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# Preliminary Evaluation of a Numerical System of Prediction for Surface Solar Irradiance and Cloudiness in a Site with a Subtropical Humid Climate.

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Article

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Abstract: This study explores a prediction system for global horizontal irradiance and cloudiness in a humid subtropical terrestrial region. This system consists of regional simulations performed 2 with the Weather Research and Forecasting model using the initial and boundary conditions from the Global Forecast System. The predictions show significant biases for the variable of interest, with 4 notable variations within the daily and annual cycles. The study also finds significant biases in 5 cloud incidence and clarity index predictions, with relevant diurnal and seasonal variations. During austral summer, multiplying the relative humidity of initial and boundary conditions by a fixed factor improves the forecasts of global horizontal irradiance and cloud incidence for the central hours of the 8 day and the afternoon. During austral winter, an empirical correction of the clarity index obtained 9 from the simulation's outputs also shows the potential to improve the forecasts' biases. This work 10 proposes a hypothesis about the causes of the forecast biases. 11

**Keywords:** Weather Research and Forecast Model; cloud prediction; humid climate; forecast biases; empirical corrections

## 1. Introduction

Predicting surface irradiance is important in managing large-scale photovoltaic systems, though it can be limited by the poor prediction of cloudiness in humid regions. This study investigates the accuracy of a numerical prediction system for global horizontal irradiance (GHI) at a location in central Uruguay within southeastern South America (SESA).

The relative importance of specific physical processes related to clouds may differ 20 in each region and even in different seasons, which can affect the performance of any 21 given forecast system for GHI. Besides this, the performance of numerical predictions 22 also depends on the availability of data to initialize the numerical simulations, which 23 differ among various regions. Therefore, the conclusions for a specific area are not directly 24 applicable to others. There are several published works about numerical predictions of 25 GHI in humid climates, but very few in SESA. As examples of works of this kind in other 26 humid climates, we can refer to the works by Mathiesen and Kleis (2011) [1], Huang and 27 Thatcher (2017) [2], and Bezerra et al. (2024) [3]. In southeastern South America, Rincón et 28 al. (2018) [4] studied a system of model output statistics to correct numerical simulations 29 of GHI in Paraguay, obtained from the WRF model with initial and boundary conditions 30 obtained from NCEP reanalysis (the simulations were in analysis rather than in forecast 31 mode). The authors considered ground measurements of GHI during 2015 and found that 32 the simulations had significant biases. The uncorrected simulations showed relative bias 33 between 10 and 15 percent during winter and fall and between 20 and 25 % during spring 34 and summer. The relative root mean square errors were, on average, more than 70%. The 35 systems of model output statistics employed reduced the relative bias to values below 5% 36

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and relative RMSE to values from 40 to 60%. Texeira Branco et al. (2022) [5] evaluated GHI 37 forecasts for the first 24 hours in Uruguay, obtained from a NOAA Global Forecast System 38 forecast, comparing them with data from several ground stations available for this study 39 for three years from 2017 to 2019. Their study found a systematic overestimation of GHI, 40 from 3.5% in the central and late hours of the day to 15% during the early hours. However, 41 this study did not show the seasonal cycle of these errors or discuss the compensation of 42 errors during different seasons. 43

The present work explores a specific numerical system for GHI prediction in Uruguay for time horizons within 24 hours. It emphasizes determining the seasonal and daily cycles of the predictions' systematic errors and proposing techniques to alleviate such systematic errors. The methodologies described can be a base for developing an optimized forecast system, although such optimization is beyond the scope of this work. This work also proposes a hypothesis about some of the causes of bias.

Next, we describe the main characteristics of the climate in SESA, especially those aspects associated with clouds, and we point out the numerical predictability of these processes.

SESA is a subtropical region with a humid climate and an average annual precipitation of 1000–1500 mm/year, without a particularly distinct seasonal cycle (Ferreira and Reboita, 2022[6]). It is affected by cyclogenesis processes and the associated frontal developments throughout the year (Gan and Rao 1991 [7], Rao et al. 2002 [8], Vera et al. 2002 [9]). The development of deep convection is also important. It can be associated with frontal processes (Ross and Orlanski, 1978[10], Rassmusen et al. 2016 [11], Siqueira and Machado 2004 [12]) and also with mesoscale convective complexes (MCCs), which are of great importance in the region (Velasco and Fritsch 1987 [13], Salio et al. 2007 [14]). The predictability of baroclinic processes and MCCs is substantial, with numerous studies 61 demonstrating skillful forecasts within 24-hour lead times (Seluski and Saulo 1998 [15], Satyamurti and Bittencourt 1999 [16], Ortelli 2023 [17]). Orteli (2023) [17] analyzed the 63 quality of precipitation predictions obtained from the ensemble forecasts of the United States National Ocean and Atmosphere Administration (NOAA)'s Global Forecast System (GFS) and from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts in a subregion of Uruguay. Their study found significant prediction abilities for both systems within horizons of up to 5 days. The prediction capacity is confirmed for both frontal processes and MCCs. These results suggest that the incidence of clouds related to these processes has good potential for numerical predictability in the region and within the 24-hour temporal horizon considered in this work. These clouds are generally thick, and their tops occur in the middle or upper troposphere.

The region of interest is also affected by low-level cloudiness, including stratocumulus 73 and shallow cumulus clouds. These cloud types are related to shallow convection processes 74 and are affected by the characteristics of the atmospheric boundary layer (ABL). Porrini 75 (2017) [18] studied the 24-hour predictability of solar irradiance at various locations in 76 Uruguay during the austral summer using a forecast system similar to that used here 77 and found that, during the central hours of the day, there was an overestimation of the 78 frequency of clear-sky days, partly attributable to a systematic underestimation of low-level 79 cloudiness. Therefore, cloud prediction should consider synoptic and mesoscale processes 80 as well as cloud development related to shallow convection processes. The predictability of 81 clouds related to synoptic and mesoscale processes is high in the region of interest, whereas 82 the forecasting of low-level clouds directly related to atmospheric boundary layer processes 83 and shallow convection remains challenging. 84

In recent years, there have been considerable advances in the numerical modeling of 85 ABL processes, several of which have been incorporated into the ABL parameterizations 86 available in the Weather Research Forecasting (WRF) model (Skamarock et al. 2017) [19], 87 including the Yon Sei University ABL scheme (Hong et al. 2009) [20] and the Washington 88 University ABL scheme (Bretherton et al. 2004) [21]. Both schemes effectively reproduce 89 marine stratocumulus clouds in the tropical eastern Pacific. Marine stratocumulus clouds 90 are also well simulated by the ABL schemes described by Konor et al. (2009) [22] and Lock (1998) [23]. The predictability of shallow cumulus clouds has also been improved through numerical schemes described by Park and Bretherton (2009) [24], Grell (1993) [25], and Kain and Fritch (1993) [26]. Despite these advances, the predictability of stratocumulus and shallow cumulus clouds can vary in different climates or depend on specific simulation systems.

The objectives of this study are as follows:

- To evaluate primarily the GHI predictions at the study site within a 24-hour horizon. The prediction system consists of regional simulations obtained from the WRF model (Scamarok et al., 2017) [19] with initial and boundary conditions prescribed by the GFS system.
- To evaluate the predictions of clouds with different ranges of cloud-top heights at the study site.
- To evaluate the sensitivity of the GHI and cloudiness predictions to specific initial and boundary condition modifications.

## 2. Data Used and Numerical Experiments

#### 2.1. Global Horizontal irradiance filed data

This work uses GHI measurements from a pyranometer that belongs to a meteoro-108 logical station at the Bonete hydropower plant, located approximately in the middle of 109 Uruguay (see Fig. 1). The station is part of a network that measures wind velocity at 110 heights up to 100 m above the ground and solar radiation near the ground, operated by the 111 National Administration of Electric Power Plants and Transmissions of Uruguay (Usinas 112 y Trasmisiones del Estado; UTE) since 2008. This network is described by Cornalino and 113 Draper (2012) [27], and its measurements (including GHI averaged every 10 min) are made 114 available online by UTE. 115

# 2.2. Numerical Simulations

The regional simulations take their initial and boundary conditions from global predictions made by the GFS. The horizontal grid of the regional simulations has a resolution of 0.25° in the zonal and meridional directions. It has 49 grid points in both directions and is centered at the location of Bonete station (Fig. 1).

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**Figure 1.** Grid points of the horizontal discretization used in the regional simulation. The larger red point indicates the location of Bonete station.

Appendix A shows the vertical discretization used. It has 33 layers; the highest vertical resolution is concentrated in the first three thousand meters. Over Bonete, the thickness of the first 20 layers above the terrain is around 150 meters. The choice of such a high resolution in the lower troposphere was made with the aim of improving the simulation of processes related to shallow convection.

The set of reference simulations extends 24 hours and starts at 0:00GMT daily from November 1st 2018 to October 31st 2023. The parameterizations of physical processes used in the reference simulations are listed in Appendix A.

#### 2.2.1. Modification of Initial and Boundary Conditions

Some simulations in this work modify the water content of the initial and boundary 130 conditions derived from the GFS data. A multiplying factor, called WPS, affects the relative 131 humidity field (RH) that is included in the output files of the WRF preprocessing module. 132 The WPS module, described by Sclamarock et al. (2017)[19], horizontally interpolates 133 meteorological data onto the horizontal grid of the projected domain at the time slices 134 selected to prescribe initial and boundary conditions to the regional simulation. The results 135 of the WPS module are the "met" files, which are used as input to a specific program 136 (real.exe) that completes the build of the files for initial and boundary conditions. The 137 "met" files contain surface and 3-dimensional fields of temperature, total water content in 138

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terms of relative humidity (RH variable), geopotential height, pressure, and the horizontal components of wind speed, as well as the 2-dimensional fields of static terrestrial properties. The water content used to build the initial and boundary conditions is modified as follows: the RH variable is read from the "met" files, multiplied by a uniform factor at all the vertical levels of the "met" files, and re-written to the "met" files. Appendix A shows a scheme of this procedure.

## 2.2.2. Clear-sky simulations and clarity index $(K_c)$

To define GHI for clear sky conditions, we perform simulations for the whole period with the WRF model in the conditions described above, except that inside the short-wave radiation routine, we set the water content of clouds in their liquid, ice, and rain phases to zero. 149

For any given prediction of GHI in any WRF configuration, we define the clarity index  $(K_c)$  as

$$K_{cvredicted} = (predicted GHI) / (clear sky GHI)$$
(1)

where the predicted and the clear-sky GHI correspond to the same instant.

Analogously, for any given measurement of GHI at the pyranometer of Bonete station,  $_{153}$ the observed  $K_c$  is  $_{154}$ 

$$K_{cmeasured} = (measured GHI) / (clear sky GHI).$$
<sup>(2)</sup>

Again, the observation and the clear-sky prediction correspond to the same instant.

#### 2.3. Cloud incidence and cloud top height data from MODIS satellites

This work considers cloud incidence and cloud top height based on analysis of mea-157 surements obtained by MODIS Terra and Aqua satellites, which are made available by 158 NASA's Level-1 and Atmosphere Archive Distribution System (NASA LAADS DAAC). 159 Cloud incidence is taken from MODIS Cloud Mask Products, and cloud top heights are 160 taken from MODIS Cloud Products (Platnick et al., 2015 [28]; King et al., 2003 [29]). 161 Figure 2 shows histograms of the frequency of overpasses through Bonete of the Terra and 162 Aqua satellites as a function of local time (UTC minus 3 hours). The Terra satellite provides 163 information at this site late in the morning and noon, while the Aqua satellite provides 164 information in the early afternoon. 165

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**Figure 2.** Histogram of the frequencies at which the MODIS Terra satellite (green bars) and the MODIS Aqua satellite (blue bars) overpass Bonete for time intervals of the local hour.

### 2.3.1. Mean cloud incidences

The mean incidence of clouds at a specific time of day and during a particular season <sup>167</sup> is defined for both forecasts and MODIS analysis results as <sup>168</sup>

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$$=\frac{Y}{n}$$
(3)

where Y is the number of instances in which forecasts or the MODIS analysis detects clouds over Bonete and n is the total number of days within the season of interest between November 2018 and October 2023. We calculate forecasted and MODIS-diagnosed average incidences when the Terra and Aqua satellites overpass Bonete.

For the forecasts, clouds are considered to be detected if the specific content of cloud 173 liquid water or cloud ice is greater than zero at some point in the vertical grid at the 174 horizontal grid point that corresponds to the Bonete site. Note that cloud detection by 175 MODIS analysis and numerical forecasts are defined differently. The MODIS analysis 176 considers specific properties of radiation measured by the Terra and Aqua satellites (King et 177 al. (2003) [29], Platnick et al. (2021) [30]), but not all of these properties are readily available 178 from the numerical simulations used for the forecasts. On the other hand, water content is 179 available from the simulations but not directly measured by the satellites. Therefore, cloud 180 incidences obtained from MODIS analysis may be considered as a qualitative reference for 181 forecasted cloud incidences, while it is possible to make direct quantitative comparisons 182 between the cloud incidences obtained from different kinds of numerical simulations used 183 in this work. 184

#### 2.4. GHI data from NASA POWER analysis

To complement the field data of the Bonete station, we consider GHI estimates from the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) Langley Research Center (LaRC) Prediction of Worldwide Energy Resource (POWER) Project funded through the NASA Earth Science/Applied Science Program (NASA POWER analysis). This database estimates solar radiation from satellite observations and meteorological data from assimilation models and is described by Lauret et al. (2017) [31].

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2.5. Forecast metrics and statistical significances	192
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## 2.5.1. Relative bias (RBIAS) and RRMSE

If a is the GHI measured at a given hour during a particular month or season and b is the correspondent prediction, the relative bias (RBIAS) is defined as

$$rbias = \frac{\overline{(b - a)}}{\overline{a}} \tag{4}$$

where the overline indicates the average over all the cases within the month or season <sup>196</sup> considered. <sup>197</sup>

The relative root mean square error (RRMSE) is defined as

$$rrmse = \frac{\sqrt{(b - a)^2}}{\overline{a}} \tag{5}$$

2.5.2. Statistical significance for biases and differences of mean cloud incidences

Because biases are differences in means, it is possible to compute their significance with a two-tailed Student t-test as described by Press et al. (1992) **??**. The same test is applied to the differences in bias. 201

The statistical significances of differences in mean cloud incidences between forecasts and MODIS analysis or between different types of forecasts were computed as indicated by Snedeckor and Cochran (1967) [34]. We define the variable z as

$$z = \frac{i_1 - i_2}{\sqrt{i(1 - i)(\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2})}} \tag{6}$$

where  $i_1$  and  $i_2$  are the average incidences to be compared and  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  are the total number of days within the samples. The parameter i is computed as 207

$$i = \frac{Y_1 + Y_2}{n_1 + n_2} \tag{7}$$

In our cases,  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  are equal and correspond to the total number of days within the season of interest from November 2018 to October 2023. The differences are considered statistically significant at the 5% level when the value of z corresponds to a percentile below 0.025 or above 0.975 of a normal distribution with an expected value of zero and a unit standard deviation.

## 3. Results

We assess the availability of solar resources at Bonete based on the average monthly 214 GHI from November 2018 to October 2023 at 10:00, 12:00, 14:00, and 16:00 local time (Fig. 215 3a), along with the corresponding average of measured  $K_c$  indices (Fig. 3b). We find that 216 the  $K_c$  indices have moderate-amplitude daily and annual cycles. 217

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**Figure 3.** (a) Observed monthly means of GHI at Bonete for local times of 10:00, 12:00, 14:00 and 16:00. (b) Monthly means of measured  $K_c$  indices for the same local times considered in (a).

Figure 4 shows the relative biases in the GHI reference predictions compared to the218field measurements for each month at the times of the day considered in Fig. 3. There are219important differences between summer and winter. In the austral summer (DJF), we find220positive biases at 10:00 and, to a greater extent, at 12:00, 14:00, and 16:00. During the austral221winter (JJA), we find pronounced negative biases at 10:00 and, to a lesser extent, at 12:00222and 16:00.223



**Figure 4.** Relative bias for the reference forecast of GHI at Bonete for each month at 10:00, 12:00, 14:00, and 16:00, local time.

As a complement to this information, Fig. 5 shows the relative bias of GHI forecasts for each local hour from 10:00 to 16:00 for the bimesters January–February, March–April, May– June, July–August, September–October, and November–December. During the November– December and January–February bimesters, the forecasts underestimated GHI in the early morning and overestimated it at noon and in the afternoon. During the May–June and July– August bimesters, the relative bias is reduced during the central hours but is significantly negative in the early morning and late afternoon.



**Figure 5.** Relative bias for the reference forecast of GHI at Bonete as a function of local time, from 10:00 to 16:00. (a) September–October, November–December, and January–February bimesters. (b) March–April, May–June, and July–August bimesters.

Significant biases in a deterministic prediction system imply systematic errors in one or more components and limit the system's performance in practice. Considering the seasonality of the biases, we focus on the periods between November and February (NDJF), which shows the most considerable positive biases during the central and afternoon hours, 231 232 233 234 235 235 236 236 237 237 238 and between May and August (MJJA), which exhibits the most significant negative bias in the morning. Although there is some level of arbitrariness in the choice of these seasons, they allow us to sample the seasonal cycle in seasons that show essential differences in terms of the systematic errors of the forecasts.

We analyze the prediction biases and other performance metrics of GHI forecasts throughout the day during these seasons, along with the incidence of predicted clouds, averaged according to the pass times of the Terra and Aqua satellites, and compare these values with the corresponding MODIS analyses. 240

### 3.1. The NDJF season

Several WRF parameterizations, including the WRF-Solar model, were tested to improve predictions, but all underestimated cloud incidence and overestimated GHI during the central hours of the day and the afternoon. However, two alternative methodologies improved the systematic deviations of the predictions without compromising the other forecast metrics considered. 246

- The initial and boundary conditions of the simulations were modified by systematically increasing RH by a factor of 1.2. Although this is a simple modification (independent of the vertical level and geographic location), it allows for a preliminary exploration of predictions' sensitivity to changes in this variable.
- We tested forecasts that used the Yonsei University ABL scheme (Hong et al. 2006??) and an increased RH of the initial and boundary conditions as explained above (YSUBL-RHx1.2 simulations); forecasts that used the Washington University ABL scheme (Bretherton et al. 2004??) with the same modification of initial and boundary conditions (WUBL-RHx1.2); and a composite forecast that considered for each hour the forecast among these two that produced the lowest GHI value. These predictions were called COMP.

Figure 6 shows the relative biases in the reference, YSUBL-RHx1.2, WUBL-RHx1.2, and 260 COMP predictions for NDJF between 8:00 and 18:00 local time during the years 2018–2019 261 and 2022–2023. The reference forecasts show a sizable negative bias at 8:00, which evolves 262 into a strong positive bias exceeding 10% from 11:00 onward. These biases are statistically 263 significant at a 5% level at each round hour. Between 8:00 and 10:00, the YSUBL-RXx1,2, 264 WUBL-RHx1.2, and COMP forecasts have negative biases worse than those of the reference 265 forecast, while the new ones improve the positive biases of the reference forecasts from 266 12:00 onward. The COMP forecast bias improves the YSUBL-RHx1.2 and UWBL-RHx1.2 267 forecasts from 16:00 to 18:00. As for the statistical significance of these differences, the 268 biases of the YSUBL-RHx1.2, UWABL-RHx1.2, and COMP forecasts are different from 269 the bias of the reference forecasts, with statistical significance at a 5% level from 8:00 to 270 18:00. In addition, the bias of the COMP forecasts is different from the biases of both the 271 YSUBL-RHx1.2 and UWABL-RHx1.2 forecasts, with statistical significance at a 5% level 272 from 16:00 to 18:00. 273



**Figure 6.** Relative bias of GHI forecasted at Bonete during the NDJF season, as a function of local time. Black, reference forecast; blue, YSUBL-RHx1.2 forecast; magenta, WUBL-RHx1,2 forecast; red, COMP forecast.

The biases found for the reference forecast indicate errors in predicting the incidence or thickness of clouds. However, based only on the information from the simulations, we cannot deduce the relative importance of these factors or whether they are concentrated in specific altitude ranges. We compare the simulation results with cloud information derived from MODIS Terra and Aqua satellite data to gain insights. 278

Table 1 indicates the percentage of days within these seasons when clouds are predicted 279 at the passing times of the Terra satellite by the four schemes considered in Fig. 6 and the 280 corresponding percentage when the MODIS analysis indicates the presence of clouds. It 281 also considers subpopulations of clouds with tops above and below 3000 m to distinguish 282 between mid/high and low clouds. For the reference forecasts, the mean predicted cloud 283 incidence is smaller than the corresponding MODIS analysis in all categories by 10-15%, 284 with these differences being statistically significant to a 5% level (according to the test 285 described in Section 2). The YSUBL-RHx1.2, WUBL-RHx1.2, and COMP forecasts increase 286 cloud incidences in all categories, reaching values similar to those from MODIS analysis. 287

Cloud incidences at times of MODIS Terra overpasses			
	All clouds	Clouds tops > 3000m	Cloud tops < 3000m
Reference forecasts	24.8	19.7	5.0
YSUBL-RHx1.2 forecasts	40.1	25.0	15.1
WUBL-RHx1.2 forecasts	39.4	26.6	12.8
COMP forecasts	45.3	26.4	18.9
Diagnosed by MODIS	40.9	27.7	13.2

**Table 1.** Cloud incidences at times when the Terra satellite overpasses Bonete during NDJF, forecasted by the reference, YSUBL-RHx1.2, WUBL-RHx1.2, and COMP predictions and diagnosed by MODIS.

The first column of Table 2 shows the mean predicted  $K_c$  index for cases when pre-288 dictions indicate clouds at times that the Terra satellite overpasses Bonete (first to fourth 289 rows) and the mean measured  $K_c$  index for cases when the Terra satellite effectively detects 290 clouds (fifth row). The second and third columns are analogous to the first for clouds with 291 tops >3000 m (second column) or <3000 m (third column). The predicted and measured  $K_c$ 292 indices are similar on average for the reference forecasts. The predictions have more clarity 293 in high-cloud cases and less in low-cloud cases. The YSU-RHx1.2, WU-RHx1.2, and COMP 294 predictions have a mean  $K_c$  slightly lower than reference predictions and measures. 295 **Table 2.** Mean  $K_c$  indexes at times when the Terra satellite overpasses Bonete. The first row shows mean  $K_c$  indexes from reference predictions when these predictions determined clouds over Bonete at times of Terra overpasses. The second, third, and fourth rows are analogous to the YSUBL-RHx1.2, WUBL-RHx1.2, and COMP predictions. The fifth row shows the mean measured  $K_c$  indexes when MODIS analysis detected clouds at times of Terra overpasses Bonete.

$K_c$ index at times of Terra overpasses			
	All clouds	Clouds tops > 3000m	Cloud tops < 3000m
<i>K<sub>c</sub></i> form reference forecasts	.54	.55	.50
K <sub>c</sub> from YSUBL-RHx1.2 forecasts	.50	.48	.53
$K_c$ from WUBL-RHx1.2 forecasts	.51	.47	.59
<i>K<sub>c</sub></i> from COMP forecasts	.49	.46	.52
$K_c$ from measurements	.56	.49	.72

Tables 3 and 4 are analogous to Tables 1 and 2 but refer to the Aqua satellite data. 296 The reference predictions have lower mean cloudiness than MODIS analysis in all the 297 categories, with magnitudes similar to those for the Terra satellite (Table 3). The differences 298 are statistically significant to a level of 5%. In addition, the average clarity from the 299 reference forecasts for predicted cloudy cases is higher than that for measured cloudy cases 300 for all categories. The cloud incidences for the YSUBL-RHx1.2, WUBL-RHx1.2, and COMP 301 forecasts are significantly higher than the reference predictions and similar to the MODIS 302 analysis, particularly in the WUBL-RHx1.2 and COMP simulations. The mean  $K_c$  indexes 303 from the YSUBL-RHx1.2, WUBL-RHx1.2, and COMP forecasts are also more similar to the 304 mean  $K_c$  obtained from observations compared to the reference simulations. 305

Table 3. Analogous to Table 1 for Aqua overpasses.

Cloud incidences at times of MODIS Aqua overpasses			
	All clouds	Clouds tops > 3000m	Cloud tops < 3000m
Reference forecasts	27.3	22.3	5.0
YSUBL-RHx1.2 forecasts	31.8	26.4	5.4
WUBL-RHx1.2 forecasts	37.2	28.5	8.7
COMP forecasts	39.1	29.1	10.0
MODIS analysis	39.1	28.3	10.8

$K_c$ at times of Aqua overpasses				
	All clouds	Clouds tops > 3000m	Cloud tops < 3000m	
<i>K<sub>c</sub></i> from reference forecasts	.71	.69	.80	
K <sub>c</sub> from YSUBL-RHx1.2 forecasts	.64	.60	.81	
0 K <sub>c</sub> from WUBL-RHx1.2 forecasts	.63	.58	.83	
$K_c$ from COMP forecasts	.62	.56	.80	
$K_c$ from measures	.58	.53	.70	

Table 4. Analogous to Table 2 for Aqua overpasses.

In summary, the apparent underestimation of predicted cloud incidence compared 306 with the MODIS data during the Terra satellite overpasses is consistent with the overesti-307 mation of predicted GHI in the late morning. Meanwhile, the apparent underestimation of 308 predicted clouds and overestimation of the average clarity index at the times of the Aqua 309 satellite overpasses is consistent with an overestimation of the GHI in the early afternoon, 310 which is relatively higher than that in the late morning. 311

To gain insights into the differences in cloud incidence predictions obtained from the 312 forecast systems considered, we plot their mean cloud incidences for each hour from 6:00 (around sunrise during NDJF) to 18:00. Figure 7 shows the cloud incidence frequency during NDJF for each hour from 8:00 to 18:00 based on the different forecasts for cloud tops 315 higher than 3000 m (Fig. 7a), <3000 m (Fig. 7b), and lower than 1000 m (Fig. 7c) 316



Figure 7. Forecasted cloud incidences during the NDJF season as a function of local time. Black, reference forecast; blue, YSUBL-RHx1.20 forecast; magenta, WUBL-RHx1.2 forecast; red, COMP forecast. (a) Clouds with tops >3000m. (b) Clouds with tops below 3000m. (c) Clouds with tops <1000m.

For high clouds, the YSUBL-RHx1.2, WUBL-RHx1.2, and COMP forecasts have similar 317 incidences, which are higher than those in the reference forecasts. In all forecasts, there is a 318 slight increase throughout the day. In contrast, low cloud cover shows a higher incidence 319 in the morning for all forecasts. From 8:00 to 11:00, the YSUBL-RHx1.2, WUBL-RHx1.2, and 320 COMP forecasts show a notable increase in incidence compared to the reference forecasts. 321 Such an increase may not be realistic during the early morning hours (8:00–9:00), when the 322 YSUBL-RHx1.2, WUBL-RHx1.2, and COMP forecasts show stronger negative GHI biases 323 than those in the reference forecasts. 324

Between 10:00 and 12:00, the incidence of low clouds decreased across all forecasts. 325 Compared to the MODIS analysis, the reference forecasts underestimate the low cloud 326 incidence during this time, whereas the other forecasts slightly overestimate it. From 327

10:00 to 18:00, all forecasts show a relatively stable mean cloud incidence, with the YSUBL-<br/>RHx1.2, WUBL-RHx1.2, and COMP forecasts showing slightly higher incidences than the<br/>reference forecasts. In the early afternoon, the WUBL-RHx1.2 and COMP forecasts have<br/>average cloud incidences similar to the MODIS measurement based on the Aqua satellite<br/>data. There is also a significant reduction in positive biases in the reference simulation<br/>starting at 12:00.320

A possible hypothesis regarding the performance of the reference predictions during 334 this season is that the global predictions on which the regional simulations are based may 335 have RH biases that depend on the level of the troposphere. The RH in the initial conditions 336 may be realistic within the first 1000 m but not at higher levels, where it may have a 337 negative RH bias. As the day progresses, ABL and shallow convection processes affect 338 higher levels. The entire ABL becomes dryer since it mixes with relatively dry air, possibly 339 contributing to underestimating low clouds after late morning. On the other hand, the 340 possibility of overestimating surface heat fluxes can be another alternative hypothesis, also 341 consistent with a progressive underestimation of low clouds. Fig. 10 shows the average 342 ABL height and upward surface heat flux at Bonete for the reference simulations. The 343 results for the other simulations are similar and are not presented here. The negative RH 344 bias at the middle and higher tropospheres may contribute to the reference simulations' 345 underestimation of clouds at these levels. Field measurement campaigns are necessary to 346 verify the proposed hypothesis, as discussed in Section 4. 347



**Figure 8.** (a) Mean forecasted ABL height above the surface at Bonete during the NDJF season as a function of local time. (b) is analogous to (a) for forecasted upward heat flux from the surface.

Thus far, we have analyzed the biases in the GHI predictions, as well as the means of cloud incidence and  $K_c$  indices. As a measure of random errors, we include the RRMSE of the GHI predictions for each hour between 8:00 and 18:00 (Fig. 9). Between 8:00 and 10:00, the YSUBL-RHx1.2, WUBL-RHx1.2, and COMP forecasts exhibit higher errors than the reference forecasts. From 11:00 onward, the errors are similar. From 14:00 onward, the errors in the YSUBL-RHx1.2 and WUBL-RHx1.2 forecasts are lower than those in the reference forecasts. 354



**Figure 9.** Relative RMSE of GHI forecasts at Bonete, during NDJF season, as a function of local time. Black, reference forecast, blue, YSUBL-RHx1.20; magenta, WUBL-RHx1.2, red, COMP forecast.

Fig. 10 shows the error distributions for clarity index predictions during the central 355 hours of the day (11:00–17:00) for both the reference and COMP forecasts. The errors in the 356 reference forecasts show a markedly asymmetrical distribution, which is consistent with the 357 bias. In contrast, the errors in the COMP forecasts show a more symmetrical distribution, 358 indicating an improvement. Therefore, the prediction performance of the alternative 359 prediction systems is inferior to the reference simulation in the morning hours but exhibits 360 less bias and more symmetrical error distributions after 12:00. This improvement is achieved 361 with no corresponding increase in random errors during these hours. 362



**Figure 10.** Histograms of forecast errors for the clarity index during NDJF, from 12:00 to 18:00 local time. (a) Reference forecasts. (b) COMP forecasts.

## 3.2. MJJA Season

Figure 11 shows the relative bias in the GHI reference predictions for the MJJA seasons between 2019 and 2023 for each hour between 9:00 and 16:00. Biases are negative throughout the day and significant from 9:00 to 12:00 and at 16:00. Moderate negative biases are observed during the central hours of the day (13:00 to 15:00).



Figure 11. The relative bias of GHI from the reference forecasts at Bonete during the MJJA season.

Table 5 shows the cloud incidence forecast provided by the reference forecasts when the $_{368}$ Terra satellite overpasses Bonete and the incidence diagnosed by the MODIS analysis. Table $_{369}$ 6 shows the average  $K_c$  predicted by these simulations when predictions indicate cloud $_{370}$ incidence during the Terra satellite overpass and the  $K_c$  obtained from GHI measurements $_{371}$ in Bonete when the MODIS analysis detects clouds. $_{372}$ 

Table 5. Analogous to Table 1 for the MJJA season.

Cloud incidences at times of Terra overpasses			
	All clouds	Clouds tops > 3000m	Cloud tops < 3000m
Reference forecasts	47.2	25.4	21.8
MODIS Analysis	51.9	32.4	19.5

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$K_c$ at times of Terra overpasses			
	All clouds	Clouds tops > 3000m	Cloud tops < 3000m
<i>K<sub>c</sub></i> from reference forecasts	.35	.36	.34
$K_c$ from measures	.54	.50	.60

Table 6. Analogous to table 2, for MJJA season.

Tables 7 and 8 are analogous to Tables 5 and 6 for the Aqua satellite overes. The 373 reference simulations do not appear to overestimate cloud incidence (Tables 9 and 11), 374 which does not contribute to explaining the underestimation of GHI in the predictions. 375 However, such underestimation is consistent with the apparent underestimation of  $K_c$ 376 shown in Table 10 and, to a lesser extent, in Table 12. 377

Table 7. Analogous to Table 10 for the Aqua satellite.

Cloud incidences at times of Aqua overpasses			
	All clouds	Clouds tops > 3000m	Cloud tops < 3000m
Reference forecasts	44.3	24.8	19.5
MODIS Analysis	54.2	36.0	18.2

Table 8. Analogous to Table 10 for the Aqua satellite

	Mean $K_c$ at times of Aqua overes		
	All clouds	Clouds tops > 3000m	Cloud tops < 3000m
$K_c$ from reference forecasts	.41	.39	.43
$K_c$ from measures	.53	.49	.59

To explore possible empirical corrections of the predictions, we compute  $K_c$  for each 378 forecast of GHI at Bonete and deduce a new  $K_c$  index,  $K'_c$ , as a convex linear combination 379 between 1.0 and the original  $K_c$ . 380

$$K_c' = \alpha + (1 - \alpha)K_c \tag{8}$$

where  $\alpha$  is a parameter between 0 and 1 to be set empirically. Note that  $K_c < K'_c < 1$ , 381  $K'_c \to 1$  if  $\alpha \to 1$  and  $K'_c \to K_c$  if  $\alpha \to 0$ . 382

Then, the corrected forecast of GHI would be

corrected GHI fcst = (clear sky GHI).
$$K'_c$$
 (9)

To test this methodology, we select an alpha value of 0.2. The corrected forecasts show 384 significant differences in bias at all hours. The absolute negative bias improves from 8:00 to 385 12:00 and decreases at 16:00. From 13:00 to 15:00, the corrected forecasts show a positive 386 bias, with an absolute value larger than the original forecast. Figure 12b shows the RRMSE 387 of the reference and corrected predictions. The corrected forecasts have a smaller RRMSE 388 than the reference for all hours considered. 389



Figure 12. The relative bias of GHI from the reference forecasts at Bonete during the MJJA season.

To complement the field data of the Bonete station, we consider GHI estimates from NASA POWER analysis (referred to in Section 2) in two additional locations in Uruguay, located about 170km north and south of Bonete. The results are shown in Appendix B. The biases at these locations are consistent with those obtained from the Bonete station.

#### 4. Conclusions

This study primarily evaluates a numerical system's performance in predicting GHI at a representative site in Uruguay, SESA, a humid subtropical region. The reference predictions have significant biases, with notable variations within the daily and annual cycles. This study also found significant biases in cloud incidence and clarity index predictions, with relevant diurnal and seasonal variations.

This work proposes methodologies that can improve the predictions; these are as follows:

- Modifications to the initial and boundary conditions of the numerical simulation;
- Post-processing of the simulation results.

Each of these methodologies has positive impacts on specific parts of the seasonal and diurnal cycles, and thus there is potential to combine them to optimize the forecast system's general performance. This work also proposes a hypothesis about the reasons for the prediction system's systematic errors.

Next, we present a summary of our findings.

In austral summer, the reference predictions underestimate GHI in the morning hours 409 and overestimate GHI from 12:00 onward, with differences of about 10% in the observed 410

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mean GHI. When the Terra and Aqua satellites overpass the location of interest (late 411 morning and early afternoon, respectively), the reference predictions underestimate the 412 incidence of clouds, particularly for the Aqua satellite. We tested various parameterizations, 413 including the WRF-Solar model, but the systematic deviations in the cloud incidence and 414 GHI of the reference simulations remained. Adjusting the RH of the initial and boundary 415 conditions by a factor of 1.20 has a significant impact. Although these simulations show 416 worse bias in the morning hours compared to the reference, from 12:00 onward, there is a 417 significant improvement in bias without an increase in the RRMSE, likely due to an increase 418 in cloud incidence and, to a lesser extent, a decrease in  $K_c$ . We subsequently tested the 419 performance of simulations involving two ABL schemes—YSU and WSU—and considered 420 the lowest GHI prediction at Bonete for each hour. This combination produces moderate 421 but statistically significant improvements in bias during the late afternoon. The histogram 422 of errors of the COMP prediction is noticeably more symmetric than that of the reference 423 simulation from 12:00 to 17:00. Moderate skewness is a desirable property for the practical 424 use of a forecast system. 425

During austral winter, we observe a significant underestimation of GHI during much of the day, specifically from 8:00 to 10:00 and in the late afternoon. These biases are consistent with underestimating the mean  $K_c$  during the Terra and Aqua satellite overpasses. We employ a post-processing procedure in which  $K_c$  is recalculated, significantly improving relative bias. However, further research is needed to verify the role of this correction. 426

To complement the field data of the site used in this study, Bonete station, we considered GHI estimates from NASA POWER analysis in two additional locations in Uruguay, about 170 km north and south of Bonete. The biases at these locations are consistent with those obtained from the Bonete station (Appendix B).

### 5. Discussion

The current work is exploratory, and because GHI numerical predictions in SESA are so far scarcely documented, it is necessary. The findings can contribute to optimizing a GHI prediction system in the region, particularly the proposed techniques to alleviate biases. However, such optimization would imply actions beyond this work's scope.

In more detail, a fully operative forecast system requires putting into practice some 440 actions additional to those described in this work: 441

- Optimizing the actions that were adequate to alleviate systematic errors—in particular, tuning the parameters that modified the initial and boundary conditions, or the kc index, depending on the time of the day and the time of the annual cycle.
- Using ensembles of forecasts based on global predictions with perturbed initial conditions. NOAA GFS produces ensembles of 30 such runs four times per day. Ensembles of several members require empirical adjustments of the forecast dispersion to make such dispersion a valuable measure of confidence intervals for the operative predictions or to express the forecast in probabilistic terms.
- Considering ensembles of forecasts based on global predictions of different origins.

Most of this study focuses on data from a pyranometer at a central Uruguay station and cloud diagnostics from MODIS analysis. To consider other locations within Uruguay and data from other sources, we use estimations of GHI from satellite measurements provided by the NASA POWER database. The results in these locations are consistent with those obtained with the GHI data from the station at Bonete, particularly the diurnal variation of the forecast's relative biases during the seasons selected to sample its annual cycle.

A possible hypothesis for the performance of the reference predictions during austral summer is that the global predictions on which the regional simulations are based may have RH biases that depend on the level of the troposphere. The RH in the initial conditions may be realistic within the first 1000 m but not at higher levels, where it may have a negative RH bias. This may reduce low-level clouds as the day progresses due to the relatively dry

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mix into the ABL. In addition, negative RH bias in the middle and higher tropospheres 463 may contribute to the reference simulations' underestimation of clouts at these levels. 464

An alternative hypothesis is that the model underestimates the cloudiness due to 465 parameterization errors. In this case, the RH modification may improve the predictions 466 by compensating for errors. The initial conditions provided by the GFS system were com-467 pared with ERA analysis, finding very similar vertical profiles of temperature and specific 468 humidity in the region of interest (these comparisons are not shown here). Consequently, 469 future studies should consider conducting surveys of the vertical profile of the troposphere 470 to a height of at least 5000 m during summer at various times of the day, which would be 471 economically feasible using drones equipped with meteorological sensors. These data can 472 then be combined with WRF models and nested large eddy simulations to understand the 473 simulation dynamics better. These data can also be used to evaluate the performance of the 474 radiosonde measurement network currently operational in the region and identify areas 475 for improving measurements' frequency and geographic density to provide more accurate 476 initial conditions for predicting atmospheric processes that impact GHI. 477

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Conflicts	of Interest: The author declares no conflicts of interest.
MDPI	Multidisciplinary Digital Publishing Institute
DOAJ	Directory of open access journals

TLA Three letter acronym

LD Linear dichroism

## Appendix A

Appendix A.1

The setting of the WRF model used in this work is similar to that of the work by 491 Cazes Boezio and Ortelli (2019) [35]. The horizontal resolution is 0.25°. Figure 1 shows the 492 grid points used to compute air temperature, pressure, density, and vertical velocity. The 493 meridional and zonal components of wind are computed in points staggered by one-half of 494 the horizontal resolution in the zonal and the meridional directions, respectively, according to the Arakawa C-grid. The vertical resolution considers 33 layers in the vertical direction. 496 The model vertical coordinate is  $\eta$ , defined as 497

$$\eta = \frac{p_d - p_T}{p_S - p_T} \tag{A1}$$

where  $p_d$  is the hydrostatic component of dry air pressure at a particular atmosphere level 498 and  $p_S$  and  $p_T$  are the analogous pressures at the Earth's surface and the atmosphere 499 conventional top, respectively. The atmosphere top was set to 50 hPa. Table A1 gives the 500 values of  $\eta$  at each layer interface. 501

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Layer number	$\eta$ at layer top	Layer number	$\eta$ at layer top	Layer number	$\eta$ at layer top
1	.987	12	.848	23	.709
2	.975	13	.836	24	.697
3	.961	14	.823	25	.684
4	.950	15	.811	26	.662
5	.937	16	.798	27	.624
6	.924	17	.785	28	.568
7	.912	18	.773	29	.494
8	.899	19	.760	30	.403
9	.886	20	.747	32	.295
10	.874	21	.735	32	.163
11	.861	22	.722	33	0.00

**Table A1.**  $\eta$  values at the top of each layer of the vertical discretization.

The horizontal velocities and the air temperature are computed inside each layer, while the vertical velocity is computed at the layer interfaces, according to the Lorenz vertical grid arrangement [1].

The parameterizations of physical processes used in this work are shown in Table A2. 505

Table A2. Parameterizarions of physical processes.

Physical Process	Scheme used
Short Wave Radiation	Dudia scheme [36]
Long Wave Radiation	RRTM scheme [37]
Surface Layer	Revised MM5 surface layer [38]
Atmospheric Boundary Layer	Yonsei University scheme [20]
Microphysics	Hong et al. scheme [39]
Cumulus Precipitation	Simplified Arakawa Schubert scheme [40]
Gravity Wave Drag	Kim Arakawa scheme [41]
Land Processes	Noah and surface model [42]

Figure A1 shows the procedure for producing initial and boundary conditions for the WRF simulations with the WPS module and the real.exe program. It also shows the procedure for modifying the total water content (RH variable) at the "met" files.



**Figure A1.** Scheme of the process to generate initial and boundary conditions with the WPS module and real.exe program and to modify the relative humidity variable of the "met" files.

## Appendix B

#### Appendix B.1

In order to test the forecast results in contrast with data from the ground station at 511 Bonete, we also used GHI estimations from the NASA POWER database. This database 512 uses inter-res surface insolation values from satellite observations. The GHI measurements 513 at Bonete were contrasted with the corresponding NASA power estimates. The mean GHI 514 obtained from each source differs by less than 5%, and the correlation of hourly data is 515 above 0.90 for most of the hours and months. In this Appendix, we show the relative bias of 516 forecasted GHI compared to NASA POWER estimates for two other locations in Uruguay, 517 at two points situated at the exact longitude of Bonete, one of them to the south of this site, 518 close to the coast, and other to the North, in a more Mediterranean location. These points 519

are named P South and P North, and their coordinates are 34.30°S, 56.42°W and 31.30°S, 56.42°W, respectively (see Fig. A2). 521



**Figure A2.** Location of P South and P North points.

Figure A3 shows the relative bias at these locations for the NDJF season as a function 522 of local time (analogous to Fig. 5). It also shows the COMP forecast results. The biases of the 523 reference forecast are very similar to those found in Bonete in Fig. 5; early morning forecasts 524 underestimate the GHI from NASA POWER estimates, while during the central hours of 525 the day and late afternoon, the predictions overestimate GHI from the analysis by 10% or 526 more. As with the results in Bonete, the COMP forecasts worsen the underestimation of 527 GHI during the early morning but improve the bias markedly during the central hours and 528 late afternoon. The results of COMP forecasts reduced RRMSE slightly during the central 529 hours of the day and the afternoon (this is not shown here). 530



**Figure A3.** a) The relative bias of GHI from the reference forecasts during the NDJF season (continuous blue line) and from the COMP forecasts (dashed red line) with respect to NASA POWER data at the P South location. b) is analogous to a) for the P North location.

During MJJA (Fig A4), the results showed a substantial underestimation during the morning hours, similar to that for the Bonete station, and to a lesser extent during late afternoon. The empirical corrections of the Kc index from the model output improved the bias significantly without worsening the RRMSE during the morning hours (this is not shown here).



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**Figure A4.** a) The relative bias of GHI from the reference forecasts with respect to NASA POWER data at the P South location. b) is analogous to a) for the P North location.

In conclusion, the data from NASA POWER and Bonete station validate each other reciprocally, and the results obtained at Bonete apply to wider regions of Uruguay.

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