

Data assimilation of generic boundary-layer flows for wind-turbine applications - An LES study

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Abstract. Providing date- and site-specific turbulent inflow fields for large-eddy simulations (LES) of the flow through wind turbines becomes increasingly important for reliable estimates of power production. In this study, data assimilation techniques are applied to adapt the atmospheric inflow field towards previously defined wind profiles. A standard and a modified version of the Newtonian relaxation technique and an assimilation method based on the vibration equation are implemented in the geophysical flow solver EULAG. The extent to which they are able to adapt mean horizontal wind velocities towards target profiles and the impact on atmospheric turbulence of an idealized LES are investigated. The sensitivity of the methods to grid refinement is analysed. The method based on the vibration equation is suited for fine grids ($dx = dy = dz = 5$ m), which are necessary in wind-energy applications. Furthermore, the vibration method is used to nudge the zonal and meridional inflow velocities of an idealized atmospheric simulation towards velocity profiles representing a weakly-stably-stratified atmospheric boundary layer (ABL) at the wind-farm site WiValdi at Krummendeich, Germany. On site wind measurements and the output of mesoscale simulations are evaluated to define the target velocity profile. The assimilation method based on the vibration equation is able to adapt the zonal and meridional velocity components of an atmospheric flow while damping effects on the atmospheric turbulence could be reduced. In a final step, the assimilated flow field is taken as inflow for a wind-turbine simulation, which then shows the characteristic structures of a wake in the ABL. This study shows the suitability of the vibration assimilation technique for adapting inflow fields for wind energy purposes and presents the advantages and disadvantages of the method.

Keywords: LES, data assimilation, atmospheric boundary layer, wind-turbine wake

1 Introduction

The growing demand for wind energy is accompanied with a wide range of challenges as structural components and technical characteristics of wind turbines are getting more and more sophisticated. In particular, the mutual interaction of wind-turbine wakes in wind farms and their response to the transient atmospheric flow field are grand challenges in wind-energy research

(cf. Veers et al., 2023). General attention is paid to the performance of the turbines and the loads on the blades which are mainly controlled by turbulence in the ABL (cf. Hansen, 2013; Wharton and Lundquist, 2012). The general question is how to maximize the harvested power of a wind turbine at a certain location under specific operational conditions. One of the decisive factors in answering this question is the atmospheric situation under which the wind turbines are operating. Knowledge of the thermal stratification and the flow conditions is becoming increasingly important because rotor diameters are getting larger and the hub heights are getting higher, thus covering a greater depth of the ABL. A better knowledge of the impact of different atmospheric characteristics like the vertical gradient of the horizontal velocity and turbulence intensities impacting a wind turbine and its wake is therefore essential, especially for wind parks with multiple turbines.

The recent opening of the research wind park WiValdi¹ (Wind Validation) in Krummendeich, North Germany on 15 August 2023 by the German Aerospace Center (DLR) and the Research Alliance Wind Energy (FVWE²) offers a timely opportunity to expand our knowledge on this topic. The wind park consists of two Enercon E-115 EP3 turbines with hub heights of 92 m and rotor diameters of $D = 116$ m separated by a rather narrow spacing of $4.4 D$. In addition, a smaller custom-built turbine is currently under construction. The flow fields and the turbine wakes at the wind park can be measured in great detail by the vast observational network located on site. This network includes a series of measuring masts, multiple Doppler wind lidar (DWL) instruments, and a microwave radiometer.

Even with a really dense observational network and a large number of field measurements that can provide quasi-reliable 3-D pictures of the atmospheric situation, there are still natural spatial and temporal limitations in resolving all motion modes affecting the response of wind turbines to the atmospheric flow. In order to close such scale gaps, numerical simulations can provide 3-D flow fields of the entire wind park with very high spatial and temporal resolutions. In particular, LES models have been proven to be a useful and powerful tool to compute these turbulent flow fields. In contrast to simulations based on Reynolds-averaged Navier-Stokes (RANS) equations, LESs are capable of resolving turbulence in the flow. In addition, LESs are computationally less expensive than direct numerical simulations (DNS) because the subgrid-scale (SGS) contribution to the turbulence is parameterized.

LESs are also frequently used to evaluate the effects of thermal stratification of the ABL on the wakes of wind turbines and wind farms for various atmospheric conditions (cf. Bhaganagar and Debnath, 2014; Abkar et al., 2016; Vollmer et al., 2016; Englberger and Dörnbrack, 2018). Particular emphasis has been placed on a distinctive thermal ABL stratification (neutral, convective, stable) on the flow around a single wind turbine and the flow in a wind farm (Porté-Agel et al., 2020). However, the majority of these studies conduct their basic research with idealized LESs, that are characterized by no large- and mesoscale forcing and by no temporal or spatial variation of the associated pressure gradient. The representation of real, measured flow conditions like those observed in WiValdi, however, cannot be addressed reliably with such purely idealized setups.

One way to generate site-specific atmospheric flow conditions is to couple mesoscale simulations (e.g. simulations of the Weather Research and Forecasting Model (WRF) (Skamarock et al., 2019)) with LESs (e.g., Aitken et al., 2014; Sanchez Gomez and Lundquist, 2020; Kilroy et al., 2024). Recent advances in this research field has been made by the Mesoscale to Microscale

¹<https://windenergy-researchfarm.com>

²Forschungsverbund Windenergie <https://www.fvwe.uni-oldenburg.de>

Coupling (MMC) project sponsored by the U.S. Department of Energy (cf., Haupt et al., 2022). There, the authors emphasize the complexity of modeling the correct energy transfer from the largest scales of motion to the scales within the ABL from which the wind turbines generate electrical energy. Further, they note that simulations from the mesoscale down to the microscale (for example, with the mentioned WRF-LES coupling) are computationally exceptionally expensive. Therefore, such elaborate methods cannot be used to simulate a variety of different atmospheric situations, assuming that both the computing time and the physical time required to perform the simulations are far too long.

An alternative approach to circumvent the expensive meso- and microscale coupling is to conduct idealized numerical simulations coupled with a suitable data-assimilation method for providing date- and site specific turbulent flow conditions. This numerical approach is computationally less expensive. In such a setup, the data-assimilation method is assumed to transfer the given mesoscale information (wind and stability profiles) onto the microscale (cf., Stauffer and Seaman, 1990; Neggers et al., 2012; Maronga et al., 2015; Nakayama and Takemi, 2020; Allaerts et al., 2020).

In general, those methods apply a damped harmonic oscillator as an additional forcing in the governing equations of motion. Commonly, this forcing term can consist of a damping (proportional) and an oscillating (integral) part (e.g., Spille-Kohoff and Kaltenbach, 2001). In the case of Newtonian relaxation, only the damping part is considered. Here, the numerically calculated profiles of wind, temperature, humidity etc. are adjusted to given target profiles (which can either come from measurements or are extracted from the output of mesoscale model simulations) using a specific relaxation time scale, which is a free parameter of this method.

The relaxation time scale should be long enough ($\sim$ hours) that the small-scale turbulence in the LES is not affected by it, however, it needs to be small enough to be able to adapt the LES towards mesoscale characteristics in a reasonable time (Neggers et al., 2012). An issue, however, is that turbulence intensity is often overly reduced using Newtonian relaxation. To circumvent this limitation, the damping term has been modified in Allaerts et al. (2020) and Allaerts et al. (2023). Their 'indirect profile assimilation' method uses an internal forcing technique deduced from mesoscale variables (wind speed and temperature), including the time and height history of these variable in the LES. They tested the approach with the damping part, and a combination of both damping and oscillating, with quite similar results.

Another data-assimilation technique described in Nakayama and Takemi (2020) is based on the oscillating part only, which has the property of fluctuating around the target mean values. This integral forcing is controlled by the natural frequency of the flow field, which has to be set appropriately in order not to damp turbulent fluctuations. We refer to this method in the following as the vibration method. Nakayama and Takemi (2020) emphasised the advantage of this method in handling the turbulence intensity in comparison to the Newtonian damping.

While the method of Allaerts et al. (2020) has been directly developed for wind-turbine applications, the method of Nakayama and Takemi (2020) has been applied only at a rather coarse resolution of 40 m horizontally and relaxes only the horizontal wind field. However, the application of this method to high-resolution wind turbines would have the advantage that it can reproduce an assimilation of simultaneous measurements, is not limited to horizontal homogeneity and can be applied in complex terrain. Therefore, it also seems well-suited for wind-energy applications. Considering the DLR wind-farm WiValdi, it seems to be a worthwhile endeavor to modify the method of Nakayama and Takemi (2020) so that it can be applied to assimilate

more realistic observed wind profiles, with the aim of calculating more complex inflow cases that retain realistic turbulent characteristics.

An LES of a wind turbine or a wind farm, which is conducted with open lateral boundary conditions, requires, in addition to the input of the mesoscale information as horizontal mean values of the corresponding profiles, a turbulent inflow field, which synchronously feeds turbulence in the inflow region. There are different numerical approaches for generating the required turbulent inflow fields, especially for wind-turbine simulations (e.g., Bhaganagar and Debnath, 2014; Abkar et al., 2016; Englberger and Dörnbrack, 2017). One possibility is the generation of synthetic turbulence fields, as proposed by Mann (1994). These stochastic models avoid high computational costs but they are not physical models in a sense that they satisfy the conservation laws (cf. Naughton et al., 2011). Turbulent atmospheric inflow fields which are more close to observations are generated by LESs. Therefore, another possibility is the production of a limited amount of idealized precursor simulations, representing specific atmospheric conditions (neutral, convective, stable). These atmospheric precursor simulations are computationally expensive because turbulence has to spin up in the domain of interest until key flow parameters (vertical gradient of horizontal velocity, turbulence kinetic energy (TKE)) match anticipated characteristics in the ABL. Therefore, one main positive effect of the method of Nakayama and Takemi (2020) could be the application of one precursor simulation towards a variety of measurements (occurring under relatively similar atmospheric conditions, for example stratification, geostrophic winds, etc).

The main goal of this work is the application and assessment of the vibration method in wind-energy research. Since the method can use the measured horizontal wind as a background profile, it offers a cost-effective way to simulate the effects of specific atmospheric properties on the wake of wind turbines with high spatial resolution.

The outline of this paper is as follows. The numerical model EULAG, the Newtonian relaxation methods, the vibration assimilation method, the measurements, and the numerical setup are presented in Section 2. In Section 3, we perform idealized LESs to reproduce the results of the coarse-resolution method of Nakayama and Takemi (2020). Section 4 adapts this vibration method towards a wind-energy relevant fine-resolution for their NBL case. Here, we test the applicability of the vibration method at fine resolution and compare it to the performance of both Newtonian approaches. A special focus is on turbulence characteristics, which would offer an answer to our first research question:

Q1 Which of the assimilation methods used is able to preserve turbulence within the scope of the defined conditions?

As our final aim is to simulate real atmospheric situations, which for example may include veering inflows, Section 5 exemplifies how the idealized approach can be modified towards the reproduction of a measured situation in the wind park WiValdi. Here, we focus on the parameter space of the vibration approach and the importance of a proper precursor simulation and use a combination of measurements and a WRF simulation for creating background wind profiles. The results of this investigation allows us to answer our second research question:

Q2 Can velocities taken from precursor simulations of idealized atmospheric flows be assimilated towards arbitrary measured wind profiles?

Finally, we test the applicability of the vibration method in a wind-turbine simulation in Section 6, answering the third
 125 research question:

Q3 How does the wake behind a wind turbine change if velocities of idealized inflow conditions are assimilated?

Conclusions are then drawn in Section 7.

2 Methodology

2.1 The Numerical Model EULAG

130 The dry and incompressible flow inside the ABL is simulated with the geophysical flow solver EULAG (Prusa et al., 2008). EULAG is an established computational model which has been used for a wide range of physical scenarios: The simulation of urban flows (Smolarkiewicz et al., 2007), of internal gravity waves (Mixa et al., 2021; Dörnbrack, 2024), of turbulent atmospheric flows (Margolin et al., 1999), and even for the simulation of solar convection (e.g., Elliott and Smolarkiewicz, 2002). The name EULAG refers to the two possible ways to solve the equations of motion either in **E**ulerian, i.e. flux form
 135 (Smolarkiewicz and Margolin, 1993) or in semi-**L**agrangian, i.e. advective form (Smolarkiewicz and Pudykiewicz, 1992). The advective terms in the fluid equations are approximated by the iterative finite-difference algorithm MPDATA (multidimensional positive definite advection transport algorithm) which is second-order accurate, positive definite, conservative, and computationally efficient (Smolarkiewicz and Margolin, 1998). A detailed explanation of EULAG can be found in Smolarkiewicz and Margolin (1998) and Prusa et al. (2008).

140 For the simulations in this study, the following set of non-hydrostatic Boussinesq equations with constant density $\rho_0 = 1.1 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ are solved for the Cartesian velocity components $\mathbf{v} = (u, v, w)$ and for the potential temperature perturbation $\Theta' = \Theta - \Theta_e$, see Smolarkiewicz et al. (2007) in general and Englberger and Dörnbrack (2018) for wind-turbine applications:

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0, \quad (1)$$

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$$\frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} = \underbrace{-\nabla\left(\frac{p'}{\rho_0}\right)}_{\text{pressure gradient}} + \underbrace{\mathbf{g}\frac{\Theta'}{\Theta_0}}_{\text{buoyancy}} - \underbrace{2\Omega(\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{v}_e)}_{\text{Coriolis-Force } \mathbf{F}_{\text{cor}}} + \underbrace{\frac{\mathbf{F}}{\rho_0}}_{\mathbf{F}_{WT}} - \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{V} + \underbrace{\alpha(\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{v}_e)}_{\mathbf{F}_{abs}}, \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{d\Theta'}{dt} = -\mathbf{v}\nabla\Theta_e + \mathbf{H} + \beta\Theta'. \quad (3)$$

In these equations Θ_0 denotes the constant reference value of the potential temperature and Θ_e is its balanced ambient/environ-
 150 nment state. The operators $\frac{d}{dt}$, ∇ and $\nabla \cdot$ represent the total derivative, the gradient and the divergence. p' symbolizes the pressure perturbations, $\mathbf{g} = (0, 0, -g)$ is the acceleration due to gravity and $\mathbf{F}_{cor}$ indicates the Coriolis force with the angular

velocity vector of the Earth's rotation Ω . The Coriolis parameter is $f = 1.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for midlatitudes and $\mathbf{v}_e$ is the background velocity.

The SGS terms $\mathbf{V}$ and $\mathbf{H}$ indicate turbulent dissipation of momentum and diffusion of heat, respectively. The simulations within this study are all conducted with a TKE closure (Margolin et al., 1999). $\mathbf{F}_{abs}$ is an absorber to reduce fluctuations at the lateral and model top boundaries. A similar absorber is used in the Eq. 3, where α and β are inverse time scales. $\mathbf{f}$ denotes the additional forcing due to the selected data assimilation techniques as presented in Section 2.2, see Eqs. 4, 6, and 7. In the simulation with a wind turbine, $\mathbf{F}_{WT}$ corresponds to the forces generated by the rotor blades. The wind turbine is implemented with the blade-element momentum theory as a rotating actuator disc (Mirocha et al., 2014). Unfortunately, the blade data for the Enercon E-115 EP3 turbine necessary for the calculation of the forces on the flow induced by the blades is currently not available. The Enercon E-115 EP3 turbines at the DLR wind park WiValdi have a hub height of $h_{hub} = 92 \text{ m}$ and a rotor diameter $D = 116 \text{ m}$. Therefore, the simulation is conducted with the blade data of the 5 MW reference wind turbine defined by the National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL) (Jonkman et al., 2009). This wind turbine was selected, as it has a similar hub height ($h_{hub} = 90 \text{ m}$) and rotor diameter ($D = 126 \text{ m}$).

2.2 Assimilation Methods

There are several factors limiting the accuracy and comparability of LESs with real case measurements and field observations. On the one hand, the truncation errors due to discretization limit the accuracy of the numerical model (e.g., Arcucci et al., 2017; Neggers et al., 2012). On the other hand, many small-scale meteorological processes due to mesoscale phenomena, e.g. frontal passages, atmospheric waves, or diurnal circulations like land-sea breezes, can't be represented correctly by LESs (e.g., Allaerts et al., 2020). Concerning simulations with wind turbines, the grid spacing has to be small enough to account for forces generated at the blades. In a stable boundary layer (SBL), the turbulent scales are very small due to the thermal stratification and can only be partially resolved even with fine grid spacings ($dx = dy = dz \leq 5 \text{ m}$). Therefore, the entire domain size of LESs is restricted to the order of kilometers and mesoscale phenomena can't be represented within these simulations, as their scales range from 10 km to more than 100 km (Haupt et al., 2022). In order to resolve this issue, data assimilation techniques of the simulated flow field towards observational data are widely used in numerical models in order to enhance the realism of LESs. For example, the grid-nudging method relies on the definition of a local Newtonian relaxation according to Eq. 6 of Nakayama and Takemi (2020):

$$\mathbf{f}_N(x, y, z, t) = \text{damp}(x) \rho_0 \frac{\mathbf{v}(x, y, z, t) - \mathbf{v}_{OBS}(z, t)}{\tau} \quad (4)$$

with

$$\text{damp}(x) = \sin^2 \left[\frac{\pi}{2} \left(1 - \frac{x_{nud} - x}{x_l} \right) \right] , \quad x_{nud} - \frac{x_l}{2} \leq x \leq x_{nud} + \frac{x_l}{2} . \quad (5)$$

In Eq. 4, $\mathbf{f}_N$ symbolizes the forcing term $\mathbf{f}$ in the momentum conservation Eq. 2 for the local Newtonian relaxation, $\mathbf{v}$ is the instantaneous velocity vector at a certain grid point, and $\mathbf{v}_{OBS}$ is the vector of the target velocity values given through observational data. In this study, we consider only the relaxation of the zonal and meridional velocity components.

The Gaussian damping function $damp(x)$ acts only in the zonal direction to prevent numerical artefacts at the borders of the nudging area. x_{nud} is the center of nudging area and x_1 the length of the damping layer in the zonal direction. The relaxation time scale τ has to be chosen small enough to generate a considerable forcing towards the target data but not too small that small-scale atmospheric turbulence is suppressed (cf. Neggers et al., 2012; Maronga et al., 2015). The local Newtonian relaxation according to Eq. 4, which is introduced in Eq. 2, can provoke the damping of small-scale turbulent structures in the ABL which is mentioned by Neggers et al. (2012), Maronga et al. (2015), Heinze et al. (2017) and Nakayama and Takemi (2020).

A modification of the local Newtonian relaxation of Eq. 4 is applied by (e.g., Maronga et al., 2015; Heinze et al., 2017; Allaerts et al., 2020):

$$\mathbf{f}_{\langle N \rangle}(x, y, z, t) = damp(x) \rho_0 \frac{\langle \mathbf{v} \rangle(z, t) - \mathbf{v}_{OBS}(z, t)}{\tau} . \quad (6)$$

Here, a profile $\langle \mathbf{v} \rangle$ is computed as a spatial average over the nudging zone, see Eq. 5. Relaxation according to Eq. 6 is referred to as Newtonian relaxation following Allaerts et al. (2020). There, they pointed out that this approach strongly overestimates the simulated TKE during daytime. A comparison of both versions of the Newtonian relaxation for the assimilation of an idealized neutral boundary layer (NBL) is presented in Section 3.

Nakayama and Takemi (2020) proposed a different way of assimilating velocities in LESs based on the vibration equation for the velocity oscillating around a zero-wind basic state with a certain frequency. They showed that their method preserves turbulent fluctuations well and can still approximate velocities to measured wind profiles. The following forcing term $\mathbf{f}_V$ is derived from the vibration equation following Eq. 7 in Nakayama and Takemi (2020):

$$\mathbf{f}_V(x, y, z, t) = damp(x) \rho_0 \omega_0^2 \int_0^t \left(\mathbf{v}(x, y, z, t') - \mathbf{v}_{OBS}(z, t') \right) dt' . \quad (7)$$

Here, $\omega_0 = 2\pi f_0$ is the frequency for the oscillating velocity in the vibration equation which has to be set smaller than the peak frequency in the energy spectrum of the precursor simulation. We refer to this method in the following as the vibration method.

2.3 Measurement Data

Since November 2020, a long-range, scanning DWL has been installed at the WiValdi site to measure vertical profiles of wind speed and direction over the entire height of the ABL. The DWL is configured to measure in a velocity azimuth display (VAD) mode with a high angular resolution and a specific elevation angle to obtain accurate measurements of the mean wind vector profile as well as TKE and its dissipation rate (Wildmann et al., 2020). A microwave radiometer has also been installed along-side to obtain temperature and humidity profiles. With this combination of instruments, long-term statistics and typical characteristics of atmospheric conditions at the site can be determined (Wildmann et al., 2022).

In Section 5, the zonal and meridional velocity components of an idealized precursor simulation are assimilated towards more complex target profiles corresponding to one measured situation. A 10 min time average profile covering the period from 1830 UTC to 1840 UTC of 19 November 2021 was selected, which features strong wind shear near the ground and a large wind

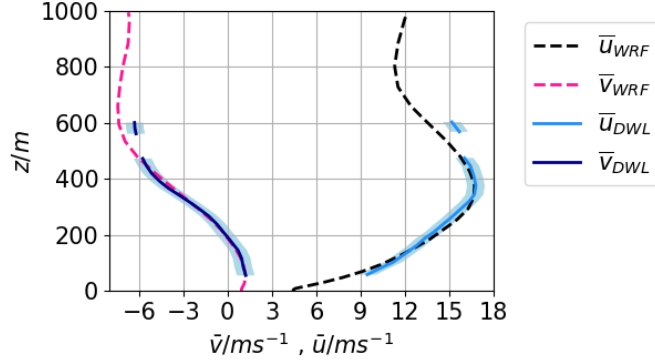


Figure 1. Vertical profiles of the measured velocities at the WiValdi site (zonal $\bar{u}_{DWL}$, meridional $\bar{v}_{DWL}$) and the continuous profiles from the WRF simulations (zonal $\bar{u}_{WRF}$, meridional $\bar{v}_{WRF}$).

215 veer in the ABL under weakly stably stratified conditions (confirmed by analysing observed vertical temperature profiles taken from the microwave radiometer). As continuous measurements are only available from $z = 57$ m up to $z = 470$ m, a simulation with WRF was performed for this period and continuous velocity profiles were generated. The WRF setup and the generation of the used target profiles is described in appendix A. Figure 1 shows the measured velocity profiles $\bar{u}_{DWL}$ and $\bar{v}_{DWL}$ and the continuous profiles from the WRF simulations $\bar{u}_{WRF}$ and $\bar{v}_{WRF}$.

220 2.4 Numerical Setup

Table 1 gives an overview of all simulations which are performed in this study. Figure 2 shows a schematic illustration of the simulation approach used in this study. The numerical simulations are separated into precursor simulations (P1, P2, P3 in Fig. 2) and simulations with data assimilation (N1, <N1>, V1, N2, <N2>, V2, SO in Fig. 2) (+ wind turbine simulations, SW and SOW in Fig. 2). A precursor simulation is necessary so that characteristic atmospheric turbulence can spin up in the computational domain. The precursor simulations P1, P2, and P3 employ periodic lateral boundary conditions and are run until a fully developed turbulent state prevails. In the subsequent simulations, in which the output of the precursor simulations is used as the inflow field, either the local Newtonian relaxation according to Eq. 4 (N1, N2), the Newtonian relaxation according to Eq. 6 (<N1>, <N2>), or the vibration method using Eq. 7 (V1, V2, SO) are applied.

Our numerical simulations N1, <N1>, and V1 have a similar setup as those of Nakayama and Takemi (2020). N1 and V1 are conducted to verify the correct implementation of our assimilation methods, <N1> to compare with Allaerts et al. (2020). The sensitivity of the different assimilation methods to grid refinement is evaluated with the simulations N2, <N2>, and V2. The assimilation towards more complex target profiles for the zonal and meridional velocity components is tested in the simulation SO. As mentioned above, these profiles are close to observations at the wind farm site WiValdi (Fig. 1). While we have tested different Newtonian relaxation timescales ($\tau = 30$ s, $\tau = 60$ s and $\tau = 300$ s) and different vibration frequencies ($f_0 = 0.002$ s⁻¹, $f_0 = 0.005$ s⁻¹ and $f_0 = 0.01$ s⁻¹), in this study only the results for $\tau = 30$ s and $f_0 = 0.002$ s⁻¹ are shown. These particular values led to the closest alignment with the target profile.

Idealized cases - coarse resolution (P1, N1, <N1>, V1)

In the precursor simulation P1, a fully developed flow corresponding to an NBL with the zonal velocity profile $u = \frac{u_*}{\kappa} \ln\left(\frac{z}{z_0}\right)$ (friction velocity $u_* = 0.45 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, roughness length $z_0 = 0.1 \text{ m}$, von Karman constant $\kappa = 0.4$) is achieved by the application of a constant pressure gradient in the horizontal direction, following Nakayama and Takemi (2020). In Fig. 2, P1 refers to this precursor simulation. The pressure gradient is implemented as an additional forcing $-u_*^2/H$ in Eq. 2 with the above friction velocity and the domain height $H = 1000 \text{ m}$. For the surface friction the drag coefficient in the surface parameterization is set to 0.017, which is a requirement of EULAG's Neumann boundary conditions. The domain size is $6000 \times 6000 \times 1000 \text{ m}^3$ with a grid spacing of $dx = dy = 40 \text{ m}$ and $dz = 10 \text{ m}$. 150 000 time steps with $\Delta t = 1 \text{ s}$ are calculated on 100 processors in 25 hours for this precursor simulation to develop a geostrophic equilibrium. The precursor simulation is performed with periodic boundary conditions in the horizontal directions and rigid lid at the top of the domain. The Coriolis-parameter is set to zero. For the following simulation with data assimilation, synchronized 2D yz-slices are extracted at $x = 3000 \text{ m}$ at each time step after the simulation has reached a quasi-equilibrium state. A total of 1050 2D slices of the three velocity components and the potential temperature perturbation were taken as input at the inlet of the nudging simulation.

The nudging simulations N1, <N1> and V1 are calculated with periodic boundaries in the meridional y-direction, an open boundary condition at the zonal outflow in the x-direction, and a gradient-free, rigid-lid upper boundary. The Coriolis term in Eq. 2 is omitted in the nudging simulations, which is different to the setup of Nakayama and Takemi (2020). An explanation for this difference is given in Section 3. A nudging zone is introduced from $x = 1.0\text{-}2.0 \text{ km}$ over the whole lateral and vertical span of the computational domain. A logarithmic zonal target wind profile with $u_* = 0.41 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ and $z_0 = 0.2 \text{ m}$ is assumed, while the meridional target wind profile is set to 0. The three assimilation methods (Eq. 4, 6, 7) are tested separately for the adaption towards the zonal target profile in N1, <N1> and V1 respectively. Numerical absorbers (the term $\mathbf{F}_{abs}$ in Eq. 2) are included at the top above $z = 700 \text{ m}$ and at the outflow for $x > 5000 \text{ m}$ in order to reduce numerical boundary effects.

Idealized cases - fine resolution (P2, N2, <N2>, V2)

As wind-turbine simulations require a higher resolution we performed a precursor simulation P2 for the same NBL conditions as in P1 with a grid spacing of $dx = dy = dz = 5 \text{ m}$. The time step has to be decreased to $\Delta t = 0.2 \text{ s}$ and a smaller domain of $6000 \times 3000 \times 1000 \text{ m}^3$ is chosen in order to reduce the calculation time. The boundary conditions remain the same as in the coarse-grid equivalent. Only the drag coefficient is decreased to 0.01 to fit for the velocity profile prescribed in P1. Due to the smaller time step, a total of 6000 synchronized 2D yz-slices are extracted from this precursor simulation for the input of the nudging simulations N2, <N2> and V2. With this high-resolved inflow the performance of the assimilation techniques Eqs. 4, 6, 7 can be investigated. All other settings in N2, <N2> and V2, not referred to in this paragraph, are identical to N1, <N1> and V1.

Real cases (P3, SO, SOW, SW)

In Section 5 a more complex target profile is implemented which has a zonal and a meridional component close to the measurements at the wind-farm site WiValdi (Fig. 1). Therefore, a third precursor simulation P3 is conducted with wind shear and veer in the ABL flow. The atmospheric condition in this simulation corresponds to a stable stratification. This precursor simulation was developed by Englberger and Dörnbrack (2018) during their investigation of the impact of different thermal stratifications on wind-turbine wakes. The domain size in the simulations applying the precursor simulation P3 is $5120 \times 2560 \times 320 \text{ m}^3$ with a grid spacing of $dx = dy = dz = 5 \text{ m}$. For the simulation SO with nudging, the nudging zone is inserted at $x = 1.0\text{-}2.0 \text{ km}$ and an absorber is included for $x > 4520 \text{ m}$ (no damping at domain top). In the corresponding wind-turbine simulation SOW the NREL 5 MW rotor is placed 200 m downstream of the nudging zone. The calculation time of the wind-turbine simulation is 60 min with an averaging period of the velocities of 20 min at the end of the simulation. A reference simulation SW with the wind turbine is computed with the original precursor P3 as inflow without an assimilation approach.

The assimilation methods described in Section 2.2 are only suitable if the domain averaged mean flow of the precursor simulation corresponds to the domain averaged target value. This is required to preserve mass continuity (Eq. 1) in the numerical model. If there is a difference between the precursor and the target velocity profile, the horizontal mean of the vertical profile of the precursor simulation has to be normalized:

$$v_i^{new}(x, y, z) = \alpha < \bar{v}_i^P(z) >_{x,y} + v_i'^P(x, y, z) \quad (8)$$

with

$$\alpha = \frac{< v_{i,OBS} >_z}{< \bar{v}_i^P >_{x,y,z}} \quad (9)$$

Here, v_i^{new} is the new velocity value of the inflow field at every grid point, $< \bar{v}_i^P(z) >_{x,y}$ is the spacial ($< >_{x,y}$) and time-averaged mean value at every height of the precursor simulation and $v_i'^P = v_i^P - < \bar{v}_i^P(z) >_{x,y}$ is the fluctuation at every grid point i, j, k of the precursor simulation. α is derived from the division of the mean of the target profile $< v_{i,OBS} >_z$ (averaged over the height of the ABL) by the time and volume-averaged mean velocity (averaged over the last 20 min) of the precursor simulation $< \bar{v}_i^P >_{x,y,z}$.

2.5 ABL and wind-turbine characteristics

In this work the following characteristics of the ABL are investigated:

- The mean vertical profiles of the zonal ($< u(x_a, z) >_y$) and meridional velocities ($< v(x_a, z) >_y$) are calculated at each height level at certain downstream positions x_a averaged in the y -direction $< >_y$.
- The resolved mean TKE of the ABL

$$< TKE(x_a, z) >_y = \frac{1}{2} < (u'(x_a, y, z))^2 >_y + < (v'(x_a, y, z))^2 >_y + < (w'(x_a, y, z))^2 >_y >_y$$

Name	Precursor Simulation	Assimilation method	Grid Resolution	Target Profile
N1	P1	local Newton	coarse	idealized
<N1>	P1	Newton	coarse	idealized
V1	P1	Vibration	coarse	idealized
N2	P2	local Newton	fine	idealized
<N2>	P2	Newton	fine	idealized
V2	P2	Vibration	fine	idealized
SO	P3	Vibration	fine	WiValdi
SOW	P3	Vibration	fine	WiValdi + wind turbine
SW	P3	-	fine	wind turbine

Table 1. Simulations conducted in this study.

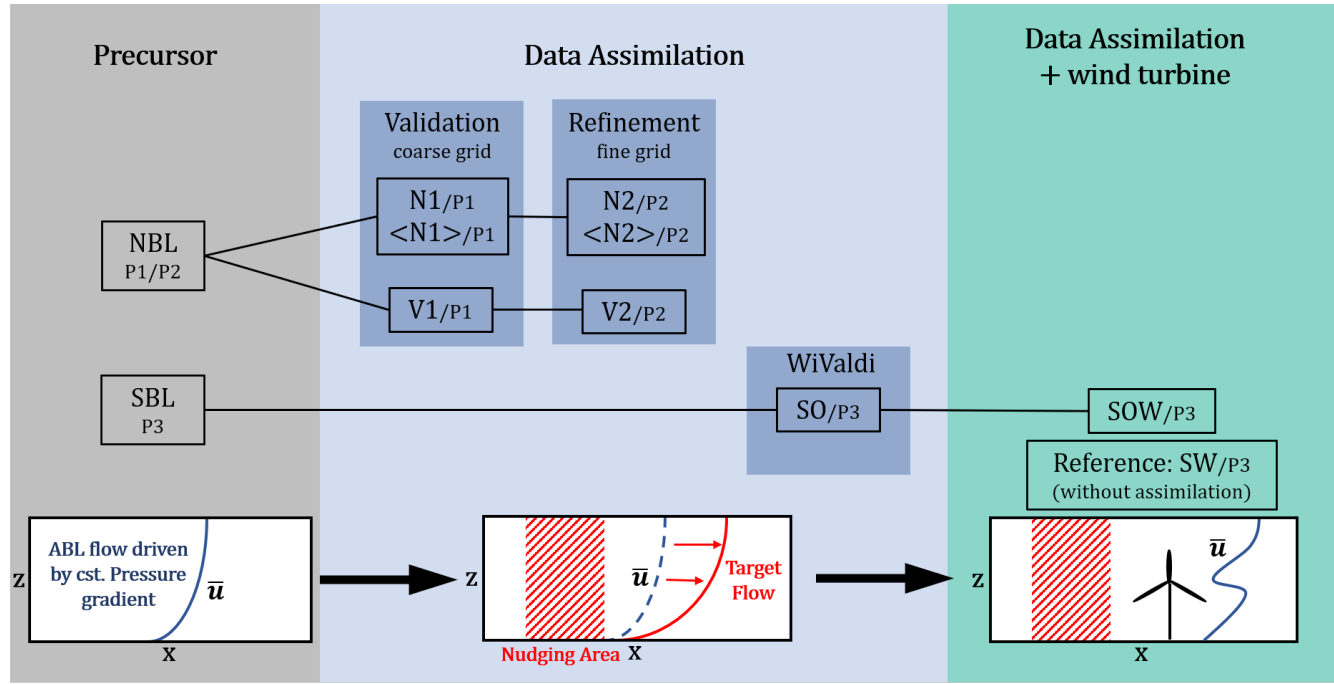


Figure 2. Schematic illustration of the different simulations considered in this study. The abbreviations indicate the simulation type following Table 1.

is calculated at each height level at certain downstream position x_a averaged in the y -direction $\langle \rangle_y$. u' , v' and w' are the turbulent fluctuations of the velocity components u , v and w . The fluctuations are calculated subtracting the y -averaged

mean velocities from the instantaneous value at each height level. Here, $\chi'(x_a, y, z) = \chi(x_a, y, z) - \langle \chi(x_a, z) \rangle_y$ with $\chi = (u, v, w)$.

300 – The horizontal energy spectrum is calculated according to Stull (Stull, 2003, Ch. 8.6).

Concerning the wind-turbine simulations in Sect. 6 the time-averaged zonal velocity component $\overline{u_{i,j,k}}$ is shown which is averaged over the last 20 min of the simulation. The zonal velocity deficit is calculated with

$$VD_{i,j,k} \equiv \frac{\overline{u_{i_0,j,k}} - \overline{u_{i,j,k}}}{\overline{u_{i_0,j,k}}} . \quad (11)$$

Here, $\overline{u_{i_0,j,k}}$ corresponds to the velocity 200 m upstream of the wind turbine in x -direction.

305 3 Results: Data Assimilation with coarse-grid Resolution

In this section the test scenario proposed by Nakayama and Takemi (2020) with a grid spacing of $dx = dy = 40$ m and $dz = 10$ m is reproduced in EULAG with the three different assimilation techniques described above. The aim of this section is to verify that there are no major differences in the numerical results and that EULAG is able to reproduce the findings of Nakayama and Takemi (2020). The results with coarse resolution are also necessary to enable a comparison with the results
310 with a finer grid (Section 4) and they are a verification for our numerical setup without Coriolis force, which differs from Nakayama and Takemi (2020).

The results of both types of Newtonian relaxations (Eq. 4 and Eq. 6) and the assimilation method using the vibration equation (Eq. 7) are shown in Fig. 3. Vertical profiles of the zonal velocity and the resolved TKE at different downstream positions are presented. The zonal velocity component is adapted precisely towards the target profile for the two options of the Newtonian
315 relaxation (Fig. 3 a and b). A slight overestimation of the target velocity profile by less than 0.5 m s^{-1} can be seen for the simulation with the vibration method (Fig. 3 c). In all simulations, the flow downstream of the nudging zone does not change considerably at the positions $x = 2$ km, $x = 3$ km and $x = 4$ km. The meridional velocity component is approximately zero in the precursor simulation and is not changed inside the nudging zone (not shown).

Regarding the TKE, a strong damping to values below $0.05 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$ can be seen at all heights shown when the local Newtonian
320 relaxation according to Eq. 4 is applied (Fig. 3 d). Sensitivity studies reveal that a longer relaxation time than the 30 s used here leads to smaller turbulence damping but to a poorer adjustment to the target velocity profile (not shown). This result is in agreement with previous findings by Neggers et al. (2012).

With the Newtonian relaxation represented by Eq. 6 instead, the TKE is 2.5 to 3 times higher when compared to the upstream values (Fig. 3 e). From this result it is concluded that TKE is not damped if the applied forcing of the assimilation method acts
325 on the mean flow field $\langle \mathbf{v} \rangle$ in Eq. 6, not on the local velocity values at each grid point as in Eq. 4. The TKE is also larger than upstream when the vibration method is used (Fig. 3 f) with values up to two times higher. In particular, above $z = 150$ m the increase in TKE is not as large in V1 (max. $0.18 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$) when compared to $\langle N1 \rangle$ (max. $0.25 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$).

In summary, our numerical results are in agreement with those of Nakayama and Takemi (2020). EULAG successfully reproduces the assimilation of the zonal velocity component towards the target profile with all three tested methods. Concerning

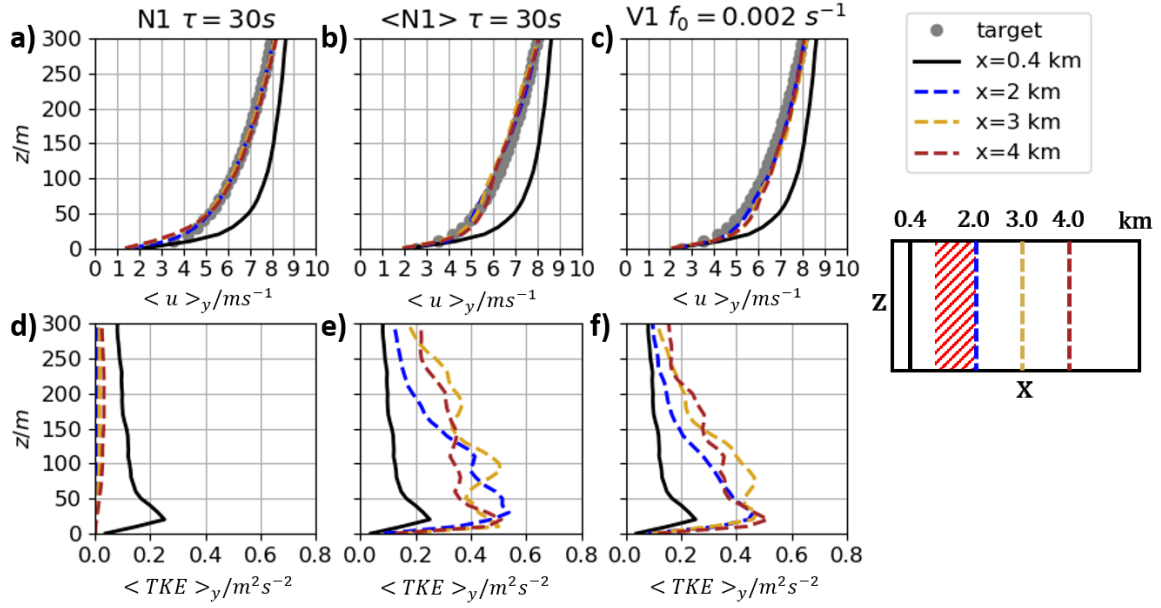


Figure 3. Results for the simulations N1, Eq. 4 and $\langle N1 \rangle$, Eq. 6 with $\tau = 30$ s and V1, Eq. 7 with $f_0 = 0.002$ s $^{-1}$. Vertical profiles of the zonal velocities $\langle u \rangle_y$ in a), b) and c) and the $\langle TKE \rangle_y$ in d), e) and f) for different downstream positions. The black solid lines show the quantities for the upstream flow at $x=0.4$ km. The gray dotted lines represent the target wind profile. The blue (gold, brown) lines refer the downstream positions $x=2$ km ($x=3$ km, $x=4$ km). The scheme on the right side indicates the downstream positions for the evaluation (the red hatched area refers to the nudging zone).

the TKE profiles, the local Newtonian relaxation according to Eq. 4 leads to a destruction of TKE while the simulated resolved turbulence is increased for the Newtonian relaxation and the vibration method at all positions downstream of the nudging zone (when compared to the inflow TKE). Our results for the Newtonian relaxation method are comparable to the results of Allaerts et al. (2020, 2023), while our results using the vibration method are in agreement with those of Nakayama and Takemi (2020). Both methods increase the TKE in the simulated neutral case.

Despite the close agreement with Nakayama and Takemi (2020), there are differences in the flow fields downstream when implementing the Coriolis force, as they do in their setup. Without Coriolis forces, a restoring of the flow behind the assimilation region to the initial profile does not occur in our simulations, whereas it does in Nakayama and Takemi (2020). One possible reason could be their inclusion of the Coriolis force. When the Coriolis force was included in our EULAG simulations, the flow evolved temporally beyond the nudging zone away from the target profile as the Coriolis forces are applied to velocity perturbations, which are large beyond the nudging zone (Eq. 2).

4 Results: Data Assimilation within highly resolved idealized Simulations

For wind energy purposes, LESs with a higher resolution than that used in Sect. 3 must be performed to accurately calculate the interaction of the rotor blades with the flow. Hence, the implemented assimilation methods need to be tested for higher resolved simulations with a grid-spacing of $dx = dy = dz = 5$ m (N2, <N2> and V2 in Fig. 2), i.e. with grid sizes that are commonly used in wind-turbine LESs (e.g., Vollmer et al., 2016; Englberger and Dörnbrack, 2018; Chanprasert et al., 2022). In this section, we extend the work of Nakayama and Takemi (2020) and investigate the assimilation methods on a finer resolved grid.

Figure 4 a)-f) shows vertical profiles of zonal velocities and TKE at different downstream positions for all three tested assimilation methods. This figure is directly comparable to the results of the corresponding coarse resolution simulations shown in Fig. 3. Figure 4 g)-i) present in addition the spectral energy distribution $S(k)$ as function of the wave number $k = 1/\ell(x)$, where $\ell(x)$ is the length ranging from $2\,dx$ to 500 m. The horizontal power spectra at $z = 90$ m are averaged over the y -direction and are presented for the flow upstream, inside and downstream of the nudging zone.

Starting with the local Newtonian relaxation, the zonal velocity is assimilated precisely towards the target profile for simulation N2 (Eq. 4) and does not change after the relaxation zone at $x = 3$ km or $x = 4$ km (Fig. 4 a). For this case, however, the TKE is decreased to values below $0.05\,\text{m}^2\,\text{s}^{-2}$ inside the nudging zone and further downstream. From this result, we deduce that the effect of local Newtonian relaxation on small-scale turbulence is not resolution dependent, since this is the same finding as in the corresponding coarse resolution simulation N1.

In contrast, when the Newtonian relaxation is applied in simulation <N2> (Eq. 6), the target velocity profile is underestimated by $0.8\,\text{m}\,\text{s}^{-1}$ at $x = 2$ km and $z = 50$ m. At higher altitudes, the $x = 2$ km profile is consistent with the target profile (Fig. 4 b). Further downstream, at $x = 3$ km and $x = 4$ km, the velocity fluctuates slightly around the target profile. This issue is probably due to the rather large TKE, which is 2-3 times higher downstream than in the upstream flow (Fig. 4 e). The Newtonian relaxation to the target profile in simulation <N2> (Fig. 4 b) is slightly worse than in simulation <N1> (Fig. 3 b), and the TKE is affected in the same way (Fig. 3 e and 4 e), which means that there is no dependence on the resolution when using the Newtonian relaxation as an assimilation method for the LES.

To gain a more detailed insight into the effects of the forcings applied in the simulations N2 (Eq. 4) and <N2> (Eq. 6) on the flow field, lateral cross-sections of instantaneous u and v -fields are presented in Fig. 5 a)-l). The inflow fields at $x = 500$ m are the same for the two simulations shown in Fig. 5 a) and g) and they basically represent the flow field of the precursor simulation P2. In the relaxation region, however, there is a striking difference between these both Newtonian relaxation methods (Fig. 5 b and h). While in both cases the absolute value of the u -field is adjusted to the target profile by a deceleration of the mean flow, the flow field in simulation <N2> (Fig. 5 h) is still turbulent and no laminarization occurs, as it is the case in the simulation N2 (Fig. 5 b).

The same difference can be observed for the v -components (Fig. 5 e and k). The turbulent fluctuations of v around its mean of zero are preserved within the relaxation region in simulation <N2> (Fig. 5 k), while they are strongly suppressed in simulation N2 (Fig. 5 e). This behaviour in the relaxation region at $x = 1500$ m, which continues downstream ($x = 2200$ m),

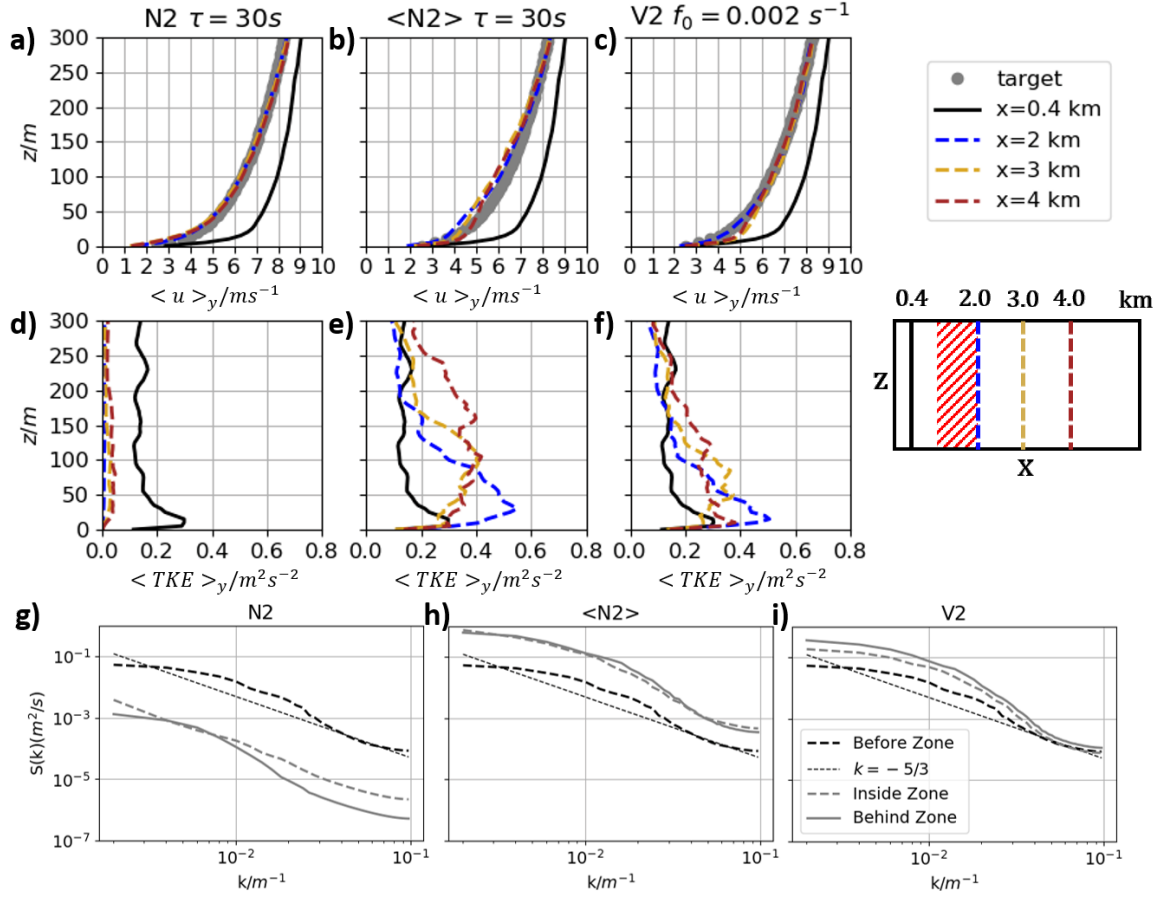


Figure 4. Results for the simulations with Newtonian relaxation N2 (Eq. 4, $\tau = 30$ s) and $\langle N2 \rangle$ (Eq. 6, $\tau = 30$ s) and the vibration method V2 (Eq. 7, $f_0 = 0.002$ s $^{-1}$) with the fine-grid resolution. Vertical profiles of the zonal velocities $\langle u \rangle_y$ in a), b) and c) and the $\langle TKE \rangle_y$ in d), e), f). The black solid lines show the quantities for the upstream flow at $x=0.4$ km. The gray dotted lines show the target wind profile. The blue (gold, brown) lines refer to the results for $x=2$ km ($x=3$ km, $x=4$ km). The scheme on the right side indicates the downstream positions for the evaluation. In g), h) and i) the horizontal spectra ($z=90$ m, length 500 m, width 3000 m) for each simulation is shown for the flow before (black dashed), inside (gray dashed) and downstream (gray solid) of the nudging zone.

explains the nearly perfect adjustment of the vertical profile in simulation N2 (Fig. 4 a). In contrast, the small deviations of the mean u -profile that occur in simulation $\langle N2 \rangle$ are an effect of preserving the turbulence characteristics. The conclusion is that the vertical profile of the flow velocities is not meaningful on its own, but that the behavior of the TKE is decisive.

The above finding is supported by analysing the spectra (Fig. 4 g-h). In the case of the local Newtonian relaxation in simulation N2, the spectral energy density before the nudging (in P2) is much higher. This local Newtonian relaxation basically reduces the energy on all scales in the whole domain, resulting in a strongly reduced value of $S(k)$ to less than 10% of the inflow energy in Fig. 4 g) in comparison to Fig. 4 h) in simulation $\langle N2 \rangle$. Applying the Newtonian relaxation in simulation

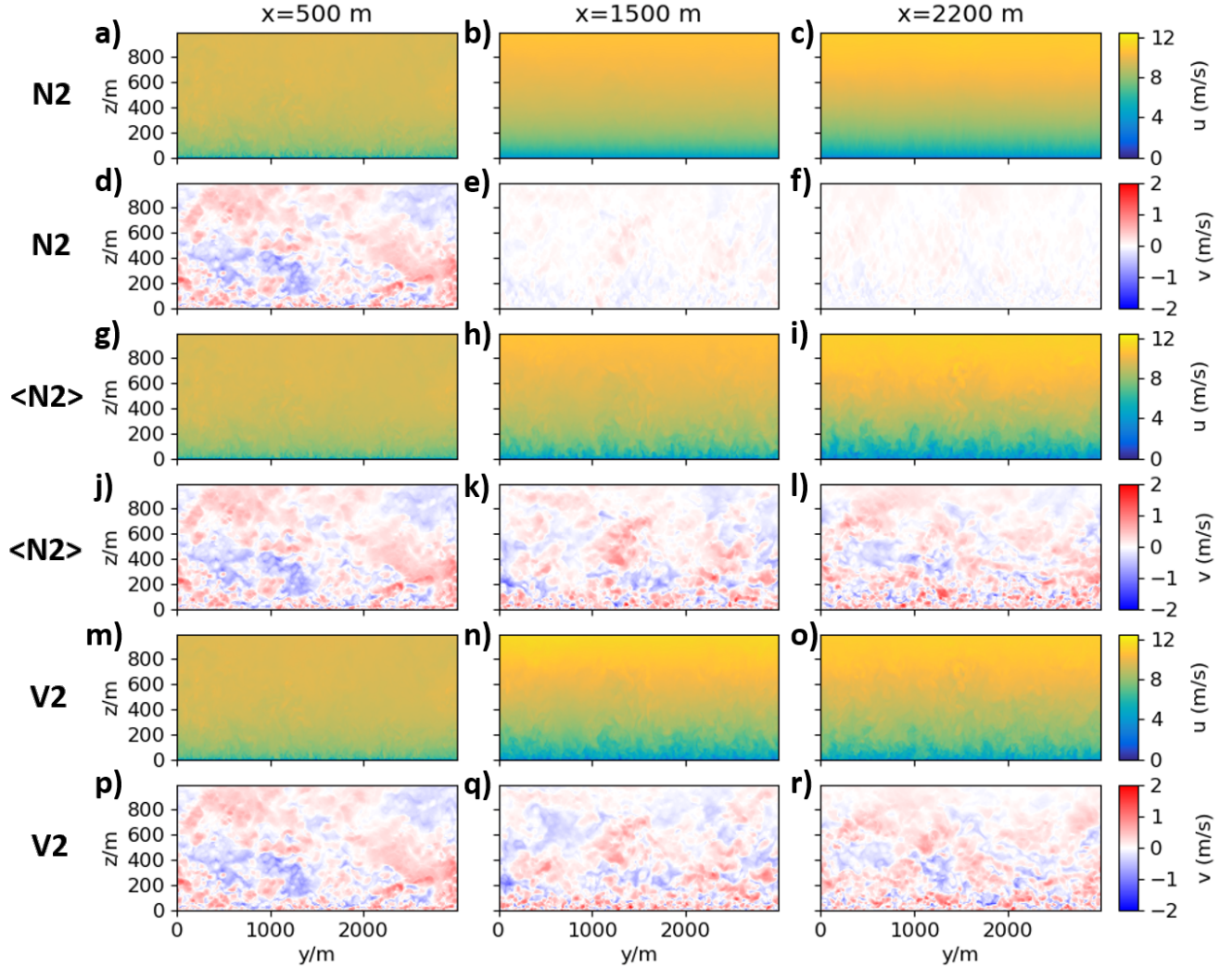


Figure 5. Vertical cross sections of the zonal and the meridional velocity u and v for $x = 500$ m upstream, $x = 1500$ m inside and $x = 2200$ m downstream of the nudging zone. The results are shown for the simulations N2 (a-f), $\langle N2 \rangle$ (g-l) and V2 (m-r).

$\langle N2 \rangle$, the spectral energy density increases on all scales. This finding is in agreement with the increase in the resolved TKE (Fig. 4 e).

In the following, the application of the vibration method and the comparison of the corresponding simulation V2 with the simulation $\langle N2 \rangle$ of the Newtonian relaxation is presented in order to investigate the difference of these two different methods on a fine grid. The vertical profile of the zonal velocity results in an exact adjustment to the target profile at $x = 2$ km (Fig. 4 c). Only at $z = 20$ m the actual velocity component is slightly overestimated compared to the target profile at $x = 3$ km and $x = 4$ km. At all other heights, the simulated velocities overlap nearly perfectly with the target profile. Figure 4 f) shows

the vertical profiles of TKE. The TKE at the downstream positions is 1.5-2 times higher than in the upstream flow beneath
390 $z = 150$ m. Above $z = 150$ m, there is only a small deviation between the downstream and upstream TKE ($\pm 0.06 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$).

The vibration method leads to a more precise assimilation towards the target profile in the fine-grid case of simulation V2 in comparison to the coarse-grid simulation V1 (compare Fig. 3 c and 4 c). Furthermore, the impact of the vibration method on the TKE is less pronounced for the fine-grid simulation (Fig. 4 f) than in the coarse-grid simulation (Fig. 3 f), suggesting that the vibration method performs better with higher resolution.

395 The impact of the different forcings $\mathbf{f}$ in Eq. 2 due to the Newtonian relaxation (Eq. 6) and due to the vibration method (Eq. 7) on the instantaneous flow field is presented in Fig. 5 g)-r) for both u and v components of simulations <N2> and V2. In general, the turbulent structure is very similar in both simulations. This could be interpreted that both assimilation methods basically impact the horizontal mean (Fig. 4 b and c) and, consequently, the resolved TKE (Fig. 4 e and f). However, the turbulent 3D flow structure in Fig. 5 (i, l, o, r) is only affected to a small extent. The increase of turbulence - especially below
400 150 m height - within and after the nudging zone compared to the region in front (Fig. 4 e-f) is partly due to an increase of $\frac{\Delta u}{\Delta z}$ in the target profile in comparison to the inflow profile of P2. It is also partly an effect of the Newtonian relaxation itself, as the v -contribution to the TKE is also larger in simulation <N2> in comparison to simulation V2, whereas $\bar{v} = 0$ in both cases (not shown).

For a more detailed comparison between the Newtonian and the vibration approach, the spectral energy density is shown in
405 Fig. 4 h)-i) for simulations <N2> and V2. On large scales (small wave number k), the spectral power $S(k)$ increases similarly behind the nudging zone. In the nudging zone, however, the vibration method does not instantaneously reach the final spectral energy density behind the nudging zone. The transition occurs not as abruptly as in simulation <N2>. This abrupt transition could be an effect of the Newtonian relaxation itself applied in <N2>, which also is responsible for the higher TKE in Fig. 4 e) in comparison to Fig. 4 f). Further, going to smaller scales (larger wave number k), the impact of the vibration method on the
410 energy spectra decreases and for $k > 0.04 \text{ m}^{-1}$ an equal energy level can be seen. This is also different in comparison to the behaviour of simulation <N2>.

All tested methods assimilate the mean flow to the target profile reasonably well. The local Newtonian relaxation method applied in N1 and N2 is not applicable for wind-turbine applications, as the TKE of the assimilated flow fields becomes too small and the flow itself too smooth. It is clear that in both the vibration method and the Newtonian relaxation method,
415 turbulence still persists after assimilation to a given target velocity profile, in comparison to the local Newtonian approach, in which a laminarization occurs. In both assimilation methods the flow is more turbulent than the inflow profile, meaning that both methods add additional turbulence. Including the spectral analysis, the integral approach of the vibration method leads to a more gentle adjustment of the energy content, while the wind profiles adjust similarly well in both approaches. The resolution impact in case of the Newtonian relaxation methods is only weakly pronounced, while the vibration method shows
420 improved results for an increased resolution. Despite these minor differences, these two methods are suitable for wind-energy applications with grid spacings of up to 5 m.

The coarse and fine resolution results show a very similar behaviour of the resulting flow field for using the Newtonian and the vibration approach. The following simulations, which perform an assimilation to observed profiles from the WiValdi wind

park, are conducted by using the vibration method only, as, to our knowledge, this method has not been previously tested for
 425 wind-turbine relevant resolutions. For a detailed investigation of the Newtonian approach for wind-energy applications and
 modifications of the approach itself we refer to Allaerts et al. (2020, 2023). They also investigated the vibration method, but
 only in combination with the Newtonian approach, with no significant difference in the behaviour of their algorithm (Allaerts
 et al., 2020).

5 Results: Assimilation towards a measured Wind Profile at the wind-farm site WiValdi

430 In this section, the continuous wind profile from the WRF simulation (Appendix A) is used as target profile for the data
 assimilation. As mentioned above in Section 2.3, this profile is close to a measured velocity profile from the wind-farm site
 WiValdi (Fig. 1). The objective of the simulation SO (cf. Fig. 2) is the generation of a more realistic inflow field for a wind-
 turbine simulation which will be discussed in Section 6.

The data assimilation is now more complex, as both the zonal and the meridional components have to be adjusted to the
 435 target profiles. This extends the work of the previous chapter where the assimilation was only applied to the zonal velocity
 component. Hence, the simulation SO is a step towards more realistic inflow fields guided by observational data. As described
 above, the vibration method is used in the following for the adjustment towards the WiValdi profile.

In a first approach (not shown), we tested if the velocities of the neutral precursor simulation P2 could be assimilated towards
 the target profiles $\bar{u}_{WRF}$ and $\bar{v}_{WRF}$ from Fig. 1. However, the meridional velocity component in P2 is close to zero over the
 440 whole boundary layer height, while the target profile has positive values below $z = 200$ m and decreases above until -7 m s^{-1} at
 $z = 600$ m. This strong veer of the flow in the target profile contrasts the pure zonal flow in P2. The assimilation of the flow in
 P2 towards the new target profile created numerical artefacts.

For this reason, we use another precursor simulation P3 of a stable boundary layer of Englberger and Dörnbrack (2018)
 which has been introduced in Section 2.4. Wind shear and, in particular, wind veer both occur in this boundary layer flow. The
 445 magnitude of the inflow field for the simulation with data assimilation has been modified according to Eq. 8 with $\alpha = 1.25$
 ($\alpha = 0.4$) for the zonal (meridional) velocity components. Figure 6 a)-b) show the mean velocities $\langle u \rangle_y$ and $\langle v \rangle_y$ of
 the modified precursor simulation for the SBL in comparison to the target velocity profiles. The results for the assimilated
 velocities and the TKE are shown in Fig. 6 for the outflow of the nudging zone and the position 200 m downstream of the
 nudging zone. The wind turbine for the simulation presented in section 6 is located at this position.

450 With a frequency of $f_0 = 0.002 \text{ s}^{-1}$ in the vibration method a precise assimilation towards the target zonal profile is achieved
 above $z = 150$ m (Fig. 6a). Beneath $z = 150$ m, the zonal wind component is underestimated by up to 1 m s^{-1} . Figure 6 b) shows
 that the meridional velocity component can be adapted to the target profile with a slight underestimation (overestimation) of
 less than 0.3 m s^{-1} between $z = 50$ m and $z = 100$ m ($z = 120$ m and $z = 250$ m).

Regarding TKE, shown in Fig. 6 c), it can be seen that the turbulent regime is mostly unchanged due to the vibration
 455 method at the downstream positions. Over the whole boundary layer height the TKE stays within a range of $\pm 0.01 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$.
 The spectral analysis in Fig. 6 d) shows the spectral energy $S(k)$ at $z = 90$ m, which is close to hub height of the wind turbine

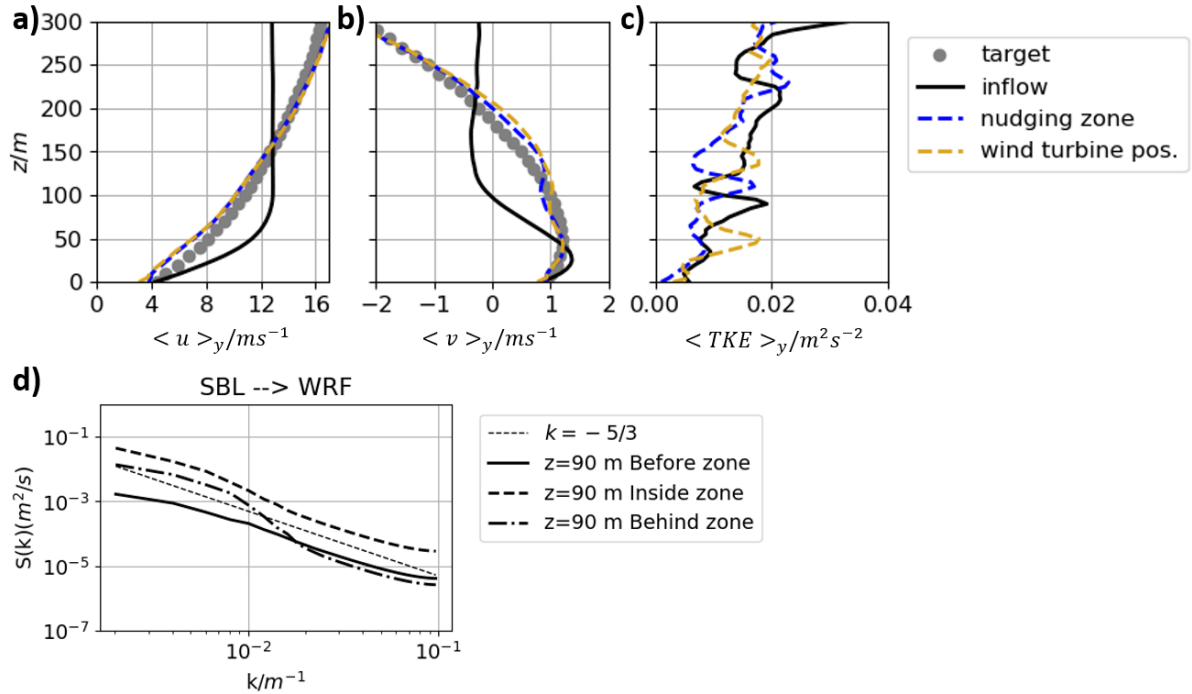


Figure 6. Results for SO of the assimilation towards the representative WRF velocity profile with the precursor simulation P3 and application of the vibration method ($f_0 = 0.002 \text{ s}^{-1}$). a) zonal velocity $\langle u \rangle_y$ b) meridional velocity $\langle v \rangle_y$ c) $\langle TKE \rangle_y$. The black solid lines refer to the values upstream of the nudging zone. The gray dotted lines in a) and b) indicate the zonal and meridional target velocity profile. The blue lines show the values for the outflow of the nudging zone while the gold lines indicate the position for the wind turbine in Sect. 6. In d) the horizontal energy spectra is shown for the height $z = 90$ m (length 500 m, width 3000 m) for the flow before, inside and behind the nudging zone.

in WiValdi. Similar to the neutral simulation V2, the assimilation increases the spectral energy at large scales. At small scales (large k -values), its comparable behind and in front of the relaxation zone.

A visualization of the u and v -components of the flow for a cross-section before, inside and downstream of the nudging zone is presented in Fig. 7. In general, the upstream flow (Fig. 7 a and d) is less turbulent compared to the NBL in the previous section (e.g. Fig. 5 a and d), which is a typical characteristic of the SBL, as the only turbulence source is shear close to the surface. The adjustment of the u and v -components is clearly visible for the downstream positions while the turbulent structures are not affected considerably (Fig. 7 b, c, e, f). The zonal flow component is decelerated below 150 m in height and accelerated above. The vibration method lifts the sign-changing height of the meridional velocity component v from 100 m to 200 m. It further increases the gradient at this transition zone, while the 3 D turbulent structure of v is not changed by this process. This pattern prevails also at the wind turbine position, outside of the nudging zone.

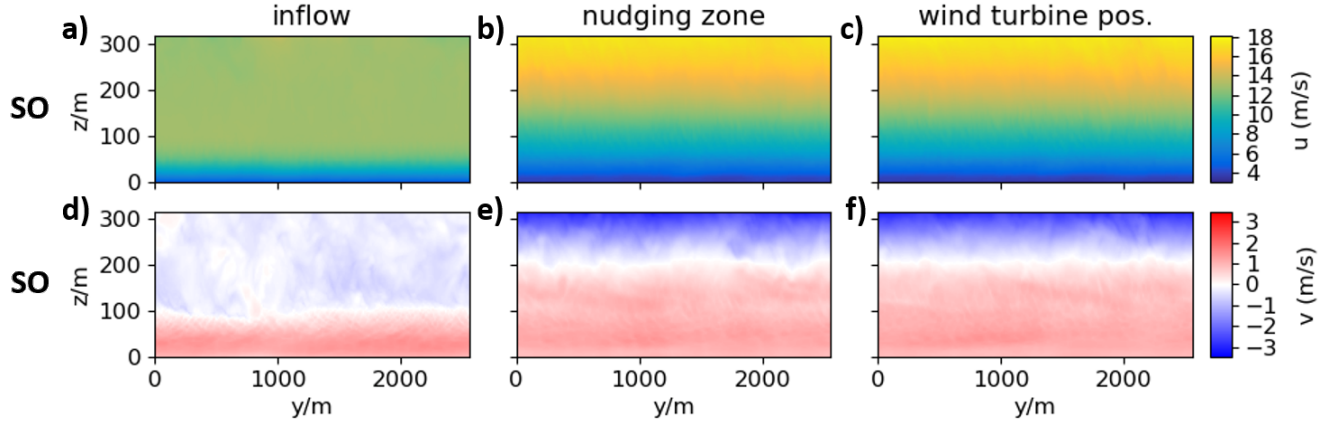


Figure 7. Vertical cross sections of the zonal and the meridional velocity u and v for the inflow area before the nudging zone (a, d), the outflow of the nudging zone (b, e) and downstream of the nudging zone at the wind turbine position (c, f). The results are shown for the simulation SO.

In summary, the wind profiles of the SBL could be adjusted efficiently towards the representative WRF velocity profiles using the vibration method. Obviously, a successful data assimilation requires that the target profiles, which prescribe wind shear and veer, are generated by a precursor simulation with similar characteristics. Furthermore, it is interesting that the resolved TKE in the SBL is not considerably changed when using the vibration method for data assimilation, as it is in the neutral case. In the previous Section 4, we have shown that the velocities are not changed further downstream of the nudging zone. The same behavior is observed for the case discussed here. Thus, using the vibration method allows for the inclusion of a wind turbine at a downstream position, after the relaxation occurred. This will be presented in the next section.

6 Results: Analysis of the Wind-Turbine Wake for an assimilated Atmospheric Inflow

In this section the simulation SO presented in the previous section is repeated with the integration of a NREL 5 MW wind turbine ($h_{hub} = 90$ m, $D = 126$ m), located behind the nudging zone (SOW) (Fig. 2). The wind-turbine rotor is modeled in EULAG according to the parameterization presented in Section 2.1 and is located at $x = 2200$ m, i.e. 200 m behind the nudging zone. Additionally, a reference simulation SW has been computed with the wind turbine exposed to the original SBL precursor simulation P3 in order to analyse the differences in the developed wakes. With this implementation and comparison, an efficient testing of different target wind profiles and hence different inflow fields for a wind turbine can be achieved. The applicability of this approach is the objective of this section.

The time-averaged (over the last 20 min of the simulation) zonal velocity component for both cases is shown for three x - y planes covering hub height ($z = 90$ m) as well as the upper ($z = 120$ m) and lower rotor half ($z = 60$ m) of the NREL 5 MW rotor in Fig. 8. The influence of the assimilation method on the zonal velocity is clearly visible in Fig. 8 d, e) and f). The inflow velocities in front of the wind turbine are reliably reduced towards the target wind profile (cf. Fig. 6 a). Furthermore,

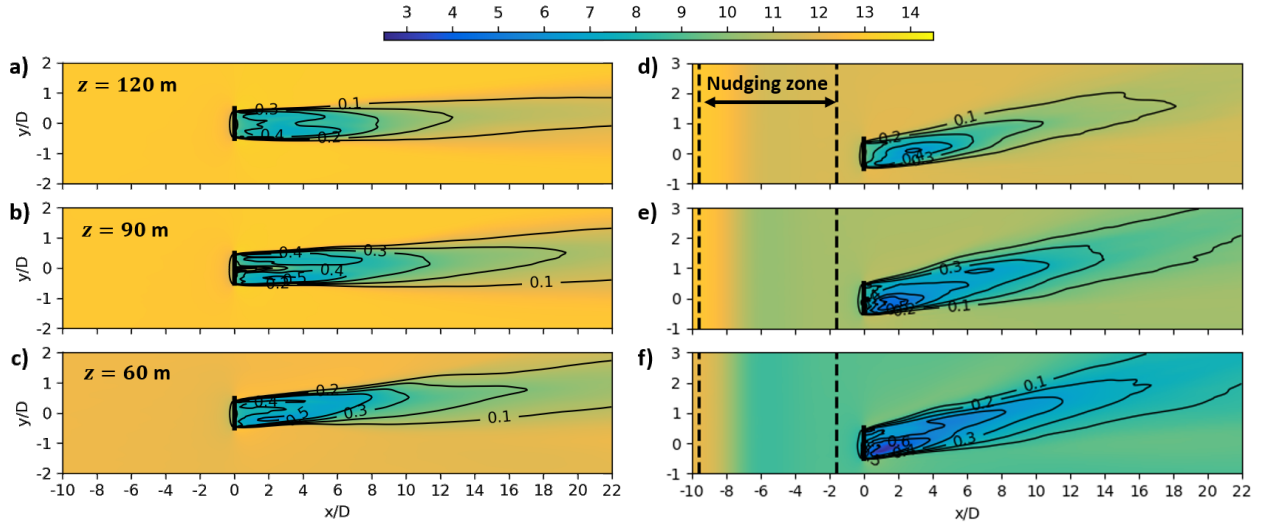


Figure 8. Coloured contours of the time-averaged zonal velocity component $\overline{u_{i,j,k}}$ in m s^{-1} without data assimilation in a), b) and c) and with vibration assimilation in d), e) and f) averaged over 20 min at the end of the simulation. b) and e) show the x - y plane at hub height $z = 90 \text{ m}$. a) and d) (c and f) correspond to the x - y planes at $Z = 90\text{m} + R/2 = 120 \text{ m}$ ($Z = 90\text{m} - R/2 = 60 \text{ m}$). The black contours represent the velocity deficit $V D_{i,j,k}$ at the same vertical location calculated in relation to the upstream velocity at $x = -200 \text{ m}$. The axes are normalized by the rotor diameter $D = 126 \text{ m}$, whereby $x/D = 0$ indicates the position of the rotor.

the wake is deflected northwards in the assimilated simulation due to the increased vertical gradient of the meridional velocity over the upper rotor half (cf. Fig. 6 b). In contrast, the wake in the reference simulation is only deflected in the lower part of the rotor (Fig. 8 c) because wind veer only occurs in the lowest 100 m of the boundary layer in P3 (cf. Fig. 6 b black curve). Furthermore, the deflection in the simulation SW is not as pronounced as in SOW, as the meridional wind component is smaller

490 ($v_{SW}(60 \text{ m}) < v_{SOW}(60 \text{ m})$).

The streamwise wake extension is similar in both cases at $z = 60 \text{ m}$ and $z = 90 \text{ m}$. A reduced wake extension is seen at $z = 120 \text{ m}$ for the assimilated case (Fig. 8 d). In simulation SOW, the zonal velocity deficit of 10 % is reached at $x/D = 18$ in comparison to $x/D = 22$ in the simulation without assimilation SW (Fig. 8 a). However, higher velocity deficit values are reached at similar downwind distances (20 % at $x/D = 10-12$). One reason for the reduced wake extension is the higher

495 entrainment in the upper part of the rotor due to significantly increased vertical gradients of the zonal and meridional velocity components (Fig. 6 a and b). Another reason is the pitch angle of the blades which is 3.5° for a hub height wind speed $\overline{u} = 12-13 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ in simulation SW while it is 0° for $\overline{u} < 12 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ in simulation SOW. The blades of the wind turbine in the assimilated flow field impose higher tangential and axial forces on the flow field. Further, these reasons are also responsible for the maximum velocity deficit difference in the near wake. It is 60% in simulation SOW in Fig. 8 e) and f), while it reaches

500 only 50% in simulation SO in Fig. 8 b) and c).

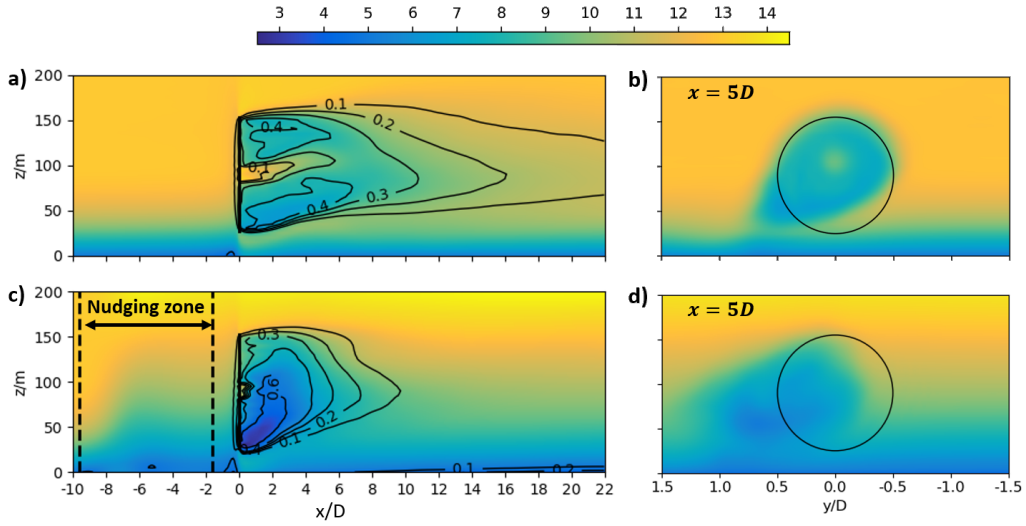


Figure 9. Coloured contours of the time-averaged zonal velocity component $\overline{u_{i,j_0,k}}$ in m s^{-1} without assimilation in a) and b) and with vibration assimilation in c) and d) averaged over 20 min at the end of the simulation. In a) and c) the vertical x - z plane at the position $y = 0$ perpendicular to the turbine is presented. The black contours represent the velocity deficit $VD_{i,j_0,k}$ at the same spanwise location calculated in relation to the upstream velocity at $x = -200$ m. The abscissa is divided by the diameter of the rotor, whereby $x/D = 0$ indicates the position of the rotor. b) and d) show zonal velocity component at a downward position of $x = 5D$. The black circles represent the rotor area.

Figure 9 a) and c) show the lateral view on a vertical plane through the center of the wind turbine with the visualization of the time-averaged zonal velocity component $\overline{u}$. Figure 9 b) and d) present a downstream view on the wake at $x = 5D$ behind the rotor. Only a part of the wake is seen in Figure 9 c) due to the deflection of the wake out of this x - z -plane. While the meridional wind component was predominant only in the lower section of the rotor in the reference case (Fig. 9 b) the assimilated wind veer (cf. Fig. 6 b) leads to a deflection of the wake over the whole rotor height (Fig. 9 d). In both cases, the wakes respond to the prevalent veer with a stretching of the wake from a circular shaped one towards an ellipsoidal shaped one, which is characteristic under veering inflow conditions.

This section presented the interaction of the wake behind the rotor within a stable atmospheric boundary-layer flow. The results for both simulations are in good accordance to other studies from Bhaganagar and Debnath (2014), Abkar and Porté-Agel (2015) and Englberger and Dörnbrack (2018) who considered wind-turbine wakes in SBLs. The applied vibration method adapts the wind profile to the target profile and changes wind veer and shear in the atmospheric flow accordingly. Due to these changes of the mean inflow conditions, the developed wake is different in its shape and also considering the velocity deficit compared to the reference case without assimilation. Currently, there is no measurement data available for wakes behind the wind turbines at the wind-farm site WiValdi for the considered situation. Therefore, a more quantitative analysis of the wake could not be done at this point.

7 Conclusions

A systematic sensitivity study with LESs investigating the impact of two versions of Newtonian relaxation and a vibration method on a coarse (spatial resolution of 40 m) and a fine (spatial resolution of 5 m) numerical grid has been performed for an NBL. The coarse resolution results are compatible with the previous study of Nakayama and Takemi (2020). With the fine resolution simulations, the differences of the two Newtonian relaxation methods and the vibration method could be investigated in detail, showing a very similar performance in adjusting the horizontal mean wind to the target velocity profile. In the case of the Newtonian and the vibration approach, the TKE as well as the power spectra are influenced by the relaxation, whereas the 3 D turbulent structures are preserved. The impact of the vibration method in the spectra sets in more slowly in comparison to a more abrupt transition with Newtonian relaxation. This results in a TKE difference compared to the inflow, which is less pronounced when using the vibration method. Therefore, the data assimilation technique using the vibration equation achieved the most reliable results and could be successfully validated on a fine grid, necessary in wind-energy applications.

The vibration method has been applied with a frequency of $f_0 = 0.002 \text{ s}^{-1}$ to adjust velocities from an idealized precursor simulation towards a measured wind profile for the wind farm site WiValdi. In particular, at heights below 60 m, the target profile obtained by measurement data is supplemented by data extracted from a mesoscale model simulation. The resulting ABL profiles were used as inflow for the 5MW NREL wind turbine to test the applicability of the vibration method in combination with a rotor. The developed wake under two inflow conditions, the pure precursor inflow and the assimilated inflow, was compared and analysed regarding the temporal averaged zonal wind and the velocity deficit, resulting in a consistent wake pattern. The differences arise mainly from the different horizontal velocity values of the vertical profiles in the precursor simulation in comparison to the measured profile. The present study provides a first insight of the vibration method of mean velocities and the consecutive response on turbulence characteristics in LES for the generation of inflow fields for wind turbines.

The comparative analysis of the implemented vibration method with both Newtonian methods has shown the different impact on turbulence statistics. Based on the results achieved, the first research question can be answered: Which of the assimilation methods used is able to preserve turbulence within the scope of the defined conditions? We conclude that all assimilation approaches modify the simulated turbulence. The local Newtonian relaxation leads to a laminarization of the flow. In contrast, Newtonian relaxation and the vibration methods amplify the turbulent perturbations. Although none of the methods tested perfectly preserves the turbulence of the inflow, the methods that do not lead to complete decay are therefore preferable. There is the potential to improve the method further to more closely assimilate to the inflow turbulence. For the Newtonian method, Allaerts et al. (2020, 2023) did a first step into this direction. A similar approach is necessary for the vibration method in future.

In this work, two different highly resolved precursor simulations are applied. We found that the vibration method is only applicable when the basic atmospheric conditions and the target profile are relatively close to each other in structure, e.g. either veering inflow or pure zonal flow. It was not possible to assimilate a precursor simulation with no meridional wind component to a veering target profile.

These results of the numerical simulations answer our second research question, namely whether velocities taken from precursor simulations of idealized atmospheric flows can be assimilated towards arbitrary measured wind profiles. In these

550 arbitrary profiles there must be a vertical gradient of the meridional wind. Since only one precursor simulation has to be performed to adapt the simulated velocities to different expected target profiles of ABL flows, the presented numerical setup has the ultimate advantage of saving computational resources for long and expensive simulations.

Finally, the assimilated flow field was used as inflow for a wind turbine simulation which was parameterized with the blade element momentum method as rotating actuator disc, providing an answer to the third research question of how the wake behind a wind turbines changes if velocities of idealized precursor simulations are assimilated. The differences in the wake behind the wind turbine (wake deflection, wake elongation, velocity deficit) performed with the assimilated flow field in comparison to the one with the inflow of the non-assimilated pure precursor simulation, can be traced back to the differences in the horizontal mean of the inflow velocities (e.g. increase of vertical gradient of zonal and meridional flow). The wake structures (ellipsoidal in lateral cross section, wake deflection due to wind direction changing with height) are in agreement with many previous publications (e.g. Abkar et al., 2016; Vollmer et al., 2016; Bhaganagar and Debnath, 2014; Englberger and Dörnbrack, 2018). The assimilation itself did not influence these structures as it was to be expected from the fact that the vibration method only adapts the mean value of the wind speed, while attaining the turbulent 3 D structures. This result makes the vibration method suitable and attractive for wind-turbine simulations. The DWL-measurements that were used in this study were taken at a time when wind turbines were still under construction at the WiValdi windpark, so that measurement data for wind turbine wakes is 565 not available for this time in order to provide a comparative analysis with observations. A logical next step would be to extend the current work by assimilating to a profile at a time in which nacelle-based lidar wake measurements are available also (since November, 2023).

Our setup offers two advantages when compare to the setup of Allaerts et al. (2020) and Allaerts et al. (2023): Our setup has the possibility to assimilate simultaneous (time varying) measurements, as it works with open horizontal boundary conditions. 570 Further, it is basically applicable in complex terrain. Its value in these areas has to be tested in future studies, but the general requirements are fulfilled.

Appendix A: WRF Setup

The wind profiles used as target velocity profiles in Sect. 5 and Sect. 6 were extracted from a simulation performed with the WRF model version 4.4.1. A particular time period during 19.11.2021 was chosen from DWL-observations taken at the 575 research wind farm located at Krummendeich (cf. Sect. 2.3). On this day the DWL-observations showed that the conditions at the wind park represented a quasi-neutral boundary layer with nominal wind speeds at hub height of roughly 10 m s^{-1} .

The WRF simulation consists of four nested domains, with a horizontal grid spacing of 5 km, 1 km, 200 m and 40 m for domains 1-4, respectively. The domains with sub-kilometer grid spacing are run in LES mode. Vertical nesting is applied also, so that higher vertical resolution is used in the domains with higher horizontal resolution. The mean target profiles for the zonal and 580 meridional velocity used in EULAG are extracted from D4 and vertically interpolated so that there is a constant $dz = 5 \text{ m}$. Initial and boundary conditions are supplied from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) operational analyses, which has a temporal resolution of 6 h. Topography data for the LES domains are provided by the Copernicus digital

elevation model and are available at a horizontal grid spacing of 90 m and 30 m. The model top was set at about 12 km height to include tropopause effects. A 3 km upper damping layer is implemented, to restrict reflection of gravity waves. The Monin-Obukhov scheme is used to simulate the surface layer (Janjic (1996)). Additionally, the Noah-MP land-surface model (Niu et al. (2011)), the Rapid Radiative Transfer Model long-wave scheme (Mlawer et al. (1997)), the Dudhia short-wave scheme (Dudhia (1989)), the WRF single-moment five-class microphysics scheme (Hong and Lim (2006)) are used. In domains 1 and 2 the Kain–Fritsch cumulus parameterization scheme is implemented (Kain and Fritsch (1990)) and a planetary boundary scheme is used, namely the Mellor–Yamada–Janjic TKE scheme (Mellor and Yamada (1982)). In the LES domains (domains 3-4) the cumulus parameterization and planetary boundary schemes are switched off, and SGS turbulence is parameterized by a three-dimensional 1.5-order TKE closure (Deardorff (1980)). The simulations were performed for a total of 7 hours, from 12 UTC to 19 UTC on 19.11.2021.

Author contributions. All authors conceived the idea and contributed to the manuscript. LW performed the simulations and visualisation. LW and AE did the conceptual design. NW performed the DWL and MWR measurements and GK computed the WRF simulation.

Competing interests. The contact author has declared that neither of the authors has any competing interests.

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