# Subseasonal prediction of the state and evolution of the North Pacific jet stream

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#### Abstract

The state and evolution of the North Pacific jet (NPJ) stream strongly influences the character of the downstream synoptic-scale flow pattern over North America. This study employs data from nine models within the Subseasonal-to-Seasonal Reforecast Database hosted by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts to examine the subseasonal (2 weeks–1 month) predictability of the NPJ through the lens of an NPJ phase diagram. The NPJ phase diagram provides a visual representation of the state and evolution of the NPJ with respect to the two leading modes of NPJ variability. The first mode of NPJ variability corresponds to a zonal extension or retraction of the climatological jet-exit region, whereas the second mode corresponds to a poleward or equatorward shift of the climatological jet-exit region. The analysis reveals that ensemble forecasts of the prevailing NPJ regime, as determined from the NPJ phase diagram, are skillful into week 3 of the forecast period. Forecasts initialized during a jet retraction, or verifying during a jet retraction and equatorward shift, feature the largest forecast errors during weeks 1–2 of the forecast period for all models. Beyond week 2, the verifying NPJ regime characterized by the largest forecast error varies by model and is related to forecast frequency biases in the prediction of each NPJ regime at subseasonal time scales. Examination of the worst-performing 21-day forecasts from each model demonstrates that the worst-performing forecasts are uniformly associated with development, maintenance, and decay of upper-tropospheric ridges over the high-latitude North Pacific.

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31	Key Points:
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33	1) Skillful predictions of the prevailing North Pacific jet regime extend into the week 3
34	forecast period.
35	2) Bias-corrected forecasts verifying during jet retraction or equatorward shift regimes
36	feature the largest errors at subseasonal lead times.
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37	3) The worst 21-day forecasts from each model are associated with the development,
38	maintanance and decay of unner transcriberia ridges
30	maintenance, and decay of upper-tropospheric ridges.

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- 39 Abstract
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# 63 Plain Language Summary

64	The jet stream is a ribbon of rapidly moving air that circumnavigates the globe approximately 12
65	km above the Earth's surface. The evolution of a segment of the jet stream over the North
66	Pacific, hereafter referred to as the North Pacific jet (NPJ), exerts an important influence on
67	downstream weather conditions over North America. Consequently, this study examines the
68	extent to which forecast models can accurately capture the state and evolution of the NPJ 2-4
69	weeks in advance. The analysis reveals that an elongated or poleward shifted NPJ is generally
70	characterized by enhanced forecast accuracy, whereas a wavier or split NPJ is generally
71	characterized by reduced forecast accuracy. Recognition of these NPJ configurations within a
72	real time forecast environment can provide "windows of opportunity", in which conditions over
73	the North Pacific and North America can be forecasted with a higher degree of precision
74	compared to climatology up to 4 weeks in advance.
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86 1. Introduction

87 The improvement of subseasonal (2 weeks to 1 month) forecasts has been a priority for 88 the meteorological community and its partners (NRC, 2010; NAS, 2018) given that this time 89 scale is characterized by a forecast skill "gap" within numerical weather prediction models. In 90 particular, skillful forecasts on shorter (i.e., weather) time scales predominantly arise from 91 atmospheric initial conditions, whereas skillful forecasts on longer (i.e., seasonal) time scales 92 predominantly arise from low frequency climate variations such as sea-surface temperature and 93 soil moisture fluctuations (e.g., NRC, 2010; NAS, 2018; Vitart et al., 2017; Pegion et al., 2019; 94 Meehl et al., 2021). Consequently, the subseasonal time scale lies in a transition period during 95 which forecast skill is not as effectively derived from atmospheric initial conditions or low 96 frequency climate variations. Nevertheless, subseasonal forecasts offer considerable value to 97 stakeholders, including individuals in emergency management, agriculture, water management, 98 and public health (White et al., 2017; Pegion et al., 2019), who can act to mitigate risks from the 99 occurrence of anomalous weather conditions.

100 The identification and prediction of "weather regimes", which are defined as reoccurring 101 and/or persistent large-scale atmospheric patterns maintained by synoptic-scale weather systems 102 (e.g., Reinhold & Pierrehumbert, 1982; Vautard, 1990; Ferranti et al., 2015, 2018; Straus et al., 103 2017; Vigaud et al. 2018; Lee et al. 2019; Winters et al. 2019a; Robertson et al., 2020), represent 104 burgeoning areas of research relevant to the subseasonal time scale. Weather regimes can be 105 defined over a spectrum of spatial domains, such as the Northern Hemisphere (e.g., Mo & Ghil, 106 1988; Kimoto & Ghil, 1993; Corti et al., 1999), the Euro-Atlantic sector (e.g., Vautard, 1990; 107 Michelangeli et al., 1995; Cassou, 2008; Dawson & Palmer, 2014; Ferranti et al., 2015, 2018; 108 Grams et al., 2017; Matsueda & Palmer, 2018), and the Pacific-North American sector (e.g.,

109 Robertson & Ghil, 1999; Straus et al., 2007; Riddle et al., 2013; Matsueda & Kyouda, 2016;

110 Vigaud et al., 2018; Amini & Straus, 2019; Lee et al., 2019; Winters et al., 2019a; Robertson et

al., 2020). Knowledge of the prevailing or forecasted weather regime subsequently provides

112 insight into the character of the large-scale flow pattern over a region as well as the relative

113 likelihood for anomalous sensible weather to develop in conjunction with that regime.

114 Examinations into the predictability of weather regimes have been predominantly focused 115 on the Euro-Atlantic sector (e.g., Ferranti et al. 2015, 2018; Matsueda & Palmer, 2018). A 116 common thread among these examinations is that forecast models have difficulty capturing the 117 onset, maintenance, and decay of upper-tropospheric blocking events, which has implications for 118 the occurrence of high-impact weather events over Europe, such as cold-air outbreaks and heat 119 waves (e.g., Jung et al., 2011; Ferranti et al., 2018; Quandt et al., 2019). Evaluation of the 120 predictability of weather regimes over North America has recently received greater attention. In 121 particular, Vigaud et al. (2018) and Robertson et al. (2020) demonstrate that the predictability of 122 North American weather regimes, as defined from a k-means clustering analysis of 500-hPa 123 geopotential height, is generally on the order of two weeks. Robertson et al. (2020) observe, 124 however, that there are "forecasts of opportunity" in which the prevailing weather regime may be 125 predicted with skill up to four weeks in advance. These forecasts of opportunity were found to 126 coincide with periods influenced by low frequency modes of climate variability such as the El 127 Niño-Southern Oscillation and the Madden-Julian Oscillation.

128 The North Pacific jet (NPJ) stream represents a synoptic-scale feature whose state and 129 evolution serves as a conduit between the aforementioned modes of low frequency climate 130 variability and the character of the downstream large-scale flow pattern over North America 131 (e.g., Cordeira & Bosart, 2010; Archambault et al., 2015; Bosart et al., 2017; Griffin & Martin,

132 2017; Vigaud et al. 2018; Winters et al., 2019a,b; Robertson et al., 2020). Therefore, accurate 133 forecasts of the state and evolution of the NPJ may also exhibit the potential to inform 134 predictions of weather conditions over North America. Winters et al. (2019a) developed an NPJ 135 phase diagram on the basis of this observation to objectively track the state and evolution of the 136 NPJ using output from reanalysis products and numerical weather prediction models. The NPJ 137 phase diagram is constructed from the two-leading empirical orthogonal functions (EOFs) of 138 250-hPa zonal wind anomalies over the North Pacific during September–May. The first EOF 139 corresponds to a zonal extension or retraction of the climatological exit region of the NPJ, 140 whereas the second EOF corresponds to a poleward or equatorward shift of the climatological 141 exit region of the NPJ. Figure 1 shows the characteristic large-scale flow patterns associated with 142 the four primary NPJ regimes derived from the NPJ phase diagram and reveals that each NPJ 143 regime is associated with distinct temperature and sea-level pressure anomaly patterns across the 144 Pacific–North American sector. Winters et al. (2019b) and Turasky (2019) further demonstrate 145 that the frequencies of continental U.S. extreme temperature events and landfalling atmospheric 146 river events along the U.S. west coast are significantly modulated by the antecedent state and 147 evolution of the NPJ as determined from the NPJ phase diagram.

Predicated on the relationship between each NPJ regime and the large-scale flow pattern over North America, Winters et al. (2019a) conducted an evaluation of the medium-range (6–10day) forecast skill associated with each NPJ regime by calculating 9-day ensemble forecasts of the state and evolution of the NPJ in the context of the NPJ phase diagram using the GEFS Reforecast Version 2 dataset (Hamill et al., 2013). Their analysis found that ensemble mean forecasts verifying during jet retraction and equatorward shift regimes were associated with larger medium-range forecast errors than forecasts verifying during jet extension and poleward

shift regimes. Consideration of the worst-performing 9-day NPJ phase diagram forecasts also
found that the worst forecasts occurred in conjunction with rapid NPJ regime transitions towards
an equatorward shift regime as well as the development of North Pacific blocking ridges.

158 A limitation to the Winters et al. (2019a) analysis is that it focuses on one ensemble 159 prediction system and does not consider the extent to which the forecast skill of the NPJ extends 160 into subseasonal time scales. Furthermore, prior work on North American weather regimes does 161 not quantify the forecast skill associated with regime transitions, which are periods that can often 162 lead to substantial downstream impacts over North America (e.g., Bosart et al., 2017). The NPJ 163 phase diagram is well suited for such an analysis, much like those diagrams used by Matsueda & 164 Palmer (2018) and Ferranti et al. (2018) to describe Euro-Atlantic weather regimes, since it 165 allows for observable transitions between regimes and serves as an objective tool to evaluate the 166 ability of models to simulate the cumulative upper-tropospheric flow response to tropical and 167 midlatitude forcing. The remainder of this study is organized as follows. Section 2 discusses the 168 data and methodology used to construct the NPJ phase diagram and NPJ phase diagram 169 forecasts. Section 3 examines the biases and multi-model skill of NPJ phase diagram forecasts. 170 Section 4 considers the evolution of the synoptic-scale flow pattern associated with the best- and 171 worst-performing NPJ phase diagram forecasts from each model, and section 5 provides a 172 discussion of the main conclusions from this work.

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## 174 **2. Data and methods**

175 *2.1. Data* 

This study uses data at 6-h intervals during September–May 1979–2019 from the
National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) Climate Forecast System Reanalysis

178 (CFSR; Saha et al., 2010, 2014) as well as data during September-May from the Subseasonal-to-179 Seasonal (S2S) Reforecast Database hosted by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather 180 Forecasts (ECMWF; Vitart et al., 2017). The CFSR features 0.5° horizontal grid spacing and 64 181 vertical levels that extend from the surface to 0.26 hPa. The S2S Reforecast Database consists of 182 reforecasts from 11 operational centers, each with a different reforecast period, ensemble size, 183 forecast frequency, forecast length, and model version. Reforecast data are stored on 10 pressure levels and a  $1.5^{\circ} \times 1.5^{\circ}$  latitude-longitude grid, are initialized at 0000 UTC, and are available at 184 185 forecast lead times as long as 32-61 days at 24-h intervals. Exceptions to this format are 186 reforecasts from the Australian Bureau of Meteorology (BoM), which are stored on a gaussian 187 grid, and reforecasts from the Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA), which are initialized at 1200 188 UTC.

189 To ensure uniformity in the forthcoming analyses, this study does not consider 190 reforecasts from the BoM and JMA, and only uses reforecasts from the nine operational centers 191 identified in Table 1. These centers include Environment and Climate Change Canada (ECCC), 192 Météo-France/Centre National de Recherche Meteorologiques (CNRM), the Institute of 193 Atmospheric Sciences and Climate of the National Research Council (ISAC), the Korea 194 Meteorological Administration (KMA), NCEP, the UK Met Office (UKMO), the 195 Hydrometeorological Center of Russia (HMCR), ECMWF, and the China Meteorological 196 Administration (CMA). The reforecasts from a particular center are constructed using either a 197 "fixed" version of a forecast model or "on the fly" using the current version of a forecast model 198 on the date reforecasts were conducted. For this study, the most recent version of a forecast 199 model prior to 2019 is used to acquire "fixed" reforecast data, and those reforecasts that were 200 conducted during 2019 represent reforecast data that was compiled "on the fly". Some "on the

fly" reforecasts from the CMA model were also conducted during 2020 to ensure that reforecasts are available throughout September–May during the CMA's reforecast period. Full details on the characteristics of each reforecast dataset are discussed at length in Vitart et al. (2017).

204 2.2. The NPJ phase diagram

205 The NPJ phase diagram is constructed in an identical manner as in Winters et al. (2019a) 206 with slight modifications to align with the format of the S2S Reforecast Database. Therefore, the 207 forthcoming discussion in this subsection mirrors that from Winters et al. (2019a). First, CFSR 208 data are regridded to 1.5° horizontal grid spacing to match the grid spacing of the reforecast data. 209 Next, 300-hPa zonal wind anomalies from the CFSR are calculated at 6-h intervals during 210 September–May 1979–2019 for each grid point within a North Pacific domain (10.5–79.5°N; 211 100.5–240°E) that aligns with those used in prior work on NPJ variability (e.g., Jaffe et al., 2011; 212 Griffin & Martin, 2017; Winters et al., 2019a,b). 300-hPa zonal wind anomalies are determined 213 with respect to the CFSR climatology, which is calculated at 6-h intervals for each grid point by 214 retaining the first four harmonics of the mean annual cycle. Note that S2S reforecast data are 215 only available at 300 hPa and 200 hPa. Therefore, the use of 300-hPa zonal wind anomalies in 216 this study represents a departure from the 250-hPa zonal wind anomalies that Winters et al. 217 (2019a) employ in their development of the NPJ phase diagram.

A traditional EOF analysis (Wilks, 2011) is performed on the aforementioned 300-hPa zonal wind anomaly data from the CFSR to reveal the two leading modes of NPJ variability (Figs. 2a,b). EOF 1 explains 9.9% of the variance and corresponds to a zonal extension or retraction of the climatological jet-exit region. EOF 2 explains 7.2% of the variance and corresponds to a poleward or equatorward shift of the climatological jet-exit region. The two leading EOFs, and their explained variance, are similar to those found in prior work (e.g.,

Athanasiadis et al., 2010; Jaffe et al., 2011; Griffin & Martin, 2017; Winters et al., 2019a), and are statistically well separated (North et al., 1982). To instill confidence that the identified NPJ regimes are robust, the same modes of NPJ variability found using 6-h data from the CFSR were also observed when EOF analyses were performed on monthly-averaged zonal wind anomaly data as well as on 6-h data from ERA-Interim (Dee et al., 2011). In particular, the correlation and median absolute difference between the principal component (PC) time series obtained from separate EOF analyses on CFSR and ERA-Interim data were 0.99 and 0.03, respectively.

231 The temporal evolution of the NPJ with respect to the two leading EOFs is characterized 232 using the PC time series that are returned from the traditional EOF analysis. For this study, 6-h 233 PC data are normalized to unit variance and are averaged over a 5-day period centered on each 234 analysis time. This 5-day average of the PCs removes the high frequency variability of the jet on 235 daily time scales but retains the lower frequency variability of the jet on synoptic time scales. 236 The PCs at a particular analysis time can be visualized by plotting them on the NPJ phase 237 diagram shown in Fig. 2c. The distance along the x-axis in the NPJ phase diagram identifies how 238 strongly 300-hPa zonal wind anomalies at that time project onto EOF 1, where positive values 239 represent a jet extension and negative values represent a jet retraction. The distance along the y-240 axis in the NPJ phase diagram identifies how strongly 300-hPa zonal wind anomalies at that time 241 project onto EOF 2, where positive values represent a poleward shift and negative values 242 represent an equatorward shift. The projection of PCs onto the two leading EOFs over a selected 243 time period produces a trajectory within the NPJ phase diagram that describes the NPJ evolution 244 in the context of the two leading EOFs.

The NPJ phase diagram is subsequently used to classify the state of the NPJ into four NPJ regimes based on whether the magnitude of PC 1 or PC 2 is larger and whether the NPJ resides

247 at a distance of greater than 1 PC unit from the origin. A projection that falls within a radius of 1 248 PC unit of the origin of the NPJ phase diagram represents an NPJ that does not project well onto 249 the two leading EOFs or that resembles climatology. For reference, the NPJ typically resides 250 within each of the four primary NPJ regimes approximately 15% of the time and within the unit 251 circle centered on the origin approximately 40% of the time (Winters et al., 2019a). There are 252 generally no preferred transitions between NPJ regimes (i.e., cross correlations between PC 1 253 and PC 2 are close to zero at all time lags), and the autocorrelation functions for PC 1 and PC 2 254 drop below 0.5 after 1 week (Fig. 3a), which can serve as a benchmark for the forthcoming 255 analysis in section 3 that evaluates the forecast skill added by each S2S model (e.g., Pegion et al. 256 2019; Domeisen & Butler, 2020; Feng et al. 2021).

#### 257 2.3. NPJ phase diagram reforecasts and verification

258 300-hPa zonal wind anomalies from the nine reforecast datasets identified in Table 1 are 259 used to construct ensembles of NPJ phase diagram forecasts with forecast lead times as long as 260 32-61 days, depending on the model. To start, 300-hPa zonal wind anomalies are calculated for 261 each ensemble member and at every forecast lead time based on the CFSR climatology. This is 262 done to provide a baseline quantification of forecast skill for each model and to identify any 263 biases in each model's representation of the NPJ. The zonal wind anomalies associated with each 264 ensemble member forecast are then projected onto the two leading modes of NPJ variability 265 shown in Fig. 2 to construct an ensemble of trajectories within the NPJ phase diagram that 266 describe the forecast evolution of the NPJ (e.g., Fig. 3b). As with the CFSR data, the forecast 267 PCs within a 5-day window centered on each forecast lead time are averaged together to remove 268 high frequency variations of the NPJ on daily time scales. The 5-day average forecast PCs at 0-h, 269 24-h, and 48-h lead times are specifically calculated by appending CFSR PCs 48-h, 24-h, and 0-h

prior to the start of the forecast period onto the beginning of the forecast PC time series
associated with each ensemble member. All ensemble member NPJ phase diagram forecasts
initialized at the same time from a particular model are then averaged together to produce an
ensemble mean NPJ phase diagram forecast.

274 NPJ phase diagram forecasts are evaluated by calculating the Euclidean distance between 275 the ensemble mean forecast position of the NPJ within the NPJ phase diagram at a particular forecast lead time and the verifying position of the NPJ at that same forecast lead time using the 276 277 CFSR. These Euclidean distance statistics are calculated for individual ensemble member NPJ 278 phase diagram forecasts, as well. Note that a reanalysis product must be used for verification 279 given that 0-h forecasts are not available at a daily frequency for each model within the S2S 280 dataset. Forecasts are then classified based on the NPJ regime at the time of forecast initialization 281 as well as the observed NPJ regime at the time of forecast verification using the position of the NPJ within the NPJ phase diagram according to Fig. 2c. This classification of forecasts permits 282 283 an examination of the extent to which forecast performance varies across models and the four 284 primary NPJ regimes. Forecasts verifying during the month of June are excluded from any 285 calculated forecast statistics given that the NPJ phase diagram is derived solely from zonal wind 286 anomaly data during September-May.

Once these baseline statistics are obtained, the analyses described above are repeated by calculating forecast 300-hPa zonal wind anomalies using each model's lead-dependent climatology rather than the CFSR climatology. These analyses account for biases in each model's representation of the NPJ as a function of forecast lead time and allow for a quantification of whether bias correction improves the predictive skill of the NPJ on S2S time scales. Each model's lead-dependent climatology is constructed by averaging all forecasts at the

same forecast lead time that were initialized within 10 days of a selected calendar day during that model's reforecast period. Similar to Robertson et al. (2020), no cross validation is used in the calculation of model climatologies. EOF analyses performed on the bias-corrected forecast anomalies from each model consistently reproduce the same two leading modes of NPJ variability shown in Figs. 2a,b (not shown).

298 The present study also identifies the synoptic-scale flow patterns and evolutions that are 299 associated with the best- and worst-performing NPJ phase diagram forecasts from each model. 300 For this purpose, the bias-corrected NPJ forecasts are used. The best- and worst-performing 301 forecasts are identified in a similar manner as Winters et al. (2019a, see their Fig. 10 for a 302 schematic) using both (1) the cumulative ensemble mean Euclidean distance error in the context 303 of the NPJ phase diagram during days 3–21 of the forecast period and (2) the cumulative 304 ensemble member Euclidean distance error during the same period. This forecast period is selected to remove the influence of CFSR PCs on short-lead forecast errors. The best-performing 305 306 forecasts are those forecasts that rank in the lowest 10% in terms of both the cumulative 307 ensemble mean error and the cumulative ensemble member error for a particular model, whereas 308 the worst-performing forecasts are those forecasts that rank in the highest 10% in terms of both 309 the cumulative ensemble mean error and the cumulative ensemble member error for a particular 310 model. The use of both criteria identifies the best-performing forecasts as those that are accurate 311 and confident (i.e., small ensemble spread). The worst-performing forecasts based on both 312 criteria are those that are inaccurate and uncertain (i.e., large ensemble spread) or inaccurate but 313 confident (i.e., small ensemble spread). Put another way, the worst-performing forecasts are 314 those that are the most inaccurate, regardless of the ensemble spread.

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### 3. Multi-model performance of NPJ phase diagram forecasts

317 The total number of valid NPJ phase diagram forecasts from each model (i.e., only those 318 forecasts that are initialized and verified during September–May) is shown as a function of 319 forecast lead time in Fig. 4a. Each model is associated with at least 500 valid NPJ phase diagram 320 forecasts at every forecast lead time, with those models that feature a greater forecast frequency 321 (i.e., the NCEP, ISAC, and ECMWF) characterized by larger sample sizes. While each model is initialized at different frequencies and over different years (Table 1), Fig. 4a reveals that there is 322 323 a suitable sample size of reforecasts from each model from which to draw conclusions 324 concerning the predictability of the NPJ on subseasonal timescales. 325 First, the analysis considers the baseline skill of NPJ phase diagram forecasts without the 326 application of bias correction. The average ensemble mean distance error of NPJ phase diagram 327 forecasts increases exponentially during week 1 of the forecast period, increases linearly during week 2, and levels off during week 3 for all models. The average ensemble mean error remains 328 329 approximately constant thereafter, suggesting that any differentiable skill of NPJ phase diagram 330 forecasts diminishes after 21 days (Fig. 4b). The difference in the average ensemble mean error 331 between models at any forecast lead time is also no larger than 0.5 PC units, with the ECWMF 332 model exhibiting the lowest average ensemble mean error at all forecast lead times for which it 333 features a valid forecast. Note that the larger ensembles (e.g., ECMWF, CNRM, HMCR) aren't 334 uniformly associated with lower average ensemble mean errors, as the HMCR model ranks in the 335 top 50% of all models in terms of its average ensemble mean error at every forecast lead time. 336 Figure 4c shows the percent of ensemble member forecasts from each model that correctly 337 identify the verifying NPJ regime at each forecast lead time and reveals that all models are 338 significantly more skillful at identifying the prevailing NPJ regime compared to random chance

at lead times shorter than 21–28 days. The largest difference in performance between forecast
models is maximized near the end of week 1 (Fig. 4c), where some models are approximately
20% less accurate at identifying the prevailing NPJ regime than the best-performing model (i.e.,
ECMWF).

343 Motivated by the observation that NPJ phase diagram forecasts exhibit skill compared to 344 climatology into weeks 3 and 4 of the forecast period (Figs. 4b,c), the forthcoming analysis considers the extent to which NPJ phase diagram forecast errors vary based on the initial NPJ 345 346 configuration. Figures 5a,c,e,g show the number of forecasts from each model that are initialized 347 within each of the four primary NPJ regimes as a function of forecast lead time. In contrast to 348 earlier analyses, forecast error (Figs. 5b,d,f,h) is now expressed as a percentage relative to the 349 average ensemble mean error of all forecasts from a particular model that are initialized within 350 one of the four primary NPJ regimes. Forecasts that are initialized within the origin of the NPJ 351 phase diagram are not factored into this analysis since the NPJ does not project strongly onto one 352 of the leading modes of NPJ variability. Positive percentages indicate that ensemble mean 353 forecast errors are larger than average when a model is initialized during a certain NPJ regime, 354 whereas negative percentages indicate that ensemble mean forecast errors are smaller than 355 average.

Figure 5d reveals that forecasts initialized during a jet retraction feature an ensemble mean forecast error that is 10–20% greater than each model's average at a 7-day lead time, whereas forecasts initialized during a poleward shift feature errors that are 5–15% less than each model's average at the same lead time (Fig. 5f). Forecasts initialized during a jet extension are characterized by errors that are between 10% less and 5% greater than each model's average at 0–2-week lead times (Fig. 5b), and forecasts initialized during an equatorward shift are

362 characterized by errors that are between 5% less and 10% greater than each model's average at 363 0–2-week lead times. At lead times beyond 2 weeks, the forecast errors associated with each NPJ 364 regime are comparable to one another. Consequently, there does not appear to be a systematic 365 difference in forecast performance based on the initial NPJ regime at lead times longer than 2 366 weeks as the forecasts are further removed from the influence of the model's initial conditions.

367 Figure 6 considers the ensemble mean forecast error associated with each model based on the NPJ regime at the time of forecast verification. This approach evaluates the extent to which 368 369 forecast performance varies based on the character of the NPJ evolution following forecast 370 initialization. The number of forecasts associated with each model as a function of the verifying 371 NPJ regime are shown in Figs. 6a,c,e,g. Overall, NPJ phase diagram forecasts that verify during 372 a jet retraction (Fig. 6d) or equatorward shift (Fig. 6h) exhibit systematically larger ensemble 373 mean forecast errors than forecasts that verify during a jet extension (Fig. 6b) or poleward shift 374 (Fig. 6f) at lead times less than 7 days. This result aligns with that found by Winters et al. 375 (2019a) using the GEFS Reforecast Version 2 dataset and implies that forecasts associated with 376 the development of a North Pacific ridge (Figs. 1c,f) during week 1 feature greater ensemble 377 mean forecast errors across all models.

At lead times longer than 7 days, the performance of NPJ phase diagram forecasts verifying during each NPJ regime is dependent on the model. In particular, the forecasts with the largest errors at lead times exceeding 2 weeks verify during an equatorward shift regime for the ECCC, CNRM, HMCR, ECMWF, and CMA models, during a poleward shift for the KMA and UKMO models, during a jet retraction for the NCEP model, and during a jet extension for the ISAC model (cf. Figs. 6b,d,f,h). Similar variability across models is also observed when considering the verifying NPJ regimes that exhibit the lowest forecast errors at lead times

exceeding 2 weeks. Since the preceding analysis does not yet account for forecast model biases, the observed differences in forecast model performance based on the verifying NPJ regime at lead times exceeding 2 weeks may be related to frequency biases in the prediction of each NPJ regime.

389 To this aim, Figures 7a–d depict the percent frequency that each NPJ regime is 390 overforecast or underforecast in each model with respect to verification. Note that the ISAC 391 model is not included in this initial analysis and will be discussed separately. For this analysis, 392 each ensemble member initialized using a particular model is treated as a separate forecast of the 393 NPJ regime. Figure 7a reveals that the NCEP model overforecasts the occurrence of jet 394 extensions by approximately 30–40% compared to verification at lead times exceeding 2 weeks, 395 whereas jet extensions are underforecast by all other models by as much as 20%. Conversely, all 396 models overforecast the occurrence of jet retractions by as much as 30% at lead times exceeding 397 2 weeks, except for the NCEP model, which underforecasts the occurrence of jet retractions by 398 approximately 30% (Fig. 7b).

399 The frequency of poleward shift and equatorward shift forecasts compared to verification 400 is more variable across models compared to jet extension and jet retraction forecasts. In 401 particular, the HMCR, ECCC, and CNRM models overforecast the occurrence of poleward shifts 402 at lead times exceeding 2 weeks, with an overforecast of poleward shifts by as much as 70–90% 403 during week 4 in the HMCR model (Fig. 7c). Poleward shifts are underforecast by the CMA, 404 ECMWF, NCEP, KMA, and UKMO models by as much as 30% compared to verification at lead 405 times exceeding 2 weeks. Last, equatorward shifts are overforecast by 10-50% in the NCEP, 406 CMA, UKMO, and KMA models, while the ECCC and HMCR models underforecast the 407 occurrence of equatorward shifts by 20-60% (Fig. 7d). Notably, the frequency of CNRM and

ECMWF forecasts of equatorward shifts is comparable to verification throughout the forecast
period. The ISAC model is a particularly interesting case (Fig. 7e), in which jet extensions are
underforecast by close to 80% during weeks 2–4, and jet retractions are overforecast by 140–
200%.

412 Biases in the forecast frequency of each NPJ regime in Fig. 7 are associated with the 413 forecast errors identified in Fig. 6. Namely, the largest ensemble mean forecast errors during 414 weeks 2–4 in the ECCC, HMCR, KMA, UKMO, CFSR, and ISAC models are associated with 415 the same verifying NPJ regime for which those models exhibit a low forecast frequency bias (cf. 416 Figs. 6–7). As suggested by Ferranti et al. (2015), this observation implies that the reduced 417 performance of model forecasts that verify in those respective NPJ regimes may be due to the 418 misrepresentation of physical processes that lead to the development of those NPJ regimes. For 419 the ECMWF, CNRM, and CMA models, which feature their largest forecast errors during 420 periods that verify during an equatorward shift, there is not a clear low forecast frequency bias 421 for equatorward shifts. In fact, the CMA exhibits a high forecast frequency bias for equatorward 422 shifts compared to verification. This result implies that these three models are able to represent 423 the physical processes that lead to the development of equatorward shifts with fidelity, but that 424 equatorward shifts may be characterized by low intrinsic predictability.

The same analyses described above are repeated with bias-corrected NPJ phase diagram forecasts that utilize 300-hPa zonal wind anomalies based on each model's lead-dependent climatology rather than the CFSR. The use of bias-corrected forecasts substantially reduces the regime frequency biases shown in Fig. 7. While not shown explicitly, all bias-corrected forecast statistics are similar to those shown in Fig. 3 and feature slightly reduced ensemble mean errors at lead times exceeding 2 weeks. Additionally, the classification of bias-corrected forecast errors

431 based on the NPJ regime at the time of forecast initialization is similar to the results shown in 432 Fig. 5 (not shown). Substantial differences are noted in comparison to the baseline forecasts, 433 however, when classifying bias-corrected forecast errors based on the verifying NPJ regime (cf., 434 Figs. 6 and 8). Namely, bias-corrected forecast errors (Fig. 8) are not as substantial as those 435 shown in Fig. 6, and there is a general agreement between model errors associated with each 436 verifying NPJ regime at all forecast lead times. In particular, forecasts verifying during jet 437 retractions and equatorward shifts typically exhibit larger than normal forecast errors, whereas 438 forecasts verifying during jet extensions and poleward shifts typically exhibit reduced forecast 439 errors compared to each model's climatology. The general agreement among bias-corrected 440 model errors for each verifying NPJ regime suggests that NPJ evolutions towards a jet retraction 441 or equatorward shift may be characterized by a lower degree of intrinsic predictability than NPJ 442 evolutions towards a jet extension or poleward shift.

443 Reliability diagrams that evaluate the probabilistic detection of the verifying NPJ regime 444 for the three largest ensembles (i.e., CNRM, ECMWF, HMCR) further demonstrate that bias-445 corrected NPJ phase diagram forecasts are underdispersive at forecast lead times exceeding 7 446 days (Fig. 9). Consequently, ensemble forecasts from these three models tend to be 447 overconfident in the development of a particular NPJ regime at medium-range and subseasonal 448 lead times. In particular, both CNRM (Fig. 9a) and ECMWF (Fig. 9b) forecast probabilities 449 exceeding 50% are overconfident by 5–20% at forecast lead times exceeding 14 days, whereas 450 HMCR forecast probabilities exceeding 50% are overconfident by 20-40% (Fig. 9c). The 451 reduced performance of HMCR forecasts compared to CNRM and ECMWF forecasts is also 452 apparent in Fig. 9d, which reveals that the Brier Skill Score (Wilks 2011) for HMCR forecasts is 453 less than that for the CNRM and ECMWF models at all forecast lead times.

454

455 4. Synoptic-scale flow patterns associated with the best- and worst-performing forecasts

456 Results from the previous section suggest that the best- and worst-performing 457 subseasonal NPJ phase diagram forecasts are associated with different NPJ regimes (e.g., Figs. 5 458 and 8). Consequently, the forthcoming analysis considers the synoptic-scale characteristics of the 459 21-day period following the initiation of a best- and worst-performing forecast from each model. 460 As mentioned in section 2.3, the best-performing forecasts are those bias-corrected forecasts in 461 which there is both a low cumulative ensemble mean distance error in the context of the NPJ 462 phase diagram (i.e., an accurate forecast) and a low cumulative ensemble member distance error 463 (i.e., a confident forecast) during days 3-21 of the forecast period. The worst-performing 464 forecasts are those in which there is both a high cumulative ensemble mean distance error in the 465 context of the NPJ phase diagram and a high cumulative ensemble member distance error (i.e., 466 the most inaccurate forecasts).

467 The average position of the NPJ within the NPJ phase diagram on the date a best-468 performing forecast is initialized from each forecast model is shown in Fig. 10a and reveals that 469 the NPJ is generally displaced towards a poleward shift regime. The models are clustered near 470 the origin, however, which suggests that the NPJ may also be close to its climatological state or 471 exhibit considerable variability in its state at the time a best-performing forecast is initialized. 472 The state of the NPJ at the start of a worst-performing forecast period is displaced towards a jet 473 retraction or equatorward shift (Fig. 10b). This result aligns well with Figs. 5d,h, which indicate 474 that forecast errors are often higher than each model's average during the first 2 weeks of the 475 forecast period when a model is initialized during those two NPJ regimes.

476 Figures 10c,d illustrate the composite evolution of the NPJ during the 21-day period 477 following the initialization of a best- and worst-performing forecast from each model. The 478 composite evolution of the NPJ associated with each model is calculated by projecting 300-hPa 479 zonal wind anomalies from the CFSR onto the NPJ phase diagram during the 21-day period 480 following the initialization of each best- or worst-performing forecast, resulting in a series of 481 trajectories within the NPJ phase diagram. These trajectories are then shifted so that they all begin at the origin of the NPJ phase diagram and the PCs corresponding to the same day after 482 483 forecast initialization are averaged together to construct a composite trajectory. Note that the 484 trajectories shown in Figs. 10c,d do not show forecast trajectories, but instead depict the how the 485 NPJ evolved in reality following a best- or worst-performing forecast.

486 The composite CFSR trajectories during the 21-day period following a best-performing 487 forecast from each model are clustered near the origin and exhibit a slight transition towards a jet extension or poleward shift during the first few days of the forecast period (Fig. 10c). The 21-day 488 489 period following a worst-performing forecast, on the other hand, exhibits an opposite character 490 (Fig. 10d). Namely, the worst-performing forecast periods generally feature an NPJ that evolves 491 towards an equatorward shift or a jet retraction during the first half of the forecast period before 492 returning towards the origin. Given that the NPJ is already displaced towards a jet retraction or 493 equatorward shift at the time a worst-performing forecast is initialized (Fig. 10b), the NPJ 494 trajectories shown in Fig. 10d indicate that the NPJ amplifies its projection onto these two NPJ 495 regimes during the subsequent 21-day period.

Figure 10e shows a composite of the ensemble mean NPJ phase diagram forecast
trajectory associated with a worst-performing forecast from each model. Overall, each model's
forecast trajectory exhibits errors in the forecasted NPJ regime transition and/or in the amplitude

499 of a particular NPJ regime (cf., Figs. 10d,e). Furthermore, the forecast trajectories (Fig. 10e) are 500 more biased towards a jet extension and poleward shift at the end of the 21-day forecast period 501 than observations (Fig. 10d), which suggests the models may be too quick to transition the jet out 502 of a jet retraction or equatorward shift regime. Given that both jet retractions and equatorward 503 shifts feature upper-tropospheric ridging over the North Pacific (Figs. 1c,g), these differences 504 between the forecast and observed trajectories indicate that forecast errors may be related to each 505 model's representation of physical processes that govern the extent and duration of North Pacific 506 flow amplification. These physical processes can include the magnitude of diabatic heating and 507 upper-level irrotational outflow associated with midlatitude cyclogenesis events along the North 508 Pacific storm track (e.g., Torn & Hakim 2015; Teubler & Riemer 2016; Martinez-Alvarado et 509 al., 2016; Bosart et al., 2017).

510 The synoptic-scale flow patterns associated with the worst-performing forecasts from 511 each model are examined further by compositing CFSR mass and wind fields 0 days (Fig. 11), 512 10 days (Fig. 12), and 20 days (Fig. 13) following the initialization of a worst-performing 513 forecast. At the time of forecast initialization, every model features some degree of anomalous 514 upper-tropospheric ridging over the central North Pacific (Fig. 11). For some models, such as the 515 ECCC, CNRM, KMA, UKMO, ECMWF, and CMA (Figs. 11a,b,d,f,h,i), the North Pacific ridge 516 is more anomalous, suggesting that the worst-performing forecasts for those models may be 517 preferentially initialized during or immediately following ridge amplification rather than prior to 518 ridge amplification. Ten days after forecast initialization, the synoptic-scale flow pattern features 519 a well-developed upper-tropospheric ridge across the high-latitude North Pacific within each 520 model (Fig. 12). The presence of a high-latitude ridge is consistent with both a jet retraction and 521 equatorward shift regime (Figs. 1c,g), which are the same NPJ regimes that are generally

522 characterized by the greatest forecast errors at the time of forecast verification during the week
523 1–2 forecast period (Figs. 8b,d).

524 Twenty days after the initialization of a worst-performing forecast, the composite upper-525 tropospheric flow patterns feature considerable differences across models (Fig. 13). In particular, 526 the ECCC, CNRM, NCEP, UKMO, ECMWF, and CMA models (Figs. 13a,b,e,f,h,i) continue to 527 feature an amplified upper-tropospheric ridge over the North Pacific, albeit slightly farther west than observed in Fig. 12 in some cases. Conversely, the composite flow patterns following the 528 529 worst-performing forecasts from the ISAC, KMA, and HMCR models (Figs. 13c,d,g) indicate 530 that the upper-tropospheric ridge over the central North Pacific decays more rapidly than in the 531 other models 20 days after forecast initialization. All models also exhibit considerable 532 differences with respect to the character of the resultant flow pattern over North America. To 533 synthesize the composite evolutions shown in Figs. 11–13, the largest NPJ phase diagram 534 forecast errors from each model are clearly associated with North Pacific ridge amplification 535 during the week 1–2 period. After that, the variable synoptic-scale flow patterns that prevail 20 536 days after forecast initialization imply that aspects of the life cycle of North Pacific ridges, such 537 as their persistence, retrogression, and decay, may hinder model performance. 538 Last, Winters et al. (2019b, their Fig. 13) demonstrate that periods in which the NPJ

evolves towards an equatorward shift (similar to those trajectories shown in Fig. 10d) increase the likelihood of extreme cold events across the continental U.S. Indeed, the composite uppertropospheric flow pattern 10 days after a worst-performing forecast from each model features an anomalous trough over central Canada (Fig. 12). The longitudinal juxtaposition of a high-latitude ridge over the North Pacific and trough over central Canada subsequently favors the development of an anomalous surface anticyclone across Alaska and western Canada in the

aforementioned composites (Fig. 14). To the east of this anticyclone, perturbation northerly
geostrophic flow is conducive to the equatorward transport of anomalously cold air towards
southern Canada and the northern U.S. Therefore, the composite lower-tropospheric temperature
patterns following a worst-performing forecast suggest that the worst-performing forecasts may
coincide with the occurrence of North American cold-air outbreaks during the week 2 period,
potentially limiting the prediction of those events.

551

### 552 **5.** Conclusions

553 This study examines the subseasonal predictability of the state and evolution of the NPJ 554 across nine models within the S2S Reforecast Database hosted by ECMWF (Vitart et al., 2017). 555 The state and evolution of the NPJ is specifically examined in the context of an NPJ phase 556 diagram (Winters et al., 2019a), which identifies periods during which the NPJ is characterized 557 by an extended or retracted state, and during which the NPJ is poleward or equatorward shifted 558 relative to its climatological position. 300-hPa zonal wind anomaly data from the S2S Reforecast 559 Database are then projected onto the NPJ phase diagram to construct ensemble forecasts 560 describing the state and evolution of the NPJ at subseasonal time scales. NPJ phase diagram 561 forecasts are evaluated by considering the Euclidean distance between the forecast position of 562 the NPJ within the NPJ phase diagram at a particular lead time and the verification position of 563 the NPJ in the CFSR. Forecasts are also partitioned based on whether a forecast is initialized or 564 verified during a particular NPJ regime to determine the extent to which verification statistics 565 vary depending on those metrics. Last, the best- and worst-performing forecasts associated with 566 each model are identified to examine the synoptic-scale flow evolution that characterizes the 21-567 day period following a best- or worst-performing forecast from each model.

568 An evaluation of NPJ phase diagram forecasts reveals that skillful predictions of the state 569 and evolution of the NPJ can extend into the week 3 forecast period, with the ECMWF model 570 featuring the lowest forecast errors among all models at every forecast lead time. The fact that 571 the skill of NPJ phase diagram forecasts extends into the week 3 period is consistent with prior 572 work on North American weather regimes, which suggest that skillful predictions are generally 573 possible at lead times of 15 days (e.g., Vigaud et al., 2018; Robertson et al., 2020). NPJ phase 574 diagram forecasts of the verifying NPJ regime from the three largest ensembles considered as 575 part of this study (i.e., ECMWF, CNRM, HMCR) are also generally reliable at forecast lead 576 times extending into weeks 2–3, but are uniformly underdispersive, and thus overconfident in the 577 development of a particular NPJ regime.

578 Forecast errors in the context of the NPJ phase diagram vary depending on the NPJ 579 regime at the time of forecast initialization during the first two weeks of the forecast period. 580 Thereafter, forecast errors do not show much dependence on the initial NPJ regime as the model 581 forecast is further removed from knowledge of atmospheric initial conditions. Overall, forecasts 582 initialized during a jet retraction feature 7-day forecast errors that are 10–20% larger than all 583 forecasts that are initialized during one of the four primary NPJ regimes, whereas forecasts 584 initialized during a poleward shift feature forecast errors that are 5–15% smaller. Forecasts 585 verifying during jet retractions and equatorward shifts also exhibit larger errors during the first 586 two weeks of the forecast period compared to forecasts verifying during jet extensions and 587 poleward shifts. Notably, both jet retractions and equatorward shifts are associated with the 588 development of an upper-tropospheric North Pacific ridge, which can be strongly influenced by 589 diabatic processes that occur within midlatitude cyclones along the Pacific storm track or in 590 conjunction with tropical convection (e.g., Torn & Hakim, 2015; Teubler & Riemer, 2016;

Martinez-Alvarado et al., 2016; Bosart et al., 2017; Breeden et al., 2020). The inability for
models to represent the extent, magnitude, and cumulative influence of these diabatic processes
on the upper-tropospheric flow pattern is hypothesized to contribute to the larger-than-average
forecast errors associated with jet retractions and equatorward shifts during the first two weeks of
the forecast period.

596 At lead times longer than two weeks, forecast errors associated with each NPJ regime 597 appear to be strongly influenced by biases in each model's representation of the jet at 598 subseasonal lead times. Namely, NPJ regimes that were characterized by a low forecast 599 frequency bias at subseasonal lead times within a particular model were often the same NPJ 600 regimes that were associated with the largest forecast errors at the time of verification for that 601 model. The use of bias-corrected forecasts resolved these forecast frequency biases and resulted 602 in stronger agreement between forecast model errors at subseasonal lead times. Namely, 603 forecasts verifying during jet retractions or equatorward shifts were generally associated with the 604 largest forecast errors at subseasonal lead times. These results indicate that bias-corrected NPJ 605 phase diagram forecasts have the potential to identify periods that may exhibit enhanced skill 606 compared to each model's climatology at subseasonal lead times based on the anticipated NPJ 607 evolution.

The best-performing forecasts associated with each model occurred during periods in which the NPJ featured a slight poleward shift, whereas the worst-performing forecasts featured an NPJ that evolved towards a jet retraction or equatorward shift. Composites of the 21-day period following the initiation of a worst-performing forecast from each model indicated that the largest NPJ forecast errors coincided with the development of an upper-tropospheric North Pacific ridge during the first 10 days after forecast initialization and the subsequent maintenance,

614 retrogression, or decay of that ridge over the next 10 days. This result generalizes the analysis

from Winters et al. (2019a), who found a similar flow pattern was associated with the worst-

616 performing forecasts on medium-range time scales in the GEFS Reforecast Version 2 dataset,

617 and reaffirms that the life cycle of upper-tropospheric blocks remains a considerable

618 predictability challenge at subseasonal lead times (e.g., D'Andrea et al., 1998; Pelly & Hoskins,

619 2003; Ferranti et al., 2015; Matsueda & Palmer, 2018).

The results from this study motivate new avenues for future work. First, differences in the 620 621 forecast frequency of NPJ regimes at lead times exceeding two weeks within the baseline 622 forecasts from each model motivate further investigation into each model's representation of 623 physical processes that lead to the development of each NPJ regime (i.e., diabatic heating from 624 midlatitude and tropical sources and its subsequent influence on the character of the upper-625 tropospheric flow pattern). Second, the present results do not consider the extent to which 626 forecast errors associated with each NPJ regime translate to forecast errors over the North 627 American continent. Therefore, a study that considers the relationship between the prevailing 628 NPJ regime and downstream forecast errors would be a worthwhile endeavor. Finally, North 629 American weather is also influenced by the state and evolution of the synoptic-scale flow pattern 630 over the North Atlantic. A similar approach as used in this study can be applied to the North 631 Atlantic jet to examine the ability of models to accurately capture the state and evolution of that 632 jet.

633

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640

### 641 Data Availability Statement

642 CFSR data utilized for this study is publicly available from the NCAR Research Data Archive
643 (https://doi.org/10.5065/D69K487J). This work is based on S2S Reforecast data available from

644 ECMWF. S2S is a joint initiative of the World Weather Research Programme (WWRP) and the

645 World Climate Research Programme (WCRP). The original S2S database is hosted at ECMWF

as an extension of the TIGGE database (Vitart et al., 2017). A database of NPJ phase diagram

647 forecasts derived from the S2S Reforecast Database is archived at the University of Colorado

Boulder (Winters, 2021; https://scholar.colorado.edu/concern/datasets/0v838153k) Any

649 computer programs necessary to reproduce the results shown in this study are available from the

author upon request.

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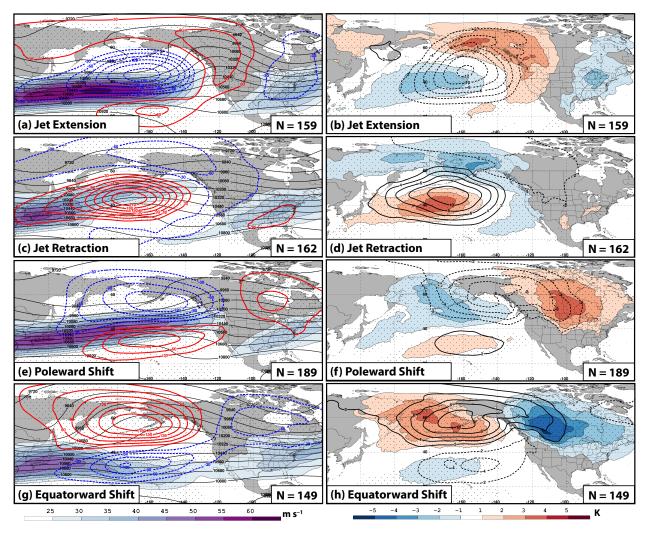
## 831 Tables

Model	Horizontal Resolution	Reforecast Type	Model Version	Reforecast Period	Reforecast Frequency	Forecast Length	Ensemble Members
ECCC	1.5°×1.5°	On the fly	2019	1998–2017	Every 7 days	32 days	4
CNRM	1.5°×1.5°	Fixed	12/01/14	1993–2014	4 / month	61 days	15
ISAC	1.5°×1.5°	Fixed	06/08/17	1981–2010	Every 5 days	32 days	5
KMA	1.5°×1.5°	On the fly	2019	1991–2010	4 / month	60 days	3
NCEP	1.5°×1.5°	Fixed	03/01/11	1999–2010	Daily	44 days	4
UKMO	1.5°×1.5°	On the fly	2019	1993–2016	4 / month	60 days	7
HMCR	1.5°×1.5°	On the fly	2019	1985–2010	Every 7 days	61 days	10
ECMWF	1.5°×1.5°	On the fly	2019	1999–2018	2 / week	46 days	11
СМА	1.5°×1.5°	On the fly	2019– 2020	2005–2018	2 / week	60 days	4

TABLE 1. Characteristics of the nine forecast models within the S2S Reforecast Database that
 are utilized as part of this study.

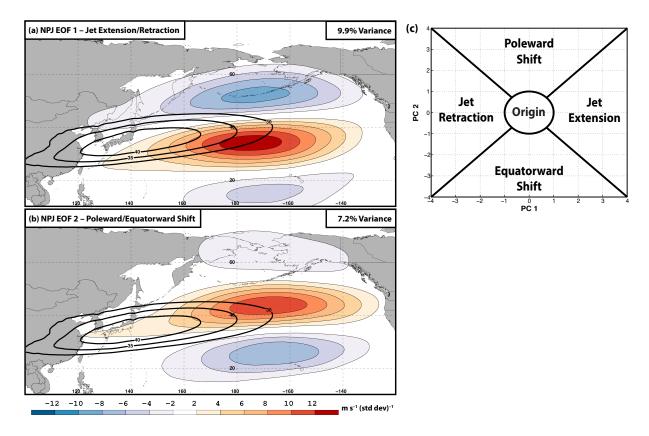
## 857 Figures







861 FIG. 1. Composite mean 250-hPa wind speed (shaded according to the fill pattern; m s<sup>-1</sup>), 250hPa geopotential height (contoured in black every 120 m), and 250-hPa geopotential height 862 863 anomalies (contoured every 30 m in red where positive and in dashed blue where negative) 4 864 days following the initiation of (a) a jet extension, (c) a jet retraction, (e) a poleward shift, and 865 (g) an equatorward shift NPJ regime. Composite anomalies of mean sea-level pressure (contoured every 2 hPa in solid black where positive and in dashed black where negative) and 866 850-hPa temperature (shaded according to the legend every 1 K) 4 days following the initiation 867 of (b) a jet extension, (d) a jet retraction, (f) a poleward shift, and (h) an equatorward shift NPJ 868 869 regime. The numbers in the bottom right of each panel indicate the number of cases included in 870 each composite. Stippled areas represent locations where the 250-hPa geopotential height 871 anomalies or 850-hPa temperature anomalies are statistically distinct from climatology at the 872 99% confidence level based on a two-sided Student's *t* test. Figure and caption adapted from 873 Winters et al. (2019a; their Fig. 5). © American Meteorological Society. Used with permission. 874



**FIG. 2.** September–May 300-hPa mean zonal wind is contoured in black every 5 m s<sup>-1</sup> above 30 m s<sup>-1</sup>, and the regression of 300-hPa zonal wind anomaly data onto standardized PC 1 (i.e., EOF 1) is shaded. The variance of 300-hPa zonal wind anomalies during September–May that is explained by EOF 1 is listed in the top right of the panel. (b) As in (a), but for the regression of

881 300-hPa zonal wind anomaly data onto standardized PC 2 (i.e., EOF 2). (c) Schematic depicting

the NPJ phase diagram and the method used to classify the NPJ into an NPJ regime.

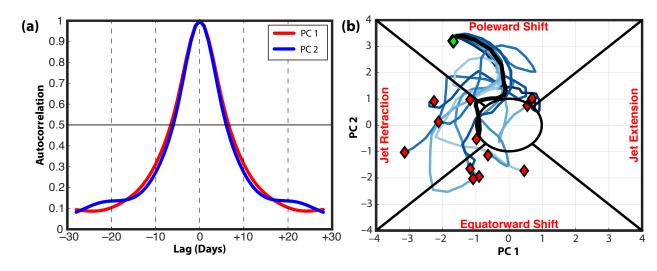




FIG. 3. (a) Autocorrelation functions for PC 1 and PC 2 that are derived from an EOF analysis
of 300-hPa zonal wind anomalies over the North Pacific during September–May within the

CFSR. The thin horizontal black line corresponds to an autocorrelation of 0.5. (b) A sample 21-

day NPJ phase diagram ensemble forecast initialized at 0000 UTC 4 February 1999. Blue lines

correspond to individual ensemble member forecasts and the thick black line corresponds to the

ensemble mean forecast. The green diamond identifies the state of the NPJ at the time of forecast

initialization and red diamonds identify the state of the NPJ at the end of the 21-day forecast

893 period for each ensemble member and the ensemble mean.

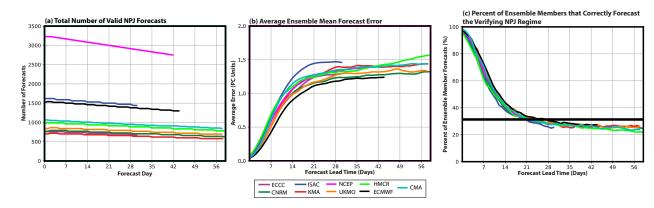




FIG. 4. (a) The total number of valid NPJ phase diagram forecasts initialized by each model at each forecast lead time. (b) The average Euclidean distance error (in principal component (PC) units) of ensemble mean NPJ phase diagram forecasts from each model as a function of forecast lead time. (c) The percent of ensemble member forecasts initialized from each model that correctly forecasted the verifying NPJ regime as a function of forecast lead time. The horizontal black bar identifies percentages that are statistically significant at the 99% confidence interval

904 compared to random chance based on a bootstrap resampling test with replacement.

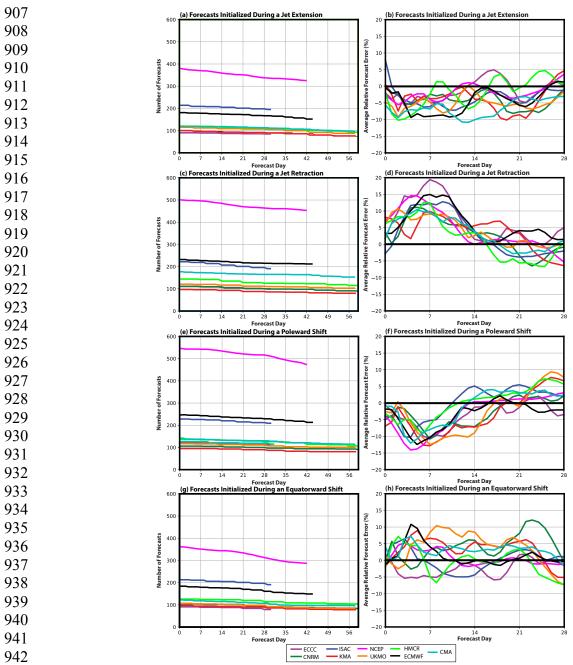
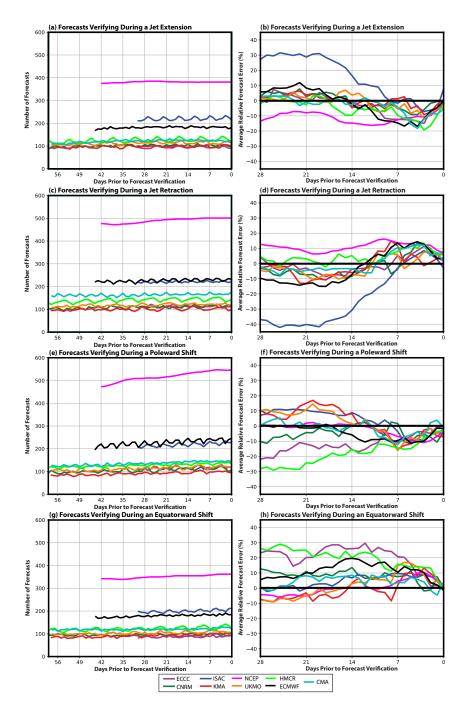
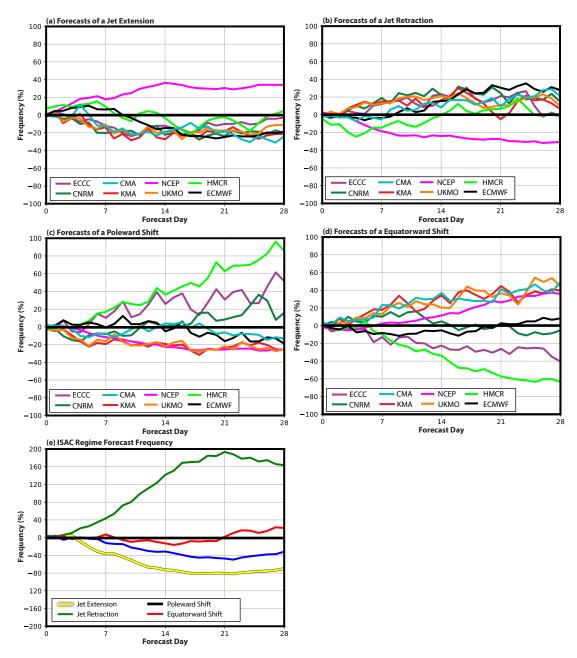


FIG. 5. The number of NPJ phase diagram forecasts from each model that were initialized during (a) a jet extension, (c) a jet retraction, (e) a poleward shift, and (g) an equatorward shift as a function of forecast lead time. The average Euclidean distance error of ensemble mean NPJ phase diagram forecasts from each model that were initialized during (b) a jet extension, (d) a jet retraction, (f) a poleward shift, and (h) an equatorward shift. All forecast model errors in (b,d,f,h) are expressed as a percentage greater or less than the average error of all NPJ phase diagram forecasts from that model that were initialized within one of the four primary NPJ regimes.



**FIG. 6.** The number of NPJ phase diagram forecasts from each model that verified during (a) a jet extension, (c) a jet retraction, (e) a poleward shift, and (g) an equatorward shift as a function of forecast lead time prior to verification. The average Euclidean distance error of ensemble mean NPJ phase diagram forecasts from each model that verified during (b) a jet extension, (d) a jet retraction, (f) a poleward shift, and (h) an equatorward shift. All forecast model errors in (b,d,f,h) are expressed as a percentage greater or less than the average error of all NPJ phase diagram forecasts from that model that verified within one of the four primary NPJ regimes.





**FIG. 7.** The percent frequency that (a) a jet extension, (b) a jet retraction, (c) a poleward shift, and (d) an equatorward shift is overforecast (positive percentages) or underforecast (negative percentages) by ensemble member NPJ phase diagram forecasts from each model relative to verification at every forecast lead time. (e) The percent frequency that each NPJ regime is overforecast or underforecast relative to verification at each forecast lead time for the ISAC model.

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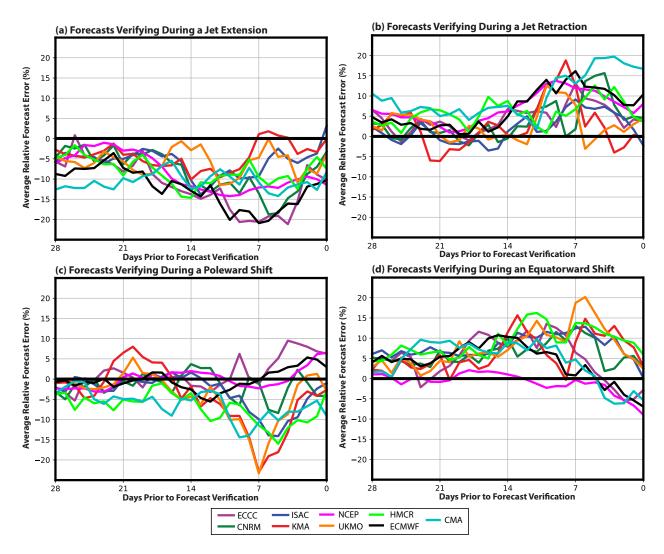
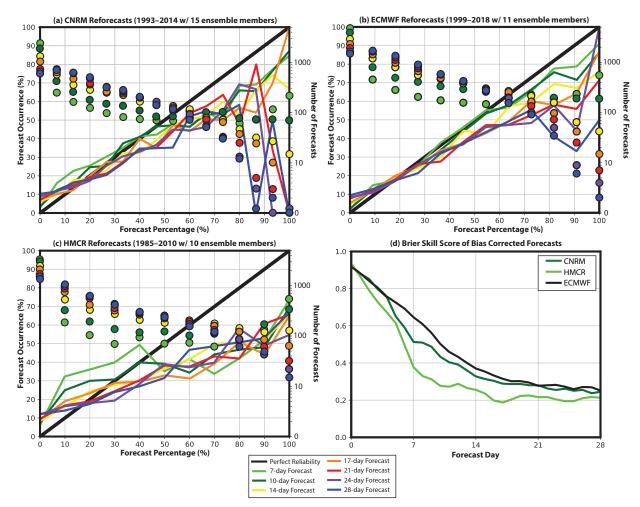


FIG. 8. As in Figs. 6b,d,f,h, but showing the errors associated with bias-corrected NPJ phase
diagram forecasts from each model as a function of forecast lead time for forecasts that verify

976 during (a) a jet extension, (b) a jet retraction, (c) a poleward shift, and (d) an equatorward shift.



978 979 FIG. 9. Reliability diagrams at a variety of forecast lead times for the (a) CNRM, (b) ECMWF,

980 and (c) HMCR bias-corrected ensembles. Shown in these diagrams are the probability that a particular NPJ regime is forecast to occur at a given lead time versus the percent of time that the 981 982 forecasted NPJ regime verified. The thick black line represents a perfectly reliable forecast, and 983 the colored dots show the number of forecasts within each probabilistic bin on a log scale as a 984 function of forecast lead time. (d) The Brier Skill Scores associated with CNRM, HMCR, and

985 ECMWF probabilistic forecasts as a function of forecast lead time.

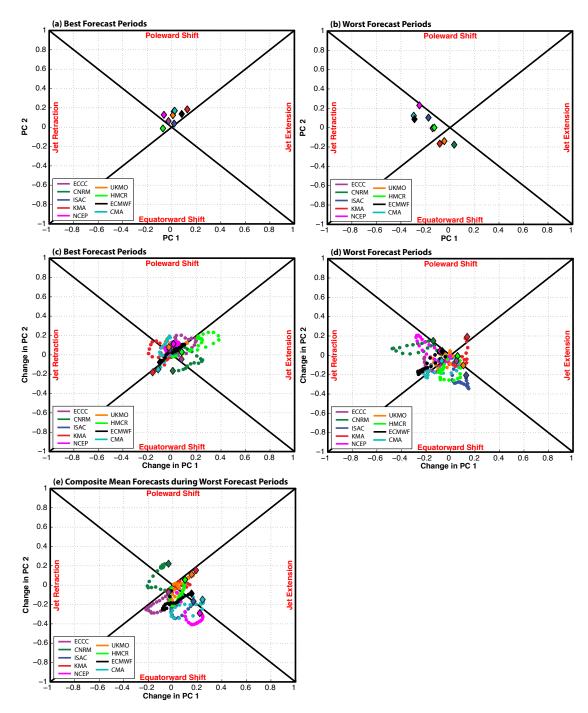
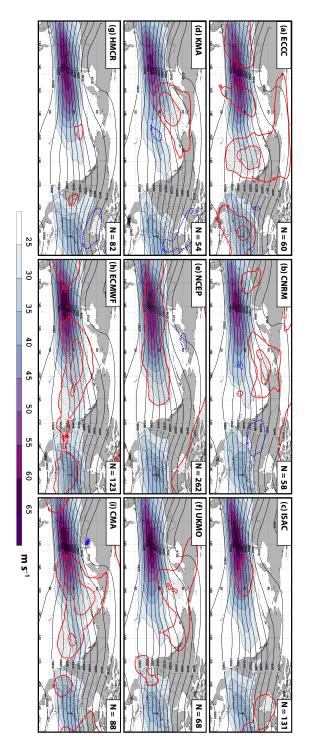


FIG. 10. The average position of the NPJ within the NPJ phase diagram at the time (a) a best performing forecast and (b) a worst-performing forecast is initialized from each model.
 Trajectories showing the composite evolution of the NPJ within the NPJ phase diagram during
 the 21-day period after the initiation of (c) a best-performing forecast and (d) a worst-performing
 forecast from each model. (e) The composite ensemble mean 21-day forecast trajectories
 constructed from the worst-performing NPJ phase diagram forecasts from each model.



**FIG. 11.** Composite mean 250-hPa wind speed (shaded according to the fill pattern; m s<sup>-1</sup>), 250hPa geopotential height (contoured in black every 120 m), and 250-hPa geopotential height

- anomalies (contoured every 30 m in red where positive and in dashed blue where negative) from
- 1001 the CFSR at the time a worst-performing forecast is initialized from the (a) ECCC, (b) CNRM,
- 1002 (c) ISAC, (d) KMA, (e) NCEP, (f) UKMO, (g) HMCR, (h) ECMWF, and (i) CMA model.
- 1003 Hatched regions indicate geopotential height anomalies that are statistically distinct from
- 1004 climatology at the 95% confidence interval using a two-sided Student's *t* test.

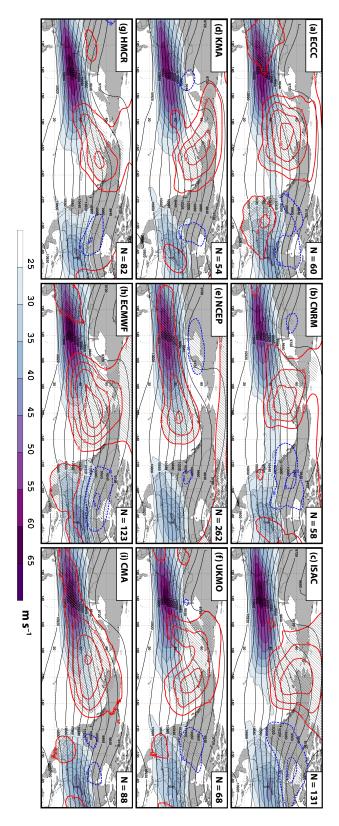
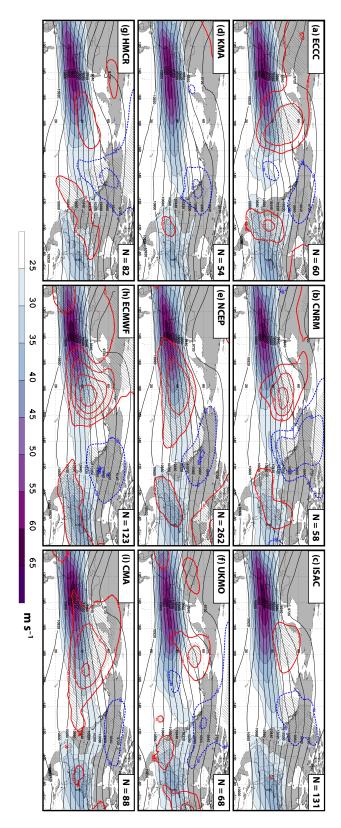
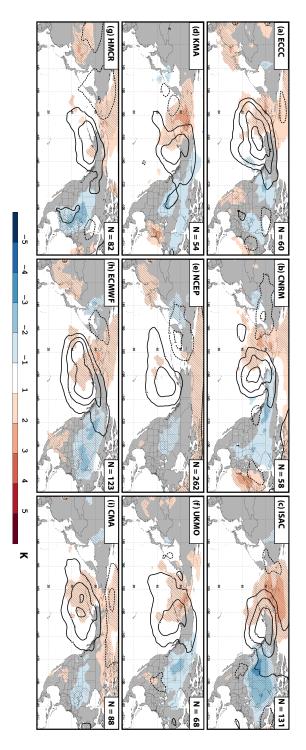


FIG. 12. As in Fig. 11, but showing composites from the CFSR 10 days after the initialization ofa worst-performing forecast from each model.



**FIG. 13.** As in Fig. 11, but showing composites from the CFSR 20 days after the initialization of a worst-performing forecast from each model.



- 1013 1014
- 1015 FIG. 14. Composite mean 850-hPa temperature anomalies (shaded according to the legend every
- 1016 1 K), and mean sea-level pressure anomalies (contoured every 2 hPa in solid black where
- 1017 positive and in dashed black where negative) from the CFSR 10 days after a worst-performing
- 1018 forecast is initialized from the (a) ECCC, (b) CNRM, (c) ISAC, (d) KMA, (e) NCEP, (f) UKMO,
- 1019 (g) HMCR, (h) ECMWF, and (i) CMA model. Hatched regions indicate 850-hPa temperature
- 1020 anomalies that are statistically distinct from climatology at the 95% confidence interval using a
- 1021 two-sided Student's *t* test.