

1 **Improving Madden–Julian Oscillation Simulation in Atmospheric General**
2 **Circulation Models by Coupling with Snow–Ice–Thermocline One-dimensional**
3 **Ocean Model**

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13

14 Abstract

15 A one-column turbulent kinetic energy-type ocean mixed-layer model snow–ice–
16 thermocline (SIT) when coupled with three atmospheric general circulation models
17 (AGCMs) yield superior Madden–Julian Oscillation (MJO) simulation. SIT is designed
18 to have fine layers similar to those observed near the ocean surface; therefore, it can
19 realistically simulate the diurnal warm layer and cool skin. This refined discretization of
20 the near ocean surface in SIT provides accurate sea surface temperature (SST) simulation;
21 thus, facilitating realistic air–sea interaction. Coupling SIT with European Centre
22 Hamburg Model, Version 5, Community Atmosphere Model, Version 5, High-Resolution
23 Atmospheric Model significantly improved MJO simulation in three coupled AGCMs
24 compared with the AGCM driven with prescribed SST. This study suggests two major
25 improvements to the coupling process. First, during the preconditioning phase of MJO
26 over the Maritime Continent (MC), the over underestimated surface latent heat bias in
27 AGCMs can be corrected. Second, during the phase of strongest convection over MC, the
28 change in intraseasonal circulation in the meridional circulation enhancing near-surface
29 moisture convergence is the dominant factor in the coupled simulations relative to the
30 uncoupled experiments. The study results show that a fine vertical resolution near the
31 surface, which better captures temperature variations in the upper few meters of the ocean,
32 considerably improves different models with different configurations and physical
33 parameterization schemes; this could be an essential factor for accurate MJO simulation.

34 **Keywords:** Madden–Julian Oscillation, coupling, warm layer

35

36 **Short summary (plain text)**

37 We show that coupling a high-resolution one-column ocean model to three
38 atmospheric general circulation models dramatically improves Madden–Julian
39 Oscillation (MJO) simulations. It suggests two major improvements to the coupling
40 process in the preconditioning and strongest convection phases over the Maritime
41 Continent. Our results demonstrate a simple but effective way to significantly improve
42 MJO simulation and potentially seasonal to subseasonal prediction.

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44

45 **1 Introduction**

46 The Madden–Julian Oscillation (MJO) is the dominant pattern of atmospheric
47 intraseasonal variability in the tropics (Madden and Julian, 1972; Zhang, 2005; Jiang et
48 al., 2020). It has been reported that the MJO convection is often observed over sea surface
49 temperature (SST) of greater than 28°C in the Indo-Pacific warm pool (Salby and Hendon,
50 1994). MJO is an eastward-propagating ocean–atmosphere and convection-circulation
51 coupled phenomenon that lasts for 20–100 days. On these timescales, low-level moisture
52 convergence, warm SST, and shallow upper-ocean mixed-layer depth precede the
53 eastward propagation of organized deep convection by approximately ten days; opposite
54 conditions followed by approximately ten days (Krishnamurti et al., 1988; Hendon and
55 Salby, 1994; Woolnough et al., 2000). Heat flux exchange between the atmosphere and
56 ocean modulates the intraseasonal oscillation (Shinoda and Hendon, 1998). Studies have
57 emphasized the importance of moisture and heat flux feedback in MJO (Sobel et al., 2008,
58 2010; DeMott et al., 2015). Besides, oceanic wave dynamics are suggested to be
59 associated with MJO, for example, zonal wind stress anomalies driven by the MJO force
60 eastward-propagating oceanic equatorial Kelvin wave (Hendon et al., 1998; Webber et
61 al., 2010), and the signals could extend as deep as 1500 m in the ocean (Matthews et al.,
62 2007). Furthermore, the westward-propagating oceanic equatorial Rossby wave can
63 initiate the next MJO in the Indian Ocean (Webber et al., 2010; Webber et al., 2012).
64 Evidence of oceanic intraseasonal signals coupling with atmospheric signals was
65 observed in terms of the sea level, surface heat flux, salinity, and temperature during field
66 experiments and in situ monitoring (Oliver and Thompson, 2011; Drushka et al., 2012;
67 Wang et al., 2013; Chi et al., 2014; Matthews et al., 2014; DeMott et al., 2015; Fu et al.,
68 2015).

69 Recent modeling studies have demonstrated that most coupled models could
70 improve MJO simulations but that the ocean driven by the atmosphere contributes
71 indirectly by improving the mean state, heat flux, fresh water, and momentum. DeMott
72 et al. (2016) estimated that direct SST-driven ocean feedback contributes to the MJO
73 propagation up to 10% by a change in column moisture. A comparison of the direct and
74 indirect effects of SST indicated that direct effects, such as SST-driven surface fluxes,
75 tend to offset wind-driven fluxes (DeMott et al., 2015; DeMott et al., 2016; DeMott et al.,
76 2019). The factor of indirect ocean feedback on the atmospheric physical process includes
77 strong MJO convection can amplify the radiative feedback to MJO convections
78 associated with large cloud systems (Del Genio and Chen, 2015). The SST gradients can
79 drive the MJO low-level convergence (Hsu and Li, 2012; Li and Carbone, 2012) and
80 destabilize lower tropospheric to further enhance low-level convergence to the east of
81 MJO convergence (Wang and Xie, 1998; Marshall et al., 2008; Benedict and Randall,
82 2011; Fu et al., 2015). Many observational and model studies have reported that coupled
83 feedback enhances the MJO with strong horizontal moisture advection, driven by sharp
84 mean near-equatorial meridional moisture gradients (DeMott et al., 2015; Jiang et al.,
85 2018; DeMott et al., 2019; Jiang et al., 2020). These findings suggest that high-frequency
86 SST perturbations could improve moisture convergence efficiency and enhance MJO
87 propagation through relatively smooth background moisture distribution.

88 Tseng et al. (2015) identified the key role of the upper-ocean warm layer in
89 improving the MJO eastward propagation simulation using the European Centre
90 Hamburg Model, Version 5 (ECHAM5), coupled with the one-column ocean model
91 named snow–ice–thermocline (SIT). Many observational (Drushka et al., 2012; Chi et al.,
92 2014) and modeling (Klingaman and Woolnough, 2013; DeMott et al., 2019; Klingaman

93 and Demott, 2020) studies have supported this hypothesis. However, coupling the SIT to
94 only one atmospheric general circulation model (AGCM) may be insufficient to prove
95 the effectiveness of the coupling. In this study, we coupled the SIT to three AGCMs:
96 ECHAM5, Community Atmosphere Model, Version 5 (CAM5), and High-Resolution
97 Atmospheric Model (HiRAM). We also discussed the coupling mechanism that leads to
98 simulation improvement.

99 The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In section 2, we describe the
100 models, experimental designs, and observational data. Section 3 and 4 present the results
101 and discussion, respectively.

102 **2 Data, model experiments and methodology**

103 **2.1 Observation and atmospheric/oceanic data**

104 Observational data used in this study include precipitation from Global Precipitation
105 Climatology Project V1.3 (GPCP, 1° resolution, 1997–2010; Adler et al., 2003), outgoing
106 longwave radiation (OLR, 1° resolution, 1997–2010; Liebmann, 1996) and daily SST
107 (Optimum Interpolated SST, 0.25° resolution, 1989–2010; Banzon et al., 2014) from the
108 National Oceanic Atmosphere Administration. The in situ ocean temperature profiles
109 from 1989 to 2010 were obtained from the Tropical Ocean Global Atmosphere program
110 (McPhaden et al., 2010).

111 Atmospheric variables were obtained from the European Centre for Medium-range
112 Weather Forecast Reanalysis-interim (Dee et al., 2011) from 1989 to 2010. The variables
113 include zonal wind, meridional wind, temperature, specific humidity, sea level pressure,
114 geopotential high, latent heat, sensible heat, shortwave and longwave radiation. Oceanic

115 temperature data from 1989 to 2010 were obtained from the NCEP Global Ocean Data
116 Assimilation System (GODAS) (Behringer and Xue, 2004) provided by the
117 NOAA/OAR/ESRL PSL, Boulder, Colorado, USA
118 (<https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.godas.html>).

119 **2.2 Model experiments**

120 In this study, we coupled the one-column ocean model SIT (Tu and Tsuang, 2005;
121 Tsuang et al., 2009) to three AGCMs. SIT simulates variations in the SST and upper-
122 ocean temperature, including the diurnally-varying cool skin and warm layer in the upper
123 few meters of the ocean and the turbulent kinetic energy (TKE; Gaspar et al., 1990) in
124 the water column (Tsuang et al., 2001; Tu and Tsuang, 2005; Tu, 2006; Tsuang et al.,
125 2009; Tu and Tsuang, 2014; Tseng et al., 2015; Lan et al., 2021). Cool skin is a very thin
126 layer that has a direct contact with the atmosphere and warm layer is the warmer sea water
127 immediately below the cool skin in the top few meters of the ocean. They fluctuate
128 diurnally in response to atmospheric forcing. SIT with high vertical resolution
129 realistically simulates the warm-layer (within top 10 m) and cool-skin (the top layer with
130 0.001 m thickness), and improve the simulation of upper ocean temperature (Tu and
131 Tsuang, 2005; Tsuang et al., 2009). The model has been verified at a tropical ocean site
132 (Tu and Tsuang, 2005), in the South China Sea (Lan et al., 2010), and Caspian Sea
133 (Tsuang et al., 2001). The melt and formation of snow and ice above a water column have
134 been introduced (Tsuang et al., 2001). The three AGCMs used in this study are as follows.
135 ECHAM5, the fifth-generation AGCM developed at the Max Planck Institute for
136 Meteorology (Roeckner, 2003; Roeckner et al., 2006) is a spectral model that employs
137 the Nordeng (Nordeng, 1994) cumulus convective scheme. We used a horizontal
138 resolution of T63 (approximately 2°) with 31 vertical layers and a model top at 10 hPa

139 (approximately 30 km). The second one is NCAR Community Atmospheric Model
140 version 5 (Hurrell et al., 2013) from the National Center for Atmospheric Research. We
141 used a horizontal resolution of approximately 1.875° latitude \times 2.5° longitude and 30
142 vertical layers with the Zhang–McFarlane deterministic convection scheme (Zhang and
143 McFarlane, 1995) and the University of Washington Shallow Convection (Park and
144 Bretherton, 2009). HiRAM was developed based on Geophysical Fluid Dynamical
145 Laboratory global atmosphere and land model AM2 (Team et al., 2004; Zhao et al., 2009)
146 with few modifications (Chen et al., 2019). We used a horizontal resolution of
147 0.5° latitude \times 0.5° longitude with 32 vertical levels. For boundary layer and free
148 atmospheric turbulence, the model adopted the 2.5 order parameterization of Mellor and
149 Yamada (1982). Surface fluxes are computed based on the Monin–Obukhov similarity
150 theory, given the atmospheric model’s lowest level of wind, temperature, and moisture.

151 There are 42 vertical layers in SIT, with 12 layers in the upper 10 m: the surface,
152 0.05 mm, 1 m, 2 m, 3 m, 4 m, 5 m, 6 m, 7 m, 8 m, 9 m, and 10 m below ocean surface.
153 The fine resolution was designed to realistically simulate the upper-ocean warm layer,
154 including a layer at 0.05 mm, reproducing the cool skin of the ocean surface. It is worth
155 noting that coupling a high-vertical-resolution TKE ocean model with an AGCM is
156 unconventional. To account for neglected horizontal processes, the model ocean was
157 weakly nudged (with a 30-day time scale) to the observed GODAS monthly mean ocean
158 temperature below a depth of 10 m. Nudging was not applied in the upper 10 m. The
159 timestep of SIT and AGCMs exchange ocean surface fluxes varying associated with the
160 model resolution, which is 720, 1800, and 900 seconds in ECHAM-SIT, CAM5-SIT, and
161 HiRAM-SIT, respectively. AGCMs were coupled with the SIT in the tropical region

162 between 30°S and 30°N and forced by prescribed monthly mean OISST outside this
163 tropical belt.

164 The experiments comprised three sets of coupled AGCM simulations (ECHAM5-
165 SIT, CAM5-SIT, and HiRAM-SIT) and standalone AGCM simulations forced by
166 observed monthly mean OISST (ECHAM5, CAM5, and HiRAM) from 1985 to 2005.
167 The experiments were designed to evaluate the effect of atmosphere–ocean coupling on
168 MJO simulations. Table 1 presents the model and experiment details.

169 **2.3 Methodology**

170 The analysis focused on the boreal cool season (November–April) when the
171 eastward propagation tendency of the MJO is the most prominent. We used the CLIVAR
172 MJO Working Group diagnostics package (CLIVAR, 2009) and a 20–100-day filter to
173 analyze intraseasonal variability. The MJO phase composites were computed using the
174 real-time multivariate MJO index (Wheeler and Hendon, 2004), defined as the leading
175 pair of principal components of intraseasonal OLR, and 850 and 200 hPa zonal winds in
176 the tropics.

177 The vertically integrated MSE budget was diagnosed based on the following
178 equation:

$$179 \left\langle \frac{\partial h}{\partial t} \right\rangle = - \left\langle u \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \right\rangle - \left\langle v \frac{\partial h}{\partial y} \right\rangle - \left\langle \omega \frac{\partial h}{\partial p} \right\rangle + \langle LW \rangle + \langle SW \rangle + \langle LH \rangle + \langle SH \rangle \quad (1)$$

180 where h is the MSE ($h = cpT + gz + Lq$); u and v are the zonal and meridional velocities,
181 respectively; ω is the vertical pressure velocity; LW and SW are the longwave and
182 shortwave radiation fluxes, respectively; LH and SH are the latent and sensible surface
183 heat fluxes, respectively. The mass–weighted vertical integration from the surface to 200
184 hPa is denoted as $\langle \cdot \rangle$, and intraseasonal anomalies are represented as $\langle \cdot \rangle'$, which were
185 isolated using a 20–100-day bandpass Lanczos filter (Duchon, 1979).

186

187 **3 Results**188 **3.1 MJO simulations: ECHAM5-SIT, CAM5-SIT, and HiRAM-SIT**189 **3.1.1 General structure**

190 We compared simulated MJO characteristics using three coupled and uncoupled
191 AGCMs. Figure 1 shows the wavenumber–frequency spectra of simulated 850-hPa zonal
192 wind (shading) and precipitation (contours). All three uncoupled AGCMs (hereafter
193 referred to as AGCMs) simulated intraseasonal signals with lower frequency than the
194 observed and overestimated the westward propagation with periods greater than 80 days
195 (Figs. 1e–g). The ECHAM5 and HiRAM simulated signals of wavenumbers 1–3 instead
196 of the observed wavenumber 1 in 850-hPa zonal wind. These results show that all three
197 AGCMs simulated stationary fluctuations with low frequency that were not consistent
198 with the observation. By contrast, coupled AGCMs realistically reproduce the observed
199 spectral characteristics and strength of the eastward propagation at wavenumbers 1 to 2
200 in 850-hPa zonal wind (Figs. 1b–d). Although HiRAM simulated eastward propagation
201 in a wider frequency spectrum than the observed, the coupled model clearly displays
202 improvements in the MJO simulation compared with the stationary intraseasonal
203 fluctuation in the uncoupled simulation. Hovmöller diagrams presented in Fig. 2 illustrate
204 the temporal evolution of 850-hPa zonal wind and precipitation in the tropics in
205 observation and simulations. All three models simulated either stationary (CAM5 and
206 HiRAM) or weak eastward-propagating (ECHAM5) signals in AGCMs, but more
207 realistically simulated the eastward propagation of the MJO in the coupled models.

208 However, the propagation in the ECHAM5-SIT is still slightly slower than the observed.
209 The improvement obtained in coupled models suggests that active ocean–atmosphere
210 interaction is crucial for successful MJO simulation.

211 **3.1.2 Atmospheric and oceanic profiles**

212 The composite MJO life cycle featuring intraseasonal OLR and 10-m surface wind
213 anomalies for boreal winter in eight phases following Wheeler and Hendon (2004) is
214 displayed in Fig. 3. All three coupled models simulated realistic MJO with enhanced
215 circulations and propagation tendency compared with the uncoupled ones. The MJO in
216 phase 4, when deep convection is the strongest over the Maritime Continent (MC),
217 demonstrates the large-scale zonally overturning circulation coupling with the convection
218 (Fig. 4). The positive heating region in the coupled experiment is significantly enlarged,
219 deepened, and westward-tilted with increasing height compared with those in the
220 uncoupled experiment. Correspondingly, the convective-circulation envelope of the MJO
221 is thicker and longitudinally wider in coupled experiments. The strong convection is
222 associated with much enhanced low-level moisture convergence (green contours).
223 Furthermore, the area of positive rainfall anomaly in the coupled experiment becomes
224 larger, and the sea level pressure anomaly is meridionally more confined, exhibiting the
225 characteristics of intensified Kelvin wave-like perturbations to the east of the deep
226 convection. This enhancement of low-level moisture convergence is consistent with the
227 frictional wave-conditional instability of the second kind mechanism (Wang and Rui,
228 1990; Kang et al., 2013). The enhancement of the Kelvin wave can be observed in the
229 symmetric wavenumber–frequency spectra (Fig. 5). The spectra between 0 and 0.35 day^{-1}
230 are presented to highlight the MJO and equatorial Kelvin waves. The coherence at

231 wavenumbers of 2–4 for the 10–20-day period is simulated stronger in three coupled than
232 uncoupled models.

233 In addition to the atmospheric structure, the SST (Fig. S1) and vertical profile of
234 ocean temperature examined are presented in Fig. 6. The observed SST variation in MJO
235 variability is well reproduced in all three coupled models (Fig. S1). The warm SST leads
236 the main MJO convection by approximately 5–10 days, followed by the cold SST
237 approximately 5–10 days later (Flatau et al., 1997; DeMott et al., 2015; Tseng et al., 2015).
238 Moreover, the observed amplitude fluctuation (approximately 0.5° to 1°C) is realistically
239 simulated. The observed ocean temperature profiles, characterized by the warm layer,
240 along the equator from the Indian Ocean to the western Pacific are well simulated in the
241 three coupled models (Fig. 6). Meanwhile, simulated temperature anomalies are larger in
242 ECHAM5-SIT than in CAM5-SIT and HiRAM-SIT. Figure. S2 shows the fluctuations of
243 observed SST and simulated SST in three sets of coupled and uncoupled model. There is
244 no fluctuation as expected in uncoupled simulations, whereas the simulated SST
245 fluctuates with phases similar to the observed at different locations. The amplitudes in
246 ECHAM5-SIT and CAM5-SIT are similar to the observed, whereas those in HiRAM-SIT
247 seems to be smaller in the western Pacific. The differences between models are likely due
248 to the different atmospheric model configurations, because they were coupled to the same
249 1-D ocean model. Since the atmosphere is the main driver to extract heat form the ocean,
250 different responses of atmospheric models likely have different effects on SST. The cause
251 of quantitative differences between models needs further detailed analysis to pinpoint.
252 The consistent results in all three coupled models support the conclusion of Tseng et al.
253 (2015) that resolving fine vertical resolution in the upper ocean improves the simulation
254 of the warm layer and MJO propagation and variability. Our results further demonstrate

255 that the effect of atmosphere–ocean coupling on the MJO could be independent of
256 AGCMs with different configurations and atmospheric physical parameterizations, and
257 that coupling seems to be a more fundamental approach.

258 **3.1.3 Performance comparison**

259 Model performance is summarized in Fig. 7. The scatter plot shows the power ratio
260 of east–west propagating waves (X-axis) versus the pattern correlation between the
261 simulated and observed precipitation anomaly in Hovmöller diagrams (Fig. 2; Y-axis).
262 The east:west ratio was calculated by dividing eastward-propagating power by westward-
263 propagating power of 850–hPa zonal wind summed over wavenumbers of 1–2 and a
264 period of 30–80 days. Compared with the observation, coupled simulations (marked by
265 circles) exhibit better simulation than uncoupled simulations (marked by asterisks). A
266 comparison of combined explained variance using RMM1 and RMM2 (Fig. 7b) based on
267 Wheeler and Hendon (2004) shows marked increases after coupling. The comparison
268 demonstrates that coupling is essential for realistic MJO simulations.

269 **3.2 Mechanism discussion**

270 We applied the MSE budget to diagnose the moisture budget associated with the
271 MJO. Figure 8 shows a Hovmöller diagram of MSE tendency averaged by 10°S–EQ
272 overlaying precipitation anomalies. MSE tendency derived from reanalysis fluctuates in
273 quadrature with precipitation anomaly with positive (negative) MSE tendency, leading
274 (lagging) major convection by approximately one to two phases (DeMott et al., 2015;
275 DeMott et al., 2016; DeMott et al., 2019). Coupled models simulate stronger eastward
276 propagation in the MSE tendency and precipitation anomalies and realistic phase lag

277 between the two. Stronger MSE tendencies in coupled simulations are observed in
278 ECHAM5 and HiRAM but are less clear in CAM5. Figures 8d, g, and j show the
279 differences between coupled and uncoupled simulations. One notable feature is the
280 positive (negative) MSE tendency preceding positive (negative) precipitation anomaly
281 and preconditions an environment for eastward propagation of active (inactive)
282 convection and associated circulation. Next, we diagnosed the relative contribution of
283 each term in Equation 1 to the MSE tendency with the focus on the MC, where the largest
284 positive MSE tendency and precipitation anomaly were found.

285 **3.2.1 Preconditioning phase**

286 Following the peak MSE tendency over the MC (120°E–150°E) during phase 2 (Figs.
287 8d, g, and j), values of each term contributing to the column-integrated MSE tendency in
288 Equation 1 preceding the deep convection over the MC area (10°S–EQ, 120°E–150°E)
289 are shown in Fig. 9. Vertical advection is the dominant term with the major compensation
290 from longwave radiation during phase 2 when convection is still in the eastern Indian
291 Ocean, as identified by Wang et al. (2017). Moreover, the LH term is consistent within
292 all three models to contribute less negative MSE tendency in coupled models than
293 ACGMs. The results show that the contribution comes from the LH term in this early
294 phase stage. The LH effect was overlooked in Tseng et al. (2015) because of the weak
295 MJO variability in coupled simulations. However, this negative LH bias becomes one of
296 the key factors in enhancing the leading MSE tendency during the MJO preconditioning
297 phases. This suggests that the surface latent flux bias in AGCMs can be corrected by
298 involving the coupling process in the preconditioning phase. Generally, coupling
299 improves the budget simulation. The positive contribution of vertical advection and

300 negative contribution of LH in MSE tendency is closer to realistic in the coupled
301 simulations during the initial phase of the MJO.

302 **3.2.2 Phase of strongest convection over MC**

303 We compared the spatial distribution of MSE and precipitation in phase 4 when
304 convection was the strongest in the MC (Fig. 10). In the observation, the main convection
305 occurs in the MC from 90°E to 150°E. A positive MSE tendency with a maximum value
306 near 10°N and 10°S is identified in the east of the MJO convection centered near the
307 equator. Meanwhile, a negative integrated MSE tendency is found in the west of the MJO
308 convection, and the meridionally confined structure near the equator exhibits the
309 characteristics of the equatorial Kelvin wave embedded in the MJO. Clearly, coupled
310 models outperform uncoupled models in reproducing these signals. To quantify the
311 contribution of coupling to the improvement, we follow Jiang et al. (2018) to project all
312 MSE terms to the observations (Fig. 11). The dominant contribution of horizontal
313 advection to the MSE tendency in observation (Fig. 11a) is well simulated in the coupled
314 simulations but not in uncoupled simulations by ECHAM5 and CAM5 (Figs. 11b and c).
315 Although a similar dominant effect was observed in both simulation types in HiRAM, it
316 is enhanced in the coupled simulation (Fig. 11d). The horizontal advection term is further
317 decomposed into zonal and meridional components (Figs. 11e–h); both components have
318 a positive contribution, but the meridional component has a larger amplitude.
319 Furthermore, the uncoupled ECHAM5 and CAM5 simulate unrealistic features: positive
320 contribution from zonal advection but negative contribution from meridional advection.
321 In contrast, coupled models well simulate the dominance of meridional advection. In
322 HiRAM, the uncoupled model simulates almost equally positive contributions from both

323 terms. However, the coupled model simulates a larger contribution from meridional
 324 advection. We further decompose the meridional advection to assess the relative
 325 contributions of an intraseasonal perturbation and the mean state. Consistent with the
 326 observations (Fig. 11i), the meridional advection by intraseasonal flow $(-v' \frac{\partial \bar{h}}{\partial y})$ is the
 327 main factor in improving the simulations in the coupled models (Figs. 11j–l). Our results
 328 are consistent with those of Jiang et al. (2018). To evaluate the relative contribution of
 329 intraseasonal circulation and background moisture, we further diagnosed changes in
 330 $\Delta(-v' \frac{\partial \bar{h}}{\partial y})$ at phase 4. Here the overbar shows that the time mean and prime represents
 331 intraseasonal anomaly. Changes in the MJO meridional advection term for coupled
 332 experiments relative to uncoupled can be written as follows:

$$333 \quad \Delta \left(-v' \frac{\partial \bar{m}}{\partial y} \right) = \underbrace{-\Delta v'}_{(a)} \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial \bar{m}}{\partial y} \right)}_{uncoupled} - \underbrace{\left(v' \right)}_{uncoupled} \Delta \left(\frac{\partial \bar{m}}{\partial y} \right) - \Delta v' \Delta \left(\frac{\partial \bar{m}}{\partial y} \right) \quad (2)$$

334 (a) (b) (c)

335 where Δ represents the coupled–uncoupled change. The terms a–c are presented as bar
 336 charts in Fig. 12. The change of the intraseasonal circulation in the meridional circulation
 337 is the dominant factor in coupled simulations relative to uncoupled experiments. The
 338 instantaneous SST horizontal distribution dominates this moisture budget change due to
 339 the atmosphere–ocean coupling effect. Therefore, the change of varying moisture induces
 340 the intraseasonal circulation change. The results confirm that the dominance of dynamic
 341 influence over thermodynamic response to atmosphere–ocean coupling is essential in
 342 improving MJO simulations.

343 **3.3 Discussion: mean state and intraseasonal variance**

344 We examined the simulated mean state, which has been suggested a key factor
345 affecting MJO simulations (Inness et al., 2003; Watterson and Syktus, 2007; Kim et al.,
346 2009; Kim et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2014; Jiang et al., 2018; Jiang et al., 2020). The three
347 models exhibited different tropical SST responses to coupling (Fig. S3e). Over the warm
348 pool area, CAM-SIT and HiRAM-SIT underestimate the SST, whereas ECHAM5-SIT
349 overestimates the SST. Note that warm SST bias in the eastern tropical Pacific was
350 simulated in the three models due to the lack of oceanic circulation in the SIT. The
351 simulated zonal wind in the three models (Figs. S3b–d) demonstrated different responses
352 to coupling. Figures S2c show the 850-hPa zonal wind differences between coupled and
353 uncoupled models (shading) and the total field in uncoupled models (contours). Figures
354 S3f–h show the 10°S–EQ averaged 850-hPa zonal in the coupled and uncoupled models.
355 In ECHAM5-SIT, the westerly wind is slightly enhanced in the eastern Indian Ocean but
356 decreases in the western Indian Ocean and western Pacific. In CAM5-SIT, westerly wind
357 reduces in the Indian Ocean but enhances over the western Pacific. The HiRAM-SIT has
358 similar changes as in ECHAM5-SIT, e.g., decreases over the MC area but increases in
359 the western Indian Ocean and Pacific. Generally, the three models disagree on the zonal
360 wind mean state changes in response to coupling.

361 The mean moisture changes are substantially enhanced over the tropical areas in
362 ECHAM5 after coupling (Figs. S4b and e). However, in CAM5 and HiRAM, no clear
363 change was observed to the south of the equator, but strong drying was observed to in the
364 north (Figs. S4c, d, f, and g). The only common feature among the three models e is the
365 enhanced meridional gradient of mean moisture, which is consistent with many previous
366 studies (Kim et al., 2014; Jiang et al., 2018; Ahn et al., 2020). Our budget analysis

367 demonstrated that the meridional transport by the intraseasonal meridional circulation is
368 the dominant term. It also showed that the meridional gradient of mean moisture is the
369 secondary effect in enhancing MJO simulations by coupling. After coupling, the mean
370 precipitation changes are more consistent among the three models (Fig. S5). One of the
371 major changes is the southward shift of the major precipitation zone, resulting in
372 precipitation increases over the regions south of the equator, except in the MC. Similarly,
373 the precipitation intraseasonal variance (20–100 days filtered) was markedly enhanced in
374 these regions (Fig. S6). The ECHAM5-SIT exhibits a relatively minor increase over the
375 western MC. In contrast, the HiRAM-SIT exhibits the strongest enhancement,
376 particularly in the Indian Ocean. Generally, all three coupled models enhance the
377 intraseasonal signals over the tropics with discrepancies in detail. Meanwhile, the model
378 mean state does not substantially improve after coupling. Thus, in this study, the mean
379 state is not the main contribution to enhancing the MJO simulation after coupling. Instead,
380 coupling leading to rigorous atmosphere–ocean interaction in intraseasonal time scale is
381 likely the reason for improving MJO simulation.

382

383 **4 Discussion**

384 This study used a one-column TKE-type ocean mixed-layer model SIT coupled
385 with AGCMs to improve MJO simulation. SIT that is designed to have fine layers near
386 the surface well simulates warm layer, cool skin, and their diurnal fluctuations. This
387 refined discretization under the ocean surface in SIT provides improved SST simulation;
388 thus, improving realistic air–sea interaction. Coupling SIT with ECHAM5, CAM5, and
389 HiRAM significantly improves the MJO simulation in the three AGCMs compared with
390 that in the prescribed SST-driven AGCMs. The vertical cross-section indicates that the

391 strengthened low-level convergence during the preconditioning phase is better simulated
392 in the coupled experiment. Furthermore, the phase variation and amplitude of the SST
393 and ocean temperature under the surface can be realistically simulated. Our results reveal
394 that the MJO can be realistically simulated in terms of strength, period, and propagation
395 speed by increasing the vertical resolution of the one-column ocean model to better
396 resolve the upper-ocean warm layer.

397 The MSE budget analysis revealed that the coupling effects during the
398 preconditioning and mature phases exhibit different contributions. During the
399 preconditioning phase, the positive contribution of vertical advection and negative
400 contribution of LH in MSE tendency are closer to realistic values in coupled simulations
401 during the initial phase of the MJO. Additionally, the meridional component of the
402 horizontal advection term is the dominant term during the mature phase of the strongest
403 convection in the MC to enhance the simulation after coupling. Improved meridional
404 circulation is essential in the coupled simulations that outperformed uncoupled
405 experiments. The results confirm that the dominance of dynamic influence over
406 thermodynamic influence in response to the atmosphere–ocean coupling is the key
407 process in improving MJO simulations.

408 In summary, this study suggests two major enhancements of the coupling process.
409 First, the underestimated surface LH bias in AGCMs can be corrected during the
410 preconditioning phase of the MJO over MC. Second, during the strongest convection
411 phase over MC, the change in intraseasonal circulation in the meridional circulation is the
412 dominant factor in coupled simulations relative to uncoupled experiments. Although
413 many studies have indicated the key role played by the mean state, the mean state in our

414 simulations provides only a secondary contribution to enhancing MJO simulation, with
415 coupling being the main contributor. For example, zonal wind and precipitation changed
416 inconsistently among the three models after coupling. Instead, the meridional gradient of
417 the mean moisture and intraseasonal precipitation variance has a better relationship after
418 coupling. Therefore, coupling leading to rigorous atmosphere–ocean interaction in the
419 intraseasonal time scale, but no change in mean states, is likely the reason for MJO
420 simulation improvement. This study supports previous findings (Tseng et al., 2015) that
421 enhancing atmosphere–ocean coupling by considering an extremely high vertical
422 resolution in the first few meters of the ocean model improves MJO simulations. It also
423 supports that this improvement is independent of AGCMs with different configurations
424 and physical parameterization schemes. Resolving the atmosphere–ocean coupling may
425 be more beneficial than modifying the atmospheric physical parameterization schemes in
426 GCM. In brief, this study suggested the effectiveness of air–sea coupling for improving
427 MJO simulation in a climate model and demonstrated the critical effect of being able to
428 simulate warm layer. Additionally, the findings presented here enhance our understanding
429 of the physical processes that shape the characteristics of the MJO.

430

431 **Code and data availability.** The model code of CAM5–SIT, ECHAM5-SIT and
432 HiRAM-SIT is available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5701538>,
433 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5510795> and <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5701579>.
434 Observational data used in this study include precipitation from Global Precipitation
435 Climatology Project V1.3 (GPCP, 1° resolution), OLR (1° resolution), and daily SST
436 (Optimum Interpolated SST, 0.25° resolution) from the National Oceanic and
437 Atmosphere Administration, and variables were obtained from the European Centre for
438 Medium-range Weather Forecast Reanalysis-interim. All experiments were conducted at
439 the National Center for High-performance Computing. All model codes and data
440 availability presented here can be obtained by contacting the first author, Dr. Wan-Ling
441 Tseng (wtseng@ntu.edu.tw).

442

443 **Author contributions.** HHH and WLT have responsibility for conceptualization,
444 including analyzing the data and writing the manuscript. YYL, WLL, PHK, BJT, CYT,
445 and HCL developed the model and provided the simulations.

446

447 **Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

448

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456

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- 663

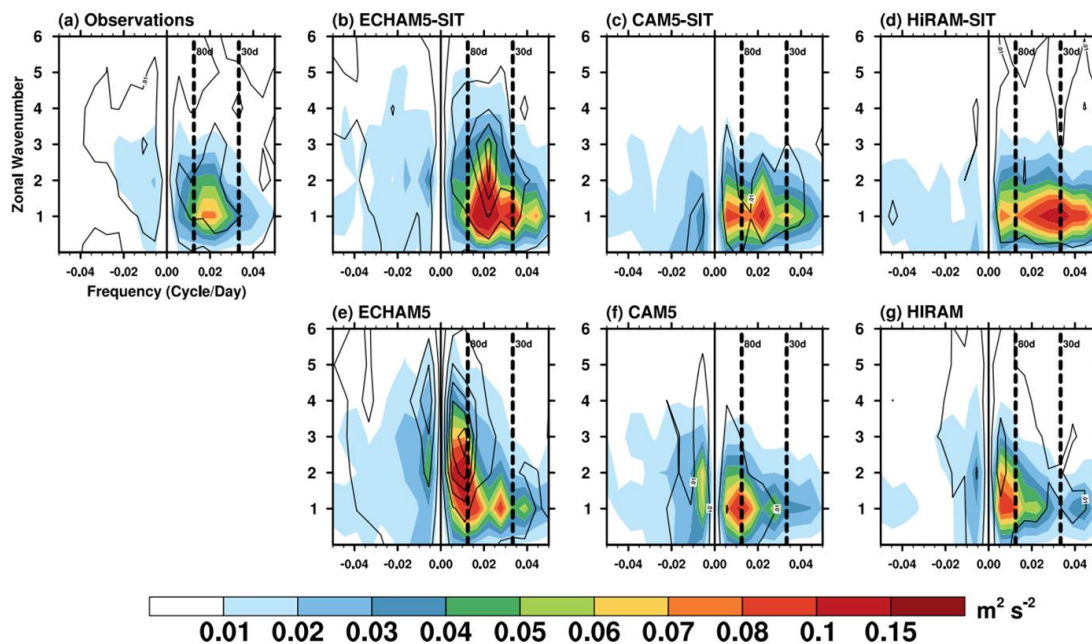
	ECHAM5-SIT	CAM5-SIT	HiRAM-SIT
AGCM	ECHAM5	CAM5	HiRAM
Horizontal resolution	T63(~2°)	1.9°×2.5°	1°×1°
SST	OISST	OISST	OISST
BC SIC	OISST	OISST	OISST
OT/OS	GODAS	GODAS	GODAS
Atmosphere vertical resolution	L31	L30	L32
Ocean vertical resolution	42	42	42
Coupled region	30°S–30°N	30°S–30°N	30°S–30°N
Time	1985–2005 (21 years)		

664

665 **Table 1.** Detailed information of models and experiments

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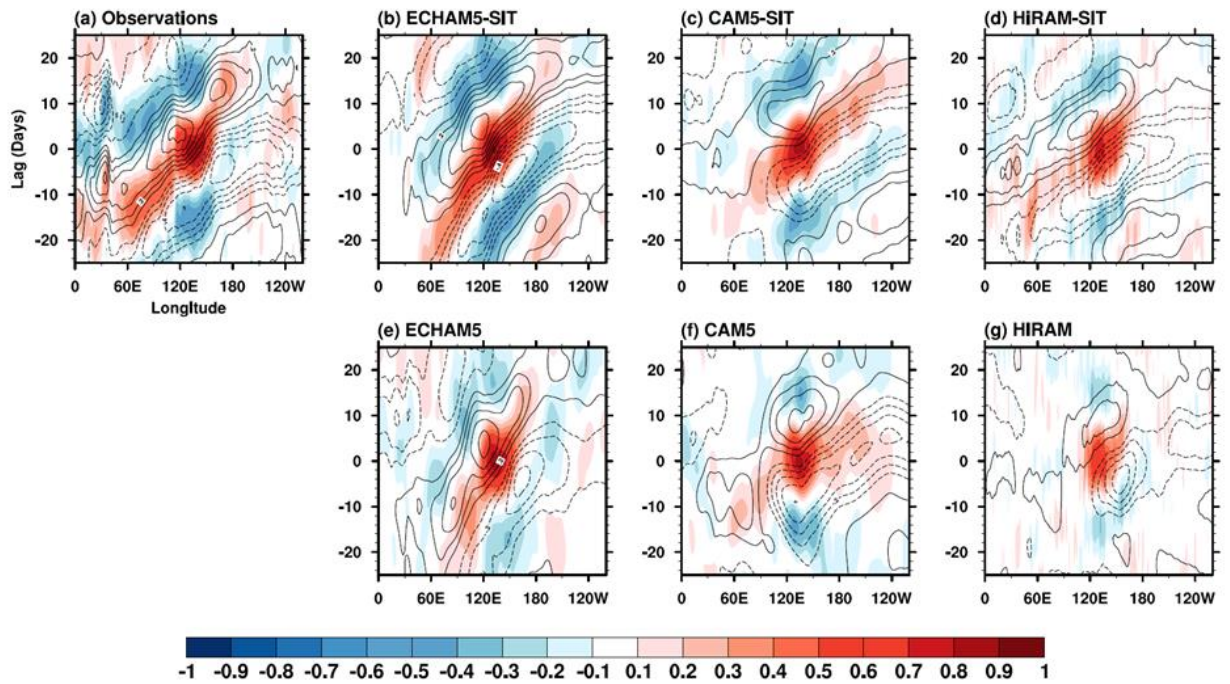


668

669 **Figure 1.** Wavenumber–frequency spectra for equatorial 850-hPa zonal wind (shading;
 670 $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$) and precipitation (contours; $\text{mm}^2 \text{day}^{-2}$) over 10°S – 10°N from (a) observations
 671 and simulations using the (b–d) coupled and (e–g) uncoupled AGCM.

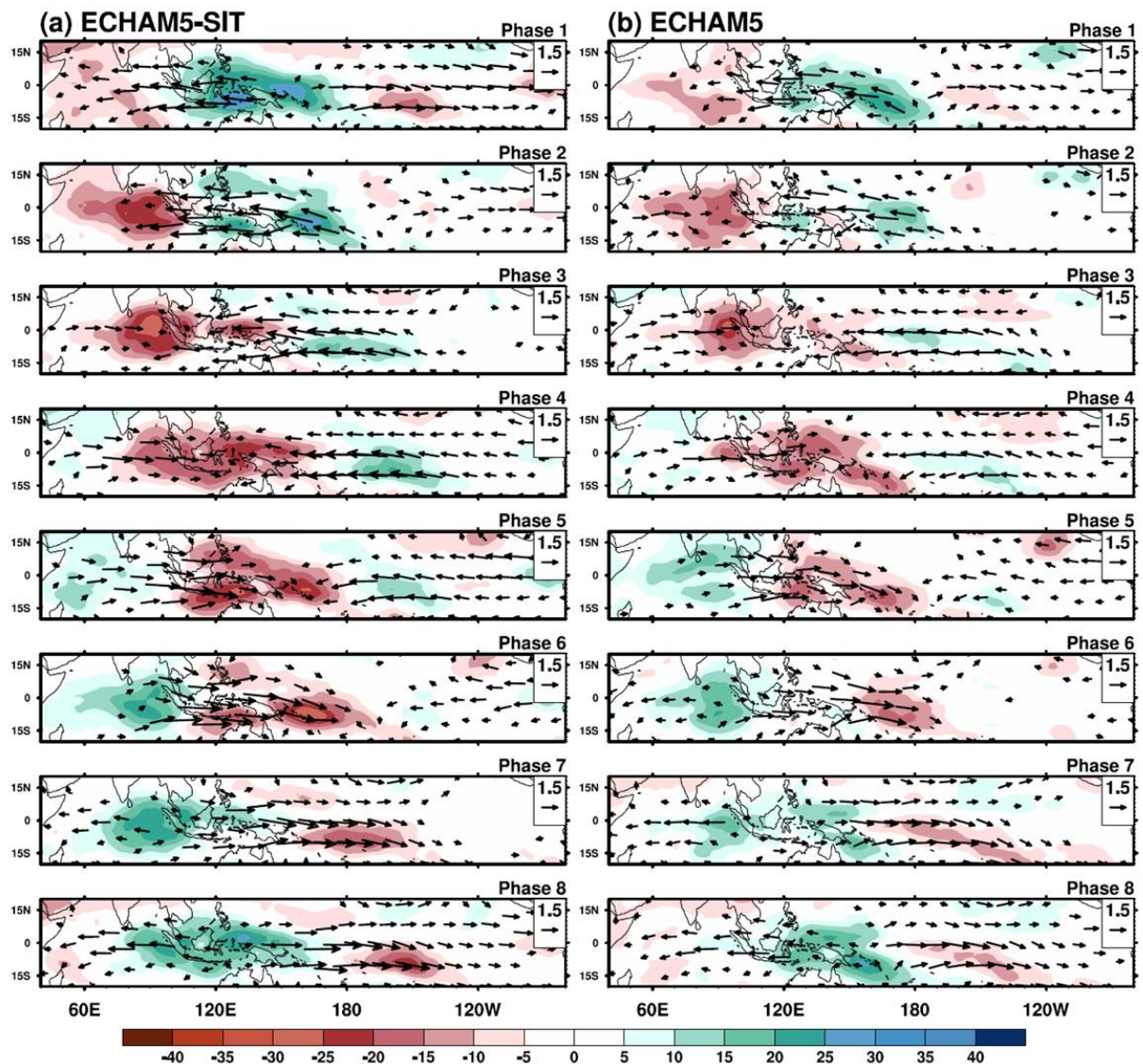
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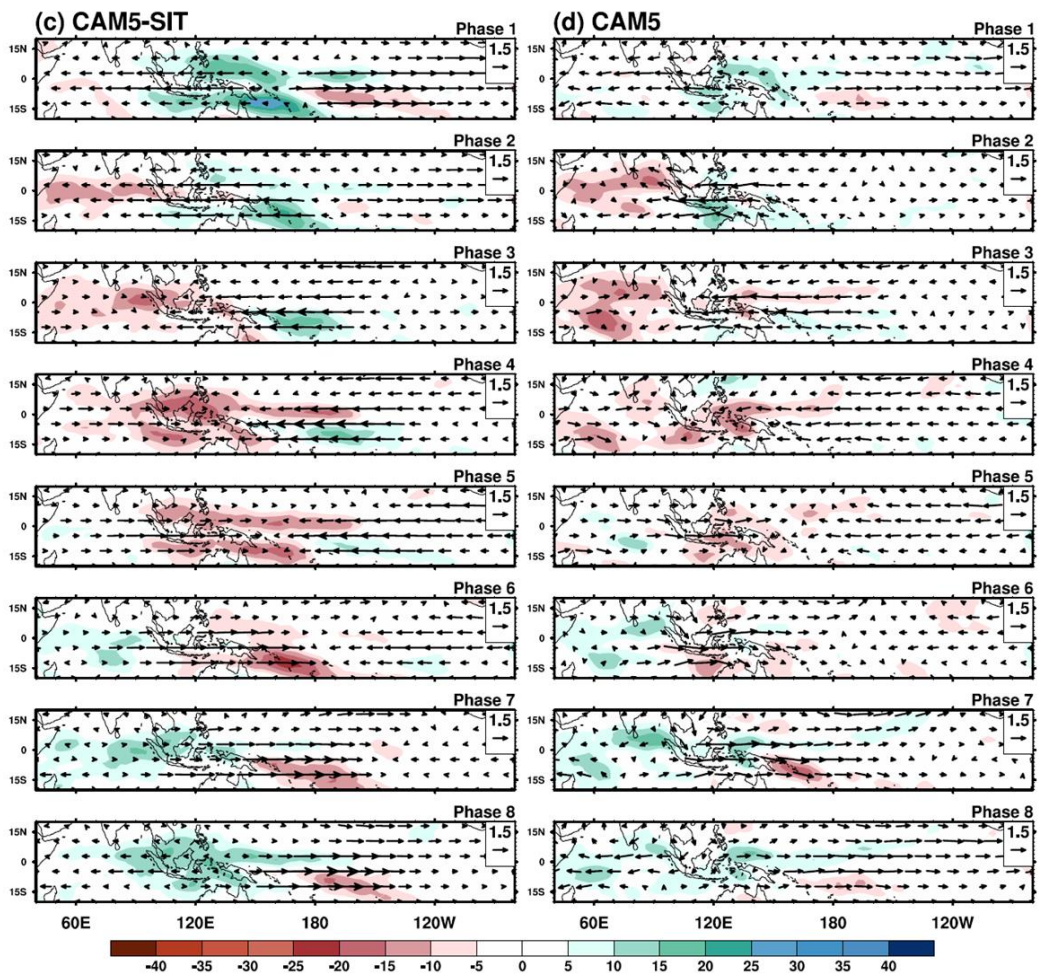
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675 **Figure 2.** 10°S – 10°N averaged lag–longitude diagrams of intraseasonal precipitation
 676 (shading) and 10-m zonal wind (contour) correlated against precipitation at region (10°S –
 677 5°N , 120°E – 150°E) from (a) observations and simulations using the (b–d) coupled and
 678 (e–g) uncoupled AGCM. The contour interval is 0.1.



679
 680 **Figure 3.** Composite November–April 20–100-day OLR ($W m^{-1}$; color) and 10-m surface
 681 wind anomalies ($m s^{-1}$; vectors) as a function of the MJO phase in (a) ECHAM5-SIT and
 682 (b) ECHAM5. Vectors $<0.6 m s^{-1}$ are not shown. The reference vector in units of $m s^{-1}$ is
 683 shown at the bottom right. The number of days used to generate the composite for each
 684 phase is shown to the right of each panel.

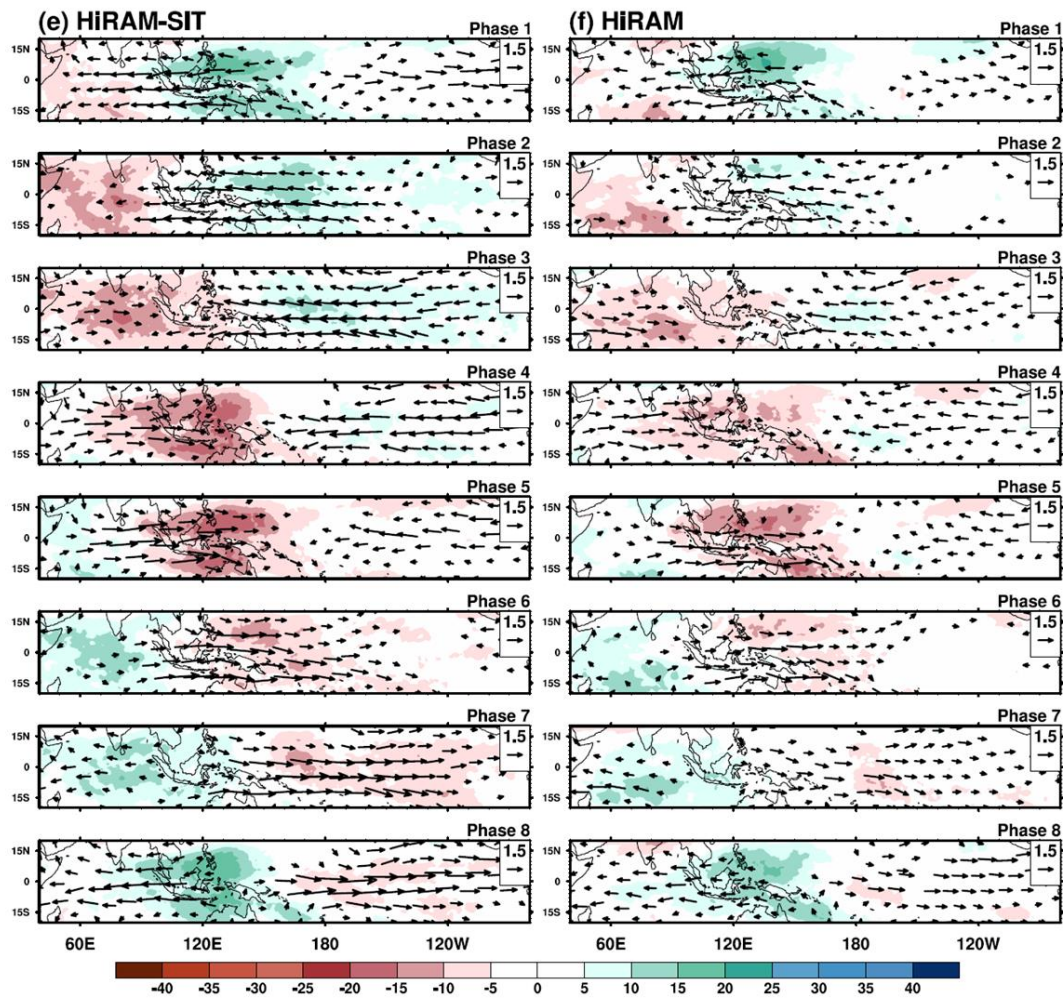
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687 **Figure 3.** continued, (c) CAM5-SIT and (d) CAM5.

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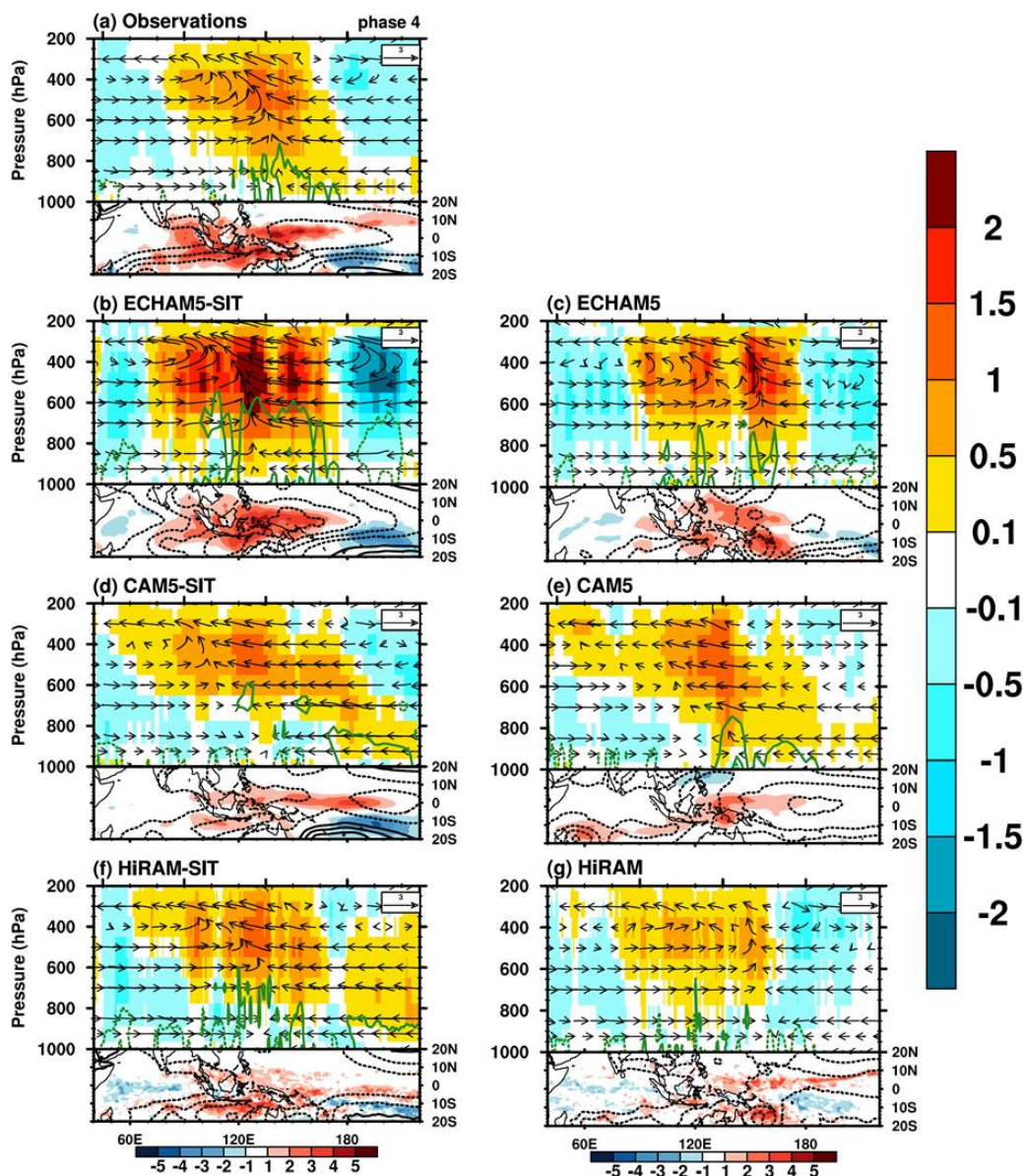


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690 **Figure 3.** continued, (e) HiRAM-SIT and (f) HiRAM.

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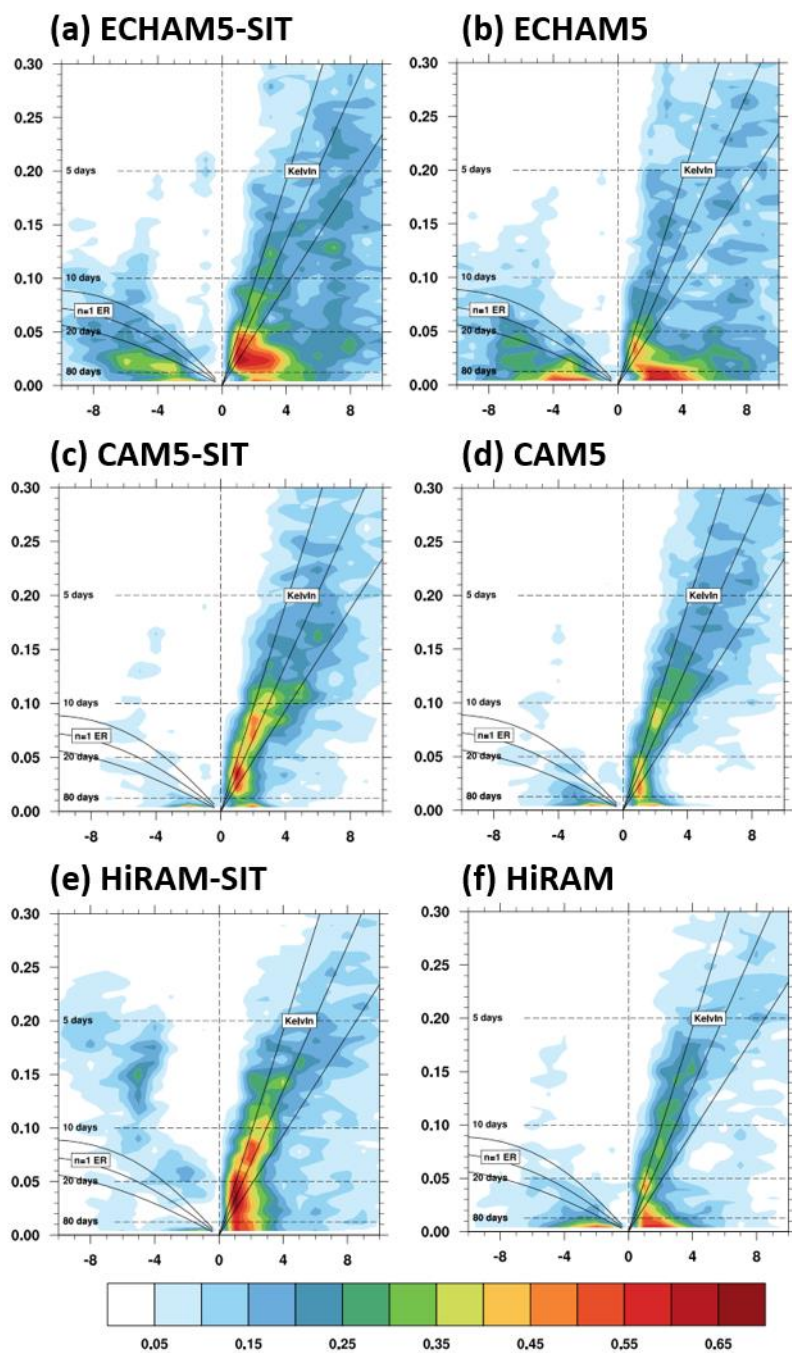
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693

694 **Figure 4.** Structure of simulated MJO in phase 4. The longitude–height cross-sections
 695 (averaged over 10°S–EQ) of the MJO scaled wind circulation (vector, u : m s^{-1} , ω :
 696 $10^{-2} \text{ Pa s}^{-1}$), Q1 (shading, unit: K day^{-1}), and the horizontal moisture convergence (green
 697 contour, unit: $10^{-6} \text{ g kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) from (a) observations and simulations using the (b–d)
 698 coupled and (e–g) uncoupled AGCMs. The contour interval of the moisture convergence
 699 is $8 \times 10^{-6} \text{ g kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$; solid line is positive. Precipitation (shading, unit: mm day^{-1}) and

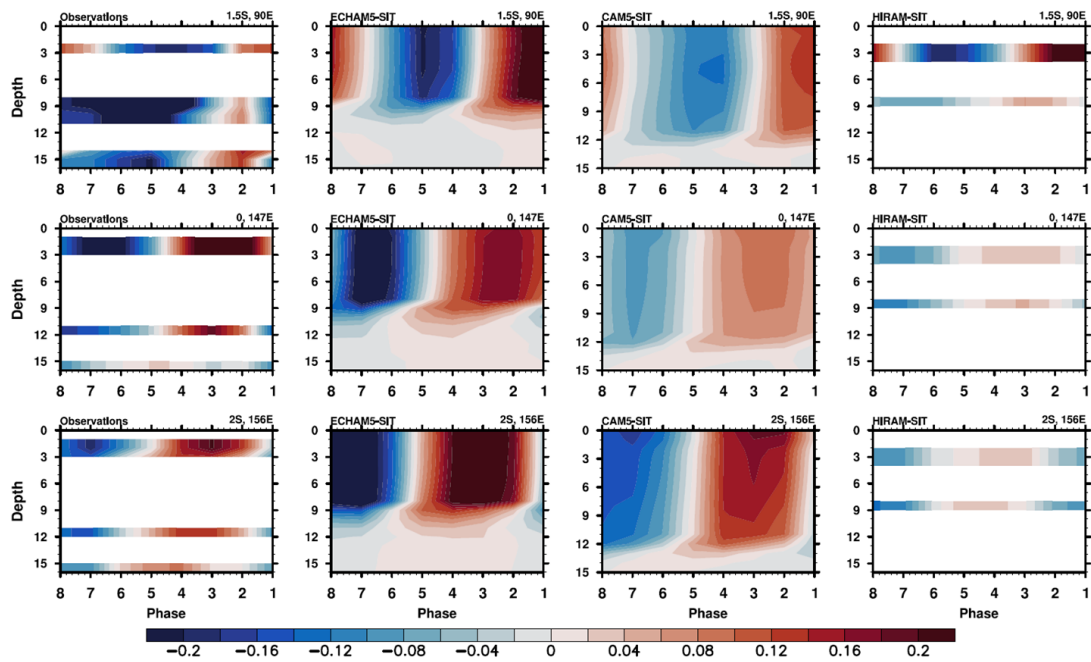
- 700 sea level pressure (contour, unit: hPa). Contour interval of sea level pressure is 30 hPa;
- 701 dashed line indicates negative.
- 702



703

704 **Figure 5.** Symmetric wavenumber–frequency spectra of 10°N–10°S-averaged 850-hPa705 zonal wind using the (a, c, e) coupled and (b, d, f) uncoupled AGCMs. Units: $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$.

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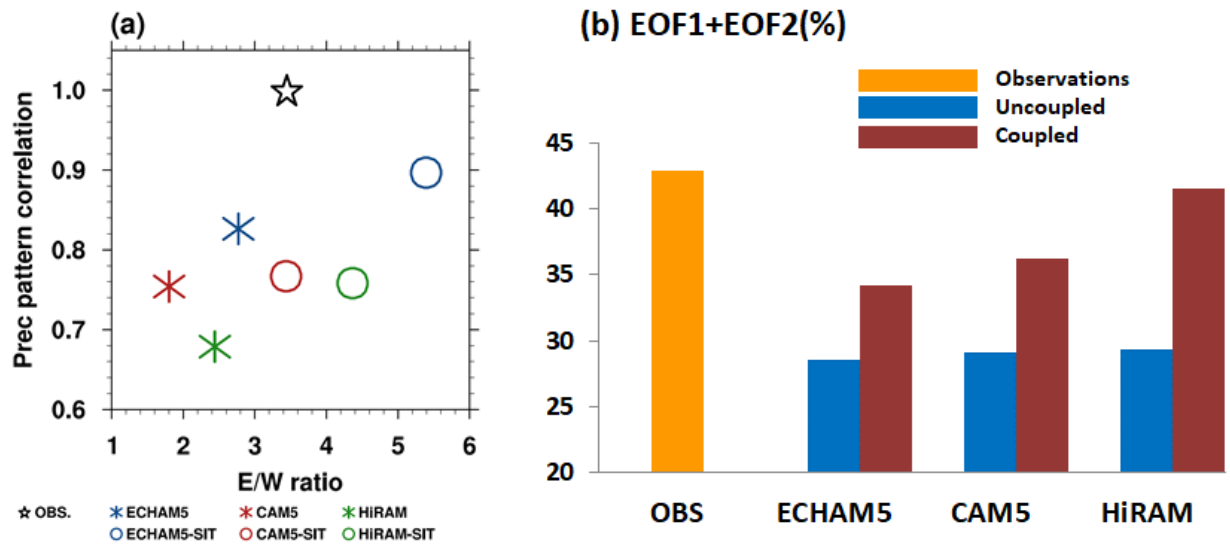
707

708 **Figure 6.** Vertical ocean temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) profiles with respect to MJO phases for
 709 intraseasonal anomalies (i.e., with 20–100-day filtering) in observations and simulations
 710 using coupled models. Observations are in suit with data from TAO. Because of storage
 711 limitations, only 3 and 10 m water temperatures are presented in the HiRAM-SIT
 712 simulation.

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716

717 **Figure 7.** Scatter plots of various MJO indices based on observation and experiments

718 (Table 1). (a) X-axis is the power ratio of east–west propagating waves. The east–west

719 ratio was calculated by dividing the sum eastward-propagating power by the westward-

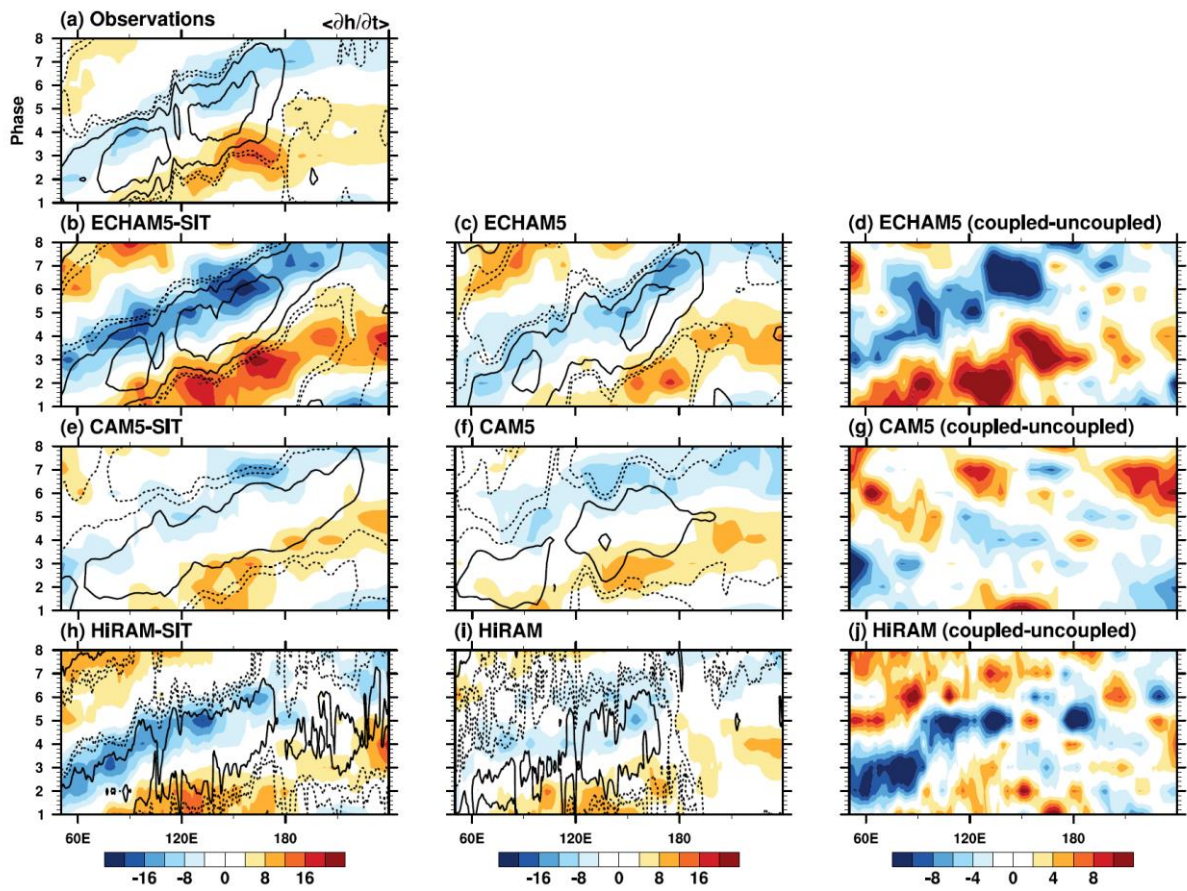
720 propagating counterpart within wavenumbers 1–3 (1–2 for zonal wind), period 30–80

721 days. Y-axis is the pattern correlation of precipitation eastward propagation, as shown in

722 Fig. 2. (b) Sum of RMM1 and RMM2 variances based on Wheeler and Hendon (2004).

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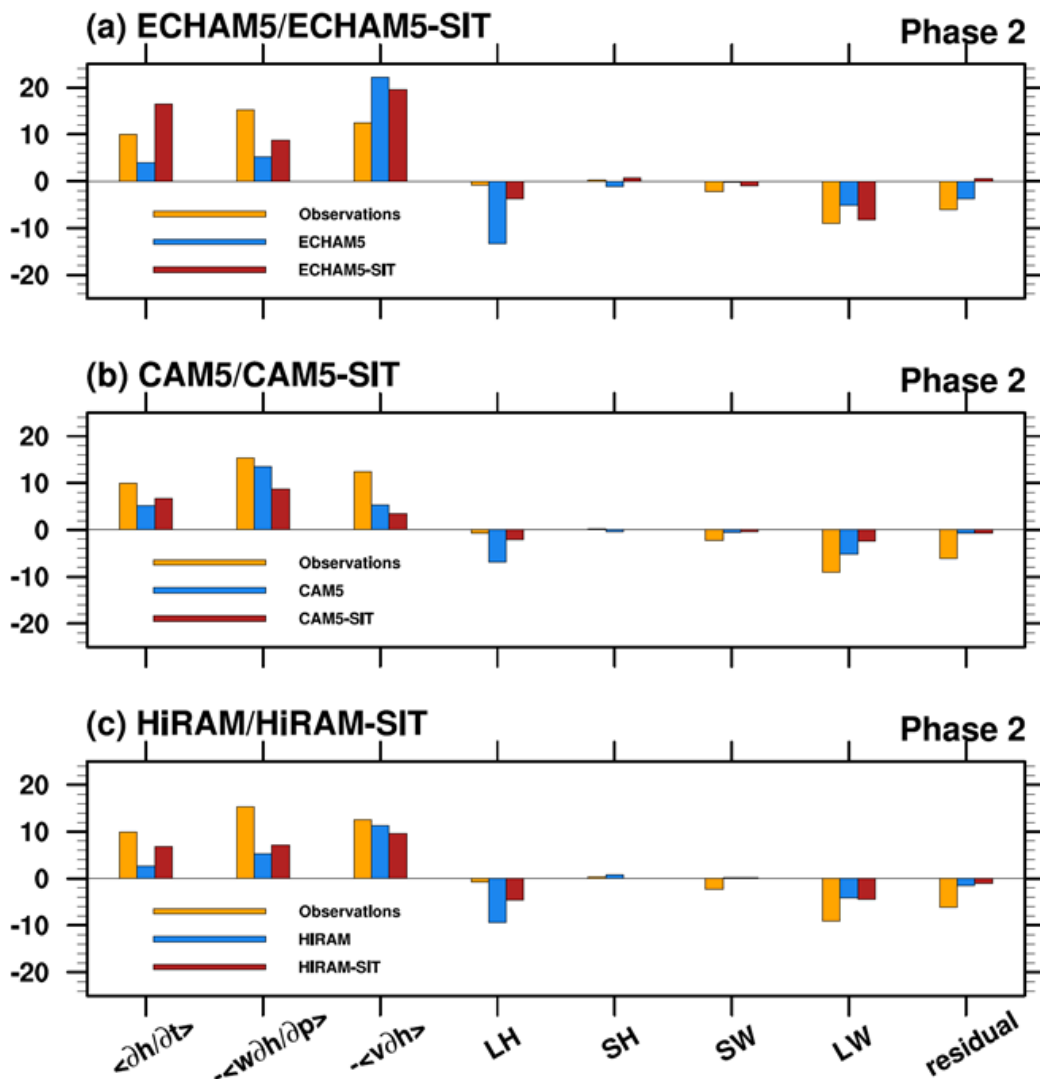
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725

726 **Figure 8.** 10°S–EQ averaged Hovmöller diagrams of MSE (shading; J kg^{-1}) and
 727 precipitation (contour; mm day^{-1}) composite followed the RMM index from (a)
 728 observations and simulations using the (b, e, j) coupled and (c, f, k) uncoupled AGCMs
 729 and (d, i, l) their difference. The contour interval is precipitation anomalies.

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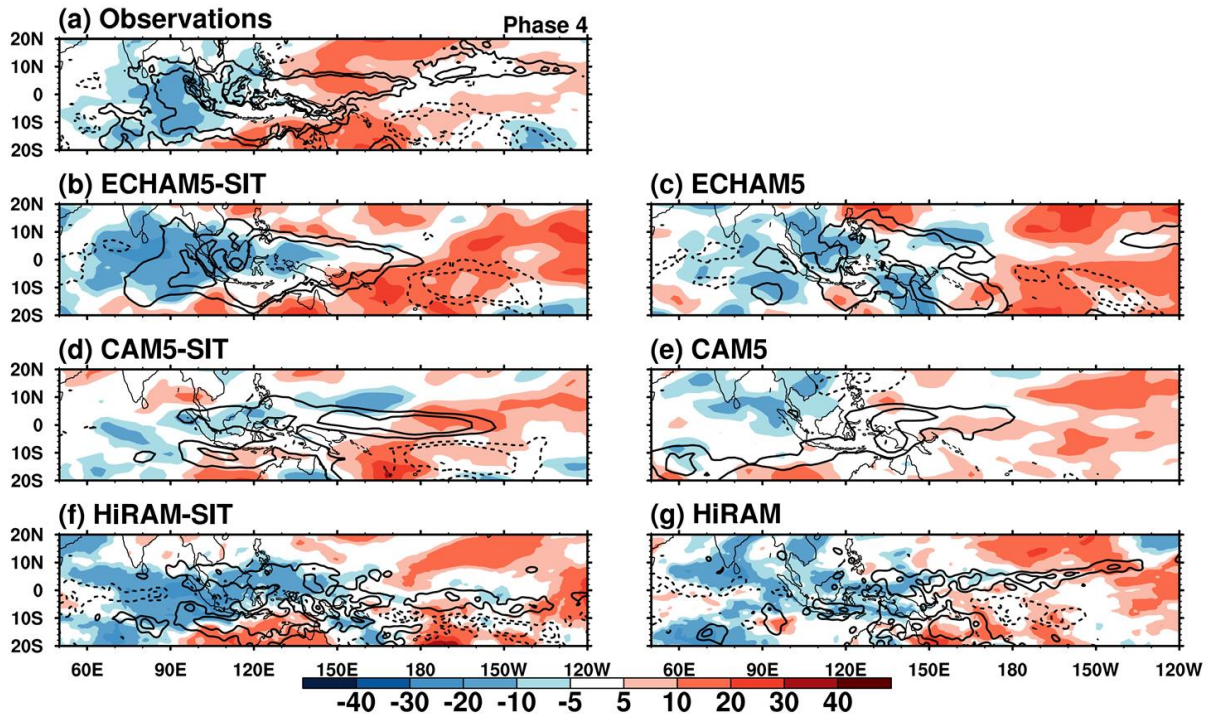
731

732 **Figure 9.** Model-simulated column-integrated MSE budget terms ($\text{J kg}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$) during
 733 phase 2 of the MJO. Black, red, and blue represents the data from the observations,
 734 Nordeng scheme simulation, and Tiedtke scheme simulation, respectively. The averaged
 735 domain is 10°S –EQ and 120° – 150°E .

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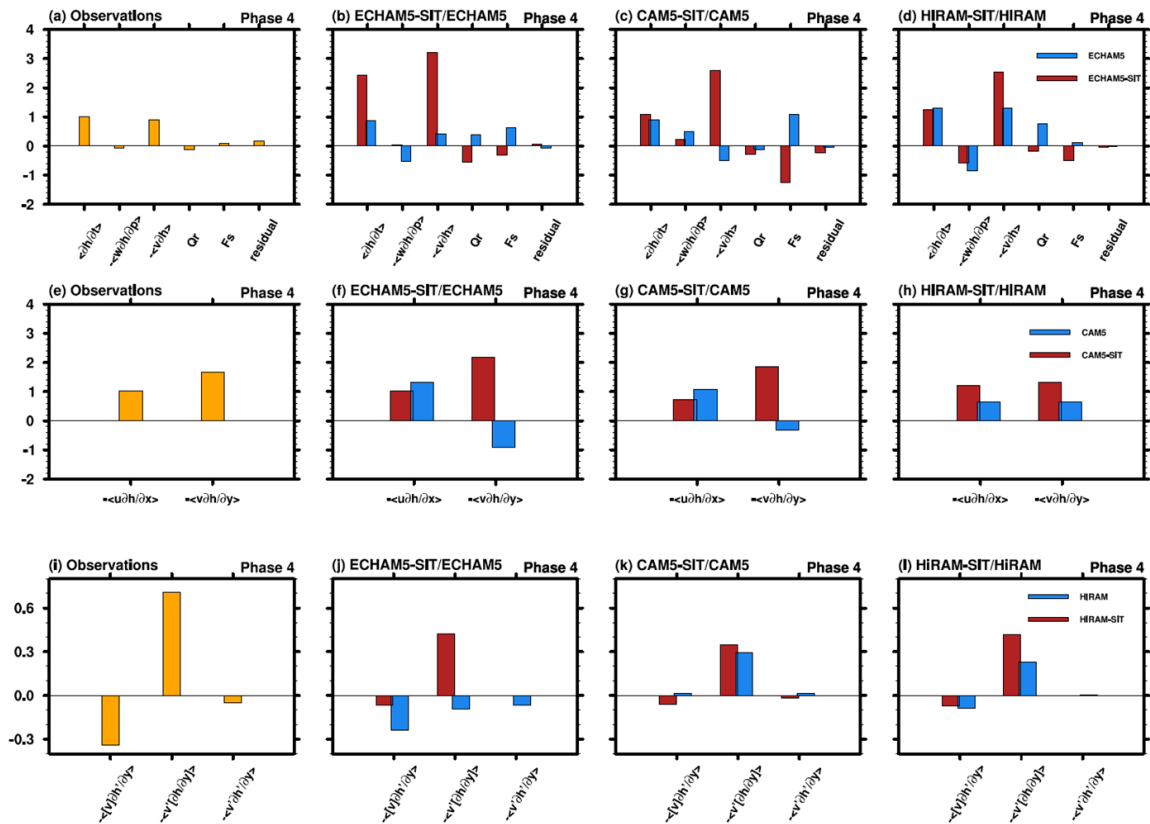
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740 **Figure 10.** Phase 4 of the column-integrated MSE tendency (shading; $\text{J kg}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$) and
 741 precipitation (contours; mm day^{-1}) based on (a) observation, (b) ECHAM5-SIT, (c)
 742 ECHAM5, (d) CAM5-SIT, (e) CAM5, (g) HiRAM-SIT, and (f) HiRAM. The nine-point
 743 local smoothing is applied in the intraseasonal precipitation variance of HiRAM here
 744 (contours only).

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749 **Figure 11.** (a–d) Relative role of each MSE component of phase 4 through the projection

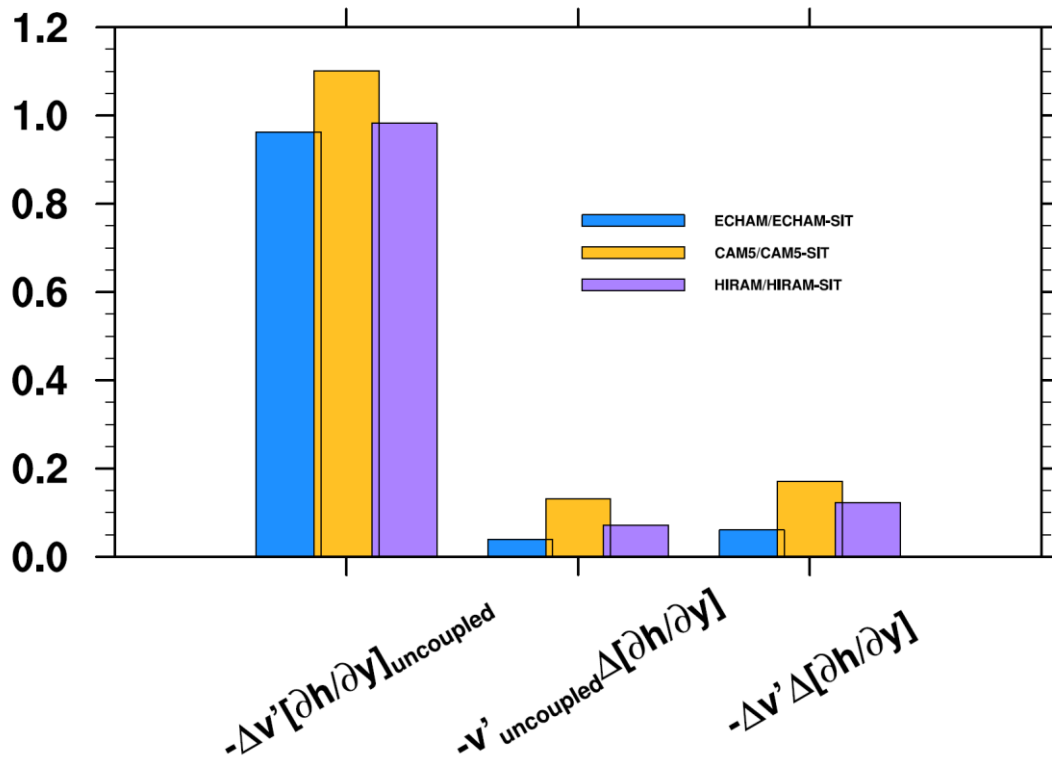
750 of the spatial pattern of each MSE budget over the MC (domain) onto the total MSE

751 tendency pattern (Fig. 8a). (e–h) Decomposite of the total horizontal MSE advection

752 based on zonal and meridional components. (i–l) Decomposite of the meridional

753 horizontal MSE advection based on the MJO circulation and the mean state of moisture.

754



755

756 **Figure 12.** Bar chart of relative contribution of intraseasonal convergence and

757 background moisture between the coupled and uncoupled changes in MJO phase 4.

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