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| 7 | Chapter 2.14 Forecasting ozone and PM _{2.5} in southeastern U.S. | |
| 9 | M. Talat Odman, Yongtao Hu, Michael E. Chang and Armistead | |
| 11 | G. Russell | |
| 13 | | |
| 15 | 1. Introduction | QA :1 |
| 17 | There is an increasing interest in day-to-day variation of air quality. A the public is becoming more health conscious, air pollution is being po | er- |
| 19 | ceived as a serious problem. In response, local authorities are looking f short-term management strategies to avoid bad pollution episodes. T | |
| 17 | press and the media are beginning to carry air quality forecasts as routi | ne |
| 21 | extensions of weather forecasts. These air quality forecasts are product using various techniques. Persistence, climatology, statistical regression | |
| 23 | close neighbor, and decision tree models are among the most popul methods. More recently, three-dimensional (3-D) air quality models ma | ar |
| 25 | their entrance into the forecasting world. Air quality forecasting in Atlanta, Georgia started with the 1996 (| |
| 27 | ympic Games and continues ever since (Cardelino et al., 2001). A panel experts gets together every day and issues an ozone forecast for the ne | of |
| 29 | day. One of the outcomes of this forecast is "ozone alerts" that a | re |
| 31 | displayed as electronic signs on the highways. These signs urge the drive to telecommute or to refuel after sunset whenever an "ozone day" | |
| 33 | imminent. 3-D modeling has been one of the methods used in Atlanta foreca | sts |
| 35 | ever since the beginning (Chang and Cardelino, 2000). The Urban A shed Model (UAM) is run daily using diagnostic meteorology. However, | |
| | the emissions data used in this operation have not been updated in rece | nt |
| 37 | years, and the models and methods used do not reflect the current sta of-the-science. Among the other 3-D forecasting operations, the only o | |
| 39 | that covers the southeastern U.S. is the NOAA/EPA national foreca (Eder et al., 2006). The models used in this operation consist of the E | |
| 41 | (Ladi et al., 2000). The models used in this operation consist of the E | |

- 1 CMAQ modeling system with 12-km resolution (Otte et al., 2005) over the eastern U.S.
- 3 Last year, $PM_{2.5}$ forecasting started in Atlanta in addition to ozone. Also, the forecasts are being expanded to other cities in Georgia (e.g., to
- 5 Macon which is 135 km south-southeast of Atlanta). We have been asked to develop a state-of-the-science 3-D modeling system that can forecast

7 ozone and $PM_{2.5}$ over most of Georgia. This paper describes the initial version of the forecasting system we developed and gives an overview of

- 9 our operation which started on May 1, 2006.
- 11

2. Forecasting system and its operation

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Our goal is to provide accurate, "fine-scale," local air quality forecasts sufficiently in advance that the public and local authorities can take necessary actions. NOAA/EPA's target is to issue nationwide 2-day forecasts with 2.5-km resolution in 10 years (Davidson et al., 2005). On a local

scale, we want to get there, and go beyond, much faster. In particular, our objective is to forecast longer periods with finer resolution (\sim 1 km). Also,

in addition to air quality, we want to be able to forecast the effectiveness of local control strategies in order to avoid pollution episodes.

- We use the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model for the forecasting of meteorology (http://wrf-model.org/). We initialize WRF with 84-h forecasts from the North American Mesoscale (NAM; formerly
- 25 known as Eta) model (http://nomads.ncdc.noaa.gov/). We utilize the Sparse Matrix Operator Kernel Emissions (SMOKE) model for emissions
- 27 (CEMPD, 2004). Finally, we use the Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) model for chemistry and transport (Byun and Ching, 1999). We
- 29 are currently using the standard version 4.5 of CMAQ but to achieve our objectives we will soon incorporate the following model extensions we
- 31 developed in recent years: (1) the time-saving variable step algorithm (Odman and Hu, 2007), (2) the direct decoupled method that allows
- calculation of emission sensitivities along with pollutant concentrations
 (Hakami et al., 2003), and (3) the adaptive grid algorithm that allows very
- high $(\sim 100 \text{ m})$ resolution (Odman et al., 2002).

The modeling domain is covered with three nested grids of different resolutions: (1) a 36-km grid (72×72) over the eastern U.S., (2) a 12-km grid (72×72) over most of the southeast, and (3) a 4-km grid (99×78)

- 39 over Georgia and portions of neighboring states. The horizontal domains for WRF are slightly larger than those used in CMAQ. Also, while 34
- 41 vertical layers are used in WRF, there are only 13 unequally spaced vertical layers in CMAQ.

- 1 In order to issue tomorrow's forecast by 10 a.m. today, the operation must start $2\frac{1}{2}$ days in advance (e.g., Wednesday's forecast by Sunday
- 3 night). We first simulate a 3-day period over the 36-km grid using 00Z NAM data, initial conditions from the previous cycle (i.e., warm start),
- 5 and "clean" boundary conditions. Then we simulate $2\frac{1}{2}$ days over the 12-km grid using 12Z NAM data and initial/boundary conditions from the
- 7 36-km grid. Finally, we simulate 24 h over the 4-km grid using 12Z NAM data and initial/boundary conditions from the 12-km grid. The operation
- 9 is mostly automated but it still requires about 1 h of human interaction per day. A total of 6 CPUs are employed.
- 11 Emission inputs must be up-to-date for accurate forecasts. We projected the National Emissions Inventory (NEI) for the year 2002–2006
- 13 using growth and control factors. For example, we used the Economic Growth Analysis System (EGAS) model to project the major power plant
- 15 emissions and applied controls from NO_x State Implementation Plans. We use monthly averaged data for major point sources and wild-land
- 17 fires. We forecast mobile emissions by using emission factors based on forecasted daily average temperatures. Finally, we forecast biogenic
- 19 emissions using summertime leaf indexes.
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3. Forecasting products

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The current products are the 24-h ozone and $PM_{2.5}$ forecasts issued once per day. They are posted to a web site (http://www.ce.gatech.edu/research/forecast/) as soon as they become available. The forecast for At-

- 27 lanta is summarized in terms of the peak 1-h ozone and $PM_{2.5}$ values, their location, and time of occurrence. For example, "Peak 1-h ozone
- 29 tomorrow will be 65 ppb at Gwinnett at 2 p.m." In addition to tomorrow's forecast, today's forecast remains posted until tomorrow. Finally,
- 31 there is an evaluation for yesterday's forecast. It compares the value, location, and time of the forecasted peak ozone and $PM_{2.5}$ to the value,

33 location, and time of the observed peaks. For example, "Peak 1-h ozone was predicted to be 72 ppb at Conyers at 4 p.m. The observed peak value

was 66 ppb at Conyers at 4 p.m." In this example, while the location and time of the peak was forecasted accurately the value was overestimated by
 9%.

Graphical products include charts showing time series of 1-h ozone and $PM_{2,5}$ values at 11 monitoring locations in metropolitan Atlanta and

- 39 $PM_{2.5}$ values at 11 monitoring locations in metropolitan Atlanta and several other cities in Georgia. These charts display the forecasts from the
- 41 4- and 12-km grids. For evaluation purposes, the observations are also plotted on the same charts as soon as they become available. Also, every

- 1 day, the correlation between the predictions and observations is evaluated by means of scatter plots of all 1-h values at all sites. Finally, ozone maps
- 3 are also available to compare our forecast on the 12-km grid visually to the NOAA/EPA forecast posted on the NOAA website (http://
- 5 www.nws.noaa.gov/aq/).
- 7

9 4. Operational evaluation

Atlanta's ozone forecasting record from 2000 to 2004 is quite impressive. 577 days were forecasted correctly as non-events and 94 days as ozone

days. There were 63 false alarms and 31 misses. Since our 3-D forecasting operation has a very short history (only 10 days at the time of this pres-

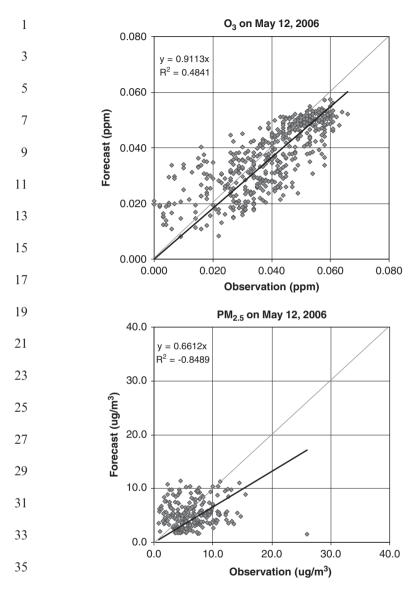
entation) and no bad air quality days occurred up to this point, we will not attempt to calculate similar statistics. Instead, we will present more detailed evaluations.

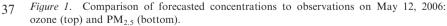
The forecasted 1-h average ozone and $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations are compared with the observations published the next day by the Ambient Monitoring Program of the Georgia Department of Natural Resources (http://www.air.dnr.state.ga.us/amp/). Figure 1 shows such a comparison at all the monitoring locations in Metro Atlanta for all the hours on May 12, 2006. The bias in ozone is in the form of overestimations for ozone concentrations below 20 ppb. Most of these are nighttime values at some specific stations. These locations are probably under the influence of NO_x titration that the model cannot simulate due to insufficient resolution and/or uncertainties in land we and emissions data. BM

27 and/or uncertainties in land use and emissions data. $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations are mostly overestimated below $5 \,\mu g \,m^{-3}$ and generally underestimated 29 above that value.

The forecasts are generally accurate but occasionally they fail to capture the temporal variation of pollution levels. For example, the fore-31 casted ozone for Convers on May 6, 2006 was in near perfect agreement with observations (Fig. 2). The fact that the 4-km forecast is more ac-33 curate than the 12-km forecast is encouraging for the pursuit of higher resolution. While May 6 had perfect conditions for ozone forecasting 35 (clear and sunny), May 4 presented many challenges: there were scattered afternoon thundershowers throughout Atlanta. This led to the suppres-37 sion of peaking afternoon ozone concentrations. Two such events can be seen at Douglasville's ozone observations in Fig. 2: one at 16 EDT and 39 another at 18 EDT. Thundershowers are very difficult to forecast and they were completely missed in this case. The forecasted ozone remained 41

flat due to cloud cover but no scavenging was predicted.





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Figure 3 shows good agreement between the temporal variations of 41 observed and predicted $PM_{2.5}$ at South Dekalb on May 5. The peaks during morning rush hours, early afternoon, and late evening are all

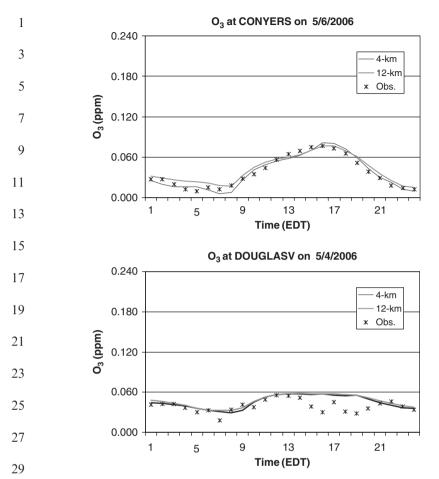


Figure 2. Good and poor ozone forecasts. May 6, 2006 was a sunny day and ozone was predicted almost perfectly at Conyers, with slightly better accuracy over the 4-km grid (top). Scattered thundershowers throughout the afternoon on May 4, 2006 were hard to predict leading to poor ozone predictions at Douglasville (bottom).

forecasted though their levels are slightly off. In this case, there is no clear indication that the 4-km grid is leading to a better forecast than the 12-km grid. However, predicting PM_{2.5} at Newnan on May 4 was very challenging for the models. There were very strong variations in PM_{2.5}

39 throughout the day. Once again, the sudden drops in the afternoon are due to thundershowers that were not predicted. But the level of early

41 afternoon and evening peaks are severely underestimated. This suggests

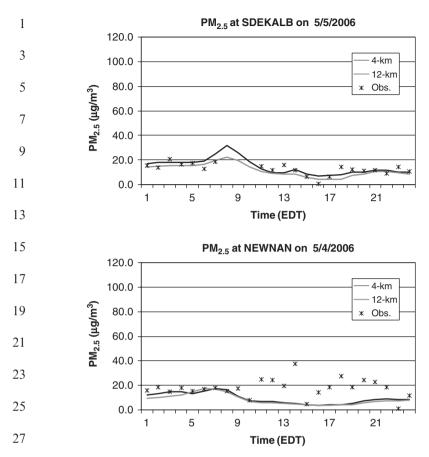


Figure 3. Good and poor PM_{2.5} forecasts. May 5, 2006 was a sunny day and PM_{2.5} was predicted almost perfectly at South Dekalb (top). Scattered thundershowers throughout the afternoon on May 4, 2006 as well as some local emission events led to a poor PM_{2.5} forecast at Newnan (bottom).

- that there might be some local emission events leading to these peaks but the models are unable to capture these events.
- 35

37 5. Conclusions and future work

- 39 A "fine-scale" forecasting operation using 3-D models started in Georgia on May 1, 2006. Forecasts were issued on time every day since May 3;
- 41 there were no bad air quality days so far (as of May 12, 2006). Ozone forecasts are generally accurate. The only bias seems to be the nighttime

- 1 overestimations at some stations. The peak error is 10-20%. The correlation between predictions and observations is fairly good: R^2 is around
- 3 0.6 but lower on some days. The diurnal variations of ozone are captured at many sites.

5 $PM_{2.5}$ is harder to forecast than ozone and it is generally underestimated. The peak error is 20–40%. The correlation between predictions

- 7 and observations is not very strong: R² is less than 0.4 on many days. The morning peaks are generally predicted at the right level and time but
 9 afternoon and evening peaks are generally underestimated and some are completely missed.
- We will continue the operation until September 30, 2006 and then conduct a thorough evaluation of the summertime forecasts. We will
- 13 improve the modeling system based on identified weaknesses. Our goals for next year are to extend the domain of coverage, increase the reso-
- lution, elongate the forecasting period, issue daily updates, and improve the accuracy. Our longer-term goals are to link the forecast to healtheffect studies such as investigating the impacts on asthmatic children (i.e.,
- 17 effect studies such as investigating the impacts on asthmatic children (i.e., whether the forecasts improve the quality of their life) and conducting
- 19 long-term exposure studies for which we are archiving our data. Another goal is to simultaneously forecast the impacts of predetermined short-
- 21 term local control strategies in order to avoid imminent pollution episodes.
- 23

Discussion

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| 27 | | |
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| 20 | E. Genikhovich: | In Russia, we have a long-lasting practice of issuing |
| 29 | | the air pollution forecasts and applying them to short- term emission control programs. If such a program |
| 31 | | has started, the measured concentrations of |
| 33 | | atmospheric pollutants influenced by reduction of corresponding emissions are not used for evaluation of |
| | | the forecast score. There are other ways to do it, in |
| 35 | | particular related to upper percentiles of annual PDF of concentrations. |
| 37 | M.T. Odman: | Our operation is fairly new and we can certainly |
| 39 | | benefit from your experience. One of our goals is to forecast the sensitivities to emission reductions |
| 57 | | simultaneously with ozone and $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations. |
| 41 | | The high-order direct decoupled method that we |

| 1 | | developed (Hakami et al., 2003) allows us to compute these sensitivities very accurately. If our sensitivity |
|----|----------------|---|
| 3 | | forecast is used by the local authorities and some local short-term control programs are activated on time to |
| 5 | | avoid pollution episodes, we would have achieved our objective (notwithstanding the implications of issuing |
| 7 | | a false alarm). Afterwards, when the forecast is being evaluated, we can use the forecasted sensitivity |
| 9 | | information along with the actual emission controls |
| 11 | | that took place to modify our original air quality forecast. This would be the best correction for the feedback which also the original forecast. In an ideal |
| 13 | | feedback, which alters the original forecast. In an ideal world, if the authorities inform us of their action plan |
| 15 | | on time, we can apply the necessary correction to our forecast before broadcasting it to the public (and hopefully avoid false alarms). |
| 17 | J.W. Kaminski: | How long is a meteorological forecast? Would you consider a 3-day meteorological forecast to be too |
| 19 | | long? |
| 17 | M.T. Odman: | The current length of the meteorological forecast is 3 |
| 21 | | days (plus 5 h, which is the local time difference from UTC). This, of course, is a fairly long forecast to be |
| 23 | | accurate under rapidly changing meteorological conditions. We are planning several new measures for |
| 25 | | next year, which will reduce the operation time such |
| 27 | | that a 2-day meteorological forecast can be used instead. This is expected to improve the accuracy of |
| 29 | | our air quality forecasts significantly. |
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33 ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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