TempestExtremes v2.1: A Community Framework for Feature Detection, Tracking and Analysis in Large Datasets

Paul A. Ullrich¹, Colin M. Zarzycki², Elizabeth E. McClenny¹, Marielle C. Pinheiro¹, Alyssa M. Stansfield³, and Kevin A. Reed³

¹Department of Land, Air and Water Resources, University of California, Davis, Davis, California
 ²Pennsylvania State University
 ³School of Marine and Atmospheric Sciences, State University of New York at Stony Brook, Stony Brook, New York
 Correspondence: Paul Ullrich (paullrich@ucdavis.edu)

Abstract. TempestExtremes (TE) is a multifaceted framework for feature detection, tracking, and scientific analysis of regional or global Earth system datasets on either rectilinear and unstructured/native grids. Version 2.1 of the TE framework now provides extensive support for examining both nodal (i.e., pointwise) and areal features, including tropical and extratropical cyclones, monsoonal lows and depressions, atmospheric rivers, atmospheric blocking, precipitation clusters, and heat waves.

- 5 Available operations include nodal and areal thresholding, calculations of quantities related to nodal features such as accumulated cyclone energy and azimuthal wind profiles, filtering data based on the characteristics of nodal features, and stereographic compositing. This paper describes the core algorithms (kernels) that have been added to the TE framework since version 1.0, including algorithms for editing pointwise trajectory files, composition of fields around nodal features, generation of areal masks via thresholding and nodal features, and tracking of areal features in time. Several examples are provided of how these
- 10 kernels can be combined to produce composite algorithms for evaluating and understanding common atmospheric features and their underlying processes. These examples include analyzing the fraction of precipitation from tropical cyclones, compositing meteorological fields around extratropical cyclones, calculating fractional contribution to poleward vapor transport from atmospheric rivers, and building a climatology of atmospheric blocks.

1 Introduction

- 15 For many atmospheric and oceanic features, automated object identification and tracking in large datasets has enabled targeted scientific exploration of feature-specific processes. Software tools for feature tracking, colloquially referred to as "trackers", are valuable for evaluating model performance (Davini and D'Andrea, 2016; Stansfield et al., 2020); understanding upstream process drivers, such as large-scale meteorological patterns (e.g. Grotjahn et al., 2016); and projecting future changes in feature characteristics and climatology (Roberts et al., 2020a). When well-engineered, these automated tools provide a means for
- 20 analyzing the multiple petabytes of climate data now available and anticipated in the next decade (Schnase et al., 2016; Hassani et al., 2019). Since its introduction, TempestExtremes (TE, Ullrich and Zarzycki, 2017) has been continuously augmented with new kernels that is, basic data operators that can act as building-blocks for more complicated tracking algorithms designed to streamline data analysis and generalize capabilities present in other trackers. These kernels thus provide more options and

flexibility in exploring the space of trackers for each feature, and enable a deeper understanding of how robust a given scientific

25 conclusion is with respect to the choice of tracker. We describe the most significant of these updates and provide a number of use cases to demonstrate TE's functionality for real scientifically driven case studies.

Numerous publications over the past several decades have presented automated algorithms for identification of both nodal (i.e., pointwise) and areal atmospheric features. Ullrich and Zarzycki (2017) Appendices A-C summarized dozens of such automated algorithms for extratropical cyclones, tropical cyclones, and tropical easterly waves. Even so, work to identify optimal

- 30 tracking criteria continues (Murata et al., 2019). Beyond these traditionally tracked features, many recent papers have focused on defining regionally relevant features such as monsoonal lows and depressions associated with heavy precipitation in monsoonal regions (Hurley and Boos, 2015; Vishnu et al., 2020). Areal feature tracking algorithms have also been developed for clouds (Heikenfeld et al., 2019), atmospheric rivers (Shields et al., 2018; Rutz et al., 2019), atmospheric blocking (Scherrer et al., 2006), mesoscale convective systems (Prein et al., 2017; Feng et al., 2018), precipitation clusters (Clark et al., 2014;
- 35 Pendergrass et al., 2016), convectively-generated outflow boundaries (Chipilski et al., 2018), gust fronts (Delanoy and Troxel, 1993), and frontal systems (Hope et al., 2014; Schemm et al., 2015; Parfitt et al., 2017). Both nodal and areal algorithms generally feature a similar set of kernels, motivating the development of a single package encompassing relevant capabilities. For example, the majority of detection algorithms are built upon an algorithmic paradigm known as MapReduce (Dean and Ghemawat, 2008), where individual time slices are independently assessed (an embarrassingly parallel "map" operation)
- 40 then combined via a serial "reduce" operation. By building a single framework for distributing time slices to different feature identification algorithms, then combining multiple features into a single dataset, we can avoid duplication of this infrastructure across multiple trackers. Leveraging commonalities such as these enables improvements in algorithmic efficiency to be simultaneously administered to multiple trackers, and reduces redundancies from algorithmic validation and testing.

TE has been engineered with the goal of providing a comprehensive and user-friendly toolbox for feature tracking in model,
reanalysis, or observational data products. It features a set of core design principles to enable its easy application in scientific analyses:

- Kernels are encapsulated in a variety of executables that are fully configurable from the command line (i.e., containing no hard-coded thresholds). Thus the processing operations performed by TE can be easily conveyed simply by communicating the relevant command(s).
- Many of the finer details about the structure of climate datasets are abstracted through the use of physically-motivated kernels (such as the closed contour operator), physically-based units, and internal indexing with Climate and Forecast (CF) compliant time variables.
 - The data analysis capabilities are designed to be high-throughput, readily usable, and standardized. All TE functionality is implemented in optimized and (where appropriate) parallelized C++.
- It is designed to work with "big data", enabling significant data volume reduction by isolating characteristics of individual features rather than full fields.

- Kernels are designed for arbitrarily grids, recognizing that climate models have largely moved away from latitudelongitude grids and towards quasi-uniform grids (Ullrich et al., 2017).
- All TE code is open-source, publicly developed and distributed via GitHub with permissive open source licensing.
- 60 These principles complement the underlying foci motivating TE's development: robustness, usability, maintainability, and extensibility. To the best of the authors' knowledge, no other comprehensive toolkit exists for general nodal and areal feature tracking in Earth system datasets.

The remainder of this paper follows an analogous structure to Ullrich and Zarzycki (2017): Section 2 describes the core algorithms and kernels now available in TE version 2.1. Section 3 presents several examples of how these kernels can be

65 combined to form recipes for tracking tropical cyclones (TCs), for calculating fractional contribution of precipitation from TCs, for tracking and compositing extratropical cyclone fields, for tracking atmospheric rivers, and for tracking atmospheric blocks. A summary of results and future work is given in section 4.

2 TempestExtremes algorithms and kernels

In this section we describe the kernels available in the TE software package, organized by executable, with an emphasis on additions since TE version 1.0. Technical details on the operation of TempestExtremes can be found in the user guide (Ullrich, 2020).

2.1 DetectNodes and StitchNodes

DetectNodes (formerly DetectCyclonesUnstructured) is used for the detection of nodal feature candidates, and corresponds to the parallel "map" step in the "MapReduce" framework – that is, candidate points are selected based on information at a single time slice. DetectNodes is typically followed by StitchNodes, which represents the serial "reduce" operation in the processing chain. StitchNodes connects nodal features in time and produces paths associated with singular features. Both of these executables and their algorithmic kernels are described in Ullrich and Zarzycki (2017), although v2.1 now supports the use of physical time units for thresholds and time subsetting. For example, mintime may be specified as a minimum number of time slices (e.g., "5") or as the minmum number of hours between first and last candidate in a path (e.g., "24h").

80 *DetectNodes* and *StitchNodes* output trajectories in a format originally defined by the GFDL tropical cyclone tracker (TSTORMS; Vitart et al., 1997; Zhao et al., 2009). These files are generally referred to as *nodefiles*.

2.2 NodeFileEditor

NodeFileEditor is a new addition to TE for editing nodefiles. It includes options for (1) appending new details to trajectories, such as radial wind profiles or accumulated cyclone energy; (2) removing certain columns from nodefiles; or (3) filtering

85 trajectories or points along a trajectory, e.g., when outside of a specific time interval. A list of functions currently available in *NodeFileEditor* are given in Table 1. These functions may be chained to perform multiple related operations, such as computing

Operator	Description
eval_ace	Calculate the instantaneous accumulated cyclone energy (ACE, Bell et al., 2000), equal to $10^{-4}u_{kt,max}^2$ where
	$u_{kt,max}$ is the maximum wind speed within a prescribed radius of the nodal feature, in knots. We use a value
	of $1.94384 \text{ kt} (\text{m s}^{-1})^{-1}$ to convert m s ⁻¹ to kt.
eval_acepsl	Approximate ACE using sea level pressure (SLP) to predict surface wind speed (ACEPSL). Currently, ACEPSL
	is calculated as ACE, but using $u_{kt,max} = 1.94384 \text{ kt} (\text{m s}^{-1})^{-1} \times 3.92 \times (1016.0 \text{ hPa} - slp_{min})^{0.644}$ (Hol-
	land, 2008), where slp_{min} is the minimum SLP within a prescribed radius.
eval_ike	Calculate the instantaneous integrated kinetic energy (Powell and Reinhold, 2007), defined as $\sum_i \frac{1}{2}u_i^2 A_i$,
	where u_i is the magnitude of the wind speed at that grid cell (in m s ⁻¹), A_i is the area of that grid cell in
	m ² , and the sum is taken over all grid cells within a prescribed radius.
eval_pdi	Calculate the power dissipation index (Emanuel, 2005), defined as u_{max}^3 , where u_{max} is the maximum wind
	speed within a prescribed radius in m s^{-1} .
radial_profile	Develop a radial profile of the specified variable at each time slice around the nodal feature point by binning by
	radial distance and averaging gridpoint values. The output is expressed using Python array syntax.
radial_wind_profile	As radial_profile but for the radial and azimuthal wind speed. The radial and azimuthal components are com-
	puted by projecting the 2D velocity at each grid point onto the radial and azimuthal vector fields around each
	nodal feature prior to binning.
lastwhere	Given an array as input, such as the output of radial_profile, identify the distance or index of the array that
	satisfies a given threshold. For example, this operator is used for determining the radius at which azimuthal
	wind speed is greater than 8 m s ^{-1} .
value	Given an array, extract the value at the specified index using linear interpolation where needed.
max_closed_contour	For a given field, determine the largest value that satisfies the closed contour criteria (see Ullrich and Zarzycki
	(2017) section 2.6) around each nodal feature (see Algorithm 1).
region_name	Given the names and coordinates of polygons in longitude-latitude space, identify the name of the region for a
	given pointwise feature. Each point is identified as being in a given region using a straight-line test along lines
	of constant latitude. If the number of intersections with edges of the polygon is odd (even), then the point is
	inside (outside).

Table 1. Functions implemented in *NodeFileEditor* as of TempestExtremes version 2.1.

a radial wind profile of a tropical cyclone and then extracting the radius where a particular wind threshold is exceeded. An example of such chaining of commands is given in section 3.3.

90

Most of the implemented algorithms are straightforward, except for max_closed_contour, whose pseudocode is provided in Algorithm 1. Intuitively, this algorithm can be thought of as filling up a 3D extruded surface representative of the contours of the field until fluid spills farther out than the prescribed maximum distance. The last height difference is then recorded as the maximum delta for the closed contour. Algorithm 1 Determine the maximum closed contour delta (largest field delta that permits a closed contour within the given distance of the feature) for each node in a given nodefile N, over field F and maximum distance maxdist. This algorithm uses a priority queue, which places the node with the highest priority (in this case the smallest delta) at the top of the queue.

```
max_delta = max_closed_contour(nodefile N, field F, maxdist)
for each node n in N
max_delta[n] = 0
define empty priority_queue pqueue
insert node n into pqueue with delta 0
visited = []
while pq is not empty
p = remove node from pqueue with lowest delta
add p to visited
for all neighbors q of p
    if q is not in visited then add q to pqueue with delta (F[q] - F[n])
    if (dist(p,n) < maxdist) and (F[p] - F[n] > max_delta[n]) then
    max_delta[n] = F[p] - F[n]
```

2.3 NodeFileFilter

NodeFileFilter encapsulates algorithms for masking spatial data using nodefile information, i.e., effectively converting nodefiles into binary raster masks at each time slice and (optionally) applying them to available data. Filtering can be performed using the distance from each feature, based on the closed contour of each feature (as described by Algorithm 2), or by thresholding of areal regions that are within a given distance of each nodal feature (as described by Algorithm 3). The latter is useful for identifying, for instance, precipitation clusters associated with tropical cyclones.

2.4 NodeFileCompose

100 *NodeFileCompose* includes functionality for snapshotting fields around nodal features (i.e., at each time slice projecting fields onto the stereographic plane centered on a nodal feature) or compositing fields (i.e., averaging snapshots). In the same vein, it also includes functionality for snapshotting or compositing a particular geographic region when a feature is present. Stereographic composites are computed using Algorithm 4. The mathematical operators used for the local stereographic projection are given in Appendix A. Algorithm 2 Generate a binary mask using a closed contour criterion, given nodefile N, field F, closed contour magnitude delta, maximum mask distance dist, and maximum distance for minima/maxima search minmaxdist. The functions find_min_near and find_max_near are given by Algorithm 4 in Ullrich and Zarzycki (2017).

```
M = mask_by_closed_contour(nodefile N, field F, delta, dist, minmaxdist)
for each node n in N
    if (delta > 0) m = find_min_near(n, F, minmaxdist)
    if (delta < 0) m = find_max_near(n, F, minmaxdist)
    visited = []
    tovisit = [m]
    ref_value = F[m]
    while tovisit is not empty
        p = remove node from tovisit
        if visited contains p then continue
        add p to visited
        if (dist(p,m) > dist) then continue
        if (sign(delta) * (F[p] - F[m]) > abs(delta)) then continue
        M[p] = 1
        add neighbors of p to tovisit
```

105 2.5 DetectBlobs

DetectBlobs is used for identifying areal features (blobs), such as atmospheric blocks, atmospheric rivers, or precipitation clusters. As with *DetectNodes*, this executable represents the parallel "map" step in the "MapReduce" framework. Candidate regions are selected based on information at a single time slice, typically simple thresholds such as "all points where precipitation is greater than 1 mm d⁻¹". Features are marked using a binary mask and output stored in NetCDF format. Contiguous

110 regions may then be excluded based on either geometric thresholds or criteria derived from other variables. *DetectBlobs* supports MPI-based parallelism over input files.

2.6 StitchBlobs

StitchBlobs is used for tracking areal features (blobs) in time, assigning connected features a unique global id and/or applying time-dependent criteria to each contiguous region. Given input as a time-dependent binary mask variable, blobs that overlap at sequential time stars will be assigned the same global identifier. The algorithm implemented in TE for connecting blobs in

115 at sequential time steps will be assigned the same global identifier. The algorithm implemented in TE for connecting blobs in

Algorithm 3 Generate a binary mask by picking out blobs satisfying a threshold within a given radius of each node. The inputs include the nodefile N, field F, the search distance searchdist, threshold operation threshold, and maximum mask distance maxdist.

```
M = mask_by_nearbyblobs(nodefile N, field F, searchdist, threshold, maxdist)
  for each node n in N
   visited = []
   tovisit = [n]
    while tovisit is not empty
     p = remove node from tovisit
      if visited contains p then continue
      add p to visited
      if (dist(p,n) > searchdist) then continue
      add neighbors of p to tovisit
      if F[p] does not satisfy threshold then continue
      tovisitnested = [p]
      while tovisitnested is not empty
        q = remove node from tovisitnested
        if visited contains q then continue
        add q to tovisitnested
        if (dist(q,n) > maxdist) then continue
        if F[q] does not satisfy threshold then continue
        M[q] = 1
        add neighbors of q to tovisitnested
```

Algorithm 4 Generate a stereographic composite of field F over the given set of nodes N, generated by *DetectNodes*. The stereographic grid has resolution res and grid spacing dist, given as the great circle distance along coordinate lines passing through the origin.

```
field C = stereographic_composite(field F, node_list N, res, dist)
C = empty 2D stereographic grid with parameters (res,dist)
for each node n in N
G = generate 2D stereographic grid with parameters (res,dist) centered on n
for each node m in G
use inverse stereographic projection to obtain point p corresponding to G[m]
q = nearest grid point in F to p
assign G[m] to value F[q]
C = C + G
C = C / size(N)
```

time uses a forward-backward search that can treat the "2D space + 1D time" object as a single 3D object, allowing for both splitting and merging of features in time.

The pseudocode for this search protocol is provided in Algorithms 5 and 6, and its operation is illustrated in Figure 1. Put briefly, contiguous regions at each time slice are identified using a flood fill algorithm and assigned a unique tag of the form (time id, blob id). An additional "merge distance" argument can be specified that merges nearby blobs at each time slice if their perimeters are within this specified distance. A graph is then constructed with each of these tags corresponding to the nodes of the graph. Edges are then added to the graph where a pair of areal features are deemed to be connected in time. Since multiple edges could be generated to or from a feature on a given time slice, multiple mergers or splits may occur simultaneously. Finally, the components of the graph are each assigned a unique global id, with lower global ids corresponding to blobs that first appear at earlier times. In Figure 1, features at time index 1, denoted (1,1) and (1,2), will both be assigned the same global id since they are connected at a later time. Similarly, features at time index 3, denoted (3,1) and (3,2), are assigned the same global id since they were connected at an earlier time. Note that global ids start at 1 and are consecutive thereafter; they are assigned only after connected components of the graph are identified, and as such are unrelated to the blob id on each time

130

slice.

By default, areal features are deemed to be connected in time if they share at least one grid point at subsequent time steps (regardless of the area of that grid point). For example, in Figure 1, areal regions (1,1) and (2,1) overlap in space and so are deemed to be connected. If a stricter threshold on the overlap area is needed for blobs at sequential time slices to be deemed part of the same cluster, *StitchBlobs* provides arguments for minimum overlap between the current blob and blobs at the previous Algorithm 5 Flood fill blobs on unstructured grid using breadth-first graph search over binary field G, merging blobs within the given distance merge_dist.

```
blob set array S =
  flood_fill_and_tag_with_merging(binary_field G, merge_dist)
  % Perform flood fill and tag
 current_tag = 0
 visited = []
 kdP = empty array of kdtrees
 P = array storing perimeter points for each tag
  for each node p
   if (F[p] is not 0) and (visited does not contain p) then
      current_tag = current_tag + 1
     tovisit = [p]
      while tovisit is not empty
        q = remove node from tovisit
       if visited contains q then continue
        add q to visited
        if (F[q] is not zero) then
         insert q into S[current_tag]
         add neighbors of q to tovisit
          if any neighbors r of q have (F[r] = 0) then
            add q to P[current_tag] and kdP[current_tag]
  % Build list of blobs to merge by distance
 M = empty graph with integer nodes denoting merged blobs
  for all ordered pairs of tags (s,t)
   for all nodes p in P[s]
      if nearest neighbor from kdP[t] is closer than merge_dist then
        add edge (s,t) to M
  % Merge blob sets
  for each tag t from 1 to current_tag
   find minimum tag s of connected subgraph containing t
   merge S[t] into S[s]
```

Algorithm 6 Forward-backward algorithm for areal-feature search. Given a time series of binary fields G[t], a merge distance merge_dist and overlap thresholds min_overlap_* and max_overlap_*.

```
field F[t] = stitch_blobs(binary_field G[t], merge_dist,
 min_overlap_prev, max_overlap_prev,
  min_overlap_next, max_overlap_next)
  % Use flood fill and merge to identify blobs
  for all times t from 0 to length(G)
    S[t] = flood_fill_and_tag_with_merging(G[t], merge_dist)
  % Build overlap graph
 M = empty graph denoting (time, blob) pairs
  for all times t from 0 to length(G)
    for all blobs p in S[t]
      insert nfode (t,p) into M
  % Identify blobs to be stitched together in time
  for all times t from 0 to length(G)-1
    for all blobs p in S[t]
      for all blob n in S[t+1]
        prev_area = area of S[t][p]
        next_area = area of S[t+1][n]
        overlap_area = overlap area between S[t][p] and S[t+1][n]
        if (overlap_area / prev_area >= min_overlap_prev) then
          and (overlap_area / prev_area <= max_overlap_prev)</pre>
          and (overlap_area / next_area >= min_overlap_next)
          and (overlap_area / next_area <= max_overlap_next)</pre>
            add edge ((t,p),(t+1,n)) to M
    S_prev = S_next
  % Assign a common global_id to overlapping blobs
  global_id = 1
  for all nodes (t,p) in M
    for each node (tx,px) in connected subgraph of M containing (t,p)
      for each node p in S[tx][px]
        F[t][p] = global_id
    global_id = global_id + 1
                                             10
```

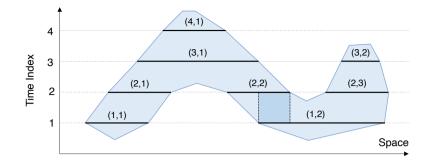


Figure 1. A depiction of Algorithms 5 and 6 for forward-backward areal feature search used by *StitchBlobs*, simplified to show one space dimension (e.g., longitude) and the time dimension.

and/or next timestep. In this example, blob tag (2,2) overlaps only 25% of the area of blob tag (1,2), meaning that (2,2) and
(1,2) are deemed unconnected if the "minimum previous overlap" is greater than 25%. On the other hand blob tag (1,2) covers 50% of the area of blob tag (2,2), so these two would be deemed unconnected if the "minimum next overlap" is greater than 50%.

2.7 Other Utilities

In addition to the core functionality described in previous sections, TE also provides a number of other utilities to manage nodefiles, binary masks, and other climatological data relevant to feature tracking. These are briefly mentioned here as this functionality is employed in the composite tracking algorithms and analysis of section 3.

- Climatology is used for constructing climatological time series, including long-term daily, monthly, seasonal, and annual means. It supports parallel execution over files via MPI, as well as arguments that can be used to limit the amount of memory used by each thread.
- FourierFilter is used for Fourier filtering/smoothing of input data series. Although it provides a general implementation that could be used for any dataset, it has primarily been used for smoothing long-term daily means produced from Climatology.
 - VariableProcessor provides direct access to TE's internal variable processing capability, allowing arithmetic and gridbased operations to be applied to gridded data files. The operation of this utility is roughly analogous to that of the NetCDF Operator ncap2 (NCO; Zender, 2008).
- 150

3 Selected examples

In this section we present several examples of tracking and analysis of different features; that is, different recipes for combining the algorithmic kernels described in section 2 to produce composite tracking and analysis algorithms. In all examples, the

corresponding TE commands are provided to both demonstrate that they are effective at conveying the operation in a human-

155 readable manner and to enable reproducability of our results. Past examples from the literature using TE are provided in section 3.1. This is then followed by several examples from TE of feature-based tracking and subsequent analysis. These examples include TC tracking in ERA5, fractional contribution of precipitation from TCs in ERA5 and TRMM, atmospheric river tracking in ERA5, extratropical cyclone tracking in CMIP6 data, and finally generation of an atmospheric blocking climatology using MERRA2 data.

160 **3.1** Examples from the existing literature

Since version 1.0, TE has been employed for feature tracking in a number of scientific studies. Here we catalogue known publications emerging from those studies, organized by feature type.

Tropical Cyclones (TCs): More than any other feature, TE has been employed for the study of TCs. TE was first employed as a TC tracker to understand intensity errors associated with one-way coupling between ocean and atmosphere in Zarzycki (2016). It was subsequently used to investigate the TC wind-pressure relationship in Chavas et al. (2017), a relationship later revisited in Moon et al. (2020) where TE was used to assess its sensitivity to model resolution. In Wing et al. (2019), TE was applied to native grid data produced using the Community Atmosphere Model Spectral Element (CAM-SE) dynamical core to track TCs; outputs were then used to investigate the processes underlying moist intensification of TCs. A related study by Camargo et al. (2020) used this dataset to investigate the large-scale environment around TCs. In Roberts et al. (2020a) and Roberts et al. (2020b), TE-derived TC tracks were used to understand resolution sensitivity and future change in both historical

- and future HighResMIP experiments (Haarsma et al., 2016) across several models. Along these lines, Balaguru et al. (2020) used TE to characterize TC climatology in the Energy Exascale Earth System Model (E3SM). Reed et al. (2020, 2021) used TE to extract tracks of Hurricanes Florence (2018) and Dorian (2019) and attribute human influence on these storms. TE has also been used for tracking storms in aquaplanet simulations (Chavas and Reed, 2019) so as to better understand how dynamic
- 175 forcing impacts TC genesis and size. Recent work by Stansfield et al. (2020) has also leveraged some of the more advanced capabilities in TE to filter fields (e.g., precipitation) in the vicinity of tracked features to evaluate model performance. TE has also been used for tracking of TCs in extremely high-resolution regional simulations (Steptoe et al., 2021) and investigating TCs in paleoclimate simulations (Kiehl et al., 2021).

Extratropical Cyclones (ETCs): In order to better understand cyclonic storms and their impacts, Zarzycki et al. (2017) developed the ExTraTrack software framework atop TE to track TCs and ETCs through their entire lifecycle. This module enabled

- cyclonic storms to be examined using the thermal wind and thermal asymmetry phase space of Hart (2003). ExTraTrack was later applied to a suite of high-resolution global simulations in Michaelis and Lackmann (2019) and Michaelis and Lackmann (2021). ETCs were also tracked in the Community Earth System Model Large Ensemble (CESM-LENS) in Zarzycki (2018) to understand the drivers responsible for snowstorms in the US Northeast. Then in Small et al. (2019), extratopical storms
- 185 tracked using TE were used to determine if resolving ocean fronts improves the representation of simulated storm tracks. In Zhang et al. (2021) the vertical symmetry criterion from ExTraTrack was also adapted for tracking of Mediterranean Hurri-

canes (Medicanes). Finally, TE was also used to track ETCs as part of an effort to evaluate severe local storm environments in climate models and reanalysis (Li et al., 2020).

Monsoonal lows and depressions: Analogous to the study of Zarzycki and Ullrich (2017), Vishnu et al. (2020) optimized 190 DetectNodes for tracking of monsoon lows and depressions. A comprehensive analysis of input fields found that 850hPa streamfunction tended to produce better results compared with trackers based on sea level pressure, vorticity, and geopotential. A weighted Critical Success Index (CSI) (Di Luca et al., 2015) was used to determine tracker performance. However, acknowledging the possibility of errors in the reference dataset (here the Sikka archive), the weighted CSI index used in this analysis also considered the degree to which a track is represented similarly across all reanalyses. A related study by Zhang et al. (2019) 195 also tracked tropical depressions in the North Indian Ocean in 2018 to investigate anthropogenic impact on this storm season, and a recent study by You and Ting (2021) used TE to assess trends in South Asian Monsoon low pressure systems.

Atmospheric blocking: In Pinheiro et al. (2019), a suite of atmospheric blocking methods from TE were applied to ERA-Interim data to better understand sensitivities of atmospheric blocks to the detection algorithm and the meteorological environment around blocking features.

- 200 Atmospheric rivers (ARs): Atmospheric river tracking with TE was first documented as part of the Atmospheric River Transport Method Intercomparison Project (ARTMIP) in Shields et al. (2018), and later in Rutz et al. (2019). The proposed algorithm used the Laplacian of the integrated vapor transport (IVT) field rather than the IVT field itself, thus flagging IVT "ridges" rather than IVT over a threshold; this choice addressed issues of stationarity generally present in trackers using an IVT threshold. TE's algorithm has since been used both for AR detection and tracking (with *DetectBlobs* and *StitchBlobs*) in
- 205 several subsequent studies (Rhoades et al., 2020b, a; Patricola et al., 2020; McClenny et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2021).

Tropical Cyclone Tracking in ERA5 3.2

In Zarzycki and Ullrich (2017), a sensitivity analysis was carried out to optimize TE for the detection of tropical cyclones by benchmarking hit rate (HR) and false alarm rate (FAR) from reanalysis products against the International Best Track Archive for Climate Stewardship (IBTrACS; Knapp et al., 2010). The resulting configuration, which tracked storms based on sea 210 level pressure minimum, produced the highest HR minus FAR differential in the literature across a wide range of reanalysis products. An interesting result that emerged from this analysis was that upper level geopotential layer thickness (typically Z300 minus Z500) was the most robust indicator of an upper level warm core across products. In this section we apply the same configuration that provided maximal agreement between earlier-generation reanalyses and IBTrACS to ERA5 input (Hersbach et al., 2020) so as to identify ERA5 TC tracks.

215

3.2.1 Step 1: Identify candidate storms

Tropical cyclone tracking is an exemplar of the MapReduce paradigm discussed earlier in this paper. Essentially all published algorithms for TC tracking (e.g., Ullrich and Zarzycki, 2017, Appendix B) make use of a two-step process consisting of first detecting TC candidates, then stitching together candidates in time. Both steps of this process include hard thresholds that separate TCs from related features. Although TE allows users to vary the values of these thresholds, here we only consider one such variation of these parameters.

In the TC detection algorithm described in Zarzycki and Ullrich (2017), candidates are defined as points that have both a sea-level pressure minimum and an upper-level warm core. These conditions are codified via the command:

DetectNodes --in_data_list ERA5_TC_files.txt --timefilter "6hr" \

--out_file_list ERA5_DN_files.txt \

--searchbymin MSL \setminus

225

--closedcontourcmd "MSL,200.0,5.5,0;_DIFF(Z(300hPa),Z(500hPa)),-58.8,6.5,1.0" \

```
--mergedist 6.0 \setminus
```

```
--outputcmd "MSL, min, 0;_VECMAG(VAR_10U, VAR_10V), max, 2; ZS, min, 0"
```

- For this example, our ERA5 data comes from the NCAR Research Data Archive (European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts, 2019), with 3D time-series data provided at hourly resolution in daily chunks, 2D time-series data provided at hourly resolution in monthly chunks, and 2D invariant data provided in a single file. The timefilter argument here indicates that data should be downselected to six-hourly, which is typical for analysis of TCs. As different variables are distributed across multiple files, the first two lines of the input data consist of several files containing 3D geopotential height on pressure surfaces (Z). 2D mean sea level pressure (MSL). 2D 10 meter zonal and meridional wind speeds (VAR 10U and VAR 10V).
- surfaces (Z), 2D mean sea level pressure (MSL), 2D 10 meter zonal and meridional wind speeds (VAR_10U and VAR_10V), and surface elevation (ZS), separated by semicolons. Note that TE supports different agglomerations of time slices, as it uses the CF-compliant time to match time slices across files.

To first limit the search space of possible TCs, we identify candidates as local minima in the sea level pressure field. Two closed contour criteria are used to eliminate candidates. As argued in Ullrich and Zarzycki (2017), closed contour criteria are a

- 240 more physically grounded way of defining features since they can be employed for both discrete and continuous fields as opposed to, e.g., "gridpoint maxima" that are inherently sensitive to the dataset's grid structure and spacing. The first criterion we use for TCs is "MSL, 200.0, 5.5, 0", which indicates that mean sea level pressure must increase by 200 Pa over a distance of 5.5° great circle distance (GCD) from the candidate point (the low pressure region must be of sufficient magnitude and sufficiently compact to be considered coherent). The second criterion is "_DIFF (Z (300hPa), Z (500hPa)), -58.8, 6.5, 1.0"
- which indicates that the difference between geopotential (Z) on the 300hPa and 500hPa surfaces must decrease by 58.8 m² s⁻² (equal to 6 m geopotential height) over a distance of 6.5° GCD, using the maximum value of this field within 1° GCD as reference. This second criterion indicates that there must be a coherent upper-level warm core attached to the local low so as to structurally differentiate these features from extratropical systems. It is also an example of TE's ability to evaluate functions of meteorological fields at run-time. Finally, candidates that have been identified with this protocol are eliminated if a stronger
- 250 minimum exists within 6 degrees GCD.

The remaining argument output cmd indicates three additional outputs that are calculated and written as additional columns in each nodefile. Here "MSL, min, 0" outputs the value of MSL at the candidate point, "_VECMAG (VAR_10U, VAR_10V), max, 2" outputs the maximum magnitude of the vector wind at 10 m altitude within 2° GCD of the candidate, and "ZS, min, 0" out-

puts the surface height at the candidate point. These variables are needed in the subsequent *StitchNodes* step to construct and filter TC trajectories.

100 miler re trajectories.

3.2.2 Step 2: Connect candidate storms in time

Once TC candidates have been identified on each time slice, the "stitching" step in the algorithm ties these candidates together in time to form TC trajectories (the "Reduce" operation in the MapReduce paradigm). Some features that are too weak, too short-lived, or too disorganized are eliminated from contention at this stage. Also, features that are more likely related to topographic anomalies rather than real storms are also removed.

260

265

To build these trajectories with TE, we apply the StitchNodes command to the output from step 1:

```
StitchNodes --in_list ERA5_DN_files.txt --out ERA5_TC_tracks.txt \
    --in_fmt "lon,lat,slp,wind,zs" \
    --range 8.0 --mintime "54h" --maxgap "24h" \
    --threshold "wind,>=,10.0,10;lat,<=,50.0,10;lat,>=,-50.0,10;zs,<=,150.0,10"</pre>
```

The first three arguments here indicate the input candidate nodefile (produced by *DetectNodes*) and the output nodefile. The format of these files differ because they convey different information – the former containing candidates detected at each time slice, and the latter containing paths, or lists of candidates from different time slices. Nonetheless, auxiliary candidate information computed with *DetectNodes*' output cmd is preserved.

- 270 The relevant tuning parameters are specified by range, mintime and maxgap and refer to the maximum distance (in degrees GCD) that a feature can move between subsequent detections, the minimum persistence time of each trajectory (calculated as the time between initiation and termination), and the maximum duration between two sequential detections, respectively. In particular, maxgap is a novel option that allows for a path to be missing candidates for some time slices (for instance due to temporary weakening of a TC as it passes over land).
- Four field-dependent thresholds are then specified for a trajectory to be accepted. The first threshold "wind, >=, 10.0, 10" indicates that the wind magnitude (derived from the "wind" column in the nodefile) must be greater than 10 m s⁻¹ for at least 10 time slices; this ensures that these features are sufficiently intense to be classified as tropical storms. The next two thresholds "lat, <=, 50.0, 10; lat, >=, -50.0, 10" indicate that the latitude of the feature must be between 50S and 50N for at least 10 time slices, so as to eliminate any extratropical features that could not have existed as tropical storms. The final
- 280 threshold "zs, <=, 150.0, 10" indicates that the feature must exist at an elevation below 150 m for at least 10 time slices; this removes false alarms that can often appear in regions of rough topography that are associated with the sea level pressure correction.</p>

3.2.3 Results from the generation of tropical cyclone trajectories

Figure 2 depicts the tropical cyclone trajectories produced from this analysis in ERA5, along with IBTrACS over the same period for reference. Storms are color-coded by sea level pressure, as opposed to surface winds, since it has been found that the former is better resolved in coarser datasets (Chavas et al., 2017). With that said, this procedure may overestimate storm intensity at higher latitudes where storms are beginning to undergo extratropical transition. While tracked storms in ERA5 are generally too weak in aggregate (lower density of orange and red trajectories in top panel), a common problem amongst reanalyses (Schenkel and Hart, 2012; Murakami, 2014; Hodges et al., 2017), the method shows high spatial and temporal

290

correlation of storm climatology when compared to pointwise observations, and produces superior hit rates (78% for all TCs and 95% for those with wind speeds exceeding 33 m s⁻¹) and false alarm ratios (14% globally) when compared to many legacy tracking techniques (Zarzycki et al., 2021).

The TC detector described in this section was run on the NERSC Cori supercomputer on one node and using 32 threads. When run over the ERA5 data from January 1979 through February 2020 at 6 hourly temporal resolution, with 15,035 daily

files, DetectNodes required 140 minutes run time. DetectNodes on Cori is strongly I/O bound, with reads from NetCDF files 295 responsible for 81% of the total runtime. StitchNodes required 4 minutes and 55 seconds to process all 15,035 outputs from DetectNodes.

3.3 Fractional contribution of precipitation from TCs

For the examples here, we calculate the fractional contribution of precipitation from TCs for one reanalysis dataset, ERA5, and one observational dataset, the Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM3B42; Huffman et al., 2007). For ERA5, the TC 300 track files are created as described in Section 3.2. For TRMM, the IBTrACS dataset is used for TC track observations, Because there are limited comprehensive and long-term observational datasets of complete TC wind fields, ERA5 wind field data is combined with IBTrACS to calculate the outer radius at every timestep for all historical TC tracks for the TRMM analysis.

3.3.1 Step 1: Compute the outer radius of each tracked TC

- 305 As argued by Schenkel et al. (2017), the largest radius outside of the eyewall where the azimuthally-averaged wind speed exceeds 8 m s⁻¹ (r8) tends to be a good measure of the size of a TC. In Stansfield et al. (2020), TE was used to examine the distribution of r8 among TCs in reanalysis data in ERA5 and a series of runs with the Community Earth System Model (CESM). They further compared and contrasted TC-related precipitation within r8 against precipitation within a fixed distance of 500 km. We thus follow Stansfield et al. (2020) and use r8 as our criterion for grid points to be part of the TC.
- 310

315

To begin, radial profiles and radius of 8 m s⁻¹ wind are added to the nodefile generated in section 3.2.2 and the IBTrACS nodefile (not shown):

```
NodeFileEditor -- in data list ERA5 TC files.txt -- in nodefile ERA5 TC tracks.txt \
  --in_fmt "lon,lat,slp,wind,zs" --out_nodefile ERA5_TC_radprofs.txt \
  --out_fmt "lon,lat,rsize,rprof" --time_filter "6hr" \
  --calculate "rprof=radial wind profile(VAR 10U,VAR 10V,159,0.125); \
```

```
rsize=lastwhere(rprof, >, 8) "
```

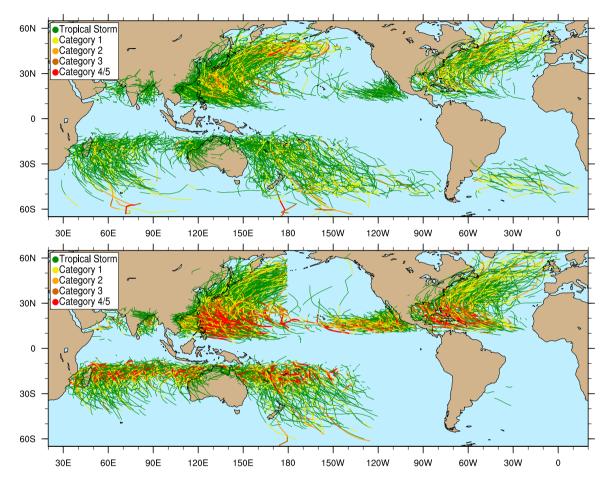


Figure 2. Tropical cyclone trajectories from ERA5 (top) and IBTrACS (bottom) over the period 1980-2019, inclusive. TempestExtremes is used to track TCs in ERA5, while pointwise observation are used for IBTrACS. Coloring denotes the instantaneous Saffir-Simpson category of the tropical cyclone. The categories are computed from sea level pressure and applying the pressure-wind relationship of Atkinson and Holliday (1977) with updated coefficients from Knaff and Zehr (2007). The discontinuity at 180° longitude in the bottom panel is due to historical forecast center responsibilities.

The input to this operation includes the files containing the 2D ERA5 10 meter zonal and meridional wind speeds (VAR 10U and VAR 10V), and the nodefile generated in section 3.2.2. As part of this analysis we also augment an IBTrACS nodefile in a similar manner, using the IBTrACS TC tracks, but ERA5 winds to estimate TC size (command not shown here). As in section 3.2.1, a time filter is used to only analyze 6-hourly time slices of data. Internal to the execution of this command is the construction of a date object for each entry of the nodefile, which is then cross-referenced against every time slice in the list of

320

The calculations requested from *NodeFileEditor* are specified by the calculate argument, executed from left to right. First the radial profile is computed with radial wind profile (VAR 10U, VAR 10V, 159, 0.125) and stored in 325 variable rprof. These arguments indicate which variables should be used for the calculation, and that the radial profile should consist of 159 bins of width 0.125 degrees GCD. After the radial profile is calculated, the last value where the radial wind profile is greater than 8 m s⁻¹ is located and written to the nodefile. The last value in the array is taken because we want to avoid recording the radius of the 8 m s⁻¹ wind within the TC inner core. The number of bins and the bin width were chosen based on the horizontal grid spacing of the ERA5 wind data, which is approximately 31 km. The bin width of 0.125° adequately samples points at this grid spacing to create the radial wind profiles. The number of bins ensures the radial averaging extended out far enough from the TC center points to capture the storms' complete wind circulations.

330

3.3.2 Step 2: Build a mask using the outer radius of the storm

datafiles to find the corresponding field – in this way indexing is abstracted from the user.

With the r8 value for each TC now in hand, we define "TC-related precipitation" as any precipitation which occurs at grid points that are considered part of a TC. Employing TE's NodeFileFilter command, precipitation outside of the circle with 335 radius r8 centered on each TC is set to zero:

```
NodeFileFilter -- in nodefile ERA5 TC radprofs.txt -- in fmt "lon, lat, rsize, rprof" \
  --in data list ERA5 precip files.txt \
  --out_data_list ERA5_filtered_precip_files.txt \
  --var "PRECT" --bydist "rsize"
```

The input nodefile is the output nodefile from *NodeFileEditor*, now augmented with the radius of 8 m s⁻¹ winds. The input 340 data contain 6-hourly ERA5 precipitation data from the NCAR Research Data Archive (European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts, 2019) under variable name PRECT. Precipitation in ERA5 is calculated from hourly forecasts initialized from the analysis at 06:00 UTC and 18:00 UTC. Precipitation is converted from hourly to 6-hourly by adding up the accumulated precipitation 3 hours before and 3 hours after the desired timesteps of 00:00 UTC, 06:00 UTC, 12:00 UTC, and 18:00 345 UTC. For example, to calculate 6-hourly precipitation at 06:00 UTC, the precipitation from 03:00 UTC to 09:00 UTC is added up. For the TRMM analysis, the TRMM precipitation data is originally 3-hourly, so before analysis the TRMM data is summed into 6-hourly data. This is done using a centered averaging method, so for example, to calculate 6-hourly precipitation at 06:00 UTC, half of the 03:00 UTC precipitation, all of the 06:00 UTC precipitation, and half of the 09:00 UTC precipitation are added up. Output consists of a sequence of NetCDF files, one for each input file, containing filtered precipitation.

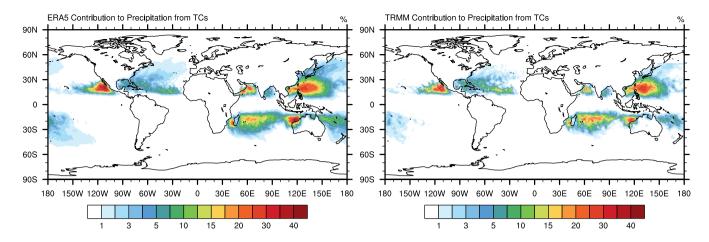


Figure 3. Percent contribution to precipitation from tropical cyclones using precipitation field from (left) ERA5 and (right) TRMM.

350 The final argument specifies how the filtering is performed, in this case by distance using rsize. This procedure only keeps precipitation grid point values that are within this distance of each detected TC. Internally to NodeFileFilter, the mask is computed by employing a kd-tree (see discussion in Ullrich and Zarzycki, 2017).

3.3.3 Results from the generated tropical cyclone precipitation climatology

- Figure 3 shows the relative contribution to global precipitation from TCs for ERA5 and TRMM, calculated by using NCO's ncra to sum up the TC precipitation within r8 filtered by *NodeFileFilter* and dividing it by the sum of the total precipitation 355 over the entire length of the datasets (1985-2019 for ERA5 and 1998-2014 for TRMM). The areas of largest TC contribution align with the areas of the highest TC activity shown in Figure 2 and typically occur over the ocean, in broad agreement with Prat and Nelson (2013). Khouakhi et al. (2017) (their Figure 3b) made a similar plot, except using land-based gauge data and for a slightly different time period, and showed similar locations of maximum contributions of 40-50% over northwestern 360 Australia and eastern Asia.
 - 3.4 **Extratropical cyclones**

Extratropical cyclones are mid-latitude, synoptic scale weather features responsible for a host of impacts, including high winds, coastal surge, and heavy precipitation, which can fall as rain, snow, sleet, or freezing rain (Schultz et al., 2019; Dacre, 2020). Even though these features occur at relatively large spatial scales, models still have difficulty in capturing hazards related to

365

ETCs (e.g., Colle et al., 2015; Catalano et al., 2019), emphasizing the importance of evaluating them at a process level in weather and climate datasets.

Here we produce two-dimensional composites of several field associated with ETCs tracked in the first historical member of the Community Earth System Large Ensemble (Kay et al., 2015). ETCs over the northeastern United States were originally analyzed in this dataset in Zarzycki (2018). The years available for analysis in the historical simulations range from 1990-2015, 370 inclusive. We also apply a pre-defined intensity threshold and spatially constrain ETCs to pass over the continental United States (CONUS) in order to demonstrate a regional analysis and highlight both the filtering and compositing capabilities of TE.

3.4.1 Step 1: Generate extratropical cyclone trajectories

The algorithm applied here identifies cyclonic storms as sea level pressure minima. To avoid topographic lows and features that are not meteorological in character, additional criteria are imposed on the minimum lifetime and propagation distance.

- 375 Note that while the algorithm is highly similar to that published in Zarzycki (2018), other ETC detection algorithms analogous to those published in the Intercomparison of Mid Latitude Storm Diagnostics (IMILAST; Neu et al., 2013) can be configured using TE's command line options. These alternative approaches include tracking on low-level geopotential height minima or vorticity maxima, filtering based on spatial gradients, and removing candidate storms over higher terrain (see Table 1 in Neu et al. (2013)). Also, while a more complex algorithm could help eliminate cyclones that are tropical in nature (e.g., by using
- 380 the no_closed_contour argument to eliminate candidates with an upper level warm core), none is applied here due to the relatively low resolution of CESM LENS. These coarser grid spacings are generally insufficient to resolve TCs (Walsh et al., 2015), although higher-resolution evaluations of ETCs may require additional exclusionary thresholds to minimize their inclusion in storm track datasets if desired.

To begin, cyclonic storms are identified using *DetectNodes* by following sea level pressure (here, PSL) minima in 6-hourly data:

```
DetectNodes --in_data_list B20TRC5CNBDRD.001.PS_list.txt --out cyclone_candidates \
    --closedcontourcmd "PSL,200.0,6.0,0" --mergedist 6.0 \
    --searchbymin "PSL" --outputcmd "PSL,min,0"
```

Our criterion for cyclonic storms is that the minimum pressure must be enclosed by a closed contour of 200 Pa within 6.0° of cyclone center. This minimum pressure location also defines the cyclone center. Candidates within 6.0° of one another are merged, with the lower pressure taking precedence. Outputs from *DetectNodes* are then concatenated into a single candidate list, and *StitchNodes* is run to track these features in time:

```
StitchNodes --in_fmt "lon,lat,slp" --in_list candidate_list.txt \
    --out etc-all-traj.txt \
    --range 6.0 --mintime 60h --maxgap 18h --min endpoint dist 12.0 \
```

395 -

```
--threshold "lat,>,24,1;lon,>,234,1;lat,<,52,1;lon,<,294,1"
```

Here the *StitchNodes* thresholds require that storms persist for at least 60 hours, with a maximum gap (time between sequential detections satisfying the *DetectNodes* criteria) of at most 18 hours. Furthermore, at least one point must pass through a geographic region (representing CONUS) bounded by 24°N and 52°N latitude and 234°E and 294°E longitude. We also require

400 ETCs move at least 12° GCD from the start to the end of the trajectory, as specified by the min_endpoint_dist argument, in order to eliminate stationary features (e.g., the Icelandic Low) and spurious shallow lows generated over regions of high topography.

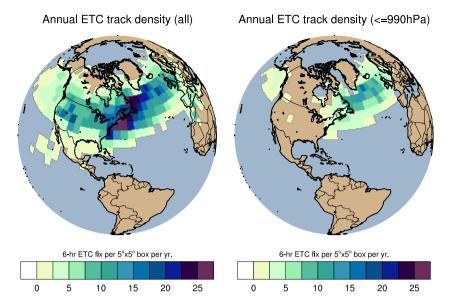


Figure 4. Track density maps for all CONUS ETCs tracked in the first historical member of CESM LENS (left) and only ETCs with simulated SLP less than or equal to 990 hPa (right). Units are number of six-hourly ETC occurrences per $5^{\circ}x5^{\circ}$ grid box per year.

3.4.2 Step 2: Filter out ETCs with sea level pressure above 990hPa

In some cases, it may be desirable to filter out the more intense, potentially more impactful, events. While the definition of a strong ETC is inherently subjective, we define a central pressure of 990 hPa as the demarcation between strong and moderate/weak ETCs as in Zhang and Colle (2017). To do so, all ETCs tracked in step 1 are passed into *NodeFileEditor*, where a new trajectory file specified by argument out_nodefile is generated with storms only possessing intensities of 990 hPa or lower:

```
NodeFileEditor --in_nodefile etc-all-traj.txt \
```

```
410 --in_data_list B20TRC5CNBDRD.001.PRECT_list.txt \
    --in_fmt "lon,lat,slp" --out_fmt "lon,lat,slp" \
    --out_nodefile etc-strong-traj.txt \
    --colfilter "slp,<=,99000."</pre>
```

Figure 4 shows the annual track density of all ETCs tracked in step 1 (left) and the same plot but with only the subset of
ETCs stronger than 990 hPa included (right). These results broadly match those of other ETC trackers depicted in Fig. 1 of
Neu et al. (2013), with a storm track belt extending across the North Atlantic centered on approximately 40-60°N latitude.

3.4.3 Step 3: Filter data within 25 degrees of storm center and composite

420

425

Corresponding precipitation rate outputs from the same ensemble member are masked within 25° GCD of a storm center tracked in step 1. Here, all precipitation associated with the cyclone is retained while all precipitation not within 25° of a storm is set to zero.

To extract spatial information associated with ETCs we first filter a spatiotemporally continuous gridded dataset using *NodeFileFilter*:

```
NodeFileFilter --in_nodefile etc-all-traj.txt --in_fmt "lon,lat,slp" \
    --in_data_list B20TRC5CNBDRD.001.PRECT_list.txt \
    --out_data_list B20TRC5CNBDRD.001.PRECT_FILT_list.txt \
    --var "PRECT" --bydist 25.0 --maskvar "mask"
```

A binary variable named 'mask' (as specified by argument maskvar) is also included in the filtered files for reference and can be used for offline masking and visualization.

As a last step, storm-centered composites are generated using the command:

Here, only ETCs filtered above to have central SLP values below 990 hPa are composited. Although we can composite any
2D field, here we apply the compositing tool to precipitation filtered by *NodeFileFilter*. The argument max_time_delta indicates that the data slice nearest in time to the tracked feature (within 2 hours) should be composited – this is useful when the discrete times from data and features are not exactly aligned. The arithmetic mean is calculated centered on the storm location (see section 2.4). The resulting stereographic composite has a grid spacing of 1° and a resolution of 80x80 grid points.

3.4.4 Results from compositing extratropical cyclone fields

Figure 5 shows the composited precipitation rate field (PRECT), along with analogously calculated composites of 850 hPa temperature (T850) and integrated vapor transport (IVT). Total precipitation is largest near the storm center. Further, advection of warm, moist air wrapping cyclonically around the eastern side of the storm center is seen in the 850 hPa temperature field (composite wind vectors shown in black). Lastly, the collocation of high values of IVT and rising motion in the mid-troposphere (600 hPa omega contours shown in white) shows strong upward and poleward moisture advection associated with the warm conveyor belt, as previously shown in hand-compositing studies (e.g., Browning, 1986; Field and Wood, 2007).

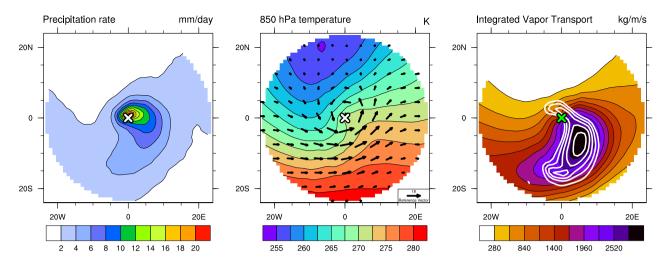


Figure 5. Composites of meteorological quantities centered on ETC storm center of all filtered storms with SLP less than or equal to 990 hPa in the first CESM-LENS historical member. Shown from left to right are precipitation rate (mm day⁻¹), 850 hPa temperature (K) with overlain 850 hPa wind vectors (m s⁻¹) and integrated vapor transport (g kg⁻¹) with overlain 600 hPa pressure velocity (omega) contours (every hPa hr⁻¹ starting at -2 hPa hr⁻¹). Each composite includes 11,164 data points.

3.5 Atmospheric Rivers

Atmospheric rivers (ARs) are thin and long filamentary structures characterized by high integrated vapor transport (IVT; Payne et al., 2020). As found by Zhu and Newell (1998), ARs are responsible for approximately 90% of poleward vapor transport. Our goal in this section is to reproduce this result in 20 years of ERA5 reanalysis using the Tempest AR detection algorithm (Shields et al., 2018; Rhoades et al., 2020b, a; McClenny et al., 2020).

450

3.5.1 Step 1: Detect ridges in the IVT Field

As described in McClenny et al. (2020), the Tempest AR detection algorithm detects ARs as ridges in the IVT field, where IVT is defined pointwise as

$$IVT = \sqrt{VIWVE^2 + VIWVN^2}.$$
(1)

- Here we have adopted the nomenclature of ERA5 for vertically-integrated eastward vapor transport (VIWVE) and northward vapor transport (VIWVN). Ridge points are associated with high downward curvature, and identified as those points where the Laplacian of the IVT field is below a fixed threshold (here chosen to be -2 × 10⁴ kg m⁻²s⁻¹rad⁻²). These points are useful indicators of the presence of ARs because this threshold identifies either long and narrow features or localized maxima (which are subsequently filtered using a minimum area criterion). Here the Laplacian is calculated using 8 radial points at a distance of 10° GCD (as described in Appendix B); this large stencil on the Laplacian provides some smoothing of the field. Note that
- all field manipulation routines are handled by TE internally. The command for this operation is as follows:

```
DetectBlobs --in_data_list ERA5_IVT_files.txt --out_list ERA5_AR_files.txt \
```

--timefilter "6hr" \setminus

```
--thresholdcmd "_LAPLACIAN {8,10} (_VECMAG (VIWVE, VIWVN)), <=, -20000,0" \
```

465 --minabslat 15 --geofiltercmd "area,>=,4e5km2"

The first three arguments refer to the list of input files, output files and specify that data should be downsampled to 6-hourly timesteps. The gridpoint-level filtering operation is specified via the thresholdcmd argument, which uses the gridded data processor kernel built into TE to internally process the eastward and northward components of the integrated vapor transport (VIWVE and VIWVN, respectively) during the tagging operation. Specifically, the operation specified here identifies candidate grid points using a threshold on the Laplacian of the IVT. This command first calculates IVT using the vector magnitude operator, then calculates the Laplacian of the resulting field. Only points whose Laplacian is less than the threshold are retained. The last two arguments are then used to remove features too near the equator and those that are deemed too small: the latitude of each tagged grid point must be at least 15° , and each blob must have a minimum area of 4×10^5 km². Such filtering criteria are typical for AR trackers (Shields et al., 2018).

475 3.5.2 Step 2: Filter out tropical cyclones

appear in IBTrACS until 2019-02-26 06:00:00 UTC.

As noted in McClenny et al. (2020), tropical cyclones, which also tend to exhibit large values of IVT, are sometimes picked up as part of the detection procedure. Although their contribution to poleward IVT is small, it is nonetheless desirable to exclude TCs from this calculation. This can be done using the ERA5 TC tracks produced in section 3.2 to filter out points within a prescribed distance of each detected TC:

Here the nodefile from ERA5 is specified by in_nodefile and in_fmt. The input list of files containing the AR binary masks, specified with in_data_list, is the same as the output from *DetectBlobs*. The filtered output files are written to the file specified by out_data_list. The last two arguments here are key to the filtering procedure, specifying that the mask should include all points except those within 8 degrees GCD of each nodal feature.

Figure 6 shows the ERA5 integrated vapor transport (IVT) field on 2019-02-25 at 18:00 UTC, along with the outlines of AR objects detected using TE. On this date, an AR event was responsible for flooding in California's Russian River basin (seen here intersecting the US West Coast). Dashed lines in this plot show the footprint of Super Typhoon Wutip at (139.75E, 15N) and Tropical Cyclone Pola at (175.5W, 14S), both of which have been excluded from the AR mask. Notably, Pola does not

490

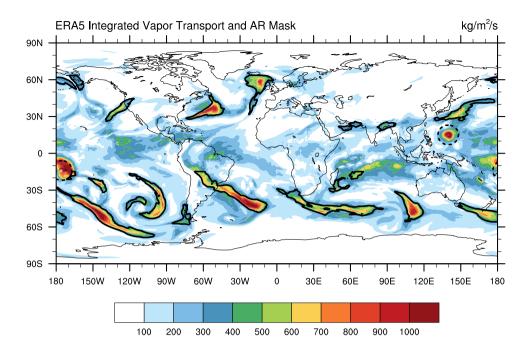


Figure 6. ERA5 integrated vapor transport (IVT) field with AR mask (black outlines) from 2019-02-25 18:00 UTC. Tropical cyclones that have been filtered from the AR mask are indicated with black dashed lines (8° radius GCD).

3.5.3 Step 3: Apply AR mask to northward vapor transport field

500

To now investigate AR and non-AR poleward moisture transport, we apply the mask generated in step 2 to the VIWVN field (northward vapor transport). Here we leverage the VariableProcessor executable, which allows us to apply TE's built-in opera-495 tions on a set of input files. Here the input file ERA5_VPIN.txt is the same as ERA5_AR_NFF_files.txt, except with the corresponding ERA5 VIWVN file appended to each line. To perform the processing we apply the command:

```
VariableProcessor --in_data_list ERA5_VPIN.txt --out_data_list ERA5_VPOUT.txt \
    --timefilter "6hr" \
    --var "_PROD(binary_tag,VIWVN);_PROD(_DIFF(1,binary_tag),VIWVN)" \
    --varout "VIWVN_PW_AR,VIWVN_PW_NONAR"
```

The var argument here is specified to leverage TE's internal gridded variable processor. Since binary_tag only has value 0 or 1, the product of VIWVN and binary_tag will capture points within ARs, whereas the product of VIWVN and _DIFF (1, binary_tag) will capture points not within ARs. These two variables are then written as VIWVN_AR and VIWVN_NONAR in the output file.

505 Once AR and non-AR northward IVT have been calculated on a gridpoint level, the final processing step is handled outside of TE. To do so we take the time average and zonal average of the fields produced by VariableProcessor using NCO's robust record averaging (ncra) and weighted averaging (ncwa) operators.

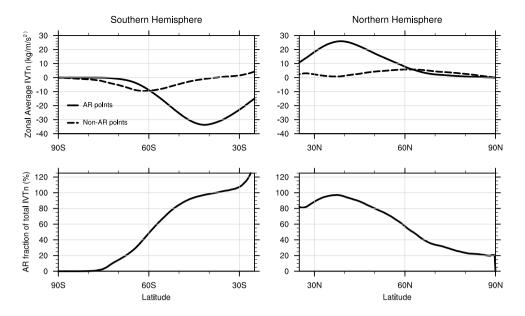


Figure 7. [top] Northward IVT (IVTn) from AR and non-AR grid points. [bottom] Fractional contribution to IVTn from AR points by latitude.

Results from calculation of northward vapor transport from AR and non-AR points 3.5.4

Figure 7 shows zonal mean northward IVT for AR and non-AR points (top row), along with the relative contribution to 510 northward IVT from ARs (bottom row). Note that because it is a fractional quantity, the bottom row equivalently shows fractional contribution to poleward IVT. The top row here is complementary to Rutz et al. (2019) Figure 14 (middle), which was computed with 6-hourly MERRA2 data. The agreement between these two results is reassuring and confirms that the AR tracker employed in this section is consistent with other trackers. In the lower figure we see that the AR contribution to poleward transport around 45N and 45S is indeed close to the 90% value reported by Zhu and Newell (1998), although this contribution then decays precipitously at more poleward latitudes. Note, however, that this is in part because AR moisture 515 transport is almost always poleward, whereas non-AR transport is a mix of both poleward and equatorward contributions.

The AR detector described in this section was run on the NERSC Cori supercomputer on two nodes with 32 threads per node (64 threads total). When run over the ERA5 monthly data from January 1979 through February 2020 at 6 hourly temporal resolution, with 494 monthly files, DetectBlobs required 34 minutes and 42 seconds. Again this run was largely I/O bound, with

520

66% of the total run time from file input. Approximately 13% of the total run time is spent applying the Laplacian operator, while 6% (2 minutes and 10 seconds) is spent constructing the Laplacian. Again using 64 threads, *NodeFilter* required 50 seconds while VariableProcessor required 14 minutes and 14 seconds.

3.6 Atmospheric Blocking

Our final example addresses the development of a climatology of atmospheric blocking frequency. Atmospheric blocking events

- 525 are synoptic-scale weather phenomena characterized by persistent obstruction of the normal westerly flow and associated with heat waves, cold spells, flooding and drought (Glickman, 2012). In Pinheiro et al. (2019) (hereafter PUG19), several 2D algorithms were compared for the detection and characterization of blocking features. It was found that the identification algorithm of Dole and Gordon (1983) (hereafter DG83), which identifies blocks as anomalously high values of geopotential height at 500hPa (Z500), was a robust method for global block detection and characterization. In this section we will employ TE
- 530 to generate a climatology of blocking events using the modified DG83 algorithm of PUG19 as applied to MERRA2 reanalysis data (Gelaro et al., 2017).

3.6.1 Step 1: Generate the blocking threshold

Following PUG19, a grid point is defined as a candidate for being blocked if the Z500 field exceeds a threshold Z500 value. This threshold value must be specified as a function of latitude, longitude, and time, given the geographical and seasonal variations
in Z500 climatology. PUG19 suggest a threshold value equal to the daily mean Z500 plus the maximum of 100 meters or 1.5 times the daily standard deviation of the Z500 field. Given that only 40 years of MERRA2 reanalysis are available, daily averaged data tends to be quite noisy and so Fourier smoothing is employed in time and space.

MERRA2 stores the 3D geopotential height variable in the inst3_3d_asm_Np dataset using variable name "H". For simplicity we assume that the input files contain a list of all files from this dataset from 1980/01/01-2020/06/30 (40.5 years).

540 Within this dataset the 500hPa geopotential height variable can be specified by variable name H (500hPa), where the vertical index is determined automatically by TE. The first step described in Pinheiro et al. (2019) is the construction of a Fourier-filtered long-term daily mean (LTDM) climatology of the Z500 field and its square. The Climatology executable is used in this step, and can be executed in parallel:

```
Climatology --in_data_list MERRA2_H_files.txt --out_data MERRA2_H_LTDM.nc \
545 --var "H(500hPa)" --period "daily" --type "mean" --missingdata
Climatology --in_data_list MERRA2_H_files.txt --out_data MERRA2_H2_LTDM.nc \
--var "H(500hPa)" --period "daily" --type "meansq" --missingdata
```

Here the missingdata argument is needed since the 500hPa pressure surface sometimes falls below the ground in the vicinity of the Himalayas, which is indicated in MERRA2 with missing values. Note that, relevant to subsequent commands, Climatology automatically prepends the descriptor "dailymean_" to the variable, so the final climatology is written to variable

```
550
```

"dailymean_H".

We now calculate the standard deviation of the H (500hPa) field using the VariableProcessor:

```
VariableProcessor --in_data "MERRA2_H_LTDM.nc;MERRA2_H2_LTDM.nc" \
    --out_data "MERRA2_H_mean_stddev.nc" \
```

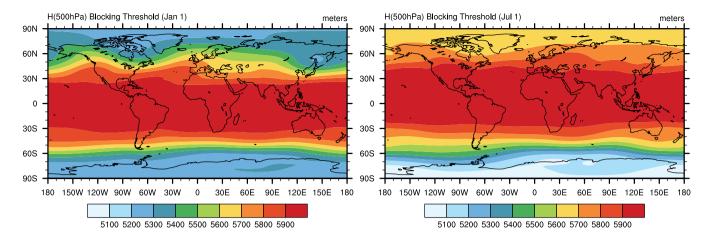


Figure 8. January 1st and July 1st MERRA2 blocking threshold generated with the command sequence in section 3.6.1.

We then apply a 4-mode Fourier filter to both the dailymean_H and stddev_H fields across the time dimension, and a 2-mode Fourier filter to the stddev_H field in the zonal direction:

```
FourierFilter --in_data MERRA2_H_mean_stddev.nc \
```

```
560 --out_data MERRA2_H_mean_stddev_timesmoothed.nc \
    --var "dailymean_H,stddev_H" --dim "time" --modes 4
FourierFilter --in_data MERRA2_H_mean_stddev_timesmoothed.nc \
    --out_data MERRA2_H_mean_stddev_smoothed.nc \
    --var "stddev_H" --preserve "dailymean_H" --dim "lon" --modes 2
```

565 Finally the threshold is computed as $H500^* = \overline{H500} + \max(1.5 \times H500_{stddev}, 100)$ via the command

```
VariableProcessor --in_data MERRA2_H_mean_stddev_smoothed.nc \
    --out_data MERRA2_threshold_H_filtered.nc \
    --var "_SUM(dailymean_H,_MAX(100.0,_PROD(1.5,stddev_H)))" --varout "threshold_H"
```

After performing these operations, a 365-day time series of the threshold field is obtained, plotted in Figure 8 on January 1st and July 1st. Note that this VariableProcessor operation could also have been performed using other climate data processing software, such as NetCDF operators or a simple Python script; however, TE's support for parallelization over files allows for these computations to be performed rapidly on supercomputing systems.

3.6.2 Step 2: Identify regions of geopotential above the blocking threshold

With the LTDM blocking threshold in hand, we now define blocking features as sufficiently large contiguous regions where all

points exceed the blocking threshold. As blocking is primarily a midlatitudinal feature, we also focus only on points between 575 25° N/S and 75° N/S.

The newly generated LTDM threshold file is appended to each line of the input data list so it can be accessed by *DetectBlobs*. The output file list has the same number of lines as this input list, but contains the output files that will contain the binary tags for tagged points.

580 DetectBlobs

```
--in data list MERRA2 DB files.txt --out list MERRA2 blocktag files.txt \
--thresholdcmd " DIFF(H(500hPa),threshold H),>=,0,0" 
--minabslat 25 --maxabslat 75 --geofiltercmd "area,>,1e6km2" --tagvar "block tag"
```

This command tags points as candidates when 500 hPa geopotential height equals or exceeds the blocking threshold. We further remove candidate points equatorward of 25° N/S and poleward of 75° N/S and only retain contiguous regions whose area is at 585 least 10^6 km².

3.6.3 Step 3: Enforce a minimum duration for blocks and build climatology

Besides being regions of anomalously high geopotential, blocking events must also be sufficiently persistent (Glickman, 2012). Although the AMS Glossary uses a typical duration of 7 days to indicate persistence, we follow PUG19 and retain events which last at least 5 days.

```
590
```

To determine the duration of individual events, we use *StitchBlobs* to connect blocking features in time, imposing that events are connected in time if they overlap by at least 20%. Features that do not persist for at least 5 days are discarded. The algorithm used here is described in detail in section 2.6. Here we use the following command:

StitchBlobs

```
--in_list MERRA2_blocktag_files.txt --out_list MERRA2_blockid_files.txt \
595
      --var "block_tag" --mintime "5d" --min_overlap_prev 20 --flatten
```

The flatten argument indicates that only binary occurrence of a feature (0 or 1) should be recorded after stitching. If this argument was not specified, then each object would be assigned a unique global integer identifier, as described in section 2.6.

To build a seasonal climatology of blocking features, the blocking data from *StitchNodes* is post-processed. Since the presence of blocking is given with a binary indicator, this command is in effect calculating the fraction of timesteps where blocking 600 occurs:

```
Climatology -- in data list MERRA2 blockid files.txt \
  --out data MERRA2_blocking_climo.nc --var "object_id" --period "seasonal"
```

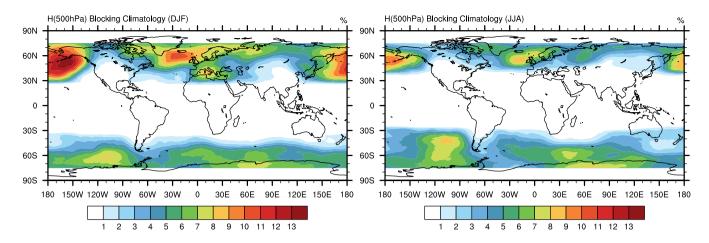


Figure 9. Percentage occurrence of blocking during (left) boreal winter and (right) boreal summer.

3.6.4 Blocking climatology results

605 The generated blocking climatology in the boreal winter (December-January-February) and boreal summer (June-July-August) is depicted in Figure 9. Results are generally in agreement with the climatology of Pinheiro et al. (2019), and show substantial wintertime blocking in the North Atlantic and Pacific. A snapshot of blocked regions on 2013-12-07 06:00 UTC is further depicted in Figure 10 (black outlines). The blocking feature present in the Northern Pacific at the time was associated with anomalous dry conditions in California and anomalous warmth in Alaska.

610 4 Conclusions

615

Automated feature tracking capabilities have been frequently and successfully employed throughout the literature to evaluate regional and global models, investigate the drivers and environments of extreme weather events, and understand future change in the statistics of atmospheric features. Feature trackers further provide an important mechanism for extracting relevant information from large climate datasets, including reanalysis and observational datasets, and climate model simulations. This is particularly important as the stakeholder needs for climate data associated with societally relevant impacts grow larger.

As there are significant overlaps in the core functionality of these trackers, there is a clear added benefit to integrating these kernels within a single framework. TempestExtremes (TE) is one such framework, with generalized kernels for identifying, characterizing, and analyzing both nodal (point) and areal features. While version 1 of TE was primarily focused on tropical and extratropical cyclones (Ullrich and Zarzycki, 2017), version 2 of TE has since added substantial new functionality for areal

620 feature tracking, characterizing and compositing features, and more dataset-agnostic parameters and thresholds. TE focuses on high-throughput data processing, including MPI support for core executables to parallelize file system operations. Such a framework has clear scientific relevance, enabling the development of feature catalogues, and addressing questions related to

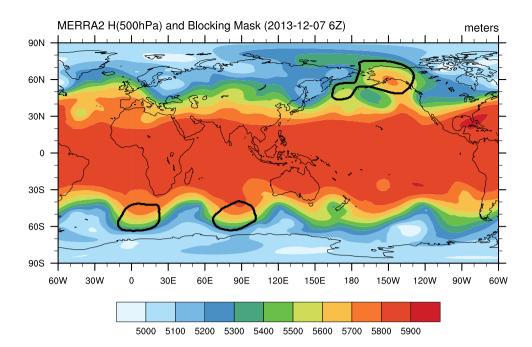


Figure 10. A snapshot of blocked regions in MERRA2 data detected on 2013-12-07 06:00 UTC (the three black outlines) atop the H(500hPa) field at this time.

specific features, including those commonly associated with extreme weather. As TE further exposes all tuning parameters, users are able to easily investigate sensitivities of the tracker, or optimize the tracker for detecting particular features.

- 625 In this paper we have described some of the newer algorithmic kernels exposed by TE, and shown how these kernels can be composited to build robust tracking algorithms for many important atmospheric features. The tracking capability enables the probing of deeper scientific questions related to individual features. To demonstrate this functionality, TE was employed in section 3.3 for tracking of tropical cyclones (TCs) and calculating the fractional contribution of TC precipitation to total precipitation in each region. Ultimately, with the suite of trackers provided by TE, a global climatology can be constructed 630 that attributes total precipitation to features; e.g., using TE we showed that TCs contribute to 20-40% of total precipitation in the tropical regions of the Pacific and South Indian Ocean in both satellite observations and ERA5 reanalysis. In section 3.4, an analysis of the composited characters of extratropical cyclones in the CESM large ensemble was performed to understand climatological track density and meteorological fields, enabling evaluation of model performance and better communication of the relevant underlying processes. In section 3.5, a novel atmospheric river detection algorithm was developed using TE and
- 635

validated against meridional moisture transport put forward in Zhu and Newell (1998). Finally, in section 3.6, TE was used to construct a seasonal climatology of atmospheric blocking. Notably, the data reductions demonstrated in these sections could support model evaluation via feature-specific and process-oriented metrics and diagnostics.

Nonetheless, TEv2.1 does have several limitations that may be addressed in future versions. At present, TE does not support detection of subgrid-scale extrema (e.g., using harmonics as in Benestad and Chen (2006) or bicubics as in Murray and

- 640 Simmonds (1991)), although this feature is largely necessitated by coarse spatial resolution inputs. TE also does not allow for extrapolation of the search position, as in some TC and ETC tracking schemes (Marchok, 2002). TE does not provide support for inline or offline percentile calculations, zonal/meridional averages, or time derivatives. Nor does v2.1 include support for common calculus operators (e.g., relative vorticity, divergence, vector dot gradient, gradient magnitude), although experimental versions of these operators have been added in v2.2. It is also missing operations sometimes used for areal feature tracking,
- 645 including dilation of areal features (Heikenfeld et al., 2019; Feng et al., 2018) and geometric operations sometimes used in AR tracking, including filtering of ARs with low width/length ratio (Mundhenk et al., 2016); support for these features is anticipated before v3.0. Additionally, as mentioned earlier in this paper, parallelism is presently only supported across files; given that data products sometimes concatenate many times within a single file, support for parallelism within files is also desirable. In general, development of TE has been guided by the needs of its userbase, with many current features having been added by 650 request; we anticipate this to continue into the future.

It is expected that TE will continue to evolve to meet the needs of the scientific community. New kernels are already being investigated that encompass functionality present in other standalone trackers. A continued focus will be on maximizing TE's robustness across datasets, so as to ensure the framework is useful for standalone users and operational modeling centers, or for comparative analysis across reanalysis products, multi-model ensembles (Eyring et al., 2016) and single model ensembles

655 (Kay et al., 2015). Finally, new capabilities to perform direct evaluation of simulation products in TE are now being developed, using the characteristics of tracked features as evaluation metrics.

Code availability. The TempestExtremes v2.1 release is available from ZENODO at https://dx.doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4385656. The GitHub repository used for ongoing code development is available at https://github.com/ClimateGlobalChange/tempestextremes.

Appendix A: Stereographic Projection

660 The stereographic projection is used in the construction of composites using *NodeFileFilter*. The equations used for projection are provided here for reference.

The forward stereographic projection around a central point (λ_0, ϕ_0) is given by:

$$K = \left[1 + \sin\phi\sin\phi_0 + \cos\phi\cos\phi_0\cos(\lambda - \lambda_0)\right]^{-1} \tag{A1}$$

$$X(\lambda,\phi;\lambda_0,\phi_0) = K\cos\phi\sin(\lambda-\lambda_0) \tag{A2}$$

 $665 \quad Y(\lambda,\phi;\lambda_0,\phi_0) = K[\cos\phi_0\sin\phi - \sin\phi_0\cos\phi\cos(\lambda - \lambda_0)] \tag{A3}$

The inverse projection is given by:

$$\rho = \sqrt{X^2 + Y^2},\tag{A4}$$

$$c = 2\arctan\left(\rho/2\right),\tag{A5}$$

$$\phi(X,Y;\lambda_0,\phi_0) = \begin{cases} \phi_0, & \text{if } \rho = 0, \\ \arcsin\left[\cos c \sin \phi_0 + (Y/\rho) \sin c \cos \phi_0\right], & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
(A6)

$$670 \quad \lambda(X,Y;\lambda_0,\phi_0) = \begin{cases} \lambda_0, & \text{if } \rho = 0, \\ \lambda_0 + \arctan 2 \left[X \sin c, \rho \cos \phi_0 \cos c - Y \sin \phi_0 \sin c \right], & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
(A7)

Appendix B: Laplacian Operator

The stereographic discrete pointwise Laplacian operator defined in TE is constructed in a grid-independent manner using a discrete radial formulation. To begin, a set of N initial sample points are generated using a ring of radius R degrees around each grid point X_0 . Using a kd-tree-based implementation, the nearest grid points to each initial sample point are then selected to give a set of adjusted grid points X_n with n = 1, ..., N. For each of the initial sample points we then define the distance D_n by the great circle distance between grid point X_0 and X_n . The averaged Laplacian over a disc of radius R/2 is then computed discretely using the divergence theorem on the stereographic plane and a centered difference approximation for the radial derivative:

$$\frac{1}{\pi (R/2)^2} \int \nabla^2 q dA = \frac{4}{\pi R^2} \oint \nabla q \cdot dS \approx \frac{4}{\pi R^2} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \left(\frac{q_n - q_0}{D_n}\right) \left(\frac{\pi R}{N}\right) = \frac{4}{NR} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \frac{q_n - q_0}{D_n} \tag{B1}$$

680 where q_n denotes the value of the field at X_n .

Author contributions. PAU wrote the software package with input from all involved authors and others in the community. CZ and KR advised on the algorithms for tracking tropical cyclones and extratropical cyclones. CZ further authored the extratropical cyclone section of the paper. EM advised on and tuned the algorithm for detecting and characterizing atmospheric rivers. MP developed the algorithm for detecting and characterizing atmospheric rivers. MP developed the algorithm for detecting and characterizing atmospheric rivers.

685 Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Acknowledgements. The authors would like to acknowledge the feedback and bug reports from our many users, particularly Alan Rhoades, Karthik Belaguru, Vishnu Sasidharan Nair, Erica Bower, and Yumin Moon. This work has been supported by Department of Energy Office of Science award number DE-SC0016605, "A Framework for Improving Analysis and Modeling of Earth System and Intersectoral Dynamics at Regional Scales (HyperFACETS)," NASA award NNX16AG62G "TempestExtremes: Indicators of change in the characteristics

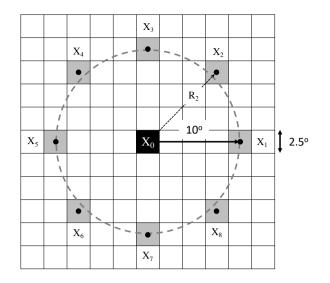


Figure B1. For a uniform (stereographic) grid with grid spacing of 2.5° GCD, an illustration of the grid points used in the calculation of the Laplacian with 8 radial points and radius 10° GCD. This operator is constructed in TE using notation _LAPLACIAN{8,10}. The central grid point is shaded black, and the modified centroids are shaded in gray.

690 of extreme weather," NASA award 80NSSC19K0717 "Quantifying the link between organized convection and extreme precipitation," and NOAA MAPP award NA19OAR4310288 "Future changes in the frequency of winter snowstorms and their impact on snowfall and snow water equivalent." This project is also supported by the National Institute of Food and Agriculture, U.S. Department of Agriculture, hatch project under California Agricultural Experiment Station project accession no. 1016611. This research used resources of the National Energy Research Scientific Computing Center, a DOE Office of Science User Facility supported by the Office of Science of the U.S. Department of Energy under Contract No. DE-AC02-05CH11231.

References

720

- Atkinson, G. D. and Holliday, C. R.: Tropical cyclone minimum sea level pressure/maximum sustained wind relationship for the Western North Pacific, Monthly Weather Review, 105, 421–427, https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0493(1977)105<0421:TCMSLP>2.0.CO;2, 1977.
- Balaguru, K., Leung, L. R., Van Roekel, L. P., Golaz, J.-C., Ullrich, P. A., Caldwell, P. M., Hagos, S. M., Harrop, B. E., and Mametjanov,
- 700 A.: Characterizing Tropical Cyclones in the Energy Exascale Earth System Model Version 1, Journal of Advances in Modeling Earth Systems, 12, e2019MS002 024, 2020.
 - Bell, G. D., Halpert, M. S., Schnell, R. C., Higgins, R. W., Lawrimore, J., Kousky, V. E., Tinker, R., Thiaw, W., Chelliah, M., and Artusa, A.: Climate Assessment for 1999, Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society, 81, S1–S50, https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0477(2000)81[s1:CAF]2.0.CO;2, 2000.
- 705 Benestad, R. and Chen, D.: The use of a calculus-based cyclone identification method for generating storm statistics, Tellus A: Dynamic Meteorology and Oceanography, 58, 473–486, 2006.
 - Browning, K. A.: Conceptual Models of Precipitation Systems, Weather and Forecasting, 1, 23–41, https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0434(1986)001<0023:CMOPS>2.0.CO;2, 1986.
 - Camargo, S. J., Giulivi, C. F., Sobel, A. H., Wing, A. A., Kim, D., Moon, Y., Strong, J. D., Del Genio, A. D., Kelley, M., Murakami, H.,
- 710 Reed, K., Scoccimarro, E., Vecchi, G., Wehner, M., Zarzycki, C., and Zhao, M.: Characteristics of model tropical cyclone climatology and the large-scale environment, Journal of Climate, 33, 4463–4487, 2020.
 - Catalano, A. J., Broccoli, A. J., Kapnick, S. B., and Janoski, T. P.: High-Impact Extratropical Cyclones along the Northeast Coast of the United States in a Long Coupled Climate Model Simulation, Journal of Climate, 32, 2131–2143, https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-18-0376.1, 2019.
- 715 Chavas, D. R. and Reed, K. A.: Dynamical aquaplanet experiments with uniform thermal forcing: System dynamics and implications for tropical cyclone genesis and size, Journal of the Atmospheric Sciences, 76, 2257–2274, 2019.
 - Chavas, D. R., Reed, K. A., and Knaff, J. A.: Physical understanding of the tropical cyclone wind-pressure relationship, Nature Communications, 8, 1–11, https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-017-01546-9, 2017.
 - Chipilski, H. G., Wang, X., and Parsons, D. B.: Object-based algorithm for the identification and tracking of convective outflow boundaries in numerical models, Monthly Weather Review, 146, 4179–4200, 2018.
 - Clark, A. J., Bullock, R. G., Jensen, T. L., Xue, M., and Kong, F.: Application of object-based time-domain diagnostics for tracking precipitation systems in convection-allowing models, Weather and Forecasting, 29, 517–542, 2014.
 - Colle, B. A., Booth, J. F., and Chang, E. K. M.: A Review of Historical and Future Changes of Extratropical Cyclones and Associated Impacts Along the US East Coast, Current Climate Change Reports, 1, 125–143, https://doi.org/10.1007/s40641-015-0013-7, 2015.
- 725 Dacre, H.: A review of extratropical cyclones: Observations and conceptual models over the past 100 years, Weather, 75, 4–7, https://doi.org/10.1002/wea.3653, https://rmets.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/wea.3653, 2020.
 - Davini, P. and D'Andrea, F.: Northern Hemisphere atmospheric blocking representation in global climate models: Twenty years of improvements?, Journal of Climate, 29, 8823–8840, 2016.

Dean, J. and Ghemawat, S.: MapReduce: simplified data processing on large clusters, Communications of the ACM, 51, 107–113, 2008.

Delanoy, R. L. and Troxel, S. W.: Machine Intelligent Gust Front Detection, Lincoln Lab. J., 6, 187–212, 1993.
 Di Luca, A., Evans, J. P., Pepler, A., Alexander, L., and Argüeso, D.: Resolution sensitivity of cyclone climatology over eastern Australia using six reanalysis products, Journal of Climate, 28, 9530–9549, 2015.

Dole, R. M. and Gordon, N. D.: Persistent anomalies of the extratropical Northern Hemisphere wintertime circulation: Geographical distribution and regional persistence characteristics, Monthly Weather Review, 111, 1567–1586, 1983.

735 Emanuel, K.: Increasing destructiveness of tropical cyclones over the past 30 years, Nature, 436, 686–688, 2005. European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts: ERA5 Reanalysis (0.25 Degree Latitude-Longitude Grid), in: Research Data Archive at the National Center for Atmospheric Research, Computational and Information Systems Laboratory, National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR), https://doi.org/10.5065/BH6N-5N20, accessed 06 18 2020, 2019.

Evring, V., Bony, S., Meehl, G. A., Senior, C. A., Stevens, B., Stouffer, R. J., and Taylor, K. E.: Overview of the Coupled Model Intercom-740 parison Project Phase 6 (CMIP6) experimental design and organization. Geoscientific Model Development, 9, 1937–1958, 2016.

- Feng, Z., Leung, L. R., Houze Jr, R. A., Hagos, S., Hardin, J., Yang, O., Han, B., and Fan, J.: Structure and evolution of mesoscale convective systems: Sensitivity to cloud microphysics in convection-permitting simulations over the United States, Journal of Advances in Modeling Earth Systems, 10, 1470-1494, 2018.
- Field, P. R. and Wood, R.: Precipitation and cloud structure in midlatitude cyclones, Journal of Climate, 20, 233-254, 745 https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI3998.1, https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI3998.1, 2007.
- Gelaro, R., McCarty, W., Suárez, M. J., Todling, R., Molod, A., Takacs, L., Randles, C. A., Darmenov, A., Bosilovich, M. G., Reichle, R., Wargan, K., Coy, L., Cullather, R., Draper, C., Akella, S., Buchard, V., Conaty, A., da Silva, A. M., Gu, W., Kim, G.-K., Koster, R., Lucchesi, R., Merkova, D., Nielsen, J. E., Partyka, G., Pawson, S., Putman, W., Rienecker, M., Schubert, S. D., Sienkiewicz, M., and Zhao, B.: The Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for Research and Applications, version 2 (MERRA-2), Journal of Climate, 30, 5419–5454, 2017.

750

755

- Glickman, T. S.: Blocking, in: Glossary of Meteorology, Am. Meteorol. Soc., Boston, Mass., https://glossary.ametsoc.org/wiki/Blocking, 2012.
- Grotjahn, R., Black, R., Leung, R., Wehner, M. F., Barlow, M., Bosilovich, M., Gershunov, A., Gutowski, W. J., Gyakum, J. R., Katz, R. W., Lee, Y.-Y., Lim, Y.-K., and Prabhat: North American extreme temperature events and related large scale meteorological patterns: A review of statistical methods, dynamics, modeling, and trends, Climate Dynamics, 46, 1151–1184, 2016.
- Haarsma, R. J., Roberts, M. J., Vidale, P. L., Senior, C. A., Bellucci, A., Bao, O., Chang, P., Corti, S., Fučkar, N. S., Guemas, V., von Hardenberg, J., Hazeleger, W., Kodama, C., Koenigk, T., Leung, L. R., Lu, J., Luo, J.-J., Mao, J., Mizielinski, M. S., Mizuta, Ryo Nobre, P., Satoh, M., Scoccimarro, E., Semmler, T., Small, J., and von Storch, J.-S.: High resolution model intercomparison project (HighResMIP v1. 0) for CMIP6, Geoscientific Model Development, 9, 4185-4208, 2016.
- Hart, R. E.: A cyclone phase space derived from thermal wind and thermal asymmetry, Monthly Weather Review, 131, 585-616, 2003. 760 Hassani, H., Huang, X., and Silva, E.: Big Data and climate change, Big Data and Cognitive Computing, 3, 12, 2019. Heikenfeld, M., Marinescu, P. J., Christensen, M., Watson-Parris, D., Senf, F., Van Den Heever, S. C., and Stier, P.: tobac v1.2: Towards a

765 A., Soci, C., Abdalla, S., Abellan, X., Balsamo, G., Bechtold, P., Biavati, G., Bidlot, J., Bonavita, M., Chiara, G. D., Dahlgren, P., Dee, D., Diamantakis, M., Dragani, R., Flemming, J., Forbes, R., Fuentes, M., Geer, A., Haimberger, L., Healy, S., Hogan, R. J., Hólm, E., Janisková, M., Keeley, S., Laloyaux, P., Lopez, P., Lupu, C., Radnoti, G., de Rosnay, P., Rozum, I., Vamborg, F., Villaume, S., and Thépaut, J.: The ERA5 global reanalysis, Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society, 146, 1999–2049, 2020.

Hodges, K., Cobb, A., and Vidale, P. L.: How well are tropical cyclones represented in reanalysis datasets?, Journal of Climate, 30, 5243-

770 5264, https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-16-0557.1, 2017.

flexible framework for tracking and analysis of clouds in diverse datasets, Geoscientific Model Development, 12, 4551–4570, 2019. Hersbach, H., Bell, B., Berrisford, P., Hirahara, S., Horányi, A., Muñoz-Sabater, J., Nicolas, J., Peubey, C., Radu, R., Schepers, D., Simmons,

- Holland, G.: A revised hurricane pressure-wind model, Monthly Weather Review, 136, 3432–3445, https://doi.org/10.1175/2008MWR2395.1, 2008.
- Hope, P., Keay, K., Pook, M., Catto, J., Simmonds, I., Mills, G., McIntosh, P., Risbey, J., and Berry, G.: A comparison of automated methods of front recognition for climate studies: A case study in southwest Western Australia, Monthly Weather Review, 142, 343–363, 2014.
- 775 Huang, H., Patricola, C. M., Bercos-Hickey, E., Zhou, Y., Rhoades, A., Risser, M. D., and Collins, W. D.: Sources of Subseasonal-To-Seasonal Predictability of Atmospheric Rivers and Precipitation in the Western United States, Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 126, e2020JD034 053, 2021.

780

- Huffman, G. J., Bolvin, D. T., Nelkin, E. J., Wolff, D. B., Adler, R. F., Gu, G., Hong, Y., Bowman, K. P., and Stocker, E. F.: The TRMM Multisatellite Precipitation Analysis (TMPA): Quasi-global, multiyear, combined-sensor precipitation estimates at fine scales, Journal of Hvdrometeorology, 8, 38–55, https://doi.org/10.1175/JHM560.1, 2007.
- Hurley, J. V. and Boos, W. R.: A global climatology of monsoon low-pressure systems, Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society, 141, 1049–1064, 2015.
- Kay, J. E., Deser, C., Phillips, A., Mai, A., Hannay, C., Strand, G., Arblaster, J. M., Bates, S., Danabasoglu, G., Edwards, J., Holland, M., Kushner, P., Lamarque, J.-F., Lawrence, D., Lindsay, K., Middleton, A., Munoz, E., Neale, R., Oleson, K., Polvani, L., and Vertenstein,
- 785 M.: The Community Earth System Model (CESM) large ensemble project: A community resource for studying climate change in the presence of internal climate variability, Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society, 96, 1333–1349, 2015.
 - Khouakhi, A., Villarini, G., and Vecchi, G. A.: Contribution of tropical cyclones to rainfall at the global scale, Journal of Climate, 30, 359–372, https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-16-0298.1, 2017.
- Kiehl, J. T., Zarzycki, C. M., Shields, C. A., and Rothstein, M. V.: Simulated changes to tropical cyclones across the Paleocene-Eocene
 Thermal Maximum (PETM) boundary, Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology, 572, 110421, 2021.
- Knaff, J. A. and Zehr, R. M.: Reexamination of tropical cyclone wind-pressure relationships, Weather and Forecasting, 22, 71–88, https://doi.org/10.1175/WAF965.1, 2007.
 - Knapp, K. R., Kruk, M. C., Levinson, D. H., Diamond, H. J., and Neumann, C. J.: The International Best Track Archive for Climate Stewardship (IBTrACS) unifying tropical cyclone data, Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society, 91, 363–376, 2010.
- 795 Li, F., Chavas, D. R., Reed, K. A., and Dawson II, D. T.: Climatology of severe local storm environments and synoptic-scale features over North America in ERA5 reanalysis and CAM6 simulation, Journal of Climate, 33, 8339–8365, https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-19-0986.1, 2020.
 - Marchok, T. P.: How the NCEP tropical cyclone tracker works, in: Preprints, 25th Conf. on Hurricanes and Tropical Meteorology, San Diego, CA, Amer. Meteor. Soc. P, vol. 1, 2002.
- 800 McClenny, E. E., Ullrich, P. A., and Grotjahn, R.: Sensitivity of atmospheric river vapor transport and precipitation to uniform sea-surface temperature increases, Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 125, https://doi.org/10.1029/2020JD033421, e2020JD033421, 2020.
 - Michaelis, A. C. and Lackmann, G. M.: Climatological changes in the extratropical transition of tropical cyclones in high-resolution global simulations, Journal of Climate, 32, 8733–8753, 2019.
- 805 Michaelis, A. C. and Lackmann, G. M.: Storm-scale dynamical changes of extratropical transition events in present-day and future highresolution global simulations, Journal of Climate, 34, 5037–5062, 2021.

- Moon, Y., Kim, D., Camargo, S. J., Wing, A. A., Sobel, A. H., Murakami, H., Reed, K. A., Scoccimarro, E., Vecchi, G. A., Wehner, M. F., Zarzycki, C. M., and Zhao, M.: Azimuthally averaged wind and thermodynamic structures of tropical cyclones in global climate models and their sensitivity to horizontal resolution, Journal of Climate, 33, 1575–1595, 2020.
- 810 Mundhenk, B. D., Barnes, E. A., and Maloney, E. D.: All-season climatology and variability of atmospheric river frequencies over the North Pacific, Journal of Climate, 29, 4885–4903, 2016.
 - Murakami, H.: Tropical cyclones in reanalysis data sets, Geophysical Research Letters, 41, 2133–2141, https://doi.org/10.1002/2014GL059519, 2014.

Murata, A., Sasaki, H., Kawase, H., and Nosaka, M.: The development of a resolution-independent tropical cyclone detection scheme for high-resolution climate model simulations, Journal of the Meteorological Society of Japan. Ser. II, 2019.

- Murray, R. J. and Simmonds, I.: A numerical scheme for tracking cyclone centres from digital data, Australian meteorological magazine, 39, 155–166, 1991.
 - Neu, U., Akperov, M. G., Bellenbaum, N., Benestad, R., Blender, R., Caballero, R., Cocozza, A., Dacre, H. F., Feng, Y., Fraedrich, K., et al.: IMILAST: A community effort to intercompare extratropical cyclone detection and tracking algorithms, Bulletin of the American
- 820 Meteorological Society, 94, 529–547, 2013.
 - Parfitt, R., Czaja, A., and Seo, H.: A simple diagnostic for the detection of atmospheric fronts, Geophysical Research Letters, 44, 4351–4358, 2017.
 - Patricola, C. M., O'Brien, J. P., Risser, M. D., Rhoades, A. M., O'Brien, T. A., Ullrich, P. A., Stone, D. A., and Collins, W. D.: Maximizing ENSO as a source of western US hydroclimate predictability, Climate Dynamics, 54, 351–372, 2020.
- 825 Payne, A. E., Demory, M.-E., Leung, L. R., Ramos, A. M., Shields, C. A., Rutz, J. J., Siler, N., Villarini, G., Hall, A., and Ralph, F. M.: Responses and impacts of atmospheric rivers to climate change, Nature Reviews Earth & Environment, pp. 1–15, 2020.
 - Pendergrass, A. G., Reed, K. A., and Medeiros, B.: The link between extreme precipitation and convective organization in a warming climate: Global radiative-convective equilibrium simulations, Geophysical Research Letters, 43, 11,445–11,452, https://doi.org/10.1002/2016GL071285, 2016.
- 830 Pinheiro, M., Ullrich, P., and Grotjahn, R.: Atmospheric blocking and intercomparison of objective detection methods: flow field characteristics, Climate dynamics, 53, 4189–4216, 2019.
 - Powell, M. D. and Reinhold, T. A.: Tropical cyclone destructive potential by integrated kinetic energy, Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society, 88, 513–526, 2007.

Prat, O. P. and Nelson, B. R.: Mapping the world's tropical cyclone rainfall contribution over land using the TRMM Multi-satellite Precipi-

- tation Analysis, Water Resources Research, 49, 7236–7254, https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1002/wrcr.20527, 2013.
 - Prein, A. F., Liu, C., Ikeda, K., Trier, S. B., Rasmussen, R. M., Holland, G. J., and Clark, M. P.: Increased rainfall volume from future convective storms in the US, Nature Climate Change, 7, 880–884, 2017.

Reed, K., Wehner, M. F., Stansfield, A. M., and Zarzycki, C. M.: Anthropogenic influence on hurricane Dorian's extreme rainfall, Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society, 102, S9–S15, 2021.

- 840 Reed, K. A., Stansfield, A., Wehner, M., and Zarzycki, C.: Forecasted attribution of the human influence on Hurricane Florence, Science advances, 6, eaaw9253, 2020.
 - Rhoades, A., Jones, A., Srivastava, A., Huang, H., O'Brien, T., Patricola, C., Ullrich, P., Wehner, M., and Zhou, Y.: The shifting scales of Western US landfalling atmospheric rivers under climate change, Geophysical Research Letters, in press, 2020a.

Rhoades, A. M., Jones, A. D., O'Brien, T. A., O'Brien, J. P., Ullrich, P. A., and Zarzycki, C. M.: Influences of North Pacific Ocean domain

- extent on the Western US winter hydroclimatology in variable-resolution CESM, Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 125, e2019JD031977, 2020b.
 - Roberts, M. J., Camp, J., Seddon, J., Vidale, P. L., Hodges, K., Vannière, B., Mecking, J., Haarsma, R., Bellucci, A., Scoccimarro, E., Caron, L.-P., Chauvin, F., Terray, L., Valcke, S., Moine, M.-P., Putrasahan, D., Roberts, C., Senan, R., Zarzycki, C., Ullrich, P., Yamada, Y., Mizuta, R., Kodama, C., Fu, D., Zhang, Q., Danabasoglu, G., Rosenbloom, N., Wang, H., and Wu, L.: Projected future changes in tropical
- cyclones using the CMIP6 HighResMIP multimodel ensemble, Geophysical Research Letters, 47, e2020GL088 662, 2020a.
 - Roberts, M. J., Camp, J., Seddon, J., Vidale, P. L., Hodges, K., Vanniere, B., Mecking, J., Haarsma, R., Bellucci, A., Scoccimarro, E., Caron, L.-P., Chauvin, F., Terray, L., Valcke, S., Moine, M.-P., Putrasahan, D., Roberts, C., Senan, R., Zarzycki, C., Ullrich, P., Yamada, Y., Mizuta, R., Kodama, C., Fu, D., Zhang, Q., Danabasoglu, G., Rosenbloom, N., Wang, H., and Wu, L.: Impact of model resolution on tropical cyclone simulation using the HighResMIP–PRIMAVERA multimodel ensemble, Journal of Climate, 33, 2557–2583, 2020b.
- Rutz, J. J., Shields, C. A., Lora, J. M., Payne, A. E., Guan, B., Ullrich, P., O'Brien, T., Leung, L. R., Ralph, F. M., Wehner, M., Brands, S., Collow, A., Goldenson, N., Gorodetskaya, I., Griffith, H., Kashinath, K., Kawzenuk, B., Krishnan, H., Kurlin, V., Lavers, D., Magnusdottir, G., Mahoney, K., McClenny, E., Muszynski, G., Nguyen, P. D., Prabhat, Qian, Y., Ramos, A. M., Sarangi, C., Sellars, S., Shulgina, T., Tome, R., Waliser, D., Walton, D., Wick, G., Wilson, A. M., and Viale, M.: The Atmospheric River Tracking Method Intercomparison Project (ARTMIP): Quantifying uncertainties in atmospheric river climatology, Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 124, 13 777–13 802, 2019.
- Schemm, S., Rudeva, I., and Simmonds, I.: Extratropical fronts in the lower troposphere–global perspectives obtained from two automated methods, Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society, 141, 1686–1698, 2015.
 - Schenkel, B. A. and Hart, R. E.: An examination of tropical cyclone position, intensity, and intensity life cycle within atmospheric reanalysis datasets, Journal of Climate, 25, 3453–3475, https://doi.org/10.1175/2011JCLI4208.1, 2012.
- 865 Schenkel, B. A., Lin, N., Chavas, D., Oppenheimer, M., and Brammer, A.: Evaluating outer tropical cyclone size in reanalysis datasets using QuikSCAT data, Journal of Climate, 30, 8745–8762, 2017.
 - Scherrer, S. C., Croci-Maspoli, M., Schwierz, C., and Appenzeller, C.: Two-dimensional indices of atmospheric blocking and their statistical relationship with winter climate patterns in the Euro-Atlantic region, International Journal of Climatology: A Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society, 26, 233–249, 2006.
- 870 Schnase, J. L., Lee, T. J., Mattmann, C. A., Lynnes, C. S., Cinquini, L., Ramirez, P. M., Hart, A. F., Williams, D. N., Waliser, D., Rinsland, P., Webster, W. P., Duffy, D. Q., McInerney, M. A., Tamkin, G. S., Potter, G. L., and Carriere, L.: Big data challenges in climate science: Improving the next-generation cyberinfrastructure, IEEE geoscience and remote sensing magazine, 4, 10–22, 2016.
- Schultz, D. M., Bosart, L. F., Colle, B. A., Davies, H. C., Dearden, C., Keyser, D., Martius, O., Roebber, P. J., Steenburgh, W. J., Volkert, H., and Winters, A. C.: Extratropical cyclones: A century of research on meteorology's centerpiece, Meteorological Monographs, 59, 16.1–16.56, https://doi.org/10.1175/AMSMONOGRAPHS-D-18-0015.1, 2019.
- Shields, C. A., Rutz, J. J., Leung, L.-Y., Ralph, F. M., Wehner, M., Kawzenuk, B., Lora, J. M., McClenny, E., Osborne, T., Payne, A. E., Ullrich, P., Gershunov, A., Goldenson, N., Guan, B., Qian, Y., Ramos, A. M., Sarangi, C., Sellars, S., Gorodetskaya, I., Kashinath, K., Kurlin, V., Mahoney, K., Muszynski, G., Pierce, R., Subramanian, A. C., Tome, R., Waliser, D., Walton, D., Wick, G., Wilson, A., Lavers, D., Collow, A., Krishnan, H., Magnusdottir, G., and Nguyen, P.: Atmospheric river tracking method intercomparison project (ARTMIP):
- 880 project goals and experimental design, Geoscientific Model Development (Online), 11, 2018.

- Small, R. J., Msadek, R., Kwon, Y.-O., Booth, J. F., and Zarzycki, C.: Atmosphere surface storm track response to resolved ocean mesoscale in two sets of global climate model experiments, Climate Dynamics, 52, 2067–2089, 2019.
- Stansfield, A. M., Reed, K. A., Zarzycki, C. M., Ullrich, P. A., and Chavas, D. R.: Assessing tropical cyclones' contribution to precipitation over the Eastern United States and sensitivity to the variable-resolution domain extent, Journal of Hydrometeorology, 21, 1425–1445, 2020.
- Steptoe, H., Savage, N. H., Sadri, S., Salmon, K., Maalick, Z., and Webster, S.: Tropical cyclone simulations over Bangladesh at convection permitting 4.4 km & 1.5 km resolution, Scientific data, 8, 1–12, 2021.

- Ullrich, P. A. and Zarzycki, C. M.: TempestExtremes: A framework for scale-insensitive pointwise feature tracking on unstructured grids, Geoscientific Model Development, 10, 1069, 2017.
- Ullrich, P. A., Jablonowski, C., Kent, J., Lauritzen, P. H., Nair, R., Reed, K. A., Zarzycki, C. M., Hall, D. M., Dazlich, D., Heikes, R., et al.: DCMIP2016: a review of non-hydrostatic dynamical core design and intercomparison of participating models, Geoscientific Model Development, 10, 4477–4509, 2017.
- Vishnu, S., Boos, W., Ullrich, P., and O'Brien, T.: Assessing historical variability of South Asian monsoon lows and depressions with an
 optimized tracking algorithm, Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, p. e2020JD032977, 2020.
 - Vitart, F., Anderson, J., and Stern, W.: Simulation of interannual variability of tropical storm frequency in an ensemble of GCM integrations, Journal of Climate, 10, 745–760, 1997.
 - Walsh, K. J. E., Camargo, S. J., Vecchi, G. A., Daloz, A. S., Elsner, J., Emanuel, K., Horn, M., Lim, Y.-K., Roberts, M., Patricola, C., Scoccimarro, E., Sobel, A. H., Strazzo, S., Villarini, G., Wehner, M., Zhao, M., Kossin, J. P., LaRow, T., Oouchi, K., Schubert, S., Wang,
- H., Bacmeister, J., Chang, P., Chauvin, F., Jablonowski, C., Kumar, A., Murakami, H., Ose, T., Reed, K. A., Saravanan, R., Yamada, Y., Zarzycki, C. M., Vidale, P. L., Jonas, J. A., and Henderson, N.: Hurricanes and climate: The U.S. CLIVAR working group on hurricanes, Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society, 96, 997–1017, https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-13-00242.1, 2015.
 - Wing, A. A., Camargo, S. J., Sobel, A. H., Kim, D., Moon, Y., Murakami, H., Reed, K. A., Vecchi, G. A., Wehner, M. F., Zarzycki, C., et al.: Moist static energy budget analysis of tropical cyclone intensification in high-resolution climate models, Journal of Climate, 32,
- 905 6071–6095, 2019.

885

890

- You, Y. and Ting, M.: Observed Trends in the South Asian Monsoon Low-Pressure Systems and Rainfall Extremes Since the Late 1970s, Geophysical Research Letters, 48, e2021GL092 378, 2021.
- Zarzycki, C. M.: Tropical cyclone intensity errors associated with lack of two-way ocean coupling in high-resolution global simulations, Journal of Climate, 29, 8589–8610, 2016.
- 910 Zarzycki, C. M.: Projecting changes in societally impactful northeastern US snowstorms, Geophysical Research Letters, 45, 12–067, 2018. Zarzycki, C. M. and Ullrich, P. A.: Assessing sensitivities in algorithmic detection of tropical cyclones in climate data, Geophysical Research Letters, 44, 1141–1149, 2017.
 - Zarzycki, C. M., Thatcher, D. R., and Jablonowski, C.: Objective tropical cyclone extratropical transition detection in high-resolution reanalysis and climate model data, Journal of Advances in Modeling Earth Systems, 9, 130–148, 2017.
- 915 Zarzycki, C. M., Ullrich, P. A., and Reed, K. A.: Metrics for evaluating tropical cyclones in climate data, Journal of Applied Meteorology and Climatology, 60, 643–660, 2021.
 - Zender, C. S.: Analysis of self-describing gridded geoscience data with netCDF Operators (NCO), Environmental Modelling & Software, 23, 1338–1342, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsoft.2008.03.004, 2008.

Ullrich, P. A.: TempestExtremes User Guide, https://climate.ucdavis.edu/tempestextremes.php, 2020.

Zhang, W., Hari, V., and Villarini, G.: Potential impacts of anthropogenic forcing on the frequency of tropical depressions in the North Indian

- 920 Ocean in 2018, Journal of Marine Science and Engineering, 7, 436, 2019.
 - Zhang, W., Villarini, G., Scoccimarro, E., and Napolitano, F.: Examining the precipitation associated with Medicanes in the high-resolution ERA-5 reanalysis data, International Journal of Climatology, 41, E126–E132, 2021.
 - Zhang, Z. and Colle, B. A.: Changes in Extratropical Cyclone Precipitation and Associated Processes during the Twenty-First Century over Eastern North America and the Western Atlantic Using a Cyclone-Relative Approach, Journal of Climate, 30, 8633 8656, https://doi.org/10.1175/ICLI.D.16.0006.1.2017
- 925 https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-16-0906.1, 2017.
 - Zhao, M., Held, I. M., Lin, S.-J., and Vecchi, G. A.: Simulations of global hurricane climatology, interannual variability, and response to global warming using a 50-km resolution GCM, Journal of Climate, 22, 6653–6678, 2009.
 - Zhou, Y., O'Brien, T. A., Ullrich, P. A., Collins, W. D., Patricola, C. M., and Rhoades, A. M.: Uncertainties in Atmospheric River Lifecycles by Detection Algorithms: Climatology and Variability, Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 126, e2020JD033711, 2021.
- 930 Zhu, Y. and Newell, R. E.: A proposed algorithm for moisture fluxes from atmospheric rivers, Monthly Weather Review, 126, 725–735, 1998.