1	A simple predictive model for the eddy propagation
2	trajectory in the northern South China Sea
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Abstract A novel predictive model is built for eddy propagation trajectory using the 19 20 multiple linear regression method. This simple model has related various oceanic parameters to eddy propagation position changes in the northern South China Sea 21 (NSCS). These oceanic parameters mainly represent the effects of β and mean flow 22 23 advection on the eddy propagation. The performance of the proposed model is examined in the NSCS based on five years of satellite altimeter data, and 24 demonstrates its significant forecast skills over a 4-week forecast window comparing 25 26 to the traditional persistence method. It is also found that the model forecast accuracy is sensitive to eddy polarity and forecast season. 27

29 **1. Introduction**

30 Mesoscale eddies are coherent rotating structures that are ubiquitous over most of the world's oceans (Chelton et al., 2007). They play an important role in the transport of 31 32 momentum, heat, mass and chemical and biological tracers, thereby become critical for issues such as general circulation, water mass distribution, ocean biology and 33 34 climate change (Wang et al., 2012; Dong et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2014; Ma et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017). Therefore, forecasting the eddy propagation positions 35 accurately is not only important scientifically but also important practically for 36 problems such as ocean observing systems designing, fishing planning, and 37 38 underwater acoustic detecting.

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Traditionally, ocean dynamical models were used as the tool of predicting the 40 evolution of ocean eddies (Robinson et al., 1984). Since mesoscale eddies are often 41 associated with strong nonlinear processes and their dynamical mechanisms are quite 42 different, the operational forecast of eddies has been a big challenge to ocean 43 numerical model. Much progress has been made in recent years in eddy-resolving 44 ocean prediction. With the data assimilation and the increasing of model resolution, 45 the model increases forecast skill. Daily forecast errors of eddy center positions in the 46 northwestern Arabian Sea and Gulf of Oman are 44-68 km in 1/12° global HYCOM 47 model, and reach to 22.5-37 km in 1/32° NLOM model (Hurlburt et al., 2008). The 48 49 forecast skill and predictability of dynamical models can only be increased by better assimilation schemes (initialization), sufficient data (especially the subsurface), and 50 51 improving resolution (physics and computing) (Rienecker et al., 1987; Oey et al., 2005). These restrictions preclude the all-pervading operational use of dynamical 52 models when these initial data and computing power are not feasible due to some 53 54 reasons.

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In this paper, we developed a simple statistical model to predict the eddy positions 1-4 weeks in advance using only the past positions of the eddy and its surrounding fields.

Our "test block" of ocean is the northern South China Sea (NSCS). South China Sea 58 59 is a semi-enclosed sea under the dramatic influence of the East Asian Monsoon and Kuroshio intrusion (Liu and Xie, 1999; Shaw, 1991). Due to the variable external 60 61 forcing and complex topography, mesoscale eddies show obvious geographic 62 distributions and various characteristics (Wang et al., 2003; Xiu et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2011), but the common character is the overall westward tendency of eddy 63 trajectories no matter of the eddy polarity (Fig. 1). We will first analyze the pattern 64 65 and dynamics of the common westward movement of eddies in the NSCS, then choose the potential predictors and develop a simple predictive model for eddy 66 propagation trajectories, and finally evaluate the model performance and discuss the 67 impact of eddy polarity and season on the forecast accuracy. 68

69 **2. Data and Methods**

70 **2.1 Data**

The sea level anomalies (SLA) are from the Archiving, Validation and Interpretation 71 72 of Satellite Oceanographic data (AVISO, ftp://ftp.aviso.oceanobs.com/) (Ducet et al., 2000). The product merges the measurements of TOPEX/Poseidon, European Remote 73 Sensing Satellite (ERS-1/2), Geosat Follow-on, Jason-1/2, and Envisat, and spans the 74 period from October 14, 1992 to August 7, 2013. Its temporal resolution is weekly, 75 and its spatial resolution is 0.25° latitude by 0.25° longitude. To estimate the 76 large-scale geostrophic currents, we use the absolute dynamic topography (ADT), 77 78 which consists of the SLAs and a mean dynamic topography (MDT). The method for calculating the MDT was introduced by Rio and Hernandez (2004), and the data is 79 80 also distributed by AVISO.

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The monthly climatology of observed ocean temperature and salinity from U.S. Navy Generalized Digital Environment Model (GDEM-Version 3.0) is used to calculate the phase speed of nondispersive baroclinic Rossby waves in the NSCS. It has a horizontal resolution of 0.25° latitude by 0.25° longitude, and 78 standard depths from

86 0 to 6600 m with the vertical resolution varying from 2 m at the surface to 200 m
87 below 1600 m (Canes, 2009).

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The NSCS eddy trajectory data is derived from the 3rd release of the global eddy dataset (http://cioss.coas.oregonstate.edu/eddies/). The eddy center positions within their trajectories are recorded at 7-day time intervals. A detailed description of the eddy trajectory dataset can be found in Chelton et al. (2011). To forecast the eddy trajectory 1-4 weeks in advance using the last position of the eddy, only eddies with a lifetime of 5 weeks or longer are retained in this study.

95 **2.2 The Maximum Cross-Correlation Method**

The maximum cross-correlation (MCC) method is a space-time lagged technique, 96 which can estimate the surface motions from time-sequential remote sensing images. 97 98 It has been successfully used to track clouds from geosynchronous satellite data (Leese et al., 1971), to compute sea-ice motion (Ninnis et al., 1986) and advective 99 100 surface velocities (Emery et al., 1986) from sequential infrared satellite images, and to 101 determine the propagation velocities of ocean eddies from satellite altimeter data (Fu, 2006, 2009). The MCC method used in this study is the same as that of Fu (2009), 102 103 which is a little different with that of Emery et al. (1986). In the method of Emery et al., the correlations of the image in the subwindow with all the neighboring ones in 104 the whole window at the next time are computed, and the speed and direction of the 105 106 maximum correlation can be estimated. While in the method of Fu (2009), the correlations of the SLA at a given location with all the neighboring SLA at various 107 108 time lags are computed, and the speed and direction of the maximum correlation can 109 be estimated. The reason of their difference may be due to the low time-space resolution of SLA comparing with other infrared satellite images. 110

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112 The MCC method mainly consists of two procedures (Fu, 2009): first, the 113 cross-correlations of the SLA time series (h) with others within a certain range box 114 are computed for some time lags (ΔT) in multiples of 7 days (time resolution of SLA 115 data) at each grid node location (x, y) as:

116
$$C_{x,y}(\Delta x, \Delta y, \Delta T) = \overline{h(x, y, t)h(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y, t + \Delta T)}$$
(1)

where Δx and Δy are the spatial lags and the over bar means time averaging. Second, the position of the maximum correlation at each time lag (ΔT) is identified and a speed can be derived from the time lag and the distance of this position from the origin. Then an average speed vector (u, v) weighted by the correlation coefficients is calculated from the estimates at various time lags as:

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$$(u, v) = \frac{\sum_{i} (\Delta x_{i} / \Delta T_{i}, \Delta y_{i} / \Delta T_{i})C_{i}}{\sum_{i} C_{i}}$$
(2)

where C_i is the maximum correlation at ΔT_i , and Δx_i , Δy_i are the distances between the position of maximum correlation and the origin. The average velocities are then assigned to the eddy movement velocities at the given grid point.

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To focus on the global mesoscale eddy, the time lags were limited to less than 70 days 127 and the dimension of the window was less than 400 km (Fu, 2009). While in the 128 129 NSCS, the time lags should be limited to less than 42 days, since many correlation 130 coefficients are below the 95% confidence level at larger time lags (Zhuang et al., 2010). Besides, Chen et al. (2011) found that eddies propagate with 5.0-9.0 cm/s in 131 the NSCS. Thus the search radius can be generally limited as 300 km (9.0 cm/s*42 132 days≈300 km) to reduce incidence of spurious MCC vectors. Since the mean flow 133 and associated eddy propagation in the SCS have seasonal variability, we divided the 134 weekly SLA data from 1992 to 2013 into four groups according to four seasons 135 (winter: December-February, spring: March-May, summer: June-August, autumn: 136 137 Septermber-November). Then the seasonal climatological eddy propagation velocities can be estimated from the same seasonal group at intervals of 1 week using the MCC 138 method. 139

140 **2.3 The Multiple Linear Regression Model**

141 To develop a simple statistical predictive model for relating various oceanic 142 parameters to eddy propagation position changes, the multiple linear regression 143 method is used for developing such statistical forecast model. The multiple linear

regression is a linear approach to modeling the relationship between the response and 144 explanatory variables. This classical method has many practical uses in oceanography 145 and meteorology, such as the prediction of Arctic sea ice extent (Zhang, 2015), the 146 estimation of subsurface salinity profile (Bao et al, 2019), the estimation of 147 anthropogenic CO₂ accumulation in the Southern Ocean (Matear and McNeil, 2003), 148 the forecast of typhoon track (Aberson and Sampson, 2003) and intensity (Demaria 149 and Kaplan, 1994), Maddan-Julian Oscillation forecast (Seo, 2008), and ENSO 150 151 prediction (Dominiak and Terray, 2005).

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In this study, the predictands (dependent variables) are the zonal and meridional 153 displacements at each forecast time from the initial position (Table 1). The choice of 154 155 the predictors based on physical analysis will be shown in detail in Section 3. Since the variables used for the regression involve different scales and units, it is 156 inappropriate to use them directly, as it may cause the fitting to deviate from the 157 physical constraints. Thus all the variables are normalized with their anomalies 158 159 divided by their corresponding standard deviations before the regressing. After that, the normalized predicted zonal (meridional) displacement DX(DY) can be estimated 160 using a multiple linear regression method: 161

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$$DX_{j} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i,j} P_{i,} \quad j = 1, 4$$
(3)

163
$$DY_{j} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_{i,j} P_{i,} \quad j = 1, 4$$
(4)

where the subscript *j* refers to the forecast interval (1-4 weeks), the subscript *i* refers to the serial number of normalized predictors (*P*), n represents the number of selected predictors; *a* and *b* donate the regression coefficients of predictors onto DX and DY, respectively.

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There are a total of 8 regression equations, i.e., both the meridional and zonal directions for the weeks of 1-4. We separate the whole eddy trajectories into two sets: one for regressing and the other for forecasting. At week-1, we used 1981 (76%) eddy

trajectory segments (a segment is the distance between two neighboring eddy center 172 positions at 7-day interval on a single eddy trajectory) of 283 eddy trajectories during 173 1992-2008 for regressing, and 623 (24%) eddy trajectory segments of 81 eddy 174 trajectories during 2009-2013 for forecasting. The other forecast experiments for 2, 3, 175 and 4 weeks maintain the same periods for regressing and forecasting. To evaluate the 176 overall forecast ability of the model, the mean forecast error is defined as the 177 averaged distance (D) between the predicted eddy positions and the satellite observed 178 179 eddy positions following great circle distance (Ali et al., 2007):

180 $D = R \cdot \arccos[\sin Y_o \sin Y_F + \cos Y_o \cos Y_F \cos(X_o - X_F)]$

(5)

181 where R is the earth radius, $X_o(X_F)$ and $Y_o(Y_F)$ represent the observed (predicted) 182 longitude and latitude in degrees, respectively.

183 3. Dynamics of Eddy Propagation in the NSCS and Choice of
184 Predictors

185 3.1 Pattern and Dynamical Analysis of Eddy Propagation in the 186 NSCS

One of the most important steps in the development of a regression model is the choice of independent variables (predictors). In choosing the potential predictors, the candidates should have a physical link (direct or indirect) with the eddy propagation. To investigate the dynamical factors associated with eddy propagation in the NSCS, the pattern of eddy propagation speeds should be estimated firstly.

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Instead of a Lagrangian description of the movement of individual eddies as reported in the previous studies (e.g., Wang et al., 2003; Chen et al., 2011), the space-time lagged MCC method provides an Eulerian description of the pattern of eddy propagation speeds (Fu, 2009). As shown in Fig. 2a and 2d, the MCC method has mapped the propagation speeds of eddies in the NSCS for the winter and summer season, respectively. The propagation of eddies is generally westward in the ocean

199 interior and southward in the western boundary with the typical speed of 4-10 cm/s. The propagation direction of eddies generated southwest of Taiwan is southwestward 200 along the 200-2000 m isobaths, indicating the steering effects of the ocean's 201 bathymetry. There are two distinct differences between the winter season and the 202 summer season: one is that the eddy propagation speed in winter is relatively larger 203 than that in summer; and the other is that the influence of the western boundary 204 current can be clearly seen near 16°N-18°N along the Vietnam coast in winter, 205 206 creating an organized band of southward eddy propagation pattern, while this cannot 207 be found in summer. The different patterns of the eddy propagation speed in winter and summer have revealed several details of the mean flow in the SCS: the large-scale 208 circulation under the influence of northeasterly winter monsoon is stronger than that 209 210 in the southwesterly summer monsoon, and the robust western boundary current in winter becomes relatively weak and unorganized in summer. 211

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Eddies also have their own westward drift under the planetary β effect in the 213 absence of any mean flow (Nof, 1981, Cushiman-Roisin, 1994). Their propagation 214 215 speed is approximately the phase speed of the first baroclinic Rossby waves with preferences for small poleward and equatorward deflection of cyclonic and 216 anticyclonic eddies in the global ocean, respectively (Chelton et al., 2007). 217 Theoretically, the phase speed of the first baroclinic Rossby wave is $C_{R1} = -\beta R_1$, 218 where the first baroclinic Rossby radius of deformation R_1 is estimated using the 219 220 climatological GDEM temperature and salinity data. Figure 2b (2e) shows the theoretical phase speed of nondispersive baroclinic Rossby waves calculated from 221 GDEM winter (summer) climatological temperature and salinity data. The direction 222 223 of the phase speed is due west and the magnitude increases from about 2 cm/s in the north latitude to 12 cm/s in the south latitude. It should be noted that the difference 224 between the winter and summer distributions of the phase speed of the first baroclinic 225 Rossby wave is relatively small. The underlying reason is that the variation of 226

seasonal stratification in the upper layer has little effect on the seasonal distribution of
the first baroclinic Rossby deformation radius (Chelton et al, 1998, Cai et al., 2008).

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The differences between the satellite observed propagation speed (Fig. 2a and 2d) and 230 the propagation speed induced by the β effect (Fig. 2b and 2e) in winter and 231 232 summer are shown in Fig. 2c and 2f, respectively, which may represent the 233 propagation speed caused by the advection of mean flow. To further illustrate the advection effect of mean flow, the winter (summer) mean dynamic topography is 234 superimposed on the propagation speed caused by the mean flow. As can be seen, 235 there is a good spatial correlation (0.61 in the zonal direction and 0.52 in the 236 meridional direction, both of which are significant at the 95% confidence level) 237 between the cyclonic eddy propagation speed advected by the mean flow and the large 238 239 scale surface cyclonic circulation in winter, both of which are centered northwest of 240 the Luzon Island (Fig. 2c). Due to the weak cyclonic gyre in the NSCS, the spatial correspondence in summer is not as obvious as that in winter (Fig. 2f). Since the 241 propagation speed induced by the β effect is westward, this tendency is reinforced 242 by the mean flow in the north, but compensated by the mean flow in the south. 243 Because the mean flow in the south is not so strong, it is not able to reverse eddy 244 propagation from its westward motion induced by the β effect as in the Antarctic 245 Circumpolar Current region (Klocker and Marshall, 2014) no matter in winter or 246 247 summer.

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To explore other possible causes of eddy propagation, Fig. 3a shows the annual mean eddy propagation speed. The most striking pattern is that the eddy propagation speed is accelerated markedly on the northern continental shelf of the NSCS (also can be seen in Fig. 2a and 2d), corresponding well to the region of negative maximum meridional topographic $\beta_T = \frac{f}{H} \frac{dH}{dy}$, where *H* is the water depth. Their correlation is -0.40, which is significant at the 95% confidence level. This relatively good correspondence suggests that besides the planetary β effect and advection of mean flow, the topographic β effect also contributes to the eddy propagation in some regions where the bathymetry gradient cannot be neglected.

258 **3.2 Choice of Predictors**

As mentioned above, the mean flow advection and the effects of β (both planetary 259 and topographic) are closely related with the eddy propagation. These factors should 260 be considered as the potential predictors, and the seasonal climatological eddy zonal 261 and meridional motions (U CLIM V CLIM) derived from the MCC are calculated to 262 263 represent the effects of β and the mean flow advection. It is noted that we have tried 264 to decompose U CLIM and V CLIM into the effects of β and the mean flow 265 advection and incorporate them into the regression model, but found no improvement of the forecast skill. 266

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In reality, the large-scale circulation evolves during the forecast period, this synoptic 268 effect of mean flow advection should also be taken into account. To help account for 269 270 the time variation of the mean flow advection, the current zonal and meridional 271 absolute geostrophic flows (U ADT, V ADT) derived from the satellite data are evaluated at the beginning of the forecast time along the eddy trajectory. Besides, the 272 persistence factors should also be considered in the regression model, since they 273 contain the "latest" pattern of eddy propagation under the effects of β and the mean 274 flow advection. The chosen persistence factors are the initial eddy position (LON, 275 LAT) and the eddy motion past 1-week (U_PAST, V_PAST). All the chosen eight 276 predictors are listed in Table 2, and can be derived along the eddy trajectories. They 277 278 can be divided into two categories: 1) P1-P6 related to climatology and persistence, i.e., "static predictors", and 2) P7-P8 related to the changing environmental conditions,
i.e., "synoptic predictors".

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The relative contribution of each predictor on each forecast period is illustrated by the 282 283 normalized regression coefficient (Table 3). The larger the normalized regression coefficient, the greater its contribution to the individual forecast equation. Persistence 284 285 factors (U PAST, V PAST) are initially the most important predictors, while after 2 286 weeks the most important predictors are the climatology factors (U CLIM, V CLIM). The synoptic predictors (U ADT, V ADT) contribute less to the forecast equations 287 comparing with persistence and climatology. The underlying reason may be that the 288 week to week variations are too large so the representation of the initial U ADT and 289 290 V ADT to the actual velocities in the 4-week window is not as good as the U CLIM 291 and V CLIM.

4. Performance of the Multiple Regression Model

4.1 Comparison with the persistence method

294 To evaluate the performance of our prediction model, the persistence method and our model are used to predict the eddy trajectories during 2009-2013. The persistence 295 method is a benchmark comparison and reference forecast widely accepted in the 296 297 atmospheric and oceanic sciences (Mittermaier, 2008; Müller et al., 2012), which is defined as $\chi_{t+1} = \chi_t$, where χ is any parameter, and t is a distance time step. In this 298 study, χ refers to the eddy propagation speed and the persistence means no change 299 of propagation speed from the initial state (Fig. 4a). The root-mean-square error 300 301 (RMSE) and correlation coefficient between the predicted and actual longitudes (latitudes), and mean distance errors of our model and persistence method over a 302 4-week horizon are computed. 303

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Table 4 lists the comparison of prediction results. It shows that our multiple linear

regression model beats the persistence method and indicates our model has some 306 forecast skill (Table 5): the RMSE between the predicted and the actual longitudes 307 (latitudes) throughout the 4-week horizon is 32.7-89.2 km (29.5-73.5 km) with the 308 correlation coefficients >0.93 (>0.95). 309

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As an example, Fig. 5 compares the 1-2 weeks forecast performances of our model 311 (blue) and the persistence method (green) with the observation (red). Generally, the 312 313 eddy trajectory predicted 1-2 weeks in advance by our model coincides well with the observed trajectory with an overall average error of 27.6 km (week-1) and 42.5 km 314 (week-2), and even the convoluted pattern can be reproduced properly (Fig. 5 (right)) 315 316 though the mean error is slightly larger than the smooth case. In contrast, although the persistence forecast trajectory at week-1 is relatively consistent with the observation 317 (Fig. 5a and 5b), the persistence method cannot forecast the eddy trajectories properly 318 319 when the forecast horizon increases (Fig. 5c and 5d). To further compare their differences, their forecast distance errors are normalized with the Rossby radius on 320 each forecast grid over 4-week forecast window, respectively. The correlation 321 322 between the normalized forecast distance errors of the persistence method and our model decreases from 0.67 at week-1 to 0.38 at week-4. This is consistent with the 323 above judgement and confirms the superiority of our multiple linear regression model 324 over the persistence method. 325

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4.2 Sensitive Performance of Different Eddy Polarity and Season

Previous studies have shown that anticycloinc eddies and cyclonic eddies in the NSCS 327 have different dynamic characteristics, such as generation sites, rotation speeds and 328 329 propagation trajectories, and the seasonal variability of these eddies is robust (Wang et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2008; Li et al., 2011). Two natural questions arise: 1) is there 330 331 any difference on the model forecast ability between anticyclonic eddies (Fig. 1a) and cyclonic eddies (Fig. 1b)? 2) If so, is there any difference on the forecast ability for 332

333 one type of eddies in winter (Fig. 7a and 8a) and summer (Fig. 7b and 8b)? This 334 section will explore the different model performances on two types of eddies and 335 during different seasons in the NSCS.

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The period considered for regressing and predicting the anticyclonic eddy and 337 cyclonic eddy positions is the same as that used in developing the predictive model in 338 Section 2.3. The mean forecast errors of anticyclonic (cyclonic) eddies from week-1 339 340 to week-4 are 36.9 km (41.1 km), 62.6 km (68.1 km), 81.0 km (88.5 km), and 102.0 km (108.2 km), respectively (Fig. 6). These results show that the forecast errors of 341 anticyclonic eddies are smaller than those of cyclonic eddies in all forecast horizon, 342 and the maximum error difference can reach 7.5 km at week-3. To investigate the 343 underlying reasons of different model performances for anticyclonic eddies and 344 cyclonic eddies, we use the persistence error ($CC' = \sqrt{AB^2 + BC^2 - 2AB \cdot BC \cdot \cos \theta}$ in 345 Fig. 4a) at week-1 as an index to measure the difficulty of trajectory forecast. The 346 underlying reason in physics is that CC', which includes the effects of winding angel 347 348 $(\theta, \text{ measuring the trajectory curvature})$ and the eddy propagation distances in the former and latter periods (AB and BC, measuring the eddy propagation speed), is an 349 integral characteristic of eddy trajectory. The correlation between this integrated index 350 and eddy trajectory forecast error is relatively high with R=0.62 (Fig. 4b), which is 351 352 significant at the 95% confidence level and shows its ability of measuring the inherent difficulty of trajectory forecast: the larger the index, the more difficult the trajectory 353 forecast, thus the larger the forecast error. Because the indices (mean persistence 354 errors) of all the anticyclonic and cyclonic eddy trajectories in the NSCS are 46.6 km 355 356 and 53.0 km, respectively, it is not difficult to understand why the mean forecast error of anticyclonic eddy trajectories is smaller than that of cyclonic eddy trajectories in 357 358 the NSCS. The index difference between anticyclonic and cyclonic eddy trajectories is caused by these different trajectory patterns (Fig. 1a and 1b), which could be due to 359 360 the opposing meridional drifts of anticyclonic and cyclonic eddies expected from the combination of β effect and self-advection (Morrow et al., 2004). 361

Figure 7c (Fig. 8c) shows the mean forecast errors of anticyclonic (cyclonic) eddy 363 trajectories in winter and summer over a 4-week horizon. Because the mean 364 persistence error (42.0 km) of anticyclonic eddy trajectories in winter is smaller than 365 that (51.9 km) in summer, as expected, the mean forecast error of anticyclonic eddy 366 trajectories in winter is smaller than that in summer for all cases. This is also the case 367 for the cyclonic eddy: since the mean persistence error (54.6 km) of cyclonic eddy 368 369 trajectories in winter is relatively larger than that (52.8 km) in summer, the mean forecast error of cyclonic eddy trajectories in winter is larger than that in summer. The 370 371 index difference of one type of eddy trajectories between winter and summer is also caused by the different trajectory patterns. Why do the anticyclonic and cyclonic 372 373 eddies follow different trajectories in winter (Fig. 7a and 8a) and summer (Fig. 7b and 7b)? One possible dynamical reason is the different interactions between the eddies 374 and seasonal mean flows. Other underlying factors such as eddy generation 375 mechanisms and eddy-topography interactions in different seasons may also 376 377 contribute. This is beyond the scope of this study and needs further investigation using numerical models. 378

5. Summary and Discussion

In this study, we have investigated the underlying dynamics of the eddy propagation in the NSCS and found their propagation is mainly driven by the combination of the planetary β effect and mean flow advection. In addition, the topographic β effect also has some contribution to the eddy propagation where the bathymetry gradient cannot be neglected, like the steep continental shelf in the NSCS (Fig. 1a).

385

Based on the dynamical analysis, predictors are chosen and a simple statistical predictive model for relating various oceanic parameters to eddy propagation position changes is developed using the multiple linear regression method. This predictive model is made up of eight predictands (zonal and meridional displacements over 1-4

weeks) and eight predictors (six static predictors, two synoptic predictors). The six 390 static predictors are associated with the initial position, the zonal and meridional 391 392 motions past 1-week, and the climatological eddy zonal and meridional motions. The other two synoptic predictors account for the time variation of the mean flow 393 advection. Results showed that this simple model has significant forecast skills over a 394 4-week forecast horizon comparing the traditional persistence method. Moreover, the 395 model performance is sensitive to eddy type and forecast season: 1) the predicted 396 397 trajectory errors of anticyclonic eddies are smaller than those of cyclonic eddies; 2) the predicted trajectory errors of anticyclonic eddies in winter are smaller than those 398 399 in summer; while the contrary is the case for the cyclonic eddy. The predictive model 400 performance strongly depends on the inherent difficulty of trajectory forecast.

401

Although the performance of the proposed predictive model is encouraging, it could 402 403 be refined further. Further improvement may be possible by including the effect of eddy-eddy interactions on the eddy propagation, which is supposed to help induce the 404 eddy trajectory curve or loop (Early et al., 2011). Another possible improvement is to 405 406 use artificial neural network (ANN) in developing the forecast model. ANN has been successfully used in the predicting cyclone tracks (Ali et al., 2007) and loop current 407 variation (Zeng et al, 2015). ANN can represent both linear and non-linear 408 409 relationships learned directly from the data being modeled. It mainly contains three 410 layers: the input layer, the hidden layer, and the output layer. To be consistent with the multiple linear regression model, both the input layer and the output layer include the 411 same predictors and predictands as the regression model, respectively. The hidden 412 layer consists of two layers of neural variables. Through iterations on backward 413 propagation of the error, the neural network learns by itself to achieve an optimum 414 weighting function and a minimum error. The forecast errors of ANN for 1-4 weeks 415 are listed in Table 4. We can see that some improvements (0.3-4.2 km during 1-4 416

417 weeks forecast horizon) have been shown comparing with the linear regression 418 method. Recently, Jiang et al. (2018) have found the deep learning algorithm of neural 419 networks performs better than the simple ANN for the parameterization of 420 typhoon-ocean feedback in typhoon forecast models. These enhancements (both 421 physics and algorithms) are topics warranting future research and development.

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423 *Data availability.* The SLA and MDT data can be downloaded from AVISO 424 (ftp://ftp.aviso.oceanobs.com/), and the NSCS eddy trajectory data can be derived 425 from the 3rd release global eddy dataset (http://cioss.coas.oregonstate.edu/eddies/).

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553 Figure and Table Captions

Figure 1. The trajectories of (a) anticyclonic and (b) cyclonic eddies with lifetime ≥5
weeks in the northern South China Sea (SCS). The solid circle represents the ending
position of each trajectory. In Fig. 1a, TI: Taiwan Island, LI: Luzon Islands, VN:
Vietnam. The two isobaths are for 200 m and 2000 m, respectively.

Figure 2. Winter climatology of (a) eddy propagation speed directions (vectors) and magnitudes (color, cm/s), (b) The phase speed directions (vectors) and magnitudes (color, cm/s) of the first baroclinic Rossby wave. (c) The speed difference (vectors) between (a) and (b) superimposed on the winter mean absolute dynamic topography (color, cm). (d), (e) and (f) are the same as (a), (b) and (c), respectively, but for the summer.

Figure 3. (a) Annual mean of eddy propagation speed directions (vectors) and magnitudes (color, cm/s). (b) Meridional distribution of the topographic β effect (color shading).

Figure 4. (a) Schematic of persistence method. A, B, and C are three observed eddy positions on the trajectory every 1 week interval. C' is the predictive eddy position 1 week in advance by persistence method, that is BC'=AB. Thus CC' is the persistence error at week-1. (b) Scatterplot of persistence error versus forecast error of our model at week-1 with best fit linear regression.

Figure 5. A comparison of the satellite observed trajectory (red), the predicted trajectory by our model (blue) and persistence trajectory (green) at (a) week-1, (c) week-2. (b), (d) are the same as (a) and (c), respectively, but for a recurved trajectory. The biweekly eddy positions on each trajectory are shown by the solid circles. The ending position of each trajectory is represented by the solid triangle.

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Figure 6. Comparison of the mean forecast errors between anticyclonic eddies (red)
and cyclonic eddies (blue) over a 4-week window.

- 580 Figure 7. The trajectories of anticyclonic eddies in (a) winter and (b) summer with
- ⁵⁸¹ lifetime≥5 weeks in the northern South China Sea. The solid circle represents the
- ending position of each trajectory. (c) Comparison of their mean forecast errors over a
- 583 4-week window.
- 584 **Figure 8.** The same as Fig. 6, but for the cyclonic eddies.
- 585
- 586 **Table 1.** The eight predictands used in the predictive model.
- 587 **Table 2.** The eight predictors used in the predictive model.
- 588 Table 3. Normalized regression coefficients $a_{i, j}$ ($b_{i, j}$) for use with the eddy zonal
- 589 (meridional) motion prediction equation.
- 590 Table 4. Comparison of mean forecast distance errors (km) of the persistence,
- 591 multiple linear regression (MLR), and artificial neural network (ANN) method.
- 592 **Table 5.** Statistics of our muliple linear regression model for different forecast time of
- eddy propagation positions in terms of longitudes (latitudes).
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Table 1. The eight predictands used in the predictive model

Predictand	Symbol
1-week zonal displacement	DX_1
1-week meridional displacement	DY_1
2-week zonal displacement	DX_2
2-week meridional displacement	DY ₂
3-week zonal displacement	DX_3
3-week meridional displacement	DY ₃
4-week zonal displacement	DX_4
4-week meridional displacement	DY_4

Table 2. The eight predictors used in the predictive model

Predictor	Symbol
Initial longitude (LON)	P ₁
Initial latitude (LAT)	P_2
Eddy zonal motion past 1-week (U_PAST)	P ₃
Eddy meridional motion past 1-week (V_PAST)	P_4
Climatological eddy zonal motion from MCC (U_CLIM)	P ₅
Climatological eddy meridional motion from MCC (V_CLIM)	P_6
Initial zonal absolute geostrophic flow (U_ADT)	P_7
Initial meridional absolute geostrophic flow (V_ADT)	P_8

Table 3. Normalized regression coefficients a_{i, j} (b_{i, j}) for use with the eddy zonal (meridional)
motion prediction equation

	j=1	j=2	j=3	j=4
i=1	-0.10 (0.03)	-0.14 (0.04)	-0.18 (0.05)	-0.24 (0.06)
i=2	0.10 (0.02)	0.13 (0.01)	0.16 (0.00)	0.18 (-0.03)
i=3	0.26 (0.00)	0.21 (0.03)	0.19 (0.07)	0.18 (0.09)
i=4	-0.02 (0.19)	-0.01 (0.10)	0.01 (0.08)	0.00 (0.08)
i=5	0.14 (0.09)	0.19 (0.13)	0.23 (0.16)	0.26 (0.16)
i=6	0.05 (0.17)	0.07 (0.23)	0.09 (0.26)	0.16 (0.27)
i=7	-0.05 (0.02)	-0.07 (0.02)	-0.07 (0.02)	-0.07 (0.03)
i=8	-0.03 (-0.07)	-0.01 (-0.08)	0.02 (-0.09)	0.04 (-0.09)

sion (MLR), and artificial neural network (ANN) method				
Forecast weeks	Persistence	MLR	ANN	
1	47.6	38.1	37.8	
2	95.2	64.8	64.1	
3	135.0	86.6	84.7	

180.5

106.5

102.3

664 Table 4. Comparison of mean forecast distance errors (km) of the persistence, multiple linear

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667 Table 5. Statistics of our multiple linear regression model for different forecast time of eddy propagation positions in terms of longitudes (latitudes)
 668

Forecast weeks	Total/Predicted Number of Points	RMSE, km	Correlation Coefficient	Mean Distance Error, km
1	2604/623	32.7 (29.5)	0.99 (0.99)	38.1
2	2310/549	55.1 (47.3)	0.97 (0.98)	64.8
3	2016/475	72.5 (61.4)	0.95 (0.97)	86.6
4	1722/401	89.2 (73.5)	0.93 (0.95)	106.5

669 Note: the total/predicted number of points refers to the eddy positions at 7-day time interval in the whole/predicted eddy trajectories during 1992-2013/2009-2013;

670 the RMSE is the root mean square error between the predicted and the observed longitude (latitude).