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23 **Abstract:**

24 Accurate climatic data with high spatial coverage are needed for predictions of climate
25 change and its consequences in the highly variable Mediterranean climate. We
26 performed an exhaustive quality control process to obtain a complete and homogeneous
27 database of 38 temperature and 52 precipitation stations for Slovenia, a transitional area
28 between the Mediterranean, Alpine and Continental climatic regimes, for the period
29 1951-2007. The results showed that mean annual temperatures increased in Slovenia at
30 a rate that varied spatially from 0.15 to 0.36 °C/decade. Such trends were statistically
31 significant across nearly all of Slovenia, except western areas. In contrast, precipitation
32 trends did not exhibit the same homogeneous pattern. In general, decreases in annual
33 precipitation were observed all over Slovenia but such trends were only statistically
34 significant in the north-western part, where precipitation decreased at a rate of 3-6% per
35 decade. During spring and summer, non-significant decreases were observed, with the
36 exception of the western area, where a significant decrease of 3-6% was detected. In
37 autumn, trends were in general positive but non-significant over the whole of Slovenia.
38 In contrast, precipitation during the winter significantly decreased, at a rate of 3-12%
39 per decade, especially intensively towards north-western Slovenia. We discuss the
40 causes of the observed spatial and temporal trends and present examples of their impact
41 on forest trees and agriculture in the study area.

42 **Keywords:** seasonal temperature, seasonal precipitation, climate data base,
43 Mediterranean climate

44 **Introduction**

45 The global average temperature increased by about 0.8°C from 1850 to 2005 but the
46 current warming trend is 0.13 to 0.16 degrees per decade and it is projected to continue
47 to rise at a rapid rate (Christensen et al. 2007; Hansen et al. 2010). In addition, the
48 IPCC-2007 report (Solomon et al. 2007) confirmed an increase in precipitation for the
49 period 1900–2005 north of 30° latitude, because of global warming (Trenberth et al.
50 2007).

51 However, precipitation in the northern subtropics (20–40°N) has not displayed a clear or
52 significant trend throughout the 20th century and precipitation is characterized by sub-
53 decadal variability (New et al. 2001). This latitude band includes the Mediterranean
54 basin, a climatic ecotone for which it has been suggested that the change would be
55 noticed here earlier than in other areas (Esteban-Parra et al. 1998). In this area, models
56 predict that, at the end of the 21st century, there will be a global decrease in the mean
57 amounts of precipitation coupled with an increase in variability (Christensen et al.
58 2007). However, these predictions show a high degree of uncertainty, with well-
59 documented highly variable precipitation in the Mediterranean basin (Lionello et al.
60 2006).

61 As a consequence of such variability, studies on precipitation trends for the
62 Mediterranean areas do not exhibit a generalized pattern. Sub-regional analyses suggest
63 a non-significant decrease in the eastern (Maheras and Kolyva-Machera 1990;
64 Amanatidis et al. 1993; Kutiel et al. 1996; Feidas et al. 2007; Tayanç et al. 2009),
65 central (Piervitali et al. 1998; Delitala et al. 2000; Brunetti et al. 2006) and western
66 (Esteban-Parra et al. 1998; Serrano et al. 1999; González Rouco et al. 2001; de Luis et
67 al. 2009, 2010; González-Hidalgo et al. 2009, 2011) parts of the basin over the last half
68 of the century. Auer et al. (2005) analysed precipitation in the wider Alpine region
69 (including Mediterranean climate areas) and detected two antagonistic centennial
70 precipitation trends: a wetting trend (since the 1860s) in the north-west of the Alps and
71 a drying trend (since 1800) in the southeast, including Slovenia. However, the spatial
72 analyses in many cases deal with different periods and the spatial density of stations is
73 usually low, so the results for precipitation variability and change are not directly
74 comparable. In addition, trends in different climate elements widely vary in space and

75 the last AR4 report (IPCC 2007) particularly suggested detailed sub-regional studies,
76 with a preference for those areas that represent transitional climate areas.

77 Slovenia is a transitional climate area between the Mediterranean Sea, the Alps, the
78 Dinaric Mountains and the Pannonian Basin. As a consequence, its climate displays
79 wide local climatic variability and fairly large gradients (Ogrin 2004). Investigating
80 spatial and temporal changes in climate therefore requires high data spatial coverage to
81 define the transitions between different sectors accurately. Such databases have already
82 been successfully completed in some Mediterranean countries (Brunetti et al. 2006 in
83 Italy or Gonzalez-Hidalgo et al. 2010 in Spain) but are still lacking in Slovenia.

84 The objectives of this paper involve evaluating the seasonal temperature and
85 precipitation trends over Slovenian conterminous land through analysis of a complete
86 and homogeneous dataset of similar spatial density as in recently developed databases
87 in other Mediterranean countries (Brunetti et al. 2006 in Italy or Gonzalez-Hidalgo et al.
88 2010 in Spain).

89 Slovenia's meteorological network covers an area of over 20,000 square km. In this
90 paper, we present a new, complete and homogeneous monthly database that includes 38
91 temperature and 52 precipitation stations for the 1951-2007 period, by using available
92 original climate information from the Environmental Agency of the Republic of
93 Slovenia within the Ministry of the Environment and Spatial Planning (SEA 2012).
94 Such a database represents a new tool available for exploring spatial and temporal
95 variations in temperature and precipitation in Slovenia at high spatial resolution and it is
96 especially useful for evaluation of the impact of climate change on water availability,
97 climate hazards, agriculture and forestry.

98 **Methods**

99 The new database was set up following an exhaustive quality control process designed
100 to detect suspicious data and inhomogeneous series. Thus, a total of 55 series of
101 precipitation and 38 of temperature were checked, filled and reconstructed from
102 December 1950 until November 2007 (54 years) (Figure 1). Only 9 and 8, respectively,
103 of the original 55 precipitation and 38 temperature series are continuous, without
104 missing values for the analysed period.

105 Quality control analysis was applied by using a reference series procedure (Gonzalez-
106 Hidalgo et al. 2011). In order to construct the reference series, neighbouring stations
107 were selected according to the following criteria: distance < 50 km, minimum overlap
108 >10 years, all positive monthly correlations and average monthly correlations higher
109 than 0.5. To avoid introducing uncontrolled bias during the creation of the reference
110 series, average standardizations were applied to all neighbouring series by using a
111 common overlap period with the candidate one. Finally, the calculation of each
112 reference series was carried out with the selected stations by means of a weighted
113 average of $(1/d)^2$, where d is the distance to the candidate in kilometres. After
114 comparing the original with the reference series, suspicious data were discarded (see
115 details in González-Hidalgo et al. 2011) and homogeneity was checked with the
116 standard normal homogeneity test (SNHT) (Alexandersson 1986).

117 Reconstruction of the final time series was performed with a new set of reference series
118 from the final homogeneous data using a maximum distance of 10 km; a second set of
119 references at 25 km was used to fill in any gaps. The overall procedure was performed
120 with specific software developed for climate analysis (AnClim and ProClim software,
121 Stepanek et al. 2008ab). Further details of methodological procedures can be found in
122 González-Hidalgo et al. (2011).

123 Seasonal precipitation amounts were calculated for each station. Winter is thus
124 composed of the months of December, January and February; spring of March, April
125 and May; summer of June, July and August; and autumn of September, October and
126 November. Annual time series were composed by data from December of the previous
127 year to November of the current one.

128 The intensities of observed changes both in mean values and variability were estimated
129 by using linear regression models. The significance of these changes was assessed using
130 the non-parametric Spearman rank test ($p < 0.05$ level) and the magnitude by the rate of
131 change measured as the slope of the linear models. The spatial distribution of the results
132 is shown by spatial interpolation (inverse distance weighted methods) of observed
133 trends (rate of change of slope) at each of the stations (Ninyerola et al. 2007).

134 **Results**

135 During the period 1951-2007, mean annual temperatures increased in Slovenia at a rate
136 from 0.15 to 0.36 °C/decade. Such trends were statistically significant across nearly all
137 of Slovenia with the exception of the areas in the west (Figure 2a). In contrast,
138 precipitation trends did not exhibit the same homogeneous pattern. In general, decreased
139 annual precipitation was observed all over the area but the trend was statistically
140 significant only in the north-western part, where precipitation decreased at a rate of 3-
141 6% per decade (Figure 2b).

142 Seasonal analysis indicated that the annual increases in temperatures were not spatially
143 homogeneous and they varied from season to season. Significant increases in
144 temperatures (rate between 0.3-0.4 °C per decade) were observed in extended areas of
145 central and north-eastern Slovenia during spring and summer (Figures 3b and 3c,
146 respectively). Increased temperatures were also detected during winter but at a lower
147 rate (0.2-0.3 °C/decade) in central and north eastern parts, while no significant trend
148 was observed in the western part of Slovenia (Figure 3a). On the other hand, no
149 significant trends were observed in autumn over most of Slovenia; the only significant
150 increases were observed in the north, central and north-eastern parts (Figure 3d).

151 Changes in precipitation also exhibited contrasting results on a seasonal scale. During
152 spring and summer (Figures 4b and 4c, respectively), non-significant decreases were
153 observed in almost all of Slovenia, with the exception of the western part, where
154 significant decreases of 3-6% were detected. In autumn, trends were generally positive
155 but non-significant throughout Slovenia. In contrast, precipitation during winter
156 significantly decreased, at a rate of 3 - 12% per decade; such a decrease was especially
157 intense and significant in the north-western part of Slovenia (Figure 4a).

158 **Discussion**

159 Our results confirm that, from climate point of view, Slovenia is a highly diverse
160 country. On an area of only 20.273 km², three types of climate meet and interweave:
161 Alpine, Mediterranean and Continental (Ogrin 1996). It is therefore important to discuss
162 climate trends in Slovenia in line with these complex climatic characteristics.

163 The most significant positive temperature trend can be observed in spring and summer.
164 The trends in these seasons were, however, stronger in the continental part of the

165 country. Land-sea contrasts can produce a variety of regional responses with differing
166 trends, even though they have the same origin. Warming in the south-western part is
167 influenced by the proximity of the Adriatic Sea, which is warming at a slower rate than
168 the continent (Xoplaki 2002). On the other hand, warming in the continental part of
169 Slovenia and central Europe is consistent with a higher frequency of anticyclones in
170 summer in recent decades (Cahynova and Huth 2009). Summer warming has also been
171 observed in other parts of the northern Mediterranean region (Xoplaki et al. 2006).
172 Mediterranean temperature and precipitation trends are affected by trends in large-scale
173 atmospheric circulation. The summer temperature variability from 1950 until 1999 can
174 partially be explained by 300 hPa geopotential height, 700-1000 hPa thickness and
175 Mediterranean large scale SST fields (Xoplaki et al. 2003); the most important summer
176 warming pattern is associated with blocking conditions, stability and subsidence.

177 Temperature trends in autumn were generally not significant in the western, central,
178 southern and partly north-eastern parts of Slovenia. This is consistent with observed
179 increasing trends of precipitation in autumn, which was generally increasing over the
180 country. The temperature trend in winter exhibited a west-east pattern, increasing
181 towards the east. The pronounced temperature trend is consistent with a decreasing
182 trend of snow cover (Žagar et al. 2006) throughout the central and eastern parts of
183 Slovenia. Higher positive trends could be observed in the Ljubljana basin (central
184 Slovenia) and Maribor basin (north-eastern part), which can be attributed to a
185 decreasing number of foggy days during the winter and more a pronounced effect of the
186 urban heat island.

187 Precipitation in Slovenia is strongly influenced by complex topography. In spring and
188 summer, most precipitation is a result of convective processes (i.e., predominately local
189 factors), whereas in autumn and winter most precipitation comes from humid air masses
190 from the Adriatic and wider Mediterranean area, as a consequence of more generalized
191 synoptic situations (Bergant and Kajfež-Bogataj 2005). Warm and moist air advection
192 caused by Mediterranean cyclones forces air masses to lift across the Dinaric-Alpine
193 mountain barriers, thus enabling prefrontal precipitation and intensifying frontal
194 precipitation (Vrhovec et al. 2001), especially on the south-western side of the barrier.
195 Precipitation in Slovenia during autumn and winter is closely related to Mediterranean
196 cyclone formation in the Gulf of Genoa. A recent study has shown that there is a

197 significant correlation between the North-Atlantic oscillation index (NAOI) and
198 precipitation in Slovenia (Sušelj and Bergant 2006). A higher correlation, however, has
199 been obtained between the Mediterranean oscillation index (MOI) and precipitation in
200 Slovenia, indicating a closer relationship between Mediterranean cyclones and
201 precipitation, especially in autumn and winter. The MOI and NAOI are also highly
202 inter-correlated, since passages of cold fronts from the Atlantic, described by NAOI
203 variability, are among the main triggers for Mediterranean cyclogenesis (Sušelj and
204 Bergant 2004). A large increase of cyclone activity was indentified in the Gulf of Genoa
205 and southern part of the Adriatic Sea in autumn, which was responsible for the positive
206 trend in autumn precipitation (Bartholy et al. 2009; Lionello et al. 2003). On the other
207 hand, cyclone occurrence in winter was decreasing, most notably in the Ligurian Sea
208 and southern part of the Adriatic Sea, which is consistent with negative precipitation
209 trends in winter. A strong negative trend in winter precipitation could also be seen in the
210 north-eastern part of Slovenia, with a continental climate. A northward shift of winter
211 storm tracks in the European-Atlantic sector has been observed for the last 4 decades,
212 leading to negative cyclone frequency in central Europe as well (Trigo 2006).

213 Summer precipitation did not change significantly during the observed period over the
214 majority of Slovenian territory, except in the Mediterranean part, where a negative trend
215 was recorded. The number of thunderstorms in summer in that area has been decreasing
216 (Dolinar et al. 2005), which is consistent with significant negative trends of the
217 frequency of cyclones in the lowlands of the Po river and northern Adriatic Sea in
218 summer (Bartholy et al. 2009). On the other hand, the frequency of cyclones increased
219 significantly in the southern Adriatic Sea, indicating a shift of cyclone center tracks to
220 south-western directions in summer. A decreasing trend can also be observed in the
221 north-eastern part of Slovenia, which is significantly influenced by the continental
222 climate. Precipitation in summer in that area is mainly related to convection processes,
223 which are initialized by uneven heating of the surface or passage of cold fronts. The
224 negative precipitation trend in that area is consistent with an observed shift of cyclone
225 tracks to the north during the summer (Bartholy et al. 2006). The trend of summer
226 precipitation was not significant for the rest of the country, where orography
227 significantly influences the convective processes.

228 A detailed description of how different climate elements are being modified
229 differentially in different areas of Slovenia is important for adapting management
230 strategies. Slovenia is a highly forested area and forest management is an important part
231 of the national economy. An increase in temperatures in winter causes earlier leaf
232 unfolding, especially at higher elevations, as shown in beech (Čufar et al. 2012). It also
233 affects earlier onset of cambial reactivation and onset of wood production in trees
234 (Prislan et al. 2011). Furthermore, higher temperatures in spring and summer limit tree
235 growth of most species, such as oaks and beech (Čufar et al. 2008a, b), so intense
236 increases in temperatures, as already observed, may have a negative impact on tree
237 growth and forest productivity. Reduced productivity, competitiveness and survival
238 chances of beech on more extreme sites have already been observed in the
239 Mediterranean (Peñuelas and Boada 2003; Jump and Peñuelas 2006) and in central
240 European sites NW of our study area (Geßler et al. 2007).

241 Agricultural systems are most sensitive to seasonal variability and extreme climatic
242 events, such as droughts, floods and hail storms. Climate change alters the frequency
243 and magnitude of extreme events, leading the regional patterns of agriculture to change.
244 A recent study has shown that expected temperature and precipitation trends will
245 decrease the maize yield in Slovenia during the 21st Century (Ceglar and Kajfež-Bogataj
246 2012). Analysis of the sensitivity of maize growth to variable weather conditions during
247 the growing season has shown that temperature and precipitation during the tasseling
248 period significantly influence simulated yields at the end of the growing season. The
249 expected increase of temperatures during that period will therefore have a detrimental
250 effect on maize growth.

251 Studies of sensitivity to climate change are of special importance when devising an
252 adaptation strategy. Recent studies have shown that global and regional climate model
253 simulations usually provide biased climatological information for Slovenia, when
254 compared to measured values (Bergant and Kajfež-Bogataj 2005; Ceglar and Kajfež-
255 Bogataj 2012). On the other hand, climate model simulations provide important
256 information for impact studies. Bias correction of these simulations is therefore of
257 special importance. The transformation function is derived based on a comparison of
258 measured and simulated variables (e. g. Piani et al. 2009). It is therefore very important

259 to use all available quality and homogenized meteorological data in order to minimize
260 the error originating from incomplete measurements.

261 This study therefore makes an important contribution to a quality controlled and
262 homogenized database of key meteorological variables in a transitional region, which is
263 a prerequisite for appropriate climate impact studies.

264

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431

432 **Figure Captions**

433 Figure 1. Map of Slovenia with locations of climate stations with temperature and
434 precipitation data (stars) and with precipitation data only (+). Inset shows
435 Slovenia in Europe.

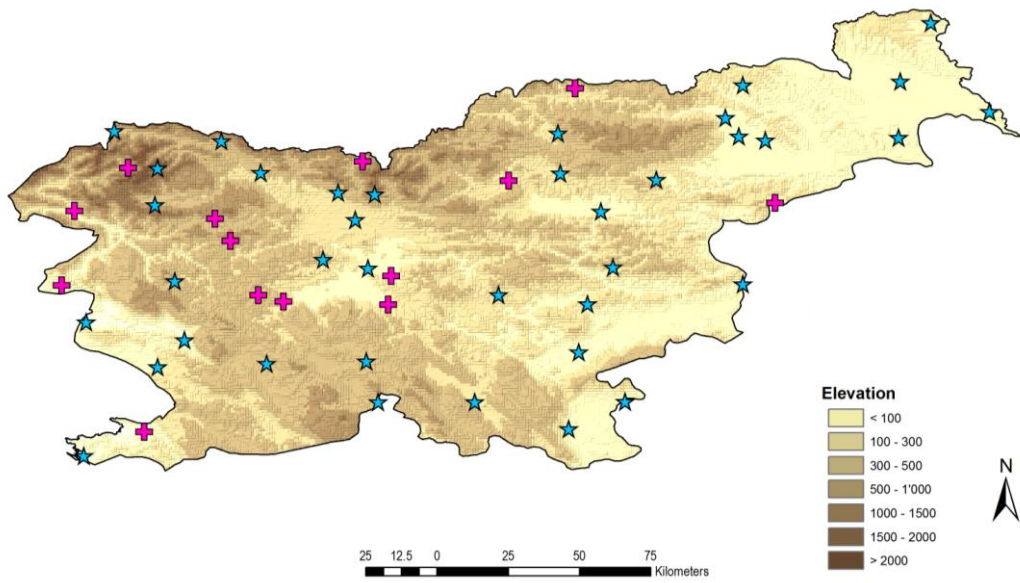
436 Figure 2. Trends in a) mean annual temperatures and in b) total annual precipitation
437 during the 1951-2007 period.

438 Figure 3. Trends in mean seasonal temperatures during the 1951-2007 period.

439 Figure 4. Trends in seasonal precipitation during the 1951-2007 period.

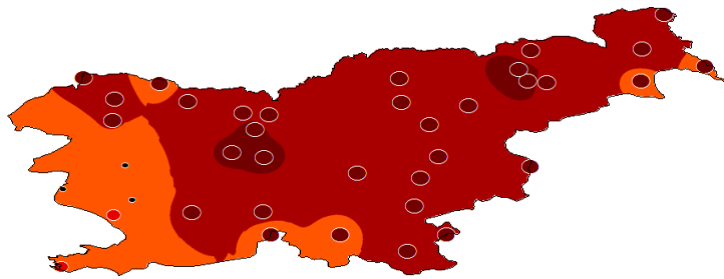
440

441
442 Figure 1

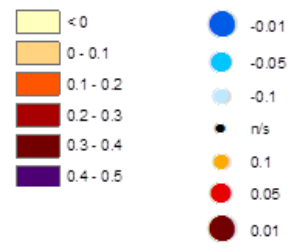


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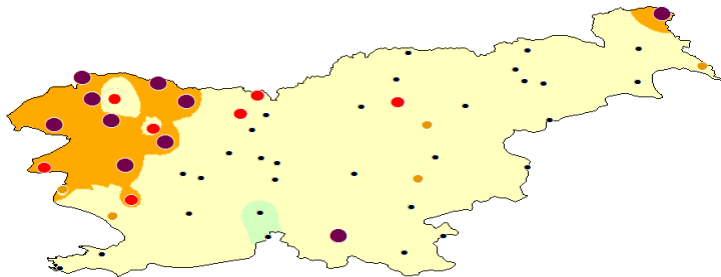
a) Annual temperature



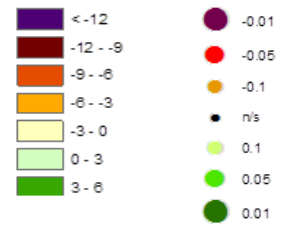
(°C/decade) P

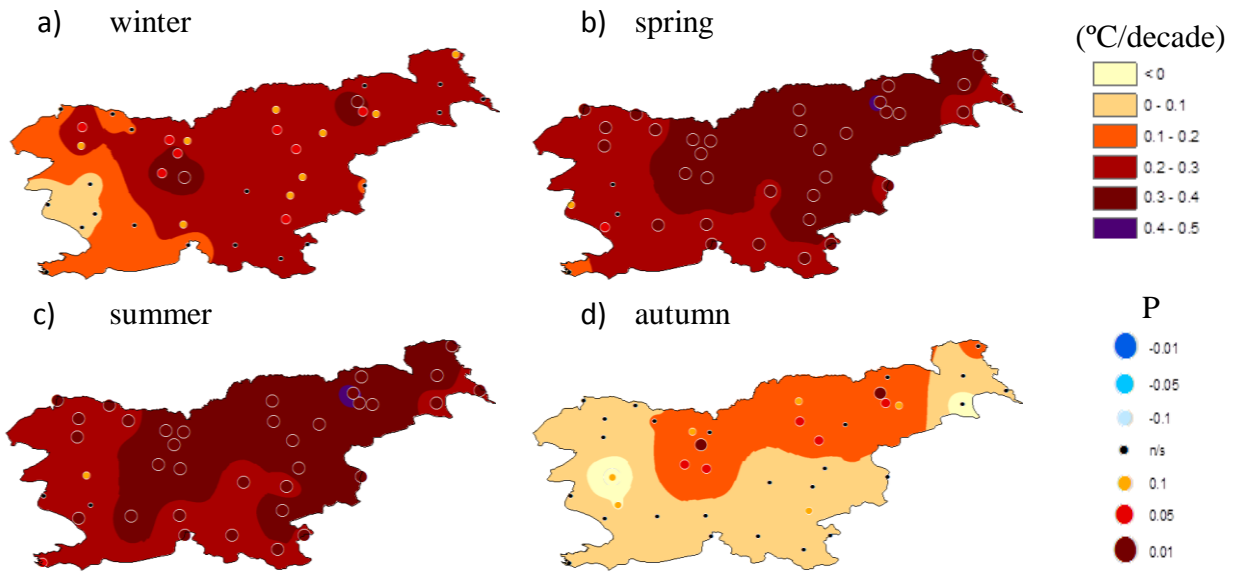


b) Annual precipitation

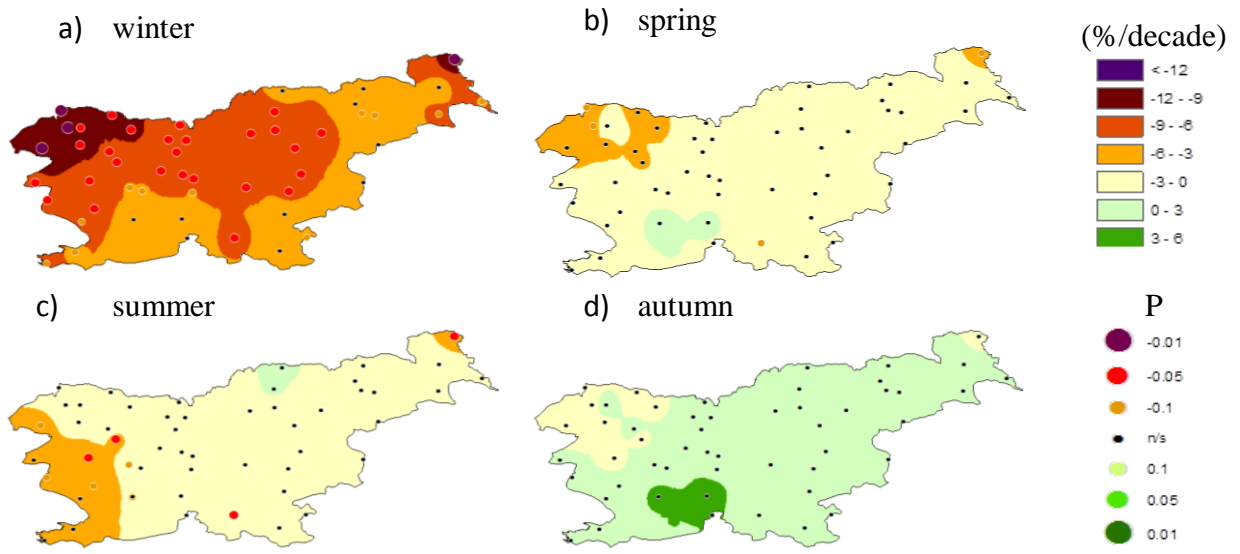


(%/decade) P





448 Figure 4



449

450