Implementation of WRF-Urban Asymmetric Convective Model (UACM) for Simulating Urban Fog over Delhi, India

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Abstract

Accurate fog prediction in densely urbanized cities poses a challenge due to the complex influence of urban morphology on meteorological conditions in the urban roughness sublayer. This study implemented a coupled WRF-Urban Asymmetric Convective Model (WRF-UACM) for Delhi, India, integrating explicit urban physics with Sentinel-updated USGS land-use and urban morphological parameters derived from the UT-GLOBUS dataset. When evaluated against the baseline Asymmetric Convective Model (WRF-BACM) using Winter Fog Experiment (WiFEX) data, WRF-UACM significantly improved urban meteorological variables like diurnal variation of 10-meter wind speed, 2-meter air temperature (T2), and 2-meter relative humidity (RH2) on a fog day. UACM also demonstrates improved accuracy in simulating temperature and a significant reduction in biases for RH2 and wind speed under clear sky conditions. UACM reproduced the nighttime urban heat island effect within the city, showing realistic diurnal heating and cooling patterns that are important for accurate fog onset and duration. UACM effectively predicts the onset, evolution, and dissipation of fog, aligning well with observed data and satellite imagery. Compared to WRF-BACM, WRF-UACM reduces the cold bias soon after the sunset, thus improving the fog onset error by ~4 hours. This study underscores the UACM's potential in enhancing fog prediction, urging further exploration of various fog types and its application in operational settings, thus offering invaluable insights for preventive measures and mitigating disruptions in urban regions.

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27	Key Points:						
28	1. The new multilayer WRF-UACM, explicitly incorporating urban physics and morphology, is						
29 30	implemented to simulate log over the Delhi region.						
30	demonstrated using UACM on fog davs and clear skies.						
32 33	3. Abilities of novel UACM in capturing urban fog phenomena along with its operational mode capabilities over the Delhi region are examined.						

34 Abstract

35 Accurate fog prediction in densely urbanized cities poses a challenge due to the complex influence of urban morphology on meteorological conditions in the urban roughness sublayer. 36 This study implemented a coupled WRF-Urban Asymmetric Convective Model (WRF-UACM) 37 for Delhi, India, integrating explicit urban physics with Sentinel-updated USGS land-use and 38 39 urban morphological parameters derived from the UT-GLOBUS dataset. When evaluated against the baseline Asymmetric Convective Model (WRF-BACM) using Winter Fog Experiment 40 (WiFEX) data, WRF-UACM significantly improved urban meteorological variables like diurnal 41 variation of 10-meter wind speed, 2-meter air temperature (T2), and 2-meter relative humidity 42 (RH2) on a fog day. UACM also demonstrates improved accuracy in simulating temperature and 43 44 a significant reduction in biases for RH2 and wind speed under clear sky conditions. UACM reproduced the nighttime urban heat island effect within the city, showing realistic diurnal 45 heating and cooling patterns that are important for accurate fog onset and duration. UACM 46 effectively predicts the onset, evolution, and dissipation of fog, aligning well with observed data 47 and satellite imagery. Compared to WRF-BACM, WRF-UACM reduces the cold bias soon after 48 the sunset, thus improving the fog onset error by ~4 hours. This study underscores the UACM's 49 potential in enhancing fog prediction, urging further exploration of various fog types and its 50 application in operational settings, thus offering invaluable insights for preventive measures and 51 mitigating disruptions in urban regions. 52

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55 Plain Language Summary

In Delhi, accurately predicting fog in urban areas is difficult due to complex factors like city 56 57 layout and infrastructure. This study employed the recently developed WRF-UACM with detailed UT-GLOBUS urban morphological parameters for fog simulation. Compared to existing 58 models, WRF-UACM predicted wind, temperature, and humidity better under both clear skies 59 and foggy conditions. Our model accurately reproduced urban warming and cooling patterns that 60 61 are crucial for fog prediction and urban meteorology. WRF-UACM improves the diurnal variation of winds and reduces temperature cold bias after the sunset, thus improving fog onset 62 by ~4 hours. This work highlights the potential of WRF-UACM for fog prediction and offers 63 valuable insights for urban meteorology. 64

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67 *Keywords:*

68 Boundary layer meteorology, Urban canopy parameterization, Urban morphological parameters,

69 Urban heat island, WRF model, Fog

71 **1. Introduction**

In the densely populated Indo-Gangetic Plains (IGP), the winter season ushers in frequent 72 and widespread fog occurrences (Bhushan et al., 2003; Singh and Kant, 2006; Gautam et al., 73 74 2007; Ghude et al., 2017). These fog episodes drastically reduce visibility to just a few tens of 75 meters, disrupting transportation and impacting the lives of millions of inhabitants. Radiation fog, a prevalent type in this region (Singh and Kant, 2006; Singh et al. 2007; Ghude et al., 76 2023), has exhibited significant spatiotemporal variability due to the complex terrain of the area, 77 including urbanization over the past two decades (Sawaisarje et al., 2014; Singh and Gautam, 78 79 2022; Parde et al., 2023). Rapid urbanization leads to changes in local climate and conducive 80 fog meteorology, resulting in "urban fog" (Sachweh and Koepke, 1997). Urbanization disrupts natural temperature, humidity, aerosol loading and wind circulation, leading to the genesis of an 81 "urban heat island" (UHI) that is often characterized by higher land surface and air temperatures 82 in cities compared to surrounding rural areas (AMS Glossary, 2020). As urban areas in the IGP, 83 84 particularly Delhi region, continue to sprawl, there is a corresponding rise in the occurrence of fog "holes" or patches that tend to dissipate at an earlier stage (Gautam & Singh, 2018). 85 Considering the future, climate change could lead to more frequent episodes of widespread fog 86 over the IGP in winter, except in areas where air pollution and greenhouse warming effects 87 outweigh the fog formation (Hingmire et al., 2021). Recent research by Gu et al. (2019) and 88 Hingmire et al. (2021) has revealed a decrease in fog events over urbanized regions of Shanghai 89 90 and the North India over the past recent years. This decline is mainly attributed to the urban heat island (UHI) effect resulting from changes in land use and surface properties. Gautam and Singh 91 92 (2018) and other sources have reported that the UHI effect leads to higher surface temperatures 93 and reduced relative humidity, resulting in decreased condensation and, consequently, reduced fog formation. 94

Globally, radiation fog events, including those in Delhi, pose challenges for Numerical Weather Prediction (NWP) models to simulate and predict (Pithani et al., 2020; Jaykumar et al., 2021; Parde et al., 2022a). Various factors contribute to the complexity of fog, including the boundary layer phenomenon, which may involve interactions between air masses with different temperatures and moisture content, meteorological field-variables' variations, interactions between atmospheric flow and complex landscapes, large-scale synoptic motions, and the impact 101 of aerosol loading in the shallow boundary layer (Bhowmik et al., 2004; Jenamani et al., 2007; Sawaisarje et al., 2014; Ghude et al., 2017, 2023; Hingmire et al., 2019; Dhangar et al., 2021, 102 2022; Gunturu and Kumar, 2021). Accurately predicting fog through the present numerical 103 models remains a formidable challenge. Typically, individual model forecasts tend to exhibit a 104 noticeable bias in the onset and dissipation timing of fog (Bhowmik et al., 2004; Jayakumar et 105 al., 2018; Pithani et al., 2020; Wagh et al., 2023; Yadav et al., 2022). However, a recently 106 introduced ensemble fog forecasting approach (utilizing the ensembles of multiple initial 107 conditions or models or physics) proves to be more effective than single-model-based forecasts 108 in addressing the biases related to fog onset and dissipation (Zhou and Du, 2010; Price et al., 109 2015; Pahlavan et al., 2021; Parde et al., 2022a). Nevertheless, it's important to note that this 110 ensemble-based approach comes with increased computational costs. While data assimilation has 111 112 the potential to address several issues in fog forecasting that stem from errors in the initial conditions of land-surface fields (e.g. soil moisture and temperature) and atmospheric states, 113 persistent challenges remain within the models for fog prediction, including large onset errors, 114 diurnal bias in 2-meter temperature due to rapid warming(cooling) during day(night), in 10-115 116 meter wind speed, and over-prediction of liquid water content (LWC) within the fog layers as well as bias in their vertical extents (Bari et al., 2023; Bergot and Guedalia, 1994; Ghude et al., 117 118 2023; Müller et al., 2007; Rémy et al., 2010; Steeneveld et al., 2015; Gao et al., 2018; Pithani et al., 2020; Parde et al., 2022b). Furthermore, urban warming frequently disrupts boundary layer 119 120 stability, the inversion layer, and diminishes liquid droplets due to reduced condensation in urban locales, thereby hindering the genesis of radiation fog (Gu et al., 2019). The large-eddy 121 simulation study at Paris-Charles de Gaulle airport by Bergot et al. (2015) emphasizes the 122 critical importance of incorporating comprehensive building representations to enhance the 123 124 precision of local radiation fog forecasts. This underscores the necessity of considering smallscale variations within the urban canopy to advance the accuracy of fog predictions. However, 125 the presently available operational fog forecasting models, especially in India, lack consideration 126 for detailed urban morphology representation and realistic UHI effect. This has resulted in 127 reduced forecasting accuracy and an increased likelihood of false alarm ratio (Pithani et al., 128 129 2020; Parde et al., 2022a). In essence, these investigations highlight the significance of adopting advanced numerical modeling methods to inform efficient fog adaptation strategies in cities. 130

The study conducted by Theethai Jacob et al. (2023) involved the integration of a 131 comprehensive urban surface-flux scheme into a high-resolution Delhi Model with Chemistry 132 and aerosol framework (DM-Chem), utilizing urban morphology data specific to the Delhi 133 region obtained from empirical relationships. Their aim was to simulate the UHI and urban cool 134 island (UCI) effects under clear sky and foggy conditions. However, significant biases were 135 identified in the simulation of relative humidity and the underestimation of latent heat flux, 136 particularly during foggy conditions. For precise representation of urban boundary layer, specific 137 urban modeling options have also been integrated into the state-of-the-art Weather Research and 138 Forecasting (WRF) model. These include the single-layer Urban Canopy Model (UCM) (Kusaka 139 et al., 2001), and multi-layer Building Effect Parameterization-Building Energy Model (BEP-140 BEM) (Martilli et al., 2002; Salamanca & Martilli, 2010). However, these urban models present 141 142 certain challenges and limitations, particularly when implemented in operational mode (details elaborated in Bhautmage et al., 2022). Notably, a drawback of the renowned BEP-BEM model is 143 144 its coupling with only a limited set of local planetary boundary layer (PBL) schemes in WRF such as, Mellor-Yamada-Janjic (MYJ) (Janjić, 1994; Mellor & Yamada, 1974, 1982) and Boulac 145 146 (Bougeault & Lacarrere, 1989), and nonlocal Yonsei University (YSU) scheme (Hong et al., 2006; Hendricks et al., 2020). Furthermore, these models are computationally resource-intensive 147 148 when operated at higher spatial, vertical, and temporal resolutions (Chen & Dudhia, 2001). Importantly, UCM and BEP-BEM models in WRF can only be coupled with the Noah and Noah-149 150 MP land surface models (Chen et al., 2011; Niu et al., 2011). To address these challenges and limitations, a recently developed Urban Asymmetric Convective Model (UACM) was introduced 151 by Dy et al. (2019) and Bhautmage et al. (2022). 152

The UACM is a multilayer urban model based on a hybrid local and non-local flux PBL 153 154 scheme. The model can estimate the momentum drag exerted by the building structures on the airflow as well as the thermal and moisture fluxes evolving from the urban facets. The urban 155 morphological parameters play a vital role in simulating the meteorological conditions and field 156 variable magnitudes within the urban roughness sublayer in the UACM. The model has shown 157 158 significant improvement in simulating the wind speed and temperature when implemented over the dense-urbanized Pearl River Delta (PRD) economic region in Southern China (Bhautmage et 159 160 al., 2022). The UACM demonstrates improved urban 10-meter wind speeds (WS10) by generating sufficient momentum drag, and 2-meter temperatures (T2) by considering the daytime 161

storage of solar thermal energy within urban structures, and its subsequent release in the 162 nighttime. This extends to the precise modeling of vertical profiles of horizontal wind speeds and 163 temperatures within the urban canopy layer and up to the PBL depth. The model also improves 164 the 2-meter total moisture content and its diurnal trend in urban areas. Furthermore, UACM 165 effectively captures the nocturnal UHI effect by efficiently releasing the daytime stored heat 166 back into the atmosphere. In comparison to alternative urban models, UACM excels in 167 computational efficiency, rendering it well-suited for operational forecasting. More 168 comprehensive insights into the UACM, including its integration with the WRF Version 3.8 169 (V3.8) model are described in Dy et al. (2019) and Bhautmage et al. (2022). 170

In this study, we have implemented the WRF-UACM over the urban areas in Delhi 171 172 region, aiming to simulate scenarios of both the radiation fog event and clear sky day. To enhance the model's accuracy, we have incorporated the most up-to-date United States 173 174 Geological Survey (USGS) land use data over the Delhi region updated from European Space Agency (ESA) World-Cover 2021 (https://worldcover2021.esa.int) Sentinel 175 satellite 176 observations (Van De Kerchove et al., 2021) as well as high-resolution urban morphological parameters over Delhi derived from the UT-GLOBUS (Kamath et al., 2022). The article is 177 structured as: Section 2 provides comprehensive details about the model framework, urban 178 morphological data, observational sites and data, and case studies specifics. In Section 3, we 179 discussed the research findings for fog and clear sky episodes from both modeling and 180 observational perspectives. Finally, the study concludes with a summary in Section 4. 181

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183 **2. Datasets and Methodology**

184 **2.1 Urban Asymmetric Convective Model (UACM) Framework**

In this study, the non-hydrostatic mesoscale WRF V3.8 is utilized. This model is fully compressible and utilizes a terrain-following vertical coordinate system. WRF incorporates various physics scheme options for cloud/precipitation microphysics, cumulus convection, PBL, land surface, and shortwave and longwave radiation. These options vary in complexity to accurately simulate atmospheric processes across various spatial scales and regions (Skamarock et al., 2008). 191 To simulate the urban boundary layer processes, the UACM (Dy et al., 2019; Bhautmage et al., 2022) within WRF has been implemented. The UACM incorporates innovative urban 192 physics through a hybrid local and non-local flux mixing PBL scheme, seamlessly integrated 193 with the modified Pleim-Xiu (PX) land surface model (LSM). This integration effectively 194 addresses urban sensible and latent heat fluxes, alongside momentum fluxes. The UACM is a 195 196 multilayer urban model that accommodates intricate street canyon geometry and can ingest various urban morphological parameter datasets, including street canyon orientation. All these 197 derived morphological parameters are comprehensively explained in section 2.2. The UACM 198 employs a two-layer force-restore algorithm to estimate urban surface temperatures across the 199 ground, walls, and roofs. These estimations incorporate urban morphological parameters that 200 play a vital role in estimating the amount of radiation reaching urban surfaces, accounting for 201 202 canyon orientations and dynamic solar zenith angle across diurnal and seasonal cycles. Notably, the model includes momentum drag induced by all three urban surfaces (street, walls, and roof) 203 204 to simulate wind velocity within the urban canopy (Bhautmage et al., 2022).

In the present work, the WRF-UACM model was configured over the Delhi region, 205 206 specifically centered on the urbanized expanse of the Delhi-National Capital Region (NCR). This is achieved through a nested configuration of domains in the WRF model as shown in Figure 1a, 207 utilizing the reference latitude of 28.6° N and longitude of 77.219° E as the center for coarser 208 Domain-1 (D1). Encompassing an extensive area of 2,200,000 km², D1 spans northern India, 209 210 parts of Pakistan and Afghanistan to the west, and the western reaches of China. Domain-2 (D2) covers a more confined area of 36,481 km², including the Delhi region and major neighboring 211 cities such as Gurugram, Faridabad, Ghaziabad, Greater Noida, as well as smaller urban centers 212 like Rohtak, Sonipat, Panipat, Meerut, and Muzaffarnagar to the north. The terrain height in the 213 214 Delhi urban region varies from 210 to 220 m above mean sea level (AMSL). The nested domains have a grid spacing ratio of 1:5, with different grid resolutions for each domain. D1 has a grid 215 spacing of 5 km, while D2 has a finer resolution with a grid spacing of 1 km. The grid 216 configurations for D1 and D2 are 440 x 200 and 191 x 191, respectively. To capture the vertical 217 structure of the atmosphere, the model employs 54 vertical eta levels, extending up to the 50 hPa 218 219 pressure height. The first seven layers are within a height of 30 meters above ground level (AGL), followed by around ten layers within 60 meters AGL, and 19 layers extending up to 1 220 221 km AGL to effectively capture the boundary layer processes. Additional details regarding the

various physics options and model configuration settings used in the study are provided in Table1.

The default United States Geological Survey (USGS)-24 category, which was created in 224 WRF V3.8 based on the 1992-93 Global Land Cover Characterization (GLCC) data at a 225 resolution of 30 arc-seconds, has become obsolete and inadequate for accurately representing 226 227 urban classification within and around urban regions like Delhi. Therefore, in the present study, the land use land cover (LULC) has been updated entirely over the Delhi region (Figure 1b) 228 using the recently released (October 28, 2022) European Space Agency (ESA) World-Cover 229 2021 data (https://worldcover2021.esa.int). This dataset boasts a higher resolution of 10 m. The 230 updated dataset is derived from data furnished by Sentinel-1 (Synthetic Aperture Radar) and 231 Sentinel-2 (High-Resolution Optical Earth Observation Data) satellites. It was made public on 232 233 October 28, 2022, and demonstrates an overall global accuracy of 76.7% (Van De Kerchove et al., 2021). The updated LULC, obtained by resampling the ESA data at a resolution of 30 arc-sec 234 235 (~1 km), exhibits good agreement with the actual urban distribution observed in satellite images. This agreement extends to other categories present in the region covered by D2 (Figure 1c). The 236 237 elevation in domain D2 is approximately 300 m AMSL, with irrigated cropland being dominant in the northeast. The remaining area encompasses dryland, shrubland, and water bodies. 238

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240 2.2 Urban Morphological Parameters Datasets

241 To implement the coupled WRF-UACM model over Delhi region, urban morphological parameters have been considered. These parameters include average building height (H), plan 242 area density (λ_p) , frontal area density (λ_f) , and street canyon orientation (φ) . These parameters 243 have been meticulously developed for the Delhi region (shown in Figure 2), attributed to each 1 244 km² urban grid cell in D2, utilizing the methodology described in Bhautmage et al. (2022). In 245 deriving the first three parameters, the building polygon shapefile of the UT-GLOBUS dataset 246 247 (Kamath et al., 2022) has been employed in conjunction with embedded building height data pertinent to the Delhi region. Evidently, the H ranges from ~8 to 10 m across the region, 248 escalating to 12 to 14 m within densely populated sectors. On the outskirts of the city, λ_p is ~0.1, 249 and in the inner regions it is ~0.4 with some areas reaching a maximum density of 0.8 in 250 251 extremely dense regions. Within the inner city, λ_f varies from 0.4 to 0.6, surpassing 1.0 in regions marked by extensive urbanization. The urban grid cells in D2 for which there are no 252

urban morphological parameters data available, default values of 6 m, 0.45, and 0.45 have been 253 254 assumed for H, λ_n , and λ_f , respectively.

From these parameters data, the generalized information of street canyon width (W) and 255 building width (B) can be obtained to ingest the urban geometry in a repeating canyon form into 256 the model. Additionally, the requisite values of other parameters like sky view factors for road 257 (ψ_r) and walls (ψ_w) for each urban grid cell, are also estimated based on the canyon dimensions 258 (H, W) following the methodology in Masson (2000). The street canyon orientation parameter 259 (φ) data, which represents the dominant street angle at which the majority of streets are aligned, 260 is obtained for each urban grid cell by processing the street-map shapefile of the Delhi region 261 262 (Geofabrik, 2018) obtained from https://www.geofabrik.de/data/download.html in the Geographic Information System (GIS) software. Employing a length weighting approach, emphasis is 263 accorded to longer street canyon lengths. Predominantly, the canyon orientation within Delhi city 264 adheres to the north-south direction, while less densely populated outskirts exhibit an east-west 265 orientation. 266

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2.3 Observational Sites and Datasets

To evaluate the performance of the WRF-UACM over the Delhi region, meteorological 269 270 observations from ground-based stations are used. These stations (depicted in Figure 1d) are strategically positioned in urban areas, covering areas with low, mid, and high urban 271 272 development. Specifically, the Delhi University, Akshardham, and Pitampura stations reside within densely populated urban regions, while Narela, Mungeshpur, Jafarpur, and Ayanagar 273 stations are situated on the outskirts of Delhi, encompassing less densely populated areas. 274 Frequent fog episodes having wide-spread nature occur during the winter season in the IGP 275 276 region, often resulting in reduced visibility below 1 km and sometimes few tens of meters (very 277 dense fog events). Consequently, to gain insights into the fog genesis, lifecycle, and mechanisms behind the spatiotemporal variations, the Winter Fog Experiment (WiFEX; Ghude et al., 2017) 278 279 field campaigns have been conducted at the Indira Gandhi International Airport (IGIA) site (28.56 °N, 77.09 °E, 216 m AMSL) in New Delhi. The WiFEX campaigns have taken place 280 281 during the winter season (December-February) since 2015 (Ghude et al., 2023, 2017). For the present study, observation data from the 2017-18 WiFEX campaign at the IGIA site were also 282 283 utilized to evaluate the model performance.

The observation data used for model verification include measurements of relative 284 humidity (RH) and air temperature (T) measured at a height of 2-meters. These measurements 285 were obtained using a T and RH sensor (HMP45C Vaisala Oyj, Finland) installed on a 20-meter 286 tower, with a temporal sampling frequency of 1-minute. Wind Speed (WS) data at a height of 10-287 meter were obtained using multicomponent weather sensors (WXT 520, Vaisala Oyj, Finland) 288 installed on the same 20-meter tower with a temporal sampling frequency of 1-minute. 289 Additionally, apart from the IGIA site data, meteorological data from other stations, including 290 the radiosonde profile data at Ayanagar (which provides vertical profiles of wind speed, 291 temperature, and humidity), were obtained from the Indian Meteorological Department (IMD, 292 Delhi). All meteorological data collected at a higher temporal sampling frequency of 1-minute 293 were subsequently aggregated over hourly periods for model verification purposes. 294

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296 2.4 Case Studies and Model Simulation Details

297 Two cases have been identified to evaluate the performance of the model. The first case pertains to a dense radiation fog event that occurred on January 29-30, 2017. Throughout this 298 299 period, the prevailing wind direction over the IGP region was predominantly westerly and northwesterly. Prior to the onset of the fog at IGIA, the wind conditions were calm (wind speed less 300 than 2 m s⁻¹), indicating minimal wind movements. The onset of fog was at 00:00 local time 301 (IST-Indian Standard Time) on January 30th (18:30 UTC on 29 January) and dissipated 302 303 completely by the morning of the same day at 11:00 IST, thus sustaining the fog for a total of 11 hours. The fog was determined by a visibility threshold of 1000 meters. Notably, during this 304 event, the visibility at the IGIA site reached its lowest point, dropping to around 92 meters at 305 05:00 IST on January 30th, 2017. This case has been selected to evaluate the model's 306 performance in accurately capturing the characteristics and dynamics of the radiation fog event, 307 including visibility conditions. 308

The second case selected for assessing the UACM model performance involves clear sky conditions (no-fog case) from December 20-22, 2016. During this period, the prevailing winds also originated from the west and northwest, however, the wind speeds were higher (> 2.0 m s⁻¹) compared to the fog episode. Analysis of the WiFEX (2015-16) campaign (Ghude et al., 2017) data revealed that the RH remained below 80%, cloud cover was less than 25%, and visibility consistently exceeded 2000 meters throughout the entire period. This case has been selected to examine the model's ability to accurately reproduce meteorological conditions in scenarios characterized by clear skies, the absence of clouds and rainfall, and the presence of abundant sunshine.

For both the selected cases, the model simulations were conducted by performing a 318 model spin-up process for both the baseline WRF-BACM (WRF-Base Asymmetric Convective 319 320 Model, WRF V3.8 model control runs with the default existing base PX-LSM and base ACM2-PBL scheme, and without using any other existing explicit urban modeling option and urban 321 322 morphological parameters dataset) and WRF-UACM. The fog-event model-run was initialized on January 29, 2017, at 00:00 UTC, with a 6-hour spin-up time to ensure the model reached a 323 stable state at least 18 hours before the onset of fog. Similarly, the clear sky case was initialized 324 on December 19, 2016, at 00:00 UTC, with a same spin-up period to establish model stability 325 326 before the actual simulation analysis time began.

Typically, when simulations are conducted for regional weather forecasting using the 327 328 WRF model, the minimum required input data includes the initial and boundary meteorological conditions for all nested domains, as well as land-use category data specifying fractions for 329 330 urban, vegetation, and other categories. Additional useful data encompassed detailed soil and vegetation classification categories, along with their corresponding thermal and hydraulic 331 332 properties. The initial and boundary meteorological conditions for the simulations are acquired 333 from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) final analysis (FNL) data. This 334 dataset is produced by conducting global forecast system simulations using observations from around the globe. The selected NCEP data has a spatial resolution of 1° in both latitude and 335 longitude, and a temporal resolution of 6 hours. The updated USGS-Sentinel land use data is 336 utilized for both WRF-BACM and WRF-UACM simulations. However, the WRF-UACM runs 337 require additional urban morphological parameters such as average building height (H), plan area 338 density (λ_p) , frontal area density (λ_f) , and street canyon orientation (φ) . 339

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341 **3. Results and Discussion**

In this section, the UACM's performance is meticulously assessed across both case studies discussed in Section 2.4, offering a comprehensive presentation of detailed comparisons and result analysis together with the BACM model. A profound understanding of the simulations for each case emerges through spatial plots showcasing model discrepancies between the UACM

and BACM across T2, RH2, LWC and WS10. Furthermore, spatial plots of UACM-simulated 346 surface LWC during the fog dissipation hours are presented, along with a comparison to NASA's 347 MODIS satellite image taken around 10:30 am IST. These comparisons highlight the UACM's 348 ability to capture fog dynamics and the burn-off mechanism during the dissipation over the 349 urbanized Delhi region. Time-series analysis of the bias (Model - Observation) for T2, RH2 and 350 WS10 is conducted at various meteorological stations in the urban region of Delhi-NCR. 351 Additionally, comparison of modeled results for the vertical profiles of RH, potential 352 temperature (θ), and WS were made using the radiosonde data collected at the Ayanagar station. 353 Overall, this analysis provides insights into the performance of the UACM and its skill in 354 simulating urban fog characteristics. Similarly, the UACM's competence in replicating 355 meteorological conditions during clear sky events is also analyzed. The focus of this assessment 356 357 is to evaluate how accurately the UACM represents crucial meteorological variables such as temperature, humidity, and wind speed during periods characterized by clear sky conditions. 358

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360 **3.1 Fog Case (January 29-30, 2017)**

361 Figures 3(a-d), 3(e-h), 3(i-j), and 3(m-p) present the model differences between UACM and BACM for near surface T2, RH2, LWC, and WS10 variables, respectively, at key timings: 362 363 21:00 IST (15:30 UTC, 29-Jan), 03:00 IST (21:30 UTC, 29-Jan), 06:00 IST (00:30 UTC, 30-Jan), and 09:00 IST (03:30 UTC, 30-Jan). These time intervals correspond to the stages before, 364 365 during, mature, and the posterior fog conditions. The BACM model simulates much lower urban temperatures compared to UACM caused by a rapid drop in temperature after sunset over the 366 Delhi-NCR region as shown in Figure 3a. The absence of the UHI effect in the BACM leads to a 367 rapid cooling in nocturnal temperatures, which further contributes to the steep increase in RH2 368 369 and LWC. Moreover, the adjacent regions surrounding the city area also display enhanced levels of LWC in the BACM simulation (Figure 3i and 3j). This shift in LWC patterns from actual 370 observations can be ascribed to their marginally lower temperatures and the windy conditions, 371 including the influence of rural-urban breezes. These breezes facilitate the augmented influx of 372 moisture from nearby sources such as irrigated croplands and the Yamuna River that flows 373 374 through the city.

The UACM, on the other hand, proficiently captures the nocturnal UHI effect, demonstrating its efficacy in simulating temperature variations and urban climate characteristics in comparison to the BACM. The UACM manifests higher T2 at 21:00 IST on 29 January and 03:00 IST on 30 January (Figure S3 in the supporting information). This higher temperature is attributed to the release of daytime stored heat in the urban infrastructure back into the atmosphere and limited sky-view from the street which reduces radiative cooling. The impact of UACM on LWC is particularly evident over urban areas during the nighttime fog period as shown in Figures 3(i-k). This decrease in LWC is most pronounced before the onset of fog at 21:00 IST, revealing the UACM's ability to effectively reduce LWC.

The reduction in the magnitudes of wind speed by 0.5-2.0 m s⁻¹ over the urban region in the UACM compared to the BACM as shown in Figures 3(m-p) is mainly attributed to the momentum drag resulting from the explicit inclusion of urban structures in the model. Urban morphological parameters like building heights, frontal area, and street orientation significantly contribute to the reduction in wind speed within urban domains (More details can be found in Figures S1, S2, and S5 in the supporting information).

390 In Figures 4(a-b), spatial plots illustrate the UACM-simulated near-surface LWC at 10:00 IST and 11:00 IST, while Figure 4c presents NASA's MODIS sensor-captured satellite image 391 392 around ~10:30 IST in the morning. The MODIS image clearly depicts the burn-off (dissipation) of fog layers over the urban areas including Delhi, forming a clear area or "hole" within the city, 393 394 while the fog persists in the surrounding areas. The UACM simulation shows low LWC values over the urbanized areas at both 10:00 IST and 11:00 IST, aligning well with the spatial pattern 395 396 observed in the MODIS satellite image. This agreement between the UACM simulation and the satellite image indicates the model's ability to capture the fog burn-off process and the influence 397 of urban heat release on dissipating fog over urban areas. 398

Figures 5(a-c) present time-series plots depicting the bias between modeled data and 399 400 observations for T2, RH2, and WS10, respectively, at six stations in Delhi-NCR. The bold lines in the plots represent the bias of UACM values compared to the observations, while the dashed 401 lines indicate the bias exhibited by the BACM. Positive values indicate over-prediction, whereas 402 negative values indicate under-prediction. Notably, the UACM excels during the fog period 403 (from 29-Jan-2017, 23:00 IST to 30-Jan-2017, 11:00 IST), closely aligning with observed 404 conditions. The UACM reduced overestimation of daytime T2 compared to BACM by 405 generating a cooling effect due to the combined influence of urban structures and the solar zenith 406 407 angle. The model also released daytime stored heat during nighttime hours, resulting in warmer

temperatures compared to the BACM. Particularly noteworthy is the UACM accurately 408 simulating the nighttime UHI effect. The diurnal trend of RH2 is also effectively captured by the 409 UACM as seen in Figure 5b, thus reducing bias. While UACM slightly underestimates RH2 410 before the night of fog onset, it demonstrates improvement the following day post-event. Lastly, 411 the UACM significantly improved the prediction of WS10 at Delhi stations, closely aligning 412 with observed data (Figure 5c). This reduction in bias indicates the UACM's ability to simulate 413 wind patterns within the urban canopy. During fog episodes, the UACM adeptly reproduces calm 414 wind conditions, effectively modeling meteorological aspects of fog events, such as low wind 415 speeds under stable atmospheric conditions. Overall, the UACM proficiently reproduces fog 416 event meteorology, leading to improved predictions for T2, RH2, and WS10 compared to the 417 BACM. 418

419 Figure 5d illustrates the time-series comparison of LWC predicted by BACM and UACM models, alongside observed horizontal visibility at IGIA. UACM consistently simulates lower 420 421 LWC values (0-0.4 g m⁻³) due to liquid droplet evaporation from higher temperatures and air remaining away from saturation point in urban regions. The UACM demonstrates a significant 422 423 improvement in fog forecasting compared to the BACM, as evidenced from improvement in the fog onset time prediction by a delay of approximately 3 hours in the predicted LWC values. The 424 425 onset of fog, indicated by visibility dropping below 1000 m (moderate fog conditions), aligns well with the UACM's delayed LWC prediction. As the LWC values rise and reach their peak, 426 427 visibility starts dropping below 500 m, indicating the presence of dense fog. During the period of dense fog (04:00 IST - 09:00 IST, 30 January), the UACM simulates LWC values ranging from 428 0.1 to 0.3 g m⁻³ with visibility declining to around 92 m at 05:00 IST on 30 January. In addition, 429 the UACM demonstrates an early dissipation of fog compared to the BACM, resulting in the 430 431 formation of clear areas or "holes" over urban regions due to the burned-off mechanism. During the dissipation phase of the fog after sunrise, the solar radiation reaching the ground surface 432 intensifies in the morning hours and the surface temperature as well as the temperature in the 433 boundary layer starts to rise. This triggers instability leading to an augmentation of vertical 434 turbulent mixing and a concurrent reduction in RH near the surface. This phenomenon aligns 435 well with the gradual increase in visibility observed at the IGIA site after sunrise (Figure 5d). 436 When considering fog occurrences, the temporal variation of LWC from the WRF-UACM model 437 closely matches the LWC profiles derived from microwave radiometer (MWR) observations 438

(visibility dropping below 500 m) at IGIA (Figurer 5e). It is noteworthy, that the model-derived LWC in Pithani et al., (2020) consistently exhibit an overestimation of LWC values when compared to the actual observations, thus falling short in accurately representing the true fog intensity. The implementation of the WRF-UACM led to a reduction in the overestimation of LWC values as observed in this study. The UACM's simulation of fog dissipation and the corresponding improvement in visibility corroborate its ability to capture the dynamic nature of fog events in the study area.

During a fog episode, the UACM performance is better than BACM, particularly for the 446 WS10, T2, and RH2 with index of agreement (IOA) of 0.89, 0.96, and 0.92, respectively. Mean 447 bias (MB) and Mean error (ME) are reduced to 0.14 and 0.36 m s⁻¹ by the UACM for WS10 (i.e., 448 73.07% and 47.8% improvement, respectively). Similarly, normalized mean bias (NMB) is 449 reduced by 29% and normalized mean error (NME) by 24% for WS10. The root mean squared 450 error (RMSE) for BACM of 0.9 m s⁻¹ is improved to 0.46 m s⁻¹ with the UACM. The under-451 prediction in T2 (MB and NMB) is greatly reduced by the UACM compared to BACM. Also, the 452 T2 ME and NME decreased in the UACM by 0.83 °C and 6% relative to the BACM. The 453 454 metrics for RH2 other than IOA have shown a slight decrease in the performance by the UACM. A comparison of different statistical metrics for T2, RH2 and WS10 using the BACM and 455 456 UACM models can be found in Table 2 while the definitions of the statistical metrics can be found in Appendix A. 457

458 Figures 6(a-c) show vertical profiles of the RH, potential temperature (θ), and WS at the Ayanagar station during the dense fog event on 30-Jan-2017 at 05:30 IST. These profiles offer 459 valuable insights into the atmospheric stability conditions during the fog event. As depicted in 460 Figure 6a, the RH profile illustrates that there is a complete air saturation (RH = 100%) within 461 the depth of the fog layer. The UACM simulated a fog layer thickness of up to 60 meters, which 462 was 30 meters lower than the BACM. The higher temperatures over the urban region due to the 463 UHI effect, resulted in less condensation of liquid droplets in the UACM and a lower fog layer 464 depth. It is worth noting that the observation profile exhibited an even smaller depth of fog layer. 465 This difference could be due to the 1-km horizontal grid spacing of the model and a possible 466 interpolation error while using the nearest model grid cell for comparison. Figure 6b presents the 467 vertical profile for θ . Both models show a well-mixed layer condition within the fog layer depth, 468 indicating neutral stability. However, there is a slight instability near the ground due to the 469

warmer temperatures near the surface caused by the UHI effect, longwave warming inside the 470 471 fog layer, and latent heat released during the liquid condensation process. In Figure 6c, the wind speed profiles demonstrate that the wind does not follow a logarithmic pattern within the urban 472 canopy layer. Instead, the wind gradually decreases due to calm wind conditions and the 473 influence of the urban environment within the fog layer depth. Above the fog layer, the wind 474 profiles exhibit a logarithmic pattern, indicating a more stable atmospheric layer. Overall, the 475 vertical profiles provide valuable information about the atmospheric stability conditions during 476 the dense fog event and highlight the impact of the UHI effect on fog layer depth, the well-mixed 477 layer condition within the fog layer, and the gradual decrease in wind speed within the urban 478 canopy. 479

480

481 **3.2 Clear Sky Case (December 20-22, 2016)**

Figures 7(a-d) illustrate spatial T2 differences (UACM – BACM) at 06:00 IST, 09:00 482 483 IST, 21:00 IST, and 03:00 IST on 20-Dec-2016 with clear skies and abundant sunshine (no-fog case). The UACM is considerably warmer than BACM at night (06:00 IST, 21:00 IST, and 03:00 484 485 IST) but similar (09:00 IST, Figure 7b) or slightly cooler (14:00 IST, Figure S7b in the supporting information) during daytime. UACM reveals 8-18% RH2 reduction over urban areas 486 487 compared to BACM (Figures 7(e-h)), which stems from nighttime urban warming, thereby urban air remaining away from the saturation point as discussed in the previous section. The spatial 488 489 difference in wind speeds using BACM and UACM models presented in Figures 7(i-l) showed reduced wind speeds in UACM simulations, owing to appropriate consideration of momentum 490 drag due to the presence of buildings (Figure S8 in the supporting information). In contrast, the 491 surrounding regions of the urban areas exhibit slight increases in wind speeds. This could be due 492 493 to the formation of rural-urban breezes, which are influenced by temperature variations and pressure gradients that drive the movement of air, between urban and rural areas, resulting in 494 slightly windy conditions in the surrounding areas compared to the urban core. 495

Figures 8(a-c) depict the time-series plots of the bias between the modeled data and observations for T2, RH2, and WS10. Bold and dashed lines represent the bias of UACM and BACM, respectively. Positive values denote over-prediction; negative values signify underprediction. Closer trends to zero-line suggest reduced differences. The UACM demonstrates significant enhancements in simulating daytime T2, as illustrated in Figure 8a. The model

successfully reduced the bias by creating a cooling effect during daytime, which mitigates the 501 over-prediction of daytime temperatures exhibited by the BACM. The UACM has also reduced 502 the daytime RH2 bias in Delhi, as depicted in Figure 8b. However, during nighttime, the UACM 503 exhibits a dry bias compared to the BACM. This is due to the over-prediction of nighttime 504 temperatures (warm bias) by the UACM possibly due to increased absorption of daytime sun 505 506 rays and their multiple reflections within the canyons, which leads to the excessive evaporation and consequently lower moisture content. Nevertheless, certain stations such as Ayanagar, 507 508 Jafarpur, and Akshardham demonstrate improvements in simulating nighttime temperatures. The UACM demonstrates improvements in simulating WS10 by accounting for the influence of 509 urban structures and their effects on wind flow, as evident from the time-series plots at all the 510 meteorological stations considered (Figure 8c). The statistical analysis presented in Table 2 511 512 shows that the overall performance of UACM is better compared to BACM under clear sky conditions. 513

Figure 6 (d-f) presents the vertical profiles of RH, potential temperature (θ), and WS 514 simulated by the UACM and BACM, along with the comparison to radiosonde observations at 515 516 Ayanagar station. The RH profiles exhibit a dry bias (under-prediction) compared to the observation profile. This under-prediction is mainly attributed to the higher temperatures 517 518 simulated by the UACM near the urban ground surface and within the urban canopy, as shown in Figure 6d. Note that the UACM RH profile is almost a mirror image of the θ profile (Figure 6e). 519 520 However, 90 meters AGL, the RH profiles for both models closely resemble each other. The potential temperature (θ) profiles demonstrate better agreement with the observation profile, 521 particularly near the ground surface. The profiles exhibit a slightly convective nature at the 522 Ayanagar station. Within the urban canopy, the UACM profiles show characteristics of a more 523 524 well mixed layer up to a height of 50 m AGL, transitioning to a stable condition above it at 05:30 IST, as depicted in Figure 6e. The WS profiles exhibit a logarithmic nature within the urban 525 canopy at Ayanagar station. The wind magnitude near the ground surface is approximately 3.0 m 526 s^{-1} in the UACM, slightly deviating from the observed value. However, above the ground 527 surface, some bias is still observed between the model profiles and the observation profile. This 528 529 discrepancy may be attributed to the differences in distance between the nearby urban grid cell center and the exact location of the Ayanagar radiosonde observation site. 530

532 **4. Summary**

This study implemented the newly developed multilayer WRF-UACM by Dy et al. 533 (2019) and Bhautmage et al. (2022) over the Delhi region for urban fog prediction application. 534 The goal was to have an enhanced representation of the urban roughness sublayer and predict 535 536 meteorological variables within the urban canopy layer using the WRF-UACM. We evaluated the model's capacity to forecast fog formation, by comparing with in-situ observations including 537 those taken at the Indira Gandhi International Airport (IGIA) site in New Delhi during the 538 Winter Fog Experiment (WiFEX; Ghude et al., 2017) field campaign. The implementation of 539 WRF-UACM over the Delhi region showed noteworthy improvements in urban meteorology 540 within the boundary layer, both during a clear-sky period and a foggy event. Predictions for 541 parameters such as 10-meter wind speed (WS10), 2-meter temperature (T2), and 2-meter relative 542 humidity (RH2) exhibited good agreement with observations from meteorological stations in 543 Delhi. Notably, the UACM has contributed to the faster dissipation of fog compared to control 544 (WRF-BACM) model runs, and this alignment with satellite images from NASA's MODIS 545 sensor confirmed the clearing of fog over Delhi's urban region. In addition to the urban 546 morphology, topography, and surface characteristics, the fog episodes are also influenced by 547 numerous other factors such as synoptic scale weather patterns, regional moisture intrusion, 548 aerosol loading, and microphysics related to the fog formation etc. The UACM model also 549 demonstrated advancements in simulating fog timing, onset, and dissipation compared to 550 visibility and liquid water content (LWC) observations at the IGIA site. Due to its computational 551 efficiency, UACM is well-suited for operational fog forecasting. This has significant benefits for 552 transportation and aviation sectors, reducing economic losses, health risks, and potential 553 554 accidents due to low visibility. Overall, implementing UACM in operational mode, especially during winter, presents substantial advantages, as this study demonstrates. Moreover, assessing 555 its performance in predicting various fog types like advection-radiation, cloud-base-lowering, 556 557 evaporation, and precipitation fog would enhance the model's robustness. By offering improved accuracy in simulating urban meteorology and forecasting fog events, the model facilitates 558 timely preventive actions and mitigates potential disruptions across sectors. 559

560

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572 Appendix A: Statistical Metrics Definitions

In this study, the performance of the models is assessed using several statistical 573 parameters, including the index of agreement (IOA), root mean square error (RMSE), mean bias 574 (MB), normalized mean bias (NMB), mean error (ME), and normalized mean error (NME). The 575 IOA measures the agreement between the model predictions and observations, with a value of 1 576 indicating a perfect match and 0 indicating no agreement (Willmott, 1981). The RMSE and ME 577 578 provide information about the average error in absolute magnitudes. The NME, expressed as a 579 percentage, represents the average error relative to the observed values, where a higher NME indicates a greater error, and a lower value indicates a lesser error in the predictions. The MB 580 indicates whether the model overestimates or underestimates compared to the observations. The 581 NMB, also expressed as a percentage, indicates the average bias relative to the observed values, 582 583 with a positive NMB indicating overestimation and a negative NMB indicating underestimation of the magnitudes. N is the total number of observations over a period at each individual 584 meteorological station; M_i is the *i*th model simulated value corresponding to the *i*th observation 585 value O_i ; <u>O</u> is the average of observation values over a period. 586

587

$$IOA = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (M_i - O_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (|M_i - \underline{O}| + |O_i - \underline{O}|)^2}$$
(Eqn. A1)

589
$$RMSE = \left[\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(M_i - O_i)^2\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
(Eqn. A2)

590
$$MB = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (M_i - O_i)}{N}$$
 (Eqn. A3)

591
$$NMB = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (M_i - O_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} O_i}$$
 (Eqn. A4)

592
$$ME = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} |M_i - O_i|}{N}$$
 (Eqn. A5)

593
$$NME = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} |M_i - O_i|}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} O_i}$$
(Eqn. A6)

595 **Disclaimer:**

Although this work was reviewed by the United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) and approved for publication, it may not necessarily reflect official Agency policy. The mention of commercial products does not constitute endorsement by the Agency.

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600 Data Availability Statement

Meteorological station observation data provided by the Indian Meteorological Department (IMD, Delhi) https://rmcnewdelhi.imd.gov.in and Winter Fog Experiment (WiFEX 2017-18 Field Campaign) have been used to compare the models' performance in this manuscript. The WiFEX field campaign data at Indira Gandhi International Airport (IGIA), New Delhi, India is available from https://ews.tropmet.res.in/wifex/observations.php [Dataset].

The urban land-use data have been updated in the Delhi region from the European Space Agency (ESA) World Cover 2021 data (released on October 28, 2022) based on Sentinel-1 and Sentinel-2 satellite data which is available at https://worldcover2021.esa.int [Dataset].

The urban morphological parameters dataset required to run the WRF-UACM model were developed by using the Geographic Information System (GIS) (ArcGIS V10.5.1) software,

- 611 which can be accessed at https://www.esri.com/en-us/arcgis/products/arcgis-pro/overview
- 612 [Software].

- The Delhi region building shapefile along with the embedded building height data has been used
- to derive the urban morphological parameters which has been obtained from the UT-GLOBUS
- 615 dataset (Kamath et al., 2022) [Dataset].

616 OpenStreetMap shapefile obtained from https://www.geofabrik.de/data/download.html has been 617 used to develop street orientation parameter in the GIS (ArcGIS V10.5.1) software [Dataset].

The state-of-the-art Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF V3.8) model is available at

619 https://www2.mmm.ucar.edu [Software]. The meteorological input data to create the initial and

620 boundary conditions for the WRF model domains were obtained from the National Centers for

- Environmental Prediction (NCEP) FNL (Final) Operational Global Analysis data available at https://rda.ucar.edu/datasets [Dataset].
- Figures have been made with the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) Command

Language (NCL V6.3.0) post-processing tool accessible at https://www.ncl.ucar.edu [Software]

and wrf-python plotting package available at https://anaconda.org/conda-forge/wrf-python

[Software]. The radiometer liquid water content plot has been prepared with RPG-HATPRO

- Humidity and Temperature Profiler V8.79 [Software].
- Radiosonde profiles at IMD, Ayanagar Station, New Delhi, India during study period are
- available from the Wyoming website: https://weather.uwyo.edu/upperair/sounding.html.
- 630 LWC Plot was created using RAOB V6.8 [Software].
- 631
- 632

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809 Figures



WRF-Model Two Nested-Domains Configuration



Landuse [IGP WRF USGS-Sentinel Domain-2]





(LULC) in Domain-1 (D1, 5-km grid spacing) and Domain-2 (D2, 1-km grid spacing), (d) Indian
 Meteorological Department (IMD) station locations (circular symbols) in Delhi urban region for

verifying the model.



Figure 2. Delhi region urban morphological parameters dataset for (a) average building height [*H*], (b) plan area density $[\lambda_p]$, (c) frontal area density $[\lambda_f]$, and (d) street canyon orientation $[\varphi]$.









Figure 3. Contour plots of model difference [UACM – BACM] for (a-d) 2-m temperature, (e-h) 2-m relative humidity, (i-l) liquid water content at surface , and (m-p) 10-m wind speed during a fog event at 21:00 IST on 29 January 2017, and at 03:00 IST, 06:00 IST, 09:00 IST on 30 January 2017.



Figure 4. Contour plots of UACM liquid water content (LWC) at surface at (a) 10:00 IST, (b) 11:00 IST, and (c) a low cloud satellite image from NASA's MODIS (Moderate Resolution

Imaging Spectroradiometer) captured at approximately 10:30 am IST on January 30, 2017, during a fog event over the Delhi region. The 'red star' symbol marks the location of the Delhi Indira Gandhi International Airport (IGIA) at 28.5562° N, 77.100° E.











Figure 5. Time-series bias plots [MODEL – OBS] (bold line: UACM, dashed line: BACM) for (a) 2-m temperature, (b) 2-m relative humidity, (c) 10-m wind speed at Delhi urban Indian Meteorological Department (IMD) stations, (d) time-series comparison of models liquid water content (LWC) at the surface with visibility data at the Indira Gandhi International Airport (IGIA) site from 29-Jan-2017 (06:00 IST) to 30-Jan-2017 (23:00 IST), and (e) radiometer LWC observations at the IGIA site during a fog event case. UACM: Urban Asymmetric Convective Model; BACM: Base Asymmetric Convective Model (WRF model control runs); OBS: Observations.





Figure 6. Vertical profiles of (a) relative humidity, (b) potential temperature, (c) horizontal wind speed on 30-Jan-2017 (05:30 IST) during a fog event case; and (d) relative humidity, (e) potential temperature, (f) horizontal wind speed on 20-Dec-2016 (05:30 IST) during a clear sky case at Ayanagar meteorological (IMD) station. UACM: Urban Asymmetric Convective Model; BACM: Base Asymmetric Convective Model (WRF model control runs); OBS: Observations.









Figure 7. Contour plots of model difference [UACM – BACM] for (a-d) 2-m temperature, (e-h) 2-m relative humidity, and (i-l) 10-m wind speed during a clear sky case at 06:00 IST, 09:00 IST, 21:00 IST, and 03:00 IST on 20-Dec-2016.





Tables

Table 1. Configuration settings used in the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) Model V3.8

WRF V3.8 schemes and other options	Selected configuration					
Vertical sigma levels	54					
Model top pressure	50 hPa (~20-km AGL)					
Meteorological data (initial conditions)	National Centers for Environmental Prediction Final (Final Operational Global Analysis data) with a spatial resolution of 1° in latitude and longitude, and a temporal resolution of 6 h					
Nested domain grid spacing	D1 (5 km), D2 (1 km)					
Domain grid points	D1 (440 × 200), D2 (191 × 191)					
Microphysics	WRF single-moment 6-class [WSM6] graupel scheme (D1-D2)					
Longwave radiation	CAM LW scheme (D1-D2)					
Shortwave radiation	CAM SW scheme (D1-D2)					
Surface clay physics	Pleim-Xiu (PX) (D1-D2)					
Surface physics	Pleim-Xiu (PX) scheme (D1), New Urban-PX scheme only at D2					
Planetary boundary layer physics	Base-ACM2 (Pleim) scheme (D1) [BACM], New Urban-ACM2 [UACM] scheme only at D2					
Cumulus physics	OFF (D1-D2)					
No. of soil layers	2 (for PX)					
No. of land categories	24 (USGS)					
Nesting	One-way nesting					
Coarse domain time step	8 s (with 1:4 parent time-step ratio)					
No. of metgrid levels	27					
No. of metgrid soil levels	4					
Surface urban physics	OFF (D1-D2)					

960 Note: ACM2 = Asymmetric Convective Model Version-2; BACM = Base Asymmetric

961 Convective Model; UACM = Urban Asymmetric Convective Model.

Table 2. Statistical Metrics for 10-m Wind Speed, 2-m Temperature, and 2-m Relative Humidity

967 for a fog and clear sky case.

		10-m Wind Speed		2-m Temperature		2-m Relative Humidity	
		BACM	UACM	BACM	UACM	BACM	UACM
	IOA	0.76	0.89	0.9	0.96	0.91	0.92
	MB	0.52	0.14	-1.03	0.13	-1.32	-6.62
Fog Event Case [29-30 January	NMB	0.38	0.09	-0.06	0.009	-0.01	-0.07
2017]	ME	0.69	0.36	2.0	1.17	6.62	7.49
	NME	0.48	0.24	0.13	0.07	0.07	0.08
	RMSE	0.9	0.46	2.29	1.41	9.21	9.33
	IOA	0.62	0.88	0.93	0.94	0.76	0.7
Clear Sky Case	MB	1.04	0.18	0.7	1.48	-16.57	-20.5
[20-22 Dec 2016]	NMB	0.33	0.05	0.04	0.08	-0.24	-0.3
	ME	1.13	0.38	1.7	1.58	16.6	20.5
	NME	0.35	0.11	0.1	0.09	0.24	0.3
	RMSE	1.39	0.48	2.05	1.79	19.25	22.1

- Note: BACM = Base Asymmetric Convective Model; UACM = Urban Asymmetric Convective
- Model; IOA = Index of Agreement; MB = Mean Bias; NMB = Normalized MB; ME = Mean
- 970 Error, NME = Normalized ME; RMSE = Room-Mean-Square Error.

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[Journal of Advances in Modeling Earth Systems]

Supporting Information for

Implementation of WRF-Urban Asymmetric Convective Model (UACM) for Simulating Urban Fog over Delhi, India

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Contents of this file

Figures S1 to S12

Introduction

This supporting information includes Figures comprised of spatial contour plots of 10-m wind speed, 2-m temperature, as well as the time-series plots of 10-m wind speed, 2-m temperature, 2-m relative humidity on both the fog event case (29-30 January 2017) and the clear sky case (20-21 December 2016). Time series of shortwave and longwave radiation, soil heat flux, and soil temperature have also been included.

Figures:

10-m Wind Speed Contour Plots on 29-30 Jan 2017 [Fog Event Case]

10m-WSPD. BACM 29-JAN-2017 [21:00 IST] 10m-WSPD. UACM 29-JAN-2017 [21:00 IST]

10m-Windspeed (m/s) [BACM] [21:00 IST] U at 10 M $\,$ (m s-1)

10m-Windspeed (m/s) [UACM] [21:00 IST] U at 10 M (m s-1)



10m-WSPD. BACM 30-JAN-2017 [03:00 IST] 10m-WSPD. UACM 30-JAN-2017 [03:00 IST]



Figure S1: Contour plots of 10-m wind speed at 21:00 IST for (a) BACM, (b) UACM on 29-Jan-2017; and at 03:00 IST for (c) BACM, (d) UACM on 30-Jan-2017 [Fog Event Case].

10-m Wind Speed Contour Plots on 29-30 Jan 2017 [Fog Event Case]



10m-WSPD. BACM 30-JAN-2017 [06:00 IST] 10m-WSPD. UACM 30-JAN-2017 [06:00 IST]

10m-WSPD. BACM 30-JAN-2017 [09:00 IST] 10m-WSPD. UACM 30-JAN-2017 [09:00 IST]



Figure S2: Contour plots of 10-m wind speed at 06:00 IST for (a) BACM, (b) UACM; and at 09:00 IST for (c) BACM, (d) UACM on 30-Jan-2017 [Fog Event Case].

2-m Temperature Contour Plots on 29-30 Jan 2017 [Fog Event Case]

2m-TEMP. BACM 29-JAN-2017 [21:00 IST] 2m-TEMP. UACM 29-JAN-2017 [21:00 IST]



2m-TEMP. BACM 30-JAN-2017 [03:00 IST] 2m-TEMP. UACM 30-JAN-2017 [03:00 IST]



Figure S3: Contour plots of 2-m temperature at 21:00 IST for (a) BACM, (b) UACM on 29-Jan-2017; and at 03:00 IST for (c) BACM, (d) UACM on 30-Jan-2017 [Fog Event Case].

2-m Temperature Contour Plots on 29-30 Jan 2017 [Fog Event Case]

2m-TEMP. BACM 30-JAN-2017 [06:00 IST] 2m-TEMP. UACM 30-JAN-2017 [06:00 IST]

29°20'N 29°20'N 29°N 29°N 28°40'N 28°40'N 28°20'N 28°20'N 28°N 28°N 76°20'E 76°40'E 77°E 77°20'E 77°40'E 78°E 76°20'E 2m-Temperature (°C) 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 (a)

2m-TEMP. BACM 30-JAN-2017 [09:00 IST] 2m-TEMP. UACM 30-JAN-2017 [09:00 IST]

76°40'E

77°E

2m-Temperature (°C)

(b)

77°20'E



Figure S4: Contour plots of 2-m temperature at 06:00 IST for (a) BACM, (b) UACM; and at 09:00 IST for (c) BACM, (d) UACM on 30-Jan-2017 [Fog Event Case].

2m-Temperature (°C) [UACM] [06:00 IST]

77°40'E

78°E

2m-Temperature (°C) [BACM] [06:00 IST]

10-m Wind Speed Contour Plots on 29-30 Jan 2017 [Fog Event Case]

10m-WSPD. BACM 29-JAN-2017 [14:00 IST] 10m-WSPD. UACM 29-JAN-2017 [14:00 IST]

10m-Windspeed (m/s) [BACM] [14:00 IST] U at 10 M (m s-1) 10m-Windspeed (m/s) [UACM] [14:00 IST] U at 10 M (m s-1)



10m-WSPD. BACM 30-JAN-2017 [02:00 IST] 10m-WSPD. UACM 30-JAN-2017 [02:00 IST]



Figure S5: Contour plots of 10-m wind speed at 14:00 IST for (a) BACM, (b) UACM on 29-Jan-2017; and at 02:00 IST for (c) BACM, (d) UACM on 30-Jan-2017 [Fog Event Case].

2-m Temperature Contour Plots on 29-30 Jan 2017 [Fog Event Case]



2m-TEMP. BACM 29-JAN-2017 [14:00 IST] 2m-TEMP. UACM 29-JAN-2017 [14:00 IST]



2m-TEMP. UACM 30-JAN-2017 [02:00 IST] 2m-TEMP. BACM 30-JAN-2017 [02:00 IST]



Figure S6: Contour plots of 2-m temperature at 14:00 IST for (a) BACM, (b) UACM on 29-Jan-2017; and at 02:00 IST for (c) BACM, (d) UACM on 30-Jan-2017 [Fog Event Case].

2-m Temperature Contour Plots on 20-21 Dec 2016 [Clear Sky Case]



2m-TEMP. BACM 20-DEC-2016 [14:00 IST] 2m-TEMP. UACM 20-DEC-2016 [14:00 IST]

2m-TEMP. BACM 21-DEC-2016 [02:00 IST] 2m-TEMP. UACM 21-DEC-2016 [02:00 IST]



Figure S7: Contour plots of 2-m temperature at 14:00 IST for (a) BACM, (b) UACM on 20-Dec-2016; and at 02:00 IST for (c) BACM, (d) UACM on 21-Dec-2016 [Clear Sky Case].

10-m Wind Speed Contour Plots on 20-21 Dec 2016 [Clear Sky Case]

10m-WSPD. BACM 20-DEC-2016 [14:00 IST] 10m-WSPD. UACM 20-DEC-2016 [14:00 IST]

10m-Windspeed (m/s) [BACM] [14:00 IST] U at 10 M (m s-1) 10m-Windspeed (m/s) [UACM] [14:00 IST] U at 10 M (m s-1)



10m-WSPD. BACM 21-DEC-2016 [02:00 IST] 10m-WSPD. UACM 21-DEC-2016 [02:00 IST]



Figure S8: Contour plots of 10-m wind speed at 14:00 IST for (a) BACM, (b) UACM on 20-Dec-2016; and at 02:00 IST for (c) BACM, (d) UACM on 21-Dec-2016 [Clear Sky Case].

10-m Wind Speed Time-Series Plots



Figure S9: Time-series plots of 10-m wind speed at (a) Delhi University, (b) Narela, (c) Pitampura, (d) Mungeshpur, (e) Jafarpur, (f) IGIA Site station for the Fog Event Case; and at (g) Akhardham, (h) Jafarpur for the Clear Sky Case.

2-m Temperature Time-Series Plots



Figure S10: Time-series plots of 2-m temperature at (a) Delhi University, (b) Mungeshpur, (c) Narela, (d) Jafarpur station, (e) IGIA Site for the Fog Event Case, and at (f) Ayanagar, (g) Akhardham, (h) Jafarpur station for the Clear Sky Case.

2-m Relative Humidity Time-Series Plots



Figure S11: Time-series plots of 2-m relative humidity at (a) Delhi University, (b) Mungeshpur, (c) Pitampura, (d) Jafarpur, (e) IGIA Site, (f) Narela station for the Fog Event Case; and at (g) Akhardham, (h) Pitampura station for the Clear Sky Case.

SW, LW -Radiation, Soil- Heat Flux, Temperature Time-Series Plots



Figure S12: Time-series plots of (a) incoming shortwave radiation, (b) reflected shortwave radiation, (c) soil heat flux, (d) soil temperature, (e) incoming longwave radiation, (f) outgoing longwave radiation for the Fog Event Case.