

Land-Sea Breeze Forecast Verification

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This study presents a methodology for comparing the performance of Australian Bureau of Meteorology forecasts of the land-sea breeze with unedited model guidance products, such as those of the European Center for Medium-Range Weather Forecasting (ECMWF) and the Australian Community Climate and Earth System Simulation (ACCESS). The methodology is applied to the 8 Australian capital city airports. The results indicate that at some airports, human intervention to model guidance products adds value to land-sea breeze forecasts, whereas at other airports it does not.

KEYWORDS

land-sea breeze, forecast verification, Australia, Airports

1 | INTRODUCTION

Modern weather forecasts are produced by models in conjunction with human forecasters. For instance, a forecaster working for the Australian Bureau constructs a seven day forecast by first loading model data into the Graphical Forecast Editor (GFE) software package, then manually editing this model data as they see fit. Forecasters can choose which model to base their forecast on, and refer to this as a choice of *model guidance*. Edits are typically made to account for processes that are underresolved at synoptic scale model resolutions, or to address known biases of the models being used.

It is therefore important to assess not only the overall accuracy of weather forecasts, but also the contribution human forecaster edits make to this accuracy. If effective, but routine, editing procedures can be identified they can be automated, freeing forecasters up to focus on other tasks. One common edit involves changing the surface wind fields near coastlines to try to represent sea-breezes more realistically. Forecasters invest time in making sea-breeze edits because accurate predictions of near-surface winds are highly valued by a number of users, such as the aviation and energy (Smith et al., 2009) industries. Accurate sea-breeze forecasts are also valuable to environmental monitoring authorities, as these winds provide ventilation to coastal urban areas.

Assessing the accuracy of a weather forecast is a task far more nuanced than it might first appear. For instance, attempting to assess the accuracy of a precipitation forecast by comparing the rainfall amounts measured at an individual weather station to the closest grid point of a model prediction will often give poor results. Although the synoptic drivers of convection are usually well predicted, exactly where convective cells form, and where the most rain falls, is highly unpredictable. As such, it is often appropriate to use "fuzzy" verification metrics which measure the agreement between prediction and observation in a more indirect way. For instance, one approach known as "upscaling" is to first average forecast and observational data over a given spatial domain before calculating verification scores. Ebert (2008) provided a review of current "fuzzy verification" methodologies, and a framework for they can be used to determine the spatial scales at which a given forecast has predictive skill.

Relatively few forecast verification studies have focused on near-surface winds, and the ones that have generally only considered wind speeds. Pinson and Hagedorn (2012) performed a verification study of the ECMWF 10 m wind speeds across western Europe over December, January, February 2008/09. First, they interpolated ECMWF model data onto the locations of weather stations across Europe, then they compared the interpolated model data at these stations with the station observations themselves. They found that the worst performing regions were coastal and mountainous areas, and attributed this poor performance to the small scale processes, e.g. sea and mountain breezes, that are underresolved at ECMWF's coarse 50km spatial resolution. They noted that future work could better identify the effect of diurnal cycles on verification statistics by considering forecasts at different times of day.

Lynch et al. (2014) also performed a verification study of ECMWF 10 m wind speed data, with the goal of assessing skill at lead times of between 14 to 20 days. They compared ECMWF 32-day forecast model wind speeds with gridded ERA-Interim wind speeds between 2008-12, with both datasets analysed at a six hour temporal resolution. Before conducting the comparison, the wind speed data were transformed into wind-speed "anomaly" data by first calculating the mean wind speed at 0000, 0600, 1200 and 1800 UTC for each calendar day from the entire ERA-Interim record, and from a 20 year ECMWF 32-day model hindcast, then subtracting these means from the ERA-Interim and ECMWF 32-day model data respectively. Wind speed anomaly data was used so that stable seasonal and diurnal cycles did not contribute to verification scores. At the 14-20 day timescale around western Europe, the greatest skill was found in the boreal winter (austral summer) months of December, January and February.

Pinson and Hagedorn (2012) and Lynch et al. (2014) restricted their verification studies to wind speeds, but wind directions are also crucial to diagnosing whether land sea breezes - and the diurnal wind cycle more generally - are being forecast correctly. Furthermore, no previous published work has proposed a verification methodology to assess the accuracy of the diurnal wind cycle in forecasts, or of the contributions made to this accuracy by human forecaster edits of model output. Finally, no previously published work has considered the performance of ACCESS near surface winds, which together with ECMWF, are the model guidance products most widely used by Australian forecasters. Thus, the present study has two goals. First, to describe a methodology for comparing human edited forecasts of the land-sea breeze to unedited model guidance forecasts, in order to assess where and when human edits are producing an increase in accuracy. Second, to apply this methodology across Australia. The remainder of this paper is organised as follows. Section 2 describes the methodology in detail, section 3 provides results, and sections 4 and 5 provide a discussion and a conclusion, respectively.

2 | DATA AND METHODS

This study compares both edited and non-edited Australian Bureau of Meteorology forecast data with automatic weather station (AWS) data across Australia. The comparison is performed by first isolating the diurnal signals of each

dataset, then comparing these signals on an hour-by-hour basis.

2.1 | Data

Four datasets are considered in this study; they are the Australian Bureau of Meteorology's Official wind forecast data, model data from the European Center for Medium Range Weather Forecasting (ECMWF), model data from the Australian Community Climate and Earth System Simulator (ACCESS), and observational data from automatic weather stations. The Official, ECMWF and ACCESS data are at a XX, XX degree spatial resolution respectively. Official, ACCESS and AWS data exists at each UTC hour. ECMWF data exists at a three hour resolution. To be consistent with the other data sets, ECMWF is therefore linearly interpolated to an hourly resolution: this is also what happens in practice when forecasters load ECMWF wind data into the GFE. Two time periods are considered, the austral summer months (December, January, February) of 2017/18, and the austral winter months (June, July, August) of 2018.

Only station data from the seven Australian capital city airport automatic weather stations are considered; Official, ECMWF and ACCESS data is (*linearly?*) interpolated to the coordinates of the airport weather stations. Capital city airports have been chosen as the focus of this study for a number of reasons. Automatic weather stations located at airports tend to provide the most accurate wind data, and wind forecasts at airports are important to the aviation industry. Moreover, the capital city airports are all reasonably close to coastlines, resulting in a clear diurnal signal. Finally, these airports are also all close to their respective capital cities, which are high priority regions for accurate forecasting. The datasets are hosted on the Bureau's Jive database, but are not currently generally available, although the long term plan is for this to change. *Can I extract and host the data I need myself? Can I obtain copies of the relevant Jive Functions so that I can post complete code online?*

As described above, the Australian Bureau of Meteorology's official wind forecast is constructed out of model data, which is then edited by human forecasters using the Graphical Forecast Editor (GFE) software package. Australian forecasters typically construct wind forecasts out of model data either from the European Center for Medium Range Weather Forecasting (ECMWF), or the Australian Community Climate and Earth System Simulator (ACCESS). Testing whether the official forecast data conforms more closely to the AWS observations than ECMWF or ACCESS therefore provides a way to assess the extra accuracy gained by forecaster edits.

2.2 | Assessing Diurnal Cycles

Although close to coastlines the land-sea breeze is generally the dominant diurnal wind process, the overall diurnal signal may also include mountain-valley breezes, boundary layer mixing processes, atmospheric tides, and urban heat island circulations. Forecasters typically edit model output to account for *both* unresolved sea-breezes *and* unresolved boundary layer mixing; attempting to focus solely on sea-breezes without examining the entire diurnal cycle may therefore risk erroneous conclusions, with the effect of one process mistaken for another.

Sea-breezes are therefore analysed by examining the overall diurnal signal in each dataset, with the assumption that close to coastlines the land-sea breeze is the dominant diurnal process. The diurnal signal is identified by subtracting a twenty hour centred running mean *background wind* from each zonal and meridional hourly wind data point. This provides a collection of zonal and meridional wind *perturbation* datasets. Note that thinking of land-sea breezes in terms of perturbations from a background wind may require a conceptual shift from the usual operational definitions. A forecaster would likely define a sea-breeze to be a reversal in wind direction from a primarily offshore flow during the night and morning, to an onshore flow in the afternoon and evening. However, even if the wind is offshore the entire day, sea-breeze *perturbations* are generally still detectable as a weakening of the offshore flow throughout the

afternoon and evening.

Once the wind perturbation datasets have been constructed, the accuracy of the Official, ACCESS and ECMWF diurnal cycles are quantified by first calculating the Euclidean distances of the perturbations at each hour from the corresponding AWS perturbations. For instance, to quantify how closely the Official forecast perturbations match the AWS observations, we calculate the Euclidean distances $|u_{AWS} - u_O|$ at each time step. The accuracy with which the Official and ACCESS datasets resolve the diurnal cycle can then be compared by defining the *Wind Perturbation Index* (WPI)

$$WPI_{O,A} \equiv |u_{AWS} - u_A| - |u_{AWS} - u_O|. \quad (1)$$

At a given time, the Official forecast wind perturbation is closer to the AWS perturbation than that of ACCESS if and only if $WPI > 0$. To assess which of the Official or ECMWF forecasts are, in general, most accurate, we then take means of the WPI on an hourly basis; i.e. all the 00:00 UTC WPI values are averaged, all the 01:00 UTC values are averaged, and so forth. The sampling distributions of these means can then be modelled as Student's t -distributions, and from this we can calculate the probability that $\overline{WPI} > 0$ at each hour.

The advantage of this method is its clarity and simplicity: we are essentially just comparing the magnitudes of vectors, then applying a two sided t -test to determine whether one dataset's diurnal cycle is consistently closer to observations than another's. One factor that complicates interpretation of statistics of WPI, is that the near surface winds observed in AWS data are consistently noisier than those of the Official, ECMWF and ACCESS forecasts. This is likely due to unresolved subgrid scale turbulence in the Official, ECMWF and ACCESS model datasets. It would be unreasonable to expect forecasters to be able to predict this essentially random additional observed variability, and so a direct comparison of observed and modelled diurnal cycles may be overly stringent.

In line with the "fuzzy verification" agenda (Ebert, 2008), we may instead compare spatial or temporal averages of the given quantities to reduce the significance of unpredictable noise. These comparisons have less operational significance - people generally care how well the actual weather forecast performed, not whether the average of a predicted quantity matched the average of an observed quantity. However, comparisons of averages arguably better represent what we can realistically expect from human forecaster edits, and from weather forecasts overall, particularly in regards to small scale processes like sea-breezes.

2.3 | The Climatological Wind Perturbation Index

Although the above methodology is perhaps the most relevant for assessing forecast performance in an operational sense, it is also informative to think about how well each forecast product performs in a climatological sense, i.e to ask how well the *mean* forecast perturbation winds match the *mean* observed perturbations over a suitable climatological period. One reason for doing this is that the diurnal signal becomes much clearer when perturbations are averaged over a number of days and random variability is smoothed out. If the goal is to assess how forecasts and models capture *regular* diurnal wind processes like land-sea breezes that occur at roughly the same times each day, then comparing perturbation climatologies is arguably a better option: comparing perturbations on a day to day basis will also implicitly assess how different datasets resolve *irregular* processes at daily and shorter timescales; for instance turbulence and cold pool dynamics.

To assess performance on a climatological basis, steps 2 and 3 above are modified as follows.

2. Average the perturbations at each hour across the climatological period, i.e average all the 00:00 UTC perturba-

tions, all the 01:00 UTC perturbations, and so forth. Calculate the quantity

$$\text{CWPI}_{\text{off}} \equiv |\bar{\mathbf{u}}_{\text{obs}} - \bar{\mathbf{u}}_{\text{off}}|. \quad (2)$$

This represents the magnitude of the vector difference between the *mean* observed wind perturbations and *mean* official forecast wind perturbations. Calculate CWPI_{mod} analogously and define the the *Climatological Wind Perturbation Index*

$$\text{CWPI} = \text{CWPI}_{\text{mod}} - \text{CWPI}_{\text{off}}. \quad (3)$$

3. Estimate the sampling distribution of CWPI by bootstrapping (Efron, 1979). Use the sampling distribution to calculate the likelihood that $\text{CWPI} > 0$.

Although they have similar definitions, $\bar{\text{WPI}}$ and CWPI measure different things. They do not converge as the length of the time period grows - they don't even necessarily approach the same sign. As a simple example, suppose that for each day, the observed and Official wind perturbations are given by $\mathbf{p}_{\text{AWS}} = (5 \cos \omega t, 5 \sin \omega t)$ and $\mathbf{p}_{\text{O}} = (6 \cos \omega t, 6 \sin \omega t)$, respectively. Furthermore, suppose that the ACCESS perturbations alternate between $\mathbf{p}_{\text{A}} = (7 \cos \omega t, 7 \sin \omega t)$ and $\mathbf{p}_{\text{A}} = (3 \cos \omega t, 3 \sin \omega t)$ from one day to the next. Then for any contiguous period of n days, $\bar{\text{WPI}} = 2 - 1 = 1$, but $\text{CWPI} \approx -1$, with the approximation becoming exact for even n . Moreover $\bar{\text{WPI}} = 1$ with a confidence of 1, and using the bootstrapping procedure described above, the confidence that $\text{CWPI} = -1$ approaches 1 as $n \rightarrow \infty$. This example shows that while the WPI and CWPI are sensitive both to random error and consistent biases between the different datasets, the CWPI becomes increasingly less sensitive to random error as the length of the time period being considered grows. Thus while the WPI arguably provides a more meaningful operational metric, as it measures the accuracy of actual forecast data, it may favour a more biased dataset over a less biased one, just because the internal variability of that dataset is lower. One consequence of this is that model data at a lower spatiotemporal resolution may outperform in $\bar{\text{WPI}}$ model data of a higher resolution, purely because the internal variability is lower. In this way, the CWPI may actually provide more information about the performance of different forecasts.

Note that the Bureau has not yet moved to ensemble forecasting - and probabilistic forecasting methods therefore not appropriate.

3 | RESULTS

In this section, the methods described in section 2 are applied to Australian forecast and station data over the months of June, July and August (austral winter) 2018. First, mean errors are assessed using the Wind Perturbation Index (WPI) at three different spatial scales. Second, overall biases during this time period are assessed using the Climatological Wind Perturbation Index CWPI. Finally, ellipse based indices are applied and discussed.

Figure 1 provides example winds, and wind perturbations, at the Darwin Airport station on 19/06/2018. Discuss structural differences between observations, Official, ECMWF and ACCESS.

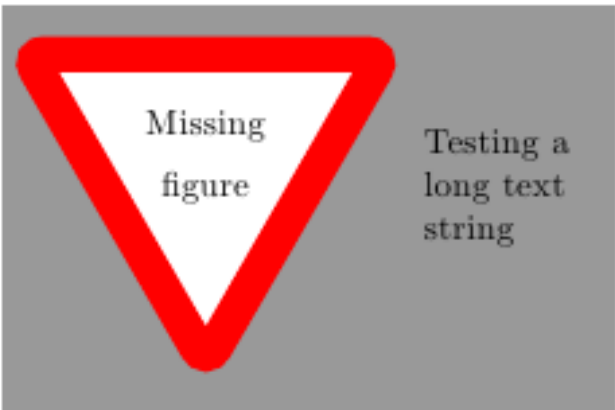


FIGURE 1 Hodographs showing the a) winds and b) wind perturbations (from a 24-hour running mean) at each hour [UTC] on 19/06/2018 at Darwin Airport.

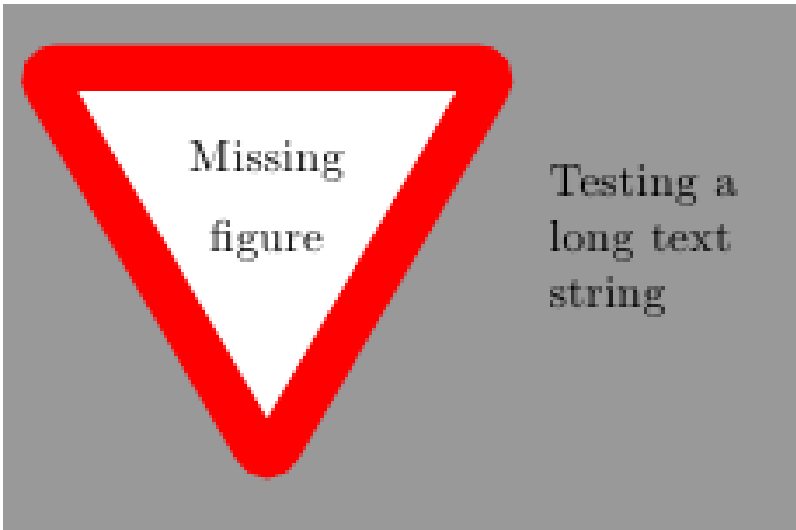


FIGURE 2 WPI statistics Confidence that a) the Bureau's official forecasts of diurnal wind processes are more accurate than unedited ACCESS model guidance over the austral winter months (June, July, August) of 2018, as measured by the WPI; analogously, b) and c) give the confidence that the Official forecast is more accurate than ECMWF model guidance, and that ECMWF is more accurate that ACCESS, respectively.

4 | DISCUSSION

The methods developed in this study can be readily extended to analyse *just* the sea-breezes satisfying the operational definition above. For instance, to study the sea-breezes at a station near a coastline with inward pointing normal vector \hat{n} , the wind perturbation datasets could be restricted to just those days where the corresponding raw wind vector u satisfies $\hat{n} \cdot u > 0$ for at least one of the hours of that day.

5 | CONCLUSION

In this report, a methodology for comparing the performance of Bureau forecasts of diurnal wind processes to unedited model guidance products has been developed and applied to a case study of the Darwin airport. The key results may be summarised as follows.

1. During the dry season months of June, July and August 2017, the ECMWF sea-breeze is generally more accurate than that of the official forecast. However, during the wet season months of December, January and February 2017/18 this result is reversed, and the official forecast sea-breeze generally outperforms that of ECMWF.
2. In both seasons, boundary layer mixing processes are generally represented better in official forecasts than in ECMWF.
3. In the dry season, the climatological wind perturbations of the official forecast generally outperform those of ECMWF between 13:00 and 16:00 UTC. This is due to ECMWF not capturing the magnitude of the south-easterly mean perturbations.
4. During the wet season, the climatological wind perturbations of the official forecast generally outperform those of ECMWF at 11:00 UTC. This is due to ECMWF underestimating the magnitude of the mean land-breeze perturbation.

There a number of ways that this work could be extended. The most pressing would probably be to investigate whether the results presented here change when a more operational definition of the sea breeze is used in place of the entirely perturbation based definition used here: this could be done using the method described in section 2.

Following this, a nationwide study could be conducted focusing on the most operationally relevant locations of each state, for instance, airport stations. This should be done on a seasonal basis given that the examples considered here indicate results are seasonally dependent. The boundary layer mixing and sea-breeze editing techniques used by forecasters could then be collated and compared, with a view to standardising them across the country and optimising performance.

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