

# 1 Global tropical cyclone size and intensity reconstruction dataset for 2 1959–2022 based on IBTrACS and ERA5 data

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10 **Abstract.** Tropical cyclones (TCs) are powerful weather systems that can cause extreme disasters. The International Best  
11 Track Archive for Climate Stewardship (IBTrACS) dataset provides the widely used data to estimate TC climatology. However,  
12 it has low data coverage, lacking intensity and outer size data for more than half of all recorded storms, and is therefore  
13 insufficient as a reference for researchers and decision makers. To fill this data gap, we reconstruct a long-term TC dataset by  
14 integrating IBTrACS and European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts Reanalysis 5 (ERA5) data. This  
15 reconstructed dataset covers the period 1959–2022, with 3 h temporal resolution. Compared to the IBTrACS dataset, it contains  
16 approximately 3–4 times more data points per characteristic. We establish machine learning models to estimate the maximum  
17 sustained wind speed ( $V_{max}$ ) and radius of maximum wind ( $R_{max}$ ) in six basins for which TCs are generated, using ERA5-  
18 derived 10 m azimuthal mean azimuthal wind profiles as input, with  $V_{max}$  and  $R_{max}$  data from the IBTrACS dataset used as  
19 learning target data. Furthermore, we employ an empirical wind–pressure relationship and six wind profile models to estimate  
20 the minimum central pressure ( $P_{min}$ ) and outer size of the TCs, respectively. Overall, this high-resolution TC reconstruction  
21 dataset demonstrates global consistency with observations, exhibiting mean biases of <1% for  $V_{max}$  and 3% for  $R_{max}$  and  
22  $P_{min}$  in almost all basins. The dataset is publicly available from <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.13919874> (Xu et al., 2024)  
23 and substantially advances our understanding of TC climatology, thereby facilitating risk assessments and defenses against  
24 TC-related disasters.

## 25 1. Introduction

26 Tropical cyclones (TCs) are powerful weather systems accompanied by gale winds, heavy rainstorms, substantial waves, and  
27 severe storm surges, which cause extensive damage in affected regions (Gray, 1968). During the 2003-2022 period, the global  
28 average of TCs is 104 annually, resulting in estimated annual economic losses of 95.6 billion US dollars and affecting more  
29 than 3.2 million individuals (CRED, 2023; Geiger et al., 2018). Given the considerable scale and frequency of TC-related  
30 disasters, a comprehensive understanding of TC climatology is essential for effective risk assessment, emergency planning,  
31 and community resilience enhancement.

32 TCs are typically characterized according to their intensity, size, location, and translation speed (Weber et al., 2014).  
33 Many studies have reported increasing TC intensity at both the basin and global scales under global warming (e.g., Webster et  
34 al., 2006; Gualdi et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2022). Vincent et al. (2014) detects a 30% increase in high-intensity TCs at the global  
35 scale. Mei and Xie (2016) demonstrate a significant correlation between TC intensification and increasing sea surface  
36 temperatures (SSTs) in East and Southeast Asia. In addition, Walsh et al. (2016) observes significant increasing trends in TC  
37 intensity in the Atlantic basin over the past few decades. However, assessments of the response of TC intensity to climate  
38 change are subject to uncertainty, partly due to the challenging and costly process of collecting observational data (Gualdi et  
39 al., 2008; Knutson et al., 2019). Furthermore, the size of TCs may significantly influence their movement (Liu and Chan,  
40 1999), further contributing to their destructive potential (Xu et al., 2020). Similarly, a significant increase in TC size is  
41 proportional to surface latent heat flux under warmer air and ocean temperatures (Hill and Lackmann, 2009; Radu et al., 2014).  
42 Xu et al. (2020) demonstrates that TC size increases with ocean warming, based on idealized experiments. Sun et al. (2013,  
43 2014) discovers that TC size increases significantly as SST increases through a modeling analysis. However, the conclusions  
44 of these case studies are necessarily limited, and the relationships between TC size and climatology factors remain unclear due  
45 to the lack of historical records (Xu et al., 2020).

46 The International Best Track Archive for Climate Stewardship (IBTrACS) dataset is one of the most commonly used  
47 sources for TC data; it contains location, intensity, and size data for all known tropical and subtropical cyclones at a resolution

48 of 3 h (Knapp et al., 2010). This dataset utilizes maximum sustained wind speed ( $V_{max}$ ) and minimum central pressure ( $P_{min}$ )  
49 to quantify TC intensity (Simpson, 1974; Chavas et al., 2017; Casas et al., 2023). Among the several metrics that are defined  
50 to measure TC size, one of the most widely recognized is the radius of maximum wind ( $R_{max}$ , Chavas et al., 2015; Ren et al.,  
51 2022). Radial distances from the cyclone center to locations where sustained wind speeds of 34, 50 and 64 knots (~17, 26, and  
52 33 m/s) are observed near the surface, i.e.,  $R_{34}$ ,  $R_{50}$ , and  $R_{64}$ , are also widely used metrics to estimate TC size (Pérez-Alarcón  
53 et al., 2021). However, reliable TC size and intensity estimates are available only from 1988 onwards (Demuth et al., 2006),  
54 and post-storm analyses of wind radii, including  $R_{34}$ ,  $R_{50}$ , and  $R_{64}$ , have only commenced since 2004 (Gori et al., 2023).  
55 Furthermore, more than half of all recorded storms lack intensity and size data, often with only location data provided even  
56 during periods when post-storm analyses are conducted. Thus, constructing a TC climatology is an arduous task due to low  
57 data coverage.

58 Previous researches have extensively used machine learning to reconstruct TC datasets. Yang et al. (2022) divides  
59 hurricane wind fields into symmetric and asymmetric components, and proposes a downscaling model based on the XGBoost  
60 software library to reconstruct TC structure; however,  $V_{max}$  and  $R_{max}$  are the model input variables. Zhuo and Tan (2023)  
61 applies deep learning algorithms to estimate reliable TC sizes over the western North Pacific during 1981–2017, based on a  
62 homogeneous satellite database. Li et al. (2024) proposes a transfer learning-based generative adversarial network framework  
63 to derive TC wind fields from synthetic aperture radar images. Eusebi et al. (2024) demonstrates that a physics-informed neural  
64 network can produce accurate reconstructions of TC wind and pressure fields by assimilating observations in a computationally  
65 efficient manner. Nevertheless, the datasets used in these studies are generally limited to several cases or specific regions of  
66 interest, and some are not publicly available.

67 By contrast, reanalysis datasets such as the fifth-generation European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts  
68 (ECMWF) Reanalysis 5 (ERA5) dataset (Hersbach et al., 2020), the 55-year Japanese Reanalysis (Kobayashi et al., 2015), and  
69 US National Centers for Environmental Prediction and National Centre for Atmospheric Research Reanalysis products (Kistler  
70 et al., 2001), which combine past observations and model results through data assimilation, have unique advantages in terms

71 of data availability and spatiotemporal coverage. Schenkel et al. (2017) evaluates whether reanalysis dataset can be used to  
72 derive a long-term TC size dataset utilizing QuikSCAT data. Zick and Matyas (2016) explore the impact of satellite-derived  
73 precipitation over ocean on TC in the North American Regional Reanalysis. Gori et al. (2023) uses ERA5 reanalysis data to  
74 estimate the TC outer size, and wind model to estimate the radius of maximum wind. Thompson et al. (2024) constructs a  
75 tropical cyclone (TC) size dataset using the NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis I dataset for landfalling TCs along the United States  
76 coastline from 1948 to 2022. Previous studies have suggested that ERA5 products are among the most promising reanalysis  
77 data sources in terms of representing TC outer size and structure, due to their relatively fine horizontal grid spacing (Bian et  
78 al., 2021; Pérez-Alarcón et al., 2021; Dulac et al., 2024). Yeasmin et al. (2023) demonstrates that the reconstruction of TC  
79 proxies using ERA5 is a viable approach. Nevertheless, due to horizontal resolution limits and conservative physics  
80 parameterizations, reanalysis products have exhibited large underestimation and overestimation of TC  $V_{max}$  and  $R_{max}$   
81 values, respectively (Hatsushika et al., 2006; Schenkel and Hart, 2012). Thus, despite the substantial body of research  
82 reconstructing the outer sizes and proxies of TCs using ERA5 data (Bian et al., 2021; Gori et al., 2023; Pérez-Alarcón et al.,  
83 2021), studies that have employed it to derive relatively accurate TC intensity data are lacking.

84 In this study, we exploit the advantages of the IBTrACS and ERA5 datasets to generate a reconstructed TC dataset  
85 containing all characteristics of TCs. Given the high degree of accuracy demonstrated by the ERA5 data in capturing TC  
86 structures, we employ ERA5-derived azimuthal mean azimuthal wind profiles in conjunction with a machine learning model  
87 to reduce the bias observed in the  $V_{max}$  and  $R_{max}$  of TCs between the ERA5 and IBTrACS datasets. In addition, we model  
88 six TC radial wind profiles to compute  $R_{34}$ ,  $R_{50}$ , and  $R_{64}$ . The resulting long-term TC reconstruction dataset covering the  
89 period 1959–2022 is anticipated to facilitate future TC climatology research. The generated dataset is approximately 3–4 times  
90 larger than the IBTrACS dataset in terms of the number of records per characteristic.

91 In the subsequent sections, we describe the IBTrACS and ERA5 datasets and the methodology used to create the novel  
92 TC reconstruction dataset. We report and discuss the findings in comparison with IBTrACS data according to a comprehensive  
93 set of statistical metrics. Finally, we consider the potential applications of the reconstructed TC dataset.

94 **2. Data**

95 **2.1 IBTrACS data**

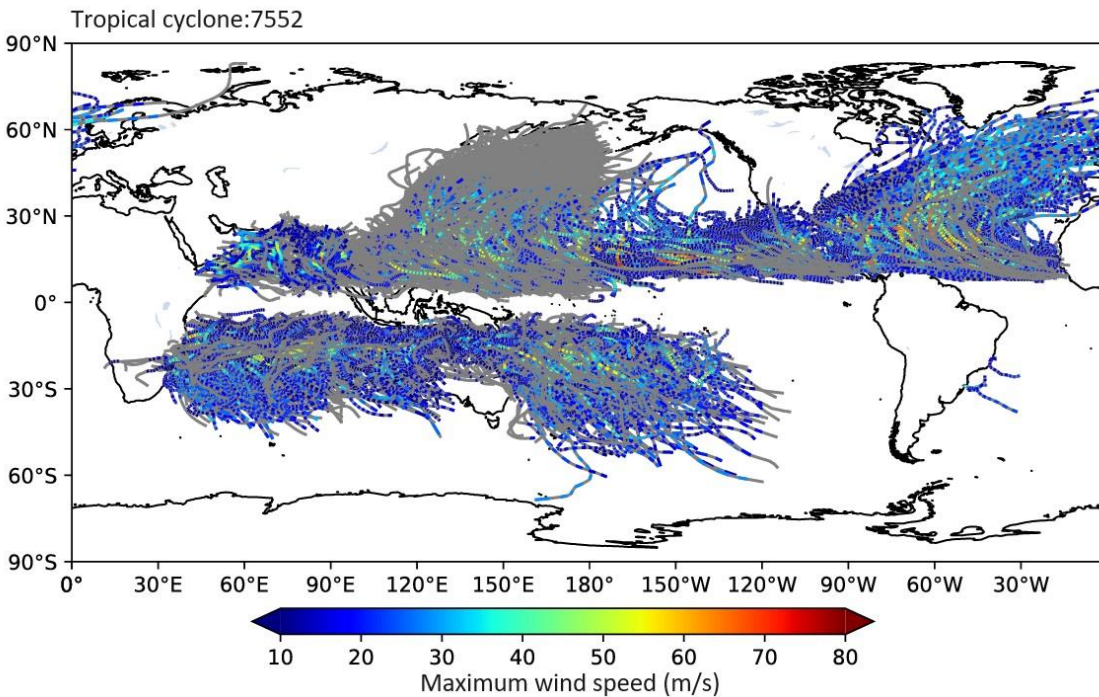
96 We obtain data on TC tracks, intensity, and size from the IBTrACS (version 4r01 in netCDF format), which is a unified dataset  
97 containing track estimates for all TC basins with a 3 h temporal resolution, based on data produced by tropical warning centers.

98 As the TC  $R_{max}$  data from all main TC basins are accessible from U.S. agencies (the National Oceanic and Atmospheric  
99 Administration’s National Hurricane Center for the North Atlantic and east Pacific and the military’s Joint Typhoon Warning

100 Center for the remainder of the globe), we employ these data and exclude the irregular time steps. We use all TC events in all  
101 basins, except for those over the South Atlantic, where TC generation is insufficient. A comprehensive overview of the

102 recorded TC characteristics is presented in Table 1. The IBTrACS dataset encompasses a total of 7,552 TCs on a global scale,  
103 spanning the period 1959–2022, corresponding to 423,296 individual time points. However, IBTrACS dataset only records

104 125,477  $V_{max}$ , 142,430  $P_{min}$ , and 94,415  $R_{max}$  values. TC tracks and  $V_{max}$  data extracted from the IBTrACS dataset are  
105 presented in Fig. 1.



106  
107 **Figure 1: Overview of the tracks and 10-m maximum wind speeds of tropical cyclones in IBTrACS dataset. Grey lines represent the**  
108 **unrecorded wind speeds.**  
109

**Table 1: Basic information on the number of recorded tropical cyclone characteristics from 1959 to 2022 recorded in IBTrACS.**

Basin	Time point	$V_{max}$	$P_{min}$	$R_{max}$	$R_{34}$	$R_{50}$	$R_{64}$
Western Pacific	152362	26604	61018	28715	19340	10641	7149
North Atlantic	55679	28310	21409	18161	14961	7630	4212
North Indian	24101	5481	5476	4281	2354	1029	614
South Indian	86790	23935	24468	16367	10697	5108	2977
South Pacific	45189	12322	12467	7169	4827	2577	1521
Eastern Pacific	59175	28825	17592	19722	12283	6482	3986
Global	423296	125477	142430	94415	64462	33467	20459

## 111 2.2 ERA5 data

112 ERA5 is the latest ECMWF reanalysis, following a decade of developments in model physics, core dynamics, and data  
113 assimilation (Hersbach et al., 2020). We utilize the main ERA5 dataset for the period 1959–2022 to estimate the track, intensity,  
114 and size of each TC. The spatial resolution of the ERA5 dataset is  $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ , with a temporal resolution of 3 h, aligning  
115 with that of the IBTrACS dataset. We exclude pre-1959 ERA5 back-extension data, as some TCs in these data exhibit  
116 unrealistically high levels of tension (Bell, 2021). Notably, despite the higher uncertainty associated with TC intensity data  
117 derived from ERA5 for the pre-satellite time period (1959–1978), comparisons of TC intensity pre- and post-1979 reveal  
118 similar climatological distributions for both TC groups in all basins (Fig. S1). We employ 10 m surface meridional and  
119 latitudinal wind speeds to obtain 10 m azimuthal–mean azimuthal wind profiles for TCs. We utilize the sea level pressure  
120 (SLP) to provide environmental pressure data for computing the TC central pressure. We derive the parameters including the  
121 SLP; relative vorticity at 700, 850, and 925 hPa; and geopotential height at 700 and 850 hPa from the ERA5 data to identify  
122 TC centers.

## 123 3. Methodology

### 124 3.1 TC center identification and azimuthal wind profile estimation

125 We identify TC centers in the ERA5 data, based on the method of Schenkel et al. (2017). We initially ascertain the position of  
126 each TC within the reanalysis grid utilizing the IBTrACS position as a first guess. To remove uncertainties associated with TC

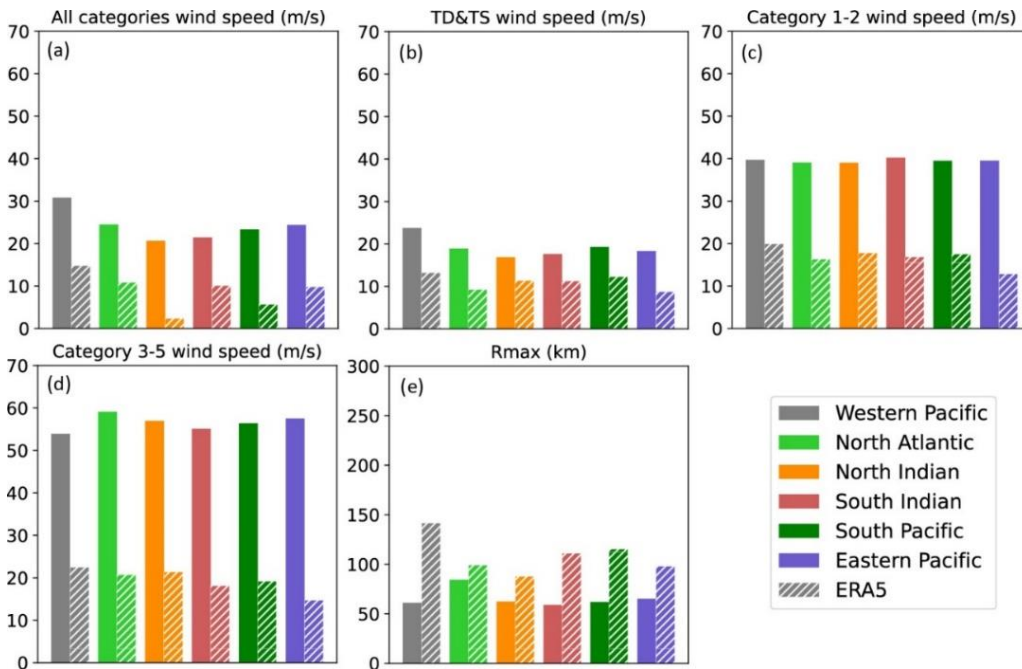
127 centers in the reanalysis data, we obtain the centers of six reanalysis variables (SLP; relative vorticity at 700, 850, and 925  
128 hPa; and geopotential height at 700 and 850 hPa) by calculating the centroids of positive relative vorticity values and negative  
129 other variables values over the grid near the first guess position ( $\pm 2^\circ$ ) using Python. Subsequently, we average the centers to  
130 adjust the position of the estimated reanalysis TC center.

131 We estimate azimuthal wind profiles based on the ERA5 data, as described by Chavas and Vigh (2014). First, we subtract  
132 estimated environment wind fields, which are calculated as 0.55 of the TC translation vectors rotated  $20^\circ$  counterclockwise  
133 (Lin and Chavas, 2012) from the meridional and latitudinal wind speeds. We determine TC translation vectors according to  
134 the TC positions at the next and current time points in the IBTrACS data. Next, we interpolate the 10 m surface meridional  
135 and latitudinal wind fields to a TC-centered polar coordinate. In contrast to the method of Chavas and Vigh, we do not exclude  
136 grid points over land to obtain the TC intensity after landfall. Then, we employ the parameter  $\mathcal{X}$ , defined as the normalized  
137 average magnitude of all vectors from the TC center to each grid point included at a specified radius (Chavas and Vigh, 2014)  
138 to remove asymmetrical radial bins by excluding radial bins with  $\mathcal{X} > 0.5$ . Finally, we calculate the TC 10 m azimuthal-mean  
139 azimuthal wind profiles as changes in wind speed with distance from the TC center, with grid points spaced at 10 km intervals.  
140 We obtain the ERA5-derived TC  $V_{max}$  ( $V_{max\_ERA5}$ ) and  $R_{max}$  ( $R_{max\_ERA5}$ ) from the wind profiles.

### 141 **3.2 Machine learning model for reconstructing TC $V_{max}$ and $R_{max}$ from ERA5 data**

142 As shown in Fig. 2, there are discernible biases in all six TC basins between the ERA5- and IBTrACS-derived  $V_{max}$  and  
143  $R_{max}$  values. The biases of  $V_{max}$  are less dependent on the basin, suggesting the systematic underestimation of  $V_{max}$  by the  
144 ERA5 data, partly due to the lower  $P_{min}$  and the underestimation of the TC wind-pressure relation described in ERA5  
145 (Magnusson et al., 2021). Moreover, convective-scale processes substantially influence  $V_{max}$ , which cannot be adequately  
146 represented in global models, leading to an inherent tendency for underestimation. To further demonstrate the performance of  
147 ERA5-derived data, we select the Saffir-Simpson categories as the uniform scale for all the basins, and analyze the differences  
148 between ERA5-derived and observed data across various wind speed ranges, following the methods in previous researches  
149 (Wright, 2019; Bloemendaal et al., 2022; Mo et al., 2023). In contrast, biases are more pronounced for larger  $V_{max}$  values,

150 with underestimation detected for wind speeds exceeding 20 and 30 m/s for Saffir–Simpson categories 1–2 and 3–5,  
 151 respectively, in all six basins. Notably, this bias even exceeds 40 m/s for Saffir–Simpson categories 3–5 in the East Pacific  
 152 basin. In addition, ERA5-derived results overestimate  $R_{max}$  by >15 km in all basins, and by >80 km in the West Pacific (WP)  
 153 basin. The large biases produced by ERA5 motivate us to establish a reconstructed TC dataset that is more consistent with  
 154 observations.



155  
 156 **Figure 2: Bar charts for comparing the mean value of the 10-m maximum wind speeds and the radii to maximum winds. Each of**  
 157 **the colors indicates a different basin. Solid and dashed bars represent IBTrACS and ERA5-derived data.**

158 Despite the discrepancy in TC intensity, Bian et al. (2021) demonstrates that ERA-5 accurately depicts TC structural  
 159 alterations. Therefore, we use the TC 10 m azimuthal–mean azimuthal wind speed at radial distances from 0 to 1000 km, at 10  
 160 km intervals, as a parameter to estimate  $V_{max}$  in each basin. The parameters also include the TC translation speed, given that  
 161 the IBTrACS  $V_{max}$  data ( $V_{max\_IB}$ ) represent a combination of the environmental and TC wind fields. We optimize the machine  
 162 learning models by Randomized Search Cross-Validation with mean square error as the loss function using Python. The models  
 163 include a random forest (RF) algorithm, artificial neural network (ANN), convolutional neural network, support vector  
 164 regressor, and multivariate linear regression (Table 2). In the above-mentioned models, we incorporate data for the entire  
 165 period (1959–2022) into the model training process. We randomly divide the dataset, made up of the input array and learning  
 166 target, into two subsets, with 75% allocated for training and the remaining 25% for testing, following the methods of previous



167 studies (e.g., Breiman, 2001; Guo et al., 2024). For a detailed account of the hyperparameter selections for each model, please  
 168 refer to the Text S1 in supplementary materials. We find that RF provided the most robust predictions, as evidenced by higher  
 169 correlations and smaller root mean square error (RMSE) values in most basins. Accordingly, we develop an RF regressor to  
 170 predict reconstructed  $V_{max}$  ( $V_{max\_RC}$ ), as follows:

$$171 \quad V_{max\_RC} = RF(V_0, V_{10}, V_{20}, \dots, V_{1000}, V_{TS}) \quad (1)$$

172 where  $RF$  and  $V_{TS}$  are the RF regressor and TC translation speed, respectively, and  $V_0, V_{10}, V_{20}, \dots, V_{1000}$  refer to the 10 m  
 173 azimuthal mean azimuthal wind speeds at radial distances from 0 to 1000 km. To further assess the accuracy of the RF model,  
 174 we define the error rate of the RF on the training data as the absolute relative errors between the predicted and observed  $V_{max}$ ,  
 175 normalized by the observations. The error rates are 0.11, 0.16, 0.09, 0.19, 0.16 and 0.20 for the WP, North Atlantic (NA),  
 176 North Indian (NI), South Indian (SI), South Pacific (SP) Eastern Pacific (EP) and basins, respectively.

177 **Table 2. Basic information on the comparison of the different model-derived with observed  $V_{max}$  in Western Pacific (WP), North**  
 178 **Atlantic (NA), North Indian (NI), South Indian (SI) South Pacific (SP) and Eastern Pacific (EP). CE, correlation coefficients; RMSE,**  
 179 **root mean square error. RF, random forecast; ANN, artificial neural network; CNN, convolutional neural network; SVR, support**  
 180 **vector regressor; MLR, multivariate linear regression.**

	WP	NA	NI	SP	SI	EP
RF <sub>CE</sub>	0.98	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.98	0.99
ANN <sub>CE</sub>	0.98	0.99	0.99	0.98	0.99	0.97
CNN <sub>CE</sub>	0.97	0.99	0.98	0.97	0.98	0.97
SVR <sub>CE</sub>	0.99	0.99	0.98	0.99	0.99	0.99
MLR <sub>CE</sub>	0.97	0.98	0.98	0.97	0.97	0.96
RF <sub>RMSE</sub> (m/s)	2.60	4.09	1.33	3.73	3.25	5.05
ANN <sub>RMSE</sub> (m/s)	5.09	5.31	1.65	3.87	4.37	10.05
CNN <sub>RMSE</sub> (m/s)	5.92	8.39	2.43	7.18	7.30	11.2
SVR <sub>RMSE</sub> (m/s)	3.99	6.70	2.18	4.87	5.03	9.08
MLR <sub>RMSE</sub> (m/s)	7.33	9.34	2.28	7.42	7.45	12.49

181 Similarly, we use variation in radial distance with azimuthal wind speed to estimate  $R_{max}$  in the six basins. We also test  
 182 several machine learning models (Table 3). Although the ANN-derived  $R_{max}$  exhibit stronger correlations with observations,  
 183 the RMSE values of  $R_{max}$  derived by RF with observations are considerably smaller than that derived by other models.  
 184 Therefore, we also utilize the RF regressor to predict the reconstructed  $R_{max}$  ( $R_{max\_RC}$ ), as follows:

$$185 \quad R_{max\_RC} = RF(R_0, R_{0.01}, R_{0.02}, \dots, R_1) \quad (2)$$

186 where  $R_0, R_{0.01}, R_{0.02}, \dots, R_1$  represent the radial distances at which normalized wind speeds range from 0 to 1, at an interval  
 187 of 0.01. In the RF models, the error rates are 0.19, 0.23, 0.14, 0.19, 0.15 and 0.23 for the WP, NA, NI, SI, SP and EP basins,  
 188 respectively. We further evaluate model performance by comparing the model-derived and observed  $V_{max}$  and  $R_{max}$  on the  
 189 testing dataset in Section 4, using a comprehensive set of statistical metrics, including mean error, mean absolute error (MAE),  
 190 RMSE, and Pearson correlation coefficients. We evaluate the statistical significance of Pearson correlation coefficients through  
 191 the application of a t-test.

192 **Table 3. Similar to Table 2, but for  $R_{max}$ .**

	WP	NA	NI	SP	SI	EP
RF <sub>CE</sub>	0.93	0.96	0.96	0.91	0.96	0.93
ANN <sub>CE</sub>	0.96	0.97	0.93	0.97	0.96	0.94
CNN <sub>CE</sub>	0.95	0.96	0.95	0.97	0.94	0.96
SVR <sub>CE</sub>	0.06	0.21	0.26	0.25	0.01	0.07
MLR <sub>CE</sub>	0.90	0.93	0.98	0.98	0.96	0.84
RF <sub>RMSE</sub> (km)	20.80	31.47	10.48	15.11	16.51	24.75
ANN <sub>RMSE</sub> (km)	31.96	46.74	16.62	21.06	23.22	41.14
CNN <sub>RMSE</sub> (km)	34.93	52.89	22.04	20.97	25.69	44.07
SVR <sub>RMSE</sub> (km)	43.53	72.43	28.26	29.05	30.99	51.15
MLR <sub>RMSE</sub> (km)	37.65	57.82	21.93	23.35	27.22	44.16

### 193 3.3 Empirical wind speed–pressure relationship for determining $P_{min}$

194 We model the conversion between  $V_{max}$  and  $P_{min}$  at a given time point during a TC using the empirical wind–pressure  
 195 relationship (Atkinson and Holliday, 1977; Harper, 2002), as follows:

$$196 V_{max} = a(P_{env} - P_{min})^b \quad (3)$$

197 where  $P_{env}$  is the environmental pressure obtained from the mean SLP for the TC center location 1–10 days earlier based on  
 198 the ERA5 data, following the method of Bloemendaal et al. (2020); we estimate  $a$  and  $b$  in each basin using a nonlinear  
 199 least squares approach, based on  $V_{max}$  and the corresponding  $P_{min}$  of the IBTrACS dataset.  $V_{max\_RC}$  is input into the fitted  
 200 Eq. (3) to obtain the reconstructed  $P_{min}$  ( $P_{min\_RC}$ ).

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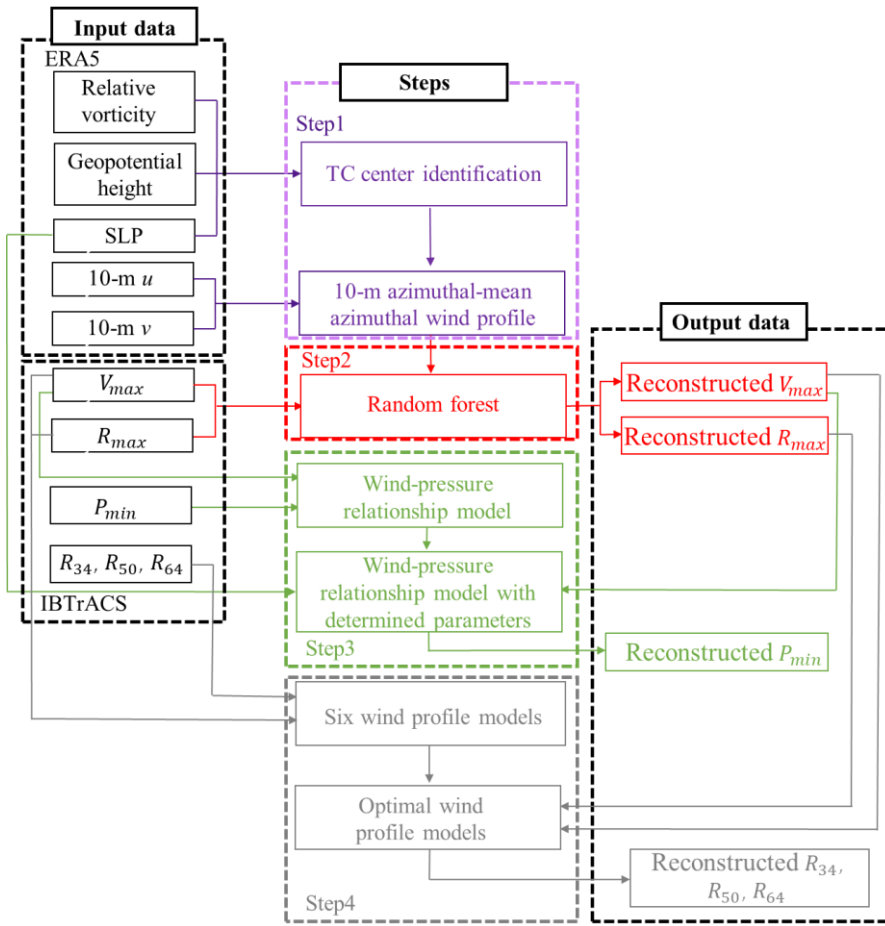
### 202 3.4 TC radial wind profile models for computing $R_{34}$ , $R_{50}$ , and $R_{64}$

203 Previous studies have developed TC radial wind profile models for estimating TC structures (e.g., Pérez-Alarcón et al., 2021).  
204 After obtaining the reconstructed  $V_{max}$  and  $R_{max}$ , we utilize six widely used wind field models (Holland, 1980; DeMaria,  
205 1987; Willoughby et al., 2006; Emanuel and Rotunno, 2011; Frisius and Scgönemann, 2013; Chavas et al., 2015) to estimate  
206 the reconstructed TC  $R_{34}$ ,  $R_{50}$ , and  $R_{64}$  ( $R_{34_{RC}}$ ,  $R_{50_{RC}}$ , and  $R_{64_{RC}}$ ). For a detailed description of the wind profile models,  
207 please refer to the Text S2 in supplementary materials.

208 We evaluate the performance of each profile model by comparing  $R_{34}$ ,  $R_{50}$ , and  $R_{64}$  estimates with those recorded in  
209 the IBTrACS dataset. Subsequently, we select the optimal model to generate reconstructed  $R_{34}$ ,  $R_{50}$ , and  $R_{64}$ , as described  
210 in detail in Section 4.

### 211 3.5 Flowchart for optimal wind profile model selection

212 After identifying the TC center, we use an RF approach to estimate  $V_{max}$  and  $R_{max}$  based on the ERA5-derived TC 10 m  
213 azimuthal mean azimuthal wind profiles. We evaluate model performance by comparing the model-derived and observed  $V_{max}$   
214 and  $R_{max}$  on the testing dataset, using a comprehensive set of statistical metrics. Next, we estimate the parameters of the  
215 empirical wind–pressure relationship, and compute TC  $P_{min}$  values. Finally, we derive the TC  $R_{34}$ ,  $R_{50}$ , and  $R_{64}$  by  
216 selecting the optimal wind profile model from among the six widely used models. The overall methodology is illustrated in  
217 Fig. 3.



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219

**Figure 3: Flowchart with the tropical cyclone center identification and wind profiles extracted from ERA5 (Step 1; in purple), the 10-m maximum wind speeds and radii to maximum winds estimated by random forest model (Step 2; in red), the minimum central pressure estimated by empirical wind-pressure relationship (Step 3; in green), and the out size estimated by wind profile models (Step 4; in grey).**

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223

#### 4. Results and Discussion

224

We evaluate the accuracy of the  $V_{max\_RC}$  model results according to various statistical metrics based on the testing datasets

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(Fig. 4), as prescribed by Breiman (2001). The  $V_{max\_RC}$  data are strongly correlated with observations, with correlation

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coefficients exceeding 0.98 for all six basins. The RMSE values for the WP, NA, NI, SI, SP and EP basins are 2.60, 4.09, 1.33,

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3.25, 3.73, and 5.05 m/s, respectively. Compared to  $V_{max\_ERA5}$ , the reconstruction provides a reduction in the MAE of over

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10 m/s in most basins, with a further reduction of 19.62 m/s in the East Pacific basin, as described in detail in Table 4. The

229

model is more effective at reducing biases between ERA5-derived results and observations for larger  $V_{max}$  values.

230

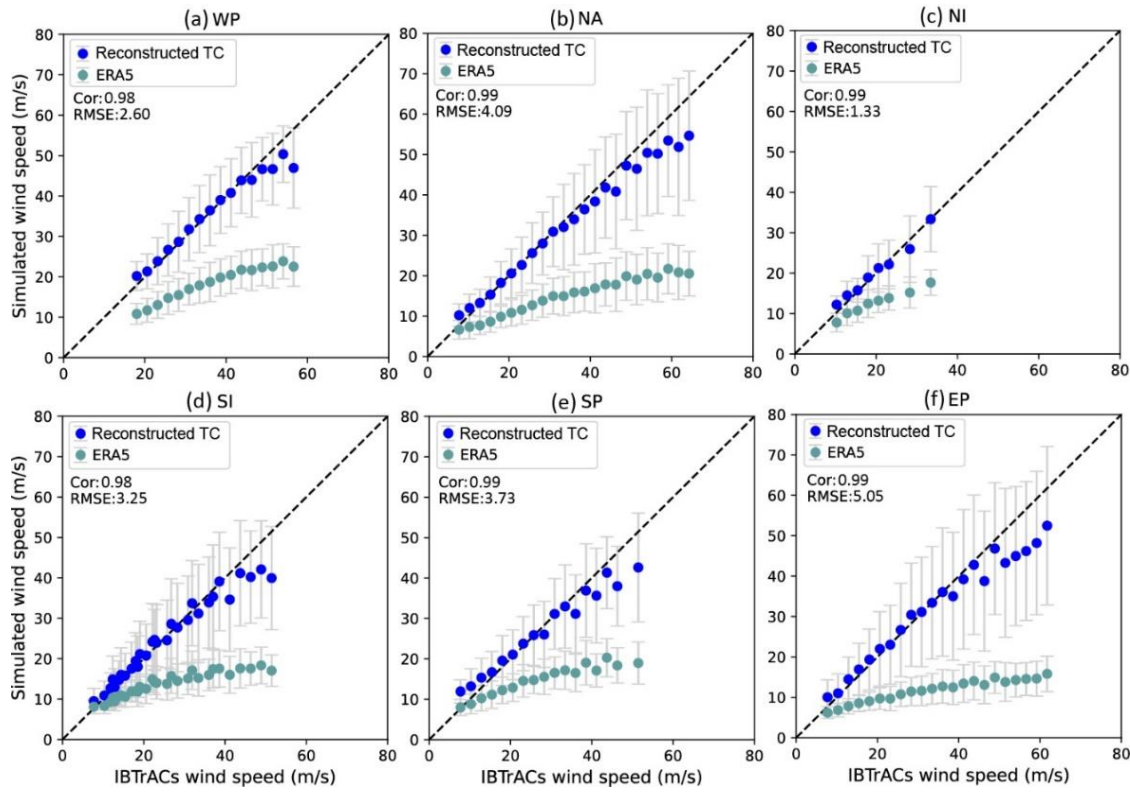
Furthermore, given the high influence of ENSO on TC intensity (Chu, 2024), we evaluate the accuracy of  $V_{max\_RC}$  for

231

moderate to strong El Niño and La Niña years (Fig. S2 and S3). We also observe a high degree of correlation coefficients

232 ( $>0.97$ ) and low RMSE values ( $<5\text{m/s}$ ) between  $V_{max\_RC}$  and  $V_{max}$  in all six basins during ENSO years. These metrics

233 demonstrate the better accuracy of  $V_{max\_RC}$  and its reduced bias compared to  $V_{max\_ERA5}$ .

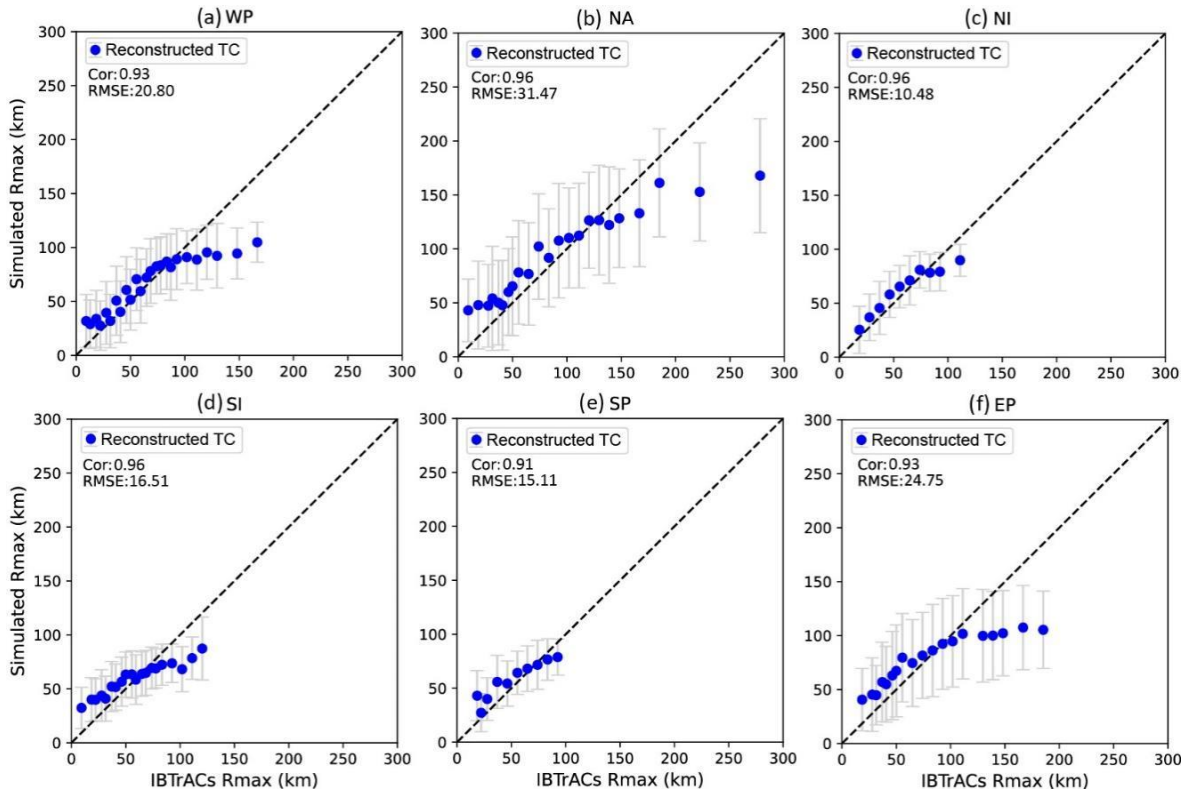


234  
235 **Figure 4: Comparison between value-averaged maximum wind speeds ( $V_{max}$ ) from ERA5-derived and reconstructed (ERA5 +**  
236 **Random forest) data and IBTrACS maximum wind speeds for tropical cyclones in (a) Western Pacific, (b) North Atlantic, (c) North**  
237 **Indian, (d) South Indian, (e) South Pacific and (f) Eastern Pacific basins. Grey lines represent the error bar, given as one standard**  
238 **deviation from the mean. The values with sample sizes less than 30 in IBTrACS are excluded.**

239 **Table 4: Basic information on the comparison of the ERA5-derived and reconstructed with observed  $V_{max}$ . ME, mean errors;**  
240 **MAE, mean absolute error; RMSE, root mean square error; CE, correlation coefficients.**

	ME (m/s)	MAE (m/s)	RMSE (m/s)	CE
Global <sub>ERA5</sub>	16.73	16.80	21.70	0.92
Global <sub>Reconstructed</sub>	2.82	2.83	4.34	0.99
WP <sub>ERA5</sub>	18.93	18.93	20.54	0.97
WP <sub>Reconstructed</sub>	0.56	1.63	2.60	0.98
NA <sub>ERA5</sub>	21.03	21.03	24.46	0.98
NA <sub>Reconstructed</sub>	2.38	2.82	4.09	0.99
NI <sub>ERA5</sub>	7.74	7.74	8.96	0.98
NI <sub>Reconstructed</sub>	-0.25	1.11	1.33	0.99
SI <sub>ERA5</sub>	12.39	12.41	15.61	0.93
SI <sub>Reconstructed</sub>	0.71	2.17	3.25	0.98
SP <sub>ERA5</sub>	13.71	13.73	16.67	0.96
SP <sub>Reconstructed</sub>	1.19	2.70	3.73	0.99
EP <sub>ERA5</sub>	23.09	23.09	26.86	0.97
EP <sub>Reconstructed</sub>	2.36	3.47	5.05	0.99

241 We similarly evaluate the accuracy of  $R_{max\_RC}$  for the six basins based on the testing datasets (Fig. 5). Correlation  
 242 coefficients between  $R_{max\_RC}$  and  $R_{max}$  recorded in IBTrACS ( $R_{max\_IB}$ ) exceed 0.9, indicating strong correlation between  
 243 the reconstructed results and observations. Moreover, the RMSEs for the WP, NA, NI, SI, SP and EP basins are 20.80, 31.47  
 244 10.48, 16.51, 15.11, and 24.75 km, respectively. Importantly,  $R_{max\_ERA5}$  exhibits a large deviation from observations,  
 245 exceeding 300 km at very low  $R_{max\_IB}$  values. Therefore, for clarity, the  $R_{max\_ERA5}$  data are not shown with the  
 246 reconstructed TC results in Fig. 5. The MAE exhibits a reduction of 39.57 km on a global scale, with a further reduction of  
 247 over 59.37 km in the SI basin, as described in detail in Table 5. It is noteworthy that the error bars are larger for the NA and  
 248 EP basins in comparison to the other basins. This may be attributed to the low correlations between  $R_{max}$  in IBTrACS and  
 249 in ERA5 (NA: 0.37; EP: -0.02). Although the  $R_{max\_RC}$  data slightly overestimate observations at low  $R_{max\_IB}$  values and  
 250 underestimated observations at high  $R_{max\_IB}$  values, they greatly reduce biases compared to the  $R_{max\_ERA5}$  data, and thus  
 251 produced better predictions for all six basins.

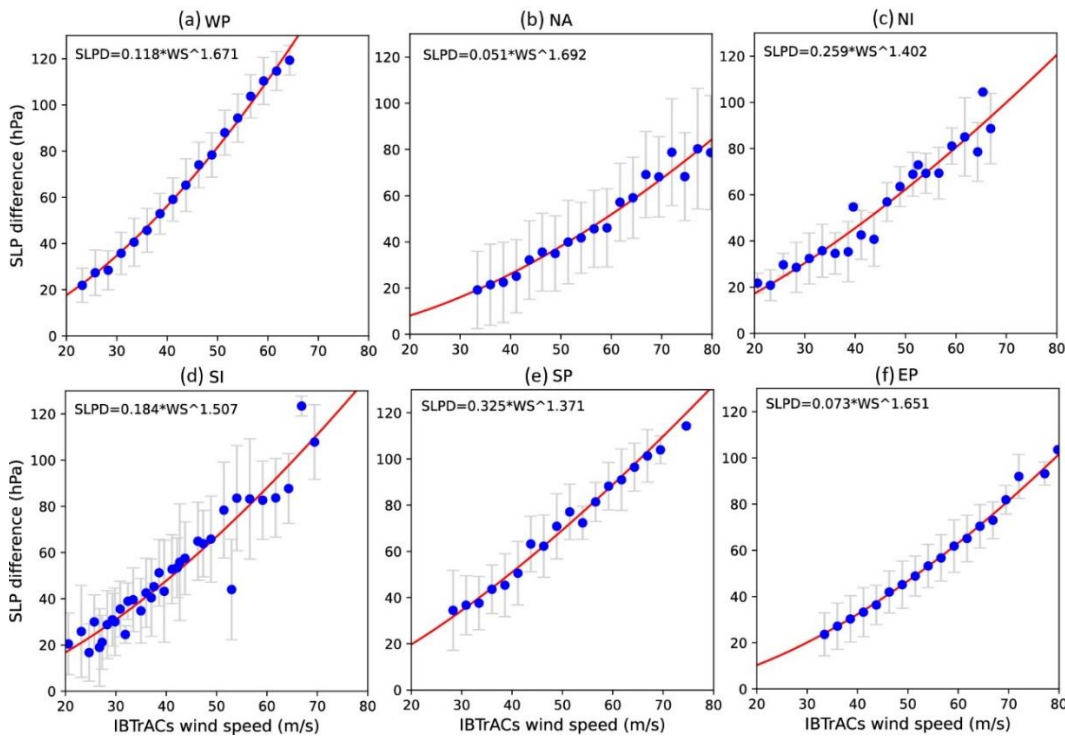


252  
 253 **Figure 5. Similar to Figure 4, but for radii to maximum winds ( $R_{max}$ ).**  
 254

Table 5: Similar to Table 4, but for  $R_{max}$ .

	ME (km)	MAE (km)	RMSE (km)	CE
Global <sub>ERA5</sub>	-41.64	55.49	67.66	0.44
Global <sub>Reconstructed</sub>	1.37	15.92	22.19	0.94
WP <sub>ERA5</sub>	-56.43	58.31	69.86	0.75
WP <sub>Reconstructed</sub>	1.32	14.93	20.80	0.93
NA <sub>ERA5</sub>	-7.79	54.25	64.59	0.37
NA <sub>Reconstructed</sub>	4.05	21.44	31.47	0.96
NI <sub>ERA5</sub>	-28.95	29.39	33.75	0.96
NI <sub>Reconstructed</sub>	-2.30	9.65	10.48	0.96
SI <sub>ERA5</sub>	-73.40	73.48	88.39	0.74
SI <sub>Reconstructed</sub>	-1.50	14.11	16.51	0.96
SP <sub>ERA5</sub>	-52.42	52.99	61.95	0.90
SP <sub>Reconstructed</sub>	-3.21	12.09	15.11	0.91
EP <sub>ERA5</sub>	-24.31	47.83	56.59	-0.02
EP <sub>Reconstructed</sub>	6.91	18.83	24.75	0.93

256 We compute  $P_{min\_RC}$  based on an empirical wind–pressure relationship. We employ  $V_{max\_IB}$  and the corresponding  
257  $P_{min}$  recorded in IBTrACS ( $P_{min\_IB}$ ) in the reconstruction, and we obtain  $P_{env}$  from the ERA5 dataset, following the method  
258 of Bloemendaal et al. (2020). We estimate related parameters through nonlinear fitting; the results are shown in Fig. 6. For the  
259 WP, NA, NI, SI, SP and EP basins, we use  $a$  values of 0.118, 0.051, 0.259, 0.184, 0.325, and 0.073 and  $b$  values of 1.67, 1.692,  
260 1.402, 1.507, 1.371, and 1.651, respectively, in Eq. (3).



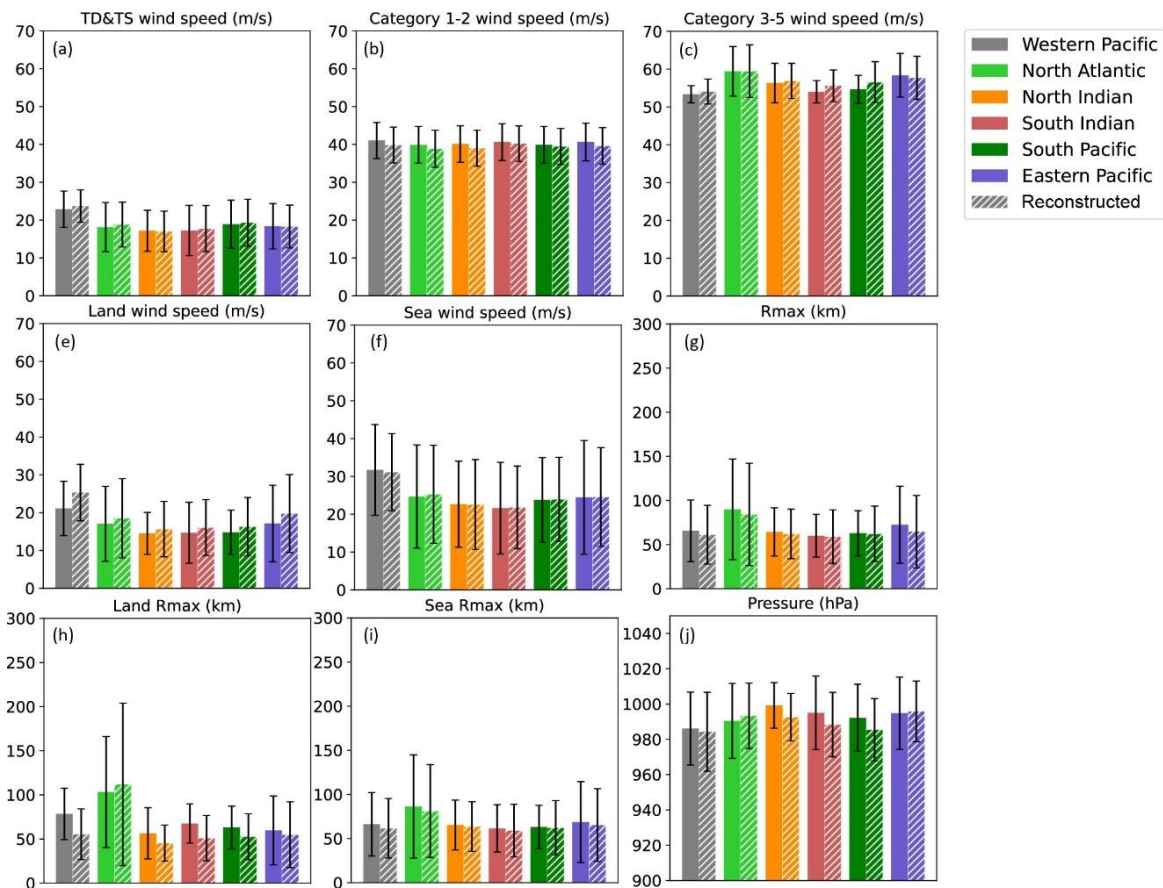
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262

263

Figure 6: Similar to Figure 4, but for non-linear regression analyses between value-averaged IBTrACS maximum wind speeds and the difference between environmental pressure and typical cyclone minimum central pressure (SLPD).

264 The mean and standard deviation values of various TC characteristics based on the testing datasets are plotted in Fig. 7  
 265 to compare the overall performance of the model in reconstructing TCs. Mean biases in  $R_{max}$  and  $P_{min}$  between the  
 266 reconstructed TC and IBTrACS datasets are both  $<3\%$  in most basins, providing compelling evidence that the predictions are  
 267 in good agreement with observations. In contrast to those over the sea, the reconstructed dataset overestimate and underestimate  
 268 landfall TC  $V_{max}$  and  $R_{max}$  in most basins, respectively, likely due to the decay of TC wind speeds after landfall, which is  
 269 not considered in the RF-based models. Despite these differences, biases remain within 5% in most basins, indicating that the  
 270 reconstructed landfall TC characteristics are closely aligned with those in the IBTrACS dataset.



271  
 272 **Figure 7: Bar charts for comparing the mean value of the different tropical cyclone characteristics. Each of the colors indicates a**  
 273 **different basin. Solid and dashed bars represent IBTrACS and reconstructed tropical cyclone data, respectively.**

274 After obtaining the reconstructed TC intensity dataset, we use six widely used models to estimate  $R_{34_{RC}}$ ,  $R_{50_{RC}}$ , and  
 275  $R_{64_{RC}}$ . We conduct a comparative analysis of the model-derived results and observations to determine which radial wind  
 276 profile estimate more closely approximated the TC outer radius, based on various statistical metrics (Table S1–S6). In the WP  
 277 basin, the W06 model demonstrates the strongest correlation ( $R_{34}$ : 0.89,  $R_{50}$ : 0.82,  $R_{64}$ : 0.78), achieving the lowest RMSE



278 and MAE. In NA basin, the CLE15 model outperforms others for  $R_{34}$ , with a correlation coefficient of 0.87, RMSE of 78.77  
279 km, and MAE of 53 km, whereas the W06 model performs better for  $R_{50}$  and  $R_{64}$ . For the NI and SI basins, all models  
280 except W06 show poor correlation with observations, some even exhibiting negative correlations. In the SP and EP basins,  
281 W06 substantially surpasses other models in terms of correlation coefficient. Although other models produce slightly smaller  
282 RMSE and MAE values for  $R_{64}$  in the EP basin compared to W06, their correlation coefficients, which are  $< 0.2$ , justify our  
283 choice of W06. Consequently, we select W06 to forecast  $R_{34\_RC}$ ,  $R_{50\_RC}$ , and  $R_{64\_RC}$  for the WP, NI, SI, SP and EP basins,  
284 whereas for the NA basin, we use CLE15 to predict  $R_{34\_RC}$  and W06 to predict  $R_{50\_RC}$  and  $R_{64\_RC}$ . The correlation  
285 coefficients are  $>0.75$  for three outer size metrics in most basins (Table 6).

286 **Table 6. Basic information on the comparison of the reconstructed data with the observational data for  $R_{34}$ ,  $R_{50}$  and  $R_{64}$ . ME,**  
287 **mean errors; MAE, mean absolute error; RMSE, root mean square error; CE, correlation coefficients. H80, D87, W06, E11, F13**  
288 **and CLE15 refer to the wind field models proposed by Holland (1980), DeMaria (1987), Willoughby et al. (2006), Emanuel and**  
289 **Rotunno (2011), Frisius and Scgönemann (2013) and Chavas et al. (2015)**

	Optimal profile	ME (km)	MAE (km)	RMSE (km)	CE
WP <sub>R34</sub>	W06	-24.79	46.75	64.54	0.89
WP <sub>R50</sub>	W06	-14.60	26.00	33.27	0.82
WP <sub>R64</sub>	W06	-14.14	18.28	22.71	0.78
NA <sub>R34</sub>	CLE15	-25.19	53.00	78.77	0.87
NA <sub>R50</sub>	W06	-11.58	32.71	57.39	0.84
NA <sub>R64</sub>	W06	2.67	18.52	30.37	0.87
NI <sub>R34</sub>	W06	-23.19	31.19	41.59	0.74
NI <sub>R50</sub>	W06	-14.66	20.49	25.69	0.63
NI <sub>R64</sub>	W06	-11.63	16.62	21.17	0.62
SI <sub>R34</sub>	W06	3.57	45.71	56.68	0.74
SI <sub>R50</sub>	W06	14.35	29.69	36.18	0.46
SI <sub>R64</sub>	W06	9.68	18.54	21.57	0.43
SP <sub>R34</sub>	W06	-5.00	33.51	46.25	0.83
SP <sub>R50</sub>	W06	11.75	21.53	27.25	0.77
SP <sub>R64</sub>	W06	12.75	15.60	18.56	0.77
EP <sub>R34</sub>	W06	32.25	44.43	51.31	0.81
EP <sub>R50</sub>	W06	27.19	31.77	36.61	0.68
EP <sub>R64</sub>	W06	18.74	21.66	25.24	0.51

290 We use the ERA5 dataset to derive parameters characterizing TC intensity and size in creating the TC reconstruction  
291 dataset. Then, we subject these parameters to a machine learning algorithm to produce more accurate data. Notably, we  
292 acknowledge that the TC intensity and size reconstructions developed in this study may be influenced by the limitations and

293 uncertainties inherent in the IBTrACS and ERA5 datasets. The RF models are unable to differentiate between landfall and  
 294 offshore TCs due to the limited data available concerning landfall TCs in the IBTrACS dataset, which results in higher  $V_{max}$   
 295 and lower  $R_{max}$  values for landfall TCs. When employing this dataset for the purpose of examining the characteristics and  
 296 impacts of TCs during their landfall, it is possible to overestimate their intensity while underestimating the scope of their  
 297 influence. Additionally, we estimate  $R_{34}$ ,  $R_{50}$  and  $R_{64}$  using wind profile models rather than RF models due to the paucity  
 298 of relevant data, which results in a lower level of accuracy than for these TC characteristics. Moreover, there is some  
 299 dependency between the reconstructed and IBTrACS-derived  $R_{max}$  values, likely due to the insufficient spatial resolution of  
 300 the ERA5 dataset. Finally, TC positions in the IBTrACS data exhibit some degree of inaccuracy during the pre-satellite time  
 301 period. Therefore, when assessing the impacts of TCs using this dataset, e.g., TC risk assessment, it is crucial to validate the  
 302 results through observations from meteorological stations, buoys, and other relevant methods. Notwithstanding these  
 303 limitations, the TC reconstruction dataset exhibits a markedly high degree of accuracy and extensive spatiotemporal coverage.  
 304 Basic information on the reconstructed TC data is presented in Table 7.

305 **Table 7: Basic information on the number of recorded tropical cyclone characteristics from 1959 to 2022 recorded in**  
 306 **reconstructed data.**

Basin	$V_{max}$	$P_{min}$	$R_{max}$	$R_{34}$	$R_{50}$	$R_{64}$
Western Pacific	152208	152208	152208	127668	39659	24302
North Atlantic	55608	55608	55608	31829	19106	11719
North Indian	24047	24047	24047	4614	1840	1039
South Indian	86606	86606	86606	35768	18500	10395
South Pacific	45112	45112	45112	23312	10547	5454
Eastern Pacific	59112	59112	59112	33772	19214	13026
Global	422693	422693	422693	256963	108866	65935

### 307 5. Data and Code availability

308 All data have been published in the form of CSV files, and are made publicly available through Zenodo repository with the  
 309 address: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.13919874> (Xu et al., 2024). ERA5 data can be publicly accessible at  
 310 <https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.bd0915c6> (Hersbach et al., 2023a) and <https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.adbb2d47> (Hersbach et al.,  
 311 2023b). IBTrACS data is accessible at <https://doi.org/10.25921/82ty-9e16> (Gahtan et al., 2024). The processing codes can be

312 made available upon request to the corresponding author. This study provides a detailed description of the TC size and intensity  
313 reconstruction dataset, which includes the maximum sustained wind speed, the radius of maximum wind, the minimum central  
314 pressure and the radii to locations with sustained wind speeds of 34, 50, and 64 knots during 1959–2022.

## 315 **6. Conclusion**

316 The considerable number of unrecorded TC characteristics in the IBTrACS dataset and large biases inherent in the ERA5  
317 dataset prompt us to generate a long-term TC reconstruction dataset. We construct the dataset by integrating TC characteristics  
318 from the IBTrACS and ERA5 datasets using RF-based models, an empirical wind–pressure relationship, and six wind profiles  
319 for the period 1959–2022. The TC reconstruction dataset is approximately 3–4 times larger than the IBTrACS dataset in terms  
320 of data points per characteristic, with much higher data accuracy than shown for ERA5-derived results.

321 We examine six TC characteristics to evaluate the reconstructed dataset. A comparison of maximum sustained wind  
322 speeds between the IBTrACS and reconstructed TC datasets reveals that the latter underestimated observational data by  
323 approximately 2.82 m/s, which is a considerably smaller bias than that shown by the ERA5 dataset (16.73 m/s) on a global  
324 scale. For the radius of maximum wind ( $R_{max}$ ), the mean error and RMSE decrease markedly, from  $-41.64$  and  $67.66$  km  
325 (IBTrACS  $R_{max}$  – ERA5  $R_{max}$ ) to  $1.37$  and  $22.19$  km (IBTrACS  $R_{max}$  – reconstructed  $R_{max}$ ), respectively. In addition,  
326 the correlation coefficient for  $R_{max}$  between the IBTrACS and ERA5 datasets is  $0.44$ , which increased to  $0.94$  between the  
327 IBTrACS and TC reconstruction datasets. The mean bias in minimum central pressure between the IBTrACS and reconstructed  
328 TC datasets is  $<3\%$  in most basins. We use six wind profile models to compute the radii to locations with sustained wind  
329 speeds of 34, 50, and 64 knots ( $R_{34}$ ,  $R_{50}$ , and  $R_{64}$ ), and the selected wind profile models (CLE15 for  $R_{34}$  in the North  
330 Atlantic, W06 for others) show good estimates for TC outer sizes, with correlation coefficients  $> 0.75$  for three outer size  
331 metrics in most basins. Overall, the TC reconstruction dataset agrees closely with the IBTrACS data in terms of TC intensity  
332 and size.

333 In conclusion, the TC reconstruction dataset may prove invaluable for advancing our understanding of TC climatology,  
334 thereby facilitating risk assessments and defenses against TC-related disasters. The future availability of reanalysis data with

335 finer spatial resolution and longer temporal coverage, such as the in-progress ERA6, will facilitate the creation of more accurate  
336 TC reconstructions with longer time spans using the methods presented in this study.

337

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339 conducted scientific analyses. All authors contributed to the writing and the editing of the manuscript.

340 **Competing interests.** The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

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