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# Development of verification methodology for extreme weather forecasts

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23 **Abstract**

24 In 2006, the statistical post-processing of the National Centers for Environmental  
25 Prediction (NCEP) Global Ensemble Forecast System (GEFS) and North American Ensemble  
26 Forecast System (NAEFS) was implemented to enhance probabilistic guidance. Anomaly  
27 Forecast (ANF) is one of the NAEFS products, generated from bias-corrected ensemble forecasts  
28 and reanalysis climatology. The Extreme Forecast Index (EFI), based on a raw ensemble forecast  
29 and model-based climatology, is another way to build an extreme weather forecast.

30 In this work, the ANF and EFI algorithms are applied to extreme cold temperature and  
31 extreme precipitation forecasts during the winter of 2013-2014. A highly-correlated relationship  
32 between the ANF and EFI allows the determination of two sets of thresholds to identify extreme  
33 cold and extreme precipitation events for the two algorithms. An EFI of -0.78 (0.687) is  
34 approximately equivalent to a  $-2\sigma$  (0.95) ANF for the extreme cold event (extreme precipitation)  
35 forecast.

36 The performances of the two algorithms in forecasting extreme cold events are verified  
37 against analysis for different model versions, reference climatology, and forecasts. The  
38 verification results during the winter of 2013-2014 indicate the ANF forecasts more extreme cold  
39 events with a slightly higher skill than the EFI. The bias-corrected forecast performs much better  
40 than the raw forecast. The current upgrade of the GEFS has a beneficial effect on the extreme  
41 cold weather forecast. Using the NCEP Climate Forecast System Reanalysis and Reforecast  
42 (CFSRR) as a climate reference gives a slightly better score than the 40-year reanalysis. The  
43 verification methodology is also extended to an extreme precipitation case, showing a broad  
44 potential use in the future.

46 **1. Introduction**

47 An extreme weather event is unusual, unexpected, or rare weather. It could be defined  
48 from either a climatological base, forecast base, or a user specification. In general, it results in  
49 the loss of lives, property, equipment, etc. For example, the special report of the  
50 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) (2011) shows the annual losses from  
51 weather- and climate-related disasters since 1980 has ranged from a few US\$ billion to more  
52 than 200 billion. Therefore, developing accurate forecast guidance and products to warn users  
53 about weather related risks has an important impact on the social economy. A good guidance  
54 product would allow users make early decisions and improve protection.

55 A number of forecast methods have been developed and applied to identifying extreme  
56 weather events at various world forecast centers (Zhu and Cui 2007; Lalaurette 2003; Zsótér  
57 2006; Dutra et al. 2013; and Hamill et al. 2013). The concept of the Extreme Forecast Index  
58 (EFI), originally introduced by Lalaurette, (2003), is a measure of the difference between a  
59 forecast probabilistic distribution and model climate distribution. To increase the sensitivity of  
60 forecasts of extreme events, this index was further adapted in 2006 (Zsótér) by adding more  
61 weight to the tails of probability distributions. This index has been applied to extreme  
62 temperature, wind, and precipitation forecasts at the European Centre for Medium-Range  
63 Weather Forecasts (ECMWF), Canadian Meteorological Center (CMC), and the Earth System  
64 Research Laboratory (ESRL) of the National and Oceanic and Atmospheric administration  
65 (NOAA).

66 Anomaly Forecast (ANF) is a more natural method to forecast extreme weather events. It  
67 measures forecast distribution departure from the climatological distribution. The method has  
68 been widely applied to forecasts of extreme heat waves, winter storms, etc. (Grumm 2001;

69 Graham and Grumm 2010). ANF was implemented as a forecast product at NOAA's National  
70 Weather Service (NWS) in December 2007 (Zhu and Cui 2007). Based on the NCEP/NCAR 40-  
71 year reanalysis, a daily climatological distribution (probability distribution function or PDF) has  
72 been created for 19 atmospheric variables such as height, temperature, winds, etc. ANF products  
73 have been generated from a bias corrected ensemble forecast (or probabilistic forecast). The  
74 products provide 1) ensemble mean as a percentile of the climatological distribution and 2) each  
75 ensemble member as a percentile of the climatological distribution. Based on these products,  
76 users could build various ANFs, such as greater than 1-sigma, 2-sigma, and 3-sigma standard  
77 deviations ANFs for various meteorological elements. Furthermore, by comparing the forecast  
78 PDF to climatological PDF, the users could easily identify an extreme weather event.

79 In this paper, we develop a verification methodology to compare and evaluate the  
80 extreme weather forecast products from the ANF and EFI. After explaining the verification  
81 metrics, we evaluate products from different model versions (or model upgrade), different  
82 references, and products based on a raw forecast and bias corrected forecast. We first introduce  
83 the model and dataset in Section 2 and then highlight the two extreme weather forecast methods  
84 in Section 3. We also develop and apply a verification methodology to evaluate extreme cold  
85 weather forecasts and extreme precipitation forecasts in Section 4. The summary will be given in  
86 Section 5.

87

## 88 **2. Model and data sets**

89 In this study, Global Ensemble Forecast System (GEFS) version 10 (v10) (Zhu et al.  
90 2012) and v11 (Zhou et al. 2016) forecasts are used to calculate the ANF and EFI. The outputs  
91 include raw and bias-corrected ensemble forecasts (Cui et al. 2012). The model climatology and

92 analysis (or observation) climatology serve as the reference climatology for the raw and bias-  
93 corrected forecasts, respectively. For the raw forecast, GEFS v11 is tested. The model  
94 climatology is calculated using an 18-year control only reforecast dataset.

95 The GEFS v10 was implemented on February 14, 2012 at NCEP. It consists of 21  
96 members (one control member and 20 perturbed members) and is run 4 times daily (0000, 0600,  
97 1200, and 1800 UTC). In this study, we use only the 0000 UTC cycle forecasts. All members use  
98 an identical set of physical parameterizations (Zhu et al. 2007). The model is run at a horizontal  
99 resolution of T254 (~55 km) for the first 8 days and T190 (~70 km) for the next 8 days, with 42  
100 hybrid vertical levels. The hybrid GSI/EnKF analysis (Kleist and Ide 2015) is used as the initial  
101 condition. The initial perturbations are created with the Bred Vector–Ensemble Transform with  
102 Rescaling (BV-ETR, Wei et al. 2008) technique. Model uncertainty is estimated using the  
103 stochastic total tendency perturbations (STTP) method (Hou et al. 2008). For the bias-corrected  
104 dataset, the model bias was removed using a decaying averaging post-processing technique (Cui  
105 et al. 2012).

106 There are three major changes from the v10 to v11. First, in the v11, Euler’s integration  
107 method is replaced by the Semi-Lagrangian method in order to save computing time (Sela 2010).  
108 Second, the Ensemble Kalman Filter (EnKF) 6-h forecast is used as the basis of ensemble initial  
109 perturbation instead of BV-ETR generation. The details of the EnKF technique can be found in  
110 references by Whitaker and Hamill, 2012; Whitaker et al. 2008; Wang et al. 2013; and Kleist and  
111 Ide 2015. Third, the horizontal resolution was increased to 34 km (T574) and 55 km (T384) for  
112 the first and next 8 days, respectively. The number of vertical levels was increased to 64 levels.

113 The 18-year (1995-2012) control-only v11 reforecast was run at the 0000 UTC cycle  
114 every other day. The reforecast dataset was interpolated bilinearly to  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  latitude/longitude

115 grids from the native resolutions. The model native resolutions are about 34km and 55 km at  
116 mid-latitudes for the first and last 8 days, respectively. From the  $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$  dataset, the model  
117 climatology for each day and each grid point was generated. In calculating the climatology, we  
118 also include 8 nearby points and use a time window of 5 days centered on the day being  
119 considered, leading to a total sample size of 243 data (9 years x 3 day/year x 9 points) for each  
120 gridpoint.

121 The analysis climatology of 2-m temperature includes NCEP/NCAR 40-year reanalysis  
122 data (1959-1998) (Kalnay et al. 1996) and NCEP Climate Forecast System Reanalysis and  
123 Reforecast (CFSRR) 30-year reanalysis data (1979-2008) (Saha et al. 2010). The CFSRR  
124 climatology has been generated from the latest numerical weather prediction (NWP) model and  
125 assimilation system. Therefore, its quality has been much improved through various  
126 enhancements, such as improved quality of observations, a state-of-art model and assimilation  
127 system, and much higher spatial resolution. It has been pointed out that for the near-surface  
128 temperature the CFSRR produces a much finer structure than the NCEP/NCAR reanalysis  
129 (Personal communication with Bo Yang).

130 A climatological distribution could be presented in terms of the climatological mean and  
131 standard deviation if a variable has a (quasi-) normal distribution. For the two sets of reanalysis,  
132 the first four Fourier modes (higher smoothing) have been used to generate daily climatological  
133 means to include annual, semi-annual, and seasonal cycles. Climatological standard deviations  
134 are linearly interpolated from monthly to daily means. For the NCEP/NCAR 40-year reanalysis,  
135 the best analysis resolution is  $2.5^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$  globally. We have to interpolate the data to  $1.0^{\circ} \times 1.0^{\circ}$   
136 to match the forecast resolution. The original resolution of the CFSRR is  $1.0^{\circ} \times 1.0^{\circ}$  resolution.

137 The analysis climatology of precipitation was calculated based on Climatology-  
138 Calibrated Precipitation Analysis (CCPA) (Hou et al. 2014) over the CONUS. A gamma  
139 distribution was used to fit precipitation distribution for each day of the year and each 1x1 grid  
140 point. The distribution parameters were determined via L-moment method (Hosking 1990;  
141 Hosking and Wallis 1997). The details on the generation of climatology can be found in the  
142 website  
143 ([http://www.emc.ncep.noaa.gov/gmb/ylo/AMS\\_CCPA\\_Climatology%20\[Compatibility%20Model\].pdf](http://www.emc.ncep.noaa.gov/gmb/ylo/AMS_CCPA_Climatology%20[Compatibility%20Model].pdf), updated January 2013).

145

### 146 **3. Forecast product generation methodology**

147 a) ANF

148 ANF is defined as the difference between ensemble forecast ( $F_{en}(p)$ ) and the expected  
149 value of climate distribution ( $C$ ),

$$150 \quad ANF = F_{en}(p) - C \quad (1)$$

151 In this work, we specifically calculate the ANF for the ensemble mean and the 50<sup>th</sup>  
152 percentile for 2-m temperature and precipitation, respectively. For 2-meter temperature, we  
153 calculate the value of ANF divided by one climatological standard deviation, so called  
154 standardized anomaly in Grumm (2001). For 24-hr accumulated precipitation, we find the  
155 location (or value) where the 50<sup>th</sup> percentile (or median) of the ensemble forecast lies on the  
156 climatological distribution. The climatological distribution for the 2-m temperature and  
157 precipitation are assumed as normal distribution  $C=N(x, \mu, \sigma^2)$  and Gamma distribution  $C=\Gamma(x, k,$   
158  $\theta)$ , respectively. Previous work (Hou et al. 2014) demonstrated that a gamma distribution can  
159 well simulate the distribution of precipitation over North America. The  $x, \mu, \sigma^2, k,$  and  $\theta$  represent

160 location, mean, variance, shape factor, and scale parameter for the corresponding distributions,  
161 respectively.

162 b) Extreme Forecast Index (EFI)

163 For any given variable, the EFI (Lalaurette 2003; Zsoter 2006) may be expressed as

$$164 \quad EFI = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^1 \frac{p - F_f(p)}{\sqrt{p(1-p)}} dp \quad (2)$$

165 Where  $p$  is the proportion of ranked climate record and  $F_f(p)$  is a function denoting the  
166 proportion of ensemble members lying below the  $p$  quantile of the climate record. The values of  
167 EFI are between -1 and 1. If the ensemble member probability distribution agrees with the  
168 climate probability distribution, then  $EFI = 0$ . In special cases where the values of all ensemble  
169 member forecasts are above the absolute maximum in the model climate, the  $EFI = +1$ ; if all  
170 forecast values are below the absolute minimum in the model climate, the  $EFI = -1$ . The equation  
171 is solved numerically with an increment of  $p$  equal to 0.01.

## 172 **4. Verification**

### 173 **4.1 Methodology**

174 Although various products of extreme weather forecasts have been generated in real time  
175 and the applications are widely used in many areas, the verification of these products has been a  
176 challenge. To our knowledge, the verification methodology is mainly based on scatter-plots of  
177 analysis anomalies and EFI, hit rates, false alarm rate, and ROC (relative operational  
178 characteristics) area (Toth et. al. 2003; Petroliaigis and Pinson 2012; Matsueda and Takaya 2013).  
179 An extreme event is often defined as occurring when verifying analysis is in the tail(s) of the  
180 climatological distribution. In this study, we define a threshold of 5th (or  $-2\sigma$  for a normal  
181 distribution) and the 95th climatological percentile for extreme cold and extreme precipitation



182 events (high-end only), respectively. The corresponding thresholds are estimated from the 30-  
183 year CFSRR climatological data (Saha et al. 2010) and Climatology Calibrated Precipitation  
184 Analysis (CCPA) (Hou et al. 2014), respectively.

185 Similarly, a forecast extreme event is also assessed as a yes if the forecast value is above  
186 or below an appropriate threshold value. We use the same threshold as the analysis does to  
187 determine an extreme event for the ANF method. The EFI is an integrated measure of the  
188 difference between a forecast and its climatology. How to compare these two measures? What  
189 EFI value is equivalent (or close) to a specific anomaly? We would like to address this before  
190 verification.

191 Figure 1 shows the comparisons of ensemble mean 96-h ANF and EFI for 2-m  
192 temperature on March 01, 2015 over North America. The ANF and EFI were calculated using  
193 raw forecasts and model climatology. The corresponding best-fit equation and correlation  
194 coefficient are also shown. There is a highly correlated relationship between the two forecasts.  
195 We found that a relationship between these two measures could be fitted from the 5th order  
196 polynomial function through this sample data set. According to the fitting equation, an EFI value  
197 equal to -0.78 is approximately equivalent to a  $-2\sigma$  ANF median (50%) value. This relationship  
198 provides an equivalent threshold value for identifying extreme events from the two algorithms  
199 and consequently allows corresponding inter-comparisons.

200 A very similar technique was used to find the two corresponding thresholds for extreme  
201 precipitation events. Figure 2 displays a comparison of 72-96 h precipitation ANF and EFI for  
202 Jan. 06, 2014 over North America. Similar to the 2-m temperature, ANF and EFI are highly  
203 correlated and a 5th order polynomial also best fits the dataset. However, instead of using  $\sigma$  as  
204 the ANF unit, here we use percentiles to express precipitation ANF since a normal distribution

205 can not represent the asymmetric character of precipitation. The thresholds for ANF and EFI are  
206 taken as 0.95 and 0.685, respectively.

207 Using these criteria, for each grid point over North America with a coincident model  
208 forecast and verifying analysis, one set of yes/no observations for the extreme cold events were  
209 assessed. Table 1 incorporates the model and observation into a 2 by 2 contingency table  
210 associated with dichotomous forecasts. The quality of the extreme cold event forecast was  
211 evaluated based on signal detection theory (Mason, 1982). The statistical scores Hit Rate (HR),  
212 False Alarm Rate (FAR), Frequency Bias (FBI), and Equivalent Threat Scores (ETS) (Schaefer  
213 1990) are defined as:

$$214 \quad \text{HR} = A / (A + B) \quad (3)$$

$$215 \quad \text{FAR} = C / (C + D) \quad (4)$$

$$216 \quad \text{FBI} = (A + B) / (A + C) - 1 \quad (5)$$

$$217 \quad \text{ETS} = (A - R(h)) / (A + B + C - R(h)) \quad (6)$$

218 Where,

$$219 \quad R(h) = (AD - BC) / (A + B + C + D) \quad (7)$$

220 A perfect forecast is defined by HR=1, FAR=0, FBI=0, and ETS=1. These scores are applied  
221 widely in weather forecast evaluations (Swets 1988; Doswell et al. 1990; Zhu 2007).

222 For ease of interpreting the statistics, Roebber (2009) developed a performance diagram  
223 that shows POD (or HR), success ratio (SR), bias, and Critical Success Index (CSI) in a single  
224 diagram. Here CSI and SR are defined as:

$$225 \quad \text{CSI} = A / (A + B + C) \quad (8)$$

$$226 \quad \text{SR} = A / (A + C) \quad (9)$$

227 In Section 4.2, we also use a performance diagram to display the verification results for extreme  
228 cold events.

229

## 230 **4.2 Verification of extreme cold event forecasts**

231 Using the verification methodology developed in Section 4.1, we compare the  
232 performance of the ANF and EFI products in forecasting extreme cold events for different model  
233 versions, references, and forecasts. We also examine how using different analysis climatology  
234 (NCEP/NCAR 40-year reanalysis vs 30-year CFSRR) impacts the verification.

235 For 2-m temperature, verification is performed over North America for 11 extreme-cold  
236 days (events) that occurred during the winter of 2013-2014. This winter was considered to be  
237 colder and snowier than normal as noted in Geert et al., (2015) and the National Weather Service  
238 seasonal review ([http://www.weather.gov/cle/climate\\_winter\\_2013-14\\_Review](http://www.weather.gov/cle/climate_winter_2013-14_Review)). We focus on  
239 the two winter cold waves, which occurred for the periods of December 6-10, 2013 and  
240 December 29, 2013 – January 7, 2014, respectively. Both cold waves caused extreme cold  
241 temperatures and broke daily precipitation and snowfall records across a considerable area of  
242 North America.

243

### 244 a. Verification of ANF and EFI products

245 Figure 3 shows verification of the EFI (Fig.3b) and ANF (Fig.3c) products against  
246 observations (Fig.3a) over North America for the GEFS v11 raw forecasts for 0000 UTC on 5  
247 March 2015. The four corresponding statistical scores are also shown at the bottom of the figure.  
248 Both EFI and ANF reproduce the observed cold anomaly pattern over the central United States.  
249 The HR (0.81) and ETS (0.6) values for the EFI are slightly higher than those for the ANF (HR

250 (0.8) and ETS (0.58)). The EFI predicts more extreme cold events than the ANF based on the  
251 FBI comparison. This may explain why EFI has a slightly higher HR and ETS. There are very  
252 similar FAR values (~0.03) for both methods. The very low FAR value mainly results from the  
253 combination of a large domain and a small area occupied by the extreme cold event. In addition,  
254 the model accurately identifying the extreme cold area is another reason for the low FAR.

#### 255 b. Verification of raw and bias-corrected forecast products

256 The verification results for the EFI products from the v11 raw and bias-corrected  
257 forecasts are displayed in Fig.4. The forecasts are initiated at 0000 UTC 2 Jan. 2014. Both the  
258 raw and bias-corrected forecasts predict extreme cold weather over Canada. However, there is  
259 also some difference between the two sets of forecasts. The bias-corrected forecast predicts  
260 observed extreme weather over Mexico, which is completely missed by the raw forecast. Based  
261 on the verification scores, the bias-corrected forecast performs much better than the raw forecasts  
262 for this particular case. The HR and ETS reach 0.76 and 0.6, respectively, for the bias-corrected  
263 forecast, which is much higher than in the raw forecast (0.53 and 0.40). The number of extreme  
264 cold events from the bias-corrected forecast is very similar to the observed number, which is  
265 approximately 20% higher than the raw forecast. The FAR values, again, are very low for both  
266 cases. The verification with a larger sample size (11 cases) for both methods is displayed in Fig.  
267 5. It can be seen that increasing the sample size does not change the conclusions. The relative  
268 performance of raw and bias-corrected forecasts in the ANF is also very similar to the EFI. Both  
269 methods demonstrate much better performance for the bias-corrected than the raw forecast.

270 Figure 6 is the performance diagram for the above cases. A perfect forecast should have  
271 all 4 measures (HR, SR, bias, and CSI) equal to 1. In other words, a good forecast is closer to the  
272 upper right corner of the diagram. Obviously, the dots for the bias-corrected forecasts are more

273 concentrated in the upper right than the raw forecasts. Overall, the bias-corrected ANF for entire  
274 dataset marked by the green circles is closest to the bias=1 (bias free) line.

275 One possible explanation of the lower scores for the raw forecast is that the control-only  
276 reforecast climatology may not fully represent the model climatology very well. In particular, the  
277 produced variance does not completely include model uncertainty. Therefore, the model  
278 climatological forecast distribution (or variance) could be incomplete, especially for the tail of a  
279 climatological distribution. The impact of ensemble size on the probability forecast has been  
280 investigated in Buizza and Palmer (1998) and Ma et al. (2012). An increase in ensemble size is  
281 strongly beneficial to the forecast when the size is fewer than 40 members. An effort is being  
282 made to create a model climatology using multi-member reforecast runs. This would provide  
283 more robust model climatology and improve extreme weather forecasts.

284

#### 285 c. Verification of v10 and v11 forecast products

286 Figure 7 shows the verification for the GEFS v10 and v11 bias-corrected forecasts for  
287 0000 UTC on 2 Jan. 2014 using the EFI method. In general, the both model versions capture the  
288 observed major extreme cold regions. But there are also some differences between the two  
289 versions. For this particular case, the v11 forecasts have a similar number of extreme cold events  
290 as the observations, with a FBI approximately equal to 0, while the v10 underestimates the  
291 number of extreme cold events and the FBI value is about -0.26. The v11 version has a higher  
292 HR but the ETS is slightly smaller when compared to v10, and has a large negative frequency  
293 bias.

294 The 11-day statistics are shown in Fig.8. Overall, v11 performs better than the v10  
295 version with a higher HR and ETS value. The v11 predicts more extreme events than are

296 observed, while the v10 version underestimates the number of events. The ANF for the new  
297 version has the highest ETS and closest match to the observations. The advantage of v11 over  
298 v10 can be also demonstrated in the performance diagram (Fig.9). Overall, v11 is closer to the  
299 upper right corner. This suggests that the current model upgrade has a more accurate 2-m  
300 temperature forecast (Zhu 2015) and a positive impact of extreme cold prediction.

301

#### 302 d. Verification of forecast products for different reference climatology

303         The current NCEP GEFS ANF product uses the 40-year reanalysis as reference  
304 climatology. To test the sensitivity of ANF and EFI skills to their reference we make verification  
305 comparisons with two different references (30-year CFSRR and 40-year reanalysis) in Fig. 10  
306 and Fig.11. The ANF and EFI calculated relative to the CFSRR climatology have slightly better  
307 HR, FBI and ETS than the reanalysis climatology (Fig.10). The relative forecasting performance  
308 with the two references can be also identified from the performance diagram (Fig.11). The  
309 plotted positions for the CFSRR reference are closer to the upper right corner than for the  
310 reanalysis reference, indicating a slightly higher accuracy when a more sophisticated analysis is  
311 used. The sensitivity of the verification scores to the references for the ANF and EFI is very  
312 similar. The differences in HR and FBI caused by using different references (Fig.10) are less  
313 important compared to differences from the different model versions (Fig.8). But the sensitivity  
314 of ETS to the model version and reference are roughly similar.

315

### 316 **4.3 Verification of heavy precipitation forecasts**

317         Figure 12 shows the 96-h forecasts of extreme precipitation regions from the (a) ANF and  
318 (b) EFI products, initiated at 0000 UTC 6 Jan. 2014. The shaded areas are the corresponding 72-

319 96h accumulated precipitation forecasts. Both products forecast the two major extreme  
320 precipitation regions, located over Baffin Island and from the Gulf of Mexico to the Atlantic  
321 Ocean, respectively. Overall, the patterns of extreme precipitation from the two products are very  
322 similar. The definition of extreme precipitation depends on local climatology. The figure  
323 illustrates the dependence of extreme precipitation on the geographic location. For example, the  
324 strong precipitation region over Washington State and British Columbia is not diagnosed as an  
325 extreme precipitation event. Conversely, a relatively weak precipitation area over Baffin Island is  
326 predicted as an extreme precipitation event.

327         Figure 13 compare the two products against the CCPA for another case over the CONUS.  
328 The 84-h forecasts of extreme precipitation regions were initiated at 0000 UTC 3 Dec. 2013.  
329 Again the forecasts from the two products are very similar and capture the major extreme  
330 precipitation region over the United States, although the forecasts underestimate the observed  
331 area of extreme precipitation. The verification scores demonstrate that the EFI predicts more  
332 extreme events with a slightly higher HR, FAR, and a similar ETS as the ANF. The proposed  
333 methodology will be applied to more cases to calculate the statistics of extreme precipitation  
334 prediction in the future.

335

336 **5. Conclusions**

337         In this work, we examine the ANF and EFI algorithms for observed extreme cold  
338 temperature and extreme heavy precipitation during the winter of 2013-2014. We develop a  
339 verification methodology in order to provide a tool to evaluate the relative performance of  
340 products from different methods (ANF and EFI), model versions (GEFS v10 and v11), forecasts  
341 (raw and bias-corrected), and different reanalysis climatology as well. We find a strong

342 correlation between the ANF and EFI. For extreme cold event forecasts, an EFI of -0.78 is  
343 approximately equivalent to  $-2\sigma$  ANF (or ANF=0.05) and for extreme precipitation forecasts,  
344 EFI=0.687 corresponds to ANF=0.95. This provides a threshold to evaluate and compare the two  
345 different forecast algorithms.

346         The verification results show that both the ANF and EFI can predict extreme events.  
347 Verification statistics for extreme cold events in the winter of 2013-2014 indicate the EFI  
348 forecasts more extreme cold events than the ANF. The ANF produces a higher ETS value. The  
349 bias-corrected forecast has much better performance than the raw forecast when an 18-year  
350 control only reforecast was used as an approximate reference. This indicates a need for  
351 increasing the number of reforecast members to improve the extreme weather forecast. The work  
352 towards finding the optimized configuration of real-time GEFS reforecast runs are being  
353 conducted (Hamill et al. 2014; Guan et al. 2015). It will provide a better reference for the future  
354 applications. We also found that the upgrade of the GEFS model from v10 to v11 has a  
355 beneficial impact on the extreme cold weather forecast. Using a more recently developed  
356 climatology (CFSRR) as the reference gives a slightly better score than the 40-year reanalysis. A  
357 previously developed performance diagram (Roebber 2009) is also used to illustrate the  
358 verification results, further proving its usefulness as a visualization tool.

359         The current work also demonstrates that the verification methodology can be extended to  
360 extreme precipitation. We verified an extreme precipitation case that occurred in the winter of  
361 2013-2014. The results indicated a potential wider application of the verification methodology.  
362 In the future, we will examine more extreme precipitation cases and calculate long-term  
363 statistics. Meanwhile, we will use the methodology to verify surface winds and surface pressure  
364 as well. The sensitivity of ANF-EFI relationship on forecast lead time will also be our focus.



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502 **Table:**

503 Table 1. The contingency table used to evaluate forecasts of extreme cold events.

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505 **Figure Captions:**

506 Figure 1. Comparisons of the ensemble mean ANF and EFI for the 96-hr 2m temperature  
507 forecast over North America. The raw forecast and model climatology are used in  
508 producing the ANF and EFI. The solid line represents the best-fit curve. The forecasts are  
509 initiated at 0000 UTC 1 Mar. 2015.

510 Figure 2. Comparison of the 50th percentile ANF and EFI for accumulated precipitation  
511 forecasts (72-96hr) over North America. The v11 raw forecast and model climatology are  
512 used in producing the ANF and EFI. The solid line represents the best-fit curve. The  
513 forecasts are initiated at 0000 UTC 6 Jan. 2014.

514 Figure 3. Extreme cold weather event observations (a), 96-hr EFI forecast (b), 96-hr ANF (c),  
515 and verification for both methods (d). The v11 raw forecast and v11 model climatology  
516 are used in producing the ANF and EFI. The forecasts are initiated at 0000 UTC 5 Mar.  
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518 Figure 4. Extreme cold weather event observations or anomaly analysis (ANA) (a), 96-h raw  
519 EFI forecast (b), 96-h bias-corrected EFI forecast (c), and verification for the v11 RAW  
520 and v11 bias-corrected forecast (d). The 18-year control-only and CFSRR climatology  
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523 Figure 5. The 2-m temperature histograms of HR, FAR, FBI, and ETS for 11 days with different

524 algorithms (EFI and ANF) and forecasts (raw and bias-corrected) over North America.  
525 Blue and red bars are the v11 raw ANF and EFI, respectively; green and purple bars are  
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528 Figure 6. Performance diagram summarizing the SR, POD, bias, and CSI. Solid and dashed lines  
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533 Figure 7. Extreme cold weather event observations (a), EFI product from v10 (b) and v11 (c) 96-  
534 h bias-corrected forecasts, and verification for both of model versions (d). The forecasts  
535 are initiated at 0000 UTC 2 Jan. 2014 and the reference climatology is CFSRR.

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537 Figure 8. The 2-m temperature histograms of HR, FAR, FBI, and ETS for 11 days with different  
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542 Figure 9. Performance diagram as in Fig.6, but for the comparisons of the two model versions.  
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545 forecasts from 0000 UTC cycle and the reference climatology is CFSRR.



546 Figure 10. The 2-m temperature histograms of HR, FAR, FBI, and ETS for 11 days with  
 547 different algorithms and reference climatology over North America. Blue and red bars are  
 548 the v11 bias-corrected ANF with NCEP/NCAR reanalysis and CFSRR as reference,  
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552 Figure 11. Performance diagram as in Fig. 6, but for the comparisons of the two reference  
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 555 using the 30-year CFSRR as the reference.

556 Figure 12. The 96-h forecasts of extreme precipitation regions (red contours) from the ANF (a)  
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560 Figure 13. The daily extreme precipitation distribution (60-84hr) for ANA (a), ANF (b), and EFI  
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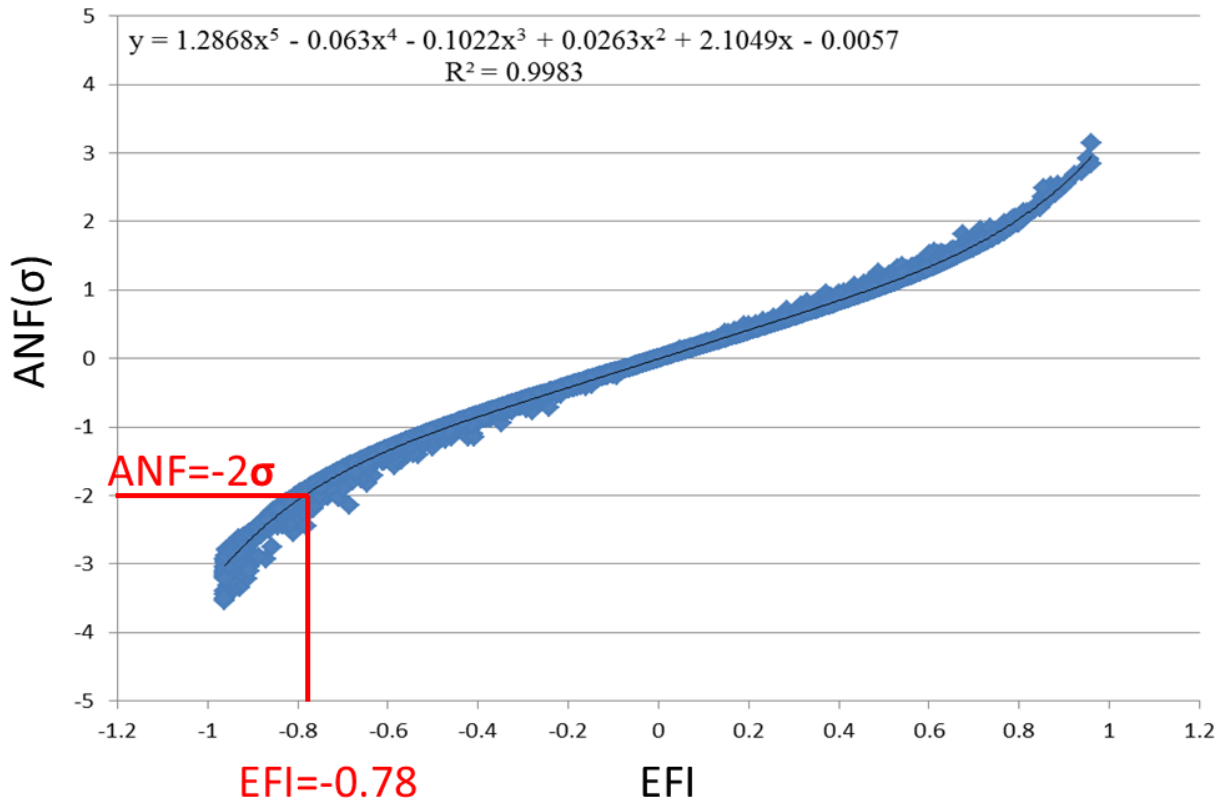
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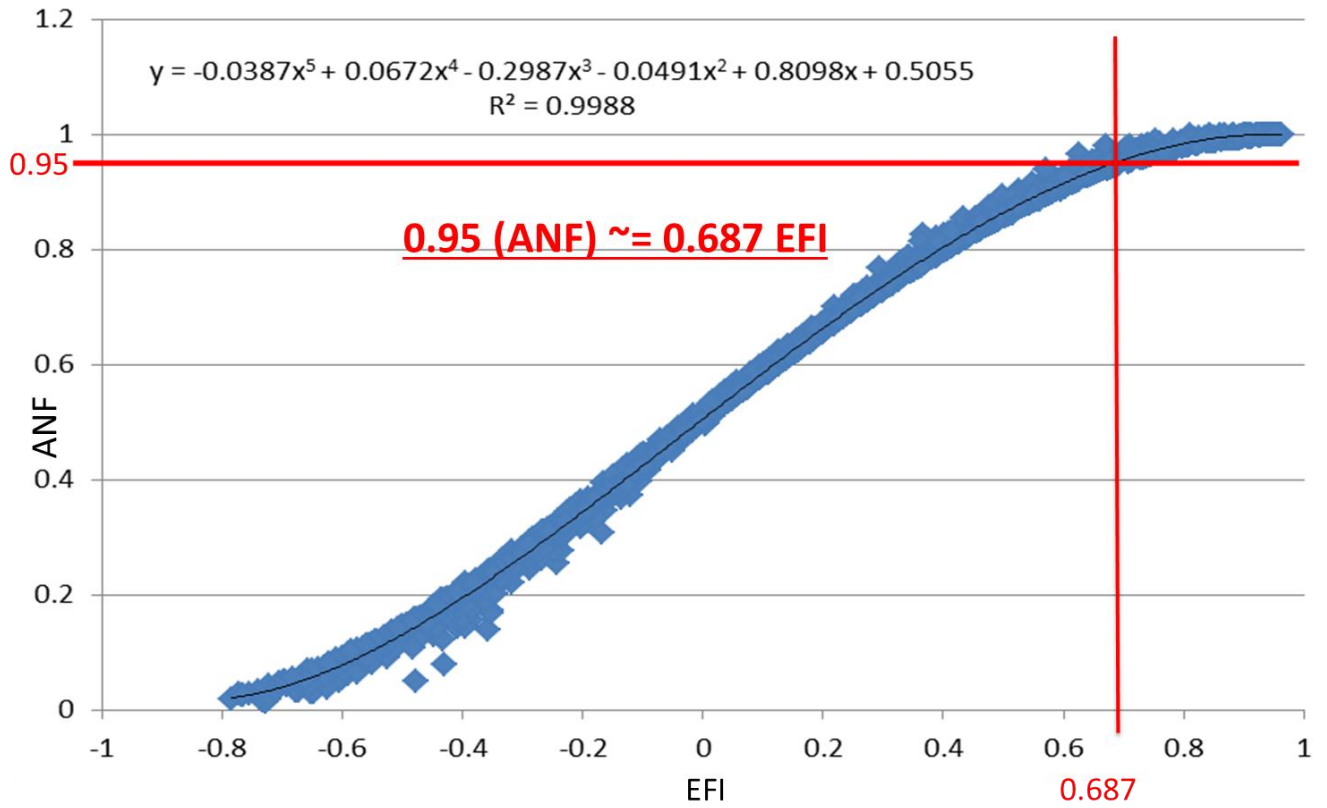
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Figure 1. Comparisons of the ensemble mean ANF and EFI for 96-hr 2m temperature forecast over North America. The raw forecast and model climatology are used in producing the ANF and EFI. The solid line represents the best-fit curve. The forecasts are initiated at 0000 UTC 1 Mar. 2015.

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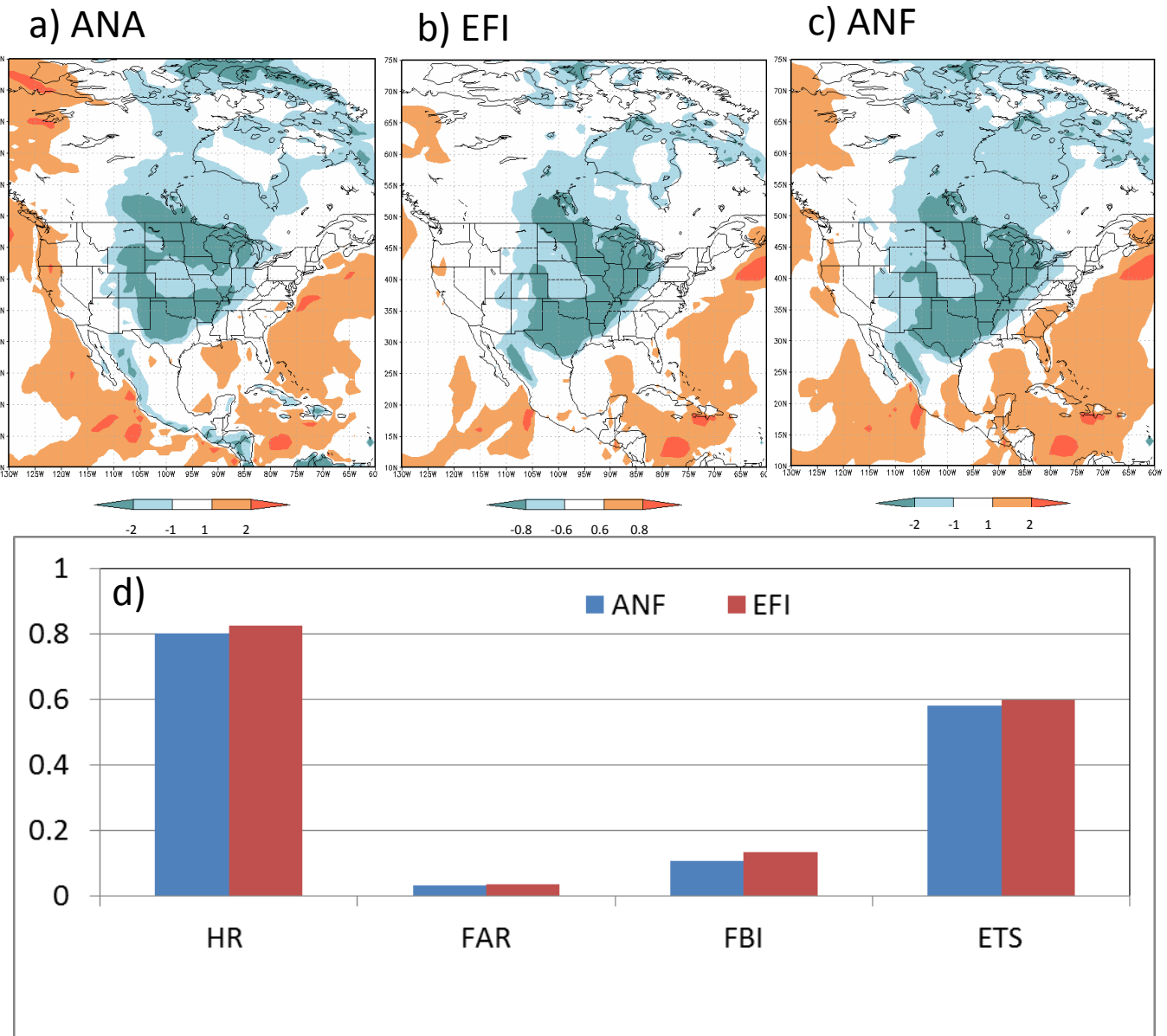


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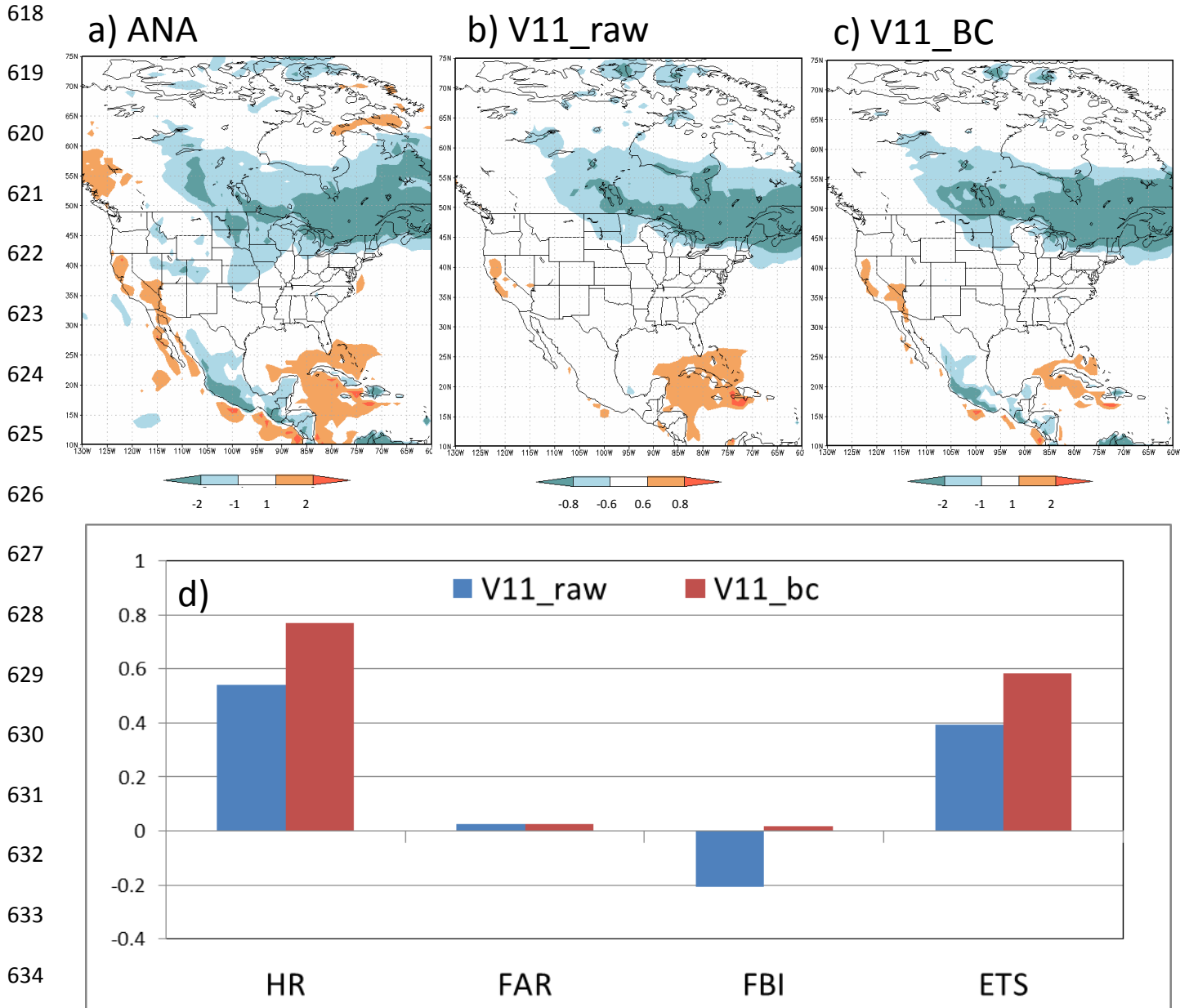
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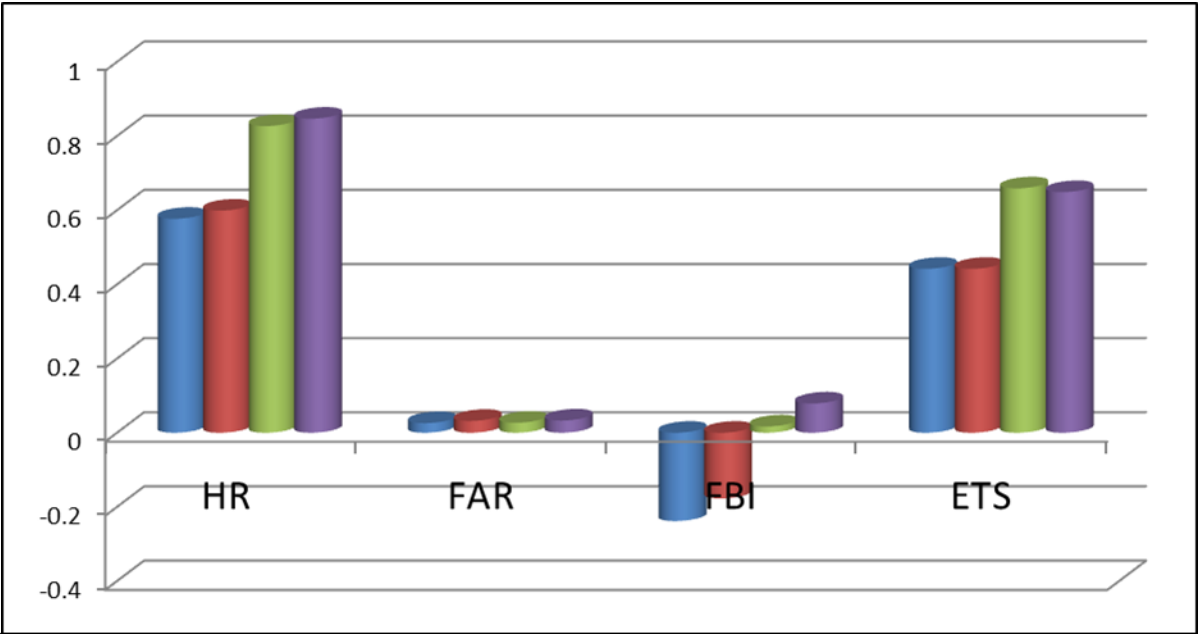


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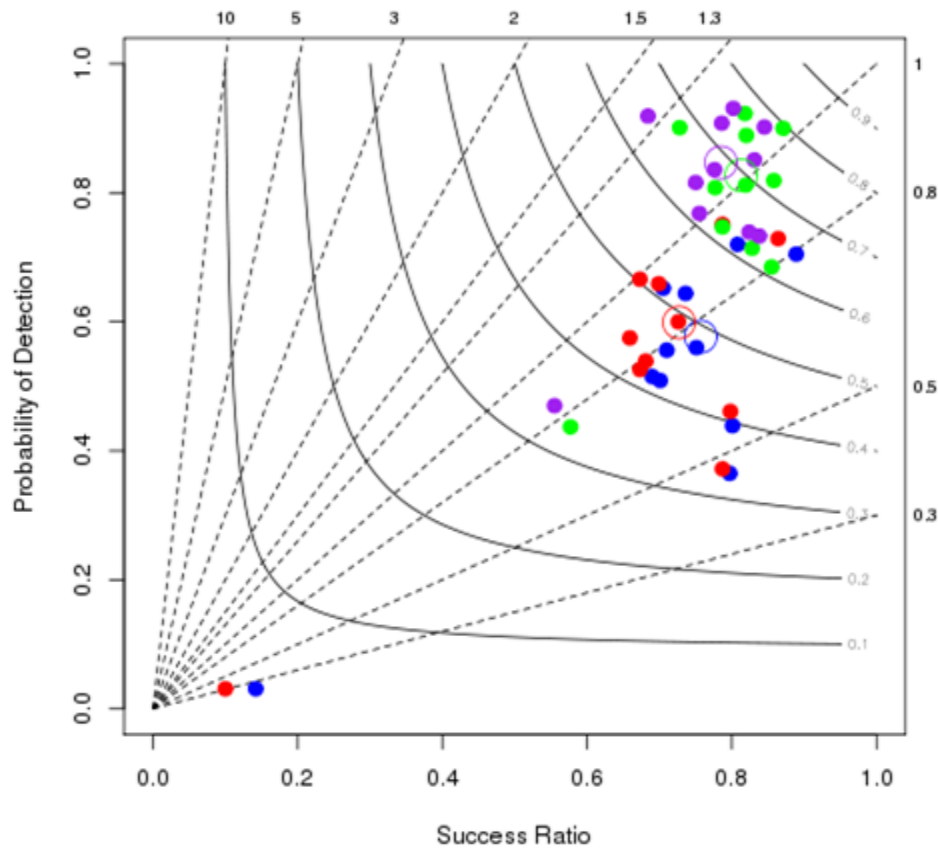
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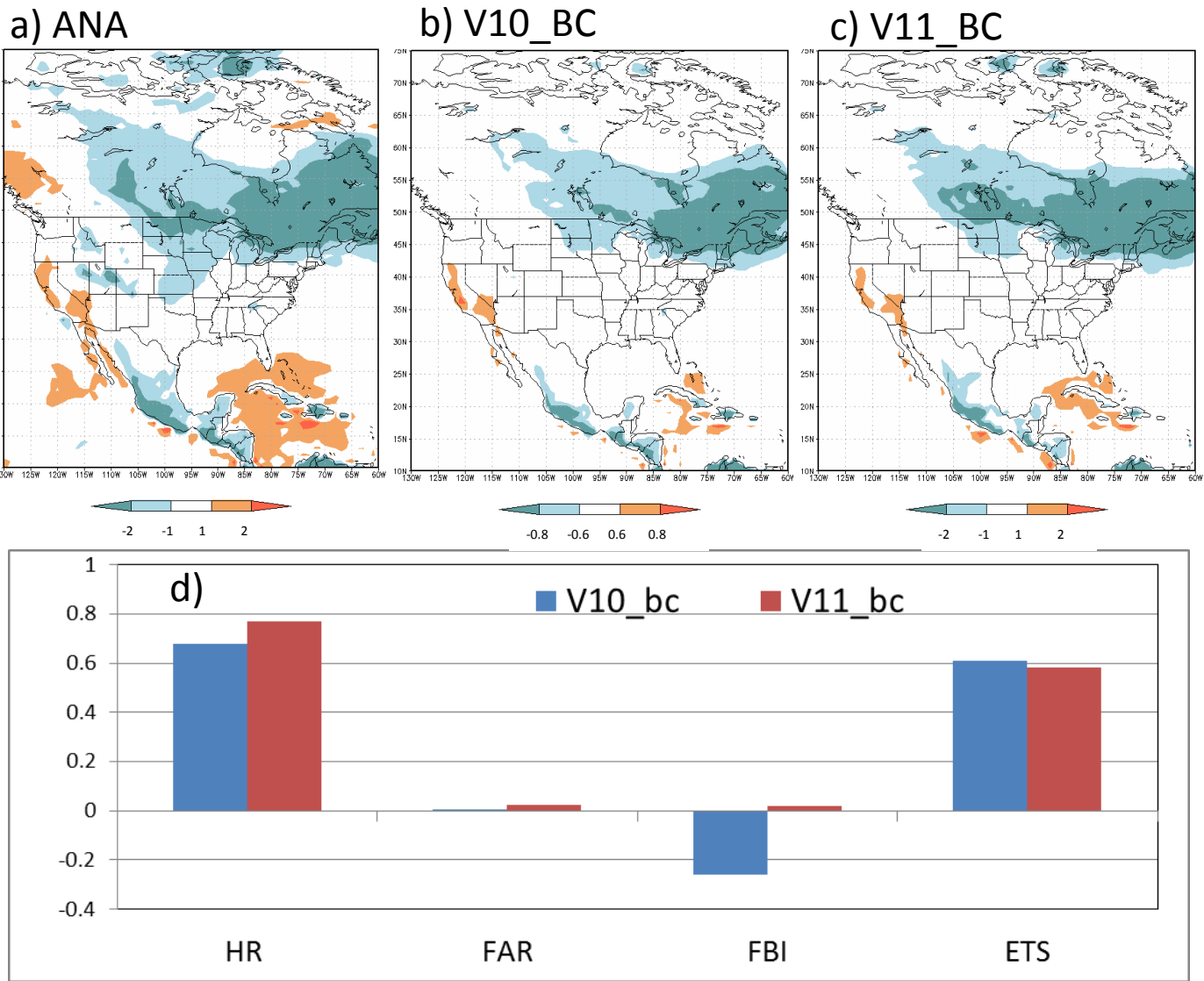
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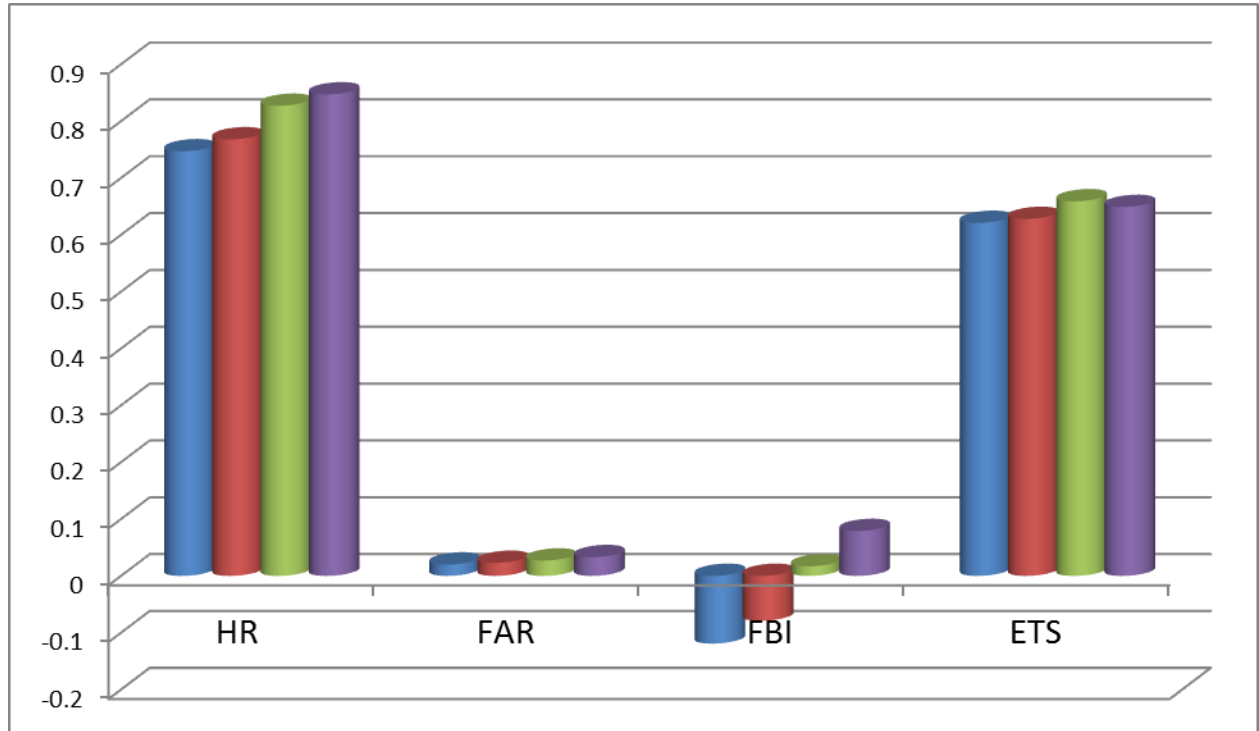
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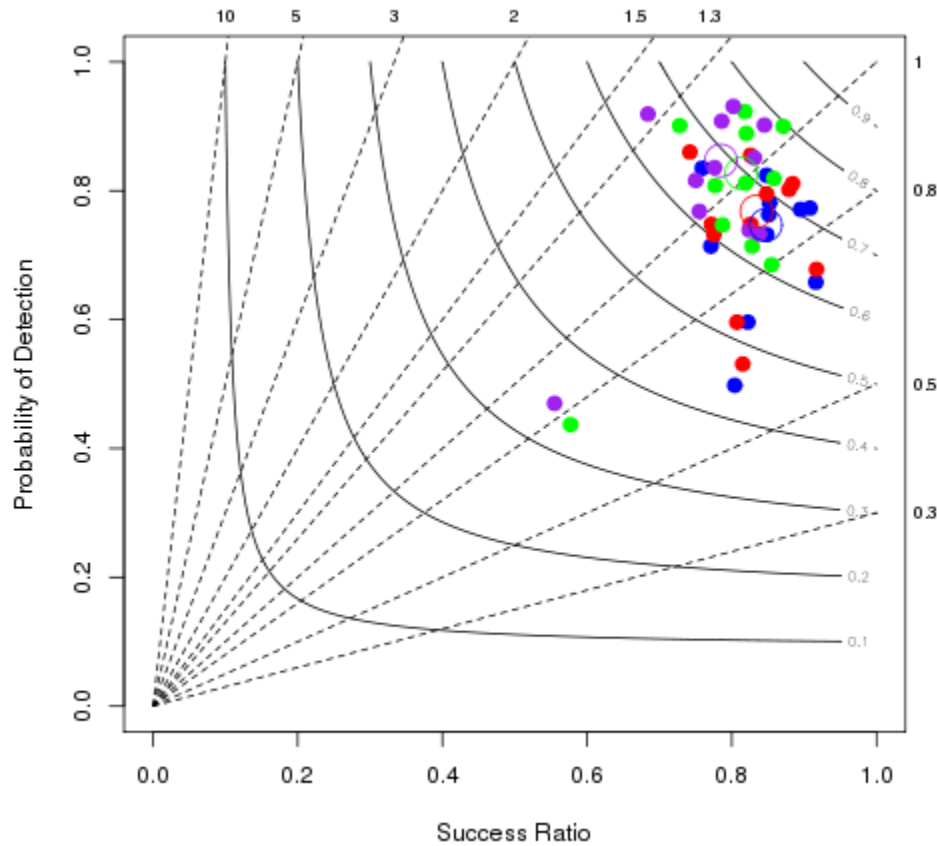
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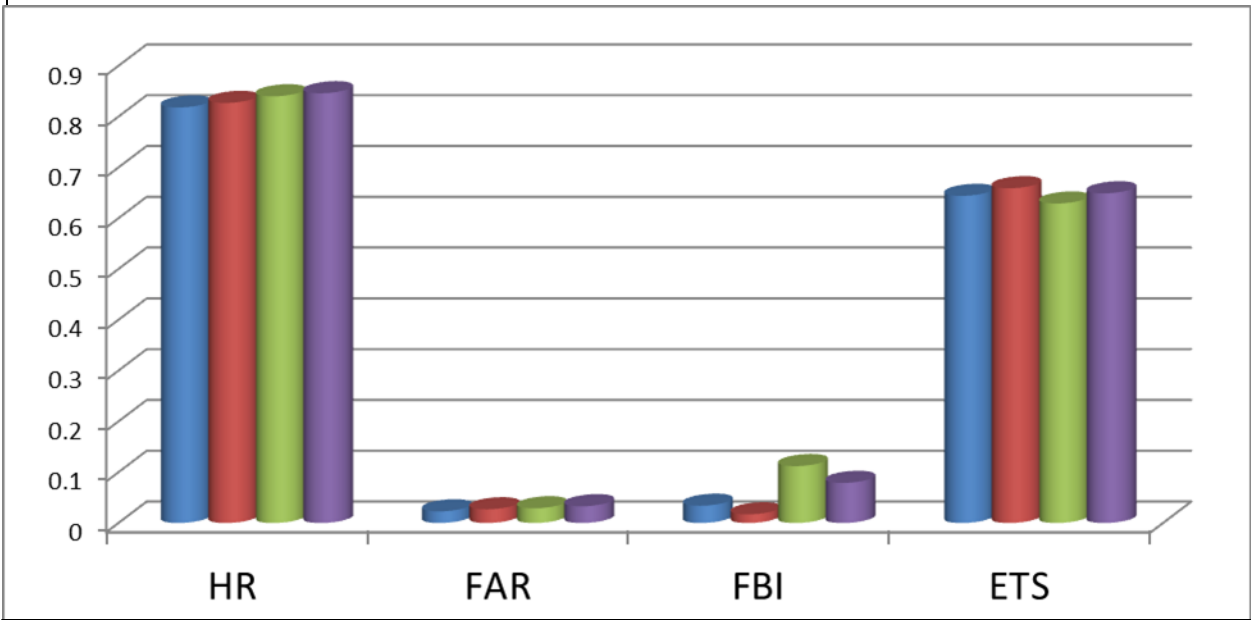
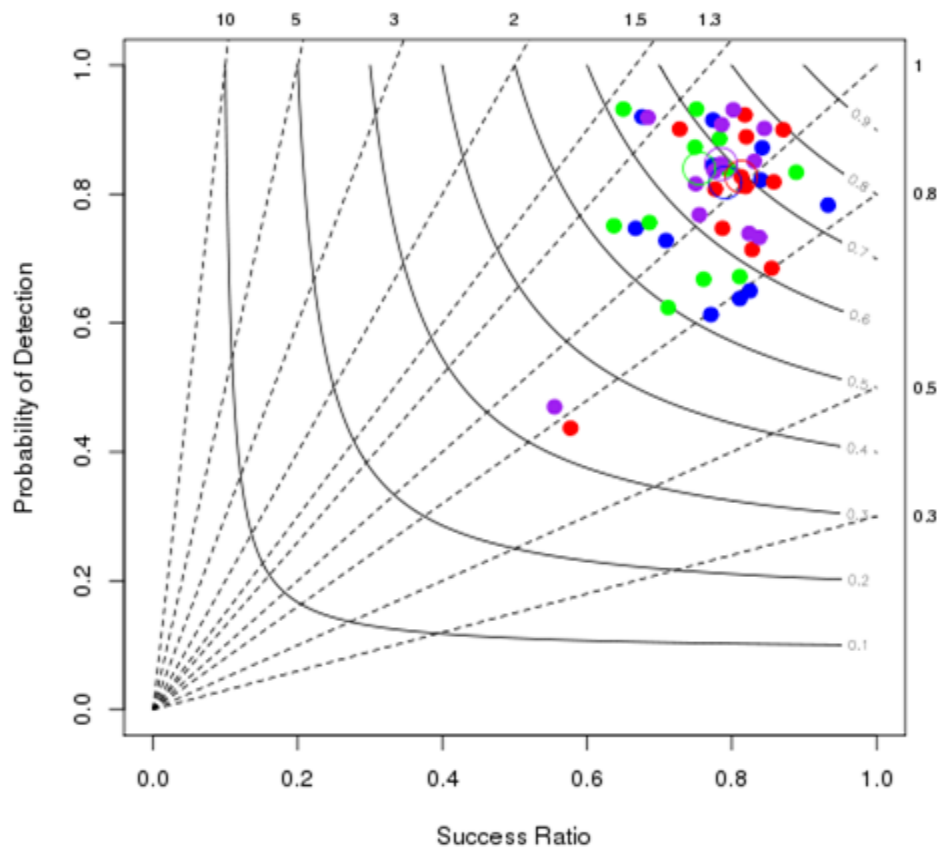


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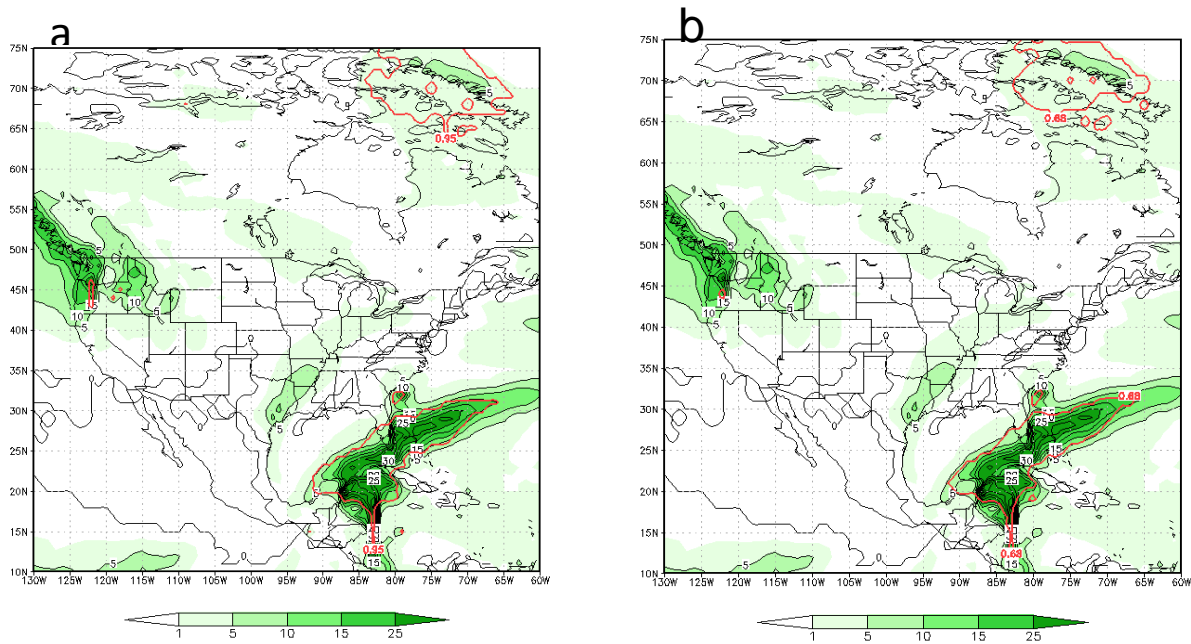


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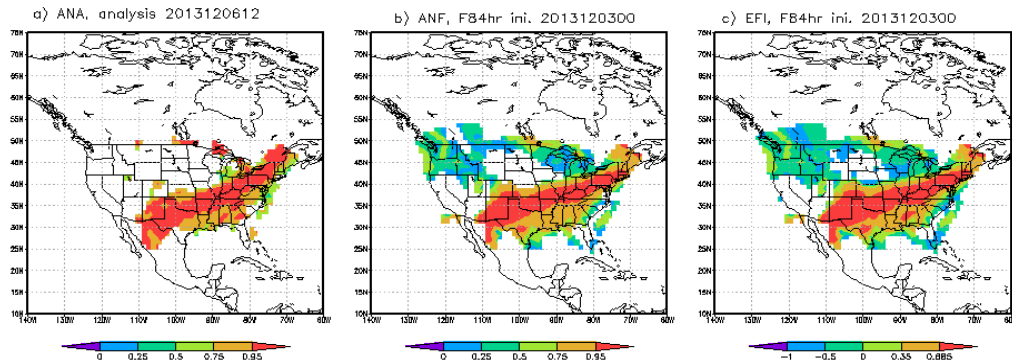
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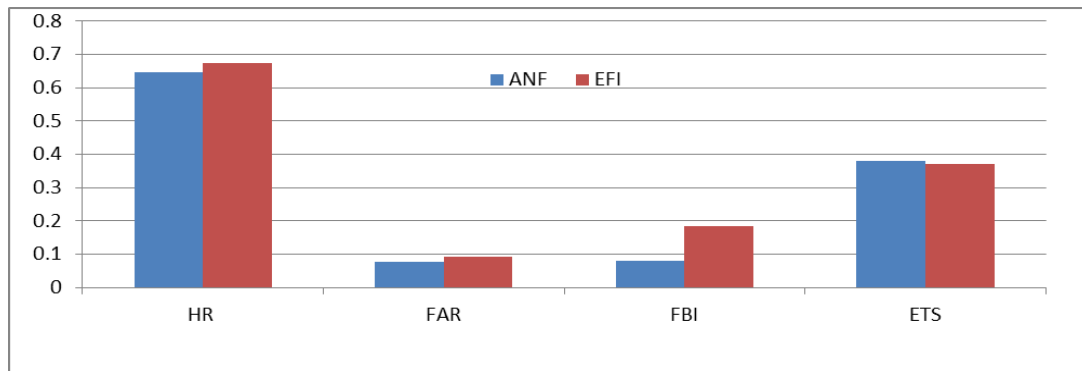
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