

1 **To develop a progressive multimetric configuration optimisation**
2 **method for WRF simulations of extreme rainfall events over**
3 **Egypt**

4
5 **Ying Liu^{a,*}, Yiheng Chen^a, Otto Chen^a, Jiao Wang^a, Lu Zhuo^{b,*}, Miguel A. Rico-**
6 **Ramirez^a and Dawei Han^a**

7 ^aDepartment of Civil Engineering, University of Bristol, Bristol, BS8 1TR, UK

8 ^bDepartment of Civil and Structural Engineering, University of Sheffield, Sheffield, S1 3JD, UK

9
10 *Corresponding author.

11 E-mail address: emily.liu@bristol.ac.uk (Y. Liu), lu.zhuo@sheffield.ac.uk (L. Zhuo)

12
13 **Abstract**

14 The Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model can help to improve our understanding of
15 analysing and forecasting hydrometeorological disasters. Especially for some regions like the Nile Delta,
16 which faces growing climate hazards but has inadequate in situ rainfall observations. However,
17 identifying an optimal configuration to run the WRF model is often a challenge. In this study, the WRF
18 model was used to simulate extreme rainfall events at high spatial and temporal resolutions centered
19 around Alexandria, in northern Egypt. In particular, a progressive multimetric configuration
20 optimisation (PMCO) method is proposed to identify the possible optimal configurations of WRF in the
21 aspect of domain size, numbers of vertical levels, nesting ratio, spin-up times, and physical
22 parameterization schemes (microphysics, planetary boundary layer, and cumulus), based on 48

23 specifically designed experiments. The simulation performances are quantified and sorted by the
24 Technique for Order of Preference by Similarity to Ideal Solution (TOPSIS). All WRF simulations use
25 the ERA5 reanalysis dataset as boundary conditions and the WRF results are verified against the
26 Integrated Multi-satellitE Retrievals for GPM (IMERG). The results show that the rainfall distribution
27 and magnitude are most sensitive to the spin-up time and physical parameterization schemes. It is also
28 observed that the improvement of WRF's reproducibility of rainfall intensity is usually accompanied by
29 a decrease in the reproducibility of rainfall distribution. The best model configuration for the study area
30 comprises of three-level nesting (D01 80x80; D02 112x112; D03 88x88), 58 vertical levels, 1:3:3
31 downscaling ratio, 48h spin-up time, WRF Single-Moment 6-class microphysics scheme, Mellor-
32 Yamada-Janjic planetary boundary layer scheme, and Grell-Freitas cumulus. The stability of this
33 configuration is also verified with the other three extreme rainfall events over Egypt. The results show
34 that there exists a common WRF configuration set in Egypt that produces the relatively good
35 simulations for extreme rainfall events.

36 **Keywords**

37 WRF rainfall simulation; ERA5; IMERG; PMCO method; Egypt.

38

39 **1 Introduction**

40 One of the most challenging parts of flood forecasting is the lack of meteorological observations,
41 especially rainfall. In real-time flood forecasting, rainfall needs to be forecasted to extend the flood
42 forecast lead time, which enables the implementation of flood control more promptly (Brath et al., 1988;
43 Cluckie and Han, 2000). Nevertheless, for many catchments in the world, the locations of the rain
44 gauges are too sparse to provide accurate and representative catchment rainfall measurements (Dai et
45 al., 2017) or are non-existent. Therefore, numerical weather prediction (NWP) models are very useful

46 tools for the development of flood forecasting systems because they are able to simulate the atmospheric
47 processes with high spatial and temporal resolutions (Zhuo et al., 2019). However, these models often
48 have a wide range of configuration options available and this diversity brings its own problems at the
49 same time. Because of the occurrence of high-dimensional and nonlinear interactions, it becomes highly
50 complex to identify the best set of physical, dynamical and computational configurations (Nossent et
51 al., 2011). Thus, examining the sensitivity of models to the changes in their configuration options
52 constitutes an essential evaluation work. These sensitivity tests can not only help improve our
53 understanding of how NWP models work, but also help identify which model parameters need to be
54 specified more accurately (Barnsley, 2007). In addition, sensitivity analysis can give modelers useful
55 information about the choice and influence of model configurations. Besides the large number of
56 options, another critical problem for NWP models is that the best configuration combination of one
57 region is not necessarily applicable to others (Krieger et al., 2009). In the past twenty years, many WRF
58 configuration studies to simulate rainfall have been done in regions with rich
59 meteorological/hydrological data, such as Beijing (Di et al., 2015; Chu et al., 2018), southwest England
60 (Liu et al., 2012; Yang et al., 2019) and the United States (Pei et al., 2014; Li et al., 2014), while limited
61 studies have been carried out over Egypt (ElTahan and Magooda, 2017). Due to the lack of surface
62 radars and rain gauges in Egypt, the development of their flood forecasting system would benefit from
63 numerical weather models. If an early flood warning system can be well established, the flood damages
64 and losses could be mitigated while the water resources could be managed for other uses like
65 agricultural and residential water supply. The previous study only evaluated the impact of different
66 microphysics schemes on WRF rainfall simulations over Egypt (ElTahan and Magooda, 2017). There
67 are still many uncertainties in the model configuration that have not been fully explored. Thus, it is

68 meaningful to carry out an extensive sensitivity test and identify optimal WRF configurations to
69 simulate rainfall processes over Egypt.

70

71 The Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model is one of the most commonly used NWP models.

72 It offers multiple domain and physics configurations that can be combined in a wide range of ways.

73 According to Awan et al. (2011), the dependence of WRF on different domain sizes, horizontal and

74 vertical resolutions, initial and boundary conditions, numerical solvers, terrain and vegetation features,

75 along with assimilation and nudging techniques result in varied results. Previous studies have evaluated

76 the sensitivity of the model to these configurations. Seth and Rojas (2003) demonstrated that

77 simulations of small domain sizes could suppress the feedback from local disturbances on the large-

78 scale general circulation and then easier to benefit from lateral boundary conditions. However,

79 Vannitsem and Chomé (2005) also noted that too small domain sizes would prevent detailed mesoscale

80 processes from being developed in the area of interest. To balance the trade-off of domain sizes, the

81 WRF official guidance (Warner, 2011) recommends that the domain sizes should contain the major

82 features of the regional mesoscale circulation systems, and at least five grid points exist between

83 adjacent nested domains to have sufficient space for relaxation. In WRF, domain size implicitly decides

84 the impacts of terrain and large-scale dynamics, while the horizontal and vertical grid spacings decide

85 the smallest resolution (Goswami et al., 2012). It is reasonable to expect that WRF runs with small grid

86 spacings can produce good results because such simulations could resolve more small-scale features

87 that are contained in the boundary conditions. However, there are many studies showings that WRF

88 runs at relatively high resolutions not necessarily produce accurate outputs (Roberts and Lean, 2008;

89 Kain et al., 2008; Schwartz et al., 2009). Liu et al. (2012) and Knivvel et al. (2004) also demonstrated

90 that the performance of WRF to forecast rainfall decreased with the increase of the nesting ratio. A
91 similar conclusion was drawn by Aligo et al. (2009) who concluded that too small vertical grid spacings
92 tend to weaken the WRF rainfall simulation performance. Chu et al. (2018) suggested that WRF rainfall
93 simulations with horizontal and vertical grid spacings of approximately 4 km and less than 1 km (in the
94 troposphere), respectively, may be a suitable compromise between accuracy and computational
95 efficiency. Overall, these domain configurations together affect the range of resolved scales and the
96 nature of dynamical interactions in the model.

97

98 Apart from the WRF domain configurations, there are other sources of uncertainty in the rainfall
99 simulations that come from using different physical parameterization schemes. WRF has various
100 physical parameterizations available for microphysics (MP), planetary boundary layer (PBL) and
101 cumulus (CU). Physical parameterization schemes interact non-linearly with each other and with the
102 dynamical core of the model, and these complex relationships make the exploration of uncertainty in
103 rainfall simulation very challenging. Many studies have shown varying model performances when
104 regional climate simulation with different physical parameterizations. According to the study of
105 Flaounas et al. (2011), PBL schemes have the greatest impact on temperature, rainfall amount, humidity
106 vertical distribution while CU schemes strongly affect the dynamics and rainfall variability. They also
107 highlighted that a combination of the Mellor-Yamada-Janjic (MYJ) PBL scheme and Kain-Fritsch (KF)
108 CU scheme was found to produce more realistic temperature, humidity, and the onset of West African
109 monsoon. Another study by Evans et al., (2012) carried out near the southeast coast of Australia pointed
110 out the MYJ PBL scheme also performed well when used with Betts-Miller-Janjić (BMJ) CU scheme.
111 In addition, they suggested the Yonsei University (YSU) PBL scheme, KF CU scheme and Rapid

112 Radiative Transfer Model for General Circulation Models (RRTMG) radiation schemes should not be
113 used in combination. However, Ji et al. (2013) found that using the YSU PBL scheme with the KF CU
114 scheme could improve rainfall prediction, especially for heavy rainfall. These inconsistent results
115 suggest that no single model configuration is universally suitable for all cases, one study may conflict
116 with another. Therefore, it is useful to explore as many combinations of different physical
117 parameterization schemes as possible to gain more understanding about their suitability in different
118 regions.

119

120 In addition, the WRF spin-up time is another important factor affecting the performance of the
121 simulations. In regional modelling, a suitable spin-up time is often required to balance the
122 inconsistencies between the initial and boundary conditions of forcing data and the model simulation
123 results. However, there is still a lack of consensus on the best spin-up time. The spin-up time mainly
124 depends on the domain size and boundary conditions disturbances (Kleczek et al., 2014). Generally, the
125 presence of disturbances causes model performances to decrease with the reduced spin-up time. Jankov
126 et al. (2007) and Skamarock and Klemp (2008) suggest that a minimum of 12 h spin-up time should be
127 used in the mesoscale NWP model. In most previous studies, a spin-up time of 12 h is often regarded
128 as the best choice directly but without enough verification (Chu et al., 2018). As for complex NWP
129 models like WRF, the selection of spin-up time still needs to be further explored in the context of rainfall
130 simulation.

131

132 In this study, to fill in the aforementioned knowledge gaps, a progressive multimetric configuration
133 optimisation (PMCO) method is proposed to explore the sensitivities of the WRF model to the domain

134 configurations, physical parameterized configurations and spin-up times. The goal of this study is to
135 derive a skilful configuration set for the WRF model, which can help to simulate extreme
136 hydrometeorological events in Egypt where ground meteorological observations are usually not
137 available. The questions we attempt to answer in this study are as follows:

138

- 139 • What is the optimal set of WRF configurations for domain size, number of vertical levels,
140 horizontal resolution, spin-up time and physical parameterization schemes (MP, PBL, CU) to
141 simulate extreme rainfall in Egypt?
- 142 • Which are the most sensitive WRF configurations for rainfall distribution and intensity?
- 143 • How to systematically screen ideal configurations by the proposed PMCO method?
- 144 • How to adjust this set of optimal configurations in other rainfall event simulations?

145

146 The significance of this study is to show a new WRF configuration optimization method that can make
147 further refinement of the model and address new questions for subsequent research. This study is
148 organized as follows: a brief description of the study area and dataset are presented in Section 2. The
149 WRF model and PMCO method (including experimental design and verification metrics) are illustrated
150 and explained in Section 3. The results of different experimental scenarios are shown in Section 4.
151 Finally, the summary and discussions of this study are presented in Section 5.

152

153 **2 Study area and datasets**

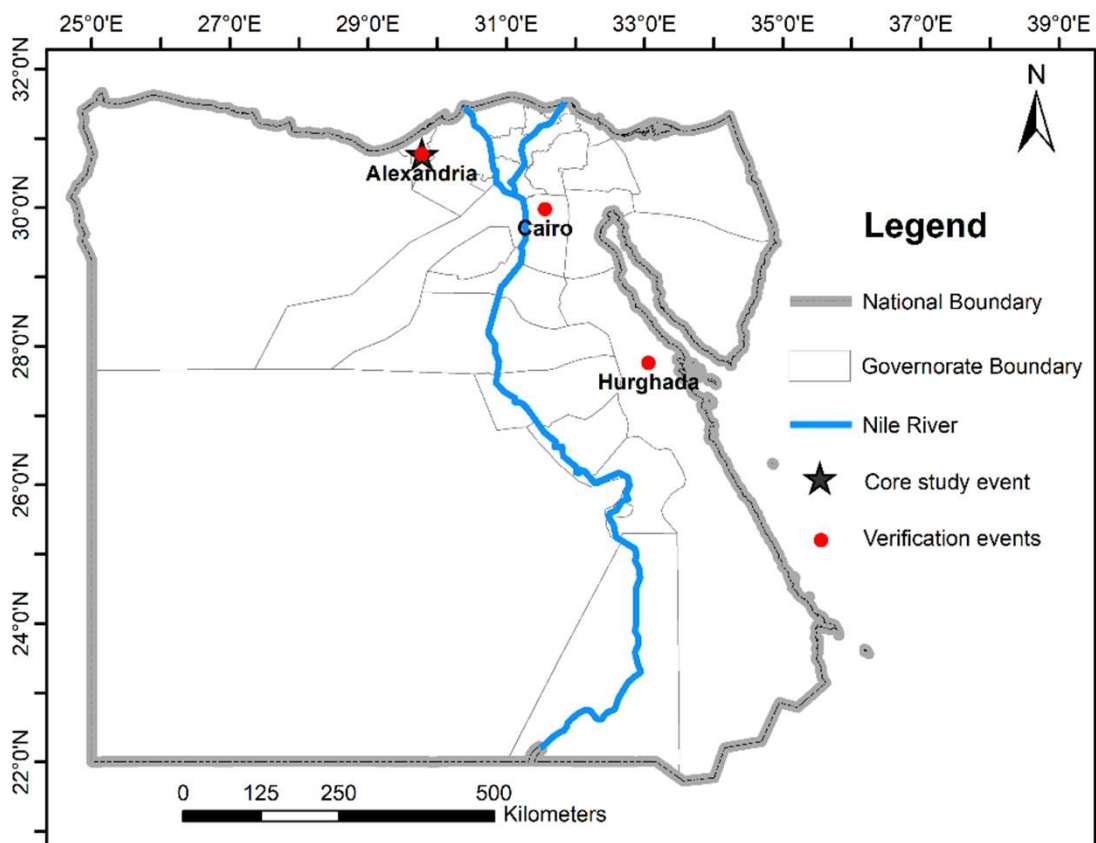
154 **2.1 Study area and event**

155 Alexandria city (and its surrounding region) is selected as the study area. It is the second-largest city in

156 Egypt and one of the most important trading centres in the world. Its largest port hosts approximately
157 40% of its industry. Alexandria coastline extends on more than 70 km, from the northwest side of the
158 Nile Delta to Mariout Lake in the east. Under the influence of the Mediterranean climate, Alexandria
159 experiences short mild winters (November to February) and long dry summers (March to October)
160 (Zevenbergen et al. 2017). The temperature usually varies from 10 to 17°C in winter and from 24 to 30°C
161 in summer. Besides, the winter is wet with 165 mm of average rainfall, whereas the summer is usually
162 dry with about 30 mm of rainfall on average. The average annual rainfall in Alexandria is only 200 mm.
163

164 However, a severe storm occurred on 4th November 2015 in Alexandria and this event was selected for
165 the WRF simulations. During this 50-year storm, more than 100 mm in 2 h rainfall was recorded in
166 some places (Zevenbergen et al. 2017). This event led to a devastating flood that has been described as
167 "the worst flooding of Alexandria City over the past decades in terms of the number of people affected
168 and the amount of economic damage" (IHE Delft, 2017). This rainfall event lasted for about 18 h (from
169 06:00 to 24:00 UTC). According to the satellite observation used for comparison in this study, the event
170 can be divided into two stages that are heavy rainy stage (6:00-15:00 UTC) and moderate rainy stage
171 (15:00-24:00 UTC). The average rainfall over the Alexandria city and its surrounding region is about
172 30 mm in the first stage and about 15 mm in the second stage. As the existing urban drainage network
173 was not designed to hold such large volumes of water, 60% of the city area was flooded while the
174 stagnant water remained for more than 15 days in some low-lying areas. This huge flood heavily
175 exceeded the pumping capacity of Alexandria city. If an early flood warning system had been well
176 established to predict this event in advance, appropriate measures could have been taken to mitigate
177 flood damages and losses. Furthermore, the performance stability of the optimal configuration set is

178 also verified through three other rainfall events over Alexandria (25th October 2015), Hurghada (27th
179 October 2016) and Cairo (24th April 2018) in Egypt. These verification rainfall events have different
180 intensities and scales, which is very helpful to understand the moderateness of the optimal configuration
181 set. The location relationships between rainfall events and the Nile River are shown in Figure 1.
182



183 **Figure 1.** Location of the study events and Nile River in Egypt.

184

185 **2.2 Datasets**

186 **2.2.1 ERA 5 reanalysis dataset**

187 The ERA5 reanalysis dataset was used to initialize the surface and meteorological fields of the WRF
188 model. ERA5 is a newly developed dataset since early 2016 and covers the period from 1950 to the
189 present. This new reanalysis has replaced the ERA-Interim reanalysis started in 2006 and spans the

190 period from 1 January 1979 to 31 August 2019. The new version of ERA5 has a fine spatial resolution
191 (31 km grid spacing compared with 79 km grid spacing for ERA-Interim) and a high temporal resolution
192 (hourly analysis fields compared with 6-hourly for ERA-Interim). In addition, ERA5 contains over 240
193 parameters on surface and single level alone, which are much more than the 100 parameters in ERA-
194 Interim. These parameters are related to the atmosphere, land, and ocean climate, etc. The reanalysis
195 dataset is available on the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) website
196 (<https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/datasets/browse-reanalysis-datasets>). The detailed changes from
197 ERA-Interim to ERA5 can be found in the ECMWF knowledge document
198 (<https://confluence.ecmwf.int/pages/viewpage.action?pageId=74764925>).

199

200 **2.2.2 Integrated Multi-satellitE Retrievals for GPM (IMERG) dataset**

201 The IMERG version 06B rainfall product was used for model verification. The IMERG level 3
202 multisatellite precipitation product combines precipitation estimates from all passive microwave
203 sensors of the GPM constellation, geosynchronous infrared observations from geo-IR satellites, and
204 ground-based measurements from precipitation gauges (Huffman et al. 2019). IMERG provides the
205 quasi-global rainfall estimates from 60°S to 60°N with 0.1°×0.1° gridded resolution and 30 min time
206 interval. IMERG has three product sequences called early, late, and final runs, which with different
207 latency and accuracy. However, by comparing the total rainfalls of the study event in the early and final
208 products, it is found that their distribution and intensity are very close. The reason may be because the
209 small number of rain gauges in Egypt could not provide sufficient adjustments for early run estimates.
210 In addition, the final run product has longer latency (4 months) than the early run product (3.5 hours).
211 Therefore, model performance verifications rely on the early run dataset in this study, which uses the

212 information of geosynchronous infrared observations with a fine time scale to fill the gaps of microwave
213 overpasses coverage (Joyce et al. 2004). This dataset is available on the Global Precipitation
214 Measurement website (<https://gpm.nasa.gov/data-access/downloads/gpm>) and detailed descriptions can
215 be found in Huffman et al. (2019).

216

217 **3 WRF model and PMCO method**

218 **3.1 WRF model**

219 The model chosen to conduct the rainfall simulation in this study is WRF-ARW version 4.0, the latest
220 generation of the mesoscale NWP models developed by the National Centre for Atmospheric Research
221 (NCAR). WRF-ARW is a compressible, nonhydrostatic, meteorological model with advanced dynamic,
222 physics, software framework and data assimilation system. Its dynamic solver employs Eulerian
223 equations and has a run-time hydrostatic option. As for discretization, WRF uses Arakawa C-grid
224 staggering for the horizontal grid and second- or third- order Runge-Kutta scheme for time integration.
225 The model can conduct one-way interactive, two-way interactive and moving nests with multiple levels
226 and ratios. Besides, it contains nudging capabilities that can be applied on the grid, spectral and
227 observation. Detailed dynamic and physics description of WRF-ARW version 4 can be found in
228 Skamarock et al. (2019). While it received the official support from NCAR, WRF has become a real
229 community model through the long-term contributions from the global user base. Thanks to these, WRF
230 has grown to offer portability capabilities for a range of earth system prediction applications, such as
231 WRF-Chem, WRF-Hydro, and WRF-Fire system.

232

233 **3.2 Experimental WRF simulations**

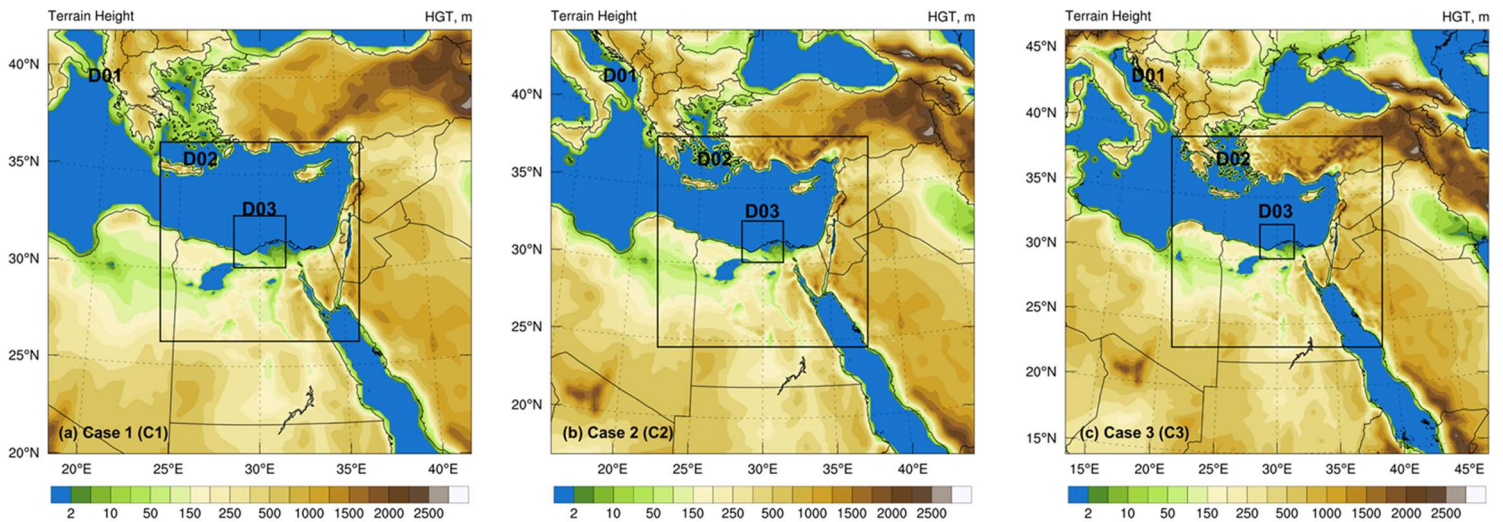
234 The proposed sensitivity test is designed as a progressive process to screen the optimal domain
235 configurations, spin-up times, and physical parameterization schemes with enhanced WRF
236 performances. The whole test is divided into two main sections. As shown in Table 1, the first section
237 contains four scenarios that evaluate domain size (S1), vertical levels (S2), nesting ratio (S3) and spin-
238 up time (S4) respectively. In this section, considering the study area features and high spatial resolution
239 of the simulations (less than 5 km), all cases adopt the same physical configurations (mp_physics=
240 Thompson; bl_pbl_physics=YSU; cu_physics=GF) to see the sensitivity of WRF to the above four
241 configurations (Sikder et al., 2016; Srivastava and Bran, 2018). Table 2 shows the second section that
242 investigates the impact of different combinations of physical parameterization schemes (S5), including
243 MP, PBL and CU schemes. The optimal domain configuration and spin-up time filter out in the first
244 section will be applied to the second one. Through these two major experimental parts, a comprehensive
245 suitable WRF configuration plan will be obtained.

246

247 Firstly, all cases adopt three levels of two-way nested domains in order to sufficiently improve the
248 horizontal resolution and explicitly resolve the convective-scale processes. Odd nesting ratios (1:3:3;
249 1:5:5; 1:7:7) are applied to reduce the initial error brought from interpolating the initial fields to the
250 Arakawa grids (Wang et al., 2019). Besides, all nested domains are centred on the same latitude and
251 longitude (31.5°N, 30°E) and all simulations employ Lambert conformal projection (Figure 2 (a-c)).
252 Taking Case 1 as an example, to ensure high horizontal resolution and better application of ERA5 data,
253 the horizontal grid size of the outermost domain (D01) is set to 31.5 km. The largest domain (D01)
254 contains all the main perturbed synoptic features covering the study area. According to the nesting ratios,
255 the middle domain (D02) is the child of D01 with the horizontal grid size of 10.5 km while the smallest

256 domain (D03) is the child of D02 with the horizontal grid size of 3.5 km. The innermost domain (D03)
 257 covers the study area of Alexandria and the adjacent areas. The domain sizes depend on the number of
 258 grid points. In Case 1, the grid points and domain sizes for D01, D02 and D03 are 80x80 (about 6.19
 259 million km²), 112x112 (about 1.36 million km²) and 88x88 (about 0.09 million km²) respectively. There
 260 are different number of vertical levels depending on the experiment (see Table 1) and the top-level
 261 pressure is 5,000 Pa. Because some studies (Jankov et al., 2007; Skamarock and Klemp, 2008) suggest
 262 a minimum of 12 h spin-up time should be used before rainfall while there was some light rain over the
 263 study domain in the 6 hours before the extreme rainfall event, a spin-up time of 18 hours is chosen to
 264 warm up the WRF simulations of the first three scenarios. The model outputs are logged hourly for each
 265 domain. The lateral boundary conditions are updated every hour using ERA5.

266



267 **Figure 2.** (a)(b)(c) Three different nested domain configurations used in Case 1, Case 2 and Case 3
 268 respectively.

269

270 As shown in Table 1, four scenarios are designed to explore the most ideal domain configuration options
 271 and spin-up time. S1 includes three cases (C1-C3) that adopt the WRF configurations mentioned above
 272 and focus on evaluating the impact of domain size on model performance. To verify whether the domain

273 size assigned in C1 is large enough to develop small-scale atmospheric features, C2 and C3 are devised
274 as comparative experiments. As seen in Figure 2 (a-c), D03 of C1-C3 are the same, while the sizes of
275 D02 and D01 in C2 and C3 are larger than C1. Besides, three nested domains are more than five grid
276 points away from each other to allow for sufficient relaxation. Following this, S2 aims to investigate
277 whether the model run with a higher vertical resolution could get better performance. The optimal
278 domain size found in S1 is directly applied in S2. In scenario 2, the first experiment is the optimal
279 experiment identified in S1 (OS1) and then followed by five comparative experiments (C4-C8). Since
280 the vertical levels should be set at least 34 to reach the required top-level pressure of 5000 Pa, the
281 vertical levels of S2 experiments start from 34 and up to 64. Among them, Case 4 is designed to use the
282 same model level (38 vertical levels) as the ERA5 dataset for comparison. All cases in S2 met the
283 requirement of a grid spacing of less than 1 km in the troposphere. Then comes scenario 3 (S3), the
284 optimal case in S2 (OS2) with nesting ratio of 1:3:3 is compared with another two experiments with
285 increased nesting ratio of 1:5:5 (C9) and 1:7:7 (C10). The grid spacing of D01 is 31.5 km in all S3
286 experiments, while the grid spacings of D02 and D03 are 10.5 km and 3.5 km (OS2), 6.3 km and 1.26
287 km (C9), 4.5 km and 0.643 km (C10) respectively. In addition, the grid points of C9 and C10 are
288 increased correspondingly to keep their domain size similar to OS1 (Table 1). Since the number of grid
289 points minus 1 should be an integer multiple of the nesting ratios, it is hard to make the domain size
290 exactly the same when using the different nesting ratios. But their sizes are designed to be as equal as
291 possible in the model. This scenario (S3) adopts the best domain size and vertical resolution
292 configuration found in S1 and S2, as well as examines the change of WRF performance using different
293 domain nesting ratios (horizontal resolutions). After minimizing the uncertainties introduced by domain

Table 1. Experiment categories with different domain configurations (domain size, vertical levels and nesting ratio) and spin-up times.

Scenario	Experiment number	Domain size (grid points)	Vertical levels (vertical resolution)	Nesting ratio (horizontal resolution)	Spin-up time
Domain size (S1)	Case 1 (C1)	D01 80x80; D02 112x112; D03 88x88	34	D01 31.5 km; D02 10.5 km; D03 3.5 km; (1:3:3)	18h
	Case 2 (C2)	D01 100x100; D02 148x148; D03 88x88	as C1	as C1	as C1
	Case 3 (C3)	D01 120x120; D02 178x178; D03 88x88	as C1	as C1	as C1
Vertical levels (S2)	Optimal case in S1 (OS1)	as OS1	34	as C1	as C1
	Case 4 (C4)	as OS1	38 (model level)	as C1	as C1
	Case 5 (C5)	as OS1	44	as C1	as C1
	Case 6 (C6)	as OS1	53	as C1	as C1
	Case 7 (C7)	as OS1	58	as C1	as C1
	Case 8 (C8)	as OS1	64	as C1	as C1
Nesting ratio (S3)	Optimal case in S2 (OS2)	as OS1 (D01 80x80; D02 112x112; D03 88x88)	as OS2	D01 31.5 km; D02 10.5 km; D03 3.5 km; (1:3:3)	as C1
	Case 9 (C9)	Determined by the domain size of OS1 (D01 80x80; D02 186x186; D03 246x246)	as OS2	D01 31.5 km; D02 6.3 km; D03 1.26 km; (1:5:5)	as C1
	Case 10 (C10)	Determined by the domain size of OS1 (D01 80x80; D02 260x260; D03 477x477)	as OS2	D01 31.5 km; D02 4.5 km; D03 0.643 km; (1:7:7)	as C1
Spin-up time (S4)	Case 11 - Case 13 (C11-C13)	as OS1	as OS2	as OS3	0-12h, per 6h
	Optimal case in S3 (OS3)	as OS1	as OS2	as OS3	18h
	Case 14 - Case 31 (C14-C31)	as OS1	as OS2	as OS3	24-126h, per 6h

All these cases use the physics configurations: mp_physics= Thompson; bl_pbl_physics=YSU; cu_physics=GF.

295 configuration options through the above scenarios (S1-S3), S4 is devised to identify a likely optimal
296 range of spin-up time. This scenario includes the optimal experiment in S3 (OS3) that ran with 18 h
297 spin-up time, and 21 comparative experiments (C11-C31). From C11 to C13, their spin-up times
298 increase from 0 to 12 h with a 6-hour time step. The spin-up times of the remaining comparative
299 experiments (C14-C31) increase from 24 to 126 with a 6-hour time step. All ideal domain configuration
300 options identify in S1-S3 are used in these spin-up time experiments.

301

302 After the first section, Table 2 demonstrates how to cross-combine MP, PBL and CU parameterization
303 schemes in the S5. In this scenario, available MP schemes contain Thompson (mp_physics=8), WRF
304 Single-Moment 5-class (WSM5, mp_physics=4) and WRF Single-Moment 6-class (WSM6,
305 mp_physics=6). As for the PBL schemes, this part uses YSU (bl_pbl_physics=1) and MYJ
306 (bl_pbl_physics=2) mentioned in the introduction chapter. Moreover, the three types of CU schemes
307 are Grell-Freitas (GF, cu_physics=3), BMJ (cu_physics=2) and KF (cu_physics=1). Apart from the
308 optimal case in S4 (OS4) that using the Thompson MP scheme, YSU PBL scheme and GF CU scheme,
309 there are other 17 comparative experiments (C32-C48) using different arrangements of three physical
310 parameterization schemes. By conducting the above two main experiment sections, the ideal options
311 for the domain configuration, spin-up time and physical schemes would be drawn.

312

313 The order of these five scenarios is determined after fully considering the calculation efficiency of the
314 PMCO method and the sensitivities of rainfall simulations to different configurations. Some test cases
315 have been conducted before the whole optimization process to understand the impacts of different
316 configurations on rainfall simulations. The evaluation starts with domain configuration (S1-S3) and

Table 2. Experiment categories with different physical parameterization schemes (MP, PBL and CU).

Scenario	Experiment number	Microphysics (MP)	Planetary Boundary Layer (PBL)	Cumulus (CU)
Physical parameterization schemes (S5)	Optimal case in S4 (OS4)	8: Thompson (Thompson et al., 2008)	1: YSU (Hong et al, 2006)	3: GF (Grell et al., 2013)
	Case 32 (C32)	8: Thompson	1: YSU	2: BMJ (Janjic, 1994, 2000)
	Case 33(C33)	8: Thompson	1: YSU	1: KF (Kain, 2004)
	Case 34(C34)	8: Thompson	2: MYJ (Janjic, 1994)	3: GF
	Case 35 (C35)	8: Thompson	2: MYJ	2: BMJ
	Case 36 (C36)	8: Thompson	2: MYJ	1: KF
	Case 37 (C37)	4: WSM5 (Hong, Dudhia and Chen, 2004)	1: YSU	3: GF
	Case 38 (C38)	4: WSM5	1: YSU	2: BMJ
	Case 39 (C39)	4: WSM5	1: YSU	1: KF
	Case 40 (C40)	4: WSM5	2: MYJ	3: GF
	Case 41 (C41)	4: WSM5	2: MYJ	2: BMJ
	Case 42 (C42)	4: WSM5	2: MYJ	1: KF
	Case 43 (C43)	6: WSM6 (Hong and Lim, 2006,)	1: YSU	3: GF
	Case 44(C44)	6: WSM6	1: YSU	2: BMJ
	Case 45 (C45)	6: WSM6	1: YSU	1: KF
	Case 46 (C46)	6: WSM6	2: MYJ	3: GF
	Case 47 (C47)	6: WSM6	2: MYJ	2: BMJ
	Case 48 (C48)	6: WSM6	2: MYJ	1: KF

All these cases use the optimal domain configuration and spin-up time found in S1-S4.

319 follows by spin-up time (S4) and physical parameterization configuration (S5), during which the
320 computational demand of configuration scenarios and the sensitivities of rainfall simulation increase
321 gradually. This order ensures maximum simplicity and stability throughout the optimisation process.
322 Determining domain and spin-up time configuration priority also helps to avoid the influence of poor-
323 quality boundary conditions on subsequent simulations. Besides, the relatively satisfied physical
324 parameterization combination and spin-up time found in the test cases are used as the initial
325 configuration to reduce the impacts of optimization order. The above is the experimental construction
326 of the PMCO method in this study.

327

328 **3.3 Verification metrics**

329 To cover both spatial and temporal model performances, this study uses seven error metrics proposed
330 by Liu et al. (2012) to evaluate WRF simulation performances with respect to the IMERG observations.
331 On the one hand, four categorical metrics are employed for spatial verification. These metrics include
332 the probability of detection (*POD*), the false alarm ratio (*FAR*), the critical success index (*CSI*) and the
333 frequency bias index (*FBI*). The *POD* and *FAR* represent the probability of detecting rainfall and the
334 probability of false rainfall generated by model simulations. The *CSI* not only shows the probability of
335 rainfall detection but also critical performance, which rewards 'hits' and penalizes both 'misses' and
336 'false alarms'. At the same time, the *FBI* indicates whether WRF has the tendency to overestimate ($FBI >$
337 1) or underestimate ($FBI < 1$) rainfall. But *FBI* does not measure how well the simulation corresponds to
338 the observation. The ideal score for *POD*, *FAR*, *CSI* and *FBI* are 1, 0, 1 and 1, respectively. On the other
339 hand, three continuous metrics including the root mean square error (*RMSE*), the mean bias error (*MBE*)
340 and the standard deviation (*SD*) are used for temporal verification. The *RMSE* indicates the average

341 magnitude of error between simulations and observations without showing the bias, while *MBE*
342 indicates the average bias of cumulative error but not corresponds to simulations and observations. The
343 *SD* shows the variation of the simulation error about the *MBE* that reflects the magnitude of random
344 error but without error direction.

345

346 All these metrics are calculated by interpolating WRF simulations to the IMERG observation grid at a
347 3-hour time step in D03. Each verification metric represents the different performance characteristics
348 in spatial or temporal dimensions. Since it is difficult to identify the best case based on these seven
349 different metrics, to uniformly quantify the results of seven metrics, a multimetric decision making
350 analysis called Technique for Order of Preference by Similarity to Ideal Solution (TOPSIS) (Hwang
351 and Yoon, 1981) is conducted to obtain the likely best WRF configuration set from 48 cases. Moreover,
352 the uniform performance score is applied to compare the results of different configurations. The further
353 introduction of the multimetric decision making analysis method and the uniform performance score is
354 presented as follows.

355

356 TOPSIS determines the best alternative according to the shortest and longest geometric distance from
357 the positive ideal solution and the negative ideal solution, respectively (Assari et al., 2012). TOPSIS
358 method was originally developed by Hwang and Yoon (1981) and further extended and used in
359 numerous researches such as Boran et al. (2009), Sikder et al. (2016) and Goodarzi et al. (2019). In the
360 TOPSIS method, the TOPSIS Relative Closeness Value (*TOPSIS RCV*) is a relative value that
361 determines the best performance based on given metrics. In this study, *TOPSIS RCV* is used as a uniform
362 score to compare overall WRF performances across various configurations. Firstly, seven error metrics

363 are rescaled to calculate the uniform score. Table 3 shows the conversion method between the original
364 error metrics and the rescaled metrics, where subscript “r” means “rescaled”. When rescaling the metric
365 values, all the 48 cases used the same max thresholds ($FBI_{MAX}= 2$, $RMSE_{MAX}= 12$, $MBE_{MAX}= 12$ (If
366 $MBE>0$), $MBE_{MAX}= -12$ (If $MBE<0$) and $SD_{MAX}= 6$) and corresponding calculation formulas. The
367 threshold of FBI was set to facilitate rescaling and other thresholds are set according to the rainfall
368 intensity of the study event. If the performance of some simulations exceeds the threshold, they will be
369 removed directly in the configuration experiment. Because in TOPSIS, each metric should have the
370 norm of “high is better” or “low is better.” To meet the requirements, seven metrics values are adjusted
371 to range from 0 to 1, where 0 represents the worst performance and 1 is for the best performance.
372 Therefore, the *POD*, *CSI*, rescaled *FBI*, and rescaled *MBE* are “high is better” while *FAR*, *RMSE* and
373 *SD* are “low is better” metrics in this study. Then, all error metrics are assigned equal weight to calculate
374 *TOPSIS RCV* (Equation 1) as the uniform score. The purpose of deriving a uniform score is to allow a
375 convenient and multiscale simulation quality assessment for numerous WRF configurations. In this way,
376 the higher *TOPSIS RCV* means closer to the observation or better simulation performance.

377
378

Table 3. Conversion between original and rescaled error metrics.

Original and rescaled error metrics	Original range	Original perfect score	Rescaled thresholds	Rescaled range	Rescaled perfect score
$POD_r = POD$	0-1	1	N/A	0-1	1
$FAR_r = 1 - FAR$	0-1	0	N/A	0-1	1
$CSI_r = CSI$	0-1	1	N/A	0-1	1
If $FBI > 1$: $FBI_r = FBI_{MAX} - FBI$ If $FBI \leq 1$: $FBI_r = FBI$	0-∞	1	+2 max	0-1	1
$RMSE_r = (1 - RMSE/RMSE_{MAX})$	0-∞	0	+12 max	0-1	1
If $MBE > 0$: $MBE_r = 1 - MBE/MBE_{MAX}$ If $MBE < 0$: $MBE_r = 1 - MBE/-MBE_{MAX}$	-∞-∞	0	-12 to +12	0-1	1
$SD_r = (1 - SD/SD_{MAX})$	0-∞	0	+6 max	0-1	1

379

$$380 \quad TOPSIS RCV = \frac{PODr+FARr+CSIr+FBIr+RMSEr+MBEr+S}{7} \quad (1)$$

381

382 **4 Results and discussions**

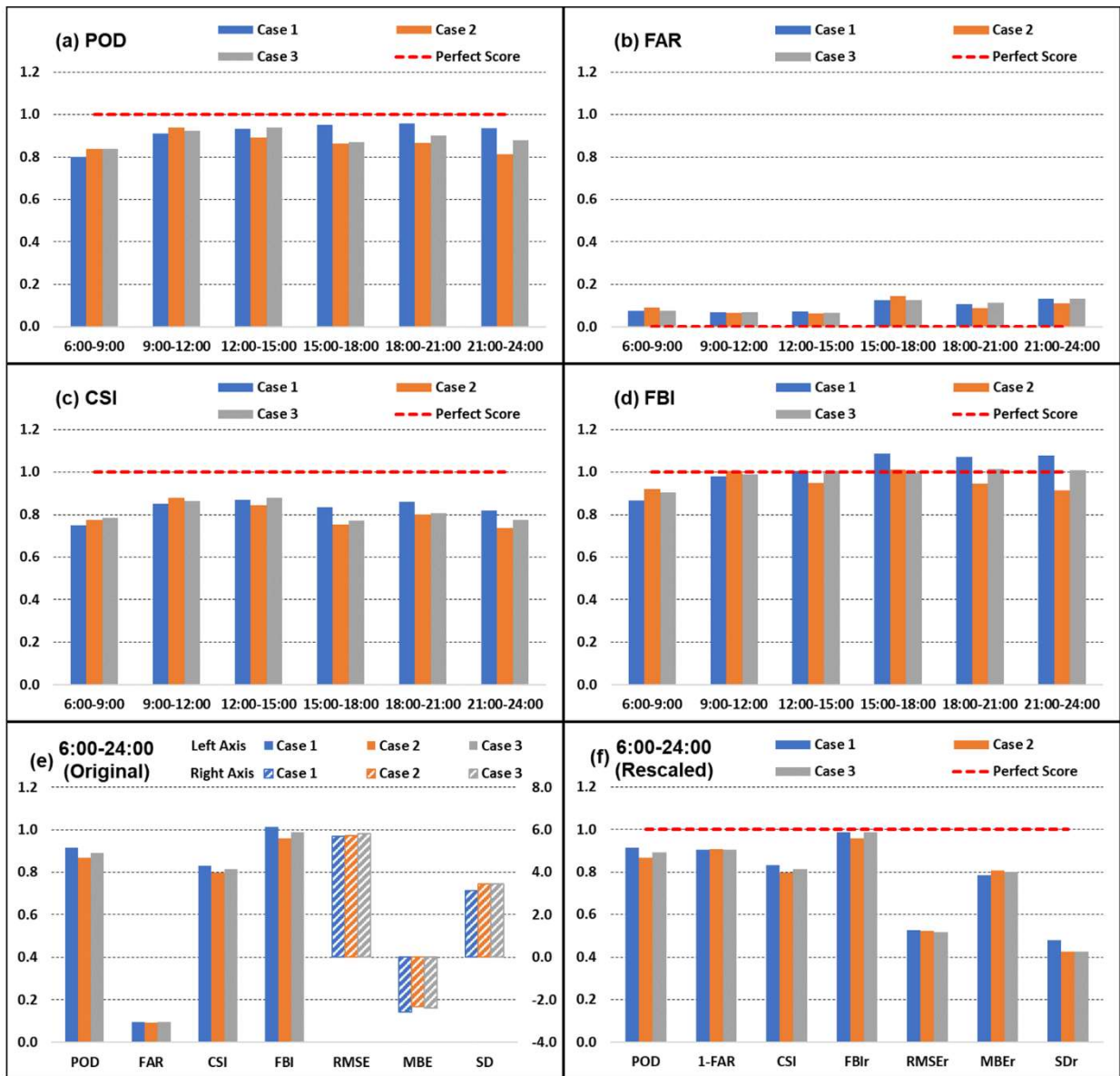
383 In every scenario, seven metrics are compared between the cases, which are calculated at the same
384 period and domain (D03). For the first three scenarios (S1-S3) (i.e., Figure 3-5), the results of each
385 scenario are presented in six subfigures. The first four subfigures (i.e., Figure 3-5 (a-d)) show the values
386 of spatial verification metrics (*POD*, *FAR*, *CSI* and *FBI*) considered over six evaluated sub-periods
387 (6:00-9:00, 9:00-12:00, 12:00-15:00, 15:00-18:00, 18:00-21:00 and 21:00-24:00 UTC on 4th November
388 2015). The last two subfigures (i.e., Figure 3-5 (e, f)) show the original and rescaled values of all metrics
389 that calculated over the whole event duration (from 6:00 to 24:00). Next is the spin-up time scenario
390 (S4) containing two broken-line graphs. One broken-line graph (Figure 6 (a)) illustrates the changes of
391 the rescaled metric values for 22 simulation cases that run with different spin-up times. Another (Figure
392 6 (b)) displays the variations of uniform scores (*TOPSIS RCV*) for model simulation results, which also
393 indicates the change in WRF performance with spin-up time. All the metrics in S4 are calculated over
394 the entire event duration. The last scenario (S5) uses three subfigures (Figure 7 (a-c)) to demonstrate
395 the impacts of three physical parameterization schemes on the WRF model performance. After the
396 whole configuration screening process, the total performance ranking of all 48 experiments is displayed
397 in Table 4. Then, the cumulative rainfall maps and rainfall series of the five optimal cases are compared
398 with the IMERG observations (Figure 8, 9). The original and rescaled metric values of the five optimal
399 simulations are shown in Table 5. Finally, the cumulative rainfall maps of three verification events are
400 plotted to show the reproducibility of the recommended configuration in Egypt (Figure 10). Seven

401 performance metric values of the three verification simulations are shown in Table 6.

402

403 **4.1 Results of the domain size scenario**

404



405 **Figure 3.** Original and rescaled values of verification metrics for S1. C1 incorporates the smallest nested
 406 domains, while C2 and C3 are the intermediate-sized nested domain and largest nested domain. (a)(b)(c)(d)
 407 The four spatial metrics calculated over different durations (every three hours) start from 06:00 UTC on 4
 408 November 2015 for the innermost domain. (e) The original values of all metrics calculated over the whole
 409 rainfall event duration. (f) The rescaled values of all metrics based on the Table.3 conversion method.

410

411 As shown in Figure 3 (a-d), three experiments of S1 show clearly different results in spatial metrics at
412 the early (6:00-15:00) and later (15:00-24:00) evaluation stages. The most obvious differences are
413 detected in the *FAR* that is initially stabilized at 0.07 but all rise to around 0.12 later, which represents
414 the false alarms simulated by the model that increased enormously. The same variation is also found in
415 the *FBI* that most experiments underestimate ($FBI < 1$) rainfall occurrences at the first 9 hours whereas
416 overestimate ($FBI > 1$) rainfall occurrences in the following period. Furthermore, the *POD* and *CSI* of
417 C2 and C3 significantly decrease in the later stage. However, the *POD* of C1 approximately increases
418 by 0.16 as well as *CSI* by 0.1. The reason for these changes is that the heavy rainfall is mainly
419 concentrated in the first 9 hours and became moderate in the later. Thus, the WRF simulations are less
420 likely to misreport and overestimate rainfall occurrences at the early heavy rainy stage. On the other
421 hand, the spatial association between simulations and observations improves in C1 but deteriorates in
422 C2 and C3 which could be due to the role of the updated boundary conditions in modifying the local
423 model solutions to approach the real atmospheric circulation conditions (Seth and Rojas, 2003). In
424 addition, the domain size of every experiment and rainfall scale of every period can also lead to different
425 result trends.

426

427 Comparison of *TOPSIS RCVs* on the whole event scale shows that C1 (Score: 0.775) is a relatively
428 better experiment than C2 (Score: 0.755) and C3 (Score: 0.762). Although C2 and C3 perform slightly
429 better than C1 in terms of *POD*, *CSI*, and *FBI* at the first two sub-periods (6:00-9:00 and 9:00-12:00),
430 the superiority of C1 is more obvious in the remaining stages. It is because the small domain of C1 uses
431 boundary conditions more efficiently in modifying the false disturbance generated by the local model
432 run. Moreover, C1 performs better in two of rainfall amount estimate metrics (*RMSE* and *SD*) than other

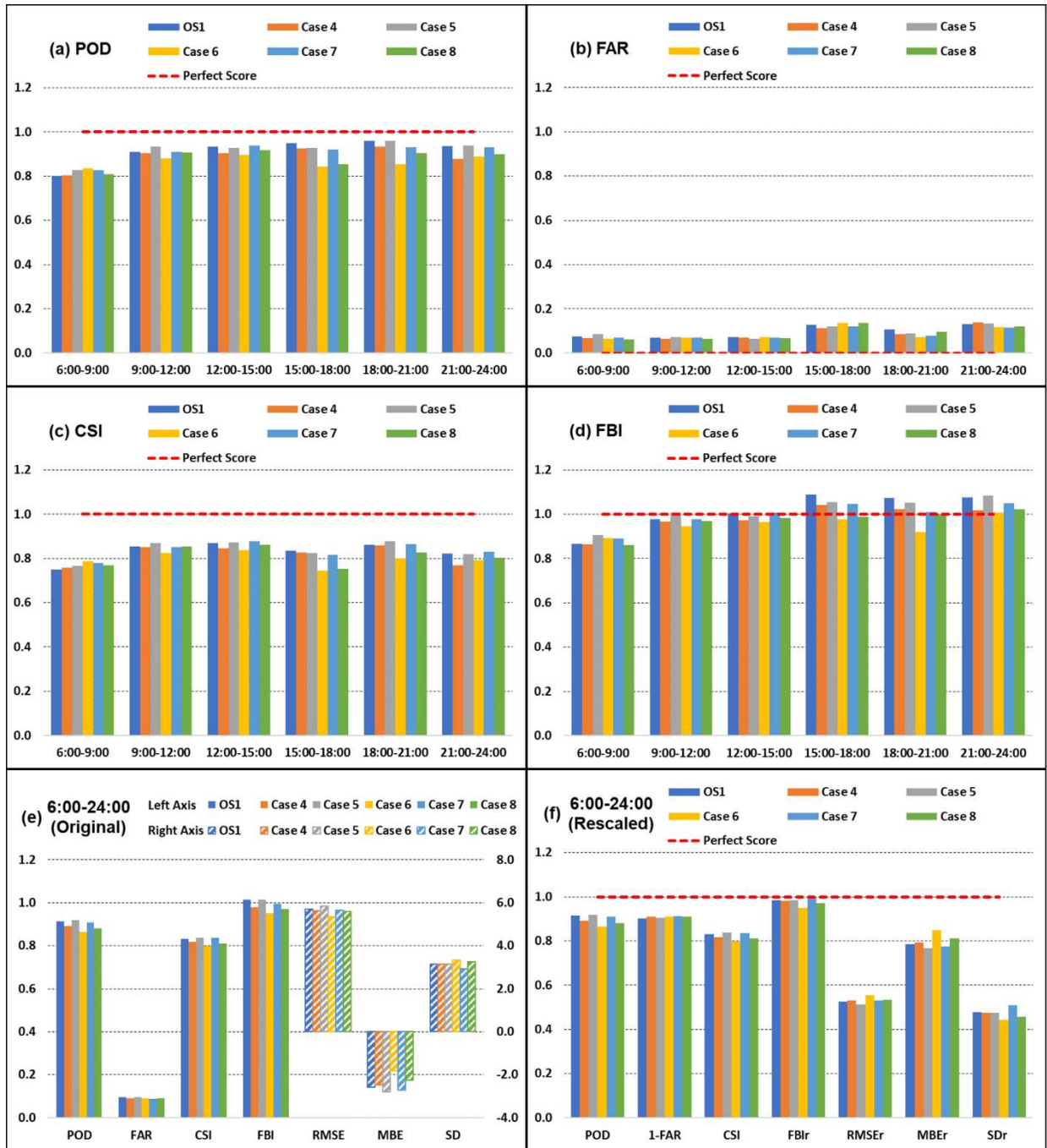
433 experiments. Finally, it achieves the highest score of the five metrics (*POD*, *CSI*, *FBI*, *RMSEr* and *SDr*)
434 in S1 (Figure 3 (e, f)). These results indirectly indicate that small size domains are more likely to benefit
435 from updated boundary conditions. Small domains are also helpful to simulate rainfall amount stably
436 and accurately. But when simulating large-scale heavy rainfall, like the early evaluation stage of this
437 event, it is easier for large domains to capture the correct hits and spatial patterns of rainfall. Overall,
438 C1 is chosen as the OS1 from both statistical and physical perspectives.

439

440 **4.2 Results of the vertical levels scenario**

441 According to the S1 analysed results, C1 (OS1) is selected as the starting experiment in S2. As shown
442 in Figure 4 (e, f), unlike the obvious superiority of C1 indicated in S1, the differences in rainfall-related
443 metrics are not apparent between S2 experiments with different vertical levels. But there still exist
444 differences between heavy rainy stage (6:00-15:00) and moderate rainy stage (15:00-24:00) in *FAR* and
445 *FBI* (Figure 4 (b, d)). Similar to Scenario 1, *FAR* stays at 0.07 in the early stage and rise to around 0.11
446 in the later stage. At the same time, the *FBI* of the most experiments show that WRF underestimates
447 heavy rainfall and overestimates moderate rainfall. However, the gaps in *POD* and *CSI* between
448 different rainy stages became smaller in the most of experiments (OS1, C4, C5 and C7) of S2 (Figure-
449 4(a, c)). S1 filters C2 and C3 and remains C1, which has stable performances in any rainy stages, as
450 the next starting experiment, so the values of *POD* and *CSI* in S2 seem to be more stable than before.
451 The small domain configuration of C1 also helps the follow-on experiments which benefit from the
452 updated boundary conditions with better spatial simulations.

453



454 **Figure 4.** Similar to Figure 3, but for the experiments in S2 with different vertical levels. OS1, C4, C5, C6,
 455 C7 and C8 forced by the ERA5 pressure-level data with 34, 38 (WRF model level), 44, 53, 58 and 64
 456 vertical levels, respectively.

457

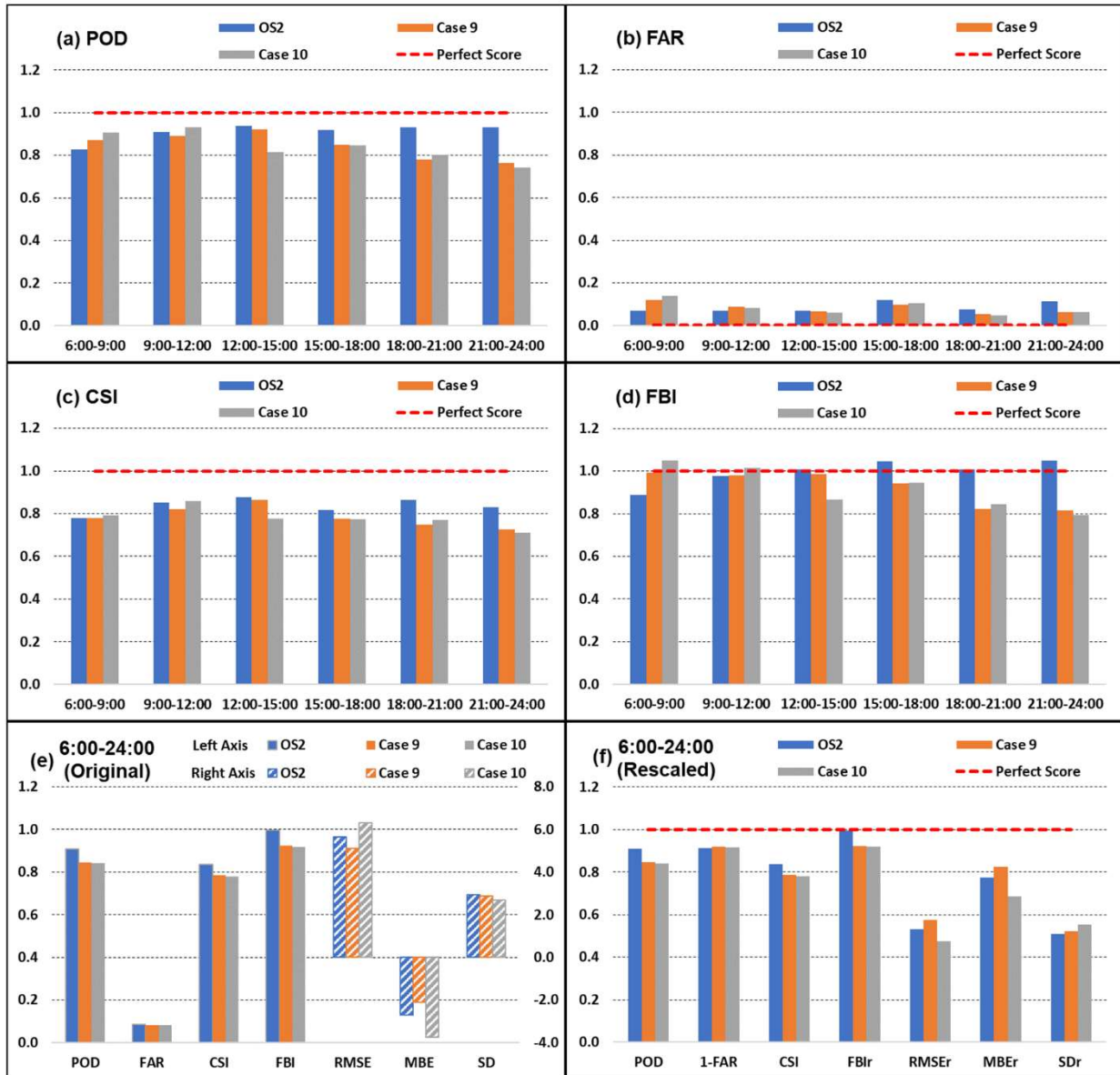
458 Based on the *TOPSIS RCVs* of S2 experiments, C7(Score: 0.782, 58 vertical levels) displays the greatest
 459 overall skill. Although C7 does not have the best score in every sub-period, it has stable performance
 460 for the spatial metrics and not too poor for the temporal metrics. Comparing C4 (Score: 0.771, the same

461 38 vertical levels as ERA5) and C5 (Score: 0.772, 44 vertical levels) indicates that the increase of model
462 vertical resolution could enhance WRF's ability to solve small-scale physical processes and improve
463 the spatial correlation (*POD* and *CSI*) of simulated rainfall. However, with a further increase of the
464 vertical resolution in C6 (Score: 0.767, 53 vertical levels) and C8 (Score: 0.768, 64 vertical levels), the
465 scores of all the spatial metrics significantly decline while the accuracy of rainfall amount (*RMSE* and
466 *MBE*) greatly increase. It may be because the progressive reductions in the vertical grid spacing weaken
467 the kinetic energy that favours precipitation and further impacts the scale and intensity of rainfall
468 systems (Sun et al., 2013; Bryan et al., 2003). In contrast, C7 employs a relatively appropriate grid
469 spacing to balance the two aspects of excessive propagation of surface interference and accurate capture
470 of small-scale physical processes. Therefore, C7 gets the better kinetic energy for rainfall and shows
471 better consistency with the observations in terms of the amount and distribution of rainfall. On the other
472 hand, comparing C5, C6, C8 with OS1 (Score: 0.775, 34 vertical levels) shows that, although at a lower
473 vertical resolution, the OS1 overall score is better than the other three cases with a higher resolution.
474 This means that the initial errors introduced by the interpolation process could also cause performance
475 degradation. Overall, C7 shows the best agreement with observations in this scenario.

476

477 **4.3 Results of the nesting ratio scenario**

478 In the light of the S2 analysed results, C7 (OS2) is chosen as the starting experiment in S3. As Figure 5
479 (e, f) and Figure 4 (e, f) show, the spatial and temporal metrics are more sensitive to the change of
480 horizontal resolutions than to the variation of vertical resolutions. Especially for *FAR* and *FBI*, the
481 modelling skills of the S3 experiments display different performance trends in heavy and moderate
482 rainy stage as that in the S1 and S2 experiments. Over the evaluated periods, C9 (horizontal grid spacing



483 **Figure 5.** Similar to Figure 3, but for the experiments in S3 with different horizontal resolutions. OS2 has a
 484 nesting ratio of 1:3:3 with the horizontal grid spacing of 31.5, 10.5, and 3.5 km, while C9 and C10 have the
 485 same largest horizontal grid spacing (31.5 km) with downscaling ratios of 1:5:5 and 1:7:7, respectively. The
 486 innermost domain grid spacing is 1.26 km in C9 and 0.643 km in C10.

487

488 of 1.26 km) and C10 (horizontal grid spacing of 0.643 km) show either more or less false alarm than

489 OS2 (horizontal grid spacing of 3.5 km) and have no obvious difference between two kinds of rainfall

490 stages. C9 and C10 also present a tendency to underestimate ($FBI < 1$) rainfall-scale in most of the

491 periods. However, the *POD* and *CSI* of C9 and C10 extremely decrease when rainfall scale became less.

492 Therefore, WRF simulations with smaller horizontal grid spacings could also lead to poorer results. In

493 theory, this kind of deterioration is due to the biases from the initial and boundary conditions or
494 accumulated errors caused by imperfect model physics, and the chaotic nature of NWP systems also
495 exaggerates them (Liu et al., 2012). As the amount and scale of rainfall became smaller, these errors
496 seem to be more pronounced.

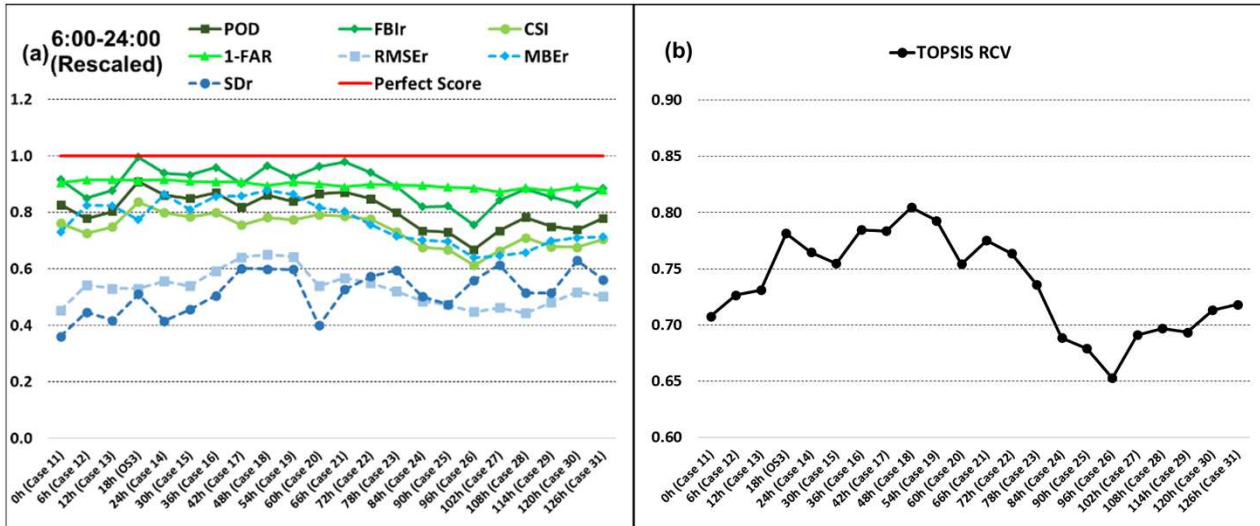
497

498 According to the *TOPSIS RCVs* of the horizontal resolution experiments, OS2 (Score: 0.782) is still the
499 optimal experiment in S3 compares with C9 (Score: 0.770) and C10(Score: 0.739). As shown in Figure
500 5 (a, c), OS2 tends to produce a more accurate spatial pattern than C9 and C10, particularly during the
501 less rainy stage. Besides, OS2 displays a relative perfect tendency ($FBI \approx 1$) to estimate rainfall
502 occurrences (Figure 5 (e)). However, in terms of rainfall amount estimations, C9 presents a significant
503 advantage in *RMSE* and *MBE*. This phenomenon is due to the WRF microphysics scheme which
504 resolves more small-scale features that do not contain in the boundary conditions through higher
505 horizontal resolution. But at the same time, the more external biases and more model accumulated errors
506 mentioned before also reduce the spatial correlation of the simulations. Thus, considering the
507 spatiotemporal accuracy and computational efficiency of WRF simulations, OS2 with the nesting ratio
508 of 1:3:3 is also verified as the optimal experiment of S3.

509

510 **4.4 Results of the spin-up time scenario**

511 As mentioned above, C7 (OS3) is adopted as the starting experiment in S4. To reduce the influence of
512 chaotic nature on simulations and extend model lead time, this scenario explores 18 different spin-up
513 times for WRF to balance the inconsistencies between boundary conditions and simulation results. Due
514 to the length of spin-up time mostly relies on the domain size and boundary condition disturbance, the



515 **Figure 6.** Rescaled verification metrics and *TOPSIS RCV* (uniform score) for the experiments in S4 with
 516 different spin-up times. C11 to C13 employs the spin-up time increased from 0 to 12 h by every 6 h. OS3
 517 used a spin-up time of 18 h. From C14 to C31, the spin-up time is grown from 24 to 126 h by every 6 h. (a)
 518 shows rescaled values of all verification metrics calculated over the whole rainfall event duration for the
 519 innermost domain. (b) shows *TOPSIS RCV* of experiments in S4 calculated by rescaled verification metrics
 520 using Formula 1.

521

522 spin-up time scenario is placed after the domain configuration scenarios. Unlike the previous scenarios,

523 S4 experiments are sorted by the length of spin-up time and present the performance of individual

524 metrics over the whole event duration. As shown in Figure 6 (a), the performances of rainfall

525 simulations evidently vary with spin-up time. Three spatial metrics *POD*, *CSI* and *FBI* show similar

526 variations for different spin-up time, while *FAR* is found to display less sensitivity to spin-up time.

527 Furthermore, although there are some small fluctuations, the four spatial metrics maintain a good

528 performance between 18 h and 66 h. As for the temporal metrics, *RMSE*, *MBE* and *SD* have an evident

529 rise near 48 h. But all these rainfall-related metrics have an obvious decline after 66 h and reach the

530 lowest around 96h. Comparing the variation of the weather conditions during the spin-up period, it is

531 found that a small-scale rainfall occurred near the outmost domain boundary from 30th October 2015.

532 This rainfall became heavier near the start time of the 96 h spin-up time experiment, and it gradually

533 disappeared around the start time of 48 h spin-up time experiment. The water vapour mixing ratio and
534 cloud water mixing ratio at these two times are also significantly different. Therefore, it is reasonable
535 to speculate that WRF runs with longer spin-up times can produce simulations with better
536 spatiotemporal correlation when the model initial conditions are clear and calm. But when the start time
537 is during unstable conditions which would introduce large boundary disturbances, WRF performance
538 could be poor and even need more time to balance the inconsistencies. The small fluctuations among
539 adjacent experiments could be due to the change of initial and boundary conditions, such as water
540 vapour amounts and temperature at the beginning of the simulations.

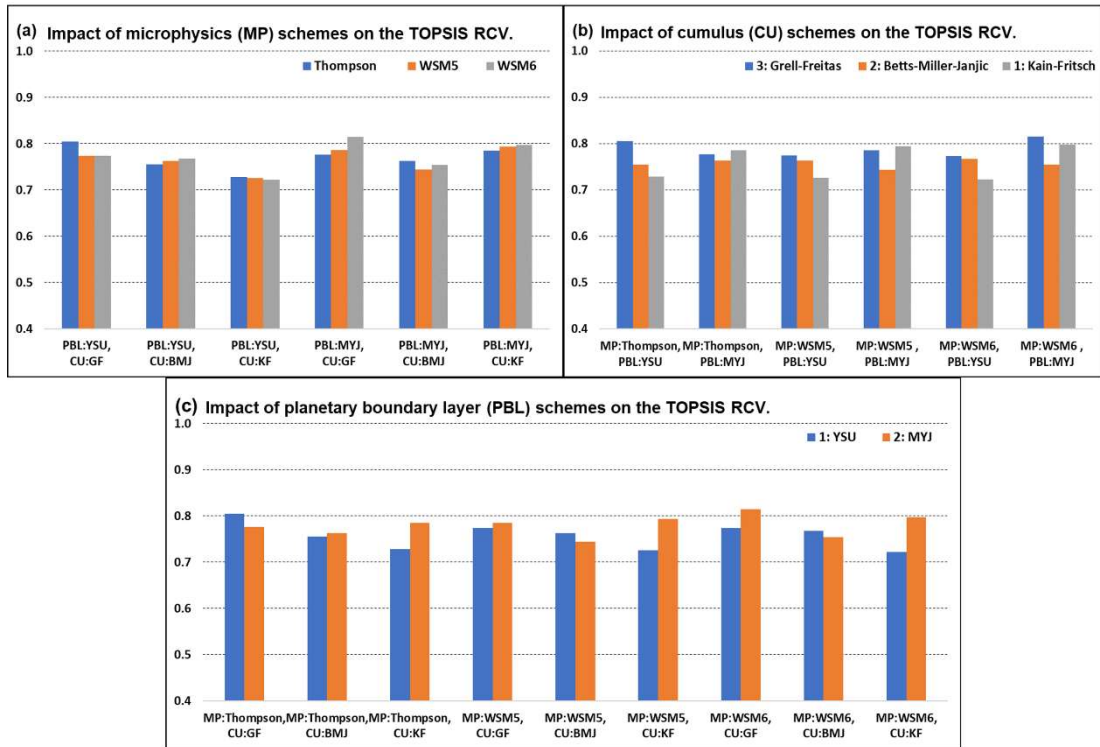
541

542 Comparing the *TOPSIS RCVs* of S4 experiments also indicates that C18 (Score: 0.805, 48 h spin-up
543 time) has the best performance, while C26 (Score: 0.653, 96 h spin-up time) has the worst performance.
544 This overall trend is consistent with the trend summarized above. Moreover, as the optimal experiment
545 of the previous scenario, the overall performance of OS3 (Score: 0.782, spin-up time 18 h) ranks the
546 fifth among the 18 experiments in this scenario. But the spatial correlation performance (*POD*, *FAR*,
547 *CSI* and *FBI*) of OS3 ranks first, with an average score up to 0.914. After analysing the weather variables
548 at the start time of OS3, it is found that there is no rainfall and other weather disturbances in the whole
549 simulated domain, which may help WRF simulate rainfall distribution more accurately. Moreover, the
550 water vapour in the domain is also at a relatively low level, and the state of the various hydrometeors
551 (e.g. cloud water, rain water and ice water) is also shown as the constant field. Since the various water
552 contents decide the maximum possible rainfall amount, the *RMSE* and *MBE* of OS3 are worse than
553 other experiments. On the other hand, C11, C12 and C13 simulated with the short spin-up times are not
554 ideal in terms of rainfall distribution and rainfall amount. Thus, it is concluded that the WRF simulations

555 must have a spin-up period of at least 12-18 h before the start of the event. Overall, C18 with the 48 h
 556 spin-up time is regarded as the optimal experiment of S4.

557

558 4.5 Results of the physical parameterization schemes scenario



559 **Figure 7.** *TOPSIS RCVs* of the experiments in S5 with different physical parameterization schemes. (a) The
 560 impact of MP schemes on *TOPSIS RCV*, in which the effects of combining three MP schemes (Thompson,
 561 WSM5 and WSM6) with different CU schemes and PBL schemes are compared. (b) Similar to (a) but shows
 562 the impact of CU schemes on *TOPSIS RCV*, in which three CU schemes (GF, BMJ and KF) are compared.
 563 (c) Similar to (a) but shows the impact of PBL schemes on *TOPSIS RCV*, in which two PBL schemes (YSU
 564 and MYJ) are compared.

565

566 After the domain size and spin-up time configuration evaluations, C18 (OS4) is selected as the starting

567 experiment to further explore the impact of MP, CU and PBL schemes on WRF performance. As Figure

568 7 (a-c) shows, WRF performance is less sensitive to MP schemes than CU and PBL schemes. There is

569 no significant performance gap between simulations using the same CU and PBL schemes but different

570 MP schemes, in which the maximum score difference of 0.038 occurs between Case 34 (MP: Thompson,

571 PBL: MYJ and CU: GF) and Case 46 (MP: WSM6, PBL: MYJ and CU: GF). As for CU schemes, its
572 maximum score difference of 0.076 happens between C33 (MP: Thompson, PBL: YSU and CU: KF)
573 and OS4 (MP: Thompson, PBL: YSU and CU: GF). Moreover, the maximum score difference for PBL
574 schemes is 0.075 that appears between C45 (MP: WSM6, PBL: YSU and CU: KF) and C48 (MP:
575 WSM6, PBL: MYJ and CU: KF). These results are due to CU schemes have large influences on the
576 rainfall dynamics and variability, while PBL schemes strongly affect temperature, humidity distribution
577 and rainfall amount (Flaounas et al., 2011). On the other hand, as displayed in Figure 7 (b), BMJ CU
578 scheme seems to be less superior than KF CU scheme and GF CU scheme when combined with various
579 microphysics and planetary boundary layer schemes. The best BMJ CU case (C44, Score: 0.768) is
580 ranked only 10th in terms of overall performance in all physical parameter scheme experiments, while
581 the best KF CU case (C48, Score: 0.797) and the best GF CU case (C46, Score: 0.815) are ranked 3rd
582 and 1st respectively (Table 4). Sometimes, the microphysics should be able to reproduce the convective
583 precipitation in high resolutions and the use of CU scheme is not necessary. In such a case, the
584 computation time will increase, and the rainfall amount may be overestimated (Zheng et al, 2016). By
585 comparing the biases of S5 cases, it can be found that the differences in *RMSE* and *MBE* between GF
586 CU and KF CU are small, while differences for BMJ CU are obviously larger. Thus, the BMJ CU may
587 not be very suitable for this high resolution (3.5 km) application. The lower overall performances of
588 BMJ CU cases are also due to this reason. Besides, the evaluation results of the 6 experiments in Figure
589 7 (c) show that the MYJ PBL scheme performs much better than the YSU PBL scheme when combined
590 with the KF CU scheme. Thus, it is concluded that the WRF simulation in the Nile Delta and its
591 surrounding regions should avoid using YSU PBL and KF CU together.

592

Table 4. Total performance (*TOPSIS RCV*) ranking of all experiments.

593

Scenario	Rank in scenario	Rank in all experiments	Experiment number	<i>TOPSIS RCV</i>
Domain size (S1)	1	12	Case 1	0.775
	2	26	Case 3	0.762
	3	27	Case 2	0.755
Vertical levels (S2)	1	10	Case 7	0.782
	2	12	Case 1 (OS1)	0.775
	3	16	Case 5	0.772
	4	17	Case 4	0.771
	5	19	Case 8	0.768
	6	21	Case 6	0.767
Nesting ratio (S3)	1	10	Case 7 (OS2)	0.782
	2	18	Case 9	0.770
	3	33	Case 10	0.739
Spin-up time (S4)	1	2	Case 18	0.805
	2	5	Case 19	0.793
	3	8	Case 16	0.785
	4	9	Case 17	0.783
	5	10	Case 7 (OS3)	0.782
	6	12	Case 21	0.775
	7	22	Case 14	0.765
	8	23	Case 22	0.764
	9	27	Case 15	0.755
	10	31	Case 20	0.754
	11	34	Case 23	0.736
	12	35	Case 13	0.731
	13	37	Case 12	0.727
	14	40	Case 31	0.718
	15	41	Case 30	0.713
	16	42	Case 11	0.708
	17	43	Case 28	0.697
	18	44	Case 29	0.694
	19	45	Case 27	0.691
	20	46	Case 24	0.688
	21	47	Case 25	0.679
	22	48	Case 26	0.653
Physical parameterization schemes (S5)	1	1	Case 46 (OS5)	0.815
	2	2	Case 18 (OS4)	0.805
	3	3	Case 48	0.797
	4	4	Case 42	0.794
	5	6	Case 40	0.786
	5	6	Case 36	0.786
	7	11	Case 34	0.777
	8	14	Case 37	0.774
	8	14	Case 43	0.774
	10	19	Case 44	0.768
	11	24	Case 35	0.763
	11	24	Case 38	0.763
	13	27	Case 32	0.755
	13	27	Case 47	0.755
	15	32	Case 41	0.744
	16	36	Case 33	0.729
	17	38	Case 39	0.726
	18	39	Case 45	0.722

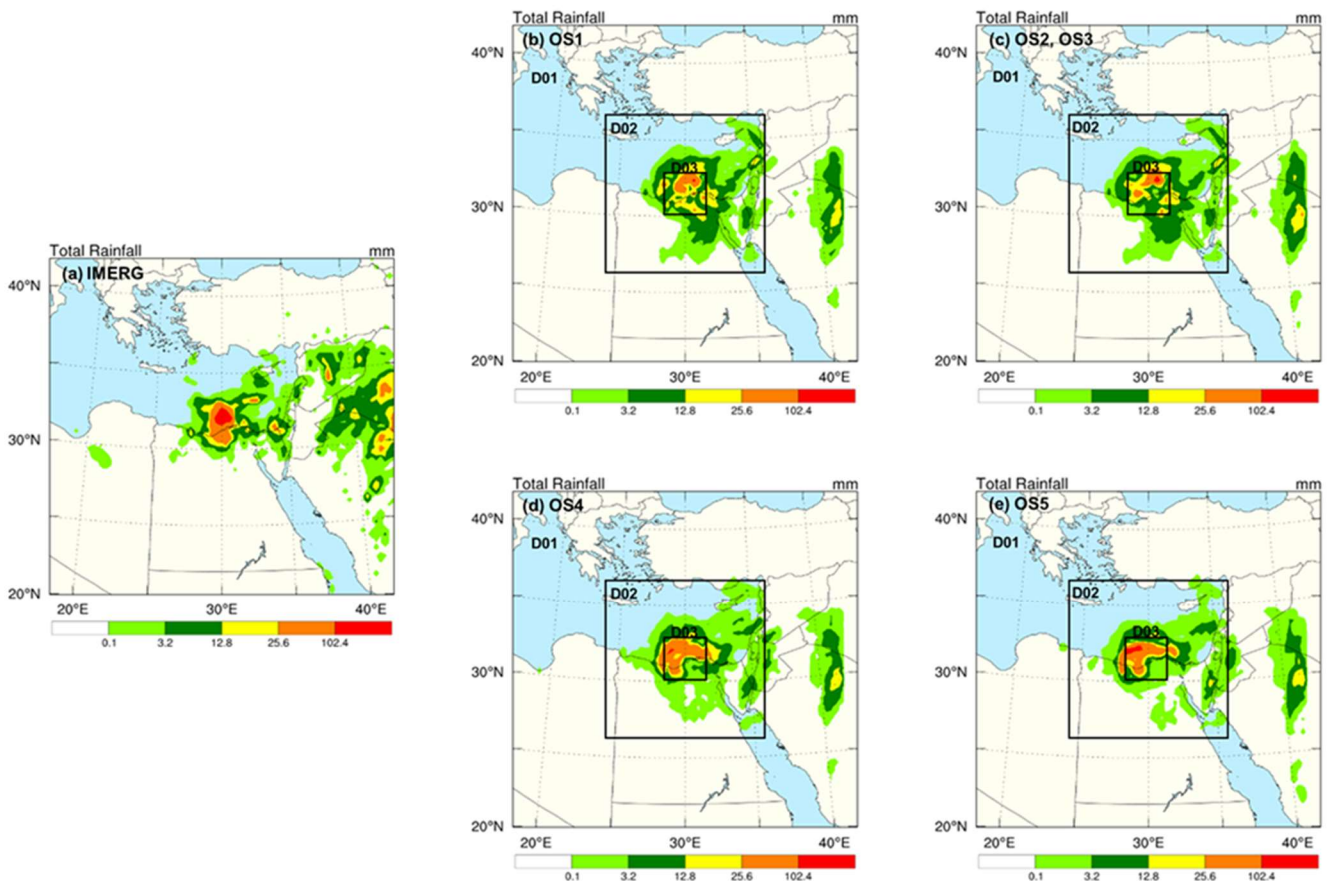
594 Based on the *TOPSIS RCVs* of S5 experiments, the most recommended scheme combination is C46
595 (Score: 0.815, MP: WSM6, PBL: MYJ and CU: GF). Moreover, OS4 (Score:0.805, MP: Thompson,
596 PBL: YSU and CU: GF) is also worth recommending. It has a good spatial correlation ($POD=0.862$,
597 $FAR=0.106$, $CSI=0.783$ and $FBI=0.965$) while the ability to estimate rainfall amount is slightly weaker
598 than C46. The scores of the other 16 experiments range from 0.722 (C45) to 0.797 (C48), which
599 demonstrate the strong influence of physical parameterization schemes on WRF performance. After
600 conducting screening experiments of the five scenarios, C46 (OS5) is identified as the experiment that
601 best reproduces the Alexandria extreme rainfall event with the optimal set of domain-related
602 configuration, the ideal length of spin-up time, and the best combination of the physical
603 parameterization schemes. Furthermore, the total performance ranking of all 48 experiments is shown
604 in Table 4 to help understand performance improvements of WRF simulations in the PMCO method.

605

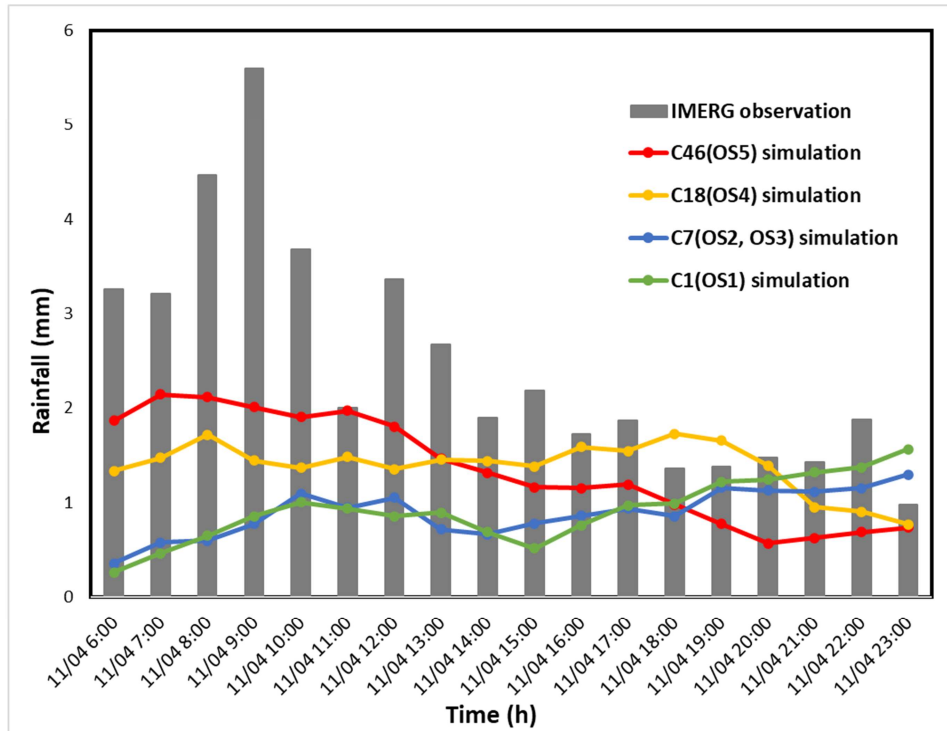
606 **4.6 Comparison of the optimal simulations in each scenario**

607 To show the importance of model configuration checking, the rainfall maps of five optimal simulations
608 and IMERG observation are compared in Figure 8 (a-e). After five steps of screening, the rainfall
609 amount and its distribution of OS5 are the closest to the IMERG, which has a great improvement in
610 rainfall amount estimation comparing with other optimal experiments. Besides, the rainfall patterns of
611 OS4 and OS5 are more similar to IMERG, while OS1 and OS2 (OS3) are much more dispersed than
612 IMERG. Therefore, the model spin-up time and physical parameterization schemes have a greater
613 impact on simulation performances than domain configuration options. The hourly rainfall changes of
614 WRF optimal simulations and satellite observation are also shown in Figure 9. These rainfall changes
615 are calculated over the D03 (about 0.09 million km²). It can be found that OS5 is more consistent with

616 the IMERG observation than other simulations, which has an obvious change from the heavy rainy
617 stage (6:00-15:00) to the moderate rainy stage (15:00-24:00). However, rainfall pattern rotation and
618 convection-related mesoscale wind rotation are found in the 2D and 3D animations of the WRF rainfall
619 simulation (included in the "supporting file"), which is not obvious in the IMERG observation. This
620 could be because the satellite didn't sufficiently capture the spatial variability and complex internal
621 structure of the storm at the spatial resolution of about 10 km. It could also be due to the mixture of the
622 higher and lower quality input data from multiple satellite sensors intensified the inconsistency of the
623 IMERG data. Therefore, the WRF simulation is valuable in capturing the rainfall movement that is not
624 easily observed in the IMERG data.



625 **Figure 8.** Rainfall maps of satellite observation and WRF simulations drawn over the whole rainfall event
626 from 06:00 UTC to 24:00 UTC on 4 November 2015 for the outermost domain. (a) shows the rainfall map
627 drawn by IMERG data. (b)(c)(d)(e) show the rainfall maps of optimal experiments of every scenario. Among
628 them, the rainfall maps of OS2 and OS3 are both (c). (b)(d)(e) are the rainfall maps of OS1, OS4 and OS5
629 respectively.



630 **Figure 9.** Hourly rainfall series of satellite observation and WRF optimal simulations over the innermost
 631 domain (D03) from 06:00 UTC to 24:00 UTC on 4 November 2015. The observed rainfall can be roughly
 632 divided into two stages that are heavy rainy stage (6:00-15:00 UTC) and moderate rainy stage (15:00-24:00
 633 UTC).

634

635 Apart from the rainfall maps and rainfall series, the performances of the optimal experiments are
 636 quantified by seven verification metrics to show their integrated improvements. Table 5 shows the
 637 original and rescaled verification metric values calculated over the total evaluation duration of 18 h.
 638 Besides, *TOPSIS RCVs* are used to show the extent of total performance improvements between the
 639 simulations of different model configurations for the same rainfall event. First, the improvement of OS2
 640 (OS3) contrasted with OS1 is mainly reflected in *FAR*, *FBI* and *SD*. This improvement is because the
 641 increase of grid resolution can capture small-scale processes more accurately. Next, when compared
 642 with OS3, OS4 performs much better on the temporal metrics *RMSE*, *MBE* and *SD*, but slightly
 643 decreases on the spatial metrics. It is related to the different boundary conditions and disturbances at
 644 the different model beginning times. Due to the limited kinetic energy for rainfall, the increased ability

645 to simulate rainfall intensity could be accompanied by the decreased ability to simulate rainfall
646 distribution. Finally, OS5 further improves *RMSE*, *MBE*, *SD* and even *FAR* after employing a better
647 combination of physical parameterization schemes. In summary, *RMSE_r* increases from 0.525 in OS1
648 to 0.699 in OS5, *MBE_r* increases from 0.785 to 0.863, *SD_r* increases from 0.478 to 0.757, and *FAR*
649 decreases from 0.097 to 0.089. Moreover, the simulation total performance *TOPSIS RCV* also increases
650 notably from 0.775 to 0.815. Although not all the verification metric values improve, the improvements
651 in *TOPSIS RCVs* and rainfall maps all reflect a significant increase in WRF skill after conducting the
652 re-evaluation process.

653

654 **Table 5.** Original metric values and rescaled metric values of the optimal experiments of every scenario.

Original values	<i>POD</i>	<i>FAR</i>	<i>CSI</i>	<i>FBI</i>	<i>RMSE</i>	<i>MBE</i>	<i>SD</i>	Calculation time step
Case 1 (OS1)	0.915	0.097	0.832	1.015	5.698	-2.575	3.135	3 h in D03
Case 7 (OS2, OS3)	0.910	0.086	0.837	0.996	5.642	-2.705	2.940	3 h in D03
Case 18 (OS4)	0.862	0.106	0.783	0.965	4.194	-1.471	2.404	3 h in D03
Case 46 (OS5)	0.818	0.089	0.759	0.898	3.607	-1.639	1.461	3 h in D03
Rescaled values	<i>POD</i>	<i>1-FAR</i>	<i>CSI</i>	<i>FBI_r</i>	<i>RMSE_r</i>	<i>MBE_r</i>	<i>SD_r</i>	<i>TOPSIS RCV</i>
Case 1 (OS1)	0.915	0.903	0.832	0.985	0.525	0.785	0.478	0.775
Case 7 (OS2, OS3)	0.910	0.914	0.837	0.996	0.530	0.775	0.510	0.782
Case 18 (OS4)	0.862	0.894	0.783	0.965	0.651	0.877	0.600	0.805
Case 46 (OS5)	0.818	0.911	0.759	0.898	0.699	0.863	0.757	0.815

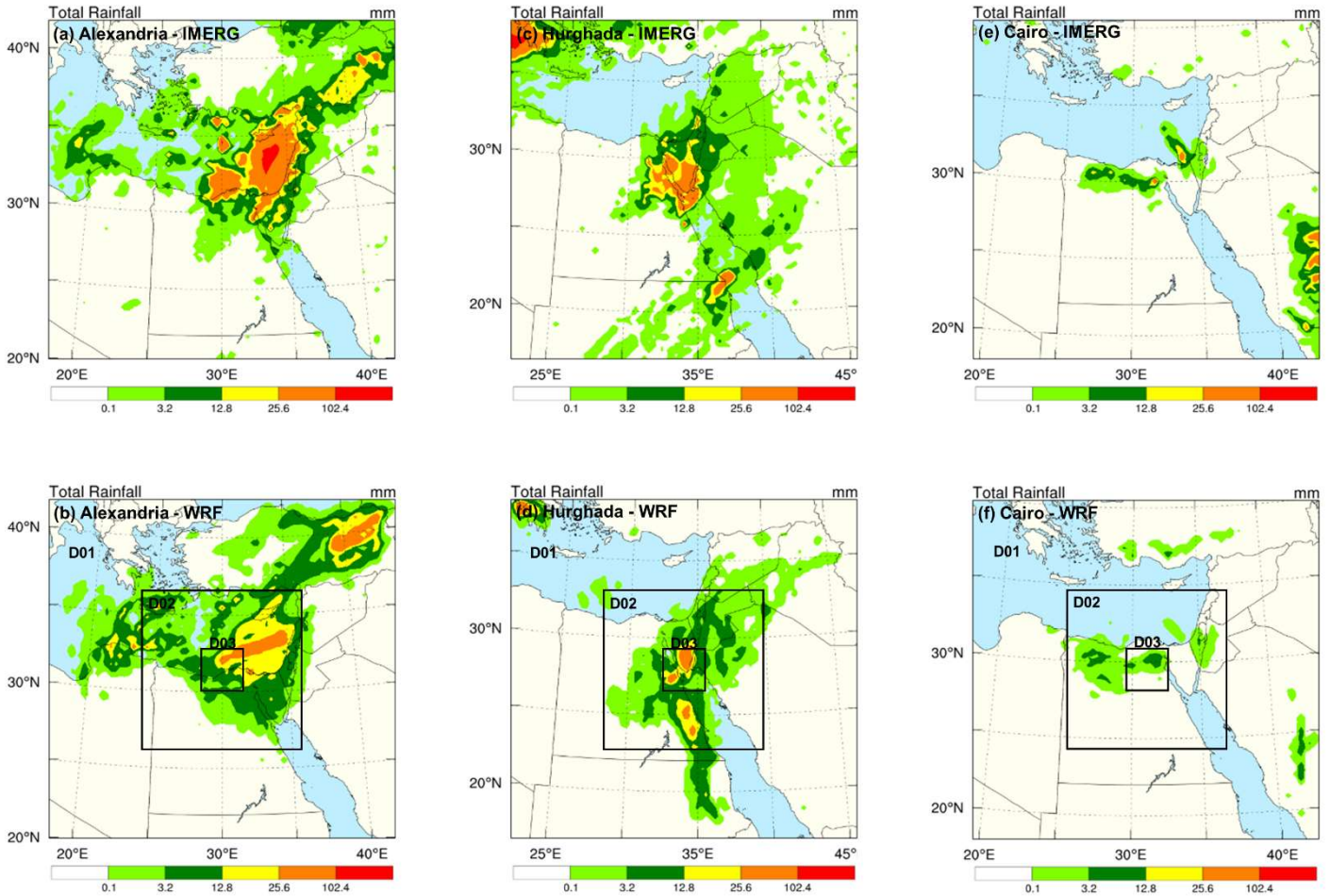
655 *Note.* *TOPSIS RCV* is used here to show the improvements between simulations of different model
656 configurations for the same rainfall event.

657

658 **4.7 Reproducibility over Egypt**

659 To investigate the reproducibility of the recommended configurations, three verification simulations are
660 established in Egypt. The first verification event also occurred in Alexandria and it uses the exact same
661 configuration as the core study event. The simulation domains of the other two verification events are
662 moved to the locations centred on Hurghada (latitude 28°N, longitude 34°E) and Cairo (latitude 29.5°N,
663 longitude 31°E) while the other configurations remain unchanged. The rainfall intensity and scale of

664 these three verification events are various in order to better compare with the IMERG observations and
 665 verify the stability of the recommended configuration set.



666 **Figure 10.** Rainfall maps for different rainfall events drawn by satellite observation (upper figures) and WRF
 667 simulations (lower figures). (a) and (b) show the rainfall maps for another Alexandrian rainfall event (Event
 668 1) occurred from 00:00 UTC to 12:00 UTC on 25 October 2015 over their outermost domain, which are
 669 plotted by IMERG data and WRF simulation (applied the optimal configuration set found in the core study
 670 event), respectively. Similarly, (c) and (d) show the rainfall maps for the Hurghada rainfall event (Event 2)
 671 occurred from 08:00 UTC to 20:00 UTC on 27 October 2016. (e) and (f) show the rainfall maps for Cairo
 672 rainfall event (Event 3) occurred from 12:00 UTC to 24:00 UTC on 24 April 2018.

673

674 As shown in Figure 10, rainfall locations and ranges of the three verification events simulated using the
 675 recommended configurations are very similar to the IMERG observations, which is a satisfying result
 676 for the NWP model simulations. The simulated rainfall distributions of Alexandria and Cairo events
 677 agree well with the observations. Although the Hurghada event had some light rain poorly captured, the

678 rainfall in the central target city is well presented. In addition to the rainfall maps, the original metric
679 values of the three verification events are shown in Table 6. They are also calculated between WRF and
680 IMERG for every 3 h, which is the same as the core event study. Because these three rainfall events
681 have different scales and intensities, different thresholds need to be used to rescale their simulation
682 verification metrics and show their performances. But if different thresholds are used to calculate
683 *TOPSIS RCV*, the comparison between the simulations of different verification events will not be
684 objective. Therefore, the *TOPSIS RCV* of the PMCO method is not used here for comparison, but this
685 method is still useful for re-evaluating the simulations of different configurations for the same event.
686 According to Table 6, the performances of the first two large-scale extreme rainfall simulations are very
687 good in both spatial and temporal dimensions. Although the scales and intensities of Event 1 and Event
688 2 are larger than the core study event, the recommended configurations still give the simulations stable
689 performances. But the spatial performances of the last small-scale rainfall simulation seem to be poor.
690 It may be due to the Saudi Arabia rainfall event near the domain boundary (the lower right corner of
691 Figure 10 (e, f)) which strongly influenced the simulated small-scale rainfall. Besides, the poor spatial
692 results could also be due to the time step is too small to reflect the real performance for small rainfall
693 simulation. If calculated by the accumulated rainfall (12 h), the *POD* of verification Event 3 is 0.943,
694 *FAR* is 0.246, *CSI* is 0.721, and *FBI* is 1.251. For such small-scale rainfall, the results of accumulated
695 rainfall seem more representative than the results calculated by the time step of 3 h.

696
697

Table 6. Original metric values of the three verification rainfall events.

Original values	<i>POD</i>	<i>FAR</i>	<i>CSI</i>	<i>FBI</i>	<i>RMSE</i>	<i>MBE</i>	<i>SD</i>	Calculation time step
Alexandria (Event 1)	0.866	0.137	0.766	1.005	4.161	-3.575	1.875	3 h in D03
Hurghada (Event 2)	0.842	0.092	0.775	0.933	5.631	-3.947	3.944	3 h in D03
Cairo (Event 3)	0.490	0.645	0.220	2.992	0.584	-0.361	0.436	3 h in D03

698 *Note.* *TOPSIS RCV* is not used here to compare the overall performance because the scale and intensity of
699 verification events are different.

700

701 Although the good stability of the recommended configurations is proved in other extreme rainfall
702 events, these rainfall simulations could be further improved if two adjustments can be made. Firstly, it
703 is better to increase the number of grids and expand the simulated domain for the large-scale rainfall in
704 Alexandria and Hurghada verification events. Because their rainfall affects a wider area than the core
705 study event and even reach the boundary of D01, which is unfavourable for the rainfall simulation inside
706 the domain. By contrast, the domain size for the small-scale rainfall simulation in Cairo could be
707 reduced to avoid the disturbances from the Saudi Arabia rainfall event near the boundary. The quality
708 of rainfall simulation is very sensitive to the input conditions such as soil moisture and the latent heat
709 flux (Kleczeck et al.,2014; Bonekamp et al.,2018; Lu et al., 2020). Thus, the domain size and location of
710 simulation should be considered according to the specific conditions of each event. It is also worth
711 mentioning that the rainfall near the boundary is easily underestimated, such as the upper left corner of
712 Figure 10 (c, d) and the lower right corner of Figure 10 (e, f). Second, according to the previous
713 hypothesis, the spin-up time may need to be reconsidered to obtain the best starting point for different
714 rainfall simulations. It can help WRF to simulate more accurate rainfall intensity. On the whole, the
715 optimal configuration set found in this study shows relatively stable performance in extreme rainfall
716 events over Egypt. The recommended configurations can also be used as a basis for modification
717 according to different rainfall conditions. Therefore, it can be used as a common set for extreme rainfall
718 simulations over Egypt or a reference set for other simulations beyond Egypt.

719

720 **5 Summary and conclusions**

721 This study conducts a set of evaluation tests by the PMCO method to explore the effects of domain size,
722 numbers of vertical levels, nesting ratio, spin-up times, and physical parameterization schemes on WRF

723 simulation for the extreme rainfall event on 4th November 2015 in Alexandria, Egypt. It contains five
724 scenarios and 48 sub-experiments. Their initial conditions are provided by the ERA5 reanalysis datasets
725 and WRF static geographical datasets, while the simulation results are verified by the IMERG rainfall
726 product. To help quantify simulation skills and screen the optimal configuration, four rainfall
727 distribution error metrics and three rainfall amount error metrics are calculated at different time periods
728 and summarized as *TOPSIS RCV* to show the overall performance of each experiment. Then the values
729 of seven error metrics and *TOPSIS RCVs* under different conditions are compared as the basis for the
730 subsequent evaluation process of optimal configuration set. Finally, the optimal configuration set is
731 applied in the simulations of other three rainfall events to verify its stability and efficiency. The entire
732 test aims to identify the likely optimal configuration set of WRF to reproduce the extreme rainfall event
733 in Egypt as well as to find key performance relationships to help improve the simulation of other rainfall
734 events.

735

736 Comparing the first optimal case C1 (OS1) and finally recommended setting C46 (OS5) shows that the
737 rainfall-related verification metrics and *TOPSIS RCV* are significantly improved by the PMCO method.
738 In particular, *FAR* decreases from 0.097 to 0.089, *RMSE* reduces by 36.84%, *MBE* reduces by 36.28%,
739 and *SD* reduces by 53.45%. Therefore, re-evaluating various WRF configurations could bring
740 substantial benefits for the studies of extreme rainfall simulation. Besides, the ideal optimal
741 configurations found in this study also have good performances in the other three rainfall events that
742 occurred at Alexandria, Hurghada and Cairo, which manifests the importance and practicality of the
743 configuration assessment study. In summary, the most recommended configurations for Egypt
744 comprises of three-level nested domains (D01 80x80; D02 112x112; D03 88x88), 58 vertical levels,

745 1:3:3 horizontal nesting ratio (31.5, 10.5 and 3.5km), 48h spin-up time, WSM6 microphysics scheme,
746 MYJ planetary boundary layer scheme and GF cumulus convection scheme.

747

748 The previous analyses reveal that the performance of WRF simulations varies greatly with different sets
749 of configurations. Therefore, it is worthwhile to explore their relationships on the spatial and temporal
750 scale in order to improve the reproducibility of extreme rainfall. Analysis results reveal the following.

751

752 1. The appropriate small domain is more effective in using the updated boundary conditions and
753 modifying model running errors. But domain sizes should not be fixed and need to be adjusted
754 according to the scale and intensity of individual rainfall events.

755 2. Increasing vertical grid resolution could enhance the development of small-scale physical
756 processes and obtain better rainfall distribution. However, considering the effect of amplifying
757 surface disturbances, a relatively suitable number of vertical levels should be between 50 and 60
758 when top-level pressure is set as 5000 Pa. This optimal vertical level number is consistent with
759 the suggestion of Chu et al. (2018).

760 3. The horizontal nesting ratio of 1:3:3 (the grid size of 31.5, 10.5 and 3.5 km) is sufficiently
761 powerful for accurate rainfall simulations, which helps to improve computational efficiency and
762 reduce model running perturbations. According to many previous studies, about three-fifths of
763 them (Sikder et al., 2016, Liu et al., 2012, Wilson and Barros, 2015, Zhang at al., 2019, Goodarzi
764 et al., 2019) employed 3-4 km horizontal grid spacing and obtained good rainfall simulations.

765 4. WRF simulations with insufficient spin-up periods (less than 12 h) are difficult to balance the
766 inconsistencies between boundary conditions and simulation results, which lead to poor

767 performance in capturing extreme rainfall. Moreover, there is an interesting finding that the
768 regional weather conditions (especially near the domain boundary) at the start of simulations may
769 impact the time required for model initialization, which has not been seen in other studies. If this
770 hypothesis is true, the optimal length of the model spin-up time may vary for every specific event.
771 A further exploration of this will be conducted in our future studies. But a minimum of 12 h spin-
772 up time is still recommended for each WRF simulations.

773 5. Some physical parameterization schemes and combinations are found inadequate to simulate
774 rainfall over Egypt, such as the BMJ CU scheme and the combination of YSU PBL scheme and
775 KF CU scheme. Different from some relevant studies (Flaounas et al., 2011, Evans et al., 2012),
776 it is found that the combination of MYJ PBL scheme and GF CU scheme could improve rainfall
777 simulation over Egypt. The selection and combination of physical schemes have large impacts
778 on temperature, humidity distribution, rainfall dynamics, and rainfall variability. So the
779 adaptability of physical scheme combination for the study area should be clearly understood
780 and considered before conducting rainfall simulations.

781 6. The rainfall distribution and magnitude were more sensitive to the changes in spin-up time and
782 physical parameterization schemes than the three domain configuration options. And the change
783 of vertical resolution has the smallest impact on WRF performance among all these
784 configurations. Besides, it is observed that the improvement of WRF's reproducibility of rainfall
785 intensity is usually accompanied by a decrease in the reproducibility of rainfall distribution.

786 7. The identification of ideal simulation according to just one type of metrics or only one evaluation
787 period may result in limited conclusions. The multimetric decision making analysis method is a
788 good choice that can summarize various metrics related to rainfall distribution and rainfall

789 intensity into an overall performance for comparisons. This study details how to use the PMCO
790 method to screen the optimal WRF configuration for rainfall simulation. In future, this evaluation
791 method should be applied to more case studies to help assess the uncertainties of WRF modelling.

792 8. The moderateness of the recommended model configurations should be considered and adjusted
793 before conducting rainfall simulations and designing hydrometeorological early warning systems.
794 For example, as suggests in Section 4.7, the size of simulated domains and the number of
795 horizontal grids should be modified according to the scale of rainfall. The recommended
796 configuration summarized in this study could be used as a common set over Egypt and a reference
797 set for simulations in other regions.

798

799 The Nile Delta in Egypt is a vulnerable zone that faces growing pluvial flooding hazards in recent
800 decades, while inadequate coverage of in-situ rainfall observations (radars and rain gauges) makes the
801 development of a hydrometeorological early warning system very difficult. WRF has been proven to be
802 an effective way to simulate weather events by downscaling global NWP products to the interested
803 areas, which is very suitable and feasible for countries like Egypt. In this study, the sensitivities and
804 uncertainties of various configurations are extensively explored through the PMCO method. However,
805 there is a limitation of this study that the PMCO method may get different results when using different
806 study events. Thus, it is very important to select a representative event of the study area to obtain the
807 optimal configuration. If extreme rainfall with different characteristics can be classified systematically
808 and the PMCO method can be conducted to each classification, then such a comprehensive
809 configuration list may be better for the subsequent applications. However, it is best to conduct this
810 further study in an area with a large number of recorded extreme rainfall events. At this stage, as the

811 research on WRF simulation in Egypt is very limited, we hope our study could just provide a useful
812 guide and fill the knowledge gaps for further studies. Another limitation is the relationship between
813 spin-up time and simulation performance has not been fully demonstrated due to the lack of more
814 accurate verification data like radars and rain gauges. Further work will aim to perfect this issue. Overall,
815 the knowledge gains in this study provides a useful foundation for developing a flood early warning
816 system by linking WRF (with the global forecast data) with WRF-Hydro (to convert rainfall into floods).

817

818 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

819 **Ying Liu:** Methodology, Formal analysis, Validation, Visualization, Software, Funding acquisition,
820 Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **Yiheng Chen:** Methodology, Visualization. **Otto**
821 **Chen:** Data curation, Funding acquisition. **Jiao Wang:** Software, Visualization. **Lu Zhuo:**
822 Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - review & editing. **Miguel A. Rico-Ramirez:** Data curation,
823 Supervision, Writing - review & editing. **Dawei Han:** Conceptualization, Supervision, Writing - review
824 & editing.

825

826 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

827 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that
828 could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

829

830 **Acknowledgement**

831 This study is supported by the Institutional Links grant [332430681] under the Newton-Mosharafa Fund.

832 The grant is funded by the UK Department of Business, Energy and Industrial Strategy (BEIS) and

833 Egypt Science and Technology Development Fund (STDF) and delivered by the British Council. The
834 first author gratefully acknowledges the China Scholarship Council (CSC No, 201908310086) and
835 University of Bristol joint-funded PhD Scholarship. The authors acknowledge the Advanced
836 Computing Research Centre at the University of Bristol for providing access to the High-Performance
837 Computing system BlueCrystal.

838

839 **References**

840 Awan, N.K., Truhetz, H. and Gobiet, A., 2011. Parameterization-induced error characteristics of MM5
841 and WRF operated in climate mode over the Alpine region: an ensemble-based analysis. *Journal*
842 *of Climate*, 24(12), pp.3107-3123.

843 Aligo, E.A., Gallus Jr, W.A. and Segal, M., 2009. On the impact of WRF model vertical grid resolution
844 on Midwest summer rainfall forecasts. *Weather and forecasting*, 24(2), pp.575-594.

845 Assari, A., Mahesh, T. and Assari, E., 2012. Role of public participation in sustainability of historical
846 city: usage of TOPSIS method. *Indian Journal of Science and Technology*, 5(3), pp.2289-2294.

847 Brath, A., Burlando, P. and Rosso, R., 1988. Sensitivity analysis of real-time flood forecasting to on-
848 line rainfall predictions. In *Selected Papers from the Workshop on Natural Disasters in European-*
849 *Mediterranean Countries*, Perugia, Italy (pp. 469-488).

850 Barnsley, M.J., 2007. *Environmental modeling: A practical introduction*. CRC Press.

851 Boran, F.E., Genç, S., Kurt, M. and Akay, D., 2009. A multi-criteria intuitionistic fuzzy group decision
852 making for supplier selection with TOPSIS method. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 36(8),
853 pp.11363-11368.

854 Bryan, G.H., Wyngaard, J.C. and Fritsch, J.M., 2003. Resolution requirements for the simulation of

855 deep moist convection. *Monthly Weather Review*, 131(10), pp.2394-2416.

856 Bonekamp, P.N.J., Collier, E. and Immerzeel, W.W., 2018. The impact of spatial resolution, land use,
857 and spinup time on resolving spatial precipitation patterns in the Himalayas. *Journal of*
858 *Hydrometeorology*, 19(10), pp.1565-1581.

859 Cluckie, I.D. and Han, D., 2000. Fluvial flood forecasting. *Water and Environment Journal*, 14(4),
860 pp.270-276.

861 Chu, Q., Xu, Z., Chen, Y. and Han, D., 2018. Evaluation of the ability of the Weather Research and
862 Forecasting model to reproduce a sub-daily extreme rainfall event in Beijing, China using
863 different domain configurations and spin-up times. *Hydrology and Earth System Sciences*, 22(6),
864 p.3391.

865 Dai, Q., Bray, M., Zhuo, L., Islam, T. and Han, D., 2017. A scheme for rain gauge network design based
866 on remotely sensed rainfall measurements. *Journal of Hydrometeorology*, 18(2), pp.363-379.

867 Di, Z., Duan, Q., Gong, W., Wang, C., Gan, Y., Quan, J., Li, J., Miao, C., Ye, A. and Tong, C., 2015.
868 Assessing WRF model parameter sensitivity: A case study with 5 day summer precipitation
869 forecasting in the Greater Beijing Area. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 42(2), pp.579-587.

870 ElTahan, M. and Magooda, M., 2017. Evaluation of different WRF microphysics schemes: severe
871 rainfall over Egypt case study. arXiv preprint arXiv:1711.04163.

872 Evans, J.P., Ekström, M. and Ji, F., 2012. Evaluating the performance of a WRF physics ensemble over
873 South-East Australia. *Climate Dynamics*, 39(6), pp.1241-1258.

874 Flaounas, E., Bastin, S. and Janicot, S., 2011. Regional climate modelling of the 2006 West African
875 monsoon: sensitivity to convection and planetary boundary layer parameterisation using WRF.
876 *Climate Dynamics*, 36(5-6), pp.1083-1105.

877 Goswami, P., Shivappa, H. and Goud, S., 2012. Comparative analysis of the role of domain size,
878 horizontal resolution and initial conditions in the simulation of tropical heavy rainfall events.
879 Meteorological Applications, 19(2), pp.170-178.

880 Goodarzi, L., Banihabib, M.E. and Roozbahani, A., 2019. A decision-making model for flood warning
881 system based on ensemble forecasts. Journal of Hydrology, 573, pp.207-219.

882 Huffman, G.J., Bolvin, D.T., Braithwaite, D., Hsu, K., Joyce, R., Kidd, C., Nelkin, E.J., Sorooshian, S.,
883 Tan, J. and Xie, P., 2019. NASA Global Precipitation Measurement Integrated Multi-Satellite
884 Retrievals for GPM (IMERG). Algorithm Theoretical Basis Doc., version 6, 34 pp.,
885 https://docserver.gesdisc.eosdis.nasa.gov/public/project/GPM/IMERG_ATBD_V06.pdf.

886 Hwang, C.L. and Yoon, K., 1981. Methods for multiple attribute decision making. In Multiple attribute
887 decision making (pp. 58-191). Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg.

888 IHE Delft, 2017. Improving flood resilience of Alexandria, Egypt, [https://www.un-](https://www.un-ihe.org/news/improving-flood-resilience-alexandria-egypt)
889 [ihe.org/news/improving-flood-resilience-alexandria-egypt](https://www.un-ihe.org/news/improving-flood-resilience-alexandria-egypt).

890 Ji, F., Ekström, M., Evans, J.P. and Teng, J., 2013. Evaluating rainfall patterns using physics scheme
891 ensembles from a regional atmospheric model. Theoretical and applied climatology, 115(1-2),
892 pp.297-304.

893 Jankov, I., Gallus Jr, W.A., Segal, M. and Koch, S.E., 2007. Influence of initial conditions on the WRF–
894 ARW model QPF response to physical parameterization changes. Weather and forecasting, 22(3),
895 pp.501-519.

896 Joyce, R.J., Janowiak, J.E., Arkin, P.A. and Xie, P., 2004. CMORPH: A method that produces global
897 precipitation estimates from passive microwave and infrared data at high spatial and temporal
898 resolution. Journal of hydrometeorology, 5(3), pp.487-503.

899 Krieger, J.R., Zhang, J., Atkinson, D.E., Zhang, X. and Shulski, M.D., 2009. P1. 2 Sensitivity of WRF
900 model forecasts to different physical parameterizations in the beaufort sea region. In The Eighth
901 Conference on Coastal Atmospheric and Oceanic Prediction and Processes.

902 Kain, J.S., Weiss, S.J., Bright, D.R., Baldwin, M.E., Levit, J.J., Carbin, G.W., Schwartz, C.S., Weisman,
903 M.L., Droegemeier, K.K., Weber, D.B. and Thomas, K.W., 2008. Some practical considerations
904 regarding horizontal resolution in the first generation of operational convection-allowing NWP.
905 *Weather and Forecasting*, 23(5), pp.931-952.

906 Knievel, J.C., Ahijevych, D.A. and Manning, K. W., 2004. Using temporal modes of rainfall to evaluate
907 the performance of a numerical weather prediction model. *Monthly weather review*, 132(12),
908 pp.2995-3009.

909 Kleczek, M.A., Steeneveld, G.J. and Holtslag, A.A., 2014. Evaluation of the weather research and
910 forecasting mesoscale model for GABLS3: impact of boundary-layer schemes, boundary
911 conditions and spin-up. *Boundary-layer meteorology*, 152(2), pp.213-243.

912 Liu, J., Bray, M. and Han, D., 2012. Sensitivity of the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model
913 to downscaling ratios and storm types in rainfall simulation. *Hydrological Processes*, 26(20),
914 pp.3012-3031.

915 Li, L., Li, W. and Jin, J., 2014. Improvements in WRF simulation skills of southeastern United States
916 summer rainfall: physical parameterization and horizontal resolution. *Climate dynamics*, 43(7-
917 8), pp.2077-2091.

918 Lu, L., Pontoppidan, M., Sobolowski, S. and Senatore, A., 2020. The impact of initial conditions on
919 convection-permitting simulations of a flood event over complex mountainous
920 terrain. *Hydrology and Earth System Sciences*, 24(2), pp.771-791.

921 Nossent, J., Elsen, P. and Bauwens, W., 2011. Sobol'sensitivity analysis of a complex environmental
922 model. *Environmental Modelling & Software*, 26(12), pp.1515-1525.

923 Pei, L., Moore, N., Zhong, S., Luo, L., Hyndman, D.W., Heilman, W.E. and Gao, Z., 2014. WRF model
924 sensitivity to land surface model and cumulus parameterization under short-term climate
925 extremes over the southern Great Plains of the United States. *Journal of Climate*, 27(20), pp.7703-
926 7724.

927 Roberts, N.M. and Lean, H.W., 2008. Scale-selective verification of rainfall accumulations from high-
928 resolution forecasts of convective events. *Monthly Weather Review*, 136(1), pp.78-97.

929 Skamarock, C., Bogumiła Klemp, Jimmy Dudhia, Olivia Gill, Zhiquan Liu, Judith Berner, Wei Wang,
930 Georgia Powers, Gerald Duda, Dale Barker and Xiang-Yu Huang, 2019. A Description of the
931 Advanced Research WRF Model Version 4.

932 Seth, A. and Rojas, M., 2003. Simulation and sensitivity in a nested modeling system for South America.
933 Part I: Reanalyses boundary forcing. *Journal of Climate*, 16(15), pp.2437-2453.

934 Schwartz, C.S., Kain, J.S., Weiss, S.J., Xue, M., Bright, D.R., Kong, F., Thomas, K.W., Levit, J.J. and
935 Coniglio, M.C., 2009. Next-day convection-allowing WRF model guidance: A second look at 2-
936 km versus 4-km grid spacing. *Monthly Weather Review*, 137(10), pp.3351-3372.

937 Skamarock, W.C. and Klemp, J.B., 2008. A time-split nonhydrostatic atmospheric model for weather
938 research and forecasting applications. *Journal of computational physics*, 227(7), pp.3465-3485.

939 Sikder, S. and Hossain, F., 2016. Assessment of the weather research and forecasting model generalized
940 parameterization schemes for advancement of precipitation forecasting in monsoon-driven river
941 basins. *Journal of Advances in Modeling Earth Systems*, 8(3), pp.1210-1228.

942 Srivastava, R. and Bran, S.H., 2018. Impact of dynamical and microphysical schemes on black carbon

943 prediction in a regional climate model over India. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*,

944 25(15), pp.14844-14855.

945 Sun, Y., Yi, L., Zhong, Z., Hu, Y. and Ha, Y., 2013. Dependence of model convergence on horizontal

946 resolution and convective parameterization in simulations of a tropical cyclone at gray-zone

947 resolutions. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 118(14), pp.7715-7732.

948 Vannitsem, S. and Chomé, F., 2005. One-way nested regional climate simulations and domain size.

949 *Journal of climate*, 18(1), pp.229-233.

950 Warner, T.T., 2011. Quality assurance in atmospheric modeling. *Bulletin of the American*

951 *Meteorological Society*, 92(12), pp.1601-1610.

952 Wang, W., Bruyère, C., Duda, M., Dudhia, J., Gill, D., Kavulich, M., Werner, K., Chen, M., Lin, H.C.,

953 Michalakes, J., Rizvi, S., Zhang, X., Berner, J., Munoz-Esparza, D., Reen, B., Ha, S. and Fossell,

954 K., 2019. WRF-ARW version 4 modeling system User's guide, National Centre for Atmospheric

955 Research.

956 Wilson, A.M. and Barros, A.P., 2015. Landform controls on low level moisture convergence and the

957 diurnal cycle of warm season orographic rainfall in the Southern Appalachians. *Journal of*

958 *Hydrology*, 531, pp.475-493.

959 Yang, Q., Dai, Q., Han, D., Chen, Y. and Zhang, S., 2019. Sensitivity analysis of raindrop size

960 distribution parameterizations in WRF rainfall simulation. *Atmospheric Research*, 228, pp.1-13.

961 Zheng, Y., Alapaty, K., Herwehe, J.A., Del Genio, A.D. and Niyogi, D., 2016. Improving high-

962 resolution weather forecasts using the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) Model with an

963 updated Kain–Fritsch scheme. *Monthly Weather Review*, 144(3), pp.833-860.

964 Zhuo, L., Dai, Q., Han, D., Chen, N. and Zhao, B., 2019. Assessment of simulated soil moisture from

965 WRF Noah, Noah-MP, and CLM land surface schemes for landslide hazard application.
966 Hydrology and Earth System Sciences, 23(10), pp.4199-4218.

967 Zevenbergen, C., Bhattacharya, B., Wahaab, R.A., Elbarki, W.A.I., Busker, T. and Rodriguez, C.S.,
968 2017. In the aftermath of the October 2015 Alexandria Flood Challenges of an Arab city to deal
969 with extreme rainfall storms. Natural hazards, 86(2), pp.901-917.

970 Zhang, H., Wu, C., Chen, W. and Huang, G., 2019. Effect of urban expansion on summer rainfall in the
971 Pearl River Delta, South China. Journal of Hydrology, 568, pp.747-757.