

Commentary article

The need for an integrated land-lake-atmosphere modeling system, exemplified by North America's Great Lakes region

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Abstract

26 In the face of future climate change, it is prudent to seek sustainable adaptation strategies to address
27 regional and local impacts. These impacts are multidimensional, involving interdependencies between
28 systems (weather, urban landuse, etc.) that are typically modeled independently. To achieve a holistic
29 understanding, and thus more effective strategies for addressing and/or mitigating impacts, an integrated
30 interdisciplinary research approach is essential. Here we discuss the broader challenges and threats faced
31 by regions with large water bodies, illustrating them for the case of the North America's Great Lakes
32 region, and how an integrated model of climate and hydrology can provide critical information to inform
33 managers seeking best solutions. We also stress the need to include diverse stakeholder priorities in the
34 development of such tools to ensure usability of impact assessments. Research investments should engage
35 multiple disciplines including atmospheric sciences, hydrodynamics, hydrology, and biogeochemistry as
36 well as underlying data analytics techniques and modeling strategies. In addition, detailed measurement
37 and documentation of urban and agricultural landuse, lake surface temperature and ice-cover, and
38 observations of energy and mass exchanges at the interfaces of atmosphere, land, and lakes are needed.
39 We envision development of an integrated set of modeling tools that will improve both the utility of
40 weather forecasts and long-term climate predictions related to impacts to the Great Lakes ecosystem
41 sustainability, hydrometeorological extremes, engineering design, human health, and socio-economic
42 factors. Such a modeling system could be a template for other regions with large lakes and enclosed seas,
43 as these face similarly significant climate change impacts.
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45 **Three key points:**

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- 47 • Land-lake-atmosphere interactions impact human and natural systems in the Great Lakes region,
but the uncertainty in observations and modeling remains large.
- 48 • Land, lake, and atmosphere are typically modeled independently rather than as the complex
multiscale systems that they represent.
- 49 • There is a need for a collaborative framework for stakeholders to design interdisciplinary and
coupled tools for evaluating impacts.

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1. Introduction

The Great Lakes megaregion, one of the largest and most populated networks of metropolitan areas in North America, is home to 55.5 million people, many of whom are located at the urban-water nexus of coastal cities such as Chicago, Detroit, Cleveland, and Toronto (Todorovich 2009). The Great Lakes – Erie, Huron, Michigan, Ontario, and Superior – contain 20% of the world's surface freshwater supplies, and exert strong influence on the physical, environmental, economic, and cultural environment in the region. Due to their substantial depth, geographic extent, and thermal inertia, the Lakes play an important role in influencing local weather patterns and climatic processes. However, gaps in numerical modeling capabilities currently limit our ability to predict meteorological hazards and degrade ability to assess the potential impacts of anthropogenic climate change, thereby increasing the vulnerability of the region's citizens.

The Great Lakes' influence on regional climate provides diverse benefits and challenges to surrounding urban and rural landscapes. Impacts range from moderate (e.g., mild cooling breezes that help lakeshore orchards and vineyards flourish) to extreme (e.g., harsh lake effect snow and ice storms that close airports, shut down interstate freeways and knock out power grids). Global climate change has already begun to modify both the regional climate and the physical behavior of the Great Lakes (Lofgren *et al.* 2002; Kling *et al.* 2003; Wuebbles and Hayhoe 2004; Wuebbles *et al.* 2010), and intensify regional hydrometeorological and thermal extremes (Winkler *et al.* 2012). In recent decades a panoply of such changes have been documented: a statistically significant warming trend (Schoof 2013; Zobel *et al.* 2017, 2018), an increase in extreme summertime precipitation (Kunkel *et al.* 2003, 2012), changing lake levels (Gronewold *et al.* 2013), and a reversal of the increasing trends in lake-effect snows (Norton *et al.* 1993; Kunkel *et al.* 1999; Bard and Kristovich 2012; Notaro *et al.* 2013; Clark *et al.* 2016; Suriano and Leathers 2017). The region has also recently witnessed unprecedented extreme changes in the timing of precipitation and runoff which have important implications for flooding, soil erosion, nutrient export, and agricultural practices (Carpenter *et al.* 2017; Kelly *et al.* 2017).

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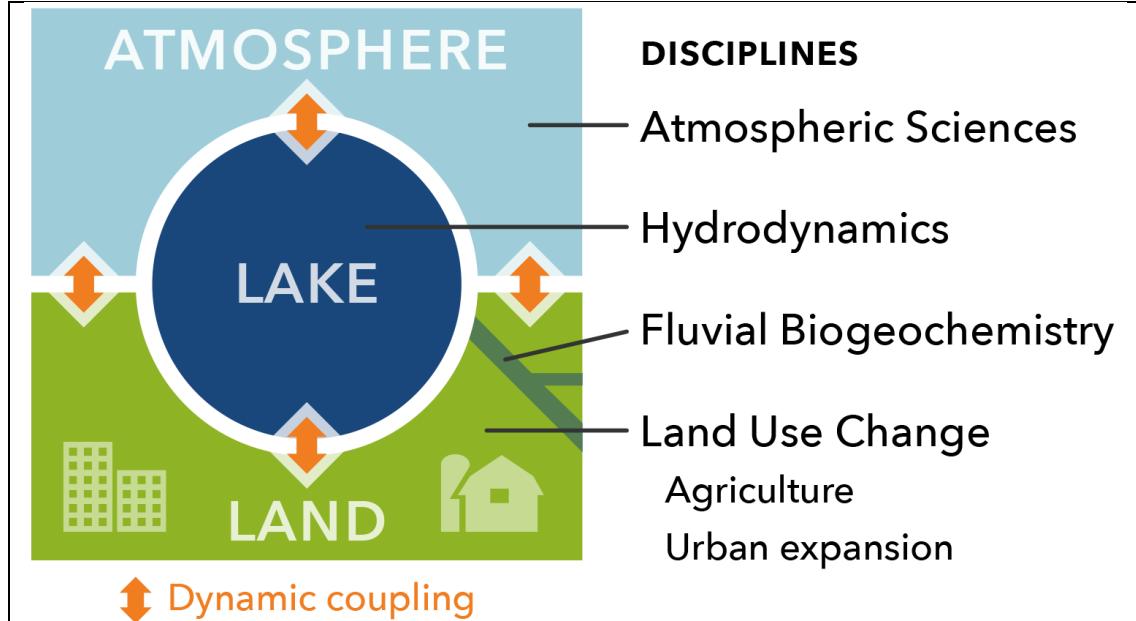


Figure 1. Integrated modeling framework for the Great Lakes region.

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These observed changes create challenges to sustainable and resilient design of infrastructure in the Great Lakes region (Keeley *et al.* 2013), ecosystem management (Lubchenco and Sutley 2010; Sierszen *et al.* 2012; Bunnell *et al.* 2013; Goodspeed *et al.* 2016), and also regional agricultural

84 production (Mueller *et al.* 2016). Projections of climate change indicate increasing extremes, with
85 projections of regional warming to as high as 10 °C by 2100 (Byun and Hamlet 2018). Precipitation
86 extremes, especially in winter and spring, can increase the input of nutrients (phosphorus, nitrogen)
87 moving through rivers and streams into the Lakes, degrading water quality and causing harmful algal
88 blooms (Verhousgstraete *et al.* 2010; Allinger and Reavie 2013; Michalak *et al.* 2013; Watson *et al.*
89 2016).

90 The Great Lakes climate underpinning these changes is inextricably tied to interconnections
91 between the atmosphere, land (and its use), water, and ice. Understanding of these interconnections is
92 limited both by a lack of observations and well-validated, dynamically coupled land-lake-atmospheric
93 numerical modeling systems for operational weather and long-term climate impact assessments (Figure
94 1). Global circulation model (GCM) simulations at adequately high resolution are currently intractable
95 due to high computational expenses, requiring the use of finer resolution regional climate models (RCMs)
96 at local to continental scales (e.g. Wang and Kotamarthi 2014; Liu *et al.* 2016). One of the primary
97 reasons for the lack of an integrated modeling system for the Great Lakes is the difficulty in representing
98 the exchanges and feedbacks between the models (Mallard *et al.* 2015). For example, the Lakes are often
99 unresolved in GCMs due to their coarse spatial resolutions (Mallard *et al.* 2014). RCMs that resolve the
100 Lakes are limited due to the lack of an integrated lake model and questionable lake surface temperature
101 (LST) boundary condition assumptions (e.g., in some experiments an average of Atlantic and Pacific
102 Ocean temperatures has been prescribed, Winkler *et al.* 2012; Mallard *et al.* 2014). Operational models
103 often utilize remotely sensed LST, do not account for hydrodynamic feedbacks, and do not explicitly
104 simulate the fluxes of moisture, heat and momentum across the interfaces. The inadequate representation
105 of these complex processes limits the utility of such models in climate change research.

106 The difficulty of examining the interconnectedness of these physical processes has meant that
107 they are typically modeled as independent subsystems, with at best rudimentary representation of
108 interactions between them. Consequently, infrastructure design, operation, and resource management
109 decisions made with the best intentions can lead to unintended consequences (Adam *et al.* 2015).
110 Physical processes at multiple space-time scales knit these decisions (and the resulting infrastructure and
111 systems) with the climatic elements discussed above, which are in turn driven by such factors as lake
112 dynamics (stratification and lake water levels, ice cover, water temperature), lake-induced storms, river
113 in- and out-flows, atmospheric heat and humidity, and urban and agriculture influences. Multiple
114 environmental, human health and safety, and financial impacts are linked to the Great Lakes due to
115 inter- and intra-system dependencies that impact energy production, ecosystem conservation, water
116 resource management and agriculture in the Great Lakes region. Thus, it is imperative to understand the
117 evolving and dynamically coupled changes in the Great Lakes themselves in response to regional
118 climate change, and ultimately use this understanding to re-evaluate current and future impact
119 assessments for the Great Lakes region.

120 Given recent national policy decisions that drastically affect environmental research, the Great
121 Lakes communities (e.g., Metropolitan Mayors Caucus) are individually and collectively developing
122 policy and striving to make infrastructure and resource management decisions to adapt to climate
123 change. Yet the climate tools at their disposal are often inadequate to inform local or regional policy
124 development. A holistic modeling system integrating land, air, and water will be essential for science,
125 but equally critical for these policymakers (Weaver *et al.* 2013). In making such an integrated set of
126 tools, inclusion of stakeholders' needs and priorities on various mitigation and adaptation strategies will
127 increase the usability of integrated products to inform important societal decisions related to the Great
128 Lakes management, disaster preparedness, infrastructure investments, ecosystem management, and
129 agricultural practices in the region.

130 Recently, Gronewold and Fortin (2012) organized a workshop and identified broad binational
131 research needs for Great Lakes hydrological modeling with an emphasis on improving regional
132 hydrological and hydrodynamic science. This discussion was focused primarily on research and
133 development needs in the context of operational modeling and forecasting. In this commentary, we focus
134 somewhat more broadly on key science needs and the importance of strengthening integrated research

135 capacity. Specifically, we emphasize the need to improve the skill of weather forecasts and long-term
136 climate projections, with the overarching goals of identifying important impact pathways in the region,
137 and developing tools to support sustainable and resilient climate change adaptation strategies for the Great
138 Lakes region.

139 The overall aim of this commentary is to provide a foundation for impact-driven integrated
140 research explicitly incorporating a dynamic coupling between land, lake, and atmosphere. The goal of this
141 commentary is two-fold. First, this article aims to promote focused scientific activity in the Great Lakes
142 region by providing a framework for productive discussions among members of the scientific community
143 that emphasizes the need to move towards more fully integrated and well-structured physical models that
144 encompass the specific scientific, management, and community needs discussed above. Secondly, this
145 article aims to provide a vision statement intended to encourage scientists, researchers, practitioners,
146 managers and citizens to get involved in collaborative efforts to improve the health and well being of the
147 Great Lakes region. It is our hope that these efforts to frame the problem at hand will provide motivation
148 to the scientific community, managers, and stakeholders to write joint proposals to jump-start projects and
149 enhance fundamental knowledge of coupled land-lake-atmospheric processes as well as generate
150 meaningful products for societal applications at the intersection of integrated themes (Figure 1).
151 Primarily, the audience for this commentary is the scientists, however, the most important beneficiaries
152 are likely to be policy makers, natural resources managers, urban planners, and the near and far coastal
153 communities who benefit from the many ecosystem services provided by the Great Lakes. At the same
154 time, we also aim to reach out to stakeholders and citizens to participate in planning discussions so that
155 scientists can ask the right questions for impactful and translational research outcomes. Thus, the next
156 steps would be to conduct interviews and workshops on this theme to collect concrete ideas from science
157 leaders, listen to the needs of policy makers, city and natural resource managers, practitioners and
158 citizens, and plan a way forward for an interdisciplinary team to address this vision. In parallel, scientists
159 can reach out to funding agencies with white papers and proposals to secure funding to make progress
160 towards this vision. Overall, this will provide an inclusive platform for interested colleagues and citizens
161 to join and contribute in a meaningful way.

162 2. Current state of Great Lakes numerical modeling

163 Standalone hydrodynamic Great Lakes models range in physical complexity from 1- to 3-
164 dimensions (1-D to 3-D), and encompass a wide range of statistical, empirical, and physically based
165 approaches. Such tools have been used to better understand important lake processes such as
166 stratification, vertical and horizontal mixing/diffusion, and circulation/currents. Attempts to couple lake
167 models with atmospheric models have proven challenging.

168 Researchers have developed several different types of 1-D lake models with different
169 complexities for the Great Lakes region: (i) the Large Lake Thermodynamics Model (LLTM) (Croley
170 1989; Lofgren 2004); (ii) a slab type thermodynamic model, the Mixed-Layer Model (Goyette *et al.* 2000;
171 Subin *et al.* 2012), Canadian Small Lake Model (CSLM) (MacKay *et al.* 2017); (iii) a simple two-layer
172 model based on similarity theory, Freshwater Lake (FLake: Mironov *et al.* 2010; Gula and Peltier 2012;
173 Mallard *et al.* 2014); and (iv) a thermal diffusion model with parameterized eddy diffusivity (Hostetler
174 model, Hostetler and Bartlein 1990; Stepanenko *et al.* 2010). Efforts to dynamically couple 1-D lake
175 models with atmospheric models have gained much momentum. For instance, the WRF model
176 (Skamarock *et al.* 2005) is coupled with Community Land Model (CLM) that has a 1-D ten-layer lake
177 model (Subin *et al.* 2012; Gu *et al.* 2015; Xiao *et al.* 2016). Gula and Peltier (2012) have attempted an
178 offline coupling of the FLake (Mironov 2008) model with WRF in regional climate simulations. Yet 1-D
179 lake models could not capture the thermodynamic behavior of lakes, especially for Lake Superior
180 (Mallard *et al.* 2014). The Regional Climate Model, version 4 (RegCM4) has also been coupled with a 1-
181 D lake model to investigate the influence of the Great Lakes on historical climate and lake-effect snows
182 (Notaro *et al.* 2013; Vavrus *et al.* 2013; Bennington *et al.* 2014).

183 3-D lake hydrodynamic models are able to simulate many lake processes absent in 1-D models.
184 The Princeton Ocean Model (POM) has been widely used operationally at the U.S. National Oceanic and

186 Atmospheric Administration's (NOAA) Great Lakes Environmental Research Laboratory (GLERL) and
187 for research (e.g., Beletsky *et al.* 2006; Huang *et al.* 2010; Beletsky *et al.* 2013; Fujisaki *et al.* 2013).
188 POM has now been replaced by an unstructured 3-D Finite Volume Community Ocean Model (FVCOM;
189 Chen *et al.* 2006), which is being used for simulations of Lake Superior (Xue *et al.* 2015), flow in the
190 Straits of Mackinac connecting Lakes Michigan–Huron (Anderson and Schwab 2013), and basin-scale
191 climatological studies (Bai *et al.* 2013). Meanwhile, Environment Canada has developed a 3-D coupled
192 lake-atmosphere-hydrological modeling system based on the Global Environmental Multiscale model
193 (GEM); the MESH (Modélisation Environnementale Surface et Hydrologie) surface and river routing
194 model; and, a 3-D hydrodynamic model based on the Nucleus for European Modeling of the Ocean
195 (NEMO) system (Dupont *et al.* 2012). Recently, Arifin *et al.* (2016) tested and refined the stand-alone 3-
196 D hydrodynamic Environmental Fluid Dynamics Code (EFDC) for Lake Ontario (Hamrick 2007).
197 Similarly, Wang *et al.* (2010) developed a Great Lakes Ice-circulation Model (GLIM) to study the
198 seasonal cycle of Lake Erie temperatures on lake circulation and thermal structures.

199 Research efforts to couple atmospheric models with 3-D hydrodynamic models have made less
200 progress. Xue *et al.* (2017), for example, coupled FVCOM with the regional climate model RegCM4 to
201 provide better representation of hydroclimatic interactions. Similarly, the Nucleus for European
202 Modelling of the Ocean (NEMO) model has been used with the Canadian Regional Climate Model
203 (CRCM), but without any direct coupling (Long *et al.* 2016). Such modeling advances in simulating the
204 3-D hydrodynamic components of the Great Lakes and coupling them to atmospheric models is critical to
205 developing a more integrated modeling system.

206 One of the key drawbacks is the lack of a sufficiently detailed lake climatology to feed the
207 coupled models for initialization as well as observations of energy exchanges at the interfaces of the land,
208 lake, and air to develop and evaluate model performance. Initialization data from observations, including
209 lake temperatures (Spence *et al.* 2013; Van Cleave *et al.* 2014), ice cover – Great Lakes Ice Atlas (Assel
210 2003), precipitation from remote sensing (Colton 2013); and lake sensible/latent heat (Blanken *et al.*
211 2011), are available, but the ability to ground truth these observations is often limited. Estimation of over-
212 lake precipitation and evaporation has been poor over the Great Lakes, partially because of
213 instrumentation limitations, monitoring network insufficiency, and spatial inhomogeneity (DeMarchi *et*
214 *al.* 2009). Energy exchanges between the lakes, air, and ice are observed even less frequently (Laird and
215 Kristovich 2002). Thus, modeling lake ice is difficult and sensitive due to inaccurate and poor
216 observations of heat, momentum and mass flux. A field study over Lake Superior sought to measure
217 evaporation via surface energy balance using an eddy covariance system at a point location. It
218 investigated its spatial distribution and variability with concurrent satellite and climate model data, then
219 extrapolated evaporation measurements across the entire lake (Blanken *et al.* 2011; Spence *et al.* 2011).
220 Heat fluxes over ice-covered Lake Erie were observed by Gerbush *et al.* (2008). Aircraft observations
221 allow for collection of spatial variations in energy exchanges, thermodynamic characteristics and over-
222 lake snowfall, such as those obtained by aircraft observations in the University of Chicago lake-effect
223 snow project (Braham and Kelly 1982), Lake-induced Convection Experiment (Kristovich *et al.* 2000)
224 and the Ontario Winter Lake-Effect Systems project (Kristovich *et al.* 2017). These kinds of detailed
225 research observations, however, are only taken over time periods of a few hours.
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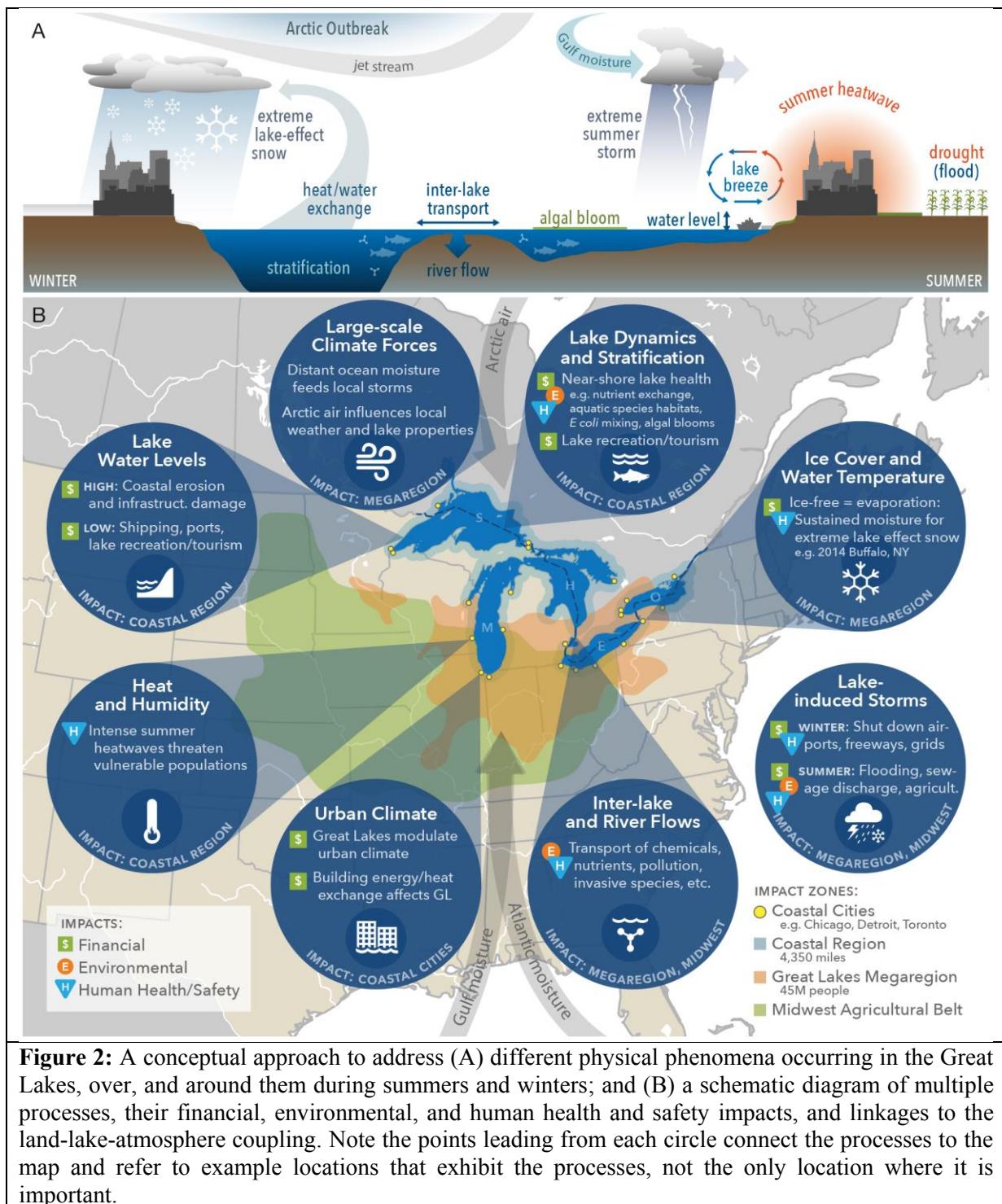


Figure 2: A conceptual approach to address (A) different physical phenomena occurring in the Great Lakes, over, and around them during summers and winters; and (B) a schematic diagram of multiple processes, their financial, environmental, and human health and safety impacts, and linkages to the land-lake-atmosphere coupling. Note the points leading from each circle connect the processes to the map and refer to example locations that exhibit the processes, not the only location where it is important.

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3. Toward an integrated and coupled land-lake-atmosphere modeling system

229 These major knowledge gaps in Great Lakes research can be narrowed by dynamic coupling of
 230 3-D hydrodynamic lake models with existing RCMs that simulate couple atmospheric and land processes.
 231 With improved parameterizations, the dynamic coupling is intended to produce a self-consistent and
 232 physically based time evolution of LST and ice, and the resulting in the dynamic simulation of lake-
 233 atmosphere fluxes. Advanced, targeted field studies could lead to further development of

234 parameterizations and evaluation of model results. This coupling will simultaneously and synchronously
235 exchange surface wind, precipitation and radiation flux information of an atmospheric model with LST,
236 evaporation, latent heat, and roughness height of a lake model.

237 Thus, a fully integrated and coupled land-lake-atmospheric modeling system would provide a
238 nexus between lake dynamics, inter-lake flows, exchange with regional rivers, different atmospheric
239 phenomena over the lakes, as well as their regional impact on coastal urban communities and agricultural
240 areas (Figure 2A). Integrated land-lake-atmospheric coupling will help us to better understand
241 interactions between extreme summer storms and overtake stable atmospheric boundary layers (Workoff
242 *et al.* 2012); the Gulf of Mexico and Atlantic Ocean moisture teleconnection via horizontal flux transport
243 to the Great Lakes and Midwest region; summer heat waves; lake and land breezes (Sharma *et al.* 2017);
244 and, coastal floods in the Midwest and their impact human and natural environments. For winter, this
245 approach will help improve simulations of important lake-atmosphere interactions, such as lake-effect
246 snow, that are governed by complex interactions of lake surface temperature, ice cover, Arctic air
247 outbreaks, and changes in jet streams that control storm track behavior (e.g., Angel and Isard 1998).

248 Further, this approach would improve the utility of operational and forecasting model predictions
249 to prepare for short- and long-term impacts of climate change. Inclusion of real-time data assimilation in
250 models would create better tools for lake management, shipping and navigation, stormwater management,
251 agriculture, and infrastructure planning (Diak *et al.* 1998; Kitchen 2008; Crétaux *et al.* 2011; Kerkez *et al.*
252 2016). The same design would link local and regional-scale effects of agriculture and urban land use.
253 Figure 2B outlines key processes and their financial, environmental and human health/safety impacts and
254 impact zones. To develop such a comprehensive modeling system would require a careful synthesis of
255 disparate modeling components, and would draw on knowledge across multiple disciplines and space-
256 time scales.

257 In addition, we could decrease computational time for RCMs by including prognostic changes in
258 LST and ice state in future publicly-available GCM output datasets. At the same time, variance of
259 ensemble RCM runs from multiple GCM outputs can provide information on variability of future global
260 projections at regional and local scales. Meanwhile, efforts are needed to develop better initial boundary
261 conditions for the lakes and avoid a long spin up simulation by creating a spatial and temporal Great
262 Lakes climatological database based on observations or off-line simulations. The Lake's spin-up time
263 can further be reduced in the coupled and integrated system by providing direct feedback from lake to
264 atmosphere and vice versa (Mallard *et al.* 2015).

265 While many researchers and some funding agencies have broadly supported this vision in the
266 past, as a community we have yet to create a new generation of models that can help us fully understand
267 and quantify climate change impacts in the Great Lakes region. We have seen advances in operational
268 forecasting, yet the long-term development of research models has lagged behind the operational
269 upgrades. With more frequent and intense extreme events occurring over the last decade, this commentary
270 vision is timely. We argue that we are already running behind and need to begin the labor-intensive
271 process of developing appropriate modeling systems as soon as possible. However, it is a complex
272 scientific problem and we imagine it would require considerable time, say 5-10 years, for the research
273 community to generate resources and develop a robust integrated system for forecasting and climate
274 needs as well as to develop impact assessment tools based on revised regional climate projections. Such
275 integrated simulations need to be run at a minimum 4-km spatial resolutions for the coupled systems.
276 However, these simulations may need to be run at ultra-high 1-km spatial resolutions for capturing fine-
277 scale phenomena and developing sound impact assessment tools for Great Lakes communities. It is,
278 therefore, essential that we invest more resources in integrated climate research that will improve the
279 quantity and quality of environmental information available to Great Lakes communities. This system, in
280 turn, can help reduce the adverse impacts on various kinds of infrastructure (e.g. transportation, energy,
281 stormwater infrastructure), including social or economic impacts for dozens of Midwestern and Canadian
282 communities, and guide long-term planning for Great Lakes ecosystems.

285 **4. Potential Benefits**

286 **4.1 Adaptation to a changing climate - future and current climate projections:** The land-lake-
287 atmospheric coupled modeling system would test the hypothesis that extreme storms and their impacts are
288 expected to increase. Such integrated models would capture vital physical processes at varying spatial
289 scales, from regional to local (Conry *et al.* 2015). For example, atmospheric moisture that feeds intense
290 storm systems around the Great Lakes may originate in the Atlantic Ocean or the Gulf of Mexico, and
291 appear as a continuous band of storms that connect the Gulf of Mexico and upstate New York and
292 Canada, via the Great Lakes. Similarly, an Arctic outburst may produce extreme lake-effect snows via
293 heat and moisture exchange over the Lakes. These teleconnections from large-scale storms are frequently
294 not well captured over the Great Lakes region because the atmospheric dynamics over the Lakes are
295 poorly represented in the climate models. Thus, current regional models often fall short in capturing
296 intensity, duration and timing of these large-scale storms. At the same time, the observed historical
297 decline in annual average Great Lakes ice cover (Wang *et al.* 2012), longer period of year with open lake
298 water, and warmer lake surface temperature have contributed to both significant local increases and
299 decreases in lake-effect precipitation in ways not yet fully understood (e.g., Austin and Colman 2007;
300 Bard and Kristovich 2012; Hartnett *et al.* 2014; Suriano and Leathers 2017). Therefore, a coupled
301 framework will show realistic atmospheric conditions over the lakes, which is expected to improve
302 forecasts and long-term large scale precipitation predictions. In addition, this approach has potential to
303 improve current weather forecasts that often miss the amplitude and location of storms. Figure 3 shows
304 how simulations without dynamic land-lake-atmospheric coupling can drastically miss the location of an
305 extreme snowfall event. When snow forecasts are this inaccurate, they can greatly hamper the readiness
306 of emergency management personnel, as well as the general public. The forecasts for this storm, for
307 example, identified the most extreme impacts in the wrong county due to errors in the storm path.
308

309 **4.2 Prediction of Changing Lake Levels and Water Quality:** Changing lake water levels can lead to
310 coastal erosion and wave damage to infrastructure which typically intensify during high water, whereas
311 low-water conditions impede shipping, port activities, lake recreation and tourism (Wall 1998; Millerd
312 2011; Dawson and Scott 2010). The Great Lakes water levels have decreased in the past (Gronewold and
313 Stow 2014a), and are expected to do so in the future due to climate change (Lofgren and Rouhana 2016).
314 Water levels in recent years have been highly variable, and have called attention to deficiencies in our
315 understanding of the Great Lakes water balance. Water levels for Lake Ontario, for example, changed
316 dramatically from a record low in 2013 to a near-record high in late Spring 2017 -- one of the most rapid
317 increases in recorded history. Fluctuations in lake levels are linked to the timing and magnitude of the
318 regional water budget, with relatively low levels in winter months, followed by a rise in spring and a
319 decrease in late summer and early fall (Gronewold and Stow 2014b). Since the variability of over-lake
320 precipitation and evaporation are key drivers of lake levels, integrating climate and lake models will be
321 crucial for predicting lake levels under a changing climate. Additionally, this integrated system will
322 address hydrologic issues of inter-lake (Anderson *et al.* 2010; Anderson and Schwab 2013), river and
323 stream flow as well as surface runoff and subsurface flows and their relationship with biogeochemistry
324 (Beaulieu *et al.* 2011). Similarly, prediction of short-term lake level fluctuations due to wind, pressure
325 perturbations or storm surge (seiches, storm surge, meteotsunamis) would be better forecasted with the
326 integrated system.

327 In addition, the Great Lakes also suffer from excess phosphorus and nitrogen nutrients entering
328 the Lakes via streams and rivers which degrade the water quality and cause harmful algae blooms
329 (HABs) (Allinger and Reavie 2013; Michalak *et al.* 2013; Watson *et al.* 2016). They kill fish, foul up
330 nearby coastlines and produce conditions that are dangerous to aquatic life, as well as humans. HABs
331 require restrictions on fisheries, coastal recreational, and drinking water (Verhougstraete *et al.* 2010;
332 Brooks *et al.* 2016; Ji 2017). Understanding temporal variations in the occurrences of HABs and their
333 relationship to climate variability and change is challenging. One question is whether such changes are
334 present in observations, while other relates to the long-term implications of climate change on HABs.
335 The climatic variations in magnitude, frequency, and duration of HABs in inland and coastal Great

336 Lakes waters and their interaction with agricultural systems are poorly understood across relevant
337 spatiotemporal scales. For example, how do HABs interact with agricultural systems and lake conditions
338 to affect near-shore water quality? Specifically, a dynamically coupled modeling system would better
339 capture storm dynamics and statistics affecting nutrient loading to the Lakes. Thus, there is a high
340 probability of improving our understanding of location and duration of HABs and other water quality
341 issues with an improved modeling and assessment system.

342
343 **4.3 Connection of Great Lakes to coastal communities and their meteorological implications:** The
344 Great Lakes are also a powerful modulator of coastal urban climate (Conry *et al.* 2015; Sharma *et al.*
345 2016, 2017). There are many potential benefits of a coupled land-lake-atmosphere modeling system
346 related to hydrometeorological extremes in coastal communities. These include: improved evaluation and
347 better preparedness for adverse impact of climate variability on extreme heating; coastal flooding,
348 changes in water level; and resiliency of coastal urban communities to extreme precipitation, including
349 lake-effect snow and rain. Future urban development choices, modification of land cover and land use,
350 use of climate change adaptation practices like green and cool roofs, and green ecological and
351 conservational infrastructure can all be assessed with greater mechanistic fidelity within this coupled
352 system. Increased coastal urbanization and urban heating modifies the lake breeze and winds over the
353 lakes (Sharma *et al.* 2016), and warmer lake temperatures may exacerbate these effects. Weakened lake
354 breeze may also violate National Ambient Air Quality Standards by significantly enhancing the ozone
355 concentrations along the Lake coastlines when urban emissions react within the shallow, stable, marine
356 boundary layer (Pierce *et al.* 2017). Thus, the effects of urban heat, humidity, and pollution in major cities
357 such as Chicago and Toronto create mounting health risks to vulnerable populations (such as aging
358 adults) as summer heat waves increase in intensity due to regional climate change.

359 Recent lake studies have found that declining duration of ice cover over the lakes and increasing
360 lake surface water temperatures (Mason *et al.* 2016) have caused major summer convective storm water
361 impacts in Midwestern cities (Kessler 2011). Other meteorological impacts include wintertime lake-effect
362 snow in coastal communities, induced by rapid heat and moisture exchange over the Great Lakes
363 (Fujisaki-Manome *et al.* 2017). For example, in November 2014, an extreme lake-effect storm in Buffalo,
364 New York, delivered more than seven feet of snow. Climatically decreasing ice cover enhances
365 opportunities for these conditions. Figure 3 shows a lake-effect storm that resulted in massive snowfall
366 for northern Indiana's Porter and St. Joseph counties in January 2011. Such extreme winter storms are
367 affected both by large, regional-scale storms and more local impacts from lake-effect snow, and are
368 influenced by large-scale atmospheric circulations (e.g., arctic air outbreaks) and ice cover/water
369 temperature in the Great Lakes (e.g., Gerbush *et al.* 2008).

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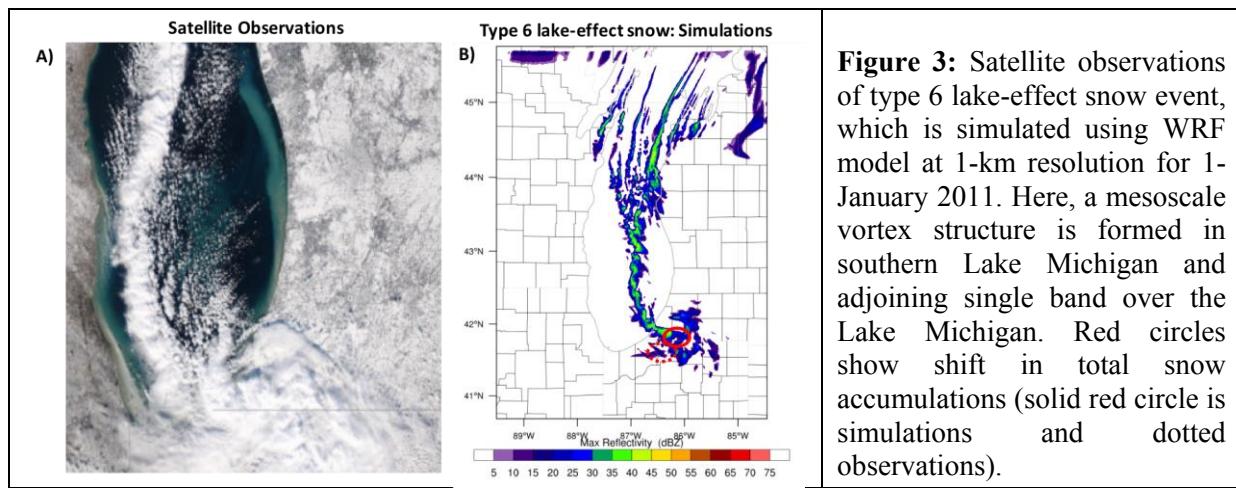


Figure 3: Satellite observations of type 6 lake-effect snow event, which is simulated using WRF model at 1-km resolution for 1-January 2011. Here, a mesoscale vortex structure is formed in southern Lake Michigan and adjoining single band over the Lake Michigan. Red circles show shift in total snow accumulations (solid red circle is simulations and dotted observations).

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372 There is a consensus that the effects of increasing temperature and precipitation changes could
373 also impact urban sustainability by affecting public health (Haines *et al.* 2006; Patz *et al.* 2005; Pierce *et*
374 *al.* 2017). Extreme weather events lead to health problems in Great Lakes communities. Changing climate
375 threaten public health by worsening urban air pollution and increasing rates of infectious (particularly
376 waterborne and vector-borne) disease transmission (Patz *et al.* 2008, 2014a,b). Better public health tools
377 can help prepare Great Lakes communities to minimize heat stroke, asthma, waterborne illness, diseases
378 spread by ticks and mosquitos, and other health problems worsened by climate change. Building
379 Resilience Against Climate Effects (BRACE-Illinois), Indiana University's tackling Environmental and
380 Health Grand Challenges, University of Notre Dame's Environmental Change Initiative, University of
381 Minnesota's Institute on the Environment and GLERL are a few initiatives or programs at specific
382 institutions among many performing impact assessment and developing tools for Great Lakes
383 communities. Such actions would be better informed by a robust, integrated and coupled land-lake-
384 atmosphere modeling system which will provide physically based projections of current and future
385 impacts mostly unavailable at the time of this commentary writing to city planners and engineers.
386

387 **4.4 Infrastructure and economic benefits:** Increased precipitation extremes from summer convective
388 storms and winter lake effect storms have also inflicted unprecedeted infrastructure damage and
389 economic losses in the Great Lakes megaregion, for example, summer 2013 coastal flooding in Toronto
390 cost more than CA\$ 900M (Wang *et al.* 2014). These types of changes are expected to substantially
391 increase flood damage in major cities across the U.S. (Ntelekos *et al.* 2010). To complicate matters, many
392 cities in the Great Lakes megaregion face a backlog of aging urban stormwater and transportation
393 infrastructure – roads, bridges, tunnels, ports, sewers etc. – that must be retrofitted or replaced (Winters *et*
394 *al.* 2015). Thus, cities must cope with added pressures placed on their infrastructure by increasing urban
395 populations and weather damage from climate change. Also, the current design for new infrastructure is
396 based on climate data that fails to account for the realities of today – not to mention decades from now.
397 The envisioned dynamic land-lake-atmosphere modeling system will help engineers and practitioners to
398 design robust infrastructure using green and conventional management alternatives that would reduce the
399 impact of natural disasters, and foster environmental and economic health.
400

401 **4.5 Agricultural impacts:** This approach will also reap benefits for a larger region around the Great
402 Lakes. For example, the Midwestern U.S. “corn belt” is expected to shift northward to follow the climate
403 conditions favorable for important cash crops (Diffenbaugh *et al.* 2012). In winter and spring, increased
404 precipitation and more rain than snow is expected in coming decades, as well as an increase in storm
405 intensity (Hayhoe *et al.* 2010, Byun and Hamlet 2018). Future high temperature extremes during the
406 growing season can reduce agricultural production in the Midwest U.S., and may require increased use of
407 irrigation to maintain current levels of productivity. At the same time, more agriculture production will
408 be required on a global basis to support an increase in projected future populations (Ray *et al.* 2013).
409 Thus, forced agricultural intensification (i.e. higher crop yields per acre) to support rise in projected future
410 populations can increase the potential for evapotranspiration, leading to cooler temperatures and
411 contributing to increased precipitation recycling (Mueller *et al.* 2016). The coupled land-lake-atmospheric
412 interactions will help to capture impacts of changing land cover, precipitation, and the timing and
413 intensity of runoff, which influence the biogeochemistry of streams and rivers. Future increase in intensity
414 of extreme summer storms (Kunkel *et al.* 1999; Zobel *et al.* 2017) and biogeochemical cycles are closely
415 tied to hydrological response, both as a mechanism for solute transport (e.g., Royer *et al.* 2004, 2006) and
416 as a driver of redox potential in soils (Christopher *et al.* 2008). Thus, agriculture intensification via
417 increase in fertilizer consumption would cause more problems related to HABs. Such changes might
418 require stricter regulations or compliance of Best Management Practices (BMPs) over the Great Lakes
419 region to avoid detrimental impacts to water quality. Therefore, land-lake-atmospheric coupling can
420 expect to reduce the knowledge gaps related to climate change effects on agro-ecosystems of the larger
421 Great Lakes region.
422

423 **5. Summary of Science and Policy Needs**

424 Numerical modeling of Earth's climate system has been marked by the steady progression from
425 atmosphere-only GCMs (Manabe and Wetherald 1967) to the state-of-the-science multicomponent (i.e.,
426 atmosphere, ocean, land surface, sea ice, land ice, carbon cycle, etc.) Earth System Models used in
427 contemporary climate assessment reports such as the IPCC AR5 (Allen *et al.* 2014) and the Fourth
428 National Climate Assessment (USGCRP 2017). This steady march of progress, made possible by
429 sustained resource allocation, interagency cooperation, and contemporaneous computing power advances
430 has facilitated an increased understanding of the natural world and the influential role of human
431 civilization on natural systems. In addition, modeling advances have led to more integrated, higher
432 resolution, and actionable prediction capabilities, facilitating risk reduction and adaptation planning and
433 implementation. Despite these significant advances, substantial knowledge and modeling gaps remain.
434 For the 55.5 million citizens of the Great Lakes megaregion, the lack of a fully integrated land-lake-
435 atmosphere modeling system has significant consequences. Without integration of these Earth system
436 components long-range meteorological hazard prediction will remain elusive, advancement of basic and
437 translational climate and meteorological research will remain inhibited, and decision makers will operate
438 with potentially malinformed predictions. By building a robust, high-resolution, and integrated land-lake-
439 atmosphere modeling system, the Great Lakes hazard prediction and climate change impact assessments
440 can move toward more accurate and informed resource protection. In addition, the tools developed to
441 model the Great Lakes region are likely to provide considerable and analogous benefits to other global
442 communities adjacent to large lakes and enclosed seas (e.g., multiple lakes in Africa and Aral Sea in Asia
443 (Sharma *et al.* 2018)).

444

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