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2 **Midlatitude Oceanic Fronts Strengthen the Moisture Transport from Anticyclones to**
3 **Cyclones**

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5 **S. Okajima¹, H. Nakamura¹, and T. Spengler²**

6
7 ¹Research Center for Advanced Science and Technology, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo,
8 Japan

9 ²Geophysical Institute, University of Bergen, and Bjerknes Centre for Climate Research, Bergen,
10 Norway

11
12 Corresponding author: Satoru Okajima (okajima@atmos.rcast.u-tokyo.ac.jp)

13
14 **Key Points:**

- 15
- 16 • Cyclonic and anticyclonic contributions to air-sea heat and moisture exchange are
quantified around midlatitude oceanic frontal zones
 - 17 • Oceanic frontal zones primarily enhance surface turbulent heat fluxes within anticyclones
18 and precipitation within cyclones, respectively
 - 19 • Midlatitude oceanic frontal zones strengthen the net moisture transport from anticyclones
20 to cyclones
- 21

22 **Abstract**

23 The Kuroshio-Oyashio Extension and Gulf Stream oceanic frontal zones with sharp sea-surface
24 temperature gradients are characterized by enhanced activity of synoptic-scale cyclones and
25 anticyclones and vigorous air-sea exchange of heat and moisture in the cold season. However,
26 the air-sea exchanges attributed separately to cyclones and anticyclones have not been assessed.
27 Here we quantify cyclonic and anticyclonic contributions around the oceanic frontal zones to
28 surface turbulent heat fluxes, precipitation, and the associated hydrological cycle. The evaluation
29 reveals that precipitation exceeds evaporation climatologically within cyclonic domains while
30 evaporation dominates within anticyclonic domains. These features as well as the net moisture
31 transport from anticyclonic to cyclonic domains are all enhanced in the presence of the frontal
32 zones. Oceanic frontal zones thus climatologically act to strengthen the hydrological cycle
33 through increasing low-level storm-track activity and specific humidity. These findings aid our
34 understanding of the relationship between midlatitude air-sea interactions on synoptic- and
35 longer-time scales.

36

37 **Plain Language Summary**

38 Two regions with pronounced sea surface temperature gradients over the North Pacific and
39 North Atlantic are known as major oceanic frontal zones that are important for air-sea
40 interactions with vigorous heat and moisture release from the ocean to the atmosphere. Recent
41 studies found that high-frequency variations, such as migratory cyclones and anticyclones, are
42 essential for the air-sea interaction over these frontal zones. However, the relative importance of
43 cyclones and anticyclones has not been quantified. We show that anticyclonic contributions are
44 important for the enhanced heat and moisture supply from the ocean in response to realistic
45 oceanic frontal zones, while cyclonic contributions are crucial for the changes in rainfall. We
46 further demonstrate that the moisture transport from anticyclones to cyclones is strengthened
47 climatologically with the sharpness of midlatitude oceanic frontal zones. Our findings indicate
48 that synoptic-scale migratory cyclones and anticyclones play an important role in midlatitude air-
49 sea interactions. These results bridge the gap between our understanding of midlatitude air-sea
50 interactions from day-to-day to longer-time scales.

51 **1 Introduction**

52 Midlatitude oceanic frontal zones that form along confluent warm and cool ocean
53 currents with sharp meridional gradients in sea surface temperature (SST) are characterized by
54 vigorous heat and moisture release from the ocean that can mainly be attributed to synoptic time
55 scales (e.g., Ogawa and Spengler, 2019). In particular, the Kuroshio–Oyashio Extension (KOE)
56 and Gulf Stream (GS) frontal zones are well known for their prominent heat release and restoring
57 effect on near-surface baroclinicity (Tanimoto, 2003; Small et al., 2008; Nonaka et al., 2009;
58 Kwon et al., 2010; Kelly et al., 2010; Papritz and Spengler, 2015; Czaja et al., 2019). Thereby,
59 these frontal zones influence the climatological-mean surface wind convergence, precipitation,
60 storm-tracks, atmospheric fronts, and westerly jets (e.g., Chelton et al., 2004; Nakamura et al.,
61 2004, 2008; Minobe et al., 2008; Woollings et al., 2010; Parfitt et al., 2016; Ma et al., 2017;
62 O’Neill et al., 2017; Masunaga et al., 2018, 2020a, 2020b; Reeder et al., 2021). They also have
63 the potential to force basin-scale atmospheric anomalies and variabilities on interannual to
64 decadal timescales (Taguchi et al., 2012; Okajima et al., 2014, 2018; Smirnov et al., 2015;
65 O’Reilly and Czaja, 2015; O’Reilly et al., 2017). Recently, there has been mounting evidence
66 that heat and moisture supplied in the midlatitudes are important for blocking events (Woollings,
67 2011; O’Reilly et al., 2016; Yamamoto et al., 2021) and intense warm moist intrusions into the
68 Arctic (Woods et al., 2013; Papritz et al., 2021) that contribute to the pronounced warming trend
69 over the Arctic (Woods and Cabarelo, 2016; Gong et al., 2017; Messori et al., 2018).
70 Nevertheless, the processes related to the vigorous supply of heat and moisture over the oceanic
71 frontal zones as well as the transport and variability of the supplied heat and moisture on
72 synoptic and longer time scales are not well understood.

73 Ogawa and Spengler (2019) highlighted the importance of wind variations on synoptic
74 time scales in air-sea heat exchange over oceanic frontal zones. With a set of atmospheric
75 general circulation model (AGCM) experiments, Kuwano-Yoshida and Minobe (2017)
76 demonstrated that the KOE fronts act to enhance the intensification rate of migratory cyclones
77 over the western North Pacific (NP), leading to a meandering jet over the eastern NP. To
78 pinpoint the synoptic-scale processes relevant to the frontal air-sea interactions, Tsopouridis et al.
79 (2021; hereafter TSS21) evaluated the surface flux contribution within extratropical cyclones to
80 surface fluxes and assessed the impact of oceanic fronts over the NP and North Atlantic (NA).
81 They found that extratropical cyclones are mainly important for a response in precipitation and
82 only play a secondary role in modulating a response in surface turbulent heat fluxes (THF).

83 However, as the attribution of atmospheric fields to extratropical cyclones by TSS21 is
84 based on a fixed-size circular mask centered on the position of a surface cyclone, their analysis
85 does neither represent the actual size of different cyclones nor capture their three-dimensional
86 structure. Furthermore, TSS21 did not assess the potential contribution of anticyclones. Hence,
87 we still lack insight into the relative contributions of cyclones and anticyclones, which limits our
88 understanding of midlatitude air-sea interactions around oceanic frontal zones.

89 Recently, Okajima et al. (2021; hereafter ONK21) proposed a method to quantify
90 contributions from cyclonic and anticyclonic domains to Eulerian statistics, demonstrating that
91 instantaneous local curvature can be used to distinguish low-level migratory cyclones and
92 anticyclones as well as upper-level pressure troughs and ridges. We apply the ONK21
93 methodology to a set of AGCM experiments with observed climatological-mean and artificially
94 smoothed SST fields to quantify the cyclonic and anticyclonic contributions to THF and
95 precipitation along the two major oceanic frontal zones over the NP and NA. Our results provide

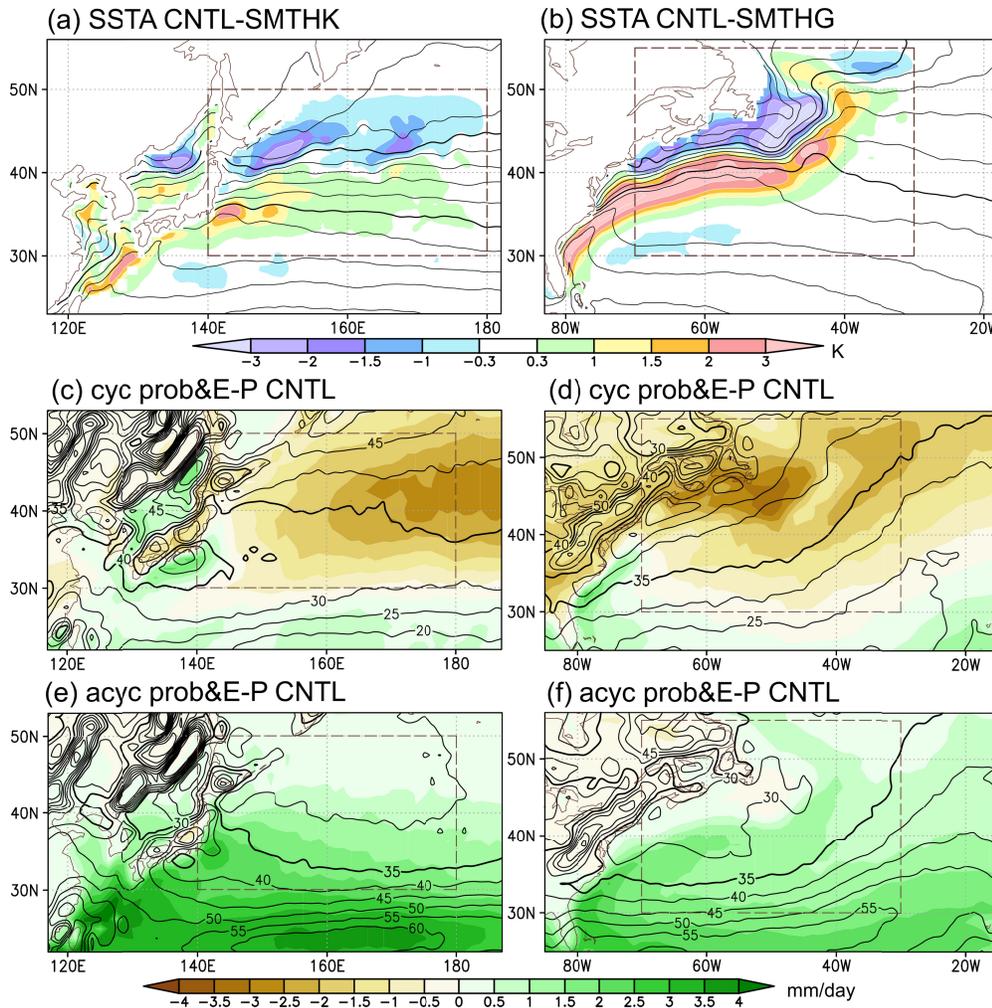
96 insights into the hydrological cycle along the SST front as well as into the moisture exchange
97 between cyclones and anticyclones.

98

99 **2 Data and Methods**

100 2.1 AGCM experiments

101 We analyze the same 6-hourly outputs of the AGCM experiments as analyzed by TSS21.
102 The AGCM is the version 3 of the AGCM for the Earth Simulator (AFES; Ohfuchi et al., 2004;
103 Enomoto et al., 2008; Kuwano-Yoshida et al., 2010). The data period spans from 1 September
104 1981 to 31 August 2001 with a horizontal resolution of $\sim 0.5^\circ$ (T239) and 48 vertical levels. In
105 the control experiment (CNTL), the climatological-mean SST derived from the 0.25° daily
106 OISST (Reynolds et al., 2007) was prescribed. In the SMTHK and SMTHG experiments, the
107 prescribed SST fields have been horizontally smoothed over the western NP and NA,
108 respectively. Responses to the realistic KOE and GS fronts can be evaluated as the difference
109 between the corresponding smoothed experiments and CNTL (i.e., CNTL–SMTHK and
110 CNTL–SMTHG, respectively). Figures 1a-b show the differences in SST prescribed to CNTL
111 compared to SMTHK and SMTHG, respectively.



112

113 **Figure 1.** a-b Mean and its differences in SST (shading in K) from (a) SMTHK and (b) SMTHG
 114 wintertime SST prescribed for CNTL (contour every 2K, thick for every 10K). Climatological
 115 cyclonic contribution to E-P (shading in mm/day) in CNTL over the (c) NP and (d) NA and
 116 climatological probability of cyclonic domains (contours every 5%, thick for 35%). e-f Same as
 117 in c-d, respectively, but for the anticyclonic contributions and probabilities. Dashed boxes
 118 signify the domains in which the area-averaged contributions are calculated separately for the NP
 119 and NA.

120 We focus on wintertime (DJF) mean responses following TSS21. Statistical significance
 121 is assessed by a Student's t -test. In section 3.3, we calculate area-averaged THF, precipitation,
 122 and E-P within the oceanic frontal zones over the NP [140°E–180°, 30°–50°N] and the NA
 123 [70°–30°W, 30°–55°N] to focus on regions of active synoptic-scale eddies, using the data only at
 124 grid points over the ocean. Hereafter, a positive value of THF indicates an upward flux.

125

126 2.2 Separating contributions from cyclonic and anticyclonic domains

127 We determine cyclonic and anticyclonic domains by evaluating the two-dimensional
 128 curvature of the horizontal wind (see ONK21). We calculate the climatological contribution of a

129 given variable by accumulating its instantaneous values within cyclonic or anticyclonic domains,
130 normalized by the total number of times steps, to yield additive climatological contributions. For
131 evaporation (E), we use surface latent heat fluxes and assume a latent heat of vaporization of
132 2,500 kJ/kg.

133 We did not smooth the data horizontally to retain the influence of the land surface at a
134 minimum. We use the curvature of wind at 850-hPa to determine our cyclonic and anticyclonic
135 domains, because near-surface wind is likely to be influenced by underlying SST directly through
136 vertical mixing (Wallace et al., 1989; Hayes et al., 1989) or pressure adjustment mechanism
137 (Lindzen and Nigam, 1987), which makes it rather difficult to extract the contributions from
138 synoptic-scale cyclones and anticyclones.

139 We set a curvature threshold of $\pm 4.0 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^{-1}$ to determine cyclonic and anticyclonic
140 domains, respectively, corresponding to a curvature radius of 2,500 km. Grid points with a
141 curvature radius larger than the threshold are named “neutral”, because they are classified neither
142 as “cyclonic” nor as “anticyclonic”. Our results are not very sensitive to setting the curvature
143 threshold to zero (Supplementary Fig. S1) or $\pm 1.0 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^{-1}$ (Supplementary Fig. S2). We
144 also obtain similar results based on the curvature of wind at 925-hPa (Supplementary Fig. S3).

145 Overall, we obtain qualitatively similar results to CNTL based on the JRA-55 reanalysis
146 (Text S1 and Supplementary Figs. S4, S6, and S8).

147

148 **3 Results**149 3.1 Cyclonic and anticyclonic contributions to the climatological hydrological cycle for
150 CNTL

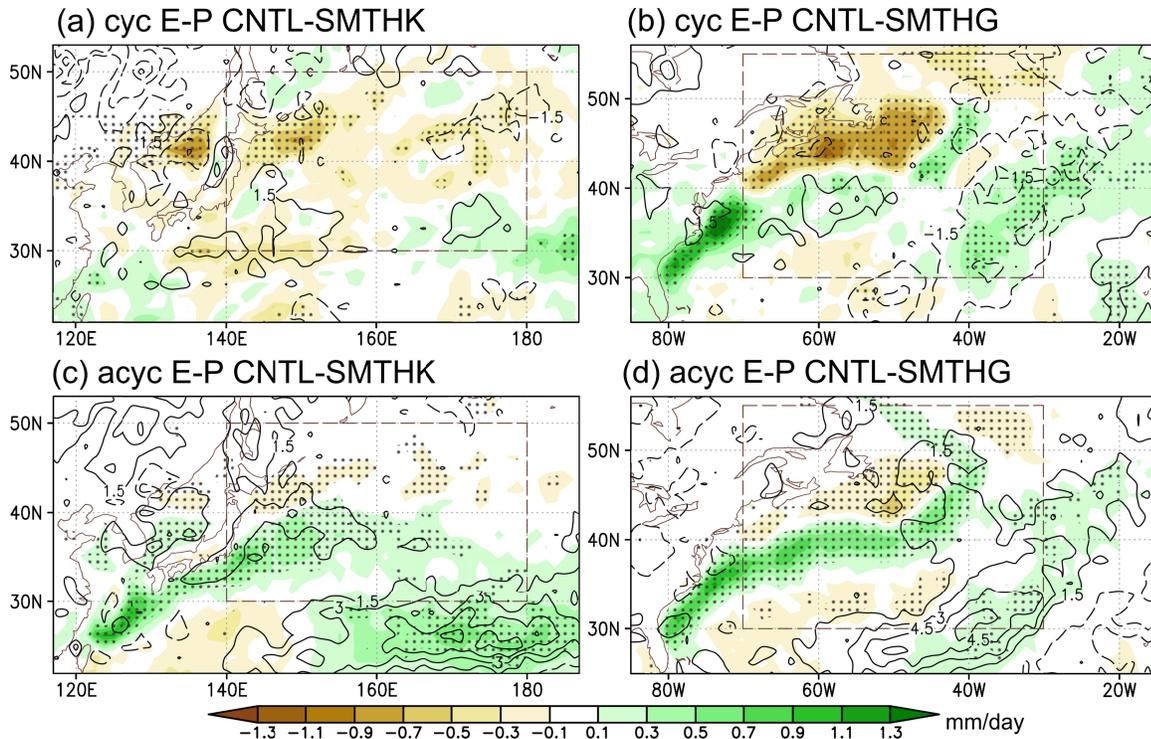
151 Over both oceanic frontal zones in the NP and NA, the cyclonic contribution to the
152 climatological difference between evaporation minus precipitation (E–P) is overall negative
153 (Figs. 1c-d), indicative of excessive precipitation compared to local evaporation within cyclonic
154 domains in the storm-track core regions. In the storm-track entrance regions, a positive cyclonic
155 E–P contribution is evident over the ocean, especially along the Kuroshio Current south of Japan
156 and the Florida Current by Cape Hatteras.

157 In contrast, the anticyclonic contribution to the climatological E–P is overall positive
158 (Figs. 1e-f), especially equatorward of the storm-track cores and along the warm ocean currents.
159 The large anticyclonic E–P contribution south of $\sim 30\text{--}35^\circ\text{N}$ is most likely related to the
160 relatively high probability of anticyclonic domains (ONK21). The difference between the
161 distributions of the cyclonic and anticyclonic frequencies is compatible with those of the
162 densities of migratory cyclones and anticyclones based on Lagrangian tracking (Hoskins and
163 Hodges, 2002; Okajima et al., 2023). In the storm-track entrance regions, the large positive
164 anticyclonic E–P contribution is indicative of the importance of cold-air outbreaks for air-sea
165 heat exchange in those regions, which acts as thermal damping for transient eddy activity
166 (Okajima et al., 2022).

167

168 3.2 Local response of the climatological-mean hydrological cycle to oceanic frontal zones

169 In response to changes in the NP oceanic frontal zone, the cyclonic contribution to the
170 climatological E–P significantly decreases, especially over the cool SST anomalies along the
171 main branch of the Oyashio Front and the front over the Japan Sea (Figs. 1a and 2a). In the
172 former region, this response acts to enhance the climatological-mean precipitation excess by up
173 to $\sim 30\%$ (Fig. 1c), with no apparent change in the frequency of cyclonic domains around the
174 oceanic frontal zone (Fig. 2a). In the latter region, the climatological-mean excess in evaporation
175 is reduced substantially together with a slight decrease in the occurrence of cyclonic domains. In
176 addition, the weaker negative cyclonic contribution to the E–P response around the second
177 branch of the Oyashio Front (around 40°N , 170°E) is likely associated with a decreased
178 occurrence of cyclonic domains, which is consistent with the cyclone density response in TSS21.
179 Over the warm SST anomaly around the Kuroshio Extension, however, the cyclonic contribution
180 to E–P does not significantly change in response to the oceanic frontal zone.



181

182 **Figure 2.** **a** Cyclonic contribution to the response (CNTL–SMTHK) of the climatological E–P
 183 (shadings in mm/day). Stipples signify statistically significant signals at the 90% confidence
 184 level by a Student’s *t*-test. Contours denote the cyclonic contribution to the probability of
 185 cyclonic domains (every 1.5%, zero contours omitted; dashed for negative values). **b** Same as in
 186 **a**, but for CNTL–SMTHG. **c–d** Same as in **a–b**, but for the anticyclonic contributions and
 187 probabilities. Dashed boxes signify the domains within which area-averaged contributions are
 188 calculated separately for the NP and NA.

189 Over oceanic frontal zone in the NA, the negative cyclonic contribution to the E–P
 190 response is even more evident over the pronounced cool SST anomaly on the poleward flank of
 191 the GS (Fig. 2b). The positive cyclonic contribution to the E–P response over the warm SST
 192 anomaly is overall modest, but it is marked along the GS just off the U.S. east coast, where the
 193 enhancement of THF dominates over the precipitation increase (Supplementary Fig. S5). These
 194 cyclonic E–P responses are not associated with changes in the occurrence of cyclonic domains.
 195 However, the positive cyclonic E–P contribution in the central NA (~30–40°W) is most likely
 196 associated with a decrease in the occurrence of cyclonic domains, which is consistent with
 197 TSS21.

198 Conversely, the anticyclonic contribution to the climatological positive E–P is
 199 significantly enhanced (by ~20–40%) in response to the NP and NA oceanic fronts, especially
 200 over the warm ocean currents and SST anomalies equatorward of them (Figs. 1c–d and 2a–b).
 201 Meanwhile, the negative contribution to the E–P response over the cool SST anomalies is
 202 substantially weaker than the decrease in cyclonic contribution to the E–P counterpart along the
 203 main branch of the Oyashio Front and the front over the Japan Sea (Fig. 2a). The enhanced E–P
 204 within anticyclonic domains is due partly to the increased occurrence of anticyclonic
 205 domains, especially around the NP oceanic frontal zones (Fig. 2c). The occurrence of anticyclonic

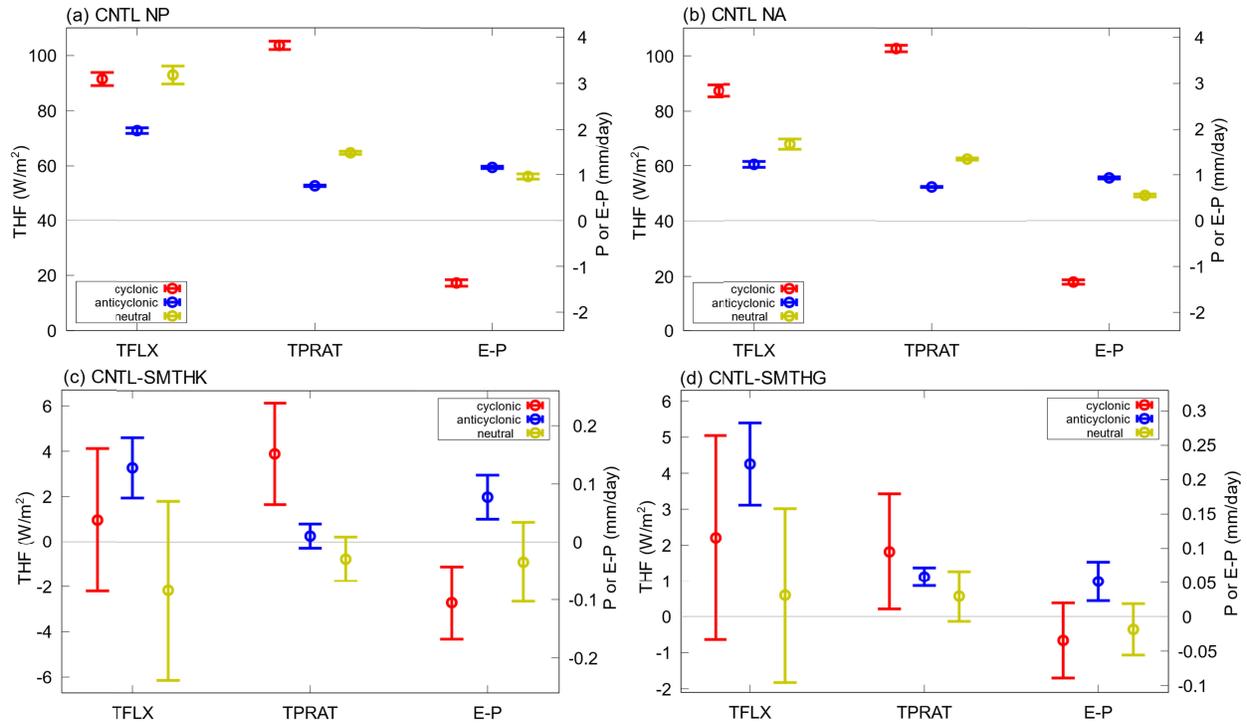
206 domains also increases in the climatological anticyclones southeast of the respective oceanic
207 frontal zones.

208 The differences between the cyclonic and anticyclonic contributions to the E–P response
209 to the oceanic frontal zones are related to responses in both THF and precipitation
210 (Supplementary Fig. S5). Within cyclonic domains, the suppression of upward THF over the
211 cool SST anomalies as well as the pronounced precipitation increase over the warm SST
212 anomalies yield the overall negative contribution to the E–P response for the cyclonic domains,
213 whereas the corresponding anticyclonic response in precipitation is weaker. The anticyclonic
214 contribution to the THF response is somewhat greater than the cyclonic counterpart over the
215 warm SST anomalies around the NP frontal zones and along the Kuroshio, while the opposite is
216 the case over the warm SST anomalies along the GS.

217

218 3.3 Area-averaged, net contributions to the hydrological cycle

219 The area-averaged cyclonic contribution to the climatological-mean net (viz. sensible
220 plus latent) THF is substantially (by ~30–50%) larger than its anticyclonic counterpart over both
221 the NP and NA (Figs. 3a-b). The contribution of neutral domains to THF is roughly comparable
222 with the cyclonic or anticyclonic contributions, with the three types of domains being
223 comparably probable (Figs. 1c-f). The substantial THF contribution of neutral domains is
224 compatible with the importance of cyclone-anticyclone transition zones, as pointed out by
225 Rudeva and Gulev (2011) and Tilinina et al. (2018). In contrast, the climatological-mean total
226 precipitation is associated predominantly with cyclonic domains (Figs. 3a-b). The additional
227 contribution from neutral domains may be associated with atmospheric fronts, cold-air outbreaks,
228 or planetary waves. The climatological E–P is positive (negative) for anticyclonic (cyclonic)
229 domains, indicative of their distinct roles in the climatological hydrological cycle (see section
230 3.1). Neutral domains also contribute positively to the E–P climatology. The result is consistent
231 with that based on the JRA-55 (Supplementary Fig. S6).



232

233 **Figure 3.** **a** Area-averaged climatological-mean net turbulent heat flux (W/m^2), total
 234 precipitation (mm/day), and E–P (mm/day) over the NP frontal region (rectangular domain
 235 marked in Fig. 1) based on CNTL. Red, blue, and yellow bars represent the contributions from
 236 cyclonic, anticyclonic, and neutral (neither cyclonic nor anticyclonic) domains, respectively.
 237 Whiskers signify standard errors. **b** Same as in **a**, but for the NA frontal region. **c–d** Same as in **a–**
 238 **b**, respectively, but for the response to oceanic frontal zones as extracted in (c) CNTL–SMTHK
 239 and (d) CNTL–SMTHG.

240 The oceanic frontal zones significantly increase the anticyclonic contribution to the area-
 241 averaged climatological THF over the NP and NA (Figs. 3c–d). The corresponding response of
 242 the cyclonic THF contribution is weaker than the anticyclonic counterpart, especially over the
 243 NP (Fig. 3c). This suggests the significance of anticyclones in the restoration of near-surface
 244 baroclinicity, which is essential for storm-track maintenance (e.g., Nakamura et al., 2004, 2008;
 245 Nonaka et al., 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009; Hotta and Nakamura, 2011; Papritz and Spengler,
 246 2015). Meanwhile, the oceanic frontal zones significantly amplify the cyclonic contribution to
 247 the area-averaged climatological precipitation over the NP and NA (Figs. 3c–d). Over the NA,
 248 precipitation is enhanced slightly also within anticyclonic and neutral domains (Fig. 3d), which
 249 may be associated with atmospheric fronts and cold-air outbreaks. Those cyclonic contributions
 250 to the THF and precipitation responses are compatible with TSS21.

251 As a net response of the hydrological cycle to the realistic oceanic frontal zones, the
 252 climatological E–P increases and decreases within anticyclonic and cyclonic domains,
 253 respectively (Figs. 3c–d), with an insignificant negative E–P contribution from neutral domains.
 254 This indicates that the respective climatological-mean positive and negative E–P contributions of
 255 anticyclonic and cyclonic domains are strengthened by the oceanic frontal zones. Note that the
 256 relative roles of the cyclonic and anticyclonic contributions to the E–P response are not affected

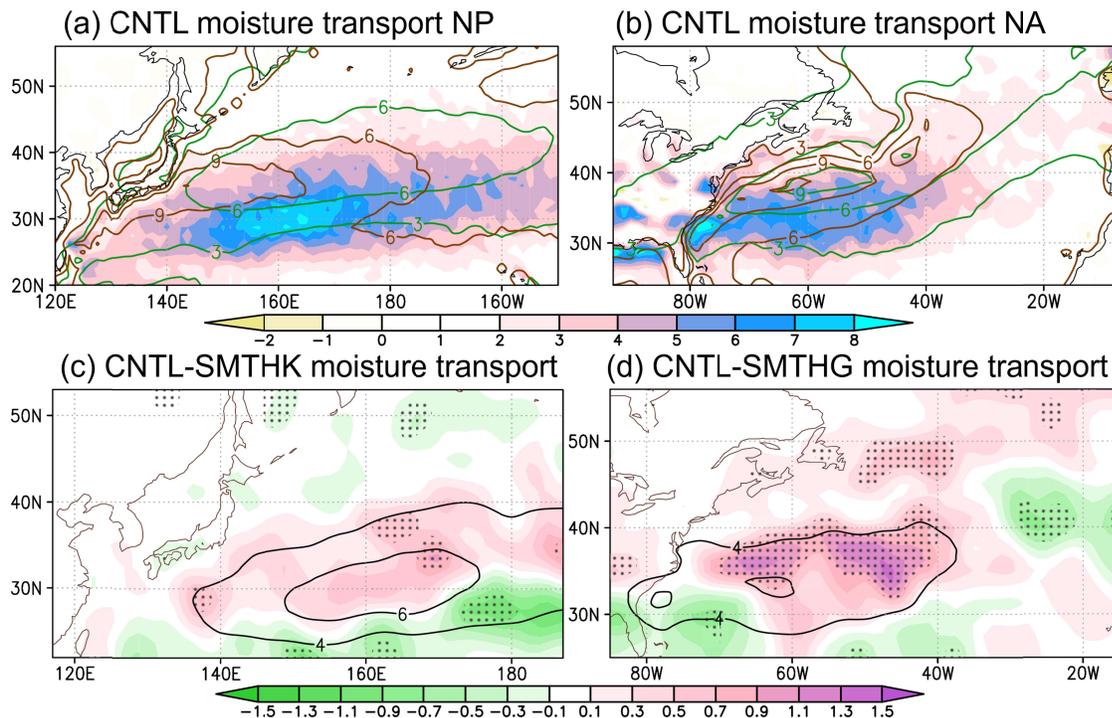
257 qualitatively by the corresponding response of the probability of cyclonic and anticyclonic
 258 domains (Supplementary Fig. S7).

259

260 3.4 Moisture transport between cyclonic to anticyclonic domains

261 The preceding section suggests that the oceanic frontal zones enhance the moisture
 262 supply from the ocean mainly within anticyclonic domains with an implied transport into
 263 cyclonic domains. To verify this, we calculate the moisture flux projected onto the upgradient
 264 direction of local curvature, which points to positive cyclonic curvature. We use this projected
 265 flux through cyclone-anticyclone transition zones as a measure of the net moisture transport from
 266 cyclonic domains to anticyclonic domains (see Text S2 for details).

267 The climatological net moisture transport through cyclone-anticyclone transition zones in
 268 CNTL is overall positive for both the NP and NA (Figs. 4a-b), indicative of the net moisture
 269 transport from anticyclonic to cyclonic domains. This is consistent with the results obtained in
 270 section 3.3 and the results based on the JRA-55 (Supplementary Fig. S8). This result is also
 271 compatible with Bui and Spengler (2021), who suggested the importance of feeding airstreams
 272 taking up moisture ahead of a cyclone. The moisture transport is particularly strong equatorward
 273 of the precipitation maxima (Figs. 4a-b), over which the climatological-mean evaporation tends
 274 to be larger than precipitation.



275

276 **Figure 4.** a Climatological-mean net moisture transport (from anticyclonic to cyclonic domains)
 277 integrated from the surface to 100 hPa (shading in mm m/s) over the NP for CNTL. Brown and
 278 green contours denote the climatological-mean evaporation and precipitation (mm/day),
 279 respectively. b Same as in a, but for the NA. c-d Same as in a-b, respectively, but for responses

280 for (c) CNTL–SMTHK and (d) CNTL–SMTHG. Stipples signify statistically significant signals
281 at the 90% confidence level by a Student’s *t*-test. Black contours indicate the climatological-
282 mean moisture exchange (mm m/s) in CNTL (field smoothed).

283 The oceanic frontal zones strengthen the climatological cyclone-anticyclone moisture
284 transport (Figs. 4c-d), which is compatible with the results of the E–P contributions (Figs. 3c-d).
285 The more distinct enhancement in the moisture transport over the NA is most likely related to the
286 stronger positive SST anomaly over the NA (Fig. 1b). Increased specific humidity around the
287 warm ocean currents and positive SST anomalies equatorward of the oceanic frontal zones as
288 well as intensified low-level storm-track activity are the most likely causes for the enhanced
289 moisture transport (Supplementary Fig. S9).

290

291 **4 Conclusions**

292 We assessed the role of cyclones and anticyclones in air-sea interactions over midlatitude
293 oceanic frontal zones in the wintertime Northern Hemisphere by quantifying cyclonic and
294 anticyclonic contributions to the climatological THF, precipitation, and E–P as well as their
295 responses to the oceanic frontal zones based on AGCM experiments. In addition, we delineated
296 the climatological moisture transport between cyclonic and anticyclonic domains and their
297 corresponding response to the influence of the SST fronts.

298 We demonstrated that synoptic-scale, sub-weekly disturbances play an important role in
299 midlatitude air-sea interactions on a climatological time scale, bridging our understanding of
300 midlatitude air-sea interactions from synoptic to longer time scales. When smoothing the SST
301 gradients, THF is climatologically reduced when compared to realistic oceanic frontal zones.
302 This reduction mainly occurs within anticyclonic domains, while precipitation is climatologically
303 enhanced predominantly within cyclonic domains. Consistently, the net moisture transport from
304 anticyclonic to cyclonic domains is strengthened when realistic oceanic frontal zones are present.
305 These changes are mainly attributable to a moisture increase around the anomalously warmer
306 waters as well as enhanced storm-track activity, yielding an overall strengthened climatological
307 hydrological cycle around the midlatitude oceanic frontal zones.

308 Our results thus emphasize that variations in synoptic-scale THF and precipitation are
309 modulated by midlatitude frontal zones and SSTs around them. The modulation of heat and
310 moisture release along oceanic frontal zones can modulate storm-track activity and a westerly jet
311 response (e.g., Nakamura et al., 2008; Kuwano-Yoshida and Minobe, 2017), though requires
312 further studies to pinpoint the mechanisms including the enhancement of moisture transport from
313 cyclones to anticyclones.

314

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325

326 **Open Research**

327 The details of the model experiments analyzed in this study is described in Kuwano-Yoshida and
328 Minobe (2017). The data of those experiments are available at
329 <https://doi.org/10.11582/2021.00075>. Figures were produced using the Grid Analysis Display
330 System (GrADS; <http://cola.gmu.edu/grads/>), gnuplot v5.2 (<http://www.gnuplot.info>), matplotlib
331 v3.7.1 (<https://matplotlib.org/stable/index.html>), and Inkscape v1.0.1
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333

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