

Seasonality of interbasin SST contributions to Atlantic tropical cyclone activity

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Abstract

Recent studies have demonstrated that the difference in sea surface temperature anomalies (SSTAs) between the tropical Atlantic main development region (MDR) and the tropical Pacific (Niño 3) modulates Atlantic tropical cyclone activity. This study further explores the seasonality of Pacific and Atlantic contributions to Atlantic hurricane activity. Our analysis shows that while MDR and Niño 3 SSTAs are equally important for late-season (September–November) activity, early-season (June–August) activity is largely modulated by MDR SSTAs. This reflects the increased (reduced) variance of MDR (Niño 3) SSTAs in the early-season due to their phase locking to the seasonal cycle. Further analysis yields skillful forecasts using an MDR–Niño 3 interbasin index derived from hindcasts of the North American Multi-Model Ensemble with May initial conditions. However, the prediction skill for MDR SSTAs is lower than that of Niño 3 SSTAs, suggesting that increasing the prediction skill for MDR SSTAs is key to improving seasonal outlooks.

1 **Seasonality of interbasin SST contributions to Atlantic tropical cyclone activity**

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15 **Key Points:**

- 16 • This study explores the seasonality of Pacific and Atlantic SST contributions to Atlantic
17 hurricane activity
- 18 • Early-season hurricane activity is largely influenced by Atlantic SSTAs, but Pacific
19 SSTAs are equally important in the late-season
- 20 • An interbasin SST index is a reliable predictor of seasonal hurricane activity, albeit the
21 Atlantic SST is a limiting factor

22 **Abstract**

23 Recent studies have demonstrated that the difference in sea surface temperature anomalies
24 (SSTAs) between the tropical Atlantic main development region (MDR) and the tropical Pacific
25 (Niño 3) modulates Atlantic tropical cyclone activity. This study further explores the seasonality
26 of Pacific and Atlantic contributions to Atlantic hurricane activity. Our analysis shows that while
27 MDR and Niño 3 SSTAs are equally important for late-season (September-November) activity,
28 early-season (June-August) activity is largely modulated by MDR SSTAs. This reflects the
29 increased (reduced) variance of MDR (Niño 3) SSTAs in the early-season due to their phase
30 locking to the seasonal cycle. Further analysis yields skillful forecasts using an MDR-Niño 3
31 interbasin index derived from hindcasts of the North American Multi-Model Ensemble with May
32 initial conditions. However, the prediction skill for MDR SSTAs is lower than that of Niño 3
33 SSTAs, suggesting that increasing the prediction skill for MDR SSTAs is key to improving
34 seasonal outlooks.

35 **Plain Language Summary**

36 The difference in sea surface temperatures (SST) between the tropical Atlantic and the tropical
37 Pacific changes atmospheric circulation patterns that affect Atlantic hurricane activity during the
38 June-November Atlantic hurricane season. This study finds that tropical Atlantic SST have a
39 stronger influence on hurricane activity in the early-season, but tropical Pacific and tropical
40 Atlantic SST have equal influence in the late-season. This is because the seasonal variability of
41 tropical Atlantic SST increases in the early-season, while the seasonal variability of tropical
42 Pacific SST increases in the late-season, known as a seasonal phase locking mechanism. A
43 statistical model of the differences in Atlantic and Pacific SST finds skillful forecasts of above-
44 average hurricane activity throughout the hurricane season, with the greatest overall skill in the
45 late-season.

46 **1 Introduction**

47 Tropical cyclone (TC) development frequently occurs in the main development region (MDR,
48 10°N-20°N, 60°W-20°W) located in the tropical North Atlantic Ocean and extreme eastern
49 Caribbean Sea (Goldenberg & Shapiro, 1996; Landsea, 1993). Within the MDR, vertical wind
50 shear (VWS) and convective instability are the dominant local environmental factors that
51 influence TC activity (Gray, 1968; Shapiro, 1987; Emanuel, 1994; Goldenberg et al., 2001).

52 Environmental conditions within the MDR during the Atlantic hurricane season (June-
53 November; JJASON) are strongly influenced by tropical atmosphere-ocean interannual
54 variability. For instance, the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) is well known to modulate
55 Atlantic VWS and therefore TC development (Gray, 1984; Shapiro, 1987; Goldenberg &

56 Shapiro, 1996; Kossin et al., 2010; Klotzbach, 2011). Atlantic Warm Pool (AWP) amplitude and
57 the Atlantic Meridional Mode (AMM) have been shown to correlate with Atlantic MDR TC
58 activity (Wang et al., 2006; Vimont & Kossin, 2007; Xie et al., 2005). On decadal timescales,
59 connections between Atlantic TC activity and the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation have been
60 established (Goldenberg & Shapiro, 1996; Zhang & Delworth, 2006). Shifts in Atlantic TC
61 activity as a result of anthropogenic climate change are a subject of ongoing research (Knutson et
62 al., 2020).

63 The modulation of seasonal TC activity in the Atlantic is largely dictated by the relative SST
64 difference between the (local) MDR and the (remote) tropical Pacific (Latif et al., 2007; Vecchi
65 & Soden, 2007; Swanson, 2008; Vecchi et al., 2008; Wang & Lee, 2008; Lee et al., 2011). In the
66 tropical Pacific, warm SSTAs support increased convection, which warms the global tropical
67 troposphere through a fast tropical teleconnection (Yulaeva & Wallace, 1994; Chiang & Sobel,
68 2002). This in turn increases the meridional tropospheric temperature gradient across the edge of
69 the tropics, which enhances VWS over the MDR via the thermal wind relationship and results in
70 a less favorable environment for TC activity (Gray, 1984; Tang & Neelin, 2004; Lee et al., 2011;
71 Larson et al., 2012). Differences in remote and local SST can also influence TC maximum
72 potential intensity (Camargo et al., 2013; Swanson, 2008; Vecchi & Soden, 2007).

73 However, the relative SST influence on Atlantic TC activity may not be consistent throughout
74 the hurricane season. Specifically, ENSO exhibits a strong phase locking to the seasonal cycle,
75 where the amplitude of tropical central and eastern Pacific SSTAs reach a minimum in boreal
76 spring and a maximum in November-December (Rasmusson & Carpenter, 1982; Wang &
77 Fiedler, 2006). This suggests the remote influence of ENSO may be much weaker in the early-
78 season (JJA) compared to the late-season (SON). In the tropical North Atlantic, the amplitude of

79 the AWP increases throughout the early season and typically reaches a maximum in September
80 (Wang & Enfield, 2001), while AMM variance peaks in boreal spring but persists throughout
81 JJASON (Vimont & Kossin, 2007). The enhanced early-season variability of tropical Atlantic
82 SSTAs, relative to tropical Pacific SSTAs, indicates a relative increase in the influence of local
83 SSTAs on early-season TC activity.

84 Consistent with this hypothesis, interannual variations in early- and late-season ACE are not
85 highly correlated ($\rho = 0.44$, Figure S1), even in extremely active hurricane seasons (e.g., 2005
86 and 2017). Consequently, we explore the impacts of local and remote SSTAs on Atlantic TC
87 activity during the early and late hurricane seasons. We additionally examine the seasonal
88 predictability of Atlantic TC activity using remote and local SSTAs from hindcasts of the North
89 American Multi-Model Ensemble (NMME).

90 We first describe the influence of local and remote SST on Atlantic TC activity during JJASON
91 and identify the MDR and the Niño 3 region (5°N - 5°S , 150°W - 90°W) as the local and remote
92 domains of greatest SSTAs impact (section 3). In section 4, changes in the relative impacts of
93 MDR and Niño 3 SST from JJA to SON are investigated. Section 5 develops early- and late-
94 season interbasin SST indices, which are implemented with NMME SSTAs in section 6 to
95 determine the predictive skill of seasonal Atlantic TC activity.

96 **2 Data**

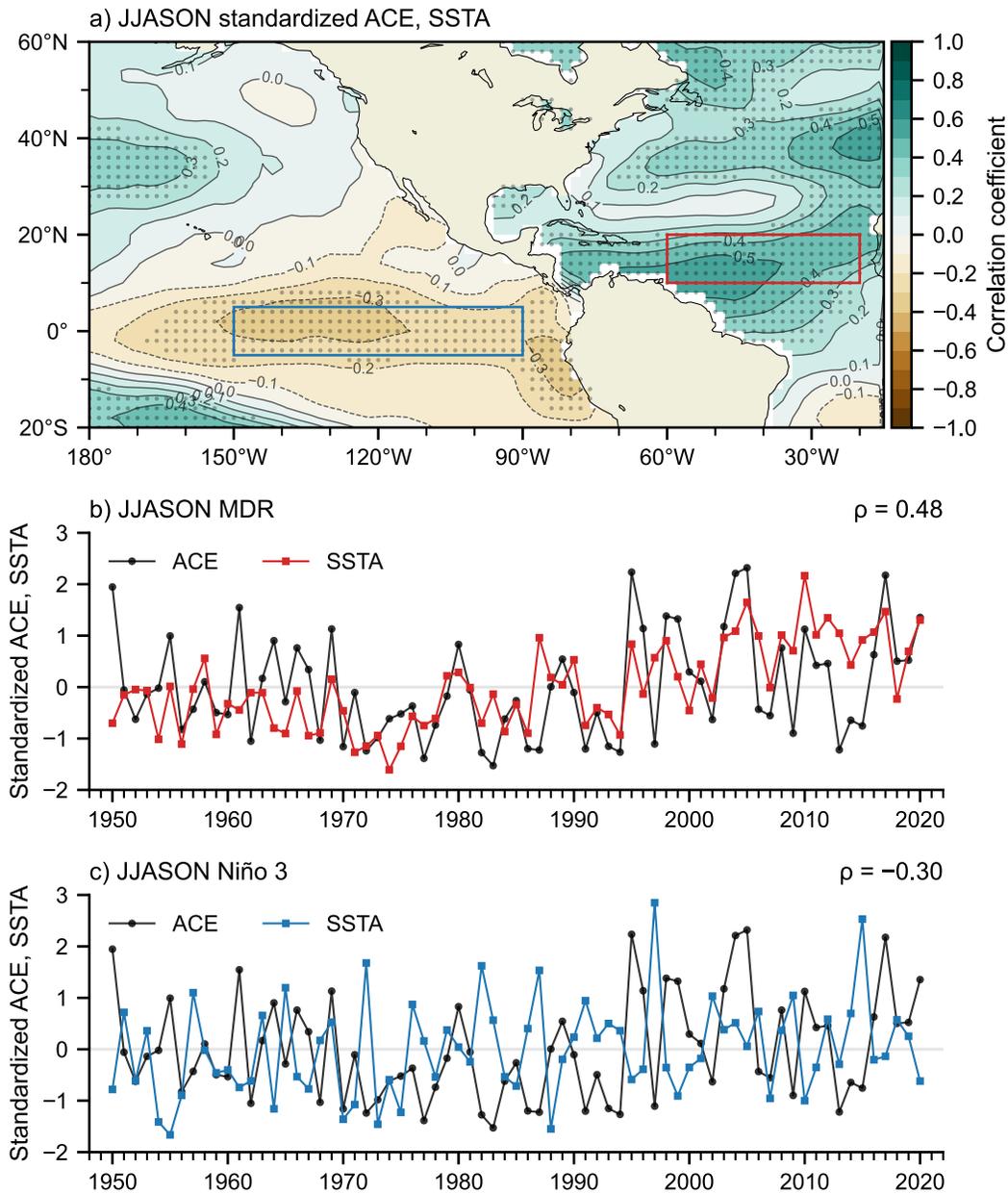
97 This study analyzes monthly SST from the Extended Reconstructed Sea Surface Temperature,
98 version 5 (ERSSTv5) data set (Huang et al., 2017). Tropical cyclone data were obtained from the
99 National Hurricane Center's (NHC) second-generation hurricane database (HURDAT2)
100 (Landsea & Franklin, 2013). Atlantic tropical cyclone activity is measured using the accumulated
101 cyclone energy index (ACE, units of kts^2), which is a metric of the number, strength and duration

102 of storms in a season (Bell et al., 2000). ACE is computed for each hurricane season by summing
103 the squared maximum wind velocity every six hours for each tropical and subtropical cyclone
104 that is of tropical storm or hurricane strength (sustained winds greater than 34 knots). ACE is
105 standardized by removing the seasonal climatology and normalizing by the corresponding
106 seasonal standard deviation. ERSSTv5 and ACE are examined from 1950-2020 (71 years) which
107 only includes data obtained after Atlantic hurricane reconnaissance flights began to avoid
108 undercounting open ocean TCs (Landsea, 2007).

109 We also use SST hindcasts from the NMME, a multi-agency seasonal prediction system which
110 incorporates climate forecasts from several North American models (Kirtman et al., 2014). Eight
111 models comprising 93 total ensemble members (see Table S1) from 1982-2009 (28 years) have
112 been used. The hindcasts are initialized with May initial conditions and run to lead times
113 spanning the Atlantic hurricane season.

114 **3 The Local-Remote SST Relationship**

115 Figure 1a explores the relationship between local and remote seasonally-averaged SSTAs and
116 ACE during JJASON. MDR SSTAs show a statistically significant (at the 95% confidence level)
117 positive correlation with ACE, with correlation coefficients (denoted by ρ) exceeding 0.5. The
118 region of strongly positive ACE and SSTA correlation also extends throughout the Caribbean
119 Sea (Saunders & Lea, 2008). In the tropical Pacific, weak but statistically significant negative
120 correlations (less than -0.3) are found in the Niño 3 and Niño 1+2 ($0-10^{\circ}\text{S}$, $90^{\circ}\text{W}-80^{\circ}\text{W}$)
121 regions. This study uses Niño 3 as the domain of remote influence due to its strong negative
122 correlation with Atlantic MDR ACE, a very high correlation with JJASON Niño 1+2 SSTAs (ρ
123 = 0.89) and a high degree of predictive skill for Pacific basin-wide ENSO events (Ren et al.,
124 2019).



125

126 **Figure 1:** a) 1950-2020 JJASON correlation between standardized ACE and SSTAs. The blue
 127 box denotes Niño 3 and the red box denotes the Atlantic MDR. Dotted areas indicate the
 128 correlation is statistically significant at the 95% confidence level based on Student's t-test. b)
 129 Standardized time series of ACE and spatially-averaged MDR SSTAs, $\rho = 0.48$. c) Standardized
 130 time series of ACE and spatially-averaged Niño 3 SSTAs, $\rho = -0.30$.

131 Figures 1b and 1c show the standardized time series of JJASON ACE with respect to the
132 spatially-averaged Atlantic MDR and Niño 3 SSTAs. The positive correlation between ACE and
133 MDR SSTAs ($\rho = 0.48$) is expected (Vimont & Kossin, 2007), as warm MDR SSTAs provide a
134 more favorable environment for TC development. The negative correlation between ACE and
135 Niño 3 SSTAs ($\rho = -0.30$) is consistent with decreased convective activity over the Pacific due
136 to cool tropical Pacific SSTAs, which results in decreased MDR VWS and subsidence, favoring
137 TC formation and intensification (Latif et al., 2007; Vecchi et al., 2008; Wang & Lee, 2008).

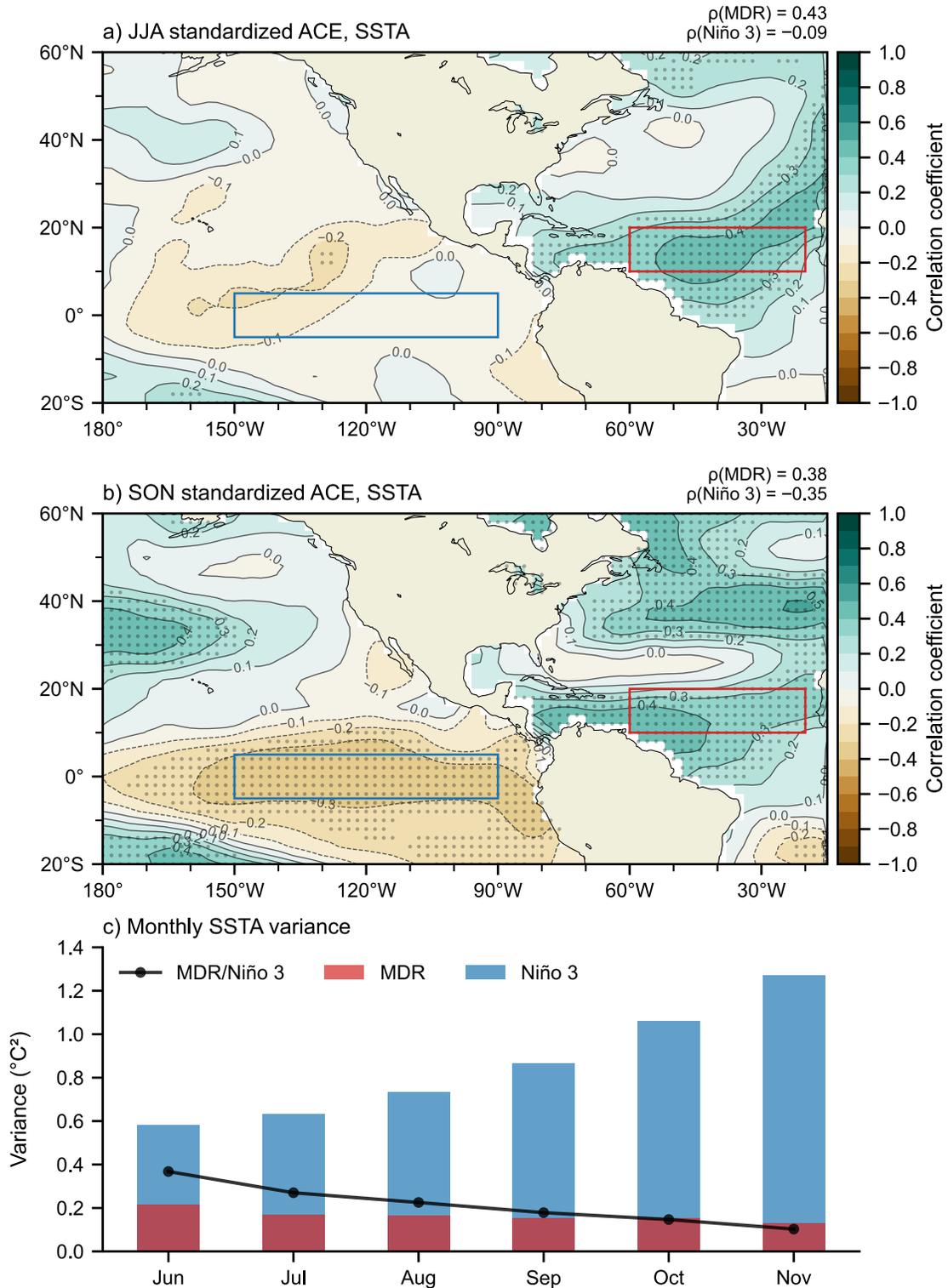
138 While Figure 1 describes a significant influence of both local and remote SSTAs on JJASON
139 ACE, we hypothesize that the early-season interbasin SST relationship may be weighted toward
140 the MDR due to the boreal spring minimum in ENSO variability. In addition, we suggest the role
141 of remote SSTAs is enhanced in the late-season due to the growth of Niño 3 SSTAs associated
142 with the typical ENSO maximum in boreal early-winter. To aid our investigation into the
143 seasonality of interbasin SST influence on Atlantic ACE, we next partition the hurricane season
144 into early-season (JJA) and late-season (SON) periods.

145 **4 Seasonality of Interbasin SST Impacts**

146 Figure 2 shows the correlation between the seasonally-summed ACE and seasonally-averaged
147 SSTAs during JJA and SON. In JJA, the strongest positive correlation is centered in the MDR,
148 which reflects the boreal spring-to-summer dissipating pattern of the AMM (Chiang & Vimont,
149 2004; Kossin & Vimont, 2007). A statistically significant positive correlation ($\rho = 0.43$) is found
150 between ACE and the spatially-averaged MDR SSTAs. In contrast, there is no significant
151 correlation between Niño 3 SSTAs and ACE during JJA ($\rho = -0.09$). These correlations signify
152 JJA Atlantic TC activity is strongly influenced by local SSTAs, yet weakly influenced by remote
153 SSTAs.

154 In SON (Figure 2b), the positive correlation between ACE and SSTAs experiences a westward
155 shift towards the Caribbean Sea, consistent with a developing AWP pattern (Wang & Enfield,
156 2001, 2003). A large area of significant negative correlations between ACE and SSTA is also
157 centered in Niño 3. The correlations between ACE and the MDR and Niño 3 SSTAs are
158 comparable in magnitude ($\rho_{\text{MDR}} = 0.38$ versus $\rho_{\text{Niño 3}} = -0.35$), suggesting the influence of
159 interbasin SSTAs on ACE is weighted evenly in SON between the MDR and Niño 3.

160 Figure 2c shows the monthly variance for MDR and Niño 3 SSTAs. At the beginning of the
161 hurricane season, Niño 3 variance is at a minimum due to largely neutral ENSO conditions. By
162 boreal autumn, Niño 3 SSTAs exhibit increased variance consistent with the seasonal phase
163 locking of ENSO (Rasmusson & Carpenter, 1982). While MDR SSTAs exhibit less overall
164 variance than Niño 3, a late boreal spring maximum in MDR variance coincides with the spring
165 variance peak of the AMM, which transitions to a minimum through SON (Enfield & Mayer,
166 1997; Czaja et al., 2002; Czaja, 2004; Chiang & Vimont, 2004). The F-statistic, or the mean
167 monthly variance ratio of MDR versus Niño 3 SSTAs, reveals the interbasin variance of SSTAs
168 is weighted toward Niño 3. The variance of MDR SSTAs is about 30% of Niño 3 in JJA,
169 decreasing to 15% by SON. Together with the correlation results, this variance profile suggests
170 the signal of early-season ACE is weighted towards MDR SSTAs, while late-season ACE is
171 heavily influenced by remote Niño 3 SSTAs due to a stronger SON ENSO teleconnection. This
172 relative SST seasonality will be used to model the distribution of early- and late-season ACE and
173 explore the seasonal predictability of Atlantic TC activity.



174

175 **Figure 2:** a) JJA and b) SON correlation between standardized ACE and SSTAs, 1950-2020.
 176 The blue box denotes Niño 3, the red box denotes the Atlantic MDR and dotted areas indicate the
 177 correlation is statistically significant at the 95% confidence level based on Student's t-test.

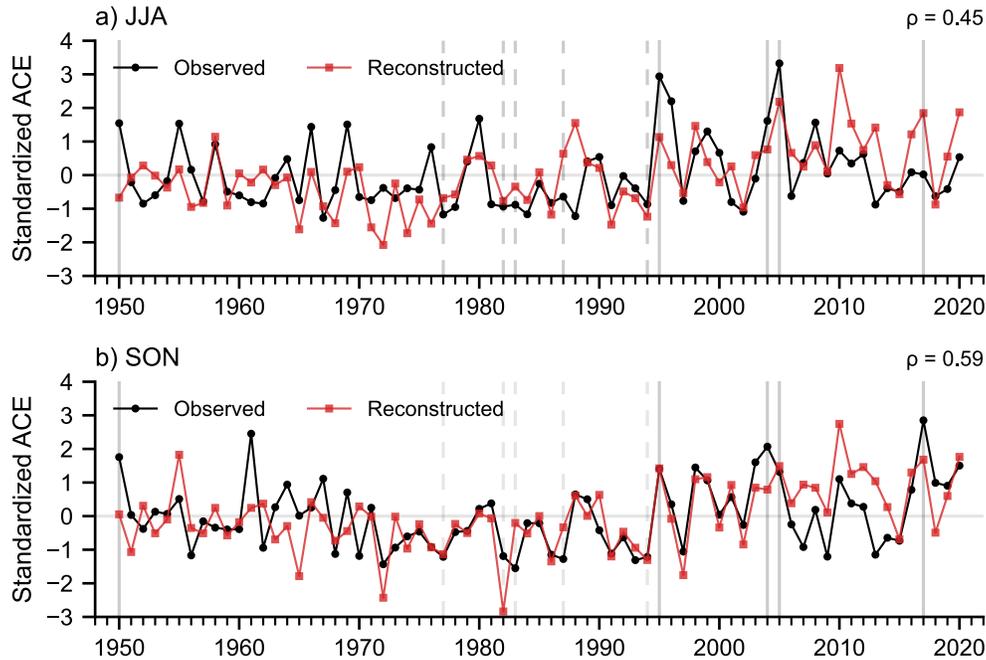
178 Correlation coefficients between ACE and the spatially-averaged MDR and Niño 3 SSTAs are
179 given respectively at top right. c) JJASON variance ($^{\circ}\text{C}^2$) during 1950-2020 for spatially-
180 averaged MDR and Niño 3 SSTAs. An F-statistic is obtained from the monthly mean variance
181 ratio of MDR SSTAs to Niño 3 SSTAs and shown by the black line. An F-test at the 95%
182 confidence level finds the monthly variance of the monthly MDR and Niño 3 SSTAs
183 significantly different.

184 **5 The Interbasin SST Index**

185 We construct an interbasin SST index from 71 years (1950-2020) of MDR and Niño 3 ERSSTv5
186 SSTAs to model the seasonal contributions of local and remote SST to Atlantic TC activity. For
187 JJA and SON, the seasonal cycle is removed and the resulting SSTAs are normalized and area-
188 averaged over the MDR and Niño 3 domains. These SSTAs are then linearly regressed to each
189 respective season's standardized ACE. Figure 3 shows the observed and reconstructed
190 standardized ACE for JJA and SON, where the reconstructed ACE calculated from each season's
191 regression model is referred to as the interbasin index. The observed and reconstructed ACE
192 have a positive JJA correlation of 0.45, but a stronger correlation ($\rho = 0.59$) occurs in SON.

193 We use a leave-one-out cross validation to assess the predictive skill of the interbasin index
194 relative to linear regression models using only an MDR or Niño 3 SST predictor. The regression
195 models for the interbasin, MDR-only and Niño 3-only cases exclude one year of SST data from
196 the training data set to use for testing the model prediction skill. This is repeated for each year,
197 during which the root mean square error (RMSE) of the forecast relative to observed ACE is
198 calculated. The leave-one-out cross validation results are given in Table S2. The interbasin index
199 has better performance in describing ACE outcomes (RMSE = 0.846, coefficient of
200 determination $R^2 = 0.34$) during SON than an index containing only MDR (RMSE = 0.954, $R^2 =$
201 0.14) or Niño 3 (RMSE = 0.960, $R^2 = 0.12$) SSTAs. In JJA, the interbasin index has roughly
202 equal skill in predicting TC activity compared to an index using only MDR SSTAs, but an index

203 of only Niño 3 SSTAs has no skill. This again suggests that the impact of remote Niño 3 SSTAs
 204 on Atlantic ACE is minimal in the early-season, yet influential during late-season. In addition,
 205 the seasonality of Atlantic TC activity is well represented by the interbasin SST index.



206

207 **Figure 3:** a) JJA and b) SON observed (black) and reconstructed (interbasin SST index, red)
 208 standardized ACE, 1950-2020. Solid (dashed) grey vertical lines correspond to the period's five
 209 years of largest (smallest) observed ACE. The correlation coefficient between the observed and
 210 reconstructed ACE is given at the top right of each panel.

211 6 Early- and Late-Season Predictability of ACE Using NMME

212 To further explore whether the interbasin index has skill in predicting early- and late-season
 213 Atlantic TC activity, we calculate the JJA and SON interbasin SST indices from 28 years (1982-
 214 2009) of NMME hindcast data with May initial conditions, which are coincident with the May
 215 release of the NOAA Climate Prediction Center Atlantic Hurricane Season Outlook. The JJA and
 216 SON SSTAs for each NMME model ensemble member are computed by removing the seasonal
 217 cycle, then normalized by the member's standard deviation and spatially-averaged over the

218 corresponding region. Each member's standardized MDR and Niño 3 SSTAs are used as
219 predictors in the JJA and SON interbasin indices to forecast a seasonal value of ACE. A NMME
220 superensemble is also computed from the interbasin indices of the eight NMME model ensemble
221 members, where the ensemble mean of each model's forecasted ACE is used as a member of the
222 superensemble. The observed and forecasted ACE values are then divided into terciles to identify
223 the likelihood of an above-, near- or below-normal ACE season. Note that the tercile is computed
224 individually for each model member, which effectively standardizes the variance within the
225 ensemble (i.e., ensemble spread).

226 We use both deterministic and probabilistic metrics to evaluate the forecast skill of the model.
227 Deterministic methods include anomaly correlation and saturation RMSE, a normalization of the
228 RMSE by the summed variances of the forecast model and observations. Probabilistic skill
229 methods include the relative operating characteristic (ROC) curve, ROC score and the ranked
230 probability skill score (RPSS). Further discussion of the probabilistic skill methods used in this
231 study is found in Supporting Text S1 (see also Swets, 1973; Mason, 1982; Mason & Graham,
232 1999; Lopez & Kirtman, 2014).

233 Table S3 provides a summary of the seasonal deterministic and probabilistic forecast scores for
234 each model. All JJA model skills are generally worse than SON, likely due to the reduced
235 potential predictability of Atlantic MDR SST during JJA relative to SON (Becker et al., 2014).
236 Anomaly correlations of each model are lower in JJA than SON except for a small difference in
237 CFSv2, but the RMSE never becomes saturated for any JJA model (approximately 85% error
238 saturation). Negative JJA RPSS values for all models indicate JJA forecasts are similar to
239 climatology (which has an RPSS of 0) when categorically forecasting for either a below-, near-
240 or above-normal ACE season. SON forecasts fare better in the deterministic skill metrics,

241 especially those from CMC2-CanCM4, CESM1 and NASA-GEOSS2S as well as the NMME
242 superensemble. All models have a positive RPSS value in SON, corresponding to categorical
243 forecasts more skilled than climatology, the most skilled being the NMME superensemble.

244 Figures 4a and 4b show JJA and SON ROC curves of below-, near- and above-normal ACE
245 forecasts. In JJA, the below-normal forecasts outperform climatology (i.e., lay above the gray
246 diagonal) while the above-normal forecasts display the greatest skill (i.e., larger ROC score,
247 Table S3). During SON, the below-normal ACE forecast outperforms the above-normal forecast
248 for most NMME models, but both forecast categories show greater probabilistic forecast skill
249 than in JJA. Importantly, the predictability of the highest impact tercile (above-average ACE) is
250 improved in both JJA and SON, with the greatest overall predictability found in the late-season.

251 The reduced forecast skill during JJA with respect to SON may be related to a weaker Atlantic
252 ACE signal in JJA and the decreased variance of Niño 3 SSTAs during the early-season (see
253 Figure 2c and Figure S2). The increasing variance in the remote Pacific basin throughout SON
254 provides a higher signal-to-noise ratio of SSTAs and is more prevalent in model forecasts
255 initialized after the ENSO spring barrier (Lopez & Kirtman, 2014, 2015). However, the early- to
256 late-season reduction in the variance of SSTAs is not seen in the GFDL-CM2 model, which has
257 similar SON prediction skill to other NMME members.

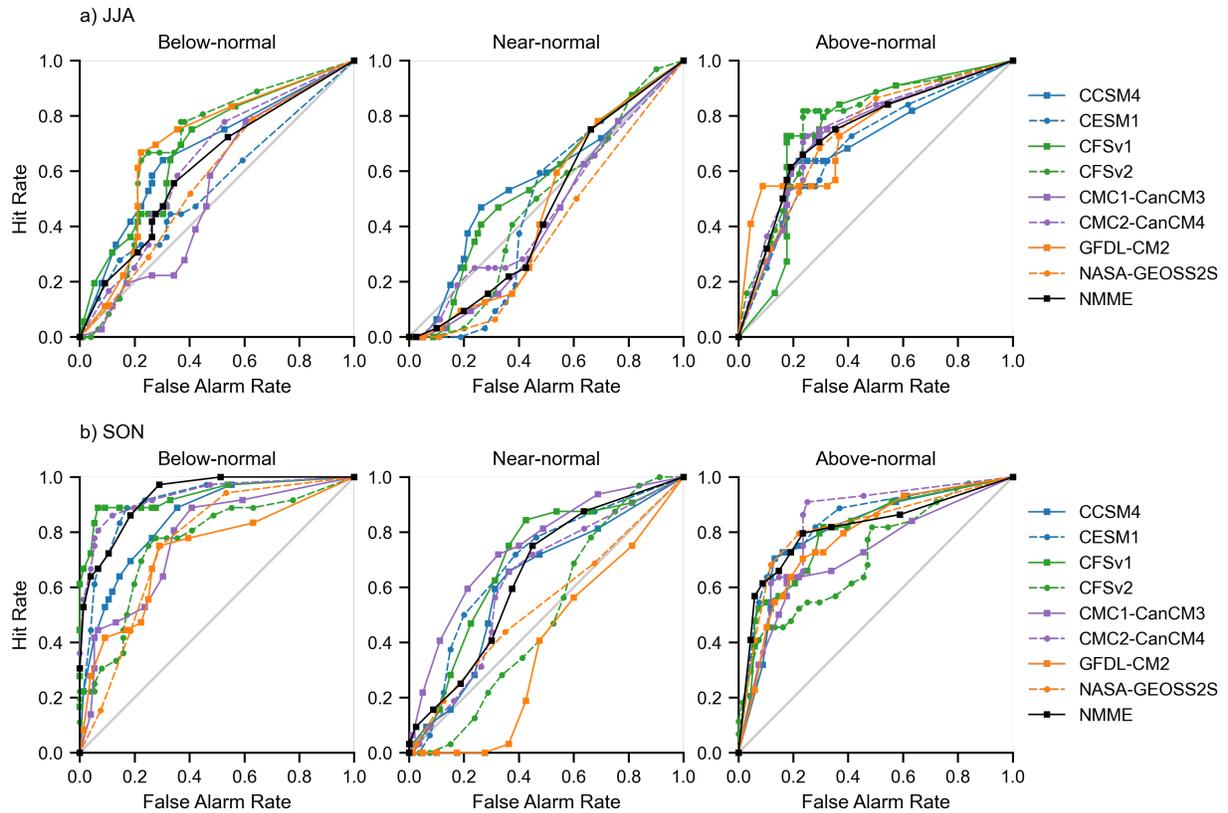
258 Together with earlier results, these forecast skill metrics suggest that the interbasin SST index
259 has utility in predicting both below- and above-normal ACE seasons. The largest skill is found in
260 SON, which coincides with the growth of Niño 3 SSTAs related to the tendency for ENSO to
261 peak in boreal early-winter. Results of the leave-one-out cross validation (Table S2) indicate that
262 the JJA to SON improvement of Niño 3 SSTAs as an ACE predictor also increases the predictive
263 skill of the interbasin index. However, the inclusion of two of the three months that form the

264 climatological peak of the hurricane season (August-October) in the definition of the late-season
265 likely contributes to the overall increased predictability.

266 As shown in Figures S3 and S4, the NMME prediction skill for MDR SSTAs is much lower than
267 that of Niño 3 SSTAs, thus serving as a bottleneck for interbasin SST index prediction skill. This
268 suggests that increasing the prediction skill for MDR SSTAs is crucial for improving seasonal
269 outlooks. In addition, it is interesting to note that MDR and Niño 3 SSTAs from ERSSTv5 and
270 NMME are more positively correlated in JJA than in SON, yet this does not translate to
271 increased ACE predictability in JJA relative to SON (Table S3). This indicates that the interbasin
272 SST link to Atlantic TC activity is weaker in JJA than in SON as demonstrated in Figure 3.

273 **7 Summary and Conclusions**

274 Previous studies have described the impacts of local and remote SST on Atlantic TC activity
275 (Latif et al., 2007; Vecchi & Soden, 2007; Swanson, 2008; Vecchi et al., 2008; Wang & Lee,
276 2008; Lee et al., 2011) and ENSO's role in modulating Atlantic hurricanes (Goldenberg &
277 Shapiro, 1996; Gray, 1984; Shapiro, 1987; Kossin et al., 2010; Klotzbach, 2011). This study
278 explores the influence of interbasin SSTAs on early- and late-season Atlantic TC activity. Our
279 analysis shows that remote Niño 3 SSTAs have little influence on JJA TC activity. This is in
280 agreement with ENSO's phase locking to the seasonal cycle, which corresponds to the growth of
281 remote SSTAs from a minimum in late-spring to a winter maximum (Rasmusson & Carpenter,
282 1982). However, tropical Pacific convective instability during SON influences vertical wind
283 shear and subsidence over the tropical Atlantic basin, regulating the conditions for TC activity
284 (Gray, 1984; Tang & Neelin, 2004; Lee et al., 2011; Larson et al., 2012). Accordingly, this study
285 describes an enhanced impact of Niño 3 SSTAs on Atlantic TC activity during SON with
286 influence comparable to MDR SSTAs.



287

288 **Figure 4:** 1982-2009 a) JJA and b) SON ROC curves for below-, near- and above-normal ACE
 289 forecasts from the interbasin SST index using NMME model member SST predictors. The
 290 colored curves represent NMME model members, the black curve denotes the NMME
 291 superensemble and the number of points on a curve corresponds to the number of model
 292 ensemble members. The gray diagonal is equivalent to the forecast skill of climatology.

293 This study finds that MDR SSTAs are of great importance in producing a skillful early-season
 294 forecast of ACE while ENSO is not. However, the representation of remote SSTAs, modulated
 295 by ENSO, are as important as MDR SSTAs in predicting SON TC activity. NMME ensemble
 296 forecasts with May initial conditions can be used to make skillful forecasts of above- and below-
 297 average ACE using an interbasin SST index. Notably, this interbasin index provides increased
 298 predictability of high-impact TC activity. Despite a longer lead time for the SST predictors in
 299 SON than JJA, prediction skills for Atlantic ACE are greater in SON than in JJA, partly because
 300 the interbasin SST link to Atlantic TC activity is much weaker in JJA than in SON. Therefore,

301 there is a need to identify additional predictors for Atlantic ACE, particularly for JJA. Further
302 analysis also indicates that the NMME prediction skill for MDR SSTAs is lower than that of
303 Niño 3 SSTAs, suggesting that increasing the prediction skill for MDR SSTAs is key to
304 improving seasonal outlooks.

305 Future studies on interbasin teleconnections would benefit from an examination of other TC
306 fields, such as convective available potential energy (CAPE) and VWS, which may shed light on
307 other seasonal characteristics of Atlantic TC activity. The definition of the MDR used in this
308 work might also be extended westward to capture the increased positive correlation between
309 SON SSTAs and ACE in the western Caribbean. Finally, analysis of low frequency SST
310 variability, such as the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation or Pacific Decadal Oscillation, may
311 shed light on the applicability of the interbasin SST methodology in representing multidecadal
312 hurricane variability. Developments in these areas would significantly advance the state of
313 operational seasonal hurricane outlooks.

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323 by AOML's Hurricane Research Division (HRD) at

324 https://www.aoml.noaa.gov/hrd/hurdat/Data_Storm.html. NMME model data was provided by
325 the International Research Institute for Climate and Society (IRI) at
326 <http://iridl.ldeo.columbia.edu/SOURCES/Models/.NMME/>.

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Seasonality of interbasin SST contributions to Atlantic tropical cyclone activity

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Introduction

This supporting information contains Text S1, Figures S1-S4 and Tables S1-S2. Text S1 gives a more thorough description of the relative operating characteristic (ROC) and score (ROCS). Figure S1 shows for comparison the standardized ACE for both JJA and SON. Figure S2 shows the mean 1982-2009 June-November variance for MDR and Niño 3, as well as their relative variance. Figure S3 shows the 1982-2009 JJA standardized MDR SSTAs, Niño 3 SSTAs and interbasin SST indexes from the ERSSTv5 reanalysis and the NMME superensemble mean, while Figure S4 shows the same for SON. Table S1 shows the NMME models included in the study and Table S2 shows the results of the leave-one-out cross validation discussed in section 5. Table S3 shows the deterministic and probabilistic skill scores for the 1982-2009 JJA and SON interbasin SST indices using NMME SST predictors.

Text S1.

The ROC curve is a graphical representation of a forecast's ability to differentiate between two outcomes i.e., events and non-events. A useful forecast would have high hit rates and low false alarm rates, such that the ROC curve lies very close to the top-left corner. An unskilled forecast would lie on or below the grey diagonal of the ROC curve, signifying that false alarm rates occur as often or more often than hit rates, limiting any potential effectiveness. The points on the curve correspond to the number of ensemble members forecasting the event. The ROC score is the area under the ROC curve normalized between -1 and 1, where an area of 1 indicates the forecast can always distinguish between events and non-events. The ranked probabilistic skill score (RPSS) of the combined above-, near- and below-average ACE forecasts is a comparison of the probabilistic forecast of the three categories to climatology, where 1 is a perfect score and a value larger (smaller) than 0 indicates skill better (worse) than climatology.

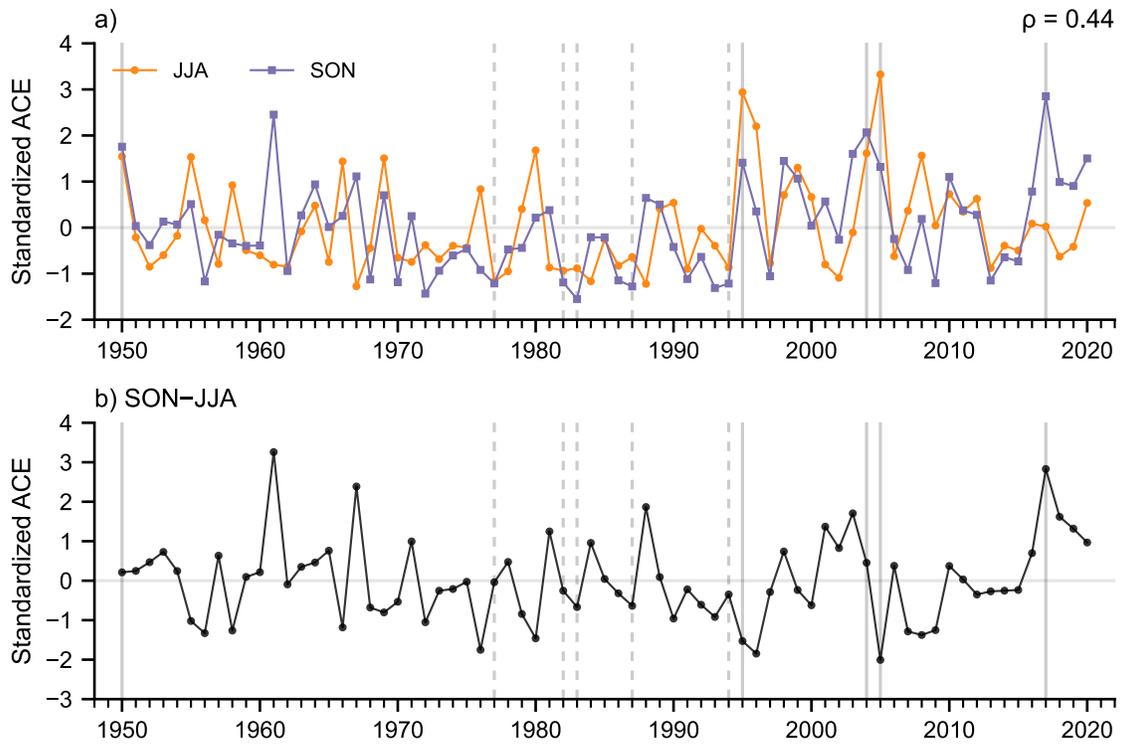


Figure S1. a) Standardized ACE during JJA (orange) and SON (purple) for the 71 year period of 1950-2020. The JJA and SON standardized ACE time series have a positive correlation of 0.44, given at top right. The five least active years are shown by the dotted vertical lines, while the five most active years are shown by the solid vertical lines. b) Difference in standardized ACE from JJA to SON during 1950-2020, with the five least active years shown by the dotted vertical lines and the five most active years shown by the solid vertical lines. Note that even in active hurricane seasons (e.g., 2005 and 2017) the proportion of ACE in JJA and SON varies.

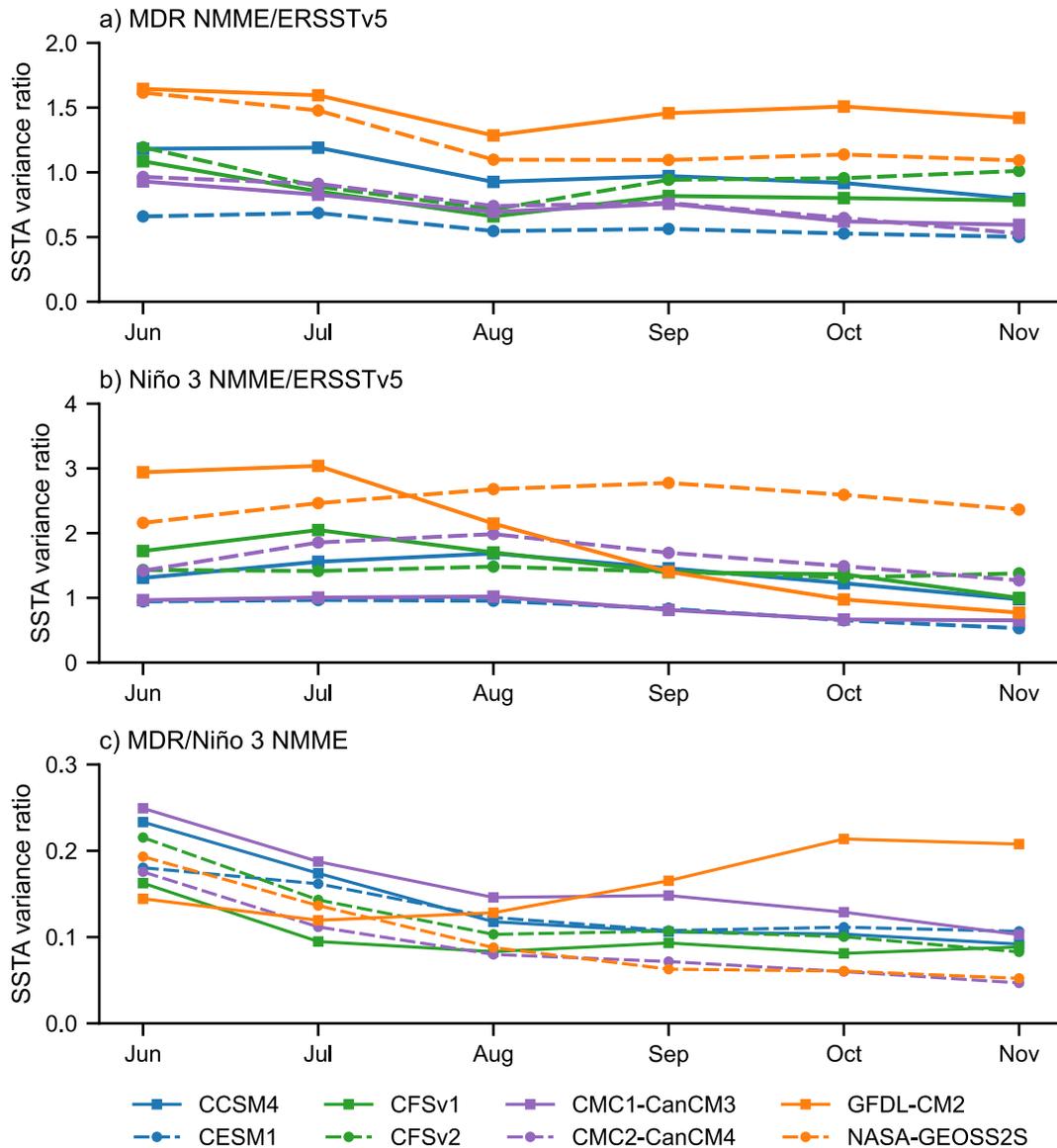


Figure S2. Mean 1982-2009 June-November monthly SSTA variance ratio of NMME model members and ERSSTv5 over the area-averaged a) MDR and b) Niño 3 domains. The NMME model member variance is the mean variance of the respective model ensemble members. c) The ratio of the mean 1982-2009 June-November NMME model member monthly variance between the area-averaged MDR and Niño 3 domains.

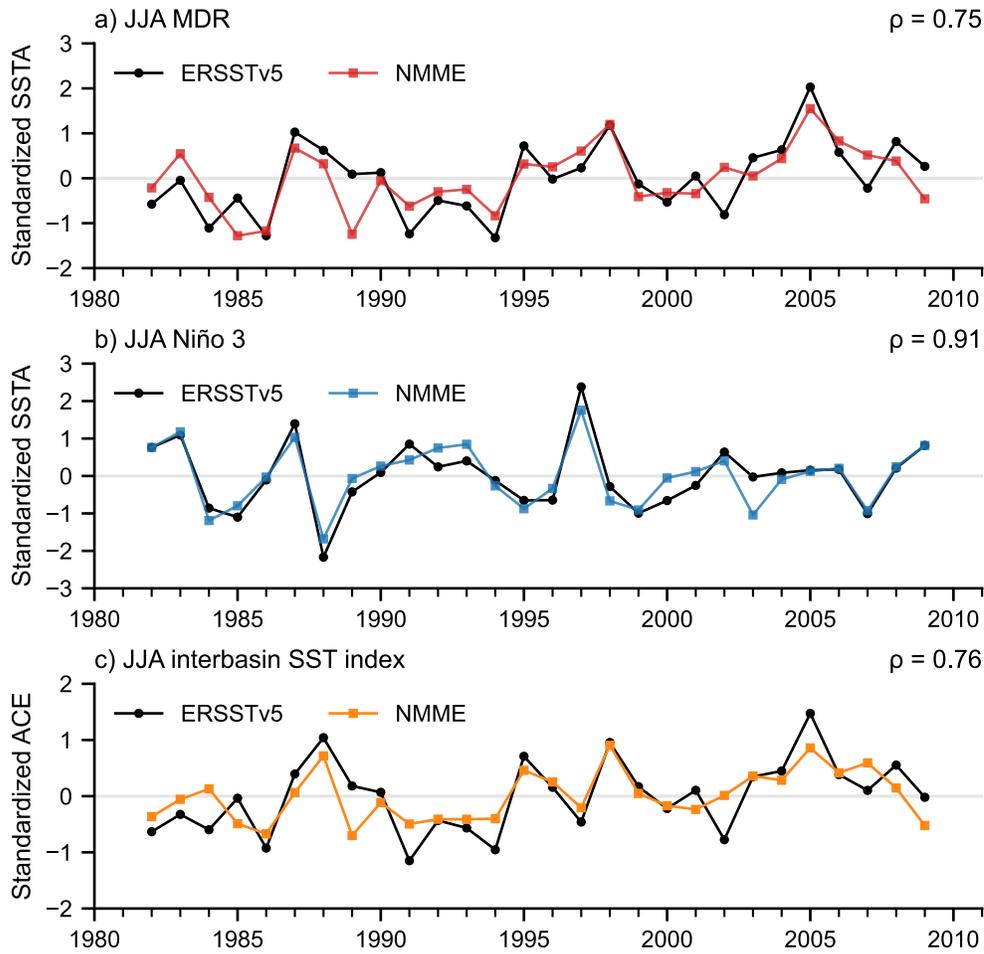


Figure S3. 1982-2009 JJA standardized SSTAs from the ERSSTv5 reanalysis and the NMME superensemble mean for the a) MDR and b) Niño 3 regions. The respective correlation coefficient of the observed and modeled standardized SSTAs is given at top right. c) The 1982-2009 JJA interbasin SST index using ERSSTv5 and NMME superensemble mean SST predictors, where the observed and modeled standardized ACE $\rho = 0.76$.

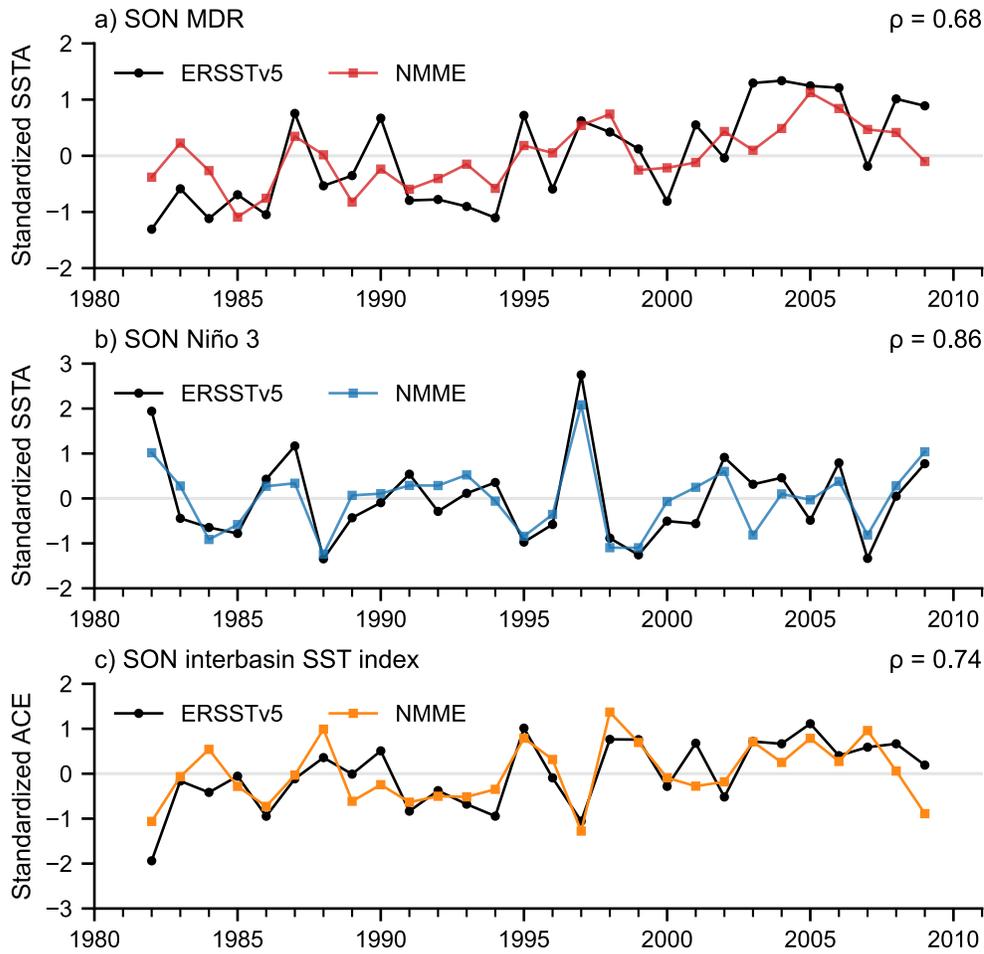


Figure S4. 1982-2009 SON standardized SSTAs from the ERSSTv5 reanalysis and the NMME superensemble mean for the a) MDR and b) Niño 3 regions. The respective correlation coefficient of the observed and modeled standardized SSTAs is given at top right. c) The 1982-2009 SON interbasin SST index using ERSSTv5 and NMME superensemble mean SST predictors, where the observed and modeled standardized ACE $\rho = 0.74$.

| Model | Ensemble Members |
|--------------|------------------|
| CCSM4 | 10 |
| CESM1 | 10 |
| CFSv1 | 15 |
| CFSv2 | 24 |
| CMC1-CanCM3 | 10 |
| CMC2-CanCM4 | 10 |
| GFDL-CM2 | 10 |
| NASA-GEOSS2S | 4 |

Table S1. Models included in the study as part of the North American Multi-Model Ensemble (NMME). For more information on the models that comprise the NMME, see Kirtman et al. (2014). NMME model data was obtained from <https://iridl.ldeo.columbia.edu/SOURCES/.Models/.NMME/>.

| | MDR | Niño 3 | Interbasin |
|-----|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| JJA | 0.934 (0.735) | 1.021 (0.815) | 0.937 (0.725) |
| SON | 0.954 (0.772) | 0.960 (0.773) | 0.846 (0.664) |

Table S2. Results of a leave-one-out cross validation scheme to assess the predictive skill of the interbasin SST index. The root mean square error (RMSE) and mean absolute error (MAE, given in parenthesis) are computed during JJA and SON using only the MDR as a predictor, using only Niño 3 as a predictor and using both MDR and Niño 3 as predictors (interbasin).

| Model | Season | Anom. Corr. | RMSE _{sat} | RPSS | ROCS _{below} | ROCS _{above} |
|--------------|--------|-------------|---------------------|--------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| CCSM4 | JJA | 0.483 | 0.790 | -0.339 | 0.346 | 0.385 |
| | SON | 0.667 | 0.642 | 0.426 | 0.699 | 0.606 |
| CESM1 | JJA | 0.390 | 0.862 | -0.142 | 0.106 | 0.381 |
| | SON | 0.704 | 0.618 | 0.277 | 0.817 | 0.679 |
| CFSv1 | JJA | 0.468 | 0.813 | -0.047 | 0.373 | 0.505 |
| | SON | 0.636 | 0.694 | 0.407 | 0.871 | 0.594 |
| CFSv2 | JJA | 0.500 | 0.816 | -0.072 | 0.386 | 0.547 |
| | SON | 0.456 | 0.866 | 0.111 | 0.527 | 0.426 |
| CMC1-CanCM3 | JJA | 0.443 | 0.830 | -0.268 | 0.072 | 0.469 |
| | SON | 0.570 | 0.743 | 0.094 | 0.548 | 0.440 |
| CMC2-CanCM4 | JJA | 0.480 | 0.792 | -0.212 | 0.261 | 0.500 |
| | SON | 0.711 | 0.590 | 0.421 | 0.864 | 0.664 |
| GFDL-CM2 | JJA | 0.489 | 0.798 | -0.102 | 0.367 | 0.487 |
| | SON | 0.648 | 0.707 | 0.109 | 0.462 | 0.566 |
| NASA-GEOSS2S | JJA | 0.799 | 0.618 | -0.144 | 0.152 | 0.463 |
| | SON | 0.859 | 0.493 | 0.321 | 0.519 | 0.636 |
| NMME | JJA | 0.515 | 0.788 | -0.186 | 0.234 | 0.479 |
| | SON | 0.710 | 0.630 | 0.430 | 0.864 | 0.624 |

Table S3: Deterministic (anomaly correlation, saturation RMSE) and probabilistic (RPSS, ROCS) skill scores for the interbasin SST index using NMME model member SST as predictors in forecasting observed ACE during 1982-2009 JJA, SON. Bold RPSS values indicate scores that outperform climatology (RPSS > 0). Bold below- and above-normal ROCS values indicate forecasts that generally discriminate skillfully between categorical events (ROCS > 0.5).