

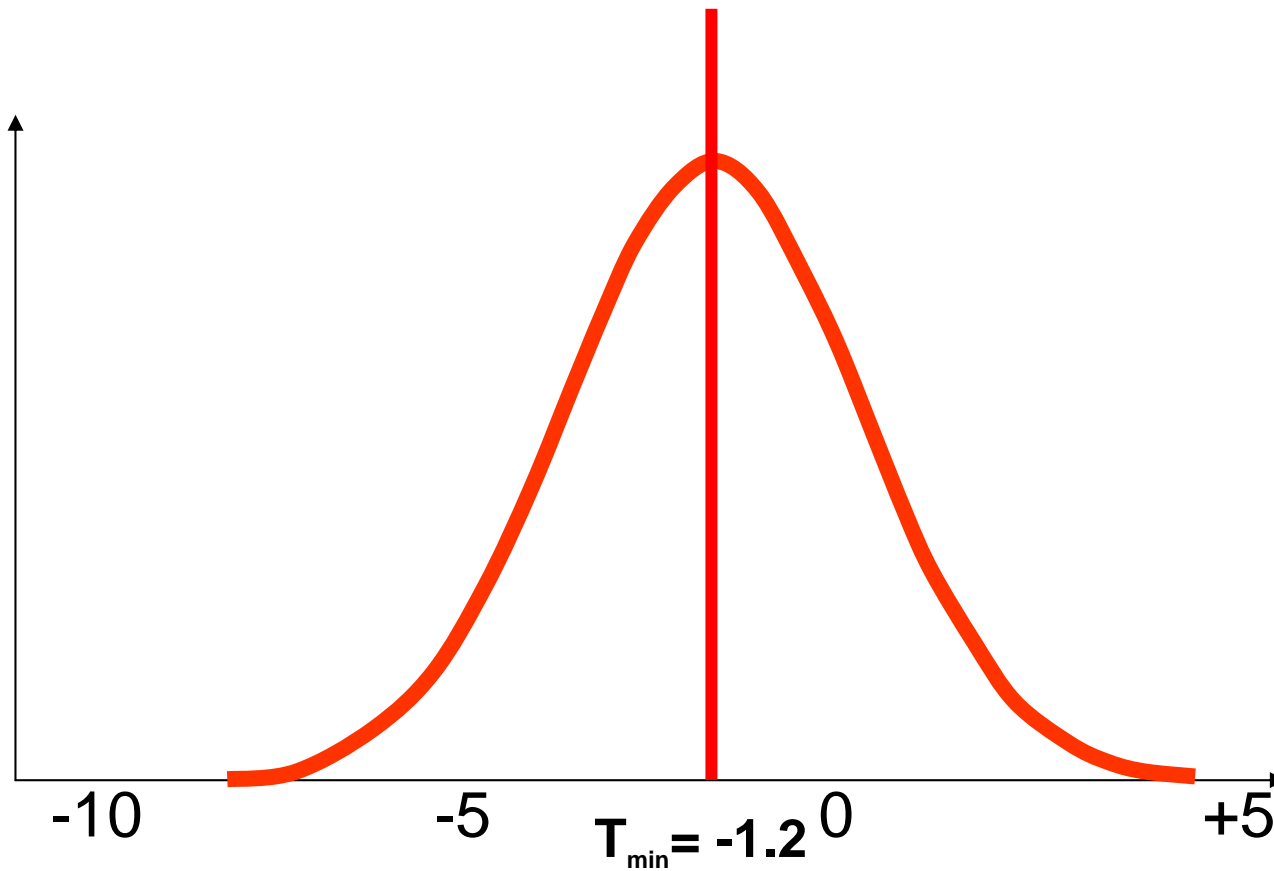
# II. Frequentist probabilities

## II.1 The problem with the “mean”

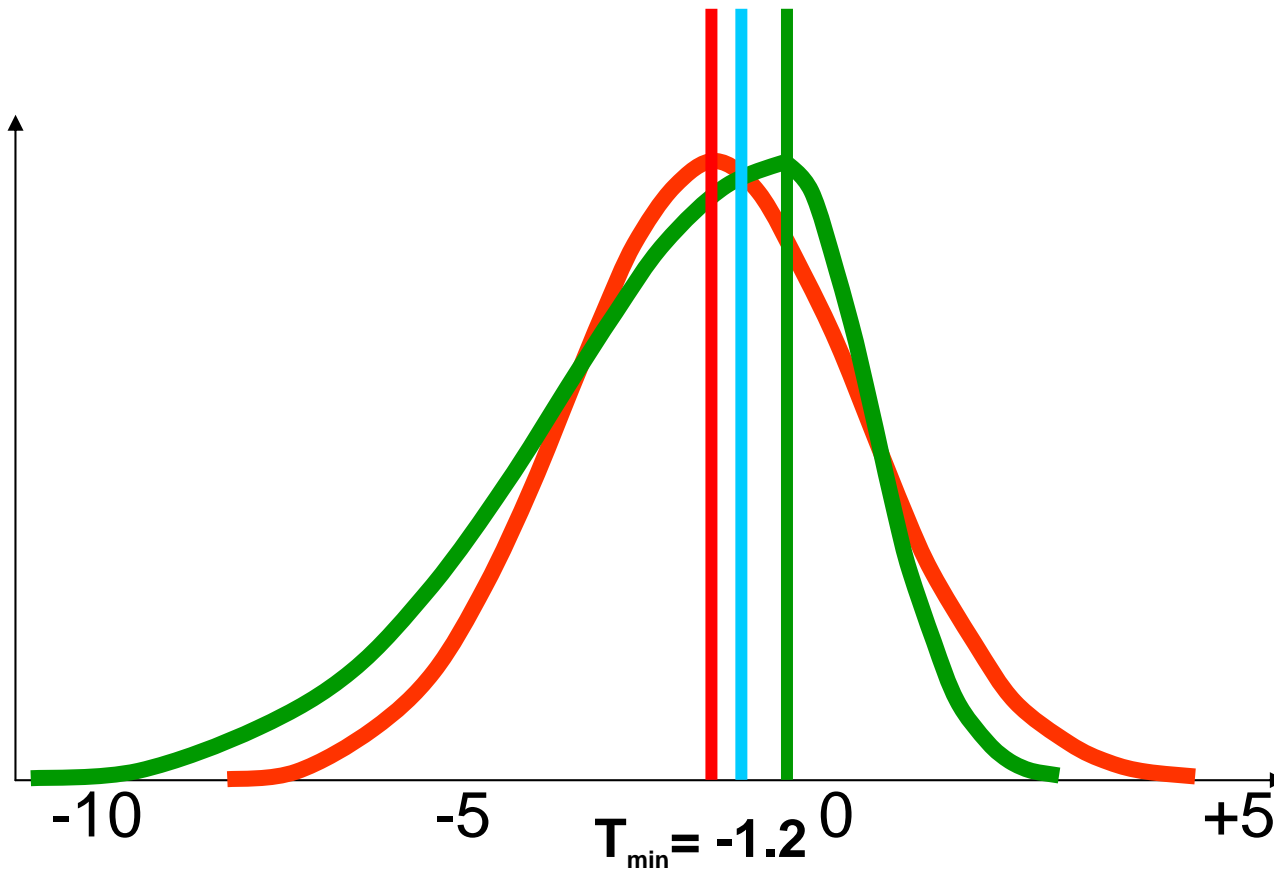
# II.1.1 Probabilities is not the most controversial issue

**In statistics probability is called “the 2nd moment” where “the 1st moment” is the mean or median**

**The 3<sup>rd</sup> moment is the skewness (asymmetry) of the distribution.**



# Mean, median or mode?



**The probability information does not normally “hang in the air” – it is supplementing some sort of single value deterministic forecast:**

**-We expect winds around 9 m/s with a 20% possibility of gale force.**

# The “Best Data” Paradox

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Probabilities are difficult to **interpret and use**, **but** they are fairly **simple to produce**

Categorical values, on the other hand, are **easy to interpret** **but**, paradoxically, **difficult to produce**

Should they be the ensemble **mean or median**,

**Accurate, not “jumpy” and consistent with probabilities, but not always “physically realistic”**

or just **DMO** from a favoured NWP model?

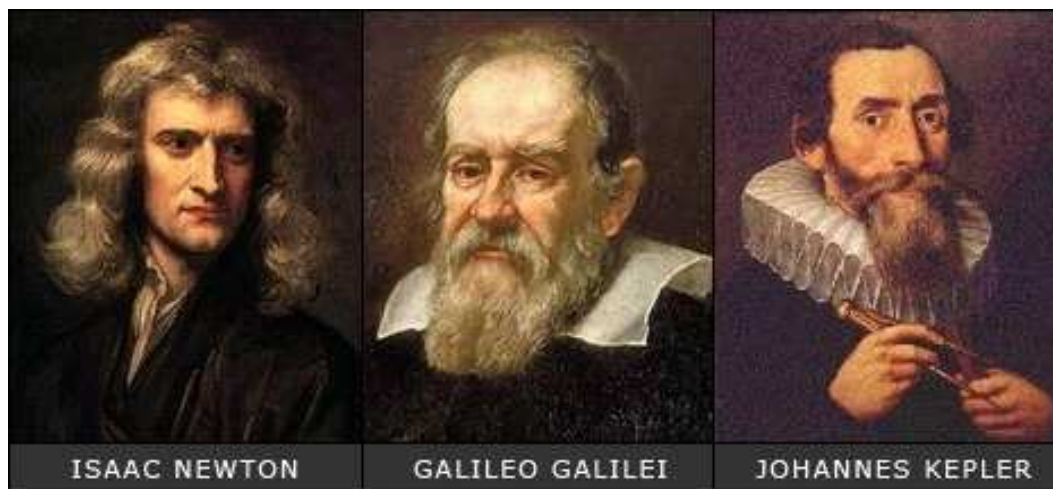
**Physically realistic but less accurate, very “jumpy” and not consistent with the probabilities**

The problem goes 250  
years back in time . . .



## II.1.2 Choosing the “best” observation in the 1700’s

# Before the 1800's there was a poor understanding of randomness in measurement errors

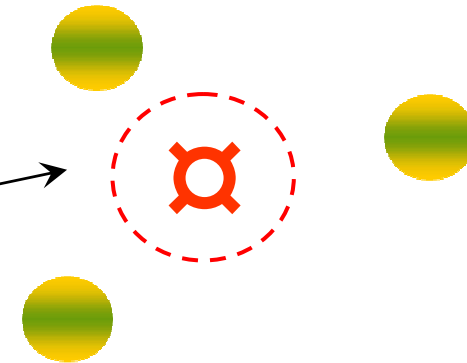


1. Scientists had the routine to select their “best” measurement
2. They didn't understand that measurement errors add up and randomly cancel out
- 3. They disliked averages of observations since these did not normally agree with measured values**

# 18<sup>th</sup> century view on observation errors

1. Astronomers in the 1600:s and 1700:s tried to find out which of their diverging observations was the “right” one
2. In the late 1700’ it was realized that that the observations should be combined **even if the result did not agree with any of the observations**

*Where is Jupiter?*



- 3. The first mathematical discussion on statistical inference**

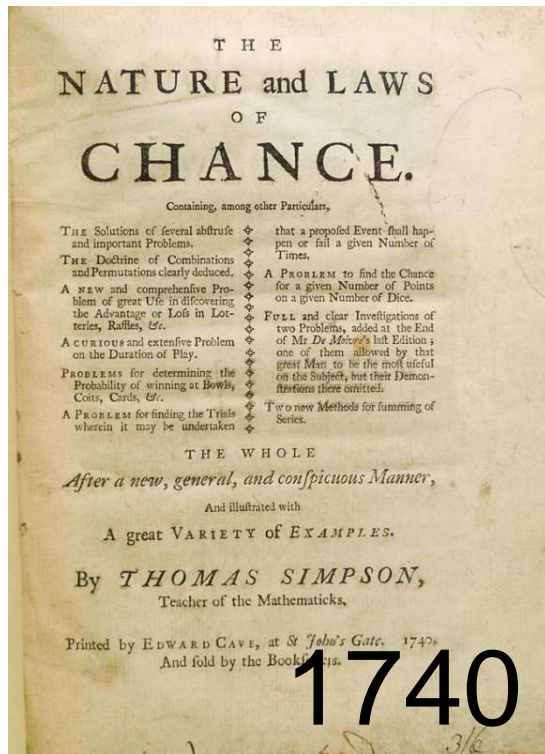


Thomas Simpson  
1710-61  
Mathematician

XIX. *A Letter to the Right Honourable George Earl of Macclesfield, President of the Royal Society, on the Advantage of taking the Mean of a Number of Observations, in practical Astronomy: By T. Simpson, F. R. S.*

1755

My Lord,  
Read April 10, 1755. **I**T is well known to your Lordship, that the method practised by astronomers, in order to diminish the errors arising from the imperfections of instruments, and of the organs of sense, by taking the Mean of several observations, has not been so generally received, but that some persons, of considerable note, have been of opinion, and even publicly maintained, that one single observation, taken



1740



Only accepted 50-60 years later thanks to the works by Lagrange and Gauss

The Belgian meteorologist and statistician Adolphe Quételet (1796-1874) introduced in the mid 1800's the concept of "The Average Man" based on statistical averages from the population in Brussels.

He was criticised because there was nobody in Brussels who fitted this description



# The Average Man?



Not very skilful average. But . . .

# The Average Girl?



Italian



Finnish



Russian



English



Swedish



Chinese

urser  
ary 20



The “Average” Team Member



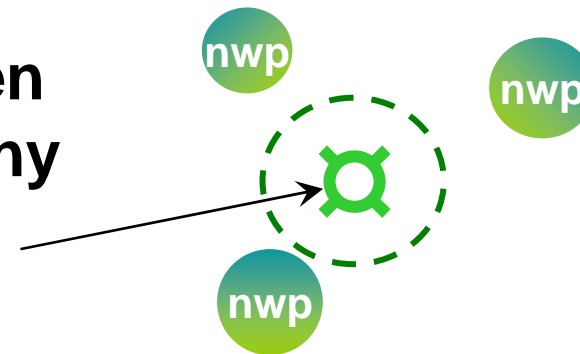
## II.1.3 The Average Forecast

# 20<sup>th</sup> century discussion of forecast errors

1. Meteorologists in the 1900:s and early 2000:s still try to find out which of the diverging NWP is the “right” one

*What is the weather?*

2. It is not always realized that the observations should be combined **even if the result does not agree with any of the individual NWP**



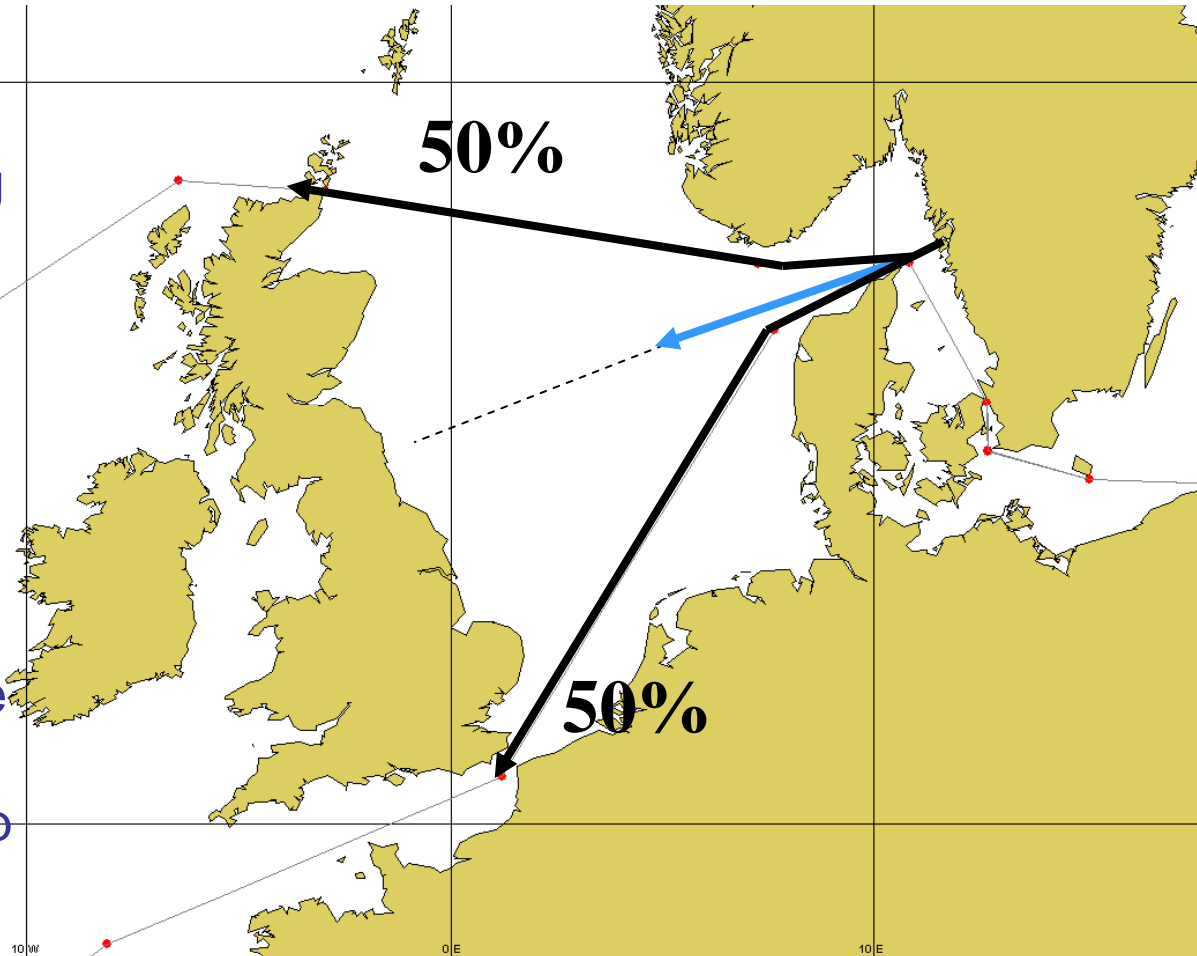
3. **A discussion on statistical inference is still needed . . .**

A common objection to the use of mean forecasts:

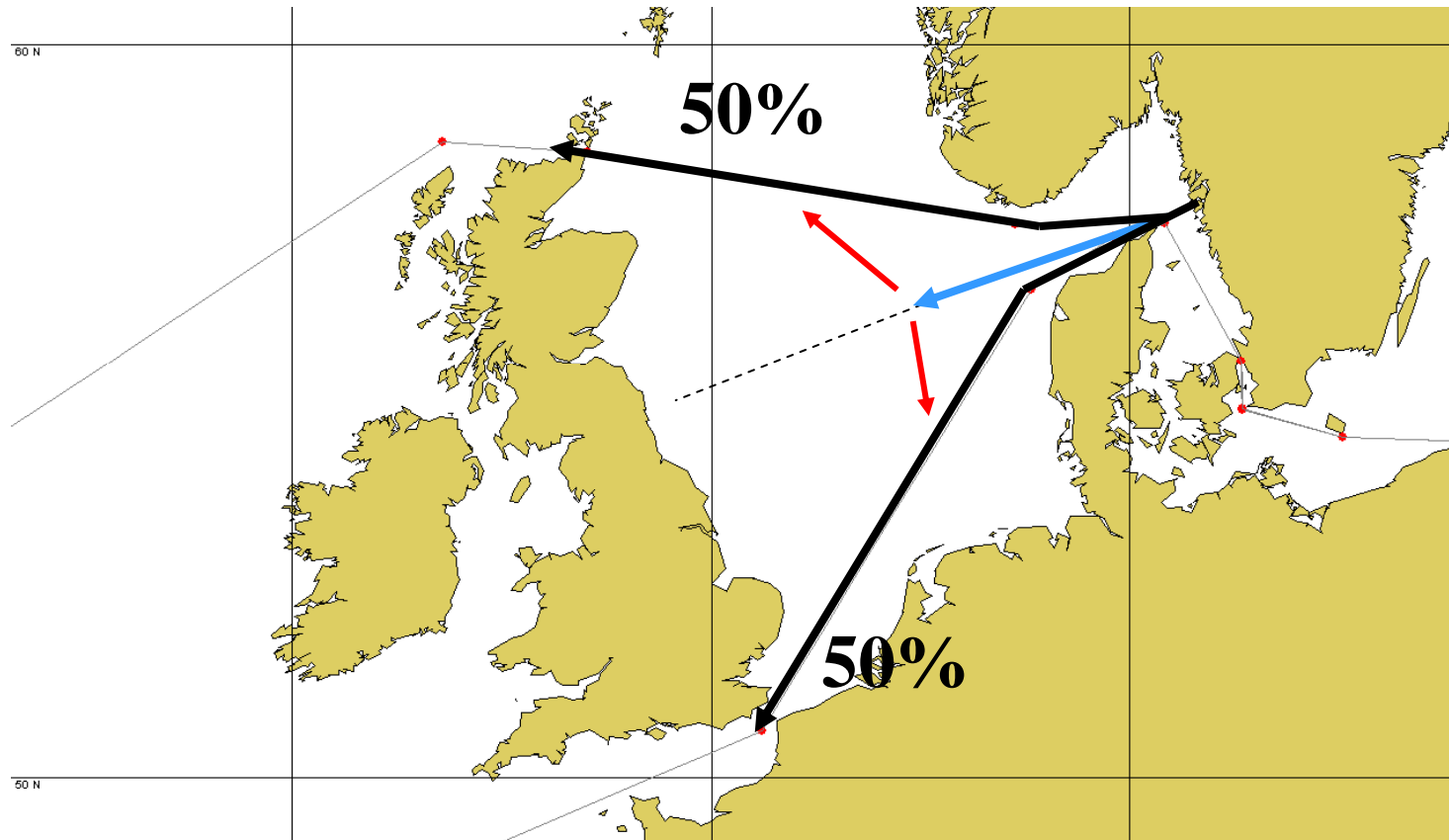
## **-It may lead to absurdities in bi-modal situations**

A ship is leaving Gothenburg heading for the North Atlantic. Half of the indications point to taking the northerly route, half the Channel route

Using the “ensemble mean” would of course steer the ship towards Newcastle harbour!



**But this is exactly what the ship routers would advice, as a “stand-by”**



**waiting for later, and hopefully, more reliable information**

# To repeat: The “Best Data” Paradox

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**Ensemble means are accurate, not “jumpy” and consistent with probabilities, but not necessarily “physically realistic”**

**Direct model output is physically realistic but, less accurate, very “jumpy” and not consistent with the probabilities**

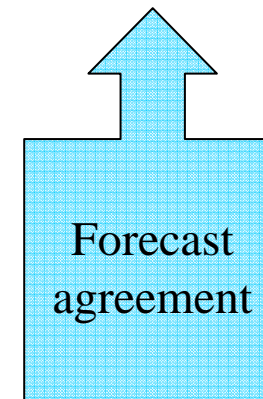
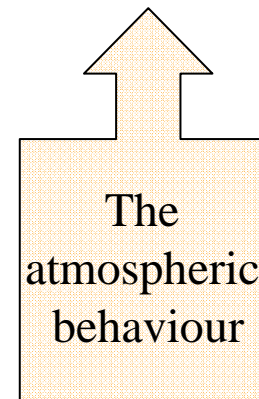
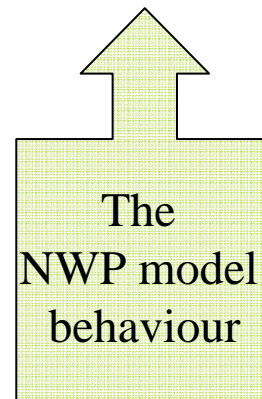
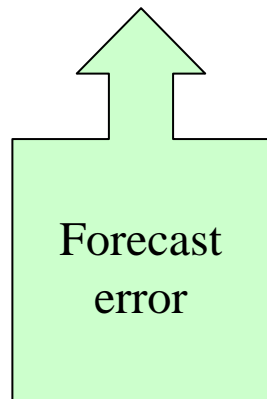
As we will see later in the course, interpreting the mean error is among the most difficult and treacherous things in science

Even more difficult than interpreting the standards **Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)** and the **Anomaly Correlation Coefficient (ACC)**

# II.1.4 The Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)

A simple but powerful equation:

$$(a - b)^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab$$





# The complete formula for RMSE

The full mathematical expression for the RMS error ( $E_j$ ) of a  $j$ -day forecast issued on day  $i$  verified over  $N$  gridpoints over a period of  $T$  days

$$E_j = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{t=1}^T (f_{i,j} - a_{i+j})^2}$$

## From the RMSE to the MSE

We make things easier for us by considering the *square* of the RMSE

$$E_j^2 = \frac{1}{T} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{t=1}^T (f_{i,j} - a_{i+j})^2$$

## Simplifying the notations

$$E_j^2 = \frac{1}{T} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{t=1}^T (f_{i,j} - a_{i+j})^2$$

The notation is further simplified by replacing the  $\Sigma$ s with an overbar symbolising all temporal and spatial averages. We also skip all the indices.

$$E^2 = \overline{(f - a)^2}$$

If we lived in an ideal world a lower RMSE would always be good and a higher RMSE always bad

But we don't, so . . .

***What looks good might be bad, what looks bad might be good*** (Tim Palmer)

The Forecast  
Error equation

$$\overline{(f - o)^2}$$

f=forecast  
o=observation  
c=climate of the  
verifying day

$$\overline{(f - o)^2} = \overline{(f - c + c - o)^2}$$

$$\overline{(f - o)^2} = \overline{(f - c)^2} + \overline{(o - c)^2} - \overline{2(f - c)(o - c)}$$

Forecast  
error

The  
NWP model  
variability

The  
atmospheric  
variability

Forecast  
agreement or "skill"

# II.1.5 Understanding the Anomaly Correlation Coefficient (ACC) and its relation to the RMSE

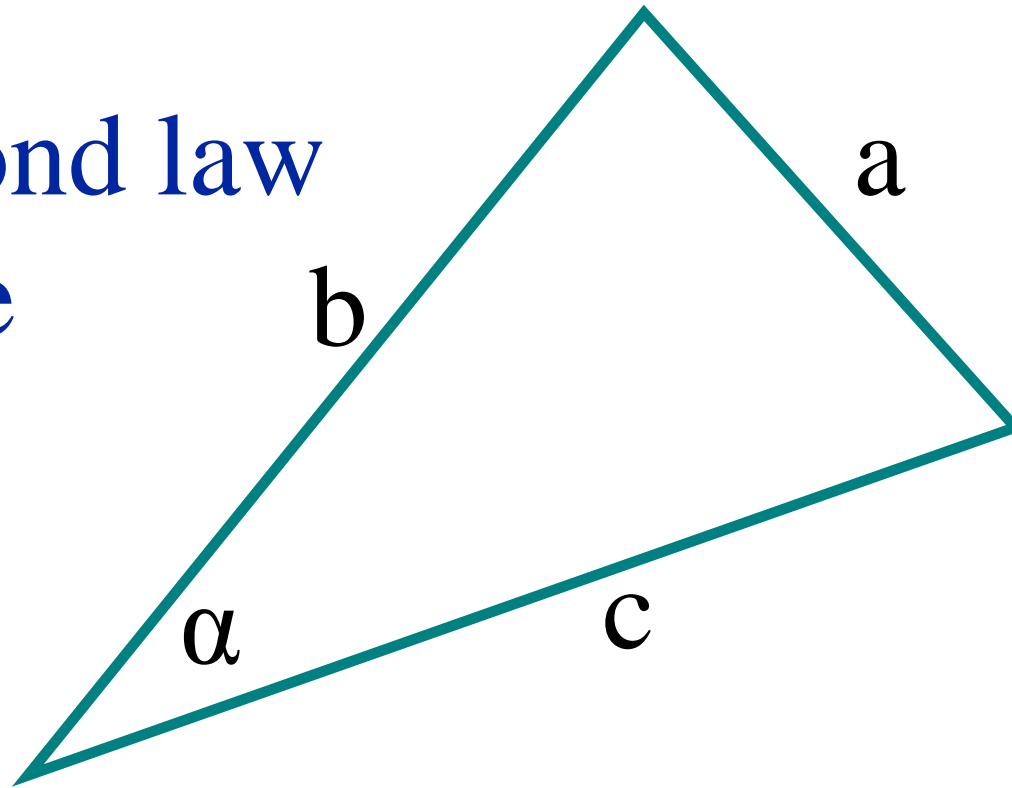
## The RMSE:

$$E^2 = \overline{(f-c)^2} + \overline{(a-c)^2} - 2\overline{(f-c)(a-c)}$$

## The anomaly correlation coefficient:

$$ACC = \frac{\overline{(f-c)(a-c)}}{|\overline{f-c}| |\overline{a-c}|}$$

# The second law of cosine

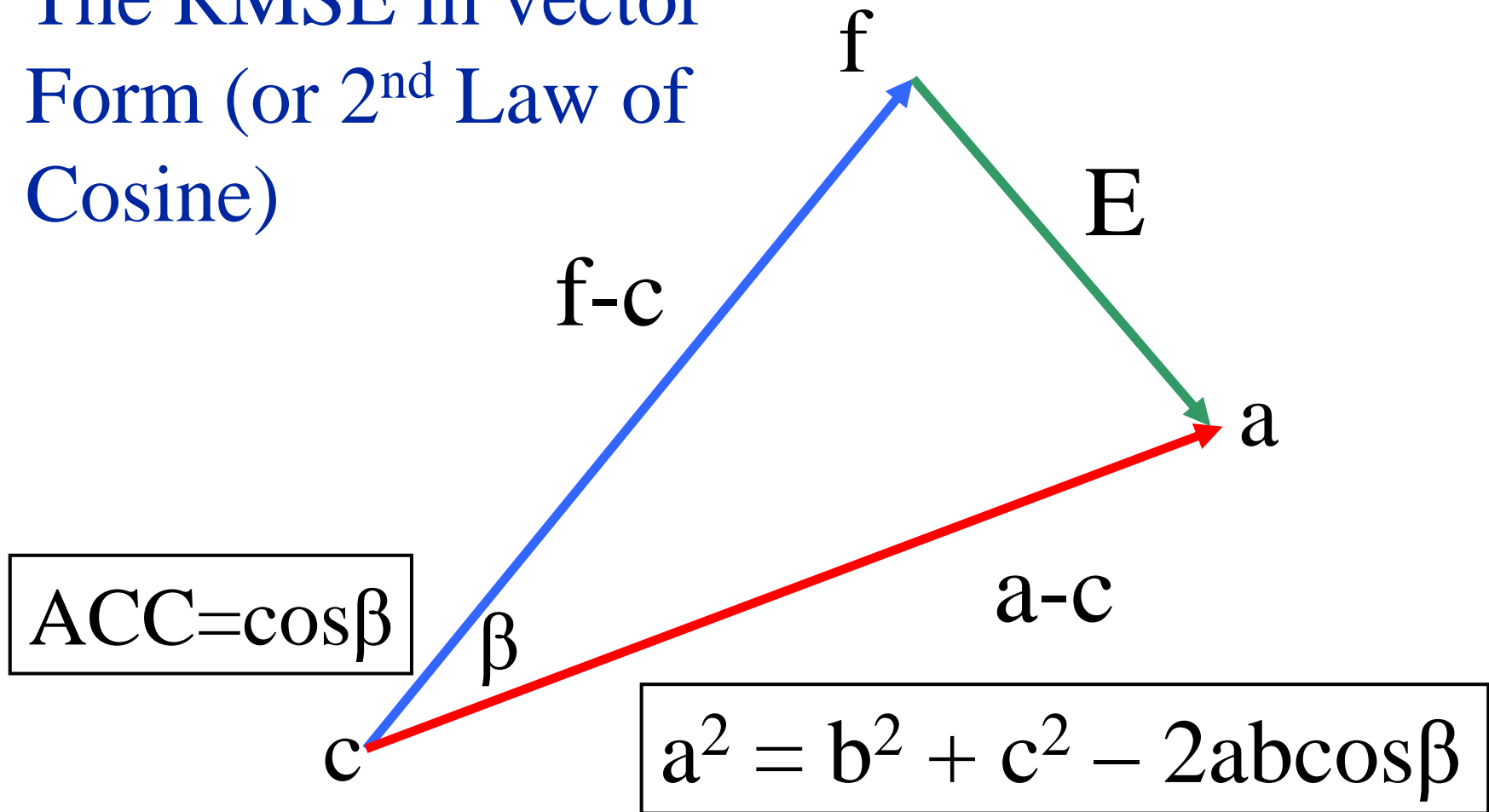


$$a^2 = b^2 + c^2 - 2ab \cdot \cos \alpha$$

$$E^2 = (f - c)^2 + (a - c)^2 - 2(f - c)(a - c)$$

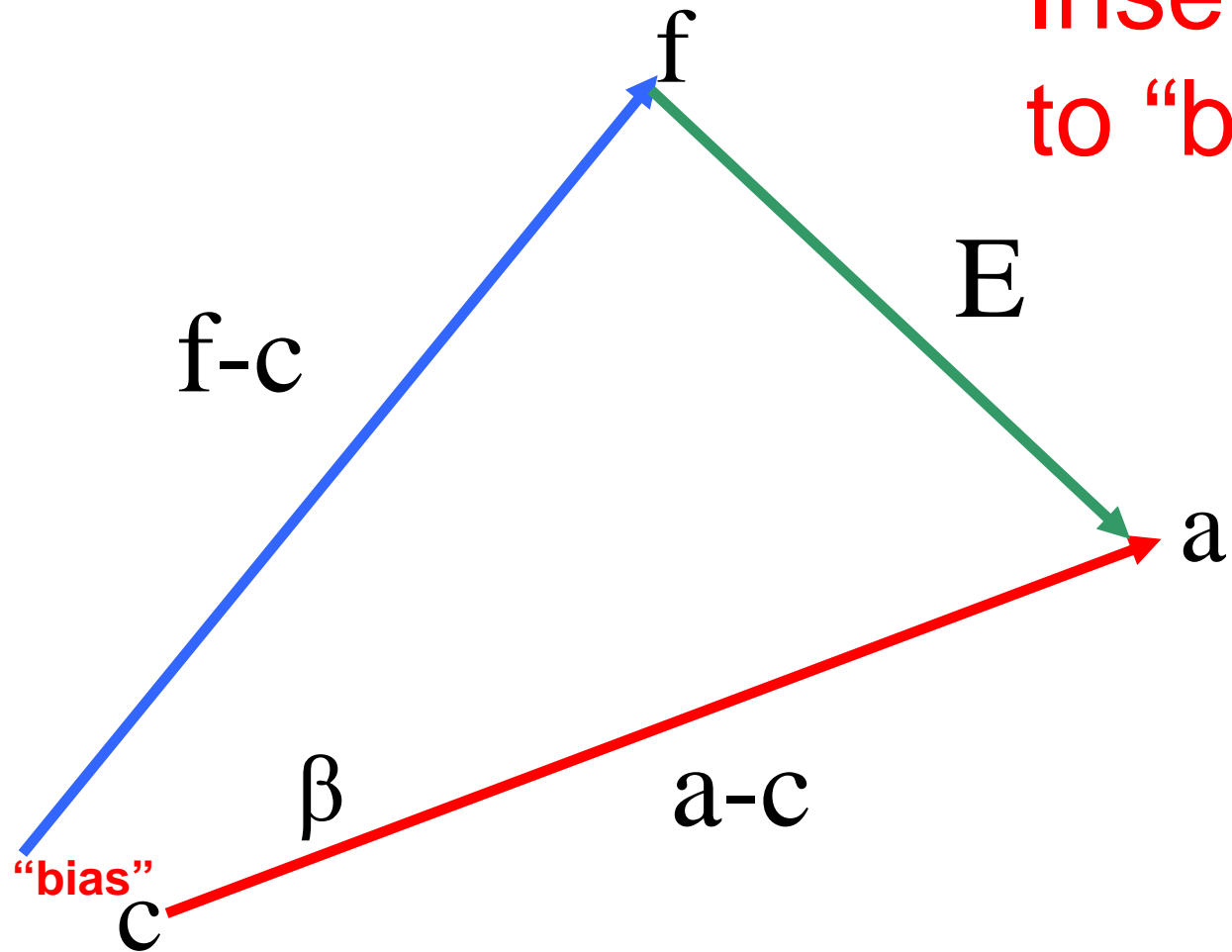


The RMSE in vector Form (or 2<sup>nd</sup> Law of Cosine)

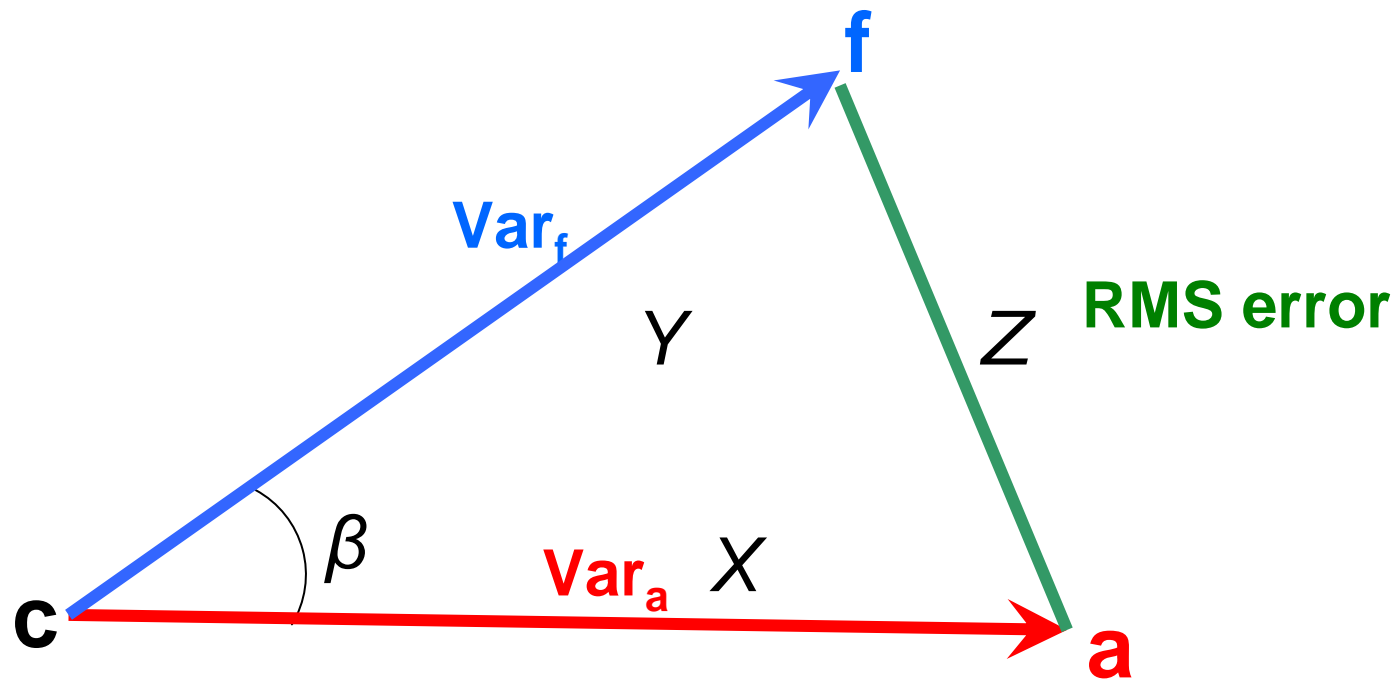


$$E^2 = \overline{(f-c)^2} + \overline{(a-c)^2} - \overline{2(f-c)(a-c)}$$

Inensitive  
to “biases”



Using the cosine theorem as a shortcut to understand the relation between RMS error, anomaly correlation coefficient (ACC) and model activity (variability)

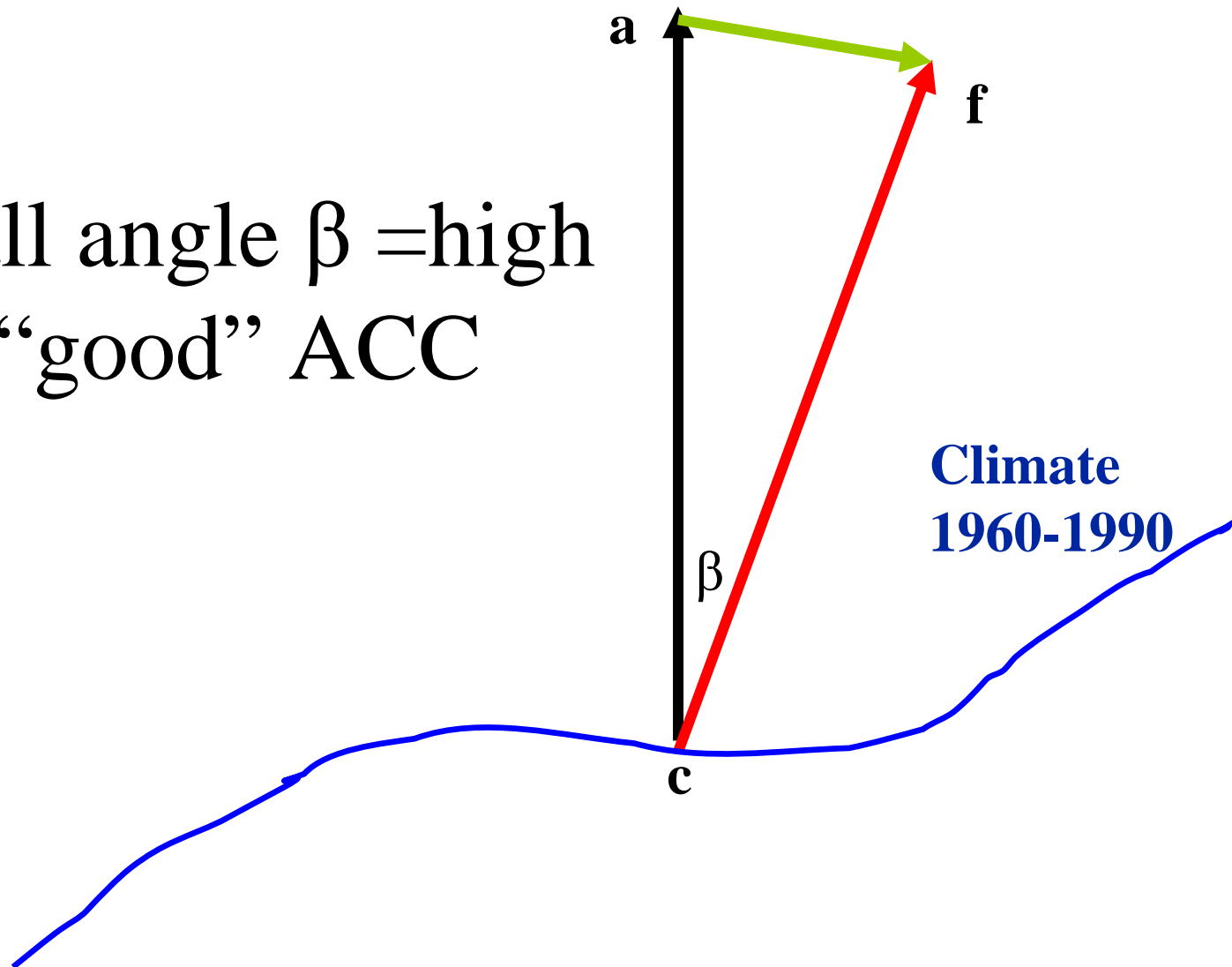


$$\cos\beta = ACC$$

# II.1.6 Interpreting the RMSE

# Anomaly correlations and climate reference

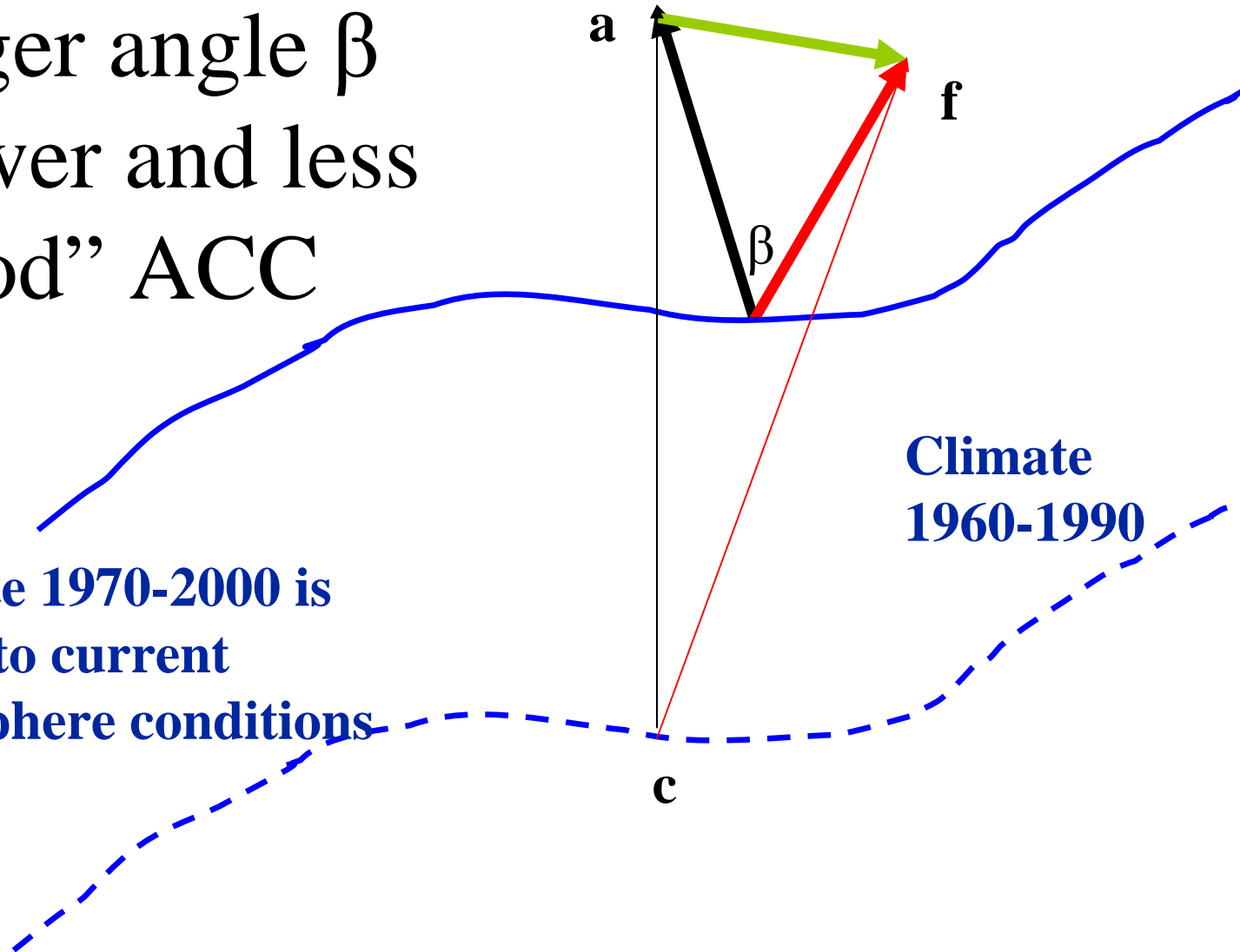
Small angle  $\beta$  = high  
and “good” ACC



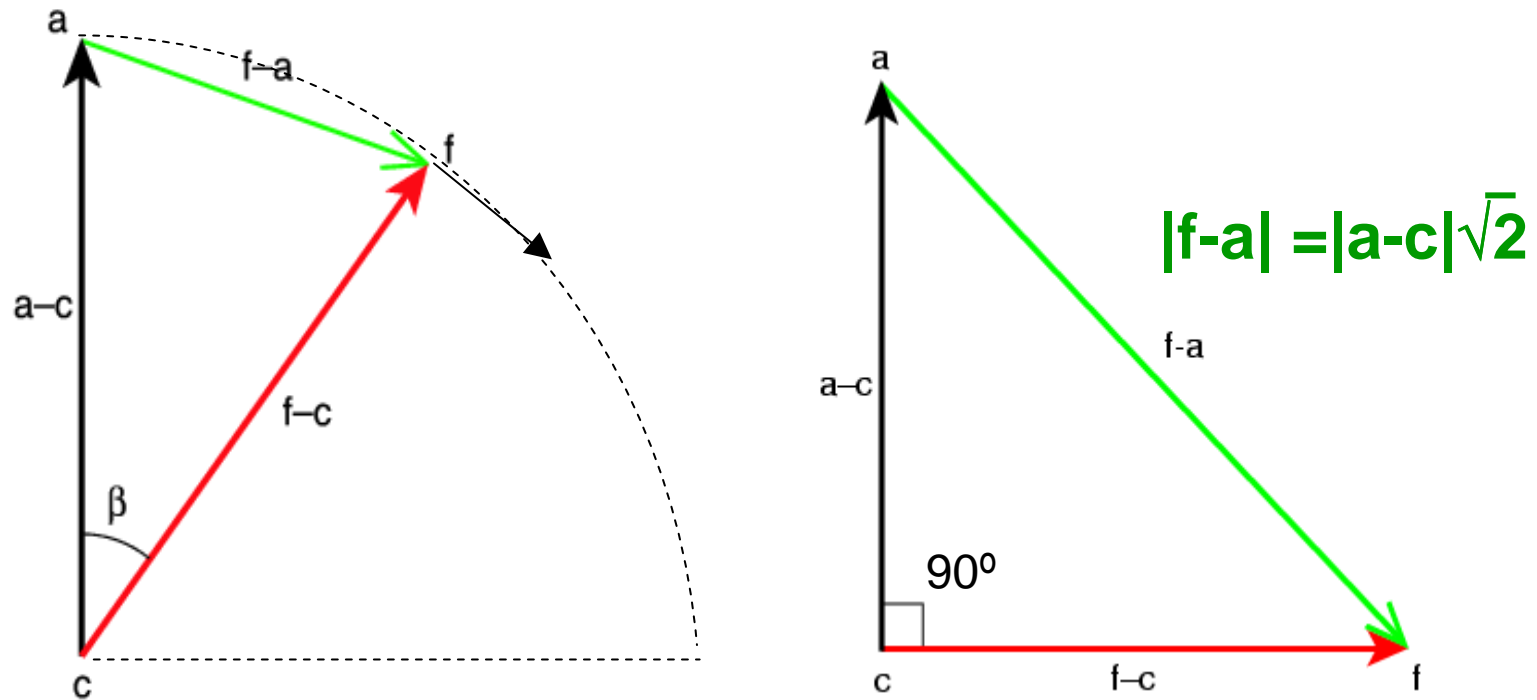
# Anomaly correlations and climate reference

Larger angle  $\beta$   
= lower and less  
“good” ACC

Climate 1970-2000 is  
closer to current  
atmosphere conditions

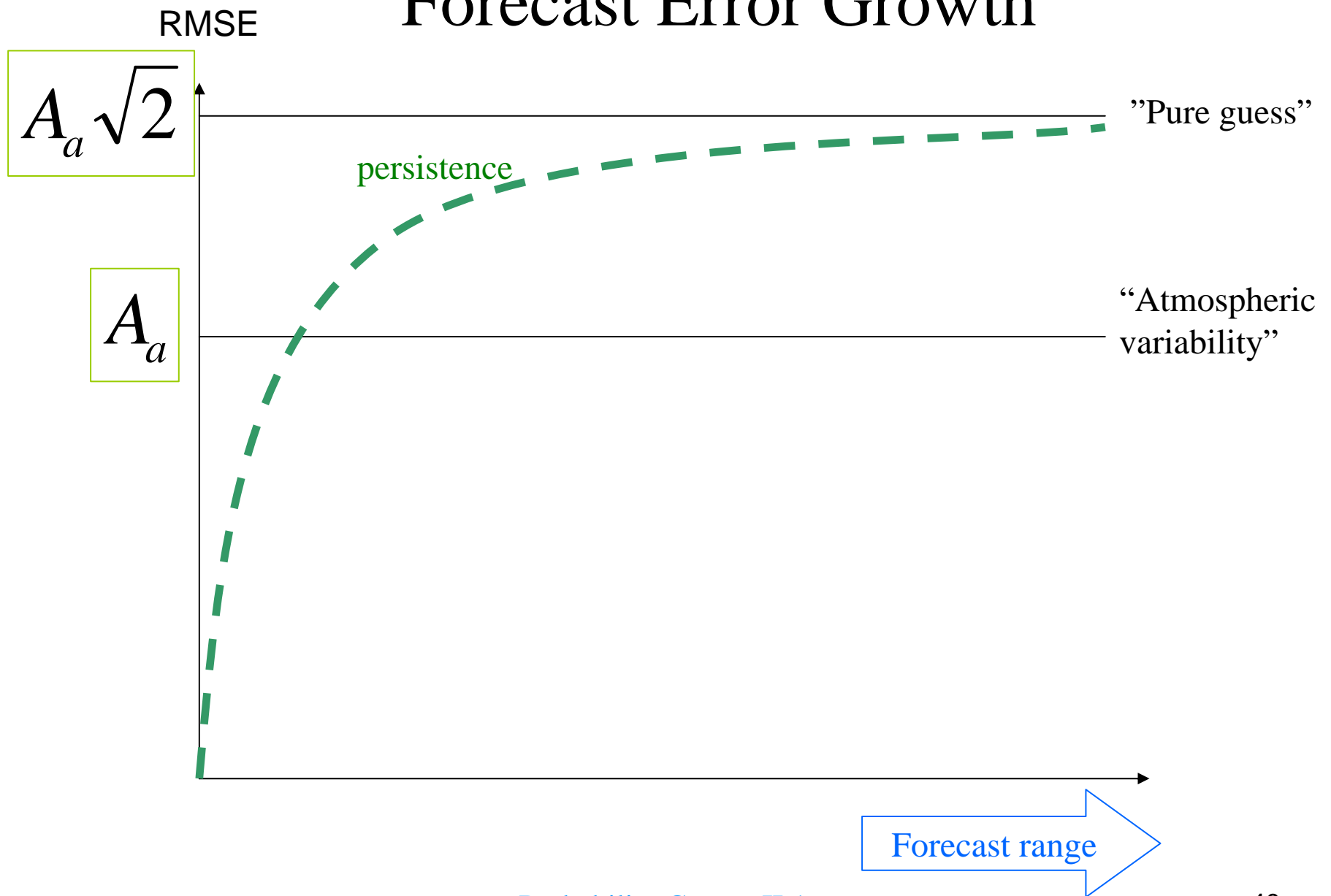


# The RMS error saturation level



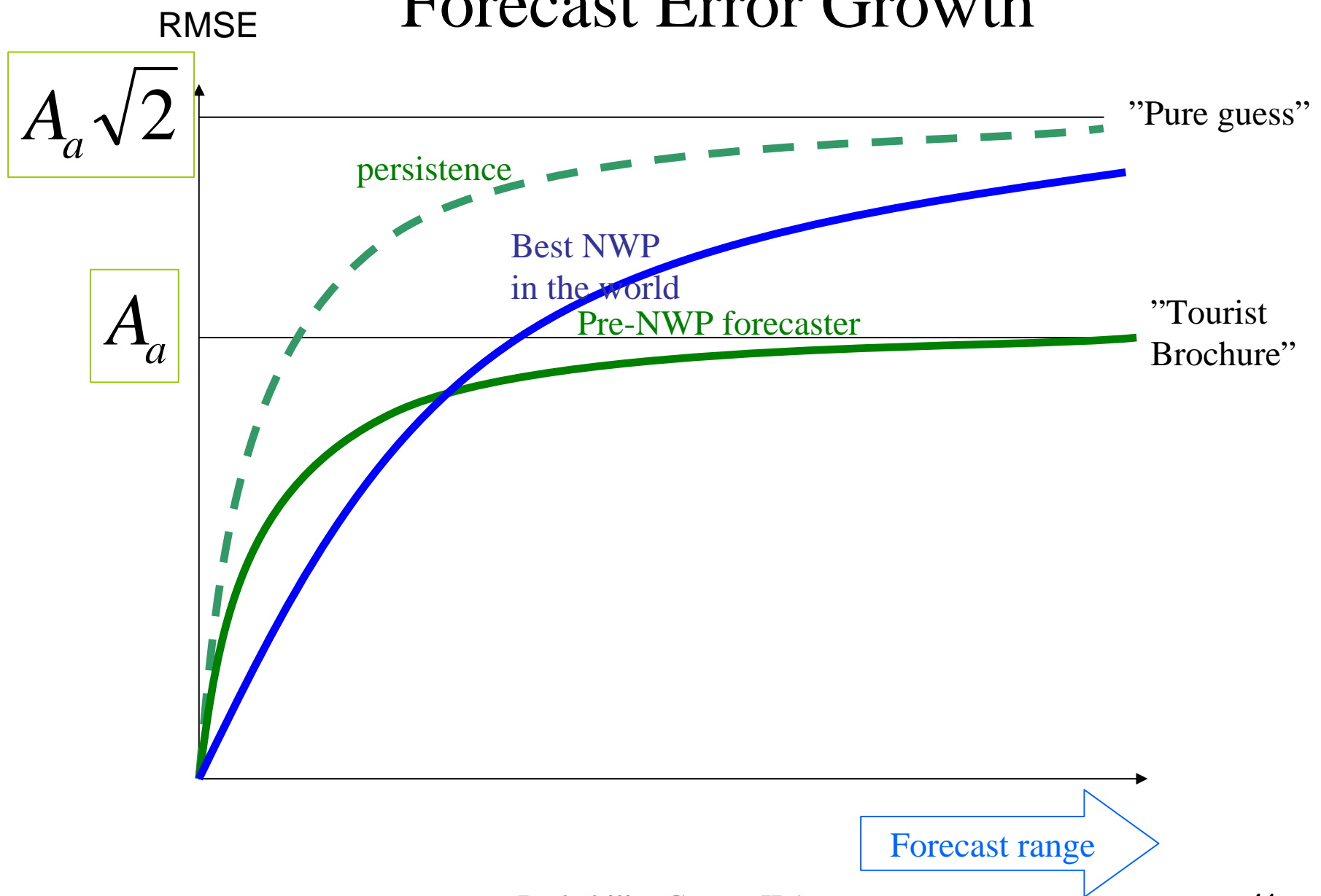
**With decreasing forecast accuracy the angle  $\beta$  will increase.  
The maximum RMSE equals the variability times  $\sqrt{2}$**

# Forecast Error Growth



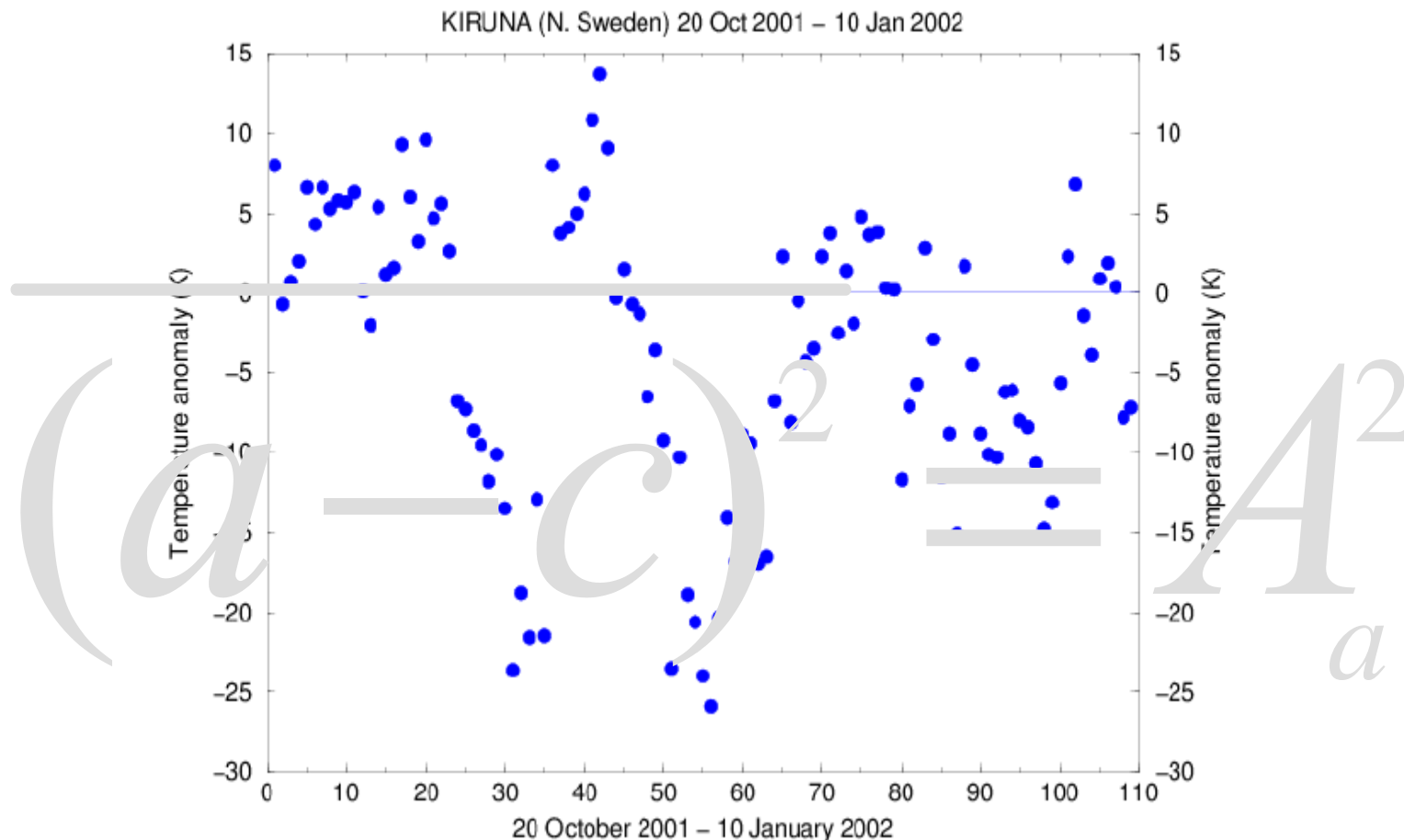


# Forecast Error Growth



# The interpretation of the $\overline{(a-c)}$ term

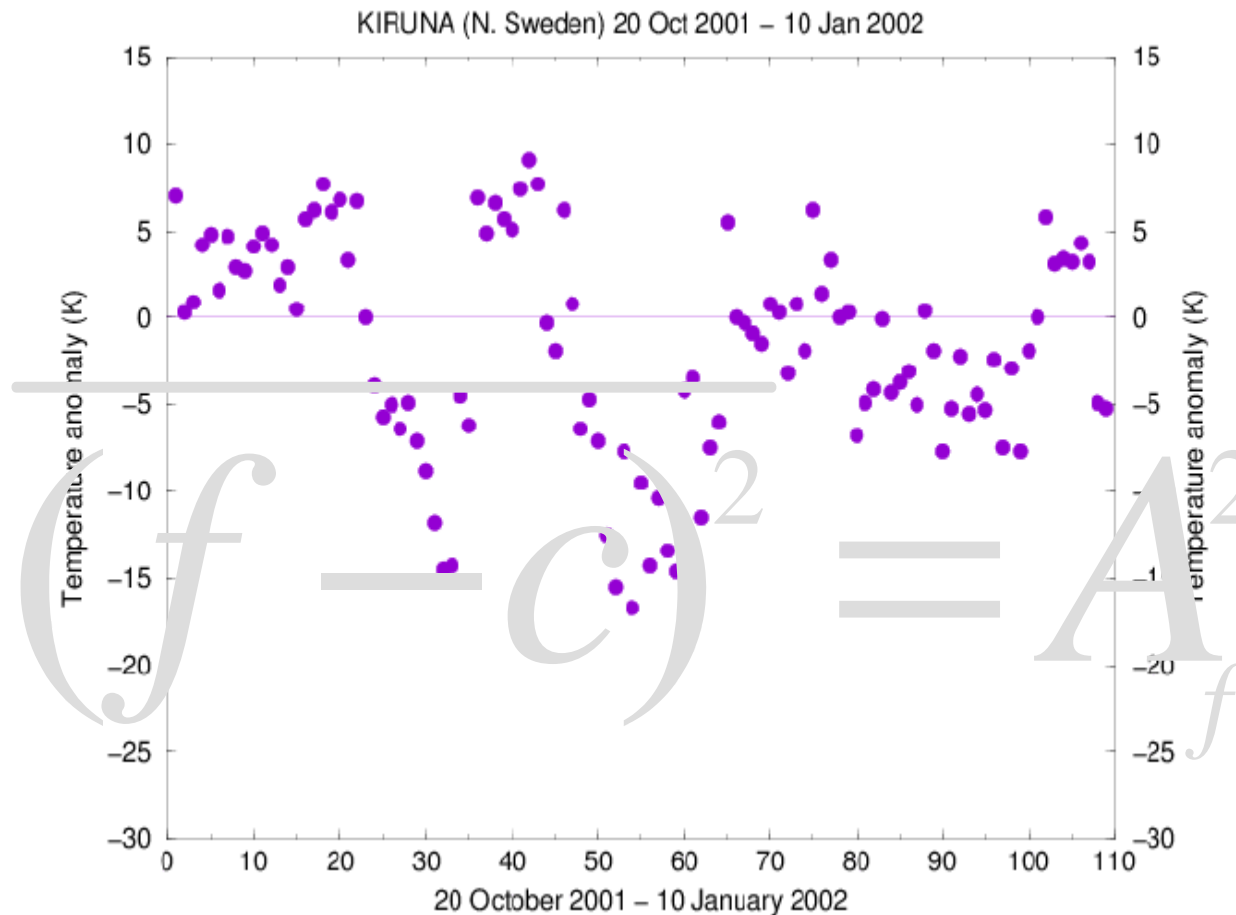
The *observed* variability around the climatological mean



The magnitude of this term can not be affected by human intervention

# The interpretation of the $(f-c)$ term

## The *forecast variability* around the climatological mean



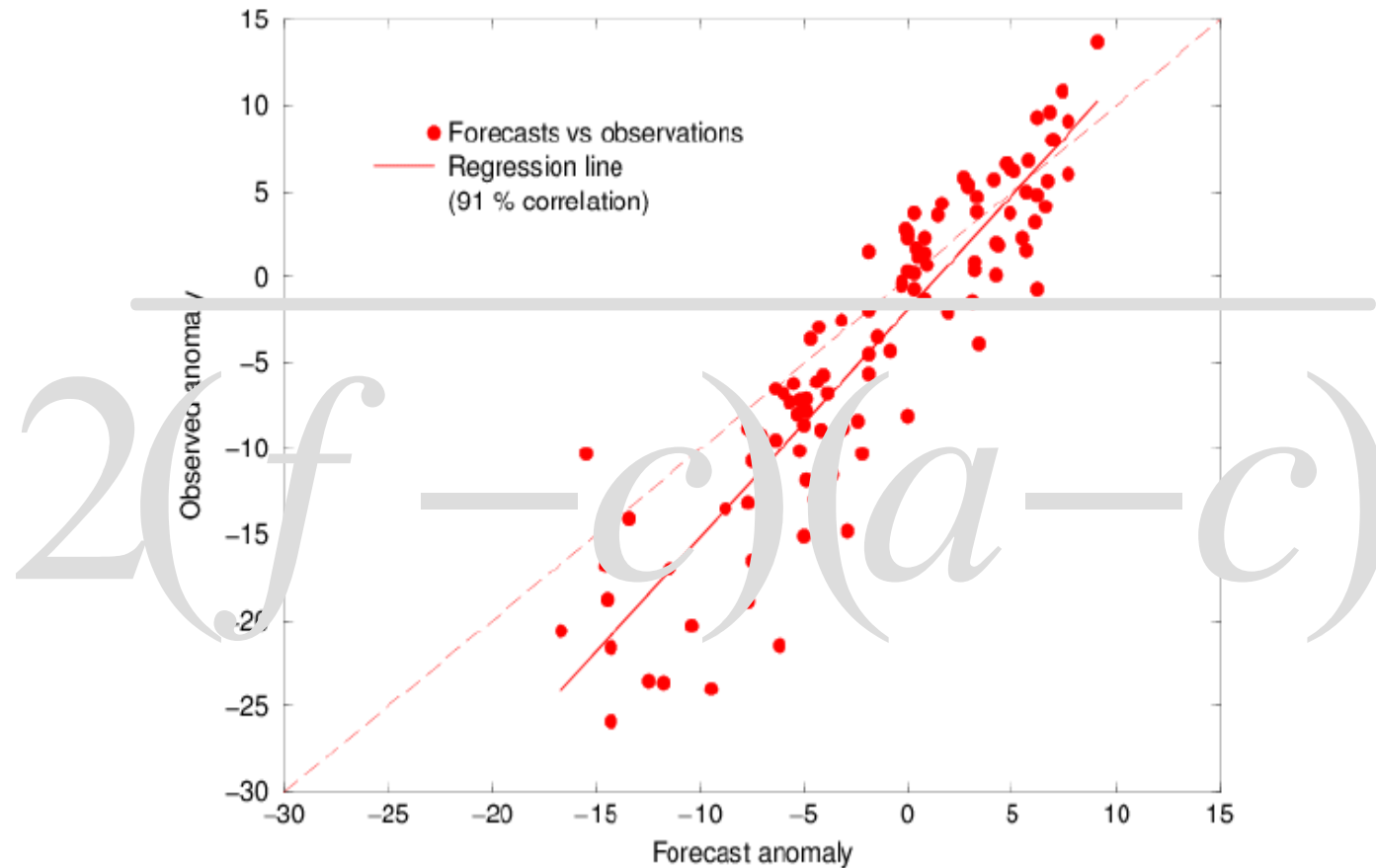
The magnitude of this term can indeed be affected by human intervention

Probability Course II:1

Bologna 9-13 February 2015

# The interpretation of the “skill” term

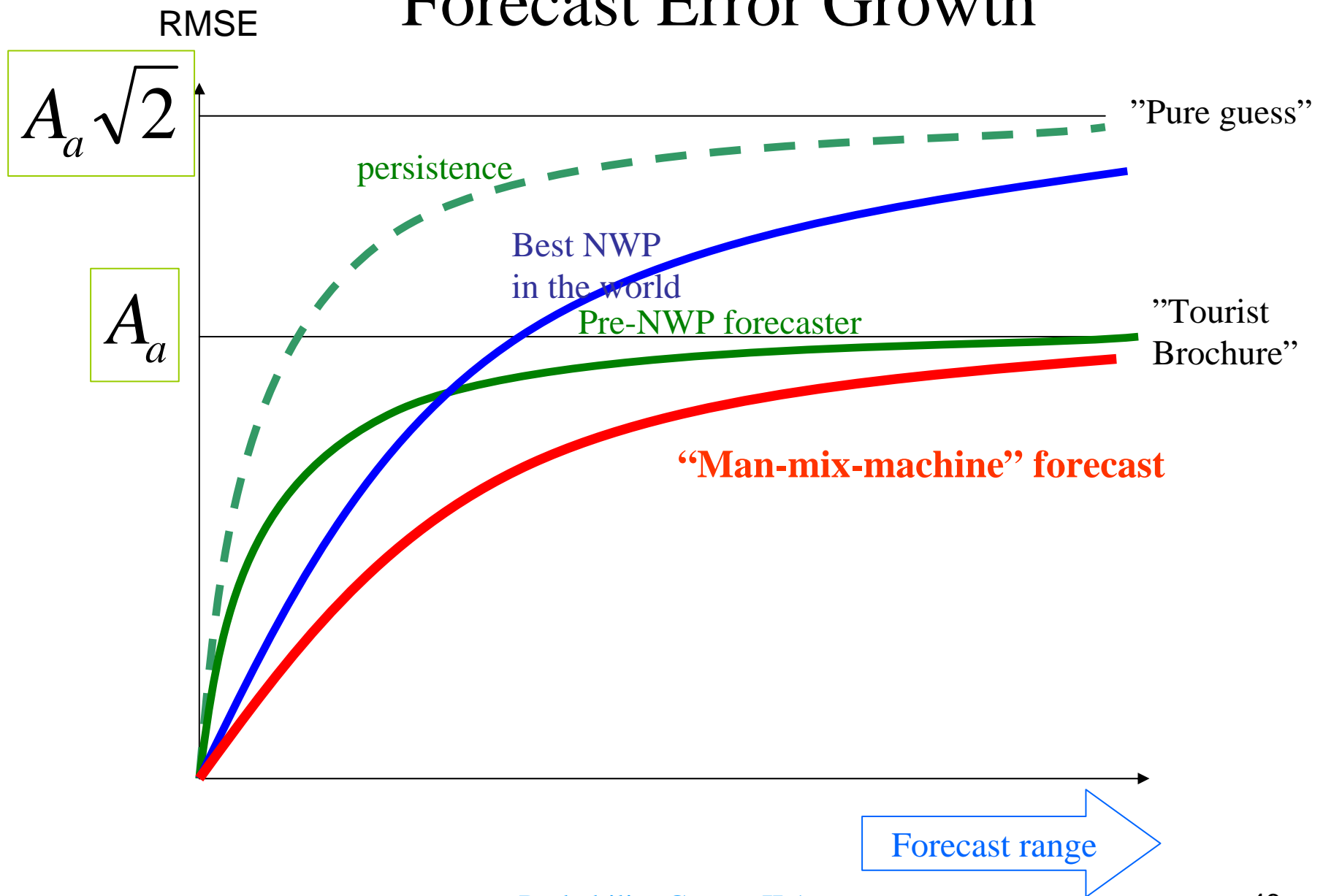
The correspondence between  $\overline{(f-c)}$  and  $\overline{(a-c)}$



This is the *only* term in the RMSE decomposition which is related to the predictive skill of the model

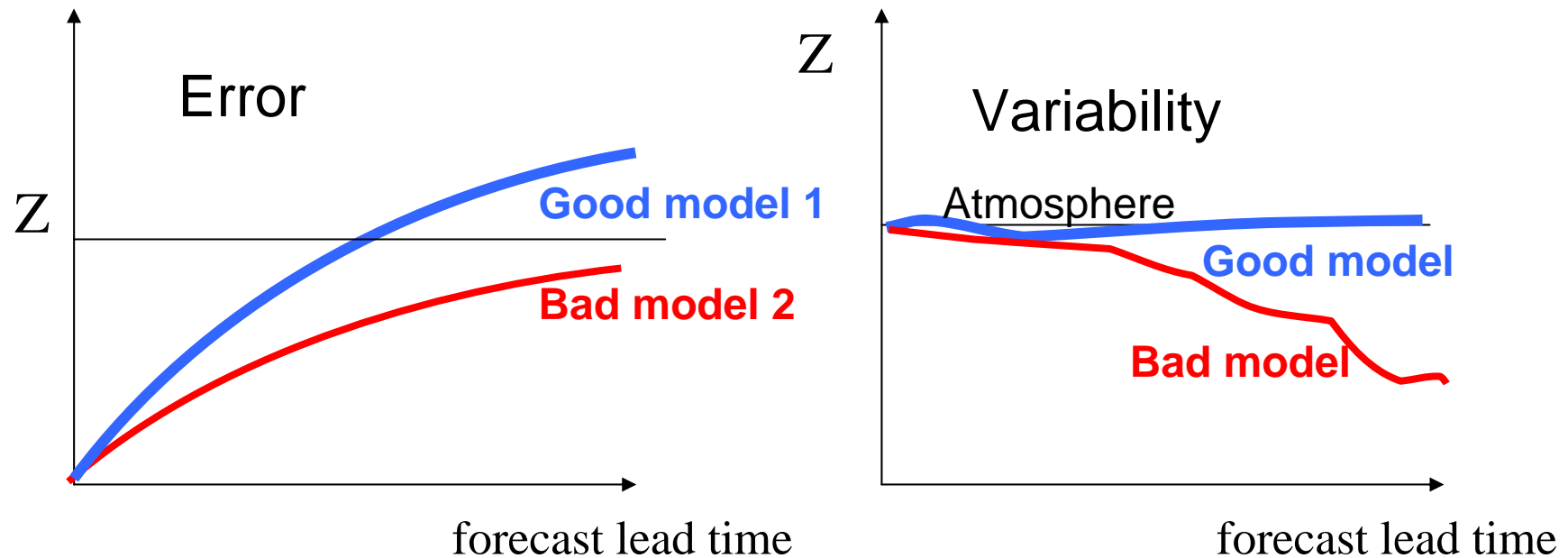
## II.1.7 What looks good . . .

# Forecast Error Growth



It is not trivial to compare a human forecaster with a NWP system since they strive for different objectives

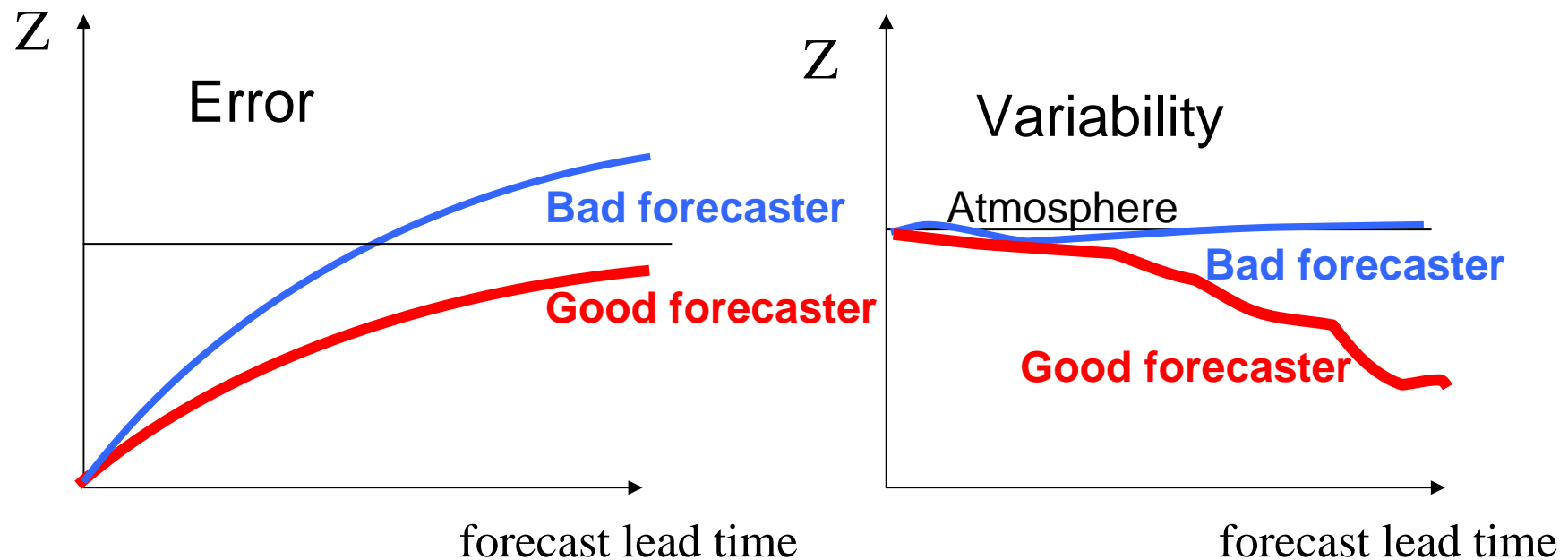
# The good versus the bad NWP model



**The decrease in variability, and thus ability to simulate the atmospheric motions, may give low (good) RMSE verifications**



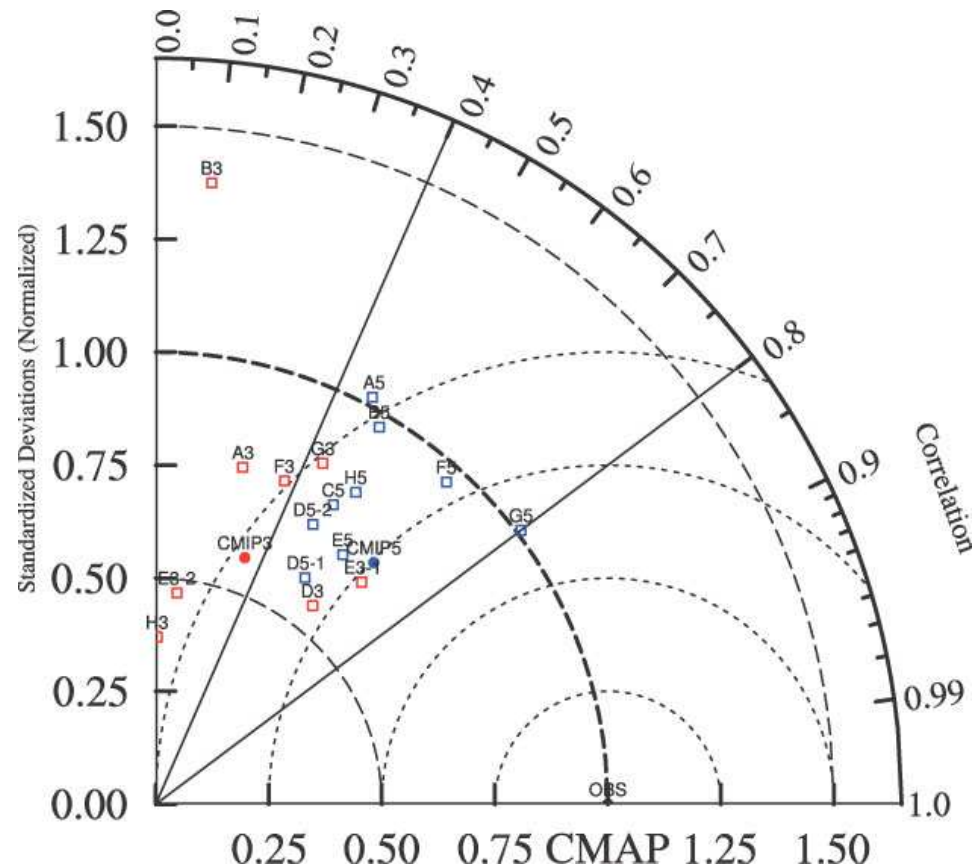
# The **good** versus the **bad** forecaster

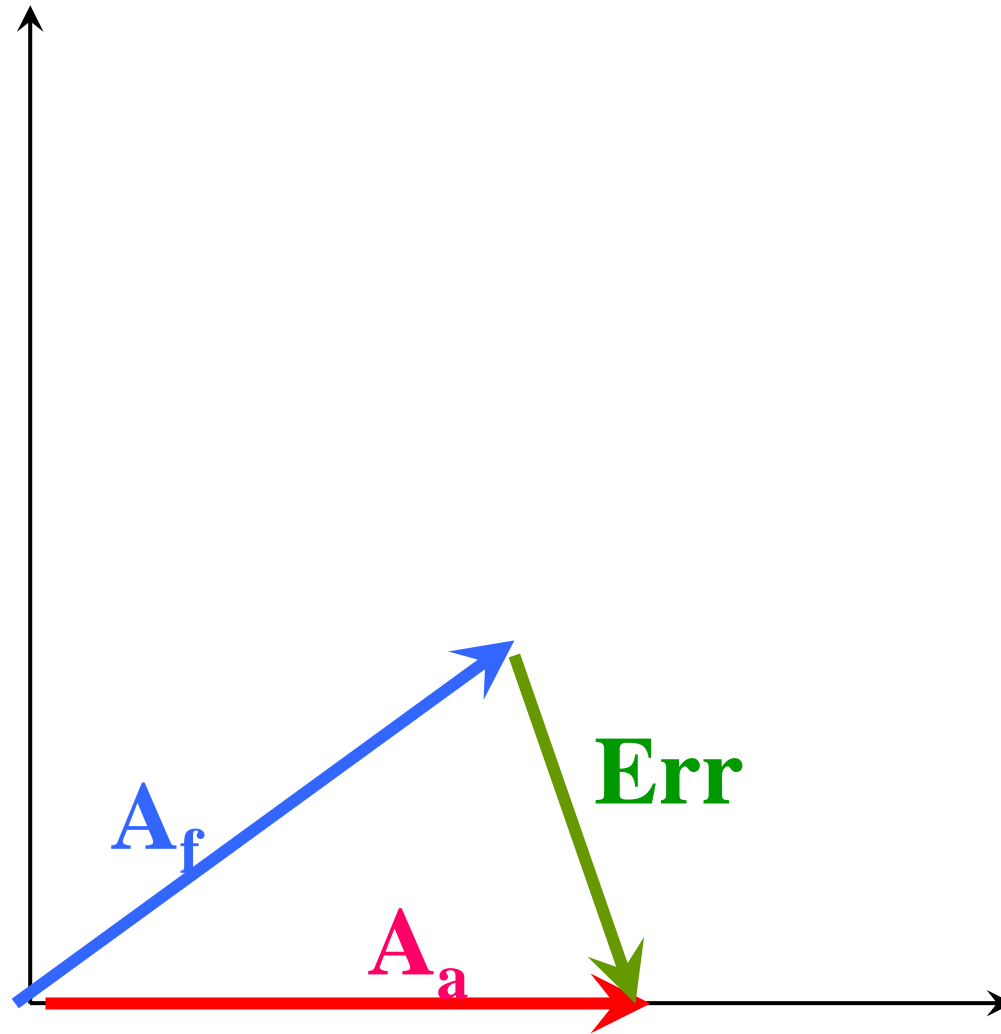


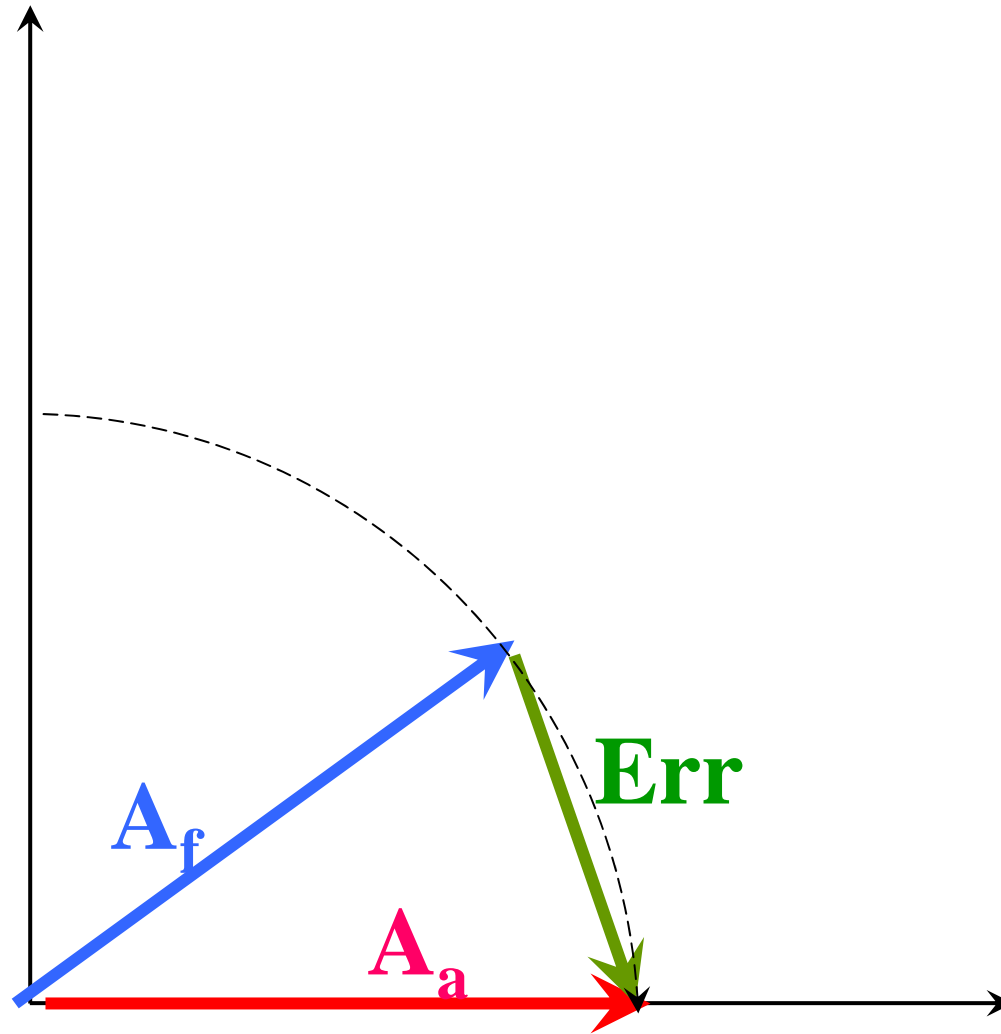
**The decrease in variability, due to a skilful filtering of non-predictable atmospheric features, may yield low (good) RMSE verifications**

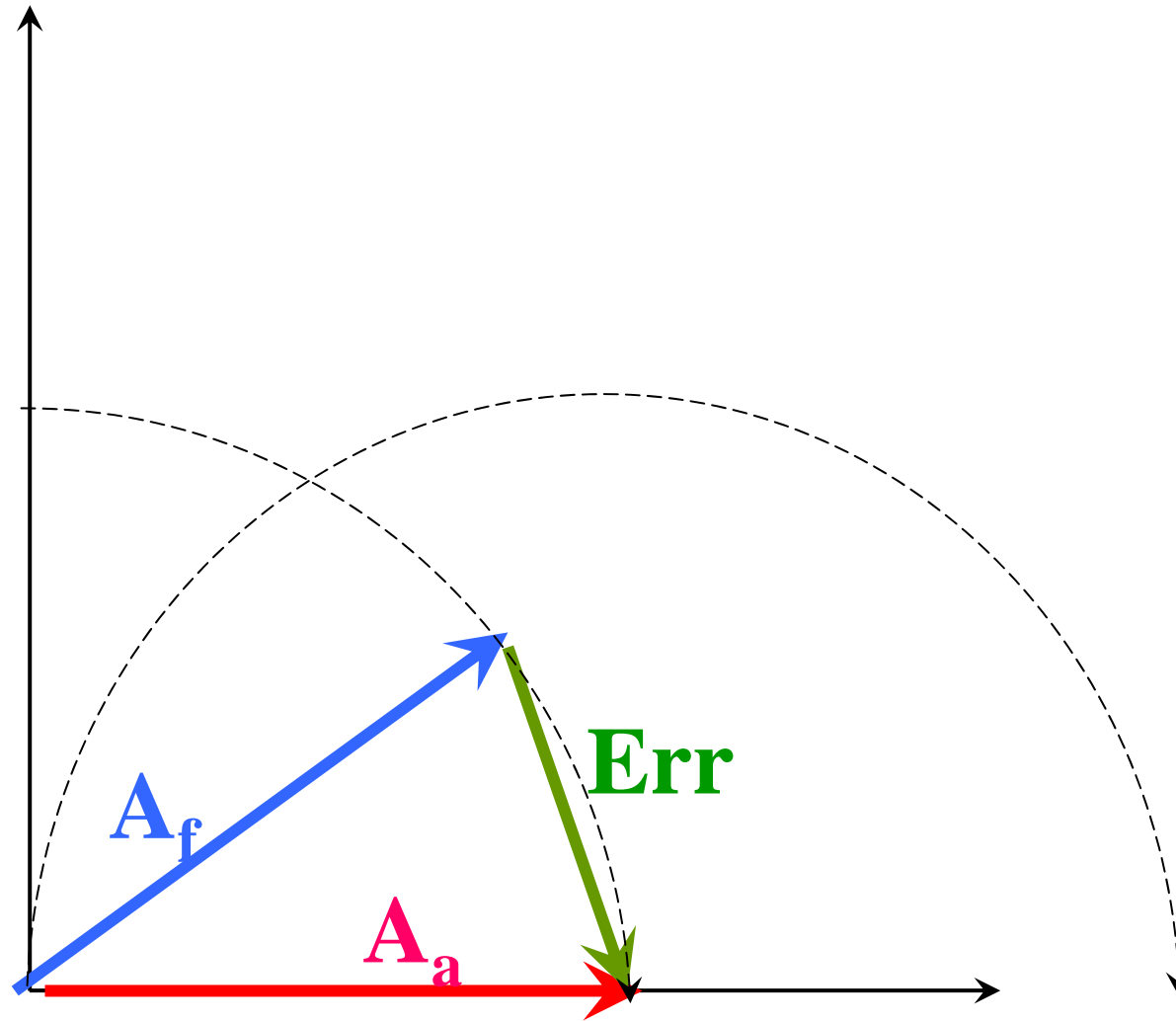
# II.1.8 The Taylor diagram

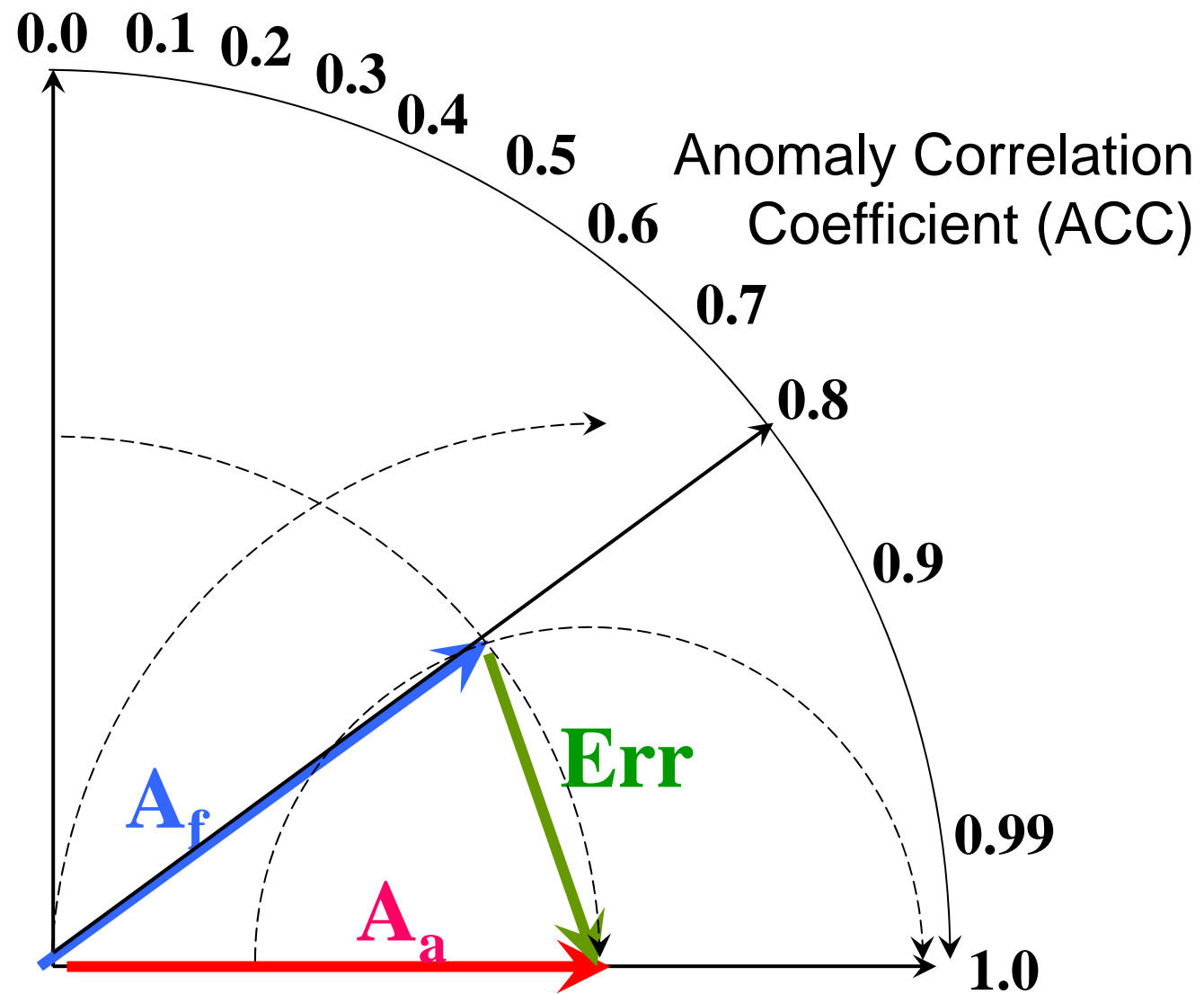
# The Taylor Diagram



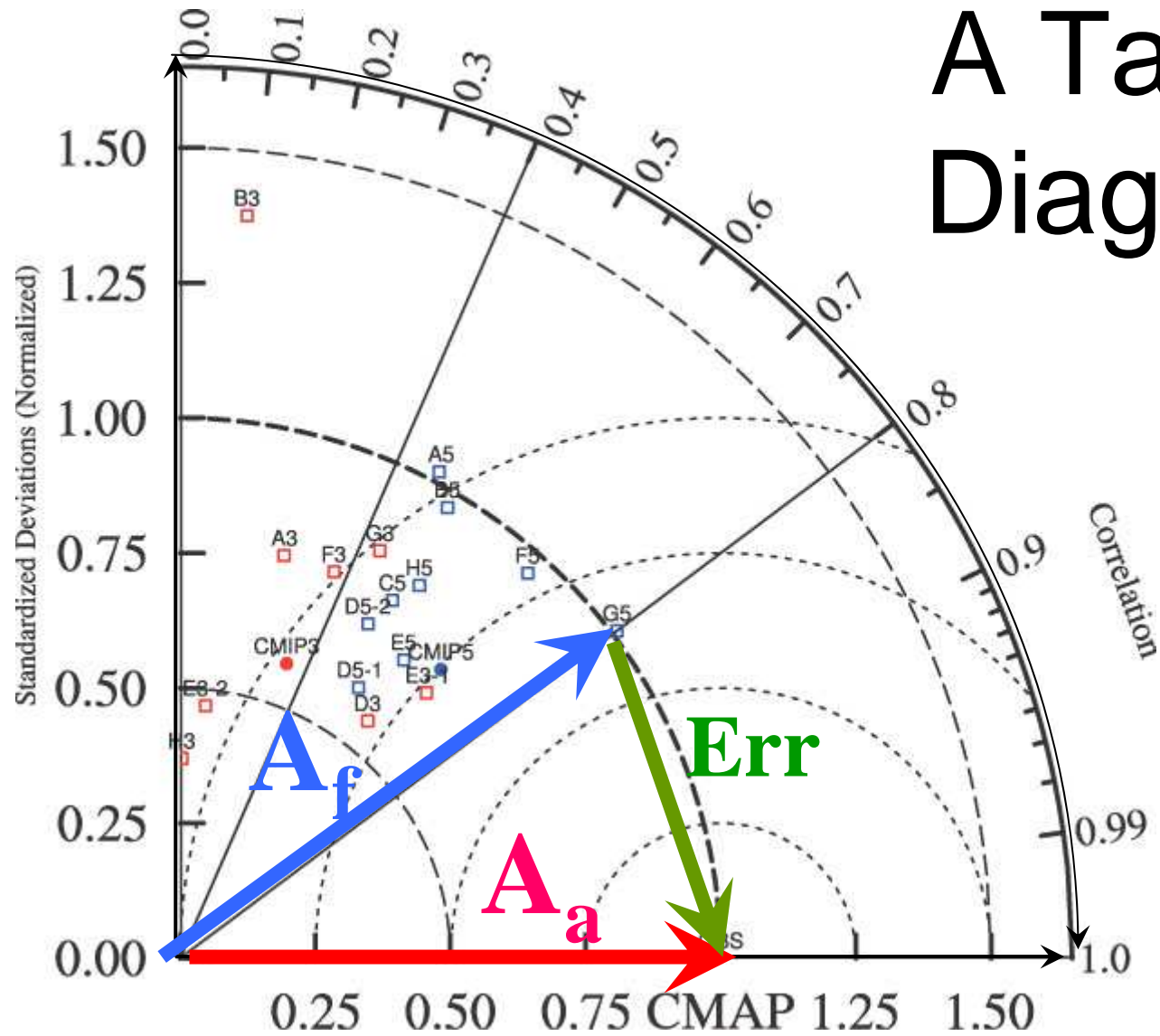








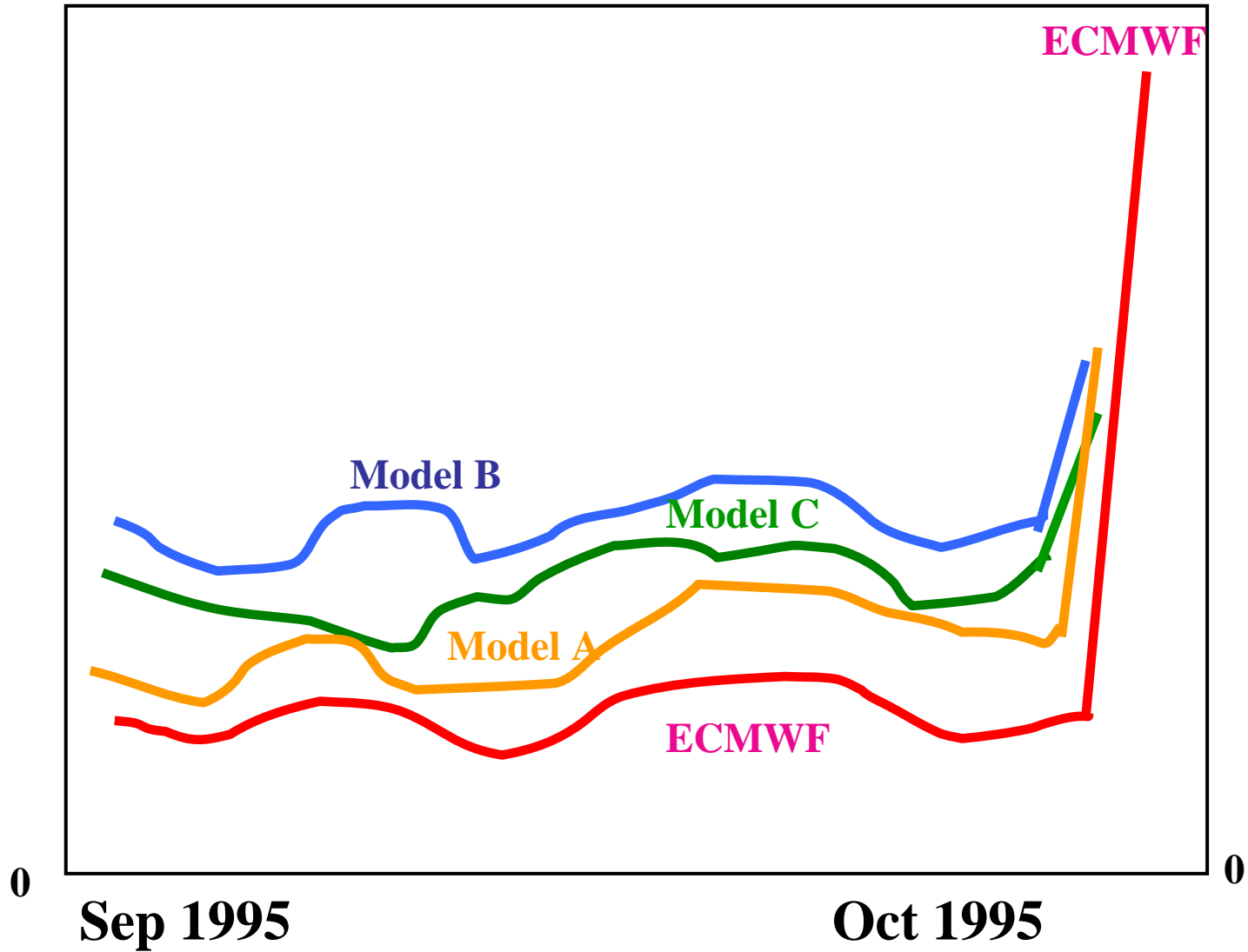
# A Taylor Diagram

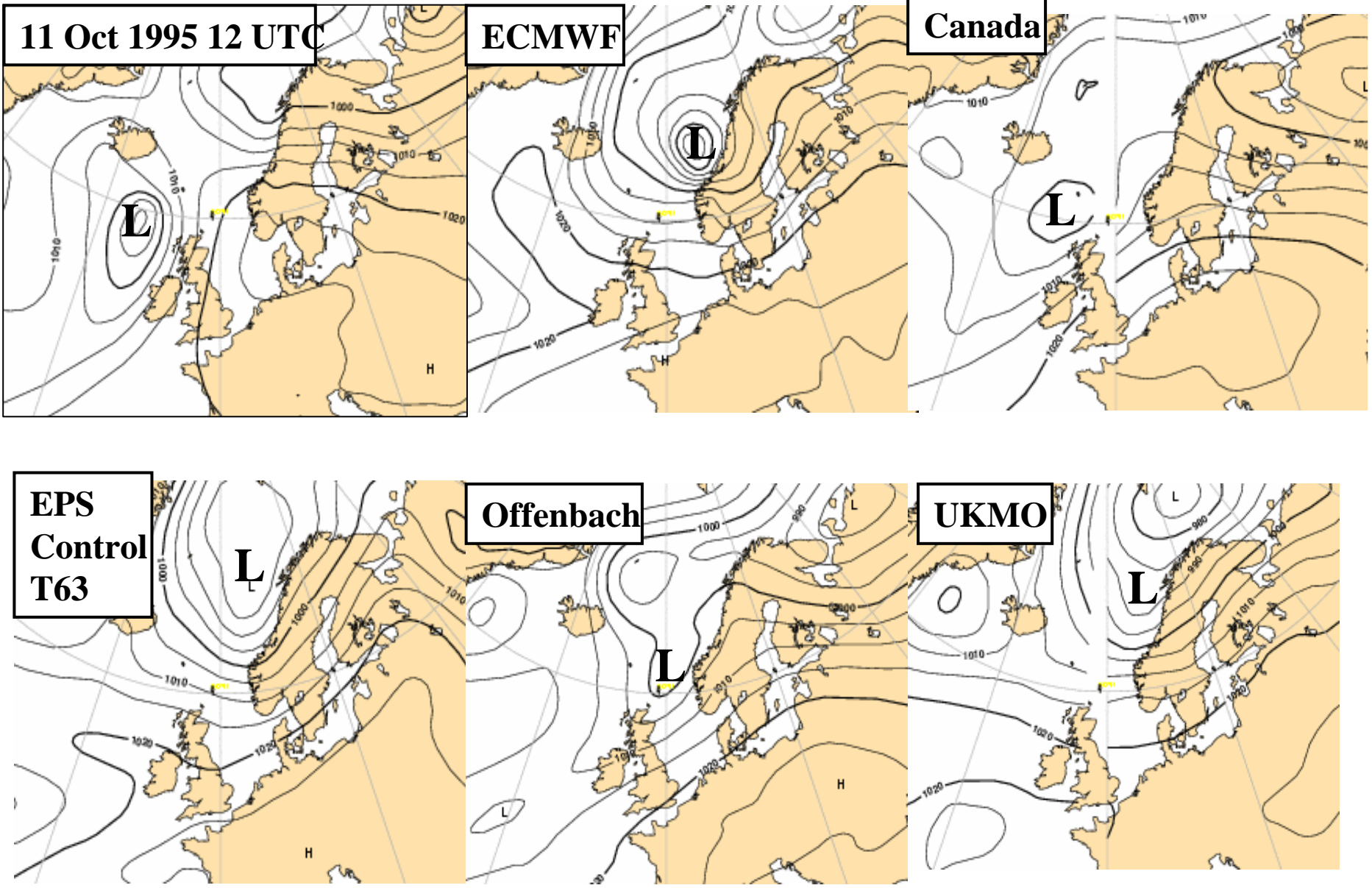


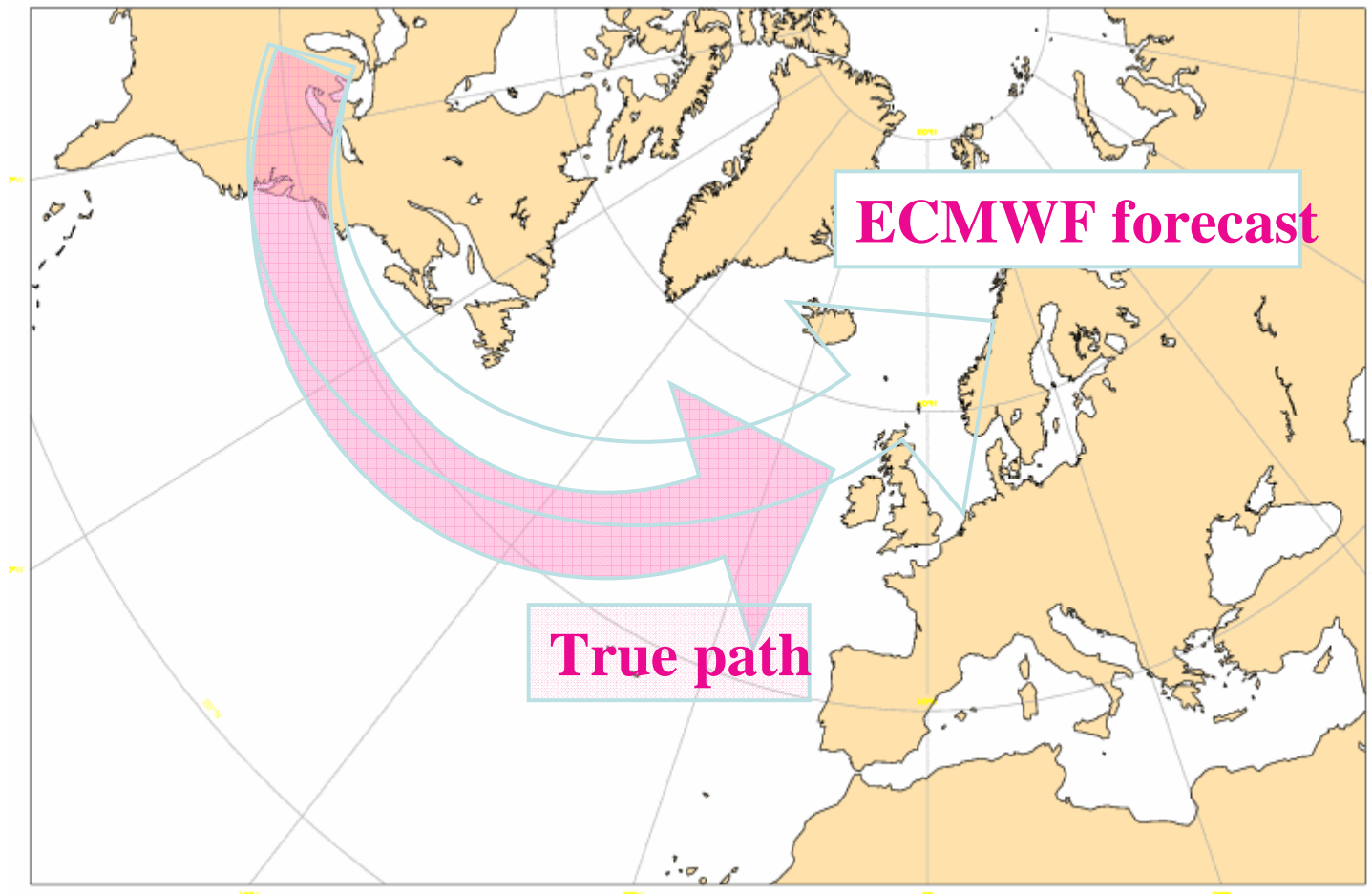


## II.1.9. The double penalty effect

# Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)





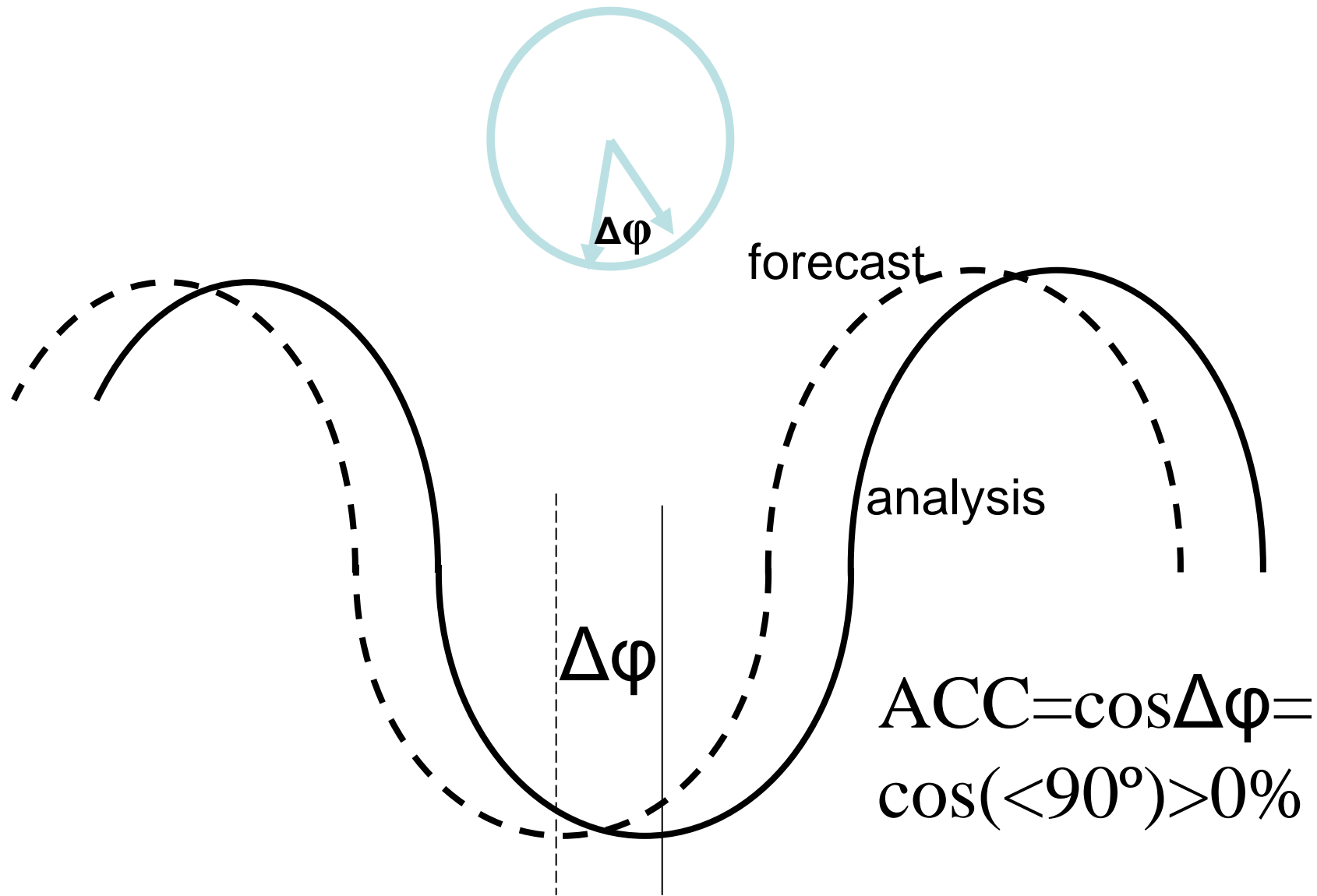


The ECMWF forecast scored worst  
because of

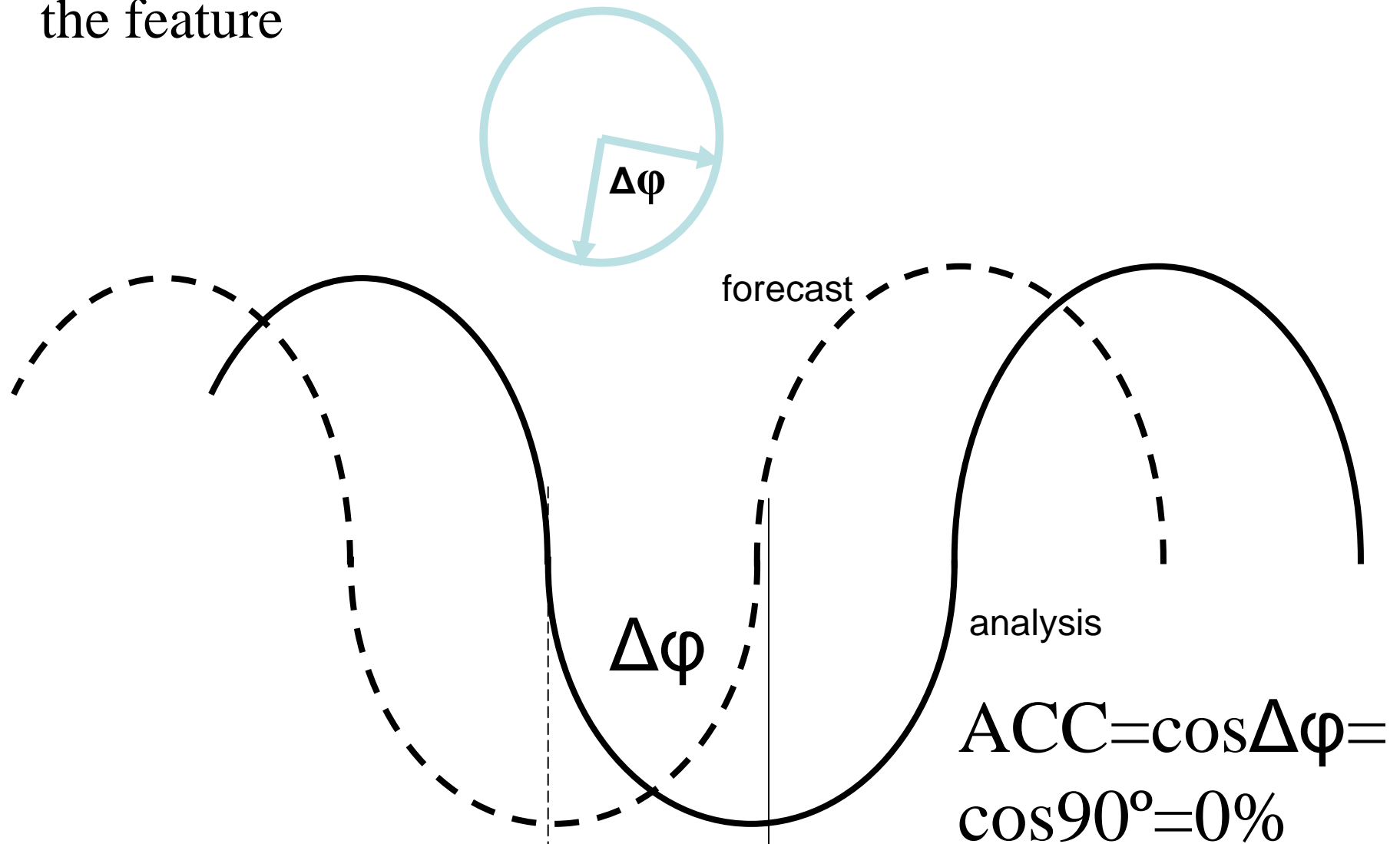
## The “Double Penalty Effect”

The forecast is punished both for having  
an anomaly where there isn't one and not  
having an anomaly where there is one

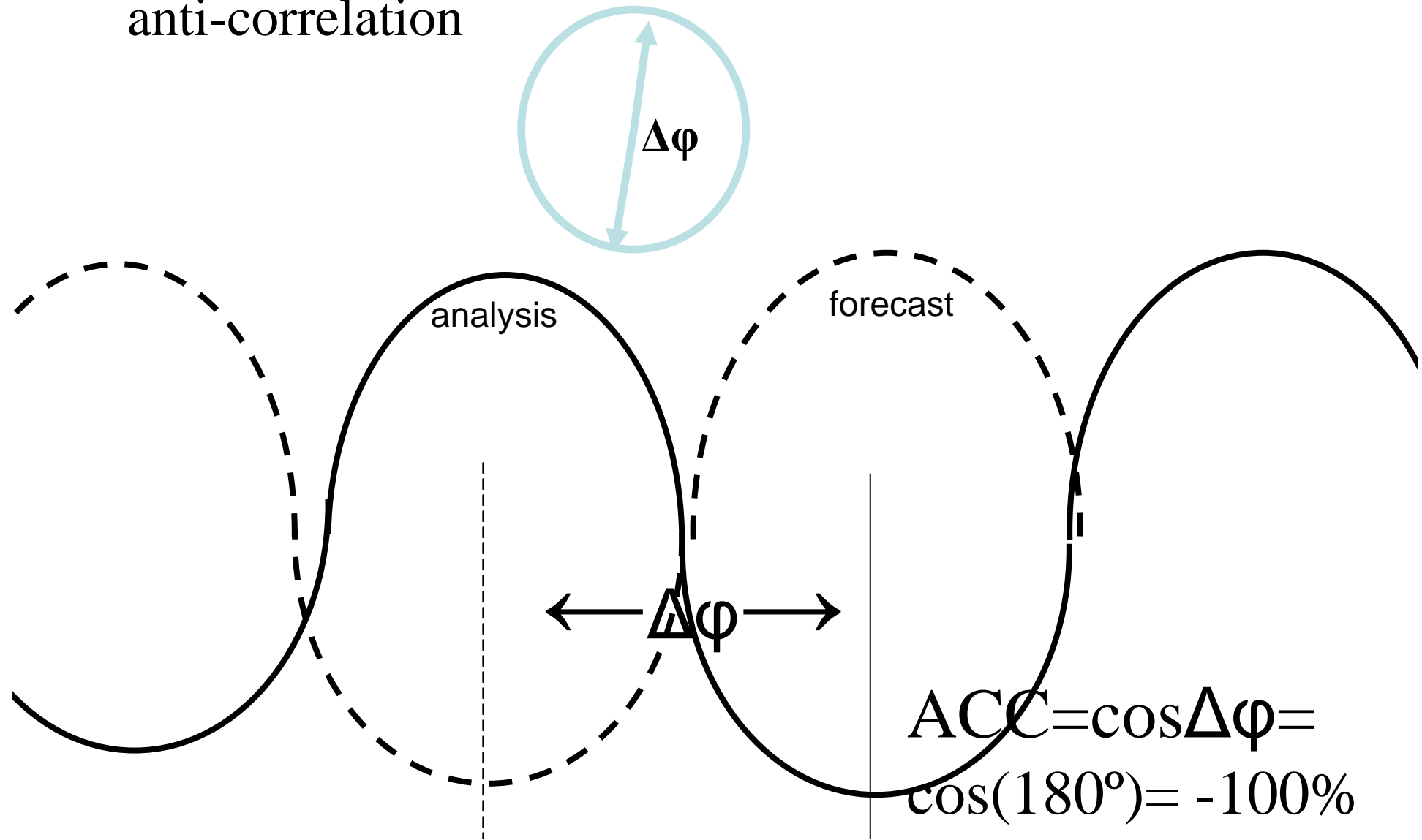
If the phase error  $< \frac{1}{2}$  wave length there is still positive skill



If the phase error  $> \frac{1}{2}$  wave length it is better not to have the feature

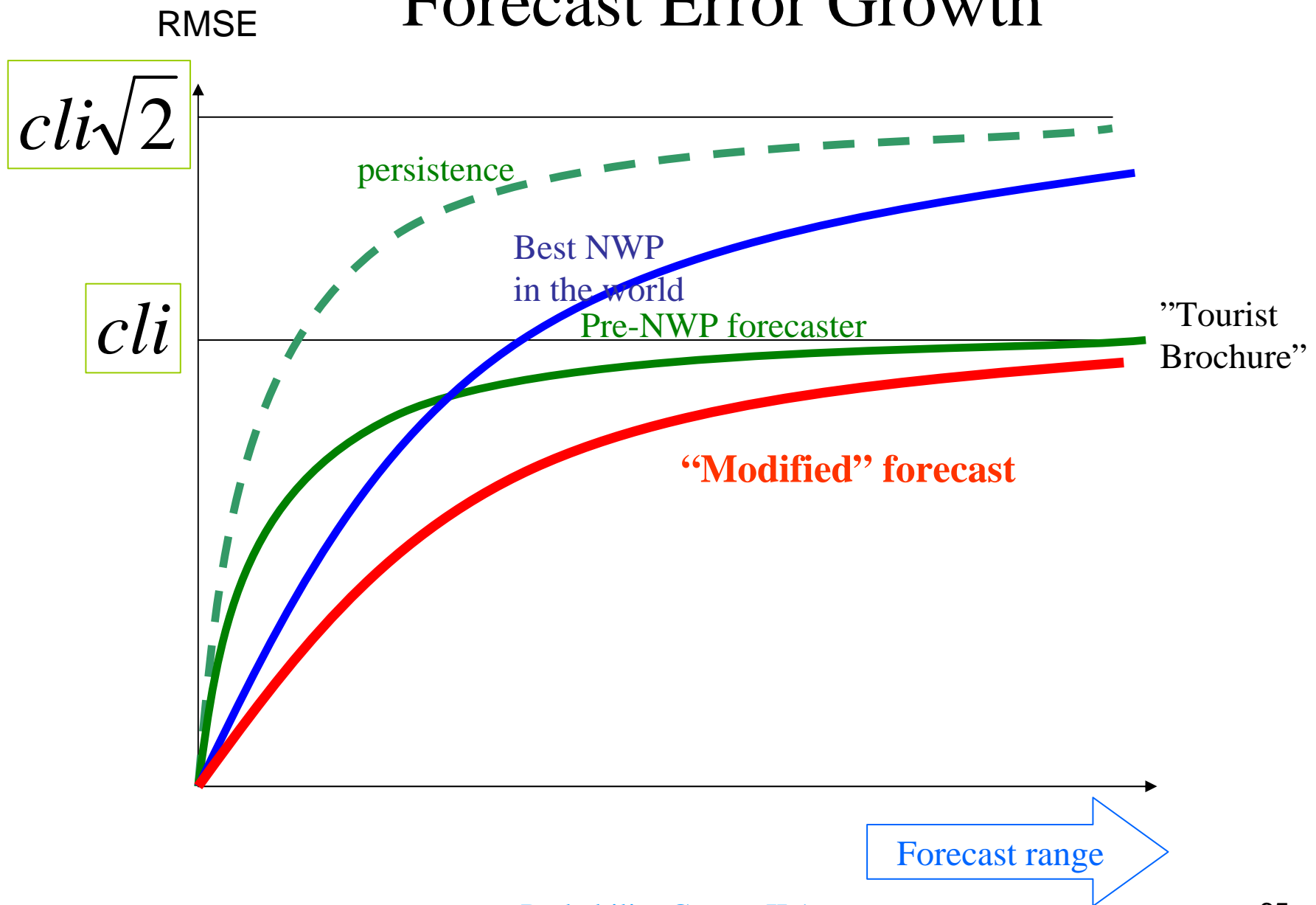


If the phase error is one wave length there is complete anti-correlation





# Forecast Error Growth



**END**