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# Probabilistic solar forecasts of cloud presence as a binary event using a sky camera

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# Abstract

With the fast increase of solar energy plants, high quality short-term forecast is required to smoothly integrate their production in the electricity grids. Usually, forecasting systems predict the future solar energy as a continuous variable. But for particular applications, such as concentrated solar plants with tracking devices, the operator needs to anticipate the achievement of a solar irradiance threshold to start or to stop their system. In this case, binary forecasts are more relevant. Moreover, while most forecasting systems are deterministic, the probabilistic approach provides additional information about their inherent uncertainty that is essential for decision making. The objective of this work is to propose a methodology to generate probabilistic solar forecasts, and more specifically the presence of clouds, as a binary event for very short-term horizons between 1 and 30 minutes.

Among the various techniques developed to predict the solar potential for the next few minutes, sky imagery is one of the most promising. Therefore, we propose in this work to combine a state-of-the-art model based on a sky camera and a discrete choice model to predict the probability of cloud presence. Two well-known parametric discrete choice models, logit and probit models, and a machine learning technique, random forest, were tested to post-process the deterministic forecast derived from sky images. All three models significantly improve the quality of the original deterministic forecast. However, random forest gives the best results and especially provides reliable

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probability predictions.

*Keywords:* Solar energy, Concentrated Solar Plant (CSP), binary probabilistic forecasts, all sky imager (ASI), Photovoltaic (PV), Brier Score

# 1 1. Introduction

Solving the challenges posed by the massive integration of solar energy 2 into electricity grids is a key issue for reducing the carbon footprint of power 3 generation. Indeed, due to the inherent variability and lack of predictability 4 of solar energy, a high share of solar energy in the electricity mix makes it more complicated to manage the supply-demand balance and increases the 6 vulnerability of the grid. One of the strategies to reduce the effect of solar variability is to predict future solar irradiance and corresponding solar power 8 for short-term horizons ranging from 1 minute to several days in advance. Many techniques have been developed to predict solar irradiance [1, 2, 3]. 10 Numerical weather prediction (NWP) is suitable for horizons longer than 6 11 hours. Forecasts derived from geostationary meteorological satellite images 12 are effective for a horizon ranging from about 1 hour to 6 hours. Finally, for 13 a very short-term horizon of less than 1 hour, the approach based on All Sky 14 Imagers (ASI) is the most promising technique. 15

Regarding very short-term horizon, Ajith and Martínez-Ramón [4] com-16 pared three categories of solar irradiance forecasting methods: time series, 17 sky camera images and hybrid models combining infrared images with ra-18 diation time series. The authors shown that the normalized Root Mean 19 Square Error (nRMSE) varied from 30 to 53% in terms of forecasting error. 20 In the literature on ASI, most of the works dealing with the prediction of 21 solar irradiance or cloudiness propose deterministic forecasts [5, 6, 7]. To 22 improve forecasts derived from ASI, different approaches have been carried 23 out. For instance, Paletta et al. [8] evaluated deterministic and probabilistic 24 predictions based on ASI for different weather conditions (clear, cloudy and 25 overcast skies). In their work, probabilistic approach demonstrates a richer 26 operational forecasting framework by facilitating uncertainty quantification 27 in cloudy conditions and for long-term horizons. However, very few methods 28 were developed to generate probabilistic forecasts from sky camera images. 29

It is well-known that weather forecasts are uncertain because the evolution of the weather and consequently solar irradiance are chaotic processes. Thus, in decision-making operations that use solar forecasts, such as the management of power plants, probabilistic forecasts are crucial. Indeed, probabilistic forecasts assign probability levels to future events and allow their
users to assess the associated risks. Research works dealing with probabilistic
solar forecast are relatively recent but numerous have been released on the
topic in the last 10 years [9, 10, 3]. However, as mentioned previously, very
few works concerning ASI proposed a method to generate probabilistic solar
forecast. This work will contribute to fill this gap in the literature.

Usually, solar forecasting systems provide the future level of solar irra-40 diance or PV generation as a continuous variable [3]. But for particular 41 applications, such as the management of Concentrated Solar Plants (CSP) 42 with tracking devices, the operator needs to anticipate the achievement of 43 a solar irradiance threshold to start or to stop their system [11]. In this 44 case, an accurate binary forecast is more relevant. In the wide domains of 45 meteorology or economy, numerous works propose discrete choice models to 46 generate binary forecasts [12, 13]. However, in the field of solar energy very 47 few works propose binary forecasts. One of the rare work on the topic is 48 proposed by Alonso and Batlles [14] that developed a method to forecast the 49 cloudiness from a sequence of images given by the MeteoSat Second Gener-50 ation (MSG) satellite MSG or an ASI. Their model generates deterministic 51 binary forecasts of cloud presence (i.e. 0 =cloudy and 1 =clear sky). The 52 forecasts were tested over 2 years for the city of Almería in the South-East 53 of Spain. The success rate of the forecasts derived from the ASI is 83% for 54 the first 15 minutes and drops to 60% for a 3 hours horizon. However, no 55 works proposes a probabilistic approach to generate discrete solar forecast. 56

In the light of the two main lacks of the literature underlined above, the 57 main objective of this work is to propose a novel methodology to generate 58 probabilistic solar forecast as a binary event for horizons ranging from 1 to 30 59 minutes using an all sky imager (ASI). The developed approach will combine 60 a state of the art ASI method and discrete choice models proposed in other 61 domains, such as economy or meteorology. In a first step, a model based on 62 the detection of cloud motions will use sequences of images from an ASI to 63 generate binary deterministic forecasts of the cloudiness. Then, in a second 64 step, binary choice models will be used to convert the deterministic discrete 65 forecasts into probability levels of cloud presence. Finally, we will assess the 66 quality of the generated forecast of cloud presence on a case study to evaluate 67 the added value of the proposed method. 68

The remainder of the paper is organized as follow. Section 2 presents the remethodology used to develop and to evaluate the proposed model. Section <sup>71</sup> 3 gives a brief overview of the state of the art model used to generate the
<sup>72</sup> deterministic forecasts. Then, section 4 details the discrete choice models
<sup>73</sup> used to forecast the probability of cloud presence. Section 5 depicts the case
<sup>74</sup> study and the corresponding data. Results are presented and discussed in
<sup>75</sup> section 6. Finally, section 7 gives our concluding remarks.

#### <sup>76</sup> 2. Overall methodology and forecasts evaluation

The probabilistic forecasts of cloud presence are generated in two steps 77 as presented in figure 3. First, we generated deterministic forecasts of cloud 78 presence using the method proposed by [14] and briefly presented in section 79 3. The results are discrete forecasts (1 = no cloud and 0 = presence of80 clouds) with a time resolution of 1 minute and horizons of forecast up to 30 81 minutes. The second step is a post-processing of the deterministic forecasts 82 with a probabilistic model. In this work, we compared three different mod-83 els, described in section 4, to post-process the deterministic forecasts. The 84 final probabilistic forecasts have the same temporal resolution and the same 85 horizons as the deterministic forecasts. After these two steps, the generated 86 forecast are probabilities, in the interval [0; 1], that give a level of confidence 87 or risk associated to the future presence of clouds. Compared to deterministic 88 forecast, this additional information may help he user for decision-making. 89

Cloud detection was carried out following the methodology presented in [15] obtaining a cloud identification (clouds which attenuate the DNI below 400 Wm<sup>-2</sup>) based on the optimal operating value for CSP plants, as the case of Gemasolar plant, which used this irradiance level, like the appropriate for producing electricity [14].

In this work, both deterministic and probabilistic forecasts will be evalu-95 ated. If comprehensive frameworks have been proposed to evaluate forecast 96 quality of the solar irradiance as a continuous variable [16, 17, 18], no previ-97 ous work details the evaluation of discrete solar forecasts. However, specific 98 error metrics have been designed in the field of meteorology to assess the 99 quality of binary forecasts. Let us recall that the quality of a forecasting 100 system evaluates the agreement between the forecasts and the corresponding 101 observations [19]. Interested readers may refers to the web page published 102 by the Joint Working Group on Forecast Verification Research to have a 103 extended overview of weather forecast verification [20]. 104

Regarding binary deterministic forecasts, the most common metrics are derived from the contingency table presented in figure 1. In our case a "yes"

event corresponds to a clear sky (no clouds) and N is the total number of 107 observation/forecast pairs used for the verification. The contingency table 108 is a useful tool to classify the types of errors. A perfect forecast system 109 would generate only hits and correct negatives, and no misses or false alarms. 110 Numerous metrics are derived from the four cells in the contingency table, 111 such as fraction correct, probability of detection (POD), success rate (SR) 112 or false alarm ratio (FAR) [21]. Each metric describes a different aspect of 113 forecast performance. In this work we will focus on the accuracy, defined 114 in equations 1. Accuracy ranges from 0 to 1, with 1 the perfect score. The 115 accuracy also called fraction correct gives the fraction of correct forecasts. It 116 is simple and intuitive but, in case of very rare events, this indicator may 117 lead to confusion |20|. 118

Observationyesnoyeshitsfalse<br/>alarmsnomissescorrect<br/>negatives

Figure 1: Contingency table for a binary forecast

$$Accuracy = \frac{hits + correct \ negatives}{N} \tag{1}$$

Regarding the verification of probabilistic forecasts, two main attributes 119 define the quality: the reliability and the resolution. Reliability refers to the 120 statistical consistency between the forecasts and the observations. In other 121 words, the forecast probability should be equal to the observed probability of 122 the event (e.g. 20% of the events should happens for a forecast probability of 123 20%). The reliability is a crucial prerequisite as non-reliable forecasts would 124 lead to a systematic bias in subsequent decision-making processes [22]. The 125 most used visual tools to assess the reliability is the reliability diagram [23]. 126 It plots the correspondence between the forecast probability (x axis) and the 127 observed frequency of the event (y axis). Perfectly reliable forecasts should 128 be as close to the diagonal as possible. Figure 6 shows the reliability diagram 129

for the different models tested in this work. Resolution refers to the ability of
a forecasting system to generate case-dependent forecasts. For example, the
climatology model, which predicts the average probability of the event (i.e.
always the same probability regardless the horizon or the weather conditions)
has no resolution. Unfortunately, no graphical tool exists to evaluate the
resolution.

Only few metrics, also called scores, exist to quantitatively evaluate the quality of probabilistic forecasts of binary events. For this work, we propose to use the Brier Score (BS) [19], formulated as follow:

$$BS = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{1}^{N} (\hat{p}_i - o_i)^2, \qquad (2)$$

where N is number of observation/forecast pairs,  $\hat{p}_i$  the forecast probability and  $o_i$  the observation. If the event did occur  $o_i = 1$ , and if it did not occur  $o_i = 0$ . The BS measures the mean square probability error. This global proper score is appealing because it includes the two basic skills of a probabilistic forecast (i.e. reliability and resolution) and it corresponds to 1-Accuracy for a deterministic forecast. The BS ranges between 0 and 1 with 0 the perfect score.

Skill scores, derived from the above mentioned metrics are also commonly proposed to evaluate forecast quality [16, 17]. Skill scores quantify the improvement of a proposed method compared to a reference model. They are relevant for comparing forecasts generated for different sites or time periods. We will not provide skill scores in this work because the evaluation will be for a unique site and time period. However, the interested reader can use the numerical results, given table 1 at the end of this paper, to compute them.

#### 153 3. Deterministic forecasts of cloud presence with a sky camera

To issue a forecast, a sequence of three consecutive sky camera images, spanning about 3 minutes, is used. The correlation between these three images makes it possible to establish the behavioural pattern of cloud movement at a given time. In order to study cloud movement, the following steps are taken [14]:

The picture taken with the sky camera is divided into different sectors, since the movement of the clouds will depend on the sector covered by the sky camera.

- The cloud motion vector (CMV) is calculated for each sector by applying the maximum cross-correlation method.
- 164 165
- Different quality tests are applied to ensure the correct determination of the cloud motion.

The CMV is applied to the last image received and re-applied to the result obtained. This process is repeated up to 30 times (prediction for 30 minutes ahead), obtaining the movement of the pixels from the minute in which the image was taken to the 30th minute in the future. Therefore, each application of the CMV is 1 minute of forecasting. Finally, the prediction of clouds presence consists in checking if the new position of the clouds masks the future Sun path.

# 173 4. Post-processing with binary probabilistic models

In the literature, three main categories of statistical models are proposed 174 to generate probabilistic forecasts of binary events [24]. The first family of 175 models, called parametric, assumes that the probability of the event follows a 176 known distribution law, such as Gaussian or logistic. Conversely, the second 177 type of models, called non-parametric, is not based on underlying distribu-178 tions. Predictions are learned from a sample of data and obviously machine 179 learning techniques dominate this second family of models. The last cate-180 gory, called semi-parametric, is a mix of the two previous ones. In this work, 181 we proposed to test two parametric models and one non-parametric model 182 to post-process the deterministic forecasts. 183

# 184 4.1. Parametric approach

The first approach proposed here is based on the very well-known sta-185 tistical models logit and probit used for decision-making problems involving 186 binary or categorical choices in various domains such as economy [12] or 187 meteorology [25]. These two parametric models belongs to the Generalized 188 Linear Models (GLM) [26]. Their aim is to model the probabilities of a ran-189 dom response variable Y as a function of some explanatory variables. The 190 model combines two functions. First, a function of independent explanatory 191 variables. This function, called index function or systematic component, may 192 be linear or not. Second, a link function that links the systematic component 193 with the random response variable. 194

For the logit and probit models, the index function Z is a linear combination of independent explanatory variables  $(x_1, ..., x_k)$  and corresponding regression coefficients  $(\beta_0, ..., \beta_k)$ , written as follow:

$$Z = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k. \tag{3}$$

Used alone, this linear function is not able to provide suitable probability levels. Indeed, linear functions are not bounded in the range [0;1]. To overcome this issue, link functions have been proposed to transform the result of the index function Z into probabilities ranging between 0 (i.e. cloud) and 1 (i.e. no cloud). In our case, only the link function differentiates the logit and probit models. For the logit model, the link function is the following logistic function (also called sigmoid function):

$$Pr(Y = 1|X) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-Z}}.$$
(4)

For the probit model, the link function is the cumulative standard normal distribution function given below:

$$Pr(Y=1|X) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{Z} e^{-\frac{u^2}{2}} du.$$
 (5)

The input variables of these models can be either continuous, binary 207 or categorical. This feature is very important in our case because the ex-208 planatory variables available to generate probabilistic forecasts of the cloud 209 presence are binary (i.e. the deterministic forecasts) and continuous (i.e. 210 measured irradiance, solar zenith angle, hour of the day, etc.). The main 211 difference between these two parametric models is the shape of the link func-212 tion. The logistic function produces heavier tails than the standard normal 213 distribution function. To implement the logit and probit models, we used the 214 "glm" function of the package "stats" that is part of R [27], which is based 215 on the maximum likelihood approach to estimate the coefficients. 216

#### 217 4.2. Non-parametric approach

As most of real-life phenomena do not follow a known distribution law, non-parametric models have been developed. Non-parametric binary choice models have been initially developed for economic applications [28]. A set of non-parametric regressions, designed for continuous variables and also suitable for binary events probability, are available in the literature [29, 30]. The main challenge for these regression models is to combine continuous, categorical and binary data as input [31] like in our work.

Decision Trees (DT) and by extension Random Forests (RF), which be-225 long to the supervised machine learning methods are appealing non-parametric 226 models to predict discrete choice. Indeed, they can predict either a nu-227 merical value (regression tree), a class or a discrete choice (classification 228 tree). They can use either continuous, categorical or binary variable as in-229 put. They require less computational effort than classical non-parametric 230 regression methods. Indeed, the computation time of regression methods in-231 creases exponentially with the number of variables which is not the case for 232 DT and RF. 233



Figure 2: Simplified illustration of a Random Forest classifier used to predict class probability

The characteristics of the RF used in this work are introduced by [32]. 234 The readers may refer to [33] for a general presentation. A classification tree 235 is a decision tool that estimates the most likely class of a categorical or a 236 binary variable to predict, when the input variables are known. Decision 237 trees are simple models that partition the features (or inputs) space into 238 subsets [33]. An iterative algorithm is used to split the input space. At each 239 step or node, the data are divided into two subsets, applying an "If, Then" 240 rule to one of the input variables. At each step, the selected input is chosen 241 to provide the best possible separation of the classes to predict. The aim is 242

to generate the optimal sequences of rules to predict the different possible classes. [32].

A RF is a set trees that are built on bootstrapped training subsets. Sev-245 eral decision trees are therefore trained. When RF are used as classifier, the 246 probabilities of the predicted classes are averaged from the answers of the 247 individual trees, as illustrated in figure 2. In the RF, the strengths (and 248 weaknesses) of each tree are aggregated. A cross-validation was done on the 249 number of trees and a good trade off was obtained for 500 trees. In this 250 work, we used the RF classifier algorithm implemented in the R package 251 "randomForest" based on [34]. 252

### 253 4.3. Implementation

As previously introduced and presented in figure 3, the forecasting process 254 has two main steps: generation of deterministic forecast from the sky imager 255 and post-processing with the probabilistic models. The first step is briefly 256 detailed in section 3. Here, we will focus on the implementation of the 257 probabilistic models. The simplest approach is to use only the discrete cloud 258 forecast  $\hat{y}_{t+h}$  as input of the probabilistic model. However, numerous works 259 show that the addition of inputs, such as past observations or solar path 260 variables, can significantly improve the quality of solar forecasts generated by 261 time series models [35, 36] or post-processing methods [37]. Thus, to improve 262 the performance of the post-processing step, we tested the addition of easy 263 to compute variables as input to the three tested probabilistic models. The 264 tested additional variables are: solar zenith angle, current and past global 265 horizontal irradiances, beam normal irradiances and clear sky indices, mean 266 and variability over past observed clear sky indices. The best combination 267 of inputs, based on the BS, is: 268

- the deterministic forecast of cloud presence  $\hat{y}_{t+h}$ ,
- the current clear sky index  $CSK_t$ ,
- the mean over the 5 past clear sky indices CSK.

Finally, we created one post-processing model by forecast horizon. Considering a time resolution of 1 minute and horizons up to 30 minutes, we trained 30 different models for each of the three probabilistic methods presented above.



Figure 3: Diagram of the implementation of the forecasting models at time t and an horizon of forecast h

#### <sup>275</sup> 5. Case study and data

In this study, images from a sky camera with rotational shadow band 276 (TSI-880 model) have been used to provide a hemispheric vision of sky (fish-277 eve vision). Additionally, the measurements of diffuse and global irradiance 278 from two CMP11 Kipp & Zonen pyranometers and direct irradiance from a 279 CH1 Kipp & Zonen pyrheliometer were used, and all the instruments were 280 installed on a two-axis solar tracker. The testing facility is located at the 281 Center of Research of Solar Energy (CIESOL) at the University of Almería 282 in a region in southern Spain. The facility has a Mediterranean climate with 283 a large presence of maritime aerosols and is located at  $36.8^{\circ}$  N latitude and 284  $2.4^{\circ}$  W longitude at sea level. Data are collected every minute, as this was 285 proposed to be an suitable frequency [3]. An appropriate maintenance was 286 performed on the sensors and sky camera. The sensors are cleaned with ethyl 287 alcohol every day. The sky camera mirror is cleaned using a soft rag with 288 distilled water three times a week. 289

Images were taken with 352 x 288 color pixel resolution, which corresponds to 24 bits in JPEG format. They have three different channels that represent the red, green and blue levels. Each pixel of the image is represented by 8 bits, with values between 0 and 255.

For the cloud nowcasting, data from 2010 and 2011 were used, for moments where solar altitude degree was higher than 5°. For 2010, a total of 137794 moments were analyzed for each interval of prediction (1 to 30 minutes) independently, whereas for 2011, 134993 predictions where processed, also for each forecast interval. Year 2010 has been used to train the post-

### <sup>299</sup> processing models and year 2011 to test them.



Figure 4: Number of observation/forecast pairs (blue bars) and ratio of observed cloudless skies (red line) in the test set (2011) for forecast horizons ranging from 1 to 30 minutes.

It should be noted that the number of observation/forecast pairs and the 300 ratio of observed cloudless skies in the test set (2011) are not identical for the 301 different forecast horizons. Indeed, the ASI fails to predict the presence of 302 clouds for long horizons when the cloud speed is high and/or of the cloud base 303 height is low. Specifically, under these conditions, predicted cloud locations 304 have a high probability of leaving the ASI's field of view before an horizon of 305 30 minutes. As a consequence, the total number of observation/forecast pairs 306 decreases while the ratio of observed cloudless skies in the test set slightly 307 increases with forecast horizon as presented in figure 4. As the clear skies 308 are easier to forecast, this pattern will impact the assessment of the models 309 accuracy. 310

#### 311 6. Results and discussions

The post-processing of the deterministic forecasts gives a probability level of the possible future cloud presence. But, it can also be seen as a calibration of the deterministic forecasts based on the training set statistics. Furthermore, it is common to transform the probability level resulting from the discrete choice models in a new binary and deterministic forecasts. To do so, we assume that a probability above 0.5 (> 50%) corresponds to a "yes"

event, i.e. in our case a clear sky. While a probability below 0.5 (< 50%) is 318 a "no" event corresponding to the presence of clouds. To asses the ability of 319 the selected discrete choice models to improve the deterministic forecast, this 320 transformation was applied to the probabilistic forecasts. Thus, the evalua-321 tion of the generated forecasts will be performed in two steps. First we will 322 evaluate the improvement of the quality of the deterministic forecasts before 323 and after the post-processing step. Second, we will assess the quality of the 324 probabilistic forecasts and the improvement compared to the corresponding 325 deterministic forecasts. Table 1, at the end of this paper, gives the detailed 326 numeric results used to plot the graphs evaluating the quality of the forecasts. 327

### 328 6.1. Deterministic forecasts quality

Figure 5 shows the evaluation of the quality of the deterministic forecasts 329 before and after the post-processing with the three discrete choice models 330 tested in this work. Surprisingly, with longer horizons, the accuracy of the 331 initial forecasts done with the sky imager increases (solid black line). This 332 observation results from the share of clear and cloudy skies available in the 333 test sets presented previously in section 5 and figure 4. Indeed, for longer 334 horizons, the share of clear skies, which are easier to forecast when there is 335 no cloud in the field of view of the ASI, is more important. We could have 336 homogenized the test sets of the different horizons to cancel this effect. How-337 ever, removing conditions with fast moving clouds from the shorter horizons, 338 would have biased the analysis of the improvement brought by the prob-339 abilistic approach that is more interesting when forecasting becomes more 340 uncertain. Even if this effect does not influence significantly the results of 341 this work, the reader must keep in mind that for the longest horizons, the 342 test sets leads to a higher share of situations that are easier to forecast. 343

As expected, the post-processing with the discrete choice models im-344 proves significantly the accuracy of the forecasting system. For horizons 345 from 1 to 15 minutes, the accuracy resulting from the 3 models decreases. 346 Above a 15 minute horizon, as for the original ASI forecasts, the accuracy 347 increases slightly. Among the 3 tested models, the RF model, which is a non-348 parametric method, shows the best improvement with an accuracy of 93.4%349 and 90.3% for horizons of 1 minute and 30 minutes respectively. Compared 350 to the initial ASI forecasts, this improvement correspond to a gain of 11.6 351 percentage points for the shortest horizon (i.e. 1 minute) and 7.5 percentage 352 point for the longest one (i.e. 30 minutes). Regarding the two parametric 353 techniques, the logit model, which has an accuracy close to the RF, clearly 354



Figure 5: Accuracy (or fraction correct) of the deterministic ASI forecasts before and after the post-processing

<sup>355</sup> outperforms the probit model. However, both of them show a significant <sup>356</sup> improvement over the ASI original forecasts. Given the simplicity and the <sup>357</sup> low computational efforts of the logit model, the former offers a very good <sup>358</sup> trade off for the study case selected in this work.

# 359 6.2. Probabilistic forecasts quality

As previously discussed in section 2, the reliability of the probabilistic 360 forecast is the first attribute to verify. Figure 6 gives the reliability 361 diagrams of the 3 discrete choice models and of the climatology model for all 362 the horizons of forecast (i.e. overall reliability). The climatology is a very 363 simple model used as a reference, which forecasts the average probability of 364 the event whatever the weather conditions and the horizon. Here, the average 365 probability to have a clear sky computed from the test set is 74.8%. The 366 reliability diagram is a visual tool that gives a qualitative assessment of the 367 reliability. A perfectly reliable model should result in a reliability curve that 368 sticks to the diagonal. Here, none of the 3 tested models presents a perfect 369 reliability. Conversely to the RF models, the probit and logit models never 370 generate forecast probabilities of 0 and 1. As a consequence, their reliability 371 curves do not reach the lower and upper limit of the diagram. The important 372 deviations from the diagonal of the probit and logit models indicate a peak 373

of under-confidence for a forecast probability of 0.5 and an over-confidence for forecast probabilities ranging between 0.75 and 0.9. In other word, when these two models issue a forecast probability of 0.5 (i.e. 50% probability of a clear sky), the actual observed frequency is higher than 0.75. The RF model shows a better overall reliability than the 2 parametric models with a high reliability when it forecasts a clear sky with forecast probabilities above 0.5.



Figure 6: Reliability diagrams of the 3 discrete choice models and of the climatology

In addition to the reliability assessment, the BS provides quantitative 380 information on the quality of the forecast. The BS is negatively oriented and 381 a lower value indicates better quality. Figures 7 shows the BS of the original 382 ASI forecasts, of the climatology model, based on the training set, and of 383 the 3 discrete choice models. For the original ASI forecasts (solid black line), 384 which are deterministic, the BS is derived from the accuracy as detailed in 385 section 2. First, we can observe that the quality of the climatology increases 386 slightly with the horizon. Again, this trend results from the increased share 387 of clear skies for the longer horizons in the test set. Second, the BS of the 388 probit and logit models is almost the same regardless of the horizon. This 380 result, which differs from that obtained with their deterministic counterparts, 390 highlights that the information included in a probabilistic forecast cannot 391 be translated into a deterministic forecast. Finally, the RF model clearly 392 outperforms the 2 parametric models. The good performance of this non-393 parametric model comes from several advantages. Indeed, RF is able to map 394

non-linear relationships between inputs and output. It is designed to handle
different types of variables, which can be binary, categorical or continuous.
Finally, and unlike probit and logit models, RF issues probability forecasts
of 0 and 1 with high reliability.



Figure 7: Brier scores of the original ASI forecasts, of the climatology model used as a reference and of the probabilistic forecasts resulting from post-processing with the 3 discrete-choice models

# 399 7. Conclusions

This work is a first attempt, in the field of solar energy, to propose a 400 methodology to generate very short-term probabilistic forecasts of the pres-401 ence of clouds as a binary event. The objective is to anticipate the moment 402 when the direct normal irradiance is higher than a defined threshold, suitable 403 to the operation of concentrated solar power plants. The proposed approach 404 combines binary forecast based on a sky imager with discrete choice models 405 commonly used in various decision-making problems to generate probability 406 forecast of cloud presence. Two parametric (probit and logit) and one non-407 parametric (RF) discrete choice models have been tested in this work. The 408 RF clearly outperforms the widely used probit and logit models. Beyond 409 a better quality assessed with the reliability diagram and the BS, the RF 410 provides better features, like the ability to forecast probability levels of 0 or 411 1 with high reliability. 412

As this work is a the first one on the topic, no comparison with other 413 models or approaches is possible and it is difficult to evaluate the actual 414 performance of the proposed method. However, the generated forecasts show 415 a good quality. Indeed, the accuracy of the deterministic forecasts derived 416 from the probability level is above 90% with an improvement ranging from 7.5 417 to 11.6 percentage points compared to the original ASI forecasts. Regarding 418 the probability forecasts obtained with the three tested models, their BS are 419 below 0.1, regardless the horizon of forecast. 420

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Horizon	Accuracy				Brier Score			
(minutes)	ASI	Probit	Logit	$\mathbf{RF}$	Climato	Probit	Logit	$\mathbf{RF}$
1	0.817	0.893	0.915	0.934	0.198	0.074	0.072	0.053
2	0.815	0.892	0.911	0.925	0.198	0.078	0.075	0.059
3	0.814	0.889	0.907	0.920	0.198	0.080	0.078	0.064
4	0.814	0.884	0.902	0.916	0.198	0.082	0.081	0.067
5	0.813	0.880	0.899	0.911	0.198	0.084	0.082	0.071
6	0.813	0.871	0.893	0.909	0.198	0.086	0.084	0.073
7	0.814	0.870	0.892	0.908	0.197	0.087	0.085	0.074
8	0.814	0.879	0.896	0.906	0.197	0.087	0.086	0.075
9	0.815	0.874	0.893	0.906	0.196	0.088	0.087	0.076
10	0.816	0.875	0.893	0.905	0.196	0.089	0.087	0.077
11	0.816	0.873	0.892	0.905	0.195	0.089	0.088	0.078
12	0.817	0.877	0.894	0.904	0.194	0.089	0.088	0.078
13	0.818	0.876	0.894	0.905	0.194	0.090	0.088	0.078
14	0.819	0.874	0.893	0.905	0.194	0.090	0.089	0.079
15	0.820	0.878	0.895	0.905	0.193	0.090	0.089	0.080
16	0.821	0.874	0.894	0.905	0.193	0.091	0.089	0.081
17	0.822	0.878	0.896	0.904	0.193	0.091	0.089	0.081
18	0.823	0.884	0.898	0.903	0.192	0.091	0.089	0.082
19	0.824	0.884	0.898	0.904	0.192	0.091	0.089	0.082
20	0.824	0.884	0.899	0.905	0.191	0.091	0.089	0.083
21	0.825	0.887	0.900	0.905	0.191	0.091	0.090	0.082
22	0.826	0.891	0.901	0.905	0.191	0.091	0.090	0.083
23	0.827	0.896	0.901	0.905	0.191	0.091	0.090	0.083
24	0.827	0.888	0.900	0.905	0.190	0.092	0.090	0.084
25	0.828	0.894	0.901	0.905	0.190	0.092	0.090	0.084
26	0.828	0.895	0.901	0.904	0.190	0.092	0.091	0.084
27	0.828	0.892	0.901	0.905	0.190	0.092	0.091	0.085
28	0.828	0.890	0.901	0.904	0.189	0.093	0.092	0.085
29	0.828	0.891	0.901	0.904	0.189	0.093	0.092	0.085
30	0.828	0.887	0.900	0.903	0.189	0.094	0.092	0.086
Overall	0.821	0.883	0.899	0.908	0.198	0.088	0.087	0.077

Table 1: Numerical results of the evaluation of deterministic and probabilistic forecasts for the different horizons

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