, followed by a continuous decrease during the 156 157 growing season (Fig. 5a). Given the equalized water replenishment from rainfall over time, the seasonal 158 fluctuations in TWS are likely attributable to the changes in transpiration. L-VOD was found to highly co-vary with LAI and transpiration rate, which for the forests areas, may be explained by the requirements of abundant
stem water storage to buffer the xylem tension induced by transpiration³⁸.

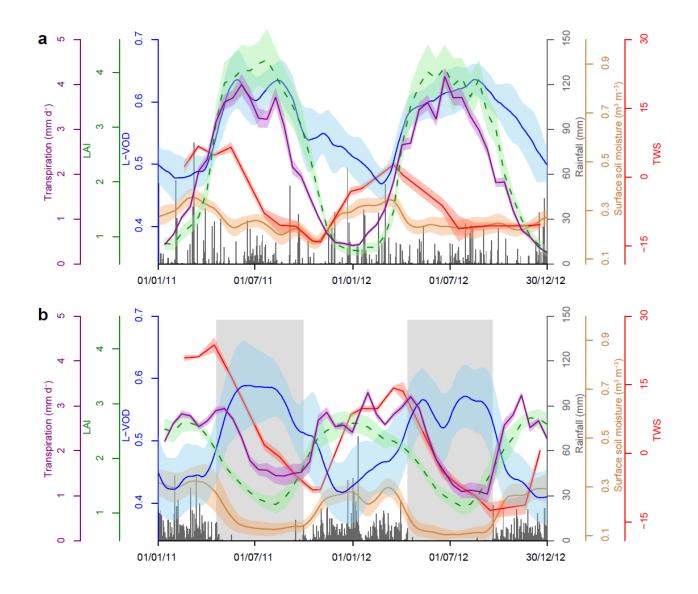


Figure 5: Seasonal water balance in two contrasting ecosystems. The time series (2011-2012) of plant water storage (L-VOD), terrestrial groundwater storage anomaly (TWS), surface soil moisture, rainfall, transpiration, and foliar phenology (LAI) for a $1^{\circ}\times1^{\circ}$ area in the (a) southeastern US temperate forests (centred at $33.5^{\circ}N$, $85.5^{\circ}W$) and (b) African tropical Miombo woodlands (centred at $11.5^{\circ}S$, $18.5^{\circ}E$). The coloured shaded curves represent the standard deviations (n = 16 for all except TWS where n = 3). The grey shaded rectangles in (b) indicate the dry seasons.

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In comparison, the Miombo woodlands have distinct dry and rainy seasons (Fig. 5b). LAI began to increase several
 weeks before the onset of the rainy season, confirming the pre-rain green-up reported by previous studies³⁹.
 Transpiration did not increase significantly with LAI during the pre-rain green-up period, in agreement with field

measurements (for the tree species *Brachystegia spiciformis*) in this region⁴⁰. SM remained at the lowest level during the entire dry season with almost no rainfall, but TWS decreased continuously, suggesting that deep groundwater was used by trees during the dry season⁴¹. In contrast, L-VOD increased at the beginning of the dry season, peaked around the time when LAI was lowest, and then decreased when LAI increased again. During the rainy season, both transpiration and SM remained high, TWS was continuously recharged, and L-VOD increased during the latter part of the rainy season. These results together indicate a critical role of the stored plant water on buffering the seasonal dynamics of water supply and demand in these tropical dry woodlands.

177 An endogenous whole-plant control of foliar phenology has been documented in some seasonally dry tropical tree species^{42,43}, where water stored in the stems directly contributes to the foliar emergence during the pre-rain green-178 up period^{44,45}, which may explain the decrease in L-VOD at the end of the dry season. The cambium of Miombo 179 trees mainly grows during a short period late in the rainy season^{46,47}, when L-VOD increased. The continued 180 increase in L-VOD at the end of the rainy season and at the beginning of the dry season is consistent with the 181 reduced loss of transpirational water associated with leaf shedding that enables the rehydration of stem tissues and 182 183 the subsequent foliar emergence^{44,46}. The Miombo woodland region was the largest hot-spot area characterized by 184 long time lags between L-VOD and LAI, but the northern African woodlands and the Brazilian Cerrado have similar patterns as well (Extended Data Fig. 11). 185

The specific seasonal behaviour of various water cycle components within each region indicate the adaptation of 186 plants to local climatic conditions (e.g., seasonal variations in rainfall, temperature, and photosynthetic active 187 188 radiation) and abiotic conditions (e.g. soil types and soil water supply) at the ecosystem scale. The spatial heterogeneity in species composition needs to be considered for further in-depth hydrological/physiological 189 190 interpretations on the large-footprint satellite signal because closely located tree species sharing the same environmental conditions can be characterized by different hydraulic strategies, e.g., between soft wood species 191 and hard wood species⁴⁴. At the same time, different species across ecosystems may have similar hydraulic 192 193 mechanisms as root hydraulic lift and redistribution of deep ground water were identified in both temperate forests 194 and tropical woodlands ecosystems^{48,49}.

Our study provides the first observational evidence of global differences in the interaction between plant water 195 storage and foliar phenology. The satellite-based L-VOD product allows for an efficient and repeated monitoring 196 of changes in large-scale plant water storage, which is highly valuable for mapping and understanding spatial 197 differences in plant hydraulic strategies^{2,50}. Furthermore, the lag analyses between satellite-observed L-VOD and 198 199 LAI/TWS as well as the resulting spatial patterns in relation to vegetation density and types provide a convenient way to condense patters of plant water storage across the globe, which can be used to parameterize and test relevant 200 process-based eco-hydrological and other earth system models upon reproducing observed behaviors. With future 201 202 expansion of the time-series covered by L-band satellite microwave observations including also improvements of the spatial coverage over RFI influenced areas²³, the L-VOD product will be a strong complementary to the VOD 203 204 products from higher frequencies and the greenness-/productivity-oriented optical satellite records for studying 205 ecosystem responses to climate change.

206

207 Methods

208 Data sets

209 The SMOS satellite covers the earth surface nearly daily with both ascending (6 am) and descending (6 pm) overpasses since the beginning of 2010. The whole system underwent the so-called commissioning phase until 210 June 2010 when various operation modes were tested, leading to less observations in comparison to the following 211 years. Therefore, we used data during the period of 2011-2016. We selected the ascending observations as plant 212 water storage usually peaks at dawn. The SMOS-IC algorithm²³ was applied to retrieve L-VOD and SM 213 simultaneously from SMOS observations, without any external vegetation products as inputs, so the current L-214 VOD retrievals (version 103) were independent from any other vegetation indices. Conversely to other SMOS 215 216 products (e.g., Level 2 and Level 3)⁵¹, no remotely sensed LAI data were used in the SMOS-IC retrieval process to estimate L-VOD over heterogeneous pixels, neither SM data from ECMWF (European Centre for Medium-217 Range Weather Forecasts) were used to estimate SM over the forest fraction in mixed pixels. The native SMOS 218 spatial resolution (3 dB footprint) varies between ~27 and ~55 km depending on the incidence angles (observations 219

at high incidence angles were filtered out in SMOS-IC). The data were originally projected in the standard EASE2 grid at a 25 km spatial resolution and we further converted it into a geographical projection at a 0.25° spatial
resolution.

The LAI data were generated from the standard MODIS Collection 6 LAI products (MOD15 and MYD15; 8-day composites at a 0.05° spatial resolution) from Terra and Aqua for 2011-2016⁵². The MODIS LAI algorithm accounts for sun-sensor geometry. We refined the raw LAI data into 16-day composites by averaging the cloudfree observations indicated by the quality flag information to minimize the influences from environmental contamination, e.g. clouds, aerosols, shadows, and poor sun-sensor geometries. All high-quality LAI data were then resampled to 0.25° by averaging and linearly interpolating to a daily time step to match the spatial and temporal resolutions of the L-VOD data.

The TWS data were from the Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment (GRACE) satellites, which measure the changes in the Earth's gravitational field that are highly correlated with changes in both surface and sub-surface water storage^{53,54}. The monthly GRACE TWS products are provided in three solutions by the GeoForschungsZentrum Potsdam (GFZ), the Center for Space Research at the University of Texas (CSR), and the Jet Propulsion Laboratory (JPL) at a 1° spatial resolution. We used the average of the three products and the associated standard deviations, as suggested by recent studies⁵⁵. Only 10 observations were available for 2011 and 2012 due to battery management.

The X-VOD data were from the land parameter data record (LPDR v2) developed by the Numerical Terradynamic Simulation Group at The University of Montana³⁵. The X-VOD was retrieved from the AMSR sensors at a microwave frequency of 10.7 GHz for both ascending (1.30 pm) and descending (1.30 am) overpasses at a spatial resolution of 0.25°. We selected the descending X-VOD retrievals for 2011-2016. The same principle (ω - τ model) was used for retrieving X-VOD from AMSR microwave observations as for the SMOS-IC L-VOD retrieval algorithm, which was also independent from optical vegetation indices.

The data for tree cover fractions were produced by Chiba University for 2008²⁷, since this dataset outperforms the
 MODerate-resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) Vegetation Continuous Fields product (MOD44B) for

African drylands where MOD44B largely underestimates the woody cover^{56,57}. Tree height data was from spaceborne light detection and ranging (lidar) data obtained by the Geoscience Laser Altimeter System (GLAS)⁵⁸.

The rainfall data were from the Tropical Rainfall Measurement Mission (TRMM) 3B42 v7 daily product⁵⁹, which
were estimated from satellite measurements at a 0.25° spatial resolution.

The transpiration data were from estimates by the Global Land Evaporation Amsterdam Model (GLEAM) v3.1a, which used a set of algorithms for estimating a series of water-cycle components (without plant water storage) at a daily time step and 0.25° spatial resolution^{60,61}.

252 Analysis of seasonal lag

We concatenated the six-year (2011-2016) data into a mean yearly daily time series for each pixel to obtain a clear 253 and reliable seasonality in L-VOD (see an example pixel in Extended Data Fig. 1a and b). The median of raw L-254 255 VOD retrievals from the same day of the year for 2011-2016 was first used to form an average seasonality. Second, a 30-day moving median was determined, followed by calculating the anomalies between the raw data and the 256 median curve. The data points larger/smaller than the median curve +/- the standard deviation of the anomalies 257 were defined as outliers and thus removed from the subsequent analysis (de-noise). Finally, a 30-day moving-258 259 average curve was calculated for the valid data points. The seasonality of LAI and X-VOD were determined using 260 the same method as for L-VOD.

261 For the L-VOD seasonality, we accounted for both the data noise and the actual seasonal variations in plant water 262 storage, using the ratio between the seasonal amplitude and the standard deviation of the anomalies as an indicator of the intra-annual variability (Extended Data Fig. 1c). Pixels with a ratio >1.2 (a buffer of 20% standard deviation) 263 were deemed to be characterized by a clear seasonality, despite the data noise, and were thus selected for further 264 265 lag analysis with the LAI seasonality, and pixels with a ratio ≤ 1.2 were deemed to have no clear seasonal patterns in L-VOD. Double growing seasons will introduce large uncertainties in quantifying the time lag, so we limited 266 the analysis to pixels characterized by a single growing season in both L-VOD and LAI seasonality. We normalized 267 268 the mean seasonality of each pixel to 0-1 by subtracting the minimum value and then dividing by the amplitude, 269 and identified pixels with only two 0.5 crossing points as being characterized by a single growing season⁶².

The SMOS-IC algorithm applies a constant soil surface roughness and effective scattering albedo over time and use an effective temperature input from ECMWF estimates^{23,24}, which will introduce uncertainties in the L-VOD retrievals. We performed a series of sensitivity analyses focusing on the possible influences from these uncertainty settings/sources on the L-VOD seasonal pattern retrieved from the SMOS-IC algorithm over the Miombo region, where L-VOD peaks during the dry season. Specifically, we applied various value settings of these input parameters covering a dynamic range larger than the expected ones to examine the possible resulting changes in the L-VOD seasonality.

Soil surface roughness may change in relation to agricultural practices, but very unlikely over natural environmental conditions at the satellite footprint scale as for the Miombo region. The roughness parameter (HR) used in the SMOS-IC algorithm is 0.3 for the forested pixels in the Miombo region^{63,64}. We compared the L-VOD retrievals over this region by setting HR to 0.2 and 0.4, respectively, but found little difference in the seasonal cycle from a setting of 0.3 used in the original SMOS-IC algorithm (Extended Data Figure 9). Because the seasonal changes in soil surface roughness are expected to be much smaller than an HR range of 0.2, they will have very limited influence on the observed L-VOD seasonal trends.

285 Canopy leaves have dominant effects on the emissivity and effective scattering albedo of deciduous forests at higher frequencies (>6 GHz), but the leaf effects are limited at L-band as suggested by several studies which show 286 that stems and branches are the main elements contributing to forest emissivity at L-band^{13-15,63}. Therefore, in the 287 288 SMOS-IC algorithm, a constant effective scattering albedo (Omega) value of 0.06 was used for the Miombo 289 woodlands although dominated by a deciduous forest type with a clear annual cycle in the canopy leaf conditions^{23,65,66}. To test the influence from an expected small change in the effective albedo (lower than 0.01) on 290 291 the retrieved L-VOD values, we ran the SMOS-IC algorithm by setting the Omega value to 0.05 and 0.07, respectively over the Miombo region⁶⁷. Again, the results show little difference in the retrieved L-VOD seasonal 292 patterns between these different settings (Extended Data Figure 10). Therefore, using a constant effective 293 294 scattering albedo of 0.06 in the SMOS-IC algorithm will have a very limited influence on the observed L-VOD 295 seasonal trends over the Miombo woodlands.

The ECWMF soil and vegetation temperatures used to estimate the effective surface temperature (Ts) in the 296 SMOS-IC algorithm⁶⁸ may have a root mean square deviation as high as a few Kelvin^{69,70}. We applied a drastic 297 approach to investigate its possible impacts on the L-VOD seasonal patterns, that is, setting a constant effective 298 299 temperature (Ts) value over the course of the year. Two constant values (291 K and 295K) with a range of 4 K 300 were considered based on the observed average value (~293 K) and standard deviation (~2 K) of seasonal changes 301 in Ts over the Miombo region. Results were compared to L-VOD retrievals considering dynamic ECMWF 302 estimations of Ts, as applied in the SMOS-IC algorithm. Again, little difference in the retrieved L-VOD values 303 from the different Ts settings were observed (Extended Data Figure 11). This suggests a relatively small impact 304 on L-VOD seasonality from possible uncertainties in the estimates of Ts computed from ECMWF data, which 305 may be attributable to the narrow seasonal changes in temperature over the Miombo region. Therefore, the 306 uncertainties and possible erroneous trends associated with the ECMWF temperature products cannot explain the 307 specific L-VOD signatures observed in this region.

308 Analysis of seasonal water balance

A variety of water-cycle components were plotted together to investigate the water balance at a US temperate forest site and a tropical Miombo woodland site. Specifically, the SMOS L-VOD and SM data were smoothed using a moving-average method (window size of 30 days). Daily estimates of transpiration were aggregated to a 16-day mean to match the MODIS LAI temporal resolution for better visualization. The onset of the rainy season (or end of the dry season) in the tropical Miombo site was determined following the criteria³⁹: (1) a total rainfall of 25 mm within 10 successive days, followed by (2) a total rainfall >20 mm within 20 days. The start of the dry season (or end of the rainy season) was defined as the last day with rainfall >10 mm.

316 Data availability

317 The SMOS L-VOD and SM products are available upon request and will be made publicly available by CATDS (Centre aval de traitement des données SMOS). MODIS LAI data are available from http://sites.bu.edu/cliveg. 318 Anomalous GRACE data for terrestrial groundwater storage are available from https://grace.jpl.nasa.gov. X-VOD 319 320 data can be downloaded from www.ntsg.umt.edu. Tree cover data are available from <u>https://globalmaps.github.io/ptc.html</u>. Tree height data can be downloaded from
 <u>https://webmap.ornl.gov/ogc/dataset.jsp?ds_id=10023</u>. The global inundation map is available upon request at
 <u>www.estellus.fr/index.php?static13/giems-d15</u>. TRMM rainfall data are available from <u>https://pmm.nasa.gov</u>.
 Transpiration data can be downloaded from https://www.gleam.eu.

325 Code availability

326 The code used for seasonal analyses this deposited GitHub: lag in study was in 327 https://github.com/fengtian2017/SMOS-L-VOD-seasonality

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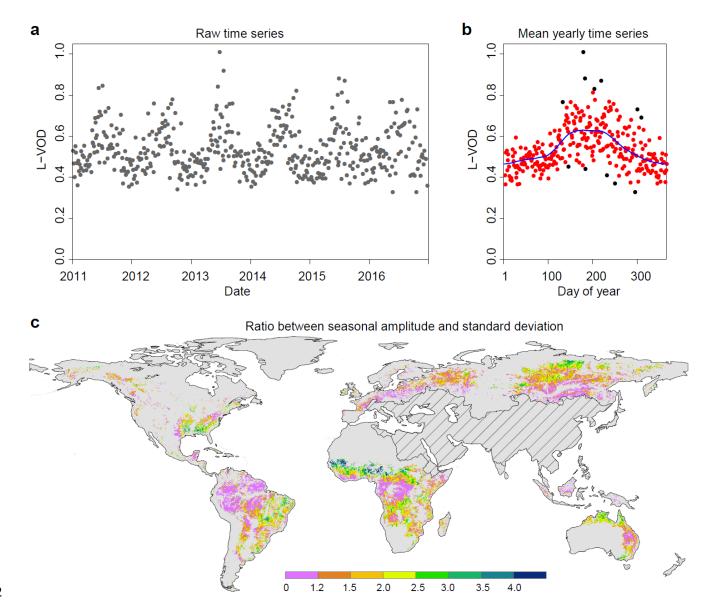
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523 Author Contributions

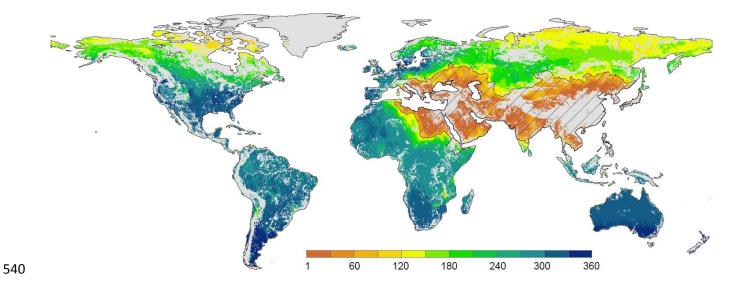
- 524 F.T., J.P.W., M.B., and R.F. designed the study with inputs from P.C., J.C., J.P., and A.R., J.P.W., Y.K., A.M.,
- 525 N.R-F., and A.A.Y. prepared the SMOS-IC data and performed the sensitivity analyses. C.C. and R.B.M. prepared
- 526 the MODIS LAI data. F.T. performed data analyses. The results were interpreted by J.P.W., A.R., J.C., F.T., P.C.,
- 527 J.P., J.O., J.C.D., X.T., N.R-F., A.M., T.T., A.A.Y. and R.F. F.T. drafted the manuscript with editing by P.C., J.P.,
- 528 J.O., J.C. and contributions from all co-authors.

529 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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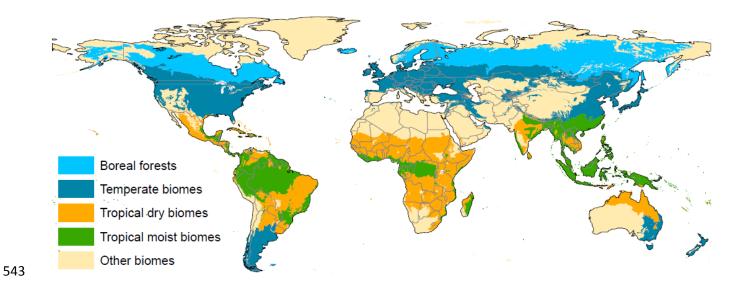


Extended Data Figure 1: SMOS-IC L-VOD data processing. a, The raw L-VOD time series for 2011-2016 from an example pixel (location: 11.25°S, 18.25°E). b, The mean L-VOD seasonality of the example pixel. The red points were selected for further smoothing and the calculation of standard deviations, and the black points were rejected as outliers. The blue curve is the moving average of the red points. c, Global distribution of the ratio between seasonal amplitude and standard deviation. Masked areas are explained in the text. The ratio between seasonal amplitude and standard deviation for the example pixel is 2.3.



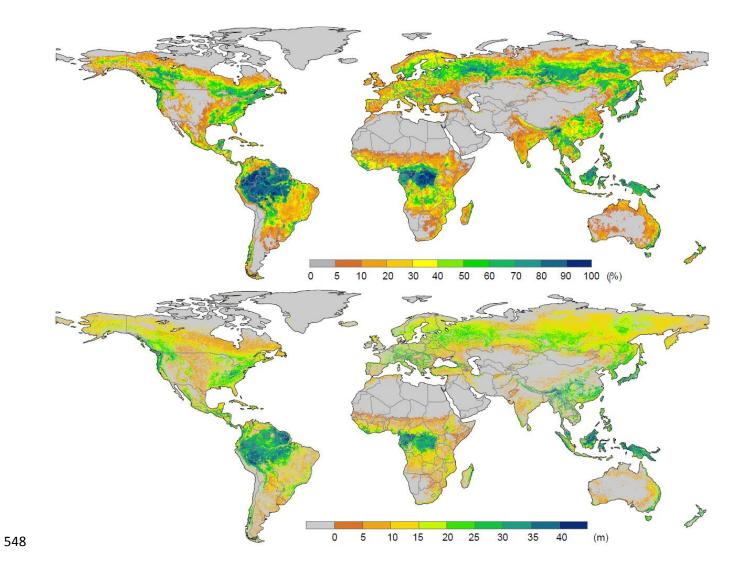
541 Extended Data Figure 2: Available number of SMOS VOD retrievals of the mean yearly daily time series (ascending

542 overpass).

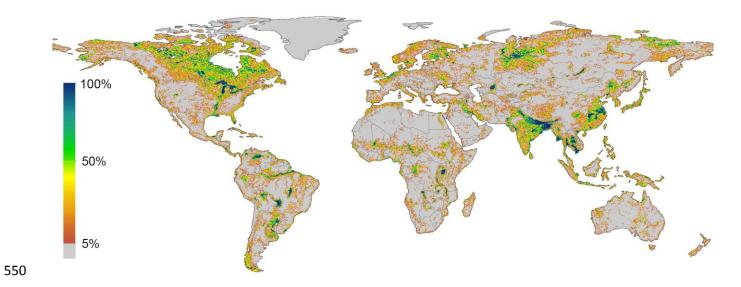


Extended Data Figure 3: Spatial extent of five merged regions. Modified from Olson, et al.²⁶. The 'Other biomes' category
 contains deserts & xeric shrublands, flooded grasslands and savannahs, mangroves, and was excluded from the analysis partly
 due to the higher uncertainties in these regions.

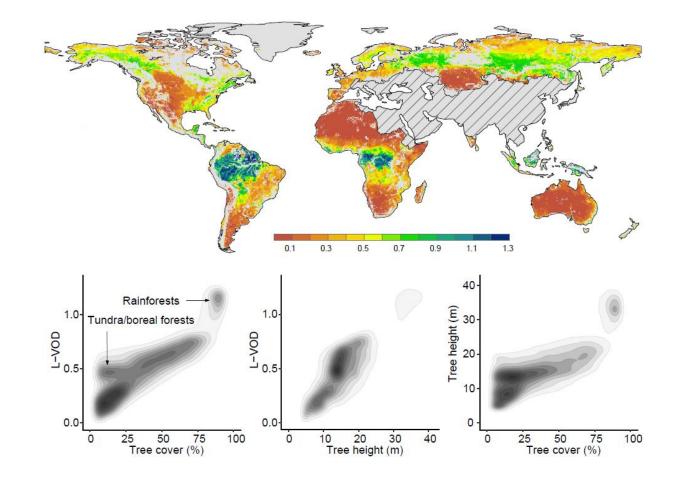
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549 Extended Data Figure 4: Global tree cover fractions²⁷ and tree height estimates⁵⁸.



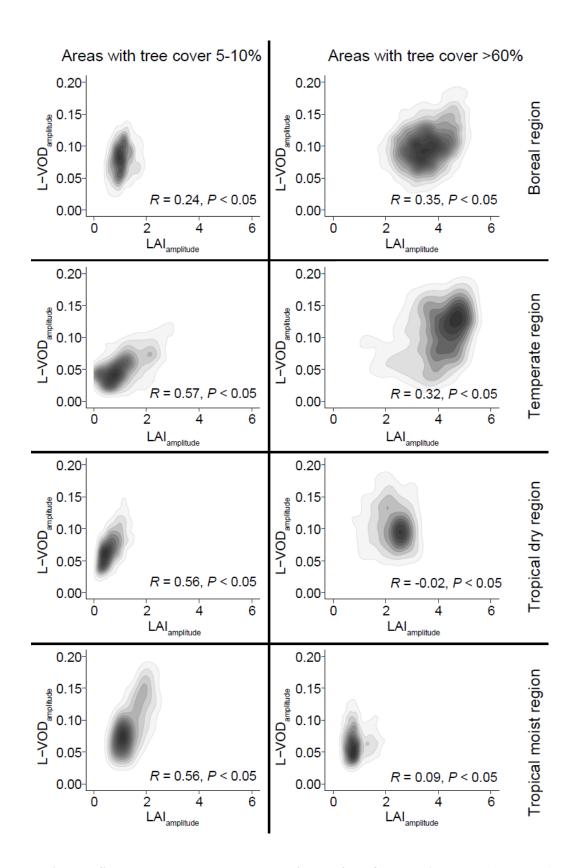
551 Extended Data Figure 5: Global inundation map²⁸.



554 Extended Data Figure 6: Global variability in annual maximum L-VOD and the relationships with tree cover

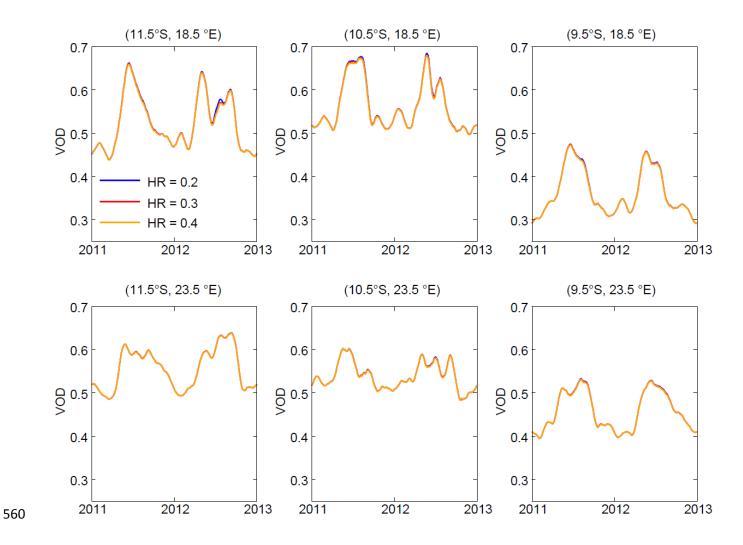
555 fraction and tree height.

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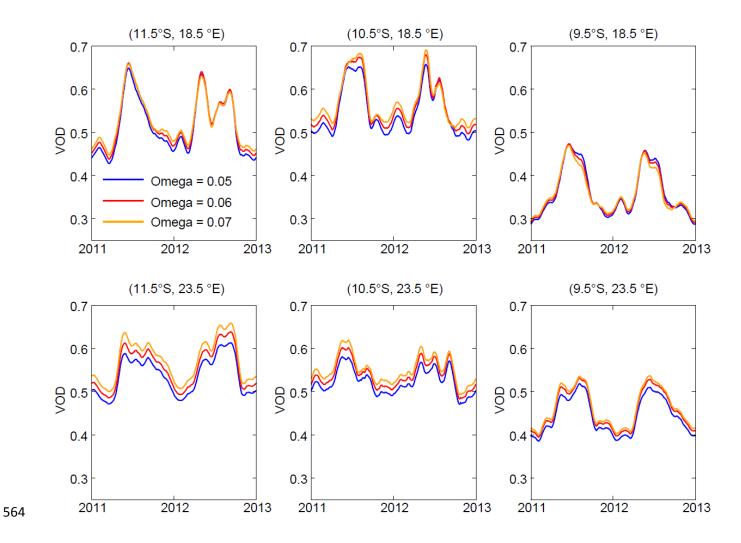


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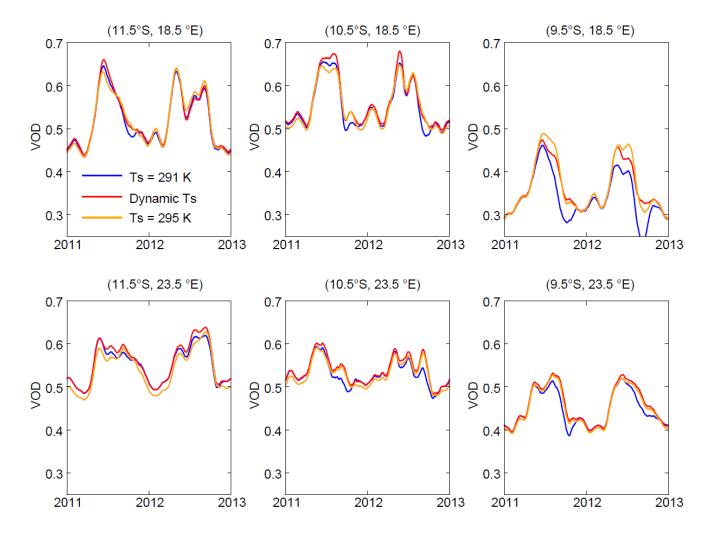
Extended Data Figure 7: Scatterplots between seasonal amplitudes of L-VOD and LAI, grouped by areas with tree covers of 5-10% and >60%, respectively, within the boreal, temperate, tropical dry, and tropical moist regions. R is the Pearson correlation coefficient.



Extended Data Figure 8: Seasonal changes of L-VOD with soil surface roughness (HR) set to 0.2, 0.3 (used value in SMOSIC) and 0.4, respectively over six evenly distributed sites (one pixel for each) in the Miombo region (the upper left site is from
the same location as in Figure 5b). Note that curves with different HR settings almost totally overlap each other.

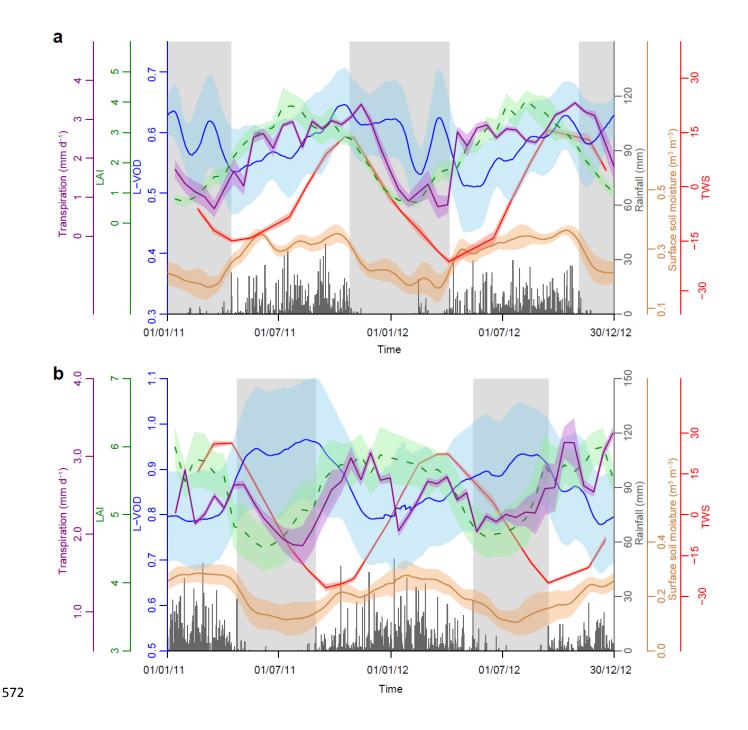


Extended Data Figure 9: Seasonal changes of L-VOD with effective scattering albedo (Omega) set to 0.05, 0.06 (used value
in SMOS-IC) and 0.07, respectively over six evenly distributed sites (one pixel for each) in the Miombo region (the upper left
site is from the same location as in Figure 5b).



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Extended Data Figure 10: Seasonal changes of L-VOD with effective temperature (Ts) set to constant values of 291 K and
295 K over the season, and to the dynamic ECMWF estimations (used in SMOS-IC), respectively over six evenly distributed
sites (one pixel for each) in the Miombo region (the upper left site is from the same location as in Figure 5b).



Extended Data Figure 11: a, An example time series (2011-2012) of plant water storage (L-VOD), terrestrial groundwater storage anomaly (TWS), surface soil moisture, rainfall, transpiration, and canopy phenology (LAI) for northern African woodlands located in south of Central African Republic centred at 5.5°N, 16.5°E. The coloured shaded curves represent the standard deviations (n = 16 for all except TWS where n = 3). The grey shaded rectangles indicate the dry seasons. Tree cover = 67%. **b**, Same as for **a**, but for a location in the Brazilian Cerrado region centred at 11.5°S, 59.5°W. Tree cover = 71%.