

1 Evaluation of the high resolution WRF-Chem (v3.4.1) air 2 quality forecast and its comparison with statistical ozone 3 predictions

4 **Rahela Žabkar^{1,2}, Luka Honzak^{2,*}, Gregor Skok^{1,2}, Renate Forkel³, Jože**
5 **Rakovec^{1,2}, Andrej Cegljar^{4,2,+}, Nedjeljka Žagar^{1,2}**

6 [1] University of Ljubljana, Faculty of Mathematics and Physics, Ljubljana, Slovenia

7 [2] Center of Excellence SPACE-SI, Ljubljana, Slovenia

8 [3] Karlsruher Institut für Technologie, Institut für Meteorologie und Klimaforschung,
9 Atmosphärische Umweltforschung, Garmisch-Partenkirchen, Germany

10 [4] University of Ljubljana, Biotechnical Faculty, Ljubljana, Slovenia

11 [*] now at: BO-MO d.o.o., Ljubljana, Slovenia.

12 [+] now at: Institute for Environment and Sustainability, Joint Research Centre, Ispra, Italy.

13 Correspondence to: R. Žabkar (rahela.zabkar@fmf.uni-lj.si)

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15 **Abstract**

16 An integrated modelling system based on the regional on-line coupled meteorology-
17 atmospheric chemistry WRF-Chem model configured with two nested domains with
18 horizontal resolution 11.1 km and 3.7 km has been applied for numerical weather prediction
19 and for air quality forecast in Slovenia. In the study an evaluation of the air quality
20 forecasting system has been performed for summer 2013. In the case of ozone (O₃) daily
21 maxima, the first and second day model predictions have been also compared to the
22 operational statistical O₃ forecast and to the persistence. Results of discrete and categorical
23 evaluations show that the WRF-Chem based forecasting system is able to produce reliable
24 forecasts, which depending on monitoring site and the evaluation measure applied can
25 outperform the statistical model. For example, the correlation coefficient shows the highest
26 skill for WRF-Chem model O₃ predictions, confirming the significance of the non-linear
27 processes taken into account in an on-line coupled Eulerian model. For some stations and
28 areas biases were relatively high due to highly complex terrain and unresolved local
29 meteorological and emission dynamics, which contributed to somewhat lower WRF-Chem

1 skill obtained in categorical model evaluations. Applying a bias-correction could further
2 improve WRF-Chem model forecasting skill in these cases.

3 **Key words:** Air quality, forecast, ozone, WRF-Chem, online-coupled model, statistical model

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5 **1 Introduction**

6 Real-time air quality forecasting (RT-AQF) is a relatively new discipline in atmospheric
7 sciences, which has evolved as a response to societal and economic needs, reflecting the
8 progress in scientific understanding of physical processes and numerical and computational
9 technologies (Zhang et al., 2012a). The first RT-AQF systems, developed for forecasting air
10 pollution in exposed urban regions, were either empirical methods based on persistence,
11 climatology, human expertise and meteorological forecast (e.g. Wolff and Liou, 1978), or
12 statistical models taking advantage of links between pollutant concentrations, meteorological
13 variables (wind speed and direction, temperature, cloudiness, moisture etc.) and physical
14 (emissions) parameters (e.g. McCollister and Wilson, 1975; Cobourn, 2007; Vlachogianni et
15 al., 2011). The next step in evolution of RT-AQF systems was the use of sophisticated
16 chemical transport models that represent all major processes (meteorological and chemical)
17 that lead to the formation and accumulation of air pollutants. Many of these RT-AQF systems
18 consist of an offline coupled meteorological model and a chemical-transport model, where the
19 meteorological model (e.g., ALADIN, ALADIN International Team, 1997; MM5, Grell et al.,
20 1994; WRF, Skamarock et al., 2008) provides meteorological input for the chemical-transport
21 model (e.g., EMEP, van Loon et al., 2004; CMAQ, Byun and Schere, 2006; CAMx,
22 ENVIRON, 2011; CHIMERE, Menut et al., 2013) with an output time interval typically
23 around 1 hour. Examples are the EURAD (http://db.eurad.uni-koeln.de/index_e.html),
24 SILAM (<http://silam.fmi.fi/>), ForeChem (<http://atmoforum.aquila.infn.it/forechem/>),
25 CALIOPE (<http://www.bsc.es/caliope/>) forecast systems and others. The new generation of an
26 online coupled models (e.g., MCCM, Grell et al., 2000; GATOR-GCMM, Jacobson 2001;
27 Meso-NH-C, Tulet et al. 2003; WRF-Chem, Grell et al., 2005; Enviro-HIRLAM, Baklanov et
28 al., 2008; GEM-AQ, Kaminski et al. 2008; COSMO-ART, Vogel et al., 2009; WRF-Chem-
29 MADRID, Zhang et al., 2010a) presents an alternative approach with one unified modelling
30 system, in which meteorological and air quality variables are simulated together within the
31 same model. The online approach permits the simulation of two-way interactions between
32 different atmospheric processes including emissions, chemistry, clouds and radiation, and a

1 better response of the simulated pollutant transport to changes of the wind field (Grell et al.,
2 2004), and can thus provide a more realistic representation of the atmosphere. The use of
3 online coupled models can be particularly important in regions with high aerosol loadings and
4 cloud coverage (Otte et al., 2005; Eder et al., 2006), where physical processes in the
5 atmosphere may be modified by the aerosol direct effect on radiation or by aerosol cloud
6 interactions. Several reviews summarized the strengths and limitations of offline and online
7 coupled models (e.g. Zhang 2008; Klein, 2012; Baklanov et al., 2014). There is an increasing
8 awareness that an integrated online approach is needed not only for assessment, forecasting
9 and communication of air quality, but also for weather forecasting (e.g. Baklanov, 2010; Grell
10 and Baklanov, 2011; Klein et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2012b; Baklanov et al., 2014).
11 Nevertheless, there are several issues regarding the inclusion of chemistry into numerical
12 weather prediction models. More evidence is required whether an integrated model can
13 produce a good climatology of the most important chemical species, and if such a model is,
14 considering many uncertainties, able to beat persistence forecasts of these species (Grell and
15 Baklanov, 2011). These questions are calling for further research and studies exploring the
16 performance of the models with an online coupled chemistry.

17 In recent years extensive efforts have been devoted to develop air quality (AQ) forecasting
18 systems for Slovenia. In this study we explore the use of the state-of-the-science WRF-Chem
19 model (Grell et al., 2005) with coupled meteorological, microphysical, chemical, and
20 radiative processes for forecasting AQ in Slovenia during summertime conditions. In last
21 decade WRF-Chem has been increasingly applied to many areas worldwide (e.g., Misenis and
22 Zhang, 2010; Fast et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2010a, 2010b; Li et al., 2011; Tie et al., 2009; Hu
23 et al., 2012; Forkel et al., 2012, Žabkar et al., 2011a, 2013). In most of these studies WRF-
24 Chem model has been successfully used to simulate historical poor AQ conditions in hindcast
25 approach. To our knowledge, only a few studies focused on using WRF-Chem for forecasting
26 AQ, most of these have applied WRF-Chem forecast before and during field campaigns
27 (McKeen et al., 2005, 2007, 2009; Yang et al., 2011). Takigawa et al. (2007) evaluated O₃
28 forecast for a 1 month time period from a one-way nested global-regional RT-AQF system
29 with full chemistry based on the global CHASER (Sudo et al. 2002) and regional WRF-Chem
30 models, while Saide et al. (2011) evaluated a forecast system based on WRF-Chem model for
31 simulating carbon monoxide (CO) as a PM₁₀/PM_{2.5} surrogate over Santiago de Chile for
32 wintertime conditions. WRF-Chem-MADRID (Zhang et al., 2010a) with two additional gas-
33 phase mechanisms, sectional representation for particle size distribution and more advanced

1 model treatments compared to WRF-Chem, was applied by Chuang et al. (2011) and by
2 Yahya et al. (2014) for forecasting AQ over the Southeastern U.S.. In spite of a limited
3 number of evaluation studies published in the literature, an increasing number of real-time
4 weather and air quality forecasting systems based on WRF-Chem are implemented worldwide
5 (http://ruc.noaa.gov/wrf/WG11/Real_time_forecasts.htm).

6 In our study we explore the forecasting skill of WRF-Chem model over the topographically
7 complex and geographically diverse area of Slovenia for three summer months (June - August
8 2013). Furthermore, in the case of O₃ we compare WRF-Chem predictions with a statistical
9 model for predicting O₃ daily maxima, currently used at the Slovenian Environment Agency
10 (SEA). Both first day (1-day) and second day (2-day) forecasts are considered, while a
11 persistence model, which assumes that pollutant level today and tomorrow will be the same as
12 yesterday, is used as a threshold for useful model prediction. Since the availability of accurate
13 and reliable forecasting system could be useful to the local authorities and could help to
14 advise the public the proper preventive actions, we want to answer the question whether
15 WRF-Chem model outperforms the statistical model or persistence. Namely, considering
16 many uncertainties related to one unified model, it may not be easy for models with online
17 chemistry to be able to perform well enough to meet the required standards, and more
18 research and studies are needed to investigate that (Grell and Baklanov, 2011). Due to the
19 limited number of previous studies focused on online coupled forecasting systems, the aim of
20 our study is also to provide a greater insight into potential that lies in the approach based on
21 an unified model for forecasting weather and air pollution. Finally, identified strengths,
22 limitations and deficiencies of analyzed RT-AQFs, are expected to present the basis for
23 further research.

24 **2 Methodology**

25 **2.1 WRF-Chem forecast system**

26 The RT-AQF system for Slovenia based on the WRF-Chem model version 3.4.1 is configured
27 with two nested domains (Fig.1) with horizontal resolution 11.1 km and 3.7 km, and 151×100
28 and 181×145 grid points, respectively. A 1-way nesting is applied by two separate
29 consecutive simulations, where outputs from the coarse grid integration are processed to
30 provide boundary conditions for the nested run every 15 minutes. The vertical structure of the
31 atmosphere is resolved with 42 vertical levels extending up to 50 hPa, with the highest

1 resolution of ~25 m near the ground. About 15 levels are located within the lowest 2 km to
2 assure high vertical resolution of the daytime planetary boundary layer (PBL). To produce the
3 48-hour forecast, the model is run every day, starting at 00 UTC, with meteorological initial
4 (ICs) and lateral boundary conditions (BCs) taken from the 0.5° data from the Global Forecast
5 System (GFS) operated by the US National Weather Service (NWS). For chemical BCs
6 forecasts from global MOZART-4/ GEOS-5 (Emmons et al., 2010) RT-AQF system with
7 temporal availability of 6 h are used. The instantaneous outputs at the 24th hour of the
8 previous day forecast are used to initialize next day's forecasting simulation. An exception is
9 the very first day of the first 48-hour forecasting cycle, when global MOZART-4/ GEOS-5
10 fields were used also to initialize chemistry. A three day spin-up ahead of the first analyzed
11 forecast day is then taken into account to allow pollutants to accumulate in the air masses.

12 In the WRF-Chem model, several choices for parameterizations of physical and chemical
13 processes are available (Grell et al., 2005; Skamarock et al., 2008; Peckham et al., 2011), and
14 their choice can have a strong impact on the model predictions. In both domains we decided
15 to apply the same schemes as were used in simulation S11 for Phase-2 of the Air Quality
16 Model Evaluation International Initiative (AQMEII) (e.g., Balzarini et al., 2014, Baró et al.,
17 Curci et al., 2014, Forkel et al., 2014, Im et al., 2014a and 2014b, Kong et al., 2014, 2014,
18 San José et al., 2014). These include Yonsei University (YSU) PBL scheme (Hong et al.,
19 2006), NOAH land-surface model (Chen and Dudhia, 2001), Rapid Radiative Transfer
20 Method for Global (RRTMG) long-wave and short-wave radiation scheme (Iacono et al.
21 2008), Grell 3D ensemble cumulus parameterization scheme (Grell and Devenyi, 2002) with
22 radiative feedback, Morrison double-moment cloud microphysics (Morrison et al., 2008),
23 Fast-J photolysis scheme (Wild et al., 2000), RADM2 gas phase chemistry (Stockwell et al.,
24 1990) and the MADE/SORGAM aerosol module (Ackermann et al., 1998, Schell et al.,
25 2001). Current model implementation includes a modified RADM2 gas phase chemistry
26 solver as described in Forkel et al. (2014), which avoids under-representation of nocturnal O₃
27 titration in areas with high NO emissions. According to Forkel et al. (2014) the modified
28 solver tends to over-estimate the low NO₂ concentration for pristine regions and in the free
29 troposphere, which results in an overestimation of O₃. Due to the focus on polluted regions
30 this deficiency was considered as less important than the advantage of better description of
31 the titration. In addition, the comparatively small modelling domain (D1) ensures that the
32 boundary conditions constrain the high bias of the modified solver for O₃ and NO₂ in the free
33 troposphere. Also according to our sensitivity tests (results not shown) the modified solver

1 showed better performance for O₃ daily maxima and O₃ nighttime minima than the QSSA
2 RADM2 solver supplied originally with WRF-Chem model.

3 Among feedbacks only the aerosol direct effects on radiation according to Fast et al. (2006)
4 and Chapman et al. (2009) are taken into account. As shown by Kong et al. (2014) for two air
5 pollution episodes, this degree of aerosol-meteorology interactions in 3.4.1 version of the
6 WRF-Chem improved model performance for high aerosol loads, while the representation of
7 the indirect effects needs to be further improved to be able to outperform simulations with
8 direct effects only.

9 Biogenic emissions are estimated using MEGAN (Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols
10 from Nature; Guenther et al., 2006) online model calculations, while dust emissions are
11 modelled according to Shaw et al. (2008) with an adjustment to avoid high dust fluxes from
12 some Dalmatian islands in Croatia. A detailed anthropogenic inventory for pollutants CO,
13 NH₃, NO_x, SO₂, and NMVOC, which has been for the purpose of AQ forecasting constructed
14 for year 2009 by SEA (SEA, 2014), is used to estimate anthropogenic emissions in Slovenia.
15 For areas outside Slovenia the recently updated anthropogenic emissions for the year 2009
16 based on the TNO-MACC-II (Netherlands Organization for Applied Scientific Research,
17 Monitoring Atmospheric Composition and Climate – Interim Implementation), the same as
18 prepared for phase-2 of the AQMEII exercise (Pouliot et al., 2014), are being used. Daily
19 updates of the WRF-Chem based experimental AQ forecast are provided at
20 <http://meteo.fmf.uni-lj.si/onesnazenje>.

21 **2.2 Statistical ozone daily maximum forecast**

22 The statistical O₃ model (Žabkar, 2011b), currently used at SEA for forecasting O₃ daily
23 maxima at 8 measuring sites in Slovenia (Fig.3), is a multivariate regression tool combined
24 with clustering algorithms to take into account measured data, weather forecast data, as well
25 as the predicted backward trajectories of each monitoring site. As regards measurements,
26 yesterday (at 12, 15, 18 and 21 local time, daily maximum, daily minimum, daily average)
27 and today early morning (7 local time) meteorological (pressure, relative humidity, direct and
28 diffusive solar radiation, wind speed) and AQ data (O₃, NO_x, NO₂, CO, PM₁₀, SO₂) are used.
29 For meteorological predictions the 24-h ECMWF forecast variables at 12 UTC of the forecast
30 day at different vertical levels (1000 hPa, 925 hPa, 850 hPa, 500 hPa, 300 hPa) above the
31 measuring sites are taken into account. Among all these variables by the use of stepwise

1 technique, based on the F-statistic only significant variables were selected to be included in
2 multivariate regression equations for different monitoring sites (from 15 to 26 variables,
3 depending on monitoring site).

4 The important part of the statistical forecast is calculation of 24-h backward trajectories on
5 meteorological fields of ALADIN/SI forecast. The inclusion of 24-h predicted trajectories
6 into statistical model is based on the study (Žabkar et al., 2008) which showed, that the
7 highest O₃ daily maxima at monitoring sites in Slovenia are in general associated with short
8 (slow-moving) backward trajectories with a southwestern origin, while the lowest measured
9 daily maximum O₃ values for all the stations are associated with the clusters of long
10 northwestern trajectories. Clusters of similar trajectories were for the purpose of statistical
11 forecast calculated by *k*-means clustering algorithms (Moody and Galloway, 1988; Žabkar et
12 al., 2008) on 6 years (2004-2010) of data (ALADIN/SI trajectories). As an example, Fig. 2
13 shows a mean O₃ daily maxima for clusters of similar trajectories for one of the monitoring
14 sites. The same 6-year time period of training data was used in the stepwise multiple
15 regression procedure to determine the multiple regression prognostic equations associated
16 with monitoring sites and trajectory clusters, from measurements, ECMWF forecast data,
17 average cluster O₃ daily maximum, and day-of-the-year variable.

18 The first step of the statistical O₃ prediction is the calculation of trajectories approaching the
19 monitoring stations at 12 UTC of the forecast day. In the next step these backward trajectories
20 of each monitoring site are associated to the nearest pre-calculated cluster of similar
21 trajectories. Finally, the multiple regression equation of the associated group of trajectories is
22 used to calculate the O₃ daily maximum prediction. It must also be noted, that the decision on
23 declaring O₃ episodes is only partially based on the results from this statistical model; it also
24 involves a decision made by AQ forecasters.

25 **2.3 Evaluation methodology**

26 We evaluate the 1-day and 2-day WRF-Chem meteorological and AQ forecasts on the high
27 resolution domain during a 3-month period (June - August 2013). The main focus is on O₃
28 predictions. In the case of air pollutants, the instantaneous lowest model level mixing ratios
29 (with grid point center about 12 m above model orography - an exception is KRV station as
30 explained below) are compared to the hourly averaged concentrations measured at monitoring
31 stations (which have a typical inlet height of 3 m) from the national network and some other

1 environmental information systems in Slovenia. Figure 3 shows locations of these AQ
2 monitoring stations, and Tab. 1 lists the basic characteristics, including comparison of the
3 station altitude, the height of model orography, model analysis height, and pollutants with
4 higher than 75% availability of valid data during the analyzed time period for each of the AQ
5 monitoring site. In the case of the elevated alpine KRV station, AQ variables are evaluated for
6 the 5th model layer instead of the first model layer. We made this exception for KRV, since
7 the height of the model topography was significantly underestimated there (Tab. 1), as well as
8 the station is known to be strongly influenced by the conditions of the free troposphere. The
9 selection of the 5th model layer for KRV station is based on analyses performed for different
10 model layers (results not shown) and was found to reduce the negative bias for O₃ due to too
11 low WRF-Chem topography at this location. Although even for this model layer the location
12 of the grid point representing KRV station (1414 m) is still well below the true station altitude
13 (1740 m), the O₃ bias for KRV station is significantly smaller than for the first layer, while
14 the correlation coefficient between the measured and simulated O₃ levels remains similar in
15 both cases (the 5th or the lowest model layer). Taking results from higher model layers would
16 further decrease the negative model bias, but would also worsen the correlation coefficient for
17 O₃ at this station due to decreased impact of surface processes.

18 All AQ stations are background, 7 of them are measuring urban background, 1 suburban and
19 9 rural conditions. Valid O₃ measurements are for the analyzed time period available for 13
20 AQ stations. When studying the general model performance, data from additional 4 stations
21 for two other pollutants (NO₂, PM₁₀) are also analyzed to get a better picture of model
22 behavior over the domain, known for its large topographical and climate diversity. The
23 coverage of three climate zones in Slovenia (Mediterranean, sub-alpine and mountainous)
24 with monitoring stations is the following: NG, KOP and OTL are Mediterranean sites, KRV is
25 a mountainous station, and the remaining stations are sub-alpine. As well as the elevated
26 station KRV, the ISK, OTL and VNA stations are also influenced by regional transport of
27 pollutants.

28 For evaluation of predicted meteorological variables, data from SEA meteorological stations
29 (MET, Fig. 3) for 2m temperature (T2m), 10 m wind speed (W10m), relative humidity (RH),
30 incoming shortwave radiation (SR) and precipitation (RR) are used. It must be noted, that
31 MET stations with lower spatial representativeness (e.g. alpine stations) were not a priori
32 excluded from the analyses, which needs to be taken into account when looking at evaluation

1 results. The reason for not excluding these stations was that some information about the AQ
2 forecast can also be gained by the evaluation of meteorological forecast for these stations.

3 Basic statistical measures (correlation coefficient (CORR), mean error (ME), mean absolute
4 error (MAE) and root mean square error (RMSE)) are used for evaluating model's forecasting
5 skills of meteorological and AQ variables. In the case of O₃, correlation coefficients are
6 presented also by Taylor diagrams (Taylor, 2001), which graphically summarize the similarity
7 between model forecasts and observations not only in terms of their correlation, but also with
8 their centered root-mean-square difference and the amplitude of their variations, represented
9 by their standard deviations. Furthermore, some additional discrete statistical measures,
10 including index of agreement (IOA), the mean normalized bias error (MNBE), and the mean
11 normalized gross error (MNGE) are calculated for O₃ daily maximum concentrations
12 predicted by the different models. Finally, to evaluate the model's ability to predict
13 exceedances and non-exceedances also several categorical indices including Equitable Threat
14 Score (ETS), Critical Success Index (CSI), Bias (B), False Alarm Ratio (FAR) and
15 Probability Of Detection (POD) are calculated for different thresholds. Definitions of
16 statistical measures are shown in Appendix A.

17 **2.4 Meteorology and air quality of June-August 2013**

18 The analyzed period was marked by three heat wave events, which contributed to the summer
19 characterized by high temperatures, sunny weather and lack of precipitation in Slovenia. The
20 first heat wave event with measured temperature daily maxima up to 35 °C occurred after a
21 rather cold beginning of the month and lasted from June 15 – 21. The event was terminated by
22 a cold front passage and followed by the pronounced cold episode during the end of June and
23 the beginning of July. Another heat wave event with temperatures above 35 °C observed in
24 the lowland, started on July 26 and was briefly interrupted on July 29, when thunderstorms
25 related to frontal passage were accompanied by exceptionally strong wind gusts. The most
26 remarkable of three extraordinary hot episodes was recorded from August 1 – 8. On the last
27 day of this episode, August 8, temperatures reached 40 °C at some measuring sites in
28 Slovenia, and many of them observed their highest temperature ever recorded.

29 As expected for summertime conditions, measured concentrations of most air pollutants,
30 including PM₁₀, were in general low during the analyzed time period. The only exception
31 was O₃ with exceedances of 8-hour target value (120 µg m⁻³) measured at all AQ monitoring

1 stations during the three heat wave events, which is the reason why the main focus of the
2 present study is on this pollutant. During the second two events (in July and August) also
3 threshold exceedances of 1-hour daily maxima were recorded for O₃. In spite of the hot and
4 sunny conditions during the first heat wave event in June 2013, measured daily O₃ maxima at
5 the Slovenian stations did not exceed the 1-hour information threshold value (1h ITV; 180
6 μgm⁻³), but reached 171 μgm⁻³ at the Mediterranean OTL and the elevated alpine KRV
7 stations. During the second heat wave event 1-hour daily maxima exceeded 180 μgm⁻³ at
8 KRV, OTL, NG and KP (July 23 – 28), while the highest number of 1-hour exceedances (20)
9 has been in July measured at OTL station. Similarly, during the August heat wave event O₃
10 concentrations exceeded the 1h ITV at LJ, MB, OTL, NG and KP from August 2 – 7. To
11 summarize, the Mediterranean stations (NG, OTL, KP) due to very high O₃ concentrations
12 measured during the heat wave events (especially the second two events) exhibited the
13 poorest AQ in Slovenia during the analyzed time period, while the legislation limit values
14 have been exceeded only occasionally for the sub-alpine stations.

15

16 **3 Results and discussion**

17 **3.1 Evaluation of meteorological variables**

18 Table 2 shows conventional statistical scores evaluating the 1-day WRF-Chem forecast for
19 the basic meteorological variables, 2m temperature (T2m; for hourly values and daily
20 maxima), 10 m wind speed (W10m), relative humidity (RH) and incoming solar radiation
21 (SR). Results for three selected measuring sites (LJ, NG, MS) and overall result for all 24
22 MET monitoring sites (shown in Fig. 3) are presented separately.

23 Incoming solar radiation is the main energy source that drives all atmospheric processes,
24 including PBL processes, and has a critical role also in atmospheric chemistry. For almost all
25 sites the mean SR was overestimated by the model, with an overall ME of 16 W/m² and 11
26 W/m² for 1-day and 2-day forecast, respectively. CORR was higher for 1-day (0.77) than for
27 2-day (0.71) forecast, with a range of 0.64 to 0.90 for 1-day forecasts at different stations. The
28 larger positive bias during the first day than for the second day can be attributed to less cloudy
29 conditions during the first day of simulation.

30

1 In the case of T2m 1-day (2-day) WRF-Chem meteorological forecast showed an overall
2 correlation with measurements of 0.93 (0.94) for all 1-hour values and 0.97 (0.96) for 1-hour
3 daily maxima. With an exception of three alpine stations with higher simulated positive bias,
4 daily T2m maxima were simulated with ME between -3.9 °C and -0.6 °C, depending on
5 station spatial representativeness. All meteorological variables, including soil temperature and
6 soil moisture, are always initialized with GFS data. This explains higher negative bias for
7 T2m during the first day of simulation in spite of the overestimated of solar radiation. An
8 average systematic underestimation of T2m daily maxima was -2.1 °C both for 1-day and 2-
9 day forecast. Nighttime T2m minima showed lower systematic bias for 2-day forecast, which
10 resulted in overall bias for all hourly T2m values of -1.3 °C for 1-day and -0.8 °C for 2-day
11 forecast. Predominant weak wind conditions with variable direction at stations located in
12 complex topography were challenging to simulate. The general model tendency was to
13 overestimate W10m with overall ME of 0.8 m/s for 1-day and 2-day forecast, where for some
14 stations bias can be very low (e.g. LJ; Tab. 2) and much higher for some other stations due to
15 their local positioning in complex topography (e.g. HRA located in valley with ME of 1.9
16 m/s). For hourly values the correlation is lower (Tab. 2), but for mean daily W10m values
17 Pearson correlation coefficient between 0.4 and 0.9 has been simulated, depending on
18 monitoring site. Relative humidity shows slightly better results for 1-day than for 2-day
19 forecast with CORR of 0.77 and low overall ME of 2 % for 1-day forecast, which for
20 particular stations can be positive (e.g. KRV) or negative (e.g. LJ, NG; Tab. 2).

21 Precipitation (RR) has an important role in cleansing of the atmosphere by wet deposition and
22 scavenging. On average, the predicted precipitation underestimated the measured 3-month
23 accumulations by -55 mm (1-day) or -8 mm (2-day forecast), where the station averaged
24 predicted 3-month precipitation was 145 mm for 1-day, and 194 mm for 2-day forecast
25 (results not shown). It must also be taken into account that the 3.4.1 model version does not
26 allow to include the information about hydrometeors at the boundaries of the nested domain
27 (in the applied 1-way nesting procedure), which contributes to the negative simulated bias of
28 precipitation. A large decrease in the precipitation bias from day 1 to day 2 suggests that
29 different initialization methodology (e.g. using 1 day spin-up for meteorology) could improve
30 the prediction of precipitation events.

1 3.2 Evaluation of air quality variables

2 In this section we evaluate WRF-Chem predictions for O₃, NO₂ and PM₁₀, as three of the
3 most problematic pollutants in terms of harm to human health and compliance with EU limit
4 values (EEA, 2012). Table 3 shows the domain wide performance statistics for 1-day and 2-
5 day forecasts of these pollutants, where in the case of O₃ 1-hour and 8-hour averages and
6 daily maxima are analyzed separately. The comparison of 1-day and 2-day forecasts shows
7 that concentrations of air pollutants were somewhat better forecasted 1-day than 2-days ahead
8 by means of almost all of statistics shown in Tab. 3, with higher impact on O₃ predictions.
9 Although the 2-day prediction was generally not worse for the majority of meteorological
10 variables, the reason for better 1-day prediction in the case of O₃ could be somewhat stronger
11 simulated winds on the second day of simulation. Stronger winds impact the transport and
12 dispersion of pollutants, and have the greatest consequence for secondary pollutants (like O₃)
13 which need time to be formed.

14 As shown in Tab. 3 the WRF-Chem simulations tend to overestimate the 1-hour and 8-hour
15 O₃ values with ME of 14.5 µgm⁻³ and 14.6 µgm⁻³, respectively. Looking at MAE, RMSE and
16 CORR statistics, agreement with measurements is better for 8-hour (22.6 µgm⁻³, 28.1 µgm⁻³
17 and 0.69) than for 1-hour O₃ values (25.1 µgm⁻³, 32.1 µgm⁻³ and 0.65), which is in line with
18 results of previous studies (e.g. Tong and Mauzerall, 2013) and suggests that the current
19 modeling system has problems simulating the small-scale fluctuations of O₃. On the other
20 hand evaluations of predicted 8-hour and daily O₃ maxima, which are of most concern, show
21 a nice model performance (ME, MAE RMSE and CORR of -2.7 µgm⁻³, 13.3 µgm⁻³, 16.7
22 µgm⁻³ and 0.81 for daily maxima, respectively), in line or even better than obtained in some
23 previous studies (e.g. Tong and Mauzerall, 2006; Chuang et al., 2011; Yahya et al., 2014),
24 which could be to some extent related to higher model resolution.

25 To understand results of the domain wide statistics (in Tab. 3) we further analyze spatial and
26 temporal characteristics of model O₃ predictions. Figure 4 shows a spatial pattern of average
27 simulated 1-day predictions for O₃, NO₂ and PM₁₀ overlaid with measured averages, where
28 in the case of O₃ results for all hourly values and for daily maxima are shown separately.
29 Examples of forecasted and measured time series for O₃ at different stations are shown in Fig.
30 5. In Fig. 4a the elevated alpine KRV station is the only one with high negative bias (-12 µgm⁻³)
31 in forecasted 1-hour O₃ concentrations at the lowest model layer, which can be explained
32 by the too low altitude of the KRV station in model topography. The high negative bias for

1 hourly O₃ concentrations at KRV station is reduced to a value of only -2 μgm⁻³ by using the
2 5th model layer concentrations as explained in chapter 2.3. The 5th model level predictions
3 will be used for KRV in all analyses that follow. Besides KRV also the Mediterranean KOP
4 and OTL stations, as well as the rural ZAV site, are stations with comparatively high
5 measured nighttime O₃ levels, which results in low overall bias for all hourly O₃ values for
6 these stations (from -2 to -7 μgm⁻³). Namely, WRF-Chem model cannot capture well the
7 profound nighttime O₃ reductions (shown also by Žabkar et al, 2013; Im et al., 2014a), which
8 contributes to the overall over-prediction of hourly O₃ concentrations (from 10 to 36 μgm⁻³)
9 for stations with very low measured nighttime O₃ concentrations. For sites with highest
10 positive bias in 1-hour O₃ concentrations (TRB, ZAG, HRA and ISK, with bias of 36 μgm⁻³,
11 31 μgm⁻³, 26 μgm⁻³ and 32 μgm⁻³, respectively), this can also be partly explained by too high
12 altitude of the stations in model orography (Tab. 1), since the mean O₃ concentration
13 increases with height.

14 Looking at O₃ daily maxima (Fig. 4b), the under-predictions occur at alpine KRV (-16 μgm⁻³
15 for the lowest model level shown in Fig.4) and at three Mediterranean stations (OTL, NG,
16 KOP; from -14 to -11 μgm⁻³). For Mediterranean stations the underestimations of daily
17 maxima are most probably due to inaccurate representation of coastal processes in model,
18 which are crucial for PBL height evolution and accumulation of pollution in the near ground
19 air layers. For TRB station located in narrow valley of the very complex terrain that cannot be
20 appropriately resolved in the current model topography, the model over-predicts O₃ daily
21 maxima for 14 μgm⁻³. For other sub-alpine stations the bias of O₃ daily maxima predictions is
22 lower.

23 To some extent the previously mentioned model over-predictions of nighttime O₃ minima
24 could be explained by model error in predicted NO₂ levels. When evaluating the primary
25 pollutants one must be aware that in the model the instantaneous emissions are spread over an
26 entire grid box, which results in underestimated emissions and concentrations close to the
27 source regions and overestimated emissions and concentrations at rural locations adjacent to
28 the source regions, and can thus cause a combined effect of negative and positive biases at
29 urban and rural sites. Comparisons of WRF-Chem predicted NO₂ levels with measurements
30 show that in spite of the high spatial resolution the concentrations of the small urban areas are
31 insufficiently represented by the model (Fig. 4c). In Slovenia many towns are located in
32 basins or very narrow valleys, usually poorly or even not resolved in model topography.

1 Smoothed local emissions for these towns show significant underestimations of NO₂
2 concentrations (e.g. ZAG in Fig. 6). In combination with poorly reproduced meteorological
3 processes (calm and stable nighttime conditions in valleys and basins) this results in an
4 underestimation of the O₃ loss by titration. This can explain the positive nighttime bias of O₃
5 found at these sites. The situation is better for bigger cities, located in wider basins, like LJ or
6 CE (LJ; Fig. 6), while at rural sites NO₂ is either well simulated (e.g. MOH; Fig. 6), or
7 slightly over-predicted due to increased emissions from adjacent urban area (e.g. ZAD; Fig.
8 6). The overall agreement of hourly NO₂ predictions with measurements was good for rural
9 sites, while urban sites experienced under-predictions, which were highest for small cities,
10 especially for NG (ME of -13 μgm⁻³) and ZAG (ME of -14 μgm⁻³).

11 Also interesting to discuss are the results for predicted PM₁₀ concentrations (Tab. 3 and Fig.
12 4d), showing slight over-prediction of daily PM₁₀ levels at all stations which is somewhat
13 surprising due to the fact that nearly all current off-line and on-line coupled chemical
14 transport models show large systematic PM₁₀ underestimations. For example, within
15 AQMEII exercise, where seventeen modeling groups from Europe and North America were
16 brought together, running eight operational online-coupled air quality models over Europe
17 and North America, the rural PM₁₀ concentrations over Europe were underestimated by all
18 models (model configurations) by up to 66% while for the urban PM₁₀ concentrations the
19 underestimations were even much larger (up to 75%) (Im et al., 2014b). The reason for slight
20 over-prediction of PM₁₀ levels could be to some extent attributed to the high model spatial
21 resolution used in our study. Further, CORR for daily PM₁₀ concentrations is rather low
22 (0.34 and 0.37 for 1-day and 2-day forecasts, respectively; Tab. 3), which is partly due to the
23 low temporal dynamics of measured daily PM₁₀ concentrations during the analyzed time
24 period (no recorded PM₁₀ exceeding), and partly due to the simulated PM₁₀ overestimations
25 during the heat wave events. These over-predictions contributed also to the overall positive
26 bias of predicted PM₁₀ levels. As shown in Fig. 7 for two monitoring sites, there was a
27 significant PM₁₀ over-prediction simulated on June 10 (day 8 in Fig. 7), related to the pre-
28 frontal advection of polluted air-masses coming from the north-western part of the domain D2
29 (coming from domain D1). The next significant PM₁₀ over-prediction occurred during the
30 first heat wave episode (June 17-22), when during the hot and low wind conditions (after June
31 17) the PM₁₀ levels started to build up in the PBL over entire domain D2 (and over
32 southwestern parts of domain D1), and reached the maximum concentrations in Slovenia
33 again with prefrontal advection of polluted air masses. Both over-predictions contributed to

1 an overall positive bias in forecasted PM10 concentrations. Detailed analyses showed that
2 high concentrations in domain D1 originated from boundary conditions, and appear to be a
3 consequence of overestimated advection of Saharan dust in MOZART model predictions. The
4 increase in PM10 concentrations over Slovenia was also simulated during the prefrontal
5 advection related to the cold front which terminated the next two heat wave events in July and
6 August (days 56-57 and days 67-68 in Fig. 7), but during these days predicted PM10 levels
7 were close to the measured PM10 concentrations.

8 **3.3 Evaluation and comparison of different methods for O₃ daily maximum** 9 **predictions**

10 In this section we want to answer the question: “how accurate is the 1-hour O₃ daily
11 maximum WRF-Chem forecast in comparison to the statistical model prediction or to
12 persistence?”. According to Zhang et al. (2012a) statistical models are known to be generally
13 more suitable for complex site-specific relations between concentrations of air pollutants and
14 predictors. With appropriate and accurate predictors they have a higher accuracy as compared
15 to deterministic models, which is, along with their computational efficiency their main
16 advantage (Zhang et al., 2012a). Among the strengths of the deterministic models are that
17 they give prognostic time- and spatially-resolved concentrations under typical and atypical
18 scenarios, and can give scientific insights into pollutant formation processes (Zhang et al.,
19 2012a). Furthermore, they also allow forecasts for locations which are not monitored due to
20 their complete spatial coverage. In spite of simplified descriptions of physical and chemical
21 processes in the deterministic models and inaccuracies and uncertainties in model inputs (in
22 particular the emissions), some previous studies already suggested that deterministic models
23 can also have skills close to statistical forecasting tools (e.g. Manders et al., 2009). In addition
24 to evaluation and comparison of O₃ daily maxima predictions with WRF-Chem and the
25 statistical model, we decided to add a persistence model as a threshold for useful model
26 prediction. Persistence works well under stationary conditions, but because it cannot handle
27 changes in weather and emissions, fails at the beginning and at the end of the episodes (Zhang
28 et al., 2010a). Regarding the extremes, models of all types are known to have problem to
29 accurately predict them, while persistence predicts extremes with a 1-day (2-day) time lag.

30 Figure 8 compares discrete statistics site by site for 1-day and 2-day model predictions of 1-
31 hour O₃ daily maxima. Similarly, Tab. 4 shows these statistics for all data with different
32 thresholds applied (only for WRF-Chem and persistence, because a statistical forecast is not

1 available for all stations), and separately for different types of stations (sub-alpine urban,
2 rural, Mediterranean urban) with an available statistical forecast. Looking at ME persistence
3 gives results close to zero as long as no threshold is applied, while with threshold of $140 \mu\text{gm}^{-3}$
4 ³ (Tab. 4) ME of 1-day persistence ($-10.2 \mu\text{gm}^{-3}$) is very close to the WRF-Chem model for 1-
5 day predictions ($-11.2 \mu\text{gm}^{-3}$), and for 2-day predictions WRF-Chem ($-13.8 \mu\text{gm}^{-3}$) already
6 beats persistence ($-19.4 \mu\text{gm}^{-3}$). Site-by-site comparison (Fig. 8) shows that for most stations
7 the statistical forecast has a lower ME than WRF-Chem forecast, but there are also stations
8 (ISK, HRA, LJ, KRV) with lower or equal ME for WRF-Chem than for statistical model,
9 indicating the possible occurrence of atypical conditions not resolved by the statistical model.
10 Looking at MAE and RMSE, at all stations except those with highest ME (TRB, KOP) WRF-
11 Chem outperforms the persistence already in the 1-day forecast. Among sites with available
12 statistical forecast there are only two (OTL, KOP) with WRF-Chem performing worse than
13 the statistical forecast. CORR is one of the parameters that suggest how much the model is
14 able to follow the true nature of processes regardless the possible bias. For almost all stations
15 WRF-Chem shows higher CORR than persistence for 1-day and 2-day forecasts. Only at the
16 KRV station the 1-day statistical forecast (CORR=0.80) somewhat outperforms WRF-Chem
17 (0.74), and at NG and KOP CORR for WRF-Chem and statistical model is very similar.

18 The Taylor diagrams in Fig. 9 show CORR together with the centered root-mean-square
19 difference (RMSD) between model forecasts and observations, and the amplitude of their
20 variations (standard deviation). The ideal model would have a correlation coefficient of 1 and
21 a standard deviation equal to the observations, which means that it would be co-located with
22 the black dot on the diagram. WRF-Chem gives higher CORR and lower RMSD for all types
23 of stations, while standard deviation of WRF-Chem O₃ daily maxima predictions is
24 underestimated and lower than for other model forecasts. The latter shows that the variability
25 in WRF-Chem model predictions is not as large as that in observed values. MNBE in Fig. 8
26 has very similar results to ME. For all forecasts except WRF-Chem for the TRB site (with
27 MNBE of 16%) which is located in a narrow valley that is not resolved in the current model
28 resolution, MNBE is below the $\pm 10\text{-}15\%$, which is the U.S. EPA (US EPA, 1991)
29 recommended threshold for the models used for regulatory applications. For MNGE the U.S.
30 EPA recommendation below 30-35% for O₃ applications is met by all forecasts, even in the
31 case of 2-day persistence model. With exception of the MS and KOP sites MNGE is lower for
32 WRF-Chem than for statistical forecast, while for KOP and KRV sites 1-day persistence gives
33 best results, followed by the statistical forecast or WRF-Chem. Very similar are results for

1 IOA with the range of 0-1, and score 1 indicating perfect model agreement with the
2 observations. We can conclude that for most stations the WRF-Chem predictions are in line or
3 even outperform the statistical model. With the exception of the stations with high bias due to
4 very complex local topography (TRB) or unresolved coastal processes (KOP), the WRF-
5 Chem forecasts are more accurate than persistence. Here we recall that high negative bias in
6 WRF-Chem forecast for alpine KRV site due to too low altitude of the station in model
7 topography was compensated by taking prediction from the 5th model level.

8 The key requirement for a forecast system is to be able to predict O₃ concentration levels
9 greater than a given threshold. Thus, in addition to the discrete evaluation just presented, also
10 the contingency-table-based statistics are an important metric of forecast performance. Table
11 5 summarizes the categorical evaluation results for three different thresholds (120, 140, 160
12 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) of elevated O₃ levels, which pose a greater risk to human health. Namely, it is
13 important to take into account that results of categorical statistics are very sensitive to the
14 threshold chosen, as well as to the overall pollution levels during the analyzed months.
15 Equitable Threat Score (ETS) measures the fraction of observed and/or correctly predicted
16 events, adjusted for the frequency of hits that would be expected to occur by random chance.
17 Although this score takes into account the climatology it is not truly equitable. It ranges from
18 -1/3 to 1, where the minimum value depends on climatology (it is near 0 for rare events).
19 Looking at Tab. 5 ETS shows equal skill for WRF-Chem and statistical forecast, higher than
20 persistence for the 120 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ threshold (1-day and 2-day forecast). ETS decreases with
21 increasing the threshold for both WRF-Chem and statistical forecast, indicating the challenge
22 that both models have to accurately predict the extremes. In the case of 140 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ threshold,
23 WRF-Chem has the same ETS as persistence, higher than the statistical model for 1-day
24 forecast, while for 2-day forecast WRF-Chem outperforms the statistical model, followed by
25 persistence. In the case of 160 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ threshold persistence has the highest ETS for a 1-day
26 forecast, followed by statistical model and WRF-Chem, while in the case of 2-day
27 predictions, statistical model shows the highest skill and WRF-Chem the lowest. Another
28 measure, the critical success index (CSI), is similar to ETS, except that it does not take into
29 account the climatology of the events and thus gives poorer scores for rarer events. It
30 measures the percentage of cases that are correctly forecasted out of those either forecasted or
31 observed, and ranges from 0 to 1 (1 indicating the perfect forecast). Similar as ETS, CSI gives
32 higher scores for persistence in the case of 1-day forecast for the higher two thresholds, while
33 on the second day WRF-Chem or the statistical model already performs better. Bias (B)

1 determines whether the same fraction of events are both forecasted and observed. A tendency
2 of the statistical model and of WRF-Chem to under-predict O₃ threshold exceedances shows
3 as a B below 1 for these two models. The false alarm ratio (FAR) that measures the
4 percentage of forecast high O₃ events that turn out to be false alarms, gives highest skill for
5 WRF-Chem, followed by statistical model and persistence. The probability of detection
6 (POD) is a measure of how often a high threshold occurrence is actually predicted to occur,
7 and is relatively low for WRF-Chem with respect to other models.

8 It must be noted, that in categorical evaluations systematic biases like those obtained with
9 WRF-Chem for some stations (e.g. KOP), significantly impact the model performance. For
10 example, if KOP station was excluded from categorical evaluations, WRF-Chem performance
11 improved by means of all statistical measures (results not shown). If correction techniques,
12 based on observations and the previous day's forecast (e.g., McKeen et al., 2005, 2007; Kang
13 et al., 2008) were to be applied to correct the systematic biases, WRF-Chem forecasts might
14 outperform the other two models even in categorical evaluations.

15

16 **4 Summary and conclusion**

17 A high resolution modelling system based on an on-line coupled WRF-Chem has been
18 applied for numerical weather prediction and for forecasting air quality in Slovenia. In the
19 study the evaluation of the forecasting system has been conducted for three summer months.
20 Since the selection of physical or chemical parameterization schemes influences and possibly
21 changes the outcomes, we decided to apply schemes which are well documented and have
22 previously been used in other applications (e.g. AQMEII). Both 1-day and 2-day predictions
23 of meteorological and air quality variables have been analyzed. The focus has been on O₃ as
24 the only pollutant with recorded exceedances of legislation limit values during the three heat
25 wave events in June, July and August 2013. WRF-Chem daily O₃ maximum predictions have
26 also been compared to the operational statistical model and persistence forecasts to answer the
27 question how skillful are the WRF-Chem model predictions compared to these two models.

28 1-day and 2-day WRF-Chem PM₁₀ forecasts showed a very low bias. Exceptions were two
29 events with significantly over-predicted PM₁₀ levels due to prefrontal advection of polluted
30 air masses from neighboring regions. Knowing that majority of the current chemical transport
31 models show large negative biases in simulated PM₁₀ concentrations, these results present a

1 good starting point for studying the importance of aerosol feedbacks with realistic model
2 aerosol concentrations, left for future research.

3 The overall agreement of WRF-Chem NO₂ forecast with measurements was good for rural
4 sites, while urban sites experienced model under-predictions, which were highest for small
5 towns. One important reason is that many small towns are located in basins or very narrow
6 valleys, usually poorly presented in model topography. Smoothed local emissions result in
7 model underestimations of NO₂ concentrations for these towns. This in combination with
8 insufficiently reproduced calm meteorological conditions in basins and valleys during the
9 nighttime hours explains also WRF-Chem over-predictions of nighttime O₃ concentrations.

10 Evaluations of predicted 1-hour and 8-hour daily O₃ maxima, which are in the case of this
11 pollutant of the highest interest, show good WRF-Chem model performance. Nevertheless,
12 there are also stations which experience high over- or under-predictions of O₃ daily maximum
13 levels. For Mediterranean sites the under-predictions of the daily maxima are most probably
14 due to inaccurate representation of coastal processes in model, which are crucial for the PBL
15 height evolution and accumulation of pollution in the near ground air layers. For some sub-
16 alpine stations the reason for the higher bias in O₃ daily maximum predictions is their location
17 either at elevated mountainous or coastal regions, or in narrow valleys which cannot be
18 appropriately resolved in the current model resolution - that impacts how accurately model
19 simulates the local processes responsible for the level of local pollution. Comparisons of
20 WRF-Chem O₃ daily maximum forecasts with persistence and with statistical model
21 predictions show that with respect to some statistical parameters the deterministic WRF-
22 Chem forecast can outperform the other two for both 1-day and 2-day predictions. For
23 example, correlation coefficient shows highest skill for WRF-Chem model, confirming the
24 importance of complex processes as taken into account in an on-line coupled Eulerian model.
25 Further improvement of WRF-Chem forecasting skill could be obtained by applying one of
26 the bias-correction methods in order to account for unresolved topographical and coastal
27 effects, as well as emission patterns. Chemical data assimilation, although currently still in its
28 infancy for online coupled meteorology-chemistry models (Bocquet et al., 2014), could in
29 future also be used as an efficient method for improving prediction of chemical concentration
30 fields. For WRF-Chem model a technical note on the implementation of the aerosol
31 assimilation and a guidance for prospective users has been recently published by Pagowski et
32 al. (2014).

1 Appendix A: Statistical measures

2 For i -th observed (O_i) and the corresponding modelled (M_i) value of variable, discrete
3 statistical measures are calculated as follows:

4 Mean error:

$$5 \quad ME = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (M_i - O_i)$$

6
7 Mean absolute error:

$$8 \quad MAE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |M_i - O_i|$$

9
10 Root mean square error:

$$11 \quad RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (M_i - O_i)^2}$$

12
13 Correlation coefficient:

$$14 \quad r = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (M_i - \bar{M})(O_i - \bar{O})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (M_i - \bar{M})^2 (O_i - \bar{O})^2}}$$

15
16 Index of agreement:

$$18 \quad IOA = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (M_i - O_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (|M_i - \bar{O}| + |O_i - \bar{O}|)^2}$$

19
20 Mean normalized bias error:

$$22 \quad MNBE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{M_i - O_i}{O_i} \times 100$$

23
24 Mean normalized gross error:

$$26 \quad MNGE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{|M_i - O_i|}{O_i} \times 100$$

27
28 For categorical evaluation all model predictions are first classified into four groups (a , b , c
29 and d):

30 a prediction is above, but observation is below the threshold

31 b prediction and observation are above the threshold

32 c prediction and observation are below the threshold

33 d prediction is below, but observation is above the threshold

34

35 Categorical statistics are calculated as follows:

1

2 Equitable threat score: $ETS = \frac{b - a_r}{a + b + d - a_r}$, where $a_r = \frac{(a + b)(b + d)}{a + b + c + d}$

3 Critical success index: $CSI = \frac{b}{a + b + d}$

4 Bias: $B = \frac{a + b}{b + d}$

5 False alarm ratio: $FAR = \frac{a}{a + b}$

6 Probability of detection: $POD = \frac{b}{b + d}$

7

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- 13

1 Table 1: AQ monitoring sites.

Monitoring site	Abbreviation	Type of zone	Altitude (m)	Model orography (m)	Model analysis height (m)	Pollutants
Celje	CE	Urban	240	300	313	O ₃ , PM10, NO ₂
Hrastnik	HRA	Urban	290	540	552	O ₃ , SO ₂
Iskrba	ISK	Rural	540	579	591	O ₃ , NO ₂
Koper	KOP	Urban	56	72	85	O ₃ , PM10
Kovk	KOV	Rural	608	516	528	NO ₂
Krvavec	KRV	Rural	1740	1272	1414	O ₃
Ljubljana	LJ	Urban	299	287	300	O ₃ , PM10, NO ₂ ,
Murska Sobota	MS	Rural	188	189	202	O ₃ , PM10, NO ₂
Nova Gorica	NG	Urban	113	150	163	O ₃ , PM10, NO ₂
Otlica	OTL	Rural	918	874	886	O ₃
Sv. Mohor	MOH	Rural	394	254	266	NO ₂
Trbovlje	TRB	Suburban	250	459	471	O ₃ , PM10, NO ₂
Velenje	VEL	Urban	389	461	474	O ₃ , SO ₂
Vnajnarje	VNA	Rural	630	468	480	NO ₂
Zadobrova	ZAD	Rural	280	275	287	PM10, NO ₂
Zagorje	ZAG	Urban	241	431	443	O ₃ , PM10, NO ₂
Zavodnje	ZAV	Rural	765	678	690	O ₃ , NO ₂

2

1 Table 2: Statistical scores for 1-hour values of 2m temperature (T2m), 10 m wind speed
2 (W10m) and relative humidity (RH), and for daily average incoming solar radiation (SR).
3 Shown are results for 1-day forecast, calculated separately for three measuring sites (LJ, NG,
4 MS) and for 24 MET monitoring stations (ALL) during the 3-month period. In the case of
5 temperature results for daily maxima are also shown.

Variable	Station	NoCases	Mean	ME	MAE	RMSE	CORR
T2m 1h (°C)	LJ	2129	20.3	-1.6	2.3	2.9	0.91
	NG	2184	21.8	-1.1	2.1	2.5	0.94
	MS	2184	19.2	-2	2.3	2.8	0.95
	ALL	47836	18.7	-1.3	2.3	2.9	0.93
T2m max (°C)	LJ	89	26.5	-1.6	1.8	2.1	0.98
	NG	90	26.8	-3	3	3.3	0.96
	MS	90	26.2	-1.7	1.8	2	0.98
	ALL	1976	24.2	-2.1	2.7	3.2	0.97
W10m (m/s)	LJ	2129	1.5	0	0.7	1	0.58
	NG	2183	2.7	1	1.4	1.9	0.35
	MS	2184	2.3	0.4	1.1	1.4	0.53
	ALL	43378	2.4	0.8	1.4	1.9	0.36
RH (%)	LJ	2066	62	-2	8	10	0.85
	NG	2121	62	-1	12	15	0.75
	MS	2121	69	3	8	11	0.88
	ALL	48556	68	2	11	14	0.77
SR (W/m ²)	LJ	90	276	19	31	43	0.84
	NG	90	278	4	32	43	0.77
	MS	90	273	15	26	37	0.9
	ALL	1710	273	16	35	49	0.77

1 Table 3: Domain wide performance statistics for 1-day and 2-day forecast in μgm^{-3} . For
 2 different pollutants statistics for all hourly (hour), 8-hour averages (8h), 8-hour daily
 3 maximum (8h max), daily maximum (max) or daily average (day) concentrations are shown.

		NoCases	Mean	ME	MAE	RMSE	CORR
O ₃ (hour)	1 day	28391	94.8	14.5	25.1	32.1	0.65
	2 day	28391	95.0	14.5	25.5	32.5	0.64
O ₃ (8h)	1 day	28072	94.8	14.6	22.6	28.1	0.69
	2 day	28072	95.0	14.6	23.0	28.5	0.68
O ₃ (8h max)	1 day	1157	111.5	-0.1	13.2	16.5	0.77
	2 day	1157	111.6	-0.2	13.7	17.0	0.75
O ₃ (max)	1 day	1170	116.5	-2.7	13.3	16.7	0.81
	2 day	1170	116.6	-3.1	14.0	17.5	0.78
NO ₂ (hour)	1 day	26178	7.3	-5.1	7.5	10.8	0.3
	2 day	26178	7.5	-4.9	7.6	10.8	0.3
PM10 (day)	1 day	718	29.0	7.1	12.0	18.8	0.34
	2 day	718	29.1	7.2	12.0	19.1	0.37

4

1 Table 4: Discrete evaluation of 1-hour daily maximum ozone predictions.

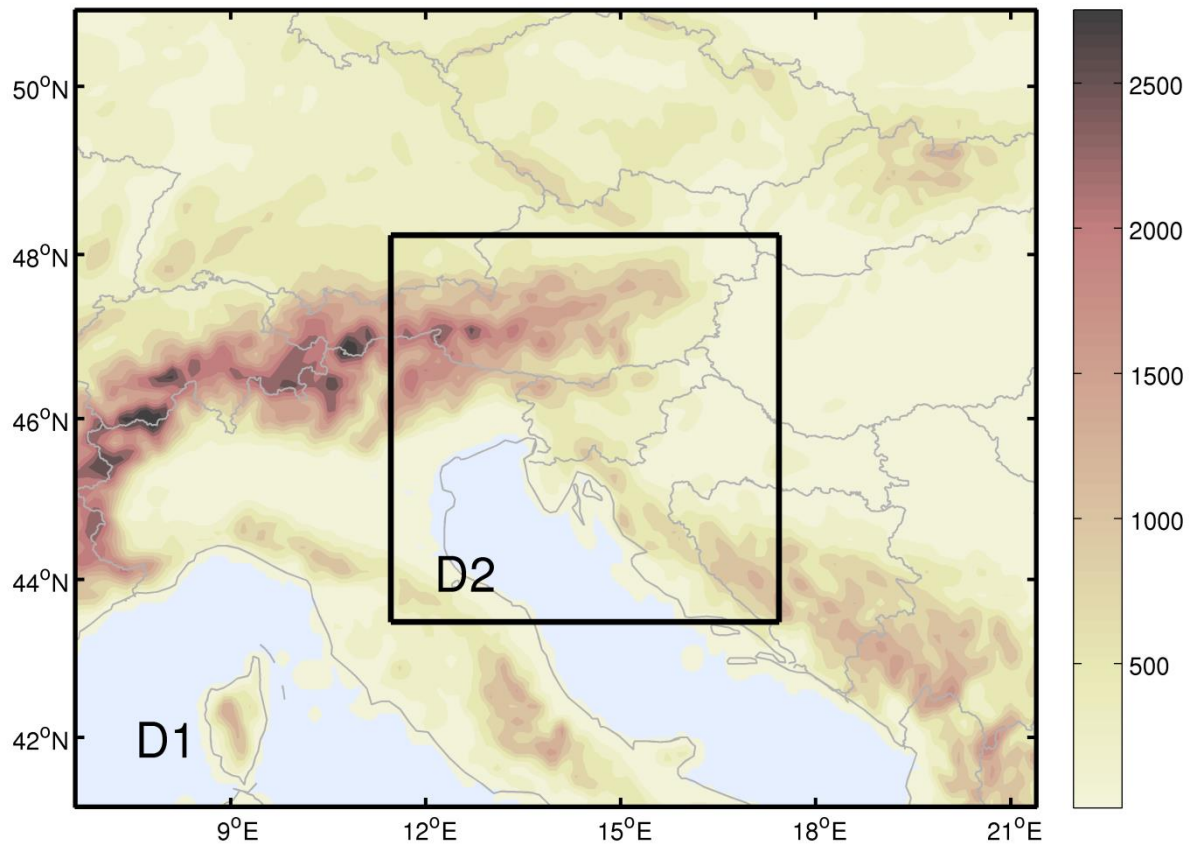
Stations	Threshold, NoCases	Forecast	Mean (μgm^{-3})	ME (μgm^{-3})	MAE (μgm^{-3})	RMSE (μgm^{-3})	CORR	MNBE (%)	MNGE (%)	IOA
All	> 0 1170	F 1day	116.5	-2.6	13.3	16.7	0.81	-0.05	11.7	0.86
		F 2day	116.6	-3.1	14.0	17.5	0.78	-0.1	12.3	0.84
		PER 1day	119.5	-0.4	15.8	21.1	0.65	1.6	14.5	0.81
		PER 2day	119.8	-0.4	21.7	27.7	0.39	2.8	19.6	0.65
	> 140 1102	F 1day	144.1	-11.2	15.2	17.9	0.52	-6.8	9.5	0.57
		F 2day	141.4	-13.8	16.5	19.4	0.42	-8.6	10.5	0.48
		PER 1day	145.0	-10.2	15.6	19.6	0.41	-6.5	10.0	0.52
		PER 2day	135.8	-19.4	24.76	29.2	0.31	-12.4	15.9	0.38
Sub-alpine urban with SF (LJ, HRA)	> 0 180	F 1day	115.3	1.1	10.7	14.0	0.84	3.4	11.1	0.91
		F 2day	115.4	0.8	12.0	15.2	0.80	3.5	12.2	0.88
		PER 1day	114.3	-0.3	16.7	21.7	0.64	2.2	16.5	0.80
		PER 2day	114.6	-0.3	21.9	27.8	0.41	3.9	21.6	0.65
		SF 1day	114.0	-0.5	11.9	15.7	0.81	1.6	11.2	0.88
		SF 2day	116.2	0.6	13.4	17.1	0.75	3.2	12.7	0.84
Rural with SF (MS, ISK, KRV, OTL)	> 0 360	F 1day	117.6	-5.6	13.3	16.3	0.80	-3.0	10.8	0.86
		F 2day	117.4	-6.4	14.2	17.4	0.76	-3.4	11.4	0.84
		PER 1day	123.6	-0.3	15.0	20.7	0.65	1.4	13.1	0.81
		PER 2day	124.1	-0.4	21.6	27.8	0.37	2.4	18.5	0.64
		SF 1day	121.5	-2.9	15.0	19.4	0.74	-0.7	12.2	0.83
		SF 2day	122.9	-1.8	15.8	20.5	0.67	0.5	13.2	0.79
Mediterranean urban with SF (KOP, NG)	> 0 179	F 1day	123.5	-11.8	17.4	22.5	0.76	-6.9	12.5	0.80
		F 2day	124.5	-11.2	17.2	21.8	0.77	-6.5	12.4	0.82
		PER 1day	135.9	-0.5	17.4	23.0	0.68	1.2	13.8	0.83
		PER 2day	136.0	-0.2	25.2	31.5	0.41	2.8	19.7	0.66
		SF 1day	129.3	-7.0	15.9	20.7	0.75	-3.6	11.6	0.83
		SF 2day	131.6	-4.5	15.6	20.4	0.74	-1.6	11.6	0.84

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1 Table 5: *Categorical evaluation of 1-hour daily maximum ozone predictions for different*
 2 *thresholds, calculated for 8 monitoring sites with available statistical forecast.*

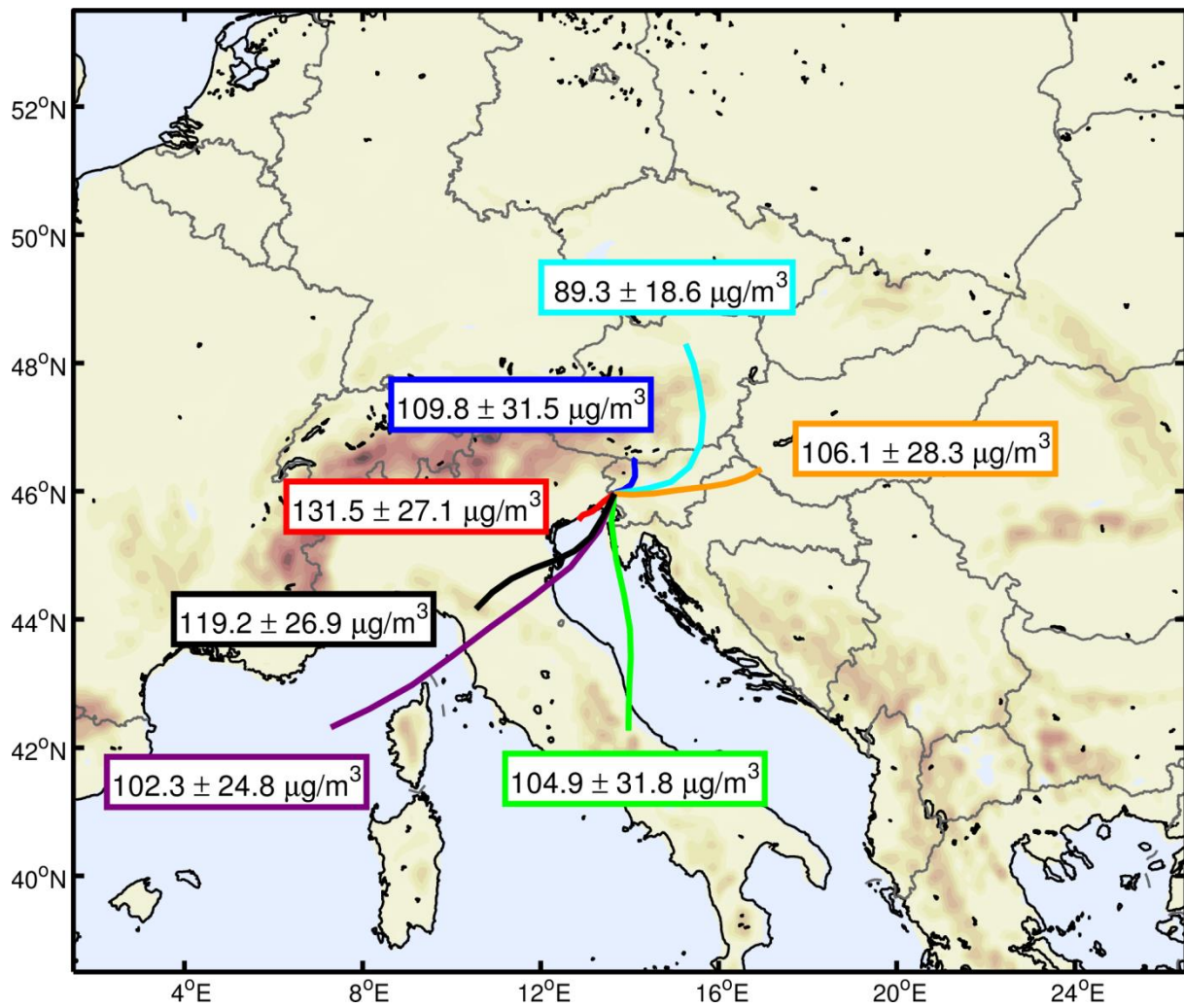
Threshold	Forecast	ETS	CSI	B	FAR	POD	a	b	c	d
> 120	F 1day	0.42	0.63	0.81	0.13	0.70	39	253	313	107
	F 2day	0.39	0.61	0.79	0.14	0.68	41	245	303	115
	PER 1day	0.31	0.59	0.99	0.25	0.74	91	267	249	93
	PER 2day	0.17	0.49	1.00	0.34	0.65	123	235	209	124
	SF 1day	0.42	0.67	1.02	0.21	0.81	67	257	243	61
	SF 2day	0.38	0.65	1.03	0.23	0.80	77	264	225	66
	> 140	F 1day	0.40	0.50	0.64	0.15	0.551	19	111	490
F 2day		0.37	0.47	0.66	0.19	0.53	25	108	476	95
PER 1day		0.40	0.53	1.00	0.31	0.69	62	141	435	62
PER 2day		0.19	0.35	1.00	0.48	0.52	97	106	391	97
SF 1day		0.30	0.43	0.73	0.29	0.52	40	99	398	91
SF 2day		0.30	0.43	0.70	0.27	0.51	37	98	403	94
> 160		F 1day	0.19	0.22	0.38	0.34	0.25	10	19	626
	F 2day	0.17	0.20	0.34	0.35	0.22	9	17	619	59
	PER 1day	0.40	0.45	1.00	0.38	0.62	29	47	595	29
	PER 2day	0.22	0.28	1.00	0.56	0.43	43	33	572	43
	SF 1day	0.23	0.27	0.49	0.35	0.32	13	24	539	52
	SF 2day	0.25	0.29	0.63	0.41	0.37	19	27	540	46



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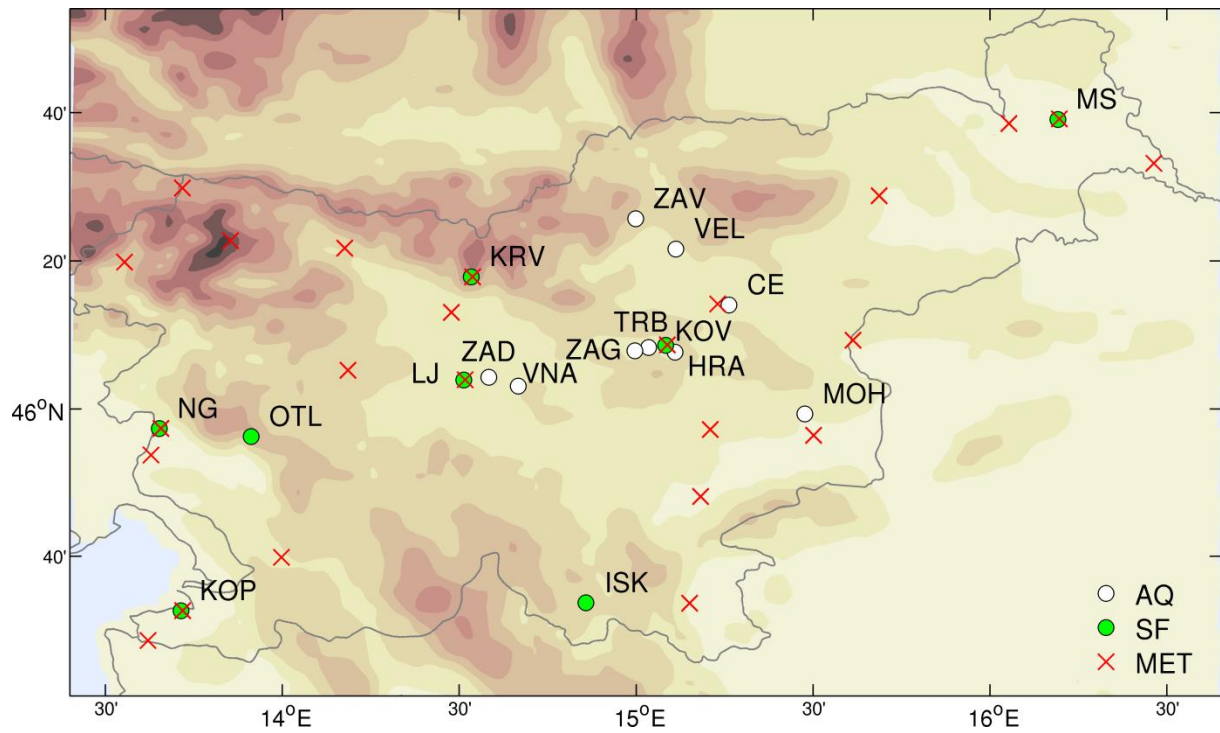
2 Figure 1: Modelling domains (D1, D2) used in WRF-Chem RT-AQF system. Orography (in
3 meters) is shown in resolution of D1 domain (11.1 km).

4



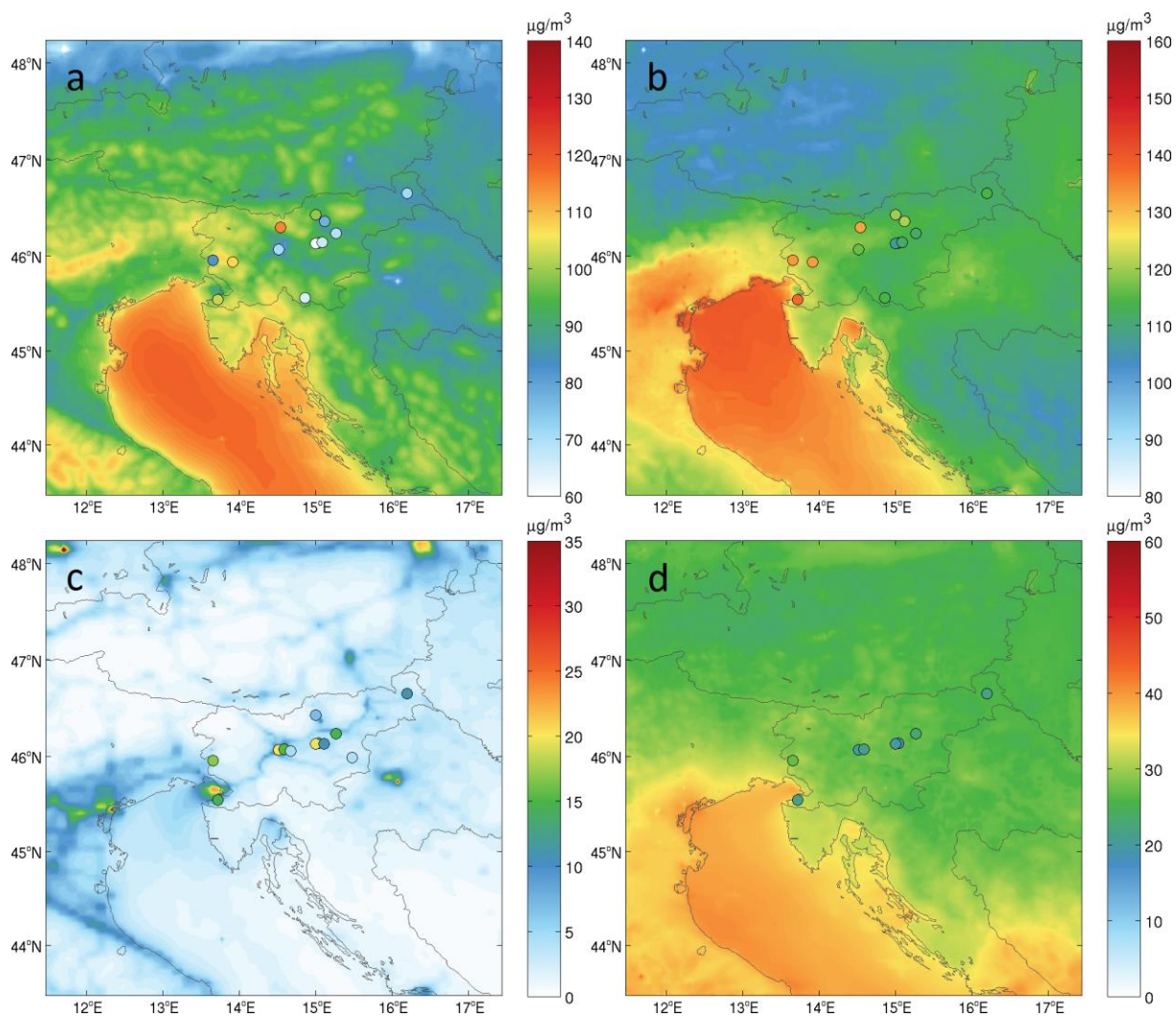
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Figure 2: Example of ozone analysis for the Nova Gorica (NG) monitoring site (average daily maximum \pm standard deviation) for 7 clusters of similar trajectories, as used in the statistical ozone daily maximum forecast for the NG station.

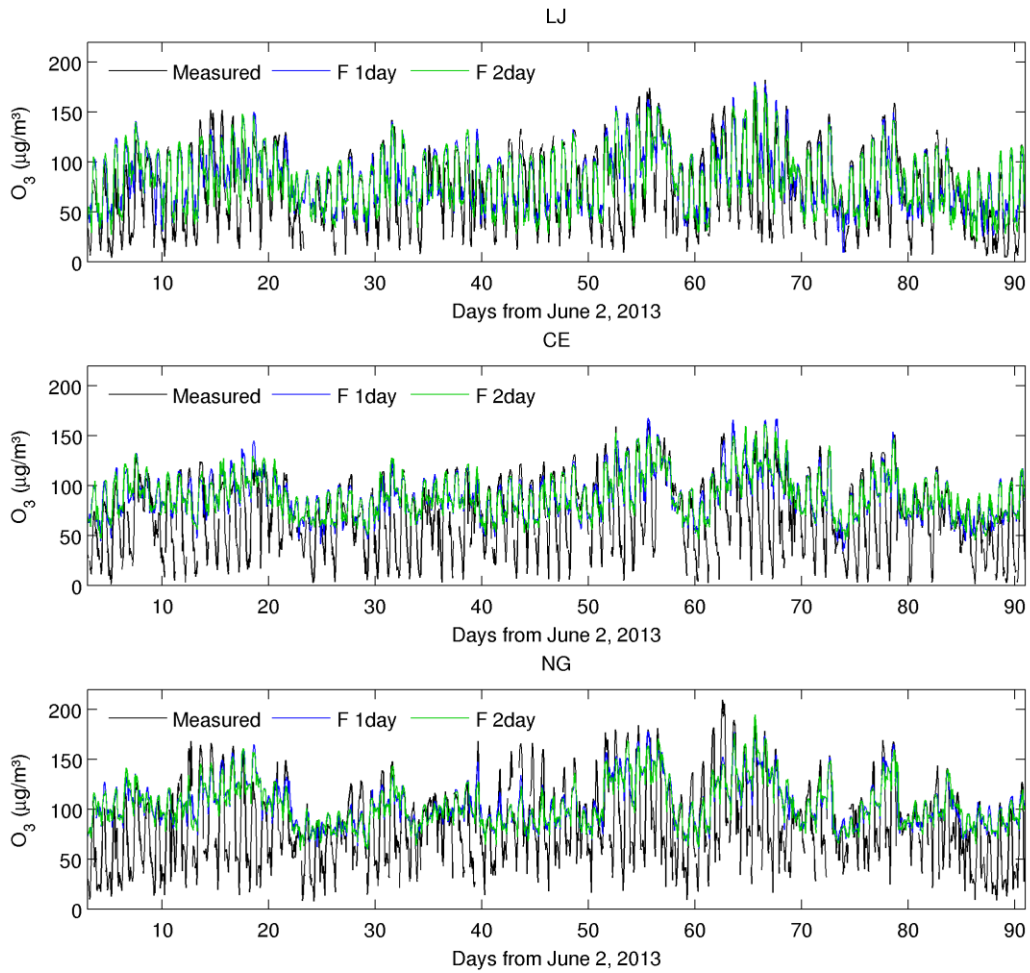


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Figure 3: Locations of monitoring stations used in evaluation of air quality variables (AQ stations; shown are also station abbreviations) and meteorological variables (MET stations). Green dots indicate measuring sites with available ozone daily maximum statistical forecast (SF). For the meaning of abbreviations of AQ sites see Tab. 1.



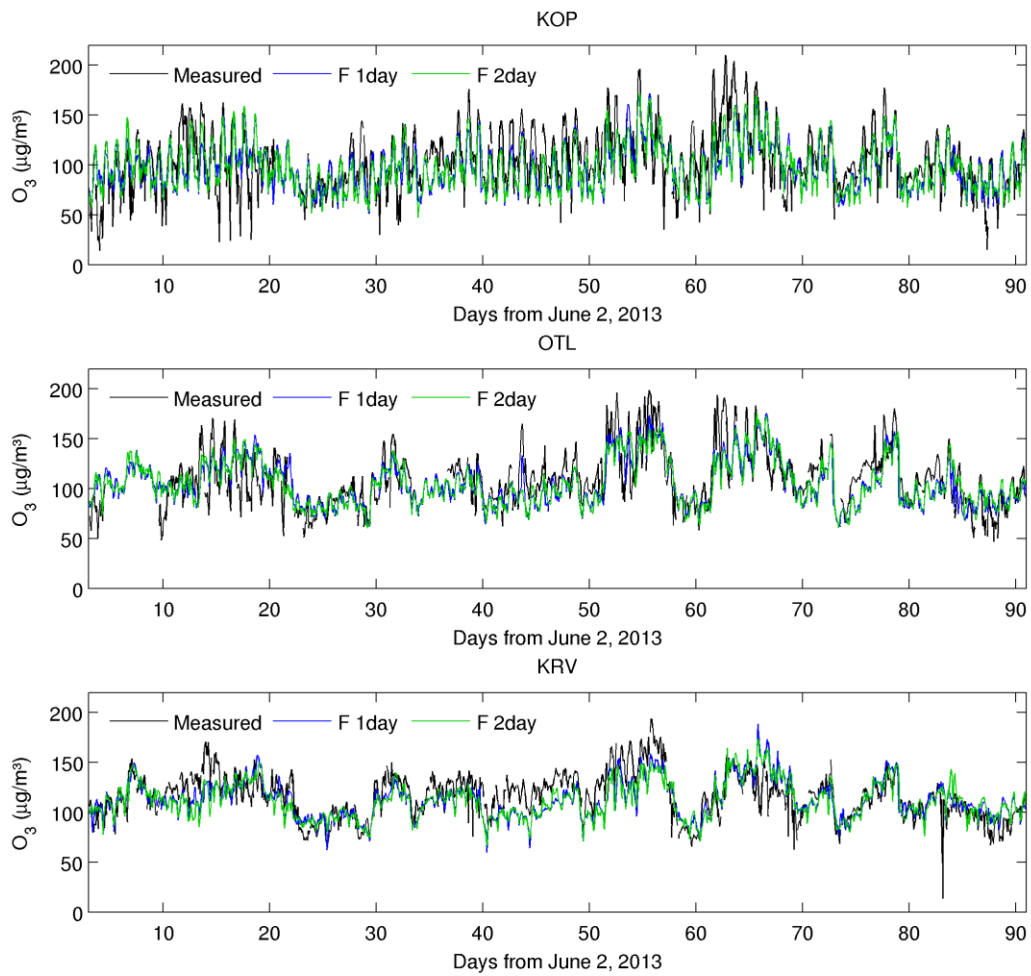
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 2 Figure 4: 3-month average 1-day predictions of a) hourly O_3 , b) O_3 daily maximum, c) hourly
 3 NO_2 , and d) daily PM_{10} concentrations for the first model layer, overlaid with measurements.
 4



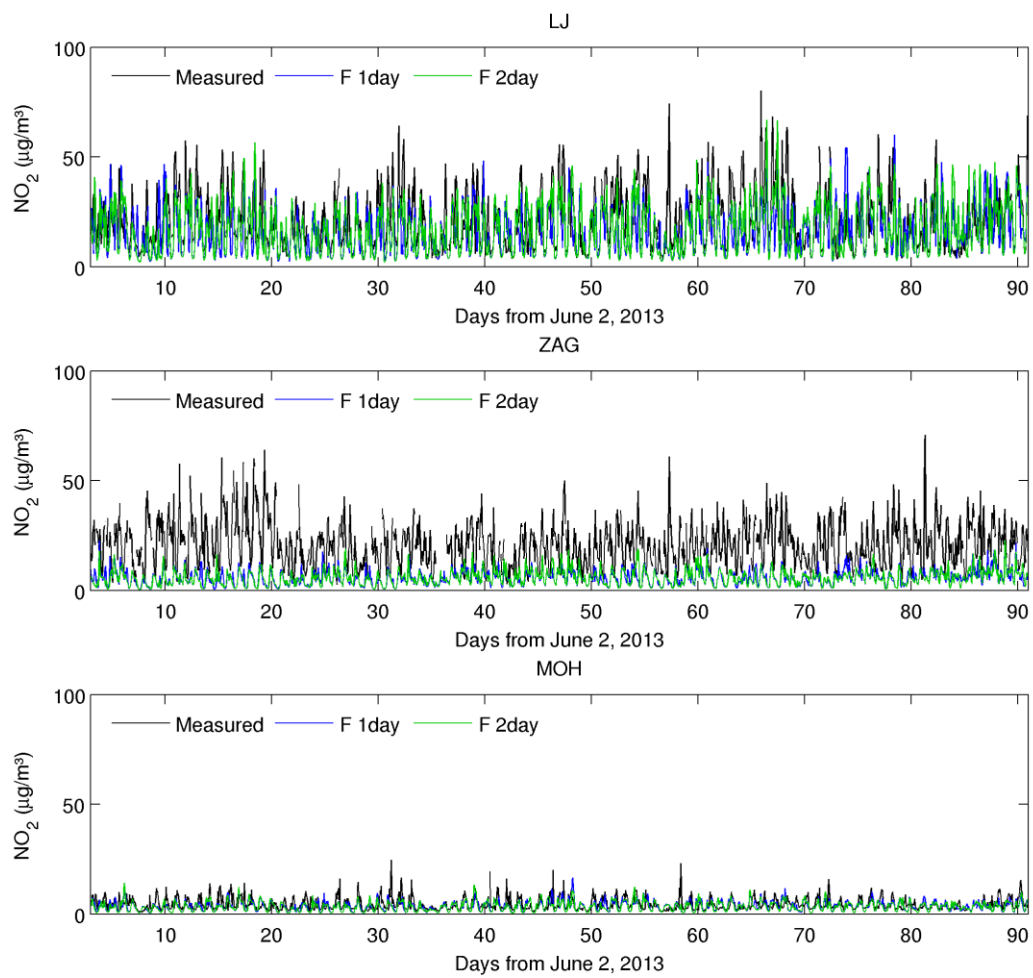
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2 Figure 5: Time evolution of hourly ozone concentrations for 1-day (F 1day) and 2-day (F
 3 2day) WRF-Chem predictions and measurements for some stations during the 3-month
 4 period. (continued)

5

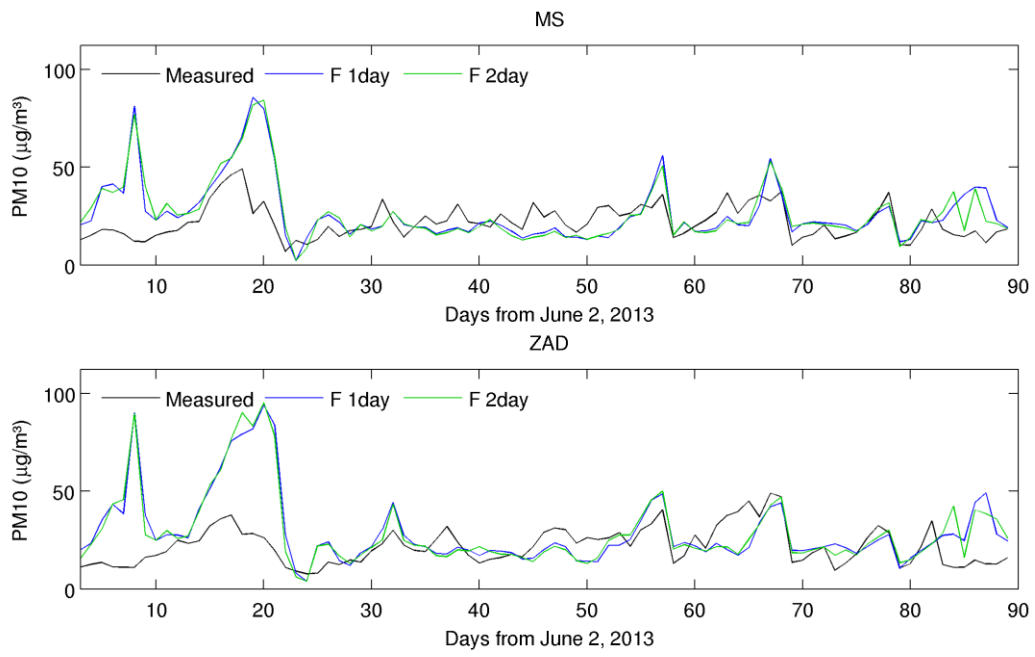


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2 Figure 5: (continued)



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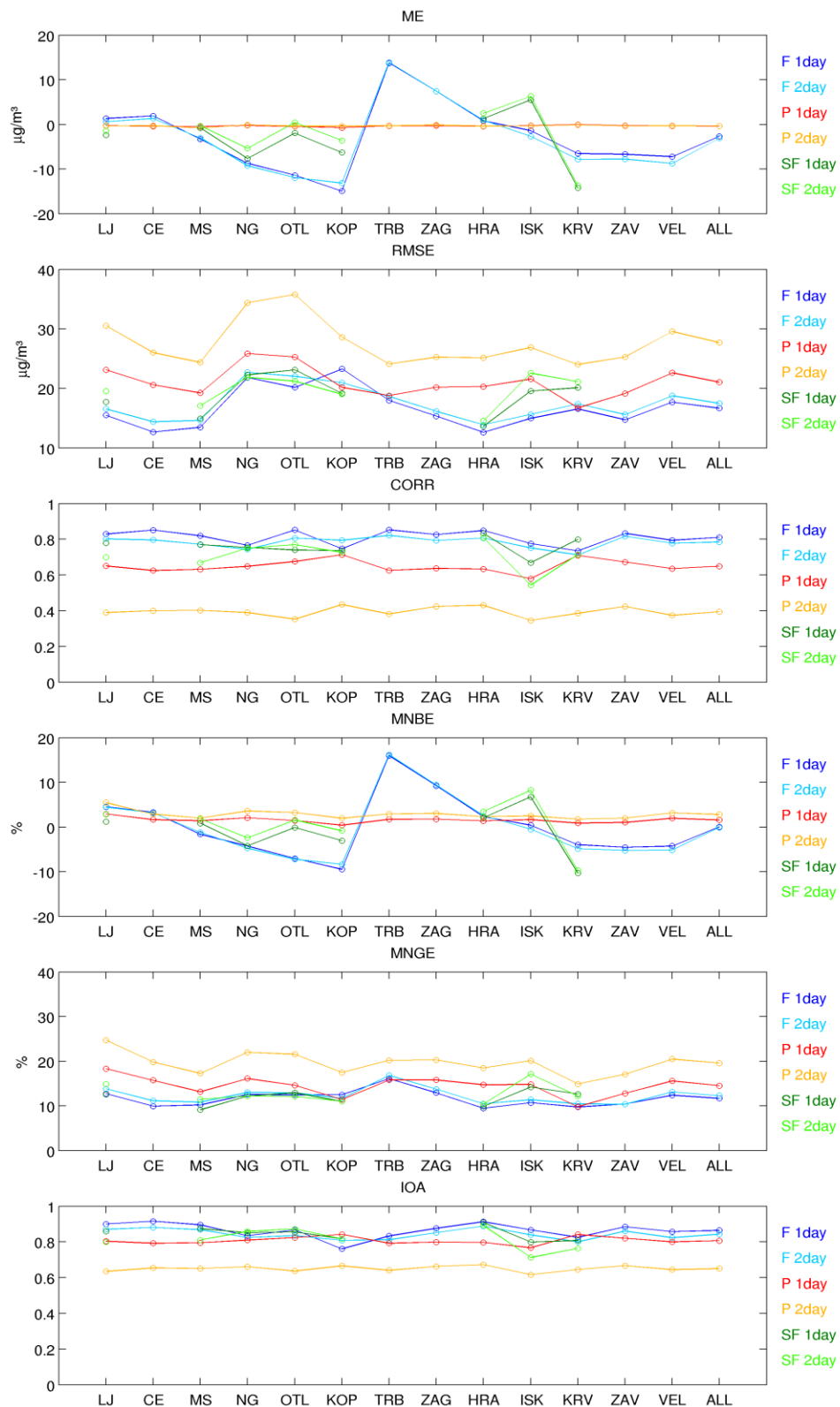
2 Figure 6: The same as Fig. 5 but for NO_2 at LJ, ZAG and MOH stations.



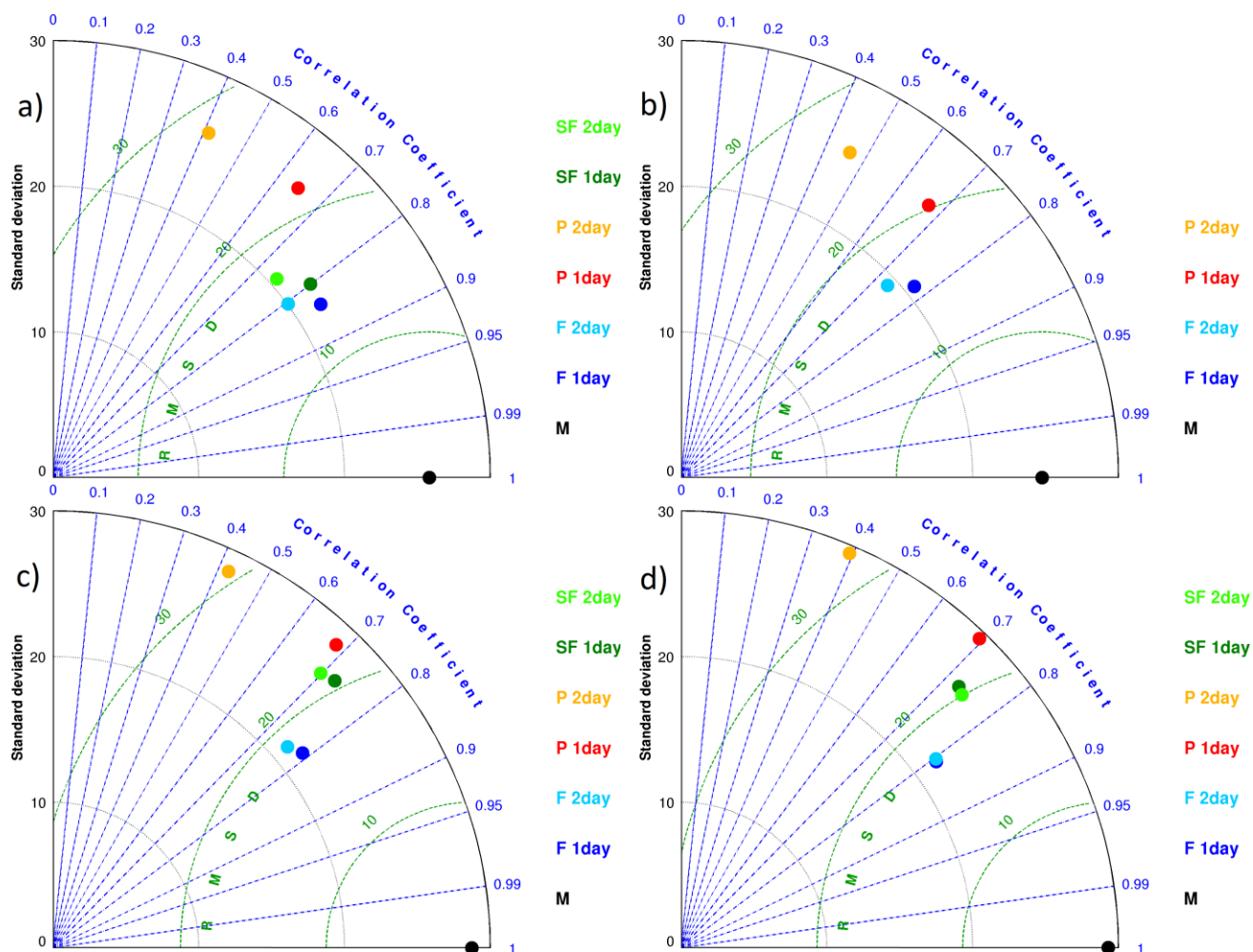
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2 Figure 7: The same as Fig. 5, but for daily PM10 concentrations at MS and ZAD stations.

3



1
 2 Figure 8: Site-by-site comparison of discrete statistics for 1-day and 2-day WRF-Chem (F
 3 1day, F 2day), statistical (SF 1day, SF 2 day) and persistence model (P 1day, P 2day)
 4 predictions of ozone daily maxima during the 3 analyzed summer months.
 5



1
 2 Figure 9: Taylor diagrams comparing 1-day and 2-day ozone daily maximum statistical
 3 forecast (SF), persistence (P) and WRF-Chem forecast (F) for a) sub-alpine urban stations
 4 with SF (LJ, HRA), b) sub-alpine urban stations without SF (CE, TRB, ZAG, VEL), c) rural
 5 stations with SF (MS, ISK, KRV, OTL) and d) Mediterranean urban stations (NG, KOP).