

1: NOAA th Foundations: Weather, Ocean, and Climate Prediction

Numerical Weather Prediction (NWP) data are the form of weather model data we are most familiar with on a day-to-day basis. NWP focuses on taking current observations of weather and processing these data with computer models to forecast the future state of weather.

A prognostic chart of the hour forecast of mbar geopotential height and temperature from the Global Forecast System An atmospheric model is a computer program that produces meteorological information for future times at given locations and altitudes. Within any modern model is a set of equations, known as the primitive equations, used to predict the future state of the atmosphere. Additional transport equations for pollutants and other aerosols are included in some primitive-equation high-resolution models as well. Different models use different solution methods: These rates of change predict the state of the atmosphere a short time into the future; the time increment for this prediction is called a time step. This future atmospheric state is then used as the starting point for another application of the predictive equations to find new rates of change, and these new rates of change predict the atmosphere at a yet further time step into the future. This time stepping is repeated until the solution reaches the desired forecast time. The length of the time step chosen within the model is related to the distance between the points on the computational grid, and is chosen to maintain numerical stability. Parametrization climate Some meteorological processes are too small-scale or too complex to be explicitly included in numerical weather prediction models. Parameterization is a procedure for representing these processes by relating them to variables on the scales that the model resolves. A typical cumulus cloud has a scale of less than 1 kilometer. Therefore, the processes that such clouds represent are parameterized, by processes of various sophistication. In the earliest models, if a column of air within a model gridbox was conditionally unstable essentially, the bottom was warmer and moister than the top and the water vapor content at any point within the column became saturated then it would be overturned the warm, moist air would begin rising, and the air in that vertical column mixed. More sophisticated schemes recognize that only some portions of the box might convect and that entrainment and other processes occur. Sub-grid scale processes need to be taken into account. The amount of solar radiation reaching the ground, as well as the formation of cloud droplets occur on the molecular scale, and so they must be parameterized before they can be included in the model. Atmospheric drag produced by mountains must also be parameterized, as the limitations in the resolution of elevation contours produce significant underestimates of the drag. Mesoscale models divide the atmosphere vertically using representations similar to the one shown here. The horizontal domain of a model is either global, covering the entire Earth, or regional, covering only part of the Earth. Regional models also known as limited-area models, or LAMs allow for the use of finer grid spacing than global models because the available computational resources are focused on a specific area instead of being spread over the globe. This allows regional models to resolve explicitly smaller-scale meteorological phenomena that cannot be represented on the coarser grid of a global model. Regional models use a global model to specify conditions at the edge of their domain boundary conditions in order to allow systems from outside the regional model domain to move into its area. Uncertainty and errors within regional models are introduced by the global model used for the boundary conditions of the edge of the regional model, as well as errors attributable to the regional model itself. The vertical coordinate is handled in various ways. High-resolution models—also called mesoscale models—such as the Weather Research and Forecasting model tend to use normalized pressure coordinates referred to as sigma coordinates. Model output statistics Because forecast models based upon the equations for atmospheric dynamics do not perfectly determine weather conditions, statistical methods have been developed to attempt to correct the forecasts. Statistical models were created based upon the three-dimensional fields produced by numerical weather models, surface observations and the climatological conditions for specific locations. These statistical models are collectively referred to as model output statistics MOS, [56] and were developed by the National Weather Service for their suite of weather forecasting models in the late s. Because MOS is run after its respective global or regional model, its production is known as post-processing. Forecast parameters within MOS include maximum and

minimum temperatures, percentage chance of rain within a several hour period, precipitation amount expected, chance that the precipitation will be frozen in nature, chance for thunderstorms, cloudiness, and surface winds.

2: Numerical weather prediction - WikiVisually

Numerical weather prediction (NWP) uses mathematical models of the atmosphere and oceans to predict the weather based on current weather conditions. Though first attempted in the s, it was not until the advent of computer simulation in the s that numerical weather predictions produced realistic results.

Basic idea[change change source] The atmosphere is modelled as a fluid. The basic idea of numerical weather prediction is to sample the state of the fluid at a given time. The equations of fluid dynamics and thermodynamics can then be used to estimate the state of the fluid at some time in the future. Local weather prediction[change change source] The results are usually too inaccurate to be used for predicting the weather at any place. For this reason, meteorologists check the values, and compare them to historical data. In other words, they use the data to help produce the weather forecast. Model Output Statistics is a statistical model that was developed in the s and s. It uses regression analysis for a fully automated forecast. With it, historical data is analysed automatically. One of its applications is called Direct Model Output. MOS uses both historical data and statistical modeling. Predictions beyond about six hours are unreliable. It gives a forecast four times a day. Since the information is free, the GFS is often used, especially by smaller weather stations. Ensembles[change change source] The atmosphere is a chaotic system. A small change of the input values does not necessarily lead to a small change of the output. This is due to the equations of fluid dynamics that are involved. These equations involved are solved or approximated once with the parameters that were observed. This is done several times more, with parameters that are based on the observed values, but which have been changed slightly. Because the computing power is limited, the "resolution" of such a model is more coarse. Once all the calculations are finished, they are compared to one another. Calculated results that are "similar" indicate that the prognosis is relatively good. In some cases, this means that it is possible to accurately predict the weather for a time of about ten days; in other cases a prediction over even a few days may be difficult.

3: Advances in Numerical Weather Prediction

Disclaimer: The forecast products and the conclusions drawn thereof are mainly based on different mathematical models being run at IMD NWP Division.

Looking Ahead Vilhelm Bjerknes was a professor of applied mechanics and mathematical physics at the University of Stockholm, where his research revealed the fundamental interaction between fluid dynamics and thermodynamics. The roots of numerical weather prediction can be traced back to the work of Vilhelm Bjerknes, a Norwegian physicist who has been called the father of modern meteorology. In 1915, he published a paper suggesting that it would be possible to forecast the weather by solving a system of nonlinear partial differential equations. Armed with no more than a slide rule and a table of logarithms, and working among the World War I battlefields of France where he was a member of an ambulance unit, Richardson computed a prediction for the change in pressure at a single point over a six-hour period. The calculation took him six weeks, and the prediction turned out to be completely unrealistic, but his efforts were a glimpse into the future of weather forecasting. They would be housed in a circular hall like a theater, with galleries going around the room and a map painted on the walls and ceiling. A conductor located in the center of the hall would coordinate the calculations using colored lights. This article looks at the evolution of a science that NOAA uses everyday to deliver the weather forecasts upon which we have come to rely on. During this time, meteorological observation, research, and technology struggled to reach the level necessary to make the computations envisioned by Richardson. Small, yet significant, milestones were reached during the early part of the 20th century. The first meteorological radiosonde, a balloon carrying instruments to measure atmospheric temperature, pressure, humidity, and winds, was launched in the United States in 1929. In World War II, American pilots over the South Pacific felt the effects of the jet stream, a current of fast-moving air found in the upper levels of the atmosphere whose presence had previously only been theorized. Communication technology grew to allow hundreds of meteorological observations to be collected from around the globe. Most importantly, by the end of World War II, the first electronic computer was developed. Now, those 64, human "computers" envisioned by Richardson could be replaced by a single machine, albeit one that filled a 30 x 50 foot room. John von Neumann, the developer of that first computer called the ENIAC, recognized that the problem of weather forecasting was a natural for his computing machinery. In 1946, he assembled a group of theoretical meteorologists at the Institute of Advanced Study in Princeton, New Jersey. The group was headed by Jule Charney, who had done extensive work on developing a simplified, filtered system of equations for weather forecasting. His group constructed a successful mathematical model of the atmosphere and demonstrated the feasibility of numerical weather prediction. The first one-day, nonlinear weather prediction was made in April, 1950. Its completion required the round-the-clock services of the modelers, and, because of several ENIAC breakdowns, more than 24 hours to execute. However, this first forecast was successful in proving to the meteorological community that numerical weather prediction was feasible. Weather Bureau, the U. Air Force, and the U. This new unit was given the mission to apply emerging computer technology to the operational production of weather forecasts. The ENIAC was the first computer used by the JNWPU to produce operational numerical weather prediction. Click image for larger view. These early forecasts offered no competition for the ones being produced manually. However, the operational environment in which the forecasts were produced provided the necessary impetus to rapidly identify modeling problems and implement practical solutions. By 1955, the forecasts being produced began to show steadily increasing and useful skill. The first numerical weather prediction models used in the United States ran on grids that covered the Northern Hemisphere. This restriction was based primarily on the amount of computer power as well as the amount of data available to initialize the model. However, a progression of more and more powerful computers procured by the National Weather Service throughout the 1950s and 1960s as well as increasing sources of data—particularly from weather satellites—allowed the expansion of both the domains and the number of models run. Increases were also made in the number of vertical levels and the horizontal resolution of the models. A three-layer hemispheric model was introduced in 1955 and a six-layer primitive equation model appeared

in Additional atmospheric layers allowed more accurate forecasts of winds and temperature, resulting in better prediction of storm motion. The first regional system concentrating on North America, called the Limited Fine Mesh model, was implemented in 1964. The first global model became operational in 1971. This graph shows computer power and time versus model accuracy as defined by the S1 score a measure of the skill of the forecast of and hour NCEP millibar forecasts. The late 1950s and the 1960s saw the introduction of the use of spectral coordinates and advances in methods of data assimilation and more accurate representation of physical processes in the atmosphere such as the formation of clouds and precipitation. During the 1970s, models of finer and finer scales were developed. In addition, this technique provides information about the level of uncertainty for different conditions because of the large ensemble of forecasts available. All of the development during the 1970s meant computer resources were stretched to the limit. As soon as new computer resources became available, they were fully utilized with higher-resolution models with improved representation of physical processes, using more and more sophisticated and complex modeling techniques and an increasingly larger number of observations from around the globe, especially from satellites. Advances in predictive skill could be shown to be directly proportional to advances in computing and modeling. However, the computer-based forecast is not the only reason for the improvements in forecasting accuracy the world enjoys today. The interpretation of the model forecasts by human forecasters has been shown to provide a consistent amount of additional forecast improvement throughout the evolution of numerical weather prediction. The forecast was valid May 24, 1992. In the present day, operational numerical weather prediction centers around the globe run a myriad of models. In the United States, over 100 million observations, the vast majority obtained from satellites, are processed and used each day as input into global and regional models producing forecasts for atmospheric and oceanic parameters, hurricanes, severe weather, aviation weather, fire weather, volcanic ash, air quality, and dispersion. The current operational computers run with a sustained computational speed of 14 trillion calculations per second. In 1990, the first dynamic climate forecast system was implemented, making forecasts out to one year. Models that predict space weather on an operational basis are not far off. Demands for more and more detailed weather information increase on a regular basis. An Earth systems modeling approach offers a way to couple models from oceanic, land, cryospheric ice, and atmospheric disciplines in order to transfer information among model components. The suite of forecast products will expand beyond weather, water, and climate services to include ecosystems and incorporate the needs of more customers, such as the transportation, health, and energy communities. Numerical weather prediction has advanced significantly since the idea was formed by Bjerknes and tested by Richardson. The six weeks of tedious computations endured by Richardson can now be done in the blink of an eye. Numerical weather prediction can indeed be considered one of the most significant achievements of the 20th century.

4: Numerical Weather Prediction

Numerical Weather Prediction (NWP) uses the power of computers to make a forecast. Complex computer programs, also known as forecast models, run on supercomputers and provide predictions on many atmospheric variables such as temperature, pressure, wind, and rainfall.

What is Numerical weather prediction? A grid for a numerical weather model is shown. An inset shows the different physical processes analyzed in each grid cell, such as advection, precipitation, solar radiation, and terrestrial radiative cooling. Weather models use systems of differential equations based on the laws of physics, fluid motion, and chemistry, and use a coordinate system which divides the planet into a 3D grid. Winds, heat transfer, solar radiation, relative humidity, and surface hydrology are calculated within each grid cell, and the interactions with neighboring cells are used to calculate atmospheric properties in the future. Numerical weather prediction uses mathematical models of the atmosphere and oceans to predict the weather based on current weather conditions. Though first attempted in the 1950s, it was not until the advent of computer simulation in the 1960s that numerical weather predictions produced realistic results. A number of global and regional forecast models are run in different countries worldwide, using current weather observations relayed from radiosondes or weather satellites as inputs to the models. Mathematical models based on the same physical principles can be used to generate either short-term weather forecasts or longer-term climate predictions; the latter are widely applied for understanding and projecting climate change. The improvements made to regional models have allowed for significant improvements in tropical cyclone track and air quality forecasts; however, atmospheric models perform poorly at handling processes that occur in a relatively constricted area, such as wildfires. Manipulating the vast datasets and performing the complex calculations necessary to modern numerical weather prediction requires some of the most powerful supercomputers in the world. Even with the increasing power of supercomputers, the forecast skill of numerical weather models extends to about only six days. Factors affecting the accuracy of numerical predictions include the density and quality of observations used as input to the forecasts, along with deficiencies in the numerical models themselves. Although post-processing techniques such as model output statistics MOS have been developed to improve the handling of errors in numerical predictions, a more fundamental problem lies in the chaotic nature of the partial differential equations used to simulate the atmosphere. It is impossible to solve these equations exactly, and small errors grow with time doubling about every five days. In addition, the partial differential equations used in the model need to be supplemented with parameterizations for solar radiation, moist processes clouds and precipitation, heat exchange, soil, vegetation, surface water, and the effects of terrain. In an effort to quantify the large amount of inherent uncertainty remaining in numerical predictions, ensemble forecasts have been used since the 1990s to help gauge the confidence in the forecast, and to obtain useful results farther into the future than otherwise possible. This approach analyzes multiple forecasts created with an individual forecast model or multiple models.

Initialization, What is Numerical weather prediction? The atmosphere is a fluid. As such, the idea of numerical weather prediction is to sample the state of the fluid at a given time and use the equations of fluid dynamics and thermodynamics to estimate the state of the fluid at some time in the future. The process of entering observation data into the model to generate initial conditions is called initialization. On land, terrain maps available at resolutions down to 1 kilometer. The main inputs from country-based weather services are observations from devices called radiosondes in weather balloons that measure various atmospheric parameters and transmits them to a fixed receiver, as well as from weather satellites. The World Meteorological Organization acts to standardize the instrumentation, observing practices and timing of these observations worldwide. Some global models use finite differences, in which the world is represented as discrete points on a regularly spaced grid of latitude and longitude; other models use spectral methods that solve for a range of wavelengths. The data are then used in the model as the starting point for a forecast. A variety of methods are used to gather observational data for use in numerical models. Sites launch radiosondes in weather balloons which rise through the troposphere and well into the stratosphere. Information from weather satellites is used where traditional data sources are not available. Commerce provides pilot

reports along aircraft routes and ship reports along shipping routes. Research projects use reconnaissance aircraft to fly in and around weather systems of interest, such as tropical cyclones. Reconnaissance aircraft are also flown over the open oceans during the cold season into systems which cause significant uncertainty in forecast guidance, or are expected to be of high impact from three to seven days into the future over the downstream continent. Sea ice began to be initialized in forecast models in Efforts to involve sea surface temperature in model initialization began in due to its role in modulating weather in higher latitudes of the Pacific. Parameterization climate, What is Numerical weather prediction? Some meteorological processes are too small-scale or too complex to be explicitly included in numerical weather prediction models. Parameterization is a procedure for representing these processes by relating them to variables on the scales that the model resolves. For example, the gridboxes in weather and climate models have sides that are between 5 kilometers 3 mi and kilometers mi in length. A typical cumulus cloud has a scale of less than 1 kilometer 0. Therefore the processes that such clouds represent are parameterized, by processes of various sophistication. In the earliest models, if a column of air in a model gridbox was conditionally unstable essentially, the bottom was warmer and moister than the top and the water vapor content at any point within the column became saturated then it would be overturned the warm, moist air would begin rising , and the air in that vertical column mixed. More sophisticated schemes recognize that only some portions of the box might convect and that entrainment and other processes occur. Weather models that have gridboxes with sides between 5 and 25 kilometers 3 and 16 mi can explicitly represent convective clouds, although they need to parameterize cloud microphysics which occur at a smaller scale. The formation of large-scale stratus-type clouds is more physically based; they form when the relative humidity reaches some prescribed value. Sub-grid scale processes need to be taken into account. The amount of solar radiation reaching the ground, as well as the formation of cloud droplets occur on the molecular scale, and so they must be parameterized before they can be included in the model. Atmospheric drag produced by mountains must also be parameterized, as the limitations in the resolution of elevation contours produce significant underestimates of the drag. Sun angle as well as the impact of multiple cloud layers is taken into account. Soil type, vegetation type, and soil moisture all determine how much radiation goes into warming and how much moisture is drawn up into the adjacent atmosphere, and thus it is important to parameterize their contribution to these processes. Within air quality models, parameterizations take into account atmospheric emissions from multiple relatively tiny sources e. Ensembles Forecasting the weather, What is Numerical weather prediction? In , Edward Lorenz discovered the chaotic nature of the fluid dynamics equations involved in weather forecasting. Extremely small errors in temperature, winds, or other initial inputs given to numerical models will amplify and double every five days,[61] making it impossible for long-range forecastsâ€”those made more than two weeks in advanceâ€”to predict the state of the atmosphere with any degree of forecast skill. Furthermore, existing observation networks have poor coverage in some regions for example, over large bodies of water such as the Pacific Ocean , which introduces uncertainty into the true initial state of the atmosphere. While a set of equations, known as the Liouville equations, exists to determine the initial uncertainty in the model initialization, the equations are too complex to run in real-time, even with the use of supercomputers. These uncertainties limit forecast model accuracy to about five or six days into the future. Edward Epstein recognized in that the atmosphere could not be completely described with a single forecast run due to inherent uncertainty, and proposed using an ensemble of stochastic Monte Carlo simulations to produce means and variances for the state of the atmosphere. Although this early example of an ensemble showed skill, in Cecil Leith showed that they produced adequate forecasts only when the ensemble probability distribution was a representative sample of the probability distribution in the atmosphere. Since the s, ensemble forecasts have been used operationally as routine forecasts to account for the stochastic nature of weather processes â€” that is, to resolve their inherent uncertainty. This method involves analyzing multiple forecasts created with an individual forecast model by using different physical parametrizations or varying initial conditions. Starting in with ensemble forecasts prepared by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts ECMWF and the National Centers for Environmental Prediction, model ensemble forecasts have been used to help define the forecast uncertainty and to extend the window in which numerical weather forecasting is viable farther into the future

than otherwise possible. The UK Met Office runs global and regional ensemble forecasts where perturbations to initial conditions are produced using a Kalman filter. In a single model-based approach, the ensemble forecast is usually evaluated in terms of an average of the individual forecasts concerning one forecast variable, as well as the degree of agreement between various forecasts within the ensemble system, as represented by their overall spread. Ensemble spread is diagnosed through tools such as spaghetti diagrams, which show the dispersion of one quantity on prognostic charts for specific time steps in the future. Another tool where ensemble spread is used is a meteogram, which shows the dispersion in the forecast of one quantity for one specific location. It is common for the ensemble spread to be too small to include the weather that actually occurs, which can lead to forecasters misdiagnosing model uncertainty; this problem becomes particularly severe for forecasts of the weather about ten days in advance. When ensemble spread is small and the forecast solutions are consistent within multiple model runs, forecasters perceive more confidence in the ensemble mean, and the forecast in general. Despite this perception, a spread-skill relationship is often weak or not found, as spread-error correlations are normally less than 0. The relationship between ensemble spread and forecast skill varies substantially depending on such factors as the forecast model and the region for which the forecast is made. In the same way that many forecasts from a single model can be used to form an ensemble, multiple models may also be combined to produce an ensemble forecast. This approach is called multi-model ensemble forecasting, and it has been shown to improve forecasts when compared to a single model-based approach. Models within a multi-model ensemble can be adjusted for their various biases, which is a process known as superensemble forecasting. This type of forecast significantly reduces errors in model output.

Domains of a model, What is Numerical weather prediction? A cross-section of the atmosphere over terrain with a sigma-coordinate representation shown. Mesoscale models divide the atmosphere vertically using representations similar to the one shown here. The horizontal domain of a model is either global, covering the entire Earth, or regional, covering only part of the Earth. Regional models also known as limited-area models, or LAMs allow for the use of finer grid spacing than global models because the available computational resources are focused on a specific area instead of being spread over the globe. This allows regional models to resolve explicitly smaller-scale meteorological phenomena that cannot be represented on the coarser grid of a global model. Regional models use a global model to specify conditions at the edge of their domain in order to allow systems from outside the regional model domain to move into its area. Uncertainty and errors within regional models are introduced by the global model used for the boundary conditions of the edge of the regional model, as well as errors attributable to the regional model itself. The vertical coordinate is handled in various ways. Later models substituted the geometric z coordinate with a pressure coordinate system, in which the geopotential heights of constant-pressure surfaces become dependent variables, greatly simplifying the primitive equations. The first model used for operational forecasts, the single-layer barotropic model, used a single pressure coordinate at the millibar about 5, m 18, ft level, and thus was essentially two-dimensional. High-resolution models—also called mesoscale models—such as the Weather Research and Forecasting model tend to use normalized pressure coordinates referred to as sigma coordinates. Air quality forecasting attempts to predict when the concentrations of pollutants will attain levels that are hazardous to public health. The concentration of pollutants in the atmosphere is determined by their transport, or mean velocity of movement through the atmosphere, their diffusion, chemical transformation, and ground deposition. In addition to pollutant source and terrain information, these models require data about the state of the fluid flow in the atmosphere to determine its transport and diffusion. Meteorological conditions such as thermal inversions can prevent surface air from rising, trapping pollutants near the surface, which makes accurate forecasts of such events crucial for air quality modeling. Urban air quality models require a very fine computational mesh, requiring the use of high-resolution mesoscale weather models; in spite of this, the quality of numerical weather guidance is the main uncertainty in air quality forecasts. A General Circulation Model GCM is a mathematical model that can be used in computer simulations of the general circulation of a planetary atmosphere or ocean. An atmospheric general circulation model AGCM is essentially the same as a global numerical weather prediction model, and some such as the one used in the UK Unified Model can be configured for both short-term weather forecasts and longer-term climate predictions.

Along with sea ice and land-surface components, AGCMs and oceanic GCMs OGCM are key components of global climate models, and are widely applied for understanding the climate and projecting climate change. Versions designed for climate applications with time scales of decades to centuries were originally created in by Syukuro Manabe and Kirk Bryan at the Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory in Princeton, New Jersey. When run for multiple decades, the models use a low resolution, which leaves smaller-scale interactions unresolved. A wind and wave forecast for the North Atlantic ocean. Two areas of high waves are identified: One west of the southern tip of Greenland, and the other in the North Sea.

5: History of numerical weather prediction - Wikipedia

Numerical weather prediction is the science of predicting the weather using "models" of the atmosphere and computational techniques. Manipulating the huge datasets and performing the complex.

Background[edit] Until the end of the 19th century, weather prediction was entirely subjective and based on empirical rules, with only limited understanding of the physical mechanisms behind weather processes. In Cleveland Abbe , founder of the United States Weather Bureau , proposed that the atmosphere is governed by the same principles of thermodynamics and hydrodynamics that were studied in the previous century. First, a diagnostic step is used to process data to generate initial conditions , which are then advanced in time by a prognostic step that solves the initial value problem. Bjerknes pointed out that equations based on mass continuity , conservation of momentum , the first and second laws of thermodynamics , and the ideal gas law could be used to estimate the state of the atmosphere in the future through numerical methods. The large error was caused by an imbalance in the pressure and wind velocity fields used as the initial conditions in his analysis. It also shows an Omega block. Early years[edit] In September , Carl-Gustav Rossby assembled an international group of meteorologists in Stockholm and produced the first operational forecast i. Air Force , Navy , and Weather Bureau. Hinkelmann did so by removing small oscillations from the numerical model during initialization. In , West Germany and the United States began producing operational forecasts based on primitive-equation models, followed by the United Kingdom in and Australia in In the United States, solar radiation effects were added to the primitive equation model in ; moisture effects and latent heat were added in ; and feedback effects from rain on convection were incorporated in Three years later, the first global forecast model was introduced. Winds , heat transfer , radiation , relative humidity , and surface hydrology are calculated within each grid and evaluate interactions with neighboring points. It is a computer program that produces meteorological information for future times at given locations and altitudes. Within any modern model is a set of equations, known as the primitive equations , used to predict the future state of the atmosphere. Additional transport equations for pollutants and other aerosols are included in some primitive-equation high-resolution models as well. Different models use different solution methods: During this time, the AVN model was extended to the end of the forecast period, eliminating the need of the MRF and thereby replacing it. Global climate models[edit] In , Norman A. Phillips developed a mathematical model which could realistically depict monthly and seasonal patterns in the troposphere, which became the first successful climate model. Now, gravity waves are required within global climate models in order to properly simulate regional and global scale circulations, though their broad spectrum makes their incorporation complicated. Regional models also known as limited-area models, or LAMs allow for the use of finer or smaller grid spacing than global models. The available computational resources are focused on a specific area instead of being spread over the globe. This allows regional models to resolve explicitly smaller-scale meteorological phenomena that cannot be represented on the coarser grid of a global model. Regional models use a global model for initial conditions of the edge of their domain in order to allow systems from outside the regional model domain to move into its area. Uncertainty and errors within regional models are introduced by the global model used for the boundary conditions of the edge of the regional model, as well as errors attributable to the regional model itself. Atmospheric dispersion modeling The technical literature on air pollution dispersion is quite extensive and dates back to the s and earlier. One of the early air pollutant plume dispersion equations was derived by Bosanquet and Pearson. Sir Graham Sutton derived an air pollutant plume dispersion equation in which did include the assumption of Gaussian distribution for the vertical and crosswind dispersion of the plume and also included the effect of ground reflection of the plume. A great many computer programs for calculating the dispersion of air pollutant emissions were developed during that period of time and they were called "air dispersion models". Briggs first published his plume rise observations and comparisons in That was followed in by his classical critical review of the entire plume rise literature, [51] in which he proposed a set of plume rise equations which have become widely known as "the Briggs equations". Subsequently, Briggs modified his plume rise equations in and in Development of this model was

taken over by the Environmental Protection Agency and improved in the mid to late s using results from a regional air pollution study. While developed in California , this model was later used in other areas of North America , Europe and Asia during the s. Tropical cyclone forecast model Top: WRF model simulation of Hurricane Rita tracks. The spread of NHC multi-model ensemble forecast. Once it was determined that it could show skill in hurricane prediction, a multi-year transition transformed the research model into an operational model which could be used by the National Weather Service in These models had the tendency to overestimate the role of wind in wave development and underplayed wave interactions. A lack of knowledge concerning how waves interacted among each other, assumptions regarding a maximum wave height, and deficiencies in computer power limited the performance of the models. A second generation of models was developed in the s, but they could not realistically model swell nor depict wind-driven waves also known as wind waves caused by rapidly changing wind fields, such as those within tropical cyclones. This caused the development of a third generation of wave models from onward. It simulates wave generation, wave movement propagation within a fluid , wave shoaling , refraction , energy transfer between waves, and wave dissipation. Along with dissipation of energy through whitecaps and resonance between waves, surface winds from numerical weather models allow for more accurate predictions of the state of the sea surface. Model output statistics Because forecast models based upon the equations for atmospheric dynamics do not perfectly determine weather conditions near the ground, statistical corrections were developed to attempt to resolve this problem. Statistical models were created based upon the three-dimensional fields produced by numerical weather models, surface observations, and the climatological conditions for specific locations. These statistical models are collectively referred to as model output statistics MOS , [69] and were developed by the National Weather Service for their suite of weather forecasting models by Ensemble forecasting As proposed by Edward Lorenz in , it is impossible for long-range forecastsâ€”those made more than two weeks in advanceâ€”to predict the state of the atmosphere with any degree of skill , owing to the chaotic nature of the fluid dynamics equations involved. Extremely small errors in temperature, winds, or other initial inputs given to numerical models will amplify and double every five days. While a set of equations, known as the Liouville equations , exists to determine the initial uncertainty in the model initialization, the equations are too complex to run in real-time, even with the use of supercomputers.

6: Numerical Weather Prediction: forecast models

The history of numerical weather prediction considers how current weather conditions as input into mathematical models of the atmosphere and oceans to predict the weather and future sea state (the process of numerical weather prediction) has changed over the years.

7: Numerical Weather Prediction Maps | www.enganchecubano.com

Numerical Weather Prediction. The Great Lakes add heat and moisture to the air surrounding them. Adding heat and moisture results in a lowering of barometric pressure, which our computer models can now show.

8: Forecasts by Numerical Models

Numerical weather prediction uses mathematical models of the atmosphere and oceans to predict the weather based on current weather conditions. Though first attempted in the s, it was not until the advent of computer simulation in the s that numerical weather predictions produced realistic results.

9: Numerical Weather Prediction > Weather Forecast

Jason Knievel ATEC Forecasters' Conference, July and August 1 Numerical Weather Prediction (NWP) and the WRF Model Jason Knievel Material contributed by: George Bryan, Jimmy Dudhia, Dave.

Harrison book of internal medicine 18th edition Transfer portion of Camp Lee Military Reservation to Petersburg National Military Park. Elite Forces of India and Pakistan Lebolo returns to Europe New sources of development finance Ets official guide to the gre revised general test The Mountaineering Handbook Memoir Of George Howard Wilkinson V1 Birds of Europe, Russia, China, and Japan: Passerines The fantastic flying books of mr morris lessmore Like a Du Maurier Heroine (1931) In praise of dogs Biology and treatment of colorectal cancer metastasis Business process management bpm the third wave If Cods Can Wallop Minnies Giant Plan (Mickey's Young Readers Library) V.3 Charles the Fifth, books I-IV The Jewish community of Indianapolis, 1849 to the present Rural life in nineteenth-century Quebec McDonnell F-4E Phantom II Aerofax Minigraph 20 Law of equivalents in its relation to political and social ethics Significant digits worksheet with answers Plays and Programs for Christmas C. MIDI and Digital Music Laws and policies Choose Mexico: Retirement living on 400 a month (Choose Mexico for Retirement: Retirement Discoveries fo On the Cauchy problem Corporations and Other Business Organizations, Cases and Materials, 9th Edition, 2007 Supplement Cognos 10 event studio user guide Rand McNally Detroit Wayne County Streetfinder Moderno manual de etiqueta y protocolo Ch.2. Performative space Effectiveness of population policy and family planning in Mardan District Blockade of Phalsburg Complete Guitar Bible Bible study: third Sunday of Advent Great reading from Life IMF exchange rate policy advice Macroeconomics 6th edition hubbard Economics multiple choice questions and answers in hindi