WRF Simulations of the Urban Circulation in the Salt Lake City Area for CO2 Modeling

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ABSTRACT

A recent National Research Council report highlighted the potential utility of atmospheric observations and models for detecting trends in concentrated emissions from localized regions, such as urban areas. The Salt Lake City (SLC), Utah, area was chosen for a pilot study to determine the feasibility of using ground-based sensors to identify trends in anthropogenic urban emissions over a range of time scales (from days to years). The Weather Research and Forecasting model (WRF) was combined with a Lagrangian particle dispersion model and an emission inventory to model carbon dioxide (CO2) concentrations that can be compared with in situ measurements. An accurate representation of atmospheric transport requires a faithful modeling of the meteorological conditions. This study examines in detail the ability of different configurations of WRF to reproduce the observed local and mesoscale circulations, and the diurnal evolution of the planetary boundary layer (PBL) in the SLC area. Observations from the Vertical Transport and Mixing field experiment in 2000 were used to examine the sensitivity of WRF results to changes in the PBL parameterization and to the inclusion of an urban canopy model (UCM). Results show that for urban locations there is a clear benefit from parameterizing the urban canopy for simulation of the PBL and near-surface conditions, particularly for temperature evolution at night. Simulation of near-surface CO2 concentrations for a 2-week period in October 2006 showed that running WRF at high resolution (1.33 km) and with a UCM also improves the simulation of observed increases in CO2 during the early evening.

1. Introduction

Monitoring of current and modeling of future emissions of anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO2) are important components of climate change research and policy. Accurate estimates of CO2 emissions require a combination of approaches: using inventories of known anthropogenic and natural sources (“bottom up” approach), analyzing flux measurements at selected sites, and combining concentration measurements with transport and dispersion computations to constrain prior estimates of sources (“top down” approach).

A recent National Research Council (2010) report highlighted the potential utility of atmospheric observations and models for detecting trends in concentrated emissions from localized regions, such as urban areas, where enhancements in greenhouse gas concentrations are readily detectable in the atmosphere. The Salt Lake City (SLC), Utah, area was chosen for a pilot study to determine the feasibility of using ground-based sensors to identify trends in anthropogenic urban emissions over a range of time scales (from days to years). The Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF; Skamarock and Klemp 2008) model was combined with the Stochastic Time-Inverted Lagrangian Transport particle dispersion model (WRF-STILT; Lin et al. 2003; Nehrkorn et al. 2010) and an anthropogenic emission inventory (the Vulcan Project; Gurney et al. 2009) to model CO2 concentrations, which were then compared with in situ measurements. Computations using this modeling system were performed for four approximately month-long time periods in 2006. Results from that study and their implications for emissions monitoring are described in McKain et al. (2012).
In this paper we focus on the role of the WRF mesoscale model in the performance of this urban CO2 modeling system. In particular, we examine the ability of WRF simulations with varying resolutions and sophistication to reproduce the observed local and mesoscale circulations and the diurnal evolution of the atmospheric boundary layer in the SLC area. Verification of the WRF simulations is performed using both standard meteorological observations from the period covered by our CO2 simulation and field observations from a field experiment in October of 2000.

The Vertical Transport and Mixing (VTMX; Doran et al. 2002) field-experiment dataset from 2000 provided the opportunity for a detailed assessment of the WRF performance in the SLC area and guided the selection of model configurations for urban CO2 modeling. A series of sensitivity experiments was performed for two of the VTMX intensive observing periods (IOPs). The WRF configurations were chosen to compare the performance of different PBL schemes with, and without, use of an urban canopy model (UCM; see section 2). On the basis of the results of these comparisons, one configuration was chosen for an evaluation of the end-to-end WRF-STILT modeling system for a selected time period in 2006.

The sensitivity tests complement earlier modeling studies using VTMX data. For example, an intercomparison of different mesoscale-model simulations (Zhong and Fast 2003) found that the three models examined [the fifth-generation Pennsylvania State University–National Center for Atmospheric Research Mesoscale Model (MM5), the Meso Eta Model, and the Regional

![Diagram of four nested WRF model domains]

**FIG. 1.** Outline of the four nested WRF model domains.

**TABLE 1.** Overview of the WRF configuration that is common to all high-resolution WRF runs. Here, RRTMG is the Rapid Radiative Transfer Model for GCMs; $u$ and $v$ are the east–west and north–south wind components, $T$ is temperature, and $q$ is humidity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Land surface</td>
<td>Noah (Chen and Dudhia 2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Longwave radiation</td>
<td>RRTMG (Iacono et al. 2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shortwave radiation</td>
<td>RRTMG (Iacono et al. 2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microphysics</td>
<td>Lin et al. (Chen and Sun 2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convection</td>
<td>Grell–Devenyi (Grell and Dévényi 2002) (only domains d01 and d02)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nesting</td>
<td>Two-way, d01 (36 km), d02 (12 km), d03 (4 km), and d04 (1.33 km)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data assimilation</td>
<td>Use analysis nudging in the outer grid only; perform 30-h forecasts initialized every 24 h (at 0000 UTC), combine hours 7–30 from successive runs for a continuous time series</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nudging</td>
<td>Analysis; $u$, $v$, $T$, and $q$ at all levels above PBL, every 3 h, 1-h relaxation time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time stepping</td>
<td>Third-order Runge–Kutta; four short time steps per long time step</td>
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<tr>
<td>Advection</td>
<td>Fifth-order horizontal, third-order vertical positive-definite advection for moisture and scalars</td>
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<tr>
<td>Diffusion</td>
<td>Second-order horizontal diffusion using Smagorinsky first-order closure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Damping</td>
<td>No upper-level or vertical velocity damping; default values for divergence and external model damping</td>
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</table>
Atmospheric Modeling System (RAMS) were each successful at reproducing the general aspects of the mesoscale circulation, but all had important deficiencies in capturing the diurnal cycle of the near-surface temperature. That study examined the same IOPs (7 and 10) used in the study presented here. The performance of a high-resolution version of the Coupled Ocean–Atmosphere Mesoscale Prediction System (COAMPS) model with a multilayer UCM was examined by Chin et al. (2005) for IOP 10. They found that including the UCM improved some aspects of the simulations (in particular, winds), but not others (temperature).

The modeling tools, input and verification datasets, and experimental design are described in the next section. Results from the WRF sensitivity tests with VTMX field-experiment verification data are described in section 3a. Results from WRF simulations for 2006, using both a low-resolution configuration and one of the tested high-resolution configurations with a UCM, are described in section 3b. The implications of these results for modeling and monitoring of urban emissions of CO₂ are discussed in section 4.

2. Models, data, and experimental design

a. WRF configuration

The Advanced Research version of the WRF model was used for these experiments. A total of four nested domains, with resolutions down to 1.33 km, were centered over the SLC area (Fig. 1). WRF was run with only the three outer domains for most simulations during 2006; this configuration is referred to as low resolution in the following. For the VTMX sensitivity runs, all four domains were used. All WRF runs used 41 vertical levels, with 11 layers below 2 km. The North American Regional Analysis (NARR) was used to provide initial and lateral boundary conditions for all WRF runs. A summary of WRF configurations common to all high-resolution WRF runs is shown in Table 1. For the WRF sensitivity runs, the effect of varying the planetary boundary layer (PBL) parameterization and the urban surface were investigated by conducting the sensitivity test runs summarized in Table 2. Two PBL schemes were selected as the most widely used representatives of first-order and higher-order turbulence closure schemes: the Yonsei University model (YSU; Hong et al. 2006), a first-order-closure, eddy-diffusivity turbulence scheme that incorporates the effects of nonlocal mixing (hereinafter Eddy), and the Mellor–Yamada–Janji technique (MYJ; Mellor and Yamada 1982; Janjić 2002), a 1.5-order-closure scheme that is based on prognostic turbulent kinetic energy (hereinafter Turb). The low-resolution WRF runs used the same configuration as shown in Table 1 (except only for domains d01–d03) and the eddy configuration shown in Table 2 (except that version 3.1.1 of WRF was used for low-resolution runs). Comparisons in the literature among YSU, MYJ, and other PBL schemes have been conducted for different locations and times of year, with varying results. For example, Otkin and Greenwald (2008) found insufficient vertical mixing, particularly for the MYJ scheme, in simulations over the North Atlantic Ocean, whereas Bowman (2009) noted too much mixing in simulations of the mountainous Pacific Northwest, regardless of the PBL scheme, in both MM5 and WRF. In summertime simulations over the central United States, Hu et al. (2010) attributed larger positive temperature and negative moisture biases in MYJ (as compared with YSU) to an underestimate of vertical mixing caused by the lack of nonlocal mixing in the MYJ scheme.

For an accurate representation of the urban environment, it is necessary to incorporate interactions between the urban landscape (e.g., residential and commercial buildings of varying heights and paved surfaces) and the overlying atmosphere. While a detailed treatment of flow around individual buildings cannot be represented in a mesoscale model, bulk effects of the urban “canopy” (in analogy to vegetative canopies such as forests)
can be represented by UCMs. WRF includes two options for UCMs: one is a single-layer treatment, which was chosen for this study. The other is a multilayer parameterization, which would require very high vertical resolution within the PBL and which is only compatible with the Boulac (Bougeault and Lacarrere 1989) second-order PBL scheme. An intercomparison of the WRF single- and multilayer UCMs within the COAMPS model for the New York City, New York, area (Holt and Pullen 2007) found no advantage of the added complexity and computational expense associated with the multilayer scheme. In a more recent study for the Houston, Texas, area Salamanca et al. (2011) found that single-layer schemes in WRF are sufficient unless anthropogenic heat sources due to air conditioning are a significant factor (which is not applicable to Salt Lake City in October). A detailed description of the single-layer UCM is provided in Chen et al. (2011).
Our experimental design includes two runs for each choice of the PBL scheme: one with the single-layer urban canopy parameterization (UCM) and one without it. (Hereinafter, the suffix -U is added to the corresponding UCM experiment name.) The two high-resolution runs without the UCM were completed with WRF, version 3.2. Runs with the UCM were completed with version 3.2.1, because the newer version included improvements specifically for the UCM. To take advantage of the UCM’s capabilities, it is important to correctly specify a large number of parameters that characterize the interaction between the urban landscape and the overlying atmosphere. Loridan et al. (2010) examined the response of the WRF UCM to changes in these parameters in an in-depth sensitivity study. For the current study, initialization of these parameters was based on the default parameters established for three categories of urban land-use types (Chen et al. 2011). Loridan and Grimmond (2012) more recently examined the performance of the WRF single-layer UCM in conjunction with the “Noah” surface layer parameterization (Chen and Dudhia 2001) in offline tests, using a variety of methods to specify the UCM parameters. A key parameter is the urban fraction of each grid cell (see Table 3), which determines the partitioning of surface fluxes between the urban (as computed by the UCM) and vegetated (as computed by Noah) portions. Loridan and Grimmond (2012) suggested the use of three urban categories, assigned to grid cells on the basis of morphological criteria (e.g., fraction of vegetated area) or observed flux ratios, and a new set of associated default UCM parameters. In the next section we describe the high-resolution land-use dataset needed for that application.

b. Land-use datasets

A high-resolution (1°, or approximately 30 m) land-use dataset that is based on 2001 National Land Cover Data (NLCD 2001) was obtained from the Multi-resolution Land Characteristics Consortium (MRLC; www.mrlc.gov). The MRLC dataset is based primarily on Landsat-5 and -7 imagery and is described in detail in Homer et al. (2004). It includes four urban land-use categories, which are determined by first applying an urban mask derived from ancillary datasets (population density, U.S. Census Bureau road data, and satellite-derived nighttime light data), followed by an urban density classification that is based on imperviousness derived from Landsat spectral data [for additional details, see Yang et al. (2003)]. These four NLCD land-use categories were assigned to one of three urban categories in WRF with corresponding urban fractions (Table 3). For the UCM simulations only, the land-use index values of grid points (within the area covered by domain d04) were modified to one of the three urban categories where applicable. The resulting blended land-use dataset is denoted by LU33, and the original land-use dataset (which contains just a single urban land-use category) is denoted by LU24. Comparison of the urban
regions of LU24 and LU33 (Fig. 2) shows that the new LU33 dataset adds considerable detail to the definition and extent of the urban regions in domain d04. In particular, low-density residential areas were added to previously nonurban grid points on the western side of SLC, most previous single-category urban grid points were replaced with low-density residential grid points, and high-density residential and commercial/industrial areas were added in the downtown area. The differences in the land-use maps are important in the innermost domain d04, but they are less significant in domains d01–d03 (not shown). In d01, the land-use differences appear as only several pixels within the entire domain. To isolate the effects of the updated WRF version and land-use dataset from those of the UCM, an additional experiment (Eddy-L) was conducted that was identical to Eddy-U in all respects except that the UCM was not activated.

c. VTMX data

The VTMX was a multi-institutional campaign that was conducted in the vicinity of Salt Lake City during October of 2000 (Doran et al. 2002) and provided the means for verifying upper-air fields of the different high-resolution WRF configurations listed in Table 2. A goal of the VTMX program (Doran et al. 2002) was to better understand the meteorological processes affecting transport and mixing in the atmosphere, with a focus on the nocturnal stable periods and the morning and evening transition periods, especially in urban valley areas. Doran et al. (2002) grouped the IOPs into two categories on the basis of the amount of modulation by the synoptic-scale flow on the smaller-scale drainage circulations, and one IOP from each category was selected for this study. IOP 7, from 2200 UTC 17 October to 1600 UTC 18 October, was characterized by quiescent synoptic-scale flow until about 1200 UTC yet sufficient insolation thereafter such that robust valley and mountain breezes developed (Zhong and Fast 2003). In contrast, daytime cloud cover and southerly surface winds associated with the approach of a synoptic-scale trough during IOP 10 (2200 UTC 25 October–1600 UTC 26 October) substantially reduced local effects.

Figure 3 shows the locations of VTMX upper-air stations and those Mesowest surface stations that underwent strong quality control. The three rawinsondes and three radar wind profilers available for IOPs 7 and 10 were located at different sites throughout the Salt Lake Valley. The rawinsondes (VX010, VX080, and VX120), located at the north end, center, and south end of the valley, respectively, provided profiles of wind, temperature, and humidity. Rawinsonde data frequency ranged from 1 to 4 h.

3. Results

WRF forecasts for the VTMX cases during October of 2000 are evaluated using the available field-experiment datasets to determine which model setup provides the best overall simulation of meteorological conditions, particularly for driving models of atmospheric transport and dispersion (section 3a). Evaluations using standard meteorological observations during a 2-week period in October of 2006 (section 3b) provide an indication as to what extent these results are representative for the time period of interest for CO₂ simulations.

a. October 2000 sensitivity experiments

A good indication of the sensitivity of WRF forecasts to the different model configurations is provided by an examination of spatial differences in near-surface variables that are important to atmospheric dispersion. Differences have been examined in 2-m temperature, PBL height, and 10-m wind speed.

The most pronounced and repeatable differences between model configurations are seen in the 2-m temperatures during the overnight hours. Figure 4 shows the differences in 2-m temperature between UCM and non-UCM forecasts for the Eddy configuration in the early
morning hours of 18 October (IOP 7). The consistent positive temperature differences over the Great Salt Lake and the mostly negative differences over nonurban land areas are related to changes in model versions (3.2 vs 3.2.1) rather than the UCM, since these differences are absent in Fig. 5, which shows the differences between the Eddy-U and Eddy-L configurations. Around the SLC area, the early-morning temperatures are predominantly colder using the UCM, because large urban areas were converted to low-density residential (light blue in Fig. 2) from their prior, single urban classification (dark blue in Fig. 2). A comparison with Fig. 5 shows that both the cooler temperatures in the eastern part of SLC and the warmer temperatures in the central part of SLC have a substantial component that is due to the use of the UCM. Although many potential factors play a role in how the UCM will respond to different urban surface types (e.g., Loridan and Grimmond 2012), a key influence is likely that low-density residential areas will cool faster at night than in the prior, single urban classification because the surface emissivity is higher. There are scattered positive differences in the Salt Lake City urban area (orange and red grid points in Fig. 4). These

![Figure 5](image1)

**Fig. 5.** As in Fig. 4, but between the Eddy configurations, Eddy-U (UCM) minus Eddy-L (no UCM, but same land use and WRF version as Eddy-U).

![Figure 6](image2)

**Fig. 6.** As in Fig. 4, but for differences between the Turb configurations, UCM minus no UCM.

![Figure 7](image3)

**Fig. 7.** Time series of forecast and observed temperatures for the (left) HOL and (right) UT3 stations for IOP 7.
correspond to grid points that were reclassified as low-density residential from some nonurban category or that were reclassified as high-density residential or industrial/commercial in the LU33 classification (yellow and red in Fig. 2). The 2-m temperature differences for the Turb-U versus Turb runs are shown in Fig. 6. The UCM leads to a more pronounced cooling over eastern SLC and less warming over the central SLC area in this case.
An intercomparison of all four runs is depicted in Fig. 7, which shows the diurnal cycle of 2-m temperature during IOP 7 at Mesowest stations in an urban area (HOL) and in a rural area (UT3). At the urban location, the nighttime temperatures in the Turb (shown in green) runs are warmer relative to the Eddy PBL scheme (shown in blue)—a difference that is seen in general in the urban areas. The more pronounced UCM-induced cooling (light vs dark lines) more than compensates for this difference, resulting in Turb-U nighttime...
Fig. 10. VX080 IOP-7 potential temperature profile plot at different sounding times for (top left) observations, (middle left) Eddy, (bottom left) Eddy-U, (middle right) Turb, and (bottom right) Turb-U.
temperatures that are the coldest of all four configurations and that are the closest to the observations in this case. As is to be expected, the UCM makes little difference at the rural location, and here both Eddy runs produce the coolest nighttime temperatures, in better agreement with the observations than are the Turb runs.

In contrast to the differences in overnight temperatures, daytime temperature differences between UCM and non-UCM model configurations, forced by solar heating and homogenized by boundary layer mixing, are much smaller (less than $1^\circ$–$2^\circ$C; not shown), regardless of PBL scheme. This is also evident in the time series at individual locations (Fig. 7).

The changes in 2-m temperatures are also reflected in corresponding differences in boundary layer height. Because the PBL typically collapses at night without solar heating of the surface, differences in PBL height between the model configurations are minimal at night. During the day, when the PBL depth is maintained by solar forcing, nonstationary, transient differences of up to a few hundred meters, both positive and negative, are present across the 1.33-km grid (not shown). As is the case for daytime temperatures, no significant systematic differences are apparent.

Spatial statistics were computed over all Mesowest stations with data that underwent strong quality-control measures (5–10 stations). Figures 8 and 9 depict bias and root-mean-square errors (RMSE) for 2-m temperature, 2-m dewpoint temperature, and 10-m wind speed for IOPs 7 and 10, respectively. For IOP 7, the UCM runs (light colors) have a smaller positive bias relative to the non-UCM runs (dark colors), particularly during the evening and nighttime periods: 8–15 and 24–30 h, respectively. This nocturnal difference is also reflected in the RMSE. This statistical result confirms the spatial difference pattern shown in Figs. 4 and 6 and the individual station results shown in Fig. 7. In contrast, for the synoptically disturbed IOP 10 (Fig. 9) the non-UCM temperature bias is smaller and the cooler UCM-run temperatures result in negative biases of similar magnitude.

![Fig. 11. Location of NWS surface stations in the innermost domain used for verification for October 2006. Axes are labeled with gridpoint indices, latitude and longitudes are shown as grid lines, and pixels are colored by land-use index according to the color scale, but for clarity only grid points over water (16) and in urban settings (1 and 31–33) are colored.](image-url)
magnitude. As a result, the RMSE is virtually identical for all experiments for IOP 10.

The RMSE and bias for wind fields are similar for runs using the same PBL scheme (unlike what was seen for temperature); dark and light lines of the same color tend to group together in the wind speed panels in Figs. 8 and 9. Overall, differences between the experiments are smaller for these fields than for temperature, with only
a slightly smaller bias and RMSE for the runs with the Eddy PBL scheme (YSU). All WRF simulations captured the terrain-induced local circulations (slope and valley winds) that were especially pronounced during the synoptically quiescent IOP 7 (not shown here). The wind speed biases shown in Figs. 8 and 9 are relatively small overall (most are less than 1 m s⁻¹). Jiménez and Dudhia (2012) found higher biases in WRF simulations...
in complex terrain at higher wind speeds and suggested an improved parameterization for near-surface wind speeds. The small sample size precludes an analysis of wind speed bias as a function of wind speed in our case, and it remains to be determined whether the near-surface wind speeds would be improved by this parameterization in our case.

The error statistics for dewpoint temperature are virtually identical for all experiments. For IOP 7, all experiments exhibit large negative biases, possibly caused by an incorrect partitioning between latent and sensible heat fluxes (since temperature biases are positive), which could be related to underestimates of soil moisture (these are initialized from NARR analysis values). During IOP 10 the moisture bias changes monotonically throughout the period (changing sign by 1900 UTC), reflecting errors in the synoptic trends during that time.

The spatial statistics suggest that the UCM treatments are better at modeling surface temperature during calm events driven by local circulations. In the wind fields, the spatial statistics indicate that treatments with a YSU PBL scheme may have a slight advantage, but the small sample size prevents a clear conclusion of which PBL scheme performs better.

VTMX data from three rawinsonde sites and three radar wind profiler sites were used to verify the upper-air fields (winds and temperature) of the four WRF forecasts for both IOPs. All WRF runs captured the main features of the observed wind fields (not shown),
and there were no significant differences among the wind fields of the different WRF runs. Potential temperature profiles for VX080 during IOP 7 are shown in Fig. 10. There is a very sharp nocturnal surface inversion early on both 17 and 18 October, as seen in the sharp gradient near the surface. This feature is not fully resolved in any of the WRF runs, but the potential temperature profiles of the UCM runs are closer to the observed profiles, with a sharper curvature, partly due to more accurate near-surface temperatures. In some cases the nocturnal surface temperature is at least 5°C cooler than the non-UCM treatment. The timing of the erosion and reforming of the nocturnal surface inversion is notably improved in the UCM runs: both the observations and the UCM runs show the nocturnal inversion forming around 0000 UTC 18 October, whereas in the non-UCM this is delayed until around 0300 UTC 18 October, a full 3 h later. It is also notable that PBL heights during the heat of the day in non-UCM forecasts are too deep when compared with observations. Without the urban parameterization, the WRF surface temperatures are too warm and result in boundary layers that are too deep. This indicates that the UCM is crucial to accurately model the surface temperature and boundary layer, particularly at night, during IOP 7.

During IOP 10 the nocturnal surface inversion is much weaker, and the difference between the UCM and non-UCM configurations is almost indiscernible (not shown). Here, the choice of PBL scheme exerts a larger influence, with slightly better agreement with observations for the runs with the Turb PBL scheme (MYJ).

### October 2006 low- and high-resolution runs

The WRF-STILT modeling system was used for four separate seasons during 2006 to simulate the CO\textsubscript{2} measurements taken in the SLC area during this time. The low-resolution configuration of WRF was used for all of these calculations. To determine the improvement possible from a high-resolution version of WRF, computations were also performed using the Turb-U configuration for a 2-week period during October of 2006 (10–24 October). Verification statistics of the WRF-simulated meteorological conditions were computed against the standard National Weather Service (NWS) observation station data in the innermost domain. As is evident from Fig. 11, the majority of these stations are located in or near urban locations. The results showed that the beneficial effects of the high-resolution, UCM WRF configuration are also evident for this time period. The mean diurnal cycle of temperature at those locations is much closer to the observations for the Turb-U run than for the low-resolution WRF run (Fig. 12), particularly during the nighttime hours. Some improvement is also evident in the mean wind speeds, whereas the results are inconclusive for moisture: dew-points exhibit larger (negative) biases (but they are much smaller than at the VTMX stations during IOP 7), but because of the improved temperature bias, there is an improvement in the mean relative humidity values. Similarly, the root-mean-square errors (Fig. 13) show a noticeable improvement in temperature for Turb-U, with largely neutral impacts for wind speed and dew-point and a slight positive impact for relative humidity.

The improved meteorological fields produced by the high-resolution (Turb-U) WRF configuration had a noticeable effect on the simulated near-surface CO\textsubscript{2} concentrations. The simulated concentrations are the sum of average background observations and hourly modeled enhancements, which include inputs from anthropogenic and biospheric flux fields [see McKain et al. (2012) for details]. Hourly observed values (shown in black in Fig. 14) are the mean of the raw, 5-min observations. Time series of modeled values resulting from both the baseline (4-km resolution, hereinafter LoRes) meteorological configuration and the high-resolution (1.33 km) configuration with the urban canopy model (Turb-U) are shown in Fig. 14 alongside the observations. The time series demonstrate a small, but consistent, improvement. These improvements are also reflected in the error statistics shown in Table 4.

The mean diurnal cycle (Fig. 15) shows that the improvements at two of the three measurement sites (“downtown” and “neighborhood”) primarily stem from an improved representation of the late-afternoon/early-nighttime (1800–2300 mountain standard time; 0100–0600 UTC) rise in concentrations, consistent with the improved modeling of the afternoon PBL collapse seen for October 2000 (Fig. 10), and of the improved near-surface temperatures (Fig. 8) at that time of day. Both sets

### Table 4. Error statistics of simulated CO\textsubscript{2}, at the three measurement sites and overall, for the Turb-U and LoRes cases. Here, N is the sample size, bias is the mean error, RMSE is the root-mean-square error, corr is the correlation coefficient, and slope is the reduced major-axis regression-line slope; DT, NH, and JH indicate the downtown, neighborhood, and junior high school sites, respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Site</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Bias (ppmv)</th>
<th>RMSE (ppmv)</th>
<th>Corr</th>
<th>Slope</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DT</td>
<td>LoRes</td>
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<td>-17.74</td>
<td>29.66</td>
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<tr>
<td>All</td>
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<tr>
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<td>-14.89</td>
<td>29.93</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.59</td>
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of simulations are systematically underpredicting CO₂ (caused by some combination of an overestimate of atmospheric mixing and an underestimate of anthropogenic sources). As is discussed in greater detail in McKain et al. (2012), the simulated concentrations can be corrected by using appropriate scaling factors, and changes in emissions between different time periods can be detected by a comparison of scaling factors. The analysis in McKain et al. (2012) demonstrated that using the higher-resolution (Turb-U) WRF fields resulted in more robust estimates of
scaling factors and, correspondingly, improved detection of emission changes.

4. Discussion and conclusions

WRF simulations were conducted in the SLC area for the purpose of modeling ground-based measurements of CO₂. Two intensive observing periods during VTMX 2000 were used to evaluate the performance of parameterizations of the planetary boundary layer and an urban canopy model. To accommodate the UCM, new land-use definitions were used for urban areas (three vs one urban category) that define the density of buildings in a variety of urban and suburban areas more precisely. The results reported here show that for urban locations in the Salt Lake valley, there was a clear benefit from parameterizing the urban canopy for simulation of the PBL and near-surface conditions, particularly for temperature evolution at night. When the UCM is used, the boundary layer collapses more quickly just after sunset, closer to the observed timing, than it does without an urban parameterization. Near-surface nighttime temperatures are also cooler when using the UCM, by as much as 5°C, and are also in better agreement with observations. These improvements are most notable during quiet synoptic conditions (IOP 7) when flow was driven by local circulations. In contrast, the UCM created little to no improvement during the more active periods with synoptically driven flow.

Differences between runs using different PBL schemes were more significant outside of urban areas, but neither the eddy diffusivity scheme (YSU) nor the turbulent kinetic energy scheme of vertical mixing (MYJ) produced consistently better results. Differences in the wind fields, whether attributable to different parameterizations of the boundary layer or different parameterizations of the urban environments, were mostly transient features that moved and evolved with the flow. Comparison of WRF forecasts with upper-air wind profiles from the VTMX field campaign showed virtually identical errors for all runs. Our results, particularly the comparison of WRF vertical wind profiles with VTMX wind profiles, confirm the findings of Zhong and Fast (2003) that high-resolution mesoscale models are capable of reproducing the local and mesoscale circulations that characterize the Salt Lake City environment.

The results from the VTMX WRF runs suggest that high-resolution meteorological models with a parameterization of the urban environment should be used for modeling the transport and dispersion of CO₂ in urban environments. This was confirmed by simulations for a 2-week period in October of 2006 for which runs were conducted using both a low-resolution (4-km resolution) and a high-resolution (1.33 km, with a UCM) model configuration. Results show clearly improved simulations of near-surface temperature but near-neutral impacts for simulated wind speed and near-surface moisture. The improved simulation of the diurnal cycle of near-surface temperature was also reflected in improved simulations of the observed CO₂ concentration by the WRF-STILT modeling system. These improvements were most evident in the modeling of the early evening rise in observed CO₂ concentration linked to the collapse of the daytime PBL. Statistical analysis of simulated concentrations (see McKain et al. 2012) also indicated that the high-resolution results provided more robust estimates that are suitable for detecting changes in emissions.

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