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1 **Effects of Increasing Horizontal Resolution in a**  
2 **Convection Permitting Model on Flood**  
3 **Forecasting: The 2011 Dramatic Events in**  
4 **Liguria (Italy)**

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6  
7 Silvio Davolio

8 Institute of Atmospheric Sciences and Climate, National Research  
9 Council, CNR ISAC, Bologna, Italy

10  
11  
12 Francesco Silvestro

13 CIMA Research Foundation, Savona, Italy

14  
15  
16 Piero Malguzzi

17 Institute of Atmospheric Sciences and Climate, National Research  
18 Council, CNR ISAC, Bologna, Italy

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35 *Corresponding author address:* Silvio Davolio, Institute of Atmospheric Sciences and Climate, National  
36 Research Council (CNR ISAC), Via Gobetti 101, 40129 Bologna, Italy.  
37 E-mail: s.davolio@isac.cnr.it  
38

## Abstract

Coupling meteorological and hydrological models is a common and standard practice in the field of flood forecasting. In this study, a Numerical Weather Prediction (NWP) chain based on BOLAM and MOLOCH models was coupled with the operational hydrological forecasting chain of the Liguria Hydro-Meteorological Functional Centre to simulate two major floods that occurred during autumn 2011 in Northern Italy. Different atmospheric simulations were performed by varying the grid spacing (between 1 and 3 km) of the high-resolution meteorological model and the set of initial/boundary conditions driving the NWP chain. The aim was to investigate the impact of these parameters not only from a meteorological perspective, but also in terms of discharge predictions for the two flood events. The operational flood forecasting system was thus used as a tool to validate in a more pragmatic sense the quantitative precipitation forecast obtained from different configurations of the NWP system. The results showed an improvement in flood prediction when a high-resolution grid was employed for atmospheric simulations. In turn, a better description of the evolution of the precipitating convective systems was beneficial for the hydrological prediction. Although the simulations underestimated the severity of both floods, the higher resolution model chain would have provided useful information to the decision makers in charge of protecting citizens.

# 1 **1. Introduction**

2           Heavy precipitation and floods can be dangerous and costly natural hazards in the  
3 Mediterranean basin, causing casualties and remarkable damages. Several international  
4 research programs (e.g. HyMeX, Drobinski et al. 2014) have recently sought to improve  
5 the understanding, monitoring, and modeling of these phenomena in order to prevent or  
6 reduce the associated damages to society and to the environment. Liguria, a coastal  
7 region in Northern Italy, presents characteristics typical of the Mediterranean area, being  
8 a narrow strip of land separating the Alps and Apennines from the sea. The steep and  
9 complex orography reaches high elevations (around 2000 meters) within a few kilometers  
10 of the coast, and a number of small catchments (only a few are larger than 200 km<sup>2</sup>),  
11 characterized by a response time of a few hours at most, have their outlets in the  
12 Mediterranean Sea. Due to the topography, most of the urban areas are along the coast,  
13 often in proximity to a river outlet. Therefore, a severe weather event represents a serious  
14 threat for Liguria, where heavy and persistent rainfall can become a devastating flood in  
15 few hours. For these reasons, Liguria was selected and investigated as a hydro-  
16 meteorological site of interest during the HyMeX field campaign (SOP1, Ducrocq et al.  
17 2014, Ferretti et al. 2014) that took place in autumn 2012.

18           The meteorological conditions conducive to heavy rainfall are met most often  
19 during autumn, when large-scale synoptic disturbances propagate and deepen in the  
20 Mediterranean basin. The Mediterranean Sea acts as a reservoir of humidity and heat,  
21 feeding low-level jets that convey moisture towards the Ligurian coastal slopes exposed  
22 to southerly flows. These conditions were indeed associated with two devastating flood  
23 episodes that occurred in fall 2011, on 25 October (“Cinque Terre” event, hereafter

1 referred to as CT) and 04 November (“Genoa” event, hereafter referred to as GE). In  
2 addition to the relevant differences shown at the mesoscale, both cases were  
3 characterized by the presence of intense, localized, and stationary convective activity that  
4 was responsible for the exceptional amount of precipitation that fell in less than one day.  
5 The CT and GE events caused thirteen and six casualties respectively, with relevant  
6 damage to infrastructure, buildings, and private and public properties estimated in the  
7 tens of millions of euros (Silvestro et al., 2012).

8         Several recent studies investigated these episodes from different perspectives.  
9 Rebora et al. (2013) provided a detailed and comprehensive meteorological overview of  
10 both events and identified some key ingredients underlying severe rainfall episodes using  
11 the available monitoring platforms. Silvestro et al. (2012) presented the hydrological  
12 aspects, analyzing the operational output available in real time at the Hydro-  
13 Meteorological Functional Centre (HMFC) of the Liguria Region in charge of issuing  
14 forecasts and alerts for civil protection purposes. Finally, two modeling studies (Fiori et  
15 al. 2014; Buzzi et al. 2014) were devoted to the identification of the key numerical  
16 aspects impacting on the ability to perform quantitative precipitation forecasting (QPF).  
17 In particular, the latter study further investigated the main dynamical mechanisms  
18 responsible for the triggering, development, and propagation of the precipitating systems,  
19 highlighting the combined effect of mesoscale forcing and orographic lifting in the two  
20 events.

21         Buzzi et al. (2014) also evaluated the performance of a convection-permitting  
22 model (MOLOCH, described in Sec. 2a) at various horizontal resolutions (between 1 and  
23 3 km), driven by different global model datasets. Realistic simulations, in terms of total

1 accumulated precipitation, were obtained only for short-term forecasts (in agreement with  
2 Fiori et al. 2014), using grid spacing small enough to properly reproduce the small-scale  
3 features (low-level convergence and orographic lifting) that determined the onset of  
4 convection. Although the evaluation was mainly qualitative, it did show that increasing  
5 model's horizontal resolution improved both the forecast of precipitation amounts and  
6 geographical localization.

7         The goal of this study was to provide a quantitative evaluation of these simulation  
8 results in a pragmatic framework. Thus, instead of computing classical skill scores, the  
9 effect of different horizontal resolutions and initial/boundary conditions on QPF was  
10 evaluated in term of discharge predictions, applying MOLOCH output to the hydro-  
11 meteorological chain in operation at the time of the events at the HMFC (see Sec. 2b).  
12 This is an approach commonly employed by hydrologists interested in evaluating  
13 Numerical Weather Prediction (NWP) models (Cuo et al. 2011), who can then use their  
14 own sets of operationally available measurements. The objective is to verify if the  
15 meteorological improvements “propagate” into the hydrological prediction. In other  
16 words, the hydrological chain is used to quantitatively validate the QPF.

17         It is not obvious, however, whether an improved meteorological forecast  
18 corresponds to an improved forecast of hydrological response, since the relevant scales of  
19 validation for hydrology, the individual river's catchments, are remarkably smaller than  
20 the meteorological scales of validation (Pappenberger et al. 2008). Along this line,  
21 coupling meteorological and hydrological models is a common practice for streamflow  
22 forecasting that can be used for a practical evaluation of the QPF (Westrick and Mass  
23 2001; Roberts et al. 2009; Ghile and Schulze 2010). At variance with previous studies

1 that found a general improvement with decreasing grid spacing, the present study  
2 specifically focuses on very high-resolution (between 1 and 3 km grid spacing)  
3 meteorological forecasts dealing with simulations of convective phenomena, which are  
4 associated with small-scale processes and limited intrinsic predictability (Hohenegger  
5 and Schär 2007).

6 High horizontal resolution is not only necessary to properly describe convective  
7 system dynamics and orographic forcing, but also recommended in deterministic  
8 operational practice (Cuo et al. 2010). Ensemble procedures are becoming an established  
9 research and operational field (Cloke and Pappenberger 2009) even for mesoscale  
10 meteorological models and short lead times below 24 hours, such as those considered  
11 here (which are in between very-short and short-range - WMO 1992). However, an  
12 appropriate rainfall downscaling procedure (see Sec. 2b) based on a meteorological  
13 deterministic approach (Fundel et al. 2010) may still help fill the gap between  
14 meteorological output and required hydrological input, taking into account the  
15 uncertainty related to the spatial-temporal variability of the rainfall fields at scales shorter  
16 than those at which QPF is reliable (Siccardi et al. 2000; Silvestro et al. 2011).

17 The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the modeling chains and  
18 methods. Section 3 reports a brief description of the two heavy rainfall episodes and the  
19 discussion of the results from the meteorological perspective. Section 4 presents, more  
20 extensively, the hydrological perspective. Summary and conclusions are reported in  
21 Section 5.

22

23

## 1 **2. Methods**

### 2 *a. The Numerical Weather Prediction System*

3 Two different mesoscale models are employed in succession for the hindcast  
4 experiments: BOLAM and MOLOCH. These NWP models were developed at the  
5 Institute of Atmospheric Sciences and Climate of the Italian National Research Council  
6 (CNR – ISAC) and constitute its operational meteorological chain  
7 (<http://www.isac.cnr.it/dinamica/projects/forecasts>). The BOLAM model – for a  
8 description refer to Buzzi et al. (2003) and Davolio and Buzzi (2004) – is a limited-area  
9 hydrostatic model based on primitive equations with a convective parameterization based  
10 on Kain (2004). The BOLAM model is employed to provide the lateral boundary  
11 conditions for MOLOCH at hourly frequency. This current practice has proved to be  
12 reliable and economical in bridging the gap between the coarse spatial (0.5 degrees for  
13 the NOAA-GFS data and about 0.20 degrees for the ECMWF-IFS data) and temporal (3  
14 hours) resolution of global model fields and the high-resolution forecasts. Since the  
15 results presented in the following are based on MOLOCH simulations, only a detailed  
16 description of MOLOCH is provided. Although the BOLAM and MOLOCH models  
17 differ in their dynamical cores, including also different choices for their vertical  
18 coordinate sets, the parameterization of atmospheric radiation, atmospheric boundary and  
19 surface layers, soil processes, and microphysical processes are common in the two  
20 models.

21 MOLOCH is a non-hydrostatic, fully compressible, convection-permitting model  
22 (Malguzzi et al. 2006; Davolio et al. 2009) without parameterization of convection. It  
23 employs a hybrid terrain-following vertical coordinate, depending on air density and



1 relaxing smoothly to horizontal surfaces away from the Earth surface. Time integration is  
2 based on an implicit scheme for the vertical propagation of sound waves, while explicit,  
3 time-split schemes are implemented for the integration of the remaining terms of the  
4 equations of motion. Three-dimensional advection is computed using the Eulerian  
5 weighted average flux scheme (Billet and Toro 1997). The atmospheric radiation is  
6 computed with a combined application of the Ritter and Geleyn (1992) scheme and the  
7 ECMWF scheme, employing 14 channels for the infrared and the visible bands  
8 (Morcrette et al. 2008). The turbulence scheme is based on an E-1, order 1.5 closure  
9 theory, where the turbulent kinetic energy equation (including advection) is evaluated  
10 (Zampieri et al. 2005). The soil model uses seven layers whose depths increase going  
11 downward, and it computes surface energy, momentum, water and snow balances, heat  
12 and water vertical transfer, vegetation effects at the surface and in the soil. It takes into  
13 account the observed geographical distribution of different soil types and soil physical  
14 parameters. The microphysical scheme, recently upgraded, was initially based on the  
15 parameterization proposed by Drofa and Malguzzi (2004). The presently applied scheme  
16 describes the conversion and interaction of cloud water, cloud ice and hydrometeors  
17 (rain, snow, graupel).

18 In the experiments presented below, the model chain is initialized either with  
19 NOAA-GFS or ECMWF-IFS global analyses valid at 0000 UTC of the same day of each  
20 event, 25 October and 04 November 2011, respectively. Boundary conditions are  
21 provided by the global model forecasts, available at 3-hour intervals. BOLAM integration  
22 domain covers most of Europe and the whole Mediterranean basin, using a rotated grid  
23 composed of 418x290 points at 0.1 degree spacing (about 11 km), with 50 vertical levels.

1 The MOLOCH experiments were all performed over an identical domain (about 780x780  
2 km wide) with 50 atmospheric levels, at different horizontal resolutions, namely 3, 2, 1.5,  
3 and 1 km. MOLOCH is nested in the BOLAM very-short-range forecasts, starting at  
4 0300 (0100) UTC for the CT (GE) case. This has been done in order to dynamically  
5 smooth out the sudden increase in resolution from the global data analysis to the  
6 MOLOCH grid. The orographic height used in the simulations is obtained from the  
7 NOAA dataset at 1/120° resolution (information online at  
8 [www.ngdc.noaa.gov/mgg/topo/globe.html](http://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/mgg/topo/globe.html)). Orography for the model grid points is  
9 obtained by interpolation and smoothing of the data.

10

#### 11 *b. The Hydro-Meteorological Forecasting Chain*

12 The employed Hydro-meteorological Forecasting Chain (HFC) is described in  
13 Siccardi et al. (2005), Silvestro et al. (2011), and Silvestro et al. (2012), where the  
14 precipitation forecasts for the Liguria Region were provided by a number of NWP  
15 models and interpreted by expert meteorologists as explained below.

16 In the operational practice, Liguria is divided into five alert sub-regions (Silvestro  
17 et al. 2012), which are homogeneous from a hydro-meteorological point of view (Fig. 1).  
18 They are divided into two groups. The first group, south of the Apennines divide, has  
19 three sub-regions with basins that have their outlets in the Tyrrhenian Sea. The other  
20 group has two sub-regions that include head basins of the greater catchments that form  
21 the Po River, draining to the Adriatic Sea. The experts of HMFC of Liguria Region  
22 merge the output of the different meteorological models (the “poor man’s ensemble”)  
23 with their own experience and provide QPF for the alert sub-regions for predefined

1 windows of time. For each alert sub-region, a different QPF is issued. This kind of  
2 forecast is locally called a “subjective forecast”.

3         However, here, the QPF provided by different hindcast simulations of the  
4 MOLOCH model, implemented at different horizontal resolutions and in a real-time like  
5 configuration, is used as meteorological input. The other components of the hydro-  
6 meteorological chain are the downscaling module RainFARM and the hydrological  
7 model DRiFt (Discharge River Forecast).

8         DRiFt is a linear, event-scale, semi-distributed model based on a geomorphologic  
9 approach (Giannoni et al. 2000, 2005). The model focuses on the efficient description of  
10 a drainage system in its essential parts: hill-slopes and channel networks. These are  
11 addressed by using two kinematic scales that determine the base-level geomorphological  
12 response of the basin. The adopted infiltration scheme (Gabellani et al. 2008) allows the  
13 modeling of “multi-peak” events by simulating quite long periods (5–8 days) during  
14 which individual events can occur. The propagation of water in the first soil layer is  
15 described and a self-initialization of the model is produced between successive events.  
16 The schematization is applicable when the simulation period is not too long and  
17 evapotranspiration does not become crucial in the mass balance equation. The basin is  
18 discretized into cells on the basis of a Digital Elevation Model, with two velocities  
19 defining the corrivation time for each cell. The runoff estimated at cell scale is routed to  
20 the outlet section without accounting for channel storage and re-infiltration. Initial soil  
21 moisture is estimated using an Antecedent Precipitation Index (API) methodology based  
22 on the precipitation that occurred during the month preceding the event. The model has 5  
23 parameters that are generally calibrated with the aim of reproducing the time-to-peak and

1 peak of streamflow values, as well as other available information regarding the stream  
2 network.

3 RainFARM (Rebora et al. 2006) is a downscaling model that produces an  
4 ensemble of high-resolution precipitation fields by preserving the information at the large  
5 scale derived from a QPF. The model parameters ( $\alpha$ : spatial spectral slope;  $\beta$ : temporal  
6 spectral slope) are estimated on the basis of the spatial and temporal structure of the  
7 rainfall field derived by a NWP model. Once having defined  $l_{\text{met}}$  and  $t_{\text{met}}$ , the reliable  
8 spatial and temporal scales of the NWP model, RainFARM generates an ensemble (size  
9  $N$ ) of small-scale (e.g. spatial resolution 1 km, temporal resolution 0.5 hours)  
10 precipitation fields that are consistent with radar observations of mid-latitude  
11 precipitation events, and that maintain the volume and the spatial-temporal structure of  
12 the original rainfall field at the scale  $l_{\text{met}}$  and  $t_{\text{met}}$ . This application used  $N=50$  ensemble  
13 members. Each precipitation field was then used as input of the hydrological model, in  
14 order to generate fifty streamflow scenarios on each catchment on the scale of one square  
15 kilometer. The results were then post-processed to produce flood forecasts. As in  
16 Silvestro et al. (2011), two different approaches to the hydrological prediction were  
17 considered: single-site and multi-catchment (Siccardi et al. 2005).

18 Letting  $l_{\text{hydro}}$ ,  $t_{\text{hydro}}$  denote the scales of the hydrological processes (Rebora et al.  
19 2006) and following Siccardi et al. (2005) the single-site approach was applied when  
20  $O(l_{\text{met}}/l_{\text{hydro}}) < 10^2$ , while multi-catchment approach was applied when  $O(l_{\text{met}}/l_{\text{hydro}}) > 10^2$ .  
21 In the present application we considered as reliable meteorological scales  $l_{\text{met}} \sim 15$  km and  
22  $t_{\text{met}} = 6$  hours, which are those used in the operational forecasting chain, implying that  
23 single-site approach can be applied to basins larger than  $200\text{--}300$  km<sup>2</sup>. Since  $l_{\text{met}}$  is

1 maintained as constant, RainFARM aggregates a different number of MOLOCH rainfall  
2 pixels for different horizontal resolutions. In the case of the single-site approach, the  
3 probability that a certain flow threshold (or the flow with given return period T) is  
4 exceeded is directly evaluated.

5 In Liguria, a frequency analysis of the peak discharges based on a regional  
6 approach is available (Boni 2000; Boni et al. 2007). This kind of approach allows an  
7 estimation of peak flows for fixed return periods and for each basin based on two  
8 components: an index flow function of basin characteristics (i.e. drainage area) and a  
9 regional growth curve.

10 For smaller basins, a multi-catchment approach needs to be considered. The  
11 drawback of this method is that the forecasting procedure does not allow for any  
12 discrimination between different spatial localizations. Therefore, every basin cannot be  
13 analyzed as an independent entity, but all the basins are considered together inside  
14 domains of size  $l_{met}$  or larger.

15 For applications to the Liguria Region operational forecasting chain, the reference  
16 domain is assumed to be the alert sub-region. The average size of the catchments  
17 included within the alert sub-regions is on the order of 10 to 100 km<sup>2</sup> to the south and  
18 slightly larger to the north of the Apennine divide. For each alert sub-region a different  
19 forecast is produced. The procedure evaluates the probability that, in at least one basin of  
20 the specific alert sub-region, the flow with given return period T will be exceeded:  $Pm(T)$   
21  $= Ie/N$ , where  $Ie$  is the number of ensemble members producing a flow with return period  
22 greater than T in at least one basin. This procedure does not specify which basin will be  
23 affected due to the uncertainty associated with the meteorological forecast. The multi-

1 catchment procedure represents an essential paradigm in flood forecasts in very small  
2 basins (Siccardi et al. 2005) for those involved in civil protection at both the scientific  
3 and political levels of decision making.

4

### 5 **3. Meteorological perspective**

#### 6 *a. The Case studies*

7 A detailed description and a hydro-meteorological characterization of both events  
8 can be found in Rebora et al. (2013) and Buzzi et al. (2014), while more details on the  
9 GE case are reported in Silvestro et al. (2012) and Fiori et al. (2014). However, for the  
10 sake of clarity, the main synoptic and mesoscale aspects are described below.

11 Both heavy precipitation events were associated with a deep low-pressure system  
12 located close to the British Isles and a large scale Atlantic trough that progressively  
13 deepened over the Mediterranean basin, and were characterized by an upper-level  
14 positive potential vorticity (PV) anomaly over Western Europe. This pattern also  
15 produced an intense moist air advection from subtropical areas and induced a upper-level  
16 diffluent southwesterly flow over the Liguria Region, supporting upward motion. In the  
17 GE case, moreover, the moisture content was significantly enhanced by the remnants of  
18 the tropical storm Rina (Silvestro et al. 2012), which had merged with the mid-latitude  
19 storm track few days earlier. Due to the presence of a pressure ridge over Eastern Europe,  
20 the eastward progression of the synoptic wave and of the associated frontal system was  
21 slow, keeping the precipitation systems largely stationary. A moist low-level  
22 southeasterly jet over the Tyrrhenian Sea developed, channeled between Corsica and the  
23 Italian coast. At the same time, the cold air mass formed in the previous days over the Po

1 Valley was forced to flow southward across the gaps in the Apennines, reaching the  
2 Ligurian Sea in response to intense low-level winds entering the Po Valley from the  
3 Adriatic side. This complex wind pattern produced a sharp convergence line over the  
4 Ligurian Sea (Fig. 12 of Buzzi et al. (2014) clearly illustrates the described convergence  
5 pattern), as observed and confirmed by satellite data analysis, where the convective  
6 activity was triggered and then sustained by the presence of convective available  
7 potential energy (CAPE) and remarkable vertical wind shear. Wind direction turned from  
8 southeasterly to southwesterly within 2000 meters from the surface.

9 In the CT event, the convective activity organized in association with a similar  
10 convergence line, where different convective cells developed and regenerated during the  
11 day. As revealed by radar observations, these cells formed along a convective line over  
12 the sea and moved towards an area where complex orography played a role in focusing  
13 and amplifying the precipitating cells. The accumulated rainfall (Fig. 2) was exceptional  
14 both in terms of the hourly rain rate (with a peak of 150 mm/h) and of the total  
15 precipitation (more than 500 mm in 12 hours).

16 The GE case was characterized by a pre-frontal mesoscale convective system  
17 (MCS) that formed in association with a convergence line, which remained almost  
18 stationary near the city of Genoa until the synoptic front swept over the region, steering  
19 the MCS with it. Again, localized and exceptional precipitation affected the region. Rain-  
20 gauge measurements exceeded 180 mm/h and registered more than 500 mm totally (Fig.  
21 3).

22 Buzzi et al. (2014) identified some further mesoscale aspects responsible for  
23 differences in the development of the two systems and, consequently, for differences in

1 their rainfall. It is relevant for this study to highlight the differences between the  
2 thermodynamic profiles characterizing the air masses within the low-level jet over the  
3 Tyrrhenian Sea, feeding the convective systems (Fig. 4). MOLOCH simulations reveal  
4 that, although CAPE values are similar (of the order of  $1000 \text{ J kg}^{-1}$ ), the CT event is  
5 characterized by a larger instability, the level of free convection (LFC) being very close  
6 to the surface. Conversely, the thermodynamic diagram for the GE case clearly shows  
7 that a relevant vertical forcing is needed in order to overcome the inhibition, the LFC  
8 being pretty high (around 1500 m). The orographic uplift over the Apennine may have  
9 contributed, to some extent, providing the forcing that triggered the convection. These  
10 characteristics appear realistic when compared with observations: during the CT event,  
11 rainfall was widespread over the Ligurian Sea; while in the GE case, rainfall was more  
12 concentrated and close to the coast.

13

#### 14 *b. Numerical Results*

15 For the CT case, the most satisfactory MOLOCH QPF is obtained by initializing  
16 the NWP chain with NOAA-GFS global analysis. Although the differences are not  
17 remarkable, GFS-based MOLOCH simulations provide more intense rainfall maxima  
18 than IFS-based runs. Figure 5 shows the total accumulated precipitation forecast by  
19 MOLOCH at different horizontal grid spacings. Heavy precipitation is located over the  
20 coastal orographic range and the Apennines near the border between Liguria and  
21 Tuscany. The rainfall intensity over the area affected by the flood tends to increase going  
22 from 3 km to 1.5 km grid spacing, with maximum values accumulated in 18 hours rising  
23 from 175 mm to 318 mm, respectively, thus getting closer to the observed exceptional



1 amount of about 500 mm. Moving to the highest horizontal resolution simulation (1 km),  
2 the rainfall maximum presents a slightly lower absolute value, about 300 mm. However,  
3 it is worth noting that, in the 1 km mesh size run, the spatially integrated precipitation is  
4 somewhat larger (integrated precipitation generally increases with increasing model  
5 resolution). By analyzing the hourly evolution of the rainfall field (not shown) at the  
6 highest resolution, it becomes clear that the model produces more scattered convective  
7 cells affecting slightly different inland areas. The final picture is thus characterized by a  
8 less compact structure of the rainfall field.

9 For the GE event, better results are obtained using ECMWF-IFS analysis.  
10 MOLOCH forecast precipitation is shown in Fig. 6. As described earlier, the rainfall is  
11 concentrated near the MCS rather than being widespread over the sea, which agrees with  
12 available radar observations. In this case, rainfall maxima increase steadily with  
13 increasing model horizontal resolution, from 199 mm to 352 mm in 18 hours. The  
14 evolution of the MCS is qualitatively similar in the four forecasts, but its intensity  
15 remarkably improves at high-resolution. Moreover, as the grid spacing decreases, the  
16 MCS is shifted progressively eastward, getting closer to the observed position where  
17 most of the heavy rainfall was recorded. As expected, the high-resolution allows for a  
18 more accurate representation of the small-scale mechanisms involved in the MCS  
19 dynamics, including its interaction with the orography, and for the accurate simulation of  
20 the low-level convergence line, which is a crucial factor for the correct prediction of the  
21 MCS position. MOLOCH simulations are able to correctly reproduce the “finger-like”  
22 structure (Parodi et al. 2012) observed from remote sensing platforms only at suitably  
23 high horizontal resolution (less than 2 km).

1

## 2 **4. Impacts on Flood Forecast**

3 Hydrological verification was done using the simulations obtained by feeding  
4 DRiFt with the observed rainfall as benchmark. Observed streamflow is available only  
5 for a small number of modeled sections. However, different analyses of the event show  
6 that the hydrological simulations accurately reproduced what effectively happened in  
7 terms of peak flows (see, for example, Silvestro et al. 2012). Since the objective is to  
8 evaluate the impact of different NWP chain configurations (i.e. initialization and  
9 MOLOCH horizontal resolution), an analysis of the hydrological model performance  
10 with respect to streamflow observations is out of the scope of this work. The modeled  
11 hydrograph (Berenguer et al. 2005) is thus assumed as truth (or reference). The time  
12 range of the meteorological forecasts is 24 hours. The length of the hydrological  
13 simulation is equal to the time range of the meteorological forecasts plus twice the  
14 concentration time of the basin, which is assumed to be 12 hours.

15

### 16 *a. CT Event: 25 October 2011*

17 The CT event mainly hit the alert sub-region C (Figs. 1 and 2), in the eastern part  
18 of the Liguria Region. The most relevant effects in terms of streamflow occurred on the  
19 Vara and Magra basins. Vara is a tributary of the Magra River with an area of about 600  
20 km<sup>2</sup>. The entire Magra basin, closed at its outlet in the Mediterranean Sea, has an area of  
21 1660 km<sup>2</sup>. Several very small basins along the western coast of Liguria (the Cinque Terre  
22 region) were affected by the flood. However, they are not operationally modeled by the  
23 HFC operational at the HMFC.

1           In Fig. 7, the results of the multi-catchment approach are reported. The panels  
2 show the impact on flood prediction of different MOLOCH horizontal resolutions and of  
3 different global analyses used to initialize the NWP chain. On the X axis the return period  
4 T is shown, while the Y axis reports the probability that at least one basin that belongs to  
5 alert sub-region C will exceed a certain T. As a reference point, the maximum T  
6 (hereafter observed T) that occurred during the event in a modeled section belonging to  
7 the sub-region C is shown by the red vertical line. All the HFC configurations  
8 underestimate the flood intensity, since the occurrence of observed T always has a  
9 negligible or null probability. In terms of real-time decisions, whether such a prediction  
10 could have brought forecasters to issue an alert would strongly depend on the experience  
11 of the forecasters themselves. A posteriori evaluation of the probabilistic forecasts may  
12 be done using ad-hoc techniques (Panziera et al. 2013), but from an operational point of  
13 view this matter is quite tricky, since the benchmark of the observed T is not available  
14 during real-time operations. However, the interesting and encouraging result is that the  
15 performance of the chain improves with increasing MOLOCH resolution, at least up to a  
16 certain point. This is more evident with the chain initialized with GFS. This improvement  
17 can be clearly noted until the 1.5 km grid mesh size; a further decrease in grid spacing  
18 (from 1.5 to 1 km) does not correspond to a significant improvement in the multi-basin  
19 discharge prediction. The latter result is consistent with the meteorological discussion of  
20 Section 3b.

21           The single-site results are presented for three significant sections of the Magra  
22 basin: the two sections upstream where the Vara and Magra join, and the outlet to the sea.  
23 The results are presented in terms of box plot of the peak flows for every basin (Fig. 8). A

1 box plot is built for each of the three selected sections; on the X axis the drainage area is  
2 reported, while on the Y axis the peak flows normalized with the index flow (Boni 2000;  
3 Boni et al. 2007) are shown. The normalized peak flows obtained using observed  
4 precipitation as input into the hydrological chain are indicated (diamonds) and represent  
5 the benchmark. The underestimation of the discharges is again evident: the benchmarks  
6 are always outside and at higher values than both the boxes representing the interquartile  
7 and the whiskers corresponding to the maximum range. This means that all the  
8 streamflow scenarios are always lower than the benchmark. Again the trend is good since  
9 the values associated with boxes and whiskers increase somewhat, getting closer to the  
10 benchmark, for the discharges driven by the 1.5 km (1 km) MOLOCH prediction driven  
11 by the ECMWF (GFS) global model.

12

13 *b. GE Event: 04 November 2011*

14 In the GE case, floods mainly hit the alert sub-region B (Figs. 1 and 3), in the  
15 central part of the Liguria Region. The event was really concentrated in and affected with  
16 particular severity a portion of the city of Genoa, causing the flooding of the Bisagno  
17 creek and of its tributary the Fereggiano. As for the CT event, the discharge forecasts  
18 (Fig. 9) underestimated the severity of the episode, but the improvements achieved by  
19 increasing MOLOCH spatial resolution are evident for both NWP modeling chains, either  
20 initialized with GFS or ECMWF data. The 3 km resolution configuration hardly caught  
21 the event in terms of hydrological response, since the rainfall maximum (Fig. 6a) was  
22 greatly underestimated and located to the west of the observed position. However,  
23 feeding the hydrological chain with the 1-km-resolution MOLOCH rainfall field yielded

1 T=5 years with probability 30% (60%) and T=10 years with probability 5% (10%) for  
2 GFS (ECMWF) initialization. Again, the hydrological prediction confirmed the  
3 meteorological analysis of the previous section. In the GE case, very high-resolution is  
4 required in order to properly represent the small-scale features associated with the  
5 isolated MCS, both during the triggering phase and the mature stage, in order to represent  
6 the important role played by the orography. The increase of rainfall intensity and the  
7 eastward displacement of the precipitation maximum with increasing MOLOCH  
8 horizontal resolution produced a better agreement with rain-gauge observations and,  
9 consequently, an improvement of the discharge forecasts.

10 Results of the single-site approach are not presented because all the basins  
11 belonging to sub-region B have a drainage area smaller than 200 km<sup>2</sup>.

12

## 13 **5. Discussion and Conclusions**

14 This paper showed the implications for flood forecasting of improving the  
15 horizontal resolution of the NWP system used as input of an operational probabilistic  
16 hydrological forecasting chain for two severe flood events in the Liguria Region  
17 (Northern Italy). Moreover, the impact of two possible initializations of the NWP system,  
18 using NCEP-GFS or ECMWF-IFS global model data, was investigated. The whole model  
19 chain – composed of two meteorological models applied in succession to attain high-  
20 resolution QPF (BOLAM-MOLOCH), a rainfall downscaling module (RainFARM), and  
21 a hydrological model (DRiFt) – was implemented for two major floods that occurred  
22 during autumn 2011. In this way, QPF provided by different configurations of the

1 meteorological modeling chain was validated in a pragmatic framework through an  
2 operational flood forecasting system.

3         Results were different in the two cases, mainly because the two events presented  
4 different meteorological characteristics (Buzzi et al. 2014) during both the convection-  
5 triggering phase and the subsequent development of the most intense rainfall. In the GE  
6 event (04 November 2011), higher spatial resolution resulted more clearly in an improved  
7 QPF, due to a better description of the isolated MCS and of its interaction with the  
8 orography. The positive impact due to the reduction of the horizontal grid spacing was  
9 confirmed also in terms of hydrological predictions, since the flood forecasting results  
10 were remarkably improved. High NWP resolution also turned out to be beneficial for  
11 discharge prediction for the CT event (25 October 2011), although to a lesser extent. The  
12 meteorological evolution in this case was characterized by a more unstable low-level  
13 flow that produced less organized convection; the precipitating systems were less  
14 connected to the mesoscale convergence line over the sea that provided an extended  
15 range of predictability with respect to scattered convective activity (Buzzi et al. 2014).  
16 However, even considering the best setup in terms of driving global model and  
17 MOLOCH horizontal resolution, the severity of the floods was underestimated, at least in  
18 terms of peak-flows, in both events.

19         Although the multi-catchment approach was not able to provide information about  
20 the exact location of the forecast maximum discharge, it was particularly suitable for  
21 model validation since it took into account possible and unavoidable uncertainties in the  
22 QPF. In fact, displacement errors that occur quite often with convective systems that  
23 develop over complex orography can be relevant for hydrological applications, especially

1 when dealing with single, small-size catchments such as those characterizing the Liguria  
2 territory. In this case, the uncertainties related to the different scales of the meteorological  
3 forecasts and the hydrological response are emphasized by the unpredictability of the  
4 correct localization and intensity of the most intense rainfall structures. The multi-  
5 catchment method tries to deal with the difficulty of discriminating between one basin  
6 and another, expressing the forecast in terms of the probability of exceeding a flow  
7 within a given return period on pre-defined regions. It highlights possible critical  
8 situations even when their probability is very low (when considering the forecast for each  
9 single basin separately).

10       Employing higher-resolution configurations surely would have helped predict in  
11 both the cases here analyzed, that events of considerable intensity were going to occur  
12 and allowed warnings to be issued. This is especially evident for the GE event: the lowest  
13 horizontal resolution run generated a discharge prediction typical of a normal rainfall  
14 event while the high-resolution forecasts indeed produced severe rainfall and discharge  
15 scenarios that would have led to the issuing of a warning or an alert. A civil protection  
16 system usually defines only a limited number of alert levels, and in the case of Liguria  
17 Region only two alert levels can be issued (Silvestro et. al 2012), based on the subjective  
18 decision of the forecaster and on how much risk the decision maker is willing to take.  
19 Since issuing alerts is a threshold process, once the forecaster or the decision maker has  
20 decided to issue the maximum level of alert, nothing more can be done from the point of  
21 view of the forecast, and it does not actually matter if the event turns out to be more  
22 severe than expected. In fact, at that point the civil protection machine has been primed  
23 and the authorities in charge of performing actions (e.g. regional and municipal figures

1 police, firefighters) must carry out the measures needed to reduce damages and  
2 casualties. We cannot state with certainty what level of alert would have been issued if  
3 the high-resolution chains here described had been available at the time of the events  
4 (Ramos et al. 2013, provides a clear insight on the critical role of decision makers in  
5 flood forecasting), but we are confident in stating that the 1–1.5 km horizontal resolution  
6 configurations produced flood forecasts severe enough to alert decision makers to the  
7 potential for a dangerous event.

8         These results cannot be considered as general, since two case studies are certainly  
9 not enough to draw robust conclusions. However, since the meteo-hydrological chain has  
10 been already set up, it will be possible to verify the present results for other events, in  
11 particular those that occurred during the HyMeX SOP1 field campaign, exploiting the  
12 availability of detailed observations.

13         Finally, it must be noted that a very recent event, the Genoa flood of 9 October  
14 2014, with characteristics very similar to those described above, caused one casualty and  
15 damages estimated at hundred of millions of euros. Most of the models initialized the  
16 morning of 9 October severely under-predicted the total precipitation. Again, preliminary  
17 experiments performed on this new flood episode emphasize the crucial role that  
18 employing high-horizontal resolution meteorological models could play, and how  
19 important is to provide these tools to forecasters and decision makers as quickly as  
20 possible.

21

22

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7

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15 drainage area of the three basins. Y-axis: normalized peak flow (see text). Diamonds  
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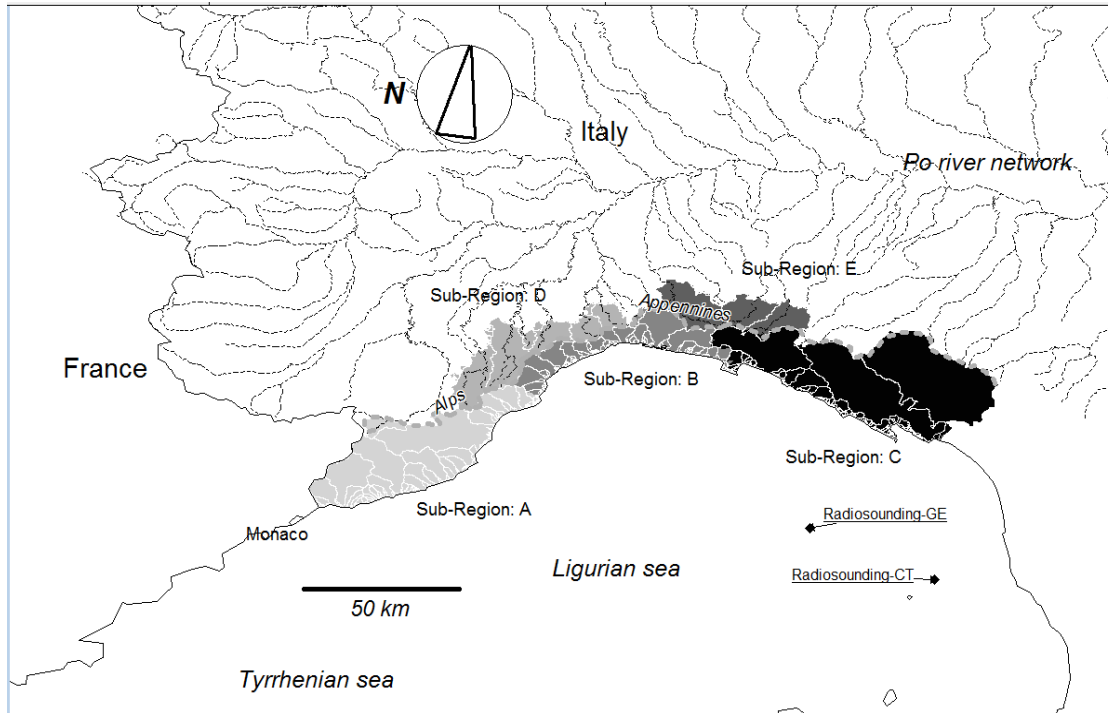
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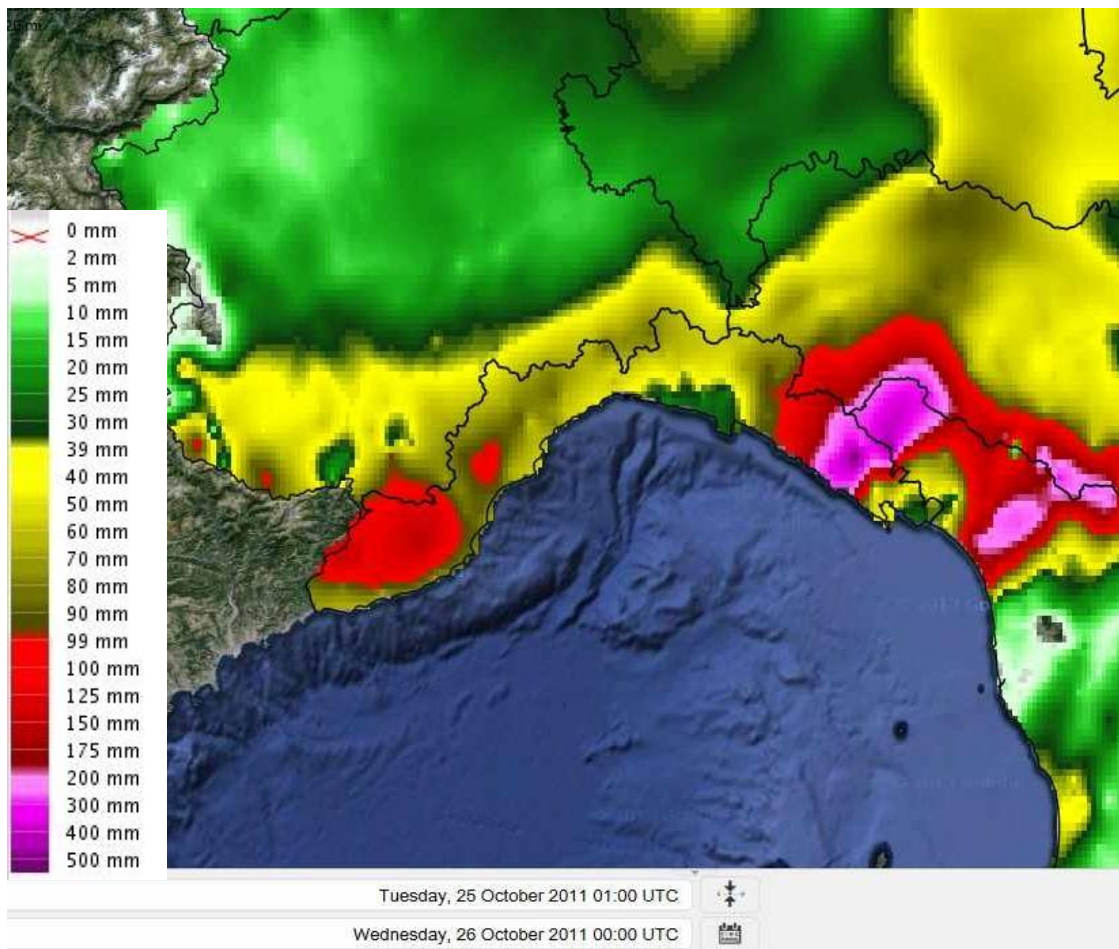
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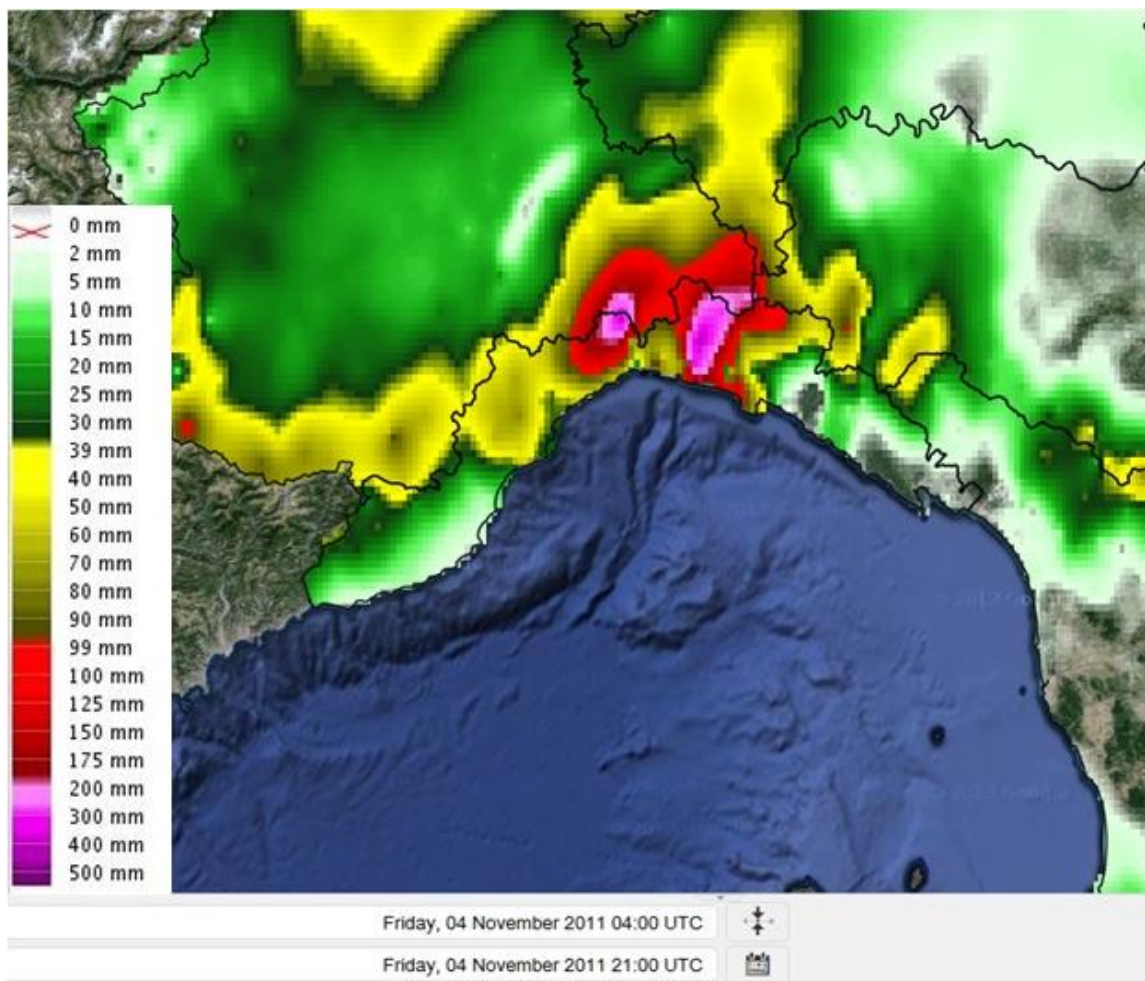
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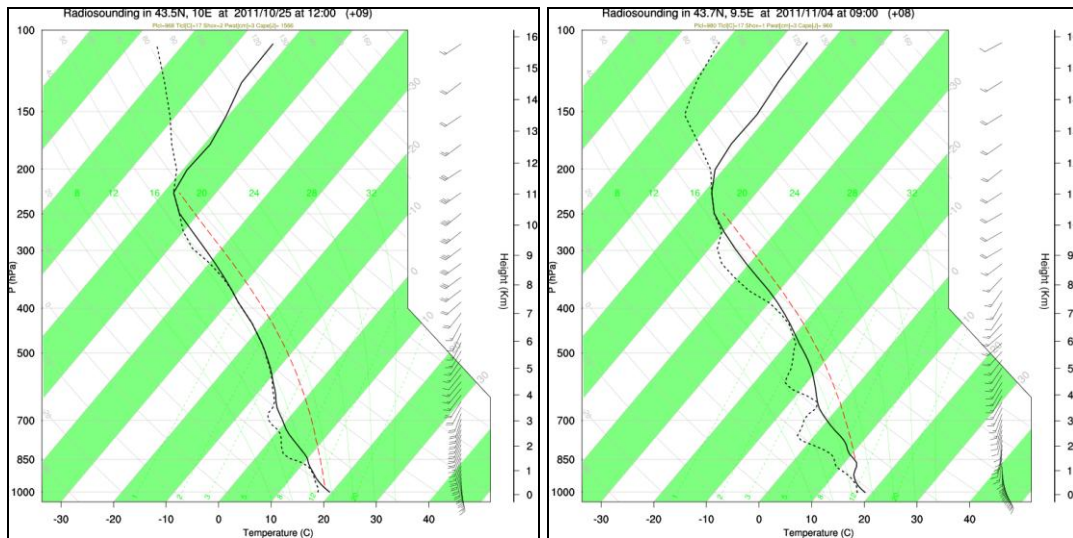


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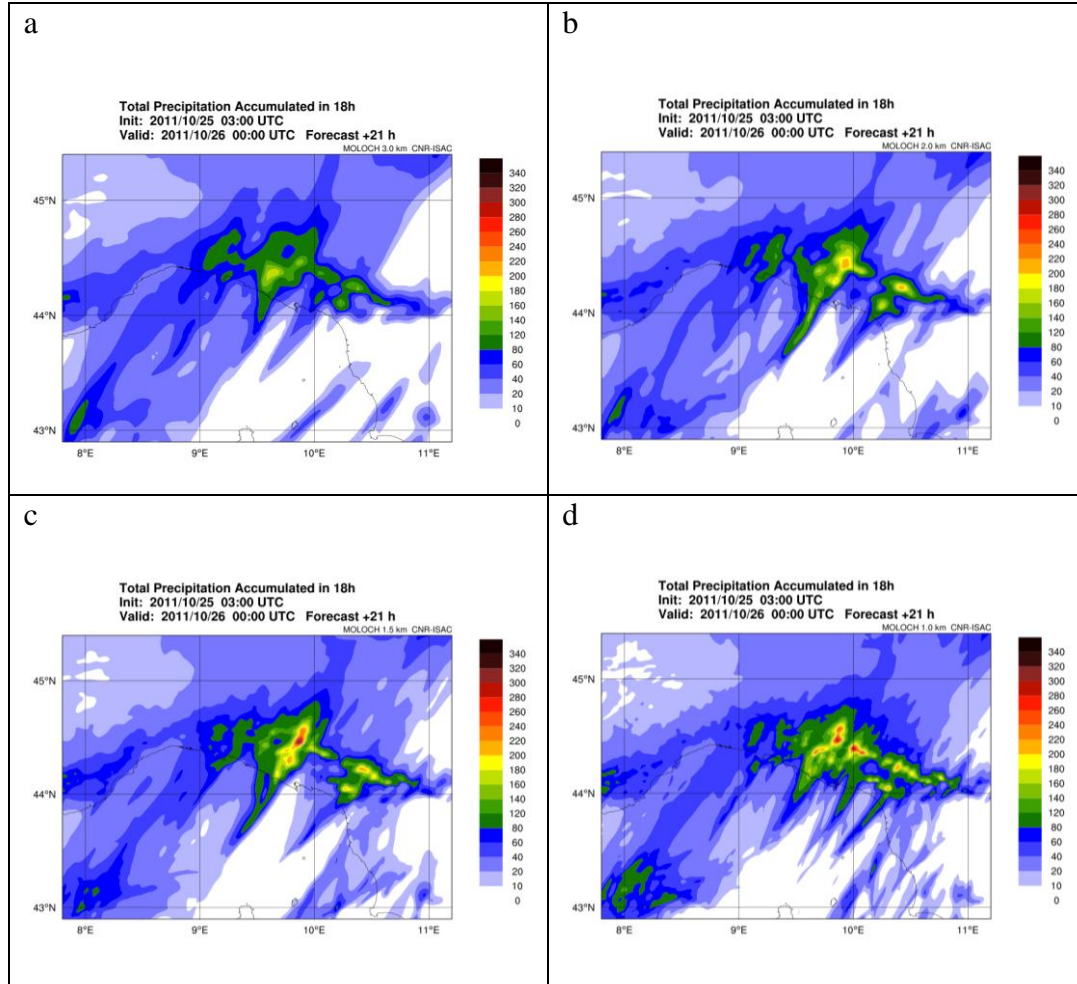
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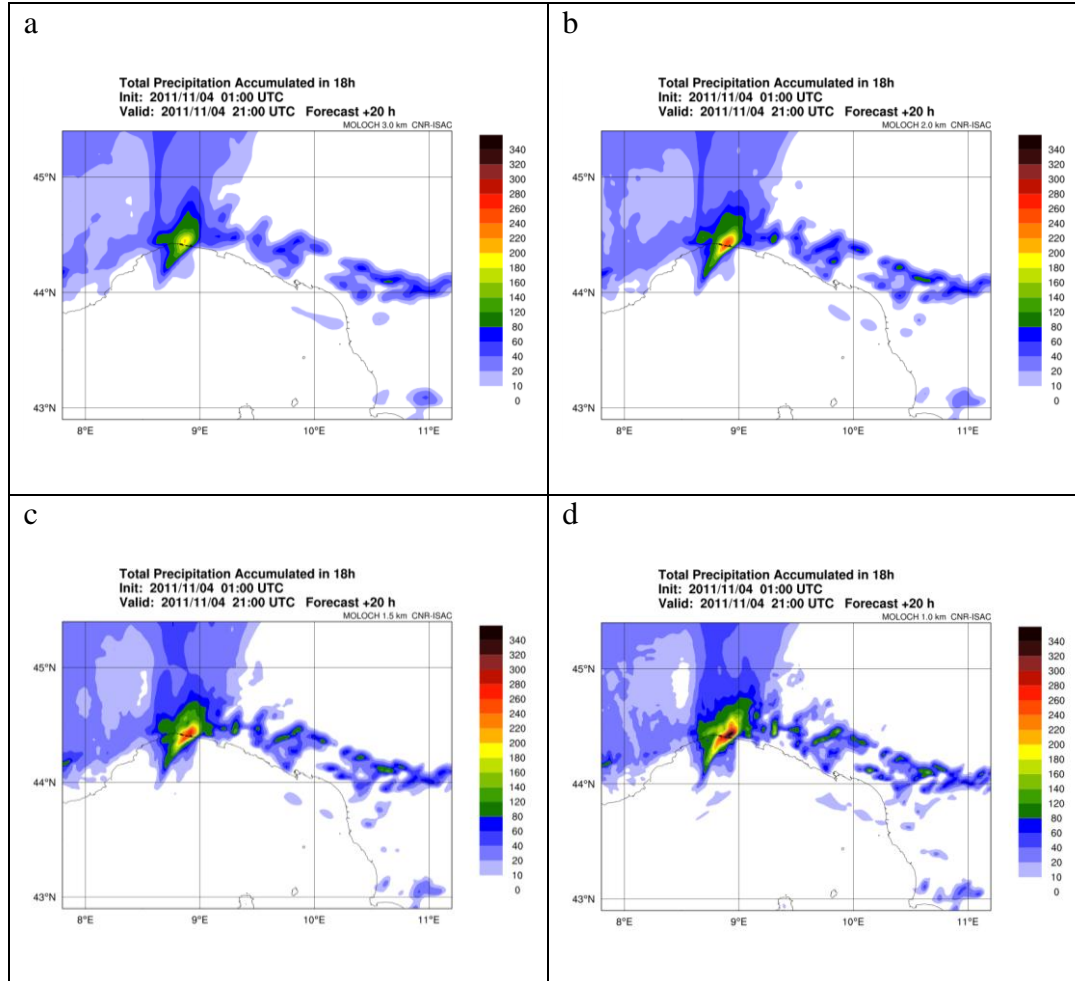
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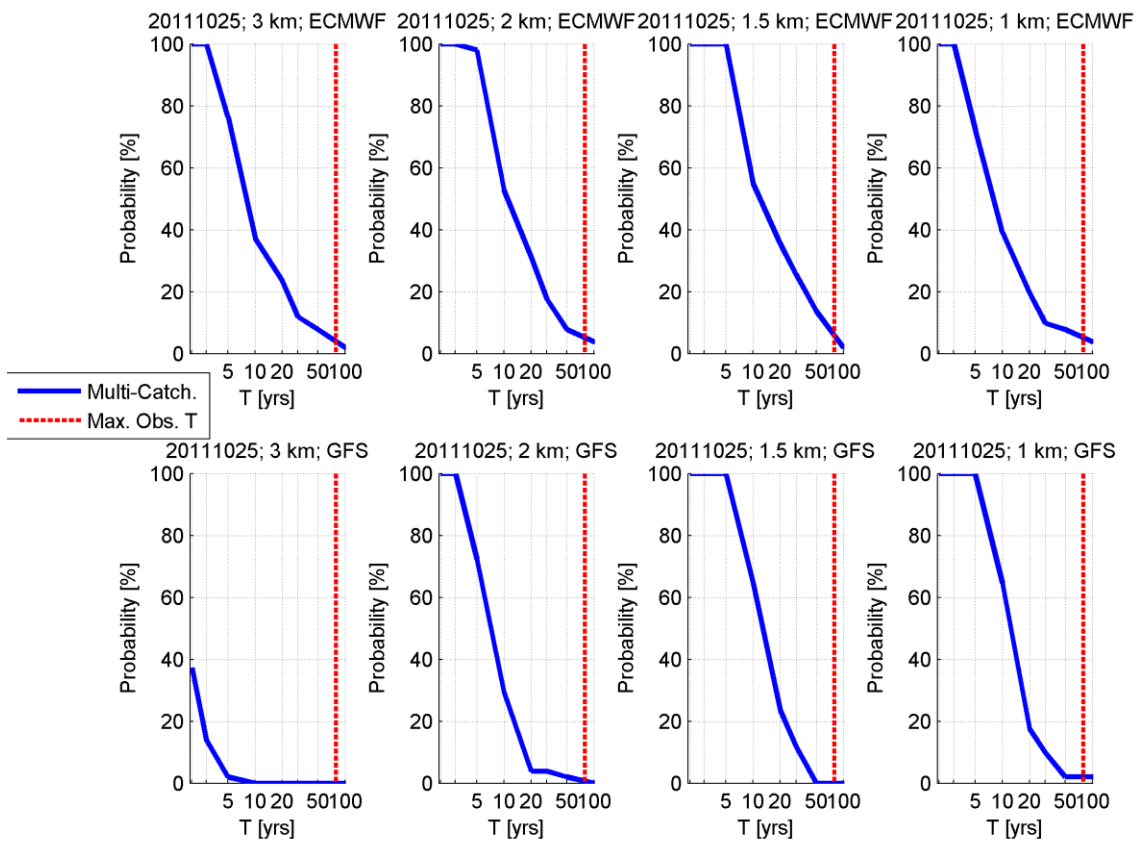
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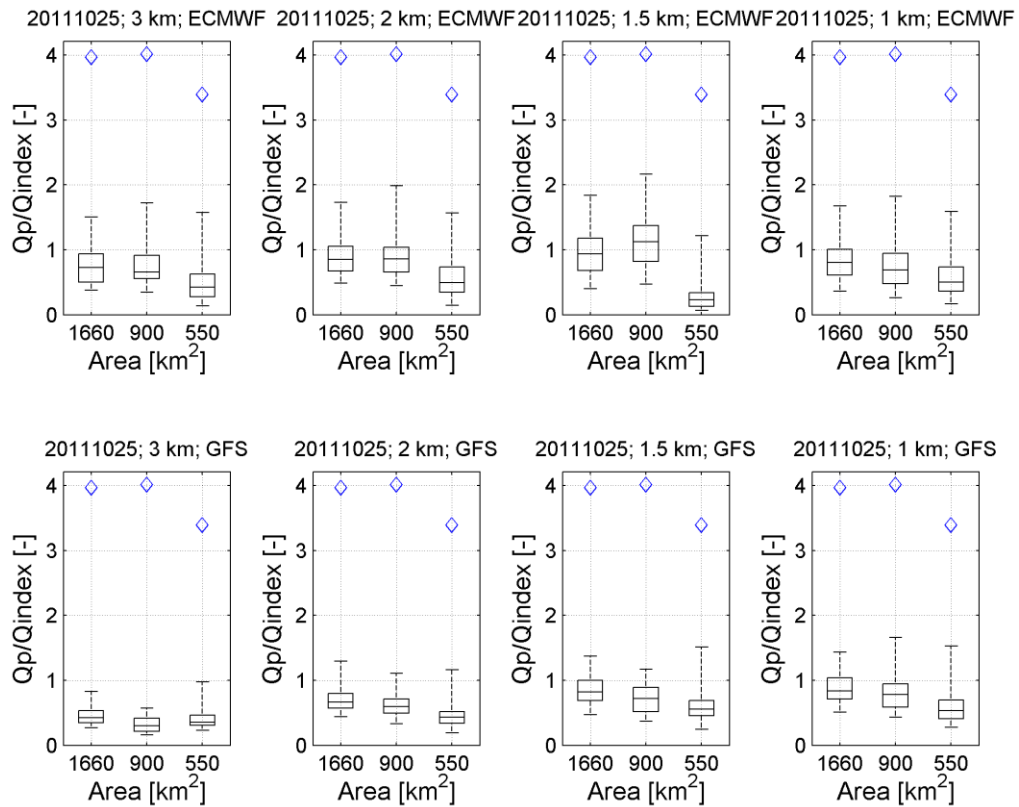
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 4 panels) models, for different MOLOCH horizontal resolutions. X-axis: return period T.  
 5 Y-axis: probability of exceeding the return period in at least one basin within the  
 6 considered region. The red vertical line indicates the maximum observed T.

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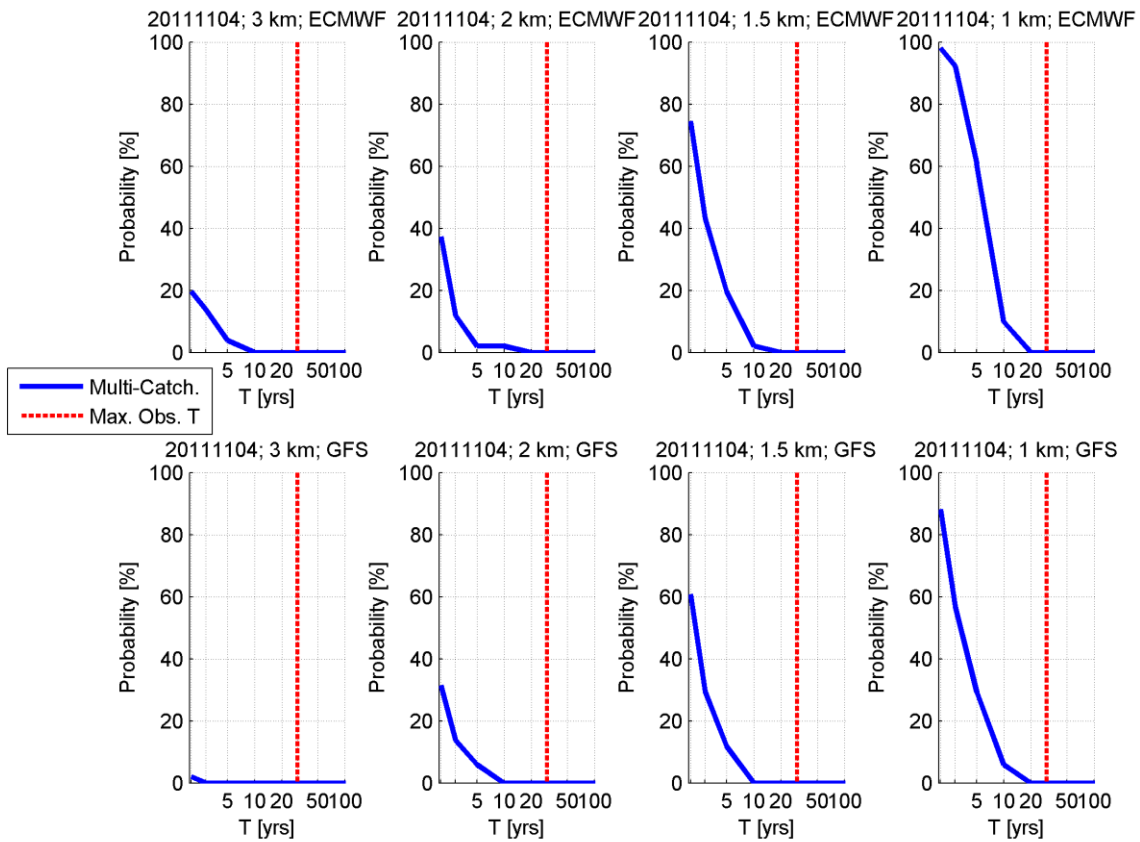


1

2 FIGURE 8. CT event (25 Oct 2011). Results for the single-site approach using the NWP  
 3 chain driven by ECMWF (upper panels) and GFS (lower panels), for different MOLOCH  
 4 horizontal resolutions, at three significant outlet sections. X-axis: dimension of the  
 5 drainage area of the three basins. Y-axis: normalized peak flow (see text). Diamonds  
 6 indicate the normalized peak flows obtained using observed precipitation as input of the  
 7 hydrological chain.

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9



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2 FIGURE 9. GE event (04 Nov 2011). Results for the multi-catchment hydrological  
 3 approach using the NWP chain driven by ECMWF (upper panels) and GFS (lower  
 4 panels), for different MOLOCH horizontal resolutions. X-axis: return period T. Y-axis:  
 5 probability of exceeding the return period in at least one basin within the considered  
 6 region. The red vertical line indicates the maximum observed T.

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