

A simple diagnostic for eyewall replacement based on Pressure-Wind relationship

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Key Points:

- We present a simple diagnostic based on storm intensity, size and latitude as a diagnostic for eyewall replacements.
- It reproduces the intensification and weakening phases of eyewall replacements, and coincides with 70% of observed concentric eyewalls.
- The diagnostic may be expressed as a latitude-irrelevant Rossby Number, related to the peakedness of wind.

Abstract

Eyewall replacements occur in 70% of major tropical cyclones (TCs), and are associated with rapid changes in storm intensity and rapid broadening of strong winds. In this study, we present to use the radial gradient of absolute angular momentum with Holland's wind profile as a simple diagnostic for eyewall replacement as internal variability of the storm. The diagnostic is solely dependent on the maximum wind speed, the radius of maximum wind, and the latitude and found to coincident with 70% of satellite observed concentric eyewalls for 1991-2020. The diagnostic can be expressed as a latitude-irrelevant Rossby Number of primary eyewall, varying with the peakedness of wind. It highlights the importance of pressure-wind relationship in eyewall replacement and provides a valuable tool to improve the understanding, modeling and risk assessment of storms with eyewall replacements.

Plain Language Summary

Eyewall replacements are complicated processes associated with rapid changes in storm structure and intensity as results of storm internal variability and interaction with the environment. In this study, we find a simple diagnostic, based on three basic storm characteristics, may explain 70% of satellite observed concentric eyewalls from 1991-2020.

1. Introduction

Tropical cyclones (TCs), are commonly characterized by a tranquil low pressure center, i.e. storm eye, and a ring of intense convection called the eyewall (the term is a direct representation of the ~16 km's tall cloud wall that one can visually see from the storm eye). An eye and one ring of eyewall constitute the typical structure of TC. Observations have long shown, however, that for some TCs there exists a concentric (secondary or even tertiary) eyewall (CE) outside the primary eyewall (Black & Willoughby, 1992; Willoughby et al., 1982), with the moat region between them, a nearly echo-free annulus on radar, taking on the characteristics of the eye (Houze et al., 2007). The occurrence of CE is usually accompanied by the weakening of primary eyewall, which eventually dissipates while the outer eyewall contracts and takes over, in a process called eyewall replacement cycle (ERC). ERCs can last a few hours to more than a day (vary significantly among storms), during which storms undergo large oscillations in intensity and size, and is regarded as a 'key process in hurricane intensity change' (Houze et al., 2007). Storms with ERCs can have serious impacts to coastal communities, especially the rapid changes in intensification (e.g., Hurricane Andrew 1992, Hurricane Irma 2017) and rapid broadening of strong winds (e.g., Hurricane Katrina 2005) just prior to landfall.

CEs may not be captured by visible or infrared images because of the shielding from cirrus canopy and outward-slanting primary eyewall. It was not until 2004, when long-term

passive microwave data was analyzed, that we learned the percentage of CEs is ‘far higher than previously thought’ (Hawkins et al., 2006; Hawkins & Helveston, 2004). About 70% of major hurricanes (Saffir-Simpson Hurricane Scale, SSHS category 3-5, wind speed $> 47 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) show CEs (Hawkins et al., 2006; Hawkins & Helveston, 2004; Kossin & Sitkowski, 2009a; Hung-Chi Kuo et al., 2009). Compared with single-eyewall storms, CE storms are found to be associated with stronger wind speed, smaller eye diameter, colder infrared brightness temperatures, higher sea surface temperatures, weaker environmental wind shear, and lower latitudes (Hence & Houze, 2012; Kossin & Sitkowski, 2009a; Yang et al., 2013). Unlike single-eyewall storms, the weakening of intensity of CE storms typically occurs in an environment that is not indicative of weakening (Kossin & DeMaria, 2016) and is accompanied with maintaining or increasing convective activity (Yang et al., 2013).

Mechanisms of CE formation have been investigated from various perspectives, from the ambient environment (e.g. humidity (Ge, 2015; Hill & Lackmann, 2009), beta shear (Fang & Zhang, 2012), storm interaction with midlatitude jet (Dai et al., 2017), upper-level trough (Molinari & Vollaro, 1990; Nong & Emanuel, 2003), nearby vortices (H-C. Kuo et al., 2004; Hung-Chi Kuo et al., 2008)), to the internal dynamics of the storm (e.g. vortex Rossby waves-mean flow interaction (Montgomery & Kallenbach, 1997; Terwey & Montgomery, 2008), potential vorticity in rainbands (Judt & Chen, 2010; May & Holland, 1999), supergradient wind and unbalanced boundary layer response (Abarca & Montgomery, 2013, 2014; Bell et al., 2012; Huang et al., 2012), positive feedback among radial vorticity gradient, frictional convergence and moist convection (Kepert, 2013), wind-induced surface heat exchange (Cheng & Wu, 2018; Nong & Emanuel, 2003), outer-core latent heating (Bell et al., 2012; Rozoff et al., 2012; Wang, 2009), timescale of filamentation vs. convection (Rozoff et al., 2006), ice-phase microphysics (Zhou & Wang, 2011)).

In this study, we present a simple diagnostic, the lower bound of radial gradient of absolute angular momentum computed with Holland’s 2010 (hereafter H10) reaching a critical threshold, $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r}_{min} \rightarrow 0$, as a diagnostic for eyewall replacement. The diagnostic takes input of three basic storm characteristics, maximum wind speed (V_m), radius of maximum wind (R_m), and latitude of the storm. With observed V_m , R_m and latitude from International Best Track Archive for Climate Stewardship (IBTrACS, Knapp et al. 2018), the diagnostic is shown to coincide with ~70% of satellite-observed CEs during 1991-2020. We are surprised

that the information of a storm undergoing ERC, previously recognized only by satellite observations or flight-level aircraft observations, may be folded in just three numbers.

The diagnostic is introduced in Section 2. Section 3 describes satellite observations of CEs for global storms 1991-2020, which are used to evaluate the diagnostic in Section 4. The peakedness of wind is discussed in Section 5. Section 6 summarizes the paper with suggestions on future directions.

2. Mathematical expression of the diagnostic

In the frictional inflow layer of a circular vortex, the principal balance is between radial advection of angular momentum and frictional torque acting on the azimuthal velocity (Lu et al., 2018; Ooyama, 1969),

$$u \frac{\partial M}{\partial r} \cong -r \frac{\partial \tau_\theta}{\partial z}, \quad (1)$$

where u is the radial velocity, r is the radius from the storm center, M is the absolute angular momentum per unit mass ($M = rV + 0.5fr^2$, where V is the azimuthal wind speed and f is the Coriolis parameter), and τ_θ is the azimuthal turbulent stress.

Eqn.(1) is used in the simple physics-based TC rainfall model, TCR, for risk assessment purpose (Emanuel, 2017; Feldmann et al., 2019; Gori et al., 2022; Lu et al., 2018; Xi et al., 2020; L. Zhu et al., 2013, 2021). Together with continuity equation, Eqn.(1) gives estimates of vertical velocity from frictional convergence at the top of boundary layer. Previous case study analysis (Lu et al., 2018) showed that rainfall from frictional convergence contribute to over 70% of total rainfall in TCR, and Holland's wind model, when applied in TCR, would result in rainfall estimates most close to downscaled modeling, better than theoretical parametric wind models of Emanuel 2004 (hereafter E04), Emanuel and Rotunno 2011 (hereafter ER11) and Chavas et al. 2015 (hereafter C15).

Fig.1a shows V from a widely used parametric wind model, Holland's 2010 (H10) and the sign of u from Eqn. (1). For ordinary TCs (blue line), with a predefined V from H10 with observed V_m and R_m , $\partial M / \partial r$ remains positive along r , resulting in negative u from Eqn. (1), indicating consistent convergence from large radius to eyewall. As to the most intense and compact TCs (red dashed line), a predefined V from H10 could make the lower bound of $\partial M / \partial r$, $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r}_{min}$, gets to zero (or even negative) at some point along r (which will never

happen in real TCs due to divergence of the flow), resulting in the unrealistic u from Eqn. (1) ($u \rightarrow \infty$ or $u > 0$) and a crude picture of secondary eyewall occurrence. Such singularity would not occur with theoretical wind models E04, ER11 and C15, for the thermodynamic solutions ensure $\partial M / \partial r$ always positive. But with semi-empirical wind model like Holland 1980 (hereafter H80) and H10, where V is deduced from an empirical pressure distribution (Eqn. 2, calculating pressure p from storm central pressure p_c using an empirical b parameter controlling the peakedness of wind) and cyclostrophic balance (Eqn. 3),

$$p = p_c + \Delta p_c e^{-\left(\frac{r}{R_m}\right)^b}, \quad (2)$$

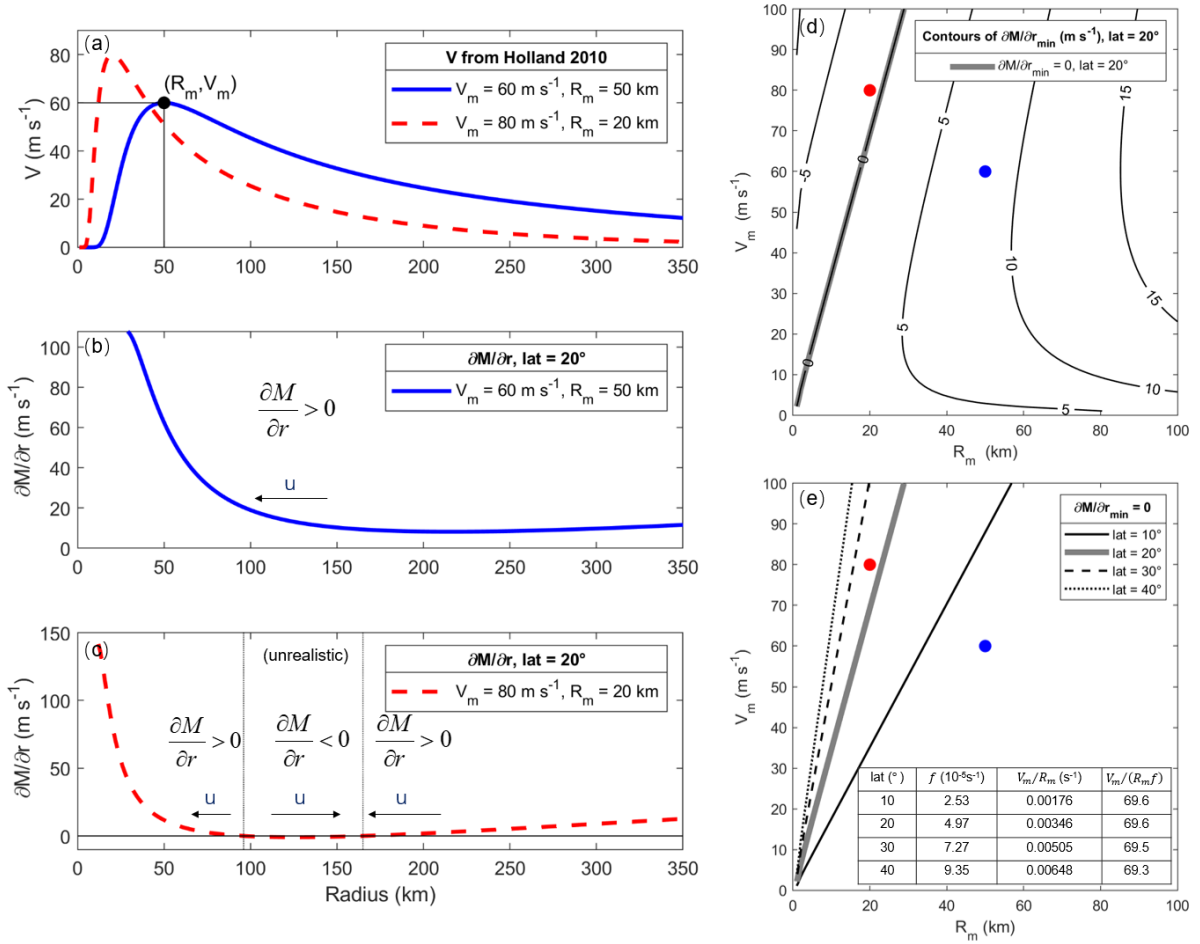
$$V = V_m \left\{ \left(\frac{r}{R_m}\right)^{-b} e^{\left[1 - \left(\frac{r}{R_m}\right)^{-b}\right]} \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}, \quad (3)$$

$\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}} \rightarrow 0$ may occur for storms featuring large V_m and small R_m . In this study we use H10 (Eqn. 4), which improves upon Eqn. (3) by allowing b to vary with storms and exponent x to adjust to observations (Detailed in Text S1).

$$V = V_m \left\{ \left(\frac{r}{R_m}\right)^{-b_s} e^{\left[1 - \left(\frac{r}{R_m}\right)^{-b_s}\right]} \right\}^x, \quad (4)$$

We start with a simple set of parameter $b_s = 1.8$ from a baseline hurricane discussed in H10 with sensitivity analysis in Section 5.

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137 Fig.1.(a) V and (b,c) $\partial M / \partial r$ along r for two idealized vortices. The parametric wind model used is
 138 H10. Parameter $b_s = 1.8$ from a baseline hurricane is used (detailed in Section 5). (d) Contours of the
 139 lower bound of $\partial M / \partial r$ along radius for varying V_m and R_m . (e) Contours of $\partial M / \partial r = 0$ for varying
 140 latitudes. Table in (e) shows values of Rossby Number on $\partial M / \partial r = 0$ with varying latitudes.

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142 Fig.1d shows contours of the $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{\min}}$ with varying V_m and R_m . We name the triangle
 143 region with $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{\min}} < 0$ the ‘singular zone’, namely V_m and R_m falling in ‘singular zone’
 144 induces singularity in Eqn.(1). The ‘singular zone’ features large V_m and small R_m ,
 145 consistent with our previous knowledge that eyewall replacements occur for the most intense

and compact storms. $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}} = 0$ for H10 results in a straight line through (0,0) on the $V_m - R_m$ plane (this is a unique property of H10 and not found for other wind models, Fig.S1), intuitively showing that, with H10, the high relative vorticity near the eyewall cannot continue to increase with disrupted inward advection of angular momentum ($\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}} \rightarrow 0$, singularity of Eqn 1). Furthermore, the slope of $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}} = 0$ is found scaled by f , i.e. the Rossby Number stays constant with varying latitudes on $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}} = 0$ (Fig.1e, Fig.4c), showing the relative vorticity a storm can achieve is dependent on planetary vorticity. In other words, a storm needs to be more intense and compact to trigger CE at higher latitudes, consistent with observations that CE storms generally have lower latitudes compared to non-CE storms (Kossin & Sitkowski, 2009b).

3. Data

One common practice in systematically detecting CEs is analyzing the 85 GHz passive microwave data. If two rings of intense convection separated by a nearly echo-free annulus is observed, the storm is labeled as showing CE (criteria vary slightly among studies, e.g., outer ring covers at least 2/3 of a circle (Hung-Chi Kuo et al., 2009), or 3/4 of a circle (Kossin & Sitkowski, 2009a)). In this study, the CEs were detected by analyzing 85/92 GHz brightness temperature T_b from Special Sensor Microwave/Imager (SSM/I), Special Sensor Microwave Imager and Sounder (SSMIS) and the Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission Microwave Imager (TMI) from 1991 to 2020. 22837 snapshots of 2462 storms were collected, covering 77.7% of the total 3169 storms documented in IBTrACS from 1991-2020. Time intervals between successive snapshots of one storm vary greatly, with a mean of 16.4 h and standard deviation of 18.2 h.

We adopt the criteria of CE in Kuo et al. 2009, i.e., $T_b \leq 230 K$ covering at least 2/3 of a circle, and identify 610 snapshots of 311 storms as showing CE (hereafter CE group), with the rest of storms non-CE group. Snapshot locations and tracks of the CE group are shown in Fig.2a. The diagnostic $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}}$ is dependent on three parameters: V_m , R_m , and f (computed from latitude of the storm center). We obtain observations of these three parameters from IBTrACS version 4.0 (Knapp et al. 2018). Note that while V_m and f are available for most

storms during their lifetime, R_m is only available for 216 CE storms and 1317 non-CE storms during part of the storm lifetime. Only storms with V_m , R_m and f observations are used in the following analysis.

4. Results

Sitkowski et al. (2011) expanded the paradigm first established by Willoughby et al. (1982) and documented the three phases of ERC: 1) *Intensification*, characterized by outer wind maximum undergoing contraction and inner wind maximum reaching peak intensity (often associated with rapid intensification); 2) *Weakening*, inner wind maximum weakens and as the outer wind maximum contracts and surpasses inner wind maximum, at the same time, concentric rings appear on microwave imagery near the midpoint of this phase; 3) *Reintensification*, inner wind maximum decays and outer wind maximum takes over as primary eyewall.

According to Sitkowski et al. (2011), all CE snapshots are observed in *Weakening* phase, during which V_m and R_m documented in IBTrACS may or may not be of the inner eyewall. Note that the diagnostic $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}}$ should take input of the inner eyewall. To avoid such complexities, we first focus on the lifetime minimum $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}}$ of each storm (targeting at the *Intensification* phase prior to the observed CEs), and then look into the timing of CE snapshots following the lifetime minimum $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}}$.

4.1 Lifetime minimum $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}}$

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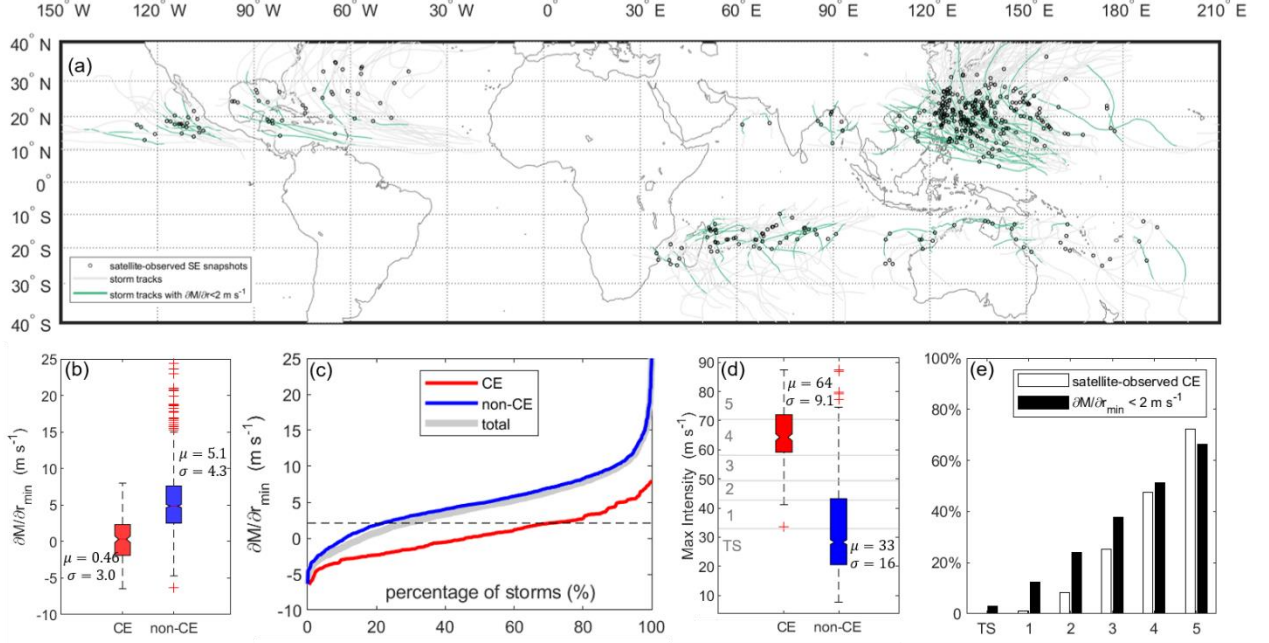


Fig.2. (a) Locations of the CE snapshots and tracks of the CE storms. Green line marks the time window associated with $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}} < 2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ and the subsequent 24 h. (b) Lifetime minimum $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}}$ values of CE vs non-CE. (c) same as (b) shown in c.d.f. (d) Lifetime maximum windspeed of CE vs non-CE, with SSSH categories labeled. (e) Percentage of occurrence among SSSH categories of satellite observations and

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}} < 2 \text{ m s}^{-1}.$$

Lifetime minimum $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}}$ shows significant difference between CE vs non-CE groups

(Fig.2b), with p value for the F-test being 1.14×10^{-10} . The mean of $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}}$ is 0.46 (very

close to 0) and 5.1 with a standard deviation 3.0 and 4.3 for the CE and non-CE group,

respectively. With c.d.f. of $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}}$ (Fig.2c), as well as Probability of Detection and False

Alarm Ratio (Table S1), we choose to use a threshold of 2 m s^{-1} , which separates about

75%~80% of storms in CE vs non-CE groups, as a benchmark threshold for $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}} \rightarrow 0$ for

the rest of analysis. The 20% of non-CE storms with $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}} < 2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ are likely associated

with ERC but not captured by microwave observations (detailed in Table S1), and the 30% of

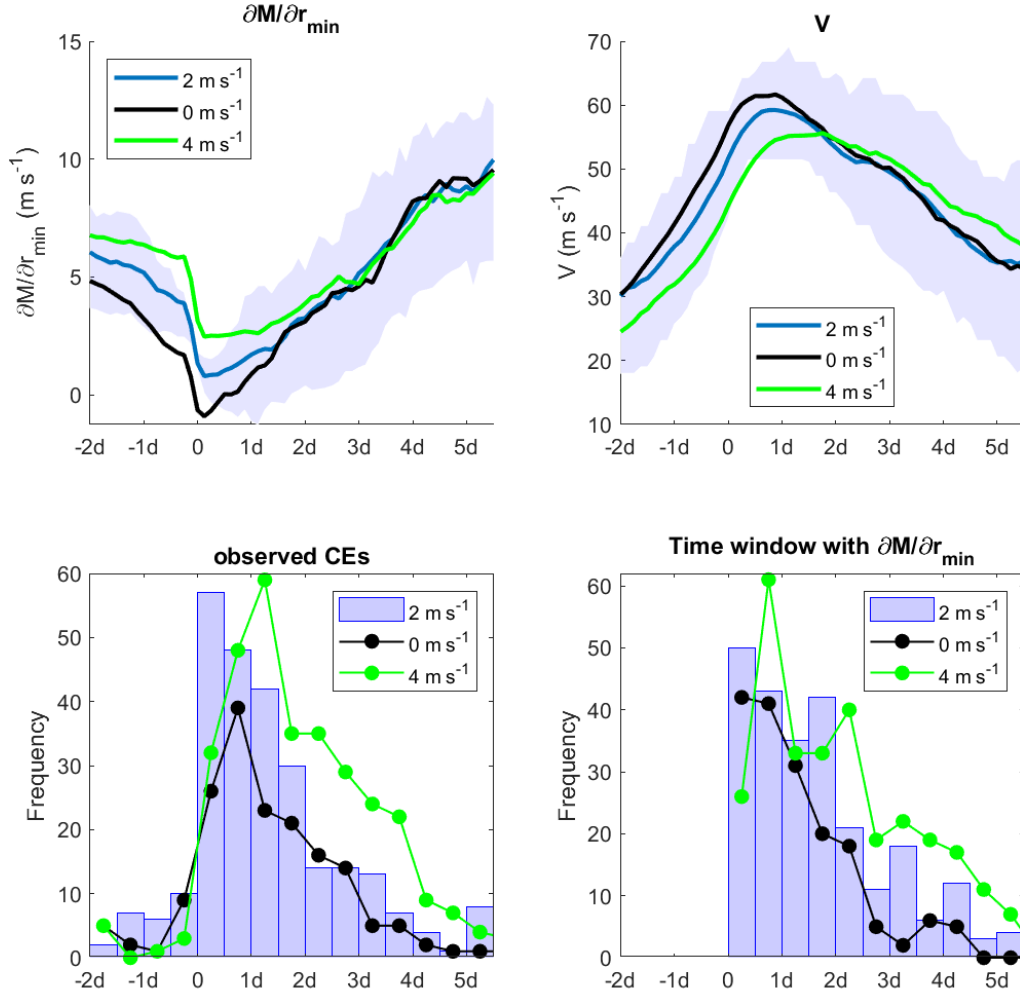
CE storms with $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}} > 2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ are likely associated with storm interaction with the

environment (discussed in Section 4.2). The spread of observed CE among storm categories

is generally reproduced by $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}} < 2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ (Fig.2e), indicating the ability of the diagnostic to work among various storm categories.

4.2. Timing

For storms associated with lifetime minimum $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}} < 2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ (70% of the CE group, 268 CEs), we plot the composite evolution of $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}}$ aligned at the time when $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}}$ first gets below 2 m s^{-1} (blue line and shading in Fig.3a). There is a sharp drop of $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}}$ below the threshold followed by a gradual increase, accompanied by a surge of observed CEs (Fig.3c). The surge of observed CEs gradually decays in 4-5 days, in a very similar distribution as the time window associated with $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}} < 2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ (Fig.3d). In fact, 77% of CEs occur within 2 days after the diagnostic reaches below 2 m s^{-1} , and 89% within 4 days (Table 1). This temporal coincidence indicates that the diagnostic may have captured the timing of onset and subsequent duration of ERCs.



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228 Fig.3.(a) Evolution of $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{\min}}$ for storms in CE group aligned at the time when $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{\min}} < 2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, 0 m s^{-1} , 4 m s^{-1} , shading indicates the 25th and 75th percentile of spread with 2 m s^{-1} ; (b) same as (a) but for
 229 the evolution of V_m ; (c) incidence of CE snapshots regarding to the time when $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{\min}} < 2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, 0 m s^{-1} , 4 m s^{-1} ; (d) distribution of the time window associated with $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{\min}} < 2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, 0 m s^{-1} , 4 m s^{-1} . The
 230 number of CEs in the composites is 268, 172, 333 for lifetime minimum $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{\min}} < 2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, 0 m s^{-1} , 4 m s^{-1} , respectively (details in Table S2).
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235 The composite evolution of V_m shows rapid increases as $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{\min}}$ approaches 2 m s^{-1}
 236 (30.0 knots of increase in composite mean of V_m from -18 h to 6 h), followed by a gradual

increase to peak intensity in 24 h (blue line and shading in Fig.3b). Together with the surge of CEs following $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{\min}} < 2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, this constitutes a clear picture of the *Intensification phase* (often characterized by rapid intensification) and *Weakening phase* (characterized by weakening and appearance of CEs on microwave imagery) of ERCs documented by Sitkowski et al. (2011). This is also consistent with previous observational studies that CEs on average are observed around the time of lifetime maximum intensity (Hung-Chi Kuo et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2013). From this perspective, $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{\min}} < 2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ may an indicator of the transition between the *Intensification phase* and *Weakening phase* of ERCs. The above findings do not vary much if we change the threshold from 2 m s^{-1} to 0 m s^{-1} or 4 m s^{-1} (Fig.3 and Table S1). With a stricter threshold, the number of CEs used in the composite is smaller, associated with more rapid intensification and higher intensity.

Some observed CEs are associated with relatively large values of $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{\min}}$, and are not captured by this diagnostic. One notable example is the last observed CE of Super Typhoon Muifa (2011, Fig.S2). Seven CEs were observed during Muifa, while six are associated with ERCs start with $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{\min}} < 2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$. The last CE of Muifa, separated by non-CEs from previous ERCs, is associated with $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{\min}} > 7 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ for over 24 hours. As discussed in more detail in Zhu and Yu (2019), the last observed CE of Muifa characterized strong interactions with the environment while earlier CE of Muifa occurred in a relatively quiet environment. It's a clear sign that there exist multiple mechanisms for CE occurrence, and some do not directly involve V_m , R_m , f , such as the interaction of the vortex with mid-latitude jet (Dai et al., 2017) or upper-level trough (Molinari & Vollaro, 1990; Nong & Emanuel, 2003). Generally, CEs not captured by this diagnostic has higher latitudinal distributions (Fig.S3). The attribution of different CE mechanisms is a very interesting topic for future studies.

5. Discussion on the peakedness of wind

The peakedness of wind in H10 is controlled by the b_s parameter (how fast pressure deficit drop along the radius). Higher value of b_s results in higher peakedness of wind, more expanded 'singular zone' on $V_m - R_m$ plane, lower values of $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{\min}}$ and higher chances of ERCs. In Section 4, we use $b_s = 1.8$, which comes from a baseline hurricane discussed in

H10. The baseline hurricane is composed of sea surface temperature $SST = 28^\circ\text{C}$, latitude $\varphi = 20^\circ$, $\Delta p_c = 55 \text{ hPa}$, intensity change $\partial p_c / \partial t = 3 \text{ hPa s}^{-1}$, translational speed $v_t = 5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$. These result in values of $b_s = 1.8$, $x_n = 0.8$ and $r_n/R_m = 15$. H10 provides a statistical approach to better estimate b_s from p_c , φ and v_t ,

$$b_s = -4.4 \times 10^{-5} \Delta p_c^2 + 0.01 \Delta p_s + 0.03 \frac{\partial p_c}{\partial t} - 0.014 \varphi + 0.15 v_t^{0.6 \left(1 - \frac{\Delta p_c}{215}\right)} + 1.0, \quad (5)$$

here we show the sensitivity of the diagnostic to b_s using Eqn (5).

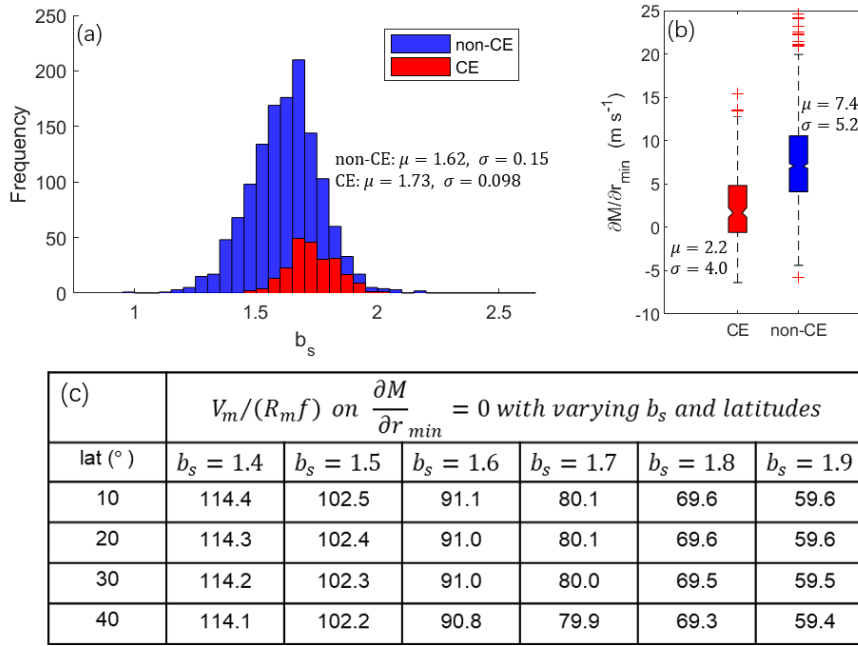


Fig.4. (a) Lifetime maximum b_s values computed for CE and non-CE using Eqn. (5) with inputs from IBTrACS. The mean and standard deviation of b_s for both groups are labeled. (b) Same as in Fig.2b but use b_s from Eqn.(5) instead of $b_s = 1.8$. (c) $V_m/(R_m f)$ on $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{\min}} = 0$ with varying b_s and latitudes.

Generally CE storms are associated with higher b_s than non-CE storms (with a mean of 1.73 vs 1.62 for CE vs non-CE groups). The baseline value $b_s = 1.8$ is higher than most of the storms, therefore using the varying b_s from Eqn.(5) results in slightly higher $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{\min}}$ for most storms, but still with significant difference between CE vs non-CE groups (Fig.4b). Taking a threshold of 4 m s^{-1} , the diagnostic with varying b_s shows very similar evolution and a surge of observed CEs (Fig.S4) as the diagnostic with fixed $b_s = 1.8$ and a threshold of 2 m s^{-1} (Fig.3).

It's worth noted that ERCs can have 'rapid and substantial effect on wind-pressure relationship' (Kossin, 2015), therefore Eqn.(5) may not give accurate values of b_s for CE storms. The desired b_s to be used in the diagnostic $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}}$ should depict the peakedness of the inner eyewall. Since H10 didn't distinguish observations from inner vs outer eyewalls for CE storms in deriving Eqn.(5), the b_s from Eqn.(5) may be biased towards low values for the use in the diagnostic $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}}$. Taking this into account, also in preference to a simple diagnostic, we propose to use a fixed value of $b_s = 1.8$ in computing $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}}$, as evaluated in Section 4.

6. Summary and Discussions

We propose a simple diagnostic, the lower bound of radial gradient of absolute angular momentum computed with H10 reaching a critical threshold, $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}} \rightarrow 0$, as a diagnostic for eyewall replacement. As approaching the critical threshold, boundary layer radial inflow is disrupted, limiting inward advection of angular momentum to the inner-core but favoring the spinup of an outer eyewall (and resulting drastic halt of storm intensification while the storm environments stay stable, as illustrated in our parallel work Lu et al. 2022). This diagnostic is a crude representation of internal variability of the storms and is shown to be associated with ~70% satellite-observed CEs. It highlights the importance of pressure-wind relationships and the role of secondary circulation in controlling the structure (and intensity, Lu et al. 2022) evolution of TCs.

The diagnostic is dependent on three storm characteristics, V_m , R_m and f . It depicts ERC as a storm entering the 'singular zone', featuring large V_m and small R_m , on the $V_m - R_m$ plane. It intuitively shows that, with H10, the high relative vorticity near the eyewall cannot continue to increase with disrupted inward advection of angular momentum ($\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{min}} \rightarrow 0$, singularity of Eqn.(1)). This corresponds nicely with observations that CEs are associated with stronger wind speed and smaller eye diameter (Kossin & Sitkowski, 2009a; Hung-Chi Kuo et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2013). Environmental conditions (e.g. higher sea surface temperature, weaker environmental wind shear (Kossin & Sitkowski, 2009a; Yang et al., 2013), higher humidity(Hill & Lackmann, 2009)) and internal processes (e.g. the wind-induced surface heat exchange (Cheng & Wu, 2018; Nong & Emanuel, 2003), outer-core latent heating (Bell et al., 2012; Rozoff et al., 2012)) that favor the development of intense and compact storms will contribute to the development of ERC by pushing the storm into the

‘singular zone’. But once inside the ‘singular zone’ and ERC starts (moat forms), the intensity of inner eyewall will no longer respond to favorable environment. This is consistent with the observations that the drop of V_m during ERC typically occurs in an environment that is not indicative of weakening (Kossin & DeMaria, 2016), and accompanied by steady or increasing convective activity (Yang et al., 2013). The ~30% of satellite-observed CEs not captured by this diagnostic generally have higher latitudinal distributions, and might be related to storm interaction with mid-latitude jet or upper-level trough.

Furthermore, the slope of the ‘singular zone’ is found to scaled by f . In other words, the diagnostic may be expressed as a latitude-irrelevant Rossby Number, related to the peakedness of wind. It intuitively shows that the relative vorticity a storm can achieve is dependent on planetary vorticity, and a storm needs to be more intense and compact to trigger CE at higher latitudes, which is consistent with observations that CE storms have lower latitudes compared to non-CE storms (Kossin & Sitkowski, 2009b). This is a unique and intriguing property of H10 and worth further investigation in the future.

Despite its great impact on storm size and intensity, ERC has rarely been accounted for in statistical intensity prediction or risk assessment of TCs. The simple form of this diagnostic makes it possible. We look forward to improvements in the modeling of TC intensity and TC-induced hazards, especially TC rainfall modeling, where the singularity was first observed.

Last but not least, the eyes of TCs have long been viewed as singularities of the atmospheric systems, although the explicit mathematical expression of such a singularity has not yet been revealed. If we shift our focus from intense convection of the storm, i.e., eyewalls, to the opposite of them, i.e., the eye and the moat, then ERC is not only the emergence of an outer eyewall gradually contracts and replaces inner eyewall, but also the emergence of a moat that gradually joins the eye. In this study, the occurrence of CE, or the occurrence of the moat, is found to take form of a singularity ($\partial M / \partial r \rightarrow 0$). Given that the moat is “dynamically similar to the eye” (Houze et al., 2007) and eventually becomes part of the eye, we are thrilled to think this diagnostic may shed light on an explicit form of singularity of the eye.

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Open Research

IBTrACS dataset is openly available from NOAA NCEI at <https://doi.org/10.25921/82ty-9e16> as cited in Knapp et al. (2018, 2010).

SSM/I dataset is openly available from NOAA NCEI at <https://doi.org/10.7289/V5SJ1HKZ> as cited in Wentz et al. (2013).

TMI dataset is openly available from NASA GES DISC at <https://doi.org/10.5067/GPM/TMI/TRMM/1B/05> as cited in TMI (2017).

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Figure1.

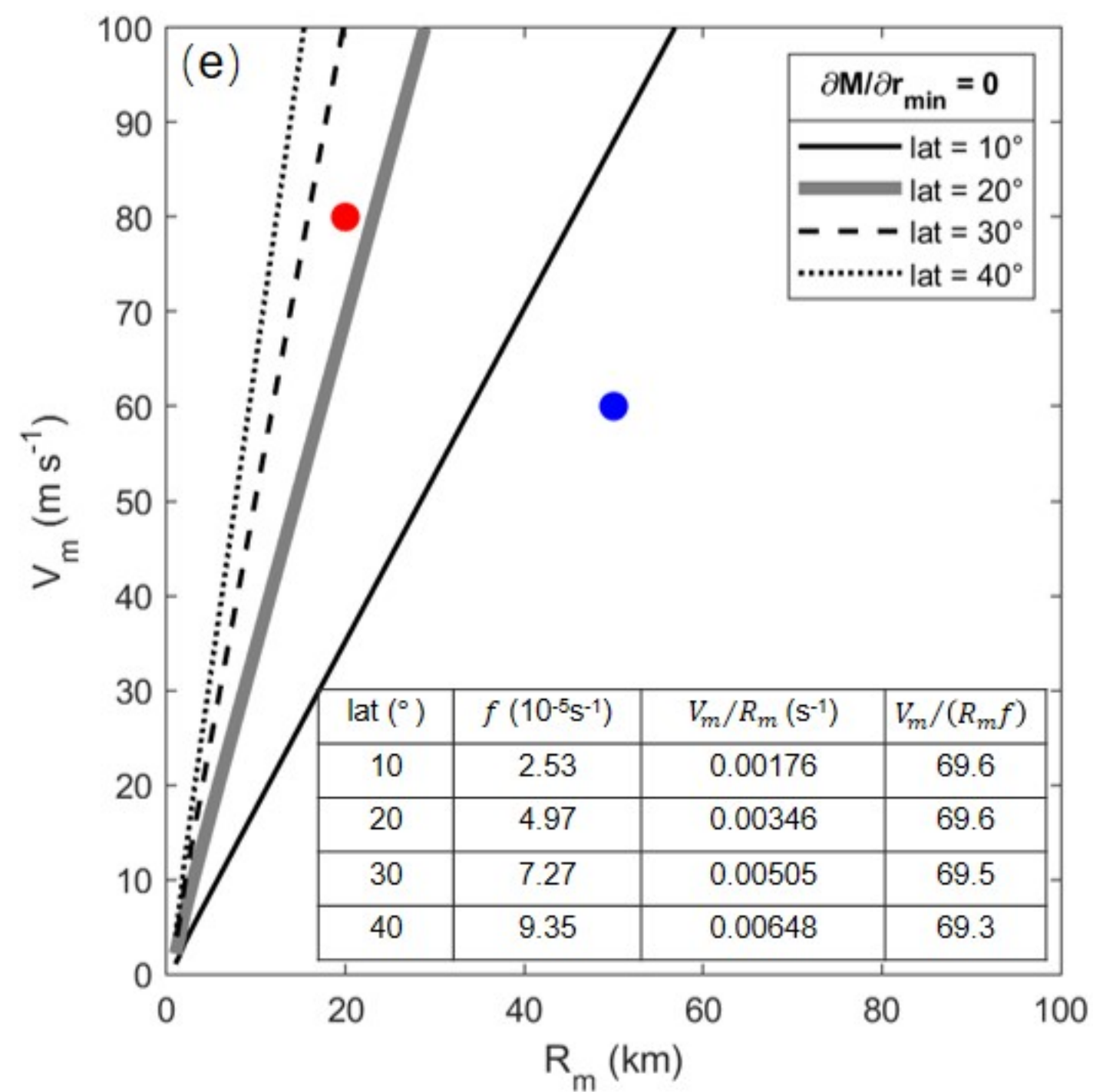
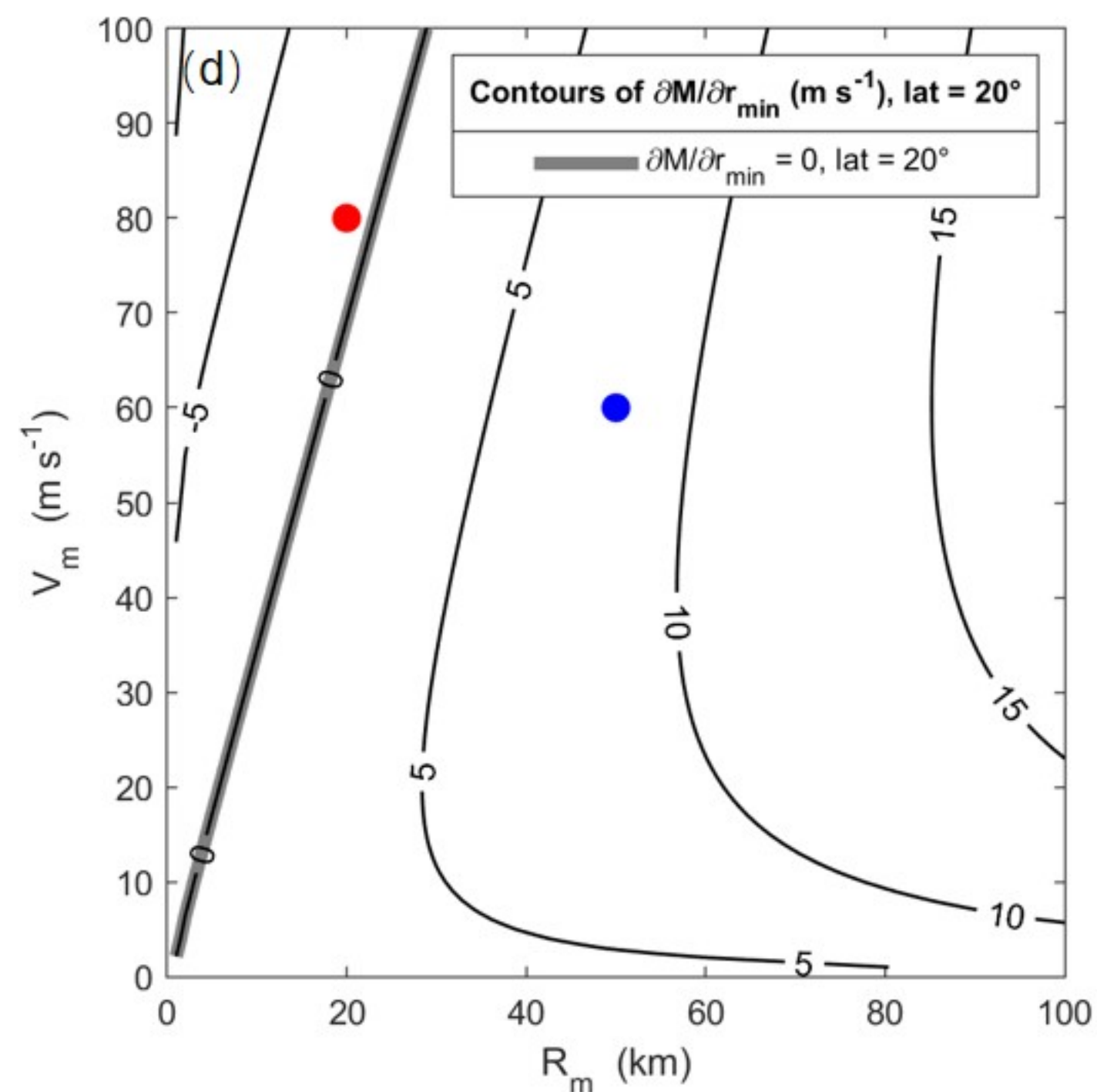
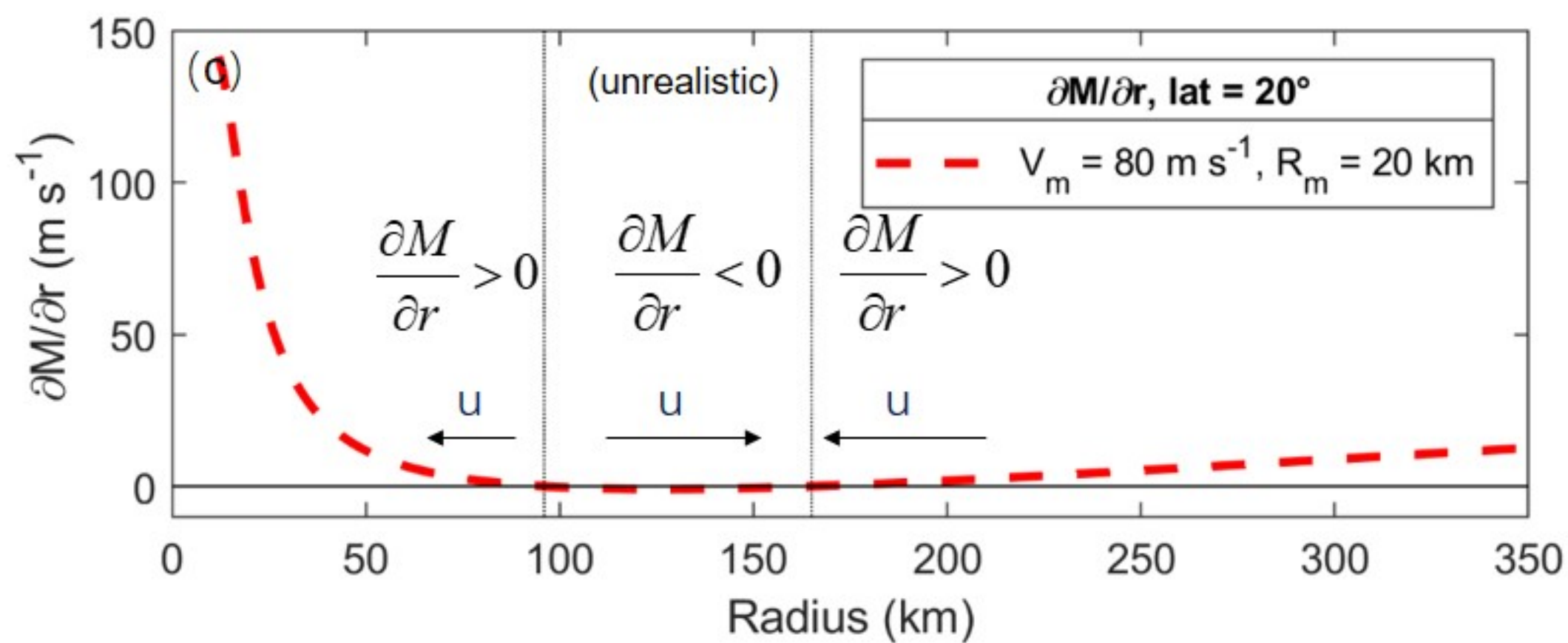
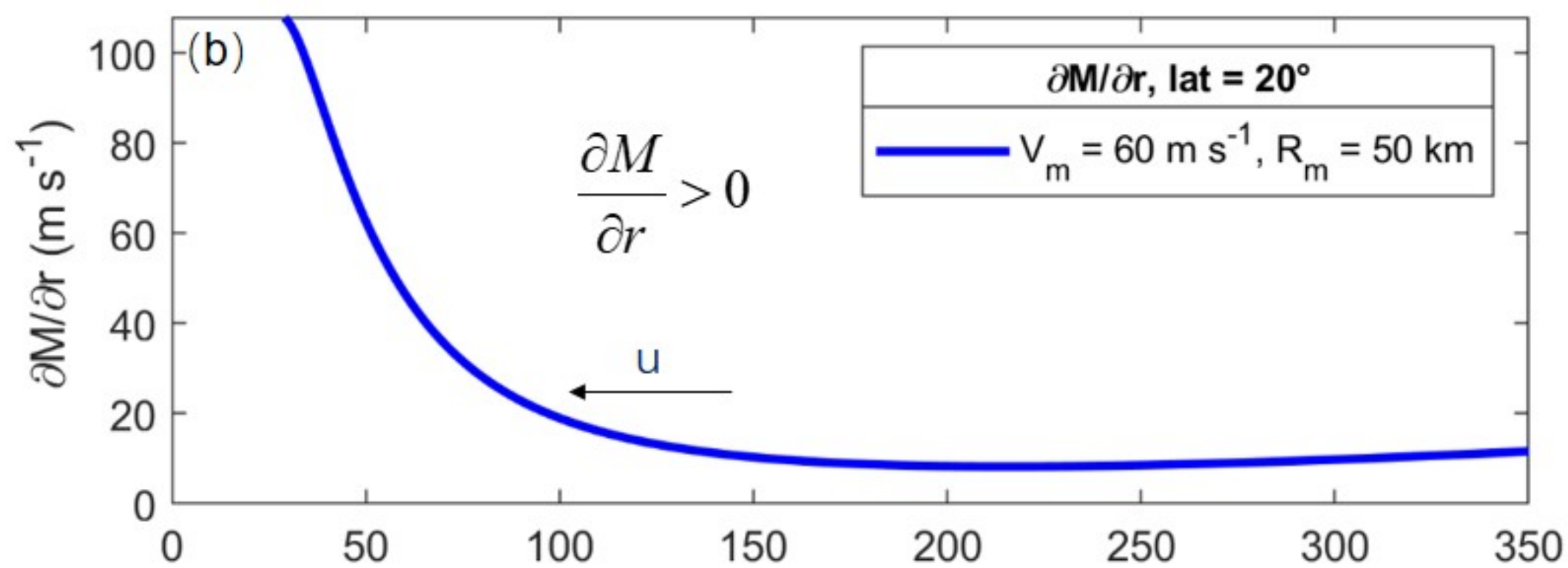
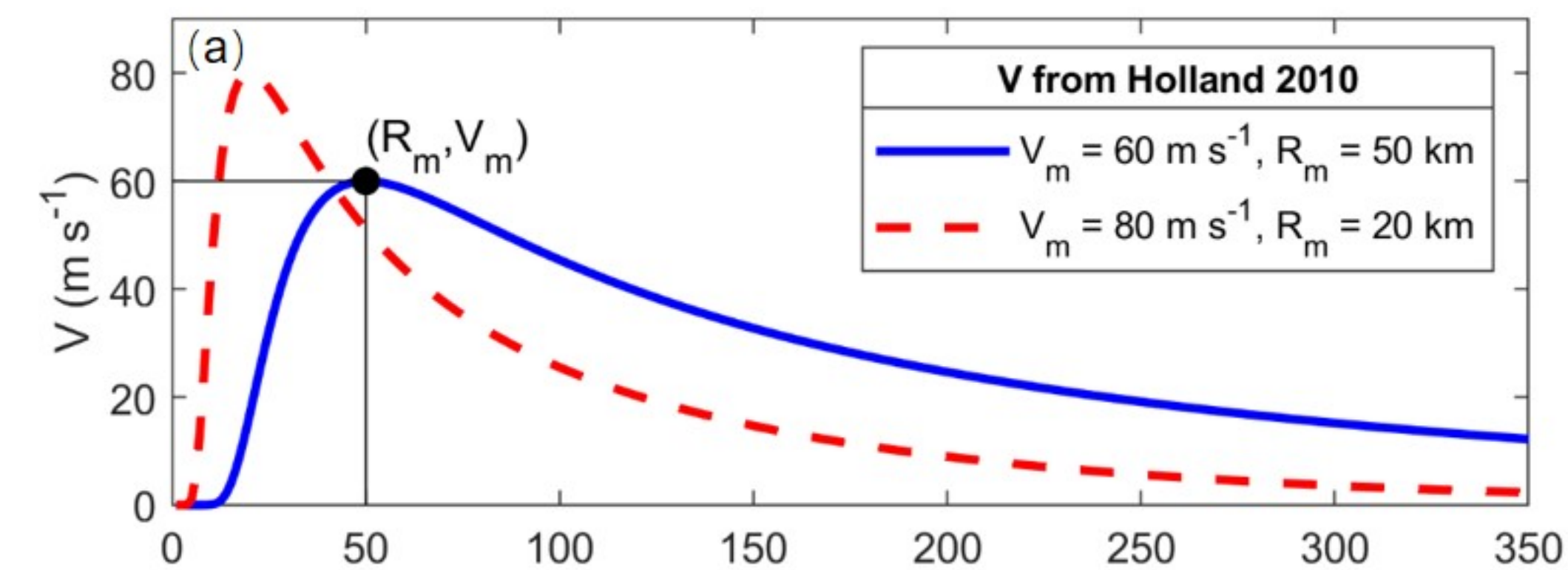


Figure2.

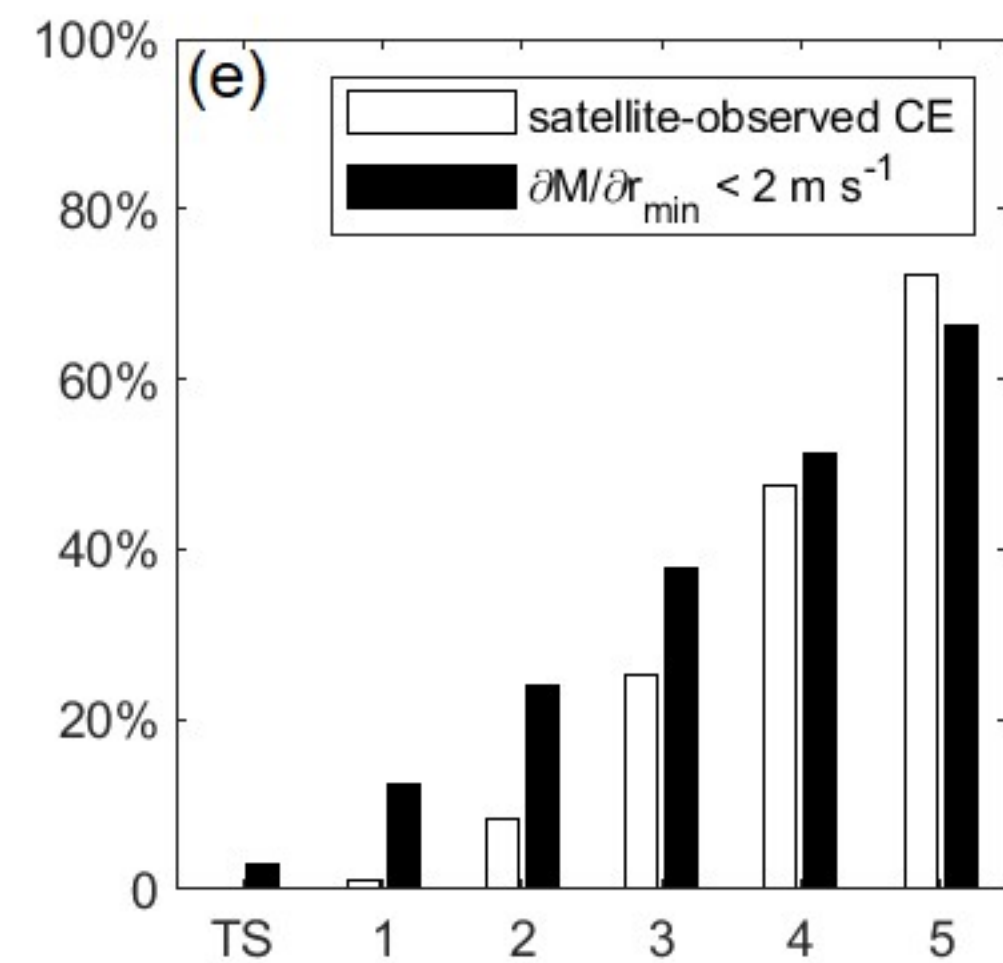
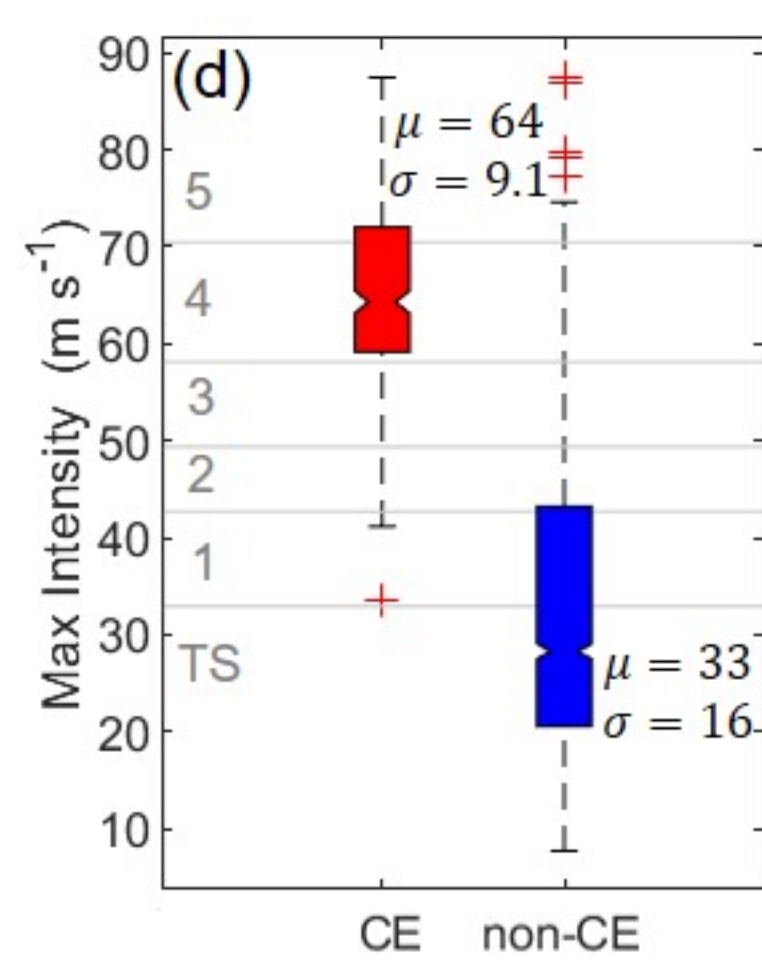
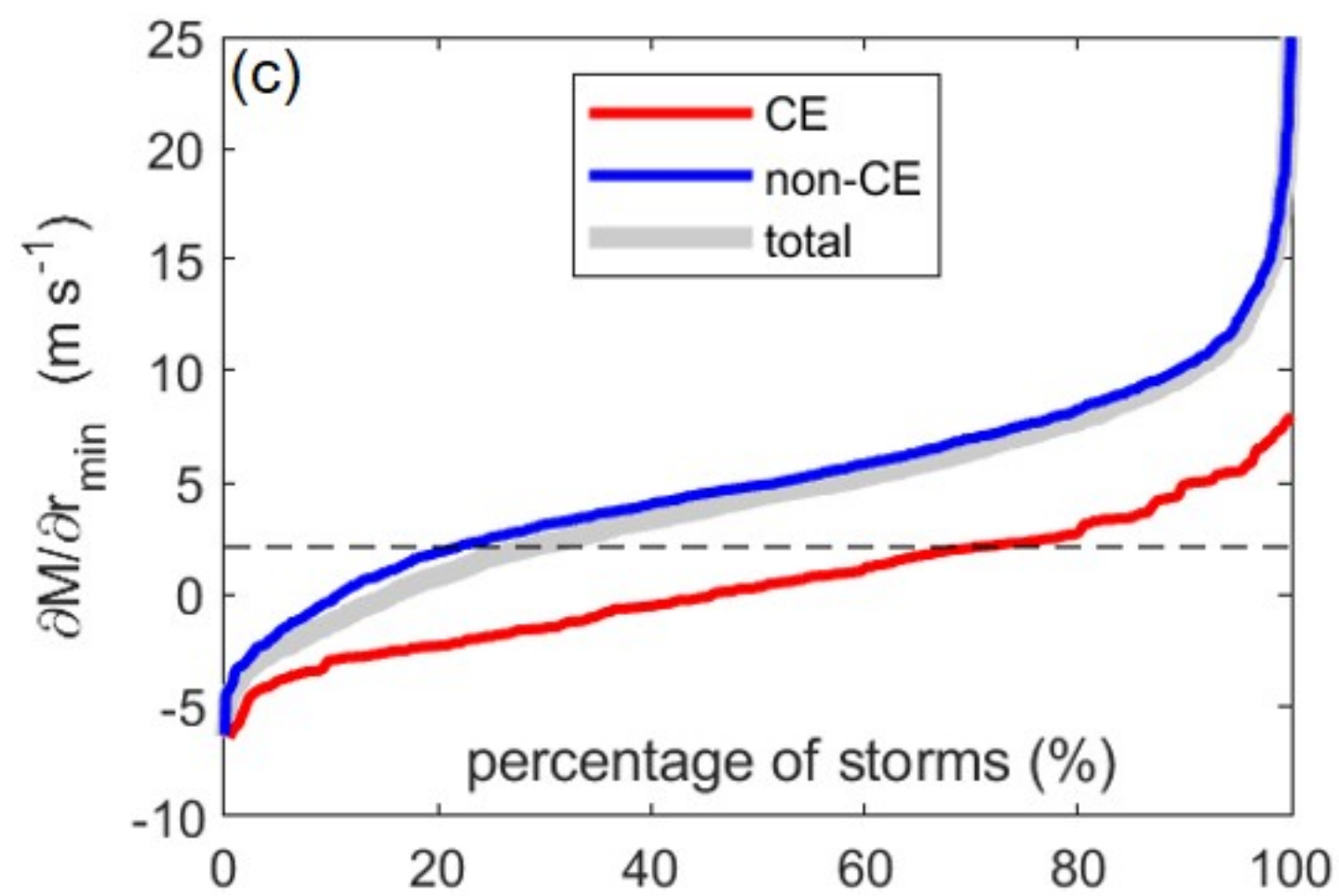
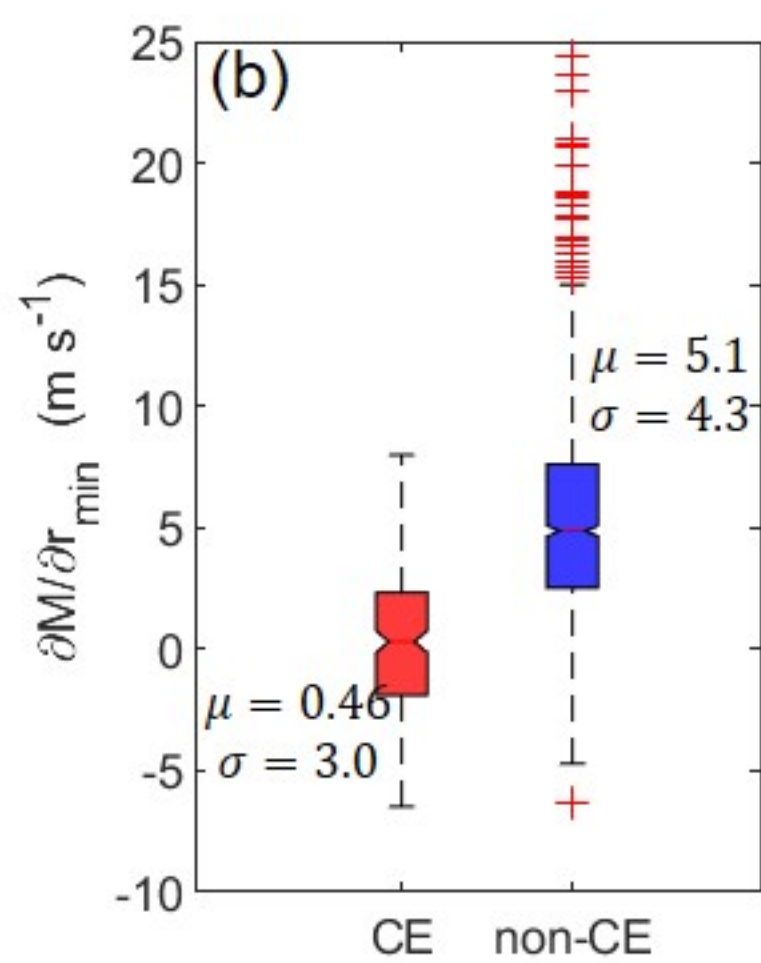
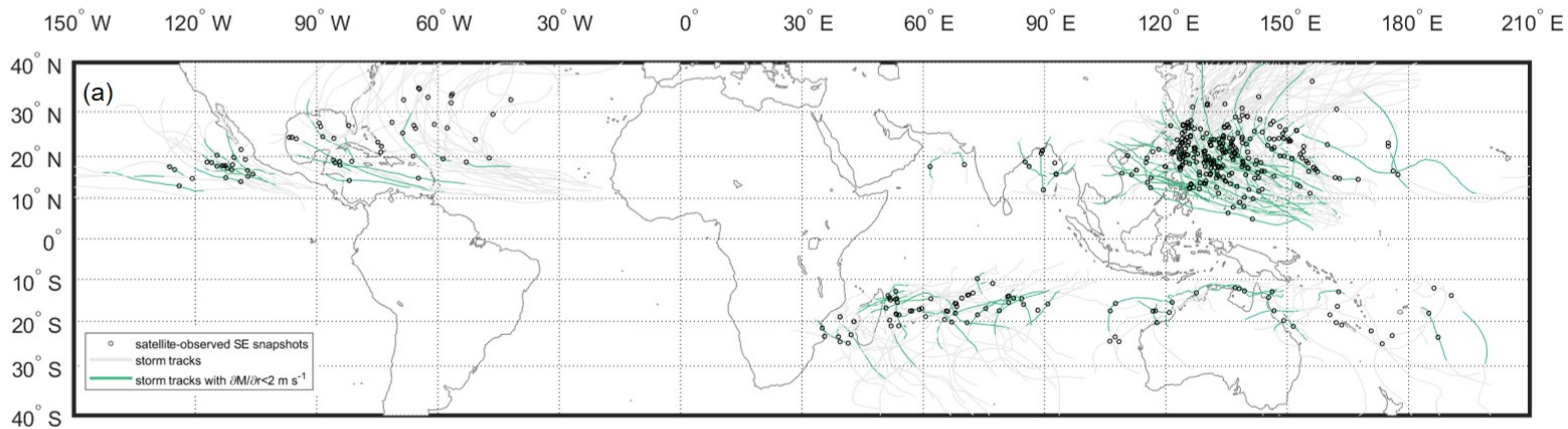


Figure3.

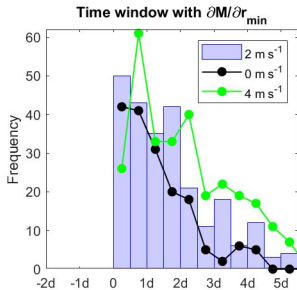
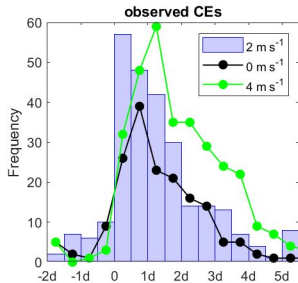
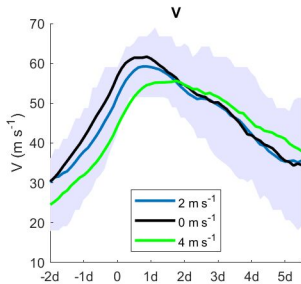
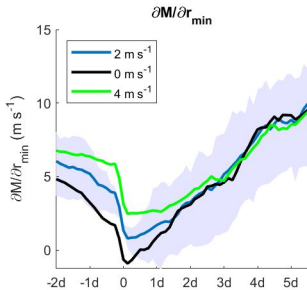
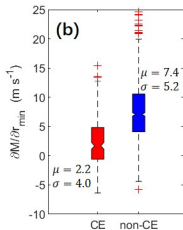
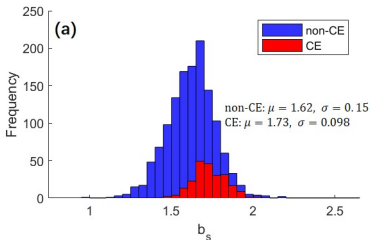


Figure4.



(c)

	$V_m/(R_m f)$ on $\frac{\partial M}{\partial r_{\min}} = 0$ with varying b_s and latitudes					
lat ($^\circ$)	$b_s = 1.4$	$b_s = 1.5$	$b_s = 1.6$	$b_s = 1.7$	$b_s = 1.8$	$b_s = 1.9$
10	114.4	102.5	91.1	80.1	69.6	59.6
20	114.3	102.4	91.0	80.1	69.6	59.6
30	114.2	102.3	91.0	80.0	69.5	59.5
40	114.1	102.2	90.8	79.9	69.3	59.4