

Exploring the limits of the Jenkinson-Collison classification scheme for atmospheric circulation: A global assessment based on various reanalyses

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Research Article

Keywords: Jenkinson-Collison classification, weather types, observational uncertainty, Transition Probabilities.

Posted Date: March 11th, 2022

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-1415588/v1>

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18 **Abstract**

19 The Jenkinson-Collison weather typing scheme (JC-WT) is an auto-
20 mated method used to classify the regional atmospheric circulation
21 into a reduced number of typical recurrent patterns, identified in the
22 early 1970ies on the basis of expert knowledge. Originally developed
23 for the British Isles, the method since then has seen many applica-
24 tions. Encouraged by the estimate that the JC-WT approach can in
25 principle be applied to any mid-to-high latitude region (Jones et al,
26 2013), the present study explores whether it can be used anywhere in
27 the extratropics, including the Southern Hemisphere. To this aim, JC-
28 WT is applied at each grid-box of a global 2.5° regular grid excluding
29 the inner tropics ($\pm 5^\circ$ band) where the method cannot be applied.

30 Thereby, 6-hourly JC-WT catalogues are obtained for 5 distinct reanalyses, covering the period 1979-2005, which are then applied to explore
31 1) the method's limits of applicability and 2) observational uncertainties inherent to reanalysis datasets. Using evaluation criteria such as the
32 diversity of occurring circulation types and the frequency of unclassified
33 situations, we extract empirically derived applicability thresholds
34 which suggest that JC-WT can be generally used anywhere pole-
35 wards of 22.5°. Seasonal variations compromise this finding along the
36 equatorward limits of the domain, and so does the effect of large oro-
37 graphic barriers such as the Tibetan Plateau, the Andes, Greenland
38 and Antarctica. In some regions, the JC-WT classifications obtained
39 from the distinct reanalyses substantially differ from each other and this
40 should be taken into account by further applications of the method.
41
42

43 **Keywords:** Jenkinson-Collison classification, weather types, observational
44 uncertainty, Transition Probabilities.

45 1 Introduction

46 The large-scale atmospheric circulation exerts a direct influence on the regional
47 climate. For instance, regarding the European climate, persistent high pres-
48 sure (blocking) systems (Rex, 1950; Jury et al, 2019) or the North Atlantic
49 Oscillation (NAO) pattern (Hurrell et al, 2003; Folland et al, 2009) are related
50 to extreme seasonal temperature events (Buehler et al, 2011; Barriopedro
51 et al, 2011; Favà et al, 2015; Schaller et al, 2018), wet spells and precipitation
52 extremes (Busuioc et al, 2001; Casanueva et al, 2014; Sousa et al, 2017) or
53 droughts (Bladé et al, 2011) due to their capability to disturb the predominant
54 cyclonic westerly flow (Sillmann and Croci-Maspoli, 2009).

55 Similarly, in the South Hemisphere (SH), the Southern Annular Mode
56 (SAM), also referred as the Antarctic Oscillation, influences the climate sys-
57 tems at high and middle latitudes (Gong and Wang, 1998, 1999; Thompson
58 and Wallace, 2000; Thompson et al, 2000), displaying a 'seesaw' pattern for
59 the atmospheric mass (SLP or geopotential heights). In essence, the SAM
60 consists of a belt of strong westerly winds or low pressures surrounding Antarc-
61 tica which exhibits a northward/southward displacement as its main mode
62 of variability. For example, it is associated with storms and cold fronts that
63 move from west to east largely determining precipitation in southern Aus-
64 tralia (Stammerjohn et al, 2008; Risbey et al, 2009). Additionally, various
65 modes of large-scale climate variability such as the El Niño-Southern Oscil-
66 lation (ENSO), the Interdecadal Pacific Oscillation (IPO), the Indian Ocean
67 Dipole (IOD), the Subtropical ridge (STR) or the Madden Julian Oscillation
68 (MJO) largely determine the regional climate of the SH (Dey et al, 2019).

69 Hence, an adequate representation of atmospheric circulation and high-
70 /low pressure variability becomes essential for a proper representation of the
71 main regional climate features. In this context, synoptic weather types are a

useful tool as they summarize the whole range of variability of the data into a few, construable patterns (Huth et al, 1993, 2008; Littmann, 2000; Stryhal and Huth, 2017). A well-known circulation classification method is the Lamb Weather Type (LWT) Classification. The LWT classification is a subjective clustering approach created by the climatologist Hubert H. Lamb (Lamb, 1972) with the aim of studying the synoptic climatology over the British Isles. The system relies on a deterministic weather type classification based on a number of rules requiring meteorological expert knowledge for the interpretation of daily SLP charts, providing a straightforward and well defined physical interpretation of the atmospheric state. Later in the computer era, Jenkinson and Collison (1977) developed a more objective scheme following Lamb's principles, known as the Jenkinson-Collison weather type classification (JC-WT hereafter). The JC-WT approach is an automated procedure using a set of equations based upon sea level pressure (SLP) able to reproduce circulation types with negligible differences from the original LWT catalogue (Jones et al, 1993). Furthermore, unlike the original LWT approach, the JC-WT scheme has the advantage of being automatically applicable to different geographical locations through the introduction of some adjustment parameters to account for the relative grid spacing as a function of latitude.

The advantages of this circulation typing method has since then been exploited in different studies in the Northern Hemisphere (NH). For instance, JC-WTs have been centered in the Iberian Peninsula [$10^{\circ}W, 40^{\circ}N$] (Trigo and DaCamara, 2000), [$5^{\circ}W, 40^{\circ}N$] (Ramos et al, 2014), western Mediterranean basin [$5^{\circ}E, 40^{\circ}N$] (Grimalt-Gelabert et al, 2013), southern Scandinavia [$15^{\circ}E, 60^{\circ}N$] (Chen, 2000), south-west Russia [$55^{\circ}E, 55^{\circ}N$] (Spellman, 2017), Ireland [$10^{\circ}W, 55^{\circ}N$] (Fealy and Mills, 2018), Serbia [$20^{\circ}E, 42.5^{\circ}N$] (Putnikovic et al, 2016), Central Europe [$10^{\circ}E, 50^{\circ}N$] (Otero et al, 2018) and southeastern China (Wang and Sun, 2020; Wu et al, 2020). In an unprecedented study, Brands (2021) computed JC-WTs centered on every cell of the grid covering the majority of the NH extratropic region in order to evaluate GCM performance. The JC-WT classification has been seldom used in the southern hemisphere, excepting, to the best of our knowledge, by Sarricolea et al (2018) in southern Chile [$72.5^{\circ}W, 42.5^{\circ}S$], requiring in this case an adaptation of the model equations to the SH circulation, as illustrated in this study.

The idea of evaluating model performance by means of atmospheric patterns and weather types started long time ago (Jones et al, 1993; Hulme et al, 1993), and the process-based evaluation paradigm has recently come into focus particularly within the downscaling community (Maraun et al, 2017), primarily aimed in this case at performing an optimal, objective selection of GCMs for downscaling experiments (Pickler and Mölg, 2021). Quoting Sterl (2004), 'if the pressure fields of two models differ, most other fields will differ too', which highlights the importance of SLP as the basic dynamical variable of a model and its relevance for model assessment. In this sense, model performance can be assessed by relying on SLP-based atmospheric circulation typing techniques such as the JC-WT classification, as an effective tool for model ranking and

117 selection (see e.g. [Fernandez-Granja et al, 2021](#)). Model evaluation involves
118 the analytical comparison of model outputs against observations (or reanaly-
119 sis, as pseudo-observations), taking into account that not only the model, but
120 also the observations may be uncertain ([Gettelman and Rood, 2016](#); [Kotlarski
121 et al, 2019](#)). Most often, reanalysis products are used as reference, requiring a
122 careful consideration of the divergence in their representation of climate fea-
123 tures, particularly in regions where their background observational network
124 has been historically sparse ([Sterl, 2004](#); [Lavin-Gullon et al, 2021](#)) and those
125 more sensitive to temporal non-stationarities in the assimilated data incorpo-
126 rated to the model by the observing systems ([Bengtsson, 2004](#)). As a result, it
127 is widely recognized the need to consider multiple observational products when
128 evaluating climate models ([Gibson et al, 2019](#)) and considerable effort has
129 been devoted to the intercomparison of reanalysis products in different climate
130 research contexts (e.g.: [Chen et al, 2008](#); [Ben Daoud et al, 2009](#); [Brands et al,
131 2012](#)) and the understanding of the underlying causes for their disagreement
132 ([Fujiwara et al, 2017](#)).

133 This study describes an implementation of the JC-WT classification for
134 its application worldwide, considering its adaptation to SH locations, and
135 presents a 6-hourly database of JC-WT catalogues calculated from five differ-
136 ent reanalysis products with a global coverage (excluding a 10°-width band
137 along the equator). The objective is two-fold. First, we undertake an assess-
138 ment of the JC-WT applicability across world regions, taking as reference the
139 latest IPCC-WGI Reference Regions ([Iturbide et al, 2020](#)) for summarizing
140 the results. These allow for the identification of the global areas where the JC-
141 WT classification provides an effective tool for characterizing the atmospheric
142 circulation. Second, we intercompare different JC-WT reanalysis catalogues
143 with the aim of unveiling regions of high circulation uncertainty in the reanal-
144 yses. Caution is advocated in these areas, where the usage of more than one
145 reanalysis is required in order to adequately evaluate the range of uncertainty
146 in circulation-dependent modelling and/or downscaling exercises. The global
147 JC-WT catalogues and the code implementing the worldwide JC-WT formu-
148 lation used in this study are made available through dedicated Zenodo and
149 GitHub open repositories.

150 2 Methodology and Data

151 2.1 Jenkinson-Collinson Classification

152 We follow the JC-WT formulation developed by [Jenkinson and Collinson \(1977\)](#)
153 that yields 27 different types. As input, we use 6-hourly, instantaneous sea level
154 pressure (SLP) data, which are sampled using a cross-shaped point pattern
155 (Fig. 1) formed by 16 points with a separation of 5° in latitude and 10° in
156 longitude. Due to its shape, in the following, we will refer to this scheme
157 simply as “cross”. This cross can, in principle, be centered on any extra-tropical
158 location.

159 The JC-WT classification is a function of 6 parameters related to wind-
 160 flow characteristics. Their corresponding equations are summarized in Table 1:
 161 southerly flow (S), westerly flow (W), total flow (F), southerly shear vorticity
 162 (Z_S), westerly shear vorticity (Z_W) and total shear vorticity (Z) computed
 163 upon the SLP records provided at a given time (6-hourly records in this study).
 164 The original parameter equations proposed by Jenkinson and Collison (1977)
 165 require further adjustments for their application in SH locations (Table 1).
 166 The result is a set of 27 weather types representing pure cyclonic (C) and
 167 anticyclonic (A) circulation over the center point, 8 pure directional types (N,
 168 NE, E, . . . , NW), 16 hybrid types (mixing A or C with any of the directional
 169 types) and a 27th type accounting for unclassified records, that is, days with
 170 chaotic weak flow or days when incompatible hybrids are formed (Fig. 2).
 171 Equations for S , Z_W and Z_S use a number of adjustment coefficients (s , z_w^- ,
 172 z_w^+ , z_s) which take into account the relative grid spacing at different center
 173 latitudes (ψ , in degrees; Jones et al, 2013).

Param.	Northern hemisphere	Southern hemisphere	Wind-flow characteristics
W	$\frac{P_{12} + P_{13}}{2} - \frac{P_4 + P_5}{2}$	$\frac{P_4 + P_5}{2} - \frac{P_{12} + P_{13}}{2}$	Westerly flow
S	$s \left(\frac{P_3 + 2P_9 + P_{13}}{4} - \frac{P_4 + 2P_8 + P_{12}}{4} \right)$	$s \left(\frac{P_4 + 2P_8 + P_{12}}{4} - \frac{P_3 + 2P_9 + P_{13}}{4} \right)$	Southerly flow
D	$\arctan \frac{W}{S}$		Flow direction
F	$\sqrt{W^2 + S^2}$		Resultant flow
Z_W	$z_w^- \left(\frac{P_{15} + P_{16}}{2} - \frac{P_8 + P_9}{2} \right) - z_w^+ \left(\frac{P_8 + P_9}{2} - \frac{P_1 + P_2}{2} \right)$	$z_w^+ \left(\frac{P_1 + P_2}{2} - \frac{P_8 + P_9}{2} \right) - z_w^- \left(\frac{P_8 + P_9}{2} - \frac{P_{15} + P_{16}}{2} \right)$	Westerly shear vorticity
Z_S	$z_s \left(\frac{P_6 + 2P_{10} + P_{14}}{4} - \frac{P_5 + 2P_9 + P_{13}}{4} \right) - \left(\frac{P_4 + 2P_8 + P_{12}}{4} + \frac{P_3 + 2P_7 + P_{11}}{4} \right)$	$z_s \left(\frac{P_3 + 2P_7 + P_{11}}{4} - \frac{P_4 + 2P_8 + P_{12}}{4} \right) - \left(\frac{P_5 + 2P_9 + P_{13}}{4} + \frac{P_6 + 2P_{10} + P_{14}}{4} \right)$	Southerly shear vorticity
Z	$Z_W + Z_S$		Total shear vorticity

where $s = \frac{1}{\cos \psi}$; $z_w^- = \frac{\sin \psi}{\sin(\psi - 5^\circ)}$; $z_w^+ = \frac{\sin \psi}{\sin(\psi + 5^\circ)}$; $z_s = \frac{1}{2 \cos^2 \psi}$

Table 1 Equations of the different circulation parameters of the JC-WT classification, for Northern and Southern Hemispheres. Fig. 1 displays the relative position of the points $i = 1, \dots, 16$, where SLP values P_i are considered

174 In order to produce the classification for the entire globe, the center of the
 175 cross is displaced from one grid-box to another through all points of a reference
 176 2.5° regular SLP grid within a band from 80°S to 80°N . Note that grid-boxes
 177 within $90^\circ\text{S} - 80^\circ\text{S}$ and $80^\circ\text{N} - 90^\circ\text{N}$ are beyond the range of the JC-WT
 178 method since the cross extends 10° north-south from its center (Fig. 1). The
 179 JC-WT method was conceived for extratropical application since significant
 180 pressure gradients within the cross, required for a meaningful classification,
 181 are expected to occur mainly in these latitudes. Consequently, the JC-WT
 182 domain of analysis is recommended to any mid-to-high latitude region ($\sim 30^\circ$
 183 $- 70^\circ$) by Jones et al (2013). However, in this study we calculate the JC-
 184 WT classification beyond these latitudes to obtain a more complete picture
 185 of the geographical limits of applicability of the method, also considering for
 186 the first time a spatially continuous application over the southern hemisphere.

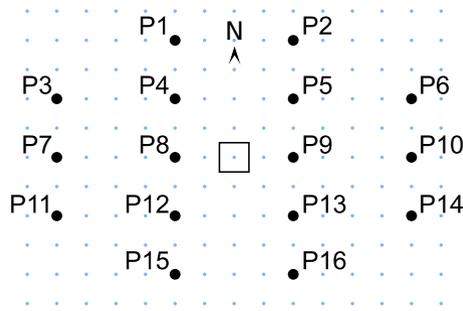


Fig. 1 Spatial distribution of the grid point pattern (“cross”) of 16 points (in black) used in the JC-WT equations from Table 1. The background grid (in blue) represents the common, 2.5° regular grid, where the SLP has been interpolated. The square indicates the central grid cell of the cross, located at latitude ψ (see equations in Table 1).

187 Brands (2021) performs JC-WT classification over all cells but for the latitudes
 188 between 30° N and 70° N only. Note that the z_w^\mp coefficients are undefined
 189 at $\psi = \pm 5^\circ$ cross center latitudes (Table 1), and take nonphysical, negative
 190 values in between. Therefore, this latitudinal band has been excluded from our
 191 calculations.

192 The worldwide JC-WT method implementation here presented is available
 193 through the R package `transformer` (v2.0.2, Iturbide et al, 2019). Its appli-
 194 cation is also illustrated through a worked example in the companion paper
 195 notebook (see Sec. *Availability of data and materials*).

196 2.2 Reanalysis data

197 We computed the global JC-WT classification using the 6-hourly SLP fields
 198 from five reanalysis products. Table 2 summarizes their features and provides
 199 references for further details. Prior to JC-WT application, all reanalyses were
 200 conservatively interpolated to a common 2.5° regular longitude-latitude grid
 201 (Fig. 1). In order to compare all reanalyses, we considered their common 27-
 202 year period 1979-2005, coincident with the AR5 CMIP5 historical baseline
 203 (Taylor et al, 2012). ERA-20C is produced through the assimilation of just
 204 SLP and marine winds, being therefore not fully comparable to the others,
 205 which assimilate a wider range of surface, upper-air and satellite observations.
 206 However, it has been also included in the intercomparison experiment for the
 207 sake of diversity. The reanalysis uncertainty is here analyzed by following an
 208 “all-against-all” validation scheme, so every reanalysis have been validated
 209 against each other.

210 2.3 Jenkinson-Collinson Classification assessment

211 2.3.1 Weather type frequencies and transition probabilities

212 One salient feature of a weather type is its probability of occurrence, which
 213 can be estimated by the relative frequency of occurrence in a sample, i.e. the
 214 proportion of 6-h records classified in a particular category over the complete

Reanalysis	Nom. res. (°)	Modelling Center	Reference
ERA-20C	1.13	ECMWF	Poli et al (2016)
ERA-Interim	0.75	ECMWF	Dee et al (2011)
ERA-5	0.25	ECMWF	Hersbach et al (2020)
JRA-55	1.25	JMA	Kobayashi et al (2015) ; Harada et al (2016)
NCEP Reanalysis 1	2.5	NCEP-NCAR	Kalnay et al (1996)

Table 2 Set of reanalyses used in this study, their nominal resolution at the equator (in °) and modelling centers producing them. ECMWF: European Center for Medium Range Weather Forecasts; JMA: Japanese Meteorological Agency; NCEP-NCAR: National Centers for Environmental Prediction / National Center for Atmospheric Research.

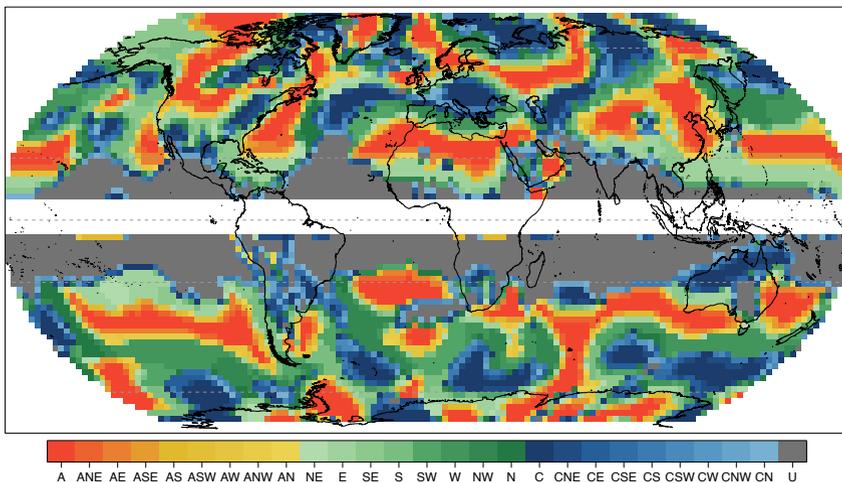


Fig. 2 Example of 6-hourly record of the Jenkinson-Collison Weather Type catalogue obtained from ERA-5, corresponding to the SLP state at 1979-01-01 00:00:00 UTC. The 26 JC-WT circulation types are indicated in the legend, ranging from purely anticyclonic (A) and its hybrids (ANE to AN), pure directional (NE to N) and purely cyclonic (C) and its hybrids (CNE to CN). Type 27, unclassified (U), is depicted in grey.

215 time series length. JC-WT persistence or, more generally, transition proba-
 216 bilities between two different types are also important. They determine key
 217 temporal features such as spell duration, serving as an effective tool for the
 218 assessment of the model ability to reproduce atmospheric circulation pattern
 219 sequences ([Gibson et al, 2016](#); [Hochman et al, 2019](#); [Fernandez-Granja et al,](#)
 220 [2021](#)). In order to measure the differences among reanalyses, we assess both
 221 the JC-WT probabilities of occurrence for each individual type, as well as the
 222 probability of transition of one type into another. The latter are analysed using
 223 a transition probability matrix (TPM), briefly described next. Let the discrete
 224 random variable X_t represent a particular JC-WT at time t , whose values
 225 $x_t \in \{1, \dots, K\}$, where $K = 27$ is the total number of WTs. We consider this

variable at two consecutive time steps, X_{t-1} and X_t , to construct the $K \times K$ transition probability matrix A , where $A_{ij} = p(X_t = j \mid X_{t-1} = i)$, representing the probability of transitioning from WT i to WT j . Hence, each row of the matrix sums to one, $\sum_j A_{ij} = 1$. The TPM thus provides a visual “fingerprint” on how a given dataset reproduces the JC-WT classification when centered on a given grid cell. TPMs can be compared to a reference through specific evaluation measures (Sec. 2.3.2). Further details and examples of TPM are presented in [Fernandez-Granja et al \(2021\)](#).

2.3.2 Evaluation measures

Two main aspects are addressed in our evaluation of the JC-WT classification. Firstly, we investigate the suitability of the method for each world region by using two criteria: (1) the number of different types, measuring the regional circulation’s *diversity*, and (2) the occurrence of the Unclassified (U) type, witnessing weak pressure gradient with no clear vorticity tendency, also known as *barometric swamp* ([Grimalt-Gelabert et al, 2013](#)). Low diversity and frequent barometric swamp are here assumed to be indicative of the method working at its theoretical limits, i.e. in climate regimes for which it has not been developed; most prominently the monsoon and Intertropical Convergence Zone. Applying the method under these circumstance makes little sense since synoptic variability is either missing at the considered scale, is represented by other variables than SLP. We here intentionally push the method to its limits in order to explore whether it can be applied anywhere in between 30 and 70 degrees North or South, as was estimated by [Jones et al \(2013\)](#), or even beyond. For the diversity criterion, we consider weather types attaining relative frequencies above 0.1%, i.e. 40 or more occurrences in the total record of nearly 40,000 time steps. This threshold has been chosen since some JC-WTs were found to occur with relative frequencies as small as 0.47% in its original formulation for the British Isles ([Perry and Mayes, 1998](#)). In light of both measures (weather type diversity and type U frequency) jointly considered, we aim to obtain empirical evidence about the global geographical boundaries for the applicability of the JC-WT classification.

Secondly, reanalysis uncertainty is addressed. In order to evaluate the discrepancies among reanalyses, we measure the differences in their resulting JC-WT classification considering the relative bias of their WT frequencies, as well as the statistical significance of these differences using a two-proportions Z-test. Annual and seasonal relative biases for each WT are computed among all pairs of reanalyses in [Table 2](#). The relative bias is a non-dimensional measure, which is zero for a perfect agreement of frequencies. The null hypothesis for the two-proportions Z-test is that the relative frequencies of a given type for two different reanalyses are the same. We use this parametric test in order to identify significant differences in their resulting weather type frequencies. Here, we use the Z-test implementation in the `prop.test` function from the R package `stats` (v3.6.3, [R Core Team, 2020](#)), which includes an exact test

269 for small samples, better suited for infrequent weather types. The test was
 270 performed using a 95% confidence level.

271 Reanalysis differences in their representation of transition probabilities
 272 were evaluated by the TPM Score (TPMS, eq. 1), envisaged to provide a quan-
 273 titative measure of dissimilarity between two transition probability matrices
 274 (Fernandez-Granja et al, 2021). TPMS is defined as follows:

$$TPMS = \sum_{p \in A^*} |p - p_{ref}| \quad (1)$$

275 where p and p_{ref} are the transition probabilities in the test and in the refer-
 276 ence datasets, respectively. The (absolute) difference is calculated considering
 277 a subset of transition probabilities A^* from the full matrix (A), that are sig-
 278 nificantly different between the two reanalyses considered in each comparison,
 279 following the two-proportion Z-test. In order to include the “missing” transi-
 280 tions in the score (i.e. either transitions that exist in the reference but do not
 281 occur the test dataset, or transitions that occur in the test but do not in the
 282 reference dataset), these are assigned a zero probability (i.e. either $p = 0$ or
 283 $p_{ref} = 0$) and included in the A^* subset. As a result, the larger the TPMS
 284 departure from zero (perfect agreement), the larger the dissimilarity of the
 285 TPM fingerprints between the reanalyses for a given center grid cell.

286 2.4 Regional synthesis

287 Finally, in order to provide a synthetic overview of the main results, we provide
 288 a regional assessment of our results. To this aim, we use the latest set of climatic
 289 reference regions used in by the IPCC for the assessment of historical trends
 290 and future climate change projections (Iturbide et al, 2020). In order to avoid
 291 the inclusion of unsuitable areas for the application of the JC-WT methodology
 292 and provide a more meaningful summary valid for regional intercomparison
 293 purposes, we exclude from the original polygon dataset the whole intertropical
 294 range, thus producing a modification of some of the original IPCC regions to
 295 exclude this area. The IPCC regions affected are indicated with an asterisk
 296 throughout the text. The modified polygon layer is included as supplementary
 297 material of this study to ensure the reproducibility of the results (see Sec.
 298 *Availability of data and materials*).

299 3 Results and discussions

300 3.1 Suitability of the JC-WT classification worldwide

301 For brevity, the following results are based on ERA-5 unless otherwise indi-
 302 cated. The global distribution of the total number of distinct WTs (Fig. 3,
 303 left) shows a marked latitudinal gradient, with a decreasing diversity of types
 304 towards the tropics. Conversely, the frequency of the U type (Fig. 3, right)
 305 exhibits a sudden increase in the tropics, following a pattern similar to type

306 diversity (left). In general, the lower the diversity of types, the higher the frequency
 307 of the U type, with a few regional exceptions, where reduced diversity
 308 coincides with small U numbers. Such exceptions are found *year-round* over
 309 Antarctica and the Tibetan Plateau; and to a lesser degree also over Green-
 310 land and the southern Indian Ocean at mid-latitudes. During JJA season, the
 311 Mediterranean, Middle-East and southwestern United States can be added to
 312 this list, as well as the mid-latitude eastern South Atlantic and eastern South
 313 Pacific for DJF.

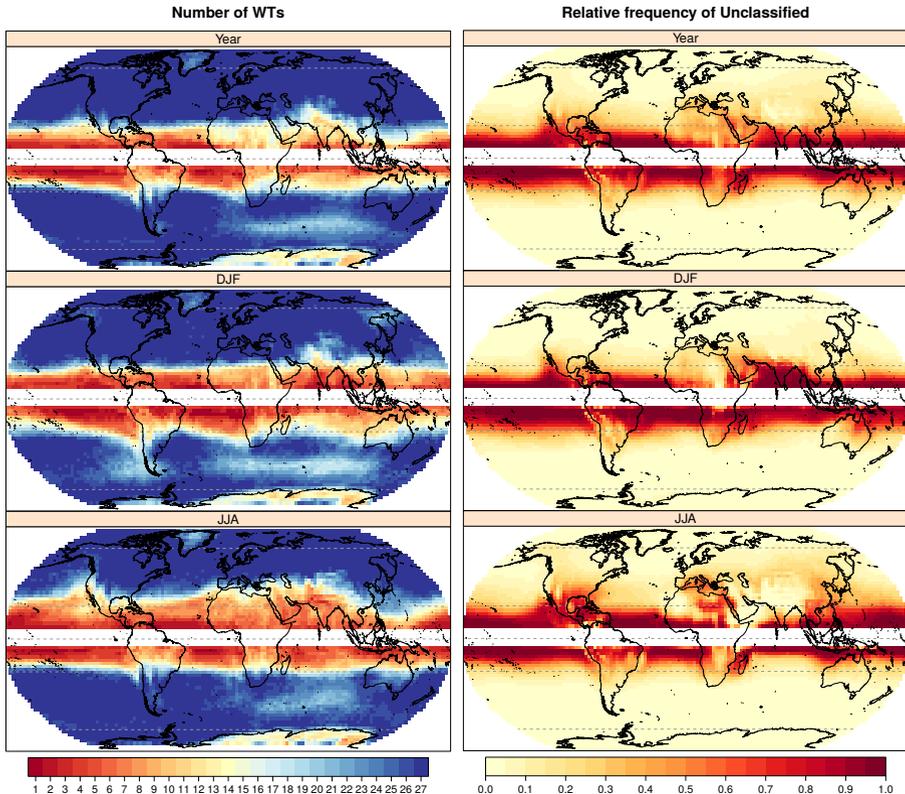


Fig. 3 Summary of the Jenkinson-Collison global classification calculated upon the SLP from ERA-5 (6-hourly, 1979-2005), considering the whole annual series (top row) and DJF and JJA seasons (rows 2–3 respectively). Left column: Number of weather types per grid-box with a relative frequency above 0.1%, DJF and JJA. Right column: Relative frequency of the Unclassified type (U) per grid-box.

314 Visual inspection of the maps in Fig. 3 reveals a remarkable empirical
 315 threshold of around 16 different types coinciding with at least half the temporal
 316 record falling into the U type. This threshold will be interpreted as applicability
 317 criterion in the forthcoming and is generally met polewards of 22.5° latitude
 318 on both hemispheres, which clearly extends the range of application suggested
 319 by Jones et al (2013), from 30° to 70° .

320 The aforementioned thresholds exhibit seasonal excursions that go hand in
 321 hand with the seasonal shifts of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ,
 322 Barry and Carleton, 2013), where local scale processes of deep convection are
 323 predominant. This seasonal fluctuations of the ITCZ may alter to some extent
 324 the applicability of the JC-WT classification even in the extra-tropics. In the
 325 Mediterranean Basin, for instance, suitability is optimal during DJF (boreal
 326 winter, maximum JC-WT diversity and a negligible type U frequency), which
 327 is due to a southward shift of the Atlantic storm tracks in combination with
 328 autochthonous cyclogenesis over the Mediterranean Sea (Fita et al, 2007). In
 329 JJA (boreal summer), however, the U type frequency increases in hand with a
 330 shrinking type diversity, hence compromising the usefulness of the classification
 331 during this season. On both hemispheres, the favourable area widens towards
 332 the equator during their winter and retreats towards the respective pole during
 333 summer (Fig. 3).

334 3.2 Reanalysis Uncertainty

335 After determining the regional applicability limits of the JC-WT classification,
 336 we next analyze its consistency among different reanalyses. In order to sum-
 337 marize the results, we will here refer to the modified IPCC-AR6 regions (Sec.
 338 2.4, Fig. 4).

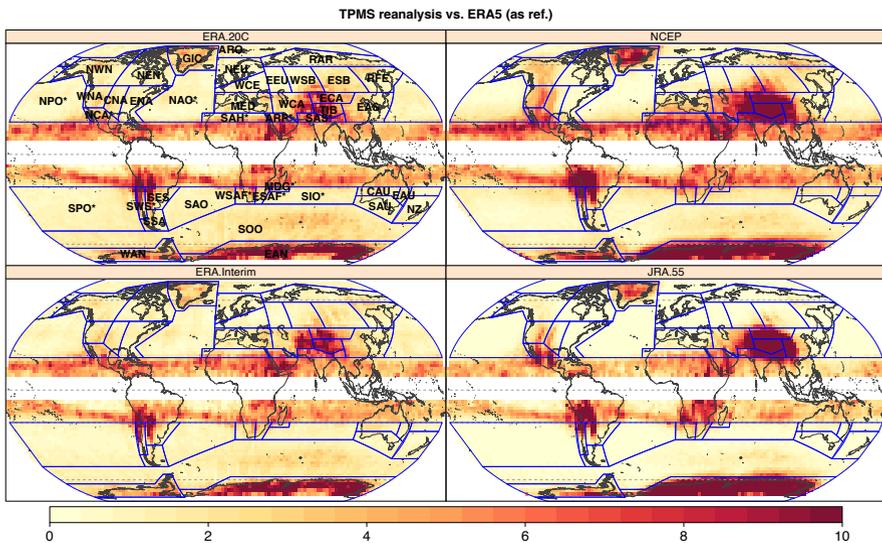


Fig. 4 Annual Transition Probability Matrix Scores (TPMS, Sec. 2.3.2) of NCEP, ERA-Interim, ERA-20C and JRA-55 against ERA-5 (used as reference). The modified IPCC region polygon layer with the region identification codes are depicted in the top-left. Note that the original IPCC regions that have been modified to exclude the intertropical range (see Sec. 2.4) are marked with an asterisk.

339 In terms of TPMS, ERA-20C and ERA-Interim are generally more simi-
340 lar to ERA-5 (Fig. 4) than NCEP and JRA-55. For the latter two datasets,
341 particularly large TPMS values are obtained over Greenland (GIC), West-
342 ern North America (WNA), the central Asian regions (ECA, EAS), northern
343 India (SAS*) and the Tibetan Plateau (TIB), where values in excess of 10 are
344 found. In the Southern Hemisphere, large discrepancies between the applied
345 reanalyses are found over South America (SWS* and SES regions). Interest-
346 ingly, these mentioned regions present complex orography, with high-altitude
347 mountain systems such as the Himalayas, the Andes and the Rockies moun-
348 tain; and big ice sheets like the Antarctic and Greenland. These results are in
349 line with Sterl (2004), who found large differences between NCEP and ERA-
350 40 (Simmons and Gibson, 2000) reanalyses in these areas. This observational
351 uncertainty still remains after the development of newer reanalysis products
352 and it is likely related to the different algorithms used to reduce surface pres-
353 sure to mean sea level. Differences due to different algorithms can reach several
354 hPa (Fita et al, 2019). The better coherence of the results in high-altitude
355 regions from all ECMWF reanalyses (ERA-20C, ERA-Interim and ERA5; see
356 Fig. A1), despite their different resolution and model generation, supports this
357 hypothesis. In the Northern Hemisphere, Brands (2021) found similar results
358 when comparing the atmospheric circulation of JRA-55 and ERA-Interim, even
359 when using a different metric (Mean Absolute Error, MAE). That study shows
360 a general agreement between reanalyses, with exceptions in high-orography
361 regions such as Greenland, the Tibetan Plateau or North-Central America
362 (results of TPMS JRA-55 versus ERA-Interim in Figure A1 in the Appendix).
363 Additionally, another previous study also found that there are differences in
364 the deep convection represented by ERA-Interim, JRA55 and NCEP over La
365 Plata basin. More precisely, a low pressure area favoured by a trough located
366 in southern Bolivia that contributes to the extension of the South American
367 Low-Level Jet southward (Lavin-Gullon et al, 2021). This is in accordance with
368 the large TPMS found in the northwards grid-boxes of SWS* and SES. The
369 mentioned study also speculates that the complex orography of the Andes and
370 surrounding areas is not sufficiently well represented by the coarse resolution
371 of the reanalysis (~ 75 km) and causes these discrepancies.

372 The seasonal analysis of the TPMS between JRA-55 and ERA-5 (Fig. 5)
373 generally reveals a seasonal march of the larger values towards the pole of
374 the summer hemisphere. This is similar to the results found for type diver-
375 sity and U frequency (Sect. 3.1), where the ITCZ may determine the JC-WT
376 applicability to some point in that oscillating stripe.

377 In particular, the seasonal TPMS values for North Central-America
378 (NCA*) and the Sahara region (SAH*) are larger than the annual ones (Fig. 5).
379 In the Mediterranean (MED) and in West North-America (WNA), the TPMS
380 values are largest in JJA and lowest in DJF. Reflecting the aforementioned
381 seasonal march, the TPMS values for South South-America (SSA), West
382 South-Africa (WSAF*), East South-Africa (ESAF*), Madagascar (MDG*)

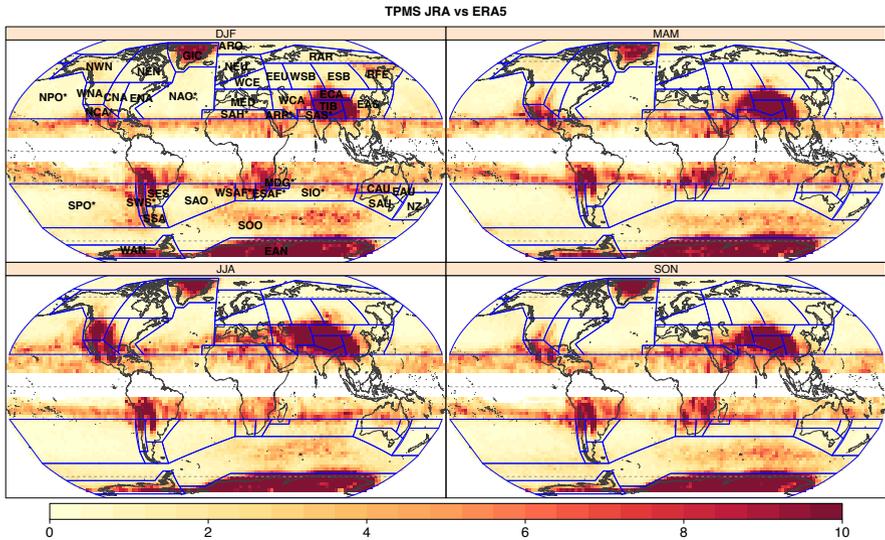


Fig. 5 Seasonal Transition Probability Matrix Scores (TPMS, Sec. 2.3.2) of JRA-55 reanalysis against ERA-5 (reference).

383 and Central Australia (CAU) reach their maximum in DJF, with a much larger
 384 magnitude than in any other season.

385 According to Fig. 5, moderately high TPMS values are found year-round
 386 in the mid-latitude Indian Ocean, which extend to the eastern South Atlantic
 387 and eastern South Pacific during DJF (austral summer), particularly affecting
 388 the Southern-Ocean (SOO) region. These differences might be caused by scarce
 389 observations in that area and, noteworthy, they again coincide with a relatively
 390 low type diversity, as reported in the previous section.

391 The large TPMS values found along the margins of the East Antarctic
 392 Ice Sheet (EAIS) are probably related to an abrupt shift of the easterly
 393 katabatic winds blowing down the ice sheet to quasi-persistent westerlies
 394 at mid-latitudes, driving the Antarctic Ocean divergence zone (Davis and
 395 McNider, 1997). This singular regional modulation of the wind field might be
 396 resolved in a distinct manner by the two reanalyses and so is the pressure
 397 reduction to mean sea-level over the ice sheet itself. Notably, the TPMS values
 398 over the West Antarctic Ice Sheet are systematically lower than those over the
 399 EAIS (compare WAN to EAN regions respectively).

400 In order to shed some light on regional TPMS, we investigate the relative
 401 biases of each WT for each IPCC region, which reveals misrepresentations of
 402 the synoptic conditions and their frequencies by the applied reanalyses. As
 403 an illustrative example, we show the results for MED region in Fig. 6. The
 404 respective results for the remaining IPCC regions can be obtained by following
 405 the working example on analysis reproducibility indicated in Sec. *Availability*
 406 *of data and materials*.

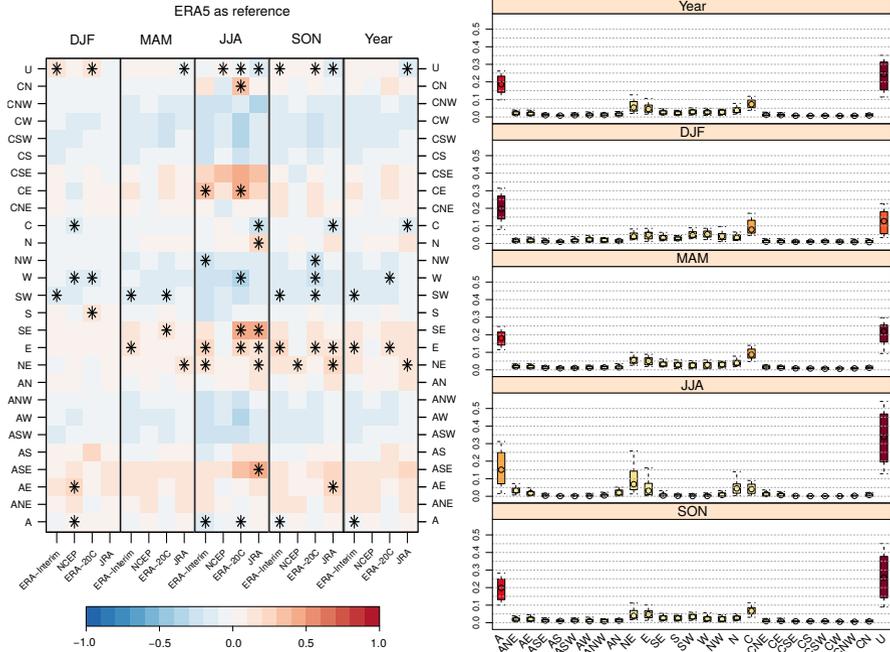


Fig. 6 Left: Annual and seasonal relative biases of weather type frequencies for the different reanalyses (in columns) against ERA-5 (reference) for MED. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences following the two proportion Z-test (Sec. 2.3.2). Right: Annual and seasonal regional weather type frequencies as represented by ERA-5 for MED, used as reference for the relative biases on the left. The boxes represent the spatial variability of type frequencies within MED, where the box upper/lower boundaries show the inter-quartile range and the lower/upper whiskers extend to the 10th and 90th percentiles respectively. Circles indicate the median frequency.

407 The results show biases of different magnitude and sign, depending on the
 408 reanalysis. The majority of statistically significant differences (marked with
 409 asterisks) occur for the most frequent WTs (according to WTs frequencies
 410 in the right panel). The largest and most significant biases are found during
 411 JJA, which coincides with large TPMS values (Fig. 5). For the least frequent
 412 weather types, the reanalyses do not exhibit significant differences with respect
 413 to ERA5, especially in spring, autumn and for the annual results. The Unclas-
 414 sified type is the most frequent one in all seasons except DJF. It exhibits
 415 significant differences among reanalyses in all seasons, especially during JJA
 416 and SON.

417 All in all, we found a relationship between three factors, namely large values
 418 of TPMS (Figs. 4 and 5), small number of WTs and high frequency of the U
 419 type (Fig. 3). TPMS and number of WTs should be analyzed together due to
 420 the fact that large TPMS in some regions might come from the limitations in
 421 the suitability of the WT classification. In other regions where the classification
 422 method is more suitable, the TPMS purely reflects the uncertainty among

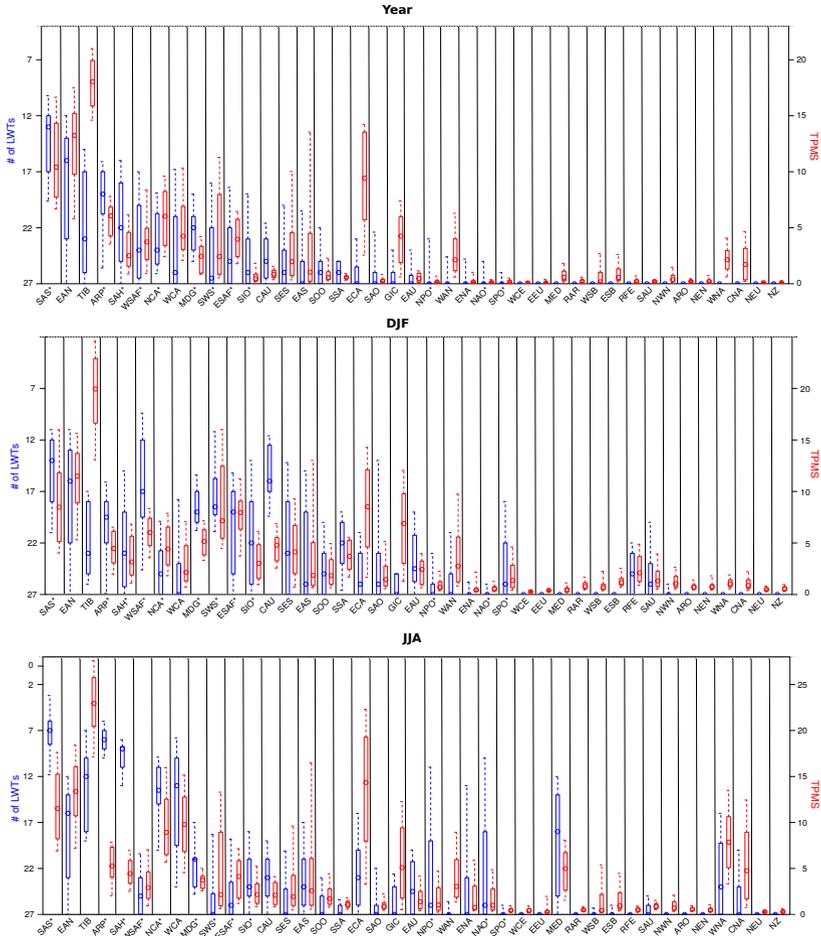


Fig. 7 TPMS (in red) of JRA-55 against ERA-5 and the number of WT (in blue) of ERA-5 for each IPCC region. The three different panels correspond to annual, DJF and JJA. The limits of the boxes show the spatial interquartile range and whiskers depict the 10th and 90th percentile. The median values are represented with a circle inside the boxes. In the three panels, regions are sorted by decreasing order of the 75th percentile of the number of WT at annual scale.

reanalyses. However, the relationship seems to be clearer among large TPMS and low number of LWTS. Fig. 7 summarizes Figs. 3, 4 and 5 for all the IPCC regions and analyzes the connection between the number of distinct WT and TPMS.

Considering the criteria of JC-WT diversity, the method might be less suitable for regions like SAS* and EAN, where few distinct WT appear (median below 16 types). Seasonally, other regions also stand out by their low number of WT, e.g. CAU or WSAF* in boreal winter and TIB, ARP*, SAH*, NCA* and WCA in boreal summer (Fig. 7). There is a large spatial variability in terms

of WTs diversity in some regions where the applicability of the WT classification is questionable, such as EAN, TIB, ARP*, SAH* or WSAF*. Regardless of their median number of WTs, these regions show grid cells where all WTs are registered. Additionally, there are some regions that stand out for having large TPMS (i.e. reanalysis uncertainty) despite of their large number of WTs: EAN, NCA*, SWS*, ESAF*, SES, EAS, ECA and GIC; only in DJF we can add TIB, SSA and WAN; and only in JJA we can add MED, WNA and CNA.

4 Conclusions

In the present study, we assess the potential applicability of JC-WT classification for any region of the world except the inner tropics and explore to which extent the frequencies and transitions probabilities of the 27 classes obtained from several reanalyses agree with each other. To this end, we first formulate a modification of JC-WT method to allow for its use in the Southern Hemisphere and then use two different criteria to evaluate its applicability worldwide: the number of LWTs reflecting “type diversity” and the relative frequency of the Unclassified type. A roll-out of up to 41 regions extracted from the latest set of IPCC Working Group I reference regions has been used to divide the globe in order to address these analyses on the regional scale. Five different reanalysis products are taken into account to assess reanalysis uncertainty by means of the TPMS and relative bias. They cover different producing centers, spatial resolutions and reanalysis generations.

As a main result, the JC-WT approach can be generally applied anywhere within 22.5° and 80° on both hemispheres, excluding the East Antarctic Ice Sheet. This clearly exceeds the estimate made by Jones et al (2013), who argued that the method should be applicable in mid-to-high latitudes (~ 30° to 70°). For a large fraction of this new recommended area, the majority of WTs occur with a reasonable frequency while the number of unclassified time steps is acceptable. The isoline of *sixteen* types occurring with a reasonable frequency is located just in the area of largest spatial gradients for both *type diversity* and the frequency of *unclassified* time steps.

Both the 16-types isoline and the area of large TPMS values, indicating enhanced reanalysis uncertainty, exhibit a seasonal march towards the pole of the respective summer hemisphere. This excursion is particularly strong during JJA (boreal summer) and seems to be associated with the ITCZ, along which converging winds trigger deep convection on a scale not captured by the JC-WT approach.

Within the newly defined area where the JC-WT approach is found to be applicable, a general agreement between the employed reanalyses is observed in terms of the *annual* TPMS. On the one hand, there are regions where the JC-WT approach is in principle applicable whereas its practical use is hampered by large reanalysis differences. These are SWS*, ECA, GIC, MED, WNA and NCA* regions in JJA, as well as the TIB, MDG*, SWS*, ESAF*,

474 ECA, and GIC regions in DJF. On the other hand, there are regions where JC-
475 WT is less suitable irrespective of the obtained reanalysis uncertainty. These
476 are the SAS*, EAN, TIB, ARP*, SAH*, NCA*, and WCA regions in JJA,
477 the SAS*, EAN, WSAF* and CAU regions in DJF and the SAS* and EAN
478 regions throughout all seasons of the year.

479 Another aspect is that ERA-20C, ERA-Interim and ERA5 represent more
480 similarly the transition probabilities among WTs than NCEP and JRA-55, spe-
481 cially in areas of complex orography. Large inhomogeneities among reanalyses
482 occur over high-altitude regions, such as the Tibetan plateau, the Andes and
483 Rockies mountain ranges or the Antarctic and Greenland ice sheets. Similar
484 differences are found in previous studies for these regions. Sterl (2004) found
485 large differences between NCEP and ERA-40 (Simmons and Gibson, 2000) in
486 GIC, EAN, TIB and SWS. These uncertainties are still present in the recent
487 reanalysis products. Lavin-Gullon et al (2021) identify differences in the synop-
488 tic mechanisms represented by ERA-Interim, JRA55 and NCEP over La Plata
489 basin, which are in line with the large TPMS found in SWS* and SES and sup-
490 ports our hypothesis of the role of deep convection on the TPMS. In Brands
491 (2021), where the JC-WT approach is applied in a latitudinal range following
492 the recommendation in Jones et al (2013), similar results were obtained when
493 comparing the JC-WTs of JRA-55 and ERA-Interim despite using a different
494 evaluation measure. The agreement of our results with the results from Brands
495 (2021) may favour our proposed extension of the WT classification algorithm
496 and the usability of TPMS as a robust evaluation metric.

497 **Acknowledgments.** We thank our colleague Prof. A. S. Cofiño for guidance
498 in scientific metadata handling.

499 Declarations

500 **Funding.** This paper is part of the R+D+i projects CORDyS
501 (PID2020-116595RB-I00) and ATLAS (PID2019-111481RB-I00), funded by
502 MCIN/AEI/10.13039/501100011033. J.A.F. has received research support
503 from grant PRE2020-094728 funded by MCIN/AEI/10.13039/501100011033.
504 J.B. and A.C. received research support from the project INDECIS, part of
505 the European Research Area for Climate Services Consortium (ERA4CS) with
506 co-funding by the European Union (grant no. 690462).

507 **Competing Interests.** The authors declare no competing interests

508 **Authors' contributions.** J.A.F., S.B., J.B. and A.C. designed the experi-
509 ments and J.A.F. carried them out by developing, debugging and running the
510 experiment code. J.F. was also crucial for the interpretation, illustration and
511 discussion of the results. J.A.F. prepared the manuscript with contributions
512 from all co-authors.

513 **Availability of data and materials.** The JC-WT method implementation
514 used in this study is available in open climate4R package `transformeR` <https://github.com/Climate4R/transformeR>

515 [//doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3839618](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3839618). We provide further reproducible examples
 516 of the methods and figures in a paper notebook available in the pub-
 517 lic GitHub repository at <https://github.com/SantanderMetGroup/notebooks>
 518 (2021_JC_Worldwide_suitability.* files).

519 The JC-WT catalogues and the IPCC regions shape-files are published in
 520 Zenodo (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5761257>)

521 Appendix A Remaining TPMS among 522 reanalyses

523 The remaining pairs of TPMS among reanalyses can be found in Fig. A1.

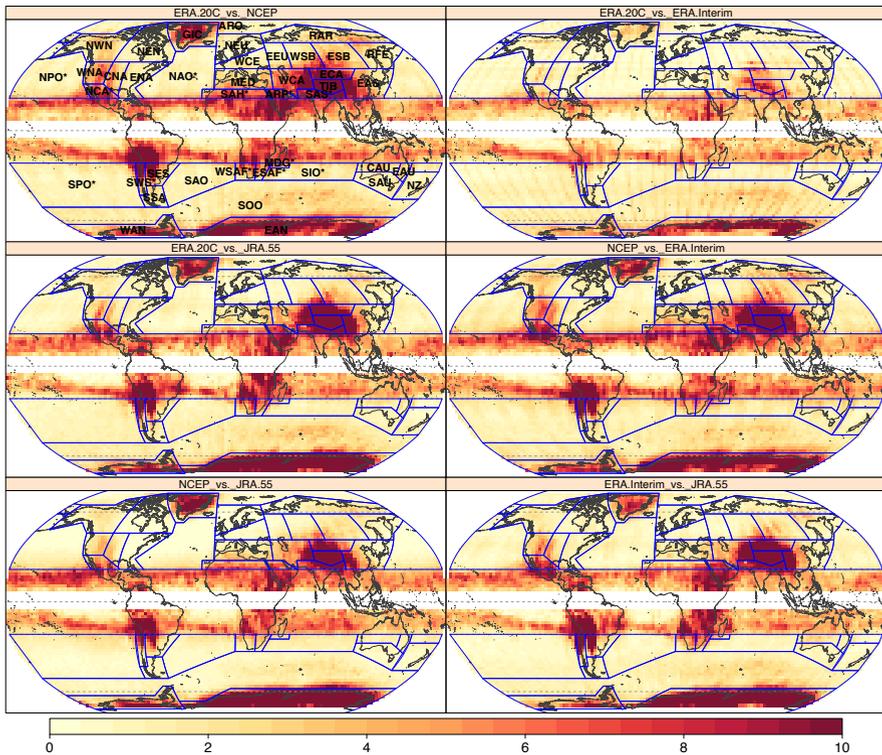


Fig. A1 Annual TPMS among different reanalyses (specific pairs are found in the sub-panels titles). IPCC regions short names can be seen in the top-left sub-panel.

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