

1                   **Analysis and Prediction of Summer Rainfall over Southwestern Utah**

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## ABSTRACT

While many studies have examined intense rainfall and flash flooding during the North American Monsoon (NAM) in Arizona, Nevada, and New Mexico, less attention has focused on the NAMS's extension into southwestern Utah. This study relates flash flood reports and Multi-Radar Multi-Sensor (MRMS) precipitation across southwestern Utah to atmospheric moisture content and instability analyses and forecasts from the High-Resolution Rapid Refresh (HRRR) model during the 2021-23 monsoon seasons.

MRMS quantitative precipitation estimates over southwestern Utah during summer depend largely on the areal coverage from the KICX WSR-88D radar near Cedar City, UT. Those estimates are generally consistent with the limited number of precipitation gauge reports in the region except at extended distances from the radar. A strong relationship is evident between days with widespread precipitation and afternoons with above average precipitable water (PWAT) and convective available potential energy (CAPE) estimated from HRRR analyses across the region.

Time-lagged ensembles of HRRR forecasts (initialization times from 03-06 UTC) that are 13-18 h prior to the afternoon period when convection is initiating (18-21 UTC) are useful for situational awareness of widespread precipitation events after adjusting for underprediction of afternoon CAPE. Improved skill is possible using random forest classification relying only on PWAT and CAPE to predict days experiencing excessive (upper quartile) precipitation. Such HRRR predictions may be useful for forecasters at the Salt Lake City National Weather Service Forecast Office to assist issuing flash flood potential statements for visitors to national parks and other recreational areas in the region.

## SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT

Summer flash floods in southwestern Utah are a risk to area residents and millions of visitors annually to the region's national parks, monuments, and recreational areas. The likelihood of flash floods within the region's catchments depends on intense afternoon and early evening convection initiated by lift and instability primarily due to terrain-flow interactions over elevated plateaus and mountains. Forecasts at lead times of 13-18 h of moisture and instability from the operational High Resolution Rapid Refresh model have potential to predict summer afternoons that are likely to have increased risks for higher rainfall amounts across southwestern Utah, although they are not expected to predict the likelihood of flash floods in any specific locale.

## 62 1. Introduction

63 The summer North American Monsoon (NAM) is responsible for frequent intense  
64 convection along the Mexican cordillera and over the mountain ranges of the Southwestern United  
65 States (Douglas et al. 1993; Dunn and Horel 1994a, b; Maddox et al. 1995; Adams and Comrie  
66 1997; Yang et al. 2019; Boos and Pascale 2021). Many studies have looked at the conditions  
67 leading to extreme precipitation events associated with the NAM in this region and ways to predict  
68 their occurrence (Gutzler et al. 2009; Serra et al. 2016; Risanto et al. 2021). Not surprisingly, the  
69 fundamental building blocks for intense convection are necessary: lift, instability, and moisture  
70 (Doswell et al. 1996). Afternoon surface heating of elevated terrain provides the orographic lift  
71 that aids thunderstorm development (Maddox et al. 1979, Schumacher 2017). Mazon et al. (2016)  
72 classified extreme NAM weather events primarily in Arizona based on atmospheric instability,  
73 precipitable water vapor, and upper level conditions.

74 Smith et al. (2019) provide a detailed climatological evaluation of the seasonality and  
75 locations of thunderstorms in northern Arizona and southern Utah. Their study was motivated by  
76 flash floods in Hilldale, UT and within Zion National Park on 14 September 2015 that resulted in  
77 20 fatalities, which account for nearly two-thirds of the total flash flood deaths during the past 25  
78 NAM seasons in southwestern Utah. They note on the basis of lightning, radar, and streamflow  
79 records that the underlying terrain and synoptic/mesoscale setting modulate the occurrence and  
80 track of thunderstorms within the region. They also note that flash flood water volumes in the  
81 region's watersheds are unrelated to basin scale, as is often the case in other regions of the United  
82 States where flash flooding may result from widespread heavy precipitation. Rather, the flash flood  
83 response is tied to the spatial scale of thunderstorms (10-50 km<sup>2</sup>) and their proximity to the small  
84 catchments upstream of slot canyons and channel narrows.

85 Figure 1 illustrates the seven-county region of southwestern Utah that is the focus for this  
86 study. This 64,000 km<sup>2</sup> region, larger than 10 U.S. states, encompasses low-lying deserts and  
87 scattered forests confined generally to the slopes and high plateaus of the western extent of the  
88 Colorado Plateau region. Prominent high elevation features of the region include from west to east  
89 the Pine Valley Mountains and Markagunt, Paunsaugunt, Kaiparowits, and Aquarius Plateaus. The  
90 Cedar City WSR-88D radar is sited at an elevation of 3230 m on the Markagunt Plateau (Fig.1).  
91 Although there are only ~200,000 permanent residents in the region, over 10 million visits are  
92 recorded annually to the national parks, monuments, and recreation areas within the region. Zion

93 National Park alone receives over 5 million visits while the other major destinations (Bryce,  
 94 Capitol Reef, and Glen Canyon) receive between 1-3 million visitors annually.

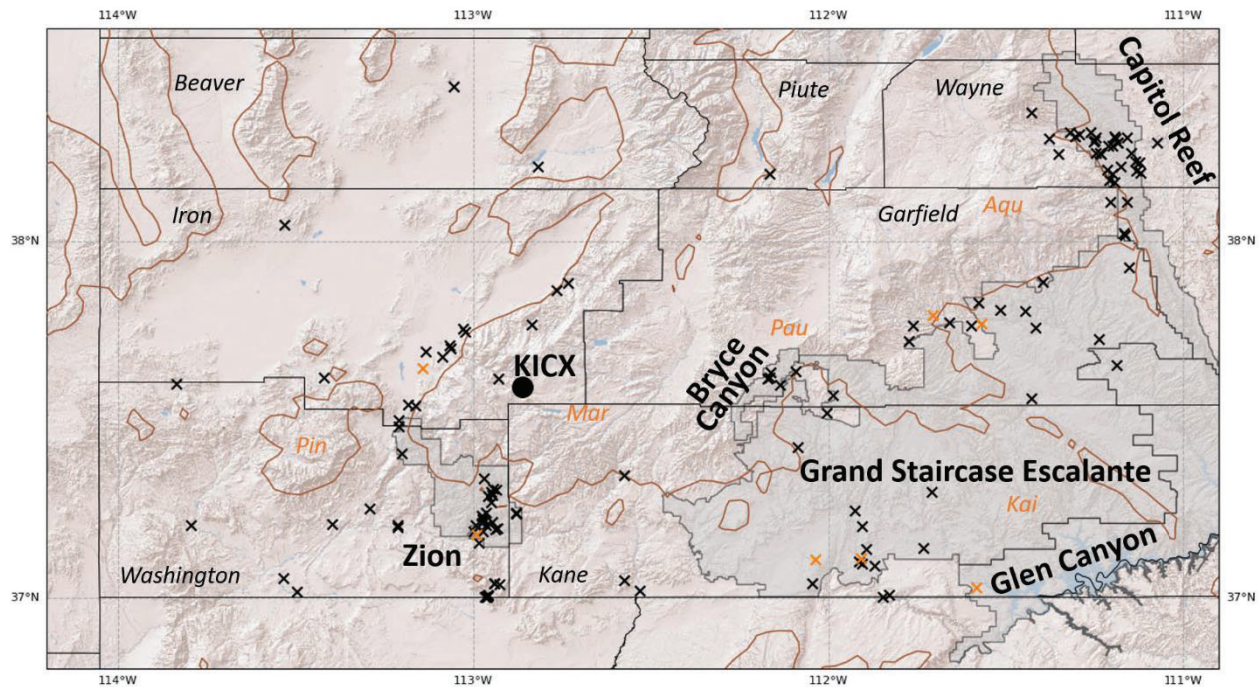


Fig. 1. Southwestern Utah with shaded terrain, brown 2000 m elevation contour, and black county outlines and labels. Light gray shading denotes national parks, monuments, and national recreation areas. Flash flood reports during the 2021-2023 summer seasons are indicated by cross symbols with locations of seven flash flood reports on 26 July 2021 in orange. The location of the Cedar City WSR-88D (KICX) is shown as well as general areas labeled in orange for the Pine Valley Mountains (Pin) and Markagaunt (Mar), Paunsaugunt (Pau), Kaiparowits (Kai), and Aquarius (Aqu) Plateaus.

95

96 Abrupt step-wise drops from the plateaus down to the desert floors are broken up by narrow  
 97 riverine channels and slot canyons that contribute to the propensity for flash floods in the region.  
 98 Quantifying the actual number of flash flood events in any region is difficult (Marjerson et al.  
 99 2016). The flash flood reports during the past three monsoon seasons (2021-2023) in southwestern  
 100 Utah cluster near the small number of towns and cities located near canyon exits and in the  
 101 elevation band of the Grey and White Cliffs (~1500-2500 m) within the parks, monuments, and  
 102 recreation areas, hereafter referred to simply as Parks (Fig. 1). As summarized in Fig. 2, 745 flash  
 103 floods in southwestern Utah have been reported to the National Center for Environmental  
 104 Information (NCEI 2023) during the 1996-2023 period with the highest totals during 2013, 2021,

105 and 2022. Of the 745 floods, 86% of them have been reported from May-September due to  
 106 convective storms with 33 deaths and over \$40 million dollars in property damage.

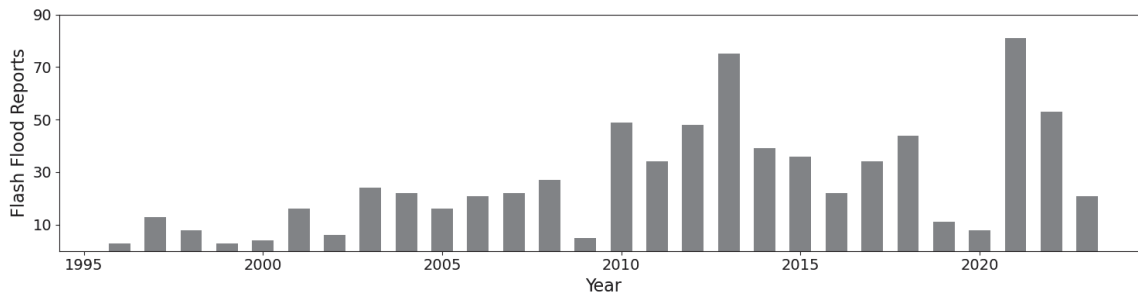


Fig. 2. Flash flood reports in the seven-county region of southwestern Utah during each year. (NCEI 2023).

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108 Forecasting flash floods at short lead times (<6 h) often leads National Weather Service  
 109 (NWS) offices to issue flash flood warnings (i.e., flash flood conditions occurring or imminent)  
 110 that rely on careful evaluation by forecasters of model guidance, interpretation of satellite and  
 111 radar imagery of convective environments, and situational awareness of flood-prone locales  
 112 (Gourley et al. 2012; Yussouf et al. 2019, Martinaitis et al. 2023). The NWS Forecast Offices in  
 113 Salt Lake City and Grand Junction issued for Utah the first and third highest numbers of flash  
 114 flood warnings within the 1996-2023 period during 2021 and 2022, respectively (NCEI 2023).

115 Providing forecasts for the potential for organized convection and intense rainfall that  
 116 might lead to flash floods within areas of complex terrain at lead times longer than 6 h requires  
 117 greater reliance on numerical model output from operational convection allowing models, such as  
 118 the High Resolution Rapid Refresh (HRRR; Sun et al. 2014; Blaylock and Horel 2020; Dowell et  
 119 al. 2022; Grim et al. 2024). The NWS issues flood watches for such lead times. However, in order  
 120 to avoid too many watches during the monsoon season, the Salt Lake City NWS Forecast Office  
 121 (hereafter SLC WFO) issues flood watches typically on days when many basins are likely to be  
 122 impacted. In addition, they issue forecasts of flash flood potential for the current and following  
 123 day to eleven government entities responsible for public safety across Utah. Flash flood potential  
 124 forecasts are provided in southwestern Utah for the regions highlighted in Fig. 1: Bryce National  
 125 Park, Capitol Reef National Park, Glen Canyon National Recreation Area, Grand Staircase-  
 126 Escalante National Monument, and Zion National Park.

127 This study focuses on the meteorological conditions in southwestern Utah during the 2021-  
 128 2023 summer monsoon seasons associated with high intensity precipitation episodes that might



129 lead to flash flooding. Of course, the occurrence of flash floods in this region and elsewhere  
130 depends on the complex interplay between terrain, soil and hydrologic factors (Smith et al. 2019,  
131 Hill and Schumacher 2021). We examine conditions between 15 June and 15 September when  
132 high risks exist in vulnerable locations for recreational injuries and fatalities, general public safety,  
133 and property damage. In addition, the availability of the Cedar City NWS radar within this region  
134 provides better estimation of convective activity and rainfall than is available for other parts of the  
135 state influenced by the NAM.

136 Large-scale conditions analyzed by the HRRR are summarized in this study for widespread  
137 and intense rainfall events during the three summers in southwestern Utah. Day-to-day variability  
138 is contrasted during the three summers for precipitation, flash flood reports, moisture availability,  
139 and instability. Conditions during the afternoon of 26 July 2021 are presented when rainfall in  
140 excess of 4 cm fell in Cedar City, UT and flash floods were recorded at six other locations within  
141 the region (Fig. 1).

142 Motivated by the lead time needed by Salt Lake City NWS forecasters to consider  
143 numerical guidance prior to issuing their first flash flood potential forecasts for the current day,  
144 we evaluate the utility of HRRR 3-h time-lagged ensemble (TLE) forecasts of precipitable water  
145 (PWAT) and maximum convective available potential energy (CAPE) issued 13-18 h prior to the  
146 afternoon period when convection is initiating across the region (18-21 UTC; 12-15 MDT). Our  
147 approach is to test whether forecasts of high PWAT and CAPE averaged over the entirety of  
148 southwestern Utah may identify days likely to experience unusually-high rainfall amounts across  
149 the region. We rely on hourly quantitative precipitation estimates (QPEs) from the Multi-Radar  
150 Multi-Sensor (MRMS) system (Martinaitis et al. 2021) to validate the HRRR model guidance. Of  
151 course, there has been no expectation from the outset of this study that HRRR forecasts at these  
152 lead times will provide an indication of the specific regions where intense rainfall may fall or flash  
153 floods may occur in specific catchments.

154 This research builds upon the study completed by Powell (2023) that examined the active  
155 summer monsoon seasons during 2021 and 2022. The results from that study have been expanded  
156 upon by examining conditions during the weaker 2023 monsoon season. Since prior studies and  
157 forecaster experience highlight that moisture availability and instability are dominant factors for  
158 intense NAM precipitation (Mazon et al. 2016, Smith et al. 2019; Yang et al 2019, Yu et al. 2023),  
159 we hypothesized that HRRR TLE ensemble forecasts of high PWAT and CAPE would be related

160 to widespread rainfall in southwestern Utah. That hypothesis is evaluated using statistical  
 161 approaches including bias correction and random forest classification (Brieman 2001, McGovern  
 162 et al. 2017, Spieser et al. 2019, Chase et al. 2022). The successful operational implementation of  
 163 random forest approaches to predict excessive rainfall events on a national scale has been  
 164 demonstrated by Schumacher et al. (2021) and such approaches also are considered as part of the  
 165 excessive rainfall outlooks of the Weather Prediction Center (Burke et al. 2023). In addition, staff  
 166 at the SLC WFO tested random forest methods for flash flood predictions across southern Utah  
 167 (D. van Cleave, 2023, personal communication). We divide the 2021 and 2022 summers into  
 168 training and validation samples for random forest predictions followed by independent forecasts  
 169 for summer 2023.

170

## 171 2. Data

### 172 a) *Precipitation, Radar, and Lightning Observations*

173 Although providing limited coverage across southwestern Utah, precipitation observations  
 174 from 101 stations from the networks listed in Table 1 were available during all 3 summers. These  
 175 networks were selected based on the sensor quality and likelihood of routine maintenance. For  
 176 individual case studies, all available stations measuring rainfall were considered, which typically  
 177 provided reports from over 50 additional sites within southwestern Utah. Precipitation  
 178 observations were obtained using accumulated precipitation calculation services developed by  
 179 Synoptic Data PBC.

Identifier	Description	No. Stations
RAWS	Interagency Remote Automatic Weather Stations	28
SNOTEL	Natural Resources Conservation Service	26
UCC	Utah Climate Center	13
SCAN	Soil Climate Analysis Network	10
ASOS	National Weather Service/Federal Aviation Administration	9
HADS	Hydrometeorological Automated Data System	7
PACIFICORP	PacifiCorp Utility	6
CRN	Climate Reference Network	2

180 Table 1. Number of stations in southwestern Utah from selected networks reporting precipitation during all  
 181 three summers.

182 Deep convection within southwestern Utah is generally detected by the Cedar City WSR-88D  
183 Doppler RADAR (KICX). This radar is located 3230 m above sea level near the southwestern  
184 edge of the Markagunt plateau (Fig. 1). Due to its high elevation, 0.2 degree elevation scans are  
185 available to help identify conditions over the surrounding desert regions at elevations typically  
186 between 1000-2000 m.

187 Widespread coverage of vigorous convection containing lightning is made possible from the  
188 ground-based National Lightning Detection Network (NLDN; Murphy et al. 2021). The Flash  
189 Energy Density (FED) product provided by the MRMS system that is based upon the NLDN is  
190 used in this study. FED is an estimate of the number of cloud-to-ground flashes per km<sup>2</sup> during  
191 each 30-minute period.

192

#### 193 *b) Radar Multi-Sensor Quantitative Precipitation Estimates*

194 The MRMS is an operational system of the National Centers for Environmental Prediction for  
195 estimating precipitation from radar, rain gauge, satellite, lightning, and numerical weather model  
196 data (Zhang et al. 2016; El Saadani et al. 2018; Sharif et al. 2020, Martinaitis et al. 2021). The  
197 MRMS Quantitative Precipitation Estimate (QPE) Pass II product for each hour and for each km<sup>2</sup>  
198 along with FED and other diagnostic fields were accessed from Iowa State University's Iowa  
199 Environmental Mesonet archive (Iowa State University 2023).

200 Radar precipitation estimates are the primary input for MRMS QPE in southwestern Utah.  
201 MRMS processing involves quality control applied to radar data (e.g., accounting for beam  
202 blockage and non-precipitation echoes) and provides a radar quality index for each location  
203 (Martinaitis et al. 2021). If an area has adequate radar quality, radar estimates may be adjusted  
204 using weighted corrections based on precipitation gauge data to then yield the final QPE. Gauges  
205 from many of the networks listed in Table 1 are not incorporated into the MRMS QPE and hence  
206 are helpful to evaluate the accuracy of the QPE estimates. If the radar quality is poor during  
207 convective situations, precipitation estimates may be adjusted based on gridded estimates of  
208 precipitation from the HRRR model.

209

#### 210 *c) High-Resolution Rapid Refresh Model*

211 The HRRR is a convection allowing, short-range forecast model with 3km horizontal grid  
212 spacing run operationally every hour by the National Centers for Environmental Prediction for the



213 CONUS region (Dowell et al. 2022, Grim et al. 2024). Forecasts at lead times out to 18 h are  
214 available every hour with lead times extended out to 48 h at 00, 06, 12, and 18 UTC. The HRRR  
215 benefits from advanced data assimilation techniques incorporating standard data observations  
216 (rawinsonde, aircraft, GPS precipitable water, etc.) and also includes 3-D radar reflectivity data  
217 from the MRMS and lightning data from the NLDN (Hu et al. 2017; James and Benjamin 2017;  
218 Dowell et al. 2022). Access to the high-resolution forecast model output in grib2 format is  
219 currently available through Amazon Web Services and Google's Cloud Platform (Dowell et al.  
220 2022). This study relies on HRRR version 4 that was deployed on 2 Dec 2020. Model analysis  
221 (F00) and forecast (F01-F18) fields are retrieved in Zarr format from Amazon Web Services  
222 (Gowan et al. 2022). Supported by Amazon's Sustainability Data Initiative, the Zarr files are  
223 created in order to split the CONUS into 96 compressed chunks, allowing more efficient  
224 downloading for smaller domains (Gowan et al. 2022).

225 HRRR model F00 analyses and F12-F18 forecasts of deep moisture (PWAT) and instability  
226 (surface-based CAPE) are relied upon extensively in this study as a means to assess conditions  
227 favorable for widespread convection across southwestern Utah. Mazon et al. (2016), Yang et al.  
228 (2019), and Yu et al. (2023) used similar metrics to study the NAM in Arizona and Nevada.  
229 Surface-based CAPE was found to be an adequate metric for estimating the potential for  
230 convective instability over elevated terrain due to the limited convective inhibition likely in these  
231 locations during summer afternoons.

232 HRRR QPE at 06-18 h lead times was compared to MRMS QPE and NLDN FED as a means  
233 to assess the extent to which those forecasts might be useful for situational awareness for the  
234 likelihood of widespread precipitation across southwestern Utah. However, HRRR QPE  
235 forecasts substantially underestimated observed and analyzed precipitation in southwestern Utah.  
236 Hence, we do not rely on HRRR QPE forecasts in this study.

237

### 238 **3. Results**

#### 239 *a) 26 July 2021*

240 Substantial property damage due to flash flooding occurred on 26 July 2021 near Cedar City,  
241 UT. Seven flash flood reports were made on this day (Fig. 1). PWAT and CAPE analyzed by the  
242 HRRR during this afternoon from 18 UTC 26 July to 00 UTC 27 July (12-18 MDT) are shown in  
243 Fig. 3. The northerly moisture transport into Arizona, Nevada, and Utah was extensive (Fig. 3a)

244 with local CAPE values in excess of  $2000 \text{ J kg}^{-1}$  across southwestern Utah (Fig. 3b). The areal-  
245 and daily- averaged PWAT in this case was 2.7 cm and areal-averaged maximum CAPE was 900  
246  $\text{J kg}^{-1}$ .

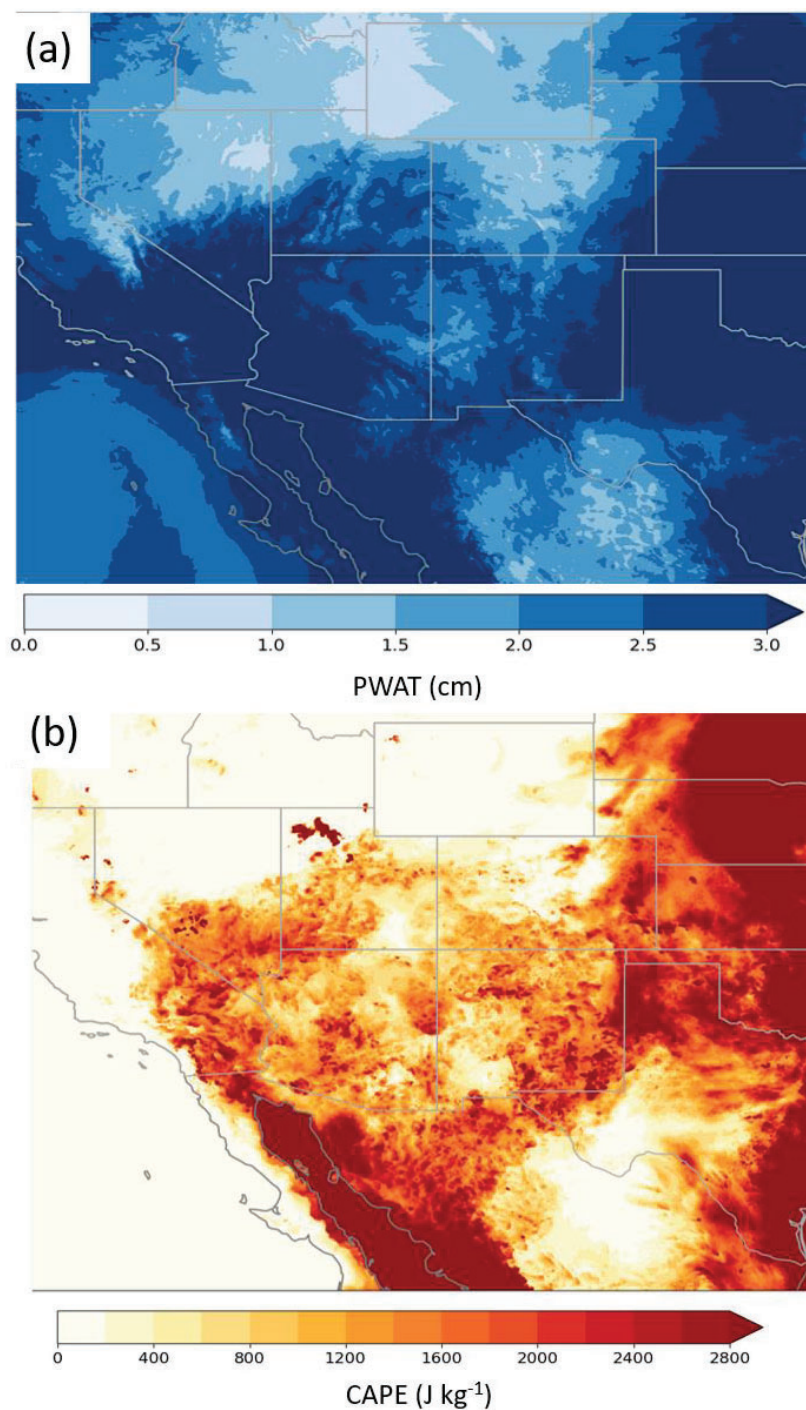


Fig. 3. (a) Mean hourly HRRR PWAT (cm) during the period 12 – 18 MDT 26 July 2021. (b) Maximum hourly HRRR CAPE ( $\text{J kg}^{-1}$ ) during the same period.

247 The prevailing flow during this afternoon was deep southeasterly winds from 700 to 250 hPa  
 248 (not shown). Animations of GOES-West satellite imagery and KICX composite radar reflectivity  
 249 during this afternoon confirmed the prevailing southeast to northwest progression of thunderstorm  
 250 cells during the afternoon as shown by the composite radar reflectivity during the afternoon (Fig.  
 251 4a). Figure 4b shows the average hourly FED during 12-18 MDT with many areas exhibiting  
 252 extensive lightning across southwestern Utah including frequent lightning near Cedar City and the  
 253 other locations reporting flash flooding that afternoon.

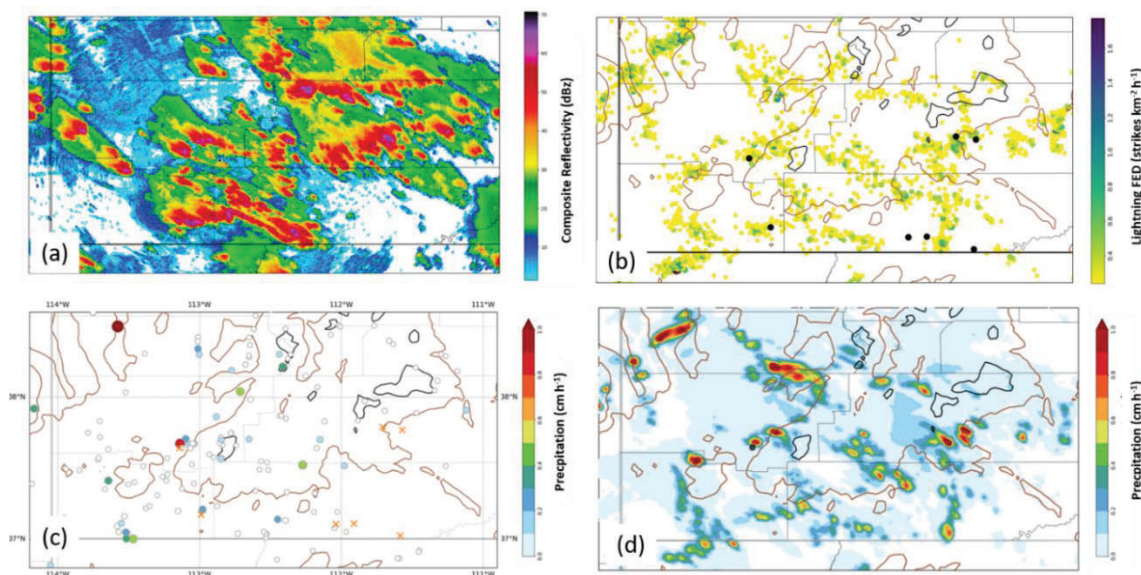


Fig. 4. (a) Maximum composite reflectivity (dBz) from the KICX radar during 13 – 14 MDT 26 July 2021. (b) Average NLDN FED (strikes  $\text{km}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ ) during the period 12 – 18 MDT 26 July 2021. Black dots show the locations of flash flood reports that day. Heavy solid lines denote terrain elevation at 2000m (brown) and 3000m (black). (c) Average hourly precipitation ( $\text{cm h}^{-1}$ ) during the period 12 – 18 MDT 26 July 2021. The locations of the flash flood reports are indicated by orange x's. (d) As in (c) except from MRMS analyses.

254  
 255 Average hourly precipitation rates during the afternoon from 136 stations and MRMS QPE  
 256 analyses during the afternoon are shown in Figs. 4c and 4d, respectively. While modest amounts  
 257 of rainfall were observed across many areas of southwestern Utah during this afternoon, excessive  
 258 amounts were highly localized, most notably reports of over 7 and 4 cm during the 6 h period at  
 259 the Utah Climate Center stations located in the Wah Wah Range and Cedar City, respectively  
 260 (denoted by the two red circles in Fig. 4c). While no reports of flooding are available from the  
 261 remote Wah Wah site near the northwestern edge of the domain, reports of flooding across the

262 Interstate southwest of Cedar City were associated with a strong cell (maximum composite  
263 reflectivity > ~65 dBz) from 14-15 MDT (not shown). Much of this precipitation was  
264 channeled directly into residential and commercial areas of Cedar City, a city with 37,000  
265 residents. The MRMS precipitation analyses for this afternoon capture many of the cells associated  
266 with the flash flood reports (Fig. 4d) as well as near Wah Wah, even though beam blockage  
267 affected radar returns in that area. The latter was likely due to the use of lightning data by the  
268 MRMS since that Utah Climate Center station was not assimilated into the MRMS.

269

### 270 *Seasonal Summaries*

271 Figure 5a highlights the average daily precipitation (mm) during the 2021-2023 summer  
272 seasons (15 June to 15 September) from 675 stations from the networks listed in Table 1 that are  
273 available in Utah and adjacent areas. While very helpful, these observations are clearly insufficient  
274 to capture the strong gradients in rainfall that take place across the region from desert lowlands to  
275 Utah's high elevation mountain ranges. High daily averages (2.5-3 mm) during these three  
276 summers among the 101 stations within southwestern Utah are found on the Markagunt Plateau  
277 near the KICX radar.

278 The spatial variability in the three-summer average of MRMS daily rainfall is shown in Fig.  
279 5b. Mazon et al. (2016) highlighted the climatologically lower rainfall totals in the NAM's  
280 extension into southern Utah compared to those in northern Arizona. As expected, all of the  
281 mountain ranges and plateaus of southwestern Utah exhibit higher MRMS QPE than their  
282 surrounding deserts (e.g., from west to east the Pine Valley Mountains and Markagunt,  
283 Paunsaugunt, Kairparowits, and Aquarius Plateaus). The 50-75<sup>th</sup> MRMS QPE percentiles within  
284 25 km of KICX on the Markagunt Plateau lie between 2.5-3 mm day<sup>-1</sup>, which is consistent with  
285 the observations in that region. However, some of the isolated ranges in central and eastern Utah  
286 (e.g., Henry and Abajo Mountains) far from KICX and the Grand Junction, WY radar (KGJX)  
287 have higher gauge totals than MRMS QPE. Based on prior research (e.g., Herman and Schumacher  
288 2018), feedback from NWS forecasters and comparing MRMS QPE to station observations,  
289 NLDN FED, and HRRR short range forecasts during the 2021 and 2022 summer seasons, Powell  
290 (2023) concluded that the lack of radar coverage for such mountain ranges likely impacts the  
291 MRMS QPE estimates in the peripheries of the southwestern Utah domain.

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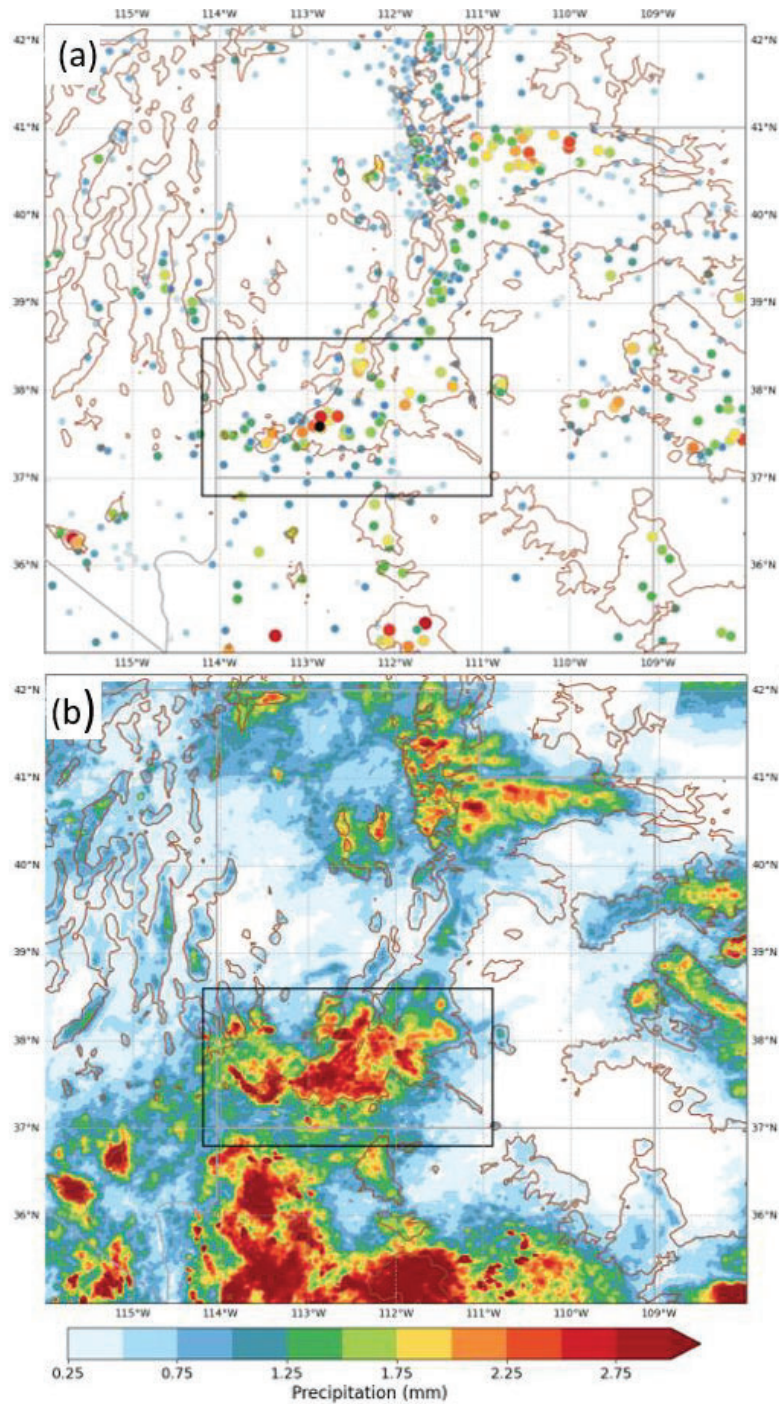


Fig. 5. (a) Observed average daily precipitation (mm) shaded according to the scale at the bottom for stations in the networks listed in Table 1 during the 2021-2023 summer seasons from 15 June to 15 September. KICX WSR-88D radar location denoted by the black circle and the brown contours denote 2000 m elevation. The rectangle encloses the southwest Utah region. (b) As in (a) except for MRMS analyzed values of average daily precipitation.

293 As documented previously by Smith et al. (2019), deep convection in the region initiates  
 294 around solar noon over the high plateaus and mountains and, depending on the prevailing flow,  
 295 persists there or propagates away later during the afternoon and evening. Figure 6a illustrates that  
 296 initial development between 12-15 MDT (18-21 UTC). For the region as a whole, the highest  
 297 rainfall totals occur between 15-18 MDT (Fig. 6b) and then diminish during the evening (Fig. 6c).  
 298 Maxima across the region of average rainfall totals during the other 3 h periods are below 0.4 mm  
 299 day<sup>-1</sup> (not shown).

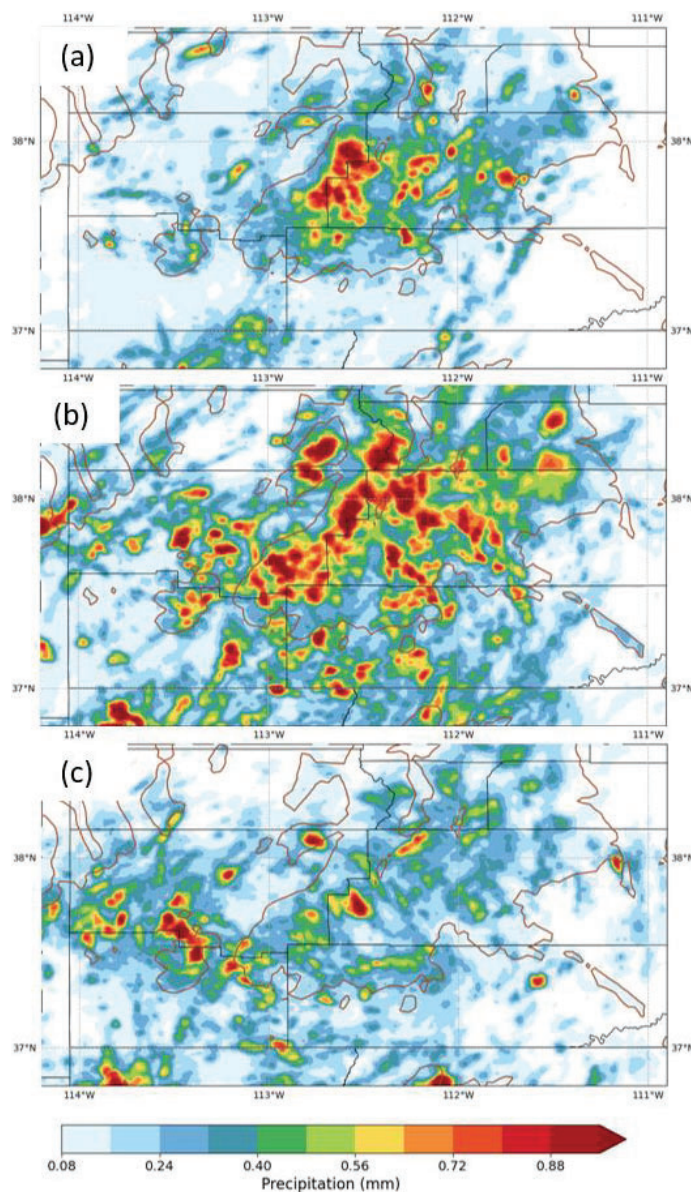


Fig. 6. MRMS 3-h QPE totals (mm) averaged over the three summers for: (a) 12-15 MDT; (b) 15-18 MDT; (c) 18-21 MDT. Brown contours denote 2000 m elevation.



301 The accumulation of flash flood reports during the three summer seasons is presented in Fig.  
 302 7a. As mentioned earlier, the number of flash flood reports in the region depends on observers  
 303 being present as well as favorable meteorological conditions leading to intense convection and  
 304 hydrologic factors near specific vulnerable locales. The total number of flash flood reports was  
 305 highest during 2021 and fewest in 2023 (see also Fig. 2). Intense convection leading to flash floods  
 306 began in earnest during mid-July 2021 while the number of flash floods reported increased sharply  
 307 during the mid-August 2022 monsoon period. While flash floods were reported on similar  
 308 numbers of days during 2021 and 2022, they were reported on only 10 days during summer 2023.

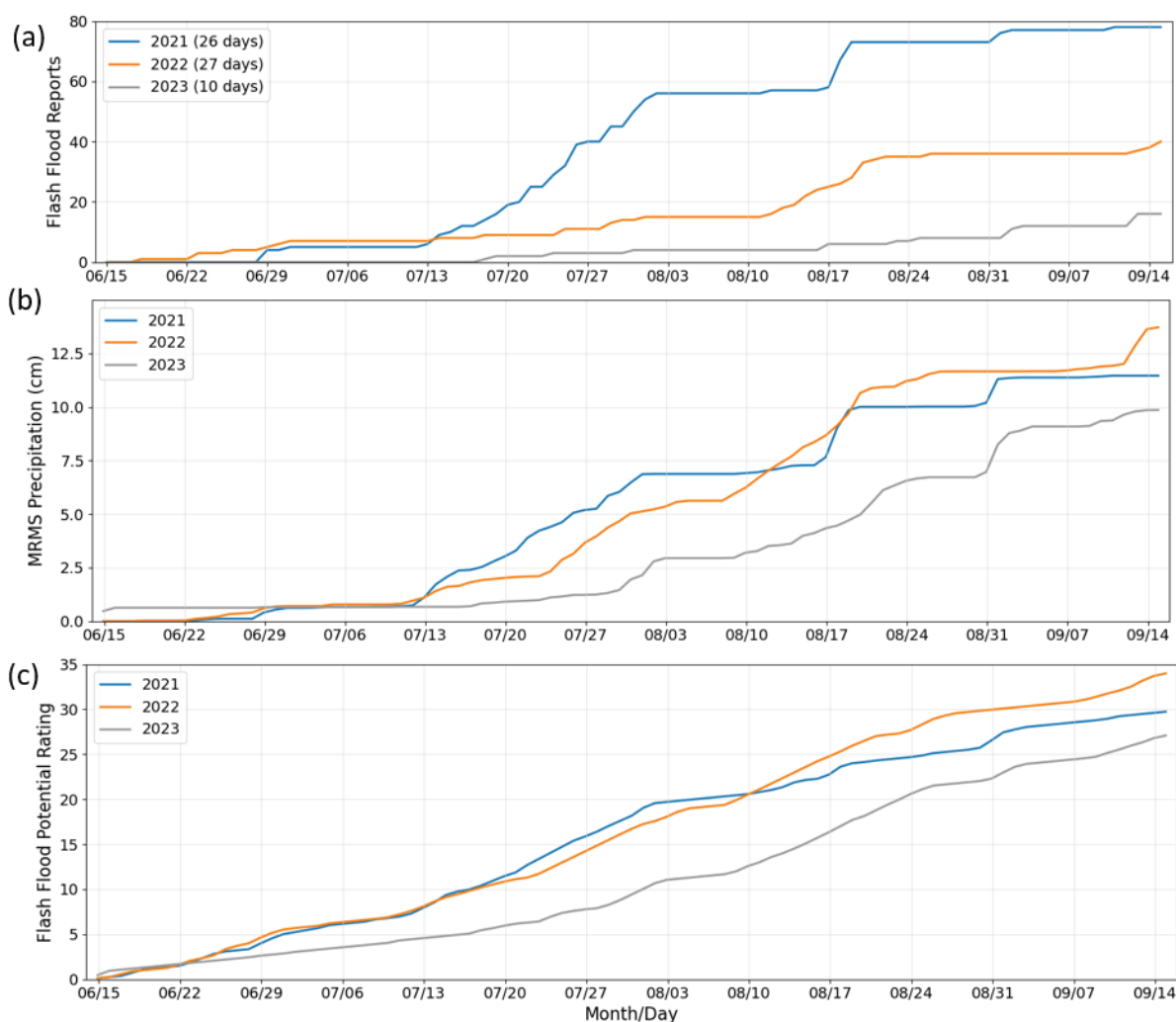


Fig. 7. a) Accumulated flash flood reports during each summer season. b) Accumulated daily precipitation (cm) averaged over southwestern Utah during each summer. c) Accumulated mean daily Flash Flood Potential Rating forecasts issued by the SLC WFO for southwestern Utah.

310 The accumulation during each season of daily MRMS QPE averaged over the entire  
311 southwestern Utah domain is shown in Fig. 7b. Although only half as many flash floods were  
312 observed during summer 2022 compared to 2021, the accumulated precipitation across the domain  
313 was higher during that summer. In addition, even though the 2023 NAM had a delayed start until  
314 mid-July, the accumulated seasonal rainfall was comparable to that observed in 2021. Less intense  
315 precipitation likely fell in regularly-monitored flood prone regions during summer 2023 compared  
316 to that during the other two years.

317 As mentioned earlier, Salt Lake City NWS forecasters have extensive experience issuing  
318 watches and warnings for flash flood conditions across southwestern Utah on the basis of many  
319 data and numerical model resources. Based on their experience and recommendations from  
320 constituents, the flash flood potential ranking (FFPR) was developed and is now issued by the SLC  
321 WFO to benefit government agencies responsible for public safety in the Parks. FFPR values are  
322 first issued for the current and next day typically in the early morning (8-10 UTC; 2-4 MDT) and  
323 then updated as necessary throughout the day. Figure 7c summarizes the issuance of the initial  
324 FFPRs for the five Parks indicated in Fig. 1. While Park staff prefer that the FFPR be defined by  
325 text descriptors, Salt Lake City forecasters have assigned loose probabilities of flash flood  
326 occurrences to them as follows: Not Expected (12.5%), Possible (37.5%), Probable (62.5%), and  
327 Expected (87.5%). The daily values accumulated in Fig. 7c are the average of those probability  
328 values (0-1) computed from the five Park forecast sample.

329 The FFPR trends during each summer follow the trends in areal-averaged rainfall (Fig. 7b)  
330 rather than flash flood reports (Fig. 7a), e.g., the highest risk overall for flash flooding was  
331 predicted to be during summer 2022. In addition, specific monsoonal periods with larger average  
332 rainfall also were periods when FFPR forecasts were higher (e.g., late July and early September  
333 2023).

334

### 335 *b) Forecasting Widespread Rainfall*

336 As mentioned in the introduction, an objective of the study by Powell (2023) and this work  
337 was to test whether HRRR model guidance at lead times between 13-18 h would be useful for  
338 predicting afternoons most likely to have widespread rainfall across southwestern Utah. Our TLE  
339 approach shown schematically in Fig. 8 builds on the capability to use hourly updating HRRR

340 forecasts and prior work that has relied on HRRR TLEs (e.g., Thompson et al. 2017, Xu et al.  
 341 2019, Gowan et al. 2022). The sample of initialization times we use (3-5 UTC) are motivated by  
 342 the lead time needed by Salt Lake City NWS forecasters to consider numerical guidance prior to  
 343 issuing overnight their first FFPR forecasts for that afternoon. As shown in Fig. 8, a sample of 12  
 344 PWAT forecasts and maximum CAPE are available 13-18 h prior to the afternoon period when  
 345 convection is initiating across the region (18-21 UTC; 12-15 MDT). Hence, to gain additional lead  
 346 time given that HRRR forecasts are available each hour only at lead times up to 18 h, we focus on  
 347 the conditions when convection is starting (Fig 6a), rather than when the convection and rainfall  
 348 reaches its peak (Fig. 6b). We test whether the ensemble average forecasts of high PWAT and  
 349 CAPE averaged over the entirety of southwestern Utah may identify days likely to experience  
 350 unusually-high rainfall amounts across the region.

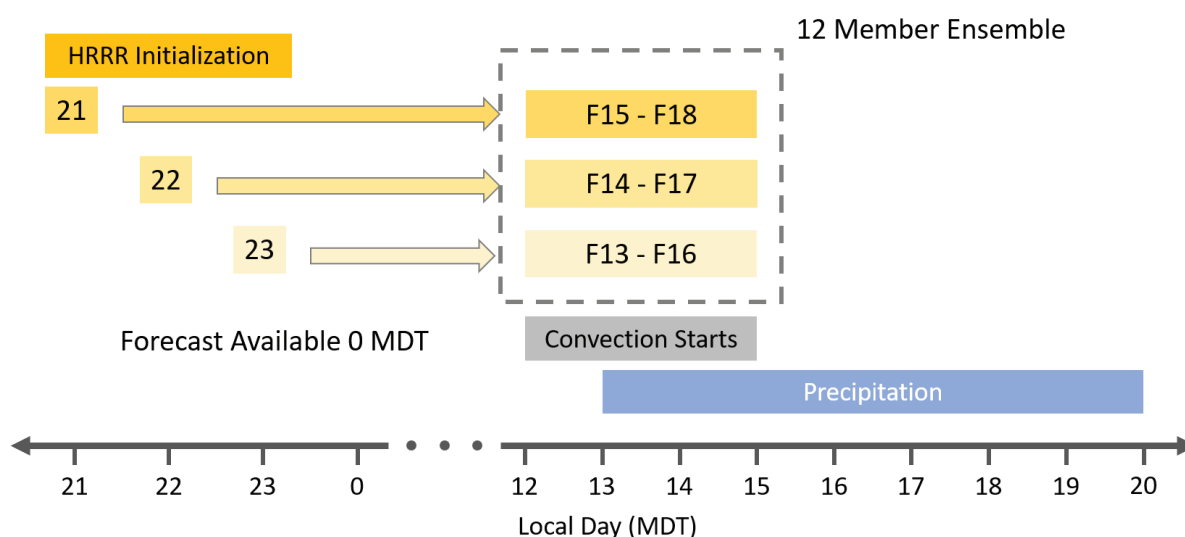


Fig. 8. Twelve-member Time-Lagged Ensemble forecasts for the early-afternoon period during which convection typically starts in southwestern Utah are generated from HRRR forecasts initialized from 21-23 UTC the previous evening.

351 The seasonal trends in ensemble mean PWAT analyses averaged over southwestern Utah  
 352 during early afternoon exhibit relatively monotonic increases of  $0.75\text{-}1.0\text{ cm day}^{-1}$  with higher  
 353 totals during summer 2022 than the other two summers (Fig. 9a). The average PWAT of the TLE  
 354 forecasts valid during those same afternoon periods (dashed lines) are slightly lower than analyzed  
 355 during all three summers, which reflects a very small dry bias of HRRR forecasts. Similar to the

356 seasonal evolutions of rainfall (Fig. 7b), the seasonal accumulation of maximum CAPE based on  
 357 early afternoon HRRR analyses exhibit periods when the NAM is more active in this region than  
 358 other periods (Fig. 9b). Higher CAPE is also evident during summer 2022 than that during the  
 359 other two summers. It should be noted that the analyzed CAPE values shown in this study over  
 360 southwestern Utah may underestimate actual conditions. Prior work with earlier versions of the  
 361 HRRR found the analyses had a stable bias compared to estimates from rawinsondes (Evans et al.  
 362 2018). Of greater importance is the clear bias of the CAPE forecasts to be more stable than  
 363 analyzed (Evans et al. 2018; MacDonald and Nowotarski 2023). This deficiency also likely  
 364 contributes to dry biases of HRRR model precipitation forecasts (Dougherty et al. 2021, Powell  
 365 2023).

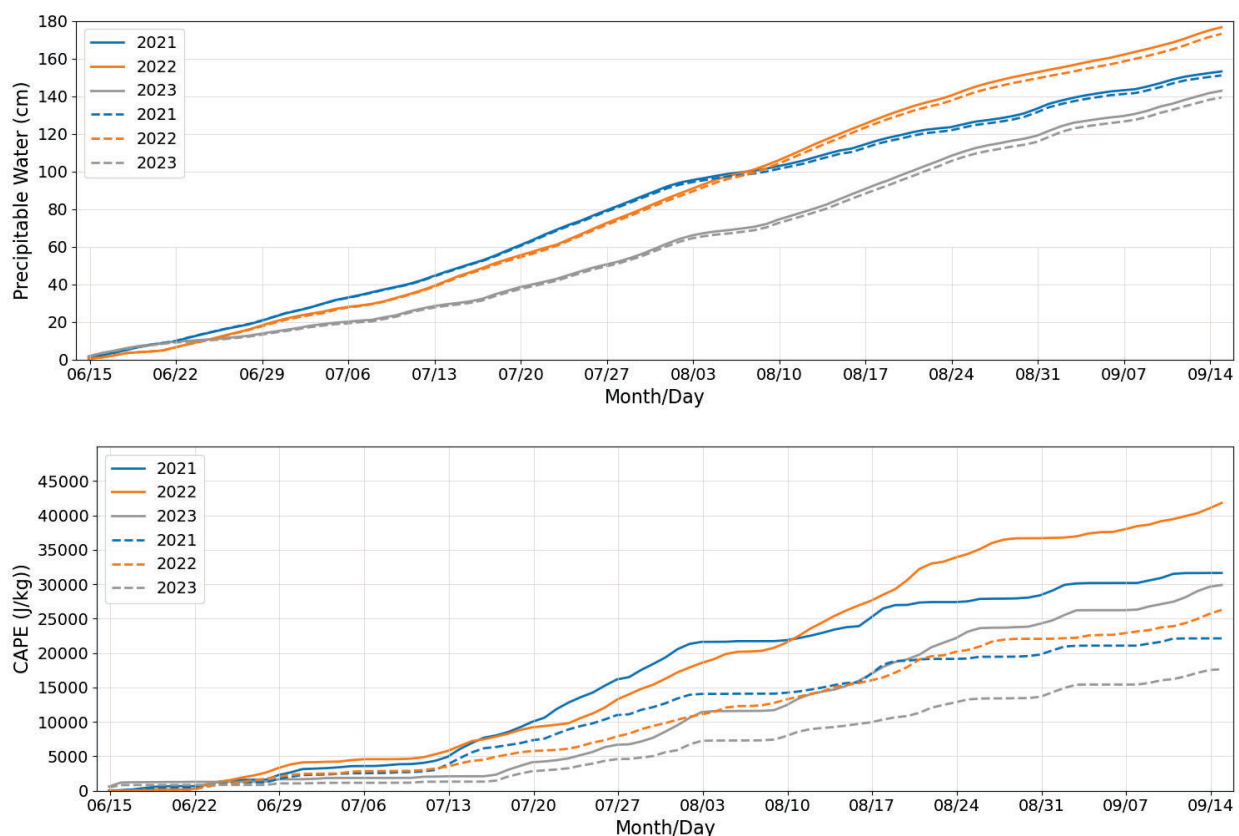


Fig. 9. a) HRRR PWAT (cm) analyses during 18 – 21 UTC (12 – 15 MDT) averaged over southwestern Utah and accumulated during each summer season (solid lines). HRRR TLE PWAT forecasts valid at the same time (dashed lines). b) As in (a) except for maximum hourly CAPE ( $\text{J kg}^{-1}$ ).

366 Following the approach used by Mazon et al. (2016), Yang et al. (2019), and Yu et al. (2023),  
 367 we relate regional PWAT and CAPE to daily mean QPE in Fig. 10 during all three summers. The

368 large-scale CAPE values in Fig. 10a are domain averages of the maximum CAPE at every grid  
369 point during the 12-15 MDT period while the PWAT values are domain averaged PWAT during  
370 that time period. The size and color of each dot denotes the accumulated precipitation for that  
371 entire day, which predominantly falls between 12-21 MDT (Fig. 6).

372 As shown in Fig. 10a, MRMS QPE amounts tend to be low if either PWAT averaged over  
373 southwestern Utah is less than the three-year mean in PWAT (1.7 cm) or maximum CAPE is less  
374 than its three-year mean ( $390 \text{ J kg}^{-1}$ ), i.e., nearly all the high rainfall amounts are located in the  
375 upper right quadrant of Fig. 10a. Cross symbols in Figure 10a denote the 63 days when at least  
376 one NCEI flash flood report was recorded. Nearly all of those days lie as well in the upper quadrant  
377 of Fig. 10a (above normal PWAT and CAPE). Smith et al (2019) also found that lightning activity  
378 increased in the region when PWAT was greater than 1.5 cm and grew substantively after 2.0 cm.  
379 Hence, above normal CAPE and PWAT is a reasonable estimate for days likely to experience  
380 higher rainfall totals across the region and, to some extent, the number of days with flash flood  
381 reports.

382 Figure 10b relates the daily accumulated MRMS QPE to the ensemble mean forecasts of CAPE  
383 and PWAT. Comparing Figs. 10a and 10b, the downward shift in the days with high rainfall  
384 amounts and flash flood reports results from the large stable bias of HRRR CAPE forecasts evident  
385 as well in Fig. 9b without any substantive PWAT bias (Fig. 9a). Table 2 also illustrates the HRRR  
386 CAPE forecast bias. The counts of days and average rainfall along the diagonals summarize the  
387 cases when HRRR forecast conditions match those analyzed. HRRR CAPE forecasts  
388 underestimated analyzed CAPE on 37 days. Rainfall totals for the region on those days were often  
389 high.

390

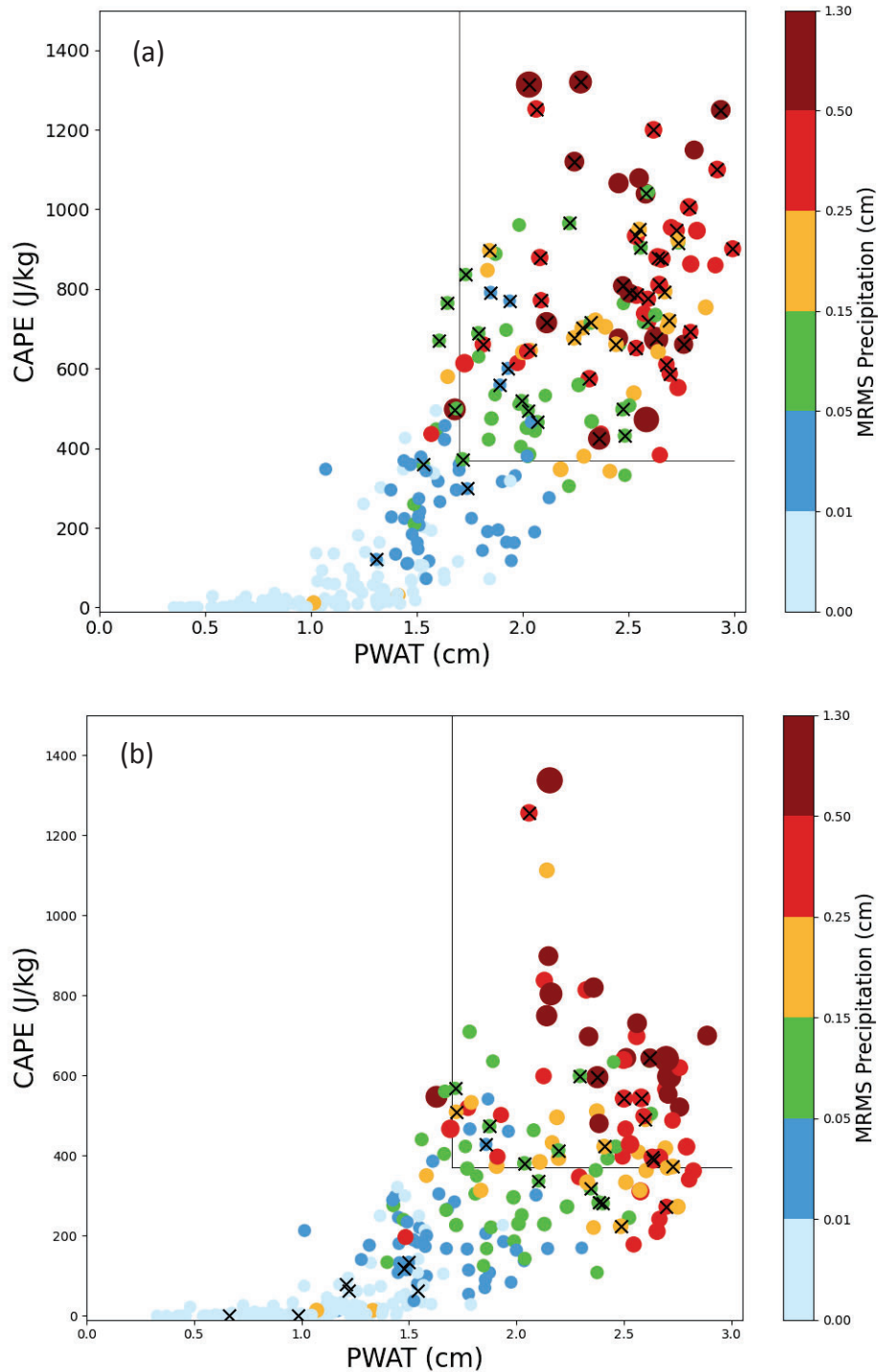


Fig. 10. (a) HRRR analyses of maximum PWAT (cm) vs. CAPE ( $\text{J kg}^{-1}$ ) during 18-21 UTC (12-15 MDT) each day of the three summers averaged over southwestern Utah. The color and size of each circle denotes daily MRMS precipitation (cm). Cross symbols denote days with at least one flash flood report. The solid lines highlight the mean PWAT and CAPE. (b) As in (a) except for HRRR TLE ensemble mean forecasts of PWAT vs CAPE initialized between 3-5 UTC and valid at 18-21 UTC.



	PWAT-B; CAPE-B		PWAT-B; CAPE-A		PWAT-A; CAPE-B		PWAT-A; CAPE-A	
	Days	PPT	Days	PPT	Days	PPT	Days	PPT
<b>PWAT-B</b> <b>CAPE-B</b>	<b>136</b>	<b>0</b>	0	—	2	0.03	0	—
<b>PWAT-B</b> <b>CAPE-A</b>	8	0.09	<b>5</b>	<b>0.26</b>	0	—	0	—
<b>PWAT-A</b> <b>CAPE B</b>	2	0.02	0	—	<b>16</b>	<b>0.04</b>	1	0.23
<b>PWAT-A</b> <b>CAPE-A</b>	0	—	1	0.47	<i>37</i>	<i>0.17</i>	<b>71</b>	<b>0.34</b>

391 Table 2. Days and average daily precipitation (PPT, cm) for HRRR TLE forecasts (columns) relative to HRRR  
392 analyses (rows) during all three summers. Forecasts and analyses are subdivided whether Precipitable Water  
393 (PWAT) and Convective Available Potential Energy (CAPE) are Below (B) or Above (A) 3 season averages across  
394 southwestern Utah. Bold face denotes categorical Hits while italics highlight frequent underpredictions of CAPE.  
395

396 Accounting for the large CAPE bias is a possible way to utilize HRRR predictions to identify  
397 those afternoons that might have enhanced convection. Compensating for both the PWAT and  
398 CAPE biases evident during the 2021 and 2022 summers (-0.03 cm and -135 J kg<sup>-1</sup>), predictions  
399 for conditions during summer 2023 are shown in Table 3. The number of underestimates of  
400 above normal CAPE days drops from 34% (37 of 108) to 19% (6 of 31).

401 The predictions in Table 3 address identifying those afternoons during summer 2023 with  
402 above normal CAPE and PWAT that often are associated with higher rainfall amounts across  
403 southwestern Utah. An alternative approach is to identify ways to predict those days when daily  
404 MRMS rainfall amounts are unusually high ( $\geq 0.14$  cm), approximately the top 25% of those  
405 observed during the 2023 summer. Figure 11a shows the analyzed MRMS rainfall amounts during  
406 each day of that summer. Several distinct heavier rainfall periods are evident: 15 – 16 June; 30  
407 July – 3 Aug; 10 – 24 Aug; 31 Aug – 4 Sep; and 10 – 13 Sep. Figures 11b and 11c show the HRRR  
408 analyzed and TLE forecasted values for afternoon PWAT and CAPE, respectively. The general  
409 relationships evident in earlier figures are encapsulated here: TLE PWAT forecasts are nearly  
410 identical to those analyzed; TLE CAPE forecasts underestimate CAPE analyses; and periods when  
411 PWAT and CAPE are both high often have higher rainfall totals.

	PWAT-B; CAPE-B		PWAT-B; CAPE-A		PWATA; CAPE B-		PWAT-A; CAPE-A	
	Days	PPT	Days	PPT	Days	PPT	Days	PPT
<b>PWAT-B CAPE-B</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>0</b>	0	—	2	0.03	0	—
<b>PWAT-B CAPE-A</b>	2	0.14	<b>2</b>	<b>0.31</b>	0	—	0	—
<b>PWAT-A CAPE-B</b>	2	0.02	0	—	<b>4</b>	<b>0.10</b>	1	0.13
<b>PWAT-A CAPE-A</b>	0	—	1	0.15	6	0.16	<b>25</b>	<b>0.27</b>

412 Table 3. As in Table 2 except for the 2023 season only and after correcting for the small PWAT and large  
413 negative CAPE biases evident during the 2021 and 2022 seasons.

414

415 A predictive scheme patterned loosely on the FFPR is to classify days into three categories  
416 based on TLE prior-summer bias-corrected forecasts of PWAT and CAPE: (1) If they are both  
417 below normal, then having rainfall in the upper 25<sup>th</sup> percentile is “Not Expected”; (2) if only one  
418 parameter is above normal, then having high rainfall is “Possible”; (3) if both are above normal,  
419 then high rainfall is “Probable”. Table 4 summarizes the results of such a prediction scheme for  
420 the 2023 summer. Treating a Probable forecast as a Hit and using standard forecast metrics (Wilks  
421 2011, Chase et al. 2022), this approach would yield the following scores: 63% Probability of  
422 Detection (POD); 58% Success Ratio (SR); and 43% Critical Success Index (CSI). Hits and False  
423 Alarms are indicated in Fig. 11a by the blue and orange triangles, respectively. Misses are days  
424 when the MRMS rainfall is above the solid line (~75<sup>th</sup> percentile) and there are no triangle symbols.  
425

	Not Expected	Possible	Probable
<b>MRMS &lt; 0.14 cm</b>	52	6	11
<b>MRMS ≥ 0.14 cm</b>	2	7	15

426 Table 4. Bias-corrected HRRR PWAT and CAPE predictions of daily areal-mean MRMS precipitation  
427 exceeding  $\geq 0.14$  cm (~75<sup>th</sup> percentile) during the 2023 season relative to MRMS daily areal-mean precipitation.

428

429 The large number of False Alarms and Misses using this bias correction approach and the  
430 numerous machine learning studies recently examining way to predict extreme rainfall event (e.g.,  
431 Hill and Schumacher 2021) led us to consider such approaches. However, rather than using a large  
432 number of predictor variables as is often used, we limited for clarity the predictors simply to  
433 PWAT and CAPE TLE mean forecast values. The arbitrary decision to target or label in terms of  
434 the relatively rare high rainfall days ( $MRMS \geq 0.14$  cm) lends itself to binary classification as  
435 opposed to predicting precipitation amount each day. The supervised random forest classification  
436 method is well suited for this application (Brieman 2001, Spieser et al. 2019, Chase et al. 2022).  
437 We subdivided randomly the days during the 2021 and 2022 summers into training and validation  
438 data sets (67% and 33% of the samples, respectively) leaving the entire 2023 summer as the test  
439 data set. The sklearn default threshold of 0.50 is used to discriminate between high and non-high  
440 rainfall days. Optimal hyperparameters were found to vary depending on the relative sizes of  
441 training and validation data sets, but the results applied to the 2023 test data set were invariant to  
442 these differences in maximum depth and number of estimators. The accuracy score was 0.93 with  
443 the relative feature importance of the two predictors being 53% and 47% for TLE PWAT and  
444 CAPE, respectively. It should be reiterated that this approach does not depend on bias correction-  
445 the predicted CAPE values are those underestimating what actually happened.

446 The results of the random forest classification are shown in Table 5 and Fig. 11a. The score  
447 metrics improve over the bias correction approach as follows: 83% POD; 77% SR; and 67% CSI.  
448 For the purposes of this study, it is unnecessary to attempt to maximize these scores from these  
449 relatively robust values. However, the selection of the 0.14 threshold was arbitrary and it is  
450 apparent in Fig. 11a that 4 of the 6 False Alarms resulted from rainfall amounts slightly below that  
451 level. In addition, two of the four misses resulted from a mid-latitude trough crossing the state  
452 during 15 – 16 June for which the PWAT is lower than typically found later during the monsoon  
453 season in this region.

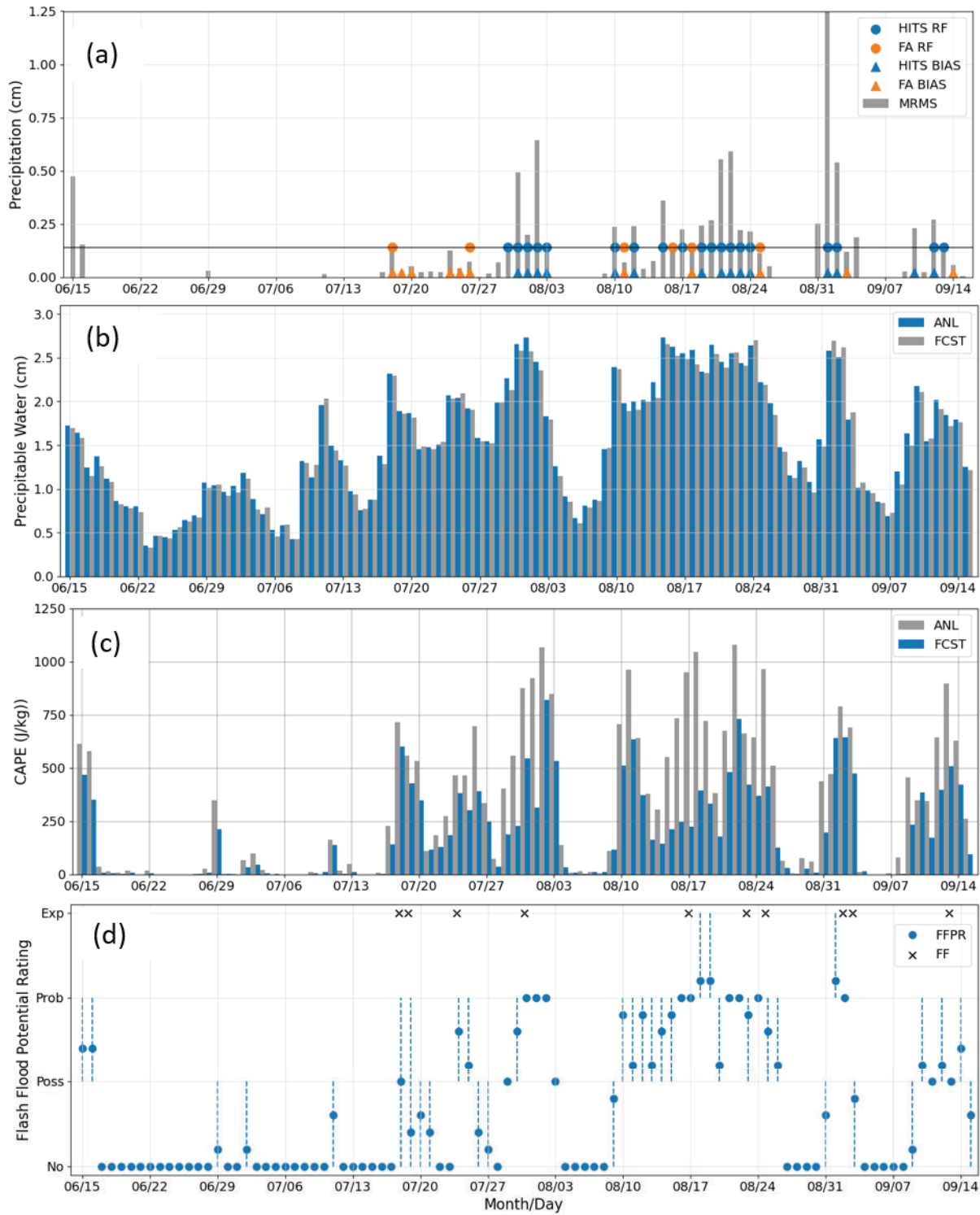


Fig. 11. (a) Daily MRMS rainfall (cm, bars) averaged over southwestern Utah during summer 2023. Symbols denote TLE forecast hits (blue) and false alarms (orange) for random forest (circles) and bias corrected (triangles) methods to predict rainfall exceeds the  $\sim 75^{\text{th}}$  percentile (solid line). (b) PWAT (cm) from HRRR analyses (blue) and TLE forecasts (gray) for the 18-21 UTC period. (c) As in (b) except for

maximum CAPE ( $J\ kg^{-1}$ ). (d) Mean (circles) and spread (dashed lines) of FFPR forecasts issued by the Salt Lake City NWSFO for the 5 Parks in southwestern Utah. Categorical forecasts made for each Park are: Not expected (No); Possible (Poss); Probable (Prob); Expected (Exp). Days with flash floods reported denoted by crosses.

454

455 While the purposes for the SLC WFO FFPR metric are highly focused on the specific needs  
 456 of the Park staff to alert visitors to flash flood likelihood, it is instructive to compare the FFPR  
 457 forecasts during the 2023 summer in Fig. 11d to the areal averages of MRMS QPE and HRRR  
 458 analyses and TLE forecasts shown in the other panels of Fig. 11. It should come as no surprise that  
 459 Probable or Expected predictions of flash floods at multiple Parks are made when PWAT and  
 460 CAPE tend to be high. The onset of the monsoon season on 18-19 July illustrates cases when  
 461 intense localized thunderstorms led to flash floods in Capitol Reef National Park yet had less-  
 462 intense rainfall across the entire region. These two days had the largest FFPR forecast spread across  
 463 the five Parks with the forecasters anticipating flash conditions to be Probable at Capitol Reef on  
 464 both days and Possible or Not Expected at the other four Parks. Note that the bias-corrected and  
 465 random forest forecasts overestimated the areal coverage of rainfall to be expected on those days.

466

	Pred < 0.14 cm	Pred $\geq$ 0.14 cm
MRMS < 0.14 cm	63	6
MRMS $\geq$ 0.14 cm	4	20

467 Table 5. As in Table 4 except for random forest classification predictions based on TLE PWAT and CAPE.

468

#### 469 4. Summary

470 The NAM brings intense rainfall frequently during summer to Mexico and the  
 471 southwestern United States. Occasionally, flash floods in vulnerable locales within southwestern  
 472 Utah lead to injuries, fatalities and damage in population centers as well as heavily visited Parks.  
 473 The analysis of the 2021-2023 seasons was focused on identifying the basic conditions  
 474 conducive to intense rainfall over southwestern Utah that may lead to flash floods in the  
 475 preferred areas that experience them. Rapid rainfall rates over the sparsely visited elevated  
 476 plateaus or desert floors of the region will have less impact than those in the vicinity of the

477 “risers” of the region’s “stairs” where streamflow is constricted, previous wildfires have affected  
478 soil permeability, or where visitors congregate for recreational activities.

479 The 2021 and 2022 summers in southwestern Utah were two of the most active monsoon  
480 seasons on record leading to high numbers of flash flood reports. The 2023 monsoon season was  
481 delayed and rainfall amounts across the region were somewhat lower than during the other two  
482 summers. However, the reduced number of flash flood reports during that season likely resulted  
483 more from the relative randomness of thunderstorms being less prevalent within the catchments  
484 of the most flood-prone canyons. Unfortunately, two deaths resulted from an earlier flash flood  
485 (20 May 2023) in the Grand Staircase-Escalante National Monument with radar rainfall  
486 estimates of 2-4 cm near the slot canyon in which they became trapped (NCEI 2023).

487 This research relied upon the predominantly radar-based MRMS QPE analyses. While  
488 precipitation far from the KICX radar is likely underestimated, rainfall estimates from the  
489 MRMS across southwestern Utah appear reasonable. Estimates of rainfall and convection from  
490 station rain gauges, NLDN lightning, and MRMS QPE show the expected dependence on the  
491 underlying terrain with convection initiated at higher elevations during the afternoon. Also, as  
492 expected, widespread excessive summer rainfall in southwestern Utah generally occurs when the  
493 PWAT and CAPE are higher than typically observed across the region. The short time lag  
494 between early afternoon high CAPE and the onset of vigorous thunderstorms over the high  
495 terrain is often followed by subsequent downstream development that propagates above canyon  
496 headwaters by the prevailing flow.

497 The cumulative spatial and temporal variations of rainfall, moisture availability, and  
498 instability were examined during the three monsoon seasons. The prevailing conditions during  
499 26 July 2021 were used to examine the factors contributing to seven flash floods, one in Cedar  
500 City, UT and the others scattered across several of the Parks in the region. PWAT and CAPE  
501 were unusually high relative to other days during the three summers with unidirectional flow  
502 from the southeast. The composite reflectivity above 60 dBz near Cedar City and other locales  
503 would put these storms near the 90th percentile of flash flood producing storms in the region  
504 (Smith et al. (2019).

505 During the three monsoon seasons, the HRRR generally provided accurate forecasts of  
506 the areal-averaged PWAT and under forecasted CAPE at all lead times out to 18 h, similar to  
507 other findings of HRRR forecasted CAPE and precipitation for convective events (Evans et al.



508 2018; Yue and Gebremichael 2020). The utility of using 12 member TLE means available 13-18  
509 h prior to the typical onset of convection over the high terrain in the region was examined.  
510 Correcting for the negative CAPE forecast bias observed during the first two summers improved  
511 predictions of the conditions favorable for widespread rainfall during the 2023 summer. Using  
512 random forest classification with PWAT and CAPE as predictors for the upper quartile of areal-  
513 averaged rainfall showed promise at lead times relevant for operational predictions.

514 Repeating our analysis using TLE HRRR forecasts during summer 2024 will provide  
515 opportunities to test alternative machine learning strategies that might lead to improvements to  
516 the approach taken here. For example, each PWAT and CAPE forecast in the TLEs could be  
517 used as predictors, additional parameters could be considered (e.g., wind shear, HRRR QPE) or  
518 the domain could be confined to areas where flash floods are more likely or have higher impact  
519 (e.g., the areal extents of the Parks). The focus could also shift to predicting the extent within the  
520 domain of high rainfall rates (e.g.,  $\geq 1 \text{ cm h}^{-1}$ ) rather than the daily rainfall total metric used here.  
521 Testing approaches for the entirety of southern Utah including areas with limited radar coverage  
522 would be possible by focusing on lightning as a proxy rather than MRMS QPE.

523 The operational transition of the HRRR to the Rapid Refresh Forecast System (RRFS)  
524 should be completed prior to summer 2025 (Dowell et al. 2022). Testing RRFS experimental  
525 output during summer 2024 may provide insight into how the approach developed here could  
526 take advantage of the six-member forecast ensembles to be available each hour as well as  
527 combining them over several initialization times into larger TLE ensembles. Loken et al. (2022)  
528 have explored random forecast approaches based upon individual ensemble members as well as  
529 averages over the ensemble sample. In addition, it will be possible to extend the lead time for  
530 which forecasts of this type are available out to 36 h. Grim et al. (2024) have compared HRRR  
531 and RRFS forecasts of organized convective systems during summer 2022 in the eastern U.S.  
532 There certainly will need to be similar studies undertaken to evaluate how well the RRFS  
533 handles the types of terrain-forced thunderstorms common to southwestern Utah and other  
534 regions within the western U.S.

535 Meyer and Jin (2016, 2017) and Zhang (2023) among many other studies have examined  
536 current and future trends of the NAM on the basis of downscaled global climate simulations.  
537 Since global and regional climate models have difficulty resolving precipitation over limited  
538 domains dominated by complex terrain such as southwestern Utah, downscaling proxy indicators

539 of monsoonal strength (e.g., CAPE and PWAT as used in this study) may provide an approach to  
540 evaluate future changes in the NAM's northern extent.

541

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556

557 *Data Availability Statement.* The HRRR-Zarr archive is publicly available in the AWS Open  
558 Data Registry, made possible by credits awarded from the Amazon Sustainability Data Initiative  
559 <https://registry.opendata.aws/noaa-hrrr-pds/>. Precipitation observations will be available from  
560 Synoptic Data PBC. MRMS QPE files are available from the Iowa State University archives.  
561 Processed data files of PWAT, CAPE and MRMS QPE used in the random forecast  
562 classification are available in the University of Utah Hive archive.

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