

1 **WRF-ELM v1.0: a Regional Climate Model to Study Land-Atmosphere Interactions Over**
2 **Heterogeneous Land Use Regions**

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22 **Abstract**

23 The Energy Exascale Earth System Model (E3SM) Land Model (ELM) is a state-of-the-art land
24 surface model that simulates the intricate interactions between the terrestrial land surface and other
25 components of the Earth system. Originating from the Community Land Model (CLM) version 4.5, ELM
26 has been under active development, with added new features and functionality, including plant hydraulics,
27 radiation-topography interaction, subsurface multiphase flow, and more explicit land use and management
28 practices. This study integrates ELM v2.1 with the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) Model
29 through a modified Lightweight Infrastructure for Land Atmosphere Coupling (LILAC) framework,
30 enabling affordable high-resolution regional modeling by leveraging ELM's innovative features alongside
31 WRF's diverse atmospheric parameterization options. This framework includes a top-level driver for
32 variable communication between WRF and ELM and Earth System Modeling Framework (ESMF) caps for
33 WRF atmospheric component and ELM workflow control, encompassing initialization, execution, and
34 finalization. Importantly, this LILAC-ESMF framework demonstrates a more modular approach compared
35 to previous coupling efforts between WRF and land surface models. It maintains the integrity of the ELM's
36 source code structure and facilitates the transfer of future developments in ELM to WRF-ELM.

37 To test the ability of the coupled model in capturing land-atmosphere interactions over regions with
38 a variety of land uses and land covers, we conducted high-resolution (4 km) WRF-ELM ensemble
39 simulations over the Great Lakes Region (GLR) in the summer of 2018 and systematically compared the
40 results against observations, reanalysis data, and WRF-CTSM (WRF-coupled with the Community
41 Terrestrial Systems Model). In general, the coupled WRF-ELM model has reasonably captured the spatial
42 distribution of surface state variables and fluxes across the GLR, particularly over the natural vegetation
43 areas. The evaluation results provide a baseline reference for further improvements of ELM in the regional
44 application of high-resolution weather and climate predictions. Our work serves as an example to the model
45 development community for expanding an advanced land surface model's capability to represent fully-
46 coupled land-atmosphere interactions at fine spatial scales. The development and release of WRF-ELM
47 marks a significant advancement for the ELM user community, providing opportunities for fine-scale

- 48 regional representation, parameter calibration in coupled mode, and examination of new schemes with
49 atmospheric feedback.

50 **1. Introduction**

51 Land surface models (LSMs) solve the exchange of water, energy, and carbon fluxes between the
52 land surface and atmosphere (Fisher and Koven, 2020), and are frequently used to simulate response of the
53 Earth's surface to both anthropogenic and natural forcings (Best et al., 2015). These models describe
54 biogeophysical properties like surface roughness, albedo, and evapotranspiration efficiency, characteristics
55 crucial for modeling the land's influence on meteorological processes (Xue et al., 1991; Dai et al., 2003;
56 Dickinson, 1984; Sellers et al., 1986). Originally developed to support weather and climate modeling, LSMs
57 were designed to provide essential lower boundary conditions such as radiation, energy, and water fluxes
58 to the atmosphere.

59 Over time, LSMs have evolved significantly, with representations of increasingly complex
60 processes that impact land surface dynamics and belowground processes, with their feedback to the
61 atmosphere being incrementally added in newer-generation LSMs. As a consequence of all these
62 advancements, the applicability and scope of LSMs has broadened substantially from their initial versions,
63 introducing sophisticated representations of plant hydraulics (Fang et al., 2022; Xu et al., 2023), wildfire
64 (Thonicke et al., 2010; Li et al., 2012; Huang et al., 2020a; Huang et al., 2021), soil biogeochemistry and
65 nutrient cycling (Li et al., 1992; Parton et al., 1988; Jenkinson, 1990), dynamic vegetation distributions
66 (Martín Belda et al., 2022; Weng et al., 2015; Fisher et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2019), radiation-topography
67 interaction (Hao et al., 2021), urban-scale processes (Oleson and Feddema, 2020; Krayenhoff et al., 2020),
68 subsurface multiphase flow (Bisht et al., 2017; Qiu et al., 2024), and land use and management (Huang et
69 al., 2020b; Binsted et al., 2022; Calvin et al., 2019). These improvements not only advance the capability
70 of LSMs to model complex environmental interactions but also facilitate a mechanistic understanding of
71 changes in land-atmosphere interactions under varying environmental conditions. Particularly, they can be
72 used to predict the disturbance of the land surface, for example, Earth's ecosystem and surface hydrology,
73 in response to climate change and to quantify the respective biogeophysical and biogeochemical feedbacks
74 to the climate system (Ban-Weiss et al., 2011; Fisher and Koven, 2020).

75 Recent advancements in LSMs have broad applications in land-only simulations and within global
76 climate models (GCMs) to capture the complex interactions surrounding global climate change (Lawrence
77 et al., 2019; Martín Belda et al., 2022; Wiltshire et al., 2020). However, the application within GCMs does
78 not allow for the representation of land processes at kilometer scales and extreme events occurring at daily
79 to weekly scales (such as extreme precipitation and flash drought), which are more relevant to human
80 society. While regional refinement may appear to be a feasible solution, the associated computational costs
81 restrict their wide adoption within the weather and climate modeling community. Alternatively, combining
82 advanced LSMs with Regional Climate Models (RCMs) could facilitate more in-depth examinations of the
83 climate change impacts on land surfaces and the resulting feedback at scales that have greater relevance to
84 human society.

85 The U.S. Department of Energy’s Energy Exascale Earth System Model (E3SM) Land Model
86 (ELM) is an advanced LSM that simulates the exchanges between terrestrial land surfaces and other Earth
87 system components, enabling us to understand hydrologic cycles, biogeophysics, and the dynamics of
88 terrestrial ecosystems (Burrows et al., 2020). The Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model serves
89 as an essential tool widely used for regional weather prediction and climate change analysis (Skamarock
90 and Klemp, 2008). WRF can be run with various LSMs such as Noah, Noah-MP, SSiB, CLM4. It has also
91 been coupled with CTSM recently (CTSM Development Team, 2024; Ucar, 2020). However, integrating
92 ELM with WRF enables comprehensive representation of land processes, following recent advancements
93 in ELM, for more computationally efficient regional modeling applications. For instance, leaf to canopy
94 upscaling through a two-big-leaf parameterization in ELM enables simulation of the diffuse radiation
95 fertilization effect (Chakraborty et al., 2022a), and thus better estimates of surface water and carbon budget,
96 a feature not present in Noah. As another example, ELM incorporates gridwise surface properties such as
97 leaf area index (LAI), displacement height, and vegetation top and bottom height. In contrast, Noah and its
98 variants use lookup tables with these properties prescribed for each land cover class, limiting their ability
99 to capture spatial heterogeneity in surface properties within individual land cover types. Moreover, ELM
100 simulations at ~km resolution highlight the significance of considering radiation-topography interaction in

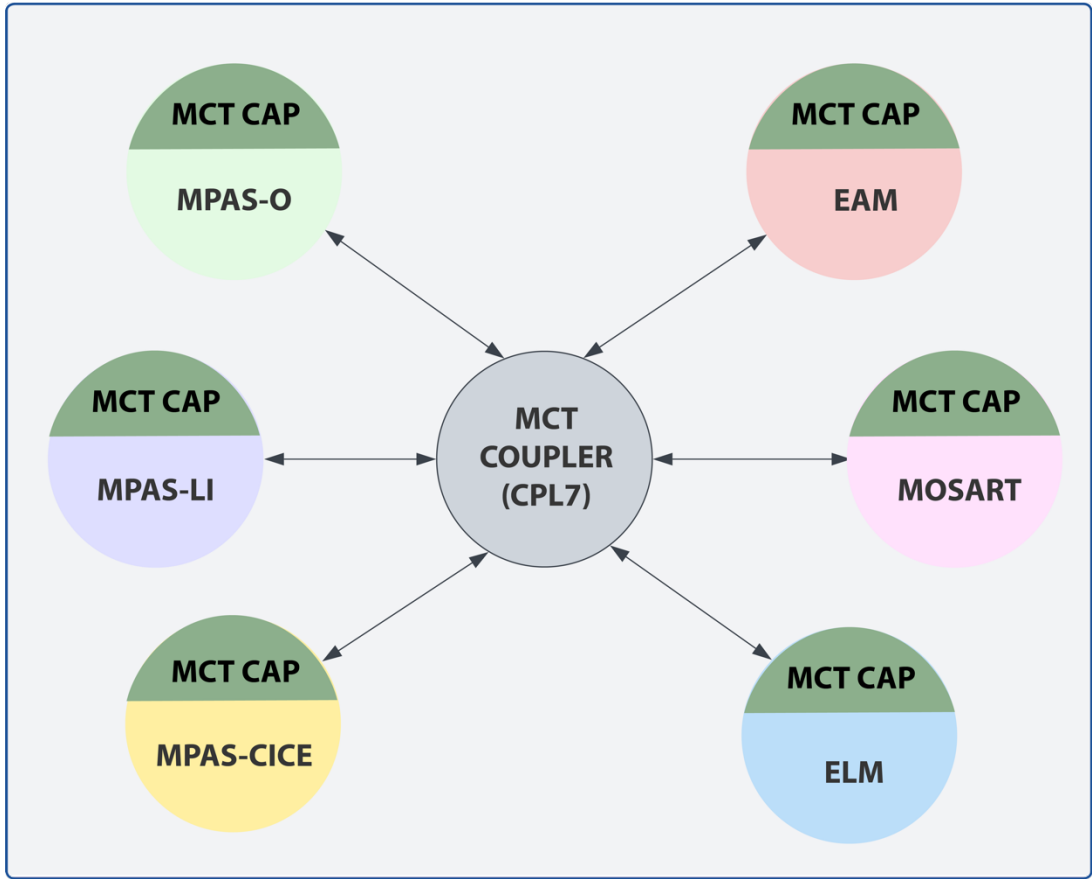
101 simulating surface energy balance and water budget, a process not yet considered by current land models
102 in WRF (Hao et al., 2021; Yuan et al., 2023).

103 This study integrates ELM v2.1 with WRF (hereafter named WRF-ELM) using a modified coupler
104 derived from University Corporation for Atmospheric Research (UCAR)'s Lightweight Infrastructure for
105 Land-Atmosphere Coupling (LILAC) (Ucar, 2020). We evaluate the model performance using a broad
106 range of site observations and reanalysis data, providing a benchmark for subsequent model enhancements.
107 This effort expands the capability of a global LSM, which has been previously used within GCM
108 frameworks, allowing it to simulate higher resolution land-atmosphere interactions at regional scales. The
109 introduction and release of WRF-ELM also benefit the ELM user community by providing opportunities
110 for them to test new land schemes with atmospheric feedbacks and calibrate model parameters in coupled
111 models.

112

113 **2. Methods**

114 **2.1 Coupler in E3SM**



115

Short Name	Full Name
ELM	Energy Exascale Land Model
EAM	Energy Exascale Atmosphere Model
MOSART	Model for Scale Adaptive River Transport
MPAS-O	Model for Prediction Across Scales – Ocean
MPAS-CICE	Model for Prediction Across Scales – Sea Ice
MPAS-LI	Model for Prediction Across Scales – Land Ice

116 **Figure 1** Schematic diagram of the E3SM model components. The top-level coupler (CPL7) serves as the
 117 main program for communication between each component. The Model Coupling Toolkit (MCT) cap in
 118 each component provides an interface between CPL7 and the physical core, which is responsible for
 119 memory allocation, preprocessing, post-processing, and input and output (I/O). The inserted table explains
 120 the full names of all abbreviations in the figure.

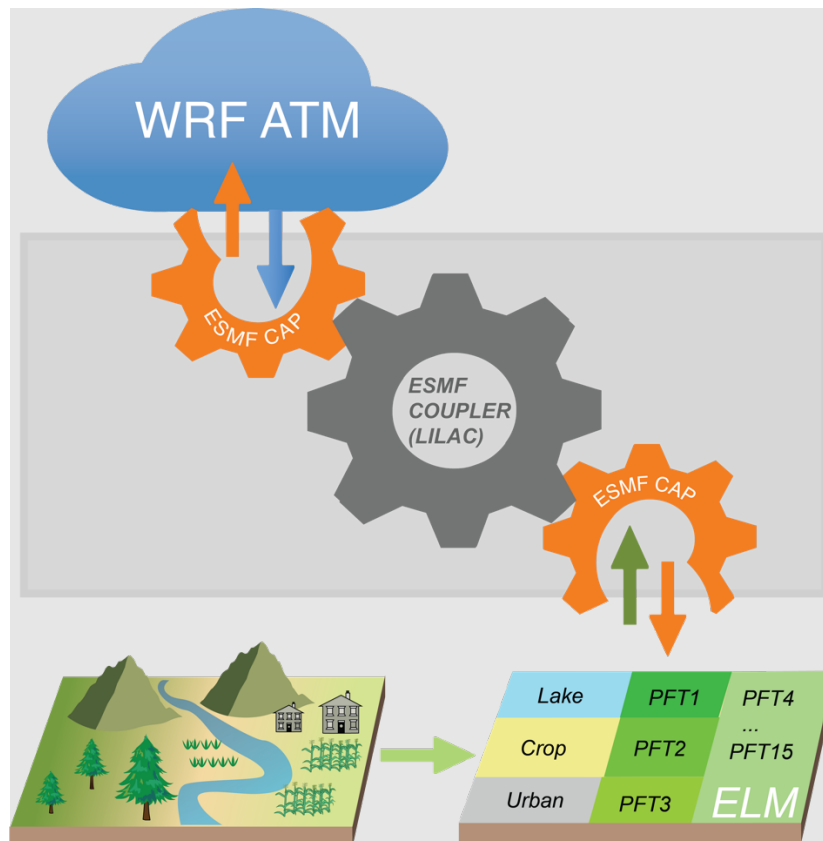
121

122 E3SM adopts a hub-and-spoke architecture to couple the different model components together, as
 123 shown in Figure 1. In this architecture, communication between the parallel components is realized via the

124 Model Coupling Toolkit (MCT; (Larson et al., 2005; Jacob et al., 2005)). The top-level coupler, version 7
 125 coupler (CPL7), calls model component initialization, execution, and finalization methods through
 126 specified interfaces (Craig et al., 2012). The MCT cap within each component provides an interface between
 127 the CPL7 and the physical core, which is responsible for memory allocation, preprocessing, post-processing,
 128 and input and output (I/O). Importantly, the inter-component communication is realized only through the
 129 central hub, instead of direct communication with one another. The E3SM coupling framework imposes
 130 strict requirements on how an atmospheric model can communicate with ELM. One particular challenge is
 131 that many atmosphere models – including WRF – expect to run the land model in the middle of the time
 132 step sequence. Accomplishing this in the E3SM architecture can require significant restructuring of the
 133 atmosphere model. For this reason, ELM has not been coupled to atmospheric models in the regional model
 134 community, limiting its ability to address complex scientific challenges at fine resolutions.

135

136 **2.2 LILAC-ESMF Coupler**



137

138 **Figure 2** Schematic diagram of the coupling framework for WRF-ELM. The top-level coupler (LILAC) is
139 in charge of communication between WRF ATM and ELM. The ESMF Cap within ELM and WRF ATM is
140 responsible for memory allocation, preprocessing, post-processing, and input and output (I/O). PFT
141 represents plant functional types in the figure)

142

143 The traditional way of coupling between LSMs (CLM4, Noah, Noah-MP, and SSiB) and WRF is
144 through internal subroutines and interfaces within the WRF codebase. This tight coupling means that the
145 LSM is often compiled and run as an integral part of the WRF model. As the LSMs grow to integrate more
146 land processes, the tight coupling approach can become less scalable and harder to manage. Additionally,
147 maintaining the coupled system updated with the latest versions of WRF and LSMs can be challenging due
148 to the need for synchronized updates and compatibility checks. In contrast, modern approaches such as
149 LILAC-ESMF offer a more modular and flexible way of coupling, facilitating easier integration and updates
150 of different model components.

151 We have developed an ESMF (Hill et al., 2004) Cap which wraps ELM to facilitate seamless
152 communication with the central hub driver that connects WRF ATM and ELM (Fig. 2). The central hub
153 driver, LILAC, is developed using ESMF and provides the fundamental functions to support the integration
154 of an LSM within an RCM, including 1) creating the list of fields passed from WRF ATM to ELM and vice
155 versa; 2) initializing ESMF Caps for WRF ATM and for ELM); 3) coordinating calls of the ESMF Caps
156 and ELM and exchanging data between these components; and 4) providing missing atmospheric fields,
157 specifically for atmospheric aerosols

158 Within the coupling framework, the ESMF Cap provides the functions of 1) converting the input
159 data from LILAC to the land model and vice versa; 2) supplying any additional input fields that ELM
160 requires but are not provided by WRF ATM, for example, gross domestic product, population density, and
161 lightning that are used to predict fire ignitions in ELM; and 3) setting the domain decomposition and
162 generating the land mesh. The ESMF cap, which provides the necessary infrastructure to connect LILAC
163 and ELM physics, serve as an example for similar coupling work between other LSMs and RCMs.

164

165 **2.3 Exchange variables between WRF and ELM**

166 ELM is driven by meteorological forcings including precipitation, downward shortwave radiation,
167 downward longwave radiation, zonal wind at reference height (z_{atm}), meridional wind at z_{atm} , pressure at
168 z_{atm} , specific humidity at z_{atm} , and air temperature at z_{atm} . In the coupled version, the meteorological forcings
169 are provided by WRF ATM with the ELM model timestep set to match the integration timestep in the WRF
170 ATM. The reference height refers to the height of the lowest atmosphere model level. The radiation scheme
171 in WRF further splits the shortwave radiation to direct and diffuse components, as well as visible and near-
172 infrared radiation. Precipitation is divided into rainfall and snowfall based on the frozen precipitation ratio,
173 which are then inputted into the ELM. The ELM output includes skin temperature, 2-m air temperature, 2-
174 m specific humidity at the surface, friction velocity, surface albedo, sensible heat flux, latent heat flux,
175 ground heat flux, surface emissivity, and roughness length for momentum and heat transfer, which will be
176 exchanged with the WRF ATM component.

177

178 **2.4 Mesh data and surface parameters**

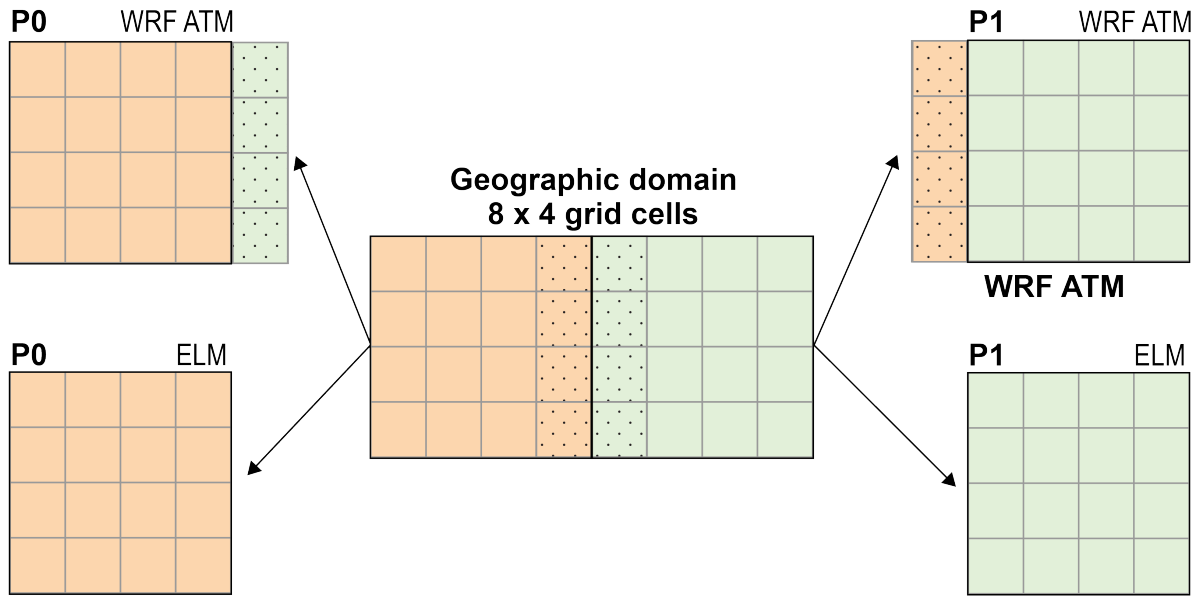
179 In addition, mesh data is used in the WRF ATM to define the latitude and longitude of the grid. The
180 domain information is necessary for the coupler and the land model during runtime. These data include a
181 mask that informs the land model where to run and a land fraction that the coupler uses to combine fluxes
182 from various surface types over a grid cell. The surface data configures the spatially implicit features (e.g.,
183 spatial fraction coverage, leaf and soil albedo, leaf and soil emissivity, etc.) of subgrid elements within grid
184 cells (topographic unit, land cover, soil columns, and vegetation).

185 While a regular latitude/longitude grid is widely used for domain and surface data in the land-only
186 mode, when coupled with WRF ATM, ELM needs to adopt the Lambert Conformal projection used in WRF.
187 To create a domain file of Lambert Conformal projection, a grid descriptor file based on the WRF Pre-
188 Processing System (WPS) output (e.g., geo_em.d01) needs to be created, which is then used to create the
189 domain file used in ELM. A similar workflow is needed for surface data, which contains a large number of

190 input files that need to be interpolated by the land model. To generate both domain files and surface data, we
 191 employ the ELM preprocessing tools that derive the input data and grid descriptor files for each dataset,
 192 produce mapping files from the input data grid to our target grid, and then use the mapping weight files for
 193 interpolation.

194

195 **2.5 Parallelization**



196

197 **Figure 3** Schematic of parallel domain decomposition scheme in WRF-ELM. The dotted area indicates
 198 'halo' arrays in which memory is shared between processors (P0 and P1). WRF ATM and ELM are
 199 calculated under the same processor.

200

201 Instead of adopting ELM's native round-robin domain decomposition strategy, our parallelization
 202 strategy for WRF-ELM is to use geographic domain decomposition, as in WRF ATM. As shown in Fig. 3,
 203 different grid cells in the model's physical domain are running on separate processors pre-assigned by the
 204 user. On each processor, ELM within WRF employs parallel I/O to read atmospheric forcings, uses the
 205 surface properties and land-use datasets to configure individual land cells, and then conducts massively

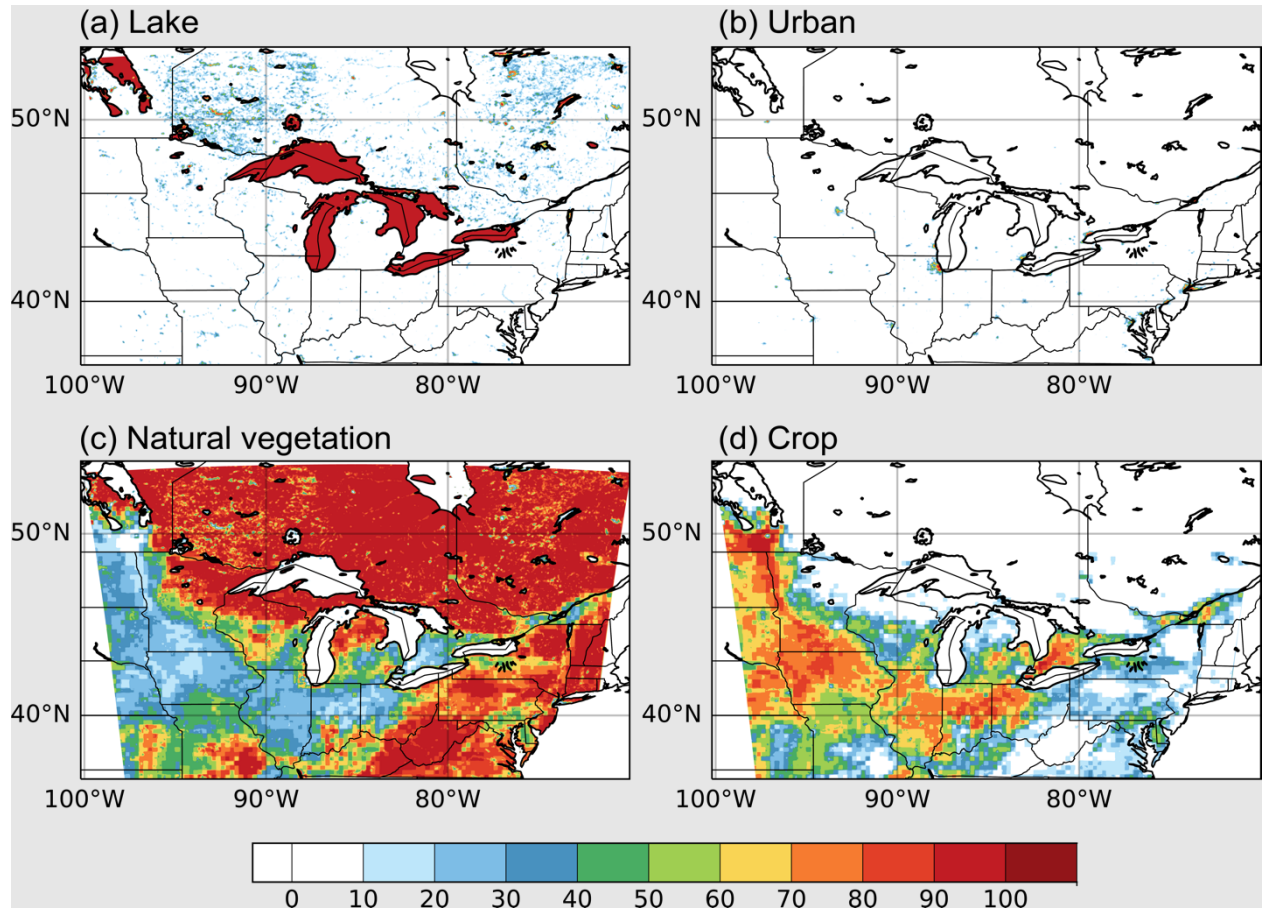
206 parallel simulations over these grid cells within each subdomain independently. In WRF ATM, the 'halo'
207 arrays share memory between processors, and message passing between processors is accomplished using
208 the message passing interface (MPI; (Gropp et al., 1996)).

209

210 **3. Model Validation**

211 **3.1 WRF-ELM configuration**

212 For our first WRF-ELM application, we study the land-atmosphere interactions over the Great
213 Lakes Region (GLR), a hydrodynamically complex and heavily populated region with both natural surface
214 heterogeneity and significant land management practices. This domain also includes the world's largest
215 freshwater system, comprising of Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, and Ontario Lakes. This region is the
216 focus of the U.S. Department of Energy's (DOE's) Coastal Observations, Mechanisms, and Predictions
217 Across Systems and Scales, Great Lakes Modeling (COMPASS-GLM) project, which has an overall goal
218 of developing a fully coupled (lake-land-atmosphere) regional earth system model centered on the GLR
219 (Kayastha et al., 2023). Here, we report the initial implementation of the WRF-ELM framework to support
220 its ability to capture atmospheric, coastal, urban, and rural interactions, providing a baseline reference
221 solution for further model development.



222

223 **Figure 4** Fractional coverage (%) of major land unit (a) lake, (b) urban, (c) natural vegetation, and (d) crop
 224 used in the WRF-ELM.

225

226 The RCM used in the numerical simulation is based on the WRF model version 4.4.2 with the
 227 Advanced Research WRF dynamic core (Skamarock and Klemp, 2008). Following Wang et al. (2022a), the
 228 model domain is centered at 45.5°N and 85.0°W and has dimensions of 544 × 485 grid points in the west–
 229 east and south–north directions. The simulation domain covers the GLR, with a spatial resolution of 4 km
 230 (Fig. 4). Fifty vertical layers from the surface to 50 hPa are adopted with denser layers at lower altitudes to
 231 sufficiently resolve the PBL. We conduct 5 ensemble members in 2018, starting with initial conditions 12
 232 hr apart between 0000 UTC on 12 May and 0000 UTC on 14 May and ending on 0000 UTC 1 September
 233 2018. The resulting simulations are analyzed during June, July, and August (JJA) 2018.

234

Table 1 Model Configuration in WRF and ELM.

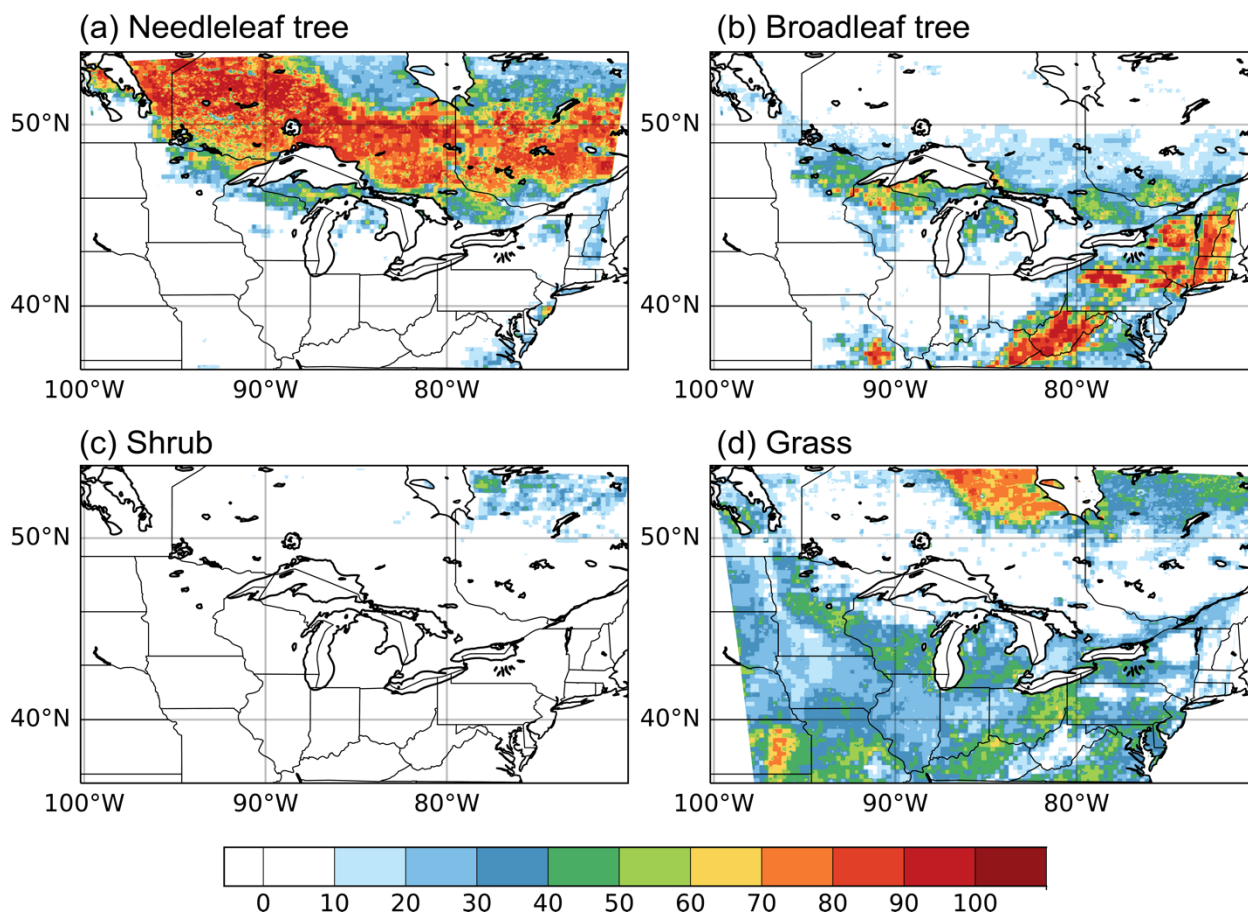
WRF specific options and schemes	
Meteorological IC/LBCs	ERA5
Microphysics	Thompson microphysics
Radiation	RRTMG for longwave and shortwave
Land surface	ELM or CTSM
Planetary boundary layer	YSU scheme
Lake surface temperature	NOAA GLSEA
ELM/CTSM input data	
Land use and land cover	ELM/CTSM default parameter
Vegetation	ELM/CTSM default parameter
Soil color	ELM/CTSM default parameter
topography	ELM/CTSM default parameter
Number of plant functional types (PFT)	16

235

236 The meteorological initial condition (IC) and lateral boundary conditions (LBCs) have been derived
237 from the ECMWF Reanalysis v5 (ERA5; (Hersbach et al., 2020)) at 0.25° horizontal resolution and 3-hour
238 temporal intervals (Table 1). The WRF model incorporates the Thompson microphysics (Thompson et al.,
239 2004; Thompson et al., 2008), the Rapid Radiative Transfer Model for GCMs longwave and shortwave
240 schemes (Iacono et al., 2008), and the Yonsei University planetary boundary layer scheme (Hong and Lim,
241 2006). We turn off cumulus parameterization, considering the convection-permitting resolution of the
242 ensemble simulations. The lake skin temperature is obtained from NOAA Great Lakes Surface
243 Environmental Analysis (GLSEA) data set (Schwab et al., 1992) derived from Advanced Very High-
244 Resolution Radiometer.

245 For the land surface model, we adopt ELM with satellite phenology (ELM-SP) mode which utilizes
246 seasonal varying leaf area index prescribed based on the MODIS data. The default ELM land surface
247 parameters have been used in the coupled model simulation, including land use and land cover information,
248 vegetation biogeophysical properties, soil properties, and topography. The surface parameter is also
249 applicable in CTSM (Table 1). A detailed description of ELM/CTSM default parameter can be found in (Li
250 et al., 2024). The current version of WRF-ELM does not enable biogeochemistry (ELM-BGC) mode and
251 thus does not simulate carbon and nitrogen cycles. In addition, we also conduct simulations using the WRF
252 coupled with Community Terrestrial Systems Model (CTSM ctsm5.1.dev114) (Lawrence et al., 2019)

253 (WRF-CTSM hereafter), which can be used to compared with WRF-ELM's performance in capturing the
 254 land-atmosphere exchanges of energy and water fluxes. CTSM is also referred to the community land model
 255 version 5 (CLM5) afterwards. We emphasize that the comparison against WRF-CTSM is not intended to
 256 demonstrate the superior performance of WRF-ELM but to show that the newly developed WRF-ELM
 257 performs comparably well to WRF-CTSM, one of the most advanced and sophisticated land surface models.
 258



259
 260 **Figure 5** Fractional coverage (%) of major plant functional types (a) needleleaf forest (deciduous and
 261 evergreen combined), (b) broadleaf forest (deciduous and evergreen combined), (c) shrub, and (d) grass
 262 used in the WRF-ELM.

263
 264 It is noteworthy that there are several distinctions between WRF-ELM and the version of WRF-
 265 CTSM we use here. WRF-CTSM aims for a relatively fast calculation speed, thus it has simplified the

266 description of land cover and kept the single dominant land unit and single dominant plant functional types
 267 (PFTs). In our simulation region, WRF-CTSM identifies the Great Lakes in the center of the simulation
 268 domain, with the natural vegetation prevailing in the northern and southeastern regions, and crops
 269 dominating the southwestern areas (Fig. 4). On the other hand, WRF-ELM preserves the comprehensive
 270 description of subgrid heterogeneity. As a result, the fluxes calculated from various surface types are
 271 merged using a weighted-average method before transferring to the upper-level WRF ATM. This is
 272 particularly important in regions with mixed vegetation types, such as the southwestern part of our study
 273 domain. Moreover, within the natural vegetation land unit, WRF-ELM simulates the blend of needleleaf
 274 and broadleaf trees (evergreen and deciduous combined) around the Great Lakes and the mixture of crops
 275 and grasses in the southwestern part of the domain (Fig. 5).

276

277 3.2 Data for validation

278

Table 2 Dataset for validation in the study.

Dataset	Variables	Spatial resolution	Temporal resolution	Reference
ASOS	Air temperature at 2-m, Dew point	point	Hourly	(Nadolski, 1992)
AmeriFlux	Latent heat, Sensible heat	point	Hourly	(Law, 2005)
Daymet	Maximum air temperature at 2-m, Maximum air temperature at 2-m, Precipitation	1 km	Monthly	(Thornton et al., 2022)
NLDAS	Air temperature at 2-m, Precipitation	0.125 °	Monthly	(Xia et al., 2012)
ERA5-Land	Air temperature at 2-m, , Latent heat, Sensible heat	9 km	Monthly	(Muñoz-Sabater et al., 2021)
NCEP Stage IV	Precipitation	4 km	Monthly	(Lin and Mitchell, 2005)

279

280 Observational and reanalysis data from multiple sources have been used to evaluate WRF
 281 simulation results (Table 2). We select 12 paired sites from the Automated Surface Observing System
 282 (ASOS) to acquire 5-minute 2-meter air temperature (Ta) and 2-meter dew point temperature over the urban
 283 and rural area in the GLR (<https://www.ncei.noaa.gov>; last accessed: November 2023). The 2-meter relative
 284 humidity (RH) is derived from Ta and dew point. We compute hourly averages of Ta and RH from the 5-
 285 minute data to match the hourly WRF outputs.

286
 287 **Table 3** AmeriFlux site information (LCF: land cover type; DBF: deciduous broadleaf tree; MF: mixed
 288 forest; NEON: National Ecological Observatory Network)

Site ID	Latitude	Longitude	LCF	PI(s)	DOI
US-xST	45.5089	-89.5864	DBF	NEON	https://doi.org/10.17190/AMF/1617737
US-xTR	45.4937	-89.5857	DBF	NEON	https://doi.org/10.17190/AMF/1634886
US-WCr	45.8059	-90.0799	DBF	Ankur Desai	https://doi.org/10.17190/AMF/1246111
US-xUN	46.2339	-89.5373	MF	NEON	https://doi.org/10.17190/AMF/1617741
US-PFa	45.9459	-90.2723	MF	Ankur Desai	https://doi.org/10.17190/AMF/1246090
US-Syv	46.242	-89.3477	MF	Ankur Desai	https://doi.org/10.17190/AMF/1246106

289
 290 In addition, we collect measurements of latent heat (LH) and sensible heat (SH) from six flux tower
 291 sites provided by AmeriFlux (<http://ameriflux.lbl.gov>; last accessed: November 2023). Initially, 16
 292 AmeriFlux sites have been selected within our study domain for the JJA 2018 period, which included
 293 measurements over grassland, mixed forest, and deciduous broadleaf forest. However, ten sites are filtered
 294 out because their land cover types differ from the dominant ones used in WRF-CTSM. The latitudes and
 295 longitudes of selected sites have been documented in Table 3. The hourly LH and SH data from AmeriFlux
 296 have been reduced to daily averages to validate the model simulation of surface energy fluxes.

297 We also acquire reanalysis datasets to evaluate the model performance in simulating the climate
 298 variables and energy fluxes. All datasets are resampled using bilinear interpolation to a 4 km resolution to

299 align with the WRF grids. We employ the Daymet dataset from <https://daymet.ornl.gov> (last accessed:
300 October 2023), which provides daily, gridded (1 km × 1 km) estimates of solar radiation, 2-meter maximum
301 (Tmax) and minimum (Tmin) temperature, precipitation (PRE), snow water equivalent, and water vapor
302 across the CONUS (Thornton et al., 2022). It uses local regression algorithms to interpolate and extrapolate
303 daily meteorological observations from Global Historical Climatology Network (GHCN). Daymet
304 considers the effects of elevation on climate and generates daily meteorological variables for a particular
305 grid cell using the weighted linear regression-based approach. We download monthly Tmax, Tmin, and
306 precipitation from Daymet version 4.5, and average the temperatures to compare against model simulated
307 daily mean Ta.

308 Monthly Ta from the North American Land Data Assimilation System version 2 (NLDAS) with
309 Noah LSM is used as an additional source of reanalysis data to evaluate WRF-ELM. These data are
310 available beginning in 1979 at a 0.125° resolution (Xia et al., 2012). NLDAS constructed a forcing dataset
311 from a daily gauge-based precipitation analysis, bias-corrected shortwave radiation, and surface
312 meteorology reanalyses from North American Regional Reanalysis (NARR) to drive four different LSMs
313 to derive surface fluxes and state variables. We acquire the product derived using the Noah model
314 (<https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov>; last accessed: October 2023) because it is one of the most commonly used LSMs
315 and has been frequently coupled with climate and atmospheric models.

316 The ERA5-Land reanalysis provides surface variables at the 0.1° x 0.1° resolution (Muñoz-Sabater,
317 2019). The data are produced under the offline mode forced by meteorological fields from ERA5 (Muñoz-
318 Sabater et al., 2021), without coupling to the atmospheric module of the ECMWF's Integrated Forecasting
319 System. ERA5-Land datasets have also been widely used for a variety of land condition assessments (Pelosi
320 et al., 2020; Stefanidis et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2022b). We acquire monthly Ta, SH, and LH in ERA5-
321 Land from Google Earth Engine (collection ECMWF/ERA5_LAND/MONTHLY_AGGR; last accessed:
322 October 2023).

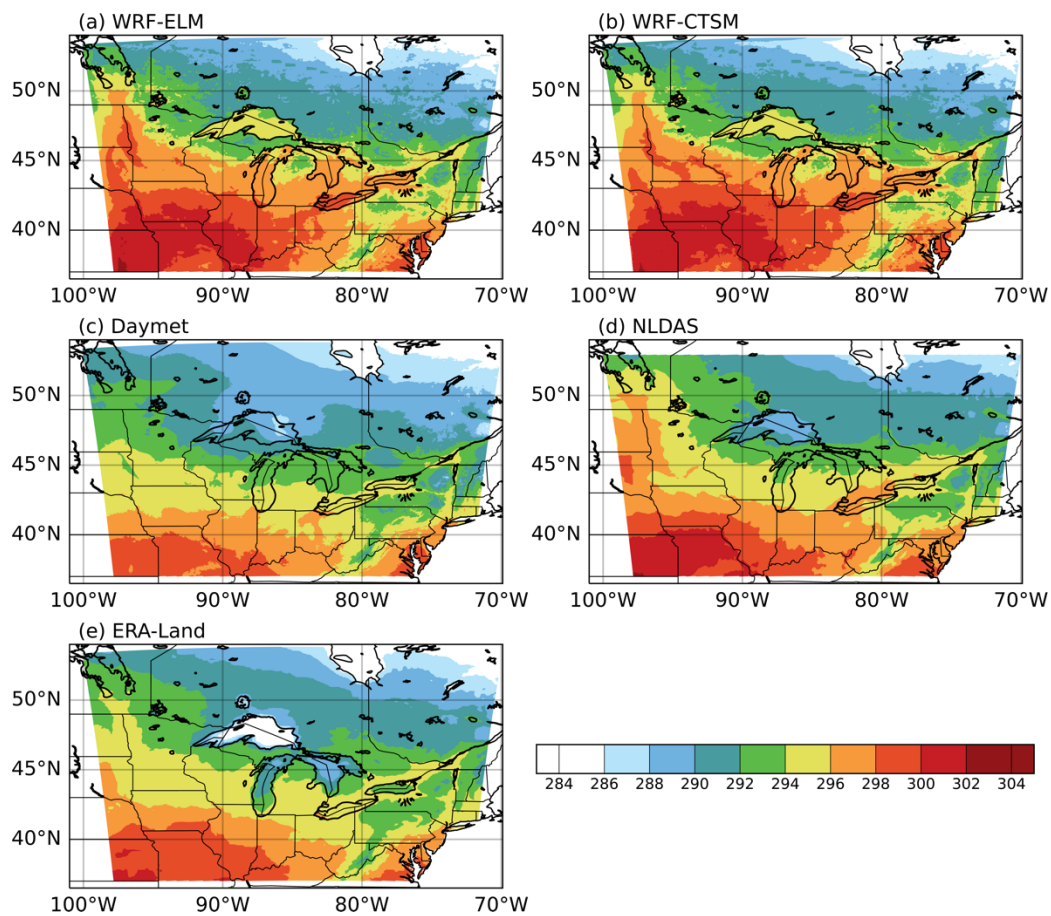
323 Lastly, we acquire precipitation data from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction
324 (NCEP) Stage IV dataset (Lin and Mitchell, 2005), a gridded product with 4 km spatial and hourly temporal

325 resolution that covers the period from 2002 to the present. NCEP compiles the Stage IV product using data
326 from 140 radars and approximately 5,500 gauges across the CONUS. Stage IV provides highly accurate
327 precipitation estimates, particularly for medium to heavy precipitation, and has therefore been widely used
328 as a reference for precipitation evaluation (Nelson et al., 2016).

329

330 3.3 Results

331 3.3.1 Temperature



332

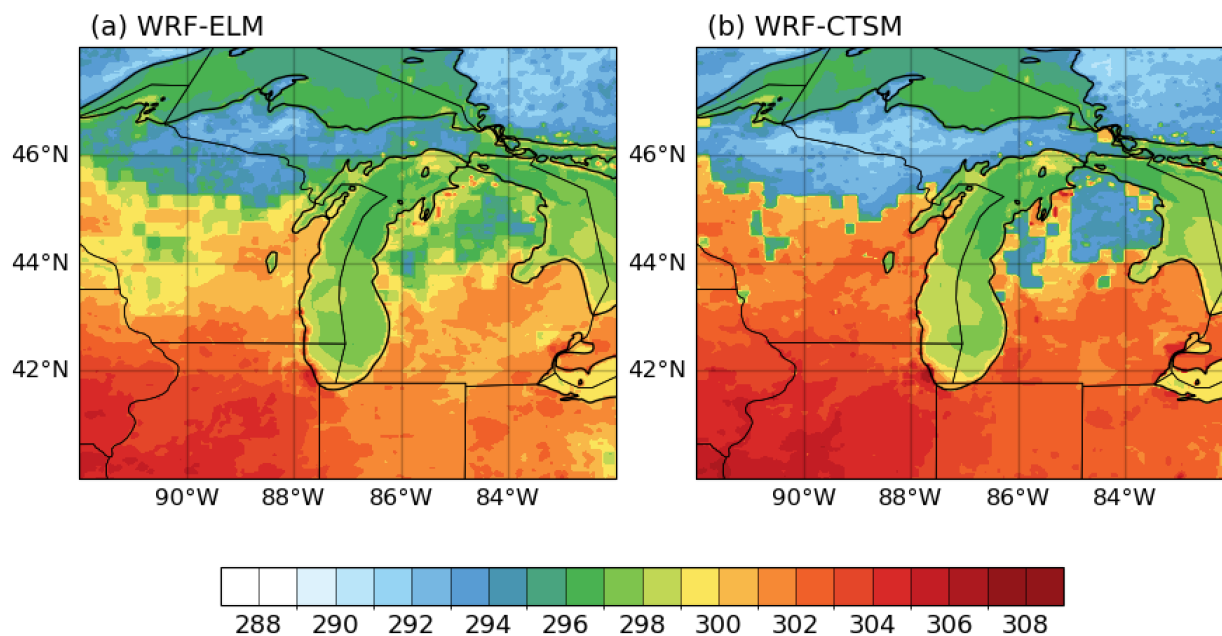
333 **Figure 6** June-July-August mean 2-m air temperature (K) in (a) WRF-ELM, (b) WRF-CTSM, (c) Daymet,
334 (d) NLDAS, and (e) ERA-Land. The numbers on the top right of (c)-(f) indicate the spatial correlation
335 coefficient between each reanalysis product and the two simulation results.

336

337 **Table 4** Evaluation metrics of June-July-August 2-m air temperature between each model result and the
 338 reanalysis product. CORR: spatial correlation coefficient; RMSE: Root mean square error.

		Daymet	NLDAS	ERA-Land
WRF-ELM	Bias	1.70	0.34	1.20
	CORR	0.94	0.94	0.86
	RMSE	2.18	1.43	2.30
WRF-CTSM	Bias	1.79	0.43	1.29
	CORR	0.94	0.93	0.86
	RMSE	2.30	1.57	2.40

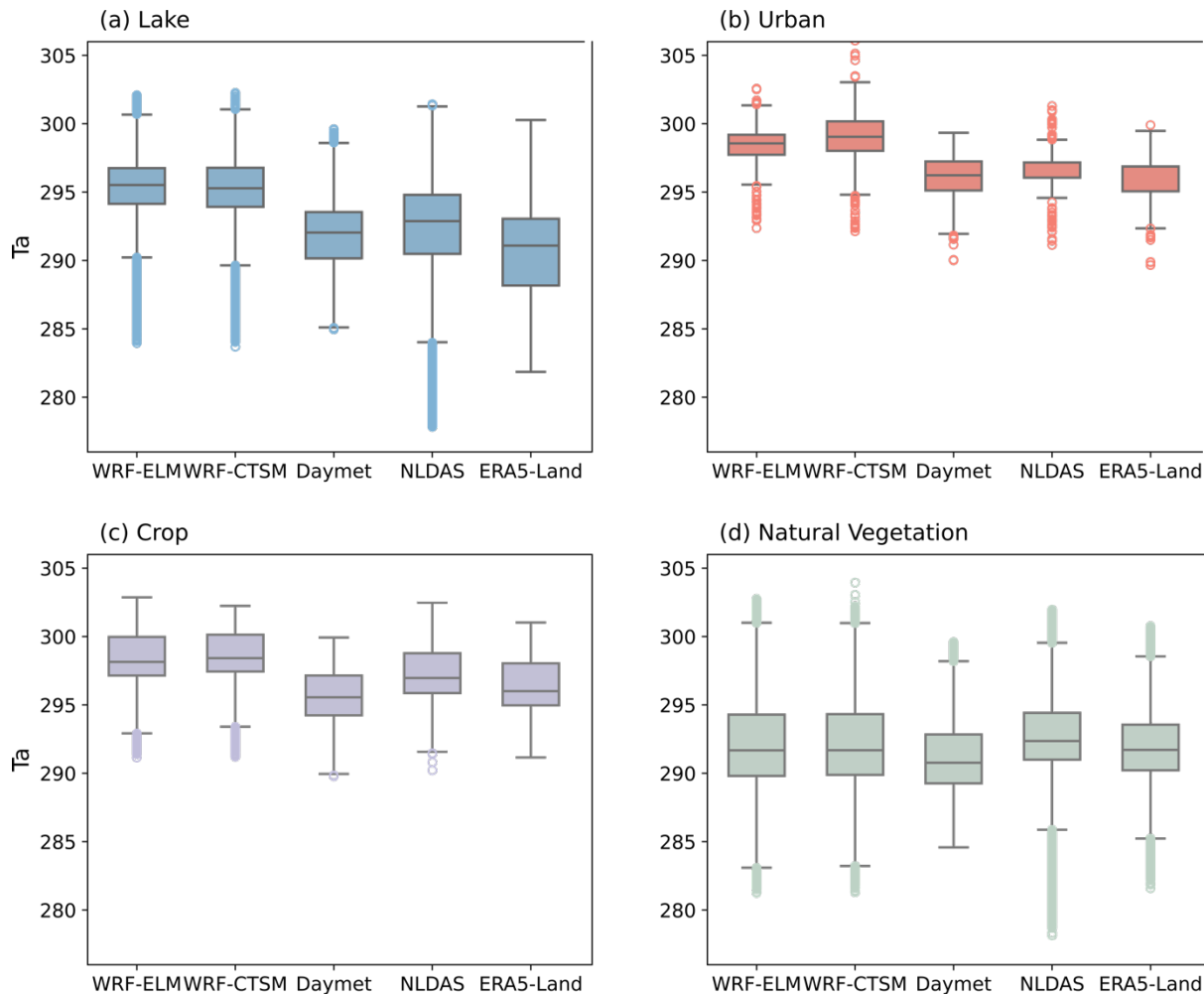
339



340
 341 **Figure 7** June-July-August mean skin temperature (K) in (a) WRF-ELM, (b) WRF-CTSM, zoomed-in view
 342 focuses on the area surrounding Lake Michigan

343
 344 The spatial distribution of T_a from the WRF-ELM and WRF-CTSM models, along with reanalysis
 345 data such as Daymet, NLDAS, and ERA5-Land, is illustrated in Figure 6. Both WRF-ELM and WRF-
 346 CTSM have reasonably captured the spatial pattern observed in the reanalysis datasets, demonstrating a
 347 spatial correlation coefficient (CORR) ranging from 0.86 to 0.95 (Table 4). The highest CORR is observed
 348 with Daymet, while the lowest one is with ERA5-Land. Both models exhibit a warm bias compared to

349 reanalysis products. However, WRF-ELM shows a slightly lower bias and RMSE compared with WRF-
 350 CTSM (Table 4). Additionally, WRF-ELM displays a smoother gradient in comparison to WRF-CTSM,
 351 particularly over the GLR where needleleaf trees, broadleaf trees, grasses, and croplands coexist (Fig. 7).



352
 353 **Figure 8** Boxplots of June-July-August 2-m air temperature (K) over (a) lake, (b) urban, (c) crop, and (d)
 354 natural vegetation in simulations and reanalysis products.

355
 356 **Table 5** June-July-August 2-m air temperature over each land unit in simulations and reanalyses.

	WRF-ELM	WRF-CTSM	Daymet	NLDAS	ERA5-Land
Lake	295.5	295.4	292.1	292.3	290.6

Urban	298.5	299.0	296.2	296.7	296.0
Crop	298.4	298.6	295.8	297.4	296.5
Natural Vegetation	292.6	292.6	291.7	292.9	292.4

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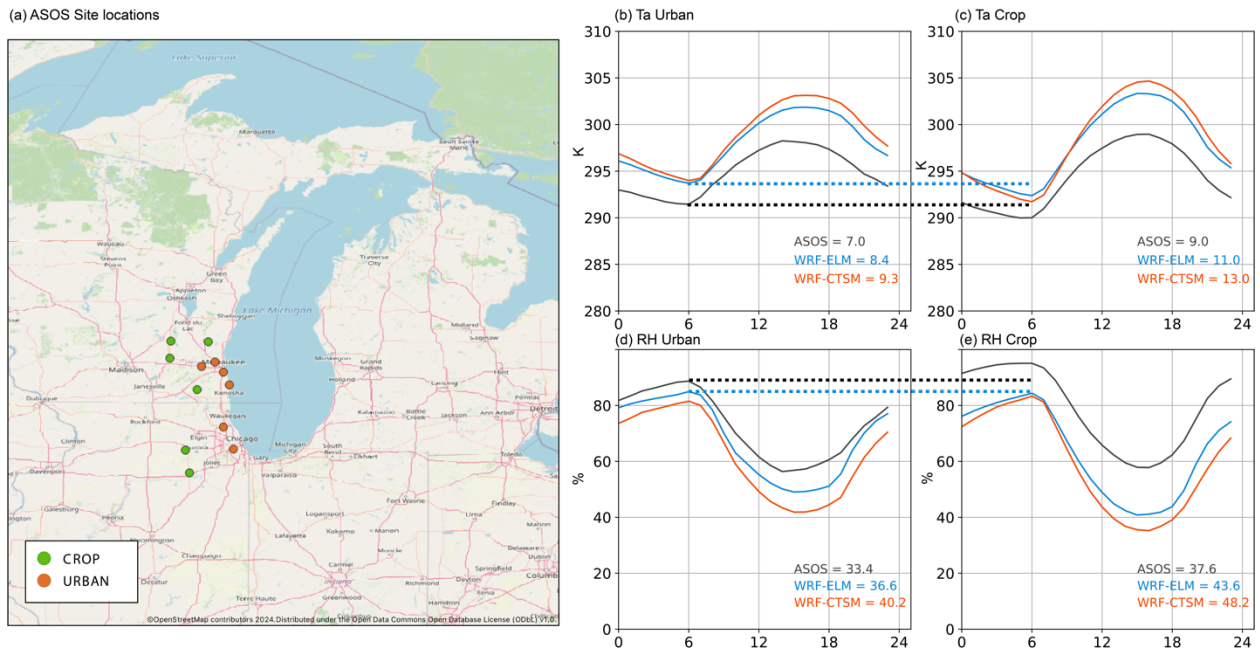
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364

Despite the overall good performance of model simulation of Ta, it is slightly different among different land units (Fig. 8). The largest warm bias is found over the lake surface, in which both models have overestimated Ta by 3-5 K (Table 5, Fig. 8). For urban and crop areas, the WRF-ELM and WRF-CTSM show a slightly warmer temperature by 2-3 K than all reanalysis data, which makes sense since reanalysis datasets do not capture urban-scale warming signals (Chen et al., 2024). The Ta over the natural vegetation is well captured, with the average value in both models within the range of average Ta over all datasets.



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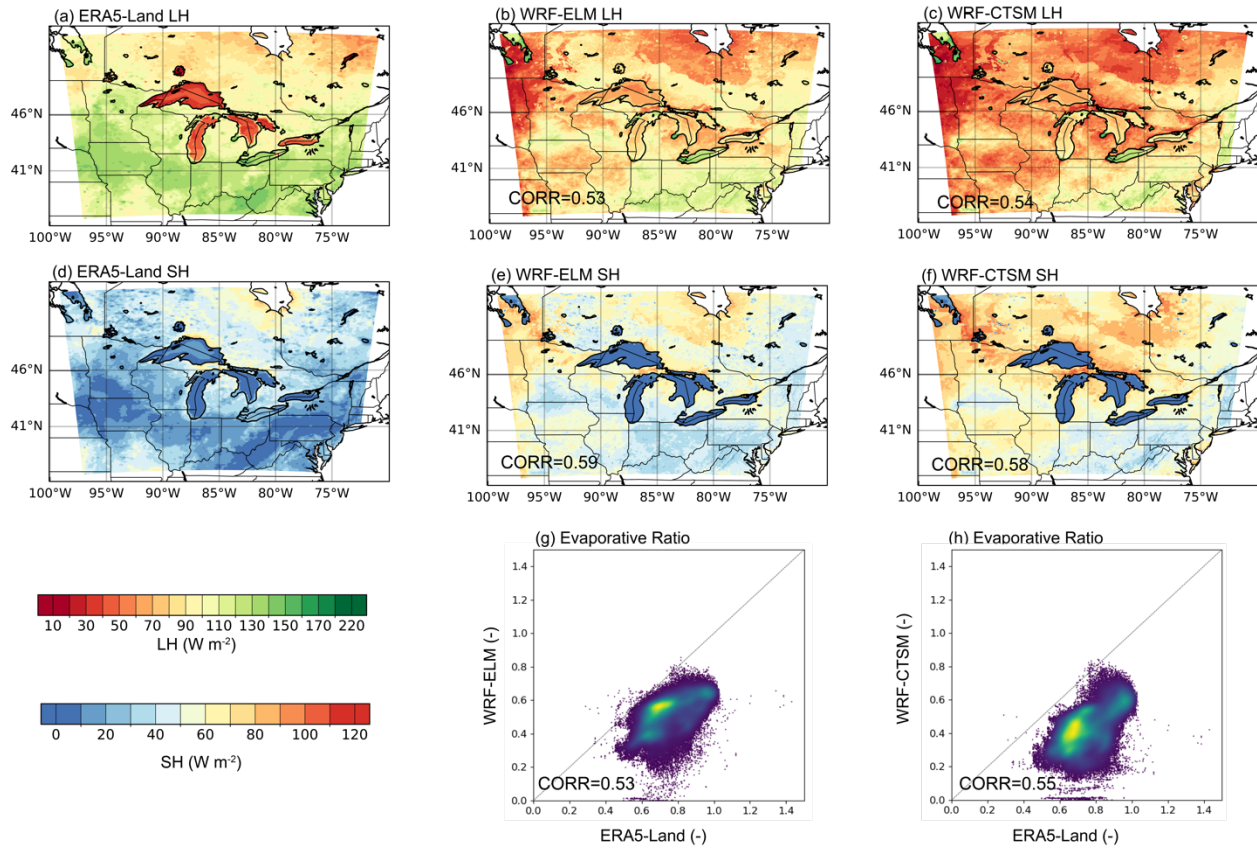
Figure 9 (a) The location of ASOS sites. (b-c) June-July-August averaged hourly 2-meter air temperature over (b) urban and (c) crop land units for ASOS, WRF-ELM, and WRF-CTSM. (d-e) The same as (b-c) but for 2-meter relative humidity. The numbers in (b-e) indicate the diurnal ranges of air temperature and

369 relative humidity from ASOS, WRF-ELM, and WRF-CTSM. The dash lines highlight the nighttime Ta and
370 RH when urban and crop contrasts are significant.

371
372 We use ASOS sites to investigate the representation of urban and lake effects on air temperature
373 and relative humidity over the metropolitan area, emphasizing the interaction between the urban heat island
374 (UHI; Rizwan et al., 2008) and lake breeze in WRF-ELM and WRF-CTSM. Six urban sites along the west
375 coast of Lake Michigan were selected, paired with six adjacent crop sites as reference points (Fig. 9a).
376 Compared to the rural crop sites, the urban sites exhibit higher minimum Ta during the night, as urban areas
377 retain more heat during the daytime and gradually release after sunset. During late morning to noon, the
378 lake breeze tends to cool urban air, resulting in a lower daily maximum Ta than observed in crop areas
379 (Wang et al., 2023). In the afternoon, urban sites show a more gradual decline in Ta compared to rural sites,
380 driven by the cumulative heating effect of solar radiation absorption and the heat release by urban materials
381 throughout the day (Soltani and Sharifi, 2017). This characteristic of urban areas leads to a smaller diurnal
382 temperature range of 7.0 K, compared to a 9.0 K range over crop sites (Figs. 9b-c). The UDI effect is also
383 evident in 2m RH observations from ASOS, with urban areas showing lower RH values at night (Figs. 9d-
384 e).

385 Both WRF-ELM and WRF-CTSM capture the warmer nighttime Ta due to the UHI effect and the
386 cooler daytime Ta caused by the lake breeze over urban sites, adequately reproducing the smaller diurnal
387 range. WRF simulations, particularly WRF-ELM, reasonably capture urban RH at night, but both models
388 underestimate RH over crop areas, so the UDI is not well captured in the simulations. Notably, WRF-ELM
389 generally exhibits smaller biases in both Ta and RH compared to WRF-CTSM (Fig. 9). However, both
390 models systematically overestimate T2 and underestimate RH in both urban and crop areas, suggesting a
391 persistent warm and dry bias need to be further investigated in the ELM and CTSM component.

392
393 **3.3.2 Energy fluxes**



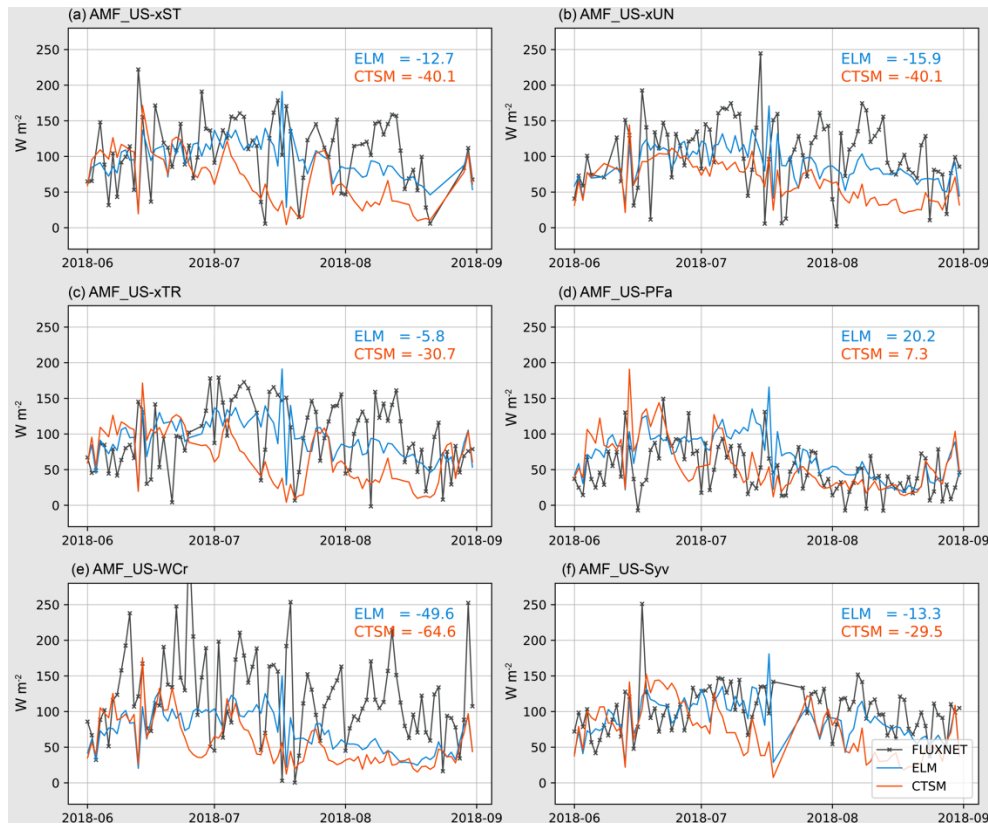
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395 Figure 10 (a-c) Spatial distribution of latent heat in (a) ERA5-Land (b) WRF-ELM, and (c) WRF-CTSM;

396 (d-f) Spatial distribution of sensible heat in (d) ERA5-Land (e) WRF-ELM, and (f) WRF-CTSM; (g-h)

397 Comparison of evaporative ratio between (g) WRF-ELM and ERA5-Land and (h) WRF-CTSM and ERA5-

398 Land over the natural vegetation grids.



399
 400 **Figure 11** June-July-August averaged daily LH fluxes from six AmeriFlux sites and the corresponding
 401 model grids. The numbers indicate biases between WRF-ELM (or WRF-CTSM) and AmeriFlux.

402
 403 We evaluated the simulated LH and SH fluxes from the WRF model simulations against ERA5-
 404 Land reanalysis data. The spatial correlation coefficients (CORR) range from 0.53 to 0.58 (Fig. 10a–f).
 405 Overall, both models capture the LH gradient across the study domain, with higher LH observed in the
 406 southern region and lower LH in the northern region. Similarly, both the reanalysis data and the models
 407 show a higher SH in the northern region and lower SH in the south. A systematic underestimation of LH
 408 (ranging between 22-35 $W m^{-2}$) and overestimation of SH (averaging 21-31 $W m^{-2}$) are evident in both
 409 WRF-ELM and WRF-CTSM. The observed evaporative fraction ranges from 0.6 to 0.8 in most vegetated
 410 grids; however, the corresponding simulated evaporative fraction is approximately 0.6. This evaluation
 411 further confirms that our models tend to underestimate LH fluxes while overestimating SH fluxes. These
 412 biases may be largely attributed to the surface parameters uncertainties used in the current simulations, such

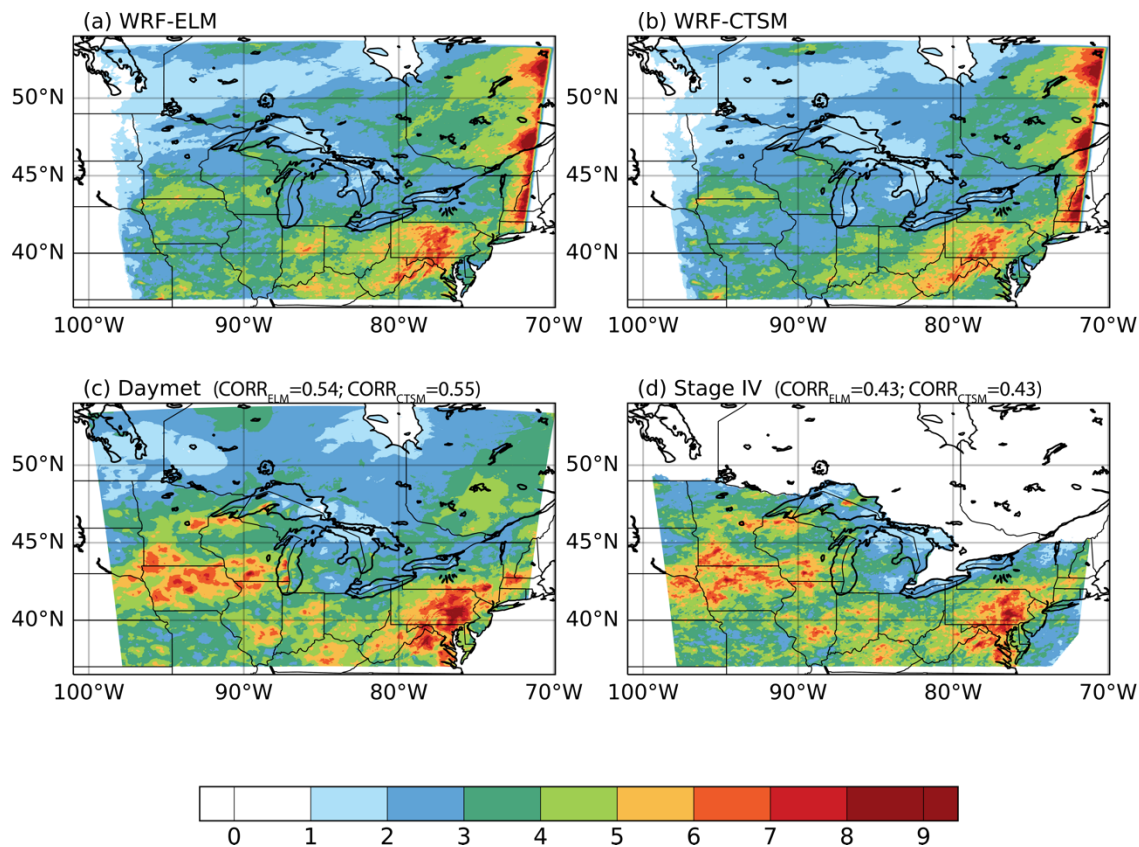
413 as LAI or roughness length. These parameters have not been thoroughly calibrated in coupled E3SM
414 simulations focusing on the Great Lakes region.

415 A further comparison of daily LH values from six AmeriFlux sites over deciduous broadleaf forests
416 is illustrated in Fig. 11. WRF-ELM exhibits a smaller bias in reproducing the magnitude of LH than WRF-
417 CTSM; however, neither model captures the temporal variations well. Comparing regional model
418 simulations with site-level observations remains a consistent difficulty due to the inherent scale mismatch
419 between point observations and grid-based simulations. Additionally, since we examined a relatively short
420 period without interannual variability or seasonal cycles, the temporal variations of surface energy are
421 mostly related to the simulation of cloud and precipitation variations, which are among the most uncertain
422 parts of regional climate simulations.

423

424 3.3.3 Precipitation

425



426

427 **Figure 12** The spatial distribution of June-July-August precipitation (mm d^{-1}) in (a) WRF-ELM, (b) WRF-
428 CTSM, (c) Daymet, and (d) ST4. The numbers on the top right of (c)-(d) indicate the CORR between each
429 observational product and the two simulation results.

430

431 Figure 12 presents the spatial distribution of precipitation from models and observations. It is
432 important to note that Stage IV primarily focuses on the CONUS region, while significant areas of our
433 simulation domain in Canada remain uncovered. Compared with the Daymet ($\text{PRE}_{\text{Daymet}} = 3.55 \text{ mm d}^{-1}$),
434 both WRF-ELM and WRF-CTSM capture the regional mean value ($\text{PRE}_{\text{WRF-ELM}} = 3.14 \text{ mm d}^{-1}$ and $\text{PRE}_{\text{WRF-CTSM}} = 2.96 \text{ mm d}^{-1}$) and the spatial distribution of precipitation, exhibiting CORR ranging from 0.43 to 0.55.
435 The precipitation over the southeastern part of our study domain is well captured while that on the western
436 side of Lake Michigan is slightly underestimated, with WRF-ELM demonstrating a lower bias than WRF-
437 CTSM. This underestimation of precipitation aligns with the underestimation of latent heat and
438 evapotranspiration, suggesting that suppressed evapotranspiration may reduce moisture availability and
439 transport, particularly to the western GLR. Conversely, an overestimation of precipitation is evident along
440 the eastern boundary of our study domain.

442

443 **4. Discussion and Conclusions**

444 This study introduces a framework integrating the state-of-the-art land surface model, ELM, with
445 the widely used regional weather and climate model, WRF, named WRF-ELM. Moving beyond the
446 traditional way of coupling between LSMs and WRF through internal subroutines within the WRF codebase.
447 We adopt the LILAC-ESMF framework, a modular approach which maintains the integrity of the ELM's
448 source code structure and facilitates the transfer of future developments in ELM to WRF-ELM. After
449 coupling the two models, simulations using WRF-ELM have been conducted over the Great Lakes Region,
450 and their performance has been evaluated against observations and reanalysis data from multiple sources
451 and the WRF-CTSM simulations. These model simulations have been conducted at a resolution of $4 \text{ km} \times$
452 4 km , facilitating direct model validation and verification with various data sources. The use of seasonal

453 mean simulation outputs and diurnal cycles showcases the capabilities of WRF-ELM in representing the
454 temporal and spatial variations of water and energy cycles over the Great Lakes Region.

455 In general, our findings suggest that the newly coupled WRF-ELM effectively captures the spatial
456 distribution of surface state variables and fluxes across the GLR. The model displays a smoother gradient
457 in surface skin temperature than WRF-CTSM, due to the representation of sub-grid features within grid
458 cells. The model's performance is particularly reasonable over the natural vegetation, while a minor warm
459 bias is detected over crop and urban grids.

460 The slight overestimation of air temperature in crop regions could potentially be mitigated by
461 incorporating a more realistic representation of crops, such as crop rotation and irrigation. Additionally, the
462 application of spatially varying crop parameters closely captures the observed magnitude and seasonality
463 of carbon and energy fluxes compared to the observations (Sinha et al., 2023). However, these
464 improvements have only been tested using the land-only ELM. Our generalized coupling framework
465 supports future studies of sophisticated crop-atmosphere interactions at finer spatial resolution than those
466 achieved with coarse GCM simulations.

467 In addition, the UHI effects in cities surrounding the GLR are generally captured in both WRF-
468 ELM and WRF-CTSM, as indicated by the warmer night temperature in the cities. While there is an
469 overestimation of UHI compared to ASOS, this could be due to the simplified urban representation in ELM.
470 For instance, the urban surface emissivity in CLM, and thus ELM due to the shared model structure, is
471 reported to be noticeably lower than the values derived from satellites, resulting in a surface UHI effect that
472 is significantly higher than satellite-derived values (Chakraborty et al., 2021). Another potential
473 contributing factor could be the lack of representation of urban vegetation. The presence of vegetation tends
474 to mitigate the UHI effect (Paschalis et al., 2021) , and its absence in the urban subgrid would lead to an
475 overestimation of UHI values, all else remaining equal.

476 Our research develops the WRF-ELM framework and provides the first assessment of its
477 capabilities through high-resolution model simulations that fully capture expected patterns of land-
478 atmosphere interactions. Based on the validation and assessment of WRF-ELM results, this study delivers

479 a baseline reference, identifies common model biases in high-resolution regional applications, and proposes
480 pathways for subsequent model development for ELM, as well as the coupled model. The coupled model
481 provides an opportunity to investigate the impact of more sophisticated land processes, such as plant
482 hydraulics, dynamic vegetation distributions, and soil biogeochemistry, on weather and climate predictions.

483

484 **Author contributions:** HH designed the study, implemented the parameterization, performed the
485 simulations, analyzed the results, and drafted the original paper. YQ designed the study, discussed the results,
486 and edited the paper. GB, TT, BS, YL, and WS helped with the coupling design. JW, TT, DH, JL, ZY, PX,
487 EC and RH discussed the results and edited the paper.

488

489 **Code Availability:** The description and codes of E3SM v2.1 (including ELM v2.1) are publicly available
490 at <https://doi.org/10.11578/E3SM/dc.20230110.5> and [https://github.com/E3SM-](https://github.com/E3SM-Project/E3SM/releases/tag/v2.1.0)
491 [Project/E3SM/releases/tag/v2.1.0](https://github.com/E3SM/releases/tag/v2.1.0) (last access: 12 May 2023), respectively. Starting from ELM 2.1, the
492 model codes for WRF-ELM coupling described in this paper are available at
493 <https://github.com/hhllbao93/ELM> and <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.11289807> (Huang, 2024).

494

495 **Competing interests:** At least one of the (co-)authors is a member of the editorial board of *Geoscientific*
496 *Model Development*.

497

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