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Evaluation of the utility of static and adaptive mesh refinement

² for idealized tropical cyclone problems in a spectral element

shallow water model

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ABSTRACT

The utility of static and adaptive mesh refinement (SMR and AMR, respectively) are ex-6 amined for idealized tropical cyclone (TC) simulations in a spectral element f-plane shallow 7 water model. The SMR simulations have varying sizes of the statically refined meshes 8 (geometry-based) while the AMR simulations use a potential vorticity (PV) threshold to 9 adaptively refine the mesh to the evolving TC. Numerical simulations are conducted for four 10 cases: (i) TC-like vortex advecting in a uniform flow, (ii) binary vortex interaction, (iii) 11 barotropic instability of a PV ring, and (iv) barotropic instability of a thin strip of PV. For 12 each case, a high resolution "truth" simulation is compared to two different SMR simula-13 tions and three different AMR simulations for accuracy and efficiency. The multiple SMR 14 and AMR simulations have variations in the number of fully-refined elements in the vicinity 15 of the TC. For these idealized cases, it is found that the SMR and AMR simulations are 16 able to resolve the vortex dynamics as well as the "truth" runs, with no significant loss in 17 accuracy in the refined region in the vortex vicinity and with significant speed-ups (factor 18 of 2-5). The overall accuracy is enhanced by a greater area of fully refined mesh in both the 19 SMR and AMR simulations. While these results are highly idealized, they demonstrate the 20 potential for SMR and AMR for the numerical simulation of TCs in three dimensions and 21 more complex models. 22

²³ 1. Introduction

Atmospheric motions span a multitude of different spatial and temporal scales. Examples are planetary waves at spatial scales of 10⁶ m which evolve over days to boundary layer

turbulent eddies at scales of 10^1 m which evolves over minutes. With current computational 26 resources, it is not possible to simulate the entire spectrum of atmospheric flows. One of the 27 goals in the design of next generation numerical weather prediction (NWP) models is that 28 they be unified, or that one nonhydrostatic dynamical core has the capability of simulating a 29 wide-spectrum atmospheric spatial and temporal scales of motion, from microscale to global, 30 and weather to climate. Severe and high-impact weather can often take the form of localized 31 weather systems, such as severe thunderstorms, tornadoes, fronts, and tropical cyclones. 32 With limited computational resources, it would be ideal to perform local mesh refinement 33 to resolve the details of these features, while resolving the large-scale features (e.g., synoptic 34 scale high pressure systems) at coarser resolution. 35

Currently, the primary method for tackling this scale discrepancy is by utilizing multiply 36 nested numerical weather prediction (NWP) models (Kurihara et al. 1979; Hodur 1997; 37 Kurihara et al. 1998; Skamarock et al. 2005; Doyle et al. 2014). However, a number of 38 drawbacks exist with this method. First, there exist multiple lateral boundaries, often with 39 the existence of non-physical blending zones. Secondly, there is inefficiency in performing the 40 same forecast on each nest since the nests are embedded within each other. Thirdly, due to 41 the extra communication required between nests, it is not expected that these setups would 42 scale that efficiently on multiple processors. An alternative method to embedded nests is 43 static or adaptive mesh refinement. In the former method, a mesh could be statically refined 44 over a region of interest (e.g., a city or coastline) providing more fine scale details of the flow 45 there. In the latter method, the mesh could adaptively refine and de-refine based on some 46 feature of interest, such as a tropical cyclone (TC). The earlier work of Berger and Oliger 47 (1984) and Skamarock and Klemp (1993) demonstrated the utility of AMR for hyperbolic 48

⁴⁹ equations. A review of the current state of AMR for atmospheric modeling is described in
⁵⁰ Jablonowski (2004) and Behrens (2006).

The purpose of the present study is to examine the utility of both SMR and AMR for 51 ideal TC simulations in a next generation dynamical core. The model is a planar spectral 52 element shallow water model, with similar numerical methods used in the Nonhydrostatic 53 Unified Model of the Atmosphere (NUMA; Giraldo and Restelli 2008). We examine the 54 utility of SMR and AMR for four flows, representing idealizations of TC dynamics in the 55 real atmosphere. First, we examine the a TC advecting in a uniform flow, representing a 56 TC tracking in the atmosphere in steady environmental flow. Secondly, a binary vortex 57 interaction is examined, representing the interaction of two TCs that are close together. 58 Thirdly, instabilities and mixing processes are examined in the hurricane inner-core (eye and 59 evewall). Fourth, the instability of the intertropical convergence zone (ITCZ), its breakdown, 60 and formation of TC-like vortices. In each case, we compare a series of SMR and AMR 61 simulations with variable regions of refined mesh to a "truth" simulation with uniform refined 62 mesh in order to obtain an understanding of efficiency and accuracy tradeoffs. The remainder 63 of this paper is organized as follows. In section 2, the continuous model equations and 64 numerical method are given. Each experimental setup is given in section 3, along with 65 details of the spatial and temporal discretization. The results from each experiment are 66 given and discussed in section 4. A summary of the main findings are given in section 5. 67

⁶⁸ 2. Model equations and numerical method

69 a. Continuous equations

The model is based upon the divergent barotropic (shallow water) equations in Cartesian coordinates on an f-plane. The governing equations are

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} - fv + g\frac{\partial h}{\partial x} = 0$$
(1)

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} + u\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + v\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + fu + g\frac{\partial h}{\partial y} = 0$$
(2)

$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial(uh)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial(vh)}{\partial y} = 0, \tag{3}$$

where u is the zonal momentum per unit mass, v is the meridional momentum per unit mass, h is the fluid depth, and f is the Coriolis parameter. An important property of the unforced, inviscid shallow water equations (1)-(3) is the material conservation of potential vorticity,

$$\frac{DP}{Dt} = 0, (4)$$

where $P = (f + \zeta)/h$ is the potential vorticity, where $\zeta = \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$ is the relative vorticity and $D/Dt = (\frac{\partial}{\partial t}) + u(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}) + v(\frac{\partial}{\partial y})$ is the material derivative.

72 b. Numerical method and mesh refinement algorithms

The flux form of the continuous shallow water equations (1)–(3) are discretized using the continuous Galerkin (CG), or spectral element, numerical method. The flux form shallow water equations are written in compact vector form as follows:

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{U}}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \left(\frac{\mathbf{U} \otimes \mathbf{U}}{\varphi} + \frac{1}{2}\varphi^2 \mathbf{I}_2\right) + f\mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{U} = 0$$
(5)

$$\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \mathbf{U} = 0, \tag{6}$$

⁷³ where $\mathbf{U} = \varphi \mathbf{u}$, $\mathbf{u} = (u, v, 0)^T$ is the velocity vector (where the superscript T denotes the ⁷⁴ transpose), $\varphi = gh$ with h being the fluid height and g the gravitational constant. Other ⁷⁵ quantities requiring definition include: $\mathbf{I}_2 \in \mathcal{R}^2$ is an identity matrix, $\mathbf{k} = (0, 0, 1)^T$ is the ⁷⁶ vector pointing upwards (along the z-coordinate which coincides with the direction along ⁷⁷ which h is measured), \otimes denotes the tensor product operator, and $\nabla \cdot$ denotes the divergence ⁷⁸ operator.

⁷⁹ High order CG methods for the shallow water equations are given in Ma (1993) and ⁸⁰ Taylor et al. (1997), and the numerical model used is this study is based upon the specific ⁸¹ methods discussed in Giraldo (2001) and Giraldo and Restelli (2008). The spectral element ⁸² method has been applied to numerous idealized test cases, as well as more complicated ⁸³ idealized tests cases of atmospheric phenomena, such as moist experiments of a squall line ⁸⁴ (Gabersek et al. 2012).

⁸⁵ A brief overview of the elemental CG method is given here. Given a computational ⁸⁶ domain Ω , the domain is first decomposed into a number of elements N_e as

$$\Omega = \bigcup_{1}^{N_e} \Omega_e \tag{7}$$

where Ω_e is one element. In each element, the weak integral form of the shallow water equations above is taken, and the solution is expanded as

$$q_N(x, y, t) = \sum_{j=1}^{M_N} \chi_j(x, y) q_j(t)$$
(8)

where q_N is a prognostic variable, $M_N = (N+1)^2$, N is the polynomial order, and χ_j is a

⁹⁰ local basis function. In the CG method, neighboring elements share interface points and in ⁹¹ each element the solution is obtained at the Legendre-Gauss-Lobatto (LGL) nodal points. ⁹² As an example, Fig. 1 shows the LGL nodal points inside one element for N = 5.

The mesh refinement algorithm is based upon Kopera and Giraldo (2014, 2015), and uses 93 a forest of quad trees (i.e., each internal node has four children), similar to the approach 94 used by St-Cyr et al. (2008). In the refinement procedure, the polynomial order N is held 95 constant, while the mesh is refined (i.e., h-refinement is done instead of p-refinement). For 96 the experiments here, a maximum of two levels of mesh refinement is used, so that a fully 97 refined element is four times the horizontal resolution of a coarse element. Additionally, the 98 refinement algorithm includes the functionality to generate an arbitrary number of layers of 99 refined mesh cells extending away from the feature of interest. This is hereafter referred to 100 as the "buffer" region. The AMR criterion for this study is the potential vorticity P, and 101 refinement and coarsening of the elements is accomplished based on a threshold in P. An 102 attractive feature of PV is that linear inertia-gravity waves have zero PV, eliminating the 103 possibility of AMR tracking fast-mode inertia-gravity waves. The SMR criterion is based 104 subjectively on different area sizes around the feature of interest. 105

¹⁰⁶ 3. Initial conditions and model setup

Four different test cases are examined and described in detail below. These cases are: (i) TC vortex moving in a uniform flow, (ii) binary vortex interaction, (iii) dynamic instability of the hurricane eyewall, eye mesovortex formation and mixing between the eyewall and eye, and (iv) formation of TC-like vortices from the barotropic instability of a shear zone. These

cases are idealizations of TC dynamics occurring in the real atmosphere. In order to relate 111 the simulations to the real processes, Fig. 2 shows an example real-case scenario that each test 112 case is designed to represent. In Fig. 2a, Hurricane Andrew is shown moving west towards 113 Florida, being advected by the easterly flow around the subtropical ridge to its north (case 114 1 idealization). In Fig. 2b, the binary vortex interaction of two storms Typhoons Melor and 115 Parma are shown. The differential advection induced from each cyclone advects the other 116 creating a net cyclonic motion (the Fujiwhara effect; Fujiwhara 1921) (case 2 idealization). 117 In Fig. 2c, the instability and break down of the eyewall of Hurricane Dolly (2008) is shown, 118 leading to an asymmetric radar reflectivity pattern there (case 3 idealization). Finally, in 119 Fig. 2d, the instability and breakdown of the ITCZ is shown over days. The deep convection 120 along the ITCZ is observed to undulate and finally breakdown into distinct tropical cyclones 121 (case 4 idealization). 122

¹²³ a. Case 1: TC vortex advecting in a uniform flow

The first test case is a TC-like vortex advecting in a uniform flow, which is an idealization of a TC moving with the environmental flow in the atmosphere. The initial vortex is constructed as a Rankine vortex in polar coordinates $(r, \phi, \text{ where } r = (x^2 + y^2)^{1/2}$ and ϕ is the azimuthal angle in radians) according to

$$v_{\phi}(r,\phi,0) = \begin{cases} \zeta_1 r/2 & 0 \le r \le r_1, \\ \zeta_1 r_1^2/(2r) & r_1 \le r < \infty, \end{cases}$$
(9)

where v_{ϕ} is the tangential velocity, $\zeta_1 = 1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and $r_1 = 50 \text{ km}$. With these parameters, the peak tangential velocity at r = 50 km is 25 m s⁻¹. A smooth radial decay function $(1 - r/r_{\rm cut})^2$ is added to the tangential winds so that $v_{\phi}(r, \phi, 0) = 0$ at $r_{\rm cut}$, with a cutoff radius $r_{\rm cut} = 220$ km. The vortex Cartesian momentum components u and v are next specified and then the uniform zonal flow $u_0 = 10$ m s⁻¹ is added to u. This experiment is done on an f-plane with f = 0. The initial balanced fluid depth is determined by solving the nonlinear balance equation

$$g\nabla^2 h = f\nabla^2 \psi - 2\left[\left(\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x \partial y}\right)^2 - \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2}\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial y^2}\right],\tag{10}$$

¹²⁴ using the CG method, where $\zeta = \nabla^2 \psi$, $u = \partial \psi / \partial y$ and $v = -\partial \psi / \partial x$.

The equations are solved on a square domain of 600 km \times 600 km. The setup is a zonal channel flow, with no-flux boundary conditions applied at the north and south lateral boundaries, and periodic boundary conditions applied at the west and east boundaries. The simulation is run for one revolution, so the final TC is located at the starting point, for comparison to the analytic solution which is the initial condition.

130 b. Case 2: Binary vortex interaction

The second case is a binary vortex interaction (Dritschel and Waugh 1992; Prieto et al. 2001, 2003). In this case, two TC-like vortices are offset by a certain distance and allowed to interact with one another. Depending on the offset distance, and the size and intensity of each vortex, different interactions can occur such as complete merger, complete straining out, partial straining out, elastic interaction (Prieto et al. 2003). The case we choose here is an elastic interaction, where each vortex retains its shape, but the interaction of the two vortices cause a net cyclonic motion (the Fujiwhara effect).

¹³⁸ The initial condition for the binary vortex interaction case consists of two offset Rankine

¹³⁹ vortices. Each vortex is constructed according to

$$v_{\phi}(r,\phi,0) = \begin{cases} \zeta_1 r/2 & 0 \le r \le r_1, \\ \zeta_1 r_1^2/(2r) & r_1 \le r < \infty, \end{cases}$$
(11)

where $\zeta_1 = 1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$. The first vortex is positioned at (x, y) = (15, 0) km and the second vortex is positioned at (x, y) = (-15, 0) km. The same r_{cut} as in case 1 is applied to each vortex to ensure the winds decay to zero before the lateral boundary. No-flux boundary conditions are used at each lateral boundary. The nonlinear balance equation (8) is solved using the initial condition of both vortices in order to obtain the corresponding h(x, y, 0)field, only with $f = 1.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$.

¹⁴⁶ c. Case 3: Barotropic instability of the hurricane eyewall

The third case is the barotropic instability of the hurricane eyewall. The hurricane eyewall can largely be described as a three-region model: (i) low vorticity eye, (ii) high vorticity eyewall, and (iii) low vorticity environment. Observations of such vorticity structures in real hurricanes are given in Kossin and Eastin (2001) and Hendricks et al. (2012). An idealization of this structure can be constructed according to Schubert et al. (1999) using the tangential velocity profile

$$v_{\phi}(r,\phi,0) = \frac{1}{2r} \begin{cases} \xi_1 r^2 + \xi_2 r^2 & 0 \le r \le r_1 \\ \xi_1 r_1^2 + \xi_2 r_2^2 & r_1 \le r \le r_2, \\ \xi_1 r_1^2 + \xi_2 r_2^2 & r_2 \le r \le \infty \end{cases}$$
(12)

which defines a discrete three region model of axisymmetric relative vorticity

$$\zeta(r,\phi,0) = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial(rv)}{\partial r} = \begin{cases} \xi_1 + \xi_2 & 0 \le r \le r_1 \\ \xi_2 & r_1 \le r \le r_2, \\ 0 & r_2 \le r \le \infty \end{cases}$$
(13)

Here $\xi_1 = -3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$, $\xi_2 = 3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$, $r_1 = 40 \text{ km}$ and $r_2 = 50 \text{ km}$. The hurricane eye is defined as the region less than r_1 , the eyewall is defined as the region between r_1 and r_2 , and the environment is defined as the region between r_2 and infinity. Similar to the previous experiments, a smooth radial decay function $(1 - r/r_{\text{cut}})^2$ is added to the tangential winds so that $v_{\phi}(r, \phi, 0) = 0$ at r_{cut} . The cutoff radius $r_{\text{cut}} = 220 \text{ km}$. No-flux boundary conditions are used at each lateral boundary.

The nature of the instability is as follows. Each vorticity gradient of the ring supports 159 a vortex Rossby wave (Montgomery and Kallenbach 1997). The inner vortex Rossby wave 160 progrades relative the mean flow, while the outer vortex Rossby wave retrogrades relative 161 to the mean flow. Thus it is possible for each of these waves to have the same angular 162 velocity, or be phase-locked, leading to the barotropic instability of the ring. A comprehensive 163 linear stability analysis of this structure is provided by Schubert et al. (1999), and nonlinear 164 simulations and discussions of aspects of this problem are given in Kossin and Schubert 165 (2001) and Hendricks et al. (2009). 166

To initiate the instability process, a broadband perturbation was added to the basic state

vorticity (13) of the form

$$\zeta'(r,\phi,0) = \zeta_{amp} \sum_{m=1}^{8} \cos(m\phi + \phi_m) \quad \times \begin{cases} 0 & 0 \le r \le r_1, \\ 1 & r_1 \le r \le r_2, \\ 0 & r_2 \le r < \infty, \end{cases}$$
(14)

where $\zeta_{\rm amp} = 1.0 \times 10^{-5} \, {\rm s}^{-1}$ is the amplitude and ϕ_m the phase of azimuthal wavenumber 167 m. For this set of experiments, the phase angles ϕ_m were chosen to be random numbers 168 in the range $0 \le \phi_m \le 2\pi$. In real hurricanes, the impulse is expected to develop from 169 a wide spectrum of background turbulent and convective motions. Similar to case 1, the 170 nonlinear balance equation (8) is solved to obtain the corresponding h(x, y, 0) field, with 171 $f = 1.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$. This ring has a thickness parameter $\delta = r_1/r_2 = 0.8$ and hollowness 172 parameter $\gamma = (\xi_1 + \xi_2)/\zeta_{av} = 0$ (where ζ_{av} is the average inner-core vorcity). According to 173 the linear stability analysis of Schubert et al. (1999), this ring is most unstable to azimuthal 174 wavenumber m = 5, with an *e*-folding time of 0.57 h. 175

176 d. Case 4: Barotropic instability of a shear zone

The fourth test is the examination of the formation of TC-like vortices through the barotropic instability of a region of large horizontal velocity shear. An example of such a process occurring in the real atmosphere is the instability of the inter-tropical convergence zone (ITCZ) in the eastern North Pacific ocean basin, causing it to undulate over days, and eventually break down and form pools of high PV (Fig. 2d). Provided favorable conditions, these PV pools can then form into TCs. An observational and modeling study of the genesis of TCs from this formation mechanism is given in Ferreira and Schubert (1997). A similar experiment is conducted here. The initial condition is constructed as an idealization of the ITCZ, with easterly flow to the north and westerly flow to the south. A linear function is assumed to bridge the two regions, forming a thin strip of cyclonic vorticity. Mathematically, the initial condition is

$$u(x, y, 0) = \begin{cases} -u_0 & y \ge y_0, \\ -u_0 y/y_0 & -y_0 \le y \le y_0, \\ u_0 & y \le -y_0, \end{cases}$$
(15)

where $u_0 = 20 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ and $y_0 = 100 \text{ km}$. Here, v(x, y, 0) = 0 and h is determined by solving the geostrophic balance equation analytically,

$$h(x, y, 0) = \begin{cases} fu_0 y/g & y \ge y_0, \\ [fu_0/(2gy_0)](y^2 + y_0^2) & -y_0 \le y \le y_0, \\ -fu_0 y/g & y \le -y_0, \end{cases}$$
(16)

188 where $f = 1.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$.

The strip of PV supports the existence of two counter-propagating Rossby waves, one 189 on the northern PV gradient which propagates to the east and one on the southern PV 190 gradient which propagates to the west. These two waves can phase-lock and grow, leading 191 to the break down of the strip into vortices. A linear stability analysis of this structure is 192 given by Gill (1980), and here we provide a basic overview of the stability characteristics. 193 Assuming separation of the meriodinal and zonal structure, Rossby wave solutions of the 194 form $\psi'(x, y, t) = \Psi(y) \exp(ik(x - ct))$ are sought, where ψ' is the wave streamfunction. 195 Here, $c = c_r + ic_i$ is the complex phase velocity, and k is the zonal wavenumber. The linear 196

stability analysis of this simple shear zone indicates the most unstable zonal wavenumber 197 $k = 0.3984/y_0 = 3.984 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^{-1}$, or approximately 1577 km. The domain used here is 198 $8000 \text{ km} \times 8000 \text{ km}$, therefore the most unstable mode is zonal wavenumber-5. The growth 199 rate $kc_i = 0.2012u_0/y_0 = 4.024 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$, corresponding to an *e*-folding time of 6.9 hours. 200 In order to initiate the instability, a weak amplitude zonal wavenumber-5 perturbation in 201 vorticity is applied to the region of constant background vorticity (shear zone). The lateral 202 boundary conditions for this run are the same as case 1, no-flux conditions are applied at 203 the north and south boundaries and periodic conditions are applied at the west and east 204 boundaries. 205

206 e. Discretization and model setup

For all simulations, 5th order polynomials (N = 5) are used in each element, and a fourth 207 order explicit Runge-Kutta scheme is used for the temporal integration. No diffusion is used 208 in the experiments, however a modal filter is applied to help control nonlinear instability. 209 For each initial condition listed above, six numerical simulations are performed: (i) a high 210 resolution "truth" simulation (FINE), (ii) A large statically refined mesh around the TC 211 processes (SMR2), (iii) a smaller statically refined mesh (SMR1), (iv) adaptive mesh refine-212 ment with a buffer of 6 fully refined elements (AMR3), (v) adaptive mesh refinement with 213 a buffer of 3 fully refined elements (AMR2), and (vi) adaptive meshfinement with no buffer 214 (AMR1). The FINE numerical simulation is the "truth", and is expected to simulate the 215 phenonema with the most accuracy. The varying SMR and AMR simulations are intended 216 to help retain the accuracy of the solution in the vicinity of the TC while also saving on 217

computational time. All simulations are run at the time step of the FINE simulation since our goal is understanding computational aspects only with regard to the spatial variation. The discretization, horizontal resolution, and model setup parameters for all experiments are given in Table 1. Since N = 5 polynomials are used in each element, an approximate effective resolution can obtained by dividing the element size by a factor of 5. However, the actual minimum grid spacing is less than this number since the LGL points are unequally spaced, and closer together near the element boundary (Fig. 1).

225 4. Results

In this section, the qualitative results of each simulation are described, followed by a quantitative analysis of the solution accuracy and computational aspects. For cases 1 and 2 which simulate vortex advection, the results are described in terms of the prognostic variables of zonal and meriodional velocity. For cases 3 and 4 which simulate barotropic instability, the results are described in terms of the PV in order to better illustrate the salient dynamics.

231 a. Case 1

The initial condition of case 1 is given in Fig. 3. Here the magnitude of the perturbation velocity vector $((u - u_0)^2 + v^2)^{1/2}$ for each simulation is shown in colored contours, with the elements overlayed. Note that only the element boundaries are overlayed, and not the actual grid of nodal points inside each element. The uniform resolution mesh (FINE simulation) is shown in Fig. 3a. In Fig. 3b, the SMR2 simulation is shown which has fully refined mesh for -200 km < y < 200 km. The SMR1 initial condition is shown in Fig. 3c, which has fully refined mesh for -100 km < y < 100 km. The initial conditions for the AMR3, AMR2, and AMR1 simulations are shown in Fig. 1d,e,f, respectively. Here initial condition is adapting to the PV threshold providing fully-refined mesh around the hurricane eyewall (yellow region of stronger winds) and eye. The AMR3, AMR2, and AMR1 buffers are readily evident as refined mesh extending from the center.

In Fig. 4, the simulation results are shown after a half-revolution. At this time, each 243 vortex has moved a distance of 300 km to the right, and the mid-point of each vortex is 244 at the left and right lateral boundaries. The vortex core is well resolved in each simulation 245 and there are no apparent phase errors as the vortex center of each simulation is exactly at 246 the lateral boundary. The outer wind field also appears well resolved by the SMR2, SMR1, 247 AMR3, and AMR2 simulations. There exists some azimuthal variability in the outer wind 248 field in the AMR1 simulation. This could be from some stronger gravity wave activity due to 249 imbalances generated as a result of the coarser representation of the outer wind field. Finally, 250 moving to Fig. 5, each simulation is shown at the final time after one complete revolution, 251 so that the vortex is at its initial position. At this time, all simulations appear to resolve 252 the vortex core well, and there are again no apparent numerical advection errors (moving 253 too slow or fast). Again, here the AMR1 simulation has the most noticable differences in 254 the outer wind field. Overall, qualitatively the results show that all AMR/SMR simulations 255 are able to resolve the core of the TC as it advects in the uniform flow. 256

257 b. Case 2

The initial condition for the binary vortex interaction is given in Fig. 6. The two Rankine 258 vortices are evident as the two wind maximas. All simulations are able to resolve the vortex 259 core well. Here the SMR2 simulation has statically refined mesh between -200 km < (x,y)260 < 200 km, and SMR1 simulation has statically refined mesh between -100 km < (x,y) <261 100 km. Moving to Fig. 7, each vortex is shown at t = 12 h. The vortices have rotated in 262 cyclonic motion approximately 135 degrees and the outer winds of each vortex has advected 263 the other. At this time each simulation has a similar orientation of the binary vortices, 264 indicating that even the AMR1 simulation is rotating the vortices at the correct angular 265 velocity. In Fig. 8, the solution is shown at t = 24 h, after another net cyclonic rotation of 266 135 degrees. At this time, all vortices appear to have a similar orientation with the exception 267 of the AMR1 simulation, which has not rotated cyclonically in the proper amount due to 268 the slight weakening of the vortex winds. However, all simulations do a reasonable job at 269 capturing the vortex core wind velocity magnitude. 270

271 C. Case 3

The initial condition of case 3 is given in Fig. 9. Here, a vortex with a very sharp gradient in tangential velocity is shown (ring of elevated PV). The initial condition of each simulation has fully-refined mesh over the ring of elevated PV. The AMR1 simulation (with no buffer) has a couple of coarse mesh cells at the very center as the initial mesh is adapting to the ring of large PV only. In Fig. 10, the simulation is shown at t = 2.5 h, as the most unstable mode of hybrid azimuthal wavenumbers m = 5/6 is occuring in each simulation. In Fig. 11,

the simulation is shown at t = 5 h, after the vortex has broken down into mesovortices 278 (evident by separate PV anomalies). Each simulation appears to be resolving these localized 279 features well. In Fig. 12, the simulation is shown as the mesovortices become strained and 280 filamented, and begin to merge into one central monopole. At this time, the structure 281 of the merging vortices looks quite similar in each run, demonstrating that the static and 282 adpative mesh refinement in the local region is working properly. Finally, in Fig. 13, the 283 simulations are shown at t = 48 h, after the initial PV ring has mixed into a monopole. 284 All simulations qualitatively have similar structures. The AMR1 simulation has a slightly 285 different orientation of the central monopole. 286

287 d. Case 4

The initial condition for case 4 is given for each simulation in Fig. 14. Decreasing amounts 288 of refined mesh are evident in moving from the FINE to the AMR1 case, with the AMR1 289 case only have refined mesh over the PV strip itself. In Fig. 15, each simulation is shown 290 at t = 45 h. Each simulation produces the theoretically predicted most unstable mode of 291 wavenumber-5. Upshear tilt of each PV anomaly associated with the northern and southern 292 counter-propagating Rossby waves is evident. The simulations are shown at t = 180 h in 293 Fig. 16. Here the breakdown of the PV strip has resulted in the five separate vortices. All 294 simulations are able to reproduce the five vortices. 295

296 e. Error Norms

In order to quantify aspects of these results, normalized L2 errors were computed between the final state in the FINE, or "truth", simulation, and the final state in the SMR/AMR simulations. In order to compute the L2 error norms, the solution at the AMR/SMR meshes at the final time are adapted to the FINE mesh. The normalized L_2 error is defined as

$$L2 = \left(\frac{\sum_{k=1}^{N} (q^{\text{num}}(x_k) - q^{\text{ref}}(x_k))^2}{\sum_{k=1}^{N} q^{\text{ref}}(x_k)^2}\right)^{1/2}$$
(17)

where q is the predicted variable, N is the total number of points, the superscript "num" 301 denotes the numerical simulations, and the superscript "ref" denotes the reference solution 302 (or in this case the FINE solution). The normalized L2 error is computed for the magnitude 303 of the velocity vector $|\mathbf{U} = (u, v)|$ and the geopotential $\varphi = gh$. Since we are interested in 304 how well the SMR/AMR simulations resolve the local TC processes in comparison to the 305 FINE simulations, the L2 errors are computed in two regions: (i) the entire domain, and 306 (ii) in the localized region in which the AMR/SMR simulations are designed to resolve. For 307 (ii), this region was defined as r < 100 km for cases 1, 2, and 3, and |y| < 500 km for case 308 4. These correspond to the regions of large PV in each case. 309

The L2 error norms for (i) and (ii) are shown in Figs. 17 and 18, respectively. In both figures, the green bars are the L2 errors in the magnitude of the velocity vector and the black bars are the L2 errors in the magnitude of fluid depth. In Fig. 17, for each case, there is a general trend of decreasing L2 error norms moving from the AMR to the SMR to the FINE simulations. In Fig. 17a, in terms of the velocity vector magnitude, the AMR1 simulation has one order of magnitude larger error than the AMR2, AMR3, and SMR1 simulations (10^{-2})

versus 10^{-3}). The SMR2 simulation has the lowest errors (10^{-4}) . A similar trend is evident 316 for φ , however the AMR1 simulation has a significantly larger error than the other runs. In 317 Fig. 17b, the results are shown for case 2. A similar trend is evident, however in this case the 318 AMR1 simulation L2 error in φ is not as significant. In Fig. 17c, a similar result is also seen in 319 the instability case. Moving to Fig. 17d, the results are broadly consistent with the previous 320 panels, however in this case the L2 error in φ shows a continuing decrease, rather than 321 asymptoting as in the previous results. Overall, the results for the entire domain indicate 322 that the SMR2 simulations are most accurate. There are not significant differences between 323 the AMR2, AMR3, and SMR1 simulations. In general, the AMR1 simulation typically has 324 larger errors than the other simulations. In Fig. 18, the same L2 error norms are shown 325 in the region of high PV. Broadly, the results are consistent with Fig. 17, however the 326 errors are generally lower. This is expected since the localized regions have only fully-refined 327 elements. In summary, these results indicate that very high accuracy may be obtained for 328 these TC simulations by using a large statically refined mesh (SMR2). However, the AMR 329 simulations with only three buffer elements (AMR2) are able to produce similar accuracy 330 of the 6 element buffer simulation (AMR3) and statically refined mesh (SMR1) simulations. 331 This is important, since as we will show in the next section, the computational expense of 332 AMR2 is significantly less than AMR3 and SMR1. 333

334 f. Computational aspects

Each simulation was executed on a single central processing unit (CPU). In Fig. 19, some computational aspects of the simulations are given. The point ratio is shown in Fig. 19a,

and in Fig. 19b, the speedup is given. The point ratio is defined as the inverse of the total 337 number of points of the FINE simulation divided by the average number of points of the AMR 338 simulations (since the points change in time), and the total fixed number of points in the 339 SMR simulations. The speedup is defined as the CPU time of the FINE simulation divided 340 by the CPU time of each of the other simulations. In Fig. 19a, for cases 1–3, the AMR1 341 simulation has approximately 9–12 times fewer nodal points than the FINE simulation. The 342 AMR1 simulation of case 4 has approximately 5 times fewer points due to the different 343 structure of this atmospheric phenomenon (zonal strip instead of a central vortex). There is 344 approximately a linearly decreasing trend of the point ratio moving to the AMR2, AMR3, 345 SMR1, and SMR2 simulations. Fig. 19b shows the speedup for each simulation over the 346 The AMR1 simulation has the largest speedup (factor of 3.5-5), there is a FINE run. 347 linearly decreasing trend of speedup moving to the FINE simulation. Overall, the speedup is 348 approximately one-half of the point ratio. Since the time step of each simulation is identical, 349 if there were no overhead in refining and de-refining elements, one would expect the speedup 350 factor to be similar to the point ratio. However, this overhead leads to lesser speedups. 351

352 g. TC vortex moving through a variable mesh

It has been discussed that in next generation NWP models without AMR, a useful domain structure for simulation of TCs would consist of a large region of refined mesh over the entire tropics, with coarser mesh away from the tropics. In this scenario, while often the TC would remain in the tropics, re-curving TCs would move from the fully-refined mesh to the coarser mesh. It is important to understand how a TC may change in structure moving through

such an abrupt mesh boundary. One would expect that without any forcing, the maximum 358 wind speed in the eyewall would be reduced by moving from finely resolved mesh to a coarser 359 mesh, as the eyewall region is less well resolved. The results of this test are given in Fig. 20. 360 Here, the TC vortex is initially centered on a 200 km square box of fully-refined mesh, and 361 then advected to the right in uniform zonal flow (as in case 1). At t = 4.165 h, half the 362 eyewall is in the coarse mesh, while half is in the fully-refined mesh. As expected, a slight 363 reduction in the tangential velocity is evident. As the vortex advects into the coarser mesh, 364 then back into the fine mesh, it loses kinetic energy. The fraction of final integrated kinetic 365 energy to initial integrated kinetic energy within r < 100 km is 0.999939, indicating that 366 the loss is quite small. These results indicate that the high order methods used here can 367 even broadly preserve aspects of the vortex inner-core structure while moving through an 368 abrupt mesh boundary when the elements are quadrupled in size. This result is broadly 369 consistent with Zarzycki et al. (2014), who found little numerical distortion when a dry TC 370 vortex moved through an abrupt transition of a variable mesh using the spectral element 371 dynamical core of the Community Atmosphere Model (CAM-SE). More energy loss would 372 be expected if a lower polynomial order (N < 5) or larger elements were used. 373

³⁷⁴ 5. Conclusions

A planar shallow water model based on the continuous Galerkin (spectral element) numerical method has been used to examine idealized tropical cyclone (TC) problems, with a focus on the applicability of static and adaptive mesh refinement (SMR and AMR, respectively). Four different idealizations of TC cases in the real atmosphere were simulated in this

model, with varying degrees of SMR and AMR. The SMR/AMR simulations were compared 379 to a high resolution "truth" simulation (noted previously as the FINE run) with regard to 380 solution accuracy and computational time. Three different AMR simulations were conducted 381 with varying levels of buffer regions (or the number of extra layers of fine elements added to 382 the finely resolved region). Two different SMR simulations were executed with varying levels 383 of refined mesh. For AMR simulations, a potential vorticity threshold was used for refining 384 and de-refining elements. With regard to solution accuracy, the SMR2 simulation (with the 385 largest area of fully refined mesh) was shown to be superior to the other simulations (at least 386 an order of magnitude lower L2 error) in comparison to the "truth" run. However, the AMR 387 simulations with only 3 buffer elements (AMR2) are shown to be as accurate overall as the 388 AMR simulations with 6 buffer elements (AMR3) and the smaller statically refined mesh 389 simulation SMR1. The AMR simulation with no buffer elements (AMR1) was generally 390 shown to be significantly less accurate than the others. Significant speed-ups were obtained 391 by using AMR. The AMR2 simulations (which are nearly as accurate as the AMR3 and 392 SMR1 simulations) had speed-ups of 2.5–4.5 over the FINE simulation. Thus, these results 393 indicate that AMR can be used at significantly less computational expense to resolve the 394 TC feature as well as the "truth" run, provided a sufficient buffer region exists. 395

In summary, we wish to note that we have examined static and adaptive mesh refinement for TC applications in a very idealized framework of a shallow water fluid in constant rotation. In the real atmosphere, TCs are three-dimensional phenomena, with complex physics interactions (microphysics, boundary layer, vertical mixing, and radiation), as well as interactions with the environment (such as vertical wind shear and ocean surface fluxes). One of the major challenges in the future with AMR is the development of scale-aware physical ⁴⁰² parameterizations that will seamlessly represent physical processes across scales. However,
⁴⁰³ these results demonstrate that from a purely dry dynamical modeling standpoint, AMR
⁴⁰⁴ shows great promise for TC applications.

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488 1 Experiment Parameters

	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4
Domain size (km)	600×600	600×600	600×600	8000×8000
Fully Refined				
Number of Elements	60×60	60×60	60×60	60×60
Element spacing (km)	10	10	10	133.33
Effective resolution (km)	2	2	2	26.2
Fully Unrefined				
Number of Elements	15×15	15×15	15×15	15×15
Element spacing (km)	40	40	40	533.33
Effective resolution (km)	8	8	8	106.67
Polynomial order	5	5	5	5
Model time step (s)	3	3	3	18

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FIG. 1. Grid of Legendre-Gauss-Lobatto nodal points inside one element using N = 5 order polynomials as basis functions.



FIG. 2. Satellite and radar observations depicting real TC processes that are being simulated in the idealized framework. Processes are highlighed in bold red. Panels: a) NOAA-12 visible satellite imagery of Hurricane Andrew advecting to the west toward Florida at 1231Z on 23 Aug 1992 (courtesy NOAA), b) MODIS visible satellite imagery of the binary vortex interaction of Tropical Storm Parma and Typhoon Melor on 6 Oct 2009 (courtesy NASA/GSFC), c) Radar image of Hurricane Dolly (2008) at 1002Z 7 Jul 2008 approaching the Texas coast (courtesy NOAA/NWS/KRBO). Significant azimuthal variability in the radar reflectivity in the eyewall is evident, and d) instability and breakdown of the ITCZ into multiple TCs over the timescale of days (reproduced from Ferreira and Schubert (1997)).



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FIG. 4. Simulations of case 1 after one-half revolution, at t = 8.33 h. Panels: a) FINE, b) SMR2, c) SMR1, d) AMR3, e) AMR2, f) AMR1.



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FIG. 17. Normalized L2 Errors for all cases for using all nodal points in the domain. Panels: a) ccase 1: advection, b) case 2: binary vortex, c) case 3: instability, d) case 4: ITCZ. The green bars represent the magnitude of the velocity vector and the black bars represent the geopotential.



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FIG. 19. Panels: a) Ratio of the number of FINE nodal points to the average number of nodal points in each of the other simulations, and b) Ratio of the CPU time of the FINE simulation to the CPU time of each of the other simulations.





FIG. 20. TC vortex moving through a fixed variable mesh. Panels: a) t = 0 h, b) t = 4.165 h, c) t = 8.333 h, d) t = 12.5 h, e) t = 16.667 h.