

Using Genetic Algorithms to Optimize the Analogue Method for Precipitation Downscaling-Prediction in the Swiss Alps

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Abstract

The Analogue Method aims at predicting precipitation based on predictors variables provided by global models. Analogue methods provide a statistical precipitation prediction based on synoptic predictors supplied by general circulation models or numerical weather prediction models. The method samples a selection of days in the archives that are similar to the target day to predict be predicted, and consider the set of their corresponding observed precipitation (the predictand) as the conditional distribution for the target day. The relationship between the predictors and predictands relies on some parameters that characterize how and where the similitude similarity between two atmospheric situations is defined.

This relationship is usually established by a semi-automatic sequential procedure that has strong limitations. A new: (i) it cannot automatically choose the pressure levels and temporal windows for a given meteorological variable, (ii) it cannot handle dependencies between parameters, and (iii) it cannot easily handle new degrees of freedom. In this work, a global optimization approach relying on Genetic Algorithms can genetic algorithms was able to optimize all parameters jointly and automatically, which is a breakthrough in the way

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the Analogue Method was calibrated until now. It allows taking into account parameters. It allowed consideration of parameter inter-dependencies, and selecting objectively objective selection of some parameters that were manually selected beforehand (such as the which obviates the need to assess a large number of combinations of pressure levels and the temporal windows of the predictor variables) predictor variables.

In this work, the global optimization is applied to the The global optimization was applied to some variants of the analogue method for the Rhône catchment, in the Swiss Alps. The performance scores are significantly increased compared to a reference method, and this even to a greater extent reference methods, especially for days with high precipitation totals. The resulting parameters were found to be relevant and coherent between the different subregions of the catchment. Moreover, they are were obtained automatically and objectively, which reduces efforts the effort that needs to be invested in exploration attempts when adapting the method to a new region or for a new predictand. In addition, the approach allows allowed for new degrees of freedom, such as a weighting between the possible weighting between pressure levels, and non overlapping non-overlapping spatial windows.

Keywords: Precipitation precipitation prediction, Precipitation downscaling Analogue analogue method, Optimization optimization, Genetic genetic algorithms, Alpine climate

1. Introduction

The analogue method (AM) is a downscaling technique based on the idea expressed by Lorenz (1956, 1969) that similar situations in terms of atmospheric circulation are likely to lead to similar local weather (Duband, 1970; Bontron and Obled, 2005).

It aims at forecasting a predictand, often the daily precipitation (eg. Guilbaud, 1997; Bontron and Obled, 2005; on the basis of (Duband, 1970). It uses predictor variables describing the synoptic atmospheric circulation in order to predict local-scale predictands of interest. It is often used to predict daily precipitation, either in an operational

forecasting context (e.g. Guilbaud, 1997; Bontron and Obled, 2005; Hamill and Whitaker, 2006; Bliefernicht, 2
10 a climate downscaling context (e.g. Radanovics et al., 2013; Chardon et al., 2014; Dayon et al., 2015; Raynaud
Other predictands are also often considered (see Horton et al., 2016a, for a non-exhaustive list) considered,
such as precipitation radar images (Panziera et al., 2011; Foresti et al., 2015),
temperature (Radinovic, 1975; Woodcock, 1980; Kruizinga and Murphy, 1983; Delle Monache et al., 2013; Ca
wind (Gordon, 1987; Delle Monache et al., 2013, 2011; Vanyve et al., 2015; Alessandrini et al., 2015b; Junk e
15 solar power (Alessandrini et al., 2015a; Bessa et al., 2015), snow avalanches (Obled and Good, 1980; Bolognesi
and radiation (Bois et al., 1981; Raynaud et al., 2016).

In operational real-time forecasting, it has been used mainly by practitioners, notably hydropower companies or flood forecasting services, while in that need to anticipate water yields or issue early flood warnings several days in advance. The classical forecasting chain consists of using limited area models (e.g. AROME, or COSMO) forced by global NWP (numerical weather prediction) models with a lower resolution. However, their use requires very important processing capacities, and the resulting forecast still presents large uncertainties and biases. Although these outputs are essential, they can be supplemented by other sources of forecasts providing useful information. In contrast to local NWP models, AMs can transform at low cost the synoptic-scale information provided by the global NWP model into precipitation forecasts, by using the natural local behaviour in response to synoptic-scale influences stored in the archive of observed precipitation. Running an AM approach is fast enough that it can search for analogues for each day, up to ten days ahead, eventually for the different traces of an ensemble forecast and/or those issued by different NWP models (e.g. NOAA-GFS or ECMWF-IFS), in a matter of minutes.

In climate studies, it is AMs are used to downscale the results of global climate outputs of a general circulation model (GCM) simulation runs. In this last case, although the GCM represents the large or regional scale evolutions of or regional climate model (RCM) simulation runs (Dayon et al., 2015) or to reconstruct past weather conditions (Caillouet et al., 2016). In future climate studies, RCMs are often used to dynamically downscale precipitation to a local scale. However, even though the relevance of RCMs' outputs increases, a

40 bias correction of the outputs is often still required, particularly in complex terrain. Moreover, their application is computer-intensive, which makes it difficult to cover all combinations of climate scenarios and GCMs. Therefore, the atmosphere, it would be far too computer intensive to get down to variables such as precipitation at a rather small and representative scale. Therefore the idea is
45 to rely on past observations to bypass these unaffordable small scale bypass the small-scale simulations and to go from the large scale situation proposed by the GCM large-scale situation to the end variables like precipitation by searching analogues in the archives, such as precipitation by statistical downscaling (Maraun et al., 2010).

50 Beyond being computationally inexpensive, another big advantage of AMs is that they create realistic precipitation patterns for a region, provided that the analogue dates are the same, since they are based on observed situations with consistent spatial distribution (Radanovics et al., 2013; Chardon et al., 2014). For the same reason, they can also provide multivariate predictions that are
55 physically consistent (Raynaud et al., 2016).

The method can be made of designed with multiple successive subsampling steps, or analogy levels, each of them relying on different meteorological variables. A certain number of parameters define the relationship between predictors and predictands, such as the choice of the predictor variable, its pressure level and temporal window to consider, the spatial domain to use for the comparison, as well as the analogy criteria criterion itself, and finally, the number of analogue situations to keep at each subsampling level. These parameters are usually calibrated by means of a semi-automatic sequential procedure (see Bontron, 2004; Horton et al., 2016a, for the details) (Bontron, 2004; Radanovics et al., 2013),
60 i.e. by optimizing each single parameter, one at a time, in an arbitrarily chosen order, with no or little reconsidering reassessment. This sequential approach has therefore therefore has strong limitations: (i) it cannot automatically choose the optimal pressure levels and the temporal windows for a given meteorological variable, (ii) it cannot handle dependencies between the parameters within
65 a level of analogy, and even less between them, and (iii) it could not cannot

easily handle new degrees of freedom, such as a possible weighting between the pressure levels. Thus, even if the processing involved is relatively fast, the sequential approach requires laborious assessments of predictors-predictor combinations (variables, pressure levels, temporal windows), and present-presents
75 a high risk of ending in a local optimum due to-because of subjective initial choices and lack of consideration of parameters-parameter inter-dependencies.
Other calibration methods exist for specific applications, such as radar images
(Panziera et al., 2011; Foresti et al., 2015).

With the perspective Aiming to overcome these limitations, a global optimization by Genetic Algorithms-genetic algorithms (GAs) was introduced by Horton et al. (2016b). An intensive assessment work resulted in recommendations of parametrization-of to parametrize GAs in order to optimize AMs successfully (Horton et al., 2016a). The present paper is based on these recommendations and illustrate them on precipitation predicting, and applies them
80 to precipitation prediction for the upper Rhône catchment in the Swiss Alps,
85 using AMs of varying complexity. It aims at proving illustrating the relevance of a fully-automatic-fully automatic, objective, and global, optimization technique for AMs. The applications are indeed numerous, as the AM has AMs have to be adapted to every new location it is they are applied, or to any new predictand
90 it they should predict.

A short overview of AMs is presented in section ??, as well as a summary of Genetic Algorithms in section 2.2. Section 2.1 describes the case study area. The data, AMs, and optimization techniques (sequential and GAs) are presented in Section 2. The results are first detailed given for the optimization of the analogy on the of atmospheric circulation only (sektion Section 3), before being extended to a method adding a second level of analogy on moisture variables (sektion Section 4). General discussions (sektion Section 5) and conclusions (sektion Section 6) follow.

2. The Analogue Method Data and methods

100 2.1. References Case study description

The study area is the alpine upper Rhône catchment in Switzerland (Fig. 1). The altitude ranges from 372 to 4634 m.a.s.l. and the area is 5524 km². This region is the target of the MINERVE (Modélisation des Intempéries de Nature Extrême sur les Rivières Valaisannes et de leurs Effets) project, which aimed at real-time flood management on the upper Rhône catchment (García Hernández et al., 2009). Even though the region is rather small, the meteorological influences related to extreme weather conditions vary substantially within it (see Horton et al., 2012). Indeed, a high spatial variability of precipitation climatology exists, which is due to the complex orography of the region, and the mix of various meteorological influences. Based on different climatological analyses, the precipitation gauge stations in the catchment were clustered in ten subregions (Fig. 1):

1. Swiss Chablais
2. Trient Valley
3. West Bernese Alps
- 115 4. Lower Rhone Valley
5. Southern valleys
6. Southern ridges
7. Upper Rhone Valley
8. Southeast ridges
- 120 9. East Bernese Alps
10. Conches Valley

2.2. Data

AMs rely on two types of data: predictors, which are atmospheric variables describing the state of the atmosphere at a synoptic scale, and the predictand, which is the local weather variable one wants to predict.

Predictors are generally extracted from reanalysis datasets. The NCEP-NCAR reanalysis I (6-hourly, 17 pressure levels at a resolution of 2.5° , see Kalnay et al., 1996) was used here, but it could have been any other reanalysis dataset.

The predictand (which is to be predicted) is here the daily precipitation (6 a.m. to 6 a.m. the next day) measured at the MeteoSwiss network stations, for the period 1961–2008. The time series from every available gauge station were averaged over the ten subregions (Fig. 1), which were approximately 500 km^2 each, in order to smooth local effects (Obled et al., 2002; Marty et al., 2012). This helps account for local variability, mainly when convective processes are involved, which slightly increases the prediction skill.

It must be stressed that the predictand here is a temporally cumulated variable, compared to the meteorological predictors, which may be considered instantaneous. Depending on the duration of the accumulation period (here 24 h, but could have been 6 h, 12 h, or more than 24 h), the choice of predictors will vary.

The 48-yr precipitation dataset was divided into a calibration period (CP) and a validation period (VP). Using data independent of the CP to validate the results is very important in order to assess the robustness of the proposed improvements and to avoid over-parametrization of the method.

In order to reduce potential biases related to trends linked to climate change or to the evolution in measurement techniques, the selection of the VP was evenly distributed over the entire series (Ben Daoud, 2010). Thus, one out of every six years was selected for validation, which represents a total of 8 years for the VP and 40 for the CP. This choice of sequence was made in order to have similar statistical characteristics between the CP and VP.

2.3. *The analogue method*

Multiple variations of the methods exist, and most of them will not be detailed hereafter (see Horton et al., 2016a; ?, for more comprehensive listings) analogue method exist, most of which are not detailed here (see Ben Daoud et al., 2016, for a more comprehensive listing). However, there are mainly 2-two parameterizations that are most often used for

precipitation ~~forecasting and that will be prediction and that are~~ considered as reference: one that relies on an analogy of the atmospheric circulation, and another that adds a second level of analogy on moisture variables (Obled et al., 2002; Bontron and Obled, 2005; Marty et al., 2012).

¹⁶⁰ The method based on the analogy of ~~the~~ synoptic circulation consists ~~in~~ ¹⁶⁵ ~~of~~ the following steps (Table 1): the similarity of the atmospheric circulation of a target date with every day of the archive is assessed by processing the S1 ~~criterion~~ (¹⁶⁶ Eq. 1, Teweles and Wobus, 1954; Drosdowsky and Zhang, 2003), which is a comparison of gradients, over a certain spatial window—~~Bontron and Obled (2005) showed~~:

$$S1 = 100 \frac{\sum_i |\Delta\hat{z}_i - \Delta z_i|}{\sum_i \max\{|\Delta\hat{z}_i|, |\Delta z_i|\}} \quad (1)$$

¹⁷⁰ where $\Delta\hat{z}_i$ is the difference in geopotential height between the i -th pair of adjacent points of gridded data describing the target situation, and Δz_i is the corresponding observed geopotential height difference in the candidate situation. The differences are processed separately in both North and East directions over the selected spatial domain. The smaller the S1 values, the more similar the pressure fields.

¹⁷⁵ ~~Bontron and Obled (2005) show~~ that the geopotential height at 500 hPa (Z500) and 1000 hPa (Z1000) are the best first predictors of the NCEP/NCAR reanalysis ¹⁸⁰ ~~I~~ dataset, and that the S1 ~~criterion~~ performs better than scores based on absolute distances. The reason for such better results is that the S1 ~~criterion~~ allows comparing the circulation patterns, by means of the gradients, rather than the absolute value of the geopotential height, ~~which better represent the flow direction~~. To cope with seasonal effects, candidate dates are extracted within a period of ¹⁸⁵ 4 months centered ~~four months centred~~ around the target date, for every year of the archive. ~~Following the nomenclature proposed by Horton et al. (2016a), this~~ ¹⁹⁰ ~~This~~ method using two geopotential heights ~~will be named~~ ~~is named here~~

2Z.

The N_1 dates with the lowest values of S1 are considered as analogues to the
185 target day. The number of analogues, N_1 , is a parameter to calibrate. Then,
the daily observed precipitation amount ~~of for~~ the N_1 resulting dates provide
the empirical conditional distribution, considered as the probabilistic ~~forecast~~
~~prediction~~ for the target day.

The other most ~~knew well-known~~ parametrization adds a second level of
190 analogy on ~~the~~ moisture variables (method 2Z-2MI, Table 2). The predictor
that Bontron (2004) found optimal for ~~the France territory~~ France is a
moisture index made of the product of the ~~precipitable water total precipitable~~
~~water (TPW)~~ with the relative humidity at 850 hPa (RH850). Horton (2012)
~~confirmed confirms~~ that this index is also better for the Swiss Alps than any
195 other variable from the NCEP/NCAR reanalysis I considered independently.
When adding a second level of analogy, N_2 dates are subsampled ~~in within~~ the
 N_1 analogues ~~on of~~ the atmospheric circulation, to end up with a smaller number
of analogue situations. When ~~a this~~ second level of analogy is added, a
higher number of analogues N_1 is kept on the first level.

200 2.4. *Data*

The AM relies on two types of data: predictors, that are atmospheric
variables describing the state of the atmosphere at a synoptic scale, and the
predictand, which is the local weather time series one wants to predict. Moisture
fields are not as well-predicted by NWP models as pressure variables. This
205 implies that the 2Z-2MI method, when used in real-time forecasting, is very
dependent on the skill of the NWP model in predicting moisture fields, and
thus its use is often restricted to the first lead times.

Predictors are generally reanalysis datasets. NCEP-NCAR reanalysis (6-hourly, 17 pressure levels at a resolution
used here, but it could be any other reanalysis dataset.)

210 The predictand (which is to be predicted) is here the daily precipitation (6 a.m. to 6 a.m. the next day) measured at the MeteoSwiss' stations network, for the period 1961–2008. The time series from every available gauging station were

averaged over subregions of approximately 500 km² in order to smooth local effects (Obled et al., 2002; Marty et al., 2012).

215 *2.4. Performance assessment*

The performance assessment in the present context consists of verifying the prediction of an ensemble probabilistic technique. The set of precipitation values collected with each analogue can be considered as a sample drawn from the conditional distribution associated with the current circulation. The score that
220 is most often used to assess an AM performance is the CRPS (Continuous Ranked Probability Score, Brown, 1974; Matheson and Winkler, 1976; Hersbach, 2000). It allows evaluating the predicted cumulative distribution functions $F(y)$, for example of the precipitation values y from analogue situations, compared to the observed value y^0 . The better the prediction, the smaller the score. The
225 mean CRPS of a prediction series of length n can be written as:

$$CRPS = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} [F_i(y) - H_i(y - y_i^0)]^2 dy \right) \quad (2)$$

where $H(y - y_i^0)$ is the Heaviside function that is null when $y - y_i^0 < 0$, and has the value 1 otherwise. The mean CRPS is averaged on the calibration, respectively the validation periods, on all days.

In order to compare the value of the score in regard relative to a reference,
230 one often considers its skill score expression, and uses the climatological distribution of daily precipitation from the entire archive as the reference. The CRPSS (*Continuous Ranked Probability Skill Score*) is thus defined as follows:

$$CRPSS = \frac{CRPS - CRPS_r}{CRPS_p - CRPS_r} = 1 - \frac{CRPS}{CRPS_r} \quad (3)$$

where $CRPS_r$ is the CRPS value for the reference and $CRPS_p$ would be the one for a perfect prediction (which implies $CRPS_p = 0$). A better prediction
235 is characterized by an increase in CRPSS.

3. Genetic Algorithms

Note, however, that the choice of reference does not matter so much when assessing potential improvements of the method, since we consider more its relative increase or decrease rather than the CRPSS absolute value.

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2.1. Sequential calibration

AMs are usually calibrated by a semi-automatic sequential procedure, as elaborated by Bontron (2004) (see also Radanovics et al., 2013; Ben Daoud et al., 2016). The calibration technique optimizes the spatial windows in which the predictors are compared and the number of analogues for every level of analogy, by maximizing the performance score (CRPSS). However, the different analogy levels are calibrated sequentially, and the meteorological variables, pressure levels, and temporal windows are chosen manually. The procedure, as defined by Bontron (2004), consists of the following steps:

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1. Manual selection of the following parameters:

- (a) Meteorological variable
- (b) Pressure level
- (c) Temporal window (hour of the day)
- (d) Initial analogue numbers

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2. For every level of analogy:

- (a) Identification, for the analogy level considered, of the most skilled unitary cell of all predictors jointly, over a large domain, by a full scanning of the grid.
- (b) From this most skilled cell, the spatial window is expanded by successive iterations in the direction of greater performance gain until no improvement is reached.
- (c) The number of analogue situations N_1 is then reconsidered and optimized for the current level of analogy.

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- 265 3. A new level of analogy can then be added, based on other variables (such as
 the moisture index) with some chosen pressure levels, temporal windows,
 and initial number of analogues N_2 . The procedure starts again from step
 2 (calibration of the spatial window and the number of analogues) for the
 new level. The parameters calibrated on the previous analogy levels are
 fixed and do not change.
- 270 4. Finally, the numbers of analogues N_1 and N_2 for the different levels of
 analogy are reassessed by systematic increments.

The calibration is done in successive steps with a limited number of parameters.

Previously calibrated parameters are generally not reassessed (except for the number of analogues).

- 275 This procedure was used to calibrate the methods that were here considered as references to further assess the ability of genetic algorithms to outperform the classic approach.

2.2. *Genetic algorithms*

Genetic ~~Algorithms~~ algorithms (GAs) were developed by Holland (1992)
 280 and Goldberg (1989). They are part of ~~the~~ Evolutionary Algorithms (Bäck and Schwefel, 1993; Schwefel, 1993), which ~~get inspiration from some mechanisms of~~
~~were inspired by some mechanisms in~~ biological evolution, such as reproduction, genetic mutations, chromosomal crossovers, and natural selection. GAs seek the global optimum on a complex surface, theoretically without restriction, ~~which~~
 285 ~~is of interest for AMs, which are characterized by a complex high-dimensional error function having multiple local optima~~. Practically, GAs allow rapidly approaching satisfactory solutions, but they ~~do not~~ are not guaranteed to provide the optimum solution ~~for sure~~ (Zitzler et al., 2004). It is indeed mainly a matter of time. When the optimizer gets closer to the global optimum, any new improvement takes more time to appear (see for example Figure 12), and the final adjustment of the parameters ~~is can be~~ very time consuming (Bäck, 1993). For problems that require a significant amount of time ~~in order~~ to evaluate the objective function, as in the case of AMs (~~because it needs to make a prediction~~

for every day of the CP), the number of generations has to be limited in order
295 to get ensure a reasonable processing time. Thus, different acceptable solutions
can result from one or more optimizations optimization runs (Holland, 1992).
This is both a strength and a weakness of GAs: they are very good at exploring
complex parameter spaces in order to identify the most promising areas, but
they will not necessarily always find the best solution with the optimal values
300 of all parameters (Holland, 1992).

The optimizations here were performed based on the recommended GAs GA
parametrization for AMs as described in Horton et al. (2016b) Horton et al. (2016a).
As the optimization is mostly sensitive to the mutation operator (that randomly
changes some values in the parameters parameter sets), parallel optimizations
305 are considered with variants of this operator, according to Horton et al. (2016b) Horton et al. (2016a):

- 3x non-uniform mutation (Michalewicz, 1996) with varying parameters ,
- 1x multi-scale mutation (Horton et al., 2016b), (Horton et al., 2016a),
- 2x chromosome of adaptive search radius (Horton et al., 2016b) (Horton et al., 2016a).

310 A population size of 500 individuals (i.e. parameter sets of the AM to be
detailed hereunderbelow) was considered, and the optimization was stopped
when the best individual (with the highest CRPSS performance score) did not
evolve for 20 generations (cycles of the optimization).

3. Case study description

315 The study area is the alpine upper Rhône catchment in Switzerland (Fig.
1). The altitude ranges from 372 to 4634 m.a.s.l. and the area is 5524 km².
This region is the target of the MINERVE (Modélisation des Intempéries de
Nature Extrême sur les Rivières Valaisannes et de leurs Effets) project that
aims at allowing real-time flood management on the upper Rhône catchment
320 (García Hernández et al., 2009). Even though the region is rather small, the

meteoro~~logical~~ influences related to extreme weather conditions varies substantially within it (see Horton et al., 2012). Based on different climatological analyses, the gauging stations in the catchment were clustered in 10 subregions (Fig. 1)

⋮

- 325 1. Swiss Chablais
- 2. Trient Valley
- 3. West Bernese Alps
- 4. Lower Rhone Valley
- 5. Left side valleys
- 330 6. Southern ridges
- 7. Upper Rhone Valley
- 8. Southeast ridges
- 9. East Bernese Alps
- 10. Conches Valley

335 The 48 years precipitation dataset (see section 1.2.2) was divided into a calibration period (CP) and a validation period (VP). Using data independent from the CP to validate the results is very important in order to assess the robustness of the improvements and to avoid over-parametrization of the method. Parameters determined on the CP are then applied to the VP in order to obtain 340 a performance score for the independent period.

In order to reduce potential bias related to trends linked to climate change or to the evolution in measurement techniques, the selection of the VP is evenly distributed over the entire series (Ben Daoud, 2010). Thus, one year every six years were selected for validation, which represents a total of 8 years for the VP 345 and 40 for CP. The choice of the sequence was made in order to have similar statistical characteristics between the CP and the VP.

3. Optimization of the circulation analogy

The analogy of the atmospheric circulation was optimized for the 10 subregions ten subregions (Section 2.1) independently. We started from the most simple

³⁵⁰ simplest AM, and increased the complexity in order to identify the degrees of freedom that are of particular interest. Thus, the tested parametrization evolved iteratively in complexity. The detailed results of the intermediate stages are not provided in this paper (see Horton, 2012, for the details).

³⁵⁵ The reference method for the analogy of the atmospheric circulation (2Z, Table 1), based on Z500 and Z1000, was first considered. The optimizer had to choose simultaneously the number of analogues, both spatial windows with no overlapping constraint (i.e. they can differ from one pressure level to another), as well as the temporal windows (hours of observation of the geopotential), what which cannot be achieved with the sequential calibration cannot do. With these ³⁶⁰ technique. The performance score (CRPSS) was slightly improved, with these limited degrees of freedom, a relative CRPSS improvement of 3.97% and 2.45% in average was obtained for the CP and the VP respectively relative to the 2Z reference method calibrated with the sequential procedure. Some tests showed that most of the gains are were due to the non-overlapping spatial windows. ³⁶⁵ This is not a tremendous improvement, but it demonstrated that the optimizer was able to get relevant parameters obtain relevant parameters for a simple method.

³⁷⁰ Then, an additional degree of freedom was provided to the GAs by letting them choose the pressure levels along with the other parameters , (analogue numbers, spatial and temporal windows), which is also a non-automated process in the sequential calibration. This degree of freedom increased the optimization timeand may, and might decrease the number of simulations that converge to a single solution. However, most solutions were very close in terms of score. The averaged relative improvement of the CRPSS is 5.63% for the CP and 3.82% for the VP. The pressure levels that were chosen are the performance score, which was further improved. The selected pressure levels were Z500 or Z700 for the upper level, and Z925 or Z1000 (most often) for the lower level.

³⁷⁵ Parallel analyses showed that the analogy of circulation is incomplete, and that the geopotential still contains geopotential heights still contain relevant information that can improve the statistical relationship. Therefore, a third predictor

~~was~~, followed by a fourth circulation predictor were added (still ~~on the geopotential height~~) that the optimizer could use along with the previous parameters ~~only geopotential heights~~). There was no constraint on the predictors, so that the same pressure level could be selected more than once. Some Further improvements were found ~~on the in the performance score~~, both for the CP and the VP, confirming that this additional information ~~is-was~~ beneficial for the quality of the prediction. We then tried with 4 predictors, and so on, up to 8. Every time a new predictor to optimize was added, the score on the CP increased, but always more to a smaller extent. However, the score value on the VP dropped after 4 predictors, revealing an over-parametrization of the method, and thus a lack of robustness. Considering 4 predictors is optimal for this case study, since the gain in CRPSS is significant. It cannot be excluded that another number would prevail in another region under other meteorological conditions.

Finally, a weighting of the analogy criteria values per pressure level was proposed, again optimized by GAs. The weighting operates in the combination of the S1 criteria processed on every level, which were previously averaged with equal weights. The role of this new degree of freedom is to give more weight to the levels with greater predictive capacity, and to consider the ~~geopotential variability changes~~ differences in the geopotential height variability with altitude.

3.1. Which parameters are optimized?

The number of circulation predictors (still only geopotential heights) was then successively increased up to ten, considering the weighting of the analogy criteria values. The addition of circulation predictors globally improved the prediction skill (for both the CP and the VP) only up to four predictors (Figure 2). Afterwards, the score on the VP was more variable, eventually even showing a decrease, which revealed an over-parametrization of the method, and thus a lack of robustness. After four predictors, the score for the CP did not increase substantially, and even presented a local decrease due to increasing difficulty for the optimizer to converge. Selecting four circulation predictors (geopotential

heights) was considered optimal for this case study, since the gain in CRPSS was significant, and the model remained relatively simple. It cannot be ruled out that another number would prevail in a region other than the upper Rhône catchment, under other meteorological conditions, or with another reanalysis dataset.

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3.1. *Which parameters are optimized?*

The chosen method for the atmospheric circulation analogy, based on 4 levels of the geopotential, and that will be name four circulation predictors (geopotential heights), and which is here named 4Zo, is made of (o for optimized), was based on the following degrees of freedom:

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- the selection of pressure levels (4 degrees)
- the temporal windows (4 degrees)
- the spatial windows (~~4x4~~ 4 x 4 degrees)
- the weights (4 degrees)
- the number of analogues (1 degree).

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This sums adds up to 29 degrees of freedom that are were optimized simultaneously.

3.2. *Results for the 4Zo method*

The resulting optimized parameters for 4Zo vary from one subregion to another. An example of the detailed parameters is provided for the Swiss Chablais in Table ??.. The optimized spatial windows are given for every subregion in Figure 3, and the selected pressure levels in Table 3.

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The resulting CRPSS scores are provided in Table ?? and are in Figure 4 and were on average 35.8% for the CP and 35.5% for the VP. The improvement of the CRPSS score relatively to compared to 31.1% and 32.3%, respectively, for the reference method 2Z on the atmospheric circulation (optimized by the sequential procedure) is illustrated in Figure ?? and is in average 15.3 % for the CP and 9.9 % for the VP. The score was also calculated for three precipitation

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thresholds: $P \geq 1$ mm, $P \geq 0.1 \cdot P_{10}$ and $P \geq 0.5 \cdot P_{10}$, P_{10} being the daily precipitation with a 10 year return period (Table 4). The gain in score ~~increases increased~~ with the precipitation threshold: the relative improvement of the CRPSS ~~is in average, respectively was, on average~~ for the different thresholds, 13.3%, 15.4% and 29.1% for the CP and 7.9%, 11.1% and 34.5% for the VP. The optimization ~~improves thus even more the prediction thus improved the prediction even more~~ for days with significant precipitation than ~~for the~~ usual days.

To assess the parameters cross-compatibility ~~and the spatial coherence of the resulting parameters~~, those optimized for one subregion were applied to the others. The resulting losses or gains of the CRPSS are displayed in Figure ?? ~~for the CP and in Figure ?? for the VP~~.

3.3. Analysis

The automatic selections of ~~the~~ pressure levels (Table 3) and ~~the~~ temporal windows (not shown) for the analogy of circulation ~~show showed~~ a great homogeneity and ~~are were~~ spatially consistent. First of all, the level Z1000 ~~is was~~ always selected twice (the first time at 6 or 12 h, and the second always at 30 h) and Z700 ~~is was~~ selected once for every subregion (always at 24 h). The level ~~which varies that varied~~ from one subregion to another ~~is, albeit in a spatially consistent way, was~~ the upper level (~~however~~ always at 12 h), which ~~is was~~ Z300 for the ~~North-West~~ ~~north-west~~ part of the catchment, Z500 for most of the ~~other~~ subregions, and Z600 for the Conches Valley. ~~Its spatial distribution is however homogeneous.~~ The optimizer thus provided consistent selections of pressure levels and temporal windows, ~~which depicts a significant preference in the AM, and the success of GAs to provide consistent results.~~ The automatic selection of ~~the~~ pressure levels is a big advantage in ~~favor of a favour of~~ global optimization.

The resulting spatial windows (Figure 3) may look very diverse first, but there are significant similarities for subregions located within the same vicinity. The first ~~4 subregions are four subregions were~~ characterized by a large spa-

tial window on the upper level, whereas it ~~is-was~~ smaller elsewhere. For most
470 subregions, the second level (Z700) ~~is represented by was compared on~~ thin and longitudinally extended ~~domains~~spatial windows. The third level (Z1000 at 6 or 12 h) also ~~contains-had~~ longitudinally extended domains, ~~but a bit which were slightly~~ larger. The last one (Z1000 at 30 h) ~~is-had~~ rather large and squared windows. Subregions number 5 (~~Left side southern~~ valleys) and 6
475 (~~Southern ridges~~) ~~have southern ridges~~ had exactly the same spatial windows, which ~~suggest suggests~~ that they behave in a similar way and thus could have been merged. This similarity is a good sign for the accuracy of the optimized parameters.

The ~~scores show significant~~ performance scores showed non-negligible improvements for both the CP and ~~the~~ VP (Figure ??4) compared to the ~~2Z~~ reference method optimized by the sequential procedure. Even more interestingly, the results for higher precipitation thresholds (Table 4) ~~show showed~~ the largest improvements. This is of particular interest in the framework of flood forecasting.

485 ~~The CRPS score was also discretized into its accuracy and sharpness components, as suggested by Bontron (2004). The changes in each of these components has been illustrated in Figure ?? relatively to the total CRPS value of the 2Z reference method for the different regions and both the CP and the VP. One can see that the accuracy part is always improved to a greater extent than the sharpness, which can occasionally deteriorate. It means that the medians of the predicted precipitations distributions are closer to the observed value, whereas the spread of the distribution vary, but is in general a bit narrower. The further improvement of days with higher precipitation totals is likely related to the fact that larger values contribute more to the CRPS score, which means that better predicting these days results in significant increase in the global performance score.~~

495 The analysis of the parameters cross-compatibility ~~shows that obviously, the parameters are showed that the parameters were obviously~~ optimal on the CP when they are optimized for a given subregion (Figure ?? for the subregion for

500 which they were optimized (Figure 5 top). However, the losses in CRPSS when
exchanging the parameters are not of the same magnitude between among
the different subregions. Indeed, the Upper Rhone Valley (7) and moreover
the Southeast, moreover, the southeast ridges (8) seem seemed to behave
significantly differently, likely due to their particular sensitivity to southerly
flows(Horton et al., 2012). These two regions have different climatic properties
505 than the others, as they are particularly sensitive to southerly flows. Indeed,
almost all heavy precipitation events occurred under a southerly regime, such
as in the Liguria, Piedmont, and Aosta regions in Italy, whereas the other
subregions of the catchment had extreme events mainly under a westerly regime
510 (Horton et al., 2012). Thus, as the performance score is significantly influenced
by heavy precipitation values, the parameters for the different subregions are
likely optimized to better predict these days. It can then be expected that the
optimal parameters differ between these two subregions and the others. This
points at the importance of taking into account leading meteorological influences
515 during discretization, that precipitation station clustering, which are not
always best represented by the physical distance, geographical distance.

Globally, the same pattern can cross-compatibility structure could be observed for the VP (Figure ??5 bottom), but in this case, minor improvements
520 may occur were occasionally observed when crossing the parameters, due to
because of the presence of other events in the VP that may might be better predicted by a different parameter set. The relatively small gaps in score between
parameterizations indicate differences in scores between parameterizations indicated
that even though the parameters may might differ significantly, the performance
525 may might not be drastically affected. Even a change in the pressure level does
did not mean a radical drop of in the score value. A different parametrization
may lead to a distinct selection of analogue days, and thus to an improvement
of the prediction under certain weather conditions at the expense of others.

4. Optimization of the analogy with moisture information

It is known that moisture variables as a second level of analogy do provide
improvements to the method (section ??2.3). The moisture index, which is a
combination of the relative humidity and ~~the~~ precipitable water, has thus also
to be optimized. In order to do so, a constraint ~~to on~~ the optimizer had to be
introduced, so as to select the same temporal window (time of observation) for
both variables.

Two methods were assessed: one with ~~2-two~~ moisture predictors (moisture
index on ~~2-two~~ pressure levels or at ~~2-two~~ different hours), named 4Zo-2MIO,
and one with ~~4 moisture predictors~~four moisture predictors, named 4Zo-4MIO.
When introducing ~~2-two~~ predictors for the moisture analogy, the number of
degrees of freedom ~~raises increased~~ to 42, and to 54 with ~~4 predictors~~four
~~predictors~~. However, there was no substantial difference in the performance
scores between both 4Zo-2MIO and 4Zo-4MIO methods, which suggests that
considering four moisture predictors is not necessary. For this reason, only the
results of 4Zo-2MIO are presented.

The optimization was processed on both levels of analogy simultaneously.
This implies that the analogy of the atmospheric circulation ~~may change due to~~
~~could change because of~~ the new moisture information.

4.1. Results for ~~the~~ 4Zo-2MIO and 4Zo-4MIO methods

~~Due to significant similarities between the results from 4Zo-2MIO and 4Zo-4MIO,~~
~~the latter will only be partly shown in order to improve readability.~~

~~As seen~~ previously, the optimized parameters ~~differ differed~~ from one
subregion to another, ~~and this even to a but to an even~~ greater extent. ~~Detailed~~
~~examples are again provided for the Swiss Chablais subregion in Table ?? for~~
~~4Zo-2MIO.~~—The resulting spatial windows are displayed in Figure 6 for 4Zo-
2MIO, along with the selected pressure levels for both the circulation and ~~the~~
moisture analogy (Table ??).

The CRPSS scores of the optimized ~~methods~~ 4Zo-2MIO method are provided
in ~~Table ?? and amounts to slightly more than~~ Figure 7 and amounted on

average to 40% in average for both methods and for both periods. This results in a relative improvements for 4Zo-2MHo that is in average 14.0 % for the CP and 11.5 % for the VP (Figure ??(CP) and 40.3% (VP), compared to 35.2% (CP) and 36.2% (VP) for the reference method 2Z-2MI on the moisture analogy optimized with the sequential procedure. For 4Zo-4MHo, the average improvement is 15.6 % for the CP and 12.1 % for the VP (Figure ??).

The parameters cross-compatibilities are shown in Figure 9. As for 4Zo, the 4Zo-2MHo and 4Zo-4MHo methods present method presented larger improvements in the prediction for of significant rainfall (thresholds $P \geq 1$ mm, $P \geq 0.1 P_{10}$ and $P \geq 0.5 P_{10}$). The improvement are relatively similar for 4Zo-2MHo (Table ??) and 4Zo-4MHo (not shown), with slightly superior scores for the latter on small precipitation ($P \geq 1$ mm : 17.7% and 13.0%) and extremes ($P \geq 0.5 P_{10}$: 23.7% and 29.2%).

The parameters cross-compatibility has also been assessed for the methods with moisture variables, and are shown in Figures ?? and ?? for the method 4Zo-2MHo (not shown for 4Zo-4MHo, but similar).

4.2. Analysis

When optimizing a method made of 2 consisting of two levels of analogy, the introduction of moisture variables in the second level has an influence on the parameter values of the first level. This means that the two levels of analogy bring complementary information, and are thus not independent. This is first visible on in the number N_1 of analogues to be selected on the first level, and on in the selection of the pressure levels for the circulation analogy. If the change in the optimal value of N_1 was already known, a change in the optimal pressure levels for the circulation analogy has never been identified before.

As for the sequential procedure, the optimal value of N_1 increases increased when adding a second level of analogy (Figure ??10). One can also notice see that the optimal number of analogues N_2 for the second level of analogy of 4Zo-2MHo is was slightly inferior to N_1 from 4Zo, but very close. There is a trend globally common tendency between the optimal analogue number values

of both methods: the higher N_1 of the 4Zo method, the higher and N_1 and N_2 of 4Zo-2MIO is (Figure ??). This relationship is not to be considered perfectly robust and should not be transposed to another case study, but in this case, it relates the magnitudes of the N_1 and N_2 on the various levels and methods tend to be higher or lower together for a given region.

The optimal final number of analogues do numbers of analogues did not vary much: $23 \leq N_1 \leq 33$ for 4Zo and $21 \leq N_2 \leq 28$ for 4Zo-2MIO. However, the optimal number of the N_1 analogues of the first level of 4Zo-2MIO varies varied to a greater extent: $48 \leq N_1 \leq 84$. In this latter method, it may be problematic to consider a fixed and unique value for all regions.

As for the pressure levels, Z1000 that, which was previously systematically selected twice (Table 3) is now less was here less often chosen (once or even not at all) for both 4Zo-2MIO (Table ??) and 4Zo-4MIO (not shown). There is indeed a shift of. There was indeed a vertical shift in the previously selected Z1000 for higher levels, that is that was even slightly stronger with 4 four moisture predictors than with 2 two. This change is likely due to the fact that when considering only the circulation analogy, the method tries tried to take into account information that can serve as a proxy for moisture assessment, whereas it does did not need it with the moisture index. This aspect has never been demonstrated before, as sequential calibration tools do not allow it. It can only be assessed by a global optimization technique that can tune jointly work jointly on both levels of analogy.

The selected pressure levels for the analogy on of the moisture index are strongly centered were strongly centred around 700 hPa and 600 hPa. No other value has been was selected when considering 2 pressure levels two moisture predictors (Table ??), and when considering 4 levels, 850 hPa and 500 hPa were sometimes also selected (not shown). However, even in this latter method, the 700 hPa and 600 hPa levels still hold 78 % of the selection. It is thus. It was sometimes more efficient, in terms of prediction performance, to consider one of this level several times at different hours the moisture at 700 hPa twice, but at different hours, rather than selecting another pressure level. Be-

sides, the optimizer never chose the same pressure level at the same hour for
any variable, even though it was allowed to do so. The selected pressure levels for the ~~analogy on the moisture index differ from the parameters resulting from the reference method optimized by the sequential procedure~~ ~~moisture analogy differed from the reference method~~ (Tables 2 and ??, last row). It
is possible that the level 850 hPa is more optimal for the region for which the
reference parameterization was established. However, this selection is usually
not reconsidered when applying the sequential procedure.

The selection of ~~the~~ temporal windows for ~~the atmospheric circulation is~~ ~~atmospheric circulation was~~ similar to the preceding optimization (in ~~the~~ order of increasing pressure: 12 h, 24/30 h, 12 h, 30 h), but sometimes with ~~a bit more~~ ~~some~~ variability. When it comes to the moisture analogy, there ~~is a clear trend~~ ~~was a clear tendency~~ to select 12 h and 24 h ~~when considering 2 predictors~~.
~~However, it must be remembered that this holds for our predictand, the accumulated precipitation over 06–30 h UTC, and that it is expected to differ if the temporal window changes (e.g. 00–24 h UTC, or another accumulation duration).~~

The optimized spatial windows for the atmospheric circulation have also changed (Figure 6; ~~results of 4Zo-4Mlo are not shown but present the same trends~~). The very large domains on the upper level of the ~~4 first subregions are~~ ~~first four subregions were~~ not present anymore, and more variability ~~can~~ ~~could~~ be observed. The selected points for the ~~analogy on the moisture index are~~ ~~always located nearby~~ ~~moisture analogy were always located near~~ the catchment, including at least ~~1-one~~ of the nearest points from the reanalysis dataset, and the spatial windows ~~are~~ ~~were~~ relatively small. Thus, for this case study, there is no need to look for distant moisture information ~~and~~ and the search could be reduced to a smaller domain.

The CRPSS scores were improved by considering the moisture information (~~Table ??~~ Figure 7 to be compared with Figure 4). The optimized ~~methods also~~ ~~perform~~ ~~method also performed~~ significantly better than the ~~reference method based on the moisture index (Figures ?? and ??)~~ ~~2Z-2MI reference method~~

650 optimized by the sequential procedure. ~~However, there is no drastic difference between both 4Zo-2Mlo and 4Zo-4Mlo methods, which suggests that considering 4 moisture predictors is not necessary~~—When it comes to improvements for days with precipitation above the ~~3~~three thresholds ($P \geq 1$ mm, $P \geq 0.1 \cdot P_{10}$, and $P \geq 0.5 \cdot P_{10}$), the conclusion is the same as before, that is, a significant improvement ~~of in~~ in the prediction compared to the reference method, mainly for heavy rainfall.
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~~As previously, the CRPS scores were discretized into their sharpness and accuracy components. The changes in each of these components, expressed relatively to the total CRPS values, is once again in favor of the accuracy over the sharpness (Figure ?? for 4Zo-2Mlo; 4Zo-4Mlo not shown, but similar).~~

660 The analysis of the parameters ~~cross-compatibility (Figures ?? and ??)~~ is Figure 9 was also very similar to the one ~~on~~of the circulation analogy only(~~results for 4Zo-4Mlo not shown as very similar~~). The same pattern ~~can~~ could be observed, with a drop of performance for the subregions submitted to different meteorological influences. However, the losses ~~of performance~~ are in performance were globally more important than before, suggesting that more complex methods with moisture variables are less transposable to another subregion (consistent with the observations of Chardon et al. (2014)), even though both ~~are~~were located within the same grid cell of the reanalysis dataset. ~~Moisture fields have greater variability than pressure fields, and thus a change in the spatial windows can have a greater impact on the method performance. Indeed, the two regions with the lowest cross-compatibility with the others were the upper Rhone Valley (7) and the southeast ridges (8), which had similar optimal pressure levels and temporal windows to other regions, but had rather different spatial windows on the moisture predictor.~~

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~~Predictors based on moisture variables do significantly increase the prediction skill, and are thus recommended, as long as they are reliable. In real-time forecasting, their reliability depends on the lead time: for lead times superior to 3–4 days, the uncertainties related to moisture variables from NWP models become fairly high, which reduces the relevance of methods relying on this information. In climate downscaling studies, it mainly depends on the coherence~~

of the climatologies between the archive and the GCM model outputs. One should, however, not establish an AM with moisture variables for too large a region, as the transferability is reduced (see Chardon et al., 2014, for alternative approaches).

685 5. Discussion

The optimization of the AM by means of GAs has been undertaken in successive stages by releasing progressively new degrees of freedom. This approach allowed us to differentiate the contributions to performance gains, as well as to identify possible over-parametrization. The main improvements for 690 obtained in the present case study are due to the following factors:

- Using 4 four pressure levels for the analogy of circulation. It seems to be the circulation analogy seemed to be an optimal number for the studied region. Beyond that value, length of archive available, and target predictand considered. Beyond four, the validation score drops was more variable, revealing a loss in robustness due to over-parametrization.
- The automatic and joint optimization of all parameters: the analogues number, the selection of the analogue numbers, selection of pressure levels and the temporal windows, and the spatial windows. These parameters are highly interdependent, so one needs to optimize them jointly in order to 700 identify optimal combinations. Traditional calibration procedures based on a systematic assessment of every combination is not possible anymore when considering more than 2 pressure levels. Indeed, there is a strong interdependence between space and time in the atmospheric circulation, so that, e.g. the spatial window should move upstream the main atmospheric flow for earlier temporal windows.
- The introduction of distinct spatial windows between pressure levels. The synoptic circulation is characterized by features with very different scales depending on the height, and important information for predicting rainfall

⁷¹⁰ precipitation is not necessarily located in the same area from one level to another. However, the optimized spatial windows are consistent in between the subregions.

- The weighting of the analogy criteria between different pressure levels. It This can be influenced by the variability of the geopotential height with altitude, and the change of some levels significance with the targeted or the ⁷¹⁵ levels of significance in regards to the meteorological processes specific to a region. There is a trend for in the weighting of circulation predictors to decrease with the increase in pressure, as one can see in Figure ?? for the method 4Zo, and in Figure 11 for the averages over the three optimized methods. However, the values stay around equity remained approximately equal. This may not be the most influencing factor, and we may suggest to remove removing it first when trying to reduce the number of degrees ⁷²⁰ of freedom.
- The joint optimization of the circulation and moisture analogy levels, that which are usually calibrated successively. We have been were able to demonstrate that there is a dependency between the analogy levels, and that in order to approach the optimal parameters, one must consider them ⁷²⁵ jointly.

GAs have proved very useful to optimize complex variants of the AM, and to assess new degrees of freedom that were not available so thus far. However, it can ⁷³⁰ be dangerous to add too many parameters to optimize. Indeed, the optimizer will probably use them to successfully improve the calibration score, but so the validation control remains very important in order to determine if one is actually improving the method, or if it is being over-parametrized. Moreover, it might not always be desirable to increase the degrees of freedom, and some constraints ⁷³⁵ (e.g. same weighting of the analogy criteria between different pressure levels) can be justified. However, one should first assess the consequence of a constraint before establishing it. In this sense, even though not all degrees of freedom are

useful, GAs allow us to assess their influence. Finally, GAs could be used to identify, among other things, the best pairs of spatial and temporal windows, in order to later create a simpler regional method.

The convergence of parallel optimizations decreases when the method to optimize becomes decreased when the AM to optimize became more and more complex. The optimizer ~~do~~ did not always converge to the exact global optimum, but to its surroundings. This is related to the fact that the optimization slows down when it gets closer to the global optimum, and that one has to stop it before the end, due to because of the required processing time (see Figure 12 as example for example the slow-down of the improvements over generations in Figure 12). The resulting parameters ~~may sometimes present non negligible~~ might sometimes present non-negligible differences, even though the score is ~~almost~~ similar. Through some Monte-Carlo analyses of the parameter space properties of the AM, Horton (2012) showed that some parameters of the method have a wide range of acceptable values (see also Horton et al., 2016a). The spatial windows, for example, can be larger than the optimal size without much impact on the score, while they cannot be smaller (see also Bontron, 2004).

We ~~could also observe~~ also observed that the selection of ~~the~~ pressure level is not a parameter as discrete as we would have thought, and that choosing another level may have reduced ~~the~~ consequences on the performance. This is particularly true for higher pressure levels, but can be more critical for lower layers. It was thus interesting to sometimes get obtain several sets of near-optimal parameters, but with some nuances, in order to get an idea of the sensitivity of the parameters for a given region, and to compare the score on for the VP. In this regard, a cross-validation technique may be advisable. However, as solutions identified at different regions of the parameter space might provide sufficiently good performance, an ensemble of these could be used, instead of a unique solution. These could account for the parameters uncertainty in the AM, and could also increase the sample size contributing to the empirical distribution of precipitation values. An approach that can also be recommended is to first explore a wide range of the parameter space with some optimizations, and to

narrow it according to the results for more targeted optimizations that are likely
770 to go faster and to perform better.

We tried to optimize the length of the preselection period (i.e. the 4-months seasonal stratification, which is a 4-month window) jointly with the other parameters, but no improvement was observed. Optimizing the moisture flux, which is composed of the moisture index multiplied with by the wind flux, was
775 also assessed. However, the results were not better than when considering the moisture index alone. This may be related to the fact that the optimizer tries to provide the best analogy of the atmospheric circulation in the first place, which makes the wind information less relevant in the second level of analogy.

As it has been observed, methods with a-higher complexity that integrate
780 moisture predictors are less transposable than simpler ones. It was also noticed in another unpublished work, that it is by far better to optimize for 2 subregions jointly rather two subregions jointly than to optimize on one and to apply its parametrization to the other. Finally, the discretization in subregions is an important process and should be handled with care. Indeed, the
785 physical geographical distance is not always the leading factor to define a subregion. For example, the Southeast ridges subregion do southeast ridges subregion does not behave like its surrounding and differ surroundings, and differs in its parametrization , due to because of different leading meteorological influences.

GAs are relatively heavy on processing and require an IT infrastructure
790 capable of performing thousands of hours of calculations. However, they automatically optimize all parameters of the AM, what which is not possible with the sequential calibrationdoes not allow. Therefore, much human timeis saved, that was, previously required to assess successively successively assess numerous combinations of parameters (particularly the selection of the pressure levels and
795 the temporal windows), is saved. The ability to optimize jointly jointly optimize all parameters is important given the strong dependencies between them and between the levels of analogy.

Furthermore, AMs optimized with GAs showed an improvement in predictions for days with heavier precipitation, including extremes. Even though no new

800 extreme value was added to the existing precipitation archive, the distribution
of analogue precipitation values for a target situation can move towards the
targeted extreme by sampling better candidate situations. Then, the subset
of precipitation values collected on the analogue dates can be considered as
a sample of the conditional distribution of precipitation associated with this
situation. A truncated exponential or a gamma distribution model can be fit
and extrapolated to extreme values not contained in the sample or even in the
whole precipitation archive (Obled et al., 2002). Another possible approach is
to combine AMs with other methods (e.g. Chardon et al., 2014).

6. Conclusions and perspectives

810 The parameters resulting from the optimization by GAs ~~are~~were very consistent
in terms of ~~selection of the pressure levels , and the~~the selection of pressure
~~levels and~~ temporal and spatial windows. There ~~are~~were clear trends or even
identical results for subregions under similar meteorological influences, which
confirm that the optimized parameters ~~are~~were coherent, despite an eventual
815 first impression of ~~a~~ great variability in the spatial windows. When adding
moisture variables, the results ~~show~~showed a higher variability, but ~~remains~~remained
~~highly acceptable and coherent.~~

Strong dependencies between the parameters of the AM ~~could be~~were observed.
Thus, the sequential calibration, which optimizes the parameters successively,
820 may not lead to the optimal combination. Moreover, it contains several manual systematic ~~assessment~~assessments, such as the selection of ~~the~~ pressure levels and ~~the~~ temporal windows. GAs, however, can ~~select the automatically~~select pressure levels and ~~the time windows~~automatically temporal windows, which can save a considerable amount of human time. A great advantage of
825 a global optimization is its ability to approach or reach optimal parameter values when they are considered jointly.

A ~~parametric dependence between the analogy of circulation and the dependence~~dependence between the circulation analogy and moisture vari-

ables was identified. When the two analogy levels are considered together,
830 the optimal parameters of the circulation analogy ~~are different~~changed. This complexity can only be exploited in a suitable manner by global optimization methods.

For the present case study, there ~~seems~~seemed to be an optimum number of pressure levels to consider for the ~~analogy of circulation~~circulation analogy,
835 which is four, before losing ~~performance in validation~~. The analogy of circulation has also been consistency of the real gains. The circulation analogy was improved by introducing a weighting between pressure levels, and considering independent spatial windows between pressure levels.

GAs ~~provide~~provided parameterizations of AMs that ~~exceed~~exceeded the performance of the sequential calibration. In addition, it has been observed that the prediction for days with strong precipitation were ~~significantly more improved~~improved to a greater extent, which is clearly interesting in the ~~framework context~~ of flood forecasting.

This work is by ~~far not exhaustive and means no means exhaustive, and is~~
845 meant to open a door ~~for to~~ new explorations of AMs with GAs. It is even possible to let the optimizer chose the meteorological variable to be used as a predictor, as well as the analogy criteria.~~It is already possible to undertake such approach with our code, which is the topic of work in progress.~~ Moreover, the AM has been explored for decades for precipitation ~~forecasting, but very few works analyze its potential~~prediction, but not as intensively for other predictands. A global optimizer, such as GAsa GA, can speed up this assessment significantly.

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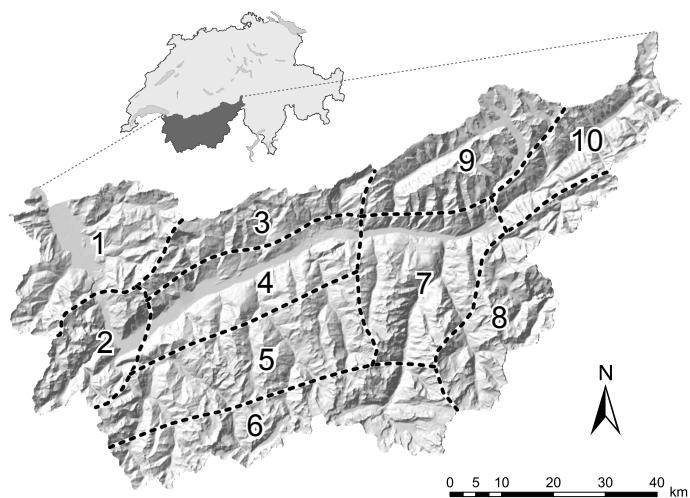


Figure 1: Location of the alpine Rhône catchment in Switzerland. (source: Swisstopo)

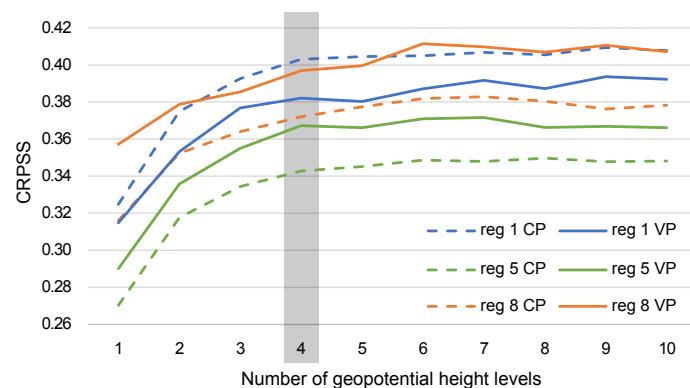


Figure 2: Performance score (CRPSS) for CP and VP for three stations (1 - Swiss Chablais; 5 - Southern valleys; 8 - Southeast ridges) when varying the number of geopotential height levels available to the optimizer.

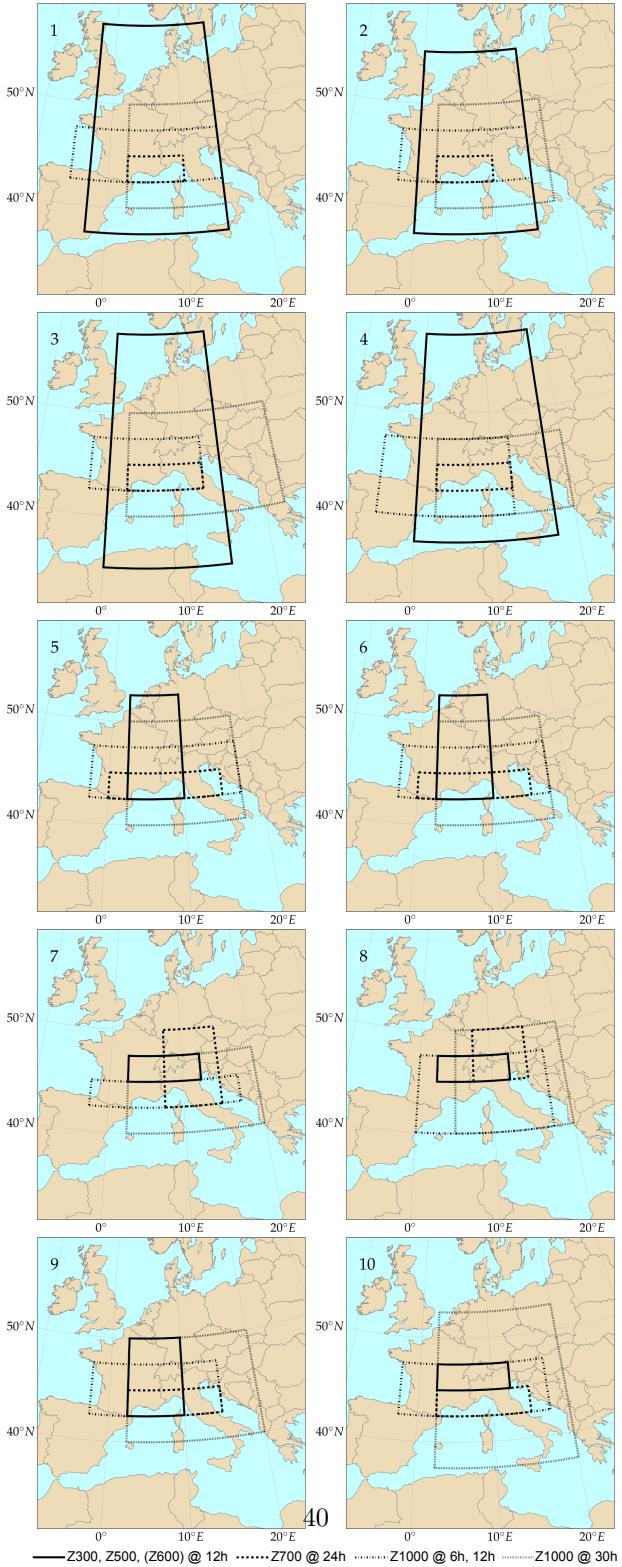


Figure 3: Optimized spatial windows for the 4Zo method (analogy of [the](#) atmospheric circulation on ~~4~~^{four} pressure levels). ~~The pressure levels are ordered by increasing pressure and increasing time for the same levels.~~

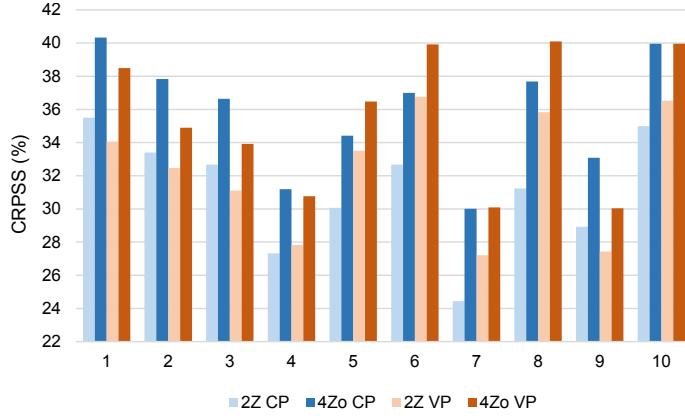


Figure 4: Performance score (CRPSS) of the reference method 2Z (Table 1) and the optimized 4Zo method for CP and VP for every subregion.

		Groupment Ids (parameters used)										
		CP	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Groupment Ids (targets)	CP	1	0.0	-0.3	-0.8	-0.7	-0.7	-0.7	-3.1	-4.4	-1.3	-2.0
	2	-0.2	0.0	-0.6	-0.3	-0.6	-0.6	-2.2	-3.6	-0.9	-1.1	
	3	-0.4	-0.2	0.0	-0.5	-0.4	-0.3	-1.8	-2.9	-0.1	-0.5	
	4	-0.3	-0.2	-0.4	0.0	-0.3	-0.2	-1.2	-2.6	-0.4	-0.6	
	5	-0.6	-0.5	-0.8	-0.5	0.0	0.0	-1.2	-2.3	-0.5	-0.7	
	6	-1.2	-0.8	-1.1	-0.8	0.0	0.0	-0.8	-1.6	-0.3	-0.4	
	7	-3.6	-3.1	-2.6	-2.5	-1.5	-1.5	0.0	-0.7	-1.1	-1.1	
	8	-6.4	-5.3	-5.0	-4.6	-2.8	-2.8	-0.2	0.0	-2.7	-1.6	
	9	-0.9	-0.7	-0.5	-0.6	-0.4	-0.3	-0.8	-1.7	0.0	-0.3	
	10	-1.9	-1.4	-1.2	-1.6	-0.6	-0.5	-0.9	-1.1	-0.5	0.0	
		VP	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Groupment Ids (targets)	CP	1	0.0	-0.3	-0.5	0.1	-0.8	-0.9	-3.2	-4.7	-0.9	-1.4
	2	-0.1	0.0	0.0	0.2	-0.6	-0.6	-2.1	-3.8	-0.3	-0.7	
	3	-0.4	-0.6	0.0	-0.3	-1.1	-1.1	-2.1	-4.4	-0.3	-1.1	
	4	-0.2	0.0	-0.2	0.0	-0.5	-0.6	-2.0	-3.6	-0.7	-1.0	
	5	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.0	-1.8	-3.2	0.0	-0.5	
	6	-0.5	-0.4	-0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	-0.9	-1.9	-0.5	-0.4	
	7	-1.4	-1.1	-0.6	-0.6	-0.6	-0.6	0.0	-1.0	-0.5	0.0	
	8	-3.6	-3.0	-2.2	-1.9	-1.3	-1.3	0.1	0.0	-1.4	0.2	
	9	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.4	-0.2	-0.2	-0.7	-2.2	0.0	0.1	
	10	-0.4	-0.3	-0.1	-0.2	0.1	0.1	-0.8	-1.1	-0.1	0.0	

Figure 5: Losses or gains (in %) of the in CRPSS by from applying the optimized parameters for the series in column columns to those in line rows. Method 4Zo, calibration period and validation periods.

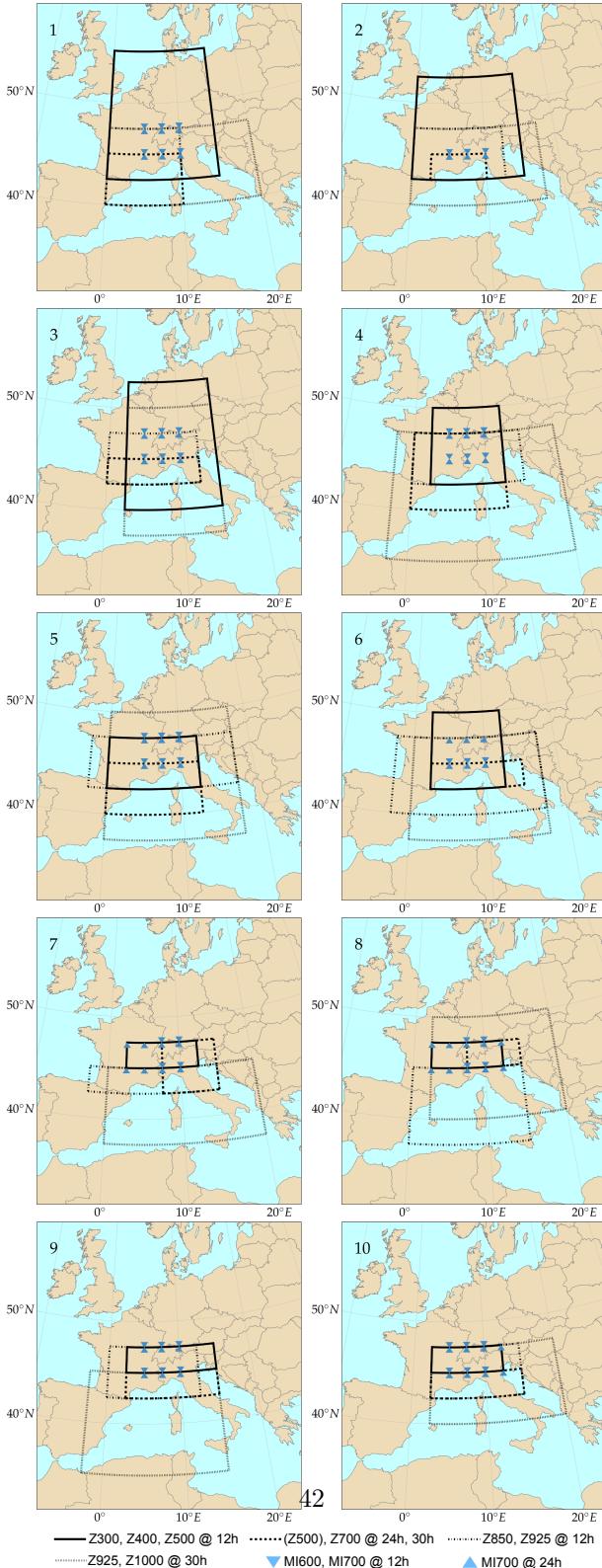


Figure 6: Optimized spatial windows for the 4Zo-2Mio method (analogy of atmospheric circulation on four pressure levels and analogy on the moisture index on two pressure levels).

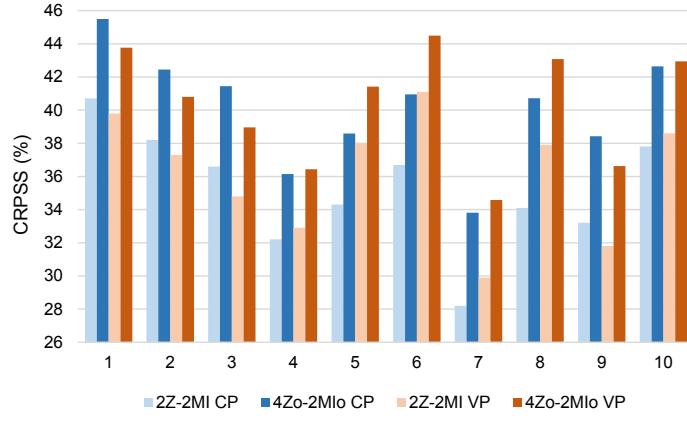


Figure 7: Performance score (CRPSS) of the reference method 2Z-2MI (Table 2) and the optimized 4Zo-2MIO method for CP and VP for every subregion.

		Groupment Ids (parameters used)									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CP	1	0.0	-0.6	-0.9	-1.4	-0.9	-1.8	-3.9	-5.4	-2.2	-2.7
	2	-0.9	0.0	-0.5	-0.9	-0.6	-1.2	-2.5	-4.1	-1.4	-2.2
	3	-1.3	-0.7	0.0	-0.6	-0.8	-1.3	-2.0	-3.7	-0.6	-1.7
	4	-1.2	-0.3	-0.3	0.0	-0.2	-0.8	-1.3	-2.8	-0.3	-1.6
	5	-0.8	-0.5	-0.4	-0.3	0.0	-0.5	-1.0	-2.5	-0.4	-1.1
	6	-1.5	-1.0	-1.0	-0.7	-0.6	0.0	-0.8	-1.7	-0.7	-0.9
	7	-4.6	-3.3	-3.3	-2.1	-2.7	-1.3	0.0	-1.2	-1.3	-1.5
	8	-7.5	-5.9	-5.7	-4.2	-5.1	-2.5	-0.7	0.0	-2.8	-1.8
	9	-2.0	-1.4	-0.9	-0.6	-1.0	-1.2	-1.0	-2.5	0.0	-1.5
	10	-2.5	-1.9	-1.4	-1.6	-1.6	-0.6	-0.7	-1.3	-0.9	0.0
		Groupment Ids (targets)									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
VP	1	0.0	-0.2	0.1	-1.0	-0.3	-1.4	-3.3	-6.1	-1.4	-2.6
	2	-0.9	0.0	-0.3	-1.0	-0.9	-1.2	-2.9	-5.9	-1.2	-2.5
	3	-1.3	-0.7	0.0	-1.3	-0.6	-1.1	-2.5	-6.0	-0.8	-2.0
	4	-0.9	0.2	-0.2	0.0	-0.3	-0.1	-1.8	-5.1	0.1	-1.6
	5	-0.5	0.1	-0.1	-0.4	0.0	0.0	-1.1	-3.9	0.0	-1.1
	6	-1.2	-0.7	-0.9	-1.2	-0.7	0.0	-0.9	-3.0	-0.9	-1.0
	7	-3.4	-2.1	-2.7	-1.5	-1.7	-0.5	0.0	-2.4	-0.4	-0.8
	8	-5.3	-3.3	-3.9	-2.7	-3.0	-0.6	-0.1	0.0	-1.1	-0.7
	9	-2.0	-1.3	-0.7	-0.8	-1.2	-1.3	-1.6	-4.9	0.0	-2.2
	10	-1.8	-0.9	-0.5	-1.3	-0.6	0.2	-0.5	-2.4	-0.6	0.0

Figure 8: Losses or gains (in %) of the CRPSS from applying optimized parameters for the series in columns to those in rows. Method 4Zo-2MIO, calibration and validation periods.

		Groupment Ids (parameters used)										
		CP	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Groupment Ids (targets)	1	0.0	-0.6	-0.9	-1.4	-0.9	-1.8	-3.9	-5.4	-2.2	-2.7	
	2	-0.9	0.0	-0.5	-0.9	-0.6	-1.2	-2.5	-4.1	-1.4	-2.2	
	3	-1.3	-0.7	0.0	-0.6	-0.8	-1.3	-2.0	-3.7	-0.6	-1.7	
	4	-1.2	-0.3	-0.3	0.0	-0.2	-0.8	-1.3	-2.8	-0.3	-1.6	
	5	-0.8	-0.5	-0.4	-0.3	0.0	-0.5	-1.0	-2.5	-0.4	-1.1	
	6	-1.5	-1.0	-1.0	-0.7	-0.6	0.0	-0.8	-1.7	-0.7	-0.9	
	7	-4.6	-3.3	-3.3	-2.1	-2.7	-1.3	0.0	-1.2	-1.3	-1.5	
	8	-7.5	-5.9	-5.7	-4.2	-5.1	-2.5	-0.7	0.0	-2.8	-1.8	
	9	-2.0	-1.4	-0.9	-0.6	-1.0	-1.2	-1.0	-2.5	0.0	-1.5	
	10	-2.5	-1.9	-1.4	-1.6	-1.6	-0.6	-0.7	-1.3	-0.9	0.0	
		VP	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Groupment Ids (targets)	1	0.0	-0.2	0.1	-1.0	-0.3	-1.4	-3.3	-6.1	-1.4	-2.6	
	2	-0.9	0.0	-0.3	-1.0	-0.9	-1.2	-2.9	-5.9	-1.2	-2.5	
	3	-1.3	-0.7	0.0	-1.3	-0.6	-1.1	-2.5	-6.0	-0.8	-2.0	
	4	-0.9	0.2	-0.2	0.0	-0.3	-0.1	-1.8	-5.1	0.1	-1.6	
	5	-0.5	0.1	-0.1	-0.4	0.0	0.0	-1.1	-3.9	0.0	-1.1	
	6	-1.2	-0.7	-0.9	-1.2	-0.7	0.0	-0.9	-3.0	-0.9	-1.0	
	7	-3.4	-2.1	-2.7	-1.5	-1.7	-0.5	0.0	-2.4	-0.4	-0.8	
	8	-5.3	-3.3	-3.9	-2.7	-3.0	-0.6	-0.1	0.0	-1.1	-0.7	
	9	-2.0	-1.3	-0.7	-0.8	-1.2	-1.3	-1.6	-4.9	0.0	-2.2	
	10	-1.8	-0.9	-0.5	-1.3	-0.6	0.2	-0.5	-2.4	-0.6	0.0	

Figure 9: Changes Losses or gains (in the CRPS components %) of 4Zo-2Mlo relatively to the total CRPS of the reference methods 2Z-2MI (Table 2) CRPSS from applying optimized parameters for the CP series in columns to those in rows. Method 4Zo-2Mlo, calibration and the VP validation periods.

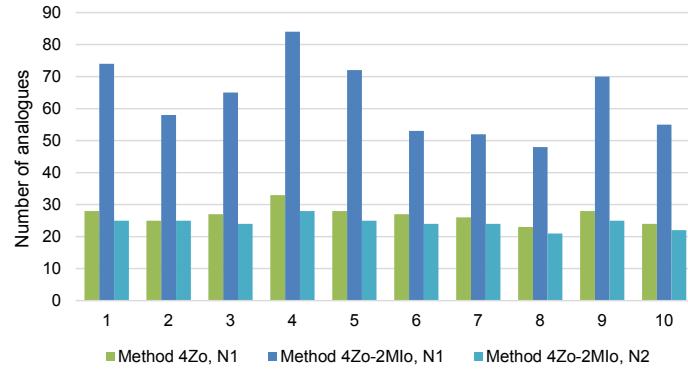


Figure 10: Number Optimal numbers of analogues for the different regions and the various two methods, resulting from the optimization. Method 4Zo is made of a single level of analogy with N_1 analogues, whereas 4Zo-2Mlo has two levels of analogy with respectively N_1 and N_2 analogues.

Relationships between the optimal number of analogues for both levels of the 4Zo-2Mlo method and the corresponding ones for the unique level of the 4Zo method.

Losses or gains (in %) of the CRPSS by applying the optimized parameters for the series in column to those in line. Method 4Zo-2Mlo, calibration period.

Same as Figure ?? but for the validation period.

Optimized weighting for the pressure levels of the 4Zo method.

Averaged weighting for the pressure levels of the circulation analogy of the three methods.

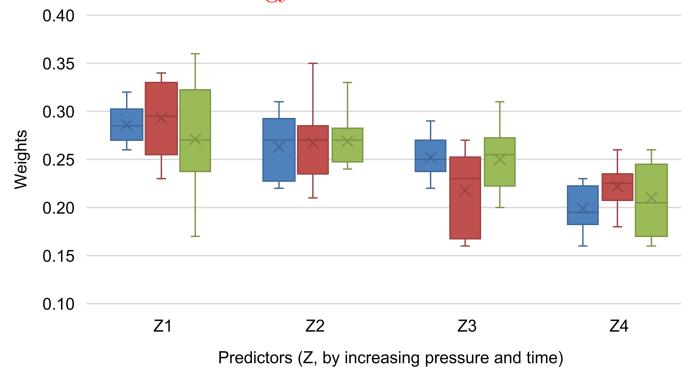


Figure 11: Distribution of optimal weights for the predictors of the first level of analogy (geopotential heights) of (blue) 4Zo, (red) 4Zo-2Mlo, and (green) 4Zo-4Mlo methods. Results are for the ten subregions. Geopotential heights are sorted by increasing pressure and hour.

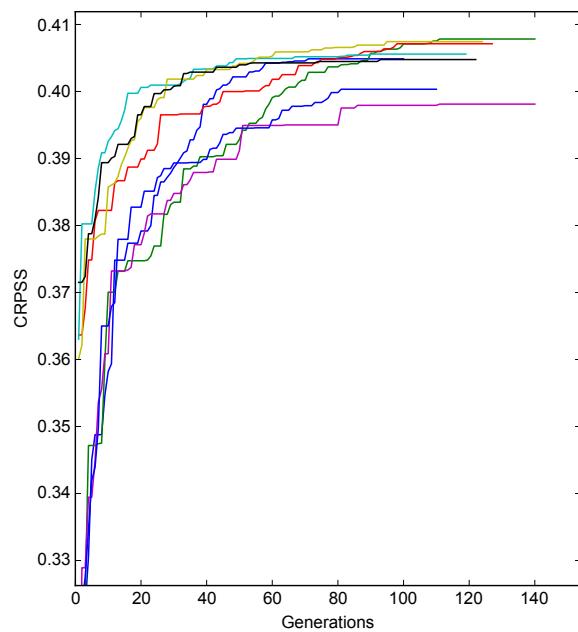


Figure 12: Example of ~~the~~ evolution of the performance score of the best individual over ~~8~~ eight independent optimizations.

Table 1: Parameters of the reference method on the atmospheric circulation (2Z). The first column is the level of analogy (0 for preselection), then comes the ; subsequent columns list meteorological variable and its hour of observation within the target day (temporal window). The criteria criterion used for the current level of analogy is then provided, as well as the and number of analogues.

Level	Variable	Hour	Criteria	Criterion	Nb
0		± 60 days around the target date			
1	Z1000	12 h		S1	50
	Z500	24 h			

Table 2: Parameters of the reference method with moisture variables (2Z-2MI). Same conventions Conventions are the same as in Table 1

Level	Variable	Hour	Criteria	Criterion	Nb
0		± 60 days around the target date			
1	Z1000	12 h		S1	70
	Z500	24 h			
2	TPW * RH850	12 h		RMSE	30
	TPW * RH850	24 h			

Table 3: Parameters of Pressure levels (\sim) automatically selected for the 4Zo method for different subregions (analogy on 4 levels of the atmospheric circulation ID) optimized for the Chablais subregion. The columns are R represents the following: L = level of analogy, V = meteorological variable, H = hour of observation or temporal window, D = domain or spatial window, W = weighting of the score for the selected pressure levels, C = criteria, N = number of analogues^{2Z reference method (Table 1)}.

L V H D W C N 0 -2.5 -15.0 E 37.5 -57.5 N 2.5 -10.0 E 42.5 -45.0 N -5.0 -15.0 E 42.5 -
 47.5 N 2.5 -15.0 E 40.0 -50.0 N

Pressure levels (\sim) automatically selected for the 4Zo method at the different subregions. R represents the reference method (Table 1).

ID	300	400	500	600	700	850	925	1000
1	\sim				\sim			$\sim\sim$
2	\sim				\sim			$\sim\sim$
3	\sim				\sim			$\sim\sim$
4	\sim				\sim			$\sim\sim$
5			\sim		\sim			$\sim\sim$
6			\sim		\sim			$\sim\sim$
7			\sim		\sim			$\sim\sim$
8			\sim		\sim			$\sim\sim$
9			\sim		\sim			$\sim\sim$
10				\sim	\sim			$\sim\sim$
R								\sim

Table 4: CRPSS score—Relative improvement (%) of in CRPSS for different precipitation thresholds for the three optimized methods (4Zo is the atmospheric circulation analogy detailed in the present section; 4Zo-2Mlo and 4Zo-4Mlo add a second level of analogy on moisture indexes method, as explained in section 4) compared to the reference method.

ID	$P \geq 1 \text{ mm}$		$P \geq 0.1 \cdot P_{10}$		$P \geq 0.5 \cdot P_{10}$	
	CP	VP	CP	VP	CP	VP
1	10.2	9.4	8.5	7.9	17.0	14.2
2	9.9	3.4	10.2	7.3	19.3	13.7
3	13.3	10.5	13.3	10.9	19.7	9.7
4	11.0	7.4	12.9	10.0	23.2	23.8
5	8.6	4.2	10.9	6.2	25.2	23.8
6	10.5	5.1	11.1	7.1	21.2	41.1
7	24.3	12.4	33.1	26.0	71.2	104.3
8	19.0	12.7	26.2	19.2	39.4	34.9
9	12.4	6.8	13.8	9.9	24.9	48.1
10	13.6	6.8	14.4	6.9	29.9	31.5
av.	13.3	7.9	15.4	11.1	29.1	34.5

Table 5: Parameters of Atmospheric levels automatically selected for the 4Zo-2Mlo method (analogy of atmospheric circulation on 4 levels (\sim) and moisture index on 2 levels analogy (\bullet) of the 4Zo-2Mlo method, optimized for the Chablais subregion different subregions (ID). Same conventions as R represents the 2Z-2MI reference method (Table ??-2)

L V H D W C N 0 0.0 - 15.0 E 42.5 - 55.0 N 0.0 - 10.0 E 40.0 - 45.0 N 0.0 - 10.0 E 42.5 -
 47.5 N 0.0 - 20.0 E 40.0 - 47.5 N TPW 5.0 - 10.0 E *RH700 45.0 - 47.5 N TPW 5.0 - 10.0 E
 *RH700 45.0 - 47.5 N-

Atmospheric levels automatically selected for the analogy of the atmospheric circulation (\sim) and the analogy of moisture (\bullet) of the 4Zo-2Mlo method, at the different subregions. R represents the reference method (Table 2)

ID	300	400	500	600	700	850	925	1000
1	\sim		\sim		$\bullet\bullet$	\sim		\sim
2	\sim				$\sim \bullet\bullet$	\sim		\sim
3	\sim				$\sim \bullet\bullet$	\sim	\sim	
4			\sim	\bullet	$\sim \bullet$	\sim		\sim
5		\sim			$\sim \bullet\bullet$		$\sim\sim$	
6		\sim		\bullet	$\sim \bullet$	\sim		\sim
7		\sim		\bullet	$\sim \bullet$	\sim		\sim
8			\sim	\bullet	$\sim \bullet$		$\sim\sim$	
9		\sim		\bullet	$\sim \bullet$	\sim	\sim	
10		\sim		\bullet	$\sim \bullet$	\sim		\sim
R			\sim		$\bullet\bullet$		\sim	

Table 6: **Improvement** Relative improvement (%) **of the in** CRPSS for different precipitations thresholds for the optimized 4Zo-2Mlo **method, compared to the reference** method.

ID	$P \geq 1 \text{ mm}$		$P \geq 0.1 \cdot P_{10}$		$P \geq 0.5 \cdot P_{10}$	
	CP	VP	CP	VP	CP	VP
1	12.6	9.3	12.4	9.7	15.8	11.0
2	10.4	7.7	11.2	10.5	18.9	16.6
3	14.5	11.6	14.1	11.4	18.7	14.6
4	11.4	9.4	11.5	11.6	14.9	22.7
5	11.8	8.0	12.2	8.9	12.0	12.8
6	11.3	7.1	11.2	8.0	15.3	29.1
7	20.5	15.5	25.2	24.0	43.0	79.5
8	19.3	15.7	23.1	18.6	25.2	31.7
9	17.0	15.4	17.4	16.5	23.7	39.4
10	12.9	9.6	13.8	11.1	28.5	32.1
av.	14.2	10.9	15.2	13.0	21.6	28.9