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Westward-Propagating Disturbances Shape Diverse MJO Propagation

Special Section:

Years of the Maritime Continent

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Key Points:

- Dual combinations of strong/weak westward- and eastward-propagating disturbances shape Madden–Julian Oscillation (MJO) diversity
- Westward-propagating disturbances control the formation of stand and jump MJOs and distinguish fast and slow MJOs
- Eastward-propagating disturbances primarily help MJO cross the Maritime Continent barrier

Supporting Information:

Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

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Abstract Understanding eastward-propagating mechanisms of the Madden–Julian Oscillation (MJO) is of great importance for the subseasonal prediction of extreme weather and climate worldwide. Using global satellite observations and reanalysis data, this study unravels that dual combinations of strong/weak westward- (ISOW) and eastward-propagating intraseasonal oscillation (ISOe) can shape diverse MJO propagations documented previously using clustering analysis. The dry ISOW signals from the Central Pacific strengthen the leading suppressed convection over the Western Pacific (WP) and, on the contrary, weaken the moist ISOe convection over the Maritime Continent. Thus, when ISOe is weak over the WP, the strong (weak) dryness of ISOW likely causes a jump-like (stand-like) MJO mode. In contrast, a propagating MJO is supported when ISOe becomes strong over the WP, and a further strengthening of the ISOW dryness will presumably accelerate MJO; moreover, a weakening of ISOW might slow down the MJO speed.

Plain Language Summary Owing to the eastward propagation of the Madden–Julian Oscillation (MJO), tropical winds and precipitation usually oscillate in a broad life cycle of 20–100 days. The subseasonal (longer than 2 weeks but shorter than one season) prediction of extreme events, such as tropical cyclones, droughts, and heat waves, relies closely on an adequate understanding of the propagation mechanisms of MJO. Recently, clustering analysis has revealed four MJO propagation patterns, including stand, jump, slow, and fast modes. However, the underlying mechanisms of the origin of MJO propagation diversity are still elusive. Herein, we offer a novel explanation from the perspective of atmospheric westward-propagation disturbances (WPDs). These WPDs, which first appeared over the Central Pacific, can cause stand- and jump-like MJO modes when the eastward-propagating 20–100-day dry signals are weak over the Western Pacific. Otherwise, fast and slow MJO modes will be supported when the WPDs are further strengthened and weakened, respectively. These results highlight that the WPDs and their triggering place, that is, the Central Pacific, might serve as key ingredients for better understanding the MJO dynamics and predictability.

1. Introduction

The Madden–Julian Oscillation (MJO) is the dominant mode of tropical intraseasonal variability with a broad time scale of 20–100 days (Zhang, 2005). Besides affecting local winds and precipitation, MJO can also greatly influence remote weather and climate through tropical–extratropical teleconnections (Stan et al., 2017; Zhang, 2013); hence, it serves as a major source of subseasonal-to-seasonal predictability (Vitart et al., 2017; Waliser et al., 2003). The fundamental characteristics and dynamics of MJO have been well-documented (Jiang et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020) since its first discovery (Madden & Julian, 1971, 1972). After being initiated from the Indian Ocean (IO) (Matthews, 2008; Wei et al., 2019, 2020, 2023; Zhao et al., 2013), MJO deep convection expands and migrates eastward slowly (~5 m/s) and may weaken when encountering the Maritime Continent (MC) barrier effect (Ling et al., 2019; Wei et al., 2022; Zhang & Ling, 2017); nevertheless, it can usually reintensify over the Western Pacific (WP) (Waliser et al., 2009; Wei & Pu, 2021) and finally damp over the Central-Eastern Pacific (Hendon & Salby, 1994; Wang & Chen, 2017; Wei et al., 2018).

However, observed MJO propagations are diverse in many aspects. For example, the MJO may propagate fast or slow (Pohl & Matthews, 2007; Yadav & Straus, 2017) under different modulations of low-frequency background states (Chen et al., 2022; Ren et al., 2023; Suematsu & Miura, 2022; Wang & Li, 2021; Wei & Ren, 2019, 2022;

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Xiang et al., 2021). The propagating MJO may be blocked by the MC barrier effect (Barrett et al., 2021; Hirata et al., 2013; Zhang & Ling, 2017), which sometimes can be overcome by moistening arising from the leading suppressed convection (LSC) over the WP (Chen & Wang, 2018; Feng et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2014; Wei et al., 2022) or by reduced land diurnal cycle (Hagos et al., 2016; Ling et al., 2019; Oh et al., 2013). Additionally, MJO propagation trajectory (Kim et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2020; Zhou & Murtugudde, 2020) and group velocity (Wei et al., 2023; Wei & Ren, 2019) are changeable. Clustering analysis has been recently used to objectively identify diverse MJO propagations (Chen & Wang, 2021; Wang et al., 2021), such as standing, jumping, and slow eastward propagation and fast eastward propagation MJO modes (Wang et al., 2019, hereafter WCL19; Xiang et al., 2021; Wang & Wang, 2023). Although low-frequency variabilities, such as El Niño–Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and Quasi-Biennial Oscillation (Lyu et al., 2021; Wei et al., 2023; Xiang et al., 2021), likely control various MJO propagation behaviors, why diversified MJO propagations exist remains elusive.

Besides eastward-propagating intraseasonal oscillation (ISOe), westward-propagating intraseasonal oscillation (ISOW) is also active in the tropics, such as equatorial Rossby waves (Gonzalez & Jiang, 2019; Kiladis et al., 2009) or westward-propagating “moisture mode” (Fuchs-Stone et al., 2019; Mayta et al., 2022). Previous studies have noticed that ISOW might shape the boreal summer intraseasonal oscillation (Wang & Rui, 1990; Wang & Xie, 1997; Wang et al., 2021), anchor or initiate MJO deep convection by interplaying with high topography (Feng & Li, 2016; Roundy & Frank, 2004; Takasuka & Satoh, 2021; Wei et al., 2019, 2020, 2023), and block eastward propagation of MJO moist convection through dry intrusion (DeMott et al., 2018; Feng et al., 2015; Fu et al., 2018; Huang & Pegion, 2022). In this study, we unexpectedly found that ISOW, which cooperates with ISOe, over the WP, can offer a plausible explanation of diverse MJO propagation initiated from the IO (WCL19). Moreover, as an arguably key prerequisite for MJO eastward propagation (Chen & Wang, 2018; Feng et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2014; Wei & Ren, 2019), the LSC over the WP is found to be closely related to the ISOW. These results will be comprehensively described in Section 3 after an introduction of data and methodology in Section 2. Finally, we discuss our main findings and outline the conclusions in Section 4.

2. Data and Methodology

2.1. Data

The main data set used in this study is the daily, $2.5^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$, advanced very high-resolution radiometer outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) during 1979–2018 from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA; Liebmann & Smith, 1996). OLR is a good proxy of deep convection and rainfall in most tropical regions (Peatman et al., 2014). The atmospheric circulation is diagnosed using the 5th generation of ECMWF reanalysis (ERA5) products (Hersbach et al., 2020). Daily anomalies are calculated by subtracting calendar daily climatology. A 20–100-day bandpass Lanczos filter (Duchon, 1979) with 201 weights is used to extract the intraseasonal oscillation (ISO) from the daily anomalies. The westward and eastward components of ISO (i.e., ISOW and ISOe) are further extracted using the Fourier and inverse-Fourier transforms along each latitude.

2.2. Methodology

We first derive a convective index (CI), defined as the ISO component of OLR averaged over the IO (15°S – 15°N , 70° – 100°E). The reference date (hereafter, Day 0) is selected as the first day when CI becomes smaller than one negative standard deviation (STD) of itself. The composite map for the total ISO component of OLR shows enhanced convective anomalies in the central IO and suppressed convective anomalies in the WP (Figure S1 in Supporting Information S1). Thus, we further derive a dry index (DI) following Kim et al. (2014) as the ISO component of OLR averaged over the WP (15°S – 15°N , 120°E – 180°E). The large scatter of DI, relative to the small CI scatter (Figure 1a), suggests that the LSC defined by the DI can be independent of the MJO moist convection over the IO. Kim et al. (2014) revealed that strong LSC could support a propagating MJO, while weak LSC usually corresponds to a nonpropagating MJO. This is reproduced in Figure S2 in Supporting Information S1. Here, “Strong” (“Weak”) is defined as the scenario when DI is larger (smaller) than the mean plus (minus) half of its STD.

We further decompose DI into ISOe and ISOW components to quantify the relative LSC contributions from eastward- and westward-propagating disturbances. Again, there exists no clear linear relation between CI and the two DI components (Figure 1b). However, the total DI is considerably correlated with its two components

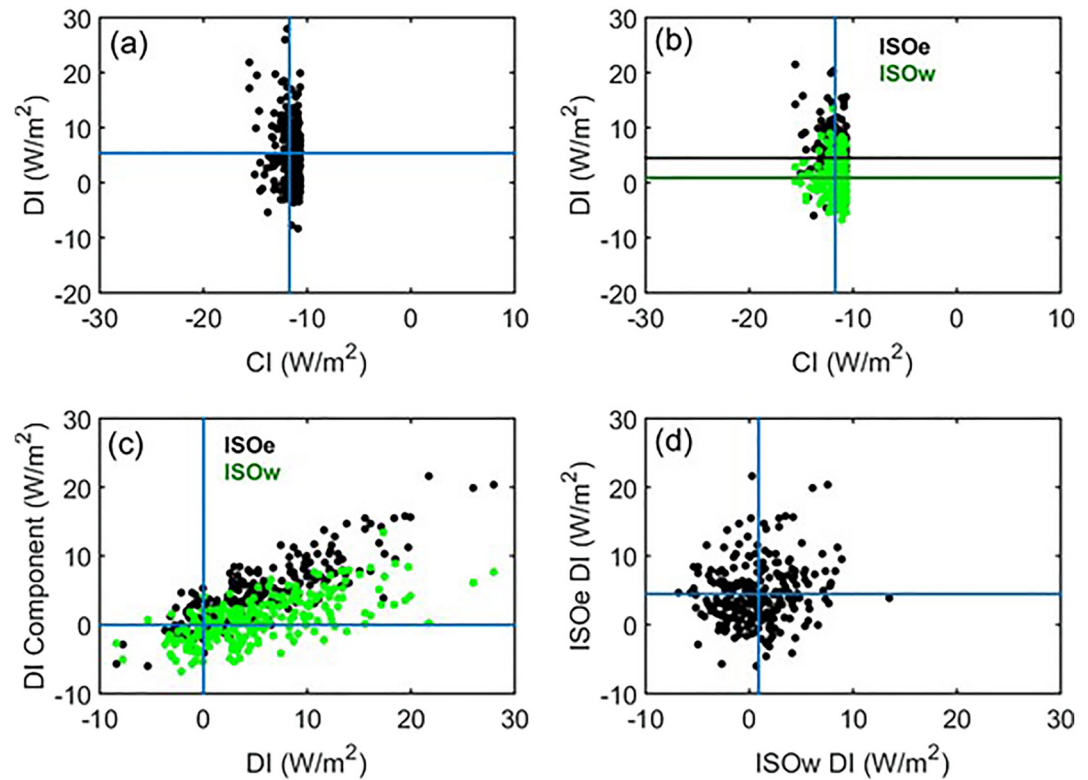


Figure 1. Dry and convective indices (DI and CI). (a) Scatter diagram of CI versus DI derived as the 20–100-day-filtered OLR anomalies (W/m^2) over the Western Pacific (15°S – 15°N , 120°E – 180°E). The horizontal (vertical) blue line is the mean of DI (CI). (b) Same as (a) but for the CI versus ISOe (black) and ISOW (green) components of DI. The black and green horizontal lines denote the means of ISOe and ISOW. (c) Scatter diagram of DI versus its two components of ISOe and ISOW. (d) Scatter diagram of ISOW versus ISOe components of DI.

(Figure 1c), and the dryness over the WP is mainly contributed by ISOe as the magnitude of ISOe is larger than ISOW. The LSC over the WP is a robust signal of eastward-propagating MJO, both in the successive- and primary-type events (Chen & Wang, 2018; Matthews, 2008). Here, we reveal that besides the preceding eastward-propagating dry anomalies, ISOW also contributes to the LSC (Wei et al., 2023). More interestingly, ISOW and ISOe are largely independent (Figure 1d). Thus, we can readily investigate their separate roles in affecting MJO eastward propagation.

Specifically, we define four scenarios based on the strength of ISOW and ISOe over the WP on Day 0. In the first scenario (S-I), both ISOW and ISOe are weak; in the second scenario (S-II), ISOe is weak, but ISOW is strong; in the third (S-III) and fourth (S-IV) scenarios, ISOe is strong, while ISOW is respectively weak and strong. The definitions of “Strong” and “Weak” are similar to the total DI. The equatorially (15°S – 15°N) averaged convection and circulation anomalies of total ISO are composited in each scenario to examine the propagation pattern of MJO initiated from the IO. The composite of ISOW and ISOe components diagnoses the underlying mechanisms of distinct MJO propagation behaviors. The significance of composite results is evaluated based on the two-tailed Student- t test at the 95% confidence level. We consider the all-seasonal analysis to make a fair comparison with previous studies (e.g., Kim et al., 2014; Wei et al., 2023). In the represented results, seasonal variations, if any, are discussed somewhere in the following.

3. Results

3.1. MJO Propagation Under Weak Versus Strong ISOe

We first observe the MJO behaviors when only referring to the ISOe component of LSC over the WP. The maps of 20–100-day-filtered OLR and 850-hPa horizontal winds (UV850) on Day 0 are shown in Figures S3a and S3b in Supporting Information S1. As expected, the LSC in the strong ISOe case is considerably stronger than in the

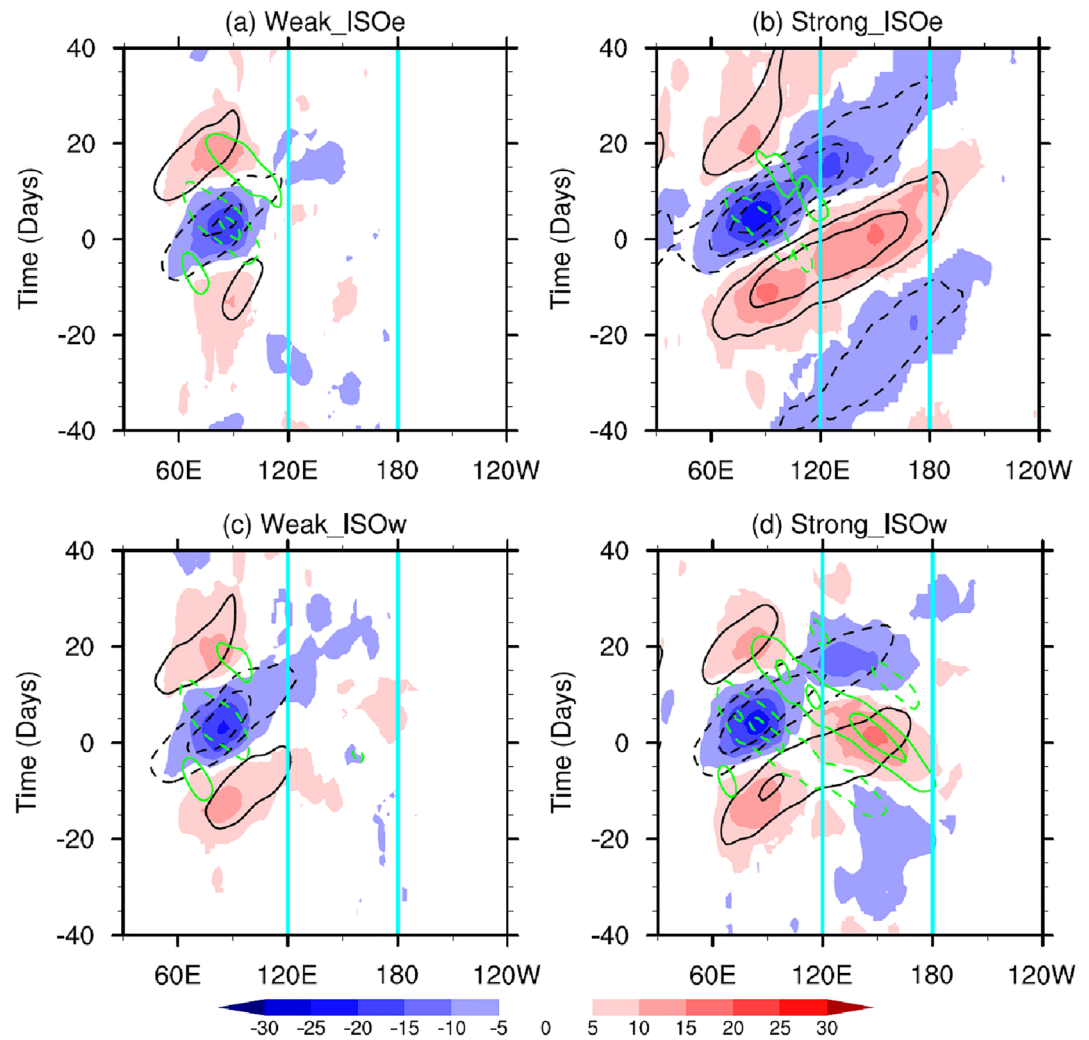


Figure 2. MJO propagation patterns conditioned by only ISOe or ISOW. (a) Lagged composite Hovmöller diagram of equatorial (15°S – 15°N average), 20–100-day-filtered OLR anomalies (shading in W/m^2 , passing the Student- t test at 95% confidence level) when only the ISOe component of leading suppressed convection is weak. (b–d) Same as (a) but for strong ISOW, weak ISOW, and strong ISOe, respectively. The black contours show the ISOe component, and the green contours are the ISOW component. Solid (dashed) contours denote suppressed (enhanced) convection, and zero contours are omitted. “Strong” is defined as larger than one plus half of the STD, while “Weak” is smaller than one minus half of the STD. The two cyan lines show the west and east boundaries of the WP. The MJO case numbers in the four panels are 64, 79, 74, and 76, respectively.

weak ISOe case. The strong LSC over the WP excites anticyclone Rossby gyres to the west (Gill, 1980), of which the poleward wind anomalies are observed, in contrast to the equator-ward winds in the weak ISOe case. Additionally, the equatorial easterly wind anomalies are considerably strengthened, mainly due to the dry Rossby wave excitation. Moreover, the suppressed convection of ISOe maximizes along the equator when it propagates into the WP on Day 0 during both boreal winter and summer (Figure S4 in Supporting Information S1), thus explaining the equatorially symmetric feature of the LSC in the ISOe component (Figure S3b in Supporting Information S1). The anomalous convection and circulation are generally similar to that based on the total LSC (Figures S1b and S1c in Supporting Information S1), which implies that weak (strong) LSC over the WP is mainly because of the weakening (strengthening) of ISOe.

The contrasting circulation between the two scenarios sheds some light on the different propagation patterns of MJO (Figures 2a and 2b). In the weak ISOe case, the deep convection is initiated from the western IO on Day -10 , then migrates to the eastern IO with significantly enhanced amplitude, and quickly damps upon approaching Sumatra Island in the western MC. Therefore, a non-propagating (or a stand) MJO probably commences when

the suppressed convection of ISOe becomes weakened over the WP. In contrast, in the strong ISOe case, the deep convection successfully crosses the MC barrier and even reintensifies over the WP, manifesting a typical life cycle of propagating MJO. Two mechanisms have been previously used to explain the propagating MJO related to strong LSC. (a) The easterly winds induce boundary layer moisture convergence (Chen & Wang, 2018), and (b) the poleward winds cause positive meridional moisture advection (Kim et al., 2014; Wei & Ren, 2019). Both mechanisms helped MJO cross the MC barrier. Thus, the dryness of ISOe over the WP mainly determines whether the MJO can propagate eastward, thereby crossing the MC.

3.2. MJO Propagation Under Weak Versus Strong ISOW

What is the role of the WP dryness arising from ISOW? To answer this question, we examine the LSC and UV850 (Figures S3c and S3d in Supporting Information S1) as well as MJO propagation (Figures 2c and 2d) by defining “Strong” and “Weak” cases based only on the ISOW component. Again, we yield significantly stronger LSC and easterly/poleward wind anomalies in the strong ISOW case than in the weak ISOW case. However, this cannot be treated as a duplicate of Figures S3a and S3b in Supporting Information S1. In the weak ISOW case (Figure S3c in Supporting Information S1), suppressed convection of ISOe, albeit weak, is still observed in southern WP, causing stronger easterly wind anomalies along $\sim 10^{\circ}\text{S}$ compared to the weak ISOe case (Figure S3a in Supporting Information S1). The underlying reason is that constraining ISOW to be weak does not necessarily guarantee a weak ISOe because the two components are largely independent (Figure 1d). Moreover, in the strong ISOW case, the LSC and the induced wind responses to the south of the equator are weak because the dryness of ISOW, as a major contributor to LSC, reaches a maximum in the north of the equator (Figure S3d in Supporting Information S1). The dry signals of ISOW are mainly seen along 10°N , although featuring westward propagation in boreal winter and northwestward propagation in boreal summer (Figure S5 in Supporting Information S1). We found that the LSC in the ISOW component in boreal summer is stronger than in boreal winter (Figure S6 in Supporting Information S1). Besides, in this case, both the easterly and poleward wind anomalies over the MC (especially those over the southern MC) are weaker than the strong ISOe case (Figure S3b in Supporting Information S1).

The deep convection over the IO in the weak ISOW case (Figure 2c) displays a similar propagation pattern as that in the weak ISOe case (Figure 2a). The major difference is that the damping of moist convection over the western MC in Figure 2c is not that strong. Consequently, the MJO convection can continuously propagate into the WP, but without reintensification. Therefore, a propagating mode is supported in the weak ISOW case. In the strong ISOW case, a westward-propagating disturbance initiated from the Central Pacific (CP) is observed (Figure 2d). The dry phase, on the one hand, strengthens the LSC over the WP on Day 0 and, on the other hand, suppresses the enhanced convection over the MC on Day 10. Because of the strong LSC, the in situ active convection over the WP is intensified after Day 10. In general, the MJO, in this case, behaves as a mixture of jumping and propagating modes. Moreover, MJO propagation speed tends to be slow in the weak ISOW case but fast in the strong ISOW case. Also note that, the moist phase of ISOW in the strong ISOW case propagates westward and helps to trigger the MJO deep convection from the IO, which is essentially like the WPISO type of MJO initiation documented by Wei et al. (2023) using clustering analysis.

Hence, we can see that more stories can be detected when isolating the ISOW component from the total LSC over the WP. To exclude the contamination of ISOe and thus extract the “pure” effect of ISOW, we then compare the LSC, UV850, and MJO propagation by constraining both the ISOW and ISOe components in the following subsection.

3.3. ISOW Cooperating With ISOe Shapes Diverse MJO Propagations

Figure 3 shows the 20–100-day-filtered UV850, OLR, and the ISOW and ISOe components in the four scenarios mentioned above (i.e., S-I to S-IV). In S-I, the northern WP interestingly displays weak active convection, and northerly wind anomalies are observed over northern MC, in contrast to weak southerly winds in southern MC (Figure 3a). In S-II, ISOW becomes strong, and significant convective suppression appears in northern WP (Figure 3b), thereby exciting southerly and easterly wind anomalies over northern MC (Figure 3b). In S-III and S-IV, owing to the dominance of ISOe, the suppressed convection over the WP becomes more symmetric about the equator and stronger (Figures 3c and 3d), which is more so in S-IV due to the further strengthened ISOW component (Figure 3d). Correspondingly, the spatial scale (both zonal and meridional) and amplitude of

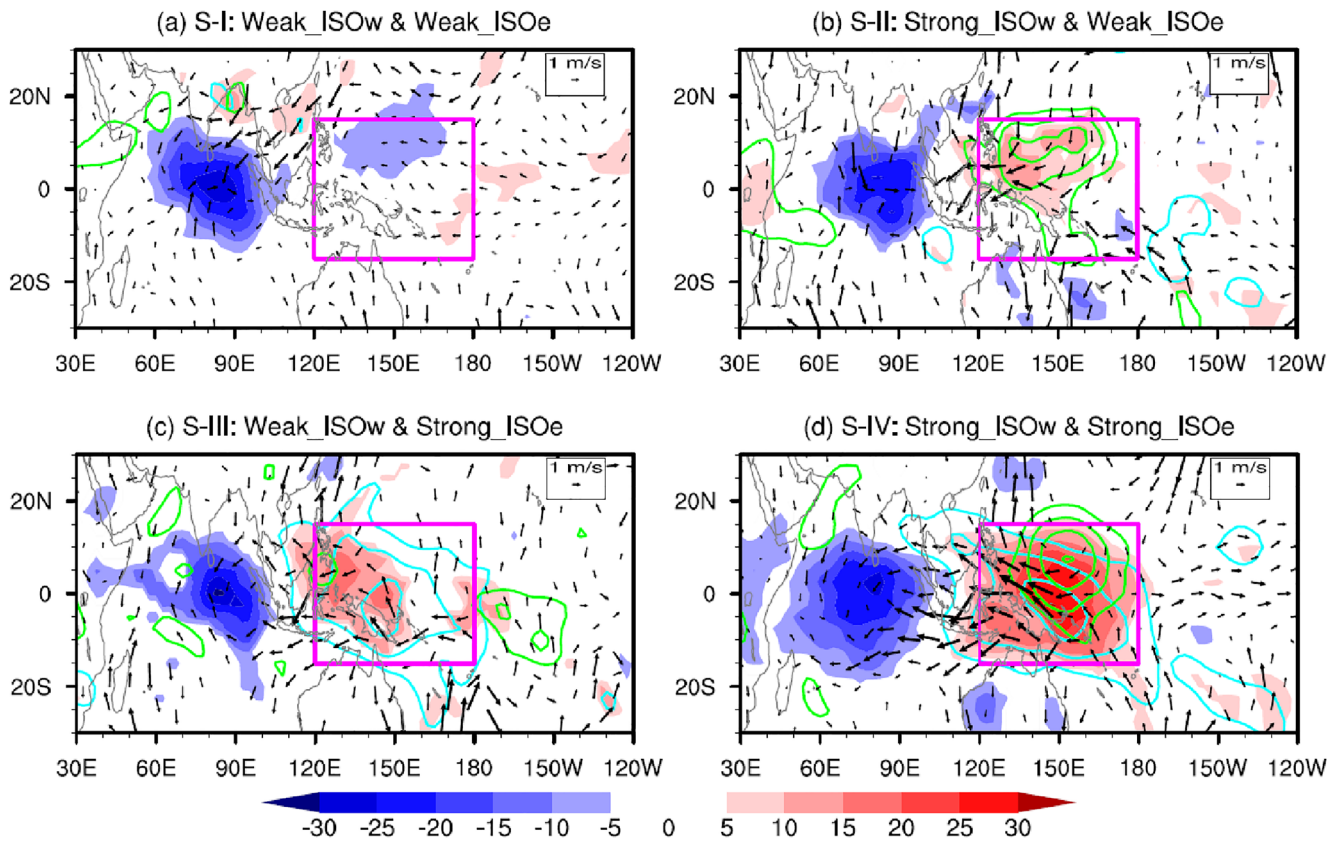


Figure 3. LSC conditioned by both ISOe and ISOW. (a) Composite 20–100-day-filtered OLR anomalies (shading in W/m^2 and passing the Student- t test at the 95% confidence level) as well as their westward- (ISOW, green contours) and eastward-propagating (ISOe, cyan contours) components on Day 0 in **S-I** (weak ISOW and weak ISOe). The contours are only shown for the suppressed convection. The vectors are the 850-hPa horizontal winds. The magenta rectangle encloses the box ($15^{\circ}S$ – $15^{\circ}N$, $120^{\circ}E$ – $180^{\circ}E$) to calculate the LSC over the WP. (b–d) Same as (a) but for **S-II** (strong ISOW and weak ISOe), **S-III** (weak ISOW and strong ISOe), and **S-IV** (strong ISOW and strong ISOe), respectively. See texts for the definitions of **S-I** to **S-IV**. The MJO case numbers in the four panels are 33, 15, 13, and 30, respectively.

lower-tropospheric winds largely increase, especially in **S-IV**. Note that the amplitude of deep convection over the IO is generally similar in the four scenarios; therefore, the increasing lower-level wind amplitude mainly reflects the strengthening Rossby wave responses to the LSC over the WP. The “pure” effect of, say ISOW, might be appreciated by comparing such as **S-III** and **S-IV**. Because the significant contribution of LSC is ISOe, we expect that the so-derived “pure” ISOe effect (e.g., **S-I** vs. **S-III** comparison) is roughly the same as that in Section 3.1.

Figure 4 shows the MJO propagation patterns of the four scenarios. In **S-I** (Figure 4a), convective anomalies only oscillate over the IO with a time scale of 30–40 days but without a robust eastward propagation into the WP (see the break at $110^{\circ}E$), which is reminiscent of the standing MJO mode documented by WCL19. This non-propagating behavior is mainly attributed to the phase locking of ISOW and ISOe over the IO, both of which have similar amplitude but features opposite propagation direction. Roundy and Frank (2004) also reported a similar standing feature of ISO, which they called “resonant” wave interactions. In **S-II** (Figure 4b), a strong dry signal of ISOW propagates westward from the CP, hindering the further eastward expansion of the eastward-propagating moist signal of ISOe from the IO. This decaying mechanism of the MC barrier effect due to westward-propagating dry wave is also documented previously (DeMott et al., 2018; Feng et al., 2015; Huang & Pegion, 2022). Interestingly, significant moist convection reappears over the WP immediately following the dry ISOW signal. Overall, the propagation pattern in **S-II** is similar to the Jump MJO mode in WCL19.

A propagating mode can be observed in **S-III** and **S-IV** because the dryness arising from ISOe is strong over the WP. In **S-III** (Figure 4c), the ISOW signals mainly exist over the IO while weak over the WP. Similar to **S-II**, in **S-IV**, a westward-propagating dry signal of ISOW is observed, which propagates into the WP and strengthens

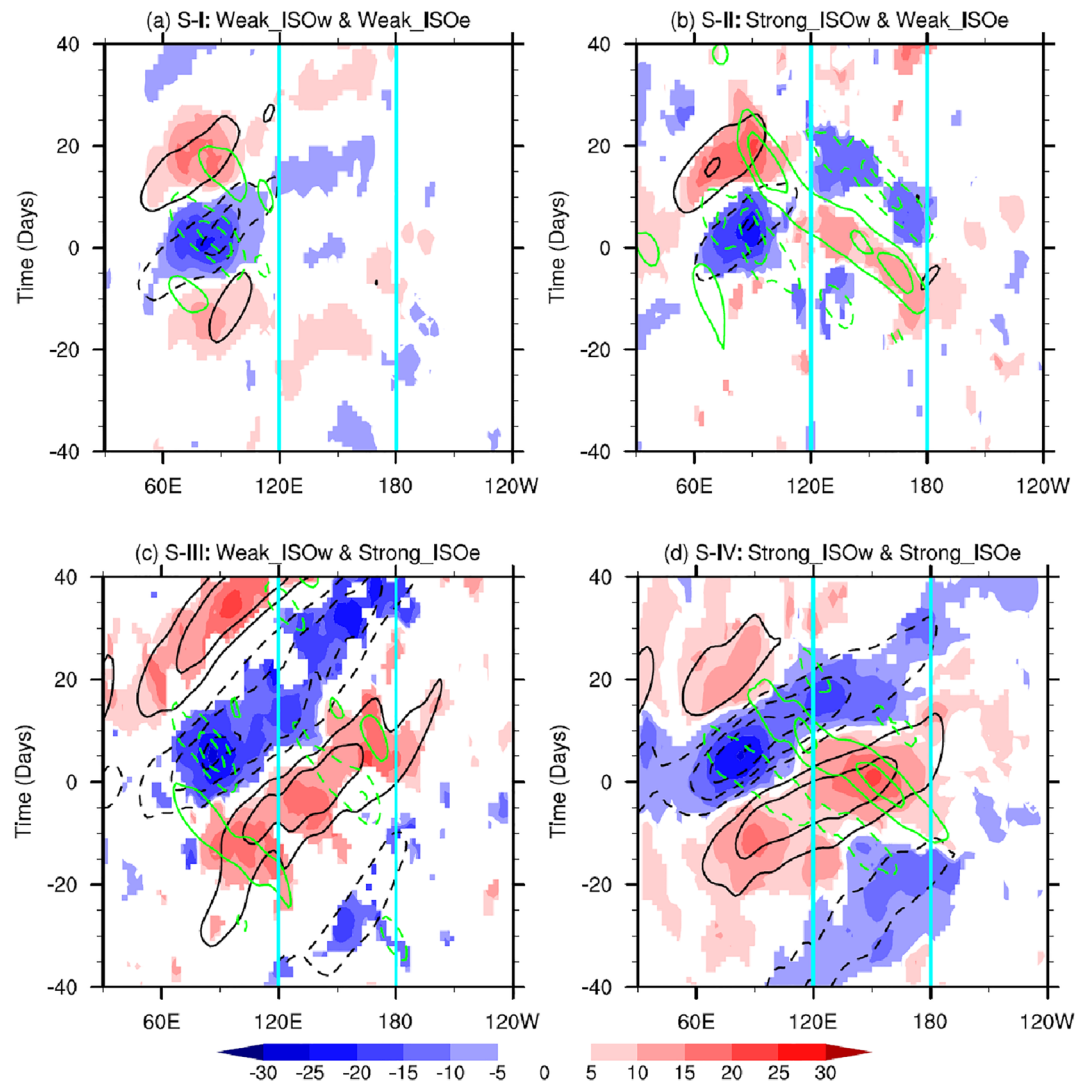


Figure 4. Same as Figure 2 but for the MJO propagation patterns conditioned by both ISOe and ISOW.

the in situ LSC (Figure 4d). However, the dry signal cannot propagate further west as in **S-II** because it is quickly damped by the moist convection of ISOe over the MC. The most attractive difference between **S-III** and **S-IV** is the propagation speed, which is slow in **S-III** and fast in **S-IV**. Thus, when the moist convection triggered from the IO can smoothly propagate across the MC (due mainly to the strong ISOe), the arrival of a westward-propagating dry signal over the WP will speed up the eastward-propagating moist convection (i.e., fast MJO); otherwise, a slow MJO will be supported. The crucial importance of ISOW in shaping the MJO diversity was further discussed in Text S1 in Supporting Information S1.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

4.1. Discussion

The results of this study have implications for the further development of the MJO theory (Zhang et al., 2020). Many popular MJO theories have intensively tried to simulate ISOe-like mode (Adames & Kim, 2016; Wang et al., 2016). However, according to the results of our study, along with previous studies, ISOW is also equally important to obtain a full paradigm of MJO propagation. A stochastically or interannually modulated onset or demise of ISOW in theoretical models should facilitate the formation of diverse MJO propagation as in reality. As a good candidate, the “MJO skeleton” model can simulate both ISOW and ISOe (Majda & Stechmann, 2009),

and the addition of a random process captures the irregularity of MJO initiation (Thual et al., 2014). However, whether the MJO propagation diversity was successfully reproduced in such stochastic models has not been examined.

The ISOW triggered from the CP has now been revealed to be crucial in shaping diverse MJO initiation and propagation. Thus, the CP, which previously was less concerned, is likely a key region to understand MJO dynamics and predictability. Wei et al. (2019) successfully predicted strong primary MJO initiation 10–15 days in advance by adding optimal moisture perturbations over the IO, which was motivated by the DYNAMO field campaign (Zhang & Yoneyama, 2017). Thus, what if we consider the optimal initiation over the CP? Will the prediction skill of MJO initiation and/or propagation be extended, considering that the ISOW signal can be tracked earlier over the CP? Wei et al. (2023) found that by helping MJO convective initiation over the IO, the ISOW precursor signals from the CP can increase the predictability of primary MJO events by 1 week, compared with other primary MJO initiations without the ISOW preconditioning. Addressing these questions is of great and practical importance for the MJO target observation and ensemble prediction.

4.2. Concluding Remarks

A growing number of studies have recently discovered diversity in MJO propagation, which has advanced our understanding of the fundamental dynamics of MJO, a mysterious phenomenon prevailing in the tropics and greatly influencing global weather and climate (Hand, 2015). However, a comprehensive explanation of the origin of different MJO propagations still needs to be discovered. Herein, we observed that the diverse MJO propagation patterns can be physically reproduced by examining the amplitude variation in the WP dry signals of ISOW triggered from the CP. More specifically, when ISOe does not bring in strong LSC over the WP, a westward-propagating dry signal of ISOW will facilitate the formation of Jumping MJO mode. Moreover, when the ISOW dry signal is weak, a standing MJO mode may appear. In contrast, when the dryness from ISOe is strong over the WP, the dry ISOW signal will mainly affect the MJO propagation speed, which generally increases with the strengthening of ISOW. Therefore, the variations of westward-propagating intraseasonal disturbances from the CP may help shape diverse MJO propagations (WCL19) under cooperation with the eastward-propagating intraseasonal disturbances from the IO. By considering the modulation effects of ENSO, we added an extended discussion of the importance of ISOW-ISOe interactions in understanding MJO propagation in Text S2 in Supporting Information S1.

Data Availability Statement

The OLR data was from the NOAA/OAR/ESRL PSD, Boulder, Colorado (Liebmann & Smith, 1996), available at https://psl.noaa.gov/thredds/catalog/Datasets/interp_OLR/catalog.html. The ERA5 reanalysis data (Hersbach et al., 2020) was available at <https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.bd0915c6>. The NOAA ERSSTv5 (Huang et al., 2017) was available at <https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.noaa.ersst.v5.html>.

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