

AMERICAN METEOROLOGICAL SOCIETY

Journal of the Atmospheric Sciences

EARLY ONLINE RELEASE

This is a preliminary PDF of the author-produced manuscript that has been peer-reviewed and accepted for publication. Since it is being posted so soon after acceptance, it has not yet been copyedited, formatted, or processed by AMS Publications. This preliminary version of the manuscript may be downloaded, distributed, and cited, but please be aware that there will be visual differences and possibly some content differences between this version and the final published version.

The DOI for this manuscript is doi: 10.1175/JAS-D-18-0131.1

The final published version of this manuscript will replace the preliminary version at the above DOI once it is available.

If you would like to cite this EOR in a separate work, please use the following full citation:

Tang, X., Z. Tan, J. Fang, E. Munsell, and F. Zhang, 2018: Impact of the Diurnal Radiation Contrast on the Contraction of Radius of Maximum Wind during Intensification of Hurricane Edouard (2014). J. Atmos. Sci. doi:10.1175/JAS-D-18-0131.1, in press.

© 2018 American Meteorological Society

	E 53.55
1	Impact of the Diurnal Radiation Contrast on the Contraction of Radius of
2	Maximum Wind during Intensification of Hurricane Edouard (2014)
3	
4	Xiaodong Tang ¹ , Zhe-Min Tan ¹ , Juan Fang ¹ , Erin B. Munsell ^{2,3} , and Fuqing Zhang ⁴
5	S
6	¹ Key Laboratory of Mesoscale Severe Weather, Ministry of Education, and School of
7	Atmospheric Sciences, Nanjing University, Nanjing, China
8	² Laboratory for Mesoscale Atmospheric Processes, NASA Goddard Space Flight
9	Center, Greenbelt, Maryland, USA
10	³ Universities Space Research Association, Columbia, Maryland, USA
11	⁴ Department of Meteorology, and Center for Advanced Data Assimilation and
12	Predictability Techniques, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park,
13	Pennsylvania, USA
14	
15	T
16	Submitted to Journal of the Atmospheric Sciences for publication as an article
17	Revised on 31 October 2018
18	
19	Corresponding author contact: Xiaodong Tang, Ph. D., School of Atmospheric
20	Sciences, Nanjing University, 163 Xianlin Avenue, Nanjing 210023, P. R. China
21	Email: xdtang@nju.edu.cn
22	

1

23

Abstract

This work examines the impacts of the diurnal radiation contrast on the contraction 24 25 rate of the radius of maximum wind (RMW) during intensification of Hurricane 26 Edouard (2014) through convection-permitting simulations. Rapid contraction of 27 RMW occurs both in the low- and mid-levels for the control run and the sensitivity run 28 without solar insolation, while the tropical cyclone contracts more slowly in the low-29 levels and later in the mid-levels and thereafter fails to intensify continuously in the absence of the night phase, under weak vertical wind shear ($\sim 4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$). The clouds at the 30 31 top of the boundary layer absorbs solar shortwave heating during the daytime, which 32 enhanced the temperature inversion there and increased the convective inhibition, while nighttime destabilization and moistening in low-levels through radiative cooling 33 34 decrease convective inhibition and favor more convection inside the RMW than in the daytime phase. The budget analysis of the tangential wind tendency reveals that the 35 greater positive radial vorticity flux inside of the RMW is the key RMW contraction 36 37 mechanism in the boundary level at night, due to the enhanced convection. However, 38 the greater positive vertical advection of tangential wind inside of the RMW dominates 39 the RMW contraction in the mid-levels.

40 **1. Introduction**

"Convective ring theory" (Shapiro and Willoughby 1982; Willoughby et al. 1982) 41 42 hypothesizes that in response to sustained condensational heating in the tropical cyclone (TC) eyewall updrafts, both contraction of the radius of maximum wind (RMW) 43 44 and intensification occur. The eyewall convective heating drives a secondary 45 circulation. Assuming a TC is restored toward thermal wind balance, the tangential wind tendency tends to be greater inside of the RMW than at the RMW itself, which is 46 47 diagnosed using the Sawyer-Eliassen equation. Therefore, the RMW will contract as 48 the TC intensifies. The RMW contraction can be understood as a result of an increasing negative radial gradient of tangential wind tendency inward of the RMW in the 49 kinematic framework used by Stern et al. (2015). Recent idealized numerical 50 51 simulations of TCs and observations of real cases further show that most of the contraction typically occurs prior to a storm's primary intensification stage (Stern et al. 52 2015; Kepert 2017). During the early stage before rapid intensification (RI) onset, the 53 54 symmetric component of Tropical Storm Earl (2010) was shallow, broad, and diffuse (Rogers et al. 2015). The TC had an asymmetric distribution of convection when it was 55 56 experiencing moderate shear. The early intensification stage is further identified, which is represented by a distinct eyewall contraction in Typhoon Vicente (2012) (e.g. Chen 57 et al. 2017). Although contraction and intensification could begin at the same time, 58 contraction ceases long before peak intensity is achieved (Stern et al. 2015). 59

60 Observations and numerical simulation studies show that the diurnal radiation61 contrast can influence TC genesis, intensity and structure changes (Dunion et al. 2014;

62 Melhauser and Zhang 2014; Tang and Zhang 2016, hereafter TZ16; Navarro and Hakim 2016; Tang et al. 2017, hereafter T17; Navarro et al. 2017; O'Neill et al. 2017). The 63 64 environmental stability and the intensity of deep moist convection in TCs can be considerably modulated by the diurnal extremes in radiation (Melhauser and Zhang 65 66 2014). Furthermore, the responses to the diurnal cycle of net radiation forcing and the 67 impacts on structure and intensity were found to be different in extent and feature 68 throughout the different stages of TCs through comparisons between sets of sensitivity 69 experiments (TZ16; T17). In general, nighttime destabilization of the local and large-70 scale environment through radiative cooling may promote deep moist convection and 71 increase the genesis potential at the formation stages of TCs (Melhauser and Zhang 72 2014; TZ16). TZ16 found that during the mature stage of TCs, the net radiative cooling 73 at nighttime mainly increases the convective activity outside of the eyewall that leads 74 to broader/stronger rainbands and larger TC size in terms of the radius of azimuthally 75 averaged surface wind speed of 34 kt. However, there is no consensus in the literature 76 on the role of the diurnal radiation contrast on TC vortex wind structure and intensity. 77 In particular, it remains unexplored how the diurnal radiation contrast affects RMW 78 contraction during TC intensification, which will be the focus of the current study. Dynamical or thermodynamic explanations for impact of the diurnal radiation contrast 79 80 on the RMW contraction will be investigated further from a kinematic perspective 81 through analysis of numerical simulations of Hurricane Edouard (2014).

82 The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. The model settings and 83 experimental design are described in section 2. An overview of Edouard (2014) and the associated numerical simulation are given in section 3. Radiative effects on the RMW
contraction rate during intensification will be presented in section 4. Finally, a
discussion and the conclusions follow in section 5.

87

2. Model settings and experimental design

88 The Advanced Research version of the WRF Model (ARW) (Skamarock et al. 2008) was employed to perform a control simulation (CNTL) and sensitivity 89 90 experiments. The model domains are triply nested through two-way nesting with horizontal resolutions of 27, 9, and 3 km (Fig. 1a). The two inner domains (D02 and 91 92 D03) are vortex following. The following physics parameterizations were used in this study: the Dudhia shortwave radiation scheme (Dudhia 1989), the Rapid Radiation 93 Transfer Model (RRTM) longwave radiative scheme (Mlawer et al. 1997), the WRF 94 95 single-moment 6-class microphysics scheme (Hong and Lim 2006), the Yonsei University (YSU) scheme for the planetary boundary layer (BL) (Hong et al. 2006), 96 and the Grell-Freitas cumulus scheme (Grell and Freitas 2014) in the outermost 27-km 97 98 mesh. The 1-D ocean mixing layer model (Pollard et al. 1972) coupled with WRF was 99 also employed. The details of the model physics configuration and initialization 100 processes can be found in Zhang and Weng (2015), Weng and Zhang (2016), and Munsell et al. (2017). An endless daytime simulation with the solar insolation set at 101 local noon ("ConstSolarRad") and an endless nighttime simulation with no solar 102 insolation ("NoSolarRad") are conducted, starting at 48 model integration hours of the 103 104 control simulation (the ConstSolarRad48h and NoSolarRad48h experiments in TZ16, their Table 1), which includes the focused process of RMW contraction in the CNTL 105

106 experiment (Fig. 1d).

The TC center was defined as the centroid of sea level pressure in the following 107 108 analysis, which was calculated within a circular region representing the size of the TC inner core. The pressure centroid represents the storm center well, especially for weaker 109 110 and more asymmetric TCs, since the method consistently places the TC center within 111 the region of weak storm-relative wind and produces a smooth variation of vortex tilt 112 in magnitude and direction (Nguyen et al. 2014). Therefore, this method for identifying 113 the TC center was recommended to be adopted in the study for early development and 114 intensification stage of TC (Chen et al. 2017, 2018).

3. Overview of Edouard (2014) and the associated numerical simulation

116 Edouard was designated as a named tropical depression over the far eastern 117 tropical Atlantic by 1200 UTC 11 September 2014 (Stewart 2014) (Figs. 1b, c). While it moved to the northwest, over the period from about 0000 UTC 14 September to 0000 118 UTC 15 September the maximum 10-m sustained winds increased by 25 knots (i.e. 12.9 119 m s⁻¹). Edouard reached a peak intensity of 54 m s⁻¹ as a major hurricane at 1200 UTC 120 16 September. The control run replicates the general features of development in all 121 122 stages of the lifetime mentioned above, including the processes of RMW contraction 123 and intensification (Figs. 1b, c, d). Although the intensifying rate does not meet the NHC criteria (15.4 m s⁻¹ in 24 hour) of RI in the best-track data, 1200 UTC 14 124 September can be considered as RI onset according to the time evolution of maximum 125 10-m wind speed of CNTL (Fig. 1b). Moreover, the storm intensity increases nearly 30 126 m s⁻¹ over the succeeding 48 hours in CNTL (Fig. 1b). The RMW of CNTL and 127

NoSolarRad both began to contract rapidly 24 hours before RI onset, consistent with 128 that from the best-track data, while the ConstSolarRad shows a larger fluctuation in 129 130 RMW after the 0000 UTC 14 September (Fig. 1d). Moreover, rapid contraction of the RMW occurs both in the low- and mid-levels for NoSolarRad (Figs. 2a, c), while the 131 132 RMW contracts more slowly in the low-levels and later in the mid-levels and thereafter 133 fails to intensify continuously in ConstSolarRad (Figs. 2b, d). The following section will explain the impact of the diurnal radiation contrast on the RMWI contraction and 134 intensification of Edouard, using the two sensitivity experiments of NoSolarRad and 135 136 ConstSolarRad for clean comparisons.

137 4. Radiative effects on eyewall contraction and RI

138 a. Radiative impacts on convection

139 The most vigorous and intense convection and vertical updrafts are found between 30-90 km radius in NoSolarRad (Fig. 2c). Figure 3 shows that in this area there were 140 141 fewer clouds at the heights of 3-10 km before the RI onset (Figs. 3a and 3b), while relatively more low clouds existed at the top of the boundary layer¹ (BL) than those in 142 143 the mid-layers. The clouds at the top of the BL absorbed solar shortwave radiation at 144 daytime and heated this level most (Fig. 3c), while longwave radiation produced some cooling there (Fig. 3f). Consequently, net radiation more significantly heated the BL 145 146 top in ConstSolarRad (Fig. 3e); the 18-hours integrated contribution of which to

¹ The thermodynamic definition of boundary layer is adopted here following Powell (1990), characterized by the layer in which the potential temperature (or virtual potential temperature) is appreciably well mixed. The height of boundary layer in the TC inner core is below 1 km in the study.

147 potential temperature change is shown in Fig. 4. The vertical gradient of net radiative heating across the BL top resulted in the increasing potential of capping inversion layer 148 149 and increased convective inhibition, preventing moist convection initiation (Fig. 5). 150 Moreover, a net upper-tropospheric warming in ConstSolarRad is also responsible for 151 stabilized tropospheric column due to the continuous solar shortwave radiation (Figs. 152 3c, e and 4). It suppresses the convective potential and decreases the depth of the vertical upward motion, and then reduces the latent heat release (Figs. 6b, c) (TZ16). In 153 154 contrast, net radiative cooling occurred without the solar radiative heating in the 155 NoSolarRad experiment (Fig. 3d), which increased relative humidity and reduced stability between \sim 3.5–6.5 km in the middle troposphere, enhancing the development 156 potential of deep moist convection (Figs. 4 and 5). Additionally, 12-18 hours of net 157 158 radiative cooling results in lower potential temperature and greater relative humidity at mid- to upper-levels in NoSolarRad than in ConstSolarRad (Fig. 6a), which further 159 enhances deep moist convection and related latent heat release (Figs. 6b and 6c). The 160 161 latent heating drives the RMW contraction and intensification, which was especially significant in NoSolarRad from 0600 (66 h) to 1200 UTC 14 September (72 h). After 162 163 72 h, high to midlevel clouds increase rapidly with the convection and associated updrafts, with the majority of net radiative cooling located at the top of high clouds 164 (13-15 km) in NoSolarRad (Fig. 3a). The related thermodynamics and dynamics are 165 investigated in the next subsection. 166

167 Without solar insolation, NoSolarRad had lower surface air temperatures (Fig. 7a),
168 so after 0000 UTC 14 September, a greater difference between the air and sea surface

169 temperatures results in greater surface fluxes of latent heat and sensible heat, which further decreased convective inhibition and enhanced the WISHE feedback among the 170 171 surface fluxes, convection, secondary circulation, and accelerated the tangential wind at low-levels (Emanuel 1986) (Figs. 7b-e). It has been found in previous studies that 172 173 the RI onset of TC was triggered by convective bursts (CBs) in the eyewall, which 174 penetrated into the upper troposphere (Chen and Zhang 2013; Wang and Wang 2014). The impact of the diurnal radiation contrast on CBs is also investigated here. The results 175 176 were consistent in general, although there have been different definitions of CBs in the 177 literature (e.g. Chen and Zhang 2013; Wang and Wang 2014; Wang and Heng 2016). Therefore, we focus on the results with CBs, which are defined as the grid points where 178 the maximum vertical velocity of at least 5 m s⁻¹ between 11 and 15 km. Figure 8 shows 179 180 that most CBs occurred within 50-160 km radius, with more than one concentrated radial area in NoSolarRad during the period from 1300 UTC 13 Sep (49 h) to 0000 181 UTC 14 Sep (60 h). ConstSolarRad only had a little difference with NoSolarRad at the 182 183 above period. However, in NoSolarRad the areal percentage of CBs increased inside 110 km radius and decreased outside of 135 km radius during the period from 0000 (60 184 185 h) to 1200 UTC 14 Sep (72 h), which resulted in a quasi-normal distribution peaked at about 75 km radius. The increased CBs inside the radius of about 60 km occurred at not 186 only the downshear-left quadrant but also the upshear-left quadrant (cf. Fig. 10c). The 187 inward shift of CBs with the intensification of TC was consistent with previous 188 189 observations (e.g. Rogers et al. 2016). In ConstSolarRad, the CBs also increased near the 105 km radius, but decreased inside 70 km radius, which resulted in the much less 190

191 CBs inside 90 km than in NoSolarRad. The difference of CBs between the two experiments was relatively smaller at outer core (outside of about 130 km) (Fig. 8), 192 193 because the convective inhibition was very small at the outer core and convection was 194 easy to develop at the downshear quadrants (Fig. 7e). The detailed process will be 195 shown in next subsection, through which the difference of CB distribution leads to the 196 difference of eyewall contraction between the two experiments.

197

b. Dynamics of RMW contraction

The radiation-induced difference in convection between the two sensitivity 198 199 experiments of NoSolarRad and ConstSolarRad influenced both the storm structure and 200 intensity evolution at the stages before RI onset and during RI simultaneously (Fig. 1). From 0000 (60 h) to 1200 UTC 14 September (72 h), the RMW of CNTL and 201 202 NoSolarRad continued to contract significantly, while that of ConstSolarRad did not continuously contract after 0600 UTC 14 September (66 h) and was greater than in 203 NoSolarRad and CNTL (Fig. 1b). The dynamics of the radiation-induced differences of 204 205 TC eyewall contraction are analyzed here in detail.

The necessary condition for RMW contraction is the negative radial gradient of 206 207 the time tendency of tangential wind at the RMW following Stern et al. (2015), i.e. the time tendency of tangential wind is greater inside RMW than that outside. We 208 performed a budget analysis of the tangential wind tendency to address two issues: (1) 209 which processes induced the difference of eyewall contraction between the two 210 211 experiments, and (2) whether these processes were different between low- and midlevels, following 212

213
$$\frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial t} = -\bar{u}(f+\bar{\zeta}) - \bar{w}\frac{\partial \bar{v}}{\partial z} - \bar{u}'\bar{\zeta}' - w'\frac{\partial v'}{\partial z} + \bar{F}, \qquad (1)$$

214 which is the same equation as Eqs. (1) and (2) in T17. The storm-relative radial, tangential, and vertical components of velocity in cylindrical coordinates are given by 215 u, v, and w, respectively. ζ is vertical components of relative vorticity, and f is the 216 217 Coriolis parameter. z is height. The azimuthal average and the departure from it (or 218 eddy) are denoted by the bar and prime, respectively. The first four terms on the right-219 hand side of Eq. (1) are the mean radial flux of absolute vertical vorticity, the mean vertical advection of mean tangential wind, the eddy radial vorticity flux, and the eddy 220 vertical advection of tangential wind, respectively. \overline{F} represents the term owing to 221 222 subgrid-scale processes in the numerical model comprising both diffusive and surface layer processes. 223

224 The most distinct difference of the RMW contraction between NoSolarRad and 225 ConstSolarRad occurred from 60 to 72 h (Figs. 1d and 2). The height-radius plot of the tangential velocity budget analysis, averaging between 0000 (60 h) and 1200 UTC 14 226 Sep (72 h), is shown in Fig. 9. In NoSolarRad, the RMW contracted larger than in 227 ConstSolarRad during the period (Fig. 9). The maximum of tangential wind tendency 228 collocated with the ending RMW (Fig. 9a). The sum of mean radial flux of absolute 229 230 vertical vorticity and eddy radial vorticity flux contribute greater tangential wind tendency inside the RMW than outside in BL, so it induce the RMW contraction (Fig. 231 9c). The sum of mean and eddy vertical advection of tangential wind was much smaller 232 around the RMW below 1 km (Fig. 9e). Specifically, the radial eddy vorticity flux 233 contributed greater positive tangential wind tendency inside the RMW than outside (Fig. 234

9g). Therefore, the process of radial eddy vorticity flux contributed partially to the
RMW contraction below about 1 km during the period. In comparison with NoSolarRad,
the process of radial vorticity flux also played the same role below about 1 km in
ConstSolarRad, although the contribution was smaller (Figs. 9d, h). The other terms
did not contribute to RMW contraction positively in BL, either (Figs. 9b, f).

240 The budget analysis of tangential wind tendency pinpoints that the radial eddy vorticity flux contributes partially to the RMW contraction in low levels. To further 241 identify the cause of different behavior of the eddy vorticity flux in the low-level 242 243 between the two experiments, the horizontal cross sections of the radial eddy vorticity flux at the height of 250 m averaged between 0000 (60 h) and 1200 UTC 14 September 244 (72 h) were shown for NoSolarRad (Fig. 10a) and ConstSolarRad (Fig. 10d). 245 246 NoSolarRad (Fig. 10a) shows some stronger positive eddy vorticity flux in the downshear-left quadrant inside the RMW of about 60 km than ConstSolarRad (Fig. 247 10d). The shear was about 4 m s⁻¹ and southwesterly, which was close to the observation 248 (Fig. 2 in Zawislak et al. 2016). The configuration of eddy radial flow and eddy vorticity, 249 which are the two components of eddy vorticity flux, are both crucial to determining 250 the eddy vorticity flux. As can be seen, the maximum positive eddy vorticity and 251 accompanied eddy radial inflow are both stronger in the downshear-left quadrant inside 252 the RMW in NoSolarRad than those in ConstSolarRad (Figs. 10b, e). The stronger eddy 253 vorticity and eddy inflow in NoSolarRad inside RMW were related to more CBs there 254 than in ConstSolarRad (Figs. 10c, f). The deep convection occurring at not only the 255 downshear-left quadrant but also the upshear-left quadrant in NoSolarRad was similar 256

to the observation in the period (Fig. 6 in Zawislak et al. 2016). In contrast, deep
convection remained in the downshear quadrant outside of RMW and did not propagate
upshear in ConstSolarRad (Fig. 10f), so the TC was less likely to experience RMW
contraction and RI. This has been hypothesized in an observational study (Rogers et al.
2016) and modeling study (Leighton et al. 2018).

262 Which processes dominate the difference of RMW contraction between the two experiments in the mid-levels (~3-9 km)? The mean radial flux of absolute vertical 263 264 vorticity was very small at mid-levels in both the two experiments before RI onset (Figs. 265 9c, d). The radial eddy vorticity flux was mostly negative inside of RMW in NoSolarRad and ConstSolarRad (Figs. 9g, h). It is found that the process of the sum of 266 mean and eddy vertical advection of tangential wind contributed significantly to the 267 268 RMW contraction in the mid-levels in NoSolarRad, because the term is positive and greater inside of the RMW (Fig. 9e). In comparison, the term is smaller in 269 270 ConstSolarRad although it is positive inside of the RMW (Fig. 9f). The greater vertical 271 advection of tangential wind at the mid-levels inside of RMW in NoSolarRad was related to both the greater vertical updraft and greater low-level tangential wind than 272 273 that in ConstSolarRad (Figs. 2, 3a, b). The greater vertical updraft in NoSolarRad was directly associated with the more active convection (Figs. 8, 9a, and 10). The greater 274 low-level tangential wind in NoSolarRad was achieved gradually through the stronger 275 symmetric and asymmetric spin-up (Figs. 9c, g), which also benefited from the 276 277 strengthened convection inside the RMW.

278 **5. Discussion and conclusions**

13

279 This work examines the sensitivity of RMW contraction of a TC to the diurnal radiation contrast through high-resolution convection permitting full-physics 280 281 simulations of Hurricane Edouard (2014) using the WRF model. A set of two sensitivity experiments with either endless nighttime (no solar radiative forcing) or endless 282 283 daytime (persistent maximum solar shortwave forcing) during the early intensification 284 are designed to isolate the varying roles of the diurnal radiation contrast to the RMW contraction. A comparison of the two sensitivity runs shows that the RMW contraction 285 during intensification may be highly sensitive to the diurnal radiation contrast. 286

287 The result of ConstSolarRad implies that the shortwave radiative heating over the 12 hours of daytime on the BL top is larger in magnitude than the cooling from the 288 longwave radiation during the early intensification stage of TC, which increases the 289 290 stability near the BL top and suppresses the development of moist convection. However, 291 the integrated net radiative cooling over 12 hours of nighttime potentially decreases the BL top potential temperature, and increases the development potential of moist 292 293 convection. Once the deep convection is triggered, the mid- to upper-troposphere is moistened, which is conducive to more active convection and latent heat release (Fig. 294 295 6). The enhanced surface fluxes of latent and sensible heating due to the WISHE feedback mechanism will also enlarge the difference in the strength of convective and 296 latent heating inside the RMW between the daytime and nighttime. In the environment 297 of weak vertical shear, most of CBs increased inside of the RMW both in the 298 downshear-left quadrant and upshear-left quadrant with the intensification in 299 NoSolarRad. Conversely, the CBs were less and confined to the downshear quadrant 300

301 outside of the RMW in ConstSolarRad.

The tropospheric column is constantly stabilized in the ConstSolarRad experiment, due to the solar shortwave radiative heating in the upper-troposphere significantly. It can also curtail the potential and depth of vertical upward motion, and some of the latent heat releasing ultimately. Therefore, the secondary circulation of TC is weakened at the intensification stage. The mechanism is consistent with the previous findings in TZ06 and T17.

308 The budget calculation of tangential wind tendency reveals that the sum of mean 309 radial flux of absolute vertical vorticity and eddy radial vorticity flux contributes to the 310 RMW contraction during the early intensification in low levels. Inside of the RMW, maximum positive eddy vorticity and accompanied eddy radial inflow induced by deep 311 312 convection in the downshear-left and upshear-left quadrants resulted in the greater eddy vorticity flux in NoSolarRad. In contrast, the radial eddy vorticity flux was weaker in 313 314 ConstSolarRad, due to the suppressed convection. The dominant process controlling 315 the RMW contraction in the mid-levels, was the greater positive vertical advection of tangential wind inside of the RMW. In NoSolarRad, the more vigorous convection 316 317 inside of the RMW not only enhanced the vertical updraft, but also strengthened the low-level tangential wind, and vertical gradient of that between low- and mid-levels 318 consequently. Conversely, the corresponding terms were smaller due to the weaker 319 convection in ConstSolarRad. Therefore, the RMW contracted much less at the low-320 321 levels and mid-levels in ConstSolarRad than in NoSolarRad.

322 In this study, SSTs are mostly unaffected by the imposed permanent changes in

15

323 radiation that should continuously warm or cool the ocean, which would have 324 increasingly impacts on TC through altering surface fluxes. The current study focuses 325 on the impacts of diurnal radiation contrast to the atmospheric processes only, though 326 there are some influences from the air-sea interaction and feedback through the 1-D 327 ocean mixing layer model and WISHE. The impact of ocean variation due to diurnal 328 radiation contrast on the TC should be further investigated.

The boundary layer and entrainment zone are critical to convection initiation and 329 330 sensitive to the diurnal radiation cycle, so future work is planned to test how these 331 results depend on different representations of cloud-radiative processes using other pairings of radiation, planetary boundary layer, and microphysics schemes. It is 332 recommended that the diurnal cycle of TC size in terms of the RMW or other metrics 333 334 need to be investigated further using more observations and simulations. It's meaningful to further test if the chaotic nature of the atmosphere will influence the 335 robustness of the results (Judt et al.2016; Potvin et al. 2017). 336

337 Acknowledgments

The authors thank three anonymous reviewers for their helpful comments and suggestions. This work was supported by the National Key R&D Program of China under grants 2017YFC1501601 and the National Nature Science Foundation of China (Grants 41675054). Computing at the Texas Advanced Computing Center (TACC) is acknowledged.

343 **References**

- Chen, H., and D.-L. Zhang, 2013: On the rapid intensification of Hurricane Wilma
 (2005). Part II: Convective bursts and the upper-level warm core. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **70**, 146–162.
- Chen, X., Y. Wang, K. Zhao, and D. Wu, 2017: A numerical study on rapid
 intensification of Typhoon Vicente (2012) in the South China Sea. Part I:
 Verification of simulation, storm-scale evolution, and environmental
 contribution. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, 145, 877–898.
- 351 Chen, X., Y. Wang, J. Fang, and M. Xue, 2018: A numerical study on rapid
 352 intensification of Typhoon Vicente (2012) in the South China Sea. Part II: Roles
 353 of inner-core processes. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, **75**, 235–255.
- Dudhia, J., 1989: Numerical study of convection observed during the Winter Monsoon
 Experiment using a mesoscale two dimensional model. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, 46, 3077–
 3107.
- 357 Dunion, J. P., C. D. Thorncroft, and C. S. Velden, 2014: The tropical cyclone diurnal
 358 cycle of mature hurricanes. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, 142, 3900–3919.
- Emanuel, K. A., 1986: An air–sea interaction theory for tropical cyclones. Part I:
 Steady-state maintenance. J. Atmos. Sci., 43, 585–605
- 361 Grell, G. A., and S. R. Freitas, 2014: A scale and aerosol aware stochastic convective
- 362 parameterization for weather and air quality modeling. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 14,
 363 5233–5250.
- Hong, S., and J. J. Lim, 2006: The WRF single-moment 6-class microphysics scheme

365	(WSM6). J. Korean Meteor. Soc., 42 , 129–151.
366	——, Y. Noh, and J. B. Dudhia, 2006: A new vertical diffusion package with an explicit
367	treatment of entrainment processes. Mon. Wea. Rev., 134, 2318-2341.
368	Judt, F., S. S. Chen, and J. Berner, 2016: Predictability of tropical cyclone intensity:
369	scale- dependent forecast error growth in high- resolution stochastic kinetic-
370	energy backscatter ensembles. Quart. J. Roy. Meteor. Soc., 142, 43-57.
371	Kepert, J. D., 2017: Time and space scales in the tropical cyclone boundary layer, and
372	the location of the eyewall updraft. J. Atmos. Sci., 74, 3305-3323.
373	Leighton, H., S. Gopalakrishnan, J. Zhang, R. Rogers, Z. Zhang, and V. Tallapragada,
374	2018: Azimuthal distribution of deep convection, environmental factors and
375	tropical cyclone rapid intensification: A perspective from HWRF ensemble
376	forecasts of Hurricane Edouard (2014). J. Atmos. Sci. 75, 275-295.
377	Melhauser, C., and F. Zhang, 2014: Diurnal radiation cycle impact on the pregenesis
378	environment of Hurricane Karl (2010). J. Atmos. Sci., 71, 1241–1259.
379	Mlawer, E. J., S. J. Taubman, P. D. Brown, M. J. Iacono, and S. A. Clough, 1997:
380	Radiative transfer for inhomogeneous atmosphere: RRTM, a validated correlated-
381	k model for the longwave. J. Geophys. Res., 102, 16663–16682.
382	Munsell, E. B., F. Zhang, J. A. Sippel, S. A. Braun, and Y. Weng, 2017: Dynamics and
383	predictability of the intensification of Hurricane Edouard (2014). J. Atmos. Sci., 74,
384	573–595.

Navarro, E. L., and G. J. Hakim, 2016: Idealized numerical modeling of the diurnal
cycle of tropical cyclones. *J. Atmos. Sci*, 73, 4189–4201.

387	Navarro,	Е.,	G.	Hakim,	and	H.	W	illoughby	, 2017:	Balance	ed	respons	se of	an
388	axisy	ymm	etric	tropical	cycl	one	to	periodic	diurnal	heating.	J.	Atmos.	Sci.,	74,
389	3325	5–333	37.											

- Nguyen, L. T., J. Molinari, and D. Thomas, 2014: Evaluation of tropical cyclone center
- identification methods in numerical models. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, **142**, 4326–4339.
- 392 O'Neill, M. E., D. Perez-Betancourt, and A. A. Wing, 2017: Accessible environments
- for diurnal-period waves in simulated tropical cyclones. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, 74, 2489–
 2502.
- Pollard, R. T., P. B. Rhines, and R. O. Thompson, 1972: The deepening of the windmixed layer. *Geophysical Fluid Dynamics*, 4, 381–404.
- Potvin, C. K., E. M. Murillo, M. L. Flora, and D. M. Wheatley, 2017: Sensitivity of
 supercell simulations to initial-condition resolution. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, 74, 5-26.
- 399 Powell, M. D., 1990: Boundary layer structure and dynamics in outer hurricane
- 400 rainbands. Part II: Downdraft modification and mixed layer recovery. *Mon. Wea.*
- 401 *Rev.*, **118**, 918–938.
- 402 Rogers, R., P. Reasor, and J. Zhang, 2015: Multiscale structure and evolution of
 403 Hurricane Earl (2010) during rapid intensification. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, 143, 536–562.
- 404 —, J. Zhang, J. Zawislak, H. Jiang, G. R. Alvey III, E. J. Zipser, and S. N. Stevenson,
- 405 2016: Observations of the structure and evolution of Hurricane Edouard (2014)
- 406 during intensity change. Part II: Kinematic structure and the distribution of deep
 407 convection. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, 144, 3355–3376.
- 408 Shapiro, L. J., and H. E. Willoughby, 1982: The response of balanced hurricanes to

- 409 local sources of heat and momentum. J. Atmos. Sci., 39, 378-394. Skamarock, W. C., and Coauthors, 2008: A description of the Advanced Research WRF 410 411 version 3. NCAR Tech. Note NCAR/TN-4751STR, 113 pp. Stern, D. P., J. L. Vigh, D. S. Nolan, and F. Zhang, 2015: Revisiting the relationship 412 413 between eyewall contraction and intensification. J. Atmos. Sci., 72, 1283–1306. 414 Stewart, S. R., 2014: Hurricane Edouard (AL062014), 11–19 September 2014. National Hurricane Center Tropical Cyclone Rep., 19 pp. [Available online at 415 http://www.nhc.noaa.gov/data/tcr/AL062014 Edouard.pdf.] 416 417 Tang, X., and F. Zhang, 2016: Impacts of the diurnal radiation cycle on the formation, intensity and structure of Hurricane Edouard (2014). J. Atmos. Sci., 73, 2871–2892. 418
- Tang, X., Z. M. Tan, J. Fang, Y. Q. Sun, and F. Zhang, 2017: Impact of the diurnal
 radiation cycle on secondary eyewall formation. *J. Atmos. Sci*, 74, 3079–3098.
- 421 Wang, Y., and J. Heng, 2016: Contribution of eye excess energy to the intensification
- 422 rate of tropical cyclones: A numerical study. J. Adv. Model. Earth Syst., 8, 1953–
 423 1968.
- Wang, H., and Y. Wang, 2014: A numerical study of Typhoon Megi (2010): Part I: Rapid
 intensification. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, **124**, 29–48.
- 426 Weng, Y.-H., and F. Zhang, 2016: Advances in convection-permitting tropical cyclone
- 427 analysis and prediction through EnKF assimilation of reconnaissance aircraft
 428 observations. *J. Meteor. Soc. Japan*, 94, 345–358.
- 429 Willoughby, H. E., J. A. Clos, and M. G. Shoreibah, 1982: Concentric eye walls,
- 430 secondary wind maxima, and the evolution of the hurricane vortex. J. Atmos. Sci.,

20

39, 395–411.

- 432 Zawislak, J., H. Jiang, G. R. Alvey III, E. J. Zipser, R. F. Rogers, J. A. Zhang, and S. N.
- 433 Stevenson, 2016: Observations of the structure and evolution of Hurricane
- Edouard (2014) during intensity change. Part I: Relationship between the
- thermodynamic structure and precipitation. *Mon. Wea. Rev.*, **144**, 3333–3354.
- 436 Zhang, F., and Y. Weng, 2015: Predicting hurricane intensity and associated hazards: A
- 437 five-year real-time forecast experiment with assimilation of airborne Doppler
- 438 radar observations. *Bull. Amer. Meteor. Soc.*, **96**, 25–33.

439

Figure Captions

Figure 1: (a) Model domain setup, (b) maximum 10-m wind speed (m s^{-1}), (c) tracks 440 441 and (d) radius of maximum azimuthal-mean 10-m wind speed evolutions for control simulation (red line) and sets of sensitivity experiments (see text for detail, solid/dashed 442 443 blue lines for NoSolarRad/ConstSolarRad experiments), with comparison of NHC best-444 track (black line in (b) and (c)) or IBTrACS data (black line in (d)). The period is from 1200 UTC 11 September (0 h) to 1800 UTC 16 September 2014 (126 h). The circles on 445 the tracks denote the location every 6 h. The gray dashed line denotes the RI onset in 446 447 the control run and NoSolarRad roughly. Figure 2: Hovmöller plots of azimuthal-mean tangential velocity (contour; m s⁻¹) and 448 vertical velocity (shading) at heights of (a) 7 km and (c) 2 km for NoSolarRad. (b) and 449 450 (d) are as (a) and (c), but for ConstSolarRad. The period is from 1800 UTC 13 September (54 h) to 1200 UTC 16 September 2014 (120 h). The superposed black lines 451 denote the RMW. The tangential and vertical wind field were filtered in time to remove 452 453 scales less than 6 hours.

Figure 3: Height-time plot of (a) cloud fraction (shading), vertical velocity (contour
intervals are 0.2 m s⁻¹), (d) net radiative heating averaged between 30- and 90-km radius
from 1300 UTC 13 September (49 h) to 1800 UTC 16 September 2014 (126 h) for
NoSolarRad. (b) and (e) are as (a) and (d), but for ConstSolarRad. (c) Shortwave and
(f) longwave radiative heating for ConstSolarRad are also shown. The yellow boxes
denote the especially focused periods and heights.

460 Figure 4: Potential temperature change from net radiation averaged between 30- and

- 461 90-km radius from 1200 UTC 13 September (48 h) to 0600 UTC 14 September 2014
 462 (66 h).
- 463 Figure 5: Low-level lapse rate averaged between 30- and 90-km radius from 0600 (66
- 464 h) to 0900 UTC 14 September 2014 (69 h).
- 465 Figure 6: Height-time plot of NoSolarRad minus ConstSolarRad difference of (a)
- 466 relative humidity (unit: %), (b) vertical velocity (unit: $m s^{-1}$) and (c) latent heating (unit:
- 467 10^{-3} K s⁻¹) averaged between 30- and 90-km radius from 1300 UTC 13 September (49
- 468 h) to 1200 UTC 14 September 2014 (72 h).
- 469 Figure 7: Evolution of (a) 2-m temperature, (b) 10-m wind speed, surface fluxes of (c)
- 470 latent heat and (d) sensible heat, (e) convective inhibition averaged between 30- and
- 471 90-km radius (black) for NoSolarRad (solid) and ConstSolarRad (dashed) from 1200
- 472 UTC 13 September (48 h) to 1200 UTC 15 September 2014 (96 h). Red lines are for
- 473 between 90- and 240-km radius.
- 474 Figure 8: The areal percentage (%) of CBs binned every 9 km of radius, averaged during
- two periods for NoSolarRad (solid) and ConstSolarRad (dashed), from 1300 UTC 13
- 476 September (49 h) to 0000 UTC 14 September (60 h) (black), and from 0000 (60 h) to
- 477 1200 UTC 14 September 2014 (72 h) (red), respectively.

Figure 9: Height–radius plots of (a) tangential wind tendency directly from the model
output (blue contours; interval 10⁻⁴ m s⁻²), radial [red contours; interval 1 m s⁻¹; solid
(dashed) lines denote positive (negative) values] and vertical (shading) component of
wind, (c) sum of radial mean absolute vorticity flux and eddy vorticity flux, (e) sum of
mean and eddy vertical advection of tangential wind, and (g) radial eddy vorticity flux

483	for NoSolarRad, averaged azimuthally between 0000 (60 h) and 1200 UTC 14
484	September 2014 (72 h). (b)-(h) are as (a)-(g), but for ConstSolarRad. The superposed
485	green lines denote the RMW at 0000 UTC (60 h; solid) and 1200 UTC 14 September
486	2014 (72 h; dashed), respectively.
487	Figure 10: (a) radial eddy vorticity flux $(10^{-4} \text{ m s}^{-2})$, (b) eddy radial component of storm-
488	relative flow (vectors) and eddy vorticity (shading, 10^{-5} s ⁻¹), (c) storm-relative flow
489	(vectors) and vorticity (shading; 10^{-5} s ⁻¹) at the height of 250 m, averaged between 0000
490	(60 h) and 1200 UTC 14 September 2014 (72 h) for NoSolarRad. Yellow arrows denote
491	vertical shear vectors of averaged environmental wind. Green dots denote the grid
492	points where CBs occurred. (b)-(f) are as (a)-(e), but for ConstSolarRad. The black
493	circles are centered over the storm center with radii of 30 and 60 km.
495	choies are centered over the storm center with radii of 50 and 00 km.



Figure 1: (a) Model domain setup, (b) maximum 10-m wind speed (m s⁻¹), (c) tracks and (d) radius of maximum azimuthal-mean 10-m wind speed evolutions for control simulation (red line) and sets of sensitivity experiments (see text for detail, solid/dashed blue lines for NoSolarRad/ConstSolarRad experiments), with comparison of NHC best-track (black line in (b) and (c)) or IBTrACS data (black line in (d)). The period is from 1200 UTC 11 September (0 h) to 1800 UTC 16 September 2014 (126 h). The circles on the tracks denote the location every 6 h. The gray dashed line denotes the RI onset in the control run and NoSolarRad roughly.



Figure 2: Hovmöller plots of azimuthal-mean tangential velocity (contour; m s⁻¹) and vertical velocity (shading) at heights of (a) 7 km and (c) 2 km for NoSolarRad. (b) and (d) are as (a) and (c), but for ConstSolarRad. The period is from 1800 UTC 13 September (54 h) to 1200 UTC 16 September 2014 (120 h). The superposed black lines denote the RMW. The tangential and vertical wind field were filtered in time to remove scales less than 6 hours.



Figure 3: Height–time plot of (a) cloud fraction (shading), vertical velocity (contour intervals are 0.2 m s⁻¹), (d) net radiative heating averaged between 30- and 90-km radius from 1300 UTC 13 September (49 h) to 1800 UTC 16 September 2014 (126 h) for NoSolarRad. (b) and (e) are as (a) and (d), but for ConstSolarRad. (c) Shortwave and (f) longwave radiative heating for ConstSolarRad are also shown. The yellow boxes denote the especially focused periods and heights.



Figure 4: Potential temperature change from net radiation averaged between 30- and 90-km radius from 1300 UTC 13 September (48 h) to 0600 UTC 14 September 2014 (66 h).



Figure 5: Low-level lapse rate averaged between 30- and 90-km radius from 0600 (66 h) to 0900 UTC 14 September 2014 (69 h).



Figure 6: Height–time plot of NoSolarRad minus ConstSolarRad difference of (a) relative humidity (unit: %), (b) vertical velocity (unit: m s⁻¹) and (c) latent heating (unit: 10⁻³ K s⁻¹) averaged between 30- and 90-km radius from 1300 UTC 13 September (49 h) to 1200 UTC 14 September 2014 (72 h).



Figure 7: Evolution of (a) 2-m temperature, (b) 10-m wind speed, surface fluxes of (c) latent heat and (d) sensible heat, (e) convective inhibition averaged between 30- and 90-km radius (black) for NoSolarRad (solid) and ConstSolarRad (dashed) from 1200 UTC 13 September (48 h) to 1200 UTC 15 September 2014 (96 h). Red lines are for between 90- and 240-km radius.



Figure 8: The areal percentage (%) of CBs binned every 9 km of radius, averaged during two periods for NoSolarRad (solid) and ConstSolarRad (dashed), from 1300 UTC 13 September (49 h) to 0000 UTC 14 September (60 h) (black), and from 0000 (60 h) to 1200 UTC 14 September 2014 (72 h) (red), respectively.



Figure 9: Height–radius plots of (a) tangential wind tendency directly from the model output (blue contours; interval 10⁻⁴ m s⁻²), radial [red contours; interval 1 m s⁻¹; solid (dashed) lines denote positive (negative) values] and vertical (shading) component of wind, (c)sum of radial mean absolute vorticity flux and eddy vorticity flux, (e) sum of mean and eddy vertical advection of tangential wind, and (g) radial eddy vorticity flux for NoSolarRad, averaged azimuthally between 0000 (60 h) and 1200 UTC 14 September 2014 (72 h). (b)-(h) are as (a)-(g), but for ConstSolarRad. The superposed green lines denote the RMW at 0000 UTC (60 h; solid) and 1200 UTC 14 September 2014 (72 h; dashed), respectively.



Figure 10: (a) radial eddy vorticity flux $(10^{-4} \text{ m s}^{-2})$, (b) eddy radial component of storm-relative flow (vectors) and eddy vorticity (shading, 10^{-5} s^{-1}), (c) storm-relative flow (vectors) and vorticity (shading; 10^{-5} s^{-1}) at the height of 250 m, averaged between 0000 (60 h) and 1200 UTC 14 September 2014 (72 h) for NoSolarRad. Yellow arrows denote vertical shear vectors of averaged environmental wind. Green dots denote the grid points where CBs occurred. (b)-(f) are as (a)-(e), but for ConstSolarRad. The black circles are centered over the storm center with radii of 30 and 60 km.