Current mesoscale weather prediction and microscale dispersion models are limited in their ability to perform accurate assessments in urban areas. A project called the National Urban Database with Access Portal Tool (NUDAPT) is beginning to provide urban data and improve the parameterization of urban boundary-layer processes (Ching 2007). The impetus for NUDAPT came from results of an American Meteorological Society Board of Urban Environment survey and recommendations from the Office of the Federal Coordinator for Meteorology’s (2005) Urban Environment Workshop. Recognizing the need to address issues ranging from the prediction of exposure to a deadly toxic release to the assessment of health risk from poor air quality in urban areas, NUDAPT was initiated by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (U.S. EPA) and supported by several federal and state agencies and private and academic institutions. NUDAPT will fill a critical gap for providing refined and specialized information to fulfill the operational needs of new urban models (Dupont et al. 2004; Chen et al. 2006, 2007a) and for running their applications (Chen 2007b,c; Taha 2008a–c). NUDAPT builds on the emergence of...
• new science and model advancements for urban meteorology modeling;
• new datasets that include
  • newly acquired high-resolution building data for most large cities in the United States;
  • evolving description and resolution of urban land uses and cover data;
  • gridded daughter products, including urban canopy parameters (UCPs) derived from the high-resolution building and vegetation data, and
  • ancillary data, including gridded day and night population and anthropogenic heating;
• new technology to facilitate NUDAPT’s dissemination to and usage by the modeling community with Web-based data access tools in a centralized database.

NUDAPT is a database and decision support system that is hosted in a Geographic Information System (GIS) environment on an ArcGIS server at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. In concept, NUDAPT offers a central cyber location for users (researchers, analysts, modelers, and policy makers) to access high-resolution urban-scale data, collected by conventional and remote sensing measurements, that are needed to characterize and model the urban atmosphere. Currently, NUDAPT hosts such data for 33 cities in the United States, with different degrees of coverage and completeness. Data are presented in their original format, such as building heights, day and night population, vegetation data, and land surface temperature and radiation, or in a “derived” format, such as the UCPs, which are used in urban meteorology and air quality modeling applications. As an open source public domain portal, NUDAPT is designed with tools for users to share data, exchange information, discuss results, and post their findings, papers, and conference presentations.

**URBAN MODELING.** NUDAPT will provide data for model development and applications in urban areas. Meteorological models provide information needed for planning and conducting air quality assessments and for transporting and dispersing air pollutants and hazardous toxic agents. Mesoscale models generate meteorological fields used for near-surface transport predictions based on surface roughness ($z_0$) and stability (Monin–Obukov length) parameters for the primary land use of each model grid. However, for many urban applications, greater spatial detail and fidelity of the flow fields will be required. Recent advances in urban meteorological models now account for the influence of buildings, trees, and other morphological features on the urban boundary layer flows. Gridded UCPs used in the models represent the geometrical characteristics of the morphological features that incorporate the influence and complexities of spatial distributions of building densities and of buildings of different shapes, sizes, and material composition, as well as other dominant urban features (Fig. 1). Aerial surveys are now generating geospatial data that capture, with high definition (1–5 m), the three-dimensional geometry of individual and conglomerates of buildings and vegetation in urban areas from which model UCPs can be derived (Burian et al. 2004, 2006, 2007a,b; Fig. 2).

Urbanization schemes have been introduced into the fifth-generation Pennsylvania State University (PSU)–National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) Mesoscale Model (MM5), the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model, and other models and are being tested and evaluated for grid sizes of the order of 1 km or so (Dupont et al. 2004; Chen et al. 2004, 2007a–c; Otte et al. 2004; Chin et al. 2005). The governing equations (introduction and implementation of canopy-layer parameterizations) for each system were modified, and unique sets of UCPs were introduced to represent their urbaniza-

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Urban canopy effects

Modeling Requirement
To capture the grid average effect of detailed urban features in mesoscale atmospheric models

Solution
Defined and implemented Urban canopy parameterizations such as height-to-width ratios and sky view factors into their model formulations

Fig. 1. Schematic of urban canopy parameterization concept and methodology. Here, sky-view factor is the ratio of the radiation received in the street canyon to the hemispheric radiation above the canopy.

Fig. 2. Selected UCPs derived for 1-km² cells for Harris County, TX, as used in the urbanized MM5 system. PAD is plan area density, and FAD is frontal area density of the buildings in each cell. Note that each cell has a unique combination of UCPs.
The database system operates at two levels. First, datasets of high-resolution, full-feature digital terrain elevation containing the three-dimensional representation of urban morphological features (e.g., buildings and trees) and extracted building footprints and geometries reside at the lowest layer. The portal manages accessibility to this layer to preserve and maintain, as necessary, proprietary and other sensitive status requirements and to manage the network bandwidth burden. Processed data, including computed UCPs, are in other layers at this level. The second level contains tools and capabilities for general community usage. Here, users can query the database for relevant data, process and retrieve data in a form that is most compatible with their specific modeling requirements, and submit additional information to the database. Users of NUDAPT are encouraged to enter a cycle of inquiry, usage, and improved insights to enable the improvements-to-modeling dividends.

The portal allows researchers the ability to search through indices of

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**Table 1. UCPs used in MM5 and WRF**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MM5</th>
<th>WRF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Mean and standard deviation of building and vegetation height</td>
<td>• Urban fraction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Plan area—weighted mean building and vegetation height</td>
<td>• Building height, ZR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Building height histograms</td>
<td>• Roughness for momentum above the urban canopy layer, ( Z_0 C )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Plan area fraction and frontal area index at ground level</td>
<td>• Roughness for heat above the urban canopy layer ( Z_0 HC )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Plan area density</td>
<td>• Zero-displacement height above the urban canopy layer, ( Z_{DC} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Rooftop area density</td>
<td>• Percentage of urban canopy (PUC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Frontal area density</td>
<td>• Sky-view factor (SVF)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Complete aspect ratio</td>
<td>• Building coverage ratio (roof area ratio), ( R )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Building area ratio</td>
<td>• Normalized building height, ( HGT )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Building height-to-width ratio</td>
<td>• Drag coefficient by buildings, ( CDS )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Sky-view factor at ground level and as a function of height</td>
<td>• Buildings volumetric parameter, ( AS )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Aerodynamic roughness length and displacement height</td>
<td>• Anthropogenic heat, ( AH )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Mean orientation of streets</td>
<td>• Heat capacity of the roof, wall, and road</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Surface fraction of vegetation, roads, rooftops, water, and impervious area</td>
<td>• Heat conductivity of the roof, wall, and road</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Albedo</td>
<td>• Albedo of the roof, wall, and road</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Emissivity</td>
<td>• Emissivity of the roof, wall, and road</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Building materials</td>
<td>• Roughness length for momentum of the roof, wall, and road</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Roughness length for heat of the roof, wall, and road</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Fig. 3.** Schematic showing the urbanized version of MM5 based on (drag approach) DA-SM2U (Dupont et al. 2004). Drag force approach is used in contrast to the standard roughness approach. (left) Street canyon radiative fluxes are included, and a land surface model (SM2U) provides for within-grid variations of fluxes.
relevant datasets. It handles Web-based data extraction and conversion in both raster and vector formats. The Environmental Systems Research Institute’s (ESRI’s) relatively new ArcGIS server provides a single engine with many desirable functions that are needed to handle raster and vector data. ArcObjects Java is the preferable language; thus, if the server-side processing demand becomes severe, the application easily can be ported to a high-performance Linux environment.

**Databases.** NUDAPT has been populated with a wide array of databases critical to accurate urban modeling. Three-dimensional buildings database on airborne light detection and ranging (lidar) signals that produce a full-feature digital elevation model (DEM), a digital terrain model (DTM), a micrometeorological database, gridded UCPs, population, anthropogenic heating, and land use/land cover are the core databases incorporated within NUDAPT to date.

**High-resolution building data.** Data on buildings, such as their size, shape, orientation, and relative location to other building and urban morphological features (trees, highway overpasses, etc.), are now available for the largest urban areas in the United States. The emergence of these heretofore unavailable datasets has stimulated the use of urban canopy parameterizations in mesoscale meteorological modeling because of the possibility of deriving the necessary UCPs. Building databases, in general, can be extracted from paired stereographic aerial images by photogrammetric analysis techniques or from DTMs acquired by airborne lidar data collection. Lidar data are acquired by flying an airborne laser scanner over an urban area and collecting return signals from pairs of rapidly emitted laser pulses. The laser returns are processed to produce terrain elevation data products, including full-feature DEMs and bare-Earth DTMs. The morphological properties of buildings and trees (e.g., height and footprint extent) can be determined by subtracting the DTM from the DEM to produce a database of heights above ground level. The maximum resolution is determined from a combination of aircraft speed and laser pulse rates and, typically, is of the order of 1–5 m. Lidar is especially enticing because it provides a high-resolution representation of urban morphological features, especially buildings and trees, for entire metropolitan areas, with a minimal set of airplane flyovers. However, lidar is costly and presents a data management challenge given the massive size of datasets.

For example, the Houston, Texas, prototype constructed in NUDAPT now contains 1- and 5-m DEM and DTM databases for a large section of the Houston metropolitan area based on a 2001 lidar flyover (see the next section). In general, a variety of automated and semiautomated approaches to extract building and tree objects from the lidar-based DEM and DTM have been developed and provide building and tree data coverage in vector format for large parts of most of the major cities in the United States. For the Houston prototype, a 650,000-building geographic information system dataset has been incorporated.

NUDAPT contains archived copies of lidar DEM and DTM data currently being acquired by the National Geospatial Intelligence Agency (NGA; formerly the National Imagery and Mapping Agency). When completed, NGA will have obtained data from as many as 133 urban areas. That project is part of the Homeland Security Infrastructure Program (HSIP); the Nunn-Lugar-Domenici Act (Defense Against Weapons of Mass Destruction Act of 1996) established a project in which the U.S. Department of Defense was tasked to help respond to chemical, biological, and nuclear incidences in the 133 urban centers. These data [together with the National Map Project of the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS)] provide a critical infrastructure information base for HSIP. With copies of such data for most major cities in the United States, NUDAPT will provide the basis for deriving urban modeling parameters on a national scale.

**Morphology and urban canopy parameters.** As indicated earlier, in addition to roughness and bulk scaling parameters, a variety of geometrical and density descriptors of urban morphological features are now being introduced into advanced urban models (Table 1). For the Houston prototype, as an example, the UCP database provides 250-m and 1-km resolution coverage of UCPs. These parameters have been calculated for each grid in the modeling domain based on the 650,000-building database integrated with the lidar DEM and DTM (Burian et al. 2004). Figure 2 shows examples of morphological and geometrical parameters used in the MM5 gridded for 1-km cells for Houston. Clearly, each grid cell has a unique set of UCPs describing its building, vegetation, and land use features; consequently, each cell has a unique influence on the resulting model simulation. The WRF model utilizes a different set of UCPs (Table 1) for its single-layer urban canopy version (Kusaka et al. 2001; Chen et al. 2006, 2007a–c). At this time, UCPs have been derived for 44 cities under a
Anthropogenic heating and population data. Energy usage is concentrated but not evenly distributed in urban areas. In some areas, the heat that is generated can be a significant fraction of the overall energy budget in the urban area, and this contribution varies both spatially and temporally across the city. Gridded fields of this energy component would replace the oversimplified fields based on gross assumptions that typically are used in operational models. NUDAPT now includes AH as one of its priority variables. Gridded values of AH at 500-m resolution (Fig. 4) now in NUDAPT have been prepared using methodology developed by Sailor and Lu (2004), and Sailor and Hart (2006) for representative summer and winter days. Results of a sensitivity study utilizing gridded AH in NUDAPT are shown.

The NUDAPT prototype also contains daytime and nighttime populations gridded at 250 m according to McPherson and Brown (2003) and shown in Fig. 5a (Houston) and Fig. 5b (national map of database). The nighttime data are based on the 2000 U.S. Census and are modified to account for population near roads; the daytime data represent worker and daytime residential populations based on the Texas Business Directory and the Census Transportation Planning Package 2000 datasets. At this time, it does not include the traffic, shopping, school special events, and tourist populations. Nonetheless, the current population data along with urban concentration fields would be a powerful set of information for conducting assessment studies of exposures ranging from agent releases to air pollutant “hot spots.”

Portal features. The NUDAPT portal system provides urban database and support tools to be applied to advanced urban modeling systems. It uses a Web-based tool, QuickPlace, that provides an environment designed to foster future research and development collaborations to advance the state of science of urban modeling. The current prototype portal delivers server-side data processing (thus minimizing or eliminating the need for desktop geographical information systems) and provides a responsive map viewer for data exploration of the source and gridded datasets. Tools are available to clip, reproject, resample, reformat, and compress subsets of the data. The clip tool allows several choices for selecting a subdomain, either by using a bounding box envelope projected into spatial reference of raster and output, or by specifying coordinates. The reprojection tool allows datasets to be referenced into various user-specified coordinate systems. Currently, NUDAPT supports many coordinate reference systems [all North American Datum of 1983 (NAD83), including spherical, latitude–longitude, universal transverse mercator (UTM), and Albers equal area] for its outputs; additionally, other custom projections supported by arcGIS can be invoked. NUDAPT users will have several methods to perform resampling to retain to the extent possible the unique properties of the data from the base projection. Currently, options include nearest-neighbor bilinear interpolation, and cubic convolution methods. For maximal conservation of the data properties, NUDAPT users also can invoke the so-called spatial allocator tool (Eyth and Brunk 2007). Several output formats are available for compressing and downloading user-customized datasets, including network Common Data Form (NetCDF), American Standard Code for Information Exchange (ASCII), floating point, Imagine Image, and Geographic Tagged Image File (GeoTIFF).

**Fig. 4.** Example of maximum AH fluxes ($Q_f$) gridded at 500 m on an hourly basis in NUDAPT, based on the method by Sailor and Lu (2004). Example shown is for Houston, TX, for a “typical” day at 2000 UTC in Aug.
derived building data, sets of gridded daughter products (UCPs), anthropogenic heat fluxes, and day–night population data. For the prototype, demonstration applications utilized urbanized versions of MM5, WRF, and the U.S. EPA’s Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) modeling system for the Texas Air Quality Study 2000 intensive field study (www.utexas.edu/research/ceer/texaqs/). Houston is the fourth most populous city in the United States; large amounts of oxidant precursors are introduced there from traffic, and large amounts of air toxic pollutants are emitted from its ship channel area, thus contributing to poor air quality. Modeling was performed using nesting methods in which boundary conditions are provided sequentially to domains of each subsequently finer grid mesh. Given the proximity to Galveston Bay, hourly observed sea surface temperatures were introduced to increase the accuracy of simulating the bay–land breeze flow reversal in the Houston area. Examples showing sensitivity of employing NUDAPT-supplied parameters against base case simulations that utilize a standard set of parameters are illustrated.

**Urbanized MM5 and CMAQ simulations.** Figure 6 compares model simulations of predicted dispersion parameters for Houston on 30 August 2000. The standard set employs a single urban land use class of the USGS classification scheme for Houston. In contrast, the urbanized canopy version of MM5 employs additional urban land use classes and UCPs that reflect buildings and vegetation data (see Table 1). As a result, intraurban spatial gradients in the metropolitan area of Houston are negligible in the standard implementation in contrast to results from the urbanized version. Both sets of meteorology were used to simulate air quality using the U.S. EPA’s CMAQ modeling system (Byun and Schere 2006); the results exhibited significant differences in magnitude and spatial patterns for ozone (Fig. 7). These simulations show the effect of ozone titration by elevated levels of nitrogen oxide (NOx), primarily from mobile source contributions. (Simulations performed at 4-km grid size exhibited considerably reduced levels of NOx and a concomitant reduction in titration effects on ozone.)

**Sensitivity studies using urbanized WRF.** The urbanized WRF model (version 2.2) was used to conduct sensitivity experiments using NUDAPT; for this study, this version of WRF was configured with four two-way interactive nested grids having grid spacing of 27, 9, 3, and 1 km. There were 31 vertical levels with 16 levels within the lowest 2 km in the atmosphere to better resolve the atmospheric boundary layer. It was initialized at 0000 UTC 30 August
Fig. 6. Examples from model sensitivity study showing sensible heat fluxes and PBL height for MM5 simulations at 1-km grid size using urbanized version (DA-SM2U) of Dupont et al. (2004) and standard version for 2000 UTC 30 Aug 2000. Standard version uses single (urban) land use category for all of Houston, TX.

Fig. 7. Example results of ozone simulations based on CMAQ model driven by urbanized (UCP) versus standard version (no UCP) of MM5 at 1-km grid size for Houston, TX, at 2100 UTC 30 Aug 2000.
2000 with the National Centers for Environmental Prediction’s Environmental Data Assimilation System and integrated for 36 h, and used the following physics options: Dudhia’s shortwave radiation scheme, Rapid Radiative Transfer Model longwave radiation scheme, Mellor–Yamada–Janjić PBL scheme, and the Noah land surface model with one-layer UCM. Model studies testing the sensitivity to model inputs of morphological properties of buildings and other roughness features, land cover, and anthropogenic heating rate data from NUDAPT and lookup table values for WRF have been performed. WRF-simulated shelter (2 m) temperature differences between using the NUDAPT anthropogenic heating rate and using the table-based anthropogenic heating rate are shown in Fig. 8b (corresponding differences in daily anthropogenic heating rate are shown in Fig. 8a). Note that employing table lookup values for those parameters already represent a significant modeling improvement over the non-urbanized WRF versions. Results show differences reaching 1.5°C; differences were also noted for wind speed and mixing heights. We have surmised that the use of actual building data and anthropogenic heating do affect the accuracy and precision of the simulations of surface meteorological variables and mixing heights, consistent with the experience with the urbanized MM5.

**Urban heat island modification studies.** Another example application of UCP meteorological models and related morphological data is in studying UHIs and their mitigation (Taha and Ching 2007). Heat islands are phenomena associated with urbanization. Their intensity is influenced primarily by the complexities in the radiation properties of buildings and urban canyons and morphological features, the degree of surface imperviousness and soil moisture availability, enhanced thermal heat storage capacity, and the introduction of anthropogenic sources of heat (Sailor 2006; Taha 1996, 1997). Taha (2008a,b) conducted modeling experiments to investigate the potential for mitigating UHIs and to study their air quality consequences. Using his urbanized version of MM5 in an application to Sacramento, California (Taha 2008c), he showed that temperature reductions from vegetation and albedo change in excess of 1°C each from its base case was achievable (Fig. 9). When such results were applied to an air quality model—our example, Comprehensive Air Quality Model with extensions (CAMx; see ENVIRON 2008) in this case—it produced a decrease in ozone of the order of 10 ppb, (Fig. 10). These results illustrate the potential for applications using NUDAPT for performing urban planning study simulations that alter the urban landscape with the goal of reducing adverse impacts on air quality, visibility, and comfort in urban areas (Taha 2008a).

**SUMMARY.** NUDAPT was developed to provide to the modeling community a resource to facilitate addressing many of the evolving environmental problems of urban areas. It features a database with high-resolution urban morphological features and specialized daughter products representing the geometry, density, material, and roughness properties of the morphological features. The Houston prototype example presented herein is extensible to most urban centers in the United States because datasets containing their morphological features, and in some cases derived building information, is available. The community is
now invited to use NUDAPT for advanced applications, including improved urban climate predictions, advanced atmospheric dispersion modeling, assessment of exposure to airborne hazards for populations in transit throughout the day, and human exposure assessment of air quality (www.nudapt.org).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.

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Fig. 9. Results of nested model experiments for Sacramento, CA, illustrating the capability of simulating urban heat islands (UHI) and mitigation (cooling); uMM5 is an urbanized version of MM5 (Taha 2008c) based on Dupont et al. (2004). (a) Mesoscale (MM5; 12 and 4 km) and mesourban (uMM5; 1 km) meteorological simulation domains (Taha 2008a). The small white rectangle indicates the Sacramento-area uMM5 modeling domain that is shown enlarged in (b) and (c). (b) Simulated surface temperature change (°C) as a result of increased urban albedo in Sacramento. Decrease in surface temperature reaches up to 7°C in and near the downtown area (square inset). Example is for 1300 PDT 31 Jul. (c) Building plan-area density function (PAD) (1 m⁻²), at 1 m AGL for the Sacramento area; note the near-perfect correspondence between decrease in surface temperature in (b) and change in roof albedo [as indicated via PAD in (c)]. (d) Change in 2-m air temperature 28 Jul–2 Aug at an arbitrary point [red dot in (b)] as a result of increased urban albedo (blue line) and urban forest (red line).

Fig. 10. Sensitivity of air quality (ozone) to UHI reduction scenario described in Fig. 9 (Taha 2008a,c). (a) Simulated base-case ozone (O₃), ppm, for central California, 31 Jul 2000 (1300 PDT) at 4-km resolution. (b) The 1-km-resolution detail of simulated base-case ozone (O₃) at 1300 PDT 31 Jul 2000 within the uMM5 grid for the Sacramento area. The approximate location of the area with high-rise buildings is shown with black ellipse. (c) Changes in ozone concentrations (ppm) as a result of UHI control via increased urban albedo in the Sacramento area.
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