

Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei

Climate variability in Italy during the last two millennia Italy 2k

HIGH-RESOLUTION TEMPERATURE CLIMATOLOGY FOR ITALY: INTERPOLATION METHOD INTERCOMPARISON

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01-02 December 2014 - ROME

WHY DO WE NEED HIGH RESOLUTION TEMPERATURE CLIMATOLOGIES?

ITALY HAD A VERY IMPORTANT ROLE IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS AND ACCUMULATED A HUGE HERITAGE OF DATA DURING THE PAST CENTURIES



A G G I DI NATVRALI ESPERIENZE FATENELL ACCADEMIA DEL CIMENTO IOTOLA FROTUZIONI DEL SERENKISIMO FRINCIPE LEOPOLDO DI TOSCANA



INVENTION OF SOME OF THE MOST IMPORTANT METEOROLOGICAL INSTRUMENTS (THERMOMETER, BAROMETER).

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE FIRST NETWORK OF OBSERVATIONS (ACCADEMIA DEL CIMENTO)

SIX STATIONS HAVE BEEN ACTIVE SINCE THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY (BOLOGNA, MILAN, ROME, PADUA, PALERMO AND TURIN) AND OTHER 15 STATIONS WHERE OBSERVATIONS STARTED IN THE FIRST HALF OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY (AOSTA, FLORENCE, GENOA, IVREA, LOCOROTONDO, MANTUA, NAPLES, PARMA, PAVIA, PERUGIA, TRENTO, TRIESTE, UDINE, URBINO AND VENICE).

WITH THE PRESENT AVAILABILITY OF LONG-TERM STATION DATA WE CAN PRODUCE GRIDDED DATA SETS EXPRESSED IN TERMS OF ANOMALIES. THESE PRODUCTS ARE VERY USEFUL TO STUDY **CLIMATE VARIABILITY AND CHANGES** OVER THE PAST......





WHY DO WE NEED HIGH RESOLUTION TEMPERATURE CLIMATOLOGIES?

...HOWEVER, ROUGH RESOLUTION DATA EXPRESSED AS ANOMALIES CANNOT ANSWER TO SPECIFIC QUESTIONS RELEVANT FOR CLIMATE IMPACT-RELATED STUDIES AND FOR MANY APPLICATIONS.

How can I get the climate information (e.g. a monthly temperature series in absolute values) relative to a remote place where a meteorological station is not available?



HOW TO CONSTRUCT HIGH RESOLUTION TEMPERATURE SERIES IN ABSOLUTE VALUES

We can describe the **spatio-temporal structure of the climate signal** over a given area by the superimposition of two fields: the climatic normals over a given reference period (i.e. the **climatologies**) and the departures from them (i.e. the **anomalies**).

(Mitchell and Jones, 2005. Int J Clim, 25, 693-712)

Climatologies are basically linked to the geographic features of the territory and they can manifest **remarkable spatial gradients**.

Very high number of station 20-30 years long needed to evaluate the complex orography influences on temperature gradients.

Anomalies are linked to climate variability and change and they are generally characterized by **rather low spatial gradients**.

Sparse but at least 50-100y long station data needed to evaluate the time behavior of temperature over the past.

UNITAL MEAN TEMPERATUR



From the superimposition of climatology and anomaly fields we get temperature series in absolute values at 1kmX1km spatial resolution.

A radial and a vertical gaussian weighting functions with the following form are used:

$$w_i^{rad}(x, y) = e^{-\left(\frac{d_i^{r^2}(x,y)}{c_r}\right)} \qquad w_i^h(x, y) = e^{-\left(\frac{d_i^{r^2}(x,y)}{c_h}\right)} \qquad \text{with} \qquad c_r = -\frac{\overline{d_r^2}}{\ln 0.5}$$

i runs along the stations

$$\frac{d_i^{r(h)} \text{ is the horizontal (vertical) distance between the station i and the grid point (x,y)}{\overline{d_r(h)} \text{ is the horizontal (vertical) distance at which the weight is equal to 0.5.} \qquad m$$

An **angular** weight is also used to take into account spatial anisotropy in stations' location:

$$w_i^{arrg}(x, y) = 1 + \frac{\sum_{l=1}^{n} w_l^{rad} \cdot w_l^h \left[1 - \cos \theta_{(x,y)}(i,l) \right]}{\sum_{l=1}^{n} w_l^{rad}(x, y) \cdot w_l^h(x, y)}$$

 $w_i(x, y) = w_i^{rad}(x, y) \cdot w_i^h(x, y) \cdot w_i^{ang}(x, y)$

TO GET THE CLIMATE NORMALS AT HIGH SPATIAL RESOLUTION (1km²).

WE NEED:

- AN ADEQUATE DATA SET TO DESCRIBE THE CORRECT SPATIAL GRADIENTS AT THE RESOLUTION WE HAVE CHOSEN

- AN ADEQUATE PROCEDURE TO CAPTURE THE CORRECT DEPENDENCE OF THE VARIABLE ON GEOGRAPHICAL PARAMETERS



THE DATA (FIRST GUESS)



THE DATA (FIRST GUESS)



ADDITIONAL DATA

30 arcsecdonds Digital Elevation Model





ADDITIONAL DATA

Global Land Cover 2000 (GLC 2000) of the Joint Research Centre





THE INTERPOLATION METHODS

4000 3500 10.001 90 THERMOSPHERE 0.002 3000 0.005 80 MESOPAUSE 0.0 2500 0.02 70 2000 0.05 -0.1 (gu) MESOSPHERE 1500 60 0.2 Ê 0.5 HEIGHT 1000 50 PRESSURE STRATOPAUSE 500 STRATOSPHERE -10 30 However the lapse rate is locally different depending on 20 various factors: FROPOPAUSE - Total solar radiation received (i.e. slope orientation and steepness) IБО IBO 260 280 300 TEMPERATURE (K) - Sea mitigating effect

Temperature decrease with elevation in the troposphere

- Pool air cooling (i.e. temperature inversion effect)

FOR THESE REASONS A GLOBAL T vs H RELATIONSHIP IS NOT APPROPRIATE, AND WE MUST TAKE INTO ACCOUNT FURTHER IMPROVEMENTS TO A GLOBAL APPROACH, OR CONSIDER A LOCAL ESTIMATION OF THE LAPSE RATE.



THREE DIFFERENT METHODS TO FACE THIS PROBLEM:

- -Multi Linear Regression with Local Improvements (MLRLI)
- -Regression Kriging (RK)
- -Local Weighted Linear Regression of Temperature versus Elevation (LWLR)





MULTI LINEAR REGRESSION WITH LOCAL IMPROVEMENTS (MLRLI)

The first step of this method consists in applying, for each month, a **Multi Linear Regression** (MLR) of temperature versus **elevation** (h), **latitude** (ϕ) and **longitude** (λ) to the entire station normal data set.

$$T = T(\lambda, \phi) = m_0 + m_1 \cdot h(\lambda, \phi) + m_2 \cdot \lambda + m_3 \cdot \phi$$

The monthly residuals (ϵ) from the MLR are then subjected to further analyses aimed at identifying the most significant relations with additional geographical and physiographical variables.

Step by step, improvement terms are added to the MLR equation and after each step temperature residuals from this new equation are considered.

The final result is an equation expressing temperature as a function of the various variables F(h, λ , ϕ , dsea,....).

This equation can be finally applied to each grid-cell of a DEM to construct, for each month, a high-resolution temperature climatology.



The effects producing relevant improvements to the temperature estimation are:

- i) Sea effect
- ii) Lake effect
- iii) Po Plain Continentality Effect
- iv) Slope orientation effect for both the non-smoothed and the smoothed DEM
- v) Summit/Valley Effect
- vi) Urban Heat Island Effect



MLRLI – SEA AND LAKE EFFECTS

The sea and lake effects account for the sea and, to a less extent, lake water mitigation effect.

According to the analysis of scatter plots of temperature residuals versus *dsea*, the **sea effect** was modelled by attributing to the grid-cells with *dsea* \leq 1.3 km the average residual ($\overline{\varepsilon}_{dsea}$) of the corresponding stations having *dsea* \leq 1.3 km (excluding the Po Plain stations).

It was also imposed that this effect vanishes when *dsea*≥15 km.

This was obtained by setting:

$$\Delta T_{sea}(dsea) = \begin{cases} \overline{\varepsilon}_{dsea} & if \ dsea \leq 1.3km \\ \overline{\varepsilon}_{dsea} \left(1 - \frac{\ln(dsea/1.3)}{\ln(15/1.3)} \right) & if \ 1.3km < dsea < 15km \\ 0 & if \ dsea \geq 15km \end{cases}$$



The **lake effect** is similar to, but less prominent than, the sea effect and it was taken into account using a similar approach. In this case, however, the number of stations was too small to study the decrease of the effect with the distance from the lake (*dlake*); for this reason we attributed to the grid-cells with *dlake* \leq 1.3 km the average residual of the corresponding non Po Plain stations within this distance from the lakes and half of this value to grid-cells with 1.3 \leq *dlake* \leq 2.6 (km).

MLRLI – PO PLAIN CONTINENTALITY EFFECT



During winter months the Po Plain is affected by a cold-air pool effect causing lower than normal temperatures and temperature inversion conditions.

In summer months, on the contrary, the Po Plain is affected by higher than normal temperatures.

The Po Plain continentality effect was modelled by the average residual ($\bar{\varepsilon}_{ppl}$) of all Po Plain classified-stations not affected by sea and urban effects.

This was obtained by setting:

$$\Delta T_{Po-Plain}(ppl) = \begin{cases} \overline{\varepsilon}_{ppl} & \text{for Po Plain cells } (ppl = 1) \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere } (ppl = 0) \end{cases}$$

where *ppl* is a binary variable, set equal to 1 for all Po Plain grid-cells and equal to 0 otherwise.
$$LON [deg]$$

MLRLI – SLOPE ORIENTATION (FACET) EFFECT

We estimated a *facet effect* and a *macro-facet effect*.

The former accounts for the effect of *exposition to solar radiation*, whereas the latter is aimed to investigate the *effect of large scale topographic barriers* (e.g. the Alpine and Apennines ridges) on the spatial temperature distribution.

These effects were modelled binning the station residuals into **36 exposition intervals** 10 degrees wide and fitting the corresponding values by means of the **first two harmonics of a Fourier series**.

With these fits we got, for any grid-cell, the facet $\Delta T_{facet}(fc, sl)$ and the macro-facet $\Delta T_{macro-facet}(Mfc, Msl)$ effects, where *fc* and *Mfc* are the facet and macro-facet variables (i.e. the slope orientation in the original and smoothed DEM, respectively).



MLRLI – SUMMIT/VALLEY EFFECT

This effect was introduced to take into account the **cold-air pool effect of the valleys** and the **higher exposition to solar radiation of summits and ridges**.

The summit/valley effect was modelled considering a new variable sv (the summit-valley variable) defined, for each point (λ , ϕ), as the fraction of the 120 surrounding points (i.e. the grid-points belonging to a 11x11-cell box centred on the grid-point under examination) that satisfy the condition $h(\lambda, \phi) - h(\lambda + i \cdot \Delta \lambda, \phi + j \cdot \Delta \phi) > 50$ m (with *h* indicating the grid-point elevation and *i* and *j* running from -5 to +5 grid-steps).

Valleys tend to present *sv* values which are very close to 0, whereas areas on mountain ridges tend to have *sv* values close to 1.

 $\int a_0 + a_1 \cdot sv \qquad sv \le sv_1$

The effect was modelled according to:

$$\Delta T_{summit-valley}(sv) = \begin{cases} 0 & 1 & a \\ \overline{\varepsilon}_{0.25 < sv < 0.75} & sv_a < sv \le sv_b \\ b_0 + b_1 \cdot sv & sv > sv_b \end{cases}$$

were $a_0 (b_0)$ and $a_1 (b_1)$ are the coefficients of the linear fit between the station residuals and sv for sv < 0.25 (> 0.75), $\overline{\varepsilon}_{0.25 < sv < 0.75}$ is the average of the residuals of the stations with 0.25 < sv < 0.75 and sv_a and sv_b are the values of sv in which the first and last interpolating lines cross the line $\Delta T_{summit-valley}(sv) = \overline{\varepsilon}_{0.25 < sv < 0.75}$





MLRLI – URBAN HEAT ISLAND EFFECT



Urban heat island effect causes higher temperature if compared to rural locations. This effect was modelled simply by averaging the residuals of the urban-classified stations ($\overline{\varepsilon}_{uhi}$).

$$\Delta T_{uhi}(lc) = \begin{cases} \overline{\varepsilon}_{uhi} & \text{for } lc = urban \ classified \ cells \\ 0 & elsewhere \end{cases}$$

where *lc* is a land-cover variable obtained from the GLC2000 land cover grid.

42°

41°





Once all the above effects have been included in the model, the final result is an equation which estimates the temperature normal of each grid-cell as a function of the previous variables.

$$\begin{split} T &= T(\lambda, \phi) = \\ &= m_0 + m_1 \cdot h(\lambda, \phi) + m_2 \cdot \lambda + m_3 \cdot \phi + \Delta T_{sea}(dsea(\lambda, \phi)) + \Delta T_{lake}(dlake(\lambda, \phi)) + \Delta T_{Po-Plain}(ppl(\lambda, \phi)) + \\ &+ \Delta T_{facet}(fc(\lambda, \phi)) + \Delta T_{macro-facet}(Mfc(\lambda, \phi)) + \Delta T_{summit-valley}(sv(\lambda, \phi)) + \Delta T_{uhi}(lc(\lambda, \phi)) \end{split}$$

where the only independent variables are λ and ϕ , whereas all other variables are obtained from them by means of the GTOPO30 DEM and the GLG2000 land cover grid.





REGRESSION KRIGING (RK)

An alternative approach to the step-wise local improvements to the MLR estimations of temperature normals is to consider, for each grid-cell, a distance weighted average of the station residuals, with weights calculated by means of a kriging-based approach.

The MLR residual (ϵ) of each grid-point (λ , ϕ) is estimated by

$$\hat{\varepsilon}(\lambda,\phi) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} k_i(\lambda,\phi) \cdot \varepsilon_i = \mathbf{k}^{\mathrm{T}}(\lambda,\phi) \cdot \varepsilon_i$$

where **k** is the vector of the kriging weights (k_i) for the grid-point (λ , ϕ), ε is the vector of station residuals and *n* is the number of stations.



REGRESSION KRIGING

The first step consists in the definition of the variogram that describes the spatial covariance of the station data. The variogram was determined by i) considering all station pairs within 300 km and clustering them according to station distance, binned into 10 km intervals; ii) calculating, for each distance interval, the semivariance of the differences of temperature residuals of all station pairs within the interval; iii) fitting semivariance versus distance by means of a chosen theoretical variogram.

The exponential variogram turned out to be the most suitable for our application

It assumes that semivariance tends to C_0 (the nugget parameter) for $r \rightarrow 0$, which means that spatial coherence cannot completely explain station temperature residuals. As *r* increases, the semivariance tends to C_0+C_1 (the sill parameter), which means that for large distances (e.g. r > 3R) there is no more spatial coherence between station temperature residuals.



 C_0 ranges from about 0.4 (°C²) in the period March-July to about 0.8 (°C²) in the period December-January. C_1 ranges from about 0.3-0.5 (°C²) in the periods March-May and September-October to about 1.5-1.6 (°C²) in the period December-January.

This fit was performed using a weighted linear interpolation of γ versus $(1-e^{-r/R})$, with weights given by the ratios between the number of station pairs within each distance interval and the corresponding average distance

REGRESSION KRIGING

The theoretical variogram was then used to obtain the covariance (C) versus the distance ($C(r) = C_1 \cdot e^{-r/R}$) and the covariance matrix C, expressing the covariance of any pair of stations.

The vector of kriging weights (**k**) for the grid-point (λ, ϕ) was then obtained as:

$$\mathbf{k}(\lambda,\phi) = \mathbf{C}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{c}_0(\lambda,\phi)$$

where $\mathbf{c}_0(\lambda, \phi)$ is the vector expressing the covariances of the grid-cell (λ, ϕ) with all the station positions estimated from $C(r) = C_1 \cdot e^{-r/R}$.

The temperature of each grid-cell is therefore estimated by RK as:

$$T = m_0 + m_1 \cdot h(\lambda, \phi) + m_2 \cdot \lambda + m_3 \cdot \phi + \mathbf{k}^{\mathrm{T}}(\lambda, \phi) \cdot \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$





LOCAL WEIGHTED LINEAR REGRESSION (LWLR)

LOCAL WEIGHTED LINEAR REGRESSION – LWLR

THE MODEL IS SIMILAR TO **PRISM** (Parameter-elevation regression on independent slopes model) ALREADY USED FOR **U.S.** TEMPERATURE AND PRECIPITATION (Daly et al., 1994) AND FOR PRECIPITATION IN THE **ALPINE REGION** (Frei and Schär, 1998).





LOCAL PARAMETER vs ELEVATION WEIGHTED LINEAR REGRESSION (LWLR)

Daly C, Neilson RP, Philipps DL. 1994. Journal of Applied Meteorology, 33: 140-158

Frei C., Schär C. 1998. International Journal of climatology, 18: 873-900.



WHY THIS MODEL?

January near-surface temperature lapse rate (K/km)



LWLR – THE WEIGHTING FACTORS



LWLR – THE WEIGHTING FACTORS

TWO POINTS AT THE SAME HORIZONTAL DISTANCE FROM THE SEE CAN PRESENT SIGNIFICSNTLY DIFFERENT CROSSING DISTANCES





LWLR – THE WEIGHTING FACTORS

$$w_i^{\operatorname{var}}(\lambda,\phi) = e^{-\left(\frac{\Delta_i^{\operatorname{var}}(\lambda,\phi)^2}{c_{\operatorname{var}}}\right)}$$

Here *var* is the specific geographical variable which is being considered, Δ_i^{var} is the absolute value of the difference between the value of this variable at the grid-cell point (λ, ϕ) and that at the *i*-th station location, and c_{var} is a coefficient which regulates the decrease of the weighting function with increasing Δ_i^{var}

$$c_{\rm var} = -\frac{(\Delta_{\frac{1}{2}}^{\rm var})^2}{\ln 2}$$

The selection of the most appropriate $\Delta_{\frac{1}{2}}^{var}$ values to be used in the weighting factors was performed iteratively, for each month of the year, by searching for the value that gives, for any variable, the lowest possible error at station locations



LWLR – WEIGHTING FACTOR OPTIMIZATION



LWLR – THE IMPORTANCE OF WEIGHTING FACTORS







MODEL INTERCOMPARISON


ERROR INTERCOMPARISON

LEAVE-ONE-OUT CROSS-VALIDATION TECHNIQUE									
	$\sum_{k=1}^{N}$	$C(T_i^{est} - T_i)$	obs)	$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \left T_{i}^{est} - T_{i}^{obs} \right $			$2MSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(T_i^{est} - T_i^{obs}\right)^2}{N}}$		
	$BIAS = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(T_i^{est} - T_i^{obs} \right)}{N}$			$MAE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \left T_i^{est} - T_i^{obs} \right }{N}$			$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\frac{1}{1-1}}{N}}$		
	MLRLI			RK			LWLR		
	BIAS	MAE	RMSE	BIAS	MAE	RMSE	BIAS	MAE	RMSE
1	0.04	1.02	1.29	0.00	0.84	1.09	-0.04	0.77	1.01
2	0.01	0.82	1.05	0.00	0.73	0.94	-0.04	0.69	0.90
3	-0.02	0.70	0.89	-0.01	0.61	0.79	-0.03	0.60	0.78
4	-0.04	0.70	0.86	-0.01	0.59	0.75	-0.03	0.58	0.74
5	-0.04	0.70	0.86	-0.01	0.61	0.76	-0.02	0.58	0.74
6	-0.05	0.76	0.94	-0.01	0.64	0.81	-0.01	0.62	0.79
7	-0.05	0.83	1.03	-0.01	0.69	0.88	-0.02	0.66	0.85
8	-0.05	0.80	0.99	-0.01	0.67	0.85	-0.02	0.65	0.84
9	-0.03	0.71	0.89	-0.01	0.62	0.80	-0.02	0.62	0.79
10	-0.01	0.72	0.92	-0.01	0.65	0.83	-0.02	0.63	0.81
11	0.01	0.81	1.03	0.00	0.71	0.90	-0.03	0.67	0.86
12	0.03	1.02	1.31	0.00	0.86	1.11	-0.04	0.78	1.03
MEAN	-0.02	0.799	1.005	-0.01	0.685	0.876	-0.03	0.654	0.845



ERROR INTERCOMPARISON – LATITUDINAL DISTRIBUTION OF BIASES

January and July box-plots of the errors of the three methods, clustering the stations within 1 degree latitude belts.



The boxes range from the lowest quartile to the highest one and are centred on the median; whiskers represent the minimum and the maximum errors.

ERROR INTERCOMPARISON – LATITUDINAL DISTRIBUTION OF BIASES

January and July box-plots of the errors of the three methods, clustering the stations within 1 degree latitude belts.



The boxes range from the lowest quartile to the highest one and are centred on the median; whiskers represent the minimum and the maximum errors.

ERROR INTERCOMPARISON – NORTHERN ITALY AND HIGH ELEVATION

Monthly box-plot of the errors of the three methods from stations with **latitude < 40°N** and **elevation > 800m**.



The boxes range from the lowest quartile to the highest one and are centred on the median; whiskers represent the minimum and the maximum errors.

ERROR INTERCOMPARISON – COASTS AND PO PLAIN

Monthly average errors of the three methods from

- a) coastal stations (stations within the first 1.3 km from the sea)
- b) Po Plain stations.





THE WINNER IS....







SOME RESULTS AND APPLICATIONS

TEMPERATURE CLIMATOLOGY

ANNUAL





TEMPERATURE CLIMATOLOGY







TEMPERATURE CLIMATOLOGY







LWLR – CONFIDENCE INTERVAL



The prediction interval for the grid-point with elevation h is

$$T_h \pm t_{\frac{1-\alpha}{2}, df} \cdot s\{T_h\}$$

where t is the value of a Student distribution with *df* degrees of freedom corresponding to cumulative probability $(1-\alpha)/2$.



CONFIDENCE INTERVAL



IMPROVING DATA AVAILABILITY





CONFIDENCE INTERVAL REDUCTION



SYNTHETIC SERIES RECONSTRUCTION THE EXAMPLE OF TWO REMOTE SITES (LEAVE-ONE-OUT APPROACH)

PASSO PORDOI

PLATEAU ROSA



SYNTHETIC SERIES RECONSTRUCTION (PASSO PORDOI 2155m)





SYNTHETIC SERIES RECONSTRUCTION (PASSO PORDOI 2155m)



SYNTHETIC SERIES RECONSTRUCTION (PLATEAU ROSA' 3488m)



SYNTHETIC SERIES RECONSTRUCTION (PLATEAU ROSA' 3488m)















