- Equilibrium tropical cyclone size in an idealized state of
- 2 axisymmetric radiative-convective equilibrium
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4 ABSTRACT

5 Abstract

6 1. Introduction

Our understanding of the dynamics of tropical cyclones (TCs) has improved considerably over the past three decades. The fundamental air-sea interaction instability that underlies their existence has been identified and placed within the context of a more general theory 9 of tropical cyclones as a Carnot heat engine (Emanuel 1986). Furthermore, both theory 10 and relatively simple dynamical models (Emanuel 1995a; Rotunno and Emanuel 1987) can 11 reproduce the characteristic features of mature tropical cyclones, including maximum wind 12 speed, central sea level pressure, and thermodynamic structure. Most recently, Emanuel and 13 Rotunno (2011) derived a full analytical solution for the radial structure of the axisymmetric 14 balanced tropical cyclone wind field at the top of the boundary layer. 15

However, this latest solution remains defined relative to a single free parameter: the outer 16 radius, r_0 . Indeed, despite wide recognition of the sensitivity of both storm surge (Irish et al. 17 2008) and wind damage (Iman et al. 2005) to storm size, size remains largely unpredictable, and relatively little observational or modeling work has been performed to try to elucidate the factors underlying its variability. In the absence of land interaction, size is observed 20 in nature to vary only marginally during the lifetime of a given tropical cyclone prior to 21 recurvature into the extra-tropics (Merrill 1984; Frank 1977; Chavas and Emanuel 2010; 22 Cheng-Shang et al. 2010), but significant variation exists from storm to storm, regardless of 23 basin, location, and time of year. Size is found to only weakly correlate with both latitude 24 and intensity (Merrill 1984; Weatherford and Gray 1988; Chavas and Emanuel 2010), as the 25 outer and inner core regions appear to evolve nearly independently. Chavas and Emanuel 26 (2010) found that the global distribution of r_0 is approximately log-normal, though distinct 27 median sizes exist within each ocean basin, suggesting that the size of a given TC is not 28 merely a global random variable but instead is likely modulated either by the structure of the initial disturbance, the environment in which it is embedded, or both.

Recent research has begun to explore the sensitivity of storm size to local thermodynamic variables. Observationally, Quiring et al. (2011) combine the Extended Best Track and

NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis datasets to demonstrate that various local environmental variables have at best a secondary influence on the radius of maximum wind (r_{max}) and the radius of 34 gale force winds in the Atlantic basin, with the exception of a positive correlation between 35 mid-level relative humidity and r_{max} . Idealized modeling studies in Hill and Lackmann 36 (2009) and Xu and Wang (2010) found that TCs tend to be larger when embedded in moister 37 mid-tropospheric environments due to the increase in spiral band activity and subsequent generation of diabatic potential vorticity which acts to expand the wind field laterally. Using a simple three-layer axisymmetric model, Smith et al. (2011) showed an optimum in storm size as a function of ambient planetary rotation attributed to the inhibitive effect of inertial stability on boundary-layer inflow as the rotation rate is increased. Finally, the seminal work 42 of Rotunno and Emanuel (1987) found in an idealized axisymmetric framework a strong relationship between the horizontal length scales of the initial and mature vortex. 44

A dynamical systems approach may provide a path forward in improving our under-45 standing of tropical cyclone size. Tang and Emanuel (2010) demonstrated analytically that 46 tropical cyclone intensity may be viewed as a non-linear dynamical system that evolves 47 towards a stable equilibrium whose value depends on the local environmental and initial 48 conditions. This behavior has been verified in a modeling context on both short time-scales (e.g. Rotunno and Emanuel (1987)) and long time-scales over which the storm's maximum 50 wind speed has achieved statistical equilibrium (Hakim 2011). However, no such theory 51 exists for the dynamical evolution of tropical cyclone structure, and the tropical cyclone at statistical structural equilibrium remains unexplored. This is of particular relevance given 53 the large range of variation in size observed in nature (Chavas and Emanuel 2010). 54

Thus, this work seeks to build upon the small base of literature on tropical cyclone size by systematically exploring the sensitivity of the structure of an axisymmetric tropical cyclone at statistical equilibrium to the set of relevant model, initial, and environmental dimensional variables. Expanding on the work of Hakim (2011), we perform our analysis in the simplest possible model and physical environment: a highly-idealized state of radiative-

convective equilibrium (RCE). The results of the sensitivity analysis are then synthesized via dimensional analysis to quantify how, at equilibrium, each structural variable of interest scales with the set of relevant input parameters. Section 2 details the methodology, including model description and experimental design. Results and comparison with existing theory are presented in section 3, with the potential implications of key findings discussed in section 4. Finally, section 5 provides a brief summary and conclusions.

$_{66}$ 2. Methodology

67 a. $Model\ description$

This work employs Version 15 of the Bryan Cloud Model (CM1), a non-hydrostatic atmospheric cloud-system resolving model (CSRM; original version described in Bryan and Fritsch (2002)) that has been applied to the study of a variety of convective systems including topographic flow (Miglietta and Rotunno 2010), tropical cyclones (Bryan and Rotunno 2009b), and mid-latitude squall lines (Parker 2008). CM1 was originally written with the goal of incorporating state of the art numerics and physics, in particular for moist processes, while satisfying near-exact conservation of both mass and energy in a reversible saturated environment. The model is set up in three-dimensions but can also be configured with identical parameters for two-dimensional axisymmetric (radius-height) geometry, a convenient property that will be exploited in this work.

CM1 solves the fully compressible set of equations of motion in height coordinates on an f-plane for flow velocities (u, v, w), non-dimensional pressure (π) , potential temperature (θ) , and the mixing ratios of water in vapor, liquid, and solid states (q_{χ}) on a fully staggered Arakawa C-type grid in height coordinates. The model has a rigid lid at the top with a 5-km thick damping layer beneath; similarly, there is a wall at the domain's outer horizontal edge with an adjacent damping layer whose thickness is set to approximately $\frac{1}{15}$ of the domain's width. Model horizontal (x-y) and vertical grid spacing are each constant in the domain. Model microphysics is represented using the Goddard-LFO scheme based on Lin et al. (1983),
which is a mixed-phase bulk ice scheme with prognostic equations for water vapor, cloud
water, rainwater, pristine ice crystals, snow, and large ice. For full details, see Bryan and
Fritsch (2002). Lastly, in lieu of a comprehensive scheme for radiative transfer, an idealized
scheme (discussed below) is imposed due to its simplicity.

Turbulence is parameterized using a Smagorinsky-type closure scheme (Smagorinsky 1963), which assumes steady and homogeneous unresolved turbulence, modified such that different eddy viscosities are used for the horizontal and vertical directions to represent the differing nature of turbulence between the radial and vertical directions in a highly anisotropic system such as in the inner core of a tropical cyclone. In the context of tropical cyclones, turbulence fulfills the critical role of counteracting eyewall frontogenesis by the secondary circulation that, in the inviscid limit, would lead to frontal collapse (Emanuel 1997). Meanwhile, in a three-dimensional RCE state, turbulence has minimal effect on the mean state.

99 b. Idealized model/environmental RCE set-up

We construct a highly-idealized model and environmental configuration in order to reduce the model atmospheric system to the simplest possible state (i.e. minimal number of
dimensional variables) that supports a tropical cyclone. Model horizontal and vertical grid
spacings are set to dx = dy = dr = 4 km and dz = .625 km, respectively, and no grid
stretching is applied. Surface pressure is set to 1015 hPa. Radiation is represented simply
by imposing a constant cooling rate (which is typical of the clear-sky mean tropical troposphere, see Hartmann et al. (2001)), Q_{cool} , to the potential temperature everywhere in the
domain where the absolute temperature exceeds a threshold value, T_{tpp} ; below this value,

Newtonian relaxation back to this threshold is applied:

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} = \begin{cases}
-Q_{cool} & T > T_{tpp} \\
\frac{\theta(T_{tpp}) - \theta}{\tau} & T \le T_{tpp}
\end{cases}$$
(1)

where θ is potential temperature, T is absolute temperature, τ is the relaxation timescale (set to 40 days). Thus, all water-radiation feedbacks are neglected. The lower-boundary sea surface temperature, T_{sst} , is set constant. Surface fluxes of enthalpy and momentum are calculated using standard bulk aerodynamic formulae

$$F_k = C_k \rho |\mathbf{u}| (k_s^* - k) \tag{2}$$

$$\tau_s = -C_d \rho |\mathbf{u}| \mathbf{u} \tag{3}$$

where F_k is the surface enthalpy flux, ρ is the near-surface air density, ${\bf u}$ is the near-surface 109 (i.e. lowest model level) wind velocity, k is the near-surface enthalpy, k_s^* is the saturation en-110 thalpy of the sea surface, τ_s is the surface stress, and the exchange coefficients for momentum, 111 C_d , and enthalpy, C_k , are set constant, despite their acknowledged real-world dependence 112 on wind-speed (Powell et al. 2003). Finally, some background surface enthalpy fluxes are 113 required to balance column radiative cooling in order to achieve RCE in the absence of 114 significant resolved wind perturbations (such as a tropical cyclone). Because axisymmetric 115 geometry precludes the direct imposition of a background flow, we instead simply add a con-116 stant gustiness, u_s , to **u** for the model calculation of (2). This set-up is conceptually similar 117 to that of Hakim (2011) with the important exceptions that here we employ a non-interactive 118 radiative scheme and we include background surface fluxes throughout the domain. 119

This configuration provides a simplified framework for the exploration of equilibrium tropical cyclone structure in RCE. Nolan et al. (2007) found that, in the presence of a "realistic" radiation scheme, the f-plane RCE state depends only on T_{sst} , u_s and very weakly on f. For this work, the idealized radiation scheme introduces two additional degrees of freedom, T_{tpp} and Q_{cool} , to which the RCE state is sensitive. Thus, we initialize each axisymmetric simulation with the vertical profiles of temperature and water vapor calculated as the 70-

100 day time- and horizontal-mean vertical profiles of temperature and water vapor from 126 the corresponding three-dimensional simulation on a 196x196x40 km domain with identical 127 T_{sst} , T_{tpp} , Q_{cool} , and u_s ; the RCE state is indeed found to be nearly insensitive to f (not 128 shown) and thus it is held constant at its control value to reduce computational load. This 129 domain size is specifically chosen to be large enough to permit a large number of updrafts 130 but small enough to inhibit convective self-aggregation (Bretherton et al. 2005) over a period 131 of at least 100 days, though absent any water-radiative feedbacks convective aggregation is 132 unlikely anyways. This approach ensures that each axisymmetric simulation begins very 133 close to its "natural" model-equilibrated background state (first emphasized in Rotunno and Emanuel (1987)) and thus is absent any significant stores of available potential energy that 135 may exist by imposing an alternate initial state, such as a mean tropical sounding. 136

The result of the above methodology is a model RCE atmosphere comprised of a tropo-137 sphere capped by a nearly isothermal stratosphere at temperature T_{tpp} . More generally, this 138 model tropical atmosphere may be thought of as an extension of the classical fluid system 139 in which a fluid is heated from below and cooled from above (albeit throughout the col-140 umn), but with two key modifications: 1) the energy input into the system is dependent on 141 wind-speed, thereby permitting the wind-induced surface heat exchange (WISHE) feedback 142 that is fundamental to steady state tropical cyclones (Emanuel 1986); and 2) the energy lost 143 from the system is dependent on an externally-defined temperature threshold, T_{tpp} , which 144 conveniently corresponds to the convective outflow temperature central to the maximum potential intensity theory of tropical cyclones. 146

147 c. Potential Intensity in RCE

The architecture of this model RCE state enables the equation for the maximum potential intensity to be reformulated in a useful manner. The generalized potential intensity (Emanuel

150 2010) is given by

$$V_p^2 = \frac{C_k}{C_d} \frac{T_{sst} - T_{tpp}}{T_{tpp}} (k_0^* - k)$$
(4)

151 Combining (4) with the surface enthalpy flux equation in (2) gives

$$V_p^2 = \frac{T_{sst} - T_{tpp}}{T_{tpp}} \frac{F_k}{\rho C_d |\mathbf{u}|}$$
 (5)

In RCE, column energy balance requires that the surface enthalpy flux into the column be exactly balanced by the column-integrated radiative cooling, which in this idealized set-up is given by

$$F_k = \int_{p_s}^{0} C_p \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} dp = \int_{p_s}^{0} C_p \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} \left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right)^{R_d/C_p} dp \approx C_p Q_{cool} \frac{\overline{\Delta p}}{g}$$
 (6)

where C_p is the specific heat of air, $\overline{\Delta p}$ is the mean pressure depth of the troposphere, and we have ignored any small contribution from Newtonian relaxation in the stratosphere. Plugging (6) into (5) results in

$$V_p^2 = \frac{T_{sst} - T_{tpp}}{T_{tpp}} \frac{C_p Q_{cool} \overline{\Delta p}}{g \rho C_d |\mathbf{u}|}$$

$$\tag{7}$$

Thus, (7) makes it readily apparent that potential intensity in RCE with constant tropospheric cooling is a function of four externally-defined parameters: T_{sst} , T_{tpp} , u_s , and Q_{cool} , with the tropospheric thickness Δp primarily a function of T_{tpp} . This fact will be leveraged in the set of experiments detailed below.

d. Initial condition

Bister and Emanuel (1997) demonstrated that the fundamental process during tropical cyclogenesis is the near-saturation of the column at the mesoscale in the core of the nascent storm. Thus, we superpose an initial perturbation upon the background RCE state by saturating the air at constant virtual temperature in a region above the boundary layer bounded by z = [1.5, 9.375] km and $r = (0, r_{0q})$ within a quiescent environment. We also test an initial mid-level vortex of the form used in Rotunno and Emanuel (1987), characterized by a radius of vanishing wind r_{0u} and a peak wind of $V_{m_0} = 12.5 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ at $r_{m_0} = r_{0u}/5$,

centered at $z = 4.375 \ km$ with azimuthal wind speeds above and below decaying linearly to zero over a distance of 2.875 km. However, as is shown below, the two approaches have similar results, and thus for the sake of simplicity we elect to initialize all other simulations with the mid-level moisture anomaly.

For the control simulation, model parameters are set to $C_d = C_k = .0015$, radial mixing

174 e. Control simulation parameter values

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length $l_h = 1.5 \text{ km}$ (Bryan and Rotunno 2009b), vertical mixing length $l_h = .1 \text{ km}$, and 176 $H_{domain} = 25 \text{ km}$; domain width is discussed below; environmental parameters are set to 177 $T_{sst} = 300 \ K, \ T_{tpp} = 200 \ K, \ f = 5 * 10^{-5} \ s^{-1}, \ Q_{cool} = 1 \ \frac{K}{day}, \ u_s = 3 \ ms^{-1};$ initial condition 178 parameters are set to $r_{0_q}=200~km$ and $r_{0_u}=400~km$. The control background RCE 179 sounding is displayed in Figure 1. The potential intensity, calculated from the initial RCE 180 sounding using the Emanuel sub-routine with zero boundary layer wind speed reduction and 181 including dissipative heating is $V_p = 93 \text{ ms}^{-1}$. This compares very well with the prediction 182 made by (7) of 92 ms^{-1} for $\rho=1.1~kgm^{-3}$ and a tropospheric pressure depth of 850 hPa. 183 The domain size for the control run requires special attention. Prior research modeling 184 tropical cyclones typically place the outer wall of the domain at a distance of 1000-1500 km 185 (e.g. Rotunno and Emanuel (1987); Hakim (2011)). However, as shown in Figure 2, which 186 depicts the quasi-steady radial profile of the azimuthal component of the gradient wind at 187 $z=1 \ km$, storm structure at statistical equilibrium is dramatically influenced by the radius 188 of the outer wall up to an upper bound. Beyond this upper bound, however, the equilibrium 189 storm is largely insensitive to the location of the wall. The theoretical basis underlying the 190 existence of this upper bound is discussed below. 191

Thus, because the outer wall is purely a model artifact, we set the outer wall conservatively at $L_{domain} = 12288 \ km$ for all simulations run herein. This has the added benefit of ensuring that the storm itself is not significantly altering the background environment, which may act to modify the potential intensity from its RCE value.

f. Characterizing equilibrium storm structure

Following the theory presented in Emanuel and Rotunno (2011), we characterize the 197 complete structure of the tropical cyclone wind field at the top of the boundary layer ($z \approx$ 198 (1 km) with three variables: the maximum gradient wind speed, V_m , the radius of maximum 199 gradient wind, r_m , and the outer radius, r_0 , where the wind vanishes. Importantly, only one 200 of the size variables, r_m and r_0 , is a free variable while the other is given by the analytical 201 solution. All simulations are run for 150 days in order to allow sufficient time for the full 202 tropical cyclone structure to reach statistical equilibrium. We then calculate a 2-day running 203 mean of the radial profile of the azimuthal gradient wind at approximately z = 1 km (i.e. 204 near the top of the boundary layer), from which we create a time-series of each variable. 205 This time averaging is necessary to reduce noise in the calculation of the gradient wind from 206 the full pressure field, the pitfalls of which are discussed in Bryan and Rotunno (2009a). 207 The equilibrium radial wind profile is defined as the time-mean of the 30-day period after 208 day 60 with the minimum time-variance in V_m . A dynamic equilibrium period is preferable to a static one (e.g. the day 100-150 mean) to account for certain simulations that exhibit 210 significant long-period departures in storm structure from an otherwise statistically-steady 211 state. This approach allows one to check that each variable has independently reached 212 statistical equilibrium. 213

Unfortunately, even in a modeling environment, direct calculation of r_0 is difficult due to 214 the noisy nature of the very outer edge of the model storm. Thus, here we employ the outer 215 wind structure model derived in Emanuel (2004) to extrapolate radially outwards to r_0 from 216 the radius of $V = .1V_p$, hereafter r_{mid} ; Chavas and Emanuel (2010) applied this methodology 217 to the radius of $12 ms^{-1}$, but in our case we will simulate storms with a wide range of peak 218 wind speeds, such that in some cases r_{12} may not be far from the radius of maximum winds 219 itself. The model assumes that the flow is steady, axisymmetric, and absent deep convection 220 beyond r_{mid} , resulting in a local balance between subsidence warming and radiative cooling. 221 Furthermore, given that both the lapse rate and the rate of clear-sky radiative cooling are 222

nearly constant in the real tropics, the equilibrium subsidence velocity, w_{cool} , can be taken to be approximately constant for a given background RCE state. In equilibrium, this subsidence rate must match the rate of Ekman suction-induced entrainment of free tropospheric air into the boundary layer in order to prevent the creation of large vertical temperature gradients across the top of the boundary layer. The radial profile of azimuthal velocity is therefore determined as that which provides the required Ekman suction, and is given by

$$\frac{\partial(rV)}{\partial r} = \frac{2r^2C_dV^2}{w_{cool}(r_0^2 - r^2)} - fr \tag{8}$$

where r is the radius and V is the azimuthal wind speed. The value of w_{cool} is calculated from the assumed balance between subsidence and radiative cooling

$$w_{cool} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} = Q_{cool} \tag{9}$$

where $\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z}$ is set to its mean value in the layer z=1.5-5~km (i.e. directly above the boundary layer) in the RCE initial sounding. For the control run, this gives $w_{cool}=.27~cms^{-1}$, which agrees well with the value of .23 obtained by calculating the mean (negative) vertical velocity in the region r=[400,800]~km and z=[1.5,5]~km from the equilibrium state of the control simulation. Finally, we solve for r_0 in (8) using a shooting method.

236 q. Experimental approach: parametric sensitivities and dimensional analysis

We begin by running a Control simulation whose parameter values are given above and 237 the evolution of which is discussed below. We then perform a wide range of experiments in 238 which we independently and systematically vary all dimensional parameters deemed relevant 239 to the dynamics of the system: l_h , f, r_{0_q} , r_{0_u} , T_{sst} , T_{tpp} , Q_{cool} , and u_s ; the latter four are 240 subsumed within V_p as discussed in Section 3(b). For each of l_h , f, r_{0_q} , and r_{0_u} , we run six 241 simulations relative to the control case: three with the parameter successively halved and 242 three successively doubled from the control value. For V_p , we perform a suite of simulations 243 varying its four input external parameters (Eq. (1)) that spans a reasonable range of values 244 of V_p . 245

The final scaling results then indicate to which dimensional variables the equilibrium storm structure is systematically sensitive. Dimensional analysis is then applied to quantify the scaling relationship between each structural variable of interest and all relevant dimensional variables simultaneously.

$_{250}$ 3. Results

a. Control run

Figure 3 displays the time evolution of the 2-day running mean of V_m , r_m , and r_0 for the 252 control simulation as well as estimated time-scales to equilibrium for each individual variable. 253 As noted above, equilibrium is defined simply as the 70-100 day mean value, and the time-254 scale to equilibrium, τ_x^* , where x is the variable of interest, is defined as the starting time of the first 30-day interval, iterating backwards from day 70, whose mean value is within 256 10% of the equilibrium value. All three variables exhibit similar qualitative evolutions: 257 rapid increase during genesis to a super-equilibrium value followed by a more gradual decay 258 to equilibrium. However, the degree of excess over equilibrium is largest for r_0 ($\sim 70\%$), 259 moderate for r_m ($\sim 50\%$) and relatively small ($\sim 20\%$) for V_m . In the case of V_m , the 260 fractional overshoot is slightly smaller than the value found in Hakim (2011) of approximately 261 30% for the same radial turbulent mixing length, though Hakim (2011) analyzed the surface 262 wind rather than the gradient wind near the top of the boundary layer. Moreover, the 263 time-scales to equilibrium for storm size are significantly longer for size ($\tau_{rm}^* = 54 \; days$ and 264 $\tau_{r0}^* = 58 \; days$) than for intensity ($\tau_V^* = 30 \; days$). The details of the transient phase of the structural evolution will be explored in a separate work. Ultimately, the control simulation's equilibrium storm structure is characterized by $V_m^* = 73 \text{ ms}^{-1}, r_m^* = 53 \text{ km}, r_0^* = 1150 \text{ km}.$ 267 These results suggest that modeling tropical cyclones over a period sufficient to achieve 268 quasi-equilibrium in intensity (typically 10-20 days), as is commonly done in the literature, 269 may result in a storm that has not reached structural equilibrium or else has done so artifi-270

cially due to the domain-limitation imposed by the model's outer wall.

272 b. Sensitivity to potential intensity

Prior to exploring the sensitivity of storm structure to the full suite of dimensional 273 parameters, we may first seek to exploit our relation for potential intensity in RCE given 274 by Eq. (7) in order to simplify the dimensional space amenable to testing. Given (7), one 275 may hypothesize that the primary role of the dimensional parameters T_{sst} , T_{tpp} , Q_{cool} , and 276 u_s is to modulate the potential intensity. To test this hypothesis, we explore the sensitivity 277 of storm structure to the potential intensity, the range of values of which is determined by 278 independently varying each of the above four parameters over the following ranges (listed in 279 order of increasing potential intensity; middle value corresponds to the original control case): 280 $T_{sst} = 295, 297.5, 300, 302.5, 305 K; T_{tpp} = 250, 225, 200, 175, 150 K; u_s = 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 ms^{-1};$ 281 $Q_{cool} = .25, .5, 1, 2, 4 \ Kday^{-1}$. For simulations with T_{tpp} colder than the control run value, 282 the model domain height is increased to 30 km to ensure that there is no interference between the convective outflow and the damping layer near the model top. 284

The resulting scaling of the maximum gradient wind speed at the top of the boundary layer with the potential intensity is shown in Figure 4. In this case, in the absence of environmental conditions that might inhibit intensification (e.g. vertical wind shear, upper ocean mixing), one expects that V_m ought to scale linear with V_p and therefore that the scaling with the four input sub-variables should collapse to this single linear scaling, and this is indeed the case. The fit is particularly tight for potential intensities at or below the control value.

Of greater interest, however, is the question of whether such a collapse is observed in the scaling of the size variables with V_p . Figure 5 displays the scalings for r_m and r_0 , which indeed also approximately collapse to a single scaling with V_p , particularly for r_0 . The largest spread exists in r_m at large values of potential intensity, though the overall quasi-linear trend remains evident. Moreover, the scalings for Q_{cool} are monotonic in both V_m and r_m but

exhibit some non-linearity, with negative curvature in the former and positive curvature in 297 the latter, suggesting a shift in r_m while conserving angular momentum. Meanwhile, the 298 scaling for r_0 diverges for low values of Q_{cool} due to the direct dependence of the calculated 299 radiative subsidence rate, w_{cool} , used to calculate r_0 in (8) on the radiative cooling rate; 300 smaller values for w_{cool} correspond to larger values for r_0 , all else equal. To the extent that 301 this sensitivity is exhibited primarily in the outer region of the storm (i.e. beyond r_{12}), this divergence indicates an important limitation on the simple three-variable representation of 303 storm structure employed here, which does not distinguish between variability for $r_m < r <$ 304 r_{12} and $r > r_{12}$. Finally, there is one obvious outlier: the $T_{sst} = 305 K$ simulation exhibits an equilibrium storm that is larger and more intense than would be expected from the set of 306 simulations with variable T_{sst} and their associated values for V_p . The reason for this outlier 307 is unclear, but the non-linear jump with increasing T_{sst} may indicate a deficiency due to the 308 coarse vertical resolution within the boundary layer. 309

Overall, though, the above results in combination indicate that the primary contribution
of these four environmental variables to the equilibrium dynamics not only of the maximum
gradient wind speed but of the entire storm structure is manifest in the potential intensity.

313 c. Parametric sensitivity experiments

We may now proceed to the full parametric sensitivity experiments, where we test V_p in 314 lieu of T_{sst} , T_{tpp} , u_s , and Q_{cool} based on the results of the previous section. Figure 8 displays 315 the scaling of each structural variable with the set of relevant input parameters. All three 316 variables exhibit systematic sensitivity (indicated by a non-zero slope) to three parameters: 317 the potential intensity, V_p , the Coriolis parameter, f, and the turbulent radial mixing length, 318 l_h . Meanwhile, the equilibrium structure is insensitive to the initial disturbance structure as indicated by the near-zero slope in the scaling with the length scale of the initial perturbation, regardless of whether this perturbation is in the form of a mid-level positive vorticity anomaly 321 or positive moisture anomaly. Moreover, equilibrium storm structure is insensitive to the 322

vertical mixing length over the range of values tested here, though for sufficiently large (and likely unphysical) values on the order of the depth of the troposphere, storm structure does indeed become sensitive to this parameter (not shown) as strong vertical mixing across sloped angular momentum contours within the eyewall has a strong impact on the structure of a mature storm.

Closer inspection of the systematic sensitivities reveals some interesting details about 328 the individual scalings. First, as would be expected, V_m is most strongly modulated by the 329 potential intensity, with a simple linear relationship of unit slope. V_m is weakly negatively 330 correlated with the radial mixing length, with maximum wind speed doubling only once 331 over the entire scaling range. This latter sensitivity reflects the simple fact that turbulence, 332 parameterized here as a diffusive mixing in regions of large flow shear, will act primarily in 333 the eyewall region of the storm where wind speed and its radial gradient concurrently reach 334 their largest magnitude, and thus turbulence will act to to reduce the peak wind speeds. 335 Finally, V_m shows a weak and more complex dependence on f: for $f \geq 2.5 * 10^{-5}$, V_m 336 and f are negatively correlated, whereas for $f < 2.5 * 10^{-5}$ the dependence weakens. This 337 optimum in intensity as a function of background rotation rate was also observed by Smith 338 et al. (2011), who attribute this optimum to the trade-off between the increasing background 339 reservoir of angular momentum and the increasing inertial stability, with the latter effect 340 becoming dominant as the Coriolis parameter is made sufficiently large. Indeed, the product 341 of V_m (Figure 8, top panel) and r_m (middle panel) equals the angular momentum at the 342 radius of maximum winds, which remains approximately constant as f is decreased below 343 $2.5 * 10^{-5}$. OUTER BOUNDARY ISSUES FOR VERY LARGE STORM? 344

Both size metrics, r_m and r_0 , exhibit sensitivities to the same parameters as V_m , though with different magnitudes and, in the case of the radial turbulence length scale, opposite sign. For r_m , the parametric scalings are of the same order across all three relevant input parameters, indicating that horizontal turbulence strongly modulates the inner-core structure. Meanwhile, r_0 is strongly modulated by both V_p and f and only weakly modulated by l_h , the latter an indication that diffusive turbulence will have a lesser impact on the outer structure where gradients in wind speed are much weaker.

352 d. Dimensional analysis: non-dimensional scaling

The above analysis can be synthesized quantitatively via dimensional analysis. 353 Buckingham-Pi theorem states that the number of independent non-dimensional parameters 354 in a dimensional system is equal to the difference between the number of independent dimen-355 sional parameters and the number of fundamental measures. For our purposes, we have three 356 relevant dimensional parameters, V_p , f, and l_h , and two fundamental measures, distance and 357 time, thereby giving only one independent non-dimensional parameter, C. Moreover, the 358 theorem states that any output dimensional quantity, Y, suitably non-dimensionalized, can 359 be expressed as a function of the set of non-dimensional parameters. For our system, the 360 result is

$$\frac{Y}{Y_{nd}} = f(C) \tag{10}$$

The form of this functional relationship can only be determined by experimentation.

Thus, we exploit this analytical technique using the results from Figure 8, noting that, given the dimensional parameters V_p , f, and l_h , there exists only one relevant non-dimensional number in our system at its equilibrium state:

$$C = \frac{V_p}{fl_h} \tag{11}$$

We choose to non-dimensionalize each structural variable by an appropriate (though arbitrary) scale: V_m by V_p , and r_m and r_0 by $\frac{V_p}{f}$. The scaling between each equilibrium non-dimensional variable and C for a large set of experiments varying two or more of V_p , f, or l_h are displayed in Figure 9. Linear relationships on the log-log plot indicate power-law relationships between the non-dimensional structural variable and the quantity C, with the power-law exponent given by the slope of the line: i.e.

$$\frac{Y}{Y_{nd}} = C^{\alpha} \tag{12}$$

For non-dimensional intensity, radius of maximum gradient winds, and outer radius, we obtain $\alpha_{V_m} = .16$, $\alpha_{r_m} = -.47$, and $\alpha_{r_0} = -.08$, respectively. In all cases, the p-value is close to zero, indicating that the slopes are statistically-significantly different from zero.

Finally, we may now solve for the dimensional relationship for each structural variable by combining (11) and (12) and approximating the exponents for simplicity as $\alpha_{V_m} \approx .15$, $\alpha_{r_m} \approx -.5$, and $\alpha_{r_0} \approx -.1$ to give:

$$V_m \sim V_p^{1.15} (f l_h)^{-.15}$$
 $r_m \sim \left(\frac{V_p}{f}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} (l_h)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ $r_0 \sim \left(\frac{V_p}{f}\right)^{.9} (l_h)^{.1}$ (13)

Thus, equilibrium storm intensity is found to scale super-linearly with the potential intensity and is slightly reduced by an increase in either the background rotation rate or the radial turbulent mixing length. The equilibrium radius of maximum gradient wind is found to elegantly scale as the geometric mean of the ratio of the potential intensity to the Coriolis parameter and the radial turbulent mixing length. Finally, the equilibrium outer radius is found to follow a simple quasi-linear scaling with the ratio of the potential intensity to the Coriolis parameter that expands slightly with increasing radial turbulent mixing length.

Clearly radial turbulence plays a significant role in determining the inner core structure 385 of the storm. The super-linear scaling for V_m can be understood in the context of changes in r_m relative to the radial turbulent mixing length: all else equal, a more intense storm is also 387 a larger storm. Because parameterized radial turbulence will act to reduce radial gradients in scalars such as temperature (and thus gradient azimuthal wind speed, through gradient 389 thermal wind balance) over a distance proportional to the prescribed mixing length, a storm 390 with a larger r_m will feel a weaker effective turbulence. For example, if one scales V_p and 391 f equally while keeping l_h constant, the result is constant r_m and a pure linear scaling of 392 V_m – the increase in f maintains a constant storm size and thus a constant effective radial 393 turbulence and thereby eliminates the super-linearity in the scaling of V_m with V_p . The same 394 conclusion is obtained if one scales V_p and l_h equally at constant f. 395

Moreover, the strong dependence of r_m on l_h also appears to have a straightforward

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physical basis related to the strength of turbulence in the eye. As noted by REFERENCE, the simplest model of the radial profile of azimuthal wind in the eye assumes that radial turbulence will rapidly homogenize angular velocity such that the eye will tend towards a state of approximate solid-body rotation, characterized by V(r) = cr where $c = \frac{\partial V}{\partial r}$ is constant. If we assume that $\frac{\partial V}{\partial r} \approx \frac{V_m}{r_m}$, using (15) one can show

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial r} \sim (l_h)^{.35} \left(\frac{V_p}{f}\right)^{.65} \tag{14}$$

For a given set of environmental parameters, V_p and f, $\frac{\partial V}{\partial r}$ in the eye is a function solely of the radial turbulent mixing length, suggesting that this mixing length scale defines the critical magnitude of the radial gradient in azimuthal winds toward which super-critical radial wind profiles will be rapidly restored by parameterized turbulent mixing. Given a peak wind speed V_m , this process therefore approximately determines r_m .

As a caveat, it is important to recognize that these quasi-linear scalings in log-log space are only shown to be valid over the roughly two orders of magnitude over which C is varied. It is possible that more extreme variation in this parameter may exhibit qualitatively different behavior. However, we believe that these scaling results are robust at least over the subspace of physical parameter values relevant to the atmosphere of an Earth-like planet.

ANGULAR MOMENTUM BUDGET/BALANCE IN EYE TO EXPLAIN THIS?

413 e. Q_{cool} at $constant V_p$

FILL ME IN!

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415 f. Estimating l_h

Given the sensitivity of the equilibrium structure, particularly r_m , to the turbulent radial mixing length, an accurate estimation of l_h in the inner core of a real tropical cyclone is important but lacks any theoretical or observational foundation. Thus we follow the work of Bryan and Rotunno (2009b) and attempt to estimate its value by tuning it to match

the steady-state model intensity to the theoretical potential intensity (93 ms^{-1}), which here would dictate a value of $l_h \approx 600 \ m$ as compared to optimal estimate of $l_h = 1500 \ m$ in Bryan and Rotunno (2009b).

$$V_m \sim C_d^{.2} V_p^{1.15} (f l_h)^{-.15}$$
 $r_m \sim \left(\frac{V_p}{f}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} (l_h)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ $r_0 \sim \left(\frac{V_p}{f}\right)^{.9} (l_h)^{.1}$ (15)

423 g. Comparison to existing theory

Though not widely recognized, existing axisymmetric tropical cyclone theory predicts a 424 scaling for the upper bound on the size of a tropical cyclone. The existence of this theoretical 425 upper bound is most easily understood from a Carnot engine perspective, in which the 426 work required to build the anticyclone aloft increases with increasing storm size, and by 427 conservation of energy there remains less energy available to overcome frictional dissipation 428 at the surface, i.e. a weaker storm (Emanuel 1986). However, the predicted scaling for 429 this upper bound is most tractable in Eq. (16) of Emanuel (1995b), which derives an 430 analytical relationship between the non-dimensional maximum gradient wind speed and the 431 outer radius such that 432

$$V_m^2 \sim 1 - \frac{1}{4} \gamma r_0^2 \tag{16}$$

where V_m is non-dimensionalized by $\sqrt{\chi_s}$, a modified potential intensity for $C_k = C_d$ (Bister and Emanuel 1998), r_0 is non-dimensionalized by $\frac{\sqrt{\chi_s}}{f}$, and γ is a thermodynamic constant that depends only on the background environment. Thus, this non-dimensionalization explicitly predicts that the upper bound on storm size scales approximately as the ratio of the modified potential intensity to the Coriolis parameter. Indeed, our modeling results confirm this prediction, with a minor modification in the scaling due to radial turbulence.

Additionally, we may use our derived scalings to test the theoretical prediction for frictional dissipiation of angular momentum in the boundary layer. For a reasonably intense vortex, Emanuel and Rotunno (2011) (Eq. (38)) find that the ratio of the initial angular momentum, $M_0 = \frac{1}{2}fr_0^2$, to the final angular momentum at the radius of maximum winds, $M_f \approx V_m r_m$ is a constant that is solely a function of the ratio of the exchange coefficients

$$\frac{M_f}{M_0} = \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{C_k}{C_d}\right)^{\frac{1}{2 - \frac{C_k}{C_d}}} \tag{17}$$

*** IS THIS RIGHT? I REALLY SHOULD HAVE THE CONSTANTS OF PROPORTIONALITY IN THERE I THINk *** For $C_k = C_d$, this ratio is simply .5. For comparison, we
apply (15) to obtain

$$\frac{M_f}{M_0} \sim 2 \left(\frac{V_p}{f l_h}\right)^{-.15} \tag{18}$$

The small exponent indicates the this ratio is reasonably constant. However, for the parameter values used in our control simulation, (18) gives a value of .69. In order to match 448 the theoretical prediction, the radial turbulent mixing length must be reduced substantially 449 to $l_h=180\ m.$ Alternatively, one may follow the approach of (Bryan and Rotunno 2009b) 450 for estimating l_h and simply try to match V_m to V_p , which in this case results in a value of 451 approximately $l_h = 550 m$. In either case, the estimate for l_h is significantly lower than the 452 estimated optimal value of 1500 m found in (Bryan and Rotunno 2009b). This is surprising 453 given that the storms simulated here are much larger and thus one would anticipate that 454 the optimal value for l_h would scale accordingly. 455

4. Discussion

Issues:

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• Turbulence parameterization is already noted to be important in determining storm structure (George Bryan paper), but this problem is exacerbated when coupled with the vagaries of modeling storm size, rendering prediction of r_m and V_m very difficult in an axisymmetric framework, particularly for comparison with real storms given the large range of observed storm sizes. Thoughts on resolving this: new parameterizations? In

- principle, turbulence mixing length ought to scale with the size of the largest unresolved eddy, which should scale with the r_m (test this?)
- Real storms likely always in transient phase (where initial condition may matter), and large range in observed size distribution cannot be explained by equilibrium results.
- Axisymmetry likely reasonable for modeling the equilibrium storm, but for transient

 phase is 3d necessary? Rendered difficult given the result here that artificially small

 domain size has profound impact on storm size
- effects of real radiation and other effects neglected here?

5. Conclusions

This works combines highly idealized modeling with dimensional analysis to systemat-472 ically quantify the scaling between the structure of a model tropical cyclone at statistical 473 equilibrium and relevant model, initial, and environmental dimensional input parameters. We perform this analysis in a model world whose complexity is reduced so as to retain only the essential physics of the tropical atmosphere while simultaneously capturing the three-476 dimensional structure of a tropical cyclone with reasonable fidelity: radiative-convective equi-477 librium in axisymmetric geometry on an f-plane with constant tropospheric cooling, constant 478 background surface wind speed (for the calculation of surface fluxes only), constant surface 479 exchange coefficients for momentum and enthalpy, and constant sea surface and tropopause 480 temperatures. Importantly, this model tropical atmosphere could in principle exist for all 481 time in column-wise radiative-convective equilibrium, in which column-integrated radiative 482 cooling is exactly balanced by surface fluxes of enthalpy, in the absence of a tropical cyclone, 483 though this explicitly does not occur under axisymmetric geometry. Finally, following the 484 theoretical work of Emanuel and Rotunno (2011), we characterize the full structural evolu-485 tion of the storm by the time-series of three dynamical variables calculated near the top of

- the boundary layer: the maximum gradient wind speed, the radius of maximum gradient winds, and the outer radius.
- We find here that, under these simplified conditions, the storm structure at statistical equilibrium is a function of only three parameters: the potential intensity, the Coriolis parameter, and the radial turbulent mixing length. Specifically,
- the maximum wind speed scales linearly with the potential intensity, but this scaling
 is made super-linear (sub-linear) if the ratio of the radius of maximum winds to the
 radial turbulent mixing length is increased (decreased)
- the radius of maximum winds scales as the geometric mean of the ratio of the potential intensity to the Coriolis parameter and the turbulent radial mixing length
- the outer radius scales nearly linearly with the ratio of the potential intensity to the

 Coriolis parameter that is weakly modified by radial turbulence

For our control simulation, the time-scale to equilibration is approximately twice as long for storm structure ($\sim 60 \ days$) as for storm intensity ($\sim 30 \ days$). The transient stage is characterized by an initial excess over equilibrium that is largest for the outer radius, moderate for the radius of maximum gradient winds, and relatively small for the maximum gradient wind. This period is then followed by a more gradual decay towards equilibrium. The transient storm will be analyzed more thoroughly in a subsequent paper.

There are a number of interesting implications of the findings presented here. First, the 505 long time-scales required for the storm to come reasonably close to structural equilibrium 506 suggests that prior work modeling tropical cyclones out to statistical steady state in intensity 507 are likely not at statistical steady state in structure. Second, and perhaps more importantly, 508 the sensitivity of storm size to the location of the outer wall, typically set to a value of 509 approximately 1500 km, indicates that axisymmetric studies artificially limit the size of 510 their model storm. This is further complicated by the nature of the parameterization of 511 turbulence in axisymmetric geometry that includes a free parameter—the turbulent radial 512

mixing length—that is largely unconstrained but to which the storm structure, particularly in the inner core, is particularly sensitive.

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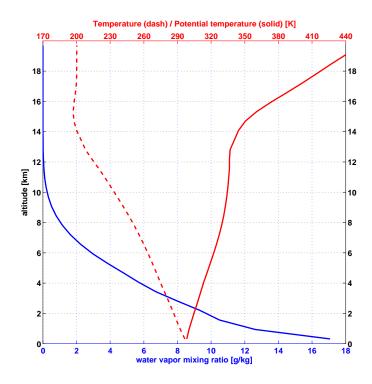


Fig. 1. Radiative-convective equilibrium vertical profile of temperature (red dashed), potential temperature (red solid), and water vapor (blue) for the Control simulation.

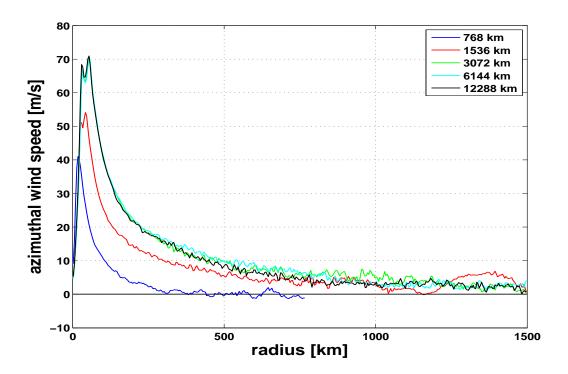


Fig. 2. Equilibrium radial gradient wind profiles as a function of domain width. Note the convergence beyond $L_{domain} \approx 3000~km$.

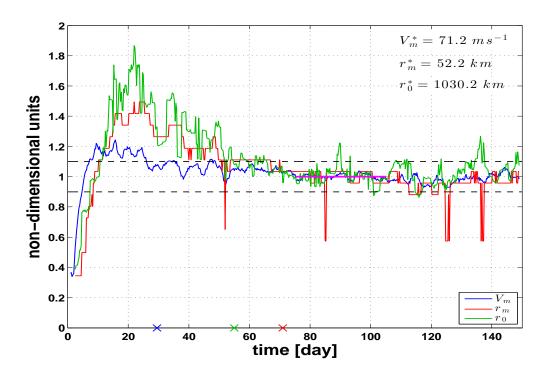


FIG. 3. For the Control simulation, time evolution of the 2-day running mean V_m , r_m , and r_0 normalized by their respective equilibrium values (upper-right corner). For this simulation, $V_p^* = 93 \ ms^{-1}$ and $f = 5 * 10^{-5} \ s^{-1}$. Pink line denotes 30-day period used for equilibrium calculation. Markers along the x-axis denote respective time-scales to equilibration, defined as time where the 30-day running mean is within 10% of the equilibrium value (black dashed lines).

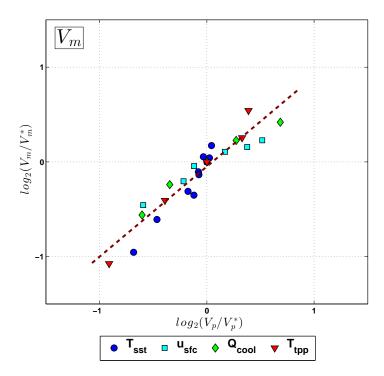


FIG. 4. Scaling of the equilibrium value of V_m (ordinate) with the potential intensity (abscissa). Both quantities are normalized by their respective control values denoted by an asterisk (*; $V_p^* = 93 \ ms^{-1}$). Colored shape denotes the input parameter varied from among the four parameters on which the potential intensity depends (Eq. (7)). Scaling is shown in base-2 log-log space, such that a 1-unit increase (decrease) represents doubling (having). Thus, a straight line with unit slope indicates that a doubling of V_p is associated with a doubling of Y.

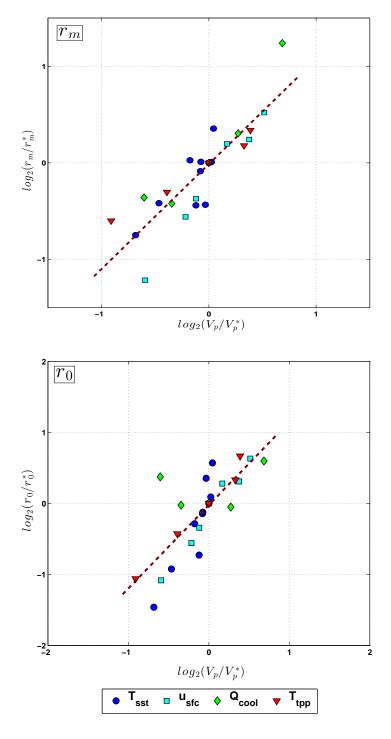


Fig. 5. As in Figure 4, but for r_m (top) and r_0 (bottom).

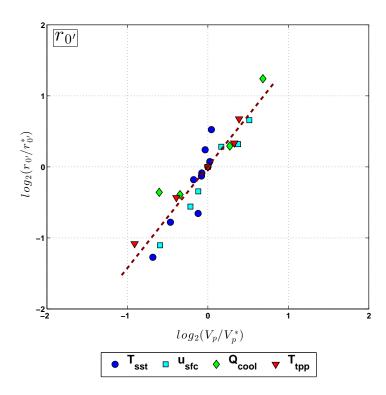


FIG. 6. As in Figure 5, but where $r_{0'}$ is r_0 calculated from (9) using the control value of w_{cool} .

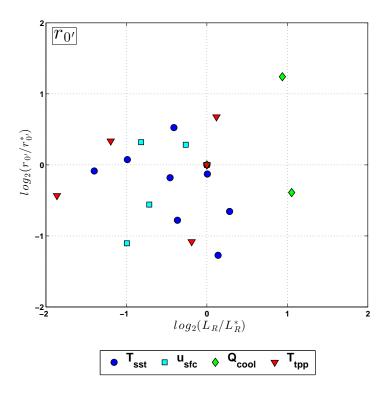


Fig. 7. As in Figure 6, but for the scaling with the Rossby deformation radius.

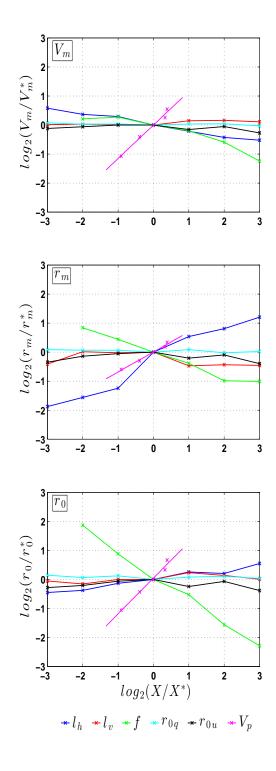


Fig. 8. Scaling of the equilibrium value of each structural variable Y (ordinate) with relevant dimensional parameters, X (absicssa). All quantities are normalized by their respective control values denoted by an asterisk (*). Plot layout as in Figure 4.

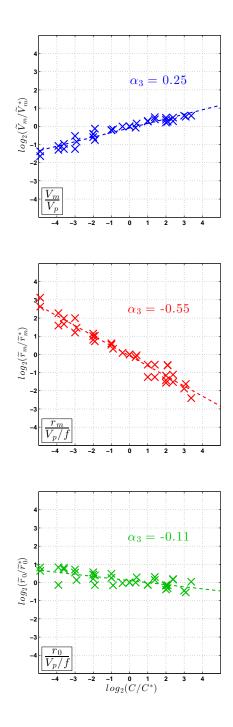


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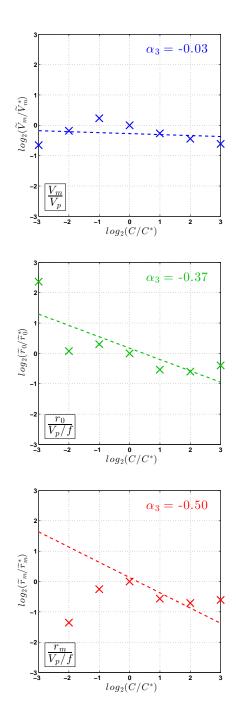


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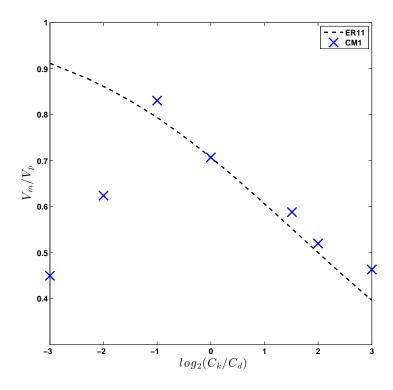


FIG. 11. Relationship between of $\frac{V_m}{V_p}$ and $\frac{C_k}{C_d}$ in simulations (markers) and the theoretical relation given by Eq. (41) of Emanuel and Rotunno (2011).

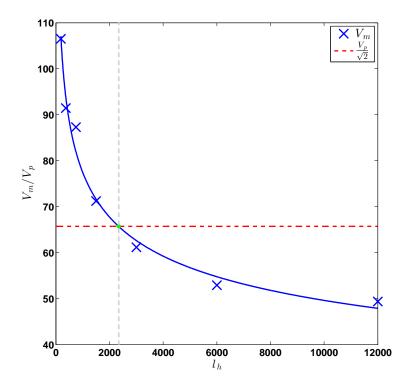


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