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**Assessment of the Wet Season Precipitation in Central United States by the Regional Climate Simulation of WRFG Member in NARCCAP and Its Relationship with Large-scale Circulation Biases**

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**Abstract**

30 Assessment of past-climate simulations of regional climate models (RCMs) is  
31 important for understanding the reliability of RCMs when used to project future  
32 regional climate. Here we assess the performance and discuss possible causes of biases  
33 of a WRF-based RCM with a grid spacing of 50 km, named WRFG, from the North  
34 American Regional Climate Change Assessment Program (NARCCAP) in simulating  
35 the wet season precipitation over the central United States for a period when  
36 observational data are available. The RCM reproduces key features of precipitation  
37 distribution characteristics during late spring to early summer, although it tends to  
38 underestimate the magnitude of precipitation. This dry bias is partly due to the model's  
39 lack of skill in simulating nocturnal precipitation related to the lack of eastward  
40 propagation of convective systems in simulation. Inaccuracy in reproducing large-scale  
41 circulation and environmental conditions is another contributing factor. The too weak  
42 simulated pressure gradient between the Rocky Mountains and the Gulf of Mexico  
43 results in weaker southerly winds in between, leading to less warm moist air transport  
44 from the Gulf to the central Great Plains. The simulated low-level horizontal  
45 convergence fields are less favorable than in NARR for upward motion and hence for  
46 convection development also. Therefore, careful examination of an RCM's deficiencies  
47 and the identification of the source of errors are important when using the RCM to  
48 project change of precipitation in future climate scenarios.

49 **Keywords:** NARCCAP; Central United States; Precipitation; Low-level jet; Large-  
50 scale environment; Diurnal variation

**Article Highlights:**

- 51
- 52 • The assessed climate model reproduces the key features of warm-season  
53 precipitation distribution but underestimates amount in central U.S.

- 54 • The lack of eastward propagation of convections from the Rockies into the Central  
55 Plains in simulations contributes to the dry bias
- 56 • Inaccuracies in large-scale circulation and environmental conditions from the Gulf  
57 to Great Plains also contributes to precipitation error
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For Review Only

## 61 **1. Introduction**

62 The North American Regional Climate Change Assessment Program (NARCCAP; Mearns et  
63 al., 2009) is a project that uses six regional climate models (RCMs) to produce dynamically  
64 downscaled regional climate simulations in order to investigate the uncertainties in projecting  
65 future climate under different climate change scenarios for impact research  
66 (<http://www.narccap.ucar.edu/about/index.html>). These RCMs are the Canadian Regional Climate  
67 Model (CRCM) (Caya and Laprise 1999), the Scripps Experimental Climate Prediction Center  
68 (ECPC) Regional Spectral Model (Juang et al., 1997), the Hadley Centre's regional model version  
69 3 (HadRM3) (Pope et al., 2000), the fifth-generation of Pennsylvania State University-National  
70 Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) Mesoscale Model (MM5) (Grell et al., 1994), the  
71 Regional Climate Model version 3 (RegCM3) (Giorgi et al., 1993a,b), and the Weather Research  
72 and Forecasting model with the Grell-Devenyi cumulus scheme (WRF-G) (Grell and Dévényi  
73 2002). In the NARCCAP program, these RCMs are used to simulate regional climate for a  
74 historical period, and to downscale coupled atmosphere-ocean general circulation models forced  
75 with the A2 emission scenario (Nakicenovic et al., 2000).

76 To understand the potential reliability of the RCMs for future climate simulations, it is  
77 necessary to assess their simulation performance for historical periods when observational data are  
78 available (Mearns et al., 2012; Pan et al., 2001; Giorgi, 2019), and to try to understand their  
79 simulation biases as much as possible. Towards this end, NARCCAP used NCEP-DOE  
80 Reanalysis-2 (R2) data (Kanamitsu et al., 2002) from 1979 to 2004 to drive the RCMs for the  
81 simulation of the historical climate of North America. By comparing all regional models within  
82 NARCCAP using various metrics, Mearns et al. (2012) provides a baseline evaluation indicating

83 that all models can simulate some aspects of the climate reasonably well over the North America  
84 for the historical period. However, significant differences exist among the models that highlight  
85 uncertainties in modeling regional climate processes. To improve the understanding of the errors  
86 in the regional climate models, more analyses are needed.

87 Previous studies evaluated the NARCCAP RCM simulations for different geographic regions  
88 and on different aspects of simulation. Gutowski et al. (2010) found that for coastal California the  
89 models replicate well the frequency and magnitude of extreme monthly precipitation (top 10% of  
90 monthly precipitation), and the associated circulation anomaly in the cold half year for the period  
91 1982-1999. The models reproduce well the interannual variability of the occurrence of the extreme.  
92 For the upper Mississippi River basin, Kawazoe and Gutowski (2013) found all models generally  
93 reproduce the precipitation intensity spectra seen in observations well, with a small tendency  
94 toward producing overly strong precipitation at high-intensity thresholds. Wang et al. (2009)  
95 evaluated the precipitation climatology of the intermountain region of western United States  
96 between the Cascade-Sierra range and the Rocky Mountains and found systematic biases with six  
97 regional climate models in NARCCAP. The simulated winter precipitation is too large and the  
98 simulated annual cycles are too strong. Leung and Qian (2009) pointed out that during the cold  
99 season, the WRF-member simulation in NARCCAP realistically captured the amount and spatial  
100 distribution of mean precipitation intensity, extreme (95th percentile) precipitation, and the  
101 precipitation/temperature anomalies of all the atmospheric river events between 1980-1999 in the  
102 topographically diverse western U.S.

103 For the central United States, the broad expanse of flat land between the Rocky Mountains and  
104 Mississippi River depends on summer rainfall for its extensive agricultural land use. Thus, the  
105 processes contributing to precipitation (Carbone and Tuttle 2008; Weckwerth and Romatschke

106 2019; Trier et al. 2020) and the question of how well numerical models simulate precipitation in  
107 the past and predict possible changes in the future have attracted great research interest (Gutowski  
108 et al., 2010; Harding and Snyder 2014). Precipitation across this region is difficult to simulate with  
109 accuracy when using global climate models (GCM) with coarse resolutions (Klein et al., 2006;  
110 Harding et al., 2013).

111 Dynamically downscaling the GCM outputs by using high resolution RCMs can reduce the  
112 simulation bias (Liang et al., 2006; Dickinson et al., 1989). However, the RCMs show conspicuous  
113 differences in simulating central U.S. warm season rainfall. Some of them oversimulate  
114 precipitation over the central U.S. (Bukovsky and Karoly 2009; Qiao and Liang 2015; Kawazoe  
115 and Gutowski 2018). Some of the others undersimulate precipitation in this region (Harding et al.,  
116 2013; Gao et al., 2017; Tian et al., 2017; Harris and Lin 2014; Lee et al., 2007a; Kim et al., 2013).  
117 Sun et al. (2016) found that dynamic downscaling simulations they produced at both 4-km and 25-  
118 km grid spacings share similar low precipitation bias over the central U.S. The bias appears linked  
119 to circulation biases in the simulations. Hu et al. (2018) also noticed significant warm-season  
120 precipitation and circulation biases in their dynamically downscaled simulations. Spectral nudging  
121 was found to help alleviate the precipitation biases by reducing circulation biases. Kawazoe and  
122 Gutowski (2018) found that some RCMs undersimulate the intensity of strong widespread  
123 precipitation events in the upper Mississippi region and suggested the need for deeper look into  
124 the connection between the large-scale circulation and precipitation. Overall, the skill of RCMs in  
125 simulating precipitation over the central U.S., and the sources of the precipitation biases still  
126 require more detailed assessment and analyses. In NARCCAP, there are similar warm season  
127 precipitation biases among most RCM members; that is, dry bias over the central U.S., and wet  
128 bias over the Rocky Mountains region and the southeast coast. The central U.S. dry bias in the

129 WRFG member is about the largest among the NARCCAP RCM members (Mearns et al., 2012)  
130 and the WRF model is among the mostly widely used models for weather prediction and for  
131 regional climate simulations (Tapiador et al., 2020). For these reasons, this paper focuses on the  
132 WRFG member of NARCCAP simulations, and tries to better understand its behaviors for  
133 historical simulation. Specifically, we examine a 19 year period from 1986 through 2004, and  
134 assess WRFG's performances in reproducing the mean behaviors and diurnal variation of wet  
135 season precipitation over the central U.S. (in the red box shown in Fig. 1), part of the entire model  
136 domain that covers the conterminous United States and most of Canada. We further investigate  
137 the relationship between precipitation biases and circulation simulation biases, in an attempt to  
138 better understand the physical causes of the precipitation bias.

139 The rest of this paper is arranged as follows. The data sources are described in Section 2. In  
140 Section 3, we assess how well WRFG simulates precipitation in the wet season over the Great  
141 Plains region of the central U.S. In section 4, the possible relationship between simulated  
142 precipitation, associated circulations, and their biases are discussed. Section 5 summarizes the  
143 results and presents conclusions.

## 144 **2. Data**

### 145 **2.1. Reference data**

146 We use the monthly precipitation data from Parameter-elevation Regressions on Independent  
147 Slopes Model (PRISM) dataset (Daly et al., 1994) as one of the precipitation reference data. We  
148 analyze the data during the period from 1986 to 2004 to be consistent with the WRFG simulation.  
149 The PRISM monthly mean precipitation dataset (available at <http://prism.oregonstate.edu>)  
150 covering the contiguous U.S. (CONUS), starting in January 1895, is produced by gathering climate

151 observations from a wide range of monitoring networks, applying sophisticated quality control  
152 measures. We use it in this study because of its high spatial resolution (4 km grid spacing), the use  
153 of sophisticated elevation correction scheme and inclusion of data from around 8000 stations.  
154 More important is its long period of data coverage; the dataset has been used in previous studies  
155 evaluating the performance of RCMs (e.g., Hu et al., 2018).

156 The 4-km NCEP Stage IV precipitation dataset (Lin and Mitchell 2005) is also used for  
157 analysis and comparison (available at <https://www.emc.ncep.noaa.gov/mmb/ylin/pcpanl/stage4/>).  
158 It is mosaicked from regional multi-sensor (radar and gauges) precipitation analyses covering the  
159 period from 2002 onward, and the data up to 2015 are used in this study. The high spatial (4-km  
160 grid spacing) and hourly temporal resolutions of the dataset enable the investigation of diurnal  
161 variability of precipitation. The Stage IV product is currently the only long-running operational  
162 product that provides high-resolution radar-based precipitation estimates over the CONUS and  
163 especially the hourly temporal resolution and thus is used in many studies on precipitation (Nelson  
164 et al., 2016). Unfortunately, there is little overlap between the available period of Stage IV data  
165 (from 2002 onward) and the WRFG simulation period (1986 – 2004). Studies have found that the  
166 diurnal cycle in summer precipitation has small year-to-year variation (Dai et al., 1999; Liang et  
167 al., 2004), particularly in terms of the diurnal phase. Due to the lack of high spatial and temporal  
168 resolution precipitation data set over the 1986-2004 period that WRFG is run over, for the purposes  
169 of evaluating precipitation diurnal variations and spatial propagation, we will use the Stage IV  
170 data in the 2002-2015 period as a substitution, assuming this aspect, especially the diurnal phase,  
171 of precipitation over the central U.S. is similar between the two periods. When the Stage IV data  
172 are used for comparison, less emphasis should be placed on precipitation intensity because of  
173 possible year-to-year variability.

174 The NCEP North American Regional Reanalysis (NARR; Mesinger et al., 2006), a regional  
175 reanalysis over North America (available at  
176 <https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/gridded/data.narr.html>) is used to evaluate the WRF-  
177 simulated atmospheric fields including air temperature, wind, moisture, and geopotential height.  
178 The NARR dataset covers 1979 through present. The then-operational NCEP Eta Model with 32  
179 km horizontal grid spacing and 45 layers was used together with the Regional Data Assimilation  
180 System (RDAS) to assimilate precipitation along with other observations. The improvements in  
181 the model and data assimilation systems resulted in a dataset with better accuracy of temperature,  
182 winds and precipitation analyses compared to the NCEP-DOE Global Reanalysis 2 (Mesinger et  
183 al., 2006). We use the NARR data available 8 times daily on 29 vertical levels from 1986 to 2004  
184 for the evaluation of WRF-simulated atmospheric states. We note that the ERA5 (Lavers et al.,  
185 2022) global reanalysis dataset is available at hourly intervals but the reanalysis does not assimilate  
186 rain-gauge precipitation data.

## 187 **2.2. WRF RCM simulation output**

188 As mentioned earlier, the RCM simulation evaluated in this study is the NARCCAP member  
189 using WRF model with Grell-Devenyi cumulus parameterization scheme (Mearns et al., 2009).  
190 The WRF modeling system is community supported and is widely used throughout the world for  
191 a variety of weather and climate applications (Tapiador et al., 2020). However, the WRF member  
192 in NARCCAP has about the largest simulation bias in the region of our research interest which  
193 deems a detailed investigation necessary. WRF is a fully compressible, non-hydrostatic model with  
194 terrain-following mass-based vertical coordinates and contains a large collection of physical  
195 parameterization schemes that can be used to build regional climate simulation systems

196 (Skamarock et al., 2005). In NARCCAP, a WRF member named WRFP was initially run by the  
197 Pacific Northwest National Lab (PNNL) using the Kain-Fritsch cumulus parameterization scheme.  
198 It was later superseded by a new run using the Grell-Devenyi cumulus scheme that improved the  
199 reproduction of temperature and precipitation. This WRFG member is examined in this study.

200 For NARCCAP, WRF was run at a 50-km horizontal grid spacing with 35 vertical levels over  
201 a domain covering the CONUS and most of Canada. Other model physics include the Grell-  
202 Devenyi cumulus scheme, the WRF single-moment 5-category (WSM5) microphysics scheme,  
203 CAM3 shortwave and longwave radiation scheme, Yonsei University (YSU) planetary boundary  
204 layer scheme, and the NOAH land surface model. The full name of this run is WRFG-NCEP,  
205 where NCEP indicates the use of NCEP global reanalysis for initial and lateral boundary forcing.  
206 The full length of simulation is from 1979 to 2004. For this study we examine a 19 year period  
207 from 1986 to 2004, which avoids the spin up period and is still long enough for statistical  
208 evaluation (given our focus on the mean behaviors of precipitation simulation and its diurnal  
209 variation). Considering that WRF has many options for physics parameterizations, our evaluation  
210 in this paper is strictly speaking valid only for the particular configurations used. However, some  
211 of the behaviors may be common to other physics options or even other models.

### 212 **3. Assessment of wet season precipitation simulated by WRFG in central U.S.**

213 The climate in central U.S. has strong seasonal variability. In this region, more than half of  
214 total annual precipitation occurs during the wet season, which includes late spring and early  
215 summer (Higgins et al., 1997; Mearns et al., 2012; Wallace, 1975). In view of this, we assess the  
216 simulated precipitation in May, June, and July. To reduce differences in the precipitation intensity  
217 purely because of grid resolution difference, we regrid the ~4 km PRISM and Stage IV

218 precipitation data to the ~50 km WRFG grid by using NCL ESMF\_regrid function with the  
219 “conserve” interpolation option. This method tries to preserve the integral value of the interpolated  
220 fields and is therefore a preferred choice for mapping high-resolution precipitation to a lower-  
221 resolution grid. As seen in Fig. 2a, the average daily mean precipitation intensity in the PRISM  
222 data in May is larger than 2 mm day<sup>-1</sup> in central U.S. with the highest intensity of more than 4.5  
223 mm day<sup>-1</sup> located in the bordering regions of Oklahoma-Kansas and Arkansas-Missouri. May and  
224 June are similar in the distribution precipitation pattern but are different in intensity. In June, the  
225 rainfall maximum is ~ 4 mm day<sup>-1</sup>, weaker than in May (Fig. 2b). In July (Fig. 2c), the rainfall  
226 maximum is located at the northeast of Kansas, exceeding ~ 4 mm day<sup>-1</sup> over only a small area. In  
227 May and June, regions with 3 mm day<sup>-1</sup> average precipitation extend to the Gulf coast, but in July,  
228 such regions move northward up to northeastern Oklahoma.

229 In comparison, the WRFG-simulated precipitation is much weaker in all three months (Fig.  
230 2d.-2f). The WRFG model can roughly reproduce the principal precipitation distribution  
231 characteristics over CONUS, that is, strong rainfall in the central and east parts of CONUS and  
232 little rainfall in the western part of the country from May to July. It however significantly  
233 underestimates the daily mean precipitation intensity in regions of the Gulf of Mexico coast in  
234 May (Fig. 2d) and the entire central U.S. in July (Fig. 2f).

235 In May (Fig. 2d), daily mean precipitation of over 3 mm day<sup>-1</sup> is mostly captured over the  
236 eastern half of CONUS, but the intensity does not reach 4 mm day<sup>-1</sup> while the observed maximum  
237 is more than 4.5 mm day<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 2a). The western edge of heavier precipitation also deviates to the  
238 east by about 2° longitude or about 200 km (Fig. 2d), and the precipitation within a zone of about  
239 200 km width along the gulf coast is also too weak. The general pattern and intensity of  
240 precipitation on the western half of CONUS agree better with observations (Fig. 2a and 2d).

241 In June, the simulated dry bias is more significant; it misses all heavy precipitation over 4.5  
242 mm day<sup>-1</sup> along the Gulf coast and significantly under-predicts precipitation west of Mississippi  
243 River especially over the central and southern Great Plains (Fig. 2e). In July, the dry bias is even  
244 more severe. Nowhere over the central U.S. does the daily mean precipitation exceed 2.6 mm day<sup>-1</sup>  
245 (Fig. 2f). Over the northern Plains it is about half of the observed amount. Over central Oklahoma,  
246 a minimum of less than 1.1 mm day<sup>-1</sup> is simulated while the observed amount is around 2.2 mm  
247 day<sup>-1</sup>. The warm season simulation dry bias is consistent with earlier area-averaged precipitation  
248 assessments over a similar region in the central U.S. (Mearns et al., 2012; Kawazoe and Gutowski  
249 2018).

250 The diurnal variations of mean precipitation intensity averaged over the Central U.S. within  
251 the red polygon in Fig. 1 are shown in Fig. 3 for the Stage IV data for 2002-2015 (solid lines) and  
252 the WRF simulation for 1986-2004 (dashed line) for May, June and July. The mean precipitation  
253 intensities in Stage IV data are obtained by averaging hourly accumulated precipitation over the  
254 previous three hours to the times labeled in the figure. The precipitation intensity in WRF is  
255 given as the average of instantaneous rainfall rates over the previous 3 hours. Here, as mentioned  
256 earlier, we assume the general stationarity of the precipitation propagation characteristics and  
257 diurnal cycles over the past few decades, which is supported by earlier studies.

258 The general oscillations of diurnal variations in precipitation are reasonably captured in the  
259 WRF simulation, agreeing with previous studies that examined very heavy precipitation events  
260 in a similar region (Kawazoe and Gutowski 2018). However, the amounts and amplitudes are  
261 mostly smaller than observed values, with the relative errors being the smallest in May and largest  
262 in July (Fig. 3) in the region we focus on. The peaks of precipitation intensity in the Stage IV data  
263 appear at mid-night in May and at 3 am local time in June and July while in the model simulation

264 they all appear at mid-night. A pronounced minimum appears at the local noon when the intensity  
265 is mostly less than half of the peak. The precipitation diurnal variation patterns for May, June, and  
266 July are similar, but the amplitudes of oscillation are different. For May and June, the maximum  
267 is about  $5 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$  while the minimum value is between  $2.4$  and  $2.6 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$  in the observations.  
268 For July, the variation is between  $1.9$  and  $3.7 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$ . These results are consistent with previous  
269 studies (e.g. Lee et al., 2007a; Carbone et al., 2002; Dai et al., 1999; Higgins et al., 1997; Liang et  
270 al., 2004; Riley et al., 1987; Tian et al., 2005; Wallace 1975) finding that the summer precipitation  
271 over the central U.S. has unique diurnal variations. Nocturnal precipitation accounts for the vast  
272 majority of total warm-season precipitation in this region (Chen et al., 2009; Higgins et al., 1997;  
273 Jiang et al., 2006).

274 The model-simulated maximum precipitation intensity in May is about  $1 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$  smaller  
275 than that in Stage IV data. In July, the simulated value is  $\sim 2 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$ , about half of the observed  
276  $3.8 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$  in the early morning. Also the observed peak is at 3 am while the simulated amount  
277 at midnight is slightly higher. In May and June, both absolute and relative errors at noon time are  
278 relatively small, but those at midnight peak are much larger. In July, the errors are large in both  
279 day and night times. The above results are consistent with the monthly mean precipitation intensity  
280 comparisons with PRISM data as presented in Fig. 2, supporting the precipitation stationarity  
281 assumption. Overall, the above results also suggest that the primary deficiency of the model in  
282 simulating the wet season precipitation over the central Plains is with its lack of skill in simulating  
283 the nocturnal precipitation. Since the largest error occurs in July, we will focus in the rest of this  
284 paper on July, and will pay most attention to night precipitation, in order to gain understanding on  
285 the nature and cause of such error.

#### 286 **4. Physical processes associated with the dry bias in central U.S.**

287 The night precipitation maximum over the central Plains has been attributed to the eastward  
288 propagation of convective systems initiated in the afternoon over the Rocky Mountain regions that  
289 arrive at the central Plains at night (e.g., Jiang et al., 2006; Carbone and Tuttle 2008; Geerts et al.  
290 2017; Weckwerth and Romatschke 2019), and to locally initiated mesoscale convective systems  
291 by nocturnal low-level jet (Blackadar, 1957; Bleeker and Andre, 1951; Hering and Borden, 1962;  
292 Pitchford and London, 1962; Geerts et al. 2017). In the next two sections, we will examine how  
293 well WRFG simulates the eastward propagation of precipitation systems, and the synoptic and  
294 mesoscale circulations that can affect local forcing to convective systems at night.

##### 295 **4.1 Eastward propagation of convective systems from the Rocky Mountains**

296 The 3-hourly Stage IV precipitation averaged over years 2002-2015 are shown in Fig. 4. It is  
297 seen that in the afternoon (between 12 and 15 CST, Fig. 4h), convective systems are clearly evident  
298 over the Rocky Mountain regions of Colorado and New Mexico. Such convection should be due  
299 to daytime heating of the elevated terrain. Over the next few hours (between 15 and 21 CST, Figs.  
300 4a-b), the main precipitation zone is found to shift eastward, being located in eastern Colorado  
301 between 18 and 21 CST, and over the eastern Colorado and New Mexico Borders by 00 CST (Fig.  
302 4c). Based on a 12-year climatology, Carbone and Tuttle (2008) found that propagating  
303 precipitation episodes, i.e., precipitating systems propagating into the region from the upstream,  
304 contributed 60% of the summer rainfall to the central United States. Weckwerth and Romatschke  
305 (2019) examined cases that occurred during the Plains Elevated Convection At Night (PECAN)  
306 field campaign (Geerts et al. 2017), and found that 70% of the Great Plains precipitation was  
307 caused by episodes that formed outside of the PECAN domain (centered over Kansas) and  
308 propagated into the region. Mountain-initiated storms formed primarily in the afternoon and the

309 surviving ones propagated eastward, grew upscale, and contributed 27% of the precipitation in the  
310 plains (Weckwerth and Romatschke 2019). The fact that the precipitation zone shifts continuously  
311 eastward with time as shown in Fig, 4 suggests that the propagation of convection storms initiated  
312 over the Rocky Mountains into the central Plains while growing upscale is responsive for at least  
313 part of the night time precipitation over the Plains, and this is even more evidence when examining  
314 hourly precipitation (not shown).

315 By 03 CST, most of the precipitation is over the central part of the Great Plains (Fig. 4d) and  
316 by early morning it is mostly located over the eastern borders of Oklahoma, Kansas and into Iowa  
317 and further north (Fig. 4e). Between 00 and 06 CST, precipitation is mainly found over the central  
318 part of the Central Great Plains. Such precipitation is believed to linked to the Great Plains  
319 nocturnal low-level jet, whose northern terminus is located in the Central Great Plains during this  
320 period (e.g., Weckwerth and Romatschke 2019; Trier et al. 2020), and the merger of the systems  
321 propagating into the region with locally-initiated precipitation would also play a role, as  
322 documented in Weckwerth and Romatschke (2019) . At 03 CST (Fig. 4d), the precipitation budget  
323 box used in Fig. 3 (see Fig. 1) is filled with both convective systems that have propagated into the  
324 region, and systems that initiated locally; this would explain the precipitation peak at 03 CST in  
325 the region seen in Fig. 3.

326 Over the three hours following 06 CST, the main precipitation zone continues to shift eastward,  
327 to a north-south axis through central Arkansas by 09 CST. Such shift should be related to the  
328 eastward propagation of convective systems (e.g., Carbone and Tuttle 2008). The systems in  
329 Central Plains weakens significantly between 06 and 09 CST, and are mostly dissipated after 09  
330 CST (Fig. 4g). At the 12 CST noon, the precipitation over the Central U.S. is indeed at a minimum  
331 (Fig. 4g) while by mid-afternoon (Fig. 4h), new convection has developed, over the Rockies, the

332 eastern part of U.S. and over parts of the Central Plains (Fig. 4h). Most of the heavy precipitation  
333 along the Gulf coast seen in the PRISM data (Fig. 2) is clearly from afternoon convection (Fig.  
334 4h). The propagation of convective systems across the Central Plains overnight discussed above  
335 agrees with previous studies that some of the convective storms initiated over the Rockies in the  
336 afternoon can propagate eastward and become organized, creating coherent structures in  
337 precipitation Hovmoller diagrams (Carbone et al., 2002; Liang 2004; Jiang et al., 2006). The  
338 eastward propagation of organized convective systems is indeed an important contributor to the  
339 nocturnal precipitation over the Great Plains (Jiang et al., 2006; Weckwerth and Romatschke 2019).  
340 Thus, whether the model can reasonably reproduce the eastward propagation of convective  
341 systems initiated over the Rockies would affect its performance in simulating the timing,  
342 distribution, and intensity of the central U.S. nighttime precipitation.

343 The WRFG-simulated 3-hourly precipitation intensities averaged over the 1986-2004  
344 simulation period, are plotted in Fig. 5. The difference in the averaging periods is due to the  
345 difference in data availability, as discussed earlier. It should be pointed out that due to this  
346 difference, the comparison between the precipitation intensities among the two datasets should be  
347 viewed with caution, due to possible year-to-year variability in precipitation amount. For example,  
348 certain years can be wetter than other years. The emphasis of the comparisons in Figs. 3 through  
349 6 should be placed on the diurnal temporal variations and spatial propagation, and less so on  
350 intensity. For these comparisons, we are effectively assuming the general stationarity of the  
351 precipitation propagation and diurnal variation characteristics over the past few decades, which is  
352 supported by earlier studies indicating that the diurnal cycle in summer precipitation has small  
353 year-to-year variation (Dai et al., 1999; Liang et al., 2004).

354 Figure 5 shows that there are clear pattern differences between the simulation and Stage IV

355 data. In the afternoon (Fig. 5h), precipitation develops over the Colorado and New Mexico  
356 mountains, due to convection from thermal forcing. However, such convection fails to organize  
357 into long-lived MCSs and dissipates before moving much farther eastward onto the Plains. (Fig.  
358 5a-d). Over the Great Plains, there is scattered precipitation from the afternoon to the next early  
359 morning (Fig. 5a-f) that appears to be strongest around midnight (Fig. 5c). The weaker simulated  
360 precipitation over north-central Great Plains at midnight (Fig. 5c) roughly corresponds to the  
361 locally developed precipitation in the observations (Fig. 4c). The precipitation over the Great  
362 Plains weakens after midnight and becomes mostly dissipated by the next noon (Fig. 5d-f).

363 The difference in the propagation characteristics is further illustrated by Hovmoller diagrams  
364 of precipitation averaged over the  $35^{\circ}\text{N}$ - $45^{\circ}\text{N}$  latitude band (the southern and northern boundaries  
365 of the red budget box in Fig. 1) and normalized by daily average precipitation (Fig. 6). In the Stage  
366 IV data (Fig. 6a), precipitation first occurs in the afternoon after 14 CST, over the Rocky  
367 Mountains west of  $105^{\circ}\text{W}$ , then starts to move eastward from the mountainous region afterwards  
368 at a speed of about  $10^{\circ}$  longitude over 12 hours. The most intense precipitation reaches  $100^{\circ}\text{W}$   
369 around midnight while the eastern edge has reached  $95^{\circ}\text{W}$ . The precipitation continues to move  
370 eastward and reaches  $90^{\circ}\text{W}$  at around 06 CST at its leading edge (Fig. 6a). The rate of eastward  
371 propagation appears to accelerate somewhat between 03 and 06 CST; this should be a result of  
372 locally developing precipitation after 03 CST to the east (around  $95^{\circ}\text{W}$ ) instead of being all caused  
373 by eastward propagation. The precipitation is weakest between 09 and 15 CST. All of these results  
374 are consistent with the overall diurnal variations of precipitation over the Central Plains seen  
375 earlier.

376 Within the WRF simulation, between the  $100^{\circ}\text{W}$  and  $95^{\circ}\text{W}$  longitude zone, precipitation

377 maximum is found between 18 CST and 00 CST (Fig. 6b), roughly 3 hours earlier than observed  
378 and the propagating precipitation is also displaced eastward by about 5° (Fig. 6a). West of 105°W,  
379 the afternoon precipitation does not show much sign of eastward propagation and the most intense  
380 precipitation remains west of 109°W (Fig. 6b). In fact, between 105°W and 100°W, and from 21  
381 CST to 03 CST, there appears to be a precipitation ‘trough’, suggesting in another way the lack of  
382 eastward propagation of precipitation across the region into the Central Plains. The stronger  
383 precipitation east of 100°W between 18 CST and 00 CST appears to be locally initiated and it does  
384 show signs of eastward propagation after formation (Fig. 6b). The above results clearly show that  
385 WRFG fails to reproduce the eastward propagation of convection that develops in the afternoon  
386 over the Rockies, that based on the Stage IV data and other earlier studies are important  
387 contributors to the nighttime and overall precipitation over the Central Plains.

388 The anomaly in simulating eastward propagation of convective systems has also been reported  
389 in other regional climate simulations (Klein et al., 2006; Lee et al., 2007b; Sun et al., 2016; Hu et  
390 al., 2018). The difficulty for models that rely on cumulus parameterization to produce most  
391 convective precipitation has been pointed out in previous research (e.g., Brockhaus et al., 2008;  
392 Dai et al., 1999; Gochis et al., 2002; Harding et al., 2013; Klein et al., 2006; Molinari and Dudek,  
393 1992; Weisman et al., 1997). Models run at convection-allowing/resolving resolutions are  
394 significantly better at reproducing propagation of mesoscale convective systems (e.g., Davis et al.  
395 2003; Clark et al., 2009; Hu et al., 2018; Kwon and Hong, 2017; Lim et al., 2014; Sun et al., 2016).  
396 Given that many climate simulations will continue to use convection-parameterizing resolutions,  
397 especially for global climate models (Gutowski et al., 2020), this problem remains important,  
398 especially for regions where precipitation is significantly affected by propagating systems. A  
399 reasonable solution has to be found for future regional climate simulations at convection-

400 parameterizing resolutions, as far as water cycles are concerned. The defect of the model in  
401 simulating the eastward propagation process at least partly contributes to its dry bias in simulating  
402 the central U.S. precipitation.

#### 403 **4.2. Large-scale atmospheric circulation and environmental conditions**

404 Mesoscale convective systems (MCSs) most often develop in favorable large-scale  
405 environments with adequate water vapor, atmospheric instability, and effective uplift (Houze,  
406 2004; Loriaux et al., 2016). Thus, how well a regional climate model simulates the large-scale  
407 environmental conditions that trigger and forcing convection affects its performance simulating  
408 precipitation. Hence, we evaluate the regional atmospheric circulation and environmental  
409 conditions simulated by WRFG and hope to gain further insights into its precipitation simulation  
410 error. Because the main precipitation error occurs in the early morning hours, in the rest of this  
411 section, we will focus on circulations and other atmospheric conditions in the early morning, in  
412 particular at 06 CST (1200 UTC) when reanalysis data are available.

##### 413 **4.2.1. Large-scale atmospheric circulation**

414 Figure 7 shows the geopotential height and horizontal wind field on 850 hPa level in the early  
415 morning at 6 CST of July averaged over 1986-2004 in NARR reanalysis data (Fig. 7a) and WRFG  
416 simulation (Fig. 7b). The Bermuda high, a semi-permanent, subtropical high pressure in the North  
417 Atlantic Ocean off the east coast of North America is closely linked to the regional climate of the  
418 central and east parts of U.S. (Diem, 2006; Katz et al., 2003; Henderson and Vega, 1996; Li et al.,  
419 2011; Ortegren et al., 2011; Stahle and Cleaveland, 1992). If using the 1560 gpm contour at 850  
420 hPa to represent the boundary of the Bermuda High following Li et al. (2011), the Bermuda High  
421 in WRFG appears narrower in its north-south extent, and its east-west ridge axis is located further  
422 north, from the observed  $\sim 25^{\circ}\text{N}$  to simulated  $\sim 31^{\circ}\text{N}$ . This northward displacement means that

423 there is stronger easterly and weaker southerly component in the onshore flow towards Texas from  
424 the Gulf of Mexico in WRFG than in the observation, potentially transporting less moisture from  
425 the Gulf into the central U.S. On the northwest side of the Bermuda High, the southerly flows  
426 appear to extend further north in NARR than in WRFG, again potentially bringing more moisture  
427 and high-instability air into the Central U.S. Apart of these potentially important differences in  
428 details, overall, the circulation pattern over CONUS is reproduced reasonably well.

429 To reveal the relationship between the Great Plains precipitation and the low-level  
430 atmospheric circulation, we calculate the correlation coefficient of the July precipitation intensity  
431 within the red budget box of Fig. 1 (blue box in Fig. 8) and the 850 hPa geopotential height at  
432 individual grid points, and the correlation coefficients between precipitation intensity and  
433 horizontal wind components at the 850 hPa level (Fig. 8a) using NARR reanalysis. For the wind  
434 components, the two correlation coefficients are plotted in the form of vectors, so that a long  
435 northeastward-pointing vector means large positive correlations with both components. Figure 8  
436 shows that the precipitation intensity within our budget box is negatively correlated to the 850 hPa  
437 height in a zone stretching from southwestern Texas through southwestern Iowa, and positively  
438 correlated with the 850 hPa height in the coast region of eastern Gulf of Mexico, with the maximum  
439 located at the Alabama coast. Such a correlation pattern clearly indicates that the precipitation in  
440 our budget region is positively correlated with the geopotential height gradient at the northwestern  
441 perimeter of Bermuda High, which is directly linked to the geostrophic wind speed along the  
442 perimeter. This is confirmed by the correlation coefficient vectors shown in Fig. 8a. Stronger  
443 southwesterly wind at the 850 hPa level between the locations with positive and negative height  
444 correlation coefficients enhances precipitation in the Central U.S. The southwesterly winds,  
445 making up a synoptic low-level jet (LLJ) at the perimeter of the Bermuda High, transport warm,

446 moist marine air from the Gulf of Mexico to the Great Plains and the Midwest region and have  
447 great impact on the precipitation distribution and intensity over this region (Higgins et al., 1997;  
448 Zhu and Liang 2007, 2005a; Helfand and Schubert 1995; Wang and Chen 2009). Consequently,  
449 error in predicting such flows would lead to error in precipitation simulation in the region.

450 The difference fields between the WRF simulation and the NARR reanalysis in 850 hPa  
451 geopotential height and winds (Fig. 8b) show a ‘horse saddle’ pattern, with two high anomaly  
452 centers located in western Texas (that probably extends all the way over northwest U.S.) and  
453 eastern U.S., and two low anomaly centers over Kansas and the Gulf of Mexico. Such pattern  
454 corresponds to too weak subtropical high over the Gulf, and too high pressure over western Texas  
455 – leading to too weak east-west pressure gradient over southern Texas, the path of warm moist air  
456 from the Gulf into the Central Great Plain. Related to this pattern, the flows near the southern  
457 Texas Gulf coast show northerly anomaly what would act to reduce onshore moisture transport  
458 (Fig. 8b). Further, there is northerly wind anomaly in west Texas and southeast wind anomaly in  
459 northeast Texas. These differences are partly the result of eastward shift of southerly LLJ, leading  
460 to possibly less convective storm initiation in the western part of Texas and Oklahoma. The  
461 suggested negative biases in warm moist air transport from the Gulf into Central Great Plains can  
462 explain to some extent the dry bias in WRF over Central U.S. Further north, the height anomaly  
463 pattern implies higher pressure gradient and stronger southerly flows in WRF at 850 hPa over  
464 the southeastern part of our budget box in WRF. Such flow anomaly appears to have, however,  
465 mostly originated from the southeast coastal regions rather than from the ocean in the Gulf. Also,  
466 even if they transport more moisture, they will mainly contribute to precipitation in the mid-west  
467 region outside of our budget box.

468 Figure 9 shows the vertical cross-sections of mean air temperature and geopotential height at

469 6 CST in July with their horizontal means removed, along the northwest-southeast slope in Texas  
470 (denoted as the brown line in Fig. 8b). The topography decreases from west Texas to the coastal  
471 region. In the lower level of the troposphere, there is a warm low pressure system over the plateau  
472 and a cold high pressure system over the gulf coastal plain. The land surface absorbing solar  
473 radiation acts as an elevated heat source for the atmosphere. The horizontal thermal contrast (Fig.  
474 9a) partly leads to the horizontal pressure gradient (by lowering pressure on the west side, Fig. 9b),  
475 and southerly wind over Texas (Fig. 10a) in the lower troposphere in the NARR reanalysis. The  
476 difference fields between WRF simulation and the NARR reanalysis in Fig. 9c. clearly show  
477 cold bias of temperature within about 1 km above the land surface in simulation. At the 825 hPa  
478 level, the along-slope thermal contrast is one-third smaller in simulation. Correspondingly, the  
479 horizontal geopotential height gradient along the slope is about 50% smaller in simulation than in  
480 NARR reanalysis (Fig. 9d). These may be one of the reasons for the simulation bias in the low  
481 level southerly winds (Fig. 10).

482 In the NARR reanalysis data, the time-averaged southerly LLJ is in the lower troposphere over  
483 the sloping terrain from the New Mexico Plateau to the plains in central and eastern Texas (Fig.  
484 10a). The climatological average maximum meridional wind speed of the jet is larger than  $8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$   
485 at the height of about 1 km above the ground. It can be decomposed into two components including  
486 geostrophic wind and ageostrophic wind. The geostrophic meridional component is southerly from  
487 the surface to the middle troposphere (Fig. 10b). At the height of LLJ, at about 875 hPa over the  
488 plateau and about 925 hPa over the Plains (over these regions, these heights are within the  
489 planetary boundary layer, and the jet is boundary layer LLJ that reaches peak intensity in early  
490 morning and the boundary layer inertial oscillation is believed to be the primary cause, Blackadar,  
491 1957), the geostrophic meridional wind is about  $6 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . The ageostrophic meridional component

492 at the same height is weaker, which is about  $3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . The difference fields between WRFG and  
493 NARR show that the simulated meridional wind of LLJ is about  $2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  weaker, and the core of  
494 LLJ is shifted downward compared to NARR (Fig. 10d). These results echo and enrich research  
495 that reported WRFG tends to underestimate the warm season southerly LLJ frequency, speed and  
496 elevation at the rawinsonde locations in the central plains (Tang et al., 2016). They highlighted the  
497 need to further examine the differences in the jet formation mechanisms. Our research indicates  
498 this simulation bias can be at least partly attributed to the weaker southerly geostrophic wind  
499 component (Fig. 10e). At the level of LLJ core, there is clear northerly anomaly in geostrophic  
500 winds (Fig. 10e), which is likely related to the error in land surface processes in WRFG that affects  
501 the east-west geopotential height gradient. The simulated ageostrophic southerly wind at the level  
502 of LLJ core is weaker (Fig. 10f). The downward shift of the LLJ core is related to the near ground  
503 southerly anomaly in ageostrophic winds. This suggests possible error sources in boundary layer  
504 parameterization, because of the key role of boundary layer inertial oscillation in producing the  
505 boundary layer nocturnal LLJ (Blackadar 1957; Xue et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2022).

#### 506 **4.2.2. Environmental conditions**

507 The LLJ simulation biases discussed can cause biases in moisture transport toward the Central  
508 Plains leading to errors in precipitation simulation over Central U.S. The NARR reanalysis (Fig.  
509 11a) shows clearly there exists a water vapor transport channel over the east-west sloping terrain,  
510 transporting moisture northward. The moisture transport channel is roughly located at the level of  
511 the boundary layer LLJ, which is about 1 km above the slope. The maximum meridional moisture  
512 transport is at  $\sim 875 \text{ hPa}$  over the plateau and  $\sim 950 \text{ hPa}$  level over the Plains. In WRFG, the low-  
513 level water vapor transported through this cross-section is about 25% lower than in NARR based  
514 on the difference field (Fig. 11b). Considering that a significant part of the convective systems in

515 central U.S. have updraft source levels at the low levels (Weckwerth et al., 2004), we use vertically  
516 integrated moisture flux convergence from surface to 700 hPa to determine the favorable locations  
517 for convection development (Banacos and Schultz 2005). In NARR reanalysis, the water vapor  
518 from the Gulf of Mexico travels through Texas then converges in the downstream regions over  
519 Oklahoma, Arkansas, Missouri, Kansas, and southern Iowa in July (Fig. 12a). While in WRFG,  
520 the water vapor convergence in Oklahoma and Kansas is smaller; there is little moisture  
521 convergence in Iowa (Fig. 12b). This can contribute to the dry bias in the simulation.

522 The atmospheric circulation transports not only moisture but also energy from subtropical  
523 regions to higher latitudes by the LLJ carrying high-energy and high-entropy air at the low levels  
524 which can rise under appropriate vertical lifting in the mid-latitudes and thereby affecting the  
525 generation and maintenance of mesoscale convection (Pauluis et al., 2008). The northward energy  
526 transport by the warm moist air can be approximately expressed as moist enthalpy transport. The  
527 moist enthalpy is defined by

$$528 \quad H = C_p T + L q_v, \quad (1)$$

529 where  $C_p$  is the heat capacity of the dry air at constant pressure,  $T$  the temperature,  $q_v$  the specific  
530 humidity,  $L$  the latent heat of vaporization of liquid water. The northward moist enthalpy transport  
531 flux is

$$532 \quad vH = vC_p T + vLq_v, \quad (2)$$

533 where  $v$  is the meridional wind component. The northward moist enthalpy transport consists of  
534 meridional sensible heat flux and latent heat flux. The NARR reanalysis data show that the  
535 maximum sensible heat is transported northward in lower troposphere, in which the core of  
536 sensible heat flux is located at about 1 km above the slope ground surface, apparently because of  
537 the boundary layer LLJ (Fig. 13a). The maximum center is mostly located west of 100°W. In

538 WRFG, less sensible heat is transported northward (Fig. 13b), and the maximum center is  
539 dislocated eastward to  $\sim 97^\circ\text{W}$  at  $\sim 925\text{hPa}$  level. In NARR reanalysis, the northward latent heat  
540 flux has almost identical location and pattern in the vertical cross section as the sensible heat flux,  
541 apparently due to the LLJ again (Fig. 13c). The simulated northward latent heat flux is also weaker  
542 and its maximum location shifted eastward (Fig. 13d). In general, lower amounts of latent heat and  
543 sensible heat are transported northward from the Gulf to the Great Plains in the WRFG simulation  
544 than in NARR and the maximum transport channel is shifted eastward by several degrees. Less  
545 energy transport implies weaker convection and less precipitation in the simulation.

546 The lifting of air parcels to their level of free convection is a necessary ingredient of deep  
547 convection (Houze, 2004; Loriaux et al., 2016). In the Central U.S., the low-level lifting forcing  
548 often comes from boundary layer flow convergence (Fig. 14a). In the reanalysis data, there is  
549 general convergence at 850 hPa over the Central U.S., with the strongest convergence found in  
550 Oklahoma, Kansas, Arkansas, and Missouri within our budget box. Such low-level convergence  
551 in the early morning hours is mainly due to the deceleration of southerly LLJ in the region, and is  
552 further aided by enhancement to the LLJ at night due to boundary layer inertial oscillations  
553 (Blackadar 1957). The super-geostrophic nocturnal LLJ is more effective at creating horizontal  
554 flow convergence than synoptic scale LLJ that is mostly geostrophic because the latter is nearly  
555 non-divergent (Xue et al., 2018). In the WRFG simulation, the low-level convergence is weaker  
556 in the southwestern part of our budget box while the low-level flows in the northern part are mostly  
557 divergent (Fig. 14b). While the weaker low-level convergence and upper level divergence could  
558 be a result of weaker precipitation in WRFG, the former is more likely the cause of weaker locally  
559 initiated convection, because nighttime precipitation over the Central Plains is known to be forced  
560 by boundary layer convergence related to nocturnal LLJ.

## 561 **5. Summary and conclusions**

562 In this study, the PRISM and Stage IV precipitation data, and the NARR reanalysis data set  
563 are used to assess the performance of RCM WRFG simulation of the central U.S. wet season  
564 precipitation from 1986 to 2004. The WRFG uses the WRF model at a 50 km grid spacing with  
565 the Grell-Devenyi cumulus parameterization scheme; it is a member of the North American  
566 Regional Climate Change Assessment Program (NARCCAP). This member is chosen to detailed  
567 evaluation because WRF model is the most widely used community model for both weather  
568 prediction and regional climate simulations. It has about the largest precipitation simulation bias  
569 among the NARCCAP members over the central U.S. Great Plains. Previous studies have  
570 evaluated the NARCCAP simulations over other parts of the U.S. but less so over the Central Great  
571 Plains. In this region, significant biases are found with the precipitation simulation of WRFG. We  
572 evaluate regional atmospheric circulation and environmental condition biased in WRFG  
573 simulation to help elucidate the possible sources of its precipitation simulation error sources.

574 Results show that the WRFG model can generally reproduce the distribution characteristics  
575 of late spring to early summer precipitation, but it underestimates precipitation intensity in the  
576 Central Great Plains. The primary deficiency of the model in simulating the wet season  
577 precipitation over the Central Great Plains is linked to its lack of skill in simulating nocturnal  
578 precipitation. One reason is that WRFG fails to reproduce the eastward propagation of convective  
579 systems that develop in the afternoon over the Rockies, which are important contributors to the  
580 nighttime and overall precipitation over the Central Plains. This deficiency is commonly known  
581 to simulations at resolutions that require cumulus parameterization, and improvement to cumulus  
582 parameterization scheme is clearly needed for future regional climate simulations. An alternative  
583 is to perform the simulations are convection-allowing resolutions so that cumulus parameterization

584 is no longer necessary, although precipitation simulation biases may not be completely eliminated  
585 (Sun et al., 2016).

586 Locally developed nocturnal convection and precipitation are equally important for the Central  
587 Plains region, and such precipitation is usually forced by boundary layer convergence at the  
588 northern terminus of nocturnal boundary layer LLJ, and the LLJ also plays the important role in  
589 transporting warm and moist air from the Gulf of Mexico into the Great Plains. Hence the model's  
590 ability in accurately simulating the intensity and location of the LLJ, as well as other related  
591 environmental conditions, is another important factor to examine.

592 In WRF simulation, it is found that on average the subtropical high over the Gulf is too weak  
593 and while the simulated pressure over western Texas is too high, leading to horizontal pressure  
594 gradient that is too weak over southern Texas, the path of warm moist air from the Gulf into the  
595 Central Great Plains. Related to this pressure pattern, the flows near the southern Texas Gulf coast  
596 show northerly anomaly (difference of simulation from reanalysis) what would act to reduce  
597 onshore moisture transport. Further, there is also northerly anomaly in west Texas. The simulated  
598 early morning LLJ is also weaker and is displaced to the east by several degrees. These differences  
599 lead to negative biases in warm moist air, hence the moist energy, transport from the Gulf into the  
600 Central Great Plains.

601 Low level convergence in the Central Great Plains is found to be weaker in the simulation,  
602 consistent with the weaker LLJ. The low biases in the northward synoptic scale flows on the  
603 peripheral of the subtropical high, and the low biases in the nocturnal LLJ from the South into  
604 Central Great Plains in the WRF simulation are other important reasons of the too weak  
605 simulation of nocturnal precipitation simulation over the Central Great Plains. Reducing model  
606 error in these aspects is important; higher horizontal and vertical resolutions and improved

607 parameterization schemes including the planetary boundary layer scheme are likely needed.  
608 Spectral nudging can be used to force large scale circulations towards the reanalysis but does not  
609 solve the bias problem for future regional climate simulation if the global climate model simulation  
610 that provides the lateral boundary forcing also has the error (Hu et al., 2018). Clearly, further  
611 refinement to the WRF RCM configurations is needed for it to be used for reliable future climate  
612 dynamic downscaling, or post-processing and calibration are needed based on the past climate  
613 simulation results. Other recent studies indicate that the lack of proper representation of  
614 topography, land-surface processes and groundwater-atmosphere interactions in models can lead  
615 to losses in soil moisture flux that reduce the MCS genesis. Such errors can be possible causes for  
616 the central Great Plains dry bias (e.g., Prein et al, 2020; Barlage et al., 2021). The deficiencies in  
617 realistically representing cloud microphysical processes and MCS kinematic properties are also  
618 among the possible causes (Wang et al. 2022). To fully understand the reasons for the biases, more  
619 numerical experiments are needed, together with detailed diagnostic analyses on the simulation  
620 results.

621  
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630

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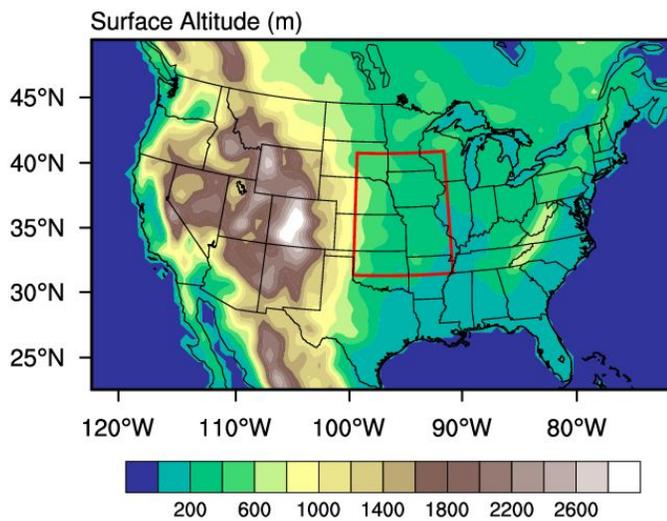
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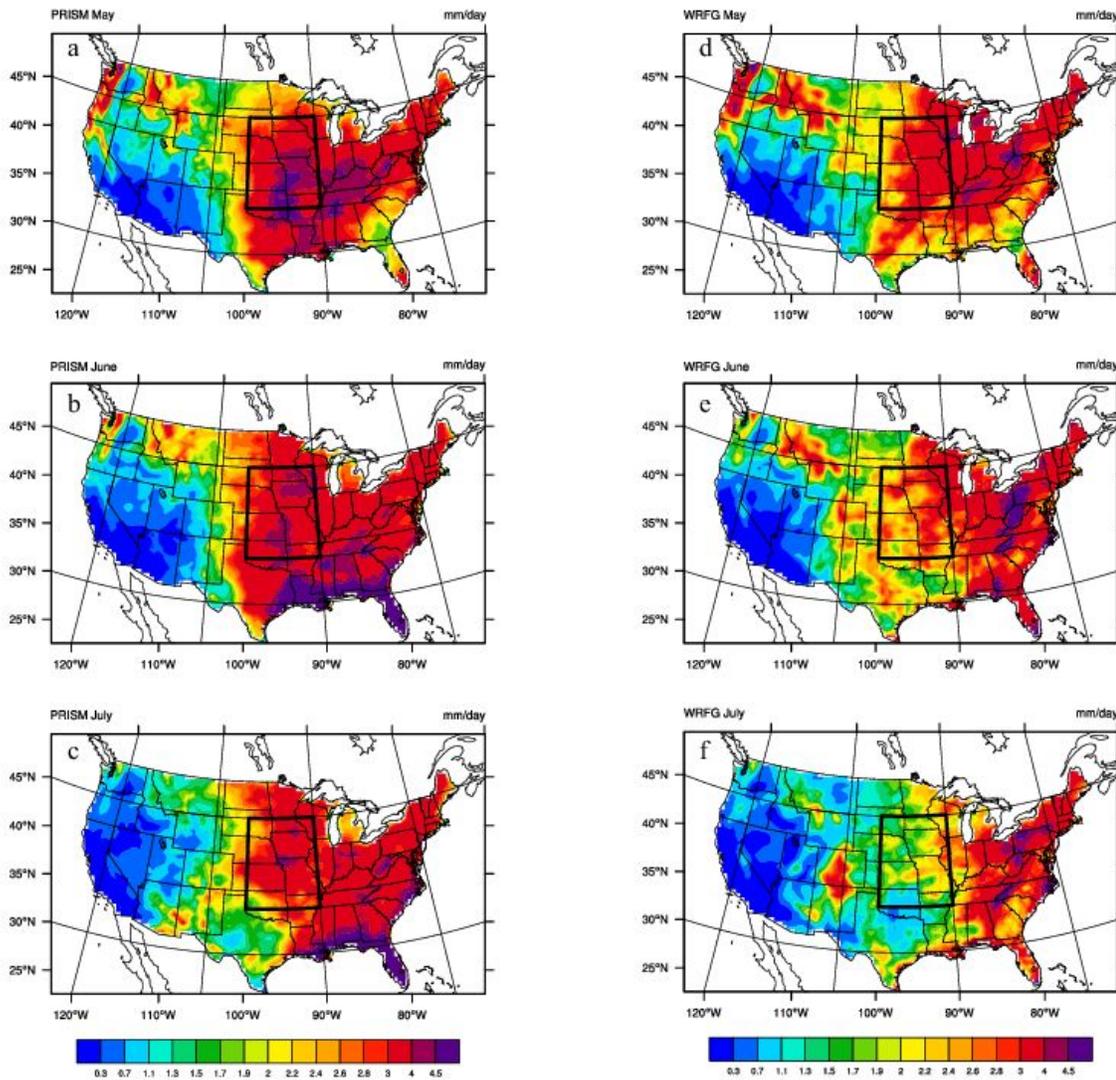


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894 **Fig. 1** Terrain elevation (m) of the United States and part of Canada from WRFG. This is  
895 part of the entire model domain which covers the conterminous United States and most of  
896 Canada. The region we focus our analyses on is the Central Great Plains enclosed by the red  
897 polygon

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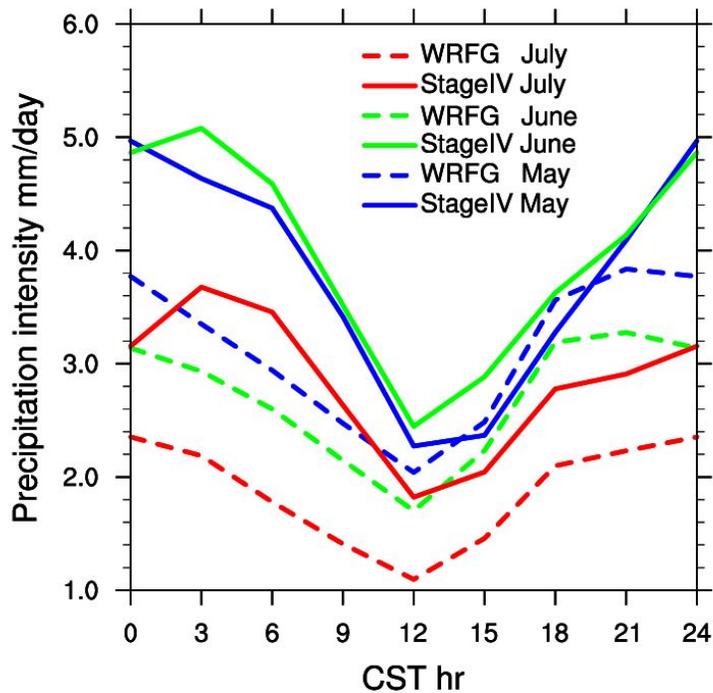
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901 **Fig. 2** Spatial distribution of daily mean precipitation intensity averaged over 1986-2004  
 902 in PRISM (a. May, b. June, c. July), and in WRF simulation (d. May, e. June, f. July) (Unit:  
 903 mm day<sup>-1</sup>)

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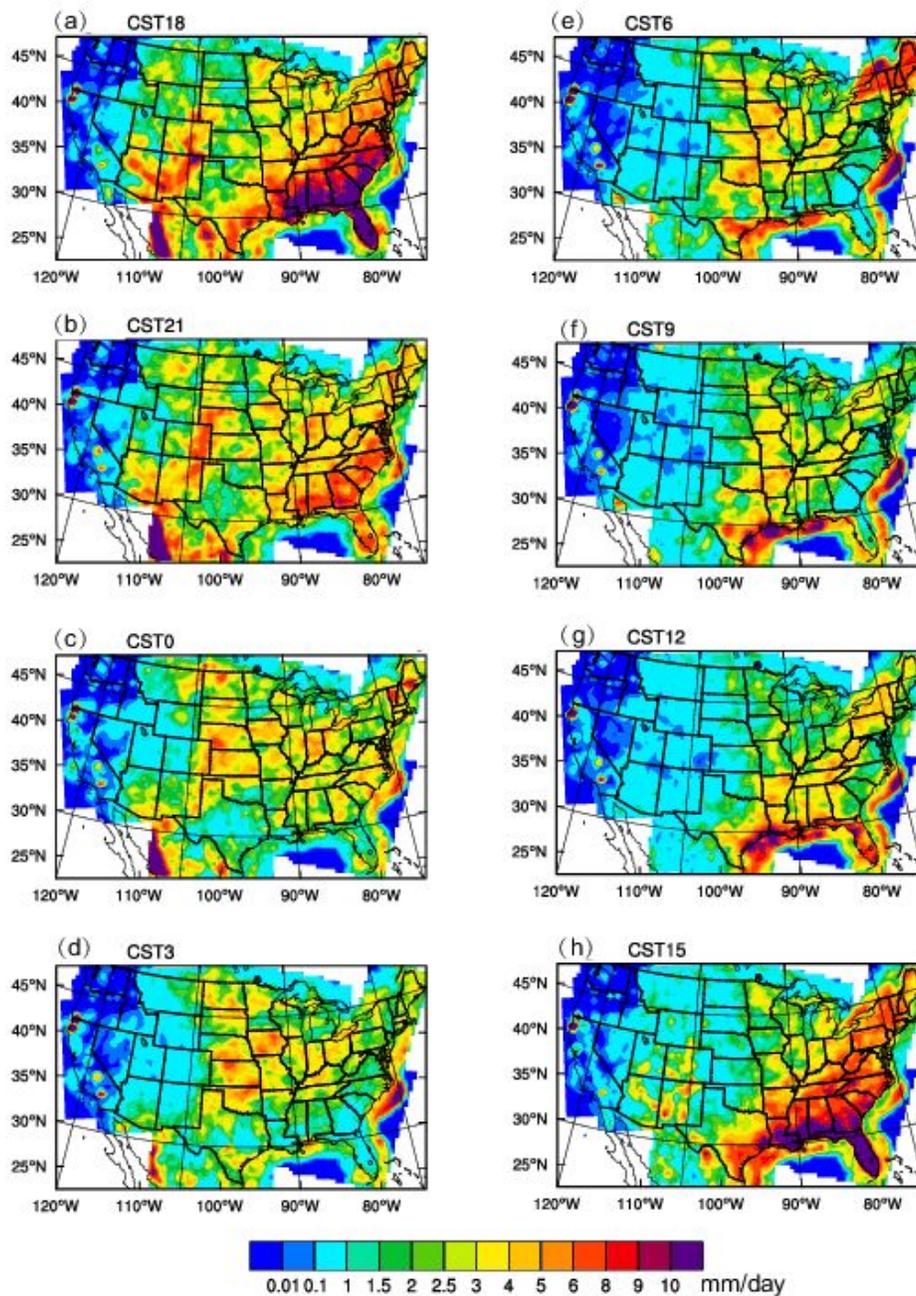
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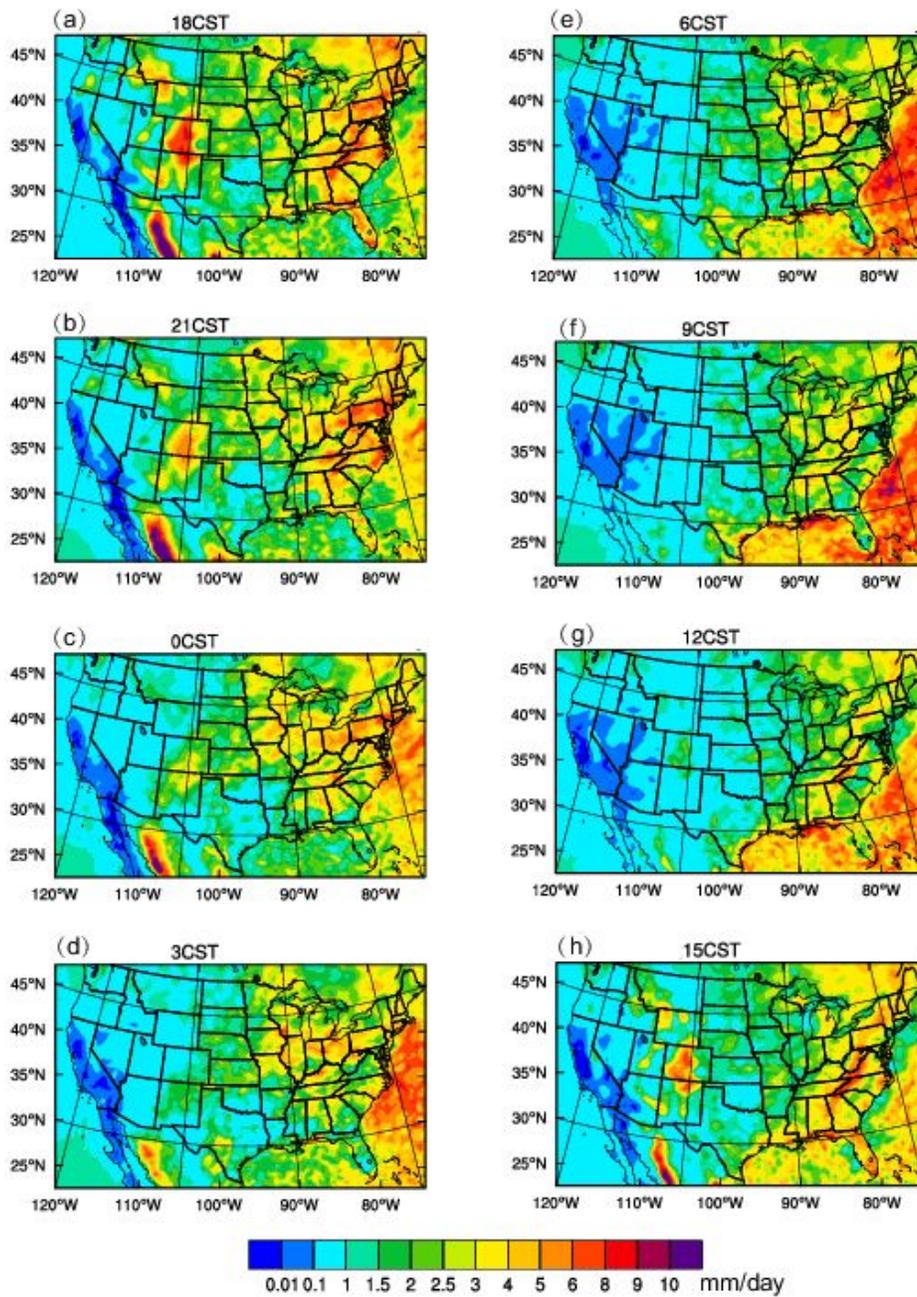
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**Fig. 3** Diurnal variations of mean precipitation intensity (Unit: mm day<sup>-1</sup>) averaged over the central Great Plains (35-45°N, 90-100°W) in Stage IV dataset (solid line) and in WFRG simulation (dashed line) for May (Blue), June (Green) and July (Red). The mean precipitation intensities are obtained by averaging hourly accumulated precipitation over the previous three hours to the times labeled in the figure



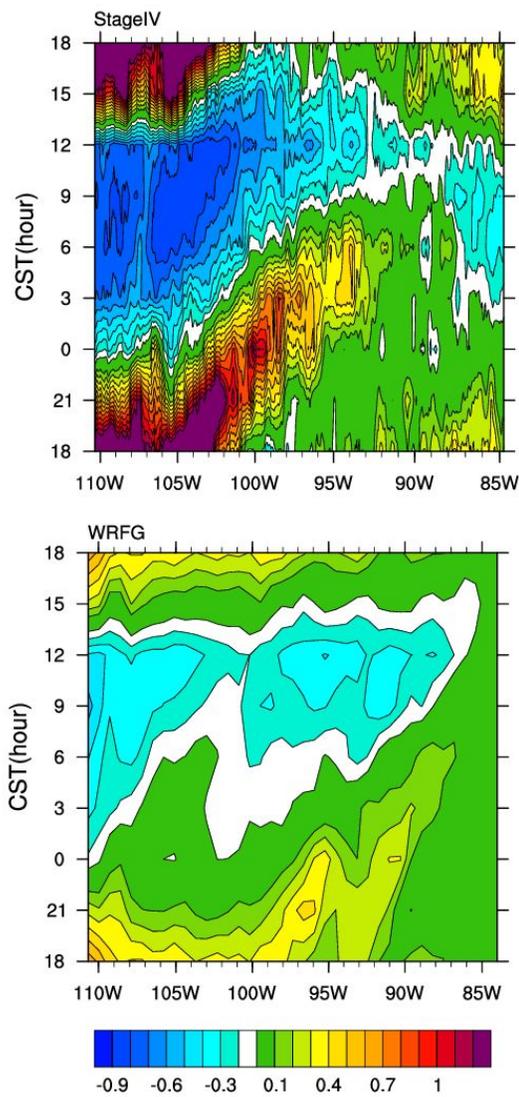
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914 **Fig. 4** Spatial distributions of precipitation intensity (Unit: mm day<sup>-1</sup>) in July averaged over  
 915 2002-2015 in Stage IV data for central standard times indicated in the panels. The precipitation  
 916 intensities are obtained by averaging hourly accumulated precipitation over the previous three  
 917 hours to the times labeled in the figures  
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920 **Fig. 5** Spatial distribution of precipitation intensity in July averaged over 1986-2004 in WRFG  
 921 simulation (Unit: mm day<sup>-1</sup>)  
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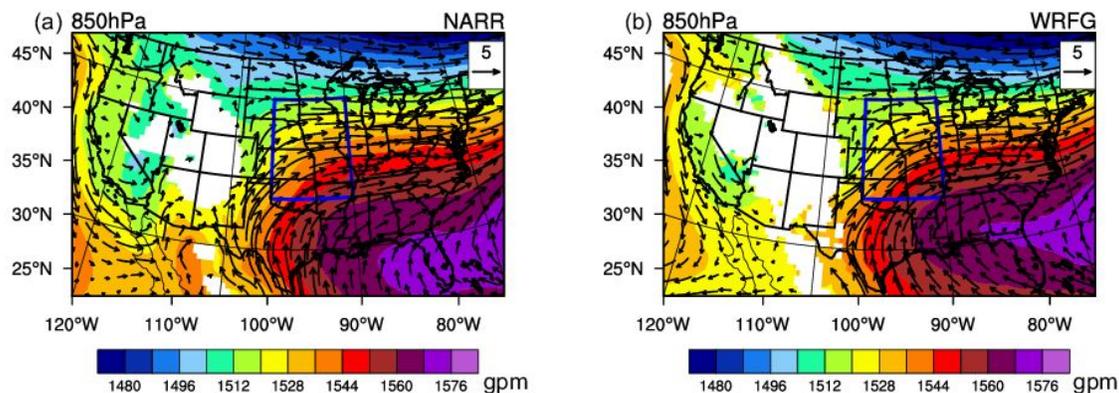


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924 **Fig. 6** Hovmöller diagrams of July diurnal precipitation subtracted by and normalized by the  
 925 daily mean, averaged over the 35°N-45°N latitude band, in Stage IV data (top) and precipitation  
 926 simulated by WRFG (bottom)

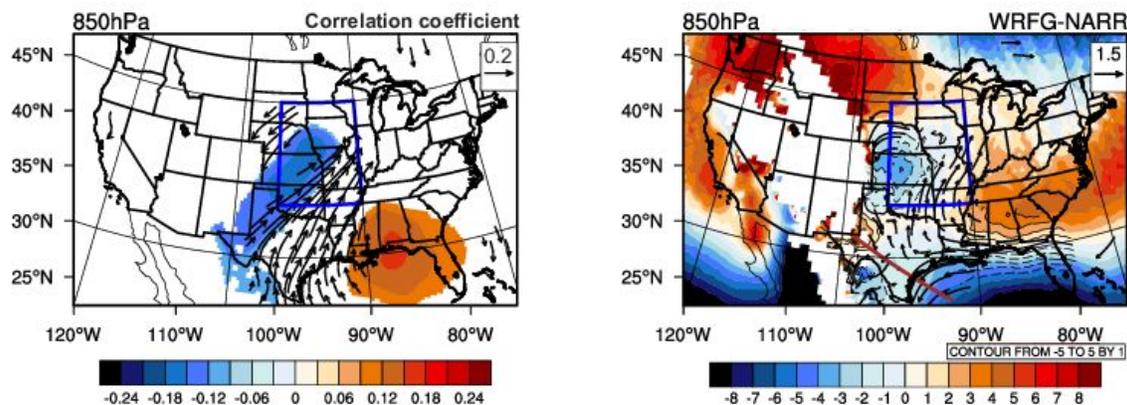
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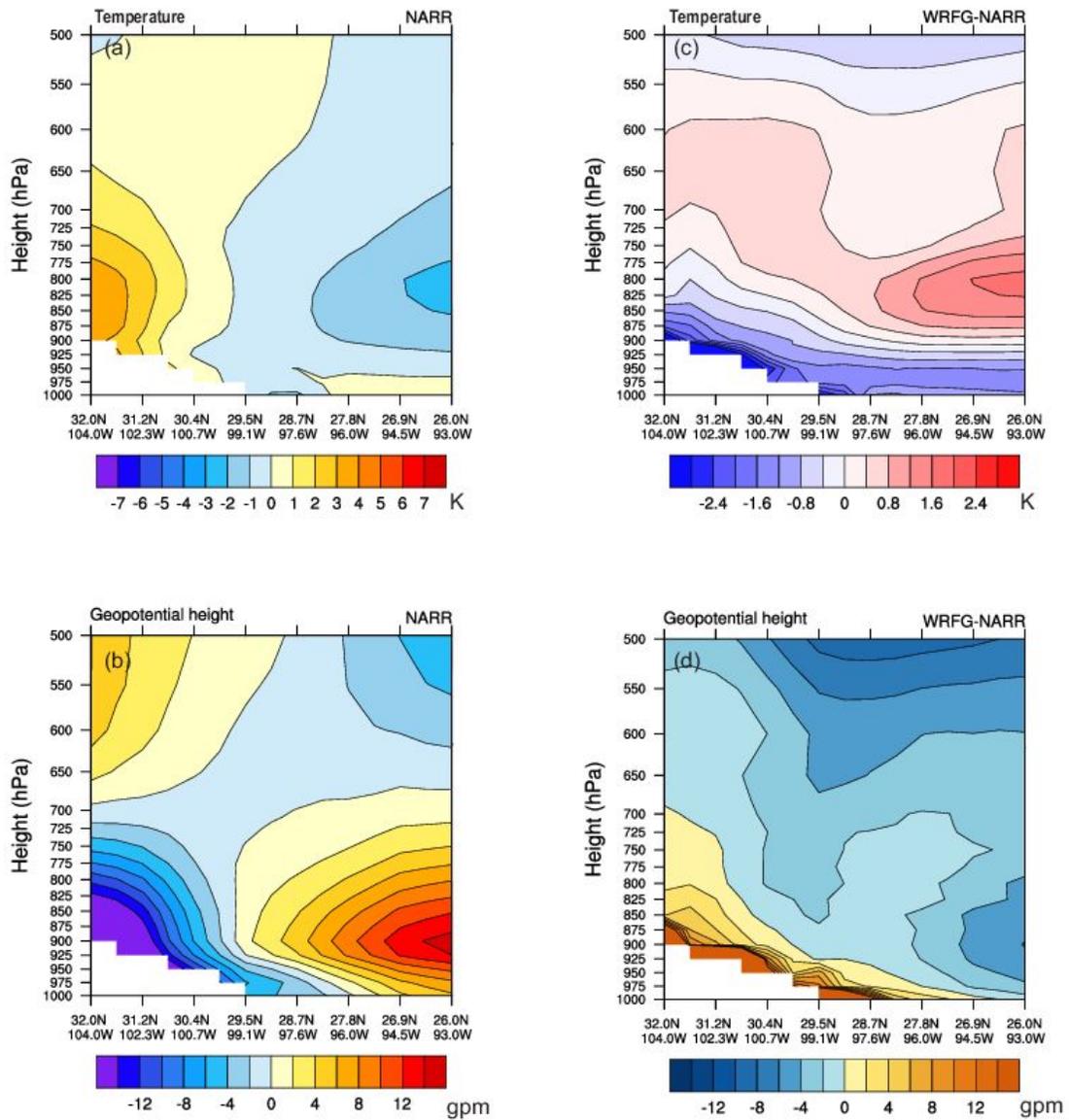
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930 **Fig. 7** The 850 hPa geopotential height (shading, unit: gpm) and horizontal wind (vector,  
 931 unit:  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) at 06 CST averaged in July over 1986-2004 in NARR reanalysis (a), and WRFG  
 932 simulation (b)  
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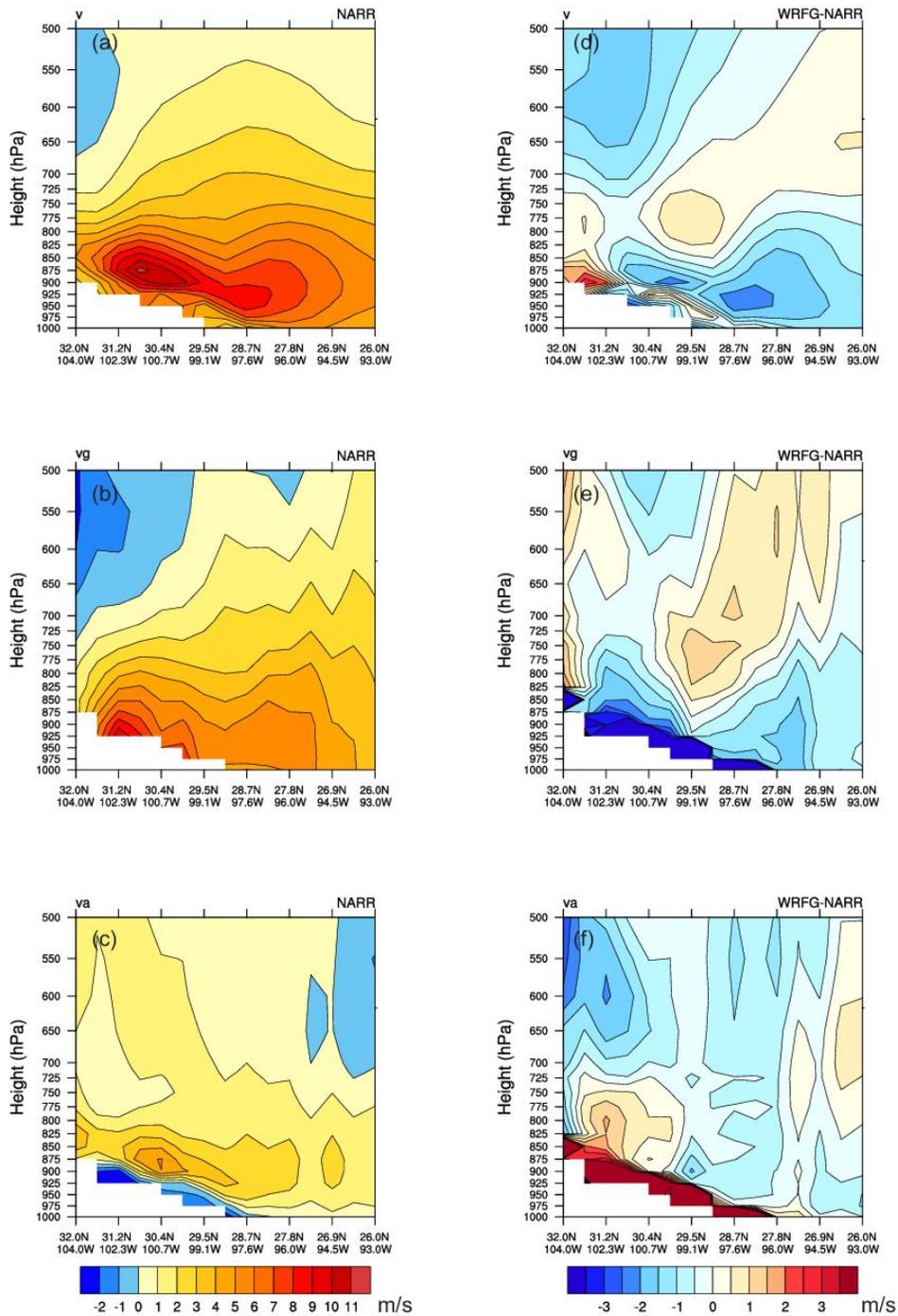
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935 **Fig. 8** The correlation coefficient of the overall Great Plains precipitation intensity within the red  
 936 budget box in Fig. 1 and 850 hPa geopotential height (shading), and the correlation coefficients of  
 937 850 hPa zonal and meridional wind components with Great Plains precipitation intensity  
 938 respectively (vector), significant at the 99% confidence level (a). The correlation statistics are  
 939 calculated using data at 6 CST daily in July during the study period. The projection of vector in  
 940 the latitudinal direction represents the correlation coefficient of zonal wind speed and precipitation  
 941 intensity, and the projection of the vector in meridional direction represents the correlation  
 942 coefficient of meridional wind speed and precipitation intensity. So that a long northeastward  
 943 pointing vector means large positive correlations with both wind components. Difference fields  
 944 between WRFG and NARR (WRFG-NARR) in 850 hPa geopotential height (shading, unit: gpm)  
 945 and horizontal wind (vector,  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) at 6 CST in July averaged over 1986-2004 (b)



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948 **Fig. 9** Vertical cross-section of (a) NARR air temperature and (b) geopotential height with their  
949 horizontal means removed; and (c) air temperature (Unit: gpm) and (d) geopotential height  
950 difference fields between WRFG and NARR at 06 CST of July (Unit: K). The cross-section is  
951 along the northwest-southeast slope over southwestern Texas leading to the New Mexico Plateau,  
952 as denoted by the brown line in Figure 8b

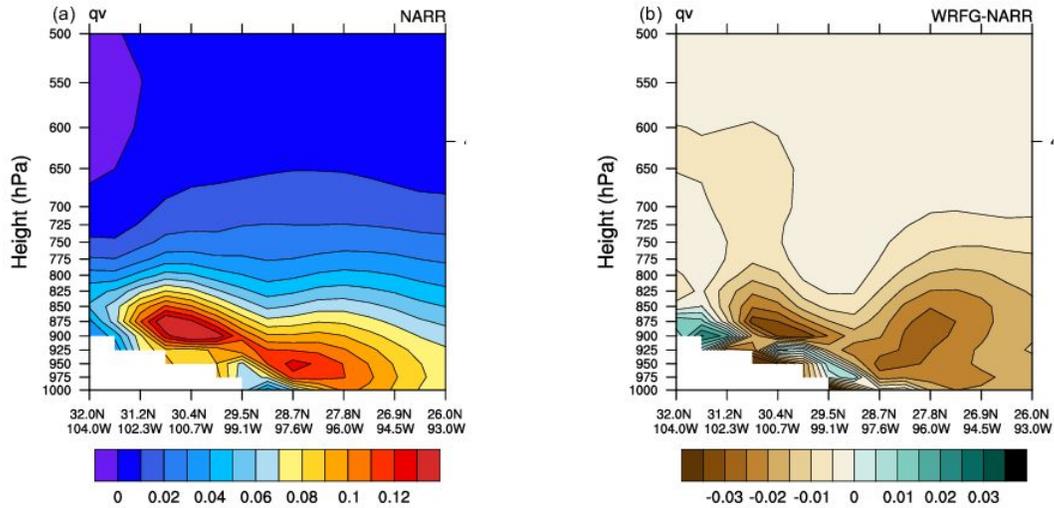


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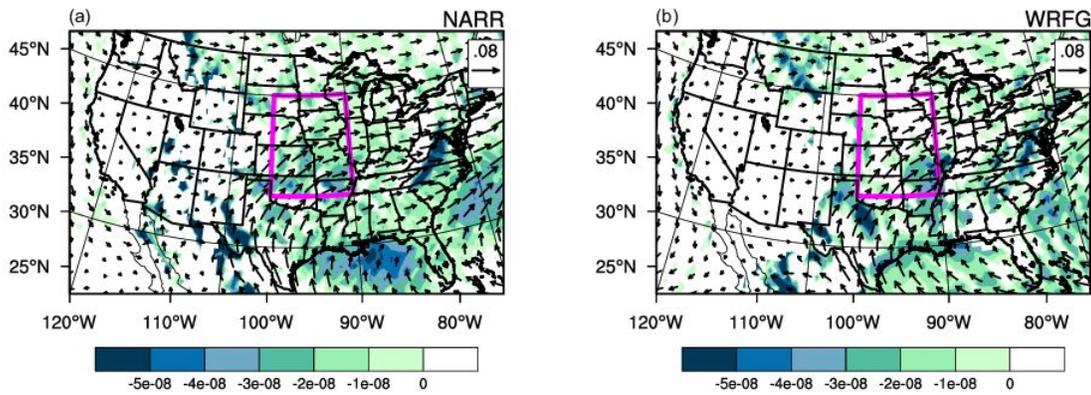
955 **Fig. 10** Vertical cross-section along the brown line in Fig. 8b, of mean NARR (a) meridional  
 956 wind, (b) meridional geostrophic wind, (c) meridional ageostrophic wind and in the right panels  
 957 the corresponding difference fields between WRFG and NARR at 06 CST of July (Unit:  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ )

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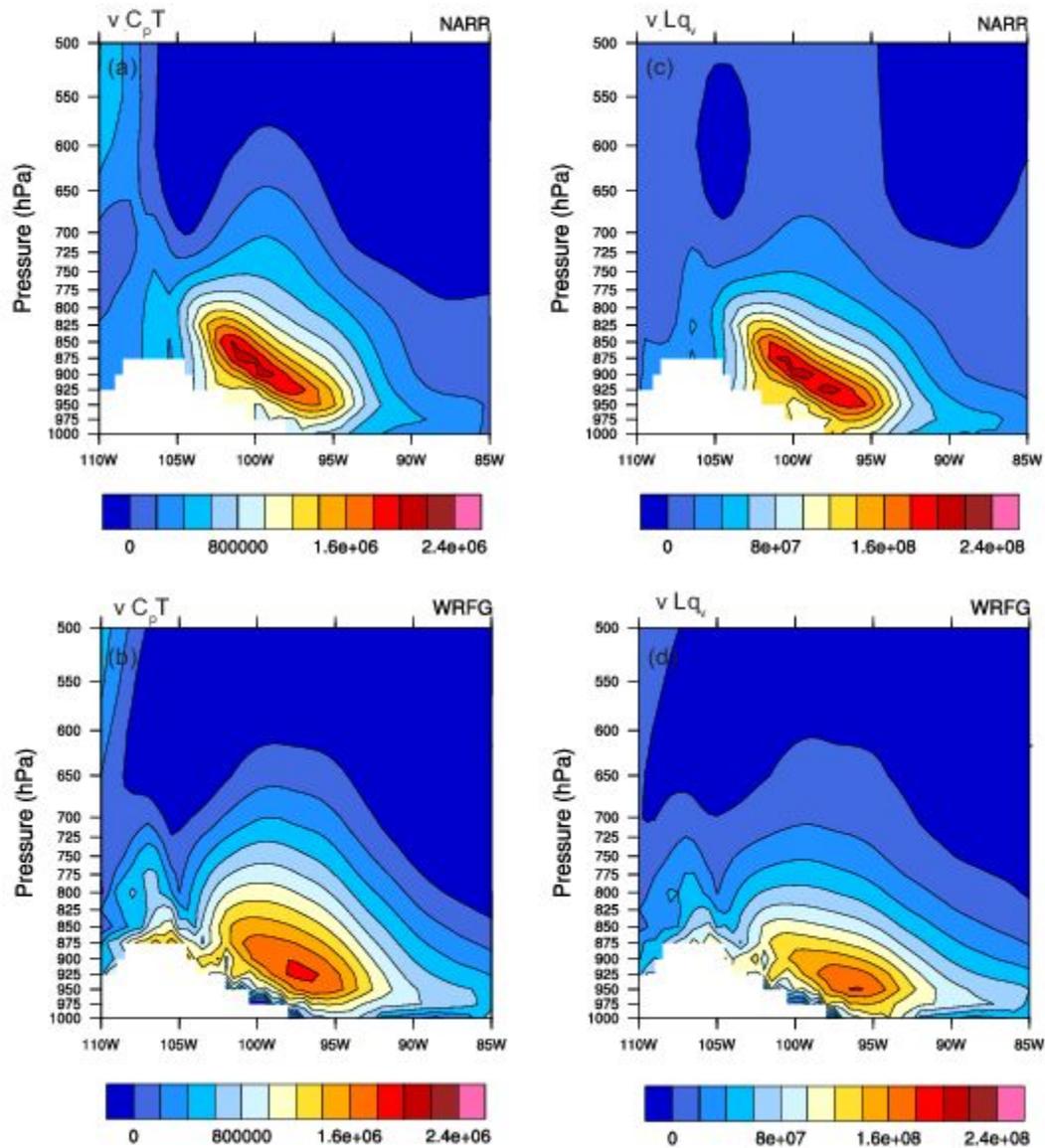
**Fig. 11** Vertical cross-section of meridional moisture flux (unit:  $\text{m kg kg}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) in (a) NARR, and (b) WRFG-NARR (The cross-section is along the northwest-southeast slope which denoted by the brown line in Figure 8b.). The plotted are mean fields of 6 CST in July



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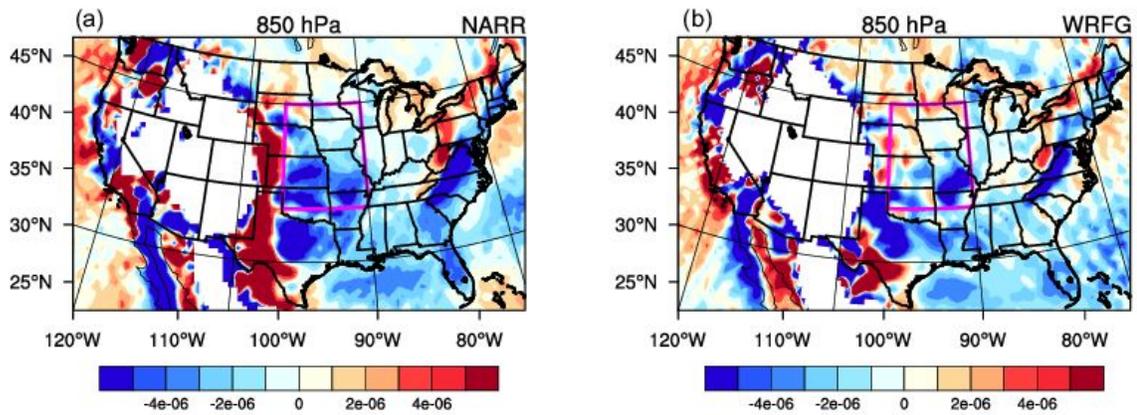
**Fig. 12** Horizontal moisture flux (vector, unit:  $\text{m kg kg}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) and moisture flux divergence (shading, unit:  $\text{kg kg}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) vertically integrated from the 1000 hPa to 700 hPa in (a) NARR and (b) WRFG. The plotted are mean fields of 6 CST in July

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970 **Fig. 13** Meridional sensible heat flux (unit:  $\text{m J s}^{-1} \text{kg}^{-1}$ ) averaged over the  $30\text{--}42.5^\circ\text{N}$   
 971 latitudinal band for (a) NARR, (b) WRFG, and meridional latent heat flux (unit:  $\text{m J s}^{-1} \text{g}^{-1}$ )  
 972 averaged over the  $30\text{--}42.5^\circ\text{N}$  latitudinal band for (c) NARR, (d) WRFG  
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975 **Fig. 14** Horizontal divergence at the 850 hPa level in (a) NARR, (b) WRFG (unit:  $s^{-1}$ ).

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