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Key Points:

- Summer temperatures and the likelihood of heatwaves increase significantly over Korea and Japan in the positive Pacific-Japan (PJ) pattern
- Horizontal heat advection from the subtropical ocean is a key factor for the observed near-surface warming observed in Korea and Japan
- PJ-related near-surface circulation explains the intense warm advection

Supporting Information:

Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

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The Role of the Pacific-Japan Pattern in Extreme Heatwaves Over Korea and Japan

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Abstract In the Northwestern Pacific, the meridionally propagating Rossby waves, known as the Pacific-Japan (PJ) pattern, is the dominant teleconnection pattern and is considered as a source of heatwaves in East Asia. In this study, the circulation and thermodynamic characteristics of these patterns were investigated based on daily timescale to evaluate their relationship with the likelihood of heatwaves in Korea and Japan. The investigations reveal that stations in Korea and Japan record approximately 90% increase in extremely hot days ($T_{\max} > 35^{\circ}\text{C}$) during the positive PJ pattern events. According to thermodynamic budget, horizontal heat advection is a key factor for the observed near-surface warming during the positive PJ. The circulation pattern during the positive PJ largely explains the enhanced warm advection and physical heating due to the increased insolation and adiabatic heating are secondary factors for near-surface warming. This phenomenon is robustly observed regardless of the definition.

Plain Language Summary In this study, the circulation and thermodynamic characteristics of these patterns were investigated based on daily timescale to evaluate their relationship with occurrence likelihood of heatwaves in Korea and Japan. The investigations reveal that stations in Korea and Japan record approximately 90% increase in extreme hot days during the positive PJ pattern events. According to thermodynamic budget calculations, horizontal heat advection is a key factor for the observed near-surface warming.

1. Introduction

The frequent heatwaves in recent decades account for significant socioeconomic problems in Korea and Japan. In Korea, record-breaking heatwaves were recorded in 2013, 2016, and 2018 and these were accompanied by many health and energy issues. In Japan, major heatwaves were also reported in 2013 along with consecutive 2018–2020, and there were associated with serious heat-related illnesses (Hayashida et al., 2019; Kang et al., 2020; Lim et al., 2019). In particular, the 2018 deadly heatwave was responsible for 42 deaths in Korea and 1,032 in Japan, with corresponding illnesses of more than 3,400 and 71,200, respectively (Imada et al., 2019; Iwasaki et al., 2019; Park & Chae, 2020). In general, heatwaves are accompanied by tropical nights, which are also lead to serious heat-related illnesses (Cinar et al., 2001; Park & Lee, 2006).

Because of the large detrimental impacts of heatwaves (e.g., W. Lee et al., 2018; Nakai et al., 1999), their characteristics and mechanisms have been extensively studied over Korea and Japan (Hong et al., 2018; Lee & Lee, 2016; Yeh et al., 2018; Yoon et al., 2020). According to many studies, the intensity and frequency of summer heatwaves are increasing globally (Christensen et al., 2013; Perkins & Alexander, 2013), with the recent increase of heatwaves frequency in East Asia partially attributed to anthropogenic activities (Imada et al., 2018; Shimpo et al., 2019). Considering that heatwaves are characterized by irregular interannual variation, their accurate prediction remains challenging. Consequently, many studies focus on the atmospheric circulations that are directly relevant to the occurrence of heatwaves (Lee & Lee, 2016; Shimpo et al., 2019; W. Wang et al., 2016, S. S. Y. Wang et al., 2019; Yeh et al., 2018; Yeo et al., 2019; Yoon et al., 2020).

The heatwaves, particularly reported in Korea and Japan, are generally related to the enhancement of the Northwestern Pacific Subtropical High (NPSH). During these heatwaves, the NPSH is largely modulated by the zonally propagating Rossby waves originating from Eurasia (Enomoto et al., 2003; Xu et al., 2019; Yeh et al., 2018; Yoon et al., 2020) and the meridionally propagating Rossby waves emanating from the

tropical western Pacific (He et al., 2018; Lee & Lee, 2016; Shimpo et al., 2019; S. S. Y. Wang et al., 2019; Yeo et al., 2019). The zonally propagating waves are often observed as synoptic-scale wave train connecting from Europe to East Asia. In spite of its scale, this is quasi-stationary because of the relatively slow westerly background in the summer, with its enhancement significantly modulating the NPSH and causing extreme events in East Asia (e.g., Coumou et al., 2018; Kornhuber et al., 2019; Shimpo et al., 2019; Xiang et al., 2013). The meridionally propagating waves are generally forced by deep convection in the western Pacific (near the Philippines) and propagate northward as thermally driven Rossby waves (Hoskins & Karoly, 1981; Sardeshmukh & Hoskins, 1988). The anticyclonic branch of these waves commonly overlaps the NPSH, thereby promoting its northwestward expansion. This process was advanced as a probable cause for the dangerous heatwaves in 2018 (Hsu et al., 2020; Shimpo et al., 2019). In addition, local sea surface temperature anomaly (Hasegawa et al., 2020; Wie et al., 2021) and midlatitude blocking (Yeh et al., 2018; Yoon et al., 2021) are known contributors to the heatwaves, although the latter can be considered as a part of the meridional waves.

These studies emphasize that the heatwaves in Korea and Japan are strongly coupled to the large-scale atmospheric circulation or teleconnection patterns. Among these patterns, the meridionally propagating Rossby waves, known as the Pacific-Japan (PJ) pattern have been investigated as a potential source of predictability in subseasonal and seasonal timescales (Guan et al., 2019; Kosaka et al., 2013; Kosaka & Nakamura, 2010; Nitta, 1987; Wakabayashi & Kawamura, 2004; Wang & Wang, 2018). Considering that the PJ pattern is forced by tropical convection over the Philippines and affects East Asia while it propagates northward, this pattern can be easily captured by 850-hPa geopotential difference at Taiwan and southern Japan (Kawamura & Ogasawara, 2006; Kubota et al., 2016; R. C. Y. Li et al., 2014; Nitta, 1987; Wakabayashi & Kawamura, 2004) and empirical orthogonal function (EOF) analysis over East Asia (Kosaka & Nakamura, 2006, 2008, 2010; Wu et al., 2016). They provide useful information for climate prediction of these regions.

The reported impacts of the PJ patterns in Korea and Japan are summarized as follows: (a) convection suppression, (b) high-pressure anomaly enhancement, (c) anticyclonic circulation promotion, and (d) enhancement of relatively warmer temperatures (Kosaka & Nakamura, 2006; Kubota et al., 2016). These characteristics generally produce hot and dry summers over the regions, including increased tropical cyclone activity over the South China Sea (Choi et al., 2010; Kubota et al., 2016). Recent studies also reported a significant relationship between positive PJ and East Asian heatwaves (Shimpo et al., 2019; Yeo et al., 2019; Yoon et al., 2020).

Despite the larger volume of studies, a clear physical feature connecting PJ and heatwaves is still limited, partially because the characteristics of the PJ pattern are commonly studied using monthly or climate time-scales. Based on daily analyses, we present that the near-surface warm advection is a key factor for the observed warm anomalies during positive PJ, which is one of potential causes of the Korea and Japan heatwaves.

Section 2 describes the data and methods used for the study. Section 3 summarizes important patterns of PJ in the daily timescale and provides thermodynamic features related to the warming. Last, a discussion is presented in Section 4.

2. Data and Methodology

2.1. Data

Hourly temperature data were obtained from the Hadley Centre Integrated Surface Database (HadISD; Dunn et al., 2016) and used for calculating maximum temperature (T_{\max}) for the 40-year period from 1981 to 2020. The surface stations that provide hourly samples over Korea and Japan are used for the analysis. The primary data used for the pattern and budget analyses are the 6-hourly European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) Re-Analysis version 5 (ERA-5; Hersbach et al., 2020) regridded into a $1.5^{\circ} \times 1.5^{\circ}$ resolution. To reduce the high-frequency variability, a 5-day running average was applied for the time series, with all analyses focused on the boreal summer period (June-July-August [JJA]).

In order to characterize the atmospheric circulation related to the PJ pattern, the composite analysis was performed with respect to the central date of the PJ index defined by Equation 2 in Section 2.3. Anomaly fields were computed by removing daily climatologies that are defined for the period of 1981–2020.

2.2. Apparent Heat Source (Q1)

We calculated the atmospheric apparent heat source term (Q1) based on the thermodynamic energy equation. The thermodynamic equation and Q1 are related by the following equation (D.-K. Lee et al., 2008; Yanai et al., 1973):

$$\frac{dT}{dt} = -\vec{V} \cdot \nabla T + \left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right)^k \omega \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial p} + \frac{1}{c_p} Q_1 \quad (1)$$

where T , θ , \vec{V} , p , and ω are the temperature, potential temperature, horizontal wind vector, pressure, and vertical pressure velocity, respectively; ∇ denotes the horizontal gradient operator; and p_0 and c_p are the reference pressure (1000 hPa) and the specific heat of dry air at constant pressure, respectively. The calculated Q1 represents the total diabatic heating redistributed by unresolved mixing, which includes the radiative heating, latent heat release due to net condensation, and surface heat flux.

2.3. The PJ Index

Considering previous studies (Kubota et al., 2016; R. C. Y. Li et al., 2014; Wakabayashi & Kawamura, 2004), the PJ index in the present study was calculated by the difference of the normalized 850-hPa geopotential height anomaly between grid points in Taiwan (22°N, 120°E) and Japan (35°N, 140°E) as follows:

$$\text{PJ index} = \left[z^*(22^\circ\text{N}, 120^\circ\text{E}) - z^*(35^\circ\text{N}, 140^\circ\text{E}) \right] / 2 \quad (2)$$

where z^* denotes the 850-hPa geopotential height anomaly normalized by the standard deviation of values for each grid point. This point-based PJ index is employed following Kubota et al. (2016) for comparison with previous studies. It is worth to note that it is almost identical to the one defined by EOF (Kubota et al., 2016), and overall results are independent of the definition.

This study will examine the evolution of PJ-related features through a composite analysis. The positive and negative events were selected based on ± 1.0 standard deviation of the PJ index, respectively, while the peak was set as the central date (day 0). Finally, the indices that maintain the same phase must be at least 10 days apart to ensure the independence of the samples. Consequently, 31 positive and 34 negative events were obtained and used for subsequent analysis.

3. Result

3.1. Characteristics Observed

The heatwaves that occurred in Korea and Japan are closely related to the atmospheric circulation anomalies caused by the positive PJ pattern (e.g., Shimpo et al., 2019; Yeo et al., 2019). Figure 1 shows the distribution of T_{\max} anomalies averaged for the positive and negative PJ pattern events. Depending on the phase of the PJ pattern, the T_{\max} value for Korea and Japan varies considerably. In general, warming is observed in the data recorded in stations in the south part of Korea and Japan during the positive PJ pattern events, with the maximum value reaching approximately $\sim 3^\circ\text{C}$ (Figure 1a). The T_{\max} difference is slightly lower during the negative PJ pattern events, with data for many stations in central and northern Japan indicating cooling (Figure 1b). These characteristics are clearly demonstrated by comparing the two T_{\max} probability density functions relative to the phase of the PJ pattern (Figure 1c). The T_{\max} distribution of the positive PJ pattern shifts to the warmer side and negatively skewed showing a significantly increased number of hot days. The number of days with T_{\max} greater than 33°C , 35°C increased by approximately 250%, 90% during the positive PJ pattern, respectively. The T_{\min} distribution of the positive PJ pattern also shifts to the warmer side (Figure S1). These surface observations ascertain that the likelihood of the heatwaves is clearly related to the PJ events.

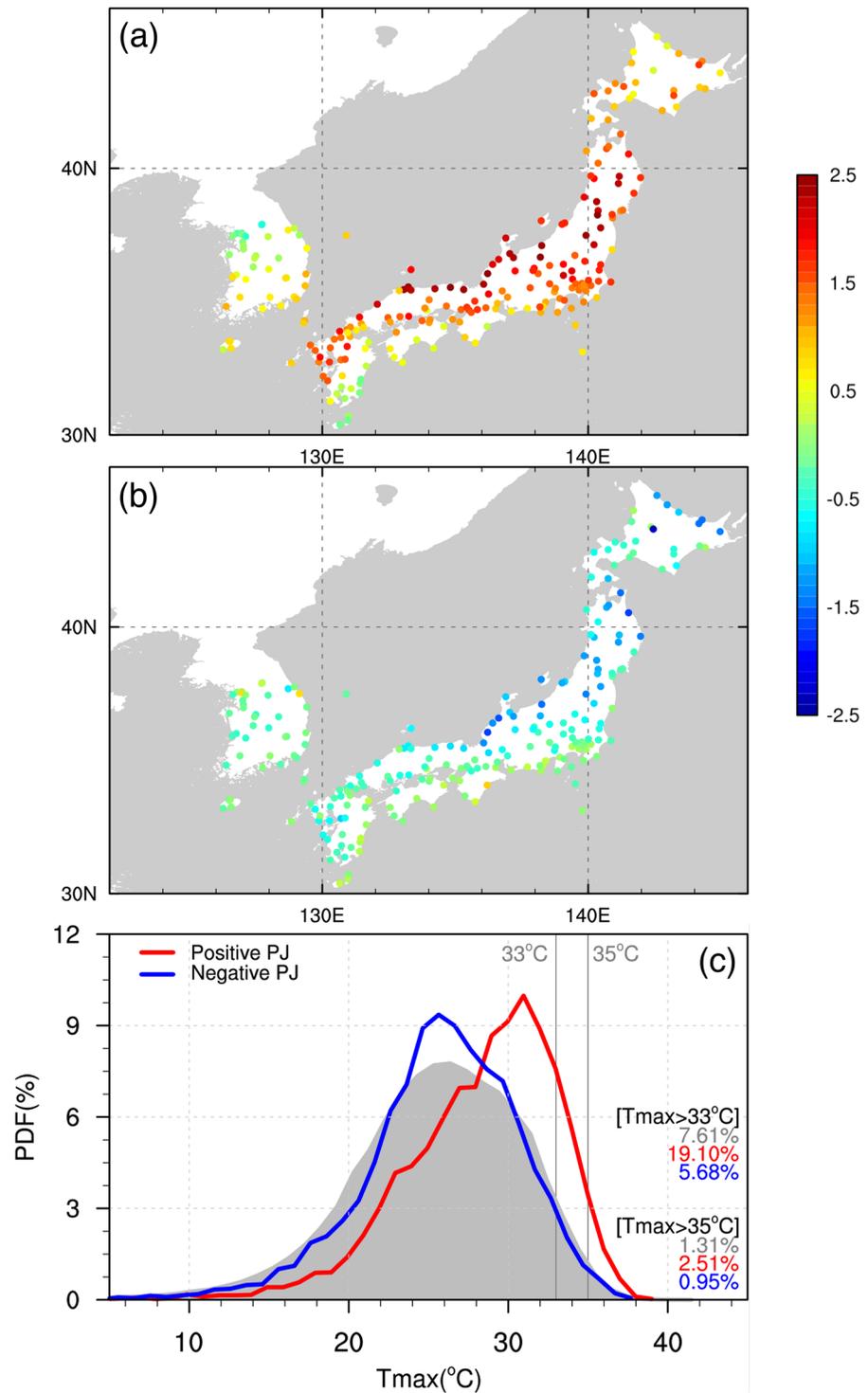


Figure 1. Composite daily maximum temperature anomaly (K) maps based on the (a) positive Pacific–Japan (PJ) index and (b) negative PJ index. (c) Plot of the probability density function versus T_{max} based on observation data for South Korea and Japan. The shaded area represents the entire data distribution, while the solid red line shows the positive PJ distribution and blue is the negative PJ distribution. The percentages assigned to each color highlights the probability that $T_{max} > 35^\circ\text{C}$ and $T_{max} > 33^\circ\text{C}$.

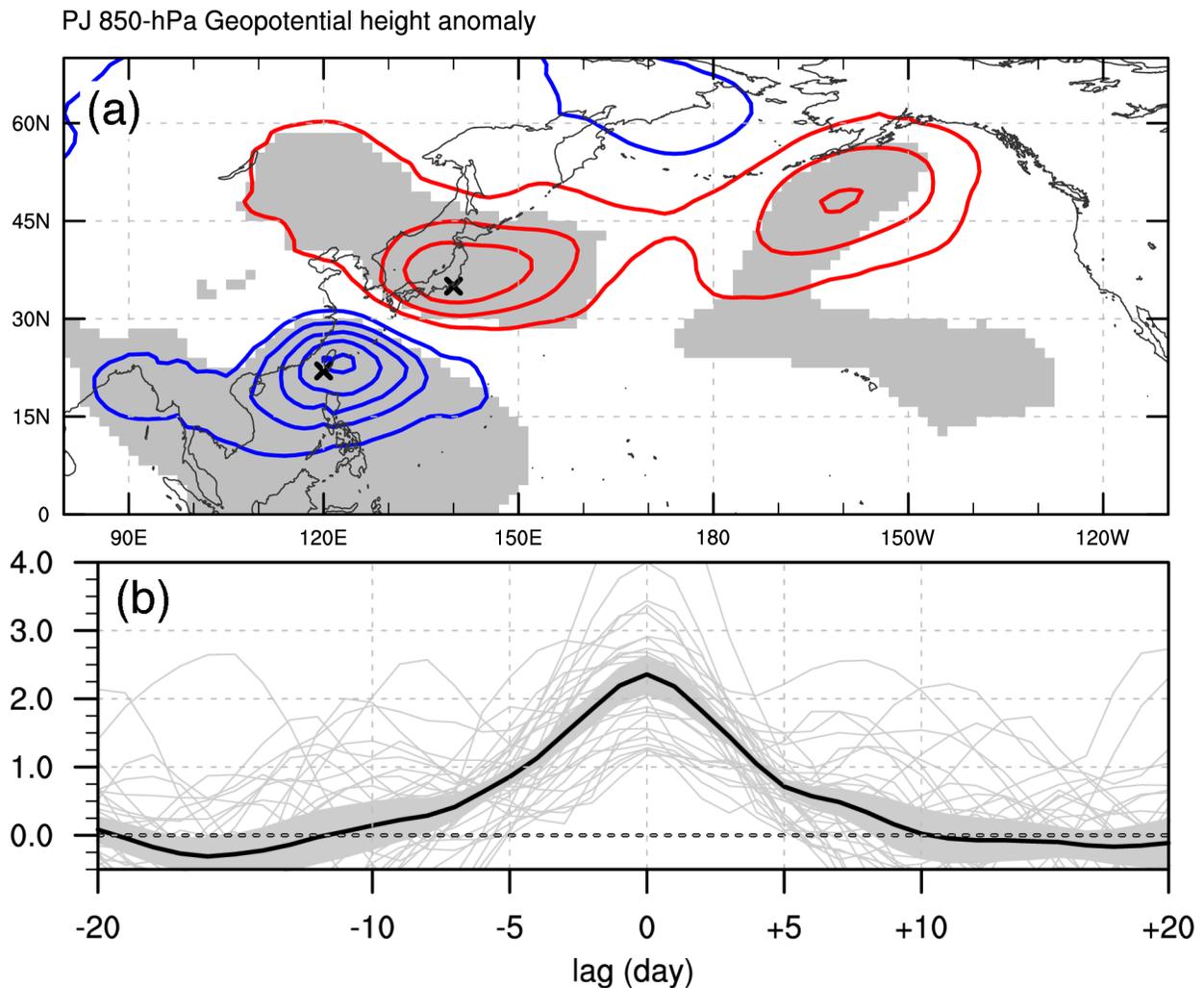


Figure 2. (a) Composite map of the 5-days running mean of the 850-hPa geopotential height anomaly of the positive Pacific–Japan (PJ) patterns. Contouring starts from ± 10 m and the interval is 10 m, with zero lines omitted. The symbol “x” in (a) represent the locations stations in Taiwan and Japan in which data used for the PJ index were recorded. The shading highlights the statistically significant anomalies at the $p < 0.05$ level, determined using a two-tailed Student’s t -test. (b) Normalized time series distribution of the positive PJ pattern index, with the gray line representing individual PJ indices, while the black line is the average, with the shaded portion indicating the 95% confidence interval of the mean.

The composite of the 850-hPa geopotential height for the positive PJ events (Figure 2a) presents a characteristic meridional dipole of low (cyclonic) and high pressure (anticyclonic) anomalies over the South China and Philippine seas and central Japan, respectively, which are consistent with previous studies (Kubota et al., 2016; Nitta, 1987). This pattern is obviously observed in the middle to lower troposphere (not shown) because of tropospheric propagation along the south westerly in the region (Kosaka & Nakamura, 2006). The daily timeseries of the PJ index (Figure 2b) shows that the PJ pattern evolves in a week or two, thereby providing enough time for propagation of the meridional Rossby waves and the associated atmospheric circulation. The spatial structure and time series of the PJ index during the negative PJ pattern events have similar characteristics except with an opposite sign (Figure S2). It is worth noting that the pattern further propagates and reaches southern Alaska and the west coast of North America. This feature is also reported in several studies (Kosaka & Nakamura, 2006; Nitta, 1987), although its impact on North America is not fully studied. The same dipole pattern (but with opposite phase) appears during the negative PJ events (Figure S3a).

This circulation pattern is coherent with other atmospheric and oceanic fields. Figure 3 shows composite anomalies for the daily surface air temperature (SAT), sea surface temperature (SST), total cloud cover, and

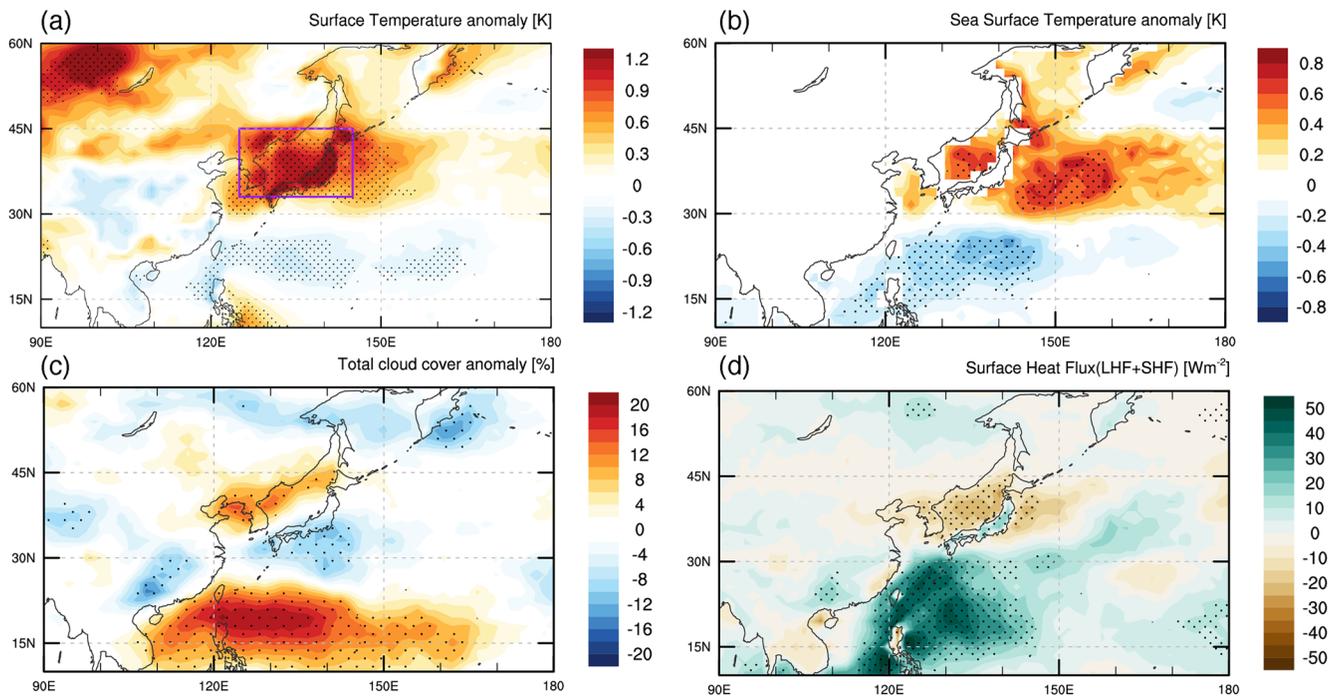


Figure 3. Composite maps showing the (a) surface temperature anomalies (K), (b) sea surface temperature anomalies (K), (c) total cloud cover anomalies (%), and (d) surface heat flux (latent heat flux + sensible heat flux) anomalies (Wm^{-2}) for the positive Pacific–Japan patterns. The dots highlight statistically significant anomalies at the $p < 0.05$ level, determined from the two-tailed Student's t -test.

surface heat flux for the 31 positive events. The composite anomalies of SAT show noticeable warming over Korea and Japan (Figure 3a), which consists well with the surface observations (Figure 1a). The SST anomaly also presents a similar warming pattern (Figure 3b), although it is further extended over the region of the Kuroshio extension implying the role of the ocean current. The surface heat flux from the ocean is also significantly reduced over the East Sea and east coast of Japan, likely due to the larger increase in the SAT compared to the SST (Figure 3d).

It is worth noting that the cloud cover is also reduced over southern Japan (Figure 3c) along with the insolation (Figure S4a). Due to the enhanced insolation, the land-surface temperature increases noticeably over Japan. This increase causes stronger heat fluxes from land (Figures S4b and S4c) deteriorating the heatwaves, while this mechanism is not found over ocean. The different responses of heat fluxes over land and ocean are related to the characteristics of the surface. It is also notable in the temperature budgets divided the surface type (Figure S5). The responses of cloud cover and insolation are different over Korea. This difference is related to an interaction with Changma front, which generally locates over this region.

This positive relationship between the midlatitude SAT and PJ has been reported in many studies (Kubota et al., 2016; Lee & Lee, 2016; Nitta, 1987; Wakabayashi & Kawamura, 2004). The warming over Korea and Japan is consistent with the high pressure (anticyclonic) anomaly observed in the region, and it has been explained as follows: (a) subsidence occurs due to the anticyclonic anomaly, (b) insolation increases because of cloud reduction, and (c) warm advection proceeds through southerlies (Kubota et al., 2016; Lee & Lee, 2016). In general, the results of this study are consistent with these explanations, however it is still not clear which one is the dominant process for the near-surface warming and potential cause of the heatwaves. It will be examined further using a thermodynamic budget in the subsequent section.

3.2. Cause of the Near-Surface Warming

The daily evolutions of the near-surface temperature are examined for the region where the midlatitude warming is significantly large (i.e., 33° – 45° N and 125° – 145° E; shown in the box with purple lines in Figure 3a). Overall, the SAT anomalies show positive and negative values near the central date of the positive

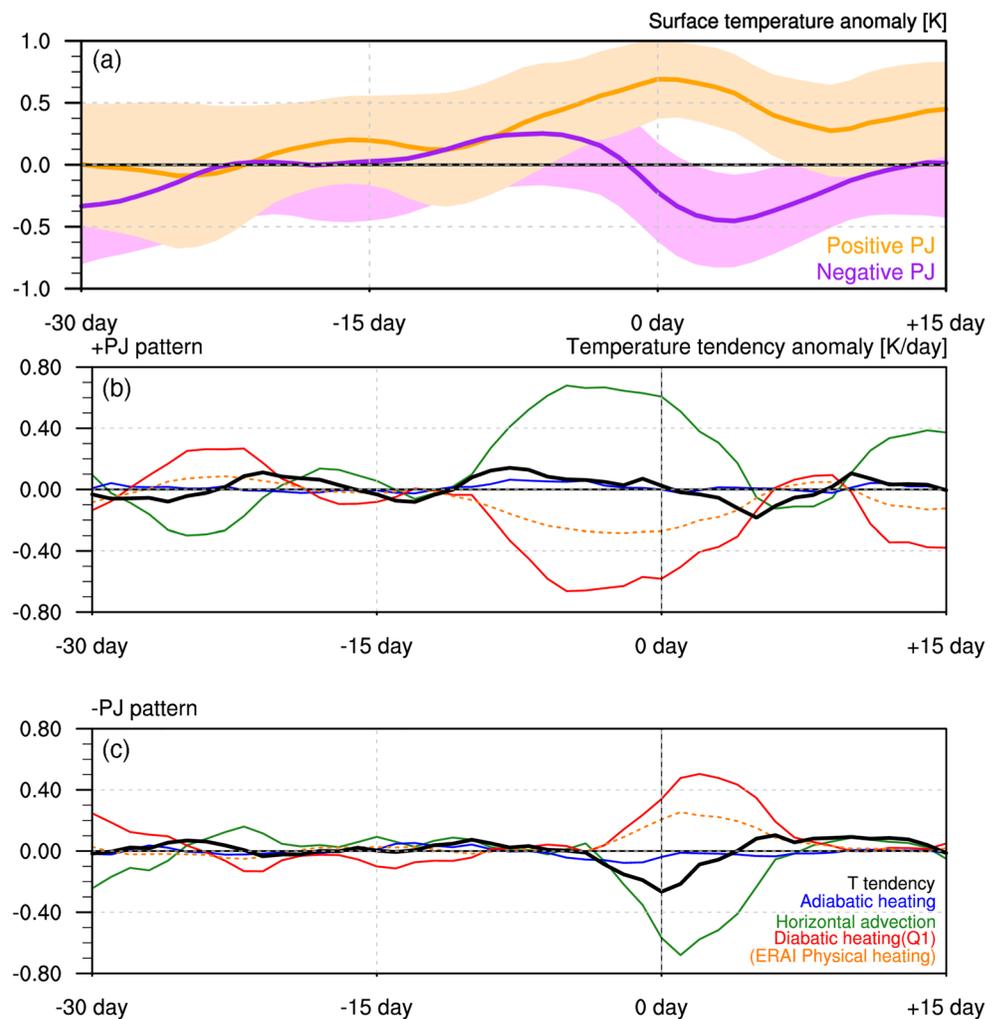


Figure 4. (a) Timeseries of the 5-days running mean surface temperature anomaly of each phase the Pacific–Japan (PJ) pattern from day -30 to day $+15$. The shading indicates the spread within ± 0.5 standard deviations. (b and c) Temperature evolution of each phase of the PJ pattern based on a thermodynamic equation at 1000 hPa and the drivers, including the horizontal heat advection (thin green line), diabatic heating (Q_1) (thin red line), and adiabatic heating (thin blue line). The thick black line represents the surface temperature trend anomaly, while the orange dashed line is for the ERA-Interim physical heating rate anomaly.

(yellow in Figure 4a) and negative (purple in Figure 4a) PJ pattern events, respectively. However, the anomaly persists longer with a stronger peak during the positive PJ pattern events compared to that of the negative PJ events. These results are also consistent with the surface observations (Figure 1), which exhibit stronger (asymmetric) temperature responses for the positive PJ patterns. The temperature data also presents a notable increase roughly 10 days before the central dates of the positive PJ patterns, and rapidly decreases several days before the central date for the negative PJ patterns.

The temperature tendency is further investigated using the thermodynamic equation (Figures 4b and 4c). The daily temperature tendency (black line) can be decomposed into the horizontal temperature advection (green line), adiabatic heating (blue line), and diabatic heating (red line) based on the calculated Q_1 value. The most distinct feature is the large dominance of horizontal advection on the temperature tendency. Regarding the positive PJ patterns (Figure 4b), the surface temperature starts to increase significantly because of horizontal advection ~ 10 days before the central date. The adiabatic heating caused by subsidence also contributes to the heating, although this contribution is still secondary near the surface. Notably, the contribution of the subsidence-induced adiabatic warming is comparable to that of the horizontal advection above the ~ 850 -hPa level (Figures S6 and S7); however the horizontal advection is the principal process

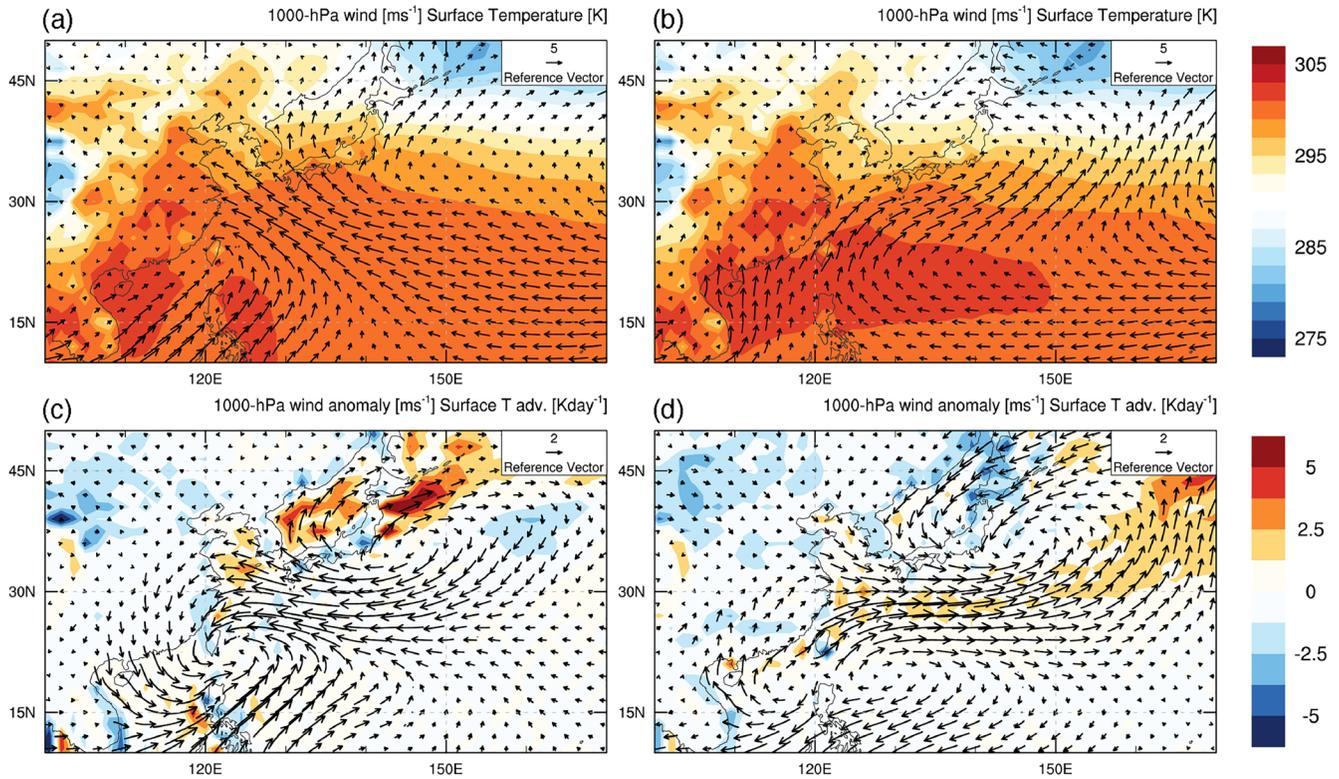


Figure 5. Composite maps involving the (a and b) surface temperature (shading, K) and horizontal wind at 1000-hPa (vector, ms^{-1}), and (c and d) horizontal advection of the surface temperature (shading, K day^{-1}) and horizontal wind anomalies at 1000-hPa (vector, ms^{-1}) for positive Pacific–Japan (PJ) patterns (left) and negative PJ patterns (right).

responsible for the near-surface warming. The Q1, which is a reasonable estimation of the physical heating and unresolved mixing process, offsets the warming tendency. This effect might be caused by outgoing long-wave radiation, which increased due to near-surface warming. The total physical heating from the ERA-Interim also suggests that the net physical process adversely affects the observed warming during the positive PJ events. The negative PJ (Figure 4c) yield roughly the same interpretation, although their responses are stronger after the central date. These characteristics are generally similar for the EOF-based PJ definition (Figure S8). The westerly dominates over Japan (still crossing the isotherms), and the temperature advection is slightly stronger for the negative PJ. However, the temperature advection is still the primary factor for the temperature tendency.

Increased insolation due to cloud reduction is considered a major process that can explain the observed warming in Korea and Japan (e.g., Kosaka & Nakamura, 2006; Tao et al., 2017; Wakabayashi & Kawamura, 2004). In fact, the reduced cloud cover amount (Figure 2c) and increased land-surface flux over Japan are supportive of this idea (Figures S4b and S4c). However, warming by these processes is weak compared to that associated with the horizontal advection, and these processes are too localized to drive the regional-scale warming observed during the positive PJ pattern events. For example, the same processes are not observed over Korea and the East Sea, where significant warming is still observed.

The details of horizontal advection are examined to better understand the role of the PJ-related circulation on horizontal temperature advection. The near-surface temperature fields show a large gradient over Korea and Japan for the positive and negative PJ patterns (Figure 5), which represents a seasonal characteristic of both regions. However, the circulation fields differ notably between the positive and negative events. The southeasterly dominates over the East China Sea and southern Japan for the positive PJ pattern events, inducing intense warm advection over Korea and Japan by crossing the temperature gradient in the regions (Figure 5a). On the other hand, the southwesterly, characterized by parallels isotherms, prevails over the regions but induces no significant temperature advection for the negative PJ patterns.

This feature is more pronounced in the PJ-related anomalies (Figures 5c and 5d). For positive PJ, the near-surface winds show a clear dipole of cyclone and anticyclone, respectively over the subtropical and midlatitude regions of the western Pacific. This circulation pattern induces southeasterlies between the dipoles, thereby enhancing heat and moisture transports from the subtropical ocean toward Korea and Japan, whereas negative PJ patterns inhibit such transport by preventing westerlies. This surface circulation evolves as a part of the meridionally propagating Rossby waves under the background of the Asian summer monsoon and subtropical high (Kosaka & Nakamura, 2006, 2010). The time-lag composite of the circulation fields (Figures S9 and S10) demonstrates that this response can evolve roughly in a weekly timescale, which corresponds to the energy propagation duration of Rossby waves. The time lag in the temperature tendency during the negative PJ pattern is likely related to this energy propagation. In fact, the cold advection during negative PJ originates from the Okhotsk Sea (Figure 5d), which locates far north of the warm advection during positive PJ (Figures S9 and S10).

4. Conclusion

In this study, the evolution of the PJ pattern and surface temperature on an intraseasonal timescale were detailedly examined. The PJ pattern is one of the most dominant teleconnection patterns in the western North Pacific during the boreal summer. The analysis based on 40 years of ERA5 and surface station data confirms that the daily PJ index and corresponding Rossby wave pattern are strongly related to the summer climate over Korea and Japan. In particular, the subtropical-to-midlatitude dipole pattern and balanced near-surface circulation play prominent roles over the western North Pacific.

Summer temperatures over Korea and Japan are significantly affected by positive PJ patterns, and the likelihood of heatwaves is also significantly increased with the event. The thermodynamic budget analysis on a daily timescale revealed the horizontal advection of heat by southeasterly winds as the principal factor responsible for elevated near-surface temperatures over Korea and Japan. The dipole patterns developed over the subtropics and midlatitude as a part of the PJ-related Rossby waves account for the southeasterlies and warm advection. During the positive PJ events, a high-pressure system develops over Japan, which aggravates the near-surface warming through subsidence and additional insolation, although these impacts turn out to be secondary factors. These results are robust regardless of the PJ definition, which can slightly modify the Rossby wave pattern.

It is worth noting that positive PJ patterns are also likely related to coastal marine heatwaves (see Figure 3b), which have devastating impacts on aquaculture and fisheries (S. Lee et al., 2020; Y. Li et al., 2019; Oliver et al., 2018). Therefore, atmospheric and marine heatwaves can interact through atmosphere-ocean coupling processes such as the heat flux exchange (e.g., Olita et al., 2007; Figure 3d). The frequency and intensity of atmospheric (Christensen et al., 2013; Perkins & Alexander, 2013) and marine heatwaves are increasing (Frölicher & Laufkötter, 2018; Oliver et al., 2018) due to global warming and the associated circulation changes (Coumou et al., 2018; Mann et al., 2017). However, their physical mechanisms are not clearly understood, and the predictability of the heatwaves is generally low (Olita et al., 2006, 2007; Sparnocchia et al., 2006). Several studies suggest that the PJ pattern is an important source of predictability over the East Asian region (Kosaka et al., 2012, 2013; Wu et al., 2016; Xie et al., 2009). The PJ pattern is generally forced by deep convection in the western Pacific (near the Philippines) and propagates poleward as thermally driven Rossby waves (Hoskins & Karoly, 1981; Sardeshmukh & Hoskins, 1988). Detailed understanding on the pattern and other heatwave-related atmosphere-ocean coupled modes would enhance the prediction of heatwave in subseasonal to seasonal timescale. In addition to the PJ pattern, the recently emerging meridional wave train phenomenon (Kornhuber et al., 2017, 2019; Petoukhov et al., 2013; Yoon et al., 2020) is another important process that requires further investigation.

Data Availability Statement

Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S) (2017): ERA5: Fifth generation of ECMWF atmospheric reanalyses of the global climate. Copernicus Climate Change Service Climate Data Store (CDS), date of access. <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/home>. Met Office Hadley Centre; National Centers for Environmental Information—NOAA (2020): HadISD: Global sub-daily, surface meteorological station data,

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