Seasonal Forecasts of Category 4 and 5 Hurricanes and Landfalling Tropical Cyclones using a High-Resolution GFDL Coupled Climate Model

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Key Points:

1. The new global model successfully predicts intense hurricanes a few months in advance.

2. The new global model shows significant skill in predicting landfalling hurricanes.

3. The skillful forecasts are obtained mainly by the increase of horizontal resolution.

Abstract

1 2	Skillful seasonal forecasting of tropical cyclone (TC; wind speed $\geq 17.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) activity is
3	challenging, even more so when the focus is on the most intense hurricanes (Category 4–5;
4	wind speed \geq 58.1 m s ⁻¹) and landfalling TCs. Here we show that the 25-km mesh Geophysical
5	Fluid Dynamics (GFDL) high-resolution climate model (HiFLOR) has improved skill in
6	predicting the frequencies of Category 4–5 hurricanes in the North Atlantic and landfalling
7	TCs over the United States and Caribbean Islands a few months in advance, relative to a more
8	moderate resolution of 50-km mesh GFDL climate model (FLOR). HiFLOR also shows
9	significant skill in predicting Category 4–5 hurricanes in the western North Pacific and eastern
10	North Pacific, while both models show comparable skills in predicting basin-total TC
11	frequency and landfall TC frequency in the basins.
12	
13	Index Terms: 3372 Tropical cyclones, 1922 Forecasting, 3337 Global climate models
14	Key Words: Category 4 and 5 Hurricanes, Seasonal Forecasting, and High-Resolution Climate

15 Model

16 **1. Introduction**

Tropical cyclones (TCs) are one of the most costly natural disasters to affect coastal 17 regions all over the world [e.g., Pielke et al. 2008; Smith and Katz 2013]. In recent history, 18 19 about 85% of the total TC damage has been caused by intense hurricanes (Saffir-Simpson 20 Categories 3, 4, and 5), even though they make up a very small fraction of overall TCs [*Pielke* et al. 2008]. Furthermore, even though non-landfalling TCs can cause damage (e.g., to off-21 22 shore energy platforms and ships), landfalling TCs contribute substantially more to overall 23 TC damages than do non-landfalling TCs. Therefore, predicting intense hurricanes and 24 landfalling storms at seasonal time scales is a topic of large scientific and socio-economic interest [Vecchi and Villarini 2014]. Recent studies have reported that state-of-the-art 25 dynamical models successfully predicted basin-total frequency of tropical storms and 26 27 hurricanes a few months in advance [Zhao et al. 2010; Chen and Lin 2011, 2013; Vecchi et al. 2014]. Specifically, Chen and Lin [2011] reported a correlation coefficient of 0.96 between 28 observed and predicted year-by-year variation in hurricanes (i.e., storms with maximum wind 29 speed greater than 32.9 m s⁻¹); and *Vecchi et al.* [2014] reported skillful seasons in advance for 30 regional basin-wide TC activity across the Northern Hemisphere. However, prediction of 31 32 category 4 and 5 (C45) hurricanes and landfall storm frequency remains challenging [Vecchi and Villarini 2014; Camp et al. 2015; Murakami et al. 2016], although there are some 33 suggestive results with high-resolution models for U.S. landfalling frequency [Murakami et al. 34 35 2016]. Therefore, the limitations of dynamical forecasts have been alleviated using empirical 36 statistical-dynamical methods [e.g., Wang et al. 2009; Zhao et al. 2010; Vecchi et al. 2011, 2013, 2014; Villarini and Vecchi 2013; Murakami et al. 2016]. Murakami et al. [2015] 37 38 provided a preliminarily assessment of the predictability of C45 hurricanes in the new highresolution Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory (GFDL) coupled model (HiFLOR). They evaluated retrospective seasonal forecasts initialized on July 1st in 1997 and 1998. The predictions showed the observed sharp contrast in terms of global TC activity due to the extreme El Niño and La Niña events of 1997–98 and 1998–99, respectively. Although HiFLOR could predict the contrast in the C45 hurricanes for 1997 and 1998 summer seasons, the results reported there should not be interpreted as applying broadly to predictive skill for all years.

In this study, we conduct retrospective seasonal forecasts initialized on July, April, and 46 47 January between 1990 and 2015 to evaluate and quantify the skill HiFLOR has in predicting TC activity in the ocean basins of western North Pacific (WNP), eastern North Pacific (ENP), 48 49 and North Atlantic (NAT) (see fig. 3 in Murakami et al. [2015] for regional boundaries). We 50 especially focus on the prediction of intense hurricanes and regional TC frequency in NAT over the study period. We show for the first time that this high-resolution global atmosphere-51 52 ocean coupled model has significant skill in predicting the frequency of C45 hurricanes and 53 regional TC activity as well as that of basin-total TCs a few months in advance in NAT as well as other ocean basins. We further show that both the FLOR and HiFLOR models can exhibit 54 marginal skill at predictions of seasonal U.S. landfalling TC frequency. Section 2 provides a 55 56 description of the models, seasonal forecasts, and TC detection method along with observed dataset. Section 3 presents the results. Finally, a summary is given in Section 4. 57

58

59 2. Methods

60 a. Dynamical Models, Seasonal Forecasts, TC Detection Methods

61 The dynamical models used here are the Forecast-oriented Low Ocean Resolution of 62 GFDL Coupled Model version 2.5 (FLOR) [Vecchi et al. 2014] and the high-resolution version 63 of FLOR (HiFLOR) [Murakami et al. 2015]. The atmosphere and land components of FLOR 64 are taken from the Coupled Model version 2.5 (CM2.5) [Delworth et al. 2012] developed at 65 GFDL, whereas the ocean and sea ice components are based on the GFDL Coupled Model 66 version 2.1 (CM2.1) [Delworth et al. 2006; Wittenberg et al. 2006; Gnanadesikan et al. 2006]. FLOR comprises 50-km mesh atmosphere and land components, and 100-km mesh sea ice and 67 ocean components. HiFLOR was developed from FLOR by decreasing the horizontal grid 68 69 spacing of the atmospheric component to 25 km, while leaving most of the sub-grid physical parameterizations unchanged [Murakami et al. 2015]. HiFLOR yielded better simulations of 70 the observed El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO)-TC teleconnection in WNP, ENP, and 71 72 NAT than FLOR does [Murakami et al. 2015; Zhang et al. 2016].

73 For each year and each month in the period 1990-2015, 12-month duration 74 retrospective seasonal predictions were performed after initializing the model to the observed 75 conditions for ocean components [Murakami et al. 2016]. The 12-member initial conditions for ocean and sea ice components were taken from GFDL's ensemble coupled data 76 assimilation system using CM2.1 [Zhang and Rosati 2010; Chang et al. 2013], whereas those 77 78 for atmosphere and land components were built from a suite of sea surface temperature (SST)forced atmosphere-land-only simulations using the components for the FLOR predictions 79 80 [Vecchi et al. 2014], and in the HiFLOR predictions using an arbitral year from a control 81 climate simulation [Murakami et al. 2015]. Therefore, the predictability in these experiments comes entirely from the ocean and sea ice, and may be thought of as a lower bound on the 82 83 potential prediction skill of the model, because predictability could also arise from 84 atmospheric and land initialization [Jia et al. 2016]. HiFLOR has forecasts only from July, 85 April, and January at this moment, whereas FLOR has forecasts starting from every month. Therefore, we mainly focus on the forecasts from July, April, and January initial conditions for 86 87 the predictions of TC activity in the boreal summer season (i.e., July-November) for the comparisons between FLOR and HiFLOR. Forecasts from other initial months by FLOR will 88 be shown for the comparisons of prediction skill in large-scale parameters among FLOR, 89 CM2.1, and HiFLOR. We define forecasts from July (January) initial conditions as lead-month 90 0 or L0 (6 or L6) forecasts. Because North Indian Ocean has one of the two peaks of TC 91 activity before July, we only focus on prediction skill in the WNP, ENP, and NAT during July-92 November. 93

Model-generated TCs were detected following *Murakami et al.* [2015]. Briefly, the tracking scheme applies the flood fill algorithm to find closed contours of some specified negative sea level pressure (SLP) anomaly with a warm core (temperature anomaly higher than 1K for FLOR and 2K for HiFLOR). The detection scheme also requires that the TC lasts for 36 consecutive hours while maintaining a warm core as well as a specified wind speed criterion (15.75 m s⁻¹ for FLOR and 17.5 m s⁻¹ for HiFLOR).

100

101 *c. Observational datasets*

102 The observed TC "best-track" data were obtained from the National Hurricane Center 103 Best Track Database (HURDAT2) [*Landsea and Franklin* 2013] and Joint Typhoon Warning 104 Center (JTWC) as archived in the International Best Track Archive for Climate Stewardship 105 (IBTrACS v03r06) [*Knapp et al.* 2010] and used to evaluate the TC simulations in the 106 retrospective seasonal predictions. Because the best-track data were not available for 2015 107 when this study started, we obtained observed global TC dataset compiled on the Unisys Corporation website [Unisys 2016]. We only used TCs with tropical storm intensities or 108 stronger (i.e., TCs possessing 1-min sustained surface winds of 17.5 m s⁻¹ or greater) during 109 110 the period 1990–2015. We also removed TC tracks that reportedly transformed to extratropical cyclones (i.e., TC tracks after the time of its extra-tropical transition were removed). 111 112 In this study, storms are categorized into three groups according to their lifetime maximum intensity: Tropical Cyclones (TC; >17.5 m s⁻¹); Hurricanes (HUR; >32.9 m s⁻¹); and Category 113 4 and 5 hurricanes (C45; >58.1 m s⁻¹). Note that although a hurricane is called "typhoon" in 114 WNP, we describe hurricanes in WNP to represent typhoon in this study for convenience. 115

116 In order to address differences in forecast skill in NAT between FLOR and HiFLOR, 117 we compared prediction skill in four key large-scale parameters relative to observations. The four parameters are geopotential height at 500 hPa over the subtropical ENP (Φ_{500} ; 20°–40°N, 118 130°-170°W), vertical wind shear over the tropical NAT (Wshear; 10°-20°N, 30°-90°W), SST 119 anomaly over the tropical NAT (SST; 0-20°N, 10°-70°W), and relative humidity at 600 hPa 120 over the tropical NAT (RH₆₀₀; 10°-20°N, 10°-90°W). Murakami et al. [2016] discussed the 121 reason why Φ_{500} over the subtropical ENP shows a high correlation with TC frequency in 122 NAT. When the anomaly of Φ_{500} is positive in the subtropical ENP, geopotential height is 123 124 negative in the subtropical NAT (30-50°N, 55-75°W) through a series of wave trains along 125 the subtropical westerly jet through the so-called Pacific/North American (PNA) pattern. We 126 use the UK Met Office Hadley Centre SST product (HadISST1.1) [Rayner et al. 2003] and the 127 Japanese 55-year Reanalysis (JRA-55) [Kobayashi et al. 2015] for the period 1990-2015 as observed SST and atmospheric large-scale parameters, respectively. 128

130 *d. Metrics for Evaluation of Forecast Skill*

In this study, we used three metrics in order to evaluate prediction skill for interannual variation of TC activity relative to observed values: rank correlation coefficient, normalized root-mean-square error (NRMSE), and mean square skill score (MSSS) [*Kim et al.* 2012; *Li et al.* 2013]. NRMSE is defined as:

135
$$NRMSE = \frac{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(f_i^{obs} - f_i)^2}}{\sigma^{obs}},$$
 (1)

where *n* is the total number of years, f_i^{obs} and f_i are the values from observations and prediction for the *i*th year, respectively, and σ^{obs} is the observational standard deviation. RMSE is normalized by the observed standard deviation because we want to compare variables in different units. MSSS is defined with the following equation:

140
$$MSSS = 1 - \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (f_i^{obs} - f_i)^2}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (f_i^{obs} - f^{obs})^2},$$
 (2)

where f^{obs} is the observational mean value. The MSSS is a metric that compares the skill of
the model against climatological forecasts, with high values indicating a good predictive skill
[*Kim et al.* 2012; *Li et al.* 2013].

144

145 **3. Results**

146 *a. Retrospective forecast of basin-total TC activity*

We first compare the retrospective forecast skill in basin-wide seasonal TC activity between FLOR and HiFLOR (Fig. 1) using scatterplots of rank correlation for interannual variation of seasonal mean value between observations and FLOR versus HiFLOR (see Supplemental Information Table S1 for more details). Here we compare basin-total frequencies of TCs, HURs, and C45s in addition to the basin-total values of accumulated 152 cyclone energy (ACE) and power dissipation index (PDI). Note that we only show the values 153 of the correlation coefficient for C45 for HiFLOR only because FLOR cannot simulate C45 154 hurricanes due to its low resolution. As expected, the shortest lead-month forecasts (L0) yield 155 higher correlations than the longer lead months (L3 or L6) for most of the variables. In addition, both models show higher correlations in NAT than in the other two ocean basins. 156 157 Most of the metrics forecasted from July initial conditions are statistically significant at more than 90% level for both HiFLOR and FLOR, and some of them are even significant for the 158 forecasts initialized in April (Supporting Information Table S1). Overall, HiFLOR shows skill 159 160 comparable to FLOR in both the WNP and ENP. On the other hand, compared to FLOR, HiFLOR shows higher correlations with observations in NAT than FLOR for most of 161 162 variables. We also compared the NRMSE (Supporting Information Figure S1 and Table S2) 163 and MSSS (Supporting Information Figure S2 and Table S3) [Kim et al. 2012; Li et al. 2013], resulting in the same conclusions as in the rank correlation. 164

Figure 2 shows time-series of the frequency of TCs, HUR, and C45 in NAT from the 165 166 observations and HiFLOR/FLOR forecasts. Both models achieved high correlation coefficients (0.69-0.75) between observed and simulations initialized from July (i.e., L0) for 167 NAT TCs and hurricanes. This skill is comparable to previous studies in which equivalent or 168 169 higher correlations have been already reported using a dynamical model for the basin-total 170 frequency of TCs and hurricanes [e.g., Chen and Lin 2011]. On the other hand, HiFLOR 171 vielded a high correlation coefficient value of 0.71 for C45 hurricanes in NAT. HiFLOR also yielded statistically significant correlations for C45 hurricanes even for lead-month 3 and 6 172 forecasts in NAT, highlighting that skillful forecasts of C45 hurricanes are feasible at least two 173 174 seasons in advance (Supporting Information Table S1). Supporting Information Figure S3 175 shows the interannual variation of observed and predicted Accumulated Cyclone Energy 176 (ACE) and Power Dissipation Index (PDI) in NAT. HiFLOR exhibits high correlation coefficients of 0.82 and 0.80 for ACE and PDI, respectively. This indicates that the GFDL 177 178 dynamical model has significant skill predicting basin-total TC activity in NAT. In general, HiFLOR shows comparable skill for most of metrics relative to FLOR in WNP and ENP, 179 although it depends on metrics. Specifically, for WNP, HiFLOR shows higher skill in 180 predicting TCs and ACE for July initial forecasts than FLOR. For ENP, HiFLOR shows higher 181 skill in predicting TCs for all initial forecast. Moreover, HiFLOR shows statistically 182 significant correlations with observations for C45 hurricanes in both WNP and ENP for the 183 184 lead-month 0 prediction. These results highlight practical use of HiFLOR to predict the most 185 intense hurricanes of C45.

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187 b. Retrospective forecast of regional TC activity

188 Predictions of regional TC activity are also investigated (Fig. 3). Both FLOR and HiFLOR show significant skill in predicting TCs over the tropical NAT and central Pacific 189 (Figs. 3a,b), indicating potential predictability for landfalling TCs over the Caribbean Islands, 190 the coastal Gulf of Mexico, and Hawaiian Islands. For hurricanes (Figs. 3c,d), both models 191 192 show significant skill for the abovementioned regions, although the regions showing skillful 193 predictions are smaller than the prediction for TCs. In addition, HiFLOR shows skill in predicting TC and hurricane frequency of occurrence over the coastline of the Bay of Bengal, 194 Japan, Guam, Hawaiian Islands, and the eastern coast of the United States. Moreover, 195 HiFLOR shows some skill in predicting C45 hurricanes in the Caribbean Sea, tropical central 196 197 Atlantic, tropical eastern Pacific, and western Pacific, whereas FLOR cannot simulate/predict C45 hurricanes due to the low horizontal resolution. These results highlight potential use of
HiFLOR (or FLOR) to predict regional TC activity, especially for intense TC activity, before
the summer season.

201 Figure 4 shows observed and predicted landfall TCs on the United States, Caribbean 202 Islands, and Hawaiian Islands for HiFLOR and FLOR. Here, we define landfall TCs as those 203 storms propagating within a 300 km buffer zone from the coastline (see blue domains in 204 Fig.4). We investigated the dependence of the skill scores on the width of the buffer zone, and 205 found only a small variation over the range (0-500 km) even though the skill is the highest for 206 300 km buffer. Both models show marked skill in predicting landfall TCs for these regions (correlation coefficient of 0.3–0.7, see Fig.1 and Supporting Information Table S1) for lead-207 208 month 0 prediction. Even for the lead-month 3 predictions, HiFLOR shows skill (statistically 209 significant correlations of 0.5–0.6) in predicting landfall TCs over these regions (Fig. 1 and 210 Supporting Information Table S1). Generally, HiFLOR shows higher skill than FLOR in 211 predicting TC activity for these landfall regions (Fig.1, Supporting Information Figures S1 and 212 S2). Overall, these results are very encouraging and provide empirical evidence to support the 213 use of dynamical models for prediction of regional TC activity as well as basin-total TC 214 activity.

215

216 *c. Retrospective forecast of large-scale parameters*

Jia et al. [2015] and *Murakami et al.* [2015] reported through multi-decadal SSTforcing experiments that the high-resolution model improves the simulation of large-scale parameters relative to the low-resolution model, leading to improved predictions of TC activity in the high-resolution model. As shown in Fig. 1c, HiFLOR yields higher skill than FLOR in predicting various NAT TC metrics, although the predictability of TC activity in WNP and ENP are comparable between the models. To examine whether the higher skill in NAT by HiFLOR is obtained by the higher skill in predicting large-scale parameters, we compare the forecast skill in FLOR and HiFLOR in predicting large-scale parameters. Here we consider four parameters (see Section 2c), which appear to be highly correlated to the observed TC frequency for NAT (correlation map and selected domain are shown in Supporting Information Figure S4).

Figure 5a compares the correlation coefficients between the observed and predicted 228 229 large-scale parameters in the key domains by FLOR (x axis), and between observed and 230 predicted by HiFLOR (y axis). Most of points are located around the diagonal line, indicating 231 similar skill between HiFLOR and FLOR. Similar results are obtained using NRMSE (Fig. 5b) 232 and MSSS (Fig. 5c). In contrast to the previous studies of SST forcing experiments by Jia et 233 al. [2015] and Murakami et al. [2015], these results indicate that the improvements in prediction of TC activity in NAT by HiFLOR relative to FLOR is not directly related to the 234 235 improvements in prediction of the large-scale parameters. We hypothesize that the difference 236 in prediction skill in TC activity in NAT between HIFLOR and FLOR may be due to the difference in the simulation of TCs themselves and the response of TC climatology to the 237 238 same large-scale conditions. On the other hand, we also compare the prediction skill between 239 FLOR and CM2.1 (Fig. 5, panels d-f). FLOR shows higher skill in predicting most of the 240 large-scale parameters than CM2.1 (especially with respect to NRMSE and MSSS). The 241 difference between CM2.1 and FLOR is mainly the horizontal resolution in the atmospheric 242 component (i.e., CM2.1: 250 km, FLOR: 60 km). It is not clear why HiFLOR has comparable 243 skill in simulating large-scale parameters to FLOR, whereas FLOR has better skill than CM2.1

in simulating large-scale parameters although the model differences are mainly horizontal
resolution in atmospheric component for those cases. Further study is needed to address this
question.

247

248 **4. Summary**

In this study, we have evaluated the retrospective seasonal forecasts of TC activity 249 during the boreal summer (July-November) for the period 1990-2015 by the GFDL high-250 resolution coupled climate model (HiFLOR) and compared this to skill in the moderate 251 252 resolution version of FLOR. HiFLOR yielded comparable or higher skill to FLOR in 253 predicting TC activity in NAT and comparable skill in WNP and ENP. Both models show high correlation coefficients (0.69-0.75) between observed and simulated TC activity initialized 254 255 from July (i.e., lead-month 0) in ENP and NAT. Moreover, HiFLOR obtained a high 256 correlation coefficient of 0.71 for C45 hurricanes: this is the first time that a dynamical model shows such a high correlation for the extremely intense hurricanes through seasonal forecasts. 257 258 Even the lead-month 3 and 6 forecasts show statistically significant skill in predicting C45 hurricanes in NAT. HiFLOR also showed high correlation coefficients (0.82 and 0.80) in 259 260 predicting ACE and PDI in NAT. These encouraging results indicate that the GFDL's dynamical model has significant skill in forecasting basin-total TC activity a few months in 261 advance. The forecast skill in predicting key large-scale parameters for TC genesis in NAT 262 263 using FLOR and HiFLOR is compared. The results show comparable skill between them, 264 suggesting that the improved skill of predicting TC activity in NAT by HiFLOR relative to 265 FLOR are not obtained by improving the large-scale parameters.

266 We also examined the predictability of regional TC activity. HiFLOR and FLOR show 267 significant skill in predicting TCs over the tropical NAT and the central Pacific. Both models show marked skill in predicting landfall TCs for the U.S. coastal regions, Caribbean and 268 269 Hawaiian Islands (correlation coefficients of 0.3–0.7 for July initialized forecasts). Moreover, 270 HiFLOR shows some skill in predicting C45 hurricanes in the Caribbean Sea, tropical eastern 271 Pacific and western Pacific, while FLOR cannot simulate/predict C45 hurricanes due to the 272 low horizontal resolution. These results highlight potential use of HiFLOR to predict regional 273 TC activity, especially high intensity storms, before the onset of the summer season.

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 atmospheric model assuming persistence of SST anomalies. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, 138, 3858–
 361 3868.
- 362

363 List of Figures

- 364 FIG. 1 Scatterplot of rank correlation coefficient between HiFLOR prediction and
- observations (y axis) vs FLOR prediction and observations (x axis) for (a) WNP, (b) ENP, and
- 366 (c) NAT. Variables evaluated are basin-total frequency of TCs (TC), Hurricanes (HUR),
- 367 categories 4 and 5 hurricanes (C45), basin-total values of accumulated cyclone energy (ACE),
- 368 power dissipation index (PDI), the regional TC frequency for the United States (US),
- 369 Caribbean Islands (CAR) and Hawaiian Islands (HI). Different colors indicate different lead
- 370 months (L0, L3, and L6). Because FLOR cannot predict C45 hurricanes, C45 plots for
- 371 HiFLOR are located along the *y*-axis for convenience. A correlation coefficient above the
- 372 diagonal lines indicates that HiFLOR shows higher correlation than FLOR.

- FIG. 2 Retrospective forecasts of (a) basin-total TC frequency, (b) Hurricane frequency, and
- 375 (c) C45 frequency in the NAT during the peak season of July–November for the period 1990–
- 376 2015 for the retrospective forecasts initialized in July using HiFLOR. (d)–(f) As in (a)–(c), but

for the retrospective forecasts using FLOR. The black lines refer to the observed quantities,
the green lines to the mean forecast value, and shading indicates the confidence intervals
computed by convolving inter-ensemble spread based on the Poisson distribution. The black
dot indicates the forecast value from each ensemble member. The values of "R.Cor" and
"RMSE" in each panel indicate the rank correlation coefficient and root-mean-square error
between the black and green lines, respectively.

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384 FIG. 3 Retrospective forecast skill of TC frequency of occurrence during July–November for

the period 1990–2015 initialized in July. Shading indicates the retrospective rank correlation

of predicted versus observed TC frequency of occurrence ($1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ grid box), masked at a two-

sided p=0.1 level. Results are shown for (top) TCs, (middle) HUR, and (bottom) C45, for (left)

HiFLOR and (right) FLOR. Note that the results for C45 for FLOR are not shown due to its

inability to simulate C45. Gray shading in all panels indicates that observed TC density is

nonzero for at least 25% of years (i.e., 6 years).

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FIG. 4 As in Fig. 2, but for landfalling TC frequency for U.S. (a, b), Caribbean Islands (c, d),

and Hawaiian Islands (e, f). The panels to the left (right) refer to HiFLOR (FLOR).

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FIG. 5 (a) Scatterplot of correlation coefficient between HiFLOR prediction and observations

(y axis) vs FLOR prediction and observations (x axis). A correlation coefficient above the

397 diagonal lines indicates that HiFLOR shows higher correlations than FLOR. (b), (c) As in (a),

398 but for NRMSE and MSSS, respectively. A NRMSE (MSSS) below (above) the diagonal lines

indicates that HiFLOR shows higher skill than FLOR. Variables evaluated are geopotential

- 400 height at 500 hPa in the subtropical ENP (Φ_{500}), vertical wind shear in the tropical NAT
- 401 (W_{shear}), SST anomaly over the tropical NAT (SST), and relative humidity at 600 hPa over the
- 402 tropical NAT (*RH*₆₀₀). Different colors indicate different lead months. (d–f) As in (a–c), but for
- 403 comparisons between FLOR (*y* axis) and CM2.1 (*x* axis).



426	FIG. 1 Scatterplot of rank correlation coefficient between HiFLOR prediction and
427	observations (y axis) vs FLOR prediction and observations (x axis) for (a) WNP, (b) ENP, and
428	(c) NAT. Variables evaluated are basin-total frequency of TCs (TC), Hurricanes (HUR),
429	categories 4 and 5 hurricanes (C45), basin-total values of accumulated cyclone energy (ACE),
430	power dissipation index (PDI), the regional TC frequency for the United States (US),
431	Caribbean Islands (CAR) and Hawaiian Islands (HI). Different colors indicate different lead
432	months (L0, L3, and L6). Because FLOR cannot predict C45 hurricanes, C45 plots for
433	HiFLOR are located along the y-axis for convenience. A correlation coefficient above the
434	diagonal lines indicates that HiFLOR shows higher correlation than FLOR.
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FIG. 2 Retrospective forecasts of (a) basin-total TC frequency, (b) Hurricane frequency, and 401 402 (c) C45 frequency in the NAT during the peak season of July-November for the period 1990-2015 for the retrospective forecasts initialized in July using HiFLOR. (d)-(f) As in (a)-(c), but 403 for the retrospective forecasts using FLOR. The black lines refer to the observed quantities, 404 405 the green lines to the mean forecast value, and shading indicates the confidence intervals 406 computed by convolving inter-ensemble spread based on the Poisson distribution. The black dot indicates the forecast value from each ensemble member. The values of "R.Cor" and 407 "RMSE" in each panel indicate the rank correlation coefficient and root-mean-square error 408 between the black and green lines, respectively. 479



FIG. 3 Retrospective forecast skill of TC frequency of occurrence during July–November for the period 1990–2015 initialized in July. Shading indicates the retrospective rank correlation of predicted versus observed TC frequency of occurrence (1°×1° grid box), masked at a twosided p=0.1 level. Results are shown for (top) TCs, (middle) HUR, and (bottom) C45, for (left) HiFLOR and (right) FLOR. Note that the results for C45 for FLOR are not shown due to its inability to simulate C45. Gray shading in all panels indicates that observed TC density is nonzero for at least 25% of years (i.e., 6 years).



FIG. 4 As in Fig. 2, but for landfalling TC frequency for U.S. (a, b), Caribbean Islands (c, d),
and Hawaiian Islands (e, f). The panels to the left (right) refer to HiFLOR (FLOR).



541 FIG. 5 (a) Scatterplot of correlation coefficient between HiFLOR prediction and observations (y axis) vs FLOR prediction and observations (x axis). A correlation coefficient above the 542 diagonal lines indicates that HiFLOR shows higher correlations than FLOR. (b), (c) As in (a), 543 544 but for NRMSE and MSSS, respectively. A NRMSE (MSSS) below (above) the diagonal lines 545 indicates that HiFLOR shows higher skill than FLOR. Variables evaluated are geopotential height at 500 hPa in the subtropical ENP (Φ_{500}), vertical wind shear in the tropical NAT 546 (W_{shear}) , SST anomaly over the tropical NAT (SST), and relative humidity at 600 hPa over the 547 548 tropical NAT (RH₆₀₀). Different colors indicate different lead months. (d-f) As in (a-c), but for

549 comparisons between FLOR (*y* axis) and CM2.1 (*x* axis).