



1 **Modeling extreme precipitation over East China with a global variable-**
2 **resolution modeling framework (MPASv5.2): Impacts of resolution and**
3 **physics**

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24 **Key points:**

25 1. MPAS simulations at global uniform and variable resolutions share similar characteristics
26 of precipitation and wind in the refined region.

27 2. The experiments reveal the significant impacts of resolution on simulating the distribution
28 and intensity of precipitation and updrafts.

29 3. Study provides the evidence supporting using convection-permitting global variable-
30 resolution simulation for studying extreme precipitation.

31



32 **Abstract**

33 The non-hydrostatic atmospheric Model for Prediction Across Scales (MPAS-A), a
34 global variable-resolution modeling framework, is applied at a range of resolutions from
35 hydrostatic (60 km, 30 km, 16 km) to non-hydrostatic (4 km) scales using regional refinement
36 over East Asia to simulate an extreme precipitation event during 25-27 June 2012 over East
37 China. The simulations are evaluated using ground observations and reanalysis data. The
38 simulated distribution and intensity of precipitation are analyzed to investigate the sensitivity
39 to model configuration, resolution, and physics parameterizations. In general, simulations
40 using global uniform-resolution and variable-resolution meshes share similar characteristics of
41 precipitation and wind in the refined region with comparable horizontal resolution. Further
42 experiments at multiple resolutions reveal the significant impacts of horizontal resolution on
43 simulating the distribution and intensity of precipitation and updrafts. More specifically,
44 simulations at coarser resolutions shift the zonal distribution of the rainbelt and produce weaker
45 heavy-precipitation centers that are misplaced relative to the observed locations. In comparison,
46 simulations employing 4 km cell spacing produce more realistic features of precipitation and
47 wind. Sensitivity experiments show that cloud microphysics have significant effects on
48 modeling precipitation at non-hydrostatic scales, but their impacts are negligible compared to
49 that of convective parameterizations for simulations at hydrostatic scales. This study provides
50 the first evidence supporting the use of convection-permitting global variable-resolution
51 simulations for studying and improving forecasting of extreme precipitation over East China,
52 and motivates the need for a more systematic study of heavy precipitation events and impacts
53 of physics parameterizations and topography in the future.

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58 1. Introduction

59 Extreme precipitation receives great attention because of its potential for generating
60 flood, landslide, and other hazardous conditions. East China, occupied by more than 70% of
61 the total population of China, is one of the areas with the most frequent intense extreme
62 precipitation around the world (Zhai et al., 2005; Li et al., 2016). The socioeconomic
63 development in regions such as the Yangtze River Delta region (YRD) in East China is
64 remarkably vulnerable to extreme precipitation, making accurate forecast of extreme
65 precipitation of great importance. The spatiotemporal variations of extreme precipitation over
66 East China and their possible causes and underlying mechanisms have been investigated in
67 many previous studies using observations and models (e.g., Ding et al., 2008; Zhang H. et al.,
68 2011; Li et al., 2013; Zhang Q. et al., 2015, 2017; Hui et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2015; Li et al.,
69 2016; Lin and Wang, 2016; Zhao et al., 2016; Zheng et al., 2016). Zhang et al. (2017)
70 established a relationship between the western North Pacific subtropical high (WNPSH) and
71 precipitation over East China and explored the underlying processes. Liu et al. (2015) analyzed
72 data from the meteorological stations in East China and found significant increases in heavy
73 precipitation at both rural and urban stations during 1955-2011. This enhanced precipitation
74 intensity in East China has been partly attributed to localized daytime precipitation events (Guo
75 et al., 2017). Recently, a regional climate model was used to simulate the regional climate
76 extremes of China and noted large sensitivity of the simulated summer heavy precipitation over
77 East China to the choice of cumulus parameterizations (Hui et al., 2015).

78 Numerical modeling is an important tool for understanding the underlying mechanisms
79 of extreme precipitation and predicting precipitation characteristics that contributes to
80 environmental impacts. Although precipitation modeling has improved in the last decades,
81 accurate prediction of extreme precipitation remains challenging because of the multiscale
82 nonlinear interactions of processes that generate heavy rainfall (Fritsch et al., 2004; Zhang et
83 al., 2011; Sukovich et al. 2014). Previous studies suggested that increasing grid resolution
84 could significantly improve modeling of extreme precipitation because the impacts of
85 topography, land-use, land-atmosphere interaction, and other important processes are better
86 resolved (e.g., Giorgi and Mearns, 1991; Giorgi and Marinucci, 1996; Leung et al., 2003;
87 Bacmeister et al. 2014; ECMWF2016). With advances in computing and numerical modeling,
88 convection-permitting modeling offers even more hope for reducing biases in simulating
89 precipitation as convection and the strong vertical motions that are key to generating extreme
90 precipitation are more explicitly resolved (Pedersen and Winther, 2005; Déqué et al., 2007;



91 Gao et al., 2017; Yang et al. 2017; Prein et al., 2015, 2017). Previous studies suggested that
92 convection-permitting modeling is needed for more accurate prediction of the timing,
93 distribution, and intensity of extreme precipitation events over China (e.g., Zhang et al., 2013;
94 Xu et al., 2015).

95 Most studies of convection-permitting simulations have adopted non-hydrostatic
96 regional models developed for weather forecasting or regional climate modeling (Prein et al.
97 2015). Global models capable of simulating non-hydrostatic dynamics are not as common as
98 regional models, but they offer some advantages including the ability to provide global
99 forecasts or simulations while avoiding numerical issues associated with lateral boundary
100 conditions that are major sources of uncertainty in regional modeling and also limit regional
101 feedback to global scale (e.g., Giorgi and Mearns, 1999; Wang et al. 2004; Laprise et al., 2008;
102 Leung 2012; Prein et al. 2015). Non-hydrostatic global-variable resolution models, in particular,
103 are useful as they allow convection-permitting simulations to be performed using regional
104 refinement that significantly reduces computational cost compared to global convection-
105 permitting modeling. So far, few studies used global variable-resolution models to investigate
106 weather or climate simulations at convection-permitting scales (e.g., Prein et al., 2015). This
107 study explores the use of a non-hydrostatic global variable resolution model, the Model for
108 Prediction Across Scales (MPAS) for modeling an extreme precipitation event in East China.

109 MPAS is a new multiscale modeling approach developed to take advantage of advances
110 in mesh generation by employing the spherical centroidal Voronoi tessellations (SCVTs) (Du
111 et al. 1999; Ringler et al. 2008). The SCVTs in MPAS enable local mesh refinement through
112 the mesh generation process where a specified scalar density function determines higher and
113 lower resolution regions in the mesh (see, e.g., Ju et al. 2011). Meshes can be configured with
114 multiple high-resolution regions, and high resolution in one region does not need to be balanced
115 by coarser resolution elsewhere. The underlying theory of SCVTs is robust concerning mesh
116 properties and mesh generation. The atmospheric solver in MPAS (Skamarock et al, 2012)
117 integrates the non-hydrostatic equations, and as such it is suitable for both weather and climate
118 simulation, i.e. for both nonhydrostatic and hydrostatic flow simulation. MPAS has been
119 evaluated and used in previous studies for investigating the resolution impact on modeling
120 clouds and precipitation (O'Brien et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2016), the structure of the inter-
121 tropical convergence zone (ITCZ) (Landu et al., 2014), precipitation extremes (Yang et al.,
122 2014), atmospheric river frequency (Hagos et al., 2015), the position and strength of the eddy-
123 driven jet (Lu et al., 2015), global atmospheric predictability at convection-permitting scales
124 (Falko Judt, 2018), and regional climate modeling (Sakaguchi et al., 2015, 2016).



125 To date, few studies have examined the MPAS performance in modeling extreme
126 precipitation event, particularly at grid scales of ~10 km or less. In this study, we examine the
127 MPAS performance in simulating a heavy precipitation event over East China and investigate
128 its sensitivity to horizontal resolution and physics parameterizations. A heavy precipitation
129 event that occurred on June 25-27 of 2012 over the YRD of East China is selected. During this
130 period, a heavy precipitating system propagated along the Yangtze River and produced as much
131 as 244 mm of precipitation in 24 hours at some locations. Simulations are performed using
132 MPAS (v5.2) with different cumulus and microphysics schemes. We first compare simulations
133 produced using a global mesh with uniform resolution and a global variable resolution mesh
134 with a refined region that has the same resolution as that of the global uniform mesh. The goal
135 is to demonstrate the fidelity of global variable resolution modeling relative to the more
136 computationally expensive global high-resolution modeling approach in regions that share the
137 same horizontal resolution. The impacts of resolutions at hydrostatic scales (with convective
138 parameterizations) and non-hydrostatic scales (i.e., convection-permitting scales with
139 convection processes largely resolved) are also examined. The MPAS simulations are
140 evaluated against weather station observations from the National Meteorological Information
141 Center of the China Meteorological Administration (CMA). In addition, the modeling results
142 are also compared with the forecasts produced by the Global Forecast System (GFS) of the
143 National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP).

144 The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes briefly the MPAS
145 model, the physics parameterizations, and the model configuration for this study, followed by
146 a description of data for evaluation. The series of global uniform and variable resolution
147 experiments are analyzed in section 3. The findings are then summarized in section 4.

148

149 **2. Data and methodology**

150 **2.1 Model and experiments**

151 *2.1.1 MPAS-Atmosphere (MPAS-A) model*

152 This study uses a fully compressible non-hydrostatic model (MPAS v5.2) developed
153 for weather prediction and climate applications. The non-hydrostatic dynamical core of MPAS
154 is described in Skamarock et al. (2012). MPAS uses C-grid staggering of the prognostic
155 variables and centroidal Voronoi meshes to discretize the sphere. The unstructured spherical
156 centroidal Voronoi tessellation (SCVT) generation algorithms can provide global quasi-
157 uniform resolution meshes as well as variable-resolution meshes through the use of a single



158 scalar density function, hence opening opportunities for regional downscaling and upscaling
159 between mesoscales and non-hydrostatic scales to hydrostatic scales within a global framework.
160 The vertical discretization uses the height-based hybrid terrain-following coordinate (Klemp,
161 2011), in which coordinate surfaces are progressively smoothed with height to remove the
162 impact of small-scale terrain structures. The dynamical solver applies the split-explicit
163 technique (Klemp et al., 2007) to integrate the flux-form compressible equations. The basic
164 temporal discretization uses the third order Runge-Kutta scheme and explicit time-splitting
165 technique (Wicker and Skamarock, 2002), similar to that used in the Weather Research and
166 Forecasting (WRF) model (Skamarock et al., 2008). The scalar transport scheme used by
167 MPAS on its Voronoi mesh is described in Skamarock and Gassmann (2011), and the
168 monotonic option is used for all moist species. The extensive tests of MPAS using idealized
169 and realistic cases verify that smooth transitions between the fine- and coarse-resolution
170 regions of the mesh lead to no significant distortions of the atmospheric flow (e.g., Skamarock
171 et al., 2012; Park et al., 2013).

172 In the current version (v5.2) of MPAS, there are a few physics schemes available. Three
173 convective parameterizations can be used. The Kain-Fritsch (KF, Kain, 2004) and the new
174 Tiedtke (NTD, Bechtold et al., 2004, 2008, 2014) schemes represent both deep and shallow
175 convection using a mass flux approach with a convective available potential energy (CAPE)
176 removal time scale (Kain, 2004). The third one, the GF scheme (Grell and Freitas, 2014), is
177 based on the Grell-Devenyi ensemble scheme (Grell and Devenyi, 2002) using the multi-
178 closure, multi-parameter, ensemble method but with improvements to smooth the transition to
179 cloud-resolving scales following Arakawa et al. (2011). This scale-awareness is critical for
180 global variable resolution simulation across hydrostatic (e.g., tens of km) and non-hydrostatic
181 scales (e.g., 4 km). Fowler et al. (2016) implemented the GF convective parameterization in
182 MPAS and examined the impacts of horizontal resolution on the partitioning between
183 convective-parameterized and grid-resolved precipitation using a variable-resolution mesh in
184 which the horizontal resolution varies between hydrostatic scales (~50 km) in the coarsest
185 region of the mesh to non-hydrostatic scales (~ 3 km) in the most refined region of the mesh.
186 For cloud microphysics, the WSM6 (Hong and Lim, 2006) and Thompson (Thompson et al.,
187 2008) schemes are selected. Two options are available for representing the planetary boundary
188 layer processes, the Mellor-Yamada-Nakanishi-Niino (MYNN) scheme (Nakanishi and Niino,
189 2006 and 2009) and the YSU scheme (Hong et al., 2006; Hong 2010). The Noah scheme (Chen
190 and Dudhia, 2001) and the RRTMG scheme (Mlawer et al., 1997; Iacono et al., 2000) were
191 implemented, respectively, for the land surface and radiative transfer processes.



192

193 *2.1.2 Numerical experiments*

194 In this study, the height coordinate of MPAS is configured with 55 layers, and the model
195 top is at 30 km. Multiple experiments are conducted with MPAS using quasi-uniform
196 resolution meshes and variable resolution meshes. Two quasi-uniform resolution meshes and
197 three variable resolution meshes are configured, similar to those shown in Figure 1a and b that
198 are coarsened to display the structure of the individual mesh cells. The quasi-uniform mesh has
199 essentially the same mesh spacing globally, while the variable resolution mesh has finer mesh
200 spacing in the refined region with a transition zone between the fine and coarse resolution
201 meshes. More details about the mesh generation can be found in Ringler et al. (2011). The two
202 quasi-uniform meshes have grid spacing that approximately equals to 15 km (U15km) and 60
203 km (U60km). The three variable resolution meshes feature a circular refined high-resolution
204 region centered over East China as shown in Figure 1c. Figure 1c shows the exact mesh size
205 distribution of the 4-60km variable resolution mesh (V4km) that has a refined region with grid
206 spacing of approximately 4 km, and the mesh spacing gradually increases through a transition
207 zone to approximately 60 km for the rest of the globe. The other two variable resolution meshes
208 (V16km and V30km) have a similar mesh structure as the V4km mesh but with a mesh spacing
209 of 16 km and 30 km, respectively, over the refined region that gradually increases to 128 km
210 and 120 km, respectively, elsewhere.

211 Experiments U15km and V16km are compared to examine the difference between
212 global uniform and variable resolution simulations in capturing the precipitation in the refined
213 region, in order to explore the potential of regional refinement for regional weather and climate
214 simulation. It is noteworthy here that the U15km mesh comprises ~2.5 million cells and the
215 V16km mesh only comprises ~0.11 million cells. In order to investigate the potential impact
216 from physics parameterizations, two available convective parameterizations (GF and NTD) are
217 used for each experiment with the two meshes. Two cloud microphysics schemes (WSM6 and
218 Thompson) are also tested, but the precipitation differences in the U15km and V16km
219 experiments are small. Therefore, only the results using WSM6 with two different convective
220 parameterizations are shown in this study for the two meshes (U15km.NTD, U15km.GF,
221 V16km.NTD, and V16km.GF).

222 The U60km, V30km, V16km, and V4km experiments are conducted to quantify the
223 impacts of horizontal resolution on simulating precipitation characteristics. As discussed above,
224 GF is the only convective parameterization that has been tested with scale-aware capability and
225 can be used across the hydrostatic (e.g., tens of km) and non-hydrostatic scales (e.g., 4 km).



226 Therefore, in order to investigate the difference among the experiments with the four meshes
227 (U60km, V30km, V16km, and V4km), they are all conducted with the GF convective
228 parameterization. Since the cloud microphysics has significant impact on the V4km
229 simulations (discussed latter), the experiments of V4km with both WSM6 (V4km.WSM6) and
230 Thompson (V4km.Thompson) cloud microphysics schemes are analyzed in this study. When
231 examining the difference between the global uniform and variable resolution simulations and
232 investigating the impact of mesh spacing, the same physics schemes and parameter values are
233 used in multiple experiments if not specified explicitly. All the numerical experiments
234 discussed above are summarized in Table 1.

235 To simulate the heavy precipitation event that occurred during June 25-27 of 2012 over
236 the YRD of East China, all the MPAS experiments were initialized at 0000 UTC of 23 June
237 2012 to allow appropriate spin-up time, and the modeling results for 25-27 June 2012 are
238 analyzed. The simulations were initialized using the forecast at 1° horizontal resolution at 0000
239 UTC of 23 June 2012 from the Global Forecast System (GFS) of National Center for
240 Environmental Prediction (NCEP). This way, the MPAS simulation results can also be
241 compared against the GFS forecast starting from the 0000 UTC of 23 June 2012.

242 2.2 Dataset

243 Several datasets are used to evaluate the MPAS simulations. The hourly precipitation
244 dataset from CMA is used for evaluating the simulated precipitation characteristics. The
245 distribution of stations over the study domain is shown as the color-filled circles in Figure 2.
246 The 6-hourly wind field dataset from the ECMWF interim Reanalysis (ERA-interim) ($0.75^\circ \times$
247 0.75°) (Dee et al., 2011) is used as the reference for evaluating the simulated distributions of
248 winds. Lastly, the global forecast products at 0.5° and 1° horizontal resolutions starting from
249 UTC00 of 23 June 2012 are also used for comparison. The GFS forecast products are
250 downloaded from [https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/data-access/model-data/model-datasets/global-](https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/data-access/model-data/model-datasets/global-forecast-system-gfs)
251 [forecast-system-gfs](https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/data-access/model-data/model-datasets/global-forecast-system-gfs). Since the focus of this study is not to investigate the difference between
252 MPAS and GFS, details about the GFS are not discussed here but can be found on the website
253 listed above.

254

255 3. Results

256 3.1 Simulations at quasi-uniform and variable resolutions

257 Figure 2 shows the spatial distributions of precipitation and wind at 850 hPa averaged
258 during the event (June 25 00:00 to June 27 12:00 UTC Time) from the simulations with global



259 uniform (15 km) and variable (16 km over East China) resolutions (U15km.NTD and
260 V16km.NTD). The mean precipitation from the CMA stations and the winds from the ERA-
261 interim reanalysis are also shown. The CMA observations show average precipitation rate
262 exceeding 50 mm/day over central East China with a heavy rain belt extending from west to
263 east. The rain belt is part of the Meiyu front that generates a large fraction of precipitation
264 during the East Asian summer monsoon in China. In general, both simulations capture the
265 observed precipitation pattern. It is evident that the modeling results over the refined region
266 are consistent between the uniform and variable resolutions. The spatial correlation coefficient
267 between the two simulations over the refined region (Fig. 2) is 0.85. Besides precipitation, both
268 simulations also capture the distribution of winds from the reanalysis data. The wind fields
269 between the two simulations are also consistent with a correlation coefficient of 0.99.

270 As mentioned above, the precipitation during this event is concentrated in a west-east
271 narrow belt. For a more quantitative comparison, Figure 3 shows the zonal averaged
272 precipitation during the event over East China (denoted as the black box in Fig. 2) from
273 observations and simulations. The CMA observations show an evident precipitation peak
274 reaching ~40 mm/day around the latitude of 31°N. All four simulations with different
275 resolutions and convective parameterizations capture well the zonal distribution of observed
276 precipitation. The correlation coefficients are 0.9 and 0.89 for the U15km and V16km
277 simulations with the GF scheme, respectively, and 0.89 and 0.86 for the same simulations but
278 with the NTD scheme. This comparison further indicates that the simulations at global uniform
279 and variable resolutions are consistent with each other, with only negligible impacts from
280 different convective parameterizations. Although this consistency does not depend on the
281 convective schemes, simulations with the GF parameterization produce larger peak
282 precipitation than those with the NTD parameterization and are more consistent with
283 observations for this event. The impact of microphysics (WSM6 and Thompson) on modeling
284 precipitation is also examined and is found to be negligible (not shown).

285 Figure 4 shows the meridional precipitation propagation over East China during the
286 event. The CMA observations indicate that the rain belt propagates from 26°N at 06 UTC of
287 25 June to 31°N at 00 UTC of 26 June. The precipitation reaches the first peak around 00 UTC
288 of 26 June. The rain belt stays around 31°N and reaches the second peak around 00 UTC of 27
289 June. The event ends around 12 UTC of 27 June. All four simulations generally reproduce the
290 observed precipitation propagation. The correlation coefficients are 0.48 and 0.42 for the
291 simulations with the GF scheme at the resolutions of U15km and V16km, respectively, and



292 0.55 and 0.54 for the simulations with the NTD scheme at the two resolutions. The results again
293 indicate the consistency between the simulations at the global uniform and variable resolutions
294 over the refined region. The convective and microphysics (not shown) parameterizations have
295 negligible impact on modeling precipitation propagation during this event.

296 Overall, for the selected event, the MPAS simulations at global uniform and variable
297 resolutions produce consistent results over the refined region with comparable horizontal
298 resolution in terms of the spatial patterns of precipitation and wind fields and the precipitation
299 propagation. This finding is in general agreement with the findings by previous studies of
300 MPAS with idealized experiments (e.g., Zhao et al., 2016) and real-world experiments (e.g.,
301 Sakaguchi et al., 2015). These findings provide the basis for using global variable resolution
302 configurations of MPAS for modeling extreme precipitation over East China. In the following,
303 the impacts of resolution on modeling extreme precipitation during this event are investigated
304 with multiple global variable-resolution experiments.

305

306 **3.2 Impacts of resolution**

307 *3.2.1 Parameterized and resolved precipitation*

308 Multiple experiments using MPAS at various resolutions are conducted as stated in the
309 methodology section. The resolution crosses the scales from 60 km, 30 km, 16 km to 4 km. For
310 global variable resolution configurations, a scale-aware convective parameterization is needed,
311 especially for the configuration that crosses the hydrostatic (convective parameterization is
312 required) and non-hydrostatic scales (convection-permitting). Therefore, the experiments
313 analyzed below are all conducted with the GF scheme that is developed for simulations down
314 to ~ 4 km resolution (details can be found in Grell and Freitas, 2014). To demonstrate the scale-
315 aware performance of the GF convective parameterization across various resolutions, Figure 5
316 shows the spatial distributions of convective parameterized and resolved precipitation averaged
317 during the event. At the resolution of 60 km and 16 km, precipitation produced from the
318 convective parameterization dominates the total precipitation amount. On the contrary, at the
319 resolution of 4 km, the total precipitation amount from simulations with two different
320 microphysics is dominated by the resolved precipitation. This demonstrates that the GF scheme
321 is aware of the resolution change so the precipitation from the simulations at convection-
322 permitting scale is mostly produced by the cloud microphysics in MPAS.

323 *3.2.2 Spatial and temporal variation*



324 Figure 6 shows the observed and simulated spatial distributions of precipitation and
325 wind fields at 850 hPa averaged during the event. For comparison, the GFS forecast results at
326 the resolutions of 1.0 degree and 0.5 degree are also included. The GFS forecast results from
327 the two resolutions are similar, both showing a northward shifted rain belt compared to the
328 CMA observation. Due to the northern shift of the rain belt, the spatial correlation coefficients
329 between the GFS and the CMA observations are only 0.06 and 0.03 for the resolutions of 1.0
330 degree and 0.5 degree, respectively. In comparison, the spatial correlation coefficients between
331 the CMA observations and the MPAS simulations at the resolutions of 60 km, 30 km, and 16
332 km are 0.49, 0.47, and 0.56, respectively. The correlation coefficients for the 4 km simulations
333 with the WSM6 and Thompson microphysics schemes are 0.63 and 0.54, respectively. In
334 general, the experiments at the convection-permitting scale (4 km) capture better the observed
335 precipitation pattern than simulations with convective parameterization over the refined region,
336 although the performance is affected by the microphysics scheme to some extent. It is
337 noteworthy that, although the difference in precipitation over East China is significant among
338 the GFS forecasts at 0.5° and 1.0° resolutions and MPAS at various resolutions, their global
339 distributions of precipitation and wind averaged during the event period are similar with spatial
340 correlation coefficients of 0.40-0.43 and 0.86-0.93, respectively, against the satellite retrieved
341 precipitation and ECMWF reanalysis wind (not shown).

342 Figure 7 shows the observed and simulated zonal distributions of precipitation averaged
343 during the event over East China. For comparison, the GFS forecasts at 1° and 0.5° resolutions
344 are also included. The modeling results are sampled at the CMA stations. Consistent with the
345 spatial distributions of precipitation shown in Fig. 6, the GFS forecasts at both 0.5° and 1.0°
346 resolutions reproduce the precipitation peak of ~40 mm/day but shift the rain belt northward
347 by about 4.0° latitude from 31°N to 35°N. The MPAS simulations at 16 km and 30 km with
348 the GF scheme can well capture the peak precipitation around 31°N, although the simulation
349 at 30 km produces a second lower peak of precipitation around 29°N. The simulation at 60 km
350 produces much lower precipitation peak of ~25 mm/day and shifts the rain belt southward to
351 around 30°N. For the two MPAS simulations at 4 km, the precipitation is mainly generated by
352 cloud microphysics (Fig. 5) and therefore can be significantly affected by the cloud
353 microphysics schemes. The MPAS simulations at 4 km with WSM6 and Thompson produce
354 different zonal distributions of the rain belt. The simulation using WSM6 reproduces the peak
355 of precipitation fairly well, while the simulation using Thompson produces higher precipitation
356 with a peak at 50 mm/day and shifts the peak northward by about 1 degree. Overall, the



357 correlation coefficients between the CMA observations and the GFS forecasts are -0.19 and -
358 0.15 for 0.5° and 1.0°, respectively, and the correlation coefficients are 0.68, 0.71, 0.89, and
359 0.97 (0.72) for the MPAS simulations at 60 km, 30 km, 16 km, and 4 km with the WSM6
360 (Thompson) cloud microphysics.

361 Figure 8 compares the observed and simulated precipitation propagation during the
362 event over East China. The modeling results are sampled at the CMA stations. The GFS
363 forecasts at 0.5° and 1.0° are similar, both generate a heavy precipitation zone between 34°N
364 and 35°N that lasts for about 18 hours from UTC12 of June 26. This is largely different from
365 the CMA observations, so the correlation coefficients between the forecasts and observations
366 are only 0.02 and 0.03 for 0.5° and 1.0°, respectively. The MPAS simulations are highly
367 dependent on the resolutions. All simulations reproduce the two peaks of precipitation at
368 roughly the same time as observed during the event. However, the experiment at 60 km
369 simulates the first precipitation peak southward and the second peak northward of the
370 observations, while the experiment at 30 km simulates the second peak further south. The
371 correlation coefficients are 0.30 and 0.32 between the observations and the simulations at 60
372 km and 30 km, respectively. The experiments at 16 km and 4 km can well capture the timing
373 and latitude of the observed precipitation event, except that the experiment at 4 km with the
374 Thompson scheme overestimates the precipitation amount of the first peak. The correlation
375 coefficients are 0.41 and 0.42 (0.38) for 16 km and 4 km with the WSM6 (Thompson) cloud
376 microphysics schemes, respectively.

377 Figure 9 compares the height-latitude cross section of the winds averaged over the
378 region (shown as in Fig. 6) during the event from the ERA-interim reanalysis, the GFS forecasts,
379 and the MPAS simulations. In the ERA-interim reanalysis wind fields, vertical motion is
380 located primarily around 31°N, extending from the lower troposphere (~900 hPa) to the upper
381 troposphere (~200 hPa). The GFS simulates the vertical motion primarily around 33°N, but the
382 vertical motion is also strong around 35°N from 600 hPa to 200 hPa, which can be linked to
383 the heavy precipitation generated there. These biases result in weaker correlation in vertical
384 winds between the reanalysis and the GFS forecasts with coefficients of 0.25 and 0.22 for 0.5°
385 and 1.0° resolutions, respectively. The MPAS experiment at 60 km simulates the vertical
386 motion toward the south around 28°N. The MPAS experiments at 30 km and 16 km generally
387 agree well with the ERA-interim reanalysis, although both generate higher vertical motion in
388 the south (e.g. 25°N) to some extent. The correlation coefficients between the reanalysis and
389 the MPAS experiments at 60 km, 30 km, and 16 km are 0.57, 0.76, and 0.80, respectively. The



390 MPAS experiment at 4 km with the WSM6 scheme produces consistent vertical motion with
391 that in the ERA-interim reanalysis, while the one with the Thompson scheme shifts the vertical
392 motion a little further north. Both experiments at 4 km have the highest correlation in the
393 distributions of vertical motion with the reanalysis with coefficients of 0.85 and 0.81 for WSM6
394 and Thompson, respectively. The zonal distributions of precipitation discussed above
395 correspond well with the distributions of vertical motion in all the experiments. Differences in
396 the spatial distribution of vertical motions suggest that model resolution, and in some degree
397 cloud microphysics parameterizations, have important effects on simulating the structure of the
398 Meiyu front and the embedded precipitation.

399

400 *3.2.3 Distribution of extreme precipitation*

401 Besides predicting the spatial and temporal variations of the rain belt, it is also critical
402 to capture the location and intensity of extreme precipitation within the heavy rain belt. Since
403 the GFS forecasts shift the entire rain belt northward, only the MPAS simulations are analyzed
404 here. Figure 10 shows the spatial distributions of precipitation averaged during the event over
405 the heavy rain region (27°N-32°N and 110°E-122°E). The CMA observations show that heavy
406 precipitation exceeding 50 mm/day mainly occurs over the plains of South Anhui province and
407 Southeast Hubei province and part of the Huang Mountains. The MPAS experiment at 60 km
408 simulates much smaller areas with heavy precipitation exceeding 50 mm/day. In addition, it
409 simulates heavy precipitation over some areas of Hunan province, which is not observed by
410 the CMA stations. The experiment at 30 km produces more numerous areas with heavy
411 precipitation and captures the locations of heavy precipitation over the Huang Mountains.
412 However, it misses the heavy precipitation over the plains of South Anhui province and
413 Southeast Hubei province; instead, it produces heavy precipitation over large areas of
414 mountainous regions over Hunan and Jiangxi provinces. The experiment at 16 km simulates
415 better spatial distribution of heavy precipitation, particularly capturing the heavy precipitation
416 over the Huang Mountains and the plain of South Anhui province, although it still shifts the
417 heavy precipitation from Southeast Hubei province to Hunan province. The experiments at 4
418 km are affected by the cloud microphysics. The 4 km experiment with the WSM6 scheme
419 produces the best spatial distribution among the MPAS experiments. It generally reproduces
420 the observed heavy precipitation areas during this event. On the other hand, the 4 km
421 experiment with the Thompson microphysics produces more areas of heavy precipitation over
422 Central Anhui province. As a result, the correlation coefficients between the observations and



423 the MPAS experiments at the resolutions of 60 km, 30 km, 16 km, and 4 km are 0.20, 0.21,
424 0.29, 0.50 (WSM6), and 0.42 (Thompson), respectively.

425 Figure 11 shows the probability density functions (PDFs) of hourly precipitation at all
426 the CMA stations during the event. Precipitation above ~ 5 mm/hour (~ 120 mm/day) is
427 considered very heavy and extra heavy storm rain event (refer to the CMA definition) that may
428 cause dramatic flooding and damage locally or regionally. During this event, for precipitation
429 lower than ~ 5 mm/hour, the MPAS simulations at hydrostatic scales (60 km, 30 km, and 16
430 km) overestimate the frequency, while above ~ 5 mm/hour, these simulations significantly
431 underestimate the frequency. In contrast, the MPAS simulations at convection-permitting scale
432 (4 km) produce much higher frequency of extreme precipitation above ~ 5 mm/hour, more
433 consistent with the observations. However, the simulated frequency of extreme precipitation at
434 convection-permitting scale depends on the cloud microphysics schemes. The Thompson
435 scheme produces much higher frequency than the WSM6 scheme and results in a positive bias
436 relative to the observations during this event, which deserves further investigation in future.
437 The results also indicate that the convective parameterization appears not to be able to produce
438 the higher intensity precipitation.

439 Previous studies found that the distribution of extreme precipitation correlates well with
440 that of the lower tropospheric upward vertical velocity (e.g., Zhao et al., 2016). Figure 12 shows
441 the PDFs of hourly upward vertical velocity averaged below 700 hPa at all the CMA stations
442 during the event from the MPAS simulations. In general, the comparison of lower-level upward
443 vertical velocity among the experiments is consistent with that of precipitation (Fig. 11) in that
444 simulations at hydrostatic scales (i.e., 60 km, 30 km, and 16 km in this study) produce higher
445 frequencies of updrafts < 4 cm/s than simulations at 4 km and vice versa for stronger updrafts.
446 The difference in updrafts between the 4 km MPAS simulations with two different cloud
447 microphysics schemes is negligible. Another analysis with the simulated updrafts at various
448 resolutions all regridded to 0.5° resolution shows the similar PDFs as Fig. 12.

449

450 **4. Summary and discussion**

451 In this study, a series of MPAS simulations of a heavy precipitation event over East
452 China at various resolutions from hydrostatic (60 km, 30 km, 16 km) to non-hydrostatic (4 km)
453 scales are analyzed. The consistency between the MPAS simulations at global uniform and
454 variable resolutions is also investigated. Besides the impacts of resolution on simulating heavy
455 precipitation, the impacts of convective and cloud microphysics schemes are also examined.



456 All the MPAS simulations are evaluated using the CMA station observations of precipitation
457 and the ERA-interim reanalysis of winds, and compared against the NCEP GFS forecasts that
458 share the same initial condition of the MPAS simulations.

459 In general, the MPAS simulations at global uniform (U15km) and variable (V16km)
460 resolutions produce similar results in terms of the spatial and temporal distributions of
461 precipitation and winds inside the refined region over East China. Both the experiments can
462 capture the observed precipitation characteristics. This suggests that the global variable-
463 resolution configuration of MPAS may be appropriate to simulate heavy precipitation over East
464 China, which is also consistent with the finding from previous studies using variable resolution
465 MPAS with regional refinement over other parts of the globe (e.g., Sakaguchi et al., 2015; Zhao
466 et al., 2016). The simulations with two different convective parameterizations show that the
467 MPAS simulated distributions of precipitation are affected by the convective schemes at
468 hydrostatic scales, while the impacts from the cloud microphysics schemes are small (not
469 shown).

470 Further investigation of MPAS experiments at multiple resolutions from hydrostatic
471 (60 km, 30 km, 16 km) to non-hydrostatic (4 km) scales over East China shows significant
472 impacts of resolution on simulating the spatial distributions of precipitation and winds. The
473 variable-resolution simulations spanning hydrostatic and non-hydrostatic scales reveal that the
474 scale-aware GF convective parameterization produces less convective parameterized
475 precipitation as the horizontal resolution increases. Meanwhile, the subgrid-scale motions
476 become increasingly resolved and the ratio of grid-scale to total precipitation increases over
477 the refined region as resolution increases to 4 km. Comparison against the station observations
478 indicates that the MPAS simulations at 16 km and 4 km can generally well capture the observed
479 temporal and zonal distribution of the rain belt in the simulated event. The simulations at
480 coarser resolutions of 60 km and 30 km produce weaker precipitation and a southward shift of
481 the rain belt. In contrast, the GFS forecasts at 0.5° and 1.0° produce a northward shift of the
482 rain belt. The biases in the locations of rain belt are consistent with the zonal shift of vertical
483 motion. This suggests that the position of the Meiyu front that produces the vertical motion is
484 sensitive to the models and their specific configurations even though all simulations share the
485 same initial condition. The analysis also indicates the significant impacts from cloud
486 microphysics on the MPAS simulations at 4 km in terms of precipitation distribution and
487 intensity.



488 Besides the general zonal distribution of the rain belt, the distribution and intensity of
489 heavy precipitation are also investigated. Among the MPAS experiments with multiple
490 resolutions, only the simulations at 4 km can capture the observed locations of heavy
491 precipitation. All experiments at coarser resolutions miss some areas of heavy precipitation or
492 produce heavy precipitation in areas different from that observed. In addition, only the MPAS
493 simulations at 4 km can generate reasonable frequency of intense precipitation that is
494 significantly underestimated by simulations at coarser resolutions, which may indicate that the
495 convective parameterization appears not to be able to produce intense precipitation. The
496 analysis also shows that the underestimation of intense precipitation is consistent with the
497 underestimation of resolved upward motions in the simulations at coarser resolutions.

498 Although the MPAS simulations at 4 km produce the best results among the
499 experiments at various resolutions, they still have some biases in the timing and intensity of
500 precipitation. In addition, the performance of MPAS at convection-permitting scale is quite
501 sensitive to the cloud microphysics scheme in terms of the distribution and intensity of extreme
502 precipitation. This is consistent with Feng et al. (2018), who found that cloud microphysics
503 parameterizations in convection permitting regional simulations have important effects on
504 macroscale properties such as the lifetime, precipitation amount, stratiform versus convective
505 rain volumes of mesoscale convective systems in the U.S. They attributed the impacts to the
506 representation of ice phase hydrometeor species that influence the mesoscale convective
507 systems through their influence on the diabatic heating profiles that provide dynamical
508 feedback to the circulation (Yang et al. 2017). Hence more efforts may be needed to improve
509 cloud microphysics processes for modeling extreme precipitation at convection-permitting
510 scale in the future. In the meantime, aerosols have been found to play a critical role in
511 simulating some heavy precipitation events over China through their impacts on cloud
512 microphysics and/or radiation (e.g., Zhong et al., 2015, 2017; Fan et al., 2015). The current
513 version of MPAS does not represent aerosol-radiation and aerosol-cloud interactions, which
514 may also contribute to the biases of extreme precipitation at convection-permitting scales.
515 Lastly, it is also noteworthy that the resolution of 4 km may still be insufficient to resolve well
516 some convective cells, which may also contribute to the modeling biases (Bryan and Morrison,
517 2012).

518 This study provides the first evidence supporting the use of global variable resolution
519 configuration of MPAS for simulating extreme precipitation events over East China. In
520 particular, the MPAS variable-resolution experiment at convection-permitting scale (4 km)
521 improves the simulated distribution and intensity of precipitation over the area of interest,



522 which is consistent with previous studies using regional convection permitting models (e.g.,
523 Zhang et al., 2013; Prein et al., 2015; Yang et al. 2017; Gao et al. 2017; Feng et al. 2018). The
524 higher resolution MPAS experiments simulate better spatial distribution of heavy precipitation
525 over the complex topographic region of East China, which suggests that topography may play
526 a critical role and deserves further investigation in the future. Although the GFS forecasts
527 analyzed in this study show significant biases in precipitation distribution, some GFS forecasts
528 initialized at different times are found to produce more reasonable results (not shown),
529 supporting the need for ensemble modeling for forecasting extreme events. However, the zonal
530 shift of the rain belt by the MPAS simulations at coarser resolutions compared to simulations
531 at finer resolutions suggests that resolution may have contributed to the GFS forecast biases.
532 A more detailed exploration of the differences between the MPAS and GFS simulations is
533 beyond the scope of this study. Finally, some studies noted that convection-permitting
534 modeling does not always add values in simulating heavy precipitation compared to hydrostatic
535 scale modeling (e.g., Kain et al., 2008). Our results show that cloud microphysics
536 parameterizations have important effects in convection permitting simulations, but modeling
537 of other physical processes such as boundary layer turbulence, radiation, and aerosols may also
538 affect the skill of convection permitting simulations. Furthermore, more events of heavy
539 precipitation over East China should be investigated in the future to more systematically
540 evaluate the MPAS variable-resolution modeling framework and the impacts of resolution and
541 physical parameterizations.

542

543 **Code availability**

544 The MPAS release v5.2 can be obtained at [mpas-dev.github.io](https://github.com/masdev/mpas-dev). Global meshes generated for
545 the experiments used in this study are available upon request by contacting the corresponding
546 author.

547

548 **Author contributions**

549 CZ and YW designed research. MX performed the simulations. CZ, MX, MZ, and ZH analyzed
550 the simulations. JG collected and analyzed the observations. CZ, MX, and YW wrote the paper.
551 LRL, MD, and WS guided the experiment design and edited the paper.

552

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563

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Table 1 Numerical Experiments conducted and analyzed in this study

Physics/Resolution	MPAS				
	U15km	U60km	V30km	V16km	V4km
WSM6+NTD	Yes	/	/	Yes	/
WSM6+GF	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Thompson+GF	/	/	/	/	Yes

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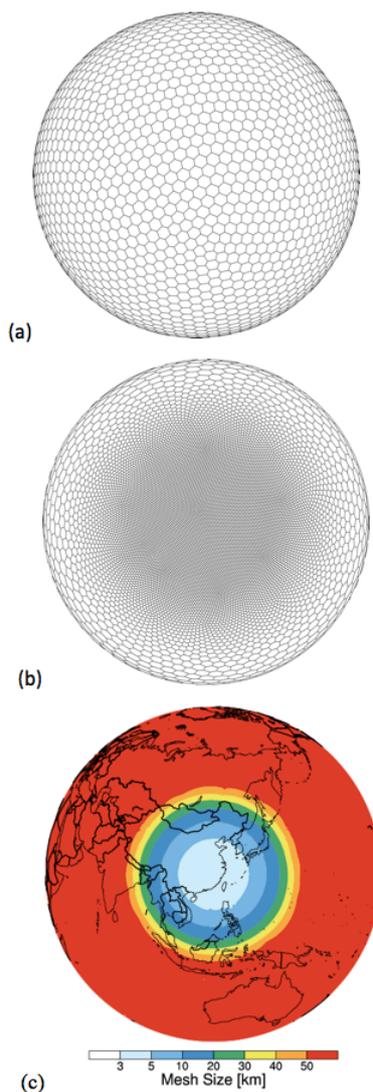
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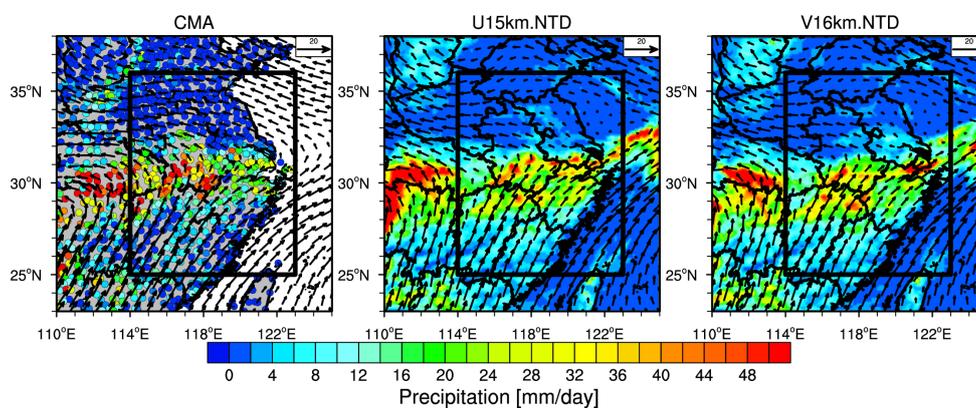
893 **Figure 1** (a) quasi-uniform mesh and (b) variable-resolution mesh used in the MPAS
894 experiments. Both meshes are plotted at resolutions significantly lower than used in the
895 experiments to show the mesh cells. (c) global variable-resolution mesh size distribution in the
896 variable resolution 4-60 km experiment.

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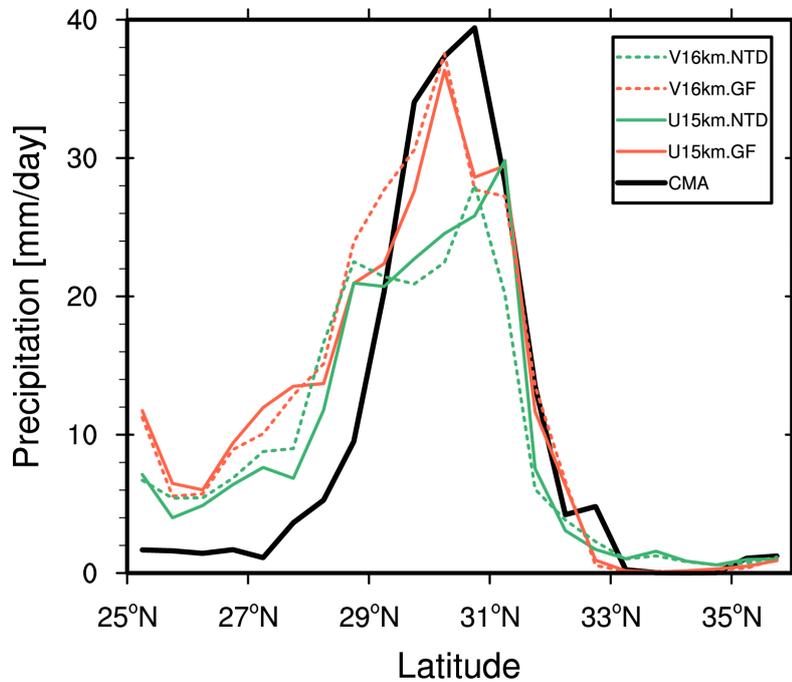


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Figure 2 Spatial distributions of precipitation and wind fields at 850 hPa averaged during the event (June 25 00:00 to June 27 12:00 UTC time) from the simulations with the global uniform (15 km) and variable (16 km over the refined region as shown in Fig. 1c) resolutions. The observed mean precipitation from the CMA stations and the wind fields from the ERA-interim reanalysis are shown. The black box denotes the region for the analysis in the following.



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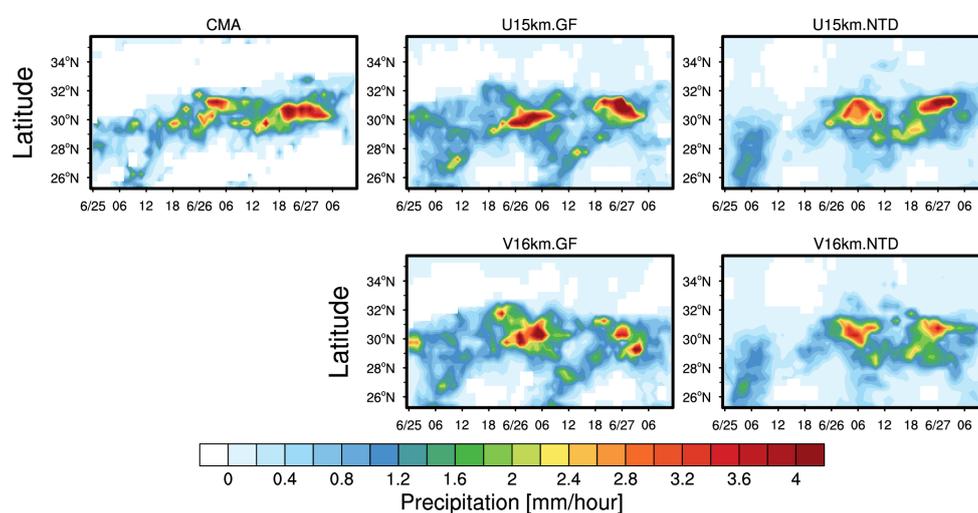


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Figure 3 Zonal distributions of precipitation averaged during the event (June 25 00:00 to June 27 12:00 UTC time) over East China (denoted as the black box in Fig. 2) from the CMA station observations and the simulations with the global uniform (15 km, solid lines) and variable (16 km over the refined region as shown in Fig. 1c, dash lines) resolutions with two convective parameterizations (GF, red lines; NTD, green lines). The modeling results are sampled at the CMA station.



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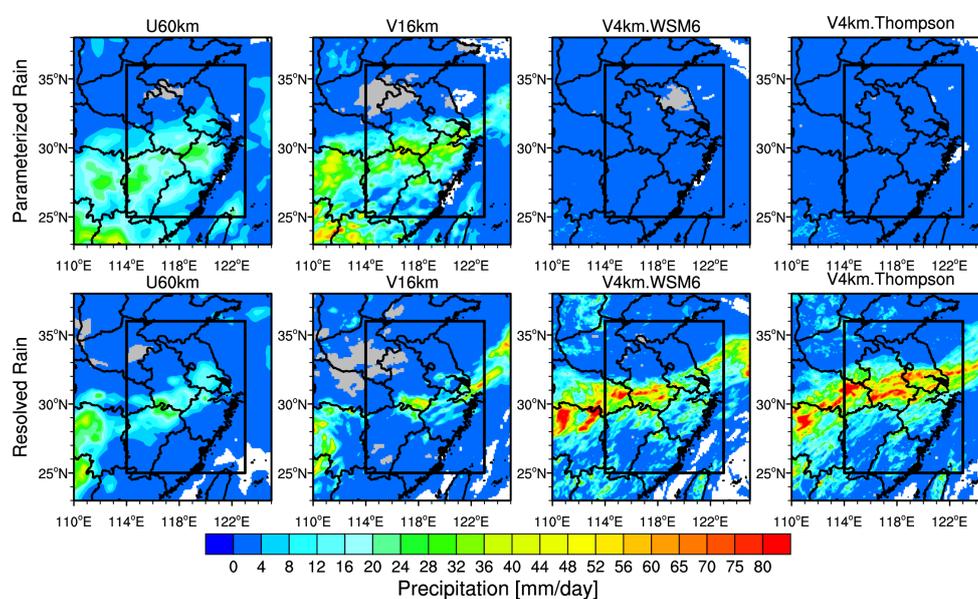


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Figure 4 Time-Latitude cross section of precipitation during the event over East China from the CMA station observations and the simulations with the global uniform and variable resolutions with two convective parameterizations. The modeling results are sampled at the CMA stations.



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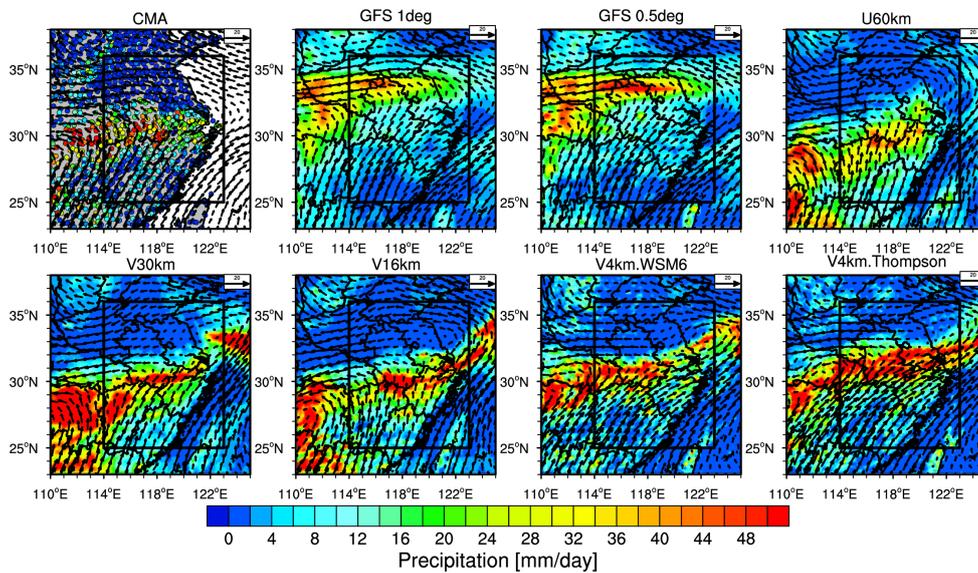


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Figure 5 Spatial distribution of averaged parameterized and resolved precipitation during the event over East China from the simulations with the resolutions of 60 km, 16 km, and 4 km.



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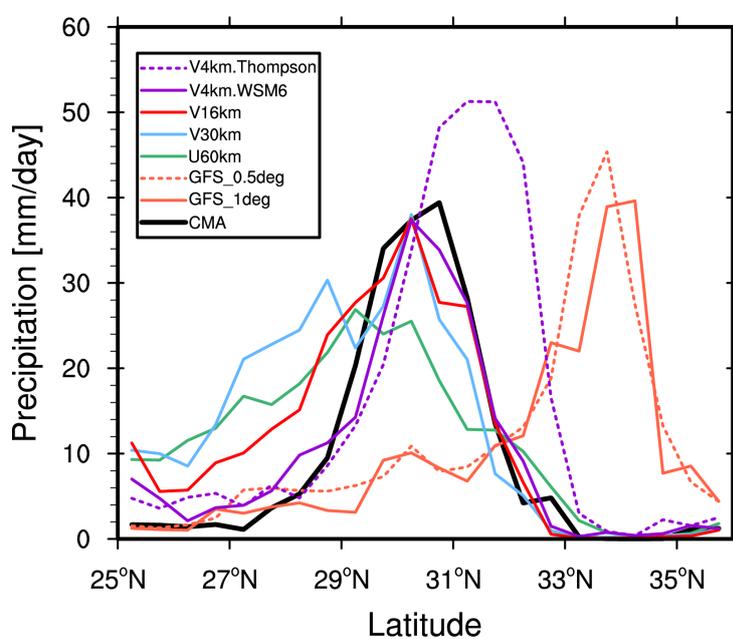


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Figure 6 Spatial distributions of precipitation and wind fields at 850 hPa averaged during the event from the MPAS simulations at the resolutions of 60 km, 30 km, 16 km, and 4 km. The observed mean precipitation from the CMA stations and the wind fields from the ERA-interim reanalysis are shown as well. The black box denotes the region for the analysis in the following. For comparison, the GFS forecasts at 1 degree and 0.5 degree resolutions are also shown.



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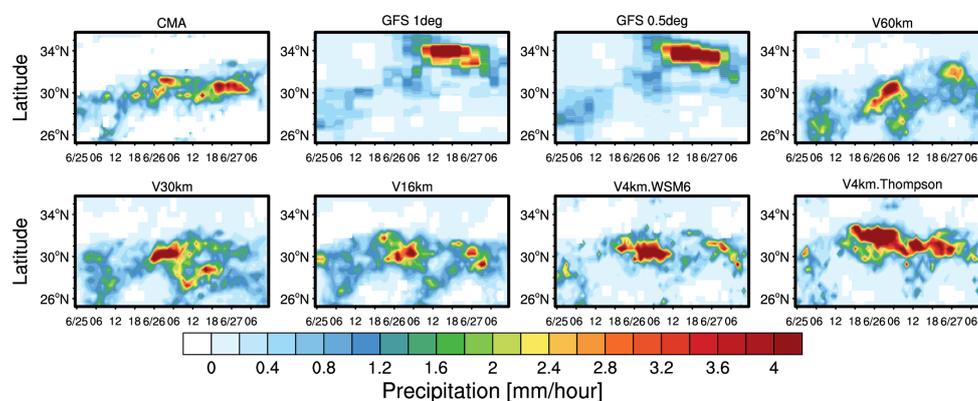


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Figure 7 Zonal distributions of precipitation averaged during the event over East China from the CMA station observations and the simulations with the resolutions of 60 km, 30 km, 16 km, and 4 km. For comparison, the GFS forecasts at 1 degree and 0.5 degree resolutions are also included. The modeling results are sampled at the CMA stations.



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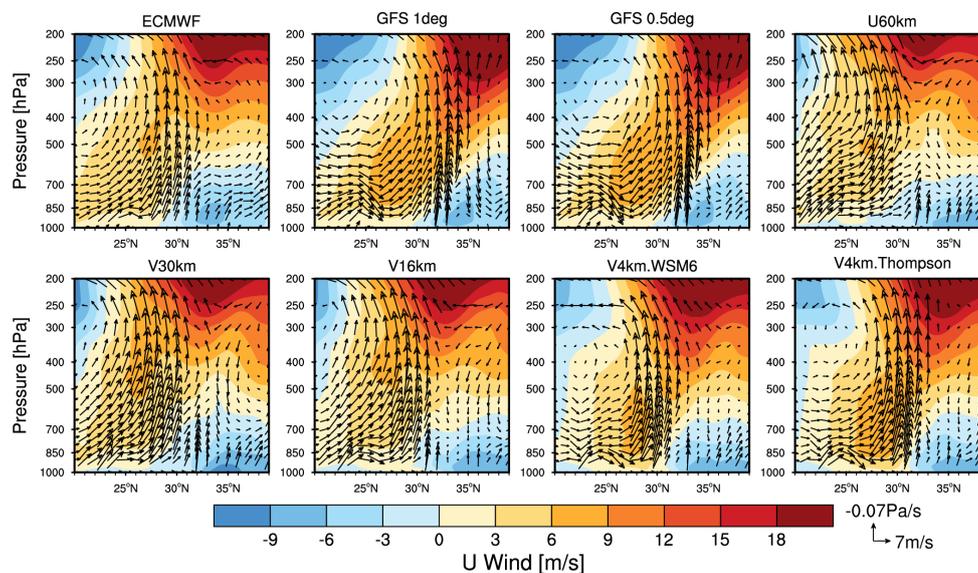


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Figure 8 Time-Latitude cross section of precipitation during the event over East China from the CMA station observations, GFS forecasts at 0.5° and 1.0° resolutions, and the MPAS simulations at resolutions of 60 km, 30 km, 16 km, and 4 km over East China. The simulations at 4 km are with two cloud microphysics schemes (WSM6 and Thompson). The modeling results are sampled at the CMA stations.



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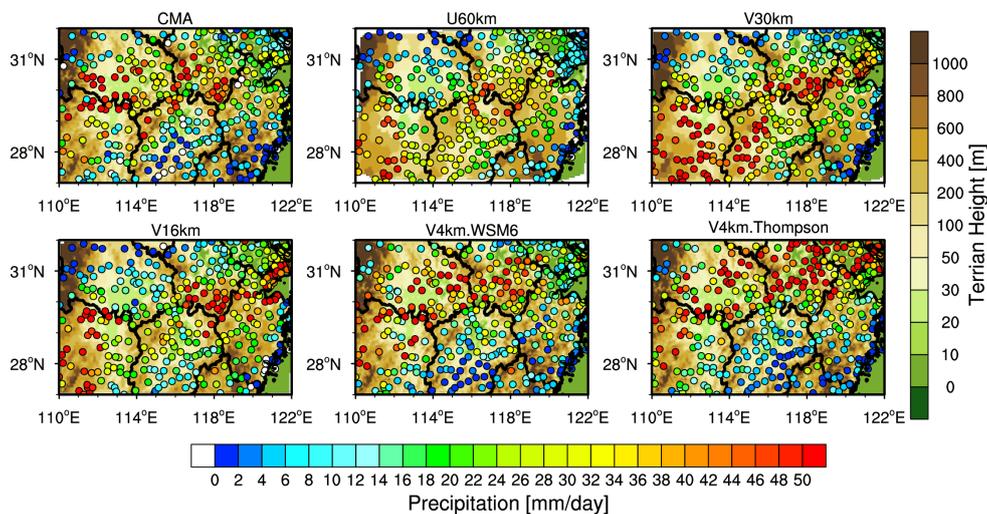


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Figure 9 Height-Latitude cross section of wind fields averaged over the region (as shown in Fig. 6) during the event from the ERA-interim reanalysis, the GFS forecasts at 0.5° and 1.0° resolutions, and the MPAS simulations at resolutions of 60 km, 30 km, 16 km, and 4 km. The simulations at 4 km are with two cloud microphysics schemes (WSM6 and Thompson). The positive color represents eastward wind.



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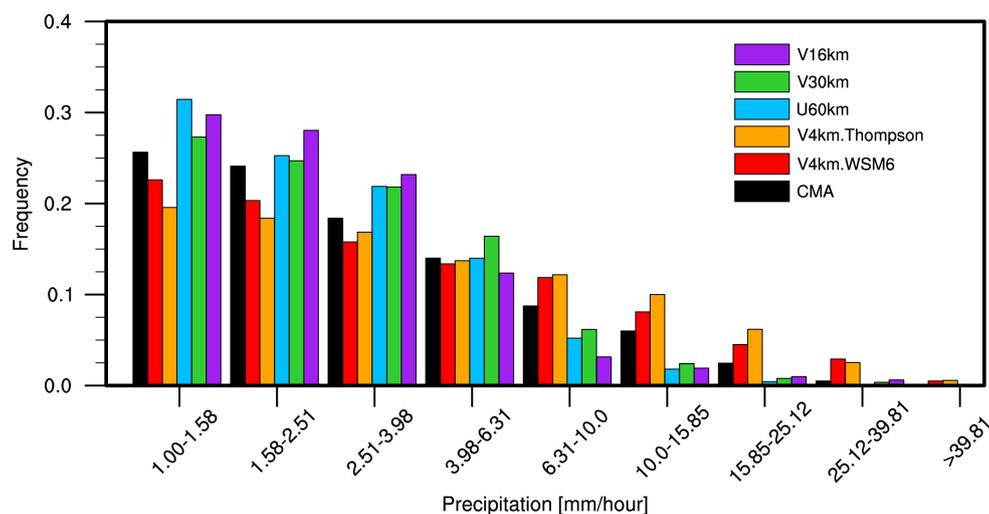


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Figure 10 Spatial distributions of precipitation averaged during the event over the heavy precipitation region (27°N-32°N and 110°E-122°E) from the CMA observations and the MPAS simulations at the resolutions of 60 km, 30 km, 16 km, and 4 km. The simulations are sampled at the CMA stations. The topography is also shown.



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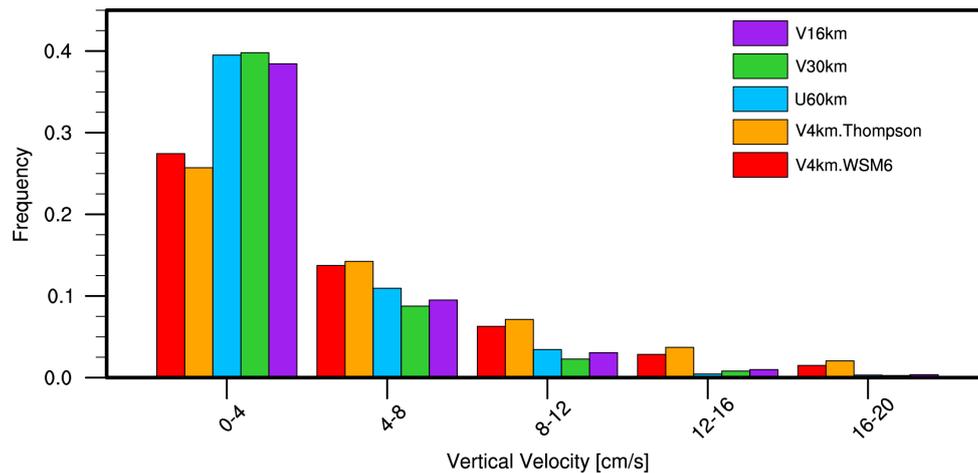


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Figure 11 Probability density functions (PDFs) of hourly precipitation at all the CMA stations during the event over East China from the CMA observations and the MPAS simulations at the resolutions of 60 km, 30 km, 16 km, and 4 km. The simulations are sampled at the CMA stations.



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Figure 12 Probability density functions (PDFs) of hourly upward vertical velocity averaged below 700 hPa at all the CMA stations during the event over East China from the MPAS simulations at the resolutions of 60 km, 30 km, 16 km, and 4 km.