

1 **A physically-based climatology of Australian east coast lows occurrence and**  
2 **intensification**

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## ABSTRACT

14 The subtropical part of the eastern Australian seaboard experiences intense  
15 cyclonic activity. The severe damage caused by the intense storms in the re-  
16 gion, known as east coast lows (ECLs), has motivated a number of recent  
17 studies. Cyclones in this region appear to be driven by a combination of dif-  
18 ferent (barotropic and baroclinic) formation mechanisms, consistent with the  
19 view emerging in the last decades that cyclones span a continuous spectrum of  
20 dynamical structures, with the barotropically driven tropical cyclone and the  
21 baroclinically driven extra-tropical cyclone being only the extremes of such  
22 spectrum. In this work we revisit the climatology of cyclone occurrence in  
23 the subtropical east coast of Australia as seen in a global reanalysis, system-  
24 atically applying classification criteria based on the cyclone vertical structure  
25 and thermal core. Moreover, we investigate the underlying processes driv-  
26 ing the cyclone rapid intensification by means of an atmospheric limited area  
27 energetics analysis. We show that ECLs have different spatial patterns ac-  
28 cording to the cyclone thermal structure, with the fraction of hybrid cyclones  
29 being larger towards the tropics and closer to the coast. Moreover, we find that  
30 explosively deepening cyclones in this region are driven by a different combi-  
31 nation of processes with respect to the global case, with barotropic processes  
32 in the surrounding environment having a more dominant role in the energetics  
33 of cyclone rapid intensification. The findings of this work contribute to under-  
34 standing the physical processes underlying the formation and intensification  
35 of Australian east coast lows and the associated coastal damage and risk.

## 36 **1. Introduction**

37 The portion of the east coast of Australia extending between the subtropics and the mid-latitudes  
38 (the area corresponding approximately to the latitudes between 25° S to 40° S and the longitudes  
39 between 150° E and 160° E) experiences a frequent occurrence of intense low pressure systems.  
40 This type of cyclones is generally known as east coast lows (ECLs). Such systems can occur  
41 year-round; the most intense events, however, are normally observed during the transition to the  
42 cold season (Hopkins and Holland 1997). Strong ECLs can cause severe damage - associated  
43 with heavy rain, strong winds, and storm surge - when they hit highly populated areas along the  
44 southeast Australian coast, where a large part of the country's population and economic activities  
45 are based (e.g., more than two thirds of Australia's population live within 50 km of the continent's  
46 eastern seaboard<sup>1</sup>). One such low pressure system occurred in 2007 and is ranked among the ten  
47 worst natural disasters in Australia in terms of insured losses<sup>2</sup>. Extreme weather associated with  
48 this system, known as the Pasha Bulker ECL, was recorded, including peak wind gust up to 36  
49 m/s, flash flooding with rainfall of 466 mm, and major coastal erosion with 14 m maximum wave  
50 heights (Mills et al. 2010).

51 East coast lows have a spatial scale ranging from synoptic to mesoscale (100 to 1000 km), and  
52 often have a rapid development including during the night. However, some ECL properties can  
53 vary significantly depending on the definition adopted. The frequency can vary from one or two  
54 per year if only intense events producing severe impact on the coast are considered (Holland et al.  
55 1987), to about twenty per year when all identified low pressure systems in the region are included  
56 (Speer et al. 2009).

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<sup>1</sup>Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics <http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/Previousproducts/1301.0Feature%20Article32004>

<sup>2</sup>Source: Insurance Council of Australia, <http://www.icadataglobe.com/access-catastrophe-data/>

57 The first studies of the properties of Australian ECLs cases date back to the 1950s (Kraus 1954;  
58 Clarke 1956), with later studies focusing on producing climatologies of storm occurrence and clas-  
59 sifying their synoptic environments (Holland et al. 1987; Hopkins and Holland 1997). The last  
60 decade has seen a renewed interest in studies aimed at building climatologies of the occurrence of  
61 ECLs based on the increasing availability of higher resolution reanalysis and modeling datasets.  
62 Speer et al. (2009) provided a new long-term database of ECL events, compiled by visually iden-  
63 tifying low pressure events in sea level pressure charts, and this approach has been commonly  
64 used to date as the best estimate of the observed frequency of ECLs. Other studies have focused  
65 on objective identification methods, typically based on the application of an automated detection  
66 scheme to one or more reanalysis datasets. A number of works produced cyclone climatologies by  
67 applying different identification criteria, e.g. based on the Laplacian of sea level pressure (Pepler  
68 and Coutts-Smith 2013), sea level pressure gradients (Browning and Goodwin 2013), or upper  
69 level geostrophic vorticity (Dowdy et al. 2013). Recent studies focused on comparing the various  
70 tracking methods (Pepler et al. 2015) as well as the sources of climatological data (Di Luca et al.  
71 2015). They concluded that while the agreement between studies on the frequency and proper-  
72 ties of stronger storms is generally good, a larger sensitivity to the data and methods employed  
73 emerges when the smaller and/or weaker cyclones are taken into account.

74 A number of studies have investigated the dynamical nature of Australian ECLs. Previous works  
75 focusing on case studies of historical ECLs have shown that the broad ECL set contains both extra-  
76 tropical frontal storms and hybrid cyclones with mixed tropical/extra-tropical features (Garde et al.  
77 2010; Mills et al. 2010; Cavicchia et al. 2018). This is consistent with the modern view (Hart 2003)  
78 that cyclones can span a continuous spectrum of dynamical structures, of which the completely  
79 barotropic tropical cyclone and the completely baroclinic extra-tropical cyclone only represent  
80 the extremes. At a regional scale, the occurrence of cyclones with hybrid tropical extratropi-

81 cal features has been documented in many different regions, including the southwestern Atlantic  
82 (Evans and Braun 2012; Gozzo et al. 2014), the northern Atlantic (Guishard et al. 2009; Mauk and  
83 Hobgood 2012; González-Alemán et al. 2015), the central North Pacific (Otkin and Martin 2004;  
84 Caruso and Businger 2006) and the Mediterranean Sea (Miglietta et al. 2013; Cavicchia et al.  
85 2014; Walsh et al. 2014). At a global scale, modern cyclone climatologies indicate indeed that low  
86 pressure systems of differing dynamical nature typically coexist in the subtropical latitude belts  
87 of both hemispheres (from approximately  $20^\circ$  to  $40^\circ$ ) and in particular on the continents' eastern  
88 seaboard (Yanase et al. 2014). In the ECL region, the vertical structure of a subset of cyclones  
89 was analyzed by Browning and Goodwin (2013) who presented a synoptic climatology of ECLs  
90 using a classification system based on genesis locations and tracks. They also employed the Hart  
91 (2003) phase space analysis to differentiate between cold core, hybrid and warm core structures.

92 Even though it has been known for a long time that cyclones affecting the east coast of Australia  
93 differ in their dynamical nature, the analysis of cyclone structure has been applied in previous  
94 studies as an *a posteriori* diagnostic applied to selected subsets of cyclones identified according  
95 to different criteria. However, in order to investigate the relative occurrence of different types  
96 of cyclones, and to what extent their properties (e.g., their distribution in space and time) differ  
97 according to the cyclone dynamical structure, the analysis of the structure of the storms would  
98 need to be applied systematically (i.e., irrespective of their other characteristics such as track and  
99 location in contrast to previous studies). The main goal of the present work is to close this knowl-  
100 edge gap, by systematically quantifying the climatological patterns of occurrence of low pressure  
101 systems in the east Australia coastal region according to cyclone structure, as described in terms  
102 of the vertical symmetry and thermal core. The classification of cyclones according to their struc-  
103 ture is thus not aimed at replacing previous climatologies based on different classification criteria,  
104 but rather at better quantifying the occurrence of cyclones with different thermal structures. The

105 ultimate purpose of the new classification is an improvement in the understanding of the coastal  
106 damage and risk associated to those extreme weather events, according to their structure.

107 In terms of impact assessment, the interest is generally focused on the subset of cyclones that  
108 are likely to cause greater damage, depending on the affected area. Among the different metrics  
109 that have been developed to quantify the intensity of extratropical cyclones, the “bomb cyclone”,  
110 defined by an “explosive intensification” criterion (Sanders and Gyakum 1980) has often been  
111 used to quantify the potential impacts of a storm. Such a criterion is based on the definition of a  
112 threshold characterizing the cyclone’s rapid deepening (24 hPa in 24 hours at a latitude of 60 de-  
113 grees). Studies of global occurrence of explosively intensifying cyclones (Allen et al. 2010; Lim  
114 and Simmonds 2002) have shown that the east coast of Australia is one of the areas where this kind  
115 of cyclone evolution is common. Black and Pezza (2013) showed, globally, that statistically robust  
116 signatures of the leading role of baroclinic processes emerge in the analysis of the energy cycle  
117 of explosively deepening cyclones. The second major goal of the present work is the systematic  
118 study of the energetics of explosively deepening versus non-rapidly deepening Australian ECLs,  
119 aimed at an improved understanding of the atmospheric processes underlying rapid intensification  
120 of cyclones. The analysis of cyclone energetics will be performed taking into account the separa-  
121 tion of cyclones into different classes. Such a combined analysis of the energetics and cyclone  
122 classification is to our knowledge performed here for the first time for a multi-decadal cyclone  
123 climatology.

124 Summarizing, the present work aims at addressing a number of knowledge gaps in the under-  
125 standing of Australian ECLs occurrence. This goal is pursued by exploiting two physically-based  
126 diagnostics aimed at classifying low pressure systems and investigating the mechanisms underly-  
127 ing their intensification. Such an approach has been tested for a number of test cases in previous  
128 work (Cavicchia et al. 2018), but it is here applied systematically to a multi-decadal dataset. In

129 particular, two main objectives were set for this study, addressing the following scientific ques-  
130 tions:

- 131 1. The east coast of Australia has been shown to be affected by cyclones differing in their dy-  
132 namical nature, ranging from transitioning tropical cyclones to extra-tropical cyclones with  
133 hybrid cyclones in between. What is the relative rate of occurrence of different types of cy-  
134 clones? How do the statistical properties of cyclones, such as their distribution in space and  
135 time, differ according to their dynamical class? This question is addressed by classifying low  
136 pressure systems employing the cyclone phase space diagnostics.
  
- 137 2. What is the role of different barotropic and baroclinic physical processes in the intensification  
138 of different classes of cyclones? Does the large scale environment energetics provide a mea-  
139 sure for ECLs' rapid intensification? In order to address this question the energetics cycles of  
140 explosively deepening cyclones with different thermal structures are analyzed and contrasted  
141 with non-rapidly intensifying cyclones.

142 Answering those questions is intended to provide a framework to investigate the coastal damage  
143 and risk associated with ECL occurrence, by improving the understanding the physical mecha-  
144 nisms underlying cyclone formation and intensification.

145 The rest of the manuscript is organized as follows. In Section 2, the data and methods used in  
146 this work are described. In Section 3, the results of the classification and energetics analysis of  
147 Australian ECLs are presented and discussed in detail. Finally, in Section 4, the main results of  
148 the present work are summarized and the most promising directions for future work are indicated.

## 149 **2. Data and methods**

### 150 *a. Data*

151 The atmospheric dataset used in this work is the ERA-Interim reanalysis (Dee et al. 2011), cover-  
152 ing a 38-year period from 1979 to 2016. The ERA-Interim reanalysis data is available at 6-hourly  
153 frequency on a horizontal grid with a resolution of 0.75 degrees, and on 37 vertical pressure lev-  
154 els. Several studies have investigated the skill of this reanalysis in reproducing observed cyclone  
155 climatologies, including tropical cyclones (e.g. Hodges et al. (2017) and references therein), ex-  
156 tratropical cyclones (e.g. Hodges et al. (2011) and references therein) as well other low pressure  
157 systems such as polar lows (Zappa et al. 2014). These studies concluded that ERA-Interim is gen-  
158 erally able to reproduce the observed occurrence of cyclones. Depending on the type of analyzed  
159 low pressure systems, larger deviations can be found for some of the cyclone features such as  
160 intensity, with horizontal resolution being a critical factor for smaller scale systems (Simmonds  
161 et al. 2008; Pinto et al. 2005). In particular, several studies showed, for both tropical (Hodges et al.  
162 2017) and extra-tropical cyclones (Hewson and Neu 2015), that ERA-Interim can underestimate  
163 cyclone central pressures up to around 10 hPa. Such underestimation can result in an uncertainty  
164 in diagnostics derived from cyclone pressure, such as the rate of explosive deepening; on the other  
165 hand, it was shown that the number of explosively deepening cyclones increase in ERA-Interim  
166 with respect to other reanalysis datasets, due to a better representation of smaller storms (Allen  
167 et al. 2010).

168 In previous studies objective climatologies of ECLs were created based on ERA-Interim, ap-  
169 plying automated tracking and detection algorithms. The advantage of such climatologies with  
170 respect to previous catalogs of events such as the reference database of Speer et al. (2009) is that  
171 they don't rely on the visual inspection of pressure charts. Some of the statistical properties of

172 ERA-Interim generated ECL climatologies have been analyzed in Di Luca et al. (2015), showing  
173 that there is a good agreement between the cyclones detected in ERA-Interim and the ones in the  
174 reference database (Speer et al. 2009) for cyclone frequency, as well as their seasonal, inter-annual  
175 and spatial variability. A relatively larger sensitivity to resolution was found for summer cyclones,  
176 attributed to the larger fraction of smaller-scale low pressure systems in the warm season. Pepler  
177 et al. (2017) analyzed the wind and precipitation fields associated with a number of past ECL  
178 events in several reanalysis datasets, and found that ERA-Interim exhibits the highest degree of  
179 consistency with satellite wind and rainfall observations. A recent study (Cavicchia et al. 2018)  
180 looked at two recent ECL test cases examining properties similar to the ones investigated in the  
181 present study, such as cyclone phase space and energetics parameters, and found that there is a  
182 good agreement between ERA-Interim and higher-resolution datasets, obtained through dynami-  
183 cal downscaling, in the representation of these properties.

#### 184 *b. ECL definition*

185 ECL are generally defined as closed low pressure systems occurring in a region extending few  
186 hundred kilometers from the coast in a latitude band between 20° S and 40° S. Additional criteria  
187 have been adopted in different ECL definitions and classification schemes in the literature. Some  
188 studies applied additional criteria based on the storm motion or location. For example, the Public  
189 Works Department (PWD) (1985) considered five different types of ECLs based on criteria such as  
190 the southward or northward direction of motion, the location relative to the Great Dividing Range,  
191 as well as whether the storm is located mostly over land or sea. Another example is the study of  
192 Holland et al. (1987), where three different types of ECLs were considered based on the location  
193 relative to some typical synoptic configurations in the area. Some studies use the term ECL for the  
194 subset of events causing severe impacts on coastal areas only, with examples of studies applying

195 definitions based on both the storm motion and impacts including Hopkins and Holland (1997)  
196 who defined a cyclone as an ECL if it had a motion parallel to the coast and was also associated  
197 with heavy rain.

198 Another type of ECL definition, on the other hand, is based on pressure criteria only including all  
199 low pressure systems occurring off the east coast of Australia applying pressure based thresholds  
200 to exclude very weak systems. In this work, we follow the latter approach. Following Pepler  
201 et al. (2015), ECLs are defined in this work as all the cyclones, subject to the sea level pressure  
202 thresholds defined in the objective cyclone tracking and detection scheme described in Section 2.c  
203 below, entering the ECL region shown in Fig. 3 for at least one six-hourly reanalysis time step.

#### 204 *c. Cyclone tracking scheme*

205 Several automated schemes for the objective detection and tracking of cyclones in climate grid-  
206 ded datasets are available. They are usually based on either pressure variables or vorticity, or a  
207 combination of both. Several studies (e.g Neu et al. (2013), Raible et al. (2008)) showed that  
208 cyclone climatologies exhibit a sensitivity to the chosen tracking scheme, introducing a further  
209 source of variability additional to that arising from the choice of data source and resolution. Pe-  
210 pler et al. (2015) extensively compared several automated cyclone detection methods in the ECL  
211 region, testing different sets of detection parameters and found that good skill is shown by the pres-  
212 sure Laplacian-based University of Melbourne (UoM) detection scheme (Simmonds et al. 1999),  
213 when its parameters are tuned to optimize ECL detection to match the observational dataset of  
214 (Speer et al. 2009). While different representations of ECL activity exist, this particular dataset is  
215 based on a similar definition of an ECL to the one adopted in Pepler et al. (2015) and in the present  
216 work, and thus is well suited as a benchmark for the detection scheme. The UoM scheme has an  
217 advantage with respect to other methods with comparable skill at identifying ECLs, such as the

218 upper level geostrophic vorticity method of Dowdy et al. (2013) in applications where accurate  
219 information on storm location is needed based on surface pressure. In the present study, the UoM  
220 detection scheme is thus employed to track ECLs based on mean sea level pressure. The main  
221 features of the UoM scheme are described in the following paragraph, while further details can be  
222 found in Murray and Simmonds (1991), Simmonds et al. (1999).

223 The UoM scheme is based on the Laplacian of sea level pressure. The scheme is defined on  
224 a polar stereographic grid, thus the input fields have to be re-gridded to this grid, with a user-  
225 defined grid resolution. In the present work, a resolution of 1 degree is chosen following Pepler  
226 et al. (2015). The algorithm looks for local maxima of the Laplacian of sea level pressure ( $\nabla^2 p$ ),  
227 and associates the cyclone location with a nearby closed pressure surface center. If an associated  
228 closed center is not found, the cyclone is classified as an open depression. In order to avoid de-  
229 tecting too many weak disturbances, a minimum value of  $\nabla^2 p$  can be selected. In the present  
230 work the value is  $(\nabla^2 p)_{min} = 1hPa/^\circ lat$  following Pepler et al. (2015). Further adjustments to  
231 avoid the detection of too many spurious lows include the smoothing of the pressure field and the  
232 introduction of an orography-dependent corrective term in the Laplacian. Once the low pressure  
233 centers are identified, tracking is performed by predicting the subsequent low position according  
234 to the steering velocity (proportional to the 500 hPa wind), then assigning the detected pressure  
235 minimum at the next time step to the track according to the probability of a match between pre-  
236 dicted and detected positions. If more than one suitable pressure minimum is found, the one that  
237 maximized the probability function is chosen.

238 The full tracking procedure consists of two steps. In the first step, cyclone tracks are detected  
239 globally using the algorithm described above. In the second step, the tracks that have a closed  
240 pressure center lying for at least one time step within the area depicted in Fig. 3, and that reach for

241 at least one time step a threshold value of the mean sea level pressure Laplacian  $\nabla^2 p > 2.5 \text{hPa}/^\circ \text{lat}$   
242 (in order to exclude weak systems) are selected and retained for further analysis.

#### 243 *d. Cyclone phase space*

244 The cyclone phase space (CPS) diagnostics, originally developed by Hart (2003), are used in this  
245 work to classify cyclones. CPS was originally developed as a tool to study extra-tropical transitions  
246 of tropical cyclones. It is based on the idea that a limited number of variables can be identified,  
247 whose values have a well-defined threshold that allows separation of vertically-symmetric warm-  
248 cored tropical cyclones from vertically tilted cold-cored extra-tropical cyclones. Computing those  
249 variables for all the time steps where data is available, it is possible to follow the evolution of  
250 the storm dynamical structure during its lifetime. The CPS analysis is naturally well suited to  
251 also identify those cyclones that have a hybrid structure with mixed features, such as a partial  
252 warm core: CPS has therefore been used in several studies to study subtropical/hybrid cyclones  
253 (Yanase et al. 2014). The information on the cyclone dynamical features given by CPS, such as  
254 the vertical symmetry and thermal core, is useful to better understand the cyclone evolution and  
255 its implications in terms of coastal impacts.

256 CPS is based on three variables. One variable, the  $B$  parameter, indicates whether the vertical  
257 structure of the cyclone is symmetric or tilted. The other variables,  $V_T^L$  and  $V_T^U$ , quantify the ther-  
258 mal anomaly in the cyclone core with respect to the environment, indicating whether the cyclone  
259 is warm-cored or cold-cored. The two variables differ in taking into account different layers of the  
260 atmosphere. Figure 1 shows a schematic representation of the different features of cyclones in the  
261 CPS variable space.

262 All the variables can be computed from the three-dimensional geopotential field. The  $B$  param-  
263 eter is defined as the difference between the thickness of the geopotential layer between 900 hPa

264 and 600 hPa averaged over two semicircles located to the left and to the right with respect to the  
 265 direction of the storm motion:

$$B = \pm \left( \overline{Z|_{600hPa} - Z|_{900hPa}} \Big|_R - \overline{Z|_{600hPa} - Z|_{900hPa}} \Big|_L \right),$$

266 where the plus sign is applied in the northern hemisphere and the minus sign in the southern  
 267 hemisphere. An absolute value of  $B < 10$  indicates a symmetric cyclone, while  $B > 10$  corresponds  
 268 to a vertically-tilted cyclone.

269 The thermal wind parameters for the lower troposphere,  $V_T^L$ , and upper troposphere,  $V_T^U$ , are  
 270 defined as the vertical derivative between 900 hPa and 600 hPa of the height gradient in a 500 km  
 271 radius:

$$-V_T^L = \frac{\partial (Z_{max} - Z_{min})|_{500km}}{\partial \ln p} \Big|_{600hPa}^{900hPa} \quad (1)$$

$$-V_T^U = \frac{\partial (Z_{max} - Z_{min})|_{500km}}{\partial \ln p} \Big|_{300hPa}^{600hPa}, \quad (2)$$

272 where the vertical derivative is calculated from a linear regression fit of the height difference. A  
 273 value of  $-V_T^{L(U)} > 0$  indicates a warm-cored cyclone in the lower (upper) troposphere, i.e. a pos-  
 274 itive temperature anomaly in the cyclone core with respect to the surrounding environment. A  
 275 value of  $-V_T^{L(U)} < 0$ , on the other hand, indicates a cold-cored cyclone in the lower (upper) tro-  
 276 posphere, i.e. a negative temperature anomaly in the cyclone core with respect to the surrounding  
 277 environment.

278 Throughout this work, three classes of cyclones are defined based on the thermal wind param-  
 279 eters  $V_T^U$  and  $V_T^L$  only: the cold-cored cyclone is associated with  $-V_T^L < 0$  and  $-V_T^U < 0$ , warm-  
 280 cored cyclone with  $-V_T^L > 0$  and  $-V_T^U > 0$  and the hybrid cyclone with  $-V_T^L > 0$  and  $-V_T^U < 0$ .

281 *e. Cyclone energetics*

282 The limited area energetics is a framework that extends the partitioning of the atmosphere in the  
283 zonal and eddy components of available potential and kinetic energies (Lorenz 1955) to a limited  
284 domain in the atmosphere (Smith 1969; Johnson 1970) in order to study the processes that drive  
285 the energetics of severe weather systems such as cyclones (Michaelides 1987, 1992).

286 A schematic view of the limited area energetics framework is presented in Fig. 2. Similarly  
287 to the global energetics, the zonal ( $A_Z$ ) and eddy ( $A_E$ ) available potential energy terms are repre-  
288 sented on the left part of the graph together with their respective generation terms ( $G_Z$  and  $G_E$ ).  
289 On the other hand, on the right hand side of the graph the zonal ( $K_Z$ ) and eddy ( $K_E$ ) kinetic en-  
290 ergy terms are shown together with their respective dissipation terms ( $D_Z$  and  $D_E$ ). In a limited  
291 area domain, boundary terms contributing to each of the four energy terms have to be taken into  
292 account (respectively  $BA_Z$ ,  $BA_E$ ,  $BK_Z$  and  $BK_E$ ). The energy conversion terms represent the transi-  
293 tions between the different energy forms:  $C_A$  is the conversion of zonal available potential energy  
294 into/from eddy available potential energy,  $C_E$  is the conversion of eddy available potential energy  
295 into/from eddy kinetic energy,  $C_Z$  is the conversion of zonal available potential energy into/from  
296 zonal kinetic energy, and  $C_K$  is the conversion of zonal kinetic energy into/from eddy kinetic en-  
297 ergy. The different terms were computed following the procedure described in Veiga and Ambrizzi  
298 (2013), to which the reader is referred for the full details of the formal aspects of the computation.  
299 We summarize here, however, the physical interpretation according to Veiga and Ambrizzi (2013)  
300 of the terms of the energetics analysis that are more relevant when applied to investigate low pres-  
301 sure systems. The  $C_Z$  term is related to rising warm air and sinking cold air at the same latitude.  
302 The  $C_E$  term involves vertical transport of sensible heat, and is related to the horizontal variance  
303 of temperature. The  $C_A$  term is related to the transport of sensible heat across zonally averaged

304 meridional temperature gradients. The  $C_A$  and  $C_E$  terms are related to horizontal temperature gra-  
305 dients and are referred to as baroclinic terms. The  $C_K$  term corresponds to vertical and horizontal  
306 transport of momentum, and is referred to as the barotropic term. The analysis of the energy con-  
307 versions associated with the formation and decay of a weather system separates the underlying  
308 atmospheric mechanisms into barotropic and baroclinic processes. The energy cascade from  $A_Z$   
309 into  $K_E$  through  $A_E$  (indicated by the continuous blue line in Fig. 2), is referred to in the literature  
310 (Dias Pinto et al. 2013) as the baroclinic energy chain, since the involved conversion terms  $C_A$   
311 and  $C_E$  are associated with baroclinic processes. The energy cascade from  $A_Z$  into  $K_E$  through  $K_Z$   
312 (indicated by the dashed red line in Fig. 2), is on the other hand referred to as the barotropic chain,  
313 since it involves the  $C_K$  conversion term that is associated with barotropic processes.

314 Several studies applied the analysis of limited area energetics to study cyclones formation and  
315 intensification and the underlying processes (Michaelides 1987, 1992; Dias Pinto and Da Rocha  
316 2011; Dias Pinto et al. 2013). Such studies showed in particular that the time series of the area-  
317 averaged vertical integrals of the energy conversion terms provide a way to assess the respective  
318 roles of barotropic and baroclinic processes in the cyclone intensification (Veiga et al. 2008; Pezza  
319 et al. 2014). This information provides further support to the analysis of storm structure (with cold  
320 core and warm core cyclones being respectively predominantly baroclinic and barotropic). On the  
321 other hand, the analysis of cyclone energetics is derived from large-scale environmental fields, and  
322 is thus less sensitive to the uncertainties affecting individual directly detected cyclone events.

323 Black and Pezza (2013) showed that cyclone energetics can be used as a proxy of explosive  
324 cyclogenesis, due to the robust and universal signatures found in the energy conversion terms. In  
325 this study, we adopt and extend their approach with the aim of identifying the processes playing a  
326 role in the rapid deepening of cyclones with different thermal structures. The information on the

327 cyclone energetics, and the associated barotropic and baroclinic mechanisms, is useful to better  
328 understand the cyclone intensification and its implications in terms of coastal impacts.

329 The energetics conversion terms are computed in the domain shown in Fig. 3. It has been  
330 shown (Pezza et al. 2014; Cavicchia et al. 2018) that a domain of such a size and shape is a good  
331 trade-off, since its extent allows the energetics features of storms influenced by both extra-tropical  
332 and tropical dynamics to be well captured, while at the same time it minimizes the chances that  
333 additional weather systems of a spatial scale comparable to the cyclone enter the domain at the  
334 same time.

#### 335 *f. Explosive cyclone development*

336 One of the aims of the present work is to investigate the intensification pathways of ECLs, by  
337 focusing on the differences among the subset of cyclones that show a strong intensification and the  
338 larger set of cyclones in the region. Previous studies on ECLs have adopted different approaches  
339 to select the subset of very intense events, based on either the severity of impacts (Callaghan and  
340 Power 2014), or different metrics of intensity (Pepler et al. 2015).

341 Another commonly used metrics to identify cyclones that undergo a rapid intensification is the  
342 “bomb” criterion for explosive intensification introduced by Sanders and Gyakum (1980). The  
343 cyclone explosive deepening rate was defined by Sanders and Gyakum (1980) as a drop of the  
344 cyclone central pressure of more than 24 hPa over 24 hours relative to a latitude of 60 degrees:

$$\frac{\Delta p \sin 60}{24 |\sin \theta|} > 1 \quad (3)$$

345 An alternative definition, given by Lim and Simmonds (2002), is based on the deepening rate of  
346 relative pressure

$$\frac{\Delta p_a \sin 60}{24 |\sin \theta|} > 1 \quad (4)$$

347 where pressure anomalies  $p_a$  with respect to the climatology rather than absolute values are used,  
348 to avoid including spurious cases of cyclones that show an apparent deepening as they move across  
349 steep meridional pressure gradients, rather than deepening due to the cyclone central pressure drop  
350 itself. Allen et al. (2010) combined the two definitions into a combined explosive cyclone criterion,  
351 that identifies the cyclones that satisfy both conditions (3) and (4). The combined criterion was  
352 used by Black and Pezza (2013) to investigate the differences in the energetics properties of global  
353 climatologies of explosive cyclones with respect to ordinary cyclones.

354 Uncertainties in reanalyses for values of the storm central pressures are known to affect the num-  
355 ber of low pressure systems identified as bomb cyclones. Allen et al. (2010) analyzed extensively  
356 the climatology of rapidly deepening cyclones in different reanalysis datasets. They found larger  
357 differences in the frequency of explosive cyclones in the southern hemisphere, due to sparser ob-  
358 servations and larger storm track variability. Compared to other reanalysis products, it was found  
359 that ERA-Interim produce a larger number of rapidly deepening cyclones, due to its better repre-  
360 sentation of smaller systems.

361 A further possible source of ambiguity in the explosive cyclone definition lies in the different  
362 frequency at which atmospheric data are checked against the criterion, with some authors applying  
363 the criterion to every time step in the data (Black and Pezza 2013), while others only consider-  
364 ing the 00 UTC time steps (Allen et al. 2010; Lim and Simmonds 2002). In this work, cyclone  
365 deepening is computed considering all ERA-Interim 6-hourly time steps, as we are comparing the  
366 results with the global analysis of Black and Pezza (2013).

### 367 **3. Results**

368 The analysis is based on the set of Australian ECLs identified in a 38-years period of ERA-  
369 Interim reanalysis data, from 1979 to 2016. The automated cyclone tracking and detection algo-

370 rithm described in Section 2c is applied. The total number of identified cyclones is 707, corre-  
371 sponding to an average frequency of occurrence of approximately 19 events per year. This figure  
372 is in good agreement with the reference value of 22 events per year given in Speer et al. (2009)  
373 over the same geographical area.

#### 374 *a. Cyclone classification*

375 In order to systematically classify the detected cyclones, cyclone phase space parameters have  
376 been computed as described in Section 2.d for all the tracks. The values of the phase space param-  
377 eters  $B$ ,  $V_T^L$  and  $V_T^U$  are reported in Fig. 4 for every 6-hourly instance of all the detected cyclone  
378 tracks. Comparing Fig. 4 to Fig. 1, it is apparent that about two thirds of the cyclone tracks are  
379 composed of cold-cored cyclones, with the remaining third of the detected low pressures systems  
380 being hybrid cyclones, while a small but not negligible fraction of the set is characterized by a full  
381 warm core. Accordingly, the majority of cyclone instances are vertically tilted but approximately  
382 one third are vertically symmetric.

383 Given these relative fractions of the different dynamical structures, it is worthwhile to inves-  
384 tigate whether the different cyclone classes are uniformly distributed in space, or whether some  
385 preferential geographical pattern emerges. To answer this question, the spatial distribution of the  
386 different cyclone classes is shown in Fig. 5. Here, every 6-hourly cyclone instance is depicted  
387 with a red dot if both  $-V_T^L$  and  $-V_T^U$  are positive, indicating a full warm core, with a blue dot if  
388 both  $-V_T^L$  and  $-V_T^U$  are negative, indicating a cold core, and with a yellow dot if  $-V_T^L > 0$  and  
389  $-V_T^U < 0$ , indicating a cyclone with hybrid features. It is evident from Fig. 5 that the different  
390 cyclone dynamical structures are not equally distributed in space. In the equatorward part of the  
391 region (north of approximately  $22.5^\circ$  S), most of the cyclones instances are warm-cored cyclones,  
392 corresponding to tropical storms or tropical depressions entering the ECL domain from the north-

ern boundary. In the rest of the region, different cyclone structures coexist at the same latitudes, dominated by hybrid cyclone instances in the 22.5-32.5 ° S band, and by cold-cored cyclone instances south of 32.5 ° S. With respect to the warm core cyclones in the southern part of the domain, it is worth noticing that cyclone phase space alone does not distinguish tropical cyclones from warm seclusion extra-tropical cyclones (Hart 2003). The latitudinal gradient of occurrence of different types of cyclones is consistent with global climatologies of cyclone formation (Yanase et al. 2014). Important questions are, however, the quantification of the relative contribution of different classes of cyclone to the total ECL number as a function of latitude, and whether additional non-latitudinal occurrence spatial patterns are visible. The rest of this Section will focus on answering those questions.

Real-world cyclones, however, are not necessarily strictly bound to one of the three cyclone classes for all of their life cycle, since many cyclones transition between different classes once or even several times during their lifetime. While Fig. 5 gives information on the relative occurrence at different locations of the different cyclone phases, it is useful in order to quantify the relative occurrence of different types of low pressure systems to apply some criteria that assigns each cyclone to a single class. Here we adopt the simplest possible criterion i.e. we count the number of time steps a cyclone is classified in each of the dynamical phases and we assign it to the prevailing class, the one that corresponds to the majority of the time steps during the cyclone lifetime. The number of cyclones classified in each class is reported in the first line of Table 1. The classification is performed using all time steps in the tracked cyclone lifetime. In order to take into account the sensitivity of the cyclone properties on the details of the classification, some of the results are also shown (supplementary Figures S2 and S3) for a modified version of the classification definition, where only time steps where the cyclone is inside the domain shown in Fig. 3 are used. Figure 6 shows for each class the fraction of cyclone duration the cyclone stays in the same class. Overall,

417 warm core cyclones transition between classes for 40% of their duration on average, compared to  
418 35% for hybrid cyclones and just 20% for cold core cyclones. While the warm core cyclone tracks  
419 forming north of 25 ° S seem to be associated with (transitioning) tropical cyclones, the warm core  
420 tracks with a genesis location closer to the pole are interpreted as warm seclusion cyclones. It has  
421 previously been shown that the Tasman Sea is a global hotspot for warm seclusion extra-tropical  
422 cyclone occurrence (Maue 2010). In the following, only proper warm core cyclones are considered  
423 in the analysis. In order to exclude warm seclusion events, warm core cyclones with an average  
424 latitude southward of 35 ° S are discarded (supplementary Fig. S1). Note that only the tropical  
425 lows that form north of the analysis domain shown in Fig. 3 and have a detected instance within  
426 this domain are counted or included in the analysis. This would exclude the majority of tropical  
427 cyclones that form off eastern Australia and do not move south of 24 ° S. The global seasonality  
428 of warm-core and cold-core cyclones is relatively well understood and reproduced in our results.  
429 The seasonality of hybrid cyclones, on the other hand, exhibits a larger variability, depending on  
430 the region where they occur (da Rocha et al. 2018), due to the influence of circulation patterns on  
431 the associated upper level cut-off/troughs.

432 ECLs are observed year-round, but the peak in their frequency as well as the most intense and  
433 damaging events tend to occur in the transition to the cold season (Holland et al. 1987). Here  
434 we investigate if cyclones with different dynamical features have differing seasonality. Figure 7  
435 shows the relative contribution of the three classes of respectively cold-core, hybrid and warm-core  
436 cyclones to the total seasonal cycle according to the cyclone's average latitude. As Fig. 7 shows,  
437 the overall seasonal cycle is dominated by cold core cyclones, which have a higher frequency in  
438 the Southern Hemisphere cold season. The warm core cyclones on the other hand tend to occur in  
439 the warm season, while the frequency of hybrid cyclones is more uniform throughout the year. The  
440 majority of cyclones with a mean cyclone track latitude south of 32.5 ° S are cold core cyclones

441 with a prevailing winter occurrence. A non-negligible fraction of the low pressure systems in this  
442 area are hybrid systems, however. The majority of cyclones with a mean cyclone track latitude  
443 between  $22.5^{\circ}$  S and  $32.5^{\circ}$  S are hybrid cyclones with enhanced activity in the warm season.  
444 Finally, the few tracks with a mean cyclone track latitude north of  $22.5^{\circ}$  S are mostly warm core  
445 cyclones.

446 Fig. 8 shows the interannual time series for the three classes of cyclones. It is worth noticing  
447 that the interannual variability is large for all kind of cyclones, but it is larger for warm core than  
448 for hybrid and cold core cyclones (coefficients of variation respectively 0.28 for cold core, 0.72 for  
449 hybrid and 1.82 for warm core cyclones). On the other hand, the correlation among the different  
450 classes is rather weak (correlation coefficients respectively 0.16 for warm core and cold core, 0.13  
451 for cold core and hybrid, and 0.01 for hybrid and warm core). No statistically significant trends  
452 emerge in the time series. The correlation with ENSO (NINO3.4 index) has been checked for the  
453 different cyclone classes and geographical regions, and found to be generally weak (not shown).

454 So far we have discussed the general properties, from formation to dissipation, of all cyclones  
455 that enter for some time into the ECL region (shown in Fig 3). In the rest of the present subsection,  
456 we are focusing on the interior of the ECL region, discussing in more detail the properties of the  
457 cyclones once they enter and stay in the region. A clear meridional stratification is evident in  
458 the average latitude, within the area, of the three classes of cyclones, with the average latitude of  
459 warm core cyclones closer to the equator-ward boundary of the region (at approximately  $30^{\circ}$  S),  
460 the average latitude of hybrid cyclones almost five degrees further south (at approximately  $35^{\circ}$   
461 S), and the average latitude of cold core cyclones further displaced polewards (at approximately  
462  $37^{\circ}$  S). Figure 9 shows the the zonal and meridional stratification of the different classes of low  
463 pressure systems. The top panel of Fig. 9 shows the relative fraction of each class of cyclones  
464 with respect to the total cyclone number, averaged as a function of latitude. There is a clear link

465 between the increase of the fraction of hybrid cyclones and the decrease of cold core cyclone  
466 fraction, moving equatorwards from the southern boundary of the domain. The fractions of the  
467 two classes of cyclones show comparable values at approximately  $32^{\circ}$  S. The fraction of warm  
468 core cyclones becomes substantially larger than 0 only north of  $30^{\circ}$  S. The bottom panel of Fig.  
469 9 shows the relative fraction of each class of cyclones with respect to the total cyclone number,  
470 averaged as a function of the distance from the coast. It is found that hybrid cyclones have an  
471 enhanced activity closer to the coast than further offshore. Within approximately 5 degrees from  
472 the coast, the fraction of hybrid cyclones exceeds 30 %, reaching 45 % between 2 and 3 degrees  
473 from the coast, and then gradually decreases moving further away from the coast. The warm core  
474 cyclone fraction also decreases moving away from the coast. Cold core cyclones on the other hand  
475 are more than two thirds of the total further than 5 degrees from the coast, while they decrease  
476 to less than two thirds closer to the coast. If cyclones are classified using only time steps within  
477 the ECL domain both the zonal and meridional stratification of hybrid and cold core cyclones  
478 are more marked (supplementary Fig. S3) supporting the main conclusion that hybrid cyclones  
479 have a stronger activity closer to the tropics and closer to the coast. The enhanced coastal activity  
480 of hybrid cyclones is an interesting finding, given its potential implications for extreme weather  
481 hazards on the coastline.

482 Figure 10 shows the normalized distribution of two different pressure-based intensity metrics  
483 for the three classes of cyclones, with these two metrics being the lowest value of mean sea level  
484 pressure anomalies (with respect to the climatological monthly values at a given location) and the  
485 largest value of mean sea level pressure Laplacian registered along the cyclone track. Even though  
486 the tail of sea level pressure Laplacian distribution shows more events for hybrid than for cold core  
487 cyclones, the difference between distributions is not significant at the 95 % level.

488 *b. Cyclone intensification and energetics*

489 One of the goals of this work is to investigate whether the intensification of different classes  
490 of cyclones is driven by different processes in the atmosphere. In order to do so, we study the  
491 energetics of the subset of rapidly intensifying cyclones for the three classes of warm core hybrid  
492 and cold core cyclones. Previous studies Black and Pezza (2013) have shown that robust signatures  
493 are found in the energetics of explosively intensifying extra-tropical cyclones, characterized by  
494 statistically significant peaks in the baroclinic conversion terms at the time of cyclone maximum  
495 deepening, while the barotropic term showed only fluctuations around zero. Given the significant  
496 fraction of hybrid cyclones among ECLs, the question we aim to answer is whether their energetics  
497 is characterized by different signatures with respect to the cold core cyclones.

498 The second question we aim to address is whether there are significant differences in the ener-  
499 getics of rapidly intensifying and non-rapidly intensifying cyclones, both in terms of the dominant  
500 processes involved and of the strength of the energy conversions. This is a relevant question not  
501 only because it can shed some light on the physical processes underlying cyclone intensification,  
502 but also it can indicate whether the diagnostics based on the cyclone energetics can potentially  
503 be used as a proxy to estimate cyclone intensities. In order to answer this question we divide  
504 cyclones into three subset of according to their deepening rate: explosive cyclones, cyclones with  
505 a rate of deepening half that one of explosive cyclones (“half bomb” cyclones) and non -rapidly  
506 intensifying cyclones (with a rate of deepening less than half that of explosive cyclones).

507 The analysis is performed following the approach of Black and Pezza (2013). In this approach,  
508 the first step is to identify bomb cyclones applying the criteria described in Section 2.f. Both the  
509 original definition (Sanders and Gyakum 1980) of explosive deepening and the combined criterion  
510 of Allen et al. (2010) have been used. Composites of the time series of anomalies of energetics

511 conversion terms are then created. In order to create the composite, a reference time for the dif-  
512 ferent cyclones in the composite is needed: this is achieved by defining for each storm as the time  
513  $t = 0$  the first time step in the cyclone lifetime that is followed by a 24 hours explosive deepening  
514 phase. The energetics composites are calculated for the three classes of hybrid cold-core and  
515 warm-core cyclones separately. In order to compare the energetics of rapidly intensifying and non  
516 rapidly intensifying cyclones, the composites are also calculated for cyclones whose deepening  
517 rate is below the threshold defined in Eqn. 3 but above half the threshold value, and for cyclones  
518 with a deepening rate less than half the threshold value.

519 The number of cyclones identified in each intensity set and dynamical class, for the two varia-  
520 tions of the explosive deepening rate criterion, are summarized in Table 1. The number of detected  
521 explosively deepening cyclones sum up to 17% and 9% (according to respectively the original and  
522 combined explosive deepening rate definitions) of the number of cyclones with a duration of 24  
523 hours of more.

524 The results of the energetics analysis are shown in Fig. 11 for the original deepening criterion.  
525 The corresponding analysis using the combined explosive deepening criterion is shown in supple-  
526 mentary Fig. S4. The differences between the two approaches are small, also noting that the low  
527 sensitivity of the analysis on the chosen criterion adds to the robustness of the results. Given the  
528 small sample size of warm core cyclones the composite of warm core cyclones is shown only for  
529 explosively deepening cyclones. The first notable result is that the barotropic term  $C_K$  shows a non-  
530 negligible signature for all subsets of cyclones, in contrast to the global case of Black and Pezza  
531 (2013) where the same term was found to show only fluctuations around zero. This difference can  
532 be explained by the fact that in the analysis of Black and Pezza (2013) the hemispheric composite  
533 is dominated by mid-latitude events, developing in a region of the atmosphere characterized by  
534 a high baroclinicity; the analysis in the current work, on the other hand, is focused on a smaller

535 region in the subtropics, where the barotropic processes have an enhanced role in the atmosphere.  
536 The barotropic term is dominant for warm core cyclones, while for hybrid cyclones the barotropic  
537 and baroclinic terms have comparable amplitudes. For the cold core cyclones, baroclinic terms  
538 are dominant but the barotropic term is non-negligible. The finding that the intensification of cold  
539 core cyclones can also be partly driven by barotropic processes is consistent with Fig. 6 showing  
540 that cold core cyclones have on average a transition to a hybrid phase for a significant portion of  
541 their lifetime. One example of the transition of a mostly cold core cyclone to a hybrid structure  
542 at the peak of intensification was illustrated in Cavicchia et al. (2018) analyzing the well known  
543 case of the Pasha Bulker cyclone. The signature in the baroclinic terms is similar to the one found  
544 in the global case, with a peak in the  $C_A$  and  $C_E$  terms corresponding to the period of explosive  
545 deepening for both hybrid and cold core cyclones, but that the peak of the baroclinic  $C_E$  term has  
546 a larger amplitude for the hybrid cyclones than for the cold core cyclones. Another interesting  
547 difference is that, while for the hybrid cyclones the peaks of the barotropic and baroclinic terms  
548 are in phase, for the cold core cyclones the peak of the barotropic  $C_K$  term precedes the peak of  
549 the baroclinic  $C_E$  and  $C_A$  terms, with a lag of approximately 24 hours. This might give an indica-  
550 tion that barotropic energy conversion processes precondition the atmosphere for subsequent more  
551 efficient baroclinic conversion, by transferring kinetic energy from the zonal mean flow to the dis-  
552 turbance (Dias Pinto et al. 2013). This behavior of the energy conversion terms could indicate a  
553 development similar to the type B cyclogenesis of Petterssen and Smebye (1971), where the first  
554 phase of an extra-tropical cyclone formation is characterized by a transient barotropic growth as  
555 a cyclogenesis precursor, associated with the passage of an upper-level feature over a baroclinic  
556 region (Kucharski and Thorpe 2001; Plant et al. 2003). The half bomb cyclones and non-rapidly  
557 intensifying cyclones subsets show similar signatures with respect to the bomb cyclones subset,  
558 but the peaks of the different energy conversion terms show reduced amplitude. This gives an

559 indication that for non-rapidly intensifying cyclones the energy exchanges are less vigorous, but  
560 the physical processes involved in the intensification of cyclones with the same thermal structure  
561 but different rates of deepening do not vary substantially.

## 562 **4. Discussion and Conclusions**

### 563 *a. Summary and Discussion*

564 The purpose of the present work is to systematically explore new directions in the understand-  
565 ing of the multi-decadal climatology of the occurrence and intensification of Australian east coast  
566 cyclones. The goal is pursued by classifying ECLs according to their thermal structure as re-  
567 spectively warm core, hybrid and warm core cyclones. The environment energetics at the time of  
568 cyclone occurrence is then analyzed for rapidly intensifying and non-rapidly intensifying cyclones  
569 of different classes, in order to investigate the different role of barotropic and baroclinic processes  
570 in cyclone intensification.

571 Previous classifications of ECLs into different subtypes exist. Notable examples are the ones  
572 of Holland et al. (1987) and Browning and Goodwin (2013). The present classification of ECLs  
573 based on thermal structure is not intended as a replacement of those previous classification, but  
574 rather to complement them addressing some aspects that have been identified as knowledge gaps.  
575 Holland et al. (1987) identified three subtypes of ECLs, based on the location of the storm with re-  
576 spect to synoptic systems known as easterly dips. Browning and Goodwin (2013) classified ECLs  
577 into five categories based on cyclone location and propagation direction, following the definitions  
578 used in Public Works Department (PWD) (1985). Both the aforementioned studies identified the  
579 concurrent influence of baroclinic and diabatic forcing on the storms, and acknowledged to some  
580 extent the hybrid/warm core nature of the low pressure systems in the mature stage of the cyclone

581 lifetime. The difference of our approach lies in that, since the main aim of the present work is the  
582 quantification of the occurrence of cyclones with different structures, we use the information on  
583 the cyclone thermal structure as a primary classification criterion rather than an *a posteriori* diag-  
584 nostic. Also, in the present study the cyclone phase space analysis is applied systematically for all  
585 the time steps of all the detected events, rather than for selected subset of events. This approach is  
586 useful and needed, on the one hand, to improve the understanding of ECL formation in the context  
587 of global subtropical/hybrid cyclones occurrence. On the other hand, such classification is poten-  
588 tially useful for the analysis of ECLs coastal impacts and damage, since different ECL dynamical  
589 types are expected to be associated to different impacts. The last aspect, however, is not a focus of  
590 the present work.

591 We find that about one third of the detected cyclones are low pressure systems with a prevailing  
592 hybrid structure. A smaller set of events consist of warm core cyclones that are ex-tropical cy-  
593 clones entering the ECL region from the northern boundary. The remaining two thirds of cyclones  
594 have a cold core structure for the largest part of their lifetime; however, most of the cold core  
595 cyclones transition to the hybrid phase for a significant portion (20 % on average) of their lifetime.  
596 Many storms enter the ECL region after they have formed elsewhere. If only the time-steps within  
597 the ECL region are used for the classification, the fraction of hybrid cyclones increases. This find-  
598 ing agrees with previous results of Holland et al. (1987) and Browning and Goodwin (2013) on  
599 the common occurrence of hybrid cyclones among ECLs. Previous studies did not quantify the  
600 relative occurrence of cyclones with different thermal structure; the current work fills this knowl-  
601 edge gap. We also find that the occurrence of hybrid cyclones is enhanced in the northern part of  
602 the ECL region and closer to the coast. These results also add to the existing knowledge on this  
603 topic, as previous studies did not investigate in depth the spatial patterns within the ECL region of  
604 cyclones with different thermal structure. Furthermore, we find that the activity of cold core cy-

605 clones is larger in winter, while the seasonality of hybrid cyclones is less marked. While based on  
606 a different approach providing additional and more systematical information on the storm thermal  
607 structure and being based on physical variables only rather than making additional assumption on  
608 the cyclone location or motion, our results are broadly consistent with the findings of Browning  
609 and Goodwin (2013). They analyzed the cyclone phase space for two of the subtypes of events  
610 considered in the study: the ETL (easterly trough lows) events that track in a southern direction  
611 and the SSL (southern secondary lows) events that move over the ocean in a northerly direction.  
612 They found that on average ETL events have initially a baroclinic structure while transitioning to  
613 a hybrid structure after the second day and to a warm core structure after the fourth day, while SSL  
614 events develop a hybrid structure by the third day but do not transition to a warm core. They also  
615 find that SSL events are more common in winter while ETL events are more common year-round.  
616 It thus appears likely that there is a large overlap among the cyclones classified as cold core and the  
617 SSL events on the one hand, and among hybrid cyclones and ETL events on the other hand. This  
618 study, however, extends the analysis of cyclone phase space to the full set of cyclones occurring in  
619 the ECL region.

620 Concerning the analysis of the storms energetics, the current work builds up on the analysis  
621 of Black and Pezza (2013) that found a global and universal signature in the energetics of the  
622 explosively deepening cyclones. They found that the time series of the baroclinic energy conver-  
623 sion terms is characterized by a peak corresponding to the phase of rapid intensification, while the  
624 barotropic conversion terms only shows non statistically significant fluctuations. Here, we contrast  
625 their results, that were based mostly on extra-tropical storms, showing that in the case of rapidly  
626 deepening ECLs the barotropic conversion terms play a significant role for all classes of cyclones.  
627 Barotropic energy conversions are dominant for warm core cyclones, while for hybrid cyclones  
628 the barotropic and baroclinic energy conversions have comparable strengths. Even for the cold

629 core cyclones, the barotropic terms are non negligible. This result is consistent with the cyclone  
630 thermal classification, as we find that most cold core cyclones have a transition to an hybrid phase  
631 for a significant amount of time. The significance of the results lies on the one hand on the fact that  
632 the cyclone structure has been linked to the different physical mechanisms underlying cyclone for-  
633 mation and intensification. On the other hand, it has been shown that the intensification pathways  
634 of explosively deepening cyclones in the subtropics significantly differ from their mid-latitude  
635 counterpart, being characterized by a different balance of the barotropic and baroclinic terms.

636 Investigating in depth the environmental factors driving the evolution of the cyclone thermal  
637 structure and intensification is beyond the scope of the present work. However, we took an in-  
638 termediate step, and analyzed the surface heat fluxes associated with the three different classes of  
639 cyclones. The presence of large latent and sensible heat fluxes associated to a cyclone indicates  
640 the role of surface forcing and barotropic processes and is expected to lead to positive thermal  
641 anomalies close to the surface. Figure 12 shows the composites for the three classes of cyclones  
642 of the time series of along-the-track sensible and latent heat fluxes, averaged within a 4 degrees  
643 lat-lon box centered on the cyclone sea surface pressure minimum. The composite is calculated  
644 by setting as the origin of the time axis the time step corresponding to the lifetime lowest sea level  
645 pressure minimum. As Fig. 12 shows, the largest values of both latent and sensible heat fluxes are  
646 found for warm core cyclones, decreasing for hybrid cyclones while cold core cyclones show the  
647 smallest values. Interestingly, the difference between the three classes of cyclones are large in the  
648 intensification phase (the 48-hours period preceding the maximum intensity), but are largely re-  
649 duced after the cyclone has reached its lifetime minimum pressure. The analysis of surface fluxes,  
650 shows that, consistent with the previous understanding of different types of cyclones, air-sea in-  
651 teractions are relevant for warm-core cyclones, while they are much less so for the cold-core ones.  
652 The analysis also show that air-sea interaction also plays a role in the intensification phase of hy-

653 brid cyclones, even if such role is not dominant as in the case of warm core cyclones due to the  
654 presence of additional processes.

### 655 *b. Conclusions and Outlook*

656 In this study, results from a physically motivated climatology of Australian ECLs occurrence  
657 and intensification have been presented and discussed, based on a classification of low pressure  
658 systems according to their dynamical structure and on the analysis of the environment energetics  
659 in the cyclone surroundings.

660 While addressing some existing knowledge gaps, this work on the other hand paves the way  
661 for further investigation on a number of aspects concerning present and future ECL activity at a  
662 number of timescales, and the associated impacts.

663 A direction of further investigation is to assess how the impacts of different classes of ECLs  
664 such as hybrid or cold core cyclones differ, in terms of wind, rainfall or other variables along the  
665 lines of a similar analysis of Kiem et al. (2016) for cyclones with a different origin.

666 The results of the present work provide a framework to address a number of open questions re-  
667 lated to the properties of ECLs in future climate projections. One aspect is whether climate change  
668 will affect different classes of low pressure systems in similar or different ways, e.g. by altering the  
669 relative fraction or the spatial patterns of warm core, hybrid and cold core systems. Such alteration  
670 can cause changes in the associated impacts if the impacts of different classes of cyclones differ  
671 substantially (Kiem et al. 2016). Furthermore, there are several indications of a poleward migra-  
672 tion of tropical cyclone activity following the expansion of the tropics in a warmer climate (Walsh  
673 and Katzfey 2000; Lavender and Walsh 2011; Kossin et al. 2014; Parker et al. 2018; Studholme  
674 and Gulev 2018; Sharmila and Walsh 2018). It would therefore be of great interest to complement  
675 those findings by analysing the projected changes in the meridional stratification of the cyclone

676 spectrum in a set of climate model projections. Studies on global atmospheric energetics (Veiga  
677 and Ambrizzi 2013) showed that in a warming world both the baroclinic energy conversion term  
678  $C_A$  and the barotropic conversion term  $C_K$  are significantly altered. The term  $C_A$  decreases, as  
679 a consequence of the reduction of sensible heat transport by eddies due to decreased horizontal  
680 temperature gradients. Barotropic processes creating eddy transport of angular momentum on the  
681 other hand increase, contributing to the increase of the term  $C_K$ . The effect of such changes of the  
682 energy cycle on the intensification of cyclones has not been investigated in the literature so far.

683 A further direction worth investigating is the potential impact of the findings of the present work  
684 on the predictability of cyclone impacts. The rapid intensification of cyclones is notably difficult  
685 to forecast, due to the lack of understanding of the detail of mechanisms driving it. The energetics  
686 analysis could thus serve as a guidance for forecast assessments introducing additional diagnostics  
687 for cyclone intensification, complementing the information obtained from high-resolution numer-  
688 ical weather prediction models. In addition, the predictability of cyclones on longer timescales  
689 might be better explained if the contributions from different cyclone classes are considered.

690 Finally, the results shown have potential implications for cyclone climatologies in other regions,  
691 where tropical-extratropical interactions play a role in cyclone formation and intensification. The  
692 systematic application of similar analysis to other subtropical basins, and possibly at the global  
693 scale, is worthy of further investigation to improve the understanding of the response of the cyclone  
694 spectrum in its complexity to variations in the state of climate.

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696 mate Change Hub of the Australian Government's National Environmental Science Programme.

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846 **LIST OF TABLES**

847 **Table 1.** Number of cold core (CC), hybrid (HC) and warm core (WC) tracks (warm  
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849 tal climatology; the set of bomb cyclones identified with the original explosive  
850 deepening criterion; the set of half bomb cyclones identified with the origi-  
851 nal explosive deepening criterion; the set of bomb cyclones identified with the  
852 combined explosive deepening criterion; the set of half bomb cyclones identi-  
853 fied with the combined explosive deepening criterion. . . . . 39

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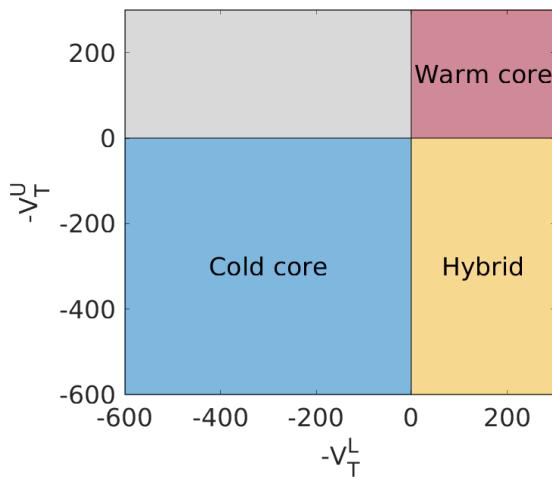
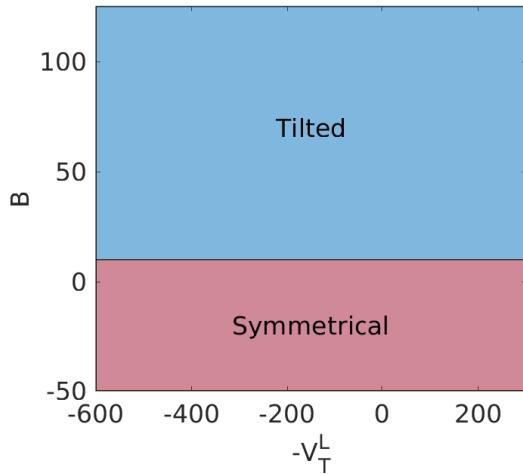
	TOT	CC	%	HC	%	WC	%
Total climatology	707	532	78%	140	20%	7	2%
Bomb cyclones (original)	122	91	75%	25	20%	3	3%
Half bomb cyclones (original)	327	256	78%	67	20%	2	1%
Bomb cyclones (combined)	64	41	64%	17	26%	3	5%
Half bomb cyclones (combined)	285	217	76%	64	22%	2	1%

## LIST OF FIGURES

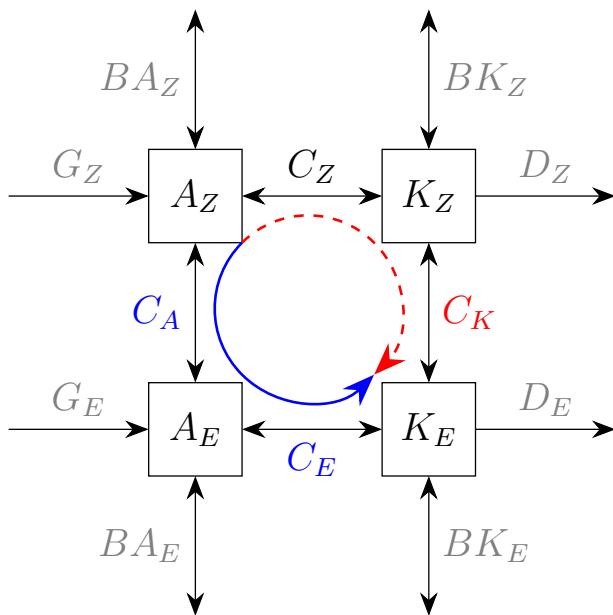
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860	<b>Fig. 1.</b>	Schematic representation of the cyclone phase space diagrams. Top: lower troposphere warm core ( $x$ axis) and symmetry parameter ( $y$ axis): the red shaded area indicates vertically symmetric cyclones, the blue shaded area indicates vertically tilted cyclones. Bottom: lower troposphere thermal core ( $x$ axis) and upper troposphere thermal core ( $y$ axis): the red shaded area indicates fully warm-core cyclones, the blue shaded area indicates fully cold-core cyclones, and the yellow shaded area indicates hybrid cyclones. . . . . 42
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891	<b>Fig. 9.</b>	Top panels: fractional frequency of each class of cyclones with respect to the total number of cyclones in each $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ lat-lon box within the ECL region. a): warm core cyclones. b): hybrid cyclones. c): cold core cyclones. Bottom panels: zonally and meridionally averaged (within the ECL region) fractional frequency of each class of cyclones with respect to the total number of cyclones. d): zonal mean fractional frequency as a function of Latitude. e): meridional mean fractional frequency as a function of the distance from the Australian coast. . . . 50
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901 **Fig. 11.** Composites time series of the anomalies of the conversion terms in the energy cycle for dif-  
 902 ferent types of cyclones detected in ERA-Interim for the period 1979-2016. Left column:  
 903 cold core cyclones. Middle column: hybrid cyclones. Right column: warm core cyclones.  
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 907 respectively 24 hPa /24 hr and 12 hPa/24 hr. . . . . 52

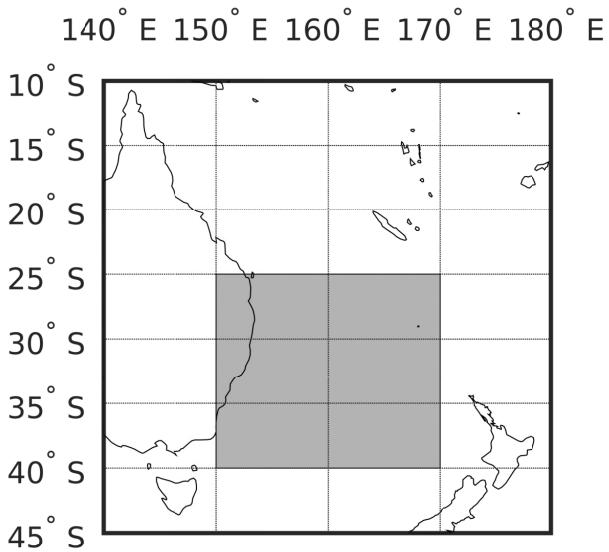
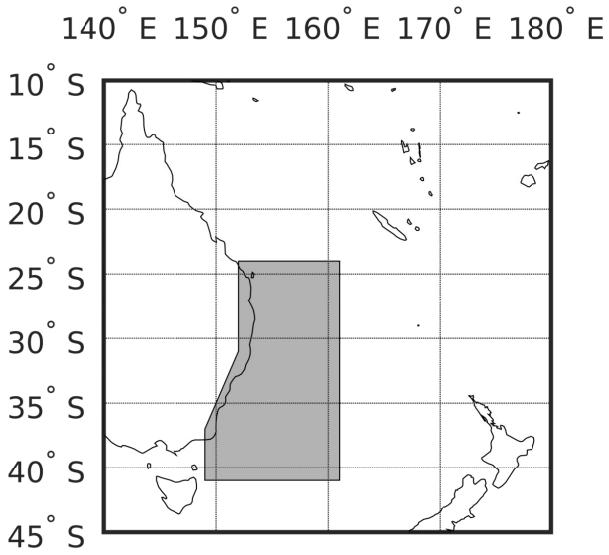
908 **Fig. 12.** Composites of surface fluxes for different types of cyclones detected in ERA-Interim for the  
 909 period 1979-2016. Top: time series of latent heat flux. Bottom: time series of sensible heat  
 910 flux. For each event in the composite, the time step corresponding to the cyclone lifetime  
 911 minimum sea level pressure is assigned the time zero in the time series . . . . . 53



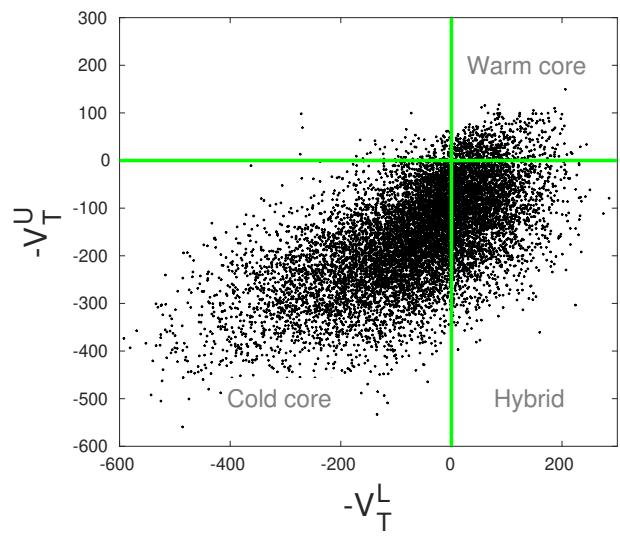
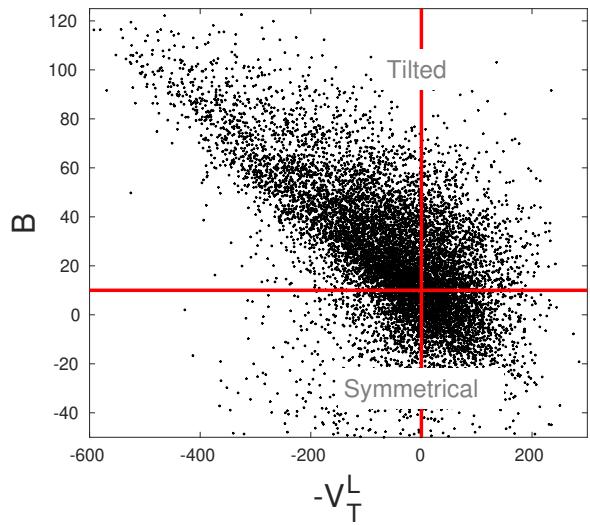
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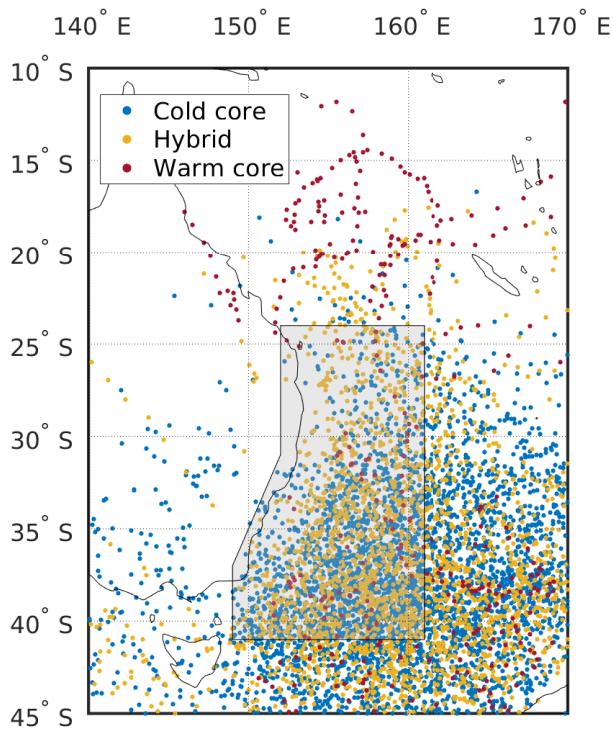
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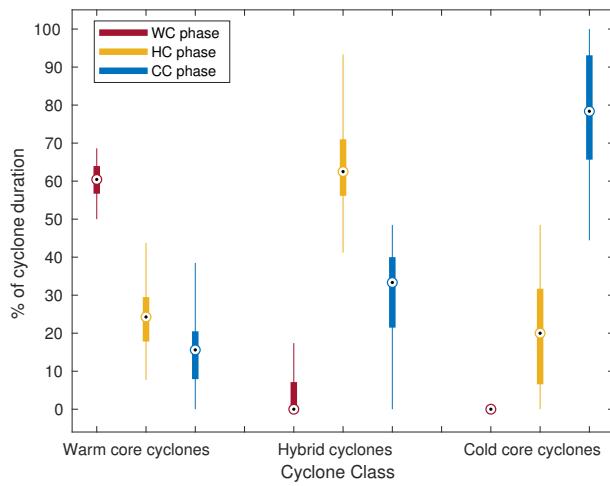
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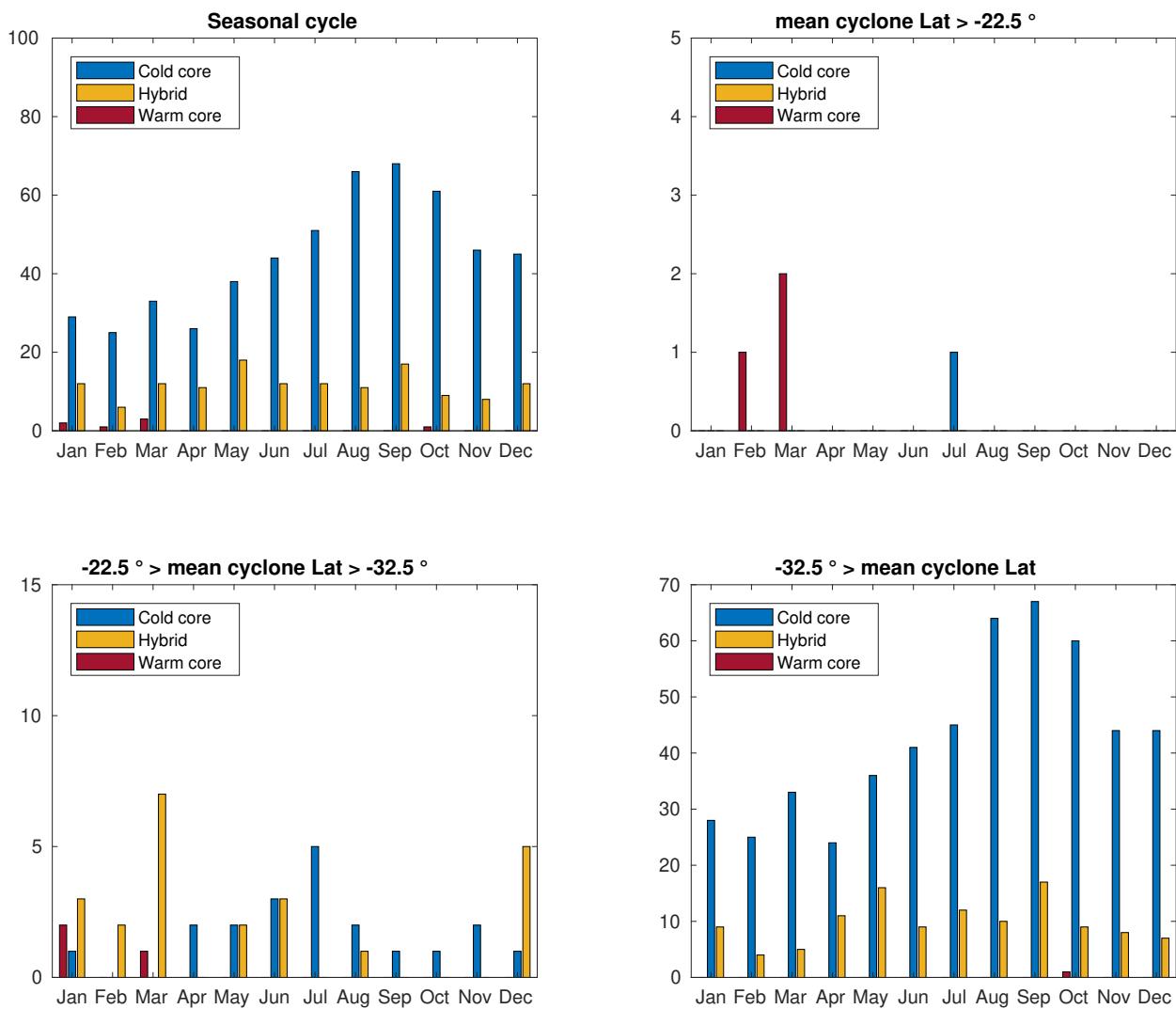
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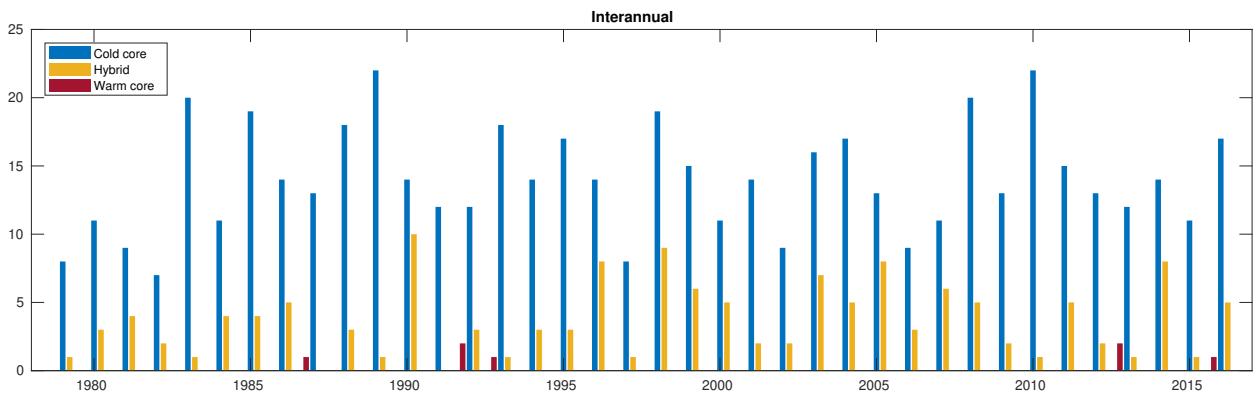
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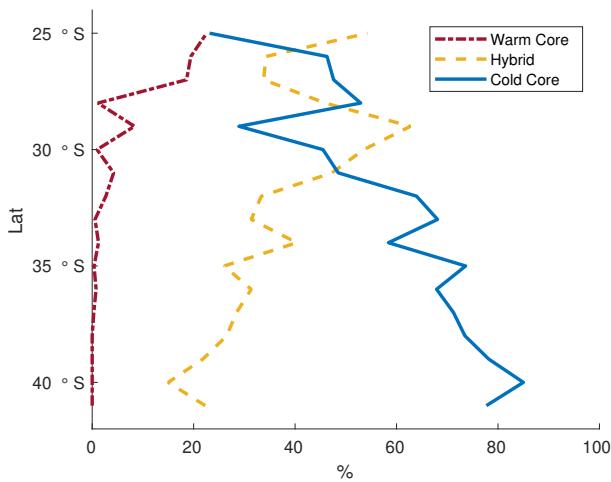
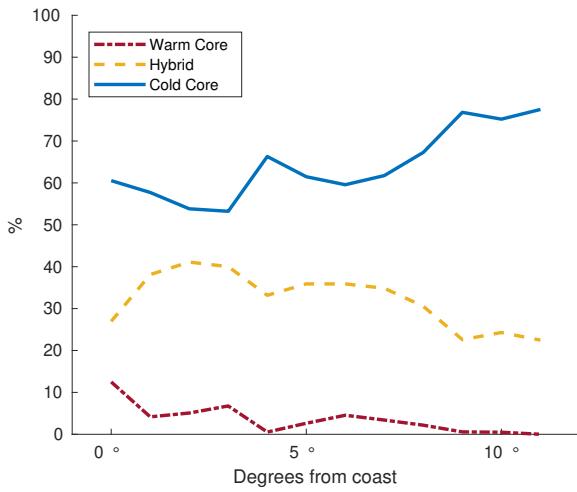
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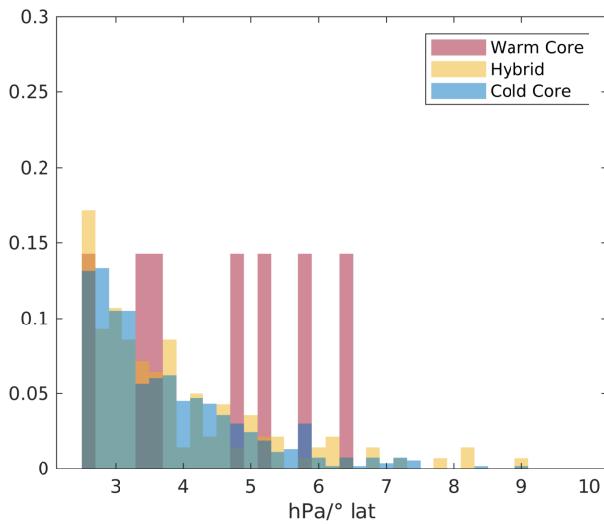
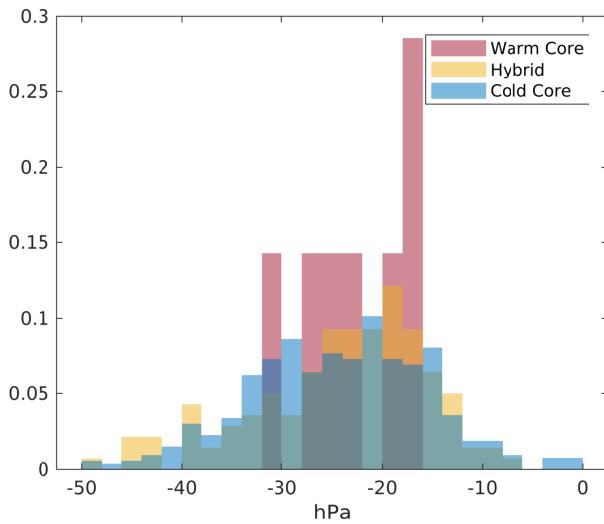
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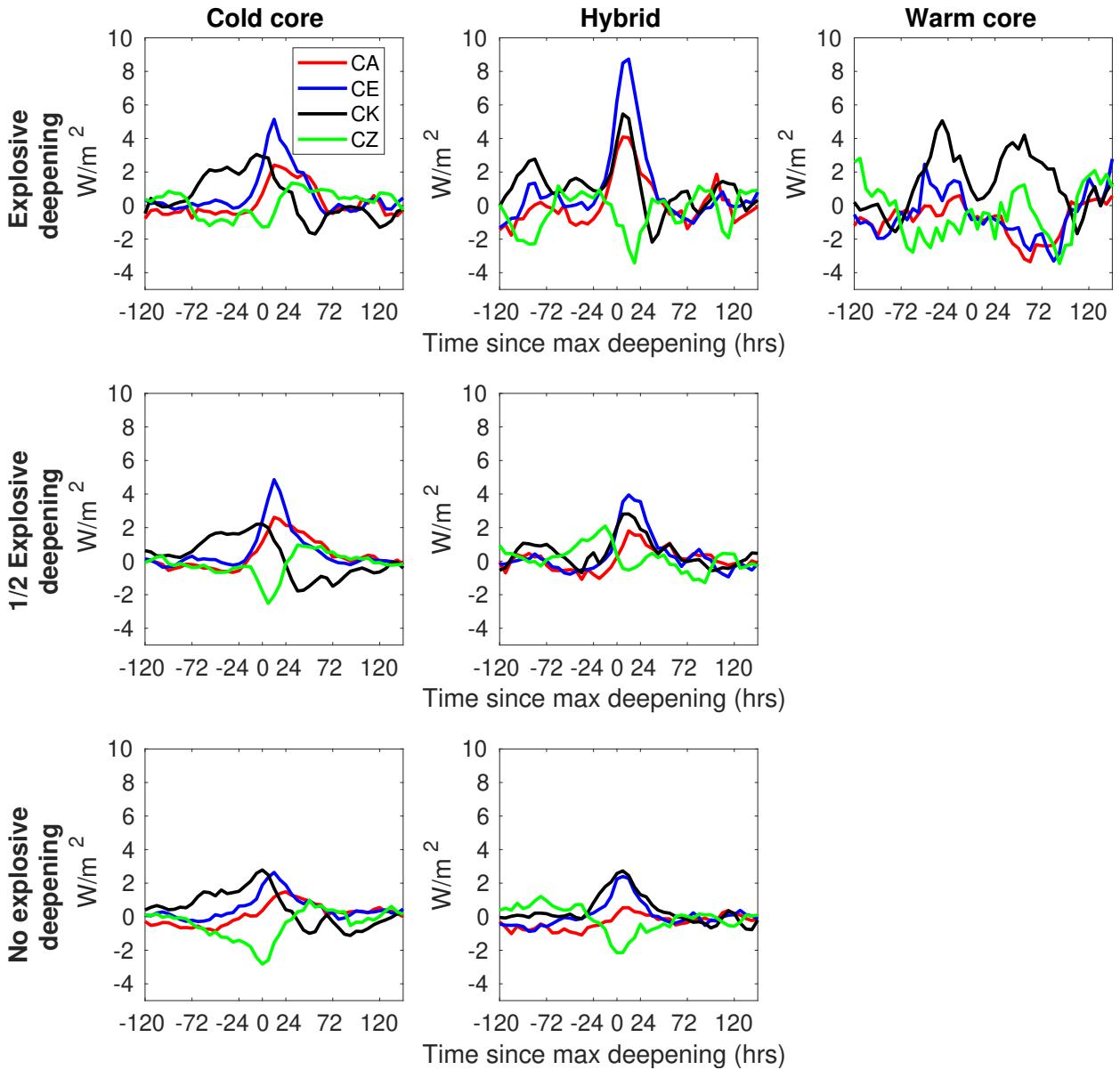
936 FIG. 8. Interannual time series of all cyclones detected in ERA-Interim in the ECL region for the period  
 937 1979-2016, according to the cyclone phase space classification.



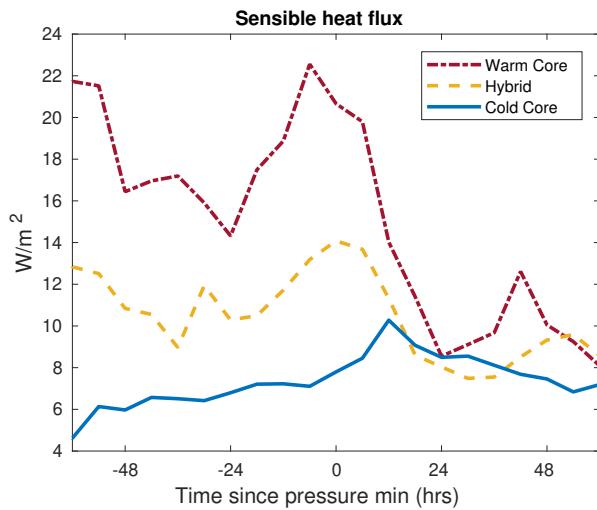
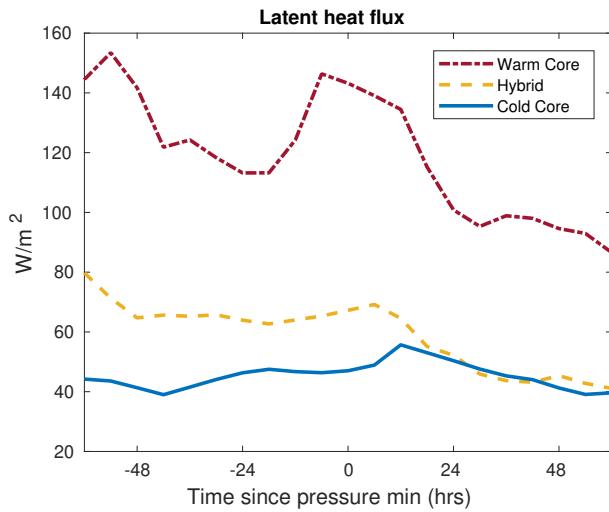
938 FIG. 9. Top panels: fractional frequency of each class of cyclones with respect to the total number of cyclones  
 939 in each  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  lat-lon box within the ECL region. a): warm core cyclones. b): hybrid cyclones. c): cold core  
 940 cyclones. Bottom panels: zonally and meridionally averaged (within the ECL region) fractional frequency of  
 941 each class of cyclones with respect to the total number of cyclones. d): zonal mean fractional frequency as a  
 942 function of Latitude. e): meridional mean fractional frequency as a function of the distance from the Australian  
 943 coast.



944 FIG. 10. Normalized histograms of different pressure-based metrics of intensity for all cyclones detected  
 945 in ERA-Interim in the ECL region for the period 1979-2016. Top: lowest values of mean sea level pressure  
 946 anomalies during the cyclone lifetime. Bottom: largest value of mean sea level pressure Laplacian during the  
 947 cyclone lifetime.



948 FIG. 11. Composites time series of the anomalies of the conversion terms in the energy cycle for different  
 949 types of cyclones detected in ERA-Interim for the period 1979-2016. Left column: cold core cyclones. Middle  
 950 column: hybrid cyclones. Right column: warm core cyclones. First row: explosively deepening cyclones. Sec-  
 951 ond row: cyclones with half explosive deepening. Last row: cyclones with no explosive deepening. Bomb and  
 952 half bomb cyclones are identified according to the original explosive intensification criterion, with a threshold  
 953 of respectively 24 hPa /24 hr and 12 hPa/24 hr.



954 FIG. 12. Composites of surface fluxes for different types of cyclones detected in ERA-Interim for the period  
 955 1979-2016. Top: time series of latent heat flux. Bottom: time series of sensible heat flux. For each event in the  
 956 composite, the time step corresponding to the cyclone lifetime minimum sea level pressure is assigned the time  
 957 zero in the time series