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1 **An Investigation of Tropical Cyclone**
2 **Development Pathways as an Indicator of**
3 **Extratropical Transition**

4 **Ishan Datt**

5 *Department of Applied Physics and Applied Mathematics,*
6 *Columbia University, New York, NY, USA*

7 **Suzana J. Camargo**

8 *Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory, Columbia University,*
9 *Palisades, NY, USA*

10 **Adam H. Sobel**

11 *Department of Applied Physics and Applied Mathematics and*
12 *Department of Earth and Environmental Sciences,*
13 *Columbia University, New York, NY, USA*

14 **Ron McTaggart-Cowan**

15 *Numerical Weather Prediction Research Section, Environment*
16 *Canada, Dorval, Québec, Canada*

17

Zhuo Wang

18

Department of Atmospheric Sciences, University of Illinois,

19

Urbana-Champaign, IL, USA

20

Corresponding author: Suzana J. Camargo, Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory,
Columbia University, 61 Rt. 9W.
E-mail: suzana@ldeo.columbia.edu

Abstract

21
22 A significant fraction of tropical cyclones develop in baroclinic environ-
23 ments, following tropical cyclogenesis “pathways” that are characterized
24 by dynamical processes often associated with higher latitudes. This study
25 investigates whether such storms are more likely to undergo subsequent ex-
26 tratropical transition than those that develop in more typical, non-baroclinic
27 environments. We consider tropical cyclones globally in the period 1979 –
28 2011 using best-track datasets, and define the genesis pathway of each storm
29 using McTaggart-Cowan’s classification: non-baroclinic, low-level baroclinic,
30 trough-induced, weak and strong tropical transition. In each basin, we an-
31 alyze the total number and the fraction of storms that underwent extra-
32 tropical transition, their seasonality, and storm tracks, according to their
33 genesis pathways. The relationship between the pathways and extratropi-
34 cal transition is statistically significant in the North Atlantic and Western
35 North Pacific, where the strong tropical transition and the trough-induced
36 pathways have a significantly greater extratropical fraction compared to all
37 other pathways, respectively. Latitude, longitude and environmental factors
38 such as sea surface temperature and vertical shear were further analyzed to
39 explore whether storms in these pathways happen to be in environments
40 conducive to extratropical transition, or whether a “memory” of the gene-
41 sis pathway persists throughout the storm life cycle. After controlling for

42 genesis latitude, the relationship between the strong tropical transition and
43 trough induced pathways, and extratropical transition occurrence remains
44 statistically significant, implying a lasting effect from the pathway on the
45 probability of an eventual extratropical transition.

46 **Keywords:** tropical cyclones; extratropical transition; cyclogenesis

47 **1. Introduction**

48 Extratropical transition (ET) is the process by which a tropical cyclone
49 transforms into an extratropical cyclone (Evans et al. 2017; Jones et al.
50 2003; Keller et al. 2019). Hurricane Sandy (2012) is a well-known re-
51 cent example of a storm that underwent ET. The devastation brought by
52 Sandy was exacerbated by the ET process, as its wind field was significantly
53 enlarged and baroclinic (i.e., extratropical) processes contributed to its in-
54 tensification (Galarneau et al. 2013). Storms that undergo ET can also
55 generate hazards further downstream, and in the case of the Atlantic, this
56 could lead to severe impacts in Europe (Sainsbury et al. 2020). Whether
57 a given storm will undergo ET at any given time depends on its internal
58 state and its large-scale environment, such that a statistical model based
59 on observable metrics of that internal state and large-scale environment can
60 predict ET with some skill (Bieli et al. 2020). Here, we ask whether the
61 physical pathway by which a storm originally formed influences its proba-
62 bility of undergoing ET.

63 Tropical cyclogenesis is the process by which a tropical cyclone forms.
64 Studies of tropical cyclogenesis typically focus on the environmental con-
65 ditions in which genesis occurs, on the dynamical and thermodynamical

66 processes by which it occurs, or both. A recent review of the processes
67 by which a tropical wave develops into a tropical cyclone can be found in
68 Emanuel (2018) . Although this tropical development pathway is the dom-
69 inant one, it is not unique in leading to the formation of tropical cyclones.
70 Mauk and Hobgood (2012) pointed out the dominant role of non-tropical
71 systems in those cases of genesis that occur over cool sea surface tempera-
72 tures. In many such cases, a strong extratropical precursor evolves into a
73 warm-core tropical cyclone, as first discussed by Davis and Bosart (2003;
74 2004) . Such cases of genesis from baroclinic precursors represent about
75 16% of global tropical cyclones (McTaggart-Cowan et al. 2013).

76 McTaggart-Cowan et al. (2008, 2013) developed a classification scheme
77 to separate the different genesis pathways, which we will apply here. The
78 five pathways are labeled as Non-Baroclinic (NB), Low-Level Baroclinic
79 (LLB), Trough-Induced (TI), Strong Tropical Transition (STT) and Weak
80 Tropical Transition (WTT). The non-baroclinic group can also be described
81 as “traditional tropical development”, and constitutes the majority of trop-
82 ical cyclones globally. Non-Baroclinic storms form in environments with
83 weak upper-level synoptic quasigeostrophic forcing for ascent and minimal
84 lower-level baroclinicity, i.e., the deep tropics and environments similar to it.
85 Non-Baroclinic storms develop along one, or a combination of multiple, of
86 the following tropical pathways: mesoscale convective vortex development,

87 hot tower spinup, vortex merger, stability profile modification and surface
88 flux enhancement Tang et al. (2020) . By contrast, low-level baroclinic
89 storms develop in areas with weak synoptic forcing but strong lower-level
90 baroclinicity. Storms in the trough-induced group form in environments of
91 strong upper-level forcing and very weak lower-level baroclinicity. Tropi-
92 cal transition refers to a process during which an asymmetric, cold-core,
93 extratropical cyclone transitions into an axisymmetric, warm-core tropical
94 cyclone (Bentley and Metz 2016). Weak tropical transition storms are ini-
95 tiated under conditions of strong synoptic forcing with medium values of
96 lower-level baroclinicity. By contrast, strong tropical transition storms are
97 initiated under conditions of strong synoptic forcing with high values of
98 lower-level baroclinicity. Fudeyasu and Yoshida (2018) also considered the
99 environmental conditions associated with different types of genesis in the
100 western North Pacific, but used different genesis categorizations than those
101 in McTaggart-Cowan et al. (2008, 2013).

102 The question we explore here is whether there is a relationship between
103 the genesis pathway by which a storm forms and the likelihood that it will
104 later undergo ET. We analyze genesis pathways, whether a storm undergoes
105 ET or not, and other storm and environmental properties to determine
106 whether such a relationship exists. We perform this analysis separately
107 in the following tropical cyclone basins: North Atlantic, Western North

108 Pacific, Eastern North Pacific, North Indian Ocean, South Indian Ocean,
109 Australian region and South Pacific.

110 This study begins with descriptions of the datasets used. Prior studies
111 by Bieli et al. (2019) and McTaggart-Cowan et al. (2013) on the global
112 climatology of ET and development pathways, respectively, have been used
113 in this analysis and are summarized in Section 2. Section 3 describes our
114 results. The study concludes with a summary and implications of our results
115 in Section 4.

116 **2. Data and Methods**

117 *2.1 Datasets*

118 The tropical cyclone best-track datasets from the National Hurricane
119 Center (North Atlantic and Eastern North Pacific) and the Joint Typhoon
120 Warning Center (Western North Pacific, North Indian Ocean and Southern
121 Hemisphere), with additional information on ET provided by Bieli et al.
122 (2019), are used here. The best-track datasets include all tropical cyclones
123 from the period 1979–2017 with lifetime maximum wind speed greater than
124 35 kt. Parameters used from the best-track datasets include basin, as well
125 as date, time, longitude and latitude coordinates, and wind speed for all
126 6-hourly snapshots throughout the duration of each storm. Boundaries for

127 each basin are listed in Table 1. Additionally, we consider the ET marker
128 and ET date/hour from Bieli et al. (2019). The ET marker is 0 if the storm
129 did not undergo ET or 1 if the storm did undergo ET. The classification of
130 a storm as ET or non-ET is based on the cyclone phase space, developed
131 by Hart (2003) and modified by Bieli et al. (2019).

Table 1

132 Bieli et al. (2019) found that ET fractions vary substantially between
133 the seven different basins with the highest ET fractions occurring in the
134 North Atlantic and Western North Pacific while the North Indian Ocean
135 had the lowest. Furthermore, in the Southern Hemisphere the ET seasonal
136 cycle varies much less than in the Northern Hemisphere (Bieli et al. 2019).

137 The third dataset used for this study was created by McTaggart-Cowan
138 et al. (2013). This dataset contains a classification of tropical storm de-
139 velopment pathways for the period 1948–2011. Storms are classified into
140 the five cyclogenesis pathways discussed earlier (McTaggart-Cowan et al.
141 2013). To develop this classification scheme, many parameters were exam-
142 ined for the following three criteria: representation of the synoptic-scale
143 near-storm environment, dynamic significance with respect to the theories
144 of tropical cyclogenesis, and differences in structure, evolution, or inten-
145 sity for the different types of tropical cyclogenesis identified by theoretical
146 models (McTaggart-Cowan et al. 2008). Based on these criteria, the follow-
147 ing two parameters were selected as the basis for pathway classification: Q

148 – representing mean upper-level quasi-nondivergent Q-vector convergence
149 and Th – representing lower level thickness asymmetry. The mean upper-
150 level Q-vector convergence is defined as the average convergence of the 400
151 - 200 hPa Q-vector field within a 6° radius of the storm center (McTaggart-
152 Cowan et al. 2008). The lower-level thickness asymmetry is defined as the
153 maximum difference in the mean hemispheric (semicircle) 1000 - 700 hPa
154 thickness values within 10° of the storm center on the dial plots, normalized
155 by the mean thickness in the same area (McTaggart-Cowan et al. 2008).
156 Each pathway represents a combination of a low, medium or high metric
157 value of the Q and Th parameters (McTaggart-Cowan et al. 2008). The
158 pathway classification is a unique parameter as only data from the evolution
159 of the near-vortex environment from the 36 hour period leading up to the
160 time of the initial storm report in the best track record is used to classify
161 the storms (McTaggart-Cowan et al. 2008).

162 We combined the ET flag from Bieli et al. (2019) and the storm devel-
163 opment pathway classification from McTaggart-Cowan et al. (2013) with
164 the best-track datasets. Only the period 1979 - 2011 was used in our analy-
165 sis, since this is the common period of all datasets. Currently classification
166 of storms by pathway after 2012 is unavailable, due to data and script losses
167 of the original files that generated the pathway classification dataset. The
168 resulting combined dataset includes the storm ID, ET marker and storm de-

169 velopment pathway classification, along with all standard best-track dataset
170 parameters.

171 *2.2 ET Fraction Statistical Analysis*

172 A statistical analysis was performed to determine if storms in a given
173 pathway have a higher probability of undergoing ET. We define “ET Frac-
174 tion” as the number of storms that undergo ET divided by the total number
175 of storms in a sample. Storms were sorted by basin and pathway to compare
176 the ET fraction of all storms in the pathway against the ET fraction of all
177 other storms in the basin.

178 A Monte Carlo simulation was performed to determine whether a given
179 pathway’s ET fraction was statistically significantly different from the other
180 pathways in the same basin. The bootstrapping was performed by sampling
181 the probability distributions of ET and non-ET storms. The pathway of
182 interest was not included in the sampling for random draws. One thousand
183 sets of n synthetic storms were randomly generated, where n is the number
184 of actual observed storms in the genesis pathway of interest in the given
185 basin. Each synthetic storm was labeled with either a 0 for non-ET or 1 for
186 ET. Values of 1 were assigned randomly, but with a probability equal to the
187 ET fraction of the set of storms in the basin that formed via all other genesis
188 pathways other than the one of interest. In each of these 1000 sets, the ET

189 fraction was calculated. By construction, the average of these 1000 synthetic
190 ET fractions will be equal to the ET fraction of the storms in the combined
191 set of all other pathways, but the individual values differ because n is finite
192 (and fairly small in some cases). If a development pathway had an ET
193 fraction greater than the 95th percentile or smaller than the 5th percentile
194 of generated ET fractions, it was determined that the ET fraction of storms
195 in the pathway was statistically significantly distinct from that of the other
196 pathways with a confidence level greater than 95 percent. This statistical
197 analysis was performed for all basins and development pathways.

198 *2.3 Environmental Statistical Analysis*

199 A statistical analysis was performed on the distributions of latitude,
200 longitude, sea surface temperature and vertical shear to determine the sim-
201 ilarity of the environmental conditions in the different pathways. Daily
202 environmental data for winds and sea surface temperature from the ERA-
203 Interim reanalysis at the day and location of the storm genesis and life-time
204 maximum intensity were analyzed (Dee et al. 2011). The horizontal grid
205 spacing of the ERA-Interim data is approximately 80 km.

206 The vertical wind shear is defined as the magnitude of the difference
207 between the vector winds at 850 and 200 hPa. The sea surface temperature
208 and vertical shear values used in the final analysis were calculated by averag-

209 ing vertical shear and sea surface temperature data within a 500 km radius
210 of the storm. We use the simple area average since we are looking only at
211 the genesis phase of the storm life cycle, when the circulation's impact on
212 deep layer shear could reasonably be expected to be quite small.

213 Distributions of latitude, longitude, sea surface temperature and vertical
214 shear at the times the storms first reached 35 kt wind speed were examined
215 for all pathways. The environmental variable analysis was also performed
216 at the point of maximum intensity for all storms. The results from the
217 latter will not be shown here because they were similar to those obtained
218 at genesis.

219 The distributions were analyzed using boxplots to facilitate comparisons
220 across multiple different pathways and to identify key summary statistics
221 such as median, mean and interquartile range. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov
222 test was utilized to test if storms in the examined pathways have statis-
223 tically significant distinct latitude, longitude, sea surface temperature and
224 vertical shear distributions than those from all other storms in that basin.
225 The Komogorov-Smirnov test is designed to identify difference in distribu-
226 tions rather than simply difference in means. This is done by measuring
227 the supremum of the set of distances between the cumulative distribution
228 functions of the two samples. The p-values were calculated and the signifi-
229 cance level was set to be .05. If the p-value of a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test

230 was less than .05, the distributions were labeled as significantly distinct.

231 **3. Results**

232 In sections 3.1 and 3.2, we present statistics for all basins on the genesis
233 locations and tracks of storms, stratified by genesis pathway and associated
234 ET fractions. Based on these results, the subsequent sections focus on the
235 North Atlantic and Western North Pacific basins.

236 *3.1 Genesis Locations and Tracks*

237 Tropical cyclogenesis locations for all pathways are shown in Figure 1,
238 defined as the location at which a storm first reaches 35 kt wind speed.
239 There is a spatial separation between the mean development locations of
240 storms in the baroclinic pathways LLB, STT, TI and WTT (Table 2). The
241 average genesis latitude of NB storms is 11.6° from the equator while STT
242 and WTT storms form on average 23.5° and 18.9° away from the equator,
243 respectively (Table 2). The average genesis latitude of storms in the LLB
244 pathway is 13.8°N and the average genesis latitude of storms in the TI
245 pathway is 15.7°N (Table 2). When considering individual pathways, a
246 key observation is that a majority (57.0%) of STT storms are located in
247 the North Atlantic. This contrasts with the TI pathway where a majority
248 (64.2%) of storms are located in the Western North Pacific.

Fig. 1

Table 2

249 Globally, storms generally form at least a few degrees away from the
250 equator and then move poleward, reaching as high as 60°N in the Northern
251 Hemisphere (Figure 2). The total meridional displacements of storms that
252 undergo ET tend to be much larger than those of non-ET storms, primarily
253 because of rapid eastward accelerations after recurvature (Figure 2). The
254 latitude span of ET storm tracks also tends to be much longer than those of
255 non-ET storms (Figure 2). In the North Atlantic, many storms follow the
256 coastline of the United States and then recurve eastward under the influ-
257 ence of the midlatitude baroclinic westerlies (Kossin et al. 2010). On rare
258 occasions, these storms even make landfall in western Europe (Sainsbury
259 et al. 2020). Similarly, TI pathway storms in the Western North Pacific
260 tend to move towards the northwest, with many making landfall in east Asia
261 (Figure 2). LLB storms are generally concentrated in the North Atlantic
262 and Australian region basin, following a similar curvature to STT storms in
263 the North Atlantic (Figure 2). WTT pathway storms are concentrated in
264 the North Atlantic and Western North Pacific. The WTT pathway contains
265 the second largest sample size of storms in the North Atlantic, being second
266 only to the NB pathway (Figure 2).

Fig. 2

267 *3.2 ET Fractions*

268 The number and percentage of ET and non-ET tropical cyclones were
269 calculated by pathway for each basin (Figures 3 and 4, respectively). The
270 global ET fraction ranges from 34.7% to 45.5% for storms for the LLB, NB,
271 TI and WTT pathways (Table 2). However, the STT pathway’s global ET
272 fraction is 64.0% (Table 2). This is the only pathway where a majority of
273 storms undergo ET globally due to a high STT ET fraction (79.5%) in the
274 North Atlantic (Table 3). The NB, TI and STT pathways have statistically
275 significant distinct global ET fractions when compared with all other storms,
276 with a confidence level greater than 95% (Table 3).

Fig. 3

277 In the North Atlantic, there are large ET fraction differences between
278 pathways, with the LLB and STT pathways in particular standing out. The
279 most striking case in the North Atlantic basin is the STT pathway where
280 79.5% of storms undergo ET, statistically significant distinct from the other
281 pathways at the 99.9% level (Figure 4).

Fig. 4

Table 3

282 The Western North Pacific basin also shows large differences between
283 the ET fraction of the STT, TI, WTT pathways and all other storms in the
284 basin. In particular, the TI pathway has an ET fraction of 55.3% while the
285 ET fraction of all other storms is 43.8%, a statistically significant difference
286 with a confidence level greater than 95% (Figure 4). This, combined with
287 the large number of storms in the Western North Pacific explains the high

288 global ET fraction of TI storms (45.5%).

289 No ET fractions of pathways in any basin other than the North Atlantic
290 or Western North Pacific are significantly different from the others. The lack
291 of significance for the STT pathway, in particular, in basins other than the
292 North Atlantic is likely due to the small sample size of STT storms in other
293 basins. The other six basins have fewer than 15 STT storms per basin. The
294 remainder of this study focuses on the North Atlantic and Western North
295 Pacific, as these basins contain pathways (STT and TI, respectively) with
296 ET fractions which are statistically significantly distinct from those of the
297 other pathways. Although the ET fractions of NB storms in the Australian,
298 Eastern North Pacific and North Atlantic basin are also statistically signif-
299 icant, focus for the study was on pathways other than the NB pathway, as
300 the NB pathway represents traditional tropical development.

301 *3.3 Seasonality*

302 In the North Atlantic (Figure 5), the average number of storms occurring
303 in a given month, per year, peaks in the months of August and September,
304 with most storms occurring in the period of June to November. The ET
305 fraction increases from 47.0% to 60.0% from June to November (Figure 5).
306 The STT pathway ET fraction is 77% in September and 86% in October
307 (Figure 5).

Fig. 5

308 For the Western North Pacific (Figure 6), while there is a peak season
309 between July and October, the TCs form year around, with a minimum in
310 February. The maximum number of storms occurs in August and Septem-
311 ber, similar to the the North Atlantic, but the annual cycle is flatter than
312 that of the North Atlantic (Figure 6). This is a well-known feature of this
313 basin as the storms are relatively more frequent in the months before and
314 after the peak season than in the case of the North Atlantic (see e.g. Ca-
315 margo et al. 2007). The ET fraction of all storms in the Western North
316 Pacific fluctuates between 40.0% and 55.0% (Figure 6). The ET fraction
317 of TI storms ranges from 48.0% to 63.0% during the months of June to
318 October (Figure 6).

Fig. 6

319 3.4 *Environmental Parameters*

320 To better understand why ET fractions were higher for the STT and
321 TI pathways in the North Atlantic and the Western North Pacific, the
322 relationship between environmental variables and high ET fractions was
323 analyzed. Environmental variables were tested to determine if storms in
324 these pathways have environmental conditions that are more conducive to
325 ET. The variables were selected based on the results in Bieli et al. (2019),
326 who showed that latitude and sea surface temperature (SST) are the most
327 important variables for prediction of ET. We also considered longitude and

328 vertical shear in our analysis. Longitude was considered due to the observed
329 longitudinal structure in the seasonal climatology. For each storm, the
330 environmental variables are considered at the genesis location (first time in
331 which the storm reaches a wind speed of 35 kt).

332 In the North Atlantic, storms in the STT pathway have a median gen-
333 esis latitude of 27.2°N, the highest median latitude value of any pathway
334 (Figure 7a). For instance non-baroclinic storms have a median latitude of
335 13.4°N. The interquartile range of the storm latitudes for the STT path-
336 way is 7.2 degrees (Figure 7a). The median genesis longitude for the STT
337 pathway is 296°E, which lies in the center of all pathways (Figure 7b). The
338 median sea surface temperature of STT storms in the North Atlantic is
339 300.1K which is the lowest median sea surface temperature of any pathway
340 in the North Atlantic (Figure 7c). The interquartile range of sea surface
341 temperature for STT storms is 2.7K (Figure 7c). In contrast, storms in
342 the TI pathway have the highest median sea surface temperature at 302.1K
343 (Figure 7c). Storms in the STT pathway have a median vertical shear of
344 10.5 m s^{-1} which is the highest value of any pathway in the North Atlantic
345 (Figure 7d).

Fig. 7

346 In the Western North Pacific, the median genesis latitude for TI storms
347 is 15.6°N (Figure 8a). TI storms have the largest latitude interquartile
348 range of 8.5 degrees (Figure 8a). Although the median genesis latitude

349 for TI storms is roughly in the middle of the different pathways, the large
350 number of NB storms skews the latitude distribution of all other storms
351 lower. This is further investigated in Figure 10a, to test if the latitude
352 distribution of TI storms is different from the latitude distribution of all
353 other storms collectively in the Western North Pacific. The median genesis
354 longitude for TI storms is 137.5°E (Figure 8b). Most pathways have median
355 longitudes around 135°E (Figure 8b). The median sea surface temperature
356 for Western North Pacific storms in all pathways ranges from 301.9K to
357 302.4K (Figure 8c). Additionally, the median vertical shear for the TI
358 pathway is 7.1 m s^{-1} (Figure 8d). This is relatively close to the values for the
359 LLB, NB and WTT pathways which all have median vertical shears between
360 7.0 to 7.8 m s^{-1} (Figure 8d). The environmental variable distributions of TI
361 storms were further compared to the collective non-TI storm distributions,
362 to better account for variations in sample size between pathways. This
363 analysis was done in Figure 10.

Fig. 8

364 In the North Atlantic, the distributions of environmental parameters of
365 STT and TI storms were compared to the distributions of all other path-
366 ways (Figure 9). The distribution of genesis latitude for STT storms is
367 skewed towards higher values, with most of the storm genesis latitudes be-
368 tween 22°N to 35°N (Figure 9a). In contrast, the latitude distribution for
369 all other storms in the North Atlantic is heavily skewed towards lower lat-

370 itudes, with ranges between 10°N to 17°N (Figure 9a). This difference in
371 latitude distributions is statistically significant (Table 4). There is no statis-
372 tically significant difference between the longitude distribution of the STT
373 pathway compared to all other pathways. However, there is a statistically
374 significant difference in the longitude distribution of storms in the TI path-
375 way compared to all other cases. The vertical shear distribution for STT
376 storms is the only distribution that contains storms with a vertical shear
377 greater than 21 m s⁻¹ (Figure 9d). In the North Atlantic, latitude, sea
378 surface temperature and vertical shear distributions are all distinct for the
379 STT pathway.

Fig. 9

Table 4

380 In the Western North Pacific, the distributions of environmental param-
381 eters of TI storms were compared to the distributions for all other storms
382 (Figure 10). The STT storm distribution was not compared to the distribu-
383 tion of all other storms due to a low sample size of STT storms in that basin.
384 The latitude distribution of TI storms is roughly normally distributed about
385 16°N whereas the latitude distribution of all other storms is skewed towards
386 lower latitude values (Figure 10a). The difference in distributions is more
387 evident in Figure 10a over Figure 8a, as the collective distribution of storms
388 better represents the differences in sample sizes between pathways. This
389 difference in distributions is statistically significant (Table 4). The distribu-
390 tions of longitude, sea surface temperature and vertical shear for TI storms

391 and all other storms are not statistically different (Table 4).

Fig. 10

392 In examining the relationship between latitude and longitude of STT
393 storms in the North Atlantic, there is a visible cluster of storms in the
394 upper region of the scatter plot in Figure 11a, indicating that STT storms
395 cluster around higher latitudes. Similarly, the relationship of latitude and
396 sea surface temperature also has a cluster in the upper middle area of the
397 scatter plot, showing that high latitude STT storms have lower sea surface
398 temperatures than storms in other pathways (Figure 11b). The latitude
399 and vertical shear scatter plot indicates a tendency for STT storms to have
400 both higher latitudes and higher vertical shear (Figure 11c).

Fig. 11

401 In the Western North Pacific, there do not seem to be any significant
402 clusters, when looking at multiple variables, for TI or STT storms. (Fig-
403 ure 12). The relationship between latitude and longitude, latitude and sea
404 surface temperature, and latitude and vertical shear is very similar for TI
405 storms compared to all other storms (Figure 12). Although the latitude
406 distribution alone is significantly different for TI storms in the WNP, the
407 other tested environmental variables do not show environmental differences
408 for TI storms. This result is different from the North Atlantic, where many
409 parameters are distinct from other pathways.

Fig. 12

410 Since latitude distributions were shown to be statistically significantly
411 distinct between STT and non-STT storms in the North Atlantic, and be-

412 tween TI and non-TI storms in the Western North Pacific, further analysis
413 was performed to control for latitude effects (Table 5 and 6). To eliminate
414 latitude effects, our prior statistical analysis comparing ET fractions was
415 conditioned on latitude bands. In the North Atlantic and Western North
416 Pacific, storms were separated by latitude into 5° bands. A statistical test
417 was performed only if the number of storms in a given latitude band was
418 greater than 10. In the North Atlantic, the STT ET fraction was com-
419 pared to the non-STT ET fraction in each latitude band. The difference in
420 ET fractions was determined to be statistically significantly different in the
421 20°N - 25°N and the 25°N - 30°N latitude bands (Table 5), where there is a
422 higher number of TI storms. In the Western North Pacific, the TI ET frac-
423 tion was compared to the non-TI ET fraction in each latitude band. The
424 difference in ET fractions was determined to be statistically significantly
425 distinct in the 10°N - 15°N and the 15°N - 20°N latitude bands (Table 6).

426 This result shows that with no statistical difference between distribu-
427 tions of longitude, sea surface temperature, vertical shear parameters, and
428 a control for latitude, the ET fraction is still statistically significantly dis-
429 tinct in the TI pathway. This particular set of storms is quite interesting
430 due to the lack of distinguishability by any tested factor other than path-
431 way. Including this information should therefore improve the skill of any
432 predictive statistical model of ET likelihood in the basin.

Table 5

Table 6

433 4. Conclusions

434 This paper investigates whether the physical pathway by which a tropical
435 cyclone forms has any impact on its probability of undergoing ET later in its
436 life. There are some pathways that have statistically significant differences
437 from other pathways when analyzing storms globally and in the Western
438 North Pacific and North Atlantic basins, the two basins containing the most
439 ET storms. The ET fraction of strong tropical transition (STT) storms in
440 the North Atlantic is statistically significantly higher than the ET fraction
441 of all other storms in the North Atlantic. In the Western North Pacific,
442 the ET fraction of trough induced (TI) storms is statistically significantly
443 higher than the ET fraction of all other storms in that basin.

444 By controlling for formation latitude, we have demonstrated that the
445 explanation for this relationship does not reduce to the trivial observation
446 that TCs that originate closer to the midlatitudes are more likely to inter-
447 act with the baroclinic westerlies. In the North Atlantic, differences in the
448 STT storm development environment may have a long-lasting effect on TC
449 structure, thereby preconditioning the storm for subsequent ET. An anal-
450 ysis of environmental parameter and storm structural evolution would be
451 required to determine if this is the case.

452 In the Western North Pacific the lack of distinguishing environmental pa-
453 rameters for TI storms is equally interesting. The eastward-moving tropical

454 upper tropospheric troughs that typically establish these TC development
455 environments have little direct relationship with the westerly troughs asso-
456 ciated with ET. Despite this clear separation, TCs that follow this develop-
457 ment pathway are more likely to undergo ET. The structures and processes
458 within the system that are responsible for such apparent “memory” have not
459 been identified. Future investigations of pathway-specific composite storm
460 structural evolution might help to determine the mechanisms involved.

461 The non-trivial relationship between storm formation pathway and ET
462 implies a level of intrinsic predictability in the life cycle of baroclinically
463 influenced TCs whose source is still unclear. Investigation of this source has
464 the potential to enhance our understanding of TC-environment interactions
465 and the persistence of information within the system. Once identified, such
466 information could be exploited to increase the practical predictability of ET.
467 Such an enhancement in forecast skill could be of benefit to the broad range
468 of weather and climate studies that investigate complex TC life cycles.

469 **Data Availability Statement**

470 The ERA-Interim reanalysis is available at [https://www.ecmwf.int/](https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/datasets/reanalysis-datasets/era-interim)
471 [en/forecasts/datasets/reanalysis-datasets/era-interim](https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/datasets/reanalysis-datasets/era-interim). The best-
472 track datasets from National Hurricane Center are available at [https://](https://www.nhc.noaa.gov/data/)
473 www.nhc.noaa.gov/data/. The Joint-Typhoon Warning Center best-track

474 datasets are available at <https://www.metoc.navy.mil/jtwc/jtwc.html>.
475 The new global dataset generated and analyzed in this study, combining
476 the best-track datasets and labels from McTaggart-Cowan et al. (2013) and
477 Bieli et al (2019), is available at Columbia University Academic Commons
478 (<https://academiccommons.columbia.edu/doi/10.7916/vpwx-tx12>, Datt
479 et al. 2022) .

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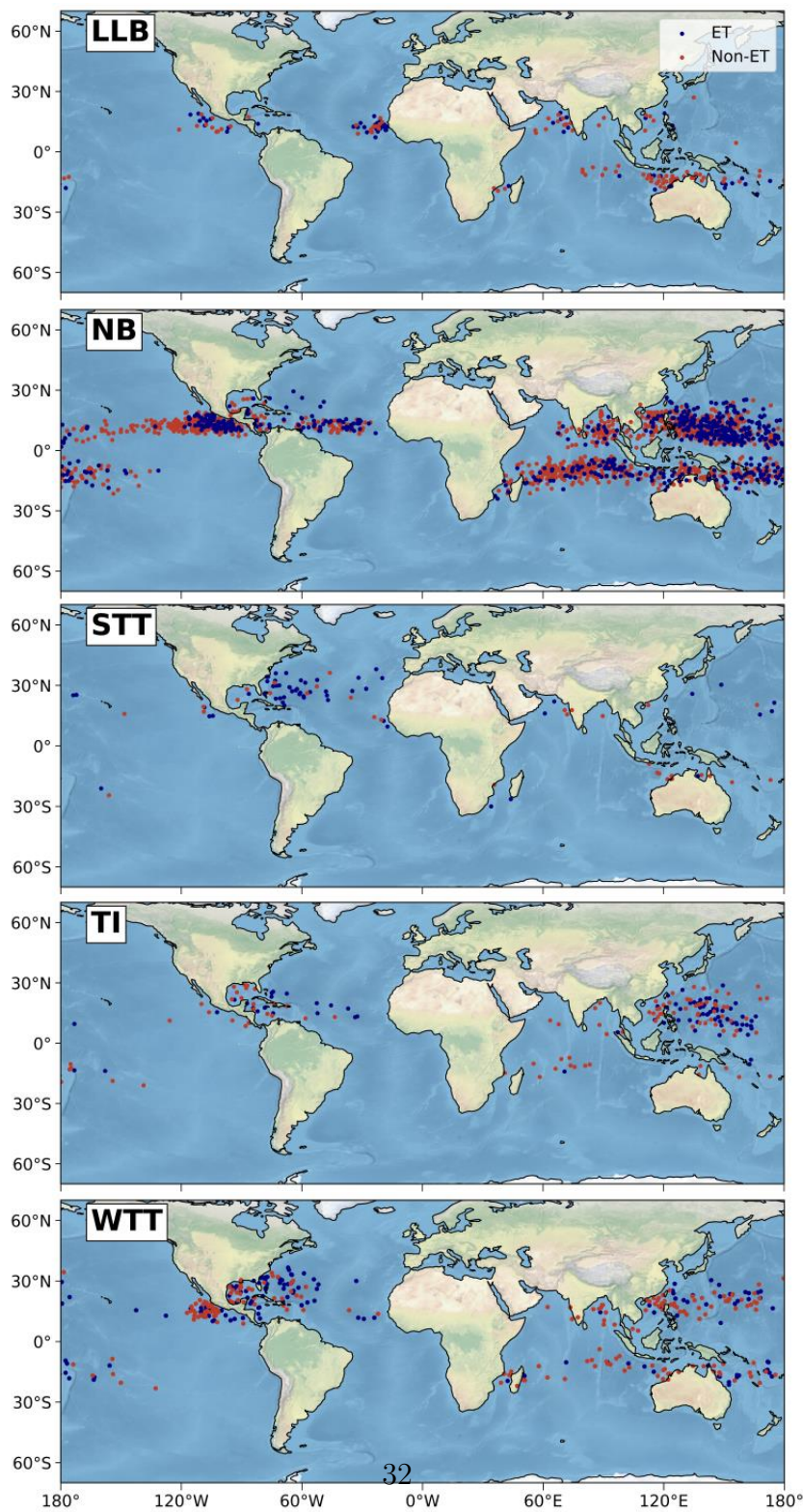


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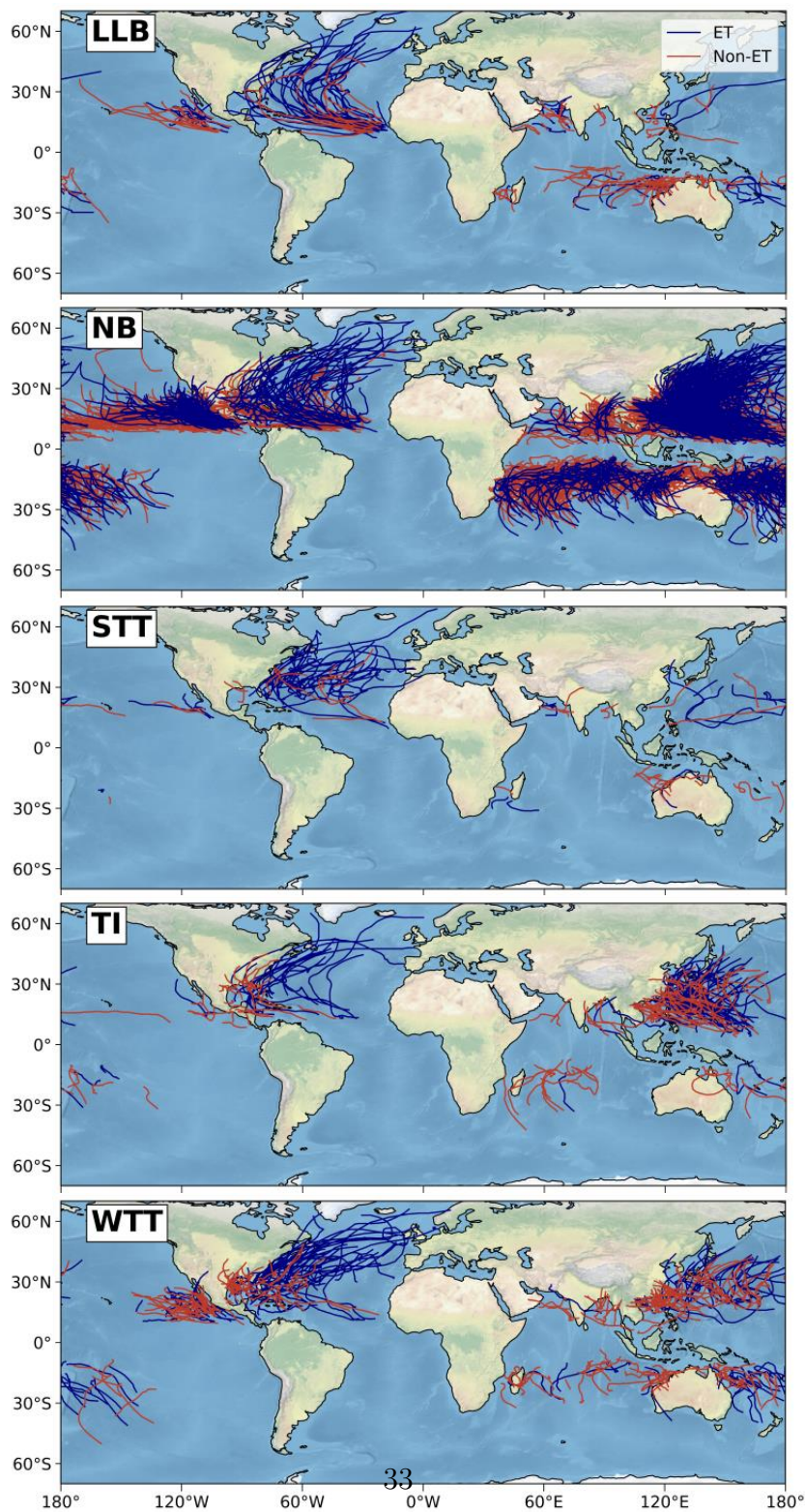


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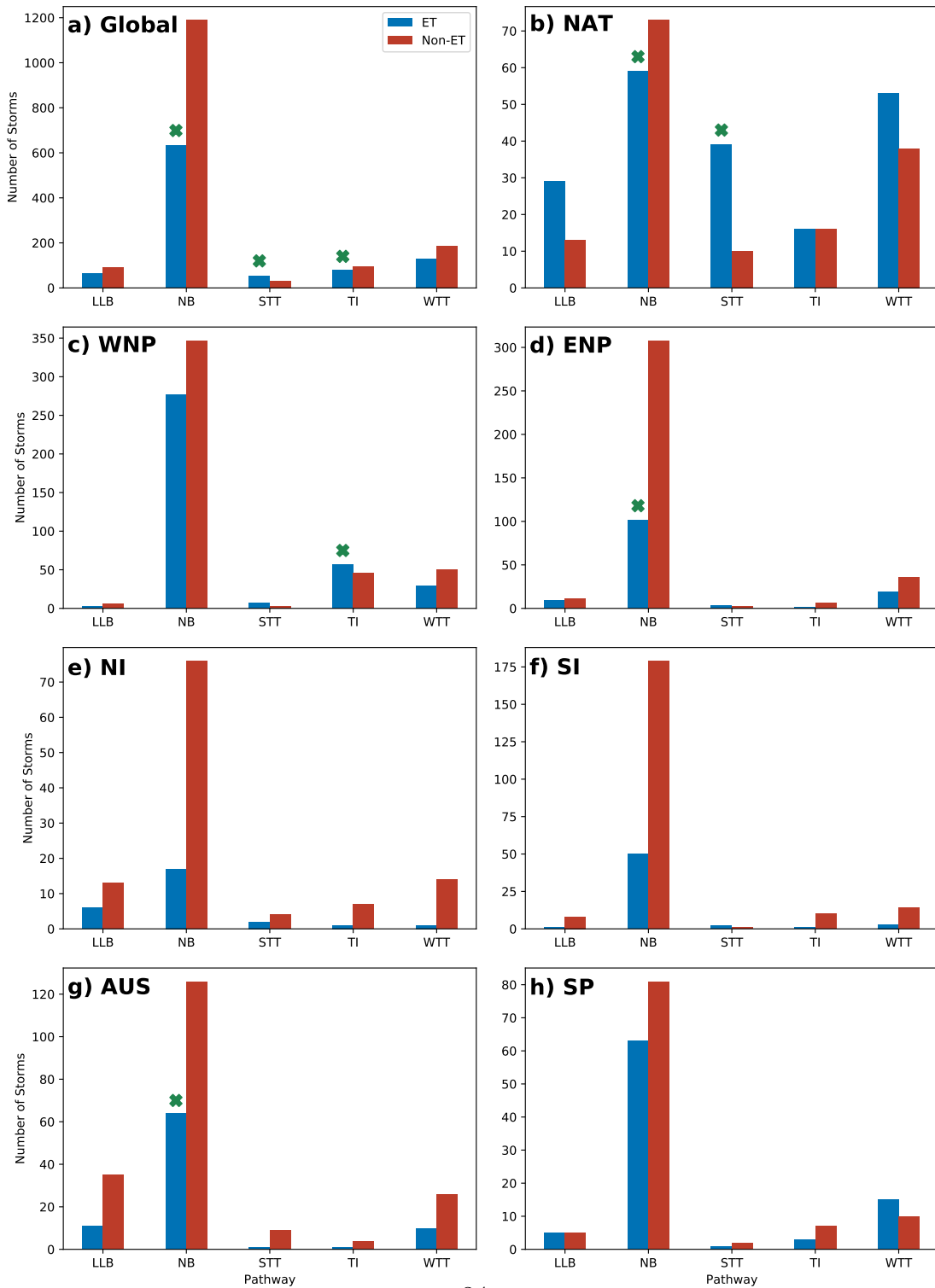


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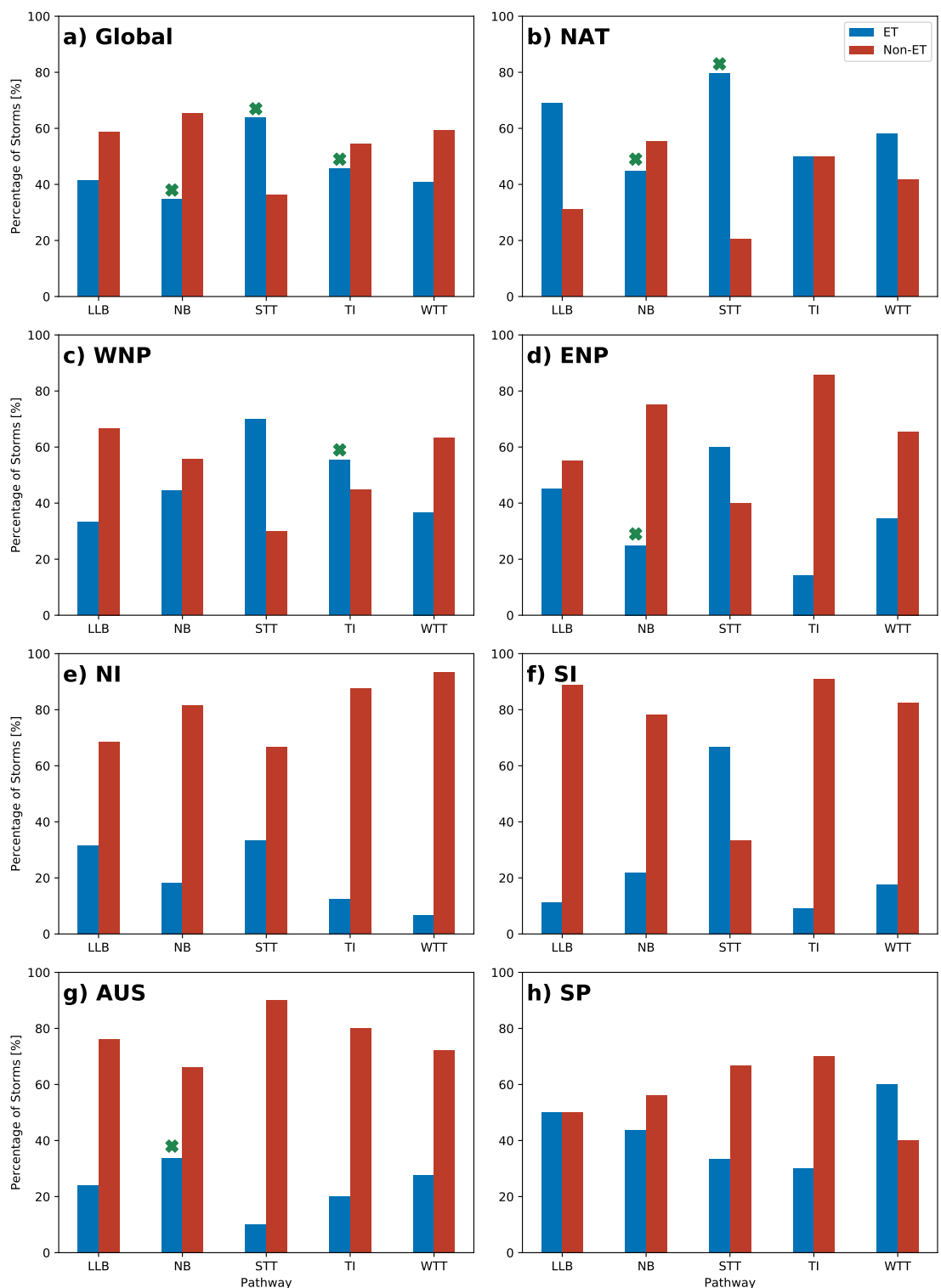


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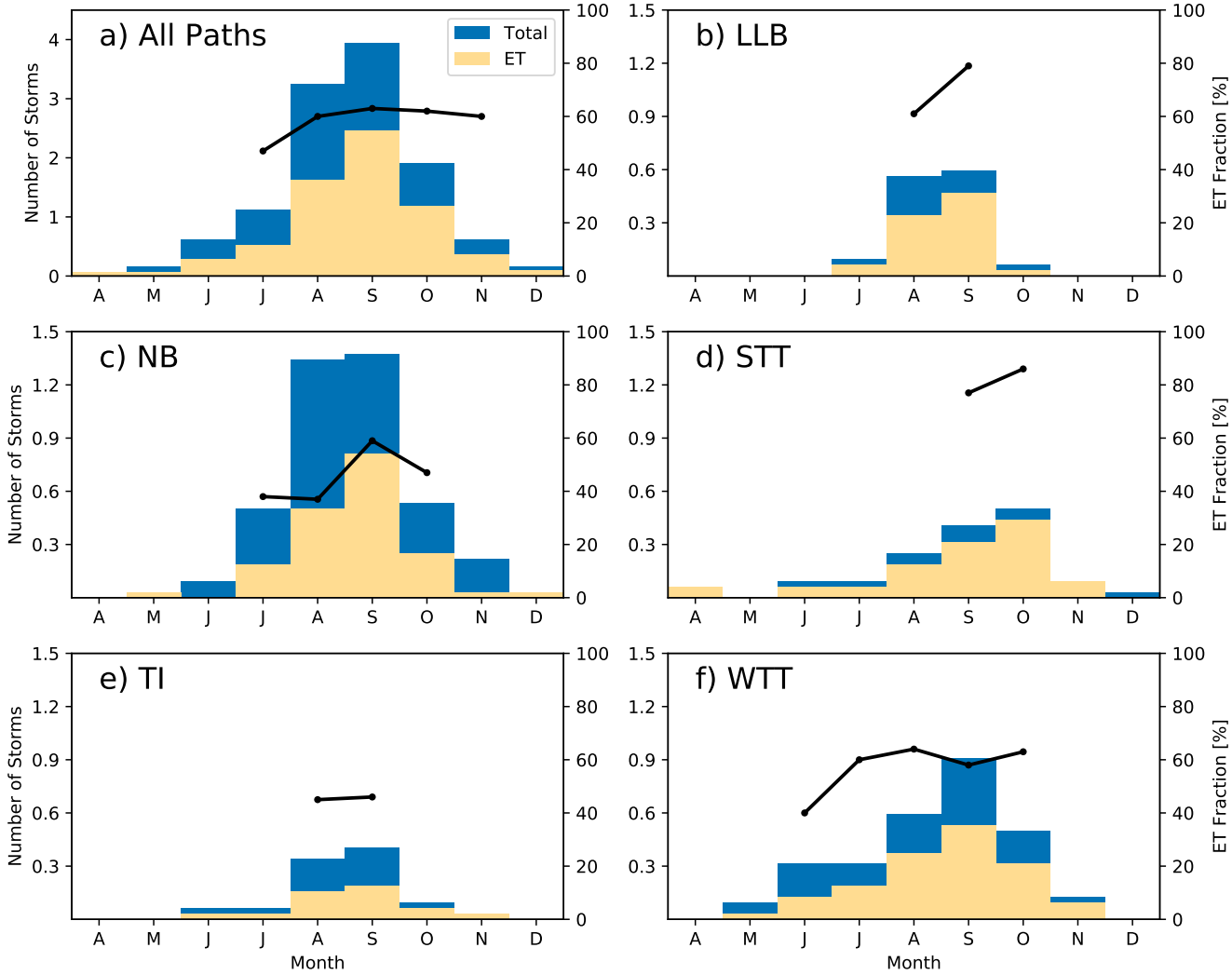


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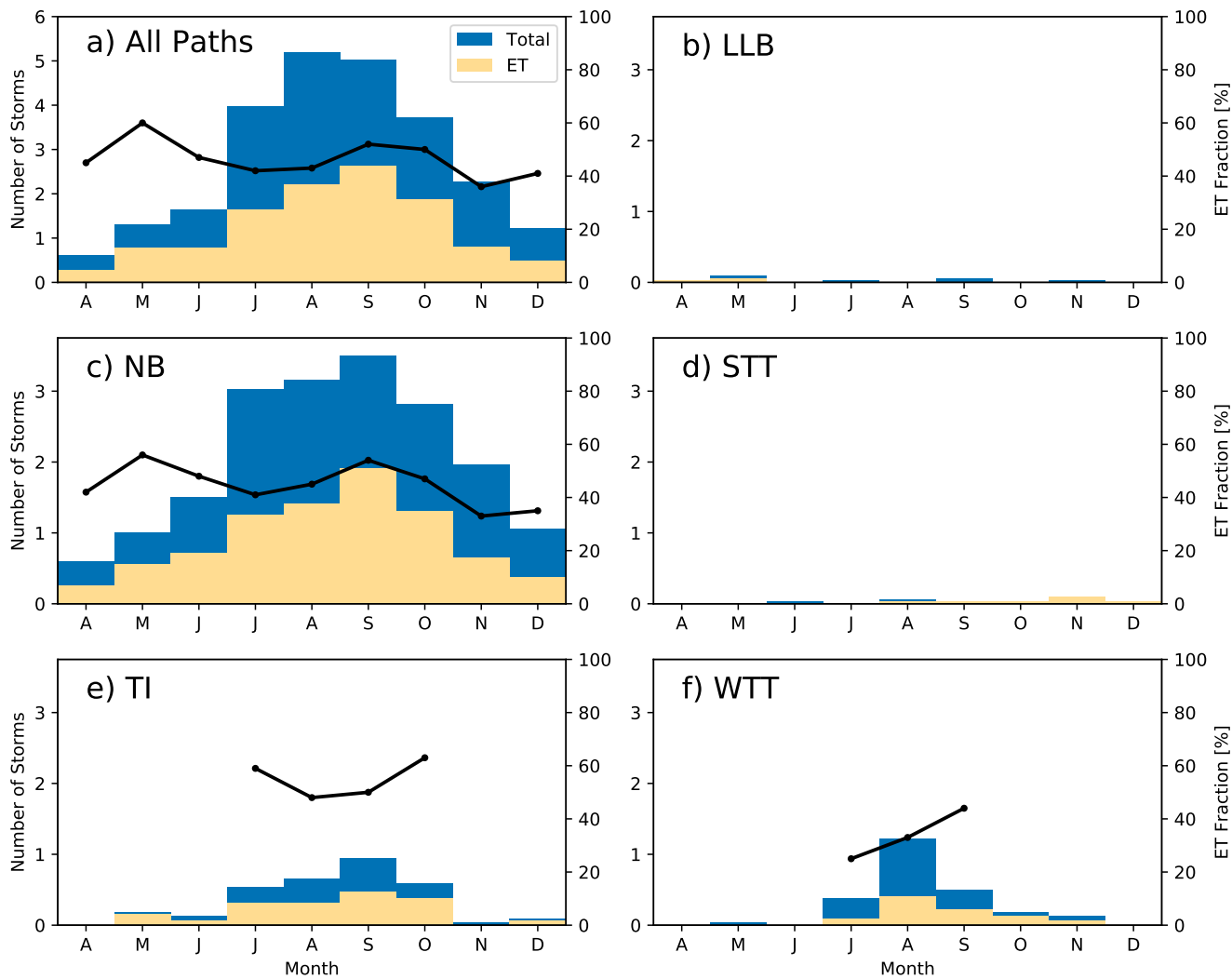


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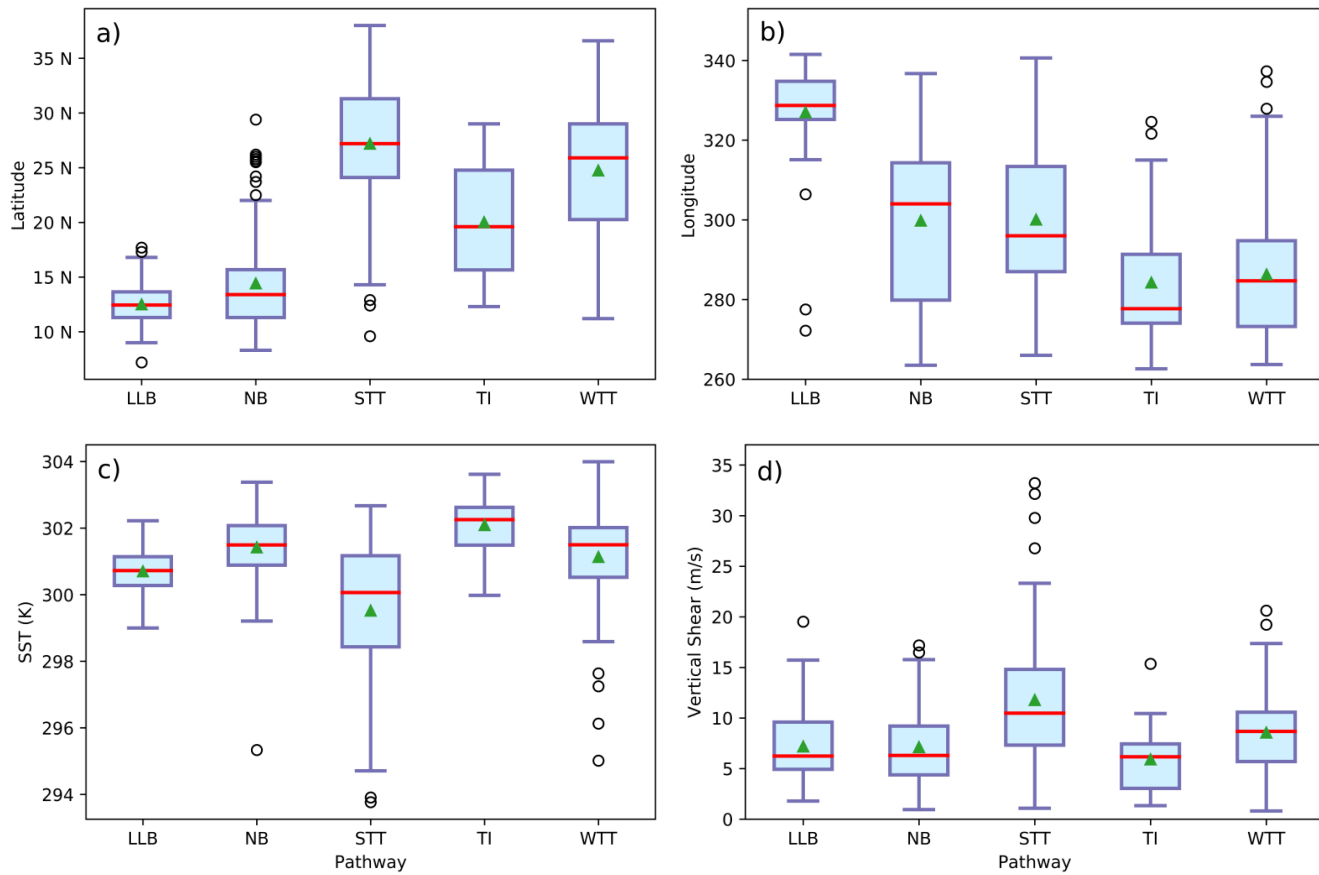


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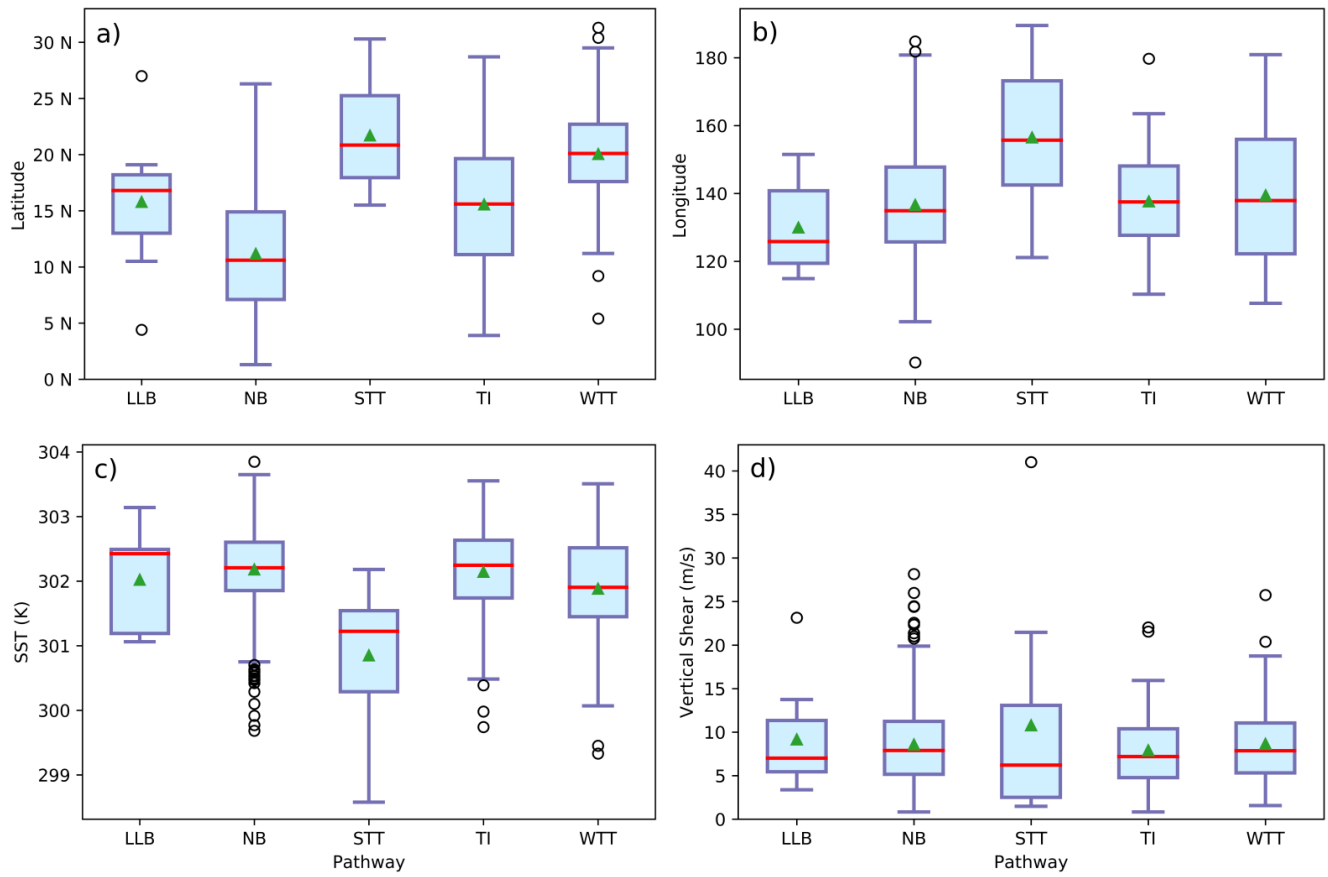


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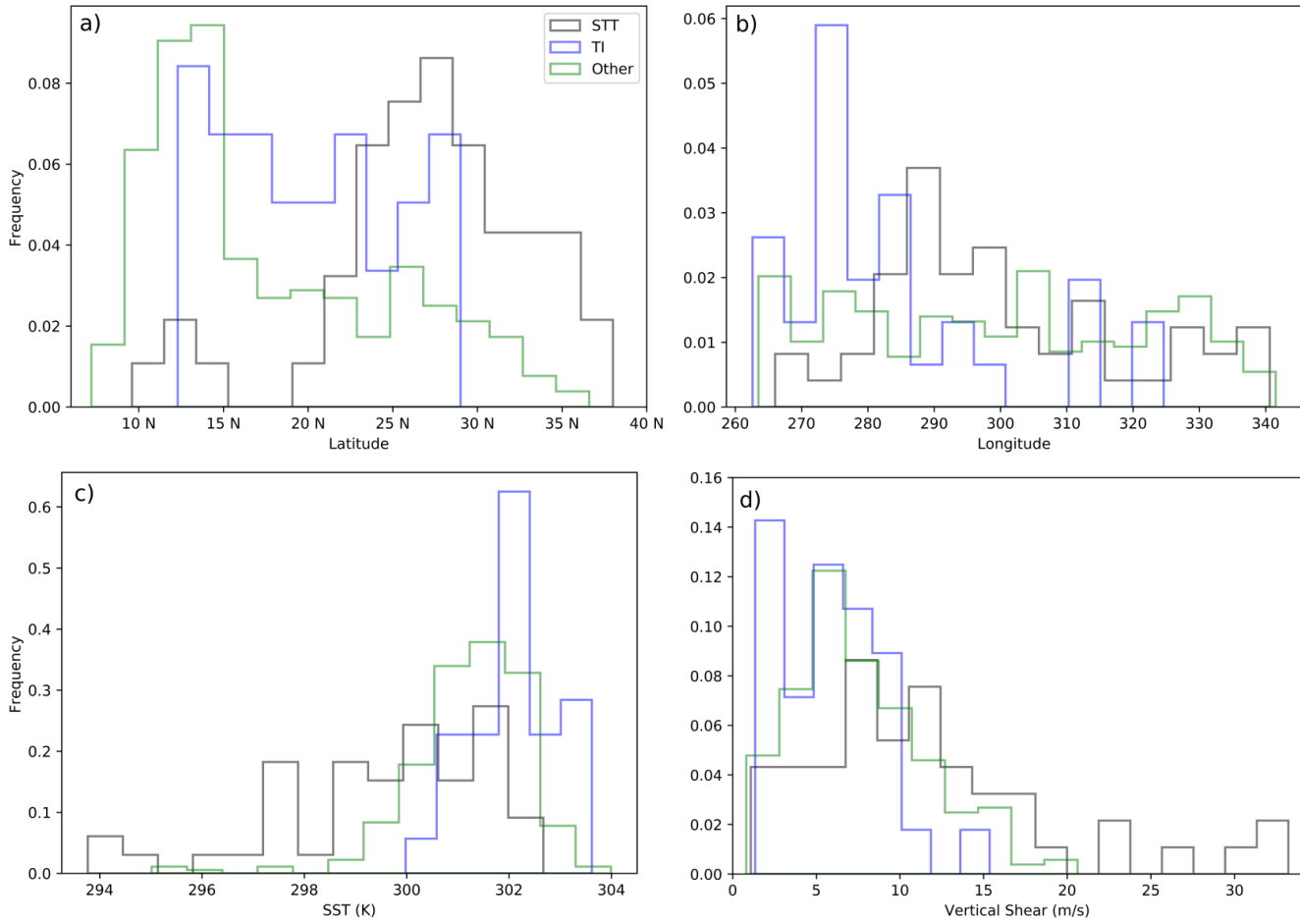


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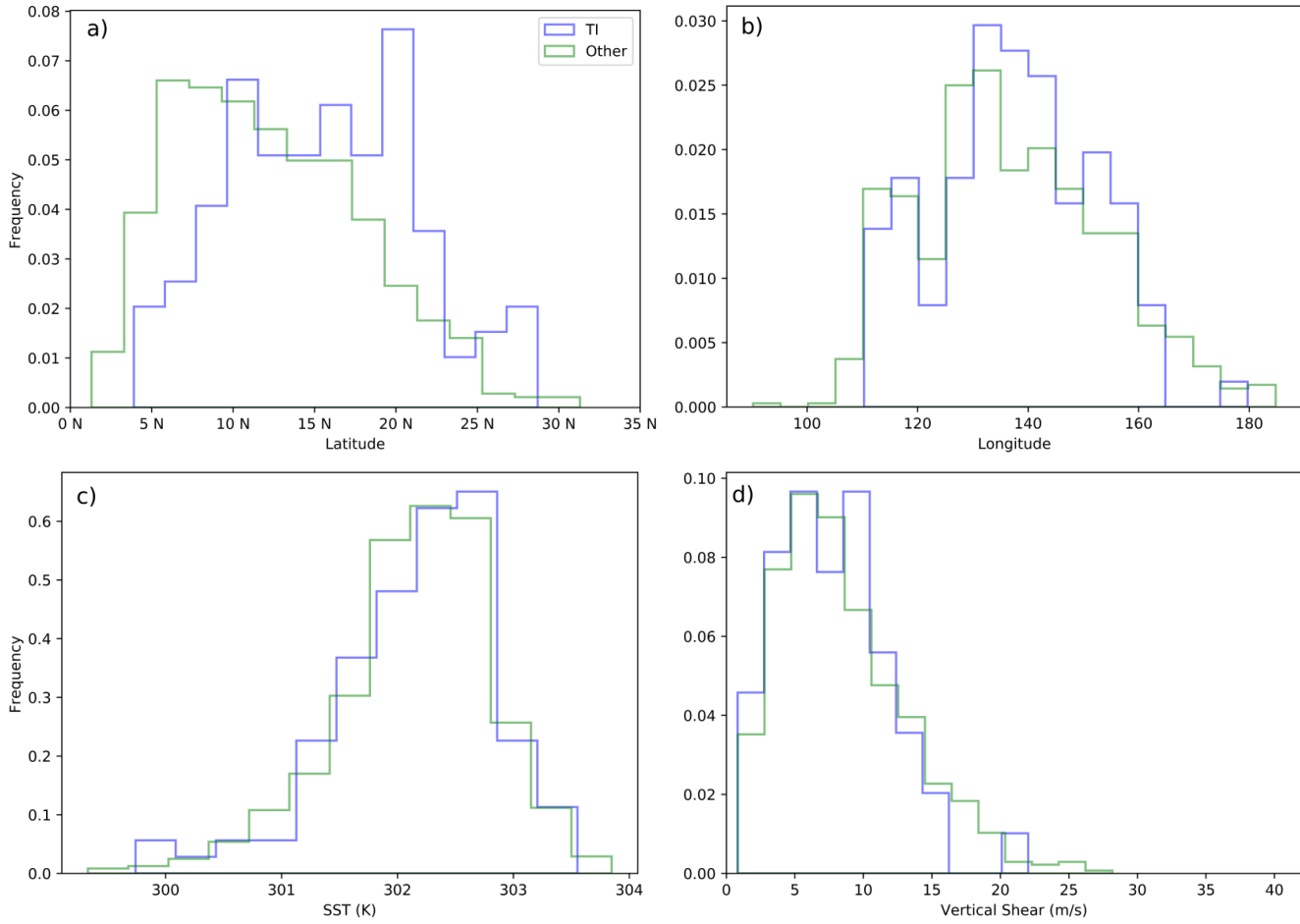


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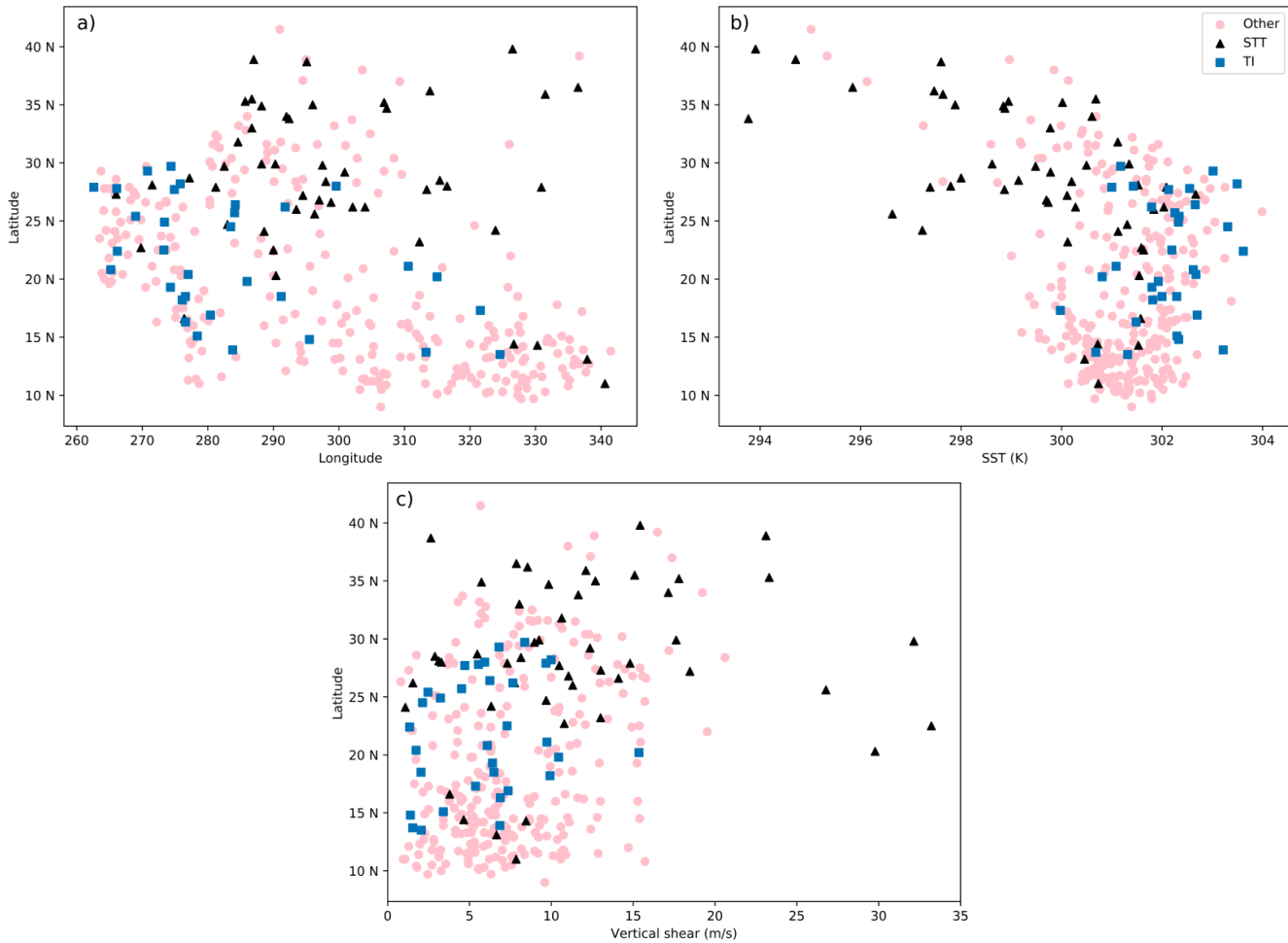


Fig. 11. Scatter plots of North Atlantic TCs comparing (a) latitude vs longitude, (b) latitude vs SST and c) latitude vs vertical shear for different pathways: STT are shown in black triangles, TI in blue squares and all other pathways in pink circles.

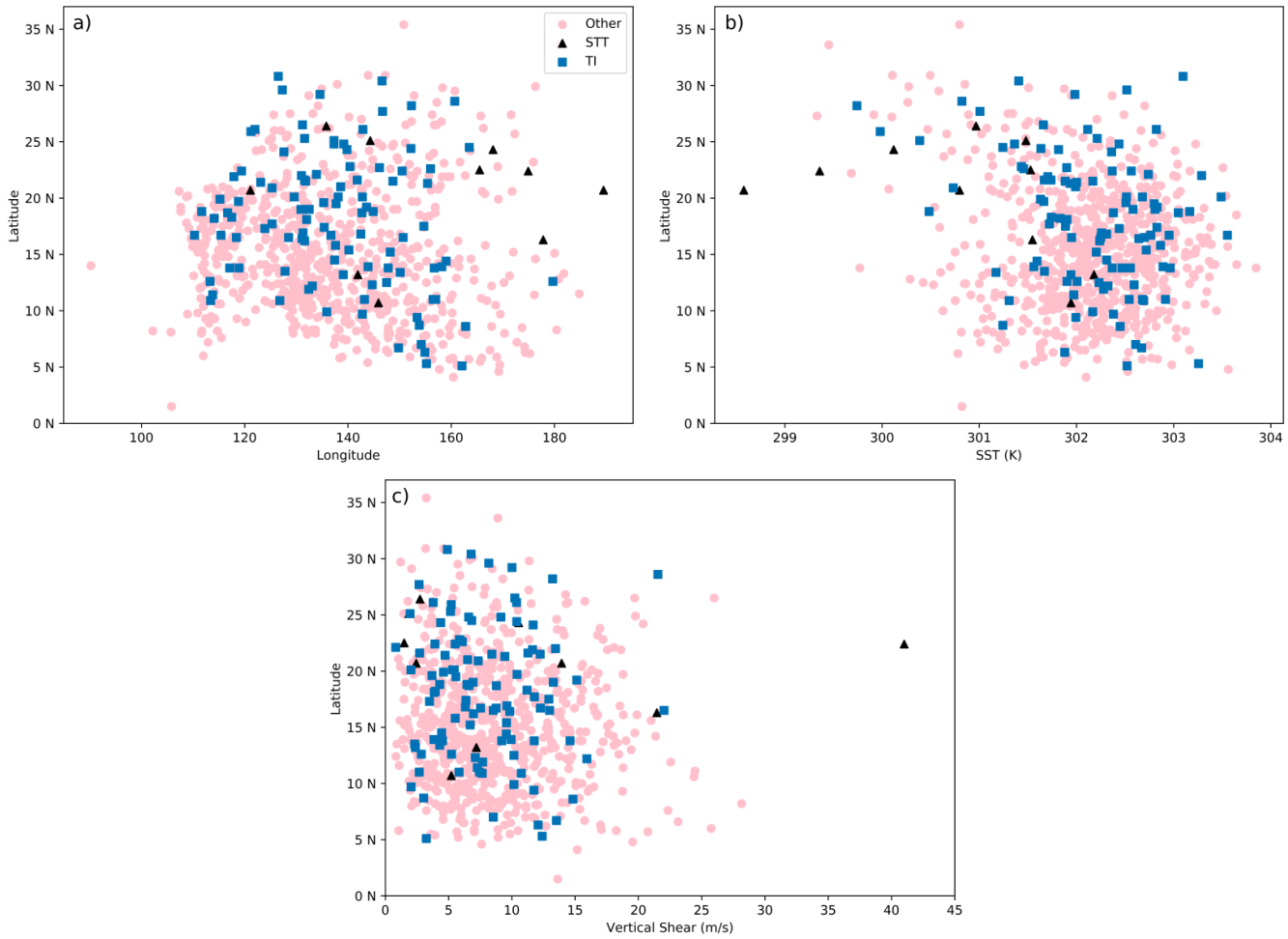


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Table 1. Ocean basins definitions.

| Basin | Acronym | Longitudes |
|-----------------------|---------|------------------------|
| North Atlantic | NAT | American coast to 30°E |
| Western North Pacific | WNP | 100°E - 180° |
| Eastern North Pacific | ENP | 180° to American coast |
| North Indian Ocean | NI | 30°E - 100°E |
| South Indian Ocean | SI | 30°E - 90°E |
| Australian region | AUS | 90°E - 160°E |
| South Pacific | SP | 160°E - 120°W |

Table 2. Number of storms, ET fraction and mean absolute latitude for each pathway globally.

| Pathway | number | ET fraction | Latitude |
|----------------------------------|--------|-------------|----------|
| Low Level Baroclinic (LLB) | 155 | 41.3% | 13.8° |
| Non-Baroclinic (NB) | 1822 | 34.7% | 11.6° |
| Strong Tropical Transition (STT) | 86 | 64.0% | 23.5° |
| Trough Induced (TI) | 176 | 45.5% | 15.7° |
| Weak Tropical Transition (WTT) | 91 | 40.9% | 18.9° |

Table 3. Number of storms, ET fraction, confidence level and pathway globally and per basin. The confidence level in each case determines if the ET fraction for that pathway is statistically significantly different from the ET fraction of all other storms globally (or in that basin) using a Monte Carlo simulation.

| Basin | Pathway | number | ET [%] | Other Storms ET [%] | Significance |
|--------|---------|--------|--------|---------------------|--------------|
| Global | NB | 1822 | 34.7% | 43.2% | Y |
| Global | STT | 86 | 64.0% | 36.6% | Y |
| Global | TI | 176 | 45.5% | 36.9% | Y |
| AUS | NB | 190 | 33.6% | 26.9% | Y |
| ENP | NB | 410 | 24.8% | 39.0% | Y |
| NAT | NB | 132 | 44.7% | 62.8% | Y |
| NAT | STT | 49 | 79.5% | 53.0% | Y |
| WNP | TI | 103 | 55.3% | 43.8% | Y |

Table 4. Environmental parameters (latitude, longitude, SST and vertical shear) by pathway globally and by basin, and if they are statistically significantly different from all storms in that case determined using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test with a p-value of .05.

| Parameter | Basin | Pathway | Significance |
|----------------|-------|---------|--------------|
| Latitude | NAT | STT | Y |
| Latitude | NAT | TI | Y |
| Latitude | WNP | TI | Y |
| Longitude | NAT | STT | N |
| Longitude | NAT | TI | Y |
| Longitude | WNP | TI | N |
| SST | NAT | STT | Y |
| SST | NAT | TI | Y |
| SST | WNP | TI | N |
| Vertical Shear | NAT | STT | Y |
| Vertical Shear | NAT | TI | N |
| Vertical Shear | WNP | TI | N |

Table 5. Conditional Latitude Analysis: STT ET fraction and non-STT ET fraction by latitude band in the North Atlantic. Statistical significance of the difference in ET fraction between STT and non-STT storms is noted for sample sizes greater than 10 storms.

| Basin | Pathway | Latitude Band | number of STT storms | STT ET [%] | Non-STT ET [%] | Significance |
|-------|---------|---------------|----------------------|------------|----------------|--------------|
| NAT | STT | <20°N | 4 | 50.0% | 49.5% | |
| NAT | STT | 20°N - 25°N | 10 | 80.0% | 47.4% | Y |
| NAT | STT | 25°N - 30°N | 25 | 80.0% | 56.0% | Y |
| NAT | STT | 30°N - 35°N | 11 | 90.9% | 72.0% | N |
| NAT | STT | >35°N | 4 | 75.0% | 100.0% | |

Table 6. Conditional Latitude Analysis: TI ET fraction and non-TI ET fraction by latitude band in the Western North Pacific. Statistical significance of the difference in ET fraction between TI and non-TI storms is noted for sample sizes greater than 10 storms.

| Basin | Pathway | Latitude Band | number of TI storms | TI ET [%] | Non-TI ET [%] | Significance |
|-------|---------|---------------|---------------------|-----------|---------------|--------------|
| WNP | TI | 0° - 5°N | 3 | 66.6% | 46.3% | |
| WNP | TI | 5°N - 10°N | 15 | 60.0% | 45.1% | N |
| WNP | TI | 10°N - 15°N | 31 | 61.2% | 43.4% | Y |
| WNP | TI | 15°N - 20°N | 30 | 53.3% | 35.7% | Y |
| WNP | TI | 20°N - 25°N | 18 | 50.0% | 50.7% | N |
| WNP | TI | >25°N | 6 | 33.3% | 70.6% | |