



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 has been used extensively 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 reconstructed a long-term TC dataset
14 by integrating IBTrACS and European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts Reanalysis 5 (ERA5) data. This new
15 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 established machine learning models to estimate the
17 maximum sustained wind speed (V_{max}) and radius to maximum wind speed (R_{max}) in six basins for which TCs were generated
18 using ERA5-derived 10 m azimuthal median azimuthal wind profiles as input, with V_{max} and R_{max} data from the IBTrACS
19 dataset used as training data. An empirical wind–pressure relationship and six wind profile models were employed to estimate
20 the minimum central pressure (P_{min}) and outer size of the TCs, respectively. Overall, this high-resolution TC reconstruction
21 dataset demonstrated 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 new dataset is publicly available from <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.12740372> (Xu et al.,
23 2024) and significantly advances our understanding of TC climatology, thereby facilitating risk assessments and defenses
24 against TC-related disasters.



25 **1. Introduction**

26 Tropical cyclones (TCs) are formidable weather systems accompanied by gale winds, torrential rainstorms, significant waves,
27 and devastating storm surges, which cause extensive damage in affected regions (Gray, 1968). During the past two decades,
28 TCs have resulted in an average annual economic loss of 29 billion dollars, affecting more than 22 million individuals (Guha-
29 Sapir, 2017; Geiger et al., 2018). Given the considerable scale and frequency of TC-related disasters, a comprehensive
30 understanding of TC climatology is essential for effective risk assessment, emergency planning, and community resilience
31 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) detected a 30% increase in high-intensity TCs at the global
35 scale. Mei and Xie (2016) demonstrated a significant correlation between TC intensification and increasing sea surface
36 temperatures (SSTs) in East and Southeast Asia. In addition, significant increasing trends in TC intensity have been observed
37 in the Atlantic basin over the past few decades (Walsh et al., 2016). However, assessments of the response of TC intensity to
38 climate change are subject to uncertainty, partly due to the challenging and costly process of collecting observation data (Gualdi
39 et al., 2008; Knutson et al., 2019). Furthermore, the movement of TCs may be significantly influenced by their size (Liu and
40 Chan, 1999), further contributing to their destructive potential (Xu et al., 2020). Similarly, a significant increase in TC size
41 was reported to be proportional to surface latent heat flux under warmer air and ocean temperatures (Hill and Lackmann, 2009;
42 Radu et al., 2014). Xu et al. (2020) demonstrated that TC size increases with ocean warming, based on idealized experiments.
43 Sun et al. (2013, 2014) discovered that TC size increases significantly as SST increases through a modeling analysis. However,
44 the conclusions of these case studies are necessarily limited, and the relationships between TC size and climatology factors
45 remain unclear due 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). In this dataset, maximum sustained wind speed (V_{max}) and minimum central pressure (P_{min}) are
49 used to quantify TC intensity (Simpson, 1974; Chavas et al., 2017; Casas et al., 2023). Among the several metrics that have
50 been defined to measure TC size, one of the most widely recognized is the radius to maximum wind speed (R_{max} , Chavas et
51 al., 2015; Ren et al., 2022). Radial distances from the cyclone center to locations where sustained wind speeds of 34, 50 and
52 64 knots (~17, 26, and 33 m/s) are observed on surface, i.e., R_{34} , R_{50} , and R_{64} , are also used to estimate TC size (Pérez-
53 Alarcón et al., 2023). However, reliable TC size and intensity estimates are available only from 1988 onwards (Demuth et al.,
54 2006), and post-storm analyses of wind radii, including R_{34} , R_{50} , and R_{64} , did not commence until 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 were conducted. Thus, constructing a TC climatology is an arduous task due to low
57 data coverage.

58 Machine learning has been widely used to reconstruct TC datasets. Yang et al. (2022) divided hurricane wind fields into
59 symmetric and asymmetric components, and proposed a downscaling model based on the XGBoost software library to
60 reconstruct TC structure; however, V_{max} and R_{max} were the model input variables. Zhuo and Tan (2023) applied deep
61 learning algorithms to estimate reliable TC sizes over the western North Pacific during 1981–2017, based on a homogeneous
62 satellite database. Li et al. (2024) proposed a transfer learning-based generative adversarial network framework to derive TC
63 wind fields from synthetic aperture radar images. Eusebi et al. (2024) demonstrated that a physics-informed neural network
64 can produce accurate reconstructions of TC wind and pressure fields by assimilating observations in a computationally efficient
65 manner. Nevertheless, the datasets used in these studies were generally limited to several cases or specific regions of interest,
66 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. Previous studies have suggested that ERA5 products are among the most
72 promising reanalysis data sources in terms of representing TC outer size and structure, due to their relatively fine horizontal
73 grid spacing (Bian et al., 2021; Pérez-Alarcón et al., 2023; Dulac et al., 2024). The reconstruction of TC proxies using ERA5
74 data has been demonstrated to be a viable approach (Yeasmin et al., 2023). Nevertheless, due to horizontal resolution limits
75 and conservative physics parameterizations, reanalysis products have exhibited large underestimation and overestimation of
76 TC V_{max} and R_{max} values, respectively (Hatsushika et al., 2006; Schenkel and Hart, 2012). Thus, despite the substantial
77 body of research reconstructing the outer sizes and proxies of TCs using ERA5 data (Bian et al., 2021; Gori et al., 2023; Pérez-
78 Alarcón et al., 2023), studies based on its relatively accurate TC intensity data are lacking.

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

86 In the subsequent sections, we describe the IBTrACS and ERA5 datasets and the methodology used to create the novel
87 TC reconstruction dataset. The findings are reported and discussed in comparison with IBTrACS data according to a
88 comprehensive set of statistical metrics. Finally, we consider the potential applications of the reconstructed TC dataset.

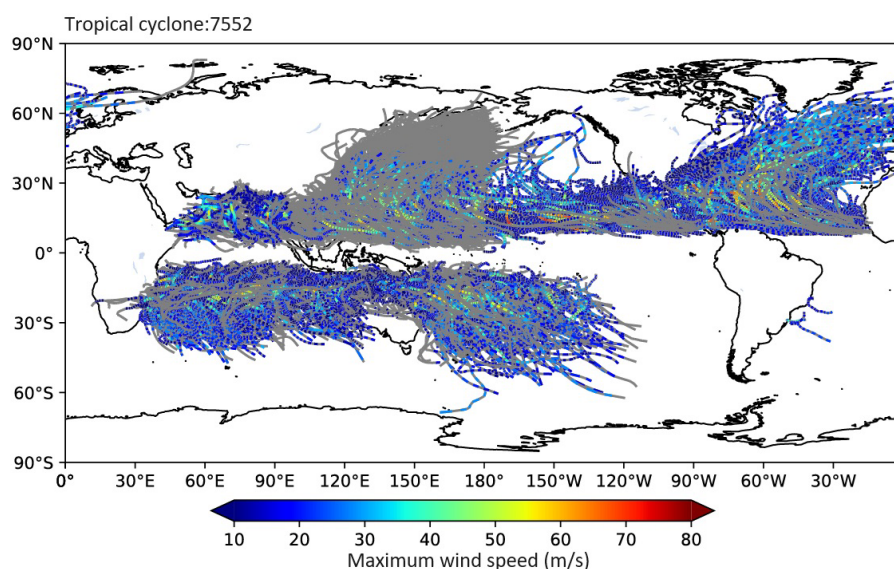
89 2. Data

90 2.1 IBTrACS data

91 Data on TC tracks, intensity, and size were obtained from the IBTrACS (version 4r01, which is a unified dataset containing
92 track estimates for all TC basins with a 3 h temporal resolution, based on data produced by tropical warning centers. As the
93 TC R_{max} data from all main TC basins were accessible from U.S. agencies, we employed these data and excluded the irregular



94 time steps. All TC events in all basins were used, except for those over the South Atlantic, where TC generation is insufficient.
 95 A comprehensive overview of the recorded TC characteristics is presented in Table 1. The IBTrACS dataset encompasses a
 96 total of 7,552 TCs on a global scale, spanning the period 1959–2022, corresponding to 423,296 individual time points. However,
 97 only 125,477 V_{max} , 142,430 P_{min} , and 94,415 R_{max} values were recorded. TC tracks and V_{max} data extracted from the
 98 IBTrACS dataset are presented in Fig. 1.



99
 100 **Figure 1: Overview of the tracks and 10-m maximum wind speeds of tropical cyclones in IBTrACS dataset. Grey lines represent the**
 101 **unrecorded wind speeds.**

102 **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



104 **2.2 ERA5 data**

105 ERA5 is the latest ECMWF reanalysis, following a decade of developments in model physics, core dynamics, and data
106 assimilation (Hersbach et al., 2020). We utilized the main ERA5 dataset for the period 1959–2022 to estimate the track,
107 intensity, 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,
108 aligning with that of the IBTrACS dataset. Pre-1959 ERA5 back-extension data were not adopted, as some TCs in these data
109 exhibited unrealistically high levels of tension (Bell, 2021). Notably, despite the higher uncertainty associated with TC
110 intensity data derived from ERA5 for the pre-satellite time period (1959–1978), comparisons of TC intensity pre- and post-
111 1979 revealed similar climatological distributions for both TC groups in all basins (Fig. S1). We employed 10 m surface
112 meridional and latitudinal wind speeds to obtain 10 m azimuthal–mean azimuthal wind profiles for TCs. The sea level pressure
113 (SLP) was utilized to provide environmental pressure data for computing the TC central pressure. Parameters including the
114 SLP; relative vorticity at 700, 850, and 925 hPa; and geopotential height at 700 and 850 hPa were derived from the ERA5 data
115 to identify TC centers.

116 **3. Methodology**

117 **3.1 TC center identification and azimuthal wind profile estimation**

118 TC centers in the ERA5 data were identified based on the method of Schenkel (2017). The position of each TC within the
119 reanalysis grid was initially ascertained utilizing the IBTrACS position as a first guess. To remove uncertainties associated
120 with TC centers in the reanalysis data, the centroid of six reanalysis variables (SLP; relative vorticity at 700, 850, and 925 hPa;
121 and geopotential height at 700 and 850 hPa) was averaged over the grid near the first guess position to adjust the position of
122 the estimated reanalysis TC center.

123 Azimuthal wind profiles based on the ERA5 data were estimated as described by Chavas and Vigh (2014). First, estimated
124 environment wind fields, which were calculated as 0.55 of the TC translation vectors rotated 20° counterclockwise (Lin and
125 Chavas, 2012) were subtracted from the meridional and latitudinal wind speeds. TC translation vectors were determined
126 according to the TC positions at the next and current time points in the IBTrACS data. Next, the 10 m surface meridional and



127 latitudinal wind fields were interpolated to a TC-centered polar coordinate. In contrast to the method of Chavas and Vigh, we
128 did not exclude grid points over land to obtain the TC intensity after landfall. Then, the parameter \mathcal{X} , defined as the normalized
129 average magnitude of all vectors from the TC center to each grid point included at a specified radius (Chavas and Vigh, 2014)
130 was employed to remove asymmetrical radial bins by excluding radial bins with $\mathcal{X} > 0.5$. Finally, the TC 10 m azimuthal–
131 mean azimuthal wind profiles were calculated as changes in wind speed with distance from the TC center, with grid points
132 spaced at 10 km intervals. The ERA5-derived TC V_{max} (V_{max_ERA5}) and R_{max} (R_{max_ERA5}) were obtained from the wind
133 profiles.

134 3.2 Machine learning model for reconstructing TC V_{max} and R_{max} from ERA5 data

135 As shown in Fig. 2, there were discernible biases in all six TC basins between the ERA5- and IBTrACS-derived V_{max} and
136 R_{max} values. The biases of V_{max} were less dependent on the basin, suggesting the systematic underestimation of V_{max} by
137 the ERA5 data. In contrast, biases were more pronounced for larger V_{max} values, with underestimation detected for wind
138 speeds exceeding 20 and 30 m/s for Saffir–Simpson categories 1–2 and 3–5, respectively, in all six basins. Notably, this bias
139 even exceeded 40 m/s for Saffir–Simpson categories 3–5 in the East Pacific basin. In addition, ERA5-derived results
140 overestimated R_{max} by >15 km in all basins, and by >80 km in the West Pacific basin. The large biases produced by ERA5
141 motivated us to establish a new TC dataset that is more consistent with observations.

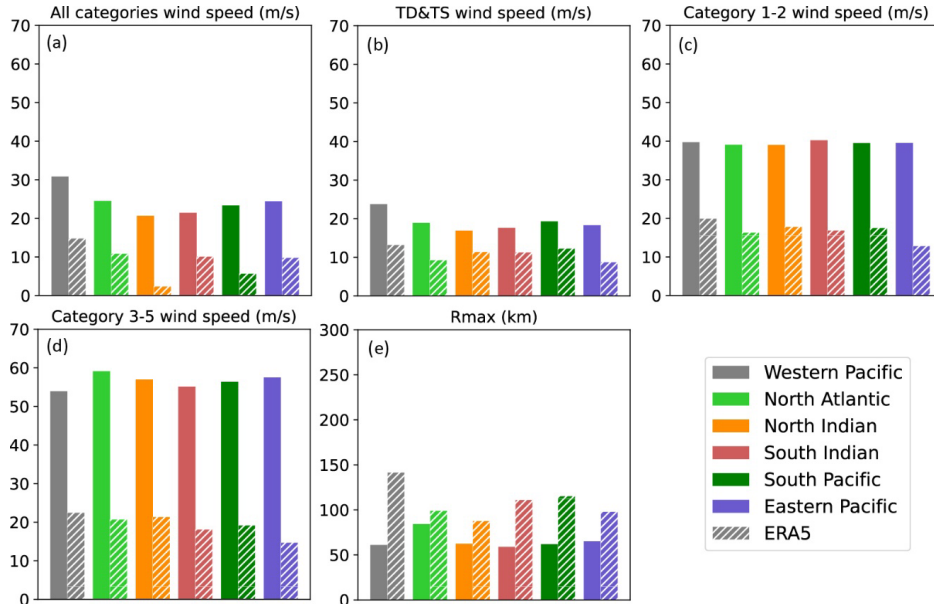
142 Previous studies have indicated that despite the modesty of ERA5-derived TC intensity data, the ERA5 dataset accurately
143 depicts TC structural alterations (Bian et al., 2021). Therefore, we used the TC 10 m azimuthal–mean azimuthal wind speed
144 at radial distances from 0 to 1000 km, at 10 km intervals, as a parameter to estimate V_{max} in each basin. The parameters also
145 included the TC translation speed, given that the IBTrACS V_{max} data (V_{max_IB}) represent a combination of the environmental
146 and TC wind fields. After testing several machine learning models, including an artificial neural network, convolutional neural
147 network, support vector regressor, multilayer perceptron regression, and random forest (RF) algorithms, we found that RF
148 provided the most robust predictions. Therefore, an RF regressor was developed to predict reconstructed V_{max} (V_{max_RC}), as
149 follows:



150 $V_{max_RC} = RF(V_0, V_{10}, V_{20}, \dots, V_{1000}, V_{TS})$ (1)

151 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

152 azimuthal–mean azimuthal wind speeds at radial distances from 0 to 1000 km.



153
 154 **Figure 2: Bar charts for comparing the mean value of the 10-m maximum wind speeds and the radii to maximum winds. Each of**
 155 **the colors indicates a different basin. Solid and dashed bars represent IBTrACS and ERA5-derived data.**

156 Similarly, variation in radial distance with azimuthal wind speed was used to estimate R_{max} in the six basins. After

157 testing several machine learning models, the RF regressor was utilized to predict the reconstructed R_{max} (R_{max_RC}), as

158 follows:

159 $R_{max_RC} = RF(R_0, R_{0.01}, R_{0.02}, \dots, R_1)$ (2)

160 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

161 of 0.01. In the RF models, hyperparameters including the maximum tree depth, minimum leaf samples, minimum sample splits,

162 and maximum leaf nodes were determined by randomized searches. The dataset, made up of the input array and learning target,

163 was randomly divided into two subsets, with 75% allocated for training and the remaining 25% for validation, following the

164 methods of previous studies (e.g., Breiman, 2001; Guo et al., 2024). Training data for the entire period (1959–2022) were



165 incorporated into the model training process. Model performance was evaluated using a comprehensive set of statistical metrics,
166 including mean error, mean absolute error, root mean square error (RMSE), and correlation coefficients.

167 3.3 Empirical wind speed–pressure relationship for determining P_{min}

168 The conversion between V_{max} and P_{min} at a given time point during a TC was modeled using the empirical wind–pressure
169 relationship (Atkinson and Holliday, 1977; Harper, 2002), as follows:

$$170 \quad V_{max} = a(P_{env} - P_{min})^b \quad (3)$$

171 where P_{env} is the environmental pressure obtained from the mean SLP for the TC center location 1–10 days earlier based on
172 the ERA5 data, following the method of Bloemendaal et al. (2020); a and b were estimated in each basin using a nonlinear
173 least squares approach, based on V_{max} and the corresponding P_{min} of the IBTrACS dataset. V_{max_RC} was input into the
174 fitted Eq. (3) to obtain the reconstructed P_{min} (P_{min_RC}).

175 3.4 TC radial wind profile models for computing R_{34} , R_{50} , and R_{64}

176 Previous studies have developed TC radial wind profile models for estimating TC structures (e.g., Pérez-Alarcón et al., 2021).
177 After obtaining the reconstructed V_{max} and R_{max} , six widely used wind field models (Holland, 1980; DeMaria, 1987;
178 Willoughby et al., 2006; Emanuel and Rotunno, 2011; Frisius and Segönemann, 2013; Chavas et al., 2015), were used to
179 estimate the reconstructed TC R_{34} , R_{50} , and R_{64} (R_{34_RC} , R_{50_RC} , and R_{64_RC}).

180 The wind profile model proposed by Holland (1980) was formulated as follows:

$$181 \quad V(r) = V_{max} \sqrt{\left(\frac{R_{max}}{r}\right)^b e^{1 - \left(\frac{r}{R_{max}}\right)^{-b}}} \quad (4)$$

182 where V is the wind speed at distance r from the TC center, and $b = 2$, according to Kowaleski and Evans (2016).

183 The model developed by DeMaria (1987) was formulated as follows:

$$184 \quad V(r) = V_{max} \left(\frac{R_{max}}{r}\right) e^{\frac{1 - \frac{1}{c} \left(\frac{r}{R_{max}}\right)^c}{d}} \quad (5)$$

185 where $c = 0.63$ and $d = 1$, following Kowaleski and Evans (2016).

186 The model proposed by Willoughby et al. (2006; hereinafter, W06) was formulated as follows:



$$187 \quad V(r) = \begin{cases} V_{max} \left(\frac{r}{R_{max}} \right)^n, & 0 \leq r \leq R_1 \\ V_i(1-w) + V_0w, & R_1 \leq r \leq R_2 \\ V_{max} e^{-\frac{r-R_{max}}{X_1}}, & R_2 \leq r \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

188 where V_i and V_0 are the tangential wind components in the eye and beyond the transition zone, respectively, and w , X_1 , and
 189 n are the weight function, exponential decay length in the outer vortex, and power law exponent within the eye, respectively.

190 The model proposed by Emanuel and Rotunno (2011) was formulated as follows:

$$191 \quad V(r) = \frac{2r(R_{max}V_{max} + 0.5fR_{max}^2)}{R_{max}^2 + r^2} - \frac{fr}{2} \quad (7)$$

192 where f is the Coriolis parameter.

193 The model developed by Frisius and Scgönemann (2013) was formulated as follows:

$$194 \quad V(r) = V_{max} \frac{r}{R_{max}} \left[\frac{2 \left(\frac{R_{max}}{r} \right)^2}{2 - \left(\frac{C_H}{C_D} \right) \left[1 - \left(\frac{r}{R_{max}} \right)^2 \right]} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{C_H}{C_D} - \frac{fr}{2} \quad (8)$$

195 where C_H and C_D are the surface enthalpy transfer and drag coefficients, respectively, and $\frac{C_H}{C_D} = 1$, according to Frisius and
 196 Scgönemann (2013).

197 The model proposed by Chavas et al. (2015; hereinafter, CLE15) was formulated as follows:

$$198 \quad \left(\frac{M_{inner}}{M_m} \right)^2 \frac{C_k}{C_d} = \frac{2 \left(\frac{r}{R_{max}} \right)^2}{2 - \left(\frac{C_k}{C_d} \right) + \left(\frac{C_k}{C_d} \right) \left(\frac{r}{R_{max}} \right)^2} \quad (9)$$

$$199 \quad \frac{\partial M_{outer}}{\partial r} = \frac{C_d(rV)^2}{0.001(r_0^2 - r^2)}$$

200 where M_{inner} , M_{outer} , and M_m are the angular moment of the inner and outer wind regimes and at R_{max} , respectively; and
 201 C_k and C_d are the exchange surface enthalpy and momentum coefficients, respectively.

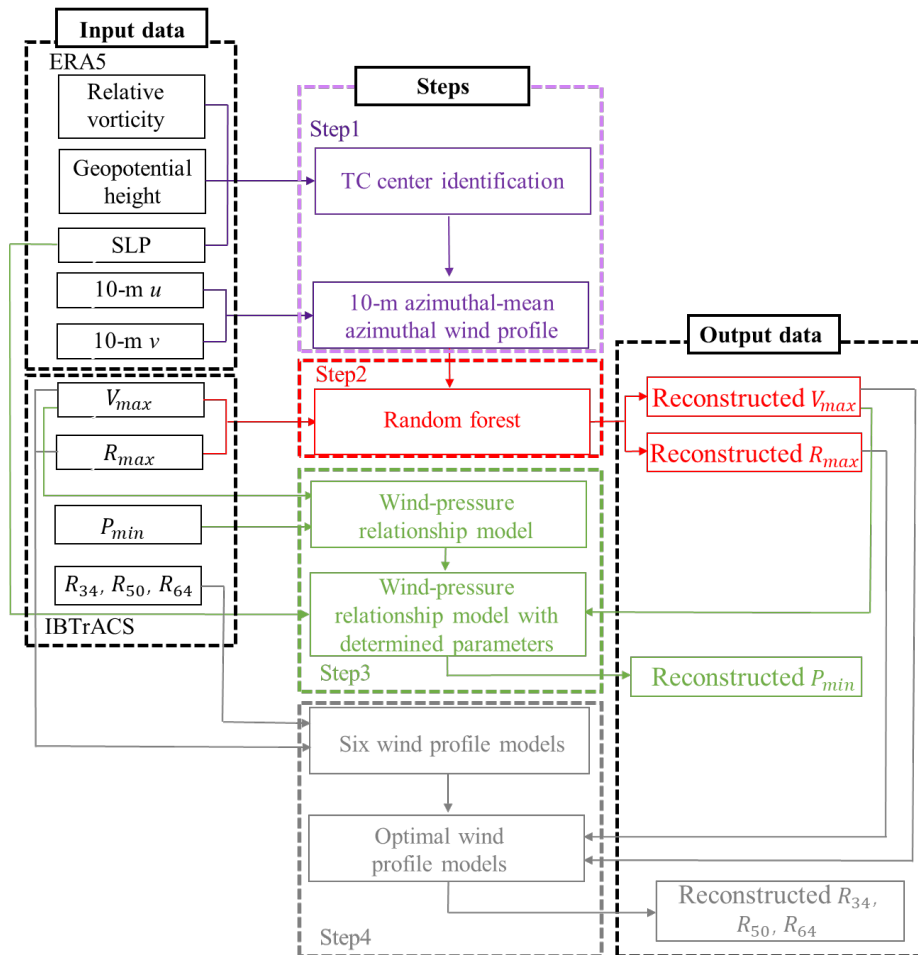
202 The performance of each profile model was evaluated by comparing R_{34} , R_{50} , and R_{64} estimates with those recorded
 203 in the IBTrACS dataset. The optimal model was selected to generate reconstructed R_{34} , R_{50} , and R_{64} , as described in detail
 204 in Section 4.

205 3.5 Flowchart for optimal wind profile model selection

206 After identifying the TC center, we used an RF approach to estimate V_{max} and R_{max} based on the ERA5-derived TC 10 m
 207 azimuthal–mean azimuthal wind profiles. Next, the parameters of the empirical wind–pressure relationship were estimated,



208 and TC P_{min} values were computed. Finally, the TC R_{34} , R_{50} , and R_{64} were derived by selecting the optimal wind profile
 209 model from among the six widely used models. The overall methodology is illustrated in Fig. 3.



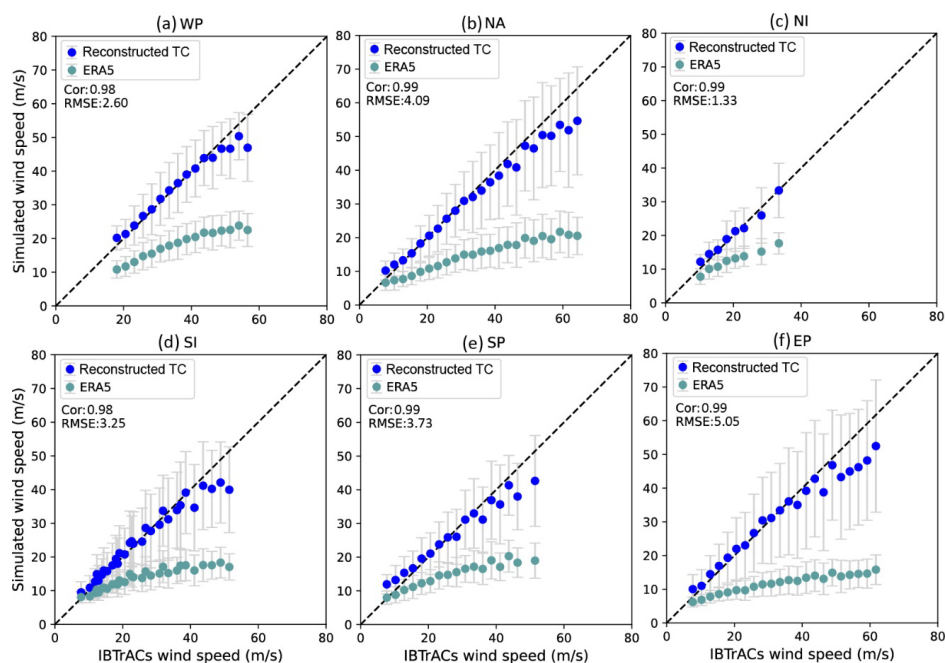
210
 211 **Figure 3:** Flowchart with the tropical cyclone center identification and wind profiles extracted from ERA5 (Step 1; in purple), the
 212 10-m maximum wind speeds and radii to maximum winds estimated by random forest model (Step 2; in red), the minimum central
 213 pressure estimated by empirical wind-pressure relationship (Step 3; in green), and the out size estimated by wind profile models
 214 (Step 4; in grey).

215 4. Results and Discussion

216 The accuracy of the V_{max_RC} model results was evaluated according to various statistical metrics based on the testing datasets
 217 (Fig. 4), as prescribed by Breiman (2001). The V_{max_RC} data were strongly correlated with observations, with correlation
 218 coefficients exceeding 0.98 for all six basins. The RMSE values for the West Pacific, North Atlantic, North and South Indian
 219 Ocean, and South and East Pacific basins were 2.60, 4.09, 1.33, 3.25, 3.73, and 5.05 m/s, respectively. Compared to V_{max_ERA5} ,



220 the reconstruction provided a reduction in the mean absolute bias of over 10 m/s in most basins, with a further reduction of
221 19.62 m/s in the East Pacific basin, as described in detail in Table 2. The model was more effective at reducing biases between
222 ERA5-derived results and observations for larger V_{max} values. Furthermore, given the high influence of ENSO on TC
223 intensity (Chu, 2024), the accuracy of V_{max_RC} was evaluated for moderate to strong El Niño and La Niña years (Fig. S2 and
224 S3). A high degree of correlation coefficients (>0.97) and low RMSE values ($<5\text{m/s}$) were observed between V_{max_RC} and
225 V_{max} in all six basins during ENSO years. These metrics clearly demonstrate the superior accuracy of V_{max_RC} and its
226 reduced bias compared to V_{max_ERA5} .



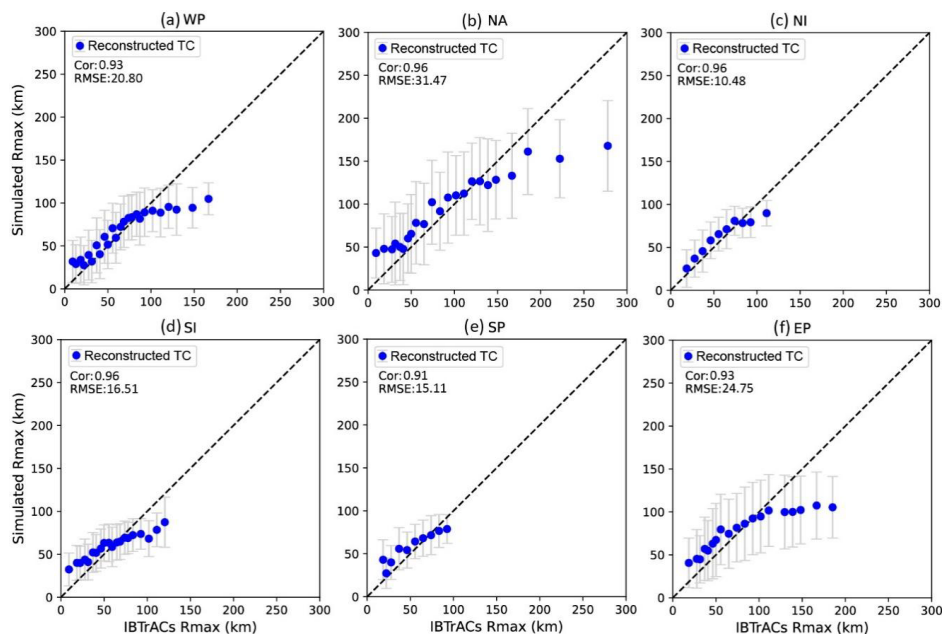
227
228 **Figure 4: Comparison between value-averaged maximum wind speeds (V_{max}) from ERA5-derived and reconstructed (ERA5 +**
229 **Random forest) data and IBTrACS maximum wind speeds for tropical cyclones in (a) Western Pacific, (b) North Atlantic, (c) North**
230 **Indian, (d) South Indian, (e) South Pacific and (f) Eastern Pacific basins. Grey lines represent the error bar, given as one standard**
231 **deviation from the mean. The values with sample sizes less than 30 in IBTrACS were excluded.**
232



233 **Table 2: Basic information on evaluation indices for V_{max} . ME, mean errors; MAE, mean of the absolute bias; RMSE, root mean**
 234 **square error; CE, correlation coefficients.**

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

235 We similarly evaluated the accuracy of R_{max_RC} for the six basins based on the testing datasets (Fig. 5). Correlation
 236 coefficients between R_{max_RC} and R_{max} recorded in IBTrACS (R_{max_IB}) exceeded 0.9, indicating strong correlation
 237 between the reconstructed results and observations. Moreover, the RMSEs for the West Pacific, North Atlantic, North and
 238 South Indian Ocean, and South and East Pacific basins were 20.80, 31.47 10.48, 16.51, 15.11, and 24.75 km, respectively.
 239 Importantly, R_{max_ERA5} exhibited a large deviation from observations, exceeding 300 km at very low R_{max_IB} values.
 240 Therefore, for clarity, the R_{max_ERA5} data are not shown with the reconstructed TC results in Fig. 5. The mean absolute bias
 241 exhibited a reduction of 39.57 km on a global scale, with a further reduction of over 59.37 km in the South Indian Ocean basin,
 242 as described in detail in Table 3. Although the R_{max_RC} data slightly overestimated observations at low R_{max_IB} values and
 243 underestimated observations at high R_{max_IB} values, they greatly reduced biases compared to the R_{max_ERA5} data, and thus
 244 produced superior predictions for all six basins.



245

246 **Figure 5.** Similar to Figure 4, but for radii to maximum winds (R_{max}).

247 **Table 3:** Similar to Table 2, but for R_{max} .

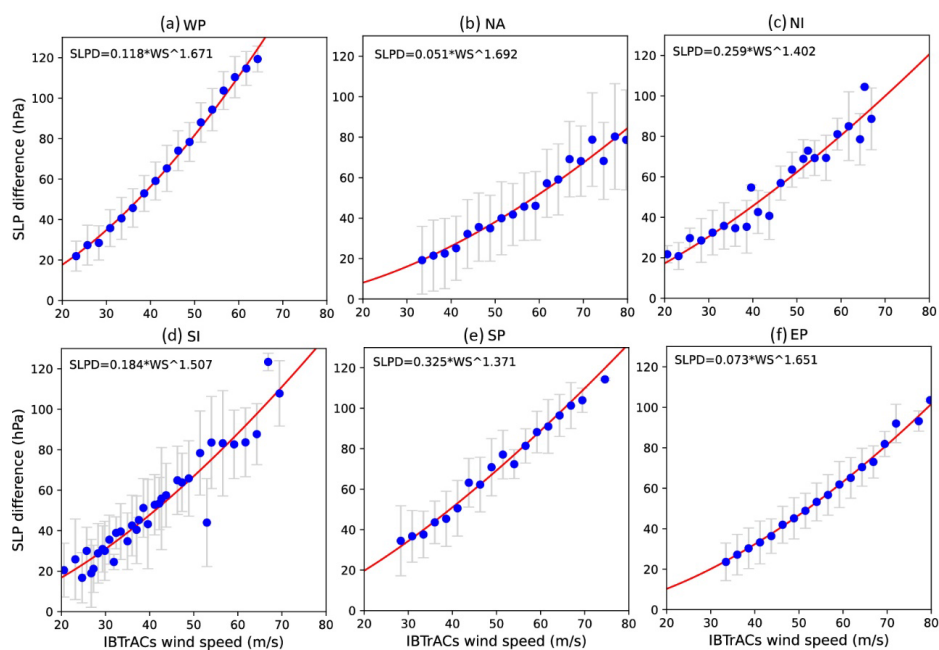
	ME (km)	MAE (km)	RMSE (km)	CE
Global _{ERA5}	-41.64	15.92	67.66	0.44
Global _{Reconstructed}	1.37	55.49	22.19	0.94
WP _{ERA5}	-56.43	58.31	69.86	0.75
WP _{Reconstructed}	1.32	14.93	20.80	0.93
NA _{ERA5}	-7.79	54.25	64.59	0.37
NA _{Reconstructed}	4.05	21.44	31.47	0.96
NI _{ERA5}	-28.95	29.39	33.75	0.96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

248

249



250 P_{min_RC} was computed based on an empirical wind–pressure relationship. V_{max_IB} and the corresponding P_{min}
251 recorded in IBTrACS (P_{min_IB}) were also employed in the reconstruction, and P_{env} was obtained from the ERA5 dataset,
252 following the method of Bloemendaal et al. (2020). Related parameters were estimated through nonlinear fitting; the results
253 are shown in Fig. 6. For the West Pacific, North Atlantic, North and South Indian Ocean, and South and East Pacific basins,
254 we used a values of 0.118, 0.051, 0.259, 0.184, 0.325, and 0.073 and b values of 1.67, 1.692, 1.402, 1.507, 1.371, and 1.651,
255 respectively, in Eq. (3).

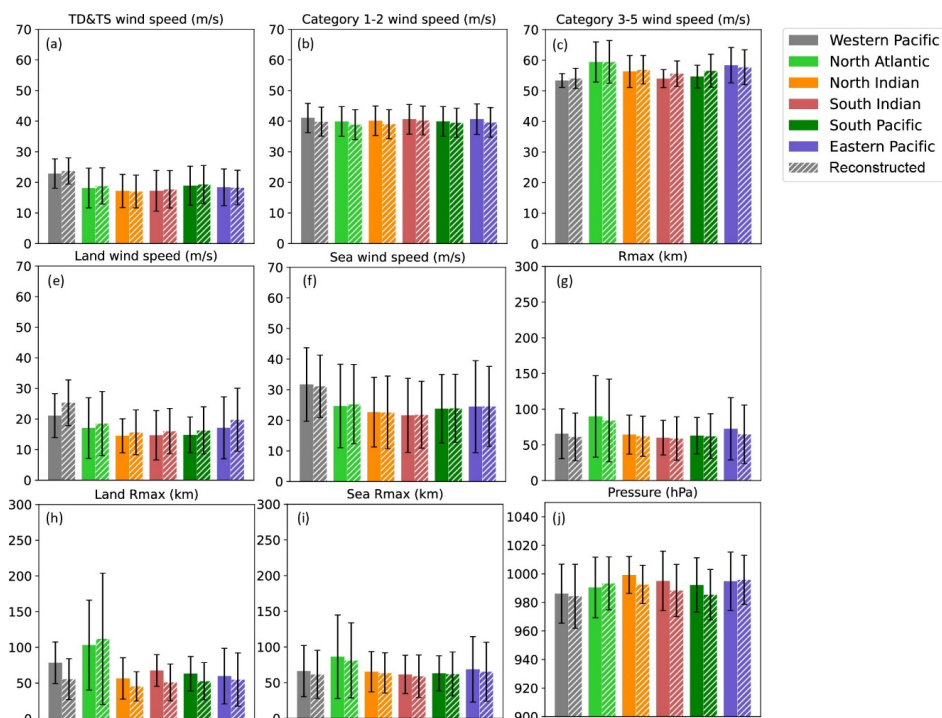


256
257 **Figure 6: Similar to Figure 4, but for non-linear regression analyses between value-averaged IBTrACS maximum wind**
258 **speeds and sea level pressure difference (SLPD).**

259 The mean and standard deviation values of various TC characteristics based on the testing datasets are plotted in Fig. 7
260 to compare the overall performance of the model in reconstructing TCs. Mean biases in R_{max} and P_{min} between the
261 reconstructed TC and IBTrACS datasets were both <3% in most basins, providing compelling evidence that the predictions
262 were in good agreement with observations. In contrast to those over the sea, the reconstructed landfall TC V_{max} and R_{max}
263 data were overestimated and underestimated in most basins, respectively, likely due to the decay of TC wind speeds after



264 landfall, which is not considered in the RF-based models. Despite these differences, biases remained within 5% in most basins,
 265 indicating that the reconstructed landfall TC characteristics were closely aligned with those in the IBTrACS dataset.



266
 267 **Figure 7: Bar charts for comparing the mean value of the different tropical cyclone characteristics. Each of the colors indicates a**
 268 **different basin. Solid and dashed bars represent IBTrACS and reconstructed tropical cyclone data.**

269 After obtaining the reconstructed TC intensity dataset, six widely used models were used to estimate $R_{34_{RC}}$, $R_{50_{RC}}$, and
 270 $R_{64_{RC}}$. We conducted a comparative analysis of the model-derived results and observations to determine which radial wind
 271 profile estimate more closely approximated the TC outer radius, based on various statistical metrics (Table S1–S6). The W06
 272 model results exhibited strong correlation, low RMSE, and low absolute mean error for all basins except the North Atlantic,
 273 whereas the CLE15 model performed better for $R_{34_{RC}}$ in the North Atlantic basin. Therefore, we used W06 to forecast
 274 $R_{34_{RC}}$, $R_{50_{RC}}$, and $R_{64_{RC}}$ for the West Pacific, North and South Indian Ocean, and South and East Pacific basins, whereas
 275 for the North Atlantic basin, we used CLE15 to predict $R_{34_{RC}}$ and W06 to predict $R_{50_{RC}}$ and $R_{64_{RC}}$. The correlation
 276 coefficients were >0.75 for three outer size metrics in most basins (Table 4).

277



278 **Table 4: Similar to Table 2, but for R_{34} , R_{50} and R_{64} .**

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

279 The ERA5 dataset was used to derive parameters characterizing TC intensity and size in creating the TC reconstruction
 280 dataset. Then these parameters were subjected to a machine learning algorithm to produce more accurate data. Notably, the
 281 TC intensity and size reconstructions developed in this study may be influenced by limitations and uncertainties inherent to
 282 the IBTrACS and ERA5 datasets. The RF models were unable to differentiate between landfall and offshore TCs due to the
 283 limited data available concerning landfall TCs in the IBTrACS dataset, which resulted in higher V_{max} and lower R_{max} values
 284 for landfall TCs. Additionally, R_{34} , R_{50} and R_{64} were estimated using wind profile models rather than RF models due to
 285 the paucity of relevant data, which resulted in a lower level of accuracy than for these TC characteristics. Moreover, there was
 286 some dependency between the reconstructed and IBTrACS-derived R_{max} values, likely due to the insufficient spatial
 287 resolution of the ERA5 dataset. Besides, TC positions in the IBTrACS data exhibited some degree of inaccuracy during the
 288 pre-satellite time period. Notwithstanding these limitations, the TC reconstruction dataset exhibited a markedly high degree of
 289 accuracy and extensive spatiotemporal coverage. Basic information on the reconstructed TC data is presented in Table 5.

290



291 **Table 5: Basic information on the number of recorded tropical cyclone characteristics from 1959 to 2022 recorded in**
292 **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

293 5. Data and Code availability

294 All data have been published in the form of CSV files, and are made publicly available through Zenodo repository with the
295 address: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.12740372> (Xu et al., 2024). ERA5 data can be publicly accessible at
296 <https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.bd0915c6> (Hersbach et al., 2023a) and <https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.adbb2d47> (Hersbach et al.,
297 2023b). IBTrACS data is accessible at <https://doi.org/10.25921/82ty-9e16> (Gahtan et al., 2024). The processing codes can be
298 made available upon request to the corresponding author. This study provides a detailed description of the TC size and intensity
299 reconstruction dataset, which includes the maximum sustained wind speed, the radius to maximum wind speed, the minimum
300 central pressure and the radii to locations with sustained wind speeds of 34, 50, and 64 knots during 1959–2022.

301 6. Conclusion

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

307 Six TC characteristics were examined to evaluate the reconstructed dataset. A comparison of maximum sustained wind
308 speeds between the IBTrACS and reconstructed TC datasets revealed that the latter underestimated observation data by
309 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



310 scale. For the radius to maximum wind speed (R_{max}), the mean error and RMSE decreased markedly, from -41.64 and 67.66
311 km (IBTrACS R_{max} – ERA5 R_{max}) to 1.37 and 22.19 km (IBTrACS R_{max} – reconstructed R_{max}), respectively. In
312 addition, the correlation coefficient for R_{max} between the IBTrACS and ERA5 datasets was 0.44 , which increased to 0.94
313 between the IBTrACS and TC reconstruction datasets. The mean bias in minimum central pressure between the IBTrACS and
314 reconstructed TC datasets was $<3\%$ in most basins. Six wind profile models were used to compute the radii to locations with
315 sustained wind 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
316 the North Atlantic, W06 for others) showed good estimates for TC outer sizes, with correlation coefficients > 0.75 for three
317 outer size metrics in most basins. Overall, the TC reconstruction dataset agreed closely with the IBTrACS data in terms of TC
318 intensity and size.

319 In conclusion, the TC reconstruction dataset may prove invaluable for advancing our understanding of TC climatology,
320 thereby facilitating risk assessments and defenses against TC-related disasters. The future availability of reanalysis data with
321 finer spatial resolution and longer temporal coverage, such as the in-progress ERA6, will facilitate the creation of more accurate
322 TC reconstructions with longer time spans using the methods presented in this study.

323

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

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

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330



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