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The 30 years of GEWEX

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Abstract:	The Global Energy and Water Cycle EXchanges (GEWEX) project was created more than thirty years ago within the framework of the World Climate Research Programme (WCRP). The aim of this initiative was to address major gaps in our understanding of Earth's energy and water cycles as there was a lack of information about the basic

	<p>fluxes and associated reservoirs of these cycles. GEWEX sought to acquire and set standards for climatological data on variables essential for quantifying water and energy fluxes and for closing budgets at the regional and global scales. In so doing, GEWEX activities led to a greatly improved understanding of processes and our ability to predict them. Such understanding was viewed then, as it remains today, essential for advancing weather and climate prediction from global to regional scales. GEWEX has also demonstrated over time the importance of wider engagement of different communities and the necessity of international collaboration for making progress on understanding and on the monitoring of the changes in the energy and water cycles under ever increasing human pressures.</p> <p>This paper reflects on the 30 years of evolution and progress that has occurred within GEWEX. This evolution is presented in terms of three main phases of activity.</p> <p>Progress toward the main goals of GEWEX is highlighted by calling out a few achievements from each phase. A vision of the path forward for the coming decade, including the goals of GEWEX for the future, are also described.</p>
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The 30 years of GEWEX

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45 **Abstract**

46

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48 than thirty years ago within the framework of the World Climate Research Programme
49 (WCRP). The aim of this initiative was to address major gaps in our understanding of
50 Earth's energy and water cycles as there was a lack of information about the basic fluxes
51 and associated reservoirs of these cycles. GEWEX sought to acquire and set standards for
52 climatological data on variables essential for quantifying water and energy fluxes and for
53 closing budgets at the regional and global scales. In so doing, GEWEX activities led to a
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55 understanding was viewed then, as it remains today, essential for advancing weather and
56 climate prediction from global to regional scales. GEWEX has also demonstrated over
57 time the importance of wider engagement of different communities and the necessity of
58 international collaboration for making progress on understanding and on the monitoring
59 of the changes in the energy and water cycles under ever increasing human pressures.

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61 This paper reflects on the 30 years of evolution and progress that has occurred within
62 GEWEX. This evolution is presented in terms of three main phases of activity. Progress
63 toward the main goals of GEWEX is highlighted by calling out a few achievements from
64 each phase. A vision of the path forward for the coming decade, including the goals of
65 GEWEX for the future, are also described.

66

67 **Capsule**

68 Progress on advancing our understanding of and ability to predict Earth's water and
69 energy cycles over the thirty years of the Global Energy and Water Cycle EXchanges
70 (GEWEX) is reviewed.

71

72 **1.0 Introduction**

73

74 The presence of water in all three phases is fundamental to the Earth system. Water is
75 essential to the operation of the Earth's heat engine, in the chemical and biological
76 molding of the Earth's surface and, indeed, to life itself. As the key to all climate

77 problems is the redistribution and storage of the sun's energy over the Earth's surface and
78 its loss to space; it is through the coupling to energy that water exerts its fundamental
79 influence on the physical climate system and on climate change. The meridional
80 redistribution of heat by the atmospheric transport of water vapor, and by ocean gyres
81 strongly constrains the atmospheric circulation and limits the strength of the winds and
82 shapes the distribution of clouds around Earth. Clouds in turn control the planetary
83 albedo and the amount of solar radiation reaching the surface. The inflow of fresh water
84 at high latitudes seas is a major source of buoyancy, which modulates the deep ocean
85 circulation. The ocean circulation, in turn, determines and modulates the climate of many
86 regions of the world. The scavenging of chemicals by precipitation is a major cleansing
87 process of the environment. For these and many other reasons, a quantitative
88 understanding and clear appreciation of how water cycles through the Earth system are of
89 fundamental importance for understanding environmental change on all scales, from
90 global to local.

91
92 The global hydrological cycle is intimately involved in the most basic aspects of Earth
93 system energetics. A realization emerged from the Global Atmosphere Research
94 Programme (GARP, Bolin, 1969) in the latter part of the 1970s: qualitatively little was
95 known about the global and regional aspects of water and energy budgets and even less
96 was understood about the processes that connect these two major components of the
97 Earth system. The acquisition of climatological data on these basic budgets was viewed
98 then, as it remains viewed today, as essential to advance global weather and climate
99 prediction. The existence of this major gap in weather and climate science at that time
100 would not be remedied by the major programs being planned like the World Ocean
101 Circulation Experiment (WOCE, WCRP, 1986) and the Tropical Ocean and Global
102 Atmosphere Project (TOGA, WCRP, 1985) as they mainly addressed slower components
103 of the climate system.

104

105 A new joint water and energy initiative germinated at the Memorial Symposium for Prof.
106 Verner Suomi in honor of his retirement (Figure 1). That symposium was part of the
107 Impacts of Satellites on Atmospheric and Ocean Science Conference in Madison,

108 Wisconsin, in May 1986. At that conference, in part as a response to the presentation of
109 the then-new NASA Earth Observing System (EOS) program by Shelby Tilford
110 promoting satellite measurements for global change research, Verner Suomi, Lennart
111 Bengtsson and Pierre Morel formulated a comprehensive research program focused on
112 the ‘fast’ atmospheric and hydrologic processes. This initiative was the Global Energy
113 and Water Cycle Experiment (GEWEX), and was then launched within the framework of
114 the World Climate Research Programme (WCRP). GEWEX was intended to address gaps
115 in knowledge through the combination of promised new observing systems to augment
116 the existing operational systems and advances to global atmosphere-ocean-land-ice
117 models. This was deemed especially timely, given the potential to exploit technological
118 advances expected to happen with the advent of the emerging NASA’s Earth Observing
119 System (EOS) era (e.g., Dozier, 1994) coupled with the introduction of ever-more
120 powerful computers.

121



122

123 **Figure 1** Professors Pierre Morel and Verner Suomi at the University of Wisconsin-Madison, 13 May
124 1994. Their earlier meeting in 1984 laid the foundation for GEWEX.

125

126 GEWEX became a core project of WCRP and its first scientific plan was published in
127 December 1990. As was pointed out by GEWEX first Scientific Steering Group chair
128 Moustafa Chahine: *“By virtue of its breadth, GEWEX is not an ‘experiment’ in the*
129 *traditional sense; rather, it is an integrated ‘program’ of research, observations, and*
130 *science activities ultimately leading to prediction of variations in the global and regional*
131 *hydrological regimes.”* The plan from the outset was to implement this program as a
132 series of phases that reflect evolution and progress on this broad topic.

133

134 Today, GEWEX is over thirty years old. While the vision of GEWEX has evolved over
135 that time, common themes remain. GEWEX objectives evolved as progress was made
136 and prospects were anticipated throughout its thirty years. GEWEX adopted throughout a
137 methodology that reflected on the joint advances in observations and modeling that have
138 occurred. The aspirational vision of GEWEX, however, has remained broadly similar
139 since its inception as expressed by the goal:

140 *To measure and predict global and regional energy and water variations, trends,*
141 *and extremes (such as heat waves, floods and droughts), through improved*
142 *observations and modeling of land, atmosphere and their interactions; thereby*
143 *providing the scientific underpinnings of climate services.*

144 Using largely the same methodologies, GEWEX continues to actively engage field-based
145 experimental research, with operational forecasting; involve global modeling centers
146 towards advancing model development expressed through process models, hydrological
147 models, large eddy resolving to the convection permitting climate models of today; and
148 exploit observations from Earth orbiting satellites for understanding, modeling and
149 predicting the Earth system.

150

151 The purpose of this paper is to reflect on the 30 years of evolution and progress that has
152 occurred within GEWEX. This is presented as three main phases of activity that define
153 GEWEX and its evolution over time. A set of selected achievements are highlighted and
154 a vision of the path forward for the coming decade is offered.

155

156 **2.0 Phase I – The formative period (1990–2002)**

157

158 Phase I of GEWEX was intended to “*maximize the use of the operational and research*
159 *satellite data of the period to address its stated goal.*” It was also a phase that laid the
160 groundwork for the second phase of GEWEX, which was aimed at exploiting new global
161 observations expected to emerge later in the period. A principal part of the strategy for
162 Phase I was to observe the key energy and water cycle elements globally; to move toward
163 better understanding and improved parameterizations of land surface coupling and cloud

164 processes within mesoscale models through regional process studies; to upscale to global
165 models for prediction; and to downscale for local water resource applications. Phase I
166 also inherited a number of important ongoing activities managed by the WCRP Joint
167 Scientific Committee (JSC) Working Group on Radiative Fluxes (WGRF). This working
168 group provided oversight for a number of developing satellite-based data projects
169 including the surface radiation budget project with the supporting surface radiation
170 networks (the Baseline Surface Radiation Network, BSRN), the International Satellite
171 Cloud Climatology Project (ISCCP) that started in 1984 (e.g., Rossow and Schiffer,
172 1991), global precipitation climatology activities that became the Global Precipitation
173 Climatology Project (GPCP, Huffman et al., 1997), general oversight of Earth Radiation
174 budget observations, and the lead in the Global water Vapor Project (GVaP, Randel et al.,
175 1996), among other efforts.

176

177 A programmatic structure was adopted part way through the phase-defining activities in
178 three separate areas, namely radiation, hydrometeorology, modeling and prediction. The
179 GEWEX Modeling and Prediction Projects (GMPP) consisted of the GEWEX Cloud
180 System Study (GCSS) and the GEWEX Land Atmosphere System Studies (GLASS),
181 which in turn was built on the success of the Project for Intercomparison of Land-Surface
182 Parameterization Schemes (PILPS). The WGRF of the JSC transitioned to the GEWEX
183 Radiation Project (GRP) midway through the decade. In some respects, this was a
184 misnomer, as the GRP oversaw much more than just topics on radiation. The GEWEX
185 Hydrometeorology Projects (GHP) were home to the Continental Scale Experiments
186 (CSEs) as well as the International Satellite Land Surface Climatology Project (ISLSCP)
187 and the Global Runoff Data Centre (GRDC).

188

189 Activities during Phase I were guided by four main objectives under the following
190 themes:

191

192 ***2.1 Global fluxes of water and energy***

193 *Objective: Determine the Earth's hydrologic cycle and energy fluxes using global*
194 *measurements (GRP)*

195 Phase I activities under this objective were mostly framed around the stewardship of a
196 number of global climate data records inherited from the WGRF. ISCCP was one of the
197 earliest global data activities constructed using an existing global constellation of
198 geostationary satellites. As such, ISCCP was a pathfinder activity at that time, facing
199 many issues that arise in forming a data record from multiple sources, and the lessons
200 learned from it remain relevant today. During Phase I, it was realized that these data
201 would be more effectively used as a tool to assess global weather and climate models and
202 to study the role of clouds in climate by first simulating the observations directly within
203 the models and then mimicking the ISCCP analysis. This offered more direct and
204 rigorous means of comparison. This was achieved with the development of the ISCCP
205 simulator that has now been widely used by most major climate modeling centers since
206 its creation over 20 years ago [e.g., Klein and Jakob (1999) among many others]. This
207 simulator laid the foundation for a much wider development of satellite simulators that
208 now serve as a major diagnostic tool for assessing present-day climate models (e.g.,
209 Bodas-Salcedo et al., 2011).

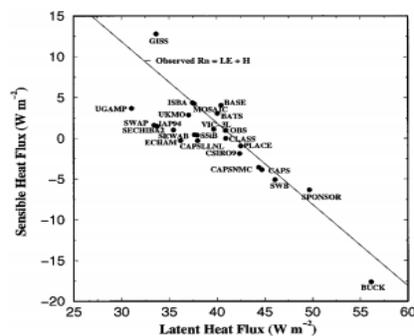
210 The GEWEX International Satellite Land Surface Climatology Project (ISLSCP) was
211 also initiated during this same period. It initially produced a global 1° x 1° land surface
212 dataset along with atmospheric forcing data for one year (Sellers et al., 1996). These data
213 were then expanded to 10 years (1986–1995), and combined with a more comprehensive
214 database of 50 datasets on vegetation, carbon cycle components, hydrological fluxes and
215 stores, soils and topography, radiation and clouds, near-surface meteorology, snow and
216 sea ice and socioeconomics relating to the water cycle. These data were designed to be
217 used as driving input for land surface models and verification data for climate models.

218 ***2.2 Modeling the global hydrological cycle***

219 *Objective: Model the global hydrologic cycle and assess its impact on the atmosphere,*
220 *oceans and land surfaces (GMPP)*

221 To address this objective, the panel concentrated on three important elements relating to
222 water and energy exchanges: (i) clouds, (ii) the atmospheric boundary layer (ABL) and
223 (iii) land surface processes. It was realized from the outset that making advances in land
224 surface models (LSMs) was needed (Sidebar 1). It was also understood that this meant

225 LSMs had to be compared to and assessed against observational data and then
 226 subsequently improved. GEWEX has been instrumental in evolving these land models
 227 (Figure SB1). GLASS continues to promote such improvement using both point
 228 observations, including those obtained from the continental scale experiments (CSEs)
 229 described below, as well as global datasets for a more global assessment of LSMs
 230 (Polcher et al. 2000). It was also recognized that model evaluation needed to be done
 231 within a common framework such as adopted for the Project for the Intercomparison of
 232 Land-Surface Parameterization Schemes (PILPS; Henderson-Sellers et al., 1993), co-
 233 sponsored by the World Meteorological Organization's Working Group on Numerical
 234 Experimentation (WGNE) and GEWEX. Figure 2 is one example from PILPS
 235 highlighting how analysis of point-like data identify shortcomings in land surface process
 236 parameterization (Chen et al., 1997). In this example, data from the atmospheric
 237 boundary layer research station at Cabauw in the Netherlands were used to assess
 238 different LSM representations of latent heat flux (i.e., evapotranspiration) from the
 239 surface. This was one of the most highly-cited papers in land surface modeling at that
 240 time, exposing the weaknesses inherent in the Manabe "bucket" (Manabe, 1969) scheme
 241 that was then widely-used (Fig B1). Increasingly well-constrained experiments then
 242 followed, focused mainly on mid- and high-latitude regions.



243

244 **Figure 2** (from Chen et al., 1997) This figure highlights how point data were used to assess LSMs at
 245 that time. In this example the annually averaged surface sensible (H) versus latent heat (LE) fluxes
 246 (Wm^{-2}) are compared to observations. The observed annual net radiation (Rn) is 41 Wm^{-2} and the line
 247 shown is this net radiation value expressed as the sum of the two coordinates with any single point
 248 falling on the line being simply the surface energy balance relation $R_n = LE + H$. Although some

249 models simulate the annual net radiation close to that observed, the components of the balance differ
250 markedly from observations and many models fail to conserve energy.

251

252 The Global Soil Wetness Project (GSWP, phase 1), a modeling activity of ISLSCP, also
253 formed at the same time, but with a more global, rather than local, focus on LSM
254 assessment (Dirmeyer et al., 1999) that encompassed all climate zones and captured some
255 degree of interannual variability. A pilot phase of GSWP created a two-year global
256 dataset of soil moisture, temperature, runoff and surface fluxes by integrating uncoupled
257 land surface schemes using externally-specified surface forcings from observations and
258 standardized soil and vegetation distributions (Dirmeyer et al., 1999).

259

260 A far-reaching modeling initiative of Phase I that laid the foundation for developments to
261 come, including those of the current decade (Sidebar 2), was an initiative that developed
262 around the concerted use of higher-resolution models to advance the parameterization of
263 clouds in global models. This was the underlying motivation of the GEWEX Cloud
264 System Study (GCSS, GEWEX Cloud System study team, 1993). GCSS aimed to
265 develop better parameterizations of cloud systems for weather and climate models by
266 seeking an improved understanding of cloud physical processes, including convection,
267 leading to a better representation of these models. GCSS was an embodiment of the
268 broader GEWEX methodology. It brought together the observational community and the
269 disparate cloud modeling communities. It seeded the evolution of the convection-
270 permitting regional and global models of today and applied their early versions to the
271 development of parameterizations for global prediction systems. In so doing, GCSS
272 transformed parameterizations with a philosophy that continues today in numerical
273 weather prediction (NWP) and climate modeling centers. Although successful, there was
274 a general over-reliance on models in shaping these parameterization developments and
275 not enough emphasis on critical evaluation of them. Consequently, biases inherent to
276 these process models, such as the bias of vertical motion in deep convection (e.g., Varble
277 et al., 2014) or with respect to the microphysics properties of clouds and precipitation
278 (Kay et al., 2018), persist today with important consequences to current climate change
279 projections (e.g., Mülmenstadt et al., 2021). While some progress has occurred in using

280 observations especially through the application of simulators noted above, much more
281 needs to be done to exploit the ever-improving observational capabilities. Recognition of
282 this need led to the Process Evaluation Study (PROES, Stephens et al., 2015) that was
283 created in the latter phases of GEWEX to promote the development of observational-
284 based diagnostic tools for studying important climate processes.

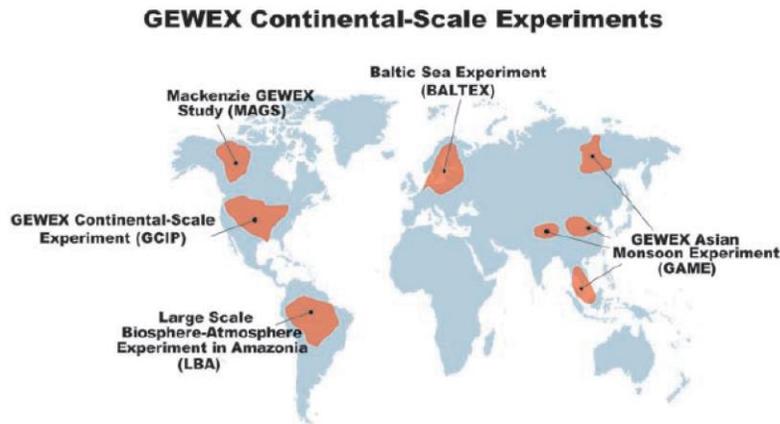
285

286 ***2.3 Regional hydrology and water resources***

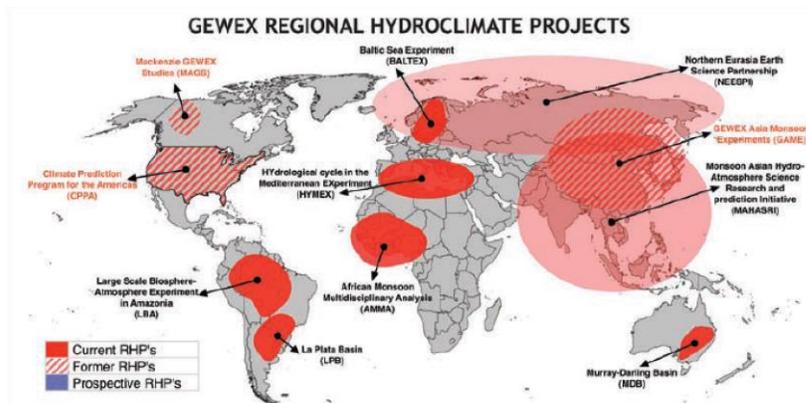
287 *Objective: Develop the ability to predict variations in global and regional hydrologic*
288 *processes and water resources as well as their responses to environmental change (GHP)*

289 Although GEWEX provided the stewardship for a number of global data records, it was
290 decided that addressing some of the important goals of GEWEX, including climate
291 impacts on water resources, required a focus that is a scale-up from the traditional
292 catchment-by-catchment studies traditionally adopted by the hydrology science
293 community to a region or an entire continent. Addressing its hydrological objectives at
294 scales of continental basins made it possible to deduce the main water and energy fluxes
295 by combining meteorological, remote sensing and hydrological data using various
296 methods to close the water and energy cycle as they have compatible footprints. What
297 emerged was the formation of the CSEs, the first being the Continental-Scale
298 International Project (GCIP, Coughlan and Avissar, 1996, Lawford 1999) centered
299 around the Mississippi River basin. This basin was chosen because it was considered to
300 be one of the better-instrumented basins in terms of in situ atmospheric and land-based
301 observations. It would also be an ideal place to evaluate and exploit the new remotely-
302 sensed observations coming on-line during that time. This regional effort was followed
303 before the end of the decade by the introduction of other regional hydrometeorological
304 projects, providing ways to explore other regional climate-related features of the water
305 cycle not represented in the Mississippi River basin, such as permafrost and other cold
306 processes (the Mackenzie GEWEX Study, MAGS; the Baltic Sea Experiment,
307 BALTEX), seasonal high intensity rainfall during monsoons (the GEWEX Asian
308 Monsoon Experiment, GAME), and high year-round evapotranspiration fluxes in tropical
309 forests (the Large-Scale Biosphere-Atmosphere Experiment in Amazonia, LBA). The
310 five CSEs that emerged during Phase I are called out in Figure 3a.

311



312



313

314 **Figure 3** (a) The five original CSE's of GEWEX, and (b) A summary of the RHPs created over the
315 course of GEWEX including the initial 5 CSEs.

316

317 **2.4 Observing systems**

318 *Objective: Foster the development of observing techniques, data management and*
319 *assimilation systems for operational application to long-range weather forecasts,*
320 *hydrology and climate predictions*

321 During Phase I, and before the appearance of the decadal surveys conducted within the
322 USA more than a decade later, the GEWEX community was an important voice in
323 defining gaps in Earth observations, deemed a priority for the science of that community
324 (e.g., Morel and Readings, 1989). These priorities, at that time, aligned in three areas: i)
325 precipitation, ii) clouds and radiation and iii) winds. While some of these priorities have
326 been addressed in part over time with measurements of winds from Aeolus, cloud vertical
327 structure by CloudSat, measurement of the radiation budget from Clouds and the Earth's

328 Radiant Energy System (CERES), and precipitation provided by Tropical Rainfall
329 Measuring Mission (TRMM) and now the Global Precipitation Mission (GPM), major
330 gaps in our global Earth observing system remain today (e.g., NAS, 2018). Strategies for
331 sustained monitoring of the essential variables of the Earth system remain a work in
332 progress.

333

334 **3.0 Phase II – A period of consolidation (2003–2013)**

335

336 Phase II was intended to utilize GEWEX *"prediction capabilities, datasets and tools for*
337 *assessing the consequences of global change"*, particularly as they relate to water
338 resources and the related applications communities. While the original objectives of
339 Phase I remained, the transition from Phase I to Phase II was characterized by a greater
340 emphasis on water resources and on the impact of a changing climate on the water cycle.
341 This phase focused on the full exploitation of the tools developed for Phase I and the
342 understanding that also resulted and benefited from expanding data records, along with
343 increased reliance on upgraded models and assimilation systems and new environmental
344 satellite systems that promised even greater contributions to climate science and large-
345 scale hydrology. Notable were the long-awaited EOS satellites of NASA (e.g., Terra,
346 Aqua) that were about to provide important data for the GEWEX community especially
347 with the promise of more definitive precipitation measurements from TRMM, as well as
348 the European Space Agency Environmental Satellite, ENVISAT, launched in 2002 (a
349 precursor to the Sentinels of today), and the Advanced Earth Observation Satellite II
350 (ADEOS II) of the Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency launched in 2002 after ADEOS
351 I failed 10 months after launch in 1996.

352

353 Phase II of GEWEX set forth four principal scientific questions that were a refinement of
354 the basic questions of Phase I. These were related to variability of the water and energy
355 cycles and subsequent change to these cycles. This was a natural progression from Phase
356 I, given that the growing length of data records offered potential to document Earth
357 system change and improve methods to understand it. The questions motivating the
358 activities of Phase II were:

- 359 • Are Earth's energy budget and water cycle changing?
- 360 • How do processes contribute to feedbacks and causes of natural variability?
- 361 • Can we predict these changes on seasonal to interannual time scales?
- 362 • What are the impacts of these changes on water resources?

363

364 Assessments were a common theme of phase II. These ranged from the evaluation and
365 analysis of the lengthening observational data records with emphasis on uncertainty
366 quantification, assessment of the degree to which water and energy budgets could be
367 “closed” notably on a continental scale, and assessments of models of varying
368 complexity.

369

370 *3.1 Evaluation of Earth’s energy budget and water cycle datasets*

371 During this phase GEWEX’s objective was to produce consistent research-quality
372 datasets complete with error descriptions of the Earth’s energy budget and water cycle
373 deemed necessary for understanding the context of variability and trends on interannual
374 to decadal time scales, for use in climate system analysis and for model development and
375 validation. Consequently, the growing emphasis on assessment of data records during this
376 period came with a sharper focus on understanding and quantifying uncertainties attached
377 to the different GEWEX products. This included assessment and validation of a 20-plus
378 year record of surface radiation balance (SRB, Zhang et al., 2009) which depended
379 heavily on the continued oversight, stewardship and procedures of the Baseline Surface
380 Radiation Network (BSRN, Ohmura et al., 1998). The BSRN continues to be a flagship
381 data effort of GEWEX (Driemel et al., 2018) aimed at validating surface radiative flux
382 methodologies of the type used to construct global balances described in Sidebar 3. This
383 was one part of a larger concerted effort that revolved around quantifying the errors of
384 individual energy and water cycle components that, from the energy balance perspective,
385 were summarized for the first time in Stephens et al. (2012). The importance of the
386 planetary Earth Energy Imbalance (EEI) and challenges associated in quantifying it also
387 began to come into focus (e.g., Trenberth and Fasullo, 2010; and later von Schuckmann
388 et al., 2016). The error characterization of Earth’s energy budget that was being
389 constructed during Phase II became an essential ingredient of the more integrative and

390 objective water and energy balance assessments that emerged during Phase III,
391 highlighted in Sidebar 3.

392

393 The cloud assessment of Stubenrauch et al. (2013) is a notable example of this important
394 Phase II activity. This was a community-led assessment that found no clear evidence of
395 changes in global cloudiness over the more than 20 years of different cloud records
396 assessed.

397

398 ***3.2 Continental scale water and energy balance closures***

399 Roads et al. (2002) presented a preliminary water and energy budget synthesis (WEBS)
400 of the GCIP Mississippi basin for the period 1996–1999 using the “best available”
401 observations and models of that time. They concluded that the observations available
402 could not adequately characterize or “close” budgets since the contributions of too many
403 fundamental processes were missing from the observations. They argued for a synthesis
404 with models that properly represent the many complicated atmospheric and near-surface
405 interactions to help close these budgets, an approach being the forerunner to more
406 advanced analysis systems that would begin to develop later. The preliminary synthesis
407 they provided included a representative global general circulation model, a regional
408 climate model and a macroscale hydrologic model in addition to global reanalysis. A
409 qualitative understanding of the water and energy budgets was then gleaned from this
410 early synthesis of model and observations.

411

412 The GHP framed its activities around obtaining unique and concentrated observations
413 from the five Continental Scale Experiments noted in Figure 3a. Phase II saw more
414 efforts to integrate across the CSEs. A selected time period for simultaneous
415 investigations of water and energy cycles was chosen that would draw upon and integrate
416 the efforts of these individual CSEs. This initiative was the Coordinated Enhanced
417 Observing Period (CEOP). The purpose was to provide data from a multitude of sources
418 in a common format to address two main science themes: the simulation and prediction of
419 the water and energy cycles, with a focus on monsoon systems.

420

421 ***3.3 Water resource impacts and the emergence of CORDEX***

422 The CSEs also expanded their scope by going beyond just the observation of the physical
423 processes associated with the water and energy cycle and began to connect both to other
424 disciplines and stakeholder interests. The three CSEs that most illustrated this expanded
425 reach were the Baltic Sea Experiment (BALTEX), the African Monsoon
426 Multidisciplinary Analyses (AMMA) and CLARIS-LPB. Each in its way had a trans-
427 disciplinary approach to the water cycle. In BALTEX, the understanding of the water
428 cycle and its interaction with the biogeochemical cycles provided a way to perform in-
429 depth assessments of how climate change would modify the ecological and marine
430 system (Reckermann et al., 2012). Over West Africa, AMMA observations of the
431 atmospheric and hydrological processes offered operational services with concrete
432 guidance on how to improve weather and climate forecasting as well as how to improve
433 early warning systems for drought, famines and public health (Polcher et al., 2011).
434 CLARIS-LPB provided a better understanding of the interactions between the water
435 cycle of the La Plata basin, ecology, the food production and the challenges posed by
436 climate change. These three experiments provided a greater level of outreach and
437 exposure to local science communities than had been previously achieved.

438

439 The more trans-disciplinary nature of this generation of CSEs ultimately led to the
440 emergence of the Coordinated Regional Downscaling Experiment (CORDEX), which
441 sought to address the need for downscaled climate change predictions and impacts at the
442 scales more immediately relevant to society. AMMA was an especially important source
443 of motivation to CORDEX, with the international community being asked to downscale
444 various scenarios so that they could be evaluated with the new knowledge brought by the
445 CSE and disseminated to the scientific community of the region (e.g., Paeth et al. 2011;
446 Nikulin et al., 2012).

447

448 ***3.4 Toward the prediction challenge: Model representation of hydrometeorological***
449 ***processes and feedbacks involving water and energy***

450 A number of focused model assessment initiatives were introduced under the GMPP
451 during phase II as a step toward developing a process understanding of critical

452 hydrological feedbacks. The GEWEX Atmospheric Boundary Layer Study (GABLS)
453 activity was introduced in 2002, given the central importance of the atmospheric
454 boundary layer to land-atmosphere coupling that shapes important Earth system
455 feedbacks. GABLS aimed to improve understanding and representation of the
456 atmospheric boundary layer in weather-forecast and climate models on regional to global
457 scales. Although the early focus was on more heuristic cases of stable atmospheric
458 boundary layers, GABLS evolved over time towards more realistic and more difficult
459 configurations. Assessment activities of GABLS inspired modeling groups at major
460 forecast centers to improve their representation of boundary layer processes.

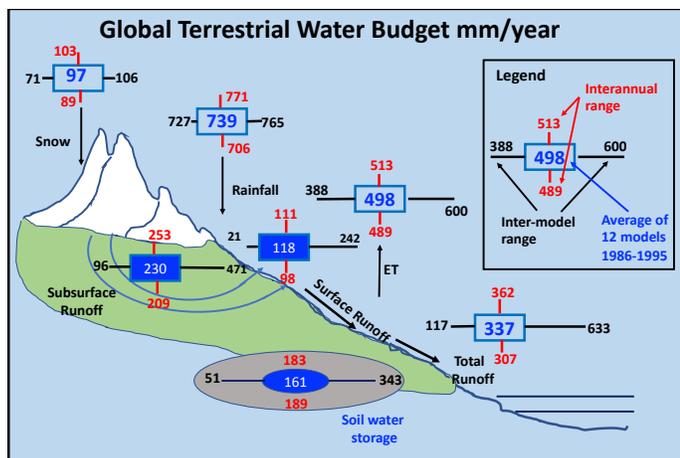
461

462 The Continual Intercomparison of Radiation Codes (CIRC, Oreopoulos and Mlawer,
463 2010) was also an initiative of Phase II. The intent of CIRC was to be an evolving and
464 regularly-updated reference source for evaluation of radiative transfer (RT) codes used in
465 global climate models and other atmospheric applications. CIRC analysis, for example,
466 identified that improvements in the calculation of diffuse shortwave flux, shortwave
467 absorption and shortwave CO₂ forcing, as well as in the treatment of spectral surface
468 albedo, needed consideration (Oreopoulos et al., 2012). CIRC continued into the next
469 phase of GEWEX, again calling out issues with respect to the treatment of shortwave
470 radiative transfer in schemes used in global models (Pincus et al., 2015). These issues
471 emerged later in the context of the hydrological sensitivity of climate models and the
472 constraint radiation provides on this sensitivity, underscoring again the central
473 importance of coupling energy and water in shaping changes to the hydrological cycle
474 (e.g., DeAngelis et al., 2015).

475

476 Another important assessment activity developed in the second phase of the Global Soil
477 Wetness Project (GSWP-2), under the auspices of the GLASS panel. The first global
478 gridded multi-model land surface analysis was developed (Dirmeyer et al., 2006) to
479 provide an analysis of land surface state variables and fluxes for assessing, among other
480 uses, the role of soil wetness in water and energy balances over global land masses. The
481 analysis was developed from multi-model simulations forced by a common dataset
482 created as a "hybrid" of observational and reanalysis forcing datasets. This forcing

483 included observed precipitation, radiation and near-surface meteorology interpolated
 484 using model fields on finer space-time resolutions not available in the observations but
 485 required to force the models. The analysis was presented on a regular 1° x 1° grid and
 486 reported for the same 10-year core period of ISLSCP (1986–1995). Figure 4 highlights
 487 one of the key results of this GSWP-2 activity, showing the multi-model analysis of the
 488 hydrological cycle over global land. In addition to the global land mean values of the
 489 water fluxes and soil water stores (box values), argued to be more reliable than any single
 490 model result, the vertical bars and values in red denote the range of interannual variability
 491 of the global values for the 10-year period. The horizontal black bars and values represent
 492 the ranges of these global mean annual hydrological cycle components and are an
 493 indicator of model uncertainty. This depiction offers users a basis to make decisions on
 494 the surety of each variable. While convergence among models is not a guarantee of a
 495 "right answer," the fact that there existed such wide variability among LSMs driven by
 496 the same forcing data suggests there remains much room for improvement in the
 497 modeling of this part of the Earth system, which continues to be a focus of GLASS.
 498



499
 500 **Figure 4** Multi-model mean terrestrial water budget from GSWP-2 data analysis. Both the inter-model
 501 spread (values in black) and the inter-annual variability (1986-1995; values in red) are shown for each
 502 term. Model spread in precipitation terms reflect the distribution of total precipitation over snowfall
 503 and liquid precipitation. Variability of the estimates of evapotranspiration (ET), soil moisture storage
 504 and runoff from the model ensemble is much larger than the interannual range, reflecting the
 505 limitations of understanding of the hydrological partitioning processes (modified from Dirmeyer et al,
 506 2006).

507

508 **4.0 Phase III – The quantitative understanding of water and energy coupling (2013–**
509 **2022)**

510

511 In planning for the post-2013 time frame, the JSC recommended a revision of all four
512 core projects of WCRP based on a common set of basic “themes”: (i) observations and
513 analysis; (ii) model development, evaluation and experiments; (iii) processes and
514 understanding; (iv) applications and services; and (v) capacity building. There was a
515 basic agreement that the three GEWEX panels that served the earlier activities , namely
516 GRP, GMPP and GHP, remained relevant both to GEWEX and these JSC
517 recommendations. A proposal to split GMPP into two panels, the Global
518 Land/Atmosphere System Study (GLASS) Panel and the GEWEX Atmospheric Systems
519 Study Panel (GASS) was subsequently adopted and the GRP was renamed the GEWEX
520 Data Assessments Panel (GDAP) to reflect more appropriately the activities of that panel.
521 While GLASS activities had always been part of GEWEX, the GASS Panel represented a
522 joining of the GCSS, the GEWEX Atmospheric Boundary Layer Study (GABLS)
523 activities, along with other groups within GEWEX. GASS has since launched a number
524 of projects focusing on atmospheric process understanding and their implementation in
525 model parameterizations. This model development strategy based on process
526 understanding, first initiated by GCSS and GABLS, continues to be a common thread
527 throughout GEWEX.

528

529 Building both upon the results and experience from Phases I and II together with the JSC
530 directive and its reorganization, GEWEX subsequently formulated its activities around
531 four main themes, each defined by four specific science questions that effectively set the
532 activities of Phase III.

533 ***4.1 Observations and predictions of precipitation: How can we better understand and***
534 ***predict precipitation variability and change?***

535 ***4.1.1 Observations***

536 Important advances occurred during Phase III as a result of the ever improving and
537 expanding global precipitation data records accrued from observations and overseen by
538 GDAP and GHP (Kummerow et al. 2019). Observational developments during this
539 period included the INTElligent use of climate models for adaptatioN to non-Stationary
540 hydrological Extremes (INTENSE, Blenkinsop et al., 2018). The INTENSE project
541 created (i) a new data record for study of short-duration rainfall extremes (discussed
542 below), (ii) assessments of current global precipitation products for addressing different
543 science questions including those related to precipitation extremes (e.g., Masunaga et al.,
544 2019; Roca, 2019) and (iii) identification of gaps in precipitation observations, such as in
545 regions of high terrain with steps toward addressing these shortcomings. This latter effort
546 was part of a broader cross-cut project initiated by GHP, namely the International
547 Network for Alpine Research Catchment Hydrology (INARCH, Pomeroy et al., 2015).
548 Its goal is to understand alpine cold region hydrological processes, improve prediction of
549 these processes and diagnose their sensitivities to global change. The project has
550 accumulated and evaluated crucial data, including precipitation, from 29 experimental
551 research basins in 14 countries covering most continents and mountain regions of the
552 world (e.g., Pomeroy and Marks, 2021). The initial phase of INARCH (2015–2020) saw
553 significant advances in understanding and predictive modeling of the high mountain
554 water cycle (e.g., López-Moreno et al., 2020).

555

556 Greater insights on changes that have occurred in the residual of precipitation minus
557 evaporation (P-E) also emerged during Phase III. Although not an activity overseen by
558 GEWEX, multi-decadal compilations of ocean in situ salinity data (e.g., Durack and
559 Wijffels, 2010) provided a window into understanding the regional patterns of change in
560 the residual of P-E. The patterns of salinity change, matched to the climatology of
561 salinity, supported the notion of the “wet, wetter and dry, drier” regional responses of the
562 oceanic hydrological cycle (Durack et al., 2012), whereby climatological salty ocean
563 regions are becoming saltier and climatological fresh regions are, conversely, becoming
564 fresher. By contrast, the picture of P-E change over land, appears to be much more
565 complicated being driven by, among other factors, water availability and plant

566 functioning and thus do not follow this simple “wet, wetter and dry, drier” pattern of
567 intensification observed over oceans (e.g., Greve et al., 2014).

568

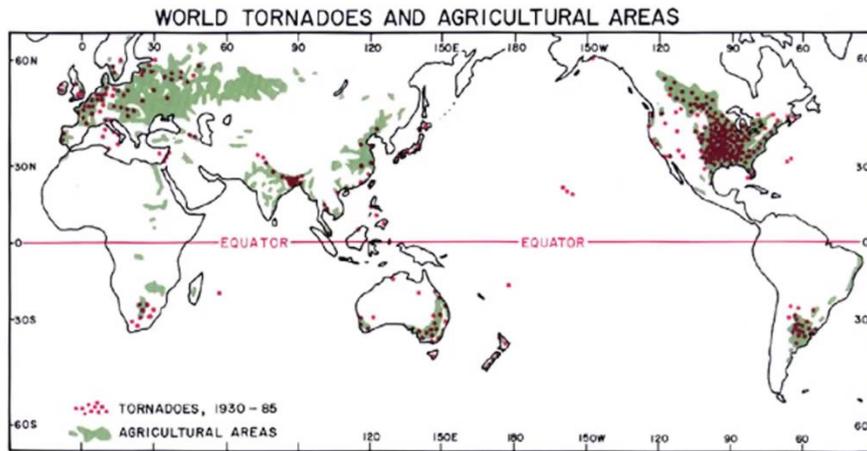
569 4.1.2 *Modeling and prediction*

570 The GEWEX strategy for advancing the topic of precipitation prediction, beyond the
571 obvious and central role observations play, involves coordinating efforts to advance the
572 representation of precipitation-related critical processes in models. GEWEX launched
573 projects to understand and model the local and remote effects of land surface processes
574 and state variables (soil moisture, soil temperature, vegetation water and energy fluxes
575 and snow water equivalent, among other factors, Sidebar 1) on precipitation as well as
576 activities aimed at understanding and simulating the diurnal cycle of precipitation. An
577 important and perhaps defining activity, not only for Phase III, but also one that will
578 shape the science of WCRP in the coming decade, is the desire to simulate the coupled
579 atmosphere, ocean, ice and land Earth system at a resolution of an order of 1 km
580 (hereafter *km-scale* Earth system models and information systems, e.g., Bauer et al.,
581 2021; also Sidebar 2).

582

583 Modeling at the km-scale, however, introduces a different set of challenges that GEWEX
584 will have to confront. LSMs suitable for km-scale simulations will have to abandon the
585 hypothesis that evaporation is fed only by local precipitation and include explicit hill slope
586 processes to redistribute water horizontally over continents (e.g., Swenson et al., 2019; Fan
587 et al., 2019; also Sidebar 1). Higher resolution modeling also exposes the need to address
588 important dependencies of processes, such as convective initiation and intensity, that are
589 increasingly sensitive to local mechanisms typically obscured in a more global view.
590 Convective precipitation and storm severity, for example, are sensitive to local factors like
591 topography, the heterogeneity of land surface characteristics including snow cover,
592 vegetation type and soil moisture, as well as human influences resulting from land and
593 water management (e.g., urbanization, irrigation for crop cultivation or forest degradation
594 to create agricultural land) among other factors. Figure 5, from Fujita (1987), suggests a
595 distinct connection between convective storm intensity, expressed as tornado occurrence
596 between 1930–1985, with areas of agriculture world-wide. Although qualitative, the

597 apparent tight location of tornadic storms in areas of agriculture hints at connections
598 between storm intensity and soil moisture, a topic of considerable ongoing research (e.g.,
599 Wallace and Minder, 2021).
600



607 **Figure 5** A hint at the coupling between soil moisture and convection storm intensity underscoring the
608 importance of soil moisture feedbacks on convection. Shown are the occurrences of tornadoes
609 overlying areas of agriculture suggesting a connection between the enhanced soil moisture of these
610 regions and severity of convective storms (from Fujita, 1987).

611 **4.2 Global water resource systems: How do changes in land surface and hydrology**
612 ***influence past and future changes in water availability and security?***

613 The nature of the continental scale projects, aimed at addressing questions about water
614 resource systems, fundamentally changed during Phase III. The Regional Hydroclimate
615 Projects (RHPs) executed during this phase (refer to Figure 3b) evolved from activities
616 largely concerned with geophysical processes to efforts that include effects of human
617 processes on water resource systems, thus preparing GEWEX to be much more
618 societally-relevant in grappling with the challenges of changing water resources in the
619 coming decade. The RHPs became increasingly more trans-disciplinary, addressing
620 explicitly the interactions between climate change and the human management of land
621 and water resources. The Changing Cold Regions Network (CCRN, DeBeer et al., 2021),
622 for example, examined how the rapid warming experienced over the Canadian Rockies
623 and plains interacts with the hydrological processes and the water management of the

624 region. The Hydrological cycle in the Mediterranean Experiment (HyMeX, Drobinski et
625 al., 2014) studied how intense rainfall events, projected to intensify in a warmer climate,
626 influence the hydrology of the region.

627 Advances in both observations and modeling, of basic relevance to the science questions
628 of water availability, also occurred during Phase III. A multi-decadal record of remotely-
629 sensed global observations of continental water storage emerged from the Gravity
630 Recovery and Climate Experiment (GRACE) mission (Tapley et al., 2019). The Soil
631 Moisture and Ocean Salinity (SMOS) mission also provided a decadal-length record on
632 near-surface soil moisture content (Kerr et al., 2010).

633 Land surface models continued to morph into land models (LMs) that capture not only
634 surface, but also sub-surface process interactions (Sidebar 1). During Phase III of
635 GEWEX, observations advanced with new insights emerging on continental water
636 storage (Sidebar 4). Land models that represented only the components of the natural
637 land water and energy cycles evolved to include human water management and usage;
638 i.e. water resources. One area worth noting is that during the latter two phases of
639 GEWEX, significant advances were made in accounting for land and water use changes
640 and in representing these effects in models. The task of simulating water use, however, is
641 complex. Steps toward accounting for this influence in land surface models are
642 advancing, albeit in simple ways (see, e.g., Nazemi and Wheeler, 2015a, 2015b; Blyth et
643 al., 2021, for an overview). For example, the largest consumptive water use is irrigation,
644 which is being progressively added to models (e.g., Blyth et al., 2021). In the coming
645 years, LMs will need evolve such that irrigation also satisfies the water continuity
646 equation. Abstraction points for each demand will also have to be predicted (Zhou et al.,
647 2021). GLASS and GHP continue to lead the community in this direction.

648 ***4.3 Changes in extremes: How does a warming world affect climate extremes,***
649 ***especially droughts, floods and heat waves, and how do land area processes, in***
650 ***particular, contribute?***

651 INTENSE was the first major international effort to focus on global sub-daily rainfall
652 extremes, enabling progress in quantifying observed historical changes and providing

653 some physical understanding of processes necessary for improved regional prediction of
654 change. It delivered a rain-gauge-based data record to study short duration precipitation
655 and its changes. The data have been used in a number of studies, and Fowler et al. (2021)
656 summarize the main findings so far as well as provide suggestions for future directions of
657 research. Evidence from analysis of INTENSE data suggests, for example, that the
658 intensity of long-duration (on the order of a day and longer) heavy precipitation increases
659 at a rate close to the Clausius-Clapeyron (CC) rate ($6-7\% K^{-1}$) for the warming observed
660 during the period defined by the data record. Many uncertainties in understanding the
661 scaling of precipitation remain and mechanistic understanding is still rudimentary. The
662 influences of large-scale circulation versus the more local convective storm-scale
663 dynamics on changes to precipitation extremes are also yet-to-be understood. Feedbacks
664 governed by large-scale circulation changes define the regional responses associated with
665 the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO), for example, that produce significant
666 excursions above the CC rate of change (e.g., Stephens et al., 2018). Localized heavy
667 short-duration (hourly and sub-hourly) rain intensities also appear to invoke responses
668 about twice that expected from simple CC considerations. Day-to-day scaling of short-
669 duration intensities supports this higher scaling, with mechanisms proposed being related
670 to local-scale dynamics and feedbacks in convective storms, although the relevance to
671 broader aspects of climate change is still not clear.

672

673 While the early study of extremes concentrated on analysis of data records of individual
674 variables, like precipitation, the coordinated joint GEWEX and CLIVAR study of
675 extremes pointed to how extreme events are often linked. Floods, wildfires, heatwaves
676 and droughts, for instance, often result from a combination of interacting physical
677 processes across multiple spatial and temporal scales. A more systems-based approach to
678 understanding extremes as compound events is needed, and from a better understanding
679 of compound events, improving projections of potential high-impact events is likely to
680 result with better quantification of risks associated with them (e.g., Zscheischler et al.,
681 2018).

682 ***4.4 Water and energy cycles and processes: How can understanding of the effects and***
683 ***uncertainties of water and energy exchanges in the current and changing climate***
684 ***be improved and conveyed?***

685 It is well understood that water and energy are intimately coupled, and in most respects
686 this understanding has been the foundational principle of GEWEX. It was also
687 recognized from the outset that quantitative assessment of the uncertainties attached to
688 the fluxes of water and energy, an emphasis of Phase II, was seminal to any
689 representation of respective budgets and the degree to which closure could be claimed.
690 Many of the GEWEX activities in the earlier phases culminated in Phase III with a joint
691 synthesis of the water and energy budgets, performed either on the regional scale of the
692 HyMeX RHP (e.g., Pellet et al., 2019) or globally as supported under the NASA Energy
693 and Water Cycle Study (NEWS) program and ESA's Water Cycle Multi-mission
694 Observation Strategy (WACMOS) projects (Sidebar 3).

695

696 ***4.5 Remaining challenges emerging from the Phase III era***

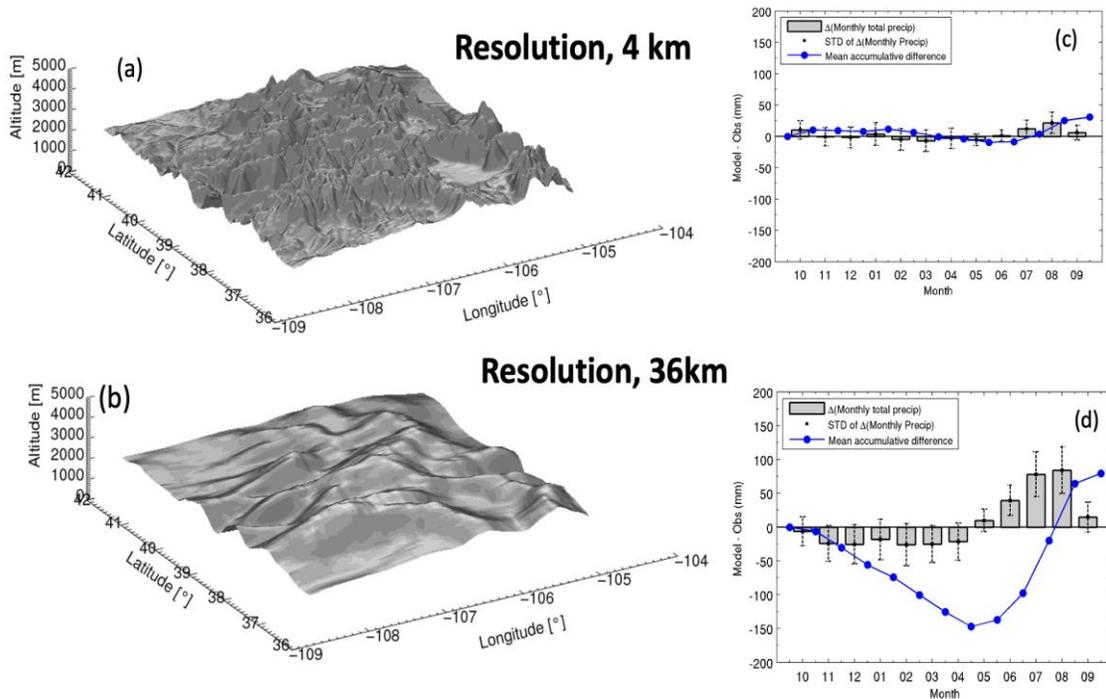
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698 ***4.5.1 Hydrology of high terrain***

699 The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change Working Group II (IPCC WG II)
700 Report (2014) notes that the changing nature of precipitation, and changes to the degree
701 of snow and ice melt, are altering hydrological systems and affecting water resources
702 both in terms of quantity and quality. Understanding the sensitivity of hydrological
703 processes to the warming being experienced in high elevation snowy and glacierized
704 headwater catchments is therefore of paramount importance for improving our ability to
705 understand and predict global climate, ecology and water system changes not only within
706 those regions, but also for large portions of the world population dependent on alpine
707 snow melt. Such sensitivity may be seriously affected by the specific climate conditions
708 of the different mountain regions that lead to different contributions by various
709 components of energy and mass balance of the snow packs and glaciers. The
710 development of reliable alpine datasets for advancing understanding and developing
711 models by testing and numerical experimentation continues to define INARCH's goals
712 going forward.

713

714 Lack of model resolution profoundly limits our ability to characterize regional hydrology
715 and predict how water resources are likely to be impacted as Earth warms (Sidebar 2, also
716 section 4.5.4 below). One area where this limitation is clear is on the hydrology of
717 regions of high mountain terrain. Figure 6 illustrates this point, showing how better
718 resolving the topography of the Colorado Rockies (Figures 6a and b) improves
719 precipitation simulation in the region (Figures 6c and d, adapted from Rasmussen et al.,
720 2014). The large differences between modeled and observed precipitation apparent for
721 the 36 km resolution model, in part because of the highly smoothed topography at that
722 resolution, are largely eliminated with finer resolution that significantly improves the
723 representation of precipitation both locally and regionally and in both cold and warm
724 seasons. In a more recent study, Müller et al. (2021) use the global discharge from rivers
725 to assess the representation of precipitation in two versions of the Hadley Centre Global
726 Environmental Model, version 3 (HadGEM3) of differing resolutions. They find that not
727 only do models with higher resolution produce more discharge owing to increased
728 precipitation over the more-resolved topography, but that the different estimates of
729 discharge from observations and reanalysis are also dependent on the coarseness of the
730 resolution of the data itself. The more resolved are the data, the greater is the discharge
731 estimated.



732
 733 **Figure 6** a) and b) The topography of the Colorado Rockies at two different resolutions that define the
 734 head waters as described in Rasmussen et al (2014). c) and d) The 8-yr average of the model bias
 735 (model minus observations) in monthly total precipitation (bars) and accumulation difference (blue
 736 line) over a full year from the c) 4-km (upper) and d) 36km simulations.

737
 738 Kilometer scale modeling of the Earth system improves our ability to represent
 739 hydrological processes in profound ways (e.g., Sidebar 2), including prediction of
 740 extreme events such as flood and drought in regions with complex topography. Moving
 741 the attention of the GEWEX communities to these higher resolutions can be expected to
 742 lead to important collaborations with the hydrological and agronomic sciences for
 743 developing the process knowledge needed to improve climate and weather forecasts on
 744 phenomena critical for society. The emergence of km-scale modeling, however, comes
 745 with new challenges, as noted above.

746
 747

748 *4.5.2 Regional understanding of energy and water balances*

749 Although we continue to make advances in our depiction of the global water and energy
 750 balance (e.g., Sidebar 3 and discussion), our ability to provide closure on regional scales
 751 remains challenging. The adjustments developed so far and used to produce constrained

752 budgets of the form illustrated in Figure SB3 are constructed primarily using Earth's
753 energy imbalance as a global constraint. While we have not yet established ways to
754 define constraints more regionally, progress is occurring. Regional constraints on energy
755 budgets over ocean basins, for example, were introduced in the study of Thomas et al.
756 (2020) in the form of the additional horizontal transports in oceans derived from re-
757 analyses.

758

759 *4.5.3 Earth's energy imbalance (EEI)*

760 The imbalance between incoming and outgoing radiation at the top of the atmosphere
761 (TOA), referred to as EEI, is a basic measure of the warming of the planet and careful
762 monitoring of it is essential for understanding many aspects of the changing Earth system.
763 Given that absolute accuracy of TOA radiometric measurements is approximately $\pm 4 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$,
764 the EEI which needs to be quantified, between $0.5\text{--}1 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ (Figure SB3), is small and is
765 challenging to observe from space alone (e.g., Stephens et al., 2012). It is obvious that
766 reliable estimates for long-term global mean EEI from TOA fluxes are not possible and
767 even more challenging from the perspective of surface fluxes presented in Figure SB3.
768 Thus, we are forced to resort to more indirect ways to deduce the EEI. As over 93% of the
769 EEI is stored in the ocean, the global ocean heat content (OHC) provides our strongest
770 global constraint on the EEI and the ability to determine the global ocean heat storage
771 change continues to be essential assessing the state of climate and its future evolution.

772

773 In September 2018, a joint GEWEX and Climate and Ocean: Variability, Predictability
774 and Change (CLIVAR) workshop was devoted to the topic of EEI and an assessment of
775 our ability to estimate it. Meyssignac et al. (2019) provide an overview of the key
776 outcomes of that workshop offering a review of four main methods to estimate the global
777 OHC. That assessment concluded that the approaches to estimate global mean EEI via the
778 estimation of changes to OHC from either in situ, reanalysis or combined remote sensing
779 techniques are more reliable than other methods and complement each other. In situ
780 measurements were deemed to be the most reliable estimate of the OHC and its change
781 over time and also deliver unprecedented information on how ocean heat is distributed
782 vertically. Nevertheless, denser and deeper float measurements are still needed to

783 improve on the representation of temporal short-term variability and better estimate deep
784 (below 2000 m) and abyssal (below 4000 m) ocean heating. The finding of the workshop
785 overall was that none of the techniques available today enable us to estimate the EEI with
786 the perceived required accuracy less than $\pm 0.3 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$, let alone with an aspirational
787 accuracy of $\pm 0.1 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$. Significant improvements in existing observing systems are
788 necessary to achieve this target.

789

790 *4.5.4 km-scale Earth system modeling and the role of Convection – A prevailing theme in* 791 *Earth system science in the 2020s*

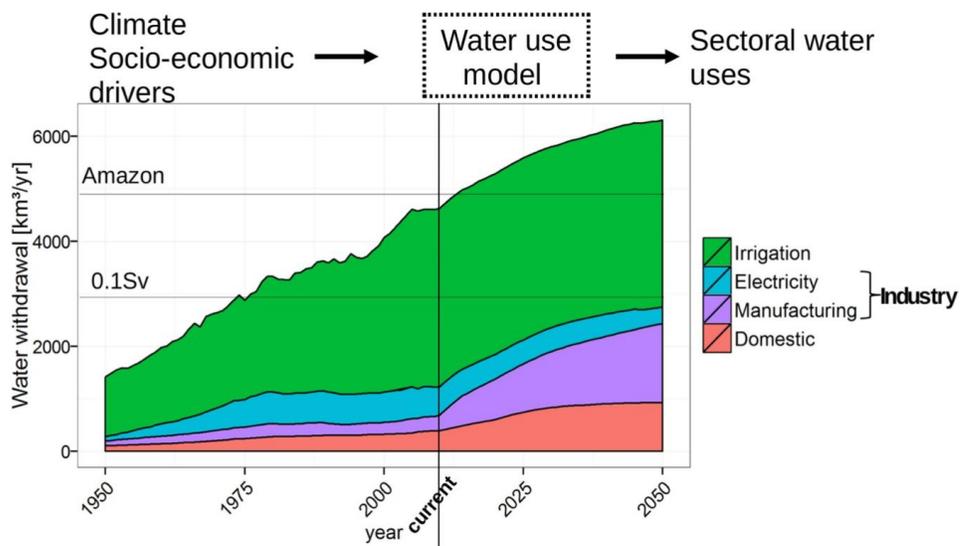
792 A prevailing theme not only of GEWEX, but one that cuts across WCRP including within
793 its new Lighthouse Activities (LHAs, <https://www.wcrp-climate.org/lha-overview>) and
794 beyond, is the emphasis on km-scale modeling described above. Existing climate models
795 have significant shortcomings in simulating local weather and climate because of a lack
796 of resolution. They cannot resolve the detailed structure and lifecycles of systems such as
797 tropical cyclones, depressions and persistent high-pressure systems which are key in the
798 coupling of the energy and water cycle. These systems also drive many of the more costly
799 impacts of climate change, such as coastal inundation, flooding, droughts and wildfires.
800 Present-day global models are also unable to resolve ocean currents that are fundamental
801 to climate variability and regional climate change (Marotzke et al., 2017). Recent studies
802 illustrate the potential of the new generation of high-resolution models for
803 revolutionizing the quality of information available for mitigation and adaptation, from
804 global climate and regional climate impacts, to risks of unprecedented extreme weather
805 and dangerous climate change. A thread common across both GEWEX objectives and
806 these new modeling initiatives is the topic of convection, not only from the context of
807 resolving it with models, but also for its importance to the prediction of precipitation and
808 severe weather. Resolving convection is an essential for understanding of the future of
809 our water resources under climate change (Slingo et al., 2022).

810

811 **5.0 GEWEX in the decade of km-scale Earth system science**

812

813 As GEWEX moves forward, it does so under a simple vision articulated at the 2018
 814 GEWEX Open Science Conference by Dr. Alan Betts during his keynote address,
 815 “*Water, Energy: Life on Earth*”, which underscores the very basic challenge of the next
 816 phase of GEWEX and beyond: that humanity is deeply embedded in an interconnected
 817 physical Earth system. That the Earth system influences humanity in profound ways is
 818 well understood, but an appreciation for the wider and profound influences of humanity
 819 on the Earth system, and on the hydrological and climate cycles in particular, continues to
 820 be realized. The connections between water, energy and life become particularly acute as
 821 we strive to bring Earth sciences down to the km-scale (e.g., Slingo et al., 2022), a point
 822 further underscored by reference to Figure 7 that also hints at why we expect this
 823 connection will become increasingly important as GEWEX moves into the next phase.
 824 The figure offers a contrast between the natural water cycle, expressed here as a mean
 825 discharge of the Amazon (5000 km³/yr), the largest river by volume, compared to the
 826 volume of global water withdrawn by different sectors of human society. The
 827 modification to the continental water cycle occurring from a continually increasing
 828 human withdrawal is now larger than the mean discharge of the Amazon river. The
 829 impact is more complex to evaluate as not all water abstracted by humans from the
 830 natural system is consumed. Human water management practices impact river discharge,
 831 coastal processes and contribute non-trivially to sea level rise (e.g., Reager et al., 2016).



832
 833 **Figure 7** The time change of human water withdrawal by different sectors including projections to
 834 2050 compared to an average discharge from the Amazon.

835

836 **5.1 Proposed GEWEX Phase IV science goals**

837 In recognition of the emerging challenges in understanding how the water cycle is
838 changing in response to these different pressures, and in an attempt to make progress in
839 addressing the issues central to them, GEWEX Phase IV proposes a focus around three
840 overarching but connected goals. One goal is centrally focused on prediction, another on
841 the critical interactions that define the physical system and the third delves more
842 explicitly into anthropogenic influence on water and energy cycles with special focus on
843 water resources at continental and regional scales.

844

845 **Goal # 1 (GS1):** Determine the extent to which Earth's water cycle can be predicted.

846 This Goal is framed around making quantitative progress on three related areas posed in
847 terms of the following questions:

848 **1) Reservoirs:** What is the rate of expansion of the fast reservoirs (atmosphere
849 and land), what is its spatial character, what factors determine this and to what
850 extent are these changes predictable?

851 **2) Flux exchanges:** To what extent are the fluxes of water between Earth's main
852 reservoirs changing and can these changes be predicted, and if so, on what
853 time/space scale?

854 **3) Precipitation Extremes:** How will local rainfall and its extremes change under
855 climate change across the regions of the world?

856

857 **Goal # 2 (GS2):** Quantify the inter-relationships between Earth's energy, water and
858 carbon cycles to advance our understanding of the system and our ability to predict it
859 across scales:

860 **1) Forcing-feedback understanding:** How can we improve the understanding of
861 climate forcings and feedbacks formed by energy, water and carbon exchanges?

862 **2) ABL process representation:** To what extent are the properties of the
863 atmospheric boundary layer (ABL) defined by sensible and latent energy and
864 water exchanges at the Earth's surface versus within the atmosphere (i.e.,
865 horizontal advection and exchanges between the ABL and the free atmosphere)?

866 **3) Understanding circulation controls:** To what extent are exchanges between
867 water, energy and carbon determined by the large-scale circulations of the
868 atmosphere and oceans?

869 **4) Land-atmosphere interactions:** How can we improve the understanding of
870 the role of land surface-atmospheric interactions in the water, energy and carbon
871 budgets across spatiotemporal scales?

872

873 **Goal # 3 (GS3):** Quantify anthropogenic influences on Earth's water cycle and our
874 ability to understand and predict it:

875 **1) Anthropogenic forcing of continental scale water availability:** To what
876 extent has the changing greenhouse effect modified the water cycle over different
877 regions and continents?

878 **2) Water management influences:** To what extent do water management
879 practices and land use change (e.g., deforestation and irrigation, among others)
880 modify the water cycle on regional to global scales?

881 **3) Variability and trends of water availability:** How do water and land use and
882 climate change affect the variability (including extremes) of the regional and
883 continental water cycle?

884

885 **6.0 Concluding comments: Prospects for progress**

886

887 The very first GEWEX newsletter released in spring 1991 contained contributions by both
888 Dr. Moustafa Chahine, the Chair of the GEWEX Scientific Steering Group (SSG), and
889 Professor Pierre Morel, Director of WCRP. While Dr. Chahine outlined the objectives of
890 GEWEX that shaped the program for many years to come and described above, Professor
891 Morel offered the insight that "*A little thought about the problem of climate and climatic
892 variations leads to an understanding that the main difficulty lies with getting the coupling
893 right between the different components of the climate system, the global atmosphere, the
894 world oceans, land and sea ice and the land surface hydrology including snow and
895 vegetation.*"

896

897 As WCRP undergoes its reorganization and develops its strategic plan for the coming
898 years via the WCRP Lighthouse Activities, the focus remains true to Morel's insight that
899 the emphasis will be toward developing a more quantitative understanding of climate
900 processes, which are necessary for “*getting the coupling right between the different*
901 *components of the climate system.*” We can anticipate progress over the next 5–10 years
902 on this challenge because of major opportunities in observations, computing, modeling,
903 artificial intelligence and machine learning (AI/ML) and emerging partnerships.

904

905 (i) New observations, both in situ and from space, will reveal new understanding of
906 processes in Earth’s energy, water and carbon cycles and identify where progress is still
907 lacking. This will come from the expansion of the Earth observing systems, including the
908 Sentinel program of the European Space Agency, NASA’s designated observables inden-
909 tified as priorities for the coming decade (NAS, 2018) and the sustained and enhanced
910 observations from operation observing systems that collectively establish the Program of
911 Record (PoR). One example of where progress can be expected from the PoR is in the
912 development of the next-generation version of the ISCCP, a coordinated effort across
913 major operational satellite organizations and research communities to create global, high-
914 resolution in space and time data products (on the order of 2 km global, 10–30 minute) on
915 clouds and related information. The creation of a fundamental data record of spectral,
916 spatially and temporally homogenized radiances for this purpose serves as input to many
917 other Earth science applications. The development of smallsats and cubesats, drones and
918 other space and airborne platforms, and advances in space technology associated with
919 these developments (e.g., Stephens et al., 2020) has opened a whole new era of
920 observational capabilities that will become increasingly embedded in the more traditional
921 approaches.

922

923 (ii) The length of existing data records will continue to expand and with increased lengths
924 of time series come unforeseen evolution of the system realized as new trends. Sea level
925 rise data records have revealed an increase in the rate of sea level rise over time with
926 surprising interannual variations (e.g., Boening et al., 2012) and recent studies of the
927 TOA radiation budget are hinting at an energy imbalance that is also increasing over time

928 (Loeb et al., 2021; Stephens et al., 2022, among others), suggesting an acceleration of
929 global warming. These expanding data records will test our understanding of the
930 changing Earth system that will force a re-examination of the contributions of the various
931 man-made changes to the energy and water cycles.

932

933 (iii) Evolving modeling techniques and exa-scale computers will enable research and
934 operational simulations at kilometric scales globally and at even higher resolutions
935 regionally with benefits that are only now becoming apparent. This evolution will also
936 reveal that some assumptions necessary for coarser resolutions (such as assumptions
937 inherent to convection parameterization, influences of surface topography and
938 heterogeneities in soil/vegetation and other landscape features that affect hydrologic
939 processes) are not valid. Over continents, these km-scale resolutions will reveal the
940 importance of human management on surface/atmosphere interactions with associated
941 environmental impacts and will thus need to be explicitly represented to gain the full
942 value for society of (sub)kilometric scale predictions. These developments, however,
943 should be made with careful consideration of compound uncertainties in data and
944 algorithms representing different natural and anthropogenic processes.

945

946 (iv) Our enhanced observational capabilities and the promise of more spatially-refined
947 models will require new techniques to confront one with the other and to deduce essential
948 parameters of the system that are not yet directly measured by the current observational
949 systems. With the rapid progress in AI/ML, their applications become more important for
950 GEWEX activities in the physics-inspired AI/ML analysis of huge amounts of data from
951 observations and model output, in the AI/ML integration with modeling (e.g., to replace
952 some of the existing physical parameterizations in Earth system models), and in the
953 AI/ML assistance in data-based scientific discovery and understanding.

954

955 (v) The close collaboration of the research groups within GEWEX with operational
956 weather and hydrological services serves to better formulate societal needs in terms of
957 environmental monitoring and prediction and ensures that the scientific topics proposed
958 serve wiser management of the environment and an adaptation to changing resources.

959 The collaboration of GEWEX with the Integrated Land Ecosystem-Atmosphere
960 Processes Study (iLEAPS) and other programs will facilitate improvements to the
961 coupling of the energy and water cycle with the carbon cycle in models and in Earth
962 system analyses and studies of climate change at decadal to centennial time scales.
963

964 **7.0 Acknowledgements**

965 *To the memory of Moustafa Chaine, The inaugural chair of the science steering*
966 *committee.* GEWEX's achievements over the last 30 years would not have been possible
967 without the scientific community working on the Earth's water and energy cycles. As not
968 all can be thanked here, we would like to express our gratitude to those who have chaired
969 the Scientific Steering Committee before us : Moustafa Chahine, Soroosh Sorooshian,
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972 at the Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, under contract
973 80NM0018D0004 with the National Aeronautics and Space Administration.
974

975 **8.0 Data Availability**

976 GEWEX provides the stewardship of many global and regional data sets and data producing networks.
977 The data are publicly available and an overview of these data is provided at

978 <https://www.gewex.org/panels/gewex-data-and-analysis-panel/gdap-matured-datasets/>
979

980 Specific links to important data sets that have been maintained over the many years of GEWEX
981 include:

982 **Matured Datasets**

984 International Satellite Cloud Climatology Project (ISCCP):

985 <https://isccp.giss.nasa.gov>

986 <https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products/international-satellite-cloud-climatology>

987 Global Precipitation Climatology Project (GPCP):

988 https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets/GPCPDAY_3.2/summary?keywords=GPCPDAY_3.2

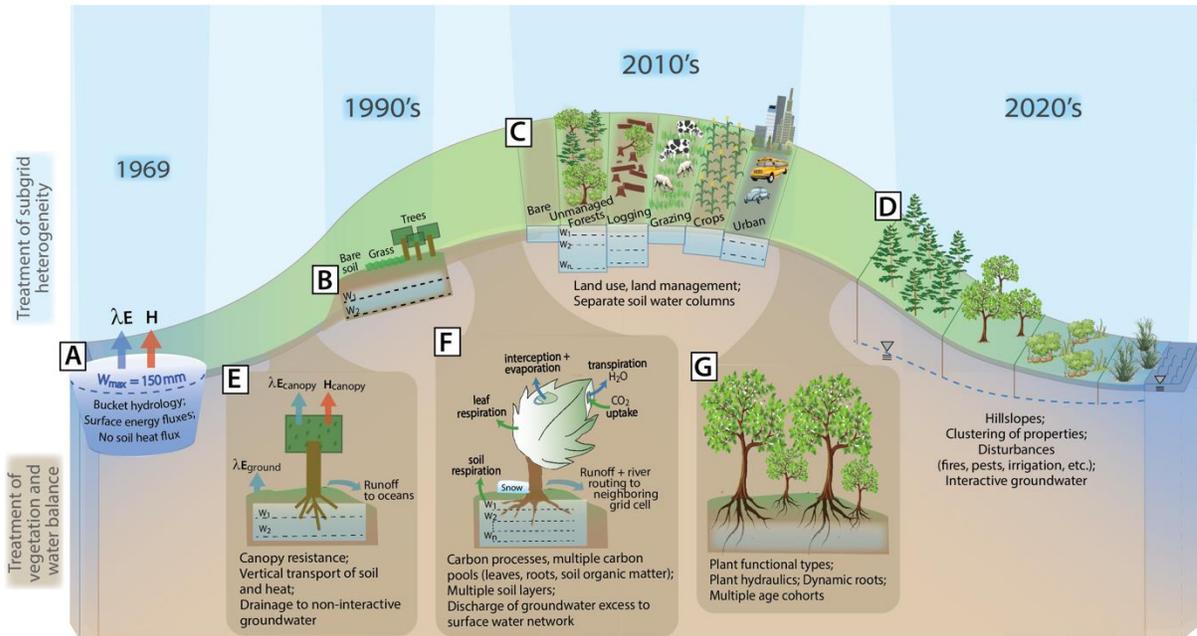
989 (latest)

990 <https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products/global-precipitation-climatology-project> (Historical)

991 Surface Radiation Budget (SRB):

992 <https://asdc.larc.nasa.gov/project/SRB>
993 Regional Hydroclimate Projects:
994 [https://www.gewex.org/panels/gewex-hydroclimatology-panel/regional-hydroclimate-](https://www.gewex.org/panels/gewex-hydroclimatology-panel/regional-hydroclimate-projects-rhps/)
995 [projects-rhps/](https://www.gewex.org/panels/gewex-hydroclimatology-panel/regional-hydroclimate-projects-rhps/)
996
997 **Key network centers:**
998 Baseline Surface Radiation Network (BSRN):
999 <https://bsrn.awi.de>
1000 Global Precipitation Climatology Centre (GPCP):
1001 <http://gpcc.dwd.de/>
1002 Global Runoff Data Centre (GRDC)
1003 https://www.bafg.de/GRDC/EN/Home/homepage_node.html
1004
1005

1006 **Sidebar 1: From land surface to land models**



1007 **Figure SB1:** The evolution of land model formulations, beginning with the Manabe bucket model in
 1008 1969 (A), gradually improving the treatment of water, heat and vegetation, while also including
 1009 increasingly complex and heterogeneous representations of vegetation and soil processes both above
 1010 and below the land surface. Dates are approximate. Blue arrows: λE = evaporative flux (where λ =
 1011 latent heat of vaporization of water, E = evaporation rate). Red arrows: H = sensible heat flux. Green
 1012 arrows: carbon fluxes.
 1013

1014
 1015 Land models are numerical representations of processes within and below the land
 1016 surface and vegetation canopy. Output of these models include fluxes of water, energy
 1017 and carbon transferred from the land to the atmosphere. The early bucket model of
 1018 Manabe (1969) was designed to provide the surface fluxes of latent and sensible heat as
 1019 boundary conditions for the atmosphere (Element A in Fig. B1). Initially, treatment of the
 1020 land was embedded within atmospheric model code. GEWEX facilitated the important
 1021 work of pulling land-relevant code out of the larger model code, allowing for the broader
 1022 creation and development of stand-alone land models while still serving as the “surface”
 1023 for the atmosphere (Polcher et al., 1998). These models have since evolved to account for
 1024 vertical moisture and heat transport within the soil column and separate evaporative terms
 1025 from the vegetation canopy and the ground (Dickinson et al., 1984; Element E), to
 1026 inclusion of carbon processes (photosynthesis, transpiration, leaf respiration; e.g.,
 1027 Shevliakova et al., 2009; Element F) and routing of runoff to neighboring grid cells

1028 through river routing schemes (e.g., Milly et al., 2014; Ngo-Duc et al., 2007), to finally
1029 the complex models at the cutting-edge today, including forest systems with a range of
1030 canopy heights and multiple age cohorts, dynamic roots, plant hydraulics and more
1031 (Element G).

1032

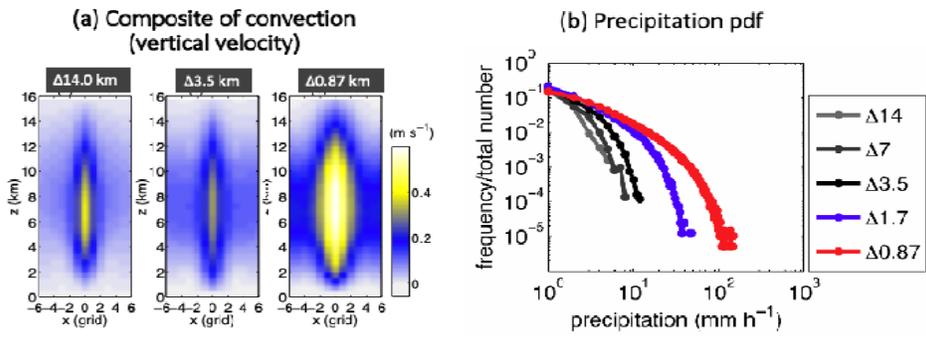
1033 A synergistic evolution of the treatment of sub-grid heterogeneity (Elements B–D)
1034 occurred in parallel to the evolution of more advanced process representation (Elements
1035 E–G). Early approaches to heterogeneity occurred by allowing for a few tiles of different
1036 surface types, but with access to a shared soil water reservoir (e.g., Koster and Suarez,
1037 1992, 1994; Element B), to treatment of land use and land management in tiles with
1038 separate soil moisture reservoirs (de Rosnay and Polcher, 1998; Element C). Recent
1039 advances include using machine learning techniques to cluster land properties (e.g.,
1040 elevation, soil textures, vegetation types) and better represent the hydrological
1041 connectivity between these subgrid clusters (Chaney et al., 2018; Element D).

1042

1043 The improved representation of the soil system was central to the evolution conveyed in
1044 Figure SB1. Modeling the soil system and its role within the Earth system has been topic
1045 of focus of different communities for many decades. The motivation has varied from
1046 interests in understanding how soils impact the environment and ecosystem (see
1047 Vereecken et al., 2016) to perspectives on both hydrology (e.g., Sood and Smakhtin,
1048 2015) and climate (e.g., van Looy et al., 2017; Fatichi et al., 2020), with a particular
1049 focus on land-atmosphere coupling. The defining roles of water and energy fluxes in
1050 coupling the land and atmosphere provide the motivation of both the formation and
1051 evolution of GEWEX-GLASS activities (e.g., van den Hurk et al., 2011; Dirmeyer, 2018;
1052 Santanello et al., 2018). Soils were initially viewed simply through the lens of the
1053 Manabe single layer “bucket” model, which parameterized the available soil moisture by
1054 assuming a 15 cm soil moisture holding capacity globally (Element A). Soil heat flow
1055 and storage was not accounted for in this simple scheme. Pivotal improvements occurred
1056 when Deardorff (1978) introduced a method for simulating soil temperature and moisture
1057 in two layers (Element E). Subsequently, analytical equations were replaced by numerical
1058 schemes that solve partial differential equations for the conservation of soil water and

1059 heat, thus allowing for the coupled heat and water transfer and providing a number of
1060 advantages, including the prediction of seasonally frozen soils. This approach also gave
1061 the modelers the soil matric potential, which allowed for the proper implementation of
1062 root water uptake and plant hydraulic theory, thus offering a more interactive land surface
1063 and sub-surface system. Further increases to the number of soil layers (~4 initially and
1064 currently up to 20; Element F) were required for appropriate treatment of soil thermal and
1065 hydrological lower boundary conditions (Decharme et al., 2013), which proved
1066 particularly important in cold regions (Stevens et al., 2007; Slater and Lawrence, 2013;
1067 Sapriza-Azuri et al., 2018). The inclusion of groundwater (Yeh and Eltahir, 2005;
1068 Maxwell and Miller, 2005) significantly improved simulation of the hydrological cycle.
1069 Most Earth system models are still working to add fully interactive groundwater (Element
1070 D). For further reviews and vision papers on land model development, see, e.g., Pitman
1071 (2003), Overgaard et al. (2006), Clark et al. (2015), Fisher and Koven (2020) and Blyth et
1072 al. (2021).
1073

1074 **Sidebar 2: From local cloud resolving to global storm resolving modelling (SRM) – A**
 1075 **GEWEX legacy**
 1076



1077 **Figure SB2** An example of how km-scale convection permitting and resolving global and regional
 1078 simulations impact simulated properties of convective motion and precipitation. (a) The global
 1079 composite of vertical motion, showing how increased resolution enhances the intensity of updrafts,
 1080 Kajikawa et al. (2016), (b) The pdf of global precipitation illustrating how the occurrences of more
 1081 intense precipitation increase with model resolution ($\Delta 14=14\text{km}$ resolution, Miyamoto et al., 2013).
 1082
 1083
 1084

1085 From the outset GEWEX recognized the important role of atmospheric process modelling
 1086 and developed specific initiatives for using cloud resolving models (CRMs) and large
 1087 eddy simulation (LES) models to study the important cloud systems on Earth. Early work
 1088 helped develop the physics of process models and the physical parameterizations of
 1089 climate models but also exposed a number of model shortcomings, such as their inability
 1090 to represent the organisation of single convective clouds into larger systems, that are
 1091 critical elements of Earth’s radiation budget, important to climate feedbacks, a basic
 1092 influence on precipitation extremes, and influential to circulation on all scales.

1093
 1094 Through their use in GCSS and more recently GASS, the LES and CRMs themselves
 1095 where continuously exposed to field observations resulting in continued improvements to
 1096 them. It soon became clear that these models could produce realistic simulations at the
 1097 cloud system scale, and later work showed that the organisation of clouds into mesoscale
 1098 systems could emerge when the CRMs or LESs were run on larger domains. This created
 1099 the exciting prospect to further increase the domain size of these models even on the
 1100 domain of the whole globe, eventually performing climate simulations with them. This

1101 also led to the implementation of simplified CRMs to replace parametrisations in the so-
1102 called super-parametrisation approach (Grabowski, 2001).

1103

1104 There is now compelling evidence that the lack of resolution of these global models and
1105 the inability to explicitly resolve convection specifically is a major obstacle in making the
1106 advances needed to confront important Earth science challenge. The example of Figure
1107 SB2, taken from the model studies of both Miymoto et al (2016) and Kajikawa et al.,
1108 (2016), offers a clear example of the influence of model resolution on the properties of
1109 convection. Figure SB2a is a radial-height depiction of the vertical motion of deep
1110 convective updrafts from a global ‘cloud resolving’ model of resolution varying from
1111 14km (left panel, $\Delta 14$) to 0.87km (right panel, $\Delta 0.87$). Models produce much stronger
1112 vertical motions as resolution increases that, in turn, results in significant changes to the
1113 intensity of such storms and to the properties that relate to the intensity. One such
1114 property is the intensity of the precipitation. The extreme precipitation over the area of
1115 the convective core (Figure SB2b) in the $\Delta 14$, $\Delta 7.0$, and $\Delta 3.5$, simulations for example, is
1116 confined to less than 20 mm h^{-1} in stark contrast to the more intense precipitation of the
1117 $\Delta 1.7$ (around 50 mm h^{-1}) and $\Delta 0.87$ (more than 100 mm h^{-1}) model simulations.

1118

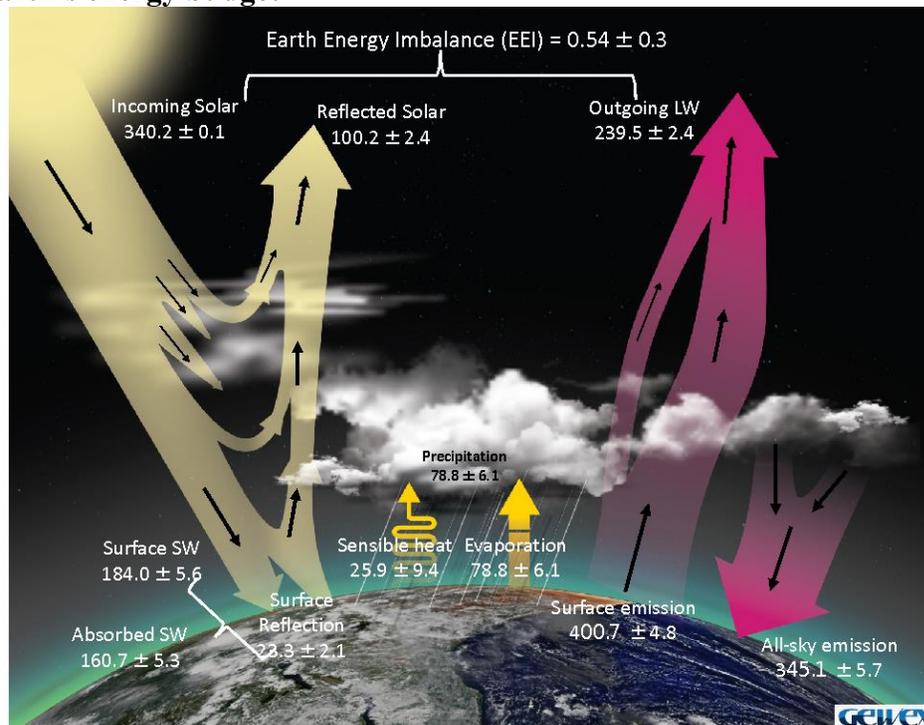
1119 Figure SB2 underscores just how important resolution is in representing the heaviest and
1120 most extreme rainfalls from convective storms. Global SRM capabilities at this scale
1121 offer the potential to make advances on our ability to simulate the important cloud-
1122 circulation interactions at the heart of climate feedbacks, to make major inroads in
1123 modelling the full character of precipitation (e.g. Figure SB2b) as well as other important
1124 hydrological processes (refer Figure 6 of main text) and enable a deeper understanding of
1125 the role of small-scale processes in affecting the large-scale climate. It will help address
1126 the critical question of how the weather might change under global warming, especially
1127 high-impact events, which will underpin society’s ability in making decisions in
1128 implementing mitigation and adaption strategies at the local and regional level.

1129

1130 Today the advantages of ‘storm-resolving’ kilometer-scale (*km-scale*) models and
1131 associated information systems is widely recognized (e.g. Bauer et al., 2021; Slingo et al.

1132 2022) both for short term weather prediction (Palmer, 2014; Deuben et al., 2020) and
1133 regional and global climate prediction (Schär et al., 2019). GEWEX has and continues to
1134 advance the agenda of such modelling and does so on a number of fronts, such as through
1135 its workshops (e.g., Prein et al., 2017), through the advances to observations of extremes
1136 (Fowler et al., 2021) and to the specific advances being made to land models (e.g.
1137 Sidebar 1) as well as to LES and CRMs. The various activities that focus on modelling
1138 Earth on the *km-scale* have galvanized into a few large international efforts (e.g. Stevens
1139 et al., 2019) including those expressed by the new WCRP lighthouse activities that can be
1140 expected to shape future activities of GEWEX.
1141

1142 **Sidebar 3: Earth's energy budget**



1143 **Figure SB3:** An update on the mean annual fluxes of the global energy budget (all in Wm^{-2}) for the
1144 first decade of the millennium. This budget was achieved using a ‘global’ optimization described in
1145 L’Ecuyer et al (2015) that requires quantitative uncertainties but uses data that produce more
1146 consistent set of fluxes.
1147

1148
1149 Quantifying the various ways energy flows through the Earth system has been a
1150 foundational activity of GEWEX from the outset and the latest version of the annual
1151 global mean depiction is presented in Figure SB3 based on the most up-to-date GEWEX
1152 data records. A number of sustained GEWEX activities, like the surface radiation budget
1153 project, land and ocean heat flux activities, maintenance of the GPCP precipitation
1154 climatology precipitation, TOA radiation budget assessments evolved over time with a
1155 focus on defining the uncertainties of the energy components of the budget which are
1156 reflected in Figure SB3. The NASA NEWS project produced a synthesis of a vast amount
1157 of these global data and provided, for the first time, a careful and more detailed
1158 assessment of the joint uncertainties attached to both global energy and water budgets.
1159 This provided the basis for a more objective methodology to adjust fluxes to constrain
1160 jointly closure of the global water and energy budgets, finally moving away from past *ad*
1161 *hoc* flux adjustment methods that had little justification. This coupled, constrained

1162 depiction of the energy and water balances and methods developed are described in the
1163 joint studies of L'Ecuyer et al. (2015) and Rodell et al (2015) and the global budget
1164 portrayed in Figure SB3 uses these same objective methodologies.

1165

1166 It was also recognized within GEWEX that inconsistencies existed in data inputs that
1167 were used to determine some of the fluxes that define these global balances. GDAP
1168 introduced an effort to address this issue creating an integrated self-consistent range of
1169 products (Kummerow et al., 2019) that offer a better and more consistent source of
1170 information for determining all fluxes, but particularly those at the Earth's surface. The
1171 fluxes expressed in Figure SB3 are based on the use of these newer integrated and more
1172 self-consistent GEWEX products.

1173

1174

1175 **Sidebar 4 Continental water storage**

1176

1177 A remarkable result derived from observations of continental water storage appears in the
1178 visible imprint of human water management on the evolution of regional ecosystems.

1179 This imprint is illustrated in Figure SB4 showing the correlation between groundwater
1180 depletion detected by GRACE (Figure SB4b) and the greening of cropland regions in

1181 northern India over the past two decades (Figure SB4a). These regions also coincide with

1182 the canals built in the early 20th century to support irrigated agriculture and which have

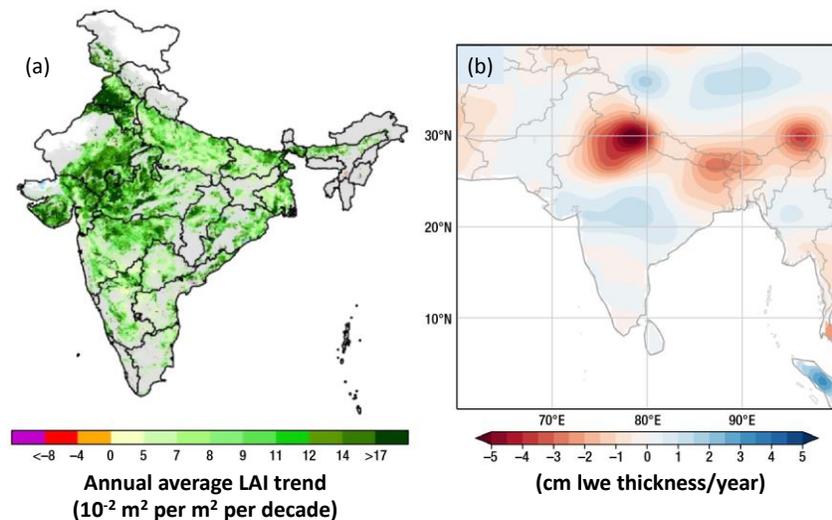
1183 raised the water table through their leakage (MacDonald et al. 2016). This comparison

1184 underscores an important point that to understand current trends in the continental water

1185 cycle one needs to take into account both the influence of human water usage and the

1186 engineering developed to support it, as well as the influence of the physical climate

1187 system.



1188

1189 **Figure SB4** (a) Trends in annual average MODIS leaf area index (LAI) for 2000–2017 in croplands in

1190 India. Statistically significant trends (Mann–Kendall test, $p \leq 0.1$) are color-coded. Grey areas show

1191 vegetated land with statistically insignificant trends. White areas depict barren lands, permanent ice-

1192 covered areas, permanent wetlands and built-up areas. (b) GRACE record length trends (2002–2016)

1193 over the Indian subcontinent (in liquid water equivalent (LWE) units in cm per year), showing

1194 extensive groundwater depletion in Northwest India (adapted from both Chen et al., 2019 and
1195 Stephens et al., 2020).

1196

1197	Appendix A: List of Acronyms	
1198		
1199	ADEOS II	Advanced Earth Observation Satellite II
1200	AI/ML	Artificial intelligence and machine learning
1201	AMMA	African Monsoon Multidisciplinary Analyses
1202	BALTEX	Baltic Sea Experiment
1203	BSRN	Baseline Surface Radiation Network
1204	CC	Clausius-Clapeyron rate
1205	CCRN	Changing Cold Regions Network
1206	CERES	Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy System
1207	CIRC	Continual Intercomparison of Radiation Codes
1208	CLIVAR	Climate and Ocean: Variability, Predictability and Change project
1209	CORDEX	Coordinated Regional Downscaling Experiment
1210	CSE	Continental Scale Experiment
1211	DO	Designated observables
1212	EEI	Earth Energy Imbalance
1213	ENSO	El Niño-Southern Oscillation
1214	ENVISAT	European Space Agency Environmental Satellite
1215	EOS	Earth Observing System
1216	GABLS	GEWEX Atmospheric Boundary Layer Study
1217	GAME	GEWEX Asian Monsoon Experiment
1218	GARP	Global Atmosphere Research Programme
1219	GASS	GEWEX Atmospheric Systems Study Panel
1220	GCSS	GEWEX Cloud System Study
1221	GEWEX	Global Energy and Water Cycle Experiment / Global Energy and Water
1222		EXchanges project
1223	GHP	GEWEX Hydrometeorology Projects
1224	GLASS	GEWEX Land Atmosphere System Studies
1225	GMPP	GEWEX Modeling and Prediction Projects
1226	GPCP	Global Precipitation Climatology Project
1227	GPM	Global Precipitation Mission
1228	GRACE	Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment
1229	GRP	GEWEX Radiation Project
1230	GVaP	Global water Vapor Project
1231	HadGEM3	Hadley Centre Global Environmental Model, version 3
1232	HyMeX	HYdrological cycle in the Mediterranean Experiment
1233	iLEAPS	Integrated Land Ecosystem-Atmosphere Processes Study
1234	INARCH	International Network for Alpine Research Catchment Hydrology
1235	IPCC WG II	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change Working Group II
1236	ISCCP	International Satellite Cloud Climatology Project
1237	ISLSCP	International Satellite Land Surface Climatology Project
1238	INTENSE	INTElligent use of climate models for adaptatioN to non-Stationary
1239		hydrological Extremes
1240	JSC	Joint Scientific Committee
1241	LBA	Large-Scale Biosphere-Atmosphere Experiment in Amazonia
1242	LHA	Lighthouse Activities

1243	MAGS	Mackenzie GEWEX Study
1244	NEWS	NASA Energy and Water Cycle Study program
1245	NWP	Numerical weather prediction
1246	OHC	Ocean heat content
1247	PILPS	Project for the Intercomparison of Land-Surface Parameterization
1248		Schemes
1249	PoR	Programs of Records
1250	PROES	Process Evaluation Study
1251	RHP	GEWEX Regional Hydroclimate Projects
1252	SMOS	Soil Moisture and Ocean Salinity mission
1253	SRB	Surface radiation budget
1254	SSG	Scientific Steering Group
1255	TOA	Top of atmosphere
1256	TOGA	Tropical Ocean and Global Atmosphere Project
1257	TRMM	Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission
1258	WACMOS	Water Cycle Multi-mission Observation Strategy
1259	WCRP	World Climate Research Programme
1260	WEBS	Water and energy budget synthesis
1261	WGNE	Working Group on Numerical Experimentation
1262	WGRF	Working Group on Radiative Fluxes
1263	WOCE	World Ocean Circulation Experiment
1264		
1265		

1266

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1268

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