

1 **Supplementary materials: On the use of Weather Regimes to forecast**  
2 **meteorological droughts over Europe**

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## ABSTRACT

15 In this supplementary materials, the methodologies employed to attribute the  
16 WRs and to assign the predictors are exposed. The different steps involved are  
17 illustrated in Fig. 1.

## WR classification and attribution

To define the MOAWRs, the first step is WR classification. This step is explained in the main document and the patterns of the geopotential height anomalies for the four seasons are displayed in Fig. 2. The best known WRs occur in winter, namely the NAO- (Fig. 2a), the Blocking (Fig. 2b), the Atlantic Ridge (Fig. 2c) and the NAO+ (Fig. 2d). Once the WR classification done, the closest WR to the daily geopotential of each ENS-member is attributed for both ERAI and ENS (see step 2 in Fig. 1).

## Assignment of predictors

The objective of this step is to identify the best SPI-1-predictor within the three or four WRs identified for each season and their 6 to 12 possible combinations (step 3 in Fig. 1). Firstly, this is done by using the MOAWRs provided by ERAI and the SPI-1 based on the observed precipitation (red arrows in Fig. 1). This identification is based on the temporal correlation between the SPI-1 for each grid point and the MOAWRs. Fig. 3 depicts these correlation values for the 16 anomalies of WR (and combination) occurrences provided by ERAI in winter and illustrates the known WR impacts on precipitation. For instance, the positive impact of the occurrence of the Atlantic Ridge (WRc) or NAO+ (WRd) on higher precipitation in the northern part of Europe, or the dry conditions associated with blocking (WRb) in north-eastern Europe (?) are clearly visible.

An automatic attribution is then applied based on the maximum of the absolute values of the correlations. The sign of the correlation is recorded to keep track of the type of teleconnection. As an example, Fig. 4 illustrates the strong teleconnection between the occurrence of the best WR predictor and SPI-1 over the Scandinavian Peninsula. It shows the Cumulated Distribution Function (CDF) of dry conditions (i.e.  $SPI-1 < -1$ ) and the reverse CDF of wet conditions (i.e.  $SPI-1 > 1$ )

42 in relation to the predictors (here, the difference of occurrence between WTb and WTd). While  
43 the distribution of the predictor (distribution of WTb-WTd) is close to the normal distribution with  
44 the same number of events in both cases, the two CDFs depict a clear difference. More than 90%  
45 of dry conditions occur when the predictor is positive (i.e. more WTb than WTd during the 30-day  
46 period). The opposite is true for wet conditions. The cross-section of the two CDFs at around 0.1  
47 is also a good indicator for evaluating the ability of the predictor to discriminate between the two  
48 conditions (i.e., its resolution, which is good if the intersection occurs close to 0 or 1, null if it is  
49 close to 0.5).

50 When using the ENS forecasts, different methods of predictor assignments have been tested. The  
51 first one (called Operational forecast in Fig. 1) is an assignment derived from the ERAI previously  
52 described. The best relationship between the observed predictand and predictor is used to define  
53 the predictor from the 16 WRs occurrence anomalies and then applied to the forecasts (green  
54 arrows in Fig. 1). The advantage of this method is a real assessment of the model ability to  
55 forecast both the WRs and the relationship between the SPI and the WRs. As this assignment  
56 is fixed, it is also easier to set up operationally and there is no problem when the version of the  
57 operational model changes. Indeed, this kind of assignment procedure depends on the reanalysis  
58 and the observed precipitation and so it is independent from the model version. The disadvantage  
59 is the non-optimization of the forecast, i.e. there is no correction in case of bias in the forecasted  
60 WRs.

61 A second assignment procedure (called Optimized forecast in Fig. 1) is built by applying the  
62 same method but using the best relationship between the observed SPI and the WRs occurrence  
63 forecasted by the ENS as predictor (instead of those derived from ERAI). Note that in this approach  
64 the WR classification is derived from ERAI. This method (blue arrows in Fig. 1) derives the best  
65 relationships between WRs forecasted and observed precipitation, and by definition will obtain the

66 best scores even if the WRs are not correctly forecasted. The last predictor assignment (Process;  
67 purple arrows in Fig. 1 ) is built identically to the previous configurations. The only difference  
68 is the use of the precipitation forecasted by ENS and so it provides the relationships between the  
69 forecasted WRs and precipitation. Therefore, this configuration aims at highlighting the skill of  
70 the model in representing observed processes.

71 A second method for defining the predictors, instead of the best absolute value of correlation,  
72 was also tested using the Mixture Discriminant Analysis (MDA, ?). This method is an extension of  
73 the linear discriminant analysis and is a classification procedure based on mixture models. Each  
74 class is assumed to be a Gaussian mixture of subclasses. This method is based on a generative  
75 model based on the posterior probability of class memberships. By weighting each parameter,  
76 each class can then be characterized. Based on the learning period and the derived parameters,  
77 the model can then predict a class in the projection period. The model parameters are estimated  
78 via an expectation-maximization algorithm. Nevertheless, due to the optimization technique, this  
79 second attribution method does not seem to be suitable for predicting extreme events as it tends  
80 to overestimate the normal conditions when the distinction is not significant. As a consequence,  
81 scores are only visible where the relationships between the WRs and the SPI-1 are the strongest  
82 and elsewhere the results remain below the benchmark (not shown). The only benefit of this  
83 overestimation of the normal condition is in the strong reduction of the FAR. For these reasons  
84 this method is not further explored in this study.

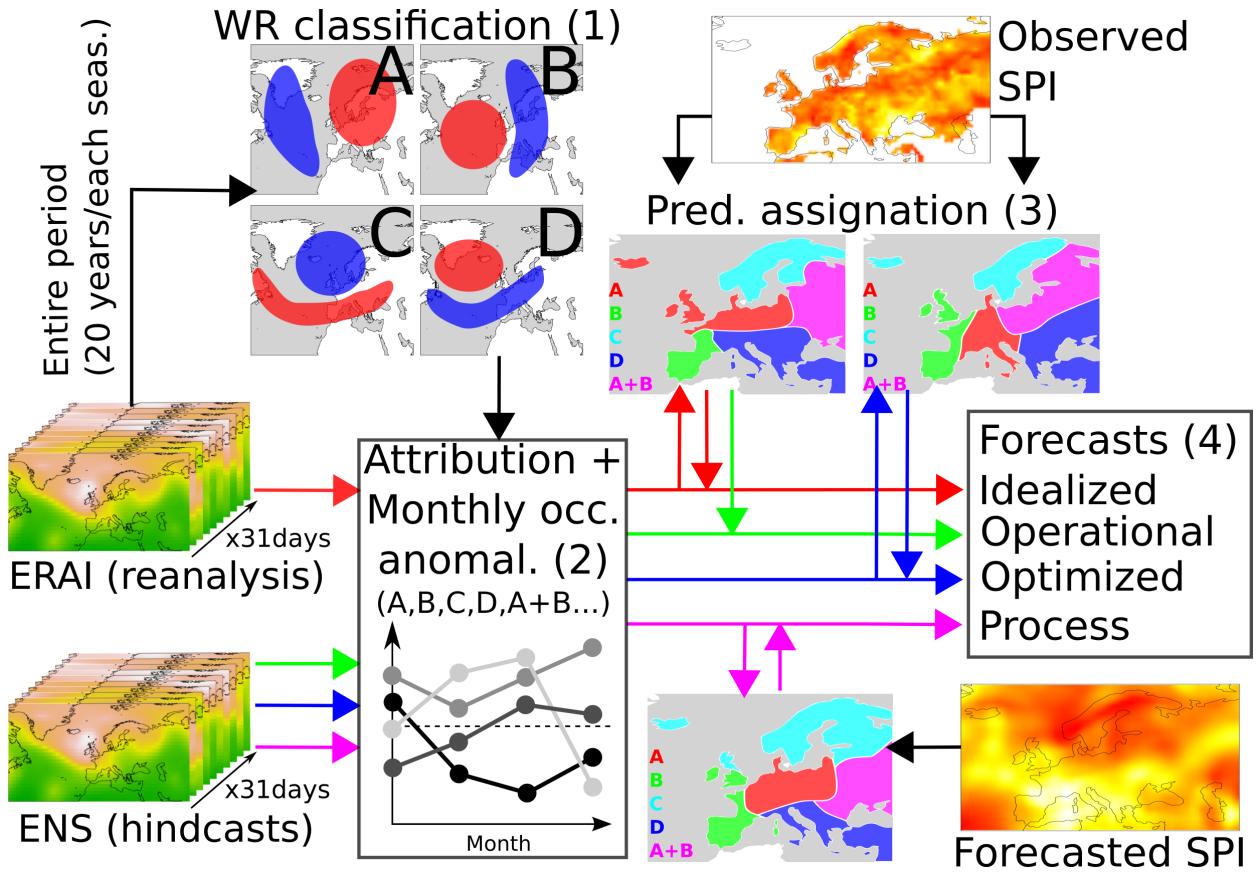
85 **LIST OF FIGURES**

86 **Fig. 1.** Schema of the procedures to develop the forecasts by using ERAI and ENS. The process  
87 is based on three consecutive steps presented and discussed in the paper. The first one is  
88 the WR classification (1), using ERAI. The daily WR attribution (2) and the monthly occur-  
89 rence anomalies are then calculated using ERAI and ENS. Finally the predictor assignments  
90 (3) are realised with 3 different combinations of correlation: i) observed precipitation and  
91 MOAWRs, ii) observed precipitation and forecasted MOAWRs, and iii) forecasted precipi-  
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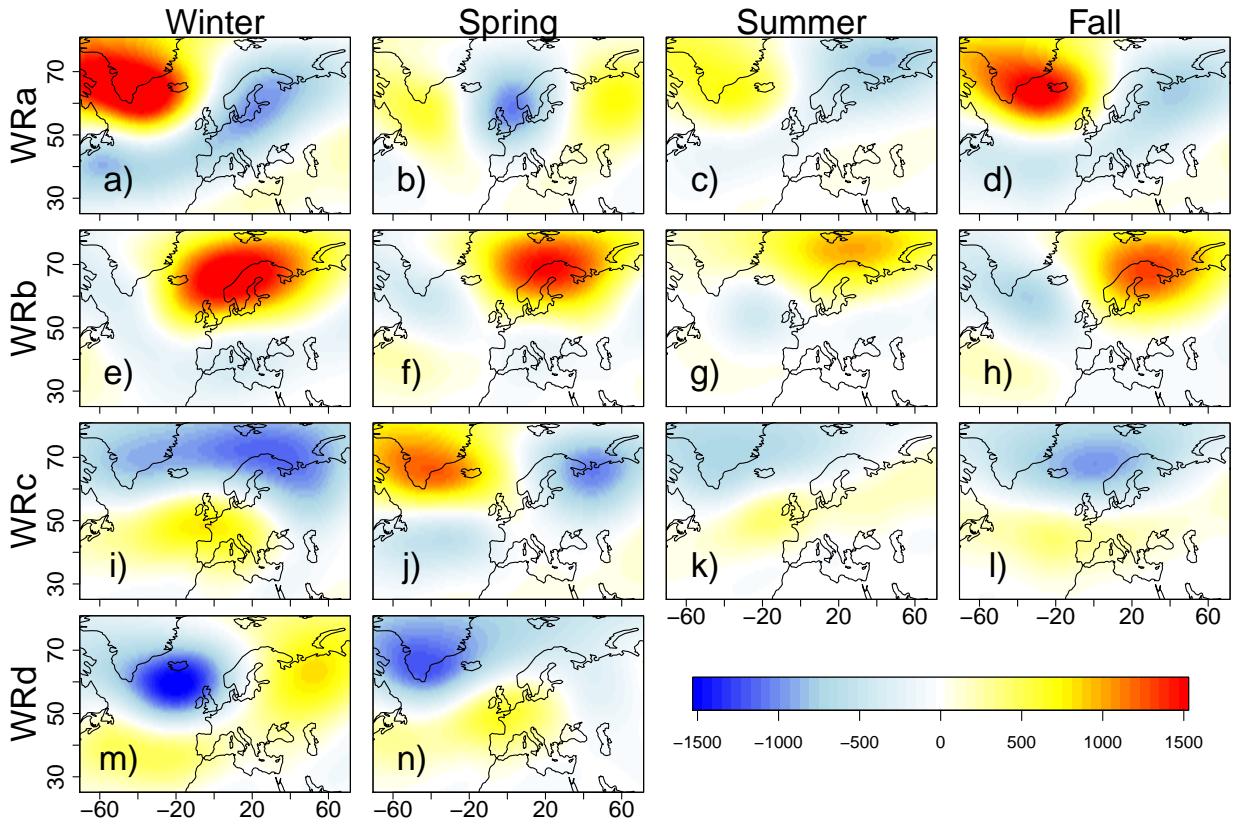
93 **Fig. 2.** Geopotential anomalies at 500hPa (in m) for each WR in winter (DJF), spring (MAM),  
94 summer (JJA) and autumn (SON). According to the season, 3 or 4 WRs are detected. . . . . 8

95 **Fig. 3.** Temporal correlation between SPI-1 and the 16 WR occurrence anomalies (4 WRs and 12  
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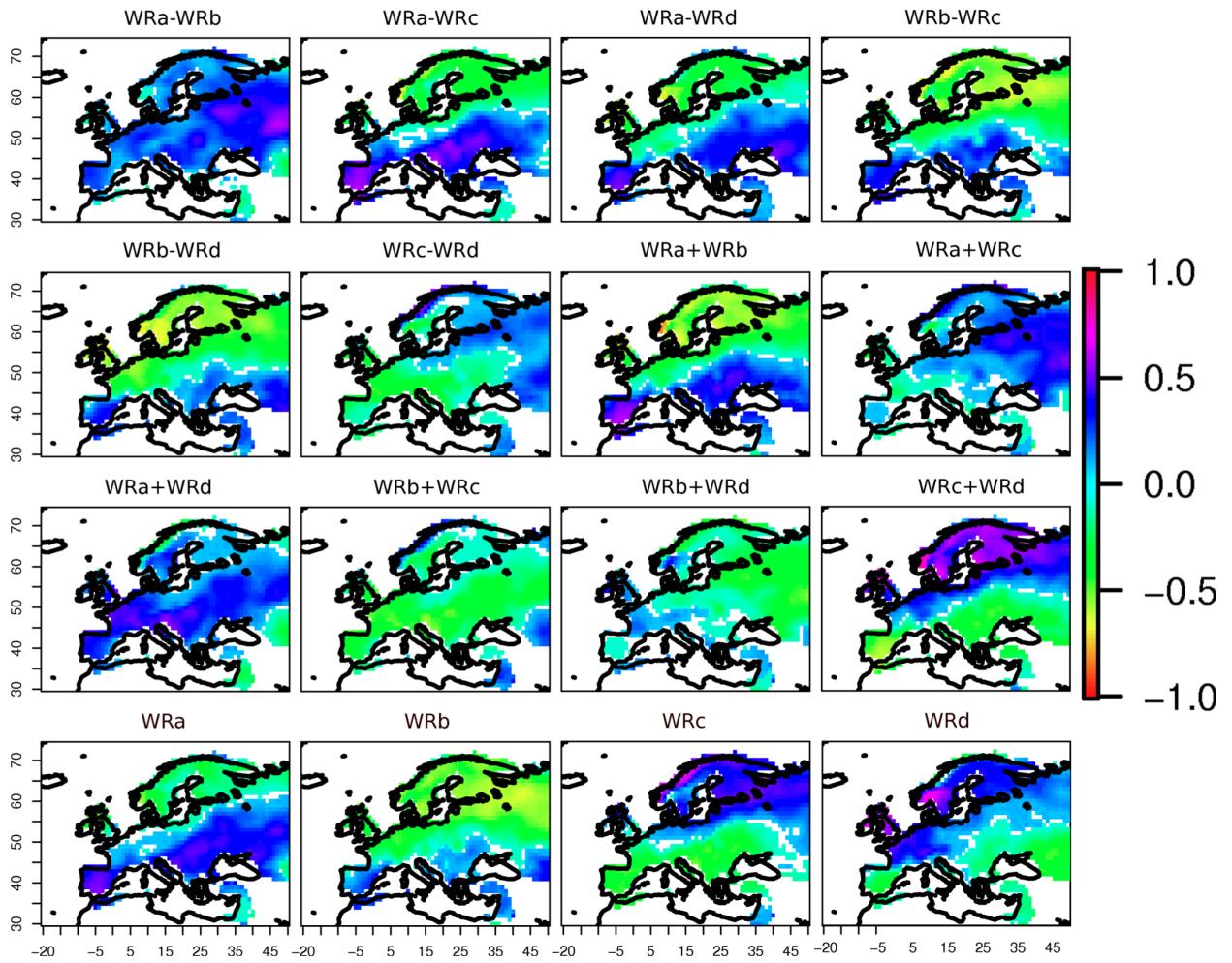
97 **Fig. 4.** Climatological distribution of cases of the predictors (here, occurrence of WRb - occurrence  
98 of WRd) from -30 to 30 days (top panel). CDF of dry conditions (defined as having an  
99 SPI-1 lower than -1) following the predictors (red line) over the Scandinavian region. The  
100 blue line represents the inverse CDF for wet conditions (SPI-1 larger than 1). Vertical lines  
101 indicate the medians of each distribution. . . . . 10



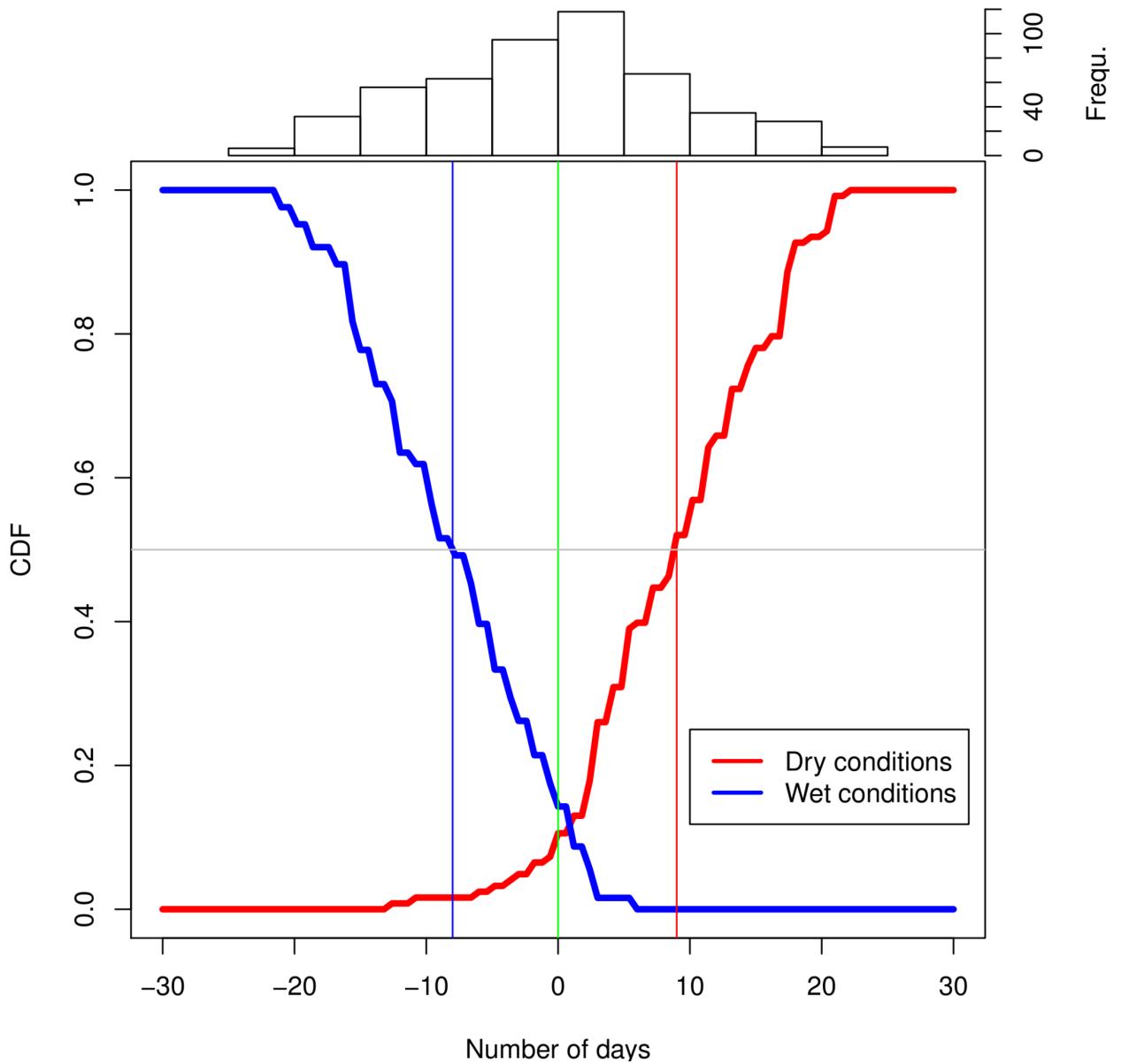
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