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1 Bay of Bengal cyclone extreme water-level estimate uncertainty

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3

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9

10 **ABSTRACT**

11 [1] Accurate estimates of storm surge magnitude and frequency are essential to coastal flood
12 risk studies; however uncertainty within such calculations for the Bay of Bengal is poorly
13 understood. We use the IBTrACs dataset to estimate natural variability in five key parameters
14 used to describe an idealized cyclone, and create a set of idealized but equally likely “1 in 50
15 year” recurrence interval cyclone events. Each idealized cyclone is then used to force a storm
16 surge model giving predicted peak water-levels along the northern Bay of Bengal coast.
17 Finally, this extreme water level uncertainty is propagated through a hydrodynamic
18 inundation model to predict flood extent and depth over inland coastal floodplains. The
19 descriptive parameters of the most extreme cyclones showed no dependence on their landfall
20 location which allows us to pool characteristics for the entire Bay of Bengal. Instead we find
21 the variability of cyclone parameters translates into large uncertainty for coastal inundation,
22 which must be considered for flood risk management decisions.

23

24 **1. INTRODUCTION**

25 [2] Flood risk from tropical cyclone storm surge is high in the northern Bay of
26 Bengal, and projected to increase with sea-level rise (see Karim and Mimura, 2008). Several
27 hydrodynamic models have been developed to simulate storm surges in the Bay of Bengal
28 (e.g. Flather, 1994), which are typically forced with wind and pressure fields from an
29 idealised cyclone model (e.g. Jelesnianski and Taylor, 1973). One successful example that
30 has shown predictive skill is the IIT-D (Indian Institute of Technology – Delhi) storm surge
31 model (see Dube et al., 2009), which is used as part of an early warning system (Dube et al.,
32 1994) and credited with reducing loss of life in the 2007 Cyclone *Sidr* flooding event (Paul,
33 2009). Cyclone *Sidr* was a category IV storm that made landfall on the Bangladesh coastline
34 (at 89.8°E) on the 15th November 2007, resulting in a 5.8m surge which, despite the efforts of
35 forecasters, left 3406 people dead and caused damage totalling US\$1.7 Billion (Paul, 2009;
36 Dube et al., 2009). To further reduce storm surge fatalities in Bangladesh, improved coastal
37 flood risk estimates are a priority, and this demands the accurate estimation of storm surge
38 magnitude and frequency.

39 [3] In the Bay of Bengal, a lack of high quality water-level records with which to
40 estimate extreme water-levels and their recurrence interval, has led previous storm surge
41 flood hazard studies to estimate extreme water-levels from more available wind speed data
42 (e.g. Chowdhury et al., 1998). More recently, extreme water-level estimates have been
43 produced for the East Indian coastline by extrapolating cyclone parameters from an
44 observations database to create an idealized “1 in 50 year” cyclone event, which is then used
45 to force a physics-based numerical storm surge model to predict the extreme water-level at
46 the coast (e.g. Jain et al., 2010a; Rao et al., 2010). Five cyclone parameters are used to
47 determine the wind and pressure fields within the Jelesnianski and Taylor (1973) idealised
48 cyclone model, and are important to storm surge generation (e.g. Azam et al., 2004; Resio
49 and Westerink, 2008). These are: (1) the radius of maximum winds (RMAX), which is also

50 called storm size; (2) pressure drop (ΔP), calculated as the difference between a cyclone's
51 central pressure (CP) and the ambient pressure (we assume 1010hPa); (3) cyclone track speed
52 (mvspeed); (4) cyclone track (hence landfall location), and (5) the cyclone bearing during
53 landfall, which is called the angle of attack to the coast.

54 [4] Each of these parameters is subject to natural variability even for storms of the
55 same recurrence interval. For example, the estimated extreme pressure drop (ΔP) of the "1 in
56 50 year" cyclone has varied widely in three recent Bay of Bengal extreme water-level
57 estimation studies: (1) 66 hPa, based on analysis of cyclones in a small region of interest
58 (Rao et al., 2010); (2) between 66 hPa and 94 hPa, dependent upon the region of interest (Jain
59 et al., 2010a); (3) 68.7 hPa, based on the analysis of cyclones throughout the Bay of Bengal
60 (Sindhu and Unnikrishnan, 2011). However, the impact of such natural variability in cyclone
61 parameters on flood hazard has yet to be quantified. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to
62 understand the effect of the natural variability within these five key cyclone parameters to
63 determine the likely uncertainty in Bay of Bengal flood risk estimates.

64

65

2. METHODOLOGY

66 [5] The characteristics of key cyclone parameters (ΔP , RMAX, VMAX, mvspeed,
67 angle of attack) were analysed using the IBTrACs (version 2) dataset
68 (<http://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/oa/ibtracs/>, 2010). The Willoughby et al. (2006) equation (1) was
69 used to estimate the radius of maximum winds (RMAX), using parameters of maximum wind
70 speed (VMAX) and latitude (ψ), because observations of RMAX were not available within
71 version 2 of IBTrACs.

72

$$\text{RMAX} = 46.4 * \exp(-0.0155 * \text{VMAX} + 0.0169 * \psi) \quad (1)$$

73

74 [6] Sixty-six storm events that had a full dataset and made landfall (as a cyclone) in
the Bay of Bengal were identified between 1950 and 2008. Tropical storms (weather systems

75 with wind speeds less than 64 knots, based on the Saffir/Simpson scale), are likely to behave
76 differently to the cyclone events that cause serious coastal inundation; therefore, tropical
77 storms were removed from further analysis if VMAX was less than 64 knots during the 12
78 hour period before landfall. The natural variability and the spatial dependence (with landfall
79 zone) of the key cyclone parameters were determined from the remaining 18 observed Bay of
80 Bengal cyclone events. The statistical variation based on these analyses was then used to
81 force idealised cyclone models and propagated through a storm surge model (IIT-D) in a
82 series of sensitivity tests. The landfall location of cyclone *Sidr* was central to these tests
83 because the largest historical storm surges are generated from cyclone landfall in this region
84 (see As-Salek, 1998); also, a LISFLOOD-FP inundation model has been validated for the
85 cyclone *Sidr* event (see Lewis et al., 2012), which allows us to propagate storm surge
86 uncertainty through to predicted inland inundation extent.

87

88 **3. 1. SPATIAL SIMILARITY OF CYCLONE PARAMETERS AND NORMALITY OF** 89 **DATA**

90

91 [7] The spatial similarity of four cyclone parameters (ΔP , RMAX, VMAX, mvspeed),
92 and cyclone development characteristics ($\delta RMAX.\delta t$ and $\delta CP.\delta t$), were tested using the
93 Kolmogorov-Smirnov goodness-of-fit hypothesis test, based on four landfall regions: (1) Far
94 West (~Southeast India) 75-80.85°E, (2) Central West (~Northeast India) 80.85-86.35°E, (3)
95 Central East (~Bangladesh) 86.35-92.20°E and (4) Far East (~Myanmar) 92.20-100°E. The
96 18 observed cyclone tracks and the four landfall regions are shown in Figure 1. The regions
97 were delimited based on a number of previous studies (e.g. Rao et al. 2010; Jain et al. 2010a),
98 but modified to give a similar sample size (n between 4 and 5). With this sample size,
99 cyclone parameters from the four different sub-regions were found to be similar (at a 95%

100 significance level). We conclude that it is reasonable to pool cyclone parameters for the Bay
101 of Bengal, irrespective of landfall location. A Lilliefors' test showed a normal distribution for
102 each cyclone parameter (from the 18 events), with the exception of the radius of maximum
103 winds (RMAX), which was estimated (equation 1). Therefore, observations from all cyclone
104 events in the Bay of Bengal can be used to characterise the natural variability of cyclone
105 parameters assuming a normal distribution.

106

107 **3.2. NATURAL VARIABILITY WITHIN THE IDEALISED 1 IN 50 YEAR CYCLONE** 108 **PARAMETERS**

109

110 [8] A "1 in 50 year cyclone event" is the usual basis for flood risk modelling in this
111 region (e.g. Jain et al., 2010b), and, as cyclone parameters are similar throughout the Bay of
112 Bengal, the Sindhu and Unnikrishnan (2011) 50-year extreme ΔP estimate can be used (68.7
113 hPa) as the basis of an idealised cyclone event. Hence, by cascading observed variability
114 within key cyclone parameters through the storm surge model, the storm surge uncertainty
115 associated with this idealized 1 in 50 year cyclone event can be investigated.

116 [9] The cyclone wind-pressure relationship is actually a function of several factors
117 relating to an individual cyclone's environment and structure (Knaff and Zehr, 2007).
118 Furthermore, there is no way to prescribe wind speed uncertainty into most cyclone storm
119 surge models because it is estimated within the idealised cyclone model for computational
120 stability (see Jelesnianski and Taylor, 1973). Indeed, the variability within the wind-pressure
121 relationship can be seen in Figure 2. However, when considering RMAX and latitude (ψ)
122 uncertainty within the Jelesnianski and Taylor (1973) VMAX approximation (J-T range), we
123 see the variability within the wind-pressure relationship is greater based on a linear regression
124 (2) for the 18 cyclone events (R^2 of 81%, Spearman rank of 0.88 and $P > 0.01$). Moreover,

125 this observed wind-pressure variability (see data points of Figure 2) is much greater than the
126 differences between three typical Indian Ocean wind-pressure relationships (equations 3, 4
127 and 5; see Ozceluk et al., 2012). Therefore, based on our results, the natural variability with
128 VMAX is much greater than the uncertainty of prescribing the wind-pressure relationship in
129 an idealised cyclone model.

$$130 \quad \text{VMAX} = 0.4 * \Delta P + 30.45 \quad (2)$$

$$131 \quad \text{VMAX} = 3.44(\Delta P^{0.644}) \quad (3)$$

$$132 \quad \text{VMAX} = 6.3(\Delta P^{0.5}) \quad (4)$$

$$133 \quad \text{VMAX} = 7(\Delta P^{0.5}) \quad (5)$$

134 [10] To prescribe the natural variability of VMAX within a 50-year cyclone event, we
135 can reverse the linear regression of the wind-pressure relationship (2). Furthermore, we can
136 include 68% of the natural variability we see in the wind-pressure relationship of Figure 2,
137 with one standard deviation (s.d) of the linear wind-pressure relationship (2), either side of
138 the 50-year extreme ΔP estimate (68.7 hPa). The storm surge response to this 50-year ΔP
139 uncertainty range (which now includes VMAX uncertainty) can be simulated if a cyclone
140 track and RMAX are also synthesised. Uncertainty within the RMAX of a 50-year cyclone
141 event can be represented by propagating the estimated VMAX range through equation 1,
142 assuming constant latitude (ψ) of 15.5°N (the average latitude from the 18 observed cyclone
143 events). Furthermore, the storm surge response to uncertainty within each of the key idealised
144 parameters (for a 1 in 50 year cyclone event) can be tested by holding all other cyclone
145 parameters at a “standard” 50-year value, and propagating an appropriate uncertainty range
146 through the storm surge model; see Table 1.

147 [11] Extreme water-level estimate studies typically use observed tracks (e.g. Jain et
148 al., 2010a; Rao et al., 2010); however, a cyclone track can be synthesised by propagating the
149 angle of attack (mean \pm s.d.) outward from the coastline for 18 hours (the typical duration of

150 angle of attack observed) and connecting this position to an assumed cyclone genesis
151 location. Two genesis locations (a “standard” central Bay of Bengal location at 87.5°E 10°N,
152 and the cyclone *Sidr* genesis location: 93.2°E 9.6°N) were assumed for our genesis sensitivity
153 test. The mean angle of attack (cyclone bearing during landfall) was calculated from the 10
154 events observed in zones 2 and 3 of Figure 1, and the associated standard deviation either
155 side of this “standard” value was used for the angle of attack range in the sensitivity test (see
156 Table 1). The cyclone *Sidr* landfall location was chosen (89.76°E 21.75°N) as the “standard”
157 for our sensitivity test, with the position varying by 26 km (the average coastal spacing
158 between landfall locations from the 18 observed events) for sensitivity test B (see Table 1).

159 [12] No relationship between cyclone track speed (mvspeed) and cyclone strength
160 (ΔP) was found for the 18 observed cyclone events; however, the average track speed was
161 different before and after cyclone landfall. Therefore, a “standard” time-series (6 hour time-
162 step) of the cyclone position was determined assuming a central genesis location and the
163 average mvspeed pre and post-landfall. The uncertainty of mvspeed was assumed to be
164 represented by \pm one standard deviation (s.d.) of the mvspeed variance; see test E in Table 1.
165 Lastly, to synthesise a time-series (6 hourly) of pressure drop (ΔP) and storm size (RMAX)
166 for the storm surge model, the mean development (genesis to peak cyclone value) and
167 attenuation rates (decay of parameter after landfall) were calculated (from the 18 observed
168 events) for a “standard” case (assuming the peak value occurs for 10% of cyclone duration
169 before landfall). The sensitivity test of cyclone development (and attenuation; see test D in
170 Table 1) was constructed by including \pm one s.d. within the mean development and
171 attenuation characteristics of RMAX and ΔP (see Table 1).

172

173 **3.3. STORM SURGE UNCERTAINTY WITHIN AN IDEALISED 1 IN 50 YEAR**

174 **CYCLONE.**

175

176 [13] Storm surge uncertainty associated with this idealized 1 in 50 year cyclone event
177 making landfall at 89.76°E and 21.75°N (cyclone *Sidr* landfall location) was investigated by
178 individually cascading 68% of the calculated variability (for 18 events) through the storm
179 surge model for seven cyclone parameters (hence 14 model runs in total; see Table 1).
180 Surprisingly, storm size (RMAX) uncertainty and the uncertainty within cyclone
181 development characteristics ($\delta RMAX.\delta t$ and $\delta P.\delta t$) did not affect the magnitude of simulated
182 peak storm surge. However, such a result should be viewed with caution because of the
183 assumptions made and the absence of timing (e.g. tide-surge) interactions in the model.

184 [14] The uncertainty within the estimated storm surge was found to be very high.
185 Cyclone strength (ΔP) was found to have the greatest effect upon storm surge height. Cyclone
186 track uncertainty (genesis location, landfall and mvspeed) were also shown to have a
187 significant effect to simulated storm surge magnitude (see Table 1); however, the sensitivity
188 of storm surge along the coastline can be affected by cyclone parameter choice (see Azam et
189 al., 2004). Furthermore, the estimated uncertainty within angle of attack significantly altered
190 storm surge height distribution along the coastline (see Figure 3). Whilst the peak cyclone
191 parameter uncertainty (ΔP and RMAX) generated the greatest storm surge difference, the
192 spatial distribution of the peak storm surge may be very important for estimating coastal
193 flood hazard (Figure 3).

194 [15] The simulated storm surge uncertainty (see Figure 3) was propagated into the
195 LISFLOOD-FP inundation model of Lewis et al. (2012), assuming a mean spring tide
196 sinusoidal time series interpolated along the northern Bay of Bengal coastline. The
197 inundation difference of the peak cyclone parameter uncertainty within the idealised “1 in 50
198 year” cyclone event was calculated as 279 km² (test G of table 1), whilst uncertainty within
199 the coincidence of the storm surge and tidal peaks (i.e. maximum surge height at low water or

200 high water) resulted in a bigger inundation difference of 441 km². The largest inundation
201 difference of 1179 km² was simulated for the angle of attack sensitivity test (test C of Table
202 1). Therefore, uncertainty in inundation extent calculations arises from several factors, and
203 characterising the natural variability within an idealised extreme cyclone event is essential for
204 robust extreme water-level and flood risk estimates.

205

206

4. SUMMARY

207

208 [16] Extreme cyclone parameters within the Bay of Bengal have no relationship with
209 landfall location and are normally distributed. Therefore, the entire Bay of Bengal cyclone
210 observation record can be used to characterise the natural variability within extreme cyclone
211 parameters. Uncertainty within the parameters used to simulate a “1 in 50 year” cyclone was
212 found to be high, and led to considerable differences in simulated storm surges (of the order
213 of metres). Furthermore, not all uncertainty was propagated through the storm surge model
214 (e.g. tide-surge interaction, air-sea drag coefficient uncertainty and only 68% of observed
215 natural variability within a small sample size). The simulated storm surge uncertainty from an
216 idealised “1 in 50 year cyclone event” resulted in large differences in simulated inundation
217 extent. Therefore, a Joint Probability Method (JPM) of cyclone extreme water-level
218 estimation (e.g. Irish et al., 2011; Resio et al., 2009) may be a better approach to extreme
219 water-level estimation in regions such as the Bay of Bengal, because multiple cyclone
220 parameters are then statistically combined.

221 [17] The finding that the natural variability within storm size (RMAX) had no
222 significant effect on the simulated storm surge magnitude is doubtful; especially when
223 considering the importance of cyclone parameter uncertainty within inundation modelling of
224 hind-cast events (see Lewis et al., 2012; Madsen and Jakobsen, 2004). Therefore, future work

225 should try to obtain a longer cyclone parameter record with more storm size (RMAX)
226 observations (i.e. the recently released IBTrACs version 3). Certainly the uncertainty of
227 storm surge response to natural variability of cyclone parameters requires further
228 investigation before robust extreme water-levels are made for the Bay of Bengal.
229 Furthermore, future work should investigate flood risk uncertainty due to wave set-up and
230 tidal contributions (see Jain et al., 2010b; Sindhu and Unnikrishnan, 2011), inundation
231 modelling uncertainties (e.g. roughness and DEM uncertainty; see Lewis et al., 2012), and
232 projected future changes to the extreme water-level climate (see Karim and Mimura, 2008).
233 However, the work presented here indicates that robust extreme water-level estimates for the
234 Bay of Bengal (which include natural variability) should be a priority. Furthermore, in
235 addition to inundation risk analysis (as here) the statistical variance of cyclone parameters
236 could be used to generate a computationally-efficient short term ensemble forecast for flood
237 warning and evacuation.

238

239

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247

248

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308

309 **Figure Captions:**

310 Figure 1: The tracks of 18 cyclone events observed between 1990 and 2008, separated
311 into four landfall regions of the Bay of Bengal: (1) Far West 75-80.85°E, (2) Central West
312 80.85-86.35°E, (3) Central East 86.35-92.20°E and (4) Far East 92.20-100°E.

313 Figure 2: The observed variability within the cyclone wind-pressure relationship from
314 18 events (gray shaded region of equation 2), compared to three methods of VMAX
315 approximation (equations 3, 4 and 5) and the Jelesnianski and Taylor (1973) wind pressure
316 approximation (J-T range). The potential pressure drop (ΔP) uncertainty associated with the
317 natural variability of VMAX for a 68.7hPa cyclone is shown with an arrow, which is greater
318 than the uncertainty range from the J-T range and equations 3, 4 and 5).

319 Figure 3: Storm surge height along Northern Bay of Bengal coastline (km), due to
320 natural variability of key cyclone parameters for a “1 in 50 year” cyclone (assuming cyclone
321 Sidr landfall) for: cyclone genesis position (A), landfall location variation around the 2007
322 Sidr landfall position (B), angle of cyclone attack to the coastline (C), cyclone track speed (E)

323 and peak cyclone strength variation (ΔP uncertainty; G), which is compared to the
324 interpolated average admiralty tidal range along the coastline (H). Cyclone development (D)
325 and radius of maximum wind (F) sensitivity tests were omitted from this figure because no
326 storm surge difference was simulated (hence will have the same surge response as “central”).
327

Test	Cyclone parameter sensitivity test	Standard value assumed	Assumed variability of cyclone parameter		Peak storm surge difference (m)
A	Genesis	87.5°E 10°N (central)	93.2°E 9.6°N (<i>Sidr</i>)	87.5°E 10°N (central)	0.51
B	Landfall	89.76°E & 21.75°N	±26km of standard landfall position		0.89
C	Angle of attack	347°N	291°N	43°N	0.07
D	$\Delta P.\dot{\Delta}t$ (pre and post landfall)	0.5hPa/hr and -1.67hPa/hr	0.67 and -3.00 hPa/hr	0.33 and -0.34 hPa/hr	0.00
	RMAX. $\dot{\Delta}t$ (pre & post landfall)	-0.17km/hr and 1.17km/hr	-0.34 and 2.00 km/hr	0 and 0.34 km/hr	
E	Mvspeed (m/s) pre and post landfall	Pre; 3.8m/s post; 6.7m/s	4.8 and 9.8m/s	2.8 and 3.6m/s	1.39
F	Peak RMAX	25km	23km	27km	0.00
G	Peak ΔP	68.7 hPa	56.2 hPa	81.2 hPa	2.77





