

Short-Term Wind Speed and Power Forecasting using an Ensemble of Mixture Density Neural Networks

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Abstract

An ensemble of mixture density neural networks is used for short-term wind speed and power forecasting. Predicted wind speeds obtained from a numerical weather prediction model are used as the input data for the mixture density network, whose outputs are the mixture density parameters (used to represent the probability density function of the uncertain output or target variable). All mixture density neural networks in an ensemble are assumed to have a three-layer architecture, with each architecture having different numbers of nodes in the hidden layer. Because a mixture of Gaussian distributions is used to approximate the conditional distribution of the target random variable (either wind speed or wind turbine power), the uncertainties arising from both the model structure and model output can be completely quantified. In consequence, rigorous confidence intervals reflecting these sources of uncertainty in the prediction can be obtained and used to assess the performance for the wind speed and wind turbine power forecasting. An application of the proposed approach to a data set of the measured wind speed and power from an operational wind turbine in a wind farm in Taiwan is used to test the methodology. The results of this application demonstrate that the proposed methodology works well for the multi-step ahead wind speed and power forecasting.

Keywords: Ensemble forecasting, Gaussian mixture, Mixture density neural network, Wind speed/power prediction

1. Introduction

1 Over the past decade, the generation of clean energy from wind turbines has become ever more
2 prevalent. To support this effort, researchers have focused on improving the capability to forecast the

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3 wind resources (e.g., wind speed and the concomitant wind turbine power generation). Numerous
4 methodologies have been proposed for wind speed and power forecasting, including statistical mod-
5 eling, physics-based weather forecast modeling, and machine learning approaches. Machine learning
6 techniques, which include artificial neural networks (ANNs) and support vector machines (SVMs),
7 have been extensively applied for wind energy forecasting. Very recently, methodologies used in fi-
8 nancial time series modeling such as the autoregressive conditional heteroskedasticity (ARCH) model
9 of Engle [1] and the generalized autoregressive conditional heteroskedasticity (GARCH) model of
10 Bollerslev [2] have been applied to wind energy prediction. Traditionally, short-term forecasts of
11 the wind speed and wind power have been based on point forecasts [3,4], but the trend recently has
12 been focussed on the development of probabilistic forecasting of wind resources [5–10]. In particular,
13 Gneiting et al. [10] proposed the use of a calibrated probabilistic forecasting methodology based on a
14 regime-switching space-time model that can account explicitly for alternating atmospheric regimes.
15 For general reviews of the various approaches that have been used for wind speed and wind turbine
16 power prediction, the reader can consult Giebel et al. [11] and Foley et al. [12] and the references
17 therein.

18 In the applications of these approaches to wind speed and power forecasting, a major theme was
19 the uncertainty quantification for the forecasts. In this regard, ensemble methods have been proposed
20 for wind speed and power prediction (e.g., Men et al. [8,9], Wang et al. [13], among others). One of
21 the advantages in using an ensemble approach is that the confidence intervals for the forecasted wind
22 speeds and powers can be obtained rigorously and then used as criteria for the forecast assessment.
23 Alternatively, Bremnes [6] used local quantile regression for probabilistic forecasting. Gneiting et
24 al. [10] used a truncated Gaussian predictive distribution for probabilistic forecasting of the hourly-
25 averaged wind speeds at a single site. In the latter study, a proper scoring rule referred to as the
26 continuous ranked probability score was utilized to assess the quality of the wind speed forecasts. In
27 this paper, we propose to use an ensemble of mixture density neural networks for the probabilistic
28 forecasting of the wind speed and power. In this approach, the probability density function of the
29 target variable (wind speed or wind turbine power) is represented by a mixture of known probability
30 distributions (herein taken to be Gaussian distributions).

31 Mixture distributions have been widely utilized in statistics to approximate complex (non-
32 analytical) distributions. It is well known that a mixture of Gaussian distributions can approximate
33 any continuous probability distribution with any accuracy provided the number of components (ker-

34 nels) in the mixture is sufficiently large. In the seminal work of Bishop [14] and elaborated in greater
35 detail later in Bishop [15], the concept of a mixture density neural network (MDN) was introduced.
36 Here, the probability density function of a target vector of the neural network conditioned on an
37 input vector is represented by a mixture (sum) of Gaussian distributions. The conditional mixture
38 distribution embodies the uncertainty associated with the target vector and allows one to quantify
39 rigorously the uncertainty in the prediction of the target vector.

40 In this paper, we generalize the approach proposed by Bishop [14,15] to include a quantification
41 of the uncertainty arising from the neural network structure used to approximate the values for
42 the parameters of the MDN, as well as the number of kernels required to adequately represent the
43 probability density function of the target variable. To this end, we formulate an ensemble of MDNs
44 and use the information embodied in this ensemble to obtain the best prediction for the target vector
45 as well as the uncertainty in this prediction. The proposed extension of MDN theory provides a
46 semi-automatic procedure for “selecting” the appropriate number of kernels (required to represent
47 the distribution of the target variable) and hidden units in the MDN (required to represent the
48 mapping from the deterministic input variable to the probability density function of the uncertain
49 target variable).

50 The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 briefly introduces the concept of a neural network
51 and then describes the approximation of a target vector using a mixture of Gaussian distributions.
52 An ensemble of MDNs is proposed for wind speed and wind turbine power forecasting. Section 3
53 discusses how to assess the prediction performance by using some well known assessment measures.
54 Section 4 provides an application of the proposed methodology to a data set of wind speed and wind
55 turbine power obtained from a wind farm in Taiwan. This is followed by a brief summary of the
56 results and a conclusion in Section 5.

57 **2. Ensemble mixture density network**

58 It is well known that modeling the relationship between two random variables (or, vectors) is a
59 difficult problem in general. The relationship between any two random variables could be a linear
60 function, a polynomial function, or even a much more complex mapping. In wind turbine power
61 forecasting applications, this unknown mapping (between the predicted wind speed and wind tur-
62 bine power) is usually represented non-parametrically using a feedforward multilayer neural network.
63 Flexibility is achieved through the use of an essentially non-parametric representation for the map-

ping and wind turbine power prediction can be carried out based on the trained neural network. Before introducing our ensemble MDN approach, we present a very brief review of neural network modeling.

Let x and y represent an independent and dependent random variable (vector), respectively. A general mapping from x to y can be described by

$$y = g(x|\theta) + e, \quad (1)$$

where $g(x|\theta)$, parametrized by a parameter vector θ , is a general model function mapping x to y and e is the residual characterizing the accuracy of using $g(x|\theta)$ to approximate y . In this paper, y is either the measured wind speed at the hub height of a wind turbine or the corresponding wind power generated by the turbine with a specific realization (sample) given by $\mathbf{y} = \{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_T\}$, where T is the sample size. The independent (input) vector x is a sample of the modeled (predicted) wind speed obtained from a numerical weather prediction (NWP) model. A specific realization (sample) of x is denoted by $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_T\}$, with the corresponding residual vector denoted by $\mathbf{e} = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_T\}$. In this paper, the functional form for the unknown model function $g(x|\theta)$ is represented using a three-layer ANN.

Before a neural network can be used to predict future values of y , it has to be trained using a training data set. The details on how to construct a neural network, how a neural network can be trained, and how to use a trained neural network for forecasting of the target variable can be found in many textbooks and published papers. In particular, we refer readers to Men et al. [8,9] for a description of the theory underpinning neural networks as applied to the ensemble forecasting of wind speed and wind turbine power.

There is a disadvantage in using conventional ANNs for forecasting future values of y . Because there is no distributional assumption for the residuals (or equivalently, there is no conditional distribution for the dependent variable y), the uncertainty quantification of the forecasts of y at various lead times need to be achieved using ensemble methods (e.g., the ensemble ANN method proposed in Men et al. [8,9] and Wang et al. [13]). The members of an ensemble can include potentially the outputs of various types of forecast models (e.g., machine learning approaches based on ANNs, empirical time series modeling approaches based on GARCH, physics-based approaches using NWP models, etc.) The forecasts of y can be obtained by using either a simple average of the forecasts over the component members in the ensemble, or alternatively by using a weighted average of the

93 individual forecasts where the weights are obtained using some sophisticated approach (e.g., by min-
94 imizing an objective loss function such as a quadratic function of the prediction errors as advocated
95 by Men et al. [8,9]).

96 In this paper, we will represent the uncertainty in the prediction of the output (target) variable
97 y using a probability density of y conditioned on a (given) input variable x , denoted as $f(y|x)$. The
98 functional form of the conditional distribution is usually unknown and, as a consequence, we use
99 a mixture or sum of Gaussian distributions to approximate the conditional distribution of $f(y|x)$.
100 More explicitly, the conditional distribution of y_t given the input vector \mathbf{x} is represented by a mixture
101 of Gaussian distributions as follows:

$$f(y_t|\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{n=1}^N p_n(\mathbf{x}, t) \phi(y_t|\mu_n(\mathbf{x}, t), \sigma_n^2(\mathbf{x}, t)), \quad t = 1, 2, \dots, T, \quad (2)$$

102 where $p_n(\mathbf{x}, t)$ ($n = 1, 2, \dots, N$) is the n -th mixing coefficient that defines the weights for each kernel
103 in the mixture and $\phi(y_t|\mu_n(\mathbf{x}, t), \sigma_n^2(\mathbf{x}, t))$ ($n = 1, 2, \dots, N$) is the n -th kernel in the mixture which
104 is taken herein to be a Gaussian distribution with mean $\mu_n(\mathbf{x}, t)$ and variance $\sigma_n^2(\mathbf{x}, t)$. In order
105 that $f(y_t|\mathbf{x})$ be a valid representation for the conditional distribution of y_t , the mixing coefficients
106 must be non-negative and verify the constraint $\sum_{n=1}^N p_n(\mathbf{x}, t) = 1$. With the representation for
107 the conditional distribution of the output variables given in Equation (2), the model likelihood
108 function for the training data set is simply the product of the independent probabilities for the
109 output variables:

$$L(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{t=1}^T f(y_t|\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{t=1}^T \left(\sum_{n=1}^N p_n(\mathbf{x}, t) \phi(y_t|\mu_n(\mathbf{x}, t), \sigma_n^2(\mathbf{x}, t)) \right). \quad (3)$$

110 The values for the parameters of the mixture density of Equation (2), namely p_n , μ_n and σ_n^2
111 ($n = 1, 2, \dots, N$) can be estimated using a three-layer standard neural network: namely, an input
112 layer, a hidden layer and an output layer. The use of a three-layer ANN architecture is justified by
113 the work of Hornik et al. [16] and White [17] who showed that subject to some regularity conditions,
114 a three-layered ANN can approximate any continuous function of multivariate real variables to any
115 degree of accuracy provided the number of nodes in the hidden layer is sufficiently large. Indeed,
116 seminal work by Bishop [14,15] demonstrated that a mixture density network (MDN) can be used to
117 estimate or learn the probabilistic relationship between the input and output values of an unknown
118 mapping [parametrized in the form of a conditional distribution given by Equation (2)] using a

119 training data set consisting of a set of examples of the input and output values of the mapping.
 120 Nabney [18] describes a software package called NetLab that provides an implementation of a MDN
 121 for probabilistic learning. The primary difference between a standard neural network and a MDN
 122 resides in the fact that nodes of the output layer are not the values of the output variables y but
 123 instead, are the parameters of the mixture density. In consequence, for a MDN, the number of input
 124 nodes is the dimensionality N_x of the input variable x and the total number of output nodes is $3N$
 125 where N is the number of kernels present in the mixture density [cf. Equation (2)]. In other words,
 126 the total number of output nodes is equal to the number of parameters of the mixture density.

127 In order to ensure that the mixture density of Equation (2) is physically realizable, it is necessary
 128 that the standard deviations σ_n are positive and the mixing coefficients p_n are non-negative with
 129 their sum equal to unity. To ensure that these constraints are automatically satisfied, the mixture
 130 density parameters p_n , μ_n and σ_n are re-parametrized in terms of α_n , β_n and γ_n as follows. Firstly,
 131 the mixing coefficients p_n are represented as

$$p_n(\mathbf{x}, t) = \frac{\exp(\alpha_n(\mathbf{x}, t))}{\sum_{n=1}^N \exp(\alpha_n(\mathbf{x}, t))}, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, N. \quad (4)$$

132 This re-parametrization ensures that the mixing coefficients are non-negative with the sum of all
 133 coefficients equal to one. To ensure the positivity of the standard deviation, σ_n is re-parametrized
 134 as

$$\sigma_n(\mathbf{x}, t) = \exp(\beta_n(\mathbf{x}, t)), \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, N. \quad (5)$$

135 Finally, because there are no constraints on μ_n , we simply define

$$\mu_n(\mathbf{x}, t) = \gamma_n(\mathbf{x}, t), \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, N. \quad (6)$$

136 With this re-parameterization, the parameters α_n , β_n and γ_n become the outputs of the MDN,
 137 rather than p_n , μ_n and σ_n .

138 After the MDN has been properly trained on a training data set, using an expectation-maximization
 139 (EM) optimization procedure, we obtain an estimate of the parameter vector $\hat{\theta}$ of θ [where the com-
 140 ponents of θ are the parameters that define the mixture density given by Equation (2)]. Given some
 141 new input data $\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d} \equiv \{x_{T+1}, x_{T+2}, \dots, x_{T+d}\}$ ($d \geq 1$), we can utilize the trained MDN to provide
 142 (future) predictions for the associated output variables \hat{y}_t ($t = T + 1, T + 2, \dots, T + d$) using the

143 mixture conditional density as follows:

$$f(\hat{y}_t | \mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}) = \sum_{n=1}^N \hat{p}_n(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}, t) \phi\left(\hat{y}_t | \hat{\mu}_n(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}, t), \hat{\sigma}_n^2(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}, t)\right), \quad (7)$$

144 with $t = T + 1, T + 2, \dots, T + d$. In Equation (7), the hat over a parameter is used to denote an
 145 estimate for this parameter obtained from the fully trained MDN. We can interpret the model in
 146 Equation (7) as information channels from the new input data to the (future) predictions of the
 147 output data (target variable).

148 With the approximate representation for the mixture density given by Equation (7), the various
 149 conditional moments for \hat{y}_t can be readily obtained. For example, the first conditional moment (or
 150 mean) of \hat{y}_t is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{M}_t(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}) &= \mathcal{E}(\hat{y}_t | \mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}) \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^N \hat{p}_n(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}, t) \hat{\mu}_n(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}, t), \quad t = T + 1, T + 2, \dots, T + d, \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

151 where $\mathcal{E}(\cdot)$ denotes mathematical expectation.

152 The second conditional moment of \hat{y}_t (about the origin) is similarly given by

$$\mathcal{E}(\hat{y}_t^2 | \mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}) = \sum_{n=1}^N \hat{p}_n(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}, t) \left(\hat{\mu}_n^2(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}, t) + \hat{\sigma}_n^2(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}, t) \right), \quad t = T + 1, T + 2, \dots, T + d. \quad (9)$$

153 In view of this, the conditional variance of \hat{y}_t is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(\hat{y}_t | \mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}) &\equiv \mathcal{E}(\hat{y}_t^2 | \mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}) - \left(\mathcal{E}(\hat{y}_t | \mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}) \right)^2 \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^N \hat{p}_n(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}, t) \left(\hat{\mu}_n^2(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}, t) + \hat{\sigma}_n^2(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}, t) \right) - \mathcal{M}_t^2(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}), \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

154 for $t = T + 1, T + 2, \dots, T + d$. Consequently, at each lead time t , the best forecast for \hat{y}_t of y can
 155 be estimated using the conditional mean $\mathcal{M}_t(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d})$. The conditional standard deviation in this
 156 estimate is given by $s(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}) \equiv \text{Var}^{1/2}(\hat{y}_t | \mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d})$. The uncertainty of the corresponding forecast can
 157 be quantified using a confidence interval at some specified confidence level.

158 Two main sources of uncertainty need to be addressed in the application of MDNs. It is necessary
 159 to select the appropriate number of kernels N in the mixture density representation of Equation (2)

160 and the number of hidden units in the feedforward neural network used to predict the values of the
 161 parameters in the mixture density. To address this issue in a semi-automatic manner, we consider the
 162 use of an ensemble of MDNs, rather than a single MDN. The component MDNs in the ensemble are
 163 identified by the number of nodes in the hidden layer (viz., each member of the ensemble represents a
 164 specific neural network architecture). The best prediction of the target vector using the ensemble of
 165 MDNs can be obtained as a weighted sum of predictions from the component MDNs. To determine
 166 the weight to use for each member MDN of the ensemble, we use the conditional likelihood for each
 167 of the individually fitted MDNs. The corresponding weights are selected to be proportional to the
 168 value of the likelihood of the fitted MDNs based on the training data set. Once the weights for all
 169 the component MDNs have been determined, best forecasts of wind speed and wind turbine power
 170 can be obtained. The precision (uncertainty quantification) in these forecasts can be provided in
 171 the form of $p\%$ confidence intervals (viz., intervals that will include the true value $p\%$ of the time).
 172 Felder [19] introduced mixture density recurrent ANNs for wind power forecasting, but in their
 173 methodology only one single ANN was used for the prediction. In this paper, the uncertainty in
 174 the neural network architecture (appropriate number of hidden units) and in the target vector for
 175 prediction are characterized using an ensemble of MDNs.

176 To begin, we start with a MDN with a fixed number of components N in the mixture. Now,
 177 suppose we consider an ensemble of M three-layer MDNs, with each MDN member in the ensemble
 178 being identified by the number of nodes in the hidden layer. Define by $L_m(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$ ($m = 1, 2, \dots, M$)
 179 the likelihood function associated with the m -th component (member) MDN in the ensemble. From
 180 Equation (3), the likelihood function for the m -th component MDN is given by

$$L_m(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{t=1}^T \left(\sum_{n=1}^N \hat{p}_{mn}(\mathbf{x}, t) \phi \left(y_t \mid \hat{\mu}_{mn}(\mathbf{x}, t), \hat{\sigma}_{mn}^2(\mathbf{x}, t) \right) \right), \quad m = 1, 2, \dots, M, \quad (11)$$

181 where the subscript m on all quantities is used to denote that these quantities refer to the m -th
 182 MDN in the ensemble.

183 The multi-step ahead ensemble forecast for the target (output) variable y can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{y}_t(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}) &= \sum_{m=1}^M \omega_m \left(\sum_{n=1}^N \hat{p}_{mn}(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}, t) \hat{\mu}_{mn}(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}, t) \right) \\ &= \sum_{m=1}^M \omega_m \mathcal{M}_{mt}(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}), \quad t = T+1, T+2, \dots, T+d, \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

184 where ω_m are the ensemble weights and $\mathcal{M}_{mt}(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d})$ is conditional mean of the target variable
 185 obtained from the m -th MDN [and defined earlier in Equation (12)]. To determine the weights ω_m
 186 to use for the ensemble model averaging, it is argued that a reasonable estimate for the weight is
 187 $\hat{\omega}_m \propto p(m|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})$ ($m = 1, 2, \dots, M$) where $p(m|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})$ is the posterior probability for the m -th MDN
 188 in the ensemble. According to Bayes' rule, we can determine this probability as follows:

$$p(m|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}) = \frac{L_m(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})p(m|\mathbf{x})}{p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})}, \quad m = 1, 2, \dots, M, \quad (13)$$

189 where $p(m|\mathbf{x})$ is the prior probability for the m -th MDN in the ensemble. Furthermore, $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$,
 190 which the conditional probability of the output variables given the input variables, can be seen from
 191 Equation (13) to be simply a normalization constant over all the MDN components in the ensemble,
 192 viz.

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{m=1}^M L_m(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})p(m|\mathbf{x}). \quad (14)$$

193 If the component MDNs in the ensemble are equally probable *a priori* (viz., $p(m|\mathbf{x}) = M^{-1}$ for
 194 $m = 1, 2, \dots, M$), then the posterior probability for the m -th component MDN is simply proportional
 195 to the likelihood function for this component MDN, so $p(m|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}) \propto L_m(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$. From this perspective,
 196 the weights ω_m can be estimated as follows:

$$\hat{\omega}_m = \frac{L_m(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})}{\sum_{m=1}^M L_m(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})}, \quad m = 1, 2, \dots, M. \quad (15)$$

197 Note that the estimated weights are normalized so that $\sum_{m=1}^M \hat{\omega}_m = 1$.

198 The standard deviation in the ensemble predictions \tilde{y}_t for the output variables y_t at the lead
 199 times $t = T + 1, T + 2, \dots, T + d$, can be determined as follows. Firstly, we calculate the second
 200 conditional moment of the predictions about the origin to give

$$\mathcal{E}(\tilde{y}_t^2 | \mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}) = \sum_{m=1}^M \hat{\omega}_m \mathcal{E}(\widehat{y}_{mt}^2 | \mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}), \quad t = T + 1, T + 2, \dots, T + d, \quad (16)$$

201 where $\mathcal{E}(\widehat{y}_{mt}^2 | \mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d})$ is given in Equation (9) when applied to the m -th component MDN of the

202 ensemble. Secondly, given this information, the conditional variance of \tilde{y}_t is determined from

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sigma_{\tilde{y}_t}^2(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}) &= \text{Var}(\tilde{y}_t | \mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}) \\
 &= \mathcal{E}(\tilde{y}_t^2 | \mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}) - \left(\mathcal{E}(\tilde{y}_t | \mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}) \right)^2 \\
 &= \sum_{m=1}^M \hat{\omega}_m \mathcal{E}(\widehat{y}_{mt}^2 | \mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}) - \left(\sum_{m=1}^M \hat{\omega}_m \mathcal{M}_{mt}(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}) \right)^2, \tag{17}
 \end{aligned}$$

203 for $t = T + 1, T + 2, \dots, T + d$.

204 The confidence interval at a prescribed confidence level for the ensemble forecasts of the output
 205 variable can be obtained as

$$(\hat{y}_t)_{\text{est}} = \tilde{y}_t(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}) \pm \hat{\sigma}_{\tilde{y}_t}(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d}) t_{\alpha, v}, \quad t = T + 1, T + 2, \dots, T + d, \tag{18}$$

206 where $t_{\alpha, v}$ is the α -level critical value of the Student's t -distribution with $v = (M - 1)$ degrees of
 207 freedom.

208 Finally, note that the ensemble MDN forecasting of the output variables y is equivalent mathe-
 209 matically to using a single mixture PDF of the form

$$f(y_t | \mathbf{x}) = \sum_{m=1}^M \omega_m \sum_{n=1}^N p_n(\mathbf{x}, t) \phi(y_t | \mu_{nm}(\mathbf{x}, t), \sigma_{nm}^2(\mathbf{x}, t)), \tag{19}$$

210 whose MN mixing coefficients are given by $\omega_m p_n$ with $m = 1, 2, \dots, M$ and $n = 1, 2, \dots, N$. It can
 211 be seen that $\omega_m p_n$ are valid mixing coefficients owing to the fact that these coefficients are non-
 212 negative and their sum must equal unity. From this perspective, the use of an ensemble of MDNs as
 213 described above provides a semi-automatic procedure for selecting the appropriate number of hidden
 214 units and kernels. This semi-automatic procedure circumvents the trial-and-error procedure that
 215 has been used to date for selecting the number of kernels and hidden units of the MDN to use in a
 216 particular application (see Bishop [15]).

217 3. Model selection

218 For a given data set, there are many appropriate models that can fit the data well and each of
 219 these fitted models can be used for the prediction (forecasting) of the target variable. The question
 220 that arises is how to select one model that produces the best forecast for the future values of the

221 target variable. Two common objective functions that are used in the optimization procedure for
 222 determination of the optimal parameters for a given model structure are the root-mean-square error
 223 (RMSE) given by

$$\text{RMSE} = \left(\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T |e_t|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \left(\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T |y_t - g(x_t|\hat{\theta})|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}, \quad (20)$$

224 where $\hat{\theta}$ is the estimated parameter from the training process, and the mean absolute error (MAE)
 225 given by

$$\text{MAE} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T |e_t| = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T |y_t - g(x_t|\hat{\theta})|. \quad (21)$$

226 Although the RSME and MAE can be applied generally as goodness-of-fit measures for the estimation
 227 of θ , these measures can also be used for the assessment of the predictive performance of point
 228 (deterministic) forecasts of a target variable.

229 It is noted that the ensemble MDN approach advocated herein provides probabilistic forecasts of
 230 a target variable, rather than simply a point forecast [although the latter is possible by simply using
 231 the mean forecast $\tilde{y}_t(\mathbf{x}_{T+1}^{T+d})$ as in Equation (12) and ignoring the remaining information embodied
 232 in the predictive distribution of Equation (19)]. For probabilistic forecasting, alternative measures
 233 to RMSE and MAE must be used for evaluating probabilistic wind speed and power forecasts. To
 234 this end, Gneiting et al. [10] proposed that a proper scoring rule based on the continuous ranked
 235 probability score (CRPS) be used as a metric for the rigorous assessment of probabilistic forecasts
 236 of wind speed. The CRPS is particularly useful for prediction assessment when ensemble methods
 237 are used. Indeed, the CRPS has recently attracted renewed attention for environmental forecasting,
 238 for instance, in Gritmit and Mass [20], Candille and Talagrand [21], Gneiting et al. [10,22], Wilks
 239 [23], Gritmit et al. [24], among others.

240 The CRPS is defined as follows. If $F(y)$ is the predictive cumulative distribution function (CDF)
 241 for a target variable y and y^* is the value of y that is realized, then the CRPS is defined as

$$\text{CRPS}(F, y^*) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (F(y) - \mathbf{1}(y \geq y^*))^2 dy, \quad (22)$$

242 where $\mathbf{1}(y > y^*)$ is an indicator function that takes the value 1 when $y \geq y^*$ and the value 0,
 243 otherwise. Gneiting and Raftery [25] showed that

$$\text{CRPS}(F, y^*) = \mathcal{E}_F|Y - y^*| - \frac{1}{2}\mathcal{E}_F|Y - Y'|, \quad (23)$$

244 where Y and Y' are two independent realizations of the target variable from the predictive distri-
245 bution F . From the latter equation, it is readily seen that the CRPS generalizes the mean absolute
246 error, and can be reported in the same physical units as the target variable. Indeed, if F reduces to
247 a point (deterministic) forecast, the CRPS reduces to the MAE [cf. Equation (21)]. Obviously, the
248 CRPS provides a direct method for comparison of probabilistic forecasts, with smaller values for the
249 CRPS corresponding to the better probabilistic forecast.

250 4. An application to wind speed and power forecasting

251 4.1. Wind speed and power data

252 We present an application of our ensemble MDN approach to wind speed and wind turbine
253 power forecasting. The data for this application was obtained from a wind turbine farm in Taiwan.
254 Measurements of the wind speed at hub height and the power generated by a particular wind turbine
255 (which is referred to henceforth as WT#6) in this wind farm are used for validation of our proposed
256 approach.

257 The input variables x for the MDN are the predicted values for the wind speed obtained from a
258 numerical weather prediction model. To this purpose, predictions of the wind speed at the location
259 of WT#6 in the wind park in Taiwan were obtained using the Weather Research and Forecasting
260 (WRF) model version 3.6 compiled with the Advanced Research WRF (ARW) dynamical core. This
261 model was used to predict the wind speed in the wind farm for the time period from 3–11 January,
262 2013. Towards this objective, WRF was initialized at 00:00 UTC each day and used a 48 h simulation
263 period. The first 6 h of the simulation period were used as the spinup for the simulation and, as
264 a consequence, was excluded from the analysis. The simulations were initialized and driven by the
265 National Center for Environmental Prediction/Environmental Modeling Center's global forecasting
266 system final analysis data set with a 6 h temporal resolution and a 1-degree horizontal spatial
267 resolution.

268 Four simulation domains were used to cover the appropriate area of interest and to ensure that
269 the prescribed resolution requirements for the simulation are satisfied. The number of grid points
270 in the coarse domain, centered at 25° N latitude and 115° E longitude, was 222×128 with a grid
271 cell size of 45 km. The coarse domain covers China, most parts of Southeast Asia and the East
272 China Sea. In addition to the coarse domain, three progressively finer domains, which were nested
273 within each other in order to downscale the spatial resolution from 45 km to 1.67 km, were used for

274 the simulations. The finest domain consists of 151×244 grid points and was situated so that this
275 domain covered the north coast of Taiwan (where the wind park was located) and a large part of
276 the East China Sea with high spatial resolution. Vertically, the model domain was discretized using
277 40 layers which extended from the ground surface to a height of 50 hPa.

278 In the simulations, we used the Goddard Cumulus Ensemble (GCE) scheme described in Tao
279 and Simpson [26] for the convective microphysics parameterization, the Kain-Fritsch scheme (Kain
280 and Fritsch [27]) for the cumulus parameterization, the Yonsei University scheme (Hong and Lim
281 [28]) for the planetary boundary-layer parameterization, the revised MM5 Monin-Obukhov scheme
282 (Monin and Obukhov [29]) for the representation of the surface layer in the atmosphere, and the
283 Noah-MP land-surface scheme (Chen and Dudhia [30]) for the parameterization of the land surface
284 model. The Rapid Radiative Transfer Model (RRTM) scheme of Mlawer et al. [31] was selected
285 for the determination of the long-wave radiation and the Goddard shortwave scheme of Chou and
286 Suarez [32] was used for the calculation of the short-wave radiation. The dynamical evolution of
287 the meteorological fields was simulated by the WRF model and the wind speed was output every
288 30 minutes at the four grid points surrounding wind turbine WT#6 at a height of 45 m. A bilinear
289 interpolation (BI) was then used to interpolate these wind speeds to the location of WT#6 at the
290 hub height of 45 m.

291 *4.2. Predictive performance*

292 The wind speeds at the location of WT#6 were measured every 30 minutes for a period of 8
293 consecutive days. In consequence, there are 384 observations of the wind speed in total. Correspond-
294 ingly, we have 384 observations of the power generated by the wind turbine WT#6. The exogenous
295 information used as the input to the neural network are the modelled wind speeds obtained from
296 the NWP model and bilinearly interpolated to provide the modelled wind speed at hub height at
297 the location of WT#6. Each member of the ensemble of MDN models was trained using the first
298 240 observations corresponding to the first 5 days of data, and the remaining 144 observations cor-
299 responding to the last 3 days of data were used for the forecast assessment. The forecast was for
300 the half-hourly averaged wind speed and wind turbine power for a forecast lead time of up to 72 h.

301 It is useful to compare the numerical predictions of the NWP modelled (BI) wind speeds at
302 WT#6 with the corresponding measured wind speeds at this location. To this purpose, Fig. 1
303 exhibits the predicted wind speeds from the NWP model plotted against the measured wind speeds
304 at the hub height of the turbine. Note that there is a significant bias in the prediction of the wind

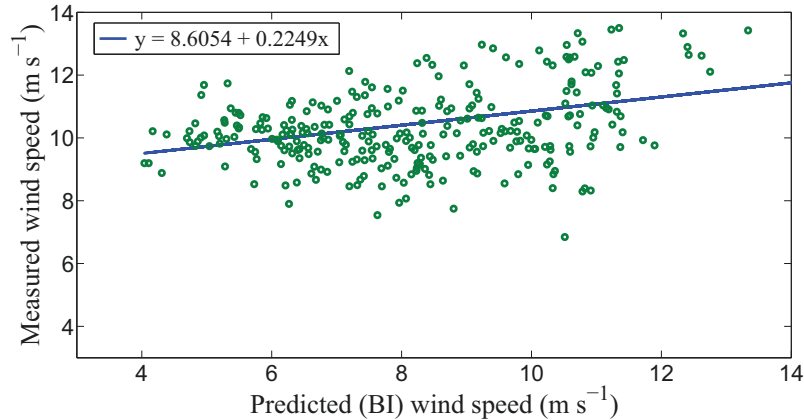


Figure 1: Scatter plot of NWP predicted (BI) wind speed versus the measured wind speed for wind turbine WT#6. The solid line shows the linear regression of the predicted and measured wind speeds (least-squares fit of the data points to a straight-line model). The fit has a coefficient of determination of $r^2 = 0.1708$.

305 speeds at WT#6 (which from the figure is seen to be about 9 m s^{-1} on average). To characterize the
 306 relationship between the predicted and measured wind speeds, a linear regression of the predicted
 307 (BI) wind speed on the measured wind speed is superimposed on the scatter plot in Fig. 1. The
 308 adjusted r^2 value (or coefficient of determination) for this fit of 0.1708 differs significantly from unity,
 309 indicating that the fitted regression model is not appropriate for describing the relationship between
 310 the measured wind speeds and the NWP modelled wind speeds. In consequence, the relationship
 311 between the measured and modelled wind speeds will be represented non-parametrically using either
 312 an ANN or MDN.

313 In Fig. 2, we exhibit the measured power curve relationship for WT#6 (viz., the relationship
 314 between the measured wind speed and the measured wind power for WT#6). A perusal of the
 315 measured power curve for WT#6 shows that when the wind speed exceeds 14 m s^{-1} (rated output
 316 wind speed), the wind power output is limited to 650 W (rated output power for the wind turbine).

317 We trained an ensemble of MDNs with the number of kernels N in each MDN set to three. The
 318 ensemble of feedforward three-layered MDNs involved varying the number of nodes in the hidden
 319 layer from 5 to 204 inclusive (namely, the ensemble consists of $M = 200$ model structures for the
 320 MDN, each structure differing in the number of hidden units used to represent the training data
 321 set). It should be emphasized that in accordance to Equation (19), the ensemble can be considered
 322 to correspond to the flexibility in the representation that can be obtained potentially from a mixture
 323 or sum of Gaussian distributions with $MN = 600$ kernels.

324 In Fig. 3, we compare the measured wind speeds at hub height for WT#6 with the predicted wind

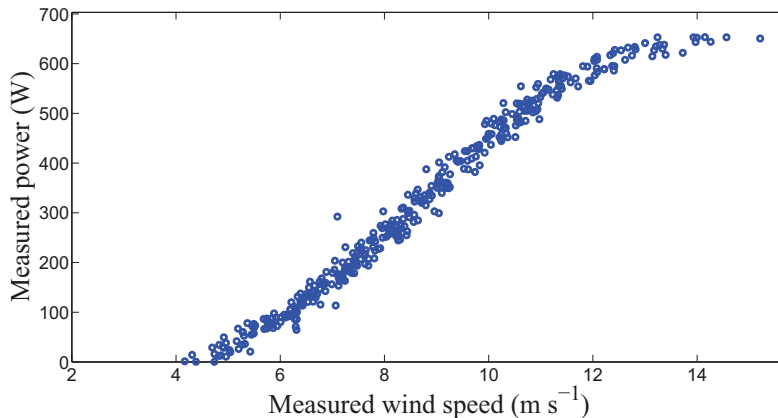


Figure 2: Measured power curve for the wind turbine WT#6.

325 speeds obtained from the NWP model and the forecasted wind speeds obtained using the ensemble
326 MDNs. A perusal of this figure shows that the forecasted wind speeds obtained from the ensemble
327 MDNs are in better conformance with the measured wind speeds than the predicted wind speeds
328 obtained from the NWP model. Furthermore, this figure displays the 95% confidence intervals for
329 the forecasted wind speeds obtained from the ensemble MDNs. A comparison between the measured
330 and forecasted wind speeds using an ensemble nonlinear autoregressive exogenous (NARX) ANN [8]
331 is shown in Fig. 4. Taken together, Figs. 3 and 4 provide a qualitative assessment of the predictive
332 performance of the various forecast techniques (e.g., NWP model, ensemble MDN and ensemble
333 NARX ANN). However, it is more informative to consider quantitative measures for the assessment
334 of the point and probabilistic forecasts.

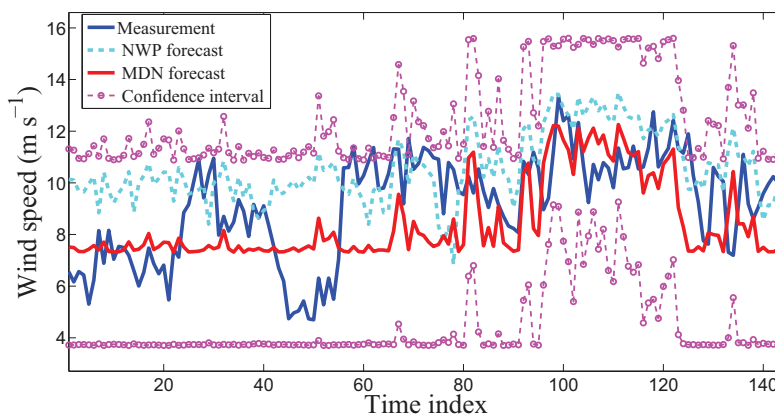


Figure 3: Comparison of the wind speed forecast for WT#6 obtained by the NWP model and the ensemble MDN model. The 95% confidence interval for the ensemble MDN forecast of the wind speed is shown.

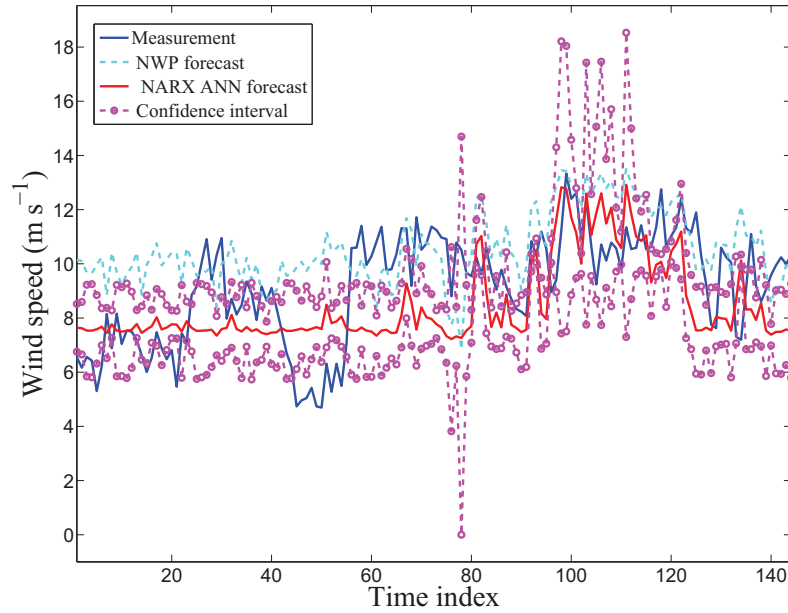


Figure 4: Comparison of the wind speed forecast for WT#6 obtained by the NWP model and the ensemble NARX ANN model of Men et al. [8]. The 95% confidence interval for the ensemble NARX ANN forecast of the wind speed is shown.

Table 1: Wind speed forecast assessment for various cases for WT#6.

Criterion	Persistence	NWP	Ensemble NARX ANN	Ensemble MDN	GARCH(p, q)	ARMA(p, q)
RMSE	3.8526	2.4096	1.9837	1.9688	2.0847	2.0061
MAE	3.4006	1.9225	1.6862	1.6665	1.8017	1.6965
CRPS	n.a.	n.a.	1.4177	1.3702	1.7059	1.8860

335 To this purpose, Table 1 summarizes the values of the RMSE, MAE and CRPS measures for
336 various forecasts (both point and probabilistic). These cases include the forecasts provided by a
337 persistence model (which uses the current wind speed to predict the value of the future wind speeds),
338 by a NWP (or, physics-based) model, by an ensemble MDN model, by an ensemble NARX ANN
339 model, by an ensemble GARCH(p, q) model, and by an ensemble autoregressive moving average
340 ARMA(p, q) model. In the GARCH(p, q) model, p is the order of the GARCH terms (or, the extent
341 in which the current volatility depends on the previous observations) and q is the order of the
342 ARCH terms (or, the extent in which the current volatility depends on the previous volatilities).
343 Similarly, in the simpler ARMA(p, q) model, p and q correspond to the order of the autoregressive
344 and moving average terms in the model, respectively. In our current application of the GARCH(p, q)
345 and ARMA(p, q) models, the orders p and q are restricted to be less than 4.

346 With respect to the RMSE, MAE and CRPS measures, it can be seen from a perusal of Table 1
347 that an ensemble MDN model forecast outperformed all other forecasts methodologies tested for
348 both point forecasts as well as for probabilistic forecasts of the wind speed. In particular, as a
349 deterministic forecast, the ensemble MDN forecast had a MAE that is 104%, 15.4%, 1.2%, 8.1%
350 and 1.8% less than the persistence, NWP, ensemble NARX ANN, GARCH(p, q) and ARMA(p, q)
351 forecasts, respectively, for the 72-h ahead wind speed. Based on the CRPS, it is seen that the
352 ensemble MDN model probabilistic forecasts of the 72-h ahead wind speed has a value for this
353 score that is 3.5%, 25.4% and 37.6% less than the ensemble NARX, GARCH(p, q) and ARMA(p, q)
354 forecasts, respectively.

355 In summary, it is noted that the ensemble MDN point forecast is marginally better than that
356 provided by the ensemble NARX ANN, and that both these point forecasts are moderately better
357 than the point forecast provided by the NWP model. Not surprisingly, the ensemble neural network
358 (MDN or ANN) and the NWP point forecasts for the wind speed are significantly better than
359 that provided by the simple persistence (no-change) model. This is not surprising owing to the
360 long forecast lead time (72 h) considered in this example. Finally, probabilistic forecasts provided
361 by the ensemble MDN model outperform all others tested, although it should be noted that the
362 ensemble MDN probabilistic forecasts had only a slightly lower CRPS than the ensemble NARC
363 ANN probabilistic forecasts.

364 The objective functions used for training the MDNs are highly nonlinear multimodal functions of
365 the network parameters, with the result that optimization methods may only provide a sub-optimal

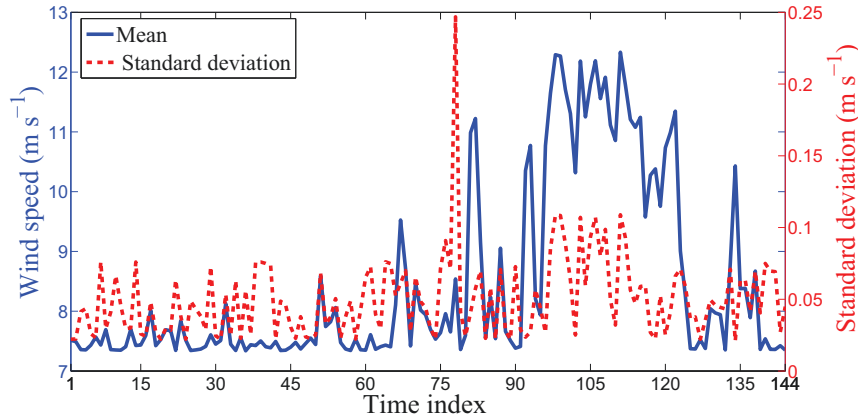


Figure 5: Uncertainty arising from the initialization of the MDN parameters in the application of the ensemble MDN methodology. The mean and standard deviation in the forecasted wind speeds were obtained from 50 independent ensemble MDNs.

366 solution (viz., a solution corresponding to one of the local minima of the objective function). Fur-
 367 thermore, the quality of the final solution may depend critically on the initial values used for the
 368 network parameters. For this reason, there may be some significant uncertainty arising from the ini-
 369 tialization of the network parameters since the quality of the solution obtained in the neural network
 370 training may depend strongly on this initialization. We investigated this source of uncertainty in
 371 our wind speed predictions by executing the ensemble MDN approach on the same training data set
 372 50 different times. In this ensemble of ensemble MDNs, the overall mean and standard deviation of
 373 the forecasted wind speeds obtained from the 50 ensembles were computed. A biplot summarizing
 374 this analysis is shown in Fig. 5. The left axis in the plot displays the mean of the forecasted wind
 375 speed obtained from the 50 ensembles and the right axis in the plot shows the standard deviation
 376 in the forecasted wind speed computed over the 50 ensembles. Note that the standard deviation in
 377 the forecasted wind speeds is approximately one percent of the overall mean in the forecasted wind
 378 speeds (taken over the 50 ensemble MDNs). This result implies that the uncertainty arising from
 379 the initialization of the MDN parameters is small, and its contribution to the uncertainty in the
 380 wind speed forecasts is small (viz., essentially negligible).

381 Figure 6 compares the ensemble MDN forecast of the wind power generated by WT#6 with the
 382 measured wind power for this turbine. In addition, this figure shows the 95% confidence interval for
 383 the predicted wind power obtained from the ensemble MDN. Similarly, Fig. 7 shows a comparison
 384 between the measured wind power and the predicted wind power based on the ensemble NARX ANN
 385 model. Finally, Table 2 summarizes the values for the RMSE, MAE, and CRPS measures for the

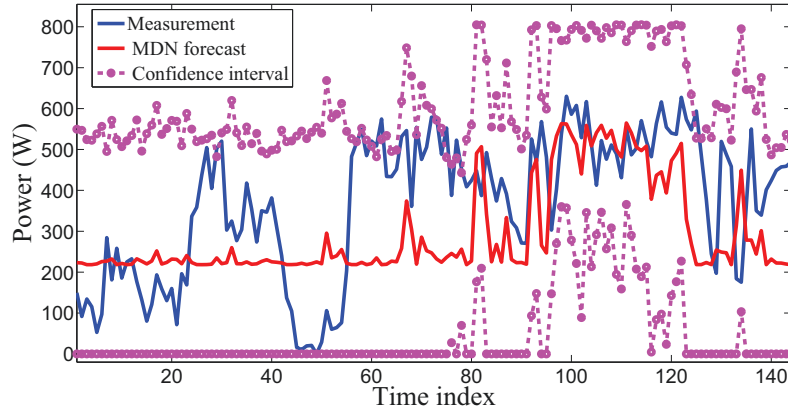


Figure 6: Comparison of the wind power forecast for WT#6 obtained by the ensemble MDN model. The 95% confidence interval for the ensemble MDN forecast of the wind power is shown.

386 wind turbine power forecast obtained from a persistence model, an ensemble NARX ANN model,
 387 an ensemble MDN model, an ensemble GARCH (p, q) model and an ensemble ARMA(p, q) model.
 388 As in the case for wind speed forecasting, it is seen that the ensemble MDN model provides the best
 389 forecast (both deterministic and probabilistic) for the wind turbine power based on the measures of
 390 assessment embodied in RMSE, MAE and CRPS. This forecast is seen to be slightly better than that
 391 provided by the ensemble NARX ANN model (point and probabilistic), and both ensemble neural
 392 network models yield significantly better point forecasts than that given by the persistence model.
 393 This should not be too surprising given the long forecast lead time (72 h). Finally, the ensemble
 394 MDN predictive CDFs exhibited significantly lower values for the CRPS than the predictive CDFs
 395 provided by the ensemble GARCH and ARMA models.

Table 2: Wind power forecast assessment for various cases for WT#6.

Criterion	Persistence	Ensemble NARX ANN	Ensemble MDN	GARCH(p, q)	ARMA(p, q)
RMSE	339.23	176.72	174.38	170.10	187.93
MAE	298.29	149.52	146.50	147.41	163.85
CRPS	n.a.	136.77	133.74	157.45	159.16

396 5. Conclusion

397 An ensemble approach based on mixture density neural networks has been applied to the point
 398 and probabilistic forecasting of wind speed and wind turbine power. The ensemble MDN model

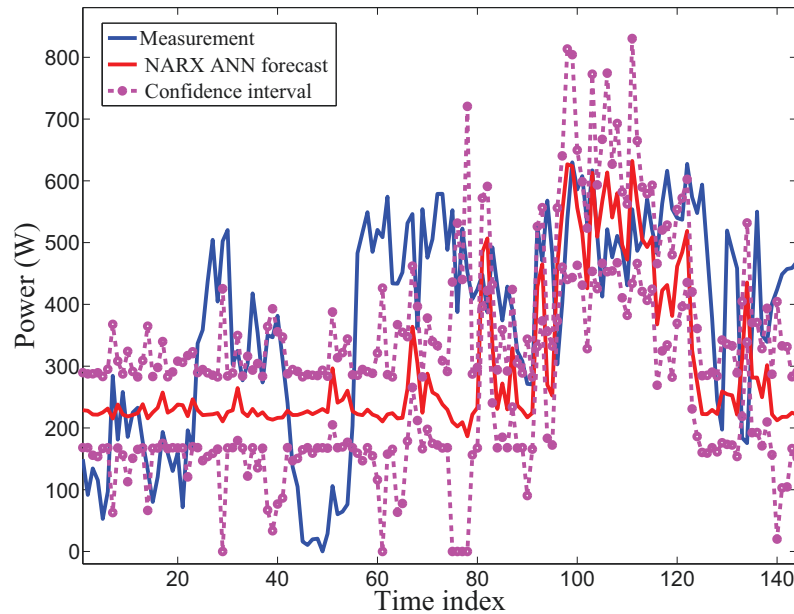


Figure 7: Comparison of the wind power forecast for WT#6 obtained by the ensemble NARX ANN model of Men et al. [8]. The 95% confidence interval for the ensemble NARX ANN forecast of the wind power is shown.

399 provides a semi-automatic procedure for selecting the number of required kernels and hidden units
400 of the mixture density network that is consistent with the number of samples in the training data set
401 without requiring a tedious trial-and-error procedure. An application of the proposed methodology to
402 some measured data (wind speed and power) obtained from a wind turbine in a wind park in Taiwan
403 demonstrated that the methodology works well. The wind speed and power forecasts were generally
404 better than those obtained from an ensemble ANN model based on a NARX structure for both
405 deterministic and probabilistic forecasts of the wind speed and power. In particular, probabilistic
406 forecasts of these two quantities using an ensemble MDN model performed better than an ensemble
407 GARCH or ARMA models (as measured by the CRPS value). Finally, the ensemble MDN model
408 provides an uncertainty quantification for the wind speed and wind turbine power forecasts in the
409 form of a confidence interval at a prescribed confidence level.

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