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The o2o3 Local Galerkin Method Using a Differentiable Flux Representation

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Abstract

The spectral element (SE) and local Galerkin (LG) methods may be re-26 garded as variants and generalizations of the classic Galerkin approach. In 27 this study, the second-order spectral element (SE2) method is compared 28 with the alternative LG scheme referred to as o2o3 that combines a second-29 order field representation (o2) with a third-order representation of the flux 30 (o3). The full name of o2o3 is $o2o3C^0C^1$, where the continuous basis func-31 tions in C^0 -space are used for the field representation and the piecewise 32 third-order differentiable basis functions in C^1 -space are used for the flux 33 approximation. The flux in o2o3 is approximated by a piecewise polyno-34 mial function that is both continuous and differentiable, in contrast to many 35 Galerkin and LG schemes that use either continuous or discontinuous basis 36 functions for flux approximations. We show that o2o3 not only has some 37 advantages of SE schemes but also possesses third-order accuracy similar 38 to o3o3 and SE3, while SE2 possesses second-order accuracy and does not 39 show superconvergence. SE3 has an approximation order greater than or 40 equal to three and uses the irregular Gauss-Lobatto collocation grid, while 41 SE2 and o2o3 have a regular collocation grid; this constitutes an advantage 42 for physical parameterizations and follow-up models, such as chemistry or 43 solid-earth models. Furthermore, o2o3 has the technical simplicity of SE2. 44 The common features (accuracy, convergence and numerical dispersion re-45

 $_{\rm 46}$ $\,$ lations) and differences between these schemes are described in detail for

- 47 one-dimensional homogeneous advection tests. A two-dimensional test for
- ⁴⁸ cut cells indicates the suitability of o2o3 for realistic applications.

Keywords o2o3; Spectral elements (SEs); Local Galerkin (LG); Advection
test; Collocation grid

51 1. Introduction

Some numerical atmospheric models use the classic Galerkin method 52 or its variants to discretize the state variables of the atmospheric motion 53 equations in basis functions. The global spectral method (Simmons et al. 54 1989) uses spherical harmonic basis functions, whereas the finite element 55 (FE) method employs the classic Galerkin method in combination with local 56 basis functions (Steppeler 1987). The advantages of the classic Galerkin FE 57 method include the combination of a high approximation order (third or 58 fourth order) with conservation properties and its suitability for irregular 59 grid structures. Another advantage, namely, a sparse grid, is obtained when 60 the Galerkin method is combined with higher than first-order FEs; in other 61 words, some of the points in the regular grid are omitted, considerably 62 reducing the computational time. For the FE method, such sparse grids are 63 called serendipity grids (Ahlberg et al. 1967). 64

⁶⁵ Classic Galerkin methods involve the solution of a linear equation related ⁶⁶ to the mass matrix. When the matrices are solved by direct methods, such ⁶⁷ as Gaussian elimination (Steppeler et al. 1990), they require global com-⁶⁸ munication, even though the basis functions are local and the mass matrix

has a band structure. As classic FE methods require global communication 69 between all cells within the computational domain, it is difficult to scale 70 such models for very large numbers of processors. Accordingly, variants of 71 the classic Galerkin procedure known as local Galerkin (LG) methods were 72 developed (Steppeler and Klemp 2017). In particular, spectral element (SE) 73 techniques are LG methods that have undergone substantial development 74 and are almost suitable for operational use (Herrington et al. 2019). SE 75 methods have achieved scalability for the Nonhydrostatic Unified Model 76 of the Atmosphere (NUMA) for up to millions of processors (Taylor et al. 77 1997; Giraldo 2001; Giraldo and Rosmond 2004; Kelly and Giraldo 2012). 78 The present paper investigates a higher-order LG method referred to as 79 o2o3, the full name of which is $o2o3C^0C^1$. The continuous basis functions 80 for the field representation are piecewise quadratic polynomials in C^0 -space, 81 while third-order differentiable basis functions in C^1 -space are used for the 82 flux approximation. $o2o3C^0C^1$ is a further development of the $o3o3C^0C^0$ 83 method (Steppeler et al. 2019a). Both o2o3 and o3o3 can be considered 84 variants and generalizations of the SE technique. High-order SE methods 85 use the irregular Gauss-Lobatto grid, possibly limiting the time step. Step-86 peler et al. (2019a) demonstrated that o3o3 inherits the advantages of SEs 87 and allows a larger time step to improve the computational efficiency. Even 88 though the effective resolution of o3o3 as defined by Ullrich et al. (2018) is 89

comparable to that of the third-order spectral element method (referred to 90 as SE3), a dispersion analysis showed that o3o3 has a large 0-space. This 91 means that waves are stationary for a relatively large range of wavenumbers. 92 Classic Galerkin approaches are widely applied in computational fluid 93 dynamics (CFD), where irregular cells are used to correctly describe the 94 surface of an airplane. In a meteorological context, this property may trans-95 late into an accurate representation of the lower surface, meaning a more 96 accurate approximation of mountains. Additionally, FEs are expected to 97 improve the impact of mountains on atmospheric circulation. For meteoro-98 logical models, it is important for the lines composed of grid points to be 99 horizontally aligned (Steppeler et al. 2006). Hence, these horizontal lines 100 of grid points cut into the mountains. However, the lower boundary rep-101 resentation is complex, which hinders the use of this approach during the 102 modeling process. Terrain-following coordinates enable the alignment of the 103 grids with the surface topography, thereby simplifying the computation of 104 the lower boundary condition (Phillips 1957). Horizontally aligned grids are 105 normally constructed using a regular height grid structure where only the 106 surface grid cells are irregular (Yamazaki and Satomura 2010). The hori-107 zontal alignment of numerical grids and the underlying terrain, such as that 108 obtained with cut cells (Nishikawa and Satoh 2016), will result in a more 109 accurate representation of mountains (Steppeler et al. 2006; Zängl 2012). 110

Steppeler et al. (2019b) showed that cut cells provide a better representation of vertical velocities in a three-dimensional realistic model than the models using terrain-following coordinates, leading to improved forecasts. Consequently, cut-cell models were used with grid point numerical methods (Yamazaki et al. 2016; Steppeler et al. 2019b).

Steppeler and Klemp (2017) showed that some finite-difference (FD) 116 cut-cell approximations can produce noisy solutions even for smooth moun-117 tains. Their work was limited to linear test functions and a rather simple 118 test mountain consisting of a straight line. However, SE and FE methods 119 are mostly performed on grids that are not horizontally aligned (Marras 120 et al. 2016). Therefore, the advantages of cut cells in representing moun-121 tains proposed by Steppeler and Klemp (2017) are not realized with these 122 FE/SE representations. In contrast, Galerkin methods using first-order ba-123 sis functions and horizontally aligned grids lead to solutions without such 124 noise (Steppeler and Klemp 2017). This finding confirms the fact that 125 Galerkin methods lead to accurate surface approximations when the cells 126 are adapted to the surface, meaning for horizontally aligned cells. Nev-127 ertheless, existing atmospheric Galerkin models often do not take advan-128 tage of such suitability for good surface approximations, because grids that 129 are not horizontally aligned are typically used. A notable exception is 130 the atmospheric model called Active Tracer High-resolution Atmospheric 131

Model-Fluidity (ATHAM-Fluidity) that uses horizontally aligned cells and
achieves good results in the generation of mountain-induced waves (Savre
et al. 2016).

In this study, we construct o2o3 to address the disadvantages of o3o3, and we demonstrate the following properties of o2o3:

• The accuracy of o2o3 is comparable to that of SE3 as a result of the constructed superconvergence, even though o2o3 has the simplicity and basis function structure of the second-order spectral element method (referred to as SE2).

• o2o3 uses a regular collocation grid, while SE3 uses the irregular
 Gauss-Lobatto grid; the former is an advantage when parameteriz ing physical processes (Herrington et al. 2019).

• A sparse grid is possible with o2o3, while SE3 uses a full grid.

• 0203 avoids the large 0-space of 0303.

The suitability of the high-order o2o3 method for cut cells is shown using the simple example of Steppeler and Klemp (2017). Therefore, o2o3 allows for cut-cell implementation in second- and third-order spaces, while the Steppeler and Klemp (2017) scheme uses linear basis functions.

We describe the grid and approximation spaces for SE2, 0203, and SE3 151 in Section 2. A summary of the numerical properties of all schemes com-152 pared in this paper is given in Tab. 1. Section 3 outlines the inhomogeneous 153 FD schemes representing the approximations of these schemes. Section 4 154 presents the LG procedure for o2o3, conserving first-order moments. Sec-155 tion 5 illustrates the results of a homogeneous advection test to show the 156 accuracy and stability, convergence and numerical dispersion relations of 157 o2o3, and the study is concluded in Section 6. 158

Table 1

¹⁵⁹ 2. Grids and approximation spaces

In this study, the test problem involves homogeneous one-dimensional (1D) advection of the density field h(x):

$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial t} = -u_0 \frac{\partial h}{\partial x},\tag{1}$$

where u_0 is the velocity field, assumed to be constant, and the periodic boundary condition is imposed.

Eq. (1) is solved using piecewise polynomial spaces of degrees 2 and 3. These are the discretization spaces used with the continuous Galerkin schemes o2o3, SE2, and SE3. Let a 1D domain Ω be divided into the elements $\Omega_i (i = 0, 1, 2, ...)$, where $\Omega_i = (x_i, x_{i+1})$. In each element Ω_i , the polynomial $P_i(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{J} p_{i,j} x^j$ is determined by three polynomial coeffi-

cients $p_{i,0}, p_{i,1}, p_{i,2}$ for SE2 and by four coefficients $p_{i,0}, p_{i,1}, p_{i,2}, p_{i,3}$ for SE3. 169 The index i indicates that the polynomial representation is applicable to 170 the element Ω_i . Therefore, for a discontinuous second-order field represen-171 tation, the polynomial coefficients $p_{i,0}, p_{i,1}, p_{i,2}$ are independently chosen and 172 are the degrees of freedom. The spaces formed by $p_{i,0}, p_{i,1}, p_{i,2}, p_{i,3}$ are used 173 for third-order discontinuous and continuous field representations. For the 174 continuous Galerkin scheme, the polynomials need to fit together continu-175 ously, implying the condition $P_{i-1}(x_i) = P_i(x_i)$ and $P_i(x_{i+1}) = P_{i+1}(x_{i+1})$. 176 Therefore, we have only two degrees of freedom per element with SE2 and 177 three for SE3. 178

In one dimension, the length of the element Ω_i is defined as $dx_i = x_{i+1} -$ 179 x_i . If the grid distribution is regular, then $dx = dx_i$. The boundary grid 180 points x_i and x_{i+1} of the element Ω_i are called the principal points or corner 181 points. For SE2, there are three independent amplitudes described by three 182 collocation point values in each element, while there are four amplitudes for 183 SE3 (Fig. 1). Collocation points are grid points within an element such that 184 the amplitudes at these points are sufficient to determine the polynomial 185 coefficients corresponding to this element. For SE2 and o2o3, the fields are 186 quadratic polynomials within the element Ω_i , and we need three collocation 187 points $X_{i,0}, X_{i,1}, X_{i,2}$. Even though we have three collocation points per 188 element, the dimension of the collocation grid space is twice as large as the 189

Fig. 1

¹⁹⁰ number of elements, as principal points are shared by two elements. For a ¹⁹¹ third-order field representation, such as with SE3 or the flux for o2o3, we ¹⁹² need two interior points in addition to two principal points. Therefore, the ¹⁹³ collocation grid points are $X_{i,j}$ (i = 0, 1, 2, ..., j = 0, 1, ..., J) in Ω_i :

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$$\begin{cases} X_{i,0} = x_i, X_{i,1} = x_i^m, X_{i,2} = x_{i+1}, & \text{for SE2 and o2o3} \\ X_{i,0} = x_i, X_{i,1} = x_i^m - \frac{1}{2\sqrt{5}} dx_i, X_{i,2} = x_i^m + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{5}} dx_i, X_{i,3} = x_{i+1}, & \text{for SE3}, \end{cases}$$

$$(2)$$

where $x_i^m = \frac{1}{2}(x_i + x_{i+1})$ is the midpoint of the element Ω_i . We have J = 2for o2o3 and SE2 and J = 3 for SE3. The collocation grids X are noted by broken indices: $x_{i+\frac{1}{2}} = X_{i,1}$ for SE2 and o2o3 and $x_{i+\frac{1}{3}} = X_{i,1}$, $x_{i+\frac{2}{3}} = X_{i,2}$ for SE3. We note that in Eq. (2), the collocation points form a set of Gauss-Lobatto points of either three (SE2 or o2o3) or four (SE3) nodes. The sets of points are redundant as follows:

$$\begin{cases}
X_{i,2} = X_{i+1,0} = x_{i+1}, & \text{for SE2 and o2o3}, \\
X_{i,3} = X_{i+1,0} = x_{i+1}, & \text{for SE3}.
\end{cases}$$
(3)

The field values at collocation points form the grid point space. The points $X_{i,j}$ must be used to derive the initial data for the three schemes. The basis functions used to define the field h(x) in Eq. (1) are the same among the three schemes. The basis functions are defined in the interval 204 $(x_i^m - \frac{1}{2}dx_i, x_i^m + \frac{1}{2}dx_i)$ as follows:

$$\begin{cases} e_i^+(x) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{dx_i}(x - x_i^m), \\ e_i^-(x) = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{dx_i}(x - x_i^m), \\ b_i^2(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left[(x - x_i^m)^2 - \frac{1}{4}dx_i^2 \right], \\ b_i^3(x) = \frac{1}{6} \left[(x - x_i^m)^3 - \frac{1}{4}(x - x_i^m)dx_i^2 \right]. \end{cases}$$

$$\tag{4}$$

These four basis functions are identically zero when $x \notin (x_i^m - \frac{1}{2}dx_i, x_i^m + \frac{1}{2}dx_i)$.

For any field or flux q(x), we can derive the discretized representation using the basis functions defined in Eq. (4):

$$q(x) = \begin{cases} \sum_{i=0,1,2,\dots} q_{i+1}^{-} e_{i+1}^{+}(x) + q_{i}^{+} e_{i}^{-}(x) + q_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}} b_{i}^{2}(x) + \varepsilon q_{xxx,i+\frac{1}{2}} b_{i}^{3}(x), & \text{for SE2 and o2o3,} \\ \\ \sum_{i=0,1,2,\dots} q_{i+1}^{-} e_{i+1}^{+}(x) + q_{i}^{+} e_{i}^{-}(x) + q_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}} b_{i}^{2}(x) + q_{xxx,i+\frac{1}{2}} b_{i}^{3}(x), & \text{for SE3,} \end{cases}$$

$$(5)$$

where $\varepsilon = 0$ is used for the second-order field representation with SE2 and o2o3, while $\varepsilon = 1$ is used for the flux in the third-order representation with o2o3. For the representation of discontinuous functions, two values of q(x)at principal nodes are introduced: q_i^+ and q_i^- . We note that in this study, discontinuous functions occur for flux derivatives with SE2 and SE3. In Eq. (5), the amplitudes $q_i, q_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}}$ form the spectral space for SE2 and o2o3, whereas the amplitudes $q_i, q_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}}, q_{xxx,i+\frac{1}{2}}$ form the spectral space for SE3. For the field q(x), the grid point space for SE2 and o2o3 is formed by q_i and $q_{i+\frac{1}{2}}(i = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...)$. According to Eq. (5), q_i at the principal nodes represents both the spectral amplitudes and the grid point values for the three schemes.

Using Eq. (5), we can obtain the transformation equations to the grid point space at the midpoints $x_{i+\frac{1}{2}}$ for SE2 and o2o3 with $\varepsilon = 0$:

$$q_{i+\frac{1}{2}} = q_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}}b^2(x_{i+\frac{1}{2}}) + \frac{1}{2}(q_i + q_{i+1}) = -\frac{1}{8}q_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}}dx_i^2 + \frac{1}{2}(q_i + q_{i+1}).$$
 (6)

From Eq. (6), we can obtain the transformation from the grid point space to the spectral space in Ω_i . When q_i , q_{i+1} and $q_{i+\frac{1}{2}}$ are given, the transformation to the spectral space is:

$$q_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}} = -\frac{4}{dx_i^2} \left[2q_{i+\frac{1}{2}} - (q_i + q_{i+1}) \right].$$
(7)

For the third-order space used in SE3, we refer to Steppeler et al. (2019a) for the formulas of the transformation between the grid point space and spectral space. A list of published LG schemes and their discretization spaces is given in Tab. 1.

We note that o2o3 for the two-dimensional (2D) problem is obtained by differencing along the coordinate lines, analogous to the 2D o3o3 scheme

derived in Steppeler et al. (2019a). Therefore, the 1D scheme is extracted 231 while leaving the interior points out. Thus, the 2D grid becomes sparse for 232 interior points that are not used for forecasting. This means that the sparse 233 grid is obtained from the full grid (all points are dynamic) by removing 234 the interior points, as illustrated in Fig. 2. Thus, only the grid points 235 at the corners and edges are dynamic. Steppeler et al. (2019a) defined 236 the sparseness factor as the ratio of the number of dynamic points to the 237 number of points in the full grid. A small sparseness factor indicates the 238 potential for reducing the computational time. 239

Fig. 2

²⁴⁰ 3. Inhomogeneous finite difference schemes

The classic fourth-order FD scheme (o4) is a homogeneous FD scheme that uses the same FD formula at each grid point. In contrast, SE and other LG schemes typically use different discretization equations at each collocation point (Steppeler et al., 2019a); these approaches are known as an inhomogeneous FD scheme. In this section, we discuss inhomogeneous FD schemes resulting in the temporal derivatives of the field q(x) for a regular grid distribution $dx_i = dx$.

SE2, o2o3, and SE3 are used as examples for comparison. For all three examples, q(x) within the cells is approximated by polynomials. For any of the collocation points, these polynomials are not centered around the target

point (the point to compute the derivatives). Rather, to obtain the spatial 251 derivative of q(x) in a cell, the polynomial is differentiated at different col-252 location points. We note that the right and left derivatives $(q_{x,i}^+ \text{ and } q_{x,i}^-)$ at 253 the principal points are defined discontinuously between two different cells; 254 thus, an averaging procedure for $q_{x,i}^+$ and $q_{x,i}^-$ must be defined to obtain $q_{x,i}$. 255 Therefore, the FD schemes in a cell differ among the collocation points, and 256 as a consequence, the three schemes are inhomogeneous in the grid point 257 space. In the following paragraphs, we introduce three schemes for both 258 principal and interior points except that o2o3 for the interior points will be 259 defined in the next section. 260

For SE2, the time derivative in Eq. (1) at the collocation points can be computed using the field representation Eq. (5) with $\varepsilon = 0$. For the interior points in Ω_i , the functional representation in Eq. (5) is differentiable, and we can obtain:

$$q_{t,i+\frac{1}{2}} = -u_0 q_{x,i+\frac{1}{2}} = -u_0 \left[q_{i+1} e_{x,i+1}^+(x_i^m) + q_i e_{x,i}^-(x_i^m) + q_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}} b_{x,i}^2(x_i^m) \right]$$

= $-u_0 \frac{q_{i+1} - q_i}{dx},$ (8)

265 where $b_{x,i}^2(x_i^m) = 0.$

For the principal points x_i in Ω_i , the basis function in Eq. (4) has a discontinuous derivative, and we obtain the right and left derivatives, $q_{x,i}^+$ and $q_{x,i}^-$ at x_i from Eq. (5). These values are obtained as follows:

$$\begin{cases} q_{x,i}^{+} = \frac{q_{i+1}-q_{i}}{dx} + q_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}}b_{x,i}^{2}(x_{i}) = \frac{q_{i+1}-q_{i}}{dx} + \frac{4}{dx}\left(q_{i+\frac{1}{2}} - \frac{q_{i+1}+q_{i}}{2}\right), \\ q_{x,i}^{-} = \frac{q_{i}-q_{i-1}}{dx_{i}} + q_{xx,i-\frac{1}{2}}b_{x,i}^{2}(x_{i}) = \frac{q_{i}-q_{i-1}}{dx} - \frac{4}{dx}\left(q_{i-\frac{1}{2}} - \frac{q_{i}+q_{i-1}}{2}\right), \end{cases}$$
(9)

where we use the transformation formula for the spectral space and Eqs. (4), (5) and (7).

If the derivative at a principal node is defined as the average of these two values, we can write $q_{t,i}$ as:

$$q_{t,i} = -\frac{u_0}{2}(q_{x,i}^+ + q_{x,i}^-) = -u_0\left(-\frac{q_{i+1} - q_{i-1}}{2dx} + 2\frac{q_{i+\frac{1}{2}} - q_{i-\frac{1}{2}}}{dx}\right).$$
 (10)

The right-hand-side term in Eq. (10) is a linear combination of two centered FD schemes with second-order accuracy. By comparing Eq. (8) with Eq. (10), this scheme can be recognized as an inhomogeneous FD scheme. Because neither Eq. (8) nor Eq. (10) has an approximation order higher than two, superconvergence does not occur for SE2.

²⁷⁸ o2o3 may be viewed as a generalization of SE2 with constructed inherent ²⁷⁹ superconvergence to an order of at least three. Therefore, o2o3 will be ²⁸⁰ introduced as an inhomogeneous FD scheme. For the principal grid points ²⁸¹ in Ω_i , any FD scheme of at least the third order may be chosen. Here, we ²⁸² choose the classic o4 scheme:

$$q_{t,i} = -u_0 \left(-\frac{1}{3} \frac{q_{i+1} - q_{i-1}}{2dx} + \frac{4}{3} \frac{q_{i+\frac{1}{2}} - q_{i-\frac{1}{2}}}{dx} \right),$$
(11)

for the derivatives at the principal nodes in Ω_i .

Eq. (11) guarantees fourth-order accuracy at corner points on regular 284 grids (Durran 2010). However, for irregular grids, the accuracy drops to 285 the first order. Now, we list the formula for calculating q_t on an irregular 286 grid. When we employ Eq. (11) for all points, the rather strong deviation 287 from conservation occurs partly due to a decrease in the order of approxima-288 tion to 1. This decrease in the order of approximation is then counteracted 280 by smoothly changing the resolution. Grid smoothing methods, such as 290 "spring dynamics" (Tomita et al. 2001), are applied, while the Voronoi 291 type of smoothed grid is used for the Model for Prediction Across Scales 292 (MPAS) (Skamarock et al. 2012). For irregular grid structures, an alter-293 native generalized formulation of Eq. (11) is derived as (Steppeler et al. 294 2008):295

$$q_t(x_i) = w_i^{-1} q_{i-1} + w_i^{-\frac{1}{2}} q_{i-\frac{1}{2}} + w_i q_i + w_i^{\frac{1}{2}} q_{i+\frac{1}{2}} + w_i^{1} q_{i+1},$$
(12)

where the corresponding weights w_i shown in Tab. 2 are computed numerically, for example, by polynomial fitting in Steppeler et al. (2019a). A simplification is achieved by replacing the Legendre representation of the polynomial space with order-consistent polynomials. Any other high-order

FD scheme can be used as an alternative to Eq. (11) or Eq. (12). In the 300 following text, we refer to the o4 scheme given by Eq. (11) as classic o4, 301 while the o4 scheme given by Eq. (12) is referred to as weighted o4. We 302 consider an example of irregular grids as defined in the seventh column of 303 Tab. 2 (see also Section 5.1). With these weights, a third-order approxi-304 mation can be achieved when we apply the differentiation to analytic test 305 functions, such as polynomials of degree 3. We note that the value of w_i 306 in the fine mesh area (dx = 1) is twice the value in the coarse mesh area 307 (dx = 2). The advantages of Eq. (12) will be demonstrated in Section 5.1. 308 For comparison purposes, we also use SE3. For the principal nodes in 309 SE3, averaging between right and left values, as performed in Eq. (10), is 310 adapted to the third-order representation. For the two interior nodes, Eq. 311 (8) is used analogously because the basis function representation for SE3 is 312 directly differentiated. 313

Finally, the proof of the third-order approximation of Eq. (11) follows from the requirement of third-order consistency. The FD equation for mass follows directly from Eq. (5). Let dm_i be the mass contained in the element $\Omega_i = (x_i, x_{i+1})$:

$$dm_i = \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} q(x) dx.$$
 (13)

318 Then, we have:

Table 2

$$dm_{i} = \frac{dx}{2}(q_{i} + q_{i+1}) + \frac{2}{3}dx\left(q_{i+\frac{1}{2}} - \frac{q_{i+1} + q_{i}}{2}\right).$$
 (14)

The mass conservation property requires that the time derivative of the mass of dm_i within the element Ω_i is the flux difference at the two principal points of the element Ω_i . We show this in the next section.

322 4. Local Galerkin procedure

In this section, with the field representation defined in Section 2, we introduce the LG procedure to define o2o3 in comparison with SE2 and SE3.

We assume h(x) to be represented in the grid point space by h_i , and we assume that h(x) can be transformed into the spectral space by Eq. (7). This will result in the spectral amplitudes $h_i, h_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}}$ for SE2 and o2o3 and the spectral amplitudes $h_i, h_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}}, h_{xxx,i+\frac{1}{2}}$ for SE3 in Ω_i . Using these amplitudes, Eq. (5) gives the functional form of h(x).

For SE2 and SE3, $fl(x) = -u_0h(x)$ can be defined using the representations in Eqs. (5) and (7). For SE2, we have:

$$\begin{cases} fl_i = -u_0 h_i, \\ fl_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}} = -u_0 h_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}}. \end{cases}$$
(15)

For SE3, we refer to Eqs. (5) and (7) analogously:

$$\begin{cases} fl_i = -u_0 h_i, \\ fl_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}} = -u_0 h_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}}, \\ fl_{xxx,i+\frac{1}{2}} = -u_0 h_{xxx,i+\frac{1}{2}}. \end{cases}$$
(16)

We note that in this study, discontinuous functions occur for flux derivatives with SE2 and SE3.

To define o2o3, the temporal derivative of the field is proportional to the spatial derivative according to Eq. (1), which means that we only need to determine the expressions of $h_{t,i} = fl_{x,i}$ at the principal nodes and of $fl_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}}$ and $fl_{xxx,i+\frac{1}{2}}$ at the interior nodes within Ω_i . However, in o2o3, the field h(x) given by Eq. (5) has only a second-order representation. Therefore, we apply Eq. (5) with $\varepsilon = 1$ to define a third-order representation of the flux fl(x).

At the principal nodes in Ω_i with o2o3, we again define:

$$fl_i = -u_0 h_i, \tag{17}$$

which will not be used, as we are interested only in the flux divergence used in Eq. (1), rather than in the value of the flux itself. The thirdorder flux representation according to Eq. (11) is defined such that fl(x)is differentiable at the principal nodes of Ω_i . The degree-3 polynomial is defined such that the derivatives at the principal points have the same value for left and right differentiation. Therefore, by construction, we obtain a differentiable spline. The derivative $fl_{x,i}$ at the principal nodes of fl(x) is defined analogously to Eq. (11) up to a classic o4 approximation:

$$fl_{x,i} = -u_0 \left(-\frac{1}{3} \frac{h_{i+1} - h_{i-1}}{2dx} + \frac{4}{3} \frac{h_{i+\frac{1}{2}} - h_{i-\frac{1}{2}}}{dx} \right).$$
(18)

We note that the definition in Eq. (18) already gives the FD equations at the principal nodes according to Eq. (1):

$$h_{t,i} = fl_{x,i}.\tag{19}$$

Fig. 3

At the interior points within the element Ω_i , the values of $fl_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}}$ and $fl_{xxx,i+\frac{1}{2}}$ follow the continuity requirement of the functional representation in Eq. (11) at the principal nodes (see the details of the steps to derive the time derivative of h(x) in Fig. 3). We provide two methods to obtain the expressions of $fl_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}}$ and $fl_{xxx,i+\frac{1}{2}}$.

In the first method, the equations for the spectral coefficients $fl_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}}$ and $fl_{xxx,i+\frac{1}{2}}$ are obtained by taking the *x*-derivative of Eq. (5):

$$\begin{cases} fl_{x,i} = fl_{i+1}e_{x,i+1}^{+}(x_{i}) + fl_{i}e_{x,i}^{-}(x_{i}) + fl_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}}b_{x,i}^{2}(x_{i}) + fl_{xxx,i+\frac{1}{2}}b_{x,i}^{3}(x_{i}), \\ fl_{x,i+1} = fl_{i+1}e_{x,i+1}^{+}(x_{i+1}) + fl_{i}e_{x,i}^{-}(x_{i+1}) + fl_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}}b_{x,i}^{2}(x_{i+1}) + fl_{xxx,i+\frac{1}{2}}b_{x,i}^{3}(x_{i+1}). \end{cases}$$

$$(20)$$

Eq. (20) is an equation for $fl_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}}$ and $fl_{xxx,i+\frac{1}{2}}$, as all other quantities are known. The derivatives of e_{i+1}^+ , e_i^- , b_i^2 , b_i^3 are obtained from their definitions in Eq. (4). Using Eqs. (4), (5) and (20), we can derive the expressions for the spectral amplitudes at the interior points $x_{i+\frac{1}{2}}$:

$$fl_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{dx}(fl_{x,i+1} - fl_{x,i}), \qquad (21)$$

365 and

$$fl_{xxx,i+\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{6}{dx^2} [fl_{x,i+1} + fl_{x,i} - \frac{2}{dx} (fl_{i+1} - fl_i)].$$
(22)

For the time derivative at the interior point of an element, according to $b_{x,i}^3(x_{i+\frac{1}{2}}) = -\frac{1}{24}dx^2$ and Eqs. (4), (5), (21) and (22), we can obtain:

$$h_{t,i+\frac{1}{2}} = fl_{x,i+\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$= fl_{i+1}e^{+}_{x,i+1}(x_{i+\frac{1}{2}}) + fl_{i}e^{+}_{x,i}(x_{i+\frac{1}{2}}) + fl_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2}}b^{2}_{x,i}(x_{i+\frac{1}{2}}) + fl_{xxx,i+\frac{1}{2}}b^{3}_{x,i}(x_{i+\frac{1}{2}})$$

$$= \frac{3}{2}\frac{fl_{i+1} - fl_{i}}{dx} - \frac{1}{2}\frac{fl_{x,i+1} + fl_{x,i}}{2}.$$
(23)

In the second method, we directly employ the principle of the conservation of mass to construct Eq. (23). Let the time derivative of h at the principal nodes be given again by Eq. (19) or by any other difference scheme of at least the third order. By differentiating Eq. (14) with respect to t, the time derivative of the mass $dm_{t,i}$ in the element Ω_i is obtained as:

$$dm_{t,i} = \frac{dx}{2}(h_{t,i} + h_{t,i+1}) + \frac{2}{3}dx\left(h_{t,i+\frac{1}{2}} - \frac{h_{t,i} + h_{t,i+1}}{2}\right).$$
 (24)

 $_{373}$ $dm_{t,i}$ can also be computed from the flux into Ω_i , and we obtain:

$$dm_{t,i} = -u_0(h_{i+1} - h_i). (25)$$

By combining Eqs. (24) and (25) and solving for $h_{t,i+\frac{1}{2}}$, we obtain Eq. (23). 374 These two methods lead to the same piecewise quadratic polynomial repre-375 sentation. The uniqueness of the two methods follows from the fact that the 376 equation of motion is assumed to be valid with the spatial flux representa-377 tion as a piecewise cubic spline. The derivation of Eq. (23) from the basis 378 function representation implies the conservation of first-order moments, cor-379 responding to the conservation of mass in this case. Therefore, Eqs. (23) 380 and (18) can be viewed as a method for defining the time derivative $h_{t,i}$ 381 such that mass is conserved. 382

Fig. 3 illustrates the steps for the computation of the time derivative of the field h. The field is defined as $h(x_i) = 0$, except for $h(x_{500}) = 4$. This defines a rather small-scale field for which different numerical methods are expected to give different results. For smooth fields, all methods must give very similar results. Fig. 3a shows the results with SE2. The flux in this case that is shown as the dashed curve is merely the negative of the field. However, the spatial derivative of the flux shown by the dotted

line, is discontinuous. The blue curve is the result of the LG operation that 390 approximates the derivative by a continuous function. Fig. 3b shows similar 391 results for o2o3. The flux shown by the dashed curve is approximated by a 392 differentiable function, and the spatial derivative of the flux shown by the 393 dotted curve is continuous; hence, no further approximation is necessary. 394 Fig. 3c gives the result for SE3, which is analogous to the result shown in 395 Fig. 3a, but with the approximating polynomial of degree 3. We note that 396 the grid is different from that of SE2 because its length is 3dx. 397

For all of the described methods, when the time derivative $h_t(x)$ is given 398 in the grid point space, the fourth-order Runge-Kutta method (RK4) can 399 be applied as with any other FD scheme. Although the example of Fig. 3 400 uses a low resolution, all methods give a reasonable approximation of the 401 time derivative. This is important, as practical calculations in meteorology 402 depend on reasonable approximations with poor resolution in some instances 403 (Steppeler et al. 2003), and the orography is often not well-resolved in 404 atmospheric models. 405

Thus far, we have already illustrated how to generate the inhomogeneous o2o3 scheme for $h_{t,i}$ and $h_{t,i+\frac{1}{2}}$ using the homogeneous 1D advection equation Eq. (1). Overall, the steps of the implementation of o2o3 are described as follows:

• Step 1: Divide the computational domain (Fig. 1) into elements and

411	define the collocation points Eq. (2) in each element. Note that the
412	collocation points include the corner point and interior point for o2o3;
413	Step 2: Define the basis functions Eq. (4) for the field representation
414	and flux representation Eq. (5) in each element;
415	Step 3: Construct the temporal derivative of field $h_{t,i}$ Eq. (19) at
416	corner points by Eqs. (1) and (17) and a classic o4 scheme Eq. (18) ;
417 •	Step 4: Construct the temporal derivative of field $h_{t,i+\frac{1}{2}}$ at interior
418	points by Eq. (23) or the condition of flux conservation expressed
419	by Eqs. (24)-(25). Note that to achieve the variable $h_{t,i+\frac{1}{2}}$, we need
420	to rely on the intermediate variables: the second- and third-spatial
421	derivatives of the flux at the interiror point expressed by Eqs. (21)- $$
422	(22);
423	Step 5: Compute h_i and h_{i+1} at the next time level using the RK4

• Step 5. Compute n_i and $n_{i+\frac{1}{2}}$ at the next time level using the KK method or any proper time integration scheme.

⁴²⁵ Note that the time loop consists of Steps 3, 4 and 5. Steps 1 and 2 are used
⁴²⁶ to initialize the forecast.

427 5. Results

To investigate the characteristics of o2o3, including its accuracy, convergence, numerical dispersion and stability, homogeneous advection tests in both one and two dimensions are implemented. For a first examination of the suitability of o2o3 for high-order cut-cell modelling, an advection test along a straight mountain is implemented.

433 5.1 1D homogeneous advection test

The advection equation in Eq. (1) is solved for a 1D area with 600 points, and the constant-velocity field u_0 is set to be $u_0 = 1.0$. For o2o3 and SE2, 300 elements are present in the area, while for SE3, 200 elements are present.

With an element length dx = 2 for o2o3 and SE2, the resolution of the 438 collocation grid is $dx^r = 1$. Tab. 3 shows the Courant-Friedrichs-Lewy 439 (CFL) condition with RK4 time-stepping. The available time steps (i.e., 440 CFL condition) are 2.2, 1.8 and 1.5 for SE2, o2o3 and SE3, respectively. 441 According to conventional wisdom (Durran 2010), classic o4 has a stability 442 limit of 1.9 with the RK4 scheme. This means that o2o3 has a marginally 443 smaller CFL condition than the classic o4 scheme. The relatively weak 444 CFL condition with SE3 can be explained by the minimum grid size of the 445 Gauss-Lobatto grid being lower than that of the equally spaced grid used 446

with o2o3. Therefore, the time step in o2o3 is approximately 20% higher than that in SE3. However, these two schemes are comparable with regard to their accuracy and conservation properties. The large CFL number of SE2 is to be expected, as the transition to a higher order often requires a smaller time step. Ultimately, the CFL conditions for o2o3, SE2, and SE3 are more severe than those for the second-order centered FD scheme.

To measure stability, we perform temporal integration for a long time. We use $\frac{30000}{dt}$ steps, meaning that the structure is transported over 30000 grid points or 15000 elements over the area. Because of the periodic boundary conditions, for t = 600 n (n = 1, 2, 3, ...), the analytic solution of Eq. (1) is identical to the initial value, so that the accuracy can easily be checked at these times.

Fig. 4 shows the solutions of the homogeneous advection test after transport over 300dx and 30000dx. The initial value of h(x) is defined as:

$$h(i) = 4 \cdot \exp\left[-\left(\frac{x_i - x_{150}}{8}dx\right)^2\right], \text{ for } i = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$$
 (26)

The results for SE2, o2o3 and SE3 are shown in the left, middle and right columns of Fig. 4, respectively. At 300 time steps, the results for the three schemes are similar except for a slight oscillation in SE2. At the 30000th timestep, SE3 and o2o3 show a better simulation quality than SE2 because SE2 is only of the second order. The small difference in the accuracy between Table 3

o2o3 and SE3 is in accordance with the results of the numerical dispersion
analysis in Section 5.3. For an analysis of the order of approximation, see
Section 5.2.

For the regular resolution case and periodic boundary conditions, both classic o4 and o2o3 are conserved. However, a lack of conservation will be observed only for o4 on irregular grids in practical tests. Hence, an irregular resolution is introduced:

$$dx = \begin{cases} 1, \text{ for } i = 1, 2, ..., 180, 211, 212, ..., 600, \\ 2, \text{ for } i = 181, 182, ..., 210. \end{cases}$$
(27)

For o2o3, the weights w_i occurring in Eq. (12) are given in Tab. 2. The 473 values of the weights gradually change near i = 180 (Lines 3-5 compared 474 to Line 2 in Tab. 2) and 210 (Lines 7-9 compared to Line 10 in Tab. 2). 475 All points x_i , where $i \neq 179, 180, 181, 209, 210, 211$ according to Eq. (27), 476 have constant $w_i^{i'}(i'=-1,-\frac{1}{2},0,\frac{1}{2},1)$ in Eq. (12), meaning that w does not 477 depend on i. Fig. 5 shows the temporal evolution of the solution between 478 t = 0 and t = 400. For the initial values, the peak solution is used where only 479 one principal point $(x_{150} = 4)$ is different from 0. The computational modes 480 of both classic and weighted o4 are stronger than that of o2o3, particularly 481 for the case of an irregular grid. Considering Steppeler et al. (2008) and 482 Steppeler et al. (2019a), it may be assumed that the difference is due to 483

Fig. 4

the different orders of approximation at these points, where the resolution is irregular. Classic o4 decreases to the first order at such points. This is consistent with the fact that SE schemes are suitable for an irregular resolution, which (for this simple case) also applies to o2o3.

Mass diagrams of the solutions, defined as $\int_{\Omega} h(x) dx$, are shown in Fig. 6. The formula for computing the mass is given in Eq. (13). o2o3 conserves the mass down to the round-off error, while o4 conserves the mass until the resolution jump is reached. Then, the deviation from conservation is rather strong (reaching 50%) and diminishes for advection in the coarse-resolution area.

494 5.2 Comparison of the convergence of o2o3 with that of o3o3
 495 and SE

This section investigates the approximation order of the schemes considered in this paper. Because a general function can be approximated by a Fourier transformation of the sum of trigonometric functions, we investigate the accuracy of the approximation of the derivative of a cosine function g(x)that can be expressed as:

$$g(x) = \cos(2\pi x), \text{ for } x \in (0, 1).$$
 (28)

501 We assume a grid distribution as follows:

Fig. 5

Fig. 6

$$x_i = idx(1 + \delta r_i), \text{ for } i = 0, 1, ..., i_e,$$
(29)

where r_i is a fixed random number between zero and one. When the grid is regular we set $\delta = 0$. When the grid is irregular, δ is any positive real number between zero and one. For $\delta > 0.0$, we obtain the irregular case, and in this case, we set $\delta = 1.0$. Using the grid point values $g_i = g(x_i)$ and using the grid approximations described in Sections 3–4, the approximations $g_{x,i}^{app}$ at x_i can be obtained. The corresponding exact values $g_{x,i} = -2\pi \cdot \sin(2\pi x_i)$ can be used to find the approximation error as:

$$E(dx) = \max_{i} |g_{x,i} - g_{x,i}^{app}|.$$
(30)

Fig. 7 shows the numerical errors of its spatial derivative with $dx = \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32$, and 64. The classic o4 scheme converges to the fourth order only on regular grids. For comparison, the result for SE2 on regular grids is shown to exhibit second-order convergence, meaning that there is no superconvergence for SE2. In contrast, the high-order flux computations with o2o3 lead to superconvergence.

Next, the convergence on an irregular grid is investigated. The grid is defined in Eq. (29) where $\delta = 1.0$. o2o3 converges to the fourth order with an irregular grid. The use of weighted o4 to compute the differences on principal grids is essential. On the other hand, the classic o4 scheme is ⁵¹⁹ reduced to the first order for the irregular grid.

Fig. 7

⁵²⁰ 5.3 Dispersion analysis of o2o3

To derive the numerical dispersion relation for o2o3, we use spectral solutions following Ullrich et al. (2018). The field h is assumed to be:

$$h_j = h_0 e^{Ik(j \cdot dx - ct)}, \text{ for } j = 0, 1, 2, ...,$$
 (31)

where $I = \sqrt{-1}$ and c and k are the phase velocity and nondimensional wavenumber, respectively. Then, we define the amplitudes $\vec{A} = (h_j, h_{xx,j})$ in the spectral space. For each k, the linear relation between \vec{A}_k and $\vec{A}_{t,k}$ for Eq. (1) is given by:

$$\vec{A}_{t,k} = M^k \vec{A}_k, \tag{32}$$

where $\vec{A}_{t,k}$ is the temporal derivative of \vec{A}_k and the matrix M^k depends on the wavenumber k. The exact solution should be linearly dependent on k due to:

$$\frac{\partial h_j}{\partial x_j} = Ik \cdot h_j,\tag{33}$$

530 where $x_j = j \cdot dx$ and j = 0, 1, 2,

We assume that a_1^k and a_2^k are defined as the eigenvalues of the matrix M^k . Therefore, the imaginary components of a_1^k and a_2^k represent the frequency $\omega(k)$ of the wavenumber k, while the real components are the diffusivity. The phase velocity of the wavenumber k becomes $c(k) = \frac{\omega(k)}{k}$. The evolution matrix M^k is given by:

$$M^{k} = M^{1} \cdot e^{-I\delta} + M^{2} + M^{3} \cdot e^{I\delta} + M^{4} \cdot e^{2I\delta}, \qquad (34)$$

where M^k is applied to the amplitudes $\vec{A} = (h_j, h_{xx,j})$ and $\delta = \frac{k}{1000} \cdot 2\pi, k = 0, 1, 2, ..., 1000$. The matrices M^1, M^2, M^3, M^4 are 2×2 matrices that are given by:

$$M^{1} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{u_{0}}{12dx} + \frac{2u_{0}}{3dx} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) & \frac{2u_{0}}{3dx} \left(-\frac{dx^{2}}{2}\right) \\ \frac{3}{2dx^{2}}M_{1,1}^{1} & \frac{3}{2dx^{2}}M_{1,2}^{1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{4} & -\frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{3}{8} & -\frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$
(35)
$$M^{2} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2u_{0}}{3dx} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) - \frac{2u_{0}}{3dx} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) & -\frac{2u_{0}}{3dx} \left(-\frac{dx^{2}}{2}\right) \\ -\frac{3u_{0}}{2dx^{3}} + \frac{3}{2dx^{2}} \left(M_{1,1}^{2} + M_{1,1}^{1}\right) & \frac{3}{2dx^{2}} \left(M_{1,2}^{2} + M_{1,2}^{1}\right) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{3} \\ -\frac{9}{8} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
(36)
$$M^{3} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{4} & 0 \\ \frac{3u_{0}}{2dx^{3}} + \frac{3}{2dx^{2}} \left(M_{1,1}^{3} + M_{1,1}^{2}\right) & \frac{3}{2dx^{2}} M_{1,2}^{2} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{4} & 0 \\ \frac{9}{8} & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$
(37)
$$M^{4} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ \frac{3}{2dx^{2}} M_{1,1}^{3} & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{3}{8} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
(38)

where M_{j_1,j_2}^k is the element of matrix M^k in row j_1 and column j_2 (we assume dx = 1 and $u_0 = 1$ for simplification).

For o2o3, Figs. 8 (a) and (b) show the phase velocity and the devia-541 tion of the amplification factor from unity, respectively, as functions of the 542 nondimensional wavenumber. For comparison, the corresponding results for 543 SE3 and 0303 are also given. In Fig. 8 (a), we focus on the maximum of 544 the frequency curve because the corresponding wavelength is the resolution 545 limit for each scheme. For o2o3 and SE3, the approximated phase veloc-546 ities are accurate for wavelengths greater than 3dx, with 0303 performing 547 somewhat worse. For smaller wavelengths, the derivative of the frequency 548 curve becomes negative, resulting in a negative group velocity. This means 549 that for this range of wavenumbers, the solution is not useful in terms of the 550 propagation of wave packets. Based on this criterion, the useful wavelength 551 range for 0203 is larger than that for 0303 by approximately dx. Finally, as 552 shown in Fig. 8 (b), the amplification factor is one for all three schemes, 553 and thus, the schemes are all nondiffusive. 554

The part of the spectrum with negative group velocities should be filtered. Sometimes, a more elaborate definition of the essential resolution is used (Ullrich 2014). This is based on the realistically approximated part of the dispersion diagram that shows the frequency as a function of the wavenumber. We note that o2o3 does not have the large 0-space of o3o3. The 0-space is a space where waves are stationary for a relatively large number of wavenumber values. For o3o3, there exists a 0-space with wavenum-

Fig. 8

⁵⁶² ber values where physical waves are not captured (Steppeler et al. 2019a).
⁵⁶³ Thus, o2o3 is simpler to execute than o3o3.

Although SE3 has a marginally larger useful wavelength range than o2o3, 564 we note that the dispersion relation for SE3 shows a spectral gap, as indi-565 cated by black circles in Fig. 8 (a). A spectral gap is a small wiggle on the 566 frequency curve leading to a small area of negative group velocities in an 567 otherwise well-resolved k-area located around the wavelength 8dx in Fig. 8 568 (a). Due to this spectral gap of SE3, Steppeler et al. (2019a) concluded that 569 o3o3 has performance advantages over SE3. In contrast, o2o3 and o3o3 do 570 not have spectral gaps. The methods for reducing the effect of the spectral 571 gap for SE3 by applying hyperdiffusion have been discussed in the literature 572 (Ullrich et al. 2018). In the absence of a spectral gap, an estimate of the 573 usefully resolved wavenumber k is the range of k up to the maximum. 574

575 5.4 Von Neumann stability analysis of o2o3 for finite dt

In this section, the 1D advection equation in Eq. (1) is used for the classic Von Neumann stability analysis of o2o3. The waveform solution Eq. (31) of the field h and the linear relation Eq. (32) between \vec{A}_k and $\vec{A}_{t,k}$ are utilized for this analysis.

For RK4 time integration, the amplification factor G is given by:

$$G = E + \frac{1}{6} (M^k + 2 \cdot M^k_{RK2} + 2 \cdot M^k_{RK3} + M^k_{RK4}) dt, \qquad (39)$$

⁵⁸¹ where E is the identity matrix and

$$\begin{cases}
M_{RK2}^{k} = M^{k} \left(E + \frac{1}{2} M^{k} dt \right), \\
M_{RK3}^{k} = M^{k} \left(E + \frac{1}{2} M_{RK2}^{k} dt \right), \\
M_{RK4}^{k} = M^{k} \left(E + M_{RK3}^{k} dt \right).
\end{cases}$$
(40)

The amplification factor G for o2o3 is shown in Fig. 9. The resulting stability is achieved for CFL = 1.9, consistent with the values obtained in Section 5.1.

585 5.5 2D cut-cell results using a sparse grid

As stated in Section 2, o2o3 can be easily adapted for 2D advection over simple terrain. This method is completely analogous to the method in Steppeler et al. (2019a) and can be considered a generalization of the o1o1 scheme treated by Steppeler and Klemp (2017). For details regarding the calculation, the readers are referred to Steppeler et al. (2019a). Here, we give only a short description.

⁵⁹² Following Steppeler and Klemp (2017), we conduct a 2D advection test ⁵⁹³ along the profile of a mountain composed of a straight line oriented at an ⁵⁹⁴ angle of 45 degrees. This test problem is very simple; we assume that the Fig. 9

velocity is parallel to this straight line, and the velocity components $(u_0$ and w_0) are constant (1, 1). Despite the extreme simplicity of this example, Steppeler and Klemp (2017) showed that noise can be generated along the orographic line. We can examine how this kind of noise can be avoided.

Fig. 10 shows that the sparse grid is available in the same manner as for 599 o3o3. However, there is a difference in the sparseness factor between o2o3 600 and o3o3. The sparseness factor is the ratio of the number of grid points 601 in the sparse grid to that in the full grid. According to Steppeler et al. 602 (2019a), o3o3 has a sparseness factor of $\frac{5}{9}$, whereas o2o3 has a sparseness 603 factor of $\frac{3}{4}$ (as illustrated in Fig. 2). Comparing the result of Fig. 10 with 604 that of Steppeler et al. (2019a) with a sparse grid, we find that o2o3 has 605 fewer unused points than o3o3. However, discussing this finding in terms 606 of practical modelling and numerical computation reduction is beyond the 607 scope of this paper. 608

Fig. 10

We define the fluxes in the x- and z-directions as follows:

$$\begin{cases} Fl^{x} = u \cdot h(x, z), \\ Fl^{z} = w \cdot h(x, z). \end{cases}$$

$$(41)$$

The flux divergences in the x- and z-directions at the principal points are computed by classic o4 because the cut and uncut cells in this case are regular. However, Eq. (12) must not be invoked because it is suitable for ⁶¹³ irregular grids. Applying the principle of mass conservation according to ⁶¹⁴ Steppeler et al. (2019a) and the formula obtained in Section 3, we obtain:

$$Fl_{x,i+\frac{1}{2},k}^{x} = \frac{3}{2} \frac{Fl_{i+1,k}^{x} - Fl_{i,k}^{x}}{dx} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{Fl_{x,i+1,k}^{x} + Fl_{x,i,k}^{x}}{2}.$$
 (42)

For $Fl_{z,i,k+\frac{1}{2}}^{x}$, the result is similar. For the divergence in the z-direction, the same procedure is followed using the z-coordinate lines. The spectral amplitudes $Fl_{xx,i+\frac{1}{2},k}$ and $Fl_{zz,i,k+\frac{1}{2}}$ are then uniquely determined by requiring mass conservation for the fluxes in the x- and z-directions, respectively.

For uncut cells, this procedure is straightforward and analogous to o3o3. 619 For the cut cells, a coordinate along the surface line is introduced. For 620 this specific test problem, the streamlines of advection are parallel to the 621 surface line x = z such that there is no flux and no flux divergence in the 622 direction perpendicular to the surface. Because the orography is diagonal 623 to the model area, the principal points lie on the orographic line that can 624 be treated by classic o4. No interpolation is necessary for orography to cut 625 the cells diagonally. 626

To this line x = z, we assume a coordinate s in the diagonal line with $ds = \sqrt{2}dx$. Therefore, Eq. (42) for s-axis takes the form:

$$Fl_{s,i+\frac{1}{2},k+\frac{1}{2}}^{s} = \frac{3}{2} \frac{Fl_{i+1,k+1}^{s} - Fl_{i,k}^{s}}{ds} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{Fl_{x,i+1,k+1}^{s} + Fl_{x,i,k}^{x}}{2}, \qquad (43)$$

629 in which $Fl^s_{i,k} = \sqrt{2}Fl^x_{i,k}$ because the flux is in the direction of the di-

agonal line. In addition, the time derivatives for the principal points on 630 the boundary are obtained by differentiating along the diagonal boundary. 631 Rather than rectangles, cut-cell grids can be applied for rhombohedral grids, 632 resulting in quadrilaterals with two angles not equal to $\frac{\pi}{2}$. This will com-633 plicate the computation of mass contributions by the different amplitudes 634 relative to the rectangular grid case used here. However, in more general 635 cases, the principle of mass conservation is used in the same manner as with 636 squares to determine the amplitudes of the time derivatives at the midpoints 637 of the edges. 638

For the experimental setup, we use a square grid of 140×140 grid points 639 with dx = dz = 1.0, and we perform temporal integration for 100 time steps 640 with dt = 1.0. The results for o2o3 are shown in Fig. 10 and can be com-641 pared directly to those by Steppler and Klemp (2017). The inaccuracies 642 and noise for this problem, as seen for some non-Galerkin treatments, are 643 absent; o2o3 is able to advect a structure along a straight line without gen-644 erating noise. This result is consistent with that for the first-order Galerkin 645 approach and with that obtained by Savre et al. (2016), who reported fewer 646 numerical boundary-related errors for the classic Galerkin method. These 647 results indicate that cut cells may be applicable with polynomial represen-648 tations higher than one. 649

⁶⁵⁰ The cut-cell example shown above is a rather special case because it is

valid only when the orography passes through the diagonal of cells. The 651 more general case where the orography is any straight line can be treated 652 with only little more effort. The computational domain consists of the points 653 above the orography. As the orography is a straight line of direction (u_0, u_0) , 654 we define the flux as (u_0h, u_0h) where h is the density. This means that the 655 flux has no component perpendicular to the orography at each point on the 656 orography. We call this the pointwise boundary scheme. Another option 657 not followed in this paper would be to use the less stringent condition that 658 the integrals of the vertical flux components over segments of the orographic 659 line are zero. 660

The orography for the general case is shown in Fig. 11 (b) as a green 661 line. The nondiagonal computational domain above the green line (gray 662 area in Fig. 11b) is notated as S_{nd} , while the diagonal domain above the 663 red line (gray area in Fig. 11a) is correspondingly notated as S_d . Near the 664 nondiagonal boundary, we have cells with triangles or pentagons marked in 665 green, while the cells are squares and triangles at the diagonal boundary 666 in red. There is more than one way to define the field representations near 667 the small boundary sections in triangles/pentagons, and we are seeking the 668 simplest scheme. Note that a polynomial function defined in a part of a 669 rectangular cell, such as the small cut-cell triangles/pentagons in Fig. 11 670 (b), can be uniquely extended to the whole cell. Therefore, it is possible 671

to define fields in the area S_{nd} by adopting the same discretization (such as Eq. (43)) in the larger area S_d and restrict the field values in S_{nd} . Thus, we can further define the temporal scheme in S_{nd} to be the same as that in S_d because S_d and S_{nd} share the common area S_{nd} .

Let us assume the mass M_S for the area S:

$$M_S(t) = \iint_S h(x, z) dx dz, \qquad (44)$$

in which S can be either S_d or S_{nd} . When we define the S_{nd} scheme to be the restriction of the S_d scheme to the smaller area, we must show that a closed system is obtained. This means that no mass is lost through the boundary of S_{nd} , indicating that the fluxes of the S_d scheme are parallel to the boundary of S_{nd} (green line in Fig. 11) and to the boundary of S_d (red dotted line in Fig. 11). We can apply Stokes theorem to Eq. (1). For the time derivative of $M_{S_{nd}}$ we obtain:

$$\frac{\partial M_{S_{nd}}}{\partial t} = \iint_{S_{nd}} h_t dx dz = \int_{\partial S_{nd}} Fl^{\perp}(l) dl = 0, \qquad (45)$$

in which Fl^{\perp} is the flux component orthogonal to the boundary of S_{nd} in Fig. 11 (b). Thus, according to the scheme adopted in the area S_d , the mass is also conserved in S_{nd} due to the absence of flux components perpendicular to the green line. For convenience, we can define phantom amplitude points for the cut cells outside the computational domain and perform FDs for the area above the dotted line in Fig. 11 (b).

The case of cut cells with a curved boundary is beyond the scope of 690 this paper. The derivations of Eqs. (44)-(45) use the pointwise cancella-691 tion of the flux at the boundary, which follows from the assumption of a 692 constant velocity. However, the extension of fields and fluxes beyond the 693 small triangles and pentagons can also be useful for a more general orogra-694 phy. When the orography is not a straight line but rather a linear spline 695 and the x-component of the flux is represented as a piecewise continuous 696 polynomial spline, the z-component of the flux vector must have a discon-697 tinuous representation. It follows from that fact that a curved piecewise 698 linear spline for the orography changes direction at the corner points in 699 a discontinuous manner. Therefore, the function obtained by differentia-700 tion would be treated as a discontinuous function. Second-order staggered 701 Arakawa C-grid schemes can be obtained as low-order LG schemes by a 702 discontinuous piecewise linear 2D spline (Steppeler 1989). This is achieved 703 by assuming constant piecewise fields for the density and representing the 704 velocity components u and w as piecewise linear splines. Specifically, u is 705 set to be continuous and piecewise linear in the x-direction and piecewise 706 constant in the z-direction. w is represented in a similar manner by swap-707 ping the treatment to u in the x- and z-directions. The generalization 708 to orographic surfaces represented by linear splines can be accomplished by 709

⁷¹⁰ generalizing the low-order Galerkin representation of Steppeler (1989) to a
⁷¹¹ higher polynomial order.

712 6. Conclusion

This study has investigated an alternative LG method referred to as 713 o2o3. This method represents the field h by piecewise quadratic polyno-714 mials and the fluxes by degree-3 polynomials. o2o3 inherits not only the 715 accuracy of SE3 but also the geometric flexibility of FE methods and the 716 potentially strong scalability of SE techniques. Furthermore, o2o3 uses a 717 regular collocation grid and allows a larger time step than SE3. The al-718 lowed time step is the same as that of standard fourth-order differencing. 719 The transition to the LG approach is an advance compared to conventional 720 fourth-order differencing, as the proposed method is mass conserving, and a 721 conservation law may be achieved for each equation used in a multi-equation 722 system. 723

724

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Fig. 5. Solution of a single cell peak for the (a) classic o4 scheme with a regular cell structure, (b) weighted o4 scheme with an irregular cell structure and (d) o2o3 scheme with an irregular cell structure. The black curves are the initial field and the forecasts at t = 100, 200, 300, and 400, and the red and blue curves are the forecasts at t = 30 and t = 60 at the start and end of the resolution jumps.



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Fig. 9. (a) Von Neumann analysis results for o2o3. (b) is the cross-section of (a) at the nondimensional wavenumber $k = \pi$.



Fig. 10. 2D results of o2o3 with a cut-cell grid under a straight line representing the terrain. The tracer in the first row is above the terrain, while the tracer in the second row is advected along the terrain. The first column presents the initial values of the tracers and the advection results after 100 time steps. The second column shows magnified views of the field at the locations of the initial values. The third column shows magnified views of the forecast fields. (b) and (e) show a background comprising zero field values with clusters of higher values. These points are marked in white in Fig. 2 (b); as these points are unused for forecasting, they retain their initial values. (c) and (f) show a smooth structure representing the field. At some points corresponding to the points marked in white in Fig. 2 (b), there is a steep point valley assuming the value of zero. The contour interval is set to be 0.5.



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Table 1. The properties of five numerical schemes (o2o3, o3o3, o4, SE2 and SE3).

Pr	operty	0203	0303	04	SE2	SE3
Order of polynomials	Order of polynomials To field				2^{nd}	3^{rd}
Order of polynomials	To flux	3^{rd}	3^{rd}	/	2^{nd}	3^{rd}
Ac	$>= 3^{rd}$	$>= 3^{rd}$	4^{th}	2^{nd}	$>= 3^{rd}$	
Regularity of collocati	on grids within an element	Regular	Regular	Regular	Regular	Irregular
Mass conservation	Regular grid	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Mass conservation	Irregular grid	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes

Table 2. The values of w_i in Eq. (12) on an irregular grid with resolution jumps.

Resolution	w_i^{-1}	$w_i^{-\frac{1}{2}}$	w_i	$w_i^{+\frac{1}{2}}$	w_i^{+1}	Locations of point x_i
Fine Resolution $(dx = 1.0)$	0.083	-0.667	0.0	0.667	-0.083	i = 1, 2,, 177, 178
Resolution Jumps	0.1	-0.75	0.167	0.5	-0.017	i = 179
Resolution Jumps	0.167	-1.067	0.75	0.167	-0.017	i = 180
Resolution Jumps	0.152	-0.5	0.083	0.3	-0.036	i = 181
Coarse Resolution $(dx = 2.0)$	0.042	-0.333	0.0	0.333	-0.042	$i = 182, 183, \dots, 207, 208$
Resolution Jumps	0.036	-0.3	0.083	0.5	-0.152	i = 209
Resolution Jumps	0.017	-0.167	-0.75	1.067	-0.167	i = 210
Resolution Jumps	0.017	-0.5	-0.167	0.75	-0.1	i = 211
Fine Resolution $(dx = 1.0)$	0.083	-0.667	0.0	0.667	-0.083	$i = 212, 213, \dots, 600$

Table 3. The CFL conditions with RK4 time-stepping in the SE2, o2o3, SE3, centered FD and classic o4 schemes. The CFL condition with the spatial centered FD scheme is 2.8.

Schemes	SE2	0203	SE3	centered FD	classic o4
CFL condition	2.2	1.8	1.5	2.8	1.9