

Impact-based Skill Evaluation of Seasonal Precipitation Forecasts

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Abstract

We introduce an impact-based framework to evaluate seasonal forecast model skill in capturing extreme weather and climate events over regions prone to natural disasters such as floods and wildfires. Forecasting hydroclimatic extremes holds significant importance in an era of increasing hazards such as wildfires, floods, and droughts. We evaluate the performance of five Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S) seasonal forecast models (CMCC, DWD, ECCO, UK-Met, and Météo-France) in predicting extreme precipitation events from 1993 to 2016 using 14 indices reflecting timing and intensity (using absolute and locally-defined thresholds) of precipitation at a seasonal timescale. Performance metrics, including Percent Bias, Kendall Tau Rank Correlation Score, and model discrimination capacity, are used for skill evaluation. Our findings indicate that the performance of models varies markedly across regions and seasons. While the models generally show good skill in the tropical regions, their skill in extra-tropical regions is markedly lower. Elevated precipitation thresholds (i.e., higher intensity indices) correlate with heightened model biases, indicating deficiencies in modelling severe precipitation events. Our analysis using an impact-based framework highlights the superior predictive capabilities of the UK-Met and Météo-France models in capturing the underlying processes that drive precipitation events, or lack thereof, across many regions and seasons. Other models exhibit strong performance in specific regions and seasons but not globally. These results advance our understanding of an impact-based framework for capturing a broad spectrum of extreme weather and climate events and further inform the strategic fusion of diverse models across different regions and seasons, thereby offering insights for disaster management and risk analysis.

Key Points

- C3S models demonstrate notable skill in forecasting seasonal variability of precipitation, particularly in the tropical and sub-tropical regions.
- UK-Met and Météo-France consistently outperform other models, demonstrating superior accuracy and reliability in various regions and seasons
- Our Impact-Based Framework offers valuable insights for targeted risk assessments, particularly in wildfire- and flood-prone regions using seasonal forecast models.

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Plain Language Summary

We introduce a novel model assessment framework by investigating the impact of extreme events in areas prone to disasters such as floods and wildfires. We investigate how well five seasonal forecast models predict extreme precipitation, and related events such as floods and droughts. We assess the performance of models through 14 indices that assess the timing and intensity of precipitation during different seasons and in various regions globally. Our results show that some models outperform others in certain regions and seasons. We find that two models, UK-Met and Météo-France, are particularly skillful at predicting extreme events in various regions and seasons. This information is important for improved management and understanding of the risks of natural disasters.

1. Introduction

Precipitation plays a crucial role in momentum flux exchange at the ocean– atmosphere-land interface (Xue et al., 2020), and as such, is one of the primary outputs of weather and climate models (Tapiador et al., 2019). Numerous international initiatives such as the North American Multi-Model Ensemble (NMME, <https://www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov/products/NMME/>) and Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S, <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/>) multi-system seasonal forecast models forecast precipitation, and other Meteorological factors, at various spatiotemporal scales. Such forecasts are used for a variety of purposes, including extreme event early warning. Forecast models rely on the sources of atmospheric predictability, such as modes of variability including El Niño–Southern Oscillation (ENSO), Madden–Julian oscillation (MJO), Quasi-Biennial Oscillation (QBO), and Indian Ocean Dipole (IOD). Other sources of predictability include anomalies in the initial state of an Earth system component with a persistence time that aligns with the projected forecast duration (i.e., large-scale anomalies in upper ocean heat content, sea ice, snowpack, soil moisture), and external forcing (Assessment of Intraseasonal to Interannual Climate Prediction and Predictability, 2010; Baldwin et al., 2003; Committee on Developing a U.S. Research Agenda to Advance Subseasonal to Seasonal Forecasting et al., 2016; Lau & Waliser, 2012; Shukla et al., 2000; Zhang et al., 1997). Despite its significance, seasonal forecast models face difficulties in predicting precipitation spatial patterns, timing and intensity (Tapiador et al., 2019; Mallakpour et al. 2022). This is because the predictive capabilities of seasonal forecasting models are constrained by the uncertainty in initial and boundary conditions, climate change-induced modifications of teleconnection patterns, imperfect parameterization schemes, the variability in parameters, quality of observation systems, model biases, and inherent properties of the climate system (Villarini et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2021; Kumar & Zhu, 2018). Also, seasonal forecast performance can vary across regions due to the complex and region-specific interactions between climate drivers and local environmental factors (Hao et al., 2018).

Accurate precipitation predictions are of great importance in the formulation of mitigation and adaptation measures for weather and climate extreme events as well as minimizing impacts from their cascading hazards such as flood, drought, and wildfire (Gebrechorkos et al., 2022; Frédéric Vitart & Robertson, 2018). Recently several environmental and Climate Forecasting Systems such as the hydrological forecasting system, the Canadian Forest Fire Weather Index System (http://cwfis.cfs.nrcan.gc.ca/en_CA/background/summary/fdr), and the global drought forecasting system (http://iridl.ldeo.columbia.edu/maproom/Global/Drought/Global/CPC_

105 GOB/MME_pt_Persist.html) have been developed, using seasonal forecasts as input with the
106 purpose of risk assessment and response (Alfieri et al., 2013; Arheimer et al., 2020; Samaniego
107 et al., 2019; Thielen et al., 2009). The accuracy and trustworthiness of such systems is highly
108 dependent on the process representation and parametric accuracy of the seasonal forecast
109 models (Gebrechorkos et al., 2022; Wanders & Wood, 2016). It is essential to assess the
110 underlying performance of different forecast models across diverse global regions, and specific
111 to the impacts that forecast errors may induce to identify the most effective and reliable sector-
112 and region-specific models.

113
114 While studies have evaluated the skill of seasonal forecast models in predicting total
115 precipitation at the sub seasonal to seasonal scales (Becker et al., 2014; Gebrechorkos et al.,
116 2022; Nobakht et al., 2021; Roy et al., 2020), there is a need for an impact-based assessment
117 of forecast models that can inform their applicability for target extremes (e.g., flood, wildfire).
118 Traditional forecast model performance assessments conduct a top-down hazard information
119 approach by mainly investigating the model's skill in capturing weather patterns in comparison
120 to the reference datasets (De Andrade et al., 2019; Moron & Robertson, 2020; Frédéric Vitart
121 & Robertson, 2018). The shift towards impact-based assessment framework reflects the
122 evolving landscape of climate science and its increasing relevance in the face of a changing
123 climate (Rad et al. 2022). It emphasizes the importance of moving beyond traditional
124 evaluation methods and towards a comprehensive understanding of how weather forecasts
125 directly influence society, ecosystems, and infrastructure resilience (AghaKouchak et al., 2018;
126 Khorshidi et al., 2020; Mallakpour et al., 2022; Modaresi Rad et al., 2022; Sadegh et al., 2018).
127 Such a framework considers the vulnerability of the local environment to specific weather
128 events and warns of the associated impacts. An instance of such an influence might involve a
129 chain reaction of hazards, like flooding due to back-to-back heavy rainfall events (Sadegh et
130 al. 2018) or wildfires resulting from consecutive weeks of no precipitation and increased
131 temperature, which can create conditions conducive to ignition and wildfire growth (Khorshidi
132 et al. 2020). Impact-based assessment of seasonal precipitation forecasts involve assessing the
133 effectiveness of models by considering the impact of extreme precipitation on various sectors
134 and systems. It goes beyond assessing the mere accuracy of forecasted precipitation and aims
135 to understand how well the forecasts translate into meaningful information for decision-making
136 and risk management (AghaKouchak et al., 2023).

137
138 Our main objective in this study is to evaluate the skill of the five state-of-the-art seasonal
139 prediction systems from the Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S) multi-model at a global
140 scale in predicting particular features of extreme events which could lead to hazards. We note
141 that the primary goal in this study is to identify the models that are most representative of the
142 underlying processes that drive weather and climate events at various spatial and temporal
143 scales. While the importance of post-processing techniques in improving the reliability of the
144 seasonal forecast models is undeniable, we evaluate raw forecasts to gain insights into their
145 inherent model skills and deficiencies without the influence of statistical post-processing. This
146 enables us to detect essential similarities and differences between forecast models and to assess
147 their inherent skill in capturing extreme events. We utilize a selection of climate extreme
148 indices designed to encompass diverse aspects of extreme events, including their frequency,
149 timing, and intensity. These indices are defined by the Expert Team on Climate Change
150 Detection and Indices, and have been investigated in other studies (Chervenkov et al., 2019;
151 Chervenkov & Slavov, 2019). These indices are useful in diagnosing the variability of
152 precipitation at various timescales posing them as proper metrics for impact-based assessment.
153 We refine these indices to capture weather patterns that could cause hazards such as flood and
154 wildfire. We conduct an evaluation of forecast models to assess their capability in discerning
155 situations that result in the occurrence of a specific event from those that lead to its non-
156 occurrence. As a related task, we perform a targeted analysis of model performance in regions

157 with high risk of wildfires and floods. The following questions are answered in this study: Do
 158 seasonal forecast models have the capability to represent the variability of precipitation
 159 throughout the season? Can specific models lend themselves as superior alternatives for multi-
 160 model fusion, and thereby enhance targeted extreme event prediction in specific regions and
 161 seasons?
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163 2. Methodology

164 This study examines the effectiveness of precipitation forecasts of five seasonal forecast
 165 models from the C3S project including the Centro Euro-Mediterraneo sui Cambiamenti
 166 Climatici (CMCC: version 35), Deutscher Wetterdienst (DWD: version 21), Environment and
 167 Climate Change Canada (ECCC: version 3), Météo France (Météo-France: version 8), and UK
 168 Met Office (UK-Met: version 601) models in accurately predicting extreme precipitation
 169 indices in a three month lead time during the hindcast period spanning 1993 to 2016 (refer to
 170 Table S1). Validation was carried out using the fifth generation ECMWF reanalysis (ERA5)
 171 precipitation product which we refer to as "reference data" hereafter.
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174 2.1 Data Preparation

175 We employed eight types of distinct climate extreme indices, following Expert Team on
 176 Climate Change Detection and Indices (<https://www.wcrp-climate.org/data-etccdi>) definitions,
 177 to encompass different aspects of precipitation extremes, such as event duration, intensity, and
 178 frequency (Dunn et al., 2022). We used 1mm and 10mm precipitation thresholds (representing
 179 wet days, and heavy precipitation days respectively) for the calculation of climate extreme
 180 indices. In addition to these absolute thresholds, we incorporated the 75th percentile of daily
 181 historical data in each grid from the ERA5 (reference dataset) as a secondary criterion in
 182 calculating certain indices. This approach aims to ensure the indices are reflective of local
 183 climate. For such indices, both the absolute threshold and the percentile-based criteria should
 184 be met. Combination of metrics and thresholds resulted in a comprehensive set of 14 climate
 185 extreme indices (Table 1). The assessment of seasonal skill for the models was carried out
 186 using forecast initializations on the first day of February, May, August, and November with a
 187 3-month lead time, i.e., March-May (MAM), June-August (JJA), September-November
 188 (SON), and December-February (DJF) seasons respectively.
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198 Table 1. Extreme indices used to evaluate seasonal forecast models.

Abbreviation	Index	Abbreviation	Index
cdd1	Maximum consecutive dry days 1mm	nwd10q75	Number of wet days 10mm and 75th percentile
cdd10	Maximum consecutive dry days 10mm	hpd	Heavy precipitation days (days with precipitation above 10mm)
cwd1	Maximum consecutive wet days 1mm	vhpd	Very heavy precipitation days (days with precipitation above 20mm)
cwd10	Maximum consecutive wet days 10mm	h1dp	Highest 1-day precipitation amount
int1	Daily pr intensity 1mm	h5dp	Highest 5-day precipitation amount

int10	Daily pr intensity 10mm	propd1	Proportion of days with precipitation at or above 1mm
nwd1q75	Number of wet days 1mm and 75th percentile	propd10	Proportion of days with precipitation at or above 10mm

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201 The analysis was conducted on the ensemble mean for each model. All forecast models and
 202 reference data were re-gridded to a consistent one-degree resolution. For spatial aggregation,
 203 we conducted our analysis over the sixth-version of Intergovernmental Panel on Climate
 204 Change (IPCC) regions shown in Table S2 (Iturbide et al., 2020). The IPCC divides the world
 205 into major regions, each of which includes a group of countries or territories that share similar
 206 climate characteristics, geographic features, and socio-economic factors. The IPCC regions,
 207 also known as the "IPCC Regional Reporting", are a set of geographical regions used by the
 208 IPCC as a framework for understanding how climate change affects different parts of the world
 209 and to facilitate the assessment of climate change impact, vulnerability, and adaptation
 210 strategies at the regional level.

211

212 **2.2 Model Evaluation**

213 For evaluation and comparison of forecast models against reference data, we employed Percent
 214 Bias (Rudisill et al., 2024; Spies et al., 2015). Here, zero signifies a perfect alignment between
 215 model predictions and reference data, and positive-bias/negative-bias signifies over-
 216 estimation/under-estimation (Eq.1).

217

$$PBIAS = 100 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (M_i - R_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^N R_i} \quad \text{Eq.1}$$

218

219 where M_i is the model simulation and R_i is the value of the reference data at time i .

220

221 We also conducted a discriminant analysis to determine if the forecast skill varied in different
 222 sections of the precipitation distribution. To achieve this, we categorized the reference datasets
 223 in each grid into three distinct groups using upper and lower terciles: below-normal conditions
 224 (lower tercile), above-normal conditions (upper tercile), and normal conditions (middle
 225 tercile). Subsequently, we employed a random forest algorithm to perform the classification
 226 task on the forecast models in each grid. The random forest classifier was trained on 75% of
 227 the forecast data. The performance of the classifier was evaluated using the remaining 25% of
 228 the forecast data (i.e., test set). The classifier predicted the probabilities for each precipitation
 229 category (below-normal, above-normal, or normal) for each sample in the test set. These
 230 probabilities were then used to calculate the area under the Receiver Operating Characteristic
 231 (ROC) curve (ROC AUC), which measures the forecast discrimination. The ROC AUC is built
 232 based on the true positive rate (sensitivity) and false positive rate (1-specificity) obtained at
 233 various threshold values for a multi-class classification. It takes values between 0 to 1, in which
 234 a higher ROC AUC score indicates better discriminatory power of the forecasts. Here we
 235 categorized the ROC score to level of discrimination (i.e., in our case ability to discriminate
 236 extreme events from non-extreme events). The values of ROC score between 0.0 to 0.6 is
 237 considered no discrimination, 0.6 to 0.7 is considered satisfactory discrimination, 0.7 to 0.8 is
 238 considered good discrimination, 0.8 to 0.9 is considered very good discrimination, and 0.9 to
 239 1.0 is considered excellent discrimination (Mandrekar, 2010). Kendall's Tau rank correlation
 240 analysis is used to measure the strength of the relationship between climatic indices extracted
 241 from forecast models and reference data aggregated over each IPCC regions (Sen, 1968).

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244 **2.3 Impact-based framework**

245 The IPCC regions which were vulnerable to wildfire and flooding were identified by
246 categorizing them based on the proportion of farmland (Friedl & Sulla-Menashe, 2022),
247 proportion of burned areas (Chuvienco et al., 2018; Lizundia-Loiola et al., 2020), percentage of
248 flood-affected zones (Tellman et al., 2021), proportion of built-up regions (Gong et al., 2020),
249 and population density (Schiavina et al., 2023) (see Figure S1). We specifically focused on
250 regions that not only had an elevated risk of wildfire (flood) exposure, but also had a significant
251 built-up area and population density. These selected regions were earmarked for additional
252 analysis.

253

254 We carefully selected relevant extreme indices pertinent to the corresponding climate-induced
255 hazard in each region. For the regions with wildfire as a prominent natural hazard, we selected
256 maximum consecutive dry days 1mm (cdd1), and proportion of days with precipitation at or
257 above 1mm (propd1) indices as the relevant indicators of a weather condition conducive to or
258 preventive of wildfire. For regions with a high risk of flooding, we selected number of wet days
259 with 10mm precipitation and 75th percentile of the reference data (nwd10q75) and heavy
260 precipitation days (hpd) indices as the relevant indicators. We also determined the season with
261 the highest occurrence rate for each specific hazard and region. In every region, we identified
262 the top-performing model in terms of predictive accuracy using the following selection criteria.
263 Initially, we prioritized models with a combination of higher correlation (statistically
264 significant) and lower bias. If multiple models demonstrated similar high performance, we
265 utilized Taylor diagrams to select models that aligned more closely with the reference data
266 across various performance metrics. Our evaluation then focused on assessing the models’
267 forecast skill with respect to relevant indices in the identified hazard-prone seasons for each
268 region. By adopting this impact-based approach, we aimed to pinpoint the most suitable models
269 and indices for each climate-induced hazard, enabling more effective and tailored climate risk
270 assessments.

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273 **3. Results**

274

275 **3.1 Global Analysis of Model Bias**

276 The analysis of Percent Bias at a global scale across the four seasons reveals a consistent
277 tendency of underestimation in all forecast models for most of the extreme wet precipitation
278 indices (Figure 1 and Figure S2), but the performance for other indices is rather mixed. The
279 cdd1 index, which measures the maximum consecutive dry days at 1mm threshold, shows
280 negative bias for most but not all regions, while cwd1 index, which measures the maximum
281 consecutive wet days at 1mm threshold, shows positive bias for all regions implying that the
282 models predict more precipitation days compared to reference dataset (Figure 1). This is while
283 cdd10 shows positive bias values and cwd10 shows negative bias values, implying that while
284 models are capturing more wet days, they mostly capture light precipitation, and they do not
285 properly capture extreme events with consecutive days of heavy precipitation. This is aligned
286 with the propd1 index showing positive biases (higher number of precipitation days) while
287 propd10 index showing negative biases (Figure 1 and Figure S2). This pattern is consistent
288 with the findings of regional C3S assessment studies, for example in Africa (Gebrechorkos et
289 al., 2022). These observations underscore the limitations in forecast capabilities for accurately
290 modelling persistent wet and dry periods. Introduction of secondary constraints (i.e., 75th of
291 the reference data) to the indices increases the bias, signifying the models’ limitation in
292 capturing severe extreme events.

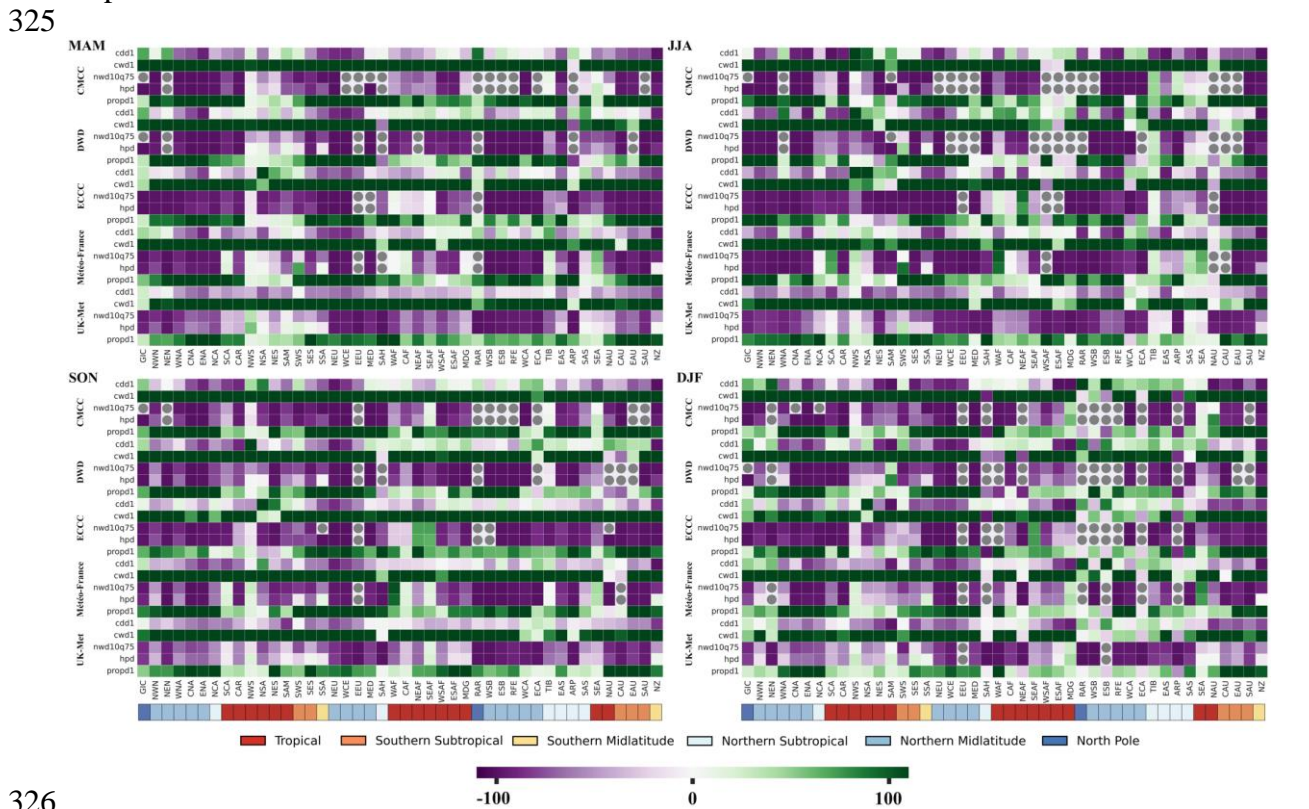
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294 The bias values for int1 index – daily precipitation more than 1mm – are higher than those of
295 int10 across all seasons and models. This is also because of the models’ tendency to capture

296 more wet days with at least 1mm precipitation. Focusing on h1dp and h5dp indices, forecasts
 297 are able to model the extreme precipitation events that happen over 5 consecutive days more
 298 skillfully than those extending one day (Figure S2). Figure 1 and Figure S2 show that the
 299 CMCC, DWD, and ECCC models demonstrate relatively lower ability to capture extreme
 300 rainfall events within the extratropical IPCC regions compared to the UK-Met and Météo-
 301 France models across the four seasons. However, in the tropical and northern subtropical
 302 regions, all models (especially UK-Met and Météo-France) exhibit superior performance
 303 (lower bias) in capturing extreme events, compared to extratropical regions. This is attributed
 304 to the model’s predictive skill in grasping large-scale teleconnection patterns (Giuntoli et al.,
 305 2022). Refer to section S1 for additional information about global precipitation anomalies
 306 patterns across the five forecast models.

308 For indices measured in terms of the number of days, we observed larger bias compared to
 309 those representing total rainfall, indicating limitations of the models in accurately replicating
 310 the variation of precipitation throughout the season (Figure 1 and Figure S2). Indices that
 311 represent magnitude and intensity of precipitation (i.e., precipitation intensity, highest 1-day
 312 precipitation amount, and highest 5-day precipitation amount) exhibit lower biases, suggesting
 313 the model’s skill in simulating total seasonal precipitation. The UK-Met and Météo-France
 314 models exhibit higher skill in capturing extreme events, demonstrating favorable performance
 315 across various regions when considering 75th percentile threshold levels.

317 We opted to utilize the percentiles of reference data climatology as a consistent benchmark
 318 across all models, rather than relying on the percentile of forecast models. This choice ensures
 319 intercomparability in models' ability to depict climate patterns. Figure S4 illustrates the
 320 difference in Percent Bias when using percentiles derived from the reference data climatology
 321 versus those from the forecast model, specifically for the UK-Met and Meteo-France models.
 322 Further comparison reveals that the Meteo-France model exhibits larger biases than the UK-
 323 Met model across most regions globally, indicating its weaker representation of climate
 324 patterns in terms of Percent Bias.



327 Figure 1. Percent Bias of the five C3S models for a) MAM, b) JJA, c) SON, and d) DJF seasons.
328 Grids with grey circles shows the regions where reference data indicated the existence of
329 extreme events while the forecast models could not capture any events satisfying the index
330 requirements. Grids with no values reflect regions that both reference data and forecasts did
331 not capture any events satisfying the index requirements. The colour bar is constrained to the
332 range of -100 to 100 for visualization purposes. This range was chosen to enhance visibility of
333 variations in regions with small bias. Actual values occasionally exceed this range. IPCC
334 regions are color-coded based on their location within respect to latitudinal zones. See Table
335 S2 for names of IPCC regions.

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337

338 **3.2 Global Analysis of ROC Scores**

339 We use discrimination analysis to assess how well the year-to-year variations in the forecasted
340 precipitation match those in the observations. Measurements of ROC score in Figure 2 and
341 Figures S5 show superior performance of forecast models in the tropical and subtropical
342 regions located in Atlantic, Indian ocean, and west Pacific regions (Guimarães et al., 2021; Jie
343 et al., 2017). The skill level, however, varies across different models and seasons over Africa.
344 Notably, the Météo-France and UK-Met models exhibit superior performance during the SON
345 and MAM seasons (i.e., indices with satisfactory, good, very good, and excellent
346 discriminations are more frequent). The exceptional performance of the Météo-France model
347 in African regions has been the subject of discussion in prior studies (Gebrechorkos et al.,
348 2022). Furthermore, the UK-Met model demonstrates a higher level of skill compared to the
349 other four models in predicting extreme events in several Australian regions. This elevated skill
350 of the UK-Met model is particularly pronounced during the MAM season whereas in JJA,
351 SON, and DJF the skill drops dramatically. The lower performance of ACCESS-S1 model
352 (which is the same model used in UK-Met but with different ensemble generation scheme,
353 ensemble size and the configuration of the system for operational forecasting) over Australia
354 during southern hemisphere summer (DJF) is also concluded in other studies (King et al.,
355 2020).

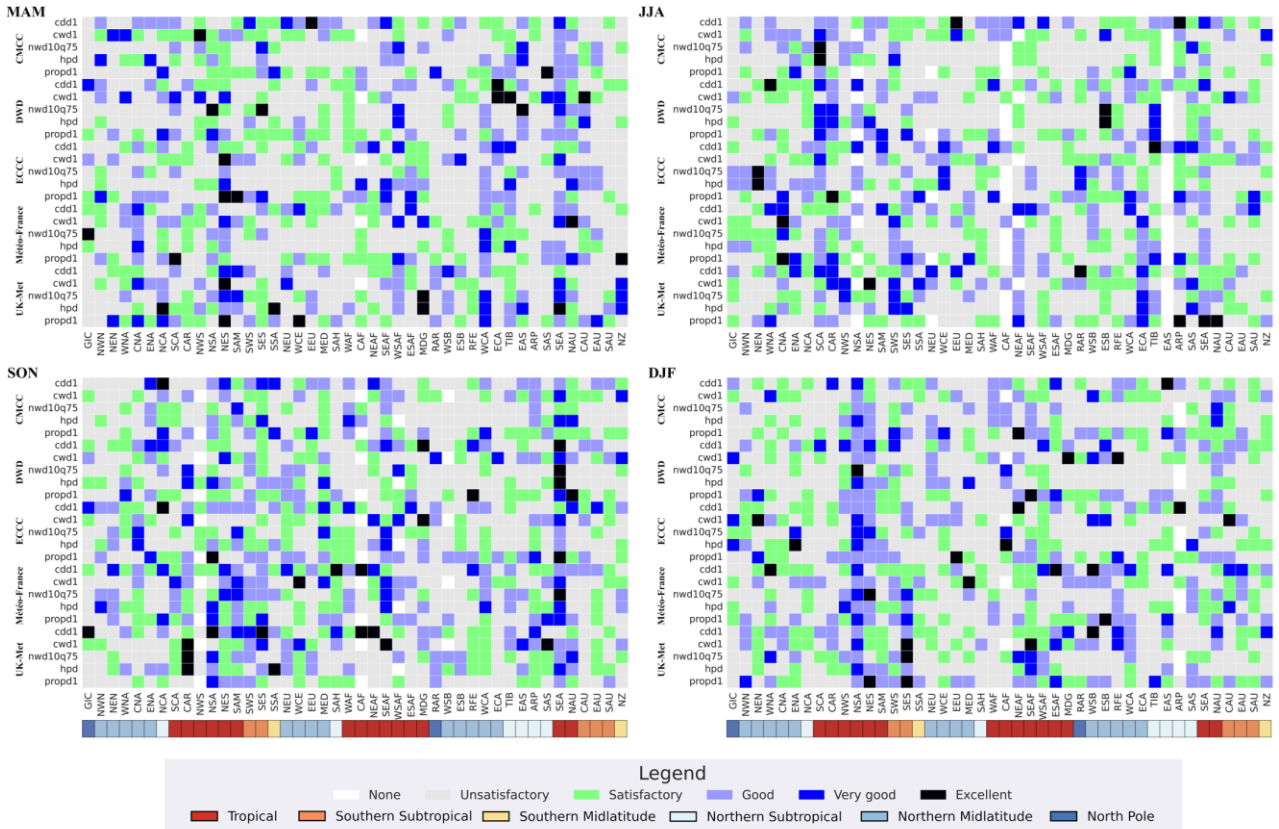
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357 The prevalence of grids with no discrimination ROC categories is more pronounced in
358 extratropical regions, possibly due to the inherent lower predictability of extratropical
359 variations, and model limitations in representing interactions between tropical and extratropical
360 regions, as well as land surface processes (De Andrade et al., 2019). Notably, the CMCC,
361 DWD, and ECCC models fail to detect any extreme event in many extratropical regions, as
362 indicated by the absence of discrimination categories in Figure S5. This disparity is particularly
363 conspicuous when compared to the UK-Met and Météo-France models.

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367
 368 Figure 2. Discrimination levels using categorized ROC score of the five models for a) MAM,
 369 b) JJA, c) SON, and d) DJF seasons. Grids that are shaded in white represent regions that either
 370 or both reference data and model did not capture any events satisfying the index requirements.
 371 IPCC regions are color-coded based on their location within respect to latitudinal zones.
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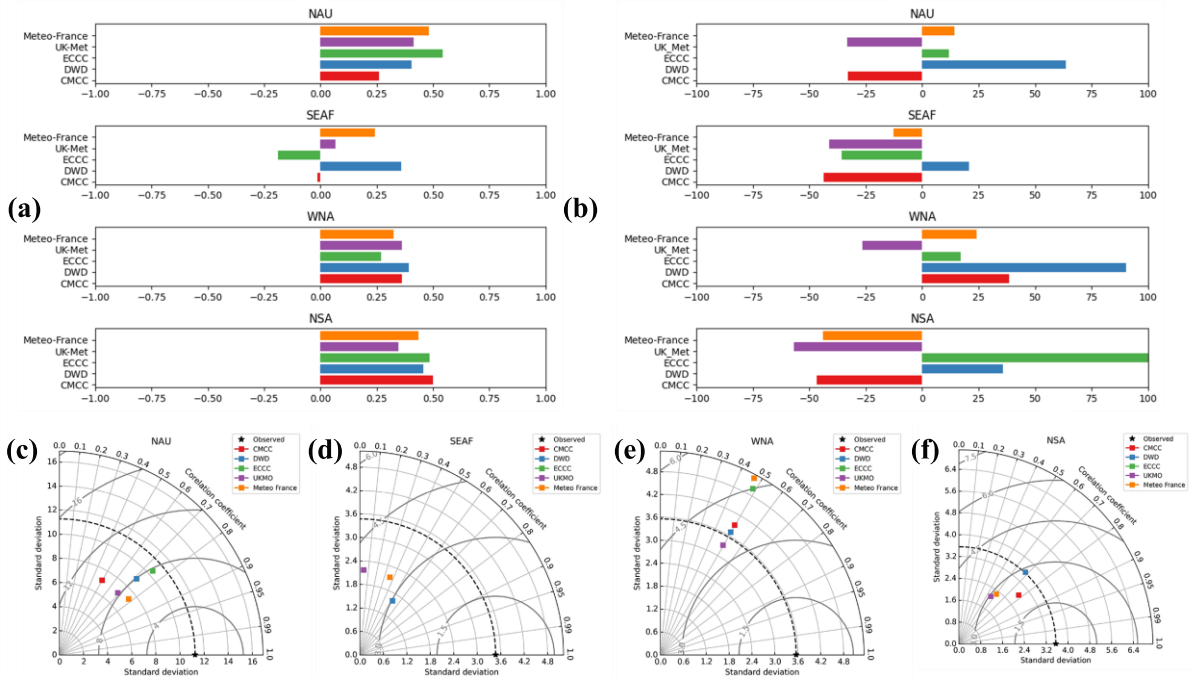
376 3.3 Wildfire-prone Regions: Targeted Forecast Performance Analysis

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 378 Many scientific investigations have underscored the notable influence of climatic patterns on
 379 the initiation of wildfires (Sharma et al., 2022; Turco et al., 2023). Extended periods of elevated
 380 temperatures devoid of precipitation events establish an environment conducive to fire ignition
 381 and propagation, intensifying the combustibility of vegetated areas (Alizadeh et al., 2021,
 382 2023). As the duration of consecutive dry days (days without rainfall or with rainfall below a
 383 specific threshold) extends, the moisture content of fuel diminishes, increasing its susceptibility
 384 to ignition (Abatzoglou & Williams, 2016). Refer to section S2 for detailed analysis of wildfire-
 385 related indices on a global scale, while in the following we will focus on specific regions with
 386 wildfire as a prominent natural hazard.

387
 388 We now focus on the four regions where the wildfire is a prominent natural hazard: Northern
 389 Australia (NAU), South-Eastern Africa (SEAF), Western North America (WNA), and
 390 Northern South America (NSA) regions. Within each region, a particular season characterized
 391 by an elevated likelihood of wildfire incidence is designated for subsequent analysis. In
 392 Northern Australia, the peak period for wildfire aligns with the dry SON season. From August
 393 to December, many regions of Southern Africa experience the onset of their wildfire season
 394 therefore we selected the SON season for further analysis. In the United States, wildfire activity
 395 is a year-round concern, but the most severe wildfires arise during the summer months (JJA

396 season), particularly in the western regions. In Latin America, the fire season typically
 397 commences at the end of January and extends through April (DJF season).
 398

399 Focusing on the NAU region and using the maximum number of consecutive dry days index,
 400 all models except for CMCC demonstrate a notable correlation with the reference data (Figure
 401 3a). Furthermore, Météo-France and ECCC display lower bias compared to other models
 402 (Figure 3b). However, in the Taylor diagram presented in Figure 3c, the ECCC model
 403 establishes its supremacy over Météo-France by exhibiting a standard deviation that is more
 404 closely aligned with the reference data. The overestimation of precipitation (and consequently
 405 underestimation of dry days) in CMCC and UK-Met models over NAU region is visible in
 406 Figure 4 where they exceed the 1mm threshold earlier and with steeper slope compared to other
 407 models resulting in the underestimation of cdd1 index.



408
 409 **Figure 3.** Performance metrics for the maximum consecutive dry days index with 1mm
 410 precipitation threshold (cdd1): a) Kendall's Tau coefficient, b) Percent Bias, and Taylor
 411 diagram for c) NAU, d) SEAF, e) WNA, and f) NSA regions respectively.
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414 We extended our model selection framework to other three regions and the main findings reveal
 415 distinct model performance variations in different regions. The ECCC model is particularly
 416 strong in forecasting consecutive dry days in the NAU region and closely tracks reference data.
 417 In contrast, the DWD model emerges as the top performer in the SEAF and NSA regions,
 418 exhibiting the highest correlation, lower bias, and lower root mean square error. The UK-Met
 419 model excels in the WNA region, demonstrating a close match with the reference data's
 420 standard deviation. These variations in model performance are attributed to their abilities in
 421 simulating significant large-scale climate variabilities such as ENSO, IOD, and north
 422 Australian SSTs. Refer to section S3 for further details regarding the analysis of proportion of
 423 days with precipitation acceding 1mm threshold (propd1) index in wildfire prone regions.

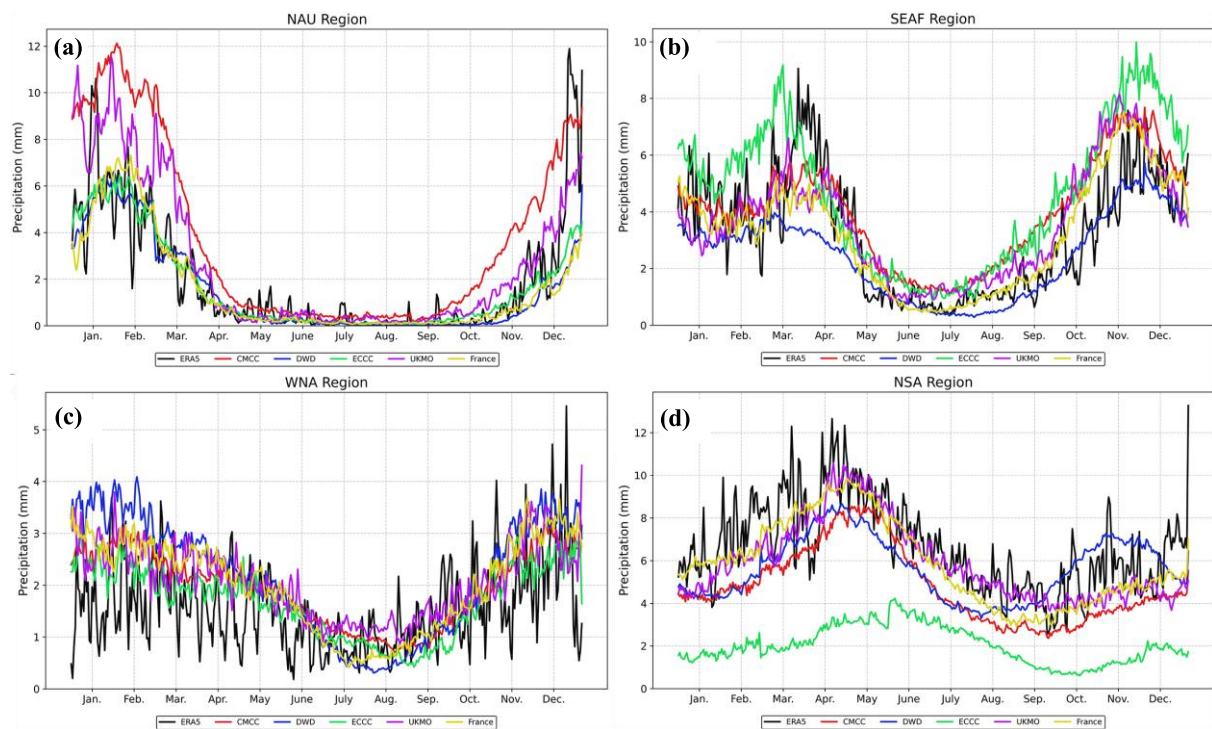


Figure 4. Annual climatology time series of the precipitation for five C3S models and the ERA5 reference data over NAU, SEAF, WNA, and NSA regions.

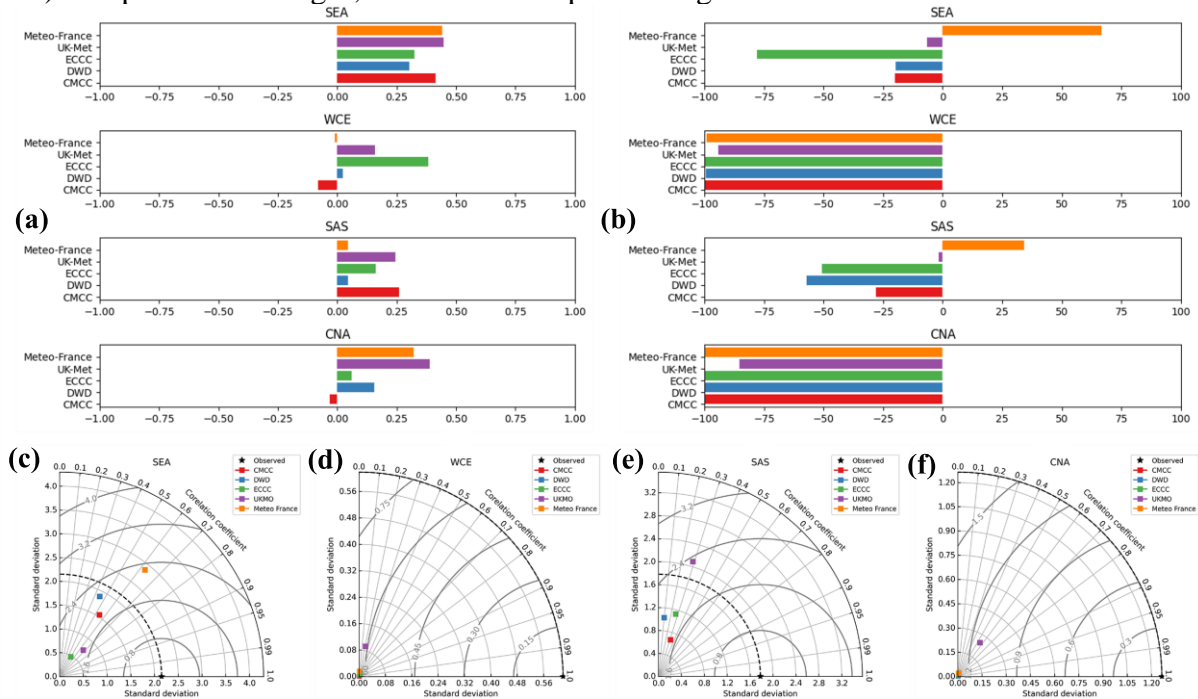
3.4 Flood-prone Regions: Targeted Forecast Performance Analysis

Consecutive occurrences of extreme precipitation over successive days can significantly elevate the probability of widespread flooding, and since extreme events like heavy precipitation days are becoming more frequent, reliable forecast models are pivotal. Many investigations have documented instances of substantial flooding due to consecutive multi-day extreme precipitation (Ávila et al., 2016; Du et al., 2022; Rivoire et al., 2023). In 2021, extreme precipitation events across central Europe caused severe flooding in many regions, resulting in more than 200 fatalities and significant damage to infrastructure (Tradowsky et al., 2023). To assess the capabilities of the C3S models across IPCC regions, where flooding is a predominant natural hazard, we employed the heavy precipitation days index (hpd) and number of wet days with 10mm precipitation threshold index, also exceeding the 75th percentiles of the reference dataset (nwd10q75) for further analysis. Refer to section S4 for detailed analysis regarding the analysis of flood-related indices on a global scale, while in the following we focus on specific regions with flood as a prominent natural hazard.

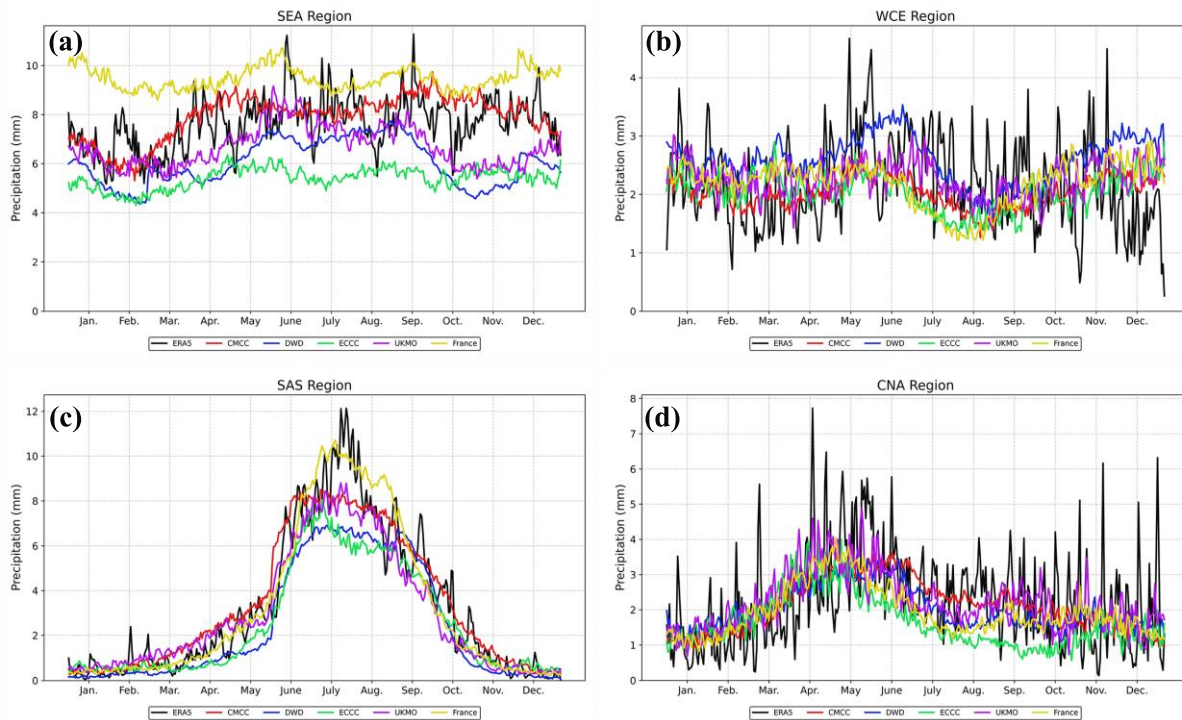
In the South-East Asia (SEA) monsoon region during JJA (flood season), the UK-Met demonstrates a superior performance compared to other models, exhibiting notably high correlation and lower bias values (Figure 5a and 5b). Although, the Taylor diagram indicates that UK-Met exhibits a larger standard deviation value compared to other models, the markedly lower bias values make this model the optimal choice here (Figure 5c). This is also evident in the Figure 6a where Météo-France shows overestimation of precipitation, ECCC shows underestimation, while UK-Met, DWD, and CMCC follow the reference precipitation very closely. Overall, in this region the prediction skill is mostly higher in the pre-monsoon (April–May) and post-monsoon (October–November) seasons, while during the monsoon season (JJA) forecast skill is lower because of the monsoon influences on precipitation predictability (Wanthanaporn et al., 2023).

457 In the Western and Central Europe (WCE) region during the DJF flooding season, the ECCC
 458 model exhibits higher significant correlation values with reference data compared to other
 459 models (Figure 5). However, all models struggle to adequately capture reference data
 460 variations, as indicated by high RMSE values and low correlation coefficients. In the South
 461 Asia (SAS) region during the JJA season, the UK-Met and CMCC models demonstrate higher
 462 correlation values. The UK-Met model outperforms others by exhibiting smaller bias.
 463 Therefore, the UK-Met model is favored for the SAS region. In the Central North America
 464 (CNA) region during the JJA season, both the UK-Met and Météo-France models exhibit
 465 significant correlation coefficients, while all models display large bias values. Once again, the
 466 UK-Met model stands out due to its lower bias compared to the other models.
 467

468 Upon eliminating the constraint associated with the 75th percentile of the reference data in
 469 predicting heavy precipitation days, there is an observable reduction in bias values across SEA
 470 and SAS regions for the hpd index (Figure S9a and S9b). The correlation values are, however,
 471 very similar to those of nwd10q75 index. with removal of the 75th percentile threshold, the
 472 standard deviation values also become more aligned with the reference data (Figure S9c and
 473 S9f). Despite these changes, the order of outperforming models remains consistent.



474
 475
 476 Figure 5. Model performance with respect to the number of heavy precipitation days exceeding
 477 10 mm and the 75th percentile of the reference data (nwd10q75): a) Kendall's Tau coefficient,
 478 b) Percent Bias, and Taylor diagram for c) SEA, d) WCE, e) SAS, and f) CNA regions,
 479 respectively.



480
 481 Figure 6. Annual climatology time series of the precipitation for five C3S models and the
 482 ERA5 dataset over a) SEA, b) WCE, c) SAS, and d) CNA region.

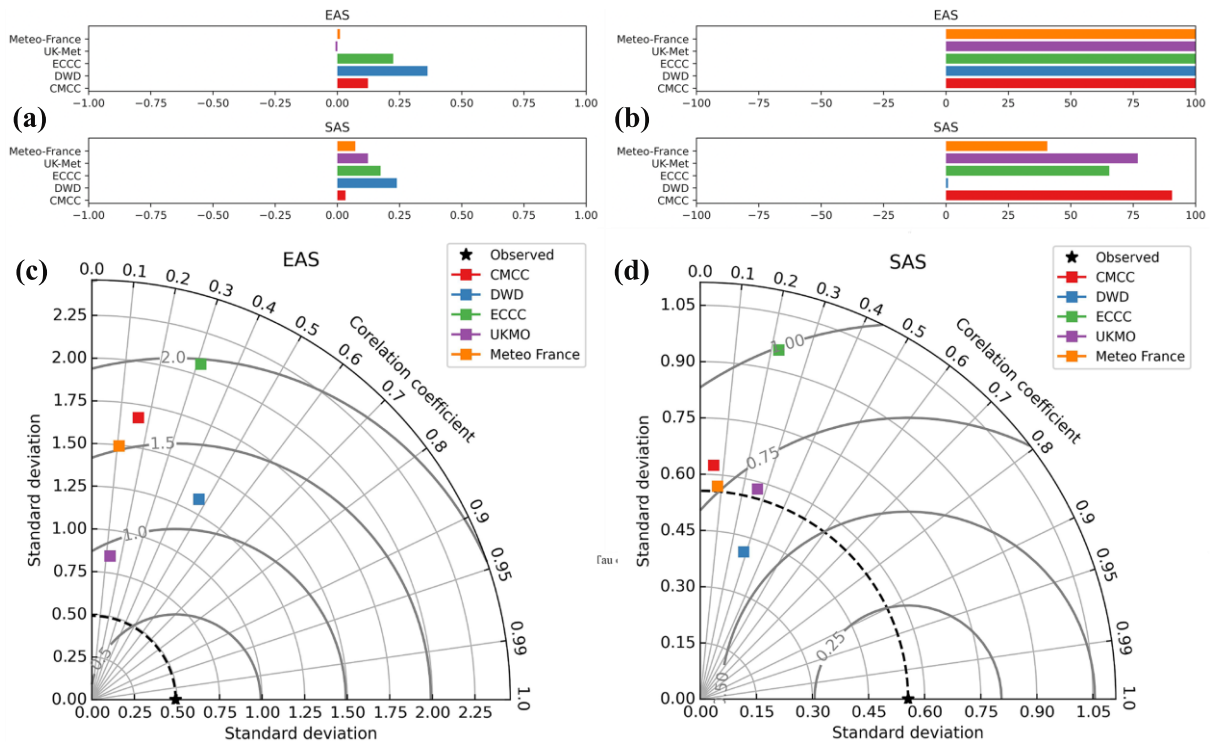
483
 484

485 3.5 Populated and Densely Built-up Regions: Targeted Forecast Performance Analysis

486

487 We now focus on two regions where the population and built-up density is very high: East Asia
 488 (EAS), and South Asia (SAS) regions. Within each region, a particular season characterized by
 489 an elevated likelihood of consecutive days with rainfall occurrence (which has a significant
 490 impact on urban areas) was selected for further analysis. Moderate rainfall events may not be
 491 inherently destructive, but consecutive days of precipitation, even with low amounts, can have
 492 devastating impacts on the environment and urban areas. In EAS region with high population
 493 density, consecutive days of moderate-intensity rainfall serve as significant triggers for
 494 geological hazards such as landslides and mudslides. These events can lead to immense
 495 damages to lives and property (Zheng et al., 2020).

496
 497

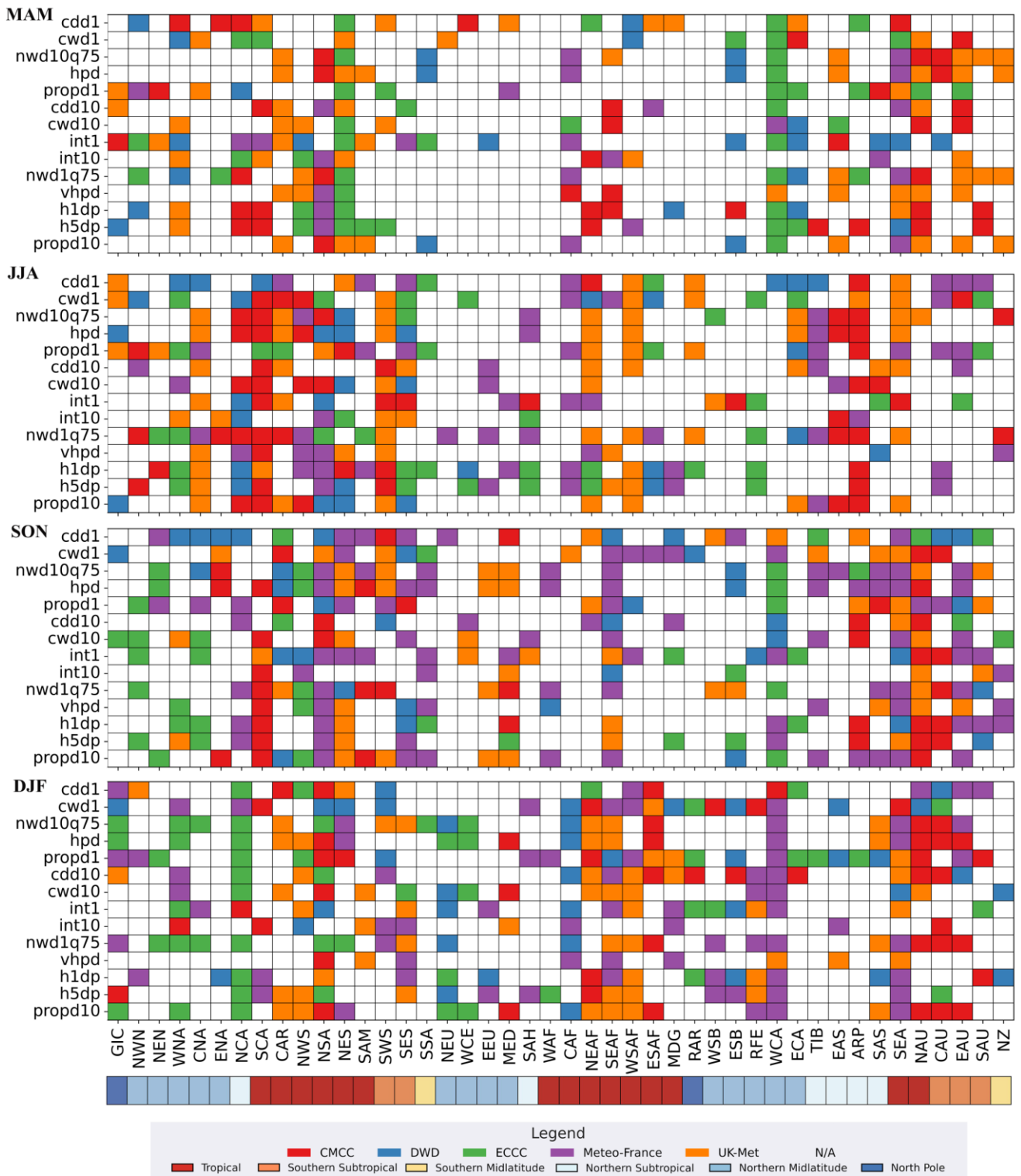


498
 499 Figure 7 Model performance with respect to the consecutive wet days with 1mm precipitation
 500 threshold (c wd1): a) Kendall's Tau coefficient, b) Percent Bias, and Taylor diagram for c) EAS,
 501 d) SAS regions, respectively.
 502
 503

504 In East Asia (EAS) and during the DJF season, the DWD model demonstrates a superior
 505 performance compared to other models, exhibiting notably high correlation and lower bias
 506 values (Figure 7a and 7b). Although, the Taylor diagram indicates that the DWD model
 507 exhibits a larger standard deviation compared to UK-Met in the EAS region, still the markedly
 508 higher correlation values make this model the optimal choice here (Figure 7c). In the SAS
 509 region, the standard deviation of the DWD model is not aligned well with that of the reference
 510 data but considering its high correlation and lower bias values compared to the rest of models,
 511 DWD is the best model in representing underlying processes of climate patterns in this region
 512 (Figure 7d).
 513
 514

515 3.6 Model Effectiveness in Process Representation Across Seasons and Regions

516 Over all five models, our findings reveal that with increase in the precipitation threshold the
 517 model's bias increases, suggesting a lack of skill in modelling severe precipitation events.
 518 Correlation scores are lower in extratropical regions as compared to the tropical regions, likely
 519 due to the inherent unpredictability of extratropical atmospheric variability and model
 520 limitations in replicating land surface processes and tropical-extratropical interactions,
 521 including the Pacific-South American (PSA) pattern and the Pacific-North American (PNA)
 522 pattern, both of which can be influenced by ENSO and the MJO (De Andrade et al., 2019).
 523 This is depicted in Figure 8, where extratropical regions struggled to accurately represent the
 524 underlying processes of climate and weather patterns (i.e., exhibiting statistically significant
 525 correlations while maintaining lower bias values) for most indices. The figure also highlights
 526 the superior performance of UK-Met and Météo-France in representing these processes across
 527 all four seasons. Refer to section S5 for further details regarding the Model effectiveness of
 528 models in process representation.
 529



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Figure 8. Models that best represent the underlying processes based on statistically significant Kendall's Tau at the 0.05 level and Percent Bias over IPCC regions across 14 climate extreme indices for a) MAM, b) JJA, c) SON, and d) DJF seasons. IPCC regions are color-coded based on their location within respect to latitudinal zones.

4. Summary and Discussion

539 This study's primary objective is to assess the performance of five C3S seasonal forecast
540 models in predicting extreme precipitation events spanning the period from 1993 to 2016. To
541 achieve this, the study assesses 14 extreme precipitation indices defined by the Expert Team
542 on Climate Change Detection and Indices group. These indices are established based on
543 specific precipitation thresholds of 1mm, and 10mm, as well as locally-specific 75th percentile
544 of reference data. The ERA5 reanalysis precipitation dataset is used as reference.

545
546 Our goal is to identify the most reliable models for targeted precipitation risk assessments. We
547 introduce an impact-based forecast model assessment framework designed to evaluate the
548 models' effectiveness in predicting extreme weather events that have the potential to instigate
549 hazardous conditions such as floods and wildfires. We employ performance metrics, including
550 Percent Bias and the Kendall Tau Rank Correlation Score, to gauge the models' skill in
551 representing the underlying processes that govern climate and weather pattern and generate
552 extreme weather events. Furthermore, we evaluate the discrimination capacity of models in
553 discerning extreme events from non-events.

554
555 While post-processing techniques play a crucial role in enhancing the reliability of seasonal
556 forecast models, our study primarily aims to identify models that best represent underlying
557 processes in seasonal climate and weather patterns. By evaluating raw forecasts, we aim to
558 uncover models' inherent skills and deficiencies, free from the influence of statistical post-
559 processing. In other words, we use raw model forecasts for our assessment purposes, and avoid
560 statistical postprocessing that convolutes process-based forecasts with statistical correction.
561 This choice is specifically useful in the face of extremes repeatedly breaking records in a
562 changing climate, given statistical methods' limitations in reproducing out-of-sample data.
563 This approach enables us to detect key differences between forecast models and assess their
564 abilities in capturing extreme events.

565
566 One key finding is the consistent bias toward underestimation of most of the wet extreme
567 climate indices for all models. Nevertheless, the UK-Met and Météo-France models are found
568 to outperform others, which is consistent with the literature (De Andrade et al., 2019; McAdam
569 et al., 2022). Despite the prevalent bias, statistically significant correlation are found in tropical
570 and subtropical regions, indicating that the models can reasonably capture the variability of
571 events even if they underperform in terms of the magnitude of the extremes (F. Vitart et al.,
572 2017).

573
574 We assess model skill in forecasting extreme events in regions susceptible to cascading natural
575 hazards like wildfires and floods. To evaluate performance in areas prone to wildfires, we
576 employed indices such as maximum consecutive dry days with precipitation below 1mm
577 (cdd1), and proportion of days with precipitation at or above 1mm (propd1). For flood-prone
578 zones, we used number of wet days with precipitation above 10mm and the 75th percentile of
579 the reference data (nwd10q75), as well as heavy precipitation days (days with precipitation
580 above 10 mm, hpd) as primary indices. Also, for areas with high population density and
581 elevated built-up density, consecutive wet days with precipitation above 1mm (cwd1) threshold
582 is used for evaluations.

583
584 In the context of wildfire risk analysis, notable differences in predictive capacities are observed,
585 with specific models showcasing prowess in different regions and for different extreme
586 precipitation indices. In the Northern Australia region, Météo-France and ECCO models
587 display robust performance in predicting consecutive dry days. In the Southern Africa region,
588 the DWD model emerged as a frontrunner for predicting extreme precipitation events. The UK-
589 Met model shows promising results for Western North America. Lastly, the DWD model shows
590 good performance for the North South America region.

591
592 For flood-prone regions, the UK-Met model demonstrates superior predictive capabilities in
593 the South-East Asia during the monsoon season (JJA). In Western and Central Europe during
594 the flood season (DJF), the ECCC model excels with notable correlation and comparable bias,
595 despite challenges in capturing reference data variations. In South Asia and during the JJA
596 season, the UK-Met and CMCC models excel, with the UK-Met showing favourable
597 correlation and lower bias.

598
599 Forecast models showed superior results for tropical regions than others globally. Lower
600 correlation scores in extratropical regions can be attributed to the inherent unpredictability of
601 extratropical variability and the errors stemming from model deficiencies in representing
602 teleconnections (De Andrade et al., 2019). Our analysis of extreme precipitation indices across
603 multiple models reveals that higher precipitation thresholds used for model evaluation
604 correspond to increased bias, indicating a lack of skill in modelling severe precipitation events.
605 Finally, our results emphasized the superiority of UK-Met and Météo-France models
606 throughout all four seasons. The ECCC and CMCC models demonstrate effectiveness,
607 following UK-Met and Météo-France, across specific indices and regions. Model fusion
608 emerges as a successful approach for predicting extreme events across different seasons. These
609 findings highlight the effectiveness of the impact-based framework in thoroughly assessing
610 forecast skills in representing climate and weather patterns across various models and seasons.

611 **Open Research**

612
613 The data used in this study were obtained from the European Centre for Medium-Range
614 Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) Copernicus Climate Change Service, specifically from the
615 ERA5 reanalysis dataset and C3S seasonal forecasts. These datasets are publicly available
616 through the Copernicus Climate Data Store (CDS) at <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu> under
617 an Open Data Commons Attribution 4.0 International (ODC-BY 4.0) license. To access the
618 data, users can register for a free account on the Copernicus Climate Data Store platform and
619 follow the provided guidelines for data retrieval. The specific seasonal model version numbers
620 used in this study are detailed in the supplementary material of the paper.

621

622

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