

# Statistical and neural network assessment of the climatology of fog and mist at Pula airport in Croatia

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**Abstract.** A study was conducted on the climatological characteristics of fog and mist at Pula Airport in the northeastern Adriatic, using statistical and machine learning approaches. The study utilized meteorological data from Pula Airport, along with satellite sea surface temperature (SST) data from two coastal areas west and east of the airport, to gain insights into the influence of sea temperature on fog formation. To identify weather patterns associated with the occurrence of fog and mist, wind and mean sea-level pressure (MSLP) data from the ERA5 reanalysis were analyzed using Growing Neural Gas (GNG), a machine learning method. A notable finding was a declining trend in the frequency of fog and mist at the airport, which can be linked to the results of the GNG analysis of the ERA5 data. This analysis showed a decrease in synoptic patterns favorable for fog and mist. Fog occurs mainly between October and March and is primarily associated with weak westerly and northwesterly winds. Additionally, fog is more likely to occur when the sea surface temperature is higher than the air temperature. Mist has similar characteristics to fog, although it is more likely to occur with easterly winds.

## 37 **1 Introduction**

38 According to the World Meteorological Organization (WMO), fog is the suspension of very small water droplets or  
39 ice crystals in the atmosphere, reducing visibility on the Earth's surface to less than 1 km (WMO, 1966). The formation  
40 of these water droplets and ice crystals is influenced by factors such as cooling, increased humidity, and the mixing  
41 of air masses with different temperatures (Gultepe et al., 2007). Mist, a related phenomenon, occurs when horizontal  
42 visibility at the surface is between 1 and 10 km, with aviation meteorology specifically defining mist as conditions  
43 where visibility is between 1 and 5 km. Fog is a unique atmospheric phenomenon confined to the atmospheric  
44 boundary layer (ABL), the lowest part of the atmosphere, and its characteristics are influenced by the Earth's surface.  
45 The formation and dissipation of fog are impacted by synoptic and mesoscale conditions, as well as surface features  
46 such as moisture sources (e.g., oceans, lakes, rivers), vegetation, orography, urban areas, and sea currents.

47  
48 This study examines fog occurrence over an extended period at Pula Airport, located in the coastal region of Croatia  
49 in the northeastern Adriatic (Figure 1). The Adriatic Sea is a large semi-enclosed sea separating the Apennine  
50 Peninsula from the Balkans. It is the northernmost arm of the Mediterranean Sea, extending from the Strait of Otranto  
51 (where it connects to the Ionian Sea and the rest of the Mediterranean) to the northwest, toward the Po Valley and the  
52 Istria Peninsula. This region frequently experiences marine fog due to synoptic-scale effects that can trigger  
53 subsidence within the boundary layer, which causes stratus clouds to descend to the surface. Similar marine fog events  
54 have been studied in the northwestern Pacific and Atlantic Oceans (e.g., Koračin et al., 2001; Koračin and Dorman,  
55 2017). In the Adriatic, fog typically occurs between September and May, often disrupting sea transport and port  
56 operations (Popović et al., 2014). Fog also significantly affects air traffic at airports, where it can cause significant  
57 flight delays due to poor visibility and low cloud ceilings. These delays result in substantial financial losses for airlines,  
58 underscoring the need for accurate fog forecasting. For example, dense fog at New Delhi Airport in India caused losses  
59 of approximately 3.9 million U.S. dollars between 2011 and 2016 (Kulkarni et al., 2019). Improved fog forecasting  
60 could mitigate such losses, as illustrated by Allan (2001), who estimated that better forecasts for low-visibility events  
61 at three New York City airports could save up to \$240,000 per event.

62  
63 These factors highlight the critical role of fog research in advancing forecasting capabilities. Despite its importance,  
64 the study of fog remains an area of atmospheric science where our understanding is limited, both over land (Gultepe  
65 et al., 2007) and ocean (Koračin and Dorman, 2017). Fog formation involves a complex interaction of processes  
66 ranging from synoptic to microscale levels. The typical size of fog condensation nuclei is around  $0.1 \mu\text{m}$  ( $10^{-5}$  cm),  
67 while the synoptic-scale processes that contribute to fog development occur on a scale of  $10^8$  cm or more, making the  
68 ratio of interacting length scales about  $10^{13}$ . Fully understanding fog formation involves various elements, including  
69 large-scale synoptics (Belo-Pereira and Santos, 2016), characteristics of the surface and radiation exchange  
70 (Duynkerke, 1991), microphysics (Gultepe and Milbrandt, 2007; Wang et al., 2019), climatology (Stolaki et al., 2009;  
71 Veljović et al., 2015), relationships with turbulence intensity (Ju et al., 2020), presence of aerosol (Oztaner and  
72 Yilmaz, 2013), and more. The complicated interplay of meteorological parameters that determine whether fog forms  
73 or not poses a substantial challenge for accurate fog forecasting (Bergot and Koračin, 2021). **In addition to local factors**

74 influencing fog and mist formation, the impact of global warming and climate change cannot be overlooked. These  
75 global phenomena have been linked to a reduction in the number of days with fog and mist (Kawai et al., 2016; Klemm  
76 and Lin, 2016). Considering that fog occurrence in the eastern Adriatic has been studied infrequently, with the most  
77 recent research conducted over 50 years ago (Stipaničić, 1972), there is a need for updated insights.

78  
79 This study analyzes the climatological characteristics of fog at Pula Airport, Croatia, with a focus on understanding  
80 the general patterns of fog initiation and dissipation. The primary objective is to provide detailed statistical analyses  
81 to help understand the local and dynamic processes leading to fog development. A secondary objective is to assess the  
82 influence of sea surface temperature (SST) in the vicinity of the study area on the frequency and intensity of advective  
83 fog. SST has been shown to significantly impact the accuracy of numerical weather prediction (NWP) models (Huang  
84 et al., 2022). To achieve these goals, the Growing Neural Gas Network (GNG), an unsupervised machine learning  
85 algorithm within artificial neural networks (Martinetz and Schulten, 1991), was applied. This method classifies  
86 synoptic conditions that prevail before and during the occurrence of fog at Pula into distinct weather patterns, and  
87 identifies those that favor fog development. The results of this research could aid local forecasters in improving fog  
88 prediction by accounting for specific terrain and coastline features, as well as synoptic and local influences  
89 (particularly SST), thereby closing a gap in scientific knowledge about fog characteristics in this part of the  
90 Mediterranean.

## 91 **2 Location, data and methods**

### 92 **2.1 Location**

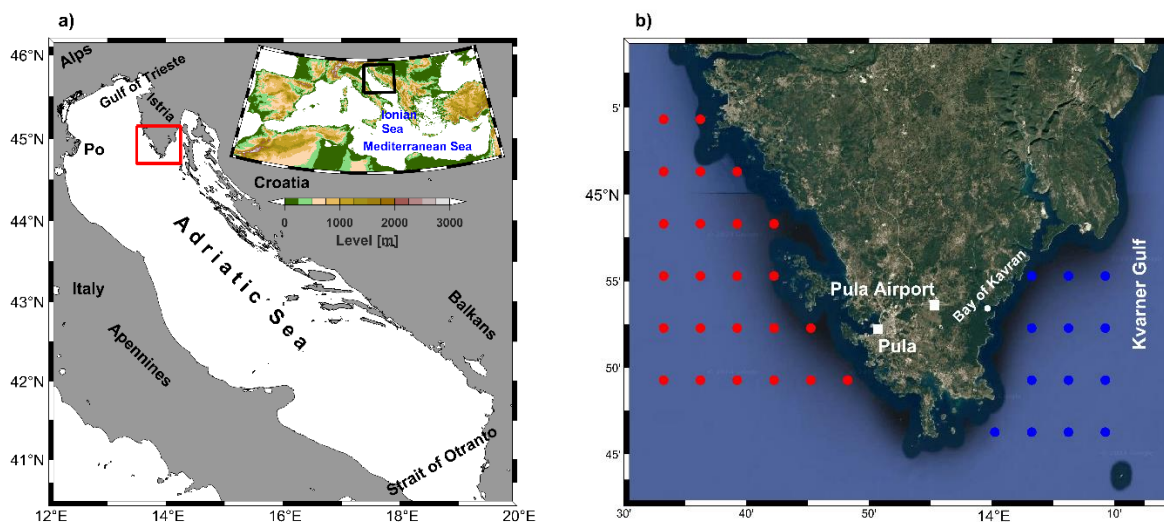
93 Pula Airport, located approximately 6 km ENE of the coastal city of Pula in western Croatia (Figure 1b), serves as the  
94 region's international airport. Its geographical coordinates are 44°53'37" N and 13°55'20" E, with an elevation of 84  
95 meters above mean sea level (AMSL). In 2023, the airport served 413,439 passengers, ranking as the fifth busiest  
96 airport in Croatia by passenger traffic (source: <https://podaci.dzs.hr/2023/en/58556>). The airport is situated at the  
97 southern tip of the Istrian Peninsula—the largest peninsula in the Adriatic Sea—positioned between the Gulf of Trieste  
98 to the northwest and the Kvarner Gulf to the east. The climate of Istria is influenced by Alpine and Dinaric Alps  
99 mountain ranges and the Mediterranean Sea. Winters in Istria are typically mild and wet, while summers are hot and  
100 humid. The interior of Istria experiences a more continental climate, while the coastal area is significantly influenced  
101 by the Adriatic Sea. Recent research has analyzed bioclimatic parameters, highlighting these climatic boundaries  
102 across the peninsula (e.g., Omazić et al., 2020).

103  
104 Two weather patterns are primarily associated with fog in Pula. The first involves a westerly to northwesterly flow  
105 that advects moist air under anticyclonic conditions. In these cases, advection can occur over a broad geographical  
106 area. Fog is often advected from the Po Valley in northern Italy, where it is a frequent phenomenon during the fall-  
107 winter season (Mariani, 2009), across the northern Adriatic to the Istrian coast. Under such conditions, fog can persist  
108 for days across the affected region (Bendix, 1994). For example, Linate Airport in Milan, Italy, historically

109 experienced the highest number of annual closures due to fog among European airports (Mariani, 2009). While  
 110 advective fog is less common in the northwestern Adriatic, it still frequently occurs on the western coast of Istria  
 111 (Tešić and Brozinčević, 1974), which is climatologically the foggiest area of the eastern Adriatic (Stipaničić, 1972).  
 112 The second weather pattern associated with fog in Pula involves an easterly to southeasterly flow during a weakening  
 113 anticyclone, often advecting moist air from the southeast. These patterns are linked to the broader atmospheric  
 114 circulation over the Adriatic Sea, which is shaped by four dominant wind regimes. The northeasterly bora and the  
 115 southeasterly sirocco winds, both common in the colder months, are influenced by regional synoptic systems. In  
 116 contrast, during warmer months, sea/land breezes and, to a lesser extent, the Etesian wind, become more prominent.  
 117 The wind regime strongly influences changes in wind direction at Pula Airport (e.g., Pandžić and Likso, 2005; Prtenjak  
 118 and Grisogono, 2007; Prtenjak et al., 2010; Belušić et al., 2018).

119  
 120 The terrain surrounding the airport is predominantly flat, covered with grassland and small forested areas. There are  
 121 no significant hills or mountains nearby that would notably influence the local weather or climate. The central part of  
 122 the airport, along with its southern surroundings, lies within a very shallow basin, which is prone to nighttime  
 123 inversions during calm wind conditions and clear skies (as reported by local forecasters). The proximity of the sea  
 124 exerts a substantial influence on the airport's weather. Pula Bay is located 6 km to the west-southwest, while the open  
 125 waters of the northern Adriatic Sea are just 10 km away. To the east, the open sea is 7 km away, with the small Bay  
 126 of Kavran situated just 5 km from Pula Airport. These geographical factors contribute to the significant marine  
 127 influence on the weather at Pula Airport, even though the airport itself is not directly on the coast.

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 129



130  
 131 **Figure 1. a) Map of the bathymetry of the Adriatic Sea, with the black square marking the Adriatic Sea area. The red**  
 132 **rectangle on the map marks the immediate surroundings of Pula Airport (b) (© Google Maps 2024). The important localities**  
 133 **are marked with white squares, while blue and red dots mark the eastern and western grid points from which the satellite**  
 134 **SST values were extracted. The wider area of the Mediterranean Sea corresponds to the area of the ERA5 reanalysis.**

135 **2.2 Data and methods**

136 The dataset used for this study includes half-hourly METAR reports and three-hourly SYNOP reports from the  
137 meteorological station at Pula Airport. METAR (METeorological Aerodrome Report) is a coded report describing  
138 weather conditions at the airport in a manner standardized for aviation. SYNOP (Surface Synoptic Observations) is a  
139 coded report describing weather conditions at a meteorological station. An airport meteorological station sends both  
140 SYNOP and METAR reports. The meteorological variables considered are wind speed and direction, temperature at  
141 2 meters above ground, dew point temperature, relative humidity, surface pressure, cloud cover, and horizontal  
142 visibility. These variables are reported by both station observers and automatic instruments. The dataset spans a 20-  
143 year period from January 1, 2001, to December 31, 2020, with all measurements recorded at the airport's  
144 meteorological station. Runway 27, the primary operational runway, is equipped for Category I operations. This allows  
145 for takeoff and landing under low visibility conditions with a Runway Visual Range (RVR) of up to 550 meters or a  
146 ceiling height of 200 feet (approximately 60 meters). This capability underscores the operational challenges posed by  
147 fog: visibility below 550 meters prohibits aircraft landings and takeoffs.

148  
149 In addition to the airport data, daily sea surface temperature (SST) measurements from the Pula Bay oceanographic  
150 station were included. These SST values, recorded at 07:00, 14:00, and 21:00 local time from January 1, 2001, to  
151 December 31, 2020, were supplemented with reprocessed satellite SST data from the Copernicus Marine Data Store  
152 (<https://data.marine.copernicus.eu/>). This gap-free dataset, which has been optimally interpolated with a grid  
153 resolution of 0.05° (Merchant et al., 2019), provides a comprehensive view of sea surface temperatures. Two coastal  
154 areas were selected for analysis: one to the west of the airport, encompassing the open Adriatic Sea, and the other to  
155 the east, covering the Kvarner Gulf (Figure 1). These regions were chosen to calculate the average spatial SST for a  
156 given day and evaluate their influence on fog formation. The selected areas are representative of the nearshore waters  
157 where the prevailing winds most frequently originate.

158  
159 To identify the synoptic wind and pressure fields associated with fog occurrence at Pula Airport and across the  
160 Mediterranean region, 10-meter wind and mean sea-level pressure (MSLP) data were sourced from the fifth generation  
161 of ECMWF's ERA5 reanalysis. This reanalysis provides a comprehensive record of global climate and weather from  
162 the last 4 to 7 decades. ERA5 integrates observational data with atmospheric models to deliver detailed and accurate  
163 assessments of past weather. It has a horizontal resolution of 0.25° for latitude and longitude, a temporal resolution of  
164 one hour, and a vertical resolution based on 37 pressure levels (Hersbach et al., 2020a; 2020b). The study area spans  
165 from 6°W to 42°E and 30°N to 48°N (Figure 1a, inset map), encompassing the region where key synoptic processes  
166 influencing the Adriatic Sea predominantly occur. The analysis covers a 40-year period from 1979 to 2019, providing  
167 a comprehensive temporal dataset for assessing atmospheric conditions. At the same time, this area optimizes the  
168 calculation time. To manage the large datasets of 10-meter wind and MSLP and classify them into spatio-temporal  
169 patterns that shed light on atmospheric conditions favoring fog formation at Pula Airport, the Growing Neural Gas  
170 Network (GNG) method was employed. GNG is an unsupervised artificial neural network that clusters high-  
171 dimensional input data by reducing its dimensions and grouping it into best matching units (BMUs) (Fritzke, 1995).

172 Unlike traditional neural networks with fixed structures, GNG dynamically expands by adding new neurons in  
173 response to input patterns. This ability to grow and adapt allows GNG to effectively cluster data and detect patterns  
174 and anomalies. The GNG algorithm has been successfully used to detect anomalies in Adriatic Sea data, combining  
175 various biological and oceanographic inputs (Šantić et al., 2021; Džoić et al., 2022).

176  
177 In this study, the methodology described in Matic et al. (2022) was applied to a high-dimensional, hourly, 40-year  
178 dataset comprising wind components  $u$  and  $v$ , analyzed separately for each month of the year. Prior to implementing  
179 the GNG algorithm, the wind data was arranged in such a way that two columns represented the spatial variations of  
180  $u$  and  $v$ , while rows corresponded to temporal instances. Wind data over land was excluded and assigned as NaN  
181 values to reduce calculation time. This exclusion did not affect the results, as the study's primary focus was on the  
182 synoptic-scale influences that generate specific wind patterns conducive to the formation of fog and mist. Over the  
183 sea, the winds are very homogeneous and are often directly related to large-scale synoptic systems such as cyclones  
184 or anticyclones, whereas over land, the influence of topography and vegetation introduces noise, masking these  
185 processes. The proximity of the airfield to the sea and the flat, low-lying terrain in the direction of prevailing winds  
186 (Figure 1b) justified this simplification of calculations. The GNG algorithm, implemented using the NeuPy Python  
187 library and parameterized following Matic et al. (2022), was used to calculate 9 BMUs per month for each month of  
188 the year. These BMUs were then linked to corresponding mean sea level pressure (MSLP) fields. The temporal  
189 sequence of BMUs was utilized to compute an average pressure field for each BMU, offering a detailed representation  
190 of atmospheric patterns associated with fog formation.

191  
192 Data processing and visualization were conducted using Python and MATLAB, with MATLAB employing the  
193 M\_map mapping package (Pawlowicz, 2020), available at [www.eoas.ubc.ca/~rich/map.html](http://www.eoas.ubc.ca/~rich/map.html).

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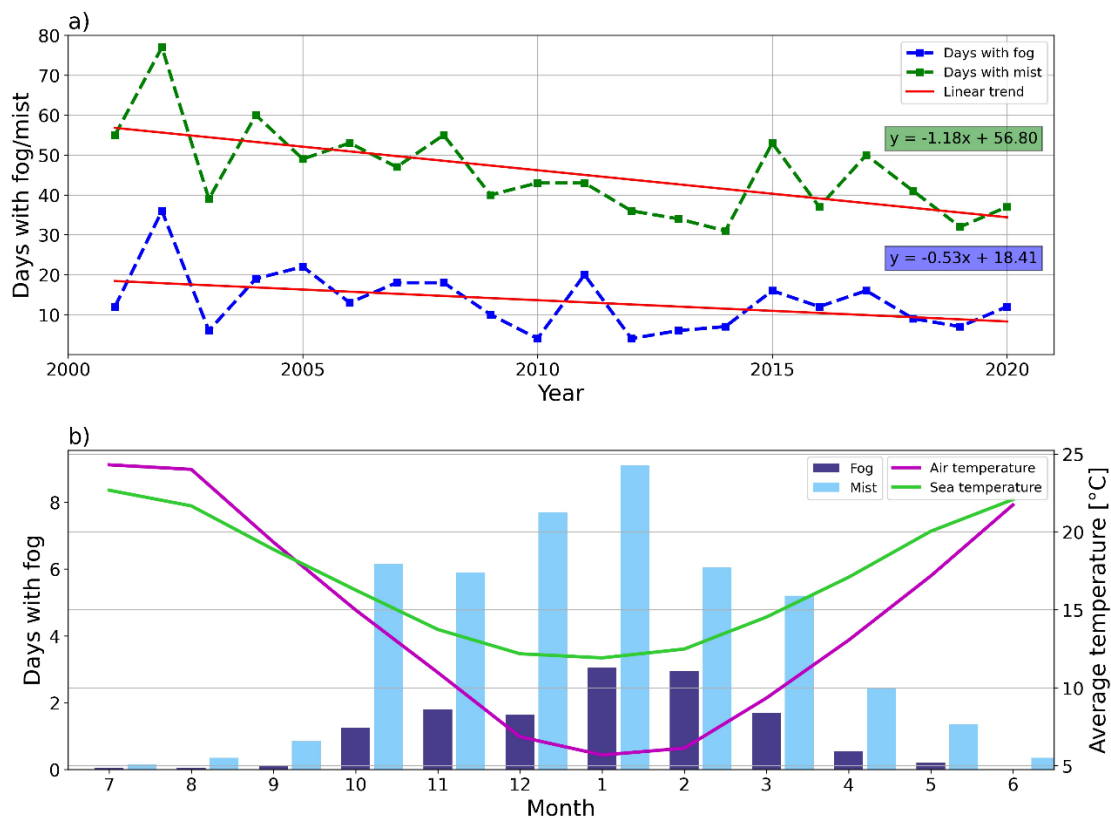
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## 201 3 Results and discussion

### 202 3.1 Climatological analysis

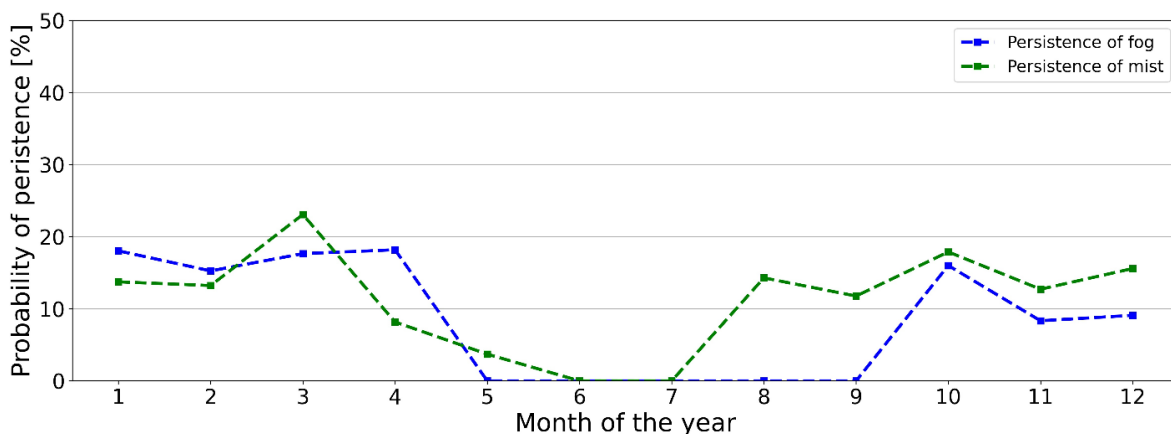


203 **Figure 2. a) Annual number of days with fog (blue line) and mist (green line) at Pula Airport, 2001-2020. with associated**  
204 **linear trends and trend equations. b) Average monthly number of days with fog and mist at Pula Airport, the average sea**  
205 **temperature measured at the oceanographic station in Pula Bay and the average air temperature measured at the Pula**  
206 **Airport, 2021-2020. The graph is centered on the boreal winter.**  
207

208 To comprehensively analyze fog occurrence over Pula Airport, a climatological analysis was conducted at both large  
209 and small scales. Figure 2a illustrates the annual number of days with fog and mist from 2001 to 2020. A "fog day" is  
210 defined as any day with at least one METAR report indicating visibility below 1 km and the presence of fog at the  
211 airport. Similarly, a "mist day" is defined as any day with a METAR report indicating visibility between 1 km and 5  
212 km, accompanied by mist observation, consistent with aeronautical meteorology definitions. This approach excludes  
213 cases where reduced visibility was caused by precipitation, such as rain or drizzle. On average, Pula Airport  
214 experiences 13.4 fog days and 45.6 mist days per year; however, this number is steadily decreasing, as indicated by  
215 the pronounced negative trend. The Mann-Kendall statistical significance test shows that this result is statistically  
216 significant at the 95% confidence level. A detailed evaluation of the linear trend indicates that the average number of  
217 fog days decreased by more than 10 days, from 18.4 in 2001 to 8.3 in 2020, with a slope coefficient of -0.53. Similarly,  
218 the average number of mist days declined by over 22 days, from 56.8 in 2001 to 34.4 in 2020, with a slope coefficient  
219 of -1.18. The larger absolute value of the slope coefficient for mist suggests that the average number of mist days is  
220 declining at a faster rate.



221 A seasonal analysis (Figure 2b) reveals that over 90% of fog and mist events occur between October and March.  
 222 January accounts for the highest frequency of fog (23% of days) and mist (20% of days), followed by February (21%  
 223 and 13%, respectively), with December notable for mist (17%). In March, October, and November, fog and mist occur  
 224 on 12–13% of days. Fog is rare from April to May and almost absent from June to September; for example, no fog  
 225 was observed in June during the analyzed period. The annual distribution of fog at Pula Airport is also comparable to  
 226 the annual distribution of fog events at Zagreb Airport (Zoldoš and Jurković, 2016). A summary of the data shows  
 227 that during the climatological summer (June-July-August), fog occurrence can be expected approximately every six  
 228 years. Mist follows a similar seasonal pattern but is more frequent overall. In recent decades, January and February  
 229 have swapped positions as the months with the highest frequency of fog. While February used to be the foggiest month  
 230 at Pula Airport with an average of 3.5 foggy days (Stipaničić, 1972), climatological results have shown us that January  
 231 has become the foggiest month with 3.05 foggy days. The frequency of fog persistence, which is defined as fog  
 232 occurrence on two consecutive days, is shown in Figure 3. As expected based on previous findings about fog  
 233 characteristics, persistence can be expected only in the colder part of the year (October-April). From May to  
 234 September, there have been no recorded instances of fog occurring on two consecutive days. Stable anticyclonic  
 235 conditions during the cold season are most conducive to fog persistence.



236  
 237 **Figure 3. Yearly distribution of the climatological probability of persistence (fog occurrence on two consecutive days) of fog**  
 238 **and mist at Pula Airport, 2001-2020. The probability of persistence is defined as the number of days with persistence relative**  
 239 **to the total number of days with fog in a given month. Cases where a single fog event was present around midnight (and**  
 240 **thus spanned two days) were not counted as persistence.**

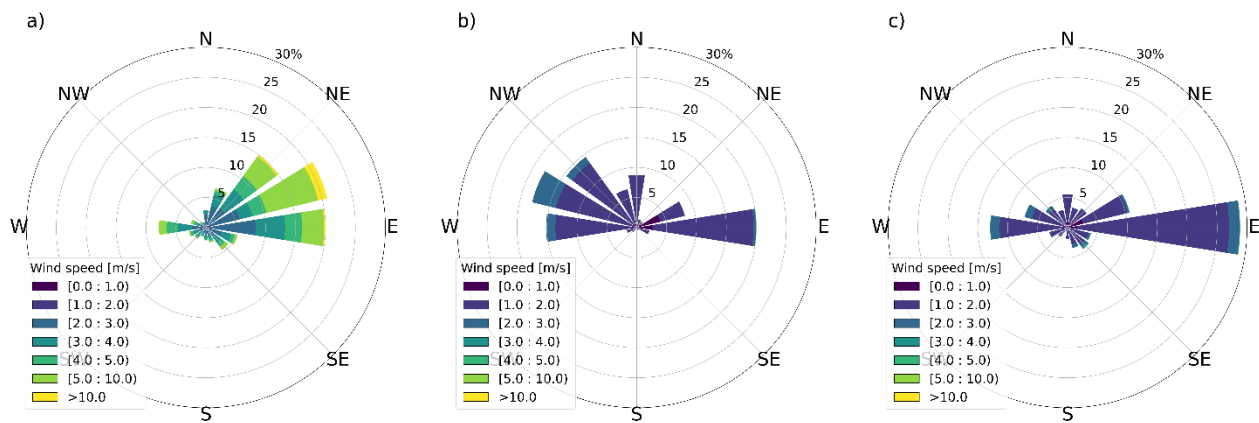
241 Wind is a critical factor influencing the formation and persistence of fog, as turbulence from wind shear significantly  
 242 impacts the height of the stable boundary layer. To understand this relationship, the statistical characteristics of wind  
 243 during fog episodes were analyzed. Figure 4 shows wind distributions (data from METAR reports) for all conditions  
 244 and for fog/mist conditions in a wind rose plot. In general, the dominant wind at Pula Airport is the NE (*bora*), which  
 245 can easily reach speeds greater than 10 m s<sup>-1</sup>. Other frequently observed winds include westerlies, resulting from the  
 246 interaction of Etesian winds with the sea breeze circulation (Pandžić and Likso, 2005; Klaić et al., 2009), as well as  
 247 north-northeasterly and southeasterly winds. Winds from the northwest and southwest are relatively rare. The wind  
 248 rose for fog conditions (Figure 4b) contrasts sharply with general conditions; W/NW winds are the most common  
 249 (accounting for 47.7% of measurements). These winds blow from the direction of the open sea, whereas easterly winds



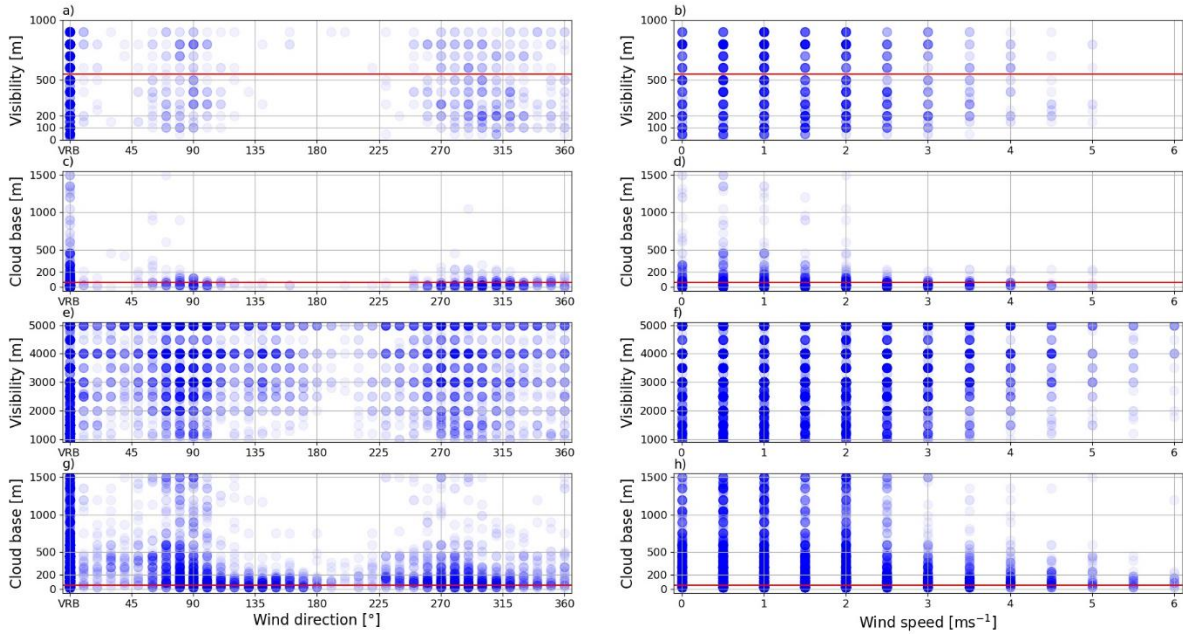
250 blow from Kvarner Bay, characterized by deeper waters and numerous islands. In some cases fog also forms under  
 251 light easterly winds, typically below  $3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , although westerly fog events are often accompanied by wind speeds  
 252 exceeding this threshold. Southerly winds are rarely associated with fog at Pula Airport.

253  
 254 Mist conditions show a different wind pattern (Figure 4c). Unlike fog, mist frequently occurs with easterly winds,  
 255 which account for 28.8% of observations. This is consistent with the higher overall occurrence of mist compared to  
 256 fog (Figure 2). Further analysis of the relationship between wind and visibility/cloud base in fog conditions (Figure  
 257 5a-d) highlights the rarity of fog in situations with northerly winds. The scatter plot of visibility and wind speed  
 258 confirms the existence of an optimal range of wind speeds conducive to fog, with most fog events occurring at wind  
 259 speeds between 0 and  $2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . The same is also observed for low clouds (lower than 200 m) — the majority of low  
 260 cloud bases were observed at wind speeds of  $1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  or less, some between 1 and  $2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , and very few cases at higher  
 261 wind speeds. The absence of cloud bases above 300 m at wind speeds higher than  $2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  is interesting. Higher wind  
 262 speeds indicate stronger advection, and personal communication from forecasters suggests that in these cases cloud  
 263 bases can be very low. This is particularly evident under westerly flows, where fog is more common and where wind  
 264 speeds are higher. The data for mist conditions (Figure 5e-h) leads to similar conclusions for visibility—mist occurs  
 265 more frequently under westerly or easterly winds with slightly higher wind speeds than fog. Mist conditions with  
 266 cloud bases above 500 m do occur but are rare, and one noteworthy difference between mist and fog is the higher  
 267 number of mist events with a low cloud base during southeasterly and southwesterly winds.

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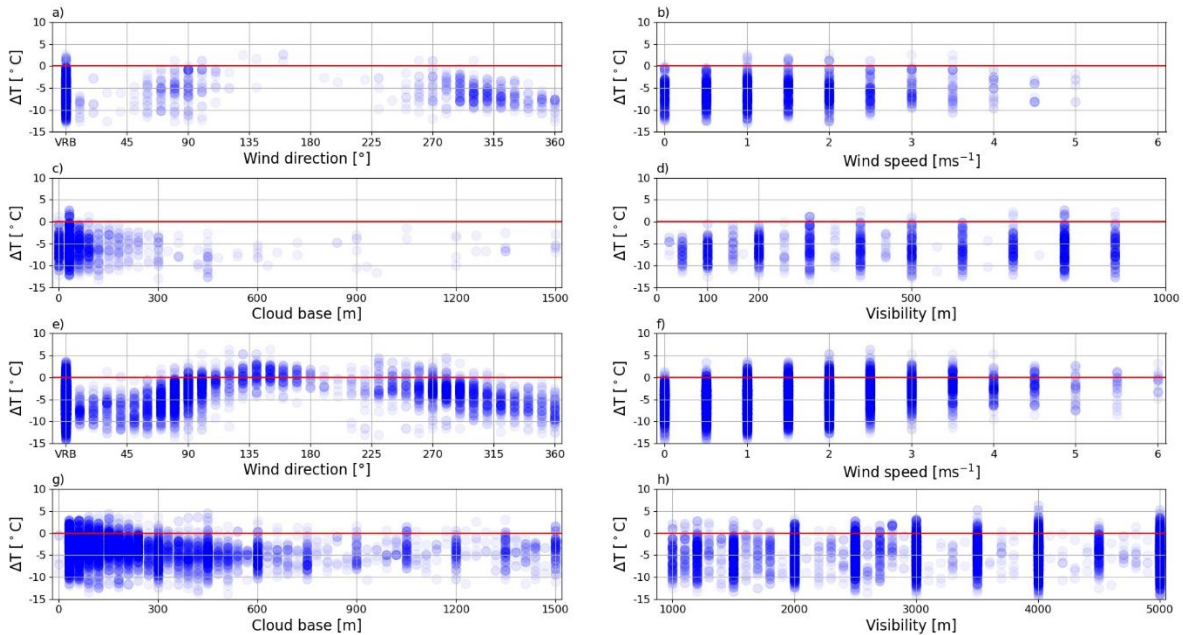


269  
 270 **Figure 4. Wind rose plots for Pula Airport, for dataset in the period 2001-2020: (a) the whole dataset, (b) fog conditions (c)**  
 271 **mist conditions. Data includes only reports where the variation in direction is less than  $60^\circ$  according to ICAO definition.**  
 272 **These account for 74 % of total data, 36 % of data in fog conditions and 39% of data in mist conditions.**



273  
 274 **Figure 5. Scatter plots of various meteorological parameters for fog conditions (a-d) and mist conditions (e-h) at Pula**  
 275 **Airport, 2001-2020. Circles are colored according to the frequency of data points (darker – more frequent). Red lines mark**  
 276 **the limits for Category I takeoff-landing procedures mentioned in Chapter 2. “VRB” denotes variable wind direction (180°**  
 277 **or more in a 2-minute interval) according to definition by ICAO (International Civil Aviation Organization).**

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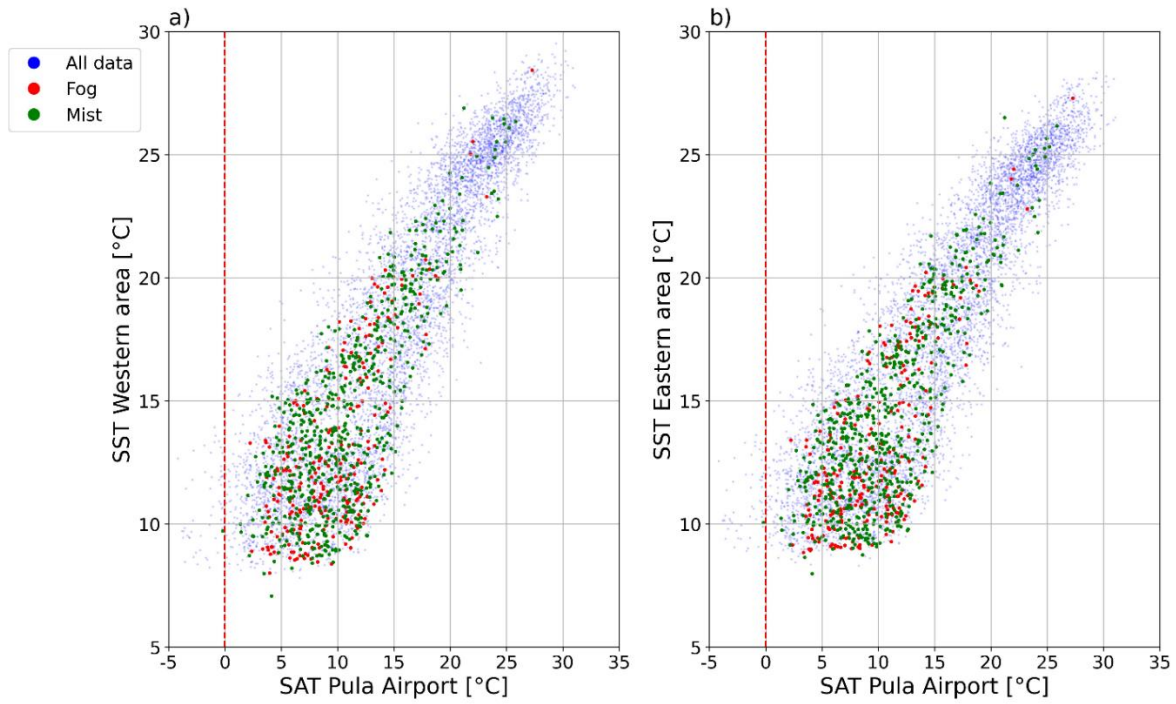
280  
 281 **Figure 6. Scatter plots of air-sea temperature difference between Pula Airport and Pula oceanographic station and various**  
 282 **meteorological parameters at fog initiation (a-d) and mist initiation (e-h), 2001-2020. Circles are colored according to the**  
 283 **frequency of data points (darker – more frequent). Red lines mark the 0 °C difference between air and sea temperature.**  
 284 **“VRB” denotes variable wind direction (180° or more in a 2-minute interval) according to definition by ICAO**  
 285 **(International Civil Aviation Organization).**

286

287 Fog occurrence can also be analyzed by examining conditions leading up to or at the time of its formation, as  
288 demonstrated in previous studies (Tardif and Rasmussen, 2007; Veljović et al., 2015; Zoldoš and Jurković, 2016), or  
289 by investigating the difference between air and sea surface temperature for marine fog (Li et al., 2022). In this study,  
290 SAT data from METAR reports at Pula Airport were compared with SST measurements from the oceanographic  
291 station in Pula Bay. Figures 6a-d depict scatterplots of SAT-SST differences and various parameters at fog initiation  
292 (first METAR report with visibility <1000 m), while Figures 6e-h present similar data for mist initiation.

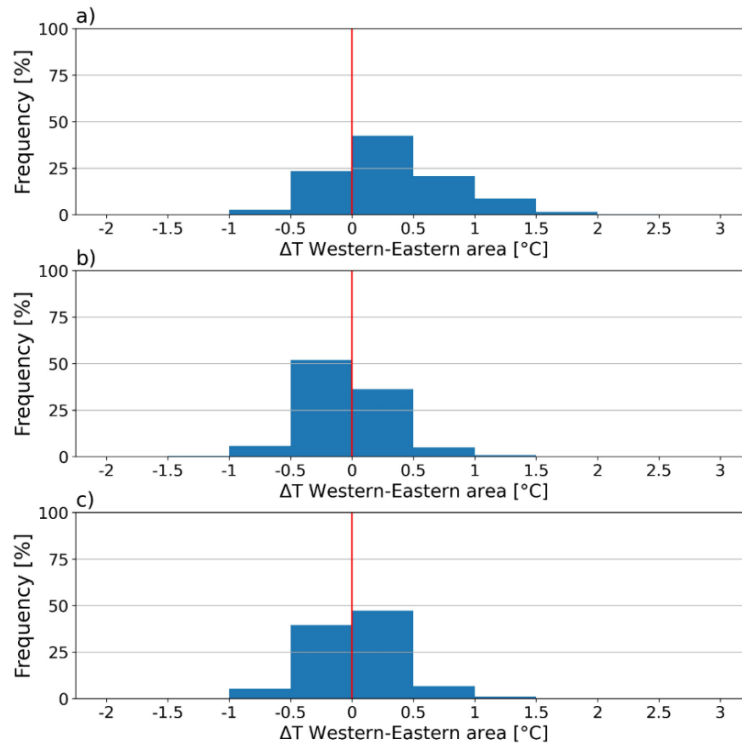
293  
294 The majority of fog and mist events occur under negative SAT-SST differences, indicating that the sea surface is  
295 warmer than the overlying air. Fog rarely forms during southerly winds, but mist is more common in these conditions,  
296 particularly under southeasterly winds (Figure 6e). For southeasterly, southerly, and southwesterly winds with mist,  
297 the SAT-SST difference tends to approach 0. Among fog events, 97.4% occurred with negative SAT-SST differences,  
298 with only 2.6% forming under conditions where SAT is equal to or warmer than SST. In mist cases, the proportion of  
299 positive or zero SAT-SST differences is slightly higher (7.4%) but still strongly favors conditions with warm sea and  
300 cooler air. At Pula Airport, fog is more common at wind speeds above  $3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  than in continental areas such as Zagreb  
301 Airport (Zoldoš and Jurković, 2016), but less common than in coastal regions such as California, where fog occurs at  
302 speeds above  $10 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  (Filonczuk et al., 1995). Fog rarely occurs in calm conditions, suggesting an optimal wind speed  
303 range for its formation and warranting further exploration, as the role of wind speed on turbulence and surface heat  
304 fluxes, as highlighted by Gultepe et al. (2007), significantly influences fog. While the influence of SST was initially  
305 assessed by comparing SAT measurements from the airport with SST data from the oceanographic station, a more  
306 comprehensive understanding is obtained by examining the effect of the sea to the west and east of the airport. To  
307 achieve this, satellite-derived SST values for the regions west and east of the airport (Figure 1b) were analyzed. These  
308 areas correspond to the directions of the two prevailing winds most commonly associated with fog formation at Pula  
309 Airport. Scatterplots of SAT versus SST were generated for the eastern and western regions, encompassing all  
310 observations, as well as those specifically under fog and mist conditions (Figure 7). A visual analysis indicates that  
311 fog and mist typically form when SAT-SST pairs are associated with lower values. A more detailed analysis reveals  
312 that fog data points (red dots) in the western region are more dispersed, indicating greater variability in SST for the  
313 same SAT, while the eastern region shows a more consistent SST-SAT relationship. Statistical analysis supports this  
314 observation, with the standard deviation of SST for fog observations being  $3.55 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  in the western area and  $3.37 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  in  
315 the eastern area. For mist, the standard deviation is  $4.03 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  in the western area and  $3.83 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  in the eastern area. To  
316 further investigate the role of SST in fog formation in fog formation, differences in SST between the western and  
317 eastern regions were analyzed under various conditions (Figure 8). When neither fog nor mist is present, SST in the  
318 western area is slightly higher than in the eastern area. During fog events, however, the pattern reverses, with SST  
319 being higher in the eastern area. In contrast, mist typically occurs when SST is higher in the western area than in the  
320 eastern area. These differences align with the prevailing wind directions observed during fog and mist events (Figure  
321 4). During fog, winds that are predominantly from the west to northwest (W-NW) promote cooling in the western  
322 area. Winds from the east (E) during mist contribute to reduced SST in the eastern region. Despite these variations,  
323 the SST differences between the two areas are small, rarely exceeding  $0.5 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ .

324



325

326 **Figure 7. Scatter plots of satellite sea surface temperature (SST) for western area (a) and eastern area (b), and surface air**  
327 **temperature (SAT) at Pula Airport, 2001.-2020.**



328

329 **Figure 8. Histograms of satellite SST difference between the western and eastern area for observations without fog or mist**  
330 **(a), fog (b) and mist(c).**

### 331 3.2 GNG analysis of synoptic weather patterns

332 In this analysis, the GNG method was applied to identify characteristic temporal and spatial patterns in wind and  
333 MSLP fields associated with the formation of fog and mist in the Pula region. The analysis was conducted on a monthly  
334 basis, processing data for each month (e.g., all January data, all February data) separately. This approach was chosen  
335 to improve the interpretability of the results, to take seasonality into account and to reduce the computational effort,  
336 especially given the large size of the hourly dataset. To save resources, the GNG algorithm was applied exclusively  
337 to 10 m wind data from ERA5, with the derived pressure fields being extrapolated afterwards. The derived pressure  
338 field corresponds to the mean pressure field associated with each BMU. Once the BMUs were identified, all pressure  
339 fields corresponding to the time instances of each BMU were retrieved and averaged to calculate the mean pressure  
340 field for each BMU. To obtain an appropriate synoptic situation with large wind systems, such as anticyclones and  
341 cyclones affecting the northern Adriatic, a large area in the Mediterranean was selected for analysis (Figure 1b). The  
342 analysis utilized 40 years of ERA5 data (1979–2019), providing extensive time series data to enable the GNG  
343 algorithm to derive robust and accurate spatio-temporal patterns. Notably, there is a one-year discrepancy between the  
344 ERA5 dataset and the fog dataset (2020) due to the GNG analysis being completed before this study began, and the  
345 computational resources required for a new analysis were unavailable. Since the wind was the primary variable and  
346 the MSLP was derived by averaging numerous synoptic situations, the wind had the dominant influence. This  
347 approach excluded the occurrence of extreme cyclonic systems (MSLP < 1000 hPa) or anticyclonic (MSLP > 1030  
348 hPa) from the results. For example, deep cyclones, which are extremes, are smoothed, and while BMUs can indicate  
349 their locations, the exact pressure values are not retained. However, from a conceptual point of view, the interaction  
350 between high and low pressure systems and the location of these systems and their associated winds match well with  
351 the climatology of the region.

352  
353 This process generated 9 Best Matching Units (BMUs) for each month (a total of 108 BMUs) distributed across hourly  
354 data, representing the weather patterns with the highest variance. Hourly data were then aggregated into daily data by  
355 identifying the most frequently occurring BMU within a day. For the 2001–2019 period, each day with fog or mist was  
356 assigned to its corresponding dominant BMU, providing a synoptic weather pattern classification for fog and mist  
357 days at Pula Airport. To focus on the prevailing synoptic patterns that contribute to the formation of fog and mist, the  
358 months from October to March (Figure 2b) were examined in more detail (Table 1). In this way, 85 % of the variability  
359 could be captured. Then, for each month, the first BMUs whose sum of their contributions to the variability exceeded  
360 the threshold of 60 % were selected. In this way, a total of 18 BMUs were included in the further analysis, which is  
361 significantly fewer than 54 BMUs (6 months multiplied by 9 BMUs). By selecting 2 to 4 BMUs for each month based  
362 on the criteria described above, the study captured more than 60 percent of the events for each analyzed month.

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368 **Table 1. Display of the most frequent Best Matching Units (BMUs) (the first BMUs for each month whose sum of their**  
 369 **contributions to the variability exceeded the threshold of 60 %) describing the prevailing synoptic weather pattern during**  
 370 **the days with fog and mist for the selected month at Pula Airport, 2001-2019. The slope coefficients describe the linear**  
 371 **trends of the most common BMUs, i.e. the yearly change in frequency, and they are also used to generate the graphs of the**  
 372 **linear trends in Figure 14.**

Month	BMU	Synoptic pattern	Wind	Slope coeff.	Frequency (fog)		Frequency (mist)	
					#	%	#	%
January	BMU-1-6	Quasi-non-gradient-field	WNW, W	-0.390	30	54 %	68	39 %
	BMU-1-8	Cyclone over northern Adriatic (MSLP<1008 hPa)	NW	0.107	11	20 %	39	23 %
February	BMU-2-5	Anticyclone over central/western Europe (MSLP>1028 hPa)	NE, NNE	0.006	8	16 %	13	12 %
	BMU-2-6	Quasi-non-gradient-field	SSW	-0.138	17	33 %	36	32 %
	BMU-2-7	Cyclone over northern Adriatic (MSLP<1008 hPa)	NW	-0.025	7	14 %	59	38 %
March	BMU-3-1	Anticyclone over southeastern Europe (MSLP>1022 hPa)	SSE	-0.572	16	16 %	5	16 %
	BMU-3-3	Cyclone over northern Adriatic (MSLP<1006 hPa)	SE	-0.051	6	19 %	25	25 %
	BMU-3-8	Quasi-non-gradient-field	SSE	0.255	11	35 %	31	39 %
October	BMU-10-1	Anticyclone over southeastern Europe (MSLP>1018 hPa)	NE	0.158	4	16 %	13	11 %
	BMU-10-5	Anticyclone over southeastern Europe (MSLP>1020 hPa)	SE	-0.272	10	40 %	38	32 %
	BMU-10-6	Quasi-non-gradient-field	SE	-0.051	4	16 %	27	23 %
November	BMU-11-5	Anticyclone over eastern Europe (MSLP>1024 hPa)	SE	0.251	8	24 %	23	21 %
	BMU-11-7	Quasi-non-gradient-field (MSLP>1022 hPa)	WSW	-0.415	6	18 %	29	26 %
	BMU-11-9	Anticyclone over southeastern Europe (MSLP>1026hPa)	ENE	-0.041	11	33 %	28	25 %
December	BMU-12-1	Anticyclone over southeastern Europe (MSLP>1026 hPa)	S	-0.000	7	21 %	31	21 %
	BMU-12-3	Cyclone over southern Adriatic (MSLP<1008 hPa)	NE	0.266	5	15 %	23	15 %
	BMU-12-4	Cyclone over the Tyrhennian Sea (MSLP<1008 hPa)	NE	-0.470	6	18 %	14	9 %
	BMU-12-8	Anticyclone over central and eastern Europe (MSLP >1030 hPa)	NE	-0.130	3	9 %	23	15 %

373

374 The analysis of synoptic patterns associated with fog formation (Table 1) indicates that in January, the dominant  
 375 conditions favoring fog and mist in Pula are characterized by a quasi-non-gradient field across the region (BMU-1-6,  
 376 Figure 9a), with a very weak mean pressure gradient (Belušić Vozila et al., 2021). This stable atmospheric pattern  
 377 supports the persistence of calm and stagnant air masses over Pula, limiting the dispersion of moisture and pollutants  
 378 and thereby enabling fog formation. The second most common synoptic pattern conducive to the formation of fog and  
 379 mist features a cyclone over the northern Adriatic (BMU-1-8, Figure 9c). Both synoptic patterns support weak  
 380 WNW/NW winds over the Istrian peninsula (Figure 9b and 9d). A similar synoptic pattern persists during the transition

381 into February and March. The cyclone over the northern Adriatic is the most frequent pattern suitable for the formation  
382 of mist in February (BMU-2-7, Figure 10a) and the second most frequent in March (BMU-3-3, Figure 10e). The  
383 difference is the prevailing NW wind in February (Figure 10b), while March is characterized by SE winds (Figure  
384 10f). The quasi-non-gradient pressure field is the most common pattern favorable for both fog and mist formation in  
385 March (BMU-3-8, Figure 10g), and the second most common for fog and the most common for mist in February  
386 (BMU-2-6, Figure 9g). SSW winds are observed in February (Figure 9h), whereas March is associated with weaker  
387 SSE winds (Figure 10d). In addition to the quasi-non-gradient field, favorable synoptic patterns in both February and  
388 March also include anticyclones over continental Europe (BMU-2-5, Figure 9e and BMU-3-1, Figure 10c).

389  
390 Fog events are rare in Pula from April to September, and as a result, the BMU analysis does not reveal clear patterns.  
391 The infrequent occurrence of fog during this period is attributed to lower relative humidity and the more stable  
392 atmospheric conditions typical of summer in the region. However, local factors, such as the sea/land breeze, may  
393 influence fog formation. Therefore, any analysis based on data from these months should be interpreted with caution,  
394 as the number of recorded fog events is limited.

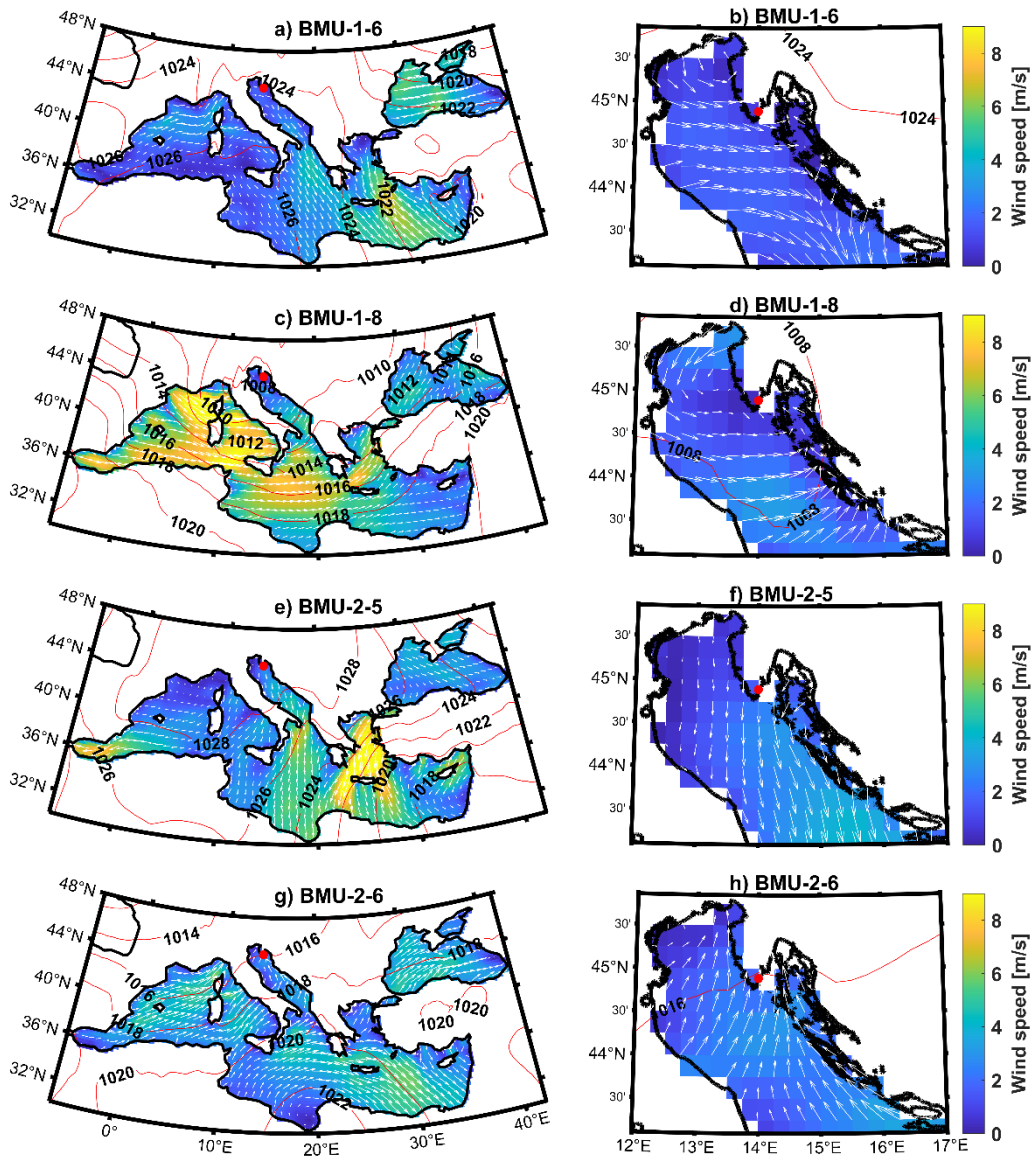
395  
396 At the beginning of October, synoptic conditions favorable for the occurrence of fog and mist in Pula are typically  
397 characterized by high pressure over continental Europe, with the most common pattern being the center of the high-  
398 pressure system positioned over southeastern Europe, which supports SE winds (BMU-10-5, Figure 11c and 11d).  
399 This anticyclonic pattern persists into November, accompanied by a strengthened pressure field and intensified  
400 pressure gradients over the central Mediterranean, conditions which promote fog development in the region (BMU-  
401 11-9, Figure 12e and 12f). The intensified synoptic pressure gradients over the central Mediterranean contribute to  
402 increased NE wind patterns. This increased wind activity can result in moist air being transported from the sea to the  
403 coastal regions, providing an additional source of moisture for fog formation. The convergence of air masses along  
404 these enhanced pressure gradients likely induces upward motion of air, which can result in adiabatic cooling and an  
405 increase in relative humidity, creating conditions favorable to fog and mist formation. Pula's coastal location amplifies  
406 the influence of the anticyclone. Coastal areas are more prone to temperature inversions due to the sea's heat retention,  
407 which reduces temperature fluctuations. Anticyclonic conditions over Eastern Europe combined with coastal  
408 geography create an environment where cool, moist air is trapped near the surface, favoring the formation of fog. The  
409 conditions that favor mist formation are varied; the most common synoptic pattern is the one where the high-pressure  
410 area is located over the western Mediterranean and WSW winds over the Istrian peninsula. In addition to the  
411 anticyclone, a quasi-non-gradient field is also present in October and November (BMU-10-6, Figure 11e, 11f and  
412 BMU-11-7, Figure 12c and 12d). In December, the prevailing synoptic weather patterns associated with fog and mist  
413 become harder to identify, with BMUs more evenly distributed and more dynamic conditions, similar to those in  
414 February and March. Nonetheless, the most frequent synoptic pattern for fog and mist (BMU-12-1, Figure 13a and  
415 BMU-12-8, Figure 13g) has anticyclonic characteristics. Under these conditions, the Pula region is under the influence  
416 of a pressure ridge, with the prevailing weak wind patterns from the S and NE further increasing the probability of  
417 fog formation (Figure 13b and 13h). Compared to earlier months, cyclones also play a more pronounced role in



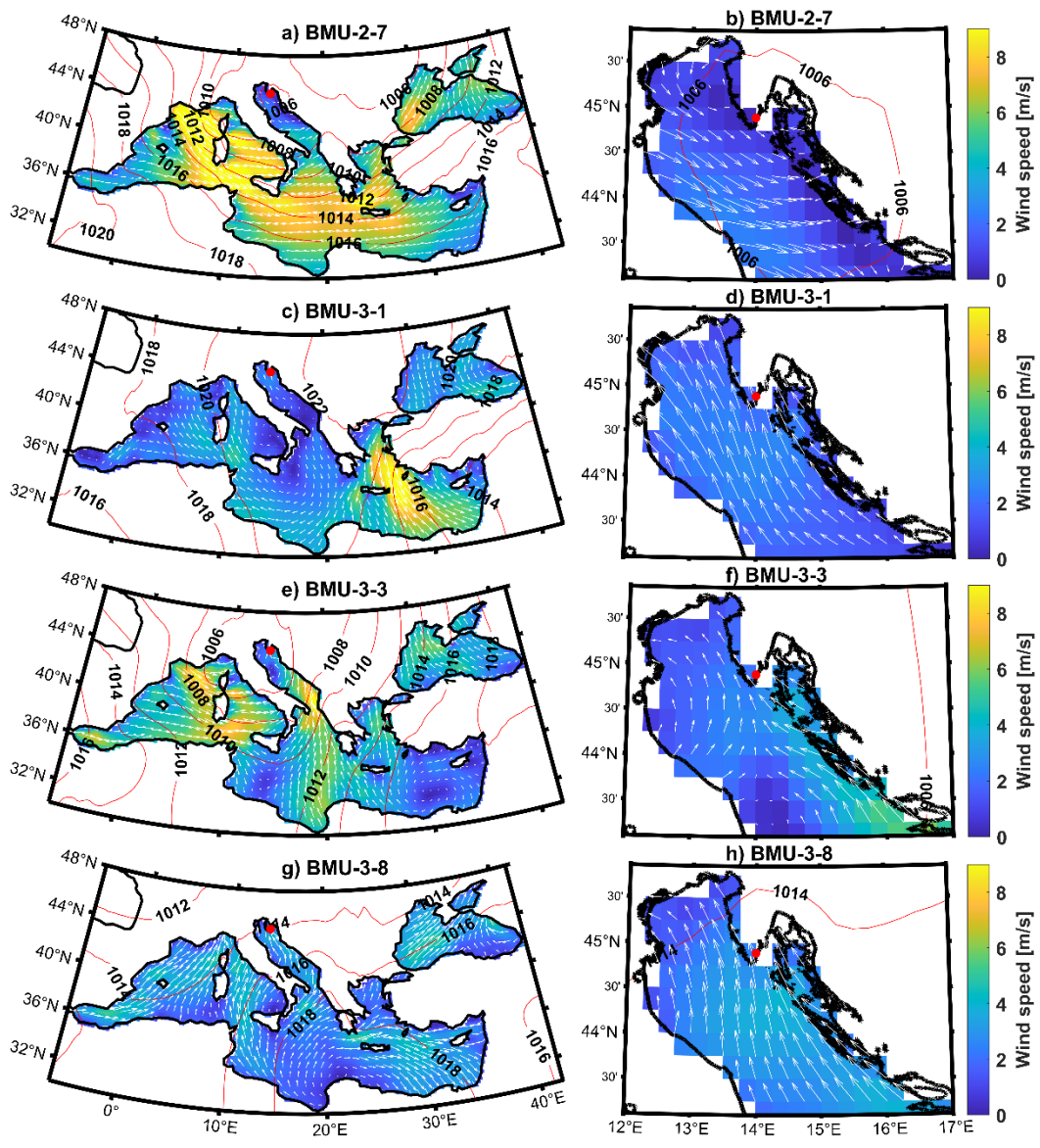
418 December's fog and mist formation. This influence is observed in two ways: weak NE winds associated with cyclonic  
419 conditions in the southern Adriatic (BMU-12-3, Figure 13c, 13d) and stronger NE winds due to cyclonic conditions  
420 in the Tyrrhenian Sea (BMU-12-4, Figure 13g, 13h).

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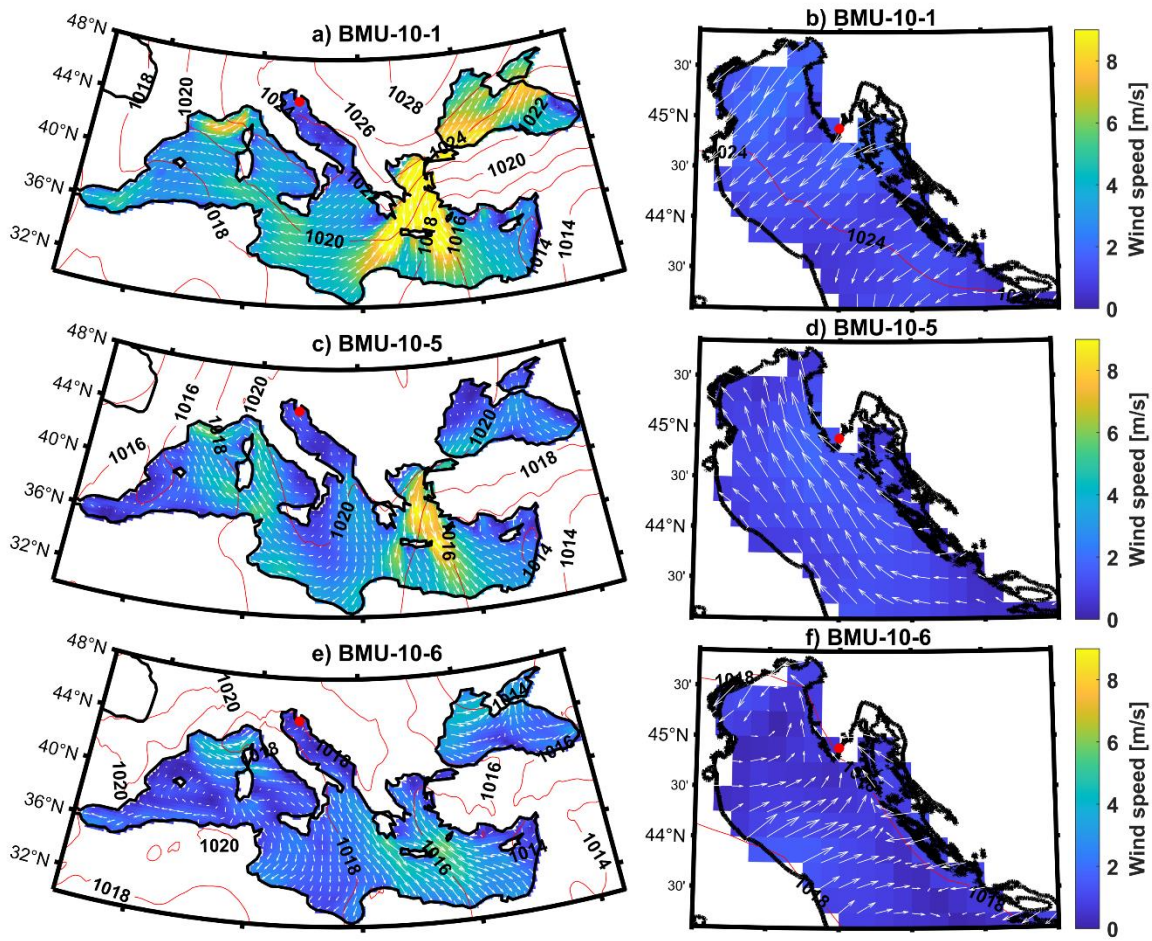
422 In summary, most fog and mist events during the cold season occur under stable anticyclonic or quasi-non-gradient  
423 conditions (13 total), though some events also occur under low-pressure conditions (5 total). WNW/W winds are most  
424 common in January and February under quasi-non-gradient fields and they contribute significantly to fog formation.  
425 SE winds dominate in March and October under anticyclonic conditions. Northeasterly winds are predominant in  
426 December, often in conjunction with anticyclones. The quasi-non-gradient field is the most-frequent weather situation,  
427 accounting for 40% of fog cases and 37% of mist cases, followed by anticyclones, which account for 39% of fog cases  
428 and 33% of mist cases. Cyclones are less common, accounting for 21% of fog cases and 30% of mist cases.



429  
 430 **Figure 9. Prevailing Best Matching Units (BMUs) describing the synoptic patterns favoring the formation of fog and mist**  
 431 **at Pula Airport in January (a, c) and February (e, g) for the wider Mediterranean region. The red dot marks the location**  
 432 **of Pula Airport. The red contour lines show the mean sea level pressure (MSLP). The contours represent the amplitude of**  
 433 **the wind speed, above which the wind vectors are represented by arrows (every third vector has been drawn). The same**  
 434 **principle applies to the zoomed area of the northern and central Adriatic for January (b, d) and February (f, h), but here**  
 435 **each vector is plotted.**  
 436



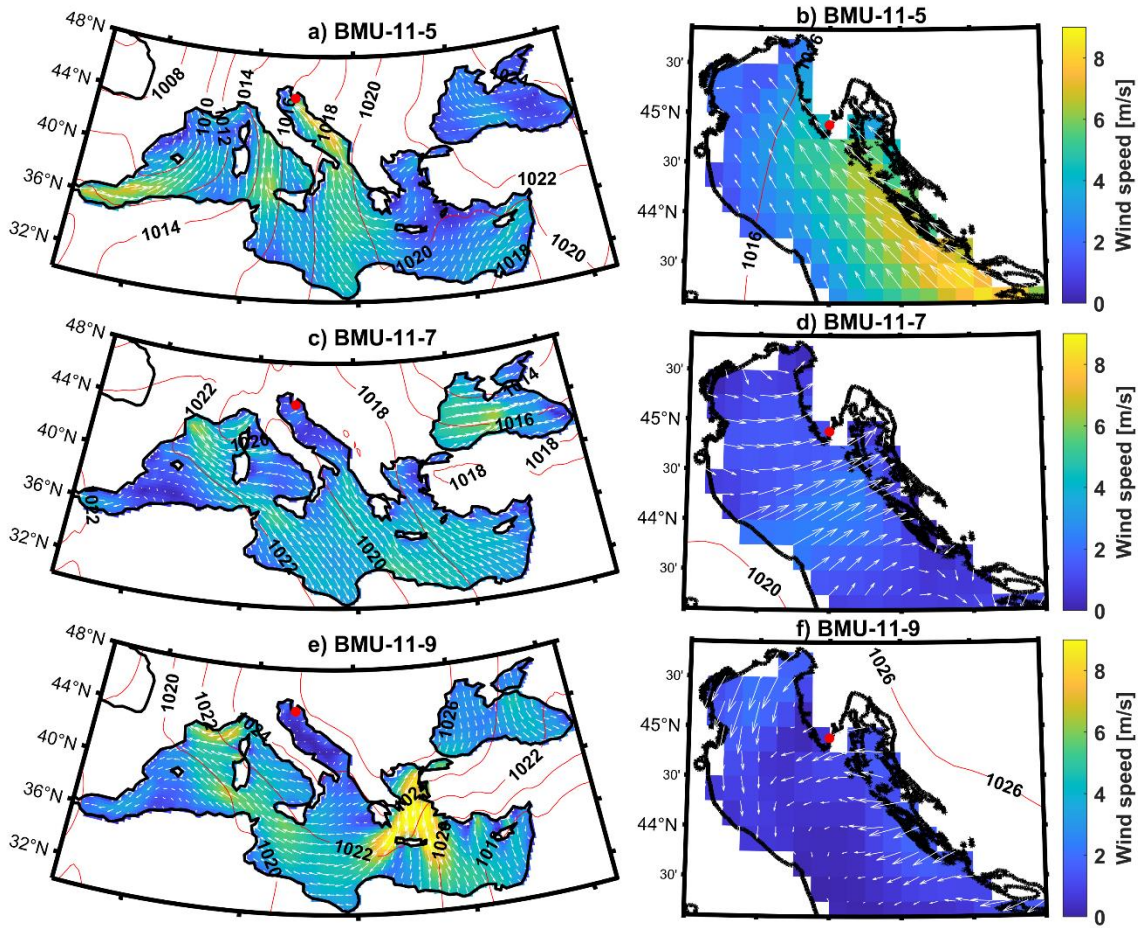
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 438 **Figure 10. Similar to Figure 9, but for February (a) and March (c, e, g) in the wider Mediterranean area, and for the**  
 439 **northern and central Adriatic: February (b) and March (d, f, h) in the zoomed-in area.**



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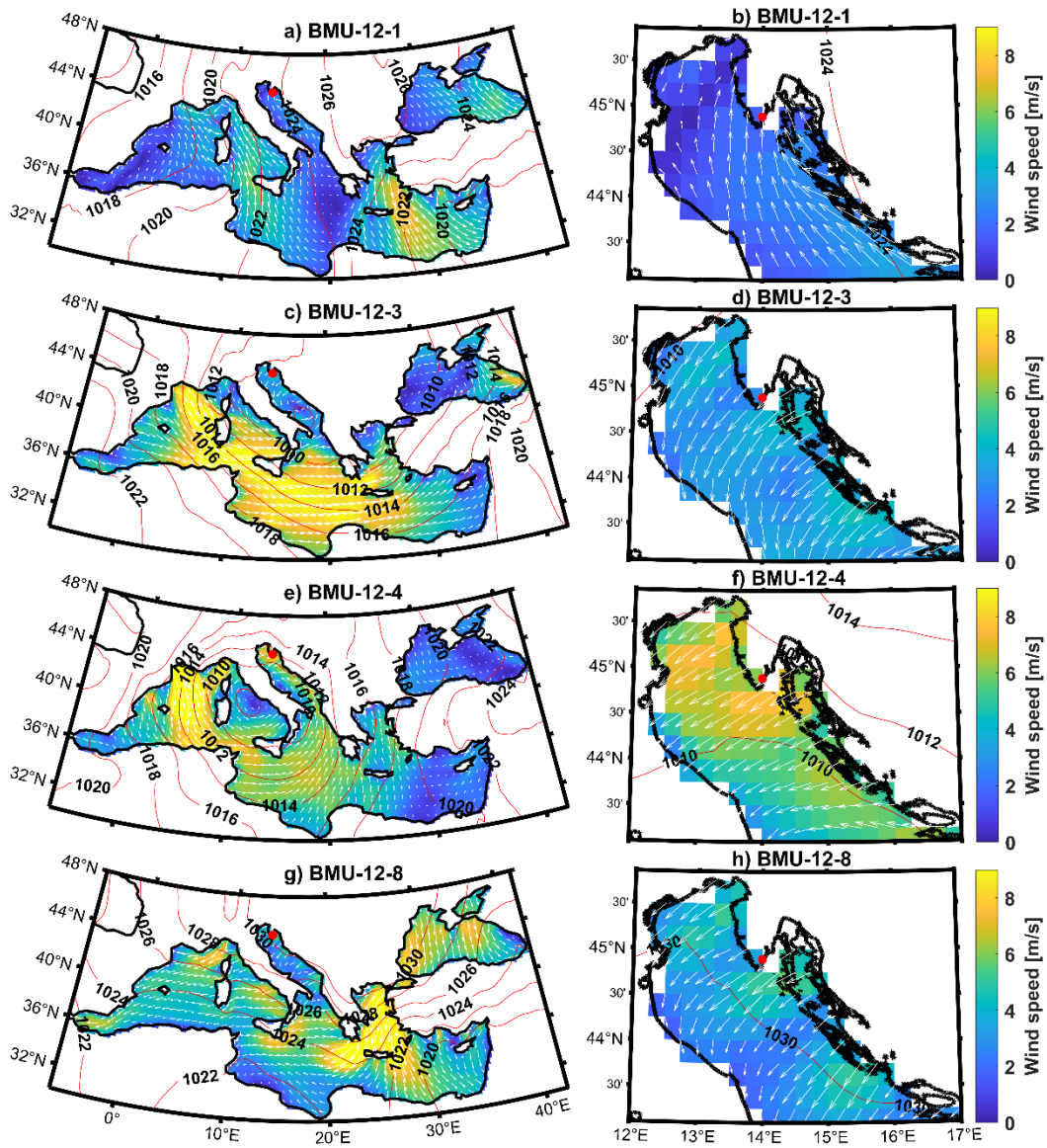
Figure 11. Similar to Figure 9, but for October: (a, c, e) show the wider Mediterranean area, while (b, d, f) focus on the northern and central Adriatic.





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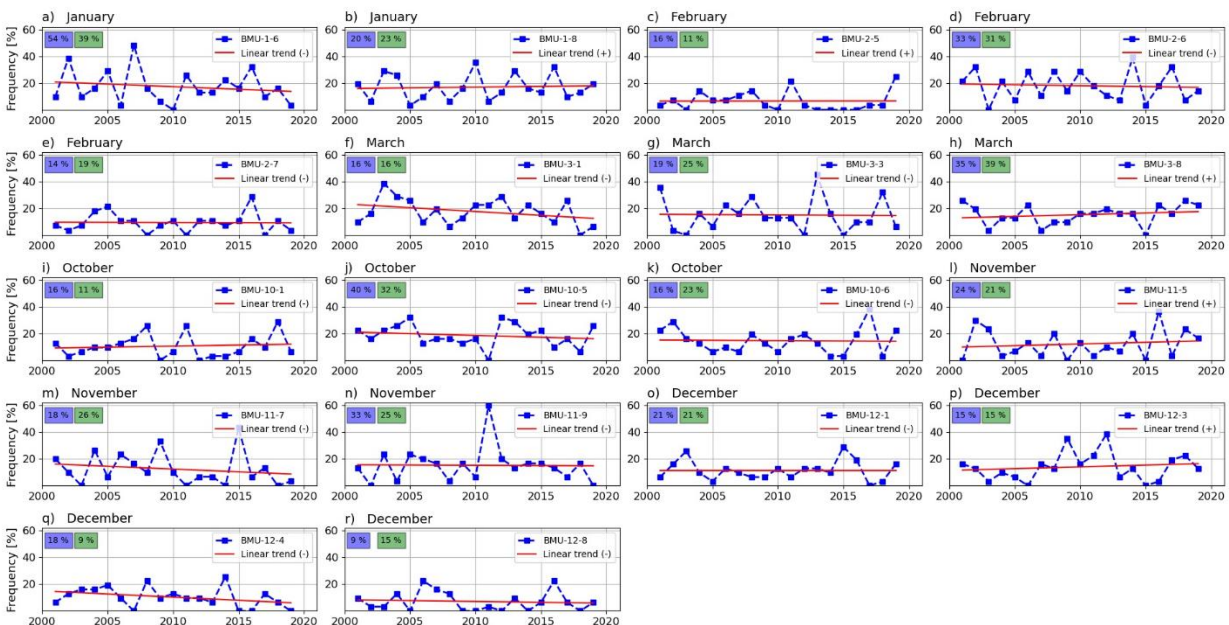
Figure 12. Similar to Figure 9, but for November: (a, c, e) show the wider Mediterranean area, while (b, d, f) focus on the northern and central Adriatic.



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Figure 13. Similar to Figure 9 but for December: (a, c, e, g) show the wider Mediterranean, while (b, d, f, g) focus on the northern and central Adriatic.

463 In addition to examining the prevailing synoptic patterns during the occurrence of fog and mist, the GNG analysis  
 464 also allows for the investigation of the time series of frequencies of individual BMUs. This was accomplished by first  
 465 calculating the relative monthly frequency of each BMU for each year, followed by using linear regression to estimate  
 466 trends and calculate slope coefficients. This process provides insights into changes in the frequency of each BMU  
 467 over two decades (Table 1, Figure 14). In January, the more frequent BMU-1-6 (Figure 14a) has a strong negative  
 468 trend of -0.390, while the less frequent BMU-1-8 (Figure 14b) has a weaker positive trend of 0.107. In February, the  
 469 most frequent BMU-2-7 (Figure 14e) has a weak negative trend of -0.025. In March, the most frequent BMU, BMU-  
 470 3-8 (Figure 14h) has a positive trend of 0.255, while BMU-3-1 (Figure 14f) has a strong negative trend of -0.572. In  
 471 October, the most frequent BMU for fog and mist (BMU-10-5, Figure 14j) has a negative trend (-0.272), while in  
 472 November and December there is almost no trend for the most frequent BMUs (BMU-11-9, Figure 14n and BMU-  
 473 12-1, Figure 14o). It can be summarized from the table that the BMUs most associated with the occurrence of fog and  
 474 mist exhibit negative trends in the months with the highest share, January and February. Analyzing the data by  
 475 counting positive and negative changes and grouping the synoptic patterns into three categories  
 476 (cyclonic/anticyclonic/quasi-non-gradient field) reveals that out of the 18 BMUs, 8 are anticyclonic, 5 are quasi-non-  
 477 gradient, and 5 are cyclonic. There is no trend for BMU-12-1 in the anticyclonic group; 3 BMUs increase in frequency  
 478 and 4 BMUs decrease in frequency. In the quasi-non-gradient group, there is 1 increase and 4 decreases. Of the 5  
 479 cyclonic BMUs, 2 increase in frequency and 3 decrease. Additionally, a significant decrease (slope coefficient  $>0.3$   
 480 or  $<-0.3$ ) is observed in BMU-3-1 (anticyclonic), BMU-1-6 (quasi-non-gradient field), and BMU-12-4 (cyclonic).  
 481 Positive trends do not show such large slope coefficients.



482 **Figure 14. Relative frequencies and trends of most common (monthly share in days with fog/mist greater than 15%) BMUs**  
 483 **for fog and mist in Pula Airport, data period: 2001-2019. Numbers shaded in blue denote the share of a BMU for fog days,**  
 484 **numbers shaded in green denote the share of a BMU for mist days. The slope coefficient values for the linear trends can be**  
 485 **found in Table 1.**

487



#### 488 **4 Conclusion**

489 This comprehensive climatological analysis of fog and mist occurrences at Pula Airport from 2001 to 2020 has  
490 provided valuable insights into the changing patterns of these meteorological phenomena. By combining classical  
491 statistics and neural networks, the study produced noteworthy results.

492  
493 The observed statistically significant decreasing trend in the frequency of fog and mist at the airport is consistent with  
494 similar findings in Europe, such as at Zagreb Airport (Zoldoš and Jurković, 2016) and Milano Airport (Mariani, 2009).  
495 While the decrease in Zagreb and Milan is largely attributed to reduced air pollution, this conclusion is more  
496 challenging to apply to Pula. As a smaller city with less industrial development, Pula's impact on neighboring  
497 suburban and rural areas is not as pronounced. While a decrease in fog and mist frequency has been observed across  
498 Europe, the effect is more prominent in continental Europe than in the Mediterranean region (Vautard et al., 2009).

499  
500 Global warming and climate change are key drivers behind the long-term decline in fog frequency. Contributing  
501 factors include rising temperatures in Pula and the surrounding Istria region (Bonacci, 2010; Šimunić et al., 2021),  
502 increased sea surface temperatures (SST) throughout the Mediterranean (Pastor et al., 2018) and global trends in ocean  
503 stratification (Li et al., 2020). Climate model reanalysis for the Adriatic Sea from 1987 to 2017 shows clearly positive  
504 SST trends, especially in summer (Tojčić et al., 2023). Positive wind trends have been observed over the sea and along  
505 the Adriatic Coast, between 0.1 and 0.2 m s<sup>-1</sup> per decade (Tojčić et al., 2023), which could influence fog formation.  
506 Warmer SSTs reduce the temperature gradient required for fog formation and increase evaporation rates, promoting  
507 fog advection when winds are favorable. In Pula, these favorable winds, which blow over the sea, play a significant  
508 role in fog and mist formation.

509  
510 Analyzing the classified synoptic patterns—a key focus of this study—reveals that the patterns conducive to fog and  
511 mist generally have a negative trend. For example, quasi-non-gradient synoptic situations, the most common favorable  
512 pattern, have shown predominantly negative trends. This decline in quasi-non-gradient synoptic situations has already  
513 been documented during the summer months (Belušić Vozila et al., 2021). As these favorable synoptic patterns  
514 decrease, the accompanying winds that facilitate the advection of evaporated moisture from the sea to the land—  
515 strongly influenced by SST and air temperatures—are also reduced. Consequently, the number of days with fog and  
516 mist is expected to decline over time.

517  
518 Overall, these findings provide a strong foundation for further research, facilitating a deeper understanding of the  
519 meteorological and oceanographic factors that influence fog and mist at Pula Airport. This is especially significant as  
520 it marks the first scientific study on fog in the Pula region in over 50 years, a period during which climate change has  
521 notably impacted the local climate. Future projections suggest these changes will intensify, including lower wind  
522 speeds in coastal areas and more extreme contrasts such as increased droughts and heavy precipitation events (Tojčić  
523 et al., 2024). This study has taken on the broad task of identifying synoptic patterns conducive to fog and mist  
524 formation. Since fog and mist are mainly influenced by wind speed and moisture advection, there is potential for

525 coupled atmospheric-oceanographic modeling that incorporates local topography and enhances the parameterization  
526 of processes at finer temporal and spatial scales. Such advancements would provide a more comprehensive  
527 understanding of local meteorological phenomena and their implications for various applications, including aviation  
528 meteorology and environmental monitoring.

#### 529 **Code/data availability**

530 All data and codes used in the analysis are available from the corresponding author on request.

#### 531 **Author contribution**

532 Marko Zoldoš and Tomislav Džoić equally contributed to the conception and design of the study, material collection,  
533 data preparation, statistical and neural network analysis, creation of the figures and writing. Frano Matic contributed  
534 to the neural network analysis. All authors have read and approved the final manuscript.

#### 535 **Competing interests**

536 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

#### 537 **Acknowledgments**

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540 Service (Crocontrol Ltd.). SST data for Pula were provided by the Meteorological and Hydrological Service of Croatia  
541 (DHMZ). SST data in the Mediterranean region were downloaded from the Copernicus Marine Data Store  
542 (<https://data.marine.copernicus.eu/>). 10-m wind and mean sea-level pressure (MSLP) data were adopted from the fifth  
543 generation of ECMWF's ERA5 reanalysis of global climate and weather. Final proofreading (grammar/spelling check)  
544 was performed by ChatGPT from OpenAI.

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