

# 1 Sub-seasonal to seasonal climate forecasts provide the backbone of a near real-time Event

## 2 Explainer service

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### 15 Capsule

16 The Bureau of Meteorology serves the Australian community to reduce its climate risk and is  
17 developing a suite of tools to explain the drivers of extreme events. Dynamical sub-seasonal to  
18 seasonal forecasts form the backbone of the service, potentially enabling it to be run in near real-  
19 time.

### 20 Introduction

21  
22 The Australian Bureau of Meteorology (BoM) provides forecasts at daily, multi-week and seasonal  
23 timescales along with a range of other services. Customers are keen to be informed about the causes  
24 of extreme weather and climate events to help them in their planning and decision making. While  
25 attribution is often framed in terms of understanding the role of climate change, it is also useful to  
26 understand the role of climate variability and circulation changes in causing extreme events (e.g.

27 Mindlin et al., 2020). The focus of the Event Explainer is to reduce climate risk by informing decision  
28 makers about the causes of extreme events and, if there are *persistent* underlying drivers, the  
29 event's likelihood of recurrence over the coming season or decade.

30

31 This article describes the tools that are being developed at the BoM to explain the causes of extreme  
32 weather and climate events, and how those tools would add value to existing services. The novel  
33 aspect of the tools is that they will link with the dynamical sub-seasonal to seasonal (S2S) forecasts  
34 currently in operation. Thus, operational staff are alerted to the upcoming extreme event, and have  
35 time to diagnose and quantify the causes - facilitating earlier and more effective communication  
36 with the public and stakeholders, potentially tailoring the service to users' needs. Hence there is  
37 strong appeal in using an operational forecast system as the backbone of a real-time attribution  
38 system.

### 39 [Tools being developed for the Event Explainer](#)

40 We propose using a suite of applications for the Event Explainer service to enhance the benefits that  
41 can be drawn from different approaches and increase confidence in the final messages (Philip et al.,  
42 2020). Initially, regional heatwaves will be the focus of the BoM's attribution service, but the  
43 techniques can be used to explain the causes of other extremes, including the circulation changes  
44 associated with high intensity rainfall or fire weather. The applications are still under development  
45 and the skill of the techniques will be tested for each type of event, and any relevant caveats will be  
46 considered.

47 To illustrate the methods described here we apply the preliminary developmental versions to the  
48 heatwave preceding the 'Black Saturday' fires over south-east Australia in late January and early  
49 February 2009, see Figure 1a (Bureau of Meteorology, 2009).

### 50 [Modified initialization S2S Prediction Attribution \(SPA\) method](#)

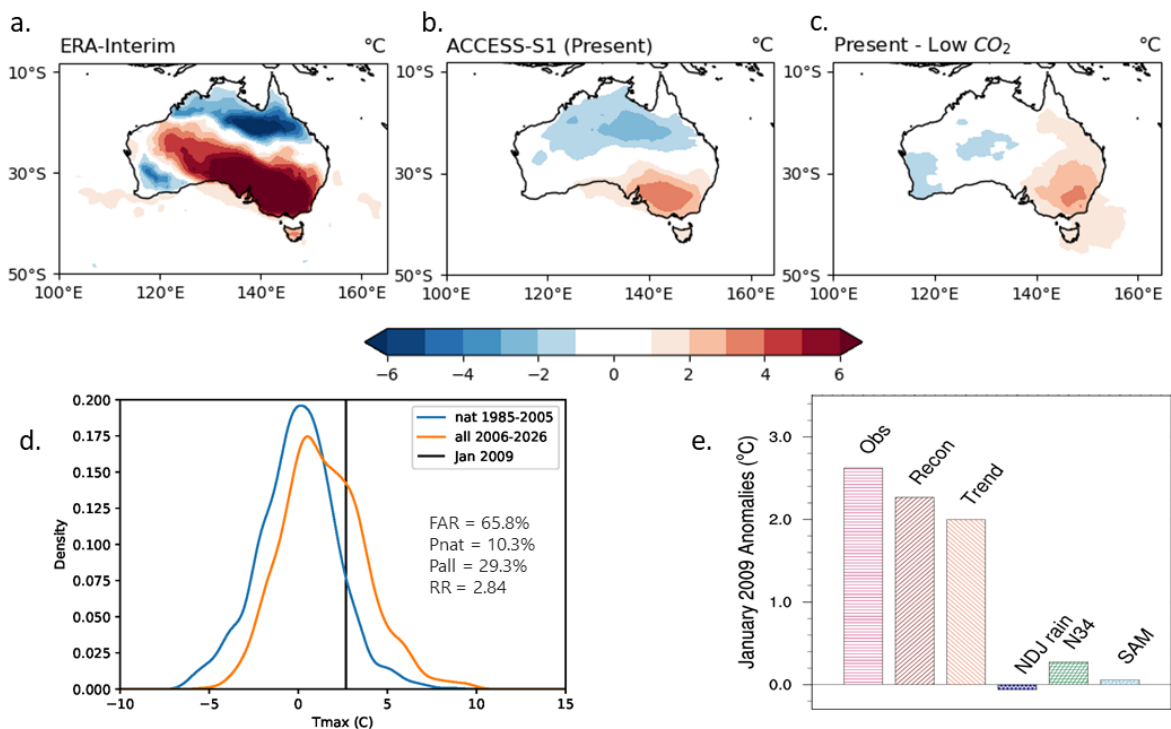
51

52 In the BoM's Research section, scientists developed a system to quantify the influence of increasing  
53 levels of greenhouse gases on extreme events using an initialized global dynamical coupled ocean-  
54 atmosphere S2S climate prediction system (Wang et al., 2021). In a series of case studies, the system  
55 was applied to quantify the influence of carbon dioxide increases since ~1960 on several Australian  
56 events:

- 57 • heat events on a sub-seasonal timescale (Arblaster et al., 2014; Hope et al., 2015, 2016);
- 58 • fire weather over two weeks in 2017 (combining the zero-lead forecast with observed  
59 antecedent rainfall and cooler (minus 1 °C) antecedent temperature observations to define  
60 the drought factor) (Hope et al., 2019);
- 61 • extreme monthly rainfall and associated circulation changes (Hope et al., 2018);
- 62 • frost events in south-west Australia and circulation (Grose et al., 2018); and
- 63 • extreme dry in Tasmania (Grose et al., 2019).

64 As this approach uses initialized forecasts, there was a potential interest in the benefit that the  
65 attribution system could be used to describe the influence from increasing greenhouse gases *prior* to  
66 the event occurring (presented at the 2018 annual meeting of International Detection and  
67 Attribution Group (IDAG) in Berkeley, USA). At the time, the approach used the BoM's low-resolution  
68 operational S2S forecast system POAMA, presenting the option of running attribution experiments  
69 alongside the operational forecast service. Since then, a major operational upgrade has provided an  
70 opportunity to use a much higher resolution coupled model with advanced physics, the Australian  
71 Community Climate and Earth-System Simulator subseasonal-to-seasonal prediction system  
72 (ACCESS-S; Hudson et al., 2017). Development is now underway to assess the skill and utility of  
73 ACCESS-S as a tool for attribution. A preliminary forecast experiment of the Black Saturday heatwave  
74 has been performed using an early version of the ACCESS-S system, ACCESS-S1. The ensemble mean  
75 ACCESS-S1 forecast reasonably captured the temperature anomaly pattern during 27 January - 8  
76 February 2009 over south-east Australia from 17 January 2009 (i.e., 10-day lead time (Figure 1b)). In

77 comparison to the forecast with the present level of CO<sub>2</sub>, a set of ensemble forecasts was generated  
 78 for the same event but under the low CO<sub>2</sub> climate conditions of the early 20<sup>th</sup> Century, with CO<sub>2</sub> set  
 79 to 297ppm (equivalent to 1905 levels) and the removal of the changed ocean-atmospheric mean  
 80 state due to human influence over the last century from the initial conditions. The change state was  
 81 estimated from a five-member ensemble of the HadGEM3 CMIP5 long run (2000-2020 minus 1861-  
 82 1950). The resultant ensemble mean forecast difference indicates about 3 °C warming over the  
 83 south-east Australia due to atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> increase and the associated ocean and atmospheric  
 84 mean state change for this event (Figure 1c). Further details are discussed in Abhik et al. (to be  
 85 submitted). Development is still underway to apply this method in the current operational version,  
 86 ACCESS-S2. A detailed analysis of the circulation changes associated with the event can be drawn  
 87 from the results of the SPA technique, as shown in Grose et al. 2018.



88

89 **Figure 1.** Application of developmental versions of the Event Explainer methods to the  
 90 heatwave period preceding Black Saturday fires in late January and early February 2009.  
 91 Temperature anomalies 27 January – 8 February 2009 from a) ERA-Interim (Dee et al.,

92 2011) and b) ACCESS-S1 forecasts initialized on 17 January 2009 and c) the present-day  
93 forecast minus the same forecast on a low CO<sub>2</sub> background mean state. CMIP5-based  
94 (Taylor et al., 2012) distributions (d) of average January daily maximum temperature for  
95 Victoria from the present climate (orange: 2006-2026, RCP8.5) and natural-forcing only  
96 simulations (blue: 1985-2005), based on the method of Lewis et al. (2014). The observed  
97 2009 January anomaly (Jones et al., 2009) is shown as a vertical black line). Finally,  
98 January 2009 loading values from a multiple linear regression (MLR; 1979-2019) of known  
99 drivers of Victorian climate in January (e). Drivers include (from the right) detrended indices  
100 of Southern Annular Mode (SAM)<sup>1</sup>, Niño3.4 (Reynolds et al., 2002), antecedent seasonal  
101 rainfall (Jones et al., 2009) and the trend (years). The reconstructed anomaly in January  
102 2009 is primarily driven by the trend, with some contribution from the moderate La Niña.

### 103 Fraction of Attributable Risk (FAR) Method

104 A second, established approach that can be applied to understand the likelihood of surpassing  
105 certain thresholds for a particular variable (e.g., Victoria state-averaged month-long temperature) is  
106 to define the probabilities of exceedance in large ensembles of climate model simulations with full  
107 historical (or near future) forcing versus those with natural forcing (e.g., Lewis et al., 2014). The PDFs  
108 are being re-created so that we have scope to update the thresholds used and move to include new  
109 CMIP simulations as they become available. Preliminary results suggest that the average January  
110 2009 daily maximum temperature in Victoria, Australia, was 2.8 times more likely in the modelled  
111 present climate compared to a world with only natural forcing. The FAR technique could be applied  
112 to extremes forecast in the S2S outlook period using appropriate bias correction to instantly provide  
113 an estimate of the contribution from anthropogenic climate change to the likelihood of that event  
114 under different climate conditions. An evaluation of the forecast skill would precede efforts using

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<sup>1</sup> <http://www.nerc-bas.ac.uk/icd/gjma/sam.html>

115 this approach, and discussion has begun with BoM Research to Operations staff working on  
116 verification and bias correction.

#### 117 Statistical multivariate analysis of drivers

118 While climate change is one factor influencing extreme events over Australia, large-scale drivers  
119 such as El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) (e.g., Black and Karoly, 2016; Karoly et al., 2016) and the  
120 Indian Ocean Dipole (IOD) (e.g., Abram et al., 2021) lead to large climate anomalies in Australia.  
121 Thus, both scientists and Australian climate information stakeholders are keen to understand the  
122 interplay of these factors. For instance, the extreme rainfall across eastern Australia in September  
123 2016 was linked to the negative phase of the IOD (King, 2018), and if this information were provided  
124 in real-time, decision-makers could anticipate a continuation of wet conditions through spring. If we  
125 have more accurate quantification of the impacts from influential large-scale climate drivers on the  
126 intensity or likelihood of regional climate extreme events and the influence of climate change on the  
127 drivers, then for future extreme events communities will be able to take appropriate adaptation  
128 measures, such as flood defences.

129 To quantify the contribution from the large-scale drivers, we follow the approach of Wang et al.  
130 (2016), who describes a multiple linear regression (MLR) approach, with predictors chosen to  
131 represent the variability from ENSO, IOD, the Southern Annular Mode (SAM), gridded antecedent  
132 soil moisture over Australia and the mean global temperature, as used by Arblaster et al. (2014) and  
133 Hope et al. (2016). A deep understanding of the features that influence the climate of a region and  
134 season, and their interactions, is needed prior to setting up the system (e.g. Min et al., 2013), and  
135 further development of the statistical approach might be considered to help provide causal  
136 reasoning based on the statistical relationships (e.g. Kretschmer et al., 2021). Once that  
137 understanding is established, the evaluation of the seasons and regions where large-scale modes of  
138 variability have high forecast skill for the event in question will guide the development of the MLR  
139 system to be applied to *forecast* extremes (e.g. Marshall et al., 2013, 2021; White et al., 2014).

140 The average January 2009 Victorian daily maximum temperature is reconstructed in Figure 1e using  
141 the MLR approach. In this case, the majority of the anomalous heat can be explained by the linear  
142 trend, with small positive contributions from tropical and extratropical drivers. Slightly wet  
143 conditions in the months preceding January 2009 added a weak cooling effect to the reconstructed  
144 maximum temperature. Note that the current MLR holds little skill for January, explaining only ~25%  
145 of the average monthly daily maximum temperature.

146 Summary of attribution message using three methods, and next steps

147 For the 2009 heatwave event, preliminary results using three attribution methods indicate that the  
148 heatwave was made almost three times more likely and around 3 °C hotter in the present climate  
149 than in a world without human influence on the climate. The usual drivers of heat in south-east  
150 Australia (ENSO, SAM) contributed only a small amount to the January temperature anomaly.

151 The SPA approach can capture the magnitude of the anomaly due to the background human  
152 influence on climate, while the MLR approach uses only a linear trend, which may be appropriate for  
153 heat extremes, but may not work as well for rainfall. Likewise the circulation changes shown in the  
154 SPA experiments will capture the nuance of the forecast drivers of the event, which may differ from  
155 what might be captured with indices alone.

156 Improvements and developments might include moving the MLR or FAR approaches to sub-monthly  
157 values to better encompass the heatwave dates, or including further predictors such as the Madden  
158 Julian Oscillation in the MLR analysis e.g. (Marshall et al., 2021). More details about the drivers and  
159 circulation changes due to human influence could be gained from further examination of the S2S  
160 attribution experiment. Testing of the MLR and FAR for forecast events will also form part of the  
161 next steps.

162 Note that in all of these approaches, there is a reliance on the veracity of the forecasts, and the  
163 service will describe the *forecast* event, rather than an actual event. In the development of the

164 system the hindcast skill will inform how much confidence can be given to the attribution  
165 assessments. For events with known low forecast skill, guidance would be given that more certain  
166 results will be provided shortly following the event using the two statistics-based methods (MLR and  
167 FAR) based upon observations.

#### 168 Other methods

169 Another approach to determining the influence from large-scale drivers and their interplay with  
170 long-term trends on an event again uses the BoM's S2S prediction attribution system with modified  
171 initial conditions, such as the addition of the observed long-term trends on the canonical state of the  
172 ocean during El Niño (Lim et al., 2019) or La Niña (Lim et al., 2016). In each of those studies, the  
173 interactions with the underlying observed ocean trend were accounted for in the experimental  
174 design. These sorts of experiments could be pre-defined and triggered with the forecast of an  
175 extreme event; however, they are computationally expensive and thus are likely to form part of a  
176 post-event review rather than an integral part of the real-time service.

177 Another source of information could be drawn from methods being developed for other real-time  
178 attribution services in Europe<sup>2</sup> and New Zealand<sup>3</sup>.

#### 179 The potential of the Extreme Event Explainer Service to boost existing services within 180 the Bureau of Meteorology

181 *Decision support:* Staff in this area of the BoM work to support the weather and climate information  
182 needs of users, such as fire agencies. As we described our plans for the real-time Event Explainer  
183 systems to these staff, they were quick to see the value for the post-event reviews that they produce  
184 following major fires. These reviews help highlight what worked well and what could be improved  
185 across the actions taken towards preparedness and response to the event. A part of this is an

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<sup>2</sup> [European Climate and weather events: interpretation and attribution | Copernicus](#)

<sup>3</sup> [Extreme weather event real-time attribution machine - Bodeker Scientific](#)



186 understanding of the drivers of the event – including the meteorological set-up and the larger-scale  
187 modes of variability such as ENSO, IOD and the SAM and their interactions. The contribution of  
188 climate change is also important because it will add to the information around the conditions  
189 forecast for any upcoming fire season, allowing for informed risk assessments and longer-term  
190 planning that incorporates the changing likelihood and nature of extremes.

191 *Seasonal prediction:* The development of the Event Explainer service is closely linked to the  
192 operational seasonal forecast service. Understanding and quantifying the various causes of events in  
193 the outlook helps provide clarity and confidence in the messages provided. The tools used can also  
194 inform the model forecast skill verification and understanding – for example, the reasons that a  
195 seasonal forecast verifies poorly may be untangled if one looks to the relative contributions *post*  
196 *priori* (Lim et al., 2021).

197 *Climate services for emergency management, hydrology, agriculture:* The BoM provides targeted  
198 services for key sectors across the community. For instance, forecasts are used to provide a  
199 heatwave service following learnings from the 2009 heatwave (Bettio et al., 2018). The service for  
200 hydrology presents historical risk, real-time forecasts and projections information all in one place:  
201 <http://awo.bom.gov.au/>. An additional statement around the drivers of extremes as they are  
202 forecast would complement those services and provide the link between what we are currently  
203 seeing and the projected changes in those same variables. Extending the Event Explainer service to  
204 include hydrological variables could form an important next step.

205 *Weather forecasters:* the real-time aspect of the system will help forecasters articulate informed  
206 answers to questions such as 'how much did climate change influence this particular weather  
207 event?', often asked during media interviews about recent extremes. Furthermore, climate change  
208 can influence extreme weather events, pushing them outside the range of past experience. This  
209 information is thus important in communicating the current forecast risk, so actions are equal to the  
210 actual risk and not dependent on past behaviour.

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