

1 **Making Seasonal Outlooks of Arctic Sea Ice and Atlantic Hurricanes**

2 **Valuable - Not Just Skillful**

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## ABSTRACT

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18 In recent years, a big effort has been made by part of the climate community towards the devel-  
19 opment of climate services in order to make climate information decision oriented. In a climate  
20 forecasting context, this means identifying climate variables, thresholds and/or events of rele-  
21 vance to users. Once identified, these elements, which generally do not coincide with variables  
22 typically forecasted by the scientific community, are analysed to determine whether they can be  
23 predicted both reliably and skillfully at the appropriate time scale. This process generally requires  
24 a sustained dialogue between the different parties involved before coming to a fruitful conclusion.  
25 Here, we discuss two such efforts which attempt to bridge the gap between climate forecasting  
26 and application for two phenomena already receiving a fair amount of attention from the general  
27 public: hurricanes and Arctic sea ice.

28 The first seasonal forecast model of tropical cyclone (TC) activity was published in the late  
29 1970s by Nicholls (1979). However, due to a general skepticism regarding seasonal forecasting  
30 of TCs in the meteorological community at the time, its author did not begin issuing publicly-  
31 available seasonal tropical cyclone forecasts for the Australian region until the late 1980s (Nicholls  
32 2019, personal communication). Relying in part on a newly discovered relationship between At-  
33 lantic hurricanes and El Niño-Southern Oscillation, William Gray at Colorado State University  
34 (CSU) thus became the first to issue TC outlooks in real-time in 1984 (Gray 1984). While CSU  
35 has been producing uninterrupted forecasts since then and was the only group doing so for the  
36 Atlantic through the mid-1990s, many groups have since initiated seasonal hurricane forecasts of  
37 their own. The number of groups issuing seasonal predictions for the Atlantic increased dramati-  
38 cally in the mid-to late-2000s, likely due in part to the extremely active 2004 and 2005 Atlantic  
39 hurricane seasons. Seasonal predictions of TC activity are now produced for each basin where TCs  
40 are observed, and for most TC basins, predictions are issued by multiple groups. For the Atlantic  
41 basin alone, 26 groups, ranging from private weather companies to universities to national weather

42 services, are now producing publicly-available seasonal outlooks. This increase in the number of  
43 groups issuing these forecasts is also owed in large part to the development of new technologies as  
44 well as easily accessible climate data, which has made it relatively straightforward for any group  
45 (or individual) to develop their own forecasting system.

46 Seasonal sea ice forecasts began more than two decades later than seasonal hurricane forecasts.  
47 But after the record low sea ice extent (SIE) in September 2007, which fell 26% below the previous  
48 year and took many scientists by surprise, there was a growing effort in the scientific community  
49 to develop reliable methods to predict the minimum SIE a few months in advance. This effort  
50 was led by a grassroots project organized through the Study of Environmental Arctic Change  
51 (SEARCH) called the Sea Ice Outlook<sup>1</sup> (SIO). Each year starting in June, the SIO would collect  
52 and synthesize sea ice outlooks of the pan-Arctic September SIE and share results on its webpage.  
53 SIOs were requested each month up to the September minimum. In 2014, the effort was formally  
54 funded by several US agencies and rolled into the Sea Ice Prediction Network<sup>2</sup> (SIPN). In 2017,  
55 based on the SIPN, the sister project SIPN South<sup>3</sup> was initiated to meet the growing demand for  
56 sea ice forecasts in the Southern Ocean.

57 Perhaps surprisingly, despite a 25-year head start, there is no such equivalent organized network  
58 in the hurricane community. However, a similar platform has recently been brought online which  
59 gathers all freely-available Atlantic hurricane outlooks as they are made available by the 26 differ-  
60 ent groups now issuing them. Each year since 2016, the site has collected and displayed seasonal  
61 hurricane forecasts issued from late March through early August. Spearheaded by the Barcelona  
62 Supercomputing Center and CSU and supported by a private sponsor (XL Catlin - now AXA XL)

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<sup>1</sup><https://www.arcus.org/sipn/sea-ice-outlook>

<sup>2</sup><https://www.arcus.org/sipn>

<sup>3</sup><http://acecrc.org.au/sipn-south>

63 but relying on the volunteer participation of the forecasters, the hurricane collation site<sup>4</sup> arose from  
64 the desire of these three institutions to centralize the various outlooks, which are typically pub-  
65 licly available but scattered across different domains. This stands in contrast with a coordinated  
66 community effort which offers its view on the upcoming hurricane season.

67 While the first hurricane forecasts were based on statistical relationships between TC activity  
68 and key climate predictors such as ENSO and Caribbean basin sea level pressures (Gray 1984),  
69 the increase in climate model resolution has allowed the development of dynamical model-based  
70 forecasts, wherein hurricane-like vortices are detected and tracked in initialized climate simu-  
71 lations (Vitart and Stockdale 2001). However, because this type of forecast requires expensive  
72 infrastructure compared to the comparatively simpler statistical models, few groups are now issu-  
73 ing dynamical forecasts, and only one of these groups (the UK Met Office) is currently making  
74 their forecasts freely available. At present, most groups are producing so-called hybrid forecasts,  
75 which rely on both statistical relationships between TCs and the large-scale environment and ini-  
76 tialized climate simulations by dynamical models (for an estimate of the large-scale fields during  
77 the hurricane season). The increase in computational power has also fostered the development  
78 of innovative technologies, as machine learning techniques have started to be applied to the TC  
79 forecasting problem. While still in their infancy, they have the potential to yield new insights  
80 on the large-scale factors modulating TC formation. Since 2018, two groups have begun issuing  
81 hurricane outlooks based on machine learning techniques, and more are likely to follow.

82 For sea ice forecasts, various methods were used initially, including heuristic estimates, simple  
83 linear regression models and dynamical coupled ice-ocean models. However, with time, the use of  
84 dynamical models for sea ice forecasts has grown, including both coupled ice-ocean models forced  
85 by atmospheric reanalysis data or fully-coupled climate models, with and without initialization by

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<sup>4</sup>[www.seasonalhurricanepredictions.org](http://www.seasonalhurricanepredictions.org)

86 data assimilation. And while early forecasts simply provided estimates of the pan-Arctic sea ice  
87 extent, today's forecasts also include sea ice thickness, spatial maps of sea ice probability (presence  
88 of ice or not) and timing of sea ice break-up and ice advance. These metrics are arguably of more  
89 use to various stakeholders than the pan-Arctic sea ice extent, whether it is local communities  
90 planning for the seasonal hunt, or shipping companies trying to avoid the ice. This effort has  
91 been recently extended through separate funding to include a year-round portal for sub-seasonal  
92 to seasonal forecasts (Wayand et al. 2019). In comparison, the hurricane website includes an  
93 outlook for four different basinwide statistics (named storms, hurricanes, major hurricanes and  
94 Accumulated Cyclone Energy - an integrated measure of frequency, intensity, and duration), thus  
95 only providing information on the expected overall level of hurricane activity.

96 Figures 1 and 2 show the hurricane and sea ice outlooks for the recent years. For hurricanes,  
97 seasonal forecasts issued in 2015 and 2016 were quite good - with the median outlook correctly  
98 predicting the observed number of hurricanes (4) in 2015 and missing by only one hurricane (8  
99 predicted vs. 7 observed) in 2016. However, the median forecast in 2017 and 2018 underpre-  
100 dicted hurricane activity - with both median forecasts predicting three fewer hurricanes than were  
101 observed. In 2017, the median forecast was for 7 hurricanes, while 10 were observed. In 2018,  
102 the median forecast was for 5 hurricanes, while 8 were observed. Hurricane forecast skill does  
103 improve with a decrease in lead time, with moderate skill emerging in June and August forecasts  
104 showing the largest skill (Klotzbach et al. 2019). Perhaps surprisingly, we do not detect a cluster-  
105 ing of the August forecasts with respect to the April and June forecasts over the 2015-2018 period,  
106 except for 2017 when most forecasters revised their forecast upward due to anomalous warming of  
107 the tropical Atlantic just ahead of the start of the season. Despite this adjustment, few forecasters  
108 predicted the hyperactive 2017 hurricane season.

109 For sea ice, pan-Arctic September SIE forecasts generally fail to capture large deviations from  
110 the long-term trend (Hamilton and Stroeve 2016; Stroeve et al. 2015), regardless of the method  
111 used. The median forecast is only weakly correlated with observed data (Pearson correlation  
112 coefficient of 0.13), but is still slightly superior to trivial forecasts like persistence (0.08) or trend  
113 extrapolation (0.01) (none of which are significantly different from zero at the 5% level based on  
114 a one-sided t-test). Interestingly, the forecast skill does not necessarily improve with shorter lead  
115 times as one would expect. Perhaps even more interesting is the fact that the median outlooks  
116 are highly correlated (0.89) with the verification data from the previous year. That is, the median  
117 outlook of year  $n$  is strongly influenced by how anomalous the observed conditions were in year  
118  $n-1$  (a similar result was noted in Hamilton and Stroeve (2016)). So in effect, when viewed as a  
119 whole, groups tend to forecast the previous year's conditions. Unfortunately, we do not have a  
120 sufficient amount of retrospective forecasts to determine whether something similar occurs in the  
121 context of hurricanes. Correlations of CSU June forecasts, which go back to 1984, for the number  
122 of Atlantic hurricanes issued on June 1st with the previous year's observed hurricanes was 0.27,  
123 compared to 0.36 for the actual year, suggesting that hurricane forecasts behave differently, which  
124 is probably linked to the strong influence of ENSO on Atlantic hurricanes and their forecasts.

125 While the total hurricane count is one of the most commonly forecasted hurricane variables,  
126 it is of relatively little use to many stakeholders due to its limited application. Although not in-  
127 cluded on the platform itself, many groups are also issuing forecasts for the number of landfalling  
128 storms for different parts of the basin, which generally include different segments of the conti-  
129 nental U.S. coastline where financial impacts of landfalling storms are the largest. However, even  
130 these landfall forecasts are of limited use because they are not explicitly tailored to a stakeholder's  
131 decision-making process. In reality, the lack of tailoring to stakeholder needs - in the tropical  
132 cyclone space at least - is likely due to:

- 133 1. the sheer scope and complexity of stakeholders that are actively interested in tropical cyclone  
134 predictions; these stakeholders range from emergency planners and aid agencies to financial  
135 risk managers such as re/insurance companies.
- 136 2. the desire by typical stakeholders to have predictions of a tightly defined risk, which has not  
137 yet been attempted in any very explicit way, rather than the scientific hazard itself.

138 It can be said that risk is a function of hazard, vulnerability and exposure; this way of think-  
139 ing is deeply ingrained in the catastrophe modelling industry, which attempts to quantify societal  
140 impacts of perils. Although, as mentioned earlier, seasonal tropical cyclone landfall forecasts are  
141 now being attempted, the fact that they still remain disconnected from a fully coherent picture  
142 of vulnerability and exposure, as pertains to a precise decision-maker, means that they will likely  
143 remain of limited direct use to stakeholders, even if proven skillful. Rather than landfalling predic-  
144 tions being useless though, it is clear that these attempts are facilitating the conversation between  
145 the academic communities that are focused on the hazard, and those applied communities focused  
146 on the risk, such that predictions may be tailored to explicit decision-making chains in the future.  
147 In that sense, the hurricane seasonal forecasting community should consider emulating the SIPN  
148 which, with time, has evolved to better meet stakeholder needs.

149 Hurricane and sea ice forecasting have more in common than it might initially appear. In the  
150 context of global climate change, the processes to be forecasted are likely not stationary. That is,  
151 forecasting hurricanes and sea ice is more about chasing a moving target than one at rest. To face  
152 this reality, fundamental research continues in parallel to the efforts presented in this manuscript.  
153 Identifying new physical mechanisms that offer predictability at seasonal time scales would in-  
154 deed improve our skill at forecasting sea ice or hurricanes, but also drive our understanding be-  
155 yond simple predictor-predictand empirical relationships that might break down as mean states



156 change (Caron et al. 2015). Another point of convergence between the two fields of research is the  
157 notion that at the time scales considered, forecasts can only be expressed in probabilistic terms.  
158 Indeed, while climatic preconditioning drives in part the sea ice retreat and hurricane activity over  
159 one season, it is well-known that weather - unpredictable beyond two weeks - both modulates sea  
160 ice evolution and the timing and location of hurricane formation. Probabilistic forecasts, even if  
161 well calibrated, are prone to misinterpretation by audiences outside the forecasting community  
162 itself (Gigerenzer et al. 2005). This reality underlines the need to provide expert guidance when  
163 these forecasts are communicated to the public and stakeholders. Finally, a third common as-  
164 pect is the awareness that forecast skill and value are different concepts. As first pointed out by  
165 Murphy (1993), a forecast can be correct in terms of correspondence with matching observations  
166 but unexploitable for stakeholders. Sea ice and hurricane forecasting have historically attempted  
167 to forecast region-wide quantities relevant for forecast verification purposes such as total sea ice  
168 extent or basinwide count over a given season. While such diagnostics can readily be used to eval-  
169 uate retrospective forecasts, they often have little utility for those who need information to make  
170 a decision. The sea ice forecasting community is crossing the line by proposing a range of new  
171 user-oriented diagnostics, as explained above. We are hoping that the hurricane community can  
172 follow suit.

173 Despite dramatic progress in recent years in the fields of Arctic sea ice predictability (Chevallier  
174 et al. 2017) and prediction (Zampieri et al. 2018) as well as in hurricane forecasting (Klotzbach  
175 et al. 2019), the authors are unaware of any stakeholders reliant on these forecasts for planning  
176 (Wagner et al. 2019) and risk mitigation or transfer purposes, both because the variables currently  
177 forecasted are not useful for these purposes and because a reliable estimate of the skill of more  
178 useful variables (e.g. timing of sea ice break-up, odds of an hyperactive hurricane season) have  
179 yet to be established. The continuation of international cooperative initiatives like SIPN and

180 the seasonal hurricane prediction platform will be key to move forecasts beyond the academic  
181 framework and make them useful in an operational context of climate services, like weather  
182 forecasting did at the end of the 20th century.

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#### 184 **Additional information**

185 The sea ice and hurricane outlook data, as well as the scripts used to generate Fig. 1 and 2,  
186 can be obtained from the following Github project: [https://github.com/fmassonn/paper-hurricanes-](https://github.com/fmassonn/paper-hurricanes-seaice.git)  
187 [seaice.git](https://github.com/fmassonn/paper-hurricanes-seaice.git)

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194 Prediction Network (SIPN2)).

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232 **LIST OF TABLES**

233 **Table 1.** Comparison of Sea Ice and Hurricane Outlook platforms . . . . . 14

TABLE 1. Comparison of Sea Ice and Hurricane Outlook platforms

	Sea Ice Outlook	Hurricane Outlook
Region	Arctic	North Atlantic
Operational since	2014	2016
Period targeted	September	June-November
Variables forecasted	Total Sea ice extent	Number of named storms
	Sea ice probability (2D)	Number of hurricanes
	Ice free Date (2D)	Number of major hurricanes
	Regional sea ice extent (Alaska Region, Beaufort and Chukchi Seas)	Accumulated cyclone energy
Forecast Submission	June, July, August	Continuous March-August
Number of forecasts archived (2018)	813	133
Type of forecasts	Statistical	Statistical (including machine learning)
	Dynamical (fully coupled models and ocean-ice model only)	Dynamical
	Hybrid	Hybrid
	Heuristic	
Participating groups (as of 2018)	39	26
Type of organizations	Universities (30)	Universities (8)
	Government agencies (2)	Government agencies (6)
	General public (7)	Private weather companies (12)
Data available	Upon request	Directly, csv format

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## LIST OF FIGURES

235

**Fig. 1. Forecasts of North Atlantic basinwide hurricane number and verification data.** The observed number of hurricanes for each season is shown in gray (Landsea and Franklin 2013). The light blue dots are all of the latest individual hurricane outlooks collected since 2015 (one dot per group). The dark blue line is the median of those outlooks. The green and purple lines are two benchmark forecasts: the climatology forecast is defined as the average of all hurricane counts from 1969 to the current year minus one (green), and the 10-yr persistence forecasts is defined as the average of all hurricane counts from the 10 preceding years (purple). The numbers along the x-axis indicate the number of forecast that have been submitted for a given year for that particular variable. . . . . 16

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**Fig. 2. Forecasts of September Arctic sea ice extent and verification data.** The National Snow and Ice Data Center (NSIDC) Sea Ice Index, version 3 (Fetterer et al. 2017) is shown in gray as observational reference for verification of the forecasts. The light blue dots are all individual June Sea Ice Outlooks collected since the inception of the project in 2008 (252 forecasts in total). The dark blue line is the median of those outlooks. The green and purple lines are two benchmark forecasts: a linear trend forecast based on September extents available until the year preceding the forecast (green) and an anomaly persistence forecast (purple). To produce the latter, May anomalies were added to the September climatology. The numbers along the x-axis indicate the number of forecasts that have been submitted for a given year for that particular variable. . . . . 17

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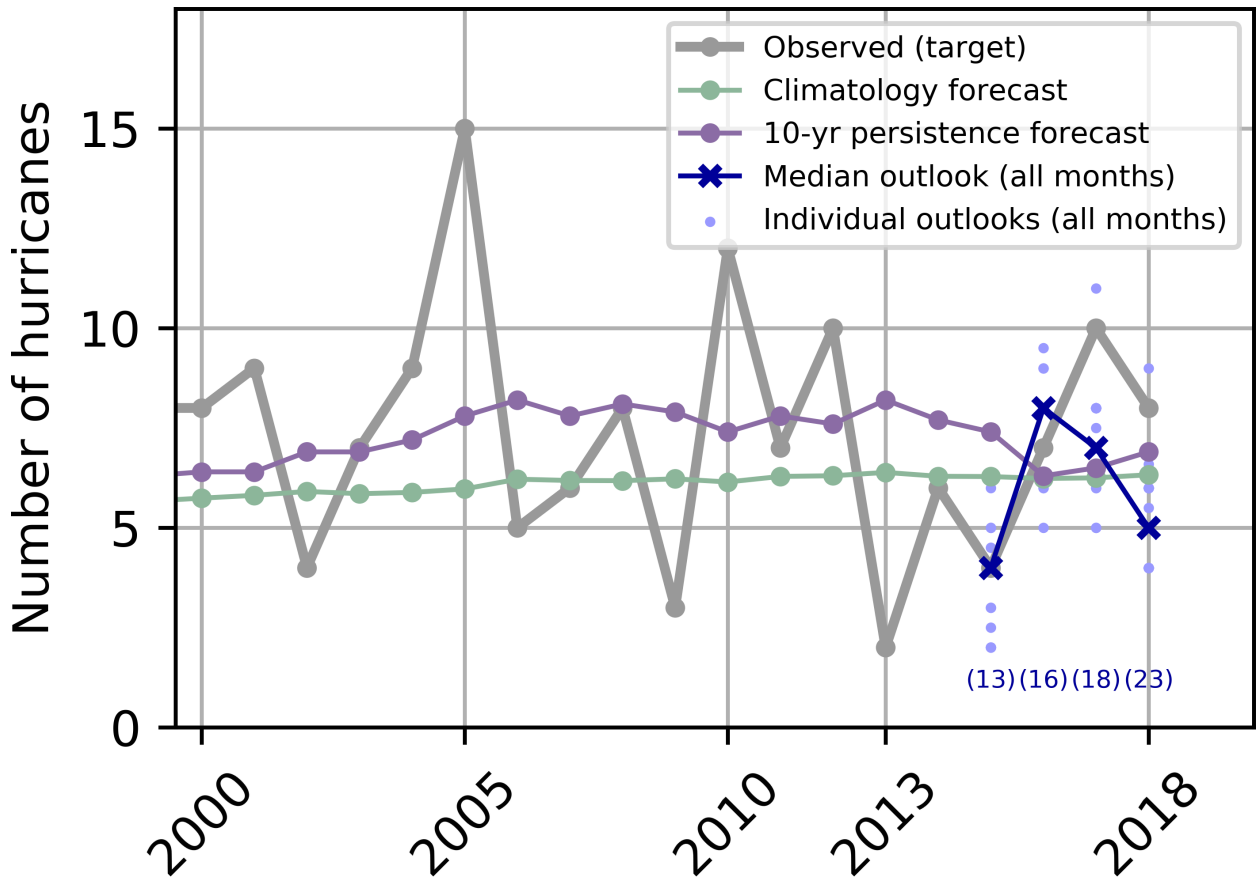
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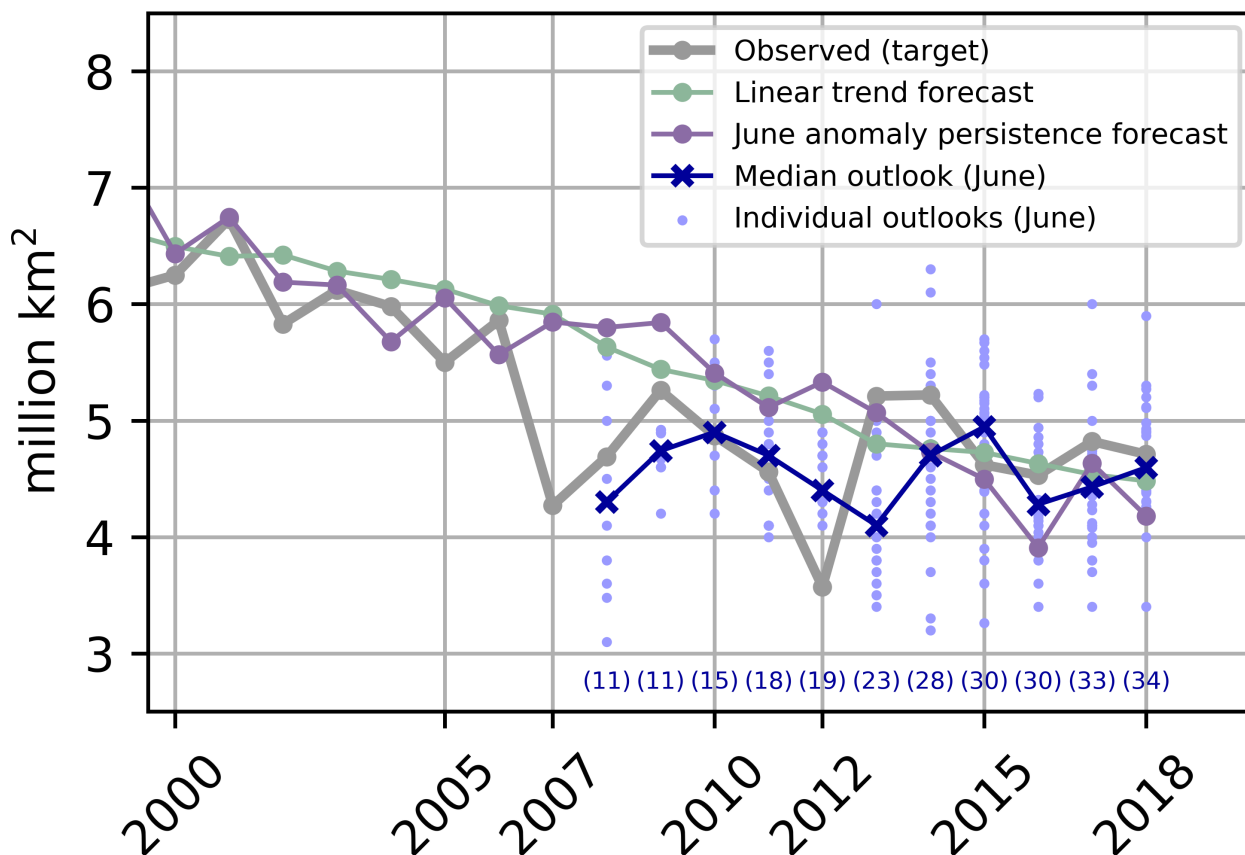
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