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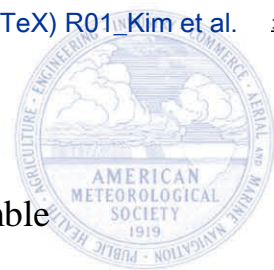
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1 MJO propagation across the Maritime Continent in the ECMWF ensemble
2 prediction system

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Abstract

The characteristics of the MJO propagation across the Maritime Continent are investigated using a 20-year reforecast dataset from the ECMWF ensemble prediction system. Analysis of the MJO events initialized over the Indian Ocean (phase-2) shows that the initial MJO amplitude and prediction skill relationship is not linear, particularly, when the predictions start in moderate (between strong and weak) MJO amplitude category. To examine the key factors that determine the prediction skill, reforecasts in the moderate category are grouped into high- and low-skill events, and the differences in their ocean-atmospheric conditions as well as the physical processes during reforecast period are examined. The initial distribution of OLR anomalies in high-skill events show a clear dipole pattern of convection with an enhanced convective anomalies over the Indian Ocean and strongly suppressed convective anomalies in the western Pacific. This dipole mode may support the MJO propagation across the Maritime Continent via the Rossby wave response and associated meridional moisture advection. Prominent ocean-atmosphere coupled processes are also simulated during the propagation of high-skill events. However, in low-skill events, the convective signal over the western Pacific is almost absent, less-organized, and the ocean-atmosphere coupled processes are not simulated correctly. We find that in both high- and low-skill events, the amplitude of the convective anomaly decreases significantly after about day-15 possibly due to the systematic mean model bias. A strong wet bias in the vicinity of the Maritime Continent, a cold SST bias in the equatorial Pacific, and associated circulation biases make the West Pacific area unfavorable for MJO propagation, thus limiting its prediction skill.

51 **1. Introduction**

52 There has been a growing interest of scientific, operational and application communities in
53 providing forecasts in the sub-seasonal time range; a range that lies in between the conventional
54 medium-range weather (lead times up to 2 weeks) and seasonal (3-12 months) forecasts. The
55 subseasonal forecast is particularly important since many management decisions, such as in
56 agriculture and food security, fall into this band. Skillful predictions of anomalous weather events,
57 such as extreme precipitation events, in subseasonal timescale could provide policy makers,
58 emergency management, and stakeholders advanced warnings to prepare for mitigatory measures.

59 Realizing the crucial role of subseasonal prediction on bridging the gap between weather
60 forecasting and climate prediction, there is a current international effort focused on the subseasonal
61 prediction problem. The World Climate Research Program/World Weather Research Program
62 (WCRP/WWRP) Subseasonal to Seasonal (S2S) Prediction Project has recently been launched
63 with the goal of advancing predictive capability at this time scale (Vitart et al. 2012). Accordingly,
64 much attention has been paid from the NOAA/NWS and the White House to producing operational
65 multi-model ensemble forecasts at weeks 3 and 4¹. The North American Multi-model Ensemble
66 (NMME, Kirtman et al. 2014) project is launching subseasonal inter-comparison assessment of
67 contributing climate model forecasts (Robertson et al. 2015). Additionally, the newly formed
68 National Research Council (NRC) Committee is charged with the goal of developing a 10-year
69 U.S. research agenda to advance subseasonal prediction². Such efforts provide unprecedented

¹ <http://www.whitehouse.gov/the-press-office/2014/09/23/fact-sheet-president-obama-announces-new-actions-strengthen-global-resil>

² <http://dels.nas.edu/Upcoming-Event/Developing-Research-Agenda/DELS-BASCPR-13-05/>

70 scientific opportunity to make significant strides in process-level understanding for subseasonal
71 phenomena.

72 The Madden-Julian Oscillation (MJO; Madden and Julian 1971, 1972) is the dominant mode
73 of subseasonal variability in the tropical atmosphere and ocean. The MJO is a special type of
74 organized tropical convection that is distinct from other forms of tropical phenomena by its vast
75 horizontal scale (wavenumber 1-5), subseasonal time scale (30-60 days), and eastward propagation
76 over the Indo-Pacific warm pool. Enhanced or suppressed convection associated with the MJO
77 affects the global weather and climate system (e.g., Zhang et al. 2013), thereby providing a source
78 of potential predictability in subseasonal time scale. It is hoped that realizing uncapped
79 predictability of the MJO is a key toward improving the subseasonal forecast.

80 The last two decades have witnessed substantial changes in the mode of MJO prediction. Until
81 the early 2000s, dynamical models were inferior to statistical models in terms of MJO prediction,
82 mainly due to their lack of MJO simulation capability. In most centers, MJO prediction was not a
83 part of operational forecast suite of products until about 2010. Furthermore, the number of
84 ensemble members was limited and forecasts, when they were made, were not issued frequently
85 enough due to the expense of computing resource. In the most recent decade, MJO prediction has
86 benefitted from the significant strides in the ability of models to represent the MJO (e.g., Zhang et
87 al. 2013). Various operational forecast centers are now releasing MJO forecasts and are
88 continuously upgrading their systems by improving model configurations (e.g., improved physics),
89 new ensemble generation methods, better initialization schemes, and increased resolution. Current
90 operational forecasting systems now show useful MJO prediction skill up to 3-4 weeks (Vitart and
91 Molteni 2010, Vitart et al. 2010, Rashid et al. 2011, Vitart et al. 2012, Zhang and Van Den Dool
92 2012, Zhang et al. 2013, Kim et al. 2014b, Neena et al. 2014, Vitart 2014, Wang et al. 2014, Xiang

93 et al. 2015). However, this achievement is still below the theoretical estimate of predictability,
94 which may be 6-7 weeks (e.g., Waliser et al. 2003). Thus, there would seem to be room for further
95 enhancing MJO prediction by improving various aspects of the prediction system based on a better
96 understanding the MJO phenomena. Understanding strengths and weaknesses of the current
97 prediction systems would be the first step toward enhancing the MJO prediction skill.

98 There is consensus emerging from recent studies regarding the factors affecting the MJO
99 predictability and prediction skill. The main factors, besides the ability of the model, are the
100 geographic location of the MJO convection center (i.e. MJO phase) and the magnitude of the MJO
101 signal (i.e. MJO amplitude) in the initial conditions. Earlier, ECMWF and NCEP forecast systems
102 showed a high sensitivity of their MJO prediction skill to the initial MJO phase. They showed
103 relatively low skill when the MJO convection is initially located over the Indian Ocean and
104 propagates over the Maritime Continent, known as “Maritime Continent MJO prediction barrier”
105 (Vitart et al. 2007, Seo et al. 2009, Vitart and Molteni 2010, Wang et al. 2014). However, recent
106 studies showed that the predictability of the MJO is not sensitive to MJO phases, suggesting that
107 the Maritime Continent prediction barrier is a modeling problem, rather than a predictability issue
108 (Kim et al. 2014b, Neena et al. 2014).

109 Another crucial factor that affects the MJO prediction is its initial amplitude. It has been
110 documented that the MJO prediction skill is higher when the MJO amplitude is initially relatively
111 large (Rashid et al. 2011, Zhang and Van Den Dool 2012, Kim et al. 2014b, Neena et al. 2014,
112 Vitart 2014, Wang et al. 2014, Xiang et al. 2015). In previous studies, initial amplitudes are
113 classified into two or three different categories (e.g., weak, moderate, and strong) and the averaged
114 MJO prediction skill of each category are compared. In all models, prediction skill shows a
115 monotonic increase with the initial MJO amplitude, meaning that initially stronger MJOs possess

116 higher prediction skill. However, the linearity of the relationship between initial MJO amplitude
117 and MJO prediction skill has not yet been fully explored.

118 Although it has been shown that MJO prediction strongly depends on initial MJO phase and
119 amplitude, the physical mechanisms behind these constraints are not well understood. Based on
120 previous studies, there is one simple question that can be asked: Do MJO forecasts with similar
121 initial amplitude and phase always result in similar skill? For example, if two forecasts are
122 initialized with similar amplitude of MJO convective anomaly in the Indian Ocean, do they always
123 result in comparable skill? If not, what ocean-atmosphere conditions and physical processes drive
124 some MJO event to be more predictable than others? If a prediction system systematically fails or
125 succeeds in forecasting the MJO that meets a certain set of conditions, understanding the processes
126 behind those relationships may provide a key for improving the prediction system. In particular,
127 realizing a growing interest in the processes involved in the MJO propagation over the Maritime
128 Continent³, this study aims to advance our understanding of the Maritime Continent prediction
129 barrier issue. In addition, we investigate the possible influence of the mean biases on MJO
130 propagation and prediction.

131 Section 2 introduces details of the data and methodology. In section 3, we examine the
132 relationship between the initial MJO amplitude and the prediction skill and identify the high- and
133 low-skill MJO events. The characteristics of high-skill versus low-skill events, in terms of initial
134 condition and propagation will be compared in section 4. In section 5, the relationship between the
135 mean biases and MJO prediction is investigated. Summary and discussion will be followed in
136 Section 6.

³<http://www.bmkg.go.id/ymc/>

137

138 **2. Data and methodology**

139 *a. Data*

140 We will use the reforecast data from the ECMWF monthly forecasting system (e.g., Vitart
141 2014) that has been used for real-time forecast in the current operations. In many studies, the
142 ECMWF system has been shown as superior compared to other systems, particularly for MJO
143 prediction (e.g., Kim et al. 2014b, Neena et al. 2014, Vitart 2014). MJO prediction skill in ECMWF
144 system has gradually improved since 2002, benefited by the substantial improvement of physical
145 parameterization, ocean-atmosphere coupling strategy, ensemble generation methods, data
146 assimilation and etc. (Vitart 2014). The ECMWF Variable Resolution Ensemble Prediction System
147 (hereafter, EC) is a fully coupled model system with a large set of reforecasts generated with the
148 purpose of evaluating and calibrating the model forecast. In the WCRP/WWRP S2S Prediction
149 Project, two publicly available reforecasts of the ECMWF system are version CY40R1 and
150 CY41R1. Version CY40R1 has been used for operation before May-14 2015 and version CY41R1
151 is current operational version with the reforecasts being produced in real time. Therefore, the
152 reforecast covering all seasons for CY41R1 will not be available until May 2016. In this study, we
153 analyze the reforecast output of version CY40R1. Details of this version can be found at the
154 ECMWF website⁴.

155 The reforecast of CY40R1 consists of a 5-member ensemble generated at the same date as the
156 real-time forecasts for the past 20 years starting at January 1994. The reforecast used in this study
157 is projected to 32-day horizons every Thursday with the first 10 days at about 32 km (T639,

⁴ <https://software.ecmwf.int/wiki/display/IFS/CY40R1+Official+IFS+Documentation>

158 0.28125°) horizontal resolution and changes to about 64 km (T319, 0.5625°) from day-11.
159 Orography field (represented by surface geopotential) prescribed in the EC reforecasts for each
160 T639 and T319 are obtained from ECMWF website⁵. There are 91 vertical levels extending to 0.01
161 hPa. Reforecasts have been initialized from ERA-Interim (Dee et al. 2011) and ORA-S4
162 (Balmaseda et al. 2013). The atmospheric model is coupled to the ocean from day-0. The reforecast
163 data covers 20-years from 1994 to 2013, resulting in total 5,200 sets of 32-day integrations (52
164 sets/year x 20 years x 5 ensembles). Daily mean fields of outgoing longwave radiation (OLR),
165 zonal wind of 200 hPa (U200) and 850 hPa (U850), sea surface temperature (SST), and
166 precipitation (Precip) are extracted from the reforecast. We use the zonal wind field from ERA-
167 Interim products, OLR from the Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer (Liebmann and
168 Smith 1996), NOAA Optimum Interpolation sea surface temperature (Reynolds et al. 2007), and
169 precipitation from the Global Precipitation Climatology Project version 2.2 (Adler et al. 2003).
170 These datasets will be referred to as “observation” for convenience. The observational period
171 extends from 1981 to 2013. A daily climatology is calculated over the period from 1981 to 2013
172 for observations, and from 1994 to 2013 for EC reforecast.

173 *b. MJO index*

174 The Wheeler and Hendon (2004) Real-time Multivariate MJO index (RMM) is calculated
175 following Gottshalck et al. (2010). RMM indices, RMM1 and RMM2, are the timeseries of the
176 principle component of the 1st and 2nd Empirical Orthogonal Functions (EOF) of the OLR, U200,
177 and U850 averaged between 15°N and 15°S. RMM1 represents the anti-correlation in convection
178 between the Indian Ocean and western Pacific and RMM2 represents convective activity over the

⁵ <http://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/documentation-and-support/changes-ecmwf-model/cycle-41r1>

179 Maritime Continent. The circulation patterns (U200 and U850) represent a dynamically coherent
180 baroclinic structure associated with the convective anomaly. These two modes explain about 27 %
181 of the total observed variance. Predicted RMMs are obtained by projecting the reforecast
182 anomalies of zonal winds and OLR onto the observed eigenvectors. More details of the
183 methodology can be found in Kim et al. (2014b). Figure 1 represents the observed MJO life cycle
184 in eight different phases by compositing the OLR and U850 anomalies without discrimination for
185 amplitude or season.

186 *c. Measures of MJO prediction skill: Collective and segment prediction skill*

187 The conventional measures of MJO prediction skill use a collection of MJO forecasts and
188 calculate scalar metrics (e.g., bivariate anomaly correlation coefficient, ACC) as a function of
189 forecast lead time (e.g., Lin et al. 2008). For example, when the RMM is employed, for each lead
190 time, the RMM1 and RMM2 for all cases considered are used to calculate the scalar metrics that
191 represent a general prediction skill of a forecast system. The same method can be applied to subsets
192 of forecasts, for example, those starting from different MJO phases or amplitude. By comparing
193 the prediction skill of each subset, one could examine the sensitivity of prediction skill to various
194 factors (e.g., RMM prediction skill in various phase or amplitude as a function of lead time).
195 However, this conventional method, which is a collective skill measure, cannot be applied to an
196 individual forecast set that has only one predicted value at different lead times. Hence, using a
197 collective skill measure, one cannot group individual forecasts by their prediction skill.

198 To mitigate the limitation of the conventional skill measurement, we develop a new metric for
199 measuring predictive skill that can be applied to individual forecasts. We use this method to

200 identify forecast that exhibits relatively higher skill than others. To measure the skill of individual
 201 forecasts, ACC is calculated between the predicted and observed RMMs as follows:

$$202 \quad ACC = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{t=N}[a_1(t)b_1(t) + a_2(t)b_2(t)]}{\sqrt{\sum_{t=1}^{t=N}[a_1^2(t) + a_2^2(t)]} \sqrt{\sum_{t=1}^{t=N}[b_1^2(t) + b_2^2(t)]}}$$

203 where $a_1(t)$ and $a_2(t)$ are the predicted RMM1 and RMM2 values at lead time t , and $b_1(t)$ and
 204 $b_2(t)$ are the corresponding observations. Therefore, each 32-day forecast segment has one value
 205 of ACC while the conventional skill measure, $ACC(\tau)$, has values as a function of lead days. We
 206 will refer to this 32-day segment ACC as ‘segment prediction skill’ and the conventional prediction
 207 skill measure as ‘collective prediction skill’.

208

209 **3. Identification of the high-skill and low-skill MJO events**

210 In this section, we will identify the high- and low-skill MJO events in order to compare their
 211 characteristics. Before separating the MJO events, we will briefly review the overall MJO
 212 prediction skill in the current EC forecast system. The general RMM prediction skill of the current
 213 EC forecast is measured by the collective prediction skill first. The prediction skill of ensemble
 214 mean for all season is about 30-32 days as measured by the bivariate anomaly correlation
 215 coefficient exceeding 0.5. This is about 3-5 days improvement compared to its previous
 216 operational version (Kim et al. 2014b, Vitart 2014). Particularly, skill increases significantly when
 217 the predictions start at phase-2 (Fig.1) with approximately 0.2 improvement of ACC at days 25-
 218 30 mean compared to the previous version used in Kim et al. (2014b). Experiments with the
 219 coupling from day-0 (rather than from day-10 as in the previous version in Kim et al. 2014b)
 220 produced a slight improvement in MJO skill scores (a gain of about 1 day of predictive skill, see

221 Fig. 13 in Janssen et al. 2013). While there is still a gap between the predictability and prediction
222 skill, the gap is getting narrower by continuously improving the system.

223 We classify individual reforecasts into a few groups depending on the initial MJO amplitude
224 and the segment prediction skill of them. We focus on a specific initial MJO phase – phase 2, in
225 which convection center is located over the Indian Ocean (Fig. 1) and where the MJO is expected
226 to propagate across the Maritime Continent during the forecast period. The selection of a particular
227 initial MJO phase is motivated by the fact that there has been a growing interest of understanding
228 the critical processes involved in the MJO propagation, particularly from the Indian Ocean to the
229 western Pacific, and that the Maritime Continent prediction barrier still exists in many operational
230 forecasting systems.

231 *a. MJO initial amplitude and prediction skill relationship*

232 As a first step toward identifying the high- and low-skill events, the relationship between
233 initial MJO amplitude and the segment prediction skill is examined. A total of 670 reforecasts (134
234 events x 5 ensembles) with initial phase-2 are selected. To categorize the skill by its initial
235 amplitude, we define the amplitude as the square root of $RMM1^2$ plus $RMM2^2$ based on the
236 observation. The events of the initial amplitude greater than 1.5 are selected as strong MJO events
237 (total 42 cases out of 134 cases), events with initial amplitude between 0.7 and 1.5 as moderate
238 MJO events, and the rest as weak/non-MJO events. Two amplitude thresholds, 0.7 and 1.5, are
239 chosen arbitrarily to categorize about 50 % of reforecasts as moderate MJO events (total 68
240 events). It needs to be emphasized that events are selected based on the observed initial amplitude
241 and phase. Figure 2 shows the segment prediction skill as a function of initial amplitude. It is clear
242 that the segment prediction skills for initially strong MJO events are skewed to relatively high

243 values with having only one case lower than 0.5, while the skills in the moderate and weak/non
244 groups are widely distributed. If we take the average of skill for each amplitude category, skill
245 increases monotonically with amplitude from 0.62 in the weak/non group, to 0.70 in the moderate
246 group, and to 0.82 in the strong group, consistent with previous studies. However, when the skills
247 of reforecasts are considered individually, the initial amplitude-prediction skill relationship is not
248 linear. Particularly, the skills of the moderate category are broadly scattered and not clearly skewed
249 in any direction. Identifying factors in ocean-atmospheric condition that lead a reforecast to having
250 a relatively high skill or low skill, would help improving the prediction system. For further
251 analysis, reforecasts in the moderate category (total 68 events) will be grouped into high- and low-
252 skill cases, and the difference in their ocean-atmospheric condition as well as the physical
253 processes during forecast period will be examined in the subsequent sections. To clarify that high-
254 and low-skill events do not depend strongly on season, we further distinguished these phase-2
255 MJO events by season (not shown). Most of the strong MJOs occurred in boreal winter (Nov-Apr)
256 and weak/non MJOs in summer (May-Oct). However, the frequency of moderate MJO events is
257 less sensitive to seasons. Because the seasonality of MJO prediction is an important topic, this will
258 be investigated in future work.

259 *b. High-skill versus low-skill events*

260 To examine the characteristics of high-skill versus low-skill events starting at phase 2 with
261 moderate amplitude (hereafter, simply “high-“ and “low-skill” events), we classify reforecasts into
262 high- and low-skill events based on their segment prediction skill. If the segment skill is equal or
263 above 0.74, the event is considered as high-skill event and the rest as low-skill events. The
264 threshold value 0.74 is determined arbitrarily to split the high- and low-skill events equally (each
265 has 34 events). Using each 34 (170) events of 32-day ensemble mean (individual ensemble

266 members) forecast sets, the collective prediction skill is calculated as a function of lead days (Fig.
267 3). The skill of ensemble mean is clearly higher than that of the individual ensembles in high-skill
268 MJO, and there is a large inter-ensemble spread. In low-skill events, although the prediction skill
269 stays much the same as high-skill events up to day-05, the skill drops rapidly as lead time increases.
270 The skill in the ensemble mean reaches correlation of 0.5 at day-16 in low-skill events, while for
271 high-skill events the correlation stays above 0.7 during the entire period. This suggests that, even
272 starting at similar amplitude and phase, some events are better predicted with an additional two
273 weeks of skill.

274 To condense the characteristics of the amplitude and propagation change by forecast lead
275 days, we compare RMMs composites in a phase-space diagram (Fig. 4). Since the initial phases
276 and amplitudes are computed based on the observation and not prediction, slight differences exist
277 between observed and predicted RMMs even on day-01 due to the model error. Predicted RMMs
278 of individual ensembles on day-01 are plotted together with the ensemble mean. While all observed
279 MJO events start on phase-2 (not shown), some predicted MJOs start in slightly different phases.
280 Because of the limited number of samples, we do not investigate the details of each case but focus
281 on the mean statistics of high- and low-skill events. In the composite of high-skill events (Fig. 4),
282 while the predicted amplitude of the ensemble mean is weaker than the observed during the entire
283 forecast period, the predicted events propagate over the Indian Ocean to western Pacific with
284 comparable phase speed to observation leading to a relatively high prediction skill. In the low-skill
285 events, both observed and predicted RMMs propagate faster than the high-skill events and lose
286 their amplitude rapidly.

287

288 **4. Favorable initial conditions and key physical processes for MJO propagation across**
289 **the Maritime Continent**

290 *a. Initial condition and propagation characteristics*

291 We have shown that the initially moderate MJO events can result in either high or low skill
292 forecasts. Are there clear differences in initial conditions that translate into changes in prediction
293 skill? To answer this question, we examine the initial ocean-atmospheric conditions and
294 propagation characteristics. Figure 5 compares the composite maps of the predicted OLR and SST
295 anomalies at day-01 for both high- and low-skill events. The predictions shown in Figure 5 are
296 similar to the observations (not shown). The initial distribution of OLR anomalies in high-skill
297 events (Fig. 5a) show a clear dipole pattern of convection with enhanced convective anomalies
298 over the Indian Ocean and strongly suppressed convective anomalies in the western Pacific. The
299 convective anomalies over the western Pacific are associated with positive SST anomalies
300 (maximum > 0.3 K). In contrast, for the low-skill events (Fig. 5b), even though the convective
301 anomalies have similar amplitude and phase in the Indian Ocean, the signal over the western
302 Pacific is almost absent, resulting in a monopole convective anomaly structure. Given that the
303 initial amplitude and phase of the RMM-defined MJOs are similar in the two categories (high- and
304 low-skill), the drastic contrast in the convective pattern is surprising. This issue will be addressed
305 later.

306 To examine the propagation characteristics, the longitude-time composites of OLR and U850
307 are employed (Fig. 6). The observed counterparts for the high-skill events have relatively well-
308 organized eastward propagation with anomalous low-level easterly wind preceding the convection
309 anomaly (Fig. 6a). An opposite phase of MJO convection anomaly develops over the western

310 Indian Ocean at around day-15 associated with the westerly wind anomaly to the east of the
311 suppressed convection. These characteristics are captured to some extent in the prediction but with
312 weaker amplitude than observed (Fig. 6b). The predicted low-level wind anomaly shows eastward
313 propagation to the eastern Pacific until day-32. For the low-skill events (Fig. 6c, d), both the
314 observations and forecasts exhibit a propagation of convective anomaly which is much faster than
315 that in the high-skill events, a phase speed resembling that of the convectively coupled equatorial
316 Kelvin wave (e.g., Wheeler and Kiladis 1999). In short, the high- and low-skill events show clear
317 differences in their initial conditions, especially the distribution of convective anomaly, and in
318 their representation of eastward propagation. In the high- (low-) skill events, the initial condition
319 of convection is characterized by a dipole (monopole) structure, and the phase speed of the
320 eastward propagation is about 5.0 m/s (9.0 m/s), calculated by predicted U850 change from day-
321 01 to day-10. Interestingly, in both high- and low-skill events, predicted OLR signal becomes weak
322 after around day-15.

323 Recent studies have emphasized the importance of the dipole structure in the convective
324 anomaly for the propagation of the MJO (Kim et al. 2014a; Adames and Wallace 2015). Kim et
325 al. (2014a) showed that a suppressed convective anomaly over the west Pacific is a necessary
326 condition for an enhance convection over the Indian Ocean to propagate across the Maritime
327 Continent. By analyzing the moist static energy of the MJO, Kim et al. (2014a) suggested that the
328 suppressed anomaly over the west Pacific plays a critical role in inducing a Rossby wave response
329 to its west. The circulation anomalies and resulting anomalous meridional moisture advection
330 associated with the Rossby wave response provide favorable conditions for the propagation of the
331 MJO across the Maritime Continent. The moisture budget analysis of Adames and Wallace (2015)

332 showed similar results. That is, an initial state with a dipole convective anomaly pattern favors the
333 MJO propagation across the Maritime Continent.

334 Collectively, these results suggest that the horizontal pattern of convective anomaly in the
335 initial conditions could be a useful indicator of how skillful a prediction will be for the cases in
336 which there is initial intermediate MJO amplitude. To test this argument, the relationship between
337 the observed western Pacific (120°E-180°E, 15°S-15°N) OLR anomaly (OLRwp) at day-01 and
338 the segment prediction skills for all initially strong and moderate events starting at phase 2 are
339 sought (Fig. 7). Although the prediction skills are not clearly separated as a function of the OLRwp,
340 most of the relatively high skill events have initially drier western Pacific to the east of the
341 Maritime Continent. The frequency of a dry western Pacific occurring is higher in high-skill than
342 in low-skill events. It seems that the drier western Pacific is a necessary condition but not sufficient
343 condition for high-skill MJO prediction events.

344 *b. Ocean-atmosphere interaction*

345 Previous studies revealed the importance of the ocean feedback to the MJO propagation (e.g.,
346 review in DeMott et al. 2015). The warm SST east of the MJO convection in the Pacific Ocean
347 supports the MJO propagation by affecting SST-modulated heat fluxes, thus enhancing the
348 boundary layer moisture convergence which maintains the convective anomalies and fuel the
349 eastward propagation (e.g., Lindzen and Nigam 1987, Maloney and Sobel 2004, Back and
350 Bretherton 2009, Hsu and Li 2012, Hirata et al. 2013). Figure 5a suggests that the ocean feedback
351 process is associated with the high-skill events. The positive western Pacific SST anomaly at day-
352 01 indicates that the suppressed convection allows a steady warming of the SST due to the weak
353 surface wind and enhanced downward solar radiation. To examine the temporal changes of the

354 convection and underlying SST, the area averaged OLR and SST anomaly over the western Pacific
355 (110°E-160°E, 15°S-15°N) are compared as a function of lead days (Fig. 8). Since the SST does
356 not change significantly during the short forecast period, we have removed the 32-day SST average
357 of each 32-day segment in both observation and prediction, respectively. During observed high-
358 skill MJO (Fig. 8a), positive SST and positive OLR anomaly (suppressed convection) over the
359 western Pacific is present at day-01. During the initial suppressed phase in the western Pacific, and
360 prior to maximum convection, low-level easterly wind anomalies become significant over the
361 warm western Pacific (Fig. 6a) where the climatological westerly wind dominates. Decreased
362 evaporative cooling and enhanced downward solar radiation raise SST anomalies to the east of the
363 convection (e.g., Hirata et al. 2013). After about day-05, the suppressed convective anomaly
364 decreases its amplitude and changes to a convectively active phase (Fig. 8a). During the convection
365 phase, reduced solar heating and evaporative surface cooling and mixing via strong low-level
366 westerly induce SST change to negative anomalies. For both observation and predictions, this
367 convection-SST phase relationship is well captured during the eastward propagation for high-skill
368 MJO events. However, in low-skill events, no significant SST-convection phase relationship can
369 be found in the western Pacific in both observation and prediction (Fig. 8b).

370 *c. Drawbacks of using the RMM index*

371 Before we move on the investigation of the mean bias and prediction skill relationship, we
372 will discuss some drawbacks in using the RMM index as a measure of the MJO. In the RMM
373 space-phase diagram (Fig. 4), we showed that in the high-skill events, the RMM-defined MJO
374 signal shows propagation even after day-15 (Fig. 4) and prediction maintains high-skill throughout
375 (Fig. 3). However, even in high-skill events, the convective signal becomes almost absent after
376 lead day-15 (Fig. 6). If the forecast convective signal is marginal after day-15, then what causes

377 such a high prediction skill until day-32? It has become apparent that the fractional contribution
378 of winds to the variance of RMMs is relatively larger than the contribution of the convective fields.
379 This is a major weakness of the RMM index (Straub 2013, Ventrice et al. 2013, Liu et al. 2015,
380 Wolding and Maloney 2015). To address this issue in our results, Figure 9 shows the observed and
381 predicted anomalies (averaged over 10°S-10°N) of three variables used in defining the RMM
382 index. On day-01, while overall predicted amplitude is slightly weaker than the observed, the
383 convection and wind anomalies are well captured in the predictions (Fig. 9a, b), resulting in high
384 skill at the beginning of the forecast (Fig. 3) in both high- and low-skill events. However, for
385 day20-25 average in high-skill events (Fig. 9c), while the predicted convective anomaly shows
386 negligible strength over the Indo-Pacific region compared to the observation, the wind anomalies
387 still have comparable magnitudes (Fig. 9c). Therefore, although the reforecasts do not predict the
388 convective anomaly correctly, the prediction skill could result in high-skill after day-15 since the
389 fractional contribution of winds to the RMM is larger than the convection signal (Straub 2013).

390 Another issue is that both high- and low-skill events are selected as initially moderate “phase-
391 2” category, although the initial convective anomalies in the western Pacific have different
392 structure (dipole versus monopole mode, Fig. 4). In both observation and prediction, the western
393 Pacific dry anomaly is apparent in the high-skill events (Fig. 9a), but not in the low-skill events
394 (Fig. 9b). However, the anomalous low and upper level wind patterns at day-01 are similar between
395 high- and low-skill events. These similar wind patterns and amplitude at day-01 force these events
396 to be categorized as moderate phase-2 events. Therefore, when the RMM index is used for the
397 prediction of MJO convective signal, it may potentially misinform the skill of the MJO. To
398 compensate the weakness of RMM index in representing the convection, several alternative
399 methods have been introduced (e.g., Kiladis et al. 2014, Liu et al. 2015). However, the use of

400 proper MJO index depends on how one defines the MJO phenomena. In this study, we will
401 continue to use RMMs as an index, bearing in mind the drawbacks, since most of MJO prediction
402 studies and operational predictions still rely heavily on the RMM index.

403

404 **5. Systematic mean biases and the possible influence on MJO prediction**

405 To explain the possible barrier for MJO prediction, we examine the relationship between the
406 MJO prediction skill and the systematic mean bias in the EC reforecasts. Figure 6 showed that the
407 convective signal in the reforecasts almost disappears after about day-15 when the MJO convection
408 center reaches the western Pacific. We assumed that the mean bias could be an important factor
409 that deteriorates the MJO propagation further east. Figure 10 shows the climatological annual
410 mean bias of precipitation, SST and zonal winds (U850 and U200) averaged over the entire lead
411 days (day01-32) for the entire reforecast period (20 years) for all events starting at phase 2,
412 regardless of the initial amplitude. Excessive precipitation bias is found in the vicinity of the
413 Maritime Continent in agreement to other studies of various state-of-the-art coupled climate
414 models (e.g., DeMott et al. 2014). A warm SST bias is found in the equatorial Indian Ocean
415 extending to the western Pacific with maximum over the Maritime Continent oceans (Fig. 10b).
416 The warm SST biases could increase low-level moist static energy thus inducing favorable
417 conditions for convection and the related excessive precipitation. Over the equatorial central to
418 eastern Pacific, cold SST biases are dominant with a significantly large maximum value of about
419 -1.0 K. The strong SST gradient between the western and eastern Pacific induces a strong pressure
420 gradient and associated low-level easterly (Fig. 10a) and upper-level westerly bias (Fig. 10b)
421 similar to those found in climate models (e.g., Lin 2007).

422 To examine the temporal change of these biases, the initial bias (day-01) is compared (Fig.
423 10c, d). Wet biases in the vicinity of the Maritime Continent and the associated low-level easterly
424 wind in the western Pacific appear at day-01 (Fig. 10c). At day-01, strong cold SST bias, which is
425 likely an Ocean initialization error, and associated upper level wind bias are already occurring in
426 the equatorial East Pacific (Fig. 10d). The excessive precipitation bias over the Maritime Continent
427 regions and the east-west SST gradient bias may induce a pressure gradient bias that, in turn, could
428 enhance the wind biases after day-01. Such an enhanced easterly wind bias over the tropical Pacific
429 can induce steep eastward shoaling of the thermocline thus exaggerates positive ocean-
430 atmospheric Bjerknes feedback (1966). The enhanced Walker circulation is likely to enhance the
431 ocean upwelling thus contributing to the cold SST bias in the regions of easterly biases. Moreover,
432 the strong wind bias may cause an excessive latent heat flux and contribute to the cold SST bias
433 as well. While the cold SST bias is confined to the East Pacific at the beginning of the forecast, it
434 continuously shifts to the west as lead time increases (not shown). In addition to this basin-wide
435 feedback, the interaction between local SST and shortwave solar flux could also play a role on
436 enhancing the mean bias. Over the cold tongue region, cold SST bias could increase the static
437 stability of the boundary layer, thus increasing the low cloud amount that, in turn, decreases the
438 surface downward shortwave flux thus cooling the SST (Klein and Hartmann 1993, Peter and
439 Bretherton 2005). This local positive feedback in the cold tongue region and the basin-wide
440 Bjerknes feedback could jointly enhance the Walker circulation until the bias fields reach their
441 equilibrium state.

442 In short, the initial wet precipitation bias in the Maritime Continent and the cold SST bias in
443 equatorial Pacific lead to an enhanced Walker circulation and amplify the positive ocean-
444 atmosphere feedback to some extent. However, it is unclear from where the bias originates and

445 what causes their development. Since the atmospheric and oceanic fields are closely coupled, bias
446 in one field could impact other fields. More work is needed to understand the origin of the biases
447 in the reforecasts.

448 Another factor that amplifies the bias could be the model resolution. A wet bias is found over
449 the Maritime Continent vicinity at day-01 (Fig. 10c). Figure 11 compares the change of
450 precipitation and U850 biases. Values are averaged over 5°S and 5°N as a function of forecast lead
451 days. The easterly wind bias increases as forecast lead day increases, but the wet bias maintains a
452 comparable magnitude until day-10 (Fig. 11). At day-11, the time when the model changes its
453 horizontal resolution from about 32 km to 64 km, the wet bias almost doubles in magnitude in the
454 center of the Maritime Continent (Fig. 11). The low and upper level wind biases rapidly amplify
455 in consistency with the growing wet bias.

456 Schiemann et al. (2014) showed that increasing horizontal resolution improves the
457 precipitation simulation particularly in Maritime Continent region due to better representation of
458 complex orography. Figure 12 compares the sub-grid orography (represented in surface
459 geopotential) used as boundary conditions up to day-10 (Fig. 12a) and after day-11 (Fig. 12b). It
460 represents the height of the terrain with respect to the model defined Earth. Up to day-10, the
461 orography is at finer resolution (of 32 km) and represents complex and heterogeneous regions.
462 After day-11, since the resolution decreases (of 64 km), there are relatively fewer grid points that
463 resolve the complexity of land regions. The wet bias and low-level convergence east of the
464 convective Maritime Continent region could be enhanced immediately when the resolution
465 changes.

466 How do those biases hinder the MJO eastward propagation and thus prediction? The wet bias
467 over the Maritime Continent could induce a local Walker circulation that, in turn, would promote
468 a descending motion over the west Pacific. Also, the easterly anomaly over the west Pacific would
469 advect a drier air to the west Pacific where the mean moisture gradient is negative. Both horizontal
470 and vertical circulation biases would make the west Pacific area unfavorable for the development
471 of anomalous convection, thereby weakening MJO propagation to the west Pacific. Moreover, the
472 strong wind biases over the equatorial Pacific may inhibit the MJO propagation after day-15 when
473 the MJO enters the western Pacific and the MJO associated wind has the opposite sign to the wind
474 bias. The relationship between the mean bias and MJO prediction deserves further investigation.

475

476 **6. Summary and discussion**

477 We examined the characteristics of MJO propagation across the Maritime Continent in the
478 ECMWF ensemble prediction system using a 20-year reforecast dataset produced by the recent
479 operational version (CY40R1). We focused on MJO events initialized over the Indian Ocean
480 (phase-2) and investigate the key dynamical factors attributed to the MJO propagation and
481 prediction. Analysis of the initial MJO amplitude and prediction skill relationship shows that the
482 initial amplitude-prediction skill relationship is not linear. Particularly, when the prediction starts
483 with moderate amplitude, predictions could have either high- or low- skills depending on the initial
484 ocean-atmospheric condition. In the high-skill events, the initial condition is characterized by a
485 clear dipole pattern of convection with an enhanced convective anomaly over the Indian Ocean
486 and strongly suppressed convective anomalies in the western Pacific. This suppressed convective
487 anomaly is a necessary condition for enhanced convection over the Indian Ocean to propagate
488 across the Maritime Continent. Therefore, high-skill events result in a relatively well-organized

489 eastward propagation with anomalous low-level easterly wind preceding the convection anomaly.
490 According to the results found in this study, the horizontal pattern of convective anomaly in the
491 initial conditions could be a useful indicator of predicting how skillful the prediction will be for
492 the cases in which the initial MJO amplitude is intermediate. During the propagation, the
493 convection-SST phase relationship is well captured in the high-skill events. In low-skill events,
494 the west Pacific suppressed convection is almost absent, the propagation is poorly organized, and
495 a convection-SST relationship is not obvious.

496 However, even in high-skill events, the amplitude of the predicted convection anomaly
497 decreases significantly after about day-15. We found that the systematic mean biases partially
498 influence extended MJO prediction. The initial wet bias in the Maritime Continent region, the cold
499 bias in the Pacific SST, and the associated wind biases grow as lead day increases. These strong
500 biases over the Maritime Continent to Pacific Ocean make the west Pacific area unfavorable for
501 the MJO propagation, thus limit the prediction. In spite of continuous improvement, the biases
502 over the Maritime Continent and the neighboring oceans are known as a challenge for the state-
503 of-the-art coupled GCM (e.g., DeMott et al. 2014).

504 The Maritime Continent is the region of the largest precipitation and tropical heating, and
505 modulates the global weather and climate through teleconnection. To improve the MJO prediction,
506 in addition to model development for better MJO simulation, the correct representation of the mean
507 climate particularly over the Maritime Continent is crucial. It has to be accompanied by solving
508 the MJO-mean state trade-off issue which is the fact that improving the MJO simulation tends to
509 degrade other aspects such as the mean state (Kim et al. 2011, Boyle et al. 2015). The need for
510 such model improvements is also necessary to improve predictions for both the tropics and

511 extratropics and for subseasonal to longer timescales. An ongoing international effort³ will be of
512 great significance to foster our understanding of the Maritime Continent prediction barrier.

513 While our current study provides some new findings in the area of MJO prediction, there are
514 non-negligible weaknesses, which are mainly due to the lack of sufficient reforecast sample size
515 and variables. First, the proposed mechanism of the suppressed convection anomaly in the western
516 Pacific playing a role on the eastward propagation is based on existing studies (Hirata et al. 2013,
517 Kim et al. 2014a) but the limitations in reforecast data availability presented a challenge in
518 exploring detailed mechanisms. Second, we analyzed the MJO prediction irrespective to the
519 season. Generally, the MJO is expected to be better predicted during the boreal winter compared
520 to the summer due to the more pronounced MJO signal (e.g., Wang et al. 2014). The boreal summer
521 intraseasonal oscillation (BSISO) has distinct characteristics that distinguish it from the MJO (e.g.,
522 Lawrence and Webster 2002, Kikuchi et al. 2012). Therefore, to accurately evaluate the current
523 state of the MJO (or BSISO) prediction, an appropriate method should be applied to specific
524 season. Third, we used mixed cases of primary and secondary MJO in our analysis, although
525 primary and secondary MJOs have distinct characteristics as well as different predictability (e.g.,
526 Matthew 2008). Neena et al. (2014) showed that the predictability of the secondary MJO is about
527 5 days higher than that of the primary MJO in ECMWF system. Fourth, we have shown (Fig. 2)
528 that initially strong MJOs generally have high skill, and weak/non MJOs have lower skill, so we
529 focused on the moderate category. However, looking closely at Fig. 2, one can find that some
530 ensemble members have extremely high skill (about 0.98) even in weak MJO category and
531 extremely low skill even in strong MJO category. Besides the initially moderate MJO category,
532 investigating the characteristics of high- and low-skill MJOs in each strong and weak category will
533 be of great significance to foster better MJO prediction. Fifth, we only focused on the MJO events

534 that are initialized at phase 2. This was done intentionally as our aim is to understand the
535 characteristics of MJOs propagating over the Maritime Continent. We plan to extend our study to
536 MJOs starting at various phases in further study. Lastly, the MJO activity exhibits a significant
537 interannual change through the modulation of the tropical mean state, such as the El Nino Southern
538 Oscillation (ENSO) or Indian Ocean Dipole (IOD) mode (review in DeMott et al. 2015), but we
539 have not distinguished MJO events by these climate modes in this paper. The limitations listed
540 above cannot be overcome without having sufficient number of variables, frequently initialized
541 reforecasts, and large ensembles. Moreover, the results of the present study may depend on the
542 forecast system. Whether the conclusion of this study is hold for other forecasting systems is
543 questionable. Subsequent studies may be necessary with multi-models that have large sets of
544 ensemble members to help identify common weakness and strengths in the current MJO forecasts.
545 For future work, we plan to examine our hypothesis in multi-models from WCRP/WWRP S2S
546 Prediction Project¹ (Vitart et al. 2012) and the NMME reforecasts (Kirtman et al. 2014).

547

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681

682 **Figure list**

683 Figure 1. MJO life cycle composite maps for OLR (W/m^2 , shading) and 850hPa zonal wind (m/s,
684 contour interval is 0.5) anomalies calculated for each of the eight MJO phase for all season
685 from 1981 to 2013.

686 Figure 2. Relationship between the initial MJO amplitude (x-axis) and ensemble mean segment
687 prediction skill (y-axis) for the forecasts starting at phase 2. Two gray vertical lines indicate
688 initial amplitude of 0.7 and 1.5.

689 Figure 3. Collective prediction skill (bivariate anomaly correlation coefficient) as a function of
690 forecast lead days for high-skill (red) and low-skill (blue) events initialized at phase 2 in
691 ensemble mean (thick lines) and individual ensembles (thin lines).

692 Figure 4. RMM composite phase-space diagram for high-skill (red) and low-skill (blue) events
693 starting at phase 2 in observation (solid lines with open circle) and prediction (dotted lines
694 with closed circle). Circles represent every 5 day from day-01 (square). Red and blue
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696 Figure 5. The composite maps of predicted SST (K, shading) and OLR anomaly (W/m^2 , contour)
697 at day-01 for (a) high-skill and (b) low-skill MJO events. The SST anomalies are multiplied
698 by 100. Negative OLR anomalies are in dashed contour with 4 W/m^2 interval and omitting
699 the values from -5 to 5 W/m^2 .

700 Figure 6. Longitude-time composites of the OLR (W/m^2 , shading) and U850 (m/s, contour)
701 anomaly averaged over 10°S - 10°N for high-skill (top) and low-skill (bottom) MJO events
702 in observation (left) and prediction (right). Contour interval is 0.4 m/s and zero lines are
703 omitted.

704 Figure 7. Segment prediction skill (y-axis) and observed OLR anomaly over the west Pacific (WP)
705 (x-axis, 120°E-180°E, 15°S-15°N) at day-01 for all initially strong and moderate events.

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707 black) anomalies as a function of forecast lead days for (a) high-skill and (b) low-skill
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709 Figure 9. Latitudinal average [10°S-10°N] of OLR (W/m², gray and black), U850 (m/s, blue), and
710 U200 (m/s, red) anomalies for observation (bold lines and gray shading) and prediction
711 (dashed line) at day-01 for (a) high-skill and (b) low-skill, and for (c) day20-25 average for
712 high-skill events.

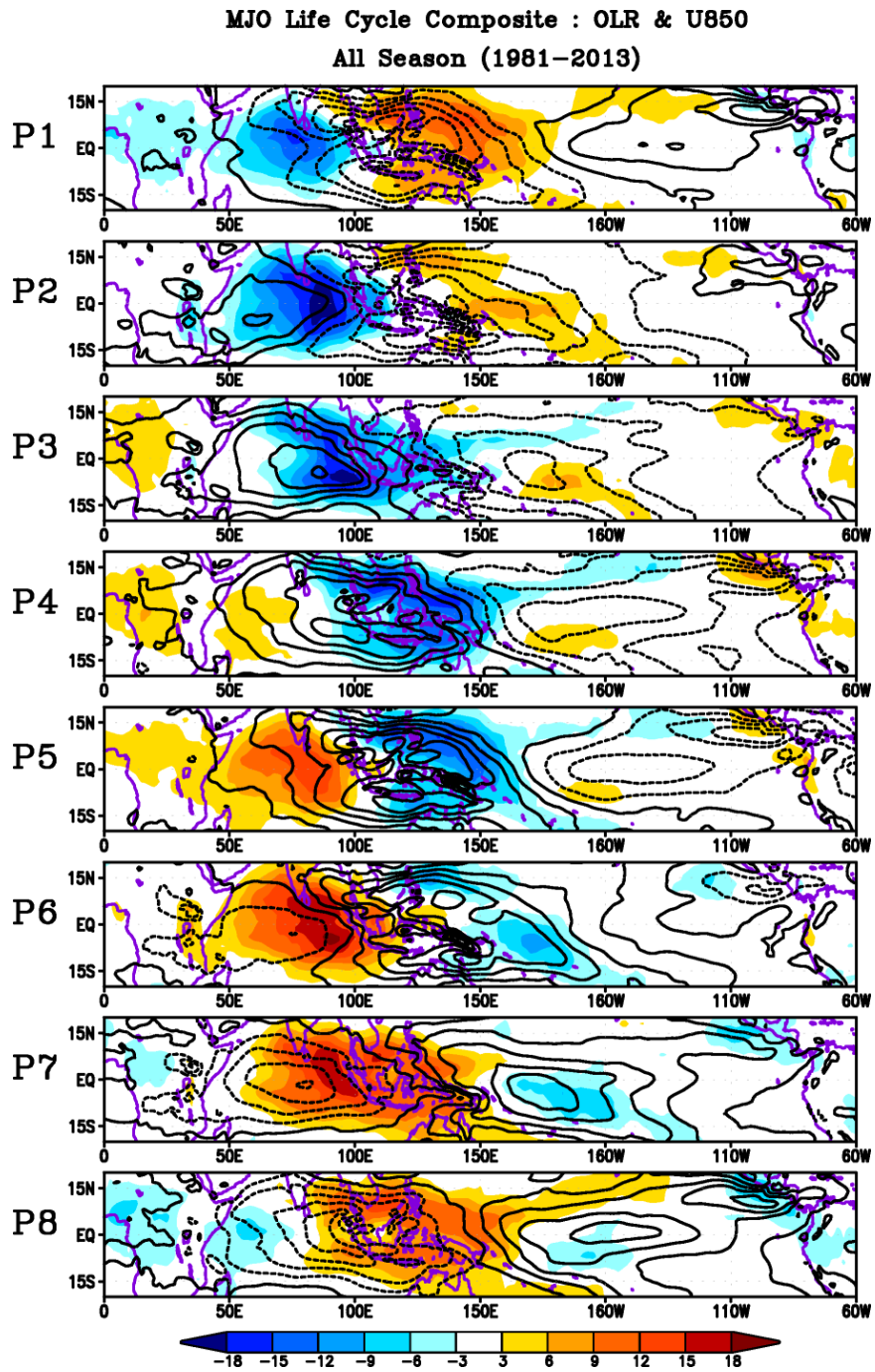
713 Figure 10. Climatological annual mean bias for phase-2 events in (a) precipitation (mm/day,
714 shading) and U850 (contour interval 1 m/s) and (b) SST (K, shading, multiplied by 10) and
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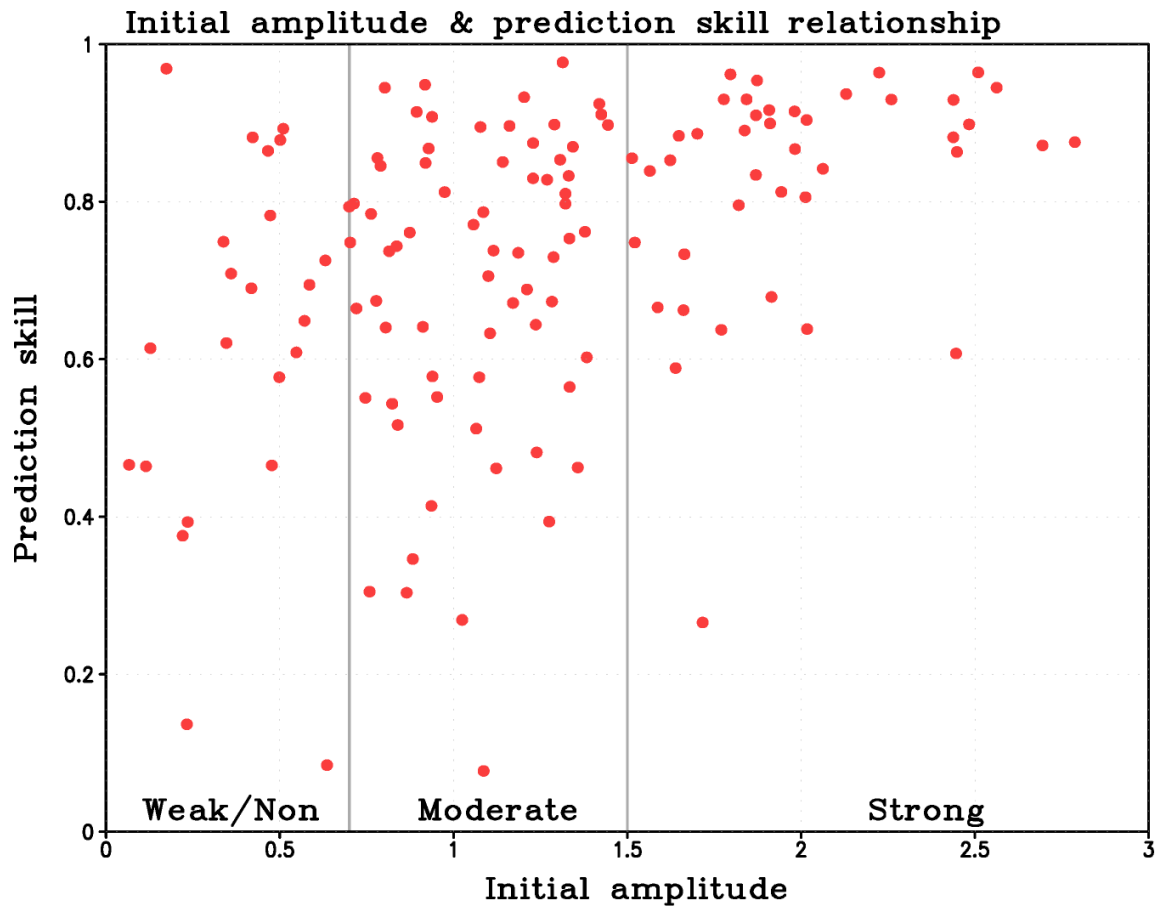
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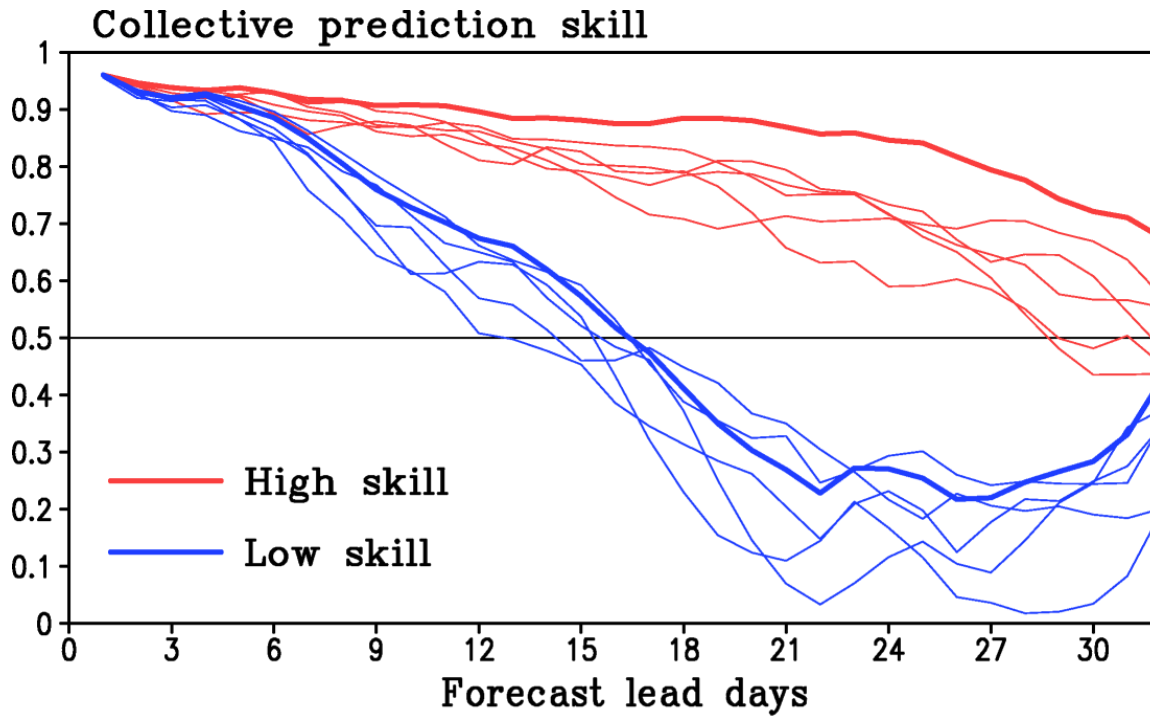
725 Figure 1. MJO life cycle composite maps for OLR (W/m^2 , shading) and 850hPa zonal wind (m/s,
726 contour interval is 0.5) anomalies calculated for each of the eight MJO phase for all season from
727 1981 to 2013.



728

729 Figure 2. Relationship between the initial MJO amplitude (x-axis) and ensemble mean segment
 730 prediction skill (y-axis) for the forecasts starting at phase 2. Two gray vertical lines indicate initial
 731 amplitude of 0.7 and 1.5.

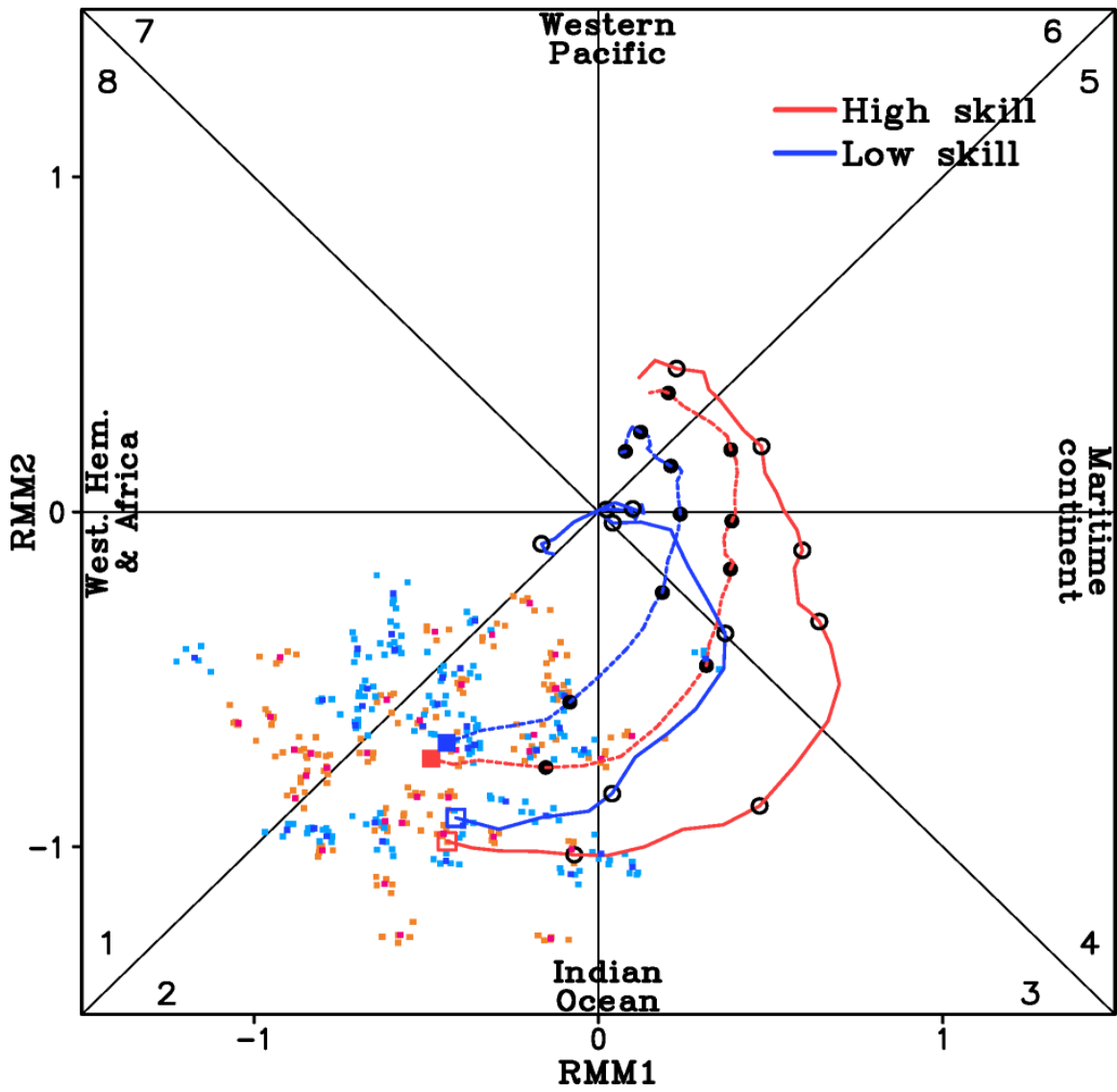
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733

734 Figure 3. Collective prediction skill (bivariate anomaly correlation coefficient) as a function of
 735 forecast lead days for high-skill (red) and low-skill (blue) events initialized at phase 2 in ensemble
 736 mean (thick lines) and individual ensembles (thin lines).

737



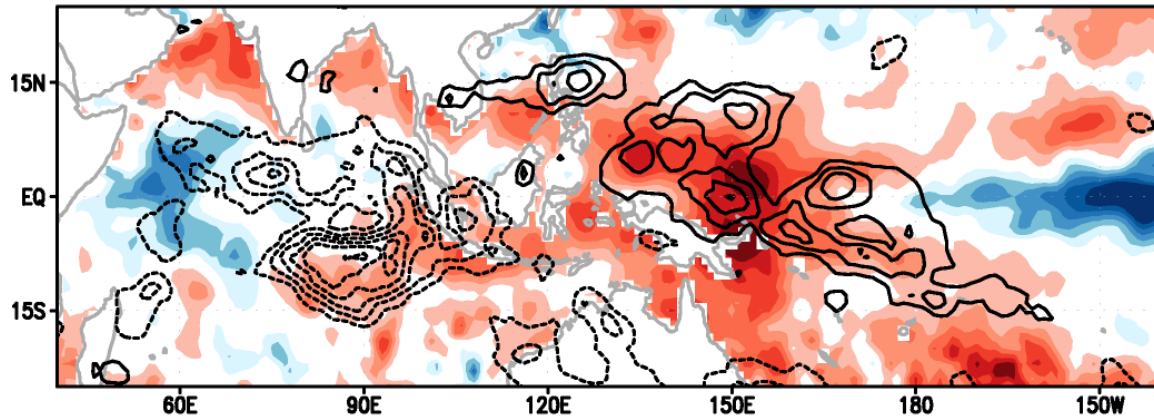
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739 Figure 4. RMM composite phase-space diagram for high-skill (red) and low-skill (blue) events
 740 starting at phase 2 in observation (solid lines with open circle) and prediction (dotted lines with
 741 closed circle). Circles represent every 5 day from day-01 (square). Red and blue (orange and light
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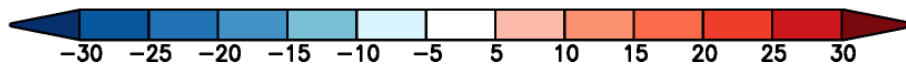
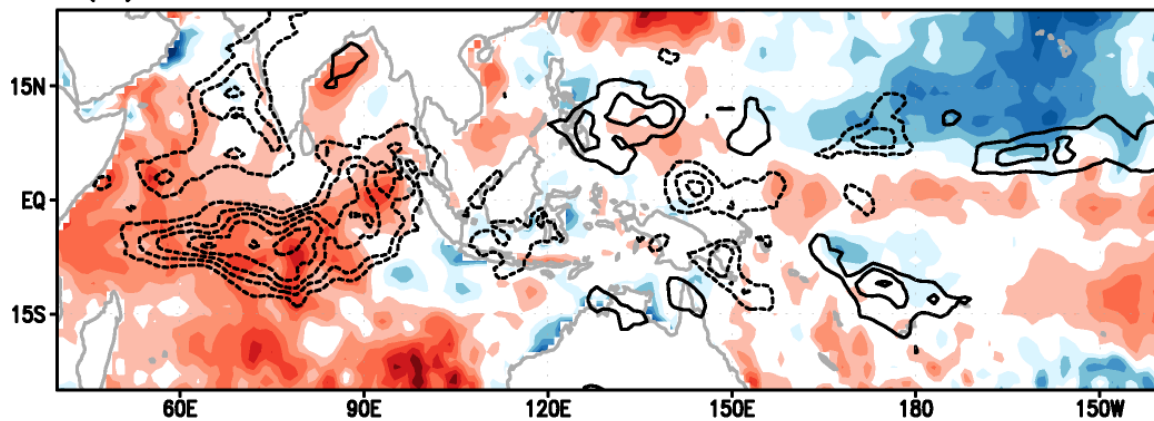
743

Predicted SST & OLR anomaly at initial state

(a) High skill

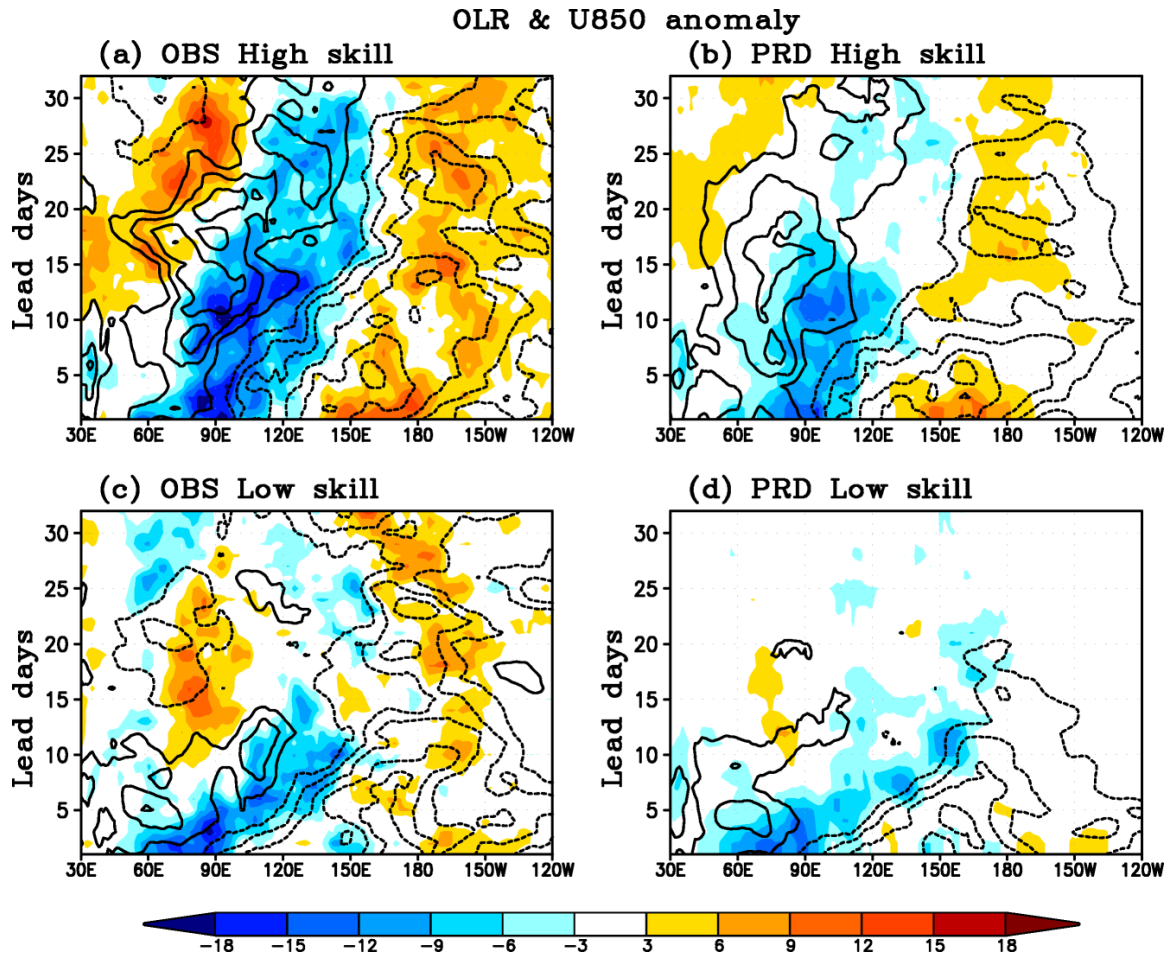


(b) Low skill



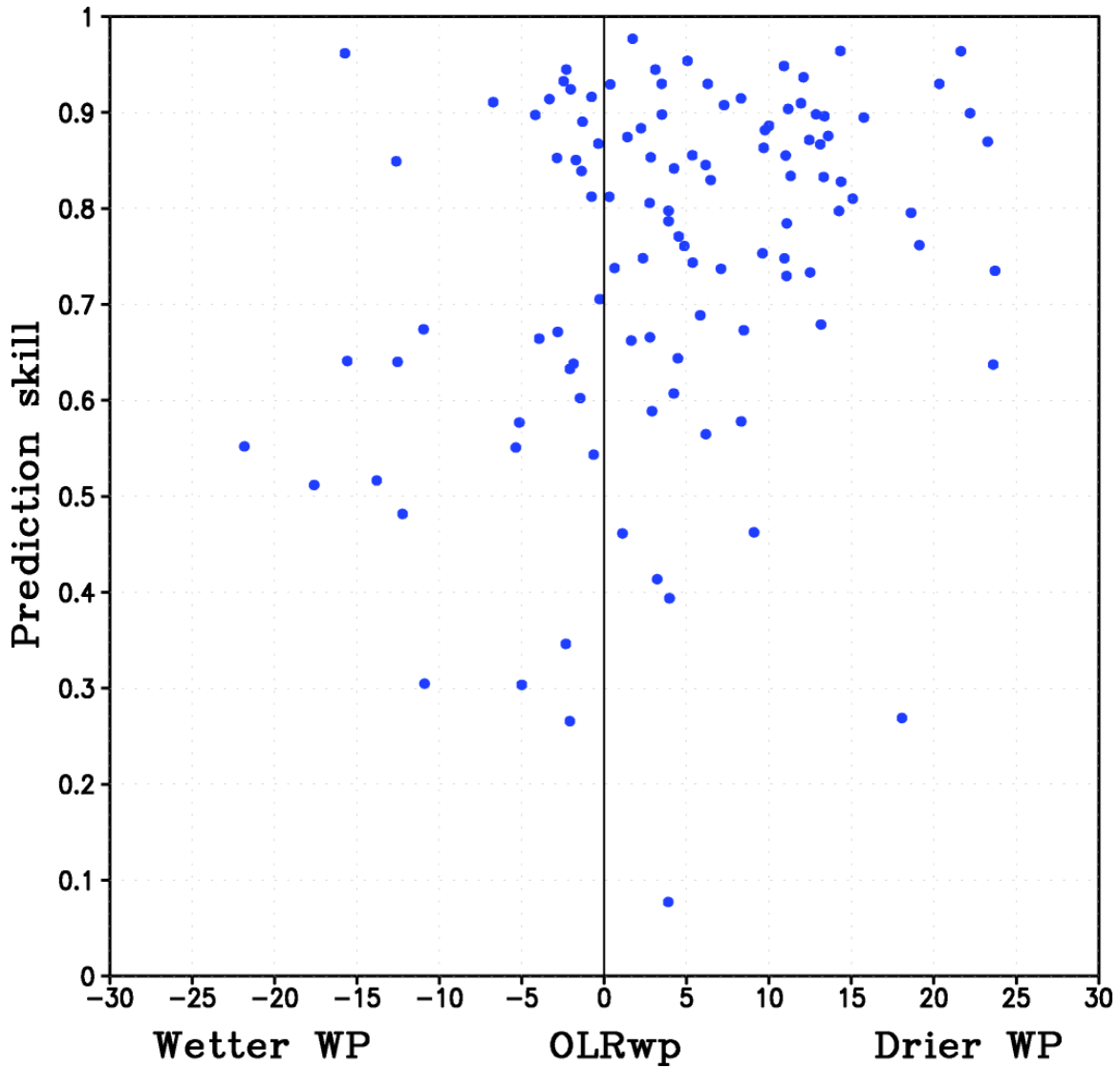
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748 from -5 to $5 \text{ W}/\text{m}^2$.



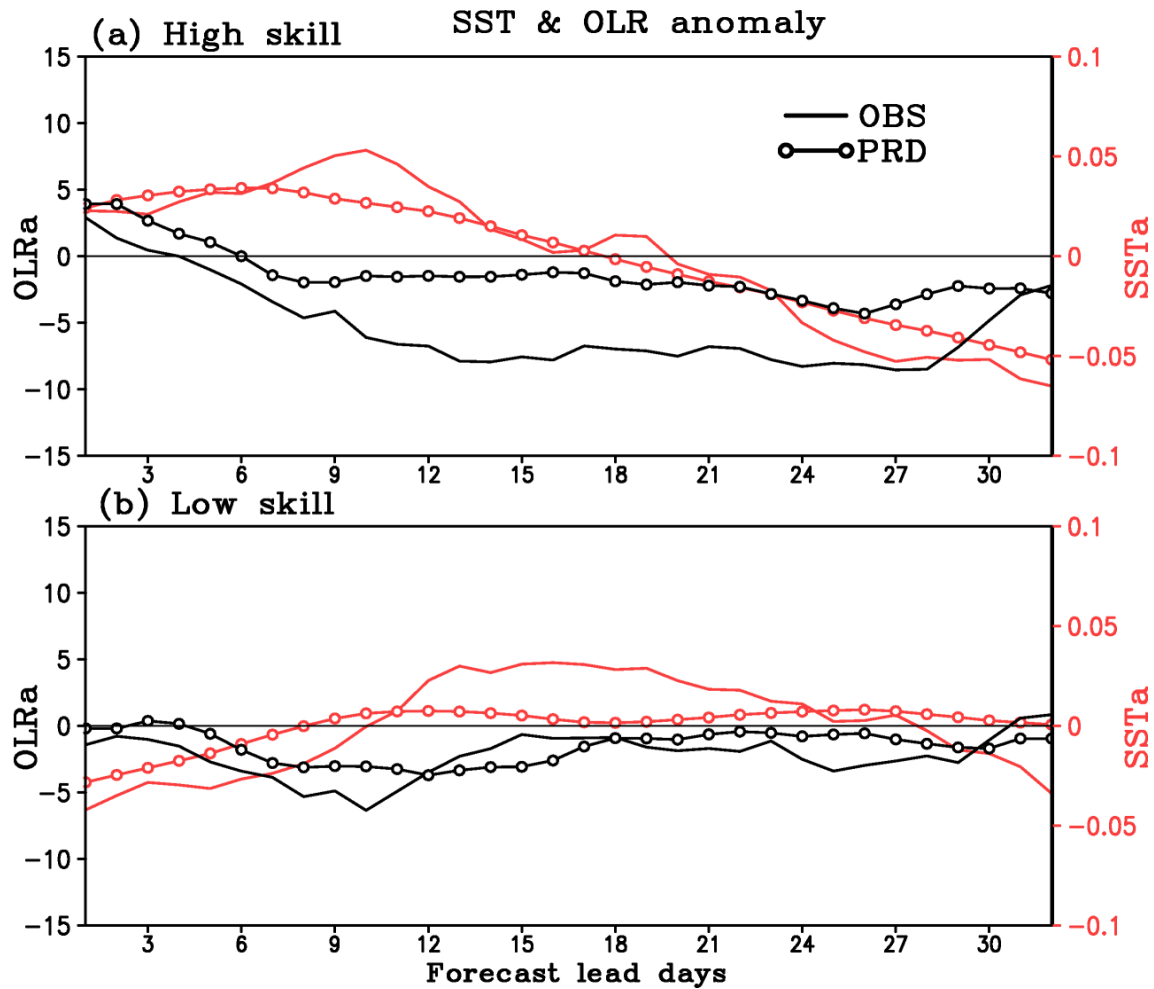
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 752 observation (left) and prediction (right). Contour interval is 0.4 m/s and zero lines are omitted.



753

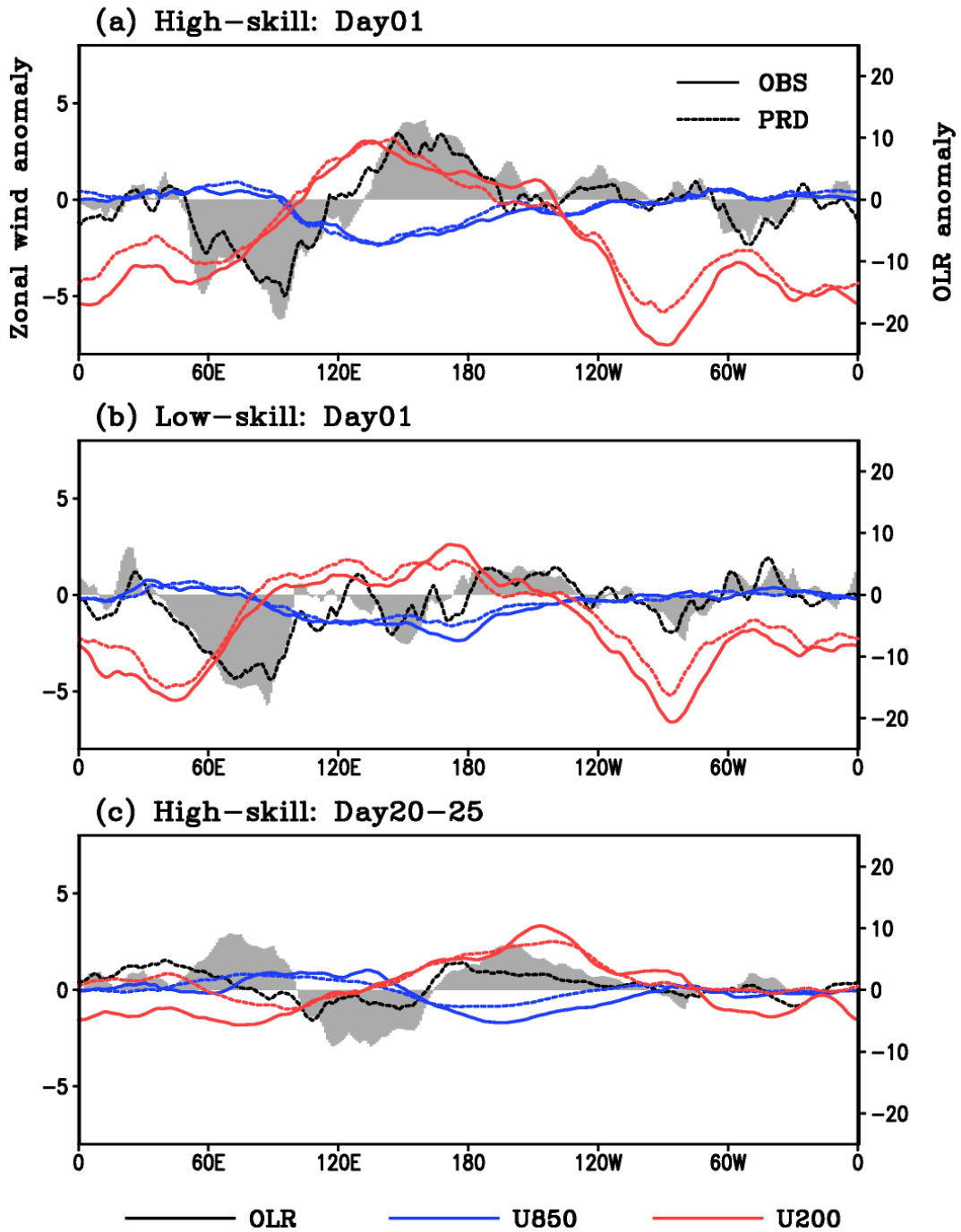
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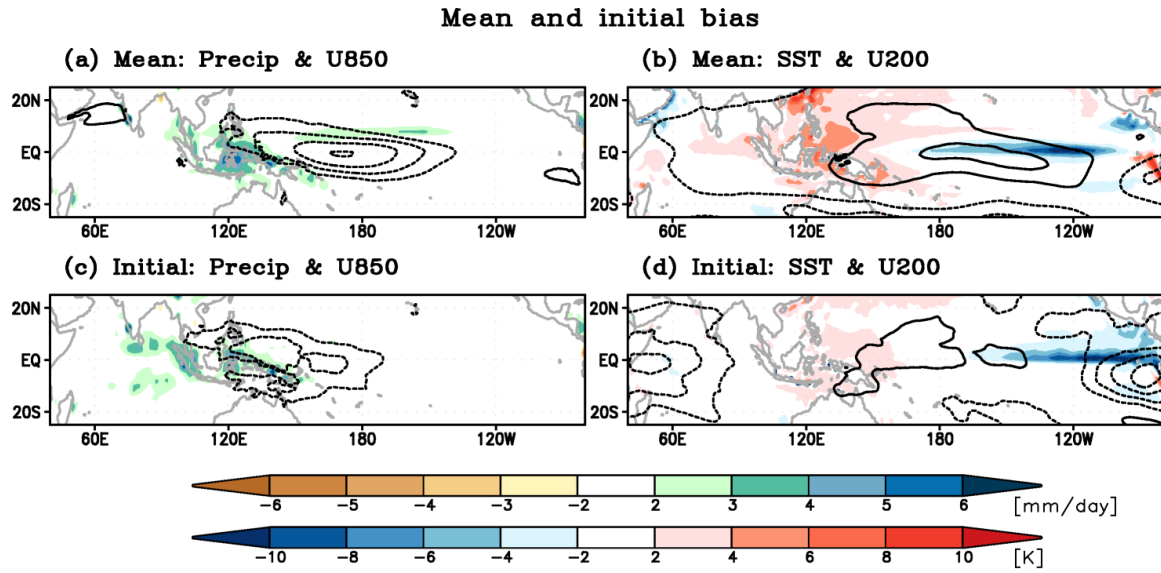
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OLR and zonal wind anomaly [10S–10N]



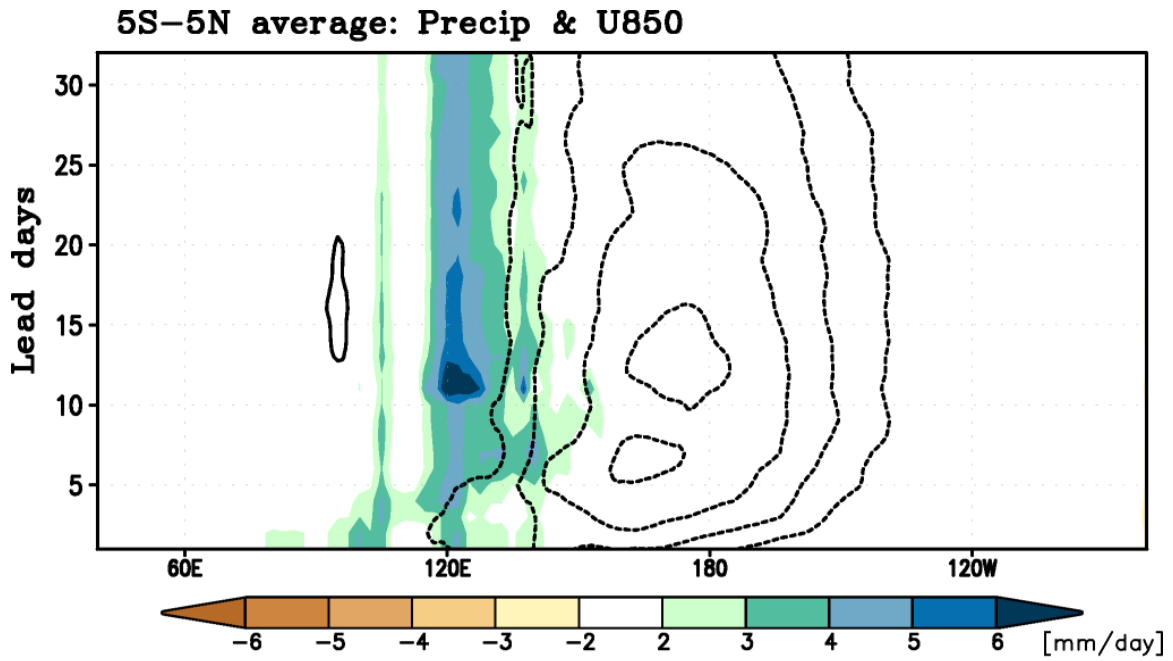
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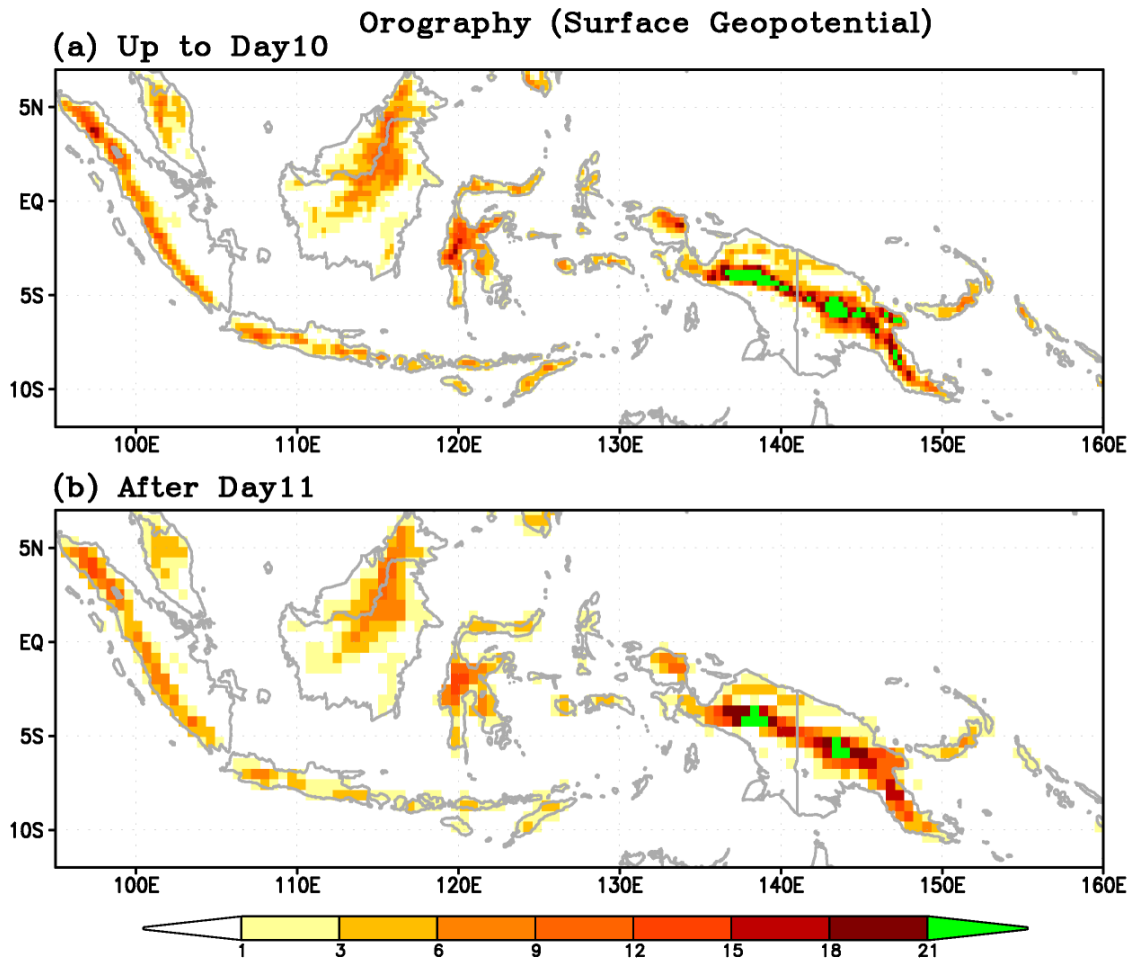
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