

1 A Tropical Stochastic Skeleton Model for the MJO, El
2 Niño and Dynamic Walker Circulation: A Simplified GCM

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12 **Abstract**

13 A simple dynamical stochastic model for the tropical ocean-atmosphere is proposed that
14 captures qualitatively major intraseasonal to interannual processes altogether including the El
15 Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO), the Madden-Julian Oscillation (MJO), the associated wind
16 bursts and the background dynamic Walker circulation. Such a model serves as a prototype
17 “skeleton” for General Circulation Models (GCMs) that solve similar dynamical interactions
18 across several spatio-temporal scales but usually show common and systematic biases in rep-
19 resenting tropical variability as a whole. The most salient features of the ENSO, the wind
20 bursts and the MJO are captured altogether including their overall structure, evolution and
21 energy distribution across scales, in addition to their intermittency and diversity as well as
22 their fundamental interactions. Importantly, the intraseasonal wind bursts and the MJO are

23 here solved dynamically which provides their upscale contribution to the interannual flow as
24 well as their modulation in return in a more explicit way. This includes a realistic onset of
25 El Niño events with increased wind bursts and MJO activity starting in the Indian ocean to
26 western Pacific and expanding eastward towards the central Pacific, as well as significant in-
27 terannual modulation of the characteristics of intraseasonal variability. A hierarchy of cruder
28 model versions is also analyzed in order to highlight fundamental concepts related to the
29 treatment of multiple time scales, main convective nonlinearities and the associated stochas-
30 tic parameterizations. The model developed here also should be useful to diagnose, analyze
31 and help eliminate the strong tropical biases which exist in current operational models.

32

33 **1 Introduction**

34 The El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) is the dominant global climate signal on interannual
35 time scales, with dramatic worldwide ecological and social impacts. It consists of alternating
36 periods of anomalously warm El Niño conditions and cold La Niña conditions every 2 to 7 years,
37 with considerable irregularity in amplitude, duration, temporal evolution and spatial structure of
38 these events. Its dynamics in the equatorial Pacific result largely from coupled interactions between
39 the ocean and atmosphere at interannual timescale and planetary scale (Neelin et al., 1998; Clarke,
40 2008). One salient yet not fully understood feature of the ENSO is its interaction with atmospheric
41 processes on a vast range of spatio-temporal scales. For instance, a broad range of intraseasonal
42 atmospheric disturbances in the tropics may be considered as possible triggers to El Niño or La
43 Niña events (Kleeman, 2008). Those atmospheric disturbances are usually generally denoted as
44 westerly wind bursts (WWB) or easterly wind bursts (EWBs) though they may have different
45 origins such as tropical cyclones, mid-latitude cold surges as well as the convective envelope of the
46 Madden-Julian Oscillation (MJO), among others (Harrison and Vecchi, 1997; Vecchi and Harrison,
47 2000; Kiladis et al., 2009). In particular, westerly wind bursts reach strong intensity levels over
48 the western Pacific warm pool during the onset of El Niño events (Tziperman and Yu., 2007). The
49 MJO is the dominant component of intraseasonal variability in the tropics and plays an important

50 role for the generation of wind bursts (Madden and Julian, 1971; Madden and Julian, 1994). In
51 the troposphere, it begins as a standing wave in the Indian Ocean and propagates eastward as
52 an equatorial planetary-scale wave across the western Pacific ocean at a speed of around 5 m s^{-1}
53 (Zhang, 2005). The MJO features both westerly and easterly wind bursts at the same time within
54 its convective envelope (Puy et al., 2016), and is also more prominent during the onset of El
55 Niño events (Kleeman and Moore, 1997; Moore and Kleeman, 1999; Zhang and Gottschalck,
56 2002; McPhaden et al., 2006; Hendon et al., 2007). In addition to the above features, the ENSO
57 dynamics are also closely linked to the destabilization of the background equilibrium circulation
58 in the equatorial Pacific, the so-called Walker circulation that consists of an overturning zonal-
59 vertical atmospheric circulation along with a zonal sea-saw gradient of sea surface temperatures
60 and thermocline depth in the ocean (Clarke, 2008).

61 The interaction between the ENSO, the wind bursts and the Walker circulation is the focus of
62 various observational initiatives and modeling studies. The challenges to deal with are two-fold.
63 First, General Circulation Models (GCMs) have common and systematic biases in representing
64 the ENSO, the intraseasonal atmospheric variability and the background circulation in the tropics
65 altogether (Lin et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2009; Wittenberg et al., 2004; 2006; 2014; Guilyardi et al.,
66 2016). In these models computing resources are significantly limited. For example, the spatial
67 resolution is only up to $\approx 10 - 100\text{ km}$, and therefore several important small scales are unresolved
68 or parameterized according to various recipes. As regards tropical convection, unresolved processes
69 at smaller scales such as deep convective clouds show some particular features in space and time,
70 such as high irregularity, high intermittency and low predictability. Recent improvements suggest
71 that suitable stochastic parameterizations are good candidates to account for those processes while
72 remaining computationally efficient (Majda et al., 2008; Palmer, 2012; Weisheimer et al., 2014;
73 Deng et al., 2014; Goswami et al., 2016; 2017; Christensen et al., 2017). Second, there is a general
74 lack of theoretical understanding of the dynamical interactions between the ENSO and the wind
75 bursts in GCMs. On the other hand, insight has been gained from intermediate and simple models
76 which have more tractable dynamics, are more computationally efficient and allow for more detailed
77 and systematic statistical analysis (e.g. Moore and Kleeman, 1999; Neelin and Zeng, 2000; Zeng

78 et al., 2000; Jin et al., 2007; Gushchina and Dewitte, 2011; Chen et al., 2015; Thual et al., 2016).
79 For example, those models indicate the multiplicative noise features that can exist when wind
80 bursts depend on the state of the equatorial Pacific system (Eisenman et al., 2005; Tziperman and
81 Yu., 2007; Gebbie et al., 2007; Lopez et al., 2013). Yet, in those models wind bursts are usually
82 not resolved dynamically but are described by simple stochastic parameterizations that prescribe
83 the wind burst amplitudes, durations and/or propagation. As a result, those simple models do not
84 resolve some of the important wind bursts details such as their dynamical evolution and origins.

85 In the present article, a simplified dynamical stochastic model is developed for the intraseasonal
86 to interannual variability in the tropics and background circulation. The model is denoted hereafter
87 “Tropical Stochastic Skeleton Model GCM” (TSS-GCM). The present model serves as a prototype
88 “skeleton” for General Circulation Models (GCMs) that solve similar dynamical interactions across
89 several spatio-temporal scales. As compared to conventional GCMs the present TSS-GCM model
90 includes simple tractable dynamics with a minimal number of processes and parameters, and is
91 computationally very uncostly. Importantly, while conventional GCMs have common and sys-
92 tematic biases in representing tropical variability as a whole, the TSS-GCM model succeeds in
93 capturing major intraseasonal to interannual processes as well as their fundamental interactions
94 in qualitative fashion. First, at intraseasonal timescales, the TSS-GCM model captures dynamical
95 wind bursts with realistic intermittency, localization, lifespan, convective features, energy distribu-
96 tion across scales and generation from various sources including from the MJO. In particular, the
97 main features of the MJO are recovered including its eastward propagation, structure and orga-
98 nization into intermittent wavetrains with growth and demise. Second, at interannual timescales,
99 the TSS-GCM model captures the overall structure and period of the ENSO, in addition to its
100 intermittency and diversity with El Niño events of varying strength and intensity. The associated
101 dynamic background Walker circulation is also captured qualitatively. Third and most important,
102 the TSS-GCM model captures the most salient interactions between the ENSO, wind bursts and
103 the MJO. This includes a realistic onset of El Niño events with increased wind bursts and MJO
104 activity starting in the Indian to western Pacific ocean and expanding eastward towards the cen-
105 tral Pacific. In return, the characteristics of wind bursts and the MJO are significantly modulated

106 interannually by the underlying variations of sea surface temperatures associated with the ENSO,
107 as in nature. The TSS-GCM model formulation provides such an upscale contribution of the wind
108 bursts to the interannual flow and their modulation in return in an explicit and dynamical way.

109 The TSS-GCM model introduced in the present article captures in simple fashion the ocean and
110 atmosphere dynamics in the tropics ranging from intraseasonal to interannual time scale and builds
111 on a range of previous work by the authors. First, for the intraseasonal variability in the atmosphere
112 Majda and Stechmann (2009; 2011) introduced a minimal dynamical model, the skeleton model,
113 that captures for the first time the main features of the MJO. This includes the MJO eastward phase
114 speed of $5 m.s^{-1}$, peculiar dispersion relation with $d\omega/dk \approx 0$ and horizontal quadrupole structure,
115 among others. The model depicts the MJO as a neutrally-stable atmospheric wave that involves
116 a simple interaction between planetary-scale, dry dynamics, planetary-scale, lower-tropospheric
117 moisture and the planetary envelope of synoptic-scale convection/wave activity. In subsequent
118 work, such a MJO skeleton model refined with a suitable stochastic convective parameterization
119 has been shown to capture the intermittent generation of MJO events and their organization
120 into waves trains with growth and demise (i.e. series of consecutive events), as in nature (Thual
121 et al., 2014; Stachnik et al., 2015; Majda et al., 2018). The MJO skeleton model appears to be
122 an excellent candidate for capturing dynamically the variability of intraseasonal wind bursts in
123 simple fashion. In the present TSS-GCM model, such a skeleton atmosphere with simple self
124 consistent nonlinear noise (Chen and Majda, 2016a) is used with a simple multiple time approach
125 (Majda and Klein, 2003) that allows us to derive approximate dynamics on both the intraseasonal
126 and interannual timescale. Second, for the interannual variability in general a simple ocean-
127 atmosphere model was developed recently that emphasizes the role of state-dependent wind bursts
128 and realistically captures the ENSO diversity including the eastern Pacific moderate and occasional
129 super El Niño (Thual et al., 2016). In this coupled model stochastic wind bursts are coupled to
130 otherwise deterministic, linear and stable ocean-atmosphere dynamics: in fact, the wind bursts
131 play the role of maintaining the ENSO, which is fundamentally different from the Cane-Zebiak
132 (Zebiak and Cane, 1987) and other nonlinear models that rely instead on internal instability. In
133 subsequent work such a simple model has been refined in order to facilitate additional realistic

134 features such as the occurrence of central Pacific El Niño events (Chen and Majda, 2016b; 2017;
135 Chen et al., 2018) as well as the synchronization of the ENSO to the seasonal cycle (Thual et al.,
136 2017). However, such a coupled model does not solve wind bursts dynamically: instead it uses a
137 simple stochastic parameterization to generate randomly both WWBs and EWBs from an identical
138 white noise source the intensity of which depends on the strength of the western Pacific warm pool.
139 In the TSS-GCM model from the present article, such coupled ocean-atmosphere dynamics from
140 Thual et al. (2016) are included with a more realistic depiction of wind bursts and their dynamical
141 features directly from the coupled atmosphere skeleton model.

142 The present article is organized as follows. In Section 2 we present the TSS-GCM model used
143 in this study, along with a hierarchy of cruder versions of the model used to introduce progressively
144 fundamental concepts related to the treatment of multiple time scales, main convective nonlinear-
145 ities and associated stochastic parameterizations. In Section 3 we analyze the main properties of
146 the TSS-GCM model and its versions, including their depiction of the intraseasonal wind bursts
147 and MJO variability, interannual ENSO variability as well as the dynamic Walker circulation.
148 Section 4 is a discussion with concluding remarks.

149 **2 Formulation of the Tropical Stochastic Skeleton GCM Model**

150 In this section we formulate the TSS-GCM model used in the present study. Such a model captures
151 in simple fashion the ocean and atmosphere processes in the tropics ranging from intraseasonal
152 to interannual scale. In order to formulate the model, first, a starting deterministic atmosphere
153 and ocean are considered (Majda and Stechmann, 2009; Thual et al., 2016; Chen and Majda,
154 2016b; 2017; Chen et al., 2018). In particular, the deterministic atmosphere is decomposed into an
155 intraseasonal and interannual flow following a simple multiple time approach (Majda and Klein,
156 2003). Next, simplified versions of the TSS-GCM model are derived: a crude interannual model and
157 crude intraseasonal model. Such cruder model versions differ from the complete TSS-GCM model
158 by their simplified representations of intraseasonal processes, and are introduced first for dynamical
159 insight. Finally, the complete TSS-GCM model is formulated as well as a more complete version
160 with a dynamic Walker circulation. At the end of the section, an overview and intercomparison of

161 the features of each model version is provided, as well as their contrast with conventional GCMs.

162 2.1 Starting Deterministic Atmosphere

163 In order to derive the TSS-GCM model, we consider first the starting deterministic skeleton model
164 atmosphere from Majda and Stechmann (2009). Such a skeleton model captures the main features
165 of intraseasonal variability in general in the tropics, including importantly the MJO eastward
166 propagation, peculiar dispersion relation and quadrupole structure, among others (Majda and
167 Stechmann, 2009; 2011). Such a model reads:

168 *Starting deterministic atmosphere*

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_t u - yv - \partial_x \theta &= 0 \\ yu - \partial_y \theta &= 0 \\ \partial_t \theta - (\partial_x u + \partial_y v) &= \overline{H}a - s^\theta \\ \partial_t q + \overline{Q}(\partial_x u + \partial_y v) &= -\overline{H}a + s^q + E_q \\ \partial_t a &= \Gamma q a \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

169 In the above model, x is zonal direction, y is meridional direction and t is intraseasonal time.
170 The u, v are zonal and meridional winds, θ is potential temperature, q is lower lever moisture and
171 a is the planetary envelope of convective activity. All variables are anomalies except $a > 0$. The
172 a in particular is a collective (i.e. integrated) representation of the unresolved convection/wave
173 activity details occurring at synoptic-scale, always acting as a planetary source of heating and
174 drying (hence $a > 0$). A key idea in the above model is that environmental moisture (q) influences
175 the growth/decay of convective activity in general as well as their planetary envelope (a). Note
176 that as compared to Majda and Stechmann (2009), we have added in Eq. 1 the contribution of
177 latent heating E_q in order to allow coupling with the ocean. The s^θ, s^q are constant external
178 sources of cooling and moistening, respectively, and \overline{Q}, Γ are parameters.

179 Next, the above system is decomposed into an intraseasonal atmosphere and interannual back-
180 ground mean atmosphere. A general motivation for this is to derive approximate solutions for the
181 slowly varying fluctuations relevant to the ENSO. For this, we assume that such slowly varying

182 fluctuations exist on the interannual time, in addition to the rapidly varying fluctuations on the
 183 intraseasonal time scale (Majda and Klein, 2003). Details on the derivation are provided in the
 184 appendix section A. The flow in Eq. 1 is decomposed as $a = \bar{a} + a'$ in standard notations from
 185 turbulence theory and similarly for u, v, θ, q . First, the resulting intraseasonal atmosphere reads:

186 *Intraseasonal deterministic atmosphere*

$$\begin{aligned}
 \partial_t u' - yv' - \partial_x \theta' &= 0 \\
 yu' - \partial_y \theta' &= 0 \\
 \partial_t \theta' - (\partial_x u' + \partial_y v') &= \bar{H}a' \\
 \partial_t q' + \bar{Q}(\partial_x u' + \partial_y v') &= -\bar{H}a' \\
 \partial_t a' &= \Gamma q'(\bar{a} + a').
 \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

187 which models intraseasonal fluctuations in general such as the MJO as well as other planetary
 188 convectively coupled waves. Such a system is dynamically similar to the starting skeleton model
 189 from Majda and Stechmann (2009; 2011), though the background \bar{a} here varies interannually
 190 as modulated by the ocean conditions (with $\bar{a} \geq 0$, see hereafter). Note that the intraseasonal
 191 contribution of latent heat release E'_q is lower order and omitted here. Next, the interannual
 192 atmosphere reads:

193 *Interannual deterministic atmosphere*

$$\begin{aligned}
 -y\bar{v} - \partial_x \bar{\theta} &= 0 \\
 y\bar{u} - \partial_y \bar{\theta} &= 0 \\
 -(\partial_x \bar{u} + \partial_y \bar{v}) &= \bar{H}\bar{a} - s^\theta \\
 -\bar{Q}(\partial_x \bar{u} + \partial_y \bar{v}) &= \bar{H}\bar{a} + s^q + E_q \\
 \bar{H}\bar{a} &= (E_q + s^q - \bar{Q}s^\theta)/(1 - \bar{Q})
 \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

194 which depicts the interannual adjustment of the atmosphere to the ocean conditions. In particular,
 195 there are no time derivatives in the system from Eq. 3 that is assumed to remain in balance with
 196 the underlying ocean on the slow interannual time scale where the forcing E_q is assumed to vary
 197 (Gill, 1980). Such an interannual atmosphere is identical to the one from Thual et al. (2016),

198 though it is derived here from a different method (multiple time scales instead of single time
 199 scale approach, see appendix section A). Note that wind divergence in Eq. 3 can alternatively be
 200 expressed as:

$$-(\partial_x \bar{u} + \partial_y \bar{v}) = (E_q + s^q - s^\theta)/(1 - \bar{Q}). \quad (4)$$

201 For instance, unbalanced sources of heating/moistening $(E_q + s^q - s^\theta) \neq 0$ force a background in-
 202 terannual circulation similar to the Walker circulation in nature (Chen and Majda, 2016b; Ogrosky
 203 and Stechmann, 2015), as discussed hereafter.

204 2.2 Starting Ocean, SST and Couplings

205 Next, the above deterministic atmosphere (Eq. 2 and Eq. 3) is coupled to the ocean. For this, we
 206 consider a simple shallow water ocean and Sea Surface temperature (SST) budget that retain a
 207 few essential processes relevant to the ENSO interannual variability. Because the ocean dynamics
 208 are essentially interannual, no multiple time approach is considered here. The starting ocean, SST
 209 budget, and couplings are identical to the ones of Thual et al. (2016). They read:

210 *Ocean*

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_t U - \epsilon c_1 Y V + \epsilon c_1 \partial_x H &= \epsilon c_1 \tau_x \\ Y U + \partial_Y H &= 0 \\ \partial_t H + \epsilon c_1 (\partial_x U + \partial_Y V) &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

211 *SST*

$$\partial_t T = -\epsilon c_1 \zeta E_q + \epsilon c_1 \eta H \quad (6)$$

212 *Couplings*

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_x &= \gamma(\bar{u} + u') \\ E_q &= \alpha_q T \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

213 In the above Eq. 5-7, Y is meridional direction in the ocean, U , V , are zonal and meridional
 214 currents, H is thermocline depth, τ_x is zonal wind stress and T is SST. Only a few processes

215 deemed most important are retained in the SST budget from Eq. 6, such as dissipation by latent
216 heat losses and the so-called thermocline feedback (An and Jin, 2001; Thual et al., 2016). Note
217 that the ocean covers the equatorial Pacific domain only with boundary conditions at the western
218 and eastern edges (see hereafter). The above system includes a minimal number of parameters: ϵ
219 (Froude number), c_1 , ζ , η , γ and α_q (see details in the appendix section B).

220 A few important remarks can be made on the coupling between the above ocean and SST
221 model from Eq. 5-7 and the intraseasonal and interannual atmospheres from Eq. 2-3. Fig. 1(a)
222 shows a sketch of the couplings in the complete TSS-GCM model derived hereafter. First, the
223 ocean, SST and interannual atmosphere (Eq. 5-7 and Eq. 3) are coupled through latent heat
224 release $E_q = \alpha_q T$ that forces an atmosphere circulation. The resulting zonal wind stress τ_x in
225 return forces an ocean circulation that modifies the sea surface temperatures through thermocline
226 depth anomalies H . In the absence of the intraseasonal atmosphere such a coupled interannual
227 ocean-atmosphere system is linear, deterministic and stable and simulates a dissipated ENSO
228 cycle with realistic period $\approx 4.5 yr$ and overall structure (see SI of Thual et al., 2016). Second, the
229 intraseasonal atmosphere (Eq. 2) is the starting skeleton model from Majda and Stechmann (2009)
230 and intends to model the main features of the MJO. Here, such an intraseasonal atmosphere is fully
231 coupled to the interannual atmosphere-ocean system. The intraseasonal wind bursts u' force the
232 ocean through the wind stress τ_x in Eq. 7, and the ocean conditions modulate the intraseasonal
233 atmosphere through interannual convective activity \bar{a} in Eq. 2. Noteworthy, the intraseasonal
234 atmosphere plays the role of triggering the ENSO in the otherwise dissipated ocean-atmosphere
235 system, which is fundamentally different from the Cane-Zebiak (Zebiak and Cane, 1987) and
236 other nonlinear models that rely instead on internal ocean instability. Finally, as shown in Fig.
237 1(a) in the complete TSS-GCM model convective noise is added to the intraseasonal atmosphere
238 that depends on the interannual convective activity \bar{a} (i.e. is multiplicative): the details of this
239 convective stochastic parameterization will be introduced hereafter.

240 2.3 Crude Interannual Atmosphere

241 In the next subsections, in order to derive the complete TSS-GCM model we will first consider a
 242 hierarchy of cruder model versions. Those crude model versions have simplified dynamics and/or
 243 stochastics that allows us to understand the underlying processes in the more realistic complete
 244 TSS-GCM model. We introduce here first a crude interannual model, followed by a crude intrasea-
 245 sonal model before presenting the complete TSS-GCM model.

246 Fig. 1(b) shows a sketch of the couplings in the crude interannual model. In the crude interan-
 247 nual model, the intraseasonal dynamics are omitted in favor of a simple stochastic parameterization
 248 of intraseasonal wind bursts. This follows the prototype of many simple or intermediate depicting
 249 the relationship between the ENSO and wind bursts, where intraseasonal dynamics are not solved
 250 explicitly (e.g. Moore and Kleeman, 1999; Eisenman et al., 2005; Jin et al., 2007; Chen et al.,
 251 2015; Thual et al., 2016). Such a crude interannual model reads:

252 *Crude Interannual Atmosphere*

$$\begin{aligned}
 -y\bar{v} - \partial_x\bar{\theta} &= 0 \\
 y\bar{u} - \partial_y\bar{\theta} &= 0 \\
 -(\partial_x\bar{u} + \partial_y\bar{v}) &= \bar{H}\bar{a} - s^\theta \\
 -\bar{Q}(\partial_x\bar{u} + \partial_y\bar{v}) &= \bar{H}\bar{a} + s^q + E_q
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{8}$$

253 along with

$$\begin{aligned}
 \partial_t\bar{a} &= -\lambda(\bar{a} - \hat{a}) + \sqrt{\lambda\hat{a}\bar{a}}\dot{W} \\
 \bar{H}\hat{a} &= (E_q + s^q - \bar{Q}s^\theta)/(1 - \bar{Q})
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{9}$$

254 and with no intraseasonal fluctuations, i.e. $u', v', \theta', q', a' = 0$. Meanwhile, the ocean and SST
 255 are identical to the ones in the previous sections (Eq. 5-7). Here, a simple stochastic differential
 256 equation (SDE) for intraseasonal variability is considered (Chen and Majda, 2016a): in Eq. 9
 257 the background convective activity \bar{a} is perturbed by a white noise source \dot{W} and relaxes to the
 258 deterministic value \hat{a} at a rate $\lambda = (30 \text{ day})^{-1}$. Importantly, the SDE involves a multiplicative
 259 noise which ensures that $\bar{a} \geq 0$ (as long as $\hat{a} \geq 0$) in the model consistent with the definition of
 260 convective activity in previous sections. In particular, the equilibrium probability distribution of

261 \bar{a} relaxes to a Gamma distribution:

$$P(\bar{a}) = \frac{1}{\mu^k G(k)} \bar{a}^{k-1} \exp(-\bar{a}/\mu). \quad (10)$$

262 for which $\bar{a} \geq 0$ as shown in Fig. 2(d), with here parameters $k = 2$ and $\mu = \hat{a}/2$.

263 2.4 Crude Intraseasonal Atmosphere

264 We now formulate the crude intraseasonal model. Fig. 1(c) shows a sketch of the couplings in such
 265 a model. As compared to the crude interannual model presented above, such a model captures the
 266 dynamical details of intraseasonal variability. Such details are however simplified to some extent
 267 because some fundamental convective nonlinearities and associated noise features are missing, that
 268 will be introduced hereafter in the complete TSS-GCM model. Starting from the deterministic
 269 intraseasonal atmosphere from Eq. 2, simple perturbations (additive white noise sources) and
 270 dissipations are added. This reads:

271 *Crude Intraseasonal Atmosphere*

$$\begin{aligned} (\partial_t + d_u)u' - yv' - \partial_x \theta' &= 0 \\ yu' - \partial_y \theta' &= 0 \\ (\partial_t + d_u)\theta' - (\partial_x u' + \partial_y v') &= \bar{H}a' \\ (\partial_t + d_q)q' + \bar{Q}(\partial_x u' + \partial_y v') &= -\bar{H}a' + \sigma_q \dot{W}_q \\ (\partial_t + d_a)a' &= \Gamma q' \bar{a}. \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

272 Meanwhile, the interannual atmosphere, ocean and SST are identical to the ones in previous
 273 sections (Eq. 3 and Eq. 5-7). As compared to the starting deterministic intraseasonal atmosphere
 274 from Eq. 2, moisture is perturbed in Eq. 11 by a white noise source \dot{W}_q and uniform dissipations
 275 d_u, d_q, d_a are added consistent with the noise-dissipation energy balance (Hottovy and Stechmann,
 276 2015; Stechmann and Hottovy, 2017). Here $d_u, d_q, d_a = (30 \text{ day})^{-1}$, which is a natural dissipation
 277 time scale for intraseasonal variability. In addition, for simplicity the evolution of convective
 278 activity is linearized around the interannual mean value \bar{a} (and remains approximately linear for

279 \bar{a} varying on the slower interannual timescale). As a result, an important caveat of the present
 280 crude intraseasonal model is that total convective activity $\bar{a} + a'$ is not always positive (though \bar{a}
 281 remains positive), which is a deficiency compared with the starting deterministic skeleton model
 282 formulation from Eq. 1 (Majda and Stechmann, 2009; 2011).

283 2.5 Complete Tropical Stochastic Skeleton GCM

284 We formulate the complete TSS-GCM model. Fig. 1(a) shows a sketch of the couplings in such a
 285 model. The TSS-GCM model includes all the features from the starting deterministic ocean and
 286 atmosphere, with in addition important design elements already introduced above with the crude
 287 interannual and crude intraseasonal models (Fig. 1b and c). As compared to those crude models
 288 the complete TSS-GCM model retains some fundamental nonlinearities and multiplicative noise
 289 features associated with convection in nature, which are common to conventional GCM models.
 290 As shown hereafter, such a convective parameterization allows the complete TSS-GCM model
 291 to capture more realistically some important features of wind bursts in nature. This includes
 292 intermittent wind bursts of varying strength and intensity, both easterly or westerly, with short
 293 lifespan around 10-30 days, sharp structure in both space and time and large zonal fetch. The
 294 complete TSS-GCM model reads:

295 *Complete TSS-GCM Intraseasonal Atmosphere*

$$\begin{aligned}
 (\partial_t + d_u)u' - yv' - \partial_x\theta' &= 0 \\
 yu' - \partial_y\theta' &= 0 \\
 (\partial_t + d_u)\theta' - (\partial_xu' + \partial_yv') &= \bar{H}a' \\
 (\partial_t + d_q)q' + \bar{Q}(\partial_xu' + \partial_yv') &= -\bar{H}a' + \sigma_q\dot{W}_q \\
 \partial_t a' &= \Gamma q'(\bar{a} + a') - \lambda a' + \sqrt{\lambda(\bar{a} + a')}\bar{a}\dot{W}_a.
 \end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

296 Meanwhile, the interannual atmosphere, ocean and SST are identical to the ones in previous
 297 sections (Eq. 3 and Eq. 5-7). The interannual convective activity \bar{a} driven by the ocean (Eq.
 298 3, 5-7) modulates the intraseasonal variability in Eq. 12: for instance, an increased \bar{a} increases
 299 the growth/decay rate of a' which increases the overall amplitude of intraseasonal variability, and

300 conversely for a decreased \bar{a} . In Eq. 12 we have added white noise sources terms \dot{W}_q , \dot{W}_a and
301 associated dissipations as in the crude intraseasonal atmosphere from Eq. 11, in addition to a
302 suitable SDE for convective activity a' as in the crude intraseasonal atmosphere from Eq. 9.
303 Such a SDE involves multiplicative noise ensuring that $a' + \bar{a} > 0$ in agreement with the starting
304 deterministic skeleton model formulation from Eq. 1 (Majda and Stechmann, 2009; 2011). In fact,
305 the time tendency $\partial_t a'$ in Eq. 12 is driven by $\Gamma q'(\bar{a} + a')$ as well as $-\lambda a' + \sqrt{\lambda(\bar{a} + a')\bar{a}}\dot{W}_a$, which
306 both ensure that $a' + \bar{a} > 0$ when considered independently (Majda and Stechmann, 2009; 2011;
307 Chen and Majda, 2016a), therefore $a' + \bar{a} > 0$ is ensured by splitting method. In particular, for
308 $q' = 0$ the $a' + \bar{a}$ relaxes to a Gamma distribution as in Fig. 2(d).

309 2.6 Complete Tropical Stochastic Skeleton GCM with Dynamic Walker 310 Circulation

311 Here a dynamic Walker circulation is introduced in the TSS-GCM model. Such a dynamic Walker
312 circulation can be obtained for unbalanced external sources of cooling/moistening $s^\theta \neq s^q$ in
313 any versions of the TSS-GCM model presented above (crude interannual, crude intraseasonal or
314 complete TSS-GCM). Recall that wind divergence in Eq. 3 can alternatively be expressed as:

$$-(\partial_x \bar{u} + \partial_y \bar{v}) = (E_q + s^q - s^\theta)/(1 - \bar{Q}) \quad (13)$$

315 In Eq. 13, $E_q + s^q - s^\theta \neq 0$ forces a background interannual atmosphere circulation, which can arise
316 either from latent heat release fluctuations $E_q \neq 0$ driven by the ocean (5-7) as well as unbalanced
317 external sources of cooling/moistening $s^\theta \neq s^q$. Such unbalanced external sources allow us to
318 capture in a simple fashion the dynamic Walker circulation in the equatorial Pacific marked by
319 mean westward trade winds and an overturning circulation in the upper troposphere (Chen and
320 Majda, 2016b; Ogrosky and Stechmann, 2015) as well as an equilibrium zonal gradient of SST and
321 thermocline depth in the ocean.

322 In the TSS-GCM model as well as the crude interannual and intraseasonal models introduced
323 above, the external sources of cooling/moistening s^θ and s^q are constant and representative of a

324 simple background warm pool of cooling/moistening. This is shown in Fig. 2(a): for simplicity the
 325 external sources are balanced, i.e. $s^q = s^\theta$ are maximal at the western edge of the equatorial Pacific
 326 ($x = 0$) and minimal around the eastern edge ($x \approx 18\,000\text{ km}$), as in nature (see e.g. Majda and
 327 Stechmann, 2011; Thual et al., 2014 for a similar parameterization). This accounts qualitatively
 328 for the increased convective activity over the Indian ocean/western Pacific and decreased convec-
 329 tive activity in the eastern Pacific, although the profiles are unrealistic over the Atlantic Ocean.
 330 Note that although s^θ and s^q are here constant with time, their variations with seasons could be
 331 accounted for in a more complex setup. In the TSS-GCM model with dynamic Walker circula-
 332 tion, the external sources are instead unbalanced as in nature (Ogrosky and Stechmann, 2015),
 333 i.e. $s^q \neq s^\theta$ as shown in Fig. 2(b). For this we have slightly shifted the profile of s^θ . Despite the
 334 apparent similarity between s^q and s^θ in Fig. 2(b), note that the quantity $s^m = (s^q - \overline{Q}s^\theta)/(1 - \overline{Q})$
 335 that appears in the expression of $\overline{H\bar{a}}$ in Eq. 3 shows large zonal variations (yet remains positive to
 336 ensure $\bar{a} \geq 0$). As shown hereafter, such an unbalance introduces a fundamental ocean-atmosphere
 337 background circulation representative of the dynamic Walker circulation in nature on interannual
 338 timescale.

339 2.7 Intercomparison of model versions

340 Here we provide a summary and intercomparison of all model versions of the TSS-GCM model.
 341 The main features of all model versions are listed in Table 1, and are also contrasted with the ones
 342 of conventional GCMs. Those features will be detailed hereafter in the next sections.

343 The features summarized in Table 1 are as follows: first, conventional GCMs that retain the
 344 full complexity of the ocean-atmosphere system typically show common and systematic biases in
 345 representing the ENSO, MJO and background circulation altogether (Lin et al., 2006; Kim et al.,
 346 2009; Wittenberg et al., 2004; 2006; 2014; Guilyardi et al., 2016). This may include biases for the
 347 background mean state, ENSO intermittency and diversity as well as its non-Gaussian statistics,
 348 in addition to biases for the MJO amplitude, duration and propagation (with often a weak or even
 349 absent MJO).

350 Secondly, the complete TSS-GCM model (Sec. 3.3, Fig. 1a) in comparison shows great skill at

351 capturing qualitatively the above processes, and is computationally much less costly. Recovered
352 features include an irregular and intermittent ENSO cycle with El Niño events of varying strength
353 and intensity, in addition to intermittent MJO events and wind bursts that are realistically confined
354 to the western Pacific/Indian ocean region of convection yet realistically expand to the central
355 Pacific during the onset of El Niño events. Note that the model reproduces Gaussian SST statistics
356 which is also a common deficiency of GCM models, though it is able to capture occasional extreme
357 El Niño events. As compared to previous work (Majda and Stechmann, 2009; 2011; Thual et al.,
358 2016), only a few additional parameters (dissipation and noise intensity) need to be specified. The
359 careful choice of SDE with multiplicative noise ensures that convective activity $a' + \bar{a}$ remains
360 positive (Chen and Majda, 2016a).

361 Thirdly, the TSS-GCM model with Walker circulation (Sec. 3.4) is obtained from the com-
362 plete TSS-GCM model simply by imposing unbalanced external sources of cooling/moistening, i.e.
363 $s^\theta \neq s^q$. This allows us to capture a simple dynamic Walker circulation that consists of a cold
364 tongue/warm pool region with associated cooling/heating in the ocean and convection/subsidence
365 in the atmosphere. Note that such a dynamic Walker circulation can also be obtained in the crude
366 interannual or crude intraseasonal models by imposing $s^\theta \neq s^q$.

367 Next, in the crude intraseasonal model (Sec. 3.2, Fig. 1b) the atmosphere is simplified in terms
368 of noise source and main nonlinearities. Such a crude model captures both the ENSO and MJO in
369 simple fashion, but misses important convective details. In particular, the simulated intraseasonal
370 variability is dominated by excessive power from moist westward propagating Rossby waves and
371 a weaker MJO in comparison. Finally, in the crude interannual model (Sec. 3.1, Fig. 1c) there
372 are no intraseasonal atmospheric fluctuations but instead simple stochastic perturbations of the
373 background convective activity \bar{a} , which is a prototype for most simple models with stochastic wind
374 bursts (Moore and Kleeman, 1999; Eisenman et al., 2005; Jin et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2015; Thual
375 et al., 2016). This allows the model to generate ENSO variability in simple fashion, although there
376 is no dynamical intraseasonal variability.

377 In the next section, we analyze in details the main features of the TSS-GCM model as well
378 as its versions as summarized in Table 1. The appendix section B provides additional technical

379 details on the model formulation and numerical solving algorithm.

380 **3 El Niño, the MJO and the dynamic Walker Circulation in** 381 **the TSS-GCM model**

382 In this section we show results from numerical experiments with the TSS-GCM model presented in
383 previous section. Despite the model simplicity, the main features of interannual and intraseasonal
384 variability are captured qualitatively. For clarity and consistency with the previous section, we
385 introduce here the main features of each model version in order of increasing complexity: crude
386 interannual, crude intraseasonal, complete TSS-GCM model and complete TSS-GCM model with
387 dynamic Walker circulation.

388 **3.1 Crude Interannual Model**

389 We show here solutions of the crude interannual model (see Fig. 1b and Eq. 5-9 for its formula-
390 tion). In the crude interannual model, the intraseasonal dynamics are omitted in favor of a simple
391 stochastic parameterization of intraseasonal wind bursts with multiplicative features. This follows
392 the prototype of many simple or intermediate models that describe the relationship between the
393 ENSO and wind bursts, in which intraseasonal dynamics are not solved explicitly (e.g. Moore and
394 Kleeman, 1999; Eisenman et al., 2005; Jin et al., 2007; Thual et al., 2016).

395 Fig. 3 show solutions of the crude interannual model. This includes the timeserie of T_E the
396 average of SST anomalies in the eastern half of the equatorial Pacific (Fig. 3a), as well as the
397 timeserie of convective activity $\overline{H\bar{a}}$ at the western edge of the Pacific (Fig. 3b). The T_E is a
398 good indicator of El Niño variability in the model due to its possible comparison to e.g. the
399 observed Niño3.SST index. The model simulates an ENSO cycle that is sustained, irregular and
400 intermittent, as in nature (Clarke, 2008). While the evolution of T_E is essentially interannual, the
401 evolution of $\overline{H\bar{a}}$ is both intraseasonal and interannual (cf 1-yr moving average, red) consistent with
402 the SDE parameterization in Eq. 9. This illustrates the simple mechanisms for the generation
403 of interannual variability in the model that results from the integration of noise: the interannual

404 ocean-atmosphere system is here linear and dissipated while the SDE for $\overline{H\bar{a}}$ acts as an external
405 source of perturbations. In addition to this, note that the probability density function (pdf) of
406 T_E is nearly Gaussian while the pdf of $\overline{H\bar{a}}$ matches the theoretical Gamma distribution from Fig.
407 2(d) (not shown).

408 Fig. 3(c-g) shows the details of an El Niño event (around year 1623) with strong SST anomalies
409 representative of extreme events in the observational record (e.g. 1997/98, 2015/16). The event
410 starts with a realistic build-up of SST and thermocline depth anomalies in the western Pacific that
411 eventually propagate and intensify in the eastern Pacific. Zonal winds anomalies become positive
412 in the western to central Pacific consistent with the gradual weakening of the trade winds. The El
413 Niño event is then followed by a reversal of conditions the following year towards a weak La Niña
414 state.

415 3.2 Crude Intraseasonal Model

416 We now show solutions of the crude intraseasonal model (see Fig. 1c, Eq. 11 and Eq. 3, 5-7
417 for its formulation). As compared to the crude interannual model analyzed above, in the crude
418 intraseasonal model the intraseasonal atmosphere dynamics are modelled. Important nonlinear
419 and multiplicative noise features of convection are however not included that will be accounted for
420 hereafter with the complete TSS-GCM model (Majda and Stechmann, 2009; Thual et al., 2014;
421 Chen and Majda, 2016a). Another caveat of the crude intraseasonal model is the presence of
422 unrealistic excessive westward propagation in the atmosphere.

423 An important feature as compared to the crude interannual model from previous section is that
424 intraseasonal fluctuations are here dynamically resolved. Fig. 4(a,b,d,e) shows the power spectra
425 of the intraseasonal atmosphere variables, as a function of the zonal wavenumber k (in $2\pi/40,000$
426 km) and frequency ω (in cpd). The intraseasonal atmosphere reproduces a MJO-like signal that is
427 the dominant intraseasonal signal, consistent with observations (Wheeler and Kiladis, 1999; Thual
428 et al., 2014; Stechmann and Hottovy, 2017). The MJO appears here as a sharp power peak in the
429 intraseasonal-planetary band ($1 \leq k \leq 5$ and $1/90 \leq \omega \leq 1/30$ cpd), most prominent in u' , q' and
430 $\overline{H\bar{a}'}$. This power peak roughly corresponds to the slow eastward phase speed of $\omega/k \approx 5 \text{ ms}^{-1}$

431 with the peculiar relation dispersion $d\omega/dk \approx 0$ found in observations. There is however excessive
 432 westward power in the intraseasonal band ($-3 \leq k \leq -1$ and $1/90 \leq \omega \leq 1/30$ cpd) as seen for θ' ,
 433 q' and a' , which is a caveat of the present crude intraseasonal model. Note that power is maximal
 434 near the dispersion curves of the linear solutions of the intraseasonal atmosphere (black dots, see
 435 Thual et al., 2014 for a discussion).

436 In order to understand the timescale interaction between El Niño and the wind bursts, Fig.
 437 4(c,f) shows the power spectrum of T_E the average of SSTs in the eastern Pacific, as well as
 438 u'_W the average of intraseasonal winds in the western Pacific half. The indice T_E is here a good
 439 indicator of the ENSO variability in the model while the indice u'_W is a good indicator of the wind
 440 bursts variability. Both power spectrum are shown in log-log scale to cover both the interannual
 441 and intraseasonal range, and the dashed lines indicate the intraseasonal 30-90 days band from
 442 Fig. 4(a,b,d,e). First, the spectrum of u'_w is approximately white (with power evenly distributed)
 443 except for fluctuations below 30 days that are dissipated. Associated with this, the spectrum of T_E
 444 is approximately red (i.e. decreasing linearly with frequency) consistent with the time-integration
 445 of noise by the interannual ocean and atmosphere. Second, the spectrum of T_E shows a peak
 446 at around 0.2 yr^{-1} ($\approx 4.5 \text{ yr}$) that is consistent with the average period of the ENSO in nature
 447 and the linear solutions of the interannual atmosphere and ocean (Thual et al., 2016). Note in
 448 particular that details of intraseasonal variability in the 30-90 days are clearly separated from the
 449 average ENSO period.

450 Fig. 5 shows the details of intraseasonal variability during a strong El Niño event (around year
 451 922). Consistent with the model formulation, the intraseasonal atmosphere evolves on a different
 452 timescales than the interannual atmosphere and ocean, with the exception of some intraseasonal
 453 disturbances on thermocline depth that correspond mainly to eastward propagating ocean Kelvin
 454 waves. Fig. 5(a) shows a data projection e_{MJO} that evaluates the MJO intensity by comparison
 455 to the linear solutions of the crude intraseasonal atmosphere. Such a data projection is obtained
 456 by filtering the intraseasonal atmosphere signals in the intraseasonal-planetary band ($1 \leq k \leq$
 457 3 , $1/90 \leq \omega \leq 1/30$ cpd), then projecting them on the MJO linear solution eigenvector (see
 458 Majda and Stechmann, 2011; Thual et al., 2014; Stechmann and Majda, 2015 for details). This

459 representation, along with the other Hovmollers diagrams shown in Fig. 5, allows us to identify
460 clearly the MJO variability despite the noisy signals. On average, the simulated MJO events
461 propagate eastward with a phase speed $\approx 5 - 15 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ and period ≈ 40 days and are furthermore
462 organized into wavetrains (i.e. series) of successive events, as in nature.

463 The El Niño event onset in Fig. 5 (around year 920 to 922) consists of a build-up of SST and
464 thermocline depth anomalies starting from the western Pacific. During the event onset, intrasea-
465 sonal wind bursts u' , convective activity $\overline{H}a'$ and the MJO gradually intensify and expand towards
466 the central to eastern Pacific, as in nature (Eisenman et al., 2005; Hendon et al., 2007; Tziperman
467 and Yu., 2007; Gebbie et al., 2007). Some MJO wavetrains even reach the eastern Pacific dur-
468 ing the event peak (around year 922). Note that in the absence of El Niño events, intraseasonal
469 variability remains confined overall to the Indian ocean and western Pacific consistent with the
470 increased sources of cooling/moistening s^θ , s^q over that region (cf Fig. 2a, Majda and Stechmann,
471 2011). Finally, strong wind bursts or a prominent MJO do not necessarily trigger El Niño events
472 (Fedorov et al., 2015; Hu et al., 2014), as shown for example with the strong wind bursts in Fig.
473 5 around year 919.5. Note in addition the presence of excessive westward propagations in Fig. 5
474 on wind bursts u' , potential temperature θ' and moisture q' , which is a caveat of the present crude
475 intraseasonal model.

476 3.3 Complete Tropical Stochastic Skeleton GCM Model

477 We now show the solutions of the complete TSS-GCM model (see Fig. 1a, Eq. 12 and Eq. 3, 5-7
478 for its formulation). Such a model retains all the dynamics from the starting deterministic ocean
479 and atmosphere, elements from the crude interannual and intraseasonal model versions presented
480 above, in addition to fundamental convective nonlinearities and associated suitable stochastic
481 parameterizations. This allows the complete TSS-GCM model to capture realistically some impor-
482 tant features of wind bursts in nature. Such features include intermittent wind bursts of varying
483 strength and intensity, both easterly or westerly, with short lifespan around 10-30 days, sharp struc-
484 ture in both space and time and large zonal fetch. Associated with those wind bursts are sharp
485 and localized peaks of convective activity as representative of deep convective events in nature.

486 For completeness, several diagnostics presented above for the crude interannual and intraseasonal
487 model versions are repeated here for the complete TSS-GCM model.

488 Fig. 6 shows the details of a super El Niño event (around year 1096.8) simulated by the complete
489 TSS-GCM model. Importantly, there are here more realistic intraseasonal and convective features
490 as compared to the crude intraseasonal model (Fig. 5). This includes localized wind bursts (u'
491 in Fig. 6c) in the western Pacific, both easterly or westerly, with short lifespan around 10-30
492 days, sharp structure in both space and time and large zonal fetch. Those wind bursts result from
493 strong and localized peaks in convective activity ($\overline{H}(\bar{a} + a')$ in Fig. 6d) as representative of deep
494 convective events in nature, with heating reaching $1 K.day^{-1}$ or more while convection is otherwise
495 suppressed overall ($\approx 0.1 K.day^{-1}$). Such a realistic bursting behavior in both convection and
496 wind bursts result from the parameterization of convection in Eq. 12 with non-Gaussian noise
497 and fundamental nonlinearities. In addition to this, the complete TSS-GCM model captures the
498 eastward expansion of the sharp wind bursts and convective events during the onset of the El
499 Niño event (Eisenman et al., 2005; Hendon et al., 2007; Tziperman and Yu., 2007; Gebbie et al.,
500 2007). This is best seen in Fig. 6(c) on total zonal winds $\bar{u} + u'$, for which westerly wind bursts are
501 dominant in the western Pacific/Indian ocean at the event onset (1095.8 to 1096 yr) then gradually
502 expand towards the eastern Pacific until the event peak (around 1096.8). Those are all important
503 and realistic features captured in a simple fashion by the complete TSS-GCM model. Note that
504 the total convective activity $\bar{a} + a'$ remains positive in Fig. 6(d) which is in agreement with the
505 design principles for the model's atmosphere (Eq. 1, 12).

506 Fig. 7 shows timeseries and hovmollers for the interannual variability simulated by the complete
507 TSS-GCM model. The model simulates a sustained and irregular ENSO cycle with intermittent
508 El Niño and La Niña events of varying intensity and strength, as in nature (Clarke, 2008). In
509 Fig. 7, there are in particular two super El Niño events with strong SST anomalies representative
510 of extreme events in the observational record (e.g. 1997/98, 2015/16), realistically separated by
511 around 20 years. Those super El Niño events start with a build-up of SST and thermocline
512 depth anomalies in the western Pacific that eventually propagate and intensify in the eastern
513 Pacific, in addition to a gradual increase in zonal winds anomalies, as in nature. There are in

514 addition many examples of moderates or failed El Niño events in Fig. 7. There are however no
515 central Pacific events simulated by the model, though this could be improved with the addition of
516 nonlinear advection of SST in the model’s SST budget (Chen and Majda, 2016b; 2017; Chen et al.,
517 2018). Fig. 7(c) shows a one-year running mean of $|e_{MJO}|$ the magnitude of the data projection
518 e_{MJO} . This allows us to evaluate the interannual variations of the MJO intensity. The interannual
519 variations of the MJO intensity are random overall as resulting from the internal variability of the
520 intraseasonal atmosphere alone (see e.g. Fig. 5 of Thual et al., 2014 for comparison), though they
521 are here modulated to some extent by the SSTs. For instance, the MJO intensity in Fig. 7(c) is
522 increased from the western to eastern Pacific during some El Niño events.

523 The present TSS-GCM model provides the upscale contribution of intraseasonal wind bursts
524 and the MJO to the interannual flow as well as their modulation in return in an explicit way. For
525 this, Fig. 8 shows lagged regressions of several interannual and intraseasonal variables on T_E the
526 average of SST in the Pacific eastern half. This highlights the overall formation mechanisms and
527 chronology of El Niño events in the model. In order to identify the evolution of the intraseasonal
528 atmosphere evolution during El Niño, we consider lagged regressions for the data projection e_{MJO}
529 (cf Fig. 6) and intraseasonal zonal winds u' as well as their magnitude.

530 As shown in Fig. 8, El Niño events typically start with increased thermocline depth and SST
531 anomalies in the western Pacific that eventually propagate to the eastern Pacific, in addition to
532 gradually increasing interannual winds. Those features are overall consistent with the hovmollers
533 in Fig. 7. Interestingly, the magnitude of intraseasonal variability in general ($|e_{MJO}|$ and $|u'|$
534 in Fig. 8b,d) is increased overall in the western Pacific during the onset of El Niño as well as
535 in the central to eastern Pacific during the event peak, as in nature (Vecchi and Harrison, 2000;
536 Hendon et al., 1999). In the TSS-GCM model, the gradual increase and expansion of intraseasonal
537 variability from the western to eastern Pacific results from the increased SSTs that favor the
538 temporal growth/decay of convective activity a' (cf Eq. 12). Next, results suggest that the upscale
539 contributions of the wind bursts play a key role for the triggering of El Niño events, but not the
540 upscale contribution of the MJO. First, wind bursts u' in Fig. 8(c) are predominantly westerly
541 in the western to central Pacific around 6 months prior to the event peak (e.g. Hu and Fedorov,

542 2017). In fact, westerly wind bursts force a deepening of the equatorial thermocline in the ocean
 543 (i.e. downwelling equatorial ocean Kelvin and Rossby waves) that further contribute to the increase
 544 of El Niño SSTs. Interestingly, the location and timing of those predominantly westerly wind bursts
 545 in Fig. 8(c) does not match the one of the overall increased magnitude ($|u'|$ in Fig. 8d), suggesting
 546 that only some wind bursts may be key for the triggering of the El Niño events. Recall in addition
 547 that wind bursts from the intraseasonal atmosphere trigger the El Niño by design in the TSS-GCM
 548 model because they are coupled to an interannual atmosphere that is otherwise stable, linear and
 549 dissipated (cf Eq. 3, 5-7; see also Thual et al., 2016 for a discussion). On the other hand, lagged
 550 regressions with El Niño SSTs are weak for MJO variability (e_{MJO} in Fig. 8a), except during
 551 the event peak for which they match overall the increased (decreased) convection in the eastern
 552 (western) Pacific. In fact, the MJO approximately oscillates at a period ≈ 40 days with opposite
 553 and canceling effects on the ocean that are ineffective at triggering El Niño events despite an
 554 increased magnitude $|e_{MJO}|$.

555 Finally, other features of the intraseasonal atmosphere such as its power spectra and statistics
 556 are overall consistent with nature. First, Fig. 9(a,b,e,f) shows the power spectra for variables of
 557 the intraseasonal atmosphere in the complete TSS-GCM model. While the features are overall
 558 similar to the ones of the crude intraseasonal model version (Fig. 4), there are here less westward
 559 propagations in the intraseasonal 30-90 days band as seen for u' as well as q' and θ' , which is more
 560 realistic. Second, in order to understand the timescale interaction between El Niño and the wind
 561 bursts, Fig. 9(c,g) shows the power spectrum of T_E the average of SSTs in the eastern Pacific, as
 562 well as the power spectrum of u'_W the average of intraseasonal wind bursts in the western Pacific
 563 half. As compared to the crude interannual atmosphere model version (Fig. 4), the spectrum
 564 of u'_w is here not entirely white: for instance, it shows a slight peak around 0.2 yr^{-1} ($\approx 4.5\text{ yr}$)
 565 similar to the one on the power spectrum of T_E , which corresponds to the average ENSO period
 566 in the model. This shows that wind bursts variability is modulated interannually to some extent
 567 by ENSO SSTs, consistent with the lagged regressions in Fig. 8 (d). Finally, Fig. 9(d,h) shows
 568 the probability density functions (pdfs) for T_E as well as total convective activity $\overline{H}(a' + \bar{a})$ at
 569 the Pacific western edge. The pdf of T_E is nearly Gaussian, in slight discrepancy with the skewed

570 distribution of eastern Pacific SSTs in observations (e.g. Niño 3 SST). Such a discrepancy is
571 also common in GCMs, and could likely be improved by rendering the stochastic noise in the
572 intraseasonal atmosphere more multiplicative (Jin et al., 2007; Thual et al., 2016). Meanwhile the
573 pdf of $\bar{H}(a' + \bar{a})$ matches to some extent the theoretical Gamma distribution from Eq. 10 and Fig.
574 2(d) (which ensures notably that $a' + \bar{a}$ remains positive, Chen and Majda, 2016a), though it is
575 significantly more skewed towards extreme convective events due to the addition of deterministic
576 convective nonlinearities in the complete TSS-GCM model ($\Gamma q'(\bar{a} + a')$ in Eq. 12).

577 3.4 Complete TSS-GCM model with Dynamic Walker Circulation

578 We now show solutions of the TSS-GCM model with Dynamic Walker Circulation. Such a model
579 version is identical to the TSS-GCM model presented above except for the introduction of unbal-
580 anced external sources of cooling/moistening $s^\theta \neq s^q$ (Fig. 2b). This allows to capture in simple
581 fashion the dynamic Walker circulation in the equatorial Pacific marked by mean westward trade
582 winds and an overturning circulation in the upper troposphere, (Chen and Majda, 2016b; Ogrosky
583 and Stechmann, 2015) as well as an equilibrium zonal gradient of SST and thermocline depth in
584 the ocean. Note that a dynamic Walker circulation can be obtained for $s^\theta \neq s^q$ in any versions of
585 the TSS-GCM model (crude interannual, crude intraseasonal or complete TSS-GCM).

586 Fig. 10 shows the background mean (i.e. climatological) circulation, obtained from a time-
587 average of the model solutions. The equilibrium atmosphere consists of a region of ascent, con-
588 vergence and increased convection in the western Pacific as well as subsidence and divergence in
589 the eastern Pacific. Those are all realistic features representative of the Walker circulation in na-
590 ture. Note that the present atmosphere has a first baroclinic mode structure, with reconstruction
591 $\bar{u} = \bar{u}(x)\cos(z)$ as well as $\bar{w} = -\partial_x \bar{u}\sin(z)$ (see e.g. Chen and Majda, 2016b). Meanwhile, the
592 equilibrium atmospheric circulation maintains realistic zonal gradients of SST ($\approx 8K$) and ther-
593 mocline depth ($\approx 200m$) in the ocean, which intensities compare reasonably with the ones found
594 in nature (Clarke, 2008). Finally, the intraseasonal and interannual features of the present model
595 version are similar to the ones of the complete TSS-GCM model (Fig. 9-7), and are not shown for
596 brevity.

597 4 Discussion

598 In the present article, a simple dynamical stochastic model for the ENSO, MJO and intraseasonal
599 variability in general as well as the dynamic Walker circulation has been introduced and developed
600 in details. The present model, the so-called 'Tropical Stochastic Skeleton GCM' model (TSS-GCM
601 model) serves as a prototype for General Circulation Models (GCMs) that solve similar dynamical
602 interactions across several spatio-temporal scales but usually show common and systematic biases
603 in representing tropical variability as a whole. The present model formulation builds on previous
604 work by the authors, namely a simple deterministic ocean-atmosphere for the ENSO (Thual et al.,
605 2014; 2016; 2017; Chen and Majda, 2016b; 2017; Chen et al., 2018) in addition to a skeleton model
606 for the MJO and intraseasonal variability in general (Majda and Stechmann, 2009; 2011; Thual
607 et al., 2014). In particular, a simple decomposition of the atmospheric flow in the present TSS-GCM
608 model allows us to represent in simple fashion both the interannual and intraseasonal dynamics
609 as well as their interactions. The most salient features of the ENSO, wind bursts and the MJO
610 are captured altogether including their overall structure, evolution and energy distribution across
611 scales, in addition to their intermittency and diversity as well as their fundamental interactions.
612 The model developed here also should be useful to diagnose, analyze and help eliminate the strong
613 tropical biases which exist in current operational models.

614 Generally speaking, GCMs typically show common and systematic biases in representing the
615 ENSO, MJO and background circulation altogether (Lin et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2009). This is
616 because they solve a vast range of strongly interacting processes on many spatial and temporal
617 scales. The present TSS-GCM model in comparison shows great skill at capturing qualitatively
618 both intraseasonal and interannual processes. This provides theoretical insight on the essential
619 dynamics and interactions of such processes, which is a main goal of the present work. As com-
620 pared to former studies dealing with the ENSO and wind burst activity (Moore and Kleeman,
621 1999; Eisenman et al., 2005; Tziperman and Yu., 2007; Lopez et al., 2013), the present model
622 features wind bursts that are dynamically solved. For instance, there is no arbitrary prescription
623 of wind bursts amplitudes, propagations or abrupt convection thresholds. In addition, for sim-
624 plicity intraseasonal wind bursts are coupled to ocean-atmosphere processes that are otherwise

625 deterministic, linear and dissipated. Wind bursts that trigger El Niño events in the model are
626 preferentially westerly, with however many examples of mixed westerly and easterly wind bursts, a
627 situation commonly encountered for example within the convective envelope of the MJO (Hendon
628 et al., 2007; Majda and Stechmann, 2011; Puy et al., 2016). In addition to this, wind bursts in the
629 model are a necessary but non-sufficient condition to El Niño development, as many wind bursts
630 are not followed by El Niño events, as in nature (Fedorov et al., 2015; Hu et al., 2014). These are
631 attractive features of the present dynamical stochastic model.

632 A more complete model should account for more details of the ocean-atmosphere dynamics
633 relevant to ENSO. For example, the SST budget could include additional processes such as zonal
634 advection that is deemed essential for the dynamics of central Pacific El Niño events (Ashok
635 et al., 2007; Chen and Majda, 2016b; 2017 Chen et al., 2018). In addition to this, the models
636 SST statistics may be rendered more non-Gaussian (i.e. skewed towards rare extreme El Niño
637 events) by modifying the stochastic noise associated with intraseasonal convection to be more
638 multiplicative (Jin et al., 2007; Thual et al., 2016). Meanwhile, a more detailed representation
639 of the intraseasonal wind burst activity should be included in the model. For instance, while the
640 skeleton model atmosphere used in the present appears to be a plausible representation of the MJO
641 essential mechanisms (Majda and Stechmann, 2009; 2011; Thual et al., 2014), due to its minimal
642 design it does not account for some processes that generate wind bursts including tropical cyclones
643 or extratropical cold surges (Harrison and Vecchi, 1997; Vecchi and Harrison, 2000; Kiladis et al.,
644 2009; Chen et al., 2016). A more complete model should also account for more detailed sub-
645 planetary processes within the MJO’s envelope, including for example synoptic-scale convectively
646 coupled waves and/or mesoscale convective systems (Thual and Majda, 2015). This may be achieved
647 for example by building suitable stochastic parameterizations, such as the one proposed in the
648 present article, that account for more details of the synoptic and/or mesoscale variability (e.g.,
649 Khouider et al., 2010; Frenkel et al., 2012; Deng et al., 2014).

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655 **Appendix A: Derivation of the Starting Deterministic Atmo-** 656 **sphere**

657 This section details the derivation of the starting deterministic atmosphere used in the TSS-GCM
658 model from a multiple time approach (Majda and Klein, 2003). A general motivation for this is
659 to derive approximate solutions for slowly varying fluctuations in the atmosphere. For this, we
660 assume the Reynolds hypothesis that such slowly varying fluctuations exists on the interannual
661 time τ , in addition to fastly varying fluctuations on the intraseasonal time t with zero mean on the
662 slow time. Assuming the Reynolds hypothesis, the starting atmosphere from Eq. 1 is decomposed
663 as:

$$\begin{aligned}
a(x, y, t) &= \bar{a}(x, y, \epsilon t) + a'(x, y, \epsilon t, t), \text{ i.e.} \\
a(x, y, \tau, t) &= \bar{a}(x, y, \tau) + a'(x, y, \tau, t)
\end{aligned}
\tag{14}$$

664 and similarly for u, v, θ, q , with the relation between time variables $\tau = \epsilon t$ where ϵ (the Froude
665 number) is an asymptotically small parameter. SSTs however show weak intraseasonal variability
666 in nature, therefore associated latent heat release decomposes as $E_q = \bar{E}_q + \epsilon E'_q$. The Reynolds
667 operator is defined here as:

$$\bar{a}(x, y, \tau) = \frac{1}{\Delta\tau} \int_{\tau+\Delta\tau/2}^{\tau+\Delta\tau/2} a(x, y, \tau, t) dt
\tag{15}$$

668 where $\Delta\tau$ is a characteristic averaging interannual timescale. Note that for $\Delta\tau = \Delta t/\epsilon$, $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$
669 with Δt constant the above Reynolds operator is asymptotically akin to a Reynolds time-mean
670 average as in standard turbulence theory. Such an operator has the well-known properties $\partial_t \bar{a} = 0$,
671 $\bar{a}' = 0$ as well as $\partial_t a = \epsilon \partial_\tau \bar{a} + (\epsilon \partial_\tau + \partial_t) a'$. Next, we further decompose the variables in Eq. 14 into
672 powers of ϵ small, i.e. $a = a_0 + \epsilon a_1 + O(\epsilon^2)$. Combined with the above Reynolds decomposition,

673 this reads:

$$a(x, y, \tau, t) = \bar{a}_0(x, y, \tau) + a'_0(x, y, \tau, t) + \epsilon \bar{a}_1(x, y, \tau, t) + \epsilon a'_1(x, y, \tau, t) + O(\epsilon^2) \quad (16)$$

674 The crucial requirements needed to formally guarantee that the terms $a_0 = \bar{a}_0 + a'_0$ describes
 675 the leading-order behavior in Eq. 16 are the sublinear growth conditions for the next order terms
 676 $a_1 = \bar{a}_1 + a'_1$:

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{a_1(x, y, \tau, \tau/\epsilon)}{|\tau/\epsilon| + 1} \right) = 0. \quad (17)$$

677 In order to obtain the interannual atmosphere, we decompose the starting atmosphere from 1
 678 according to Eq. 16 and retain the leading order dynamics (of order $O(1)$). This reads:

$$\begin{aligned} -y\bar{v}_0 - \partial_x \bar{\theta}_0 &= 0 \\ y\bar{u}_0 - \partial_y \bar{\theta}_0 &= 0 \\ -(\partial_x(\bar{u} + \partial_y \bar{v}_m) &= \bar{H}\bar{a}_0 - s^\theta \\ \bar{Q}(\partial_x \bar{u}_m + \partial_y \bar{v}_m) &= -\bar{H}\bar{a}_0 + s^q + \bar{E}_{q0} \\ 0 &= \bar{q}_0 \bar{a}_0 + \bar{q}'_0 \bar{a}'_0 \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

679 where a simple closure $\overline{q'_0 a'_0} \propto \bar{q}_0$ is considered for the upscale contribution, leading to $\bar{q}_0 = 0$. With
 680 this simple closure, we retrieve the interannual atmosphere from Eq. 3 in the main text. Finally,
 681 the intraseasonal atmosphere from Eq. 2 is obtained by subtracting Eq. 3 from Eq. 1, and the
 682 subscript notation a_0 is dropped for brevity.

683 Appendix B: Technical Details

684 We provide here some additional technical details on the TSS-GCM model formulation and numeri-
 685 cal solving algorithm. As regards the atmosphere and ocean domains, the atmosphere extends over
 686 the entire equatorial belt $0 \leq x \leq L_A$ with periodic boundary conditions $u(0, y, t) = u(L_A, y, t)$,
 687 etc, while the Pacific ocean extends from $0 \leq x \leq L_O$ with reflection boundary conditions
 688 $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} U(0, y, t) dy = 0$ and $U(L_O, y, t) = 0$. The meridional axis y and Y are different in the

689 atmosphere and ocean as they each scale to a suitable Rossby radius, which allows for a sys-
690 tematic meridional decomposition of the system into the well-known parabolic cylinder functions
691 (Majda, 2003). In practice, we retain and solve only the components of the first atmosphere and
692 ocean parabolic cylinder functions, which keeps the system low-dimensional (see Supplementary
693 Information of Thual et al., 2016). The dimensional reference scales are x : 15000 km, y : 1500km,
694 Y : 330km, t : 3.3 days, u : $5 m.s^{-1}$, θ , q : 1.5 K (see Thual et al., 2016). Table 2 defines all
695 parameter used in the model and provides their non-dimensional values. All parameter values
696 are identical to the ones of Thual et al. (2016), except for additional parameters of the intrasea-
697 sonal atmosphere: s^q and s^θ (see Fig. 2), $\Gamma = 1.66$ ($\approx 0.3 K^{-1}day^{-1}$ as in Thual et al., 2014),
698 $d_u, d_\theta, d_q, d_a, \lambda = (30 day)^{-1}$ as well as $\sigma_q = 0.4$. In addition, the zonal profile of the thermocline
699 feedback parameter $\eta(x)$ is shown in Fig. 2(c).

700 As regards the numerical solving algorithm, we use a simple split method to update the TSS-
701 GCM model. The spatial resolution is 625 km and the temporal resolution is 0.8 hr. The interan-
702 nual atmosphere and ocean are solved in fashion identical to Thual et al. (2016) using the method
703 of lines in space and Euler in time, while the intraseasonal atmosphere is solved in Fourier space
704 in fashion similar to Thual et al. (2014). Numerical solutions span around 2000 years for each
705 experiment presented in the present article, with a statistical equilibrium quickly reached after
706 around ten years starting from arbitrary initial conditions. It takes around 3 hours to compute
707 2000 years of simulation on a personal desktop, which is computationally very uncostly.

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863 **Table Captions:**

864 **Table 1:** Summary of model versions, their main features and comparison to GCMs.

865

866 **Table 2:** Model parameter definitions and nondimensional values.

Model	Crude Interannual	Crude Intraseasonal	TSS-GCM model	TSS-GCM model (Walker Circulation)	Conventional GCMs
Section	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.4	X
Complexity	Simple	Simple	Intermediate	Intermediate	Full Complexity
Formulation	Eq. 8, 9, 5-7 perturbed \bar{a} and $u', v', q', \theta', a' = 0$	Eq. 11, 3, 5-7 $(\partial_t + d_a)a' = \Gamma q' \bar{a}$	Eq. 12, 3, 5-7 reference model	Eq. 12, 3, 5-7 unbalanced sources $s^\theta \neq s^q$	X
Stochastic noise	multiplicative	additive	multiplicative	multiplicative	X
Parameters	ENSO	dissipations $d_u, d_q, d_a, \lambda = (30 \text{ day})^{-1}$, noise amplitude $\sigma_q = 0.4$			X
Recovered Features	ENSO	ENSO, some MJOs	ENSO, MJO	ENSO, MJO, Walker Circulation	all of them but with common biases
Strengths	prototype for simple models with stochastic wind bursts	simplified intraseasonal dynamics	realistic convection and wind bursts, $a' + \bar{a} > 0$,	realistic convection and wind bursts, $a' + \bar{a} > 0$,	Full complexity of the ocean and atmosphere
Weaknesses	Gaussian SSTs, no intraseasonal variability	Gaussian SSTs, no convective details, excessive westward propagations	Gaussian SSTs	Gaussian SSTs	Gaussian SSTs weak/absent MJO computationally costly

Table 1: Summary of model versions, their main features and comparison to GCMs.

Parameter	nondimensional value
c ratio of ocean/atmosphere phase speed	0.05
ϵ Froude number	0.1
$c_1 = c/\epsilon$	0.5
L_A equatorial belt length	8/3
L_O equatorial Pacific length	1.2
\bar{H} convective heating rate factor	22
\bar{Q} mean vertical moisture gradient	0.9
Γ convective growth/decay rate	1.66
α_q latent heating factor	0.2
γ wind stress coefficient	6.53
ζ latent heating exchange coefficient	8.7
η profile of thermocline feedback	$\eta(x) = 1.5 + (0.5 \tanh(7.5(x - L_O/2)))$
$d_a, d_q, d_\theta, \lambda$ atmosphere dissipations	0.11
σ_q moisture noise amplitude	0.4
s^q external moistening source	$s^q = 2.2(1 + 0.6\cos(2\pi x/L_A))$
s^θ external cooling source	$s^\theta = s^q$ except Walker circulation: $s^\theta = 2.2(1 + 0.6\cos(2\pi x/L_A - 0.1))$

Table 2: Model parameter definitions and nondimensional values.

868 **Figure Captions:**

869

870 **Figure 1:** (a) Sketch of the couplings between the intraseasonal atmosphere, interannual
871 atmosphere, ocean and SST as well as convective noise in the TSS-GCM model. (b-c) Sketch of
872 the couplings in the (b) crude interannual and (c) crude intraseasonal model versions.

873 **Figure 2:** Zonal profiles of external moisture source s^q (black, $K.day^{-1}$) and cooling source
874 s^θ (red, $K.day^{-1}$) for (a) the TSS-GCM model, and (b) the TSS-GCM model with dynamic Walker
875 circulation (in addition to $s^m = (s^q - \bar{Q}s^\theta)/(1 - \bar{Q})$ in blue), around the equatorial belt as a
876 function of zonal position x (1000 km). (c) Zonal profile of the thermocline feedback parameter
877 $\eta(x)$ in the equatorial Pacific (nondimensional). (d) Equilibrium Gamma probability distribution
878 for convective activity (nondimensional).

879 **Figure 3:** Solutions of the crude interannual model. Timeseries of (a) T_E the average of SSTs
880 in the eastern half of Pacific (K) and of (b) interannual convective activity $\bar{H}\bar{a}$ ($K.day^{-1}$) at the
881 western edge of the Pacific ($x = 0$). The red line in (b) is a 1-year moving average. (c-d) repeats
882 the timeseries over a shorter period. (e-f): Hovmollers of interannual (e) zonal winds \bar{u} ($m.s^{-1}$),
883 (f) thermocline depth H (m) and (g) SST T (K) at the equator, as a function of zonal position
884 and time (years).

885 **Figure 4:** Solutions of the crude intraseasonal model. Zonal wavenumber-frequency power
886 spectra: for intraseasonal (a) zonal winds u' ($m.s^{-1}$), (b) convective activity $\bar{H}a'$ ($K.day^{-1}$), (d)
887 potential temperature θ' (K) and (e) moisture q' (K) and taken at the equator, as a function of
888 wavenumber ($2\pi/40000km$) and frequency (cpd). The contour levels are in the base-10 logarithm
889 for the dimensional variables taken at the equator. The dots indicate the dispersion relations of
890 the linearized intraseasonal atmosphere. (c) Power spectrum of u'_W the average of u' in the western
891 half of the equatorial Pacific (blue, $m.s^{-1}$) and of (f) T_E the average of T in the eastern half (blue,
892 K), in addition to their smoothed versions (red). The dashed line indicate the periods 30 and 90
893 days in all subplots.

894 **Figure 5:** Solutions of the crude intraseasonal model. Hovmollers of (a) the MJO data pro-
895 jection e_{MJO} , intraseasonal (b) zonal winds u' ($m.s^{-1}$), (c) potential temperature θ' (K) and (d)

896 moisture q' (K), as well as (e) interannual zonal winds \bar{u} ($m.s^{-1}$), (f) thermocline depth H (m)
897 and (g) SST T (K) at the equator, as a function of zonal position x (1000 km) and time (years).
898 Red line indicates the western Pacific edge at $x = 0$. The hovmollers in (a-e) extend from -10 000
899 to 18 000 km (Indian and Pacific oceans) while the hovmollers in (f-h) extend from 0 to 18 000
900 km (Pacific ocean only).

901 **Figure 6:** Solutions of the complete TSS-GCM model. Hovmollers of (a) the MJO data
902 projection e_{MJO} (nondimensional), (b) intraseasonal zonal winds u' ($m.s^{-1}$), (c) total zonal winds
903 $\bar{u} + u'$ ($m.s^{-1}$), (d) total convective activity $\bar{H}(\bar{a} + a')$ ($K.day^{-1}$ with values above $1 K.day^{-1}$
904 not contoured), as well as (e) interannual convective activity $\bar{H}\bar{a}$ ($K.day^{-1}$), (f) interannual zonal
905 winds \bar{u} ($m.s^{-1}$), (f) thermocline depth H (m) and (g) SST T (K), at the equator, as a function of
906 zonal position x (1000 km) and time (years). Red line indicates the western Pacific edge at $x = 0$.
907 The hovmollers in (a-e) extend from -10 000 to 18 000 km (Indian and Pacific oceans) while the
908 hovmollers in (f-h) extend from 0 to 18 000 km (Pacific ocean only).

909 **Figure 7:** Solutions of the complete TSS-GCM model. Timeseries of (a) T_E the average of SSTs
910 in the eastern half of Pacific (K). (b) repeats the timeserie over a shorter period. (c-g): Hovmollers
911 of (c) a 1-year running mean of $|e_{MJO}|$ the magnitude of the MJO data projection e_{MJO} , (d)
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913 H (m) and (g) SST T (K) at the equator, as a function of zonal position and time (years).

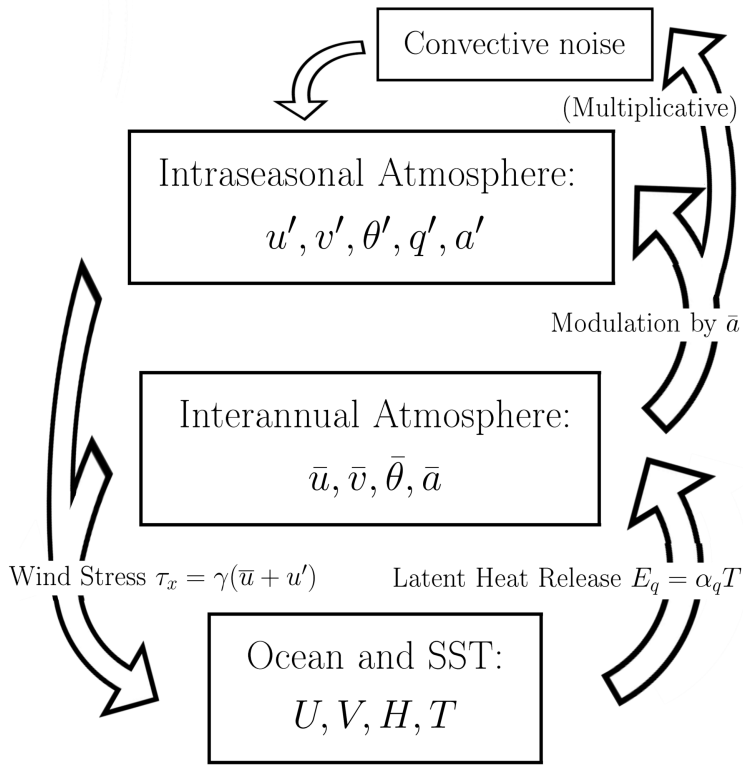
914 **Figure 8:** Solutions of the complete TSS-GCM model. Lagged regressions on T_E the average
915 of SST in the eastern half of Pacific of (a) the MJO data projection e_{MJO} and (b) its magnitude
916 $|e_{MJO}|$ (K^{-1}), (c) intraseasonal winds u' and (d) their magnitude $|u'|$ ($m.s^{-1}/K$), (e) interannual
917 winds \bar{u} ($m.s^{-1}/K$), (f) thermocline depth H (m/K) and (g) SST T (K/K), as a function of
918 zonal position x (1000 km) and lag (years, positive for T_E leading). Red line indicates the western
919 Pacific edge at $x = 0$.

920 **Figure 9:** Solutions of the complete TSS-GCM model. Zonal wavenumber-frequency power
921 spectra: for intraseasonal (a) zonal winds u' ($m.s^{-1}$), (b) convective activity a' ($K.day^{-1}$), (e)
922 potential temperature θ' (K) and (f) moisture q' (K) at the equator, as a function of wavenumber
923 ($2\pi/40000km$) and frequency (cpd). The contour levels are in the base-10 logarithm for the dimen-

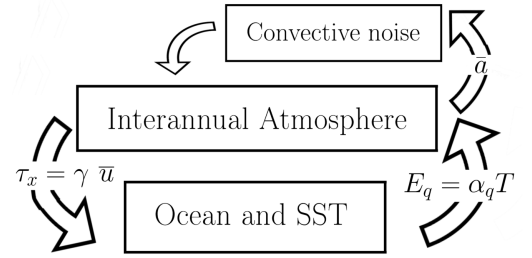
924 sional variables taken at the equator. The dots indicate the dispersion relations of the linearized
925 intraseasonal atmosphere. (c,g) Power spectrum of (c) u'_W the average of u' in the western half of
926 the equatorial Pacific ($m.s^{-1}$) and (g) of T_E the average of T in the eastern half (K). The dashed
927 black lines indicate the periods 30 and 90 days in all subplots. (d) Probability density function of
928 total convective activity $\overline{H}(\overline{a} + a')$ at the warm pool center/western Pacific edge $x = 0$ ($K.day^{-1}$).
929 Red dashed line in (d) indicates the corresponding equilibrium Gamma distribution from Eq. 10
930 for $E_q = 0$. (h) Probability density function of T_E (K). Red dashed line in (h) is a Gaussian fit.

931 **Figure 10:** Solutions of the TSS-GCM model with dynamic Walker circulation. (a) Contours
932 of time-averaged interannual convective activity $\overline{H}\overline{a}$ ($K.day^{-1}$)e, as a function of zonal position
933 (1000km) and height (km) in the equatorial Pacific. Arrows indicate time-averaged interannual
934 zonal and vertical wind speed. (b-d). Zonal profiles of time-averaged (b) interannual zonal winds \overline{u}
935 ($m.s^{-1}$), (c) thermocline depth H (m) and (d) SST T (K) at the equator.

(a) Complete TSS-GCM Model



(b) Crude Interannual Model



(c) Crude Intraseasonal Model

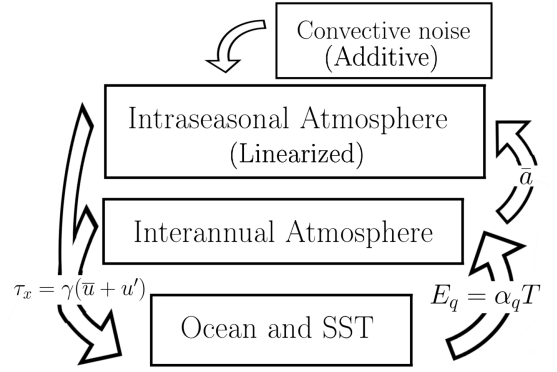


Figure 1: (a) Sketch of the couplings between the intraseasonal atmosphere, interannual atmosphere, ocean and SST as well as convective noise in the TSS-GCM model. (b-c) Sketch of the couplings in the (b) crude interannual and (c) crude intraseasonal model versions.

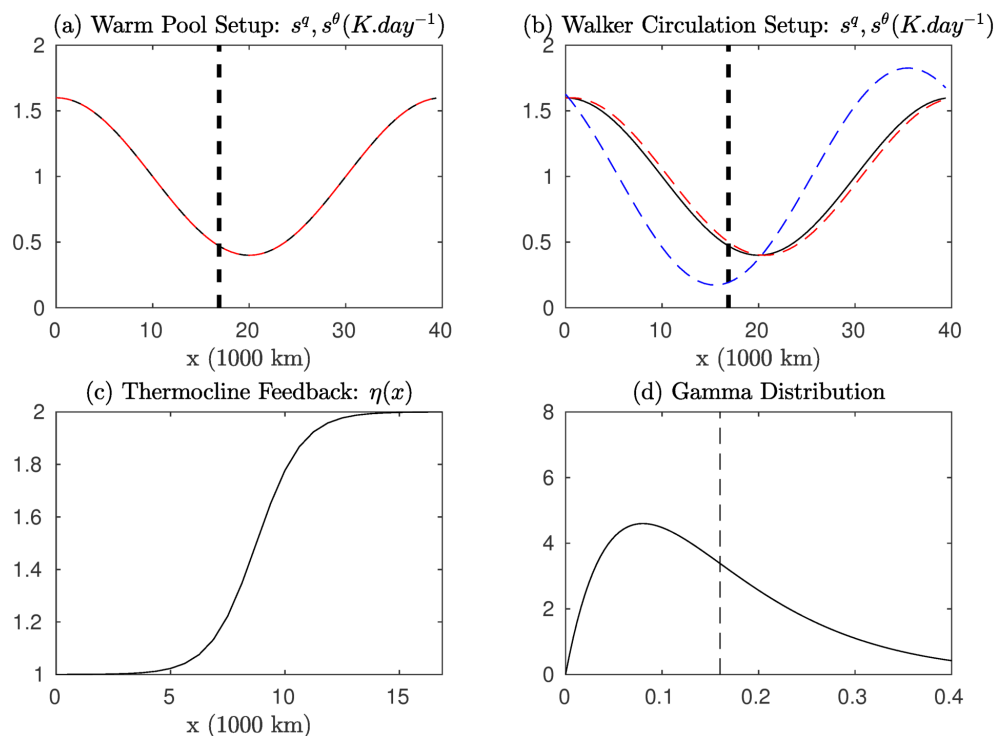


Figure 2: Zonal profiles of external moisture source s^q (black, $K.day^{-1}$) and cooling source s^θ (red, $K.day^{-1}$) for (a) the TSS-GCM model, and (b) the TSS-GCM model with dynamic Walker circulation (in addition to $s^m = (s^q - \overline{Q}s^\theta)/(1 - \overline{Q})$ in blue), around the equatorial belt as a function of zonal position x (1000 km). (c) Zonal profile of the thermocline feedback parameter $\eta(x)$ in the equatorial Pacific (nondimensional). (d) Equilibrium Gamma probability distribution for convective activity (nondimensional).

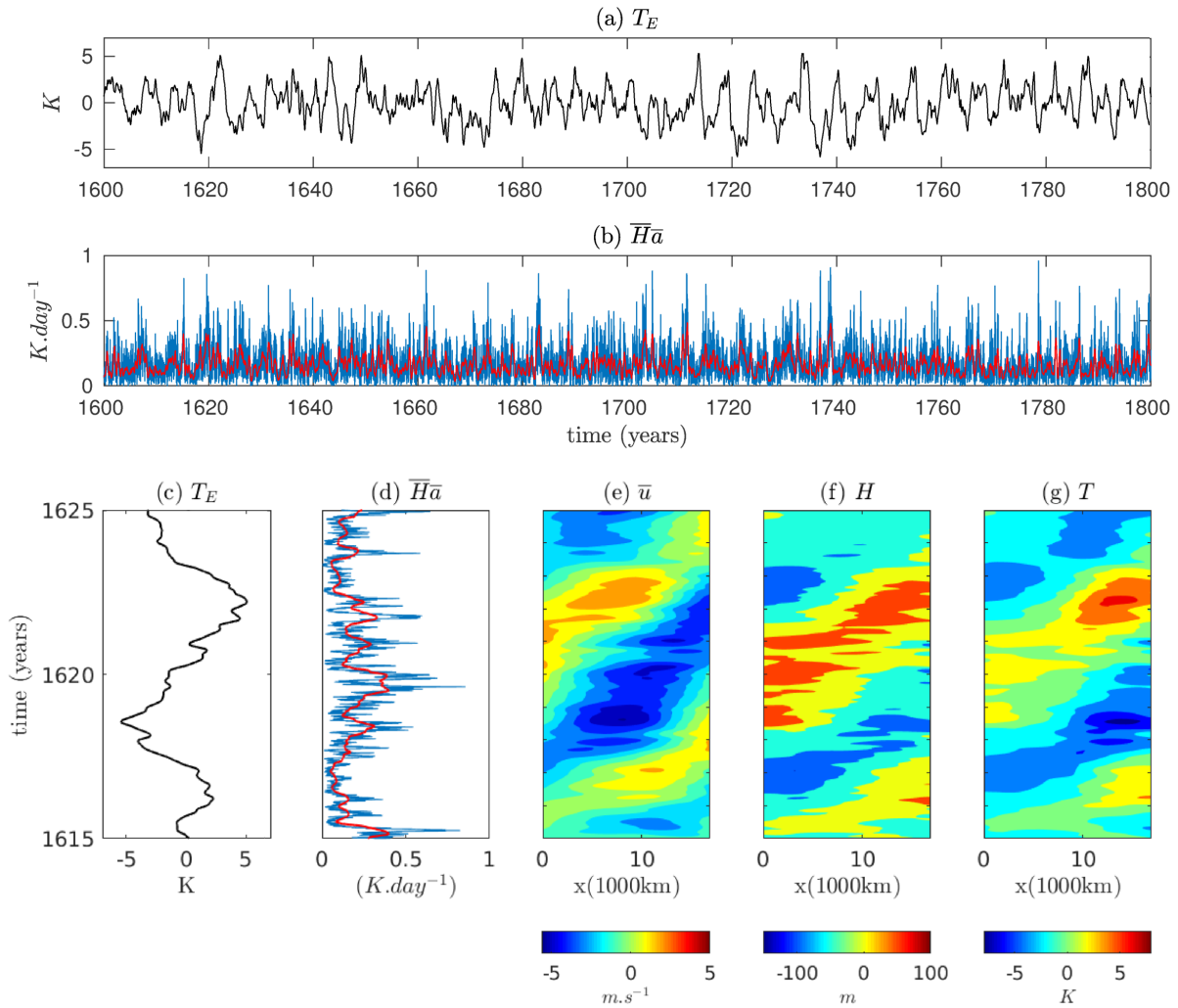


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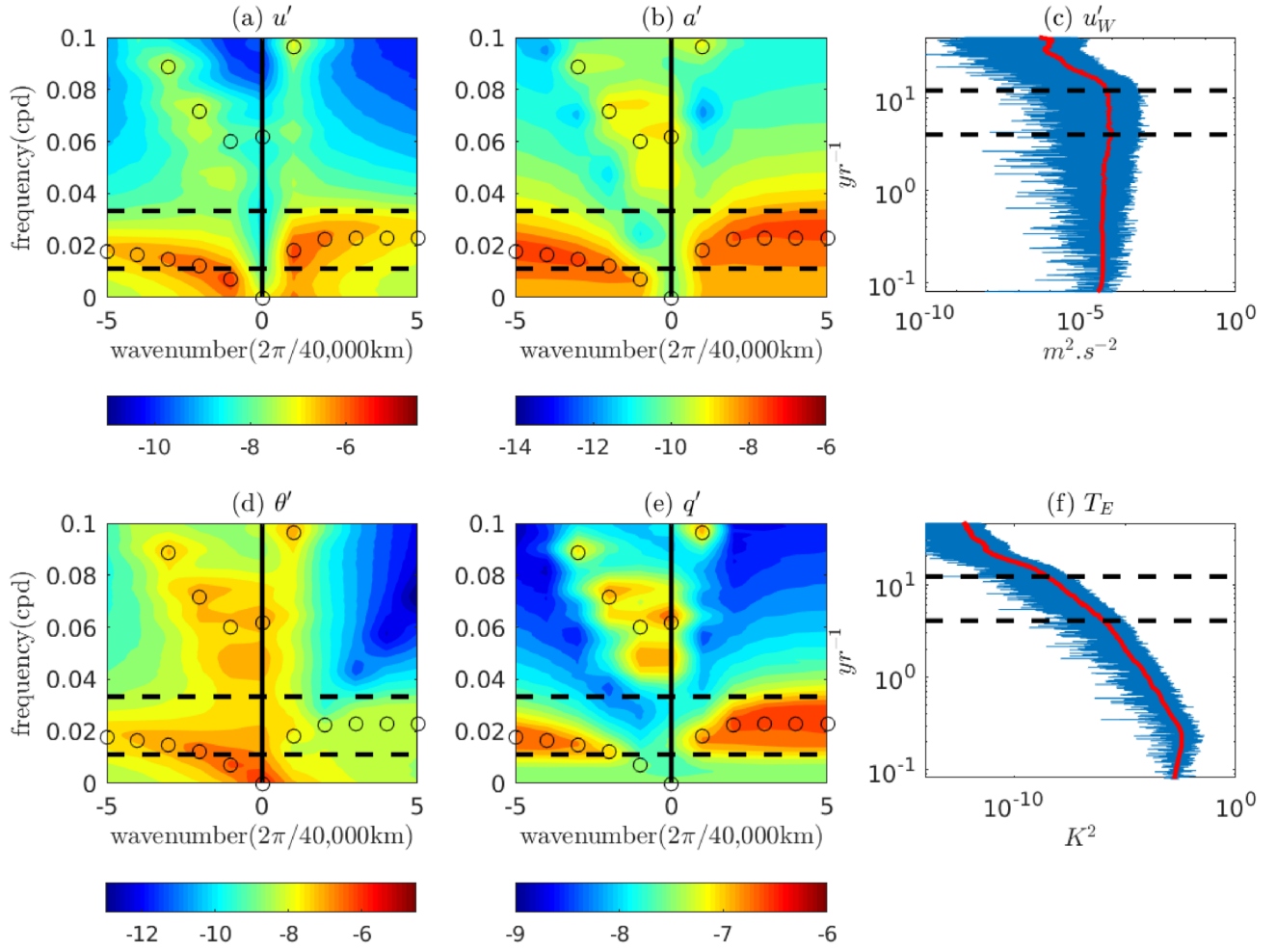


Figure 4: Solutions of the crude intraseasonal model. Zonal wavenumber-frequency power spectra: for intraseasonal (a) zonal winds u' ($m.s^{-1}$), (b) convective activity $\overline{H}a'$ ($K.day^{-1}$), (d) potential temperature θ' (K) and (e) moisture q' (K) and taken at the equator, as a function of wavenumber ($2\pi/40000$ km) and frequency (cpd). The contour levels are in the base-10 logarithm for the dimensional variables taken at the equator. The dots indicate the dispersion relations of the linearized intraseasonal atmosphere. (c) Power spectrum of u'_W the average of u' in the western half of the equatorial Pacific (blue, $m.s^{-1}$) and of (f) T_E the average of T in the eastern half (blue, K), in addition to their smoothed versions (red). The dashed line indicate the periods 30 and 90 days in all subplots.

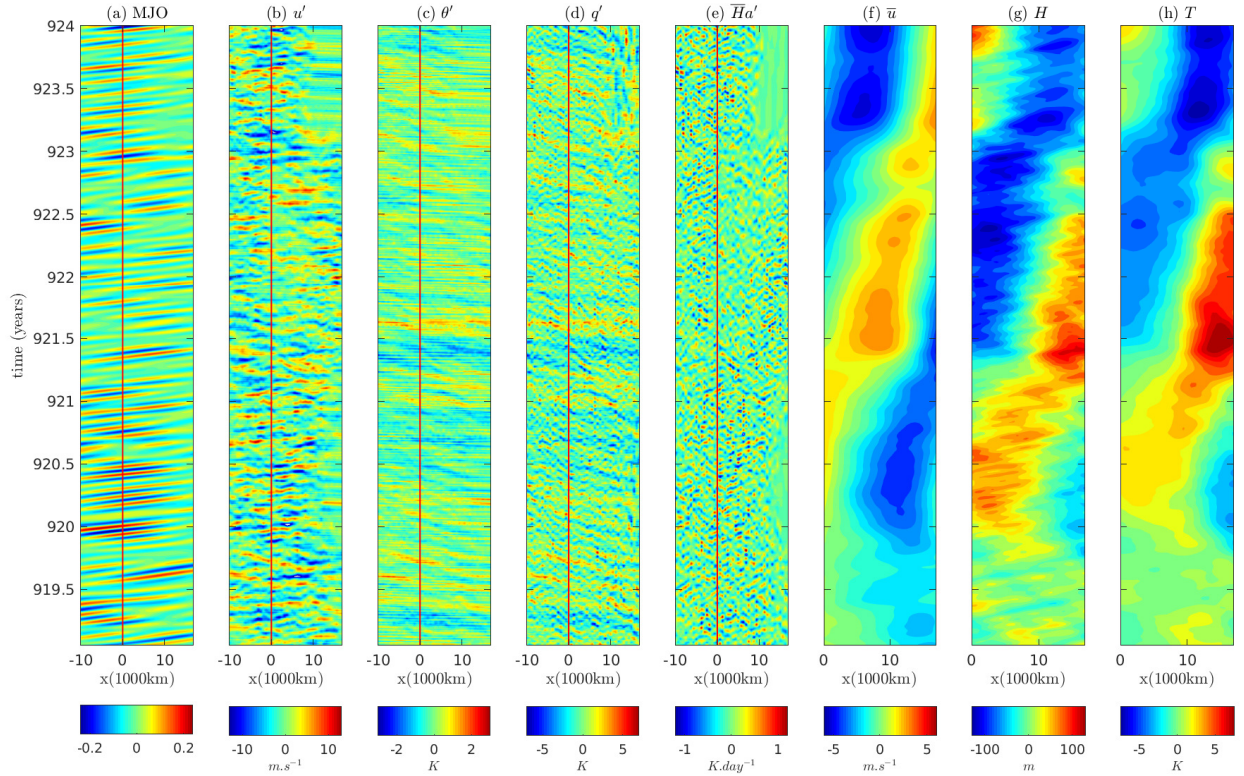


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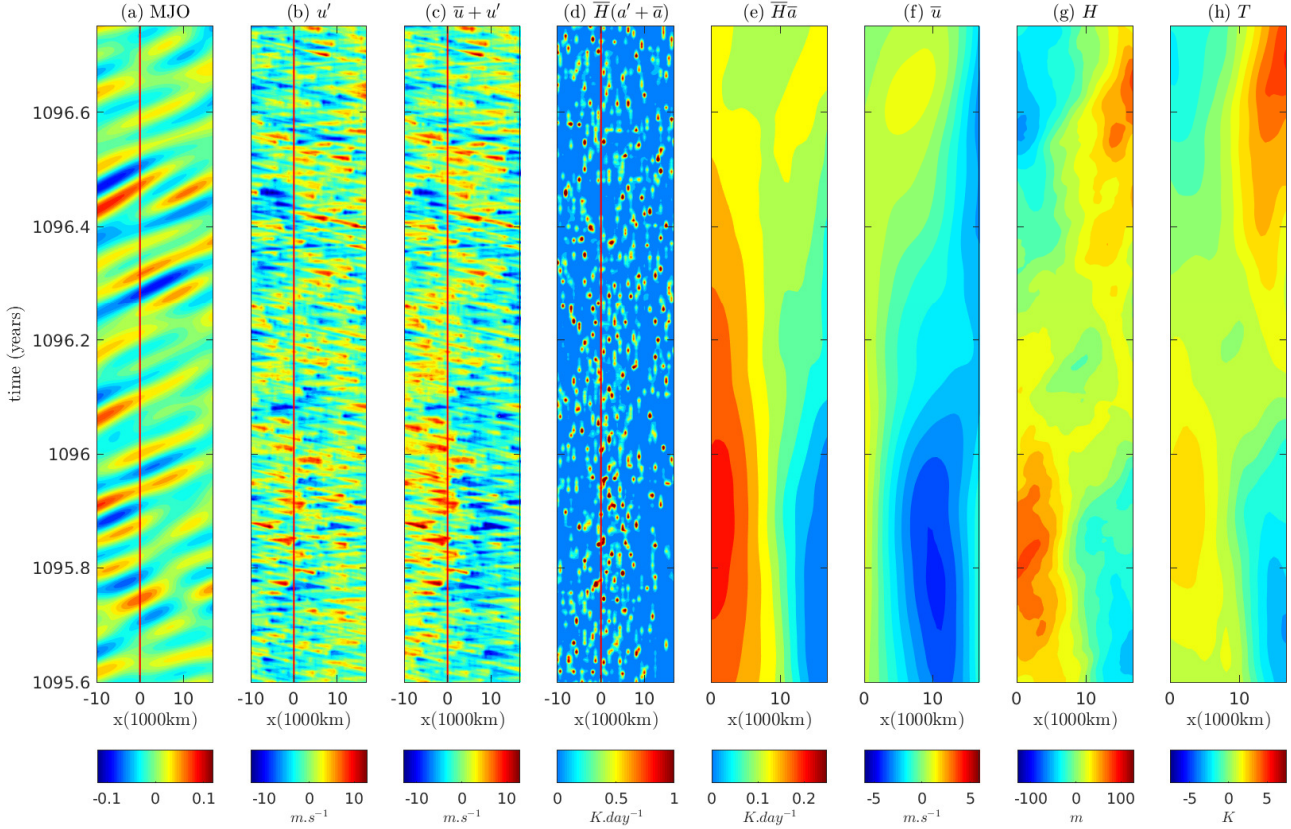


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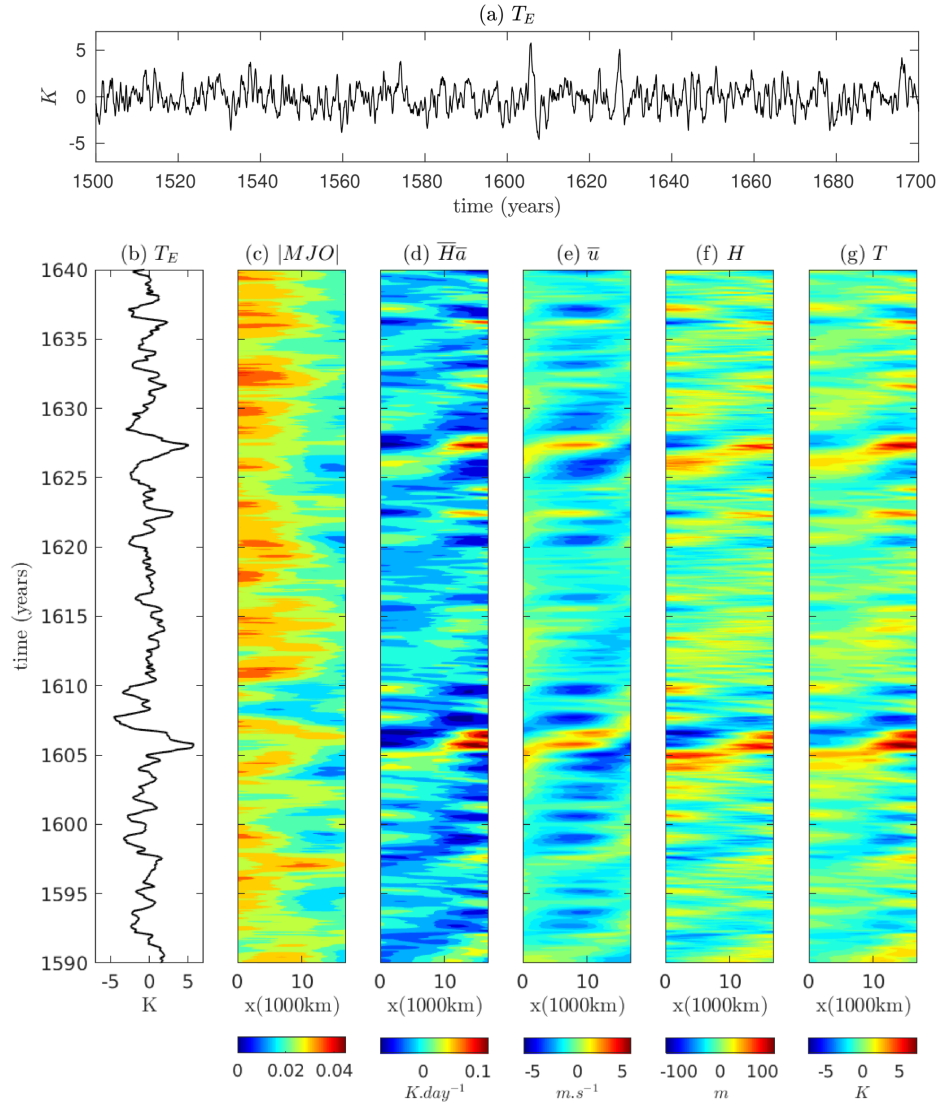


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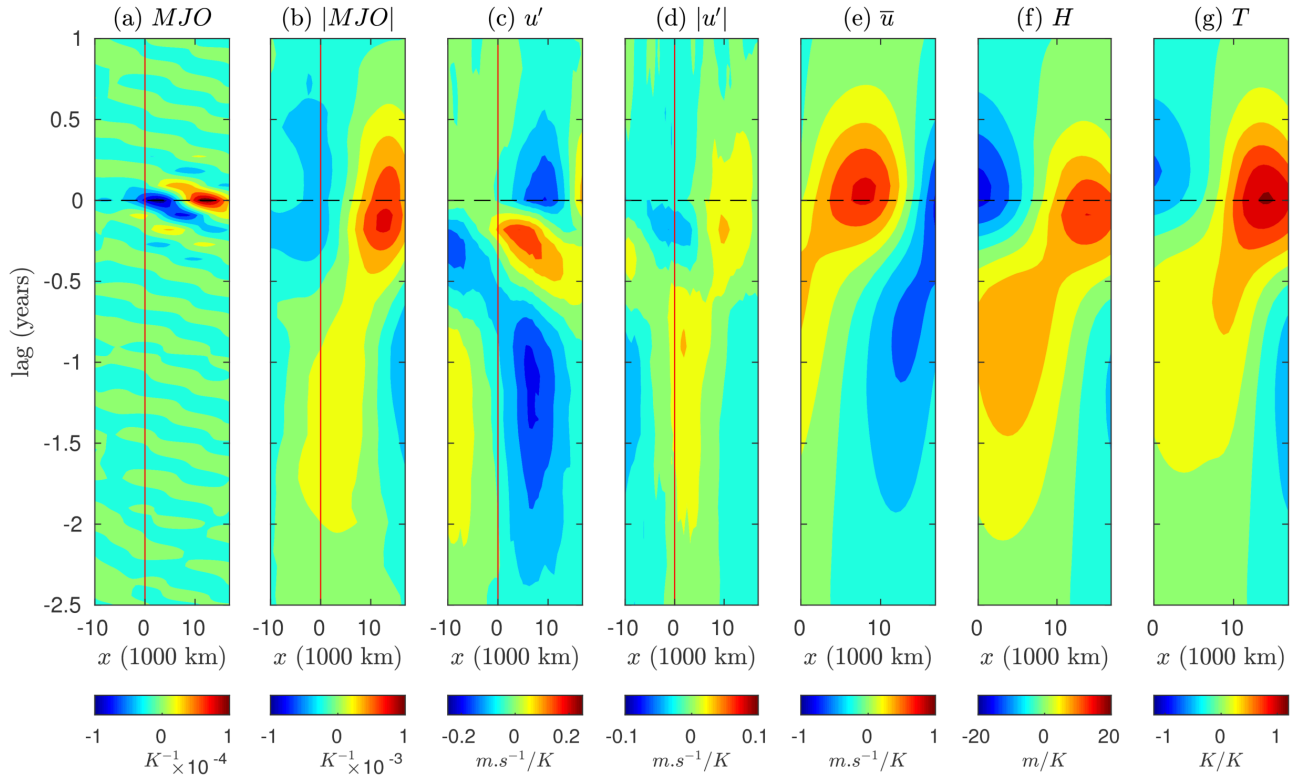


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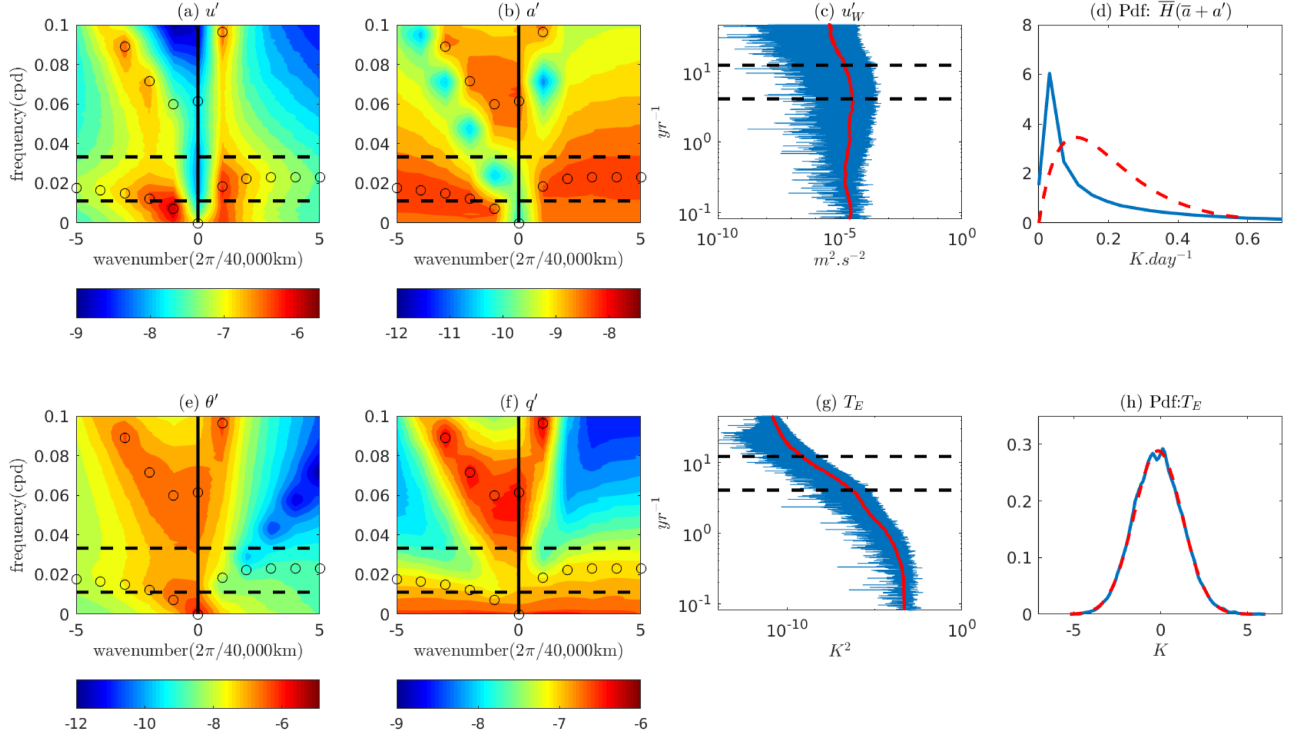


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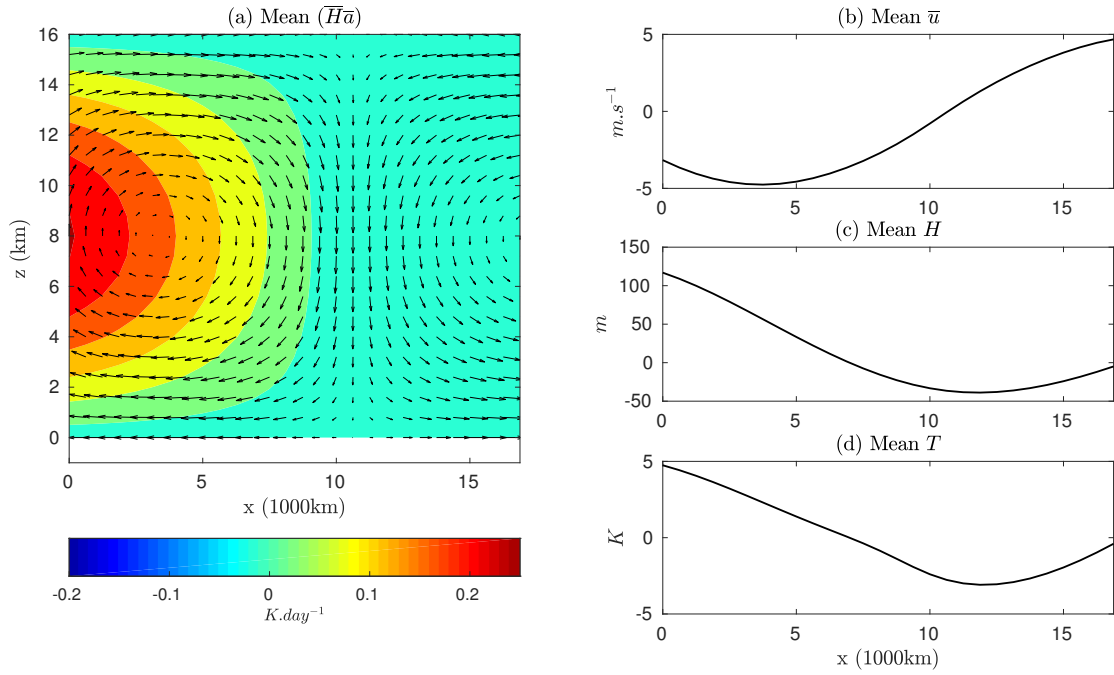


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