Exploiting the signal to noise ratio in multi-system predictions of boreal summer precipitation and temperature

Juan C. Acosta Navarro[1] and Andrea Toreti[1]

[1]European Commission, Joint Research Centre, Ispra, Italy.

Correspondence to: Juan C Acosta Navarro (juan.acosta-navarro@ec.europa.eu)

Abstract

Droughts and heat waves are among the most impactful climate extremes. Their co-occurrence can have adverse consequences on natural and human systems. Early information on their possible occurrence on seasonal timescales is beneficial for many stakeholders. Seasonal climate forecasts have become openly available to the community but a wider use is currently hindered by limited skill in certain regions and seasons. Here we show that a simple forecast metric from a multi-system ensemble, the signal to noise ratio, can help overcome some limitations. Forecasts of mean daily near surface air temperature and precipitation in boreal summers with high signal to noise ratio tend to coincide with observed larger deviations from the mean than summers with small signal to noise ratio. The signal to noise ratio of the ensemble predictions serves as a complementary measure of forecast reliability that could potentially benefit users of climate predictions.

1. Introduction

Droughts are typically slow onset climate extreme events (Mishra and Singh, 2010), yet they can be disruptive and affect millions of people every year (Below et al., 2007; Enekel et al., 2020). Heat waves can intensify and trigger a faster drought evolution (Bevacqua et al., 2022). Compound drought and heat waves can strongly impact socio-economic and ecological systems, and may even compromise our ability to reach the UN sustainable development goal on climate action while strongly reducing the Earth system's current natural capacity to absorb and store carbon (Yin et al., 2023). The use of seasonal climate forecasts can provide actionable information to reduce the risks and the impacts of these events on key sectors like agriculture, energy, transport, water supply (Buontempo et al 2018; Ceglar and Toreti 2021).

In the last couple of decades, climate predictions have shown important progress in anticipating the evolution of various components of the climate system across the subseasonal to decadal time range (Merryfield et al., 2020; Meehl et al., 2021). A combination of multiple forecast systems has shown overall benefits as compared with single systems, and can improve forecast quality up to a certain extent (Hagedorn et al., 2005; Mishra et al., 2019). In spite of the recent progress, climate predictions still exhibit low to moderate skill in many regions and seasons (e.g. European summer; Mishra et al. 2019), something that limits their use and represents a barrier for stakeholders. Furthermore, multiple studies have shown that large ensembles are required to achieve skillful predictions, something that seems to be related to the forecast systems being more skillful at predicting real climate

39 than at predicting their own realizations (i.e. ensemble members). This odd phenomenon has been called the signal
40 to noise paradox (Eade et al., 2014; Scaife and Smith, 2018; Smith et al., 2020). It is particularly evident in the
41 Euro Atlantic region during winter both on seasonal and decadal timescales. However boreal summer predictions
42 have been generally overlooked. A recent study based on a single forecasting system has shown that sampling
43 years with high SNR results in more skillful predictions of monthly temperatures in Japan throughout the year
44 (Doi et al., 2022).

45

46 In this study we exploit multi-system ensembles to test whether specific boreal summers with higher than normal
47 predictability can be detected through the local relation between skill and SNR. We explore this for near surface
48 air temperature and precipitation predictions, both locally and on large aggregated mid-latitude regions of the
49 Northern Hemisphere.

50

51 **2. Methods**

52

53 This analysis is based on seasonal re-forecasts (also known as hindcasts) of mean boreal summer precipitation
54 and 2-meter mean daily temperature (T2m) for the period 1993-2016 from ECMWF SEAS5 (S5, Johnson et al.,
55 2019), UKMO GloSea6 (S600, MacLachlan et al., 2015), MeteoFrance (S8, Batté et al., 2017), CMCC (S35,
56 Gualdi et al., 2020) and DWD (S21, Baehr et al., 2015), available from the Copernicus C3S Climate Data Store.
57 The observationally based datasets to evaluate the re-forecasts are ERA5 (Hersbach al., 2020) for T2m and GPCC
58 (Schnider et al., 2011) for precipitation. The use of summer mean T2m is not intended to characterize single heat
59 waves, but to estimate average daily deviations from the mean on a seasonal scale. In a climatological sense, more
60 intense, more frequent or longer heat waves than usual generally define hot summers and hence average T2m may
61 be seen as a seasonal integrator of heat wave activity. Forecast skill is evaluated with the anomaly correlation
62 coefficient (ACC) between the ensemble mean and the observational reference. To complement the skill estimates
63 of ACC, two additional deterministic skill metrics are computed: the mean squared skill score (MSSS, Murphy,
64 1988) and the Gilbert skill score (GSS, WMO, 2014). The mean squared skill score compares the mean square
65 error of the forecasts with the mean square error of the climatological value. It ranges from minus infinity to 1
66 and values above 0 indicate skill in the predictions. The GSS measures the fraction of correctly predicted events
67 over the total number of predicted events plus misses, and takes into consideration the randomly predicted events.
68 The thresholds to define event/non event are the top and bottom 25% summers for T2m (hot) and precipitation
69 (dry), respectively. Standardization of the anomalies of each ensemble member and the observational reference
70 data is performed prior to the analysis. This step guarantees that each member from each system has a comparable
71 year-to-year variability to the observed one. Additionally, the standardized T2m anomalies are linearly detrended
72 at the grid level and for each member of the re-forecasts and in ERA5 to isolate as much as possible the impact of
73 the long term warming.

74

75 Following Doi et al. (2022), the SNR is calculated as: $SNR = \frac{\mu_e}{\sigma_e}$, where μ_e is the multi-system ensemble mean
76 and σ_e is the multi-system standard deviation after standardization, computed across ensemble members for every
77 summer (June - August) and for each gridbox. 25 members per system are used to have an equal contribution from
78 each system.

79

3. Signal to noise ratio and forecast skill

81

Figure 1 displays spatial maps of mean (boreal) summer T2m ACC, time averaged SNR, and a scatter plot which shows the local relation between ACC and SNR. On average, skill values over land increase with higher SNR values. Negative values of ACC are nearly non-existent when the threshold of SNR exceeds the value of about 0.5 in the same gridbox. Statistically significant skill in T2m is mostly confined to the tropics and sub-tropics. However, significant skill is also found in western North America, the eastern Mediterranean, central Asia and southern South America. Notable exceptions in the tropics are Congo and parts of the Amazon rainforests. The patterns of SNR largely mirror those of ACC. Generally, there is a good agreement between areas of high skill (ACC) and areas with high SNR, something that is further confirmed by the local relation between ACC and SNR (Fig. 1c).

91

92

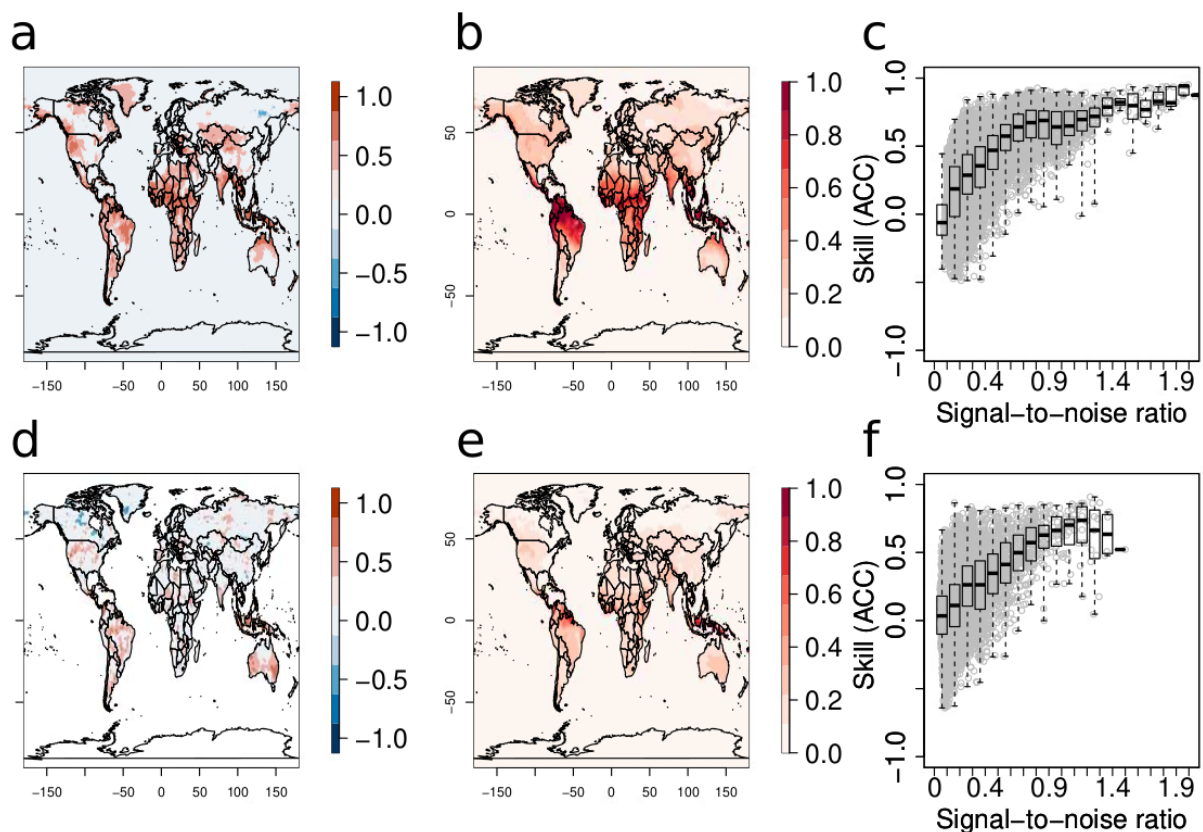



Figure 1: June-August Skill (ACC), time averaged SNR and scatterplots of local relation between ACC and SNR for T2m (a-c) and precipitation (d-f). Each gray dot in c,f represents the values of ACC and SNR at each gridbox. Only statistically significant values with a 90% confidence based on a t-test are displayed in (a,d). The re-forecasts are initialized every May.

97

Precipitation follows a similar behavior in terms of ACC and SNR, although statistically significant skill is less widespread (Fig. 1d-f). Areas under the influence of El Nino Southern Oscillation (ENSO; Lenssen et al., 2020) appear as regions with significant ACC and high SNR. Skillful values are mostly located in the Americas, the

Maritime continent and Australia. Precipitation skill and SNR in Africa and Asia are much lower, making these the regions with the largest qualitative differences between the two variables.

Based on the observed link between skill and SNR, we use the latter one as the single criterion to exclude from the re-forecasts years with very low and very high values to understand their impact on skill. When 25% of the years (6 in total) with the highest SNR (Fig. 2a) are excluded, the results overall show much lower values of ACC than when only 25% of the years with the lowest SNR are excluded (Fig. 2b). Furthermore, differences between the latter and the former result (in many cases) in higher statistically significant values than the ACC computed when selecting only years without the highest SNR (Fig. 2a,c). This result highlights the importance that these extreme SNR years can have on skill. In fact, only skill values that are computed by excluding the bottom 25% of SNR years (Fig. 2b) are comparable to the ones estimated when all years are used for the computation (Fig. 1a).

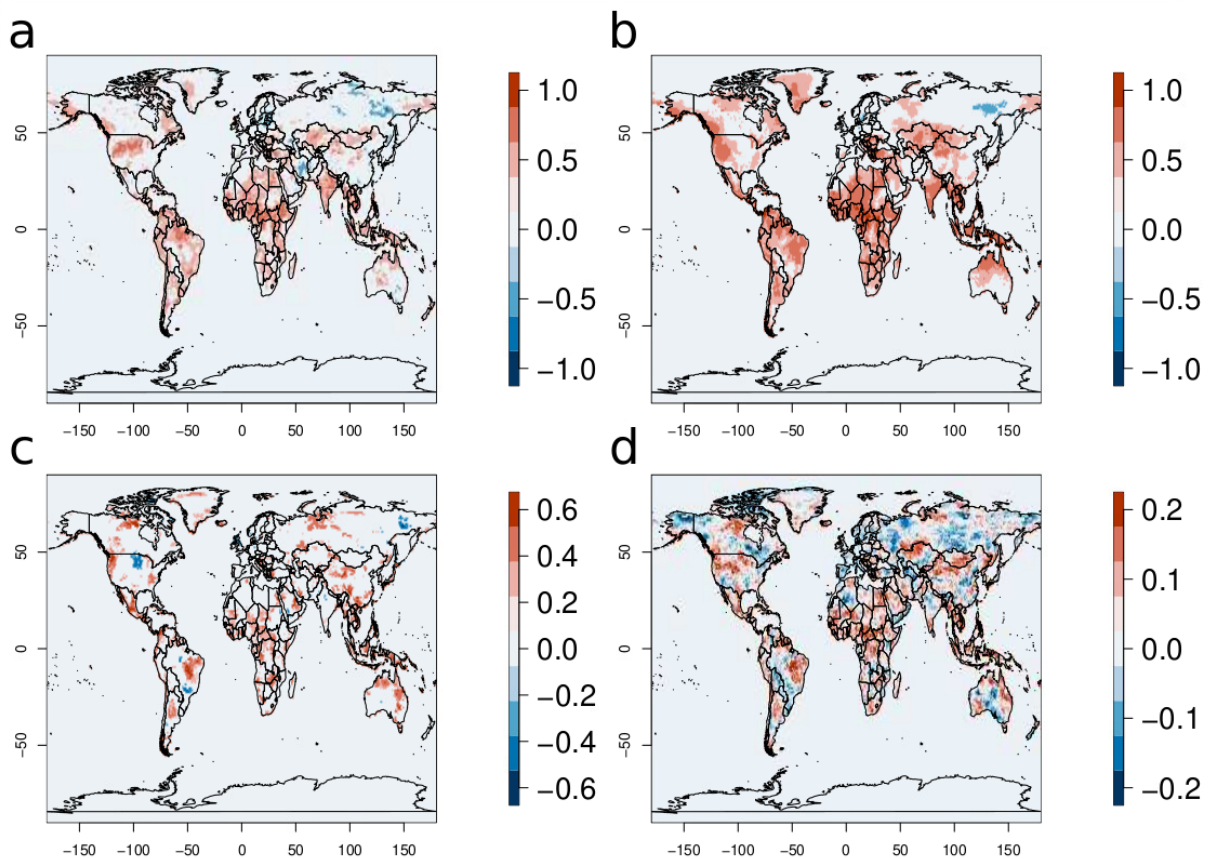
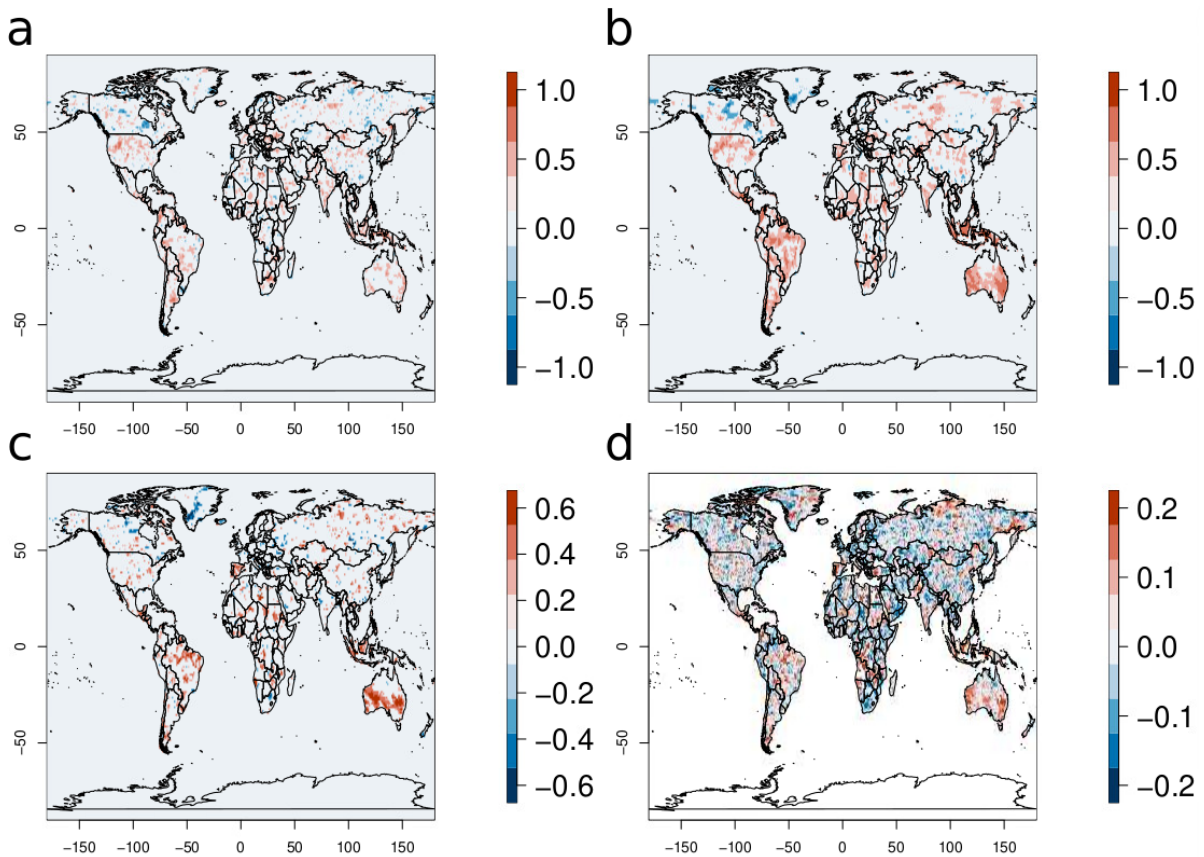



Figure 2: Skill (ACC) of T2m predictions excluding 25% of the years with highest (a) and lowest (b) local SNR. (c) Difference between (a) and (b). (d) Difference in the time-averaged absolute deviation from the mean in ERA5 T2m, excluding years having 25% of the lowest and highest local SNR, respectively. Only statistically significant values with a 90% confidence based on a t-test are displayed in (a-c). The re-forecasts are initialized every May.

Interestingly, using the same criterion to select ERA5 T2m values reveals that in general, excluding years with high ensemble SNR results in lower absolute deviations from the mean than when the low SNR years are excluded (Fig. 2d). Additionally, these differences overall coincide with regions with significant skill differences (Fig. 2c,d). This implies that years with more extreme deviations from the mean (in the observations/reanalysis) may

123   be identified a priori by calculating the ensemble SNR of the forecast, and that forecast systems are in general

124   more skillful when large deviations from the mean occur.

125

126

127   **Figure 3: Same as Figure 2, but for precipitation.**

128

129   Similar to T2m, the exclusion of years with high SNR also results in lower overall precipitation skill values than

130   the one obtained when excluding low SNR years (Fig. 3a,b). Important skill differences appear in the Iberian

131   Peninsula, Brazil, Australia and Indonesia (Fig. 3c), and in most cases imply a shift from non-significant to

132   significant skill (Fig. 3 a and b, respectively). Contrasting with T2m, the relation between ACC and mean absolute

133   deviation from the mean in the observations is not obvious for precipitation (Fig. 3c,d). To further investigate this

134   behavior, we analyzed the relationship between skill differences and the differences in absolute deviation from

135   the mean for T2m and precipitation, as usual using the re-forecasts that exclude the 25% of the years with the

136   lowest and the highest SNR, respectively. This analysis (not shown) confirms a statistically robust relationship

137   between skill and large deviations from mean observed precipitation, but still weaker than for T2m.

138

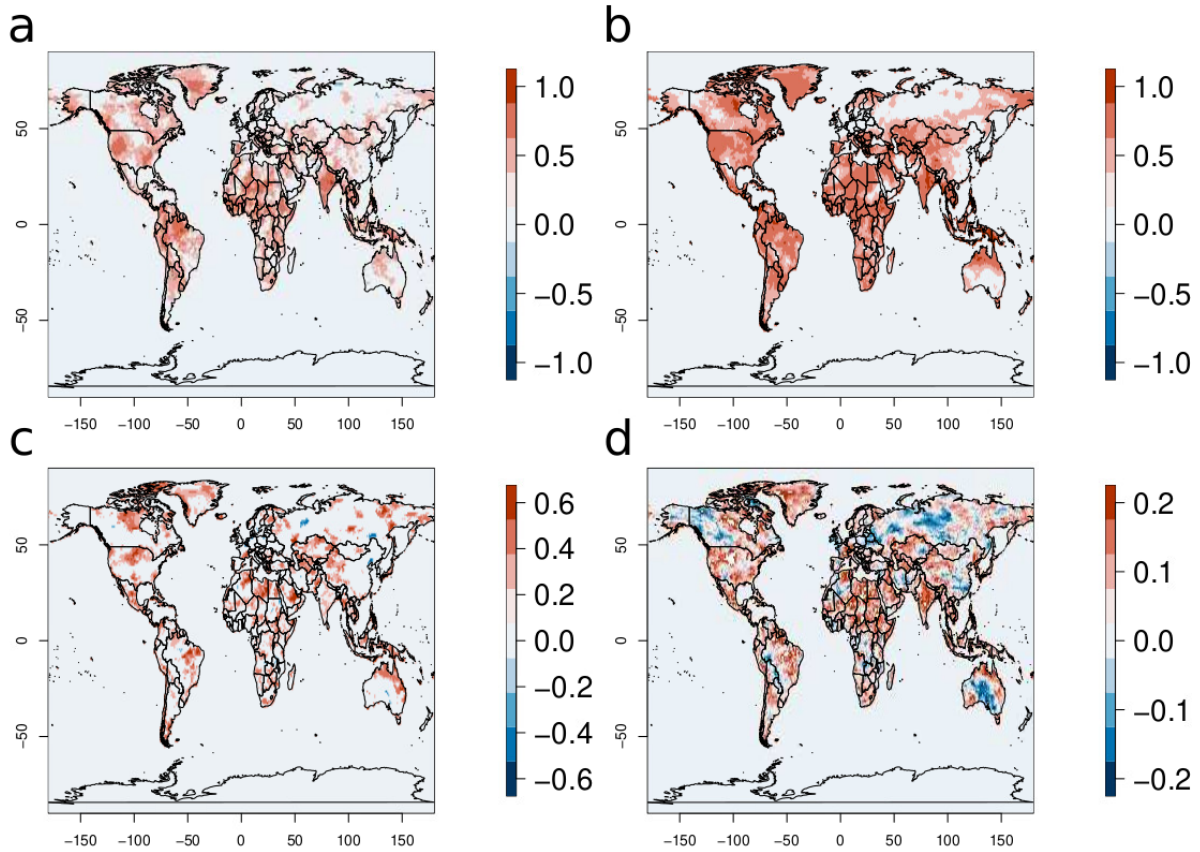



Figure 4: The same as Figure 2, but for re-forecasts initialized every June.

Figure 4 shows a clearer relation between the impact on skill of the most extreme years in terms of SNR and the absolute T2m anomalies in ERA5, as compared with Figure 2. There is a good correspondence in all continents, including parts of Europe (Fig. 4 c,d). The only difference between the two Figures is that they show the results from re-forecasts with different initialization dates. Both target the boreal summer months (June-August), but Figure 2 shows the results from the May initialization while Figure 4 shows the results from the June initialization. Similar qualitative conclusions can be made for precipitation (not shown).

In Figure 5 we use the same methodology to sample years based on T2m SNR, but applied to specific northern hemisphere mid-latitude regions: the Mediterranean, North and Central Europe, north western Asia, east Asia, western North America and eastern North America. All the three skill metrics computed show that sampling the 18 years with highest SNR, generally results in more skillful T2m predictions than when sampling all 24 years or the 18 years with lowests SNR. The only exceptions are observed in North and Central Europe where there is basically no skill or in eastern North America, where all the three selection methods show similar skill levels. Examples of successful prediction of extreme (high) T2m years and high SNR are 1999 and 2003 in the Mediterranean, 2002 in Northern/Central Europe, 1998 in northwestern Asia, 2006 and 1998 in western and eastern North America, respectively. There are also some examples of extreme (high) T2m and low SNR, such as 2012 in the Mediterranean, or 1994 and 2016 in East Asia. However, higher overall GSS for the top T2m positive anomalies indicates that on average, sampling years with high SNR results in better prediction of the extreme events.

162 A similar analysis on precipitation is shown in Figure 6. The results of precipitation qualitatively agree with those

163 of T2m. Precipitation skill is highest for years with highest SNR and lowest for years with lowest SNR, the only

164 exception being North and Central Europe, again a region with no skill in either precipitation or T2m predictions.

165 Years of successful predictions of low precipitation and high SNR are 1994 and 2000 in the Mediterranean, 2015

166 in Northern/Central Europe, 1997 and 2001 in East Asia, 2003 in western North America, and 2011 in eastern

167 North America. Similar to T2m, GSS for low precipitation summers is generally higher for the top 18 years (in

168 terms of SNR) than for the bottom 18 years or for all 24 years. Overall precipitation predictability is lower than

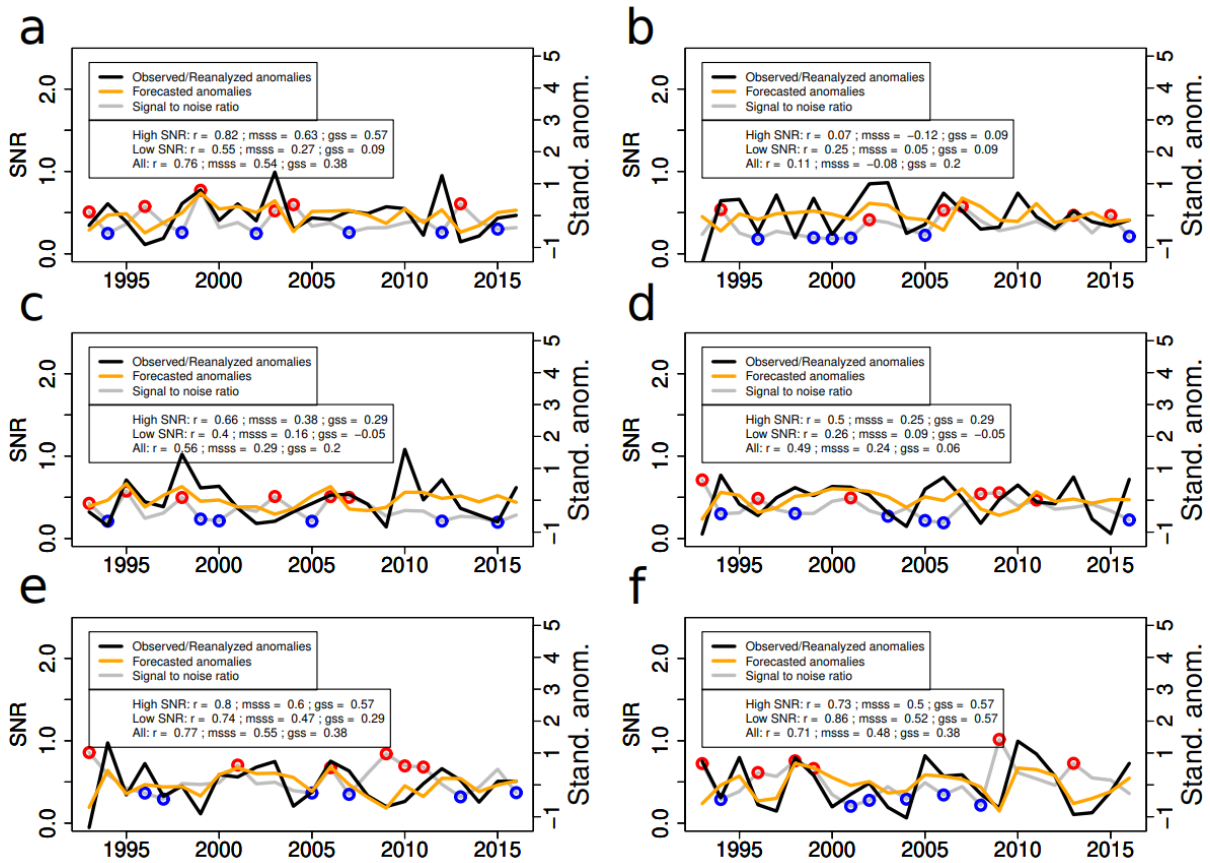
169 T2m predictability in the regions analyzed, since skill scores for precipitation are generally lower than those of

170 T2m. Note also that the same conclusions are obtained for both T2m and precipitation when separately sampling

171 only the half of years with highest and lowest SNRs and/or when varying the threshold to define the most extreme

172 years used in the GSS calculations (not shown).

173

174

175

176 **Figure 5: Area-averaged time series of observed and predicted, detrended and standardized mean summer T2m (right**

177 **axis) and SNR (left axis) in (a) the Mediterranean (10W-35E, 30-45N), (b) North and Central Europe (10W-35E, 45-**

178 **65N), (c) northwestern Asia (35-70E, 40-65N), (d) East Asia (90-130E, 25-45N), (e) western North America (123-100W,**

179 **30-50N) and (f) eastern North America (90-70W, 30-55N). Skill metrics provided separately for the 18 years with**

180 **highest SNR (excluding blue circles), the 18 years with the lowest SNR (excluding red circles) and for all 24 years. The**

181 **skill metrics are linear correlation, mean square skill score and Gilbert skill score (See methods). The values are taken**

182 **from the re-forecasts initialized in June.**

183

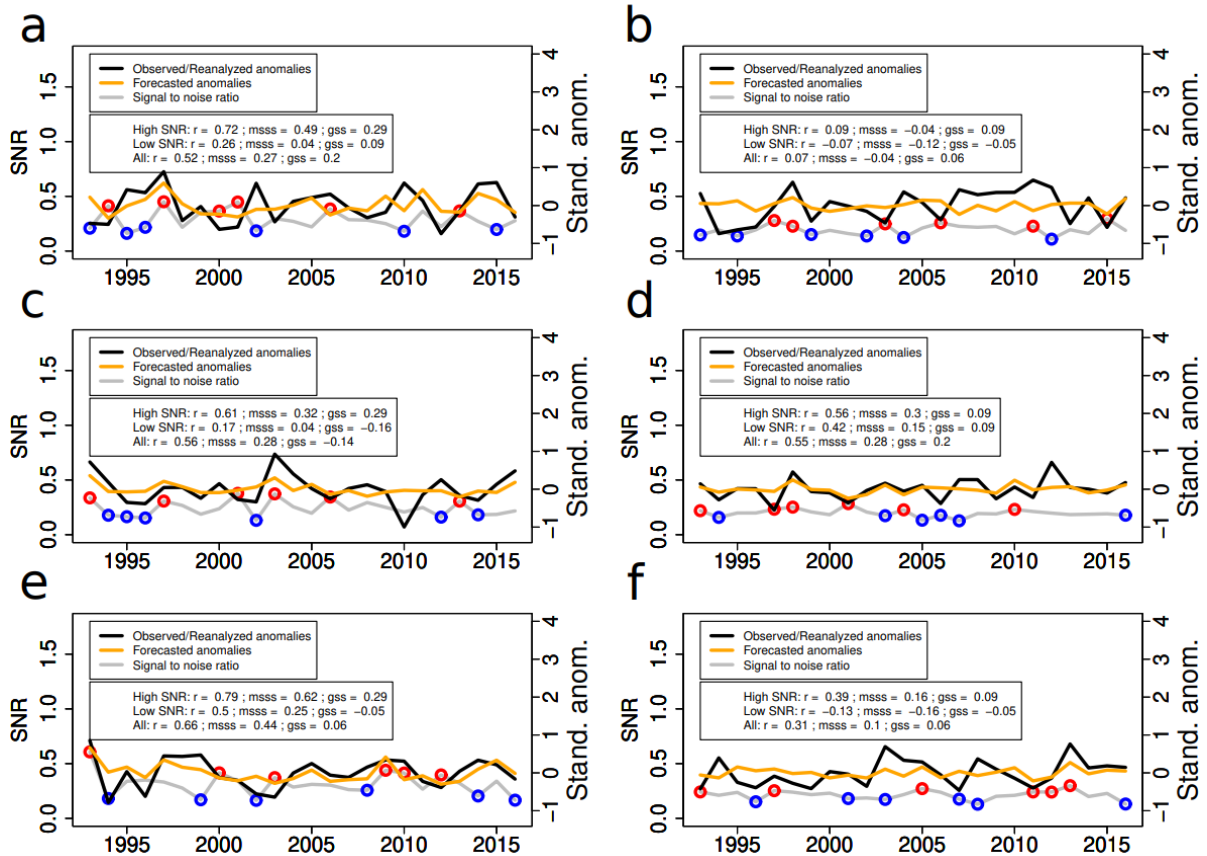



Figure 6: The same as Figure 5, but for precipitation.

4. Discussion

The SNR measures the relative weight of the ensemble mean anomalies with respect to the ensemble coherence. Its close resemblance in terms of spatial patterns with a skill metric like ACC indicates that it can provide complementary information related to seasonal climate predictability. We have shown that in regions where the forecasts are skilful, years with high SNR exhibit on average larger observed deviations from the mean than years with low SNR, both for T2m and precipitation. This means that forecast systems are on average more reliable at predicting extremes when excluding years with low SNR. This has been further demonstrated for several Northern Hemisphere mid-latitude regions during boreal summer.

Despite the well known limitations of climate forecast systems (e.g. the signal to noise paradox), we have shown that in a multi-system ensemble, the SNR may provide valuable information as it represents an intrinsic measure of reliability for T2m and precipitation forecast. The short span of 24 years defining the common hindcast period is a limitation of this study. Hence, longer hindcasts would be necessary to obtain more robust results, but are currently unavailable for most of the multiple systems analyzed.

206   **References**
207
208   Acosta Navarro, J. C., García-Serrano, J., Lapin, V., & Ortega, P. (2022). Added value of assimilating springtime
209   Arctic sea ice concentration in summer-fall climate predictions. Environmental Research Letters, 17(6), 064008.
210   Baehr, J., Fröhlich, K., Botzet, M., Domeisen, D. I., Kornblueh, L., Notz, D. & Müller, W. A. (2015). The
211   prediction of surface temperature in the new seasonal prediction system based on the MPI-ESM coupled climate
212   model. Climate Dynamics, 44(9), 2723-2735.
213   Below, R., Grover-Kopec, E., & Dilley, M. (2007). Documenting drought-related disasters: A global
214   reassessment. The Journal of Environment & Development, 16(3), 328-344.
215   Batté L., L. Dorel, C. Ardilouze, and J.-F. Guérémy, 2017: Documentation of the METEO- FRANCE seasonal
216   forecasting system 8. Météo-France, 36 pp., https://www.umr-cnrm.fr/IMG/pdf/system8-technical.pdf.
217   Bevacqua, E., Zappa, G., Lehner, F., & Zscheischler, J. (2022). Precipitation trends determine future occurrences
218   of compound hot–dry events. Nature Climate Change, 12(4), 350-355.
219   Buontempo, C., Hanlon, H. M., Soares, M. B., Christel, I., Soubeyroux, J. M., Viel, C. & Liggins, F. (2018). What
220   have we learnt from EUPORIAS climate service prototypes?. Climate Services, 9, 21-32.
221   Doi T, Nonaka M and Behera S (2022). Can signal-to-noise ratio indicate prediction skill? Based on skill
222   assessment of 1-month lead prediction of monthly temperature anomaly over Japan. *Front. Clim.* 4:887782. doi:
223   10.3389/fclim.2022.887782
224   Ceglar, A., & Toreti, A. (2021). Seasonal climate forecast can inform the European agricultural sector well in
225   advance of harvesting. npj Climate and Atmospheric Science, 4(1), 1-8.
226   Eade, R. et al. Do seasonal to decadal climate predictions underestimate the predictability of the real world?
227   *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **41**, 5620–5628 (2014).
228   Enenkel, M., Brown, M. E., Vogt, J. V., McCarty, J. L., Reid Bell, A., Guha-Sapir, D. & Vinck, P. (2020). Why
229   predict climate hazards if we need to understand impacts? Putting humans back into the drought equation. Climatic
230   Change, 162(3), 1161-1176.
231   Gualdi, S., A. Sanna, A. Borrelli, A. Cantelli, M. del Mar Chaves Montero, S. Tibaldi, 2020: The new CMCC
232   Operational Seasonal Prediction System SPS3.5. Centro Euro-Mediterraneo sui Cambiamenti Climatici. CMCC
233   Tech. Note RP0288, 26pp.
234   Hagedorn, R., Doblas-Reyes, F. J., & Palmer, T. N. (2005). The rationale behind the success of multi-model
235   ensembles in seasonal forecasting—I. Basic concept. Tellus A: Dynamic Meteorology and Oceanography, 57(3),
236   219-233.
237   Hersbach, H., Bell, B., Berrisford, P., Hirahara, S., Horányi, A., Muñoz-Sabater, J. & Thépaut, J. N. (2020). The
238   ERA5 global reanalysis. Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society, 146(730), 1999-2049.
239   Johnson, S. J., Stockdale, T. N., Ferranti, L., Balmaseda, M. A., Molteni, F., Magnusson, L., & Monge-Sanz, B.
240   M. (2019). SEAS5: the new ECMWF seasonal forecast system. Geoscientific Model Development, 12(3), 1087-
241   1117.
242   Lenssen, N. J., Goddard, L., & Mason, S. (2020). Seasonal forecast skill of ENSO teleconnection maps. Weather
243   and Forecasting, 35(6), 2387-2406.

244 MacLachlan, C., Arribas, A., Peterson, K. A., Maidens, A., Fereday, D., Scaife, A. A. & Madec, G. (2015). Global
245 Seasonal forecast system version 5 (GloSea5): A high-resolution seasonal forecast system. Quarterly Journal of
246 the Royal Meteorological Society, 141(689), 1072-1084.

247 Meehl, G. A., Richter, J. H., Teng, H., Capotondi, A., Cobb, K., Doblas-Reyes, F. & Xie, S. P. (2021). Initialized
248 Earth System prediction from subseasonal to decadal timescales. Nature Reviews Earth & Environment, 2(5),
249 340-357.

250 Merryfield, W. J., Baehr, J., Batté, L., Becker, E. J., Butler, A. H., Coelho, C. A. & Yeager, S. (2020). Current
251 and emerging developments in subseasonal to decadal prediction. Bulletin of the American Meteorological
252 Society, 101(6), E869-E896.

253 Mishra, A. K., & Singh, V. P. (2010). A review of drought concepts. Journal of hydrology, 391(1-2), 202-216.

254 Mishra, N., Prodhomme, C., & Guemas, V. (2019). Multi-model skill assessment of seasonal temperature and
255 precipitation forecasts over Europe. Climate Dynamics, 52(7), 4207-4225.

256 Murphy, A. H. (1988). Skill scores based on the mean square error and their relationships to the correlation
257 coefficient. *Monthly weather review*, *116*(12), 2417-2424.

258 Scaife, A.A., Smith, D. A signal-to-noise paradox in climate science. *npj Clim Atmos Sci* **1**, 28 (2018).
259 https://doi.org/10.1038/s41612-018-0038-4.

260 Smith, D.M., Scaife, A.A., Eade, R. *et al.* North Atlantic climate far more predictable than models imply. *Nature*
261 **583**, 796–800 (2020). https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-020-2525-0.

262 Schnider, U., Becker, A., Finger, P., Meyer-Christoffer, A., Rudolf, B., & Ziese, M. (2011). GPCC Full Data
263 Reanalysis Version 6.0 at 1.0∘: Monthly Land-Surface Precipitation from Rain-Gauges built on GTS-based and
264 Historic Data.

265 Toreti, A., Belward, A., Perez-Dominguez, I., Naumann, G., Luterbacher, J., Cronie, O. & Zampieri, M. (2019).
266 The exceptional 2018 European water seesaw calls for action on adaptation. Earth's Future, 7(6), 652-663.

267 Yin, J., Gentine, P., Slater, L., Gu, L., Pokhrel, Y., Hanasaki, N. & Schlenker, W. (2023). Future socio-ecosystem
268 productivity threatened by compound drought–heatwave events. Nature Sustainability, 1-14.

269 World Meteorological Organization (WMO, 2014). Forecast verification for the African severe weather
270 forecasting demonstration projects; No. 1132. Geneva, Switzerland: World Meteorological Organization.

271